

Network Security (NetSec)

IN2101 - WS 17/18

Prof. Dr.-Ing. Georg Carle

Dr. Heiko Niedermayer Dr. Miguel Pardal Quirin Scheitle Acknowledgements: Dr. Cornelius Diekmann

Chair of Network Architectures and Services Department of Informatics Technical University of Munich

Cryptographic Hash Functions

Definition

Applications

Common Cryptographic Hash Functions

Message Authentication Codes (MAC)

Definition

Application

Attack Against an Insecure MAC

Common MAC Functions

Literature

ΠП



Cryptographic Hash Functions

Message Authentication Codes (MAC)

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

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 - 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 is a trade-off between:
 - Computational overhead
 - Increase of message length
 - · Probability/characteristics of errors on the transmission medium



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- Outline:
 - 1. Cryptographic Hash Functions
 - 2. Message Authentication Codes

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- A function h is called a one-way function if
 - h is a hash function
 - For all pre-specified outputs y, it is *computationally infeasible* to find an x with h(x) = y
- Example: given a large prime number *p* and a primitive root *g* in Z^{*}_p Let *h*(*x*) = g^x mod p Then *h* is a one-way function



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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.

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3. Collision resistance:

It is computationally infeasible to find any pair (x, x') with $x \neq x'$ such that H(x) = H(x')

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- In networking there are codes for error detection.
- Common example: Cyclic redundancy checks (CRC)
 - Based on binary polynomial division with Input / CRC divisor.
 - The remainder of the division is the resulting error detection code.
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 - Based on binary polynomial division with Input / CRC divisor.
 - 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 2nd pre-image resistance and collision resistance
 - CRC is additive
 - If $x' = x \oplus \triangle$, then $CRC(x') = CRC(x) \oplus CRC(\triangle)$
 - · CRC is useful for protecting against noisy channels
 - But not against intentional manipulation

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Applications Can Hashing ensure Integrity?

Case: No attacker







Case: With attacker Alice (A) $\underbrace{m, H(m)}_{m, H(m)} \underbrace{m', H(m')}_{ok}$

m, *H*(*m*)

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Applications Can Hashing ensure Integrity?

Case: No attacker

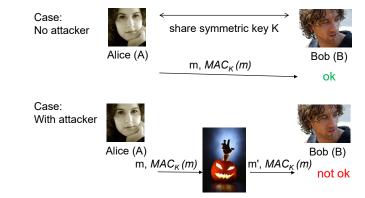






- Applying a hash function is not sufficient to secure a message.
- *H*(*m*) needs to be protected.

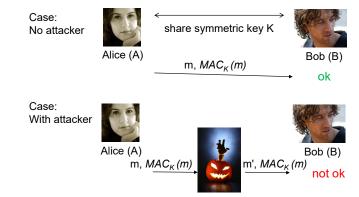
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Applications Can Hashing ensure Integrity?



- Simply hashing a message and appending the hash is not secure against intentional manipulation (compare with CRC)!
- Solution:
 - Include a secret in the hash.
 - Since the secret key k is unknown to the attacker, the attacker cannot compute MAC_K(m') (see next section).

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Other applications of cryptographic hash functions which require some caution:

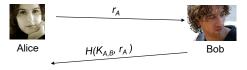
- Pseudo-random number generation
 - · The output of a cryptographic hash function is assumed to be uniformly distributed
 - Although this property has not been proven in a mathematical sense for common cryptographic hash functions, such as MD5, SHA-1, it is often used
 - · Start with random seed, then hash
 - b₀ = seed
 - $b_{i+1} = H(b_i | seed)$



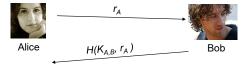
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- Encryption
 - Remember: Output Feedback Mode (OFB) encryption by generating a pseudo random stream, and performing XOR with plain text
 - · Generate a key stream as follow:
 - $k_0 = H(K_{A,B}|IV)$
 - $k_{i+1} = H(K_{A,B}|k_i)$
 - · The plain text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

• Authentication with a challenge-response mechanism

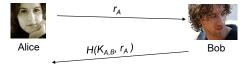


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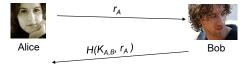
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- This type of authentication is based on a authentication method called *challenge-response* and used, for example, by HTTP digest authentication
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Authentication with a *challenge-response* mechanism



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 - It avoids transmitting the transport of the shared key (e.g. password) in clear text
- Another type of a challenge-response would be, for example, 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.

• Cryptographic Hash Functions:

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 - Also a NIST standard and invented by the National Security Agency (NSA).
 - · The SHA-2 family consists of six hash functions with digests (hash values) that are 224, 256, 384 or 512 bits
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 - 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.

Chapter 8: Cryptographic Hash Functions and MACs

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Attack Against an Insecure MAC

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- (Cryptographic) hashes alone do not protect against tampering!
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- Procedure:
 - Sender s computes MAC_K(m).
 - <m,MAC_K(m)> is sent to the receiver r.
 - r receives <m',MAC_K(m)>.
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- MACs:
 - Prove message authenticity ↔ integrity.
 - Do detect tampering.
 - Cannot be forged.
 - · Can be replayed.





share symmetric key K



m, *MAC_κ (m*)

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





Alice (A)

share symmetric key K



m, $MAC_{\kappa}(m)$

- Alice protects/authenticates her message m with a MAC function
- Alice has to send *m* and the MAC value to Bob.
- Examples for potential MAC constructions:
 - HMAC
 - CBC-MAC / CMAC
 - Enc_K (h(m)) → NO!!





Alice (A)

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m, $MAC_{\kappa}(m)$

- 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 sent by Alice.
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- 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 sent by Alice.
 - Only Alice and Bob who know K can do this.
- Take home message: for authenticity checks the receiver needs to know *m* and a secure modification check value that it can compare.
 - Think about it: Why is Enc_K(m) usually not sufficient?

- Reasons for constructing MACs from cryptographic hash functions:
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 - Cryptographic hash functions generally execute faster than symmetric block ciphers (Note: with AES this is not 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
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 - The construction $H(K \parallel p \parallel m \parallel K)$ with p denoting an additional padding field does not offer sufficient security

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- For illustrative purposes, consider the following MAC definition:
 - Input: message m = (x₁, x₂, ..., x_n) with x_i being 128-bit values, and key K
 - Compute $\triangle(m) := x_1 \oplus x_2 \oplus ... \oplus x_n$ with \oplus denoting XOR
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- Unfortunately the MAC definition is insecure:
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 - Therefore, MAC_K(m') = Enc(△(m'))
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 - $= Enc_{\mathcal{K}}(\triangle(m))) = MAC_{\mathcal{K}}(m)$
 - Therefore, MAC_k(m) is a valid MAC for m', since △m = △m'
 - When Bob receives (m', MAC_K(m)) from Eve, he will accept it as being originated from Alice.



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 - Hash MAC (HMAC):
 - Standardized in RFC 2104.
 - Used in conjunction with cryptographic hash functions (e.g. SHA-3)
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 - Poly1305:
 - Standardized in RFC 7539.

Common MAC Functions: Hash MACs (HMAC)



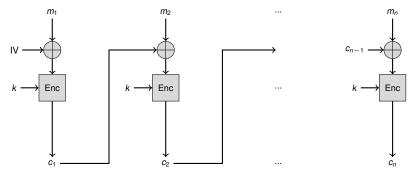
- The construction H(K | m | K), called prefix-suffix mode, has been used for a while.
 - See for example RFC 1828
 - It has been also used in earlier implementations of the Secure Socket Layer (SSL) protocol (until SSL 3.0)
 - However, it is now considered vulnerable to attack by the cryptographic community.

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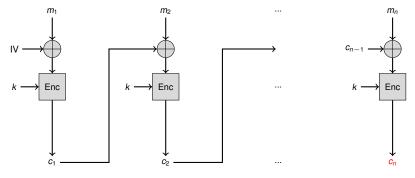
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 - · However, it is now considered vulnerable to attack by the cryptographic community.
- The most used construction is **HMAC**: *H* (*K* ⊕ *opad* | *H* (*K* ⊕ *ipad* | *m*))
 - The length of the key K is first extended to the block length required 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.

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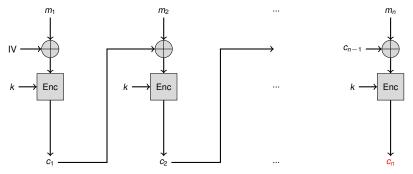


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• $MAC_k(m) = c_n$ for some publicly known, fixed, *IV*.

- This MAC needs not to be mixed with a secret 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.



- 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 authenticity with the same key, the MAC will be equal to the last cipher text block
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- 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.

Common MAC Functions: Cipher-based MACs (CMAC)

ТШ

- 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 I most significant bits of the last block.
- XCBC-MAC (e.g. found in TLS) is a predecessor of CMAC where k_1 and k_2 are input to algorithm and not derived from *k*.



Motivation

Cryptographic Hash Functions

Message Authentication Codes (MAC)

Literature

Literature

(Beyond the scope of examination)

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