BLAZE: Practical Lattice-Based Blind Signatures for Privacy-Preserving Applications

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Abstract. Blind signatures constitute basic cryptographic ingredients for privacy-preserving applications such as anonymous credentials, e-voting, and Bitcoin. Despite the great variety of cryptographic applications blind signatures also found their way in real-world scenarios. Due to the expected progress in cryptanalysis using quantum computers, it remains an important research question to find practical and secure alternatives to current systems based on the hardness of classical security assumptions such as factoring and computing discrete logarithms. In this work we present BLAZE: a new practical blind signature scheme from lattice assumptions. With respect to all relevant efficiency metrics BLAZE is more efficient than all previous blind signature schemes based on assumptions conjectured to withstand quantum computer attacks. For instance, at approximately 128 bits of security signatures are as small as 6.6 KB, which represents an improvement factor of 2.7 compared to all previous candidates, and an expansion factor of 2.5 compared to the NIST PQC submission Dilithium. Our software implementation demonstrates the efficiency of BLAZE to be deployed in practical applications. In particular, generating a blind signature takes just 18 ms. The running time of both key generation and verification is in the same order as state-of-the-art ordinary signature schemes.

Keywords: Blind Signatures · Lattices · Post-Quantum · Privacy

1 Introduction

Blind signature schemes allow users while interacting with a signer to generate signatures on messages such that the signer gets no information about the message being signed (*blindness*). The user in turn is not able to produce any valid signature without interacting with the signer (*one-more unforgeability*). Blind signatures were proposed by Chaum [Cha82] and have become fundamental building blocks in privacy-oriented cryptography. One of the main applications of blind signatures is anonymous credentials [BL13], which allow users to privately obtain and prove possession of credentials while revealing as little about themselves as possible. This complies with the European privacy standards [PotEU01, PotEU09] and the National Strategy for Trusted Identities in Cyberspace [Coo10]. An established real-life use case of blind signatures in anonymous credentials is the U-Prove technology [Paq13] designed by Microsoft. U-Prove is one of the technologies, to which the Microsoft's Open Specification Promise [Mic07] applies and is integrated for example by Gemalto - a leading digital security company - in its smart card technology in order to enhance privacy [Gem11]. Another application of blind signatures is e-voting [KKS17], where authorities can blindly sign public keys used by voters to anonymously cast their votes. Further applications of blind signatures include e-cash systems utilizing the Bitcoin blockchain [HBG16], where entities blindly sign digital coins withdrawn by users for selling and buying products and services over the Internet and open networks. Figure 1 illustrates a simplified anonymous payment protocol employing blind signatures.

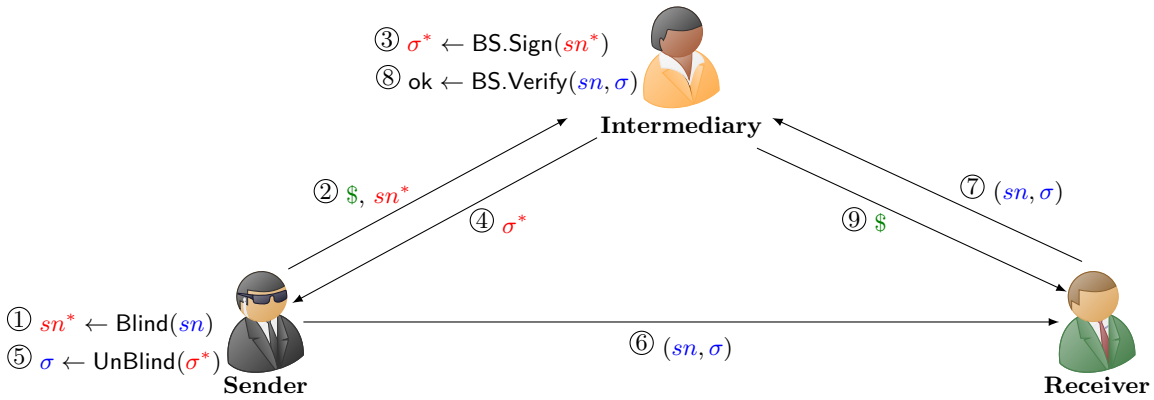

Fig. 1. A simplified protocol for anonymous transactions of digital coins. A sender $\mathcal{S}$ generates a random serial number sn, hides it using an algorithm Blind, and sends the blinded number sn^* together with a coin \$ to a trusted intermediary $\mathcal{I}$, who signs sn^* and sends its signature σ^* back to $\mathcal{S}$. Afterwards, $\mathcal{S}$ applies an algorithm UnBlind on σ^* to obtain a signature σ on sn, and proceeds by sending the pair (sn, σ) to the receiver $\mathcal{R}$. Later, $\mathcal{R}$ simply forwards (sn, σ) to $\mathcal{I}$, who verifies the validity of the signature and send \$ to $\mathcal{R}$. Privacy is established as $\mathcal{I}$ cannot link the signature σ to $\mathcal{S}$. The algorithms Blind,UnBlind are realized by any blind signature scheme.

Currently, the real-world applications mentioned above rely on classical blind signature schemes, where the security is based on the hardness of number-theoretic assumptions such as factoring large integers and computing discrete logarithms. For instance, the U-Prove protocol implemented by Gemalto employs blind signature constructions, which are secure as long as computing discrete logarithms is hard [Paq13]. As it is meanwhile known, number-theoretic assumptions are not secure for the long-term, especially when taking into account the developments of quantum computers. Consequently, these constructions have to be replaced with blind signature schemes that are comparable in terms of efficiency and are secure or at least conjectured to be secure under quantum computer attacks. More concretely, we need post-quantum candidates of blind signature schemes in order to further preserve privacy standards and anonymity considerations. While such proposals do exist [Rüc10, PSM17, BGSS17], they cannot be deployed in practical applications due to their poor performance as well as large keys and signatures (see Table 1).

1.1 Our Contributions

In this work we present a new and practical lattice-based blind signature scheme that we call BLAZE. It provides statistical blindness and strong one-more unforgeability in the random oracle model (ROM) assuming the hardness of the ring short integer solution (RSIS) problem. We provide a software implementation of BLAZE attesting its practicality and propose parameters targeting approximately 128 bits of security. Our implementation and parameters show that BLAZE is more efficient than the previous blind signature schemes [BGSS17,PSM17,Rüc10] based on assumptions believed to withstand quantum computer attacks. More precisely, at approximately the same security level BLAZE achieves significant improvement factors with respect to all efficiency metrics including key generation, signing, verification, and sizes of keys and signatures (see Table 1). The parameters used in our implementation are in the order of current state-of-the-art ordinary signature schemes such as the recent lattice-based NIST submission Dilithium [DKL+18]. For instance, a blind signature produced by BLAZE occupies only 6.6 KB of memory, which is larger by a factor of 2.5 compared to Dilithium. Furthermore, the fact that BLAZE is *strongly* one-more unforgeable (i.e., the same message may be signed arbitrary many times, which is an important feature for schemes deployed in practice), allows us to prove BLAZE in the new security model *honest-user unforgeability* recently proposed by Schröder and Unruh [SU17, Lemma 10]. It has

Table 1. Comparison of the existing blind signature schemes that are conjectured to be secure under quantum computer attacks. The table contents are adopted from Section 5, [Rüc10, Table 3], [PSM17, Table 1,2], and [BGSS17, Table 1]. We note that only the size of public keys and signatures are given in [BGSS17]. Sizes are given in kilo bytes (KB), timings in milliseconds (ms) and cycles (in parentheses). Benchmarking our parameters were carried out on an Intel Core i7-6500U, operating at 2.3 GHz and 8GB of RAM. The timings given in [Rüc10] were obtained on an AMD Opteron CPU, running at 2.3 GHz, while those given in [PSM17] were obtained on a 3.3 GHz Intel Quadcore.

Scheme	Security (bits)	Sizes			Performance		
		Secret key	Public key	Signature	Key generation	Signing	Verification
BLAZE (this work)	113	0.8	3.9	6.6	0.1 (204, 671)	17.8 (35, 547, 397)	0.1 (276, 210)
[Rüc10]	102	23.6	23.6	89.4	52	283	57
[PSM17]	102	36.6	54.6	17.6	9392	3662	2656
[BGSS17]	100	-	15	200	-	-	-

been shown to be more convenient for blind signature schemes as it removes certain types of attacks not captured in the traditional security model of blind signatures due to Pointcheval and Stern [PS00].

1.2 Our Techniques

In order to give an overview of our techniques, it is instructive to sketch the signing protocol of the blind signature scheme introduced by Rückert [Rüc10] at ASIACRYPT 2010 (RBS), since it is also lattice-based. RBS is one-more unforgeable in the ROM assuming the hardness of RSIS. Its complete description can be found in Appendix A. A signature generated by RBS has the form $(\mathbf{r}, \hat{c}, \hat{\mathbf{z}})$, where $\mathbf{r}$ is a bit string, $\hat{c}$ is output by a random oracle H, and $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ is a vector of polynomials with bounded coefficients. The signing protocol works as follows: Upon receiving a "commitment" from the signer $\mathcal{S}$, the user $\mathcal{U}$ computes and blinds $\hat{c}$. This is accomplished by computing $\hat{c}^* = \hat{c} - \hat{u}$ for some random secret element $\hat{u}$ and applying rejection sampling on $\hat{c}^*$ to make sure that it masks $\hat{c}$. If this is not the case, $\mathcal{U}$ selects a new $\hat{u}$ and repeats until success and then proceeds by sending $\hat{c}^*$ to $\mathcal{S}$. Subsequently, $\mathcal{S}$ responds with a vector $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$ only after carrying out rejection sampling on this vector and making sure that it does not leak information about the secret key, otherwise $\mathcal{S}$ restarts the protocol. Then, $\mathcal{U}$ transforms this response into the vector $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$. Here, $\mathcal{U}$ applies rejection sampling in order to further maintain blindness. More precisely, the vector $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$ must be concealed within $\hat{\mathbf{z}} = \hat{\mathbf{z}}^* - \hat{\mathbf{v}}$, where $\hat{\mathbf{v}}$ is a uniform random masking vector chosen by $\mathcal{U}$. Finally, $\mathcal{U}$ sends a signal to $\mathcal{S}$. This signal is either an ok message or it includes a proof of failure, which allows $\mathcal{S}$ to verify that no valid signature has been obtained by $\mathcal{U}$ in case the last rejection sampling step has been failed and it further indicates that a protocol restart is required. In addition, the protocol employs statistically hiding and computationally binding commitments to ensure blindness and one-more unforgeability over restarts. In other words, $\mathcal{U}$ signs a commitment to the message, using a randomness $\mathbf{r}$, instead of the message itself and reveals its opening along with the signature.

The goal of our new design in BLAZE is to improve all relevant sizes and running times as well as security. Our observation is that removing the first rejection sampling procedure carried out by $\mathcal{U}$ constitutes the main measure towards achieving this goal. This is established in BLAZE via a new kind of *partitioning and permutation* technique, which may be of independent interest. It works as follows: Rather than subtracting the masking term $\hat{u}$ from $\hat{c}$, we use signed rotation polynomials for masking. The resulting elements still lie in the range of H and are randomized by rotation. Here, it is crucial for H to output elements with exactly κ entries from $\{\pm 1\}$ and $n - \kappa$ entries equal to zero, where n is the number of entries. A random element with entries in other sets may still leak information even after rotation. More formally, let $R = \mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle x^n + 1\rangle$ and $\hat{p}_j \in R$ (for $j = 1, \ldots, \kappa$) be signed

rotation polynomials, i.e., they have the form $\pm x^i$ for some $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. We split the output $\hat{c}$ of H into κ signed rotation polynomials $\hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa$. These polynomials have each a coefficient from $\{\pm 1\}$ and degree at most $n-1$. Then, we "permute" each part $\hat{c}_j$ using one of the secret polynomials $\hat{p}_j^{-1}$. The resulting elements $\hat{c}_j^*$ will then be signed by $\mathcal{S}$ to $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$. In order for the final signature (output by $\mathcal{U}$) to be successfully verified, we must account for the partitioning and rotation. That is, multiplying the entries of $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$ each with $\hat{p}_j$ and summing them up with secret masking terms yields the signature part $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$. This technique does not only remove one rejection sampling step, it also ensures shorter signatures and speeds up the remaining two rejection sampling procedures. This is because the norm bound of $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$ and consequently $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ becomes significantly smaller. In RBS, the element $\hat{c}^*$ has entries bounded by $n-1$ and hence, the masking term used to compute $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$ must be large enough to hide the secret term. Consequently, the same must apply to the masking term used to compute $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ and hide $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$. In BLAZE, however, smaller masking terms can be used to compute $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$ and $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$, since each $\hat{c}_j^*$ has the norm 1, for $j = 1, \ldots, \kappa$. We note that κ is much smaller than n and selected such that H provides enough security.

In case the last rejection sampling procedure fails, we take a similar approach to RBS and design a proof of failure allowing $\mathcal{U}$ to convince $\mathcal{S}$ that no valid signature has been obtained and hence letting $\mathcal{S}$ restart the protocol. This proof includes all secret elements generated by $\mathcal{U}$ during signing. In order to still ensure statistical blindness, $\mathcal{U}$ signs a commitment τ to the message rather than the message itself and includes its opening in the final signature. The binding property of τ preserves the strong one-more unforgeability.

1.3 Related work

In addition to RBS, there are other lattice-based constructions of blind signatures found in literature. However, we show in Appendix B that they are insecure. More precisely, we show for the proposal in [ZTZ+17] how the secret key can simply be recovered already after two executions of its signing protocol. For the remaining schemes [CCT+11,ZM14,ZH16,GHWX16,GHW+17] we show that any user is able to solve the underlying lattice problem in just one execution of the signing protocol. Concerning lattice-based constructions, this leaves us with the scheme RBS. Other post-quantum blind signature schemes that we are aware of is the multivariate-based one from [PSM17] and the code-based one proposed in [BGSS17]. Table 1 shows that BLAZE is more efficient than those schemes in terms of all efficiency metrics.

1.4 Outline

In Section 2 we give the background required throughout this work. Then, we present in Section 3 our new blind signature scheme BLAZE. Afterwards, we describe in Section 4 our software implementation of the new scheme. Then, we propose in Section 5 concrete parameters and compare BLAZE with the schemes [BGSS17, PSM17, Rüc10]. Finally, we give a conclusion and discuss possible future directions in Section 6.

2 Preliminaries

This section covers the necessary background required throughout this work. First, we give some general notation. Then, we formally define blind signature schemes and their security properties in Section 2.1. Finally, we define lattices and the required lattice problems in Section 2.2.

Notation. We let $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}$ denote the set of natural numbers, integers, and real numbers, respectively. For a positive integer k, we let $[k]$ denote the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, k\}$. We denote column vectors with bold

lower-case letters and matrices with bold upper-case letters. For any positive integer q, we write $\mathbb{Z}_q$ to denote the set of integers in the range $[-\frac{q}{2}, \frac{q}{2}) \cap \mathbb{Z}$. The Euclidean norm ($\ell_2$-norm) of a vector $\mathbf{v}$ with entries v_i is defined as $\|\mathbf{v}\| = (\sum_i |v_i|^2)^{1/2}$, and its ℓ_∞-norm as $\|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty = \max_i |v_i|$. We define the ring $R = \mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle x^n + 1\rangle$ and its quotient $R_q = R/qR$, where n is power of 2. A ring element $a_0 + a_1 x + \ldots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} \in R_q$ is denoted by $\hat{a}$ and it corresponds to a vector $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ via coefficient embedding. Hence, $\|\hat{a}\| = \|\mathbf{a}\|$ and $\|\hat{a}\|_\infty = \|\mathbf{a}\|_\infty$. We write $\hat{\mathbf{a}} = (\hat{a}_1, \ldots, \hat{a}_k) \in R_q^k$ to denote a vector of ring elements. The norms of $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ are defined by $\|\hat{\mathbf{a}}\| = (\sum_{i=1}^k \|\hat{a}_i\|^2)^{1/2}$ and $\|\hat{\mathbf{a}}\|_\infty = \max_i \|\hat{a}_i\|_\infty$. We let $\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$ denote the set of all $(n-1)$-degree polynomials with coefficients from $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ and Hamming Weight κ. All logarithms in this work are to base 2, and we always denote the security parameter by $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. A function $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ is called *negligible* if there exists an $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n > n_0$, it holds $f(n) < \frac{1}{p(n)}$ for any polynomial p. With $\mathrm{negl}(\lambda)$ we denote a negligible function in λ. A probability is called overwhelming if it is at least $1 - \mathrm{negl}(\lambda)$. The *statistical distance* between two distributions X, Y over a countable domain D is defined by $\frac{1}{2}\sum_n |X(n) - Y(n)|$. We write $x \leftarrow D$ to denote that x is sampled according to a distribution D. By $x \leftarrow\!\!\$\ S$ we denote that x is assigned a uniform random element from a finite set S. For two algorithms $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$ we write $(x, y) \leftarrow \langle \mathcal{A}(a), \mathcal{B}(b)\rangle$ to describe the joint execution of $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ in an interactive protocol with private inputs a for $\mathcal{A}$ and b for $\mathcal{B}$ as well as private outputs x for $\mathcal{A}$ and y for $\mathcal{B}$. Accordingly, we write $\mathcal{A}^{\langle \cdot, \mathcal{B}(b)\rangle^k}(a)$ if $\mathcal{A}$ can invoke up to k executions of the protocol with $\mathcal{B}$.

2.1 Blind Signatures and their Security

Definition 1 (Blind Signature Scheme). *A blind signature scheme BS is a tuple of polynomial-time algorithms BS=($\mathsf{BS.KGen}$,$\mathsf{BS.Sign}$,$\mathsf{BS.Verify}$) such that:*

- $\mathsf{BS.KGen}(1^\lambda)$ *is a key generation algorithm that outputs a pair of keys (pk,sk), where pk is a public key and sk is a secret key.*
- $\mathsf{BS.Sign}(\mathsf{sk}, \mathsf{pk}, \mu)$ *is an interactive protocol between a signer $\mathcal{S}$ and a user $\mathcal{U}$. The input of $\mathcal{S}$ is a secret key sk, whereas the input of $\mathcal{U}$ is a public key pk and a message $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$, where $\mathcal{M}$ is the message space. The output of $\mathcal{S}$ is a view $\mathcal{V}$ (interpreted as a random variable) and the output of $\mathcal{U}$ is a signature σ, i.e., $(\mathcal{V}, \sigma) \leftarrow \langle \mathcal{S}(\mathsf{sk}), \mathcal{U}(\mathsf{pk}, \mu)\rangle$. We write $\sigma = \perp$ to denote failure.*
- $\mathsf{BS.Verify}(\mathsf{pk}, \mu, \sigma)$ *is a verification algorithm that outputs 1 if the signature σ is valid and 0 otherwise.*

Blind signature schemes require the completeness property, i.e., $\mathsf{BS.Verify}$ always (or with overwhelming probability) validates honestly signed messages under honestly created keys. Security of blind signatures is captured by two security notions: blindness and one-more unforgeability [JLO97, PS00]. The former prevents a malicious signer to learn information about user's messages. The latter ensures that each completed execution of $\mathsf{BS.Sign}$ yields at most one signature.

Definition 2 (Blindness). *A blind signature scheme BS is called (t, ε)-blind if for any adversarial signer $\mathcal{S}^*$ running in time at most t and working in modes find, issue, and guess, the game $\mathsf{Blind}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{S}^*}(\lambda)$ depicted in Figure 2 outputs 1 with probability $\Pr[\mathsf{Blind}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{S}^*}(\lambda) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$, i.e., the advantage of $\mathcal{S}^*$ in the game is given by $\varepsilon = \mathrm{Adv}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{S}^*}(\lambda) = \left|\Pr[b^* = b] - \frac{1}{2}\right|$. The scheme is statistically blind if it is $(t = \infty, \varepsilon = \mathrm{negl}(\lambda))$-blind.*

In the game $\mathsf{Blind}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{S}^*}(\lambda)$, $\mathcal{S}^*$ runs $(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{sk}) \leftarrow \mathsf{BS.KGen}(1^\lambda)$. Then, it chooses two messages μ_0, μ_1 in mode find and sends them along with pk to the honest user $\mathcal{U}$, who randomly chooses a bit b. After that, $\mathsf{BS.Sign}$ is executed twice between $\mathcal{S}^*$ (working in mode issue) and $\mathcal{U}$. Depending on b, $\mathcal{U}$ outputs signatures σ_b, σ_{1-b} in the first and second interaction, respectively. In mode guess, $\mathcal{S}^*$ obtains σ_0, σ_1

Game $\mathsf{Blind}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{S}^*}(\lambda)$

$(\mathsf{pk}, \mu_0, \mu_1, \mathsf{state}_{\mathsf{find}}) \leftarrow \mathcal{S}^*(\mathsf{find}, 1^\lambda)$
$b \leftarrow_\$ \{0,1\}$
$\mathsf{state}_{\mathsf{issue}} \leftarrow \mathcal{S}^{*\langle\cdot,\mathcal{U}(\mathsf{pk},\mu_b)\rangle^1,\langle\cdot,\mathcal{U}(\mathsf{pk},\mu_{1-b})\rangle^1}(\mathsf{issue}, \mathsf{state}_{\mathsf{find}})$
$\sigma_b := \mathcal{U}(\mathsf{pk}, \mu_b), \sigma_{1-b} := \mathcal{U}(\mathsf{pk}, \mu_{1-b})$
if $(\sigma_0 = \bot \ \vee \ \sigma_1 = \bot)$ **then**
  $(\bot, \bot) \leftarrow (\sigma_0, \sigma_1)$
$b^* \leftarrow \mathcal{S}^*(\mathsf{guess}, \sigma_0, \sigma_1, \mathsf{state}_{\mathsf{issue}})$
if $b^* = b$ **then**
  return 1
return 0

Game $\mathsf{Forge}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{U}^*}(\lambda)$

$(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{sk}) \leftarrow \mathsf{BS.KGen}(1^\lambda)$
$\mathsf{H} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}(1^\lambda)$
$((\mu_1, \sigma_1), \ldots, (\mu_l, \sigma_l)) \leftarrow \mathcal{U}^{*\mathsf{H}(\cdot),\langle\mathcal{S}(\mathsf{sk}),\cdot\rangle^\infty}(\mathsf{pk})$
$k :=$ number of successful signing invocations
if $\big(\mu_i \neq \mu_j$ for all $1 \leq i < j \leq l \ \wedge$
  $\mathsf{BS.Verify}(\mathsf{pk}, \mu_i, \sigma_i) = 1, \forall i \in [l] \ \wedge$
  $k + 1 = l\big)$ **then**
  return 1
return 0

Fig. 2. Security games of blindness and one-more unforgeability.

in the original order and has to decide which of the two messages has been signed first. We note that this must hold even if $\mathcal{S}^*$ chooses the public key maliciously [ANN06]. If $\mathcal{U}$ outputs $\bot$ in one of both executions, then $\mathcal{S}^*$ is informed about the failure and does not get any signature.

Definition 3 (One-more Unforgeability). *Let $\mathcal{H}$ be a family of random oracles. A blind signature scheme BS is called $(t, q_{\mathsf{Sign}}, q_{\mathsf{H}}, \varepsilon)$-one-more unforgeable in the random oracle model if for any adversarial user $\mathcal{U}^*$ running in time at most t and making at most q_{Sign}, q_{H} signing and hash queries, the game $\mathsf{Forge}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{U}^*}(\lambda)$ depicted in Figure 2 outputs 1 with probability $\Pr[\mathsf{Forge}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{U}^*}(\lambda) = 1] \leq \varepsilon$. The scheme is strongly $(t, q_{\mathsf{Sign}}, q_{\mathsf{H}}, \varepsilon)$-one-more unforgeable if the condition $\mu_i \neq \mu_j$ in the game changes to $(\mu_i, \sigma_i) \neq (\mu_j, \sigma_j)$ for all $1 \leq i < j \leq l$.*

In the game $\mathsf{Forge}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{U}^*}(\lambda)$, $\mathcal{U}^*$ tries to output $k+1$ valid pairs (μ_i, σ_i), for $i \in [k+1]$, after at most k successful interactions with $\mathcal{S}$.

2.2 Lattices and Gaussians

Let $\mathbf{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_k\} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$ be a set of linearly independent vectors, where $k \leq m$. The m-dimensional *lattice* $\mathcal{L}$ of rank k generated by $\mathbf{B}$ is given by $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{B}) = \{\mathbf{Bx} \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^k\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$. If $m = k$, then $\mathcal{L}$ is *full-rank*. The *determinant* of $\mathcal{L}$, denoted by $\det(\mathcal{L})$, is given by $\sqrt{\det(\mathbf{B}^\top \cdot \mathbf{B})}$, where $\mathbf{B}$ is any basis of $\mathcal{L}$.

The *discrete Gaussian distribution* $D_{\mathcal{L},\sigma,\mathbf{c}}$ over a lattice $\mathcal{L}$ with standard deviation $\sigma > 0$ and center $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined as follows: The probability of any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}$ is given by $D_{\mathcal{L},\sigma,\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{x}) = \rho_{\sigma,\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{x})/\rho_{\sigma,\mathbf{c}}(\mathcal{L})$, where $\rho_{\sigma,\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{x}) = \exp(\frac{-\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{c}\|^2}{2\sigma^2})$ and $\rho_{\sigma,\mathbf{c}}(\mathcal{L}) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathcal{L}} \rho_{\sigma,\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{x})$. The subscript $\mathbf{c}$ is taken to be $\mathbf{0}$ when omitted. Sampling from $D_{\mathcal{L},\sigma}$ using a specified randomness ρ is denoted by $D_{\mathcal{L},\sigma}(\rho)$.

The following two lemmas are used throughout this work. The first one gives a tail bound on Gaussian distributed elements, while the second one concerns rejection sampling.

Lemma 1 ([Lyu12, Lemma 4.4]). *For any $t, \eta > 0$ we have*

1. $\Pr_{x \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z},\sigma}}[|x| > t \cdot \sigma] \leq 2\exp(-t^2/2)$.
2. $\Pr_{\mathbf{x} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^m,\sigma}}[\|\mathbf{x}\| > \eta\sigma\sqrt{m}] \leq \eta^m \exp(\frac{m}{2}(1-\eta^2))$.

Lemma 2 ([Lyu12, Theorem 4.6, Lemma 4.7]). *Let $V \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^m$ with elements having norms bounded by T, $\sigma = \omega(T\sqrt{\log m})$, and $h : V \to \mathbb{R}$ be a probability distribution. Then there exists a constant*

$M = O(1)$ such that $\forall \mathbf{v} \in V : \Pr[D_{\mathbb{Z}^m,\sigma}(\mathbf{z}) \leq M \cdot D_{\mathbb{Z}^m,\sigma,\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{z});\ \mathbf{z} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^m,\sigma}] \geq 1-\varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon = 2^{-\omega(\log m)}$. Furthermore, the following two algorithms are within statistical distance $\delta = \varepsilon/M$.

1. *$\mathbf{v} \leftarrow h,\ \mathbf{z} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^m,\sigma,\mathbf{v}}$, output $(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{v})$ with probability $\frac{D_{\mathbb{Z}^m,\sigma}(\mathbf{z})}{M \cdot D_{\mathbb{Z}^m,\sigma,\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{z})}$.*
2. *$\mathbf{v} \leftarrow h,\ \mathbf{z} \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^m,\sigma}$, output $(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{v})$ with probability $1/M$.*

Moreover, the probability that the first algorithm outputs something is at least $(1-\varepsilon)/M$. If $\sigma = \alpha T$ for any positive α, then $M = \exp(\frac{12}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{2\alpha^2})$ with $\varepsilon = 2^{-100}$.

We let $\mathsf{RejSamp}(x)$ denote an algorithm that carries out rejection sampling on input x. It outputs 1 if it accepts and 0 otherwise. We write $\mathsf{RejSamp}(x; r)$ to specify the randomness r used within the algorithm. In the following we define the related lattice problem.

Definition 4 (Ring Short Integer Solution (RSIS) Problem). *Let n, q, m be positive integers and β a positive real. Given a uniformly random vector $\hat{\mathbf{a}} = (\hat{a}_1, \ldots, \hat{a}_m) \in R_q^m$, the Hermite Normal Form of the RSIS problem asks to find a non-zero vector $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\hat{\mathbf{x}}', \hat{x}_{m+1}) = (\hat{x}_1, \ldots, , \hat{x}_m, \hat{x}_{m+1}) \in R^{m+1}$ such that $\|\hat{\mathbf{x}}\| \leq \beta$ and $[\hat{\mathbf{a}}\ 1] \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{x}}' + \hat{x}_{m+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{a}_i \hat{x}_i + \hat{x}_{m+1} = 0 \pmod q$.*

Any instance I of RSIS is called (t, ε)-hard if any algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ running in time at most t can solve I with probability ε.

3 BLAZE: The New Blind Signature Scheme

In this section we present BLAZE: our new and practical blind signature scheme. It is statistically blind and strongly one-more unforgeable in the ROM. As opposed to RBS, BLAZE has to pass 2 rejection sampling procedures rather than 3; one is performed by the signer to conceal the secret key and one by the user to achieve blindness. That is, we remove one rejection sampling step from the user side by splitting the output of the random oracle generated by the user into monomials with entries from $\{-1, 1\}$ and permuting them using secret monomials with entries from $\{-1, 1\}$ as well.

We first introduce new tools and technical lemmas employed within BLAZE.

Definition 5. *Define by $\hat{\mathbb{T}} = \left\{(-1)^s \cdot x^i \mid \text{for } s \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } i \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ the set of signed permutation polynomials which represent a rotation multiplied by a sign.*

Lemma 3. *Let $\hat{p} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ with $\hat{p} = (-1)^s \cdot x^i$ for some $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $s \in \{0, 1\}$. Then, $\hat{\mathbb{T}}$ is a group with respect to multiplication in R and the inverse of $\hat{p}$ is given by $\hat{p}^{-1} = (-1)^{1-s} \cdot x^{n-i} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$.*

Proof. Let $\hat{p}_1 = (-1)^{s_1} \cdot x^{i_1},\ \hat{p}_2 = (-1)^{s_2} \cdot x^{i_2} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$, then $\hat{p}_1 \cdot \hat{p}_2 = (-1)^{s_1+s_2} \cdot x^{i_1+i_2} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$. A simple calculation shows that $\hat{p} \cdot \hat{p}^{-1} = (-1)^s \cdot x^i \cdot (-1)^{1-s} \cdot x^{n-i} = -x^n \equiv 1 \bmod \langle x^n + 1 \rangle$. Thus, every $\hat{p} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ has an inverse $\hat{p}^{-1} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ and the neutral element is given by the constant polynomial 1. □

The following lemma shows that splitting any element from $\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$ into partitions and multiplying them by signed rotation polynomials yields new rotations independently distributed from the initial element. This will be used in the proof of blindness.

Lemma 4. *Let $\hat{c} \in \mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$ and $\hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa$ be a partition of $\hat{c}$ such that $\hat{c} = \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{c}_j$ and each $\hat{c}_j$ contains exactly the j^{th} non-zero entry of $\hat{c}$ at exactly the same position. Furthermore, let $\hat{c}_j^* = \hat{p}_j^{-1}\hat{c}_j$ for random signed rotations $\hat{p}_1, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$. Then, $\hat{c}_j^*, \hat{c}_j \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ and we have*

$$\Pr_{\hat{p}_j \leftarrow_\$ \hat{\mathbb{T}}}[(\hat{c}_1^*, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa^*) = (\hat{p}_1^{-1}\hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa^{-1}\hat{c}_\kappa) \mid \hat{c}] \quad = \tag{1a}$$

$$\Pr_{\hat{p}_j \leftarrow_\$ \hat{\mathbb{T}}, \hat{c} \leftarrow_\$ \mathbb{T}_\kappa^n}[(\hat{c}_1^*, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa^*) = (\hat{p}_1^{-1}\hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa^{-1}\hat{c}_\kappa)] = (2n)^{-\kappa} \tag{1b}$$

Proof. For any partitioning we have $\hat{c}_j \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$, since it contains only one ± 1 at exactly the same position as $\hat{c}$. Furthermore, each $\hat{c}_j \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ can be transformed into any element of $\hat{\mathbb{T}}$ via a signed rotation $\hat{p} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$, hence $\hat{c}_j^* \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$.

Let $\hat{c}$ be any element from $\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$ and $\hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa$ be any partition of $\hat{c}$. Then, for any fixed $\hat{c}_j^* \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ there exists exactly one set of elements $\hat{p}_1^{-1}, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa^{-1} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ such that $\hat{c}_1^* = \hat{p}_1^{-1}\hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa^* = \hat{p}_\kappa^{-1}\hat{c}_\kappa$. Thus, probability (1a) evaluates to $(2n)^{-\kappa}$. Next we recall that for any fixed $\hat{c}_j^*, \hat{c}_j \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ there exists exactly one $\hat{p}_j \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ for each $j = 1, \ldots, \kappa$ such that $\hat{c}_j^* = \hat{p}_j^{-1}\hat{c}_j$. Thus, probability (1b) evaluates to

$$\sum_{\hat{c} \in \mathbb{T}_\kappa^n} \Pr_{\hat{p}_j \leftarrow_\$ \hat{\mathbb{T}}}[(\hat{c}_1^*, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa^*) = (\hat{p}_1^{-1}\hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa^{-1}\hat{c}_\kappa) \mid \hat{c}] \cdot \Pr[\hat{c}] = (2n)^{-\kappa} \ .$$

□

In the following we give a detailed description of our new blind signature scheme BLAZE. We let Expand be a public random function on λ-bit strings (e.g., a pseudorandom number generator). It takes a uniform random seed from $\{0,1\}^\lambda$ as input and expands it to any desired length. This function is solely used for saving bandwidth as it is deterministic, i.e., given some input it always generates the same output. We let $\mathsf{H} : \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$ be a public hash function modeled as a random oracle. We further let $\mathsf{Com} : \{0,1\}^* \times \{0,1\}^\lambda \to \{0,1\}^\lambda$ be a statistically hiding and computationally binding commitment function. Finally, we let Compress and Decompress be functions for (de)compressing Gaussian elements (see Section 4 for description). The respective algorithms of BLAZE are formally described in Figure 3.

Key Generation.
Given 1^λ the algorithm chooses a uniform random $\mathsf{seed} \in \{0,1\}^\lambda$ and expands it to a vector $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \in R_q^m$ using Expand. The secret key is given by $\mathsf{sk} = (\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1, \hat{s}_2)$, which is sampled from $D_{\mathbb{Z}^n,\sigma}^m \times D_{\mathbb{Z}^n,\sigma}$. The public key is set to $\mathsf{pk} = (\mathsf{seed}, \hat{b} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1 + \hat{s}_2 \pmod q)$.

Signing.
Given sk, seed, and a message μ the signer $\mathcal{S}$ samples the masking terms $(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{j,1}^*, \hat{y}_{j,2}^*)$ from $D_{\mathbb{Z}^n,s^*}^m \times D_{\mathbb{Z}^n,s^*}$ for $j \in [\kappa]$ and sends $\hat{y}_j = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{j,1}^* + \hat{y}_{j,2}^* \pmod q$ to the user $\mathcal{U}$.

Upon receiving $\hat{y}_1, \ldots, \hat{y}_\kappa$, $\mathcal{U}$ computes the commitments $\tau = \mathsf{Com}(\mu; \mathbf{r})$, $\tau' = \mathsf{Com}(\rho'; \mathbf{r}')$, where $\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}', \rho'$ are selected uniformly random from $\{0,1\}^\lambda$. Then, it expands seed to the vector $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ using the function Expand and selects uniformly random elements $\hat{p}_1, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$. Furthermore, $\mathcal{U}$ samples a pair $(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1, \hat{e}_2)$ from $D_{\mathbb{Z}^n,s}^m \times D_{\mathbb{Z}^n,s}$ using a randomness $\rho \in \{0,1\}^\lambda$, which is used to reduce the communication complexity, i.e., a proof of failure sent by $\mathcal{U}$ (see below) includes only ρ rather than the pair $(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1, \hat{e}_2)$. Then, $\mathcal{U}$ generates $\hat{c} = \mathsf{H}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_i\hat{y}_i \pmod q, \tau', \tau) \in \mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$. Subsequently, $\mathcal{U}$ splits $\hat{c}$ into partitions $\hat{c}_1, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ such that $\hat{c} = \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{c}_j$ and the j^{th} partition $\hat{c}_j$ contains the j^{th} non-zero entry of $\hat{c}$ at exactly the same position. Afterwards, $\mathcal{U}$ masks each partition $\hat{c}_j$ by computing $\hat{c}_j^* = \hat{p}_j^{-1} \cdot \hat{c}_j$ for all $j \in [\kappa]$. Then, $\mathcal{U}$ sends $\hat{c}_1^*, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa^*$ to $\mathcal{S}$.

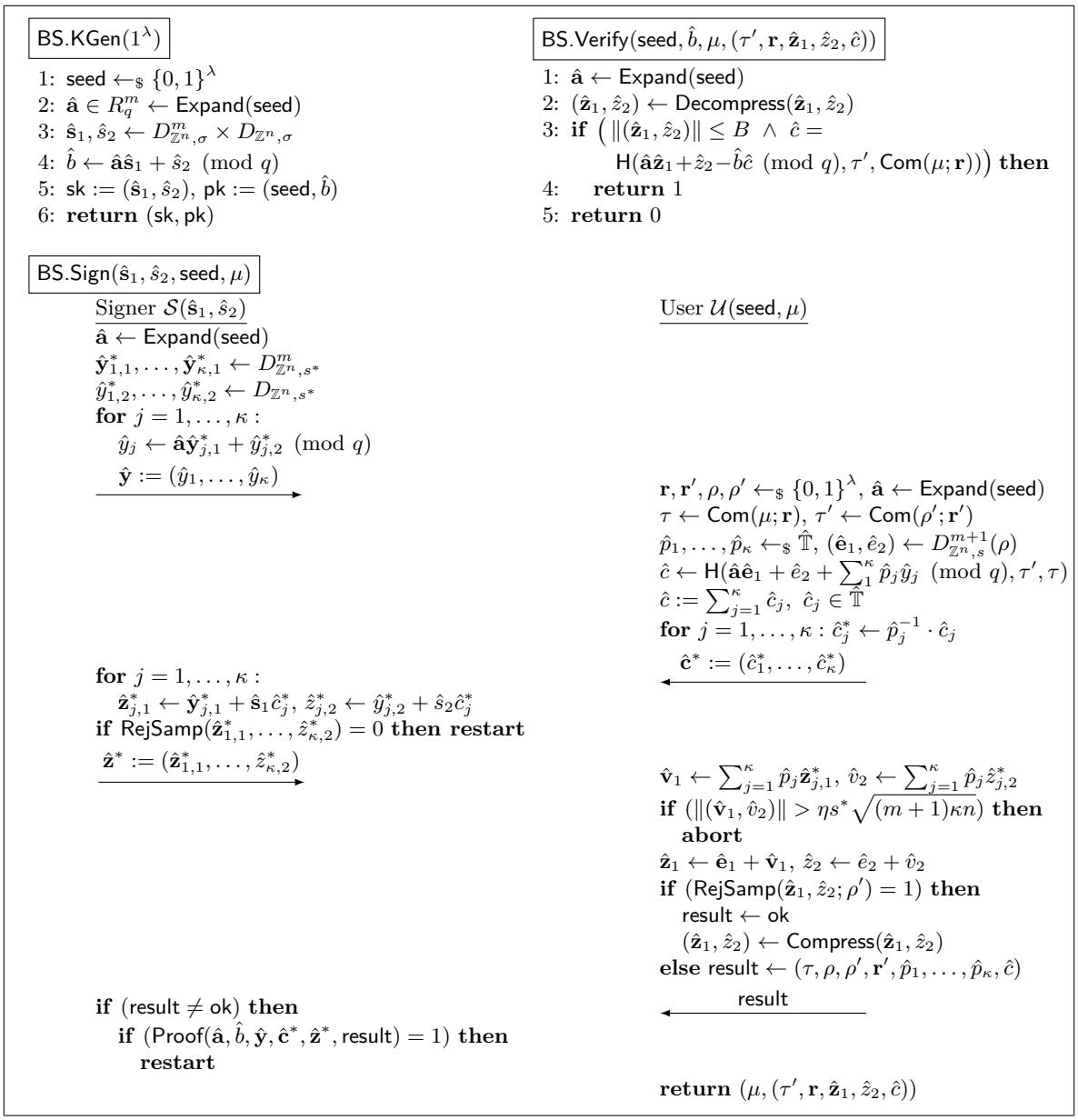

Fig. 3. A formal description of the new blind signature scheme BLAZE.

Using the partitions $\hat{c}^*_j$, $\mathcal{S}$ computes $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{j,1} = \hat{\mathbf{y}}^*_{j,1} + \hat{\mathbf{s}}_1\hat{c}^*_j$ and $\hat{z}^*_{j,2} = \hat{y}^*_{j,2} + \hat{s}_2\hat{c}^*_j$. Subsequently, $\mathcal{S}$ applies rejection sampling on $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{j,1}, \hat{z}^*_{j,2})$ to make sure that they do not leak information about sk. If RejSamp outputs 1, $\mathcal{S}$ sends $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{j,1}, \hat{z}^*_{j,2})$ to $\mathcal{U}$, otherwise $\mathcal{S}$ restarts the protocol.

Upon receiving $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{j,1}, \hat{z}^*_{j,2})$, for $j \in [\kappa]$, $\mathcal{U}$ computes $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1 = \sum_{j=1}^\kappa \hat{p}_j\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{j,1}$, $\hat{v}_2 = \sum_{j=1}^\kappa \hat{p}_j\hat{z}^*_{j,2}$ and checks that $\|(\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1, \hat{v}_2)\|$ is bounded by $\eta s^* \sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n}$. This check rules out malicious signers and ensures that the generated signatures are valid and blind. This check can be skipped in applications with trustworthy signers. In order for the verification to succeed, the pair $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)$ that will be output by $\mathcal{U}$ must be brought into the form $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 = \hat{\mathbf{y}}^*_1 + \hat{\mathbf{s}}_1\hat{c}, \hat{z}_2 = \hat{y}^*_2 + \hat{s}_2\hat{c}$, for some $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^*_1, \hat{y}^*_2$. This is attained by

$\mathsf{Proof}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{b}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}, \hat{\mathbf{c}}^*, \hat{\mathbf{z}}^*, \mathsf{result})$

$\hat{\mathbf{y}} := (\hat{y}_1, \ldots, \hat{y}_\kappa)$, $\hat{\mathbf{c}}^* := (\hat{c}_1^*, \ldots, \hat{c}_\kappa^*)$, $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^* := (\hat{\mathbf{z}}_{1,1}^*, \ldots, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_{\kappa,1}^*, \hat{z}_{1,2}^*, \ldots, \hat{z}_{\kappa,2}^*)$
$\mathsf{result} := (\tau, \rho, \rho', \mathbf{r}', \hat{p}_1, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa, \hat{c})$
$\tau' \leftarrow \mathsf{Com}(\rho'; \mathbf{r}')$, $(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1, \hat{e}_2) \leftarrow D_{\mathbb{Z}^n, s}^{m+1}(\rho)$
$\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 \leftarrow \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{\mathbf{z}}_{j,1}^*$, $\hat{z}_2 \leftarrow \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{z}_{j,2}^*$
if $\Big(\sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{c}_j^* = \hat{c} = \mathsf{H}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{y}_j \pmod q, \tau', \tau) \wedge \hat{c} = \mathsf{H}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 + \hat{z}_2 - \hat{b}\hat{c} \pmod q, \tau', \tau) \wedge \mathsf{RejSamp}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2; \rho') = 0 \Big)$ **then**
    return 1
return 0

Fig. 4. The algorithm carried out by the signer in order to verify the proof of failure (see Figure 3).

multiplying $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_{j,1}^*, \hat{z}_{j,2}^*$ with $\hat{p}_j$, summing them up together with the masking terms $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1, \hat{e}_2$, and applying $\mathsf{RejSamp}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2; \rho')$ to ensure that $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_{j,1}^*, \hat{z}_{j,2}^*$ are concealed. Thus, $\mathcal{U}$ must already have taken this into account via the input to H. In fact, we must have $\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{y}}_1^* + \hat{y}_2^* = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{y}_j \pmod q$. Therefore, $\mathcal{U}$ sets $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 = \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{\mathbf{z}}_{j,1}^*$ and $\hat{z}_2 = \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{z}_{j,2}^*$. Finally, $\mathcal{U}$ compresses $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)$ using the function $\mathsf{Compress}$ and sends $\mathsf{result} = \mathsf{ok}$ to $\mathcal{S}$. The signature is given by the tuple $(\tau', \mathbf{r}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2, \hat{c})$. If $\mathsf{RejSamp}$ outputs 0, $\mathcal{U}$ sends $\mathcal{S}$ a proof of failure by setting $\mathsf{result} = (\tau, \rho, \rho', \mathbf{r}', \hat{p}_1, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa, \hat{c})$. In this case $\mathcal{S}$ verifies that $\mathcal{U}$ has indeed not obtained a valid signature (see Figure 4), and restarts the protocol.

Note that in order to verify that the rejection sampling process applied on $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)$ does not accept using some randomness, $\mathcal{S}$ requires the randomness ρ' used by $\mathcal{U}$ for which $\mathsf{RejSamp}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2; \rho') = 0$. Therefore, ρ' must be part of the proof of failure. However, it cannot be part of the signature, since it may leak information about the secret terms involved in computing $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2$. This is why $\mathcal{U}$ computes a commitment τ' to ρ' and involves τ' in the computation of $\hat{c}$ in order to preserve security, hence τ' is also included in the signature to allow verification.

Verification.
On input $(\mathsf{seed}, \hat{b}, \mu, (\tau', \mathbf{r}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2, \hat{c}))$ the verifier uses Expand to compute $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ out of seed, decompresses $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)$ using $\mathsf{Decompress}$. It accepts if and only if $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)\|$ is smaller than some predefined bound B and the output of H on $\big(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 + \hat{z}_2 - \hat{b}\hat{c} \pmod q, \tau', \mathsf{Com}(\mu; \mathbf{r})\big)$ is equal to $\hat{c}$.

In the following, we prove completeness, blindness, and strong one-more unforgeability of BLAZE.

Theorem 1 (Completeness). *Let Com be a statistically hiding and computationally binding commitment function. Let $\alpha^*, \alpha, \eta > 0$, $s^* = \alpha^* \sqrt{\kappa} \cdot \|(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1, \hat{s}_2)\|$, $s = \eta\alpha\sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n} s^*$, and $B = \eta s \sqrt{(m+1)n}$. After at most $M = M_{\mathcal{S}} \cdot M_{\mathcal{U}}$ repetitions, any blind signature produced by BLAZE is validated with probability at least $1 - 2^{-\lambda}$, where $M_{\mathcal{S}} = \exp(\frac{12}{\alpha^*} + \frac{1}{2\alpha^{*2}})$ and $M_{\mathcal{U}} = \exp(\frac{12}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{2\alpha^2})$ are the expected number of repetitions by the signer and user, respectively.*

Proof. For an honestly generated signature $(\tau', \mathbf{r}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2, \hat{c})$, the pair $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)$ is distributed according to $D_{\mathbb{Z}^n, s}^{m+1}$ and bounded by $\eta s \sqrt{(m+1)n} = B$ with probability $1 - \eta^{(m+1)n} \exp(\frac{(m+1)n}{2}(1 - \eta^2))$ (see Lemma 1). By a suitable choice of η we obtain $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)\| \leq B$ with probability $1 - 2^{-\lambda}$.

The condition $\mathsf{H}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 + \hat{z}_2 - \hat{b}\hat{c} \pmod q, \tau', \tau) = \hat{c}$ is satisfied due to the correctness of Com and the following:

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 + \hat{z}_2 - \hat{b}\hat{c} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\Big(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{\mathbf{z}}_{j,1}^*\Big) + \Big(\hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa} \hat{p}_j \hat{z}_{j,2}^*\Big) - \hat{b}\hat{c}$$

$$= \hat{\mathbf{a}}\Big(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa}(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1\hat{c}_j + \hat{p}_j\hat{\mathbf{y}}^*_{j,1})\Big) + \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa}(\hat{s}_2\hat{c}_j + \hat{p}_j\hat{y}^*_{j,2}) - \hat{b}\hat{c}$$
$$= \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa}\hat{p}_j\left(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{y}}^*_{j,1} + \hat{y}^*_{j,2}\right) + \left(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1 + \hat{s}_2\right)\hat{c} - \hat{b}\hat{c}$$
$$= \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa}\hat{p}_j\hat{y}_j \pmod q\ .$$

By Lemma 2, the rejection sampling procedure carried out by the signer accepts with probability

$$D_{\mathbb{Z}^{(m+1)\kappa n},s^*}(\mathbf{z}^*)/(M_{\mathcal{S}}\cdot D_{\mathbb{Z}^{(m+1)\kappa n},s^*,\mathbf{v}^*}(\mathbf{z}^*)),$$

where $\mathbf{z}^*, \mathbf{v}^*$ are the vector representations of $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{1,1},\ldots,\hat{z}^*_{\kappa,2})$, $(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1\hat{c}^*_1,\ldots,\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1\hat{c}^*_\kappa,\hat{s}_2\hat{c}^*_1,\ldots,\hat{s}_2\hat{c}^*_\kappa)$ and the expected number of repetitions is given by $M_{\mathcal{S}} = \exp(\frac{12}{\alpha^*} + \frac{1}{2\alpha^{*2}})$ for $s^* = \alpha^*\left\|\mathbf{v}^*\right\| = \alpha^*\sqrt{\kappa}\left\|(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1,\hat{s}_2)\right\|$.

The rejection sampling step performed by $\mathcal{U}$ accepts with probability

$$D_{\mathbb{Z}^{(m+1)n},s}(\mathbf{z})/(M_{\mathcal{U}}\cdot D_{\mathbb{Z}^{(m+1)n},s,\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{z})),$$

where $\mathbf{z},\mathbf{v}$ are the vector representations of $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1,\hat{z}_2)$, $(\sum_{j=1}^{\kappa}\hat{p}_j\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{j,1},\sum_{j=1}^{\kappa}\hat{p}_j\hat{z}^*_{j,2})$ and the expected number of repetitions is $M_{\mathcal{U}} = \exp(\frac{12}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{2\alpha^2})$ for $s = \alpha\left\|\mathbf{v}\right\|$. The polynomials in $\mathbf{v}$ are distributed according to $D_{\mathbb{Z}^n,\sqrt{\kappa}s^*}$ (see [BF11, Theorem 9]). Hence, $\left\|\mathbf{v}\right\| \le \eta\sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n}s^*$ and $s = \eta\alpha\sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n}s^*$. Therefore, the total expected number of repetitions is $M = M_{\mathcal{S}}\cdot M_{\mathcal{U}}$.

Finally, we note that when choosing η as described above, the condition $\left\|(\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1,\hat{v}_2)\right\| \le \eta s^*\sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n}$ carried out by $\mathcal{U}$ (see Figure 3) is satisfied with probability at least $1-2^{-\lambda}$. □

Theorem 2 (Blindness). *Let* Com *be a statistically hiding and computationally binding commitment function. The scheme* BLAZE *is* $(t=\infty, \varepsilon = \frac{2^{-100}}{M_{\mathcal{U}}})$*-blind.*

Proof. In the game $\mathsf{Blind}_{\mathsf{BS},\mathcal{S}^*}(\lambda)$ given in Definition 2 the adversarial signer $\mathcal{S}^*$ selects two messages μ_0,μ_1 and interacts with the user $\mathcal{U}$ twice, i.e., $\mathcal{U}(\mathsf{seed},\mu_b)$ in the first run and subsequently $\mathcal{U}(\mathsf{seed},\mu_{1-b})$ for a random bit b chosen by $\mathcal{U}$. We show that after each interaction, $\mathcal{U}$ does not leak any information about the respective message being signed. More precisely, the exchanged messages during protocol execution together with the user's output (interpreted as random variables) are independently distributed, especially also from the message being signed. This requires analyzing only the pair $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1,\hat{z}_2)$, since τ' is a statistically hiding commitment, $\mathbf{r}$ is uniformly random, $\hat{c}\in\mathbb{T}^n_\kappa$ and $\hat{c}^*_1,\ldots,\hat{c}^*_\kappa\in\hat{\mathbb{T}}$ are uniformly random and independently distributed from $\hat{c}$ (see Lemma 4).

Let $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1,\hat{z}_2)_b$ and $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1,\hat{z}_2)_{1-b}$ be the pairs output by $\mathcal{U}(\mathsf{seed},\mu_b)$ and $\mathcal{U}(\mathsf{seed},\mu_{1-b})$, respectively. They have the form $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1,\hat{z}_2) = (\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa}\hat{p}_j\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{j,1}, \hat{e}_2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa}\hat{p}_j\hat{z}^*_{j,2})$, where $\hat{p}_1,\ldots,\hat{p}_\kappa$ are uniform random elements from $\hat{\mathbb{T}}$, the elements $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{1,1},\ldots,\hat{z}^*_{\kappa,2}$ have entries distributed as $D_{\mathbb{Z},s^*}$, and $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1,\hat{e}_2$ have entries distributed according to $D_{\mathbb{Z},s}$. When applying rejection sampling (Lemma 2) on the pairs $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1,\hat{z}_2)_b, (\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1,\hat{z}_2)_{1-b}$, they completely hide $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{1,1},\ldots,\hat{z}^*_{\kappa,2})_b, (\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{1,1},\ldots,\hat{z}^*_{\kappa,2})_{1-b}$, respectively, and become independently distributed within statistical distance of $\frac{2^{-100}}{M_{\mathcal{U}}}$ from $D^{(m+1)n}_{\mathbb{Z},s}$.

Furthermore, if the protocol needs to be restarted, then the user generates fresh $\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}',\rho,\rho',\hat{p}_1,\ldots,\hat{p}_\kappa$. Therefore, protocol executions are independent of each other and hence the signer does not get information about the message being signed. Moreover, the proof of failure also maintains blindness due to the statistical hiding property of Com.

Finally, we note that checking the length of $(\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1,\hat{v}_2)$ made by the user (see Figure 3) maintains blindness by preventing a malicious signer from choosing $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*_{1,1},\ldots,\hat{z}^*_{\kappa,2})$ according to some distribution that makes the protocol fail. □

Remark 1. Similar to RBS, we note that BLAZE remains blind under the stronger blindness definition given in [ANN06], i.e., even if pk is chosen maliciously by $\mathcal{S}^*$. This is because the above proof does not exploit any special features of the key. Furthermore, selective failure blindness [CNS07] is already achieved since a commitment to the message is being signed using a statistically hiding commitment scheme [FS09].

Theorem 3 (Unforgeability). *Let Com be a statistically hiding and computationally binding commitment function. BLAZE is strongly $(t_{\mathcal{A}}, q_{\mathsf{Sign}}, q_H, \varepsilon_{\mathcal{A}})$-one-more unforgeable if RSIS is $(t_{\mathcal{D}}, \varepsilon_{\mathcal{D}})$-hard. That is, if it is hard to find $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \neq \mathbf{0}$ satisfying $[\hat{\mathbf{a}}\ 1] \cdot \hat{\mathbf{x}} = 0 \pmod q$ and $\|\hat{\mathbf{x}}\| \leq 2B + s/\alpha$, where $t_{\mathcal{D}} \leq t_{\mathcal{A}} + q_H^{q_{\mathsf{Sign}}}(q_{\mathsf{Sign}} + q_H)$ and $\varepsilon_{\mathcal{D}} \geq \min\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2\}$. The probabilities $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2$ are given in the proof.*

Proof. We assume that there exists a forger $\mathcal{A}$ that wins the one-more unforgeability game given in Definition 3 with probability $\varepsilon_{\mathcal{A}}$. We construct a reduction algorithm $\mathcal{D}$ that solves RSIS as described in the theorem statement with probability $\varepsilon_{\mathcal{D}}$.

Setup. The input of $\mathcal{D}$ is a uniform random vector $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \in R_q^m$. The reduction $\mathcal{D}$ samples $(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1, \hat{s}_2)$ from $D^m_{\mathbb{Z}^n,\sigma} \times D_{\mathbb{Z}^n,\sigma}$ and computes $\hat{b} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1 + \hat{s}_2 \pmod q$. Then, $\mathcal{D}$ randomly selects answers for random oracle queries $\{\hat{h}_1, \ldots, \hat{h}_{q_{\mathsf{H}}}\}$, and runs the forger $\mathcal{A}$ with public key $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{b})$.

Random Oracle Query. The reduction $\mathcal{D}$ maintains a list L_{H}, which includes pairs of random oracle queries and their answers. If H was previously queried on some input, then $\mathcal{D}$ looks up its entry in L_{H} and returns its answer $\hat{c} \in \mathbb{T}^n_\kappa$. Otherwise, it returns the first unused $\hat{c}$ and updates the list.

Blind Signature Query. Upon receiving signature queries from the forger $\mathcal{A}$ as a user, $\mathcal{D}$ interacts as a signer with $\mathcal{A}$ according to the signing protocol (see Figure 3).

Output. After $k \leq q_{\mathsf{Sign}}$ successful executions of the signing protocol, $\mathcal{A}$ outputs $k+1$ distinct messages and their valid signatures $(\mu_1, \mathsf{sig}_1), \ldots, (\mu_{k+1}, \mathsf{sig}_{k+1})$. Then, one of the following two cases applies:

Case 1. $\mathcal{D}$ finds two signatures of messages $\mu, \mu' \in \{\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_{k+1}\}$ with the same random oracle answer $\hat{c}$. In this case the verification algorithm yields

$$\mathsf{H}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 + \hat{z}_2 - \hat{b}\hat{c} \pmod q, \tau', \tau) = \mathsf{H}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1 + \hat{z}'_2 - \hat{b}\hat{c} \pmod q, \nu', \nu)\ .$$

This implies that $\mu = \mu'$ and $\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 + \hat{z}_2 = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1 + \hat{z}'_2 \pmod q$ with overwhelming probability (otherwise, $\mathcal{A}$ would have found a second preimage of $\hat{c}$ or the binding property of Com does not hold). Since $\mu = \mu'$, this implies that $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2) \neq (\hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}'_2)$. This yields $\hat{\mathbf{a}}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 - \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1) + (\hat{z}_2 - \hat{z}'_2) = 0 \pmod q$. Since the signatures are valid, we have $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)\| \leq B$ and $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}'_2)\| \leq B$. Hence, $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 - \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}_2 - \hat{z}'_2)\| \leq 2B$.

Case 2. If all signatures output by $\mathcal{A}$ have distinct random oracle answers, then $\mathcal{D}$ guesses an index $i \in [k+1]$ such that $\hat{c}_i = \hat{h}_j$ for some $j \in [q_{\mathsf{H}}]$. Then, it records the pair $(\mu_i, (\tau', \mathbf{r}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2, \hat{c}_i))$ and invokes $\mathcal{A}$ again with the same random tape and random oracle queries $\{\hat{h}_1, \ldots, \hat{h}_{j-1}, \hat{h}'_j, \ldots, \hat{h}'_{q_{\mathsf{H}}}\}$, where $\{\hat{h}'_j, \ldots, \hat{h}'_{q_{\mathsf{H}}}\}$ are fresh random elements. The output of $\mathcal{A}$ includes a pair $(\mu'_i, (\tau'', \mathbf{r}'', \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}'_2, \hat{c}'_i))$, and $\mathcal{D}$ returns $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 - \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1 - \hat{\mathbf{s}}_1(\hat{c}_i - \hat{c}'_i), \hat{z}_2 - \hat{z}'_2 - \hat{s}_2(\hat{c}_i - \hat{c}'_i))$. The reduction $\mathcal{D}$ retries at most q_{H}^{k+1} times with different random tape and random oracle queries.

Analysis. First, we note that the environment of $\mathcal{A}$ is perfectly simulated by $\mathcal{D}$ and signatures are generated with the same probability as in the real execution of the signing protocol. If the first case (**Case 1.**) applies, $\mathcal{D}$ solves RSIS with norm bound $2B$. Next, we analyze the second case (**Case 2.**). In this case one of the $k+1$ pairs output by $\mathcal{A}$ is by assumption not generated during the execution of the signing protocol. The probability of correctly guessing the index i corresponding to this pair is $1/(k+1)$, where there are q_{H}^{k+1} index pairs (i, j) such that $\hat{c}_i = \hat{h}_j$. Therefore, one of the q_{H}^{k+1} reruns of $\mathcal{A}$ yields the correct index pair (i, j). The probability that $\hat{c}_i$ was a random oracle query

made by $\mathcal{A}$ is at least $1 - 1/|\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n|$. Thus, the probability that $\hat{c}_i = \hat{h}_j$ is at least $\varepsilon_\mathcal{A} - 1/|\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n|$. By the General Forking Lemma [BN06], the probability that $\hat{c}'_i$ is used by $\mathcal{A}$ in the forgery such that $\hat{c}_i \neq \hat{c}'_i$ and $\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 + \hat{z}_2 - \hat{b}\hat{c}_i = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1 + \hat{z}'_2 - \hat{b}\hat{c}'_i \pmod q$ is at least $\varepsilon_{\mathsf{fork}} \geq \left(\varepsilon_\mathcal{A} - \frac{1}{|\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n|}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{\varepsilon_\mathcal{A} - 1/|\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n|}{q_{\mathsf{Sign}} + q_{\mathsf{H}}} - \frac{1}{|\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n|}\right)$. Therefore, by setting $\hat{b} = \hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1 + \hat{s}_2 \pmod q$ we obtain the equation $\hat{\mathbf{a}}\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1 + \hat{v}_2 = 0 \pmod q$, where $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1 = \hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 - \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1 - \hat{\mathbf{s}}_1(\hat{c}_i - \hat{c}'_i)$ and $\hat{v}_2 = \hat{z}_2 - \hat{z}'_2 - \hat{s}_2(\hat{c}_i - \hat{c}'_i)$. Since $(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1, \hat{s}_2)$ are not uniquely defining $\hat{b}$ when $(m+1)\log(d) > \log(q)$ and d is an integer bound on the coefficients of $(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1, \hat{s}_2)$, $\mathcal{A}$ does not know which $(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1, \hat{s}_2)$ is being used to construct $(\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1, \hat{v}_2)$. Hence, $(\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1, \hat{v}_2) \neq \mathbf{0}$ with probability at least $1/2$. Since both signatures are valid, we have $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)\| \leq B$ and $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}'_2)\| \leq B$. Moreover we have $\|(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1, \hat{s}_2) \cdot (\hat{c}_i - \hat{c}'_i)\| \leq 2\eta\sigma\sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n}$. This implies that

$$\|(\hat{\mathbf{v}}_1, \hat{v}_2)\| \leq 2(B + \eta\sigma\sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n}) < 2B + s/\alpha \ .$$

The success probability of $\mathcal{D}$ is given by $\varepsilon_1 \geq \frac{\varepsilon_{\mathsf{fork}}}{2(k+1)}$, which is non-negligible if $\varepsilon_\mathcal{A}$ is non-negligible.

Finally, we analyze the case that users can generate a valid signature after an aborted interaction with the signer. The proof of failure $\mathsf{result} = (\tau, \rho, \rho', \mathbf{r}', \hat{p}_1, \ldots, \hat{p}_\kappa, \hat{c})$ satisfies the 3 checks carried out by $\mathcal{S}$ (see step 5 in Figure 4). In the following we denote these checks by C1, C2, and C3, respectively. Now, assume that a user $\mathcal{U}$ obtains a valid signature $(\tau'', \mathbf{r}'', \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}'_2, \hat{c}')$ after an aborted interaction. If $\hat{c}' = \hat{c}$, then by C2 we obtain $\hat{\mathbf{a}}(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 - \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1) + \hat{z}_2 - \hat{z}'_2 = 0 \pmod q$. The case $(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2) = (\hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}'_2)$ contradicts C3, hence w.l.og. $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 \neq \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1$. Note that $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \hat{z}_2)\| \leq B + \eta s^* \sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n} = B + s/\alpha$. Hence we have $\|(\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 - \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}_2 - \hat{z}'_2)\| \leq 2B + s/\alpha$. If $\hat{c}' \neq \hat{c}$, then by C1 we must have $\hat{c}^*_j = \hat{p}_j^{-1}\hat{c}_j = (\hat{p}'_j)^{-1}\hat{c}'_j$, where $\hat{p}'_j \neq \hat{p}_j$ for all $j \in [\kappa]$. Otherwise, the signature $(\tau'', \mathbf{r}'', \hat{\mathbf{z}}'_1, \hat{z}'_2, \hat{c}')$ was not obtained from the aborted interaction. Hence, we have $\hat{p}_j^{-1} = (\hat{p}'_j)^{-1}\hat{c}'_j\hat{c}_j^{-1}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{U}$ must have predicted the output of H in order to determine $\hat{p}_j^{-1}$. The success probability of $\mathcal{D}$ by an aborted interaction is at least $\varepsilon_2 \geq \varepsilon_\mathcal{A}(1 - 1/|\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n|)$, which is non-negligible if $\varepsilon_\mathcal{A}$ is non-negligible. Therefore, the overall success probability of $\mathcal{D}$ is $\varepsilon_\mathcal{D} \geq \min\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2\}$. □

Remark 2. As mentioned in Section 1.2, strong one-more unforgeability already implies strong honest-user unforgeability [SU17, Lemma 10]. Furthermore, the above proof assumes that the vector $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ is given, while in practical applications it can be generated from a seed in order to save bandwidth by only storing the seed instead of the whole vector. Security under this assumption can be proven by the following simple reduction: Assuming the existence of an adversary $\mathcal{A}$ against BLAZE, we construct an adversary $\mathcal{B}$ against a variant of BLAZE with public key $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{b})$. By modeling the function Expand as a programmable random oracle, $\mathcal{B}$ chooses a random seed', reprograms $\mathsf{Expand}(\mathsf{seed}') = \hat{\mathbf{a}}$, and invokes $\mathcal{A}$ on input $(\mathsf{seed}', \hat{b})$. The output of $\mathcal{B}$ is then the same forgery as the one generated by $\mathcal{A}$.

4 Implementation

In this section we give some important details about the software implementation of BLAZE. There are several aspects subject to optimization. We follow the protocol and provide some insights into our optimizations.

First, the choice of the ring $R_q = \mathbb{Z}_q[x]/\langle x^n + 1\rangle$ for n a power of 2 allows for efficient NTT-based polynomial multiplication. It further offers a suitable set of signed permutation polynomials $\hat{\mathbb{T}}$. Due to our choice of $q = 2^{31} - 2^{17} + 1$, modular reduction works highly efficient according to [Sei18], however without the need for Barret reductions. From seed we directly generate the NTT representation of $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ as it is always used just in the context of multiplications. By this we save one NTT transformation. We further improve the running time by omitting bit-reversals during NTT transformations in accordance to [Sei18]. We use the framework [MW17] in order to efficiently generate discrete Gaussians of arbitrary

Table 2. A review of parameters and sizes of keys and signatures of BLAZE.

Parameter	Description	Bounds
λ	security parameter	
n	dimension	power of 2
$m+1$	number of polynomials (secret key)	$m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$
q	modulus	prime, $q = 1 \pmod{2n}$
σ	standard deviation (secret key)	$\sigma > 0$, $(m+1)\log(t\sigma) > \log(q)$
κ	Hamming weight of H's output	$2^\kappa \binom{n}{\kappa} \geq 2^\lambda$
s^*	standard deviation (signer)	$s^* = \alpha^* \sqrt{\kappa}\, \|(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1, \hat{s}_2)\|$, $\alpha^* > 0$
s	standard deviation (signatures)	$s = \eta\alpha\sqrt{(m+1)\kappa n}s^*$, $\alpha, \eta > 0$, $\eta^{(m+1)n} \exp(\frac{(m+1)n}{2}(1-\eta^2)) \leq 2^{-\lambda}$
M	number of repetitions	$M = M_{\mathcal{S}} \cdot M_{\mathcal{U}}$, $M_{\mathcal{S}} = \exp(\frac{12}{\alpha^*} + \frac{1}{2\alpha^{*2}})$, $M_{\mathcal{U}} = \exp(\frac{12}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{2\alpha^2})$
secret key size (bit)		$(m+1)n\lceil\log(t\sigma+1)\rceil$, $2e^{-t^2/2} \leq 2^{-\lambda}$
public key size (bit)		$n\lceil\log q\rceil + \lambda$
signature size without compression (bit)		$\kappa(1+\lceil\log n\rceil) + (m+1)n\lceil\log(ts+1)\rceil + 2\lambda$

size that are centered around zero. Effectively, we apply the NTT twice, i.e., when multiplying with $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$. In the other cases, we do not need any multiplications at all. For instance, multiplication with elements $\hat{p} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$ requires just to rotate the respective polynomial and change the signs, if necessary. For the inversion of a monomial $\hat{p} \in \hat{\mathbb{T}}$, we apply Lemma 3. Since elements $\hat{c}_i^*$ are also elements of $\hat{\mathbb{T}}$, multiplication essentially corresponds to a rotation as described before. Our random oracle H outputs random elements from the set $\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$. We apply the "inside-out" version of the Fisher-Yates shuffle, which is perfectly suitable for this kind of distributions. For generating uniform random bits, we expand a seed of large enough entropy to the desired output length using Shake. We also use Shake in combination with the Fisher-Yates shuffle as a random oracle in order to hash inputs of H to an element in $\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$. For the verification step we compare the squared lengths of the polynomials with the squared bound B^2 rather than using square roots.

Finally, we describe the implementation of (De)Compress. Gaussian integers are optimally represented via Huffman encoding as carried out for instance in [DDLL13, DLL+17]. We consider the simplified approach proposed in [DLL+17, Section B.5]. Let z be an integer distributed according to $D_{\mathbb{Z},\sigma}$. Then, z can be written as $z \pmod{q} = z_1 \cdot 2^\tau + z_0$, where $\sigma \approx 2^\tau$. The value z_0 is almost uniform and hence is left uncompressed, while z_1 is encoded using the prefix-free encoding proposed in [DLL+17, Table 3]. On average, representing z requires in total $\approx \tau + 2.25$ bits.

5 Concrete Parameters and Comparison

In this section we propose concrete parameters for BLAZE and compare our results with the previous blind signature schemes [BGSS17, PSM17, Rüc10]. We review the parameter description of BLAZE in Table 2. The table also shows the theoretical sizes of keys and signatures, which we explain first. We then describe our parameter selection and the methodology to estimate the security. We note that parameters for the scheme [BGSS17] and [PSM17, Rüc10] were selected targeting 100 and 102 bits of security, respectively. Therefore, we select our parameters targeting approximately the same security level. Benchmarking our parameters was carried out on an Intel Core i7-6500U, operating at 2.3 GHz and 8GB of RAM.

Sizes. The secret key consists of $m+1$ elements from R_q with entries sampled from $D_{\mathbb{Z},\sigma}$. By Lemma 1 these entries are bounded by $t\sigma$ with probability $1 - 2\exp(-t^2/2)$, where t is chosen such that this

Table 3. Concrete parameters for BLAZE and sizes (in KB) of keys and signatures.

λ	n	m	q	σ	κ	α^*	α	s^*	s	$M_{\mathcal{S}}$	$M_{\mathcal{U}}$	M	sk size	pk size	signature size
113	1024	1	$\approx 2^{31}$	0.5	16	20	25	2172.2	11796306	1.8	1.6	2.9	0.8	3.9	6.6
122	1024	3	$\approx 2^{31}$	9.6	16	20	25	54067.2	380633088	1.8	1.6	2.9	3.5	3.9	15.6

probability is at least $1-2^{-\lambda}$. Therefore, these elements occupies $(m+1)n\lceil\log(t\sigma+1)\rceil$ bits. The public key consists of a polynomial from R_q and a seed of λ bits. Hence, its size is $n\lceil\log q\rceil+\lambda$ bits. Finally, the signature consists of $m+1$ elements from R_q with entries from $D_{\mathbb{Z},s}$ in addition to a polynomial from $\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$ and two strings of λ bits. Thus, its size is bounded by $\kappa(1+\lceil\log n\rceil)+(m+1)n\lceil\log(ts+1)\rceil+2\lambda$ bits.

Parameters. Table 3 shows the parameters selected for BLAZE. We give some insights of how these parameters were selected. A detailed description of selecting parameters in lattice-based cryptography can be found in [ABEK17]. We set $n = 1024$, which is a typical choice for lattice-based schemes targeting medium or high security levels. The choice of $m = 1$ changes the hardness of recovering the secret key given the public key from RSIS to the ring learning with errors problem [LPR10]. By setting $m = 3$ and $\sigma = 9.6$, key recovery is based on RSIS and the existence of at least two secret keys given the public key is ensured following Theorem 3. For optimal efficiency, the performance of BLAZE was evaluated using the first parameter set. The modulus q is chosen large enough such that the underlying RSIS instance provides the desired security level. We set κ such that the cardinality of $\mathbb{T}_\kappa^n$ is large enough for security. The parameters $\alpha^*, \alpha, M_{\mathcal{S}}$, and $M_{\mathcal{U}}$ are selected such that the total average number of restarts is given by 2.9.

Security. We describe the methodology used to estimate the security of the proposed parameters. We considered the asymptotically best algorithms known to solve the underlying lattice problems with no memory restrictions. More precisely, we used the well known and widely used LWE estimator [APS15] (with commit-id 62b5edc on 2019-09-11) to measure the hardness of recovering the secret key. Furthermore, we considered the lattice reduction algorithm BKZ [SE94, CN11] to estimate the hardness of forging signatures. BKZ uses a solver for the shortest vector problem (SVP) in lattices of dimension b, where b is called the block size. The best known SVP solver [BDGL16] runs in time $\approx 2^{0.292b}$. Running BKZ with block size b on a k-dimensional lattice $\mathcal{L}$ takes time $8k2^{0.292b+16.4}$ [BDGL16, Alb17]. Due to [Che13], after calling BKZ we obtain a vector of length $\delta^k \cdot \det(\mathcal{L})^{1/k}$, where

$$\delta = \left(b \cdot (\pi b)^{\frac{1}{b}}/(2\pi e)\right)^{\frac{1}{2(b-1)}} . \tag{2}$$

According to Theorem 3, forging a signature implies solving RSIS for the matrix $[\hat{\mathbf{a}}\ 1]$ with norm bound $\beta = 2B + s/\alpha$. Given β we determined δ by setting $\beta = \delta^k \cdot \det(\mathcal{L})^{1/k}$. Then, we used (2) to deduce the minimum block size b required for BKZ to achieve δ. Then, we computed the cost of BKZ.

Comparison. Table 1 shows that our scheme BLAZE improves upon the previous blind signature schemes [BGSS17, PSM17, Rüc10] with respect to all relevant efficiency metrics. We note that we considered only the best parameter set proposed for RBS in [Rüc10, Table 3] for the target security level of 102 bits.

6 Conclusion

We highlight few notable conclusions from our results and possible future work. We presented BLAZE, a new practical lattice-based blind signature scheme providing statistical blindness under adversely-chosen keys [ANN06] and the strongest version of unforgeability [SU17] in the ROM. We have shown

that BLAZE improves upon all previous works on blind signatures based on assumptions conjectured to withstand quantum computer attacks.

Similar to [Rüc10], the unforgeability proof of BLAZE requires the signing queries q_{Sign} to be limited to $o(\lambda)$. As mentioned in [Rüc10] and originally by Pointcheval and Stern [PS00], this constraint is an artifact of the proof and is not unusual for efficient blind signatures. It was left open to achieve a polynomial-time reduction in both q_{Sign} and key size. We extend this research question to investigating the security of BLAZE in the quantum random oracle model (QROM). A possible direction towards this goal may involve the results of Kiltz et al. [KLS18] on the security of Fiat-Shamir signatures in QROM. Further improvements that can be made on BLAZE's design are the following:

- Utilize the compression technique of Bai and Galbraith [BG14] to obtain shorter signatures. This approach requires further analysis regarding correctness and security. In particular, the *strong* one-more unforgeability is then not directly preserved. Consequently, the security of the resulting scheme under the new security model by Schröder and Unruh [SU17] cannot be established in a straightforward way.
- Reduce the communication complexity of the signing protocol by compressing the Gaussian vector $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^*$ using the algorithm Compress before sending them to the user (see Figure 3).
- Generalize BLAZE so that it is based on lattices over modules [LS15]. This allows for more flexibility when selecting parameters.
- Finally, we note that BLAZE can directly be transformed into an identity-based blind signature scheme. Secret keys can be extracted from the master secret key using any preimage sampleable trapdoor function, e.g., due to [MP12].

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A The Blind Signature Scheme by Rückert

In this section we review the blind signature scheme proposed by Rückert [Rüc10]. For any positive integer x we write $R_{q,x}$ to denote the subset of the ring R_q consisting of all polynomials with coefficients in the set $\{-x, \ldots, 0, \ldots, x\}$. The scheme uses a random oracle $\mathsf{H} : \{0,1\}^* \to R_{q,1}$ and a commitment function $\mathsf{Com} : \{0,1\}^* \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^n$ that is statistically hiding and computationally binding. Key generation, signing, and verification are described in Figure 5.

B Cryptanalysis of other Lattice-Based Blind Signature Schemes

In this section we show how a user can simply compute the secret key of the lattice-based blind signature scheme given in [ZTZ+17]. Furthermore, we explain how the underlying SIS problem of all

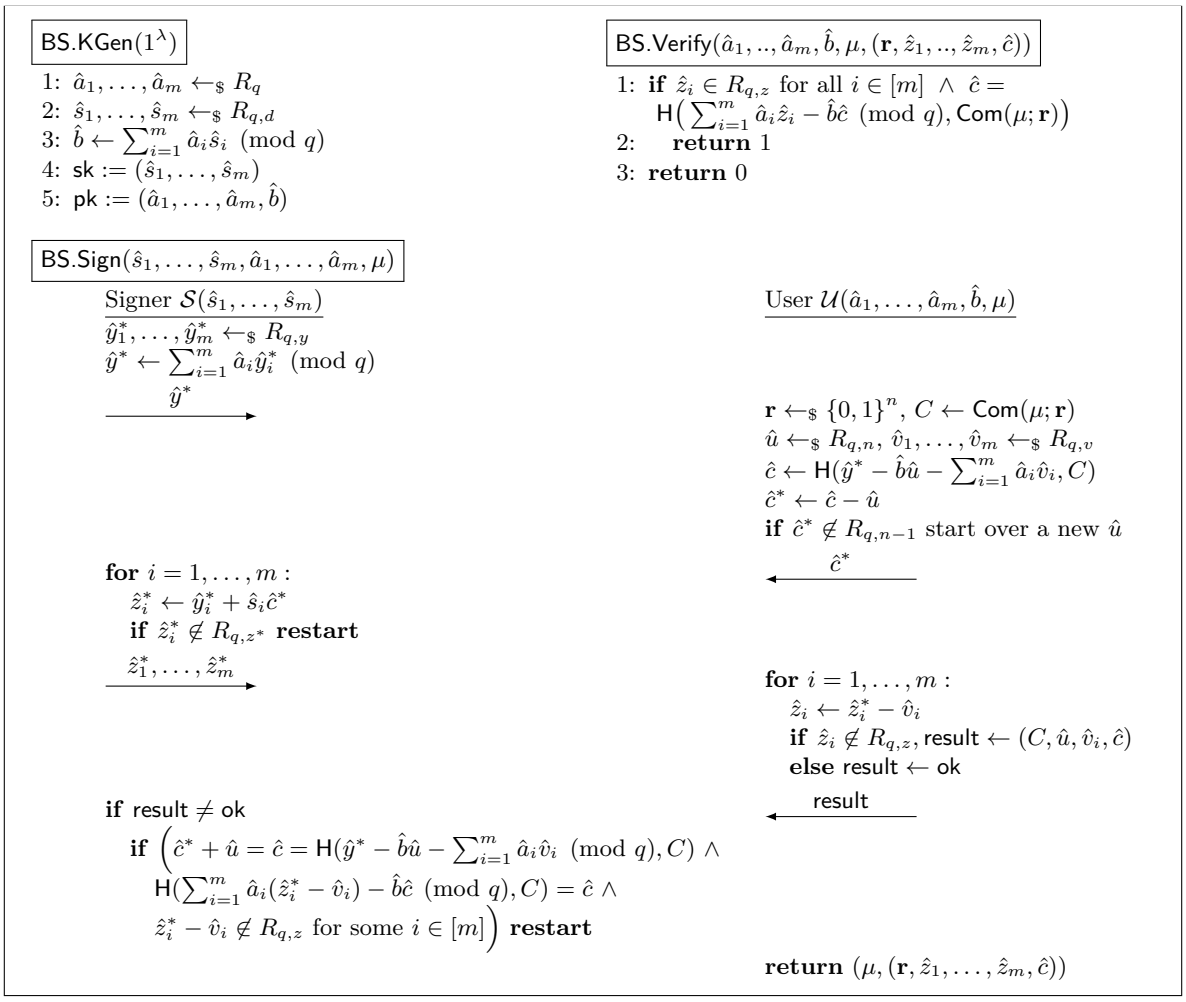

Fig. 5. A formal description of the blind signature scheme by Rückert [Rüc10].

earlier identity-based (ID-based) blind signature proposals [CCT+11,ZM14,ZH16,GHWX16,GHW+17] can be solved by a user due to a design flaw.

B.1 Key Recovery of a Blind Signature Proposal

We describe a key recovery attack on a blind signature scheme proposed in [ZTZ+17]. We sketch its key generation and signing protocol and only explain the elements required for our analysis.

The secret key is an $(n \times n)$-matrix $\mathbf{S}$ with coefficients from $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ and the verification key is two $(n \times n)$-matrices $(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{H})$, where $\mathbf{P} = \lfloor 2\rho(\mathbf{S}) + 1 \rfloor \cdot \mathbf{I}_n$, $\rho(\mathbf{S})$ is the spectral radius of $\mathbf{S}$, and $\mathbf{H}$ is the Hermite normal form of $\mathbf{P} - \mathbf{S}$. Signing is performed as follows:

1. The user sends an n-dimensional vector $\mathbf{u}$ to the signer, where $\mathbf{u}$ contains the message being signed and some random elements.
2. The signer sends $\mathbf{z}' = \mathbf{u} - \lfloor \mathbf{u}\mathbf{P}^{-1} \rceil (\mathbf{P} - \mathbf{S})$ back to the user.
3. The user outputs $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}'\mathbf{T}^{-1} - \mathbf{e}$ as a part of the signature, where $\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{e}$ are included in $\mathbf{u}$.

The secret key $\mathbf{S}$ can be computed as follows. The user selects two random vectors $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$ such that $\mathbf{x} = \lfloor \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{P}^{-1} \rceil - \lfloor \mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{P}^{-1} \rceil$ is invertible and initiates the signing protocol twice by sending $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$, respectively. After receiving $\mathbf{z}'_1, \mathbf{z}'_2$, the secret key is then given by $\mathbf{S} = (\mathbf{z}'_1 - \mathbf{z}'_2 - \mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2 + \mathbf{x}\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{x}^{-1}$.

B.2 Forgeability of Earlier ID-Based Blind Signatures

We describe a design flaw in the previous identity-based blind signature schemes [CCT+11,ZM14,ZH16, GHWX16, GHW+17] which are based on lattices. They all follow the same framework to blindly sign messages. This framework employs the preimage sampleable trapdoor function[3] introduced in [GPV08]. It works as follows: Given a public random $(n \times m)$-matrix $\mathbf{A}$ with a short basis for the lattice $\Lambda_q^{\perp}(\mathbf{A}) = \left\{ \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}^m \ : \ \mathbf{A}\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0} \pmod{q} \right\}$ as a secret trapdoor. Signing is performed as follows.

1. The user sends an n-dimensional vector $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c} \cdot t \pmod{q}$ to the signer, where $\mathbf{x}$ is an m-dimensional Gaussian vector, $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ is the hash value of the message being signed, and t is a small integer.
2. The signer samples a preimage $\mathbf{e}$ such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} \pmod{q}$ and sends it back to the user.
3. The user outputs the signature $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{e} - \mathbf{x}) \cdot t^{-1} \pmod{q}$. We note that two of the proposals we analyze here consider t as an invertible Gaussian $(n \times n)$-matrix, although the signature $\mathbf{z}$ cannot be obtained by multiplying an m-dimensional vector with an $(n \times n)$-matrix.

Verification is performed by checking that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{c} \pmod{q}$. Apparently, it is assumed that the signing protocol is stateful in order to prevent re-querying attack. That is, the signer has a local storage for returning the same preimage of previous signing queries. Nevertheless, any user can simply send $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \pmod{q}$ and let the signer return a preimage $\mathbf{x}'$ of $\mathbf{y}$. Thus, we obtain $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') = \mathbf{0} \pmod{q}$, where $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'$ is short and non-zero vector with high probability, since collisions always exist.

[3] We note that Rückert [Rüc10] already pointed out that blind signatures cannot be implemented using this trapdoor function.