

# Signature Schemes Secure against Hard-to-Invert Leakage<sup>\*</sup>

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**Abstract.** In the auxiliary input model an adversary is allowed to see a *computationally hard-to-invert function* of the secret key. The auxiliary input model weakens the bounded leakage assumption commonly made in leakage resilient cryptography as the hard-to-invert function may information-theoretically reveal the entire secret key. In this work, we propose the *first* constructions of digital signature schemes that are secure in the auxiliary input model. Our main contribution is a digital signature scheme that is secure against *chosen message attacks* when given an *exponentially hard-to-invert function* of the secret key. As a second contribution, we construct a signature scheme that achieves security for *random messages* assuming that the adversary is given a *polynomial-time* hard to invert function. Here, polynomial-hardness is required even when given the entire public-key – so called *weak* auxiliary input security. We show that such signature schemes readily give us auxiliary input secure identification schemes.

## 1 Introduction

Modern cryptography analyzes the security of cryptographic algorithms in the *black-box* model. An adversary may view the algorithm’s inputs and outputs, but the secret key as well as all the internal computation remains perfectly hidden. Unfortunately, the assumption of perfectly hidden keys does not reflect practice where keys frequently get compromised for various reasons. An important example is side-channel attacks that exploit *information leakage* from the implementation of an algorithm. Side-channel attacks do not only allow the adversary to gain partial knowledge of the secret key thereby making security proofs less meaningful, but in many cases may result in complete security breaches.

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In the last years, significant progress has been made within the theory community to incorporate information leakage into the black-box model (cf. [1, 2, 8, 10, 11, 13, 20, 21] and many more). To this end, these works develop new models to formally describe the information leakage, and design new schemes that can be proven secure therein. The leakage is typically characterized by a *leakage function*  $h$  that takes as input the secret key  $\text{sk}$  and reveals  $h(\text{sk})$ —the so-called *leakage*—to the adversary. Of course, we cannot allow  $h$  to be any function as otherwise it may just reveal the complete secret key. Hence certain restrictions on the class  $\mathcal{H}$  of admissible leakage functions are necessary.

With very few exceptions (outlined in the next section) most works assume some form of quantitative restriction on the amount of information leaked to an adversary. More formally, in the *bounded* leakage model, it is assumed that  $\mathcal{H}$  is the set of all polynomial-time computable functions  $h : \{0, 1\}^{|\text{sk}|} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\lambda$  with  $\lambda \ll |\text{sk}|$ . This restriction can be weakened in many cases. Namely, instead of requiring a concrete bound  $\lambda$  on the amount of leakage, it often suffices that given the leakage  $h(\text{sk})$  the secret key still has a “sufficient” amount of min-entropy left [9, 11, 21, 22]. This so-called *noisy leakage* models real-world leakage functions more accurately as now the leakage can be arbitrarily large. Indeed, real-world measurements of physical phenomena are usually described by several megabytes or even gigabytes of information rather than by a few bits.

While security against bounded or noisy leakage often provides a first good indication for the security of a cryptographic implementation, in practice leakage typically information theoretically determines the entire secret key [25]. The only difficulty of a side-channel adversary lies in extracting the relevant key information efficiently. Formally, this can be modeled by assuming that  $\mathcal{H}$  is the set of all polynomial-time computable functions such that given  $h(\text{sk})$  it is still computationally “hard” to compute  $\text{sk}$ . Such *hard-to-invert* leakage are a very natural generalization of both the bounded leakage model and the noisy leakage model, and is the focus of this work. More concretely, we will analyze the security of digital signature schemes in the presence of *hard-to-invert* leakage. We show somewhat surprisingly that simple variants of constructions for the bounded leakage setting [4, 8, 9, 17, 19] also achieve security with respect to the more *general* class of hard-to-invert leakage.

## 1.1 The Auxiliary Input Model

The *auxiliary input model* of Dodis, Kalai and Lovett [10] introduced the notion of security of cryptographic schemes in the presence of computationally hard-to-invert leakage. They propose constructions for secret key encryption with IND-CPA and IND-CCA security against an adversary who obtains an arbitrary polynomial-time computable hard-to-invert leakage  $h(\text{sk})$ . Security is shown to hold under a non-standard LPN-related assumption with respect to any *exponentially* hard-to-invert function. We say that  $h$  is an exponentially hard-to-invert function of the secret key  $\text{sk}$ , if there exists a constant  $c > 0$  such that, for sufficiently large  $k = |\text{sk}|$ , any PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  has probability of at

most  $2^{-ck}$  in inverting  $h(\text{sk})$ . Notice that the result gets stronger, and the class of admissible leakage function gets larger, if  $c$  is smaller.

In a follow-up paper, and most relevant for our work, Dodis et al. [7] study the setting of public key encryption. They show that the BHHO encryption scheme [3] based on DDH and variants of the GPV encryption scheme [14] based on LWE are secure with respect to auxiliary input leakage. All their schemes remain secure under *sub-exponentially* hard-to-invert leakage (for a weaker notion that we discuss below [7] achieves security with respect to polynomial hard-to-invert leakages). That is, a function  $h$  is sub-exponentially hard-to-invert if there exists a constant  $1 > c > 0$  such that  $h(\text{sk})$  can be inverted with probability at most  $2^{-k^c}$ .

In the public key setting, some important subtleties arise which are also important for our work.

1. We shall allow the leakage to depend also on the corresponding public key  $\text{pk}$ . One approach to model this is to let the adversary adaptively choose the leakage function after seeing the public key  $\text{pk}$  [1]. An alternative that is taken in the work of Dodis et al. [7] assumes admissible leakage functions  $h : \{0, 1\}^{|\text{sk}|+|\text{pk}|} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ , where it is hard to compute  $\text{sk}$  given  $h(\text{pk}, \text{sk})$ .
2. The public key itself may leak information about the secret key. To illustrate this, consider a contrived scheme, where the public key  $\text{pk}$  contains the first  $k/2$  bits of the secret key in clear. Suppose we want to prove security for leakage functions  $h$  with the property that given  $h(\text{pk}, \text{sk})$ , it is at least  $2^{-k/2}$  hard to compute the secret key  $\text{sk}$ . Given the public key  $\text{pk}$  and such leakage that reveals the last  $k/2$  bits of the secret key, the scheme from above gets completely insecure. To handle this issue, Dodis et al. propose a *weaker* notion of auxiliary input security, which assumes that a function is an admissible leakage if it is hard to compute the secret key *even* when given the public key.

For ease of presentation, we mainly consider in this work this weaker notion of auxiliary input security. As shown in [7], when the public key is short this notion implies security for functions  $h$  solely under the assumption that given  $h(\text{pk}, \text{sk})$  it is computationally hard to compute  $\text{sk}$  (i.e., without defining hardness with respect to  $\text{pk}$ ). The underlying idea is that the public key can be guessed within the proof, which implies that the hardness assumption gets stronger when applying this proof technique. Specifically, security is obtained in the presence of exponentially hard-to-invert leakage functions. We further note that this weaker notion already suffices for composition of different cryptographic schemes using the same public key. For instance, consider an encryption and signature scheme sharing the same public key. If the encryption scheme is weakly secure with respect to any polynomially hard-to-invert leakage function,<sup>3</sup> then the scheme remains secure even if the adversary sees arbitrary signatures, as these signatures

<sup>3</sup> A function  $h$  is *polynomially* hard-to-invert auxiliary information, if any probabilistic polynomial-time adversary computes  $\text{sk}$  with negligible probability, given the leakage  $h(\text{sk}, \text{pk})$ .

can be viewed as hard-to-invert leakage. The opposite may not trivially hold for signature schemes that are secure with respect to (sub) exponentially hard-to-invert leakages.

Recently, Brakerski and Goldwasser [5] and Brakerski and Segev [6] proposed further constructions of public key encryptions secure against auxiliary input leakage. In the former, the authors show how to construct a public key encryption scheme secure against sub-exponentially hard-to-invert leakage, based on the QR and DCR hardness assumptions. In the latter, the concept of security against auxiliary input has been introduced in the context of deterministic public key encryption, and several secure constructions were proposed based on DDH and subgroup indistinguishability assumptions.

## 1.2 Our Contributions

Despite significant progress on constructing encryption schemes in the auxiliary input model, the question of whether digital signature schemes can be built with security against hard-to-invert leakage has remained open so far. This is somewhat surprising as a large number of constructions for the bounded and noisy leakage setting are known [2, 4, 8, 9, 17, 19]. In this paper, we close this gap and propose the first constructions for digital signature schemes with security in the auxiliary input model. As a first contribution of our work, we propose new security notions that are attainable in the presence of hard-to-invert leakage. We then show that constructions that have been proven to be secure when the amount of leakage is bounded, also achieve security in the presence of hard-to-invert leakage. In a nutshell, our results can be summarized as follows:

1. As shown below, existential unforgeability is unattainable in the presence of polynomially hard-to-invert leakage. We thus weaken the security notion by focusing on the setting where the challenge message is chosen uniformly at random. Our construction uses ideas from [19] to achieve security against polynomially hard-to-invert leakage when prior to the challenge message the adversary only has seen signatures for random messages. Such schemes can straightforwardly be used to construct identification schemes with security against any polynomially hard-to-invert leakage (cf. Sections 3.2).
2. We show that the *generic* constructions proposed in [4, 9, 17] achieve the strongest notion of security, namely *existentially unforgeable under chosen message attacks*, if we restrict the adversary to obtain only *exponentially hard-to-invert* leakage. As basic ingredients these schemes use a family of second preimage resistant hash functions, an IND-CCA secure public key encryption scheme with labels and a reusable CRS-NIZK proof system. For our result to be meaningful, we require both the decryption key and the simulation trapdoor of the underlying encryption scheme to be short when compared to the length of the signing key for the signature scheme (cf. Section 3.3).
3. We show an instantiation of this generic transformation that satisfies our requirements on the length of the keys based on the 2-Linear hardness as-

sumption in pairing based groups, using the Groth-Sahai proof system [16] (we refer the reader to the full version).

We elaborate on these results in more detail below.

**Polynomially hard-to-invert leakage and random challenges.** Importantly, security with respect to polynomially hard-to-invert leakage is impossible if the message for which the adversary needs to output a forgery, is fixed at the time the leakage function is chosen. This is certainly the case for the standard security notion of existential unforgeability. One potential weakening of the security definition is by requiring the adversary to forge a signature on a random challenge message. In the case when the challenge messages is sampled uniformly at random, even though the leakage may reveal signatures for some messages, it is very unlikely that the adversary hits a forgery for the challenge message.

Specifically, inspired by the work of Malkin et al. [19], we propose a construction that guarantees security in the presence of *any polynomially hard-to-invert* leakage, when the challenge message is chosen uniformly at random. The scheme uses the message as the CRS for a non-interactive zero-knowledge proof of knowledge (NIZKPoK). To sign, we use the CRS to prove knowledge of  $\text{sk}$  such that  $\text{vk} = H(\text{sk})$ , where  $H$  is a second preimage resistant hash function. Therefore, if an adversary forges a signature given  $\text{vk}$  and the leakage  $h(\text{vk}, \text{sk})$  with non-negligible probability, we can use this forgery to extract a preimage of  $\text{vk}$  which either contradicts the second preimage resistance of  $H$  or the assumption that  $h$  is polynomially hard-to-invert. An obvious drawback of this scheme is that prior to outputting a forgery for the challenge message the adversary only sees signatures on random messages. Finally, as a natural application of such schemes, we show that auxiliary input security for signatures carries over to auxiliary input security of identification schemes. Hence, our scheme can be readily used to build simple identification schemes with security against any polynomially hard-to-invert leakage function.

**Exponentially hard-to-invert leakage and existential unforgeability.**

The standard security notion for signature schemes is existential unforgeability under adaptive chosen-message attacks [15]. Here, one requires that an adversary cannot forge a signature of any message  $m$ , even when given access to a signing oracle. We strengthen this notion and additionally give the adversary leakage  $h(\text{vk}, \text{sk})$ , where  $h$  is some admissible function from class  $\mathcal{H}$ . It is easy to verify that no signature scheme can satisfy this security notion when the only assumption that is made about  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ , is that it is polynomially hard to compute  $\text{sk}$  given  $h(\text{vk}, \text{sk})$ . The reason for this is as follows. Since the secret key must be polynomially hard to compute even given some set of signatures (and the public key), a signature is an admissible leakage function with respect to  $\mathcal{H}$ . Hence, a forgery is a valid leakage. This observation holds even when we define the hardness of  $h$  with respect to the public key as well.

Our first observation towards constructing signatures with auxiliary input security is that the above issues do not necessarily arise when we consider the

more restricted class of functions that maintain (sub)-exponentially hardness of inversion. Suppose, for concreteness, that there exists a constant  $1 > c > 0$  such that there exists a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm, taking as input a signature and the public key and outputting  $\text{sk}$  with probability  $p$ . Here, we assume that  $\text{negl}(k) \geq p \gg 2^{-k^c}$  for some negligible function  $\text{negl}(\cdot)$ . Then, if we let  $\mathcal{H}$  be the class of functions with hardness at least  $2^{-k^c}$ , the signing algorithm is not in  $\mathcal{H}$  and hence the artificial counterexample from above does not work anymore! We instantiate this idea by adding an encryption  $C = \text{Enc}_{\text{ek}}(\text{sk})$  of the signing key  $\text{sk}$  to each signature. The encryption key  $\text{ek}$  is part of the verification key of the signature scheme, but the decryption key  $\text{dk}$  associated with  $\text{ek}$  is not part of the signing key. However, we set up the scheme such that  $\text{dk}$  can be guessed with probability  $p$ . Interestingly, it turns out that recent constructions of leakage resilient signatures [4, 9, 17], which originally were designed to protect against *bounded* leakage, use as part of the signature an encryption of the secret key. This enables us to prove that these schemes also enjoy security against exponentially hard-to-invert leakages.

One may object that artificially adding an encryption of the secret key to the signature is somewhat counter-intuitive as it seems to reduce the security of the signature scheme. However, all that is needed for this trick is that guessing  $\text{dk}$  is significantly easier than guessing  $\text{sk}$ . For a given security level we can therefore pick the length of  $\text{dk}$  first, as to achieve that security level. After that we can then pick the length of  $\text{sk}$  as to achieve meaningful leakage bounds. Our concrete security analysis allows to choose these keys as to achieve a given security. Note, also, that adding trapdoors to cryptographic schemes for what superficially only seems to be proof reasons is common in the field – non-interactive zero-knowledge being another prominent example.

For readers familiar with the security proof of the Katz-Vaikuntanathan scheme [17], we note that the crux of our new proof is that in the reduction we cannot generate a CRS together with its simulation trapdoor. Instead, to simulate signatures for chosen messages we will guess the simulation trapdoor. Fortunately, we can show that the loss from guessing the simulation trapdoor only effects the tightness in the reduction to the inversion hardness of the leakage functions. As we use a NIZK proof system with a short simulation trapdoor and only aim for exponential hard-to-invert leakage functions, we can successfully complete the reduction.

**Instantiation under the 2-linear Assumption.** As a concrete example, we show in the full version how to instantiate our generic transformation using the Groth-Sahai proofs system based on the 2-linear assumption. This yields security with respect to any  $2^{-6k'}$ -hard-to-invert leakage. If we do not wish to define the hardness with respect to the public key as well, it is possible to guess it and thus lose an additional factor of  $2^{-3k'}$  in the hardness assumption. Here,  $k' := \log(p)$  for a prime  $p$  that denotes the order of the group for which the 2-linear assumption holds, and the secret key of our scheme has length  $k := \ell \cdot k'$  bits for some constant  $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ .

### 1.3 A Road Map

In Section 2 we specify basic security definitions and our modeling for the auxiliary input setting. In Section 3 we present our signature schemes for random messages (Section 3.2) and chosen message attack security (Section 3.3). In the full version we show how to use signatures on random messages to construct identification schemes with security against any polynomially hard-to-invert leakage. We also show an instantiation of the later signature scheme under the 2-linear hardness assumption.

## 2 Preliminaries

*Basic Notation.* We denote the security parameter by  $k$  and by PPT probabilistic polynomial-time. For a set  $S$  we write  $x \leftarrow S$  to denote that  $x$  is sampled uniformly from  $S$ . We write  $y \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(x)$  to indicate that  $y$  is the output of an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  when running on input  $x$ . We denote by  $\langle a, b \rangle$  the inner product of field elements  $a$  and  $b$ . We use  $\text{negl}(\cdot)$  to denote a negligible function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and we use the  $\approx$  notation to denote computational indistinguishability of families of random variables.

### 2.1 Public Key Encryption Schemes

We introduce the notion of a labeled public key encryption scheme following the notation used in [9].

**Definition 1 (LPKE).** We say that PPT algorithms  $\Pi = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$  is a labeled public key encryption scheme (LPKE) with perfect decryption if:

- **KeyGen**, given a security parameter  $k$ , outputs keys  $(\text{ek}, \text{dk})$ , where  $\text{ek}$  is a public encryption key and  $\text{dk}$  is a secret decryption key.
- **Enc**, given the public key  $\text{ek}$ , a label  $L$  and a plaintext message  $m$ , outputs a ciphertext  $c$  encrypting  $m$ . We denote this by  $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}^L(\text{ek}, m)$ .
- **Dec**, given a label  $L$ , the secret key  $\text{dk}$  and a ciphertext  $c$ , with  $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}^L(\text{ek}, m)$ , then with probability 1 outputs  $m$ . We denote this by  $m \leftarrow \text{Dec}^L(\text{dk}, c)$ .

**Definition 2 (IND-LCCA secure encryption scheme).** We say that a labeled public key encryption scheme  $\Pi = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$  is IND-LCCA secure encryption scheme if, for every admissible PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$ , there exists a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that the probability  $\text{IND-LCCA}_{\Pi, \mathcal{A}}(k)$  that  $\mathcal{A}$  wins the IND-LCCA game as defined below is at most  $\text{IND-LCCA}_{\Pi, \mathcal{A}}(k) \leq \frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}(k)$ .

- IND-LCCA game.

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{ek}, \text{dk}) &\leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^k) \\ (L, m_0, m_1, \text{history}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{A}_1^{\text{Dec}(\cdot)(\text{dk}, \cdot)}(\text{ek}), \text{ s.t. } |m_0| = |m_1| \\ c &\leftarrow \text{Enc}^L(\text{ek}, m_b), \text{ where } b \leftarrow \{0, 1\} \\ b' &\leftarrow \mathcal{A}_2^{\text{Dec}(\cdot)(\text{dk}, \cdot)}(c, \text{history}) \\ \mathcal{A} \text{ wins if } &b' = b. \end{aligned}$$

An adversary is admissible if it does not query  $\text{Dec}^{(\cdot)}(\text{dk}, \cdot)$  with  $(L, c)$

In this work we require a weaker notion, called IND-WLCCA, where the adversary cannot query the decryption oracle with label  $L$ . Namely, we change the definition of admissible to mean that the adversary never queries  $\text{Dec}^{(\cdot)}(\text{dk}, \cdot)$  with any input of the form  $(L, \cdot)$ , where  $L$  is the label picked to compute the challenge. We discuss further details why this security notion is needed for our construction in Section 3.3.

## 2.2 Signature Schemes

A signature scheme is a tuple of PPT algorithms  $\Sigma = (\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$  defined as follows. The key generation algorithm  $\text{Gen}$ , on input  $1^k$  outputs a signing and a verification key  $(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$ . The signing algorithm  $\text{Sig}$  takes as input a message  $m$  and a signing key  $\text{sk}$  and outputs a signature  $\sigma$ . The verification algorithm  $\text{Ver}$ , on input  $(\text{vk}, m, \sigma)$ , outputs either 0 or 1 (respectively rejecting or accepting the signature). A signature scheme has to satisfy the following correctness property: for any message  $m$  and keys  $(\text{sk}, \text{vk}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^k)$

$$\Pr[\text{Ver}(\text{vk}, m, \text{Sig}(\text{sk}, m)) = 1] = 1$$

The standard security notion for a signature scheme is existentially unforgeability under chosen message attacks. A scheme is said to be secure under this notion if, even after seeing signatures for chosen messages, no adversary can come up with a forgery for a new message. In this article, we extend this security notion and give the adversary additional auxiliary information about the signing key. To this end, we define a set of admissible leakage functions  $\mathcal{H}$  and allow the adversary to obtain the value  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$  for any  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ . Notice that by giving  $\text{vk}$  as input to the leakage function, we capture the fact that the choice of  $h$  may depend on  $\text{vk}$ .

**Definition 3 (Existential Unforgeability under Chosen Message and Auxiliary Input Attacks (EU-CMAA)).** We say that a signature scheme  $\Sigma = (\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$  is existentially unforgeable against chosen message and auxiliary input attacks (EU-CMAA) with respect to  $\mathcal{H}$  if for all PPT adversaries  $\mathcal{A}$  and any function  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ , the following probability  $\Pr[\text{CMA}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k) = 1]$  is negligible in  $k$ , where  $\text{CMA}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$  is defined as follows:

<p><b>Experiment</b> <math>\text{CMA}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)</math></p> <p><math>(\text{vk}, \text{sk}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^k)</math></p> <p><math>(m^*, \sigma^*) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}(\text{sk}, \cdot)}(1^k, h(\text{vk}, \text{sk}), \text{vk})</math></p> <p>If <math>m^* \notin M</math> return <math>\text{Ver}(\text{vk}, m^*, \sigma^*)</math>, else return 0.</p>	<p><b>Oracle</b> <math>\mathcal{O}(\text{sk}, m)</math></p> <p>Return <math>(m, \text{Sig}(\text{sk}, m))</math></p>
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Where  $M$  is the set of messages submitted by  $\mathcal{A}$  to the oracle.

We note that the leakage may also depend on  $\mathcal{A}$ 's signature queries as the function  $h$  may internally run  $\mathcal{A}$ , using the access to the secret key in order to emulate the entire security game, including the signature queries made by  $\mathcal{A}$ .



As outlined in the introduction, we are also interested in a weaker security notion where the adversary is required to output a forgery for a random message after seeing signatures for *random* messages. To this end, we extend the definition from above and let the signing oracle reply with random messages, as well as pick the challenge message at random. This is formally described in the following definition.

**Definition 4 (Random Message Unforgeability under Random Message and Auxiliary Input Attacks (RU-RMAA)).** We say that a signature scheme  $\Sigma = (\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$  is random message unforgeable against random message and auxiliary input attacks (RU-RMAA) with respect to  $\mathcal{H}$  if for all PPT adversaries  $\mathcal{A}$  and any function  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ , the probability  $\Pr[\text{RMA}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k) = 1]$  is negligible in  $k$ , where  $\text{RMA}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$  is defined as follows:

<p><b>Experiment</b> <math>\text{RMA}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)</math>  <math>(\text{vk}, \text{sk}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^k)</math>  <math>m^* \leftarrow \mathcal{M}</math>, where <math>\mathcal{M}</math> is the message space  <math>\sigma^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}(\text{sk})}(1^k, h(\text{vk}, \text{sk}), \text{vk}, m^*)</math>  Return <math>\text{Ver}(\text{vk}, m^*, \sigma^*)</math>.</p>	<p><b>Oracle</b> <math>\mathcal{O}(\text{sk})</math>  <math>m \leftarrow \mathcal{M}</math>  Return <math>(m, \text{Sig}(\text{sk}, m))</math></p>
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We notice that this notion of security is useful in some settings. For instance, it suffices to construct 2-round identification schemes w.r.t auxiliary inputs. In the full version of this article [12] we propose formal definitions and a simple construction of an identification scheme with security in the presence of auxiliary input leakage.

One way to enhance the security notion obtained by Definition 4 is to allow chosen message attacks, i.e., random message unforgeability under chosen message and auxiliary input attacks (RU-CMAA). In this game the adversary can pick the messages to be signed by itself but still need to forge a signature on a random message; see Section 3.2 for further discussion.

### 2.3 Classes of Auxiliary Input Functions

The above notions of security require to specify the set of admissible functions  $\mathcal{H}$ . In the public key setting one can define two different types of classes of leakage functions. In the first class, we require that given the leakage  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$  it is computationally hard to compute  $\text{sk}$ , while in the latter we require hardness of computing  $\text{sk}$  when additionally given the public key  $\text{vk}$ . We follow the work of Dodis et al. [7] to formally define this difference. Let in the following  $(\text{sk}, \text{vk}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^k)$  be generated randomly.

- Let  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$  be the class of polynomial-time computable functions  $h : \{0, 1\}^{|\text{sk}|+|\text{vk}|} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  such that given  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$ , no PPT adversary can find  $\text{sk}$  with probability  $\ell(k) \geq 2^{-k}$ , i.e., for any PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ :  $\Pr_{(\text{sk}, \text{vk}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^k)}[\text{sk} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(h(\text{sk}, \text{vk}))] < \ell(k)$ .
- Let  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\ell(k))$  be the class of polynomial-time computable functions  $h : \{0, 1\}^{|\text{sk}|+|\text{vk}|} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  such that given  $(\text{vk}, h(\text{sk}, \text{vk}))$ , no PPT adversary

can find  $\text{sk}$  with probability  $\ell(k) \geq 2^{-k}$ , i.e., for any PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ :  $\Pr_{(\text{sk}, \text{vk}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^k)}[\text{sk} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\text{vk}, h(\text{sk}, \text{vk}))] < \ell(k)$ .

Security with respect to auxiliary input gets stronger if  $\ell(k)$  is larger. Our goal is typically to make  $\ell(k)$  as large as possible while still  $\text{negl}(k)$ . If a scheme is EU-CMAA for  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\ell(k))$  according to Definition 3, we say for short that it is  $\ell(k)$ -EU-CMAA. Similarly, if a scheme is RU-RMAA for  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\ell(k))$ , then we say that it is an  $\ell(k)$ -RU-RMAA signature scheme. If the class of admissible leakage functions is  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$ , we will mention it explicitly.

As outlined in the introduction, we typically prove security with respect to the class  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\ell(k))$ . The stronger security notion where hardness is required to hold *only* given the leakage, i.e., for the class of admissible functions  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$ , can be achieved by a relation between  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\cdot)$  and  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\cdot)$  proven by Dodis et al. [7].

**Lemma 1 ([7]).** *If  $|\text{vk}| = t(k)$  then for any  $\ell(k)$ , we have*

1.  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\ell(k)) \subseteq \mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$
2.  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(2^{-t(k)}\ell(k)) \subseteq \mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\ell(k))$

The first point of Lemma 1 says that if no PPT adversary finds  $\text{sk}$  given  $(\text{vk}, h(\text{sk}, \text{vk}))$  with probability  $\ell(k)$  or better, then no PPT adversary finds  $\text{sk}$  given only  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$  with probability  $\ell(k)$  or better. Clearly this is the case since knowing  $\text{vk}$  will not make it harder to guess  $\text{sk}$ . The second point states that if no PPT adversary finds  $\text{sk}$  given  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$  with probability  $2^{-t(k)}\ell(k)$  or better, then any PPT adversary has advantage at most  $\ell(k)$  in guessing  $\text{sk}$  when given additionally  $\text{vk}$ . To see this consider a PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  that finds  $\text{sk}$  given  $(\text{vk}, h(\text{sk}, \text{vk}))$  with probability  $\ell'(k) \geq \ell(k)$ .  $\mathcal{A}$  then implies a PPT adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  that given  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$  simply tries to guess  $\text{vk}$  and uses it to run  $\mathcal{A}$ . Since  $\mathcal{B}$  can guess  $\text{vk}$  with probability at least  $2^{-t(k)}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  has probability at least  $2^{-t(k)}\ell'(k)$  of finding  $\text{sk}$ . Thus contradicting  $h \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(2^{-t(k)}\ell(k))$ .

### 3 Signature Schemes with Auxiliary Input Security

#### 3.1 A Warm-Up Construction

In order to illustrate the difficulties encountered in designing cryptographic primitives in the auxiliary input setting we present a warm-up construction of a signature scheme that may seem secure at first glance but, unfortunately, proving its security is impossible. Essentially, the problem arises due to the computational hardness of the leakage and does not occur in other leakage models, where given the leakage the secret key is still information theoretically hidden. For ease of understanding, in this warm-up construction we only aim for the simpler one-time security notion on random messages, where the adversary only views a single signature before it outputs its forgery on a random message. We consider two building blocks for the following scheme:

1. A family  $H$  of second preimage resistant hash functions.
2. A non-interactive zero-knowledge proof of knowledge<sup>4</sup> (NIZKPoK) system  $\Pi = (\text{CRSGen}, \text{P}, \text{V})$  for proving knowledge of a secret value  $x$  so that  $y = H_s(x)$  given  $s$  and  $y$ . We further require that the CRS's of  $\Pi$  are uniformly random strings of some length  $p(k)$  for security parameter  $k$  and some polynomial  $p(\cdot)$ . Denote the message space  $\mathcal{M}$  by  $\{0, 1\}^{p(k)}$ .

Informally, the signature scheme is built as follows. The signing key  $\text{sk}$  is a random element  $x$  in the domain of the hash function, whereas the verification key  $\text{vk}$  is  $y = H(x)$ . The verification key  $\text{vk}$  also contains a common reference string  $\text{crs}$  for  $\Pi$ . A signature on a message  $m$  is the bit  $b = \langle m, \text{sk} \rangle$  together with a non-interactive proof with respect to  $\text{crs}$  proving that  $b$  was computed as the inner product of the preimage of  $y$  and the message  $m$ . More precisely, define the signature scheme  $\Sigma = (\text{Gen}_\Sigma, \text{Sig}_\Sigma, \text{Ver}_\Sigma)$  as follows:

- Key Generation,  $\text{Gen}_\Sigma(1^k)$ :** Sample a second preimage resistant hash function  $H_s$  from  $H$ , a random element  $x$  in the domain of  $H_s$  and  $\text{crs} \leftarrow \text{CRSGen}(1^k)$ . Output  $\text{sk} = x$ ,  $\text{vk} = (H(x), \text{crs})$ .
- Signing,  $\text{Sig}_\Sigma(\text{sk}, m)$ :** Parse  $\text{vk}$  as  $(H(\text{sk}), \text{crs})$ . Compute  $b = \langle m, \text{sk} \rangle$ . Use the  $\text{crs}$  to generate a non-interactive zero-knowledge proof of knowledge  $\pi$ , demonstrating that  $b = \langle m, \text{sk} \rangle$  and  $H(\text{sk}) = y$ . Output  $\sigma = (b, \pi)$ .
- Verifying,  $\text{Ver}_\Sigma(\text{vk}, m, \sigma)$ :** Parse  $\text{vk}$  as  $(H(\text{sk}), \text{crs})$  and  $\sigma$  as  $(b, \pi)$ . Use  $\text{crs}$  to verify the proof  $\pi$ . Output 1 if the proof is verified correctly and 0 otherwise.

We continue with an attempt to prove security. Note first that by the properties of  $\Pi$ , the ability to generate a forgery  $(\sigma', m')$  reduces to the ability using the extraction trapdoor to either find a second preimage for the hash function or break the hardness assumption of the leakage function. As the difficulties arise in the reduction to the hardness of the leakage function, we focus in this outline on that part. Assume there is an adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  attacking signature scheme  $\Sigma$  given auxiliary input leakage  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$  and  $(y, \text{crs})$ . Then, an attempt to construct  $\mathcal{B}$  that breaks the hardness assumption of the leakage function by invoking  $\mathcal{A}$  works as follows.  $\mathcal{B}$  obtains  $(y, \text{crs})$  and the leakage  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$  from its challenge oracle. It forwards them to  $\mathcal{A}$  who will ask for signature query. Unfortunately, at that point we are not able to answer this query as we cannot simulate a proof without knowing the witness or the trapdoor.

An alternative approach may be to directly prove security with respect to the leakage class  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$  and let  $\mathcal{B}$  sample the CRS herself using the zero-knowledge simulator to know a trapdoor. Unfortunately, also this approach is deemed to fail as in this case there is no way to learn a  $y = H(\text{sk})$  that is consistent with the leakage. Moreover this results into several difficulties in defining the set of admissible leakage functions as they must be different now for  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$ . This can be illustrated as follows. Suppose that the CRS is a public key for an encryption scheme and the trapdoor is the corresponding secret key. As  $\mathcal{A}$  only knows the CRS but not the trapdoor a leakage function  $h$  that outputs

<sup>4</sup> For definition of NIZKPoK we refer to the full version of this article [12]

an encryption of  $\text{sk} = x$  is admissible. On the other hand, however, for  $\mathcal{B}$  who knows the trapdoor (hence the secret key of the encryption scheme) such leakage cannot be admissible. This shows that we need to consider different approaches when analyzing the security of digital signature schemes in the presence of auxiliary input. In what follows, we demonstrate two different approaches for such constructions, obtaining two different notions of security.

### 3.2 A RU-RMAA Signature Scheme

In this section we present our construction of a RU-RMAA signature scheme as defined in Definition 4. For this scheme we assume the following building blocks:

1. A family  $H$  of second preimage resistant hash functions with input length  $k_1$  and key sampling algorithm  $\text{Gen}_H$ .
2. A (NIZKPoK) system  $\Pi = (\text{CRSGen}, \text{P}, \text{V})$  for proving knowledge of a secret value  $x$  so that  $y = H_s(x)$  given  $s$  and  $y$ . We further require that the CRS's of  $\Pi$  are uniformly random strings of some length  $p(k)$  for security parameter  $k$  and some polynomial  $p(\cdot)$ . Denote the message space  $\mathcal{M}$  by  $\{0, 1\}^{p(k)}$ .

The main idea for the scheme is inspired by the work of Malkin et al. [19] where we view each message  $m$  as a common reference string for the proof system  $\Pi$ . Since  $m$  is uniformly generated, we are guaranteed that the CRS is generated correctly and knowledge soundness holds. Intuitively since each new message induces a new CRS, each proof is given with respect to an independent CRS. This implies that in the security proof the simulator (playing the role of the signer) *can* use the trapdoor of the CRS that corresponds to the challenge message  $m^*$ .

We formally define our scheme  $\Sigma = (\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$  as follows.

**Key Generation,  $\text{Gen}(1^k)$ :** Sample  $s \leftarrow \text{Gen}_H(1^k)$ . Sample  $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_1}$  and compute  $y = H_s(x)$ . Output  $\text{sk} = (x, s)$  and  $\text{vk} = (y, s)$ .

**Signing,  $\text{Sig}(\text{sk}, m)$ :** To sign  $m \leftarrow \mathcal{M}$ , let  $\text{crs} = m$  and sample the signature  $\sigma \leftarrow \text{P}(\text{crs}, \text{vk}, \text{sk})$  as a proof of knowledge of  $x$  such that  $y = H_s(x)$ .

**Verifying,  $\text{Ver}(\text{vk}, m, \sigma)$ :** To verify  $\sigma$  on  $m = \text{crs}$ , output  $\text{V}(\text{crs}, \text{vk}, \sigma)$ .

**Theorem 1.** *Assume that  $H$  is a second preimage resistant family of hash functions and  $\Pi = (\text{CRSGen}, \text{P}, \text{V})$  is a NIZKPoK system. Then  $\Sigma = (\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$  is a  $\text{negl}(k)$ -RU-RMAA signature scheme.*

The intuition of the proof is that if one can efficiently forge a signature on a random  $m^*$  after getting signatures on random messages  $m$ , then one can also efficiently compute  $x$ , contradicting the assumption that the leakage is hard to efficiently invert. During the simulated attack the signatures on random messages  $m$  are simulated by sampling  $m = \text{crs}$ , where  $\text{crs}$  is sampled along with the simulation trapdoor. In the end one samples  $m^* = \text{crs}$ , where  $\text{crs}$  is sampled along with the extraction trapdoor. Upon getting a forgery on  $m^*$ , we can extract  $x$  using the extraction trapdoor.

In the standard setting, a simple modification using Chameleon hash functions [18] enables to achieve a stronger notion of security. Recall first that Chameleon hash functions are collision resistance hash functions such that given a trapdoor one can efficiently find collisions for every given preimage and its hashed value. Thereby, instead of signing random messages the scheme can be modified so that the signer signs the hashed value of the message. This achieves chosen message attacks security so that the adversary picks the messages to be signed during the security game, yet the challenge is still picked at random. Nevertheless, when introducing hard-to-invert leakage into the system this approach does not enable to obtain security against polynomially hard-to-invert leakage, because we run into the same problem specified in Section 3.1. Moreover, in Section 3.3 we show how to obtain the strongest security notion of existential unforgeability under chosen message and auxiliary input attacks.

*Proof.* Let  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}$  be as defined in Definition 4 for PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  and leakage function  $h \in \mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\text{negl}(k))$ . Furthermore let  $W$  be the event that  $\mathcal{A}$  wins the game. We show that  $\Pr[W]$  is negligible. Denote this probability by  $p_0$ . Consider the following modification to  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$ .

1. Generate  $(\text{vk}, \text{sk})$  as in  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$ .
2. Instead of sampling the challenge  $m^*$  as  $m^* \leftarrow \mathcal{M}$  sample  $(m', \text{td}_e) \leftarrow E_1(1^k)$  and let  $m^* = m'$ , where  $E = (E_1, E_2)$  is the knowledge extractor for  $\Pi$ .
3. Give input to  $\mathcal{A}$  as in  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$ .
4. To answer the oracle queries of  $\mathcal{A}$ , sample  $(m', \text{td}_s) \leftarrow S_1(1^k)$ , let  $m = m'$  and return the signature  $(m, S_2(m, \text{vk}, \text{td}_s))$ , where  $S = (S_1, S_2)$  is the simulator for  $\Pi$ .
5. Receive a forgery  $\sigma^*$  from  $\mathcal{A}$  as in  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$ .
6. Output as in  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$ .

Let  $p_1$  be the probability that the modified experiment above outputs 1. Also consider  $x' = E_2(m^*, \text{vk}, \text{td}_e, \sigma^*)$ . I.e.  $x'$  is a signing key extracted from  $\mathcal{A}$ 's forgery. By  $\Pi$  being a NIZKPoK we have that distributions of messages and signatures in the modified experiment are indistinguishable from the distributions in the original experiment  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$ . Thus it follows that  $p_1$  is negligibly close to  $p_0$ . Let  $p_2$  be the probability that  $H_s(x') = y$ . By the knowledge soundness of  $\Pi$  it follows that  $p_2$  is negligibly close to  $p_0$ .

Note then that, since  $S$  and  $E$  are both PPT algorithms, the modified experiment describes a PPT algorithm which computes  $x'$  where with probability  $p_2$  it holds that  $y = H_s(x')$ . Let  $p_3$  be the probability that  $y = H_s(x')$  and  $x' \neq x$  and let  $p_4$  be the probability that  $x' = x$ . Note that  $p_2 = p_3 + p_4$ .

**The Event  $X$**  Consider the PPT algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  that given  $\text{vk}$  and leakage  $h(\text{sk}, \text{vk})$ , where  $(\text{sk}, \text{vk}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^k)$ , runs steps 2-5 of the modified experiment above and outputs  $x^* = E_2(m^*, \text{vk}, \text{td}_e, \sigma^*)$ . Denote by  $X$  the event in which  $\mathcal{B}$  outputs  $x^* = x$ . Since  $(\text{vk}, \text{sk})$  is generated as in  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$   $\Pr[X] \geq p_4$ . Thus by definition of  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{vkow}}(\text{negl}(k))$ ,  $p_4$  is negligible.

**The Event  $C$**  On the other hand, consider the PPT algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  that is given  $s, x$  and  $y = H_s(x)$ .  $\mathcal{B}$  lets  $\text{vk} = (y, s)$  and runs steps 2-5 of the modified experiment above (notice that  $\mathcal{B}$  is given  $x$ , so it can compute the leakage  $h$ ) and outputs  $x^* = E_2(m^*, \text{vk}, \text{td}_e, \sigma^*)$ . Denote by  $C$  the event in which  $\mathcal{B}$  outputs  $x^* \neq x$  so that  $H_s(x^*) = H_s(x)$ . Notice again that  $((H_s, y), x)$  are generated as in  $\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k)$  and therefore  $\Pr[C] \geq p_3$ . Thus by the second preimage resistance hardness of the family  $H$ ,  $p_3$  is negligible.

This implies that  $p_3$  and  $p_4$  are negligible and so is  $p_2 = p_3 + p_4$ . Since  $p_0$  is negligibly close to  $p_2$ ,  $p_0$  must also be negligible. By definition  $p_0 = \Pr[\text{Exp}_{\Sigma, \mathcal{A}, h}(k) = 1]$  and so by Definition 4,  $\Sigma$  is a  $\text{negl}(k)$ -RU-RMAA signature scheme.  $\square$

Notice that in the above we assume that the CRS of the NIZKPoK  $\Pi$  is a uniformly random bit string. As an example of a NIZKPoK with this property we can use the construction of [23]. In their construction the CRS is a pair  $(\text{ek}, r)$  where  $r$  is a random string and  $\text{ek}$  is an encryption key for some semantically secure public-key encryption scheme. Thus, we can use the construction of [23] with a public-key encryption scheme where uniformly random bit strings can act as public-keys, like Regev's LWE scheme[24].

### 3.3 A EU-CMAA Signature Scheme

In this section we build a EU-CMAA signature scheme. We use  $k$  to denote the security parameter. We need the following tools:

1. A family of second preimage resistant hash functions  $H$  with key sampling algorithm  $\text{Gen}_H$ , where the input length can be set to be any  $k_4 = \text{poly}(k)$  and where the length of the randomness used by  $s \leftarrow \text{Gen}_H(1^k)$  is some  $l_1 = \text{poly}(k)$  independent of  $k_4$  and where the length of an output  $y = H_s(x)$  is some  $l_4 = \text{poly}(k)$  independent of  $k_4$ . I.e., it is possible to increase the input length of  $H_s$  without increasing the randomness used to generate  $s$  or the output length.
2. An IND-WLCCA secure labeled public-key encryption scheme  $\Gamma = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$  with perfect decryption (cf. Definition 2), where the length of  $\text{dk}$  is some  $l_2 = \text{poly}(k)$  independent of the length of the messages that  $\Gamma$  can encrypt.
3. A reusable-CRS non-interactive zero-knowledge proof<sup>5</sup> system (NIZK)  $\Pi = (\text{CRSGen}, \text{P}, \text{V})$ , where the length of the simulation trapdoor  $\text{td}_s$  at security level  $k$  is some  $l_3 = \text{poly}(k)$  independent of the size of the proofs that the NIZK can handle.

The IND-WLCCA secure encryption scheme might be replaced by a IND-CPA secure scheme, but at the price of then instead using a simulation sound NIZK: We expect a general proof via true simulation extractability to work along

<sup>5</sup> For definition of reusable-CRS NIZK we refer to the full version of this article [12]

the lines of [9]. We chose the above tools as they lean themselves nicely towards our concrete instantiation.

The reason why we use IND-WLCCA is that our signature scheme requires to encrypt its secret key that is much longer than the decryption key. For that we need to break the secret key into blocks and encrypt each block separately under the *same* label (looking ahead, the label would be the signed message). Note that labeled public-key encryption schemes for arbitrary length messages is not implied by LCCA secure scheme for fixed length messages. This is because the adversary can change the order of the ciphertexts within a specific set of ciphertexts and ask for a decryption. We therefore work with the weaker notion that is sufficient for our purposes to design secure signature schemes, and is easier to instantiate as demonstrated in the full version of this article [12].

Our scheme  $\Sigma$  works as follows:

- Key Generation,  $\text{Gen}(1^k)$ :** Sample  $s \leftarrow \text{Gen}_H(1^k)$  and  $(\text{ek}, \text{dk}) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^k)$ . Furthermore, sample  $(\text{crs}, \text{td}_s) \leftarrow S_1(1^k)$  and  $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_4}$ , where  $S = (S_1, S_2)$  is the simulator for  $\Pi$ .<sup>6</sup> Compute  $y = H_s(x)$ . Set  $(\text{sk}, \text{vk}) = (x, (y, s, \text{ek}, \text{crs}))$ .
- Signing,  $\text{Sig}(\text{sk}, m)$ :** Compute  $C = \text{Enc}^m(\text{ek}, x)$ . Using  $\text{crs}$  and  $\Pi$ , generate a NIZK proof  $\pi$  proving that  $\exists x(C = \text{Enc}^m(\text{ek}, x) \wedge y = H_s(x))$ . Output  $\sigma = (C, \pi)$ .
- Verifying,  $\text{Ver}(\text{vk}, m, \sigma)$ :** Parse  $\sigma$  as  $C, \pi$ . Use  $\text{crs}$  and  $\text{V}$  to verify the NIZK proof  $\pi$ . Output 1 if the proof verifies correctly and 0 otherwise.

As explained in [9], a NIZK proof system together with a CCA-secure encryption scheme are a specific instantiation of *true-simulation extractable (tSE)*. An alternative instantiation would be to compose a simulation-sound NIZK with a CPA-secure encryption scheme. This approach was used in [17]. We note that our proof follows similarly for this instantiation as well.

**Theorem 2.** *If  $H, \Gamma = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$  and  $\Pi = (\text{CRSGen}, \text{P}, \text{V})$  have the properties listed above, then  $\Sigma$  is  $2^{-k_5}$ -EU-CMAA where  $k_5 = k + l_2 + l_3$  and where*

- $k$  is the security parameter of  $\Sigma$ ,
- $l_1$  is the length of the randomness used to sample  $s$  at security parameter  $k_1$  for  $H$ ,
- $l_2$  is the length of the decryption key  $\text{dk}$  at security parameter  $k_2$  for  $\Gamma$ ,
- $l_3$  is the length of the simulation trapdoor  $\text{td}_s$  at security parameter  $k_3$  for  $\Pi$ ,

*If we consider the class  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$ , then our scheme is  $2^{-k_6}$ -EU-CMAA where  $k_6 = k + l_1 + l_2 + l_3 + l_4$  and where  $l_4$  is the length of  $y = H_s(x)$  at security parameter  $k_1$  for  $H$ .*

<sup>6</sup> It is deliberate that we use a simulated CRS as part of the public key. This makes the set of admissible leakage functions defined relative to a simulated CRS, which we use in the proof. The scheme might be secure for a normal CRS too, but the proof would be more complicated.

Specifically, the best success against  $\Sigma$  in the forging game with  $2^{-k_s}$ -hard leakage by a PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $2^{-k} + \sum_{i=0}^3 \varepsilon_i + u\varepsilon_4$ , where  $u$  is a polynomial and

- $\varepsilon_0$  and  $\varepsilon_3$  are the advantages of some PPT adversaries in the ZK game against  $\Pi$  at security parameter  $k_3$ ,
- $\varepsilon_1$  is the success probability of some PPT adversary in the soundness game against  $\Pi$  at security parameter  $k_3$ ,
- $\varepsilon_2$  is the probability that some PPT adversary wins the second preimage game against  $H$  on security parameter  $k_1$  and  $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_4}$ ,
- $\varepsilon_4$  is the advantage of some PPT adversary in the IND-WLCCA game against  $\Gamma$  at security parameter  $k_2$ .

The intuition behind the proof of security is that a forged signature contains an encryption of the secret key  $x$ , so forging leads to extracting  $x$  using  $\text{dk}$ , giving a reduction to the assumption that it is hard to compute  $x$  given the leakage. In doing this reduction the signing oracle is simulated by encrypting  $0^{k_4}$  and simulating the proofs using the simulation trapdoor  $\text{td}_s$ . This will clearly still lead to an extraction of  $x$ , using reusable-CRS NIZK and IND-WLCCA. The only hurdle is that given  $(\text{vk}, h(\text{sk}, \text{vk}))$ , we do not know  $\text{dk}$  or  $\text{td}_s$ . We can, however, guess these with probability  $2^{-l_2}$  respectively  $2^{-l_3}$ . This is why we only get security  $k_W = k + l_2 + l_3$ . When we prove security for  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$  the reduction is not given  $\text{vk}$  either, so we additionally have to guess  $s$  and  $y$ , leading to  $k_S = k + l_1 + l_2 + l_3 + l_4$ .

If we set  $k_4 = k + l_2 + l_3 + l_4 + L$ , then the min-entropy of  $x$  given  $y = H_s(x)$  is  $k + l_2 + l_3 + L$ , so leaking  $L$  bits would be an admissible leakage in the  $2^{-k_W}$  security game. Since, by assumption on our primitives,  $l_2$  and  $l_3$  and  $l_4$  does not grow with  $k_4$ , it follows that we can set  $L$  to be any polynomial and be secure against leaking any fraction  $(1 - k^{-O(1)})$  of the secret key. Due to space constraints the complete proof is found in the full version [12].

The following is a corollary to Thm. 2.

**Theorem 3.** *If  $H$ ,  $\Gamma$  and  $\Pi$  have the properties listed above, then  $\Sigma$  is  $2^{-k_W}$ -EU-CMAA where  $k_W = k + l_2 + l_3$  and  $l_1$  is the length of the randomness used to sample  $s$ ,  $l_2$  is the length of the decryption key  $\text{dk}$  for  $\Gamma$ ,  $l_3$  is the length of the simulation trapdoor  $\text{td}_s$ . In particular,  $\Sigma$  is  $2^{-k_W}$ -EU-CMAA for  $k_W = \text{poly}(k)$  which do not grow with  $k_4$ , i.e., the input length of the hash function.*

*If we consider the class  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$ , then  $\Sigma$  is  $2^{-k_S}$ -EU-CMAA where  $k_S = k + l_1 + l_2 + l_3 + l_4$  and where  $l_4$  is the length of  $y = H_s(x)$ .*

Our concrete instantiation has all the needed properties, except that  $s$  has a length which depends on  $k_4$ . This, however, can be handled generically as follows.

**Lemma 2.** *If there exists an  $\varepsilon$ -secure family of second preimage resistant hash functions  $H$ , with key sampling algorithm  $\text{Gen}_H$ , and a  $\delta$ -secure pseudo-random generator  $\text{prg}$ , then there exists an  $(\varepsilon + \delta)$ -secure family of second preimage resistant hash function  $H$ , with key sampling algorithm  $\text{Gen}'_H$ , where  $s \leftarrow \text{Gen}'_H(1^k)$  can be guessed with probability  $2^{-k_0}$ , where  $k_0 = \text{poly}(k)$  is the seed length of  $\text{prg}$  at security level  $k$ .*



*Proof.* Let  $\text{Gen}'_H(1^k; r \in \{0, 1\}^{k_0}) = \text{Gen}_H(1^k; \text{prg}(r))$ . It is clear that an output of  $\text{Gen}'_H(r \in \{0, 1\}^{k_0})$  can be guessed with probability  $2^{-k_0}$ , by guessing  $r$ . Let

$$\varepsilon = \Pr_{x^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(s, x) \wedge x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_4} \wedge s \leftarrow \text{Gen}_H} [H_s(x^*) = H_s(x) \wedge x^* \neq x]$$

, and let  $\varepsilon' = \Pr_{x^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(s, x) \wedge x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_4} \wedge s \leftarrow \text{Gen}'_H} [H_s(x^*) = H_s(x) \wedge x^* \neq x]$ . Consider the algorithm  $\mathcal{B}(s)$  which samples  $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_4}$  and  $x^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(s, x)$  and outputs 1 iff  $H_s(x^*) = H_s(x)$ . This algorithm is PPT, and  $\varepsilon' = \Pr[\mathcal{B}(\text{Gen}_H(\text{prg}(r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_0}))) = 1]$  and  $\varepsilon = \Pr[\mathcal{B}(\text{Gen}_H(r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^*)) = 1]$ . By the  $\text{prg}$  being a  $\delta$ -pseudo-random generator, it follows that  $|\varepsilon' - \varepsilon| \leq \delta$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** We can also prove security in the stronger model, where the leakage function  $h$  sees not only  $\text{sk}$ , but the randomness used by  $\text{Gen}$  to generate  $(\text{vk}, \text{sk})$ . In that case we need that the distribution on  $\text{ek}$  induced by sampling  $(\text{ek}, \text{dk})$  with  $\text{KeyGen}_\Gamma$ , the distribution of a  $\text{crs}$  sampled along with a trapdoor and that the distribution on  $s$  induced by sampling  $s \leftarrow \text{Gen}_H$  can all be sampled with invertible sampling. This is indeed the case for our concrete instantiation. The only problematic point is Lemma 2. Even if  $\text{Gen}_H(\{0, 1\}^*)$  has invertible sampling, it would be very surprising if  $\text{Gen}_H(\text{prg}(\{0, 1\}^{k_0}))$  has invertible sampling. So, if the probability of guessing a random  $s \leftarrow \text{Gen}_H$  is not independent of the input of  $H_s$ , we cannot generically add this property. One can circumvent this problem as in [9] and consider  $s$  as a public parameter of the scheme. This is modeled by sampling  $s$  in a parameter generation phase prior to the key generation phase and give  $s$  as input to all entities. This would in turn make  $s$  an input to the reduction (called  $\mathcal{B}_7$  in the appendix), circumventing the problem of having to guess  $s$ . We would get security when considering the class  $\mathcal{H}_{\text{ow}}(\ell(k))$  for  $k_S = k + l_2 + l_3 + l_4$ .

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