A simpler construction of traceable and linkable ring signature scheme

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Abstract. Traceable and linkable ring signature scheme (TLRS) plays a major role in the construction of auditable privacy-preserving blockchain-ss, as it empowers the auditor with traceability of signers’ identities. A recent work by Li gives a modular construction of TLRS by usage of classic ring signature, one-time signature and zero-knowledge proofs, and has security against malicious auditors. In this paper, we introduce sTLRS, a simpler modification of TLRS which is constructed directly from classic ring signature, without any additional one-time signatures or zero-knowledge proofs. sTLRS has public key size reduced by 80% and verification time reduced by over 50%, compared to TLRS. Moreover, we can further modify the sTLRS to achieve anonymity, unforgeability, linkability, nonslanderability and traceability against malicious auditors.

Keywords: Auditable blockchains · Privacy preserving · Traceable and linkable ring signature · Malicious auditors.

1 Introduction

Privacy-preserving techniques in blockchain theory has been developed in this decade to provide a potential replacement of traditional blockchain-based cryptocurrencies such as Bitcoin[20] and Ethereum[6]. Privacy-preserving cryptocurrencies, represented by Monero[26] and Zerocash[23], have realized fully anonymous and confidential transactions, which can protect identities for both initiators and recipients in transactions, as well as the transaction amount, to support various privacy-preserving scenarios such as salary, donation, bidding, taxation, etc. A series of works have been proposed during these years such as Confidential Transaction[18], Mimblewimble[13], Dash[9], Monero[26] and Zerocash[23], etc. Among them, Monero uses techniques from Cryptonote[26], Ring-CT[21] and Bulletproofs[5] successively, it uses linkable ring signature scheme to hide the identity of initiator, uses Diffie-Hellman key exchange schemes[26, 21] to hide the identity of recipient and uses range proofs (Borromean[21], Bulletproofs[5]) to hide the the amount of transaction.

However, privacy-preserving cryptocurrencies are not auditable, which may cause abuse of privacy and facilitate illegal transactions by malicious users, such as money laundering, illegal asset transfer, etc. It is crucial to develop new regulatory mechanism to realize traceability of users’ identities and transaction
amount in privacy-preserving cryptocurrencies. To solve this issue, a recent work by Li et al.\cite{14} proposes the first fully auditable privacy-preserving blockchain against malicious auditors, their construction contains a traceable and linkable ring signature scheme (TLRS), traceable range proofs (TBoRP, TBuRP) and a traceable scheme for long-term addresses. Their work is a significant approach to overcome the regulatory barriers on privacy-preserving cryptocurrencies. As for construction of TLRS, an additional one-time signature and the validity proof of user’s public key are needed to prevent slandering attack (slandering honest signers) and tracing attack (escaping from audit), both of which require extra storage and more time for generation and verification, making TLRS less efficient than the linkable ring signature (MLSAG) in Monero. So it is necessary to construct a new TLRS with simpler key generation algorithm and less computation time, to support future application of cryptocurrencies with high TPS (transactions per second).

1.1 Our Contributions

In this paper, we give a simpler construction of TLRS (named by sTLRS) by removing the one-time signature and validity proof of public key from the key generation algorithm for each user, with user’s public key simplified from $PK = (g_1^{xha}, g_2^a, \pi(g_1^{xha}, g_2^a))$ to $PK = g^x$. This improvement significantly reduces the total size of $PK$ from $(4, 1)$ to $(1, 0)$, where $(\cdot, \cdot)$ refers to number of elements in $(G, \mathbb{Z}_q)$. Moreover, in sTLRS, the computation time for verification is reduced from $(7n + 1, 6n + 1)$ to $(3n + 3, 2n + 1)$, where $(\cdot, \cdot)$ refers to number of times for exponentiation and multiplication respectively (we take AOS ring signature as component for example), compared to TLRS.

In addition, we can further modify sTLRS to achieve security (anonymity, unforgeability, linkability, nonslanderability and traceability) against malicious auditors (named by sTLRS’), by adding another independent generator to the system, with the same public key as sTLRS. In sTLRS’, the verification time is increased from $(3n + 3, 2n + 1)$ to $(3n + 5, 2n + 3)$, compared to sTLRS. sTLRS’ is a more compact construction than the original TLRS, while maintaining the same security level (against malicious auditors).

The construction of sTLRS (sTLRS’) is also modular, we can choose any elliptic-curve-based ring signature scheme as the component, which means that we can choose the fastest (or shortest) elliptic-curve-based ring signature to get the fastest (or shortest) traceable and linkable ring signature directly.

Simpler Traceable and Linkable Ring Signatures According to the design direction of \cite{14}, under similar regulatory model, we give a simpler and modular construction of traceable and linkable ring signature scheme (sTLRS) by usage of classic ring signature as component, without any additional one-time signatures or zero-knowledge proofs for public keys. Actually, in the construction of sTLRS, classic ring signature can be directly switched to traceable and linkable ring signature by randomized combination between $L_{PK}$ and tracing keys, which
A simpler construction of traceable and linkable ring signature scheme

1. The public parameter is \((\mathbb{G}, q, g, h = g^y)\), where \(g\) (uniformly generated by system) is a generator of elliptic curve with prime order \(q\), \(y\) is the audit trapdoor, generated by the auditor.
2. User generates his \((PK, SK)\) by usage of public parameter, the key generation remains the same as Monero.
3. When signing, the signer publishes a tracing key \(TK\), computes a public keys set \(L_{RK}\) for ring signature, then gets the classic ring signature \(\tau\) by usage of his private key \(SK\), the basis element (generator) for classic ring signature is different from TLRS.
4. The verifier checks whether \(TK\) is already in previous signatures to determine whether illegal signature (double spending) occurs. Then computes the classic ring signature public keys set \(L_{RK}\) and checks the validity of the classic ring signature \(\tau\), then outputs the verification results.
5. The auditor can trace the identity of signer by usage of the trapdoor \(y\) and \(TK\).

The security of sTLRS is based on the hardness of discrete logarithm and the security of ring signature component in the random oracle model. In the following we give a brief comparison between TLRS and sTLRS:

1. sTLRS is more efficient than TLRS, no additional one-time signatures or zero-knowledge proofs are needed, the public key size is reduced by about 80%, the generation time is reduced by over 50%, and the verification time is reduced by over 50%.
2. sTLRS can also be modified to be secure against malicious auditors, which means any malicious auditor cannot double spend, slander honest users or escape from audit, same as TLRS.
3. sTLRS is adapted to Monero system, as they share the same public key generation algorithm for each UTXO. Meanwhile, the public keys do not need to regenerate when auditors change.

A concurrent work[15] gives another construction method of traceable and linkable ring signature, to achieve a traceable Monero system by making use of paring-based accumulators and signature of knowledge. Compared to [15], sTLRS has three main advantages:

1. The construction of sTLRS is modular, we can use any elliptic-based classic ring signature as component (such as AOS, Ring-CT 3.0, etc.) to achieve the most efficient (or most compact) traceable and linkable ring signature, according to different applications and parameters.
2. Security of sTLRS relies on standard assumptions (paring-free), without any trusted public parameters.
3. The tracing algorithm (as well as the generation and verification algorithms) of sTLRS is more efficient than [15].
1.2 Related Works

**Ring Signatures** Ring signature is a special type of signature scheme, in which signer can sign on behalf of a group chosen by himself, while retaining anonymous within the group. In ring signature, signer selects a list of public keys \( L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \ldots, PK_n\} \) as the ring elements, and uses his secret key \( SK_\kappa \) to sign, where \( \kappa \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \). Verifier cannot determine the signer’s identity. Ring signature was first proposed by Rivest, Shamir and Tauman\[22\] in 2001, they constructed ring signature schemes based on RSA trapdoor permutation and Robin trapdoor function, in the random oracle model. In 2002, Abe et al.[1] proposed AOS ring signature, which simultaneously supported discrete logarithm (via Sigma protocol) and RSA trapdoor functions (via hash and sign), also in the random oracle model. In 2006, Bender et al.[4] introduced the first ring signature scheme in the standard model, by making use of pairing technique. In 2015, Maxwell et al.[19] gave Borromean signature scheme, which is a multi-ring signature based on AOS, reduces the signature size from \( mn + m \) to \( mn + 1 \), where \( n \) denotes the ring size and \( m \) denotes the number of rings. It’s worth emphasizing that the signature sizes in these schemes are linear to the number of ring elements.

In 2004, building from RSA accumulator, Dodis et al.[8] proposed a ring signature scheme with constant signature size in the random oracle model. In 2007, Chandran et al.[7] gave a standard model ring signature scheme with \( O(\sqrt{n}) \) signature size, using pairing technique and CRS. In 2015, under the discrete logarithm assumption, Groth et al.[12] introduced a ring signature scheme with \( O(\log n) \) signature size, in the random oracle model.

**Linkable Ring Signatures** Linkable ring signature is a variant of ring signature, in which the identity of the signer in a ring signature remains anonymous, but two ring signatures can be linked if they are signed by the same signer. Linkable ring signatures are suitable in many different practical applications such as privacy-preserving cryptocurrency (Monero), e-Voting, cloud data storage security, etc. In Monero, linkability is used to check whether double spending happens. The first linkable ring signature scheme is proposed by Liu et al.[17] in 2004, under discrete logarithm assumption, in the random oracle model. Later, Tsang et al.[25] and Au et al.[2] proposed accumulator-based linkable ring signatures with constant signature size. In 2013, Yuen et al.[27] gave a standard model linkable ring signature scheme with \( O(\sqrt{n}) \) signature size, from pairing technique. In 2014, Liu et al.[16] gave a linkable ring signature with unconditional anonymity, he also gave the formalized security model of linkable ring signature, which we will follow in this paper. In 2015, Back et al.[3] proposed an efficient linkable ring signature scheme LSAG, which shortens the signature size of [17]. In 2016, based on work of Fujisaki et al.[10], Noether et al.[21] gave a linkable multi-ring signature scheme MLSAG, which supports transactions with multiple inputs, and was used by Monero. In 2017, Sun et al.[24] proposed Ring-CT 2.0, which is an accumulator-based linkable ring signature with asymptotic smaller signature size than Ring-CT 1.0, but is less competitive when \( n \) is small. In 2019, Yuen et
al. [28] proposed Ring-CT 3.0, a modified Bulletproof-based 1-out-of-n proof protocol with logarithmic size, which has functionality of (linkable) ring signature and more efficient than Ring-CT 1.0 when n > 16. In 2019, Goodell et al. [11] proposed CLSAG: a modified multi-ring LRS which improves the efficiency and compactness of MLSAG.

**Traceable and Linkable Ring Signatures** Traceable and linkable ring signature is another variant of linkable ring signature, the identity of the signer in a ring signature can be traced by the auditor, when a signer signs two ring signatures with one secret key (illegal ring signatures), the signatures will also be linked. In 2019, Li et al. [15] gives a construction of traceable Monero to achieve anonymity and traceability of identities by usage of pairing-based accumulators, signature of knowledge and verifiable encryption from Ring-CT 2.0, their construction provide the functionality of traceable and linkable ring signature, but relies on extra steps of verifiable encryption and decryption. Besides, in [15], traceability of long-term address depends on zk-SNARKs with CRS, which is inefficient for computation and storage, meanwhile, their work does not provide traceability of transaction amount. In 2019, TLRS [14] is proposed by Li et al. in the construction of the first fully auditable privacy-preserving blockchains against malicious auditors.

In this paper, we introduce sTLRS, which is a modification of TLRS to achieve better efficiency, while under standard assumptions. We also introduce sTLRS’ to achieve security against malicious auditors.

### 1.3 Paper Organization

In section 2 we give some preliminaries; in section 3 we give the construction of the simpler traceable and linkable signature (sTLRS); in section 4 we give the security proof of sTLRS; in section 5 we introduce the modification of sTLRS to achieve security against malicious auditors; in section 6 we give the conclusion.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Notations

In this paper, we use multiplicative cyclic group $\mathbb{G}$ to represent elliptic group with prime order $|\mathbb{G}| = q$, $g$ is the generator of $\mathbb{G}$, group multiplication is $g_1 \cdot g_2 = g_1 g_2$ and exponentiation is $g^a$. We use $H(\cdot)$ to represent hash function and $\text{negl}(\cdot)$ to represent negligible functions. For verifiers, 1 is for accept and 0 is for reject. For adversaries, PPT means probabilistic polynomial time. The DDH assumption means any PPT adversary cannot distinguish $(g^a, h^r)$ from $(g^a, h^s)$, where $r$ is uniformly sampled from $\mathbb{Z}_q$. The hardness of discrete logarithm problem means that any PPT adversary cannot compute $x$ from $g^x$. Oracle $RO$ refers to the random oracle. The security parameter of this paper is $\lambda = \lceil \log q \rceil$, where $q = |\mathbb{G}|$. 
2.2 Classic Ring Signatures

Classic ring signature scheme usually consists of four algorithms: Setup, KeyGen, Rsign, and Verify.

- $\text{Par} \leftarrow \text{Setup}(\lambda)$ is a probabilistic polynomial time (PPT) algorithm which, on input a security parameter $\lambda$, outputs the set of security parameters $\text{Par}$ which includes $\lambda$.

- $(PK_i, SK_i) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(\text{Par})$ is a PPT algorithm which, on input the security parameters $\text{Par}$, outputs a public/private key pair $(PK_i, SK_i)$.

- $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Rsign}(SK_k, \mu, L_{PK})$ is a ring signature algorithm which, on input user’s secret key $SK_k$, a list of users’ public keys $L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \cdots, PK_n\}$, where $PK_k \in L_{PK}$, and a message $\mu$, outputs a ring signature $\sigma$.

- $1/0 \leftarrow \text{Verify}(\mu, \sigma, L_{PK})$ is a verification algorithm which, on input a message $\mu$, a list of users’ public keys $L_{PK}$ and a ring signature $\sigma$, outputs 1 or 0.

The security definition of ring signature contains unforgeability and anonymity. Before giving their definitions, we consider the following oracles which together model the ability of the adversaries in breaking the security of the schemes, in fact, the adversaries are allowed to query the four oracles below:

- $c \leftarrow \text{RO}(a)$. Random oracle, on input $a$, random oracle returns a random value.

- $PK_i \leftarrow \text{JO}(\bot)$. Joining oracle, on request, adds a new user to the system. It returns the public key $PK_i$ of the new user.

- $SK_i \leftarrow \text{CO}(PK_i)$. Corruption oracle, on input a public key $PK_i$ that is a query output of $\text{JO}$, returns the corresponding private key $SK_i$.

- $\sigma \leftarrow \text{SO}(PK_k, \mu, L_{PK})$. Signing oracle, on input a list of users’ public keys $L_{PK}$, the public key of the signer $PK_k$, and a message $\mu$, returns a valid ring signature $\sigma$.

**Definition 1 (Unforgeability)** Unforgeability for ring signature schemes is defined in the following game between the simulator $S$ and the adversary $A$, simulator $S$ runs Setup to provide public parameters for $A$, $A$ is given access to oracles $\text{RO}$, $\text{JO}$, $\text{CO}$ and $\text{SO}$. $A$ wins the game if he successfully forges a ring signature $(\sigma^*, L_{PK}^*, \mu^*)$ satisfying the following:

1. $\text{Verify}(\sigma^*, L_{PK}^*, \mu^*) = 1$.
2. Every $PK_i \in L_{PK}^*$ is returned by $A$ to $\text{JO}$.
3. No $PK_i \in L_{PK}^*$ is queried by $A$ to $\text{CO}$.
4. $(\mu^*, L_{PK}^*)$ is not queried by $A$ to $\text{SO}$.

We give the advantage of $A$ in forging attack as follows:

$$\text{Adv}_{A}^{\text{forge}} = \Pr[A \text{ wins}].$$

A ring signature scheme is unforgeable if for any PPT adversary $A$, $\text{Adv}_{A}^{\text{forge}} = \text{negl}(\lambda)$. 
Definition 2 (Anonymity) Anonymity for ring signature schemes is defined in the following game between the simulator \( S \) and the adversary \( A \). The simulator \( S \) runs Setup to provide public parameters for \( A \). \( A \) is given access to oracles \( RO \), \( JO \), and \( CO \). \( A \) gives a set of public keys \( L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \cdots, PK_n\} \). \( S \) randomly picks \( \kappa \in \{1, \cdots, n\} \), computes \( \sigma = R\text{sign}(SK_\kappa, \mu, L_{PK}) \) and sends \( \sigma \) to \( A \), where \( SK_\kappa \) is the corresponding private key of \( PK_\kappa \), then \( A \) outputs a guess \( \kappa^* \in \{1, \cdots, n\} \). \( A \) wins the game if he successfully guesses \( \kappa^* = \kappa \).

We give the advantage of \( A \) in anonymity attack as follows:

\[
\text{Adv}^\text{anon}_A = |Pr[\kappa^* = \kappa] - 1/n|.
\]

A ring signature scheme is anonymous if for any PPT adversary \( A \), \( \text{Adv}^\text{anon}_A = \text{negl}(\lambda) \).

In the construction of sTLRS, we use classic ring signature (unforgeable and anonymous in the random oracle model, simulatable by programming the random oracle) as component, we may select AOS scheme[1] (linear size) or Ring-CT 3.0[28] (logarithmic size) in our construction. The choice of classic ring signature component is not restricted, we can choose the most suited ones (most efficient or most compact ones) for different ring sizes in different applications, we omit the detailed description of these ring signatures for brevity.

2.3 Linkable Ring Signatures

Compared to classic ring signature, linkable ring signature has the function of linkability, that is, when two ring signatures are signed by the same signer, they are linked by the algorithm Link. We give the definition of Link below:

\[\text{linked/unlinked} \leftarrow \text{Link}((\sigma, \mu, L_{PK}), (\sigma', \mu', L'_{PK})): \text{verifier checks the two ring signatures are linked or not, output the result.}\]

The security definition of linkable ring signature contains unforgeability, anonymity, linkability and nonslanderability. The unforgeability is the same as Definition 1, and the anonymity is slightly different from Definition 2 with additional requirements that all public keys in \( L_{PK} \) are returned by \( A \) to \( JO \) and all public keys in \( L_{PK} \) are not queried by \( A \) to \( CO \) (if the adversary corrupts some of the public keys, then he can break the anonymity of the scheme by compute the corresponding key-images in advance). In the rest of this paper, we use this modified definition of anonymity in sTLRS and its security proof.

We give the definition of linkability and nonslanderability as follows:

Definition 3 (Linkability) Linkability for linkable ring signature schemes is defined in the following game between the simulator \( S \) and the adversary \( A \). The simulator \( S \) runs Setup to provide public parameters for \( A \). \( A \) is given access to oracles \( RO \), \( JO \), \( CO \) and \( SO \). \( A \) wins the game if he successfully forges \( k \) ring signatures \( (\sigma_i, L_{PK}, \mu_i), i = 1, \cdots, k \), satisfying the following:

1. All \( \sigma_i \)s are not returned by \( A \) to \( SO \).
2. All $L^i_{PK}$ are returned by $A$ to $JO$.
3. Verify$(\sigma_i, L^i_{PK}, \mu_i) = 1, i = 1, \cdots, k$.
4. $A$ queried $CO$ less than $k$ times.
5. Link$(\sigma_i, L^i_{PK}, \mu_i; \sigma_j, L^j_{PK}, \mu_j)) = \text{unlinked}$ for $i, j \in \{1, \cdots, k\}$ and $i \neq j$.

We give the advantage of $A$ in link attack as follows:

$$\text{Adv}_{A}^{\text{link}} = \Pr[A \text{ wins}].$$

A linkable ring signature scheme is linkable if for any PPT adversary $A$, $\text{Adv}_{A}^{\text{link}} = \text{negl}(\lambda)$.

The nonslanderability of a linkable ring signature scheme is that $A$ cannot slander other honest users by generating a signature linked with signatures from honest users. In the following we give the definition:

**Definition 4 (Nonslanderability)** Nonslanderability for linkable ring signature schemes is defined in the following game between the simulator $S$ and the adversary $A$, simulator $S$ runs Setup to provide public parameters for $A$, $A$ is given access to oracles $RO$, $JO$, $CO$ and $SO$. $A$ gives a list of public keys $L_{PK}$, a message $\mu$ and a public key $PK_{\kappa} \in L_{PK}$ to $S$, $S$ returns the corresponding signature $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Rsign}(SK_{\kappa}, L_{PK}, \mu)$ to $A$. $A$ wins the game if he successfully outputs a ring signature $(\sigma^*, L^*_{PK}, \mu^*)$, satisfying the following:

1. Verify$(\sigma^*, L^*_{PK}, \mu^*) = 1$.
2. $PK_{\kappa}$ is not queried by $A$ to $CO$.
3. $PK_{\kappa}$ is not queried by $A$ as input to $SO$.
4. Link$(\sigma, L_{PK}, \mu; \sigma^*, L^*_{PK}, \mu^*)) = \text{linked}$.

We give the advantage of $A$ in slandering attack as follows:

$$\text{Adv}_{A}^{\text{slander}} = \Pr[A \text{ wins}].$$

A linkable ring signature scheme is nonslanderable if for any PPT adversary $A$, $\text{Adv}_{A}^{\text{slander}} = \text{negl}(\lambda)$.

According to [16], linkability and nonslanderability imply unforgeability:

**Lemma 5 ([16])** If a linkable ring signature scheme is linkable and nonslanderable, then it is unforgeable.

### 2.4 Traceable and Linkable Ring Signatures

Similar to the security definitions of linkable ring signature, a PPT adversary $A$ is given access to oracles $RO$, $JO$, $CO$ and $SO$, the security of TLRS contains unforgeability, anonymity, linkability, nonslanderability and traceability. Considering the existence of auditor, who can trace the identities of signers, so the anonymity only holds for someone not possesses the trapdoor. Moreover, the unforgeability, linkability, nonslanderability remain the same as in linkable ring
signature, even for malicious auditor (or adversary who corrupts the auditor), he cannot forge signatures of other users or break the linkability and nonslanderability of TLRS, which means that malicious auditor cannot spend money of other users, double spend or slander other honest users.

Traceability enables auditor with ability to trace signers’ identities, for any PPT adversary \( A \) with possession of trapdoor, he cannot escape from audit. We give the formal definition of traceability as follows:

**Definition 6 (Traceability)** Traceability for traceable and linkable ring signature schemes (TLRS) is defined in the following game between the simulator \( S \) and the adversary \( A \). The simulator \( S \) runs \( \text{Setup} \) to provide the public parameters for \( A, A \) is given access to oracles \( \text{RO}, \text{JO}, \text{CO} \). \( A \) generates a list of public keys \( L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \ldots, PK_n\} \), \( A \) wins the game if he successfully generates a valid TLRS signature \((\sigma, L_{PK}, \mu)\) using \( PK_\kappa \in L_{PK} \), satisfying the following:

1. \( \text{Verify}(\sigma, L_{PK}, \mu) = 1 \).
2. \( PK_i \neq PK_j \) for \( 1 \leq i < j \leq n \).
3. \( \text{Trace}(\sigma, y) \neq \kappa \) or \( \text{Trace}(\sigma, y) = \bot \).

We give the advantage of \( A \) in tracing attack as follows:

\[
\text{Adv}^\text{trace}_A = \Pr[A \text{ wins}].
\]

TLRS scheme is traceable if for any PPT adversary \( A \), \( \text{Adv}^\text{trace}_A = \text{negl}(\lambda) \).

We introduce the construction of TLRS[14] for single ring in the following:

- \( \text{Par} \leftarrow \text{Setup}(\lambda) \):
  1. System chooses an elliptic curve \( \mathcal{G} \) and generators \( g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{G} \) independently, the auditor generates \( y \in \mathbb{Z}_q \) as the trapdoor, computes \( h = g_2^y \), system outputs \((\mathcal{G}, q, g_1, g_2, h)\) as the public parameters, in which the auditor dose not know the relation between \( g_1 \) and \( h \).

- \( (PK, SK) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(\text{Par}) \):
  1. According to the public parameters \((\mathcal{G}, q, g_1, g_2, h)\), user Alice samples \( x, a \in \mathbb{Z}_q \), computes \( \text{rpk} = g_1^x h^a, \text{TK} = g_2^x \text{opk} = h^a \);
  2. Alice gives the validity proof \( \pi(\text{rpk}, \text{TK}) = \pi_{\text{Swit}}(g_1^x h^a, g_1^x (g_2^a)^x) \), that is, she gives the switch proof between \( \text{rpk} = g_1^x h^a \) and \( \text{rpk} \cdot \text{TK} = g_1^x (g_2^a)^x \) that they share the same exponents \( x = x, a = a \) with basis \((g_1, h)\) and \((g_1, g_2 h)\);
  3. Alice outputs \( PK = (\text{rpk}, \text{TK}, \pi(\text{rpk}, \text{TK})) \), and retains \( SK = (\text{rsk} = x, \text{osk} = a) \).

- \( \sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(SK_\kappa, \mu, L_{PK}) \):
  1. For a message \( \mu \), Alice chooses another \( n - 1 \) users, together with her own public key, to generate a list of public keys \( L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \ldots, PK_n\} \), where Alice’s \( PK = PK_\kappa \in L_{PK}, \kappa \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \);
  2. Alice outputs \( \text{opk} = h^{a_\kappa} \), then computes

\[
L_{\text{rpk}} = \{\text{rpk}_1 \cdot \text{opk}^{-1}, \ldots, \text{rpk}_n \cdot \text{opk}^{-1}\} = \{g_1^{x_1} h^{a_\kappa - a_1}, \ldots, g_1^{x_n} h^{a_\kappa - a_n}\}.
\]
3. Alice runs ring signature \( \tau_1 \leftarrow R\text{sign}(rsk, \mu, L_{rpk}, \text{opk}) \) using \( L_{rpk} \) and \( rsk = x_\kappa \), outputs \( \tau_1 \);
4. Alice runs one-time signature \( \tau_2 \leftarrow O\text{sign}(osk, \tau_1, \text{opk}) \) using \( \text{opk} = h^{a_\kappa} \) and \( osk = a_\kappa \) (\( h \) is the generator);
5. Alice outputs \( \sigma = (\tau_1, \tau_2, \mu, L_{PK}, \text{opk}) \).

\[-1/0 \leftarrow \text{Verify}(\tau_1, \tau_2, \mu, L_{PK}, \text{opk}):\]
1. Verifier checks the validity of \( \pi(rpk_i, TK_i) \) for every \( 1, \cdots, n \);
2. Verifier computes \( L_{rpk} = \{rpk_1 \cdot \text{opk}^{-1}, \cdots, rpk_n \cdot \text{opk}^{-1}\} \);
3. Verifier checks the validity of the ring signature \( \tau_1 \) and the one-time signature \( \tau_2 \);
4. If all passed then outputs 1, otherwise outputs 0.

\[-\text{linked/unlinked} \leftarrow \text{Link}(\sigma, \sigma'):\]
1. For two TLRS signatures \( \sigma = (\tau_1, \tau_2, \mu, L_{PK}, \text{opk}) \) and \( \sigma' = (\tau'_1, \tau'_2, \mu', L'_{PK}, \text{opk}') \), if \( \text{opk} = \text{opk}' \) then verifier outputs linked, otherwise outputs unlinked.
2. \( \kappa^*/\bot \leftarrow \text{Trace}(\sigma, y):\]
1. For \( \sigma = (\tau_1, \tau_2, \mu, L_{PK}, \text{opk}) \), the auditor extracts \( TK_1, \cdots, TK_n \) from \( L_{PK} \), computes \( TK_i^y \) for \( i = 1, \cdots, n \), outputs the smallest \( \kappa^* \) such that \( \text{opk} = TK_i^y \) as the trace result, otherwise outputs \( \bot \).

TLRS achieves anonymity, unforgeability, linkability, nonslanderability and traceability against malicious auditors.

3 Simpler Traceable and Linkable Ring Signature

In this section, we give the construction of simpler traceable and linkable ring signature scheme (sTLRS) by modifying the key generation algorithm \( \text{KeyGen} \), signature algorithm \( \text{Sign} \) and removing the additional one-time signature and zero-knowledge proofs to achieve better efficiency compared to TLRS. sTLRS achieves unforgeability, anonymity, linkability, nonslanderability and traceability. In the scenario of privacy-preserving cryptocurrencies, unforgeability works for security of users’ accounts, anonymity works for anonymity of signers’ identities, linkability and nonslanderability works for prevention of double-spending (actively or passively), traceability works for unconditional audit of signers’ identities.

3.1 Construction

In our construction of sTLRS, we use classic ring signature (AOS, AOS’ or Ring-CT 3.0) as the ring signature component. Actually, we assume these schemes are anonymous and unforgeable in the random oracle model, which makes sTLRS secure under standard assumptions. We give the introduction of sTLRS in the following (single ring as example):

\[-\text{Par} \leftarrow \text{Setup}(\lambda):\]
generate the classic ring signature \( \tau \). Since \( g^{TK} = \text{Proof.} \)

In sTLRS, for Alice's public key \( PK = g^{x} \) as her secret key, then computes \( PK = g^{x} \).

1. System chooses an elliptic curve \( G \) with prime order \( q \) and a generator \( g \in G \), the auditor generates \( y \in \mathbb{Z}_{q} \) as the trapdoor, computes \( h = g^{y} \), system outputs \( (G, q, g, h) \) as the public parameters.

\(- (PK, SK) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen(Par):}
- 1. According to the public parameters \( (G, q, g, h) \), user Alice samples \( x \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*} \) as her secret key, then computes \( PK = g^{x} \).
- 2. Alice outputs \( PK = g^{x} \), and retains \( SK = x \).

\(- \sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(SK_{\kappa}, \mu, LPK): \)
- 1. For a message \( \mu \), Alice chooses another \( n-1 \) users, together with her own public key, to generate a list of public keys \( L_{PK} = \{PK_{1}, \cdots, PK_{n}\} \), where Alice's \( PK = PK_{\kappa} \in L_{PK}, \kappa \in \{1, \cdots, n\} \);
- 2. Alice outputs \( TK = h^{x_{\kappa}} \), then computes \( e_{1} = H(L_{PK}, TK, 1) \) and \( e_{2} = H(L_{PK}, TK, 2) \);
- 3. Alice computes and outputs 
  \[ L_{RK} = \{PK_{1}^{e_{1}}, TK^{e_{2}}, \cdots, PK_{n}^{e_{1}}, TK^{e_{2}}\} \]
  \[ = \{g^{e_{1}x_{1}h^{e_{2}x_{1}}}, \cdots, g^{e_{1}x_{n}h^{e_{2}x_{n}}}\}; \]
- 4. Alice runs classic ring signature \( \tau \leftarrow Rsign(SK_{\kappa}, \mu, L_{RK}, TK) \) using \( L_{RK} \) and \( SK = x_{\kappa} \), outputs \( \tau \ (g^{e_{1}h^{e_{2}}} \) as the generator);
- 5. Alice outputs \( \sigma = (\tau, \mu, LP_{PK}, TK) \).

\(- 1/0 \leftarrow \text{Verify}(\tau, \mu, LP_{PK}, TK): \)
- 1. Verifier computes \( e_{1}^{*} = H(L_{PK}, TK, 1) \) and \( e_{2}^{*} = H(L_{PK}, TK, 2) \);
- 2. Verifier computes \( L_{RK}^{*} = \{PK_{1}^{e_{1}^{*}}, TK^{e_{2}^{*}}, \cdots, PK_{n}^{e_{1}^{*}}, TK^{e_{2}^{*}}\} \);
- 3. Verifier checks the validity of ring signature \( \tau \ (g^{e_{1}^{*}h^{e_{2}^{*}}} \) as the generator);
- 4. If all passed then outputs 1, otherwise outputs 0.

\(- \text{linked/unlinked} \leftarrow \text{Link}(\sigma, \sigma'):\)
- 1. For two valid sTLRS signatures \( \sigma = (\tau, \mu, LP_{PK}, TK) \) and \( \sigma' = (\tau', \mu', LP_{PK}, TK') \),
  if \( TK = TK' \) then verifier outputs \( \text{linked} \), otherwise outputs \( \text{unlinked} \).

\(- \kappa*/\perp \leftarrow \text{Trace}(\sigma, y): \)
- 1. For \( \sigma = (\tau, \mu, LP_{PK}, TK) \), the auditor extracts \( PK_{1}, \cdots, PK_{n} \) from \( LP_{PK} \), computes \( PK_{i}^{y} \) for \( i = 1, \cdots, n \), outputs the smallest \( \kappa^{*} \in \{1, \cdots, n\} \) such that \( TK = PK_{i}^{y_{\kappa}} \), as the trace result, otherwise outputs \( \perp \).

3.2 Correctness

**Theorem 7 (Correctness of sTLRS)** For an honest user Alice in sTLRS, she can complete the traceable and linkable ring signature successfully, and the behavior of double signing (double spending) will be detected while the identity of Alice remaining anonymous. Moreover, the auditor can trace her identity correctly.

**Proof.** In sTLRS, for Alice's public key \( PK = PK_{\kappa} = g^{x_{\kappa}} \), she can compute \( TK = h^{x_{\kappa}} \) and \( e_{1}, e_{2} \), then she can compute \( L_{RK} = \{g^{e_{1}x_{1}h^{e_{2}x_{1}}}, \cdots, g^{e_{1}x_{n}h^{e_{2}x_{n}}}\} \). Since \( g^{e_{1}x_{*}h^{e_{2}x_{*}}} = (g^{e_{1}h^{e_{2}}})^{x_{*}} \), then Alice can use her secret key \( SK = x_{\kappa} \) to generate the classic ring signature \( \tau \) using \( g^{e_{1}h^{e_{2}}} \) as the generator.
When double signing occurs, we know from the linkability of sTLRS that Alice must have used $TK = h^{x_u}$ for twice (proved in Theorem 9), then the verifier can detect that double signing occurs and outputs linked, at the same time, anyone (except for the auditor) cannot learn any information about the identity of signer by the anonymity of sTLRS (proved in Theorem 8).

For the auditor, he can compute $PK_y^y = g^{y^{x_u}} = h^{x_u} = TK$ and then outputs $\text{Trace}(\sigma, y) = \kappa$ correctly. \[ \Box \]

3.3 Applications in Blockchain

In the applications of privacy-preserving blockchains, under UTXO model, the $PK = g^x$ can be regarded as the UTXO public key generated in the last transaction, which will be published as the UTXO public key $PK = g^x$ during the last transaction. When making transactions, the UTXO owner runs the sTLRS scheme to hide the identity of the real UTXO, he also outputs $TK = h^{x_u}$, which is regarded as the Key-image of the UTXO, and $\text{Link}$ is used for detection of double spending. $\text{Trace}$ is used for tracing signers’ identities by the auditor, which brings the regulatory function to the blockchains.

4 Security proofs

In this section we give the security proofs of sTLRS, including anonymity, unforgeability, linkability, nonslanderability and traceability. The security of sTLRS only holds for adversary who does not possess the trapdoor.

4.1 Proof of Anonymity

Theorem 8 (Anonymity) sTLRS is anonymous for any PPT adversary $A$ (without possession of trapdoor), assuming the classic ring signature is simulatable by programming the random oracle in the random oracle model.

Proof. Assume $A$ is playing the game with $S$ in Definition 2, $A$ he generates a message $\mu$ and a list of public keys $L_PK = \{PK_1, \cdots, PK_n\}$, where $PK_i = g^{x_i}$, and all $PK$ are returned by $JO$, and $S$ knows all $SK_i = x_i$.

We consider the following games between $S$ and $A$:

- **Game 0.** $S$ samples $\kappa \in \{1, \cdots, n\}$ uniformly at random, publishes $TK = h^{x_u}$, computes $e_1 = H(L_PK, TK, 1)$, $e_2 = H(L_PK, TK, 2)$ and $L_RK = \{g^{\kappa x_1}h^{e_2x}, \cdots, g^{\kappa x_n}h^{e_2x}\}$, generates the classic ring signature $\tau = \text{Rsign}(SK, \mu, L_RPK, TK)$, outputs $\sigma = (\tau, \mu, L_PK, TK)$ to $A$. When $A$ receives $\sigma$, he gives a guess $\kappa^* \in \{1, \cdots, n\}$.

- **Game 1.** $S$ samples $\kappa \in \{1, \cdots, n\}, r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ uniformly at random, publishes $TK = h^r$, computes $e_1 = H(L_PK, TK, 1)$, $e_2 = H(L_PK, TK, 2)$ and $L_RK = \{g^{\kappa x_1}h^{e_2r}, \cdots, g^{\kappa x_n}h^{e_2r}\}$, generates the classic ring signature $\tau = \text{Rsign}(\mu, L_RK, TK)$ by programming the random oracle, outputs $\sigma = (\tau, \mu, L_PK, TK)$ to $A$. When $A$ receives $\sigma$, he gives a guess $\kappa^* \in \{1, \cdots, n\}$.  

In the two games above, Game 0 is the real game between $S$ and $A$ in sTLRS, and Game 1 is the simulated game in the random oracle model. In game 1, $r$ is uniformly sampled by $S$, which is statistical independent from the $L_{PK}$, then $Pr[A[k^* = k]] = 1/n$.

Then we only need to prove that game 0 and game 1 are computational indistinguishable. If fact, the differences between the two games are the generations of $TK$ and $L_{RK}$. According to DDH assumption, $(g,h,g^{x_1},h^{x_1})$ and $(g,h,g^{x_2},h^{x_2})$ are computational indistinguishable, then $A$ cannot distinguish $h^{x_1}$ (in game 0) from $h^{x_2}$ (in game 1). Then we know $A$ cannot distinguish $\{g^{x_1}h^{\varepsilon_1x_1},\ldots,g^{x_n}h^{\varepsilon_2x_n}\}$ from $\{g^{x_1}h^{\varepsilon_2x_1},\ldots,g^{x_n}h^{\varepsilon_1x_n}\}$, then we know game 0 and game 1 are computational indistinguishable, then we finish the anonymity proof of sTLRS. □

4.2 Proof of Linkability

**Theorem 9 (Linkability)** sTLRS is linkable for any PPT adversary $A$ (without possession of trapdoor), assuming the unforgeability of ring signature component.

**Proof.** For a PPT adversary $A$ without possession of the trapdoor $y$, when $A$ finished the link game with $S$ in Definition 3, we assume that $A$ wins the link game with nonnegligible advantage $\delta$, that is, $A$ returned $k$ sTLRS signatures $\sigma_i = (\tau_i, \mu_i, L_{PK}, TK_i)$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$ ($\tau_i$s are the classic ring signatures), satisfying the following requirements:

1. All $\sigma_i, i = 1, \ldots, k$ are not returned by $SO$.
2. All public keys from $L_{PK}, i = 1, \ldots, k$ are returned by $JO$.
3. Verify($\sigma_i, L_{PK}, \mu_i) = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, k$.
4. $A$ queried $CO$ less than $k$ times.
5. Link($(\sigma_i, L_{PK}, \mu_i), (\sigma_j, L_{PK}, \mu_j)) = \text{unlinked}$ for $i \neq j \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$.

We first prove a statement that, for a list of users’ public keys $L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \ldots, PK_n\}$ returned by $JO$ with $PK_i = g^{x_i}$, any PPT adversary $A$ generates a valid sTLRS signature $\sigma \leftrightarrow SO$ if and only if he queries the $CO$ at least once, except for negligible probability $\epsilon_0 = negl(\lambda)$.

$\Rightarrow$. If $A$ gets $SK = x_i$ from $CO$, and then $A$ can run the sTLRS signature scheme to generate a valid signature $\sigma = (\tau, \mu, L_{PK}, TK)$.

$\Leftarrow$. Assume $A$ did not query the $CO$ and $SO$ for $L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \ldots, PK_n\}$ and finished the sTLRS signature over $L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \ldots, PK_n\}$ with nonnegligible probability $\delta_1$. We first prove that $A$ does not know any of the secret keys in $L_{PK}$. Actually, under the hardness of discrete logarithm, $A$ cannot compute $x_i$ from $PK_i = g^{x_i}, i = 1, \ldots, n$, then the probability of $A$ obtaining any of $x_i$ is $\epsilon_1 = negl(\lambda)$.

Next, according to the assumption that $A$ generates a valid signature $\sigma = (\tau, \mu, L_{PK}, TK)$, then he must have finished the classic signature $\tau$ (with
generator $g^{\epsilon_i}h^{r_2}$, where $e_1 = H(L_{PK}, TK, 1)$, $e_2 = H(L_{PK}, TK, 2)$. Without loss of generality, we assume $TK = g^h$ output by $\mathcal{A}$, then we have $L_{RK} = \{g^{\epsilon_1 x_1}(g^h)^{r_2}, \ldots, g^{\epsilon_n x_n}(g^h)^{r_2}\}$. Since the classic ring signature scheme achieves unforgeability, and $\mathcal{A}$ finished the ring signature $\tau$ with $L_{RK}$ under generator $g^{\epsilon_i}h^{r_2}$, then we get $\mathcal{A}$ knows $SK = z$ for at least one $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ s.t. $g^{\epsilon_1 x_1}(g^h)^{r_2} = (g^{\epsilon_i}h^{r_2})^2$, except for negligible probability $\epsilon_2 = \text{negl}(\lambda)$. We can also assume that $e_1 = 0$ or $e_2 = 0$ happens with negligible probability $\epsilon_3 = \text{negl}(\lambda)$, which means $\mathcal{A}$ gets a solution for $g^{\epsilon_1 x_1 + e_2 s} = h^{e_2 (z - t)}$ with nonnegligible probability $\delta_1 - \epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2 - \epsilon_3$, if $i \neq z$, then this contradicts with the hardness of discrete logarithm problems, so we have $t = z$. Then we have $(x_i - t)e_1 + se_2 = 0$, if $s \neq 0$, then $e_2 = \epsilon_1 s^{-1}(t - x_i)$, which means $e_2$ is pre-computed before $\mathcal{A}$ runs the hash function (random oracle), which happens with negligible probability. Then we get $s = 0, z = t = x_i$, which contradicts to the assumptions above. Then we get that $\mathcal{A}$ generates a valid sTLRS signature $\sigma \leftarrow S\mathcal{O}$ if and only if he quires the $\mathcal{CO}$ at least once, except for negligible probability.

According to the fourth requirement that the number of times of $\mathcal{A}$ querying $\mathcal{CO}$ is $\leq k - 1$, and $\mathcal{A}$ returned $k$ valid sTLRS signatures $\sigma_i = (r_i, \mu_i, L_{PK,i}, TK_i), i = 1, \ldots, k$, then we know there are two sTLRS signatures from the same query of $\mathcal{CO}$, saying $SK = z$ from $PK = g^z$, and $\mathcal{A}$ finished two unlinked valid sTLRS signature, then there is at least one $TK_i = g^h \neq h$ from the two sTLRS signatures (otherwise they will be linked). We have $L_{RK} = \{g^{\epsilon_1 x_1}(g^h)^{r_2}, \ldots, g^{\epsilon_n x_n}(g^h)^{r_2}\}$, since $\exists j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ s.t. $x_j = z$, and $\mathcal{A}$ signs with $PK_j$, then we have $g^{\epsilon_1 x_1}(g^h)^{r_2} = (g^{\epsilon_i}h^{r_2})^i g^{\epsilon_1 (z - t) + e_2 s}$ with $g^h \neq h$, if $e_1(z - t) + e_2 s = 0$, then we have $z = t$ and $s = 0$, otherwise $e_1$ (or $e_2$) is pre-computed before $\mathcal{A}$ runs the hash function (random oracle), which happens with negligible probability $\epsilon_1$. Then we get $e_1(z - t) + e_2 s \neq 0$, and this means $\mathcal{A}$ can compute $x$ s.t. $(g^{\epsilon_1}h^{r_2})^x = (g^{\epsilon_i}h^{r_2})^i g^{\epsilon_1 (z - t) + e_2 s}$, otherwise $\mathcal{A}$ will break the unforgeability of classic ring signature, which happens with negligible probability $\epsilon_2$, however, we know that $(g^{\epsilon_1}h^{r_2})^x = (g^{\epsilon_i}h^{r_2})^i g^{\epsilon_1 (z - t) + e_2 s}$ implies a non-trivial relationship between $g$ and $h$, which happens with nonnegligible probability $\delta - k\epsilon_0 - \epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2$, this contradicts to the hardness assumption of discrete logarithm problem, then we finish the linkability proof of sTLRS. □

4.3 Proof of Nonslanderability

**Theorem 10 (Nonslanderability)** sTLRS is nonslanderable for any PPT adversary $\mathcal{A}$ (without possession of trapdoor), assuming the unforgeability of classic ring signature component.

**Proof.** For a PPT adversary $\mathcal{A}$ without possession of the trapdoor $y$, when $\mathcal{A}$ finished the slandering game with $\mathcal{S}$ in Definition 4, $\mathcal{A}$ gave a list of public keys $L_{PK}$, a message $\mu$ and a public key $PK_{\kappa} \in L_{PK}$ to $\mathcal{S}$, $\mathcal{S}$ returns the corresponding signature $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(SK_{\kappa}, L_{PK}, \mu)$ to $\mathcal{A}$. We assume that $\mathcal{A}$ wins the slandering game with nonnegligible advantage $\delta$, that is, $\mathcal{A}$ successfully outputs a ring signature $\sigma^* = (\tau^*, \mu^*, L_{PK}, TK^*)$, satisfying the following:
1. Verify$(\sigma^*, L_{PK}^*, \mu^*) = 1$.
2. $PK_\kappa$ is not queried by $A$ to $CO$.
3. $PK_\kappa$ is not queried by $A$ as input to $SO$.
4. Link$((\sigma, L_{PK}, \mu), (\sigma^*, L_{PK}^*, \mu^*)) = \text{linked}$.

From the definition of Link, we know that $TK^* = TK = h^{x_\kappa}$, since $PK_\kappa = g^{x_\kappa}$ was not queried by $A$ to $CO$ and $SO$, then $A$ does not know $SK = x_\kappa$ except for negligible probability $\epsilon_0 = \text{negl}(\lambda)$ under the hardness of discrete logarithm problems. Then we know $A$ successfully produced a classic ring signature $\tau^*$ with nonnegligible advantage $\delta - \epsilon_0$, according to the unforgeability of classic ring signature, we know that $A$ knows at least one signing key except for negligible probability $\epsilon_1$, that is, there exists $j \in \{1, \cdots, n\}$, $A$ knows $x$ s.t. $(PK^*_j)^{x \cdot TK^{\epsilon_2}} = (g^{x \cdot h^{\epsilon_2}})^{x}$ with nonnegligible advantage $\delta - \epsilon_0 - \epsilon_1$, where $\epsilon_1 = H(L_{PK}, TK, 1)$, $\epsilon_2 = H(L_{PK}, TK, 2)$. Without loss of generality, we assume $PK^*_j = g^{x \cdot h^t}$ output by $A$, then we have $(g^{x \cdot h^t})^{x \cdot h^{x_\kappa}} = (g^{x \cdot h^{x_\kappa}})^{x} = (g^{\epsilon_1 \cdot h^{\epsilon_2} - \epsilon_1 \cdot h^{x_\kappa}})^{x_\kappa}$, using similar arguments in Theorem 9, if $\epsilon_1 t + \epsilon_2 (x_\kappa - s) = 0$, then we have $x_\kappa = s$ and $t = 0$, otherwise $\epsilon_1$ (or $\epsilon_2$) is pre-computed before $A$ runs the hash function (random oracle), which happens with negligible probability $\epsilon_2$. Then $\epsilon_1 t + \epsilon_2 (x_\kappa - s) \neq 0$ and $A$ gets a non-trivial relationship between $q$ and $x$ with nonnegligible advantage $\delta - \epsilon_0 - \epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2$, which contradicts to the hardness of discrete logarithm problems, then we finish the nonslanderability proof of sTLRS.

\[\square\]

According to lemma 5, we get the unforgeability of sTLRS:

**Corollary 11 (Unforgeability)** sTLRS is unforgeable for any PPT adversary $A$ without possession of trapdoor.

### 4.4 Proof of Traceability

**Theorem 12 (Traceability)** sTLRS is traceable for any PPT adversary $A$ (without possession of trapdoor), assuming the unforgeability of classic ring signature component.

**Proof.** For a PPT adversary $A$ without possession of the trapdoor $y$, when $A$ finished the tracing game with $S$ in Definition 6, $A$ generates a list of public keys $L_{PK} = \{PK_1, \cdots, PK_n\}$, we assume that $A$ wins the tracing game with nonnegligible advantage $\delta$, that is, $A$ generates a sTLRS signature $\sigma = (\tau, \mu, L_{PK}, TK)$ using $PK_\kappa \in L_{PK}$, satisfying the following:

1. Verify$(\sigma, L_{PK}, \mu) = 1$.
2. $PK_i \neq PK_j$ for $1 \leq i < j \leq n$.
3. Trace$(\sigma, y) \neq \kappa$ or Trace$(\sigma, y) = \perp$.

It should be emphasized that the OPK in TLRS is actually $TK$ in sTLRS. We assume $PK_i = g^x \cdot h^t$, $i = 1, \cdots, n$ returned by $A$ without loss of generality, and assume $TK = g^t h^t$. Then we have:

$$L_{RK} = \{(g^x \cdot h^t)^{\epsilon_1}, (g^x \cdot h^t)^{\epsilon_2}, \cdots, (g^x \cdot h^t)^{\epsilon_1}, (g^x \cdot h^t)^{\epsilon_2}\}$$
e(A_9, we know that e problems. Then we get ϵ_δ(2) before A asTLRS, which is named by sTLRS': and smaller size. In the following we give the detailed description of the modified construction of fully auditable privacy-preserving blockchains, with better efficiency traceable scheme for long-term addresses[14], we can finally finish a new con-

the trapdoor, he still cannot double spend, slander honest users, forge sTLRS maliciou auditors, which means that even for adversary A in this section, we give a modification of sTLRS to achieve security against 5.1 Construction 5. Modification

In the rest of the proof, we prove that x_κ = t and s = y_κ = 0. First, if e_1 y_κ + e_2 t - e_1^{-1} e_2(e_1 x_κ + e_2 s) \neq 0, following the similar arguments in Theorem 9, we know that A gets a non-trivial relationship between g and h, this happens with negligible probability ϵ_2 according to the hardness of discrete logarithm problems. Then we get e_1 y_κ + e_2 t - e_1^{-1} e_2(e_1 x_κ + e_2 s) = 0 with nonnegligible probability δ - ϵ_0 - ϵ_1 - ϵ_2. Then we have e_1^2 y_κ + e_1 e_2(t - x_κ) + e_2^2 s = 0, and e_2 is exactly the solution for equation s x^2 + e_1(t - x_κ)x + e_2^2 y_κ = 0 in Z_q after e_1 = H(L_{PK}, TK, 1) was generated, which has at most two solutions when s(t - x_κ) \neq 0 and q is a prime. This means e_2 is pre-determined (1 out of 2) before A runs the hash function (random oracle), this also happens with negligible probability ϵ_3, then we get x_κ = t and s = y_κ = 0, which means the equation degenerated to zero. Then we have PK'_h = g^{ty} = h^t = TK, then Trace(σ, y) = κ, which contradicted with the assumptions before, then we finish the traceability proof of sTLRS. □

5 Modification

5.1 Construction

In this section, we give a modification of sTLRS to achieve security against malicious auditors, which means that even for adversary A with possession of the trapdoor, he still cannot double spend, slander honest users, forge sTLRS signatures or escape from audit. Together with the traceable range proofs and traceable scheme for long-term addresses[14], we can finally finish a new construction of fully auditable privacy-preserving blockchains, with better efficiency and smaller size. In the following we give the detailed description of the modified sTLRS, which is named by sTLRS':

- Par ← Setup'(λ):
  1. System chooses an elliptic curve G with prime order q and a generator g_1 ∈ G, the auditor generates y ∈ Z_q as the trapdoor, computes h = g_1^y, system computes g_2 = H_1(g_1, h) (use hash to point), system outputs (G, q, g_1, g_2, h) as the public parameters.

- (PK, SK) ← KeyGen'(Par):
  1. According to the public parameters (G, q, g_1, g_2, h), user Alice samples x ∈ Z_q as her secret key, then computes PK = g_1^x;
2. Alice outputs $PK = g_1^x$, and retains $SK = x$.
   - $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(SK, \mu, LP_K)$:
     1. For a message $\mu$, Alice chooses another $n - 1$ users, together with its public key, to generate a list of public keys $LP_K = \{PK_1, \cdots, PK_n\}$, where Alice’s $PK = PK_\kappa \in LP_K, \kappa \in \{1, \cdots, n\}$;
     2. Alice outputs $I = g_2^{x_\kappa}, TK = h^{x_\kappa}$, then computes $e_1 = H(LP_K, I, TK, 1)$, $e_2 = H(LP_K, I, TK, 2)$ and $e_3 = H(LP_K, I, TK, 3)$;
     3. Alice computes and outputs
        $$L_{RK} = \{PK_1^{e_1}, I^{e_2} \cdot TK^{e_3}, \cdots, PK_n^{e_1}, I^{e_2} \cdot TK^{e_3}\}$$
        $$= \{g_1^{e_1}x_1 g_2^{e_2x_\kappa} h^{e_3x_\kappa}, \cdots, g_1^{e_1}x_n g_2^{e_2x_\kappa} h^{e_3x_\kappa}\};$$
     4. Alice runs classic ring signature $\tau \leftarrow \text{Rsign}(SK, \mu, L_{RK}, I, TK)$ using $L_{RK}$ and $SK = x_\kappa$, outputs $\tau (g_1^{e_1} g_2^{e_2} h^{e_3} \text{ as the generator});$
     5. Alice outputs $\sigma = (\tau, \mu, LP_K, I, TK)$.
   - $1/0 \leftarrow \text{Verify}(\tau, \mu, LP_K, I, TK)$:
     1. Verifier computes $e_1^* = H(LP_K, I, TK, 1)$, $e_2^* = H(LP_K, I, TK, 2)$ and $e_3^* = H(LP_K, I, TK, 3)$;
     2. Verifier computes $L_{RK}^* = \{PK_1^{e_1^*}, I^{e_2^*} \cdot TK^{e_3^*}, \cdots, PK_n^{e_1^*}, I^{e_2^*} \cdot TK^{e_3^*}\};$
     3. Verifier checks the validity of ring signature $\tau (g_1^{e_1^*} g_2^{e_2^*} h^{e_3^*} \text{ as the generator});$
     4. If all passed then outputs 1, otherwise outputs 0.
   - $\text{linked/unlinked} \leftarrow \text{Link}([\sigma, \sigma'])$:
     1. For two valid sTLRS’ signatures $\sigma = (\tau, \mu, LP_K, I, TK)$ and $\sigma' = (\tau', \mu', LP_{K'}, I', TK')$, if $I = I'$ then verifier outputs linked, otherwise outputs unlinked.
   - $\sigma^*/\bot \leftarrow \text{Trace}(\sigma, y)$:
     1. For $\sigma = (\tau, \mu, LP_K, I, TK)$, the auditor extracts $PK_1, \cdots, PK_n$ from $LP_K$, computes $PK_n^\mu$ for $i = 1, \cdots, n$, outputs the smallest $\kappa^* \in \{1, \cdots, n\}$ such that $TK = PK_n^{\kappa^*}$ as the trace result, otherwise outputs $\bot$.

### 5.2 Correctness

**Theorem 13 (Correctness)** For an honest user Alice in sTLRS’, she can complete the traceable and linkable ring signature successfully, and the behavior of double signing (double spending) will be detected while the identity of Alice remaining anonymous. Moreover, the auditor can trace her identity correctly.

**Proof.** In sTLRS’, for Alice’s public key $PK = PK_\kappa = g_1^{x_\kappa}$, then Alice will output $I = g_2^{x_\kappa}$ and $TK = h^{x_\kappa}$ with $L_{RK} = \{g_1^{e_1x_1} g_2^{e_2x_\kappa} h^{e_3x_\kappa}, \cdots, g_1^{e_1x_n} g_2^{e_2x_\kappa} h^{e_3x_\kappa}\}$. Since $g_1^{e_1x_\kappa} g_2^{e_2x_\kappa} h^{e_3x_\kappa} = (g_1^{x_\kappa} g_2^{x_\kappa} h^{x_\kappa})^x$, then Alice can use $SK = x_\kappa$ to generate the ring signature $\tau$ using $g_1^{e_1^*} g_2^{e_2^*} h^{e_3^*}$ as the generator.

When double signing occurs, we know from the linkability of sTLRS’ that Alice must have used $I = g_2^{x_\kappa}$ for twice (similar to sTLRS), then the verifier can detect that double signing occurs and outputs linked, at the same time, anyone (except for the auditor) cannot learn any information about the identity of signer by the anonymity of sTLRS’ (similar to sTLRS).

For the auditor, he can compute $PK_n^\mu = g_1^{x_\kappa} h^{x_\kappa} = TK$ and then outputs $\text{Trace}(\sigma, y) = \kappa$ correctly. □
5.3 Applications in Blockchain
In the applications of privacy-preserving blockchains, under UTXO model, the \( PK = g_1^x \) can be regarded as the UTXO public key generated in the last transaction, which will be published as the UTXO public key \( PK = g_1^x \) during the last transaction. When making transactions, the UTXO owner runs the sTLRS’ scheme to hide the identity of the real UTXO, he also outputs \( I = g_2^x \), which is regarded as the Key-image of the UTXO, and Link is used for detection of double spending. He also outputs \( TK = h^x \), which is used in Trace for tracing signers’ identities by the auditor, which brings the regulatory function to the blockchains.

5.4 Security
Following the same direction of Theorem 8,9,10,12, we can prove the anonymity, linkability, nonslanderability, unforgeability, traceability of sTLRS’, for any PPT adversary \( \mathcal{A} \) with possession of the trapdoor, detailed proofs will be given in the full version of this paper.

6 Conclusion
In this paper, we give a simpler and modular construction of traceable and linkable ring signature scheme (sTLRS) by modifying the key generation algorithm and removing the additional one-time signature and zero-knowledge proofs, which reduces the size of public key, shortens the computation time, realizes the regulatory function for signers’ identities, and can prevent the adversary from double spending, escaping from audit, slandering users or forging signatures. Moreover, we further modify sTLRS to achieve security against malicious auditors, reaching the same security level as in[14]. Our work is a new approach to construct auditable privacy-preserving blockchains and cryptocurrencies, and is a potential replacement for Monero-type blockchains.

Future Works In the future, we need to study and improve in the following aspects:
1. Study new method to construct traceable range proof with less verification time and smaller size;
2. Study post-quantum ring signatures and range proofs, such as lattice-based, code-based, multi-variant-based and isogen-based schemes to prepare for the future applications and replacement in the era of quantum computing.

References
A simpler construction of traceable and linkable ring signature scheme


