IT-Security 1

Chapter 3: Integrity

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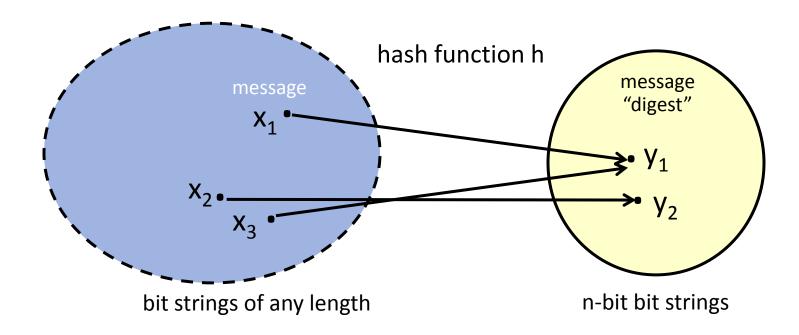
Chapter Overview

- Hash Functions in Cryptography
- Message Authentication Codes
 - From cryptographic hash functions
 - From block ciphers
- The replay problem
- Other applications of cryptographic hash functions

Definition of a Hash Function

- A hash function is a function h which has the following two properties
 - compression h maps an input x of arbitrary finite bit-length, to an output h(x) of fixed bit-length n.
 - ease of computation given h and an input x, h(x) is easy to compute
- A collision of a hash function is a pair of inputs x_1 , x_2 that hash to the same value $h(x_1) = h(x_2)$

Hash Functions



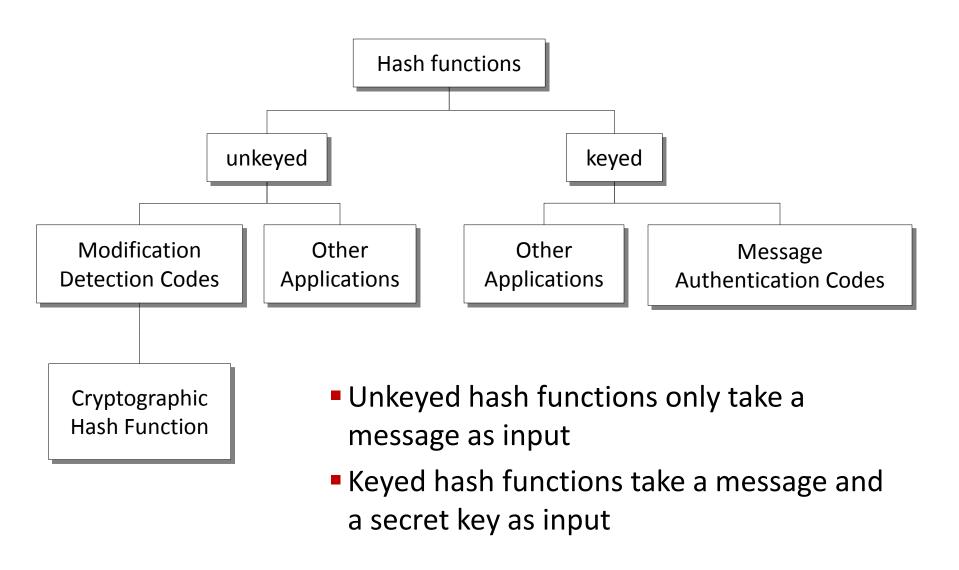
- The output of a hash function is called hash value, message digest, or fingerprint
- Note: a hash function cannot be injective
- Every hash function has collisions

Pigeonhole Principle

- Simple case:
 - If n pigeonholes are occupied by n+1 pigeons, then at least one hole is occupied with more than one pigeons
- Generalization:
 - If n pigeonholes are occupied by kn+1 pigeons, then at least one pigeonhole is occupied with more than k pigeons
- This gives a feeling for the number of collisions of a hash function
 - If a hash function maps 6-bit messages on 4-bit digests, than 64 messages are mapped on 16 possible digests
 - At least one digest corresponds to four or more messages



Types of Hash Functions



Potential Properties of Hash Functions

Preimage resistant

• Given y = h(x) but not x it is computationally infeasible to find any preimage x' with h(x') = y

Second preimage resistant

• Given x, h(x) it is computationally infeasible to find a second pre-image x' different from x with h(x') = h(x)

Collision resistant

- It is computationally infeasible to find any two different inputs x, x' that hash to the same value, i.e. such that h(x) = h(x')
- A hash function with these three properties is also called cryptographic hash function

Relations Between the Terms

- Collision resistance \Rightarrow 2nd pre-image resistance
- 2^{nd} pre-image resistance \neq collision resistance
- Collision resistance ≠ pre-image resistance
- 2^{nd} pre-image resistance \neq pre-image resistance
- Pre-image resistance ≠ 2nd pre-image resistance
- Pre-image resistance collision resistance

Example proofs

- Collision resistance \Rightarrow 2nd pre-image resistance
 - Proof by contradiction
 - Assume there is a hash function h that is collision resistant but not 2nd pre-image resistant.
 - Then for some x, h(x) you can find a second pre-image x'. The pair (x,x') is a collision. This contradicts the assumption
- Collision resistance pre-image resistance
 - Constructive proof
 - Assume g is a collision resistant n-bit hash function
 - Define $h(x) = \begin{cases} 1 \mid x \text{ if the bitlength of } x \text{ is } \le n \\ 0 \mid g(x) \text{ if the bitlength of } x \text{ is } > n \end{cases}$
 - Then **h(x)** is collision resistant but not pre-image resistant
 - This also proofs 2^{nd} pre-image resistance \neq pre-image resistance

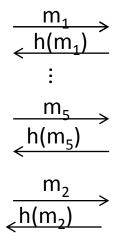
Clarification of Terms

- One-way hash function:
 - = preimage resistant hash function
- Cryptographic hash function:
 - = = preimage resistant + (second preimage resistant)
 - + collision resistant
- Secure hash function:
 - = cryptographic hash function
- Second preimage resistant:
 - = = weak collision resistant
- Collision resistant:
 - = sometimes called strong collision resistant



Random Oracle Model

- Mathematical model for an ideal cryptographic hash function
 - Upon receipt of a new message of any length the oracle randomly chooses a fixed-length message digest, records the message and the digest, and returns the digest
 - Upon receipt of a message for which a digest has already been recorded by the oracle the oracle returns the digest in the record
 - The digest for a new message is chosen independently at random from any previously chosen digest





Oracle chooses hash values randomly and independently

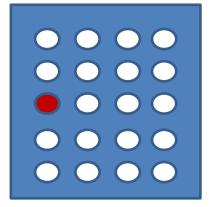
Use of Random Oracle Model

- The ideal hash function generated by the oracle is as...
 - preimage resistant
 - 2nd-preimage resistant
 - collision resistant
- ... as possible
- So we can use it to determine how resistant a hash function can be at most

The Birthday Problems

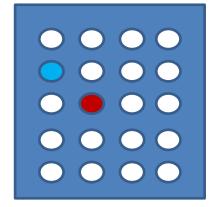
• Question: what is the minimal number k of students we need to have in a room to solve the following problems with a probability P

1st problem



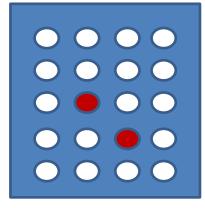
Fix a birthday of find a student that is born on this day

2nd problem



Select a student and find a second one with the same birthday

3rd problem



Find any two students with the same birthday

1st Birthday Problem

Problem:

- What is the minimum number k of students in a classroom such that with probability P at least one student has a predefined day as his/her birthday
 - N=365 uniformly distributed random values

Solution:

Probability	k	k for $P = 1/2$	# of students N = 365, P=1/2
$P \sim 1 - e^{-k/N}$	k ~ In[1/(1-P)] N	k ~ 0.69 N	253

1st Birthday Problem - Proof

Problem:

- What is the minimum number k of students in a classroom such that with probability P at least one student has a predefined day as his/her birthday
 - N=365 uniformly distributed random values

Proof:

- If we chose one student randomly, than the probability that he does not have the fixed birthday is 1-1/N
- The probability that NO student has the fixed birthday is (1-1/N)^k
- The probability that at least one student has the fixed birthday is 1 (1-1/N)^k
- Using the approximation $1-x \sim e^{-x}$ (for x << 1) gives us the probability
 - P ~ 1- e-k/N

2nd and 3rd Birthday Problem

Problem 2:

What is the minimum number k of students such that with probability P at least one student has the same birthday as one particular pre-selected student selected by the professor?

Probability	k	k for P = 1/2	# of students N = 365, P=1/2
$P \sim 1 - e^{-(k-1)/N}$	k ~ ln[1/(1-P)] N +1	k ~ 0.69 N +1	254

Problem 3: What is the minimum number k of students in a classroom such that with a probability of P at least two students have the same birthday?

Probability	k	k for $P = 1/2$	# of students N = 365, P=1/2
$P \sim 1 - e^{-(k-1)/2N}$	k ~(2 ln[1/(1-P)] N) ^{1/2}	$k \approx 1.18 N^{1/2}$	23

How Preimage Resistant Can a Hash Function be?

- Brute force attack to find pre-image to a given digest y
 - Attacker randomly selects x', hashes it and compares the result to y until he finds a pre-image
- How many hashes does the attacker have to compute to be successful with probability ½?
- Using the first birthday problem
 - For an n-bit hash function the attacker has to calculate 0.69 * 2 n hashes
- O(2 n) hash computations necessary to find a pre-image with probability ½ on an ideal hash function

How 2nd preimage Resistant Can a Hash Function Be

- Brute force attack to find a 2nd preimage for a pair x, h(x)
 - Attacker randomly selects message x', hashes it and compares the result to h(x)
 - Attacker returns x' if h(x') = h(x)
- How many hashes does the attacker have to compute to find a 2nd preimage with probability of ½
- Using the 2nd birthday problem
 - 0.69 * 2 n +1 hashes need to be calculated to brute force a 2nd preimage of an n-bit hash function
- ➤O(2 n) hash computations required to find a 2nd preimage on an ideal hash function with probability ½

How Collision Resistant Can a Hash Function be?

- Brute forcing a collision
 - Attacker tries to find two messages x, x' that hash to the same value by randomly create messages x
 - Compute the hash of x and store the hashes in a list
 - Compare a new hash with each hash already stored in the list
 - Return the messages if the hashes coincide
- How many hashes does the attacker have to compute to find a collision with probability ½?
- Using the third birthday problem the number of hashes needs to be $1.18 * 2^{n/2}$
- $ightharpoonup O(2^{n/2})$ hash computations required to find a collision for the ideal hash function with probability ½

Examples for Hash functions

MD5

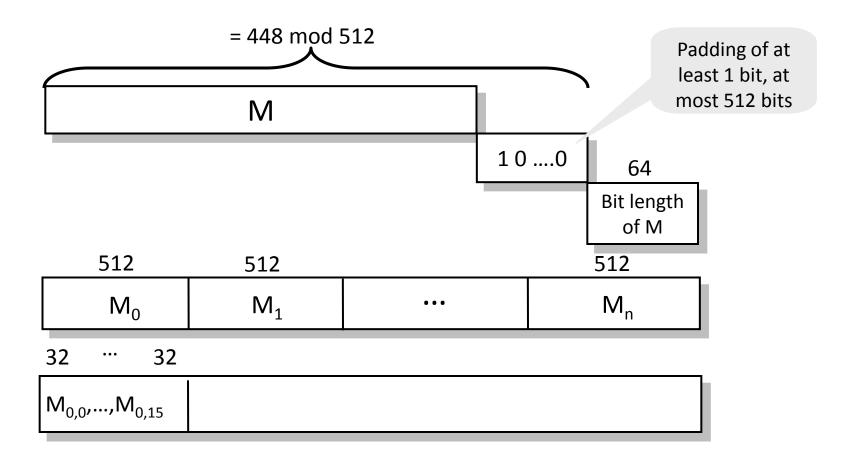
- Designed by Ronald Rivest (the R in RSA) in 1991
- Described in RFC 1321
- Produces a hash of 128 bit
- SHA / SHA-1
 - Designed by the NSA in 1993
 - Updated to SHA-1 in 1995
 - Defined in FIPS PUP 180-2
 - SHA-1 produces a hash of 160 bit
- SHA-2
 - Computations of longer hashes possible with SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512
- SHA3

MD-5 Overview

- Pad the message such that bit-length is a multiple of 512
- Initialize four word buffers
- Initialize a 64 elements table T[1],....,T[64]
- Shuffle each 512 bit block in 4 rounds and use the output as input to the next round

Padding and Splitting into Blocks

Let M be the message to be hashed



Initialization and Auxiliary Functions

Initialization of four word buffers

- Word A: 01 23 45 67
- Word B: 89 ab cd ef
- Word C: fe dc ba 98
- Word D: 76 54 32 10

Auxiliary functions operating on 32 bit words

- F(X,Y,Z) = XY v not(X) Z (bitwise "if X then Y else Z")
- G(X,Y,Z) = XZ v Y not(Z)
- \blacksquare H(X,Y,Z) = X \oplus Y \oplus Z
- $I(X,Y,Z) = Y \oplus (X \vee not(Z))$

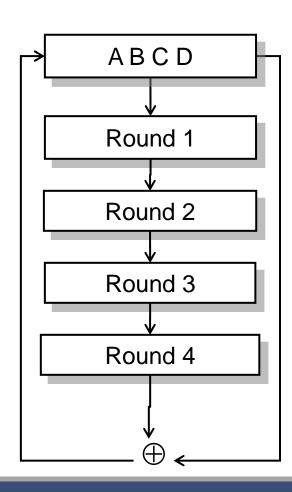
Initialisation of T-table

For i = 1,...,64: T[i] = integer part of (2³² |sin(i)|), where |sin(i)| is the absolute value of sin(i)

MD 5 – Word Processing Rounds

- The word procession takes place for each message block M₁,..., M_n
- In each round all sub blocks of the current message block are used
- The sub blocks are denoted by X[i]

$$X[i] = M_{i,j}$$
, where $j = 0,...,15$



- [abcd k s i] is the operation
 - a = b + ((a + **F(b,c,d)** + X[k] + T[i]) <<< s)
- Do the following 16 operations.
 - [ABCD 0 7 1] [DABC 1 12 2] [CDAB 2 17 3]
 - [BCDA 3 22 4] [ABCD 4 7 5] [DABC 5 12 6]
 - [CDAB 6 17 7] [BCDA 7 22 8] [ABCD 8 7 9]
 - [DABC 9 12 10] [CDAB 10 17 11] [BCDA 11 22 12]
 - [ABCD 12 7 13] [DABC 13 12 14] [CDAB 14 17 15]
 - [BCDA 15 22 16]

- Let [abcd k s i] denote the operation
 - a = b + ((a + G(b,c,d) + X[k] + T[i]) <<< s)</p>
- Do the following 16 operations
 - [ABCD 1 5 17] [DABC 6 9 18] [CDAB 11 14 19]
 - [BCDA 0 20 20] [ABCD 5 5 21] [DABC 10 9 22]
 - [CDAB 15 14 23] [BCDA 4 20 24] [ABCD 9 5 25]
 - [DABC 14 9 26] [CDAB 3 14 27] [BCDA 8 20 28]
 - [ABCD 13 5 29] [DABC 2 9 30] [CDAB 7 14 31]
 - [BCDA 12 20 32]

- Let [abcd k s t] denote the operation
 - a = b + ((a + H(b,c,d) + X[k] + T[i]) <<< s)
- Do the following 16 operations
 - [ABCD 5 4 33] [DABC 8 11 34] [CDAB 11 16 35]
 - [BCDA 14 23 36] [ABCD 1 4 37] [DABC 4 11 38]
 - [CDAB 7 16 39] [BCDA 10 23 40] [ABCD 13 4 41]
 - [DABC 0 11 42] [CDAB 3 16 43] [BCDA 6 23 44]
 - [ABCD 9 4 45] [DABC 12 11 46] [CDAB 15 16 47]
 - [BCDA 2 23 48]

- Let [abcd k s i] denote the operation
 - a = b + ((a + I(b,c,d) + X[k] + T[i]) <<< s)
- Do the following 16 operations
 - [ABCD 0 6 49] [DABC 7 10 50] [CDAB 14 15 51]
 - [BCDA 5 21 52] [ABCD 12 6 53] [DABC 3 10 54]
 - [CDAB 10 15 55] [BCDA 1 21 56] [ABCD 8 6 57]
 - [DABC 15 10 58] [CDAB 6 15 59] [BCDA 13 21 60]
 - [ABCD 4 6 61] [DABC 11 10 62] [CDAB 2 15 63]
 - [BCDA 9 21 64]

How Secure is MD5?

- 1993: Collision found by Boer and Bosselaers
- 1996: Attack published that found a collision in a modified version of MD5 in which the words A, B, C, and D were initialized differently
- 2004: Wang et al. found collisions in MD5 and other hash functions
- 2005: Further enhanced to make collision finding feasible on a notebook (8 hours to find a collision)
- 2006: Black et al. implemented a toolkit for collisions in MD5
 - http://www.cs.colorado.edu/~jrblack/md5toolkit.tar.gz
- 2007: Stevens et al. find collisions in less than 10 seconds on a on a 2.6Ghz
 Pentium 4
- 2007, 2009: MD5 attacks successfully used to fake certificates
- IETF recommendation of March 2011: MD5 should not be used any more where collision resistance is needed

Security of SHA-1

- 2004: 2nd preimage attack on SHA-1 in 2¹⁰⁶
- 2005: Attack found by Wang et al. that finds a collision with 2⁶⁹ hash operations
- 2013: Attack by Stevens et al. finds identical prefix collision in 2⁶¹ and chosen prefix collision in 2^{77.1}
- 2015: Attack by Stevens et al. that finds a Free-Start Collision on 76-step SHA-1 in 2⁵⁰ hash operations
- Very serious situation, SHA-1 will be phased out in 2016 by all major browsers
- However:
 - No feasible preimage attack or 2nd preimage attack yet
 - No feasible attacks on the other SHA versions yet

How Bad is That?

- As we will see later on hash functions are used for
 - Digital signatures on messages and certificates
 - Messages are hashed before they are signed
 - Constructing message authentication codes
 - Constructing modification detection codes
 - Key derivation functions

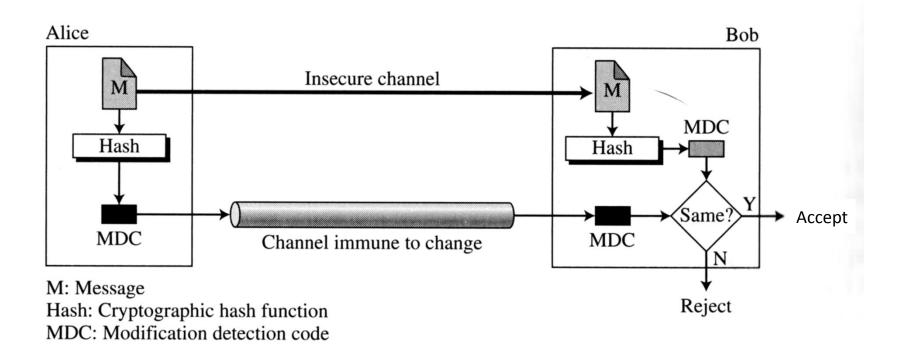


- Only in the context of digital signatures collision resistance is of importance
 - For the other applications preimage and 2nd preimage resistance are more interesting
 - "Its time to walk, but not run, to the fire exit" Jon Callas PGP's CTO

NIST Call for SHA-3

- November 2007: Call for a new hash function
- October 2008: Deadline for submissions
 - 64 submissions, 51 selected for the first round
- July 2009: Fourteen second round candidates announced
- December 2010: Five candidates for the third and final round determined: BLAKE, Grøstl, JH, Keccak, and Skein
- Final decision announced on October 2nd 2012
 - Keccak was slelected as SHA-3
- See http://keccak.noekeon.org/
- Since early 2015, Keccak is standardized in FIPS 202
 - http://nvlpubs.nist.gov/nistpubs/FIPS/NIST.FIPS.202.pdf

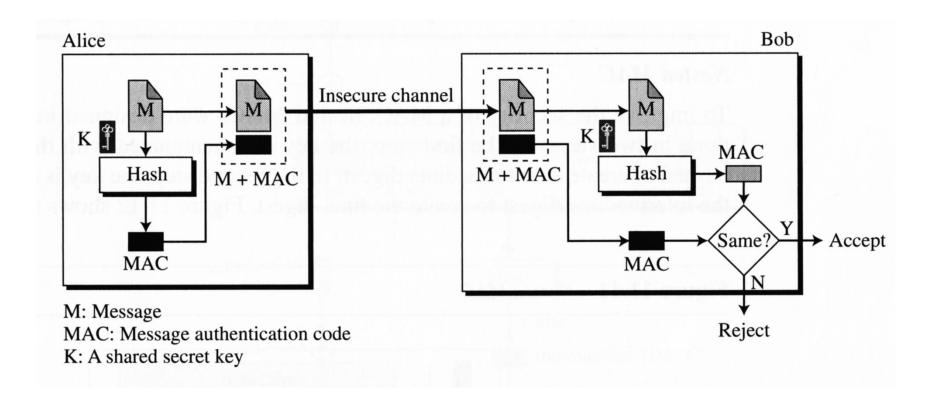
Modification Detection Code



Definition of Message Authentication Codes

- A Message Authentication Code (MAC) is a family of functions
 h_k parameterized by a secret key k with the following properties
 - **Ease of computation** given k and x, $h_k(x)$ is easy to compute.
 - Compression $\mathbf{h_k}$ maps an input \mathbf{x} of arbitrary finite bit-length to an output $\mathbf{h_k}(\mathbf{x})$ of fixed bit-length \mathbf{n}
 - **Computation resistance** for every k and any given amount of pairs $(x_i, h_k(x_i))$ it is computationally infeasible to compute any pair $(x, h_k(x))$ with x different from all x_i without knowledge of k

Message Authentication Codes from Hash Functions



Hash functions are not the only way to construct MACs!

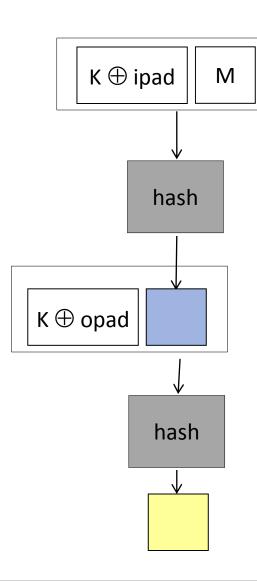
How Should a Hash Function be Keyed?

- For some hash functions simple constructions lead to insecure MACs, e.g.
 - h(k||m) leads to insecure MACs for certain hash functions
 - E.g. insecure with MD5!
- For other constructions it is unclear whether they are secure or not
- Idea: find a construction such that the security of the MAC entirely depends on the properties of the hash function
 - Regardless of the hash function used
- HMAC meets this goal

HMAC

- Construct MAC by applying a cryptographic hash function to message and key
 - Can also use encryption to construct MACs (see CMAC below) but...
 - Hashing is faster than encryption in software
 - Library code for hash functions widely available
 - Can easily replace one hash function with another
 - There used to be US export restrictions on encryption
- Invented by Bellare, Canetti, and Krawczyk (1996)
- E.g. mandatory for IP security, also used in SSL/TLS

HMAC: High-level view



- HMAC is constructed from a cryptographic hash function h
- HMAC can be proven to be as secure as the underlying hash function, i.e. HMAC is computation resistant if the underlying hash function is a cryptographic hash function
- HMAC(M) = h(K ⊕ opad || h(K ⊕ ipad || M)) with constant values for opad and ipad
- Rational for applying the hash twice
 - Attacker cannot control input to the outer hash function
- Rational for the constants
 - Ensure that different keys are used for the inner and outer hash computation, ipad and opad chosen such that their Hamming distance is maximal

CMAC: Computing MAC from Block Cipher

- CMAC uses a block cipher E_{κ} of block length b = 64 or b = 128
- A message M is split into n blocks of length b:

$$M = M_1 || M_2 || || M_n$$

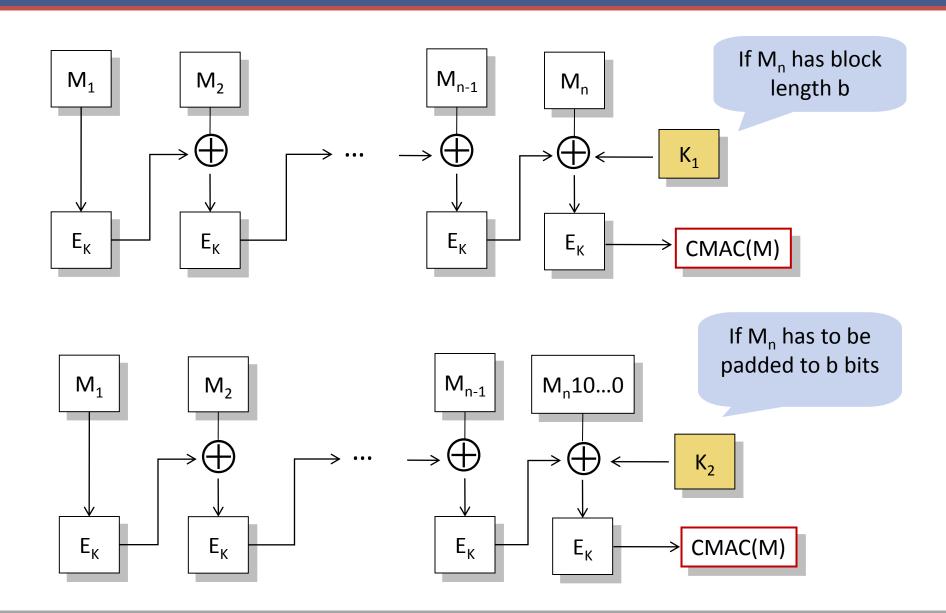
- If the last block M_n is not of length b it is padded with 10...0 until it is b bits long
- CMAC computation is equivalent to applying CBC Mode to the message except that the last block is additionally masked with a sub-key K1 if M_n is of bit length b and with a sub-key K2 if M_n was padded to be of full bit length b

CMAC Sub-key Computation

- Let $L = E_{\kappa}(0^b)$, where 0^b is the bit string of b zeros
- Let $R_{128} = 0^{120}10000111$, $R_{64} = 0^{59}11011$
- Then K1 is computed by
 - If $MSB_1(L) = 0$, K1 = L << 1
 - Else K1 = L \oplus R_b
- K2 is computed by
 - If MSB1(K1) = 0, K2 = K1<<1
 - Else K2 = $(K1 << 1) \oplus R_b$

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CMAC computation



Why the Masking?

- Using a "pure" CBC-MAC allows for forgery in some specific settings
 - i.e. without the masking by K1 or K2 in the last step and an IV of O^b
- For example, let M and P be two one-block messages, then a pure CBC-MAC would lead to:
 - $\blacksquare MAC(M) = E_{K}(M)$
 - MAC(P) = $E_{\kappa}(P)$
 - MAC(M | | (P \oplus MAC(M))) = E_K (E_K (M \oplus 0^b) \oplus P \oplus MAC(M)) = E_K (P \oplus MAC(M) \oplus MAC(M)) = E_K (P)
- I.e. it is possible to forge MACs on longer messages from MACs of shorter messages observed
- The masking solves this problem

The Replay Problem

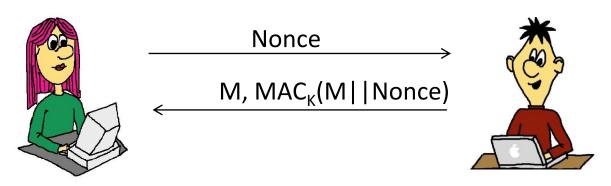
- Message authentication codes alone do not protect against a protected message being recorded and replayed at a later time
- Reply protection can be added to MACs with the help of additional input to the MAC:
 - Time stamps or other counters
 - Nonces
 - Nonce = Number used once

Replay Protection with Counters

- Examples for counters used in replay protection
 - time stamps
 - per session packet / frame counters
- Typical use
 - Sender increments counter on every packet he sends
 - Receiver accepts packet only if counter in packet received is larger then the counter in the last received packet
- Problem with counters
 - Require counter synchronization between sender and receiver
 - e.g. synchronized clocks, resetting the counters to some initial value for each new session
 - Using per-packet counters difficult if packets cannot be guaranteed to arrive in order

Replay Protection with Random Nonces

- Nonces are "numbers used once"
 - E.g. counters are actually nonces
- Random Nonces are randomly picked nonces
 - E.g. counters are *not* random nonces
- Typical use
 - Alice wants a guarantee that Bobs message is going to be fresh
 - She sends Bob a random nonce
 - Bob answers with the message concatenated with the nonce and a MAC on both



Integrity vs. Encryption

- Note: Although CMAC provides integrity protection, encryption alone does typically not provide integrity protection
 - Intuition: attacker may be able to modify message under encryption without learning what the message is
 - Example: if a stream cipher is used for encryption
 - Given a key stream K, encrypt M as M⊕K
 - Attacker can replace M by M

 M' for any M'
 - This is recognized by industry standards (e.g., PKCS)
 - "RSA encryption is intended primarily to provide confidentiality... It is not intended to provide integrity"
- If the plaintext is not recognizable non of the encryption modes can detect e.g. appending additional random ciphertext
- It is good practice ALWAYS to use different keys for integrity protection and encryption unless a special mode of operation is used, that provides both at once

Combining Integrity Protection and Encryption

- Encrypt, then MAC:
 - Encrypt the plaintext with K1, compute a MAC of the resulting ciphertext with K2, append MAC to ciphertext
- Encrypt and MAC:
 - Compute MAC of plaintext data with K2, encrypt only plaintext with K1, append MAC of plaintext to the resulting ciphertext
- MAC, then encrypt:
 - Compute MAC of plaintext with K2, encrypt plaintext | MAC with K1
- Use a mode of encryption that provides integrity protection as well, e.g.
 - Galoise Counter Mode (GCM) standardized by NIST
 - Counter mode with CBC MAC (CCM)

GCM

- Block-cipher-based MACs such as CBC-MAC or CMAC cannot be parallelized
- Counter mode makes any block cipher parallelizable and is therefore very efficient
- GCM is a mode of operation provides authentication and encryption while being parallelizable
- GCM can be used as MAC if no encryption is needed: GMAC
- GCM can use IVs of arbitrary length
- Easy to implement very efficiently in hardware
- Very good software performance

GCM Authenticated Encryption Operation (1)

Takes 4 Input Values:

- secret key K
- Initialization vector **IV** of 1 to 2⁶⁴ bit, recommended length: 96 bit
- Plaintext **P** of length 0 to 2³⁹ 256 bit
- Additional authenticated data A of 0 to 2⁶⁴ bit (will be authenticated but not encrypted)

Ouputs

- A ciphertext C of the same length as the P
- An authentication tag **T** of **t** bit where **t** is 0 128

GCM Authenticated Encryption Operation (2)

$$H = E(K, 0^{128})$$

$$Y_0 = \begin{cases} IV || 0^{31}1 & \text{if len}(IV) = 96 \\ \text{GHASH}(H, \{\}, IV) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$Y_i = \text{incr}(Y_{i-1}) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$C_i = P_i \oplus E(K, Y_i) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n - 1$$

$$C_n^* = P_n^* \oplus \text{MSB}_u(E(K, Y_n))$$

$$T = \text{MSB}_t(\text{GHASH}(H, A, C) \oplus E(K, Y_0))$$

- IV is used as initial value for the counter value Counter; = Y_i
- Y_i is used as input to the block cipher and resulting key block is xored with plaintextblock P_i to produce a ciphertext block C_i
- GHASH is defined on the next slide

$GHASH(H, A, C) = X_{m+n+1}$

$$X_{i} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } i = 0 \\ (X_{i-1} \oplus A_{i}) \cdot H & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m-1 \\ (X_{m-1} \oplus (A_{m}^{*} || 0^{128-v})) \cdot H & \text{for } i = m \\ (X_{i-1} \oplus C_{i}) \cdot H & \text{for } i = m+1, \dots, m+n-1 \\ (X_{m+n-1} \oplus (C_{m}^{*} || 0^{128-u})) \cdot H & \text{for } i = m+n \\ (X_{m+n} \oplus (\text{len}(A) || \text{len}(C))) \cdot H & \text{for } i = m+n+1. \end{cases}$$

- ⊕ is the regular Xor operation
- is the multipilication in GF(2¹²⁸)

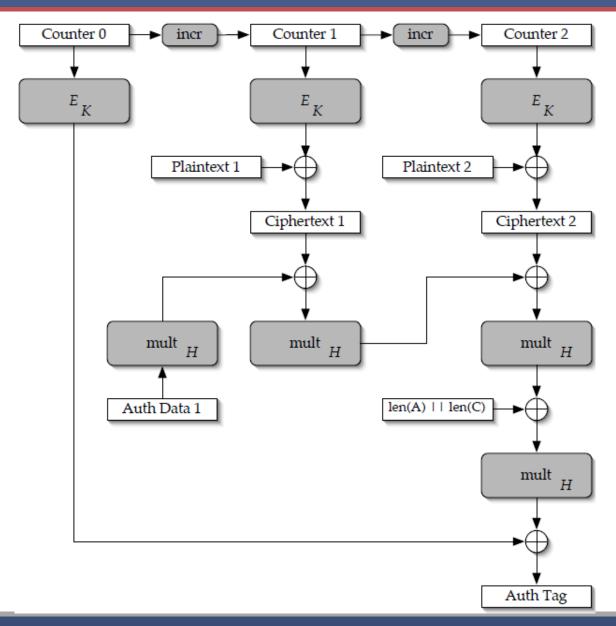
$$H = E(K, O^{128})$$

Multiplication in GF(2¹²⁸)

- GF(2¹²⁸) is the finite field with 2¹²⁸ elements
- It is unique up to isomorphism
- GCM uses the irreducible polynomial $f(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^7 + x^{128}$
- Identify each 128 bit string $a = a_0 \dots a_{127}$ with the polynomial $a(x) = \sum_{i=0,\dots,127} a_i x^i$
- The addition of a and b in GF(2¹²⁸) is defined as coefficientwise addition of the two polynomials which corresponds to bitwise xor of the bit representation
- Multiplication of a and b in $GF(2^{128})$ is then defined as bit string representation of a(x) b(x) mod f:

$$(\Sigma_{i=0,...,127} a_i x^i) (\Sigma_{i=0,...,127} b_i x^i) \text{ mod } f$$

Example Authenticated Encryption of GCM



GCM Authenticated Decryption Operation

$$H = E(K, 0^{128})$$

$$Y_0 = \begin{cases} IV || 0^{31}1 & \text{if len}(IV) = 96 \\ \text{GHASH}(H, \{\}, IV) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$T' = \text{MSB}_t(\text{GHASH}(H, A, C) \oplus E(K, Y_0))$$

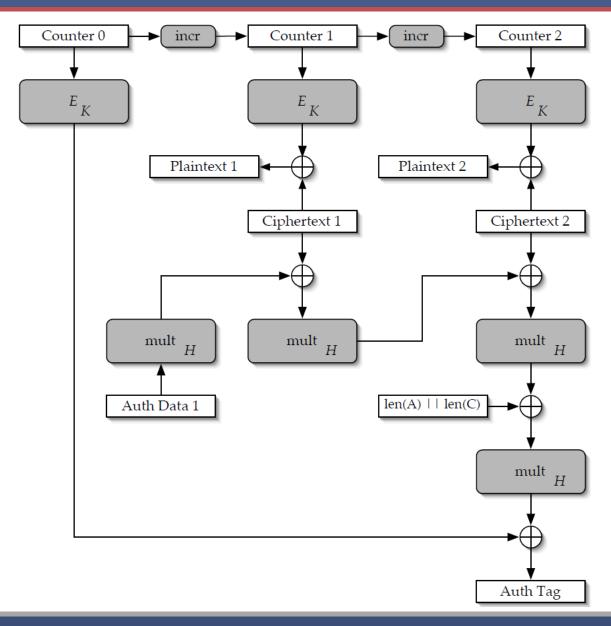
$$Y_i = \text{incr}(Y_{i-1}) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$P_i = C_i \oplus E(K, Y_i) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$P_n^* = C_n^* \oplus \text{MSB}_u(E(K, Y_n))$$

- Similar to encryption, but order of hash step and encryption step reversed
- T' is compared to T (sent along with the ciphertext) to check integrity, if T'≠ T

GCM Example Authenticated Decryption Operation



Reading

- Basic Reading
 - Forouzan, Introduction to cryptography and network security, Chapter 11
- Details on the mentioned algorithms
 - MD5: specified in RFC 1321 http://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc1321
 - SHA-1: specified in FIPS Pub 198-1
 - http://csrc.nist.gov/publications/PubsFIPS.html
 - CMAC: NIST Special Publication 800-38B
 - HMAC: specified in FIPS Pub 198-1
- Security Considerations for SHA-1 and MD5
 - SHA-1: http://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc6194
 - MD-5: http://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc6151
- NIST SHA-3 competition: http://csrc.nist.gov/groups/ST/hash/sha-3/index.html
- Specification of GCM mode
 http://csrc.nist.gov/groups/ST/toolkit/BCM/documents/proposedmodes/gcm/gcm-spec.pdf
- Specification of CCM mode http://csrc.nist.gov/publications/nistpubs/800-38C/SP800-38C/SP800-38C updated-July20 2007.pdf