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EVALUATION OF DATA OWNERSHIP SOLUTIONS IN REMOTE STORAGE.

Master Thesis

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Tallinn 2016

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Abstract

Võõrkeelse annotatsiooni koostamise ja vormistamise tingimused on esitatud eestikeelse annotatsiooni juures.

The thesis is in [language] and contains [pages] pages of text, [chapters] chapters, [figures] figures, [tables] tables.

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1. Introduction

Describes the problem statement, illustrates why this is a problem and describes the contribution the thesis makes in solving this problem. Optionally, it can give a short description (1-3 sentences each) of the remaining chapters. Good introductions are concise, typically no longer than 4 pages.

2. Terms and definition

Defines the fundamental concepts your thesis builds on. Your thesis implements a new type of parser generator and uses the term non-terminal symbol a lot? Here is where you define what you mean by it. The key to this chapter is to keep it very, very short. Whenever you can, don't reinvent a description for an established concept, but reference a text book or paper instead.

3. Background and Related Work

3.1. Data Deduplication

Cloud computing is an on-demand service. Customers are charged based on used storage and bandwidth.¹ Both service providers and customers are interested in cost efficient solutions of cloud storage. Data deduplication offers disk and bandwidth savings. Idea is simple – avoid or remove a duplicated data. This section covers basic concepts of deduplication technology. Lists various methods and processing type sand underlines the approaches used in cloud storage.

3.1.1. Hash Based Deduplication

To remove or avoid duplicated data, it must be detected first. Hash based data deduplication uses the hash values of a file (or data chunk) as a file (or data chunk) identifier. Hashes of files are calculated and then are kept on the server. When the file is uploaded first time, its hash is computed and it is compared with the existing hashes on the server. If there is a match, the file is not stored on the disk (or in case of client-side deduplication, is not transfered at all). Instead, server creates the reference, which points on the already existing file, with the same hash value. If computed hash does not match with any of the hashes, the file together with the hash value is stored on the server.[1]

3.1.2. Types of Deduplication

Data deduplication differs based on processing methods. If it takes place before the client application transfers the file to the server, it is known as client-side deduplication. If it takes place, after the file is uploaded on server, it is known as server side deduplication. In client-side deduplication scenario, the client application computes the hash of the file and sends it to the server. If the hash already exists on the server side, client application does not send the

¹"With Amazon S3, you pay only for the storage you actually use. There is no minimum fee and no setup cost. Amazon S3 has three pricing components: storage (per GB per month), data transfer in or out (per GB per month), and requests (per n thousand requests per month)." <http://aws.amazon.com/s3/pricing/>

file. If no match is found, it means, that the file is unique and client application transfers it to the server. On the other hand, if client application directly sends file to the server and server computes the hash after it, it is called server-side deduplication. Both processing methods save storage, but client-side deduplication also reduces bandwidth consumption.[2]

Apart of divers processing methods, data deduplication differs in processing levels. There are file and block level data deduplication. Difference between them is intuitive. In case of file level, hash of file is calculated and as a result server stores unique files. In block level scenario, files are divided into blocks(fixed or variable size). Hashes of these blocks are calculated and duplicated data on block level is avoided. [2]

The last concept is, single and cross client data deduplication. Single client data deduplication removes duplicated data in scope of one user. Duplicated data will be stored on the server, if it belongs to different users. On the other hand, cross client deduplication vanishes the user boundaries and unique data would be shared among the users.[2]

3.1.3. Summary

Cloud storage providers are looking for, the most efficient way to reduce the cost. In cross user client-side deduplication case, file or "chunks" of file are stored only ones on the disk and users are sharing the data. It reduces the bandwidth cost dramatically, because the deduplication takes place on client side, and duplicated files are not uploaded at all.[3] Such cost reductions is attractive for cloud storage providers, but this technology has some security drawbacks. [Next section](#) covers potential attacks taking place during cross-user client-side data deduplication in cloud storage.

3.2. Confidentiality and Privacy Issues in Remote Storage

Although deduplication is a beneficial technology, there are security drawbacks, leading to potential attacks. Taking into consideration the behavior of the cross-user client-side data deduplication, it is easy to learn some general facts. This section focuses on attacks breaching the confidentiality of data and privacy of remote storage customers, when cross-user client-side data deduplication takes place.

3.2.1. Potential Attacks

Danny Harnik was first who has demonstrated, the potential attacks in remote storage related to data deduplication technology.[4] The paper covers three cases: file detection, file content detection and covert channel. The first case shows, how trivial is to learn whether the remote server already contains the particular file or not. Attacker uploads the file and observes the network traffic or the time required to upload the file. If the file already is stored on the server, there is no need to upload it again. Client application sends only the hash of the file to the server. The observer detects, that amount of data is smaller than file's size itself (Size of the hash depends on hash function and is smaller than file size). If file is "big enough", observing the time required to upload file on server, is sufficient to learn, whether the server already contains the file or not. The law enforcement authorities, can use this behavior. Check if storage provider contains the file (e.g. file's content is against the law) and later, they can force remote storage service providers to reveal the identity of the file owner.

Data deduplication technology opens the possibility to guess the content of user's data. The approach is straightforward, attacker just tries all possible variations and waits for occurrence of data deduplication. Once it takes place, attacker learns that such file (file with this content) exist on the server. The trick is that, unlike the dictionary attacks it is not detectable. It is the legitimate way to upload new documents on the server.[4] This type of attack is easy to launch against the files with small min-entropy. To have better understanding, refer to the following example. Bob is invited at the event in the cinema. He stores his invitation ticket in the cloud. Alice wants to learn the row and the place of Bob's ticket. She puts the Bob's name on the right place and starts to brute force row and place numbers. Alice generates files with different content and uploads on cloud. Once the deduplication takes place, she will get the desired information.

Last case describes the covert channel. Precondition for this scenario is, that attacker already has to own the victim's machine. In order to exchange one bit information "0" or "1", attacker generates two random files and uploads one of them. If the first file is uploaded the covert channel transfers "0" else it transfers "1" bit. Covert channel can transfer more information, by altering the number of files or the meaning of file.[4]

All above stated attacks demonstrate the side channel effects of data deduplication. Attackers exploit the vulnerability, that data deduplication is detectable. But later Halevi states that main issue is not the detectability, but using the hash value as a proxy in remote storage.[5]

He claims that, to use a hash as a proxy to retrieve the file is vulnerable. Owning a small static piece of the file(e.g. hash of the file) does not necessarily mean owning the entire file. He referees to the Dropship² open source project, as a brief example of misusing the storage provider. Dropship turn the remote storage provider into CDN (Content Distribution Network) service. For that time Dropbox³ was operating based on the cross-user client-side deduplication. The users of Dropship, where able to download the file in their folder, just sending the file's hash for check to the Server. This open source project was considered as the violation of Terms of Service of the company and is not operating anymore. Halevi introduces the Proof of Ownership Protocol, which dramatically reduces the probability of the attacker to retrieve the file, without owning it. [Next section](#) covers the detail description of Proof of Ownership Protocol and other solutions offered to substitute the hash as a proxy approach for data ownership in remote storage.[5]

3.3. Summary

The amount of savings offered by data deduplication, depends on data type and content produced by users of such services.[6] In case of office workers as users in remote storage, the benefit from deduplication is high. Office workers use mostly identical template to generate the data and the portion of duplication is high. Applying data deduplication technology saves bandwidth and disk space. But same time it rises privacy and confidentiality issues. The major weakness is that, client-side deduplication is detectable and using hash as a proof of ownership is not sufficient. Anyone who possesses the hash value of file, is able to retrieve the file from the server. If the attacker obtains the hash of the file, he can retrieve the file from the server and gain unauthorized access to it.

Data privacy issue in cloud computing is one of the aspects that could break the trust of the users towards the service providers. So those who want to stay on the market, should build the systems, which takes into consideration privacy and confidentiality.

²<https://github.com/driverdan/dropship> - "Instantly transfer files between Dropbox accounts using only their hashes"

³<https://www.dropbox.com/>

4. Approach

We have demonstrated importance of data deduplication technology for remote storage services. And have determine the root cause of breaching the privacy and confidentiality. This section covers the solutions, which refuse to use the static piece of information (hash of the file) as a proxy and offers alternative ways to proof the ownership of the data. We numerate the solutions from one to seven based on published date and show how it works and what are there security and efficiency characteristics.

4.1. Solution # 1

This subsections covers Proof of Ownership (PoW) protocol, introduced by Halevi.[5]PoW involves two parties: Prover and Verifier. The goal of prover is to convince the verifier, that he "owns" particular file. While the goal of verifier is to check if the affirmation of the prover is true. To accomplish their tasks, verifier uses summary value of file, while prover relies on the file itself. Paper [5] offers three solutions, and the subsection reviews all of them, but covers security and efficiency characteristics only for the last one. Before we move to the solutions, we have to underline two constraints. First, attacker may have compliances which own the file, but the total number of bits that attacker can receive from them must be less then initial min-entropy⁴ of file. And second, attacker can not interact with compliances during the proving phase.(e.g. case misusing the remote storage as CDN)

4.1.1. Setup

The most secure and less efficient from suggested three solutions, uses erasure code.⁵ Form each 90% of bits, it is possible to recover the whole file. After the file is encoded using era-

⁴"The min entropy, in information theory, is the smallest of the Rényi family of entropies, corresponding to the most conservative way of measuring the unpredictability of a set of outcomes, as the negative logarithm of the probability of the most likely outcome." "A random variable X has **min-entropy** k , denoted $H_\infty(X) = k$, if $\max_x \Pr[X = x] = 2^{-k}$ "[7]

⁵"The basic premise of erasure coding goes as follows: Take a file and split into k pieces and encode into n pieces. Now, any k pieces can be used to get back the file"

sure code, next step is to build the Merkle-tree[8] on the encoded file. The verifier(server) keeps the root value of the computed tree and the number of leaves. During the poof phase, verifier(server) asks the prover(client) for some number of leaves' values and their sibling paths. The verifier checks if all the provided sibling paths gives the valid Merkle-tree root value. Based on the outcome, server grants or does not grant the access to the file.

Computing erasure code requires access to the file and in case of large files (the files stored on the secondary storage) it raises communication complexity. To increase the efficiency of the protocol, erasure encoding is substituted with universal hashing[9]. First the file is hashed and then the Merkle-tree is built on the hash. The hashing servers to reduce the size of file up to some predefined number of bits(max length 64MByte). The second solution is more efficient than first one, but it weakens the security. Security requirement for first solution claims: attacker can not retrieve file from the server, if the min-entropy remained in file after attacker receives the bits from compliances, is bigger than security parameter. Erasure encoding substitution with universal hashing, made changes in security requirement as well. For second solution, security requirement stress that, attacker can convince the verifier to grant access to the file, if it receives some T bits from compliances, which can be less than min-entropy of the file. (e.g.64MByte)

Erasure code and universal hashing solutions, both considers that the input file is taken from an arbitrary distribution. On the other hand, the third solution claims that, in realistic scenarios, the attacker always has some information about file which he desires to extract. Therefore, it is reasonable to relax the security requirement and define it for particular class of distribution. Such relaxation of security requirement gives possibility to modify the protocol and make it more space efficient. In particular instead of working with bit vectors, it is possible to divide file into blocks and operate over the blocks. There are three phases to prepare the input for Merkle-Tree: Initializing, reducing and mixing. First the M bit size file is divided into m blocks. In the initializing phase, l blocks of buffer and IV (Initial Vector) are allocated. Next comes reduction phase, which is a linear mapping. It maps, original file's m blocks to the allocated l buffer blocks. Each block of the file is XORed in specific number in some locations. And locations are taken from IV, which is generated as $\text{SHA256}(\text{IV}[i-1], \text{File}[i])$. Where i is the block number of the file and $\text{IV}[0]$ is defined as SHA256-IV .⁶ The same operations take place at mixing phase. But with one difference, instead of file blocks, buffer blocks are taken as input of XORing.

⁶For SHA-256, the initial hash value, $H(0)$, consists of the eight 32-bit words, in hex. These words were obtained by taking the first thirty-two bits of the fractional parts of the square roots of the first eight prime numbers.<https://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc4634#section-6.2>

4.1.2. Security And Efficiency

To demonstrate the soundness of the last solution, it is better to view the file from attacker's perspective. Input file in this scenarios is not take form arbitrary distribution, but form some class of distribution. And it reasonable for real life scenarios, as attacker always know some peace of information(e.g. file format) about the file that he tries to retrieve. M -bit file with k bits of min-entropy, can be represented from attackers perspective as $\vec{f} \leftarrow \vec{w} \cdot A + \vec{b}$, where $\vec{w} \in \{0, 1\}^k$ and is chosen randomly, while $A \in \{0, 1\}^{k \times M}$ and $\vec{b} \in \{0, 1\}^M$ are chosen by attacker(based some knowledge that attacker has). Protocol uses hash function to prepare input for Merkle-tree, which is linear mapping, $h(\vec{f}) = \vec{f} \cdot C = \vec{w} \cdot AC + \vec{b}C$. [5] Important part in this linear mapping is that the linear code that is generated by AC matrix to have a large minimum distance. And it is possible to achieve as we are choosing matrix C for mapping. The theorem #3 proved in the paper states that the last solution is the secure proof of ownership with soundness $(\frac{L-d+1}{L})^t$ where L is reduce buffer, t is number of challenges on Markle-tree and d is the minimum distance of the linear code generated by AC matrix. ("For example, if the code has minimum distance $\geq \frac{L}{3}$ then we get soundness of $(\frac{2}{3})^t$.") [5]

Time efficiency is one of the important features, that characterizes the protocol and influences decision weather to implement it or not. Halevi evaluates the performance of PoW protocol, and compares it with non-secure [data-deduplication](#) and whole file transfer (without data-deduplication) implementations of remote storage. Overall time protocol requires, is decomposed in three parts: Client, Server and Network time.⁷ Client time is calculated as the sum of the subtasks client performs and subtasks are: reading file from the disk, computing the SHA256 hash, going through reduction and mixing phases and computing the Merkle-tree. Server time – the time server needs to check Mekle-tree authentication signature. And Network time – respectively the time necessary for data generated by prover and verifier to travel via network. Server and Network time consumption is negligible. (E.e. checking 20 sibling paths "costs" 0.6ms and data generated for transmission is less then 20K. In case of 5Mbps network the overhead is 0.1 ms. All together the overhead of Server and Network is 0.7 ms). While the main pressure comes on client side. To compare it with insecure implementation of [data-deduplication](#), PoW on client side adds reduction and mixing phases and Markle-tree calculation. As result of the tests, reduction phase adds less then 28% time over insecure solution. Mixing phase and Mekle-tree calculation behavior depends on th size of the file. For small size files(less then 64MByte), the time up-growth is 200% , but it stays

⁷"The measurements were performed on an Intel machine with Xeon X5570 CPU running at 2.93GHz. We implemented the protocol in C++ and used the SHA256 implementation from Crypto++"

constant(1158ms) once the file grows above 64MByte. PoW is also compare with the solutions to avoid deduplication and always send a whole file to the server. Protocol is observed in two setups: network with 5Mbps and 100Mbps. The results are following: PoW always consumes less time in 5Mbps then transferring the whole file. Once the file grows over the 1GByte PoW requires 1% time of the file transfer. In case of 100Mbps network, the protocol has lower bound for file size. For files larger then 64K, PoW consumes less time then solution without deduplication . And for files larger then 1GByte, it requires 4% of time of the whole file transfer.

	Dedup Time = T_d	File Transfer Time = T
PoW	$3.28T_d + 0.7ms^8$ and $1.28T_d + 1.165s^9$	$0.1T^{10}; 0.4T^{11}; > T^{12};$

Table 1. PoW Time Comparison

4.2. Solution # 2

This subsection covers the solution proposed by Di Pietro[10] in his paper "Boosting Efficiency and Security in Proof of Ownership for Deduplication". The motivation of this work is to improve the efficiency of PoW[5] protocol and avoid the security assumptions that is hard to verify(refereeing to the concept that the file is taken from some class of distribution and not from arbitrary distribution). The subsection includes the scheme description and efficiency analyses in comparison with PoW[5]

4.2.1. Setup

Solution offered by Di Pietro is two party protocol and involves C (Client) as a prover and S (Server) as a verifier. He names a protocol as s-POW. Once S receives the file for the first time it computes the n number of challenges and stores the file on the disk. To compute the challenges S keeps the hash-map data structure \mathfrak{S} . It maps files to the tuples and as a key it

⁸For files less then 64Mb: $T_d + 0.28T_d + 2T_d + 0.7ms$

⁹For files more then 64Mb: $T_d + 0.28T_d + 2T_d + 0.7ms$

¹⁰In 5Mbps network and file size more then 1Gb

¹¹In 100Mbps network and file size more then 1Gb

¹²In 5Mbps for any size of file and In 100Mbps for files larger then 64K

uses the hash of the file. Tuple contains 4 elements: ptr – the pointer on the file; $res[]$ – an array of generated challenges–called "responses" (K bit string); id_c – the highest challenge computed so far ; id_u – number of challenges used so far.

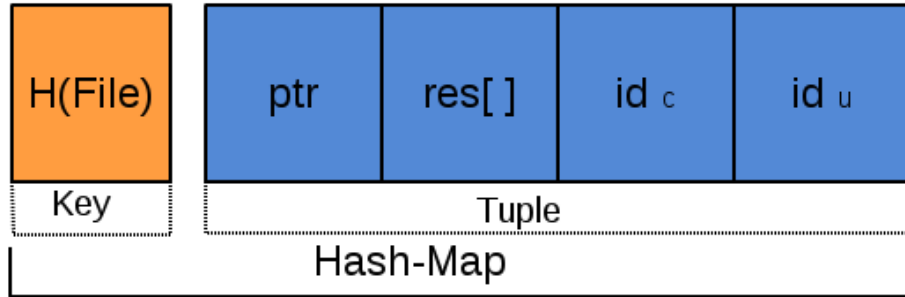


Figure 1. ⌘ Hash-Map Structure

The S uses file digest d (hash of the file), id_c index and server's master key as an input for the pseudo-random generator F to produce random seed s . s is an integer and $0 < s < file_size$. The random seed s serves for calculation of random position in file represent as bit vector and is unique of each challenge. At the end using the random position and the file as an input, $get - bit$ macros outputs the bit value. Concatenation of such outputs represents the response, which is K bits log and is stored in $res[]$ array. Server computes n number of responses at a time. This approach reduces I/O operations. Computation of responses takes place only, when the client uploads the file, which did not exist on server before or when all the pre-computed responses are depleted. (id_c and id_u control which responses is still valid and how many valid ones are remained.)

If client C attempts to upload the file already located on server S , S challenges the client, sends the random seed s and waits for valid response. Client receives s and use same $get - bit$ macro to produce a K bit length response. If received response is the same as pre-computed one, the client succeeds to convince the server.

The s-POW protocol has two other modifications, which are designed to improve efficiency and are more convenient in particular cases. In one case the hash function which is used to calculate the key of the hash-map is substitute with calculation of response(K bit string) based on the file and the public seed S_{pub} . (This response serves as the key of hash-map) . In second case the file size is used as the key of the hash-map. The second solution is worthy only for large files, as the collision will be extremely high otherwise.

4.2.2. Security And Efficiency

To demonstrate the security of s-POW protocol, Di Pietro shows the probability of adversary to convince the verifier and it is assumed that adversary already owns some large part of file. The Probability of adversary to guess the single bit for the K bit length response is: $P(succ_1) = 1 - \varepsilon(1 - g)$, where ε is fraction of file that is unknown for attacker and g is the probability to guess unknown bit correctly. To convince the server, the adversary should guess the whole K bit length response, and as guessing each bit from K bit vector are independent events, the probability of convincing server is: $P(succ) = (1 - \varepsilon(1 - g))^K$. It means that the success probability of adversary to convince the server depends on K , which is possible to tune based the security requirement. E.g. if the requirement is, $P(succ) \leq 2^{-k}$, where k is a security parameter, then $K = \lceil \frac{k \ln 2}{\varepsilon(1-g)} \rceil$

Efficiency analyses comprises the CPU computation, I/O in bought client and server side and bandwidth. Di Pietro evaluates his proposed schemes(s-POW and s-POW1¹³) and compares it with PoW.¹⁴[5] On client-side both s-POW and s-POW1 schemes are faster then PoW. The complexity up growth of s-POW and PoW schemes are equivalent of file size growth. It is reasonable because in both cases the dominant operation is hashing. While in s-POW1 computation cost becomes constant for large files. As in the s-POW1 no hashing is used and only random disk access is needed to get required bit. For visualization it is better to refer the [diagrams](#) provided by authors:

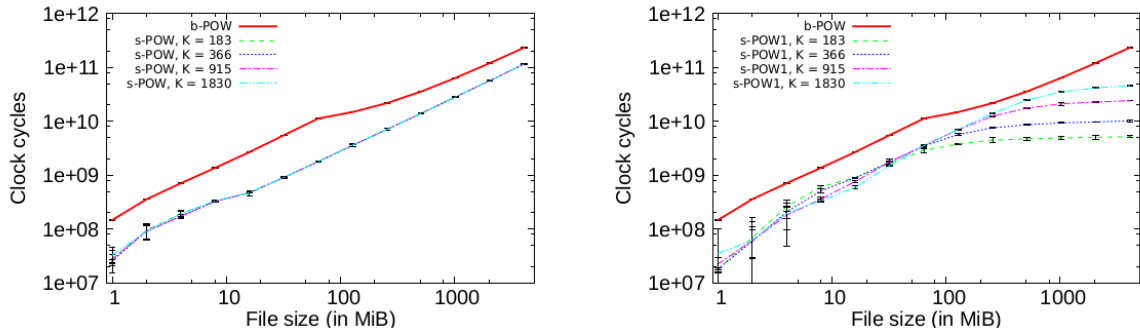


Figure 2. Comparison of running time on client-side

¹³Modification of s-POW protocol, which uses K bit string instead of file hash as a key in hash-map

¹⁴"We have run our implementation of both schemes on a 64-bit RedHat box with an Intel Xeon 2.27GHz CPU, 18 GiB of RAM and an IBM 42D0747 7200 RPM SATA hard disk drive."

To demonstrate the server-side performance, it is convenient to divide it in two phases: initialization and regular execution. When the file is first uploaded on server-side, that represent initialization phase, all other communication between client and server is the regular execution phase. In initialization phase PoW and s-POW both performs file hashing. It follows with reduction and mixing phase and Merkle-tree calculation in case of PoW and n challenge computation in s-POW case. In s-POW when all pre-calculated challenges are used, server should pre-calculate them again but this is considered to be a part of regular execution phase. In regular execution phase the PoW performs Merkle-tree verification while the s-POW performs only look-up to get the correct tuple and the valid response from $res[]$ array. But in addition to look-up, s-POW needs to recalculate the challenges(responses). Dispite the pre-calculated challenges, which are done in order to decrees the file access, on server side PoW is faster then provided s-POW. It is also important to mention the storage efficiency, PoW need only Merkle-tree root value to store on server side, while s-POW for operation requires storing of the hash-map data structure. Based on the performed analyses and execution, authors give the [asymptotic analyses](#) of schemes.

	PoW	s-POW	s-POW1
Client-side computation	$O(m)hash$	$O(m)hash$	$O(k)PRNG^{15}$
Client-side I/O	$O(m)$	$O(m)$	$O(k)$
Server-side computation (initialization phase)	$O(m)hash$	$O(m)hash$	$O(nk)PRNG$
Server-side computation (regular execution phase)	$O(1)$	$O(nk)PRNG$	$O(nk)PRNG$
Server-side I/O (initialization phase)	$O(m)$	$O(m)$	$O(nk)$
Server-side I/O (regular execution phase)	0	$O(nk)$	$O(nk)$
Server-side storage	$O(1)$	$O(nk)$	$O(nk)$
Bandwidth	$O(k \log k)$	$O(k)$	$O(k)$

Table 2. Asymptotic analyses of schemes. n is the number of challenges; m is the file size; k is a security parameter.

¹⁵Pseudorandom number generator

4.3. Solution # 3

4.4. Setup

4.4.1. Security And Efficiency

- Proofs of Ownership in Remote Storage Systems - 2011 +
- Boosting Efficiency and Security in Proof of Ownership for Deduplication - 2012 -
- Provable Ownership of File in De-duplication Cloud Storage - 2013
- Leakage-Resilient Client-side Deduplication of Encrypted Data in Cloud Storage - 2013
- A Secure Client Side Deduplication Scheme in Cloud Storage Environments - 2014
- A Tunable Proof of Ownership Scheme for Deduplication Using Bloom Filters - 2014
- An efficient confidentiality-preserving Proof of Ownership for Deduplication -2014

5. Evaluation

Demonstrate why the developed framework is secure and efficient.

1. Time complexity evaluation.
2. Cost analyses.

6. Future Work

In science folklore, the merit of a research question is compounded by the number of interesting follow-up research questions it raises. So to show the merit of the problem you worked on, you list these questions here.

7. Conclusions

Short summary of the contribution and its implications. The goal is to drive home the result of your thesis. Do not repeat all the stuff you have written in other parts of the thesis in detail. Again, limit this chapter to very few pages. The shorter, the easier it is to keep consistent with the parts it summarizes.

References

- [1] M. B. Babette Haeusser, Alessio Bagnaresi and A. Woodcock, *Guide to Data De-duplication: The IBM System Storage TS7650G ProtecTIER De-duplication Gateway*. IBM Redbooks, 2008, pp. 20–27.
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A. Appendix 1