

Security Proof of Sakai-Kasahara's Identity-Based Encryption Scheme

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Abstract. Identity-based encryption (IBE) is a special asymmetric encryption method where a public encryption key can be an arbitrary identifier and the corresponding private decryption key is created by binding the identifier with a system's master secret. In 2003 Sakai and Kasahara proposed a new IBE scheme, which has the potential to improve performance. However, to our best knowledge, the security of their scheme has not been properly investigated. This work is intended to build confidence in the security of the Sakai-Kasahara IBE scheme. In this paper, we first present an efficient IBE scheme that employs a simple version of the Sakai-Kasahara scheme and the Fujisaki-Okamoto transformation, which we refer to as SK-IBE. We then prove that SK-IBE has chosen ciphertext security in the random oracle model based on a reasonably well-explored hardness assumption.

1 Introduction

Shamir in 1984 [33] first formulated the concept of Identity-Based Cryptography (IBC) in which a public and private key pair are set up in a special way, i.e., the public key is the identifier (an arbitrary string) of an entity, and the corresponding private key is created by binding the identifier with a master secret of a trusted authority (called key generation center). In the same paper, Shamir provided the first identity-based key setting that was based on the RSA problem, and presented an identity-based signature scheme. By using varieties of the Shamir key setting, more identity-based signature schemes and key agreement schemes were proposed (e.g., [22, 23]). However, constructing a practical Identity-Based Encryption (IBE) scheme remained an open problem for many years.

An IBE scheme following Shamir's formulation consists of four algorithms: (1) **Setup** generates a master public/private key pair with public system parameters; (2) **Extract** uses the master private key to generate a user private key corresponding to an arbitrary string that is an identity as well as a public key of the user; (3) **Encrypt** encrypts a message using the user public key and the master public key; and (4) **Decrypt** decrypts the message using the user private key and the master public key. One of the difficulties of such construction has

been finding a suitable key setting which binds the master private key with an arbitrary identity (in **Extract**), so that the generated user private key can be used in **Decrypt** if and only if the identity string and the master public key have been included in **Encrypt**.

After nearly twenty years, Boneh and Franklin [4], Cocks [16] and Sakai *et al.* [30] presented three IBE solutions in 2001. The Cocks solution is based on the quadratic residuosity. Both the Boneh and Franklin solution and the Sakai *et al.* solution are based on bilinear pairings on elliptic curves [34], and the security of their schemes is based on the Bilinear Diffie-Hellman (BDH) problem [4]. Their schemes are efficient in practice. Boneh and Franklin defined a well-formulated security model for IBE in [4]. The Boneh-Franklin scheme (BF-IBE for short) has received much attention owing to the fact that it was the first IBE scheme to have a proof of security in an appropriate model.

Both BF-IBE and the Sakai *et al.* IBE solution have very similar key settings, in which an identity string is mapped to a point on an elliptic curve and then the corresponding private key is computed by multiplying the mapped point with the master private key that is a random integer. This key setting algorithm was first shown in Sakai *et al.*'s work [29] in 2000 as the preparation step of a key establishment protocol. Apart from BF-IBE and the Sakai *et al.* IBE scheme [30], many other identity-based cryptographic primitives have made use of this key setting, such as the signature schemes [11, 21], the authenticated key agreement schemes [12, 35], and the signcryption schemes [8, 13]. The security of these schemes were scrutinized (although some errors in a few reductions were pointed out recently but fixed as well, e.g., [15, 19]).

Based on the same tool (bilinear pairing), Sakai and Kasahara presented a new IBE scheme by using another identity-based key setting in 2003 [28]. This key setting can be tracked back to the work in 2002 [27] (we refer to this as the SK key setting). This key setting has the potential to improve performance, in which, an identity is mapped to an element h of the cyclic group \mathbb{Z}_q^* instead of a point on an elliptic curve. The corresponding private key is generated as follows: first, compute the inverse of the sum of the master key (a random integer from \mathbb{Z}_q^*) and the mapped h ; secondly, multiply a point of the elliptic curve (which is the generator of an order q subgroup of the group of points on the curve) with the inverse (obtained in the first step). After that, a number of other identity-based schemes based on the SK key setting were also put forward, such as [25, 26]. As a result of using the SK key setting these schemes are very efficient.

However, these schemes are either unproved or their security proof is problematic (e.g., [14]). While, in modern cryptography, a carefully scrutinized security reduction in a formal security model to a hardness assumption is necessary for any cryptographic scheme. Towards this direction, this work is intended to build confidence in the security of the Sakai and Kasahara IBE scheme.

The remaining part of the paper is organized as follows. In next section, we recall the existing primitive, some related assumptions and the IBE security model. In Section 3, we first employ a simple version of the Sakai and Kasahara IBE scheme from [28] and the Fujisaki-Okamoto transformation [17] to present

an efficient IBE scheme (we refer to it as SK-IBE). We then prove that SK-IBE has chosen ciphertext security in the random oracle model. Our proof is based on a reasonably well-explored hardness assumption. In Section 4, we show some possible improvements of SK-IBE, both on security and performance. In Section 5, we compare SK-IBE with the existing IND-ID-CCA secure pairing-based IBE schemes, including BF-IBE. We conclude the paper in Section 6.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we recall the existing primitives, including bilinear pairings, some related assumptions and the security model of IBE.

2.1 Bilinear Groups and Some Assumptions

Here we review the necessary facts about bilinear maps and the associated groups using a similar notation of [5].

- \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T are cyclic groups of prime order q .
- P_1 is a generator of \mathbb{G}_1 and P_2 is a generator of \mathbb{G}_2 .
- ψ is an isomorphism from \mathbb{G}_2 to \mathbb{G}_1 with $\psi(P_2) = P_1$.
- \hat{e} is a map $\hat{e} : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$.

The map \hat{e} must have the following properties.

Bilinear: For all $P \in \mathbb{G}_1$, all $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$ and all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have $\hat{e}(aP, bQ) = \hat{e}(P, Q)^{ab}$.

Non-degenerate: $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2) \neq 1$.

Computable: There is an efficient algorithm to compute $\hat{e}(P, Q)$ for all $P \in \mathbb{G}_1$ and $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$.

Note that following [36], we can either assume that ψ is efficiently computable or make our security proof relative to some oracle which computes ψ .

Many pairing-based schemes are constructed based on the following Bilinear Diffie-Hellman (BDH) assumption and Decisional Bilinear Diffie-Hellman (DBDH) assumption.

Assumption 1 (BDH [4]) For $x, y, z \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, $P_2 \in \mathbb{G}_2^*$, $P_1 = \psi(P_2)$, $\hat{e} : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$, given $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, yP_2, zP_2 \rangle$, to compute $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{xyz}$ is hard.

Assumption 2 (DBDH) For $x, y, z, r \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, $P_2 \in \mathbb{G}_2^*$, $P_1 = \psi(P_2)$, $\hat{e} : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$, to distinguish between the distributions $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, yP_2, zP_2, \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{xyz} \rangle$ and $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, yP_2, zP_2, \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^r \rangle$ is hard.

There are a batch of related assumptions. Some of them have already been used in the literature and some are new variants. We list them below and show how they are related to each other, which may be of interest to readers. We also correct a minor inaccuracy in stating an assumption in the literature. Recently it has come to our attention that some other related assumptions were discussed in [39].

We use a unified naming method; in particular, provided that X stands for an assumption, sX stands for a stronger assumption of X , which implies that the problem corresponding to sX would be easier than the problem corresponding to X .

Assumption 3 (k-DHI (also called k-wDHA) [27]) For an integer k , and $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, generator P of a cyclic group \mathbb{G} with order q , given $\langle P, xP, x^2P, \dots, x^kP \rangle$, to compute $\frac{1}{x}P$ is hard.

As a special case proved in [27], **1-DHI** (find $1/xP$ given $\langle P, xP \rangle$) exists if and only if **DH** (find abP given $\langle P, aP, bP \rangle$) exists.

Assumption 4 (k-CAA1) For an integer k , and $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, generator P of a cyclic group \mathbb{G} with order q , given $\langle P, xP, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+x}P), \dots, (h_k, \frac{1}{h_k+x}P) \rangle$ where $h_i \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and different from each other for $0 \leq i \leq k$, to compute $\frac{1}{h_0+x}P$ is hard.

Theorem 1 If there exists a polynomial time algorithm to solve $(k-1)$ -DHI, then there exists a polynomial time algorithm for k -CAA1. If there exists a polynomial time algorithm to solve $(k-1)$ -CAA1, then there exists a polynomial time algorithm for k -DHI.

The proof is presented in Appendix A.

Assumption 5 (k-CAA2 [27]) For an integer k , and $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, generator P of a cyclic group \mathbb{G} with order q , given $\langle P, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+x}P), \dots, (h_k, \frac{1}{h_k+x}P) \rangle$ where $h_i \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and different from each other for $0 \leq i \leq k$, to compute $\frac{1}{h_0+x}P$ is hard.

Remark 1 Mitsunari et al. established the relation between k -CAA2 and k -DHI (also called k -wDHA) in [27], while in the definition of k -CAA2 the value h_0 was not given as input. However, when consulting their proof of Theorem 3.5 [27], we note that h_0 has to be given as part of the problem.

Theorem 2 ([27]) There exists a polynomial time algorithm to solve $(k-1)$ -DHI if and only there exists a polynomial time algorithm for k -CAA2.

Assumption 6 (k-sCAA1 [40]) For an integer k , and $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, generator P of a cyclic group \mathbb{G} with order q , given $\langle P, xP, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+x}P), \dots, (h_k, \frac{1}{h_k+x}P) \rangle$ where $h_i \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and different from each other for $1 \leq i \leq k$, to compute $(h, \frac{1}{h+x}P)$ for some $h \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ but $h \notin \{h_1, \dots, h_k\}$ is hard.

Remark 2 Zhang et al.'s short signature proof [40] and Mitsunari et al.'s traitor tracing scheme [27] used this assumption. However, the traitor tracing scheme was broken by Tô et al. in [37] because it was found to be in fact based on a "slightly" different assumption, which does not require to output the value of h . Obviously, if one does not have to demonstrate that he knows the value of h , the problem is not hard. He can simply choose a random element from \mathbb{G} that is not shown in the problem as the answer, because \mathbb{G} is of prime order q and any $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ satisfies $r = \frac{1}{h+x} \pmod q$ for some h .

Assumption 7 (k-sDH [2]) For an integer k , and $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, generator P of a cyclic group \mathbb{G} with order q , given $\langle P, xP, x^2P, \dots, x^kP \rangle$, to compute $(h, \frac{1}{h+x}P)$ where $h \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ is hard.

Theorem 3 If there exists a polynomial time algorithm to solve $(k-1)$ -sCAA1, then there exists a polynomial time algorithm for k -sDH. If there exists a polynomial time algorithm to solve $(k-1)$ -sDH, then there exists a polynomial time algorithm for k -sCAA1.

The proof is presented in Appendix B.

Assumption 8 ((k+1)-EP [40]) For an integer k , and $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, generator P of a cyclic group \mathbb{G} with order q , given $\langle P, xP, x^2P, \dots, x^kP \rangle$, to compute $x^{k+1}P$ is hard.

Theorem 4 ([40]) There exists a polynomial time algorithm to solve k -DHI if and only if there exists a polynomial time algorithm for $(k+1)$ -EP.

Assumption 9 (k-BDHI [1]) For an integer k , and $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, $P_2 \in \mathbb{G}_2^*$, $P_1 = \psi(P_2)$, $\hat{e} : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$, given $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, x^2P_2, \dots, x^kP_2 \rangle$, to compute $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{1/x}$ is hard.

Assumption 10 (k-DBDHI) For an integer k , and $x, r \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, $P_2 \in \mathbb{G}_2^*$, $P_1 = \psi(P_2)$, $\hat{e} : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$, to distinguish between the distributions $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, x^2P_2, \dots, x^kP_2, \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{1/x} \rangle$ and $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, x^2P_2, \dots, x^kP_2, \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^r \rangle$ is hard.

Assumption 11 (k-BCAA1) For an integer k , and $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, $P_2 \in \mathbb{G}_2^*$, $P_1 = \psi(P_2)$, $\hat{e} : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$, given $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+x}P_2), \dots, (h_k, \frac{1}{h_k+x}P_2) \rangle$ where $h_i \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and different from each other for $0 \leq i \leq k$, to compute $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{1/(x+h_0)}$ is hard.

Theorem 5 If there exists a polynomial time algorithm to solve $(k-1)$ -BDHI, then there exists a polynomial time algorithm for k -BCAA1. If there exists a polynomial time algorithm to solve $(k-1)$ -BCAA1, then there exists a polynomial time algorithm for k -BDHI.

The proof is presented in Appendix C.

The relation among these assumptions can be described by Fig. 1, in which symbol $k\text{-A} \rightarrow k\text{-B}$ implies that if $k\text{-A}$ is polynomial-time solvable, so is $k\text{-B}$; symbol $k\text{-A} \dashrightarrow k\text{-B}$ implies that if $(k-1)\text{-A}$ is polynomial-time solvable, so is $k\text{-B}$. In the literature, the decisional k -BDHI (k -DBDHI) was used in [1] to construct a selective-identity secure IBE scheme (see next section for definition) without random oracles [6] and k -sDH is used to construct a short signature [2] without random oracles, while k -sCAA1 is used by [40] to construct a short signature with random oracles and to build a traitor tracing scheme [27].

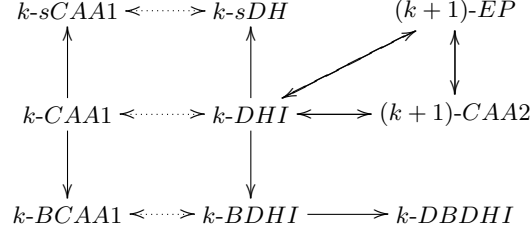


Fig. 1. Relation Among The Assumptions

2.2 Security Model of Identity-Based Encryption

The security of an IBE scheme is defined by the following game between a challenger and an adversary formalized in [4].

- Setup. The challenger takes a security parameter k and runs the Setup algorithm. It gives the adversary the resulting system parameters **params** and keeps the **master-key** to itself.
- Phase 1. The adversary issues queries as one of follows:
 - Extraction query on ID_i . The challenger runs algorithm Extract to generate the private key d_{ID_i} and passes it to the adversary.
 - Decryption query on $\langle ID_i, C_i \rangle$. The challenger decrypts the ciphertext by finding d_{ID_i} first (through running Extract if necessary), and then running Decrypt algorithm. It responds with the resulting plaintext.
- Challenge. Once the adversary decides that Phase 1 is over, it outputs two equal length plaintexts $m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}$, where \mathcal{M} is the message space, and an identity ID_{ch} on which it wishes to be challenged. The only constraint is that ID_{ch} did not appear in any Extraction query in Phase 1. The challenger picks a random bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$ and sets $C^* = \text{Encrypt}(\text{params}, ID_{ch}, m_b)$. It sends C^* as the challenge to the adversary.
- Phase 2. The adversary issues more queries as in Phase 1 but with two restrictions: (1) Extraction query cannot be issued on ID_{ch} ; (2) Decryption query cannot be issued on $\langle ID_{ch}, C^* \rangle$.
- Guess. Finally, the adversary outputs a guess $b' \in \{0, 1\}$ and wins the game if $b' = b$.

We refer to this type of adversary as an IND-ID-CCA adversary. If the adversary cannot ask decryption queries, we call it an IND-ID-CPA adversary. The advantage of an IND-ID-CCA adversary \mathcal{A} against an IBE scheme \mathcal{E} is the function of security parameter k : $Adv_{\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{A}}(k) = |Pr[b' = b] - 1/2|$.

Definition 1 *An identity-based encryption scheme \mathcal{E} is IND-ID-CCA secure if for any IND-ID-CCA adversary, $Adv_{\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{A}}(k)$ is negligible.*

Canetti *et al.* formulated a weaker IBE notion, selective-identity adaptive chosen ciphertext attacks secure scheme (IND-sID-CCA for short), in which, an

adversary has to commit the identity on which it wants to be challenged before it sees the public system parameters [9]. While, the latest work [20] shows this formulation is too weak for identity-based encryption.

3 SK-IBE

In this section, we investigate the security strength of SK-IBE, which uses the SK key setting. We choose the simplest variant of the Sakai and Kasahara IBE scheme [28] as the basic version of SK-IBE. This basic version was also described by Scott in [31]. To achieve security against adaptive chosen ciphertext attacks, we make use of the Fujisaki-Okamoto transformation [17] as it was used in BF-IBE [4].

3.1 Scheme

Following Shamir's IBE formulation, SK-IBE consists of four algorithms: **Setup**, **Extract**, **Encrypt** and **Decrypt**.

Setup. Given a security parameter k , the parameter generator follows the steps.

1. Generate three cyclic groups \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T of prime order q , an isomorphism ψ , and a bilinear pairing map $\hat{e} : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$. Pick a random generator $P_2 \in \mathbb{G}_2^*$ and set $P_1 = \psi(P_2)$.
2. Pick a random $s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and compute $P_{pub} = sP_1$.
3. Pick four cryptographic hash functions $H_1 : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, $H_2 : \mathbb{G}_T \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$, $H_3 : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and $H_4 : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ for some integer $n > 0$.

The message space is $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^n$. The ciphertext space is $\mathcal{C} = \mathbb{G}_1^* \times \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n$. The system parameters are **params** = $\langle q, \mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, \psi, \hat{e}, n, P_1, P_2, P_{pub}, H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4 \rangle$. s is the **master-key** of the system.

Extract. Given a string $ID_A \in \{0, 1\}^*$, **params** and the **master-key**, the algorithm returns $d_A = \frac{1}{s + H_1(ID_A)} P_2$.

Remark 3 *The result of the SK key setting is a short signature d_A on the identity string ID_A signed under the private signing key s . As proved in Theorem 3 of [40], this short signature is secure against adaptive chosen message attacks in the secure signature notation by Bellare and Rogaway [7] provided that the **k-sCAA1** assumption is sound in \mathbb{G}_2 .*

Encrypt. Given a plaintext $m \in \mathcal{M}$, the identity ID_A of entity A and the system parameters **params**, the following steps are performed.

1. Pick a random $\sigma \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and compute $r = H_3(\sigma, m)$.
2. Compute $Q_A = H_1(ID_A)P_1 + P_{pub}$, $g^r = \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^r$.
3. Set the ciphertext to $C = \langle rQ_A, \sigma \oplus H_2(g^r), m \oplus H_4(\sigma) \rangle$.

Remark 4 By taking the advantage of the SK key setting, the pairing $g = \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)$ is fixed and can be pre-computed. It can further be treated as a system public parameter. Therefore, no pairing computation is required in **Encrypt**.

Decrypt. Given a ciphertext $\langle U, V, W \rangle \in \mathcal{C}$, the identity ID_A , the private key d_A and **params**, follow the steps:

1. Compute $g' = \hat{e}(U, d_A)$ and $\sigma' = V \oplus H_2(g')$
2. Compute $m' = W \oplus H_4(\sigma')$ and $r' = H_3(\sigma', m')$.
3. If $U \neq r'(H_1(ID_A)P_1 + P_{pub})$, output \perp , else return m' as the plaintext.

3.2 Security of SK-IBE

Now we evaluate the security of SK-IBE. We prove that the security of SK-IBE can reduce to the hardness of the k-BDHI problem. The reduction is similar to the proof of BF-IBE [4]. However, we will take into account the error in Lemma 4.6 of [4] corrected by Galindo [19].

Theorem 6 *SK-IBE is secure against IND-ID-CCA adversaries provided that $H_i (1 \leq i \leq 4)$ are random oracles and the k-BDHI assumption is sound. Specifically, suppose there exists an IND-ID-CCA adversary \mathcal{A} against SK-IBE that has advantage $\epsilon(k)$ and running time $t(k)$. Suppose also that during the attack \mathcal{A} makes at most q_D decryption queries and at most q_i queries on H_i for $1 \leq i \leq 4$ respectively. Then there exists an algorithm \mathcal{B} to solve the q_1 -BDHI problem with advantage $Adv_{\mathcal{B}}(k)$ and running time $t_{\mathcal{B}}(k)$ where*

$$\begin{aligned} Adv_{\mathcal{B}}(k) &\geq \frac{1}{q_2(q_3+q_4)} \left[\left(\frac{\epsilon(k)}{q_1} + 1 \right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{q} \right)^{q_D} - 1 \right] \\ t_{\mathcal{B}}(k) &\leq t(k) + O((q_3 + q_4) \cdot (n + \log q) + q_D \cdot \mathcal{T}_1 + q_1^2 \cdot \mathcal{T}_2 + q_D \cdot \chi) \end{aligned}$$

where χ is the time of computing pairing, \mathcal{T}_i is the time of a scalar operation in \mathbb{G}_i , and q is the order of \mathbb{G}_1 and n is the length of σ . We assume the computation complexity of ψ is trivial.

Proof: The theorem follows immediately by combining Lemma 1, 2 and 3. The reduction with three steps can be sketched as follow. First we prove that if there exists an (IND-ID-CCA) adversary, who is able to break SK-IBE by launching the adaptive chosen ciphertext attacks as defined in the security model of Section 2.2, then there exists an (IND-CCA) adversary to break the **BasicPub^{hy}** scheme defined in Lemma 1 with the adaptive chosen ciphertext attacks. Second, if such adversary exists, then we show (in Lemma 2) that there must be an (IND-CPA) adversary that breaks the corresponding **BasicPub** scheme by merely launching the chosen plaintext attacks. Finally, in Lemma 3 we prove that if the **BasicPub** scheme is not secure against an IND-CPA adversary, then the corresponding k-BDHI assumption is flawed. \square

Lemma 1 *Suppose that H_1 is a random oracle and that there exists an IND-ID-CCA adversary \mathcal{A} against SK-IBE with advantage $\epsilon(k)$ which makes at most q_1*

distinct queries to H_1 (note that H_1 can be queried directly by \mathcal{A} or indirectly by an extraction query, a decryption query or the challenge operation). Then there exists an IND-CCA adversary \mathcal{B} which runs in time $O(\text{time}(\mathcal{A}) + q_D \cdot (\chi + \mathcal{T}_1))$ against the following **BasicPub^{hy}** scheme with advantage at least $\epsilon(k)/q_1$ where χ is the time of computing pairing and \mathcal{T}_1 is the time of a scalar operation in \mathbb{G}_1 .

BasicPub^{hy} is specified by three algorithms: **keygen**, **encrypt** and **decrypt**.

keygen: Given a security parameter k , the parameter generator follows the steps.

1. Identical with step 1 in Setup algorithm of SK-IBE.
2. Pick a random $s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and compute $P_{pub} = sP_1$. Randomly choose different elements $h_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and compute $\frac{1}{h_i+s}P_2$ for $0 \leq i < q_1$.
3. Pick three cryptographic hash functions: $H_2 : \mathbb{G}_T \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$, $H_3 : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and $H_4 : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ for some integer $n > 0$.

The message space is $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^n$. The ciphertext space is $\mathcal{C} = \mathbb{G}_1^* \times \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n$. The public **params** is $K_{pub} = \langle q, \mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, \psi, \hat{e}, n, P_1, P_2, P_{pub}, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+s}P_2), \dots, (h_i, \frac{1}{h_i+s}P_2), \dots, (h_{q_1-1}, \frac{1}{h_{q_1-1}+s}P_2), H_2, H_3, H_4 \rangle$ and the private key is $d_A = \frac{1}{h_0+s}P_2$.

encrypt: Given a plaintext $m \in \mathcal{M}$, and the public **params**,

1. Pick a random $\sigma \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and compute $r = H_3(\sigma, m)$, and $g^r = \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^r$.
2. Set the ciphertext to $C = \langle r(h_0P_1 + P_{pub}), \sigma \oplus H_2(g^r), m \oplus H_4(\sigma) \rangle$.

decrypt: Given a ciphertext $C = \langle U, V, W \rangle$, the public **params**, and the private key d_A , follow the steps.

1. Compute $g' = \hat{e}(U, d_A)$ and $\sigma' = V \oplus H_2(g')$,
2. Compute $m' = W \oplus H_4(\sigma')$ and $r' = H_3(\sigma', m')$,
3. If $U \neq r'(h_0P_1 + P_{pub})$, reject the ciphertext, else return m' as the plaintext.

Proof: We construct an IND-CCA adversary \mathcal{B} that uses \mathcal{A} to gain advantage against **BasicPub^{hy}**. The game between a challenger \mathcal{D} and the adversary \mathcal{B} starts with the challenger first generating a random public **params** by running algorithm **keygen** of **BasicPub^{hy}** ($\log q_1$ is part of the security parameter of **BasicPub^{hy}**). The result is the public **params** $K_{pub} = \langle q, \mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, \psi, \hat{e}, n, P_1, P_2, P_{pub}, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+s}P_2), \dots, (h_i, \frac{1}{h_i+s}P_2), \dots, (h_{q_1-1}, \frac{1}{h_{q_1-1}+s}P_2), H_2, H_3, H_4 \rangle$, where $P_{pub} = sP_1$ with $s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, and the private key $d_A = \frac{1}{h_0+s}P_2$. The challenger passes K_{pub} to adversary \mathcal{B} . Adversary \mathcal{B} mounts an IND-CCA attack on the **BasicPub^{hy}** scheme with **params** K_{pub} using the help of \mathcal{A} as follows.

\mathcal{B} chooses an index I with $1 \leq I \leq q_1$ and simulates the algorithm **Setup** of SK-IBE for \mathcal{A} by supplying \mathcal{A} with the SK-IBE public **params** $= \langle q, \mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, \psi, \hat{e}, n, P_1, P_2, P_{pub}, H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4 \rangle$ where H_1 is a random oracle controlled by \mathcal{B} . \mathcal{B} uses the value of s as the **master-key** which it does not know. Adversary \mathcal{A} can make queries on H_1 at any time. These queries are handled by the following algorithm **H_1 -query**.

H_1 -query (ID_i): \mathcal{B} maintains a list of tuples $\langle ID_i, h_i, d_i \rangle$ indexed by ID_i as explained below. We refer to this list as H_1^{list} . The list is initially empty. When \mathcal{A} queries the oracle H_1 at a point ID_i , \mathcal{B} responds as follows:

1. If ID_i already appears on the H_1^{list} in a tuple $\langle ID_i, h_i, d_i \rangle$, then \mathcal{B} responds with $H_1(ID_i) = h_i$.
2. Otherwise, if the query is on the I -th distinct ID and \perp is not used as d_i (this could be inserted by the challenge operation specified later) by any existing tuple, then \mathcal{B} stores $\langle ID_I, h_0, \perp \rangle$ into the tuple list and responds with $H_1(ID_I) = h_0$.
3. Otherwise, \mathcal{B} selects a random integer $h_i (i > 0)$ from K_{pub} which has not been chosen by \mathcal{B} and stores $\langle ID_i, h_i, \frac{1}{h_i+s} P_2 \rangle$ into the tuple list. \mathcal{B} responds with $H_1(ID_i) = h_i$.

Phase 1: \mathcal{A} launches Phase 1 of its attack, by making a series of requests, each of which is either an extraction or a decryption query. \mathcal{B} replies to these requests as follows.

Extraction query (ID_i): \mathcal{B} first looks through list H_1^{list} . If ID_i is not on the list, then \mathcal{B} queries $H_1(ID_i)$. \mathcal{B} then checks the value d_i : if $d_i \neq \perp$, \mathcal{B} responds with d_i ; otherwise, \mathcal{B} aborts the game (**Event 1**).

Decryption query (ID_i, C_i): \mathcal{B} first looks through list H_1^{list} . If ID_i is not on the list, then \mathcal{B} queries $H_1(ID_i)$. If $d_i = \perp$, then \mathcal{B} sends the decryption query $C_i = \langle U, V, W \rangle$ to \mathcal{D} and simply relays the plaintext got from \mathcal{D} to \mathcal{A} directly. Otherwise \mathcal{B} tries to perform the decryption by first computing $g' = \hat{e}(U, d_i)$, and then querying $H_2(g')$ (H_2 is controlled by \mathcal{D}).

Challenge: At some point, \mathcal{A} decides to end Phase 1 and picks ID_{ch} and two messages (m_0, m_1) on which it wants to be challenged. Based on the queries on H_1 so far, \mathcal{B} responds differently.

1. If the I -th query on H_1 has been issued,
 - if $ID_I = ID_{ch}$ (and so $d_{ch} = \perp$), \mathcal{B} continues;
 - otherwise, \mathcal{B} aborts the game (**Event 2**).
2. Otherwise,
 - if the tuple corresponding to ID_{ch} is on list H_1^{list} (and so $d_{ch} \neq \perp$), then \mathcal{B} aborts the game (**Event 3**);
 - otherwise, \mathcal{B} inserts the tuple $\langle ID_{ch}, h_0, \perp \rangle$ into the list and continues (this operation is treated as an H_1 query in the simulation).

Note that after this point, it must have $H_1(ID_{ch}) = h_0$ and $d_{ch} = \perp$. \mathcal{B} passes \mathcal{D} the pair (m_0, m_1) as the messages on which it wishes to be challenged. \mathcal{D} randomly chooses $b \in \{0, 1\}$, encrypts m_b and responds with the ciphertext $C_{ch} = \langle U', V', W' \rangle$. Then \mathcal{B} forwards C_{ch} to \mathcal{A} .

Phase 2: \mathcal{B} continues to respond to requests in the same way as it did in Phase 1. Note that following the rules, the adversary will not issue the extraction query on ID_{ch} only whose $d_{ch} = \perp$ and the decryption query on $\langle ID_{ch}, C_{ch} \rangle$. And so, \mathcal{B} always can answer other queries without aborting the game.

Guess: \mathcal{A} makes a guess b' for b . \mathcal{B} outputs b' as its own guess.

Claim: If the algorithm \mathcal{B} does not abort during the simulation then algorithm \mathcal{A} 's view is identical to its view in the real attack.

Proof: \mathcal{B} 's responses to H_1 queries are uniformly and independently distributed in \mathbb{Z}_q^* as in the real attack because of the behavior of algorithm **keygen** of the **BasicPub^{hy}** scheme. All responses to \mathcal{A} 's requests are valid, if \mathcal{B} does not abort. Furthermore, the challenge ciphertext $\langle U', V', W' \rangle$ is a valid encryption in SK-IBE for m_b where $b \in \{0, 1\}$ is random.

The remaining problem is to calculate the probability that \mathcal{B} does not abort during simulation. Algorithm \mathcal{B} could abort when one of the following events happens: (1) **Event 1**, denoted as \mathcal{H}_1 : \mathcal{A} queried a private key which is represented by \perp at some point. Recall that only one private key is represented by \perp in the whole simulation which could be inserted in an H_1 query (as the private key of ID_I) in Phase 1 or in the challenge phase (as the private key of ID_{ch}). Because of the rules of the game, the adversary will not query the private key of ID_{ch} . Hence, this event only happens when the adversary extracted the private key of $ID_I \neq ID_{ch}$, meanwhile $d_I = \perp$, i.e., $ID_I \neq ID_{ch}$ and $H_1(ID_I)$ was queried in Phase 1; (2) **Event 2**, denoted as \mathcal{H}_2 : the adversary wants to be challenged on an identity $ID_{ch} \neq ID_I$ and $H_1(ID_I)$ was queried in Phase 1; (3) **Event 3**, denoted as \mathcal{H}_3 : the adversary wants to be challenged on an identity $ID_{ch} \neq ID_I$ and $H_1(ID_I)$ was queried in Phase 2.

Notice that all the three events imply **Event 4**, denoted by \mathcal{H}_4 , that the adversary did not choose ID_I as the challenge identity. Hence we have

$$Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ does not abort}] = Pr[\neg\mathcal{H}_1 \wedge \neg\mathcal{H}_2 \wedge \neg\mathcal{H}_3] \geq Pr[\neg\mathcal{H}_4] \geq 1/q_1.$$

So, the lemma follows. \square

Remark 5 *If an adversary only engages in the selective-identity adaptive chosen ciphertext attack game, the reduction could be tighter (\mathcal{B} has the advantage $\epsilon(k)$ as \mathcal{A}), because \mathcal{B} now knows exactly which identity should be hashed to h_0 , so the game will never abort. Note that, in such game, \mathcal{B} can pass the SK-IBE **params** to \mathcal{A} first, then \mathcal{A} commits an identity ID_{ch} before issuing any oracle query. Hence the reduction could still be tightened in an appearing stronger formulation than the one in [9] (see the separation in [20]).*

Lemma 2 *Let H_3, H_4 be random oracles. Let \mathcal{A} be an IND-CCA adversary against **BasicPub^{hy}** defined in Lemma 1 with advantage $\epsilon(k)$. Suppose \mathcal{A} has running time $t(k)$, makes at most q_D decryption queries, and makes q_3 and q_4 queries to H_3 and H_4 respectively. Then there exists an IND-CPA adversary \mathcal{B} against the following **BasicPub** scheme, which is specified by three algorithms: **keygen**, **encrypt** and **decrypt**.*

keygen: Given a security parameter k , the parameter generator follows the steps.

1. Identical with step 1 in algorithm **keygen** of **BasicPub^{hy}**.
2. Identical with step 2 in algorithm **keygen** of **BasicPub^{hy}**.

3. Pick a cryptographic hash function $H_2 : \mathbb{G}_T \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ for some integer $n > 0$.

The message space is $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^n$. The ciphertext space is $\mathcal{C} = \mathbb{G}_1^* \times \{0,1\}^n$. The public **params** is $\langle q, \mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, \psi, \hat{e}, n, P_1, P_2, P_{pub}, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+s}P_2), \dots, (h_i, \frac{1}{h_i+s}P_2), \dots, (h_{q_1-1}, \frac{1}{h_{q_1-1}+s}P_2), H_2 \rangle$ and the private key is $d_A = \frac{1}{h_0+s}P_2$.

encrypt: Given a plaintext $m \in \mathcal{M}$, and the public **params**, choose a random $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and compute ciphertext $C = \langle r(h_0P_1 + P_{pub}), m \oplus H_2(g^r) \rangle$ where $g^r = \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^r$.

decrypt: Given a ciphertext $C = \langle U, V \rangle$, the public **params**, and the private key d_A , compute $g' = \hat{e}(U, d_A)$ and plaintext $m = V \oplus H_2(g')$.

with advantage $\epsilon_1(k)$ and running time $t_1(k)$ where

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_1(k) &\geq \frac{1}{2(q_3+q_4)} [(\epsilon(k) + 1)(1 - \frac{2}{q})^{q_D} - 1] \\ t_1(k) &\leq t(k) + O((q_3 + q_4) \cdot (n + \log q)). \end{aligned}$$

Proof: This lemma follows from the result of the Fujisaki-Okamoto transformation [17] and BF-IBE has a similar result (Theorem 4.5 [4]). We note that it is assumed that n and $\log q$ are of similar size in [4]. \square

Lemma 3 Let H_2 be a random oracle. Suppose there exists an IND-CPA adversary \mathcal{A} against the **BasicPub** defined in Lemma 2 which has advantage $\epsilon(k)$ and queries H_2 at most q_2 times. Then there exists an algorithm \mathcal{B} to solve the q_1 -BDHI problem with advantage at least $2\epsilon(k)/q_2$ and running time $O(\text{time}(\mathcal{A}) + q_1^2 \cdot \mathcal{T}_2)$ where \mathcal{T}_2 is the time of a scalar operation in \mathbb{G}_2 .

Proof: Algorithm \mathcal{B} is given as input a random q_1 -BDHI instance $\langle q, \mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, \psi, \hat{e}, P_1, P_2, xP_2, x^2P_2, \dots, x^{q_1}P_2 \rangle$ where x is a random element from \mathbb{Z}_q^* . Algorithm \mathcal{B} finds $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{1/x}$ by interacting with \mathcal{A} as follows:

Algorithm \mathcal{B} first simulates algorithm **keygen** of **BasicPub**, which was defined in Lemma 2, to create the public **params** as below.

1. Randomly choose different $h_0, \dots, h_{q_1-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and let $f(z)$ be the polynomial $f(z) = \prod_{i=1}^{q_1-1} (z + h_i)$. Reformulate f to get $f(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{q_1-1} c_i z^i$. The constant term c_0 is non-zero because $h_i \neq 0$ and c_i are computable from h_i .
2. Compute $Q_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{q_1-1} c_i x^i P_2 = f(x)P_2$ and $xQ_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{q_1-1} c_i x^{i+1} P_2 = xf(x)P_2$.
3. Check that $Q_2 \in \mathbb{G}_2^*$. If $Q_2 = 1_{\mathbb{G}_2}$, then there must be such $h_i = -x$ which can be easily identified, and so, \mathcal{B} solves the q_1 -BDHI problem directly. Otherwise, \mathcal{B} computes $Q_1 = \psi(Q_2)$ and continues.
4. Compute $f_i(z) = f(z)/(z + h_i) = \sum_{j=0}^{q_1-2} d_j z^j$ and $\frac{1}{x+h_i}Q_2 = f_i(x)P_2 = \sum_{j=0}^{q_1-2} d_j x^j P_2$ for $1 \leq i < q_1$.
5. Set $T' = \sum_{i=1}^{q_1-1} c_i x^{i-1} P_2$ and compute $T_0 = \hat{e}(\psi(T'), Q_2 + c_0 P_2)$.
6. Now, \mathcal{B} passes \mathcal{A} the **params** $K_{pub} = \langle q, \mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, \psi, \hat{e}, n, Q_1, Q_2, xQ_1 - h_0Q_1, h_0, (h_1+h_0, \frac{1}{h_1+x}Q_2), \dots, (h_i+h_0, \frac{1}{h_i+x}Q_2), \dots, (h_{q_1-1}+h_0, \frac{1}{h_{q_1-1}+x}Q_2) \rangle$,

H_2 (i.e., setting $P_{pub} = xQ_1 - h_0Q_1$) and the private key is $d_A = \frac{1}{x}Q_2$ which \mathcal{B} does not know. H_2 is a random oracle controlled by \mathcal{B} . Note that $\hat{e}((h_i + h_0)Q_1 + P_{pub}, \frac{1}{h_i+x}Q_2) = \hat{e}(Q_1, Q_2)$ for $i = 1, \dots, q_1 - 1$. Hence K_{pub} is valid public **params** of **BasicPub**.

Now \mathcal{B} starts to respond to queries as follows.

H_2 -query (X_i): At any time algorithm \mathcal{A} can issue queries to the random oracle H_2 . To respond to these queries \mathcal{B} maintains a list of tuples called H_2^{list} . Each entry in the list is a tuple of the form $\langle X_i, \zeta_i \rangle$ indexed by X_i . To respond to a query on X_i , \mathcal{B} does the following operations:

1. If on the list there is a tuple indexed by X_i , then \mathcal{B} responds with ζ_i .
2. Otherwise, \mathcal{B} randomly chooses a string $\zeta_i \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and inserts a new tuple $\langle X_i, \zeta_i \rangle$ to the list. It responds to \mathcal{A} with ζ_i .

Challenge: Algorithm \mathcal{A} outputs two messages (m_0, m_1) on which it wants to be challenged. \mathcal{B} chooses a random string $R \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and a random element $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$, and defines $C_{ch} = \langle U, V \rangle = \langle rQ_1, R \rangle$. \mathcal{B} gives C_{ch} as the challenge to \mathcal{A} . Observe that the decryption of C_{ch} is

$$V \oplus H_2(\hat{e}(U, d_A)) = R \oplus H_2(\hat{e}(rQ_1, \frac{1}{x}Q_2)).$$

Guess: After algorithm \mathcal{A} outputs its guess, \mathcal{B} picks a random tuple $\langle X_i, \zeta_i \rangle$ from H_2^{list} . \mathcal{B} first computes $T = X_i^{1/r}$, and then returns $(T/T_0)^{1/c_0^2}$. Note that $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{1/x} = (T/T_0)^{1/c_0^2}$ if $T = \hat{e}(Q_1, Q_2)^{1/x}$.

Let \mathcal{H} be the event that algorithm \mathcal{A} issues a query for $H_2(\hat{e}(rQ_1, \frac{1}{x}Q_2))$ at some point during the simulation above. Using the same methods in [4], we can prove the following two claims:

Claim 1: $\Pr[\mathcal{H}]$ in the simulation above is equal to $\Pr[\mathcal{H}]$ in the real attack.

Claim 2: In the real attack we have $\Pr[\mathcal{H}] \geq 2\epsilon(k)$.

Following from the above two claims, we have that \mathcal{B} produces the correct answer with probability at least $2\epsilon(k)/q_2$. \square

Remark 6 *In the proof, \mathcal{B} 's simulation of algorithm **keygen** of **BasicPub** is similar to the preparation step in Theorem 5.1 [1] (both follow the method in [27]. Note that in [1] ψ is an identity map, so $Q = Q_1 = Q_2$). However, the calculation of T_0 in [1] is incorrect, where $T_0 = \hat{e}(T', Q)$ instead of $\hat{e}(T', Q + c_0P)$ with $T' = \sum_{i=1}^q c_i x^{i-1} P$ and so, the equation $T = (\hat{e}(P, P)^{1/x})^{(c_0^2)} \cdot T_0$ does not hold.*

This completes the proof of Theorem 6.

4 Possible Improvements of SK-IBE

SK-IBE can be improved both on computation performance and security reduction. The only two known bilinear pairing instances so far are the Weil pairing and Tate pairing on elliptic curves (and hyperelliptic curves) [34]. When implementing these pairings, some special structures of these pairings can be exploited

to improve the performance. As noticed by Scott and Barreto [32], the Tate pairing can be compressed when the curve has the characteristic 3 or greater than 3. The compressing technique not only can reduce the size of pairing, but also can speed up the computation of pairing and the exponentiation in \mathbb{G}_T . Pointed by Galindo [19], an improved Fujisaki-Okamoto's transformation [18] has a tighter security reduction. Using the trick played in [24], the reduction can be further tightened by including the point rQ_A in H_2 (this also removes the potential ambiguity introduced by the compressed pairing). So, combined with these two improvements, a faster scheme (SK-IBE2) with better security reduction can be specified as follow.

Setup. Identical with SK-IBE, except that H_4 is not required and $H_2 : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{2n}$, where \mathbb{F} depends on the used compressed pairing (see [32] for details).

Extract. Identical with SK-IBE.

Encrypt. Given a plaintext $m \in \mathcal{M}(\{0, 1\}^n)$, the identity ID_A of entity A and the system parameters **params**, the following steps are performed.

1. Pick a random $\sigma \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and compute $r = H_3(\sigma, m)$.
2. Compute $Q_A = H_1(ID_A)P_1 + P_{pub}$, $\varphi(g^r) = \varphi(\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^r)$, where φ is the pairing compressing algorithm as specified in [32]. Note that φ and \hat{e} can be computed by a single algorithm, so to improve the computation performance [32].
3. Set the ciphertext to $C = \langle rQ_A, (m \parallel \sigma) \oplus H_2(rQ_A, \varphi(g^r)) \rangle$.

Decrypt. Given a ciphertext $\langle U, V \rangle \in \mathcal{C}$, the identity ID_A , the private key d_A and **params**, follow the steps:

1. Compute $\varphi(g') = \varphi(\hat{e}(U, d_A))$ and $m' \parallel \sigma' = V \oplus H_2(U, \varphi(g'))$.
2. Compute $r' = H_3(\sigma', m')$. If $U \neq r'(H_1(ID_A)P_1 + P_{pub})$, output \perp , else return m' as the plaintext.

5 Comparison with Other Pairing-Based IBE Schemes

From the reduction described in Section 3.2, we have proved that SK-IBE is a secure IBE scheme based on a reasonably well-explored hardness assumption, which has been used in the literature. In this section, we show that SK-IBE has the best performance, comparing with other existing pairing-based IBE schemes.

The properties and performance of the IBE schemes are summarised in Table 1, where we compare the schemes on the security strength, application of the random oracle, hardness assumption and computation performance. As pointed out in [20], IND-sID-CCA formulation is too weak for identity-based encryption purpose, here we do not consider the existing IND-sID-CCA secure schemes.

If taking a closer look between SK-IBE and BF-IBE, SK-IBE is faster than BF-IBE in two ways, both of which result from using the SK key setting. First, in **Encrypt** algorithm, no pairing is required as $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)$ can be pre-computed. Second, in SK-IBE the operation to map an identity to an element in \mathbb{G}_1 or \mathbb{G}_2

Scheme	Security Strength	Random Oracle	Assumption	Performance (Rank)
SK-IBE	IND-ID-CCA	Yes	k-BDHI	1
BF-IBE [4]	IND-ID-CCA	Yes	BDH	2
Waters-Scheme [38]	IND-ID-CCA	No	DBDH	3
BB-Scheme [3]	IND-ID-CCA	No	DBDH	impractical

Table 1. Summary of Property of IBE Schemes

is normally faster than the one used by BF-IBE if the Weil or Tate pairing is used.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, an identity-based encryption scheme, SK-IBE, is investigated. As a result of using the SK key setting, SK-IBE provides an attractive performance. We prove that SK-IBE is secure against adaptive chosen ciphertext attacks in the random oracle model based on the k-BDHI assumption.

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Appendix

A Proof of Theorem 1

This proof is similar to the proof of Theorem 3.5 [27].

Proof: If there is a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{A} to solve the (k-1)-DHI problem, we construct a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{B} to solve the k-CAA1 problem. Given an instance of k-CAA1 problem $\langle Q, yQ, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+y}Q), \dots, (h_k, \frac{1}{h_k+y}Q) \rangle$, \mathcal{B} works as follow to compute $\frac{1}{y+h_0}Q$.

1. Set $x = y + h_0$ which \mathcal{B} does not know, and $P = \frac{1}{(y+h_1)\cdots(y+h_k)}Q$.

2. For $j = 0, \dots, (k-1)$, \mathcal{B} computes $x^j P = \frac{(y+h_0)^j}{(y+h_1)\dots(y+h_k)} Q = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{c_{ij}}{y+h_i} Q$ where $c_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ are computable from h_i .
3. Pass \mathcal{A} the $(k-1)$ -DHI challenge, $\langle P, xP, \dots, x^{k-1}P \rangle$, and get $T = \frac{1}{x}P$.
4. Set $f(z) = \prod_{i=1}^k (z + h_i - h_0) = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i z^i$ where d_i are computable from h_i and $d_0 \neq 0$ because h_i are different.
5. Note that $Q = f(x)P = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i x^i P$, so compute $\frac{1}{y+h_0} Q = \frac{1}{x} Q = \frac{f(x)}{x} P = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i x^{i-1} P = d_0 \frac{1}{x} P + \sum_{i=1}^k d_i x^{i-1} P = d_0 T + \sum_{i=1}^k d_i x^{i-1} P$.

If there is a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{A} to solve the $(k-1)$ -CAA1 problem, we construct a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{B} to solve the k -DHI problem. Given an instance of k -DHI problem $\langle P, xP, x^2P, \dots, x^kP \rangle$, \mathcal{B} works as follow to compute $\frac{1}{x}P$.

1. Randomly choose different $h_0, \dots, h_{k-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and set $y = x - h_0$ which \mathcal{B} does not know.
2. Let $f(z)$ be the polynomial $f(z) = \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (z + h_i - h_0) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i z^i$. The constant term c_0 is non-zero because h_i are different.
3. Compute $Q = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i x^i P = f(x)P$ and $yQ = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i x^{i+1} P - h_0 Q = x f(x)P - h_0 Q$.
4. Compute $f_i(z) = f(z)/(z+h_i-h_0) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} d_j z^j$ and $\frac{1}{y+h_i} Q = \frac{1}{x+h_i-h_0} f(x)P = f_i(x)P = \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} d_j x^j P$ for $1 \leq i \leq k-1$.
5. Pass the following instance of the $(k-1)$ -CAA problem to \mathcal{A}

$$\langle Q, yQ, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{y+h_1}Q), \dots, (h_{k-1}, \frac{1}{y+h_{k-1}}Q) \rangle$$

to get the response $T = \frac{1}{y+h_0} Q = \frac{1}{x} Q$.

6. Note that $T = \frac{f(x)}{x} P = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i x^{i-1} P = c_0 \frac{1}{x} P + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} c_i x^{i-1} P$. So compute $\frac{1}{x} P = c_0^{-1} (T - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} c_i x^{i-1} P)$. \square

B Proof of Theorem 3

This proof is similar to the proof of Theorem 1 above.

Proof: If there exists an algorithm \mathcal{A} to solve a random instance of the $(k-1)$ -sCAA1 problem in polynomial time, we can construct a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{B} to solve the k -sDH problem. Given a random instance of the k -sDH problem, $\langle P, xP, x^2P, \dots, x^kP \rangle$, \mathcal{B} takes the following steps to compute $(h, \frac{1}{x+h}P)$.

1. Randomly choose different $h_1, \dots, h_{k-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and let $f(z)$ be the polynomial $f(z) = \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (z + h_i)$. Reformulate f to get $f(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i z^i$. The constant term c_0 is non-zero and c_i are computable from h_i .
2. Compute $Q = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i x^i P = f(x)P$ and $xQ = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i x^{i+1} P = x f(x)P$.
3. Check that $Q \in \mathbb{G}^*$. If $Q = 1_{\mathbb{G}}$, then there must be such $h_i = -x$ which can be easily identified, and so, \mathcal{B} solves the problem directly. Otherwise, \mathcal{B} continues.

4. Compute $f_i(z) = f(z)/(z + h_i) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} d_j z^j$ and $\frac{1}{x+h_i}Q = f_i(x)P = \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} d_j x^j P$ for $1 \leq i \leq k-1$.
5. Pass the following instance of the (k-1)-sCAA1 problem to \mathcal{A} .

$$\langle Q, xQ, (h_1, \frac{1}{x+h_1}Q), \dots, (h_{k-1}, \frac{1}{x+h_{k-1}}Q) \rangle$$

to get $(h_0, \frac{1}{h_0+x}Q)$.

6. Note that $\frac{1}{h_0+x}f(x) = \frac{w_0}{h_0+x} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} w_i x^{i-1}$ where w_i are computable from h_i , and $w_0 \neq 0$ because h_i are different. Compute $\frac{1}{x+h_0}P = w_0^{-1}(\frac{1}{x+h_0}Q - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} w_i x^{i-1}P)$. Output $(h_0, \frac{1}{x+h_0}P)$.

If there is a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{A} to solve the (k-1)-sDH problem, we construct a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{B} to solve the k-sCAA1 problem. Given an instance of k-sCAA1 problem $\langle Q, yQ, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+y}Q), \dots, (h_k, \frac{1}{h_k+y}Q) \rangle$, \mathcal{B} works as follow to compute $(h, \frac{1}{y+h}Q)$.

1. For $j = 0, \dots, (k-1)$, \mathcal{B} computes $y^j P = \frac{y^j}{(y+h_1)\dots(y+h_k)}Q = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{c_{ij}}{y+h_i}Q$ where $c_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ are computable from h_i .
2. Pass \mathcal{A} the (k-1)-sDH challenge, $\langle P, yP, \dots, y^{k-1}P \rangle$, and get $(h_0, \frac{1}{y+h_0}P)$.
3. Note that $\frac{1}{y+h_0}P = \frac{1}{(y+h_0)(y+h_1)\dots(y+h_k)}Q = \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{c_i}{y+h_i}Q$, for $c_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ are computable from h_i and $c_0 \neq 0$ because h_i are different. Compute $\frac{1}{y+h_0}Q = c_0^{-1}(\frac{1}{y+h_0}P - \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{c_i}{y+h_i}Q)$. Output $(h_0, \frac{1}{y+h_0}Q)$. \square

C Proof of Theorem 5

Proof: If there is a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{A} to solve the (k-1)-BDHI problem, we construct a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{B} to solve the k-BCAA1 problem. Given an instance of k-BCAA1 problem $\langle Q_1, Q_2, yQ_2, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{h_1+y}Q_2), \dots, (h_k, \frac{1}{h_k+y}Q_2) \rangle$, \mathcal{B} works as follow to compute $\hat{e}(Q_1, Q_2)^{1/(y+h_0)}$.

1. Set $x = y + h_0$ which \mathcal{B} does not know, and $P_2 = \frac{1}{(y+h_1)\dots(y+h_k)}Q_2$.
2. For $j = 0, \dots, (k-1)$, \mathcal{B} computes $x^j P_2 = \frac{(y+h_0)^j}{(y+h_1)\dots(y+h_k)}Q_2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{c_{ij}}{y+h_i}Q_2$ where $c_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ are computable from h_i .
3. Set $P_1 = \psi(P_2)$.
4. Pass \mathcal{A} the (k-1)-BDHI challenge, $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, \dots, x^{k-1}P_2 \rangle$, and get $T = \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{1/x}$.
5. Set $f(z) = \prod_{i=1}^k (z + h_i - h_0) = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i z^i$ where d_i is computable from h_i and $d_0 \neq 0$ because h_i are different.
6. Note that $Q_2 = f(x)P_2 = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i x^i P_2$ and $\frac{1}{x}Q_2 = \frac{f(x)}{x}P_2 = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i x^{i-1}P_2$.
7. Compute $\hat{e}(Q_1, Q_2)^{1/(y+h_0)} = \hat{e}(\frac{1}{x}\psi(Q_2), Q_2) = \hat{e}(\sum_{i=0}^k d_i x^{i-1}\psi(P_2), Q_2) = T^{d_0^2} \cdot \hat{e}(d_0 P_1, \sum_{i=1}^k d_i x^{i-1}P_2) \cdot \hat{e}(\sum_{i=1}^k d_i \psi(x^{i-1}P_2), Q_2)$.

If there is a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{A} to solve the (k-1)-BCAA1 problem, we construct a polynomial time algorithm \mathcal{B} to solve the k-BDHI problem. Given an instance of k-BDHI problem $\langle P_1, P_2, xP_2, x^2P_2, \dots, x^kP_2 \rangle$, \mathcal{B} works as follow to compute $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{1/x}$.

1. Randomly choose different $h_0, \dots, h_{k-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ and set $y = x - h_0$ which \mathcal{B} does not know.
2. Let $f(z)$ be the polynomial $f(z) = \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (z + h_i - h_0) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i z^i$. The constant term c_0 is non-zero because h_i are different and c_i are computable from h_i .
3. Compute $Q_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i x^i P_2 = f(x)P_2$ and $yQ_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i x^{i+1} P_2 - h_0 Q_2 = x f(x)P_2 - h_0 Q_2$.
4. Compute $f_i(z) = f(z)/(z+h_i-h_0) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} d_j z^j$ and $\frac{1}{y+h_i} Q_2 = \frac{1}{x+h_i-h_0} f(x)P_2 = f_i(x)P_2 = \sum_{j=0}^{k-2} d_j x^j P_2$ for $1 \leq i \leq k-1$.
5. Set $Q_1 = \psi(Q_2)$.
6. Pass the following instance of the (k-1)-BCAA1 problem to \mathcal{A}

$$\langle Q_1, Q_2, yQ_2, h_0, (h_1, \frac{1}{y+h_1}Q_2), \dots, (h_{k-1}, \frac{1}{y+h_{k-1}}Q_2) \rangle$$

- to get $T = \hat{e}(Q_1, Q_2)^{1/(y+h_0)} = \hat{e}(Q_1, Q_2)^{1/x} = \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{f^2(x)/x}$.
7. Note that $\frac{1}{x}Q_2 = \frac{f(x)}{x}P_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i x^{i-1} P_2 = c_0 \frac{1}{x}P_2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} c_i x^{i-1} P_2$. Set $T' = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} c_i x^{i-1} P_2 = \frac{f(x)-c_0}{x} P_2$. Then, $\hat{e}(\frac{1}{x}Q_1, Q_2) = \hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{c_0^2/x}$. $\hat{e}(\psi(T'), Q_2 + c_0 P_2)$. Compute $\hat{e}(P_1, P_2)^{1/x} = (T/\hat{e}(\psi(T'), Q_2 + c_0 P_2))^{1/c_0^2}$. \square