## Cryptographic hash functions and MACs

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### Introduction

Encryption ⇒ confidentiality against eavesdropping

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What about authenticity and integrity against an active attacker?  $\longrightarrow$  cryptographic hash functions and Message authentication codes

→ this lecture

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### Multiplication of large primes IS a OWF:

integer factorization is a hard problem - given  $p \times q$  (where p and q are primes) it is hard to retrieve p and q

A function is a CRF if it is hard to find two messages that get mapped to the same value threw this function

### Definition (Collision resistance)

A function f is collision resistant if there is no efficient algorithm that can find two messages  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  such that  $f(m_1) = f(m_2)$ 

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The successor function in  $\mathbb N$  IS a CRF the predecessor of a positive integer is unique

Multiplication of large primes IS a CRF: every positive integer has a unique prime factorization

# Cryptographic hash functions

A cryptographic hash function takes messages of arbitrary length end returns a fixed-size bit string such that any change to the data will (with very high probability) change the corresponding hash value.

### Definition (Cryptographic hash function)

A cryptographic hash function  $H: \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{T}$  is a function that satisfies the following 4 properties:

- |M| >> |T|
- ▶ it is easy to compute the hash value for any given message
- ▶ it is hard to retrieve a message from it hashed value (OWF)
- ▶ it is hard to find two different messages with the same hash value (CRF)

Examples: MD4, MD5, SHA-1, SHA-256, Whirlpool, ...

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- ► Building block of other crypto primitives Used to build MACs, block ciphers, PRG, ...

## Collision resistance and the birthday attack

#### Theorem

Let  $H: \mathcal{M} \to \{0,1\}^n$  be a cryptographic hash function  $(|\mathcal{M}| >> 2^n)$ 

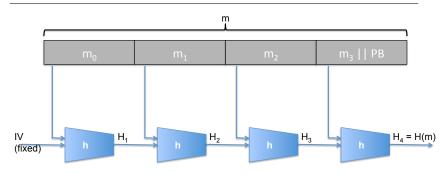
Generic algorithm to find a collision in time  $O(2^{n/2})$  hashes:

- 1. Choose  $2^{n/2}$  random messages in  $\mathcal{M}$ :  $m_1, \ldots, m_{2^{n/2}}$
- 2. For  $i = 1, ..., 2^{n/2}$  compute  $t_i = H(m_i)$
- 3. If there exists a collision  $(\exists i, j. \ t_i \neq t_j)$  then return  $(t_i, t_j)$  else go back to 1

Birthday paradox Let  $r_1, \ldots, r_n \in \{1, \ldots, N\}$  be independent variables. For  $n = 1.2 \times \sqrt{N}$ ,  $Pr(\exists i \neq j. \ r_i = r_j) \geq \frac{1}{2}$ 

- $\Rightarrow$  the expected number of iteration is 2
- $\Rightarrow$  running time  $O(2^{n/2})$
- $\Rightarrow$  Cryptographic function used in new projects should have an output size  $n \ge 256!$

## The Merkle-Damgard construction



- ▶ Compression function:  $h: \mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{T}$
- ▶ PB: 1000 . . . 0||mes-len (add extra block if needed)

### **Theorem**

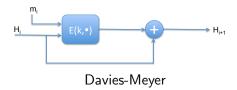
Let H be built using the MD construction to the compression function h. If H admits a collision, so does h.

## Compression functions from block ciphers

Let  $E: \mathcal{K} \times \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^n$  be a block cipher

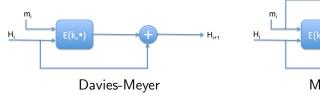
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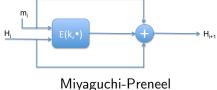
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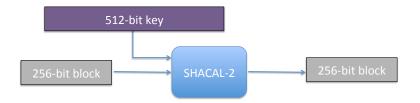


# Example of cryptographic hash function: SHA-256

Structure: Merkle-Damgard

► Compression function: Davies-Meyer

Bloc cipher: SHACAL-2



# Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

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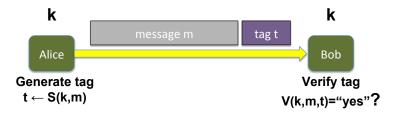
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## Goal: message integrity



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A MAC is a pair of algorithms (S, V) defined over (K, M, T):

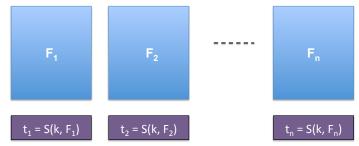
- $\triangleright$   $S: \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}$
- ▶ Consistency: V(k, m, S(k, m)) = T

#### and such that

It is hard to computer a valid pair (m, S(k, m)) without knowing k

## File system protection

At installation time



k derived from user password

- ► To check for virus file tampering/alteration:
  - reboot to clean OS
  - supply password
  - any file modification will be detected

Let (E, D) be a block cipher. We build a MAC (S, V) using (E, D) as follows:

S(k, m) = E(k, m)
V(k, m, t) = if m = D(k, t) then return ⊤ else return ⊥

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But: block ciphers can usually process only 128 or 256 bits

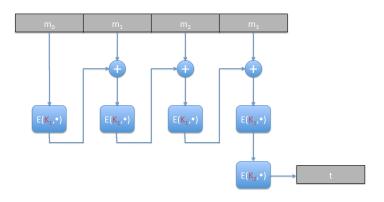
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Our goal now: construct MACs for long messages

#### ECBC-MAC

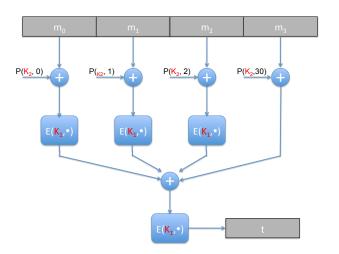


- $\triangleright$   $E: \mathcal{K} \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$  a block cipher
- ► ECBC-MAC :  $\mathcal{K}^2 \times \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$
- ightarrow the last encryption is crucial to avoid forgeries!!

(details on the board)

Ex: 802.11i uses AES based ECBC-MAC

#### **PMAC**



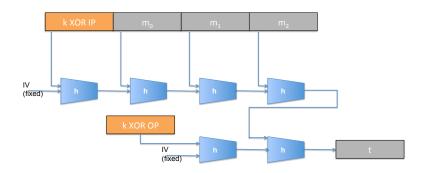
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- $ightharpoonup P: \ \mathcal{K} imes \mathbb{N} o \{0,1\}^n$  any easy to compute function
- ▶ *PMAC* :  $\mathcal{K}^2 \times \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^n$

#### **HMAC**

MAC built from cryptographic hash functions

$$HMAC(k, m) = H(k \oplus OP||H(k \oplus IP||m))$$

IP, OP: publicly known padding constants



# Authenticated encryption

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## Plain encryption is malleable

#### Goal

Simultaneously provide data confidentiality, integrity and authenticity

→ decryption combined with integrity verification in one step

- The decryption algorithm never fails
- ► Changing one bit of the *i*<sup>th</sup> block of the ciphertext
  - CBC decryption: will affect last blocks after the i<sup>t</sup>h of the plaintext
  - ► ECB decryption: will only the *i*<sup>th</sup> block of the plaintext
  - ► CTR decryption: will only affect one bit of the *i*<sup>th</sup> block of the plaintext

Decryption should fail if a ciphertext was not computed using the key

### Encrypt-then-MAC

- Always compute the MACs on the ciphertext, never on the plaintext
- 2. Use two different keys, one for encryption  $(K_E)$  and one for the MAC  $(K_M)$

#### Encryption

- 1.  $C \leftarrow E_{AES}(K_E, M)$
- 2.  $T \leftarrow HMAC\text{-}SHA(K_M, C)$
- 3. return C||T

#### Decryption

- 1. if  $T = HMAC SHA(K_2, C)$
- 2. then return  $D_{AES}(K_1, C)$
- 3. else return  $\perp$

#### Do not:

- ► Encrypt-and-MAC:  $E_{AES}(K_E, M)||HMAC\text{-}SHA(K_M, M)|$
- ▶ MAC-then-Encrypt:  $E_{AES}(K_E, M||HMAC-SHA(K_M, M))$