

# Nonlinear Fuzzy Commitments with Kerdock Codes

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## Errors correcting codes

### Definition of a (block) code and minimum distance

A  $(n, K, d)$ -code is a subset of  $K$  elements of  $\mathbf{F}_2^n$  such that the Hamming distance between two elements is  $\geq d$ .

In this case,  $d$  is called the minimum distance of the code.

### Minimum distance decoding

1. A codeword  $c$  is transmitted on a noisy channel and is recovered as  $x = c \oplus e \in (\mathbf{F}_2)^n$ , where  $e$  is an error.
2.  $x$  is decoded into  $c$ , or an other codeword  $c'$  or FAILURE, depending if the Hamming weight  $w_H(e)$  of  $e$  is small or large.

If  $w_H(e)$  is small, there are no other codewords close to  $x$ .

Else,  $x$  can be close to  $c'$  or far from any codewords.

**Consequence :** a  $(n, K, 2t + 1)$  code can correct  $t$  errors.

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## Authentication of biometric templates

### What is a biometric template ?

In this talk, a biometric template  $b$  is considered as a set of elements in  $\mathbf{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$  of fixed length  $n$  and the distance used for comparison of two templates is the Hamming distance  $d_H$ .

This assumption is not really restrictive : there exists binarization systems for many modalities as for iris, speaker or face recognition.

### Authentication of a fresh template

The reference template  $b$ , acquired during enrolment, and the fresh template  $b'$  are compared with a threshold  $\tau$  :

If  $d_H(b, b') \leq \tau$ , the authentication is successful.

**Encryption ?** If the reference template is encrypted, it should be decrypted for comparison with the fresh template.

⇒ Templates are not protected during the verification.

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## Fuzzy commitments (Juels and Wattenberg, 1999)

### Enrolment

Let  $C$  be a  $(n, K, d)$  binary code with  $d = 2t + 1$ . The user sends  $P = c \oplus b$  and  $H(c)$  to the server, where  $b$  is the reference template,  $H$  is a hash function and  $c \in C$  is a random secret codeword.

### Authentication

The user sends his fresh template  $b'$  to the server, which computes  $P \oplus b'$ . The server decodes it in a codeword  $c'$  (or FAILURE) and controls if  $c = c'$  by verifying  $H(c) = H(c')$ .

The threshold of comparison is related to the distance of the code :  $b'$  is accepted if and only if  $d_H(b, b') \leq t$ .

**A key binding scheme :** A secret key  $K \in \{0, 1\}^k$  is encoded in a codeword  $c$ , masked with  $b$  and recovered with  $b'$  if  $d_H(b, b') \leq t$ .

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## Implementation of fuzzy commitments

The choice of the code strongly depends on the performance of the biometric data (intraclass and interclass rates) :

### Linear codes used in fuzzy commitments

- ▶ Daugman *et al.* (2005), Rathgeb and Uhl (2009) : Reed Solomon and Hadamard Codes.
- ▶ Yang and Verbauwhede (2007), Maiorana and Campisi (2010), Bajaber *et al.* (2022) : BCH codes only.
- ▶ Bringer *et al.* (2007) : Reed-Mullers codes  $RM(1, m)$ .

Two types of implementation are considered :

1. A code with length equal to the length of the template.
2. A combination of two codes.

Without loss of generalities, we consider in this talk the second one

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## Attack in undistinguishability (Simoens *et al.*, 2009)

Let  $C$  be a  $[n, k, 2t + 1]$  linear binary code, with  $c_1, c_2 \in C$ .  
The attacker possesses  $b_1 \oplus c_1, H(c_1)$  and  $b_2 \oplus c_2, H(c_2)$ .

Is it possible to know if the biometric templates  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  come from the same person or not ?

### Description of the attack

The attacker computes  $b_1 \oplus b_2 \oplus c_1 \oplus c_2 = e \oplus c_1 \oplus c_2$ .

1. If  $d_H(b_1, b_2) = e \leq t$ , then  $e \oplus c_1 \oplus c_2$  is decodable.
2. If  $d_H(b_1, b_2) = e > t$ , then  $e \oplus c_1 \oplus c_2$  is decodable or not.

If  $e \oplus c_1 \oplus c_2$  is decodable, the attacker cannot conclude (because  $H(c_2 \oplus c_2)$  is unknown). Nevertheless, if  $e \oplus c_1 \oplus c_2$  is not decodable, then the attacker can conclude that  $d_H(b_1, b_2) = e > t$ .

A linear code with an high minimum distance is vulnerable.

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## Consequence on the attack in undistinguishability

### A non linear code as solution ?

The previous attacks works because  $c_1 \oplus c_2$  is a codeword, due to the linearity of the code. **Could we use a non linear code ?**

### First problem

In a non linear code  $C$  the properties  $\forall c_1, c_2 \in C, c_1 \oplus c_2 \in C$  is false, but it does not guaranties that it doesn't exist some  $c_1$  and  $c_2 \in C$  such that  $c_1 \oplus c_2 \in C$ .

### Second problem

Even if  $c_1 \oplus c_2$  is not in  $C$ , if  $w_H(c_1 \oplus c_2)$  is low, the attack could be again successfull.

The attack is not possible if  $d_H(c_1 \oplus c_2, C) \geq t = \lfloor (d - 1)/2 \rfloor$ .

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## Non-linearity of random codes

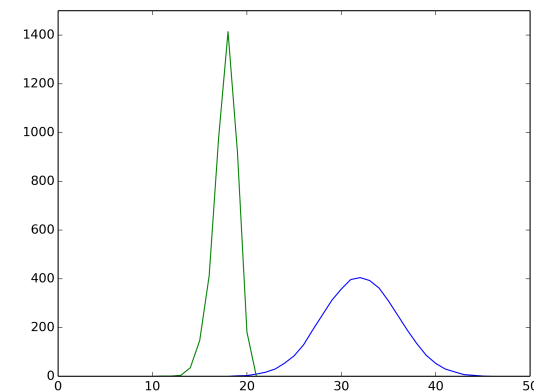


FIGURE – Distance and non-linearity of  $[64, 4096]$  random codes

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## Non-linearity distribution

### Non-linearity distribution

Let  $C$  be a  $(n, K, d)$  code. The non-linearity distribution  $D = (D_0, \dots, D_n)$  of the code  $C$  is defined by

$$D_i = \frac{1}{K} \#\{(c_1, c_2) \in C \mid d_H(c_1 \oplus c_2, C) = i\},$$

where  $d_H(c_1 \oplus c_2, C) = \min_{c \in C} d_H(c_1 \oplus c_2, c)$ .

**Problem :** decoding algorithms of random codes are not efficient.

### Kerdock codes as solution ?

Kerdock codes are non linear codes which have an efficient decoding algorithm. Whats about their non linearity distribution ?

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## Boolean functions

### Definition of Boolean functions and ANF

A Boolean function with  $n$  variables is a map from  $(\mathbf{F}_2)^n$  to  $\mathbf{F}_2$ . It is defined either by a truth table or by a multivariate polynomial (called ANF) in the set  $\mathbf{F}_2[x_1, \dots, x_n]/(x_1^2 + x_1, \dots, x_n^2 + x_n)$ .

**Example :** let  $f : (\mathbf{F}_2)^3 \rightarrow \mathbf{F}_2$  defined by the ANF  $f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1x_2 + x_2x_3 + x_3$ . The truth table is 11100010 because  $f(0, 0, 0) = 0, f(0, 0, 1) = 1, f(0, 1, 0) = 0, f(0, 1, 1) = 0, \dots$

### Definition of bent functions

A Boolean function  $f$  with  $m$  variables is *bent* if and only if  $m$  is even and if the Hamming distance between  $f$  and linear functions is  $2^{m-1} - 2^{\frac{m}{2}-1}$  or  $2^{m-1} + 2^{\frac{m}{2}-1}$

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## Construction of Kerdock codes

**Definition :**  $RM(1, m)$  is the set of linear Boolean functions and  $RM(2, m)$  is the set of linear or quadratic Boolean functions.

### Kerdock Set

Let  $N = 2^{m-1} - 1$  and  $f_1, \dots, f_N$  be quadratic bent functions with  $m$  variables, such that the sum of any pair of functions  $f_i \oplus f_j$  is bent. Then the set  $\{f_1, \dots, f_N\}$  is called a *Kerdock set*.

### Kerdock code

The Kerdock code  $K(m)$ , with  $m$  even, is the subcode of  $RM(2, m)$  defined by  $RM(1, m) \cup (f_1 \oplus RM(1, m)) \cup \dots \cup (f_N \oplus RM(1, m))$ .

$K(m)$  is a  $(2^m, 2^{2^m}, 2^{m-1} - 2^{\frac{m}{2}-1})$  nonlinear code, with parameters close to the linear Hadamard code or  $RM(1, m)$ .

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## Non linearity distribution of Kerdock codes

Let  $m$  be an even number and the Kerdock set  $\{f_1, \dots, f_{2^{m-1}-1}\}$ , of  $2^{m-1} - 1$  bent functions, defining the Kerdock code  $K(m)$ .

### Theorem

The nonlinearity distribution of the Kerdock code is given by  $D_0, \dots, D_K$  where all coefficients between  $D_1$  and  $D_{2^{m-2}-1}$  are null. Moreover if the sum of two bent functions of the Kerdock set is not in the Kerdock set, then we have  $D_0 = 2^{m+1} + 2^{m+2} - 8$  and  $\sum_{i \geq 2^{m-2}} D_i = (2^m - 2)(2^m - 4)$ .

### Interpretation

$D_0$  comes mainly from the linear subcode  $RM(1, m)$ . But  $2^{m-2}$  is greater than the error-correcting capacity of the code!

$D_0$  is asymptotically negligible compared to  $\sum_{i \geq 2^{m-2}} D_i$ .

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## Application to the (16, 64) code $K(4)$

There exist 28 cosets  $f_i \oplus RM(1, 4)$  in  $RM(2, 4)$ , where  $f_i$  are quadratic bent functions with 4 variables (without linear part).

Let  $G(4)$  be the graph composed of 28 vertices  $f_i$ , where an edge between two vertices  $f_i$  and  $f_j$  means that  $f_i \oplus f_j$  is bent.

An exhaustive search of cliques in this graph provides a lot of cliques of order 3 and 8 cliques of order 7 :

- ▶ Cliques of order 3 are just composed by  $(f_i, f_j, f_i \oplus f_j)$
- ▶ Each cliques of order 7 provide a Kerdock set (of cardinal  $7 = 2^{4-1} - 1$ ) for Kerdock codes  $K(4)$ , verifying in all cases the distribution  $D_0 = 88$  and  $D_4 = 168$ .

### Interpretation

The previous theorem is incomplete, the non linearity distribution of all  $K(4)$  has only two weights!

For  $K(6)$  we also have  $D_0 = 374$  and  $D_{16} = 3720$ .

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## Linear construction (Hammons *et al.*, 1992)

A Kerdock code can be seen as an image of a cyclic (linear) code on  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ , by the Gray map :  $\mathbb{Z}_4 \rightarrow \mathbf{F}_2^2$ . This cyclicity provides an efficient encoding/decoding procedure, based on LFSR on  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ .

It is not exactly the same Kerdock code than previously (for example codewords are not necessary quadratic).

### Experiments

Our experiments on  $K(4)$  and  $K(6)$ , constructed from these  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  linear codes, provide the same nonlinearity distribution.

### Parameters and numerical results :

$H(6)$  and  $RM(1, 6)$  are (64, 128, 32) code, whereas  $K(6)$  is a (64, 4096, 28) code.

**Success probability by block** :  $p_{H(6)} \simeq 0.998$  by block for  $H(6)$  and  $RM(1, 6)$  against  $p_{K(6)} \simeq 0.09$  by block for  $K(6)$ .

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## Conclusion

### Parameters similar to linear codes.

Parameters of  $K(m)$  are close to Hadamard codes  $H(m)$  or Reed Muller  $RM(1, m)$ , used in fuzzy commitment schemes.

### Resistance against undistinguishability.

Kerdock codes provide a good resistance against attacks in undistinguishability, due to their non linearity distribution.

### Efficiency of the construction.

The construction of Hammons *et al.* provides an efficient decoding procedure, as for any cyclic linear codes.

Thank you ! Questions ?

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