

Identity-Based Key-Encapsulation Mechanism from Multilinear Maps

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Abstract. We construct an Identity-Based Key Encapsulation Mechanism (IB-KEM) system in a generic “leveled” multilinear map setting and prove its security in the selective-ID model. Then, we make our IB-KEM translated to the GGH framework, which defined an “approximate” version of a multilinear group family from ideal lattices.

1 Introduction

An Identity Based Encryption (IBE) system [1] is a public key system where the public key can be an arbitrary string such as an email address. A central authority, called a Private Key Generator (PKG), uses a master key to issue private keys to identities that request them. Instead of providing the full functionality of an IBE scheme, in many applications it is sufficient to let sender and receiver agree on a common random session key. This can be accomplished with an Identity Based Key Encapsulation Mechanism (IB-KEM) as formalized in [2]. Any IB-KEM can be updated to a full IBE scheme by adding a symmetric encryption scheme with appropriate security properties.

There are currently three classes of IBE (IB-KEM) systems: (1) based on groups with a bilinear map [3–7] (to name a few), (2) based on quadratic residuosity modulo a composite [8–10], and (3) based on hard problems on lattices [11, 12].

In this paper we present an IB-KEM construction based on groups with a *multilinear map* [13]. We present our IB-KEM in a generic “leveled” multilinear map setting and prove its security in the selective-ID model. Then, we make our IB-KEM translated to the GGH framework [14], which defined an “approximate” version of a multilinear group family from ideal lattices.

Organization We give some necessary background in Section 2, and review the background on GGH framework in Section 3. In Section 4, We present our IB-KEM and prove its security. Then, We make our IB-KEM translated to the GGH framework in Section 5.

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2 Preliminaries

2.1 Identity-Based Key Encapsulation Mechanism

An IB-KEM consists of four PPT algorithms as follows:

- **Setup**(1^λ): take as input a security parameter λ , output the public parameters PP and the master secret key MSK . PP may be used as an implicit input for algorithms **KeyGen**, **Encap**, **Decap**. Let \mathcal{I} be the identity space, \mathcal{C} be the ciphertext space, and \mathcal{K} be the DEM key space.
- **KeyGen**(MSK, ID): take as input PP, MSK and an identity $ID \in \mathcal{I}$, output a private key SK_{ID} of ID .
- **Encap**(PP, ID): take as input PP and an identity $ID \in \mathcal{I}$, output a ciphertext C and a DEM key $K \in \mathcal{K}$.
- **Decap**(SK_{ID}, C): take as input a private key SK_{ID} for identity ID and a ciphertext $C \in \mathcal{C}$, output a DEM key $K \in \mathcal{K}$ or a special reject symbol \perp (which is not in \mathcal{K}) indicating that C is not consistent under ID .

Correctness For correctness, we require that for any identities $ID \in \mathcal{I}$, and any $(C, K) \leftarrow \text{Encap}(PP, ID)$, $\text{Decap}(\text{KeyGen}(MSK, ID), C) = K$ holds overwhelmingly, where the probability is taken over the choice of $(PP, MSK) \leftarrow \text{Setup}(1^\lambda)$, and the random coins of all the algorithms in the expression above.

2.2 Security Game

We define IB-KEM security under a selective-identity attack using the following game between a challenger and an adversary \mathcal{A} :

- **Init**: The adversary outputs an identity ID^* where it wishes to be challenged.
- **Setup**: The challenger runs the **Setup** algorithm giving it the security parameter as input. It gives \mathcal{A} the resulting public parameters PP .
- **Phase 1**: In this phase the adversary \mathcal{A} can adaptively ask for secret keys for any identities except ID^* . For each queried identity ID , the challenger calls **KeyGen**(MSK, ID) $\rightarrow SK_{ID}$ and sends SK_{ID} to the adversary. (The restriction that has to be satisfied for each query is that none of the queried identity is identical to ID^* .)
- **Challenge**: The challenger samples $K_0^* \leftarrow \mathcal{K}$, and computes $(C^*, K_1^*) \leftarrow \text{Encap}(PP, ID^*)$. Then, it flips a random coin $b \in \{0, 1\}$ and sends (C^*, K_b^*) to \mathcal{A} .
- **Phase 2**: This the same as query phase 1.
- **Guess**: The adversary outputs his guess $b' \in \{0, 1\}$ for b .

Definition 1. A IB-KEM scheme is selectively secure under chosen plaintext attack (IND-sID-CPA) if all PPT adversaries have at most a negligible advantage in λ in the above security game, where the advantage of an adversary is defined as $Adv = \Pr[b' = b] - 1/2$.

2.3 Leveled Multilinear Maps

We give a description of generic, leveled multilinear maps. More details of the GGH graded algebras analogue of multilinear maps are included in Section 3, and for further details, please refer to [14].

For generic, leveled multilinear maps. We assume the existence of a group generator \mathcal{G} , which takes as input a security parameter 1^λ and a positive integer k to indicate the number of allowed pairing operations. $\mathcal{G}(1^\lambda, k)$ outputs a sequence of groups $\mathbf{G} = (\mathbb{G}_1, \dots, \mathbb{G}_k)$ each of large prime order $p > 2^\lambda$. In addition, we let g_i be a canonical generator of \mathbb{G}_i (and is known from the group's description). We let $g = g_1$.

We assume the existence of a set of bilinear maps $\{e_{i,j} : G_i \times G_j \rightarrow G_{i+j} \mid i, j \geq 1; i + j \leq k\}$. The map $e_{i,j}$ satisfies the following relation:

$$e_{i,j}(g_i^a, g_j^b) = g_{i+j}^{ab} : \forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$$

We observe that one consequence of this is that $e_{i,j}(g_i, g_j) = g_{i+j}$ for each valid i, j .

When the context is obvious, we will sometimes abuse notation and drop the subscripts i, j . For example, we may simply write $e(g_i^a, g_j^b) = g_{i+j}^{ab}$.

2.4 Complexity Assumption

Assumption 1. (Multilinear Decisional Diffie-Hellman: k-MDDH) *The k -Multilinear Decisional Diffie-Hellman (k -MDDH) problem states the following: A challenger runs $\mathcal{G}(1^\lambda, k)$ to generate groups and generators of order p . Then it picks random $c_1, \dots, c_{k+1} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. The assumption then states that given $g = g_1, g^{c_1}, \dots, g^{c_{k+1}}$ it is hard for any polynomial time algorithm to distinguish $g_k^{\prod_{j \in [1, k+1]} c_j}$ from a uniform \mathbb{G}_k -element with better than negligible advantage (in security parameter λ).*

3 Background on GGH Framework

In this section, we provide some background on the GGH framework. We use the GGH framework in a manner very similar to the way it was used in the recent work of Garg, Gentry, Halevi, Sahai, and Waters on constructing Attribute-Based Encryption for Circuits [15]. For consistency, the following text is taken verbatim from [15]:

3.1 Graded Encoding Systems: Definition

Garg, Gentry and Halevi (GGH) [14] defined an ‘‘approximate’’ version of a multilinear group family, which they call a *graded encoding system*. As a starting point, they view g_i^α in a multilinear group family as simply an *encoding* of α at ‘‘level- i ’’. This encoding permits basic functionalities, such as equality testing (it is easy to check that two level- i encodings encode the same exponent), additive homomorphism (via the group operation in \mathbb{G}_i), and bounded multiplicative homomorphism (via the multilinear map e). They retain the notion of a somewhat homomorphic encoding with equality testing,

but they use probabilistic encodings, and replace the multilinear group family with “less structured” sets of encodings related to lattices.

Abstractly, their n -graded encoding system for a ring R includes a system of sets $\mathcal{S} = \{S_i^{(\alpha)} \subset \{0, 1\}^* : i \in [0, n], \alpha \in R\}$ such that, for every fixed $i \in [0, n]$, the sets $\{S_i^{(\alpha)} : \alpha \in R\}$ are disjoint (and thus form a partition of $S_i = \bigcup_{\alpha} S_i^{(\alpha)}$). The set $S_i^{(\alpha)}$ consists of the “level- i encodings of α ”. Moreover, the system comes equipped with efficient procedures, as follows:

Instance Generation. The randomized $\text{InstGen}(1^\lambda, 1^n)$ takes as input the security parameter λ and integer n . The procedure outputs $(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt})$, where params is a description of an n -graded encoding system as above, and \mathbf{p}_{zt} is a level- n “zero-test parameter”.

Ring Sampler. The randomized $\text{samp}(\text{params})$ outputs a “level-zero encoding” $a \in S_0$, such that the induced distribution on α such that $a \in S_0^{(\alpha)}$ is statistically uniform.

Encoding. The (possibly randomized) $\text{enc}(\text{params}, i, a)$ takes $i \in [n]$ and a level-zero encoding $a \in S_0^{(\alpha)}$ for some $\alpha \in R$, and outputs a level- i encoding $u \in S_i^{(\alpha)}$ for the same α .

Re-Randomization. The randomized $\text{reRand}(\text{params}, i, u)$ re-randomizes encodings to the same level, as long as the initial encoding is under a given noise bound. Specifically, for a level $i \in [n]$ and encoding $u \in S_i^{(\alpha)}$, it outputs another encoding $u' \in S_i^{(\alpha)}$. Moreover for any two encodings $u_1, u_2 \in S_i^{(\alpha)}$ whose noise bound is at most some b , the output distributions of $\text{reRand}(\text{params}, i, u_1)$ and $\text{reRand}(\text{params}, i, u_2)$ are statistically the same.

Addition and negation. Given params and two encodings at the same level, $u_1 \in S_i^{(\alpha_1)}$ and $u_2 \in S_i^{(\alpha_2)}$, we have $\text{add}(\text{params}, u_1, u_2) \in S_i^{(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)}$, and $\text{neg}(\text{params}, u_1) \in S_i^{(-\alpha_1)}$, subject to bounds on the noise.

Multiplication. For $u_1 \in S_{i_1}^{(\alpha_1)}$, $u_2 \in S_{i_2}^{(\alpha_2)}$, we have $\text{mult}(\text{params}, u_1, u_2) \in S_{i_1 + i_2}^{(\alpha_1 \cdot \alpha_2)}$.

Zero-test. The procedure $\text{isZero}(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt}, u)$ outputs 1 if $u \in S_n^{(0)}$ and 0 otherwise. Note that in conjunction with the procedure for subtracting encodings, this gives us an equality test.

Extraction. This procedure extracts a “canonical” and “random” representation of ring elements from their level- n encoding. Namely $\text{ext}(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt}, u)$ outputs (say) $K \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, such that:

- (a) With overwhelming probability over the choice of $\alpha \in R$, for any two $u_1, u_2 \in S_n^{(\alpha)}$, $\text{ext}(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt}, u_1) = \text{ext}(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt}, u_2)$,
- (b) The distribution $\{\text{ext}(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt}, u) : \alpha \in R, u \in S_n^{(\alpha)}\}$ is statistically uniform over $\{0, 1\}^\lambda$.

3.2 Graded Encoding Systems: Realization

Concretely, GGH’s n -graded encoding system works as follows. (This is a whirlwind overview; see [14] for details.) The system uses three rings. First, it uses the ring of integers \mathcal{O} of the m -th cyclotomic field. This ring is typically represented as the ring of polynomials $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[x]/(\Phi_m(x))$, where $\Phi_m(x)$ is m -th cyclotomic polynomial, which has degree $N = \phi(m)$. Second, for some suitable integer modulus q , it uses the quotient ring $\mathcal{O}/(q) = \mathbb{Z}_q[x]/(\Phi_m(x))$. similar to the NTRU encryption scheme [27]. The encodings live in $\mathcal{O}/(q)$. Finally, it uses the quotient ring $R = \mathcal{O}/\mathcal{I}$, where $\mathcal{I} = \langle g \rangle$ is a principal ideal of \mathcal{O} that is generated by g and where $|\mathcal{O}/\mathcal{I}|$ is a large prime. This is the ring “ R ” referred to above; elements of R are what is encoded.

What does a GGH encoding look like? For a fixed random $z \in \mathcal{O}/(q)$, an element of $S_i^{(\alpha)}$ - that is, a level- i encoding of $\alpha \in R$ - has the form $e/z^i \in \mathcal{O}/(q)$, where $e \in \mathcal{O}$ is a “small” representative of the coset $\alpha + \mathcal{I}$ (it has coefficients that are very small compared to q). To add encodings $e_1/z^i \in S_i^{(\alpha_1)}$ and $e_2/z^i \in S_i^{(\alpha_2)}$, just add them in $\mathcal{O}/(q)$ to obtain $(e_1 + e_2)/z^i$, which is in $S_i^{(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)}$ if $e_1 + e_2$ is “small”. To mult encodings $e_1/z^{i_1} \in S_{i_1}^{(\alpha_1)}$ and $e_2/z^{i_2} \in S_{i_2}^{(\alpha_2)}$, just multiply them in $\mathcal{O}/(q)$ to obtain $(e_1 \cdot e_2)/z^{i_1 + i_2}$, which is in $S_{i_1 + i_2}^{(\alpha_1 \cdot \alpha_2)}$ if $e_1 \cdot e_2$ is “small”. This smallness condition limits the GGH encoding system to degree polynomial in the security parameter. Intuitively, dividing encodings does not “work”, since the resulting denominator has a nontrivial term that is not z .

The GGH params allow everyone to generate encodings of random (known) values. The params include a level-1 encoding of 1 (from which one can generate encodings of 1 at other levels), and (for each $i \in [n]$) a sufficient number of level- i encodings of 0 to enable re-randomization. To encode (say at level-1), run $\text{samp}(\text{params})$ to sample a small element a from \mathcal{O} , e.g. according to a discrete Gaussian distribution. For a Gaussian with appropriate deviation, this will induce a statistically uniform distribution over the cosets of \mathcal{I} . Then, multiply a with the level-1 encoding of 1 to get a level-1 encoding u of $a \in R$. Finally, run $\text{reRand}(\text{params}, 1, u)$, which involves adding a random Gaussian linear combination of the level-1 encodings of 0, whose noisiness (i.e., numerator size) “drowns out” the initial encoding. The parameters for the GGH scheme can be instantiated such that the re-randomization procedure can be used for any pre-specified polynomial number of times.

To permit testing of whether a level- n encoding $u = e/z^n \in S_n$ encodes 0, GGH publishes a level- n zero-test parameter $\mathbf{p}_{zt} = hz^n/g$, where h is “somewhat small” and g is the generator of \mathcal{I} . The procedure $\text{Zero}(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt}, u)$ simply computes $\mathbf{p}_{zt} \cdot u$ and tests whether its coefficients are small modulo q . If u encodes 0, then $e \in \mathcal{I}$ and equals $g \cdot c$ for some (small) c , and thus $\mathbf{p}_{zt} \cdot u = h \cdot c$ has no denominator and is small modulo q . If u encodes something nonzero, $\mathbf{p}_{zt} \cdot u$ has g in the denominator and is not small modulo q . The $\text{ext}(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt}, u)$ procedure works by applying a strong extractor to the most significant bits of $\mathbf{p}_{zt} \cdot u$. For any two $u_1, u_2 \in S_n^{(\alpha)}$, we have (subject to noise issues) $u_1 - u_2 \in S_n^{(0)}$, which implies $\mathbf{p}_{zt}(u_1 - u_2)$ is small, and hence $\mathbf{p}_{zt} \cdot u_1$ and $\mathbf{p}_{zt} \cdot u_2$ have the same most significant bits (for an overwhelming fraction of α ’s).

Garg et al. provide an extensive cryptanalysis of the encoding system, which we will not review here. We remark that the underlying assumptions are stronger, but related to,

the hardness assumption underlying the NTRU encryption scheme: that it is hard to distinguish a uniformly random element from $\mathcal{O}/(q)$ from a ratio of “small” elements i.e., an element $u/v \in \mathcal{O}/(q)$ where $u, v \in \mathcal{O}/(q)$ both have coefficients that are on the order of (say) q^ϵ for small constant ϵ .

4 Our Identity-Based Key Encapsulation Mechanism

4.1 Generic Multilinear Construction

Setup($1^\lambda, n$): The trusted setup algorithm is run by PKG, the master authority of the ID-based system. It takes as input the security parameter as well the bit-length n of identities. It first runs $\mathcal{G}(1^\lambda, n)$ and outputs a sequence of groups $\vec{\mathbb{G}} = (\mathbb{G}_1, \dots, \mathbb{G}_n)$ of prime order p , with canonical generators g_1, \dots, g_n , where we let $g = g_1$.

Next, it chooses random exponents $(b_{1,0}, b_{1,1}), \dots, (b_{n,0}, b_{n,1}) \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2$ and sets $B_{i,\beta} = g^{b_{i,\beta}}$ for $i \in [1, n]$ and $\beta \in \{0, 1\}$.

These will be used to define the function $H(ID) : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_n$. Let id_1, \dots, id_n as the bits of ID . It is computed iteratively as

$$H_1(ID) = B_{1,id_1}, H_i(ID) = e(H_{i-1}(ID), B_{i,id_i}) \text{ for } i \in [2, n]$$

It defines $H(ID) = H_n(ID)$, and sets a randomness extractor, $s \leftarrow \text{ext}(S)$, where $s \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, $S \in \mathbb{G}_n$.

The public parameters, PP , consist of the group sequence description plus:

$$(B_{1,0}, B_{1,1}), \dots, (B_{n,0}, B_{n,1}), \text{ext}$$

The master secret key MSK includes PP together with the values $(b_{1,0}, b_{1,1}), \dots, (b_{n,0}, b_{n,1})$.

KeyGen($MSK, ID \in \{0, 1\}^n$): The private key for identity $ID = (id_1, \dots, id_n)$ is $SK_{ID} = g_{n-1}^{\prod_{i \in [1, n]} b_{i, id_i}} \in \mathbb{G}_{n-1}$.

Encap($PP, ID = (id_1, \dots, id_n)$): The encapsulation algorithm chooses $t \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ randomly and outputs

$$C = g^t, K = \text{ext}(H(ID)^t).$$

Decap(SK_{ID}, C): The decapsulation algorithm computes that

$$K = \text{ext}(e(SK_{ID}, C)).$$

4.2 Correctness

$$\begin{aligned}
H(ID) &= H_n(ID) \\
&= e(H_{n-1}(ID), B_{n, id_n}) \\
&= e(e(H_{n-2}(ID), B_{n-1, id_{n-1}}), B_{n, id_n}) \\
&\dots \\
&= e(B_{1, id_1}, \dots, B_{n, id_n}) \\
&= e(g_1^{b_{1, id_1}}, \dots, g_1^{b_{n, id_n}}) \\
&= g_n^{\prod_{i \in [1, n]} b_{i, id_i}}
\end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
e(SK_{ID}, C) &= e(g_{n-1}^{\prod_{i \in [1, n]} b_{i, id_i}}, g^t) \\
&= g_n^{\prod_{i \in [1, n]} b_{i, id_i} \cdot t}
\end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Therefore, $K = \text{ext}(e(SK_{ID}, C)) = \text{ext}(H(ID)^t)$.

4.3 Security

We will prove the following theorem regarding the selective security of our IB-KEM:

Theorem 1. *If the n -MDDH assumption holds then our scheme is selectively secure under chosen plaintext attack (IND-sID-CPA).*

Proof. Suppose \mathcal{A} has a non negligible advantage in attacking the IB-KEM. We build an algorithm \mathcal{B} that solves the n -MDDH problem. Algorithm \mathcal{B} is given as input a random $n+3$ -tuple $(g = g_1, g^{c_1}, \dots, g^{c_{n+1}}, T)$ that is either sampled from \mathcal{P}_{BDH} (where $T = g_n^{\prod_{j \in [1, n+1]} c_j}$) or from \mathcal{R}_{BDH} (where T is uniform and independent in \mathbb{G}_n). Algorithm \mathcal{B} 's goal is to output 1 if $T = g_n^{\prod_{j \in [1, n+1]} c_j}$ and 0 otherwise.

- **Init:** \mathcal{A} outputs an identity $ID^* = (id_1^*, \dots, id_n^*)$, where it wishes to be challenged, the id_i^* is the i -th bit of ID^* .
- **Setup:** \mathcal{B} first runs $\mathcal{G}(1^\lambda, n)$ and outputs a sequence of groups $\vec{\mathbb{G}} = (\mathbb{G}_1, \dots, \mathbb{G}_n)$ of prime order p , with canonical generators g_1, \dots, g_n , and lets $g = g_1$. Then, it chooses random exponents $b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and sets $(B_{i, id_i^*} = g^{c_i}, B_{i, (1-id_i^*)} = g^{b_i})$ for $i \in [1, n]$. Furthermore, it sets a randomness extractor $\text{ext} : \mathbb{G}_n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^l$, and sends $(B_{1,0}, B_{1,1}), \dots, (B_{n,0}, B_{n,1}), \text{ext}$ as well as the group sequence description to \mathcal{A} .
- **Phase 1 & 2:** \mathcal{B} has to produce secret keys for any identities $ID_i \neq ID^*$ requested by \mathcal{A} . In both phases the treatment is the same. We describe here the way \mathcal{B} works in order to create a key for $ID_i = (id_{i,1}, \dots, id_{i,n})$. Since $ID_i \neq ID^*$, there exists at least one bit $id_{i,j} \neq id_j^*$, where $j \in [1, n]$. \mathcal{B} can calculate the secret key:

$$SK_{ID_i} = e(B_{1, id_i}, B_{2, id_i}, \dots, B_{j-1, id_i}, B_{j+1, id_i}, \dots, B_{n, id_i})^{b_j}$$

- **Challenge:** \mathcal{B} constructs $C^* = g^{c^{n+1}}$, $K_0^* \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, $K_1^* = \text{ext}(T)$, and flips a random coin $b \in \{0, 1\}$. Then, \mathcal{B} sends (C^*, K_b^*) to \mathcal{A} .
- **Guess:** \mathcal{A} outputs his guess $b' \in \{0, 1\}$ for b .

If $b = 1$ then \mathcal{A} played the proper security game. On the other hand, if $b = 0$, all information about the message K_b^* is lost. Therefore the 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} has a non negligible advantage in breaking the n-MDDH assumption.

5 Construction in the GGH Framework

We show how to modify our IB-KEM construction to use the GGH [14] graded algebras analogue of multilinear maps. Please note that we use the same notation developed in [14]. For further details on the GGH framework, please refer to [14]. See also the summary of [15] as included in Section 3.

Setup($1^\lambda, n$): The trusted setup algorithm is run by PKG, the master authority of the ID-based system. It takes as input the security parameter as well the bit-length n of identities. It then runs $(\text{params}, \mathbf{p}_{zt}) \leftarrow \text{InstGen}(1^\lambda, 1^n)$. Recall that params will be implicitly given as input to all GGH-related algorithms below.

Next, it chooses random encodings $b_{i,\beta} = \text{samp}()$ for $i \in [1, n]$ and $\beta \in \{0, 1\}$. Then it assigns $B_{i,\beta} = \text{enc}(1, b_{i,\beta})$ for $i \in [1, n]$ and $\beta \in \{0, 1\}$.

These will be used to compute a function H mapping n bit strings to level n encodings. Let id_1, \dots, id_n as the bits of ID . It is computed iteratively as

$$H_1(ID) = B_{1,id_1}, H_i(ID) = \text{mult}(H_{i-1}(ID), B_{i,id_i}) \text{ for } i \in [2, n]$$

It defines $H(ID) = \text{reRand}(n, H_n(ID))$.

The public parameters, PP , consist of the params , $(B_{1,0}, B_{1,1}), \dots, (B_{n,0}, B_{n,1})$ and extractor ext .

Note that params includes a level 1 encoding of 1, which we denote as g .

The master secret key MSK includes PP together with the values $(b_{1,0}, b_{1,1}), \dots, (b_{n,0}, b_{n,1})$.

KeyGen($MSK, ID \in \{0, 1\}^n$): The private key for identity $ID = (id_1, \dots, id_n)$ is $SK_{ID} = \text{enc}(n-1, \prod_{i \in [1, n]} b_{i, id_i})$.

Encap($PP, ID = (id_1, \dots, id_n)$): The encapsulation algorithm chooses random encodings $t = \text{samp}()$ and outputs

$$C = \text{enc}(1, t), K = \text{ext}(\mathbf{p}_{zt}, \text{mult}(H(ID), t)).$$

Decap(SK_{ID}, C): The decapsulation algorithm computes that

$$K = \text{ext}(\mathbf{p}_{zt}, \text{mult}(SK_{ID}, C))$$

Correctness. Correctness follows from the same argument as for the IB-KEM in the generic multilinear setting.

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