Introduction to Information Security

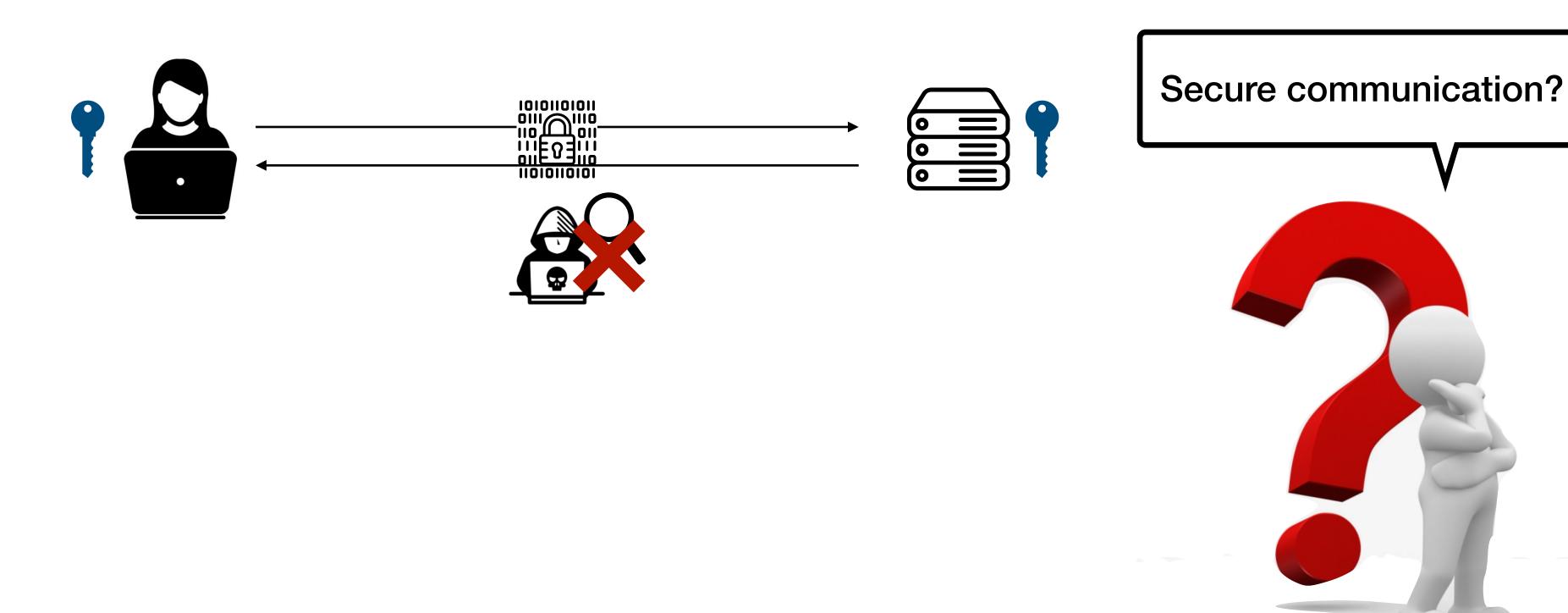
5. Message Integrity

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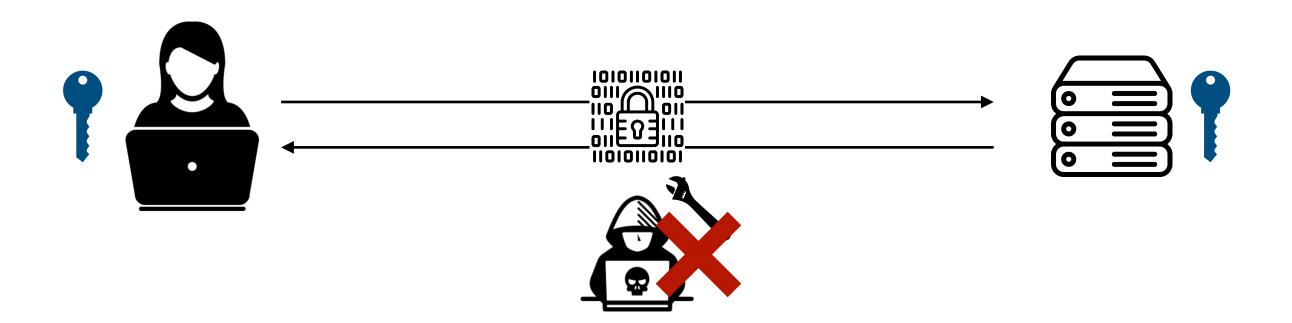
Confidentiality

• Goal: Attackers cannot learn anything about the plaintext w/o the key



Integrity

• Goal: Attackers cannot generate a valid message

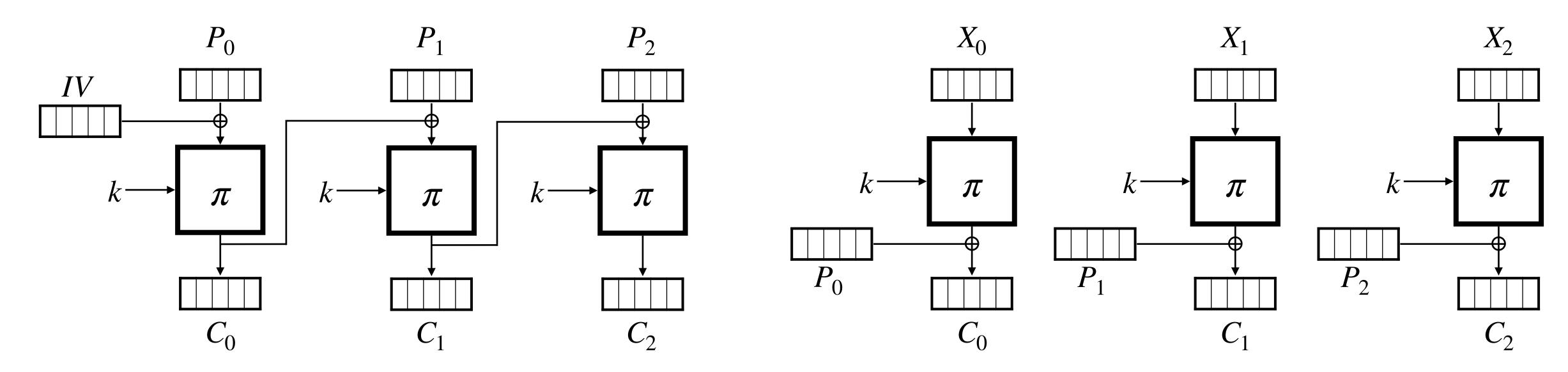


Confidentiality vs Integrity

- What does "secure communication" entail?
- Confidentiality: secret communication
 - Ensured by encryption schemes
- Integrity: authenticated communication
 - Ensured by authentication schemes
- In many cases, message integrity is equally (or more) important
 - Any examples?

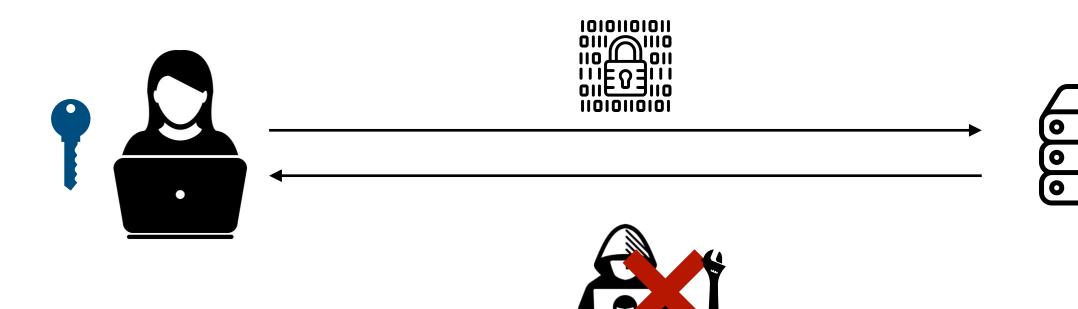
Encryption vs Authentication

- "Encryption hides message contents and thus adversary cannot modify the encrypted message in any meaningful way" [T / F]?
- Example:
 - CBC-mode encryption
 - CTR-mode encryption



Message Authentication Codes (MAC)

- "Cryptographic checksum" to prevent an adversary from modifying a message
- Assume k is the shared symmetric key
- Sender: send (m, t) where m is a message and $t = Mac_k(m)$
- Receiver: receive (m, t) and check whether $t = Mac_k(m)$
- Example: HMAC (hash-based MAC), CBC-MAC





Authenticated Encryption Scheme

- Goal: Attackers cannot learn anything about m and cannot modify m
- Secure encryption scheme: (Enc, Dec)
- Message authentication code: Mac
- IMPORTANT: each cryptographic primitive should always use independent keys
 - $k_E \neq k_M$
- How to achieve a secure authenticated encryption scheme?

Secure Authenticated Encryption Scheme

- Encrypt-and-authenticate: $c = Enc_{k_E}(m)$, $t = Mac_{k_M}(m)$
 - Not secure: t is deterministic because Mac is deterministic
- Authenticate-then-encrypt: $t = Mac_{k_M}(m)$, $c = Enc_{k_E}(m \mid \mid t)$
 - May or may not be secure (e.g., CBC-mode-with-padding)
- Encrypt-then-authenticate: $c = Enc_{k_E}(m)$, $t = Mac_{k_M}(c)$
 - Secure regardless of the choice of Enc and Mac
 - Common practice (e.g., TLS)

Cryptographic Hash Function

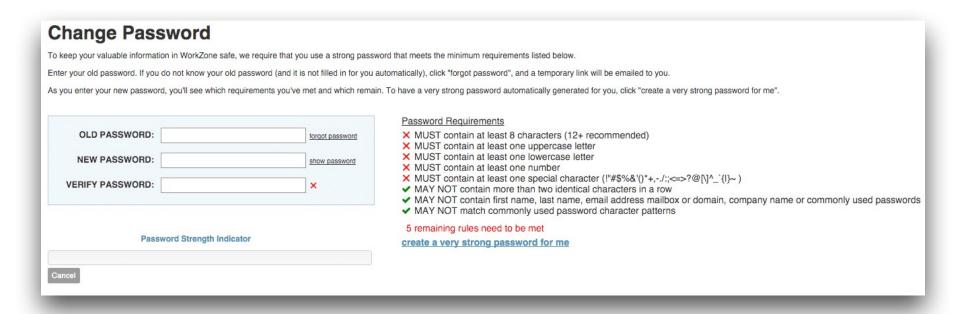
- The most common implementation scheme for MAC
- Hash functions $H: \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^l$
 - Take inputs of arbitrary length
 - Compress them into short fixed-length (l) outputs
 - Efficient evaluation and public implementation
- Cryptographic hash function: varying properties required across applications
 - Preimage resistance, second preimage resistance, collision resistance
 - Example: MD5, SHA-1, etc

1. Preimage Resistance

- Given y, computationally infeasible to find x such that H(x) = y.
 - So-called one-way property
- How much work is needed to break this resistance?
- Example: storing passwords

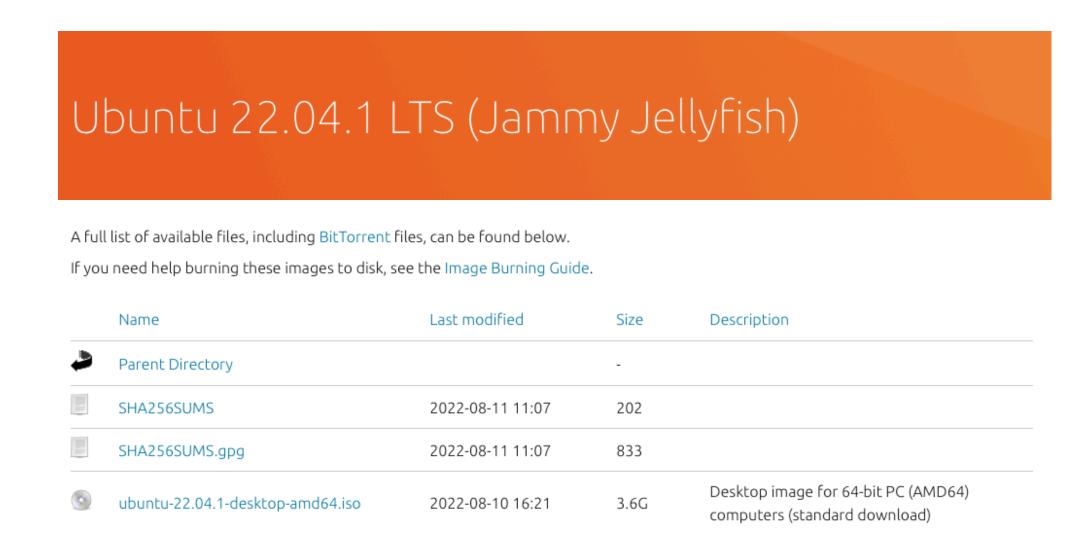
Application: Password Hasing

- Passwords must not be stored in plaintext but hashed and stored
- BTW, why do we need strong password requirements?
- Pre-computation attack: password space is often limited (e.g., dictionary)
- Mitigations
 - Slow hash functions (e.g., bcrypt)
 - Salt: store (h, s) when h = H(pw | | s) and s is a short random string



2. Second-preimage Resistance

- Given x, computationally infeasible to find x' such that $x \neq x'$ and H(x) = H(x')
- Example: integrity of software distribution, fingerprinting (e.g., virus, deduplication)
- How much work is needed to break this resistance?



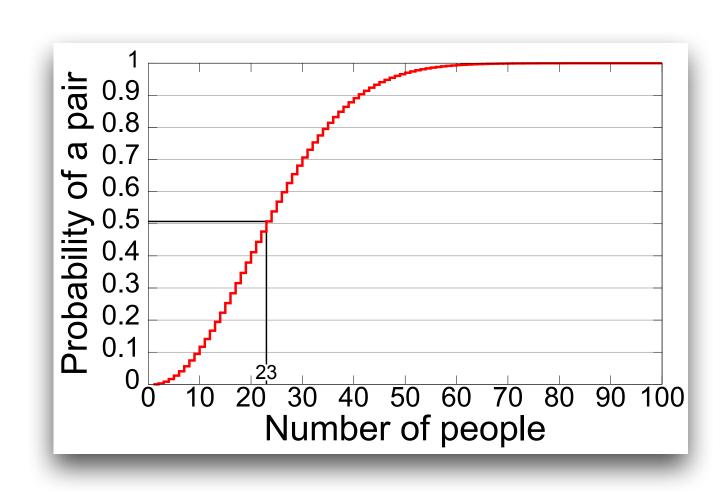
3. Collision Resistance

- Computationally infeasible to find x, x' such that $x \neq x'$ and H(x) = H(x')
- Example: auction bidding
 - Alice wants to bid B and sends H(B)
 - Rival bidders should not recover B (one-wayness)
 - Alice should not be able to change her mind to bid B' such that H(B) = H(B')
- How much work is needed to break this resistance?
 - $2^{n/2}$ (not 2^n , birthday paradox)
 - Example (MD5): $2^{128} \approx 3 \times 10^{38}$ vs $2^{64} \approx 2 \times 10^{19}$

Birthday Paradox

- What is the prob. that in a set of *n* random people, at least two will share a birthday?
 - If n = 1, then 0%
 - If n = 366, then 100%
 - What is n = 23, 50 or 60?
- Let p(n) be the prob. and $\bar{p}(n)$ be that all n birthdays are different, i.e., $p(n) = 1 \bar{p}(n)$

$$\bar{p}(n) = 1 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{365}\right) \times \left(1 - \frac{2}{365}\right) \times \dots \times \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{365}\right)$$
$$= \frac{365 \times 364 \times \dots \times (365 - n + 1)}{365^n}$$



Application: Fingerprinting

- Instead of storing the original data, simply store a shot hash digest
- Examples:
 - Virus fingerprinting
 - Deduplication
 - File sharing
- What happens if there exist a lot of collisions?

Informal Analysis of Cryptographic Hash

- Collision resistance → second-preimage resistance
 - If an adversary can find $x' \neq x$ s.t. H(x') = H(x), then it can clearly find a collision
- Second-preimage resistance → preimage resistance
 - ullet Assume H is second preimage resistant but not preimage resistant, then contradiction
 - For given x and y = H(x), one can find x' that satisfies y = H(x') (by assumption)
 - When the domain is infinitely large, one can find $x' \neq x$ with high probability

Practical Cryptographic Hash Functions

- MD5 (1991): 128-bit output length
 - Collisions found in 2004. Insecure.
- SHA-1 (1995): 160-bit output length
 - Very commonly used. Yet, collisions found in 2017.
 - Current trend to migrate to SHA-2
- SHA-2 (2001): 256 or 512-bit output lengths
 - Often called SHA256 or SHA512
 - No known significant weaknesses
- SHA-3 (2012): 224, 256, 384, or 512-bit output lengths

SHA-1 Broken?

- SHA-1: 160-bit output length
- SHAttered attack by CWI and Google (2017)
 - Two different PDF files f_1 and f_2 such that $H(f_1) = H(f_2)$
 - $2^{63.4}$ operations ($<< 2^{80}$)
 - 6,500 years of single-CPU, 110 years of single-GPU
- DO NOT USE SHA-1 for any security-critical systems!

Common Mistakes

- MAC vs checksum?
- MAC vs cryptographic hash function?

Summary

- Integrity: attackers cannot generate a valid message
 - As important as confidentiality
- MAC (message authentication code): prevent an adversary from modifying a message
- Cryptographic hash function: a common method to implement MAC