# An Algebraic Framework for Diffie-Hellman Assumptions 

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#### Abstract

We put forward a new algebraic framework to generalize and analyze Diffie-Hellman like Decisional Assumptions which allows us to argue about security and applications by considering only algebraic properties. Our $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ assumption states that it is hard to decide whether a vector in $\mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ is linearly dependent of the columns of some matrix in $\mathbb{G}^{\ell \times k}$ sampled according to distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. It covers known assumptions such as DDH, 2-Lin (linear assumption), and $k$-Lin (the $k$-linear assumption). Using our algebraic viewpoint, we can relate the generic hardness of our assumptions in $m$-linear groups to the irreducibility of certain polynomials which describe the output of $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. We use the hardness results to find new distributions for which the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ - MDDH-Assumption holds generically in $m$-linear groups. In particular, our new assumptions 2-SCasc and 2-ILin are generically hard in bilinear groups and, compared to 2 -Lin, have shorter description size, which is a relevant parameter for efficiency in many applications. These results support using our new assumptions as natural replacements for the 2-Lin Assumption which was already used in a large number of applications.

To illustrate the conceptual advantages of our algebraic framework, we construct several fundamental primitives based on any MDDH-Assumption. In particular, we can give many instantiations of a primitive in a compact way, including public-key encryption, hash-proof systems, pseudo-random functions, and Groth-Sahai NIZK and NIWI proofs. As an independent contribution we give more efficient NIZK and NIWI proofs for membership in a subgroup of $\mathbb{G}^{\ell}$, for validity of ciphertexts and for equality of plaintexts. The results imply very significant efficiency improvements for a large number of schemes, most notably Naor-Yung type of constructions.


Keywords: Diffie-Hellman Assumption, Generic Hardness, Groth-Sahai proofs, Hash Proof Systems, Public-key Encryption.

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## 1 Introduction

Arguably, one of the most important cryptographic hardness assumptions is the Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) Assumption. For a fixed additive group $\mathbb{G}$ of prime order $q$ and a generator $\mathcal{P}$ of $\mathbb{G}$, we denote by $[a]:=a \mathcal{P} \in \mathbb{G}$ the implicit representation of an element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. The DDH Assumption states that $([a],[r],[a r]) \approx_{c}([a],[r],[z]) \in \mathbb{G}^{3}$, where $a, r, z$ are uniform elements in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $\approx_{c}$ denotes computationally indistinguishability of the two distributions. It has been used in numerous important applications such as secure encryption [12], key-exchange [21], hash-proof systems [13], pseudo-random functions [32], and many more.
Bilinear Groups and the Linear Assumption. Bilinear groups (i.e., groups $\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_{T}$ of prime order $q$ equipped with a bilinear map $\left.e: \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_{T}\right)$ [25, 4] revolutionized cryptography in recent years and and are the basis for a large number of cryptographic protocols. However, relative to a (symmetric) bilinear map, the DDH Assumption is no longer true in the group $\mathbb{G}$. (This is since $e([a],[r])=e([1],[a r])$ and hence $[a r]$ is not longer pseudorandom given $[a]$ and $[r]$.) The need for an "alternative" decisional assumption in $\mathbb{G}$ was quickly addressed with the Linear Assumption (2-Lin) introduced by Boneh, Boyen, and Shacham [3]. It states that $\left(\left[a_{1}\right],\left[a_{2}\right],\left[a_{1} r_{1}\right],\left[a_{2} r_{2}\right],\left[r_{1}+r_{2}\right]\right) \approx_{c}\left(\left[a_{1}\right],\left[a_{2}\right],\left[a_{1} r_{1}\right],\left[a_{2} r_{2}\right],[z]\right) \in \mathbb{G}^{5}$, where $a_{1}, a_{2}, r_{1}, r_{2}, z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. 2-Lin holds in generic bilinear groups [3] and it has virtually become the standard decisional assumption in the group $\mathbb{G}$ in the bilinear setting. It has found applications to encryption [28, 7, 5, 33, signatures [3], zeroknowledge proofs [22, pseudorandom functions [6] and many more. More recently, the 2-Lin Assumption was generalized to the $(k \text {-Lin })_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ Assumption family [24, 40, (1-Lin $=$ DDH), a family of increasingly (strictly) weaker Assumptions which are generically hard in $k$-linear maps.
Subgroup membership problems. Since the work of Cramer and Shoup [13] it has been recognized that it is useful to view the DDH Assumption as a hard subgroup membership problem in $\mathbb{G}^{2}$. In this formulation, the DDH Assumption states that it is hard to decide whether a given element $([r],[t]) \in \mathbb{G}^{2}$ is contained in the subgroup generated by $([1],[a])$. Similarly, in this language the 2 -Lin Assumption says that it is hard to decide whether a given vector $([r],[s],[t]) \in \mathbb{G}^{3}$ is in the subgroup generated by the vectors $\left(\left[a_{1}\right],[0],[1]\right),\left([0],\left[a_{2}\right],[1]\right)$. The same holds for the $(k \text {-Lin })_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ Assumption family: for each $k$, the $k$-Lin assumption can be naturally written as a hard subgroup membership problem in $\mathbb{G}^{k+1}$. This alternative formulation has conceptual advantages for some applications, for instance, it allowed to provide more instantiations of the original DDH-based scheme of Cramer and Shoup and it is also the most natural point of view for translating schemes originally constructed in composite order groups into prime order groups [18, 31, 39, 38.
Linear Algebra in Bilinear Groups. In its formulation as subgroup decision membership problem, the $k$-Lin assumption can be seen as the problem of deciding linear dependence "in the exponent." Recently, a number of works have illustrated the usefulness of a more algebraic point of view on decisional assumptions in bilinear groups, like the Dual Pairing Vector Spaces of Okamoto and Takashima 35] or the Subspace Assumption of Lewko [29. Although these new decisional assumptions reduce to the 2-Lin Assumption, their flexibility and their algebraic description have proven to be crucial in many works to obtain complex primitives in strong security models previously unrealized in the literature, like Attribute-Based Encryption, Unbounded Inner Product Encryption and many more (see [29, 37, 36], just to name a few).
This work. Motivated by the success of this algebraic viewpoint of decisional assumptions, in this paper we explore new insights resulting from interpreting the $k$-Lin decisional assumption as a special case of what we call a Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption. The general problem states that it is hard to distinguish whether a given vector in $\mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ is contained in the space spanned by the columns of a certain matrix $[\mathbf{A}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell \times k}$, where $\mathbf{A}$ is sampled according to some distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. We remark that even though all our results are stated in symmetric bilinear groups, they can be naturally extended to the asymmetric setting.

### 1.1 The Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption

A new framework for DDH-Like Assumptions. For integers $\ell>k$ let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be an (efficiently samplable) distribution over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$. We define the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-Matrix $\operatorname{DH}\left(\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}\right)$ Assumption as the following subgroup
decision assumption:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}: \quad[\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{r}] \approx_{c}[\mathbf{A} \| \vec{u}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell \times(k+1)} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$ is chosen from distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \vec{r} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$, and $\vec{u} \leftarrow \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$. The ( $k$-Lin) $)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ family corresponds to this problem when $\ell=k+1$, and $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ is the specific distribution $\mathcal{L}_{k}$ (formally defined in Example 2 ).
Generic hardness. Due to its linearity properties, the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH Assumption does not hold in $k+1$-linear groups. In Section 3.3 we give two different theorems which state sufficient conditions for the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ - MDDH Assumption to hold generically in $m$-linear groups. Theorem 33 is very similar to the Uber-Assumption [2, 9] that characterizes hardness in bilinear groups (i.e., $m=2$ ) in terms of linear independence of polynomials in the inputs. We generalize this to arbitrary $m$ using a more algebraic language. This algebraic formulation has the advantage that one can use additional tools (e.g. Gröbner bases or resultants) to show that a distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ meets the conditions of Theorem 3, which is specially important for large $m$. It also allows to prove a completely new result, namely Theorem4, which states that a matrix assumption with $\ell=k+1$ is generically hard if a certain determinant polynomial is irreducible.
New Assumptions for bilinear groups. We propose other families of generically hard decisional assumptions that did not previously appear in the literature, e.g., those associated to $\mathcal{C}_{k}, \mathcal{S} \mathcal{C}_{k}, \mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}_{k}$ defined below. For the most important parameters $k=2$ and $\ell=k+1=3$, we consider the following examples of distributions:

$$
\mathcal{C}_{2}: \mathbf{A}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{1} & 0 \\
1 & a_{2} \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \mathcal{S C}_{2}: \mathbf{A}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a & 0 \\
1 & a \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \mathcal{L}_{2}: \mathbf{A}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{1} & 0 \\
0 & a_{2} \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}_{2}: \mathbf{A}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a & 0 \\
0 & a+1 \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

for uniform $a, a_{1}, a_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ as well as $\mathcal{U}_{3,2}$, the uniform distribution in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{3 \times 2}$ (already considered in [5, 33, 19, 41). All assumptions are hard in generic bilinear groups. It is easy to verify that $\mathcal{L}_{2}-\mathrm{MDDH}=2$-Lin. We define 2-Casc $:=\mathcal{C}_{2}$-MDDH (Cascade Assumption), 2-SCasc $:=\mathcal{S C}_{2}$-MDDH (Symmetric Cascade Assumption), and 2-ILin $:=\mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}_{2}$-MDDH (Incremental Linear Assumption). In Section 3.4 we show that 2-SCasc $\Rightarrow 2$-Casc, 2 -ILin $\Rightarrow 2$-Lin and that $\mathcal{U}_{3,2}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ is the weakest of these assumptions (which extends the results of [19, 41, 18, for 2-Lin), while 2-SCasc and 2-Casc seem incomparable to 2-Lin.
Efficiency improvements. As a measure of efficiency, we define the representation size $\mathrm{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}\right)$ of an $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ assumption as the minimal number of group elements needed to represent $[\mathbf{A}]$ for any $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. This parameter is important since it affects the performance (typically the size of public/secret parameters) of schemes based on a Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption. 2-Lin and 2-Casc have representation size 2 (elements $\left(\left[a_{1}\right],\left[a_{2}\right]\right)$ ), while 2-ILin and 2-SCasc only 1 (element $[a]$ ). Hence our new assumptions directly translate into shorter parameters for a large number of applications (see the Applications in Section 4). Further, our result points out a tradeoff between efficiency and hardness which questions the role of 2-Lin as the "standard decisional assumption" over a bilinear group $\mathbb{G}$.
New Families of Weaker Assumptions. By defining appropriate distributions $\mathcal{C}_{k}, \mathcal{S C}_{k}, \mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}_{k}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(k+1) \times k}$, one can generalize all three new assumptions naturally to $(k \text {-Casc })_{k \in \mathbb{N}},(k \text {-SCasc })_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, and $(k \text {-ILin })_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ with representation size $k, 1$, and 1 , respectively. Using our results on generic hardness, it is easy to verify that all three assumptions are generically hard in $k$-linear groups. Since they are false in $k+1$-linear groups this gives us three new families of increasingly strictly weaker assumptions. In particular, the ( $k$-SCasc) and ( $k$-ILin) assumption families are of great interest due to their compact representation size of only 1 element.
Relations to Other Standard Assumptions. Surprisingly, the new assumption families can also be related to standard assumptions. The $k$-Casc Assumption is implied by the $(k+1)$-Party Diffie-Hellman Assumption $((k+1)$-PDDH $)[7]$ which states that $\left(\left[a_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[a_{k+1}\right],\left[a_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_{k+1}\right]\right) \approx_{c}\left(\left[a_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[a_{k+1}\right],[z]\right) \in$ $\mathbb{G}^{k+2}$. Similarly, $k$-SCasc is implied by the $k+1$-Exponent Diffie-Hellman Assumption $((k+1)$-EDDH) [27] which states that $\left([a],\left[a^{k+1}\right]\right) \approx_{c}([a],[z]) \in \mathbb{G}^{2}$. Figure 1 on page 10 gives an overview over the relations between the different assumptions.

### 1.2 Basic Applications

We believe that all schemes based on 2-Lin can be shown to work for any Matrix Assumption. Consequently, a large class of known schemes can be instantiated more efficiently with the new more compact decisional assumptions, while offering the same generic security guarantees. We leave as an open question if new assumptions give raise to interesting new instantiations of the Dual Pairing Vector Spaces [35] or the Subspace Assumptions 29. To support this belief, in Section 4 we show how to construct some fundamental primitives based on any Matrix Assumption. All constructions are purely algebraic and therefore very easy to understand and prove.

- Public-key Encryption. We build a key-encapsulation mechanism with security against passive adversaries from any $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH Assumption. The public-key is $[\mathbf{A}]$, the ciphertext consists of the first $k$ elements of $[z]=[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}]$, the symmetric key of the last $\ell-k$ elements of $[z]$. Passive security immediately follows from $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$.
- Hash Proof Systems. We build a smooth projective hash proof system (HPS) from any $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH Assumption. It is well-known that HPS imply chosen-ciphertext secure encryption [13], passwordauthenticated key-exchange [21, zero-knowledge proofs [1], and many other things.
- Pseudo-Random Functions. Generalizing the Naor-Reingold PRF 32, 6, we build a pseudo-random function PRF from any $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-$ MDDH Assumption. The secret-key consists of transformation matrices $\mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}$ (derived from independent instances $\mathbf{A}_{i, j} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ ) plus a vector $\vec{h}$ of group elements. For $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ we define $\operatorname{PRF}_{K}(x)=\left[\prod_{i: x_{i}=1} \mathbf{T}_{i} \cdot \vec{h}\right]$. Using the random self-reducibility of the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k^{-}}$ MDDH Assumption, we give a tight security proof.
- Groth-Sahai Non-Interactive Zero-Knowledge Proofs. Groth and Sahai 22 proposed very elegant and efficient non-interactive zero-knowledge (NIZK) and non-interactive witness-indistinguishable (NIWI) proofs that work directly for a wide class of languages that are relevant in practice. We show how to instantiatiate their proof system based on any $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ Assumption. While the size of the proofs depends only on $\ell$ and $k$, the CRS and verification depends on the representation size of the Matrix Assumptions. Therefore our new instantiations offer improved efficiency over the 2-Lin-based construction from [22]. This application in particular highlights the usefulness of the Matrix Assumption to describe in a compact way many instantiations of a scheme: instead of having to specify the constructions for the DDH and the 2-Lin assumptions separately [22], we can recover them as a special case of a general construction.

More efficient proofs for CRS dependent languages. In Section 5 we provide more efficient NIZK and NIWI proofs for concrete natural languages which are dependent on the common reference string. More specifically, the common reference string of the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH instantiation of Groth-Sahai proofs of Section 4.4 includes as part of the commitment keys the matrix [A], where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. We give more efficient proofs for several languages related to $\mathbf{A}$. Although at first glance the languages considered may seem quite restricted, they naturally appear in many applications, where typically $\mathbf{A}$ is the public key of some encryption scheme and one wants to prove statements about ciphertexts. More specifically, we obtain improvements for several kinds of statements, namely:

- Subgroup membership proofs. We give more efficient proofs in the language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbb{G}, \mathcal{P}}:=\{[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}], \vec{r} \in$ $\left.\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}\right\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$. To quantify some concrete improvement, in the 2-Lin case, our proofs of membership are half of the size of a standard Groth-Sahai proof and they require only 6 groups elements. We stress that this improvement is obtained without introducing any new computational assumption. As an example of application, consider for instance the encryption scheme derived from our KEM based on any $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ - MDDH, where the public key is some matrix $[\mathbf{A}], \mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. To see which kind of statements can be proved using our result, note that a ciphertext is a rerandomization of another one only if their difference is in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbb{G}, \mathcal{P}}$. The same holds for proving that two commitments with the same key hide the
same value or for showing in a publicly verifiable manner that the ciphertext of our encryption scheme opens to some known message $[m$ ]. This improvement has a significant impact on recent results, like [30, 17], and we think many more examples can be found.
- Ciphertext validity. The result is extended to prove membership in the language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathbb{G}, \mathcal{P}}=\{[\vec{c}]$ : $\vec{c}=\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+m \vec{z}\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$, where $\vec{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ is some public vector such that $\vec{z} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$, and the witness of the statement is $(\vec{r},[m]) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k} \times \mathbb{G}$. The natural application of this result is to prove that a ciphertext is well-formed and the prover knows the message [ $m$ ], like for instance in [16].
- Plaintext equality. In Section 5.3, we obtain more efficient proofs for equality of ciphertexts. We consider Groth-Sahai proofs in a setting in which the variables of the proofs are committed with different commitment keys, defined by two matrices $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}, \mathbf{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}^{\prime}$. We give more efficient proofs of membership in the language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbb{G}, \mathcal{P}}:=\left\{\left(\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]\right):\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+(0, \ldots, 0, m)^{T}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]=\right.$ $\left.\left[\mathbf{B} \vec{s}+(0, \ldots, 0, m)^{T}\right], \vec{r} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1}}, \vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2}}\right\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{1}} \times \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{2}}$. To quantify our concrete improvements, the size of the proof is reduced by 4 group elements with respect to [26] and by 9 group elements with respect to [23]. As in the previous case, this language appears most naturally when one wants to prove equality of two committed values or plaintexts encrypted under different keys, e.g., when using Naor-Yung techniques to obtain chosen-ciphertext security 34. Concretely, our results apply to the encryption schemes in [26, [23, 10, 15].


## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Notation

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we write $1^{n}$ for the string of $n$ ones. Moreover, $|x|$ denotes the length of a bitstring $x$, while $|S|$ denotes the size of a set $S$. Further, $s \leftarrow S$ denotes the process of sampling an element $s$ from $S$ uniformly at random. For an algorithm A , we write $z \leftarrow \mathrm{~A}(x, y, \ldots)$ to indicate that A is a (probabilistic) algorithm that outputs $z$ on input $(x, y, \ldots)$. If $\mathbf{A}$ is a matrix we denote by $a_{i j}$ the entries and $\vec{a}_{i}$ the column vectors.

### 2.2 Representing elements in groups

Let Gen be a probabilistic polynomial time (ppt) algorithm that on input $1^{\lambda}$ returns a description $\mathcal{G}=$ $(\mathbb{G}, q, \mathcal{P})$ of a cyclic group $\mathbb{G}$ of order $q$ for a $\lambda$-bit prime $q$ and a generator $\mathcal{P}$ of $\mathbb{G}$. More generally, for any fixed $k \geq 1$, let $\operatorname{MGen}_{k}$ be a ppt algorithm that on input $1^{\lambda}$ returns a description $\mathcal{M} \mathcal{G}_{k}=\left(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}, q, e_{k}, \mathcal{P}\right)$, where $\mathbb{G}$ and $\mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$ are cyclic additive groups of prime-order $q, \mathcal{P}$ a generator of $\mathbb{G}$, and $e_{k}: \mathbb{G}^{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$ is a (non-degenerated, efficiently computable) $k$-linear map. For $k=2$ we define $\mathrm{PGen}:=\mathrm{MGen}_{2}$ to be a generator of a bilinear group $\mathcal{P G}=\left(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_{T}, q, e, \mathcal{P}\right)$.

For an element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ we define $[a]=a \mathcal{P}$ as the implicit representation of $a$ in $\mathbb{G}$. More generally, for a $\operatorname{matrix} \mathbf{A}=\left(a_{i j}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n \times m}$ we define $[\mathbf{A}]$ as the implicit representation of $\mathbf{A}$ in $\mathbb{G}$ and $[\mathbf{A}]_{T_{k}}$ as the implicit representation of $\mathbf{A}$ in $\mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$ :

$$
[\mathbf{A}]:=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
a_{11} \mathcal{P} & \ldots & a_{1 m} \mathcal{P} \\
& & \\
a_{n 1} \mathcal{P} & \ldots & a_{n m} \mathcal{P}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{G}^{n \times m}, \quad[\mathbf{A}]_{T_{k}}:=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
a_{11} \mathcal{P}_{T_{k}} & \ldots & a_{1 m} \mathcal{P}_{T_{k}} \\
a_{n 1} \mathcal{P}_{T_{k}} & \ldots & a_{n m} \mathcal{P}_{T_{k}}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}^{n \times m},
$$

where $\mathcal{P}_{T_{k}}=e_{k}(\mathcal{P}, \ldots, \mathcal{P}) \in \mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$.
When talking about elements in $\mathbb{G}$ and $\mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$ we will always use this implicit notation, i.e., we let $[a] \in \mathbb{G}$ be an element in $\mathbb{G}$ or $[b]_{T_{k}}$ be an element in $\mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$. Note that from $[a] \in \mathbb{G}$ it is generally hard to compute the value $a$ (discrete logarithm problem in $\mathbb{G}$ ). Further, from $[b]_{T_{k}} \in \mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$ it is hard to compute the value $b \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ (discrete logarithm problem in $\mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$ ) or the value $[b] \in \mathbb{G}$ (pairing inversion problem). Obviously, given $[a] \in \mathbb{G},[b]_{T_{k}} \in \mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$, and a scalar $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$, one can efficiently compute $[a x] \in \mathbb{G}$ and $[b x]_{T_{k}} \in \mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$.

Also, all functions and operations acting on $\mathbb{G}$ and $\mathbb{G}_{T_{k}}$ will be defined implicitly. For example, when evaluating a bilinear pairing $e: \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_{T}$ in $[a],[b] \in \mathbb{G}$ we will use again our implicit representation and write $[z]_{T}:=e([a],[b])$. Note that $e([a],[b])=[a b]_{T}$, for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$.

### 2.3 Standard Diffie-Hellman Assumptions

Let $G e n$ be a ppt algorithm that on input $1^{\lambda}$ returns a description $\mathcal{G}=(\mathbb{G}, q, \mathcal{P})$ of cyclic group $\mathbb{G}$ of prime-order $q$ and a generator $\mathcal{P}$ of $\mathbb{G}$. Similarly, let $\operatorname{PGen}$ be a ppt algorithm that returns a description $\mathcal{P G}=\left(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_{T}, q, e, \mathcal{P}\right)$ of a pairing group. We informally recall a number of previously considered Decisional Diffie-Hellman Assumptions.

- Diffie-Hellman (DDH) Assumption. It is hard to distinguish $(\mathcal{G},[x],[y],[x y])$ from $(\mathcal{G},[x],[y],[z])$, for $\mathcal{G}=(\mathbb{G}, q, \mathcal{P}) \leftarrow$ Gen, $x, y, z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$.
- $k$-Linear ( $k$-Lin) Assumption [3, 24, 40]. It is hard to distinguish (G), $\left[x_{1}\right],\left[x_{2}\right], \ldots\left[x_{k}\right],\left[r_{1} x_{1}\right]$, $\left.\left[r_{2} x_{2}\right], \ldots\left[r_{k} x_{k}\right],\left[r_{1}+\cdots+r_{k}\right]\right)$ from $\left(\mathcal{G},\left[x_{1}\right],\left[x_{2}\right], \ldots\left[x_{k}\right],\left[r_{1} x_{1}\right],\left[r_{2} x_{2}\right], \ldots\left[r_{k} x_{k}\right],[z]\right)$, for $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow$ Gen, $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}, r_{1}, \ldots, r_{k}, z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. Clearly, 1-Lin $=$ DDH.
- Bilinear Diffie-Hellman (BDDH) Assumption [4]. It is hard to distinguish $\left(\mathcal{P} \mathcal{G},[x],[y],[z],[x y z]_{T}\right)$ from $\left(\mathcal{P G},[x],[y],[z],[w]_{T}\right)$, for $\mathcal{P G} \leftarrow \mathrm{PGen}, x, y, z, w \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$.
- $k$-Multilinear Diffie-Hellman ( $k$-MLDDH) Assumption [8]. Given $k$-linear group generator $\mathrm{MGen}_{k}$ it is hard to distinguish $\left(\mathcal{M} \mathcal{G}_{k},\left[x_{1}\right], \ldots\left[x_{k+1}\right],\left[x_{1} \ldots x_{k+1}\right]_{T_{k}}\right)$ from $\left(\mathcal{M G}_{k},\left[x_{1}\right], \ldots\left[x_{k+1}\right],[z]_{T_{k}}\right)$, for $\mathcal{M G}_{k} \leftarrow \operatorname{MGen}_{k}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k+1}, z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. Clearly, 2-MLDDH $=$ BDDH.
- $k$-Party Diffie-Hellman ( $k$-PDDH) Assumption. It is hard to distinguish $\left(\mathcal{G},\left[x_{1}\right],\left[x_{2}\right], \ldots\left[x_{k}\right],\left[x_{1}\right.\right.$. $\left.\left.\cdots x_{k}\right]\right)$ from $\left(\mathcal{G},\left[x_{1}\right],\left[x_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[x_{k}\right],[z]\right)$, for $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}, z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q} \cdot 2$-PDDH $=$ DDH and 3-PDDH was proposed in [7].
- $k$-Exponent Diffie-Hellman ( $k$-EDDH) Assumption [42, 27]. It is hard to distinguish $\left(\mathcal{G},[x],\left[x^{k}\right]\right)$ from $(\mathcal{G},[x],[z])$, for $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow$ Gen, $x, z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$.


### 2.4 Key Encapsulation Mechanisms

A key-encapsulation mechanism $\mathrm{KEM}=(\mathrm{Gen}$, Enc, Dec) with key-space $\mathcal{K}(\lambda)$ consists of three polynomialtime algorithms (PTAs). Via $(p k, s k) \leftarrow G e n\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ the randomized key-generation algorithm produces public/secret keys for security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$; via $(K, c) \leftarrow \operatorname{Enc}(p k)$ the randomized encapsulation algorithm creates a uniformly distributed symmetric key $K \in \mathcal{K}(\lambda)$ together with a ciphertext $c$; via $K \leftarrow \operatorname{Dec}(s k, c)$ the possessor of secret key $s k$ decrypts ciphertext $c$ to get back a key $K$ which is an element in $\mathcal{K}$ or a special rejection symbol $\perp$. For consistency, we require that for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, and all $(K, c) \leftarrow \operatorname{Enc}(p k)$ we have $\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{Dec}(s k, c)=K]=1$, where the probability is taken over the choice of $(p k, s k) \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$, and the coins of all the algorithms in the expression above.

### 2.5 Hash Proof Systems

We recall the notion of hash proof systems as introduced by Cramer and Shoup [13.
Let $\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}$ be sets and $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{C}$ a language. In the context of public-key encryption (and viewing a hash proof system as a key encapsulation mechanism (KEM) [14 with "special algebraic properties") one may think of $\mathcal{C}$ as the set of all ciphertexts, $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{C}$ as the set of all valid (consistent) ciphertexts, and $\mathcal{K}$ as the set of all symmetric keys. Let $\Lambda_{s k}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}$ be a hash function indexed with $s k \in \mathcal{S K}$, where $\mathcal{S K}$ is a set. A hash function $\Lambda_{s k}$ is projective if there exists a projection $\mu: \mathcal{S K} \rightarrow \mathcal{P} \mathcal{K}$ such that $\mu(s k) \in \mathcal{P K}$ defines the action of $\Lambda_{s k}$ over the subset $\mathcal{V}$. That is, for every $c \in \mathcal{V}$, the value $K=\Lambda_{s k}(c)$ is uniquely determined by
$\mu(s k)$ and $c$. In contrast, nothing is guaranteed for $c \in \mathcal{C} \backslash \mathcal{V}$, and it may not be possible to compute $\Lambda_{s k}(c)$ from $\mu(s k)$ and $c$. The projective hash function is (perfectly) universal ${ }_{1}$ if for all $c \in \mathcal{C} \backslash \mathcal{V}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(p k, \Lambda_{s k}(c)\right) \equiv(p k, K) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where in the above $p k=\mu(s k)$ for $s k \leftarrow \mathcal{S K}$ and $K \leftarrow \mathcal{K}$.
A hash proof system HPS $=($ Param, Pub, Priv $)$ consists of three algorithms where the randomized algorithm Param ( $1^{\lambda}$ ) generates instances of params $=\left(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{P K}, \mathcal{S K}, \Lambda_{(\cdot)}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}, \mu: \mathcal{S K} \rightarrow \mathcal{P K}\right)$, where $\mathcal{S}$ may contain some additional structural parameters such as the group description. The deterministic public evaluation algorithm Pub inputs the projection key $p k=\mu(s k), c \in \mathcal{V}$ and a witness $w$ of the fact that $c \in \mathcal{V}$ and returns $K=\Lambda_{s k}(c)$. The deterministic private evaluation algorithm inputs $s k \in \mathcal{S K}$ and returns $\Lambda_{s k}(c)$, without knowing a witness. We further assume there are efficient algorithms given for sampling $s k \in \mathcal{S K}$ and sampling $c \in \mathcal{V}$ uniformly together with a witness $w$.

As computational problem we require that the subset membership problem is hard in HPS which means that the two elements $c$ and $c^{\prime}$ are computationally indistinguishable, for uniform $c \in \mathcal{V}$ and uniform $c^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C} \backslash \mathcal{V}$.

### 2.6 Pseudo-random Functions

A pseudo-random function $\operatorname{PRF}=(G e n, F)$ with respect to range $\mathcal{R}=\mathcal{R}(\lambda)$ and message space $\mathcal{M}=\mathcal{M}(\lambda)$ consists of two algorithm, where the randomized algorithm $\operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ generates a symmetric key $K$ and the deterministic evaluation algorithm $\mathrm{F}_{K}(x)$ outputs a value in $\mathcal{R}$. For security we require that an adversary making polynomially many queries to an oracle $\mathcal{O}(\cdot)$ cannot efficiently distinguish $\mathcal{O}(x)=\mathrm{F}_{K}(x)$ for a fixed key $K \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ from $\mathcal{O}(x)$ which outputs uniform elements in $\mathcal{R}$.

## 3 Matrix DH assumptions

### 3.1 Definition

Definition 1. Let $\ell, k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\ell>k$. We call $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ a matrix distribution if it outputs (in poly time, with overwhelming probability) matrices in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$ of full rank $k$. We define $\mathcal{D}_{k}:=\mathcal{D}_{k+1, k}$.

For simplicity we will also assume that, wlog, the first $k$ rows of $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ form an invertible matrix.
We define the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-matrix problem as to distinguish the two distributions $([\mathbf{A}],[\mathbf{A} \vec{w}])$ and $([\mathbf{A}],[\vec{u}])$, where $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \vec{w} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$, and $\vec{u} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$.
Definition 2 ( $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH). Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution. We say that the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-Matrix Diffie-Hellman ( $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH) Assumption holds relative to Gen if for all ppt adversaries D,

$$
\mathbf{A d v}_{\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \operatorname{Gen}}(\mathrm{D})=\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{D}(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}],[\mathbf{A} \vec{w}])=1]-\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{D}(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}],[\vec{u}])=1]=\operatorname{negl}(\lambda),
$$

where the probability is taken over $\mathcal{G}=(\mathbb{G}, q, \mathcal{P}) \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right), \mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \vec{w} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}, \vec{u} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ and the coin tosses of adversary D.
Definition 3. Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution. Let $\mathbf{A}_{0}$ be the first $k$ rows of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{A}_{1}$ be the last $\ell-k$ rows of $\mathbf{A}$. The matrix $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(\ell-k) \times k}$ defined as $\mathbf{T}=\mathbf{A}_{1} \mathbf{A}_{0}^{-1}$ is called the transformation matrix of $\mathbf{A}$.

We note that using the transformation matrix, one can alternatively define the advantage from Definition 2 as

$$
\mathbf{A d v}_{\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \operatorname{Gen}}(\mathrm{D})=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathbf{D}\left(\mathcal{G},\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{A}_{0} \\
\mathbf{T A}_{0}
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{c}
\vec{h} \\
\mathbf{T} \vec{h}
\end{array}\right]\right)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathbf{D}\left(\mathcal{G},\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{A}_{0} \\
\mathbf{T A}_{0}
\end{array}\right],[\vec{u}]\right)=1\right],
$$

where the probability is taken over $\mathcal{G}=(\mathbb{G}, q, \mathcal{P}) \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right), \mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \vec{h} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}, \vec{u} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell-k}$ and the coin tosses of adversary D.

### 3.2 Basic Properties

We can generalize Definition 2 to the $m$-fold $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ - MDDH Assumption as follows. Given $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times m}$ for some $m \geq 1$, we consider the problem of distinguishing the distributions $([\mathbf{A}],[\mathbf{A W}])$ and $([\mathbf{A}],[\mathbf{U}])$ where $\mathbf{U} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times m}$ is equivalent to $m$ independent instances of the problem (with the same $\mathbf{A}$ but different $\vec{w}_{i}$ ). This can be proved through a hybrid argument with a loss of $m$ in the reduction, or, with a tight reduction (independent of $m$ ) via random self-reducibility.

Lemma 1 (Random self reducibility). For any matrix distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ is random self-reducible. Concretely, for any $m$,

$$
\mathbf{A d v}_{\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \operatorname{Gen}}^{m}\left(\mathrm{D}^{\prime}\right) \leq \begin{cases}m \cdot \mathbf{A d} \mathbf{v}_{\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \operatorname{Gen}}(\mathrm{D}) & 1 \leq m \leq \ell-k \\ (\ell-k) \cdot \mathbf{A d}_{\mathbf{v}_{\ell, k}, \operatorname{Gen}}(\mathrm{D})+\frac{1}{q-1} & m>\ell-k\end{cases}
$$

where

$$
\mathbf{A d v}_{\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \operatorname{Gen}}^{m}\left(\mathrm{D}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{D}^{\prime}(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}],[\mathbf{A W}])=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{D}^{\prime}(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}],[\mathbf{U}])=1\right]
$$

and the probability is taken over $\mathcal{G}=(\mathbb{G}, q, \mathcal{P}) \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right), \mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times m}, \mathbf{U} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times m}$ and the coin tosses of adversary $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$.

Proof. The case $1 \leq m \leq \ell-k$ comes from a natural hybrid argument, while the case $m>\ell-k$ is obtained from the inequality

$$
\mathbf{A d v}_{\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \operatorname{Gen}}^{m}\left(\mathrm{D}^{\prime}\right) \leq \mathbf{A d v}_{\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \text { Gen }}^{\ell-k}(\mathrm{D})+\frac{1}{q-1}
$$

To prove it, we show that there exists an efficient transformation of any instance $([\mathbf{A}],[\mathbf{Z}])$ of the $(\ell-k)$-fold $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ - MDDH problem into another instance $\left([\mathbf{A}],\left[\mathbf{Z}^{\prime}\right]\right)$ of the $m$-fold problem, with overwhelming probability.

In particular, we set $\mathbf{Z}^{\prime}=\mathbf{A R}+\mathbf{Z C}$, for random matrices $\mathbf{R} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times m}$ and $\mathbf{C} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(\ell-k) \times m}$. On the one hand, if $\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{A W}$ then $\mathbf{Z}^{\prime}=\mathbf{A} \mathbf{W}^{\prime}$ for $\mathbf{W}^{\prime}=\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{W C}$, which is uniformly distributed in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times m}$. On the other hand, if $\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{U}$ is uniform then $\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{U}$ is full-rank with probability at least $1-1 /(q-1)$. In that case, $\mathbf{Z}^{\prime}=\mathbf{A R}+\mathbf{U C}$ is uniformly distributed in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times m}$, which proves the above inequality.

We remark that, given $[\mathbf{A}],[\vec{z}]$ the above lemma can only be used to re-randomize the value $[\vec{z}]$. In order to re-randomize the matrix $[\mathbf{A}]$ we need that one can sample matrices $\mathbf{L}$ and $\mathbf{R}$ such that $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}=\mathbf{L} \mathbf{A R}$ looks like an independent instance $\mathbf{A}^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. In all of our example distributions we are able to do this.

Due to its linearity properties, the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ assumption does not hold in $(k+1)$-linear groups.
Lemma 2. Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be any matrix distribution. Then the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption is false in $(k+1)$-linear groups.

Proof. In a $(k+1)$-linear group, the implicit representation of any $r \times r$ determinant for $r \leq k+1$ can be efficiently computed by using the $r$-linear map given by the Leibnitz formula:

$$
\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{M})=\sum_{\sigma \in S_{r}} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^{r} m_{i, \sigma_{i}}
$$

Using the $k+1$-linear map, $[\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{M})]_{T_{k}}$ can be computed in the target group. Then, given $[\mathbf{B}]:=[\mathbf{A} \| \vec{z}]$, consider the submatrix $\mathbf{A}_{0}$ formed by the first $k$ rows of $\mathbf{A}$ and the vector $\vec{z}_{0}$ formed by the first $k$ elements of $\vec{z}$. If $\operatorname{det}\left(\mathbf{A}_{0}\right) \neq 0$, then define $\mathbf{C}$ as the first $k+1$ rows of $\mathbf{B}$. If $\vec{z}$ is random then $\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{C}) \neq 0$ with overwhelming probability, while if $\vec{z}=\mathbf{A} \vec{w}$ for some vector $\vec{w}$ then $\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{C})=0$. Therefore the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption is false in this case.

Otherwise $\operatorname{det}\left(\mathbf{A}_{0}\right)=0$. Then $\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathbf{A}_{0} \| \vec{z}_{0}\right)=\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathbf{A}_{0}\right)$ when $\vec{z}=\mathbf{A} \vec{w}$, while $\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathbf{A}_{0} \| \overrightarrow{z_{0}}\right)=\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathbf{A}_{0}\right)+$ 1 with overwhelming probability if $\vec{z}$ is random. To compute the rank of both matrices the following efficient randomized algorithm can be used. Take random invertible matrices $\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times k}$. Then set $\left[\mathbf{A}_{0}^{\prime}\right]=\left[\mathbf{L} \mathbf{A}_{0} \mathbf{R}\right]$
and $\left[\vec{z}_{0}^{\prime}\right]=\left[\mathbf{L} \vec{z}_{0}\right]$, which is just a randomized instance of the same problem. Now if $\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathbf{A}_{0}^{\prime}\right)=r$ then with overwhelming probability its principal $r \times r$ minor is nonzero. Therefore, we can estimate $r=\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathbf{A}_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ as the size of the largest nonzero principal minor (with negligible error probability). Finally, if the determinant of the submatrix of $\mathbf{A}_{0}^{\prime} \| \vec{z}_{0}^{\prime}$ formed by the first $r+1$ rows and the first $r$ and the last column is nonzero we conclude that $\vec{z}$ is random.

### 3.3 Generic Hardness of Matrix DH

Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution as in Definition 1 , which outputs matrices $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$. We call $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ polynomial-induced if the distribution is defined by picking $\vec{t} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{d}$ uniformly at random and setting $a_{i, j}:=$ $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{t})$ for some polynomials $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{T}]$ whose degree does not depend on $\lambda$. E.g. for 2-Lin from Section 1.1 , we have $a_{1,1}=t_{1}, a_{2,2}=t_{2}, a_{2,1}=a_{3,2}=1$ and $a_{1,2}=a_{3,1}=0$ with $t_{1}, t_{2}$ (called $a_{1}, a_{2}$ in Section 1.1) uniform.

We set $\mathfrak{f}_{i, j}=A_{i, j}-\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$ and $\mathfrak{g}_{i}=Z_{i}-\sum_{j} \mathfrak{p}_{i, j} W_{j}$ in the ring $\mathcal{R}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}\left[A_{1,1}, \ldots, A_{\ell, k}, \vec{Z}, \vec{T}, \vec{W}\right]$. Consider the ideal $\mathcal{I}_{0}$ generated by all $\mathfrak{f}_{i, j}$ 's and $\mathfrak{g}_{i}$ 's and the ideal $\mathcal{I}_{1}$ generated only by the $\mathfrak{f}_{i, j}$ 's in $\mathcal{R}$. Let $\mathcal{J}_{b}:=$ $\mathcal{I}_{b} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{q}\left[A_{1,1}, \ldots, A_{\ell, k}, \vec{Z}\right]$. Note that the equations $\mathfrak{f}_{i, j}=0$ just encode the definition of the matrix entry $a_{i, j}$ by $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{t})$ and the equation $\mathfrak{g}_{i}=0$ encodes the definition of $z_{i}$ in the case $\vec{z}=\mathbf{A} \vec{\omega}$. So, informally, $\mathcal{I}_{0}$ encodes the relations between the $a_{i, j}$ 's, $z_{i}$ 's, $t_{i}$ 's and $w_{i}$ 's in $([\mathbf{A}],[\vec{z}]=[\mathbf{A} \vec{\omega}])$ and $\mathcal{I}_{1}$ encodes the relations in $([\mathbf{A}],[\vec{z}]=[\vec{u}])$. For $b=0(\vec{z}=\mathbf{A} \vec{\omega})$ and $b=1$ ( $\vec{z}$ uniform), $\mathcal{J}_{b}$ encodes the relations visible by considering only the given data (i.e. the $A_{i, j}$ 's and $Z_{j}$ 's).
Theorem 3. Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a polynomial-induced matrix distribution with notation as above. Then the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k^{-}}$ MDDH assumption holds in generic m-linear groups if and only if $\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}$, where the $\leq m$ means restriction to total degree at most $m$.

Proof. Note that $\mathcal{J}_{\leq m}$ captures precisely what any adversary can generically compute with polynomially many group and $m$-linear pairing operations. Formally, this is proven by restating the Uber-Assumption Theorem of [2, 9] and its proof more algebraically. Cf. Appendix B for details.

For a given matrix distribution, the condition $\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}$ can be verified by direct linear algebra or by elimination theory (using e.g. Gröbner bases). ${ }^{1}$ For the special case $\ell=k+1$, we can actually give a criterion that is simple to verify using determinants:
Theorem 4. Let $\mathcal{D}_{k}$ be a polynomial-induced matrix distribution, which outputs matrices $a_{i, j}=\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{t})$ for uniform $\vec{t} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{d}$. Let $\mathfrak{d}$ be the determinant of $\left(\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{T}) \| \vec{Z}\right)$ as a polynomial in $\vec{Z}, \vec{T}$.

1. If the matrices output by $\mathcal{D}_{k}$ always have full rank (not just with overwhelming probability), even for $t_{i}$ from the algebraic closure $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$, then $\mathfrak{d}$ is irreducible over $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$.
2. If all $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$ have degree at most one and $\mathfrak{d}$ is irreducible over $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$ and the total degree of $\mathfrak{d}$ is $k+1$, then the $\mathcal{D}_{k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ assumption holds in generic $k$-linear groups.
This theorem and generalizations for non-linear $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$ and non-irreducible $\mathfrak{d}$ are proven in Appendix B using tools from algebraic geometry.

### 3.4 Examples of $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH

Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution and $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. Looking ahead to our applications, [ $\mathbf{A}$ ] will correspond to the public-key (or common reference string) and $[\mathbf{A} \vec{w}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ will correspond to a ciphertext. We define the representation size $\mathrm{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}\right)$ of a given polynomial-induced matrix distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ with linear $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$ 's as the minimal number of group elements it takes to represent $[\mathbf{A}]$ for any $\mathbf{A} \in \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. We will be interested in families of distributions $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ such that that Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption is hard in $k$-linear groups. By Lemma 2 we obtain a family of strictly weaker assumptions. Our goal is to obtain such a family of assumptions with small (possibly minimal) representation.

[^1]Example 1. Let $\mathcal{U}_{\ell, k}$ be the uniform distribution over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$.
The next lemma says that $\mathcal{U}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH is the weakest possible assumption among all $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-Matrix DiffieHellman Assumptions. However, $\mathcal{U}_{\ell, k}$ has poor representation, i.e., $\mathrm{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{U}_{\ell, k}\right)=\ell k$.

Lemma 5. Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be any matrix distribution. Then $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH} \Rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$.
Proof. Given an instance $([\mathbf{A}],[\mathbf{A} \vec{w}])$ of $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$, if $\mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times \ell}$ and $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times k}$ are two random invertible matrices, it is possible to get a properly distributed instance of the $\mathcal{U}_{\ell, k}$-matrix DH problem as $([\mathbf{L A R}],[\mathbf{L} \mathbf{A} \vec{w}])$. Indeed, LAR has a distribution statistically close to the uniform distribution ${ }^{2}$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times \ell}$, while $\mathbf{L} \mathbf{A} \vec{w}=\mathbf{L} \mathbf{A R} \vec{v}$ for $\vec{v}=\mathbf{R}^{-1} \vec{w}$. Clearly, $\vec{v}$ has the uniform distribution in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$.

Example 2 ( $k$-Linear Assumption/ $k$-Lin). We define the distribution $\mathcal{L}_{k}$ as follows

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
a_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & a_{2} & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & & \ddots & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & a_{k} \\
1 & 1 & \ldots & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(k+1) \times k}
$$

where $a_{i} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$. The transformation matrix $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{1 \times k}$ is given as $\mathbf{T}=\left(\frac{1}{a_{1}}, \ldots, \frac{1}{a_{k}}\right)$. Note that the distribution $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A} \vec{w})$ can be compactly written as $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}, a_{1} w_{1}, \ldots, a_{k} w_{k}, w_{1}+\ldots+w_{k}\right)=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}, \frac{b_{1}}{a_{1}}+\right.$ $\left.\ldots+\frac{b_{k}}{a_{k}}\right)$ with $a_{i} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$, $b_{i}$, $w_{i} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. Hence the $\mathcal{L}_{k}$-Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption is an equivalent description of the $k$-linear Assumption [3, 24, 40] with $\mathrm{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{L}_{k}\right)=k$.

It was shown in [40] that $k$-Lin holds in the generic $k$-linear group model and hence $k$-Lin forms a family of increasingly strictly weaker assumptions. Furthermore, in [7] it was shown that 2-Lin $\Rightarrow$ BDDH.

Example 3 ( $k$-Cascade Assumption/ $k$-Casc). We define the distribution $\mathcal{C}_{k}$ as follows

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
a_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
1 & a_{2} & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & \ddots & & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 & a_{k} \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $a_{i} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$. The transformation matrix $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{1 \times k}$ is given as $\mathbf{T}=\left( \pm \frac{1}{a_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_{k}}, \mp \frac{1}{a_{2} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_{k}} \ldots, \frac{1}{a_{k}}\right)$. Note that $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A} \vec{w})$ can be compactly written as $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}, a_{1} w_{1}, w_{1}+a_{2} w_{2} \ldots, w_{k-1}+a_{k} w_{k}, w_{k}\right)=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}, \frac{b_{k}}{a_{k}}-\right.$ $\left.\frac{b_{k-1}}{a_{k-1} a_{k}}+\frac{b_{k-2}}{a_{k-2} a_{k-1} a_{k}}-\ldots \pm \frac{b_{1}}{a_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_{k}}\right)$. We have $\operatorname{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{C}_{k}\right)=k$.

Matrix A bears resemblance to a cascade which explains the assumption's name. Indeed, in order to compute the right lower entry $w_{k}$ of matrix $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A} \vec{w})$ from the remaining entries, one has to "descent" the cascade to compute all the other entries $w_{i}(1 \leq i \leq k-1)$ one after the other.

A more compact version of $\mathcal{C}_{k}$ is obtained by setting all $a_{i}:=a$.
Example 4. (Symmetric $k$-Cascade Assumption) We define the distribution $\mathcal{S C}_{k}$ as $\mathcal{C}_{k}$ but now $a_{i}=a$, where $a \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$. Then $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A} \vec{w})$ can be compactly written as $\left(a, a w_{1}, w_{1}+a w_{2}, \ldots, w_{k-1}+a w_{k}, w_{k}\right)=$ $\left(a, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}, \frac{b_{k}}{a}-\frac{b_{k-1}}{a^{2}}+\frac{b_{k-2}}{a^{3}}-\ldots \pm \frac{b_{1}}{a^{k}}\right)$. We have $\mathrm{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{C}_{k}\right)=1$.

[^2]

Figure 1: Relation between various assumptions and their generic hardness in $k$-linear groups.

Observe that the same trick cannot be applied to the $k$-Linear assumption $k$-Lin, as the resulting Symmetric $k$-Linear assumption does not hold in $k$-linear groups. However, if we set $a_{i}:=a+i$, we obtain another matrix distribution with compact representation.

Example 5. (Incremental $k$-Linear Assumption) We define the distribution $\mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}_{k}$ as $\mathcal{L}_{k}$ with $a_{i}=a+i$, for $a \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$. The transformation matrix $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{1 \times k}$ is given as $\mathbf{T}=\left(\frac{1}{a}, \ldots, \frac{1}{a+k-1}\right)$. $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A} \vec{w})$ can be compactly written as $\left(a, a w_{1},(a+1) w_{2}, \ldots,(a+k-1) w_{k}, w_{1}+\ldots+w_{k}\right)=\left(a, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}, \frac{b_{1}}{a}+\frac{b_{2}}{a+1}+\ldots+\frac{b_{k}}{a+k-1}\right)$. We also have $\mathrm{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}_{k}\right)=1$.

The last three examples need some work to prove its generic hardness.
Theorem 6. $k$-Casc, $k$-SCasc and $k$-ILin are hard in generic $k$-linear groups.
Proof. We need to consider the (statistically close) variants with $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ rather that $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$. The determinant polynomial for $\mathcal{C}_{k}$ is $\mathfrak{d}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{k+1}\right)=a_{1} \cdots a_{k} z_{k+1}-a_{1} \cdots a_{k-1} z_{k}+\ldots+(-1)^{k} z_{1}$, which has total degree $k+1$. As all matrices in $\mathcal{C}_{k}$ have rank $k$, because the determinant of the last $k$ rows in $\mathbf{A}$ is always 1 , by Theorem 4 we conclude that $k$-Casc is hard in $k$-linear groups. As $\mathcal{S C}_{k}$ is a particular case of $\mathcal{C}_{k}$, the determinant polynomial for $\mathcal{S C}_{k}$ is $\mathfrak{d}\left(a, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{k+1}\right)=a^{k} z_{k+1}-a^{k-1} z_{k}+\ldots+(-1)^{k} z_{1}$. As before, by Theorem 4, $k$-SCasc is hard in $k$-linear groups. Finally, in the case of $\mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}, \mathfrak{d}\left(a, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{k+1}\right)=$ $a(a+1) \cdots(a+k-1)\left(z_{k-1}-\frac{z_{1}}{a}-\frac{z_{2}}{a+1}-\ldots-\frac{z_{k}}{a+k-1}\right)$, which has total degree $k+1$. It can be shown that all matrices in $\mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}_{k}$ have rank $k$. Indeed, matrices in $\mathcal{L}_{k}$ can have lower rank only if at least two parameters $a_{i}$ are zero, and this cannot happen to $\mathcal{I} \mathcal{L}_{k}$ matrices. Therefore, as in the previous cases, $k$-ILin is hard in $k$-linear groups.

The previous examples can be related to some known assumptions from Section 2.3. Figure 1 depicts the relations that are also stated in next theorem.

Theorem 7. For any $k \geq 2$, the following holds:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (k+1) \text {-PDDH } \Rightarrow k \text {-Casc } ; \\
& (k+1) \text {-EDDH } \Rightarrow k \text {-SCasc } \Rightarrow k \text {-Casc } ; \quad k \text {-ILin } \Rightarrow k \text {-Lin } ; \quad \\
& k \text {-Casc } \Rightarrow(k+1) \text {-Casc } ; \quad k \text {-SCasc } \Rightarrow(k+1) \text {-SCasc } ; \quad k \text {-ILin } \Rightarrow(k+1) \text {-ILin }
\end{aligned}
$$

Further, in $k$-linear groups, $k$-Casc $\Rightarrow k$-MLDDH.
Proof. The proof of all implications can be found in Appendix A.

## 4 Basic applications

### 4.1 Public-Key encryption

Let Gen be a group generating algorithm and $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution that outputs a matrix over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$ such that the first $k$-rows form an invertible matrix with overwhelming probability. We define the following key-encapsulation mechanism $\mathrm{KEM}_{\text {Gen } \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}}=\left(\right.$ Gen, Enc, Dec) with key-space $\mathcal{K}=\mathbb{G}^{\ell-k}$.

- Gen $\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ runs $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ and $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. Let $\mathbf{A}_{0}$ be the first $k$ rows of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{A}_{1}$ be the last $\ell-k$ rows of $\mathbf{A}$. Define $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(\ell-k) \times k}$ as the transformation matrix $\mathbf{T}=\mathbf{A}_{1} \mathbf{A}_{0}^{-1}$. The public/secret-key is

$$
p k=\left(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell \times k}\right), \quad s k=\left(p k, \mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(\ell-k) \times k}\right)
$$

- Enc $_{p k}$ picks $\vec{w} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$. The ciphertext/key pair is

$$
[\vec{c}]=\left[\mathbf{A}_{0} \vec{w}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{k}, \quad[K]=\left[\mathbf{A}_{1} \vec{w}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell-k}
$$

- $\operatorname{Dec}_{s k}\left([\vec{c}] \in \mathbb{G}^{k}\right)$ recomputes the key as $[K]=[\mathbf{T} \vec{c}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell-k}$.

Correctness follows by the equation $\mathbf{T} \cdot \vec{c}=\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}_{0} \vec{w}=\mathbf{A}_{1} \vec{w}$. The public key contains $\operatorname{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}\right)$ and the ciphertext $k$ group elements. An example scheme from the $k$-SCasc Assumption is given in Appendix D.1.
Theorem 8. Under the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ Assumption $\mathrm{KEM}_{\mathrm{Gen}, \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}}$ is IND-CPA secure.
Proof. By the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption, the distribution of $(p k,[\vec{c}],[K])=((\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}]),[\mathbf{A} \vec{w}])$ is computationally indistinguishable from $((\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}]),[\vec{u}])$, where $\vec{u} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$.

### 4.2 Hash Proof System

Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution. We build a universal ${ }_{1}$ hash proof system HPS $=($ Param, Pub, Priv $)$, whose hard subset membership problem is based on the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption.

- Param $\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ runs $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ and picks $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. Define

$$
\mathcal{C}=\mathbb{G}^{\ell}, \quad \mathcal{V}=\left\{[\vec{c}]=[\mathbf{A} \vec{w}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell}: \vec{w} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}\right\}
$$

The value $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$ is a witness of $[\vec{c}] \in \mathcal{V}$. Let $\mathcal{S K}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}, \mathcal{P} \mathcal{K}=\mathbb{G}^{k}$, and $\mathcal{K}=\mathbb{G}$. For $s k=\vec{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$, define the projection $\mu(s k)=\left[\vec{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{k}$. For $[\vec{c}] \in \mathcal{C}$ and $s k \in \mathcal{S K}$ we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda_{s k}([\vec{c}]):=\left[\vec{x}^{\top} \cdot \vec{c}\right] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The output of Param is params $=\left(\mathcal{S}=(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}]), \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{P} \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S K}, \Lambda_{(\cdot)}(\cdot), \mu(\cdot)\right)$.

- $\operatorname{Priv}(s k,[\vec{c}])$ computes $[K]=\Lambda_{s k}([\vec{c}])$.
- $\operatorname{Pub}(p k,[\vec{c}], \vec{w})$. Given $p k=\mu(s k)=\left[\vec{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A}\right],[\vec{c}] \in \mathcal{V}$ and a witness $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$ such that $[\vec{c}]=[\mathbf{A} \cdot \vec{w}]$ the public evaluation algorithm $\operatorname{Pub}(p k,[\vec{c}], \vec{w})$ computes $[K]=\Lambda_{s k}([\vec{c}])$ as

$$
[K]=\left[\left(\vec{x}^{\top} \cdot \mathbf{A}\right) \cdot \vec{w}\right] .
$$

Correctness follows by (3) and the definition of $\mu$. Clearly, under the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-Matrix Diffie-Hellman Assumption, the subset membership problem is hard in HPS.

We now show that $\Lambda$ is a universal ${ }_{1}$ projective hash function. Let $[\vec{c}] \in \mathcal{C} \backslash \mathcal{V}$. Then the matrix $(\mathbf{A} \| \vec{c}) \in$ $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times(k+1)}$ is of full rank and consequently $\left(\vec{x}^{\top} \cdot \mathbf{A} \| \vec{x}^{\top} \cdot \vec{c}\right) \equiv\left(\vec{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \| u\right)$ for $\vec{x} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$ and $u \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. Hence, $\left(p k, \Lambda_{s k}([\vec{c}])=\left(\left[\vec{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A}\right],\left[\vec{x}^{\top} \vec{c}\right]\right) \equiv\left(\left[\vec{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A}\right],[u]\right)=\left(\left[\vec{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A}\right],[K]\right)\right.$.

### 4.3 Pseudo-random Functions

Let Gen be a group generating algorithm and $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution that outputs a matrix over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$ such that the first $k$-rows form an invertible matrix with overwhelming probability. We define the following pseudo-random function $\operatorname{PRF}_{G e n, \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}}=(G e n, F)$ with message space $\{0,1\}^{n}$. For simplicity we assume that $\ell-k$ divides $k$.

- $\operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ runs $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right), \vec{h} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$, and $\mathbf{A}_{i, j} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$ and $j=1, \ldots, t:=k /(\ell-k)$ and computes the transformation matrices $\mathbf{T}_{i, j} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(\ell-k) \times k}$ of $\mathbf{A}_{i, j} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$ (cf. Definition 3). For $i=1, \ldots, n$ define the aggregated transformation matrices

$$
\mathbf{T}_{i}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{T}_{i, 1} \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{T}_{i, t}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times k}
$$

The key is defined as

$$
K=\left(\mathcal{G}, \vec{h}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right) .
$$

- $\mathrm{F}_{K}(x)$ computes

$$
\mathbf{F}_{K}(x)=\left[\prod_{i: x_{i}=1} \mathbf{T}_{i} \cdot \vec{h}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{k} .
$$

An example scheme from the $k$-SCasc Assumption is given in Appendix D.2
Theorem 9. Under the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH Assumption $\mathrm{PRF}_{G e n, \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}}$ is a secure pseudo-random function.
Proof. For our proof we require the reader to be familiar with the augmented cascade construction of Boneh et al. [6]. For one aggregated transformation matrix $\mathbf{T}_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times k}$ and $\vec{h} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$ we define $f: \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times k} \times \mathbb{G}^{k} \times\{0,1\} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{G}^{k}$ as the function

$$
f\left(\mathbf{T}_{1},[\vec{h}], b\right):=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
{[\vec{h}]} & \text { if } b=0 \\
{\left[\mathbf{T}_{1} \vec{h}\right]} & \text { if } b=1
\end{array} .\right.
$$

The definition of $f$ also explains the choice of $t=k /(\ell-k)$ as the the augmented cascade construction requires range of $f$ to be $\mathbb{G}^{k}$. Then $\operatorname{PRF}_{G e n, \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}}$ is obtained directly from $f$ using the augmented cascade construction (via a hybrid argument over $1 \leq i \leq n$ ). To show that it is a secure pseudo-random function it suffices to show that $f$ is parallel secure [6], i.e., that for every polynomial $m$,

$$
\left(\left[\begin{array}{c}
\vec{h}_{1} \\
\mathbf{T}_{1} \overrightarrow{h_{1}}
\end{array}\right], \ldots,\left[\begin{array}{c}
\vec{h}_{m} \\
\mathbf{T}_{1} \overrightarrow{h_{m}}
\end{array}\right]\right) \in\left(\mathbb{G}^{2 k}\right)^{m}
$$

is pseudo-random, where $\vec{h}_{i} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$,

$$
\mathbf{T}_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{T}_{1,1} \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{T}_{1, t}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times k},
$$

and $\mathbf{T}_{1, j}(1 \leq j \leq t)$ are transformation matrices of $\mathbf{A}_{1, j} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. By a hybrid argument over $j=1, \ldots, t$ it is sufficient to show that

$$
\left(\left[\begin{array}{c}
\vec{h}_{1} \\
\mathbf{T}_{1,1} \overrightarrow{h_{1}}
\end{array}\right], \ldots,\left[\begin{array}{c}
\vec{h}_{m} \\
\mathbf{T}_{1,1} \overrightarrow{h_{m}}
\end{array}\right]\right) \in\left(\mathbb{G}^{\ell}\right)^{m}
$$

is pseudo-random (for one single transformation matrix $\mathbf{T}_{1,1}$ of $\mathbf{A}_{1,1} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ ) which in turn follows directly by Lemma 1 (random self-reducibility of $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ ).

We remark that the reduction is independent of the number of queries, i.e., it loses a factor of $n k=$ $n t(\ell-k)$, where the factor $n$ stems from the augmented cascade Theorem [6], the factor $t$ from the hybrid argument over $j$, and the factor $\ell-k$ from Lemma 1.

### 4.4 Groth-Sahai Non-interactive Zero-Knowledge Proofs

Groth and Sahai gave a method to construct non-interactive witness-indistinguishable (NIWI) and zeroknowledge (NIZK) proofs for satisfiability of a set of equations in a bilinear group $\mathcal{P G}$. (For formal definitions of NIWI and NIZK proofs we refer to [22].) The equations in the set can be of different types, but they can be written in a unified way as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=1}^{n} f\left(a_{j}, \mathrm{y}_{j}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{m} f\left(\mathrm{x}_{i}, b_{i}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f\left(\mathrm{x}_{i}, \gamma_{i j} \mathrm{y}_{j}\right)=t \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{T}$ are $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$-modules, $\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}} \in A_{1}^{m}, \overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}} \in A_{2}^{n}$ are the variables, $\vec{a} \in A_{1}^{n}, \vec{b} \in A_{2}^{m}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}=\left(\gamma_{i j}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n}$, $t \in A_{T}$ are the constants and $f: A_{1} \times A_{2} \rightarrow A_{T}$ is a bilinear map. More specifically, equations are of either one these types:
i) Pairing product equations, with $A_{1}=A_{2}=\mathbb{G}, A_{T}=\mathbb{G}_{T}, f([\mathrm{x}],[\mathrm{y}])=[\mathrm{xy}]_{T} \in \mathbb{G}_{T}$.
ii) Multi-scalar multiplication equations, with $A_{1}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}, A_{2}=\mathbb{G}, A_{T}=\mathbb{G}, f(\mathrm{x},[\mathrm{y}])=[\mathrm{xy}] \in \mathbb{G}$.
iii) Quadratic equations in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$, with $A_{1}=A_{2}=A_{T}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}, f(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})=\mathrm{xy} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$.

Overview. The GS proof system allows to construct NIWI and NIZK proofs for satisfiability of a set of equations of the type (4), i.e., proofs that there is a choice of variables - the witness - satisfying all equations simultaneously. The prover will give to the verifier a commitment to each element of the witness and some additional information, the proof. Commitments and proof will satisfy some related set of equations computable by the verifier because of their algebraic properties. We stress that to compute the proof, the prover needs the randomness which it used to create the commitments. To give new instantiations we need to specify the distribution of the common reference string, which includes the commitment keys and some maps whose purpose is roughly to give some algebraic structure to the commitment space.
Commitments. We will now construct commitments to elements in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $\mathbb{G}$. The commitment key $[\mathbf{U}]=\left(\left[\vec{u}_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[\vec{u}_{k+1}\right]\right) \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell \times(k+1)}$ is of the form

$$
[\mathbf{U}]= \begin{cases}{[\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}]} & \text { binding key (soundness setting) } \\ {[\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}-\vec{z}]} & \text { hiding key (WI setting) }\end{cases}
$$

where $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \vec{w} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$, and $\vec{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}, \vec{z} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$ is a fixed, public vector. The two types of commitment keys are computationally indistinguishable based on the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ - MDDH Assumption.

To commit to $[\mathrm{y}] \in \mathbb{G}$ using randomness $\vec{r} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k+1}$ we define maps $\iota: \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ and $p: \mathbb{G}^{\ell} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ as

$$
\iota([\mathrm{y}])=\mathrm{y} \cdot \vec{z}, \quad p([\vec{c}])=\vec{\xi}^{\top} \cdot \vec{c}, \quad \text { defining } \operatorname{com}_{[\mathbf{U}], \vec{z}}([\mathrm{y}] ; \vec{r}):=[\iota([\mathrm{y}])+\mathbf{U} \vec{r}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell},
$$

where $\vec{\xi} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ is an arbitrary vector such that $\vec{\xi}^{\top} \mathbf{A}=\overrightarrow{0}$ and $\vec{\xi} \cdot \vec{z}=1$. Note that, given $x, \iota(x)$ is not efficiently computable, but $[\iota(x)]$ is, and this suffices to compute the commitment. On a binding key (soundness setting) we have that $p([\iota([\mathrm{y}])])=\mathrm{y}$ for all $[\mathrm{y}] \in \mathbb{G}$ and that $p\left(\left[\vec{u}_{i}\right]\right)=0$ for all $i=1 \ldots k+1$. So $p(\operatorname{com}([\mathrm{y}]))=\vec{\xi}^{\top}(\overrightarrow{z y}+\mathbf{U} \vec{r})=\vec{\xi}^{\top} \overrightarrow{z y}+\vec{\xi}^{\top}(\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}) \vec{r}=\mathrm{y}$ and the commitment is perfectly binding. On a hiding key (WI setting), $\iota([\mathrm{y}]) \in \operatorname{Span}\left(\vec{u}_{1}, \ldots, \vec{u}_{k+1}\right)$ for all $[\mathrm{y}] \in \mathbb{G}$ which implies that the commitments are perfectly hiding.
To commit to a scalar $\mathrm{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ using randomness $\vec{s} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$ we define the maps $\iota^{\prime}: \mathbb{Z}_{q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ and $p^{\prime}: \mathbb{G}^{\ell} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ as

$$
\iota^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{x} \cdot\left(\vec{u}_{k+1}+\vec{z}\right), \quad p^{\prime}([\vec{c}])=\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{c}, \quad \text { defining } \operatorname{com}_{[\mathbf{U}], \vec{z}}^{\prime}(\mathrm{x} ; \vec{s}):=\left[\iota^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})+\mathbf{A} \vec{s}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell}
$$

On a binding key (soundness setting) we have that $p^{\prime} \circ\left[\iota^{\prime}\right]$ is the identity map on $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $p^{\prime}\left(\left[\vec{u}_{i}\right]\right)=0$ for all $i=1 \ldots k$ so the commitment is perfectly binding. On a hiding key (WI setting), $\iota^{\prime}(x) \in \operatorname{Span}\left(\vec{u}_{1}, \ldots, \vec{u}_{k}\right)$
for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$, which implies that the commitment is perfectly hiding.
It will also be convenient to define a vector of commitments as $\operatorname{com}_{[\mathbf{U}], \vec{z}}([\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}] ; \mathbf{R})=\left[\iota\left(\left[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}^{\top}\right]\right)+\mathbf{U R}\right]$ and $\operatorname{com}_{[\mathbf{U}, \vec{z}}^{\prime}(\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}} ; \mathbf{S})=\left[\iota^{\prime}\left(\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}^{\top}\right)+\mathbf{A S}\right]$, where $[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}] \in \mathbb{G}^{m}, \overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{n}, \mathbf{R} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(k+1) \times m}, \mathbf{S} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times n}$ and the inclusion maps are defined component-wise.
InCLUSION AND PROJECTION MAPS. As we have seen, commitments are elements of $\mathbb{G}^{\ell}$. The main idea of GS NIWI and NIZK proofs is to give some algebraic structure to the commitment space (in this case, $\mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ ) so that the commitments to a solution in $A_{1}, A_{2}$ of a certain set of equations satisfy a related set of equations in some larger modules. For this purpose, if $[\vec{x}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ and $[\vec{y}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$, we define the bilinear map $\tilde{F}: \mathbb{G}^{\ell} \times \mathbb{G}^{\ell} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times \ell}$ defined implicitly as:

$$
\tilde{F}([\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}],[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}])=\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}} \cdot \overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}^{\top},
$$

as well as its symmetric variant $F([\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}],[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}])=\frac{1}{2} \tilde{F}([\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}],[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}])+\frac{1}{2} \tilde{F}([\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}],[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}])$. Additionally, for any two vectors of elements of $\mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ of equal length $r$, we define the maps $\tilde{\bullet}$, • associated with $F$ and $\tilde{F}$ as $[\mathrm{X}] \tilde{\bullet}[\mathrm{Y}]=$ $\left[\sum_{i=1}^{r} \tilde{F}\left(\left[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}_{i}\right],\left[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}_{i}\right]\right)\right]_{T}$ and $[\mathrm{X}] \bullet[\mathrm{Y}]=\left[\sum_{i=1}^{r} F\left(\left[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}_{i}\right],\left[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}_{i}\right]\right)\right]_{T}$. To complete the details of the new instantiation, we must specify for each type of equation, for both $F^{\prime}=F$ and $F^{\prime}=\tilde{F}$ :
a) some maps $\iota_{T}$ and $p_{T}$ such that for all $\mathrm{x} \in A_{1}, \mathrm{y} \in A_{2}$,

$$
F^{\prime}\left(\left[\iota_{1}(\mathrm{x})\right],\left[\iota_{2}(\mathrm{y})\right]\right)=\iota_{T}(f(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})) \quad \text { and } \quad p_{T}\left(\left[F^{\prime}([\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}],[\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}])\right]_{T}\right)=f\left(p_{1}([\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}]), p_{2}([\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}])\right)
$$

where $\iota_{1}, \iota_{2}$ are either $\iota$ or $\iota^{\prime}$ and $p_{1}, p_{2}$ either $[p]$ or $p^{\prime}$, according to the appropriate $A_{1}, A_{2}$ for each equation,
b) matrices $\mathbf{H}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{H}_{\eta} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1} \times k_{2}}$, where $k_{1}, k_{2}$ are the number of columns of $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{1}}, \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{2}}$ respectively and which, in the witness indistinguishability setting, are a basis of all the matrices which are a solution of the equation $\left[\mathbf{U}_{1} \mathbf{H}\right] \bullet\left[\mathbf{U}_{2}\right]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ if $F^{\prime}=F$ or $\left[\mathbf{U}_{1} \mathbf{H}\right] \tilde{\bullet}\left[\mathbf{U}_{2}\right]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ if $F^{\prime}=\tilde{F}$, where $\mathbf{U}_{1}, \mathbf{U}_{2}$ are either $\mathbf{U}$ or $\mathbf{A}$, depending on the modules $A_{1}, A_{2}$. These matrices are necessary to randomize the NIWI and NIZK proofs.

To present the instantiations in concise form, in the following $\mathbf{H}^{r, s, m, n}=\left(h_{i j}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{m \times n}$ denotes the matrix such that $h_{r s}=-1, h_{s r}=1$ and $h_{i j}=0$ for $(i, j) \notin\{(r, s),(s, r)\}$. In summary, the elements which must be defined are:

- Pairing product equations. In this case, $A_{1}=A_{2}=\mathbb{G}, A_{T}=\mathbb{G}_{T}, \iota_{1}=\iota_{2}=\iota, p_{1}=p_{2}=[p]$, $\mathbf{U}_{1}=\mathbf{U}_{2}=\mathbf{U}$ and both for $F^{\prime}=F$ and $F^{\prime}=\tilde{F}$,

$$
\iota_{T}\left([\mathrm{z}]_{T}\right)=\mathbf{z} \cdot \vec{z} \cdot \vec{z}^{\top} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times \ell} \quad p_{T}\left([\mathbf{Z}]_{T}\right)=\left[\vec{\xi}^{\top} \mathbf{Z} \vec{\xi}_{T}\right.
$$

where $\mathbf{Z}=\left(Z_{i j}\right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq \ell} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times \ell}$. The equation $[\mathbf{U H}] \tilde{\bullet}[\mathbf{U}]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ admits no solution, while all the solutions to $[\mathbf{U H}] \bullet[\mathbf{U}]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ are generated by $\left\{\mathbf{H}^{r, s, k+1, k+1}\right\}_{1 \leq r<s \leq k+1}$.

- Multi-scalar multiplication equations. In this case, $A_{1}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}, A_{2}=A_{T}=\mathbb{G}, \iota_{1}=\iota^{\prime}, \iota_{2}=\iota$, $p_{1}=p^{\prime}, p_{2}=[p], \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{1}}=\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{2}}=\mathbf{U}$ and for both $F^{\prime}=\tilde{F}$ and $F^{\prime}=F$,

$$
\iota_{T}([\mathrm{z}])=F^{\prime}\left(\left[\iota^{\prime}(1)\right],[\iota([\mathrm{z}])]\right) \quad p_{T}\left([\mathrm{Z}]_{T}\right)=\left[\vec{\xi}^{\top} \mathbf{Z} \vec{\xi}\right] .
$$

The equation $[\mathbf{A H}] \tilde{\bullet}[\mathbf{U}]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ admits no solution, while all the solutions to $[\mathbf{A H}] \bullet[\mathbf{U}]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ are generated by $\left\{\mathbf{H}^{r, s, k, k+1}\right\}_{1 \leq r<s \leq k}$.

- Quadratic equations. In this case, $A_{1}=A_{2}=A_{T}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}, \iota_{1}=\iota_{2}=\iota^{\prime}, p_{1}=p_{2}=p^{\prime}$ and $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{1}}=\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{2}}=\mathbf{A}$, for both $F^{\prime}=\tilde{F}$ and $F^{\prime}=F$, we define

$$
\iota_{T}(z)=F^{\prime}\left(\left[\iota^{\prime}(1)\right],\left[\iota^{\prime}(z)\right]\right) \quad p_{T}\left([\mathrm{Z}]_{T}\right)=\vec{\xi}^{\top} \mathbf{Z} \vec{\xi}
$$

The equation $[\mathbf{A H}] \tilde{\bullet}[\mathbf{A}]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ admits no solution, while all the solutions to $[\mathbf{A H}] \bullet[\mathbf{A}]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ are generated by $\left\{\mathbf{H}^{r, s, k, k}\right\}_{1 \leq r<s \leq k}$.

| $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH instantiation | elements of $\mathbb{G}$ | elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Commitment to a Variable | $\ell$ | 0 |
| Pairing product equation | $\ell(k+1)$ | 0 |
| - Linear equation: | $k+1$ | 0 |
| Multi-scalar multiplication equation | $\ell(k+1)$ | 0 |
| - Linear equation with variables in $\mathbb{G}$ | 0 | $k+1$ |
| - Linear equation with variables in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ | $k$ | 0 |
| Quadratic equation | $\ell k$ | 0 |
| - Linear equation | 0 | $k$ |

Table 1: Size of the proofs based on the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\operatorname{MDDH}$ Assumption.

To argue that the equation $\left[\mathbf{U}_{1} \mathbf{H}\right]_{\tilde{F}} \tilde{\bullet}\left[\mathbf{U}_{2}\right]=[\mathbf{0}]_{T}$ admits no solution, for each of the cases above, it is sufficient to argue that the vectors $\tilde{F}\left(\left[\vec{u}_{i}\right],\left[\vec{u}_{j}\right]\right)$ are linearly independent. This holds regardless of the matrix distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ from basic linear algebra, since $\tilde{F}\left(\left[\vec{u}_{i}\right]\right.$, $\left.\left[\vec{u}_{j}\right]\right)$ was defined as the implicit representation of the outer product of $\vec{u}_{i}$ and $\vec{u}_{j}$ and $\vec{u}_{1}, \ldots, \vec{u}_{k+1}$ are linearly independent.
Proof and Verification. For completeness, we now describe how do the prover and the verifier proceed. Define $k_{1}, k_{2}$ as the number of columns of $\mathbf{U}_{1}, \mathbf{U}_{2}$ respectively. On input $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{G},[\mathbf{U}], \vec{z}$, a set of equations and a set of witnesses $\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}} \in A_{1}^{m}, \overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}} \in A_{2}^{n}$ the prover proceeds as follows:

1. Commit to $\vec{x}$ and $\vec{y}$ as

$$
[\vec{c}]=\left[\iota_{1}\left(\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}^{\top}\right)+\mathbf{U}_{1} \mathbf{R}\right], \quad[\vec{d}]=\left[\iota_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}^{\top}\right)+\mathbf{U}_{2} \mathbf{S}\right]
$$

where $\mathbf{R} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1} \times m}, \mathbf{S} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2} \times n}$.
2. For each equation of the type $(4)$, pick $\mathbf{T} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1} \times k_{2}}$ and output $([\mathbf{\Pi}],[\boldsymbol{\Theta}])$, defined as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[\boldsymbol{\Pi}] } & :=\left[\iota_{2}\left(\vec{a}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{R}^{\top}+\boldsymbol{\Gamma} \iota_{2}\left(\overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{R}^{\top}+\boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mathbf{U}_{2} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{R}^{\top}-\mathbf{U}_{2} \mathbf{T}^{\top}+\sum_{1 \leq i \leq \eta} r_{i} \mathbf{U}_{2} \mathbf{H}_{i}^{\top}\right] \\
{[\boldsymbol{\Theta}] } & :=\left[\iota_{1}\left(\vec{b}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{S}^{\top}+\boldsymbol{\Gamma}^{\top} \iota_{1}\left(\overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{S}^{\top}+\mathbf{U}_{1} \mathbf{T}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

The proof described above is for a general equation, the same optimizations for special types of equation as in the full version of [22] apply. In particular, when the map used is the symmetric map $F$, the size of the proof can be reduced. In addition, the size of the proof can also be reduced when all the elements in either $A_{1}$ or $A_{2}$ are constants. Taking these optimizations into account, we give the size of the commitments and the proof for the different types of equations in Table 1.

To verify a proof, on input the commitments $[\vec{c}],[d]$ and a proof $([\boldsymbol{\Pi}],[\boldsymbol{\Theta}])$, the verifier checks if

$$
\left[\iota_{1}(\vec{a})\right] \bullet^{\prime}[\vec{d}]+[\vec{c}] \bullet^{\prime}\left[\iota_{2}(\vec{b})\right]+[\vec{c}] \bullet^{\prime}[\boldsymbol{\Gamma} \vec{d}]=\left[\iota_{T}(\vec{t})\right]_{T}+\left[\mathbf{U}_{1}\right] \bullet^{\prime}[\mathbf{\Pi}]+[\boldsymbol{\Theta}] \bullet^{\prime}\left[\mathbf{U}_{2}\right]
$$

where $\bullet^{\prime}$ is either $\bullet$ or $\tilde{\bullet}$, depending on whether $F^{\prime}$ is $F$ or $\tilde{F}$. If the equation is satisfied, the verifier accepts the proof for this equation and rejects otherwise. In general, the verification cost depends on $\ell$ and $k$, though a bit might be gained in pairing computations when using batch verification techniques and if some components of the commitment keys are trivial or are repeated, i.e. if the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ admits short representation. Efficiency. We emphasize that for $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}=\mathcal{L}_{2}$ and $\vec{z}=(0,0,1)^{\top}$ and for $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}=\operatorname{DDH}$ and $\vec{z}=(0,1)^{\top}$ (in the natural extension to asymmetric bilinear groups), we recover the 2-Lin and the SXDH instantiations of [22. While the size of the proofs depends only on $\ell$ and $k$, both the size of the CRS and the cost of verification increase with $\mathrm{RE}_{\mathbb{G}}\left(\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}\right)$. In particular, in terms of efficiency, the $\mathcal{S C}_{2}$ Assumption is preferable to the 2-Lin Assumption but the main reason to consider more instantiations of GS proofs is to obtain more efficient proofs for a large class of languages in Section 5 .

## 5 More efficient proofs for some CRS dependent languages

### 5.1 More efficient subgroup membership proofs

Let [ $\mathbf{U}]$ be the commitment key defined in last section as part of a $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH instantiation, for some $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. In this section we show a new technique to obtain proofs of membership in the language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}:=\left\{[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}], \vec{r} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}\right\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$.
Intuition. Our idea is to exploit the special algebraic structure of commitments in GS proofs, namely the observation that if $[\vec{\Phi}]=[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$ then $[\vec{\Phi}]=\operatorname{com}_{[\mathrm{U}]}(0 ; \vec{r})$. Therefore, to prove that $[\vec{\Phi}] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$, we proceed as if we were giving a GS proof of satisfability of the equation $\mathrm{x}=0$ where the randomness used for the commitment to x is $\vec{r}$. In particular, no commitments have to be given in the proof, which results in shorter proofs. To prove zero-knowledge we rewrite the equation $\mathrm{x}=0$ as $\mathrm{x} \cdot \delta=0$. The real proof is just a standard GS proof with the commitment to $\delta=1$ being $\iota^{\prime}(1)=\operatorname{com}_{[\mathbf{U}]}(1 ; \overrightarrow{0})$, while in the simulated proof the trapdoor allows to open $\iota^{\prime}(1)$ as a commitment of 0 , so we can proceed as if the equation was the trivial one $x \cdot 0=0$, for which it is easy to give a proof of satisfiability. For the 2-Lin Assumption, our proof consists of only 6 group elements, whereas without using our technique the proof consists of 12 elements. Details are in Appendix C.5. More generally, in Appendix C.1 we will prove the following theorem.

Theorem 10. Let $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$, where $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ is a matrix distribution. There exists a Non-Interactive ZeroKnowledge Proof for the language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$, with perfect completeness, perfect soundness and composable zeroknowledge of $k \ell$ group elements based on the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH Assumption.

Applications. For a typical application scenario of Theorem 10 , think of $[\mathbf{A}]$ as part of the public parameters of the hash proof system of Section 4.2. Proving that a ciphertext is well-formed is proving membership in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$. For instance, in [30] Libert and Yung combine a proof of membership in 2-Lin with a one-time signature scheme to obtain publicly verifiable ciphertexts. With our result, we reduce the size of their ciphertexts from 15 to 9 group elements. We stress that in our construction the setup of the CRS can be built on top of the encryption key so that proofs can be simulated without the decryption key, which is essential in their case. Another application is to show that two ciphertexts encrypt the same message under the same public key, a common problem in electronic voting or anonymous credentials. There are many other settings in which subgroup membership problems naturally appear, for instance the problem of certifying public keys or given some plaintext $m$, the problem of proving that a certain ciphertext is an encryption of $[m]$.

### 5.2 More efficient proofs of validity of ciphertexts

The techniques of the previous section can be extended to prove the validity of a ciphertext. More specifically, given $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$, and some vector $\vec{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}, \vec{z} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$, we show how to give a more efficient proof of membership in the space:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathcal{P G}}=\{[\vec{c}]: \vec{c}=\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+m \vec{z}\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell},
$$

where $(\vec{r},[m]) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k} \times \mathbb{G}$ is the witness. This is also a proof of membership in the subspace of $\mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ spanned by the columns of $[\mathbf{A}]$ and the vector $[\vec{z}]$, but the techniques given in Section 5.1 do not apply. The reason is that part of the witness, $[m]$, is in the group $\mathbb{G}$ and not in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$, while to compute the subgroup membership proofs as described in Section 5.1 all of the witness has to be in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$. In particular, since GS are non-interactive zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge when the witnesses are group elements, the proof guarantees both that the $\vec{c}$ is well-formed and that the prover knows [ $m$ ].

In a typical application, $[\vec{c}]$ will be the ciphertext of some encryption scheme, in which case $\vec{r}$ will be the ciphertext randomness and $[m]$ the message. Deciding membership in this space is trivial when $\operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$ and $\vec{z}$ span all of $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$, so in particular our result is meaningful when $\ell>k+1$. In Appendix C.2 we prove the following theorem:
Theorem 11. Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution and let $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$. There exists a Non-Interactive ZeroKnowledge Proof for the language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathcal{P} \text { g }}$ of $(k+2) \ell$ group elements with perfect completeness, perfect soundness and composable zero-knowledge based on the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-MDDH Assumption.

Applications. A proof that a ciphertext is well formed is used, for instance, in [16]. Using this result, we can give a proof that the 2-Lin Cramer-Shoup ciphertext is well formed which takes only 20 group elements as opposed to 23 using standard techniques.

### 5.3 More efficient proofs of plaintext equality

The encryption scheme derived from the KEM given in Section 4.1 corresponds to a commitment in GS proofs. That is, if $p k_{A}=\left(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell \times k}\right)$, for some $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$, given $\vec{r} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$,

$$
\operatorname{Enc}_{p k_{A}}([m] ; \vec{r})=[\vec{c}]=\left[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+(0, \ldots, 0, m)^{\top}\right]=[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+m \cdot \vec{z}]=\operatorname{com}_{[\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}]}([m] ; \vec{s}),
$$

where $\vec{s}^{\top}:=\left(\vec{r}^{\top}, 0\right)$ and $\vec{z}:=(0, \ldots, 0,1)^{\top}$. Therefore, given two (potentially distinct) matrix distributions $\mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}, \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}^{\prime}$ and $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}, \mathbf{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}^{\prime}$, proving equality of plaintexts of two ciphertexts encrypted under $p k_{A}, p k_{B}$, corresponds to proving that two commitments under different keys open to the same value. Our proof will be more efficient because we do not give any commitments as part of the proof, since the ciphertexts themselves play this role. More specifically, given $\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right]=\operatorname{Enc}_{p k_{A}}([m])$ and $\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]=\operatorname{Enc}_{p k_{B}}([m])$ we will treat $\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right]$ as a commitment to the variable $[\mathrm{x}] \in A_{1}=\mathbb{G}$ and $\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]$ as a commitment to the variable $[\mathrm{y}] \in A_{2}=\mathbb{G}$ and prove that the quadratic equation $e([\mathrm{x}],[1]) \cdot e([-1],[\mathrm{y}])=[0]_{T}$ is satisfied. The zeroknowledge simulator will open $\iota_{1}([1]), \iota_{2}([-1])$ as commitments to the [0] variable and simulate a proof for the equation $e([\mathrm{x}],[0]) \cdot e([0],[\mathrm{y}])=[0]_{T}$, which is trivially satisfiable and can be simulated.

More formally, let

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \vec{z}_{1}, \vec{z}_{2}, \mathcal{P G}}:=\left\{\left(\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]\right):\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+m \vec{z}_{1}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]=\left[\mathbf{B} \vec{s}+\vec{z}_{2}\right]\right\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{1}} \times \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{2}}
$$

where $\vec{r} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1}}, \vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2}}, m \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}, \vec{z}_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell_{1}}$, and $\vec{z}_{1} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$ and $\vec{z}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell_{2}}, \overrightarrow{z_{2}} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{B})$. In Appendix C. 3 we prove:

Theorem 12. Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}$ and $\mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}^{\prime}$ be two matrix distributions and let $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}, \mathbf{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}^{\prime}$. There exists a Non-Interactive Zero-Knowledge Proof for the language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \vec{z}_{1}, \vec{z}_{2}, \mathcal{P G}}$ of $\ell_{1}\left(k_{2}+1\right)+\ell_{2}\left(k_{1}+1\right)$ group elements with perfect completeness, perfect soundness and composable zero-knowledge based on the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ and the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ Assumption.

Applications. In [26], we reduce the size of the proof by 4 group elements from 18 to 22, while in [23] we save 9 elements although their proof is quite inefficient altogether. We note that even if both papers give a proof that two ciphertexts under two different 2-Lin public keys correspond to the same value, the proof in [23] is more inefficient because it must use GS proofs for pairing product equations instead of multi-scalar multiplication equations. Other examples include [10, 15]. We note that our approach is easily generalizable to prove more general statements about plaintexts, for instance to prove membership in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \vec{z}_{1}, \vec{z}_{2}, \mathcal{P G}}^{\prime}:=$ $\left\{\left(\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]\right):\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+(0, \ldots, 0, m)^{\top}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]=\left[\mathbf{B} \vec{s}+(0, \ldots, 0,2 m)^{\top}\right], \vec{r} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1}}, \vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2}}\right\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{1}} \times \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{2}}$ or in general to show that some linear relation between a set of plaintexts encrypted under two different public-keys holds.

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## A Proof of Theorem 7

We split the theorem in several lemmas.
Lemma 13. $(k+1)$-PDDH $\Rightarrow k$-Casc.
Proof. The idea of the proof is that an instance of the $(k+1)$-PDDH problem can be viewed as an instance of the $\mathcal{C}$-MDDH problem with a non-uniform distribution of $\vec{w}$. A suitable re-randomization of $\vec{w}$ yields the result. Let $\left(\mathcal{G},\left[x_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[x_{k+1}\right],[z]\right)$ be a $(k+1)$-PDDH instance with either $z \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ uniform or $z=x_{1} \cdots x_{k+1}$. We will construct a $k$-Casc instance from that, setting $[\mathbf{A}]$ as follows:

$$
[\mathbf{A}]=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
{\left[x_{1}\right]} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
{[1]} & {\left[x_{2}\right]} & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & {[1]} & \ddots & & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & {[1]} & {\left[x_{k}\right]} \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & {[1]}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let $\left[\vec{b}^{\top}\right]:=\left((-1)^{k+1}[z], 0,0, \ldots, 0,\left[x_{k+1}\right]\right)^{T}$. Since $\mathbf{A}$ has full rank, $\vec{b}$ is in the span of the columns of $\mathbf{A}$ iff $\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{A} \| \vec{b})=0$. Since $\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{A} \| \vec{b})=x_{1} \cdots x_{k}-z$, this depends on the distribution of $z$ as desired. To obtain a properly distributed $k$-Casc instance $\left(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}],\left[\overrightarrow{b^{\prime}}\right]\right)$, we set $\left[\overrightarrow{b^{\prime}}\right]=[\vec{b}]+\sum_{i} w_{i}\left[\overrightarrow{a_{i}}\right]$ for uniform $w_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. Clearly, if $\vec{b}$ is in the span of the columns of $\mathbf{A}, \overrightarrow{b^{\prime}}$ will be a uniform element in the span of the columns of $\mathbf{A}$, whereas if it is not, $\overrightarrow{b^{\prime}}$ will be uniform in all of $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k+1}$.
Lemma 14. $(k+1)$-EDDH $\Rightarrow k$-SCasc.
Proof. The proof is analogous to the proof of the preceding Lemma 13 . Let $(\mathcal{G},[x],[z])$ be a $(k+1)$-EDDH instance with either $z \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ uniform or $z=x^{k+1}$. We will construct a $k$-SCasc instance from that, defining
[A] as the following $k \times(k+1)$-matrix:

$$
[\mathbf{A}]=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
{[x]} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
{[1]} & {[x]} & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & {[1]} & \ddots & & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & {[1]} & {[x]} \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & {[1]}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Set $\left[\vec{b}^{\top}\right]:=\left((-1)^{k+1}[z], 0,0, \ldots, 0,[x]\right)$. As above, $\vec{b}$ is in the span of the columns of $\mathbf{A}$ if and only if $z=x^{k+1}$. To obtain a properly distributed $k$-SCasc instance $\left(\mathcal{G},[\mathbf{A}],\left[\overrightarrow{b^{\prime}}\right]\right)$, we set $\left[\overrightarrow{b^{\prime}}\right]=[\vec{b}]+\sum_{i} w_{i}\left[\overrightarrow{a_{i}}\right]$ for uniform $w_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$.

Lemma 15. In $k$-linear groups, $k$-Casc $\Rightarrow k$-MLDDH.
Proof. Assume for the purpose of contradiction that $k$-MLDDH does not hold. To break the $k$-Casc problem, we are given an instance $[\mathbf{A}],[\vec{z}]$, where $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}_{k}$ and we have to distinguish between $\vec{z}=\mathbf{A} \vec{w}$ for uniform $\vec{w}$ and uniform $\vec{z}$. Or, equivalently, we have to test if the determinant of matrix $\mathbf{B}=\mathbf{A} \| \vec{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(k+1) \times(k+1)}$ is zero. We claim that

$$
\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{B})=a_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_{k} z_{k+1}+T_{k}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{k+1}\right)
$$

where $T_{k}$ only contains $k$-linear terms. (This can be proved by induction using the Laplace expansion.) Hence, to test whether $\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{B})=0$, one computes $[b]_{T_{k}}=\left[-T_{k}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{k+1}\right)\right]_{T_{k}}$ using the $k$-linear map and the oracle $k-\operatorname{MLDDH}\left(\left[a_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[a_{k}\right],\left[z_{k+1}\right],[b]_{T_{k}}\right)$ to check if $a_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_{k} z_{k+1}=-b$.

Lemma 16. $k$-SCasc $\Rightarrow k$-Casc, $k$-ILin $\Rightarrow k$-Lin
Proof. Both implications follow by simple rerandomization arguments. A $k$-SCasc instance ( $\left[a_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[a_{k}\right],\left[a_{1} w_{1}\right]$, $\left.\left[w_{1}+a_{2} w_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[w_{k-1}+a_{k} w_{k}\right],\left[w_{k}\right]\right)$ can be transformed into a $k$-Casc instance by picking $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{k} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$ and computing $\left(\left[a \alpha_{1}\right],\left[a \alpha_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[a \alpha_{k}\right],\left[a w_{1}\right],\left[\frac{w_{1}+a w_{2}}{\alpha_{1}}\right], \ldots,\left[\frac{w_{k-1}+a_{k} w_{k}}{\alpha_{1} \cdots \alpha_{k-1}}\right],\left[\frac{w_{k}}{\alpha_{1} \cdots \alpha_{k}}\right]\right)$. Similarly, an $k$-ILin instance $\left([a],\left[a w_{1}\right],\left[(a+1) w_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[(a+k-1) w_{k}\right],\left[w_{1}+\ldots+w_{k}\right]\right)$ can be transformed into a $k$-Lin instance by picking random $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{k} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$ and computing $\left(\left[a \alpha_{1}\right],\left[(a+1) \alpha_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[(a+k-1) \alpha_{k}\right],\left[a w_{1} \alpha_{1}\right],[(a+\right.$ 1) $\left.\left.w_{2} \alpha_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[(a+k-1) w_{k} \alpha_{k}\right],\left[w_{1}+\ldots+w_{k}\right]\right)$.

Lemma 17. $k$-Casc $\Rightarrow(k+1)$-Casc, $k$-SCasc $\Rightarrow(k+1)$-SCasc, $k$-ILin $\Rightarrow(k+1)$-ILin.
Proof. To show the first implication, we transform a given instance of the $k$-Casc problem $\mathcal{D}_{1}=\left(\left[a_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[a_{k}\right]\right.$, $\left.\left[a_{1} w_{1}\right],\left[w_{1}+a_{2} w_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[w_{k-1}+a_{k} w_{k}\right],\left[w_{k}\right]\right)$ into an instance of the $(k+1)$-Casc problem by picking uniform $w_{k+1} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $\left[a_{k+1}\right] \leftarrow \mathbb{G}$ and computing $\mathcal{D}_{2}=\left(\left[a_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[a_{k+1}\right],\left[a_{1} w_{1}\right],\left[w_{1}+a_{2} w_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[w_{k-1}+\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.a_{k} w_{k}\right],\left[w_{k}+a_{k+1} w_{k+1}\right],\left[w_{k+1}\right]\right)$. Note that $\mathcal{D}_{2}$ is pseudorandom iff $\mathcal{D}_{1}$ is pseudorandom. The same reduction also works in the symmetric case. Similarly, an instance of $k$-ILin, $\left([a],\left[a w_{1}\right],\left[(a+1) w_{2}\right], \ldots,[(a+\right.$ $\left.\left.k-1) w_{k}\right],\left[w_{1}+\ldots+w_{k}\right]\right)$, can be easily transformed into $\left([a],\left[a w_{1}\right],\left[(a+1) w_{2}\right], \ldots,\left[(a+k-1) w_{k}\right],[(a+\right.$ $\left.\left.k) w_{k+1}\right],\left[w_{1}+\ldots+w_{k}+w_{k+1}\right]\right)$ by taking a random $w_{k+1}$.

## B Proofs for the Generic Hardness results

In this section, we give the remaining proofs for the results on the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ - MDDH assumption in generic $m$-linear groups from Section 3.3. We refer to reader to e.g. [11] for necessary background on the algebraic material such as polynomial rings, ideals, Gröbner bases, varieties and irreducibility used in this section. Note that in this paper irreducibility is not implicit in the definition of a variety.
Recall that our setup is that $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ is a matrix distribution which outputs $a_{i, j}=\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{t})$ for uniform $\vec{t} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{d}$ and possibly multivariate polynomials $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$, whose degree does not depend on $\lambda$ and hence not on $q$. The
distributions $([\mathbf{A}],[\vec{z}]=[\mathbf{A} \vec{\omega}])$ respectively $([\mathbf{A}],[\vec{z}]=[\vec{u}])$ for $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \vec{\omega} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}, \vec{u} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ are denoted by $\mathcal{D}^{0}$ respectively $\mathcal{D}^{1}$. In order to describe all of these data, we consider the polynomial ring $\mathcal{R}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{A}, \vec{Z}, \vec{T}, \vec{W}]$, introducing formal variables $\vec{A}=A_{1,1}, \ldots, A_{\ell, k}$ to describe the matrix $\mathbf{A}, \vec{Z}=Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{\ell}$ to describe the vector $\vec{z}, \vec{T}=T_{1}, \ldots T_{d}$ for some $d$ to describe the underlying $t$ 's used to sample the $a_{i, j}$ 's via $a_{i, j}=\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{t})$, and formal variables $\vec{W}=W_{1}, \ldots, W_{k}$ to describe $\vec{\omega}$ (which only appears in $\mathcal{D}^{0}$ ). Note that we shorthand write $\vec{A}$ for the collection of all $A_{i, j}$ 's if the structure as a matrix is not crucial. Furthermore, we write $\mathbf{A}=\mathfrak{p}(\vec{t})$ or $\vec{a}=\overrightarrow{\mathfrak{p}}(\vec{t})$, meaning that $a_{i, j}=\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{t})$. We further consider the polynomial subring $\mathcal{S}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{A}, \vec{Z}] \subset \mathcal{R}$ to describe the publicly known expressions. We can now encode our distributions $\mathcal{D}^{0}$ and $\mathcal{D}^{1}$ by polynomials in the following way: let $\mathfrak{f}_{i, j}=A_{i, j}-\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{T})$ and $\mathfrak{g}_{i}=Z_{i}-\sum_{j} \mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{T}) W_{j}$. Let $G_{0}$ be the set of all $\mathfrak{f}$ 's and $\mathfrak{g}$ 's, whereas $G_{1}$ only consists of the $\mathfrak{f}$ 's, but not the $\mathfrak{g}$ 's. The generators $G_{b}$ span the ideals $\mathcal{I}_{b}$ over $\mathcal{R}$, which encode all the relations in $\mathcal{D}^{b}$ for $b \in\{0,1\}$. Of course, $\mathcal{I}_{1} \subset \mathcal{I}_{0}$.

We consider $\mathcal{J}_{b}=\mathcal{I}_{b} \cap \mathcal{S}$, which are ideals in $\mathcal{S}$ encoding the relations between the known data. We will show that $\left(\mathcal{J}_{b}\right)_{\leq m}$, where $\leq m$ denotes restriction to total degree at most $m$, captures exactly what can be generically computed by an adversary performing only polynomially many group and $m$-linear pairing operations:

## B. 1 Proof of Theorem 3

Let $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ be a matrix distribution with polynomial defining equations and $\mathcal{I}_{0}, \mathcal{I}_{1}$ be as above. Then the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ - MDDH assumption holds in generic $m$-linear groups if and only if $\mathcal{J}_{0}$ and $\mathcal{J}_{1}$ are equal up to total degree $m$, i.e. $\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}$.

Proof. The proof is analogous to the one from [2, 9, apart from being stated more algebraically. Let $D$ be a ppt distinguisher with input from $\mathcal{D}^{b}$ for either $b=0$ or $b=1$. Let $\kappa=\operatorname{poly}(\lambda)$ be an upper bound on the number of $D$ 's oracle queries and initial input group elements. We will replace the oracles $D$ has access to, show that this replacement can only be detected with negligible probability and show that $D$ 's advantage with the replaced oracles is zero.

Our replacement of $D$ 's oracles is as follows: We replace (the random representation of) $\mathbb{G}$ and its associated oracles by (a random representatior ${ }^{3}$ of) the quotient $Q=\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I}_{b}$. Similarly $\mathbb{G}_{T}$ is replaced by an isomorphic copy $Q^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I}_{b}$ (with another random representation independent from the one for $\mathbb{G}$ ). The oracle for $e$ is replaced by an oracle computing the product in $Q$ and outputting the (representation of the) associated element in $Q^{\prime}$. The initial elements [ $a_{i, j}$ ] respectively $\left[z_{i}\right]$ are replaced by $\pi\left(A_{i, j}\right) \in Q$ respectively $\pi\left(Z_{i}\right) \in Q$, where $\pi$ respectively $\pi^{\prime}$ denotes the projection $\pi: \mathcal{R} \rightarrow Q$ respectively $\pi^{\prime}: \mathcal{R} \rightarrow Q^{\prime}$. The generators $g$ and $g_{T}$ are replaced by $\pi(1) \in Q$ and $\pi^{\prime}(1) \in Q^{\prime}$. The representations of $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ are as usual defined on demand by keeping a list of all elements queried so far and choosing random representations for new elements; queries with representations as input that have not been previously defined produce an invalid answer $\perp$, as do queries using the wrong isomorphic copy and/or mixing them. Note that we assume here that in the random group model the representations are sufficiently long, say a generous $\geq 5 \log q$, such that representations are hard to guess and the sets of representations for $G$ and $G_{T}$ are disjoint with overwhelming probability.

By Buchberger's First Criterion [11], the given generating set $G_{b}$ is actually a Gröbner basis with respect to any lexicographic ordering, where any $Z_{i}$ 's are larger than any $A_{i, j}$ 's and both are larger than any $T_{i}$ 's or $W_{i}$ 's. We identify elements from $\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I}_{b}$ by their remainders modulo $G_{b}$. Note that computing this remainder just means replacing any occurrence of $A_{i, j}$ by $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$ and, if $b=0$, additionally replacing $Z_{i}$ by $\sum_{j} \mathfrak{p}_{i, j} W_{j}$.

After $D$ has run, we sample $\vec{t} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{d}, \vec{\omega} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}, \vec{u} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$. For any remainder $\mathfrak{h} \in Q$, define $\operatorname{ev}(\mathfrak{h})$ as $\operatorname{ev}(\mathfrak{h})=[\mathfrak{h}(0, \vec{u}, \vec{t}, \vec{\omega})] \in \mathbb{G}$, where we plug in $\vec{u}$ for $\vec{Z}, \vec{t}$ for $\vec{T}$ and $\vec{\omega}$ for $\vec{W}$. Note that there are no $A_{i, j}$ 's in $\mathfrak{h}$ and in the case $b=0$ no $Z_{i}$ 's occur either. For $\mathfrak{h}^{\prime} \in Q^{\prime}$ we define $\operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{G}_{T}$ analogously.

Since $D$ can only apply $e$ in $Q$, but not in $Q^{\prime}$, any element seen in $Q$ by $D$ can be written as a sum of elements initially presented to $D$. Elements seen in $Q^{\prime}$ can be written as sums of $m$-fold products of such

[^3]elements. So let $\mathfrak{k}_{1}, \ldots, \mathfrak{k}_{r} \in \mathcal{S}_{\leq 1}$ and $\mathfrak{k}_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \mathfrak{k}_{r^{\prime}}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$ with $r+r^{\prime} \leq \kappa$ be the elements constructed by $D$. Let $\mathfrak{h}_{i}:=\mathfrak{k}_{i} \bmod \mathcal{I}_{b} \in Q$ and $\mathfrak{h}_{i}^{\prime}:=\mathfrak{k}_{i}^{\prime} \bmod \mathcal{I}_{b} \in Q^{\prime}$. The distinct elements among the $\mathfrak{h}_{i}$ and $\mathfrak{h}_{i}^{\prime}$ are exactly the distinct elements from $Q$ respectively $Q^{\prime}$ seen by $D$, whereas the $\mathfrak{k}_{i}$ and $\mathfrak{k}_{i}^{\prime}$ keep track of how $D$ constructed those. Note that $\bmod \mathcal{I}_{b}$ need not be injective on $\mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$.

Since computing $\bmod \mathcal{I}_{b}$ is just a replacement of each $A_{i, j}$ and possibly $Z_{i}$ by a polynomial of degree at most deg +1 , the total degree of all remainders $\mathfrak{h}_{i}$ and $\mathfrak{h}_{i}^{\prime}$ is bounded by the constant $(\operatorname{deg}+1)^{m}$, where deg is the upper bound on the total degree of the $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$, which is independent of the security parameter $\lambda$ by assumption. Let Good denote the event that for all $\mathfrak{h}_{i} \neq \mathfrak{h}_{j}$ we have $\operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}_{i}\right) \neq \operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}_{j}\right)$ and for all $\mathfrak{h}_{i}^{\prime} \neq \mathfrak{h}_{j}^{\prime}$ we have $\operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}_{i}^{\prime}\right) \neq \operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}_{j}^{\prime}\right)$. By construction, if Good occurs, the view of $D$ with the replaced oracles is identical to the view if $D$ would have had access to the original oracles. Since each such equality $\operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}_{i}\right)=\operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}_{j}\right)$ or $\operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}_{i}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{ev}\left(\mathfrak{h}_{j}^{\prime}\right)$ is a non-zero polynomial equation of total degree at most $(\operatorname{deg}+1)^{m}$ in uniformly chosen unknowns from $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$, each one holds only with probability at most $\frac{(\operatorname{deg}+1)^{m}}{q}=\operatorname{negl}(\lambda)$. Since there are only polynomially many pairs $i \neq j$, Good occurs with overwhelming probability of at least $1-\frac{\kappa(\kappa-1)(\operatorname{deg}+1)^{m}}{2 q}$. Furthermore, $D$ 's view can only depend on $b$ if we have $\mathfrak{k}_{i}-\mathfrak{k}_{j} \equiv 0 \bmod \mathcal{I}_{0}$ but $\mathfrak{k}_{i}-\mathfrak{k}_{j} \not \equiv 0 \bmod \mathcal{I}_{1}$ (or the analogous in $Q^{\prime}$ ) for some elements $\mathfrak{k}_{i}, \mathfrak{k}_{j}$ constructed by $D$. We know that any $\mathfrak{k}_{i}$ or $\mathfrak{k}_{i}^{\prime}$ is in $\mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$. So, since $\mathcal{I}_{0} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}=\mathcal{I}_{1} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$, D's view (with the replaced oracles) does not depend on $b$.

For the other direction of the theorem, note that if there exists $\mathfrak{k} \in\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m} \backslash\left(\mathcal{J}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}$ then it is easy to construct a ppt distinguisher $D$ that computes $h=\left[\mathfrak{k}\left(a_{i, j}, z_{i}\right)\right]_{T} \in \mathbb{G}_{T}$. If $b=0$, we always have $h=[0]_{T}$ whereas if $b=1$, we have $h=[0]_{T}$ only with probability at most $\frac{(\operatorname{deg}+1)^{m}}{q}=\operatorname{negl}(\lambda)$.

The ideals $\mathcal{J}_{0}$ and $\mathcal{J}_{1}$ can be computed from $\mathcal{I}_{0}$ and $\mathcal{I}_{1}$ using elimination theory. If we use Gröbner bases for that, the condition $\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}$ can be rephrased as follows:

Lemma 18. Let notation be as before and $m>0$. Let $<$ be an elimination order on the monomials of $\mathcal{R}$ such any monomial containing any $T_{i}$ or $W_{i}$ is larger than any monomial from $\mathcal{S}$. Further assume that, restricted to the monomials of $\mathcal{S},<$ sorts by total degree first. Let $H_{0}$ respectively $H_{1}$ be reduced Gröbner bases for $\mathcal{I}_{0}$ respectively $\mathcal{I}_{1}$ w.r.t. $<$. Then the following are equivalent:

1. $\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}$
2. $H_{0} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}=H_{1} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$
3. $H_{0} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$ does not involve any $Z_{i}$ 's.
4. There exists a not necessarily reduced Gröbner basis $H_{0}^{\prime}$ for $\mathcal{I}_{0}$ such that $H_{0}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$ does not involve any $Z_{i}$ 's.

Proof. First, note that by the elimination theorem of Gröbner bases [11], $\mathcal{J}_{b}$ is an ideal over $\mathcal{S}$ with reduced Gröbner basis $H_{b} \cap \mathcal{S}$.
(1) $\Rightarrow(2):$ Assume $\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}$. Let $\mathfrak{h} \in H_{0} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$, but assume towards a contradiction $\mathfrak{h} \notin H_{1} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$. Since $\mathfrak{h} \in \mathcal{I}_{1} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$, there must be some $\mathfrak{k} \in H_{1} \cap \mathcal{S}, \mathfrak{k} \neq \mathfrak{h}$ such that the leading term of $\mathfrak{k}$ divides the leading term of $\mathfrak{h}$. By assumption, < sorts by total degree first, so the total degree of $\mathfrak{k}$ is at most $m$. Hence $\mathfrak{k} \in \mathcal{I}_{0} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$ with leading term diving that of $\mathfrak{h}$, contradicting the reducedness of $H_{0} \cap \mathcal{S}$. The other inclusion $H_{1} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m} \subset H_{0} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$ is analogous.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3): H_{1}$ does not involve any $\bar{Z}_{i}$ 's, since the generating set $G_{1}$ does not.
$(3) \Rightarrow(4):$ Obvious.
(4) $\Rightarrow(1)$ : Assume $H_{0}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$ does not involve any $Z_{i}$. We first show that for any $\mathfrak{h} \in H_{0}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}$ we have $\mathfrak{h} \in \mathcal{I}_{1}$. To see this, write $\mathfrak{h}=\sum_{i, j} \mathfrak{c}_{i, j} \mathfrak{f}_{i, j}+\sum_{i} \mathfrak{d}_{i} \mathfrak{g}_{i}$ as a linear combination in our original generators $G_{0}$ with polynomial coefficients $\mathfrak{c}_{i, j}, \mathfrak{d}_{i} \in \mathcal{R}$. Plugging in 0 for all $W_{i}$ 's and $Z_{i}$ 's into this equation does not affect $\mathfrak{h}$ by assumption and eliminates all $\mathfrak{g}_{i}$, so we obtain $\mathfrak{h}=\sum_{i, j} \mathfrak{c}_{i, j}^{\prime} \mathfrak{f}_{i, j}$ for some $\mathfrak{c}_{i, j}^{\prime}$ showing $\mathfrak{h} \in \mathcal{I}_{1}$.
Now let $\mathfrak{k} \in \mathcal{I}_{0} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq m}=\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m}$ be arbitrary. Since $H_{0}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{S}$ is a Gröbner basis w.r.t to $<$, which sorts by total degree first, we have $\mathfrak{k}=\sum_{i} \mathfrak{e}_{i} \mathfrak{h}_{\mathfrak{i}}$ for some $\mathfrak{e}_{i} \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\mathfrak{h}_{i} \in H_{0}^{\prime} \cap \mathcal{S}_{\leq \operatorname{deg} \mathfrak{k}}$. Since we have shown that all the $\mathfrak{h}_{\mathfrak{i}}$ that appear here are in $\mathcal{I}_{1}$, we have $\mathfrak{k} \in \mathcal{I}_{1}$, showing $\left(\mathcal{J}_{0}\right)_{\leq m} \subset\left(\overline{\mathcal{J}}_{1}\right)_{\leq m}$. The other inclusion is trivial.

## B. 2 Proof of Theorem 4 and Generalizations

Theorem 4 will follow as a corollary from the following lemma, which is a generalization to non-linear $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$ and non-irreducible $\mathfrak{d}$ :

Lemma 19. Let notation be as before. We assume that $\ell=k+1$ and $\mathbf{A}$ can be full rank for some values of $\vec{t}$. Let $\mathfrak{d}$ be the determinant of $(\mathfrak{p}(\vec{T}) \| \vec{Z})$ as a polynomial in $\vec{Z}, \vec{T}$ and consider the ideal $\mathcal{J}:=\mathcal{I}_{0} \cap \mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{A}, \vec{Z}, \vec{T}]$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{A}, \vec{Z}, \vec{T}]$. Then there exists a unique (up to scalar) decomposition $\mathfrak{d}=\mathfrak{c} \cdot \mathfrak{d}_{0}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$, where $\mathfrak{c}$ only involves the $\vec{T}$ and $\mathfrak{D}_{0}$ is irreducible over the algebraic closure $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}_{q}$. Furthermore, $\mathcal{J}$ is generated by $G_{1}$ and $\mathfrak{d}_{0}$.

Proof. Since A can be full rank, there exists some $\vec{z}, \vec{t}$ with $\mathfrak{d}(\vec{z}, \vec{t}) \neq 0$, so $\mathfrak{d}$ is not the zero polynomial. For the existence and uniqueness of $\mathfrak{c}$ and $\mathfrak{d}_{0}$, consider the (up to scalar) unique decomposition $\mathfrak{d}=\mathfrak{c}_{1}^{e_{1}} \mathfrak{c}_{2}^{e_{2}} \cdots \mathfrak{c}_{s}^{e_{s}}$ of $\mathfrak{d}$ into distinct irreducible polynomials $\mathfrak{c}_{i}$ in $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}[\vec{Z}, \vec{T}]$. Since $\mathfrak{d}$ is linear in the $Z_{i}$ 's, only one factor, w.l.o.g. $\mathfrak{c}_{s}$ with $e_{s}=1$, can contain any of the $Z_{i}$ 's. Note that this implies that $\mathfrak{c}_{s}$ is linear in the $Z_{i}$ 's as well. So we have the up to scalar unique decomposition $\mathfrak{d}(\vec{Z}, \vec{T})=\mathfrak{c}(\vec{T}) \mathfrak{d}_{0}(\vec{Z}, \vec{T})$ with $\mathfrak{d}_{0}=\mathfrak{c}_{s}$ and $\mathfrak{c}=\mathfrak{c}_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdots \mathfrak{c}_{s-1}^{e_{s-1}}$, which has the desired properties, provided that $\mathfrak{d}_{0}$ and $\mathfrak{c}$ actually have coefficients in the base field $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ rather than $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$.
To show the latter, write $\mathfrak{d}=\sum_{i} \mathfrak{a}_{i} Z_{i}$ with $\mathfrak{a}_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{T}]$. Since by construction $\mathfrak{c}$ divides $\mathfrak{d}$, for all $1 \leq i \leq$ $\ell, 1 \leq j \leq s-1$ we have $\mathfrak{a}_{i}=\mathfrak{c}_{j}^{e_{j}} \cdot \mathfrak{b}_{i, j}$ for some $\mathfrak{b}_{i, j} \in \overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}[\vec{T}]$ and indeed $\mathfrak{c}$ is nothing but the gcd of the $\mathfrak{a}_{i}$. Since $\mathfrak{a}_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{T}]$, it follows that $\sigma\left(\mathfrak{a}_{i}\right)=\mathfrak{a}_{i}=\sigma\left(\mathfrak{c}_{j}\right)^{e_{j}} \cdot \sigma\left(\mathfrak{b}_{i, j}\right)$, where $\sigma$ is the (coefficient-wise) Frobenius. So $\sigma\left(\mathfrak{c}_{j}\right)^{e_{j}}$ divides each $\mathfrak{a}_{i}$, hence every Frobenius-conjugate must appear in the decomposition $\mathfrak{c}=\mathfrak{c}_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdots \mathfrak{c}_{s-1}^{e_{s-1}}$ with the same multiplicity, showing $\mathfrak{c} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{T}]$. It follows that $\mathfrak{d}_{0}=\frac{\mathfrak{d}}{\mathfrak{c}}$ is also in the base field.

For the second part of the lemma, we first observe that both ideals $\mathcal{I}_{0}$ and $\mathcal{I}_{1}$ are radical: Since they can be generated by polynomials of the form $A_{i, j}-\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{T}), Z_{i}-\mathfrak{q}_{i}(\vec{T}, \vec{W})$ expressing one set of variables as functions of another disjoint set of variables, the quotient $\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I}_{0}$ respectively $\mathcal{R} / \mathcal{I}_{1}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{T}, \vec{W}]$ respectively $\mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{Z}, \vec{T}, \vec{W}]$. Since these quotients have no nilpotent elements, the ideals $\mathcal{I}_{0}, \mathcal{I}_{1}$ are radical. It follows that $\mathcal{J}$ is radical, since intersection with a polynomial subring preserves being radical. Since $\mathfrak{d}_{0}$ is irreducible, the quotient $\mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{A}, \vec{Z}, \vec{T}] /\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$, which is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{Z}, \vec{T}] /\left(\mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$, contains no nilpotent elements, hence the ideal generated by $\mathcal{I}_{1}$ and $\mathfrak{d}_{0}$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}[\vec{A}, \vec{Z}, \vec{T}]$ is radical. It thus suffices to consider the corresponding varieties (all varieties are over the algebraic closure $\left.\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}\right) V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$ and $V(\mathcal{J})$ by the Nullstellensatz. Let $V\left(\mathcal{I}_{1}\right)$ be the variety associated to $\mathcal{I}_{1}$. By the Closure Theorem [11], the variety $V(\mathcal{J})$ associated to $\mathcal{J}$ is given by the Zariski closure of $\left\{(\vec{a}, \vec{z}, \vec{t}) \in V\left(\mathcal{I}_{1}\right) \mid \exists \vec{\omega}\right.$, s.t. $\left.z_{i}=\sum_{j} \omega_{j} a_{i, j}\right\}$. Let us start by showing $V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right) \subset V(\mathcal{J})$ :

If for some value of $\vec{t}, \mathfrak{c}(\vec{t})=0$, then $\operatorname{det}(\mathfrak{p}(\vec{t}) \| \vec{z})=0$ for all values of $\vec{z}$, hence $\mathfrak{p}(\vec{t})$ has rank $<k$. Consider the variety $V_{\text {bad }}$ of all $(\vec{a}, \vec{z}, \vec{t}) \in V\left(\mathcal{I}_{1}\right)$ such that $\mathbf{A}=\left(a_{i, j}\right)$ has rank $<k$, which is indeed an algebraic set (consider $\operatorname{det}\left(\mathbf{A} \| \vec{e}_{i}\right)=0$ for canonical basis vectors $\left.\vec{e}_{i}\right)$ and $V_{\mathrm{bad}} \supset V\left(\mathfrak{c}, \mathcal{I}_{1}\right)$. Outside of this bad set, $\mathbf{A}=\mathfrak{p}(\vec{t})$ has full rank $k$ and hence there exists $\vec{\omega}$ such that $\vec{z}=\mathbf{A} \cdot \vec{\omega}$ if and only if $\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{A} \| \vec{z})=0$, or equivalently, since $\mathfrak{c}(\vec{t}) \neq 0, \mathfrak{d}_{0}(\vec{z}, \vec{t})=0$. It follows that $V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right) \backslash V_{\mathrm{bad}} \subset V(\mathcal{J})$. By the same argument as in the previous paragraph, since $\mathfrak{d}_{0}$ is irreducible over $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$, the quotient $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}[\vec{A}, \vec{Z}, \vec{T}] /\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right) \cong \overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}[\vec{Z}, \vec{T}] /\left(\mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$ has no zero divisors and so $V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$ is irreducible. Since $(\vec{a}, \overrightarrow{0}, \vec{t}) \in V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$ for any $\vec{t}$ with $\mathfrak{p}(\vec{t})$ full rank, we have $V_{\text {bad }} \nsupseteq V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$. From this and the irreducibility of $V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$, we can then deduce that the Zariski closure of $V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right) \backslash V_{\text {bad }} \subset V(\mathcal{J})$ is all of $V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right)$, so we have $V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right) \subset V(\mathcal{J})$

For the other direction, consider $(\vec{a}, \vec{z}, \vec{t})$ such that $\vec{a}=\overrightarrow{\mathfrak{p}}(\vec{t})$ and there exists $\vec{\omega}$ with $z_{i}=\sum_{j} \omega_{j} a_{i, j}$. We need to show $\mathfrak{d}_{0}(\vec{z}, \vec{t})=0$. For this, note that $\operatorname{det}\left(\mathfrak{p}(\vec{T}) \| \sum_{j} W_{j} \mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{T})\right)$ is the zero polynomial. So $\mathfrak{d}\left(\sum_{j} W_{j} \mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{T}), \vec{T}\right)=\mathfrak{c}(\vec{T}) \cdot \mathfrak{d}_{0}\left(\sum_{j} W_{j} \mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{T})\right)$ is the zero polynomial. Since $\mathfrak{c}(\vec{T})$ is not the zero polynomial, as otherwise $\mathfrak{d}(\vec{Z}, \vec{T})$ would be the zero polynomial, we have that $\mathfrak{d}_{0}\left(\sum_{j} W_{j} \mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{T}), \vec{T}\right)$ is the zero polynomial. It follows that $\mathfrak{d}_{0}(\vec{z}, \vec{t})=\mathfrak{d}_{0}\left(\sum_{j} \omega_{j} \mathfrak{p}_{i, j}(\vec{t}), \vec{t}\right)=0$, finishing the proof of $V\left(G_{1}, \mathfrak{d}_{0}\right) \supset V(\mathcal{J})$.

This lemma allows us to easily prove Theorem 4, which states:

Let $\ell=k+1$ and $\mathcal{D}_{k+1, k}$ be a matrix distribution, which outputs matrices $\mathbf{A}=\mathfrak{p}(\vec{t})$ for uniform $\vec{t}$. Let $\mathfrak{d}$ be the determinant of $(\mathfrak{p}(\vec{T}) \| \vec{Z})$ as a polynomial in $\vec{Z}, \vec{T}$.

1. If the matrices output by $\mathcal{D}_{k+1, k}$ always have full rank (not just with overwhelming probability), even for $t_{i}$ from the algebraic closure $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$, then $\mathfrak{d}$ is irreducible over $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$.
2. If all $\mathfrak{p}_{i, j}$ have degree at most $1, \mathfrak{d}$ is irreducible over $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$ and the total degree of $\mathfrak{d}$ is $k+1$, then the $\mathcal{D}_{k+1, k}$ - MDDH assumption holds in generic $k$-linear groups.

Proof. Let notation be as in the lemmas above.
(1): If $\mathfrak{c}$ is non-constant, it would have some roots $(\vec{z}, \vec{t})$ in $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$. At these roots $\mathfrak{p}(\vec{t})$ can't have full rank, since $\operatorname{det}(\mathfrak{p}(\vec{t}) \| \vec{z})=0$ for all $\vec{z}$. Hence $\mathfrak{d}=\mathfrak{d}_{0}$, which is irreducible over $\overline{\mathbb{Z}_{q}}$.
(2): W.l.o.g. we may assume that $\overrightarrow{\mathfrak{p}}$ is injective (otherwise we drop some $T$-variables), so we can express the $T_{i}$ 's as linear polynomials in the $A_{i, j}$ 's. Computing a Gröbner basis (for an appropriate elimination ordering) for $\mathcal{J}_{1}=\mathcal{J} \cap \mathcal{S}$ from $\mathcal{J}$ just means expressing all $T_{i}$ 's by $A_{i, j}$ 's. Since $\mathcal{J}$ is generated by $\mathfrak{d}=\mathfrak{d}_{0}$ and $G_{0}$ by the above Lemma 19, a Gröbner basis for $\mathcal{J}_{1}$ is just given by $G_{0}$ and $\mathfrak{d}$, expressed by the $A_{i, j}$ 's. Since this invertible linear variable substitution does not change total degree, the theorem follows.

## C Details of the proofs for some CRS dependent languages

In this section we give the technical exposition of the results announced in Section 5. The results in this section are based on arbitrary $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$-matrix assumptions in some group $\mathbb{G}$, with the only restriction that a matrix $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ should have full rank with overwhelming probability. Although to build our proofs we implicitly use the GS framework - following the intuition given in Sections 5.1 and 5.3 - we have preferred to give the proofs without using the GS notation.

## C. 1 More efficient NIZK subgroup membership proofs

We now proceed to give the technical exposition of the results announced in Section 5.1. Define $\mathcal{H}:=\{\mathbf{H} \in$ $\left.\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times k}: \mathbf{H}+\mathbf{H}^{\top}=\mathbf{0}\right\}$. We first describe how to construct the NIZK proof of membership in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$ of size $k \ell$.

Setup. At the setup stage, some group $\mathcal{P G}=\left(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_{T}, q, e, \mathcal{P}\right) \leftarrow \operatorname{PGen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ is specified.
Common reference string. We define $[\mathbf{U}]=\left(\left[\vec{u}_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[\vec{u}_{k+1}\right]\right)$ as $[\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}+\vec{z}]$ in the soundness setting and $[\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}]$ in the witness indistinguishability setting, where $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \vec{w} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$, and $\vec{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}, \vec{z} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$. The common reference string is $\sigma:=(\mathcal{P G},[\mathbf{U}], \vec{z})$.
Simulation trapdoor. The simulation trapdoor $\tau$ is the vector $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$.
Prover. On input $\sigma$, a vector $[\vec{\Phi}]=[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$ and the witness $\vec{r} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$, the prover chooses a matrix $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$ and computes

$$
[\mathbf{\Pi}]=\left[\vec{u}_{k+1} \vec{r}^{\top}+\mathbf{A H}\right]
$$

Verifier. On input $\sigma,[\vec{\Phi}],[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]$, the verifier checks if $\left[\vec{\Phi} \vec{u}_{k+1}^{\top}+\vec{u}_{k+1} \vec{\Phi}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi} \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}\right]_{T}$.
Simulator. On input $\sigma,[\vec{\Phi}], \tau$ the simulator picks a matrix $\mathbf{H}^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$ and computes

$$
\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\mathrm{sim}}\right]=\left[\vec{\Phi} \vec{w}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \mathbf{H}^{\prime}\right]
$$

To prove Theorem 10 from Section 5.1 we just need to see that the proof satisfies the required properties.
Proof. (Proof of Theorem 10. First, it is clear that under the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-$ MDDH Assumption, the soundness and the WI setting are computationally indistinguishable.

Completeness. To see completeness, we see that a real proof satisfies the verification equation. Indeed, in the soundness setting, the left term of the verification equation is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\vec{\Phi} \vec{u}_{k+1}^{\top}\right.} & \left.+\vec{u}_{k+1} \vec{\Phi}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}(\mathbf{A} \vec{w}+\vec{z})^{\top}+(\mathbf{A} \vec{w}+\vec{z})(\mathbf{A} \vec{r})^{\top}\right]_{T} \\
& =\left[\mathbf{A}\left(\vec{r} \vec{w}^{\top}+\vec{w} \vec{r}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \vec{r} \vec{z}^{\top}+\vec{z} \vec{r}^{\top} \mathbf{A}^{\top}\right]_{T}
\end{aligned}
$$

while the right term in the real proof is:

$$
\begin{align*}
{\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi} \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}\right]_{T} } & =\left[\mathbf{A}\left(\vec{w} \vec{r}^{\top}+\vec{w} \vec{r}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A}\left(\mathbf{H}+\mathbf{H}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \vec{r} \vec{z}^{\top}+\vec{z} \vec{r}^{\top} \mathbf{A}^{\top}\right]_{T}  \tag{5}\\
& =\left[\mathbf{A}\left(\vec{r} \vec{w}^{\top}+\vec{w} \vec{r}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \vec{r} \vec{z}^{\top}+\vec{z} \vec{r}^{\top} \mathbf{A}^{\top}\right]_{T} . \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

This proves perfect completeness.
Soundness. Let $\vec{\xi} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ be any vector such that $\vec{\xi}^{\top} \mathbf{A}=\overrightarrow{0}, \vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{z}=1$. This implies that in the soundness setting, $\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{u}_{k+1}=1$. Therefore, if $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]$ is any proof that satisfies the verification equation, multiplying on the left by $\vec{\xi}^{\top}$ and the right by $\vec{\xi}$,

$$
\vec{\xi}^{\top}\left[\vec{\Phi} \vec{u}_{k+1}^{\top}+\vec{u}_{k+1} \vec{\Phi}^{\top}\right]_{T} \vec{\xi}=\vec{\xi}^{\top}\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi} \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}\right]_{T} \vec{\xi}
$$

we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{\Phi}+\vec{\Phi}^{\top} \vec{\xi}\right]_{T}=[0]_{T} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\left[\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{\Phi}+\vec{\Phi}^{\top} \vec{\xi}\right]_{T}=2\left[\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{\Phi}\right]_{T}$, from this last equation it follows that $\left[\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{\Phi}\right]_{T}=[0]_{T}$. This holds for any vector $\vec{\xi}$ such that $\vec{\xi}^{\top} \mathbf{A}=\overrightarrow{0}$ and $\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{z}=1$, which implies that $[\Phi] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$, which proves perfect soundness. Composable Zero-Knowledge. We will now see that, in the witness indistinguishability setting, both a real proof and a simulated proof have the same distribution when $[\Phi] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P} \mathcal{G}}$. We first note that they both satisfy the verification equation. Indeed, the left term of the verification equation in the WI setting is

$$
\left[\vec{\Phi} \vec{u}_{k+1}^{\top}+\vec{u}_{k+1} \vec{\Phi}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{A}\left(\vec{r} \vec{w}^{\top}+\vec{w} \vec{r}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}\right]_{T}
$$

which is obviously equal to the right term of the verification equation for the real proof (rewrite equation (5) in the WI setting). On the other hand, if $[\Phi] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$, the right term of the verification equation for a simulated proof is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\Pi_{\mathrm{sim}} \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \Pi_{\mathrm{sim}}^{\top}\right]_{T} } & =\left[\mathbf{A}\left(\vec{r} \vec{w}^{\top}+\vec{w} \vec{r}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A}\left(\mathbf{H}^{\prime}+\left(\mathbf{H}^{\prime}\right)^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}\right]_{T} \\
& =\left[\mathbf{A}\left(\vec{r} \vec{w}^{\top}+\vec{w} \vec{r}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}\right]_{T},
\end{aligned}
$$

for some $\mathbf{H}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{H}$.
We now argue that an honestly generated proof $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]$ and a simulated proof $\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\text {sim }}\right]$ have the same distribution. By construction, there exist some matrices $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Theta}^{\prime}$ such that $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]=[\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Theta}]$ and $\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\text {sim }}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A} \Theta^{\prime}\right]$. Now, if $\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{1}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}\right]$ and $\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{2}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right]$ are two proofs, real or simulated, which satisfy the verification equation, then necessarily $\left[\left(\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{2}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A}\left(\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{2}\right)\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{A}\left(\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right)+\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right)^{\top}\right) \mathbf{A}^{\top}\right]_{T}=0$.

Since with overwhelming probability, $\mathbf{A}$ has rank $k$, it must hold that $\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right)+\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right)^{\top}=0$, that is, it must hold that $\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right) \in \mathcal{H}$. By construction, both for honestly generated proofs $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]$ and simulated proofs these difference is uniformly distributed in $\mathcal{H}$.

## C.1.1 Efficiency comparison

To prove that $[\vec{\Phi}] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$, for some $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$ with a GS instantiation based on a (possibly unrelated) $\mathcal{D}_{\ell^{\prime}, k^{\prime}}-$ matrix DH problem using standard GS proofs, one would prove that the following equation is satisfiable for all $i=1 \ldots \ell$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{1}\left[u_{1, i}\right]+\ldots+r_{k}\left[u_{k, i}\right]=\left[\Phi_{i}\right] \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

that is, one needs to prove that $\ell$ linear equations with $k$ variables are satisfied. Therefore, according to Table 1. the verifier must be given $k \ell^{\prime}$ elements of $\mathbb{G}$ for the commitments and $\ell k^{\prime}$ elements of $\mathbb{G}$ for the proof. On the other hand, proving $[\vec{\Phi}] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$ using our approach requires $\ell k$ elements of $\mathbb{G}$, corresponding to the size of the proof of one quadratic equation.

Application example 1. The standard proof of membership in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}}$, when $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow 2$-Lin based on the same assumption (with $\ell=\ell^{\prime}=3, k=k^{\prime}=2$ ), requires 12 group elements, while with our approach only 6 elements are required ${ }^{4}$. This reduces the ciphertext size of one of the instantiations of [30] from 15 to 9 group elements.

Application example 2. With our results we can also give a more efficient proof of correct opening of the Cramer Shoup ciphertext. We briefly recall the CS encryption scheme based on the 2 -Lin-Assumption (40], [24]). The public key consists of the description of some group $\mathcal{G}$ and a tuple $\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}, X_{5}, X_{6}\right] \in$ $\mathbb{G}^{8}$. Given a message $[m] \in \mathbb{G}$, a ciphertext is constructed by picking random $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and setting

$$
C:=\left[r\left(a_{1}, 0,1, X_{5}, X_{1}+\alpha X_{3}\right)+s\left(0, a_{2}, 1, X_{6}, X_{2}+\alpha X_{4}\right)+(0,0, m, 0,0)\right]
$$

where $\alpha$ is the hash of some components of the ciphertext and possibly some label. To prove that a ciphertext opens to a (known) message $[m$, substract $[m$ ] from the third component of the ciphertext and prove membership in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}, \mathcal{P G}}$, where $\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}$ is defined as:

$$
\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}:=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{1} & 0 \\
0 & a_{2} \\
1 & 1 \\
X_{5} & X_{6} \\
X_{1}+\alpha X_{3} & X_{2}+\alpha X_{4}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \alpha
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{1} & 0 \\
0 & a_{2} \\
1 & 1 \\
X_{5} & X_{6} \\
X_{1} & X_{2} \\
X_{3} & X_{4}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Denote $\mathbf{M}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{C}$, the two matrices of the right term of the previous equation such that $\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}=\mathbf{M}_{\alpha} \mathbf{C}$. The matrix $\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}$ depends on $\alpha$ and is different for each ciphertext, so it cannot be included in the CRS. Instead, we include the matrix $\left[\mathbf{U}_{C}\right]:=\left[\mathbf{C} \| \mathbf{C} \vec{w}+\vec{z}_{C}\right]$ in the soundness setting and $\left[\mathbf{U}_{C}\right]:=[\mathbf{C} \| \mathbf{C} \vec{w}]$ in the WI setting, for $\vec{z}_{C} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{C})$, for instance $\vec{z}_{C}^{\top}:=(0,0,0,0,1,0)$. To prove membership in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}, \mathcal{P G}}$ as we explained, we would make the proof with respect to the CRS $\left[\mathbf{U}_{\alpha}\right]:=\left[\mathbf{M}_{\alpha} \mathbf{U}_{C}\right]$. Clearly, if $\vec{z}^{\top}:=(0,0,0,0,1),\left[\mathbf{U}_{\alpha}\right]=$ $\left[\mathbf{A}_{\alpha} \| \mathbf{A}_{\alpha} \vec{w}+\vec{z}\right]$ in the soundness setting and $\left[\mathbf{U}_{\alpha}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A}_{\alpha} \| \mathbf{A}_{\alpha} \vec{w}\right]$ in the WI, as required. The resulting proof consists of 10 group elements, as opposed to 16 using standard GS proofs. This applies to the result of [17], Section 3.

## C. 2 More efficient NIZK proof of validity of ciphertexts

In this section we complete the exposition of the results announced in section 5.2. More specifically, given $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}$, and some vector $\vec{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}, \vec{z} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$, we show how to give a more efficient proof of membership in the space:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathcal{P G}}=\{[\vec{c}]: \vec{c}=\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+m \vec{z}\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell},
$$

where $(\vec{r},[m]) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k} \times \mathbb{G}$ is the witness. We note that a part of the witness, $[m]$, is in the group $\mathbb{G}$ and not in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$, while to compute the subgroup membership proofs as described in Appendix C. 1 all of the witness has to be in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$. Deciding membership in this space is trivial when $\operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$ and $\vec{z}$ span all of $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$, so throughout this section we will assume that $\ell>k+1$ and in particular, that there exists some non-zero vector $\vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ such that $\vec{s} \notin\langle\operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A}), \vec{z}\rangle$.

Define $\mathcal{H}:=\left\{\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{(k+2) \times(k+2)}: \mathbf{H}+\mathbf{H}^{\top}=\mathbf{0}\right\}$. We first show how to construct a NIZK proof of membership in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathcal{P G}}$ of size $(k+2) \ell$.
Setup. At the setup stage, some group $\mathcal{P G}=\left(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_{T}, q, e, \mathcal{P}\right) \leftarrow \operatorname{PGen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ is specified.

[^4]Common reference string. We define $[\mathbf{U}]=\left(\left[\vec{u}_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[\vec{u}_{k+2}\right]\right)$ as $[\mathbf{A}\|\vec{z}\| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}]$ in the soundness setting and $[\mathbf{A}\|\vec{z}\| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}+\vec{s}]$ in the witness indistinguishability setting, where $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}, \vec{w} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$, and $\vec{s} \notin\langle\operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A}), \vec{z}\rangle$. The common reference string is $\sigma:=(\mathcal{P G},[\mathbf{U}], \vec{s}, \vec{z})$.
Simulation trapdoor. The simulation trapdoor $\tau$ is the vector $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$.
Prover. On input $\sigma$, a vector $[\vec{c}]=[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+m \vec{z}] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathcal{P G}}$ and the witness $(\vec{r},[m]) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k} \times \mathbb{G}$, the prover chooses a matrix $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$ and computes

$$
[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]=\left[\vec{s}\left(\vec{r}^{\top}, m, 0\right)+\mathbf{U H}\right] .
$$

Verifier. On input $\sigma,[\vec{c}],[\mathbf{\Pi}]$, the verifier checks if $\left[\overrightarrow{c s}^{\top}+\vec{s}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi} \mathbf{U}^{\top}+\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}\right]_{T}$.
Simulator. On input $\sigma,[\vec{c}], \tau$ the simulator picks a matrix $\mathbf{H}^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$ and computes

$$
\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\mathrm{sim}}\right]=\left[\vec{c}\left(\vec{w}^{\top}, 0,-1\right)+\mathbf{U H}^{\prime}\right] .
$$

We stress that the prover does not need to know $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ to compute the proof, since $\vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ is known and so $[m] \in \mathbb{G}$ is sufficient to compute $\left[\vec{s}^{\top} m\right]$.

Proof. (Proof of Theorem 11) First, it is clear that under the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-$ MDDH Assumption, the soundness and the WI setting are computationally indistinguishable.
Perfect Completeness. To see completeness, Note that by definition

$$
[\vec{c}]=\left[\mathbf{U}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\vec{r} \\
m \\
0
\end{array}\right)\right] .
$$

Therefore, in the soundness setting, the left term of the verification equation is:

$$
\left[\overrightarrow{c s}^{\top}+\vec{s}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{U}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\vec{r} \\
m \\
0
\end{array}\right) \vec{s}^{\top}+\vec{s} \mathbf{U}\left(\vec{r}^{\top}, m, 0\right)\right]_{T}
$$

while the right term in the real proof is:

$$
\left[\mathbf{\Pi} \mathbf{U}^{\top}+\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\vec{s}\left(\vec{r}^{\top}, m, 0\right) \mathbf{U}^{\top}+\mathbf{U}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\vec{r}  \tag{9}\\
m \\
0
\end{array}\right) \vec{s}^{\top}+\mathbf{U}\left(\mathbf{H}+\mathbf{H}^{\top}\right) \mathbf{U}^{\top}\right]_{T}
$$

Since $\mathbf{H} \in \mathcal{H}$, perfect completeness follows.
Perfect Soundness. Let $\vec{\xi} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$ be any vector such that $\vec{\xi}^{\top} \mathbf{U}=\overrightarrow{0}$ and $\overrightarrow{\xi^{\top}} \vec{s}=1$. If $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]$ is any proof that satisfies the verification equation, multiplying on the left by $\vec{\xi}^{\top}$ and the right by $\vec{\xi}$ in the soundness setting,

$$
\vec{\xi}^{\top}\left[\overrightarrow{c s}^{\top}+\vec{s}^{\top}\right]_{T} \vec{\xi}=\vec{\xi}^{\top}\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi} \mathbf{A}^{\top}+\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}\right]_{T} \vec{\xi}
$$

we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{c}+\vec{c}^{\top} \vec{\xi}\right]_{T}=2\left[\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{c}\right]_{T}=[0]_{T} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since this holds for any vector $\vec{\xi}$ such that $\vec{\xi}^{\top} \mathbf{U}=\overrightarrow{0}$ and $\vec{\xi}^{\top} \vec{s}=1$, this implies that $[\vec{c}] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathcal{P G}}$, which proves perfect soundness.
Composable Zero-Knowledge. We will now see that, in the witness indistinguishability setting, both a real proof and a simulated proof have the same distribution when $[\vec{c}] \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathcal{P G}}$. We first note that they both satisfy the verification equation. Indeed, the left term of the equation in the WI setting is the same as before and obviously equal to the right term of the equation for the real proof (rewrite equation (9) in the

WI setting). On the other hand, if $\vec{c} \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \vec{z}, \mathcal{P G}}$, the right term of the verification equation for a simulated proof is:

$$
\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\operatorname{sim}} \mathbf{U}^{\top}+\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\mathrm{sim}}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\vec{c}\left(\vec{w}^{\top}, 0,-1\right) \mathbf{U}^{\top}+\mathbf{U}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\vec{w} \\
0 \\
-1
\end{array}\right) \vec{c}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\overrightarrow{c s}{ }^{\top}+{\vec{s} \vec{c}^{\top}}\right]_{T} .
$$

We now argue that an honestly generated proof $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]$ and a simulated proof $\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\text {sim }}\right]$ have the same distribution. By construction, there exist some matrices $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Theta}^{\prime}$ such that $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]=[\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Theta}]$ and $\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\text {sim }}\right]=\left[\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Theta}^{\prime}\right]$. Now, if $\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{1}\right]=\left[\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}\right]$ and $\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{2}\right]=\left[\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right]$ are two proofs, real or simulated, which satisfy the verification equation, then necessarily $\left[\left(\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{2}\right) \mathbf{U}^{\top}+\mathbf{U}\left(\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{2}\right)\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{U}\left(\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right)+\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right)^{\top}\right) \mathbf{U}^{\top}\right]_{T}=0$.

Since with overwhelming probability, $\mathbf{U}$ has rank $k+2$, it must hold that $\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right)+\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right)^{\top}=0$, that is, it must hold that $\left(\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{1}-\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{2}\right) \in \mathcal{H}$. By construction, both for honestly generated proofs $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]$ and simulated proofs these difference is uniformly distributed in $\mathcal{H}$.

## C.2.1 Efficiency comparison

The proof requires $\ell(k+2)$ group elements. For simplicity, we assume $\vec{z}^{\top}=(0, \ldots, 0,1) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell}$. There are two possible approaches to prove ciphertext validity based on a $\mathcal{D}_{\ell^{\prime}, k^{\prime-}}$ matrix assumption. In the first one, one commits to $\vec{r},[m]$ (which requires $\ell^{\prime}(k+1)$ group elements) and then one proves that

$$
\left[\vec{c}_{\ell-1}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A}_{\ell-1} \vec{w}\right], \quad\left[\vec{c}_{\ell}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A}_{\ell} \vec{w}+m\right]
$$

where $\vec{c}_{\ell-1}, \mathbf{A}_{\ell-1}$ denote the first $\ell-1$ rows of $\vec{c}$ and $\mathbf{A}$ and $\vec{c}_{\ell}, \mathbf{A}_{\ell}$ the last row. In this case, for the proof we need to give $k^{\prime}(\ell-1)$ elements for the first $\ell-1$ equations and $\ell^{\prime}(k+1)$ for the last equation (although the last equation is also linear, the witness is in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $\mathbb{G}$ so the proof is the same size of a quadratic equation, see Table 11. The second approach is to write the statement as a pairing product equation, in which case the prover commits to $[\vec{r}],[m]$ (which requires $\ell^{\prime}(k+1)$ group elements) and it proves that:

$$
\left[\vec{c}_{\ell-1}\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{A}_{\ell-1} \vec{w}\right]_{T}, \quad\left[\vec{c}_{\ell}\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{A}_{\ell} \vec{w}+m\right]_{T}
$$

Now, all the equations are linear pairing product equations and the total cost of the proof is $\ell\left(k^{\prime}+1\right)$. Therefore, in total we need $\ell^{\prime}(k+1)+\ell^{\prime}(k+1)+k^{\prime}(\ell-1)$ group elements using the first approach and $\ell^{\prime}(k+1)+\ell\left(k^{\prime}+1\right)$ using the second. The

Application example 1. We can use our results to show that the 2-Lin-based Cramer Shoup encryption scheme described is a well formed ciphertext for some (secret) message $[m]$. Let $\mathbf{A}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{M}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{C}$ the matrices described in the second example of Section C.1.1. To apply our results in this section, include in the CRS the matrix $\left[\mathbf{U}_{C}\right]:=\left[\mathbf{C}\left\|\vec{z}_{C}\right\| \mathbf{C} \vec{w}+\vec{s}_{C}\right]$ in the soundness setting and $\left[\mathbf{U}_{C}\right]:=[\mathbf{C}\|\vec{z}\| \mathbf{C} \vec{w}]$ in the WI setting, where $\vec{s}_{C}^{\top}:=(0,0,0,0,1,0)$ and $\vec{z}_{C}^{\top}:=(0,0,1,0,0,0)$. To prove that a ciphertext is valid for a certain value of $\alpha$, we would proceed as we just described with respect to the CRS $\left[\mathbf{U}_{\alpha}\right]=\left[\mathbf{M}_{\alpha} \mathbf{U}_{C}\right]$. In this application, in our case the size of the proof is of 20 group elements $(\ell=5, k=2)$, while a proof of ciphertext validity based on 2-Lin would require 24 group elements using the most efficient of the two approaches for these parameters. ( $\ell^{\prime}=3, k^{\prime}=2, k=2, \ell=5$ ).

## C. 3 More efficient NIZK proofs for plaintext equality

We now provide missing details from Section 5.3. Given two matrix distributions $\mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}, \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}^{\prime}$ and two matrices $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}, \mathbf{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}^{\prime}$, we now give the technical details on how to give shorter proofs of membership for the language

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \vec{z}_{1}, \vec{z}_{2}, \mathcal{P G}}:=\left\{\left(\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]\right):\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A} \vec{r}+m \vec{z}_{1}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]=\left[\mathbf{B} \vec{s}+m \vec{z}_{2}\right]\right\} \subset \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{1}} \times \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{2}}
$$

where $\vec{r} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1}}, \vec{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2}}, m \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}, \vec{z}_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell_{1}}, \vec{z}_{1} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$ and $\vec{z}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell_{2}}, \vec{z}_{2} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{B})$. This corresponds to proving equality of plaintexts of two ciphertexts encrypted under $p k_{A}, p k_{B}$. We emphasize that the plaintext is the group element $[m] \in \mathbb{G}$ and not $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$.

Setup. At the setup stage, some group $\mathcal{P G}=\left(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_{T}, q, e, \mathcal{P}\right) \leftarrow \operatorname{PGen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ is specified.
Common reference string. The common reference string $\sigma$ specifies $[\mathbf{U}]=\left(\left[\vec{u}_{1}, \ldots, \vec{u}_{k_{1}+1}\right]\right)$ and $[\mathbf{V}]=$ $\left(\left[\vec{v}_{1}, \ldots, \vec{v}_{k_{2}+1}\right]\right)$, which are

$$
([\mathbf{U}],[\mathbf{V}])= \begin{cases}\left(\left[\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}_{1}\right],\left[\mathbf{B} \| \mathbf{B} \vec{w}_{2}\right]\right) & \text { soundness setting } \\ \left(\left[\mathbf{A} \| \mathbf{A} \vec{w}_{1}-\vec{z}_{1}\right],\left[\mathbf{B} \| \mathbf{B} \vec{w}_{2}-\vec{z}_{2}\right]\right) & \text { WI setting }\end{cases}
$$

where $\vec{w}_{1} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1}}, \vec{w}_{2} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2}}, \vec{z}_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell_{1}}, \vec{z}_{1} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{A})$ and $\vec{z}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell_{2}}, \vec{z}_{2} \notin \operatorname{Im}(\mathbf{B})$. The common reference string is $\sigma:=\left(\mathcal{P G},[\mathbf{U}],[\mathbf{V}], \vec{z}_{1}, \vec{z}_{2}\right)$.
Simulation trapdoor. In the WI setting, the trapdoor is $\tau=\left(\vec{w}_{1}, \vec{w}_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2}}$.
Prover. On input the common reference string $\sigma,\left(\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]\right) \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \vec{z}_{1}, \vec{z}_{2}, \mathcal{P G}}$ and the witness $(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) \in$ $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2}}$, pick $\mathbf{T} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\left(k_{1}+1\right) \times\left(k_{2}+1\right)}$ and return

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[\mathbf{\Pi}] } & =\left[\vec{z}_{2}\left(\vec{r}^{\top}, 0\right)-\mathbf{V} \mathbf{T}^{\top}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{2} \times\left(k_{1}+1\right)} \\
{[\boldsymbol{\Theta}] } & =\left[-\vec{z}_{1}\left(\vec{s}^{\top}, 0\right)+\mathbf{U T}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{1} \times\left(k_{2}+1\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Verifier. On input $\mathcal{P G}, \sigma,\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]$ the verifier checks if

$$
\left[\vec{c}_{A} \vec{z}_{2}^{\top}-\vec{z}_{1}^{\top} \vec{c}_{B}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\top}+\boldsymbol{\Theta} \mathbf{V}^{\top}\right]_{T}
$$

Simulator. On input $\mathcal{P G}, \sigma,\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right], \tau=\left(\vec{w}_{1}, \vec{w}_{2}\right)$ the simulator picks $\mathbf{T} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\left(k_{1}+1\right) \times\left(k_{2}+1\right)}$ and returns

$$
\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\mathrm{sim}}\right]=\left[-\vec{c}_{B}\left(\vec{w}_{1}^{\top},-1\right)-\mathbf{V} \mathbf{T}^{\top}\right], \quad\left[\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{\mathrm{sim}}\right]=\left[\vec{c}_{A}\left(\vec{w}_{2}^{\top},-1\right)+\mathbf{U T}\right]
$$

Proof. (Proof of Theorem 12) First, it is clear that under the $\mathcal{D}_{\ell, k}-\mathrm{MDDH}$ Assumption, the soundness and the WI setting are computationally indistinguishable.
Perfect completeness. Note that the ciphertexts can be written as:

$$
\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right]=\left[\mathbf{U}\binom{\vec{r}}{0}+m \vec{z}_{1}\right], \quad\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]=\left[\mathbf{V}\binom{\vec{s}}{0}+m \vec{z}_{2}\right],
$$

therefore, the left term of the equation is of the form:

$$
\left[\vec{c}_{A} \vec{z}_{2}^{\top}-\vec{z}_{1} \vec{c}_{B}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{U}\binom{\vec{r}}{0} \vec{z}_{2}^{\top}-\vec{z}_{1}^{\top}\left(\vec{s}^{\top}, 0\right) \mathbf{V}^{\top}+m\left(\vec{z}_{1} \vec{z}_{2}^{\top}-\vec{z}_{1} \vec{z}_{2}^{\top}\right)\right]_{T}=\left[\mathbf{U}\binom{\vec{r}}{0} \vec{z}_{2}^{\top}-\vec{z}_{1}^{\top}\left(\vec{s}^{\top}, 0\right) \mathbf{V}^{\top}\right]_{T}
$$

from which it can easily be seen that an honestly generated proof satisfies the verification equation.
Perfect soundness. Let $\vec{\xi}_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell_{1}}$ be any vector such that $\vec{\xi}_{1}^{\top} \mathbf{A}=\overrightarrow{0}, \overrightarrow{\xi_{1}} \vec{z}_{1}=1$ and let $\vec{\xi}_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell_{2}}$ be any vector such that $\vec{\xi}_{2}^{\top} \mathbf{B}=\overrightarrow{0}, \vec{\xi}_{2}^{\top} \vec{z}_{2}=1$. Let $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}]$ be any proof that satisfies the verification equation. In the soundness setting, the verification equation holds if and only if

$$
\vec{\xi}_{1}^{\top}\left[\vec{c}_{A} \vec{z}_{2}^{\top}-\vec{z}_{1}^{\top} \vec{c}_{B}^{\top}\right]_{T} \vec{\xi}_{2}=\vec{\xi}_{1}^{\top}\left[\mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Pi}^{\top}+\mathbf{\Theta} \mathbf{V}^{\top}\right]_{T} \vec{\xi}_{2}
$$

from which it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\left(\vec{\xi}_{1}^{\top} \vec{c}_{A}\right)-\left(\vec{c}_{B}^{\top} \vec{\xi}_{2}\right)\right]_{T}=[0]_{T} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

which implies that $\vec{\xi}_{1}^{\top} \vec{c}_{A}=\vec{c}_{B}^{\top} \vec{\xi}_{2}$. Since this holds for any possible $\vec{\xi}_{1}, \vec{\xi}_{2}$ meeting the aforementioned conditions, one can easily conclude that $m_{1}=m_{2}$, as required.
Composable zero-knowledge Clearly, an honestly generated proof also satisfies the verification equation in the WI setting. On the other hand, a simulated proof satisfies the verification equation, since,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\vec{c}_{A} \vec{z}_{2}^{\top}-\vec{z}_{1} \vec{c}_{B}^{\top}\right]_{T}=\left[\vec{c}_{A}\left(\mathbf{V}\left(\vec{w}_{2}^{\top},-1\right)^{\top}\right)^{\top}-\mathbf{U}\left(\vec{w}_{1}^{\top},-1\right)^{\top} \vec{c}_{B}^{\top}\right]_{T}=} \\
& =\left[\left(\vec{c}_{A}\left(\vec{w}_{2}^{\top},-1\right)+\mathbf{U T}\right) \mathbf{V}^{\top}\right]_{T}-\left[\mathbf{U}\left(\left(\vec{w}_{1}^{\top},-1\right)^{\top} \vec{c}_{B}^{\top}-\mathbf{T} \mathbf{V}^{\top}\right)\right]_{T},
\end{aligned}
$$

for any $\mathbf{T} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\left(k_{1}+1\right) \times\left(k_{2}+1\right)}$. In the WI setting, $\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{z}_{1}\right] \in \operatorname{Span}\left(\left[\vec{u}_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[\vec{u}_{k_{1}+1}\right]\right)$ and $\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right],\left[\vec{z}_{2}\right] \in \operatorname{Span}\left(\left[\vec{v}_{1}\right]\right.$, $\ldots,\left[\vec{v}_{k_{2}+1}\right]$ ). In either case (real or simulated), the matrix $\mathbf{T}$ is random, so we can think of $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ as uniformly distributed. On the other hand, for any fixed $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$, any two proofs $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}],\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\prime}\right]$ which satisfy the verification equation, it must hold that $0=\left[\mathbf{U}\left(\boldsymbol{\Pi}-\boldsymbol{\Pi}^{\prime}\right)^{\top}\right]$. In the WI setting, since $\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right] \in \operatorname{Span}\left(\left[\vec{v}_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[\vec{v}_{k_{2}+1}\right]\right)$, both for the real and the simulated proof this equation holds if and only if there exists a non-zero matrix $\mathbf{H}$ such that $0=\left[\mathbf{U H V}{ }^{\top}\right]$. Such a matrix does not exist because in the WI setting $\mathbf{U}$ and $\mathbf{V}$ have full rank. Therefore, both for real and simulated proofs, $[\boldsymbol{\Theta}]$ and $[\boldsymbol{\Pi}]$ are uniformly distributed among all the proofs that satisfy the verification equation.

## C.3.1 Efficiency comparison

The size of our proof of membership in $\left(\left[\vec{c}_{A}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{B}\right]\right) \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \vec{z}_{1}, \vec{z}_{2}, \mathcal{P G}}$ for some $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}^{1}, \mathbf{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{2}, k_{2}}^{2}$, is $\ell_{1}\left(k_{2}+1\right)+\ell_{2}\left(k_{1}+1\right)$. The size of a standard proof depends on general of the specific $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \vec{z}_{1}, \vec{z}_{2}$. We discuss several examples of applications below.

Example of application 1. When $\ell_{1}=k_{1}+1, \ell_{2}=k_{2}+1, \vec{z}_{1}^{\top}=(0, \ldots, 0,1) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{1}+1}$ and $\vec{z}_{2}^{\top}=$ $(0, \ldots, 0,1) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k_{2}+1}$ the natural approach is the one described in [26], namely, if we denote by $\mathbf{A}_{0}$ and $\vec{c}_{A, 0}$ the first $k_{1}$ rows of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\vec{c}_{A}, \mathbf{A}_{1}$ and $\vec{c}_{A, 1}$ the last row, by $\mathbf{B}_{0}$ and $\vec{c}_{B, 0}$ the first $k_{2}$ rows of $\mathbf{B}$ and of $\vec{c}_{B}$ and $\mathbf{B}_{1}, \vec{c}_{B, 1}$ the last row, one would prove that the following equations are satisfied

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[\mathbf{A}_{0} \vec{x}\right]=\left[\vec{c}_{A, 0}\right]} \\
{\left[\mathbf{B}_{0} \vec{y}\right]=\left[\vec{c}_{B, 0}\right]} \\
{\left[\mathbf{A}_{1} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}\right]-\left[\mathbf{B}_{1} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}\right]=\left[\vec{c}_{A, 1}\right]-\left[\vec{c}_{B, 1}\right]}
\end{gathered}
$$

That is, one needs to prove that $\left(k_{1}+k_{2}+1\right)$ linear multiscalar multiplication equations are satisfiable with $k_{1}+k_{2}$ variables. Therefore, if one uses an instantiation of GS based on some $\mathcal{D}_{k}$ - MDDH problem, one needs $\left(k_{1}+k_{2}+1\right) k$ group elements for the proof and $\left(k_{1}+k_{2}\right)(k+1)$ group elements for the commitments, whereas in our case we give a total of $2\left(k_{1}+1\right)\left(k_{2}+1\right)$ group elements. For the special case of 2-Lin, with $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{L}_{2}, \mathbf{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{L}_{2}$ a proof based on the 2-Lin instantiation of GS proofs as described in [26] requires thus 22 elements as opposed to 18 . On the other hand, for the encryption scheme of Hofheinz and Jager with tight security reduction to 2 -Lin [23] we need to make a proof for equality of plaintexts written as a pairing product equation. This is because the authors need to convert an OR of sets of pairing product equations into an AND of pairing product equations. In terms of pairing product equations, equality of plaintexts is expressed as

$$
\begin{aligned}
e\left(\left[\mathbf{A}_{0} \vec{x}\right],[1]\right) & =e\left(\left[\vec{c}_{A, 0}\right], 1\right) \\
e\left(\left[\mathbf{B}_{0} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}\right],[1]\right) & =e\left(\left[\vec{c}_{B, 0}\right], 1\right) \\
e\left(\left[\mathbf{A}_{1} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{x}}\right]-\left[\mathbf{B}_{1} \overrightarrow{\mathrm{y}}\right],[1]\right) & =e\left(\left[\vec{c}_{A, 1}-\vec{c}_{B, 1}\right],[1]\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and requires longer proofs, namely $\left(k_{1}+k_{2}+1\right)(k+1)$ group elements for the proof and $\left(k_{1}+k_{2}\right)(k+1)$ for the commitments. In this case, for 2-Lin the proof is reduced from 27 to 18.

## C.3.2 More general relations

We think our results can be extended to give more efficient arguments of knowledge for affine relations among ciphertexts encrypted under more than two different public keys. More specifically, given some ordered sequence of matrices $\mathbf{A}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{A}_{n}$ independently sampled from $\mathcal{D}_{\ell_{1}, k_{1}}^{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{D}_{\ell_{n}, k_{n}}^{m}$, some vectors $\vec{z}_{i}$, $\vec{z}_{i} \notin \operatorname{Im}\left(\mathbf{A}_{i}\right)$, and some ciphertexts $\left[\vec{c}_{i}\right]=\left[\mathbf{A}_{i} \vec{r}_{i}+m_{i} \vec{z}_{i}\right]$, one could use similar techniques to prove that the ciphertexts are such that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{i}\left[m_{i}\right]=[t]$, for some constants $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $[t] \in \mathbb{G}$.

## C. 4 Commitment schemes

The languages for which we have given more efficient proofs in this section arise naturally when one tries to prove statements about ciphertexts, but they naturally extend to more general commitment schemes
(obviously a ciphertext can be seen as a special type of commitment). For instance, in [17], the authors prove that a Cramer Shoup ciphertext encrypts the same value as a Groth-Sahai commitment based on 2-Lin. To get a more efficient proof for this statement or also for the statement that two Groth Sahai commitments based on different matrix assumptions correspond to the same value, we can essentially use the same approach as the one of section 5.3 .

## C. 5 Subgroup membership proofs for 2-Lin

In this section we exemplify our approach from Section 5.1 (Appendix C.1) for the 2-Lin case. Let

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{1} & 0 \\
0 & a_{2} \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right)=\left(\vec{u}_{1}, \vec{u}_{2}\right), \quad \mathbf{A} \leftarrow \mathcal{L}_{2}
$$

and

$$
\left[\mathbf{u}_{3}\right]= \begin{cases}{\left[w_{1} \vec{u}_{1}+w_{2} \vec{u}_{2}+(0,0,1)^{\top}\right]} & \text { binding key (soundness setting) } \\ {\left[w_{1} \vec{u}_{1}+w_{2} \vec{u}_{2}\right]} & \text { hiding key (WI setting) }\end{cases}
$$

for $w_{1}, w_{2} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. We exemplify our new approach for proving membership in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathcal{P G}} \subset \mathbb{G}^{3}$.
Standard Groth-Sahai proof. In the standard approach, used for instance in 30, the prover will show that there are two values $r_{1}, r_{2}$ such that the following equations hold:

$$
\begin{align*}
{\left[r_{1} a_{1}\right] } & =\left[\Phi_{1}\right]  \tag{12}\\
{\left[r_{2} a_{2}\right] } & =\left[\Phi_{2}\right]  \tag{13}\\
{\left[r_{1}+r_{2}\right] } & =\left[\Phi_{3}\right] . \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore, we are in the setting of multiscalar multiplication with $A_{1}=\mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $A_{2}=\mathbb{G}$. The proof consists of the commitments to $r_{1}, r_{2}$, which are two vectors $\left[\vec{c}_{r_{1}}\right],\left[\vec{c}_{r_{2}}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{3}$ such that

$$
\left(\vec{c}_{r_{1}}, \vec{c}_{r_{2}}\right)=\left(\iota^{\prime}\left(r_{1}\right), \iota^{\prime}\left(r_{2}\right)\right)+\mathbf{A}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
s_{11} & s_{12} \\
s_{21} & s_{22}
\end{array}\right)=\left(r_{1} \vec{u}_{3}, r_{2} \vec{u}_{3}\right)+\mathbf{A}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
s_{11} & s_{12} \\
s_{21} & s_{22}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and the vector

$$
\left[\vec{\pi}_{\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right)}\right]=\left[\left(\left(a_{1}, 0\right) \mathbf{S}^{\top},\left(0, a_{2}\right) \mathbf{S}^{\top},(1,1) \mathbf{S}^{\top}\right)\right]=\left(\left[s_{11} a_{1}\right],\left[s_{21} a_{1}\right],\left[s_{12} a_{2}\right],\left[s_{22} a_{2}\right],\left[s_{11}+s_{12}\right],\left[s_{21}+s_{22}\right]\right)
$$

Therefore, in total, the proof requires 12 group elements.
To simulate the proof, we proceed as if we were proving that the equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[r_{1} a_{1}\right] } & =\left[\delta \Phi_{1}\right] \\
{\left[r_{2} a_{2}\right] } & =\left[\delta \Phi_{2}\right] \\
{\left[r_{1}+r_{2}\right] } & =\left[\delta \Phi_{3}\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

are satisfied by the all zero witness, with the commitment to $\delta=0$ being $\left[\iota^{\prime}(1)\right]=\left[\vec{u}_{3}\right]$.
New approach. To construct the proof, the prover needs to sample uniformly at random from the space $\mathcal{H}:=\left\{\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{2 \times 2}: \mathbf{H}+\mathbf{H}^{\top}=\mathbf{0}\right\}$. To sample $\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$, pick a random value $h \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and define $\mathbf{H}=$ $\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & h \\ -h & 0\end{array}\right)$. The proof is then defined as:

$$
[\mathbf{\Pi}]=\left[\vec{u}_{3}\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right)+\mathbf{A H}\right]=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
{\left[r_{1} u_{31}\right]} & {\left[r_{2} u_{31}+h a_{1}\right]} \\
{\left[r_{1} u_{32}-a_{2} h\right]} & {\left[r_{2} u_{32}\right]} \\
{\left[r_{1} u_{33}-h\right]} & {\left[r_{2} u_{33}+h\right]}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The proof consists of 6 group elements, as claimed.
For simulation, we sample some $\mathbf{H}^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$ as before and we define:

$$
\left[\boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\text {sim }}\right]=\left[\vec{\Phi}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)+\mathbf{A H}^{\prime}\right] .
$$

## D Concrete Examples from the $k$-SCasc Assumption

As we promote the $k$-SCasc Assumption as a replacement of the $k$-Lin Assumption, we give two concrete instantiations of a KEM and a PRF based on it.

## D. 1 Key Encapsulation

We build a $\mathrm{KEM}_{\mathrm{Gen}, \mathcal{S C}_{k}}$ from $k$-SCasc (Example 4).

- $\operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ runs $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ and picks $a \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. The public/secret-key is

$$
p k=(\mathcal{G},([a]) \in \mathbb{G}), \quad s k=a \in \mathbb{Z}_{q} .
$$

- Enc ${ }_{p k}$ picks $\vec{w} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$. The ciphertext/key pair is

$$
[\vec{c}]=\left(\left[a w_{1}\right],\left[w_{1}+a w_{2}\right] \ldots,\left[w_{k-1}+a w_{k}\right]\right)^{T} \in \mathbb{G}^{k}, \quad[K]=\left[w_{k}\right] \in \mathbb{G} .
$$

- $\operatorname{Dec}_{s k}\left([\vec{c}] \in \mathbb{G}^{k}\right)$ recomputes the key as

$$
[K]=\left[\vec{x}^{\top} \vec{c}\right] \in \mathbb{G}
$$

where the transformation vector $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$ is computed from $a$ as $x_{i}=\frac{(-1)^{k-i}}{a^{k-i}}$ (such that $\vec{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A}_{0}=$ $(0, \ldots, 0,1)^{T}$ where $\mathbf{A}_{0}$ consists of the top $k$ rows of matrix $\mathbf{A}$ from Example 4).

Security of $\mathrm{KEM}_{\mathrm{Gen}, \mathcal{S C}_{k}}$ follows from Theorem 8. Note that the size of the public/secret key is constant, compared to linear (in $k$ ) for the $k$-Lin-based KEM [24, 40]. The ciphertext size remains the same, however.

## D. 2 Pseudo-random function

We build $\mathrm{PRF}_{G e n, \mathcal{S C}_{k}}=($ Gen, F$)$ from $k$-SCasc.

- Gen $\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ runs $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ and picks $a_{i, j} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq k$ and $\vec{h} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k}$. The secret-key is $K=\left(\left(a_{i, j}\right), \vec{h}\right)$.
- $\mathrm{F}_{K}(x)$ computes

$$
\mathrm{F}_{K}(x)=\left[\prod_{i: x_{i}=1} \mathbf{T}_{i} \cdot \vec{h}\right] \in \mathbb{G}^{k}
$$

where

$$
\mathbf{T}_{i}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
\frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{a_{i, 1}^{k}} & \cdots & \frac{-1}{a_{i, 1}^{2}} & \frac{1}{a_{i, 1}} \\
\vdots & & \vdots & \\
\frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{a_{i, k}^{k}} & \cdots & \frac{-1}{a_{i, k}^{2}} & \frac{1}{a_{i, k}}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{k \times k}
$$

where the transformation matrices $\mathbf{T}_{i, j}$ of $\mathbf{A}_{i, j} \leftarrow \mathcal{S} \mathcal{C}_{k}$ are the row vectors of $\mathbf{T}_{i}$. Security of $\mathrm{PRF}_{\mathrm{Gen}, \mathcal{S C}}^{k}$ follows from Theorem 9. Note that the size of the secret-key $K$ is $n k$, compared to $n k^{2}$ for the $k$-Lin-based PRF 6].


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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ see Lem. 18 in Appendix B

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ If $\mathbf{A}$ has full-rank (that happens with overwhelming probability) then $\mathbf{L A R}$ is uniformly distributed in the set of full-rank matrices in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$, which implies that it is close to uniform in $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{\ell \times k}$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ Strictly speaking, only those polynomially many elements ever appearing even have a well-defined representation. Note that $Q$ is infinite.

[^4]:    ${ }^{4}$ A detailed comparison for 2-Lin case is given in Appendix C.5 The same results hold for the Symmetric 2-cascade assumption.

