

# On the UC-(In)Security of PAKE Protocols in the Plain Model

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This document contains a proof that the PAKE protocol of Katz, Ostrovsky and Yung (2001) is not UC-secure.

## 1 UC-(In)Security of the KOY Protocol

### 1.1 Protocol Description

Jiayu: Insert the description of KOY (revised to fit the UC formality) here. Naman: I've made edits, clarified the scheme.

We provide a high-level description of the protocol along with a sketch of the security proof below. Let  $\mathbb{G}$  be an algebraic group in which DDH is believed to be hard and define  $\text{crs} := (g_1, g_2, h, c, d)$  to be uniformly sampled from  $\mathbb{G}^5$ ; we set this to be the common random string. Note that  $\text{crs}$  can be interpreted to be a degenerate Cramer-Shoup public key with an unknown secret key.

- User begins by generating a pair of keys  $(\text{VK}, \text{SK})$  for a one-time signature scheme and encrypts its password  $\text{pw}$  with label  $\text{VK}$  using the Cramer-Shoup public key embedded in the CRS. Let  $H$  be a collision-resistant hash function and  $r_1$  be the randomness used during encryption. The resulting ciphertext consists of four group elements  $\text{ct}_1 := (A, B, C, D) = (g_1^{r_1}, g_2^{r_1}, h^{r_1} \cdot \text{pw}, (cd^\alpha)^{r_1})$  where  $\alpha = H(\text{VK}, A, B, C)$ . User then sends  $\text{msg}_1 := (\text{VK}, \text{ct}_1)$  to Server. Note that  $A, B, C' = C/\text{pw}, D$  are all of the form  $g^{r_1}$  where  $g$  is some group element that Server can compute, so they also serve as a message in a Diffie-Hellman-like protocol.
- Upon receiving  $(\text{VK}, A, B, C, D)$ , the Server samples its ‘Diffie-Hellman exponents’  $(x_2, y_2, z_2, w_2)$ , and computes  $E = g_1^{x_2} g_2^{y_2} h^{z_2} (cd^\alpha)^{w_2}$ .<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, Server encrypts  $\text{pw}$  with label  $(\text{msg}_1, E)$  using Cramer-Shoup encryption as done by User in  $\text{msg}_1$ . Let  $r_2$  be the randomness used in encryption. The resulting ciphertext is  $\text{ct}_2 := (F, G, I, J) = (g_1^{r_2}, g_2^{r_2}, h^{r_2} \cdot \text{pw}, (cd^\beta)^{r_2})$ . Server sends  $\text{msg}_2 = (E, \text{ct}_2)$  to User.
- Symmetrically, User upon receiving  $(E, \text{ct}_2)$  samples its own ‘Diffie-Hellman exponents’  $(x_1, y_1, z_1, w_1)$  and computes  $K = g_1^{x_1} g_2^{y_1} h^{z_1} (cd^\beta)^{w_1}$ . It signs the protocol transcript  $\text{st} = \text{Sign}_{\text{SK}}(\text{msg}_1 | \text{msg}_2 | K)$ , and sends  $\text{msg}_3 = (K, \text{st})$  to the server.
- Server verifies the signature  $\text{st}$  and aborts if it is invalid. Otherwise the session key  $\text{sk}$  is defined as the product of

$$X_1 = E^{r_1} = A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (C/\text{pw})^{z_2} D^{w_2}$$

and

$$X_2 = K^{r_2} = F^{x_1} G^{y_1} (I/\text{pw})^{z_1} J^{w_1}$$

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<sup>1</sup>Note that  $\alpha = H(\text{VK} | A | B | C)$ , so Server must wait for User’s message before proceeding.

User can compute  $X_1$  as  $E^{r_1}$  and  $X_2$  as  $F^{x_1}G^{y_1}(I/\text{pw})^{z_1}J^{w_1}$ , whereas Server can compute  $X_1$  as  $K^{r_2}$  and  $X_2$  as  $F^{x_1}G^{y_1}(I/\text{pw})^{z_1}J^{w_1}$ .

**Security.** To perform authentication, User and Server need to (implicitly) prove to each other that they know  $\text{pw}$ . This is achieved as follows. Note that  $X_1 = E^{r_1} = A^{x_2}B^{y_2}(C/\text{pw})^{z_2}D^{w_2}$  has the following property: given  $E$  (but not  $x_2, y_2, z_2, w_2$ ), if  $A|B|C|D$  is a valid encryption of  $\text{pw}$ , then knowing the randomness  $r_1$  is sufficient for computing  $X_1$ ; otherwise  $X_1$  is a uniformly random group element.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, an adversarial user that does not know  $\text{pw}$ , is not able to come up with a valid  $A|B|C|D$ , so  $X_1$  is uniformly random in the adversary’s view (and so is  $\text{sk} = X_1X_2$ ); a symmetric argument can be made for an adversarial server. In the man-in-the-middle setting, an adversary can attempt to generate a valid ciphertext after seeing another valid ciphertext from the honest user/server, so we need the encryption scheme to be non-malleable.

The one-time signature scheme effectively forces the adversary to pass  $\text{msg}_2$  and  $\text{msg}_3$  without modification as long as it passes  $\text{msg}_1$ . This is to prevent a man-in-the-middle adversary from gaining information by passing all ciphertexts but modifying the rest of the messages. Specifically, (if the signature scheme is removed) consider an adversary that passes  $\text{msg}_1 = A|B|C|D$ , changes  $\text{msg}_2 = E|F|G|I|J$  to  $E^{\frac{1}{2}}|F|G|I|J$ , and changes  $\text{msg}_3 = K$  to  $K^2$ ; this would cause  $\text{sk}_S = \text{sk}_U^2$ . In other words, the adversary (that does not know the password) causes the two parties’ session keys to be unequal but correlated, which is not allowed by the security of PAKE. Furthermore, to prevent the adversary from plugging in its own verification key (and thus knowing the corresponding secret key),  $\text{VK}$  is included in the hash that produces  $\alpha$ . In this way if the adversary changes  $\text{VK}$  while keeping the ciphertext  $A|B|C|D$ , the ciphertext would become invalid.

## 1.2 Technical Overview

In this section, we provide a high-level explanation of why the KOY protocol is insecure in the UC framework, and how the AGM circumvents the difficulty for the UC simulator.

**UC-insecurity of KOY.** Our attack relies on an adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  that completely disregards the presence of Server and instead interacts with User while executing Server’s algorithm on its own. In particular, once the protocol is initiated by User,  $\mathcal{A}$  assumes the role of the server (discarding the actual server in the process, which plays no part in the protocol) and receives  $\text{msg}_1 = \text{VK}|A|B|C|D$ . After this,  $\mathcal{A}$  runs the server’s algorithm on User’s password  $\text{pw}$  (i.e., we assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  makes a correct password guess) and computes  $\text{msg}_2 = E|F|G|I|J$ . User then runs its session-key generating algorithm and outputs its session key  $\text{sk} = E^{r_1}F^{x_1}G^{y_1}(I/\text{pw})^{z_1}J^{w_1}$ . At this point,  $\mathcal{A}$  (and  $\mathcal{Z}$ ) have all the information they need to run the server’s session-key generating algorithm locally, which computes a session key equal to  $\text{sk}$  generated by User.

To see why a simulator  $\mathcal{S}$  cannot simulate this adversary, we attempt an ideal-world execution and pinpoint where it fails. Since  $\mathcal{S}$  is allowed to choose  $\text{crs} = (g_1, g_2, h, c, d)$ , it can sample  $g_1$  at random and set  $h$  such that  $h = g_1^\ell$  — in other words,  $\mathcal{S}$  chooses the “CRS trapdoor”  $\ell = \log_{g_1} h$ . After receiving the `NewSession` command from  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{PAKE}}$ ,  $\mathcal{S}$  must simulate User’s first message  $\text{msg}_1$ . Since  $\mathcal{S}$  does not know the password, at this point it must (effectively) guess some  $\text{pw}'$  at random; that is, in  $\text{msg}_1$ ,  $C = h^{r_1} \cdot \text{pw}'$  where  $\text{pw}'$  can be no better than a random password sampled from the dictionary. ( $C$  is indistinguishable from the correct value due to the security of Cramer–Shoup encryption.) After  $\mathcal{Z}$  responds with  $\text{msg}_2 = E|F|G|I|J$ , since  $F = g_1^{r_2}$  and  $I = h^{r_2} \cdot \text{pw}$ ,  $\mathcal{S}$  can extract  $\text{pw}$  as  $I/F^\ell$ . Once this has been done,  $\mathcal{S}$  can send a `TestPwd` command to  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{PAKE}}$  on the correct  $\text{pw}$ ;  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{PAKE}}$  would mark the User session compromised and thus allow  $\mathcal{S}$  to choose User’s session key  $\text{sk}$  (which has to be consistent with the session key User computes in the real world).<sup>3</sup> This is where the game-based security and UC-security

<sup>2</sup>Using the terminology of SPHF:  $(x_2, y_2, z_2, w_2)$  is the hash key and  $E$  is the corresponding projection key; the function is defined as  $\text{Hash}_{(x_2, y_2, z_2, w_2)}(m) = A^{x_2}B^{y_2}(C/m)^{z_2}D^{w_2}$ .

<sup>3</sup>A `TestPwd` must be run, since we require that  $\text{msg}_1$  and  $\text{msg}_2$  together with the randomness of the User and  $\mathcal{A}$  together

of PAKE diverge: in game-based security, all security guarantees are considered lost (and the simulation of the game can stop) once the adversary guesses the correct password; whereas in UC-security the simulation has to continue. The problem here is that *even knowing the correct password pw, S still cannot determine what sk should be.*

Recall that sk is the product of

$$X_1 = E^{r_1} = A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (C/\text{pw})^{z_2} D^{w_2}$$

and

$$X_2 = K^{r_2} = F^{x_1} G^{y_1} (I/\text{pw})^{z_1} J^{w_1}$$

Computing  $X_2$  is not a problem for  $\mathcal{S}$ , since  $\text{msg}_2 = E|F|G|I|J$  is provided to  $\mathcal{S}$  directly from the environment;  $\mathcal{S}$  chose  $x_1, y_1, z_1, w_1$  on its own; and  $\mathcal{S}$  has extracted pw. However,  $\mathcal{S}$  is not able to compute  $X_1$ . At first glance, computing  $X_1 = E^{r_1}$  might appear feasible as  $\mathcal{S}$  received  $E$  as part of  $\text{msg}_2$  and sampled  $r_1$  before sending  $\text{msg}_1$ . However, the problem is that *the password guess pw' that S uses while generating msg<sub>1</sub> is likely incorrect*; as a result,  $E^{r_1}$  that  $\mathcal{S}$  computes is actually equal to  $A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (C/\text{pw}')^{z_2} D^{w_2}$ , whereas the correct value should be  $A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (C/\text{pw})^{z_2} D^{w_2}$ . This means that  $\mathcal{S}$  must know  $(\text{pw}/\text{pw}')^{z_2}$  in order to compute the correct sk, which is infeasible unless  $\text{pw}' = \text{pw}$  (whose probability is  $1/|\mathcal{D}|$ ).

**Simulating the session key in AGM.** Our next critical observation is that the session key in the above attack can be simulated if we resort to the AGM, as the simulator  $\mathcal{S}$  can extract  $x_2, y_2, z_2, w_2$  from an algebraic environment. In more detail, suppose  $\mathcal{Z}$  runs the above attack and sends  $E$  as part of  $\text{msg}_2$ . At this point all group elements that  $\mathcal{Z}$  has seen are  $g_1, g_2, h, c, d$  from  $\text{crs}$ ,  $A, B, C, D$  from  $\text{msg}_1$ , and pw. An algebraic  $\mathcal{Z}$  must “explain” how  $E$  is computed; for now let’s ignore  $A, B, C, D, \text{pw}$  and assume  $\mathcal{Z}$  computes

$$E = g_1^{x_2} g_2^{y_2} h^{z_2} (cd^\alpha)^{w_2}$$

In the real world User would compute  $X_1 = E^{r_1}$ , which is equal to  $A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (C/\text{pw})^{z_2} D^{w_2}$ . In the ideal world, as explained above,  $\mathcal{S}$  cannot compute  $X_1$  as  $E^{r_1}$  since it chose the wrong pw' with high probability while generating  $A, B, C, D$ ; however, after extracting the correct pw from  $\text{msg}_2$ ,  $\mathcal{S}$  can still compute  $X_1$  as  $A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (C/\text{pw})^{z_2} D^{w_2}$ , since now it sees the algebraic coefficients  $x_2, y_2, z_2, w_2$  from  $\mathcal{Z}$ . In this way  $\mathcal{S}$  generates  $X_1$  that is indistinguishable from the real world.

In the general case, suppose  $\mathcal{Z}$  computes

$$E = g_1^{x_2} g_2^{y_2} h^{z_2} c^{w_2} d^{v_2} A^{x'_2} B^{y'_2} C^{z'_2} D^{w'_2} \text{pw}^{p_2}$$

In the real world User would compute

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &= E^{r_1} \\ &= g_1^{r_1 x_2} g_2^{r_1 y_2} h^{r_1 z_2} c^{r_1 w_2} d^{r_1 v_2} A^{r_1 x'_2} B^{r_1 y'_2} C^{r_1 z'_2} D^{r_1 w'_2} \text{pw}^{r_1 p_2} \\ &= g_1^{r_1 x_2} g_2^{r_1 y_2} \left( \frac{C}{\text{pw}} \right)^{z_2} c^{r_1 w_2} d^{r_1 v_2} A^{r_1 x'_2} B^{r_1 y'_2} C^{r_1 z'_2} D^{r_1 w'_2} \text{pw}^{r_1 p_2} \end{aligned}$$

Again, in the ideal world  $\mathcal{S}$  can compute  $X_1$  according to the last equation; the key point is that given  $A|B|C|D$ , the only place where the “wrong” password pw' is used lies in  $h$ , so we only need to “correct”  $h^{r_1}$  from  $C/\text{pw}'$  to  $C/\text{pw}$ . A difference is that now the expression of  $X_1$  involves the Cramer-Shoup randomness  $r_1$ , which is not a problem for  $\mathcal{S}$  as  $\mathcal{S}$  chose  $r_1$  itself while sending  $\text{msg}_1$ . (Of course, we have  $A = g_1^{r_1}$ , so the  $g_1^{r_1 x_2} A^{r_1 x'_2}$  part can be rewritten as  $A^{x_2 + r_1 x'_2}$ , and so on. But this simplification is not necessary.)

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determine sk; allowing the simulation to proceed without a TestPwd would result in  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{PAKE}}$  outputting a uniformly random key.

**Further subtleties in UC.** As we have just seen, one critical difference between game-based security and UC-security is that in UC indistinguishability between the real view and the simulated view must remain *even when the environment sees the key of a successfully attacked session*, whereas in the game-based setting the adversary simply wins (and the simulator can “give up” on simulating the session key) once the attack on a session is successful. While the session key itself can be simulated in the AGM, this poses another potential issue that is more subtle: after seeing the session key, the environment might go back and check the validity of previous protocol messages using this information.

In more detail, assume again that the adversary interacts with User by running Server’s algorithm on User’s password  $\text{pw}$ . When User’s session completes, the environment  $\mathcal{Z}$  sees User’s session key  $\text{sk}_U = X_1 X_2$  and the last message  $\text{msg}_3 = K|\sigma$ . Since  $\mathcal{Z}$  can compute  $X_2$  as  $K^{r_2}$  (since  $r_2$  is chosen by  $\mathcal{Z}$  itself), it can recover  $X_1 = E^{r_1}$  (where  $r_1$  is the randomness used in  $\text{msg}_1$ ). Recall that in the ideal world the Cramer–Shoup ciphertext  $A|B|C|D$  generated by the simulator  $\mathcal{S}$  is an encryption of some  $\text{pw}'$  that is unlikely to be the “correct”  $\text{pw}$ , so  $\mathcal{Z}$  must not be able to detect this fact even after seeing  $E^{r_1}$ . In other words, (very roughly) *Cramer–Shoup must be secure even if the adversary sees  $E^{r_1}$  for some  $E$  of its choice*.

Below we analyze two simple attacks using this strategy:

1. Say  $\mathcal{Z}$  chooses  $E = A = g_1^{r_1}$ ; then  $E^{r_1} = g_1^{r_1^2}$ . If 2-DL is easy in the group<sup>4</sup>, then  $\mathcal{Z}$  can recover  $r_1$  after User’s session completes, and check if  $C = h^{r_1} \cdot \text{pw}$ . In the real world this equation holds, whereas in the ideal world it does not if  $\mathcal{S}$  chose the “wrong”  $\text{pw}' \neq \text{pw}$  to encrypt while simulating  $\text{msg}_1$ . In fact, it seems that for the KOY protocol to be UC-AGM-secure, we need the **Jiayu: FILL IN** assumption. **Jiayu: I think the assumption should be Decisional Square Diffie–Hellman (DSDH)**, which says that given  $g^x$ , it is hard to distinguish  $g^{x^2}$  from random. Note that this implies 2-DL (given  $(g^x, Y)$  where  $Y$  is either  $g^{x^2}$  or random, the DSDH solver can feed  $(g^x, Y)$  to the 2-DL solver and distinguish by observing whether the 2-DL solver wins or not).
2. Say  $\mathcal{Z}$  chooses  $E = c$ ; then  $E^{r_1} = c^{r_1}$ . But Cramer–Shoup is obviously *not* CCA-secure if the adversary additionally sees  $c^{r_1}$ . What saves us here is that  $\mathcal{Z}$  sees  $E^{r_1}$  *only at the end of User’s session*. Indeed, the reduction  $\mathcal{R}$  to the security of Cramer–Shoup roughly works as follows:
  - (a)  $\mathcal{R}$  embeds the challenge ciphertext as  $\text{msg}_1$ , User’s first message intercepted by  $\mathcal{A}$ ;
  - (b) When  $\mathcal{A}$  sends  $\text{msg}_1^*$  to Server and  $\text{msg}_2^*$  to User,  $\mathcal{R}$  needs to query the decryption oracle to extract the password guesses contained in these two messages;
  - (c) Finally, if the password guess in  $\text{msg}_2^*$  is correct,  $\mathcal{R}$  needs to simulate  $\text{sk}_U$ . (This step is not needed in the game-based proof.)<sup>5</sup>

$c^{r_1}$  is needed only in step (c), which happens after all decryption oracle queries have been made. Therefore, we only need Cramer–Shoup to remain CCA-secure if the adversary *is restricted to making all decryption oracle queries before learning  $c^{r_1}$* . We will show that Cramer–Shoup indeed satisfies this property in **Jiayu: FILL IN** **Jiayu: I think this should work, but it needs to be double checked**

By inspecting the game-based security proof of the KOY protocol, one can see that the above attacks are essentially the only scenarios where the UC-security might be broken, and the security argument for all other cases (including the adversary sending a message that contains an incorrect password guess, or modifying the signature) is essentially identical to the game-based proof. **Jiayu: I hope so...**

<sup>4</sup>The 2-DL problem is: given  $(g^x, g^{x^2})$  for  $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ , compute  $x$ . We do not know the relative hardness between 2-DL and DDH, and it has been shown that 2-DL and CDH are separate in the AGM [?].

<sup>5</sup>We omit the remaining steps which are to simulate  $\text{msg}_3$ , and on  $\text{msg}_3^*$  simulate Server’s session key  $\text{sk}_S$ , as they are inconsequential to our main point.

### 1.3 Proof of UC-Insecurity

**Theorem 1.1.** *Assuming the hardness of fixed-CDH, the protocol of [KOY] does not UC-realize  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{pake}}$  in the  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{crs}}$ -hybrid model.*

*Proof.* Consider the environment  $\mathcal{Z}$  in Figure 1 and the dummy adversary. It follows from the correctness of the protocol that in the real-world protocol execution  $\mathcal{Z}$  always outputs 1, since the algorithm of  $\mathcal{Z}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  is the same as that of an honest server. At a high level, we will show that any simulator that successfully simulates the protocol against  $\mathcal{Z}$  in the ideal world can be used to solve arbitrary instances of fixed-CDH.

**Environment  $\mathcal{Z}$ :**

0.  $\mathcal{Z}$  receives the CRS  $(g_1, g_2, h, c, d)$ .
1.  $\mathcal{Z}$  selects  $\text{pw} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{PW}$ , where  $\mathcal{PW} \subseteq \mathbb{G}$  is the password dictionary. It then sends  $(\text{NewSession}, \text{sid}, \text{User}, \text{Server}, \text{pw})$  to User.
2.  $\mathcal{Z}$  receives  $\text{msg}_1 = \text{sid}|\text{VK}|A|B|C|D$  from  $\mathcal{A}$  and samples  $x_2, y_2, z_2, w_2, r_2 \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ . It then sets

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha' &:= H(A|B|C|D) \\ E &:= g_1^{x_2} g_2^{y_2} h^{z_2} (cd^{\alpha'})^{w_2} \\ F &:= g_1^{r_2} \\ G &:= g_2^{r_2} \\ I &:= h^{r_2} \cdot \text{pw} \\ \beta &:= H(\text{msg}_1|E|F|G|I) \\ J &:= (cd^\beta)^{w_2}\end{aligned}$$

and instructs  $\mathcal{A}$  to send  $\text{msg}_2 := \text{sid}|E|F|G|I|J$  to User.

3.  $\mathcal{Z}$  receives  $\text{msg}_3 = \text{sid}|K|\sigma$  from  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $(\text{sid}, \text{sk})$  from User.
4.  $\mathcal{Z}$  sets  $C' := C/\text{pw}$  and then checks if  $\text{Vrfy}_{\text{VK}}(\text{msg}_1|\text{msg}_2|K, \sigma) = 1$ . If yes, it computes  $\text{sk}_S := A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (C')^{z_2} D^{w_2} K^{r_2}$  and outputs 1 if  $\text{sk}_S = \text{sk}$ . If either of the two checks fails, it outputs 0.

Figure 1: Our Setup.

Assume that there exists a negligible function  $\varepsilon := \varepsilon(\lambda)$  such that there exists a “successful” simulator  $\mathcal{S}$  for which  $\mathcal{Z}$  outputs 1 with probability  $1 - \varepsilon$  in the ideal world. First, assume that CDH is hard over  $(\mathbb{G}, p, h)$ . Consider reduction  $\mathcal{R}$  that runs the simulator  $\mathcal{S}$  as follows (note that  $\mathcal{R}$  plays the role of the environment  $\mathcal{Z}$ , the PAKE functionality  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{PAKE}}$ , and the dummy parties User and Server combined):

0.  $\mathcal{R}$  receives  $\text{crs} = (g_1, g_2, h, c, d)$  from  $\mathcal{S}$ , outputs  $h$  to its challenger, and receives  $(h^a, h^b)$  where  $a, b \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_p$ .
1.  $\mathcal{R}$  sends  $(\text{NewSession}, \text{sid}, \text{User}, \text{Server})$  to  $\mathcal{S}$ .
2.  $\mathcal{R}$  waits to receive  $\text{msg}_1 = \text{sid}|\text{VK}|A|B|C|D$  in response (as the first message from User to Server).

It then sets  $\text{pw} := C/h^b$  and samples  $x_2, y_2, w_2, r_2 \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ , setting

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha' &:= H(PIDS|A|B|C|D) \\ E &:= g_1^{x_2} g_2^{y_2} h^a (cd^{\alpha'})^{w_2} \\ F &:= g_1^{r_2} \\ G &:= g_2^{r_2} \\ I &:= h^{r_2} \cdot \text{pw} \\ \beta &:= H(\text{msg}_1|E|F|G|I) \\ J &:= (cd^\beta)^{w_2}\end{aligned}$$

i.e., the same computation as that of the honest server with the special choice of  $\text{pw} = C/h^b$  and  $z_2 = a$ , and sends  $\text{msg}_2 := \text{sid}|E|F|G|I|J$  to  $\mathcal{S}$ .

3.  $\mathcal{R}$  receives  $\text{msg}_3 = \text{sid}|K|\sigma$  (as the second message from User to Server) and  $(\text{sid}, \text{sk})$  from  $\mathcal{S}$  (as User's output to  $\mathcal{Z}$ ), and checks if  $\text{Vrfy}_{\text{VK}}(\text{msg}_1|\text{msg}_2|K, \sigma) = 1$ . If not,  $\mathcal{R}$  aborts. Otherwise it calculates

$$h' = \frac{\text{sk}}{A^{x_2} B^{y_2} D^{w_2} K^{r_2}}.$$

4.  $\mathcal{R}$  outputs  $h'$ .

Note that  $\mathcal{S}$ 's view while interacting with  $\mathcal{R}$  is identical to  $\mathcal{S}$ 's view in the ideal world with environment  $\mathcal{Z}$  in Figure 1; the difference is that  $\mathcal{Z}$  samples  $\text{pw}$  and  $z_2$  on its own, whereas  $\mathcal{R}$  sets  $\text{pw} = C/h^b$  and  $z_2 = a$  — which cannot be detected by  $\mathcal{S}$ . Let  $C' = C/\text{pw} = h^b$  and

$$\text{sk}_S = A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (C')^{z_2} D^{w_2} K^{r_2} = A^{x_2} B^{y_2} (h^b)^a D^{w_2} K^{r_2}$$

as what  $\mathcal{Z}$  would compute in its step 4;  $\mathcal{Z}$  outputs 1 if and only if  $\text{sk}_S = \text{sk}$ , so by our assumption on  $\mathcal{S}$ , in  $\mathcal{R}$ 's interaction with  $\mathcal{S}$ ,  $\text{sk}_S = \text{sk}$  with probability  $1 - \varepsilon$ . But this gives  $h' = h^{ab}$  with probability  $1 - \varepsilon$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{R}$  wins with probability  $1 - \varepsilon$ , contradicting the hardness of fixed-CDH.  $\square$

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Assumptions

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be an algorithm that on input  $1^\lambda$  uniformly samples from a sequence of group distributions  $(S_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}}$  of group distributions of the form  $\Gamma[\hat{\mathbb{G}}, \mathbb{G}, g, q] \in [S_\lambda]$ , where  $\hat{\mathbb{G}}$  is a finite multiplicative abelian group,  $\mathbb{G}$  is a prime-order subgroup,  $g$  is a generator of  $\mathbb{G}$  and  $q$  is the order of  $\mathbb{G}$ . We assume that group operations in  $\mathbb{G}$  can be done in (expected) polynomial time in  $\mathbb{G}$ , including exponentiation, selecting a random group element, and membership.

Note that a random group element can be chosen by selecting  $x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$  and computing  $g^x$ . We define  $\bar{\mathbb{G}}$  to be  $\mathbb{G} \setminus \{1\}$ ; since  $q$  is prime,  $\bar{\mathbb{G}}$  is the set of generators of  $\mathbb{G}$ . If  $x \xleftarrow{\$} \bar{\mathbb{G}}$ , then we obtain a random generator.

#### 2.1.1 The DDH Assumption

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be as above. We define for each  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  and for all  $\Gamma[\hat{\mathbb{G}}, \mathbb{G}, g, q] \in [S_\lambda]$  the sets

$$\text{RandDH}_{\lambda, \Gamma} := \{(g, g^x, g^y, g^z) : x, y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^*, z \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q\}$$

and

$$\text{DH}_{\lambda, \Gamma} := \{(g, g^x, g^y, g^{xy}) : x, y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^*\}.$$

Where  $\text{DH}_{\lambda,\Gamma}$  is the set of Diffie-Hellman Triples. For any probabilistic polynomial-time distinguishing algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  and for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , we define the DDH advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  against  $\mathcal{G}$  at  $\lambda$  given  $\Gamma$  as

$$\text{AdvDDH}_{\mathcal{G},\mathcal{A}}(\lambda|\Gamma) = \left| \Pr[\mathcal{A}(1^\lambda, \Gamma, \rho) = 1 : \rho \xleftarrow{\$} \text{RandDH}_{\lambda,\Gamma}] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(1^\lambda, \Gamma, \rho) = 1 : \rho \xleftarrow{\$} \text{DH}_{\lambda,\Gamma}] \right|$$

The Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) assumption for  $\mathcal{G}$  states that for every probabilistic, polynomial-time algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$ , there exists some negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ ,

$$\text{AdvDDH}_{\mathcal{G},\mathcal{A}}(\lambda|\Gamma) \leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

where  $\Gamma \xleftarrow{\$} [S_\lambda]$ .

### 2.1.2 The SDH Assumption

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be as above. We define for each  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  and for all  $\Gamma[\hat{\mathbb{G}}, \mathbb{G}, g, q] \in [S_\lambda]$  the sets

$$\text{RandSDH}_{\lambda,\Gamma} := \{(g, g^x, g^y) : x, y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^*\}$$

and

$$\text{SDH}_{\lambda,\Gamma} := \{(g, g^x, g^{x^2}) : x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^*\}.$$

Where  $\text{SDH}_{\lambda,\Gamma}$  is the set of Square Diffie-Hellman Triples. For any probabilistic polynomial-time distinguishing algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  and for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , we define the SDH advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  against  $\mathcal{G}$  at  $\lambda$  given  $\Gamma$  as

$$\text{AdvSDH}_{\mathcal{G},\mathcal{A}}(\lambda|\Gamma) = \left| \Pr[\mathcal{A}(1^\lambda, \Gamma, \rho) = 1 : \rho \xleftarrow{\$} \text{RandSDH}_{\lambda,\Gamma}] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(1^\lambda, \Gamma, \rho) = 1 : \rho \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SDH}_{\lambda,\Gamma}] \right|$$

The Square Diffie-Hellman (DDH) assumption for  $\mathcal{G}$  states that for every probabilistic, polynomial-time algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$ , there exists some negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ ,

$$\text{AdvSDH}_{\mathcal{G},\mathcal{A}}(\lambda|\Gamma) \leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

where  $\Gamma \xleftarrow{\$} [S_\lambda]$ .

## 2.2 Cramer-Shoup Encryption Scheme

## References

- [CS03] Ronald Cramer and Victor Shoup. Design and analysis of practical public-key encryption schemes secure against adaptive chosen ciphertext attack. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 33(1):167–226, 2003.

**Key Generation:** On input  $1^\lambda$  from  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , compute

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma[\hat{\mathbb{G}}, \mathbb{G}, g, q] &\xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{G}(1^\lambda); \text{hk} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{HF.Keyspace}_{\lambda, \Gamma} \\ w &\xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^*; x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z_1, z_2 \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q \\ g_1 &\leftarrow g; g_2 \leftarrow g^w; c = g_1^{x_1} g_2^{x_2}; d \leftarrow g_1^{y_1} g_2^{y_2}; h \leftarrow g_1^{z_1} g_2^{z_2} \end{aligned}$$

and output the public key

$$\text{PK} = (\Gamma, \text{hk}, g_1, g_2, c, d, h)$$

and the secret key

$$\text{SK} = (\Gamma, \text{hk}, x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z_1, z_2).$$

**Encryption:** Given  $1^\lambda$  for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , a public key

$$\text{PK} = (\Gamma, \text{hk}, g_1, g_2, c, d, h) \in [\mathcal{G}_\lambda] \times [\text{HF.Keyspace}_{\lambda, \Gamma}] \times \mathbb{G}^4,$$

a message  $m \in G$  and a label  $\text{label}$ , compute

$$\begin{aligned} \text{E1: } r &\xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q; \\ \text{E2: } u_1 &\xleftarrow{\$} g_1^r; \\ \text{E3: } u_2 &\xleftarrow{\$} g_2^r; \\ \text{E4: } e' &\leftarrow h^r; \\ \text{E5: } e &\leftarrow e' \cdot m; \\ \text{E6: } \alpha &\leftarrow \text{HF}_{\text{hk}}^{\lambda, \Gamma}(\text{label}, u_1, u_2, e); \\ \text{E7: } v &\leftarrow (cd^\alpha)^r; \end{aligned}$$

and output the ciphertext  $\psi = (u_1, u_2, e, v)$ .

**Decryption:** Given  $1^\lambda$  for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , a secret key

$$\text{SK} = (\Gamma, \text{hk}, x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z_1, z_2) \in [\mathcal{G}_\lambda] \times [\text{HF.Keyspace}_{\lambda, \Gamma}] \times \mathbb{Z}_q^6,$$

along with a ciphertext  $\psi$  and a label  $\text{label}$ , do the following.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{D1: } &\text{Parse } \psi \text{ as a 4-tuple } (u_1, u_2, e, v) \in \mathbb{G}^4, \text{ output reject and halt if } \psi \text{ is not of this form.} \\ \text{D2: } &\text{Test if } u_1, u_2 \text{ and } e \text{ belong to } \mathbb{G}; \text{ output reject and halt if this is not the case.} \\ \text{D3: } &\text{Compute } v' \leftarrow \text{HF}_{\text{hk}}^{\lambda, \Gamma}(\text{label}, u_1, u_2, e). \\ \text{D4: } &\text{Test if } v = u_1^{x_1 + y_1 \alpha} u_2^{x_2 + y_2 \alpha}; \text{ output reject and halt if this is not the case.} \\ \text{D5: } &\text{Compute } e' = u_1^{z_1} u_2^{z_2}. \\ \text{D6: } &\text{Compute } m \leftarrow e \cdot e'^{-1} \text{ and output } m. \end{aligned}$$

Figure 2: The Cramer-Shoup Encryption Scheme with Labels.

## A Security of the Cramer-Shoup Encryption Scheme with Delayed Reveal of the Secret Key

In this section we prove the delayed-reveal-CCA security of the Cramer-Shoup Cryptosystem. We first start by formally defining the delayed-reveal-CCA game.



## A.1 Security Against Delayed-Reveal Chosen Ciphertext Attack

**Stage 1:** The adversary queries a *key generation oracle*. The key generation oracle computes  $(PK, SK) \leftarrow \text{Enc.KeyGen}$  and responds with  $PK$ .

**Stage 2:** The adversary makes a sequence of calls to a decryption oracle. For each decryption oracle query, the adversary submits a ciphertext  $\psi$ , and the decryption oracle responds with  $\text{PKE.dec}(1^\lambda, SK, \psi)$ .

**Stage 3:** The adversary submits two messages  $m_0, m_1 \in \text{PKE.MsgSpace}_{\lambda, PK}$  to an encryption oracle. We require that  $|m_0| = |m_1|$ .

On input  $(m_0, m_1)$ , the encryption oracle computes

$$\sigma \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}; \psi^* \xleftarrow{\$} \text{PKE.Enc}(1^\lambda, \text{PKE}, m_\sigma)$$

and responds with the target ciphertext  $\sigma^*$ .

**Stage 4:** The adversary continues to make calls to the decryption oracle, subject only to the restriction that a submitted ciphertext  $\psi$  is not identical to  $\psi^*$ .

**Stage 5:** The adversary submits a halt statement to an *auxilliary oracle*, which responds with some auxiliary information  $\mathbf{aux}$ . From this point on the adversary no longer has access to the decryption oracle, and is not able to make any further queries.

**Stage 6:** The adversary outputs  $\hat{\sigma} \in \{0, 1\}$ .

Figure 3: The Delayed-Reveal-CCA game.

We define the delayed-reveal-CCA advantage with auxiliary information  $\mathbf{aux}$  of the adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  against  $\text{PKE}$  at  $\lambda$ , denoted as  $\text{AdvDRCCA}(\lambda)$  to be  $|\Pr[\sigma = \hat{\sigma}] - 1/2|$  in the above attack game in Fig. 3 with corresponding value of  $\mathbf{aux}$ . Informally, we say that a public-key cryptosystem is delayed-reveal-CCA secure with auxiliary information  $\mathbf{aux}$  if the probability that  $\sigma = \hat{\sigma}$  is negligible, ie. the adversary is able to correctly guess which message was encrypted with no more than negligible probability. This leads to the formal definition as below.

**Definition A.1** (Security Against Delayed-Reveal-Chosen Ciphertext Attack (DR-CCA)). *Let  $\text{PKE}$  be any public-key encryption scheme. We say that  $\text{PKE}$  is delayed-reveal-CCA secure with auxiliary information  $\mathbf{aux}$  if there exists some negligible function such that for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ ,*

$$\text{AdvDRCCA}(\lambda) \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

With this in hand, we can now formally state the theorem.

**Theorem A.1.** *If the DDH and the SDH assumptions hold for  $\mathbb{G}$  and the hash function  $H$  is Target Collision-Resistant, then the Cramer-Shoup Encryption Scheme with Labels (Fig. 2) is delayed-reveal-CCA secure with auxiliary information  $\mathbf{aux} = (x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, g_1^{r^2}, g_2^{r^2})$ .*

## A.2 Analysis of DR-CCA Security of the Cramer-Shoup Encryption Scheme

### A.2.1 Overview

Our argument proceeds very closely to the proof of the CCA-security of the Cramer-Shoup encryption scheme outlined in Section 6.2 of [CS03]. The argument follows a series of games starting at game  $\mathbf{G}_0$ , which corresponds to the actual attack, and ending at  $\mathbf{G}_8$ , which is a game in which the ciphertext returned to the adversary is completely independent of the hidden bit  $\sigma$ . In each game,  $\sigma$  takes on

identical values. We now define a few helpful variables to quantify the adversary's advantage in each game. Let  $T_i$  be the event in game  $\mathbf{G}_i$  that  $\hat{\sigma} = \sigma$ . We will show for each game that  $|\Pr[T_{i-1}] - \Pr[T_i]|$  is negligible. Game  $\mathbf{G}_8$ , which is completely independent of  $\sigma$ , naturally has probability  $\Pr[T_8] = 1/2$ , because in this game the adversary can do no better than a coin toss. We also introduce the variable  $\text{AdvDRCCA}_i(\lambda)$  to represent the *advantage* of the adversary in game  $\mathbf{G}_i$ , which is defined as  $|\Pr[T_i] - 1/2|$ . Ultimately our goal is to show that  $\text{AdvDRCCA}_0(\lambda) \leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$ .

The probability is taken over the following mutually independent random variables:

1. The internal coin tosses of  $\mathcal{A}$ .
2. The values  $\text{hk}, w, x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z_1, z_2$  generated independently by the key generation algorithm.
3. The values  $\sigma \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  which are generated by the encryption oracle.

Before continuing formally, we outline a brief sketch of each of the games.

- In game  $\mathbf{G}_1$  we make some technical changes to the encryption algorithm which have no effect on the adversary's view.
- Game 2 sets the  $(g_1^{r^2}, g_2^{r^2})$  as an output of the encryption oracle. Note that this can only increase the power of the adversary, as the adversary is also allowed to make decryption queries that involve  $(g_1^{r^2}, g_2^{r^2})$ . It follows that  $|\Pr[T_1] - 1/2| \leq |\Pr[T_2] - 1/2|$ .
- Game 3 replaces  $g_i^{r^2}$  with random values, which follows from SDH.
- Game 4 is Game 2.
- Game 5 is Game 3.
- Game 6 is Game 4. The argument in lemma 6 holds even if  $X$  is completely public, ie. it only requires  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  to be uniformly and randomly distributed (and hence 'unknown'). This is implicit in lemma 6 – we just need to point it out.
- Game 7 is Game 5. The arguments in lemmas 7 and 8 hold if certain values of  $X$  are unknown, but these values only need to be unknown at the time of the decryption oracle query, which is true. Hence, the probability that a 'bad' decryption oracle query is still negligible, and both the lemmas follow (relatively) unchanged.

This completes a description of the games.

### A.2.2 Notation

Before we proceed to the full proof, we describe some helpful notation. Most of this notation is borrowed from [CS03]. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be the DR-CCA adversary. We set the security parameter to be  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  and the group description  $\Gamma[\hat{\mathbb{G}}, \mathbb{G}, g, q] \in [S_\lambda]$ .

Suppose that the public key is  $(\Gamma, \text{hk}, g_1, g_2, c, d, h)$  and that the secret key is  $(\Gamma, \text{hk}, x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z_1, z_2)$ . Let  $w := \log_g g_2$  and define  $x, y$  and  $z$  as follows:

$$x := x_1 + x_2 w, y := y_1 + y_2 w, z := z_1 + z_2 w.$$

In particular,  $x = \log_g c$ ,  $y = \log_g d$  and  $z = \log_g h$ .

When we deal with ciphertext  $\psi$ , we also define the following values:

- $u_1, u_2, e', e, v \in \mathbb{G}$ , where  $\psi = (u_1, u_2, e, v)$ , with  $h = u_1^{z_1} u_2^{z_2}$ .
- $r, \hat{r}, \alpha, r_e = \log_g e, r_v = \log_g d$ , and  $t = x_1 r + y_1 r \alpha + x_2 \hat{r} w + y_2 \hat{r} \alpha w$ .

We will also deal with the target ciphertext  $\psi^*$ . When dealing with this particular ciphertext, we denote each of the variables with a  $*$ , to obtain  $u_1^*, u_2^*, e'^*, e^*, v^*, r^*, \hat{r}^*, \alpha^*, r_e^*, r_v^*, t^*$ .

### A.2.3 Proof of Theorem A.1

We recall the following lemma from [CS03].

**Lemma A.1.** *Let  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$  and  $F$  be events defined on some probability space. Suppose that the event  $U_1 \wedge \neg F$  occurs iff  $U_2 \wedge \neg F$  occurs. Then  $|\Pr[U_1] - \Pr[U_2]| \leq \Pr[F]$ .*

We now proceed to describe the games in detail. Game  $\mathbf{G}_0$  is the original attack game.

**Game  $\mathbf{G}_1$ .** This game is the same as  $\mathbf{G}_0$  of [CS03].

We modify game  $\mathbf{G}_0$  to obtain the new game, which is identical except for a small modification to the encryption oracle. Instead of using the encryption algorithm as given to compute the target ciphertext  $\psi^*$ , we use a modified encryption algorithm, in which the steps **E4** and **E7** are replaced by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E4}' : e' &\leftarrow u_1^{z_1} u_2^{z_1}; \\ \mathbf{E7}' : v &\leftarrow u_1^{x_1 + y_1 \alpha} u_2^{x_2 + y_2 \alpha}. \end{aligned}$$

These changes are purely conceptual and the values of  $e'^*$  and  $v^*$  are exactly the same in both games. It follows that

$$\Pr[T_0] = \Pr[T_1].$$

**Game  $\mathbf{G}_2$ .** This is our first new game. This game is identical to  $\mathbf{G}_1$  with the following modification.

We modify the *encryption* oracle in Stage 3 such that along with a ciphertext  $\sigma^*$ , it also outputs the *auxiliary information*  $\text{aux}_1 = (g_1^{r_2}, g_2^{r_2}) = (u_1^{*r}, u_2^{*r})$ . Furthermore, we also modify the *auxiliary* oracle such that it no longer outputs the previous string, instead outputting only  $\text{aux}_2 = (x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2)$ .

Our analysis of this game is simple. Note that by providing the adversary the values  $(g_1^{r_2}, g_2^{r_2})$  before it can no longer make decryption oracle queries, we can only increase the power (and hence the advantage) of the adversary. It follows that  $\text{AdvDRCCA}_1(\lambda) \leq \text{AdvDRCCA}_2(\lambda)$ . Rephrasing, we can see that

$$|\Pr[T_1] - 1/2| \leq |\Pr[T_2] - 1/2|$$

and hence it is enough to show that  $|\Pr[T_2] - 1/2| \leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$ . The assertion will follow immediately.

**Game  $\mathbf{G}_3$ .** In this game we again modify the encryption oracle. Instead of outputting the ciphertext  $(\psi^*, \text{aux}_1) = ((u_1^*, u_2^*, e^*, v^*), (g_1^{r_2}, g_2^{r_2}))$ , the oracle samples a uniform  $s$  from  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  and outputs  $(\psi^*, \text{aux}_1) = ((u_1^*, u_2^*, e^*, v^*), (g_1^s, g_2^s))$ .

Note that the only difference between the games  $\mathbf{G}_2$  and  $\mathbf{G}_3$  is that the tuple  $(g_1, u_1, \text{aux}_1[0])$  is a uniformly distributed tuple from  $\text{SDH}_{\lambda, \Gamma}$  in  $\mathbf{G}_2$  while it is a uniformly distributed tuple from  $\text{RandSDH}_{\lambda, \Gamma}$  in  $\mathbf{G}_3$ . It is thus immediately clear that the indistinguishability of the two games follows from the hardness of SDH. More specifically, we show the following.

**Lemma A.2.** *There exists some polynomial-time probabilistic algorithm  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}$  such that*

$$|\Pr[T_3] - \Pr[T_2]| \leq \text{AdvSDH}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}, \mathcal{G}}(\lambda | \Gamma).$$

*Proof.* We will describe  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}$  in detail. The algorithm takes in as input  $1^\lambda$ , a group description  $\Gamma[\hat{\mathbb{G}}, \mathbb{G}, g, q] \in [S_\lambda]$  and some tuple  $(g^a, g^b)$ . The algorithm interacts with the DR-CCA adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ . First, it begins by computing

$$\text{hk} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{HF.Keyspace}_{\lambda, \Gamma}; w \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^*; x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z_1, z_2 \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q; c \leftarrow g^{x_1 + w x_2}; d \leftarrow g^{y_1 + w y_2}; h \leftarrow g^{z_1 + w z_2}.$$

Using the above, it generates a public key  $\text{PK} = (\Gamma, \text{hk}, g, g^w, c, d, h)$  and a secret key  $\text{SK} = (\Gamma, \text{hk}, x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z_1, z_2)$ , and passes PK to  $\mathcal{A}$ . We now show the behaviour of  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}$  on encryption and decryption queries. Whenever it receives a ciphertext of the form  $\psi = (u_1, u_2, e, v)$  to the decryption oracle, it uses SK to decrypt

and outputs either  $\perp$  or some  $m$ . Whenever  $\mathcal{A}$  submits  $(m_0, m_1)$  to the encryption oracle,  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}$  samples a uniform  $\sigma \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$  and computes

$$u_1^* = g^a; u_2^* = (g^a)^w; e^* = u_1^{*z_1} u_2^{*z_2} \cdot m_\sigma; v^* = \text{HF}_{\text{hk}}^{\lambda, \Gamma}(u_1^*, u_2^*, e^*); v^* = u_1^{*x_1 + v^* y_1} u_2^{*x_2 + v^* y_2}$$

and outputs the ciphertext–auxiliary information pair  $(\psi^*, \text{aux}_1) = ((u_1^*, u_2^*, e^*, v^*), (g^b, (g^b)^w))$ . On input halt to the auxiliary oracle,  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}$  outputs  $(x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2)$ .

Once the DR-CCA game has been perfectly simulated, the adversary outputs 1 if  $\hat{\sigma} = \sigma$  and 0 otherwise. It is clear from the above simulation that for any fixed  $\lambda$  and  $\Gamma$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[T_2] &= \Pr[\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}(1^\lambda, \Gamma, \rho) = 1 : \rho \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SDH}_{\lambda, \Gamma}] \\ \Pr[T_3] &= \Pr[\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}(1^\lambda, \Gamma, \rho) = 1 : \rho \xleftarrow{\$} \text{RandSDH}_{\lambda, \Gamma}]. \end{aligned}$$

It immediately follows that

$$|\Pr[T_3] - \Pr[T_2]| \leq \text{AdvSDH}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{SDH}}, \mathcal{G}}(\lambda | \Gamma).$$

□

**Game  $\mathbf{G}_4$ .** We modify the encryption algorithm again. Instead of outputting the ciphertext  $(\psi^*, \text{aux}_1) = ((u_1^*, u_2^*, e^*, v^*), (g_1^s, g_2^{r^2}))$  as before, the oracle samples a uniform  $s'$  from  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  and outputs  $(\psi^*, \text{aux}_1) = ((u_1^*, u_2^*, e^*, v^*), (g_1^s, g_2^{s'}))$ .

The proof essentially follows the same as that of the previous game, and can be omitted.

**Game  $\mathbf{G}_5$ .** This is game  $\mathbf{G}_2$  of the proof of [CS03]. We modify the encryption oracle, replacing step **E3** of the encryption algorithm with

$$\mathbf{E3}' : \hat{r} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q \setminus \{r\}; u_2 \leftarrow g_2^{\hat{r}}.$$

In the games up to  $\mathbf{G}_4$  we had