

# Programmable Access Controlled and Generic Erasable PUF Design and Its Applications

Chenglu Jin<sup>1\*</sup>, Wayne Burleson<sup>2</sup>, Marten van Dijk<sup>1,3</sup> and Ulrich Rührmair<sup>4,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>CWI Amsterdam, Amsterdam, 1098 XG, Netherlands.

<sup>2</sup>University of Massachusetts Amherst, Amherst, 01003, Massachusetts, USA.

<sup>3</sup>University of Connecticut, Storrs, 06269, Connecticut, USA.

<sup>4</sup>LMU München, München, 80539, Germany.

\*Corresponding author(s). E-mail(s): [chenglu.jin@cw.nl](mailto:chenglu.jin@cw.nl);

Contributing authors: [burleson@umass.edu](mailto:burleson@umass.edu); [marten.van.dijk@cw.nl](mailto:marten.van.dijk@cw.nl); [ruehrmair@ilo.de](mailto:ruehrmair@ilo.de);

## Abstract

Physical Unclonable Functions (PUFs) have not only been suggested as a new key storage mechanism, but — in the form of so-called “*Strong PUFs*” — also as cryptographic primitives in advanced schemes, including key exchange, oblivious transfer, or secure multi-party computation. This notably extends their application spectrum, and has led to a sequence of publications at leading venues such as IEEE S&P, CRYPTO, and EUROCRYPT in the past. However, one important unresolved problem is that adversaries can break the security of *all* these advanced protocols if they gain physical access to the employed Strong PUFs *after* protocol completion. It has been formally proven that this issue cannot be overcome by techniques on the protocol side alone, but requires resolution on the hardware level — the only fully effective known countermeasure being so-called *Erasable PUFs*. Building on this work, this paper is the first to describe a generic method of how any given silicon Strong PUF with digital CRP-interface can be turned into an Erasable PUF. We describe how the Strong PUF can be surrounded with a trusted control logic that allows the blocking (or “erasure”) of single CRP. We implement our approach, which we call “*GeniePUF*”, on FPGA, reporting detailed performance data and practicality figures. Furthermore, we develop the first comprehensive definitional framework for Erasable PUFs. Our work so re-establishes the effective usability of Strong PUFs in advanced cryptographic applications, and in the realistic case, adversaries get access to the Strong PUF after protocol completion. As an extension to earlier versions of this work, we also introduce a generalization of Erasable PUFs in this paper, which we call Programmable Access Controlled PUFs (PAC PUFs). We detail their definition, and discuss various exemplary applications of theirs.

**Keywords:** Physical Unclonable Functions (PUFs), PUF Re-Use Model, Erasable PUFs, Reconfigurable PUFs, GeniePUFs, Programmable Access Controlled PUFs

## 1 Introduction and Overview

The last years have witnessed an increasing interest in directly leveraging the physical properties of

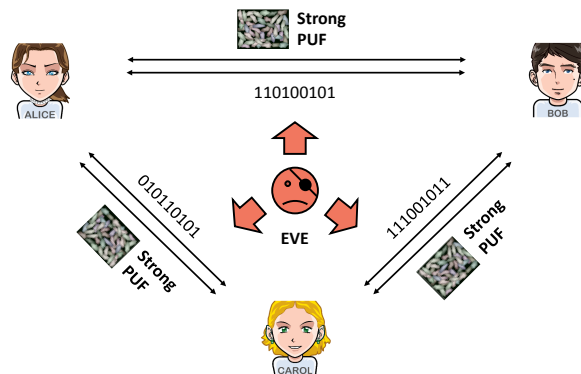
computer hardware for cryptographic and security purposes. One prime example is so-called Physical Unclonable Functions (PUFs), which exploit the

natural manufacturing variations arising in most modern hardware systems [1–3].

In their early days, PUFs were predominantly seen as a novel tool for physical key storage and system identification. To start with, so-called Weak PUFs [4] (for example SRAM PUFs [5], transistor-based PUFs [1], diode-based PUFs [6], or DRAM PUFs [7]) were suggested as source of system-specific keys in hardware that had no non-volatile memory (NVM) on board. This successively established Weak PUFs as viable, arguably more secure alternative to classical NVMs in key storage applications [8–12].

In addition, so-called Strong PUFs [4] (such as Arbiter PUFs [13] and optical PUFs [3]), were proposed for new types of remote identification protocols [3]. In these schemes, a randomly chosen subset of PUF Challenge Response Pairs (CRPs) is directly sent in the clear and unencrypted in each protocol run, proving the identity of the PUF-holder to a remote party. Fresh CRPs have to be employed in each execution, necessitating a large CRP-space of the underlying Strong PUF. Interestingly, the use of Strong PUFs here leads to new hardware *and* new cryptographic protocols. In both cases, Weak and Strong PUFs empower electronic systems to identify themselves *without* having classical, permanent digital keys on board. This notable fact has created sustainable research interest in the security community ever since.

In recent years, an important second research strand on PUFs has evolved, however, which reaches strictly beyond the above key storage or identification scenarios. In this second avenue, *solely* Strong PUFs [4]<sup>1</sup> are employed as “*cryptographic primitive*” in advanced schemes like key exchange (KE), bit commitment (BC), oblivious transfer (OT), or secure multi-party computation (SMC) [14–17]. It has been proved in universal composition framework that all these tasks can solely be built on Strong PUFs and their features, assuming physical unclonability of the PUFs and numeric unpredictability of their CRPs [15, 16]. This makes Strong PUFs a novel, independent



**Fig. 1:** The most general setting for the application of Strong PUFs in cryptographic protocols: All participants are connected pairwise via a binary channel, and via a separate physical channel over which physical objects like Strong PUFs can be sent. Eve can access both the physical and binary channels alike.

fundament for cryptography: Their security is not based on the purported intractability of number theoretic problems, such as the factoring or discrete logarithm problems. The resulting Strong PUF protocols are hence not a direct target of a potential advent of quantum computing, and so in line with recent efforts in post-quantum cryptography [18].

The communication scenario of said protocols is similar to classical, token-based cryptography [19], as depicted in Figure 1: Several parties are connected via (i) a digital channel, over which binary messages can be sent, and (ii) a physical channel, over which real, physical objects (like Strong PUFs) can be transferred. The adversary Eve has potential access to both channels. Since a Strong PUF’s challenge-response interface is by definition publicly accessible [4], Eve and all other protocol participants can query the Strong PUF for any CRPs of their choice during their respective access periods to the PUF — while not being able to read out the Strong PUF’s CRP-space completely, as it is too large [4]. We stress that the physical transfer of Strong PUFs can often be accomplished naturally and with surprisingly little effort: Whenever a customer carries a bank card plus Strong PUF from terminal to terminal in his wallet; whenever an electronic hardware is shipped from a manufacturer to an end consumer;

<sup>1</sup>Weak PUFs [4] are not suited for the application as cryptographic primitive in advanced protocols in the above sense: This scenario inevitably requires a large, inexhaustible CRP space with many possible challenges, numerically unpredictable responses, and a publicly accessible CRP-interface of the PUF, where every protocol participant and also adversaries can apply challenges and read-out responses freely [14–16] — or, in one term, a Strong PUF [4].

or when a mobile device such as a laptop or smart-phone is carried around and connects to different base stations; an automatic and implicit physical transfer of objects (and potentially of PUFs) takes place. Taken together, the future of Strong PUFs as cryptographic primitive seemed bright both in practice and theory, promising a broad spectrum of applications.

## 1.1 PUF Re-Use and Relevance of Erasable PUFs

These bright hopes were partly dashed when a class of simple, yet efficient attacks on advanced Strong PUF protocols was discovered: The so-called “*PUF Re-Use Model*” or “*Post-Protocol Access Model*” [20]. It realistically assumes that in almost all practical use cases, the same Strong PUF will be re-employed in more than one protocol run. Adversaries may thus gain physical access to the PUF not just during a run, but also *after* the run has been completed. As Strong PUFs by definition possess a publicly accessible, unprotected CRP-interface [4], such “post-protocol access” allows the read-out of any CRPs of the adversary’s choice. This potentially includes CRPs that had been employed earlier by other parties, provided that the respective challenges are, or have become, known to the adversary. Post-protocol access can hence retrospectively allow attacks on previous protocol executions. Unfortunately, this simple attack method has proven effective on all currently known Strong PUF based KE, OT, or SMC schemes [20, 21].

We would like to stress that the PUF Re-Use Model *differs fundamentally* from the trivial case of a Weak PUF whose responses have been exposed to the adversary. Please recall the strict differences between Weak PUFs and Strong PUFs [4] in this context: Weak PUFs inherently are based on the hypothesis that their responses remain internal and unknown to adversaries forever. Exposing these responses hence trivially breaks security. With Strong PUFs, more or less the converse holds: Their CRP-interface by definition is designed to be public from the start. They should hence intuitively withstand any adversarial access to their CRP-interface, including the post-protocol access assumed in the PUF Re-Use Model — but actually cannot, as it turns out [20–22].

This leads to the question whether new protocols for KE, OT, or SMC could be designed that evade the above issues. Unfortunately, it was formally proven [21] that any standard Strong PUFs, whose responses are unaltered and can still be read out during post-protocol access, are not useful in building secure KE, OT, or SMC schemes. This implies that the problems arising from post-protocol access must be solved on a hardware level — not on a protocol level. They must be overcome by devising novel physical types of PUFs, which can alter some of their CRPs for good [21].

The above discussion could be interpreted as suggesting so-called Reconfigurable PUFs [23–26] in order to resolve the issues of post-protocol access. Please recall that by definition [23], all of their responses can be randomly altered in one single step by a simple reconfiguration operation. However, complete, general, and non-selective reconfigurability is not what we need in our context: For illustration, consider the setting depicted in Figure 1. Let us assume that different cryptographic protocols are being run between multiple parties in this setting, using the same PUF. Some of these parties will have measured CRP-lists of this PUF earlier. Fully reconfiguring the entire PUF implies that all of these lists become obsolete, however. They would have to be measured anew. This implies that the reconfigured PUF needs to physically return to all respective parties, which is highly inefficient and impractical.

In sum, this renders Erasable PUFs (and their finegrained, granular erasability on a single CRP-level) the *only known possibility* [21] to fully restore the usability of Strong PUFs in advanced cryptographic protocols (such as KE, OT, or SMC) in the most general usage scenarios [20, 22].

## 1.2 Fundamental Challenges

Despite their abovementioned relevance, no fully viable Erasable PUF candidates have been devised to this date. The deeper reasons are some non-trivial, quite fundamental challenges in Erasable PUF design: Recall that Erasable PUFs are a subclass of Strong PUFs, i.e., they must possess a very large number of possible inputs, and a complex, numerically hard-to-predict input-output behavior [4]. However, essentially all known Strong PUF architectures, such as Arbiter PUFs [13] and optical PUFs [3], realize this feature by a *complex*

*interplay* of many system-internal components in the response generation. If a single response shall be altered irrecoverably in such a construction, at least one of these internal components must be modified. This will alter the targeted response; but it will also inevitably affect many other responses as well! For example, modifying a single scattering element in an optical PUF, or changing a single runtime delay in an Arbiter PUF, will necessarily influence many CRPs — not just one. This complicates or even disables fine-grained erasure operations on a *single* CRP level.

### 1.3 Our Contributions

Within the above research landscape, we make the following novel contributions:<sup>2</sup>

- We develop a formal, but easily comprehensible new framework for PUF definitions in general, and give the first formal definition of Erasable PUFs in particular. We hope that our treatment could potentially help coining a novel, easily accessible, yet precise style in future PUF-related definitions. We also lead some first proofs on the exact relation between Strong PUFs and Erasable PUFs in our framework.
- We suggest the first viable Erasable PUF design. It is generic in the sense that it can turn an arbitrary given integrated Strong PUF with a digital challenge-response interface into an Erasable PUF (this motivated the name “GeniePUF” for **Generic Erasable** PUF).
- On the technical side, the GeniePUF approach uses red-black tree and authenticated search tree techniques in untrusted memory, while storing a public, i.e., non-secret, but authenticated root hash inside its Trusted Computing Base (TCB). The root hash’s length is *independent* of the number of already erased CRPs. This minimizes the TCB required for our construction.
- Furthermore, we prove that our “GeniePUF” construction leads to a secure Erasable PUF, given that its underlying PUF is a secure Strong PUF.
- We implement our approach on Zynq FPGA, reporting detailed performance and practicality

figures. We show that a CRP erasure operation takes no more than 18  $\mu s$  and 10  $\mu s$  for the hardware TCB and software interface, respectively, even if 100,000 CRPs have been erased previously as an example case. This time only rises mildly even for larger erased CRP sets.

- In the second part of the paper, we further generalize the concept of Erasable PUFs to the more powerful concept of Programmable Access Controlled PUFs (PAC PUFs), which allows a PUF to incorporate any access control policy to its challenge-response mechanism.
- Finally, we present three examples of Programmable Access Controlled PUFs. They show how a PAC PUF can, in principle, evolve from its simplest form (the above GeniePUF) to a more complex construction that uses general access control policies, such as password control.

### 1.4 Organization of This Paper

Section 2 surveys the prior works related to this paper. Section 3 presents a novel definitional framework for Erasable PUFs and the first formal Erasable PUF definitions. Our **Generic Erasable** PUFs (GeniePUFs), which are based on programmable logic and authenticated tree structures, are discussed in Section 4. Section 5 shows the security and practicality of the GeniePUF construction, with a concrete cryptographic application (i.e., their use on bank cards/smart cards in communication terminals). Section 6 introduces Programmable Access Controlled PUFs (PAC PUFs), which generalize the idea of Erasable PUFs. Section 7 provides examples for implementations and applications of PAC PUFs. Finally, the paper concludes in Section 8.

## 2 Related Work

The only known Erasable PUF candidate prior to our work was based on a large, monolithic crossbar architecture [22]. It carries diodes with random current-voltage characteristics at each of its nanoscale crosspoints [22]. This design, known as SHIC PUF [28], leads to a very large number of completely and information-theoretically independent CRPs. By intentionally overloading a selected diode, a breakthrough could be induced at any given crosspoint, effectively “erasing” the

---

<sup>2</sup>We would like to mention that this article is a journal version of an earlier publication at the ASHES workshop [27]. Together with several smaller adaptations, the concept of a Programmable Access Controlled PUF has been added to this work; Section 6 and 7 are completely new.

PUF-response deduced from this crosspoint *without* affecting other responses [22].

However, one substantial problem with this existing construction, which the authors of [22] did not mention, is that after breakthrough, the rectification rates of the broken diodes are not high enough to guarantee a fully functional read-out procedure in the large monolithic crossbar in the future. Concretely, it is reported [22] that the rectification rates drop from  $10^7$  to as low as  $10^2$  after breakthrough. This means that additional parasitic paths will arise in the large monolithic structures with every new breakdown, quickly disabling exact future read-out operations after an increasing number of erased responses.

In contrast to the design goal of erasable PUFs, the aforementioned Reconfigurable PUFs [23–26] pursue a reconfiguration of the *entire* PUF with *all* its CRPs. This global reconfigurability leads to the protocol and efficiency issues that we described already in Section 1.1. This renders Reconfigurable PUFs not well applicable in our situation.

Controlled PUFs [29, 30] have some aspects in common with our architectures, as they also employ a trusted logic around a standard PUF in order to realize novel security features. However, their design goals and envisaged applications vastly differ from ours [29, 30]: For example, standard Controlled PUFs assume the secret storage and error correction of several earlier response values inside the trusted computing base (TCB) of the Controlled PUF. This is contrary to our approach, which does not induce any secrets inside the TCB and surrounding control logic of our Erasable PUF constructions.

Using trusted logic around a PUF, Rostami *et al.* introduced a PUF-based authentication and key exchange protocol in a different setting from our work [31]. The protocol is executed between a prover with physical access to a PUF, and a verifier who has a simulation model of the PUF. A random substring of the PUF responses is extracted by the prover, and the verifier checks the substring by comparing it against the full response string derived from the simulation model. When the indices of the random substring are interpreted as a secret key, the prover effectively shares the secret key with the verifier stealthily. The work relies on the trusted logic around the PUF to

extract the substring randomly, and it needs a simulation model of the underlying PUF, which is not required in our generic approach.

Moreover, control logic or PUF interfaces can be used to limit the number of CRPs accessible by adversaries [32], such that it forces the adversaries to work with a limited amount of CRPs in machine learning attacks. PUF interfaces can also improve the statistical metrics of a PUF. For example, an input network and an output network were introduced in [33] to make the overall PUF behavior satisfy the strict avalanche criterion.

We also stress that the PUF Re-Use Model is not the only attack that has been reported on advanced PUF-protocols; for example, quadratic attacks on the OT-protocol of [15] have been discussed in [34]. They can thwart the security of said OT-scheme if an optical PUF is used in them, or an electrical PUF with a comparably small challenge space such as 64 bits.

## 3 A Formal Framework for Erasable PUFs

### 3.1 Basic Aspects of (Strong) PUFs

While their challenge-response behavior can be, and actually often is, modeled *mathematically*, PUFs in the end are *physical* objects. It thus makes sense to start our definitional framework by a few basic, mostly physical aspects.

**Definition 1** (PUFs) A PUF  $P$  is a physical system that can be stimulated with so-called challenges  $c_i$  from a challenge set  $C_P \subseteq \{0, 1\}^k$ , upon which it reacts by producing corresponding responses  $r_i$  from a response set  $R_P \subseteq \{0, 1\}^m$ . Each response  $r_i$  shall depend on the applied challenge, but also on manufacturing variations in  $P$  that are practically unclonable with currently existing technology. The tuples  $(c_i, r_i)$  are usually called the challenge-response pairs (CRPs) of  $P$ . If required, we explicitly write  $r_{c_i}^P$  or  $r_i^P$  for denoting the response of  $P$  to challenge  $c_i$ . ■

We comment that it seems necessary to stipulate that PUF-responses must depend on unclonable manufacturing variations in the PUF: Only this feature distinguishes PUFs from a piece of standard, digital hardware implementing a pseudo-random function, say. Furthermore, the definition implicitly assumes that any potentially

noisy PUF-responses can be stabilized via suitable error-correcting means. This allows regarding the PUF's behavior as a function  $F_P$  mapping challenges to responses, and to consider fixed CRPs  $(c_i, r_i)$ , with  $r_i = F_P(c_i)$ . Making this assumption is in accordance with the PUF-literature, and also strongly simplifies our later treatment: It allows us to talk about a single, fixed response (after error correction) to a given challenge.

Let us next define secure Strong PUFs, one of the main PUF-subtypes. For simplicity, hereinafter, we will use “strong PUF” to represent “secure strong PUF” defined in Definition 2.

**Definition 2** (Secure Strong PUFs) Let  $P$  be a PUF and  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary.  $P$  is called a  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -secure Strong PUF with respect to  $\mathcal{A}$  if  $\mathcal{A}$  has a probability of at most  $\epsilon$  to “win” the following security game:

**SecGameStrong**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$ :

1. The PUF  $P$  is handed over to  $\mathcal{A}$ , starting the game. <sup>3</sup>
2.  $\mathcal{A}$  is allowed to conduct physical actions and to carry out numeric computations, potentially exploiting his physical access to  $P$ . These actions and computations are limited by the laws of physics and by  $\mathcal{A}$ 's individual capabilities and equipment.
3. At an adaptive point in time of  $\mathcal{A}$ 's choice,  $\mathcal{A}$  hands back  $P$  (or whatever physically remains of it). <sup>3, 4</sup>
4. Then for  $j = 1, \dots, k$ , the following **loop** is repeated:
  - (a) A challenge  $c^j$  from  $P$ 's challenge space  $C_P$  is chosen uniformly at random.
  - (b)  $P$  and  $c^j$  are handed over to  $\mathcal{A}$ . <sup>3</sup>
  - (c)  $\mathcal{A}$  is allowed further physical actions and numeric computations, with the exception of asking  $P$  for the response of  $c^i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq j$ . These actions and computations are again limited by the laws of physics and by  $\mathcal{A}$ 's capabilities and equipment.
5.  $\mathcal{A}$  chooses to guess a response for one of the challenges  $c^j$ , i.e., he outputs a tuple  $(j^*, r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*})$ , with  $1 \leq j^* \leq k$  and  $r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*} \in R_P$ , and the game ends. <sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup> We assume that the physical handover procedures in Step 1 and Step 3, as well as the choice and presentation of  $c^j$  in Step 4, are carried out in negligible time compared to the rest of the security game, i.e., we model them to take time of 0 sec, not causing any additional delays.

<sup>4</sup> Note that  $\mathcal{A}$  may have potentially physically altered or even destroyed  $P$ .

$\mathcal{A}$  “wins” the game if:

- $\mathcal{A}$  has made an output  $(j^*, r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*})$  and  $r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*}$  is equal to the correct response of  $P$  on challenge  $c^{j^*}$ , i.e.,

$$r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*} = r_{c^{j^*}}^P.$$

- The cumulative time that has elapsed in Step 2 and in the  $k$  repetitions of Step 4c within the **loop** does not exceed  $t_{\text{att}}$ .

In all of this, the probability  $\epsilon$  is taken over the random choice of all the  $c^{j^*}$ , and over all random procedures that  $\mathcal{A}$  employs in the security game. ■

Notice that adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  may have been lucky in that  $\mathcal{A}$  queried PUF  $P$  for some challenge  $c^j$  before it was given to  $\mathcal{A}$  in Step 4b (after which  $\mathcal{A}$  is not allowed to query  $c^j$  any more). Let  $\alpha$  be the fraction of all challenge-response pairs that can be retrieved from  $P$  within time  $t_{\text{att}}$  in Step 2 (we choose  $\mathcal{A}$  not to do anything in Step 4c for each iteration). Then, the probability that one of  $c^j$  corresponds to one of the retrieved challenge-response pairs in Step 2 is equal to  $1 - (1 - \alpha)^k$ . If this happens, then  $\mathcal{A}$  wins the game, since he knows the response and therefore can predict the response. This shows that  $\epsilon \geq 1 - (1 - \alpha)^k$ . For large challenge-response spaces,  $\alpha$  is small such that  $1 - (1 - \alpha)^k \approx \alpha \cdot k$  and  $\epsilon \geq \alpha \cdot k$ .

**Proposition 1** (Strong PUFs for Different Sizes of  $k$ ). Let  $P$  be a PUF and  $k \leq k'$ . For every  $\mathcal{A}$  that wins **SecGameStrong**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$ , there is another adversary  $\mathcal{A}'$  who performs the same actions as  $\mathcal{A}$  (plus some dummy waiting operations) and that wins **SecGameStrong**  $(P, \mathcal{A}', k', t'_{\text{att}})$ , where  $t'_{\text{att}}$  is equal to  $t_{\text{att}}$  plus the time cost for the dummy waiting operations.

*Proof.* Without adding extra adversarial capabilities or time complexity, any adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  can be modified to an adversary  $\mathcal{A}'$  who is like  $\mathcal{A}$  but does not to do anything in Step 4c for iterations  $j = k + 1, \dots, k'$  and chooses to select  $j^*$  in the range  $1 \leq j^* \leq k$  in Step 5. This reasoning reduces **SecGameStrong**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$  to **SecGameStrong**  $(P, \mathcal{A}', k', t'_{\text{att}})$ .

Our definition is a simplified, perhaps more easily accessible version of the existing, game-based Strong PUF definitions [35–37]. These usually employ multiple parameters to define Strong PUF security [36, 37]; we reduce this to merely three characteristic figures, namely the attack time  $t_{\text{att}}$ , the size  $k$  of the subset of challenges for which an adversary needs to predict one of its responses, and the adversarial guessing probability  $\epsilon$ . We do not employ physical Turing machines as the formal model of computation for the adversary, since this can lead to intricate definitions [38]. Furthermore, we do not consider infinite families of PUFs as in [15, 37], avoiding an asymptotic treatment with its associated pitfalls and issues [35, 36]. Instead, we assume that one specific adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  with certain (assumed) abilities is under consideration. Finally, our definition does not suppose an information-theoretic security of the Strong PUF, as some earlier works did [15]: The reason is that most Strong PUFs (such as the Arbiter PUF and variants thereof) do not possess information-theoretic, but only computational security, as all the existing modeling attacks show in passing [39]. (Recall that in these modeling attacks, a small set of CRPs is collected in order to extrapolate the PUF’s behavior on other CRPs; this would be provably impossible if all CRPs were information-theoretically independent.) Overall, we hope that our definition strikes a good balance between formal rigour and accessibility.

### 3.2 Erasable PUFs

Loosely speaking, Erasable PUFs are Strong PUFs (see Definition 2 and [4, 40]) with one extra property: Users can select an arbitrary challenge  $c_{\text{erase}} \in C_P$ , and apply a “*secure erasure operation*”  $\mathbf{ER}$  for this challenge to the PUF. This operation shall irrecoverably “*erase*” the single CRP  $(c_{\text{erase}}, r_{\text{erase}})$  from the PUF, *without* affecting any other CRPs. More precisely speaking, the erasure operation should affect or alter the original response  $r_{\text{erase}}$  in such a way that adversaries later cannot recover  $r_{\text{erase}}$  with a probability better than random guessing, while all other responses shall remain unchanged. The erasability operation shall be applicable  $k$  times, ideally for values of  $k$  that reach up to the size of the entire challenge space  $C_P$  of the Erasable PUF.

This leads to the following two definitions.

**Definition 3** (Erasure Operations for PUFs) An erasure operation  $\mathbf{ER}$  for a PUF  $P$  is a specific physical or logical process that takes as input the PUF  $P$  and a challenge  $c_{\text{erase}} \in C_P$ , and produces as output a related PUF  $P'$  with the following properties:

- $P'$  has the same challenge set as  $P$ .
- For all challenges  $c \neq c_{\text{erase}}$ ,  $P'$  has a functional challenge-response behavior, and the responses of  $P$  and  $P'$  to  $c$  are equal, i.e.,  $r_c^{P'} = r_c^P$ .
- The response of  $P'$  to challenge  $c_{\text{erase}}$  is altered or affected in a certain fashion that is specific to  $\mathbf{ER}$ ; for example,  $\mathbf{ER}$  may routinely overwrite the original response  $r_{\text{erase}}$  by a “0”, a “1”, or by a fault symbol “ $\perp$ ”.

Any PUF  $P$  to which its erasure operation  $\mathbf{ER}$  has been applied  $k$  times may be denoted as  $P^{(k)}$ , with  $P^{(0)}$  being the original PUF  $P$ . For any PUF  $P^{(k)}$ , the set of challenges for which the erasure operation has been applied to  $P$  since its fabrication, is denoted by  $\mathcal{E}(P^{(k)})$ . ■

Note that the above definition does not say anything about dedicated security aspects, such as the irrecoverability of erased responses; this is taken care of next.

**Definition 4** (Secure Erasable PUFs) Let  $P$  be a PUF with erasure operation  $\mathbf{ER}$ ,  $k$  be a positive integer, and  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary.  $P$  is called a  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -*secure Erasable PUF* with respect to  $\mathcal{A}$  if  $\mathcal{A}$  has a probability of at most  $\epsilon$  to “*win*” the following security game:

**SecGameErasable** ( $P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}}$ ):

1. The PUF  $P$  is handed over to  $\mathcal{A}$ , starting the game. <sup>3</sup>
2.  $\mathcal{A}$  is allowed to conduct physical actions and to carry out numeric computations, potentially exploiting his physical access to  $P$ . These actions and computations are limited by the laws of physics and by  $\mathcal{A}$ ’s individual capabilities and equipment.
3. At an adaptively selected point in time of  $\mathcal{A}$ ’s choice, he hands back  $P$  ( $= P^{(0)}$ , see Definition 3). <sup>3</sup>
4. Then for  $j = 1, \dots, k$ , the following **loop** is repeated:
  - (a) A challenge  $c_{\text{erase}}^j$  is chosen uniformly at random from  $C_P$ , and the CRP  $(c_{\text{erase}}^j, r_{\text{erase}}^j)$  is

erased from the PUF  $P^{(j-1)}$ . This creates a PUF  $P^{(j)}$ .<sup>3</sup>

- (b)  $P^{(j)}$  and  $c_{\text{erase}}^j$  are handed over to  $\mathcal{A}$ .<sup>3</sup>
  - (c)  $\mathcal{A}$  is allowed to conduct physical actions and to carry out numeric computations, possibly exploiting his physical access to  $P^{(j)}$ . These actions and computations are again limited by the laws of physics and by  $\mathcal{A}$ 's individual capabilities and equipment.
5.  $\mathcal{A}$  chooses to guess one of the previously erased responses, i.e., he outputs a tuple  $(j^*, r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*})$ , with  $1 \leq j^* \leq k$  and  $r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*} \in R_P$ , and the game ends.<sup>3</sup>

$\mathcal{A}$  “wins” the game if:

- $\mathcal{A}$  has made an output  $(j^*, r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*})$  and  $r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*}$  is equal to the original response of  $P$  on challenge  $c_{\text{erase}}^{j^*}$ , i.e., if
 
$$r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*} = r_{c_{\text{erase}}^{j^*}}^P.$$
- The cumulative time that has elapsed in Steps 2 and in the  $k$  repetitions of Step 4c within the **loop** does not exceed  $t_{\text{att}}$ .

In all of this, the probability  $\epsilon$  is taken over the random choice of all the  $c_{\text{erase}}^{j^*}$ , and over all random procedures that  $\mathcal{A}$  employs in the security game. ■

The security game of Definition 4 specifies a rather strong attack scenario: Overall  $k$  randomly chosen CRPs are successively erased from the PUF, while the adversary has access for time periods of his adaptive choice before any erasures have taken place, and also once after every single erasure operation was conducted.

Similar to Definition 2, Definition 4 deliberately is non-asymptotic, and considers only a single PUF with respect to a given adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  and its capabilities (please compare the discussion following Definition 2). Similar to Proposition 1, we can prove:

**Proposition 2** (Erasable PUFs for Different Sizes of  $k$ ). Let  $P$  be a PUF with erasure operation and let  $k \leq k'$ . For every  $\mathcal{A}$  that wins  $\text{SecGameErasable}(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$ , there is another adversary  $\mathcal{A}'$  who performs the same actions as  $\mathcal{A}$  (plus some dummy waiting operations) and that wins  $\text{SecGameErasable}(P, \mathcal{A}', k', t'_{\text{att}})$ , where  $t'_{\text{att}}$  is equal to  $t_{\text{att}}$  plus the time cost for the dummy waiting operations.

This implies that in order to be a  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -secure Erasable PUF, the erasure operation must work securely for *any*  $i$ -element subset  $\mathcal{E} \subseteq C_P$  of size smaller than or equal to  $k$ .  $k$  so becomes one of several quality measure of Erasable PUFs — the larger  $k$ , the better. As before, the definition was designed in order to strike a good balance between accessibility and formal rigor.

As already mentioned, Erasable PUFs are a sub-class of Strong PUFs, i.e., every Erasable PUF is also a Strong PUF automatically. This intuitive fact is in agreement with our above framework, as proven formally in the next theorem. It tells us that every Erasable PUF (according to Definition 4) is also a Strong PUF (according to Definition 2) with respect to the same adversary.

**Theorem 1** (Erasable PUFs are Strong PUFs). Let  $P$  be a  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -secure Erasable PUF with respect to some adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then  $P$  is a  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -secure Strong PUF with respect to the same adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ .

The proof of Theorem 1 is given in Appendix C.1. This concludes our formal definitional framework and treatment of Erasable PUFs. The next section will deal with the first practically viable and also *generic* silicon implementation strategy for Erasable PUFs.

## 4 Generic Erasable PUF Design

### 4.1 Basic Idea and Overview

The most straightforward approach for implementing Erasable PUFs would presumably consist of the following steps: (i) Take an arbitrary silicon Strong PUF with digital challenge-response interface. (ii) Surround it by a trusted control logic that guards the application of challenges and the collection of responses. (iii) Keep a public, but authenticated LIST of all CRPs that have been declared “erased” earlier. (iv) Whenever a new challenge  $c_i$  is applied, the control logic compares  $c$  to LIST, and blocks it from application if  $c_i$  has been declared “erased” earlier.

There is one obvious issue with the above implementation strategy, though: The entire LIST needs to be an authenticated part of the TCB, in the sense that it must be unalterable for external



adversaries. At the same time, however, LIST will grow larger, as more CRPs are declared erased. This implies that the size of the TCB grows with the number of declared CRPs, with the latter potentially growing rather large over the lifetime of the Erasable PUF. This is obviously undesirable.

In this section, we therefore devise and implement a construction that keeps the size of the TCB constant over the lifetime of the Erasable PUF, regardless of how many CRPs have already been erased. We show that by combining authenticated search trees [41] and red-black trees [42], LIST can be authenticated by a public, merely constant-length string `RootHash`, which does not grow as more CRPs are erased. `RootHash` is stored inside the TCB of the Erasable PUF, where it does not need to be kept secret, but only needs to be protected against adversarial manipulation of its value (i.e., it merely needs to be authentic, not secret). At the same time, LIST may be stored in public, untrusted memory. We also describe how LIST and `RootHash` can be updated efficiently whenever new challenges are declared “erased”. Our basic approach of read-out and erasure are illustrated in Figure 2 and 3, respectively.

The described approach has several upsides: Firstly, it transforms any given Strong PUF into an Erasable PUF, being “generic” in this sense. Secondly, its assumption of a public, but authenticated piece of data is long established in the PUF area, being similar to the authenticated, public helper data required in the error correction of Weak PUFs [4]. Thirdly, also the presumption of a surrounding, trusted control logic (or TCB) is long accepted in the field: Please recall that it is a standard ingredient of Controlled PUFs [29, 30]. Finally, as already indicated, our construction does not require any digital secret keys in the TCB. This makes it an advantageous, generic method for Erasable PUF design. We will unfold its full details over the next subsections, calling it **Generic Erasable PUF** (GeniePUF).

## 4.2 Read-Out Mechanism of the GeniePUF

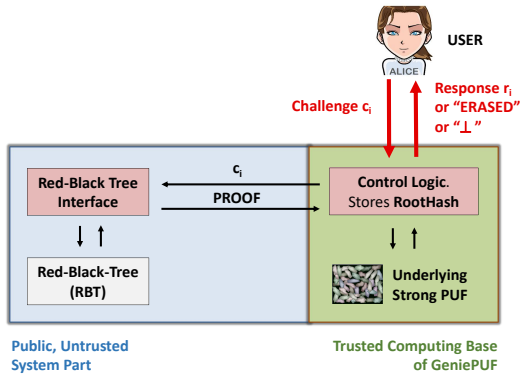
Given the basic approach of Figure 2, we need to describe two operations in order to fully specify our GeniePUF construction: Firstly, how CRPs can be read out from the GeniePUF; secondly,

how CRPs can be erased from it. Both will be accomplished in this and the next subsection. We emphasize that our read-out and erasure procedures heavily rely on authenticated red-black trees [42]; readers who are not familiar with these techniques can turn to Appendix A and B to obtain all relevant knowledge in a compact form.

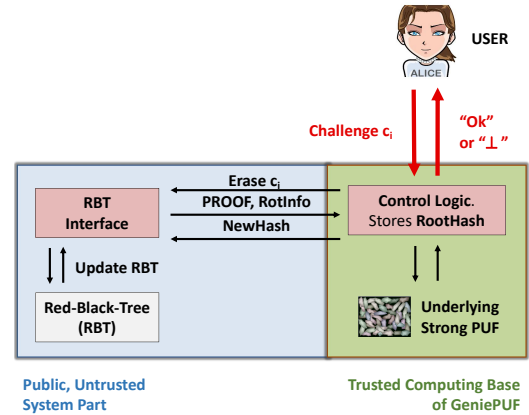
Let us then turn to the read-out mechanism of the GeniePUF. As mentioned above, the LIST that contains all CRPs that have been declared “erased” earlier is implemented by a RBT, and is stored in public, untrusted memory (see Figure 2). The much shorter `RootHash` of the RBT, on the other hand, is stored within the Trusted Computing Based (TCB) of the GeniePUF in order to authenticate the entire RBT. If some USER wants to obtain CRPs from the GeniePUF, the following steps are executed:

### Scheme 1: READING CRPs FROM GENIEPUFS (FIGURE 2)

1. The USER sends a challenge  $c_i$  to the Control Logic (CL) of the GeniePUF, which is part of the GeniePUF’s TCB.
2. The CL passes on  $c_i$  to the RBT interface, which belongs to the public, untrusted system part.
3. The RBT interface checks if  $c_i$  is in the RBT, and generates a PROOF whether  $c_i$  is in the RBT (“*proof of existence*”) or whether it is not in the RBT (“*proof of non-existence*”). Subsequently, PROOF is sent over from the RBT to the CL. The detailed procedure of proof generation and the format of the PROOF is given in Scheme 4 in the Appendix.
4. The CL verifies the PROOF of existence or non-existence. The procedure of proof verification is presented in Scheme 5 in the Appendix.
  - If the PROOF is a valid proof of non-existence, the CL applies  $c_i$  to the Strong PUF, which is part of its TCB. It passes the obtained response  $r_i$  on to the USER.
  - If the PROOF is a valid proof of existence, then CL denies access to the PUF and outputs “ERASED” to the USER.
  - If the PROOF (either non-existence proof or existence proof) is invalid, then CL outputs “⊥” to the USER.



**Fig. 2:** Schematic illustration of the read-out mechanism of GeniePUFs (compare Scheme 1), differentiating between the public, untrusted system part (blue) and the trusted computing base of the GeniePUF (green).



**Fig. 3:** Schematic illustration of the erasure mechanism of GeniePUFs (compare Scheme 2), differentiating between the public, untrusted system part (blue) and the trusted computing base of the GeniePUF (green).

### 4.3 Erasure Mechanism of the GeniePUF

The mechanism for Erasing CRPs in the GeniePUF is again built on the basic functionality of our underlying authenticated data structure, namely red-black trees (RBTs). In a nutshell, anyone can erase CRPs from the GeniePUF, by sending an “*Erase  $c_i$* ” command to the Control Logic (CL) of the GeniePUF. Subsequently, the challenge  $c_i$  is added to the LIST, or in our case, to the RBT, thus declaring it “*ERASED*”. More precisely, the following procedure takes place:

#### Scheme 2: ERASING CRPs FROM GENIEPUFS (FIGURE 3)

1. The USER sends an “*Erase  $c_i$* ” command to the CL.
2. The CL passes on this command to the RBT interface.
3. The RBT interface performs the same operations as step 3 in Scheme 1. Besides, if  $c_i$  is not in the RBT, the interface will also attach the information about how the RBT might rotate its structure (denoted as RotInfo). RotInfo will be sent over together with PROOF to the CL. Notice that this computation does not include computing updated hashes which RBT will receive from CL in Step 5.<sup>5</sup>

4. Similar to step 4 in Scheme 1, the CL first verifies the PROOF.

- If the PROOF is a valid proof of non-existence, the CL starts performing the erasure operation for  $c_i$ . All necessary tree structure updates, if happen in the RBT, can be replicated by CL with RotInfo. Knowing the updated tree structure and the hash values of all the nodes that require an updated hash, which are all contained in PROOF, the CL is able to compute the new hash values of all the nodes in PROOF, including a new RootHash. The CL updates the RootHash in the TCB, sends the USER an “OK” message, replies all the NewHash to the RBT interface.
- If the PROOF is a valid proof of existence, the CL replies “OK” to the USER.
- If the PROOF is invalid, then CL outputs “ $\perp$ ” to the USER.

5. Upon receiving the NewHash, the RBT interface updates the hashes in the RBT and completes an erasure request to GeniePUF.

when it is unbalanced. Detailed description of the rotations can be found in [42], and examples can be found in Appendix B.

<sup>5</sup>As a self-balancing binary search tree, a RBT will adjust (rotate) its tree structure to maintain the balance of itself,

## 5 Security and Practicality of Our Design

### 5.1 Security of Our Construction

Informally speaking, and in a nutshell, the security of Scheme 1 depends on the following assumptions:

- Adversaries cannot circumvent the Control Logic (CL), applying their own challenges directly to the underlying Strong PUF, reading out the corresponding responses  $r_i$ .
- Adversaries cannot modify the CL, for example such that it cannot correctly verify the validity of PROOF. In particular, the implementation of the hash function  $F_{\text{Hash}}$  must remain correct and unchanged.
- Adversaries may read the stored RootHash, but not modify it. It is public, but authentic.
- The employed hash function  $F_{\text{Hash}}$  must be collision resistant.

Under these prerequisites, adversaries cannot read out CRPs that have successfully been declared “ERASED” earlier, and which are part of the LIST (i.e., of our RBT).

Furthermore, the required security feature of the “Erase” command is that a malicious RBT interface, or an adversary who intercepts the communication between the RBT interface and the CL, cannot send a Proof that is accepted by the CL, while it does not relate to an updated RBT that contains all previously erased challenges. As before, this is achieved by the collision resistance of the employed hash function  $F_{\text{Hash}}$ .

Note that all the digital states (inputs/outputs and intermediate states) in GeniePUF are open for adversaries to observe/read. In other words, no digital states need to remain secret in GeniePUF, and it is not feasible in a secret-key-based cryptographic system.

Let us start our more formal analysis of the GeniePUF construction with stipulating some terminology.

**Definition 5** (GeniePUFs Based on a Given PUF  $P$ ) Let  $P$  be a PUF with a digital challenge-response interface. Then we use the term  $\text{GeniePUF}(P)$  to denote the Erasable PUF that is obtained by utilizing  $P$  within the construction detailed in Section 4. That is, briefly speaking,  $\text{GeniePUF}(P)$  denotes the PUF obtained from  $P$  by:

- Surrounding  $P$  with some trusted logic that guards access to  $P$ ’s CRP-interface, and that implements the operations of the TCB, including the verification of PROOF and the access control of  $P$ .
- Storing RootHash inside this trusted logic.
- Storing LIST outside the trusted logic.

It is inherently assumed in the  $\text{GeniePUF}(P)$  construction that:

- The adversary can access LIST and can actively overwrite and modify it.
- The adversary can read RootHash, but cannot modify it.
- The adversary cannot tamper with the functionality of the PUF-surrounding trusted logic. E.g., he cannot access the CRP-interface of the PUF  $P$  directly, circumventing the control logic. Or he cannot modify the erasure or read-out functionalities implemented by the trusted logic.
- The employed hash function is collision resistant. ■

The next theorem states and proves the security of this construction under the above assumptions.

**Theorem 2** (Security of  $\text{GeniePUF}(P)$ ). Let  $P$  be a PUF with challenge set  $C_P$ . Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary for  $\text{GeniePUF}(P)$  who is modeled by Definition 5. Then  $\text{GeniePUF}(P)$  is  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon + \rho)$ -secure Erasable PUF with respect to  $\mathcal{A}$  if the following two conditions hold:

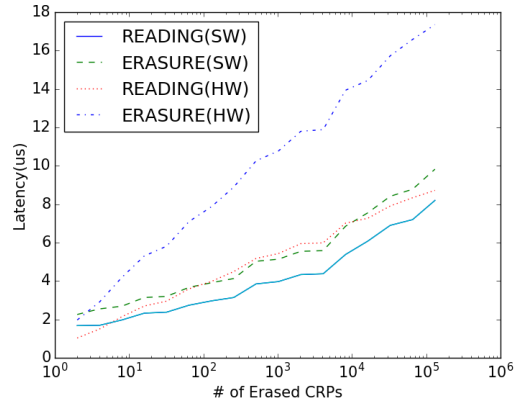
1.  $\mathcal{A}$  cannot compute in time  $t_{\text{att}}$  with probability  $\geq \rho$  a collision  $(x_1, x_2)$  for the employed hash function  $F_{\text{Hash}}$ , i.e.,  $F_{\text{Hash}}(x_1) = F_{\text{Hash}}(x_2)$  and  $x_1 \neq x_2$  ( $\rho$  is called the collision probability).
2. PUF  $P$  is a  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -secure Strong PUF with respect to adversary  $\mathcal{A}'$  that is constructed from  $\mathcal{A}$  in the following fashion:  $\mathcal{A}'$  acts exactly like  $\mathcal{A}$ , but (i) all requested erasure operations are discarded, (ii) whenever a PROOF is computed, then such a PROOF is ignored (and not communicated to  $P$ ), and (iii) any attempt by  $\mathcal{A}$  to read state in RBT or control logic CL is replaced by dummy observations.

The proof sketch of Theorem 2 is presented in Appendix C.2.

**Security against Physical Attacks.** The following analysis builds on the taxonomy of secrets in security hardware introduced in [43]. Firstly, using the nomenclature of [43], there obviously are no “*permanent*” or “*non-volatile*” digital secrets inside the TCB or the RBT interface. This implies that the GeniePUF design is immune to any attacks stealing such digital secrets, including side channels [44] or probing attacks [45]. Depending on the employed underlying Strong PUF, other secrets may be contained in the GeniePUF: If an iPUF is used, as in our example, the physical runtime delays in the iPUF will constitute “*permanent physical secrets*”, again using the language of [43]. Furthermore, the digital values in the latches at the end of the single Arbiter PUFs within the iPUFs will constitute so-called “*volatile digital secrets*” [43]. Finally, the digital signals entering the XOR gate in the lower layer of the iPUF will constitute “*transient digital secrets*” according to [43]: Knowing the value of these signals, the attackers can successively learn the individual, single Arbiter PUFs in the structure, and subsequently break the entire iPUF.

Still, these permanent physical and volatile and transient digital secrets will arguably be harder to extract from hardware than standard, permanently stored digital keys. To start with, if the used iPUF is made large enough, it will be practically infeasible to extract these runtimes via machine learning techniques. To this end, please compare [46], where the limit of successful machine learning is found to be around 10 parallel, XORed Arbiter PUF of length 64 in the lower iPUF layer. Furthermore, it will be very difficult to physically extract the runtime delays physically in practice, albeit not impossible [47]. Also reading out the content of the latches or the transient signals entering the XOR gate during the operation of the iPUF appears complicated and more intricate than reading out a standard, permanently stored digital key from NVM.

Considering active attacks, launching fault injection attacks on control logic or RootHash [48] could possibly attack our GeniePUF construction. Still, it would violate one of our security assumptions, which assumes the RootHash and the control logic are tamper resistant.



**Fig. 4:** Latency of the software interface (SW) and hardware TCB (HW) of GeniePUF for a reading or erasure operation.

**Denial of Service Attacks.** By manipulating the RBT (LIST) or a PROOF, an attacker can launch denial of service attacks to our GeniePUF. However, we would like to argue in this case that as a physical object defined in Definition 1, a PUF just like any other piece of hardware can never be secure against physical denial of service attacks: The adversary can always physically alter or damage the PUF or hardware under consideration when he holds physical possession of it. One more subtle attack can be to act as a normal user and erase a large number of challenges from the GeniePUF, in the hope that a large RB tree can make a legitimate user’s evaluation overwhelmingly slow. However, thanks to our red black tree structure, this attack can never be efficient and effective, because the attacker has to erase  $N$  challenges to slow down the evaluation process by  $\log(N)$  times.

## 5.2 Practicality and Performance Figures of Our Construction

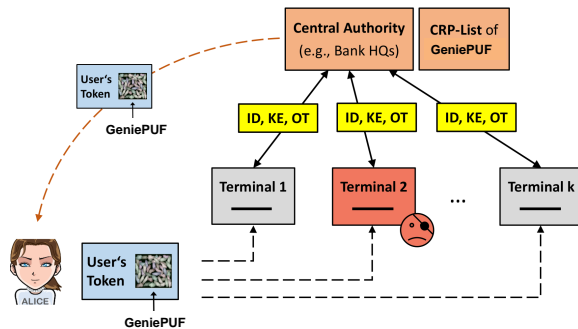
Our above GeniePUF architecture has been implemented on Xilinx Zynq FPGA with a so-called *Interpose PUF* or *iPUF* [49] as its underlying PUF. Interpose PUFs are constructed from Arbiter PUFs of variable length, and consist of several parallel layers of these Arbiter PUFs, similar to the well-known XOR Arbiter PUF architectures [13]. The 64-bit Interpose PUF chosen for our specific implementation contains a 64-bit

Arbiter PUF in its top layer and a 65-bit 9-XOR Arbiter PUF in its lower layer.<sup>6</sup> Due to the fixed length of the inputs to the hash function of the resulting GeniePUF, we decided to build a hash function from AES-128 in the Davies-Meyer construction [53, 54] with 64-bit collision resistance for the GeniePUF.

We measured the performance of our proof-of-concept implementation for reading and erasing CRPs. Figure 4 shows how the latency of hardware TCB and software interface grow with respect to the number of previously erased CRPs (the size of LIST). The frequency of the ARM processor and the FPGA fabric in the Zynq system are 666 MHz and 100 MHz, respectively. In Figure 4, it clearly shows that the latency grows logarithmically with respect to the number of previously erased CRPs. This is consistent with the complexity analysis of the search operation in a red-black tree. In concrete numbers, the latency is on the order of a few ten microseconds for both software interface and hardware verifier, even if the size of LIST has grown above 100,000, which is far beyond its practical need. In case multiple CRPs are needed in one authentication, one can divide the entire challenge space into disjoint subsets, and implement a challenge expansion function to derive all challenges in one subset from one seed challenge. After verifying that the seed challenge is not erased, the TCB can allow the whole challenge subset to be queried to the PUF. This method avoids repeated RB tree insertions for single authentication, and this also enables the erasure of multiple challenges by erasing one seed challenge.

### 5.3 Typical Application Scenario of Erasable PUFs

Let us now briefly illustrate the usage of GeniePUFs in a concrete, exemplary application scenario. As depicted in Figure 5, we choose a bank card like scenario for this purpose, in which



**Fig. 5:** A typical application scenario of GeniePUFs: A user Alice carries around a token with a GeniePUF, employing it in  $k$  potentially untrusted terminals. This allows identification (ID), key exchange (KE) and oblivious transfer (OT) protocols between the terminals or PUF/token on the one hand, and the central authority on the other hand. After any KE and OT protocols, the erasure functionality of the GeniePUF must be used in order to prevent attacks [20].

a token carrying a GeniePUF is used in  $k$  terminals in sequence. We imagine that between the terminals or the PUF/token on the one hand, and some central authority (CA) or bank headquarters (HQ) on the other hand, cryptographic protocols are run, which are all based on this PUF.

We stress that structurally similar communication settings would occur in many other conceivable application scenarios: For example, if payments are made at various shop terminals by a consumer's smart phones; if access cards are used in order to gain entry to different facilities; or if smart phones enroll in different cells of a network, just to name a few. In all of these scenarios, Erasable PUFs might be used beneficially in token-style cryptographic protocols. We stress that some of the terminals may be controlled by the adversary (while it is not known, of course, which of them are infiltrated and which are not). This means that adversaries can realistically gain access to the PUF between protocol runs, and after the completion of earlier protocol runs [20].

It is suggestive to imagine that in this scenario, different PUF-protocols such as simple, plain CRP-based identification [2, 3], KE [15, 38, 55], and OT [14, 15], are executed between the card, the terminals, and/or the central authority/bank headquarters. Generally speaking, these protocols will enable mutual identification and secure

<sup>6</sup>At the time of our implementational work, this size of the iPUF was considered secure; we remark that this no longer holds due to some recent advances in iPUF modeling attacks [46, 50]. However, this does not affect our evaluation results, as we are mainly evaluating the interface design, not the underlying PUF. Since our GeniePUF technique is generic, it could also be implemented with larger iPUF sizes that are secure, PUFs whose security can be reduced to computational hardness assumptions [51, 52], or with alternative future secure implementations of Strong PUFs, of course.

communication between the terminals and PUF-carrying token on the one hand, and the CA/bank HQ on the other hand. We remind readers in this context that OT allows any secure-two party computations or zero-knowledge proofs between the abovementioned parties, as it is long known [56].

Now, one core observation is that if secure standard Strong PUFs (without erasability functionality) are used in the described scenario, the resulting protocols nevertheless are insecure [20]: Any adversarial access to the used Strong PUF *between* protocol runs, and *after* the completion of a protocol, breaks all earlier OT, KE, or SMC protocols [20]. In brief, the reason is that such post-protocol access allows adversaries to query the PUF for unknown CRPs that have been used in earlier protocol runs [20].

Erasable PUFs give users the possibility to overcome this problem. Their fine-grained ability to erase single CRP (without affecting other CRPs, such as a global reconfiguration operation would) guarantees two things: First of all, the simple post-protocol attacks of [20] are no longer applicable. Secondly, essentially all other CRPs and CRP-lists collected by other parties remain valid, and do not need to be collected anew (as in the case of complete reconfiguration of the PUF).

Adaption of the protocols to the case of Erasable PUFs is rather simple: The identification, KE and OT schemes based on Erasable PUFs to be used in this context are exactly like the existing Strong PUF based ID [3], KE [15, 38, 55] or OT [14, 15] schemes from the literature — merely with one twist: At the end of the KE and OT scheme, all CRPs employed in the protocol must be erased from the PUF in a final step. This ensures the long-term security of KE and OT [20, 21]. As before, we stress that at the end of any identification protocols, no further steps need to be added, since no long-term confidentiality is required there. Overall, this hopefully illustrates how Erasable PUFs can guarantee secure protocol execution in the described, realistic scenario.

We notice that Fischlin and Mazaheri introduced a self-guarding PUF-based key exchange protocol that is secure against substituted PUF attacks in the bad/encapsulated PUF model [17]. The protocol can be applied to any strong PUFs, including stateful PUFs, so using GeniePUF in the protocol can result in a PUF-based key exchange protocol that is secure against both the PUF

Re-Use model and the bad PUF model defined in [20].

## 6 A Conceptual Extension: Programmable Access Controlled PUFs (PAC PUFs)

As a conceptual extension of Erasable PUFs, we introduce Programmable Access Controlled PUFs (PAC PUFs) in this section. In a nutshell, PAC PUFs have a general access control policy that stores a code snippet and/or state. A policy checker uses this to decide whether permission to the response of the challenge is allowed in future requests (or not). This generalization allows quite powerful constructs besides Erasable PUF, such as count-limited objects and password controlled PUFs. They are given as examples in sections 7.2 and 7.3.

In greater detail, PAC PUFs generalize the concept of Erasable PUFs by allowing a more general access control policy to decide whether permission is allowed to access a response given a challenge. The access control policy maintains a state which allows us to move beyond Erasable PUFs:

**Definition 6** (Access Control Policy Operation) We associate with PUF  $P$  a challenge set  $C_P$  and a canonical set of responses  $\{r_c^P\}_{c \in C_P}$ .

An access control policy  $\text{Policy}(S_P, c, x)$  for PUF  $P$  takes a policy state  $S_P$ , a challenge  $c$ , and user supplied  $x$  as input. It outputs whether  $P$  should be allowed to reveal its canonical response corresponding to  $c$  or not. By abuse of notation we write  $S_P(x)$  to denote the set of challenges  $c$  for which  $\text{Policy}(S_P, c, x)$  gives permission.

An access control policy operation  $\mathbf{ACP}(y)$  for a PUF  $P$  with policy state  $S_P$  is a specific physical or logical process that takes as input the PUF  $P$  and a user input  $y$ , and produces as output a related PUF  $P'$  with an updated policy state  $S_{P'}$  with the following properties:

- $P'$  has the same challenge set  $C_P$  and the same canonical set of responses  $\{r_c^{P'}\}_{c \in C_P}$  as  $P$ . That is,  $C_{P'} = C_P$  and  $r_c^{P'} = r_c^P$ .
- If  $y$  includes a challenge input pair  $(c, x)$ , then  $\mathbf{ACP}$  also outputs  $r_c^{P'}$  if  $c \in S_{P'}(x)$  and outputs  $\perp$  if  $c \notin S_{P'}(x)$ . ■

As an example,  $\mathbf{ACP}(y)$  may have the effect of removing  $c$  from  $S_P(x)$  (i.e.,  $c \notin S_{P'}(x)$ ) implying that given user input  $x$  the response of  $c$  appears to be “erased” since only the  $\perp$  symbol is returned. In reverse, it may also be possible that  $c$  is added to  $S_P(x)$  such that user input  $x$  “gains” access to the response of  $c$  (which previously the user had no permission to have access to).

Note that the access control policy  $\text{Policy}(S_P, c, x)$  can be generalized as a universal Turing machine (where  $S_P$  is a collection of code snippets that can be executed by  $\text{Policy}$ ), and it can run multiple rounds of interactions with the user or even other entities (e.g., other PUFs or servers) to determine the permission of the response requested. Here, we collectively denote all the interactions with the user and possibly other entities as  $x$ . Also, simply checking the access control policy may update its state as well; e.g., in a count-limited PUF, every time a challenge is evaluated, its associated counter will decrease by one until its limited usage is depleted. A detailed example will be given later.

The definition of  $\mathbf{ACP}$  states that, besides outputting an adapted  $P'$  and policy state  $S_{P'}$ ,  $\mathbf{ACP}(y)$  may also output a canonical response  $r_c^P$  for some challenge  $c$ . Which response is revealed depends on input  $y$ , which in turn may depend on secret information such as a password which hash is checked in  $\text{Policy}$ . This means that a legitimate user who has auxiliary information in the form of this password can use  $\mathbf{ACP}$  to reveal responses that cannot be obtained by an adversary who has no knowledge of the password. A detailed example will be given later. The following definition formalizes which responses can be revealed to an entity who knows certain auxiliary information and only uses the  $\mathbf{ACP}$  interface in the way it is specified by Definition 6.

**Definition 7** (Accessible Responses) Let  $\mathbf{ACP}$  be an access control policy operation for PUF  $P$  with policy state  $S_P$ . Let  $\mathbf{aux}$  be auxiliary information and let  $\mathcal{L}$  be an algorithm that takes  $\mathbf{aux}$  and  $S_P$  as input and interacts through  $\mathbf{ACP}$  with PUF  $P$  in the following way:

1. Let  $P^{(0)} = P$  and  $S_{P^{(0)}} = S_P$ . Choose an integer  $k > 0$ .
2. For  $j = 1, \dots, k$ , the following **loop** is repeated:

- Based on  $S_{P^{(j-1)}}$  together with  $\mathbf{aux}$  and its current state, algorithm  $\mathcal{L}$  computes  $y_j$ .
- Execute  $\mathbf{ACP}(y_j)$  which outputs  $P^{(j)}$  and  $S_{P^{(j)}}$

3.  $\mathcal{L}$  outputs the last response it received during the previous loop together with its corresponding challenge.

Summarizing, based on  $\mathbf{aux}$  and  $S_P$ , algorithm  $\mathcal{L}$  outputs a canonical challenge response pair  $(c, r_c^P)$  based on a sequence  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m$  with  $(c, x)$  included in  $y_m$  and such that applying  $\mathbf{ACP}(y_j)$  in sequence for  $j = 1$  to  $m$  gives rise to a PUF  $P'$  and policy state  $S_{P'}$  with  $c \in S_{P'}(x)$  (hence,  $\mathbf{ACP}(y_m)$  also outputs  $r_c^P = r_c^{P'}$ ). By  $t_{\text{reach}}$  we denote the cumulative time that has elapsed in the repetitions of Step 2 within the **loop**.

We define  $\text{Reach}(\mathbf{aux}, S_P, t_{\text{reach}})$  as the set of all canonical challenge response pairs  $(c, r_c^P)$  for which there exists an algorithm  $\mathcal{L}$  as defined above which outputs  $r_c^P$  within time  $t_{\text{reach}}$  (by legitimate interaction with the PUF through  $\mathbf{ACP}$ ). ■

Now we are ready to define the security of a Programmable Access Controlled PUF. The above definition explains which responses can be learned from legitimate interaction with the PUF. The definition below defines the difficulty of guessing other responses that an adversary should not be able to learn.

**Definition 8** (Secure Programmable Access Controlled PUFs) Let  $P$  be a PUF with access control state  $S_P$  and policy  $\text{Policy}$ ,  $k$  be a positive integer, and  $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{aux})$  be an adversary with auxiliary information  $\mathbf{aux}$ . Furthermore let  $\mathcal{B}$  represents other parties who interact with PUF  $P$ .  $P$  is called a  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -secure Programmable Access Controlled PUF with respect to  $\mathcal{A}$  if for all  $(\mathcal{B}, \mathbf{aux})$  adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  has a probability of at most  $\epsilon$  to “win” the following security game with  $\mathcal{B}$  based on auxiliary information  $\mathbf{aux}$ :

**SecGameAccessControl**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$ :

1. The PUF  $P$  is handed over to  $\mathcal{A}$ , starting the game. <sup>3</sup>
2.  $\mathcal{A}$  is allowed to conduct physical actions and to carry out numeric computations, potentially exploiting his physical access to  $P$ . These actions and computations are limited by the laws of physics and by  $\mathcal{A}$ 's individual capabilities and equipment. Note that  $\mathcal{A}$  is also allowed to perform  $\mathbf{ACP}(\cdot)$ . However, he cannot update (tamper with)  $S_P$  to regain access to any challenges he has no permission to access.

3. At an adaptively selected point in time of  $\mathcal{A}$ 's choice, he hands  $P$  back to  $\mathcal{B}$  ( $P = P^{(0)}$ , see Definition 3).<sup>3</sup>
4. Then for  $j = 1, \dots, k$ , the following **loop** is repeated:
  - (a)  $\mathcal{B}$  selects an input  $y_j$  and  $\mathbf{ACP}(y_j)$  is executed, but none of its output is revealed to adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ . This creates a PUF  $P^{(j)}$  with policy state  $S_{P^{(j)}}$ .<sup>3</sup>
  - (b)  $P^{(j)}$  and  $S_{P^{(j)}}$  are handed over to  $\mathcal{A}$ .<sup>3</sup>
  - (c)  $\mathcal{A}$  is allowed to conduct physical actions and to carry out numeric computations and access control operations  $\mathbf{ACP}(\cdot)$ , possibly exploiting his physical access to  $P^{(j)}$ . These actions and computations are again limited by the laws of physics and by  $\mathcal{A}$ 's individual capabilities and equipment. Notice that access control operations  $\mathbf{ACP}(\cdot)$  may modify PUF  $P^{(j)}$  with policy state  $S_{P^{(j)}}$ . The resulting PUF with policy state is handed over to  $\mathcal{B}$ .
5.  $\mathcal{A}$  chooses to guess one of the responses that he has no permission to access after the above loop, i.e., he outputs a tuple  $(j^*, c^*, r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*})$ , with  $1 \leq j^* \leq k$ , and  $r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*} \in R_P$  such that

$$(c^*, r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*}) \notin \text{Reach}(\text{aux}, S_{P^{(j^*)}}, t_{\text{att}}).$$

This ends the game.<sup>3</sup>

$\mathcal{A}$  “wins” the game if:

- $\mathcal{A}$  has made an output  $(j^*, c^*, r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*})$  and  $r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*}$  is equal to the canonical response of  $P$  on challenge  $c^*$ , i.e., if

$$r_{\text{guess}}^{j^*} = r_{c^*}^P.$$

- The cumulative time that has elapsed in Steps 2 and in the  $k$  repetitions of Step 4c within the **loop** does not exceed  $t_{\text{att}}$ .

In all of this, the probability  $\epsilon$  is taken over the random choice of challenge  $c^*$ , and over all random procedures that  $\mathcal{A}$  employs in the security game. ■

## 7 Examples and First Applications of PAC PUFs

### 7.1 Example 1: GeniePUF

To start our list of examples, our earlier GeniePUF is probably among the simplest conceivable PAC PUFs. Its policy state  $S_P$  is the authenticated

search tree which is used (by Policy) to decide whether a response for a challenge is erased or not. Based on input  $x$  being equal to either ‘erased’ or ‘read’, the GeniePUF erases a response or reads a response for a challenge  $c$ . The set of challenges that is not erased, that is the set of challenges for which permission is granted, is denoted by  $S_P(x)$ .

We notice that the security game of an Erasable PUF is a simplification of the security game of a PAC PUF. First,  $c_{\text{erase}}^j$  represents challenges for which responses are erased; these challenge response pairs are the ones that are outside Reach. Second, the **loop** selects a random challenge that will be erased while for PAC PUFs  $\mathcal{B}$  selects the challenge that will be erased. This changes the game from an average case analysis to a worst-case analysis because we require the probability of winning to be at most  $\epsilon$  for all  $\mathcal{B}$ . In the case of Erasable PUFs where responses for different challenges are statistically independent, the average and worst-case analysis are the same. In practice, there can be a statistical correlation, especially if, in certain PUF designs, the Hamming distance between challenges is small. For a worst-case security analysis to hold, one may preprocess challenges by means of a one-way function (this maps the worst-case analysis to an average case analysis).

### 7.2 Example 2: Count-limited access PUF

A more complex structure of PAC PUF can be a count-limited access PUF. Every CRP of a count-limited access PUF can only be accessed a certain number of times (denoted as  $T$ ), after which the CRP will be permanently erased.

To design such a count-limited access PUF, one can create a counter associated with every challenge that has been queried. The counter indicates how many times the associated challenge can still be accessed. For all the challenges that have not been accessed before, its counter is implicitly defined in the Policy as  $T$ , so we can avoid explicitly managing individual counters for every challenge. All the individual counters that correspond to challenges that have been accessed can be managed in an authenticated search tree like the one used in GeniePUF. If a challenge  $c$  is given as input for the first time, then the authenticated search tree is extended with a node that



corresponds to  $c$  and its counter set to a maximum value  $T - 1$ . Every subsequent access to  $c$  will decrease the counter by one until it equals 0 after which the corresponding response is erased. In this way, we can still use constant-sized trusted storage to efficiently manage an arbitrarily large query history (state). In this implementation, the access control state  $S_P$  will be updated every time the PUF is queried unless the queried CRP has been permanently erased.

Count-limited access PUFs can be used in authentication protocols to limit the reliability information leakage from CRPs to mitigate reliability based attacks [57]. For example, if every challenge of a PUF can only be accessed at most two times (one for enrollment and the other for verification), then an attacker will need to collect more CRPs to gather enough challenge-reliability information pairs to launch a successful reliability-based attack [57]<sup>7</sup>.

In addition, count-limited access PUFs can also be used in digital right management [58], and more broadly in count-limited object [59]. For example, one can build a  $T$ -time usage secret key from the construction of a count-limited access PUFs, and the usage of digital contents (e.g., movies, video games) can be strictly enforced by the  $T$ -time usage secret key as explained in [59].

### 7.3 Example 3: Password controlled PUF

As we are moving towards more general access control policies, we can build a password controlled PUF fitting the general definition of Programmable Access Controlled PUFs as well. A password controlled PUF only returns the response of a queried challenge if the user also provides a correct password.

To implement a coarse-grained password controlled PUF, we can simply store the hash values of all the passwords in the state of the PUF. If a user provided password's hash value matches a stored hash value, then any CRP the user asks will be allowed. Also, in this type of password controlled PUFs, we need an administrative role who

can edit the passwords (the hash values of passwords) in the state, so that the administrator has the highest privilege level to edit other user's permission. This administrative role can be controlled by a master password in practice.

Of course, we can also create fine-grained control on CRPs, i.e., we assign a unique password for accessing individual CRPs or a set of CRPs. Obviously, the state of the PUF will grow with the number of unique passwords in the system. Hence, we can reuse the idea of the authenticated search tree in GeniePUF to manage the state. However, the challenges of the PUF will no longer be the keys of each node in the tree; we can use the hash values of passwords as the keys to construct the tree. In each node, we can store the hash value of a valid password and all the challenges that the password owner can access. Clearly, an administrative password is needed again to update the state of the PUF.

A password controlled PUF can have various applications. Its most important application is to construct a key management scheme using a shared PUF. For example, the secret key of Alice is the responses of a set of challenges, and Bob has his secret key extracted from the responses of another set of challenges of the same PUF. Using a password controlled PUF, Alice and Bob can each have her/his own password for accessing their own private CRPs without possibly compromising the other's key even if one of them has the possession and full knowledge (knowing the state) of the PUF.

## 8 Summary and Future Work

PUFs have enjoyed the intense attention of the security community for around two decades by now. While their main applications initially consisted of key storage and system identification, a no less interesting second research strand has evolved in recent years: So-called Strong PUFs have been suggested as cryptographic primitive in advanced protocols such as key exchange (KE), bit commitment (BC), oblivious transfer (OT), or secure multiparty computation (SMC).

One fundamental and unresolved problem in the area had been the re-use of the same PUF in multiple runs of these protocols, however. While such re-use appears imperative from an economic

---

<sup>7</sup>Count-limited access PUFs alone do not solve the reliability-based attacks on XOR PUFs, due to the existence of correlated CRPs in XOR PUFs.

and efficiency perspective, it creates severe security issues [20]: All abovementioned KE, OT, and SMC protocols can be broken in such a scenario (albeit, as we explicitly stress, not the simplest Strong PUF based identification protocols [3]; compare [20]). It can be formally proven [21] that this issue in Strong PUF based OT, KE and SMC cannot be overcome by additional protocol or software steps alone. Instead, it requires resolution on the hardware level and a novel PUF-type, so-called Erasable PUFs. By definition, they allow that single CRP can be “*altered*” or “*erased*” for good, without affecting any other CRPs.

Our paper now for the first time proposes a fully viable construction for Erasable PUFs, which furthermore is generic, i.e., which can turn any Strong PUF with a digital challenge-response interface into an Erasable PUF. In greater detail, our approach named “*GeniePUF*” is based on a trusted control logic that surrounds the given Strong PUF. This comes at the price of extending the trusted computing base of the system, now including the PUF’s control logic. This might seem unusual at first sight. On the other hand, the same approach has long been accepted in the PUF-area in other contexts, for example in the construction of so-called Controlled PUFs [29]. Furthermore, our GeniePUFs require a public, but authenticated piece of information accompanying the PUF. Again, this assumption might appear exotic at first glance, but has long been introduced and accepted in the standard key derivation from Weak PUFs. Overall, our construction hence rests on previously known and somewhat principles within the PUF-area. Also the use of a hash function in connection with PUFs, even inside the TCB (which makes things more tedious) has been used before us, namely in the context of Controlled PUFs [29].

We also to our knowledge presented the first formal definitional framework for Erasable PUFs. Using a parametric, non-asymptotic style of definitions, not considering infinite PUF-families, but single PUFs and their properties, we tried to clearly define our objects of study. Compared to other approaches, the compact and semi-formal style of our framework makes it easily accessible, also for non-theorists. Our hope is that this might allow the definitions (and similar, future ones that might adopt their style) to act as link between PUF-theorists and PUF-practitioners. We also

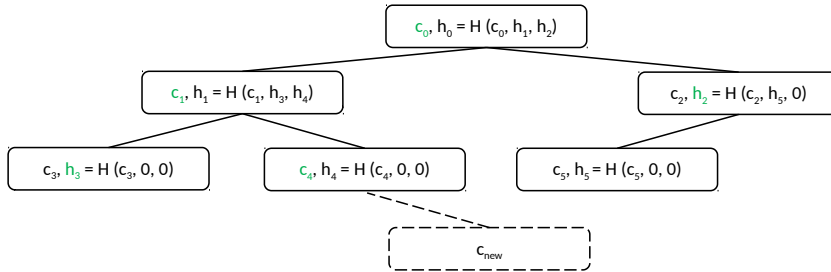
proved the relationship between strong PUFs and Erasable PUFs (GeniePUFs). In that, we tried to demonstrate how one can reason somewhat formally and rigidly about security while using our semi-formal definitional framework.

## Future Work

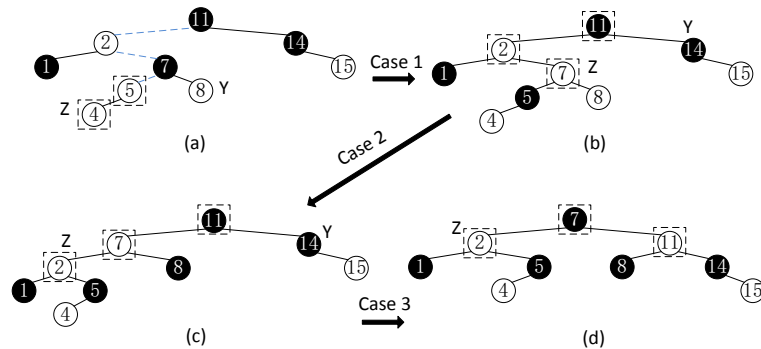
We believe that various future research opportunities arise from our work. Starting with the practical and implementational side, further optimization of our logical Erasable PUFs together with prototyping in FPGAs and ASICs seems a worthwhile endeavour. Other Strong PUFs than the iPUF [49] can be used in connection with the generic GeniePUF technique. On the theory side, our novel definitional framework will first of all hopefully spark a new style of easily accessible, intuitive PUF-definitions in follow-up works. Secondly, follow-up theory works could utilize Erasable PUFs in advanced protocols, in which PUFs can indeed be securely re-used, going beyond the original set-up and communication model of [15]. Formalizing and proving the security of such new schemes, for example in the universal composition framework (compare [15]), appears interesting for future theory papers.

A final promising avenue is to further explore the concept of PAC PUFs, for example spelling out other useful access policies for PUF-applications, and investigating yet other applications of theirs.

**Acknowledgments.** Chenglu Jin was supported by NSF award CNS 1617774, NYU CCS, and NYU CUSP. Wayne Burleson was supported by NSF/SRC grant CNS-1619558. Marten van Dijk was supported by NSF award CNS 1617774. Ulrich Rührmair acknowledges support by BMBF-project QUBE and by BMBF-project PICOLA and by the AFOSR Project on “*Highly Secure Nonlinear Optical PUFs*”.



**Fig. A1:** Proof construction in an authenticated search tree. Suppose that one needs to prove that  $c_{new}$  does not exist in the authenticated search tree (containing  $c_0$  to  $c_5$ ). For example, the dashed node shows the location where  $c_{new}$  is supposed to be. The green information is included in the proof of non-existence for  $c_{new}$ . Note that the hash value stored in the left child of  $c_4$  is also needed in the proof, but it is omitted in the diagram, because it is a *nil* node in the tree.



**Fig. A2:** Insertion of a new node 4.

## Appendix A Background on Authenticated Search Trees and Red-Black Trees

An authenticated search tree was introduced in [41] as an undeniable attester. In the context of our GeniePUF, an untrusted Red-Black Tree (RBT) interface is used, which manages LIST of size  $n$ . It takes a challenge as input, and generates a proof of non-existence/existence of this challenge in LIST. Notice that, the length of the proof is only  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$  long. Upon receiving the non-existence/existence proof, the TCB around the PUF can then verify the proof by checking against a constant-sized ( $\mathcal{O}(1)$ ) root hash stored in the TCB. This root hash does not need to be kept secret, i.e., it can be known to adversaries; it must

merely be secure against alteration or overwriting by adversaries.

To further improve the performance of an authenticated search tree in the worst case scenario, where a standard search tree will become extremely unbalanced, we merge a red-black tree (RB tree) [42, 60] with the authenticated search tree in the untrusted memory. In short, a red-black tree is one self-balancing binary search tree structure [42, 60], which checks and balances the depth of the tree after every node insertion and deletion. Hence, a Red-Black tree can guarantee searching in  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$  time in the average and the worst scenario, where  $n$  is the total number of nodes in the tree [42].

In the following, we will describe the necessary procedures of our authenticated red-black trees (e.g., we only describe node insertion, not deletion, because in the GeniePUF application, LIST can only grow). In particular, we present the high

level idea of the following basic schemes of our combined tree structure to prepare the readers for understanding this paper.

An authenticated search tree is sorted according to the challenges stored in each node, and it is constructed in such a way that each node consists of a unique challenge  $c_i$  in the LIST and a hash value  $h_i = F_{\text{Hash}}(c_i, \text{left}(c_i).\text{hash}, \text{right}(c_i).\text{hash})$ , where  $\text{left}(c_i).\text{hash}$  and  $\text{right}(c_i).\text{hash}$  are the hash values stored in the left or right child of node  $c_i$ , respectively. The hash values of the children of the bottom leaves are considered to be 0 by default. An example tree structure is shown in Figure A1.

**Scheme 3:** SEARCHING FOR A CHALLENGE  $c_i$  IN A RBT

1. The RBT interface receives a challenge  $c_i$ .
2. The RBT interface searches for  $c_i$ , using the RBT as an ordinary binary search tree.
3. In the end, it results in two cases:
  - If  $c_i$  is found, then a pointer to the node associated with  $c_i$  is returned.
  - If the binary search for  $c_i$  within RBT reaches a leaf node, where no challenge is stored, then the interface returns a pointer to the parent node of the leaf node. (This parent node is the lowest node in the tree whose child  $c_i$  would have supposed to be, if  $c_i$  was part of the RBT.) In the example in Figure A1, the returned pointer will be pointing to the node containing  $c_4$ .

**Scheme 4:** GENERATING A PROOF OF EXISTENCE/NON-EXISTENCE OF A CHALLENGE  $c_i$  IN A RBT

1. After a search for  $c_i$ , as described in Scheme 3, is completed in the LIST (either found or not found), the RBT interface gets a node in the tree from the search procedure. It sets this node as the starting node of the PROOF.
2. The interface adds the challenge of the starting node and the hash values stored in the children nodes of the starting node into the PROOF. Again, taking the example of Figure A1, the information added is  $c_4$  and the hash values of its two children (two *nil* nodes).

3. Then the RBT interface fetches the challenge of the node and the hash value in the sibling node of each node along the path in the tree from the starting node to the root of the tree to generate the completed PROOF of non-existence/existence of  $c_i$ . E.g., adding  $(c_1, h_3)$  and  $(c_0, h_2)$  into the PROOF, as shown in Figure A1.
4. It returns the completed PROOF.

The proof construction process is also illustrated in Figure A1.

**Scheme 5:** VERIFYING A PROOF OF EXISTENCE/NON-EXISTENCE

1. All the proofs generated by the RBT interface have to be verified by the trusted control logic CL. After a proof is received, the CL checks the starting node first. If it is a proof of non-existence, the CL checks whether the left/ right child of the starting node is a leaf node based on whether  $c$  is smaller/ greater than the challenge in the starting node. In the case of an existence proof, the CL verifies the order of the two children and the starting node. If any of the above check failed, return “ $\perp$ ”.
2. Then the CL hashes every node from the starting node of the proof all the way to the root, using the challenge value of each node and their sibling hash values provided in the proof. The order of left and right child is determined by comparing two consecutive challenges in the PROOF. The final result is RootHash’.
3. Check if RootHash’ = RootHash stored in the TCB:
  - If yes, we conclude that the PROOF is a valid proof. Based on whether its an existence proof or a non-existence proof, we conclude whether  $c_i$  is in the LIST or not.
  - If no, the PROOF is considered as invalid, and we conclude that either the LIST or the RBT Interface has been tampered with by an attacker.

**Scheme 6:** ADDING A NEW CHALLENGE  $c_i$  TO THE RBT

1. In the case that a new challenge  $c_i$  needs to be added to the LIST, the RBT interface first

proves that  $c_i$  is not in the LIST using the above schemes.

2. If the non-existence of  $c_i$  gets accepted by the verifier, then  $c_i$  is added as a child of the node returned by the search procedure.
3. After insertion, a red-black tree fix-up is triggered. It may rotate the structure of the tree to re-balance it. More details about the red-black tree fixup can be found in the example in the Appendix B and [42].
4. After fix-up, a new RootHash will be generated by the trusted control logic CL according to the fixup information of the tree and the proof of non-existence used in Scheme 3.

Note that, based on the way the authenticated search tree is constructed and verified, its security solely relies on the collision resistance of the underlying hash function.

## Appendix B Example Rotation of an Authenticated RB Tree

Figure A2 depicts an example of consecutive operations in Red-Black Tree Insert-Fixup, see [42]. (a) A new node 4 is inserted. The dashed path in (a) is PROOF. All of the information in nodes 5, 7, 2 and 11 are included in PROOF, together with the hash values of nodes 8, 1 and 14, called the sibling's hash values. In order to verify non-existence, we need to reconstruct the root hash using PROOF and compare with the trusted root hash stored in the TCB. In addition, we need to check whether new node 4 is added at the correct location, which means  $2 < 4 < 5$ , and node 5 has no left child. Here, case 1 in [42] applies, so node 5 and 7 are recolored but the structure remain the same.

There are six possible cases in a RB tree fixup, in which only case 2, 3, 5 and 6 in [42] will rotate the structure of the tree; this example shows three cases (the other three cases are similar in that they are mirrored versions of the three in the example). In (b),(c) and (d), the nodes in dashed blocks are the nodes which hash values need to be updated; the transition from (b) to (c) is a rotation and the transition from (c) to (d) is a rotation. Note that, PROOF already provides all the information needed for updating these hash values. In this

example, in order to compute the hash of node 2, 7 and 11 in (d), we need the hash value of node 5, which was updated in case 1 during the transition from (a) to (b), and the hash values of nodes 1, 8 and 14, which are exactly the sibling's hash values that are contained in PROOF.

## Appendix C Proofs of Theorems

In the following proofs we assume that ignoring operations or communication does not increase the original execution time  $t_{\text{att}}$  of an adversary.

### C.1 Proof of Theorem 1

*Proof.* We will show the contraposition of the above statement, assuming that  $P$  is *not* an  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -secure Strong PUF with respect to some adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ . By Definition 2, this implies that there exists an adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  who is capable of winning the security game **SecGameStrong**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$  of Definition 2 with probability greater than  $\epsilon$ . This, in turn, means that  $\mathcal{A}$  can predict the correct response to one out of  $k$  uniformly randomly chosen challenges  $c^j \in C_P$  with probability greater than  $\epsilon$ , whereby the time that  $\mathcal{A}$  requires for his physical actions and numeric computations does not exceed  $t_{\text{att}}$ .

We notice that the very same adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  will also win the security game **SecGameErasable**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$  with probability greater than  $\epsilon$ . The reason for this is that the execution of the security game **SecGameErasable**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$  with  $c^j = c_{\text{erase}}^j$  is identical to the execution of the security game **SecGameStrong**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$  because adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  in **SecGameErasable**  $(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}})$  never attempts to query an erased challenge  $c^j = c_{\text{erase}}^j$ . This implies that  $P$  is not a  $(k, t_{\text{att}}, \epsilon)$ -secure Erasable PUF, completing our contraposition argument.

### C.2 Proof Sketch of Theorem 2

*Proof Sketch.* Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be any adversary that is modeled by Definition 5. We define a series of games that reduce

$$\mathbf{SecGameErasable}(P, \mathcal{A}, k, t_{\text{att}}),$$

with probability of winning denoted by  $\epsilon_{\text{erase}}$ , to

$$\mathbf{SecGameStrong}(P, \mathcal{A}', k, t_{\text{att}}),$$

where  $\epsilon$  is the probability of winning as stated in the theorem.

We first modify **SecGameErasable** by assuming an adversary  $\mathcal{A}^0$  who is like  $\mathcal{A}$  but who cannot produce a valid PROOF for an invalid claim that a challenge was not erased in its interactions with **GeniePUF**( $P$ ). We call this new game **SecGameErasable**<sup>0</sup> and denote the probability of winning this game by  $\epsilon_0$ . By the implicit assumptions on the capabilities of the adversary in Definition 5, we know that the control logic CL and PUF  $P$  cannot be modified. Therefore, the only way to produce a valid PROOF for an (erased) challenge  $c$  in RBT is to find a collision for the hash function. By Theorem 1 in Section 6.2 of [41], the probability of finding a valid PROOF is at most  $\rho$ . This shows that

$$\epsilon_{\text{erase}} \leq \epsilon_0 + \rho.$$

Not being able to provide a valid PROOF for an invalid claim in **SecGameErasable**<sup>0</sup> means that the **GeniePUF**( $P$ ) does not produce responses for erased challenges. This is similar to the same game **SecGameErasable**<sup>0</sup> where in Step 4a only a challenge  $c_{\text{erase}}^j$  is chosen at random but not erased, and with the restriction that the adversary is not allowed to query  $c_{\text{erase}}^j$  after  $c_{\text{erase}}^j$  is given to the adversary in Step 4b. We call this game **SecGameErasable**<sup>1</sup>. We now define  $\mathcal{A}^1$  as adversary  $\mathcal{A}^0$  by discarding any erasure operations which  $\mathcal{A}^0$  asks for in Step 2 or Step 4c (these operations cannot lead to feedback from **GeniePUF**( $P$ ) which contains predictive information that can be used in Step 5). For  $\mathcal{A}^1$ , we can now conclude that game **SecGameErasable**<sup>1</sup> has winning probability  $\epsilon_1$  for which

$$\epsilon_0 = \epsilon_1.$$

Notice that **SecGameErasable**<sup>1</sup> does not implement any erasure operations. Because **SecGameErasable**<sup>1</sup> disallows querying any of the  $c_{\text{erase}}^j$  after being selected in Step 4a and communicated to  $\mathcal{A}^1$  in Step 4b of game **SecGameErasable**<sup>1</sup>, we know that the control logic CL of **GeniePUF**( $P$ ) simply provides

direct access to  $P$  for the queries by  $\mathcal{A}^1$ . Therefore, the control logic of **GeniePUF**( $P$ ) provides direct access to  $P$  in **SecGameErasable**<sup>1</sup> and provides no other functionality. This means **SecGameErasable**<sup>1</sup> results directly in a game for PUF  $P$  where we have conceptually stripped away the control logic of **GeniePUF**( $P$ ).

Unrolling all the steps in **SecGameErasable**<sup>1</sup> for  $P$  shows its equivalence with **SecGameStrong**. We now define  $\mathcal{A}'$  as  $\mathcal{A}^1$  where any attempt by  $\mathcal{A}^1$  to read state in RBT or control logic CL is replaced by dummy observations. For  $\mathcal{A}'$ , we may now conclude that **SecGameStrong** has winning probability

$$\epsilon_1 = \epsilon.$$

By combining all inequalities and equations we have

$$\epsilon_{\text{erase}} \leq \epsilon + \rho.$$

## References

- [1] Lofstrom K, Daasch WR, Taylor D. IC identification circuit using device mismatch. In: 2000 IEEE International Solid-State Circuits Conference. Digest of Technical Papers (Cat. No. 00CH37056). IEEE; 2000. p. 372–373.
- [2] Gassend B, Clarke D, van Dijk M, Devadas S. Silicon physical random functions. In: Proceedings of the 9th ACM conference on Computer and communications security. ACM; 2002. p. 148–160.
- [3] Pappu R, Recht B, Taylor J, Gershenfeld N. Physical one-way functions. *Science*. 2002;297(5589):2026–2030.
- [4] Rührmair U, Holcomb DE. PUFs at a glance. In: Proceedings of the conference on Design, Automation & Test in Europe. European Design and Automation Association; 2014. p. 347.
- [5] Holcomb DE, Bursleson WP, Fu K. Initial SRAM state as a fingerprint and source of true random numbers for RFID tags. In: Proceedings of the Conference on RFID Security. vol. 7; 2007. .

- [6] Jaeger C, Algasinger M, Rührmair U, Csaba G, Stutzmann M. Random pn-junctions for physical cryptography. *Applied Physics Letters*. 2010;96(17):172103.
- [7] Xiong W, Schaller A, Anagnostopoulos NA, Saleem MU, Gabmeyer S, Katzenbeisser S, et al. Run-time accessible DRAM PUFs in commodity devices. In: *International Conference on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems*. Springer; 2016. p. 432–453.
- [8] Kumar SS, Guajardo J, Maes R, Schrijen GJ, Tuyls P. The butterfly PUF protecting IP on every FPGA. In: *2008 IEEE International Workshop on Hardware-Oriented Security and Trust*. IEEE; 2008. p. 67–70.
- [9] Holcomb DE, Burleson WP, Fu K. Power-up SRAM state as an identifying fingerprint and source of true random numbers. *IEEE Transactions on Computers*. 2009;58(9):1198–1210.
- [10] Simons P, van der Sluis E, van der Leest V. Buskeeper PUFs, a promising alternative to D flip-flop PUFs. In: *2012 IEEE International Symposium on Hardware-Oriented Security and Trust*. IEEE; 2012. p. 7–12.
- [11] Maes R, Van Herreweghe A, Verbauwhede I. PUFKY: A fully functional PUF-based cryptographic key generator. In: *International Workshop on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems*. Springer; 2012. p. 302–319.
- [12] Maes R, Van Der Leest V, Van Der Sluis E, Willems F. Secure key generation from biased PUFs. In: *International Workshop on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems*. Springer; 2015. p. 517–534.
- [13] Suh GE, Devadas S. Physical unclonable functions for device authentication and secret key generation. In: *Proceedings of the 44th annual Design Automation Conference*. ACM; 2007. p. 9–14.
- [14] Rührmair U. Oblivious transfer based on physical unclonable functions. In: *Trust and Trustworthy Computing*. Springer; 2010. p. 430–440.
- [15] Brzuska C, Fischlin M, Schröder H, Katzenbeisser S. Physically uncloneable functions in the universal composition framework. In: *Advances in Cryptology CRYPTO 2011*. Springer; 2011. p. 51–70.
- [16] Ostrovsky R, Scauro A, Visconti I, Wadia A. Universally composable secure computation with (malicious) physically uncloneable functions. In: *Advances in Cryptology–EUROCRYPT 2013*. Springer; 2013. p. 702–718.
- [17] Fischlin M, Mazaheri S. Self-guarding cryptographic protocols against algorithm substitution attacks. In: *2018 IEEE 31st Computer Security Foundations Symposium (CSF)*. IEEE; 2018. p. 76–90.
- [18] Chen L, Chen L, Jordan S, Liu YK, Moody D, Peralta R, et al. Report on post-quantum cryptography. US Department of Commerce, National Institute of Standards and Technology; 2016.
- [19] Perlman RJ, Hanna SR.: Methods and systems for establishing a shared secret using an authentication token. Google Patents. US Patent 6,173,400.
- [20] Rührmair U, van Dijk M. Pufs in security protocols: Attack models and security evaluations. In: *Security and Privacy (SP), 2013 IEEE Symposium on*. IEEE; 2013. p. 286–300.
- [21] van Dijk M, Rührmair U. Physical unclonable functions in cryptographic protocols: Security proofs and impossibility results. *IACR Cryptology ePrint Archive*. 2012;2012:228.
- [22] Rührmair U, Jaeger C, Algasinger M. An attack on PUF-based session key exchange and a hardware-based countermeasure: Erasable PUFs. In: *Financial Cryptography and Data Security*. Springer; 2011. p. 190–204.
- [23] Katzenbeisser S, Kocabaş Ü, van Der Leest V, Sadeghi AR, Schrijen GJ, Wachsmann

C. Recyclable pufs: Logically reconfigurable pufs. *Journal of Cryptographic Engineering*. 2011;1(3):177–186.

- [24] Zhang L, Kong ZH, Chang CH, Cabrini A, Torelli G. Exploiting process variations and programming sensitivity of phase change memory for reconfigurable physical unclonable functions. *IEEE Transactions on Information Forensics and Security*. 2014;9(6):921–932.
- [25] Kursawe K, Sadeghi AR, Schellekens D, Skoric B, Tuyls P. Reconfigurable physical unclonable functions-enabling technology for tamper-resistant storage. In: *Hardware-Oriented Security and Trust, 2009. HOST'09. IEEE International Workshop on*. IEEE; 2009. p. 22–29.
- [26] Eichhorn I, Koeberl P, van der Leest V. Logically reconfigurable PUFs: Memory-based secure key storage. In: *Proceedings of the sixth ACM workshop on Scalable trusted computing*. ACM; 2011. p. 59–64.
- [27] Jin C, Bursleson W, van Dijk M, Rührmair U. Erasable PUFs: Formal Treatment and Generic Design. In: *Proceedings of the 4th ACM Workshop on Attacks and Solutions in Hardware Security*; 2020. p. 21–33.
- [28] Rührmair U, Jaeger C, Bator M, Stutzmann M, Lugli P, Csaba G. Applications of high-capacity crossbar memories in cryptography. *Nanotechnology*, *IEEE Transactions on*. 2011;10(3):489–498.
- [29] Gassend B, Clarke D, van Dijk M, Devadas S. Controlled physical random functions. In: *Computer Security Applications Conference, 2002. Proceedings. 18th Annual*. IEEE; 2002. p. 149–160.
- [30] Gassend B, Dijk Mv, Clarke D, Torlak E, Devadas S, Tuyls P. Controlled physical random functions and applications. *ACM Transactions on Information and System Security (TISSEC)*. 2008;10(4):3.
- [31] Rostami M, Majzoobi M, Koushanfar F, Walach DS, Devadas S. Robust and reverse-engineering resilient PUF authentication and key-exchange by substring matching. *IEEE Transactions on Emerging Topics in Computing*. 2014;2(1):37–49.
- [32] Yu MD, Hiller M, Delvaux J, Sowell R, Devadas S, Verbauwhede I. A lockdown technique to prevent machine learning on PUFs for lightweight authentication. *IEEE Transactions on Multi-Scale Computing Systems*. 2016;2(3):146–159.
- [33] Majzoobi M, Koushanfar F, Potkonjak M. Techniques for design and implementation of secure reconfigurable PUFs. *ACM Transactions on Reconfigurable Technology and Systems (TRETTS)*. 2009;2(1):1–33.
- [34] Rührmair U, van Dijk M. On the practical use of physical unclonable functions in oblivious transfer and bit commitment protocols. *Journal of Cryptographic Engineering*. 2013;3(1):17–28.
- [35] Rührmair U, Sölter J, Sehnke F. On the Foundations of Physical Unclonable Functions. *IACR Cryptology ePrint Archive*. 2009;2009:277.
- [36] Rührmair U, Busch H, Katzenbeisser S. Strong PUFs: models, constructions, and security proofs. In: *Towards hardware-intrinsic security*. Springer; 2010. p. 79–96.
- [37] Armknecht F, Moriyama D, Sadeghi AR, Yung M. Towards a unified security model for physically unclonable functions. In: *Cryptographers' Track at the RSA Conference*. Springer; 2016. p. 271–287.
- [38] Rührmair U. Physical Turing Machines and the Formalization of Physical Cryptography. *IACR Cryptology ePrint Archive*. 2011;2011:188.
- [39] Rührmair U, Sehnke F, Sölter J, Dror G, Devadas S, Schmidhuber J. Modeling attacks on physical unclonable functions. In: *Proceedings of the 17th ACM conference on Computer and communications security*.



- ACM; 2010. p. 237–249.
- [40] Herder C, Yu MD, Koushanfar F, Devadas S. Physical unclonable functions and applications: A tutorial. *Proceedings of the IEEE*. 2014;102(8):1126–1141.
- [41] Buldas A, Laud P, Lipmaa H. Accountable certificate management using undeniable attestations. In: *Proceedings of the 7th ACM conference on Computer and communications security*. ACM; 2000. p. 9–17.
- [42] Cormen TH, Leiserson CE, Rivest RL, Stein C, et al. *Introduction to algorithms*. vol. 2. MIT press Cambridge; 2001.
- [43] Rührmair U. SoK: Towards Secret-Free Security. In: *2020 Workshop on Attacks and Solutions in Hardware Security (ASHES@ CCS 2020)*; 2020. .
- [44] Standaert FX. Introduction to side-channel attacks. In: *Secure integrated circuits and systems*. Springer; 2010. p. 27–42.
- [45] Wang H, Forte D, Tehranipoor MM, Shi Q. Probing attacks on integrated circuits: Challenges and research opportunities. *IEEE Design & Test*. 2017;34(5):63–71.
- [46] Wisiol N, Mühl C, Pirnay N, Nguyen PH, Margraf M, Seifert JP, et al. Splitting the interpose PUF: A novel modeling attack strategy. *IACR Transactions on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems*. 2020;p. 97–120.
- [47] Tajik S, Dietz E, Frohmann S, Seifert JP, Nedospasov D, Helfmeier C, et al. Physical characterization of arbiter pufs. In: *Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems—CHES 2014*. Springer; 2014. p. 493–509.
- [48] Barenghi A, Breveglieri L, Koren I, Naccache D. Fault injection attacks on cryptographic devices: Theory, practice, and countermeasures. *Proceedings of the IEEE*. 2012;100(11):3056–3076.
- [49] Nguyen PH, Sahoo DP, Jin C, Mahmood K, Rührmair U, van Dijk M. The Interpose PUF: Secure PUF Design against State-of-the-art Machine Learning Attacks. *IACR Transactions on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems*. 2019;.
- [50] Tobisch J, Aghaie A, Becker GT. Combining Optimization Objectives: New Machine-Learning Attacks on Strong PUFs. *IACR Cryptol ePrint Arch*. 2020;2020:957.
- [51] Herder C, Ren L, Van Dijk M, Yu MD, Devadas S. Trapdoor computational fuzzy extractors and stateless cryptographically-secure physical unclonable functions. *IEEE Transactions on Dependable and Secure Computing*. 2016;14(1):65–82.
- [52] Jin C, Herder C, Ren L, Nguyen PH, Fuller B, Devadas S, et al. FPGA Implementation of a Cryptographically-Secure PUF Based on Learning Parity with Noise. *Cryptography*. 2017;1(3):23.
- [53] Menezes AJ, van Oorschot PC, Vanstone SA. *Handbook of applied cryptography*. CRC press; 1996.
- [54] AES, NIST. *Advanced encryption standard*. Federal Information Processing Standard, FIPS-197. 2001;12.
- [55] Tuyls P, Škorić B. Strong authentication with physical unclonable functions. In: *Security, Privacy, and Trust in Modern Data Management*. Springer; 2007. p. 133–148.
- [56] Kilian J. Founding cryptography on oblivious transfer. In: *Proceedings of the twentieth annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing*. ACM; 1988. p. 20–31.
- [57] Becker GT. The Gap Between Promise and Reality: On the Insecurity of XOR Arbiter PUFs. In: Güneysu T, Handschuh H, editors. *Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems – CHES 2015*. vol. 9293. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg; 2015. p. 535–555.
- [58] Liu Q, Safavi-Naini R, Sheppard NP. Digital rights management for content distribution.

In: Proceedings of the Australasian information security workshop conference on ACSW frontiers 2003-Volume 21. Citeseer; 2003. p. 49–58.

- [59] Sarmenta LF, van Dijk M, O’Donnell CW, Rhodes J, Devadas S. Virtual monotonic counters and count-limited objects using a TPM without a trusted OS. In: Proceedings of the first ACM workshop on Scalable trusted computing. ACM; 2006. p. 27–42.
- [60] Bayer R. Symmetric binary B-trees: Data structure and maintenance algorithms. *Acta informatica*. 1972;1(4):290–306.