# Cryptoanalysis of ID-based proxy re-signature scheme with pairing-free 

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#### Abstract

As a significant cryptographical primitive, proxy re-signature(PRS) technique is broadly applied to distributed computation, copyright transfer and hidden path transfer because it permits that a proxy translates an entity's signature into the other entity's signature on the identical data. Recently, to discard time-consuming pairing operator and intricate certificate-maintenance, Wang et al. proposed two efficient pairing-free ID-based PRS schemes, and declared that their schemes were provably secure in the ROM. Very unluckily, in this investigation, we point out that Wang et al.'s schemes suffer from attacks of universal forgery by analysing their security, i.e., anyone can fabricate a signature on arbitrary file. After the relevant attacks are shown, the reasons which result in such attacks is analyzed. Finally, we discuss the corresponding improved method.


Key-Words: ID-based PRS, integer factorization problem, universal forgeability, security attack

## 1 Introduction

As a crucial authentication technique, digital signature is broadly applied in some practical scenarios since it can identify the source of data, insure data intact and afford data origin's non-repudiation, such as E-passport,E-health, and E-currency. With the popularization of electronic and communication technology, a good deal of signature schemes with various functions have been put forth to satisfy practical requirement.

In most cases, the signer wishes that its message's signature is publicly validated in order that any one is capable knowing the origin of this message. However,in some specific scenarios, a user Alice wishes to transform the ownership of its digital product to another user Bob, and to convince all verifiers that the ownership of this digital product is from the user Bob. It is a challengeable problem since it contradicts non-reputation of digital signature, and the transformed signature also needs to be publicly verified without revealing the origin of this signature. Fortunately, proxy pre-signature can deal with the problem above. Proxy re-signature (PR S) notion was firstly defined by M.Blaze et al. in [4] . In a PRS scheme, a semi-trusted party ( the proxy) is capable of translating a signature from Alice (the delegatee) into a signature from Bob (the delegator) on the identical data $m$ by a re-signing key. Nevertheless, the proxy is unable to create a valid message-signature in name
of the delegatee or the delegator independently. In 2005, G.Ateniese and S.Hohenberger provided a formal definition of PRS's security model and proposed two concrete instances: a single-use PRS and a multiuse PRS in [5]. After this seminal work[5], various PRS schemes $[6,7,8,9,10]$ with special properties have been proposed successively to satisfy practical requirement. Whereas most PRS schemes are built on traditional public-key-infrastructure (PKI). In PKI, when the signer's public key is employed, its validity needs to be authenticated by a certificate issued by a certifier authority (CA). Whereas, maintenance of certificate might bring a heavy burden to the signer.

To remove intricate certificate maintenance, Shamir pioneered the idea of identity-based PKC (IDPKC) in [11]. In the ID-based PKC, the user's unique identification information such as cell-phone number, identity-card number, e-mail address, etc., acts as its public key. ID-PKC abandons the inevitability for public key certificates, so that it makes that intricate certificate maintenance is avoided. ID-based PRS concept(for short, ID-PRS) was firstly put forth by Shao et al. in [9]. Their scheme is a secure multiuse ID-PRS scheme in the standard model. The only drawback in their scheme is relatively larger in terms of public parameters and computation costs. Subsequently, Hu et al. also proposed a novel ID-PRS scheme based on a harder mathematics problem in [7]. In 2015, Tian presented an efficient ID-PRS scheme
[19] based on lattice cryptography in the ROM, but the practicability of their scheme is very weak since its signature length and computation costs are very large.

Recently, to remove time-consuming pairing operation, Wang et al. suggested two efficient ID-based PRS schemes without pairing in [2]. Although they claimed that their schemes were secure against existential unforgeable attack in the ROM[15]. Unfortunately, by analyzing the security of their schemes, we manifest that their schemes exist universal attacks of forgery, i.e., any one can fabricate a signature on a message at will. After the detail attacks is launched, we analyze the relevant reasons to induce such attacks.

## 2 Preliminaries

In this part, we review security assumptions and interrelated mathematics knowledge which are the basic knowledge required throughout the paper.

### 2.1 Notions

For convenience, Table I shows quiet a few mathematic symbols and notions which are used in the remaining context.

### 2.2 Mathematic Hardness Problem

Large integer factorization problem. Let $N$ denote a composite-integer which is written as $N=$ $p \cdot q$,where $p, q$ are two large primes, its target is to seek its decompositions $p$ and $q$. This is known to all that it is a very hard problem to seek a PPT algorithm $A l g$ to factorize the large-integer $N$.
Large integer factorization assumption. Let $l$ be a security parameter, $N=p q$ is a composite-integer, where $p$ and $q$ are two $l$-bits large primes, we named that the $\left(t_{R}, \varepsilon_{R}\right)$-large composite-integer factorization assumption holds if no $t_{T}$-probabilistic polynomialtime (PPT) adversary is capable of decomposing the composite-integer $N$ with a non-negligible probability $\varepsilon_{R}$.

Lemma1.Let $N=p_{0} \cdot q_{0}$ be a product of primes $p_{0}$ and $q_{0}$, for $\alpha \in_{R} Q_{N}$ and $\alpha \neq 1$, we have $\alpha^{2 \rho} \equiv \alpha$ $\bmod N$ where $\rho=\frac{N-p_{0}-q_{0}+5}{8}$.
Proof. Because $Q_{N}$ is a cyclic-group with the order $\phi(N) / 4=\left(p_{0}-1\right)\left(q_{0}-1\right) / 4$, for $\alpha \in Q_{N}$, we have $\alpha^{\left(p_{0}-1\right)\left(q_{0}-1\right) / 4} \equiv 1 \bmod N$. Then, we have

\[

\]

where $\rho=\frac{\left(N-p_{0}-q_{0}+5\right)}{8}$.
Note that, for a quadratic residue $\alpha$, it should have four diverse square roots, namely $\pm r_{1}$ and $\pm r_{2}$. Only when $r_{1} \neq \pm r_{2} \bmod N$ holds, $N$ can be factorized by utilizing $G C D\left(r_{1}-r_{2}, N\right)$ or $G C D\left(r_{1}+\right.$ $\left.r_{2}, N\right)$. Therefore, it means that given two diverse roots, the probability of factoring $N$ is $\frac{1}{2}$.

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm: For any $a, b \in$ $Z_{N}$, where $a, b \neq 0$, there exists an efficient algorithm which can output two integers $x \in Z_{N}$ and $y \in Z_{N}$ such that

$$
a x+b y=G C D(a, b)
$$

## 3 Review of Wang et al.'s ID-PRS Scheme

Recently, to construct PRS scheme which appropriates for resource-limited devices, Wang et al. presented two free-pairing ID-PRS proposals which avoid the time-consuming pairing computation. To clearly analyze their security, a brief review of Wang et al.'s IDPRS schemes is given. Please refer to [2] for more details if the readers are interested in Wang et al.'s scheme.

### 3.1 Interactive version of Wang et al.'s IDPRS Scheme

- Setup $\left(1^{\iota}\right)$ : Let $\iota$ denote a security parameter. On inputting $\iota$, it outputs two safe large-primes $p$ and $q$ which are $\iota / 2$ bits. And then compute $N=p \cdot q$ and $\rho=(N-p-q+5) / 8$. Subsequently, pick two hash functions $H(\cdot):\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow Q_{N}$ and $h(\cdot):\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{l}$, where $Q_{N}$ denotes a subgroup of quadratic residues in $Z_{N}^{*}$ and $l$ is the output bit-length of hash function. Finally, public parameters $m p k=(N, H(\cdot), h(\cdot))$ are published and master private key $m s k=(p, q, \rho)$ is securely stored.

Table 1: Notions

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| :--- | :--- |
| Notions | Description |
| $a \in_{R} N$ | $a$ is chosen randomly in $N$ |
| $\mathbf{G C D}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$ | The greatest common divisor $(\mathrm{gcd})$ of $x$ and $y$ |
| $Z_{N}$ | the set $\{1, \cdots, N\}$ |
| $p, q$ | two large primes |
| $\perp$ | 'invalid' mark |
| $\phi$ | the Euler's $\phi$ function |
| $Q_{N}$ | the subgroup in $Z_{N}^{*}$ with order $\phi(n) / 4=\left(p_{0}-1\right)\left(q_{0}-1\right) / 4$ |
| PPT | probabilistic polynomial time |
| EUF-CMA | existential unforgeability against adaptive chosen-message attack |
| EUF-CID-MA | existential unforgeability against adaptive identity-and-message attack |
| ECC | elliptic curve cryptography |
| ROM | random oracle model |

- Extract $(I D, m s k, m p k)$ : Given a user's identity information $I D$, on inputting $I D$, public parameters $m p k$ and master private key $m s k$, the algorithm calculates the user's private key as below:

$$
s k_{I D}=H(I D)^{\rho} \quad \bmod N
$$

- Re-signing $\operatorname{key}\left(s k_{A}, s k_{B}\right)$ On inputting private keys $s k_{A}$ and $s k_{B}$ of Alice and Bob, the algorithm outputs the relevant re-signing key $r k_{A \rightarrow B}=$ $s k_{B} / s k_{A}$.
- $\operatorname{Sign}(m, s k)$ : Given the signed message $m$, a user with identity $I D$ makes use of its private key $s k_{I D}$ to calculate the signature as below: it picks $r \in Z_{N}^{*}$ at random to calculate $R=r^{2} \bmod N$, then it calculates $\delta=r \cdot s k_{I D}^{h(m)} \bmod N$. Finally, the obtained signature is $\operatorname{sig}=(\delta, R)$ on message $m$.
- Re-signature $\left(m, \operatorname{sig}_{A}, I D_{A}, r k_{A \rightarrow B}\right)$ : Given the delegatee Alice's signature $\operatorname{sig}_{A}=\left(\left(\delta_{A}, R\right)\right)$ on message $m$, Alice's identity $I D_{A}$ and the re-signing key $r k_{A \rightarrow B}$, if the equation $\delta_{A}^{2}=$ $H\left(I D_{A}\right)^{h(m)} \cdot R$ holds, then the re-signature is

$$
\operatorname{sig}_{B}=\left(\delta_{A} \cdot r k_{A \rightarrow B}^{h(m)}, R\right)
$$

- Verify $\left(m, s i g_{i}\right)$ For a signature $s i g_{i}=$ $\left(\delta, R, I D_{i}\right)$ where $i \in\{A, B\}$, the verifier checks whether

$$
\delta^{2} \stackrel{?}{=} R \cdot H\left(I D_{i}\right)^{h(m)}
$$

If it is true, then it signifies that $s i g_{i}$ is valid for $i \in\{A, B\}$, otherwise, ${ }^{\prime} \perp^{\prime}$ is output.

### 3.2 Non-interactive verision of Wang et al.'s ID-PRS Scheme

- Setup $\left(1^{\iota}\right)$ : In this algorithm, the generation process of all parameters is the same as that of the above interactive version.
- Extract $(I D, m s k, m p k)$ : In this algorithm, the generation process of the user's private key is the same as that of the above interactive version.
- Re-signing $\operatorname{key}\left(s k_{A}, s k_{B}\right)$ For this algorithm, it inputs Alice's identity $I D_{A}$ and Bob's secret key $s k_{B}$, whereafter outputs the re-signing key $r k_{A \rightarrow B}=s k_{B} / H\left(I D_{A}\right)$.
- $\operatorname{Sign}(m, s k)$ : For this algorithm, it is the same as the interactive version.
- Re-signature $\left(m, s i g_{A}, I D_{A}, r k_{A \rightarrow B}\right)$ : Given Alice's signature $\operatorname{sig}_{A}=\left(\left(\delta_{A}, R\right)\right)$ on message $m$, Alice's identity $I D_{A}$ and the re-signing key $r k_{A \rightarrow B}$, if the equation $\delta_{A}^{2}=H\left(I D_{A}\right)^{h(m)} \cdot R$ holds, then it randomly selects $r^{\prime} \in Z_{N}^{*}$ to compute $R^{\prime}=\left(r^{\prime} R\right)^{2} \bmod N$. At last, it outputs $\operatorname{sig}_{B}=\left(r^{\prime} \cdot \delta_{A}^{2} \cdot r k_{A \rightarrow B}^{h(m)}, R^{\prime}\right)$ as re-signature.
- Verify $\left(m, s i g_{i}\right)$ : For this algorithm, it is the same as the interactive version above.


## 4 Security Analysis

Although Wang et al. declared that their two schemes were proven secure against EUF-CMA, and provided the security proof. Unfortunately, we will show that Wang et al.'s two ID-PRS schemes are insecure. The detailed attacks are listed as below:

### 4.1 Attack on Wang et al.'s Interactive IDPRS scheme

In the subsection, by analyzing Wang et al.'s interactive ID-PRS scheme, the scheme is indicated to be universally forgeable, this is to say, any one can fabricate the delegatee's signature or the delegator's signature (re-signature). The corresponding attack is executed as below:

1. Let $A d v$ be an attacker and $m^{*}$ be an arbitrary message. $I D_{B}$ denotes the delegator Bob's identity.
2. Because $N=p \cdot q$ and $p, q$ are two large primes, then $G c d\left(H\left(I D_{B}\right), N\right)=1$ with probability which is almost 1 , otherwise, $N$ can be factorized. The attacker $A d v$ can obtain $H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{-1}$ with by using Extended Euclidean algorithm, namely, $H\left(I D_{B}\right) * x+N * y=$ $G c d(N, H(I D))=1$.
3. Then the attacker randomly $\hat{r} \in Z_{N}$ to calculate

$$
R^{*}=\hat{r}^{2} \cdot\left(H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{-1}\right)^{h\left(m^{*}\right)} \quad \bmod N
$$

and let $\delta^{*}=\hat{r}$.
4. At last, the fabricated re-signature on message $m^{*}$ is $\operatorname{sig}^{*}=\left(\delta^{*}, R^{*}\right)$.

Next, we demonstrate that the fabricated resignature $s i g^{*}$ is valid. Because

$$
\begin{aligned}
R^{*} \cdot H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{h\left(m^{*}\right)}= & \hat{r}^{2} \cdot\left(H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{-1}\right)^{h\left(m^{*}\right)} \\
& \cdot H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{h\left(m^{*}\right)} \\
= & \hat{r}^{2} \\
= & \left(\delta^{*}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously, the fabricated signature satisfies the verification equation. It illustrates that the aforementioned attack is successful.

The reason to suffer the aforesaid attack is that $R$ is free in the signature $\operatorname{sig}=(\delta, R)$ and it is not constrained. It makes that any one can select a right $R$ to cancel $H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{h(m)}$. To solve this attack, the core is to limit the form of $R$. Hence we modify $\delta=$ $r \cdot s k^{h(m)}$ into $\delta=r \cdot s k^{h(m, R)}$, and the verification equation is modified $\delta^{2}=R \cdot H(I D)^{h(m)}$ into $\delta^{2}=$ $R \cdot H(I D)^{h(m, R)}$.

### 4.2 Attack on Non-interactive version of Wang et al.'s IDPRS scheme

In [2], Wang et al. proposed a non-interactive ID-PRS scheme again. And they also declare that the noninteractive vision is secure in the ROM. In fact, by analyzing their non-interactive scheme, we also find that
the scheme is also insecure since the verification equation is the same as that of interactive version. Thus, Wang et al.'s non-interactive ID-PRS scheme suffers from the same forgery attack as Wang et.al's interactive version.

In addition to the above forgery attack, Wang et al.'s non-interactive scheme also suffers from the delegator's (Bob's) private key leakage. For a proxy, it is a curious and semi-trusted entity. For a re-signing key, it wants to know the delegator's private key. In the following attack, we will show that a semi-trusted proxy can retrieve the delegator's private key. The detail attack is given as follows:

- Let $r k_{A \rightarrow B}=\frac{s k_{B}}{H\left(I D_{A}\right)}$ be a re-signing key.
- Then the proxy calculates $s k_{B}=r k_{A \rightarrow B}$. $H\left(I D_{A}\right) \bmod N$, thus, it can easily obtain the delegator's private key $s k_{B}$.

It indicates that the delegator's private key is revealed. Because

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r k_{A \rightarrow B} \cdot H\left(I D_{A}\right) \quad \bmod N \\
= & \frac{s k_{B}}{H\left(I D_{A}\right)} \cdot H\left(I D_{A}\right) \bmod N \\
= & s k_{B} \bmod N
\end{aligned}
$$

The reason to suffer this attack is that $H\left(I D_{A}\right)^{-1}$ can be obtained by Extended Euclidean algorithm.

From the above analysis, we can know that Wang et al.'s two ID-based PRS schemes are insecure. Their scheme not only exist universal forgery, but also suffers from the leakage problem of the delegator's private key .

## 5 Discussion on the Improved Method

To overcome aforementioned security flaw in Wang et al.'s two IDPRS schemes, we can consider the improved method. The detailed algorithms are described as below:

- Setup $\left(1^{\iota}\right)$ : Let $\iota$ denote a security parameter, On inputting $\iota$, the algorithm outputs two safe-large primes $p$ and $q$ which are $\iota / 2$ bit-length. And compute $N=p \cdot q$ and $\rho=(N-p-q+$ 5)/8. Next it picks two hash functions $H()$ : $\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow Q_{N}$ and $h():\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{l}$, where $Q_{N}$ denotes a subgroup of quadratic residues in $Z_{N}^{*}$ and $l$ is the output length of hash function, in general $l=160$. At last, public parameters $m p k=(N, H(\cdot), h(\cdot))$ are published
and master private key $m s k=(p, q, d)$ is securely stored.
- Extract $(I D, m s k, m p k)$ : Given a user's identity information $I D$, on inputting $I D$, master private key $m s k$ and public parameters $m p k$. The algorithm calculates the user's private key as below:

$$
s k_{I D}=H(I D)^{\rho} \quad \bmod N
$$

- Re-signing $\operatorname{key}\left(I D_{A}, I D_{B}, s k_{B}\right)$ : On inputting the delegatee Alice's identity $I D_{A}$ and the delegator Bob's private key $s k_{B}$, and then the algorithm picks $\gamma \in Z_{N}$ at random to produce the re-signing key

$$
r k_{A \rightarrow B}=\left(r k_{A \rightarrow B}^{1}, r k_{A \rightarrow B}^{2}\right)=\left(\tau, \frac{\gamma \cdot s k_{B}^{h(\tau)}}{H\left(I D_{A}\right)}\right)
$$

where $\tau=\gamma^{2}$. Finally, $r k_{A \rightarrow B}$ is returned .

- $\operatorname{Sign}_{A}\left(m, s k_{A}\right)$ : It is an algorithm to produce the delegatee's signature. For a message $m$, a delegatee with identity $I D_{A}$ makes use of its private key $s k_{A}$ to execute as follows: it randomly picks $r \in Z_{N}^{*}$ to calculate $R_{A}=r^{2} \bmod N$, then it calculates $\delta_{A}=r \cdot s k_{A}^{h\left(m, R_{A}^{2}\right)} \bmod N$. Finally, the signature on $m$ is $\operatorname{sig}_{A}=\left(\delta_{A}, R_{A}\right)$.
- $\operatorname{Sign}_{B}\left(m, s k_{B}\right)$ : It is an algorithm to produce the delegator's signature. For a message $m$, a delegator with identity $I D_{B}$ calculates the following procedure by utilizing its private key $s k_{B}$ :
it randomly picks $r_{2}, r_{3} \in Z_{N}^{*}$ to calculate $s_{2}=$ $r_{2}^{2} \bmod N$ and $s_{3}=r_{3}^{2} \bmod N$, then it calculates $s_{1}=r_{2} \cdot\left(r_{3} \cdot s k_{B}^{h\left(s_{3}\right)}\right)^{h\left(m, s_{2}\right)} \bmod N$. Finally, the produced signature on $m$ is $s i g_{B}=$ $\left(s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}\right)$.
- Re-signature $\left(m, \operatorname{sig}_{A}, I D_{A}, r k_{A \rightarrow B}\right)$ : Given the delegatee Alice's signature $\operatorname{sig}_{A}=\left(\delta_{A}, R_{A}\right)$ of message $m$ and Alice's identity $I D_{A}$, the proxy utilizes its re-signing key $r k_{A \rightarrow B}$ to calculate as below:

1. Firstly, it verifies the validity of $\operatorname{sig}_{A}=$ $\left(\delta_{A}, R_{A}\right)$.
2. If the equation $\delta_{A}^{2}=R_{A} \cdot H\left(I D_{A}\right)^{h\left(m, R_{A}^{2}\right)}$ holds, then the re-signature is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{sig}_{B} & =\left(s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}\right) \\
& =\left(\delta_{A}^{2} \cdot\left(r k_{A \rightarrow B}^{2}\right)^{h\left(m, R_{A}\right)}, R_{A}^{2}, r_{A \rightarrow B}^{1}\right) \\
& =\left(R_{A} \cdot\left(\gamma \cdot s k_{B}^{h(\tau)}\right)^{h\left(m, R_{A}\right)}, R_{A}^{2}, r_{A \rightarrow B}^{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Verify $\left(m, s i g_{i}\right)$ : Given a signature $s i g_{i}$ where $i \in\{A, B\}$, its verification is divided into two cases:

1. if signature $s i g_{i}=s i g_{A}$, then the verifier computes

$$
\delta^{2}=R_{A} \cdot H\left(I D_{A}\right)^{h\left(m, R_{A}^{2}\right)}
$$

If it holds, then it means that $s i g_{i}$ is a valid signature, otherwise, output invalid.
2. if signature $s i g_{i}=s i g_{B}$, then the verifier computes

$$
s_{1}^{2}=s_{2} \cdot\left(s_{3} \cdot H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{h\left(s_{3}\right)}\right)^{h\left(m, s_{2}\right)}
$$

If it holds, then it means that $s i g_{i}$ is a valid signature, otherwise, output invalid.

Correctness: For the improved method, it is easily demonstrated to be correct since

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s_{2} \cdot\left(s_{3} \cdot H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{h\left(s_{3}\right)}\right)^{h\left(m, s_{2}\right)} \\
= & R_{A}^{2} \cdot\left(\gamma^{2} \cdot H\left(I D_{B}\right)^{h\left(\gamma^{2}\right)}\right)^{h\left(m, R_{A}^{2}\right)} \\
= & \left(R_{A} \cdot\left(\gamma \cdot s k_{B}^{h\left(\gamma^{2}\right)}\right)^{h\left(m, R_{A}^{2}\right)}\right)^{2} \\
= & \left(s_{1}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

It means that a genuinely signed proxy resignature must satisfy the above verification equations. Thus, our improved method is valid.

## 6 Conclusion

Pairing operation is an expensive operator in ECC. To avoid pairing operator in protocol, Wang et al. brought forward two efficient ID-PRS schemes without pairing based integer factorization problem, and declared that their schemes were EUF-CID-MA in the ROM. In this investigation, we analyze the security of their schemes and find that their two schemes are insecure. They suffer from universal forgeability attack. After the detailed attacks are executed, we also discuss an improve method.

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