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LOGO2

THESIS / MY BELOVED UNIVERSITY
university subtitle

Requirement for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY OF X UNIVERSITY

Computer Science Department

by

John Doe

prepared in Nashville, Calizona

The title of your thesis
on several lines ...
many lines ...

Thesis defended in Nashville
on February, 30th 2040

Jury :

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Eve EVIL

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Jane SMITH

X UNIVERSITY / PhD Advisor

An amazing PhD topic

Great things you did

John DOE

Supervisors : Jane SMITH

Remerciements

Merci, Merci!

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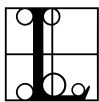
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Résumé en Français



LE RÉSUMÉ EN FRANÇAIS est probablement la partie de la thèse la plus fastidieuse à écrire. C'est chiant, et tout le monde s'en tamponne ...

Sommaire

Première Section	vi
Première Sous-section	vi
Problématique du chiffrement de base de données	vi
Mes contributions	vii
Premier Aspect	vii
Second Aspect	viii

Première Section

Première Sous-section

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Mes contributions

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Premier Aspect

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Second Aspect

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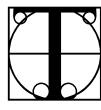
Table des matières

Remerciements	i
Résumé en Français	v
Première Section	vi
Mes contributions	vii
<hr/>	
1 Introduction	3
1.1 La cryptographie	4
1.2 History of the Topic	6
1.3 Contributions of this Thesis	11
2 Notations, Definitions and Preliminaries	17
2.1 Mathematical Notations	18
2.2 Cryptographic Preliminaries	20
2.3 Cryptographic Primitives	23
3 Conclusion	35
3.1 Summary of the Results	35
3.2 Open Problems	36
Bibliography	39
Table des figures	41
Liste des tableaux	43
List of Algorithms	45

Call me Ishmael

Moby-Dick – HERMAN MELVILLE

Introduction 1

 HIS THESIS TOOK WAY TO MUCH TIME OF YOUR LIFE, try to make people believe that what you did was actually useful by writing a great introduction. Not easy, but important. Probably one of the most annoying part of writing your manuscript.

Contents

1.1	La cryptographie	4
1.2	History of the Topic	6
1.2.1	Aspect 1	6
1.2.2	Aspect 2	8
1.2.3	Aspect 3	9
1.3	Contributions of this Thesis	11
1.3.1	First Paper	11
1.3.2	Second Paper	12
1.3.3	Third Paper	12

1.1 La cryptographie

Dans son Dictionnaire de la langue française, Émile Littré définissait la cryptographie comme l'art « d'écrire en caractères secrets qui sont ou de convention ou le résultat d'une transposition des lettres de l'alphabet¹ ». Il est vrai qu'en général, en cette seconde moitié du xix^e siècle, pour rendre un message inintelligible au cas où celui-ci, confidentiel, viendrait à être intercepté, on écrivait un caractère pour un autre, ou on remplaçait une suite de lettres par une autre (par exemple, selon une substitution dite polyalphabétique) ; la cryptographie était alors, pour ainsi dire, balbutiante. Pourtant, à cette époque déjà, dans ses Recherches arithmétiques², Carl Friedrich Gauss avait jeté les bases de la théorie des nombres moderne, et Évariste Galois, dans son fameux mémoire³ — publié après sa mort par le mathématicien Joseph Liouville —, celles de la théorie qui portera son nom.

La constatation de l'insuffisante valeur de la cryptographie du xix^e siècle se retrouve dans l'article en deux parties d'Auguste Kerckhoffs, paru en 1883, intitulé La cryptographie militaire⁴, où le cryptographe s'étonne de voir savants et professeurs « enseigner et recommander pour les usages de la guerre des systèmes dont un déchiffreur tant soit peu expérimenté trouverait certainement la clef en moins d'une heure de temps » ; l'auteur ne voit guère d'explication à cet « excès de confiance dans certains chiffres » que par « l'abandon dans lequel la suppression des cabinets noirs et la sécurité des relations postales ont fait tomber les études cryptographiques ».

Ce n'est qu'au siècle suivant, sous l'impulsion, notamment, des grands conflits qui l'ont déchiré, qu'on vit la cryptographie tirer réellement parti des outils de la mathématique moderne et muer en une science complexe, si bien que dans le dernier tiers de ce xx^e siècle apparut une nouvelle sorte de cryptographie, qu'on dit asymétrique par opposition à la cryptographie symétrique, son pendant plus ancien.

Jusqu'alors, en effet, pour établir une communication chiffrée, il fallait que les correspondants convinssent au préalable d'une règle secrète de chiffrement qui fixât notamment les caractéristiques du système propres à cette communication dès lors qu'elles étaient à connaître pour réaliser la transformation du texte d'origine, le clair. Avec cette configuration, tout chiffré produit par l'un des correspondants aurait pu l'avoir été par un autre d'entre eux s'il avait eu connaissance du clair ; en outre, tout chiffré produit par l'un des correspondants pouvait être déchiffré naturellement par un autre, sans même qu'il ait été convenu d'une méthode de déchiffrement, simplement par l'application d'un procédé inverse à celui employé pour chiffrer. Par exemple, deux personnes pouvaient convenir qu'à chacune des lettres d'un clair qu'ils souhaiteraient transmettre serait substituée une autre lettre de l'alphabet selon une table de correspondance définie à l'avance : qu'ainsi le C se verrait, en chacune de ses occurrences, remplacer par un G, que le E serait remplacé par un S, le F par un M, le H par un C, et ainsi de suite, le mot « CHEF » devenant alors en « GCSM », suite de lettres que les deux personnes seraient en mesure non seulement de pro-

¹Dictionnaire de la langue française, d'Émile Littré, édition de 1873, tome premier, page 922, entrée CRYPTOGRAPHIE.

²

³

⁴

duire mais de déchiffrer aisément en appliquant la table de substitution dans le sens inverse. La correspondance entre les lettres du clair et du chiffré est dans cet exemple l'information qui doit rester secrète pour que le chiffrement le demeure aussi.

L'information secrète — il en faut une — sur lequel se fonde le chiffrement peut être de deux natures : soit elle correspond au système de chiffrement lui-même, et la sécurité de la communication repose alors sur la méconnaissance par l'adversaire du système employé, soit elle se réduit à un petit ensemble de paramètres du système, appelé clef, et la connaissance de la méthode générale de chiffrement employée est alors supposée ne pas compromettre le système. De ces deux approches du chiffrement, la première a fini par être largement rejetée par les cryptographes. L'article de Kerckhoffs exprimait déjà, au deuxième chef d'une liste de six « desiderata de la cryptographie militaire », la nécessité que le système « n'exige pas le secret et qu'il puisse sans inconvénient tomber entre les mains de l'ennemi ». Par secret, Kerckhoffs entend « non la clef proprement dite, mais ce qui constitue la partie matérielle du système » — ce qui correspondrait, à l'ère numérique, à l'algorithme de chiffrement — car, explique-t-il, « il n'est pas nécessaire de se créer des fantômes imaginaires et de mettre en suspicion l'incorruptibilité des employés ou agents subalternes, pour comprendre que, si un système exigeant le secret se trouvait entre les mains d'un trop grand nombre d'individus, il pourrait être compromis à chaque engagement auquel l'un ou l'autre d'entre eux prendrait part ». Ce desideratum de la cryptographie militaire est ce qui est maintenant connu sous le nom de principe de Kerckhoffs ; il s'applique tout aussi bien en dehors du domaine militaire. À l'époque actuelle, il est en outre considéré comme entendu que le fait qu'un système de chiffrement soit connaissable du monde entier, et donc largement susceptible d'être étudié et mis à l'épreuve par les spécialistes, et qu'aucune faille critique ne se fasse connaître malgré cela, tend à être gage de sa bonne qualité.

Prenons en exemple le système AES⁵, qui est le système de chiffrement symétrique par bloc (c'est-à-dire traitant les données à chiffrer bloc par bloc) recommandé par l'ANSSI⁶. Ce système résulte d'un concours public du NIST⁷ dont l'ambition affichée était de choisir un algorithme de chiffrement, dans plusieurs déclinaisons déterminées précisément pour que le système fût à la fois robuste et efficace, d'en faire une norme dont les spécifications⁸ fussent accessibles à tous, et d'en permettre un usage non dissimulé comme celui qu'en fait par exemple l'environnement de messagerie Signal⁹, dont le code-source est ouvert. De ce concours du NIST est sorti gagnant l'algorithme de Rijndael dans trois déclinaisons spécifiques correspondant à trois tailles de clef différentes : 128, 192 et 256 bits. Le libre accès aux spécifications du système AES a permis la réalisation d'analyses précises de celui-ci par le monde de la recherche et la publication de méthodes d'attaques qui, bien que de nature à le fragiliser un peu en certains aspects, ne se sont pas montrées suffisamment puissantes pour le rendre caduc. Notons cependant qu'il apparaît, au nombre des révélations dont fut

⁵Le sigle AES correspond à *advanced encryption standard*, littéralement *norme de chiffrement avancé*.

⁶L'ANSSI est l'Agence nationale de la sécurité des systèmes d'information, en France.

⁷Le NIST est l'Institut national des normes et de la technologie des États-Unis.

⁸<https://csrc.nist.gov/csrc/media/publications/fips/197/final/documents/fips-197.pdf>

⁹<https://signal.org/docs/specifications/doubleratchet/doubleratchet.pdf>

à l'origine Edward Snowden, que la NSA¹⁰, tout en recommandant l'utilisation d'AES, s'est employée à essayer de trouver des attaques sur ce système ; il ne semble pas déraisonnable de penser qu'un tel organisme de renseignement pourrait garder pour lui toute trouvaille offensive déterminante dans un système de chiffrement à spécifications publiques.

Pour que des systèmes informatiques, directement liés à des êtres humains ou non, puissent employer un système de chiffrement symétrique tel qu'AES, il est nécessaire comme nous l'avons dit, qu'ils aient en commun une clef. Or, si ces systèmes sont distants et sont supposés communiquer de façon sécurisé pour la première fois comment faire en sorte qu'ils puissent convenir d'une clef qui doit être secrète et le rester longtemps ?

C'est ce que permet la cryptographie asymétrique.

Cryptographie asymétrique, définition, utilité.

Problèmes difficiles de la cryptographie asymétriques, logarithme discret, factorisation.

Autres avantages de la cryptographie asymétrique.

Définition complète de la cryptographie.

1.2 History of the Topic

You were probably not the first one to work on this subject. It is time to say what did other people do.

1.2.1 Aspect 1

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¹⁰National Security Agency,   Agence nationale de la s curit   aux  tats-Unis.

tortor sed accumsan bibendum, erat ligula aliquet magna, vitae ornare odio metus a mi. Morbi ac orci et nisl hendrerit mollis. Suspendisse ut massa. Cras nec ante. Pellentesque a nulla. Cum sociis natoque penatibus et magnis dis parturient montes, nascetur ridiculus mus. Aliquam tincidunt urna. Nulla ullamcorper vestibulum turpis. Pellentesque cursus luctus mauris.

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sapien aliquet odio. Integer vitae justo. Aliquam vestibulum fringilla lorem. Sed neque lectus, consectetur at, consectetur sed, eleifend ac, lectus. Nulla facilisi. Pellentesque eget lectus. Proin eu metus. Sed porttitor. In hac habitasse platea dictumst. Suspendisse eu lectus. Ut mi mi, lacinia sit amet, placerat et, mollis vitae, dui. Sed ante tellus, tristique ut, iaculis eu, malesuada ac, dui. Mauris nibh leo, facilisis non, adipiscing quis, ultrices a, dui.

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1.2.2 Aspect 2

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Donec et nisl at wisi luctus bibendum. Nam interdum tellus ac libero. Sed sem justo, laoreet vitae, fringilla at, adipiscing ut, nibh. Maecenas non sem quis tortor eleifend fermentum. Etiam id tortor ac mauris porta vulputate. Integer porta neque vitae massa. Maecenas tempus libero a libero posuere dictum. Vestibulum ante ipsum primis in faucibus orci luctus et ultrices posuere cubilia Curae; Aenean quis mauris sed elit commodo placerat. Class aptent taciti sociosqu ad litora torquent per conubia nostra, per inceptos hymenaeos. Vivamus rhoncus tincidunt libero. Etiam elementum pretium justo. Vivamus est. Morbi a tellus eget pede tristique commodo. Nulla nisl. Vestibulum sed nisl eu sapien cursus rutrum.

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1.2.3 Aspect 3

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Etiam pede massa, dapibus vitae, rhoncus in, placerat posuere, odio. Vestibulum luctus commodo lacus. Morbi lacus dui, tempor sed, euismod eget, condimentum at, tortor. Phasellus aliquet odio ac lacus tempor faucibus. Praesent sed sem. Praesent iaculis. Cras rhoncus tellus sed justo ullamcorper sagittis. Donec quis orci. Sed ut tortor quis tellus euismod tincidunt. Suspendisse congue nisl eu elit. Aliquam tortor diam, tempus id, tristique eget, sodales vel, nulla. Praesent tellus mi, condimentum sed, viverra at, consectetur quis, lectus. In auctor vehicula orci. Sed pede sapien, euismod in, suscipit in, pharetra placerat, metus. Vivamus commodo dui non odio. Donec et felis.

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vitae tristique gravida, quam sapien tempor lectus, quis pretium tellus purus ac quam. Nulla facilisi.

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Cras dapibus, augue quis scelerisque ultricies, felis dolor placerat sem, id porta velit odio eu elit. Aenean interdum nibh sed wisi. Praesent sollicitudin vulputate dui. Praesent iaculis viverra augue. Quisque in libero. Aenean gravida lorem vitae sem ullamcorper cursus. Nunc adipiscing rutrum ante. Nunc ipsum massa, faucibus sit amet, viverra vel, elementum semper, orci. Cras eros sem, vulputate et, tincidunt id, ultrices eget, magna. Nulla varius ornare odio. Donec accumsan mauris sit amet augue. Sed ligula lacus, laoreet non, aliquam sit amet, iaculis tempor, lorem. Suspendisse eros. Nam porta, leo sed congue tempor, felis est ultrices eros, id mattis velit felis non metus. Curabitur vitae elit non mauris varius pretium. Aenean lacus sem, tincidunt ut, consequat quis, porta vitae, turpis. Nullam laoreet fermentum urna. Proin iaculis lectus.

1.3 Contributions of this Thesis

Now, it is your turn. You can describe your papers one by one.

1.3.1 First Paper [Doe36]

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1.3.3 Third Paper [DS38]

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My Contributions

- [DDMS39] John Doe, Jean Dupont, Pierre Martin et Jane Smith. I had to submit something just before graduating. In : Conf1 proceedings. Sous la dir. de Big Boss. Thief, oct. 2039 (cf. p. 12).
- [Doe36] John Doe. My first paper, that I am really proud of, but which never got published. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Report 2036/9999. <http://eprint.iacr.org/2036/9999>. 2036 (cf. p. 11).
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In the beginning, God created the
heavens and the earth.

Genesis

Notations, Definitions and Preliminaries

2



TIME TO STEP IN THE REAL STUFF. Define all what you will need the next chapters here. Follows an example for cryptography. Blah blah blah ...

Contents

2.1	Mathematical Notations	18
2.2	Cryptographic Preliminaries	20
2.2.1	Cryptographic Tools	20
2.2.2	Hardness Assumptions	22
2.3	Cryptographic Primitives	23
2.3.1	Pseudorandom Function (PRF)	24
2.3.2	Constrained Pseudorandom Function (CPRF)	24
2.3.3	Pseudorandom Permutation (PRP)	25
2.3.4	Trapdoor Permutation (TDP)	26
2.3.5	Hash Function	27
2.3.6	Semantically Secure Encryption	29
2.3.7	Message Authentication Code (MAC)	29
2.3.8	Authenticated Encryption with Associated Data (AEAD)	31

2.1 Mathematical Notations

Sets and rings. The set of integers is denoted \mathbb{Z} , the set of non-negative integers \mathbb{N} . If a and b are two integers such that $a \leq b$, we denote by $\llbracket a, b \rrbracket$ the set $\{x \in \mathbb{Z} | a \leq x \leq b\}$ of integers between a and b (both included). Also, \mathbb{Z}_n is the ring $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ of integers modulo the integer n . For a prime integer p , $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}_p$ is the field with p elements. $\varphi(\cdot)$ is the Euler totient function. For any set S , $\mathcal{P}(S)$ is the set of all finite subsets of S .

Bilinear Groups Some of the cryptographic primitives we will use an additional structure on groups called a pairing (a.k.a. bilinear groups). Let \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T be three cyclic groups of the same order N and with respective generator g_1 , g_2 and g_T . $(\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, e)$ is called a *bilinear group* if $e : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$ satisfies the following properties :

- For all $(a, b) \in \mathbb{Z}_N^2$, $e(g_1^a, g_2^b) = e(g_1, g_2)^{ab}$ (bilinearity);
- The element $e(g_1, g_2)$ generates \mathbb{G}_T (non-degeneracy);
- $e(\cdot, \cdot)$ is efficiently computable.

We explain the next paragraphs what efficient means. Without loss of generality, we can suppose that $e(g_1, g_2) = g_T$. We call bilinear groups with $\mathbb{G}_1 = \mathbb{G}_2$ Type-1 (or symmetric) bilinear groups, and in this case, we suppose that $g = g_1 = g_2$. If $\mathbb{G}_1 \neq \mathbb{G}_2$, and that there is no efficiently computable isomorphism between \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_2 , it is a Type-3 (asymmetric) bilinear group.

Bit strings. A bit b is an element in $\{0, 1\}$; a bit string s of length n is a vector of n bits. ε denotes the *empty* bit string of size 0. The set of bit strings of size n is hence denoted $\{0, 1\}^n$, and the set of bit strings of finite length is $\{0, 1\}^* = \cup_{n \geq 0} \{0, 1\}^n$. The concatenation of two bit strings x and y is denoted $x||y$.

Distributions and Probabilities For a finite set S , $s \xleftarrow{\$} S$ means that s is sampled uniformly at random from S . The probability of an event E to occur is denoted $\mathbb{P}[E]$. Let X be a random variable. The expected value of X is $\mathbb{E}[X]$, and $\mathbb{V}\text{ar}[X]$ its variance. The entropy and min-entropy of a discrete random variable X taking value $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ are denoted $H_1(X)$ and $H_\infty(X)$ and are defined as

$$H_1(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}[X = x_i] \cdot \log \mathbb{P}[X = x_i],$$

$$\text{and } H_\infty(X) = - \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{\log \mathbb{P}[X = x_i]\} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{-\log \mathbb{P}[X = x_i]\}$$

where \log is the base-2 logarithm. For two random discrete random variable Y and Z over the set $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, the Kullback–Leibler divergence from Y to Z , $D_{\text{KL}}(Y||Z)$, is defined as

$$D_{\text{KL}}(Y||Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}[Y = x_i] \log \frac{\mathbb{P}[Y = x_i]}{\mathbb{P}[Z = x_i]}.$$

Finally, we define the distance $\Delta(\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2)$ between the two distributions \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 over a set X as

$$\Delta(\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2) = \max_{x \in X} |\mathbb{P}[Y_1 = x] - \mathbb{P}[Y_2 = x]|$$

where Y_1 (resp Y_2) is a random variable following the distribution \mathcal{D}_1 (resp \mathcal{D}_2).

Asymptotics. For asymptotics, we use the standard Landau notations $\mathcal{O}(\cdot)$, $\mathfrak{o}(\cdot)$, $\Omega(\cdot)$, $\omega(\cdot)$ and $\Theta(\cdot)$. We also use $\Theta(\cdot)$ to hide poly-logarithmic factors in asymptotics :

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \exists c \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n) \log^c(n)).$$

In the following, $\text{poly}(n)$ denotes an unspecified function $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^c)$ for some fixed constant c , and $\text{negl}(n)$ is a negligible function f such that $f(n) = \mathfrak{o}(n^{-c})$ for any constant $c > 0$.

Algorithms, Turing machines, and Oracles Algorithms are programs for Turing machines. They can be probabilistic, and use a tape of the Turing machine filled with random bits (also called random coins). By default algorithms are probabilistic. For an algorithm A , $y \leftarrow A(x)$ means that A is run on input x (with fresh random coins if A is probabilistic), and that the result is stored in y . More generally $y \leftarrow a$ states that the result of the evaluation of the expression a is stored in the variable y .

An interactive Turing machine is a special kind of Turing machines able to communicate with external algorithms. To do so, the interactive Turing machine uses additional tapes to communicate with the other Turing machines, namely an input tape to send messages, and an output tape to receive messages. For an interactive Turing machine \mathcal{T} , the Turing machines \mathcal{T} has access to are called its *oracles*. We write $\mathcal{T}^{O_1, O_2}(x)$ to say that the Turing machine \mathcal{T} is called with input x and has access to the oracles O_1 and O_2 .

For a distribution \mathcal{D} , $A(\mathcal{D})$ denotes the output of the execution of A on an input x sampled from the distribution \mathcal{D} .

In this manuscript, we will often abuse notations, and identify a Turing machine and the algorithm it runs.

Finally, we will say that an algorithm is *efficient* if it runs in time polynomial in the size of its arguments.

Protocols. A two-party protocol $P = (A_1, A_2)$ is a pair of algorithms A_1 and A_2 , interactively executed by a pair of two Turing machines \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 . We will denote the execution of the protocol P as

$$P(\text{input}_1; \text{input}_2) = (A_1(\text{input}_1), A_2(\text{input}_2)),$$

meaning that A_1 (resp. A_2) is executed by \mathcal{T}_1 (resp. \mathcal{T}_2) with input input_1 (resp. input_2). We write

$$(\text{out}_1; \text{out}_2) \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow} A_1(\text{input}_1) \leftrightarrow A_2(\text{input}_2)$$

to mean that out_1 and out_2 are the outputs of the interaction between A_1 on input input_1 and A_2 on input input_2 , respectively. We also simplify this notation and denote the result of the execution of P as

$$(\text{out}_1; \text{out}_2) \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} P(\text{input}_1; \text{input}_2)$$

In this formalism, we consider the messages $\tau_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ (resp. $\tau_{1 \leftarrow 2}$) sent by \mathcal{T}_1 to \mathcal{T}_2 (resp. \mathcal{T}_2 to \mathcal{T}_1) as part of the output out_1 (resp. out_2). These messages are called the *transcript* of \mathcal{T}_1 (resp. \mathcal{T}_2). Transcripts might be omitted from the output of the protocol for simplicity of the notations.

Miscellaneous. As mentioned earlier, the base-2 logarithm of the value x is $\log x$. When the variable T is a dictionary, $T[v]$ denotes the item associated to v , if there is one, whereas \perp denotes the absence of this item.

2.2 Cryptographic Preliminaries

2.2.1 Cryptographic Tools

Security parameter. In order to properly formalize security notions, we need to bound the computing power of an attacker. Indeed, one can always break cryptosystems using a large enough computer and spending a high amount of time. However, in cryptography, we restrict ourselves to the defence against *reasonable* attackers. To do so, we use the notion of *security parameter*, denoted $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. The security parameter is passed as an input to the attacker, under its unary representation 1^λ , and we only consider attackers whose running time is polynomial in λ , and whose success probability is non-negligible in λ .

All these notions are formally defined in the following paragraphs.

Adversaries. An adversary is a probabilistic Turing machine, which, in this manuscript, run in polynomial time, which may carry a state st when they need to be called several times. In most cases, we implicitly give as input to the adversary, both the unary representation of the security parameter, and the state. As a consequence, as adversaries' inputs are always polynomial in the security parameter, the polynomial time adversary runs in time polynomial in the security parameter.

Games. Security notions are often defined using security games (or experiments). Simple games are defined by having an adversary accessing a set of oracles, sometimes with some restrictions on calls to these oracles, and the output of the game is defined as the output of the adversary.

More generally, games are defined using the *code-based games* formalism introduced in [BR06]. Such a game G is a set of oracle procedures – including an initialization `Init` procedure and a finalization `Final` procedure – that is executed with an adversary A , *i.e.* A has access to the procedures, with some possible restrictions. For instance, the `Init` oracle

is always the first one to be called and Final the last one, once A halted, taking A 's output as input. The output of Final is called the output of the game and is denoted $G^A(1^\lambda)$. When Final is omitted, it just forwards the adversary's output.

In those games, at startup, the boolean variables are initialized to false and the integer variables to 0.

Statistical Indistinguishability Let \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 be two distributions over the set S . \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 are said to be *statistically indistinguishable* if

$$\Delta(\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2) \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

We denote

$$\mathcal{D}_1 \approx \mathcal{D}_2$$

the fact that \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 are statistically indistinguishable.

Computational Indistinguishability Let \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 be two distributions which can be sampled in polynomial-time in λ , and A be a polynomial-time adversary A outputting a single bit. The advantage of A distinguishing \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 is defined by

$$\mathbf{Adv}^{\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2}(A, 1^\lambda) = |\mathbb{P}[A(\mathcal{D}_1) = 1] - \mathbb{P}[A(\mathcal{D}_2) = 1]|.$$

Distributions \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 are said to be *computationally indistinguishable* if for any polynomial-time adversary A , the advantage of A in distinguishing \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 , denoted $\mathbf{Adv}^{\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2}(A, 1^\lambda)$, is negligible in λ . We denote

$$\mathcal{D}_1 \approx_c \mathcal{D}_2$$

the fact that \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 are computationally indistinguishable. Note that two statistically indistinguishable distributions are computationally indistinguishable.

Similarly, we say that two different games G_0 and G_1 , both outputting one bit, are indistinguishable if, for any polynomial-time adversary A , the advantage of A in distinguishing G_0 and G_1 , denoted $\mathbf{Adv}^{G_0, G_1}(A, 1^\lambda)$ and defined as

$$\mathbf{Adv}^{G_0, G_1}(A, 1^\lambda) = |\mathbb{P}[G_0^A = 1] - \mathbb{P}[G_1^A = 1]|,$$

is negligible in λ . In this case, we write $G_0 \approx_c G_1$.

Game-based proofs Many of the security notions that we will define and use in this thesis are based on the indistinguishability of two different games G_0 and G_1 . Unfortunately, in many cases, we will not be able to directly prove this indistinguishability. Instead, we proceed by *game hops*, by constructing a sequence of games, starting with G_0 , and ending with G_1 , and proving that consecutive games are indistinguishable. The distinguishing advantage between G_0 and G_1 of an adversary A will then be the sum of the distinguishing advantages of A between every pair of consecutive games in the games sequence.

The Random Oracle Model (ROM) The Random Oracle Model (or ROM), formally introduced by Bellare and Rogaway in [BR93], is a computational model where all parties have access to a (public) random oracle. As its name indicates, a random oracle outputs a random string for every new input it is given.

To prove the security of some schemes in the ROM, we often use an additional feature, called *programmability*. This feature allows the games to pre-program the output of the random oracle on some inputs, in a way that the programmed random oracle is indistinguishable from a regular random oracle.

The ROM is a very useful tool to show the security of some schemes. However, in practice, random oracles cannot exist (they would require an infinite description), and are often instantiated using hash functions. There actually is much debate among cryptographers on the quality of the ROM as an abstraction to analyze the security of cryptosystems [KM15]. Yet, for applied and real-world cryptography, it is a widely accepted and widely used model, as there is no convincing evidence that ROM-protocols have non-theoretical security weaknesses.

2.2.2 Hardness Assumptions

Cryptographic primitives rely on the hardness of some mathematical problems. We describe here the ones that will be useful for our constructions.

The RSA assumption The RSA assumption, as introduced by Rivest, Shamir and Adleman in [RSA78] states that it is infeasible to compute the e -th root of an element modulo N when N is a product of two large primes, and e is relatively prime with $\varphi(N)$.

Let RSAGen be defined as the function, which, on input the security parameter 1^λ , randomly samples two distinct λ bits primes p and q , computes $N = p \cdot q$, randomly picks an integer e less than and relatively prime to $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$, and outputs the pair (N, e) . For any adversary A , let $\text{Adv}_A^{\text{RSA}}(\lambda)$ be defined as :

$$\text{Adv}_A^{\text{RSA}}(\lambda) = \mathbb{P}[(N, e) \leftarrow \text{RSAGen}(1^\lambda), y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*, x \leftarrow A(1^\lambda, N, e, y) : x^e = y \bmod N].$$

The RSA problem is supposed hard : for any polynomial-time adversary A , $\text{Adv}_A^{\text{RSA}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ .

Discrete Logarithm Solving the discrete logarithm problem in the cyclic group \mathbb{G} with generator g , and of order N consists in finding the integer $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ such that $g^x = h$ for an element $h \in \mathbb{G}$.

In terms of security games, this can be formalized as follows. For any adversary A , let $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}, A}^{\text{DL}}(\lambda)$ be the quantity

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}, A}^{\text{DL}}(\lambda) = \mathbb{P}[h \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{G}, x \leftarrow A(1^\lambda, \mathbb{G}, g, h) : g^x = h].$$

We say that the discrete logarithm is hard in \mathbb{G} if for all polynomial-time adversary A , $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}, A}^{\text{DL}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ . The discrete log is supposed to be hard on large prime order subgroups of (\mathbb{F}_p^*, \times) , and on cyclic subgroups of elliptic curves over finite fields.

The Diffie-Hellman Assumptions A strengthening of the discrete logarithm assumption is the Computational Diffie-Hellman (CDH) assumption. It requires that an adversary, given g^a and g^b , for g a generator of the group \mathbb{G} of order N , and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_N$, cannot efficiently compute $g^{a \cdot b}$. Formally, for an adversary A , we define the advantage $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}, A}^{\text{CDH}}(\lambda)$ as

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}, A}^{\text{CDH}}(\lambda) = \mathbb{P}[a \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N, b \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N, h \leftarrow A(1^\lambda, \mathbb{G}, g^a, g^b) : g^{ab} = h].$$

We say that the CDH assumption is hard in \mathbb{G} if for all polynomial-time adversary A , $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}, A}^{\text{CDH}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ . The CDH assumption is supposed to be hard on large prime order subgroups of (\mathbb{F}_p^*, \times) , and on cyclic subgroups of elliptic curves over finite fields.

A stronger assumption is also very commonly encountered, the decisional version of CDH, called the Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) assumption. This time the adversary is asked to distinguish between the triple $(g^a, g^b, g^{a \cdot b})$ and the triple (g^a, g^b, g^c) .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}, A}^{\text{DDH}}(\lambda) = & \left| \mathbb{P}[(a, b) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^2 : A(1^\lambda, g^a, g^b, g^{ab}) = 1] \right. \\ & \left. - \mathbb{P}[(a, b, z) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^3 : A(1^\lambda, g^a, g^b, g^z) = 1] \right|. \end{aligned}$$

We say that the DDH assumption is hard in \mathbb{G} if for all polynomial-time adversary A , $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}, A}^{\text{DDH}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ . The DDH assumption is also supposed to be hard on large prime order subgroups of (\mathbb{F}_p^*, \times) , and on cyclic subgroups of elliptic curves over finite fields.

Cryptographic Pairings We will require that bilinear groups satisfy a hardness assumption called the Decisional Bilinear Diffie-Hellman (DBDH) assumption [BB04]. This assumption requires that a bounded adversary cannot distinguish the tuple $(g, g^a, g^b, g^c, e(g, g)^{abc})$ from the tuple $(g, g^a, g^b, g^c, e(g, g)^z)$, where a, b, c and z are randomly generated.

Formally, for a bilinear group $(\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, e)$, the advantage $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, e, A}^{\text{DBDH}}(\lambda)$ of an adversary A in the Decisional Bilinear Diffie-Hellman game is defined as :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, e, A}^{\text{DBDH}}(\lambda) = & \left| \mathbb{P}[(a, b, c) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^3 : A(1^\lambda, g^a, g^b, g^c, e(g, g)^{abc}) = 1] \right. \\ & \left. - \mathbb{P}[(a, b, c, z) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^4 : A(1^\lambda, g^a, g^b, g^c, e(g, g)^z) = 1] \right|. \end{aligned}$$

The bilinear group is said to be secure if, for all polynomial-time adversary A , $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T, e, A}^{\text{DBDH}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ .

Note that, in this definition, we only considered the symmetric setting for the bilinear group, but that the definition can trivially be adapted to an asymmetric pairing. In practice, cryptographic pairings are instantiated using elliptic curves, and we will use Type-3 pairings only. We refer to [GPS06] for more details on pairings.

2.3 Cryptographic Primitives

In this Section, we describe and define all the cryptographic primitives that we will use throughout this thesis. Completely formal definitions of most of these objects can be found in [BOOK :Goldreich04]. We often adopt here a simplified formulation.

2.3.1 Pseudorandom Function (PRF)

A pseudorandom function is a function that is indistinguishable from a truly random function. More formally, let $F : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be a polynomial-time computable map, where \mathcal{K} and \mathcal{R} are finite. \mathcal{K} is the *key space* of F , and \mathcal{D} its domain, while \mathcal{R} is the range of F . For $K \in \mathcal{K}$, we denote F_K the function that is the partial evaluation of F on K , namely

$$\begin{aligned} F_K : \mathcal{D} &\rightarrow \mathcal{R} \\ x &\mapsto F(K, x) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, F can be seen as a *function family*.

Definition 2.1 (Pseudorandom function). Let $F : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be a function family, and $\text{Func}(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R})$ the set of all functions of domain \mathcal{D} and range \mathcal{R} . The pseudorandom function distinguishing advantage $\text{Adv}_{A,F}^{\text{prf}}(\lambda)$ of A against F is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prf}}(\lambda) = \left| \mathbb{P}[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K} : A^{F_K(\cdot)}(1^\lambda) = 1] - \mathbb{P}[\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \text{Func}(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{R}) : A^{\pi(\cdot)}(1^\lambda) = 1] \right|.$$

The PRF advantage function of F is defined as follows. For any integers t, q ,

$$\text{Adv}_F^{\text{prf}}(\lambda, t, q) = \max_A \text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prf}}(\lambda)$$

where the maximum is taken over all adversary A with time complexity t , making at most q oracle queries. F is said to be a pseudorandom function if $\text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prf}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ for any polynomial-time adversary A .

2.3.2 Constrained Pseudorandom Function (CPRF)

The idea of *constrained PRFs* (CPRF) has been introduced in concurrent work by Boneh and Waters, Boyle *et al.*, and Kiayias *et al.* [BW13; BGI14; KPTZ13]. A constrained PRF is associated with a family of boolean circuits $\mathcal{C} = \{C\}$. The holder of the master PRF key is able to compute a *constrained key* K_C corresponding to a circuit $C \in \mathcal{C}$; the constrained key K_C allows evaluation of the PRF on inputs x such that $C(x) = 1$, but only on these inputs.

More formally, a *constrained PRF* F with respect to a circuit family \mathcal{C} is a mapping $F : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$, together with a pair of algorithms $(F.\text{Constrain}, F.\text{Eval})$, defined as follows.

- $F.\text{Constrain}(K, C)$ is a PPT algorithm taking as input a key $K \in \mathcal{K}$ and a circuit $C \in \mathcal{C}$. It outputs a constrained key K_C .
- $F.\text{Eval}(K_C, x)$ is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm taking as input a constrained key K_C for circuit C , and $x \in \mathcal{D}$. It outputs $y \in \mathcal{R}$.

Wherever this does not result in ambiguity, we may leave out Eval and write $F.\text{Eval}(K_C, x)$ as $F(K_C, x)$.

Correctness. A CPRF F is correct if and only if, $C(x) = 1$ implies $F(K, x) = F.\text{Eval}(K_C, x)$, where $K_C = F.\text{Constrain}(K, C)$, for all $K \in \mathcal{K}$, $x \in \mathcal{D}$, and $C \in \mathcal{C}$.

Security Definition. The security properties of a constrained PRF can be formalized using a security game G_{cprf} described in Figure 2.1. Informally, the adversary A wins the game (the game outputs 1) when he is able to distinguish between real evaluations of F and truly random elements of \mathcal{R} on inputs such that he never queried a constrained key K_C for a circuit C evaluating to 1 on these inputs. The formal definition follows.

<u>Init()</u> $K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}$ $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ $E \leftarrow \emptyset, Z \leftarrow \emptyset, L \leftarrow \emptyset$ <u>Challenge(x)</u> $Z \leftarrow Z \cup \{x\}$ if $b = 0$ then $y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{R}$ else $y \leftarrow F(K, x)$ end if return y	<u>Eval(x)</u> $E \leftarrow E \cup \{x\}$ return $F(K, x)$ <u>Constrain(C)</u> $L \leftarrow L \cup C$ return $F.\text{Constrain}(C)$ <u>Final(b')</u> if $b = b'$, $E \cap Z = \emptyset$ and $\forall (C, z) \in (L, Z), C(z) = 0$ return 1 \triangleright The adversary wins return 0 \triangleright The adversary loses
---	--

Fig. 2.1 – Procedures of the G_{cprf} security game. The lists E , Z , and L are, respectively, the list of evaluated inputs, challenged inputs and constraints. The condition in **Final** ensures that the game is only challenged on constrained inputs, and never on an evaluated input.

Definition 2.2 (Constrained PRF). Let F be a constrained function as defined previously. We define $\text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{cprf}}(\lambda)$, the advantage of the adversary A in the constrained PRF security game, as

$$\text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{cprf}}(\lambda) = \mathbb{P}[G_{\text{cprf}}^A(1^\lambda) = 1].$$

We say that F is a constrained pseudorandom function if, for any polynomial-time adversary A , $\text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{cprf}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in the security parameter λ .

2.3.3 Pseudorandom Permutation (PRP)

A pseudorandom permutation is a permutation that is indistinguishable from a truly random permutation. Let $F : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be a function family. We say that F is a family of permutation if for every $K \in \mathcal{K}$, F_K is a bijection between \mathcal{D} and \mathcal{R} . Here, we will always be in the case where $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{R}$.

Definition 2.3 (Pseudorandom permutation). Let $F : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be a permutation family, and $\text{Perm}(\mathcal{D})$ the set of all permutations of \mathcal{D} . The pseudorandom function distinguishing advantage $\text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prp}}(\lambda)$ of A against F is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prp}}(\lambda) = \left| \mathbb{P}[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K} : A^{F_K(\cdot)}(1^\lambda) = 1] - \mathbb{P}[\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \text{Perm}(\mathcal{D}) : A^{\pi(\cdot)}(1^\lambda) = 1] \right|.$$

The PRF advantage function of F is defined as follows. For any integers t, q ,

$$\text{Adv}_F^{\text{prp}}(\lambda, t, q) = \max_A \text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prp}}(\lambda)$$

where the maximum is taken over all adversary A with time complexity t , making at most q oracle queries. F is said to be a pseudorandom permutation if $\text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prp}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ for any polynomial-time adversary A .

PRF switching lemma. It will be useful in the security proofs to be able to switch from a PRP to a PRF (to avoid considering non-collision among the PRP outputs). To do so, we will use the PRF switching lemma that states that a PRP is also a PRF. We refer the reader to [BR06, Lemma 1] for the proof.

Lemma 2.1. Let F be a PRP over the set \mathcal{D} . For any adversary A making at most q queries,

$$\left| \text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prf}}(\lambda) - \text{Adv}_{F,A}^{\text{prp}}(\lambda) \right| \leq \frac{q^2}{2|\mathcal{D}|}.$$

2.3.4 Trapdoor Permutation (TDP)

Informally, a trapdoor permutation (TDP) π is a permutation over a set \mathcal{M} such that, using a public key PK , π can be easily evaluated, but the inverse π^{-1} can be efficiently computed only with the secret SK .

More formally, a family of trapdoor permutations over a set \mathcal{M} is a triple π of algorithms (KeyGen, Eval, Invert) such that :

- KeyGen is a randomized algorithm taking as input the security parameter 1^λ that generates a pair (SK, PK) , where SK is the private key and PK the public key;
- Eval is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm taking as inputs a public key and an element in \mathcal{M} , and such that for every public key PK generated by KeyGen, $\pi(\text{PK}, \cdot)$ is a bijection over \mathcal{M} ;
- Invert is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm taking as inputs a secret key and an element in \mathcal{M} , such that for every key pair (PK, SK) generated by KeyGen,

$$\text{Invert}(\text{SK}, \text{Eval}(\text{PK}, x)) = x.$$

In the following, will simplify the notations, and use $\pi_{\text{PK}}(\cdot)$ to denote $\text{Eval}(\text{PK}, \cdot)$ and $\pi_{\text{SK}}^{-1}(\cdot)$ for $\text{Invert}(\text{SK}, \cdot)$.

Definition 2.4 (Secure trapdoor permutation). For an adversary A , the advantage $\text{Adv}_{\pi,A}^{\text{tdp}}(\lambda)$ of A in the trapdoor permutation security game is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\pi,A}^{\text{tdp}}(\lambda) = \Pr[y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{M}, (\text{SK}, \text{PK}) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda), x \leftarrow A(1^\lambda, \text{PK}, y) : \pi_{\text{PK}}(x) = y].$$

For any integer t , $\text{Adv}_{\pi}^{\text{tdp}}(\lambda, t)$ is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\pi}^{\text{tdp}}(\lambda, t) = \max_A \text{Adv}_{\pi,A}^{\text{tdp}}(\lambda)$$

where the maximum is taken over all adversary A with time complexity t . The trapdoor permutation π is said to be a secure if, for any polynomial-time adversary A , $\text{Adv}_{\pi,A}^{\text{OW}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ .

We also use the notation $\pi_{\text{PK}}^{(c)}(x)$ (resp. $\pi_{\text{SK}}^{(-c)}(x)$) for the iterated application of π_{PK} (resp. π_{SK}^{-1}) c times.

2.3.5 Hash Function

A hash function family is a polynomial-time computable map $H : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ where \mathcal{K} and \mathcal{R} are non-empty sets. We denote the partial evaluation of H on K as $H_K(\cdot)$. For hash functions, we are interested in the difficulty with which an adversary is able to find to distinct elements in \mathcal{D} evaluating to the same elements in \mathcal{R} .

Definition 2.5. Let $H : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be a hash function family. For every adversary A , we define

$$\text{Adv}_{H,A}^{\text{col}}(\lambda) = \mathbb{P}[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}, (M, M') \leftarrow A(K) : M \neq M' \wedge H_K(M) = H_K(M')].$$

H is said to be collision-resistant family of hash function if, for any polynomial-time adversary A , $\text{Adv}_{H,A}^{\text{col}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ .

In practice, we only have access to a single element of the hash function family, which is denoted H .

Instantiating the ROM. Often, the random oracle used in the ROM (cf. Section 2.2.1) will be instantiated using a hash function. Unfortunately, many hash functions share undesirable properties (e.g. length-extension attacks) that make them unfit for such direct use as a random oracle. Instead, we will use the HMAC construction [BCK96] with a public key as the random oracle. For a hash function H , HMAC is defined as

$$\text{HMAC}(K, x) = H((K \oplus \text{opad}) || H((K \oplus \text{ipad}) || x))$$

where *opad* and *ipad* are two constants.

(Multi)set hashing. In the case \mathcal{D} is a set of sets, it would be nice to be able to easily compute the hash of $S \cup S'$ from the hashes of S and S' . Multiset hashing was introduced by Clarke *et al.* [AC :CDDGS03], based on the framework proposed by Bellare and Micciancio [BM97] for incremental hashing. Here, we slightly extend their definition so it fits our needs in this thesis.

A *set hashing function* on sets of elements in \mathcal{D} is a quadruple of probabilistic polynomial algorithms $(\mathcal{H}, \equiv_{\mathcal{H}}, +_{\mathcal{H}}, -_{\mathcal{H}})$ such that $\mathcal{H} : \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{D}) \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ maps sets whose elements are in \mathcal{D} , and for all $S \subset \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{D})$,

- $\mathcal{H}(S) \equiv_{\mathcal{H}} \mathcal{H}(S)$ (comparability)
- $\forall x \in \mathcal{D} \setminus S, \mathcal{H}(S \cup \{x\}) \equiv_{\mathcal{H}} \mathcal{H}(S) +_{\mathcal{H}} \mathcal{H}(\{x\})$ (insertion incrementality)
- $\forall x \in S, \mathcal{H}(S \setminus \{x\}) \equiv_{\mathcal{H}} \mathcal{H}(S) -_{\mathcal{H}} \mathcal{H}(\{x\})$ (deletion incrementality)

We want multiset hash functions to be secure in the sense of collision resistance : it is infeasible for an adversary to find two sets hashing to the same value.

Definition 2.6. Let \mathcal{H} be a set hashing function. For every adversary A , we define

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{H},A}^{\text{col}}(\lambda) = \mathbb{P}[(S, S') \leftarrow A^{\mathcal{H}(\cdot), \equiv_{\mathcal{H}}(\cdot), +_{\mathcal{H}}(\cdot), -_{\mathcal{H}}(\cdot)}(1^\lambda) : S \neq S' \wedge \mathcal{H}(S) \equiv_{\mathcal{H}} \mathcal{H}(S')].$$

The **MSet-Mu-Hash** construction of Clark *et al.* [AC :CDDGS03] for multisets works as follows : if H is a regular (*i.e.* non incremental) hash function, $\mathcal{H}(x_1^{m_1}, \dots, x_n^{m_n})$ is defined as $\prod H(x_i)^{m_i}$ ($x_i^{m_i}$ represents the element x_i with multiplicity m_i). Formally, **MSet-Mu-Hash** is defined as follows :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}(M) : \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{D}) &\rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \\ M &\mapsto \prod_{x \in \mathcal{D}} H(x)^{M_x} \end{aligned}$$

where $H : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ is a hash function from the set \mathcal{D} to the field \mathbb{F}_q , and M_x is the multiplicity of x in M . This construction clearly fits our functional needs : for $S \subset \mathcal{D}$, we can easily compute (*i.e.* in constant time) $\mathcal{H}(S \cup \{x\})$ (resp. $\mathcal{H}(S \setminus \{x\})$) from $\mathcal{H}(S)$ and $\mathcal{H}(\{x\}) = H(x)$ – or even from x if we have access to H – as $\mathcal{H}(S \cup \{x\}) = \mathcal{H}(S) \cdot H(x)$ (resp. $\mathcal{H}(S \setminus \{x\}) = \mathcal{H}(S) \cdot H(x)^{-1}$).

Clarke *et al.* show that \mathcal{H} is collision resistant as long as the discrete log assumption holds in \mathbb{F}_q when H is modeled as a random oracle.

Theorem 2.2 (Theorem 2 of [AC :CDDGS03]). If the discrete log assumption holds in \mathbb{F}_q , and H is a (non-programable) random oracle, the multiset hash function \mathcal{H} is collision resistant.

Note that multiset hashing can also be based on elliptic curves for improved efficiency [CJ :MaiTibAra16]. The security of the construction would immediately follow, using the hardness of discrete logarithm on cyclic subgroups of elliptic curves instead of its hardness on finite fields.

2.3.6 Semantically Secure Encryption

A (symmetric) encryption scheme SE is a triple of algorithms $(\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$. The randomized key generation algorithm KeyGen takes as input the security parameter in its unary form and outputs a key K from the key set \mathcal{K} . The encryption algorithm Enc takes a key and a plaintext m in the message space \mathcal{M} and outputs a ciphertext $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(K, m)$ from the ciphertext space \mathcal{C} . Note that Enc can be either randomized or deterministic. The decryption algorithm is deterministic, and as input a key K and a string c , and outputs either an element $m \in \mathcal{M}$ or the symbol \perp .

In the following, we will only consider *correct* schemes, that is schemes such that, for all keys $K \in \mathcal{K}$, and all messages $m \in \mathcal{M}$,

$$\text{Dec}(K, \text{Enc}(K, m)) = m.$$

Many security definitions have been developed for (symmetric) encryption. Here we will consider indistinguishability against chosen plaintext attacks (IND-CPA). More precisely, we use the Left-Or-Right (LOR-CPA) definition, as given by Bellare *et al.* [BDJR97].

Definition 2.7. Let $SE = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a symmetric encryption scheme. For $b \in \{0, 1\}$, we define LoR as

$$\text{LoR}(x_0, x_1, b) = x_b.$$

For an adversary A , the IND-CPA advantage of A against SE is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}_{SE,A}^{\text{cpa}}(\lambda) = & \left| \mathbb{P}[K \xleftarrow{\$} \text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda) : A^{\text{Enc}_K(\text{LoR}(\cdot, \cdot, 0))}(1^\lambda) = 1] \right. \\ & \left. - \mathbb{P}[K \xleftarrow{\$} \text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda) : A^{\text{Enc}_K(\text{LoR}(\cdot, \cdot, 1))}(1^\lambda) = 1] \right|, \end{aligned}$$

with the restriction that A must only query the oracle $\text{Enc}_K(\text{LoR}(\cdot, \cdot, b))$ with pairs of messages of equal length. The IND-CPA advantage function of SE is defined as follows. For any integers t, q, μ ,

$$\text{Adv}_{SE}^{\text{cpa}}(\lambda, t, q, \mu) = \max_A \text{Adv}_{SE,A}^{\text{cpa}}(\lambda)$$

where the maximum is taken over all adversary A with time complexity t , making at most q oracle queries on messages of total length at most μ . SE is said to be a IND-CPA-secure if $\text{Adv}_{SE,A}^{\text{cpa}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ for any polynomial-time adversary A .

In practice, we will suppose that $\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, and $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \{0, 1\}^*$, unless otherwise specified. Also, the KeyGen algorithm will just pick a key in \mathcal{K} uniformly at random.

2.3.7 Message Authentication Code (MAC)

A message authentication code is used to ensure that a message comes from the right sender. It is a triple of algorithms $(\text{KeyGen}, \text{MAC}, \text{Vf})$. The randomized key generation algorithm KeyGen takes as input the security parameter in its unary form and outputs

a key K from the key set \mathcal{K} . The algorithm MAC takes as input $K \in \mathcal{K}$ and a string $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and outputs a tag $T \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$. Finally Vf , on input a key K , a string m and a tag T , outputs \perp or \top .

We require that a MAC is correct, namely that for all $K \in \mathcal{K}$, and all string $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$\text{Vf}(K, m, \text{MAC}(K, m)) = \top.$$

The security requirement of a MAC will be that it is infeasible for any polynomial-time adversary to forge a valid tag without the secret key.

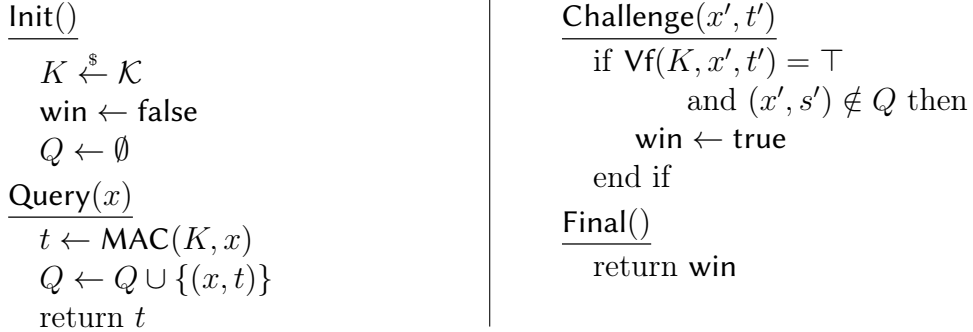


Fig. 2.2 – Procedures of the $G_{\text{ef-cma}}$ security game.

Definition 2.8. Let $(\text{KeyGen}, \text{MAC}, \text{Vf})$ be a message authentication code. The advantage of A in the existential forgery with chosen messages attack game (EF-CMA), $\text{Adv}_{A, \text{MAC}}^{\text{ef-cma}}(\lambda)$, is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{MAC}, A}^{\text{ef-cma}}(\lambda) = \mathbb{P}[G_{\text{ef-cma}}^A(1^\lambda) = 1].$$

where the $G_{\text{ef-cma}}$ is described in Figure 2.2. The EF-CMA advantage function is defined as follows. For any integers t, q, μ ,

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{MAC}}^{\text{ef-cma}}(\lambda, t, q, \mu) = \max_A \text{Adv}_{\text{MAC}, A}^{\text{ef-cma}}(\lambda)$$

where the maximum is taken over all adversary A with time complexity t , making at most q oracle queries on messages of total length at most μ . MAC is said to be a EF-CMA-secure if $\text{Adv}_{\text{MAC}, A}^{\text{ef-cma}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ for any polynomial-time adversary A .

The most handy and practical way to instantiate a MAC is to use a PRF with variable input length, *i.e.* with domain \mathcal{D} . For such a PRF F , we will define MAC and Vf as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MAC}(K, x) &= F(K, x) \\ \text{Vf}(K, x, t) &= \begin{cases} \top & \text{if } F(K, x) = t \\ \perp & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

2.3.8 Authenticated Encryption with Associated Data (AEAD)

Using authenticated encryption with associated, one is able to ensure both the confidentiality of a message and the authenticity of the message plus some optional additional data. An AEAD scheme SE is a triple of algorithms (KeyGen, Enc, Dec).

The randomized key generation algorithm KeyGen takes as input the security parameter in its unary form and outputs a key K from the key set \mathcal{K} . The encryption algorithm Enc takes a key, an optional string a called additional data, and a plaintext m in the message space \mathcal{M} and outputs a ciphertext $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(K, a, m)$ from the ciphertext space \mathcal{C} . The decryption algorithm is deterministic, and as input a key K , the (optional) additional data a , and a string c , and outputs either an element $m \in \mathcal{M}$ or the symbol \perp .

In the following, we will only consider *correct* schemes, that is schemes such that, for all keys $K \in \mathcal{K}$, all string $a \in \{0, 1\}^*$, and all messages $m \in \mathcal{M}$,

$$\text{Dec}(K, a, \text{Enc}(K, a, m)) = m.$$

Definition 2.9. Let $SE = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be an authenticated encryption scheme with additional data. For an adversary A , the AE advantage of A against SE is

$$\text{Adv}_{SE,A}^{\text{ae}}(\lambda) = \left| \mathbb{P}[K \xleftarrow{\$} \text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda) : A^{\text{Enc}_K(\cdot, \cdot), \text{Dec}_K(\cdot, \cdot)}(1^\lambda) = 1] - \mathbb{P}[A^{\$(\cdot, \cdot), \perp(\cdot, \cdot)}(1^\lambda) = 1] \right|$$

where $\$$ is an oracle that, on input (a, m) , picks a random string r of size $|m|$ and returns $\text{Enc}_K(a, r)$ and \perp is the oracle always returning the symbol \perp .

The AE advantage function of SE is defined as follows. For any integers $t, q_e, \mu_e, q_d, \mu_d$,

$$\text{Adv}_{SE}^{\text{ae}}(\lambda, t, q_e, \mu_e, q_d, \mu_d) = \max_A \text{Adv}_{SE,A}^{\text{ae}}(\lambda)$$

where the maximum is taken over all adversary A with time complexity t , making at most q_e (resp. q_d) encryption (resp. decryption) oracle queries on messages of total length at most μ_e (resp. μ_d). SE is said to be a secure AEAD if $\text{Adv}_{SE,A}^{\text{ae}}(\lambda)$ is negligible in λ for any polynomial-time adversary A .

Again, in practice, we will suppose that $\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, and $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \{0, 1\}^*$, unless otherwise specified, and that the KeyGen algorithm will just pick a key in \mathcal{K} uniformly at random.

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A conclusion is the place where you
get tired of thinking.

ARTHUR BLOCH

Conclusion 3



HIS THESIS PRESENTED new results and new constructions It is your problem to find something useful to do with it now !

3.1 Summary of the Results

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3.2 Open Problems

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Table des figures

2.1	Constrained PRF security game	25
2.2	EF-CMA security game	30

Liste des tableaux

List of Algorithms