# Reducing Trust in the PKG in Identity Based Cryptosystems 

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#### Abstract

One day, you suddenly find that a private key corresponding to your Identity is up for sale at e-Bay. Since you do not suspect a key compromise, perhaps it must be the PKG who is acting dishonestly and trying to make money by selling your key. How do you find out for sure and even prove it in a court of law?

This paper introduces the concept of Traceable Identity based Encryption which is a new approach to mitigate the (inherent) key escrow problem in identity based encryption schemes. Our main goal is to restrict the ways in which the PKG can misbehave. In our system, if the PKG ever maliciously generates and distributes a decryption key for an Identity, it runs the risk of being caught and prosecuted.

In contrast to other mitigation approaches, our approach does not require multiple key generation authorities.


## 1 Introduction

The notion of identity based encryption (IBE) was introduced by Shamir Sha84 as an approach to simplify public key and certificate management in a public key infrastructure (PKI). Although the concept was proposed in 1984 Sha84, it was only in 2001 that a practical and fully functional IBE scheme was proposed by Boneh and Franklin [BF01]. Their construction used bilinear maps and could be proven secure in the random oracle model. Following that work, a rapid development of identity based PKI has taken place. A series of papers CHK03, BB04a, BB04b, Wat05, Gen06 striving to achieve stronger notions of security led to efficient IBE schemes in the standard model. There now exist hierarchical IBE schemes GS02, HL02, BBG05, identity based signatures and authentication schemes CC03, FS86, FFS88 and a host of other identity based primitive.

In an IBE system, the public key of a user may be an arbitrary string like an e-mail address or other identifier. This eliminates certificates altogether; the sender could just encrypt the message with the identity of the recipient without having to first obtain his public key (and make sure that the obtained public key is the right one). Of course, users are not capable of generating a private key for an identity themselves. For this reason, there is a trusted party called the private key generator (PKG) who does the system setup. To obtain a private key
for his identity, a user would go to the PKG and prove his identity. The PKG would then generate the appropriate private key and pass it on to the user.

Since the PKG is able to compute the private key corresponding to any identity, it has to be completely trusted. The PKG is free to engage in malicious activities without any risk of being confronted in a court of law. The malicious activities could include: decrypting and reading messages meant for any user, or worse still: generating and distributing private keys for any identity. This, in fact, has been cited as a reason for the slow adoption of IBE despite its nice properties in terms of usability. It has been argued that due to the inherent key escrow problem, the use of IBE is restricted to small and closed groups where a central trusted authority is available [ARP03, $\mathrm{LBD}^{+} 04$, Gen03].

One approach to mitigate the key escrow problem problem is to employ multiple PKGs BF01. In this approach, the master key for the IBE system is distributed to multiple PKGs; that is, no single PKG has the knowledge of the master key. The private key generation for an identity is done in a threshold manner. This is an attractive solution and successfully avoids placing trust in a single entity by making the system distributed. However, this solution comes at the cost of introducing extra infrastructure and communication. It is burdensome for a user to go to several key authorities, prove his identity to each of them and get a private key component (which has to be done over a secure channel). Further, maintaining multiple independent entities for managing a single PKI might be difficult in a commercial setting (e.g., the PKI has to be jointly managed by several companies).

To the best of our knowledge, without making the PKG distributed, there is no known solution to mitigate the problem of having to place trust in the PKG.

A New Approach. In this paper, we explore a new approach to mitigate the above trust problem. Very informally, the simplest form of our approach is as follows:

- In the IBE scheme, there will be an exponential (or super-polynomial) number of possible decryption keys corresponding to every identity ID.
- Given one decryption key for an identity, it is intractable to find any other.
- A users gets the decryption key corresponding to his identity from the PKG using a secure key generation protocol. The protocol allows the user to obtain a single decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ for his identity without letting the PKG know which key he obtained.
- Now if the PKG generates a decryption key $d_{\text {ID }}^{\prime}$ for that identity for malicious usage, with all but negligible probability, it will be different from the key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ which the user obtained. Hence the key pair ( $d_{\mathrm{ID}}, d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$ ) is a cryptographic proof of malicious behavior of the PKG (since in normal circumstances, only one key per identity should be in circulation).

The PKG can surely decrypt all the user message passively. However, the PKG is severely restricted as far as the distribution of the private key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$ is concerned. The knowledge of the key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$ enables an entity $E$ to go to the honest user $U$
(with identity ID and having key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ ) and together with him, sue the PKG by presenting the pair $\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}, d_{\mathrm{ID}}\right)$ as a proof of fraud (thus potentially closing down its business or getting some hefty money as a compensation which can be happily shared by $E$ and $U$ ). This means that if the PKG ever generates a decryption key for an identity for malicious purposes, it runs the risk that the key could fall into "right hands" which could be fatal.

The above approach can be compared to a regular (i.e., not identity based) PKIs. In a regular PKI, a user will go to a CA and get a certificate binding his identity with his public key. The CA could surely generate one more certificate binding a malicious public key to his identity. However, two certificates corresponding to the same identity constitute a cryptographic proof of fraud. Similarly in our setting, the PKG is free to generate one more decryption key for his identity. However, two decryption keys corresponding to the same identity constitute a proof of fraud. Of course, there are important differences. In a regular PKI, the CA has to actively send the fraudulent certificate to potential encrypters (which is risky for the CA) while in our setting, the PKG could just decrypt the user messages passively. However, we believe that the IBE setting is more demanding and ours is nonetheless a step in the right direction.

We call an identity based encryption scheme of the type discussed above as a traceable identity based encryption (T-IBE) scheme. This is to reflect the fact that if a malicious decryption key is discovered, it can be traced back either to the corresponding user (if his decryption key is the same as the one found) or to the PKG (if the user has a different decryption key). We formalize this notion later on in the paper. We remark that what we discussed above is a slight simplification of our T-IBE concept. Given a decryption key for an identity, we allow a user to compute certain other decryption keys for the same identity as long as all the decryption keys computable belong to the same family (a family can be seen as a subspace of decryption keys). Thus in this case, two decryption keys belonging to different families is a cryptographic proof of malicious behavior of the PKG.

Although the concept of T-IBE is interesting, we do not expect it to be usable on its own. We see this concept more as a stepping stone to achieving what we call a black-box traceable identity based encryption discussed later in this section.

Our Constructions. We formalize the notion of traceable identity based encryption and present two construction for it; one very efficient but based on a strong assumption, the other somewhat inefficient but based on the standard decisional BDH assumption.

Our first construction is based on the identity based encryption scheme recently proposed by Gentry Gen06. The scheme is the most efficient IBE construction known to date without random oracle. Apart from computational efficiency, it enjoys properties such as short public parameters and a tight security reduction (albeit at the cost of using a strong assumption). Remarkably, we are able to convert Gentry's scheme to a T-IBE scheme without any changes whatsoever to the basic cryptosystem. We are able to construct a secure key generation
protocol as per our requirement for the basic cryptosystem and then present new proofs of security to show that the resulting system is a T-IBE system.

Our second construction of traceable identity based encryption is based on the decisional BDH assumption and uses the IBE scheme of Waters Wat05 and the Fuzzy IBE scheme of Sahai and Waters SW05 as building blocks. We remark that the construction is not very efficient and requires several pairing operations per decryption.

Black-Box Traceable Identity based Encryption. In traceable identity based encryption, as explained we consider the scenario when a PKG generates and tries to distribute a decryption key corresponding to an identity. T-IBE specifically assumes that the key is a well-formed decryption key. However, one can imagine a scenario where the PKG constructs a malformed decryption key which, when used in conjunction with some other decryption process, is still able to decrypt the ciphertexts. In the extreme case, there could a black box (using an unknown key and algorithm) which is able to decrypt the ciphertexts. Given such a box, a third party (such as the court of law), possibly with the cooperation of the PKG and the user, should be able to trace the box back to its source. That is, it should be able to determine whether it was the PKG or the user who was involved in the creation of this black box. We call such a system as black-box traceable identity based encryption system. This is a natural extension of the T-IBE concept and is closely related to the concept of black-box traitor tracing in broadcast encryption CFN94, BSW06. We leave the construction of a black-box T-IBE scheme as an important open problem.

We stress that black-box T-IBE is really what one would like to use in practice. We intend the current work only to serve as an indication of what might be possible, and as motivation for further work in this direction.

Related Work. To our knowledge, T-IBE is the first approach for any kind of mitigation to the problem of trust in the PKG without using multiple PKGs. On the multiple PKGs side, Boneh and Franklin BF01] proposed an efficient approach to make the PKG distributed in their scheme using techniques from threshold cryptography. Lee et al $\mathrm{LBD}^{+} 04$ proposed a variant of this approach using multiple key privacy agents (KPAs). Also relevant are the new cryptosystems proposed by Gentry Gen03 and Al-Riyami and Paterson ARP03. Although their main motivation was to overcome the key escrow problem, these works are somewhat orthogonal to ours since these cryptosystems are not identity based.

Other Remarks. We only consider identity based encryption in this paper. The analogue of T-IBE for identity based signatures appears straightforward to achieve. We also note that it may be possible to profitably combine our approach with the multiple PKG approach and exploit the mutual distrust between the PKGs. For example if two (or more) PKGs collude together to generate a decryption key for an identity, each PKG knows that it has left a cryptographic proof of its fraud with others. We can have a system where the PKG who presents
this proof of fraud to the court is not penalized. Now since a PKG has the power to sue another (to close down its business and have one less competitor), this seems to be an effective fraud prevention idea. We do not explore this approach in this paper and defer it to future work.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Bilinear Maps

We present a few facts related to groups with efficiently computable bilinear maps. Let $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ and $\mathbb{G}_{2}$ be two multiplicative cyclic groups of prime order $p$. Let $g$ be a generator of $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ and $e$ be a bilinear map, $e: \mathbb{G}_{1} \times \mathbb{G}_{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_{2}$. The bilinear map $e$ has the following properties:

1. Bilinearity: for all $u, v \in \mathbb{G}_{1}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, we have $e\left(u^{a}, v^{b}\right)=e(u, v)^{a b}$.
2. Non-degeneracy: $e(g, g) \neq 1$.

We say that $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ is a bilinear group if the group operation in $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ and the bilinear map $e: \mathbb{G}_{1} \times \mathbb{G}_{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_{2}$ are both efficiently computable. Notice that the map $e$ is symmetric since $e\left(g^{a}, g^{b}\right)=e(g, g)^{a b}=e\left(g^{b}, g^{a}\right)$.

### 2.2 Complexity Assumptions

Decisional Bilinear Diffie-Hellman ( $B D H$ ) Assumption. Let $a, b, c, z \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ be chosen at random and $g$ be a generator of $\mathbb{G}_{1}$. The decisional BDH assumption BB04a, SW05] is that no probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ can distinguish the tuple ( $\left.A=g^{a}, B=g^{b}, C=g^{c}, e(g, g)^{a b c}\right)$ from the tuple $\left(A=g^{a}, B=\right.$ $\left.g^{b}, C=g^{c}, e(g, g)^{z}\right)$ with more than a negligible advantage. The advantage of $\mathcal{B}$ is

$$
\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{B}\left(A, B, C, e(g, g)^{a b c}\right)=0\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{B}\left(A, B, C, e(g, g)^{z}\right)=0\right]\right|
$$

where the probability is taken over the random choice of the generator $g$, the random choice of $a, b, c, z$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$, and the random bits consumed by $\mathcal{B}$.

Decisional Truncated $q-A B D H E$ Assumption. The truncated augmented bilinear Diffie-Hellman exponent assumption (truncated q-ABDHE assumption) was introduced by Gentry Gen06 and is very closely related to the q-BDHE problem BBG05 and the q-BDHI problem BB04a. Let $g$ be a generator of $\mathbb{G}_{1}$. The decisional truncated q-ABDHE assumption is: given a vector of $q+3$ elements

$$
\left(g^{\prime}, g^{\left(\alpha^{q+2}\right)}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\left(\alpha^{2}\right)}, \ldots, g^{\left(\alpha^{q}\right)}\right)
$$

no PPT algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ can distinguish $e\left(g, g^{\prime}\right)^{\left(\alpha^{q+1}\right)}$ from a random element $Z \in \mathbb{G}_{2}$ with more than a negligible advantage. The advantage of $\mathcal{B}$ is defined as

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\mid \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{B}\left(g^{\prime}, g^{\prime\left(\alpha^{q+2}\right)}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\left(\alpha^{2}\right)}, \ldots, g^{\left(\alpha^{q}\right)}, e\left(g, g^{\prime}\right)^{\left(\alpha^{q+1}\right)}\right)=0\right] \\
-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{B}\left(g^{\prime}, g^{\prime\left(\alpha^{q+2}\right)}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\left(\alpha^{2}\right)}, \ldots, g^{\left(\alpha^{q}\right)}, Z\right)=0\right] \mid
\end{array}
$$

where the probability is taken over the random choice of generator $g, g^{\prime} \in \mathbb{G}_{1}$, the random choice of $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, the random choice of $Z \in \mathbb{G}_{2}$, and the random bits consumed by $\mathcal{B}$.

Computational $q$-BSDH Assumption. The q-Strong Diffie-Hellman assumption (q-SDH assumption) was introduced by Boneh and Boyen BB04c for the construction of short signatures where it was also proven to be secure in the generic group model. This assumption was also later used in the construction of short group signatures [BBS04]. Let $g$ be a generator of $\mathbb{G}_{1}$. The q-SDH assumption is defined in $(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G})$ as follows. Given a vector of $q+1$ elements

$$
\left(g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\left(\alpha^{2}\right)}, \ldots, g^{\left(\alpha^{q}\right)}\right)
$$

no PPT algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ can compute a pair $\left(r, g^{1 /(\alpha+r)}\right)$ where $r \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ with more than a negligible advantage. The advantage of $\mathcal{A}$ is defined as

$$
\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{A}\left(g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\left(\alpha^{2}\right)}, \ldots, g^{\left(\alpha^{q}\right)}\right)=\left(r, g^{1 /(\alpha+r)}\right)\right]\right|
$$

The q-BSDH assumption is defined identically to q-SDH except that now $\mathcal{A}$ is challenged to compute $\left(r, e(g, g)^{1 /(\alpha+r)}\right)$. Note that the q-BSDH assumption is already implied by the q-SDH assumption.

### 2.3 Miscellaneous Primitives

Zero-knowledge Proof of Knowledge of Discrete Log. Informally, a zero-knowledge proof of knowledge (ZK-POK) of discrete log protocol enables a prover to prove to a verifier that it possesses the discrete $\log r$ of a given group element $R$ in question. Schnorr [Sch89] constructed an efficient number theoretic protocol to give a ZKPOK of discrete log.

A ZK-POK protocol has two distinct properties: the zero-knowledge property and the proof of knowledge properties. The former implies the existence of a simulator $\mathcal{S}$ which is able to simulate the view of a verifier in the protocol from scratch (i.e., without being given the witness as input). The latter implies the existence of a knowledge-extractor Ext which interacts with the prover and extracts the witness using rewinding techniques. For more details on ZK-POK systems, we refer the reader to BG92.

1-out-of-2 Oblivious Transfer. Informally speaking, a 1-out-of-2 oblivious transfer protocol allows a receiver to choose and receive exactly one of the two string from the sender, such that the other string is computationally hidden from the receiver and the choice of the receiver is computationally hidden from the sender.

Oblivious transfer was first introduced by Rab81 while the 1-out-of-2 variant was introduced by EGL85. Various efficient constructions of 1-out-of-2 oblivious transfer are known based on specific assumptions such factoring or DiffieHellman NP01, Kal05.

## 3 The Definitions and the Model

A Traceable Identity Based Encryption (T-IBE) scheme consists of five components.

Setup. This is a randomized algorithm that takes no input other than the implicit security parameter. It outputs the public parameters PK and a master key MK.

Key Generation Protocol. This is an interactive protocol between the public parameter generator PKG and the user $U$. The common input to PKG and $U$ are: the public parameters PK and the identity ID (of $U$ ) for which the decryption key has to be generated. The private input to PKG is the master key MK. Additionally, PKG and $U$ may use a sequence of random coin tosses as private inputs. At the end of the protocol, $U$ receives a decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ as its private output.

Encryption. This is a randomized algorithm that takes as input: a message $m$, an identity ID, and the public parameters PK. It outputs the ciphertext $C$.

Decryption. This algorithm takes as input: the ciphertext $C$ that was encrypted under the identity ID, the decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ for ID and the public parameters PK. It outputs the message $m$.

Trace. This algorithm associates each decryption key to a family of decryption keys. That is, the algorithm takes as input a well-formed decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ and outputs a decryption key family number $n_{F}$.

Some additional intuition about the relevance of trace algorithm is as follows. In a T-IBE system, there are a super-polynomial number of families of decryption keys. Each decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ for an identity ID will belong to a unique decryption key family (denoted by the number $n_{F}$ ). Roughly speaking, in the definitions of security we will require that: given a decryption key belonging to a family, it should be intractable to find a decryption key belonging to a different family (although it may be possible to find another decryption key belonging to the same family).

To define security for a traceable identity based encryption system, we first define the following games.

The IND-ID-CPA game. The IND-ID-CPA game for T-IBE is very similar to the IND-ID-CPA for standard IBE BF01.

Setup. The challenger runs the Setup algorithm of T-IBE and gives the public parameters PK to the adversary.

Phase 1. The adversary runs the Key Generation protocol with the challenger for several adaptively chosen identities $\mathrm{ID}^{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{ID}^{q}$ and gets the decryption keys $d_{\mathrm{ID}^{1}}, \ldots, d_{\mathrm{ID}^{q}}$.

Challenge. The adversary submits two equal length messages $m_{0}$ and $m_{1}$ and an identity ID not equal to any of the identities quries in Phase 1. The challenger flips a random coin $b$ and encrypts $m_{b}$ with ID. The ciphertext $C$ is passed on to the adversary.

Phase 2. This is identical to Phase 1 except that adversary is not allowed to ask for a decryption key for ID.

Guess. The adversary outputs a guess $b^{\prime}$ of $b$.
The advantage of an adversary $\mathcal{A}$ in this game is defined as $\operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b\right]-\frac{1}{2}$.
We note that the above game can extended to handle chosen-ciphertext attacks in the natural way by allowing for decryption queries in Phase 1 and Phase 2. We call such a game to be the IND-ID-CCA game.

The FindKey game. The FindKey game for T-IBE is defined as follows.
Setup. The adversary (acting as an adversarial PKG ) generates and passes the public parameters PK and an identity ID on to the challenger. The challenger runs a sanity check on PK and aborts if the check fails.

Key Generation. The challenger and the adversary then engage in the key generation protocol to generate a decryption key for the identity ID. The challenger gets the decryption $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ as output and runs a sanity check on it to ensure that it is well-formed. It aborts if the check fails.

Find Key. The adversary outputs a decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$. The challenger runs a sanity check on $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$ and aborts if the check fails.

Let $S F$ denote the event that trace $\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{trace}\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}\right)$, i.e., $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$ and $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ belong to the same decryption key family. The advantage of an adversary $\mathcal{A}$ in this game is defined as $\operatorname{Pr}[S F]$.

We note that the above game can be extended to include a decryption phase where the adversary adaptively queries the challenger with a sequence of ciphertexts $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{m}$. The challenger decrypts $C_{i}$ with its key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ and sends the resulting message $m_{i}$. This phase could potentially help the adversary deduce information about the decryption key family of $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ if it is able to present a maliciously formed ciphertext and get the challenger try to decrypt it.

However, if the adversary was somehow restricted to presenting only wellformed ciphertexts, the decrypted message is guaranteed to contain no information about the decryption key family (since decryption using every well-formed key would lead to the same message). This can be achieved by adding a ciphertext sanity check phase during decryption. In both of our constructions, we take this route instead of adding a decryption phase to the FindKey game.

The ComputeNewKey game. The ComputeNewKey game for T-IBE is defined as follows.

Setup. The challenger runs the Setup algorithm of T-IBE and gives the public parameters PK to the adversary.

Key Generation. The adversary runs the Key Generation protocol with the challenger for several adaptively chosen identities $\mathrm{ID}^{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{ID}^{q}$ and gets the decryption keys $d_{\mathrm{ID}^{1}}, \ldots, d_{\mathrm{ID}^{q}}$.

New Key Computation. The adversary outputs two decryption keys $d_{\text {ID }}^{1}$ and $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{2}$ for an identity ID. The challenger runs a key sanity check on both of them and aborts if the check fails.

Let $D F$ denote the event that trace $\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{trace}\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{2}\right)$, i.e., $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{1}$ and $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{2}$ belong to different decryption key families. The advantage of an adversary $\mathcal{A}$ in this game is defined as $\operatorname{Pr}[D F]$.

We also define a Selective-ID ComputeNewKey game where the adversary has to declare in advance (i.e., before the setup phase) the identity ID for which it will do the new key computation. The advantage of the adversary is similarly defined to be the probability of the event that it is able to output two decryption keys from different decryption key families for the pre-declared identity ID. This weakening of the game can be seen as similar to weakening of the IND-ID-CPA game by some previously published papers CHK03, BB04a, SW05, GPSW06.

Definition 1. A traceable identity based encryption scheme is IND-ID-CPA secure if all polynomial time adversaries have at most a negligible advantage in the IND-ID-CPA game, the FindKey game and the ComputeNewKey game. IND-IDCCA security for T-IBE is defined similarly.

## 4 Construction Based on Gentry's Scheme

Our first construction of traceable identity based encryption is based on the identity based encryption scheme recently proposed by Gentry Gen06. The scheme is the most efficient IBE construction known to date without random oracle. Apart from computational efficiency, it enjoys properties such as short public parameters and a tight security reduction. This comes at the cost of using a stronger assumption known as the truncated $q-A B D H E$ which is a variant of an assumption called q-BDHE introduced by Boneh, Boyen and Goh BBG05.

Remarkably, we are able to convert Gentry's scheme to a T-IBE scheme without any changes whatsoever to the basic cryptosystem. We are able to construct a secure key generation protocol as per our requirement for the basic cryptosystem and then present new proofs of security to show the negligible advantage of the adversary in the three games of our T-IBE model. Our proofs are based on the truncated q-ABDHE and the q-BSDH assumption (see Section 2). The end result is a T-IBE scheme which is as efficient as the best known IBE scheme without random oracle. We view this fact as evidence that the additional traceability property does not necessarily come at the cost of a performance penalty.

### 4.1 The Construction

Let $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ be a bilinear group of prime order $p$, and let $g$ be a generator of $\mathbb{G}_{1}$. In addition, let $e: \mathbb{G}_{1} \times \mathbb{G}_{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_{2}$ denote a bilinear map. A security parameter, $\kappa$, will determine the size of the groups.

As discussed before, the basic cryptosystem (i.e., Setup, Encryption and Decryption) is identical to Gentry's Gen06. For completeness, we describe the whole T-IBE scheme. Parts of this section are taken almost verbatim from Gen06.

Setup. The PKG picks random generators $g, h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3} \in \mathbb{G}_{1}$ and a random $\alpha \in$ $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. It sets $g_{1}=g^{\alpha}$ and then chooses a hash function $H$ from a family of universal one-way hash function. The published public parameters PK and the master key MK are given by

$$
\mathrm{PK}=g, g_{1}, h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}, H \quad \mathrm{MK}=\alpha
$$

Key Generation Protocol. This is the protocol through which a user $U$ with an identity ID can securely get a decryption key $d_{\text {ID }}$ from PKG. As in Gen06, PKG aborts if ID $=\alpha$. The key generation protocol proceeds as follows.

1. The user $U$ selects a random $r \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and sends $R=h_{1}^{r}$ to the PKG .
2. $U$ gives to PKG a zero-knowledge proof of knowledge of the discrete $\log$ (as in Section (2) of $R$ with respect to $h_{1}$.
3. The PKG now chooses three random numbers $r^{\prime}, r_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}, r_{\mathrm{ID}, 3} \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$. It then computes the following values

$$
\left(r^{\prime}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}\right),\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}\right),\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}\right)
$$

where $h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}=\left(R g^{-r^{\prime}}\right)^{1 /(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}$ and $h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}=\left(h_{i} g^{-r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}}\right)^{1 /(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}, i \in\{2,3\}$
and sends them to the user $U$.
4. $U$ computes $r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}=r^{\prime} / r$ and $h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}=\left(h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}\right)^{1 / r}$. Note that since $h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}=$ $\left(h_{1}^{r} g^{-r^{\prime}}\right)^{1 /(\alpha-I D)}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}=\left(\left(h_{1}^{r}\right)^{1 / r}\left(g^{-r^{\prime}}\right)^{1 / r}\right)^{1 /(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}=\left(h_{1} g^{-r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}}\right)^{1 /(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}$. It sets the decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}=\left\{\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}\right): i \in\{1,2,3\}\right\}$.
5. $U$ now runs a key sanity check on $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ as follows. It computes $g^{\alpha-\mathrm{ID}}=g_{1} / g^{\mathrm{ID}}$ and checks if $e\left(h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}, g^{\alpha-\mathrm{ID}}\right) \stackrel{?}{=} e\left(h_{i} g^{-r_{\mathrm{ID}}, i}, g\right)$ for $i \in\{1,2,3\} . U$ aborts if the check fails for any $i$.

At the end of this protocol, $U$ has a well-formed decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ for the identity ID.

Encryption. To encrypt a message $m \in \mathbb{G}_{2}$ using identity $\mathrm{ID} \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, generate a random $s \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and compute the ciphertext $C$ as follows

$$
C=\left(g_{1}^{s} g^{-s . I D}, e(g, g)^{s}, m \cdot e\left(g, h_{1}\right)^{-s}, e\left(g, h_{2}\right)^{s} e\left(g, h_{3}\right)^{s \beta}\right)
$$

where for $C=(u, v, w, y)$, we set $\beta=H(u, v, w)$.

Decryption. To decrypt a ciphertext $C=(u, v, w, y)$ with identity ID, set $\beta=$ $H(u, v, w)$ and test whether

$$
y=e\left(u, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 2} h_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}^{\beta}\right) v^{r_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}+r_{\mathrm{ID}, 3} \beta}
$$

If the above check fails, output $\perp$, else output

$$
m=w \cdot e\left(u, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}\right) v^{r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}}
$$

For additional intuition about the system and its correctness, we refer the reader to Gen06. We also note that the ciphertext sanity check in the decryption algorithm rejects all invalid ciphertexts as shown in Gen06.

Trace. This algorithm takes a well-formed decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}=\left\{\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}\right)\right.$ : $i \in\{1,2,3\}\}$ and outputs the decryption key family number $n_{F}=r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}$. Hence if $r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}=r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}$ for two decryption keys $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ and $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$, then trace $\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{trace}\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}\right)$ (i.e., the two keys belong to the same decryption key family).

### 4.2 Security Proofs

Theorem 1. The advantage of an adversary in the IND-ID-CCA game is negligible for the above traceable identity based encryption scheme under the decisional truncated $q-A B D H E$ assumption.

Proof Sketch: The proof in our setting very much falls along the lines of the proof of IND-ID-CCA security of Gentry's scheme Gen06. Here we just give a sketch highlighting the only difference from the one in Gen06.

The only difference between [Gen06] and our setting is how a decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ is issued for an identity ID. In the proof of Gen06, PKG was free to choose a decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ on its own and pass it on to the user. PKG in fact chose $r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}$ using a specific technique depending upon the truncated q-ABDHE problem instance given. In our setting, however, PKG and the user $U$ engage in a key generation protocol where $r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}$ is jointly determined by both of them (via the choice of numbers $r$ and $r^{\prime}$ ). Hence PKG does not have complete control over $r_{\text {ID }, 1}$.

The above problem can be solved as follows. PKG generates a decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}=\left\{\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}\right): i \in\{1,2,3\}\right\}$ on its own exactly as in Gen06 and then "forces" the output of $U$ to be the above key during key generation. Recall that during the key generation protocol, $U$ first chooses a random $r \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and sends $R=h_{1}^{r}$ to the PKG . $U$ then gives to PKG a zero-knowledge proof of knowledge of the discrete $\log$ of $R$. The proof of knowledge property of the proof system implies the existence of a knowledge extractor Ext (see Section(2). Using Ext on $U$ during the proof of knowledge protocol, PKG can extract the discrete $\log r$ (by rewinding $U$ during protocol execution) with all but negligible probability. Now PKG sets $r^{\prime}=r r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}$. It then sends $\left(r^{\prime}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}=h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{r}\right),\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}\right),\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}\right)$ to $U$.

The user $U$ will compute $r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}=r^{\prime} / r, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}=\left(h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}\right)^{1 / r}$. Hence, PKG has successfully forced the decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ to be the key chosen by it in advance.

Theorem 2. Assuming that computing discrete log is hard in $\mathbb{G}_{1}$, the advantage of an adversary in the FindKey game is negligible for the above traceable identity based encryption scheme.

Proof: Let there be a PPT algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that has an advantage $\epsilon$ in the FindKey game in the above T-IBE construction. We show how to build a simulator $\mathcal{B}$ that is able to solve discrete $\log$ in $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ with the same advantage $\epsilon . \mathcal{B}$ proceeds as follows.
$\mathcal{B}$ runs the algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ and gets the public parameters $\mathrm{PK}=\left(g, g_{1}, h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}\right)$ and the identity ID from $\mathcal{A}$. It then invokes the challenger, passes on $h_{1}$ to it and gets a challenge $R \in \mathbb{G}_{1}$. The goal of $\mathcal{B}$ would be to find the discrete $\log r$ of $R$ w.r.t. $h_{1}$.
$\mathcal{B}$ engages in the key generation protocol with $\mathcal{A}$ to get a decryption key for ID as follows. It sends $R$ to $\mathcal{A}$ and now has to give a zero-knowledge proof of knowledge of the discrete $\log$ of $R$. The zero-knowledge property of the proof system implies the existence of a simulator $\mathcal{S}$ which is able to successfully simulate the view of $\mathcal{A}$ in the protocol (by rewinding $\mathcal{A}$ ), with all but negligible probability. $\mathcal{B}$ uses the simulator $\mathcal{S}$ to simulate the required proof even without of knowledge of $r$. $\mathcal{B}$ then receives the string $\left(r^{\prime}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}\right),\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}\right),\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}\right)$ from $\mathcal{A}$. As before, $\mathcal{B}$ runs a key sanity check by testing if $e\left(h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}, g^{\alpha-\mathrm{ID}}\right) \stackrel{?}{=} e\left(h_{i} g^{-r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}}, g\right)$ for $i \in\{2,3\}$. For $i=1, \mathcal{B}$ tests if $e\left(h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}^{\prime}, g^{\alpha-\mathrm{ID}}\right) \stackrel{?}{=} e\left(R g^{-r^{\prime}}, g\right)$. If any of these tests fail, $\mathcal{B}$ aborts as would an honest user in the key generation protocol.

Now with probability at least $\epsilon, \mathcal{A}$ outputs a decryption key (passing the key sanity check and hence well-formed) $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$ such that its decryption key family number $n_{F}^{\prime}$ equals the decryption key family number of the key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$, where $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ is defined (but unknown to $\mathcal{B}$ ) as $\left(r^{\prime} / r,\left(h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{\prime}\right)^{1 / r},\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 2}\right),\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, 3}\right)\right)$. After computing $n_{F}^{\prime}$ from $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{\prime}$ (by running trace on it), $\mathcal{B}$ computes $r=r^{\prime} / n_{F}^{\prime}$. $\mathcal{B}$ outputs $r$ as the discrete $\log \left(\right.$ w.r.t. $\left.h_{1}\right)$ of the challenge $R$ and halts.

Theorem 3. The advantage of an adversary in the ComputeNewKey game is negligible for the above traceable identity based encryption scheme under the computational $q-B S D H$ assumption.

Proof: Let there be a PPT algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that has an advantage $\epsilon$ in the ComputeNewKey game in the above T-IBE construction. We show how to build a simulator $\mathcal{B}$ that is able to solve the computational $q-B S D H$ assumption with the same advantage $\epsilon$. $\mathcal{B}$ proceeds as follows.

The functioning of $\mathcal{B}$ in this proof is very similar to that of the simulator in the IND-ID-CPA proof of Gentry's scheme Gen06. $\mathcal{B}$ invokes the challenger and gets as input the q-BSDH problem instance $\left(g, g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{q}\right)$, where $g_{i}=g^{\left(\alpha^{i}\right)}$.
$\mathcal{B}$ generates random polynomials $f_{i}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}[x]$ of degree $q$ for $i \in\{1,2,3\}$. It computes $h_{i}=g^{f_{i}(\alpha)}$ using $\left(g, g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{q}\right)$ and sends the public parameters $\mathrm{PK}=\left(g, g_{1}, h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}\right)$ to the algorithm $\mathcal{A}$.
$\mathcal{B}$ now runs the key generation protocol with $\mathcal{A}$ (possibly multiple times) to pass on the decryption keys $d_{\mathrm{ID}^{1}}, \ldots, d_{\mathrm{ID}^{q}}$ for the identities $\mathrm{ID}^{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{ID}^{q}$ chosen adaptively by $\mathcal{A}$. For an identity ID, $\mathcal{B}$ runs the key generation protocol as follows.

If ID $=\alpha, \mathcal{B}$ uses $\alpha$ to solve the q -BSDH problem immediately. Otherwise, let $F_{\mathrm{ID}, i}(x)$ denote the $(q-1)$ degree polynomial $F_{\mathrm{ID}, i}(x)=\left(f_{i}(x)-f_{i}(\mathrm{ID})\right) /(x-$ ID). $\mathcal{B}$ computes the decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}=\left\{\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}\right): i \in\{1,2,3\}\right\}$ where $r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}=f_{i}(\mathrm{ID})$ and $h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}=g^{F_{\mathrm{ID}, i}(\alpha)}$. Note that this is a valid private key since $h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}=g^{\left(f_{i}(\alpha)-f_{i}(\mathrm{ID})\right) /(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}=\left(h_{i} g^{-f_{i}(\mathrm{ID})}\right)^{1 /(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}$. Now $\mathcal{B}$ forces the output of $\mathcal{A}$ to be the key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}$ during the key generation protocol (see proof of Theorem (1). For more details on why this decryption key appears to be correctly distributed to $\mathcal{A}$, we refer the reader to Gen06.

Now with probability at least $\epsilon, \mathcal{A}$ outputs two decryption keys (passing the key sanity check and hence well-formed) $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{1}=\left\{\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}^{1}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}^{1}\right)\right\}$ and $d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{2}=$ $\left\{\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, i}^{2}, h_{\mathrm{ID}, i}^{2}\right)\right\}$ for $i \in\{1,2,3\}$ for an identity ID such that $\operatorname{trace}\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{trace}\left(d_{\mathrm{ID}}^{2}\right)$. This means that $r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{1} \neq r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{2} . \mathcal{B}$ then computes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{1} / h_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{2}\right)^{1 /\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{2}-r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{1}\right)} \\
= & \left(h_{1} g^{\left.-r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{1} / h_{1} g^{-r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{2}}\right)^{1 /\left(r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{2}-r_{\mathrm{ID}, 1}^{1}\right)(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}}=\right. \\
= & g^{1 /(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, $\mathcal{B}$ outputs -ID, $g^{1 /(\alpha-\mathrm{ID})}$ as a solution to the q - BSDH problem instance given and halts.

## 5 Construction Based on Decisional BDH Assumption

Our second construction of traceable identity based encryption is based on the decisional BDH assumption which is considered to be relatively standard in the groups with bilinear maps. However, the construction is not very efficient and requires several pairing operations per decryption.

We use two cryptosystems as building blocks in this construction: the identity based encryption scheme proposed by Waters Wat05 and the fuzzy identity based encryption (FIBE) scheme proposed by Sahai and Waters SW05. Our first idea is to use an IBE scheme derived from the FIBE construction of Sahai and Waters SW05. In FIBE, the encryption is done with a set of attributes which will be defined by the identity in our setting. Additionally, we add a set of dummy attributes in the ciphertext. During the key generation protocol, the user gets the set of attributes as defined by his identity as well as a certain subset of the dummy attributes. Very roughly, the subset is such that it can be used to decrypt the ciphertext part encrypted with dummy attributes.

The main properties we need (to add traceability) are derived from the above IBE scheme constructed using FIBE SW05. However, as is the case with FIBE, the IBE scheme is only secure in the selective-ID model. To achieve full security, we use the Waters cryptosystem Wat05 in parallel with the FIBE scheme. We remark that Waters cryptosystem is only used to achieve full security and any other fully secure IBE scheme (e.g., BB04b) based on a standard assumption could be used. We treat the Waters cryptosystem as a black box as we do not require any specific properties from it. Although we are able to achieve full
security in the IND-ID-CCA game, we do need to use the selective-ID model for the ComputeNewKey game.

### 5.1 The Construction

As before, $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ is a bilinear group of prime order $p$, and let $g$ be a generator of $\mathbb{G}_{1}$. In addition, let $e: \mathbb{G}_{1} \times \mathbb{G}_{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_{2}$ denote a bilinear map.

We represent the identities as strings of a fixed length $\ell_{I D}$ (since an identity ID $\in \mathbb{Z}_{p}, \ell_{I D}$ is the number of bits required to represent an element in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ ). Let $\ell_{s p}$ be a number which is decided by a statistical security parameter $\kappa_{s}$. Let $\ell=$ $\ell_{I D}+\ell_{s p}$. We define the following sets: $S=\{1, \ldots, \ell\}, S_{I D}=\left\{1, \ldots, \ell_{I D}\right\}, S_{s p}=$ $\left\{\ell_{I D}+1, \ldots, \ell\right\}$. We shall denote the $i$ th bit of the identity ID with $\mathrm{ID}_{i}$. Our construction follows.

Setup. Run the setup algorithm of the Waters cryptosystem Wat05 and get the public parameters $\mathrm{PK}_{w}$ and master key $\mathrm{MK}_{w}$. Now, for each $i \in S$, choose two numbers $t_{i, 0}$ and $t_{i, 1}$ uniformly at random from $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that all $2 \ell$ numbers are different. Also choose a number $y$ uniformly at random in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$.

The published public parameters are $\mathrm{PK}=\left(\mathrm{PK}_{w}, \mathrm{PK}_{s w}\right)$, where:

$$
\mathrm{PK}_{s w}=\left(\left\{\left(T_{i, j}=g^{t_{i, j}}\right): i \in S, j \in\{0,1\}\right\}, Y=e(g, g)^{y}, g\right)
$$

The master key $\mathrm{MK}=\left(\mathrm{MK}_{w}, \mathrm{MK}_{s w}\right)$, where:

$$
\mathrm{MK}_{s w}=\left(\left\{\left(t_{i, j}\right): i \in S, j \in\{0,1\}\right\}, y\right)
$$

Key Generation Protocol. The key generation protocol between PKG and a user $U$ (with the identity ID) proceeds as follows.

1. $U$ aborts if the published values in the set $\left\{T_{i, j}: i \in S, j \in\{0,1\}\right\}$ are not all different.
2. PKG generates a decryption key $d_{w}$ for identity ID using $\mathrm{MK}_{w}$ as per the key generation algorithm of the Waters cryptosystem. It sends $d_{w}$ to $U$.
3. PKG generates $\ell$ random numbers $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{\ell}$ from $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ such that $r_{1}+\cdots+r_{\ell}=$ $y$. It computes $R_{1}=g^{r_{1}}, \ldots, R_{\ell}=g^{r_{\ell}}$ and sends them to the user.
4. PKG computes the key components $d_{s w, i}=g^{r_{i} / t_{i, 1 \mathrm{D}_{i}}}$ for all $i \in S_{I D}$ and sends them to $U$. It also computes key components $d_{s w, i, j}=g^{r_{i} / t_{i, j}}$ for all $i \in S_{s p}, j \in\{0,1\}$ and stores them.
5. PKG and $U$ then engage in $\ell_{s p}$ executions of a 1-out-of-2 oblivious transfer protocol where PKG acts as the sender and $U$ acts as the receiver. In the $i$ th execution (where $i \in S_{s p}$ ), the private input of PKG is the key components $d_{s w, i, 0}, d_{s w, i, 1}$ and the private input of $U$ is a randomly selected bit $b_{i}$. The private output of $U$ is the key component $d_{s w, i, b_{i}}$. For each $i \in S_{s p}, U$ now runs the following check:

$$
e\left(R_{i}, g\right) \stackrel{?}{=} e\left(T_{i, b_{i}}, d_{s w, i, b_{i}}\right)
$$

$U$ aborts if any of the above checks fails. This check roughly ensures that for a majority of indices $i \in S_{s p}$, the correct value $r_{i}$ was used in the creation of $d_{s w, i, 0}$ and $d_{s w, i, 1}$. Thus for a majority of indices $i \in S_{s p}, d_{s w, i, 0}$ and $d_{s w, i, 1}$ were different from each other.
6. $U$ sets $d_{s w}=\left(\left\{d_{s w, i}\right\}_{i \in S_{I D}},\left\{b_{i}, d_{s w, i, b_{i}}\right\}_{i \in S_{s p}}\right)$ and runs a key sanity check on $d_{s w}$ by checking if:

$$
Y \stackrel{?}{=} \prod_{i \in S_{I D}} e\left(T_{i, \mathrm{ID}_{i}}, d_{s w, i}\right) \prod_{i \in S_{s p}} e\left(T_{i, b_{i}}, d_{s w, i, b_{i}}\right)
$$

$U$ aborts if the above check fails. Finally, $U$ sets its decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}=$ $\left(d_{w}, d_{s w}\right)$.

Encryption. To encrypt a message $m \in \mathbb{G}_{2}$ under an identity ID, break the message into two random shares $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ such that $m_{1} \oplus m_{2}=m$. Now choose a random value $s \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and compute the ciphertext $C=\left(C_{w}, C_{s w}\right)$. $C_{w}$ is the encryption of $m_{1}$ with ID using the public parameters $\mathrm{PK}_{w}$ as per the encryption algorithm of the Waters cryptosystem and $C_{s w}$ is given by the following tuple.

$$
\left(C^{\prime}=m_{2} Y^{s}, C^{\prime \prime}=g^{s},\left\{\left(C_{i}=T_{i, \mathrm{ID}_{i}}{ }^{s}\right): i \in S_{I D}\right\},\left\{\left(C_{i, j}=T_{i, j}{ }^{s}\right): i \in S_{s p}, j \in\{0,1\}\right\}\right)
$$

Decryption. To decrypt the ciphertext $C=\left(C_{w}, C_{s w}\right)$ using the decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}=\left(d_{w}, d_{s w}\right)$, first run a ciphertext sanity check on $C_{s w}$ by checking if:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e\left(C_{i}, g\right) \stackrel{?}{=} e\left(T_{i, \mathrm{ID}_{i}}, C^{\prime \prime}\right), \quad i \in S_{I D}, \quad \text { and } \\
& e\left(C_{i, j}, g\right) \stackrel{?}{=} e\left(T_{i, j}, C^{\prime \prime}\right), \quad i \in S_{s p}, j \in\{0,1\}
\end{aligned}
$$

If any of the above check fails, output $\perp$. It is easy to see that this check ensures that $\left\{\left(C_{i}=T_{i, \mathrm{ID}_{i}}{ }^{s}\right): i \in S_{I D}\right\},\left\{\left(C_{i, j}=T_{i, j}{ }^{s}\right): i \in S_{s p}, j \in\{0,1\}\right\}$ where $s$ is the discrete $\log$ of $C^{\prime \prime}$ w.r.t. $g$. This ensure that all invalid ciphertexts are rejected. In the appendix, we sketch an alternative technique of doing ciphertext sanity check which requires only two pairing operations.

If the ciphertext sanity check succeeds, recover the share $m_{1}$ by running the decrypt algorithm of Waters cryptosystem on $C_{w}$ using $d_{w}$. The share $m_{2}$ is recovered by the following computations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C^{\prime} / \prod_{i \in S_{I D}} e\left(C_{i}, d_{s w, i}\right) \prod_{i \in S_{s p}} e\left(C_{i, b_{i}}, d_{s w, i, b_{i}}\right) \\
& =m_{2} e(g, g)^{s y} / \prod_{i \in S_{I D}} e\left(g^{s t_{i, 1 \mathrm{D}_{i}}}, g^{r_{i} / t_{i}, \mathrm{DD}_{i}}\right) \prod_{i \in S_{s p}} e\left(g^{s t_{i, b_{i}}}, g^{r_{i} / t_{i, b_{i}}}\right) \\
& =m_{2} e(g, g)^{s y} / \prod_{i \in S} e(g, g)^{s r_{i}}=m_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, output $m=m_{1} \oplus m_{2}$.

Trace. This algorithm takes a well-formed decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}=\left(d_{w}, d_{s w}\right)$ where the component $d_{s w}=\left(\left\{d_{s w, i}\right\}_{i \in S_{I D}},\left\{b_{i}, d_{s w, i, b_{i}}\right\}_{i \in S_{s p}}\right)$ and outputs the decryption key family number $n_{F}=b_{\ell_{I D}+1} \circ b_{\ell_{I D}+2} \circ \ldots \circ b_{\ell}$, where $\circ$ denotes concatenation.

Security proofs are omitted for the lack of space. They can be found in the full version.

## 6 Future Work

This work motivates several interesting open problems. The most important one of course is the construction of a black-box traceable identity based encryption as discussed in Section 1.

Our second construction based on the decisional BDH assumption is not very efficient and requires several pairing operations per decryption. It is an open problem to design more efficient T-IBE schemes based on an standard assumption. Further, the second construction used the Selective-ID ComputeNewKey game to prove security. It would be interesting to see if this restriction can be removed. Combining the T-IBE approach with the multiple PKG approach also seems to be a promising direction.

Finally, it remains to be seen if the same approach to mitigate the key escrow problem can be profitably used in other related setting like attribute based encryption SW05, GPSW06.

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## Appendix

## A Efficient Ciphertext Sanity Check in the Second Construction

To decrypt the ciphertext $C=\left(C_{w}, C_{s w}\right)$ using the decryption key $d_{\mathrm{ID}}=$ $\left(d_{w}, d_{s w}\right)$, the efficient ciphertext sanity check on $C_{s w}$ is run as follows. First choose $\ell_{I D}+2 \ell_{s p}$ random numbers $s_{i, \mathrm{ID}_{i}}, i \in S_{I D}$ and $s_{i, j}, i \in S_{s p}, j \in\{0,1\}$. Now check if:

$$
e\left(g, \prod_{i \in S_{I D}} C_{i}^{s_{i, \mathrm{ID}_{i}}} \prod_{i \in S_{s p}, j \in\{0,1\}} C_{i, j}^{s_{i, j}}\right) \stackrel{?}{=} e\left(C^{\prime \prime}, \prod_{i \in S_{I D}} T_{i, \mathrm{ID}_{i}}^{s_{i, \mathrm{ID}_{i}}} \prod_{i \in S_{s p}, j \in\{0,1\}} T_{i, j}^{s_{i, j}}\right)
$$

If the above check fails, output $\perp$. It can be shown that the above check rejects an invalid ciphertext with all but negligible probability (while the previous check was perfect).

