Chair for Network Architectures and Services
Department of Informatics
TU München – Prof. Carle

Network Security

Chapter 2 Cryptography
2.2 Cryptographic Hash Functions

- Motivation
- Cryptographic Hash Functions
  - SHA-1, SHA-3, Skein
- Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

Acknowledgments

This course is based to a significant extend on slides provided by Günter Schäfer, author of the **book "Netzsicherheit - Algorithmische Grundlagen und Protokolle"**, available in German from **dpunkt Verlag**. The English version of the book is entitled “Security in Fixed and Wireless Networks: An Introduction to Securing Data Communications” and is published by Wiley is also available. We gratefully acknowledge his support.

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Motivation (1)

- *Data integrity* is an essential security service

  ➔ Upon receiving a message *m*, we need to detect whether *m* has been modified intentionally by an attacker

- Common practice in data communications: *error detection code* over messages, to identify if errors were introduced during transmission
  - Examples: Parity, Bit-Interleaved Parity, Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

➔ Underlying idea of these codes: add redundancy to a message for being able to *detect*, or even *correct* transmission errors

➔ The error detection/correction code of choice and its parameters: trade-off between
  - computational overhead
  - increase of message length
  - Probability/characteristics of errors on the transmission medium

Motivation (2)

- It is a different (and much harder!) problem to determine if *m* has been *modified on purpose!*
- Consequently, we need to add a *Modification Detection Code* (MDC) that fulfills some additional properties which should make it *computationally infeasible* for an attacker to tamper with messages
- This property is fulfilled by so-called “cryptographic hash functions”

Overview

- ❑ **Cryptographic Hash Function**

Cryptographic Hash Functions: Definition

- Definition: A function h is called a ***hash function*** if
  - *Compression: h* maps an input x of arbitrary finite bit length to an output $h(x)$ of fixed bit length n:

    $h: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$
  - *Ease of computation:* Given h and x it is *easy* to compute $h(x)$

- Definition: A function h is called a **one-way function** if
  - h is a *hash function*
  - for essentially all pre-specified outputs y, it is *computationally infeasible* to find an x such that $h(x) = y$

- Example: given a large prime number p and a primitive root g in Z^*_p

  Let $h(x) = g^x \bmod p$

  Then h is a one-way function

Cryptographic Hash Functions: Definition

- Definition: A function H is called a **cryptographic hash function** if
  1. H is a *one-way function*
     Also called *1st pre-image resistance:*
     For essentially all pre-specified outputs y, it is *computationally infeasible* to find an x such that $H(x) = y$
  2. *2nd pre-image resistance:*
     Given x it is *computationally infeasible* to find any second input x' with $x \neq x'$ such that $H(x) = H(x')$
     Note: This property is very important for digital signatures.
  3. *Collision resistance:*
     It is *computationally infeasible* to find any pair (x, x') with $x \neq x'$ such that $H(x) = H(x')$
  4. *Random oracle property:*
     It is computationally infeasible to distinguish $H(m)$ from random n-bit value

General Remarks (1)

- Computational infeasibility
  - In a mathematical sense, the notion of *computational infeasibility* is directly related to complexity theory.
  - It means that no polynomial complexity algorithm for the given problem exists
  - However, cryptographic hash functions, which are actually used in practice, e.g. SHA-1 or SHA-3, are not directly based on such mathematical problems
- Random output
  - The algorithm for calculating the hash value of a string is deterministic
  - However, the output of a cryptographic hash function should "look" random [Ferg03]
  - In particular, a cryptographic hash function should map two "similar" strings to completely uncorrelated outputs (similar in the sense of a small Hamming distance) [Cos06]
  - In particular, a cryptographic hash function should not be additive
    - If $x' = x \oplus \Delta$, then $H(x')$ should be different from $H(x) \oplus H(\Delta)$

General Remarks (2)

- In networking there are codes for error detection.
- Cyclic redundancy checks (CRC)
  - CRC is commonly used in networking environments
  - CRC is based on binary polynomial division with Input / CRC divisor (divisor depends on CRC variant).
  - The remainder of the division is the resulting error detection code.
  - CRC is a fast compression function.
- Why not use CRC?
  - CRC is not a cryptographic hash function
  - CRC does not provide 2^{nd} pre-image resistance and collision resistance
  - CRC is additive
    - If $x' = x \oplus \Delta$, then $CRC(x') = CRC(x) \oplus CRC(\Delta)$
  - CRC is useful for protecting against noisy channels
  - But not against intentional manipulation

Overview

- MAC and other applications

Case:
No attacker

Alice (A)

Bob (B)

m, H(m)

ok

Case:
With attacker

Alice (A)

m, H(m)

m‘, H(m‘)

Bob (B)

ok

- Applying a hash function is not sufficient to secure a message.
- *H(m)* needs to be protected.

Application of Cryptographic Hash Functions for Data Integrity

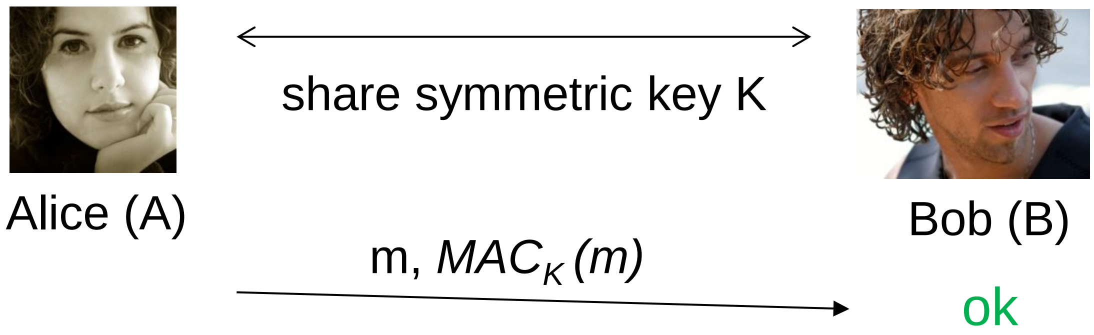
- Cryptographic hash functions are used to detect whether a message has been modified by an attacker
- As seen on the last slide:
  - However, the use of a cryptographic hash function is *not sufficient* to detect whether a message has been modified.
  - if Alice sends a message (x, $H(x)$) to Bob, with H a cryptographic hash function, it holds:
    - The computation of H(x) is usually based on a well-known algorithm
    - The computation of H(x) does not include a secret key or anything else bound to the identity of Alice

    ➔ An attacker can modify x to x', calculate H(x') easily and sends (x', H(x')) to Bob pretending that this message would be originating from Alice

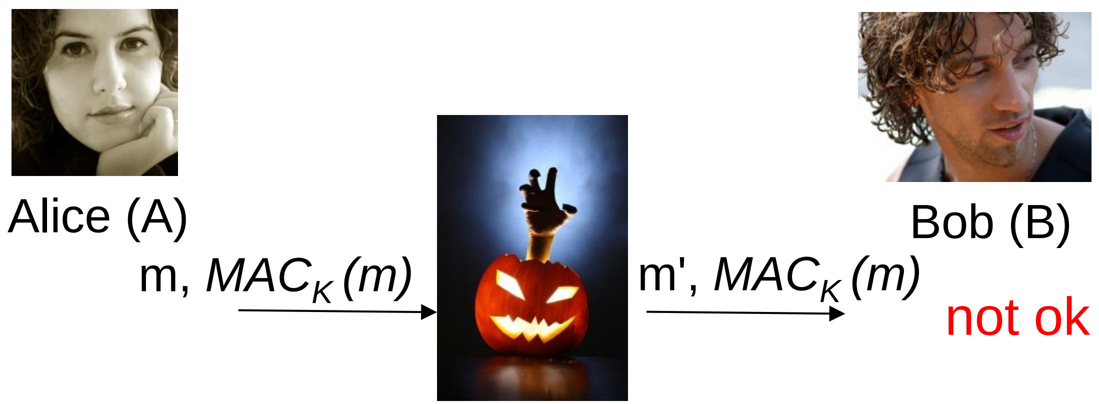
Application of Cryptographic Hash Functions for Data Integrity

- Potential workarounds:
  - Alice might send the cryptographic hash value via an out-of-band (trusted) channel to Bob. Examples:
    - by phone call
    - by a letter
    - the hash value may be published on a (trusted) web server.
    - Alice and Bob might use a physically-protected channel where attackers can only listen, but not send.
  - Use cryptography and secret keys
    - Message Authentication Code (MAC) that depends on key k and message m.

Case:
No attacker



Case:
With attacker



- Since the secret key k is unknown to the attacker, the attacker cannot compute $MAC_K(m')$

Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

- Definition: Let H_k be a family of functions parameterized by a secret key k. Then H_k is called a **Message Authentication Code** (MAC) algorithm if it satisfies the following properties:
  1. *Compression:*
     H_k maps an input x of arbitrary finite bitlength to an output $H_k(x)$ of fixed bitlength, called the MAC
  2. *Ease of computation:*
     given k, x and a known function family H_k the value $H_k(x)$ is easy to compute
  3. *Computation-resistance:*
     for every fixed, allowed, but unknown value of k, given zero or more text-MAC pairs $(x_i, H_k(x_i))$ it is computationally infeasible to compute a text-MAC pair $(x, H_k(x))$ for any new input $x \neq x_i$

Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

- Note that *computation-resistance* implies *key non-recovery*
  - *k* can not be recovered from pairs $(x_i, H_k(x_i))$,
  - but computation-resistance can not be deduced from key non-recovery, as the key *k* needs not always to be recovered to forge new MACs (as shown in subsequent example)

A Simple Attack Against an Insecure MAC

- For illustrative purposes, consider the following MAC definition:
  - Input: message $m = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ with x_i being 128-bit values, and key K
  - Compute $\Delta(m) := x_1 \oplus x_2 \oplus ... \oplus x_n$ with $\oplus$ denoting XOR
  - Output: $MAC_K(m) := Enc_K(\Delta(m))$ with $Enc_K(x)$ denoting AES encryption
- The key length is 128 bit and the MAC length is 128 bit, so we would expect an effort of about 2^{127} operations to break the MAC (being able to forge messages).
- Unfortunately the MAC definition is insecure:
  - Attacker Eve wants to forge messages. Eve does not know K
  - Alice and Bob exchange a message $(m, MAC_K(m))$, Eve eavesdrops it
  - Eve can construct a message m' that yields the same MAC:
    - Let $y_1, y_2, ..., y_{n-1}$ be arbitrary 128-bit values
    - Define $\boldsymbol{y_n} := y_1 \oplus y_2 \oplus ... \oplus y_{n-1} \oplus \Delta(m)$
    - This $\boldsymbol{y_n}$ allows to construct the new message m' := $(y_1, y_2, ..., \boldsymbol{y_n})$
    - Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} MAC_K(m') = Enc(\Delta(m')) &= Enc_k(y_1 \oplus y_2 \oplus ... \oplus y_{n-1} \oplus \boldsymbol{y_n})) \\ &= Enc_k(y_1 \oplus y_2 \oplus ... \oplus y_{n-1} \oplus y_1 \oplus y_2 \oplus ... \oplus y_{n-1} \oplus \Delta(m))) \\ &= Enc_k(\Delta(m))) \\ &= MAC_k(m) \end{aligned}$$

  - Therefore, $MAC_k(m)$ is a valid MAC for m'
  - When Bob receives $(m', MAC_K(m))$ from Eve, he will accept it as being originated

Applications of Cryptographic Hash Functions

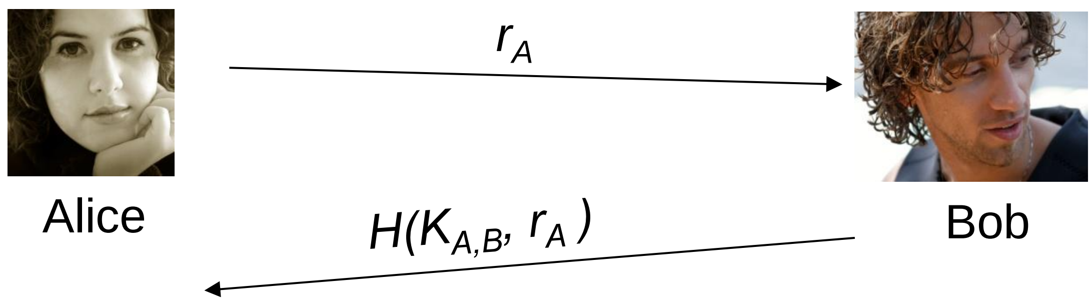
- Principal application which led original design:
  - Message integrity:
    - Using a shared secret key:
      - A MAC over a message *m* directly certifies that the sender of the message possesses the secret key *k* and the message could not have been modified without knowledge of that key
    - Using public key cryptography:
      - The cryptographic hash value represents a *digital fingerprint*, which can be signed with a private key using public key cryptography (like RSA, ECC, ElGamal)
      - Given a cryptographic hash function it is computationally infeasible to construct two messages with the same fingerprint. Therefore, a given signed fingerprint can not be re-used by an attacker.
      - Note: Signatures in public key cryptography are often used in settings where the security has to be guaranteed a long time, e.g. digitalling signing a contract.

Other Applications which require some Caution

- Pseudo-random number generation
  - The output of a cryptographic hash function is assumed to be uniformly distributed
  - Although this property has not been proven in a mathematical sense for common cryptographic hash functions, such as MD5, SHA-1, it is often used
  - Start with random seed, then hash
    - b_0 = seed
    - $b_{i+1} = H(b_i \mid \text{seed})$

- Encryption
  - Remember: Output Feedback Mode (OFB) – encryption performed by generating a pseudo random stream, and performing XOR with plain text
  - Generate a key stream as follow:
    - $k_0 = H(K_{A,B} \mid IV)$
    - $k_{i+1} = H(K_{A,B} \mid k_i)$
  - The plain text is XORed with the key stream to obtain the cipher text.

- Authentication with a *challenge-response* mechanism



Other Applications of Cryptographic Hash Functions

- Authentication with a *challenge-response* mechanism
  - Alice → Bob: random number "r_A"
  - Bob → Alice: "$H(K_{A,B}, r_A)$"
  - Based on the assumption that only Alice and Bob know the shared secret $K_{A,B}$, Alice can conclude that an attacker would not be able to compute $H(K_{A,B}, r_A)$, and therefore that the response is actually from Bob
  - Mutual authentication can be achieved by a 2nd exchange in opposite direction
  - This authentication is based on a well-established authentication method called „*challenge-response*"
  - This type of authentication is used, e.g., by HTTP digest authentication
    - It avoids transmitting the transport of the shared key (e.g. password) in clear text
  - Another type of a challenge-response would be, e.g., if Bob signs the challenge "r_A" with his private key
  - Note that this kind of authentication does not include negotiation of a session key.
  - Protocols for key negotiation will be discussed in subsequent chapters.

Other Applications of Cryptographic Hash Functions

- Cryptographic hash values can also be used for error detection, but they are generally computationally more expensive than simple error detection codes such as CRC

Overview

- Common Structures of Hash Functions
  - Merkle-Damgård construction
  - SHA-1
  - SHA-3 and Skein

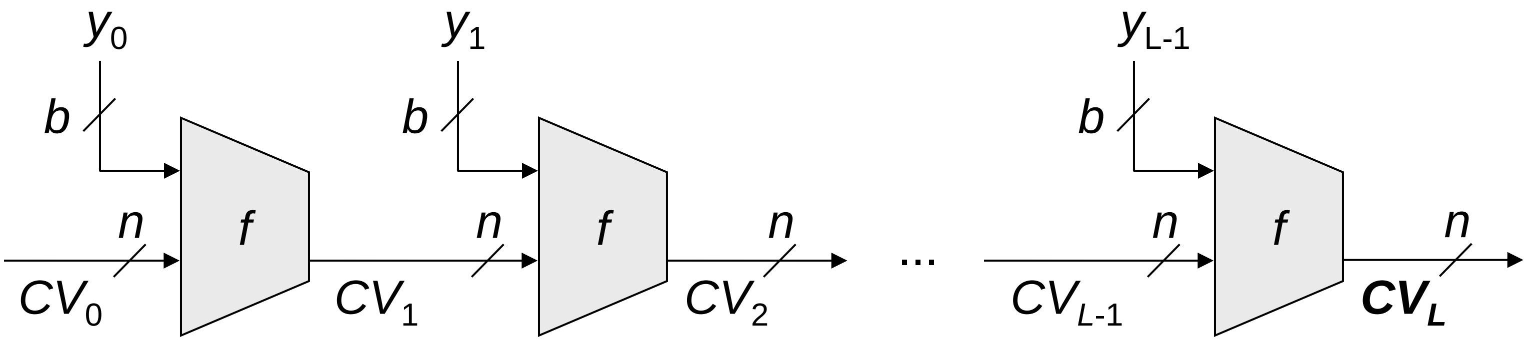
Overview of Commonly Used Cryptographic Hash Functions and Message Authentication Codes

- Cryptographic Hash Functions:
  - Message Digest 5 (MD5):
    - Invented by R. Rivest, Successor to MD4. **Considered broken**.
  - Secure Hash Algorithm 1 (SHA-1):
    - Old NIST standard.
    - Invented by the National Security Agency (NSA). Inspired by MD4.
  - Secure Hash Algorithm 3 (SHA-3):
    - Current NIST standard (since October 2012).
    - Keccak algorithm by G. Bertoni, J. Daemen, M. Peeters und G. Van Assche.

- Message Authentication Codes:
  - MACs constructed from cryptographic hash functions:
    - Example HMAC, RFC 2104, details later
  - CBC-MAC, CMAC
    - Uses blockcipher in Cipher Block Chaining mode
(Encryption: XOR plain text with cipher text of previous block, then encrypt)
    - CMAC better than pure CBC-MAC, details later

Merkle-Damgård construction (1)

- Like many of today's block ciphers follow the general structure of a Feistel network, cryptographic hash functions such as SHA-1 follow the **Merkle-Damgård construction**:
  - Let y be an arbitrary message. Usually, the length of the message is appended to the message and padded to a multiple of some block size b. Let $(y_0, y_1, ..., y_{L-1})$ denote the resulting message consisting of L blocks of size b
  - The general structure is as depicted below:



  - CV is a *chaining value*, with $CV_0 := IV$ and $H(y) := CV_L$
  - f is a specific compression function which compresses $(n + b)$ bit to n bit

Merkle-Damgård construction (2)

- The hash function H according to Merkle-Damgård construction can be summarized as follows:

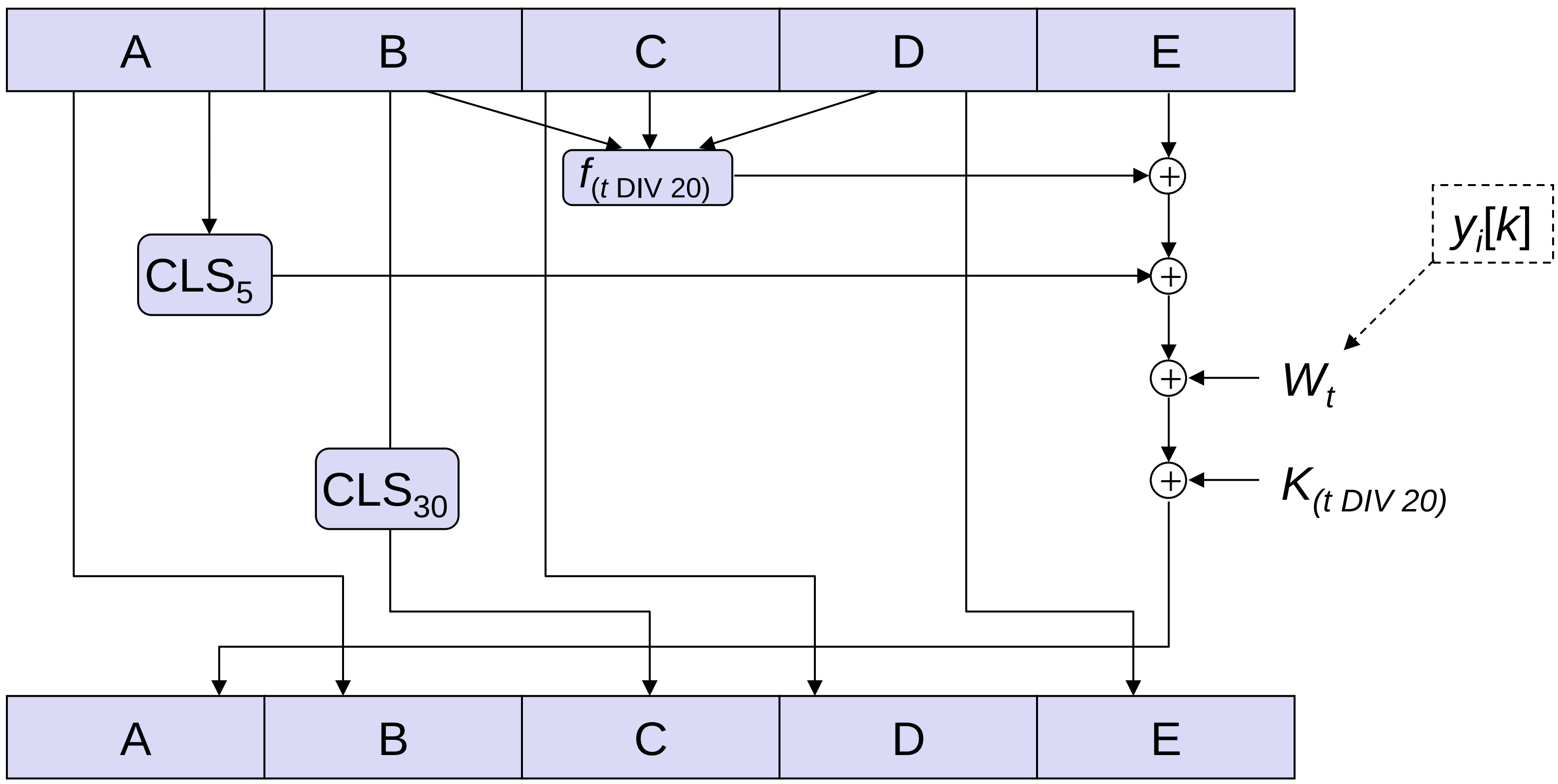
$$CV_0 = IV \quad = \text{initial n-bit value}$$
$$CV_i = f(CV_{i-1}, y_{i-1}) \quad 1 \leq i \leq L$$
$$H(y) = CV_L$$

- Security proofs by the authors [Mer89a] have shown shown that if the compression function f is collision resistant, then the resulting iterated hash function H is also collision resistant.
- However, the construction has undesirable properties like length extension attacks. The Merkle-Damgård construction can be strengthened:
  - by adding a block with the length of the message (length padding).
  - by using a wide pipe construction where the hash output has less bits than the intermediate chaining values CV_i with $i < L$.
    - Hash shorter than state good as less info leaked to attacker (e.g. against length extension). However, less search space for other attacks like brute force.

The Secure Hash Algorithm SHA-1 (1)

- Also SHA-1 follows the common structure as described above:
  - SHA-1 works on 512-bit blocks and produces a 160-bit hash value
  - Initialization
    - The data is padded, a length field is added and the resulting message is processed as blocks of length 512 bit
    - The chaining value is structured as five 32-bit registers A, B, C, D, E
    - Initialization: **`A = 0x 67 45 23 01  B = 0x EF CD AB 89`**
      `C = 0x 98 BA DC FE  D = 0x 10 32 54 76`
      `E = 0x C3 D2 E1 F0`
    - The values are stored in big-endian format
  - Each block y_i of the message is processed together with CV_i in a module realizing the compression function f in four rounds of 20 steps each.
    - The rounds have a similar structure but each round uses a different primitive logical function f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4
    - Each step makes use of a fixed additive constant K_t, which remains unchanged during one round
  - The text block y_i which consists of 16 32-bits words is „stretched“ with a recurrent linear function in order to make 80 32-bits out of it, which are required for the 80 steps:
    - $t \in \{0, ..., 15\} \Rightarrow W_t := y_i[t]$
    - $t \in \{16, ..., 79\} \Rightarrow W_t := CLS_1(W_{t-16} \oplus W_{t-14} \oplus W_{t-8} \oplus W_{t-3})$

The Secure Hash Algorithm SHA-1 (2) - One Step



- After step 79 each register A, B, C, D, E is added modulo 2^{32} with the value of the corresponding register before step 0 to compute CV_{i+1}

The Secure Hash Algorithm SHA-1 (3)

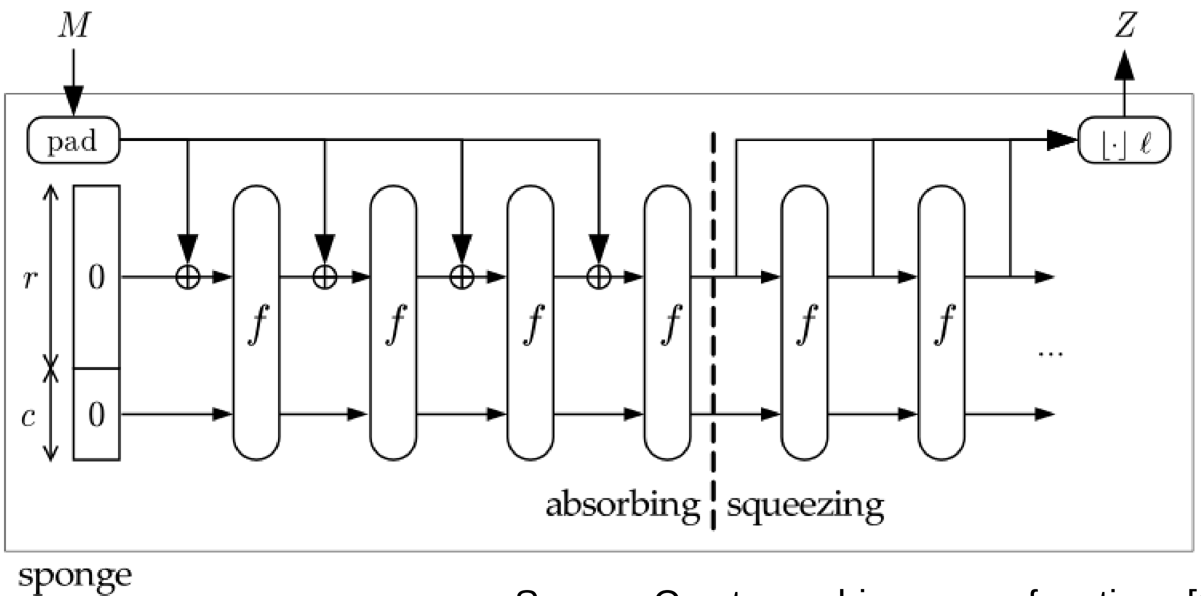
- The SHA-1 value over a message is the content of the chaining value CV after processing the final message block
- Security of SHA-1:
  - As SHA-1 produces a hash value of length 160 bit, it offers better security than MD5 with its 128 bits.
  - In February 2005, 3 Chinese Scientists published a paper where they break SHA-1 collision resistance within 2^{69} steps, which is much less than expected from a cryptographic hash function with an output of 160 bits (2^{80}).
  - Meanwhile down to 2^{52} steps (EuroCrypt 2009 Rump Session).
  - Up to now, no attacks on the pre-image resistance of SHA-1 have been published.

SHA-3 – a new hash standard

- MD5 is considered broken and SHA-1 is under heavy attack.
- Performance of SHA-1 worse than performance of up-to-date symmetric ciphers like AES or Twofish.
- ➔ NIST started a competition for a new hash function standard that will be called SHA-3 in 2007.

- NIST SHA-3 competetition
  - Requirement: fast and secure!
  - Round1: 51 candidates accepted, 13 rejected. (December 2008)
  - Round2: 14 candidates survivded. (July 2009)
  - Round3 (final): 5 candidates (BLAKE, Grostl, JH, Keccak, Skein) (December 2010)
  - **Winner (October 2012): Keccak**

SHA-3 / Keccak / Sponge Construction



Source: Cryptographic sponge functions [CSF], January 2011, http://sponge.noekeon.org/ by Keccak authors

- SHA-3 (Keccak)
  - Follows the sponge construction
  - M is padded to a multiple of the block length r
  - r=0, c=0
  - For each block i, compute f(r+mi | ci) (= Absorbing phase)
  - In squeezing phase concatenate the ri until output length reached.

SHA-3 / Keccak / Sponge Construction

- The function f follows a block cipher-like concept.
- Internal state:
  - 3d state space, 5x5 64-bit words (400 Bits)
- 256 Bit and 512 Bit blocks, 24 rounds with each 5 subrounds
- Round operations include
  - Parity in columns of the state space
  - Bitwise rotation in words
  - Permutation of words
  - A non-linear bitwise combination operation
  - XOR with round constant
- Authenticated Encryption and Tree Hash support proposed, not standardized.

SHA-3 candidate Skein

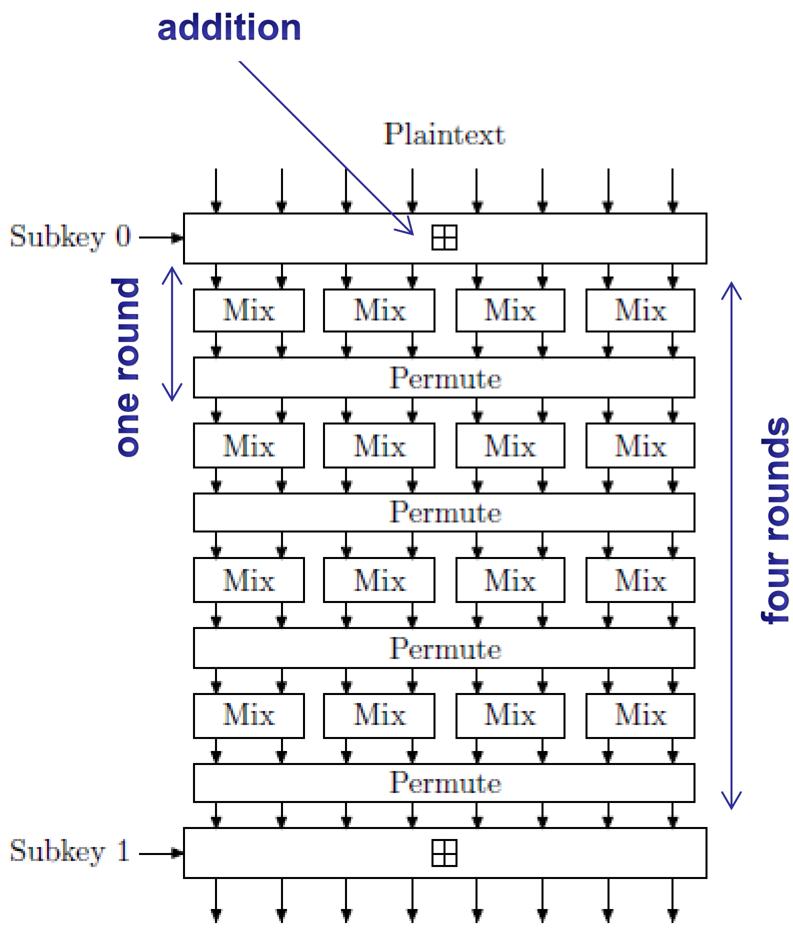
- In addition to SHA-3 finalist Skein might also get wide support in libraries and protocols due to its prominent authors .
- Variants Skein-n / Skein-n-m
  - n = size of internal state (relates to the strength of the hash function)
    - n = 512 (default), n = 1024 (conservative), n = 256 (low memory)
  - m = size of hash output
- Concept
  - Build hash function out of tweakable block cipher
  - Uses block cipher Threefish
    - 512, 1024, 256 bits key length and block length (depending on variant)
  - Unique Block Iteration (UBI) as chaining mode
    - Variable input and fixed (configurable) output size
  - Optional Argument System
    - Key, Configuration, Personalization, Public Key, Key Derivation Identifier, Nonce, Message, Output
  - Support for Tree Hashing
    - Option to process large plaintexts on parallel CPUs / machines in a tree rather than linear processing (cannot be parallelized)

Tweak

- Tweak in Skein
  - Overall size = 128 bits
  - 96 bits counter for message length
    - Incremented for each block
  - 6 bits type information
  - Bit indicates padding
  - Bit indicates first block
  - Bit indicates last block
  - Makes hash result for a plaintext subsequence position-dependent
    - E.g. harder to insert blocks that do not change chaining value to next block
    - E.g. harder to extend message and compute new MAC
    - Etc.

Threefish

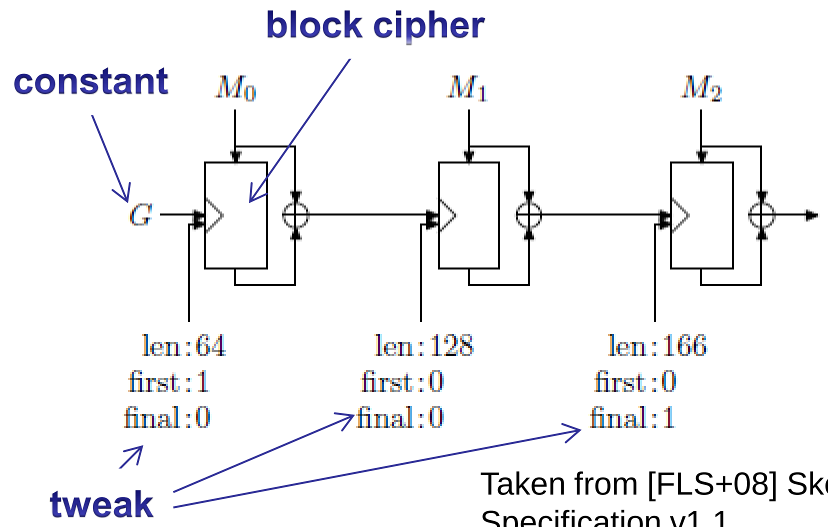
- Block size 256, 512, or 1024 bits
- Key size = block size
- Tweak size = 128 bits
- All operations on 64 bit words
- Mix operation uses
  - XOR, addition (mod 2^64), constant rotation (round and word-specific)
- 72 rounds (80 rounds for 1024 bit version)
- Subkeys
  - Are round-specific and derived from key (4, 8, or 16 words) and tweak (128 bits = 2 words)



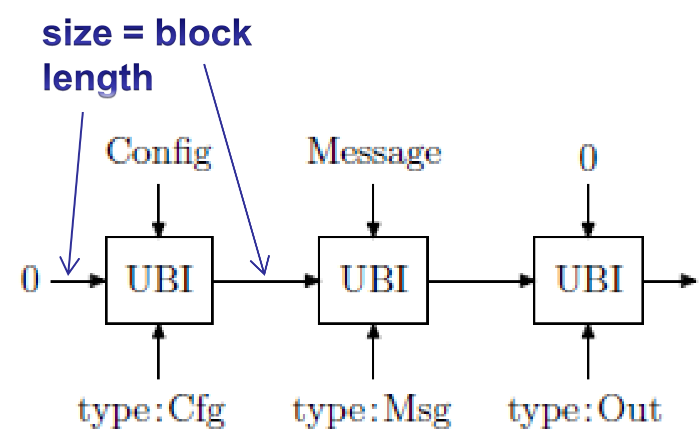
Taken from [FLS+08] Skein Specification v1.1
http://www.skein-hash.info/sites/default/files/skein1.1.pdf

Unique Block Iteration (UBI) Chaining Mode

- Unique Block Iteration (UBI)
  - Block cipher
    - Input: Message Blocks
    - Key: Tweak and chaining value
  - Chaining Value
    - XOR of output and input of block cipher
  - Tweak
    - „Counts bytes until now“ (len field)
    - Indicates first block / finalblock
- UBI in Skein
  - type field
    - Config
      - 32 byte configuration string containing fields like output length
    - Message
      - Plaintext
    - Out
      - Generates final output, input is 0.



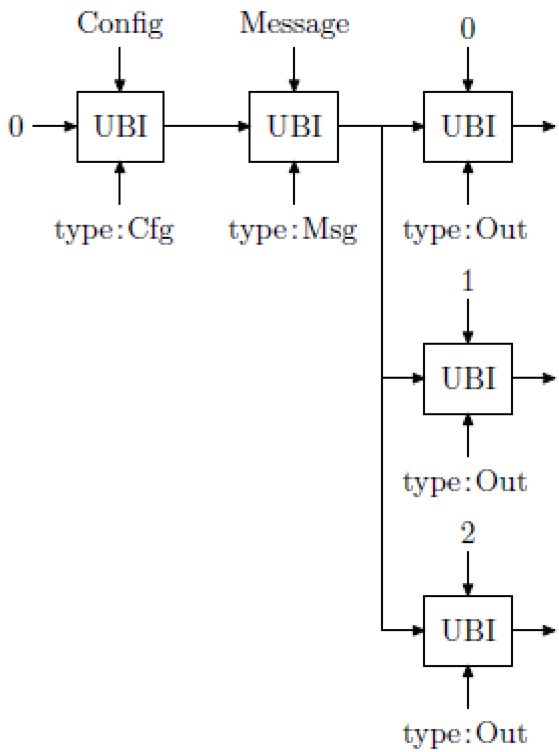
Taken from [FLS+08] Skein Specification v1.1



Taken from [FLS+08] Skein Specification v1.1
http://www.skein-hash.info/sites/default/files/skein1.1.pdf

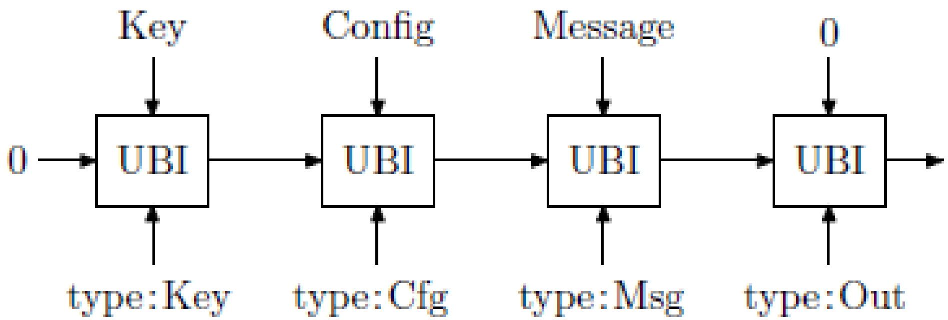
UBI in Skein – Output Generation

- Increase the output size by applying a counter mode for the output computation



Taken from [FLS+08] Skein Specification v1.1

Skein-MAC



Taken from [FLS+08] Skein Specification v1.1

- MAC usage
  - Skein can be used with HMAC and similar functions, requires two hashes
  - Faster option: use Skein with optional argument „key“
    - The key input are processed by an UBI block with the key as input, 0 as constant / initial chaining value and the tweak type information „Key“
    - This does not suffer the same weaknesses mentioned before like adding a key to the plaintext as in some weaker MAC contructions like H(k,m,k).

Overview

- Birthday Phenomenon

Attacks Based on the Birthday Phenomenon (1)

- Attack against collision resistance of cryptographic hash functions
- The Birthday Phenomenon:
  - How many people need to be in a room such that the possibility that there are at least two people with the same birthday is greater than 0.5?
  - For simplicity, we don't care about February, 29, and assume that each birthday is equally likely
- Define $P(n, k)$:= Pr[at least one duplicate in k items, with each item able to take one of n equally likely values between 1 and n]
- Define $Q(n, k)$:= Pr[no duplicate in k items, each item between 1 and n]
  - $P(n, k) = 1 - Q(n, k)$
  - We are able to choose the first item from n possible values, the second item from n - 1 possible values, etc.
  - Hence, the number of different ways to choose k items out of n values with no duplicates is: $N = n \times (n - 1) \times \ldots \times (n - k + 1) = n! / (n - k)!$
  - The number of different ways to choose k items out of n values, with or without duplicates is: n^k
  - So, $Q(n, k) = N / n^k = n! / ((n - k)! \times n^k)$

Attacks Based on the Birthday Phenomenon (2)

- *P(n, k)* := Pr[at least one duplicate in *k* items, with each item able to take one of n equally likely values between 1 and *n*]
- We have:

$$P(n,k) = 1 - Q(n,k) = 1 - \frac{n!}{(n-k)! \times n^k}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{n \times (n-1) \times \ldots \times (n-k+1)}{n^k}$$

$$= 1 - \left[\frac{n-1}{n} \times \frac{n-2}{n} \times \ldots \times \frac{n-k+1}{n}\right]$$

$$= 1 - \left[\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \times \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \times \ldots \times \left(1 - \frac{k-1}{n}\right)\right]$$

- We will use the following inequality: $(1 - x) \leq e^{-x}$ for all $x \geq 0$
- So:

$$P(n,k) > 1 - \left[\left(e^{-1/n}\right) \times \left(e^{-2/n}\right) \times \ldots \times \left(e^{-(k-1)/n}\right)\right]$$

$$= 1 - e^{-\left[\left(1/n\right) + \left(2/n\right) + \ldots + \left(k-1/n\right)\right]}$$

$$= 1 - e^{-k \times (k-1)/2n}$$

Attacks Based on the Birthday Phenomenon (3)

- In the last step, we used the equality: 1 + 2 + ... + (k - 1) = (k^2 - k) / 2
  - Exercise: proof the above equality by induction
- Let's go back to our original question: how many people *k* have to be in one room such that there are at least two people with the same birthday (out of *n* = 365 possible) with probability ≥ 0,5?
  - So, we want to solve:

$$\tfrac{1}{2} = 1 - e^{-k\times(k-1)/2n}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \quad 2 = e^{k\times(k-1)/2n}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \ln(2) = \frac{k\times(k-1)}{2n}$$

  - For large *k* we can approximate $k \times (k - 1)$ by k^2, and we get:

$$k = \sqrt{2\ln(2)n} \approx 1.18\sqrt{n}$$

  - For *n* = 365, we get *k* = 22.54 which is quite close to the correct answer 23

Attacks Based on the Birthday Phenomenon (4)

- What does this have to do with cryptographic hash functions?
- We have shown, that if there are *n* possible different values, the number *k* of values one needs to randomly choose in order to obtain a pair of identical values with probability ≥ 0.5, is in the order of $\sqrt{n}$
- Now, consider the "*Yuval's square root attack*" [Yuv79a]:
  - Eve wants Alice to sign a message *m1* which Alice normally never would sign. Eve knows that Alice uses the function H to compute a cryptographic hash value of *m.* The hash value has length *r* bit before she signs it with her private key yielding her digital signature
  - First, Eve produces her message *m1*. If she would now compute H(*m*1) and then try to find a second harmless message *m2* which leads to the same hash value her search effort in the average case would be on the order of $2^{(r-1)}$
  - Instead she takes any harmless message *m2* and starts producing variations *m1'* and *m2'* of the two messages, e.g. by adding <space> <backspace> combinations or varying with semantically identical words

Attacks Based on the Birthday Phenomenon (5)

- As we learned from the birthday phenomenon, Eve will just have to produce about $\sqrt{2^r} = 2^{r/2}$ variations of each of the two messages such that the probability that she obtains two messages *m1'* and *m2'* with the same hash value is at least 0.5
- As she has to store the messages together with their hash values in order to find a match, the memory requirement of her attack is on the order of $2^{r/2}$ and its computation time requirement is on the same order
- After she has found *m1'* and *m2'* with *H*(*m1'*) = *H*(*m2'*) she asks Alice to sign *m2'*. Eve can then take this signature and claim that Alice signed *m1'*

Attacks Based on the Birthday Phenomenon (6)

- Attacks following this method are called *birthday attacks*
- Consider now, that Alice uses RSA with keys of length 2048 bit and a cryptographic hash function which produces hash values of length 96 bit.
  - Eves average effort to produce two messages *m1’* and *m2’* as described above is on the order of 2^{48}, which is feasible today. Breaking RSA keys of length 2048 bit is far out of reach with today's algorithms and technology

Overview

- Constructing MACs
  - HMAC
  - CBC-MACs
  - CMAC

Constructing a MAC from a Cryptographic Hash Functions (1)

- Reasons for constructing MACs from cryptographic hash functions :
  - Cryptographic hash functions generally execute faster than symmetric block ciphers (Note: with AES this isn’t much of a problem today)
  - There are no export restrictions to cryptographic hash functions
- Basic idea: “mix” a secret key *K* with the input and compute a hash value
- The assumption that an attacker needs to know *K* to produce a valid MAC nevertheless raises some cryptographic concern:
  - The construction *H(K | m)* is not secure
  - The construction *H(m, K)* is not secure
  - The construction *H(K, p, m, K)* with *p* denoting an additional padding field does not offer sufficient security

Constructing a MAC from a Cryptographic Hash Functions (2)

- The construction *H(K | m | K),* called prefix-suffix mode, has been used for a while.
  - See for example [RFC 1828]
  - It has been also used in earlier implementations of the Secure Socket Layer (SSL) protocol (until SSL 3.0)
  - However, it is now considered vulnerable to attack by the cryptographic community.

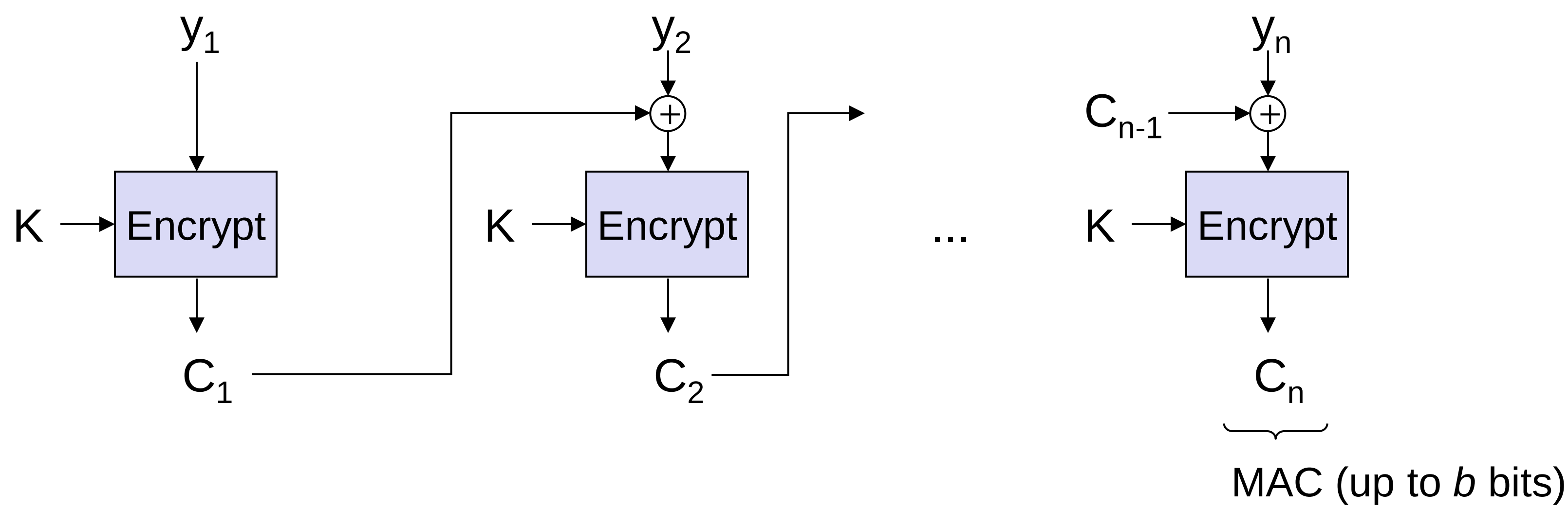
- The most used construction is **HMAC**:

$$H(K \oplus opad \mid H(K \oplus ipad \mid m))$$

  - The length of the key *K* is first extended to the block length required for the input of the hash function *H* by appending zero bytes.
  - Then it is xor'ed respectively with two constants *opad* and *ipad*
  - The hash function is applied twice in a nested way.
  - Currently no attacks have been discovered on this MAC function. (see note 9.67 in [Men97a])
  - It is standardized in RFC 2104 [Kra97a] and is called ***HMAC***

Cipher Block Chaining Message Authentication Codes (1)

- A CBC-MAC is computed by encrypting a message in CBC Mode and taking the last ciphertext block or a part of it as the MAC:



- This MAC needs not to be signed any further, as it has already been produced using a shared secret K.
- This scheme works with any block cipher (AES, Twofish, 3DES, ...)
- It is used, e.g., for IEEE 802.11 (WLAN) WPA2, many modes in SSL / IPSec use some CBC-MAC construction.

Cipher Block Chaining Message Authentication Codes (2)

- CBC-MAC security
  - CBC-MAC must NOT be used with the same key as for the encryption
  - In particular, if CBC mode is used for encryption, and CBC-MAC for integrity with the same key, the MAC will be equal to the last cipher text block
  - If the length of a message is unknown or no other protection exists, CBC-MAC can be prone to length extension attacks. CMAC resolves the issue.
- CBC-MAC performance
  - Older symmetric block ciphers (such as DES) require more computing effort than dedicated cryptographic hash functions, e.g. MD5, SHA-1 therefore, these schemes are considered to be slower.
  - However, newer symmetric block ciphers (AES) is faster than conventional cryptographic hash functions.
  - Therefore, AES-CBC-MAC is becoming popular.

Cipher-based MAC (CMAC)

- CMAC is a modification of CBC-MAC
  - Compute keys k1 and k2 from shared key k.
  - Within the CBC processing
    - XOR complete blocks before encryption with k1
    - XOR incomplete blocks before encryption with k2
    - k is used for the block encryption
  - Output is the last encrypted block or the l most significant bits of the last block.
  - AES-CMAC is standardized by IETF as RFC 4493 and its truncated form in RFC 4494.
- XCBC-MAC (e.g. found in TLS) is a predecessor of CMAC where k1 and k2 are input to algorithm and not derived from k.

Overview

- Integrity Check and Digital Signature

Integrity check with hash function / MAC

Alice (A)

share symmetric key *K*

Bob (B)

m, $MAC_K(m)$

- Alice protects her message *m* with a MAC function
- Alice has to send *m* and the MAC value to Bob.

Examples for potential MAC constructions:

  - HMAC $H(K \oplus opad \mid H(K \oplus ipad \mid m))$
  - CBC-MAC / CMAC
  - Enc_K (h(m))

Integrity check with hash function / MAC

Alice (A)

share symmetric key K

Bob (B)

m, $MAC_K(m)$

- Alice „signs“ her data m with the Message Authentication Code.
- Bob can verify the MAC code by using the shared key.
  - He reads Alice‘s $MAC_K(m)$
  - He can check if his $MAC_K(m)$ matches the one Alice signed.
  - Only Alice and Bob who know K can do this.

Take home message: for integrity checks the receiver needs to know m <u>and</u> a modification check value that it can compare.

- Think about it: Why is Enc_K(m) usually not sufficient?

Additional References I

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