# Forking 引理与一类基于身份签名体制的安全性证明<sup>\*</sup>

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#### Forking Lemma and the Security Proofs for a Class of ID-Based Signatures

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**Abstract**: This paper offers arguments for the provable security of a class of ID-based signature schemes called ID-based generic signature schemes in the random oracle model. The theoretical result can be viewed as an extension of the Forking Lemma due to Pointcheval and Stern for ID-based signature schemes, and can help to understand and simplify the security proofs of previous work such as Cha-Cheon's scheme, Hess's scheme-1, Cheon-Kim-Yoon's scheme, and so on.

Key words: ID-based signature; Forking lemma; provable security; existential forgery

摘 要: 在随机谕示模型下,研究一类基于身份的签名体制(称为基于身份的一般签名体制)的安全性.所得理论成 果可以被看作 Pointcheval 和 Stern 提出的 Forking 引理在基于身份签名体制研究领域的扩展,有助于理解和简化一 些现有的基于身份签名体制的安全性证明,如 Cha-Cheon 的体制、Hess 的体制 1 及 Cheon-Kim-Yoon 的体制等. 关键词: 基于身份的签名;Forking 引理;可证安全;存在性伪造 中图法分类号: TP309 文献标识码: A

#### **1** Introduction

ID-based public key cryptography (ID-PKC) is a paradigm proposed by Shamir<sup>[1]</sup> in 1984 to simplify key management procedures of traditional certificate-based PKI. In ID-PKC, an entity's public key is derived directly from certain aspects of its identity, such as an IP address belonging to a network host, or an e-mail address associated with a user. Private keys are generated for entities by a trusted third party called a private key generator (PKG). The direct derivation of public keys in ID-PKC eliminates the need for certificates and some of the

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problems associated with them.

In 2001, the first entire practical and secure ID-based encryption scheme was presented by Boneh and Franklin<sup>[2]</sup>. Since then, a rapid development of ID-PKC has taken place. Using bilinear pairings, many identity based primitives based on pairings were proposed: digital signatures<sup>[3–6]</sup>, authenticated key exchange, non-interactive key agreement, blind and ring signatures, signcryption, and so on. ID-Based public key cryptography has become a good alternative for certificate-based public key setting, especially when efficient key management and moderate security are required.

Evaluating the "security" is a sticking point for the construction of new cryptographic scheme. Provable security based on complexity theory provides an efficient way for providing the convincing evidences of security. However, provable security standard model often is at the cost of an important loss in terms of efficiency<sup>[7]</sup>. In 1993, Bellare and Rogaway<sup>[8]</sup> provided the so-called "*random oracle model*" to help security proofs. In this model, concrete cryptographic objects, such as hash functions, are identified with ideal random objects. Since then, security proof in random oracle model becomes very popular for the security arguments of cryptographic scheme.

The general security notion for standard signature schemes is *existential unforgeable secure under adaptively chosen-message attacks* (EUF-ACMA)<sup>[7,9]</sup>. In 2000, Pointcheval and Stern<sup>[10]</sup> offered some security arguments for standard signature schemes in the random oracle model, and provided the famous Forking Lemma for *generic signature schemes*. An appropriate extension of EUF-ACMA for ID-based setting exists in Ref.[3], where the security notion of an ID-based signature scheme is defined to be *existential unforgeable secure under adaptively chosen message and ID attacks* (EUF-ACMIA). Recently, Bellare, *et al.*<sup>[11]</sup> provided security proofs for a class of ID-based signature schemes that can be constructed from a special kind of signature schemes called convertible signature schemes.

Inspired by Pointcheval's results, this paper presents security arguments for a class of ID-based signature schemes which we call *ID-based generic signature schemes* (ID-GSSs) in the random oracle model. The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we recall some preliminary work. In Section 3, we define a special kind of ID-based signature schemes as ID-GSSs, and construct a conversion from an ID-GSS to a generic signature scheme. In Section 4, we offer security arguments for ID-GSSs in the random oracle model. As an example, we show that Hess's scheme-1<sup>[4]</sup> can be easily proved to be secure with our theory in Section 5. Finally, we end the paper with a brief conclusion.

#### 2 Preliminaries

#### 2.1 Digital signature schemes and forking lemma

**Definition 1**. A digital signature scheme is defined by a triple of polynomial-time algorithms<sup>[10]</sup>:

- *Kgen*: On input  $1^k$ , where k is the security parameter, the randomized key generation algorithm returns a pair (*pk*,*sk*) of matching public and secret keys.
- Sign: On input secret key sk and a message m, the possibly randomized signing algorithm returns a signature  $\sigma$ .
- *Verify*: On input public key pk, m and a signature  $\sigma$ , the deterministic verification algorithm tests whether  $\sigma$  is a valid signature for m corresponding pk.

The advantage in existentially forging of an adversary F, given access to a signing oracle S(.) and a hash oracle H(.), is defined as

$$Adv_F(k) = \Pr\left[ (pk, sk) \leftarrow KGen(1^k), \ (m, \sigma) \leftarrow A^{S(.),H(.)}(pk) : \right]$$
  
$$Verify((m, \sigma), pk) = 1, \ (m, \sigma) \notin S_{list}$$

where  $S_{list}$  is the query and answer list coming from S(.) during the attack. The probability is taken over the coin tosses of the algorithms, of the oracles, and of the forger.

**Definition 2**. A digital signature scheme {*KGen,Sign,Verify*} is said to be EUF-ACMA, if for any adversary *F*,  $Adv_F(k)$  is negligible.

Pointcheval and Stern presented a notion of *generic signature scheme* which, given the input message m, produces a triple  $(\sigma_1, h, \sigma_2)$ , where  $\sigma_1$  randomly takes its values in a large set, h is the hash value of  $(m, \sigma_1)$  and  $\sigma_2$  only depends on  $\sigma_1$ , the message m and h. Each signature is independent of the previous ones. They provided the famous Forking Lemma:

**Lemma 1** [Forking Lemma]<sup>[10]</sup>. In the random oracle mode, for a generic signature scheme, let F be a Turing machine whose input only consists of public data. Assume that F can produce a valid signature  $(m, \sigma_1, h, \sigma_2)$  within a time bound T by un-negligible probability  $\varepsilon \ge 10(n_s+1)(n_h+n_s)/q$ , where  $n_h$  and  $n_s$  are the number of queries that F can ask to the random oracle and the signing oracle respectively. If the triples  $(\sigma_1, h, \sigma_2)$  can be simulated without knowing the secret key, with an indistinguishable distribution probability, then there is another machine which has control over the machine obtained form F replacing the signing oracle by simulation and produces two valid signatures  $(m, \sigma_1, h, \sigma_2)$  and  $(m, \sigma_1, h', \sigma'_2)$  such that  $h \neq h'$  in the expected time less than 120686 $\cdot n_h \cdot T/\varepsilon$ .

#### 2.2 Bilinear pairings

Let  $(G_1,+),(G_2,\cdot)$  be two cyclic groups of order q,  $\hat{e}: G_1 \times G_1 \to G_2$  be a map with the following properties:

- 1. Bilinear:  $P,Q \in G_1, \alpha, \beta \in Z_q$ ,  $\hat{e} (\alpha P, \beta Q) = \hat{e} (P,Q)^{\alpha\beta}$ ;
- 2. Non-degenerate: If P is a generator of  $G_1$ , then  $\hat{e}(P,P)$  is a generator of  $G_2$ ;
- 3. Computable: There is an efficient algorithm to compute  $\hat{e}(P,Q)$  for any  $P,Q \in G_1$ .

Such an bilinear map is called an *admissible bilinear pairing*<sup>[2]</sup>. The Weil pairings and the Tate pairings of elliptic curves can be used to construct efficient admissible bilinear pairings.

**Definition 3.** Let *P* be a generator of  $G_1$ . The computation Diffie-Hellman problem (CDHP) is to compute *abP* for any given  $P, aP, bP \in G_1$ , where  $a, b \in Z_q$ . An algorithm *F* solves CDHP with the probability  $\varepsilon$ , if

$$\Pr[F(P,aP,bP)=abP] \ge \varepsilon.$$

where the probability is over the random choice of generator  $P \in G_1$ , the random choice of  $a, b \in Z_q$ , and random coins consumed by F.

No probabilistic polynomial time algorithm is known to solve CDHP with a non-negligible advantage so far. The hardness seems to be a reasonable assumption for the security proofs of cryptographic schemes.

#### **3** ID-Based Generic Signature Schemes

**Definition 4**. An ID-based signature scheme consists of four polynomial-time algorithms<sup>[3]</sup>:

- Setup: The parameters generation algorithm takes as input a security parameter  $k \in N$  (given as  $1^k$ ) and returns a master key s and system parameters  $\Omega$ . This algorithm is performed by PKG. PKG publishes  $\Omega$  while keeping s secretly.
- *Extract*: The private key generation algorithm takes as input an identity  $ID \in \{0,1\}^*$  and extracts the secret key  $D_{ID}$ . This algorithm is performed by PKG. PKG gives  $D_{ID}$  to the user by a secure channel.
- Sign: The signing algorithm takes as input a private key  $D_{\rm ID}$  and a message m and outputs a signature  $\delta$ .
- Verify: The verification algorithm takes as input an identity ID, a message m and a signature  $\delta$ , and outputs 0 or 1. The later implies  $\delta$  is a valid signature.

An ID-based digital signature scheme is said to be EUF-ACMIA, if for any polynomial-time adversary F, the advantage defined by

$$Adv_F(k) = \Pr\left[ \begin{array}{ll} \Omega \leftarrow Setup(1^k), & (ID, m, \delta) \leftarrow F^{S(.), E(.)}(para):\\ verify((m, \delta), ID) = 1, & (ID, m, \delta) \notin S_{list}, & (ID, .) \notin E_{list} \end{array} \right]$$

is negligible, where  $S_{list}$  and  $E_{list}$  are the query and answer lists coming from Sign oracle S(.) and Extract oracle E(.) respectively during the attack. In the random oracle model, the attackers also have the ability to query to the random oracles. The probability is taken over the coin tosses of the algorithms of the oracles and of the forger.

Many existed ID-based signature schemes that are constructed with bilinear pairings, such as Ref.[3–5], have the same **Setup** and **Extract** algorithms as follows:

- Setup: Take as input a security parameter  $k \in N$ , and returns a master key s and system parameters  $\Omega = \{G_1, G_2, q, \hat{e}, P, P_{pub}, H_1, H_2\}$ , where  $(G_1, +), (G_2, \cdot)$  are cyclic groups of order q,  $\hat{e}: G_1 \times G_1 \to G_2$  is an admissible bilinear map,  $H_1: \{0,1\}^* \to G_1^*$  and  $H_2$  are hash functions.
- *Extract*: Take as input an identity  $ID \in \{0,1\}^*$ , computes  $Q_{ID} = H_1(ID), D_{ID} = sQ_{ID}$ , and lets  $D_{ID}$  be the user's secret key.

Generally speaking, the user's public key for verification is in fact  $Q_{ID}=H_1(ID)$ . Hence, we may sometimes use  $Verify(Q_{ID},m,\delta)$  and  $(Q_{ID},m,\delta)$  instead of  $Verify(ID,m,\delta)$  and  $(ID,m,\delta)$  respectively.

In this paper, we consider a special kind of ID-based signature schemes, which given input a message m, produce triples ( $\sigma_1, h, \sigma_2$ ), where  $\sigma_1$  randomly takes its values in a large set, h is the hash value of ( $m, \sigma_1$ ) and  $\sigma_2$  only depends on  $\sigma_1$  and h for a fixed private key  $D_{\text{ID}}$ . Each signature is independent of the previous ones. That is, we assume that no  $\sigma_1$  can appear with probability greater than  $2/2^k$ , where k is the security parameter. We call this kind of pairing-based schemes as *ID-based generic signature schemes* (ID-GSSs).

Let  $\Sigma = \{Setup, Extract, Sign, Verify\}\)$  be a standard ID-based signature scheme, we can construct an ordinary signature scheme  $\Gamma = \{KGen, Sign', Verify'\}\)$  as following:

Construction

- *KGen*: On input  $1^k$ , set  $(s, \Omega) \leftarrow Setup(1^k)$ , pick randomly  $ID \in \{0, 1\}^*$ , compute  $Q = H_1(ID)$ , D = sQ, and return *D* as private key and  $(\Omega, Q)$  as public key.
- Sign': On input private key D and a message m, set  $\Omega$  as the system parameters, compute and output  $\delta = Sign(D,m)$ .
- Verify': On input public key  $(\Omega, Q)$ , a message *m* and a signature  $\delta$ , set  $\Omega$  as the system parameters, compute and output Verify $(Q, m, \delta)$ .

Here, we say that  $\Gamma$  is a signature scheme constructed from  $\Sigma$ .

**Lemma 2.** If a standard ID-based signature scheme  $\Sigma$  is an ID-GSS, then the signature scheme constructed from  $\Sigma$  is a generic signature scheme.

**Proof:** Let  $\Gamma = \{KGen, Sign', Verify'\}$  be the ordinary signature scheme constructed from  $\Sigma$ . For a key pair  $((\Omega, Q), D)$  generated by  $KGen(1^k)$ , given the input *m*, the signing algorithm of  $\Gamma$  produces a signature  $\delta$  which is the same as that produced by the ID-based signing algorithm of  $\Sigma$  with the system parameters being  $\Omega$  and user's identity being ID.  $\Sigma$  is an ID-GSS. Hence  $\delta$  is a triple  $(\sigma_1, h, \sigma_2)$ , where  $\sigma_1$  randomly takes its values in a large set, *h* is the hash value of  $(m, \sigma_1)$  and  $\sigma_2$  only depends on  $\sigma_1$ , the message *m* and *h*. Each signature is independent of the previous ones. That is,  $\Gamma$  is a generic signature scheme.

#### 4 Provable Security of ID-Based Generic Signature Schemes

In this section, we extend the results on the security of generic signature schemes to ID-GSSs. Let

 $\Sigma = \{Setup, Extract, Sign, Verify\}\$  be an ID-GSS,  $\Gamma = \{KGen, Sign', Verify'\}\$  be the generic signature scheme that is constructed from  $\Sigma$ .

**Lemma 3.** In the random oracle model, assume that there is an adversary  $F_0$  whose input only consists of public data, and can produce a valid signature  $(ID,m,\sigma_1,h,\sigma_2)$  of  $\Sigma$ , within a time bound T by un-negligible probability  $\varepsilon$ . We denote by  $n_{h1}$ ,  $n_s$  and  $n_E$  the number of queries that  $F_0$  can ask to the oracles  $H_1(.)$ , Sign(.) and *Extract*(.) respectively. Then there is another adversary  $F_1$  who can produce a valid signature of  $\Gamma$ , within the expected time  $T+(n_{h1}+n_s+n_E)t_1+n_st_2$  with the un-negligible probability  $\varepsilon/n_{h1}$ , where  $t_1$  denotes a scalar multiplication in  $(G_1, +)$  and  $t_2$  denotes a signing operation.

*Proof*: Without any loss of generality, we may assume that for any ID,  $F_0$  queries  $H_1(.)$  with ID before ID is used as (part of) an input of any query to  $H_2(.)$ , *Extract*(.) and *Sign*(.). From  $F_0$ , we can construct a probabilistic algorithm  $F_1$  as follows:

- 1. A challenger C runs  $((\Omega, Q), D) \leftarrow KGen(1^k)$ , where  $\Omega = \{G_1, G_2, q, \hat{e}, P_{pub}, H_1, H_2\}$ , and gives  $(\Omega, Q)$  to  $F_1$ .
- 2.  $F_1$  picks u,  $1 \le u \le n_{h1}$  and  $x_i \in Z_q$   $i=1,2,\ldots,n_{h1}$  randomly.
- 3.  $F_1$  runs  $F_0$  with input  $\Omega$ . During the execution,  $F_1$  emulates  $F_0$ 's oracles as follows:
  - $H_1(.)$ : For input *ID*,  $F_1$  checks if  $H_1(ID)$  is defined. If not, he defines
  - $H_1(ID) = \begin{cases} Q, & i = u \\ x_i P, & i \neq u \end{cases}$ , and sets  $ID_i \leftarrow ID, i \leftarrow i+1$ .  $F_1$  returns  $H_1(ID)$  to  $F_0$ .
  - $H_2(.)$ : For input  $(m, \sigma_1)$ ,  $F_1$  checks if  $H_2(m, \sigma_1)$  is defined. If not,  $F_1$  picks  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly, sets  $H_2(m, \sigma_1) = c$ .  $F_1$  returns  $H_2(m, \sigma_1)$  to  $F_0$ .
  - *Extract*(.): For input  $ID_i$ , if i=u, then abort. Otherwise,  $F_1$  lets  $D_i=x_iP_{pub}$  be the reply to  $F_0$ .
  - Sign(.): For ID<sub>i</sub> and message m, if i≠u, F<sub>1</sub> computes D<sub>i</sub>=x<sub>i</sub>P<sub>pub</sub>, (σ<sub>1</sub>,h,σ<sub>2</sub>)=Sign(D<sub>i</sub>,m). Otherwise, F<sub>1</sub> requests to his own signing oracle Sign'(.) with input m and gets (σ<sub>1</sub>,h,σ<sub>2</sub>). F<sub>1</sub> replies to F<sub>0</sub> with (σ<sub>1</sub>,h,σ<sub>2</sub>).
- 4. If  $F_0$ 's output is  $(ID_i, m^*, \sigma_1^*, h^*, \sigma_2^*)$  satisfying:  $Verify(ID_i, m^*, \sigma_1^*, h^*, \sigma_2^*) = 1$ , and  $i = u, F_1$  can get a forgery  $(m^*, \sigma_1^*, h^*, \sigma_2^*)$  of  $\Gamma$  corresponding to  $(\Omega, Q)$ .

 $F_1$ 's running time is roughly the same as  $F_0$ 's running time plus the time taken to respond to  $F_0$ 's oracle queries. If we neglect operations other than signing and scalar multiplication in  $(G_1,+)$ , the total running time is bounded by  $T+(n_{h1}+n_s+n_E)t_1+n_st_2$ . Because *u* is chosen randomly,  $F_1$  can output a forgery corresponding to  $(\Omega,Q)$  of  $\Gamma$  with probability  $\varepsilon/n_{h1}$ .

**Theorem 1.** In the random oracle mode, let  $F_0$  be an adversary whose input only consists of public data, and can produce a valid signature  $(ID,m,\sigma_1,h,\sigma_2)$  of  $\Sigma$  within a time bound T by the un-negligible probability  $\varepsilon \ge 10n_{h1}(n_s+1)(n_{h2}+n_s)/q$ , where  $n_{h1}$ ,  $n_{h2}$ ,  $n_s$  and  $n_E$  are the number of queries that  $F_0$  can ask to the oracles  $H_1(.)$ ,  $H_2(.)$ , Sign(.) and Extract(.) respectively. If the triples  $(\sigma_1,h,\sigma_2)$  can be simulated without knowing the secret key with an indistinguishable distribution probability, then there is another machine  $F_1$ , given  $Q \in G_1^*$ , which can produce two valid signatures  $(m,\sigma_1,h,\sigma_2)$  and  $(m,\sigma_1,h',\sigma'_2)$  of  $\Gamma$  for public key  $(\Omega,Q)$ , such that  $h \neq h'$  in the expected time less than  $120686 \cdot n_{h1} \cdot n_{h2}(T+(n_{h1}+n_s+n_E)t_1+n_st_2)/\varepsilon$ , where  $t_1$  denotes a scalar multiplication in  $(G_1,+)$  and  $t_2$ denotes a signing operation.

*Proof*: With Lemma 3, from  $F_0$ , we can construct an adversary  $F_1$ , given  $(\Omega, Q)$ , which can produce a valid signatures  $(m, \sigma_1, h, \sigma_2)$  of  $\Gamma$  within the expected time  $T+(n_{h1}+n_s+n_E)t_1+n_st_2$  with the un-negligible probability  $\varepsilon/n_{h1}$ . With Lemma 1, there is a machine  $F_2$  which has control over the machine obtained from  $F_1$  replacing interaction with the signer by simulation, and can produce two valid signatures  $(m, \sigma_1, h, \sigma_2)$  and  $(m, \sigma_1, h', \sigma'_2)$  such that  $h \neq h'$  in the expected time less than  $120686 \cdot n_{h1} \cdot n_{h2}(T+(n_{h1}+n_s+n_E)t_1+n_st_2)/\varepsilon$ .

#### 5 Applications

As an example, we show that Hess's scheme- $1^{[4]}$  can be proved to be secure with our theorem. The scheme consists of four algorithms:

- Setup: Takes as input a security parameter  $k \in N$ , output a master key s and system parameters  $\Omega = \{G_1, G_2, q, \hat{e}, P, P_{pub}, H_1, H_2\}$ , where  $(G_1, +), (G_2, \cdot)$  are cyclic groups of order q,  $\hat{e}: G_1 \times G_1 \to G_2$  is an admissible bilinear map,  $H_1: \{0,1\}^* \to G_1^*$  and  $H_2: \{0,1\}^* \times G_2 \to Z_q^*$  are hash functions.
- *Extract*: Takes as input an identity  $ID \in \{0,1\}^*$ , compute  $Q_{ID}=H_1(ID)$ ,  $D_{ID}=sQ_{ID}$ , and let  $D_{ID}$  be the user's secret key.
- Sign: For input secret key  $D_{\text{ID}}$  and a message *m*, select  $t \in t \in Z_q^*$  randomly, compute  $r = \hat{e}(P, P)^t$ ,  $c = H_2(m, r), U = c \cdot D_{\text{ID}} + t \cdot P$ , and output (r, c, U).
- Verify: For input of an identity *ID*, a message *m* and a signature (r,c,U), the verifier computes  $c=H_2(m,r)$ , and checks whether  $r = \hat{e}(U,P)\hat{e}(H_1(ID),P_{pub})^{-c}$ .

Obviously, Hess's scheme-1 is an ID-GSS. We now prove that the triples (r,c,U) can be simulated without the knowledge of the signer's secret key.

**Lemma 4.** Given  $(G_1, G_2, q, \hat{e}, P, P_{pub} = sP, H_1, H_2)$  and an identity *ID*,  $Q=H_1(ID)$ , D=sQ, the following distributions are the same.

$$\delta = \left\{ (r,c,U) \begin{vmatrix} t \in_R Z_q^* \\ c \in_R Z_q \\ r = \hat{e}(P,P)' \\ U = cD + tP \end{vmatrix} \text{ and } \delta' = \left\{ (r,c,U) \begin{vmatrix} U' \in_R G_1 \\ c \in_R Z_q \\ U = U' \\ r = \hat{e}(U,P)\hat{e}(Q,P_{pub})^{-c} \\ r \neq 1 \end{vmatrix} \right\}$$

*Proof*: First we choose a triple  $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$  from the set of the signatures: Let  $\alpha \in G_2^*$ ,  $\beta \in Z_q$ ,  $\gamma \in G_1$  such that  $\alpha = \hat{e}(\gamma, P)\hat{e}(Q, P_{pub})^{-\beta} \neq 1$ . We then compute the probability of appearance of this triple, following each distribution of probabilities:

$$\Pr_{\delta}[(r,c,U) = (\alpha,\beta,\gamma)] = \Pr_{t\neq 0} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{e}(P,P)^{t} = \alpha \\ c = \beta \\ c \cdot D + t \cdot P = \gamma \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{q(q-1)},$$
$$\Pr_{\delta'}[(r,c,U) = (\alpha,\beta,\gamma)] = \Pr_{r\neq 1} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha = r = \hat{e}(U',P)\hat{e}(Q,P_{pub})^{-c} \\ c = \beta \\ U = U' = \gamma \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{q(q-1)}.$$

That is, we can construct a simulator M, which produces triples (r,c,U) with an identical distribution from those produced by the signer as follows:

• Simulator M: For input  $(G_1, G_2, q, \hat{e}, P, P_{pub} = sP, H_1, H_2)$ ,  $H_1(ID)$  and a message m, randomly choose  $U' \in G_1$ ,  $c \in Z_q$ , and set U=U' and  $r = \hat{e}(U, P)(\hat{e}(H_1(ID), P_{pub}))^{-c}$ . In the (unlikely) situation where r=1, we discard the results and restart the simulation. Then it returns the triple (r, c, U).

**Theorem 2.** In the random oracle mode, let  $F_0$  be an adversary who performs, within a time bound T, an existential forgery against the Hess's scheme-1, with probability  $\varepsilon \ge 10n_{h1}(n_s+1)(n_{h2}+n_s)/q$ , where  $n_{h1}$ ,  $n_{h2}$ ,  $n_s$  and  $n_E$  are the number of queries that  $F_0$  can ask to the oracles  $H_1(.)$ ,  $H_2(.)$ , Sign(.) and Extract(.) respectively. Then the computational Diffie-Hellman problem in  $G_1$  can be solved within the expected time less than  $120686 \cdot n_{h1} \cdot n_{h2}(T+(n_{h1}+n_s+n_E)t_1+n_st_2)/\varepsilon$ , where  $t_1$  denotes a scalar multiplication in  $(G_1,+)$  and  $t_2$  denotes a signing operation.

*Proof*: From Lemma 4, we can see that a valid signature of Hess's scheme-1 (r,c,U) can be simulated without knowing the secret key, with an indistinguishable distribution probability. With Theorem 1, using adversary  $F_0$ , we can construct another adversary  $F_1$ , given  $Q \in G_1^*$ , and produce two valid signatures (m,r,c,U) and (m,r,c',U') such that  $c \neq c'$  in expected time less than  $120686 \cdot n_{h1} \cdot n_{h2}(T + (n_{h1} + n_s + n_F)t_1 + n_s t_2)/\varepsilon$ .

From the adversary  $F_1$ , we can construct a probabilistic algorithm  $F_2$  such that  $F_2$  computes abP on input of any given  $P, aP, bP \in G_1^*$  as follows:

- 1. A challenger C runs  $Setup(1^k)$  to generate system parameters  $\Omega = (G_1, G_2, q, \hat{e}, P, P_{pub}, H_1, H_2)$  and gives  $F_2$  with  $P, aP, bP \in G_1^*$ .
- 2.  $F_2$  sets  $P_{pub} = aP$ , and  $\overline{\Omega} = (G_1, G_2, q, \hat{e}, P, aP, H_1, H_2)$ .
- 3.  $F_2$  runs  $F_1$  with input  $(\overline{\Omega}, bP)$  until  $F_1$  outputs two valid signatures (m, r, c, U) and (m, r, c', U') such that  $c \neq c'$ .
- 4.  $F_2$  can compute and output *abP* as follows:

 $\xi = (c - c')^{-1} \mod q, \ abP = \xi(U - U').$ 

Analogical results can be obtained for many such schemes, such as Cha-Cheon's scheme<sup>[3]</sup>, Cheon-Kim-Yoon's scheme<sup>[5]</sup>, and so on.

In fact, the reduction efficiency of our proof is roughly the same as that of the proofs proposed by the authors in the original papers<sup>[3-5]</sup>. For instance, in Ref.[4], the authors proved that CDHP can be solved in the expected time  $c \cdot n_{h1} \cdot n_{h2}T/\varepsilon$  if there is an ACMA adversary making an existential forgery with probability  $\varepsilon \ge a \cdot n_{h1} \cdot n_{h2}n_s/q$  in the random oracle model, where  $a, c \in Z^{\ge 1}$  are constants. However, the security proof in Ref.[4] seems long and too abstruse.

#### 6 Conclusion

This paper successfully extends the Forking Lemma for ID-based signature schemes. Using the result of this paper, a large class of ID-based signature schemes, which we called *ID-based generic digital signature schemes*, can be proved to be secure easily in the random oracle model.

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## 全国教育游戏与虚拟现实学术会议(EGVR 2007)

### 征文通知

2007年8月19~21日,大连

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