

CSE 443: Introduction to Computer Security Module: Hashing

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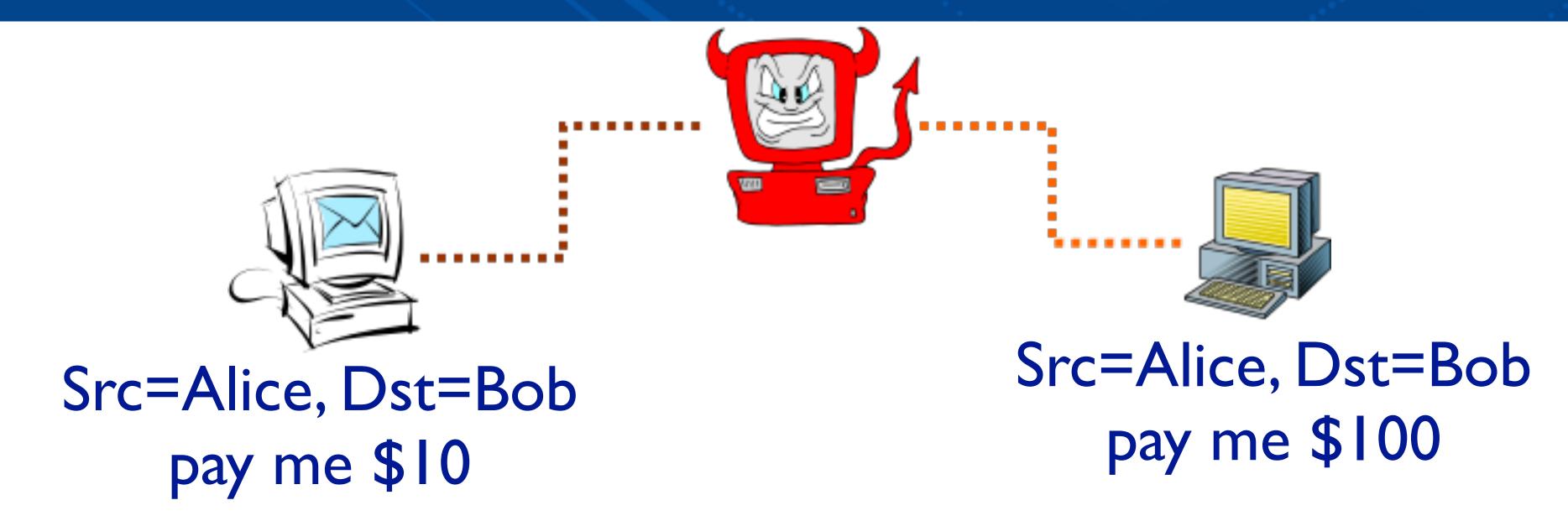
Today's threat Model



- Participants: Alice and Bob
 - Alice sends a message to Bob in public setting
- Adversary: Eve
 - Goal: wants to change or introduce a message
 - Capabilities:
 - Knows the plaintext
 - Can intercept and change the ciphertext

Data Integrity and Source Authentication





- Encryption does not protect data from modification by another party.
- Need a way to ensure that data arrives at destination in its original form as sent by the sender and it is coming from an authenticated source.

Authentication vs. Integrity



- Data/Message integrity is about ensuring that data cannot change in an unauthorized way
 - Data has not changed on disk
 - Data has not changed in transit
- Data authentication / authenticity is about ensuring that a message originated from a particular source
 - A packet came from Alice
 - A program from the Internet was released by Microsoft
- Many of the tools used for one can be used for the other

Message Authentication Code (MAC)



- MACs provide message integrity and authenticity
- MACK(M) use symmetric encryption to produce short sequence of bits that depends on both the message (M) and the key (K)
- MACs should be resistant to existential forgery: Eve should not be able to produce a valid MAC for a message M' without knowing K
- To provide confidentiality, authenticity, and integrity of a message, Alice sends
 - $[E_K(M), MAC_K(E_K(M))]$ where $E_K(X)$ is encryption of X using key K
- Proves that M was encrypted (confidentiality and integrity) by someone who knew K (authenticity)

Hash Functions



- A hash function is a function with a
 - arbitrary length input (called a "pre-image") to
 - a m-bit output output known as the fingerprint or the message digest
 - if the message digest is transmitted securely, then changes to the message can be detected

- A hash function is a many-to-one function, so collisions can happen.
- Examples of Hash Functions
 - Compression: reduces arbitrary length string to fixed length hash
 - ▶ Ease of computation: given message M, h(M) is easy to compute

Hash Algorithms



- Hash algorithm
 - Compression of data into a hash value
 - \blacktriangleright E.g., h(d) = parity(d)
 - Such algorithms are generally useful in algorithms (speed/space optimization)



- ▶ Given a function $h:X \rightarrow Y$, then we say that h is:
 - preimage resistant (one-way):
 - if given $y \in Y$ it is computationally infeasible to find a value $x \in X$ s.t. h(x) = y
 - 2-nd preimage resistant (weak collision resistant):
 - if given $x \in X$ it is computationally infeasible to find a value $x' \in X$, s.t. x' != x and h(x') = h(x)
 - collision resistant (strong collision resistant):
- if it is computationally infeasible to find two distinct values $x',x \in X$, s.t. h(x') = h(x)



Consequences of These Properties



- For a good cryptographic hash, if you change one bit of the input, the output should change drastically and unpredictably
 - MD5("ABCD") = 0xed5d34c74e59d16bd6d5b3683db655c3
 - \blacktriangleright MD5("ABCE") = 0x95741cb5c4ee614792f6f5a44f2e107a
- So if you need to know if a file has changed, hash it!

Quick Review



- Here is a SHA-256 hash of a string:
 - aec070645fe53ee3b3763059376134f058cc337247c978add178b6ccdfb0019f

- Can you efficiently reverse the hash to get the preimage?
- Can you get the pre-image some other way?

Uses of hash functions



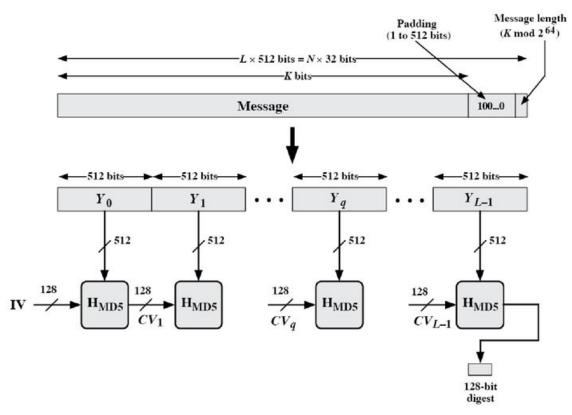
- Software integrity
 - E.g., tripwire
- Timestamping
 - How?
- Message authentication
- One-time Passwords
- Digital signature

Hash Functions



- MD4, MD5
 - Substitution on complex functions in multiple passes
- SHA-I
 - ▶ 160-bit hash
 - "Complicated function"
- SHA-2, 2001
 - ▶ 256 to 512 bit hash (SHA-256)
- SHA-3, 2015
 - Keccak Algorithm
- Limited formal basis
 - Practical attacks on SHA-1, MD5

MD5

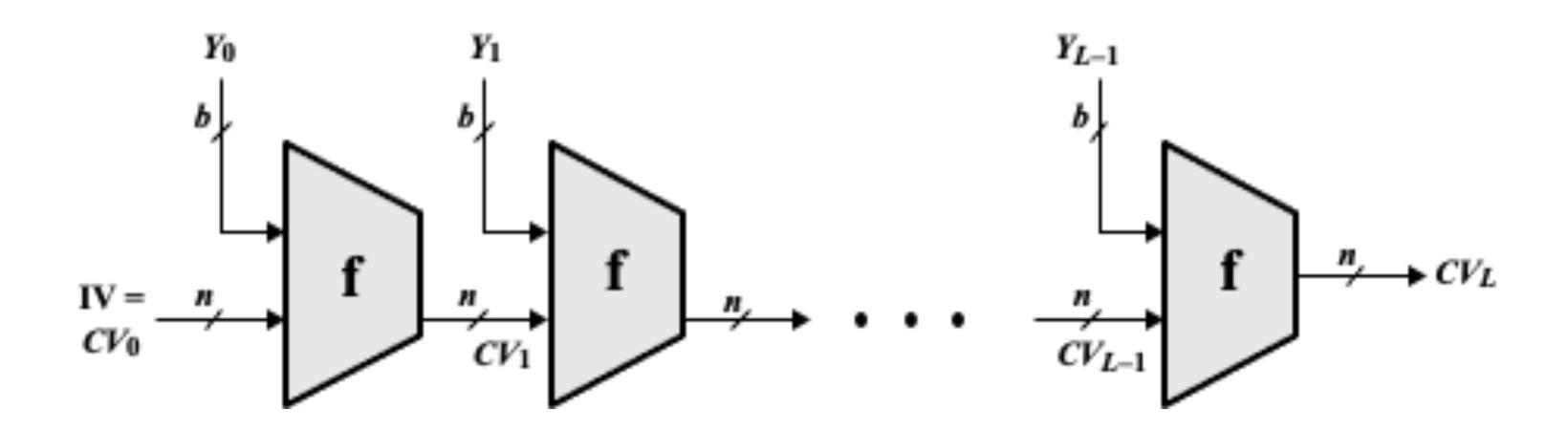


Message Digest Generation Using MD5



General Structure of Hash





IV = Initial value

 CV_i = chaining variable

 $Y_i = i$ th input block

f = compression algorithm

L = number of input blocks

n = length of hash code

b = length of input block

Using hashes as authenticators



- Consider the following scenario
 - Prof. Alice has not decided if she will cancel the next lecture.
 - When she does decide, she communicates to Bob the student through Mallory, her evil TA.
 - She does not care if Bob shows up to a cancelled class
 - She wants Bob to show for all classes held



Hash chain



- Now, consider the case where Alice wants to do the same protocol, only for all 26 classes (the semester)
- Alice and Bob use the following protocol:
 - I.Alice invents a secret t
 - 2. Alice gives Bob $h^{26}(t)$, where $h^{26}()$ is 26 repeated uses of h().
 - 3.If she cancels class on day d, she gives $h^{(26-d)}(t)$ to Mallory, e.g.,

If cancels on day I, she gives Mallory $h^{25}(t)$

If cancels on day 2, she gives Mallory $h^{24}(t)$

• • • • • •

If cancels on day 25, she gives Mallory h¹(t)

If cancels on day 26, she gives Mallory t

- 4. If does not cancel class, she does nothing
- If Bob receives the token t, he knows that Alice sent it

Hash Chain (cont.)



- Why is this protocol secure?
 - ▶ On day d, $h^{(26-d)}(t)$ acts as an authenticated value (authenticator) because Mallory could not create $h^{(26-d)}(t)$ without inverting $h^{(26-d-1)}(t)$ because for any $h^k(t)$ she has $h^i(t)$ where 26>j>k
 - That is, Mallory potentially has access to the hash values for all days prior to today, but that provides no information on today's value, as they are all postimages of today's value
 - Note: Mallory can again convince Bob that class is occurring by not delivering $h^{(26-d)}(t)$
 - Chain of hash values are ordered authenticators
- Important that Bob got the original value h²⁶(t) from Alice directly (was provably authentic)

Hash Authenticators



- Why is this protocol secure?
 - -t acts as an authenticated value (authenticator) because Mallory could not have produced t without inverting h()
 - Note: Mallory can convince Bob that class is occurring when it is not by simply not delivering t (but we assume Bob is smart enough to come to that conclusion when the room is empty)
- What is important here is that hash preimages are good as (single bit) authenticators.
- Note that it is important that Bob got the original value h(t) from Alice directly (was provably authentic)

Hash chain



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A (simplified) sample token device



- A one-time password system that essentially uses a hash chain as authenticators.
 - For seed (S) and chain length (I), epoch length (x)
 - ► Tamperproof token encodes S in firmware

$$pw_i = h^{l-i}(S)$$



- Device display shows password for epoch i
- Time synchronization allows authentication server to know what i is expected, and authenticate the user.
- Note: somebody can see your token display at some time but learn nothing useful for later periods.

Birthday Paradox



- A birthday attack is a name used to refer to a class of brute-force attacks
- **Birthday paradox**: the probability that two or more people in a group of 23 share the same birthday is >than 50%
- Q: Why is the birthday paradox important to hash functions?

Compute P(A): probability that at least two people in the room have the same birthday.

Compute P(A'): the probability that no two people in the room have the same birthday.

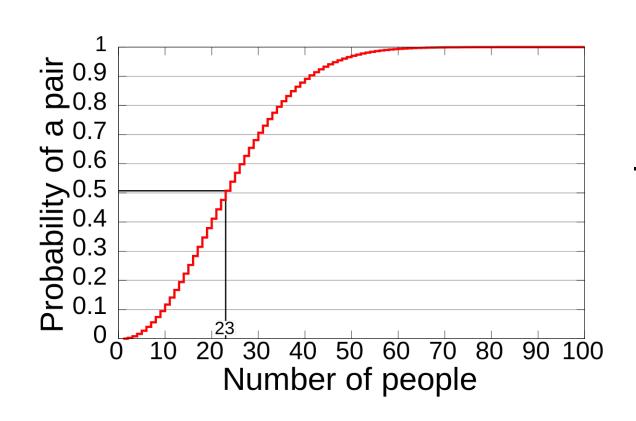
$$P(A') = \frac{365}{365} imes \frac{364}{365} imes \frac{363}{365} imes \frac{362}{365} imes \cdots imes \frac{343}{365}$$

The terms of equation (1) can be collected to arrive at:

$$P(A') = \left(rac{1}{365}
ight)^{23} imes (365 imes 364 imes 363 imes \cdots imes 343)$$

Evaluating equation (2) gives $P(A') \approx 0.492703$

Therefore, $P(A) \approx 1 - 0.492703 = 0.507297$ (50.7297%).



-*Implication*: Collisions can be found in approximately square root of the hash output size

$$\begin{split} \bar{p}(n) &= 1 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{365}\right) \times \left(1 - \frac{2}{365}\right) \times \dots \times \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{365}\right) \\ &= \frac{365 \times 364 \times \dots \times (365 - n + 1)}{365^n} \\ &= \frac{365!}{365^n (365 - n)!} = \frac{n! \cdot \binom{365}{n}}{365^n} = \frac{_{365}P_n}{365^n} \end{split}$$
 where ! is the factorial operator, $\binom{365}{n}$ is the binomial coefficient and $_kP_r$ denotes permutation.

On repeated random inputs $n=\{n_1, n_2, ..., n_k\}$

$$Pr(n_j = n_j) > 0.5 => 1.2k^{1/2}$$
, for some $1 <= i,j <= k, 1 <= j < k, I != j$ E.g., $1.2(3651/2) \sim= 23$

Message Authentication Code



MAC

- Used in protocols to authenticate content, authenticates integrity for data d
- To simplify, hash function h(), key k, data d

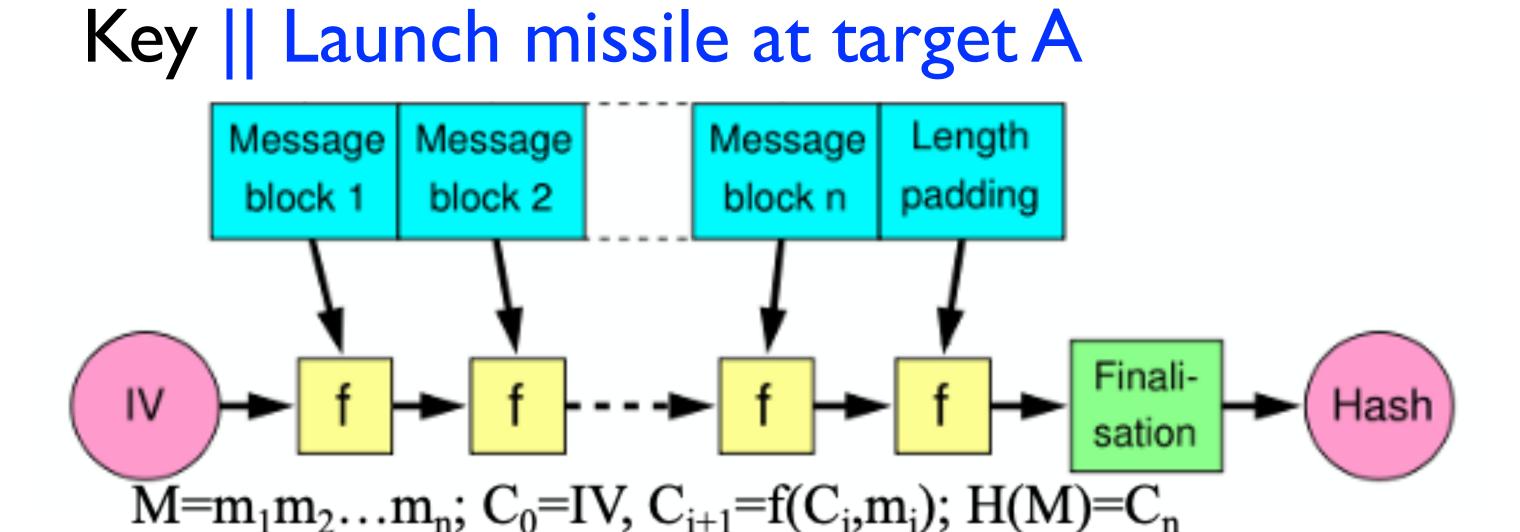
$$MAC (k,m) = h (k || m)$$

- E.g., XOR the key with the data and hash the result
- Q:Why does this provide integrity?
 - Cannot produce MAC(k,m) unless you know k
 - If you could, then can invert h()
- Exercise for class: prove the previous statement

Constructing MAC from Hash



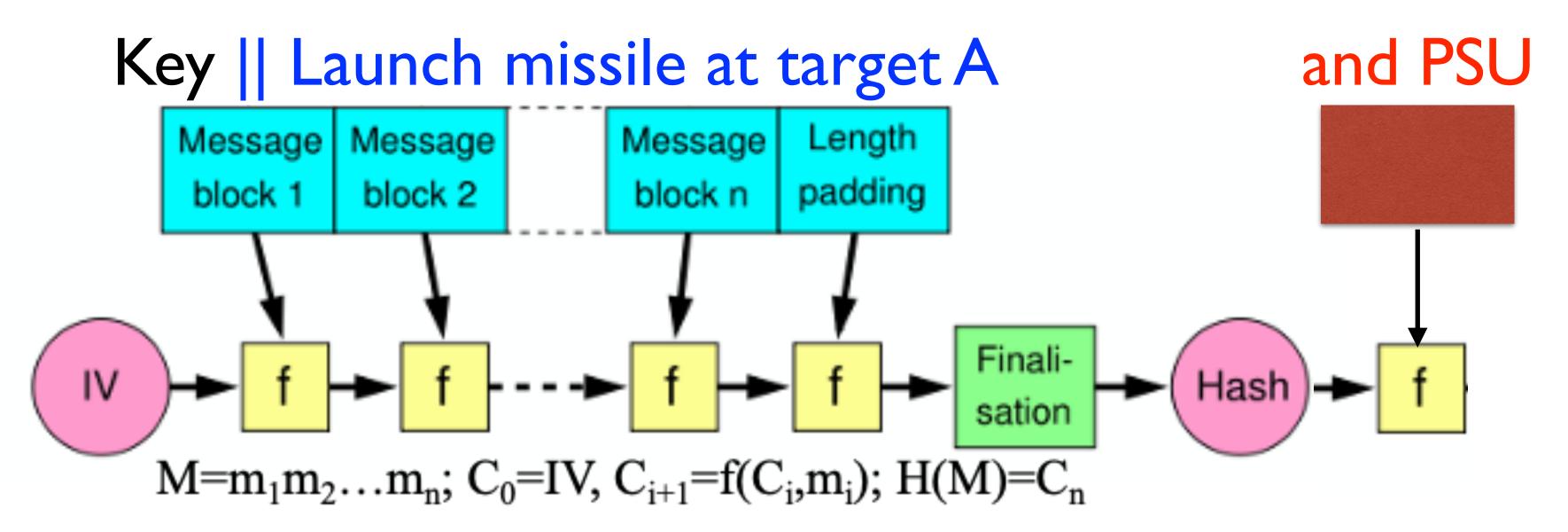
- Message is divided into fixed-size blocks and padded
- Uses a compression function f, which takes a chaining variable (of size of hash output) and a message block, and outputs the next chaining variable
- Final chaining variable is the hash value



Hash Length Extension Attack



- 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



HMAC

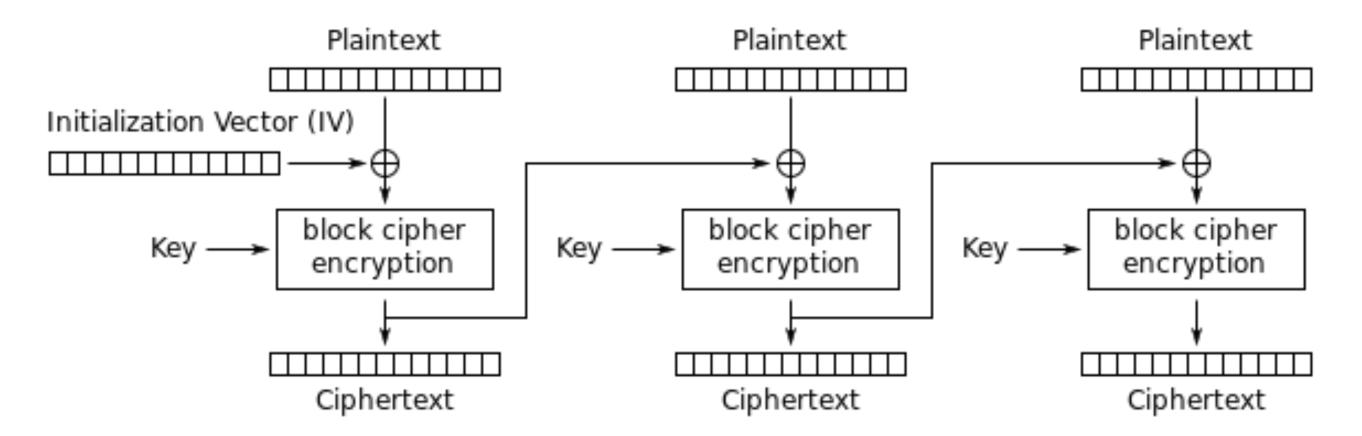


- MAC that meets the following properties
 - Collision-resistant
 - Attacker cannot compute a proper digest without knowing K
 - Even if attacker can see an arbitrary number of digests H(k+x)
- Simple MAC has a flaw
 - ▶ Block hash algorithms mean that new content can be added
 - Turn H(K+m) to H(K+m+m') where m' is controlled by an attacker
- HMAC(K,m) = H(K + H(K + m))
 - Attacker cannot extend MAC as above
 - Prove it to yourself

CBC-MAC



- You can also produce a MAC using a symmetric encryption function in CBC mode
 - Encryption in CBC produces ciphertext that is dependent on all prior plaintext blocks
 - Last block of ciphertext is suitable as a MAC
 - Use different key than for encryption



Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode encryption

Authenticated Encryption

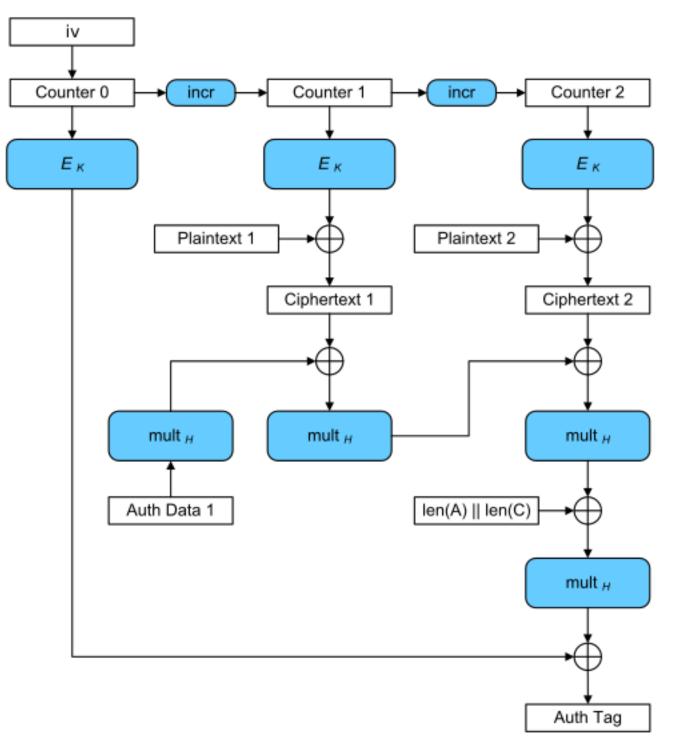


- Several modes of operation provide both encryption and authentication at the same time!
- Popular modes include
 - CCM (Counter with CBC-MAC)
 - ▶ GCM (Galois/Counter Mode)

Galois/Counter Mode (GCM)



- Message is encrypted in a variant of CTR mode
- MAC comes from multiplication of ciphertext and key (H) in GF(2¹²⁸), in a chain similar to CBC



(https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Galois/Counter_Mode)

Using Crypto



- Suppose you (Alice) want to send a document securely to another party (Bob)
 - You have each obtained a secret key
 - Obtained in some secure fashion (key distribution, later)
- How do you send the document such that only Bob can read it?
- How do you send the document such that Bob knows it is from Alice?



Basic truths of cryptography ...

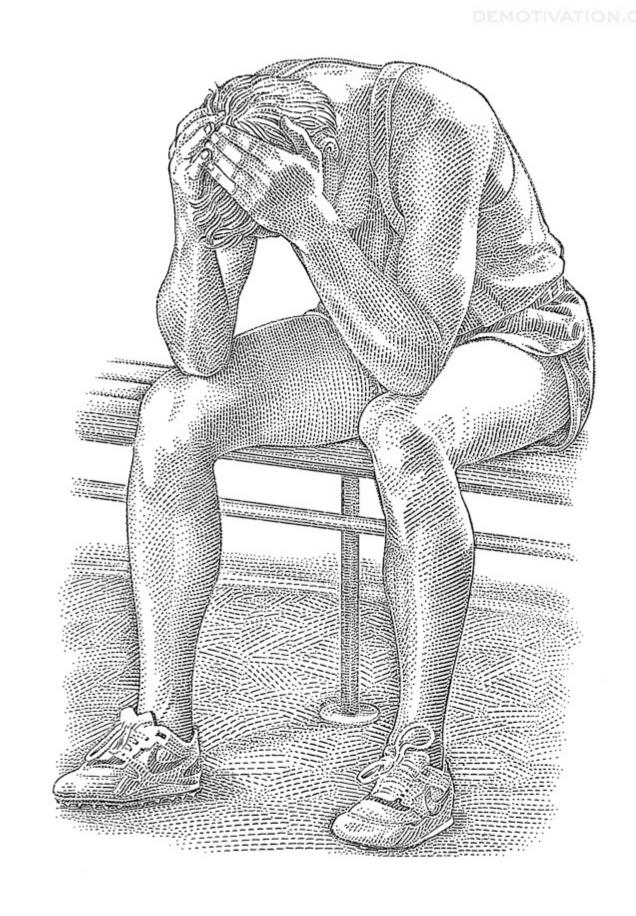


- Cryptography is not frequently the source of security problems
 - Algorithms are well known and widely studied
 - Use of crypto commonly is ... (e.g., WEP)
 - Vetted through crypto community
 - Avoid any "proprietary" encryption
 - Claims of "new technology" or "perfect security" are almost assuredly snake oil

Why Cryptosystems Fail



- In practice, what are the causes of cryptosystem failures
 - Not crypto algorithms typically



 $F \underline{AILUR} \underline{F}$ WHEN YOUR BEST JUST ISN'T GOOD ENOUGH.

Products Have Problems



- Despite well understood crypto foundations, products don't always work securely
 - Leak secrets due to encryption in software
 - Incompatibilities (borrow my terminal)
 - Poor product design
 - Backdoors enabled, non-standard crypto, lack of entropy, etc.
 - Sloppy operations
 - · Ignore attack attempts, share keys, procedures are not defined or followed
 - Cryptanalysis sometimes
 - Home-grown algorithms!, improper parameters, cracking DES

Problems



- Systems may work in the lab/theory, but
 - Are difficult to use in practice
 - Counter-intuitive
 - Rewards aren't clear
 - Correct usage is not clear
 - Too many secrets ultimately
- Fundamentally, two problems
 - Too complex to use
 - No way to determine if use is correct



What Can We Do?



- Anderson suggests
 - Determine exactly what can go wrong
 - Find all possible failure modes
 - Put in safeguards
 - Describe how preventions protect system
 - Correct implementation of safeguards
 - Implementation of preventions meets requirements
 - Decisions left to people are small in number and clearly understood
 - People know what to do

Problems of security in general

Building systems with cryptography



- Use quality libraries
 - E.g., OpenSSL, Libgcrypt, Cryptlib, BouncyCastle
 - Find out what cryptographers think of a package
- Code review like crazy
- Educate yourself on how to use libraries
 - Caveats by original designer and programmer



Common issues that lead to pitfalls



- Generating randomness
- Storage of secret keys
- Virtual memory (pages secrets onto disk)
- Protocol interactions
- Poor user interface
- Poor choice of key length, prime length, using parameters from one algorithm in another

