Min Surp Rhee Byoungcheon Lee (Eds.)

Information Security and Cryptology – ICISC 2006

9th International Conference Busan, Korea, November/December 2006 Proceedings



Information Security and Cryptology – ICISC 2006

9th International Conference Busan, Korea, November 30 - December 1, 2006 Proceedings



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Min Surp Rhee Dankook University San 29, Anseo-dong, Cheonan-shi Chungnam, 330-714, Korea E-mail: msrhee@dankook.ac.kr

Byoungcheon Lee Joongbu University 101 Daehak-Ro, Chubu-Myeon, Guemsan-Gun Chungnam, 312-702, Korea E-mail: sultan@joongbu.ac.kr

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Preface

ICISC 2006, the Ninth International Conference on Information Security and Cryptology was held in Busan, Korea, during November 30 - December 1, 2006. It was organized by the Korea Institute of Information Security and Cryptology (KIISC) in cooperation with the Ministry of Information and Communication (MIC), Korea. The aim of this conference was to provide a forum for the presentation of new results in research, development, and application in information security and cryptology. It also intended to be a place where research information can be exchanged.

Started in 1998, ICISC has grown into an important international conference in the information security and cryptology area with an established reputation. Based on this maturity, we tried an important change in the publication policy this year. Until last year, pre-proceedings were distributed at the conference and proceedings in Springer's Lecture Notes in Computer Science (LNCS) were published after the conference. This year ICISC proceedings were published in LNCS before the conference and distributed to the participants at the conference. We appreciate Springer for their full support and help in making this possible.

The conference received 129 submissions from 17 countries, covering all areas of information security and cryptology. The review and selection processes were carried out in two stages by the Program Committee of 57 prominent researchers via online meetings through the iChair Web server. First, each paper was blind reviewed by at least three PC members, and papers co-authored by the PC members were reviewed by at least five PC members. Second, individual review reports were revealed to PC members, and detailed interactive discussion on each paper followed. Through this process the Program Committee finally selected 26 papers from 12 countries. The authors of selected papers had a few weeks to prepare final versions of their papers, aided by comments from the reviewers. The proceedings contain the revised versions of the accepted papers. However, most of these final revisions were not subject to any further editorial review.

The conference program included two invited talks from eminent researchers in information security and cryptology. Serge Vaudenay from EPFL gave an interesting talk on RFID privacy entitled "RFID Privacy Based on Public-Key Cryptography." Palash Sarkar from the Indian Statistical Institute talked on "Generic Attacks on Symmetric Ciphers," which showed various time-memory trade-off attacks on symmetric cipher algorithms.

We would like to thank everyone who contributed to the success of this conference. First, thanks to all the authors who submitted papers to this conference. Second, thanks to all 57 members of the Program Committee listed overleaf. It was a truly nice experience to work with such talented and hard-working researchers. Third, thanks to all the external reviewers for assisting the Program Committee in their particular areas of expertise. Fourth, we would like to thanks

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all the participants of the event who made this event an intellectually stimulating one through their active contribution. We also would like to thank the iChair developers in EPFL for allowing us to use their software. Finally, we are delighted to acknowledge the partial financial support provided by Redgate, SECUi.COM, MarkAny, and EK Manpower.

November 2006

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RFID Privacy Based on Public-Key Cryptography (Abstract)

Serge Vaudenay

EPFL
CH-1015 Lausanne, Switzerland
http://lasecwww.epfl.ch

Abstract. RFID systems makes it possible for a server to identify known tags in wireless settings. As they become more and more pervasive, people privacy is more and more threatened. In this talk, we list a few models for privacy in RFID and compare them. We review a few protocols. We further show that strong privacy mandates the use of public-key cryptography. Finally, we present a new cryptosystem which is dedicated to tiny hardware and which can be used to design secure RFID systems achieving strong privacy.

Note: this paper contains new definitions and results that are announced in this talk. Details and proofs will appear in future papers.

Credits: the work on RFID was done together with Salvatore Bocchetti as a part of his Master Thesis [3]. We received many suggestions from Gildas Avoine. The work on the new cryptosystem was done together with Matthieu Finiasz [4] and was extended together with Jean-Philippe Aumasson, and Willi Meier. Part of it was done in the Master Thesis of Jean-Philippe Aumasson [2].

1 RFID Schemes

We consider an environment with several participants. Some are called *systems*, others are called *tags*. Every tag is associated to a system. We say that the tag *belongs* to the system. Every tag is given an identification string ID. The purpose of RFID protocols is to design a communication protocol between a system and a tag so that the system knows whether or not the tag belongs to the system and learns the tag identification string ID when the tag belongs to the system.

Tags have memory which contains a *state*. Systems have a database which contains pairs of data associated to the tags that they own. This pair consists of the ID and a key. Systems may also have cryptographic key materials.

An RFID scheme is defined by the following processes.

- An initialization algorithm for the system. This produces cryptographic key materials (if any).
- An algorithm to set up a tag. This algorithm takes an ID as input and produces a
 tag key K and an initial state. The latter is the initial state of the tag. The former is
 inserted together with ID in the database of the system that owns the tag. Note that

from this definition tags do not necessarily know their own ID and key. This may (or not) be part of the initial state though.

A 2-party communication protocol between a system and a tag. Protocols are usually initiated by the system and produce two types of outputs on the reader side: a public output and a private output. We distinguish two types of protocol: identification protocols and authentication protocols. As for public outputs, the two kinds of protocols do the same. The private output of an identification protocol should be the tag ID if it belongs to the system or ⊥ if it does not. Both outputs of an authentication protocol should be the tag 1 if it belongs to the system or 0 if it does not.

A protocol is *complete* if the output of the protocol is correct with high probability. Depending on the application, we may want to have a stronger security notion, namely *soundness*, which says whether an adversary can make the protocol output some wrong information. A critical issue is *privacy*, which means that protocols do not leak any information which may be used by adversaries to trace tags.

2 Adversaries

In an *attack*, one system is first initialize and an adversary can play with it. In addition to this, he can create tags with chosen *ID* which belong to the system or not. That is, the tag initialization algorithm is run, the tag with specified initial state is created, and the database of the system is updated in the case where the tag belongs to the system. Here the adversary does not see the tag key or initial state. In addition to creating new tags, the adversary can play with the system and the tags. We distinguish two kinds of tags: tags that are *free* from tags that are *drawn*. Tags can move from a free status to a drawn one and vice versa. A drawn tag is a tag which is close to the adversary so that the adversary can trace it during the entire time it is a drawn tag. For this, drawn tags are identified by a temporary identity that we call a *virtual tag*.

More concretely, we assume that the adversary has access to the following oracles.

- Init(ID,b) initializes new (free) tags of specified ID which belongs to System or not depending on bit b.
- GetTag(distribution) \rightarrow (vtag₁, b_1 ,...,vtag_n, b_n) draws one or several free tags at random with chosen probability distribution. This oracle returns "virtual tags" names and bits telling whether they belong to the system or not.
- Free(vtag) frees a drawn tag.
- Launch $\rightarrow \pi$ launches a new protocol instance with reader.
- SendReader $(m,\pi) \to m'$ resp. SendTag $(m,\text{vtag}) \to m'$ sends protocol message m to reader resp. a drawn tag and returns the answer m' (if any). By convention, we write Execute(vtag) \to (π ,transcript) as a macro oracle call instead of one Launch $\to \pi$ followed by a succession of SendReader $(m_i,\pi) \to m_{i+1}$ and SendTag $(m_{i+1},\text{vtag}) \to m_{i+2}$ calls. The protocol transcript is the concatenation of all messages m_i .
- Result(π) → x tells 1 if the output of the protocol instance π is a tag ID or 0 if the output is ⊥.
- Corrupt(vtag) \rightarrow S corrupts a drawn tag and gets its internal state S.

We define several classes of adversaries.

- Strong adversaries can use the oracles as they want.
- Forward adversaries can only use Corrupt queries at the end of the attack. That is,
 a Corrupt query can only be followed by other Corrupt queries.
- Weak adversaries are not allowed to make Corrupt queries.
- Narrow-strong (resp. narrow-forward, narrow-weak) adversaries are strong (resp. forward, weak) adversaries who are not allowed to make Result queries.

3 Security of RFID Schemes

Let us consider an arbitrary adversary which can be written as follows.

```
    1: Init(1,b<sub>1</sub>), ..., Init(n,b<sub>n</sub>)
    2: pick i ∈ {1,...,n} at random
    3: (vtag,b) ← GetTag(i)
    4: π ← Execute(vtag)
```

The adversary creates n tags which belong or not to the system. Then, it draws one tag and runs a protocol. We say that this adversary fails iff the output of the protocol is what it is meant to be, namely i when $b_i = 1$ and \bot otherwise. We say that the protocol is complete iff the probability of success of any of these adversaries is negligible.

Let us consider an arbitrary adversary which can be written as follows.

```
    for i = 1 to n do
    lnit(i,1)
    vtag<sub>i</sub> ← GetTag(i)
    end for
    (training phase) do any oracle call except Init, GetTag, Free
    π ← Launch
    (attack phase) do any oracle call except Init, GetTag, Free
    We say that the adversary succeeds iff
```

- instance π is complete at the end of the attack phase,
- the output of π is ID $\neq \perp$ (i.e. π identified a legitimate tag ID),
- tag ID did not complete a protocol run during the attack phase,
- tag ID was not corrupted.

We say that the protocol is *sound* iff the probability of success of any of these adversaries is negligible.

4 Privacy

To define privacy, we consider adversaries who output a list of virtual tags and a relation between their ID strings. The adversary wins if the ID strings of these tags satisfy the relation. Since some adversaries may win by giving trivial relations, we define the significance of an adversary by his ability to distinguish from a simulated run. More concretely, a *blinder* is an interface between the adversary and the oracles which let all