Blind Multisignatures for Anonymous Tokens with Decentralized Issuance

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Abstract

We propose the first constructions of anonymous tokens with decentralized issuance. Namely, we consider a dynamic set of signers/issuers; a user can obtain a token from any subset of the signers, which is publicly verifiable and unlinkable to the issuance process. To realize this new primitive we formalize the notion of blind multi-signatures (BMS), which allow a user to interact with multiple signers to obtain a (compact) signature; even if all the signers collude they are unable to link a signature to an interaction with any of them. We then present two BMS constructions, one based on BLS signatures and a second based on discrete logarithms without pairings. We prove security of both our constructions in the Algebraic Group Model. We also provide a proof-of-concept implementation and show that it has low-cost verification, which is the most critical operation in blockchain applications.

CCS Concepts

• **Security and privacy → Public key (asymmetric) techniques**; **Pseudonymity, anonymity and untraceability**; • **Theory of computation → Cryptographic protocols**.

Keywords

Blind Signatures, Anonymous Tokens, Decentralized Issuance

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1 Introduction

In the digital world, *authorization* plays a foundational role. From regulating access to online services to ensuring the integrity of voting systems, effective access-control mechanisms are crucial for maintaining security and trust. User authorization can be implemented via various methods depending on the application scenario. Common approaches include using credentials such as usernames and passwords or relying on third-party services, such as Auth0 or OpenID, to access user accounts. However, these authentication methods raise concerns regarding user privacy. Each time a user logs in, the service learns everything about the user's activities, enabling the creation of a full profile of their habits. While this level of information leakage may be necessary for certain applications, in many other cases it is desirable to avoid it. Consider, for instance, a subscription-based news portal. In a privacy-friendly world, the only thing that the service should learn is *whether* the user has a valid subscription to the service or whether the user has an account and *nothing else*.

One prominent solution to the problem of anonymous user authorization is anonymous tokens. In a nutshell, an anonymous token system includes three types of parties: *issuers*, *users*, and *verifiers*. An issuer provides an anonymous token to a user whose identity is typically known by the issuer at the time of issuance. The user can subsequently present the token to a verifier who can authenticate its validity. Anonymous tokens must be both unforgeable and anonymous, where unforgeability means that a user cannot forge a token and anonymity guarantees unlinkability between token issuance and presentation/verification. Blind signatures are a related notion; one can view anonymous tokens as blind signatures with no message. There are a number of blind signatures and anonymous token schemes with different properties [1, 13, 14, 19, 34, 55], and

growing interest in their adoption by companies including Cloudfare,[1] Apple,[2], Google,[3] and Facebook.[4] A recent IETF draft [5] aims to standardize anonymous tokens.

Anonymous tokens can support public or private verifiability. Privately verifiable tokens assume the issuer and the verifier are the same entity, whereas publicly verifable tokens do not. Public verifiability is essential for large heterogeneous systems with a large number of verifiers who do not wish to also serve as token issuers. For blockchain applications, public verifiability is also necessary so tokens can be verified on-chain, possibly via a smart contract.

In all existing anonymous token systems, tokens are issued by a single issuer. This, however, introduces a single point of failure: if the token issuer is compromised it can issue an arbitrary number of tokens to unauthorized users. Furthermore, it is important for certain applications that tokens be issued by multiple issuers who jointly endorse a credential. Consider for example a tokenized anonymous-voting application where the governors of a Decentralized Autonomous Organization (DAO) wish to issue anonymous tokens to external members so they can vote on various issues. The voting policy may demand that a member is only eligible to vote if they receive endorsement from a miminum number of governors. To our knowledge, all prior work that would enable this use-case relies on heavy machinery such as zero-knowledge proofs, timelock encryption, or homomorphic encryption [3].

Publicly verifiable tokens with decentralized issuance. Motivated by this discussion, we propose the concept of *publicly verifiable anonymous tokens with decentralized issuance*. That is, we consider a dynamic set of signers/issuers; a user can obtain a token signed by any subset of the signers, which is publicly verifiable and unlinkable to the issuance process. As a building block toward this primitive, we propose blind multi-signatures (BMS). Multisignatures have the benefit of allowing for a flexible set of issuers that may change frequently, and require no-coordination amongst the issuers for token generation. This can be preferable to primitives like threshold signatures which require a coordinated Distributed Key Generation (DKG) protocol to be executed amongst the set of signers/issuers, and typically assume a static set of signers.

A BMS scheme can directly serve as a publicly verifiable anonymous token with decentralized issuance. Users can interact with each signer separately, collect individual signatures, and then aggregate them to obtain a final signature. As with multisignatures, a BMS reveals the set of signers who issued the token. For certain applications, we consider this to be a feature, as different signers may be responsible for certifying different attributes of a user. Knowing the identities of the signers can also enhance credibility of the tokens. Additionally, it offers some type of "signer accountability." For instance, if a signer is frequently associated with the issuance of tokens that are later misused, that signer may be penalized. At the same time, this raises the valid concern that disclosing the set of signers results in a reduced anonymity set, as a token is only unlinkable within the set of tokens that are signed by the same group of signers. We note, however, that for many applications this is not necessarily a problem. For starters, when the total number of signers is small and the number of users is large, the anonymity set for each user is likely to remain large. In other cases, the set of signers required for a valid token may be fixed (even as that set may change in different epochs); this would be the case in the DAO voting scenario discussed earlier, where a token is valid only when signed by the set of all current governors.

[1]https://blog.cloudflare.com/privacy-pass-standard
[2]https://developer.apple.com/news/?id=huqjyh7k
[3]https://github.com/google/anonymous-tokens,
https://developers.google.com/privacy-sandbox/protections/private-state-tokens
[4]https://research.fb.com/privatestats
[5]https://datatracker.ietf.org/wg/privacypass/about/

1.1 Our Contributions

We now briefly summarize our technical contributions.

Blind multisignatures (BMS). The foundational building block at the core of our constructions is *blind multisignatures* (BMS). Multisignatures enable the computation of a joint signature on a message m, by a set of n signers, without requiring any coordination amongst the signers. As already explained, a BMS scheme can directly serve as a anonymous token scheme with decentralized issuance. In Section 3 we provide rigorous definitions for blind multisignatures (BMS) and their corresponding security properties: blindness and one-more unforgeability (OMUF). We then present two BMS constructions with different tradeoffs, described next.

BMS based on BLS. In Section 4 we construct BM_BLS, a blind multisignature based on the Boneh–Lynn–Shacham (BLS) signature scheme [9]. We prove concurrent security of our construction in the Algebraic Group and Random Oracle Models (AGM + ROM) based on the q-dlog assumption. BLS is an efficient signature scheme that uses pairings and has recently seen adoption in the blockchain space (i.e., the Chia Network [16], Celo [12], Filecoin, and PoS Ethereum) due to its efficient support for signature aggregation. An IETF standardization effort for BLS has been ongoing since 2019 [30]. Blind BLS [7] and BLS multisignatures [8] already exist in the literature. However, combining them to obtain a blind multisignature is not trivial. In particular, a significant challenge is to avoid so-called *rogue-key* attacks where an adversary breaks security by choosing a (malformed) public key based on the public keys of honest parties. Our construction is secure against rogue-key attacks in the plain public-key model, i.e., there is no need for signers to prove knowledge of their signing keys. It also supports public-key aggregation.

A pairing-free BMS. In Section 5 we present BM_SB, a pairing-free BMS scheme based on the recent threshold blind-signature scheme Snowblind [18]. We prove concurrent security based on the discrete-logarithm (dlog) assumption in the AGM. Towards taming the complexity of this proof, we follow a similar technique as in recent work [28, 32]. In particular, we first propose a new cryptographic primitive called a multi-identification (mID) scheme and adapt the security notion to fit our new primitive. Then, we construct a multi-identification scheme and prove its security. Finally, we show how this implies security of our BMS scheme.

Compared to our BLS-based construction, our second scheme enjoys more efficient verification (since it avoids pairings) and has very short signatures regardless of the number of signers. As opposed to our BLS construction, however, this scheme requires each (corrupted) signer to submit a proof of possession of its public key, which in turn prevents public key aggregation.

Implementation and evaluation. In Section 6, we present a proof-of-concept Python implementation of our two constructions, and a generic smart-contract library for verifying our anonymous tokens on the Ethereum blockchain. We evaluate the efficiency and cost of our implementations, demonstrating their practicality. Verifying a token on Ethereum costs about 232K gas for BM_BLS, irrespective of the number of signers, and about 280K gas for a BM_SB token issued by 11 signers. As of April 28th, 2024, when the median gas price was approximately 7.4 gwei [35] and the Ethereum closing price[6] was 3,262.77 USD, this translates to a monetary cost of ~$5.60 and ~$6.76, respectively. Moreover, BM_BLS tokens can be aggregated, meaning that the verification cost can be amortized across multiple users. The amortized cost for verifying a batch of 32 or more tokens is around 110K gas, or ~$2.66.

1.2 Related Work

As already noted, although there exist a variety of anonymous token constructions, none of them supports decentralized issuance. We discuss two types of related work: (1) blind signatures with multiple issuers and (2) decentralized anonymous credentials (a primitve more general than anonymous tokens).

Blind multisignatures and threshold signatures. Blind signatures with multiple signers can be found in the form of multisignatures or threshold signatures, with the primary distinction between them being whether the signers generate their keys independently (multisignatures) or whether they need to jointly run a protocol to generate a single public key and individual key shares (threshold signatures). Some blind multisignature schemes have been suggested in the literature [7, 15, 41, 48, 58], but they all lack rigorous security analysis. Several constructions of blind threshold signatures exist [2, 18, 33, 36, 38, 56], but as we have noted these all require coordination between the issuers during key generation and do not immediately support dynamic signing sets.

Decentralized anonymous credentials. Anonymous credential systems are typically *multi-use*, i.e., credentials that encode a set of attributes are issued once and presented multiple times. Compared to anonymous tokens, which can be viewed as a *single-use* credential without attributes, those schemes are therefore much more complex and expensive. The problem of decentralized issuance for anonymous credentials has been addressed using different approaches which we briefly discuss below. We note, however, that converting any of these anonymous credential schemes to an efficient anonymous token scheme is non trivial.

A number of decentralized anonymous-credential schemes use threshold techniques [20, 50, 56, 57]; these all have the drawback of requiring the issuers to coordinate at the time of key generation as discussed above. Another recent line of work [29, 45] constructs decentralised multi-use anonymous credentials from aggregate signatures with randomizable tags. Finally, some work [26] has considered decentralized anonymous credentials based on peer-to-peer anonymous attestation on a bulletin board/blockchain rather than issuing authorities, a setting quite different from the one we consider here.

[6]See https://coinmarketcap.com/currencies/ethereum/historical-data.

2 Preliminaries

We let λ denote the security parameter. PPT means probabilistic polynomial time. We let $\mathsf{poly}(\lambda)$ be an unspecified polynomial function of λ and $\mathsf{negl}(\lambda)$ a negligible function. We let $[t] = \{1, \ldots, t\}$. We use $x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{D}$ to refer to sampling a uniform element x from $\mathcal{D}$. We write $y \leftarrow \mathsf{A}^{O}(x)$ to denote the randomized output of an algorithm A that takes x as input and has access to an oracle O. Given a game Game parameterized by an adversary A, the success probability of A in Game is $\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathsf{Game}}_{A}(\lambda) := \Pr[\mathsf{Game}_A = \text{true}]$.

2.1 Cryptographic Assumptions

Assumption 1 ([24]). *Let $\mathbb{G}$ be a cyclic group of order p. The q-discrete-logarithm assumption holds if for every* PPT *algorithm A:*

$$\Pr\left[\begin{array}{c} x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^* \\ x^* \leftarrow A(g, Y_1 = g^x, \ldots, Y_q = g^{x^q}) \end{array} : x^* = x\right] \leq negl(\lambda).$$

Note that the standard discrete-logarithm assumption is just the 1-dlog assumption.

Definition 1 (Bilinear Pairings). Let $\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T$ be groups of order p. A pairing is an efficiently computable map $e : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \to \mathbb{G}_T$ such that for all $P \in \mathbb{G}_1$, $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$, and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ it holds that $e(P^a, Q^b) = e(P^a, Q)^b = e(P, Q^b)^a = e(P, Q)^{ab}$. If $\mathbb{G}_1 = \mathbb{G}_2$ then we say the pairing is symmetric.

2.2 The Algebraic Group Model (AGM)

The AGM [24] is a formal model for analyzing group-based cryptosystems. In the AGM, the adversary A is assumed to be *algebraic*. Roughly, this means that if $\vec{g} = (g_1, \ldots, g_t)$ are the group elements A has been given at any point in its execution, then if it outputs a group element y it also outputs a representation $\vec{z}$ such that $y = \prod_{i \in [t]} g_i^{z_i}$. We stress that group elements A receives from any oracles it has access to are included in $\vec{g}$, and any time A submits a group element y to one of its oracles it must also output a representation of y.

2.3 Blind Signatures

A blind signature scheme [14] is an interactive protocol between a signer and a user that allows the user to obtain a signature that cannot later be linked to the user by the signer. A blind signature scheme BS consists of the following algorithms:

- $\mathsf{BS.KGen}(1^\lambda) \to (sk, pk)$. Run by a signer to generate keys.
- $\mathsf{BS.Sign}\langle \mathcal{U}(m, pk), \mathcal{S}(sk)\rangle \to \sigma$. This is an interactive protocol between a (stateful) signer $\mathcal{S}$ with input the secret key sk and a (stateful) user $\mathcal{U}$ with input a message m and the signer's public key. $\mathcal{U}$ outputs a signature σ.
- $\mathsf{BS.Ver}(pk, m, \sigma) \to 0/1$. Run by a verifier; outputs 1 iff σ is a valid signature for m under key pk.

Correctness can be formalized in the obvious way. A secure blind signature scheme should satisfy *blindness* (i.e., a signature cannot be linked back to its corresponding signing session, even by the signer itself) and *one-more unforgeability* (i.e., an adversarial user $\mathcal{U}$ making ℓ blind signing queries cannot output $\ell + 1$ valid signatures). We recall the formal definitions in Appendix A.1.

2.4 Multi-Signatures

A multi-signature scheme allows a set of signers to each generate a signature on a message m; those signatures can then be aggregated to form a compact signature of all the signers on m. Some multi-signatures also support public-key aggregation which allows for a compact representation of all the signers' public keys. Our definition roughly follows that of Drijvers et al. [21]. For public parameters pp, a multi-signature scheme MS consists of the following algorithms:

- $\mathsf{MS.KGen}(pp) \to (sk, pk)$. Run by a signer to obtain a key pair.
- $\mathsf{MS.KAgg}(\vec{K}) \to \mathsf{apk}$. Given a set of public keys $\vec{K} = \{pk_1, \ldots, pk_n\}$, outputs an aggregate public key apk.
- $\mathsf{MS.Sign}(sk_i, m) \to \sigma_i$. A signer with input[7] a secret key sk_i and a message m outputs a signature σ_i.
- $\mathsf{MS.Comb}(m, \{\sigma_i\}) \to \sigma$. Individual signatures σ_i can be combined into a signature σ.
- $\mathsf{MS.Ver}(\mathsf{apk}, m, \sigma) \to 0/1$. Outputs 1 if σ is a valid signature for message m under aggregate key apk.

We recall security definitions for multi-signatures in Appendix A.2. We remark that one challenge in multi-signature schemes is avoiding rogue-key attacks [27, 37, 39, 42, 44, 47], which can occur when an attacker uses a public key that is not generated honestly, but instead depends in some way on an honest signer's public key. One way to avoid such attacks is to rely on the so-called *knowledge-of-secret-key (KOSK)* model which can be implemented by having each signer include a zero-knowledge proof of knowledge (aka a proof of possession) of their secret key along with their public key [7, 42, 52]. Schemes that do not require this extra assumption are said to be in the *plain public-key model* [6, 8, 46].

3 Blind Multi-signatures

A blind multi-signature combines the features of both blind and multi-signature schemes. It resembles a multi-signature in that it is a signature on a message m signed by multiple signers that verifies under the set of public keys of the signers $\vec{K}$ or under an aggregate key apk if scheme supports key aggregation. It also resembles a blind signature, as the signing happens in an interactive fashion between a user $\mathcal{U}$ who knows m and a set of signers who should be unable to link the final signature to the issuance process. Below we provide a rigorous definition.

For public parameters pp, a blind multi-signature scheme BMS consists of the following algorithms:

- $\mathsf{BMS.KGen}(pp) \to (sk, pk)$. Run by a signer to obtain a key pair.
- $\mathsf{BMS.KAgg}(\vec{K}) \to \mathsf{apk}$. Outputs an aggregate public key apk for a set of public keys $\vec{K} = \{pk_1, \ldots, pk_n\}$.
- $\mathsf{BMS.Sign}\langle \mathcal{U}(m, \vec{K}), \{\mathcal{S}_i(sk_i)\}_{i\in[n]}\rangle \to \sigma$. This is an interactive protocol run between a user $\mathcal{U}$ and signers $\mathcal{S}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{S}_n$, where the signers do not directly communicate with each other. Each signer has only its own secret key as input; $\mathcal{U}$ has a message m and the signers' public keys $\vec{K}$ as input, and outputs a signature σ. We assume all keys in $\vec{K}$ are distinct.
- $\mathsf{BMS.Ver}(\mathsf{apk}, m, \sigma) \to 0/1$. Outputs 1 if σ is a valid signature on m under aggregate key apk.

Correctness requires that if signers honestly generate keys (sk_i, pk_i) and then run $\sigma \leftarrow \mathsf{BMS.Sign}\langle \mathcal{U}(m, \vec{K}), \mathcal{S}_i(sk_i)\rangle$, where $\vec{K} = \{pk_i\}$, then $\mathsf{BMS.Ver}(\mathsf{apk}, m, \sigma) = 1$, where $\mathsf{apk} = \mathsf{BMS.KAgg}(\vec{K})$.

Security. A blind multi-signature should satisfy *one-more unforgeability* and *blindness*.

Let apk be the aggregated public key for a set of signers, one of whom is honest. One-more unforgeability requires that an adversarial user $\mathcal{U}$ (possibly colluding with all corrupted signers) should be unable to forge a signature that verifies under apk, unless this signature came from its interaction with the honest signer. Below we give the formal definition in the plain public-key model. (In the KOSK model, the adversary must also output the secret key corresponding to any adversarial public key.) The signing oracle Sign_{sk^*} simulates the honest signer's execution of the signing protocol.

*Definition 2 (One-more unforgeability (*OMUF*)).* Given a blind multi-signature scheme BMS = (KGen, KAgg, Sign, Ver), we define the game $\mathsf{OMUF}_A^{\mathsf{BMS}}$ as follows:

- **Setup:** The challenger generates a key pair (sk^*, pk^*) using BMS.KGen, and gives pk^* to A.
- **Queries:** A may repeatedly query a signing oracle Sign_{sk^*}.
- **Output:** A outputs a list of tuples $(\sigma_1^*, m_1^*, \vec{K}_1), \ldots, (\sigma_{\ell+1}^*, m_{\ell+1}^*, \vec{K}_{\ell+1})$; let $\mathsf{apk}_i = \mathsf{BMS.KAgg}(\vec{K}_i)$ for all i. A wins if: (1) pk^* is in each set $\vec{K}_i$, (2) $\mathsf{BMS.Ver}(\mathsf{apk}_i, m_i, \sigma_i) = 1$ for all i, and (3) the number of completed interactions with Sign_{sk^*} is at most ℓ. If A wins, the game outputs true.

BMS is one-more unforgeable (OMUF) if for any PPT A,

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{OMUF}_{A,\mathsf{BMS}}(\lambda) := \Pr[\mathsf{OMUF}_A^{\mathsf{BMS}} = \text{true}] = \mathsf{negl}(\lambda).$$

Sequential vs. concurrent security. The above models concurrent security, i.e., the adversary may concurrently run multiple executions with Sign_{sk^*}. To model sequential security, Sign_{sk^*} should not open a new signing session before the previous one is closed.

The next security property of blind multi-signatures is blindness, i.e., even the signers themselves should be unable to link a signature to its corresponding signing session. In the definition we assume that all signers are colluding and we allow for maliciously generated keys. In the blindness game the adversary A starts by choosing all the signers' public keys as well as two messages to be signed. The honest user runs two executions of the signing protocol with A and the given keys, one for each message, in a random order. A is then given the two resulting signatures and asked to guess the order in which the two messages were signed. Formally, given blind multi-signature scheme BMS= (KGen, KAgg, Sign, Ver) let $\mathsf{mBlind}_A^{\mathsf{BMS}}$ be the following game:

Definition 3 (Blindness). The adversary A outputs public keys $\vec{K} = \{pk_1, \ldots, pk_n\}$ and messages m_0, m_1. The challenger picks $b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$, and runs two signing sessions as the user $\mathcal{U}(m_b, \vec{K})$, $\mathcal{U}(m_{1-b}, \vec{K})$, while A participates in the signing sessions as the n signers. If one or both sessions fail to output a (valid) signature, the game outputs $(\perp, \perp)$. Otherwise, if A closes both sessions successfully, the game outputs the resulting signatures (σ_0, σ_1). Eventually,

[7] In some schemes, the signer additionally needs to know $\vec{K}$.

A outputs a bit b' and wins the game if $b' = b$, and in this case, the game outputs true.

BMS is blind if for any PPT adversary A,

$$\mathsf{Adv}^{mBlind}_{A,\mathsf{BMS}}(\lambda) := \Pr[\mathsf{mBlind}^{\mathsf{BMS}}_{A} = \text{true}] = \frac{1}{2} + \mathsf{negl}(\lambda).$$

4 BLS Blind Multisignatures

In this section we construct a blind multisignature scheme based on blind BLS signatures. As such, we begin by reviewing the latter. We also provide a proof of security for the blind BLS signature scheme in the AGM+ROM, since this will serve as a useful warmup for our eventual proof of security for the blind multisignature scheme.

4.1 Blind BLS Signatures

We start by describing the blind BLS signature scheme [7]. For simplicity, in these sections we present constructions and proofs using symmetric pairings. Let $\mathsf{par} = (\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_T, p, g, e)$ denote the system parameters and let $\mathsf{H} : \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{G}$ be a hash function. The blind BLS scheme consists of the following algorithms:

- $\mathsf{KGen}(1^\lambda)$ outputs $(sk, pk) = (x, X)$, where $x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_p$ and $X = g^x \in \mathbb{G}$.
- $\mathsf{Sign}\langle \mathcal{U}(m, X), \mathcal{S}(sk)\rangle$ outputs a signature σ as per Fig. 1.
- $\mathsf{Ver}(pk = X, m, \sigma)$: Checks whether $e(\sigma, g) = e(\mathsf{H}(m), X)$.

Correctness is immediate and blindness holds unconditionally [7].

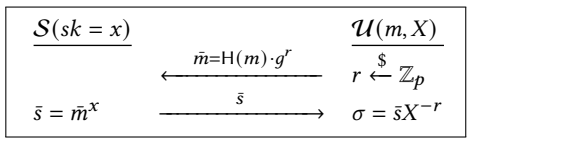

Figure 1: Signing for Blind BLS

Boldyreva [7] showed that blind BLS is one-more unforgeable under the "chosen-target" CDH assumption (or the one-more static CDH assumption) in the ROM. In Appendix B, we prove one-more unforgeability under the q-dlog assumption in the AGM+ROM. While the two sets of assumptions/models are incomparable, we note that our proof gives a tighter reduction. As noted earlier, our main motivation for giving this proof is that it serves as a warmup for the proof of unforgeability for our blind multisignature scheme based on blind BLS.

4.2 BLS-Based Blind Multisignatures

We now present our blind multisignature scheme based on blind BLS, which we denote by BM_BLS. Our main observation is that we can construct a blind multisignature scheme directly from blind BLS; that is, the user can interact with each signer exactly as in the blind BLS scheme, and then combine the signatures it obtains into a single multisignature using an additional hash function.

Let $(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_T, p, g, e)$ and $\mathsf{H} : \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{G}$ be as in the previous section, and let $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{agg}} : \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ be another hash function.

- $\mathsf{BM\_BLS.KGen}(1^\lambda)$: As in the blind BLS scheme.
- $\mathsf{BM\_BLS.KAgg}(\vec{K})$: Given keys $\vec{K} = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$, set $a_i = \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{agg}}(\vec{K}, X_i)$ and output $\mathsf{apk} = \prod_{i=1}^n X_i^{a_i}$.
- $\mathsf{BM\_BLS.Sign}\langle \mathcal{U}(m, \vec{K}), \{\mathcal{S}_i(sk_i)\}_{i\in[n]}\rangle$: $\mathcal{U}$ runs the interactive signing protocol with each signer as in Fig. 1, using independent randomness each time, to obtain partial signatures $\{\sigma_i\}$. The final signature is computed as $\sigma = \prod_{i\in[n]} \sigma_i^{a_i}$, where $a_i = \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{agg}}(\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}, X_i)$.
- $\mathsf{BM\_BLS.Ver}(\mathsf{apk}, m, \sigma)$: Checks if $e(\sigma, g) = e(\mathsf{H}(m), \mathsf{apk})$.

To see that correctness holds, note first that

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_i X_i^{-r_i} &= (\mathsf{H}(m) g^{r_i})^{x_i} X_i^{-r_i} \\ &= \mathsf{H}(m)^{x_i} g^{r_i x_i} g^{-r_i x_i} \;=\; \mathsf{H}(m)^{x_i}\end{aligned}$$

for all i. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}e(\sigma, g) &= e\Big(\prod_{i\in[n]} \sigma_i^{a_i}, g\Big) \\ &= e(\mathsf{H}(m)^{\sum_{i\in[n]} x_i a_i}, g) \\ &= e(\mathsf{H}(m), g^{\sum_{i\in[n]} x_i a_i}) \\ &= e\Big(\mathsf{H}(m), \prod_{i\in[n]} g^{x_i a_i}\Big) \\ &= e\Big(\mathsf{H}(m), \prod_{i\in[n]} (g^{x_i})^{a_i}\Big) \\ &= e\Big(\mathsf{H}(m), \prod_{i\in[n]} X_i^{a_i}\Big) \;=\; e(\mathsf{H}(m), \mathsf{apk}),\end{aligned}$$

and BM_BLS.Ver outputs 1.

Discussion. Due of the simple nature of the protocol, $\mathcal{U}$ can contact each signer in parallel to obtain the necessary partial signatures. Moreover, even if some signers are unreachable, $\mathcal{U}$ can compute a multisignature based on the set of signers who respond.

Multisignature aggregation. Multisignatures on multiple, distinct messages with respect to the same aggregate public key can be aggregated. For example, given signatures σ_1 on message m_1 and σ_2 on message m_2, signed by the same set of signers, the aggregate signature $\sigma = \sigma_1\sigma_2$ can verified by checking if $e(\sigma, g) = e(\mathsf{H}(m_1)\mathsf{H}(m_2), \mathsf{apk})$. This also enables more-efficient verification.

Security. Blindness follows by a natural extension of the proof for blind BLS (cf. Appendix C.1). It is more challenging to prove one-more unforgeability. We prove the following in Appendix C.2.

Theorem 4. *Assume the discrete logarithm problem is hard, and model* $\mathsf{H}, \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{agg}}$ *as random oracles. Then* BM_BLS *is one-more unforgeable for all PPT algebraic adversaries.*

5 A Pairing-Free Construction

In this section we show an alternate construction of blind multisignatures that has the advantage of avoiding pairings. Motivated by prior work [28], we introduce the concept of multi-identification schemes with security against a certain form of man-in-the-middle (MiTM) attacks, and then design such a scheme. Finally, we show how to use such schemes to construct blind multisignatures.

5.1 Multi-Identification Schemes

Hauck et al. [28] prove OMUF security of blind signature schemes built from identification schemes by proving one-more man-in-the-middle (OMMIM) security of the underlying identification scheme.

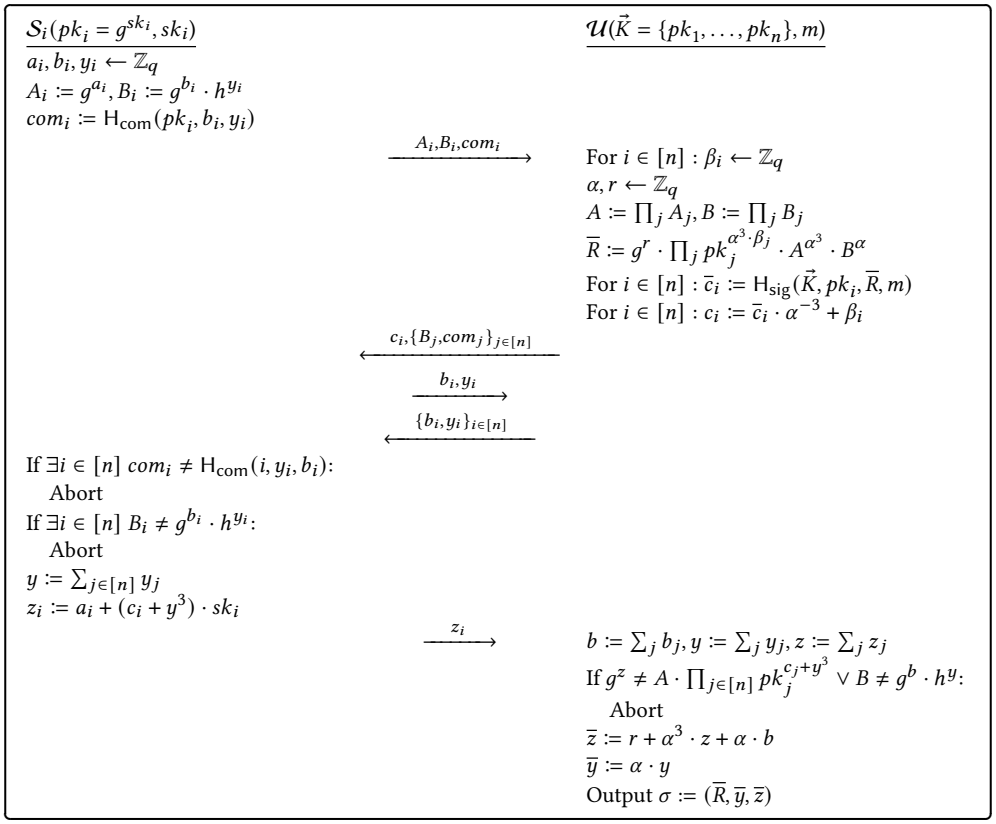

Figure 2: Blind multisignature scheme BM_SB.

We cannot immediately follow their methodology because it is not clear how to build blind *multi*signatures from standard identification schemes. To address this, we put forth the notion of a multi-identification scheme (mID). In an mID scheme, a set of provers, each of which has its own keys (pk,sk), interact with a verifier to prove knowledge of their secret keys. Intuitively, mID schemes allow provers to prove themselves to a verifier as a *group*. Although not very useful on their own, mID schemes can be used as a technical tool to build blind multi-signature schemes.

Definition 5 (Multi-identification schemes). For public parameters pp, an mID scheme is a tuple $\mathsf{mID} := (\mathsf{mID.KGen}, \mathsf{mID.Idfy})$ where

- $\mathsf{mID.KGen}(pp)$: Outputs a pair of keys (sk, pk).
- $\mathsf{mID.Idfy}\langle \mathcal{P}_i, \mathcal{V} \rangle$: This is an interactive protocol between the verifier $\mathcal{V}$ and multiple provers $\{\mathcal{P}_i\}$, in which the provers do not directly communicate with each other. Each prover has its own secret key as input, while the verifier has the public keys of all the provers. The protocol terminates when $\mathcal{V}$outputs 1 (ACCEPT) or 0 (REJECT).

Definition 6 (Correctness). Let $\mathsf{mID} := (\mathsf{mID.KGen}, \mathsf{mID.Idfy})$ be an mID scheme with n provers $\mathcal{P}_i$ and a verifier $\mathcal{V}$. We say that mID is correct iff for all pp it holds that

$$\Pr\left[\begin{matrix} \forall i \in [n] : (sk_i) \leftarrow \mathsf{mID.KGen}(pp) \\ b \leftarrow \mathsf{mID.Idfy}\langle \mathcal{P}_i(sk_i, pk_i), \mathcal{V}(\{pk_1, \ldots, pk_n\}) \rangle \end{matrix} : b = 1\right] = 1.$$

We generalize the security notion introduced by Hauck et al. [28] for mID schemes. Analogous to the standard OMMIM definition, we assume there is an active man-in-the-middle adversary A between the provers and the verifier. We also allow A to control all but one of the provers.

Definition 7 (One-more MiTM (OMMIM) security). Let A be an adversary and let $\mathsf{mID} := (\mathsf{mID.KGen}, \mathsf{mID.Idfy})$ be an mID scheme. Define the game ℓ-OMMIM as follows:

- **Setup.** Generate pp and run $(sk^*, pk^*) \leftarrow \mathsf{mID.KGen}(pp)$. Give pk^* to A.
- **Online phase.** A interacts (concurrently) with an honest prover using sk^*, and an honest verifier. For the latter, it must use a set of public keys containing pk^*.
- **Output.** A succeeds if it successfully completes at least $\ell + 1$ verifier sessions (i.e., by making the verifier output 1) but closes at most ℓ sessions with the honest prover.

We say that mID is ℓ-OMMIM-secure if any PPT A succeeds with negligible probability in the above game.

5.2 Constructing a Multi-Identification Scheme

We provide a construction of a multi-ID scheme, inspired by prior work [18]. The protocol is depicted in Figure 5. Let $pp := (\mathbb{G}, g, q, h)$, where $\mathbb{G}$ is a group of prime order $q = 2 \bmod 3$ with generator g,

and $h \in \mathbb{G}$ is a uniform group element. Define the scheme mID = (mID.KGen, mID.Idfy) as follows:

- mID.KGen(pp): sample $sk \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$, set $pk := g^{sk_i}$, and output (sk, pk).
- mID.Idfy works as follows (see Fig. 5):
  - mID.Prove$_1$: Sample $a_i, b_i, y_i \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ and set $A_i := g^{a_i}$ and $B_i := g^{b_i} \cdot h^{y_i}$. Then send (A_i, B_i).
  - mID.Ver$_1$: After receiving all $\{(A_i, B_i)\}$, choose $c_i \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ for all i and send c_i and $\{B_j\}$ to the ith prover.
  - mID.Prove$_2$: Send (b_i, y_i).
  - mID.Ver$_2$: After receiving $\{(b_i, y_i)\}$ from all provers, abort if $B_i \neq g^{b_i} \cdot h^{y_i}$ for some i. Otherwise, send $\{b_i, y_i\}$ to all provers.
  - mID.Prove$_3$: Abort if $B_j \neq g^{b_j} \cdot h^{y_j}$ for some j. Otherwise, compute $y := \sum_j y_j$ and send $z_i := a_i + b_i + (c_i + y^3) \cdot sk_i$.
  - mID.Ver$_3$: After receiving $\{z_i\}$ from all provers, compute $A := \prod_i A_i$, $B := \prod_i B_i$, $R := A \cdot B$, $y := \sum_i y_i$, and $z := \sum_i z_i$. Return 1 iff $g^z \cdot h^y = R \cdot \prod_i pk_i^{c_i + y^3}$.

To see that correctness holds, note that

$$\begin{aligned} R \cdot \prod_{j \in [n]} pk_j^{c_j + y^3} &= h^{\sum_{j \in [n]} y_j} \cdot \prod_{j \in [n]} A_j \cdot pk_j^{c_j + y^3} \\ &= g^{\sum_{j \in [n]} a_j} \cdot h^{\sum_{j \in [n]} y_j} \cdot g^{\sum_{j \in [n]} sk_j \cdot (c_j + y^3)} \\ &= g^{\sum_{j \in [n]} a_j + sk_j \cdot (c_j + y^3)} \cdot h^{\sum_{j \in [n]} y_j} \\ &= g^{\sum_{j \in [n]} z_j} \cdot h^y \;=\; g^z \cdot h^y. \end{aligned}$$

We prove the following in Appendix D:

Theorem 8. *Assume the discrete-logarithm problem is hard. Then* mID *is ℓ-OMMIM-secure for all PPT algebraic adversaries.*

5.3 A Pairing-Free BMS

In this section, we introduce a pairing-free blind multi-signature scheme BM_SB. Our scheme is inspired by the blind threshold-signature scheme Snowblind [18]. For the reader's convenience, we illustrate the scheme as an interactive protocol in Figure 2. For $pp = (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h)$ as in the previous section, and for hash functions $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{com}} : \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_p$ and $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}} : \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_p$ treated as random oracles, we define BM_SB as follows:

- BM_SB.KGen(1^λ): As before.
- BM_SB.Sign is an interactive protocol run by a user Usr and multiple signers. It works as follows (see Figure 2):
  - Sign$_1$(sk_i): Sample $a_i, b_i, y_i \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$, and compute $A_i := g^{a_i}$, $B := g^{b_i} \cdot h^{y_i}$, and $com_i := \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{com}}(pk_i, b_i, y_i)$. Then send (A_i, B_i, com_i).
  - Usr$_1$($\vec{K} = \{pk_i\}, m$): Upon receiving (A_i, B_i, com_i) from all signers, sample $\alpha, r \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $\beta_i \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ for all i, and compute $A := \prod_j A_j$, $B := \prod_j B_j$, and $\overline{R} := g^r \cdot A^{\alpha^3} \cdot B^\alpha \cdot \prod_j pk_j^{\alpha^3 \cdot \beta_j}$. Then for all i compute $\overline{c}_i := \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}(\vec{K}, pk_i, \overline{R}, m)$ and $c_i := \overline{c}_i \cdot \alpha^{-3} + \beta_i$. Send $c_i, \{B_j, com_j\}_j$ to the ith signer.
  - Sign$_2$: Send b_i, y_i.
  - Usr$_2$: Upon receiving b_j, y_j from all signers, abort if $B_j \neq g^{b_j} \cdot h^{y_j}$ or $com_j \neq \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{com}}(pk_j, b_j, y_j)$ for some j. Otherwise, send $\{b_j, y_j\}_j$ to all signers.
  - Sign$_3$: Compute $y := \sum_j y_j$ and $z_i := a_i + (c_i + y^3) \cdot sk_i$, and send z_i.
  - Usr$_3$: Upon receiving z_j from all signers, compute $b := \sum_j b_j, y := \sum_j y_j$, and $z := \sum_j z_j$. Abort if $g^z \neq A \cdot \prod_j pk_j^{c_j + y^3}$ or $B \neq g^b \cdot h^y$. Compute $\overline{z} := r + \alpha^3 \cdot z + \alpha b$ and $\overline{y} := \alpha y$, and output the signature $\sigma = (\overline{R}, \overline{y}, \overline{z})$.
- Vrfy($\vec{K}, m, \sigma$): Parse $\overline{R}, \overline{y}, \overline{z} \leftarrow \sigma$, compute $\overline{c}_i := \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}(\vec{K}, pk_i, \overline{R}, m)$ for all i, and output 1 if $\overline{y} \neq 0$ and $\overline{R} \cdot \prod_i pk_i^{\overline{c}_i + \overline{y}^3} = g^{\overline{z}} \cdot h^{\overline{y}}$, and 0 otherwise.

(BM_SB.KAgg is not defined because the scheme does not support key aggregation, and Vrfy takes the set of keys $\vec{K} = \{pk_1, \ldots, pk_n\}$ as input instead of an aggregate key apk.)

To see that correctness holds, note that

$$\begin{aligned} g^{\overline{z}} \cdot h^{\overline{y}} &= g^r \cdot g^{\alpha \cdot b} \cdot h^{\overline{y}} \cdot g^{\alpha^3 z} \\ &= g^r \cdot (g^b \cdot h^y)^\alpha \cdot (g^{\sum_j z_i})^{\alpha^3} \\ &= g^r \cdot B^\alpha \cdot (g^{\sum_i a_i + (c_i + y^3) \cdot sk_i})^{\alpha^3} \\ &= g^r \cdot B^\alpha \cdot g^{\alpha^3 \cdot \sum_i a_i} \cdot (g^{\sum_i (c_i + y^3) \cdot sk_i})^{\alpha^3} \\ &= g^r \cdot B^\alpha \cdot A^{\alpha^3} \cdot \left(\prod_i pk_i^{(c_i + y^3)} \right)^{\alpha^3} \\ &= g^r \cdot B^\alpha \cdot A^{\alpha^3} \cdot \prod_i pk_i^{(\overline{c}_i \cdot \alpha^{-3} + \beta_i + (\overline{y} \cdot \alpha^{-1})^3) \cdot \alpha^3} \\ &= g^r \cdot B^\alpha \cdot A^{\alpha^3} \cdot \prod_i pk_i^{\alpha^3 \cdot \beta_i} \cdot \prod_i pk_i^{(\overline{c}_i + \overline{y}^3)} \\ &= \overline{R} \cdot \prod_i pk_i^{(\overline{c}_i + \overline{y}^3)}. \end{aligned}$$

We prove the following in Appendix E.

Theorem 9. *For all PPT* A, $\mathbf{Adv}^{\mathsf{mBlind}}_{\mathsf{A,BM\_SB}}(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{2} + \mathsf{negl}(\lambda)$.

Theorem 10. *Assume the discrete logarithm problem is hard, and model* $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{com}}$ *and* $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}$ *as random oracles. Then* BM_SB *is one-more unforgeable for all PPT algebraic adversaries in the KOSK model.*

6 Evaluation

We present proof-of-concept implementations of BM_BLS and BM_SB, written in Python. (Code available at https://github.com/k4m4/bm-poc.) We also implemented a signature-verification smart contract (in Solidity) for each scheme. For our evaluation, we used the BN254 elliptic curve (using an EIP-1964 implementation,[8] with Rust bindings), which is estimated to provide around 100 bits of security [53]. We used BN254 for both schemes since, at the time of writing, it is the only pairing-friendly elliptic curve supported by Ethereum, but also the only curve over which EC addition and EC multiplication can be practically performed on an Ethereum smart contract.

6.1 Implementation Benchmarks

Table 1 shows the sizes of the token (i.e., signature) and the public keys in the signing set for each scheme. A BM_BLS token $\sigma \in \mathbb{G}_1$

[8] https://github.com/matter-labs/eip1962

is 64 bytes long, while a BM_SB token $\sigma = (\overline{R}, \overline{y}, \overline{z}) \in \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p$ is 128 bytes long. BM_BLS public keys can be aggregated into a single $\mathbb{G}_1$-element that is 64 bytes long, regardless of the number of signers/issuers. Conversely, BM_SB does not support public-key aggregation, meaning that all public keys in the signing set need to be transmitted. Moreover, BM_SB public keys need to be accompanied by corresponding proofs of possession (not reflected in the numbers in Table 1).

Construction	Token size			Public key size	
	$\mathbb{G}_1$	$\mathbb{Z}_p$	Bytes	$\mathbb{G}_1$	Bytes
BM_BLS	1	0	64	1	64
BM_SB	1	2	128	n	$64n$

Table 1: Token and public key sizes, assuming n signers.

Table 2 gives the communication costs for issuance. We record the number of bytes exchanged between the user and a *single* signer, expressed as a function of the total number of signers n. The data transferred from the user to a signer is denoted by $U \rightarrow S$, and $S \rightarrow U$ represents the data transferred from a signer to the user.

Figure 3 shows the execution times for issuance and verification of a single token, averaged over 10 trials. (Measurements were performed on a 2021 MacBook Pro laptop with a 10-core Apple M1 Pro processor and 16 GB of RAM.) We use Python co-routines to simulate communication between the user and signers, hence latency costs are excluded. Issuance costs account for the user's cost plus the cost of all signers. Key aggregation costs are not accounted for. BM_BLS verification involves just a single pairing check, irrespective of number of issuers, while BM_SB verification requires multiple EC additions and EC multiplications, the amount of which grows proportionally to the number of issuers. The main bottleneck for BM_BLS verification is the EC multiplications performed by the hash-to-curve operations (more details in the next section).

6.2 Smart-Contract Implementation

We envision that blockchain applications can leverage blind multisignatures to enable a set of signers to issue tokens off-chain that can then be verified by smart contracts on-chain. An example of such an application is a DAO with tokenized anonymous voting, as discussed in the introduction. As such, we also implemented an Ethereum Solidity smart contract performing token verification for BM_BLS and BM_SB.

For Ethereum compatibility and efficiency, we use the minSig approach [4] (reducing signature size at the expense of an increase in the public-key size). In addition, in our BM_BLS implementation we switch to asymmetric, Type-3 pairings. This means public keys are now of the form $(X_1, X_2) = (g_1^x, g_2^x) \in \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2$, as the user needs X_1 to unblind, while verification and key aggregation rely on X_2. A key's validity needs to be verified by checking $e(X_1, g_2) \stackrel{?}{=} e(g_1, X_2)$. When moving to the asymmetric setting, we have to use a version of the AGM for asymmetric pairings [5, 17], and unforgeability will require the co-qdlog assumption [5].

Constr.	r	$U \rightarrow S$		$S \rightarrow U$		Bytes exchanged	
		$\mathbb{G}$	$\mathbb{Z}_p$	$\mathbb{G}$	$\mathbb{Z}_p$	Per round	Total
BM_BLS	1	1	0	1	0	128	128
BM_SB	1	0	n	2	1	$32n + 160$	$64n + 224$
	2	0	$n-1$	0	2	$32n + 32$	
	3	0	0	0	1	32	

Table 2: Communication overhead for token issuance, measured between the user and a single signer, as a function of the total number of signers n.

For practical on-chain token verification, we use Ethereum's BN254 pre-compiled contracts to perform group operations and asymmetric pairing checks at reduced gas costs [10, 11, 51]. We adopt the hash-to-curve implementation of Fouque and Tibouchi [23, 31, 49], since the constant-time "hash and pray" alternative is vulnerable to a gas griefing attack [40]. Our smart contract maintains a nullifier D that keeps track of which tokens have been verified; upon successful verification of a token σ, it adds $\mathsf{H}(\sigma)$ to D.

In Figure 4, we show the gas costs for verifying a single token via our smart contract. We exclude the one-time cost of public key aggregation, but we include the cost of checking whether the token has already been presented (i.e., checking whether $\mathsf{H}(\sigma) \in D$) and storing the hash of the token in the nullifier. BM_BLS verification requires 2 pairings and a single hash-to-curve operation; it costs $\approx 232K$ gas, irrespective of the number of signers. On the other hand, the BM_SB verification cost grows with the number of signers n. Verifying a BM_SB token requires computing n hashes (SHA-256, in our implementation), $n + 2$ elliptic-curve additions, and $3n + 2$ elliptic-curve multiplications. The cost of verifying a BM_SB token exceeds that of a BM_BLS token for ≥ 11 signers.

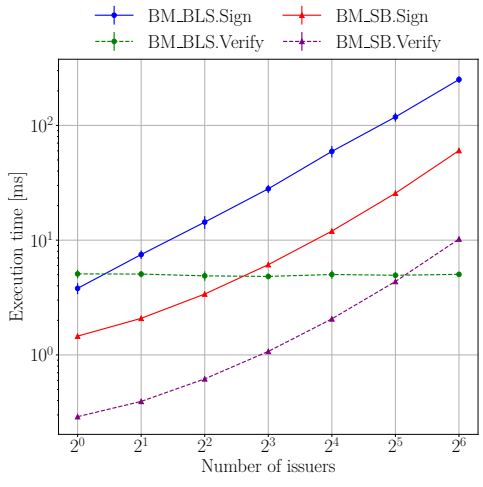

Figure 3: Execution times for issuance and verification of a single token.

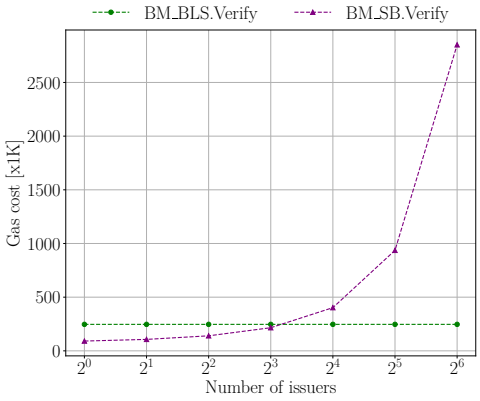

Figure 4: Ethereum gas cost for token verification, as a function of the number of signers.

An important benefit of BM_BLS is that it supports aggregation of tokens that share the same issuer set (as described in Section 4). This can be used to improve verification costs. Table 3 shows the gas costs for verifying aggregate tokens issued by the same set of 11 issuers. (We use a set of size 11 since that is the threshold at which the cost of verifying a BM_SB token exceeds that of a BM_BLS token.) Costs include the fixed transaction base fee (21K gas), hashing to curve, performing curve additions, multiplications, and pairings, and checking/maintaining the nullifier; since key aggregation only needs to be done once, we do not include it in the costs. Note that verifying more than ≈ 260 BM_BLS or ≈ 100 BM_SB tokens will exceed Ethereum's $\approx 30M$ block gas limit.

	BM_BLS.Ver(m)		BM_SB.Ver(m)
Num. of tokens	**Total**	**Amortized**	**Total**
1	232,083	232,083	279,746
2	370,692	185,346	559,492
4	576,120	144,030	1,118,984
8	1,011,144	126,393	2,237,968
16	1,814,572	113,411	4,475,936
32	3,615,310	112,978	8,951,872
64	6,966,217	108,847	17,903,744
128	13,846,324	108,174	35,807,488
256	27,277,340	106,552	71,614,976
512	54,596,438	106,634	143,229,952
1024	110,386,321	107,799	286,459,904

Table 3: Total and amortized gas costs for verifying multiple tokens issued by the same set of 11 issuers.

Excluding public-key aggregation, verifying an aggregate of ℓ BM_BLS tokens requires 2ℓ curve additions, ℓ hash-to-point invocations, and 2 pairings. On the other hand, BM_SB tokens are not aggregatable, so their verification cost grows linearly with the number of tokens being verified. The BM_SB token verification cost also grows with the number of signers, as described earlier.

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A Cryptographic Definitions

A.1 Blind Signatures

Definition 11 (Correctness). A blind signature scheme is correct if for $\mathsf{BS.Sign}\ \langle \mathcal{U}(m, pk), \mathcal{S}(sk)\rangle \rightarrow \sigma$, then $\mathsf{BS.Ver}\ (pk, m, \sigma) = 1$ with overwhelming probability.

For one-more unforgeability, the adversary is the user $\mathcal{U}$ that has to forge a signature on pk^* that did not come out of its interactions with signer that holds the secret to pk^*. The the one-more unforgeability game goes as follows: The challenger is going to fix the honest signer key pair (sk^*, pk^*) and respond to the adversary's

(A) signing queries with signatures on messages of the A's choice. After q complete signing sessions during query phase, A has to submit $q+1$ signatures on distinct messages during the forgery phase. If all signatures verify correctly, it means that a forgery has happened and A wins the game. Since the challenger cannot test whether a message was signed during the query phase (because of blindness), when the number of submitted signatures during the forgery exceeds the number of signatures seen during the query phase, a forgery took place.

Below we give the formal one-more unforgeability definition. We first define the signing oracle Sign_{sk^*}.

Sign_{sk^*}: Its functionality is similar to the oracle defined for multi-signatures in Section A.2. It simulates the honest signer's execution of BS.Sign $\langle \mathcal{S}(sk^*)\rangle$ and it outputs some intermediate value that can be used to compute the final signature.

Definition 12 (One-More Unforgeability). For a blind signature scheme BS, let game $\mathsf{OMUF}_A^{\mathsf{BS}}$ be the following game:

- **Setup:** The challenger generates the parameters and a key pair (sk^*, pk^*). It runs the adversary $A(\mathsf{par}, pk^*)$.
- **Queries:** A interacts with the signing oracle $\mathsf{Sign}_{sk^*}{}^{(sk^*)}$.
- **Output:** A submits a tuple of forgeries $(\sigma_1^*, m_1^*), \ldots, (\sigma_{\ell+1}^*, m_{\ell+1}^*)$ and wins if BS.Ver(pk^*, m_i, σ_i) = 1 $\forall i \in [\ell+1]$ and the number of valid signatures received from its interaction with the challenger during the Query phase is not more than ℓ. If A wins, the game outputs true.

Then BS is one-more unforgeable (OMUF) if for any probabilistic polynomial time adversary A,

$$\mathsf{Adv}_{A,\mathsf{BS}}^{\mathsf{OMUF}}(\lambda) := \Pr[\mathsf{OMUF}_A^{\mathsf{BS}} = \text{true}] = \mathrm{negl}(\lambda)$$

The second security property of blind signatures is that of blindness, i.e. the signer or a third party looking at a signing transcript cannot link a signature to its corresponding signing session.

The idea of the blindness game is the following: The adversarial entity A is the signer. In the malicious signer model [22], a key pair (sk, pk) and two messages are picked by the signer A. The challenger of the blindness game can interact with A and outputs two signatures. The signatures correspond to the messages picked by A and A is allowed to keep the transcripts of the signing sessions. In order to win the game, A has to link each transcript to its corresponding message/signature.

Below we give the formal blindness definition.

Definition 13 (Blindness). Given a blind signature scheme BS = (KGen, Sign, Ver) let game $\mathsf{Blind}_A^{\mathsf{BS}}$ be the following game:

The adversary A picks a pair of keys (sk, pk) and messages m_0, m_1. The challenger picks $b \in \{0,1\}$ and runs two signing sessions as the user. A participates in the signing sessions as the signer S and is given back σ_0, σ_1 by the challenger. A has to output a bit b', and wins if $b' = b$. If A wins, the game outputs true.

BS is blind if for any probabilistic polynomial time adversary A,

$$\mathsf{Adv}_{A,\mathsf{BS}}^{Blind}(\lambda) := \Pr[\mathsf{Blind}_A^{\mathsf{BS}} = \text{true}] \leq \frac{1}{2} + negl(\lambda).$$

A.2 Multi-Signatures

We define the security model for multi-signatures that support key aggregation.

Security Model. A multi-signature should satisfy the properties of *correctness* and *unforgeability* (i.e. an adversarial user should not be able to forge a signature that verifies under apk for a set of signers where at least one signer is honest).

We start with correctness for multi-signatures, which guarantees that if all signers participate honestly, then the final signature will verify under the aggregate key computed on their public keys.

Definition 14 (Correctness). A multi-signature scheme is correct if for every n, $i \in [n]$, $(sk_i, pk_i) \leftarrow \mathsf{MS.KGen}(1^\lambda)$ and for every m, if all signers with public keys in $\vec{K}$ participate in the interactive MS.Sign then the output is a signature σ such that MS.Ver (apk, m, σ) = 1 with overwhelming probability for apk = MS.KAgg ($\vec{K}$).

For unforgeability, even if an adversary has corrupted all but one signer with public key pk^*, the adversary should still not be able to forge a signature that verifies under an apk that includes pk^*. The honest keys (sk^*, pk^*) are generated and stored by the challenger. The unforgeability adversary can query on messages of its choice and see signatures under $\{pk^*\}$ or its supersets. In order for the adversary to win, it has to submit a forgery on a new message m^* signed by a set of public keys that includes pk^*.

Below we give the formal unforgeability definition. The signing oracle Sign_{sk^*} simulates one signer running algorithm Sign. It takes as input the parameters par, the signer's secret key sk^* and the message m. For concurrent security, the oracle runs many open sessions, each one identified by its session number, whereas in the sequential setting, the oracle returns only messages for the current open session and will not initiate a new one before this is complete.

Definition 15 (Unforgeability). For multisignature scheme MS, let $\mathsf{EUF\text{-}CMA}_A^{\mathsf{MS}}$ be the following game:

- **Setup:** The challenger generates a key pair (sk^*, pk^*) for the honest signer. It runs the adversary $A(\mathsf{par}, pk^*)$.
- **Queries:** A picks a message m and queries the signing oracle $\mathsf{Sign}_{sk^*}{}^{(sk^*,\cdot)}$. This step can be repeated multiple times for different inputs m.
- **Output:** A outputs $\sigma^*, m^*, \vec{K} = \{pk_1, \ldots, pk_n\}$ and succeeds if $pk^* \in \vec{K}$, no signing queries were made on m^*, and

$$\mathsf{MS.Ver}(\mathsf{KAgg}(\vec{K}), m^*, \sigma^*) = 1.$$

MS is EUF-CMA-secure (existentially unforgeable under chosen-message attacks) if for any PPT adversary A,

$$\mathsf{Adv}_{A,\mathsf{MS}}^{\mathsf{EUF\text{-}CMA}}(\lambda) := \Pr[\mathsf{EUF\text{-}CMA}_A^{\mathsf{MS}} = \text{true}] = negl(\lambda)$$

A stronger adversary. A stronger definition for unforgeability requires the keys set $\vec{K}$ to be known to the signers and the adversary A has never queried $\mathsf{Sign}_{sk^*}{}^{(sk^*, m^*, \vec{K}^*)}$, where $\vec{K}^*$ was used in the adversary's forgery. It is satisfied by Schnorr-based multi-signature schemes [43, 46]. In these schemes, the set of signers is embedded in the signature share and cannot be easily changed.

A.3 The ROS Problem

Definition 16 (Random Inhomogeneities in an Overdetermined System of Linear Equations (ROS) [25, 54]). Let $\mathbb{G}$ be a group of prime order q with generator g. For a positive integer $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, an adversary A, a hash function $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{ros}} : \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell \times \Omega \to \mathbb{Z}_q$ modeled as a random oracle for an arbitrary set Ω, define the game ℓ-ROS as follows.

- **Setup.** Ais executed with q and ℓ as input, and it gets oracle access to $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{ros}}$.
- **Online phase.** The game simulates the oracle $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{ros}}$ for Aand responds to its queries.
- **Output.** The game outputs 1 iff Aterminates and outputs (i) pair-wise distinct tuples $(\vec{\rho}_1, aux_1), \ldots, (\vec{\rho}_{\ell+1}, aux_{\ell+1})$, and (ii) $(c_1, \ldots, c_\ell) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell$, such that for all $i \in [\ell+1]$ the equality

$$\sum_{j\in[\ell]} \rho_{i,j} \cdot c_j = \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{ros}}(\vec{\rho}_i, aux_i).$$

B Unforgeability of Blind BLS

Theorem 17. *Given an algebraic adversary A making $q-1$ parallel signing queries and Q random oracle queries against the blind BLS scheme, there is a* PPT *algorithm that breaks q-dlog in the ROM with probability at least* $(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{p})\,\mathsf{Adv}^{\mathsf{OMUF}}_{A,\mathsf{BLS}}(\lambda)$.

Proof overview. Our proof involves two possible strategies on the challenger side, one of them is picked at random in the beginning: the secret x is either embedded in the random oracle's responses or in the honest signer's public key, the adversary A is unaware of the strategy used and unable to plan their attack accordingly. A successful forgery results in solving for x and in the first case reduces to the discrete logarithm problem and in the second case to the q-dlog problem with overwhelming probability. To picture why, in the second case, $q-1$ queries to the signing oracle are using q powers of the unknown x in the exponent. We use the AGM to exctract q equations from the forgery and we show that not all equations are trivial. Our reduction uses the q-dlog instance to simulate $q-1$ signing queries. The scheme's unforgeability overall relies on q-dlog assumption as the problem's hardness also implies the discrete logarithm assumption and covers both strategies.

Proof. For simplicity we focus first on the case where $q = 2$. So we have an adversary A who makes a single signing query and then outputs two forgeries. Let $X = g^x$ be the signing public key. Let $h_1, \ldots, h_Q$ be the responses A receives to its random-oracle queries. Let $\overline{m}_1$ denote the query A makes to the signing oracle. Note that A must also provide a representation of $\overline{m}_1$ with respect to $g, X, h_1, \ldots, h_Q$, so $\overline{m}_1 = g^\alpha X^\beta \prod_{i\in[Q]} h_i^{\gamma_i}$.

In response to the signing query, A receives $\bar{s}_1 = \overline{m}_1^x$. When A outputs its forgeries (m_1, σ_1) and (m_2, σ_2), we assume w.l.o.g. that m_1, m_2 were queried to the random oracle, and arrange the indices so that $\mathsf{H}(m_1) = h_1$ and $\mathsf{H}(m_2) = h_2$. If these are valid forgeries then $\sigma_j = h_j^x$ for $j = 1, 2$. Note further that A must provide representations of σ_1, σ_2, say $\sigma_j = g^{\alpha_j} X^{\beta_j} \left(\prod_{i\in[Q]} h_i^{\gamma_{i,j}}\right) \cdot \bar{s}_1^{\delta_j}$, for $j = 1, 2$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} h_j^x = \sigma_j &= g^{\alpha_j} X^{\beta_j} \left(\prod_i h_i^{\gamma_{i,j}}\right) \cdot \bar{s}_1^{\delta_j} \\ &= g^{\alpha_j} g^{\beta_j x} \left(\prod_i h_i^{\gamma_{i,j}}\right) \cdot \overline{m}_1^{\delta_j \cdot x} \\ &= g^{\alpha_j} g^{\beta_j x} \left(\prod_i h_i^{\gamma_{i,j}}\right) \left(g^\alpha g^{\beta x} \prod_i h_i^{\gamma_i}\right)^{\delta_j \cdot x} \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

or, by some algebra:

$$g^{\alpha_j + \beta'_j x + \beta''_j x^2} \prod_i h_i^{\gamma_{i,j} + \gamma'_{i,j} x} = 1 \tag{2}$$

for $j = 1, 2$, where $\beta'_j, \beta''_j, \gamma'_{i,j}$ are efficiently computable.

There are now two cases: either for some j, i the exponent of h_i in the jth equation (i.e., $\gamma_{i,j} + \gamma'_{i,j} x$) is non-zero, or for all j, i the exponent of h_i in the jth equation is zero. If A succeeds with probability ϵ, then either the first or second case must happen with probability at least $\epsilon/2$.

Assume the first case happens with probability at least $\epsilon/2$. We can use this to solve the discrete-logarithm problem with probability at least $\epsilon/2 - 1/p$ as follows. Given Y, set the public key to $X = g^x$ for known, uniform $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. For the ith hash query, program the response to be $h_i = g^{s_i} Y^{r_i}$ for uniform $s_i, r_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. (If $h_i = 1$ for some i then we can solve for $\log_g Y$ directly, so we assume this does not happen in what follows.) Since x is known, queries to the signing oracle can be answered easily. If A forges and the first case happens then, except with probability $1/p$, we get an equation of the form $g^A Y^B = 1$ with A, B known and $B \neq 0$, which allows us to solve for $\log_g Y$. To see this is the case, note that all the exponents in (2) are known, and so we have an equation of the form $g^a \cdot \prod_i (g^{s_i} Y^{r_i})^{b_i} = g^{a + \sum_i b_i s_i} \cdot Y^{\sum_i b_i r_i} = 1$, with a and the $\{b_i\}$ known, and at least one of the $\{b_i\}$ non-zero. Letting i be the largest index for which b_i is non-zero and viewing $\{b_j\}_{j<i}$ as fixed, note that r_i is uniform from A's point of view and there is at most one non-zero value of b_i for which $\sum_i b_i r_i = 0$. This concludes the analysis of the first case.

Before continuing, we analyze (2) in more detail. Assume we are in the second case, so for all j, i we have $\gamma_{i,j} + \gamma'_{i,j} x = 0$. Call an equation of this form *trivial* if $\gamma'_{i,j} = 0$ (which implies $\gamma_{i,j} = 0$). We claim that it is not possible for all equations to be trivial. To see this, note that (using equation (1))

$$\gamma'_{i,j} = \begin{cases} \delta_j \cdot \gamma_i & i \neq j \\ \delta_j \cdot \gamma_i - 1 & i = j. \end{cases}$$

Thus, all equations are trivial only if $\delta_1, \delta_2, \gamma_1, \gamma_2$ are such that

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_1 \cdot (\gamma_1,\ \gamma_2) &= (1,\ 0) \\ \delta_2 \cdot (\gamma_1,\ \gamma_2) &= (0,\ 1). \end{aligned}$$

But since the vector $(\gamma_1, \gamma_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2$ spans a vector space of dimension at most 1, this is impossible.

Returning to the main proof, assume the second case happens with probability at least $\epsilon/2$; we use this to solve the 2-dlog assumption with probability at least $\epsilon/2$. Given $Y_1 = g^x, Y_2 = g^{x^2}$, we set the public key equal to $X = Y_1$ and program $h_i = g^{r_i}$ (for uniform $r_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$) for all i. When A makes signing query $\overline{m}_1 = g^\alpha X^\beta \prod_i h_i^{\gamma_i}$, we answer it with $\bar{s}_1 = Y_1^\alpha Y_2^\beta \prod_i Y_1^{r_i \gamma_i}$. When A outputs its forgeries, we derive equations as in (2), e.g.,

$$g^{\alpha_j} Y_1^{\beta'_j} Y_2^{\beta''_j} \prod_i g^{r_i \gamma_{i,j}} Y_1^{r_i \gamma'_{i,j}} = 1$$

for $j = 1, 2$, where $\gamma_{i,j}, \gamma'_{i,j}$ are efficiently computable. Since we are in the second case, we know that $g^{r_i \gamma_{i,j}} Y_1^{r_i \gamma'_{i,j}} = 1$ for all i, j. As we have shown above, it is not possible for all equations to be trivial; thus, for some i, j it must hold that $\gamma'_{i,j} \neq 0$. We can use any such

non-trivial equation to solve for $x = \log_g Y_1$. This completes the proof when $q = 2$.

We sketch how to extend the above argument for arbitrary $q > 2$. The key thing that changes is that now A's queries to the signing oracle can also depend on answers to previous signing queries. Thus, in general, when A makes its jth query $\overline{m}_j$ to the signing oracle it now provides a representation in terms of $g, X, \{h_i\}_{i\in[Q]}$, and $\{\bar{s}_i\}_{i<j}$. However, it is easy to show by induction that this allows derivation of a representation of the form

$$\overline{m}_j = g^{\sum_{k=0}^{j} \beta_{j,k}\, x^k} \cdot \prod_{i\in[Q]} h_i^{\sum_{k=0}^{j-1} \gamma_{i,j,k}\, x^k} \tag{3}$$

where the $\{\beta_{j,k}\}$ and $\{\gamma_{i,j,k}\}$ are efficiently computable. Thus, the analogue of (2) for the q forgeries output by A becomes

$$g^{\sum_{k=0}^{q} \beta'_{j,k}\, x^k} \prod_{i\in[Q]} h_i^{\sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \gamma'_{i,j,k}\, x^k} = 1 \tag{4}$$

for $j = 1, \ldots, q$, where the $\{\beta'_{j,k}\}$ and $\{\gamma'_{i,j,k}\}$ are efficiently computable. As before, we have two cases: either for some j, i the exponent of h_i in the jth equation is non-zero, or for all j, i the exponent of h_i in the jth equation is zero. A reduction to the discrete-logarithm problem in the first case is the same as before, so we focus on the second case.

As before, in the second case we have $\sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \gamma'_{i,j,k}\, x^k = 0$ for all j, i, and we call an equation of this form *trivial* if $\gamma'_{i,j,1} = 0$. We again claim that it is impossible for all equations to be trivial. Indeed, define the vectors $\vec{\gamma}_j = (\gamma_{1,j,1}, \ldots, \gamma_{q,j,1}) \in \mathbb{Z}_p^q$ for $j = 1, \ldots, q-1$, where $\vec{\gamma}_j$ corresponds to the vector of exponents of $h_1, \ldots, h_q$ for the jth signing query of A. Then all equations can be trivial only if there exist $\delta_{1,1}, \ldots, \delta_{q,q-1}$ such that $\sum_{j=1}^{q-1} \delta_{i,j} \cdot \vec{\gamma}_j = e_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p^q$, for $i = 1, \ldots, q$, where e_i is the vector that is 1 at position i and 0 everywhere else. But since the $\{\vec{\gamma}_j\}$ span a vector space of dimension at most $q-1$, and the $\{e_i\}$ are q linearly independent vectors, this is clearly impossible.

With this in place, we now show how to solve the q-dlog assumption when the second case happens with probability at least $\epsilon/2$. Given $Y_1 = g^x, \ldots, Y_q = g^{x^q}$, we set the public key equal to $X = Y_1$ and program $h_i = g^{r_i}$, where $r_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is uniform. When A makes its jth signing query as in (3), we answer it with

We have $\prod_{k=0}^{j} Y_{k+1}^{\beta_{j,k}} \cdot \prod_{i\in[Q]} \prod_{k=0}^{j-1} Y_{k+1}^{r_i \cdot \gamma_{i,j,k}}$ for $j = 1, \ldots, q-1$. When A outputs its forgeries, we derive equations as in (4) and find i, j for which $\sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \gamma'_{i,j,k}\, x^k = 0$ and $\gamma'_{i,j,1} \neq 0$. We then use that equation to solve for x. □

C Proofs for BM_BLS

C.1 Blindness

We show:

Theorem 18. BM_BLS *is unconditionally blind.*

Proof. Let A be an adversary controlling n signers, picking two messages m_0, m_1, and playing the game of Definition 3. At the end of the game, A holds two transcripts $t_b = \{\overline{m}_1^b, \ldots, \overline{m}_n^b, \bar{s}_1^b, \ldots, \bar{s}_n^b\}$ and $t_{1-b} = \{\overline{m}_1^{1-b}, \ldots, \overline{m}_n^{1-b}, \bar{s}_1^{1-b}, \ldots, \bar{s}_n^{1-b}\}$ and signatures σ_0, σ_1. All elements in t_b, t_{1-b} are independent from $m_0, m_1, \sigma_0, \sigma_1$. □

C.2 One-More Unforgeability of BM_BLS

We sketch a proof of Theorem 4 based on the proof of Theorem 17.

Proof. A's output forgery consists of $(m_1, \sigma_1, \vec{K}_1), \ldots, (m_q, \sigma_q, \vec{K}_q)$. Let $X = g^x$ be the public key of the honest signer, given to A. For the forgery to be valid, X will be included in all key sets $\vec{K}_1, \ldots, \vec{K}_q$. Let $h_1, \ldots, h_Q$ be the responses A receives to its random-oracle queries. Let $\overline{m}_j$ be the jth query to the signing oracle and $\bar{s}_j$ the output. Together with $\overline{m}_j$, A provides a representation in terms of $g, X, \{h_i\}_{i\in[Q]}$, and $\{\bar{s}_i\}_{i<j}$, i.e. all the group elements given so far, including previous signing queries. For every element Z submitted in the forgery ($Z \in \{\sigma_j\}$ for $j \in [q]$, or $Z \in \{X_{j,t}\}$, $X_{j,t} \in \vec{K}_j$ and for $t \in [|\vec{K}_j|]$), it also provides a representation in terms of $g, X, \{h_i\}_{i\in[Q]}$, and $\{\bar{s}_i\}_{i\in[q-1]}$. Z can also be written in the following form $Z = g^{\sum_{k=0}^{q} \beta_{j,k}\, x^k} \cdot \prod_{i\in[Q]} h_i^{\sum_{k=0}^{q} \gamma_{i,j,k}\, x^k}$ where the $\{\beta_{j,k}\}$ and $\{\gamma_{i,j,k}\}$ are efficiently computable.

When A outputs its forgery, we assume it has queried the random oracle $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{agg}}$ for every element in $\vec{K}_j$ that outputs an element $a_{j,t}$ in $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$. Without loss of generality, we assume that the honest signer's key appears first in every set $\vec{K}_j$, $X_{j,1} = X$. We also assume w.l.o.g. that $m_1, \ldots, m_q$ were queried to the random-oracle H, and arrange the indices so that $\mathsf{H}(m_1) = h_1, \ldots, \mathsf{H}(m_q) = h_q$.

From the validity of the signatures it holds that

$$\sigma_j = h_j^{a_{j,1}x + \sum_t a_{j,t} (\log_g X_{j,t} + \sum_{i\in[Q]} \log_{h_i} X_{j,t})} \tag{5}$$

for $j \in [q]$, $i \in [Q]$ and $t \in [|\vec{K}_j|]$. Since all $\sigma_j, X_{j,t}$ have the form of Z, we can efficiently move all terms in one side, group the exponents and derive an equation of the form

$$g^{\sum_{k=0}^{q} \beta'_{j,k}\, x^k} \prod_{i\in[Q]} h_i^{\sum_{k=0}^{q} \gamma'_{i,j,k}\, x^k} = 1 \tag{6}$$

for $j = 1, \ldots, q$, where $\{\beta'_{j,k}, \gamma'_{i,j,k}\}$ are efficiently computable.

As before, we have two cases: either for some j, i the exponent of h_i in the jth equation is non-zero, or for all j, i the exponent of h_i in the jth equation is zero. If A succeeds with probability ϵ, then either the first or second case must happen with probability at least $\epsilon/2$. When the second case happens, we derive $\delta_{1,1}, \ldots, \delta_{q,q-1}$ such that $\sum_{j=1}^{q-1} \delta_{i,j} \cdot \vec{\gamma}_j = e_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p^q$ for $i = 1, \ldots, q$, where $\vec{\gamma}_j$ corresponds to the vector of exponents of $h_1, \ldots, h_q$ for the jth signing query of A. $e_i = \vec{0}$ happens when the adversary outputs a signature σ_i such that the exponent of h_i in (5) has the linear term in x equal to zero. Since A does not control the outputs $\vec{a}_i = (a_{i,1}, \ldots, a_{i,|\vec{K}_i|})$ of $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{agg}}$, this happens with probability Q/p. From the union bound, the probability that one e_i is the zero vector is less than $q \cdot Q/p$. With probability at least $\epsilon/2 - q \cdot Q/p$, the 2nd case happens and $e_1, \ldots, e_q$ are non-zero vectors. Then, a reduction to the q-dlog problem is the same as before.

We now focus on the first case. When we handle case one the secret key x is picked and known and it holds that the exponent of at least one hash query in Equation 6 is non-zero. We again program the response for the ith hash query to be $h_i = g^{s_i} Y^{r_i}$ for uniform $s_i, r_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ and from (6), get an equation of the form $g^A Y^B = 1$ with A, B known and $B \neq 0$, except with probability $1/p$.

We can derive an equation $g^A Y^{B_1} (Y^2)^{B_2} = 1$ and solve a quadratic equation for $\log_g Y$. □

D One-More MitM Security of mID

In this section, we provide a proof overview of Theorem 8 and refer to the full version of our paper for the complete proof.

Proof overview. We follow the framework used to prove the OMUF security of $\mathbf{BS}_{[f_1]}$ [18]. In particular, we show that in order for an adversary to win Game ℓ-OMMIM against mID, it must either win Game ℓ-ROS for $\ell = 1$ (see Def. 16), which is shown to be information-theoretically hard in [25], or it must solve the dlog problem. To this end, we proceed via a series of games to rule out *bad* events regarding the algebraic representation of the group elements submitted by the algebraic adversary A upon Ver_1 queries. In Game_1, we show that A cannot use pk_1 in the representation of the group element B, because otherwise, this is equivalent to solving $\mathrm{dlog}_g pk_1$. Then, in Game_2, we show that A cannot use the group elements h and pk_1 in the representations of the public keys of the corrupted provers pk_k for $2 \le k \le n$. If h or pk_1 occur in the representation of any pk_k, a reduction wins the dlog game. Next, we show in Game_3 that using the group element A_{pid} of a prover session pid in the representation of R_{vid} of a successful verifier session vid forces A to make a Prove_3 query for the session pid, otherwise a reduction can win the dlog game. Then, we show in Game_4 that the value y_{vid} at the verifier side of successful verifier sessions must satisfy a certain equation; otherwise, a reduction can win the dlog game. Finally, in Games 5-8, we show that a reduction wins the dlog game unless A can solve the 1-ROS problem.

E Proofs for BM_SB

E.1 Blindness

Proof. Let A be an adversary playing Game mBlind against BM_SB. Let the transcripts of the two executions be $T_0 := \{T_{0,1}, \ldots, T_{0,n}\}$ and $T_1 := \{T_{1,1}, \ldots, T_{1,n}\}$, where $T_{i,j} = (A_{i,j}, B_{i,j}, c_{i,j}, \{com_{i,k}\}_{k\in[n]}, y_{i,j}, b_{i,j}, \{b_{i,k}, y_{i,k}\}_{k\in[n]}, z_{i,j})$ for $i \in \{0,1\}$ and $j \in [n]$, and let $(m_0, \sigma_0 = (\overline{R}_0, \overline{y}_0, \overline{z}_0))$ and $(m_1, \sigma_1 = (\overline{R}_1, \overline{y}_1, \overline{z}_1))$ be the message-signature pairs. Define $V_{i,k}(\mathsf{A}) := (T_i, m_k, \sigma_k)$ for $i, k \in \{0,1\}$.

First, we show that, for all $i, k \in \{0,1\}$, $V_{i,k}(\mathsf{A})$ determines a valid user state $\mathsf{ust} := (r_{i,k}, \alpha_{i,k}, \beta_{i,k,1}, \ldots, \beta_{i,k,n})$. [9] We construct a user state $\mathsf{ust}_{i,k}$ by defining the blinding factors

$$\alpha_{i,k} = \frac{\overline{y}_k}{\sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j}}, \tag{7}$$

$$r_{i,k} = \overline{z}_k - \alpha_{i,k}^3 \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} z_{i,j} - \alpha_{i,k} \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} b_{i,j}, \tag{8}$$

$$\beta_{i,k,j} = c_{i,j} - \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}(\vec{K}_k, pk_{k,j}, m_k, \overline{R}_k) \cdot \alpha_{i,k}^{-3}. \tag{9}$$

Next, we show that these values are uniformly distributed in $\mathbb{Z}_q$ (before A gets access to m_k, σ_k). The uniformity of $\alpha_{i,k}$ follows from the uniformity of $\overline{y}_k$, which is computed by the experiment as $\overline{y}_k = \alpha_k \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} y_{k,j}$, where α_k is the real blinding factor used by the experiment in the k-th user session. Similarly, the uniformity of $r_{i,k}$ follows from the uniformity of $\overline{z}_k$, which is computed by the experiment as $\overline{z}_k = r_k + \alpha_k^3 \cdot z_k + \alpha_k \cdot b_k$, and r_k is chosen uniformly at random. Finally, $\beta_{i,k,j}$ is uniformly distributed as long as A does not query $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}$ on $(\vec{K}_k, pk_{k,j}, m_k, \overline{R}_k)$. Since $\overline{R}_k = g^{r_k} \cdot \sum_j pk_j^{\alpha_k^3 \cdot \beta_{k,j}} \cdot A^{\alpha_{i,k}^3} \cdot B^{\alpha_k}$ is computed by the experiment, and thus, it is uniformly random due to the uniformity of the real blinding factor r_k, the probability that A queries $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}$ on $\overline{R}_k$ is at most $\frac{Q_H}{q}$, where Q_H is the number of hash queries A makes to $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}$.

Finally, we show that such a user state ust defines a valid signature $(\overline{R}_k, \overline{y}_k, \overline{z}_k)$ and hashes $\overline{c}_{k,1}, \ldots, \overline{c}_{k,n}$ such that

$$\overline{R}_k \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{\overline{c}_{k,j} + \overline{y}_k^3} = g^{\overline{z}_k} \cdot h^{\overline{y}_k},$$

for all $i, k \in \{0,1\}$. We assume A closes both signing sessions successfully, otherwise, the game outputs $(\perp, \perp)$, and in this case, A's advantage is in winning the game is 0. This implies that both transcripts T_1, and T_2 are valid.

Since the k-th user session outputs a valid signature $(\overline{R}_k, \overline{y}_k, \overline{z}_k)$ and hashes $c_{k,j}$ for all $j \in [n]$, it holds that

$$\overline{R}_k \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{\overline{c}_{k,j} + \overline{y}_k^3} = g^{\overline{z}_k} \cdot h^{\overline{y}_k},$$

hence

$$\overline{R}_k = g^{\overline{z}_k} \cdot h^{\overline{y}_k} \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{-\overline{c}_{k,j} - \overline{y}_k^3}.$$

Substituting Equations (7)–(9) into this equation yields

$$\overline{R}_k = g^{r_{i,k} + \alpha_{i,k}^3 \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} z_{i,j} + \alpha_{i,k} \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} b_{i,j}} \cdot h^{\alpha_{i,k} \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j}} \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{-(c_{i,j} - \beta_{i,k,j}) \cdot \alpha_{i,k}^3 - \alpha_{i,k}^3 \cdot (\sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j})^3}.$$

We rearrange the equation as

$$\overline{R}_k = g^{r_{i,k}} \cdot g^{\alpha_{i,k}^3 \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} z_{i,j}} \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{\alpha_{i,k}^3 \cdot (-c_{i,j} - (\sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j})^3)} \cdot g^{\alpha_{i,k} \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} b_{i,j}} \cdot h^{\alpha_{i,k} \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j}} \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{\alpha_{i,k} \cdot \beta_{i,j,k}}.$$

Since T_i is a valid transcript for all $i \in \{0,1\}$, it follows that $A_i \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{c_j + (\sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j})^3} = \prod_{j\in[n]} A_{i,j} \cdot pk_j^{c_j + (\sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j})^3} = g^{z_i}$, and $B_i = g^{b_i} \cdot h^{y_i}$, where $b_i = \sum_{j\in[n]} b_{i,j}, y_i = \sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j}, z_i = \sum_{j\in[n]} z_{i,j}$. Consequently, we have

$$\overline{R}_k = g^{r_{i,k}} \cdot A_i^{\alpha_{i,k}^3} \cdot B_i^{\alpha_{i,k}} \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{\beta_{i,j,k} \cdot \alpha_{i,k}^3}.$$

It holds that $(\overline{R}_k, \overline{y}_k, \overline{z}_k) = (g^{r_{i,k}} \cdot A_i^{\alpha_{i,k}^3} \cdot B_i^{\alpha_{i,k}} \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{\beta_{i,j,k} \cdot \alpha_{i,k}^3}, \alpha_{i,k} \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} y_{i,j}, r_{i,k} + \alpha_{i,k}^3 \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} z_{i,j} + \alpha_{i,k} \cdot \sum_{j\in[n]} b_{i,j})$, and $\overline{c}_{k,j} = \mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}(\vec{K}_k, pk_{k,j}, g^{r_{i,k}} \cdot A_i^{\alpha_{i,k}^3} \cdot B_i^{\alpha_{i,k}} \cdot \prod_{j\in[n]} pk_j^{\beta_{i,j,k} \cdot \alpha_{i,k}^3}, m_k)$, which concludes the claim. □

[9] Note that the user state is determined via the tuple ust because all other values on the user side are fixed (given the transcripts and the message-signature pair).

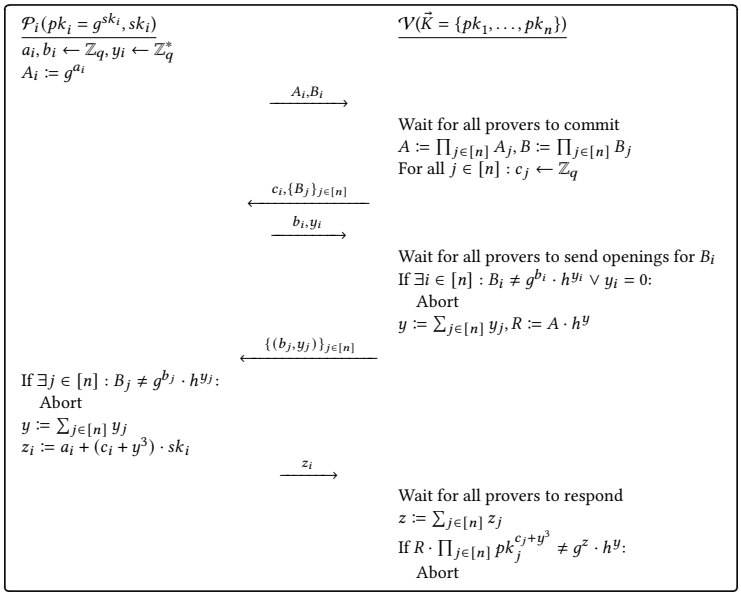

Figure 5: Multi-identification scheme mID **executed by** n **provers and a verifier.**

E.2 One-More Unforgeability

We present the proof overview here and refer to our full version for the complete proof.

Proof outline. We prove one-more unforgeability following prior work [28, 32]. BM_SB is built from a secure multi-ID scheme mID. It remains to show that the OMMIM security of mID implies the OMUF security of BM_SB. To this end, we provide a reduction R_1 that exploits any algebraic forger A winning Game OMUF against our BM_SB scheme to win Game OMMIM against mID. However, for R_1 to function properly, it requires a few conditions to hold; therefore, we first prove that these restrictions indeed hold. In particular, we start by showing that A must make (at least) an $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}$-query for each valid signature it outputs. As A is algebraic, it must submit a representation for each group element in its queries to $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}$. This allows R_1 to learn the representation for each group element $\overline{R}$ that occurs in the forgeries output by A. We then show that a specific relation must hold between the forgeries A outputs and the representation of $\overline{R}$ that A submits in the corresponding query to $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}$. Finally, we provide the reduction R_1 that runs Game OMMIM against mID and uses its challenger's prover and verifier oracles to simulate the signers and the random oracle $\mathsf{H}_{\mathsf{sig}}$, respectively, for A. When A terminates and outputs $\ell + 1$ valid signatures, R_1 crafts responses to close the verifier sessions using those signatures, which allows it to win the game OMMIM.