

ENEE 459-C

Computer Security

Message authentication
(continue from previous lecture)



UNIVERSITY OF
MARYLAND

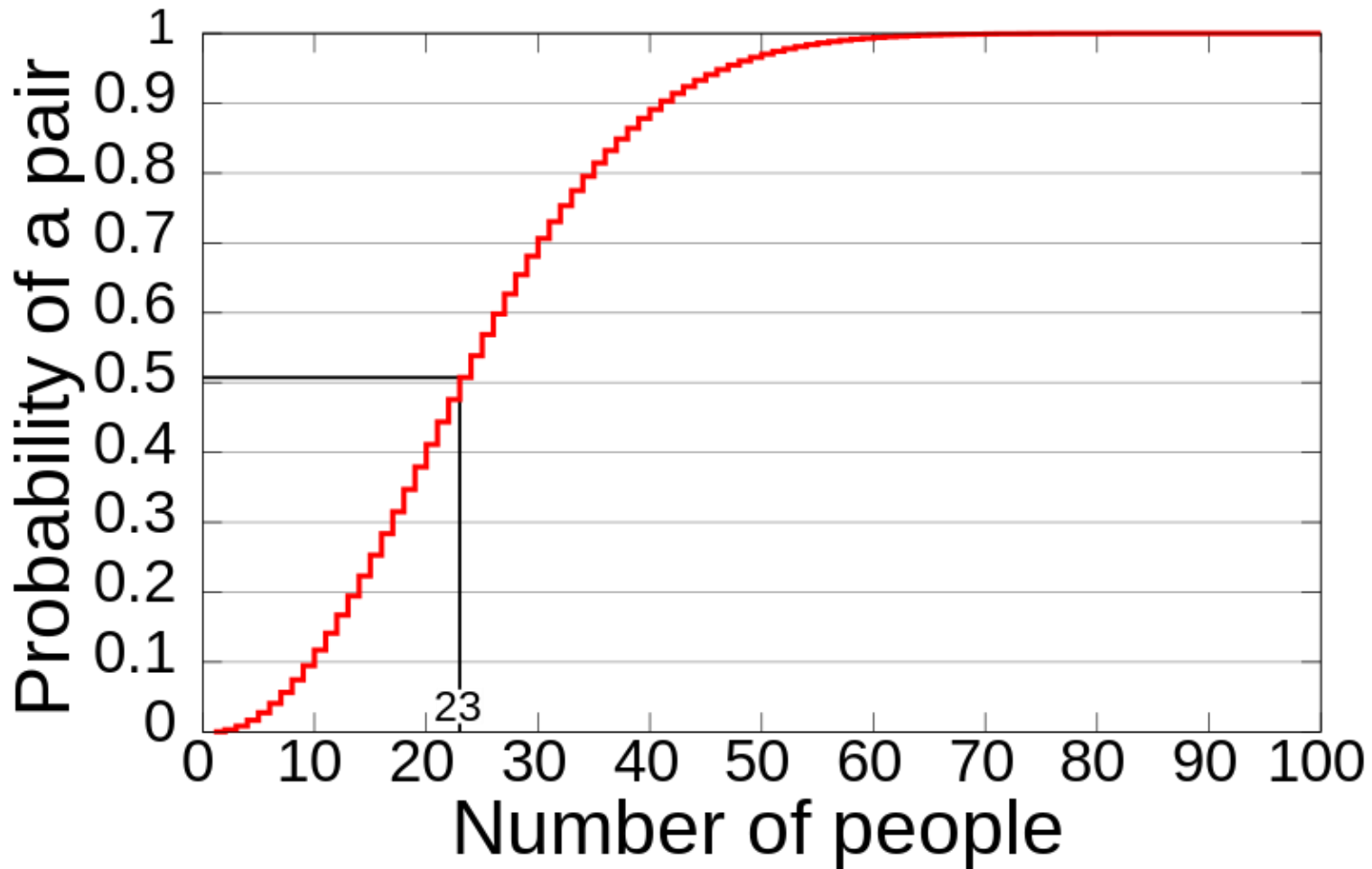
Last lecture

- Hash function
- Cryptographic hash function
- Message authentication
 - with hash function (attack?)
 - with cryptographic hash function (attack?)

Find collisions for crypto-hashes?

- The brute-force **birthday attack** aims at finding a collision for a cryptographic function h
 - Randomly generate a sequence of plaintexts X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots
 - For each X_i compute $y_i = h(X_i)$ and test whether $y_i = y_j$ for some $j < i$
 - Stop as soon as a collision has been found
- If there are m possible hash values, the probability that the i -th plaintext does not collide with any of the previous $i - 1$ plaintexts is $1 - (i - 1)/m$
- The probability F_k that the attack fails (no collisions) after k plaintexts is
$$F_k = (1 - 1/m) (1 - 2/m) (1 - 3/m) \dots (1 - (k - 1)/m)$$
- Using the standard approximation $1 - x \approx e^{-x}$
$$F_k \approx e^{-(1/m + 2/m + 3/m + \dots + (k-1)/m)} = e^{-k(k-1)/2m}$$
- The attack succeeds with probability p when $F_k = 1 - p$, that is,
$$e^{-k(k-1)/2m} = 1 - p$$
- For $p=1/2$
$$k \approx 1.17 m^{1/2}$$
- For $m = 365$, $p=1/2$, k is around 24

Birthday attack



Applications: Online Bid Example

- Suppose Alice, Bob, Charlie are bidders
- Alice plans to bid A, Bob B and Charlie C
 - They do not trust that bids will be secret
 - Nobody willing to submit their bid
- Solution?
 - Alice, Bob, Charlie submit **hashes** $h(A), h(B), h(C)$
 - All hashes received and posted online
 - Then bids A, B and C revealed
- Hashes do not reveal bids (which property?)
- Cannot change bid after hash sent (which property?)

Online Bid

- This protocol is not secure!
- A forward search attack is possible
 - Bob computes $h(A)$ for likely bids A
- How to prevent this?
- Alice computes $h(A,R)$, R is random
 - Then Alice must reveal A and R
 - Bob cannot try all A and R

Applications: Securing storage

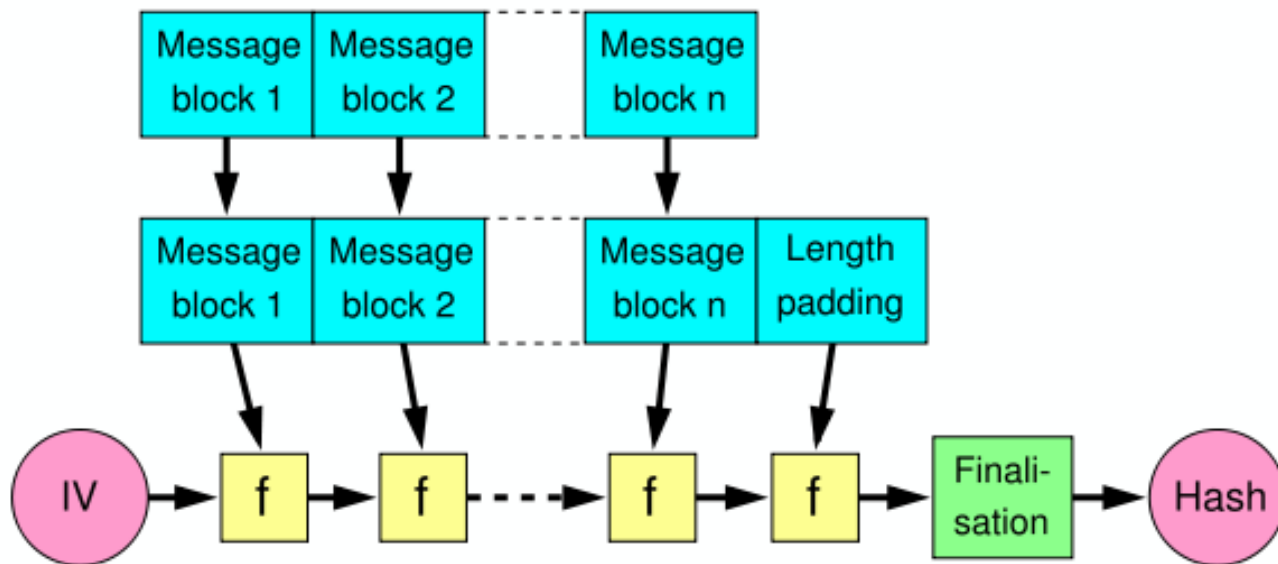
- Bob has files f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n
- Bob sends to Amazon S3 the hashes
 - $h(r||f_1), h(r||f_2), \dots, h(r||f_n)$
 - The files f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n
- Bob stores randomness r (and keeps it secret)
- Every time Bob **reads** a file f_1 , he also reads $h(r||f_i)$ and verifies
- Any problems with **writes**?

Well Known Hash Functions

- MD5
 - output 128 bits
 - collision resistance completely broken by researchers in China in 2004
- SHA1
 - output 160 bits
 - considered insecure for collision resistance
- SHA2 (SHA-224, SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512)
 - outputs 224, 256, 384, and 512 bits, respectively
 - No real security concerns yet
- SHA3
 - Recently proposed
 - Not meant to replace SHA2

Merkle-Damgard Construction for Hash Functions

- Message is divided into fixed-size blocks and padded
- Uses a compression function f , which takes a chaining variable (of size of hash output) and a message block, and outputs the next chaining variable
- Final chaining variable is the hash value



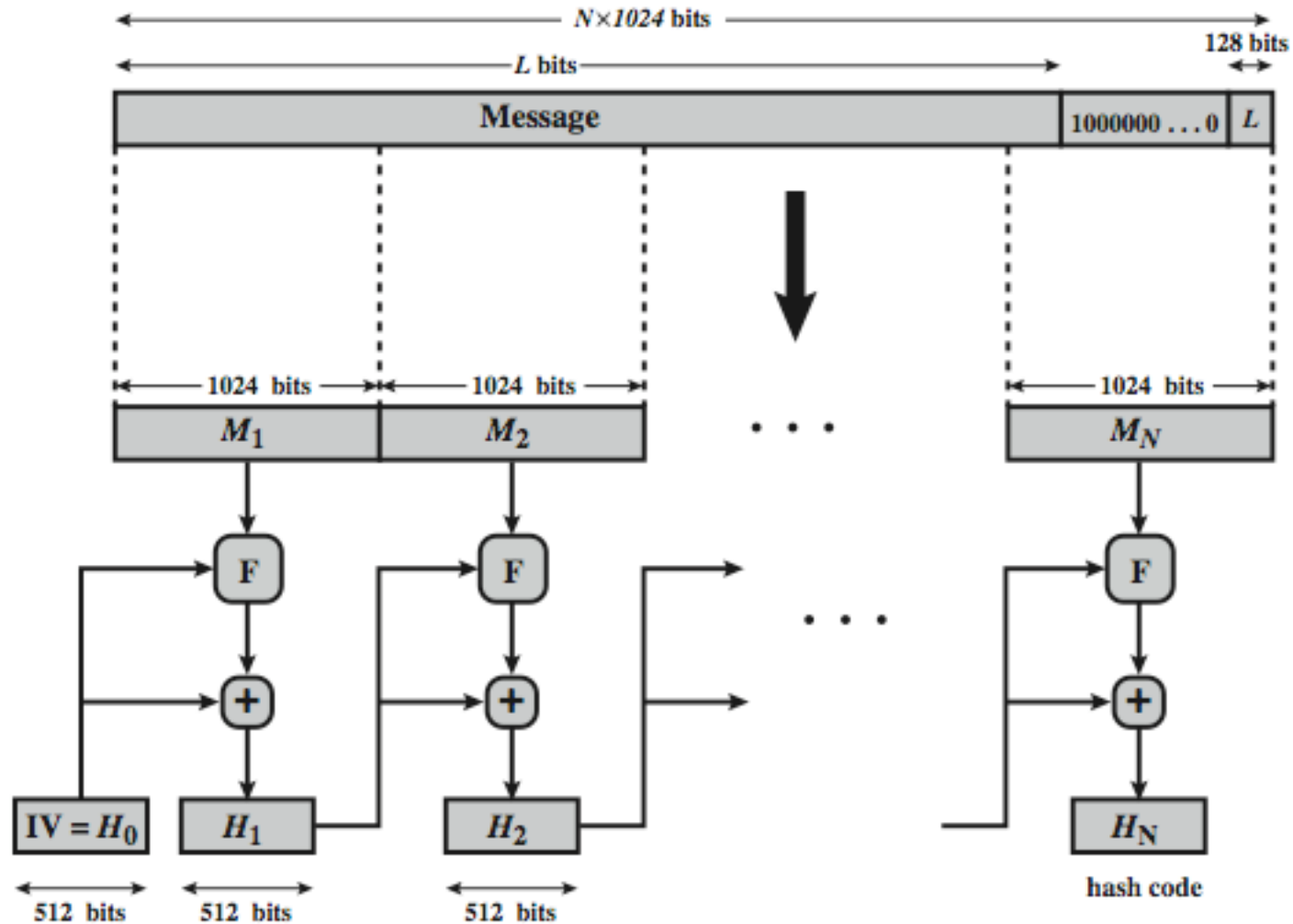
Merkle's meta-method

- any collision resistant compression function f can be extended to a CRHF
- Merkle's meta-method provides an efficient way to construct CRHF from f
 - n bit output, r bit chain variable
 - collision for h would imply collision for f for some stage i

Message-Digest Algorithm 5 (MD5)

- Developed by Ron Rivest in 1991
- Uses 128-bit hash values
- Still widely used in legacy applications although considered insecure
- Various severe vulnerabilities discovered
- Collisions found by Marc Stevens, Arjen Lenstra and Benne de Weger

SHA-2 overview



+ = word-by-word addition mod 2^{64}

Limitation of Using Hash Functions for Authentication

- Require an authentic channel to transmit the hash of a message
 - Without such a channel, it is insecure, because anyone can compute the hash value of any message, as the hash function is public
 - Such a channel may not always exist
- How to address this?
 - use more than one hash functions
 - use a key to select which one to use

Hash Family

- A hash family is a four-tuple (X, Y, K, H) , where
 - X is a set of possible messages
 - Y is a finite set of possible message digests
 - K is the keyspace
 - For each $K \in K$, there is a hash function $h_K \in H$. Each $h_K: X \rightarrow Y$
- Alternatively, one can think of H as a function $K \times X \rightarrow Y$

Message Authentication Code

- A MAC scheme is a hash family, used for message authentication
- $\text{MAC}(K, M) = H_K(M)$
- The sender and the receiver share secret K
- The sender sends $(M, H_K(M))$
- The receiver receives (X, Y) and verifies that $H_K(X) = Y$, if so, then accepts the message as from the sender
- To be secure, an adversary shouldn't be able to come up with (X', Y') such that $H_K(X') = Y'$.

Security Requirements for MAC

- Resist the Existential Forgery under Chosen Plaintext Attack
 - Challenger chooses a random key K
 - Adversary chooses a number of messages M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n , and obtains $t_j = \text{MAC}(K, M_j)$ for $1 \leq j \leq n$
 - Adversary outputs M' and t'
 - Adversary wins if $\forall j M' \neq M_j$, and $t' = \text{MAC}(K, M')$

Constructing MAC from Hash Functions

- Let h be a one-way hash function
- $\text{MAC}(K, M) = h(K \parallel M)$, where \parallel denote concatenation
 - Insecure as MAC
 - Because of the Merkle-Damgard construction for hash functions, given M and $t = h(K \parallel M)$, adversary can compute $M' = M \parallel \dots$ and t' , such that $h(K \parallel M') = t'$

HMAC: Constructing MAC from Cryptographic Hash Functions

$$\text{HMAC}_K[M] = \text{Hash}[(K^+ \oplus \text{opad}) \parallel \text{Hash}[(K^+ \oplus \text{ipad}) \parallel M]]$$

- K^+ is the key padded (with 0) to B bytes, the input block size of the hash function
- ipad = the byte 0x36 repeated B times
- opad = the byte 0x5C repeated B times.

At high level, $\text{HMAC}_K[M] = H(K \parallel H(K \parallel M))$

HMAC Security

- If used with a secure hash functions (e.g., SHA-256) and according to the specification (key size, and use correct output), no known practical attacks against HMAC

Randomness is important!

- The keystream in the one-time pad
- The secret key used in ciphers
- The initialization vectors (IVs) used in ciphers

Pseudo-random Number Generator

- Pseudo-random number generator:
 - A polynomial-time computable function $f(x)$ that expands a short random string x into a long string $f(x)$ that appears random
- Not truly random in that:
 - Deterministic algorithm
 - Dependent on initial values
- Anyone who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin."
– John von Neumann
- Objectives
 - Fast
 - Secure

Pseudo-random Number Generator

- Classical PRNGs
 - Linear Congruential Generator
- Cryptographically Secure PRNGs
 - Blum-Micali Generator

Linear Congruential Generator - Algorithm

- Based on the linear recurrence:

$$x_i = a x_{i-1} + b \pmod{m} \quad i \geq 1$$

Where

x_0 is the seed or start value

a is the multiplier

b is the increment

m is the modulus

Output

(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)

$y_i = x_i \pmod{2}$

$Y = (y_1 y_2 \dots y_k) \leftarrow$ pseudo-random sequence of K bits

Linear Congruential Generator - Example

- Let $x_n = 3x_{n-1} + 5 \pmod{31}$ $n \geq 1$, and $x_0 = 2$
 - 3 and 31 are relatively prime, one-to-one (affine cipher)
 - 31 is prime, order is 30
- Then we have the 30 residues in a cycle:
 - 2, 11, 7, 26, 21, 6, 23, 12, 10, 4, 17, 25, 18, 28, 27, 24, 15, 19, 0, 5, 20, 3, 14, 16, 22, 9, 1, 8, 29, 30
- Pseudo-random sequences of 10 bits
 - when $x_0 = 2$
01101010001
 - When $x_0 = 3$
10001101001

Linear Congruential Generator - Security

- Fast, but insecure
 - Sensitive to the choice of parameters a , b , and m
 - Serial correlation between successive values
 - Short period, often $m=2^{32}$ or $m=2^{64}$

Linear Congruential Generator - Application

- Used commonly in compilers
 - `Rand()`
- Not suitable for high-quality randomness applications
- Not suitable for cryptographic applications
 - Use cryptographically secure pseudo-random number generators

Cryptographically Secure

- Passing the next-bit test
 - Given the first k bits of a string generated by PRBG, there is no polynomial-time algorithm that can correctly predict the next $(k+1)^{\text{th}}$ bit with probability significantly greater than $\frac{1}{2}$
 - Next-bit unpredictable

Blum-Micali Generator - Concept

- Discrete logarithm
 - Let p be an odd prime, then (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot) is a cyclic group with order $p-1$
 - Let g be a generator of the group, then $|\langle g \rangle| = p-1$, and for any element a in the group, we have $g^k = a \pmod p$ for some integer k
 - If we know k , it is easy to compute a
 - However, the inverse is hard to compute, that is, if we know a , it is hard to compute $k = \log_g a$
- Example
 - $(\mathbb{Z}_{17}^*, \cdot)$ is a cyclic group with order 16, 3 is the generator of the group and $3^{16} = 1 \pmod{17}$
 - Let $k=4$, $3^4 = 13 \pmod{17}$, which is easy to compute
 - The inverse: $3^k = 13 \pmod{17}$, what is k ? what about large p ?

Blum-Micali Generator - Algorithm

- Based on the discrete logarithm one-way function:
 - Let p be an odd prime, then (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot) is a cyclic group
 - Let g be a generator of the group, then for any element a , we have $g^k = a \pmod p$ for some k
 - Let x_0 be a seed

$$x_i = g^{x_{i-1}} \pmod p \quad i \geq 1$$

Output

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$$

$$y_i = 1 \quad \text{if } x_i \geq (p-1)/2$$

$$y_i = 0 \quad \text{otherwise}$$

$$Y = (y_1 y_2 \dots y_k) \quad \leftarrow \text{pseudo-random sequence of } K \text{ bits}$$

Blum-Micali Generator - Security

- Blum-Micali Generator is provably secure
 - It is difficult to predict the next bit in the sequence given the previous bits, assuming it is difficult to invert the discrete logarithm function (by reduction)