

## 1 Hash Function

In the field of cryptography, a hash function is a mathematical process that accepts an input, or "message", and outputs a fixed-length string of bytes, usually in the form of a hash value or hash code. Often called a digest, the output is a distinct representation of the input data. Fast and effective hash functions offer a safe and dependable means of confirming the integrity of data, authenticating communications, and creating digital signatures.

A hash family is a four-tuple  $(X, Y, K, H)$ , where:

1.  $X$  is a set of possible messages.
2.  $Y$  is a finite set of possible message digests or authentication tags (or just tags).
3.  $K$ , the keyspace, is a finite set of possible keys.
4. For each  $k \in K$ , there is a hash function  $h_k \in H$ , where  $h_k : X \rightarrow Y$ .

While  $Y$  is always a finite set in the definition above, it may not always be a finite set. The function is sometimes referred to as a compression function if  $X$  is a finite set and  $|X| > |Y|$ . In this case, we'll assume the more favorable circumstance.  $|X| > 2^{|Y|}$ .

### 1.1 Types of Hash Functions

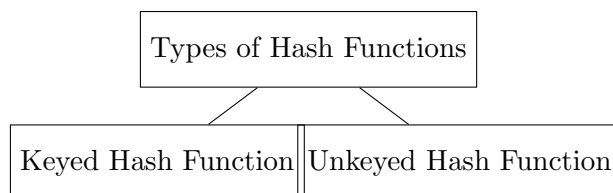


Figure 1: Types of Hash Functions

#### 1.1.1 Unkeyed Hash Function

A function  $h : X \rightarrow Y$ , where  $X$  and  $Y$  are the same, is an unkeyed hash function. An unkeyed hash function can be conceptualized as a hash family where  $|K| = 1$ , or one with a single potential key. The output of an unkeyed hash function is commonly referred to as a "message digest."

#### 1.1.2 Keyed Hash Function

If the key is involved in the computation of hashed value then that hash function is known as keyed hash function. The output of a keyed hash function is referred to as a "tag."

## 1.2 Legitimacy Under Hash Function

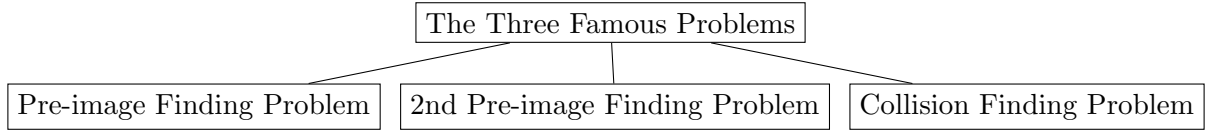
If  $h(x) = y$ , then a pair  $(x, y) \in X \times Y$  is considered legitimate under a hash function  $h$ . In this case,  $h$  may be an unkeyed or keyed hash function. In this chapter, we mainly cover techniques to stop an opponent from creating specific kinds of valid pairs.

Let  $F_{X,Y}$  denote the set of all functions from  $X$  to  $Y$ . Suppose that  $|X| = N$  and  $|Y| = M$ . Then it is clear that  $|F_{X,Y}| = M^N$ . Any hash family  $F$  consisting of functions with domain  $X$  and range  $Y$  can be considered to be a subset of  $F_{X,Y}$ , i.e.,  $F \subseteq F_{X,Y}$ . Such a hash family is termed an  $(N, M)$ -hash family.

## 1.3 Ideal Hash Function

Let  $h : P \rightarrow S$ .  $h$  is ideal if, given  $x \in P$ , to find  $h(x)$ , you either have to apply  $h$  on  $x$  or you have to look into the table corresponding to  $h$ .

## 1.4 The Three Famous Problems



### 1.4.1 Solution for Pre-image Finding Problem

Given  $y \in Y$ ,  $h : X \rightarrow Y$ ,  $|Y| = M$ , find  $x \in X$ .

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**Algorithm 1** Finding  $x$  such that  $h(x) = y$ 

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**Input:**  $X_0 \subseteq X$  such that  $|X_0| = Q$

**Output:** An element  $x \in X_0$  such that  $h(x) = y$

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foreach  $x \in X_0$  do
    Compute  $y' = h(x)$  if  $y' = y$  then
        | return  $x$ 
    end
end
```

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This is also known as the exhaustive search method for finding the pre-image  $x$  given  $y$ . The probability of the above algorithm returning the correct pre-image is inversely proportional to the time complexity.

The provided equations analyze the probability and time complexity of finding pre-images in set  $X_0$ . They demonstrate that as the size of  $X_0$  increases, both the probability and time complexity decrease, resulting in a more efficient pre-image search.

For example,  $X_0 = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_q\}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
P(\text{event } E_i) &= P(h(x_i) = y) = 1 - \frac{1}{M} \quad (\text{as 1 out of the length of } y \text{ will be the outcome}) \\
P(\text{event } E'_i) &= 1 - P(E_i) = 1 - \frac{1}{M} \\
P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_q) &= 1 - P(E'_1 \cap E'_2 \cap \dots \cap E'_q) \\
&= 1 - P(E'_1) \cdot P(E'_2) \cdot \dots \cdot P(E'_q) \\
&= 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{M}\right)^q \\
&= \frac{Q}{M}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, complexity =  $O(M/Q) = O(M)$ , i.e., the bigger set of  $X_0$ , the greater the probability and the lesser the time complexity to find the pre-image.

#### 1.4.2 Solution for 2nd Pre-image Finding Problem

Given  $x, h(x)$ , find  $x'$  such that  $h(x) = h(x')$ , where  $X_0$  is a subset of  $X$  without  $x$ , and  $|X_0| = Q$ . Therefore, we can use the same algorithm as above and perform an exhaustive search. Time complexity =  $O(M)$ .

#### 1.4.3 Solution for Collision Finding Problem

We have  $h : X \rightarrow Y$ , where  $|Y| = M$ . We need to find  $x'$  and  $x$  such that  $x' \neq x$  and  $h(x) = h(x')$ .

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**Algorithm 2** Finding a pair of elements  $\{x, x'\}$  with equal hash values

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**Input:**  $X_0 \subseteq X - \{x\}$  with  $|X_0| = Q$

**Output:** A pair of elements  $\{x, x'\}$  such that  $h(x) = h(x')$  and  $x \neq x'$

**foreach**  $x' \in X_0$  **do**

    Compute  $y_x = h(x)$  and  $y_{x'} = h(x')$  **if**  $y_x = y_{x'}$  **then**

**return**  $\{x, x'\}$

**end**

**end**

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Let  $E_i$  be the event that  $h(x_i)$  is not equal to any of  $\{h(x_1), h(x_2), \dots, h(x_{i-1})\}$ .

For  $i = 1$ ,  $Pr[E_1] = 1$  (since  $h(x_1)$  should not belong to the empty set).

For  $i = 2$ , given  $E_1$ ,  $Pr[E_2|E_1] = \frac{M-1}{M}$  (mapping to all elements except  $h(x_1)$ ).

Similarly, for  $i = 3$ , given  $E_1 \cap E_2$ ,  $Pr[E_3|E_1 \cap E_2] = \frac{M-2}{M}$ .

In general, for  $i = k$ , given  $E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \dots \cap E_{k-1}$ ,  $Pr[E_k|E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \dots \cap E_{k-1}] = \frac{M-(k-1)}{M}$ .

Therefore, the collision probability  $\epsilon$  is given by:

$$\epsilon = 1 - Pr[E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \dots \cap E_Q]' = 1 - \left( \frac{M-1}{M} \cdot \frac{M-2}{M} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{M-(Q-1)}{M} \right).$$

Solving for  $Q$ :

$$Q = \sqrt{2 \ln \left( \frac{1}{1 - \epsilon} \right)} \sqrt{M}.$$

Hence, the value of  $Q$  is approximately the square root of  $M$ .

## 2 Compression Function

$h : \{0, 1\}^{m+t} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$  is a hash function that takes inputs of length  $m + t$  and produces outputs of length  $m$ . The goal is to construct a function  $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$  from  $h$ , where  $H$  takes inputs of any length and produces outputs of length  $m$ .

$h : \{0, 1\}^{m+t} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$   
*Secondpreimage, preimage*  $\rightarrow O(2^m)$   
*Collision*  $\rightarrow O(2^{m/2})$

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### Algorithm 3 Compress

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Suppose that **Compress**:  $\{0, 1\}^{m+t} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$  is a compression function.

**Input:**

- $x$  : An input string of length greater than  $m + t + 1$ .

**Output:**

- $h(x)$  : The hash value of the input string  $x$ .

**Process**

- Pad  $x$  with 0s to get a string  $y$  with a length divisible by  $t$ .
  - Let  $y = y_1 || y_2 || \dots || y_r$  where each  $y_i$  has length  $t$  (except possibly the last one).
  - Initialize  $z_0 \leftarrow IV$ .  
For  $i = 1$  to  $r$  do:  
 $z_i \leftarrow \text{compress}(z_{i-1} || y_i)$
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## 3 Merkle-Damgard Construction

The Merkle-Damgard construction has the property that the resulting hash function satisfies desirable security properties, such as collision resistance, provided that the compression function does. It helps in constructing a hash function from a compression function.

Suppose **Compress**:  $\{0, 1\}^{(m+t)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$  is a collision-resistant compression function, where  $t \geq 1$ . So **compress** takes  $m + t$  input bits and produces  $m$  output bits. We will use **compress** to construct a collision-resistant hash function  $h : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ ; the hash function  $h$  takes any finite bitstring of length at least  $m + t + 1$  and creates a message digest that is a bitstring of length  $m$ .

## Merkle-Damgård Hash Construction

**Input:**  $x$ : Input message

**Output:**  $h(x)$ : Hash value of  $x$

**Step 1:** Calculate the length of the input message:

$$n = |x| \quad (\text{Length of input message})$$

**Step 2:** Determine the number of blocks:

$$K = \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor \quad (\text{Number of blocks})$$

**Step 3:** Calculate the padding size:

$$d = K(t-1) - n \quad (\text{Padding size})$$

**Step 4:** For  $i = 1$  to  $K-1$ , set  $y_i = x_i$ .

**Step 5:** Pad the last block:

$$y_K = x_K || 0^d \quad (\text{Pad last block})$$

**Step 6:** Convert the padding size to binary representation:

$$y_{K+1} = \text{binary}(d) \quad (\text{Binary representation of padding size})$$

**Step 7:** Initialize the state:

$$Z_1 = 0^{m+1} || y_1 \quad (\text{Initialize state})$$

**Step 8:** Compress the initial state:

$$g_1 = \text{compress}(Z_1) \quad (\text{Compress initial state})$$

**Step 9:** For  $i = 1$  to  $K$ , update the state and compress it:

$$Z_{i+1} = g_i || 1 || y_{i+1} \quad (\text{Update state})$$

$$g_{i+1} = \text{compress}(Z_{i+1}) \quad (\text{Compress state})$$

**Step 10:** Final hash value:

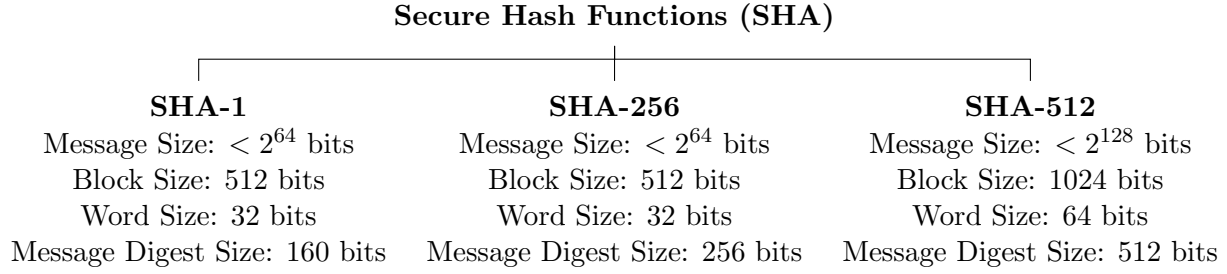
$$h(x) = g_{K+1} \quad (\text{Final hash value})$$

## 4 Secure Hash Functions (SHA)

The Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA) was devised by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) and published as a federal information processing standard (FIPS 180) in 1993. A revised edition, known as SHA-1, was released as FIPS 180-1 in 1995.

There exist three variants of SHA: SHA-160, SHA-256, and SHA-512, generally denoted as  $SHA : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ .

## 4.1 Types of SHA



## 4.2 SHA I in Detail

For SHA I, the message size is limited to  $2^{64}$  bits. If  $|x| \leq 2^{64}$ , padding is applied such that  $y$  becomes a multiple of 512 bits by appending a single '1' followed by necessary '0's.

The SHA I algorithm involves four distinct functions and five constants, along with four keys and five initial hash values.

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### Algorithm 4 SHA I Algorithm

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**Input:**  $x$ : Input message

**Output:**  $h(x)$ : Hash value of  $x$

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 $n \leftarrow |x|$  ;  $K \leftarrow \left\lfloor \frac{n}{t-1} \right\rfloor$  ;  $d \leftarrow K(t-1) - n$  ; for  $i = 1$  to  $K-1$  do
    |  $y_i \leftarrow x_i$  ;
end
 $y_K \leftarrow x_K || 0^d$  ;  $y_{K+1} \leftarrow \text{binary}(d)$  ;  $Z_1 \leftarrow 0^{m+1} || y_1$  ;  $g_1 \leftarrow \text{compress}(Z_1)$  ; for  $i = 1$  to  $K$  do
    |  $Z_{i+1} \leftarrow g_i || 1 || y_{i+1}$  ;  $g_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{compress}(Z_{i+1})$  ;
end
 $h(x) \leftarrow g_{K+1}$  ; return  $h(x)$  ;

```

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## 5 Message Authentication Code (MAC)

A Message Authentication Code (MAC) serves as a cryptographic tool ensuring both the integrity and authenticity of a message or data transmission. Its primary function is to validate that a message hasn't been tampered with during transmission and originates from a trusted source.

### 5.1 HMAC (Hash-based Message Authentication Code)

HMAC stands for Hash-based Message Authentication Code and is widely adopted for message authentication and integrity verification purposes.

#### Working Principle:

- HMAC takes the message and a secret key as inputs.
- It utilizes a cryptographic hash function (e.g., SHA-256 or SHA-512) on the message, with the secret key as the hash function's "key".

- The resulting hash output undergoes further processing to generate the MAC.
- The MAC produced ensures both the integrity and authenticity of the message.

## 5.2 CBC-MAC (Cipher Block Chaining Message Authentication Code)

CBC-MAC, or Cipher Block Chaining Message Authentication Code, is employed for generating a MAC using a block cipher in Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode.

### Operation:

- CBC-MAC processes fixed-size data blocks. If the message surpasses the block size, it is partitioned into blocks.
- Each block of the message undergoes processing using a symmetric encryption algorithm (e.g., AES) in CBC mode with a secret key.
- The resultant output of CBC-MAC constitutes the MAC for the entire message, which can be appended to or transmitted with the message for verification purposes.
- To thwart certain attacks like length extension attacks, CBC-MAC mandates a distinct initialization vector (IV) for each message.

## 6 Other SHAs

They are defined in the NIST Standard FIPS (Federal Information Processing Standards) 180-4. Rest of the things we were asked to refer from this PDF: <https://csrc.nist.gov/files/pubs/fips/180-2/final/docs/fips180-2.pdf>. Below is a small overview of the same.

### 6.1 SHA 256

#### Properties:

- **Message Size:**  $< 2^{64}$  bits
- **Block Size:** 512 bits
- **Word Size:** 32 bits
- **Message digest size:** 256 bits

### 6.2 SHA-512

#### Properties:

- **Message Size:** Up to  $2^{128}$  bits
- **Block Size:** 1024 bits
- **Word Size:** 64 bits
- **Message Digest Size:** 512 bits