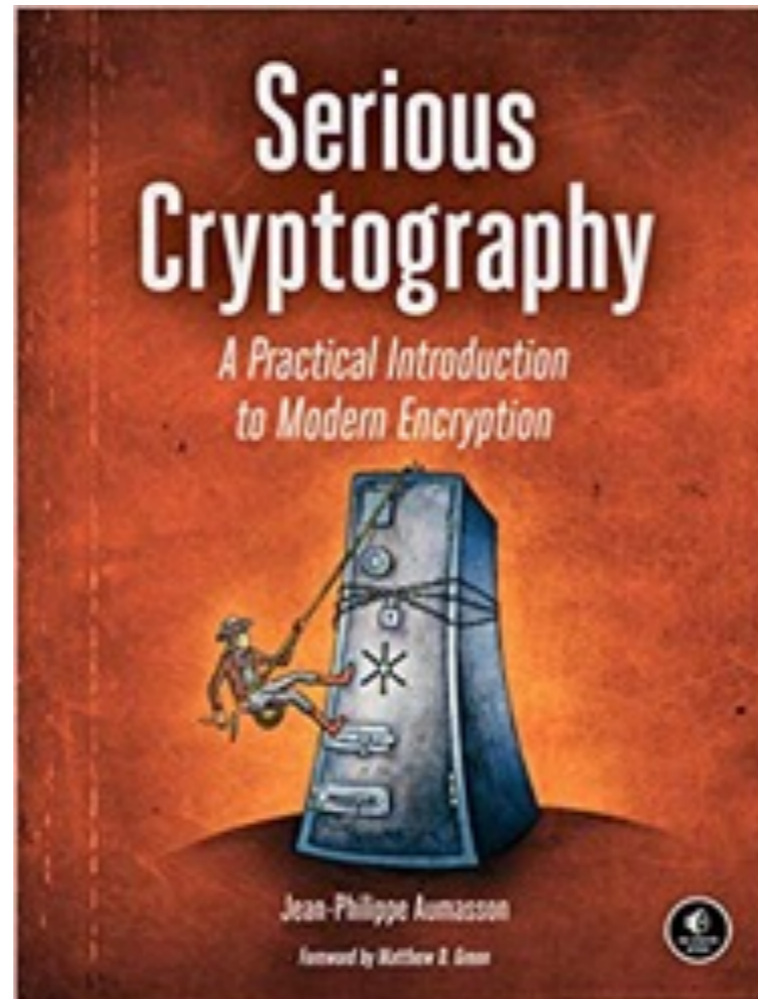


# CNIT 141

## Cryptography for Computer Networks



### 7. Keyed Hashing

Updated 10-16-2023

# Topics

- Message Authentication Codes (MACs)
- Pseudorandom Functions (PRFs)
- Creating Keyed Hashes from Unkeyed Hashes
- Creating Keyed Hashes from Block Ciphers:  
CMAC
- Dedicated MAC Designs
- How Things Can Go Wrong

# Keyed Hashing

- Anyone can calculate the SHA hash of a message
  - No secret value involved
- Keyed hashing forms the basis for two algorithms
  - **Message Authentication Code (MAC)**
  - **Pseudorandom Function (PRF)**

# Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

# MACs

- A MAC protects a message's integrity and authenticity with a tag **T**
  - **$T = \text{MAC}(K, M)$**
- Verifying the MAC proves both that the message wasn't altered, and that it came from the sender holding the key

# MACs in Secure Communication

- MACs are used in
  - IPSec, SSH, and TLS
- 3G & 4G telephony encrypt packets but don't use a MAC
  - An attacker can modify the packets
  - Causing static on the line

# Forgery

- Attacker shouldn't be able to create a tag without knowing the key
  - Such a  $M, T$  pair is called a ***forgery***
  - A system is ***unforgeable*** if forgeries are impossible to find

# Known-Message Attack

- An attacker passively collects messages and tags
- Tries to find the key
- This is a very weak attack



# Chosen-Message Attacks

- An attacker can choose messages that get authenticated
  - And observe the authentication tags
  - The standard model to test MAC algorithms

# Replay Attacks

- MACs are not safe from *replay attacks*
  - To detect them, protocols include a message number in each message
  - A replayed message will have an out-of-order message number

# Pseudorandom Functions (PRFs)

# PRFs

- Use a secret key to return  **$\text{PRF}(K, M)$** 
  - Output looks random
- Key Derivation schemes use PRFs
  - To generate cryptographic keys from a master key or password
- Identification schemes use PRFs
  - To generate a response from a random challenge

# Uses of PRFs

- 4G telephony uses PRFs
  - To authenticate a SIM card
  - To generate the encryption key and MAC used during a phone call
- TLS uses a PRF
  - To generate key material from a master secret and a session-specific random value

# PRF Security

- Has no pattern, looks random
- Indistinguishable from random bits
- Fundamentally stronger than MACs
  - MACs are secure if they can't be forged
  - But may not appear random

# Creating Keyed Hashes from Unkeyed Hashes

# The Secret-Prefix Construction

- Prepend key to the message, and return
  - **Hash( $K \parallel M$ )**
- May be vulnerable to length-extension attacks
  - Calculating **Hash( $K \parallel M_1 \parallel M_2$ )** from **Hash( $K \parallel M_1$ )**
- SHA-1 & SHA-2 are vulnerable to this, but not SHA-3



# Insecurity with Different Key Lengths

- No way to tell key from message
  - If  $K$  is **123abc** and  $M$  is **def00**
  - If  $K$  is **123a** and  $M$  is **bcdef00**
    - Result is **Hash(123abcdef00)**
- To fix this, BLAKE2 and SHA-3 include a keyed mode
  - Another fix is to include the key's length in the hash: **Hash( $L$  ||  $K$  ||  $M$ )**

# Secret-Suffix Construction

- Tag is  $\text{Hash}(M \parallel K)$
- Prevents length-extension attack
  - If you know  $\text{Hash}(M_1 \parallel K)$
  - You can calculate  $\text{Hash}(M_1 \parallel K \parallel M_2)$
  - But not  $\text{Hash}(M_1 \parallel M_2 \parallel K)$

# Secret-Suffix Construction

- But if there's a hash collision
  - **$\text{Hash}(M_1) = \text{Hash}(M_2)$**
- The tags can collide too
  - **$\text{Hash}(M_1 || K) = \text{Hash}(M_2 || K)$**

# HMAC Construction

- More secure than secret prefix or secret suffix
- Used by IPSec, SSH, and TLS
  - Specified in NIST's FIPS 198-6 standard
  - And RFC 2104

# HMAC Construction

**$\text{Hash}((K \oplus \textit{opad}) \text{ Hash}((K \oplus \textit{ipad}) M))$**

- Key  $K$  is usually shorter than block size
- Uses ***opad*** (outer padding) and ***ipad*** (inner padding)
  - ***opad*** is a series of 0x5c bytes as long as the block size
  - ***ipad*** is a series of 0x36 bytes as long as the block size

# Specifying Hash Function

- Must specify, as in **HMAC-SHA256**

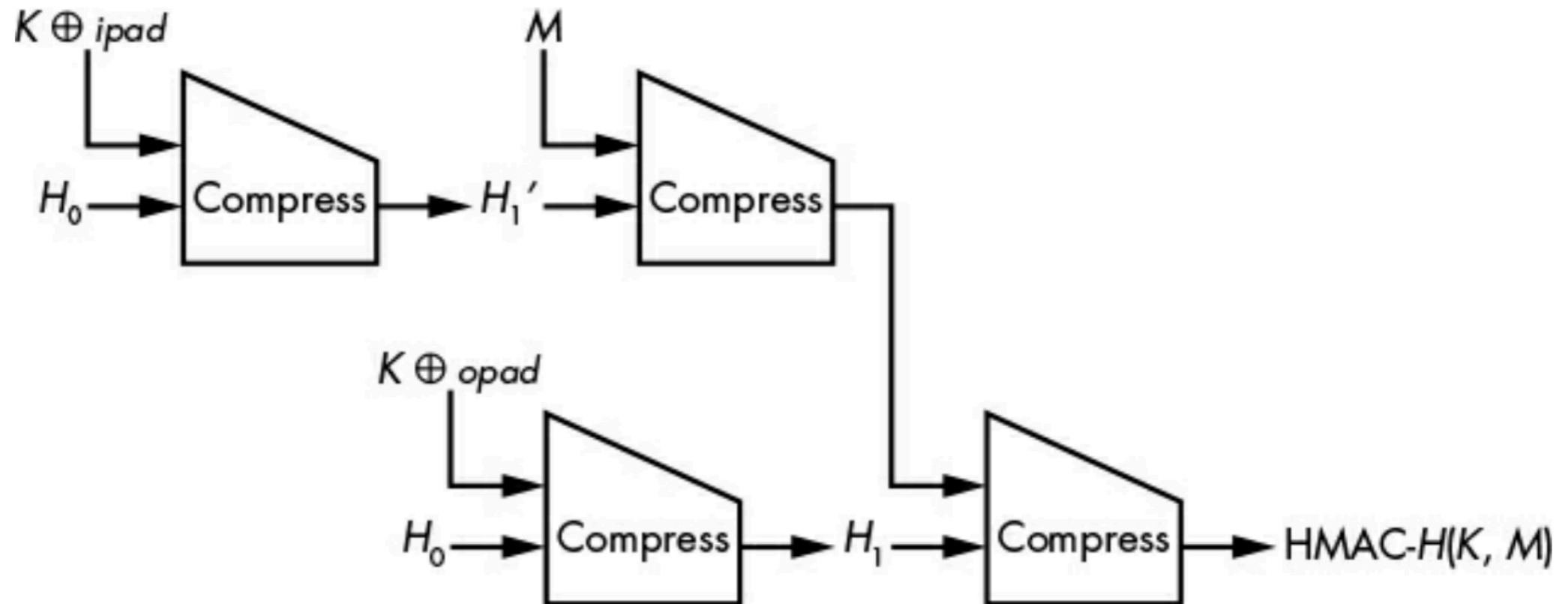


Figure 7-1: The HMAC hash-based MAC construction

# A Generic Attack Against Hash-Based MACs

- Can forge a HMAC tag from a hash collision
  - **$\text{Hash}(K \parallel M_1) = \text{Hash}(K \parallel M_2)$**
- Requires  $2^{n/2}$  calculations (digest has  $n$  bits)
  - **$\text{Hash}(K \parallel M_1 \parallel M_3) = \text{Hash}(K \parallel M_2 \parallel M_3)$**
- Works on all MACs based on an iterated hash function

# A Generic Attack Against Hash-Based MACs

- Infeasible for  $n$  larger than 128 bits

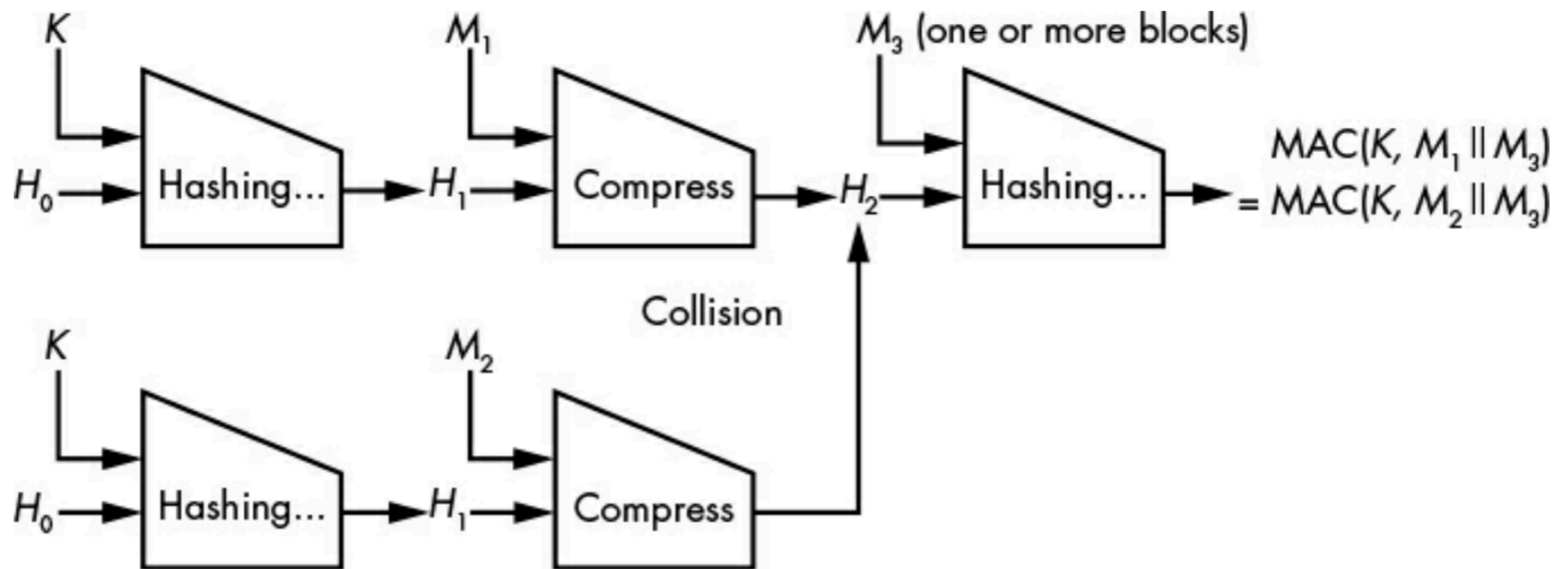


Figure 7-2: The principle of the generic forgery attack on hash-based MACs





**7a**

# Creating Keyed Hashes from Block Ciphers: CMAC

# Block Ciphers

- The compression function in many hash functions is built on a block cipher
  - Ex: HMAC-SHA-256
- Next two slides from Chapter 6

# Compression-Based Hash Functions: the Merkle-Damgård Construction

- Used in MD4, MD5, SHA-1, and SHA-2
  - Also RIPEMD and Whirlpool
- $H_0$  is an initial value (IV)
- $M_1, M_2, \dots$  are blocks of message data
- The final  $H$  is the output

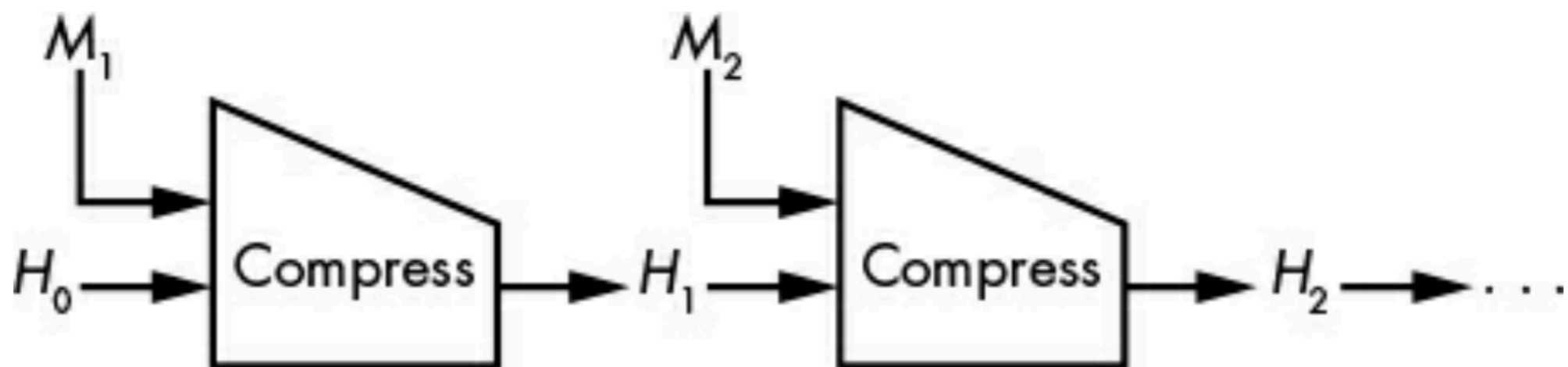


Figure 6-4: The Merkle-Damgård construction using a compression function called *Compress*

# Building Compression Functions: The Davies-Meyer Construction

- Uses a block cipher to build a compression function
- Use message blocks as keys
- The XOR feedback makes it secure against decryption

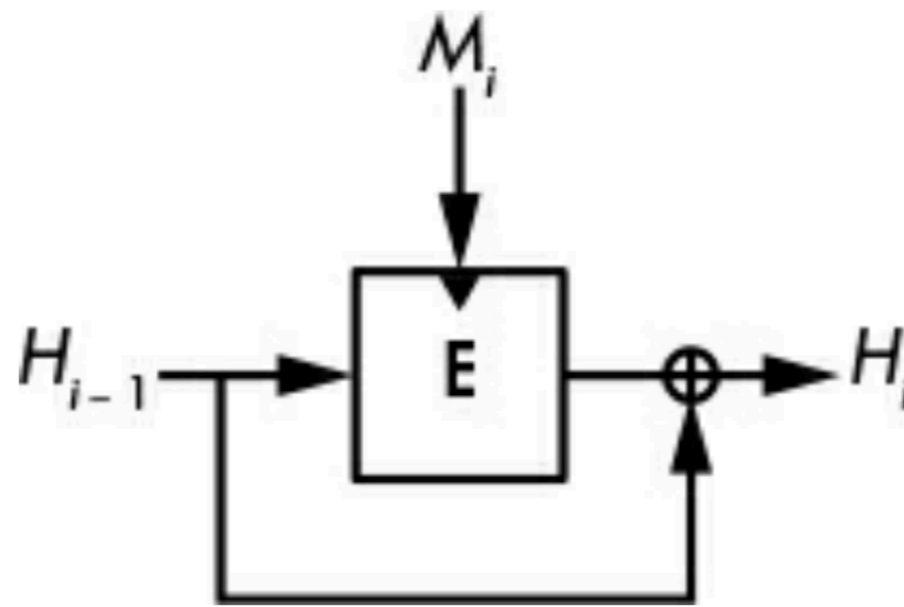


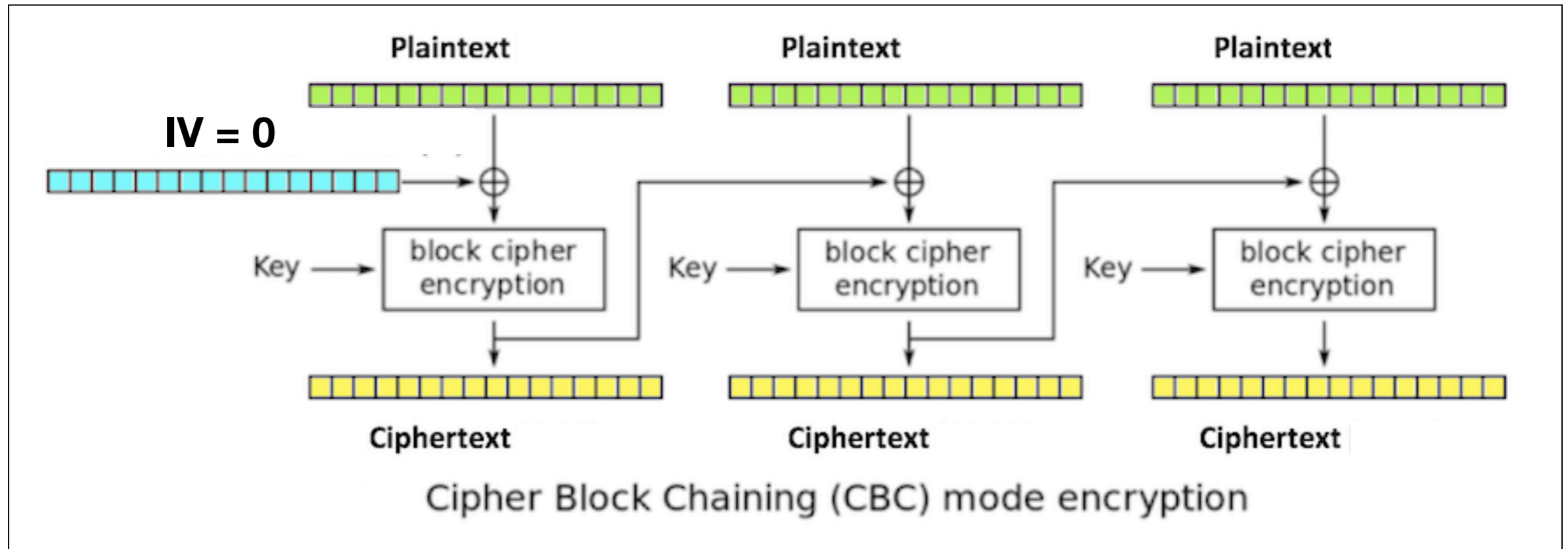
Figure 6-5: The Davies-Meyer construction.

# CMAC and Block Ciphers

- The compression function in many hash functions is built on a block cipher
  - Ex: HMAC-SHA-256
- CMAC uses only a block cipher, such as AES
  - Less popular than HMAC
  - Used in IKE (part of IPSec)

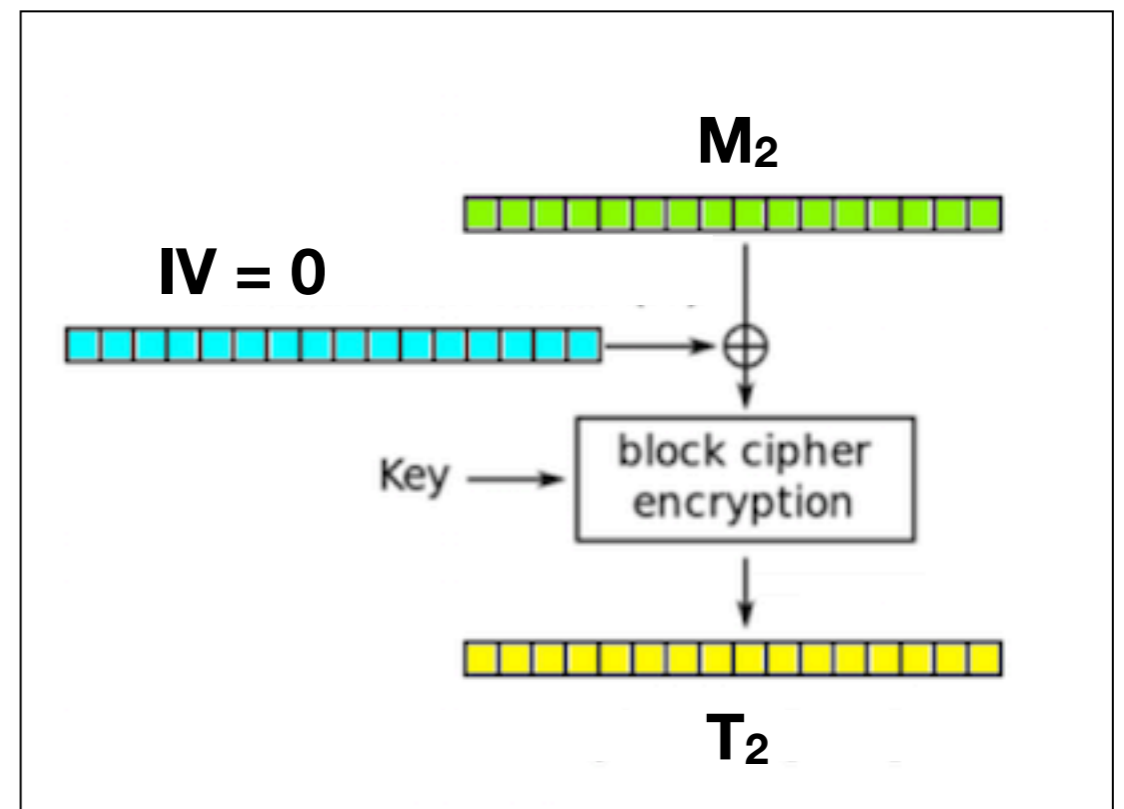
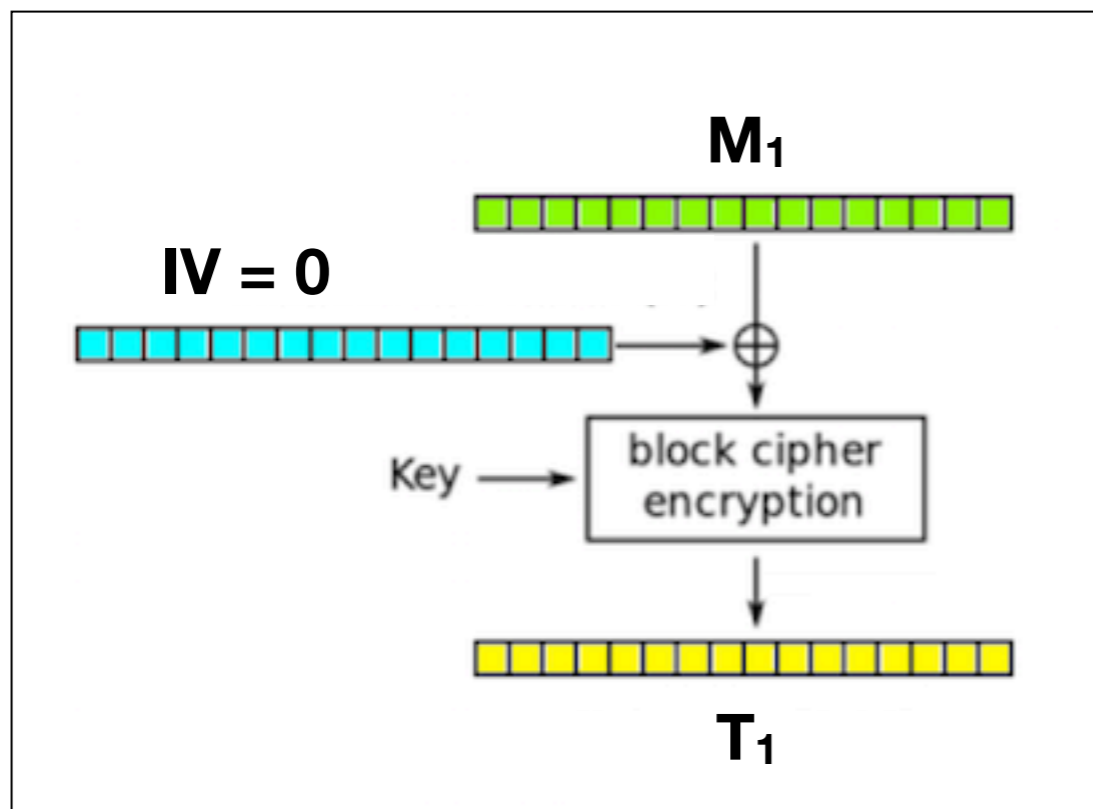
# CBC-MAC

- CMAC was designed in 2005
  - As an improved version of CBC-MAC
- CBC-MAC:
  - Encrypt  $M$  with  $IV=0$
  - Discard all but the last ciphertext block



# Breaking CBC-MAC

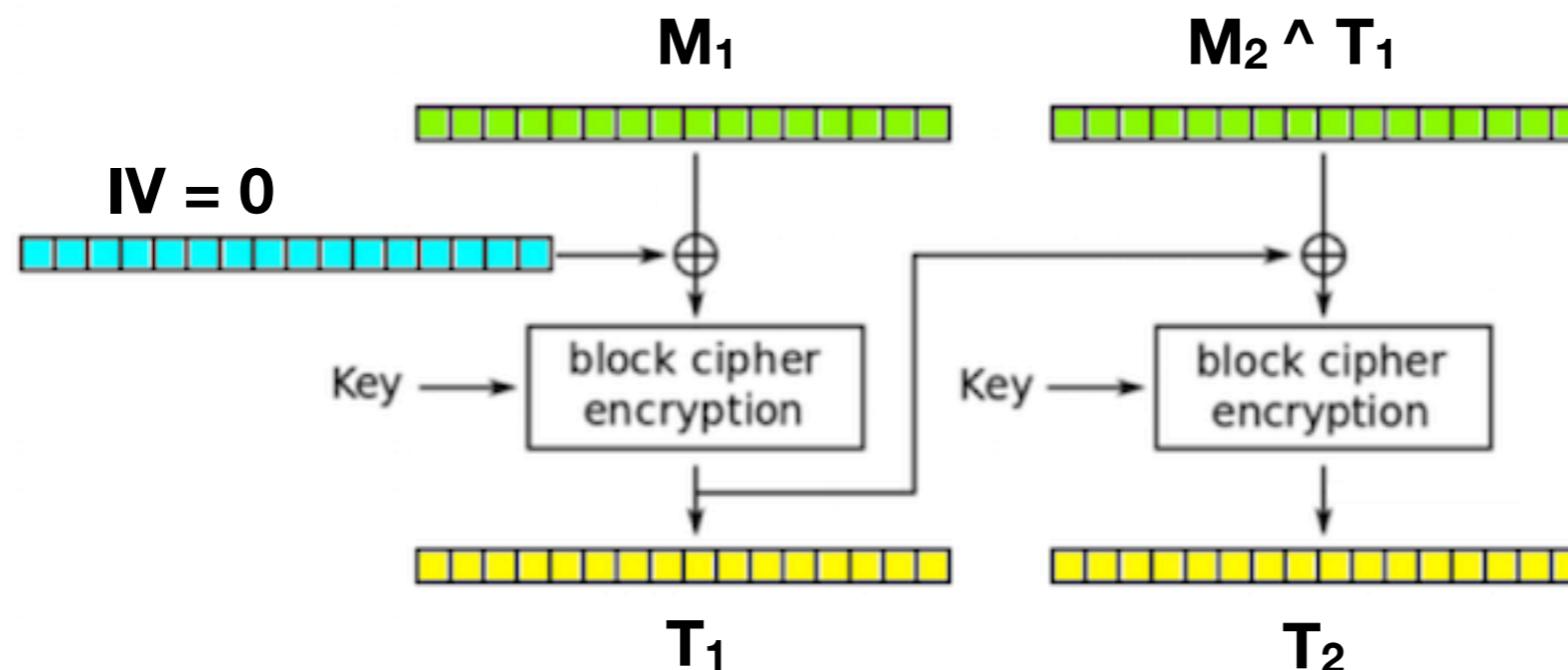
- Suppose attacker knows the tags  $T_1$  and  $T_2$
- For two single-block messages  $M_1$  and  $M_2$





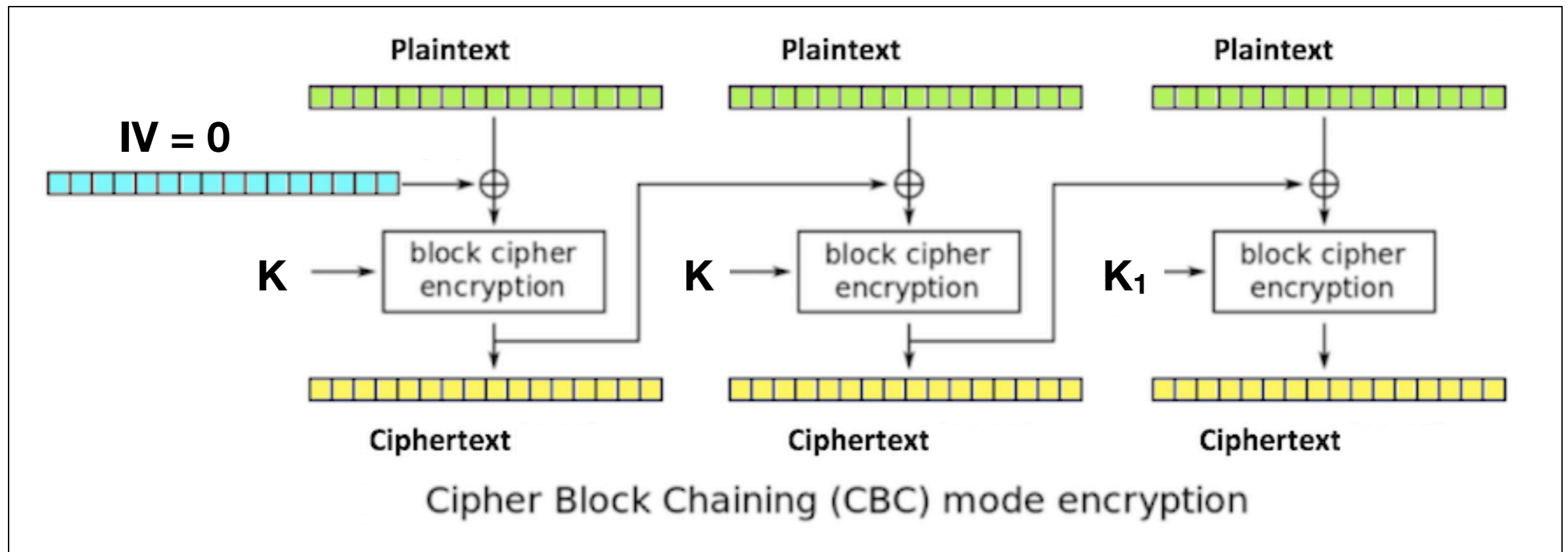
# Breaking CBC-MAC

- $T_2$  is also the tag of this message:
  - $M_1 || (M_2 \oplus T_1)$
- For two single-block messages  $M_1$  and  $M_2$
- Attacker can forge a message and tag



# Fixing CBC-MAC

- CMAC
  - Uses key  $\mathbf{K}$  to create  $\mathbf{K}_1$  and  $\mathbf{K}_2$
  - Encrypts last block with a different key



# CMAC

- If the message fills the last block exactly
- Uses  $K$  and  $K_1$

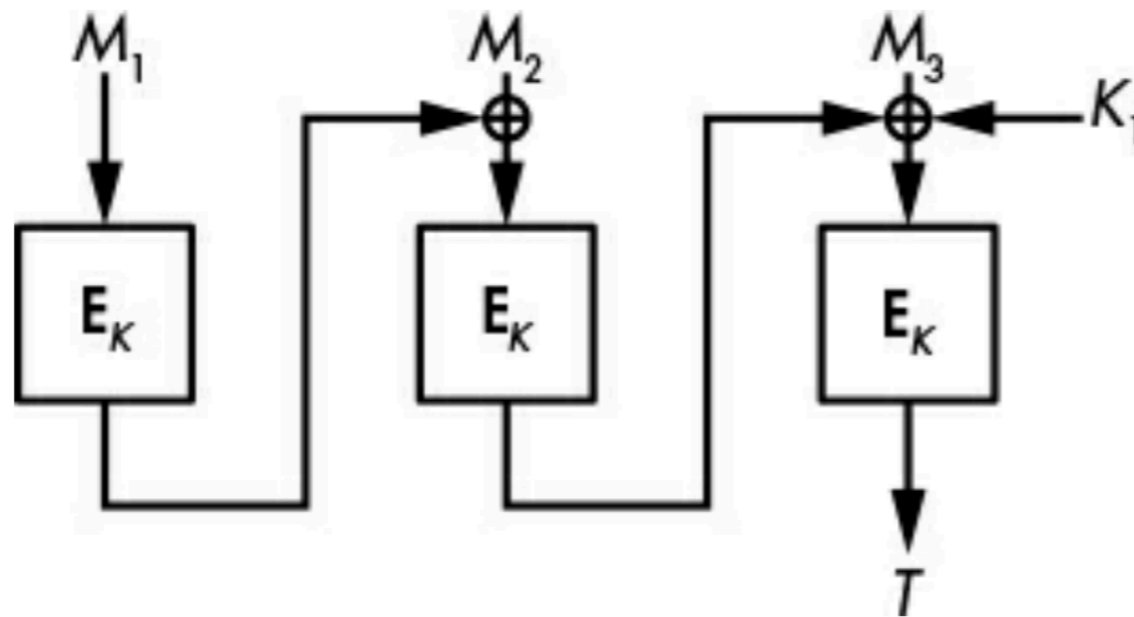


Figure 7-3: The CMAC block cipher-based MAC construction when the message is a sequence of integral blocks

# CMAC

- If padding is needed
  - Uses  $K$  and  $K_2$

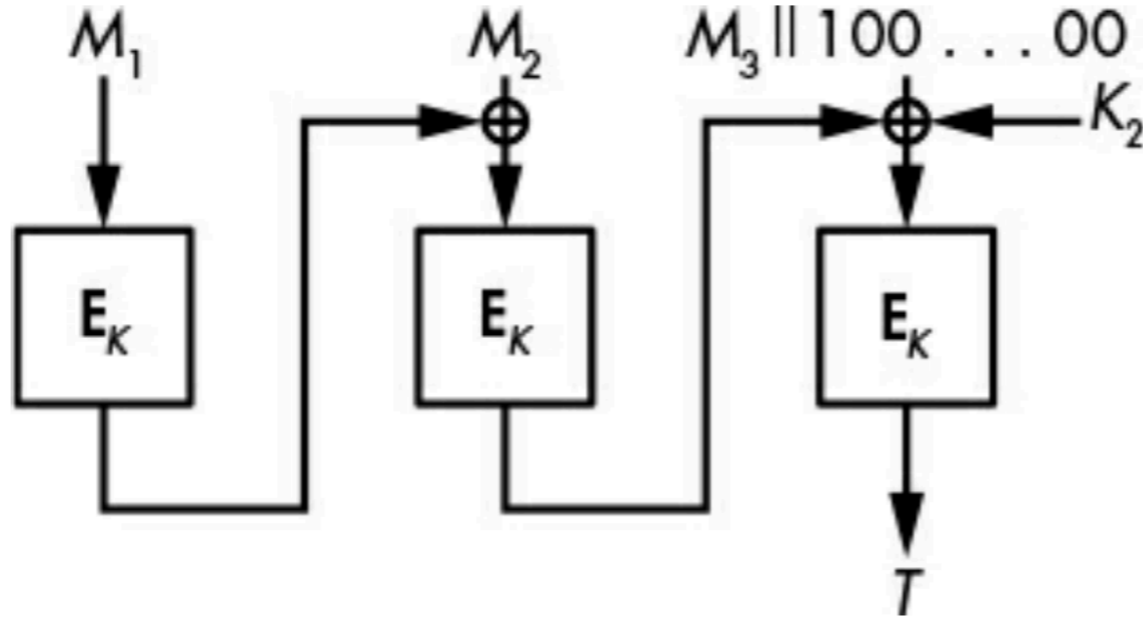


Figure 7-4: The CMAC block cipher-based MAC construction when the last block of the

# Dedicated MAC Designs

# Dedicated Design

- The preceding systems use hash functions and block ciphers to build PRFs
- Convenient but inefficient
- Could be made faster by designing algorithms specifically for MAC use case

# Poly1305

- Designed in 2005
- Optimized to run fast on modern CPUs
- Used by Google for HTTPS and OpenSSH

# Universal Hash Functions

- UHF is much weaker than a cryptographic hash function
  - But much faster
  - Not collision-resistant
- Uses a secret key  $K$ 
  - $\mathbf{UH}(K, M)$



# Universal Hash Functions

- Only one security requirement
- For two messages  $M_1$  and  $M_2$
- Negligible probability that
  - $\mathbf{UH(K, M_1) = UH(K, M_2)}$
  - For a random  $K$
- Doesn't need to be pseudorandom

# Universal Hash Functions

$$\mathbf{UH}(R, K, M) = R + M_1K + M_2K^2 + M_3K^3 + \dots + M_nK^n \bmod p$$

- Weakness:
- $K$  can only be used once
- Otherwise an attacker can solve two equations like this and gain information about the key

# Wegman-Carter MACs

$$\mathbf{MAC}(K_1, K_2, N, M) = \mathbf{UH}(K_1, M) + \mathbf{PRF}(K_2, N)$$

- Builds a MAC from a universal hash function and a PRF
  - Using two keys  $K_1$  and  $K_2$
  - And a nonce  $N$  that is unique for each key,  $K_2$

# Wegman-Carter MACs

- Secure if
  - **UH** is a secure universal hash.
  - **PRF** is a secure PRF.
  - Each nonce  $N$  is used only once for each key  $K_2$ .
  - The output values of **UH** and **PRF** are long enough to ensure high enough security.

# Poly1305-AES

$$\mathbf{Poly\ 1305}(K_1, M) + \mathbf{AES}(K_2, N) \bmod 2^{128}$$

- Much faster than HMAC-based MACs or even CMACs
  - Only computes one block of AES
  - Poly1305 is a universal hash
  - Remaining processing runs in parallel with simple arithmetic operations
- Secure as long as AES is

# SipHash

- Poly1305 is optimized for long messages
  - Requires nonce, which must not be repeated
  - For small messages, Poly1305 is overkill
- SipHash is best for short messages
  - Less than 128 bytes

# SipHash

- Designed to resist DoS attacks on hash tables
- Uses XORs, additions, and word rotations

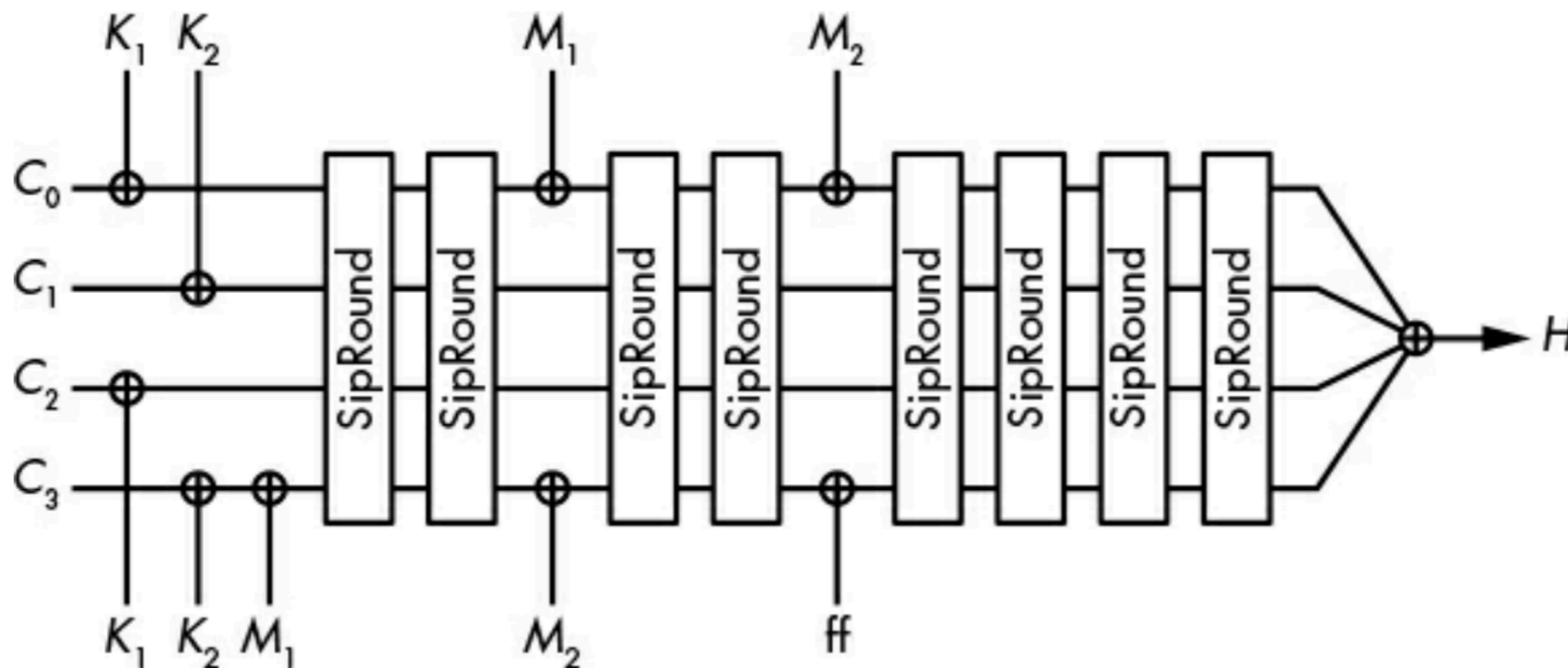


Figure 7-5: SipHash-2-4 processing a 15-byte message (a block,  $M_1$ , of 8 bytes and a block,  $M_2$ , of 7 bytes, plus 1 byte of padding)

# How Things Can Go Wrong



# Timing Attacks on MAC Verification

- ***Side-channel attacks***
  - Target the implementation
  - Not the algorithm
- This code will return faster if the first byte is incorrect
- Solution: write ***constant-time*** code

```
def compare_mac(x, y, n):  
    for i in range(n):  
        if x[i] != y[i]:  
            return False  
    return True
```

# When Sponges Leak

- If attacker gets the internal state
  - Through a side-channel attack
- Permutation-based algorithms fail
  - Allowing forgery
- Applies to SHA-3 and SipHash
- But not compression-function-based MACs
  - Like HMAC-SHA-256 and BLAKE2



7b