

# PRShare: A Framework for Privacy-Preserving, Interorganizational Data Sharing

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We consider the task of interorganizational data sharing, in which data owners, data clients, and data subjects have different and sometimes competing privacy concerns. One real-world scenario in which this problem arises concerns law-enforcement use of phone-call metadata: The data owner is a phone company, the data clients are law-enforcement agencies, and the data subjects are individuals who make phone calls. A key challenge in this type of scenario is that each organization uses its own set of proprietary intraorganizational attributes to describe the shared data; such attributes cannot be shared with other organizations. Moreover, data-access policies are determined by multiple parties and may be specified using attributes that are incompatible with the ones used by the owner to specify the data.

We propose a system architecture and a suite of protocols that facilitate dynamic and efficient interorganizational data sharing, while allowing each party to use its own set of proprietary attributes to describe the shared data and preserving confidentiality of both data records and proprietary intraorganizational attributes. We introduce the novel technique of *Attribute-Based Encryption With Oblivious Attribute Translation (OTABE)*, which plays a crucial role in our solution. This extension of attribute-based encryption uses semi-trusted proxies to enable dynamic and oblivious translation between proprietary attributes that belong to different organizations; it supports hidden access policies, direct revocation, and fine-grained, data-centric keys and queries. We prove that our OTABE-based framework is secure in the standard model and provide two real-world use cases.

CCS Concepts: • **Security and privacy** → **Access control; Privacy-preserving protocols**; • **Theory of computation** → **Cryptographic protocols**;

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Attribute-Based Encryption; Privacy-preserving data sharing

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

As the amount, complexity, and value of data available in both private and public sectors has risen sharply, data management and access control have challenged many organizations. Even more challenging are management and access control in *interorganizational* data sharing. Each organization would like to minimize the amount of sensitive information disclosed to other organizations, including both information about the data and information about the organization's work methodologies and role structure.

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## 1.1 Problem description

We consider scenarios in which multiple organizations need to share data while each organization uses its own set of *proprietary metadata* to describe the shared data. In these scenarios, data records contain a *payload*, which is the actual data, and a set of *metadata attributes* that describe the payload. Although organizations may agree to share the payload, each uses a different set of metadata attributes, taken from its own professional domain, to describe this payload. Data must be shared in a controlled manner that protects the confidentiality of each organization’s proprietary attributes and prevents unauthorized users from accessing the payload.

Typically, one organization, the *data owner*, maintains a set of data records that are potentially useful to other organizations, called the *data clients*. Each data record contains sensitive information about an individual, the *data subject*. *Data users*, who are employees of a data client, may need access to data records stored by the data owner to perform their assigned tasks. Each user must have the proper authorization to access the payloads of the specific set of records needed for a given task. Our framework also features a third type of organization, *data intermediaries*, that enrich data with additional information that is needed for the client’s tasks but is available only to the intermediary. Each organization  $ORG_i$  maintains its own vocabulary  $VOC_i$  that contains the overall set of domain-specific, intraorganizational attributes used in its operations.  $VOC_i$  includes both proprietary, sensitive attributes and attributes that can be shared with other organizations.  $ORG_i$  uses a different set of attributes,  $ATT_{i,j} \subseteq VOC_i$ , to describe each shared payload  $p_j$ .

For example, the data owner may be an email service provider (ESP). The data records represent email messages. Each email record is composed of a payload, which is the content of the email message, and metadata attributes about the payload such as sender, receiver, and date. Some attributes, e.g., the email message’s receiver, are sensitive; therefore, the ESP will share them with other organizations only when required to do so and only in a controlled manner. Each email message is created by one of the ESP’s customers, who are the data subjects; it is then stored and cataloged using attributes that represent the message’s metadata as collected by the ESP. Clients may be law-enforcement (LE) agencies, in which agents (data users) need access to email records in order to perform investigations. Intermediaries may include government agencies such as the IRS, which could provide tax records associated with the email addresses that appear in the messages’ metadata attributes.

**Design goals:** Each organization wishes to maintain its proprietary view of the shared data and to keep that view confidential. This means that the set  $ATT_{i,j}$  of attributes that  $ORG_i$  maintains on each shared payload must be hidden from the other organizations.

Another requirement that must be accommodated is the use of multiple vocabularies. The owner uses vocabulary  $VOC_1$  to store and query the shared data, an intermediary uses a different vocabulary  $VOC_2$  to enrich the shared data, and the client uses a third vocabulary  $VOC_3$  to query and process the data, to manage access control, and to issue data-access authorizations to its employees. Therefore, our framework must provide a mechanism that *dynamically and obliviously* transforms attributes of shared data from one vocabulary to another. Note that that this problem cannot be solved simply by requiring any set of organizations that may need to share data to agree on a shared, standard vocabulary. Such a standardization effort would require the organizations to know both the names and values of attributes used by other organizations. However, our premise is that the values of many attributes used internally by organizations are sensitive and cannot be exposed to other organizations. Furthermore, in many natural use cases (see Subsection 2.2), transformations require auxiliary information, such as up to date statistics or lists. Such information is known only at the point at which a user requests a specific data record and may need to be supplied by an intermediary that is not known by the data owner at the time that the owner encrypts the data.

105 Finally, because attributes could reveal sensitive aspects of organizations' activities, regulators and data subjects  
106 should expect sharing of both payloads and attributes to be kept to a minimum. To facilitate minimal exposure of sensitive  
107 information, an interorganizational data-sharing framework should offer a data-centric access-control mechanism.  
108 Such a mechanism will allow a user to access a payload only if it is essential for the completion of one of her tasks; in  
109 addition, it will allow the user to learn only the subset of that payload's attributes that are needed for the task.  
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## 112 1.2 Starting point: attribute-based encryption

113 Attribute-based encryption (ABE) is a natural starting point in the design of our framework. In our terminology, the  
114 encryptor is the data owner, users are data clients' employees (data users), and trusted authorities (TAs) both inside  
115 and outside the data client determine users' access policies. An ABE scheme grants an individual user a key that  
116 permits him to decrypt a ciphertext if and only if the key matches certain attributes specified during the ciphertext's  
117 creation. ABE enables fine-grained access control, which is essential in a privacy-preserving data-sharing framework. It  
118 provides one-to-many encryption, which can significantly increase the scalability of encryption and key management –  
119 properties that are necessary for interorganizational data sharing. ABE policy-access formulae are highly expressive,  
120 because they can be specified with binary or multivalued attributes, using AND, OR, and threshold gates.  
121  
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123 Existing ABE schemes, however, have several properties that make them unsuitable for our framework.  
124

125 In existing ABE schemes, encryptors, users, and TAs all use the same vocabulary. This means that these schemes  
126 cannot be used off-the-shelf in our framework, where a crucial element of the problem description is that participating  
127 organizations may belong to different business sectors or professional domains and thus use different vocabularies. In  
128 particular, a data client's TAs and employees use a different vocabulary from that of the data owner. In ABE terms, this  
129 implies that attributes used in access policies (and keys) issued by the TAs to data users might belong to a different  
130 vocabulary from the one used by the owner to encrypt and store ciphertexts. Unless a suitable transformation is made  
131 between the keys and the ciphertexts, decryption will fail even if the ciphertext satisfies the user's access policy. Such  
132 a transformation must separately consider each attribute in the ciphertext and change it into a valid attribute from  
133 the users' keys' vocabulary. To protect both data subjects' privacy and organizations' proprietary views, the original  
134 attribute must remain hidden from the user and the new attribute must remain hidden from the encryptor. Existing  
135 ABE schemes cannot support this requirement.  
136  
137

138 Moreover, existing ABE schemes are generally used for role-based access control and thus have user-centric vocabu-  
139 laries (attributes that describe decryptors' traits) that reflect organizational structure and roles. The use of user-centric  
140 attributes, coupled with the single-vocabulary assumption, implies that the encryptor (data owner) must be exposed  
141 to the roles of potential decryptors (clients' data users) and the organizational structure that they fit into. Many  
142 organizations are reluctant to share such sensitive information.  
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## 146 1.3 Main contributions

147 We present a new system architecture and a suite of protocols for interorganizational data sharing that support  
148 privacy of both data (*payload hiding*) and organizational vocabularies (*attribute hiding*). We introduce *Attribute-Based*  
149 *Encryption With Oblivious Attribute Translation (OTABE)*, in which a semi-trusted proxy *translates* the attributes under  
150 which a data record's payload was encrypted into the attributes under which it can be decrypted by authorized  
151 users. The proxy performs the translation without learning the underlying plaintext data. Moreover, translation is  
152 *oblivious* in the sense that the attributes under which the record is encrypted remain hidden from the proxy. This  
153 novel cryptographic technique enables mutually untrusted parties not only to *use different vocabularies* of attributes  
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157 to describe the shared data but also to share proprietary metadata attributes in a controlled manner that protects the  
158 attributes' confidentiality (*attribute privacy*). Furthermore, attributes and policies can be *dynamically reconfigured*, in  
159 the sense that updates are done dynamically, without the need for re-encryption, and offline. No previous proposed  
160 ABE scheme achieves all of these properties.  
161

162 We provide a concrete OTABE scheme and prove it selectively secure in the standard model. We then use it in  
163 our design of an efficient, expressive, and flexible interorganizational data-sharing framework that we call PRShare.  
164 In addition to the direct benefits of OTABE described above, PRShare provides several other capabilities that are  
165 desirable in real-world interorganizational data-sharing applications, including *efficient and direct revocation*, *protection*  
166 *from key-abuse attacks*, and *hidden access policies*. In order to obtain these features, we leverage our OTABE scheme's  
167 translation technique. OTABE also enables *division of trust* (multiple independent authorities authorize data access) and  
168 *data centrality* (access policies contain data-related, rather than user-related, attributes), both of which enhance privacy  
169 protection in PRShare. Finally, because of the unique structure of OTABE ciphertexts, a single owner's database can  
170 serve multiple clients without knowing the clients' identities at encryption time. Furthermore, the owner does not need  
171 to authorize or serve clients' data-access queries. Previous ABE schemes achieved some of these desirable properties of  
172 our OTABE construction, but none achieved all of them.  
173

174 Before proceeding to our technical results, we note that our approach is not suitable for *all* data-sharing applica-  
175 tions. For example, it is not intended for scenarios in which the data subject participates directly in the user's request  
176 for data about her and could be asked to grant explicit consent. In general, data subjects in the scenarios we consider  
177 will not even be aware of the specific uses that are made of data about them. Similarly, our approach is not intended for  
178 scenarios in which there are clear, efficiently decidable, and universal rules that govern which users can access which  
179 portions of the data; existing access-control mechanisms suffice in such scenarios. Our techniques are useful in scenarios  
180 in which there are legally mandated, general principles that govern access to sensitive data, but instantiating those  
181 principles in the form of efficiently decidable rules requires data-specific and dynamically changing knowledge. We  
182 give two examples in Subsection 2.2.  
183

184 **Paper outline:** Section 2 presents related work and two uses cases. In Section 3, we give the definition of attribute  
185 translation and the algorithms used in our MA-OTABE scheme. Section 4 contains the PRShare system design. Section 5  
186 discusses the security of our proposed scheme. Section 6 contains an overview of our construction and Section 7  
187 describes the construction and the attribute-translation function in more detail. In Section 8, we give formal statements  
188 and proofs of our OTABE results. Section 9 contains implementation details and performance evaluation. Conclusions  
189 and open problems are given in Section 10.  
190

## 191 2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

### 192 2.1 Related work

193 Existing privacy-preserving data-sharing schemes fall into two general categories: centralized and decentralized. The  
194 former category includes the works of Dong *et al.* [13], X. Liu *et al.* [32], Popa *et al.* [36] and Vinayagamurthy *et al.* [45].  
195 Their major advantage is efficiency; disadvantages include single points of failure and the lack of division of trust.  
196 Decentralized solutions can be found in the work of Fabian *et al.* [15], Froelicher *et al.* [19], C. Liu *et al.* [31], and Nayak  
197 *et al.* [33]. They avoid single points of failure but often have limited efficiency or scalability.  
198

199 The original motivation for PRShare was enhancement of privacy protections in surveillance processes. Previous  
200 work in this area includes that of Kamara [24] and Kroll *et al.* [25]; they proposed cryptographic protocols that  
201

Table 1. Properties of Proxy-Assisted ABE Schemes

Scheme	Type	Multi-Authority	Access policy	Dynamic attribute translation	Proxy's role	Direct revocation	Security model	Hidden policy
[22]	CP,KP-ABE	✗	LSSS	✗	Outsourced decryption	✗	RCCA	✗
[30]	CP-ABE	✗	AND gates	✗	Delegation of decryption rights	✗	Selective CPA	✗
[48]	KP-ABE	✗	LSSS	✗	Revocation management	✗	Selective CPA	✗
[44]	KP-ABE	✗	LSSS	✗	Revocation management	✓	Selective CPA	✗
[49]	CP-ABE	✗	AND gates	✗	Revocation management	✗	Selective CCA	✗
[5]	CP-ABE	✓	LSSS	✗	Outsourced decryption	✗	Selective RCPA	✓
[29]	CP-ABE	✗	LSSS	✗	Delegation of decryption rights	✗	Selective CCA	✗
[27]	CP-ABE	✗	AND gates	✗	Outsourced decryption, encryption	✗	Selective CPA	✗
[26]	CP-ABE	✗	LSSS	✗	Outsourced decryption	✗	Selective CPA	✗
<b>OTABE</b>	KP-ABE	✓	LSSS	✓	Attribute translation	✓	Selective CPA	✓

protect the privacy of known surveillance targets. Segal *et al.* [42, 43] focused on unknown (*i.e.*, not yet identified) targets and provided cryptographic protocols that protect privacy of innocent bystanders in two commonly used surveillance operations: set intersection and contact chaining. Frankle *et al.* [18] used secure, multiparty computation and zero-knowledge protocols to improve the accountability of electronic surveillance.

Attribute-based encryption was introduced by Sahai and Waters [41]. Their work was followed by many ciphertext-policy ABE and key-policy ABE constructions, including those in [4, 7, 20, 35, 38]. Chase [11] introduced multi-authority ABE, and Nishide *et al.* [34] introduced ABE with hidden access policy. ABE has been applied in a wide range of domains, including fine-grained data-access control in cloud environments [46], health IT [1, 28], and security of blockchains and Internet-Of-Things devices [37, 47].

We now explain some crucial differences between the role of proxies in OTABE and their roles in previous works.

An OTABE scheme provides an algorithm, *Translate()*, which allows a semi-trusted proxy to translate one or more of the attributes under which a data record's payload is encrypted without learning the underlying plaintext. Moreover, translation can be done obliviously, in the sense that the attributes under which the payload is encrypted remain hidden from the proxy who translates them. The proxy learns only the attributes' new values.

Two common responsibilities of proxies in ABE are *outsourced decryption*, introduced by Green *et al.* [22], and *revocation management*, which was used by Yu *et al.* [48, 49]. In both cases, proxies are used for efficiency; they assume much of the computational cost of decryption or revocation and lighten other parties' loads. The attribute-translation protocols in OTABE are *not* designed to reduce the client's or the owner's computational loads. Similarly, outsourced-decryption and revocation-management proxies are not designed to enable oblivious translation between organizational vocabularies or to support dynamically reconfigurable attributes. Simply put, proxies used for outsourced decryption and revocation management and those in OTABE serve completely different primary purposes.<sup>1</sup>

The use of proxies for *ciphertext delegation* was introduced by Sahai *et al.* [40]. Proxies in this scenario take ciphertexts that are decryptable under policy  $P_1$  and transform them into ciphertexts that are decryptable under policy  $P_2$ . However,  $P_2$  must be stricter than and use the same vocabulary as  $P_1$ ; here, "stricter" means that  $P_2$  permits the decryption of a

<sup>1</sup>A direct-revocation mechanism, partially managed by the proxy, is a natural byproduct of attribute translation, as described in Subsection 4.2, but it is not the primary goal of OTABE.

subset of the ciphertexts that could be decrypted under the original policy  $P_1$  used by the encryptor. Neither of these restrictions applies to the proxies in OTABE.

In *attribute-based proxy re-encryption* (ABPRE), which was introduced by Liang *et al.* [30], a proxy re-encrypts a ciphertext encrypted under access structure  $AS_1$  to one that can be decrypted under access structure  $AS_2$  without learning the plaintext. There is a surface similarity between ABPRE and OTABE in that proxies in both transform ciphertexts encrypted by data owners under  $AS_1$  into ciphertexts decryptable by clients under  $AS_2$ . However, the entity that issues re-encryption keys to proxies in ABPRE requires knowledge of the vocabularies of both owner and client; to create re-encryption keys, she must know  $AS_1$  and  $AS_2$ . Thus, unlike OTABE, ABPRE does not support multiple vocabularies and can not provide attribute privacy.

In an ABPRE scheme, re-encryption keys are issued to a proxy on a per-access-policy basis. In order to perform re-encryption, the entire access policy must be changed so that the new policy contains no attributes that appear in the original policy. Neither of these restrictions applies to OTABE, in which re-encryption-key issuing and re-encryption itself can be done on a per-attribute basis. The responsibility for determining the new attribute set and performing the re-encryption is divided among multiple parties from different trust domains. Each party performs a partial re-encryption that uses only the attributes that belong to its trust domain and does so in a controlled manner that results in a final, full re-encryption that satisfies the data owner's requirements. This decentralized approach allows OTABE to support multiple vocabularies, provide attribute privacy, and enable dynamically reconfigurable translation policies that do not require re-initialization of the system or re-encryption of records by the owner.

Finally, in ABPRE, the proxy must know the ciphertext's original access policy in order to perform the re-encryption. OTABE proxies, by contrast, perform *oblivious* translation and re-encryption; they do not learn the original set of attributes or the original access structure under which the plaintext was encrypted.

## 2.2 Use cases

In order to motivate the notion of OTABE and illustrate its applicability in real-world scenarios, we provide two examples.

**Law-enforcement agencies:** The Electronic Communications Privacy Act (ECPA) [14] was passed to protect the privacy rights of ISPs' customers with respect to disclosure of their personal information. The ECPA limits LE access to email and other communication records in a manner that is consistent with the Fourth Amendment. However, it has several "loopholes." For example, the ECPA classifies an email message that is stored on a third party's server for more than 180 days as "abandoned." As a result, LE agencies can request that both the metadata and the content of those email messages be turned over without the need for judicial review.

Unrestrained government access to communication data is clearly undesirable. However, given national-security and public-health concerns, expecting LE and intelligence agencies never to access *any* data held by communication companies such as ESPs is unrealistic. A more realistic goal is to deploy a policy that restricts such data sharing to the minimum needed in order to perform the task at hand, as defined by multiple trusted entities. OTABE provides a mechanism that can enforce such policies and protect the confidential information of all organizations and agencies that participate in the data-sharing protocols.

In OTABE terms, the data owner is the ESP, and the data subjects are people who send and receive email messages. The data are email records. Each email record contains a payload, which is the content of an email message, encrypted under a set of metadata attributes, *e.g.*, sender's and receiver's email addresses, date, subject line, *etc.* The client is an LE



Table 2. Summary of notations and symbols.

Notation	Description	Notation	Description
$(M)_S$	encryption of $M$ under a set $S$ of attributes	$[x]_y$	encryption of $x$ under the key $y$
$ORG_S$	set of proxies involved in translation of $C = (M)_S$	$DEC_S$	set of parties involved in decryption of $C = (M)_S$
$P_{org_j}$	the proxy operating on behalf of organization $org_j$	$S_m$	mutable attributes
$S_{im}$	immutable attributes	$S_p$	the set of attributes' labels that $P_{org_p}$ is allowed to translate
$pub_{\Pi}(x)$	the public key of entity $x$ , created by a public-key scheme $\Pi$	$K_x$	a symmetric shared key between $org_{owner}$ and organization $org_x$
$org(k)$	the organization who is allowed to translate attribute $att_k$	$E_j(L)$	encryption of auxiliary information $L$ by organization $org_j$
$F(K, x)$	pseudorandom function keyed with symmetric key $K$	$F(x)[0]$	the first argument of the output of the evaluation of $F$ on $x$

agency, such as the FBI or a municipal police department, and the intermediaries may be other LE agencies, non-LE government agencies, or private companies. The data users are LE agents employed by the client.

Clearly, email records can be useful to LE agencies, but an agent should be able to decrypt only those records whose metadata attributes constitute *probable cause* in the context of a specific investigation. The entities who determine probable cause on a per-investigation basis are the TAs. Each TA is motivated by a different set of interests and goals. A TA may be part of the judicial branch, the ESP, the LE agency, or another external entity.

Not all of the attributes used by the ESP to store email records can be shared with the LE agency, because some of them reveal both private information about the ESP's customers or proprietary information of the ESP itself. Similarly, the attributes used by the LE agency to access and process records and to issue access policies cannot be shared with the ESP, because they reveal confidential information about the LE agency's investigations. Furthermore, some of the attributes that are used by the parties do not belong to the same vocabulary. For instance, the attribute "appears-in-watchlist" is frequently used in keys issued to LE agents, but it is meaningless to the ESP. Such attributes must undergo dynamic adaptation to ensure that agents' keys match an email message's attributes. OTABE allows the ESP and LE agency to use their own vocabularies while keeping the email messages' content and metadata confidential.

TAs are likely to grant an agent who is investigating a crime access to email records in which either the sender or the receiver is on the agency's watchlist. The LE agency's proxy can translate the ESP's sender and receiver attributes into the LE agency's "on-watchlist" attribute in an oblivious fashion, thus maintaining both the confidentiality of the watchlist and the privacy of data subjects' email addresses. In addition, an agent might want to check whether the sender or receiver appears on other agencies' lists, e.g., a list of investigations ongoing at LEA-2, which is another LE agency. Because details of LEA-2's ongoing investigations cannot be shared with the client, the translation of the attributes sender and receiver will be done obliviously by LEA-2's intermediary proxy.

Similarly, the access policy of an agent investigating cyber fraud may enable access to email records whose subject lines match a "suspicious" pattern. The definition of "suspicious" may be determined by a dynamically updated list of keywords. Using this keyword list, the client's proxy can obliviously translate the attribute "subject line," maintained by the ESP, into the attribute "is-suspicious-subject," maintained by the client and used in the agent's access policy. Neither the agent nor the proxy is able to read the actual subject line, and the data subject's privacy is maintained.

Note that, in both of these investigations, dynamic translations are needed, because watchlists and lists of suspicious keywords change over time. They enforce the requirement that an agent cannot access payloads without probable cause, but they do not reveal to the ESP confidential information about watchlists and ongoing investigations.

**Insurance companies:** Consumer reporting agencies (CRAs) collect and share credit-related information about consumers. This information is used by credit-card issuers, mortgage lenders, insurance companies, *etc.* to assess

365 creditworthiness of consumers. The three largest CRAs in the US are Experian, TransUnion, and Equifax.<sup>2</sup> The Fair  
 366 Credit Reporting Act (FCRA) [16] regulates the collection, dissemination, and use of credit-related information. The  
 367 FCRA gives companies the right to access consumers' credit reports. This access is not limited to reports on the  
 368 company's customers; it may include reports on large sets of potential customers. In order to create pre-screened offers  
 369 and market them to potential customers, an insurance company is allowed to access consumers' credit reports and  
 370 to share information with credit-card issuers, banks, other insurance companies, *etc.* However, access rights to credit  
 371 reports are limited by the FCRA to information for which an insurance company has a *permissible purpose*. OTABE can  
 372 be used to formalize and enforce this vague concept in a manner that protects both consumers' privacy and proprietary  
 373 information of insurance companies and CRAs.  
 374

375  
 376 In OTABE terms, the data owner is a CRA, and the data subjects are consumers. Data records are credit reports,  
 377 owned by the CRA. Each record is encrypted under the set of attributes that describe the report, *e.g.*, the phone number,  
 378 credit score, and driver's license number (DLN) of the data subject, credit-utilization ratio, date and time of the report's  
 379 creation, CRA-internal statistics, *etc.*  
 380

381 Insurance companies are the data clients. Data users are insurance-company employees who use credit reports to  
 382 make decisions about which insurance products to offer consumers and how to price them. In order to comply with the  
 383 FCRA's "permissible-purpose" requirement, employees should only access credit reports on a "need-to-know" basis.  
 384 An employee can only access those records whose associated attributes are relevant to her task, as determined by a  
 385 set of TAs. TAs may include the CRA, a government entity, or various parties within the insurance company. Other  
 386 organizations, such as credit-card issuers, government entities, banks, and other insurance companies may serve as  
 387 intermediaries by "enriching" data supplied by a CRA in a privacy-preserving manner.  
 388  
 389

390 As in the LE scenario, each organization wants to protect its proprietary information. For instance, the CRA does not  
 391 want to reveal unnecessary identifying information about its customers, an insurance company does not want to reveal  
 392 how it makes business decisions regarding which consumers are considered "qualified" for pre-screened offers, *etc.* Also  
 393 as in LE, different organizations may use different vocabularies. Consider the attribute "number of accidents," which is  
 394 used by insurance companies to screen potential customers. This attribute cannot be used by CRAs, because they do  
 395 not maintain such information in their credit reports. OTABE supports all of these requirements.  
 396

397 Assume that each report is encrypted under these attributes: CREDIT-UTILIZATION-RATIO, CREDIT-SCORE,  
 398 PHONE-NUMBER, DLN, and DATE. Employee  $U$  in the car-insurance department is assigned the task of finding  
 399 qualified potential customers and tailoring pre-screened offers, using information found in their credit reports.  
 400

401 The TAs determine that, for this task, a qualified customer is defined by the following policy:  
 402

403  $\text{CREDIT-SCORE} > X \wedge \# \text{ACCIDENTS} < Y \wedge \text{IS-BLACKLISTED} = \text{FALSE} \wedge \text{IS-CREDIT-RATIO-LESS-THAN-AVERAGE} = \text{TRUE}$   
 404

405 The intermediaries in this case are financial business partners of the insurance company, *e.g.*, banks and credit-card  
 406 issuers, and the Department of Motor Vehicles (DMV).  
 407

408 To complete her task,  $U$  submits to the CRA a query that requests the reports of all consumers whose credit scores  
 409 are greater than  $X$ . The CRA then sends each matching record to two intermediaries: the DMV and a credit-card issuer.  
 410

411 For each record, the DMV's proxy obviously translates the DLN attribute into  $\# \text{ACCIDENTS}$ , which is found in the  
 412 subject's driving record. The credit-card issuer's proxy obviously translates the numeric CREDIT-UTILIZATION-RATIO  
 413 attribute into a binary attribute IS-CREDIT-RATIO-LESS-THAN-AVERAGE by obviously comparing the consumer's  
 414

414 <sup>2</sup>In September of 2017, Equifax announced a data breach that exposed the personal information of 147 million people and cost the company hundreds of  
 415 millions of dollars in compensation to affected people [6, 17].  
 416



utilization ratio with the average utilization ratio of the issuer’s customers. The insurance company’s proxy obviously translates the PHONE-NUMBER attribute into the attribute IS-BLACKLISTED, using a dynamically updated list of individuals who were blacklisted by the insurance company or one of its business associates for, *e.g.*, failure to pay.

When  $U$  receives a record, she will be able to decrypt the credit report, read its contents, and learn the subjects’ identifying information if and only if the record’s post-translation attributes satisfy her access policy.

Data privacy is achieved, because only authorized users can decrypt a given credit report. Attribute privacy is achieved, because attributes used by each organization remain hidden to the extent required. Moreover, sensitive information about consumers whose records *are* decrypted is also protected. For example, a user may learn that a consumer’s number of accidents is below a certain threshold but not learn the exact number. Finally, these translations demonstrate OTABE proxies’ ability to translate *dynamically*, because the list and the average change over time, and *obliviously*, because neither the attributes nor the data are revealed to them.

### 3 ATTRIBUTE-BASED ENCRYPTION WITH OBLIVIOUS ATTRIBUTE TRANSLATION

#### 3.1 Terminology

**Attributes:** Our scheme uses multi-valued attributes, denoted by  $\langle label, operator, value \rangle$ . Note that this representation is different from the ones found in typical ABE schemes, which use “descriptive” (essentially binary) attributes. We denote by  $att_k^L$  and  $att_k^V$  the label and value of an attribute  $att_k$ . Translation of an attribute can be done either by changing the attribute’s value (*i.e.*, replacing  $value$  with  $value^*$ ) or by replacing both the attribute’s label and its value with  $label^*$  and  $value^*$ , respectively.

In PRShare, attributes’ labels are partitioned into two sets: mutable, denoted  $S_m$ , and immutable, denoted  $S_{im}$ . Immutable attributes are ones that cannot be translated by any party in the system. Intuitively, they are the attributes that are shared by the owner and the client. Mutable attributes, on the other hand, are ones that can be translated by a semi-trusted proxy at some point after their initialization by the owner.

**Hidden access policy:** We introduce an OTABE scheme with hidden access policy by ensuring that the set of attributes used to encrypt a message is hidden from the CSP, the proxies, and the data users. We use the term “hidden access policy” for compatibility with the terminology used in existing CP-ABE work, in which access policies are attached to the ciphertexts.

In such a scenario, a data user cannot learn the attributes that are attached to a ciphertext but is able to determine which attributes are needed to perform the decryption. The hidden-access-policy feature is used to enhance privacy. However, if the owner and client wish to reveal the ciphertexts’ attributes to the users or wish to speed up decryption at the expense of some privacy, they can turn off this feature without having to alter the encryption, translation, and decryption operations. This follows from the modular design of the system, as discussed in Subsection 5.1. Note that the hidden-access-policy feature does not enable the creation of trivial policies (*i.e.*, those that always allow a user to decrypt every record she receives). This is because a key must satisfy *all* TAs’ policies in order to succeed in decrypting, and the data owner can always serve as a TA or delegate to a TA that it trusts not to permit decryptions that it wishes to forbid.

In general, PRShare is designed to achieve a high level of privacy while allowing flexible and expressive data-sharing protocols. In real-world scenarios, however, organizations have different priorities. Some may favor privacy, but others may favor functionality and thus prefer to allow their data users broader access to information about the shared data at the expense of privacy. PRShare is able to support both approaches: It is highly modular, and each privacy guarantee

relies on a different low-level feature that can be removed or changed to fit the organization's privacy-functionality trade-offs while maintaining the rest of the privacy guarantees.

**(Informal) Definition:** Let  $M$  be a data record's payload encrypted under a set  $S \subseteq \mathcal{U}_1$  of attributes, resulting in a ciphertext  $C$ . We refer to the set  $S$  as the set of original attributes under which  $M$  is encrypted. Let  $T : \mathcal{U}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_2$  be a translation function from the universe  $\mathcal{U}_1$  of attributes to the universe  $\mathcal{U}_2$  of attributes, and let  $Q_j$  be the set of original attributes that a semi-trusted proxy  $j$  is allowed to translate. An ABE scheme supports **oblivious attribute translation by semi-trusted proxy**  $j$  if, given  $C$ ,  $Q_j$ , and  $T$ , for all  $s \in Q_j$ , the proxy is able to compute  $T(s)$  without:

- learning anything about  $M$ ,
- learning anything about the attributes in  $S \setminus Q_j$ , or
- learning the labels or the values of attributes in  $S \cap Q_j$ .

Formal security definitions are given in Subsection 5.2.

### 3.2 Algorithms

An MA-OTABE scheme consists of the following algorithms:

**GlobalSetup** $(\lambda) \Rightarrow (PK)$ : The global-setup algorithm takes as input a security parameter  $\lambda$  and outputs global parameters  $PK$ .

**AuthoritySetup** $(PK) \Rightarrow (PK_i, MSK_i)$ : Each authority runs the authority-setup algorithm with  $PK$  as input to produce its own public key  $PK_i$  and master secret key  $MSK_i$ .

**Encrypt** $(M, PK, S, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut}) \Rightarrow (CT)$ : The encryption algorithm takes as input a message  $M$ , a set  $S$  of attributes, and the public parameters. It outputs the ciphertext  $CT$ .

**KeyGen** $(PK, MSK_i, A_i, u, t) \Rightarrow (SK_{i,u,t})$ : The key-generation algorithm takes as input the global parameters, an access structure  $A_i$ , a master secret key  $MSK_i$ , the global identifier  $u$  of a data user who issued the key-generation request, and a task  $t$ . It outputs a decryption key  $SK_{i,u,t}$ .

**Distribute** $(I) \Rightarrow (\{C^j | j \in DEC_S\})$ : This algorithm takes as input a set  $I$  of ciphertexts' ids. It outputs a set of partial ciphertexts,  $\{C^j | j \in DEC_S\}$ .

**Translate** $(PK, j = p, C^p, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut}) \Rightarrow (C'^p)$ : The translation algorithm takes as input the global public parameters and the authorities' public parameters, a proxy's index  $j = p$ , and a partial ciphertext  $C^p$ . It outputs a translated partial ciphertext  $C'^p$ .

**Decrypt** $(PK, \{SK_{i,u,t}\}, C^u, \{C'^j | j \in ORG_S\}) \Rightarrow (M)$ : The decryption algorithm takes as input the global parameters, a set of secret keys  $\{SK_{i,u,t}\}_{i \in Aut}$ , a partial ciphertext  $C^u$ , and a set of translated partial ciphertexts  $\{C'^j | j \in ORG_S\}$ . It outputs the plaintext  $M$ .

## 4 SYSTEM MODEL

**Definition of attributes:** We define two sets of attributes' labels:  $S_{owner}$  represents the set of attributes that the owner uses to encrypt, store, and access data records that it owns. This set is determined by the data owner.  $S_{client}$  represents the set of attributes under which keys are generated; those are the attributes that the client uses to access and process the shared data records, and they are chosen by  $org_{client}$ . Note that  $S_{owner} \cap S_{client} \neq \emptyset$ ; this means that some attributes are shared by the client and the owner. This enables the users to retrieve data records of potential interest from the CSP using queries that are composed of shared attributes and also enables the data owner, if it wishes, to be one of the TAs. We denote the universes of attributes comprising each set by  $\mathcal{U}_{owner}$  and  $\mathcal{U}_{client}$ .

For each data intermediary  $org_j$  in the system, we define a set of attributes' labels  $S_j \subseteq S_m$ . It represents the set of attributes that is governed by  $org_j$  and hence can be translated by the proxy  $P_{org_j}$  that acts on behalf of  $org_j$ .

#### 4.1 System participants

**Data owner:**  $org_{owner}$  is responsible for encrypting each of its data records using the set  $S \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{owner}$  of attributes that are most likely to appear in future queries.

**Data users:** Data users are employees of  $org_{client}$  who need access to data records stored by  $org_{owner}$  in order to perform daily tasks. Each user is assigned a unique global identifier and a list of tasks. Each task  $t$  has a well defined time limit  $tl_t$ . The list is dynamic in the sense that tasks can be removed or added to it during the system run. A user issues two types of queries. A *key request* is used to obtain a key that corresponds to a specific access policy. A *data query* is used to obtain data records owned by  $org_{owner}$  that are relevant to a specific task in the user's task list.

**Cloud-service provider:** The CSP stores the ciphertexts outsourced by  $org_{owner}$  and responds to queries submitted by data users in  $org_{client}$ .

**Trusted authorities:** TAs are the entities that determine the decryption policy of  $org_{client}$  and issue secret keys that are used by data users. They use attributes from  $\mathcal{U}_{client}$ . There must be at least two TAs, and they may be entities in  $org_{owner}$ ,  $org_{client}$ , or external organization. We assume that at least one TA belongs to  $org_{client}$  and that at least one TA does not.

**Proxies:** Each proxy  $P_{org_j}$  represents a different organization  $org_j$  (either an intermediary or a client) and operates on behalf of that organization. The role of a proxy  $P_{org_j}$  is to translate a subset of attributes in  $\mathcal{U}_{owner}$  under which a ciphertext was encrypted to the corresponding attributes in  $\mathcal{U}_{client}$ . To do this, the proxy uses both a generic translation algorithm that is used by all proxies in the system and an organization-specific translation function that is determined by  $org_j$  and may involve auxiliary information provided by the organization to its proxy. The generic translation algorithm is public, but the organization-specific translation function and auxiliary information are considered private to  $org_j$  and  $P_{org_j}$ . We assume that every MA-OTABE scheme includes at least one proxy (the "client proxy") that is responsible for managing  $org_{client}$ 's user-level revocation mechanism and for performing vocabulary translations.

**Data subjects:** Each data record owned by  $org_{owner}$  is linked to a certain individual, the data subject. A data record's payload contains personal information about the data subject, including content produced by the data subject. We assume that every data subject has a user id (UID) that varies based on the type of data used in the system. Examples of UIDs include phone numbers and email addresses.

#### 4.2 Revocation mechanism

One major byproduct of OTABE is the ability to implement an efficient and direct revocation mechanism, in which revoking the keys of a set  $U$  of users does not affect the keys of users not in  $U$ . Using the translation technique, a semi-trusted mediator can transform a ciphertext that was encrypted under a set of data-centric attributes at point A into a "personalized" ciphertext reflecting a specific data query made by a user at point B. The main idea of our revocation mechanism is the addition of global-identifier (GID) and time attributes to each key. In addition, we add a dummy GID and dummy times during encryption. These dummy attributes will be translated to suit the specific data query's time and requester only if a certain criterion is met. This creates an efficient mechanism in which most revocations are enforced automatically.

We assume that every data user receives a unique GID. The data client maintains a revocation list that contains revoked GIDs. Users whose GIDs are on the revocation list are not allowed to access any data record. Revocation-list updates are infrequent and happen only when a user completely leaves the organization. Furthermore, GIDs can be removed from the revocation list after a relatively short time, because the key-level revocation mechanism ensures that secret keys become invalid within a well known and controlled length of time from the date they were issued.

For the key-level revocation mechanism, we leverage a basic trait of an organizational task: It has a well defined time limit. This time limit is determined by the user’s manager and may change while the user is working the task. In our case, the entities who choose the time limit are the TAs; this is an integral part of the per-task “probable-cause” approach. The time limit given to a specific task performed by a user becomes an attribute in the user’s key. In addition, the encryptor adds to each ciphertext a dummy “time” attribute. That dummy attribute is translated by the client proxy to the current time at which the data query is submitted by the user, thus making a key-level revocation check an automatic part of any decryption attempt. In our construction, we view a “time limit” as a date. This can easily be extended to include finer-grained notions of time.

We also leverage our attribute-translation technique for the user-level revocation mechanism. It enables us to include a user-specific component in the ciphertext; this component is adjusted according to the specific data user by the client proxy in the data-retrieval phase. Note that we treat the GID as an *additional attribute*. We incorporate the user’s GID as an attribute in the user’s secret keys and, in parallel, add a “placeholder” GID attribute to each ciphertext. When a user submits a data query, the placeholder attribute is translated to that specific user’s GID only if she does not appear in the revocation list. This mechanism provides an efficient user-level revocation mechanism and protects the scheme from collusion attempts and key-abuse attacks.

Details of the translations used in our revocation mechanism are provided in Subsection 7.2.

### 4.3 Main flows

The system model consists of an encryption flow, a data flow, and a key-generation flow. We assume that the system has already been set up, resulting in the global public parameters  $PK$  and a public-key, master-secret-key pair  $(PK_i, MSK_i)$  for each trusted authority  $Aut_i$ .

**Encryption flow:** In order to encrypt a data record’s payload  $M$ ,  $org_{owner}$  first determines the set  $S$  of attributes under which  $M$  will be encrypted.  $S \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{owner}$  is composed of  $|S| - 2$  data-centric attributes that describe the record’s metadata and two attributes that serve as “placeholders.” The placeholders  $att_{GID}$  and  $att_{TIME}$  are initialized with random, “dummy” values by  $org_{owner}$  and receive their actual values from  $org_{client}$ ’s proxy. Based on the attributes in  $S$ , the encryptor determines the set  $DEC_S$  of decryption parties.  $DEC_S$  contains all parties involved in the decryption of the ciphertext, *i.e.*, a data user and the set  $ORG_S$  of organizations that are allowed to translate attributes in  $S$  (represented by their proxies).  $ORG_S$  includes the client’s proxy and any number of data intermediaries’ proxies. After determining  $DEC_S$ ,  $org_{owner}$  encrypts  $M$  under  $S$  by calling  $Encrypt(M, PK, S, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut})$  and receives a set  $\{C^j\}$  of  $|DEC_S|$  partial ciphertexts.  $|DEC_S| - 1$  of the partial ciphertexts correspond to proxies and contain only attribute components. One corresponds to the data user and contains both attribute components and a data component; the latter contains the payload  $M$  itself. Note that, for each  $C^j$ ,  $U(C^j) \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{owner}$ , where  $U(C)$  is the vocabulary of attributes under which a ciphertext  $C$  is encrypted. Lastly,  $org_{owner}$  computes  $Y = \{Obf(att_k) \mid att_k \in S\}$ , a set of obfuscated values for immutable attributes in  $S$ , and uploads to the cloud the preprocessed ciphertext and the UID that the ciphertext is associated with.

**Key-generation flow:** A user  $u$  who belongs to  $org_{client}$  sends a key request to the TAs in each of the following cases: Either a new task is inserted to  $u$ 's task list, or the time limit for an existing task in  $u$ 's task list has expired, and her existing secret key for that task is no longer valid. The request contains a description of the task and the "ideal" access policy that  $u$  would like to obtain in the context of that task. Each authority  $Aut_i$  creates an access policy  $A_i$  based on an examination of the user's request and the nature of the specific task. It creates a GID attribute  $att_{GID}$  that contains the user's GID  $u$ . Finally, it determines  $tl_t$ , which is either a new time limit for  $t$  (if  $t$  is a new task) or an extended time limit (if  $t$  is an existing task and its time limit has expired) and uses  $tl_t$  to create a time-limit attribute  $att_{LIMIT}$ . The time-limit attribute that is embedded in a secret key must be expressed using the same units (date, month, timestamp, etc.) used in the time attribute  $att_{TIME}$  that is attached to the ciphertext. It then creates its secret key  $SK_{i,u,t}$  by calling  $KeyGen(PK, MSK_i, A'_i, u, t)$ , where

$$A'_i = A_i \wedge att_{GID} \wedge att_{LIMIT} = A_i \wedge (GID == u) \wedge (TIME < tl_t).$$

**Data flow:** A data user  $u$  sends a data query to the CSP. It contains a conjunctive query  $\psi$  on attributes from  $\mathcal{U}_{owner} \cap \mathcal{U}_{client}$ . The CSP retrieves the ciphertexts that satisfy the query. For each ciphertext  $C$ , it sends  $C^{j=u}$  to  $u$  and each  $C^{j=p}$  to a proxy  $P_{org_p}$ . At that point, because  $u$  received only a partial ciphertext, she cannot yet use her key for decryption. Each proxy  $P_{org_p}$  in  $ORG_S$  translates each attribute  $att_k$  such that  $(att_k \in S) \wedge (att_k^L \in S_p)$  by calling  $Translate(PK, j = p, C^p, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut})$  and computes an obfuscated value for each new attribute  $att_{k'}$  that it added, creating  $Y_p = \{Obf(att_{k'})\}$ . The client organization's proxy also manages the user-level mechanism by performing a correct translation of  $att_{GID}$  and  $att_{TIME}$  only if  $u$  does not appear in the revocation list. Each proxy  $P_{org_p}$  then sends the translated partial ciphertext  $C'^{j=p}$  and  $Y_p$  to the user. At this point,  $U(C^j)$  has changed from  $\mathcal{U}_{owner}$  to  $\mathcal{U}_{client}$ . Because each partial ciphertext is, from the proxy's view, independent of the data component inside the ciphertext, each proxy is able to perform the translations without learning  $M$ . Moreover, the structure of each partial ciphertext ensures that  $P_{org_j}$  learns nothing about the attributes with labels that do not belong to  $S_j$ . All attribute components that correspond to attributes that the proxy can translate contain obfuscations of the attributes, rather than the attributes themselves; thus, each attribute  $att_k$  such that  $(att_k \in S) \wedge (att_k^L \in S_p)$  remains hidden from the proxy, while the obfuscated value can still be used for various translation operations. The user gathers all the translated partial ciphertexts  $\{C'^j | j \in ORG_S\}$  and her partial ciphertext  $C^u$  to create an aggregated ciphertext that she can decrypt using her secret key. Finally,  $u$  decrypts the payload by calling  $Decrypt(PK, \{SK_{i,u,t}\}_{i \in Aut}, C^u, \{C'^j | j \in ORG_S\})$ . The decryption succeeds if and only if the following three conditions hold:

- $\forall i \in Aut, TR(S) \models A_i$ , where  $TR(S) = Y \cup \{Y_j\}_{j \in ORG_S}$  represents the set of translated attributes, created based on the original set  $S$  of attributes.
- $tl_t$ , the time limit for task  $t$ , has not expired. (Otherwise,  $att_{LIMIT}$  cannot be satisfied.)
- $u$  has not been revoked, and no collusion or key-abuse attempt has been made. (Otherwise,  $att_{GID}$  cannot be satisfied.)

## 5 SECURITY DEFINITIONS

### 5.1 Goals and trust relationships

An OTABE-based framework should satisfy three security goals with respect to all PPT adversaries.

**Selective security against chosen-plaintext attacks:** The adversary cannot learn (in the selective-security model) the plaintext of either an original ciphertext or an aggregated, translated ciphertext.

**Security against colluding parties:** Let  $C = (M)_S$  be a valid MA-OTABE ciphertext. No coalition of at most  $|DEC_S| - 1$  parties can learn anything about  $M$ .

**Attribute secrecy:** The trust model that we consider in this paper is different from the standard ABE trust model. Unlike the plaintext, for which we have a single security notion that applies to all the participants, we cannot apply a uniform security criterion to the attributes. Because each party plays a distinct role in the protocol, the set of attributes to which it is allowed to be exposed differs from the sets to which other parties are allowed to be exposed. We define three security requirements to ensure the secrecy of ciphertexts' attributes: hidden access policy, oblivious translation, and attribute privacy.

*Hidden access policy:* The set of attributes used to encrypt a message cannot be learned by the CSP, the proxies, or the data users.

*Oblivious translation:* The original attributes that each proxy  $P_{org_j}$  translates remain hidden from the proxy. That is, for every attribute  $s$  such that  $s^L \in S_j$ , the proxy  $P_{org_j}$  is able to translate  $s$  into a new attribute  $s' \in \mathcal{U}_{client}$  without learning  $s$ .

*Attribute privacy:* Informally, the attribute-privacy requirement states that organizations that share data must be able to maintain separate views of the data that they share.

*Definition 5.1.* Given a payload space  $\mathcal{M}$ , a universe  $\mathcal{U}_{owner}$  of attributes used by the encryptor ( $org_{owner}$ ) to describe data records it owns, and a universe  $\mathcal{U}_{client}$  of attributes used by  $org_{client}$  for data usage and authorization management, we define a function  $MAP : \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{U}_{owner} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_{client}$  that maps attributes in  $org_{owner}$ 's vocabulary (corresponding to data records' payloads  $M \in \mathcal{M}$ ) to attributes in  $org_{client}$ 's vocabulary. An OTABE scheme achieves **attribute privacy** if and only if:

- For every data record's payload  $M$  and every attribute  $s \in \mathcal{U}_{owner}$ , if  $s$  is mutable, the encryptor does not learn  $MAP(M, s)$ , the translated value of the attribute  $s$  with respect to  $M$ .
- For every data record's payload  $M$  and every attribute  $v \in \mathcal{U}_{client}$ , if  $MAP^{-1}(M, v)$  is mutable, data users and TAs do not learn  $MAP^{-1}(M, v)$ , the original value of the attribute  $v$  with respect to  $M$ .

The following observations about our threat model, which considers external adversaries as well as the parties presented in Subsection 4.1, are natural aspects of the security definitions and results presented in Subsection 5.2.

**No organization fully trusts the other organizations.** Our framework protects the owner's data records, attributes of the data held by each organization, and auxiliary information held by each organization that is used for attribute translation. We assume that the owner is honest but curious.

**No organization fully trusts its proxy server.** CSPs and proxies in our framework, which we assume to be honest but curious, are only given encrypted attributes and encrypted auxiliary information. Note that the use of honest but curious proxies is well established in the design of cryptographic protocols [3, 8, 10, 21, 23, 49].

**The client organization does not fully trust its data users.** Data users in our system, who are assumed to be malicious, can only access records that are relevant to their assigned tasks, as determined by the TAs. We assume that at least one TA is honest. Data users also cannot learn attributes of the shared data records that are held by organizations other than the data client.

## 5.2 Definitions

We start by presenting the definition of selective security for our MA-OTABE scheme.



Let  $E = (\text{Setup}, \text{AuthoritySetup}, \text{Encrypt}, \text{Distribute}, \text{KeyGen}, \text{Translate}, \text{Decrypt})$  be an OTABE scheme for a set of authorities  $Aut$ ,  $|Aut| = K$ . Consider the following OTABE game for a PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ , a challenger  $\mathcal{B}$ , a security parameter  $\lambda$ , an attribute universe  $\mathcal{U}_{owner}$ , and an attribute universe  $\mathcal{U}_{client}$ .

**Init:** The adversary chooses the challenge attribute set  $S$ , where  $S \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{owner}$ . Based on  $S$ , the adversary chooses the challenge decryption-parties set  $DEC_S^*$ , where  $DEC_S^* \subseteq DEC_S$ . The adversary also chooses a subset of corrupted authorities  $Aut_c$ . We assume that all authorities but one are corrupted and denote the honest authority by  $Aut_h$ ; thus,  $Aut = Aut_c \cup \{Aut_h\}$ . The adversary sends  $Aut_c$ ,  $Aut_h$ ,  $S$ , and  $DEC_S^*$  to the challenger.

**Setup:** The challenger runs the *Setup* algorithm to produce the public parameters  $PK$  and, for each authority  $Aut_i$ , runs the *AuthoritySetup* algorithm to produce  $PK_i$  and  $MSK_i$ . If  $Aut_i$  is honest, the challenger sends  $PK_i$  to the adversary. If  $Aut_i$  is corrupted, the challenger sends both  $PK_i$  and  $MSK_i$  to the adversary.

**Phase 1:** The adversary chooses a revocation list  $RL$  and sends it to the challenger. It may then issue any polynomial number of key requests for tuples of the form (access structure, GID, task identifier) and send them to the challenger.

Given a request (access structure= $AC \in \mathcal{U}_{client}$ , GID= $u$ , task= $t$ ), the adversary proceeds as follows. For requests issued for a corrupted authority  $Aut_i$ , the adversary runs  $SK_{iut} = \text{KeyGen}(PK, MSK_i, AC, u, t)$  itself, because it has  $MSK_i$ , given to it in the setup phase. For requests issued for the honest authority  $Aut_h$ , the challenger provides the answer. It extracts the time limit  $tl_t$  from the description of task  $t$  and creates a time-limit attribute  $att_{LIMIT} = \langle DATE, <, tl_t \rangle$ . In addition, given the GID,  $u$ , in the request, the challenger creates a GID attribute  $att_{GID} = \langle GID, =, u \rangle$ . It then creates  $AC' = AC \wedge att_{LIMIT} \wedge att_{GID}$ , which is an updated version of  $AC$ , and performs:

- If  $S \models AC'$  and  $u \notin RL$ , the challenger aborts.
- If  $S \models AC'$  and  $u \in RL$ , then  $S$  must contain  $S_{GID} = u$ . The challenger picks GID  $u'$ ,  $u' \neq u$ , and generates the secret key using  $SK_{hu't} = \text{KeyGen}(PK, MSK_h, AC, u', t)$ .
- If  $S \not\models AC'$ , the challenger generates the secret key using  $SK_{hut} = \text{KeyGen}(PK, MSK_h, AC, u, t)$ .

**Challenge:** The adversary submits two messages  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  to the challenger. In addition, for every proxy  $j$  in  $DEC_S^*$ , it sends a bit  $a_j$  to the challenger. (By default, if  $j$  represents the user, we assume  $a_j = 0$ .) The challenger flips a fair coin  $b$  and encrypts  $m_b$  under  $S$ :  $CT = \text{Encrypt}(m_b, PK, S, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut})$ . Assuming  $I_{CT}$  is the index corresponding to the ciphertext  $CT$ , the challenger computes a set  $\{C^j | j \in DEC_S^*\}$  of partial ciphertexts using  $\text{Distribute}(I_{CT})$ . For each proxy  $j \in DEC_S^*$ , if  $a_j = 1$ , the challenger performs a translation of the corresponding partial ciphertext,  $C'^j = \text{Translate}(PK, j, C^j, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut})$ , resulting in a translated partial ciphertext  $C'^j$ . Finally, it sends the ciphertext  $C^*$  to the adversary:

$$C^* = \bigcup_{j \in DEC_S^*} c_j^* \quad c_j^* = \begin{cases} C'^j & \text{if } a_j = 1 \\ C^j & \text{if } a_j = 0 \end{cases}$$

**Phase 2:** Phase 1 is repeated.

**Guess:** The adversary outputs a guess  $b'$  of  $b$ . The advantage of the adversary in this game is defined as  $\Pr[b' = b] - 0.5$ .

*Definition 5.2.* An MA-OTABE scheme is **selectively secure** if all PPT adversaries have negligible advantage with respect to  $\lambda$  in the selective-security game.

In the proof that our MA-OTABE construction is secure, we use a  $q$ -type assumption about prime-order bilinear groups: the **decisional  $q$ -Bilinear  $(t, n)$ -threshold Diffie-Hellman assumption** ( $(q, t, n)$ -DBTDH). It is similar to the Decisional  $q$ -Bilinear Diffie-Hellman assumption ( $q$ -DBDH) used in [38].

The assumption is parameterized by a security parameter  $\lambda$ , a suitably large prime  $p$ , two prime-order bilinear groups  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , a bilinear map  $e : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ , and integers  $q$ ,  $t$ , and  $n$ , where  $n \geq 1$  is polynomial in  $\lambda$ , and  $t \leq n$ . It is defined by a game between a challenger and an attacker. The attacker chooses a subset  $V \subseteq [n]$  of  $t$  indices and sends it to the challenger. The challenger picks a group element  $g$  uniformly at random from  $G_1$ ,  $q + 3$  exponents  $x, y, z, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_q$  independently and uniformly at random from  $Z_p$ , and  $n - 1$  additional exponents  $z_1, \dots, z_{n-1}$  independently and uniformly at random from  $Z_p$ . It sets  $z_n = z - \sum_{c=1}^{n-1} z_c$ . Then it sends  $(p, G_1, G_2, e)$  and the following terms to the attacker:

$$g, g^x, g^y, g^z, g^{(xz)^2}$$

$$\forall l \in [q] : g^{b_l}, g^{xz b_l}, g^{xz/b_l}, g^{x^2 z b_l}, g^{y/b_l^2}, g^{y^2/b_l^2}$$

$$\forall l, f \in [q], l \neq f : g^{y b_l/b_f^2}, g^{x y z b_l/b_f^2}, g^{(xz)^2 b_l/b_f}, \Psi_{l,f}$$

where

$$\Psi_{l,f} = \{g^{x z_c (b_l/b_f)} \mid c \in V\}.$$

The challenger flips a fair coin  $b$ . If  $b = 0$ , it gives the term  $e(g, g)^{xy z}$  to the attacker. Otherwise, it gives the attacker a term  $R$  chosen uniformly at random from  $G_2$ . Finally, the attacker outputs its guess  $b'$  for the value of  $b$ .

*Definition 5.3.* We say that **the  $(q, t, n)$ -DBTDH assumption holds** if all PPT attackers have at most a negligible advantage in  $\lambda$  in the above security game, where the advantage is defined as  $\Pr[b' = b] - 1/2$ .

## 6 CONSTRUCTION OVERVIEW

### 6.1 Main OTABE techniques

Before presenting our construction in full detail, we present a simplified version that is inspired by the large-universe ABE scheme of Rouselakis and Waters [38] and that illustrates basic techniques that are new to our construction. Note that the scheme in [38] is single-authority; we extend it here to a multi-authority scheme.

Ciphertext composition in [38] is given by these equations:

$$C_0 = Me(g, g)^{s\alpha} \quad C_1 = g^s \quad C_{2_k} = g^{f_k} \quad C_{3_k} = (\theta^{att_k} h)^{f_k} (w)^{-s}$$

The ciphertext is composed of a data layer and an attribute layer. We refer to  $C_0$  and  $C_1$  as *data-layer components*,  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  as *attribute-layer components*, and each element in  $C_3$  as an *attribute component*. The data-layer component  $C_0$  in [38] contains the message  $M$  masked by the public key  $e(g, g)^\alpha$  of the (single) TA. Assuming that  $M$  is encrypted under a set  $S$  of attributes, the attribute layer contains  $2|S|$  components, *i.e.*, two ( $C_{2_k}$  and  $C_{3_k}$ ) for each attribute  $att_k$  in the ciphertext. Each pair contains a uniform, randomly chosen term  $f_k$  that is local to the specific attribute  $att_k$ .  $C_{3_k}$  also contains the attribute  $att_k$  itself. The two layers are connected by the binder term  $s$ .

The basic idea of our construction is as follows. Assume that we have a data owner, a data client, two authorities (denoted  $Aut_1$  and  $Aut_2$ ), a client proxy, and a data user  $u$ .<sup>3</sup> Assume that the keys given to  $u$  by  $Aut_1$  and  $Aut_2$  are based on the access structures  $att_1 \vee att_2$  and  $att_4$ , respectively.

The data owner wishes to encrypt a record  $M$  under a set  $S = \{att_1, att_3\}$  of attributes, where  $att_1 \in U_{owner} \cap U_{client}$ , but  $att_3 \notin U_{owner} \cap U_{client}$ . That is,  $att_3$  does not belong to the client's vocabulary and hence needs to undergo translation before it can be used for decryption by  $u$ , using the keys she received from the authorities. In this example, we assume that  $T(att_3) = att_4$ ; that is, a correct translation of the attribute  $att_3 \in U_{owner}$  is  $att_4 \in U_{client}$ .

<sup>3</sup>For clarity, we do not use intermediaries in this simplified construction.

In order to encrypt  $M$ , the owner produces a two-level ciphertext; it is similar to the one in [38] but differs in several respects.

First, instead of creating  $|S|$  attribute components  $C3_k$ , one for each attribute, the owner creates  $|S| * |DEC_S|$  attribute components  $C3_{k,j}$ , one for each pair (attribute, decryption party), where  $DEC_S$  represents the set of parties that participate in the decryption of the ciphertext (*decryption-parties* set). In this example,  $|DEC_S| = 2$ , because there are two decryption parties: the user and the client proxy.

Second, we use the binder term  $s$  differently from the way it is used by Rouselakis and Waters in [38]. In [38], the binder term is used in the data layer and in each attribute component. By contrast, we use secret sharing to break  $s$  into  $|DEC_S|$  shares: each attribute component  $C3_{k,j}$  contains only one share of the binder term, the one that corresponds to the decryption party  $j$ . In this example, there are two decryption parties: the user and the client proxy.

Third, recall that each attribute component in [38] contains the actual attribute to which it corresponds. In our OTABE scheme, however, each attribute component contains the output of a given transformation that is applied to the attribute. This enables the proxy to translate the attribute *obliviously* without knowing its label or value. In our construction, the transformation is a keyed PRF, but, as explained below, OTABE can accommodate a richer set of transformations in order to better serve each organization's business logic.

Fourth, we use another uniformly randomly chosen term,  $l_k$ . Like  $f_k$ ,  $l_k$  is local to the attribute component in which it appears. It is used to double blind the attribute part ( $\theta^{att_k} h$ ) of each attribute component, using  $d_k = f_k * l_k$  as a blinding factor; in this way,  $f_k$  can be used by the proxy as a token for oblivious translation.

Because of the composition of the ciphertext, the proxy is able to translate the attribute  $att_3 \in U_{owner}$  into a new attribute  $att_4 \in U_{client}$ . The proxy uses the attribute component  $C3_{att_3, proxy}$ , an obfuscated version of the original attribute  $att_3$ , the tokens given to it by the *Encrypt()* algorithm, and Equation 1 in the *Translate()* algorithm, where  $att_k'$  corresponds to the new attribute (in our case,  $att_4$ ). In general, determination of the new attribute is done obliviously based on the obfuscated original attribute's label and value; this determination is explained fully in Subsection 7.2.

When the user receives the translated record from the proxy, she combines it with her own attribute-layer components and data-layer components to create the final aggregated ciphertext. She uses the keys that she received from  $Aut_1$  and  $Aut_2$  to decrypt the aggregated ciphertext.<sup>4</sup> Decryption with this equation uses secret sharing and the unique structure of the translated attribute component received from the proxy, which includes both an obfuscated version of the original attribute  $att_3$  and the new attribute  $att_4$ .

Finally, to enable hidden access policy, we do not attach the actual set of attributes  $S$  to the ciphertext. Instead, both the data owner and the proxy compute an obfuscated value of each attribute they add to the ciphertext, based on the PEKS construction given in [9]. Using trapdoors received from the TAs,  $u$  is able to perform a "blind intersection" of the obfuscated values received with the ciphertext and her own obfuscated access structure's attributes received from the TAs. Thus,  $u$  is able to determine which attributes are required for decryption without learning their values.

## 6.2 Other components of PRShare

PRShare combines the MA-OTABE construction in Subsection 7.1 with the following building blocks:

- Pseudorandom functions: The data owner and each organization  $org_j$  agree on two random  $k$ -bit keys  $K_{org(j)}$  and  $K1_{org(j)}$  for the PRFs  $F_p : \{0, 1\}^k \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$  and  $F : \{0, 1\}^k \times \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ .

<sup>4</sup>Decryption of aggregated ciphertexts is done using Equation 2, which is given (along with the rest of the full construction) in Subsection 7.1).

- 885 • Collision-resistant hash function: If the parties wish to use the hidden-access-policy feature, they agree on a  
886 collision-resistant hash function  $H$ .
- 887 • Searchable-encryption (SE) scheme,  $\Lambda$ : The input to the  $Distribute()$  algorithm is a set  $I$  of ciphertexts' ids.  $I$  is  
888 the output of  $Search_\Lambda$ , an SE scheme's Search protocol, executed by the CSP and a data user  $u$ .  $I$  contains the ids  
889 of ciphertexts whose associated attributes satisfy the conjunctive query  $\psi$  sent by  $u$  to the CSP.
- 890 • Translation function: In the setup phase, each organization  $org_j$  provides to its proxy the translation function  $T_j$   
891 and the encrypted auxiliary information  $E_j(L)$  according to which it should perform attribute translation.  
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894 Section 7 provides detailed descriptions of our MA-OTABE scheme and the associated attribute-translation procedure.  
895 However, for ease of exposition, it does not present these contributions in their maximum generality or explain all of  
896 their features. We briefly discuss some natural generalizations and interesting features here.

897 One essential feature of PRShare is *oblivious translation* of attributes in  $S_m$  by a semi-trusted proxy. Oblivious  
898 translation is accomplished by applying a transformation to the attribute inside each attribute component; this allows  
899 translation without disclosing the attributes' values to the proxy. The version of the full construction given in Subsec-  
900 tion 7.1 applies the same transformation to each attribute in the ciphertext, using two PRFs. This version demonstrates  
901 a specific translation operation in which the proxy performs oblivious equality tests and set-membership tests to  
902 determine the new attribute. However, PRShare supports a more flexible approach in which different transformations  
903 are applied to different attributes in the ciphertext, based on the attributes' types and sensitivities. For example, if  
904  $att_k \in \mathcal{U}_{owner}$  is a numeric attribute, the proxy can translate it into a descriptive attribute  $att'_k \in \mathcal{U}_{client}$  by comparing  
905  $att_k$  with a threshold that was provided to it by the organization that it represents. It determines the value of the new,  
906 descriptive attribute according to the result of that comparison. In such a case, we would choose an order-preserving  
907 transformation instead of an equality-preserving transformation. Based on this modular approach and other PRF-based  
908 transformations, PRShare enables a broader set of translation operations that better suit organizations' translation logic.  
909 These operations include oblivious addition, keyword search, and numeric comparison [12]. Subsection 7.2 contains  
910 concrete examples of attribute translation.  
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916 The full construction in Subsection 7.1 involves just one data client. In fact, a data owner in PRShare can encrypt its  
917 data records once for use by multiple data clients, and it need not know who the data clients are at encryption time.  
918 What it does need to know is the universe  $T$  of TAs from which each data client chooses the set of TAs that it will use.  
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920 At encryption time, the owner uses the public keys of all  $t \in T$  to create  $C_0$ , which is the data layer. It creates the  
921 rest of the ciphertext's components exactly as they are created in Subsection 7.1. Now consider a client  $c$  that uses TAs  
922  $T' \subseteq T$ . In the key-generation phase, data users associated with  $c$  will receive two types of keys: regular secret keys,  
923 issued by each TA in  $T'$  according to the  $keygen()$  algorithm, and dummy secret keys, issued by TAs in  $T \setminus T'$ . Each  
924 dummy key represents a "decrypt all" policy and thus has no effect when combined with the actual decryption policies  
925 represented by key issued by TAs in  $T'$ .  
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927 Dummy keys are issued to each data user once during the setup phase, and the total number of TAs in the system is  
928 small. Furthermore, the attribute-layer components, which constitute the longer part of the ciphertext, remain the same  
929 under this generalization. Therefore, the performance of this generalized construction will be reasonable.  
930

931 Query and retrieval of encrypted records in PRShare use a searchable encryption (SE) scheme  $\Lambda$ . There is a CSP  
932 that stores ciphertext records that the data owner has created using the  $Encrypt()$  algorithm and receives from data  
933 users requests that contain conjunctive queries on attributes in  $\mathcal{U}$ . In PRShare, storage and processing of the data  
934 records (aka "payloads") is decoupled from storage and processing of their metadata. The SE scheme can be chosen  
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independently of the OTABE scheme, according to specific needs or privacy requirements of the client or owner. The only functionality that the SE scheme must provide is:

- (1) The data user can submit to the CSP a conjunctive query that contains attributes in  $\mathcal{U}_{owner} \cap \mathcal{U}_{client}$ .
- (2) The CSP is able to retrieve all the records that match the query, without learning the query's contents or the attributes associated with each record. Furthermore, the data user cannot learn the attributes that are associated with each record, except for those that appear in her query.

Upon receiving a query from a data user, the CSP searches for all the ciphertexts that satisfy this query; for each one, it performs the *Distribute()* algorithm. Importantly, *the CSP need not perform any type of authentication or authorization of users*. Each payload and its associated attributes are stored in encrypted form according to the OTABE scheme, and *only users with suitable keys are able to decrypt the payload and the attributes*. If a user does not belong to a client organization that uses TAs in  $T$ , or if she *does* belong to such an organization but has not been issued the necessary decryption keys for the records that match her queries, she will learn nothing from the encrypted payloads and attributes that the CSP sends her.

Finally, note that the choice of SE scheme is highly flexible. One may choose a very simple scheme, in which tags are created using PRFs with keys that shared among the relevant entities (owner, CSP, and clients) or a more sophisticated schemes that provides stronger security and privacy guarantees.

## 7 DETAILED CONSTRUCTION AND TRANSLATION FUNCTION

### 7.1 Construction

We denote by  $org(k)$  the organization that governs the attribute  $att_k$ . We denote by  $pub_{\Pi}(P_{org_j})$  the public key of a proxy  $P_{org_j}$ , created using a standard public key encryption scheme,  $\Pi$ .

Our MA-OTABE scheme consists of the following algorithms:

**GlobalSetup**( $\lambda$ )  $\Rightarrow$  ( $PK$ ): This algorithm takes as input a security parameter  $\lambda$ . It defines bilinear groups  $G_1, G_2$  of prime order  $p$  and a bilinear map  $e : G_1 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ . The attribute universe is  $\mathcal{U} = Z_p$ . Finally, the algorithm selects  $\theta, h, w$  randomly from  $G_1$ . It returns the global public key  $PK$  as follows:

$$PK = (G_1, G_2, p, \theta, w, h, g, e)$$

**AuthoritySetup**( $PK$ )  $\Rightarrow$  ( $PK_i, MSK_i$ ): Each authority  $Aut_i$  chooses random numbers  $\alpha_i, \beta_i \in Z_p$ . It sets  $PK_i = (e(g, g)^{\alpha_i}, g^{\beta_i})$  as its public key and  $MSK_i = (\alpha_i, \beta_i)$  as its master secret key.

**Encrypt**( $M, PK, S, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut}$ )  $\Rightarrow$  ( $CT$ ): This algorithm takes as input a data record's payload  $M$ , the public keys for all authorities  $\{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut}$ , and a set of attributes  $S$ ,  $|S| = R$ . It adds two attributes to  $S$ :  $att_{DATE} = \langle DATE, ==, rand_1 \rangle$ ,  $att_{GID} = \langle GID, ==, rand_2 \rangle$ . Both are randomly initialized. It then chooses  $2|S| + 2$  random exponents  $s, a, \{f_k\}_{k \in [R]}, \{l_k\}_{k \in [R]} \in Z_p$  and computes  $\{d_k = f_k * l_k\}_{k \in [R]}$ . The encryptor determines, according to the nature of attributes in  $S$ , the subset  $ORG_S$  of organization proxies that are able to perform translations of the ciphertext. The set of parties involved in decryption of  $C$  will include the set of proxies in  $ORG_S$  and the final decryptor, *i.e.*, the user. Hence  $|DEC_S| = |ORG_S| + 1 = P$ . The encryptor chooses another  $P$  random elements  $s_j \in Z_p$ ,  $\sum_{j \in DEC_S} s_j = s$ . It then encrypts  $M$  under  $S$ . The resulting ciphertext is composed of four elements:  $C_0, C_1, C_2, C_3$  and a set  $Tok$  of tokens:

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$$W = g^a \quad C0 = M \prod_{i \in Aut} e(g, g)^{s\alpha_i} \quad C1 = g^s \quad C2_k = \{g^{d_k} | att_k \in S\} \quad C3_{k,j} = \bigcup_{\substack{att_k \in S, \\ j \in DEC_S}} c3_{k,j}$$

$$c3_{k,j} = \begin{cases} D_{k,j} & \text{if } att_k^L \in S_{im} \\ E_{k,j} & \text{if } att_k^L \in S_m \end{cases}$$

where:

$$D_{k,j} = (\theta^{att_k} h)^{d_k} (w)^{-s_j} \quad E_{k,j} = (\theta^{F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)} h)^{d_k} (w)^{-s_j}$$

$$C2 = \{C2_k | att_k \in S\} \quad C3 = \{C3_{k,j} | att_k \in S, j \in DEC_S\}$$

$$Tok_j = \{Tok_{k,j} | att_k^L \in S_j\} \quad Tok_{k,j} = [Tok1_{k,j} || Tok1_{k,j} || Tok1_{k,j} || Tok1_{k,j}]_{pub_{\Pi}(P_{org(k)})}$$

$$Tok1_{k,j} = \theta^{l_k} \quad Tok2_{k,j} = f_k \quad Tok3_{k,j} = F(K1_{org(k)}, att_k^L) \quad Tok4_{k,j} = F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)$$

$$C = (W, C0, C1, C2, C3, Tok = \{Tok_j | j \in ORG_S\})$$

For each attribute  $att_k$  where  $att_k^L \in S_{im}$ , the encryptor computes an obfuscated value as follows:  $Y^k = e((g^{\beta_{aut(k)}})^a, H(att_k))$ , where  $aut(k)$  denotes the authority that may use the attribute  $att_k$  in its access structure. The encryptor computes its signature,  $sig_u^{encryptor}$  on each element in  $C$ , as well as on the number of attributes that each proxy in  $ORG_S$  is allowed to translate. In addition, for each proxy, it computes a signature  $sig_p^{encryptor}$  on each element in  $\{C3_{k,p} | att_k^L \in S_p\}$ , on each element in  $Tok_j$ , and on the size of both sets. The encryptor then uploads the following record to the cloud server:

$$CT = (C, UID, P, Y = \{Y^k | \forall att_k^L \in S_{im}\}, sig_u^{encryptor}, \{sig_p^{encryptor} | p \in ORG_S\})$$

**KeyGen**( $PK, MSK_i, A_i, u, t$ )  $\Rightarrow$  ( $SK_{i,u,t}$ ): The key generation algorithm for  $Aut_i$ , user  $u$  and task  $t$  takes as input the master secret key  $MSK_i$  and access structure  $A_i$ , determined by the authority based on the combination of data-centric attributes that it considers to be a sufficient justification for decrypting a data record's payload in the context of task  $t$  and the role of user  $u$ . The authority determines a new or updated time limit for task  $t$ ,  $tl_t$ , and creates a time-limit attribute:  $att_{LIMIT} = \langle DATE, \langle, tl_t \rangle$ . Lastly, given the user's GID,  $u$ , the authority creates a GID attribute,  $att_{GID} = \langle GID, \langle, u \rangle$ .  $Aut_i$  then creates  $A'_i = A_i \wedge att_{LIMIT} \wedge att_{GID}$ , an updated version of  $A_i$ . To ensure the hidden-access-policy feature, the authority replaces each attribute  $att_x$  in the access structure, with a trapdoor  $H(att_x)^{\beta_i}$  and transforms the resulting access structure into an LSSS access structure  $(M_i; \rho)$  where  $M_i$  is an  $ni \times mi$  matrix and  $\rho$  is a function which associates rows of  $M_i$  to attributes' trapdoors. The algorithm chooses random  $y_2, \dots, y_{mi} \in Z_p^n$  and creates a vector  $vi = (\alpha_i; y_2, \dots, y_{mi})$ . For  $c = 1, \dots, ni$ , it calculates:  $\lambda_{i,c} = M_i(c) \cdot vi$ , where  $M_i(c)$  is the vector corresponding to the  $c$ 'th row of the matrix  $M_i$ . In addition, the algorithm chooses  $ni$  random exponents  $r_1, \dots, r_{ni} \in Z_p$ . For each  $x \in [ni]$ , it sets the private key  $SK_{i,u,t}$  as:

$$SK_{x,i,u,t}^1 = g^{\lambda_{i,x}} (w)^{r_x} \quad SK_{x,i,u,t}^2 = (\theta^{\rho(x)} h)^{-r_x} \quad SK_{x,i,u,t}^3 = g^{r_x}$$

Each authority  $Aut_i$  then sends:

$$SK_{i,u,t} = \{SK_{x,i,u,t}^1, SK_{x,i,u,t}^2, SK_{x,i,u,t}^3\}_{x \in [ni]}$$



1041 to  $u$ . The user's secret keys for task  $t$  are  $\{SK_{i,u,t}\}_{i \in Aut}$ .

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1043 **Distribute**( $I$ )  $\Rightarrow (\{C^j | j \in DEC_S\})$ : The input to the *Distribute*() algorithm is a set of ciphertexts' ids,  $I$ . The cloud  
1044 first retrieves all the ciphertexts that are associated with ids in  $I$ . For a ciphertext  $CT$ , encrypted under a set of attributes  
1045  $S$  and retrieved by the CSP, the CSP sends to each proxy,  $P_{org_p}$ :  
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$$1047 C^P = (\{C3_{k,p} | att_k^L \in S_p\}, P, sig_p^{encryptor}, Tok_p)$$

1048  
1049 and sends to user  $u$ :

$$1050 C^u = \{W, C0, C1, C2, C3_u, P, Y, sig_u^{encryptor}\}$$

1051 where:

$$1052 C3_u = \{C3_{k,u} | att_k \in S\} \cup \{C3_{k,p} | att_k \in S, org(k) \neq p\}$$

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1054  
1055 **Translate**( $PK, j = p, C^P, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut}$ )  $\Rightarrow C'^P$ : the *Translate*() algorithm for a proxy  $P_{org_p}$  and a data record's  
1056 payload  $M$  encrypted under attribute  $S$  receives as input a partial ciphertext  $C^P$ . For each attribute component  $C3_{k,p}$   
1057 that corresponds to an attribute  $att_k$  to be translated, the proxy first verifies the encryptor's signature. It then decrypts  
1058 its tokens using its private key and extracts each of them. It computes  $T_j(Tok3_{k,j}, Tok4_{k,j}) = att_k'$ , thus obliviously  
1059 translating the attribute  $att_k$  into a new attribute,  $att_k'$ . The function  $T_j$  is determined separately by each organization;  
1060 see Subsection 7.2. It then computes a new value for  $E_{k,p}, E'_{k,p}$ :  
1061

$$1062 E'_{k,p} = E_{k,p} \cdot (Tok1_{k,p}^{-PTok4_{k,p} + P att_k'} Tok2_{k,p} = (\theta^{(P att_k' - (P-1)F_p(K_{org(k), att_k)})h})^{d_k} w^{-s_p}) \quad (1)$$

1063  
1064 Finally, the proxy chooses a random exponent,  $c \in Z_p$ , where  $W_p = g^c$ , and computes, for each new attribute  $att_k'$   
1065 that it created, an obfuscated value as follows:  $Y^{att_k'} = e((g^{\beta_{aut(k')}})^c, H(att_k'))$ . We denote the set of obfuscated value  
1066 corresponding to translated attributes by proxy  $p$  as  $Y_p$ . It then signs the new elements it added, as well as the number  
1067 of attributes it translated. It sends those signatures,  $sig_p$ , and the translated partial ciphertext to the user  $u$ . The record  
1068 that is sent to the user is:  
1069

$$1070 C'^P = (C'3_p, sig_p, W_p, Y_p) \quad C'3_p = \{C'3_{k,p} | att_k^L \in S_p\} = \{E'_{k,p} | att_k^L \in S_p\}$$

1071  
1072 **Decrypt**( $PK, \{SK_{i,u,t}\}, C^u, \{C'^j | j \in ORG_S\}$ )  $\Rightarrow M$ : The decryption algorithm for data record's payload  $M$ , en-  
1073 crypted under a set of attributes  $S$  and a user  $u$  takes as input the global parameters,  $K$  secret keys  $\{SK_{i,u,t}\}$ , repre-  
1074 senting access structures  $\{A'_i\}$ , and two types of ciphertexts: a partial ciphertext,  $C^u$ , received directly from the CSP  
1075 and  $|ORG_S| = P - 1$  translated partial ciphertexts  $\{C'^j | j \in ORG_S\}$ , received from each one of the proxies in  $ORG_S$ ,  
1076  $C'^j = (C'3_j, sig_j, W_j, Y_j)$ . After verifying both the encryptor's signatures and the proxies' signatures, the user aggregates  
1077 all the translated partial ciphertexts she received from the proxies, extracts  $C3_u$  from her partial ciphertext  $C^u$ , and  
1078 creates and updated version of  $C3, C'3$ :  
1079

$$1080 C'3 = \{C3_{k,u} | att_k \in S\} \cup \{C3_{k,p} | att_k \in S, org(k) \neq p\} \cup \{C'3_j | j \in ORG_S\}$$

1081  
1082 The user extracts  $C0, C1, C2$  from  $C^u$  and merges those with  $C'3$ . The final ciphertext is:

$$1083 C_f = (C0, C1, C2, C'3)$$

1084  
1085 The user then determines the attributes that are needed for decryption, as well as their corresponding rows in the  
1086 LSSS matrix of each authority. For a given access policy, represented by  $(M_i, \rho)$ , the user uses  $W$ , received from the CSP  
1087

and  $\{W_j\}_{j \in ORG_S}$ , received from each proxy and computes the following set:

$$S_i^* = \bigcup_{i \in [ni]} s_i^* \quad s_i^* = \begin{cases} e(W, \rho(i)) & \text{if } att_k^L \in S_{im} \\ e(W_{org(k)}, \rho(i)) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

The user collects both the original attributes of the ciphertext and the ciphertext's translated attributes, to create the final set of attributes  $TR(S) = Y \cup \{Y_j\}_{j \in ORG_S}$ . By performing  $\hat{S}_i = S_i^* \cap TR(S)$ , she receives the (obfuscated) set of attributes  $\hat{S}_i$  that are needed for decryption,  $I_i$ . This process is performed for each access policy  $(M_i, \rho)_{i \in Aut}$ , resulting in  $K$  obfuscated attribute sets,  $I_i$  and corresponding index-sets,  $Ind_i$  such that:

- For all  $c \in Ind_i$ ,  $\rho(c) \in I_i$ .
- Exist constants,  $\{w_{c,i} \in Z_p\}_{c \in Ind_i}$ , such that  $\sum_{c \in Ind_i} w_{c,i} M_i(c) = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$

The algorithm now recovers  $M$  by computing:

$$\frac{C0}{B}$$

where:

$$B = \prod_{i \in Aut} \prod_{c \in I_i} (e(C1, SK_{c,i,u,t}^1) e(C2_c, SK_{c,i,u,t}^2))^{w_{c,i}} \prod_{j \in [P]} e(C'3_{c,j}, SK_{c,i,u,t}^3)^{w_{c,i}} \quad (2)$$

## 7.2 Translation

The *Translate()* algorithm given in our construction assumes the existence of a set of translation functions,  $\{T_j | j \in ORG\}$ . Each function is determined separately by each organization  $org_j$  and determines how to translate attributes in  $S_j$ .

The translation of an attribute can be done in two ways: either by changing both the label and the value of the attribute or by keeping the attribute's label and only changing its value. A translation may require auxiliary information, provided to the proxy by its organization. In such a case, the translation is done by performing an oblivious operation on the attribute, that is encrypted using a certain transformation, and on another object (a number, a list *etc*), the ‘‘auxiliary information,’’ that is encrypted using the same transformation. Such an oblivious operation can be a comparison, equality test, list membership test, keyword search *etc*. Since both the attribute inside the ciphertext and the organization-specific auxiliary information are encrypted using the same keyed transformation, with a key that is unknown to the proxy, the proxy can perform the translation without learning the attribute's value and without learning the contents of the private auxiliary information provided by the organization.

On a high level, the transformation applied by organization  $org_j$  to a data structure,  $L$ , that contains multiple auxiliary information items,  $l \in L$ , works by treating each item  $l$  as the value of the corresponding attribute's label in  $S_{owner}$ , mapping the resulting attribute to an element in  $\mathcal{U}$ , and using the transformation to encrypt that element. The result, the encryption of auxiliary information  $L$  that belongs to an organization  $org_j$ , is denoted by  $E_j(L)$ . A similar process is used for auxiliary information that includes only one element,  $l$ , such as a threshold or a descriptive statistic.

Each organization prepares a lookup table, where entries represent obfuscated labels and values contain the translation logic and auxiliary information used for translation of attributes with that label. Using the same obfuscated label received from the owner, the proxy knows what logic and auxiliary information it should use for the translation of the attribute in its hands. It then uses the obfuscated value (in our construction, a PRF-encrypted value) of the attribute that the proxy obtained from the owner to compute the new attribute, using the translation logic and auxiliary information.

We now present three important examples. For simplicity, in the following examples we fix a specific translation function and refer to it as  $T$ . In addition, we use  $T$  as if it takes one argument, namely the original attribute. In practice

1145 (as shown in our construction), in order to support *oblivious* translation, a function  $T_j$  is a two-argument function,  
1146 neither contains the actual original attribute, but instead, an obfuscated version of both the label and the value. In our  
1147 construction, we use two PRFs for that purpose.  
1148

1149 **Dynamic translation between vocabularies:** As discussed, translation of an attribute from  $org_{owner}$ 's vocabulary  
1150 to  $org_{client}$ 's vocabulary is done according to the specific attribute being translated as well as the specific needs and  
1151 work methodologies of the client organization.  
1152

1153 One of the main reasons that attribute translation is essential for supporting multiple vocabularies is that, although  
1154 the encryption of a data record's payload is done by the owner once, the relevance of the data record to the client  
1155 changes over time. In ABE terms, that means that while the set of attributes under which a ciphertext is encrypted,  
1156 taken from one vocabulary, does not change, the question whether or not this set satisfies a given access policy, taken  
1157 from another vocabulary, does change over time. Furthermore, such decision, of whether or not a ciphertext is relevant  
1158 to the client at a given point in time is made using external information, the "auxiliary information," that is related  
1159 to one or more of the owner's, client's, and intermediaries' professional domains. Because the auxiliary information  
1160 changes over time, so does the decision whether or not the set of attributes of a given data record should satisfy a given  
1161 access policy. Values of such attributes with respect to a data record cannot be fully determined at encryption time, but  
1162 should rather be dynamically translated, only when a data user needs to access that data record. OTABE supports such  
1163 dynamic attributes, as shown below.  
1164  
1165

1166 We consider here two examples, representing common translation operations used for translating attributes from  
1167  $\mathcal{U}_{owner}$ .  
1168

1169 The first operation is determining the new attribute according to the original attribute's membership in a list provided  
1170 by the client organization or an intermediary. Since both the attribute and the list-items are encrypted using the output  
1171 of a PRF, such translation can be done obliviously.  
1172

1173 To illustrate, we continue with the watchlist example given in Subsection 2.2. Two pieces of metadata that ESPs  
1174 collect about their customers' email messages are the sender and receiver of the email. Such attributes, however, cannot  
1175 be used in the secret keys issued by the LE agency to its employees: unless the investigation is targeted (and therefore  
1176 the data subject's UID such as phone number or email address are known in advance), a raw email address will be  
1177 meaningless in terms of justification for decryption, and therefore cannot be used for determining the relevance of a  
1178 certain ciphertext to one of the LE agency's investigations. Furthermore, exposing raw sender's and receiver's email  
1179 addresses to agents in the LE agency will violate the privacy of data subjects that do not appear on any watchlist. Hence,  
1180 the translation of the attribute "sender" is a boolean attribute that indicates whether the sender of the email appears  
1181 on an existing watchlist. Such an attribute better suits the daily activity of the LE agency as well as protects innocent  
1182 citizens' privacy and thus can be included in the key in order to determine whether an access to an email address is  
1183 justified. Clearly, such a list cannot be revealed to an external entity, including the ESP.  
1184

1185 Note that the raw email address's relevance to a given investigation may vary over time. This is because the auxiliary  
1186 information, *i.e.*, the watchlist, may change periodically and thus the membership of a data subject associated with a  
1187 given email address in the watchlist may change over time as well. This is why such attributes can only be translated  
1188 dynamically, when an agent submits an access request for that specific email record.  
1189

1190 We now show how the data client, the LE agency, encrypts the watchlist. The watchlist,  $L$ , contains multiple items,  
1191  $l \in L$ , that represent data subjects' ids (for example, email addresses). In order for the watchlist to be compatible with  
1192  
1193  
1194

1195  
1196

1197 the “sender” attribute under which email messages are encrypted, the LE agency performs the following preprocessing  
 1198 step on the watchlist:  
 1199

1200 *for l in watchlist :*

1201  $E_{j=client}(watchlist).add(F_p(K_{Org_{j=client}}, \langle label = SENDER, operator = “==”, value = l \rangle))$   
 1202

1203 Where  $E_{client}(watchlist)$  represents the resulting, encrypted watchlist, containing multiple “sender” attributes, and  
 1204 thus compatible with the “sender” attribute used by the ESP.  
 1205

1206 Assuming  $att_k = \langle SENDER, ==, c \rangle$  represents a sender’s email address,  $c$ ,  $att_k' = \langle ON - WATCHLIST, ==, b \rangle$   
 1207 is a boolean attribute that represents whether the sender appears on a watchlist, and  $E_{Org_j}(L)$  represents an encryption  
 1208 of the watchlist  $L$  as described above, the value of  $b$  is determined by the proxy as follows:  
 1209

1210  $Contains(E_{Org_j}(L), Tok4_{k,j}) = b$   
 1211

1212 The second operation is determining the new attribute by comparing it to one or more numeric auxiliary-information  
 1213 pieces; each piece usually represents either a threshold that is related to the attribute’s value or aggregated statistics  
 1214 about other data records that share the same attribute. In this case, instead of an equality-preserving transformation,  
 1215 we will use an order-revealing transformation such as the ORE scheme presented in [12], denoted by  $\Pi_{ORE}$  (which also  
 1216 makes use of a PRF). Since both the attribute and the threshold or the descriptive statistic with which the attribute is to  
 1217 be compared are encrypted using  $\Pi_{ORE}$ , such translation can be done obliviously.  
 1218

1219 To illustrate, we consider the insurance-company example discussed in Subsection 2.2. We consider the attribute:  
 1220 “credit utilization ratio,” used by the CRA to store credit reports. Such an attribute, however, cannot be used in the secret  
 1221 keys issued by the insurance company to its employees, as a raw number will be meaningless in terms of determining  
 1222 whether a consumer is a good candidate for an insurance offer, and therefore cannot be used to determine the relevance  
 1223 of a certain credit report to an employee’s task. Furthermore, exposing the exact utilization ratio to insurance company’s  
 1224 employees will violate consumers’ privacy. Hence, the translation of the numeric attribute “credit utilization ratio” is a  
 1225 boolean attribute that indicates whether that ratio is below the average ratio. Such an attribute better suits the daily  
 1226 activity of the insurance company as well as protects consumers’ privacy to the extent possible. Therefore, it can be  
 1227 included in employees’ keys in order to determine whether the insurance company finds the data subject to be a good  
 1228 enough candidate for an insurance offer, *i.e.*, whether access to the data subject’s credit report is justified. In this case the  
 1229 translation will be made by the credit card company’s proxy, acting as an intermediary, by obliviously comparing the  
 1230 number that represents the consumer’s credit utilization ratio to the average utilization ratio of its customers. Clearly,  
 1231 the average utilization ratio that is calculated by each credit card company based on its own customers, constitutes  
 1232 proprietary information of the company and should not be revealed to other organizations.  
 1233

1234 As in the previous example, the auxiliary information (the utilization ratio’s average) may change periodically. Thus,  
 1235 whether or not the utilization ratio of a data subject is above average may change over time. This is why such an  
 1236 attribute can only be translated dynamically, when an employee submits an access request for that specific credit report.  
 1237

1238 Assuming  $att_k = \langle CREDIT - UTILIZATION - RATIO, ==, c \rangle$  represents the credit utilization ratio,  $c$ ,  
 1239  $att_k' = \langle IS - CREDIT - RATIO - LESS - THAN - AVERAGE, ==, b \rangle$  is a boolean attribute that represents whether  
 1240 the credit utilization ratio is above the current average, as calculated by the credit card company, and  $E_{Org_j}(l)$  represents  
 1241 an encryption of the average  $l$  using  $\Pi_{ORE}$ , the value of  $b$  is determined by the proxy as follows:  
 1242

1243  $\Pi_{ORE}.COMPARE(E_{Org_j}(l), Tok4_{k,j}) = b$   
 1244  
 1245

Note that in both cases, both the label and the value of the attributes are being translated.

**Key-level revocation:**  $P_{org_{client}}$  translates the value of the attribute  $att_k = \langle DATE, ==, rand \rangle$  from the  $c$ -bit random value (its default value given at encryption time by the data owner) to the current date (or the current timestamp, if a time limit is expressed using time instead of dates),  $date_{cur}$ , and so  $T(att_k) = att_k' = \langle DATE, ==, date_{cur} \rangle$ . In this case, only the value of the attribute is being translated. Note that access structures in our system contain a time-limit attribute of the form:  $\langle DATE, <, tl_t \rangle$ , where  $tl_t$  is the per-task time limit, assigned by the TAs.

**User-level revocation:** Given a data user's  $GID$ ,  $u$ , who sent a data retrieval request,  $P_{org_{client}}$  performs the following: it first checks whether  $u$  appears in  $org_{client}$ 's revocation list. If so, it aborts. Otherwise, the proxy translates the value of the attribute  $att_k = \langle GID, ==, rand \rangle$  from the  $c$ -bit random value (its default value given at encryption time by the data owner) to the data user's  $GID$ ,  $u$ , and so  $T(att_k) = att_k' = \langle GID, ==, u \rangle$ . Note, that if the revocation list contains the data user's  $GID$ , the partial ciphertext  $C^{P_{org_{client}}}$  will not be sent to the data user who initiated the retrieval request. Furthermore, in such a case  $att_{GID}$  will remain with its default random value assigned by  $org_{owner}$ .

In both revocation events, only the attribute's value is being translated, as the original attributes serve as placeholders. Thus, the proxy only needs to know the original attributes' obfuscated labels in order to perform the translation.

## 8 RESULTS

We now give the formal statements and full proofs of the properties of the scheme presented in Section 7.

LEMMA 8.1. If  $n \geq 2$  and  $t \leq n$ , then  $(q, t, n)$ -DBTDH  $\Rightarrow$   $q$ -DBDH.

PROOF. From Definition 3, it is enough to prove that  $(q, n, n)$ -DBTDH  $\Rightarrow$   $q$ -DBDH.

Given a distinguisher  $D_1$  which is able to tell a  $(q, n, n)$ -DBTDH term from a random term with non-negligible probability, we want to show that there exists a polynomial distinguisher  $D_2$  which is able to tell a  $q$ -DBDH term from a random term with non-negligible advantage. We are given the terms:

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_1 &= \{g, g^x, g^y\} \cup \{g^{b_l}, g^{y/b_l^2}, g^{y^2/b_l^2} \mid \forall l \in [q]\} \cup \{g^{yb_l/b_f^2} \mid \forall l, f \in [q], l \neq f\} \\ \Omega_2 &= \{g^z, g^{(xz)^2}\} \cup \{g^{xz b_l}, g^{xz/b_l}, g^{x^2 z b_l} \mid \forall l \in [q]\} \cup \{g^{xyz b_l/b_f^2}, g^{(xz)^2 b_l/b_f}, g^{xz b_l/b_f} \mid \forall l, f \in [q], l \neq f\} \end{aligned}$$

and  $R$ , where  $R$  is either a  $q$ -DBDH term  $e(g, g)^{xyz}$  or a random term. We choose a set  $A = \{a_i\}$ , where each  $a_i$  is randomly selected from  $Z_p$  (note that for the  $(q, n, n)$ -DBTDH,  $V$  is uniquely determined, as  $V = [n]$ ) and compute, for each element in  $\Omega_2$ , a new term:

$$\begin{aligned} h1 &= (g^z)^{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i} = g^{(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i z)} \\ h2 &= (g^{(xz)^2})^{(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i)^2} = g^{(x(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i z))^2} \\ h3 &= (g^{xz b_l})^{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i} = g^{x(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i z) b_l} \\ h4 &= (g^{xz/b_l})^{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i} = g^{x(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i z)/b_l} \\ h5 &= (g^{x^2 z b_l})^{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i} = g^{x^2(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i z) b_l} \\ h6 &= (g^{xyz b_l/b_f^2})^{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i} = g^{xy(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i z) b_l/b_f^2} \\ h7 &= (g^{(xz)^2 b_l/b_f})^{(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i)^2} = g^{(x(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i z))^2 b_l/b_f}, \\ \Psi'_{l,f} &= \{(g^{xz b_l/b_f})^{a_i} \mid i \in [n]\} = \{g^{x(a_i z) b_l/b_f} \mid i \in [n]\} \end{aligned}$$

We set  $\Omega'_2$  as:

$$\Omega'_2 = \{h1, h2\} \cup \{h3, h4, h5 \mid \forall l \in [q]\} \cup \{h6, h7, \Psi'_{l,f} \mid \forall l, f \in [q], l \neq f\}$$

Note, that if  $R$  is a  $q$ -DBDH term, then  $R' = R^{(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i)} = e(g, g)^{xy(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i z)}$  is a  $(q, n, n)$ -DBTDH term, and if  $R$  is a random term then  $R'$  is a random term. We then view  $(\Omega_1, \Omega'_2, R')$  as input to the oracle  $D_1$  to obtain correct value  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  ( $b = 0$  if the answer of  $D_1$  is  $(q, n, n)$ -DBTDH term, and 1 otherwise). Therefore, we have a polynomial distinguisher  $D_2$  which is able to tell  $q$ -DBDH term from a random term with the same non-negligible advantage.  $\square$

**THEOREM 8.2.** If  $(q, n, n)$ -DBTDH holds, then our MA-OTABE scheme achieves selective security against all PPT adversaries with a challenge attribute set  $S$  of size  $W$ , where  $W \leq q$ , and a challenge decryption-parties set  $DEC_S^*$  of size  $P$ , where  $P \leq n$ .

**PROOF.** To prove the theorem we will assume that there exists a PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  with a challenge attribute set  $S$  and a challenge decryption-parties set  $DEC_S^*$ , which has a non-negligible advantage in selectively breaking our MA-OTABE scheme. Using  $\mathcal{A}$  we will build a PPT simulator  $\mathcal{B}$  that attacks the  $(q, n, n)$ -DBTDH assumption with a non-negligible advantage.<sup>5</sup>

**Init:** The simulator receives the given terms from the assumption. The adversary chooses the challenge attribute set  $S$ , where  $|S| = W$ . Based on  $S$ , the adversary chooses the challenge decryption-parties set  $DEC_S^*$ , where  $DEC_S^* \subseteq DEC_S$  and  $|DEC_S^*| = P$ . The adversary chooses a subset of corrupted authorities  $Aut_c$ . We assume all authorities but one are corrupted, and denote the honest authority by  $Aut_h$ . The adversary sends  $Aut_c, Aut_h, S$  and  $DEC_S^*$  to the simulator.

**Setup:** We denote  $S$  as  $\{att_1, \dots, att_W\}$  and the set of indexes of attributes in  $S$  as  $I_S$ .

The simulator chooses  $h^*, u^*$  randomly from  $Z_p$ . For each attribute  $att_l$  it chooses  $e_l$  randomly from  $Z_p$ . It then computes the global public parameters:

$$\begin{aligned} w &= g^x \\ \theta &= g^{u^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2}) \\ h &= g^{h^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{xz/b_l e_l}) \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2})^{-att_l} \end{aligned}$$

Based on the global public parameters, the simulator creates the parameters for authority  $Aut_i$ , as follows:

For every  $Aut_i \in Aut_c$ , the simulator chooses random  $n_i \in Z_p$ , and sets  $MSK_i = -xn_i$ . It computes  $PK_i = e(g, g)^{MSK_i} = e(g^x, g^{-(n_i)})$ . The simulator sends  $MSK_i$  and  $PK_i$  to the adversary. For  $Aut_h$ , the simulator sets  $MSK_h = x y + x \sum_{i \in Aut_c} n_i$ . It computes  $PK_h = e(g^x, g^y) \prod_{i \in Aut_c} e(g^x, g^{n_i})$ . The simulator sends only  $PK_h$  to the adversary.

**Phase 1:** The adversary chooses a revocation list  $RL$  and sends it to the simulator. Then it may issue any polynomial number of private key queries, for tuples of (access structure, GID, task identifier), and sends those to the simulator.

For a query: (access structure= $AC$ , GID= $u$ , task= $t$ ), the simulator does the following:

For queries issued for a corrupted authority  $Aut_i \in Aut_c$ , the adversary runs  $SK_{iut} = KeyGen(PK, MSK_i, AC, u, t)$  itself, as it has  $MSK_i$ , given to it in the setup phase. For queries issued for the honest authority  $Aut_h$ , the simulator provides the answer. The simulator determines a time limit for task  $t$ ,  $tl_t$ , and creates a time-limit attribute:  $att_{LIMIT} = \langle DATE, \langle, tl_t \rangle$ . In addition, given the GID in the query,  $u$ , the simulator creates a GID attribute,  $att_{GID} = \langle GID, =, u \rangle$ .

It then creates an updated version of  $AC$ ,  $AC' = AC \wedge att_{LIMIT} \wedge att_{GID}$  and performs the following:

<sup>5</sup>For simplicity, we prove our attribute-secrecy related claims separately, in Theorem 3. We also omit the signatures that are attached to some of the messages in our construction



- If  $S \models AC'$  and  $u \notin RL$ , the simulator will abort.
- If  $S \models AC'$  and  $u \in RL$ ,  $S$  must contain  $S_{GID} = u$ . The simulator picks a GID  $u'$ ,  $u' \neq u$ , and generates the secret key using  $SK_{hu't} = KeyGen(PK, MSK_h, AC, u', t)$
- If  $S \not\models AC'$ , the simulator generates the secret key using  $SK_{hut} = KeyGen(PK, MSK_h, AC, u, t)$ .

We will now show how the simulator produces the secret keys in the last two cases.

- In the second case, the simulator first creates  $att'_{GID} = \langle GID, ==, u' \rangle$ . Then it needs to create a key for  $AC^* = AC \wedge att'_{GID} \wedge att_{LIMIT}$ .
- In the third case, the simulator needs to create a key for  $AC^* = AC'$ .

Those access policies are represented by an LSSS matrix  $M^{AC^*}$  with dimensions  $l \times n$  and a row-mapping function  $\rho$ . Note, that in both cases  $S$  is not authorized for  $AC^*$ . Hence, we can split  $M^{AC^*}$ 's rows into two sets:

$$A = \{r | r \in [l], \rho(r) \in S\} \quad B = \{r | r \in [l], \rho(r) \notin S\}$$

where  $A, B \neq \emptyset$ . Since  $S$  is not authorized for  $M^{AC^*}$ , from the properties of LSSS we can find a vector  $\beta \in Z_p^n$  with  $\beta_1 = 1$  fixed such that  $\forall r \in A, M_r^{AC^*} \beta = 0$ .

The simulator then chooses uniformly at random  $n - 1$  random elements in  $Z_p$ ,  $v_i$ , and sets the shares of  $MSK_h$  as:

$$\lambda_r = \langle M_r^{AC^*}, \Theta \rangle$$

Where:

$$\Theta = MSK_h \beta + (0, v_2, \dots, v_n)^\perp$$

Hence, row's  $r$  share is:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_r &= \langle M_r^{AC^*}, (MSK_h \beta + (0, v_2, \dots, v_n)^\perp) \rangle = xy \langle M_r^{AC^*}, \beta \rangle + x \sum_{i \in Aut_c} n_i \langle M_r^{AC^*}, \beta \rangle + \langle M_r^{AC^*}, (0, v_2, \dots, v_n)^\perp \rangle \\ &= xy \langle M_r^{AC^*}, \beta \rangle + x \sum_{i \in Aut_c} n_i \langle M_r^{AC^*}, \beta \rangle + \lambda'_r \end{aligned}$$

Now, let us see how the simulator computes the secret key for  $r \in A$ : From definition,  $r \in A \rightarrow \rho(r) \in S$ . From LSSS properties,  $\langle M_r^{AC^*}, \beta \rangle = 0$ . Thus in this case,

$$\lambda_r = \lambda'_r = \langle M_r^{AC^*}, (0, v_2, \dots, v_n)^\perp \rangle$$

and hence, its value is known to the simulator. The simulator can then compute the key components  $SK^1, SK^2, SK^3$  as in the *KeyGen* algorithm:

$$\begin{aligned} SK^1 &= g^{\lambda_r} w^{t_r} = g^{\lambda'_r} g^{x a_r} \\ SK^2 &= (\theta^{\rho(r)} h)^{-t_r} = ((g^{u^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2}))^{\rho(r)} (g^{h^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{xz/b_l e_l}) \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2})^{-att_l}))^{-a_r} \\ SK^3 &= g^{t_r} = g^{a_r} \end{aligned}$$

where  $t_r = a_r$  are randomly selected from  $Z_p$  by the simulator and  $\lambda_r = \lambda'_r$ .

Finally, for  $r \in B$ , the simulator will compute the secret key in the following way: From definition,  $r \in B \rightarrow \rho(r) \notin S$ . In this case, the simulator will define

$$t_r = - \sum_{i \in Aut_c} (n_i) \langle M_r^{AC^*}, \beta \rangle - y \langle M_r^{AC^*}, \beta \rangle + \sum_{l \in I_S} \frac{xz b_l \langle M_r^{AC^*}, \beta \rangle}{\rho(r) - att_l} + t'_r$$

where  $t'_r$  is randomly selected from  $Z_p$ . Hence the key components can be computed as:

$$\begin{aligned}
SK^1 &= g^{\lambda_r} w^{t_r} = g^{\lambda'_r} \prod_{l \in [n]} (g^{x^2 z b_l})^{<M_r^{AC^*}, \beta>/(\rho(r)-att_l)} \cdot g^{x t'_r} \\
SK^2 &= (\theta^{\rho(r)} h)^{-t_r} = g^{\sum_{i \in Aut_c} (n_i) <M_r^{AC^*}, \beta> / (\rho(r) u^* + h^*)} (g^y)^{<M_r^{AC^*}, \beta> / (\rho(r) u^* + h^*)} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{x z b_l})^{-(\rho(r) u^* + h^*) <M_r^{AC^*}, \beta> / (\rho(r) - att_l)} \\
&\cdot \prod_{(l, f) \in I_S} (g^{(x z)^2 b_f / b_l e_l})^{<M_r^{AC^*}, \beta> / (\rho(r) - att_f)} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y^2 / b_l^2})^{<M_r^{AC^*}, \beta> / (\rho(r) - att_l)} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{x z / b_l e_l})^{\sum_{i \in Aut_c} (n_i) <M_r^{AC^*}, \beta>} \\
&\cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y / b_l^2})^{\sum_{i \in Aut_c} (n_i) <M_r^{AC^*}, \beta> / (\rho(r) - att_l)} \cdot \prod_{\substack{(l, f) \in I_S \\ l \neq f}} (g^{x z y (b_f / b_l^2)})^{<M_r^{AC^*}, \beta> / (\rho(r) - att_l) / (\rho(r) - att_f)} \cdot (\theta^{\rho(r)} h)^{-t'_r} \\
SK^3 &= g^{t_r} = (g)^{-\sum_{i \in Aut_c} (n_i) <M_r^{AC^*}, \beta>} (g^y)^{<M_r^{AC^*}, \beta>} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{x z b_l})^{<M_r^{AC^*}, \beta> / (\rho(r) - att_l)} \cdot g^{t'_r}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, in both cases the simulator can reply to the adversary's query with the entire secret key. Note, that since  $AC, AC' \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{client}$ , and  $S_{GID}, S_{LIMIT} \in \mathcal{U}_{client}$ ,  $AC^* \subseteq \mathcal{U}_{client}$ , and so does the secret key given to the adversary. In addition, all the secret key's terms, both for  $A$  and for  $B$  can be calculated by the simulator using terms from the assumption, the challenge set  $S$  (chosen by the adversary), and the access structure  $AC$  (chosen by the adversary).

**Challenge:**  $\mathcal{A}$  submits two messages,  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  to the simulator. In addition, for every proxy in  $DEC_S^*$ ,  $j$ , it sends a bit  $a_j$  to the simulator. The simulator then flips a random coin  $b$  and encrypts  $m_b$  under  $S$ :  $CT = \text{Encrypt}(m_b, PK, S, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut})$ , by implicitly setting  $s = z, \{l_k = b_k | \forall k \in I_S\}, \{f_k = e_k | \forall k \in I_S\}, \{d_k = b_k e_k | \forall k \in I_S\}$  and  $\{s_j = z_j | \forall j \in DEC_S^*\}$ . For each proxy  $j \in DEC_S^*$ , the simulator creates a partial ciphertext  $C^j = (\{C3_{k,j} | att_k^L \in S_j\}, P, Tok_j)$  using the *Distribute* algorithm, and, if  $a_j = 1$ , performs  $C'^j = \text{Translate}(PK, j, C^j, \{PK_i\}_{i \in Aut})$ . Note, that for every proxy  $j$  such that  $a_j = 1$ , if an attribute  $att_k^L \in S_j$ , the simulator has two attributes in its hands: the original attribute,  $att_k$ , and the translated attribute,  $att_{k'}$ . Finally, the simulator extracts  $C0, C1, C2, C3 = \{C3_{k,j} | att_k \in S, j \in DEC_S^*\}, Tok$  from  $CT$ , and extracts  $C'3_j = \{C'3_{k,j} | att_k^L \in S_j\}$  from each translated partial ciphertext,  $C'^j$ . The simulator then sends the translated ciphertext  $C^*$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ . Note, that each element in  $C^*$  can be computed using terms from the assumption:

$$C^* = \{C0, C1, C2, C^*3, Tok\}$$

where:

$$C0 = m_b \cdot e(g, g)^{x y s} = m_b \cdot R \quad C1 = g^s = g^z \quad C2 = \{g^{d_k} | att_k \in S\} = \{g^{b_k e_k} | att_k \in S\}$$

$$C^*3 = \bigcup_{\substack{att_k \in S, \\ j \in DEC_S^*}} c^*3_{k,j} \quad c^*3_{k,j} = \begin{cases} C'3_{k,j} & \text{if } att_k^L \in S_j \wedge a_j = 1 \\ C3_{k,j} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

From the construction,

$$c^*3_{k,j} = \begin{cases} D_{k,j} & \text{if } att_k^L \in Sim \\ E_{k,j} & \text{if } (att_k^L \in S_m \wedge att_k^L \notin S_j) \vee (att_k^L \in S_j \wedge a_j = 0) \\ E'_{k,j} & \text{if } att_k^L \in S_j \wedge a_j = 1 \end{cases}$$

Now, the simulator can compute the following terms using terms from the assumption:

$$\begin{aligned}
D_{k,j} &= ((g^{u^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2}))^{att_k} (g^{h^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{xz/b_l e_l}) \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2})^{-att_l})^{b_k e_k} g^{-xzj} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* att_k + h^*)} \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{xz b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{y b_k e_k (att_k - att_l) / b_l^2} g^{-xzj} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* att_k + h^*)} \prod_{l \in I_S} \prod_{c \in [P]} g^{xz c b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{y b_k e_k (att_k - att_l) / b_l^2} \cdot g^{-xzj} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* att_k + h^*)} \prod_{l \in I_S} \prod_{\substack{c \in [P] \\ (l,c) \neq (k,j)}} g^{xz c b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y b_k e_k / b_l^2})^{att_k - att_l} \\
E_{k,j} &= ((g^{u^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2}))^{F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)} (g^{h^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{xz/b_l e_l}) \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2})^{-att_l})^{b_k e_k} g^{-xzj} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k) + h^*)} \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{xz b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{y b_k e_k (F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k) - att_l) / b_l^2} g^{-xzj} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k) + h^*)} \prod_{l \in I_S} \prod_{c \in [P]} g^{xz c b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{y b_k e_k (F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k) - att_l) / b_l^2} \cdot g^{-xzj} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k) + h^*)} \prod_{l \in I_S} \prod_{\substack{c \in [P] \\ (l,c) \neq (k,j)}} g^{xz c b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y b_k e_k / b_l^2})^{F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k) - att_l} \\
E'_{k,j} &= (\theta^{(Patt_k' - (P-1)F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k))} h)^{d_k} w^{-sp} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* (Patt_k' - (P-1)F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)) + h^*)} \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{xz b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{y b_k e_k ((Patt_k' - (P-1)F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)) - att_l) / b_l^2} g^{-xzj} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* (Patt_k' - (P-1)F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)) + h^*)} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} \prod_{c \in [P]} g^{xz c b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} g^{y b_k e_k ((Patt_k' - (P-1)F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)) - att_l) / b_l^2} g^{-xzj} = \\
&g^{b_k e_k (u^* (Patt_k' - (P-1)F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)) + h^*)} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} \prod_{\substack{c \in [P] \\ (l,c) \neq (k,j)}} g^{xz c b_k e_k / b_l e_l} \cdot \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y b_k e_k / b_l^2})^{Patt_k' - (P-1)F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k) - att_l} \\
Tok &= \bigcup_{\substack{att_k \in S, \\ att_k^L \in S_j}} Tok_{k,j} = \bigcup_{\substack{att_k \in S, \\ att_k^L \in S_j}} (Tok1_{k,j}, Tok2_{k,j}, Tok3_{k,j}, Tok4_{k,j}) \\
Tok1_{k,j} &= (g^{u^*} \prod_{l \in I_S} (g^{y/b_l^2}))^{b_k} = (g^y)^{u^*} \prod_{l \in I_S, l \neq k} (g^{y b_k / b_l^2}) \quad Tok2_{k,j} = e_k \\
Tok3_{k,j} &= F(K1_{org(k)}, att_k^L) \quad Tok4_{k,j} = F_p(K_{org(k)}, att_k)
\end{aligned}$$

**Phase 2:** Phase 1 is repeated.

**Guess:** The adversary outputs a guess  $b'$  of  $b$ . If  $b = b'$  the challenger outputs 0, i.e. it claims that the challenge term is  $R = e(g, g)^{xyz}$ . Otherwise, it outputs 1 to indicate that it believes  $R$  is a random group element.

If  $R = e(g, g)^{xyz}$  then  $\mathcal{A}$  played the proper security game, because  $C = m_b \cdot R = m_b \cdot e(g, g)^{xyz}$ . On the other hand, if  $R$  is a random term then all information about the message  $m_b$  is lost in the challenge ciphertext. Therefore the

1509 advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  is exactly 0. As a result if  $\mathcal{A}$  breaks the proper security game with a non negligible advantage, then  $\mathcal{B}$   
 1510 has a non negligible advantage in breaking the  $(q, n, n)$ -DBTDH assumption.  $\square$   
 1511

1512 **THEOREM 8.3.** Let  $C = (M)_S$  be a MA-OTABE ciphertext. No coalition of at most  $|DEC_S| - 1$  parties can learn  
 1513 anything about  $M$ .  
 1514

1515 The proof of Theorem 8.3 is straightforward and is omitted because of space limitations. It consists of showing that  
 1516 no information about the data-layer components can be inferred from the translation tokens or shares of attribute-  
 1517 layer components that are held by the colluding decryption parties. This conclusion follows from the fact that, in the  
 1518 construction given in Section 7, the local random strings  $f_k$  and  $l_k$  are chosen independently and uniformly at random,  
 1519 as are the binder-term exponents  $s_j$ .  
 1520  
 1521

1522 **LEMMA 8.4.** Let  $C = (M)_S$  be a MA-OTABE ciphertext. The proxies in an MA-OTABE scheme cannot learn anything  
 1523 about  $M$ , even if they *all* collude.  
 1524

1525 **PROOF.** The proof follows from Theorem 2 since every colluding set of at most  $|DEC_S| - 1$  parties cannot learn any  
 1526 information about  $M$  and, by definition, only  $|DEC_S| - 1$  proxies participate in each ciphertext's translation.  $\square$   
 1527

1528 **THEOREM 8.5.** Let  $F$  and  $F_p$  be two PRFs used in the construction of our MA-OTABE scheme. If  $F$  and  $F_p$  are secure,  
 1529 then the scheme achieves attribute secrecy.  
 1530

1531 **PROOF.** Consider a message  $M$ , encrypted under a set of attributes  $S$  resulting in a ciphertext  $C$ .  
 1532

1533 **Hidden access policy:** We consider both the servers and the data users:

1534 *CSP, proxies:* The set of attributes  $Y$  that is stored with the ciphertext on the CSP includes only the obfuscated values  
 1535 of immutable attributes from  $S$ . In addition, neither the CSP nor the proxies are given any trapdoors for attributes in  $S$ .  
 1536 Thus,  $Y$  is hidden from the servers. (For more details, see [9].)  
 1537

1538 Apart from  $Y$ , an attribute  $att_k \in S$  may appear in the ciphertext only within the attribute components  $\{C3_{k,j}\}$  to  
 1539 which the attribute corresponds. Immutable attributes can only appear within  $D_{k,j}$ , as the exponent of  $\theta$  inside the  
 1540 local-randomness part. Because each local-randomness part in which the attribute itself appears is blinded by a local,  
 1541 uniformly random chosen element, known only to the owner, the attribute remains hidden. Mutable attributes in  $S$   
 1542 can appear within  $E_{k,j}$  or  $E'_{k,j}$ , as the exponent of  $\theta$  inside the local-randomness part, or in  $Tok3_{k,j}, Tok4_{k,j}$ . In both  
 1543  $E_{k,j}$  and  $E'_{k,j}$ , each local-randomness part in which the attribute itself appears is blinded by a local, uniformly random  
 1544 chosen element, known only to the owner. Furthermore, In both  $E_{k,j}, Tok3_{k,j}$  and  $Tok4_{k,j}$ , either  $att_k$  or  $att_k^L$  only  
 1545 appear in their encrypted form, using a keyed PRF with a key that is unknown to the CSP, or to any proxy. Lastly,  
 1546 each PRF-encrypted term inside  $Tok3_{k,j}$  and  $Tok4_{k,j}$  is encrypted using the public key of the proxy who is allowed to  
 1547 translate  $att_k$  (“the translator”). Hence, mutable attributes inside the ciphertext remain hidden as well.  
 1548  
 1549

1550 *Data users:* We start by defining the term “terminal attributes.” Terminal attributes include either immutable attributes  
 1551 or attributes that are the result of an attribute translation performed by one of the proxies. Intuitively, those are the  
 1552 attributes that the data user will eventually receive with the ciphertext, and thus must be kept hidden from the user, in  
 1553 such a manner that enables her to know which attributes she should use for decryption.  
 1554

1555 Each immutable attribute in  $S$  is replaced by the owner at encryption time by an obfuscated value of that attribute,  
 1556  $e((g^{\beta_{aut(k)}})^c, H(att_k))$ , derived from the PEKS construction in [9] where  $c$  is a random number, creating the set  $Y$ .  
 1557

1558 When a proxy  $P_{org_j}$  performs a translation of an attribute, it computes an obfuscated value of the new attribute that  
 1559 it created, and only that obfuscated value is attached to the translated partial ciphertext that it sends to the user, as  $Y_j$ .  
 1560

The data user never receives the actual  $S$ . Instead, it receives  $TR(S) = Y \cup \{Y_j\}_{j \in ORGS}$  where  $Y$  represents immutable attributes in  $S$  and  $\{Y_j\}$  represent the set of mutable attributes in  $S$ . Hence, all the *terminal attributes* are obfuscated and therefore remain hidden from the user. (For more details, see [9].) Note, however, that unlike the servers, data users do hold trapdoors for attributes that appear in their access policies,  $H(att_k)^{\beta_{aut}(k)}$ , and those trapdoors do leak some information about the attributes in  $S$ . Such leakage to the data user is limited to those attributes in  $S$  that also appear in the user's access policy; that is, the user learns nothing about attributes in  $S$  that are not in her access policy. Such leakage includes, for instance, the ability of the user to know whether an attribute in  $S$ , that also appears in the user's access policy, appeared in previous ciphertexts that the user has retrieved from the CSP (we note that the source of such leakage is the transitivity of the equality operation, not the attributes' actual values. The user is not able to learn any of the attributes in  $S$ , even for those attributes that appear in her access policy).

**Oblivious translation:** A proxy  $P_{org_j}$  uses its partial ciphertext, its tokens, and auxiliary information in order to perform a translation of an attribute  $att_k$ . We claim that neither of the items above reveals the attribute  $att_k$ .

Within the partial ciphertext, an attribute  $att_k$  such that  $att_k^L \in S_j$  can only appear in the attribute components  $\{C3_{k,j}\}$  to which the attribute  $att_k$  corresponds, within  $E_{k,j}$ , as the exponent of  $\theta$  inside the local-randomness part. However, each local-randomness part within an element  $E_{k,j}$  in which the attribute appears is blinded by a local, uniformly random chosen element, known only to the owner.

Tokens include  $f_k, \theta^k$ , which cannot provide any information about  $att_k$ . Tokens also include the label and the value of  $att_k$ , each encrypted using a different keyed PRF ( $F$  and  $F_p$ ). The keys of both  $F$  and  $F_p$  are shared between the owner and  $org_j$ , and are unknown to the proxy. Auxiliary information pieces are also encrypted using the same keyed PRFs, with the same key used for encryption of the attribute to be translated by the proxy. Hence, if  $F$  and  $F_p$  are secure,  $att_k$  remains hidden from the proxy. As discussed in Subsection 6.2, the PRF can be replaced with other transformations that better suit the translation logic of each organization, *e.g.*, order-preserving transformations. Often such transformations also use PRFs to some extent. In this case, because both the original attribute and the auxiliary information will be encrypted using the same transformation, using a key that is unknown to the proxy, the original attribute will remain hidden from the proxy as well.

Lastly, we would like to note that though the translation is done obliviously and the proxy does not learn the original attribute, it does leak some information about the original attribute, as well as the auxiliary information, to the proxy. For instance, the proxy is able to know, because of the deterministic encryption, which attributes in  $S_j$  are used in different ciphertexts, as equality can be determined based on the PRF-encrypted value. However, at least some sort of leakage appears to be inherent, as this is exactly what enables the proxy to perform the functionality required from it in our scheme. Also note, that such leakage is limited to the translator. This is because each attribute component that is meant to undergo translation by a proxy has two encryption layers. In the outer layer, we use strong encryption, based on traits of our proposed scheme as discussed in Theorem 1 or on traits of  $\Pi$ ; no system entities except the translator can decrypt this layer. Only the translator is able to decrypt the outer layer and access the inner layer, which contains the actual attribute encrypted in a "weaker" encryption that enables it to perform the translation.

**Attribute privacy:** We consider the data owner and the data client:

*Data client:* Given a translated attribute  $v \in \mathcal{U}_{client}$ , such that  $MAP^{-1}(M, v)$  is a mutable attribute,  $MAP^{-1}(M, v)$  may appear either within the attribute components  $\{C3_{k,j}\}$  to which the attribute  $v$  corresponds, inside an element  $E_{k,j}$ , or within  $Tok3_{k,j}, Tok4_{k,j}$ . In both the ciphertext and the tokens,  $MAP^{-1}(M, v)$  only appears in its encrypted form, using a keyed PRF with a key that is unknown to any member of  $org_{client}$ . Furthermore, each local-randomness

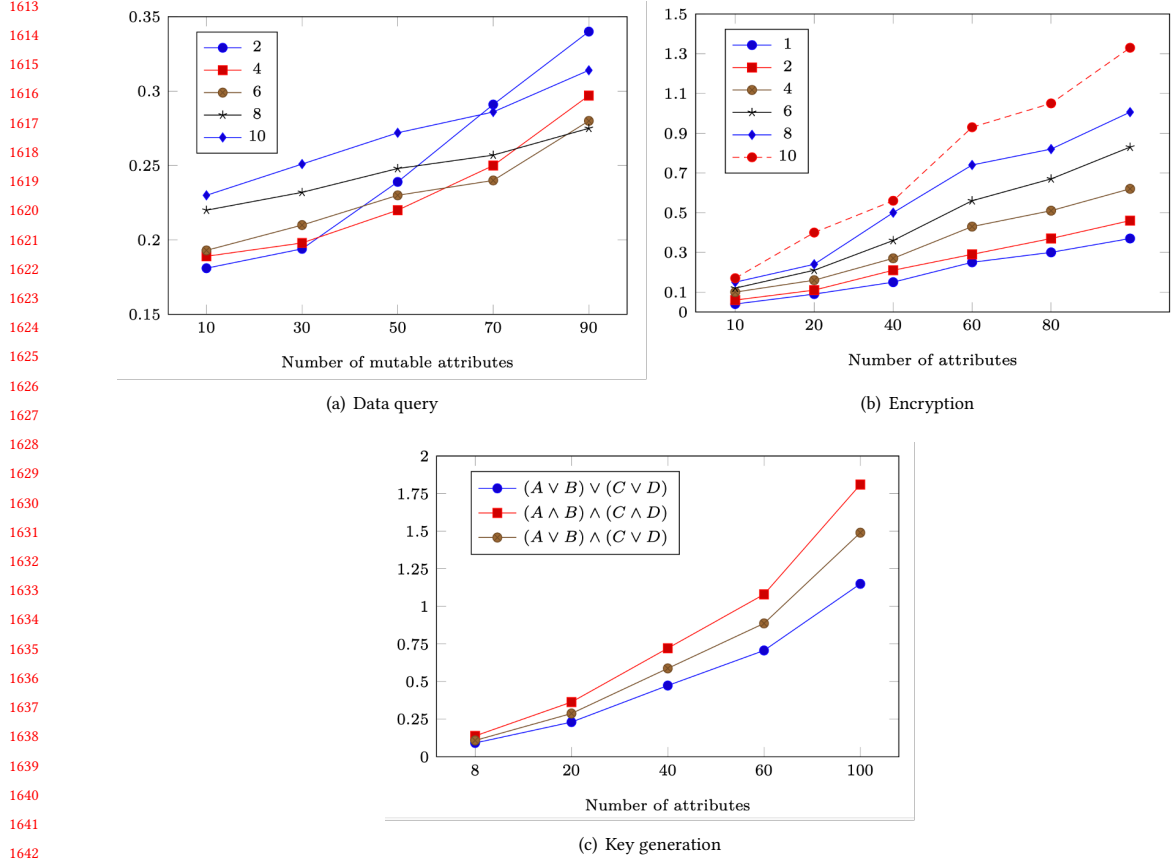


Fig. 1. Typical running times in seconds

part inside each element  $E_{k,j}$  in which  $MAP^{-1}(M, v)$  appears, is blinded by a local, uniformly random chosen element, known only to the owner. Lastly, PRF-encrypted terms inside  $Tok3_{k,j}, Tok4_{k,j}$  are encrypted using the translator's public key, and can only be decrypted by the translator.

Hence, for every attribute  $v \in \mathcal{U}_{client}$  such that  $MAP^{-1}(M, v)$  is a mutable attribute,  $org_{client}$  does not learn  $MAP^{-1}(M, v)$ .

*Data owner:* For every mutable attribute  $s \in S$ , the  $Encrypt()$  algorithm given in our construction does not require any knowledge about  $MAP(M, s)$ . Furthermore, for each  $s \in S$ , the resulting ciphertext,  $C$  (including both ciphertext's elements and translation tokens), does not contain  $MAP(M, s)$ . Lastly, for every mutable attribute  $s \in S$ , data owners participating in PRShare receive neither terms that include  $MAP(M, s)$ , nor terms that can provide any information on the value of  $MAP(M, s)$ .

Hence, for every attribute  $s \in \mathcal{U}_{owner}$  such that  $s$  is a mutable attribute,  $org_{owner}$  does not learn  $MAP(M, s)$ .  $\square$



## 9 IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

To assess the feasibility of our framework, we implemented the full version of our OTABE scheme using Charm, a framework developed for rapidly prototyping advanced cryptosystems [2]. Charm was used to develop multiple, prominent existing ABE schemes, including that of Rouselakis and Waters [38]. We instantiated our implementation using a 256-bit Barreto-Naehrig (BN) curve. Note that in our implementation, we translated our scheme to the asymmetric setting, as charm uses formally asymmetric groups. The assumptions and the security proofs can be translated to the asymmetric setting in a generic way.

We consider a setting with three authorities and policies of size ten, where the decryption is always successful, and use oblivious list membership as our translation operation. We present benchmarks for three operations. The first is the overall turnaround time of a data query, *i.e.*, the total time between a user's initiation of a query and her receiving the *plaintext* records that satisfy it. We also provide benchmarks for the encryption algorithm and the key-generation algorithm, despite the fact that encryptions are done offline, and key requests are significantly less frequent than data queries. The overall runtime, as shown in Figure 1, includes computation, communication, and I/O time. Note that the hidden-access-policy feature is turned off in our experiments.

Recall that each data query entails the following steps. A query is sent to the CSP. The CSP searches for all of the records that satisfy the query. For each ciphertext returned by the search, the CSP sends its partial ciphertexts to the relevant proxies. Each proxy obviously translates the partial ciphertext it received. The user aggregates all partial ciphertexts and decrypts the result to obtain the plaintext.

To enable adequate comparison of our OTABE scheme and other ABE schemes, results are given for a single-record data query. Indeed, our running times are similar to other multi-authority ABE schemes, such as [39]. When generalizing our results to the multi-record case, it is important to note that our scheme is highly parallelizable. No TA or proxy needs to coordinate its computation with any other TA or proxy; thus they can all proceed in parallel. In order to decrypt, a data user must perform a separate computation for each TA, and all of these computations can be done in parallel. Finally, partial ciphertexts that correspond to different attributes can be translated in parallel.

Figure 1(a) compares the average time of a data query that contains 100 attributes, for different numbers of mutable attributes and various sizes of  $ORG_S$ . The runtimes are relatively small: it takes only 314ms to perform a 90-translation data query when  $|ORG_S| = 10$ . Although there is an increase in runtime as the number of mutable attributes increases, this increase is significantly more noticeable when  $ORG_S$  contains fewer proxies. Figure 1(a) also demonstrates an inherent trade-off between the translation and decryption algorithms: A larger number of proxies results in better load balancing of translation operations, but it also results in more expensive decryption.

Figure 1(b) shows the average time taken by the encryption algorithm for different numbers of attributes in the ciphertext and various sizes of  $DEC_S$ . As expected, encryption time increases as the number of attributes in the ciphertext increases, and as the number of organizations that participate in the decryption increases. Yet, as can be seen, all times are very reasonable compared to other ABE schemes: it only takes 0.46s to encrypt a ciphertext that contains 100 attributes if the number of decrypting entities is 2, and 0.81s if the number of decrypting entities is 6. Bear in mind, that encryption is done once per record, and offline.

Finally, Figure 1(c) shows the average time taken by the key generation algorithm for various policies. The times are all under 1.81s. This means that, within less than two seconds from a data user's request for a task-related key, she will receive, from each authority, a key that supports a policy of size 100. Bear in mind that key requests are significantly less frequent than data queries and only occur once per time-limited task..

## 10 CONCLUSIONS AND OPEN PROBLEM

We have proposed PRShare, an interorganizational data-sharing framework that protects the privacy of data owners, data clients, and data subjects. In designing PRShare, we have introduced the novel concept of *Attribute-Based Encryption With Oblivious Attribute Translation*, which may be of independent interest. In future work, we will consider relaxing one or more assumptions that PRShare relies on; for example, we will explore the use of malicious proxies.

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