

## 1 Lecture Plan

- Describe the padding oracle attack
- Define message authentication codes
- Construction and security proof of a fixed-length MAC

## 2 Padding Oracle Attack

- Recall the CBC block cipher mode used encrypt plaintext whose length is longer than the block length of a block cipher.
  - Let  $m = m_1, m_2, \dots, m_l$  where  $m_i \in \{0, 1\}^n$ .
  - Let  $F$  be a length-preserving block cipher with block length  $n$ .
  - A uniform *initialization vector* ( $IV$ ) of length  $n$  is first chosen.
  - $c_0 = IV$ . For  $i = 1, \dots, l$ ,  $c_i := F_k(c_{i-1} \oplus m_i)$ .
  - For  $i = 1, 2, \dots, l$ ,  $m_i := F_k^{-1}(c_i) \oplus c_{i-1}$ .
- The above scheme assumes that the plaintext length is a multiple of  $n$ . The plaintext is usually *padded* to satisfy this constraint. For convenience we will refer to the original plaintext as the *message* and the result after padding as the *encoded data*.
- A popular padding scheme is the PKCS #5 padding.
  - Assume that the original message  $m$  has an integral number of bytes. Let  $L$  be the blocklength of the block cipher in bytes.
  - Let  $b$  denote the number of bytes required to be appended to the original message to make the encoded data have length which is a multiple of  $L$ . Here,  $b$  is an integer from 1 to  $L$  ( $b = 0$  is not allowed).
  - We append to the message the integer  $b$  (represented in 1 byte) repeated  $b$  times. For example, if 4 bytes are needed then the `0x04040404` is appended. Note that  $L$  needs to be less than 256. Also, if the message length is already a multiple of  $L$ , then  $L$  bytes need to be appended each of which is equal to  $L$ .
- The encoded data is encrypted using CBC mode. When decrypting, the receiver first applies CBC mode decryption and then checks that the encoded data is correctly padded. The value  $b$  of the last byte is read and then the final  $b$  bytes of the encoded data is checked to be equal to  $b$ .

- If the padding is incorrect, the standard procedure is to return a “bad padding” error. The presence of such an error message provides the an adversary with a *partial* decryption oracle. While this may seem like meaningless information, it enables the adversary *to completely recover the original message for any ciphertext of its choice*.
- See pages 99–100 for a complete description of the attack.
- One solution is to use message authentication codes.

### 3 Message Authentication Codes

- The main goal of cryptography is enabling secure communication between parties over an open communication channel. In addition to message privacy, secure communication entails *message integrity or authentication*.
- Each party should be able to check that a message it receives was sent by the party claiming to send it and that it was not modified in transit.
- Consider a scenario when a bank receives a request to transfer amount  $N$  from account  $X$  to account  $Y$ .
  - Is the request authentic? Did the owner of account  $X$  really raise the request?
  - Assuming the request is authentic, are the details exactly as specified by the owner of account  $X$ ? Was the transfer amount modified?
- Message authentication codes prevent *undetected tampering* of messages sent over an open communication channel.
- In general, encryption schemes do not ensure message integrity. For example, given  $c := G(k) \oplus m$ , where  $k$  is a secret key and  $G$  is a pseudorandom generator, flipping a bit in  $c$  will flip the corresponding bit in the decrypted plaintext.

#### 3.1 The Syntax of a Message Authentication Code

- We will continue to assume that the communicating parties share a secret key.
- When Alice wants to send a message  $m$  to Bob, she computes a MAC tag  $t$  based on the message and the shared key. Let  $\text{Mac}$  denote the *tag-generation algorithm*. Alice computes tag  $t \leftarrow \text{Mac}_k(m)$  and send  $(m, t)$  to Bob.
- Upon receiving  $(m, t)$ , Bob verifies that  $t$  is a valid tag on the message  $m$  using a *verification algorithm*  $\text{Vrfy}$  which depends on the shared key  $k$ .  $\text{Vrfy}_k(m, t) = 1$  if  $t$  is a valid tag for  $m$  and 0 otherwise.

**Definition.** A *message authentication code (MAC)* consists of three PPT algorithms ( $\text{Gen}, \text{Mac}, \text{Vrfy}$ ) such that:

1. The **key-generation algorithm**  $\text{Gen}$  takes as input the security parameter  $1^n$  and outputs a key  $k$  with  $|k| \geq n$ .

2. The **tag-generation algorithm**  $\text{Mac}$  takes as input a key  $k$  and a message  $m \in \{0,1\}^*$ , and outputs a tag  $t$ . Since this algorithm may be randomized, we write  $t \leftarrow \text{Mac}_k(m)$ .
3. The deterministic **verification algorithm**  $\text{Vrfy}$  takes as input a key  $k$ , a message  $m$ , and a tag  $t$ . It outputs a bit  $b$ , with  $b = 1$  meaning **valid** and  $b = 0$  meaning **invalid**. We write this as  $b := \text{Vrfy}_k(m, t)$ .

It is required that for every  $n$ , every key  $k$  output by  $\text{Gen}(1^n)$ , and every  $m \in \{0,1\}^*$ , it holds that  $\text{Vrfy}_k(m, \text{Mac}_k(m)) = 1$ .

If there is a function  $l$  such that for every  $k$  output by  $\text{Gen}(1^n)$ , algorithm  $\text{Mac}_k$  is only defined for messages  $m \in \{0,1\}^{l(n)}$ , then we call the scheme a **fixed length MAC for messages of length  $l(n)$** .

- **Canonical verification:** For deterministic message authentication codes (i.e. where  $\text{Mac}$  is a deterministic algorithm), the canonical way to perform verification is to simply re-compute the tag and check for equality.

### 3.2 Security of Message Authentication Codes

- The intuitive idea behind the security definition is that no efficient adversary should be able to generate a valid tag on any “new” message that was not previously sent (with tag) by one of the communicating parties.
- Consider the following **message authentication experiment**  $\text{Mac-forge}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}(n)$ :
  1. A key  $k$  is generated by running  $\text{Gen}(1^n)$ .
  2. The adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  is given input  $1^n$  and oracle access to  $\text{Mac}_k(\cdot)$ . The adversary eventually outputs  $(m, t)$ . Let  $\mathcal{Q}$  denote the set of all queries that  $\mathcal{A}$  asked its oracle.
  3.  $\mathcal{A}$  succeeds if and only if (1)  $\text{Vrfy}_k(m, t) = 1$  and (2)  $m \notin \mathcal{Q}$ . If  $\mathcal{A}$  succeeds, the output of the experiment is 1. Otherwise, the output is 0.
- A MAC is secure if no efficient adversary can succeed in the above experiment with non-negligible probability.

**Definition.** A message authentication code  $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Mac}, \text{Vrfy})$  is **existentially unforgeable under an adaptive chosen-message attack**, or just **secure**, if for all PPT adversaries  $\mathcal{A}$ , there is a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that:

$$\Pr [\text{Mac-forge}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}(n) = 1] \leq \text{negl}(n).$$

- The above definition of MAC security offers no protection against *replay attacks*. These can be prevented using sequence numbers or timestamps.

## 4 References and Additional Reading

- Section 3.7.2 from Katz/Lindell
- Sections 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 from Katz/Lindell