

CCA-Secure Hierarchical Identity Based Encryption Without Random Oracle

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Abstract. We consider the problem of constructing a HIBE protocol which is secure in the full model against chosen ciphertext attacks without using random oracle. Known techniques (generic as well as non-generic) convert an $(h + 1)$ -level CPA-secure HIBE protocol into an h -level CCA-secure HIBE protocol. Applied to known constructions, these result in an h -level CCA-secure HIBE whose security degradation is exponential in $(h + 1)$. In this paper, we modify a recent construction of a CPA-secure HIBE to obtain a HIBE protocol in the KEM/DEM framework which is CCA-secure in the full model without random oracle. The main feature of our construction is that the security degradation for an h -level HIBE is exponential in h . The reduction of the exponent of security degradation from $(h + 1)$ to h can be significant in reducing the size of the underlying groups for practical applications.

1 Introduction

Identity based encryption [17, 5] is a kind of public key encryption where the public key can be the identity of the receiver. The secret key corresponding to the identity is generated by a private key generator (PKG) and is securely provided to the relevant user. The notion of IBE simplifies the issues of certificate management in public key infrastructure. The PKG issues the private key associated with an identity. The notion of hierarchical IBE (HIBE) [15, 14] was introduced to reduce the workload of the PKG. The identity of any entity in a HIBE structure is a tuple (v_1, \dots, v_j) . The private key corresponding to such an identity can be generated by the entity whose identity is (v_1, \dots, v_{j-1}) and which possesses the private key corresponding to this identity. The security model for IBE was extended to that of HIBE in [15, 14].

The first construction of an IBE which can be proved to be secure in the full model without the random oracle heuristic was given by Boneh and Boyen in [4]. Later, Waters [19] presented an efficient construction of an IBE which is secure in the same setting. Waters' construction was modified in [10] to allow controllable trade-off between the size of the public parameters and the efficiency of the protocol (see also [16]).

A suggestion for construction of a HIBE secure in the full model without using the random oracle heuristic is given in [19]. A recent work [11], describes a HIBE which builds on the suggestion in [19] by reducing the number of public parameters. The constructed HIBE is secure against chosen plaintext attacks (CPA-secure) and suffers from a loss of security degradation which is exponential in h , the maximum depth of the HIBE.

OUR CONTRIBUTIONS: We consider the problem of constructing a HIBE which is secure against chosen ciphertext attacks (CCA-secure). Two constructions are presented. The first construction is a CCA-secure hierarchical identity based key encapsulation mechanism (HIB-KEM). This is obtained

by modifying the construction in [11]. The decapsulation algorithm of this construction uses j pairings to verify the well-formedness of the encapsulated key. In our second construction, we do away with these pairing computations while retaining the KEM/DEM framework. The separation of the KEM/DEM boundary in this case requires us to extend the notion of Tag-KEM/DEM framework [1] to the hierarchical identity based setting. A net result of our constructions is to yield an efficient h -level HIBE in the KEM/DEM framework for which the security degradation is exponential in h .

There are several known techniques – generic [9, 6] and non-generic [7] – to convert a CPA-secure HIBE into a CCA-secure HIBE. These convert an $(h + 1)$ -level CPA-secure HIBE into an h -level CCA-secure HIBE. When applied to the CPA-secure HIBE in [11], these yield an h -level CCA-secure HIBE whose security degradation is exponential in $(h + 1)$. The main effect of our contribution is to bring down the exponent of security degradation from $(h + 1)$ to h .

Our technique for attaining CCA-security is based on the techniques of [7] which in turn uses algebraic ideas from the construction of IBE given in [3]. We make several small but important changes to prevent the loss of one level of the HIBE in moving from CPA-security to CCA-security. This results in a reduced security degradation for our protocol.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we present the basic definitions and hardness assumption as well as the prior work on construction of HIBE secure in the full model.

2.1 HIBE Protocol

Definition: Following [15, 14], a hierarchical identity based encryption (HIBE) scheme is specified by four algorithms: Setup, KeyGen, Encrypt and Decrypt. For a HIBE of height h (henceforth denoted as h -HIBE) any identity \mathbf{v} is a tuple $(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_j)$ where $1 \leq j \leq h$.

- **HIBE.Setup:** Takes as input a security parameter and outputs (pk, sk) , where pk is the public parameter of the PKG and sk is the master secret of the PKG. It also defines the domains of identities, messages and ciphertexts.
- **HIBE.KeyGen** $(\mathbf{v}, d_{\mathbf{v}|_{j-1}}, pk)$: Takes as input a j -level identity \mathbf{v} , the secret $d_{\mathbf{v}|_{j-1}}$ corresponding to its $(j - 1)$ -level prefix and pk and returns as output $d_{\mathbf{v}}$, the secret key corresponding to \mathbf{v} . In case $j = 1$, $d_{\mathbf{v}|_{j-1}}$ is equal to sk , the master secret of the PKG.
- **HIBE.Encrypt** (\mathbf{v}, M, pk) : Takes as input \mathbf{v} , the message M and pk , and returns C , the ciphertext obtained by encrypting M under \mathbf{v} and pk .
- **HIBE.Decrypt** $(\mathbf{v}, d_{\mathbf{v}}, C, pk)$: Takes as input \mathbf{v} , the secret key $d_{\mathbf{v}}$ corresponding to \mathbf{v} , a ciphertext C and pk . Returns either **bad** or M , the message which is the decryption of C .

As usual, for soundness, we require that $\text{HIBE.Decrypt}(\mathbf{v}, d_{\mathbf{v}}, C, pk) = M$ must hold for all \mathbf{v} , $d_{\mathbf{v}}$, C , pk , sk and M associated by the above four algorithms.

HIB-KEM: A KEM is used to construct a hybrid encryption scheme. In such a scheme, the actual encryption is done using a symmetric key algorithm and the secret key of the symmetric encryption is encapsulated using a public key procedure. The extension of the notion of KEM towards the construction of a hybrid HIBE is quite straightforward. Only the encryption and decryption algorithms of HIBE are respectively changed to the following encapsulation and decapsulation algorithms. Let \mathcal{K}_D be the keyspace of a suitable symmetric encryption algorithm.

- $\text{HIBE.Encap}(v, pk)$: Takes as input v and pk , and returns (ω, dk) , where $dk \in \mathcal{K}_D$ and ω is an encapsulation of dk under v .
- $\text{HIBE.Decap}(v, d_v, \omega, pk)$: Takes as input v , the secret key d_v corresponding to v , an encapsulation ω and pk . Returns either bad or dk , the secret key of the symmetric encryption algorithm.

2.2 Security Model

We describe the full security model for HIB-KEM which is a minor variant of the usual security model for HIBE. The adversary $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_D, \mathcal{O}_P}$ is a probabilistic algorithm with access to two oracles \mathcal{O}_D (the decapsulation oracle) and \mathcal{O}_P (the private key extraction oracle). On querying \mathcal{O}_P with v , the adversary obtains d_v the secret key corresponding to v . Similarly, on querying \mathcal{O}_D with (v, ω) , the adversary obtains either dk or bad .

The adversarial game is defined as follows.

1. generate (pk, sk) using HIBE.Setup .
2. $(\text{state}, v^*) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_D, \mathcal{O}_P}(pk)$.
3. $(\omega^*, dk_1) \leftarrow \text{HIBE.Encap}(v^*, pk)$;
choose dk_0 randomly from \mathcal{K}_D ; choose δ to be a random bit.
4. $\delta' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_D, \mathcal{O}_P}(\text{state}, \omega^*, dk_\delta)$.

The variable state is used by the adversary to carry information from one phase to another. Step 2 correspond to the first phase of the game, whereby the adversary interacts with the oracles and produces a challenge identity v^* . In Step 3, the challenge step, the adversary is given ω^* and either the secret key corresponding to ω^* or a random secret key according as δ is 1 or 0. The second phase is Step 4, where the adversary guesses the value of δ . There are several natural restrictions on the use of the oracles by the adversary. In Steps 2 and 4, the adversary cannot ask \mathcal{O}_P for the secret key of v^* . Similarly, in Step 4, it cannot ask \mathcal{O}_D for the decapsulation of (v^*, ω^*) . Additionally, certain queries are useless for the adversary and we will assume that the adversary does not make such queries. If the adversary knows the secret key corresponding to an identity v (by querying \mathcal{O}_P), then he does not query \mathcal{O}_D using v or any identity of which v is a prefix. The advantage of the adversary in winning this game is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{HIB-KEM}} = |\Pr[\delta = \delta'] - 1/2|. \quad (1)$$

The quantity $\text{Adv}^{\text{HIB-KEM}}(t, q_D, q_C)$ denotes the maximum of $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{HIB-KEM}}$ where the maximum is taken over all adversaries running in time at most t and making q_C queries to the decryption oracle and q_D queries to the key-extraction oracle. A HIB-KEM protocol is said to be (ϵ, t, q_D, q_C) -CCA secure, if $\epsilon = \text{Adv}^{\text{HIB-KEM}}(t, q_D, q_C)$.

2.3 CPA-Security

In the adversarial game, we can restrict the adversary \mathcal{A} from querying the decryption oracle. $\text{Adv}^{\text{HIB-KEM}}(t, q)$ in this context denotes the maximum advantage where the maximum is taken over all adversaries running in time at most t and making at most q queries to the key-extraction oracle. A HIBE protocol is said to be (ϵ, t, q) -CPA secure, if $\epsilon = \text{Adv}^{\text{HIB-KEM}}(t, q)$.

2.4 Cryptographic Bilinear Map

Let G_1 and G_2 be cyclic groups having the same prime order p and $G_1 = \langle P \rangle$, where we write G_1 additively and G_2 multiplicatively. A mapping $e : G_1 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is called a cryptographic bilinear map if it satisfies the following properties.

- Bilinearity : $e(aP, bQ) = e(P, Q)^{ab}$ for all $P, Q \in G_1$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$.
- Non-degeneracy : If $G_1 = \langle P \rangle$, then $G_2 = \langle e(P, P) \rangle$.
- Computability : There exists an efficient algorithm to compute $e(P, Q)$ for all $P, Q \in G_1$.

Since $e(aP, bP) = e(P, P)^{ab} = e(bP, aP)$, $e()$ also satisfies the symmetry property. The modified Weil pairing [5] and Tate pairing [2, 13] are examples of cryptographic bilinear maps.

Known examples of $e()$ have G_1 to be a group of Elliptic Curve (EC) points and G_2 to be a subgroup of a multiplicative group of a finite field. Hence, in papers on pairing implementations [2, 13], it is customary to write G_1 additively and G_2 multiplicatively. On the other hand, some “pure” protocol papers such as [4, 19] write both G_1 and G_2 multiplicatively though this is not true of the initial protocol papers [5, 14]. Here we follow the first convention as it is closer to the known examples.

2.5 Hardness Assumption

The decisional bilinear Diffie-Hellman (DBDH) problem in $\langle G_1, G_2, e \rangle$ [5] is as follows: Given a tuple $\langle P, aP, bP, cP, Z \rangle$, where $Z \in G_2$, decide whether $Z = e(P, P)^{abc}$ (which we denote as Z is real) or Z is random. The advantage of a probabilistic algorithm \mathcal{B} , which takes as input a tuple $\langle P, aP, bP, cP, Z \rangle$ and outputs a bit, in solving the DBDH problem is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\text{DBDH}} = |\Pr[\mathcal{B}(P, aP, bP, cP, Z) = 1 | Z \text{ is real}] - \Pr[\mathcal{B}(P, aP, bP, cP, Z) = 1 | Z \text{ is random}]| \quad (2)$$

where the probability is calculated over the random choices of $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ as well as the random bits used by \mathcal{B} . The quantity $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\text{DBDH}}(t)$ denotes the maximum of $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\text{DBDH}}$ where the maximum is taken over all adversaries \mathcal{B} running in time at most t . We have the (ϵ, t) -DBDH assumption, if $\epsilon = \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\text{DBDH}}(t)$.

2.6 CPA-Secure HIBE Construction from [11]

We describe the CPA-secure HIBE protocol given in [11]. Later we modify this to obtain a CCA-secure HIB-KEM protocol.

Let G_1 and G_2 be cyclic groups having the same prime order p . We use a cryptographic bilinear map $e : G_1 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ the definition of which is given in Section 2.4.

Set-Up:

Depth. The maximum depth of the HIBE is h .

Identity. An identity \mathbf{v} is a tuple $(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_j)$ where $j \in \{1, \dots, h\}$ with each $\mathbf{v}_k = (\mathbf{v}_1^{(k)}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_l^{(k)})$ and $\mathbf{v}_i^{(k)}$ is an (n/l) -bit string which will also be considered to be an integer in the range $\{0, \dots, 2^{n/l} - 1\}$. Choosing $l = n$ gives \mathbf{v}_k to be an n -bit string as considered by Waters [19].

Public Parameters. The public parameters are the following elements: $P, P_1 = \alpha P, P_2, U_1', \dots, U_h', U_1, \dots, U_l$, where $G_1 = \langle P \rangle$, α is chosen randomly from \mathbb{Z}_p and the other quantities are chosen randomly from G_1 .

Master Secret. The master secret is αP_2 .

A Useful Notation: Let $v = (v_1, \dots, v_l)$, where each v_i is an (n/l) -bit string and is considered to be an element of $\mathbb{Z}_{2^{n/l}}$. For $1 \leq k \leq h$ we define,

$$V_k(v) = U'_k + \sum_{i=1}^l v_i U_i. \quad (3)$$

The modularity introduced by this notation allows an easier understanding of the protocol, since one does not need to bother about the exact value of l . When v is clear from the context we will write V_k instead of $V_k(v)$.

Key Generation: Let $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j)$, $1 \leq j \leq h$, be the identity for which the private key is required. Choose r_1, \dots, r_j randomly from \mathbb{Z}_p and define $d_{\mathbf{v}} = (d_0, d_1, \dots, d_j)$ where $d_0 = \alpha P_2 + \sum_{k=1}^j r_k V_k(v_k)$ and $d_k = r_k P$ for $1 \leq k \leq j$.

Encryption: Let $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j)$ be the identity under which a message $M \in G_2$ is to be encrypted. Choose t to be a random element of \mathbb{Z}_p . The ciphertext is

$$(C_0 = M \times e(P_1, P_2)^t, C_1 = tP, B_1 = tV_1(v_1), \dots, B_j = tV_j(v_j)). \quad (4)$$

Decryption: Let $C = (C_0, C_1, B_1, \dots, B_j)$ be a ciphertext and the corresponding identity $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j)$. Let (d_0, d_1, \dots, d_j) be the decryption key corresponding to the identity \mathbf{v} . The decryption steps are as follows.

Verification. Verify whether C_0 is in G_2 , C_1 and the B_i 's are in G_1 . If any of these verifications fail, then return bad, else proceed with further decryption as follows.

Return

$$C_0 \times \frac{\prod_{k=1}^j e(B_k, d_k)}{e(d_0, C_1)}.$$

3 CCA-Secure HIB-KEM

In this section, we modify the CPA-secure HIBE protocol in Section 2.6 to obtain a CCA-secure HIB-KEM protocol. The modification consists of certain additions to the set-up procedure as well as modification of the encryption and the decryption algorithm to obtain the encapsulation and decapsulation algorithms respectively. *No changes are required in the key generation algorithm and hence we do not include it below.* The additional changes are based on the technique used by Boyen-Mei-Waters [7] and are also based on the IBE construction by Boneh-Boyen [3] (BB-IBE).

Set-Up: In addition to the set-up for the HIBE protocol of Section 2.6 the following are required.

- A collision resistant hash function $H : \{1, \dots, h\} \times G_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$.
- A random element $W \in G_1$.

Key Generation: This is the same as the key generation of the protocol in 2.6.

Key Encapsulation: Let $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j)$ be the identity for which a key encapsulation is to be done.

- Choose t to be a random element of \mathbb{Z}_p .
- The secret key of the symmetric encryption algorithm is (a suitable hash of) $e(P_1, P_2)^t$.
- The encapsulated key is formed as follows:
 Compute tP ; $\gamma = H(j, tP)$; and $W_\gamma = W + \gamma P_1$.
 The encapsulated key is
 $(C_1 = tP, C_2 = tW_\gamma, B_1 = tV_1(v_1), \dots, B_j = tV_j(v_j))$.

Compared to (4), the encapsulated key in the current protocol has one extra component (C_2) but does not have the encryption of the message.

Key Decapsulation: Let $C = (C_1, C_2, B_1, \dots, B_j)$ be an encapsulated key corresponding to an identity $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j)$. The decapsulation steps are as follows.

- Compute $V_1(v_1), \dots, V_j(v_j)$. (These can be precomputed.)
- Compute $\gamma = H(j, C_1)$ and $W_\gamma = W + \gamma P_1$.
- Perform the following verifications:
 Verify that each component of C is an element of G_1 ;
 verify $e(C_1, W_\gamma) = e(P, C_2)$; and
 for $1 \leq i \leq j$, verify $e(C_1, V_i) = e(P, B_i)$.
 Note that all the verifications can be done publicly and does not require the secret key.
- If any of the verifications fail, then return **bad** else return $\frac{e(d_0, C_1)}{\prod_{k=1}^j e(B_k, d_k)}$.

The public verification tests ensure that the each decapsulation query is well-formed and will be properly decrypted. Without these tests, the adversary can submit a malformed decapsulation query and obtain as output its (improper) decryption. This may provide the adversary with more information than what would be obtained by following the protocol. The verification tests rule out such possibilities.

The construction of HIB-KEM can be viewed as consisting of two structures – a HIBE and a selective-ID secure BB-IBE. The public parameters of the IBE consists of (P, P_1, P_2, W) . The encryption consists of encrypting the message twice – once for the HIBE and the second time for the IBE under the identity derived from the randomizer tP and the depth j of the identity. This second encryption is not actually used in the protocol. It is used in the security proof, where the simulator derives the secret key corresponding to the identity obtained from tP and then decrypts the message.

The use of the function $H()$ is different from its use in [7]. In [7], the function $H()$ maps G_1 to \mathbb{Z}_p . On the other hand, in the HIB-KEM protocol above, $H()$ maps $\{1, \dots, h\} \times G_1$ to \mathbb{Z}_p . Our aim is to include information about the length of the identity into the output of $H()$. Without this information, an encapsulation for a $(j + 1)$ -level identity can be converted to an encapsulation for its j -level prefix by simply dropping the term corresponding to the last component in the identity. (This was pointed out by a reviewer of an earlier version of this work.)

Theorem 1. *The HIB-KEM protocol described above is $(\epsilon_{\text{hib-kem}}, t, q_{\text{ID}}, q_C)$ -CCA secure assuming that the $(t', \epsilon_{\text{dbdh}})$ -DBDH assumption holds in $\langle G_1, G_2, e \rangle$, where $\epsilon_{\text{hib-kem}} \leq \epsilon_{\text{dbdh}}/\lambda$; $t' = t + \chi(\epsilon_{\text{hibe}})$; q_{ID} (resp. q_C) is the number of private key (resp. decapsulation) queries and*

$\chi(\epsilon) = O(\tau q + O(\epsilon^{-2} \ln(\epsilon^{-1}) \lambda^{-1} \ln(\lambda^{-1})));$
 τ is the time required for one scalar multiplication in G_1 ;
 $\lambda = 1/(2h(2\sigma(\mu_l + 1))^h)$ with $\mu_l = l(N^{1/l} - 1)$, $\sigma = \max(2q_{\text{ID}}, 2^{n/l})$.

We further assume $2\sigma(1 + \mu_l) < p$.

The proof of the Theorem is given in Section A. The statement of Theorem 1 is almost the same as that of Theorem 1 in [11] with two differences.

1. The above theorem states CCA-security where as [11] proves CPA-security.
2. The value of λ is equal to $1/(2h(2\sigma(\mu_l + 1))^h)$ in the above statement where as it is equal to $1/(2(2\sigma(\mu_l + 1))^h)$ in [11].

For $2q_{\text{ID}} \geq 2^{n/l}$ (typically l would be chosen to ensure this), we have $\epsilon_{\text{hib-kem}} \leq 2h(4lq_{\text{ID}}2^{n/l})^h \epsilon_{\text{dbdh}}$. The corresponding bound in [11] is $2(4lq_{\text{ID}}2^{n/l})^h \epsilon_{\text{dbdh}}$. Thus, we have an additional security degradation by a factor of h in attaining CCA-security.

What have we gained? The currently known techniques for converting a CPA-secure HIBE protocol to a CCA-secure HIBE protocol, starts with an $(h+1)$ -level CPA-secure HIBE and then converts it to an h -level CCA-secure HIBE. The security degradation thus correspond to the $(h+1)$ -level HIBE. If we apply this technique to the protocol in [11] (see Section 2.6), then the security degradation for the obtained h -level CCA-secure HIBE will be $2(4lq2^{n/l})^{h+1}$. Compared to this, the security degradation given by Theorem 1 is $2h(4lq2^{n/l})^h$. In other words, we have managed to reduce the exponent from $(h+1)$ to h and have introduced a multiplicative factor of h . The net effect is a substantial gain in controlling security degradation. The effect of security degradation on the size of the groups can be very pronounced as has been analysed in [10]. Any significant gain in reducing security degradation has a considerable effect on the time required for performing scalar multiplication and pairing in the underlying groups.

What have we lost? The reduction in security degradation comes at a cost in increasing the total number of pairings in the decapsulation. Here, we emphasize that the *number* of pairings go up. However, when one chooses a larger size group to compensate for the larger security degradation (as is the case for achieving CCA-security of the protocol in [11] using the currently known techniques), the total time required for executing the entire decapsulation algorithm may actually go up even though the total number of pairings is less. This is because each operation will then be performed on larger size groups. Settling this point needs a careful comparison of the total time of the two protocols in different size groups. Here, we do not perform such a comparison. The reason is that we are actually able to do away with almost all the pairing verifications during decapsulation.

4 Hierarchical ID-Based Tag-KEM

The CCA-secure HIB-KEM in Section 3 performs several pairing based verifications during decapsulation. There are j pairing verifications for an identity of j levels. The aim of these is to ensure the well-formedness of the encapsulated key. These pairings are quite costly and will take up the major time for decapsulation.

In this section, we describe a method to do away with the pairing verifications. Basically the following is done. The secret key in the encapsulation algorithm is $e(P_1, P_2)^t$. From this we produce

two keys (mk, dk) using a key derivation function (KDF). The key mk is the secret key of a MAC algorithm, where as dk is the secret key of a symmetric encryption algorithm. The actual message is encrypted using dk to produce a ciphertext cpr . A MAC $chksum$ of this cpr is computed under mk . The $chksum$ is sent along with the encrypted message. The idea is that if the adversary changes the public key part, then the keys (mk, dk) will change and the $chksum$ will not be verified at the receiving end. Thus, we can do away with the pairing verifications.

The above approach does not separate between the public key and the symmetric encryption algorithm, which is called data encapsulation mechanism (DEM). It is certainly convenient to separate the two parts, as then one can separately reason about the security requirements of the two parts. To obtain such a separation, we have to divide the encapsulation algorithm into two phases. In the first phase, the keys (mk, dk) are produced. The input to the first phase are v and pk as usual. The ciphertext produced by the DEM is input to the second phase, which then produces a MAC on it. While looking at the KEM part, we want to remain oblivious of the DEM. We do this by saying that the second phase of the encapsulation algorithm takes a tag as input. Thus, what we are doing is really drawing the abstraction boundary between the KEM and the DEM parts a little differently.

This approach has been recently adopted in the context of PKE [1] where the KEM part has been called a tag-KEM. A generic composition result proved in [1] shows that it is possible to combine a CCA-secure Tag-KEM with a one-time secure DEM to obtain a CCA-secure PKE. The notion of Tag-KEM can be easily extended to the HIBE setting. In this section, we briefly summarize this extension. In doing so, we will closely follow the notation used in [1]. In the following, the set \mathcal{K}_D denotes the keyspace of a suitable symmetric encryption algorithm.

Definition: HIB-Tag-KEM (HTKEM) is defined by five algorithms.

- HTKEM.Setup: Takes as input a security parameter and outputs (pk, sk) , where pk is the public parameter of the PKG and sk is the master secret of the PKG. It also defines the domains of tags, encapsulated keys and identities.
- HTKEM.KeyGen($v, d_{v|_{j-1}}, pk$): This is the same as that for HIBE defined in Section 2.1.
- HTKEM.Key(v, pk): Takes as input pk and v and returns (ω, dk) as output, where $dk \in \mathcal{K}_D$ and ω is an encapsulation of dk under v .
- HTKEM.Enc(ω, cpr, v): Here cpr is the tag. Outputs ψ .
- HTKEM.Decap(v, d_v, ψ, cpr, pk): Outputs dk .

As usual, for soundness, we require that $\text{HTKEM.Decap}(v, d_v, \psi, \tau, pk) = dk$ must hold for all $v, d_v, pk, sk, dk, \psi, \tau$ associated by the above five algorithms. For more details on the interpretation of the above model in the PKE setting see [1]. Much of these also hold in the identity based setting.

4.1 Security Model for HIB-Tag-KEM

The adversary $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_D, \mathcal{O}_P}$ is a probabilistic algorithm with access to the two oracles \mathcal{O}_D and \mathcal{O}_P . The adversarial game is defined as follows.

1. generate (pk, sk) using HTKEM.Setup.
2. $(st_1, v^*) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_D, \mathcal{O}_P}(pk)$.
3. $(\omega^*, dk_1) \leftarrow \text{HTKEM.Key}(v^*, pk)$;
choose dk_0 randomly from \mathcal{K}_D ; choose δ to be a random bit.

4. $(\text{cpr}^*, \text{st}_2) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_D, \mathcal{O}_P}(\text{st}_1, dk_\delta)$.
5. $\psi^* \leftarrow \text{HTKEM.Enc}(\omega^*, \text{cpr}^*, \mathbf{v}^*)$.
6. $\delta' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_D, \mathcal{O}_P}(\text{st}_2, \psi)$.

The variables st_1, st_2 are state variables that the adversary uses to carry information from one phase to another. There are several natural restrictions on the use of the oracles by the adversary. In Step 2, the adversary outputs an identity \mathbf{v}^* ; the adversary must not query \mathcal{O}_P with \mathbf{v}^* or any of its prefixes in either Steps 2, 4 or 6. In Step 6, the adversary is not allowed to query \mathcal{O}_D with $(\mathbf{v}^*, \psi^*, \tau^*)$. Additionally, certain queries are useless for the adversary and we will assume that the adversary does not make such queries. If the adversary knows the secret key corresponding to an identity \mathbf{v} (by querying \mathcal{O}_P), then he does not query \mathcal{O}_D on \mathbf{v} or any identity of which \mathbf{v} is a prefix. The advantage of the adversary in winning this game is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{HTKEM}} = |\Pr[\delta = \delta'] - 1/2|.$$

As in the case of HIB-KEM, we define the resource bounded versions of the above advantage in an analogous manner.

4.2 Components (DEM, MAC, KDF, CRHF)

In the following we will be describing constructions of HIBE and HIB-Tag-KEM. These will require different components such as data encapsulation mechanism (DEM), message authentication code (MAC) and key derivation function (KDF). The security notions for HIBE, HIB-KEM and HTKEM have already been defined. We briefly introduce and state the security notions for DEM, MAC and KDF.

A DEM is a symmetric encryption scheme that consists of two algorithms DEM.Enc and DEM.Dec . The DEM satisfies a notion of security called one-time security which is the following. An adversary chooses two equal length messages; one of this is randomly selected and the adversary is given a ciphertext for this message under a randomly chosen key; the adversary has to determine which message has been encrypted.

A MAC has two algorithms MAC.Sign (the signing algorithm) and MAC.Ver (the verification algorithm). Both the algorithms use a shared secret key. The security notion required of the MAC scheme is the following. The adversary chooses a message msg ; a tag is produced under a randomly chosen secret key mk by computing $\text{tag} = \text{MAC.Sign}_{mk}(\text{msg})$; the adversary is given tag ; the adversary now has to produce a message tag pair $(\text{msg}', \text{tag}')$ such that $\text{msg} \neq \text{msg}'$ and $\text{MAC.Ver}_{mk}(\text{msg}', \text{tag}')$ is true.

A KDF is a function $\text{KDF}()$ which takes an input K and produces two keys (dk, mk) as output, where dk (resp. mk) is the secret key for the DEM (resp. MAC). The security notion for KDF is the following. For a randomly chosen K , the adversary has to distinguish between $\text{KDF}(K)$ and a randomly chosen (dk, mk) .

A function family $\{H_k\}_{k \in \mathcal{K}}$ is said to be a collision resistant hash function (CRHF) family if the following adversarial task is difficult. The adversary is given a randomly chosen $k \in \mathcal{K}$ and has to find $x \neq x'$ in the domain of the family such that $H_k(x) = H_k(x')$. We say that the family is (ϵ, t) -secure if the maximum probability of an adversary running in time t and of finding a collision is ϵ .

Notation: We say that a DEM (resp. MAC, KDF, CRHF) is (ϵ, t) -secure if the maximum advantage of an adversary running in time t of breaking the DEM (resp. MAC, KEM) is ϵ . Similarly, we say that a HIBE (resp. HIB-KEM, HTKEM) is $(\epsilon, t, q_{\text{ID}}, q_C)$ -CCA secure if the maximum advantage of an adversary running in time t and making q_{ID} key extraction queries and q_C decryption (resp. decapsulation) queries of breaking the HIBE (resp. HIB-KEM, HTKEM) is ϵ . Lastly, we say that the (ϵ, t) -DBDH assumption holds if the maximum advantage of an adversary running in time t for solving DBDH is ϵ . By ϵ_{xxx} we will denote the advantage corresponding to XXX, where XXX is one of DBDH, HIBE, HIB-KEM, HTKEM, DEM, MAC, KDF, CRHF.

4.3 Generic Construction of Hybrid CCA-Secure HIBE

As mentioned earlier, the importance of considering HTKEM is that one can generically combine a CCA-secure HTKEM with a one-time secure DEM to obtain a CCA-secure HIBE. This parallels a similar construction in the PKE setting as shown in [1].

Set-Up: Invoke HTKEM.Setup to obtain (pk, sk) .

Key Extraction: Given v return HTKEM.KeyGen($v, d_{v|_{j-1}}, pk$).

Encryption: A message M is encrypted using an identity v in the following manner.

1. $(\omega, dk) \leftarrow \text{HTKEM.Key}(v, pk)$;
2. $\text{cpr} \leftarrow \text{DEM.Enc}_{dk}(M)$;
3. $\psi \leftarrow \text{HTKEM.Enc}(\omega, \text{cpr}, v)$;
4. output $c = (\psi, \text{cpr})$ and v .

Decryption: Given (c, v) , the decryption is as follows.

1. $(\psi, \text{cpr}) \leftarrow c$;
2. $dk \leftarrow \text{HTKEM.Dec}(v, d_v, \psi, \text{cpr}, pk)$;
3. $M \leftarrow \text{DEM.Dec}_{dk}(\chi)$;
4. output M .

The above construction yields a CCA-secure (hybrid) HIBE. The corresponding result for PKE was proved in [1]. The same proof also works for the identity based protocol, with the obvious modification that any private key query by the adversary attacking HIBE is answered by the simulator by querying the key extraction oracle of the HTKEM. The rest of the proof goes through without any other change.

Theorem 2. *If HTKEM is (ϵ_{htkem}, t) -CCA secure and DEM is (ϵ_{dem}, t) -secure, then HIBE is (ϵ_{hibe}, t) -CCA secure, where $\epsilon_{hibe} \leq 2\epsilon_{htkem} + \epsilon_{dem}$.*

Informally, we say that if HTKEM is CCA-secure and DEM is one-time secure, then the above hybrid HIBE is CCA-secure.

4.4 Construction of HIB-Tag-KEM

The main protocol of the paper is a modification of the HIB-KEM protocol of Section 3 to obtain a HIB-Tag-KEM protocol. This is a non-generic construction. (A generic construction of HIB-Tag-KEM along the lines of a generic construction of a Tag-KEM in [1] is possible but is of less interest.)

HTKEM.Setup: This is almost the same as the set-up of the HIB-KEM protocol in Section 3. The only difference is that in this protocol we assume H to be randomly chosen from a CRHF family $\{H_k\}_{k \in \mathcal{K}}$, where each $H_k : \{1, \dots, h\} \times G_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$.

HTKEM.KeyGen($\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j), d_{v|_{j-1}}, pk$): This is the same as the key generation of the HIB-KEM protocol in Section 3.

HTKEM.Key($\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j), pk$):

1. Choose t randomly from \mathbb{Z}_p ;
2. Define $\phi = (C_1 = tP, C_2 = tW_\gamma, B_1 = tV_1(v_1), \dots, B_j = tV_j(v_j))$, where $W_\gamma = W + \gamma P_1$ and $\gamma = H(j, C_1)$;
3. Set $K = e(P_1, P_2)^t$ and $(dk, mk) = \text{KDF}(K)$;
4. output $(dk, \omega = (mk, \phi))$.

HTKEM.Enc($\omega, \text{cpr}, \mathbf{v}$):

1. $(mk, \phi) = \omega$;
2. $\text{chksm} = \text{MAC.Sig}_{mk}(\text{cpr})$;
3. output $\psi = (\phi, \text{chksm})$.

HTKEM.Dec($\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j), d_v = (d_0, d_1, \dots, d_j), \psi, \text{cpr}, pk$):

1. $(\phi, \text{chksm}) = \psi$ where $\phi = (C_1, C_2, B_1, \dots, B_j)$;
2. Compute $W_\gamma = W + \gamma P_1$ where $\gamma = H(j, C_1)$;
3. if $e(C_1, W_\gamma) \neq e(P, C_2)$, return bad;
4. $K = e(d_0, C_1) / (\prod_{i=1}^j e(B_i, d_i))$;
5. $(mk, dk) = \text{KDF}(K)$;
6. if $\text{MAC.Ver}_{mk}(\text{cpr}, \text{chksm}) \neq 1$, return bad;
7. else return dk .

Theorem 3. *If $\{H_k\}_{k \in \mathcal{K}}$ is (ϵ_{crhf}, t) -secure, MAC is (ϵ_{mac}, t') -secure, KDF is (ϵ_{kdf}, t') -secure and the $(\epsilon_{dbdh}, t + \chi(\epsilon_{htkem}))$ -DBDH assumption holds in $\langle G_1, G_2, e \rangle$, then HTKEM is $(\epsilon_{htkem}, t, q_v, q_C)$ -CCA secure, where,*

$$2\epsilon_{htkem} \leq 2\epsilon_{crhf} + \epsilon_{dbdh}/\lambda + 4\epsilon_{kdf} + 4hq_C(\epsilon_{kdf} + \epsilon_{mac}).$$

Here h is the maximum number of levels in the HIBE; $\chi()$ and λ are as defined in Theorem 1. Further, $t' = t + O(\tau(q_v + q_C))$.

We present the proof in Section B.

Discussion: The above construction is more efficient than that of Section 3 in the sense that we can avoid all but one pairing computations for the verification of well-formedness of the ciphertext. The technique to achieve CCA-security in [7] requires pairing verifications as in Section 3. On the other hand, the transformations in [9, 6] do not perform pairing computations to test well-formedness. Applying the MAC-based transformation of [6] to the protocol in Section 2.6 results in CCA-secure HIBE where the number of operations is approximately same as the number of operation in the protocol of this section.

CCA-secure protocols resulting from applying the previously known techniques yield an h -level HIBE whose exponent of security degradation is $h + 1$. In contrast, for both the protocols in Section 3 and this section, the exponent of security degradation for an h -level HIBE is h . This reduction in security degradation, while retaining the efficiency of MAC based approach, is the main contribution of this work.

5 Conclusion

We have presented two constructions of CCA-secure HIBE in the KEM/DEM framework. Both of these protocols are secure in the full model without random oracle and are obtained by modifying a recent construction of CPA-secure HIBE [11]. The first construction uses a number of expensive pairings to verify the well-formedness of the encapsulated key. The second construction removes these pairings by properly using a MAC algorithm. This requires us to extend the notion of Tag-KEM/DEM framework to the hierarchical identity based setting. The main point of both our constructions is that the security degradation for an h -level HIBE is exponential in h . Applying previous constructions [9, 6, 7] to the CPA-secure protocol in [11] yields a CCA-secure HIBE protocol where the security degradation for an h -level HIBE is exponential in $(h + 1)$. This reduction in the exponent of security degradation from $(h + 1)$ to h is significant in choosing smaller size groups for practical implementations.

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Appendix

A Proof of Theorem 1

The construction of CCA-secure HIB-KEM in Section 3 is built on the construction of CPA-secure HIBE given in [11] (see Section 2.6). The proof of security given in [11] is using a sequence of games. The proof of Theorem 1 can be obtained by modifying these games. Here we describe the required modifications. In each game a bit δ is chosen randomly and the adversary makes a guess δ' . By X_i we denote the event that $\delta = \delta'$ in the i th game.

Game 0: This is the usual adversarial game for defining CCA-security of HIB-KEM protocols. We assume that the adversary’s runtime is t , it makes q_{ID} key-extraction queries and q_{C} decapsulation queries. Also, we assume that the adversary maximizes the advantage among all adversaries with similar resources. Thus, we have $\epsilon_{\text{hib-kem}} = \left| \Pr[X_0] - \frac{1}{2} \right|$.

Game 1: This game is obtained by modifying Game 1 in [11]. As in [11], the protocol is setup from a tuple $(P, P_1 = aP, P_2 = bP, P_3 = cP, Z = e(P, P)^{abc})$. There are four parts to this game – setup; simulation of key-extraction queries; simulation of decapsulation queries; and challenge generation. In [11], the setup, simulation of key-extraction queries and challenge generation are required. The simulation of key-extraction queries in the HIB-KEM protocol is the same as in [11] and hence we do not mention it here. The simulation of decapsulation queries is totally new and the setup and the challenge generation needs to be modified. Below we describe these modifications and the simulation of decapsulation queries. As in [11], it may not always be possible to answer the queries or to generate a proper challenge without using the values of a, b and c . In this case, the simulator sets a flag `flg` to 1 (initially `flg` is set to 0). However, the simulator always answers the adversary, if necessary by using the values a, b and c . Thus, the adversary’s view remains the same and hence we have $\Pr[X_1] = \Pr[X_0]$.

Set-Up: The public parameters $(P, P_1, P_2, U'_1, \dots, U'_h, U_1, \dots, U_l)$ are set-up as in [11]. Additionally, we need to specify W . This is done as follows. Randomly choose a j_θ from $\{1, \dots, h\}$ and compute $\gamma = H(j_\theta, P_3)$; choose β randomly from \mathbb{Z}_p and define $W = -\gamma P_1 + \beta P$. The choice of j_θ corresponds to the fact that at this point we are guessing the length of the challenge identity.

Decapsulation Query: Suppose $C = (C_1, C_2, B_1, \dots, B_j)$ is a decapsulation query for the identity $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_j)$. Compute $\gamma' = H(j, C_1)$ and $W_{\gamma'} = W + \gamma'P_1$. The simulator then runs the public verification tests (i.e., $e(C_1, W_{\gamma'}) = e(P, C_2)$ and for $1 \leq i \leq j$, $e(C_1, V_i) = e(P, B_i)$) from the decapsulation procedure and proceeds if the test succeeds. If the test fails, it returns **bad** to \mathcal{A} . (The public verification tests rule out the following adversarial behaviour. The adversary first submits a mal-formed decapsulation query on an identity \mathbf{v} and later asks for the private key of \mathbf{v} .) Note that, at this point, since the ciphertext has already passed the public verification tests, we can write $C_1 = tP$ and $C_2 = tW_{\gamma'}$ for some t in \mathbb{Z}_p .

Choose r randomly from \mathbb{Z}_p and compute $E_{\gamma'}$ and $d_{\gamma'}$ in the following manner. Recall that $\gamma = H(j_\theta, P_3) = H(j_\theta, cP)$ and $W = -\gamma P_1 + \beta P$.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} E_{\gamma'} &= \frac{-\beta}{\gamma' - \gamma} P_2 + r((\gamma' - \gamma)P_1 + \beta P) \\ &= aP_2 + \left(r - \frac{b}{\gamma' - \gamma}\right) (\gamma' P_1 + W) \\ &= aP_2 + \tilde{r}W_{\gamma'} \\ d_{\gamma'} &= rP - \frac{1}{\gamma' - \gamma} P_2 \\ &= \tilde{r}P. \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5)$$

The decapsulation can now be performed as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{e(E_{\gamma'}, C_1)}{e(d_{\gamma'}, C_2)} &= \frac{e(aP_2 + \tilde{r}W_{\gamma'}, tP)}{e(\tilde{r}P, tW_{\gamma'})} \\ &= e(P_1, P_2)^t. \end{aligned}$$

Challenge: Except C_2 , the other components of the challenge encapsulation are generated as in [11]. This may require the use of the values a, b and c , in which case **flg** is set to 1. We now describe how the component C_2 is generated.

Let the challenge identity be $(v_1^*, \dots, v_{j^*}^*)$. If $j^* \neq j_\theta$, then set **flg** to 1. In this case, the simulator uses a, b and c to generate the challenge and answer the adversary. Otherwise, set $C_2 = \beta P_3$. This C_2 is properly formed since $C_2 = cW_{\gamma'} = c(\gamma' P_1 + W) = c(\gamma' P_1 - \gamma P_1 + \beta P) = c\beta P = \beta P_3$. We use $\gamma' = H(j_\theta, C_1) = H(j^*, cP) = \gamma$. Set $Z_0 = Z$ and Z_1 to be a random element of G_2 . Choose a random bit δ and return (K^*, Z_δ) to the adversary.

Game 2: This game is the same as Game 1, with the only difference that the Z in Game 1 is now replaced by a random element of G_2 . As in [11], it is now possible to show that

$$|\Pr[X_1] - \Pr[X_2]| \leq \frac{\epsilon_{dbh}}{2\lambda} + \frac{\epsilon_{hib-kem}}{2} \quad (6)$$

where λ is a lower bound on the probability of **flg** remaining 0 throughout the game. In contrast to [11], there is an additional event when **flg** is set to 1. This happens when the length j^* of the target identity does not equal the guessed length j_θ of the target identity during set-up. Since j_θ is chosen randomly from $\{1, \dots, h\}$ and j^* is also between $\{1, \dots, h\}$ the probability that they are equal is $1/h$. This introduces a factor of h in the expression of λ in the statement of Theorem 1.

The other aspects of the proof of Theorem 1 remain the same as that of the proof of the CPA-secure protocol in [11].

B Proof of Theorem 3

As in Section A, by X_i we will denote the event that the bit δ is equal to the bit δ' in the i th game. We want to show that HTKEM is $(\epsilon_{htkem}, t, q_{\text{ID}}, q_{\text{C}})$ -CCA secure.

Game 0: This is the usual adversarial game used in defining CCA-secure HIB-Tag-KEM. We assume that the adversary's runtime is t and it makes q_{ID} key extraction queries and q_{C} decapsulation queries. Also, we assume that the adversary maximizes the advantage among all adversaries with similar resources. Thus, we have

$$\epsilon_{htkem} = \left| \Pr[X_0] - \frac{1}{2} \right|.$$

Game 1: This is the same as Game 0, with the following change. If the adversary ever submits two decapsulation queries of the forms $(C_1, C_2, B_1, \dots, B_j)$ and $(C'_1, C'_2, B'_1, \dots, B'_j)$, with $(j, C_1) \neq (j', C'_1)$ and $H(j, C_1) = H(j, C'_1)$, then the simulator rejects the second query. Let F_1 be the event that a decapsulation query is rejected only by this check. It is easy to see that $\Pr[F_1] \leq \epsilon_{crhf}$. If F_1 does not occur, then Game 0 and Game 1 are identical. Using the difference lemma (as named in [18]), we obtain

$$|\Pr[X_0] - \Pr[X_1]| \leq \Pr[F_1] \leq \epsilon_{crhf}.$$

Game 2: This game is similar to the Game 1 in the proof of Theorem 1 with some obvious modifications for adjusting the game from the HIB-KEM format to the HIB-Tag-KEM format. Further, the pairing based public verification tests are no longer performed as these are not part of the HIB-Tag-KEM protocol.

Game 3: This is obtained by modifying Game 2 in a manner similar to the modification made to Game 1 to obtain Game 2 in the proof of Theorem 1. Simply stated, the Z which is equal to $e(P, P)^{abc}$ in Game 2 is now replaced by a random element of G_2 . Arguments similar to that given for the proof of Theorem 1 (and based on arguments in [11]) can be used to show that

$$|\Pr[X_2] - \Pr[X_3]| \leq \frac{\epsilon_{bdh}}{2\lambda} + \frac{\epsilon_{htkem}}{2}. \quad (7)$$

Game 4: We now want to tackle the adversary's strategy of attacking either KDF or MAC. We will assume that u'_j and u_i are known to the simulator such that $U'_j = u'_j P$ and $U_i = u_i P$. This does not disturb adversary's view of the game. On the other hand, with this knowledge, we can assume that for any V_i , the simulator is able to compute w_i such that $V_i = w_i P$. The adversary may submit a decryption query with $C_1 = tP$ and for some i , $B_i = t_1 V_i$ with $t \neq t_1$. The knowledge of w_i allows the simulator to test for this in the following manner: If $e(C_1, V_i) \neq e(w_i C_1, P)$, then $t_1 \neq t$ and the query is malformed. The simulator can now detect and reject such a query. Note that this checking is not done in the actual protocol. So, we would like to be assured that the chance of getting to this checking stage is small. In other words, we would like to be assured that if the query is malformed as above and the protocol does not reject it, then the adversary has broken either KDF or MAC.

As in [1], let **Rejection Rule 0** be the normal protocol rejection rule and **Rejection Rule 1** be the rejection rule as mentioned above. Let F_4 be the event that a malformed query is rejected by **Rule 1** but not by **Rule 0**. Our aim is to show that the chance of this happening is low. Note that if no query is rejected by **Rule 1**, then Games 3 and 4 are identical.

From this point onwards, we will only be considering decapsulation queries. The adversary makes a total of q_C decapsulation queries. We will use the superscript (j) to denote the quantities related to the j th decryption query. For example, $K^{(j)}$ denotes the input to $\text{KDF}()$ in the j th decryption query.

We now employ a “plug and pray” technique used in [1] and assume that the i th component of the j th query is malformed, i.e., $C_1^{(j)} = tP$ and $B_i^{(j)} = t_1P$ with $t \neq t_1$. Note that the “plug and pray” here also extends over the levels of the HIBE, a feature which is not required in [1]. Let F'_4 be the event that **Rule 0** does not apply to the j th query but **Rule 1** does apply. Then $\Pr[F_4] \leq h \times q_C \times \Pr[F'_4]$ and we have

$$|\Pr[X_3] - \Pr[X_4]| \leq \Pr[F_4] \leq h \times q_C \times \Pr[F'_4]. \quad (8)$$

We would like to upper bound $\Pr[F'_4]$. For this we use the deferred analysis technique of [1]. Also, since we have done a “plug and pray” over the levels of the HIBE, henceforth we will assume that there is only one level in the HIBE, i.e., we are considering an IBE protocol. This will simplify the notation as this will result in only one V .

Game 5: We modify Game 4 in the following manner. If the j th decryption query is detected to be malformed using **Rule 1**, then we set $K^{(j)}$ to be a random element of G_2 . We now have to argue that this does not change the adversary’s point of view. In effect, we are setting both K^* and $K^{(j)}$ to be independent random elements and have to argue that this is what the adversary can expect to see.

A similar argument is also required in [1]. This is done by initially having some extra randomness in the setup and later adjusting the setup parameters such that these randomness can be transferred to the challenge ciphertext and the malformed query. The situation in the identity based setting is different. In the identity based setting, the adversary can ask for the private key corresponding to an identity; such a thing is not possible in the public key encryption setting. On the other hand, the online probabilistic generation of the secret key for an identity allows an extra source of randomness.

Let us now analyze the relationship between the identity v^* for the challenge ciphertext and the identity $v^{(j)}$ for the malformed query. There are two cases to consider.

Case $v^ = v^{(j)}$:* In this case, the adversary cannot ask for the private key of $v^{(j)}$. Let the secret key corresponding to $v^{(j)}$ be $(aP_2 + rV^{(j)}, rP)$, where r is a random element of \mathbb{Z}_p . Then the adversary expects $K^{(j)}$ of the malformed query to be

$$K^{(j)} = \frac{e(aP_2 + rV^{(j)}, tP)}{e(t_1V^{(j)}, rP)} = e(P_1, P_2)^t \times e(P, P)^{rw(t-t_1)}.$$

Since $t \neq t_1$ (as the query is malformed) and r is random, $K^{(j)}$ is also random. On the other hand, the adversary expects K^* to be $e(P_1, P_2)^{t^*}$ where t^* is random. Hence, the adversary expects K^* to be random. Further, the randomness of $K^{(j)}$ and K^* depends on the randomness of r and t^* which are independent. Hence, the adversary also expects $K^{(j)}$ and K^* to be independent random quantities as provided to the adversary.

Case $v^ \neq v^{(j)}$:* In this case, the adversary can ask for the secret key for $v^{(j)}$ but not before making the malformed decryption query. If the adversary knows the secret key for $v^{(j)}$, then he can decrypt any ciphertext encrypted using $v^{(j)}$. Thus, it is useless for him to query the decryption oracle using $v^{(j)}$ *after* obtaining the secret key for $v^{(j)}$. Recall that we had disallowed such useless queries.

The adversary can first ask for the decryption of a malformed query and then ask for the private key for the same identity. We have to ensure that the answers to the decryption and private key queries are consistent. (This situation does not arise in public key encryption scheme.) By consistency we mean the following. Suppose the adversary makes a decapsulation query with $v^{(j)}$ and a later private key extraction query on $v^{(j)}$. With the private key $d_{v^{(j)}}$ returned to him, the adversary can decrypt his own earlier decapsulation query. Consistency requires that the output given to him on his decapsulation query should be equal to what he computes for himself. The next modification ensures this consistency. Note that in this case, we do not have to bother about the independence of K^* and $K^{(j)}$, since this will be easily ensured.

Let the j th query be of the form $(t^{(j)}P, t_1^{(j)}V)$. Suppose the simulator returns $K^{(j)} = e(P_1, P_2)^{t_2^{(j)}}$. On a later private key query on $v^{(j)}$, the adversary has to return $(aP_2 + r^{(j)}V, r^{(j)}P)$ for some random $r^{(j)} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. The consistency requirement is satisfied if

$$K^{(j)} = \frac{e(aP_2 + r^{(j)}V, t^{(j)}P)}{e(t_1^{(j)}V, r^{(j)}P)}.$$

As mentioned before, the simulator can compute a w such that $V = wP$ for some $w \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Also $P_1 = aP$ and $P_2 = bP$, where we assume at this point that the quantities a and b are known to the simulator. The above consistency condition can be written as

$$t_2^{(j)} = t^{(j)} + \frac{wr^{(j)}(t^{(j)} - t_1^{(j)})}{ab}.$$

Note that the simulator does not know $t^{(j)}$ and $t_1^{(j)}$.

The j th malformed query is answered in the following manner. The simulator chooses an $r^{(j)}$ (required for answering a possible future key extraction query on $v^{(j)}$) randomly. It then computes $A = e(P, abt^{(j)}P) = e(P, P)^{abt^{(j)}}$. This can be done since the simulator knows a, b, P and $t^{(j)}P$. It then computes

$$B = \frac{e(t^{(j)}P, r^{(j)}V^{(j)})}{e(t_1^{(j)}V^{(j)}, r^{(j)}P)} = e(P, P)^{r^{(j)}w(t^{(j)} - t_1^{(j)})}.$$

Note that both numerator and denominator is computable from what is known to the simulator. Then the simulator computes

$$K^{(j)} = (A \times B)^{1/(ab)} = e(P_1, P_2)^{t_2^{(j)}}.$$

This value $K^{(j)}$ is returned to the adversary. Since $r^{(j)}$ is random, so is $t_2^{(j)}$ and hence $K^{(j)}$ is random. Later if the adversary asks for the private key for $v^{(j)}$, then the simulator uses $r^{(j)}$ to construct the private key and answer the adversary.

Define F_5' in a manner similar to F_4' . Then we have

$$\Pr[X_4] = \Pr[X_5] \text{ and } \Pr[F_4'] = \Pr[F_5']. \quad (9)$$

Game 6: This is obtained from Game 5 by the following modification. In Game 5, the keys (dk^*, mk^*) and $(dk^{(j)}, mk^{(j)})$ are obtained by applying KDF to K^* and $K^{(j)}$ respectively. In Game 6, these are generated randomly. Define F'_6 in a manner similar to that of F'_4 . Then we have

$$|\Pr[X_5] - \Pr[X_6]| \leq 2\epsilon_{kdf} \text{ and } |\Pr[F'_5] - \Pr[F'_6]| \leq 2\epsilon_{kdf}. \quad (10)$$

The factor of two comes due to the fact that the adversary can break one out of these two invocations of KDF.

Further, $\Pr[X_6] = 1/2$ since irrespective of the value of b chosen by the simulator the adversary gets to see only a random string. Also, $\Pr[F'_6] \leq 2\epsilon_{mac}$. The factor of two again comes due to the fact that the adversary can forge one out of above two applications of MAC verification. (We note that the modifications done to Game 5 to obtain Game 6 are the same as the modifications done in [1] to Game 4 to obtain Game 5.) Finally, combining all the inequalities, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{htkem} &= \left| \Pr[X_0] - \frac{1}{2} \right| \\ &= |\Pr[X_0] - \Pr[X_6]| \\ &\leq |\Pr[X_0] - \Pr[X_1]| + |\Pr[X_2] - \Pr[X_3]| + |\Pr[X_3] - \Pr[X_4]| + |\Pr[X_5] - \Pr[X_6]| \\ &\leq 2\epsilon_{crhf} + \frac{\epsilon_{dbdh}}{2\lambda} + \frac{\epsilon_{htkem}}{2} + 2\epsilon_{kdf} + hq_C(2\epsilon_{kdf} + 2\epsilon_{mac}). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof of the result. □