Practical & Provably Secure Distance-Bounding

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Abstract. From contactless payments to remote car unlocking, many applications are vulnerable to relay attacks. Distance bounding protocols are the main practical countermeasure against these attacks. At FSE 2013, we presented SKI as the first family of provably secure distance bounding protocols. At LIGHTSEC 2013, we presented the best attacks against SKI. In this paper, we present the security proofs. More precisely, we explicate a general formalism for distance-bounding protocols. Then, we prove that SKI and its variants is provably secure, even under the real-life setting of noisy communications, against the main types of relay attacks: distance-fraud and generalised versions of mafiaand terrorist-fraud. For this, we reinforce the idea of using secret sharing, combined with the new notion of a leakage scheme. In view of resistance to mafia-frauds and terrorist-frauds, we present the notion of circularkeying for pseudorandom functions (PRFs); this notion models the employment of a PRF, with possible linear reuse of the key. We also use PRF masking to fix common mistakes in existing security proofs/claims.

1 Introduction

Recently, we proposed the **SKI** [6,7,8] family of distance-bounding (DB) protocols.⁴ In this paper, we present a formalism for distance-bounding, which includes a sound communication and adversarial model. We incorporate the notion of time-of-flight for distance-based communication. We further formalise security against distance-fraud, man-in-the-middle (MiM) generalising mafia-frauds, and an enhanced version of terrorist-fraud that we call *collusion-fraud*. Our formalisations take noisy communications into account.

Mainly in the context of security against generalised mafia-frauds (when TF-resistance is also enforced), we introduce the concept of $circular-keying\ security$ to extend the security of a pseudorandom function (PRF) f to its possible uses

⁴ Due to space constraints, we refer to these papers for an overview of DB protocols.

in maps of the form $y \mapsto L(x) + f_x(y)$, for a secret key x and a transformation L. We also introduce a *leakage scheme*, to resist to collusion frauds, and adopt the PRF masking technique from [4,5] to address distance-fraud issues. These formal mechanisms come to counteract mistakes like those in proofs based on PRF-constructions, errors of the kind exposed by Boureanu *et al.* [4] and Hancke [13].

We analyse and propose variants of **SKI** [6,7] and conclude that **SKI** is historically the first practical class of distance-bounding protocols enjoying full provable security.⁵ On the way to this, we formalise the DB-driven requirements of the **SKI** protocols' components.

2 Model for Distance-Bounding Protocols

We consider a multiparty setting where each participant U is modelled by a probabilistic polynomial-time (PPT) interactive Turing machine (ITM), has a location loc_U , and where communication messages from a location to another take some time, depending on the distance to travel.

Consider two honest participants P and V, each running a predefined algorithm. Along standard lines, a general communication is formalised via an experiment, generically denoted $exp = (P(x; r_P) \longleftrightarrow V(y; r_V))$, where $r_{\langle \cdot \rangle}$ are the random coins of the participants. The experiment above can be "enlarged" with an adversary \mathcal{A} which interferes in the communication, up to the transmitting-time constraints. This is denoted by $(P(x; r_P) \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{A}(r_{\mathcal{A}}) \longleftrightarrow V(y; r_V))$. At the end of each experiment, the participant V has an output bit Out_V denoting acceptance or rejection. The view of a participant on an experiment is the collection of all its initial inputs (including coins) and his incoming messages. We may group several participants under the same symbolic name.

We have a fixed integer constant \mathbb{B} denoting the *distance-bound*. It defines what it means to be "close-enough" to a verifier V.

The crux of proving security of DB protocols lies in Lemma 1: if V sends a challenge c, the answer r in a time-critical challenge-response round is locally computed by a close participant \mathcal{A} from its own view and incoming messages from far-away participants \mathcal{B} which are independent from c. Clearly, it also captures the case where the adversary collects information during the previous rounds. On the one hand, we could just introduce a full model in which such a lemma holds. We do so in our eprint report [8]. On the other hand, we could also just state the text of the lemma and take it axiomatically.

Lemma 1. Consider an experiment $\mathcal{B}(z; r_{\mathcal{B}}) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}(u; r_{\mathcal{A}}) \leftrightarrow V(y; r_{V})$ in which the verifier V broadcasts a message c, then waits for a response r, and accepts if r took at most time $2\mathbb{B}$ to arrive. In the experiment, \mathcal{A} is the set of all participants which are within a distance up to \mathbb{B} to V, and \mathcal{B} is the set of all other participants.

⁵ As far as we know, there exists only one other protocol with full provable security. It was presented at ACNS 2013 [12] and compared with **SKI** at PROVSEC 2013 [17]. All other protocols fail against at least one threat model. (See [7, Section 2].)

For each user U, we consider his view $View_U$ just before the time when U can see the broadcast message c. We say that a message by U is independent from c if it is the result of applying U on $View_U$, or a prefix of it. There exists an algorithm A and a list w of messages independent from c such that if V accepts, then $r = A(View_A, c, w)$, where $View_A$ is the list of all $View_A$, $A \in A$.

When modelling distance-bounding protocols, we consider provers P and verifiers V. \mathcal{A} denotes the adversary and P^* denotes a dishonest prover.

Definition 2 (DB Protocols). A distance-bounding protocol is a tuple (Gen, P, V, \mathbb{B}) , where Gen is a randomised, key-generation algorithm such that (x, y) is the output of $Gen(1^s; r_k)$, where r_k are the coins and s is a security parameter; $P(x; r_P)$ and $V(y; r_V)$ are PPT ITM running the algorithm of the prover and the verifier with their own coins, respectively; and \mathbb{B} is a distance-bound. They must be such that the following two facts hold:

- **Termination**: $(\forall s)(\forall R)(\forall r_k, r_V)(\forall loc_V)$ when doing $(\cdot, y) \leftarrow Gen(1^s; r_k)$ and $(R \longleftrightarrow V(y; r_V))$, it is the case that V halts in Poly(s) computational steps, where R is any set of (unbounded) algorithms;
- p-Completeness: $(\forall s)$ $(\forall loc_V, loc_P \ such \ that \ d(loc_V, loc_P) \leq \mathbb{B})$ we have

$$\Pr_{r_k,r_P,r_V}\left[\mathsf{Out}_V=1: \frac{(x,y)\leftarrow Gen(1^s;r_k)}{P(x;r_P){\longleftrightarrow}V(y;r_V)}\right] \geq p.$$

Our model implicitly assumes concurrency.

Definition 3 (α -resistance to distance-fraud). $(\forall s)$ $(\forall P^*)$ $(\forall loc_V \ such \ that \ d(loc_V, loc_{P^*}) > \mathbb{B})$ $(\forall r_k)$, we have

$$\Pr_{r_{V}}\left[\mathsf{Out}_{V}=1: \frac{(x,y) \leftarrow Gen(1^{s};r_{k})}{P^{*}(x) {\longleftrightarrow} V(y;r_{V})}\right] \leq \alpha$$

where P^* is any (unbounded) dishonest prover. In a concurrent setting, we implicitly allow a polynomially bounded number of honest P(x') and V(y') close to V(y) with independent (x', y').

We now formalise resistance to MiM attacks. During a learning phase, the attacker \mathcal{A} interacts with m provers and z verifiers. In the attack phase, \mathcal{A} tries to win in an experiment in front of a verifier which is far-away from $\ell-m$ provers.

Definition 4 (\beta-resistance to MiM). $(\forall s)(\forall m, \ell, z)$ polynomially bounded, $(\forall \mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$ polynomially bounded, for all locations such that $d(loc_{P_j}, loc_V) > \mathbb{B}$, where $j \in \{m+1, \ldots, \ell\}$, we have

$$\Pr \begin{bmatrix} (x,y) \leftarrow Gen(1^s) \\ \operatorname{Out}_V = 1 : P_1(x), \dots, P_m(x) \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_1 \longleftrightarrow V_1(y), \dots, V_z(y) \\ P_{m+1}(x), \dots, P_\ell(x) \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_2(View_{\mathcal{A}_1}) \longleftrightarrow V(y) \end{bmatrix} \leq \beta$$

In this paper, there is just one common input, i.e., we assume x = y.

⁷ This is to capture distance hijacking [10]. (See [8].)

over all random coins, where $View_{A_1}$ is the final view of A_1 . In a concurrent setting, we implicitly allow a polynomially bounded number of P(x'), $P^*(x')$, and V(y') with independent (x', y'), anywhere.

The classical notion of mafia-fraud [1] corresponds to m=z=0 and $\ell=1$. The classical notion of impersonation corresponds to $\ell=m$.

We now formalise the terrorist-fraud by [6,8].

Definition 5 ((γ, γ') -resistance to collusion-fraud). $(\forall s)(\forall P^*)$ ($\forall loc_{V_0} \ s.t.$ $d(loc_{V_0}, loc_{P^*}) > \mathbb{B}$) ($\forall \mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}} \ PPT$) such that

$$\Pr\left[\mathsf{Out}_{V_0} = 1: \frac{(x,y) \leftarrow Gen(1^s)}{P^*(x) \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}} \longleftrightarrow V_0(y)}\right] \geq \gamma$$

over all random coins, there exists a (kind of)⁸ MiM attack with some parameters $m, \ell, z, A_1, A_2, P_i, P_j, V_{i'}$ using P and P^* in the learning phase, such that

$$\Pr\left[\begin{array}{l} (x,y) \leftarrow Gen(1^s) \\ \operatorname{Out}_V = 1: P_1^{(*)}(x), \dots, P_m^{(*)}(x) \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_1 \longleftrightarrow V_1(y), \dots, V_z(y) \\ P_{m+1}(x), \dots, P_\ell(x) \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{A}_2(View_{\mathcal{A}_1}) \longleftrightarrow V(y) \end{array} \right] \geq \gamma'$$

where P^* is any (unbounded) dishonest prover and $P^{(*)} \in \{P, P^*\}$. Following the MiM requirements, $d(loc_{P_j}, loc_V) > \mathbb{B}$, for all $j \in \{m+1, \ell\}$. In a concurrent setting, we implicitly allow a polynomially bounded number of P(x'), $P^*(x')$, V(y') with independent (x', y'), but no honest participant close to V_0 .

Def. 5 expresses the following. If a prover P^* , situated far-away from V_0 , can help an adversary $\mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}$ to pass, then a malicious $(\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$ could run a rather successful MiM attack playing with possibly multiple instances of $P^*(x)$ in the learning phase. In other words, a dishonest prover P^* cannot successfully collude with $\mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}$ without leaking some private information. We can find in [17] a discussion on the relation with other forms of terrorist frauds, including SimTF [11,12].

3 Practical and Secure Distance-Bounding Protocols

The protocol **SKI** [6,7] follows a long dynasty originated from [14]. It is sketched in Fig. 1. We use the parameters (s,q,n,k,t,t',τ) , where s is the security parameter. The **SKI** protocols are built using a function family $(f_x)_{x\in GF(q)^s}$, with q being a small power of prime. In the DB phase, n rounds are used, with $n \in \Omega(s)$. Then, **SKI** uses the value $f_x(N_P, N_V, L) \in GF(q)^{t'n}$, with nonces $N_P, N_V \in \{0,1\}^k$ and a mask $M \in GF(q)^{t'n}$, where $k \in \Omega(s)$. The element $a = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ is established by V in the initialisation phase, and it is sent encrypted as $M := a \oplus f_x(N_P, N_V, L)$, with $M \in GF(q)^{t'n}$. Similarly, V selects a random linear transformation L from a set \mathcal{L} (the leakage scheme), which is specified by the **SKI** protocol instance, and the parties compute x' = L(x). The purpose of \mathcal{L} is to leak L(x) in the case of a collusion-fraud. Further, $c = (c_1, \ldots, c_n)$

⁸ Here, we deviate from Def. 4 a bit by introducing $P^*(x)$ in the MiM attack.

is the challenge-vector with $c_i \in \{1, ..., t\}$, $r_i := F(c_i, a_i, x_i') \in GF(q)$ is the response to the challenge c_i , $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$, with F (the F-scheme) as specified below. The protocol ends with a message Out_V denoting acceptance or rejection.

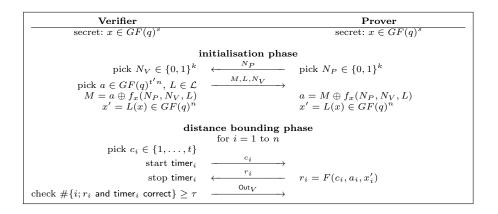


Fig. 1. The SKI schema of Distance-Bounding Protocols

In [6,7], several variants of **SKI** were proposed. We concentrate on two of them using q = 2, t' = 2, and the response-function

$$F(1, a_i, x_i') = (a_i)_1$$
 $F(2, a_i, x_i') = (a_i)_2$ $F(3, a_i, x_i') = x_i' + (a_i)_1 + (a_i)_2$

where $(a_i)_j$ denotes the jth bit of a_i . In the $\mathbf{SKI_{pro}}$ variant, we have t=3 and $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{bit}$, consisting of all L_{μ} transforms defined by $L_{\mu}(x) = (\mu \cdot x, \dots, \mu \cdot x)$ for each vector $\mu \in GF(q)^s$. I.e., n repetitions of the same bit $\mu \cdot x$, the dot product of μ and x. In the $\mathbf{SKI_{lite}}$ variant, we have t=2 with the transform-set $\mathcal{L} = \{\emptyset\}$. Namely, $\mathbf{SKI_{lite}}$ never uses the $c_i = 3$ challenge or the leakage scheme.

We note that both instances are efficient. Indeed, we could precompute the table of $F(\cdot, a_i, x_i')$ and just do a table lookup to compute r_i from c_i . For $\mathbf{SKI_{pro}}$, this can be done with a circuit of only 7 NAND gates and depth 4. For $\mathbf{SKI_{lite}}$, 3 NAND gates and a depth of 2 are enough. The heavy computation lies in the f_x evaluation, which occurs in a non time-critical phase.

In [8], we also consider other variants with different F-schemes.

SKI Completeness (in Noisy Communications). Each (c_i, r_i) exchange is time-critical, so it is subject to errors. To address this, we introduce the probability p_{noise} of one response being erroneous. In practice, we take p_{noise} as a constant. Then, our protocol specifies that the verifier accepts only if the number of correct answers is at least a linear threshold τ . The probability that at least τ responses out of n are correct is given by:

$$B(n, \tau, 1 - p_{noise}) = \sum_{i=\tau}^{n} \binom{n}{i} (1 - p_{noise})^{i} p_{noise}^{n-i}$$

Thanks to the Chernoff-Hoeffding bound [9,15], $\tau \leq (1 - p_{\text{noise}} - \varepsilon)n$ implies $B(n, \tau, 1 - p_{noise}) \geq 1 - e^{-2\varepsilon^2 n}$. So, we obtain the following result.

Lemma 6. For $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\frac{\tau}{n} \le 1 - p_{\mathsf{noise}} - \varepsilon$, **SKI** is $(1 - e^{-2\varepsilon^2 n})$ -complete.

PRF masking. Importantly, **SKI** applies a random mask M on the output of f_x to thwart weaknesses against PRF programming [4]. This was called PRF masking in [4,5]. So, the malicious prover cannot influence the distribution of a.

F-scheme. Related to the response-function F, we advance the concept of F-scheme. This will take the response-function based on secret sharing by Avoine et al. [2] further, beyond protection against terrorist-fraud only, offering formalised sufficient conditions to protect against all three possible frauds. Thus, we stress that using a secret sharing scheme in computing the responses may be too strong and/or insufficient to characterise the protection against frauds mounted onto DB protocols, and we amend this with Def. 7 and Def. 11.

Definition 7 (F-scheme). Let $t, t' \geq 2$. An F-scheme is a function $F: \{1, \ldots, t\} \times GF(q)^{t'} \times GF(q) \rightarrow GF(q)$ characterised as follows.

We say that the F-scheme is **linear** if for all challenges c_i in their domain, the $F(c_i,\cdot,\cdot)$ function is a linear form over the GF(q)-vector space $GF(q)^{t'} \times GF(q)$ which is non-degenerate in the a_i component.

We say the F-scheme is pairwise uniform if

$$(\forall I \subseteq \{1,\ldots,n\}, \#I \le 2)(H(x_i'|F(c_i,a_i,x_i')_{c_i \in I}) = H(x_i')),$$

where $(a_i, x_i') \in_U GF(q)^{t'} \times GF(q)$, #S denotes the cardinality of a set S, and H denotes the Shannon entropy.

We say the F-scheme is t-leaking if there exists a polynomial time algorithm E such that for all $(a_i, x_i') \in GF(q)^{t'} \times GF(q)$, we have

$$E(F(1,a_i,x_i'),\ldots,F(t,a_i,x_i'))=x_i'.$$

Let $F_{a_i,x_i'}$ denote $F(\cdot,a_i,x_i')$. We say that the F-scheme is σ -bounded if for any $x_i' \in GF(q)$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{a_i}\left(\max_y\left(\#(F_{a_i,x_i'}^{-1}(y))\right)\right) \le \sigma,$$

where $x_i' \in GF(q)$ and the expected-value is \mathbb{E} taken over $a_i \in GF(q)^{t'}$.

The pairwise uniformity and the t-leaking property of the F-scheme say that knowing the complete table of the response-function F for a given c_i leaks x_i' , yet knowing only up to 2 entries challenge-response in this table discloses no information about x_i' . The σ -boundedness of the schemes says that the expected value (taken on the choice of the subsecrets a_i) of the largest preimage of the map $c_i \mapsto F(c_i, a_i, x_i')$ is bounded by a constant σ . We have $\frac{t}{q} \leq \sigma \leq t$ due to the pigeonhole principle, since $\sum_y \#(F_{a_i, x_i'}^{-1}(y)) = t$. Furthermore, $\sigma \geq 1$.

⁹ Secret sharing is used to defeat an attack from [16] which is further discussed in [3].

Lemma 8. The F-scheme of $\mathbf{SKI_{pro}}$ is linear, pairwise uniform, $\frac{9}{4}$ -bounded, and t-leaking. The F-scheme of $\mathbf{SKI_{lite}}$ is linear, pairwise uniform, $\frac{3}{2}$ -bounded, but not t-leaking.

The proof is available in [8].

Leakage scheme. We can consider several sets \mathcal{L} of transformations to be used in the PRF-instance, of the **SKI** initialisation phase. The idea of the set \mathcal{L} is that, when leaking some noisy versions of L(x) for some random $L \in \mathcal{L}$, the adversary can reconstruct x without noise to defeat the terrorist fraud by Hancke [13].

Definition 9 (Leakage scheme). Let \mathcal{L} be a set of linear functions from $GF(q)^s$ to $GF(q)^n$. Given $x \in GF(q)^s$ and a PPT algorithm e(x, L; r), we define an oracle $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{L},x,e}$ producing a random pair (L,e(x,L)) with $L \in_{\mathcal{U}} \mathcal{L}$. \mathcal{L} is a (T,r)-leakage scheme if there exists an oracle PPT algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{\langle \cdot \rangle}$ such that for all $x \in GF(q)^s$, for all PPT e, $\Pr[\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{L},x,e}} = x] \geq \Pr_r[d_H(e(x,L),L(x)) < T]^r$, where d_H denotes the Hamming distance.

Lemma 10. \mathcal{L}_{bit} is a $(\frac{n}{2}, s)$ -leakage scheme.

Proof. \mathcal{A} calls the oracle s times, then —by computing the majority— \mathcal{A} deduces $\mu \cdot x$ with probability p, for each of the obtained μ . We run $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{L},x,e}$ until we collect s linearly independent μ values. All the s obtained $\mu \cdot x$ are correct with probability p^s . Then, we deduce x by solving a linear system.

Circular-Keying Security. We introduce the notion of security against circular-keying, which is needed to prove security in the context in which the key x is used not only in the f_x computation.

Definition 11 (Circular-Keying). Let s be some security parameter, let b be a bit, let $q \geq 2$, let $m \in Poly(s)$, and let $x, \overline{x} \in GF(q)^s$ be two row-vectors. Let $(f_x)_{x \in GF(q)^s}$ be a family of (keyed) functions, e.g., $f_x : \{0,1\}^* \to GF(q)^m$. For an input y, the output $f_x(y)$ can be represented as a row-vector in $GF(q)^m$.

We define an oracle $\mathcal{O}_{f_x,\overline{x}}$, which upon a query of form (y_i,A_i,B_i) , $A_i \in GF(q)^s$, $B_i \in GF(q)^m$, answers $(A_i \cdot \overline{x}) + (B_i \cdot f_x(y_i))$. The game $Circ_{f_x,\overline{x}}$ of **circular-keying** with an adversary \mathcal{A} is described as follows: we set $b_{f_x,\overline{x}} := \mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{f_x,\overline{x}}}$, where the queries (y_i,A_i,B_i) from \mathcal{A} must follow the restriction that

$$(\forall c_1, \dots, c_k \in GF(q)) \Big(\#\{y_i; c_i \neq 0\} = 1, \sum_{j=1}^k c_j B_j = 0 \Longrightarrow \sum_{j=1}^k c_j A_j = 0 \Big).$$

We say that the family of functions $(f_x)_{x \in GF(q)^s}$ is an (ε, C, Q) -circular-PRF if for any PPT adversary \mathcal{A} making Q queries and having complexity C, it is the case that $\Pr[b_{f_x,x} = b_{f^*,\overline{x}}] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$, where the probability is taken over the random coins of \mathcal{A} and over the random selection of $x, \overline{x} \in GF(q)^s$ and the random function f^* .

The condition on the queries means that for any set of queries with the same value y_i , any linear combination making B_j vanish makes A_j vanish at the same time. (Otherwise, we would trivially extract some information about \overline{x} by linear combinations.)

We note that it is possible to create secure circular-keying in the random oracle model. Indeed, any "reasonable" PRF should satisfy this constraint. Special constructions (e.g., the ones based on PRF programming from [4]) would not.

Lemma 12. Let $f_x(y) = H(x, y)$, where H is a random oracle, $x \in \{0, 1\}^s$, and $y \in \{0, 1\}^s$. Then, f is a $(T2^{-s}, T, Q)$ -circular PRF for any T and Q.

The proof is available in [8].

We now state the security of **SKI**.

Theorem 13. The **SKI** protocols are secure distance-bounding protocols, i.e.,:

- A. If the F-scheme is linear and σ -bounded, if $(f_x)_{x \in GF(q)^n}$ is a (ε, nN, C) circular PRF, then the **SKI** protocols offer α -resistance to distance-fraud,
 with $\alpha = B(n, \tau, \frac{\sigma}{t}) + \varepsilon$, for attacks limited to complexity C and N participants. So, we need $\frac{\tau}{n} > \frac{\sigma}{t}$ for security.
- B. If the F-scheme is linear and pairwise uniform, if $(f_x)_{x \in GF(q)^n}$ is a $(\varepsilon, n(\ell+z+1), C)$ -circular PRF, if \mathcal{L} is a set of linear mappings, the **SKI** protocols are β -resilient against MiM attackers with parameters ℓ and z and a complexity bounded by C,

$$\beta = B\left(n, \tau, \frac{1}{t} + \frac{t-1}{t} \times \frac{1}{q}\right) + 2^{-k} \left(\frac{\ell(\ell-1)}{2} + \frac{z(z+1)}{2}\right) + \varepsilon.$$

So, we need $\frac{\tau}{n} > \frac{1}{t} + \frac{t-1}{t} \times \frac{1}{q}$ for security.

- B'. If the F-scheme is linear and pairwise uniform, if $(f_x)_{x \in GF(q)^n}$ is a $(\varepsilon, n(\ell+z+1), C)$ -PRF, if the function $F(c_i, a_i, \cdot)$ is constant for each c_i, a_i , the **SKI** protocols are β -resilient against MiM attackers as above.
- C. If the F-scheme is t-leaking, if \mathcal{L} is a (T,r)-leakage scheme, for all $\theta \in]0,1[$, the **SKI** protocols offer (γ,γ') -resistance to collusion-fraud, for γ^{-1} polynomially bounded, and

$$\gamma \geq B(T, T+\tau-n, \frac{t-1}{t})^{1-\theta} \quad , \quad \gamma' = \left(1 - B\left(T, T+\tau-n, \frac{t-1}{t}\right)^{\theta}\right)^r.$$

So, we need $\frac{\tau}{n} > 1 - \frac{T}{tn}$ for security.

Th. 13 is tight for **SKI**_{pro} and **SKI**_{lite}, due to the attacks shown in [6,7]. Following Lem. 8 and Th. 13, we deduce the following security parameters:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ \hline \mathbf{SKI_{pro}} \ B(n,\tau,\frac{3}{4}) \ B(n,\tau,\frac{2}{3}) \ B(\frac{n}{2},\tau-\frac{n}{2},\frac{2}{3}) \\ \mathbf{SKI_{lite}} \ B(n,\tau,\frac{3}{4}) \ B(n,\tau,\frac{3}{4}) & 1 \end{array}$$

According to the data in the table above, we must take $1 - p_{\mathsf{noise}} - \varepsilon \ge \frac{\tau}{n} \ge \frac{3}{4} + \varepsilon$ to make the above instances of **SKI** secure, with a failure probability bounded by $e^{-2\varepsilon^2 n}$ (by the Chernoff-Hoeffding bound [9,15]). If we require TF-resistance (as per Th. 13.C), we also get a constraint of $\frac{\tau}{n} > \frac{5}{6} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$, similarly.

The proof of Th. 13.B' is similar (and simplified) as the one of Th. 13.B. So, we prove below the A, B, and C parts only.

Proof (Th. 13.A). For each key $x' \neq x$ for which there is a P(x') close to V, we apply the circular-PRF reduction and loose some probability ε . (Details as for why we can apply this reduction will appear in the proof of Th. 13.B.)

If r_i comes form P(x'), due to the F-scheme being linear, r_i is correct with probability $\frac{1}{t}$. If r_i now comes from P^* , due to Lem. 1, r_i must be a function independent from c_i . So, for any secret x and a, the probability to get one response right is given by $p_i = \Pr_{c_i \in \{1, \dots, t\}}[r_i = F(c_i, a_i, x_i')]$. Thanks to PRF masking, the distribution of the a_i 's is uniform.

Consider the partitions I_j , $j \in \{1, ..., t\}$ as follows: I_j is the set of all i's such that $\max_y \left(\#(F_{a_i, x_i'}^{-1}(y)) = j$. Then, we are looking at the probability

$$P_j(x_i') := \Pr_{a_i} \left[\max_{y} \left(\#(F_{a_i, x_i'}^{-1}(y)) \right) = j \right],$$

Given x' fixed, each iteration has a probability to succeed equal to $\sum_j \frac{jP_j}{t} = \frac{\sigma}{t}$. So, the probability to win the experiment is bounded by $p = B(n, \tau, \frac{\sigma}{t})$.

Proof (Th. 13.B). Let $Game_0$ be the MiM attack-game described in Def. 4. Below we consider a prover P_j and a verifier V_k in an experiment, $j \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}, k \in \{1, \ldots, z+1\}$. Let $(N_{P,j}, \overline{M}_j, \overline{L}_j, \overline{N}_{V,j})$ be the values of the nonces (N_P, N_V) , of the mask M, and of the transformation L that the prover P_j generates or sees respectively, and $(\overline{N}_{P,k}, M_k, L_k, N_{V,k})$ be the values of the nonces (N_P, N_V) , mask M, and transformation L that a verifier V_k generates or sees at his turn, $j \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}, k \in \{1, \ldots, z+1\}$.

Using a reduction by failure-event F, the game $Game_0$ is indistinguishable to game $Game_1$ where no repetitions on $N_{P,j}$ or on $N_{V,k}$ happen, $j \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$, $k \in \{1, \dots, z+1\}$ based on $\Pr[F] \leq 2^{-k} \left(\frac{\ell(\ell-1)}{2} + \frac{z(z+1)}{2}\right)$.

Since the F-scheme is linear, we can write $F(c_i, a_i, x_i') = u_i(c_i)x_i' + (v_i(c_i) \cdot a_i)$ where $u_i(c_i) \in GF(q), v_i(c_i) \in GF(q)^{t'}$. Note that, in terms of i, the vectors $(v_i(1), \ldots, v_i(t))$ span independent linear spaces. In $Game_1$, each (N_P, N_V, L, i) tuple can be invoked only twice (with a prover and a verifier) by the adversary. The pairwise uniformity of the F-scheme implies that $yv_i(c_i) + y'v_i(c_i') = 0$ implies $yu_i(c_i) + y'u_i(c_i') = 0$ for all $c_i, c_i' \in \{1, \ldots, t\}$ and all $y, y' \in GF(q)$. So, we deduce that the condition to apply the circular-keying reduction is fulfilled. We can thus apply the circular-PRF reduction and reduce to $Game_2$, where $F(c_i, f_x(N_P, N_V, L)_i, x_i')$ is replaced by $u_i(c_i)\tilde{x}_i + (v_i(c_i) \cdot f^*(N_P, N_V, L)_i)$, where f^* is a random function. This reduction has a probability loss of up to ε .

From here, we use a simple bridging step to say that the adversary \mathcal{A} has virtually no advantage over $Game_2$ and a game $Game_3$, where the vector a =

 $f^*(N_P, N_V, L)$ is selected at random. So, the probability p of \mathcal{A} of succeeding in $Game_3$ is the probability that at least τ rounds have a correct r_i . Due to Lem. 1, r_i must be computed by \mathcal{A} (and not P_j). Getting r_i correct for c_i can thus be attained in two distinct ways: 1. in the event e1 of guessing $c_i' = c_i$ and sending it beforehand to P_j and getting the correct response r_i , or 2. in the event e2 of simply guessing the correct answer r_i (for a challenge $c_i' \neq c_i$). So, $p = B(n, \tau, \Pr[e1] + \Pr[e2]) = B(n, \tau, \frac{1}{t} + \frac{t-1}{t} \times \frac{1}{q})$.

Proof (Th. 13.C). Assume as per the requirement for resistance to collusion-fraud that there is an experiment $exp^{\mathsf{CF}} = (P^*(x) \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}(r_{\mathsf{CF}}) \longleftrightarrow V_0(y; r_{V_0}))$, with P^* a coerced prover who is far away from V_0 and that $\Pr_{r_{V_0}, r_{\mathsf{CF}}}[\mathsf{Out}_{V_0} = 1] = \gamma$. Given some random c_1, \ldots, c_n from V_0 , we define $View_i$ as being the view of $\mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}$ before receiving c_i from V, and w_i as being all the information that $\mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}$ has received from P^* before it would be too late to send r_i on to V_0 . This answer r_i done by $\mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}$ is formalised in Lem. 1. So, $r_i := \mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}(View_i||c_i||w_i)$.

Let C_i be the set of all possible c_i 's on which the functions $\mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}(View_i \| \cdot \| w_i)$ and $F(., a_i, x_i')$ match. Let $C_i = \{c \in \{1, \ldots, t\} \mid \mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}(View_i \| c \| w_i) = F(c, a_i, x_i')\}$, $S = \{i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \mid c_i \in C_i\}$, and $R = \{i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \mid \#C_i = t\}$. The adversary \mathcal{A} succeeds in exp^{CF} if $\#S \geq \tau$.

If we were to pick a set of challenges such that $\#S \geq \tau$ and $\#R \leq n-T$, we should select a good challenge (from no more than t-1 existing out of t), for at least $T+\tau-n$ rounds out of T. In other words, $\Pr[\#S \geq \tau, \#R \leq n-T] \leq B(T, T+\tau-n, \frac{t-1}{t})$. But, by the hypothesis, $\Pr[\#S \geq \tau] \geq \gamma$. So, we deduce immediately that $\Pr[\#R \leq n-T|\#S \geq \tau] \leq \gamma^{-1}B(T, T+\tau-n, \frac{t-1}{t})$. Therefore, $\Pr[\#R > n-T|\#S \geq \tau] \geq 1-\gamma^{-1}B(T, T+\tau-n, \frac{t-1}{t})$.

We use $m = \ell = z = \mathcal{O}(\gamma^{-1}r)$ (i.e., \mathcal{A}_2 will directly impersonate P to V after \mathcal{A}_1 ran m times the collusion fraud, with P^* and V). We define \mathcal{A}_2 such that, for each execution of the collusion fraud with P^* and V, it gets $View_i$, w_i . For each i, \mathcal{A}_2 computes the table $c \mapsto \mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}(View_i||c||w_i)$ and apply the t-leaking function E of the F-scheme on this table to obtain $y_i = E(c \mapsto \mathcal{A}^{\mathsf{CF}}(View_i||c||w_i))$. For each $i \in R$, the table matches the one of $c \mapsto F(c, a_i, x_i')$ with x' = L(x), and we have $y_i = x_i'$. So, \mathcal{A}_2 computes a vector y. If V accepts the proof, then y coincides with L(x) on at least n - T + 1 positions, with a probability of at least $p := 1 - \gamma^{-1}B(T, T + \tau - n, \frac{t-1}{t})$. That is, after $\mathcal{O}(\gamma^{-1})$ runs, \mathcal{A}_2 implements an oracle which produces a random $L \in \mathcal{L}$ and a y which has a Hamming distance to L(x) up to T - 1.

By applying the leakage scheme decoder e on this oracle, with r samples, it can fully recover x, with probability at least p^r . Then, by taking $\gamma = B(T, T + \tau - n, \frac{t-1}{t})^{1-\theta}$ and $\gamma' = \left(1 - B(T, T + \tau - n, \frac{t-1}{t})^{\theta}\right)^s$, we obtain our result. \square

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