

# ICSI-526/426

# Cryptography

Message Authentication, Hash  
Functions, and Digital Signatures

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# Message Authentication

- Encryption
  - protects against passive attack (eavesdropping)
- Message Authentication
  - protects against active attacks
  - verifies received message is authentic
    - contents unaltered?
    - from authentic source?
    - timely and in correct sequence?

# Message Authentication

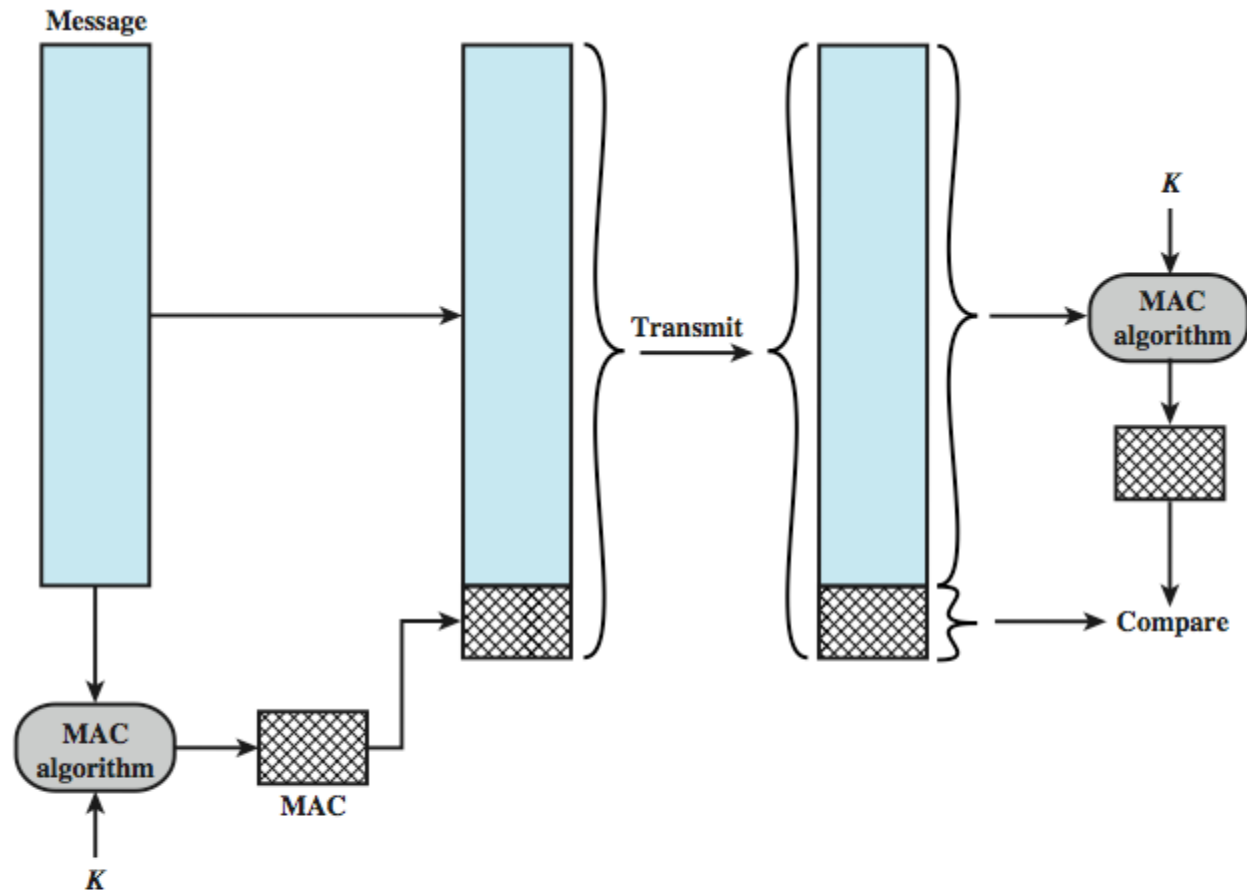
- Message Authentication
  - can use conventional encryption
    - only sender & receiver have **key** needed
    - furthermore, if the message includes an **error-detection code and a sequence number**, the receiver is assured that **no alterations** have been made and that sequencing is proper.
    - if the message also includes a **timestamp**, the receiver is assured that the message **has not been delayed** beyond that normally expected for network transit.
  - or separate authentication mechanisms?

# Message Authentication

- Message Authentication
  - Alternatively there are several approaches to message authentication that do not rely on encryption.
  - In all of these approaches, an authentication tag (MAC) is generated and appended to each message for transmission.
  - The message itself is not encrypted and can be read at the destination independent of the authentication function at the destination.

# Message Authentication Codes

# Message Authentication Codes



# Message Authentication Codes

- One authentication technique involves the use of a secret key to generate a small block of data, known as a message authentication code, that is appended to the message.
- This technique assumes that two communicating parties, say A and B, share a common secret key  $K_{AB}$ .
- When A has a message to send to B, it calculates the message authentication code as a function of the message and the key:  
$$\text{MAC}_M = F(K_{AB}, M).$$
- The message plus code are transmitted to the intended recipient.
- The recipient performs the same calculation on the received message, using the same secret key, to generate a new message authentication code.

# Message Authentication Codes

- If we assume that only the receiver and the sender know the identity of the secret key, and if the received code matches the calculated code, then:
  1. The receiver is assured that the message has not been altered.
  2. The receiver is assured that the message is from the alleged sender.
  3. If the message includes a sequence number, then the receiver can be assured of the proper sequence.
- A number of algorithms could be used to generate the code.
  - E.g. DES can be used to generate an encrypted version of the message, and the last number of bits of ciphertext are used as the code.
  - A 16- or 32-bit code is typical.



# Hash Functions

# Secure Hash Functions

- An alternative to the message authentication code is the one-way hash function.
- As with the message authentication code, a hash function accepts a variable-size message  $M$  as input and produces a fixed-size message digest  $H(M)$  as output (Figure 2.5).
- Unlike the MAC, a hash function does not also take a secret key as input.
- To authenticate a message, the message digest is sent with the message in such a way that the message digest is authentic.

# Secure Hash Functions

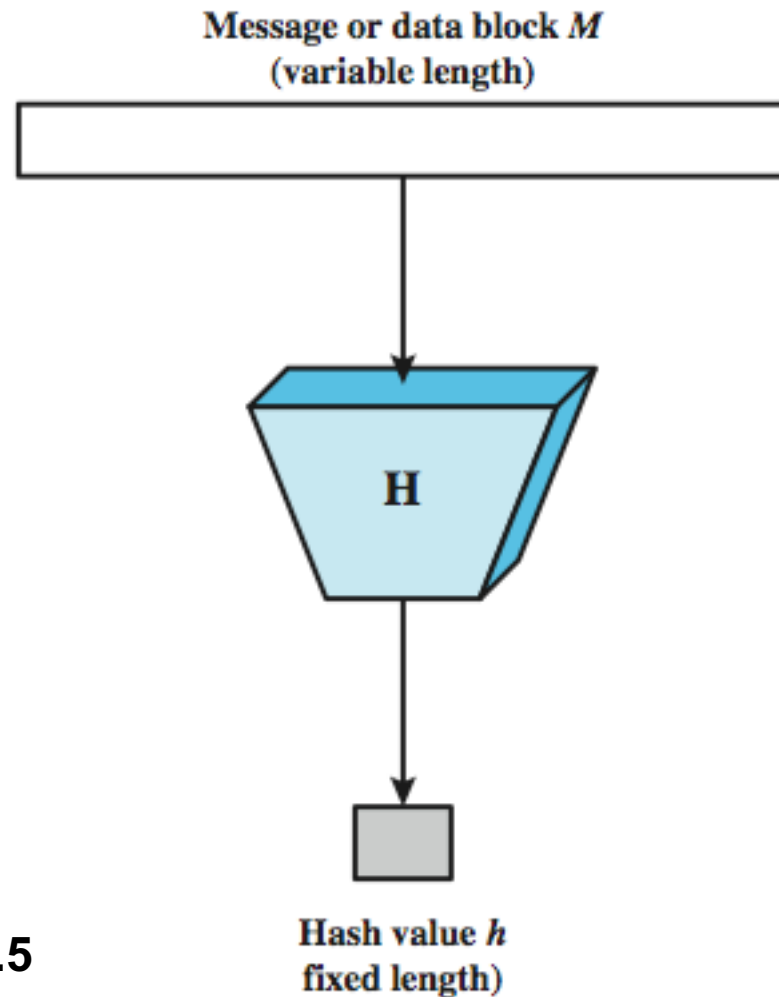
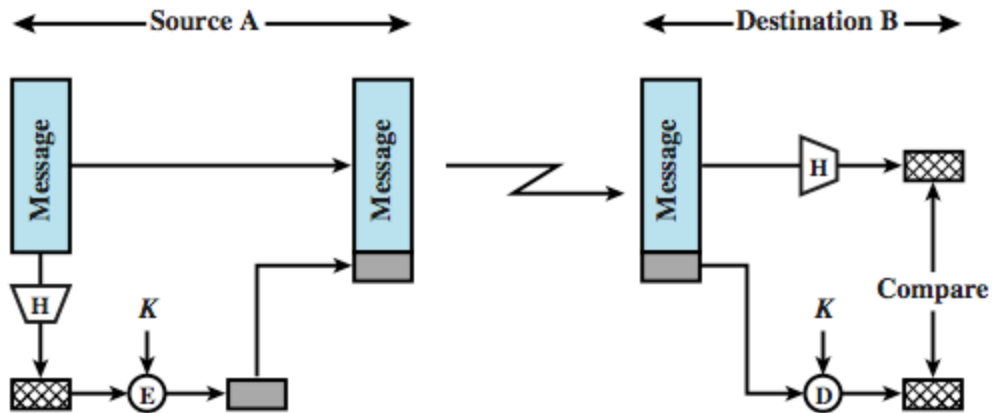
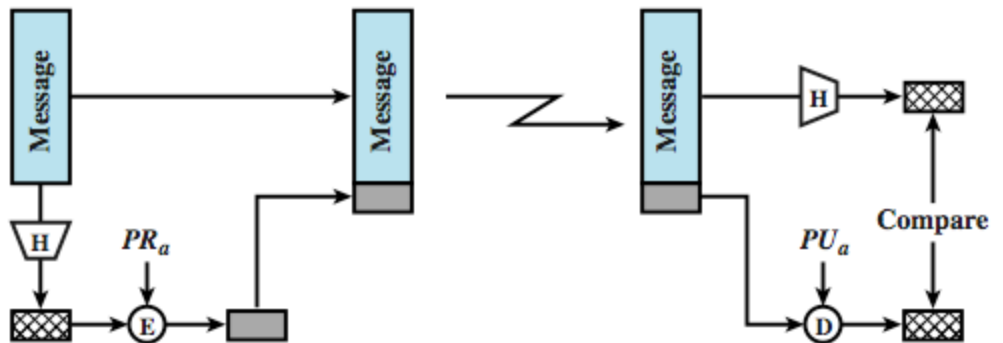


Figure 2.5

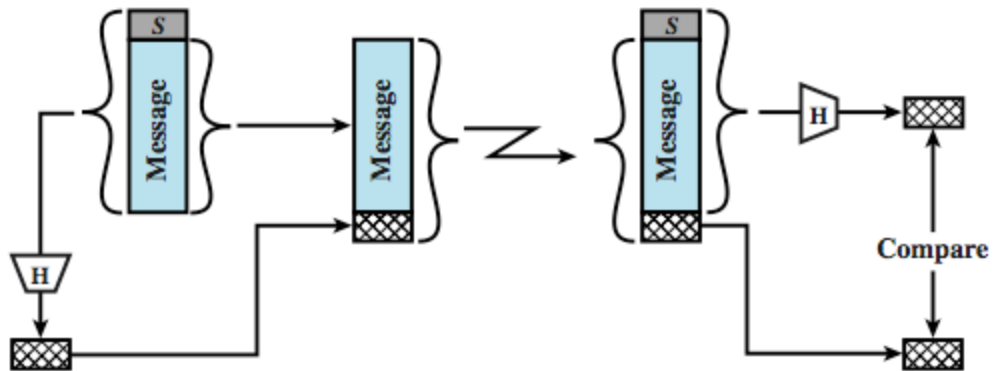
# Message Auth



(a) Using conventional encryption



(b) Using public-key encryption



(c) Using secret value

# Hash Function Requirements

- Requirements for the practical application
  - applied to any size data
  - $H$  produces a fixed-length output.
  - $H(x)$  is relatively easy to compute for any given  $x$
- One-way property
  - computationally infeasible to find  $x$  such that  $H(x) = h$
- Weak collision resistance
  - computationally infeasible to find  $y \neq x$  such that  $H(y) = H(x)$
- Strong collision resistance
  - computationally infeasible to find any pair  $(x, y)$  such that  $H(x) = H(y)$ , protects against Birthday attack

# Birthday Attack

- The name derives from the birthday paradox in probability theory which answers the question:

how large does a group of people have to be so that two will share a birthday with probability at least  $\frac{1}{2}$ ?

- Intuitively, one may think the group has to be of size 180 to 360. Actually, the number is much smaller.

# Birthday Attack

- Birthday Paradox:
  - In a group of 23 random people, two will share a birthday with probability at least  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

$$k \approx 1.18\sqrt{n}.$$

- In the case of the birthday paradox we have  $n = 365$  (excluding 29 February), thus

$$k \approx 1.18\sqrt{365} \approx 22.4.$$

# Birthday Attack

$$k \approx 1.18\sqrt{n}.$$

We conclude that to prevent the birthday attack against hash functions,  $n = |Z|$  must be sufficiently large. If we use  $r$ -bit message digests, then  $n = 2^r$ , and so  $k \approx 1.18\sqrt{2^r} \approx 2^{r/2}$  random hashes give a reasonable chance of producing a collision. For instance, if  $r = 40$ , then  $k \approx 2^{20} \approx 10^6$ , which is very insecure. If  $r = 160$  as in DSS, then  $k \approx 2^{80} \approx 10^{24}$ , which is in a secure range.



# Hash Functions

- Two attack approaches
  1. cryptanalysis
    - exploit logical weakness in alg
  2. brute-force attack
    - trial many inputs
    - strength proportional to size of hash code ( $2^{r/2}$ )

# Hash Functions

- Oorschot and Wiener presented a design for a \$10 million collision search machine for MD5, which has a 128-bit hash length, that could find a collision in 24 days. Thus a 128-bit code may be viewed as inadequate.
- With a hash length of 160 bits, the same search machine would require over four thousand years to find a collision.
- With today's technology, the time would be much shorter, so that 160 bits now appears suspect.

# Simple Hash Functions

- A one-way or secure hash function used in message authentication, digital signatures
- All hash functions process input a block at a time in an iterative fashion
- One of simplest hash functions is the bit-by-bit exclusive-OR (XOR) of each block

$$C_i = b_{i1} \oplus b_{i2} \oplus \dots \oplus b_{im}$$

- effective data integrity check on random data
- less effective on more predictable data
- virtually useless for data security

# SHA Secure Hash Functions

- SHA originally developed by NIST/NSA in 1993
- was revised in 1995 as SHA-1
  - US standard for use with DSA signature scheme
  - produces 160-bit hash values
- NIST issued revised FIPS 180-2 in 2002
  - adds 3 additional versions of SHA
  - SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512
  - with 256/384/512-bit hash values
  - same basic structure as SHA-1 but greater security
- NIST intend to phase out SHA-1 use

# SHA-512 Structure

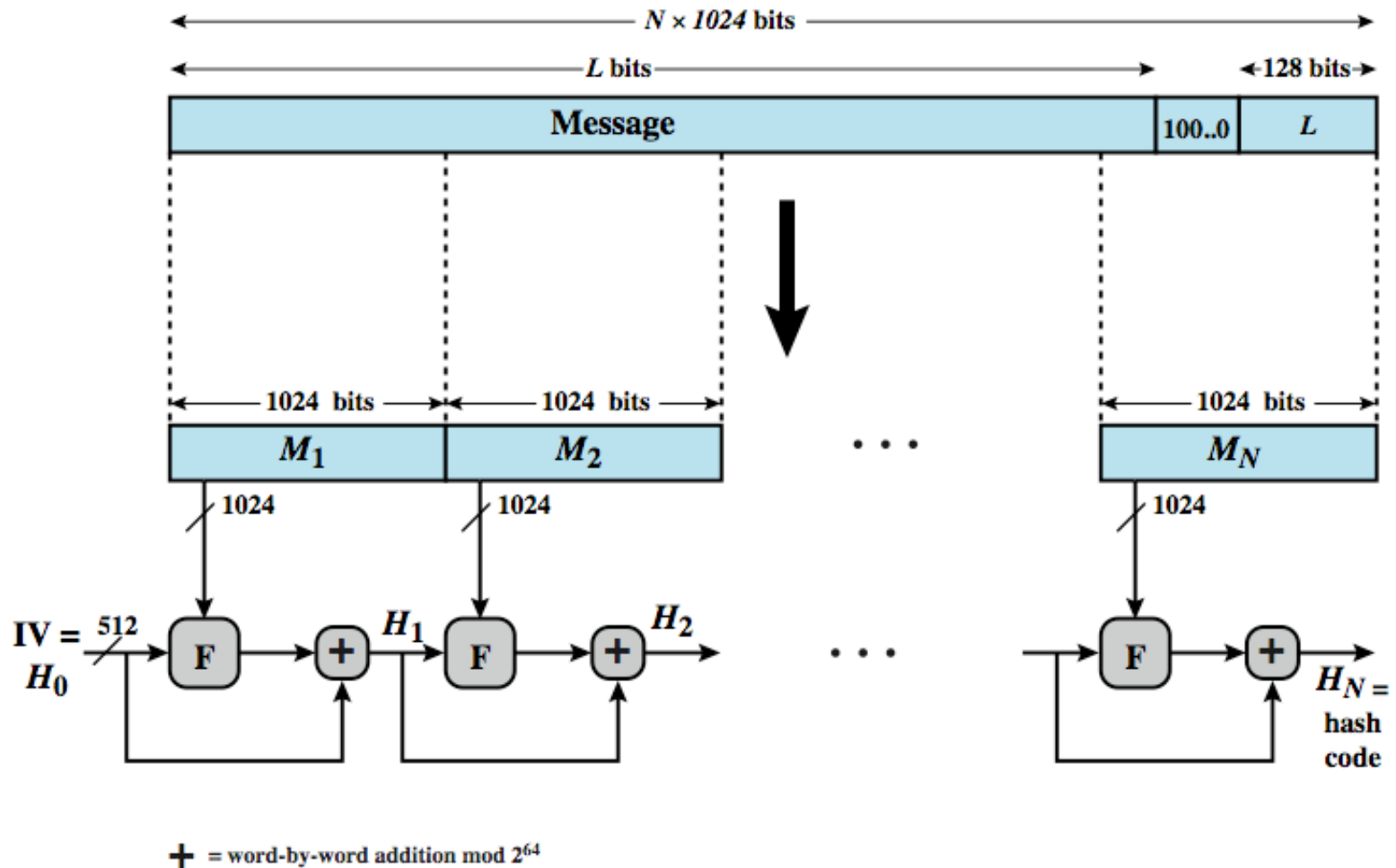


Figure 22.2

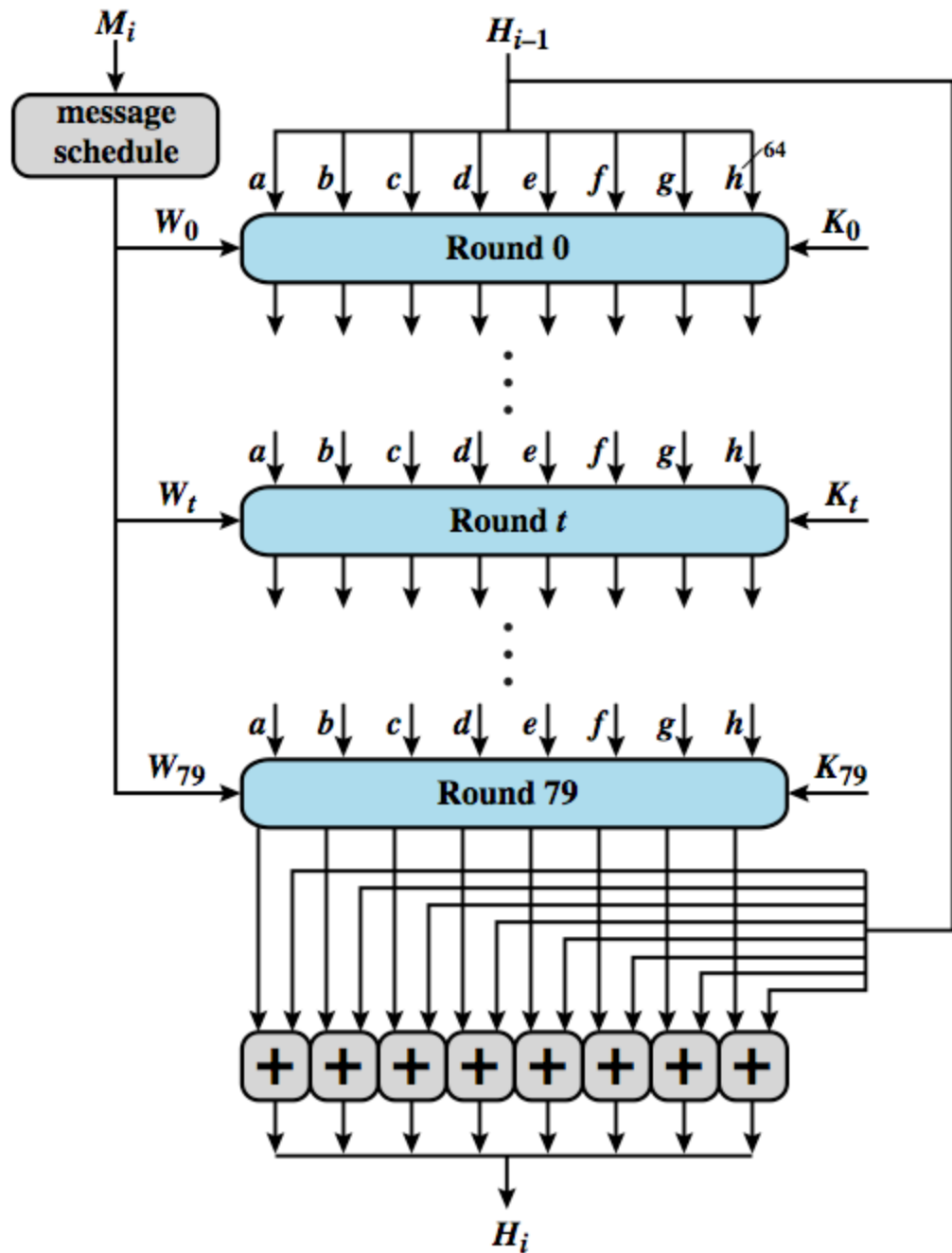
# SHA-512 Algorithm

- The algorithm takes as input a message with a maximum length of less than  $2^{128}$  bits and produces as output a 512-bit message digest.
- The input is processed in 1024-bit blocks.  
Figure 22.2 depicts the overall processing of a message to produce a digest.

# SHA-512 Algorithm

- The processing consists of the following steps (see text for additional details):
  - Step 1: Append padding bits: so that message length is congruent to 896 modulo 1024 [ $\text{length} \equiv 896 \pmod{1024}$ ]. The padding consists of a single 1-bit followed by the necessary number of 0-bits.
  - Step 2: Append length: as a block of 128 bits being an unsigned 128-bit integer length of the original message (before padding).
  - Step 3: Initialize hash buffer: to the specified 64-bit integer values (see text).
  - Step 4: Process the message in 1024-bit (128-word) blocks, which forms the heart of the algorithm, being a module, labeled F in this figure, that consists of 80 rounds. The logic is described on the next slide
  - Step 5: Output the final hash buffer value as the resulting hash

# SHA-512 Round





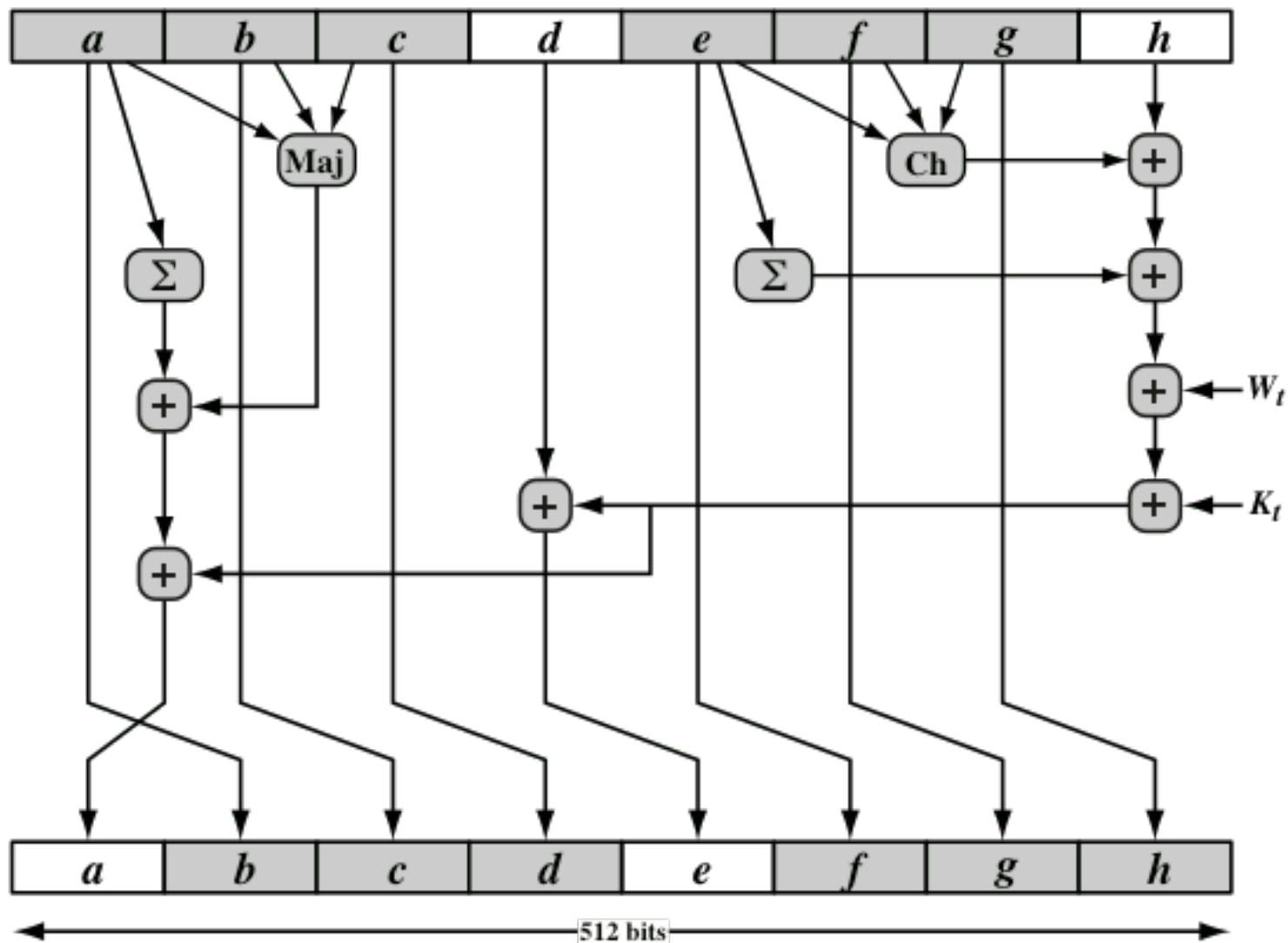
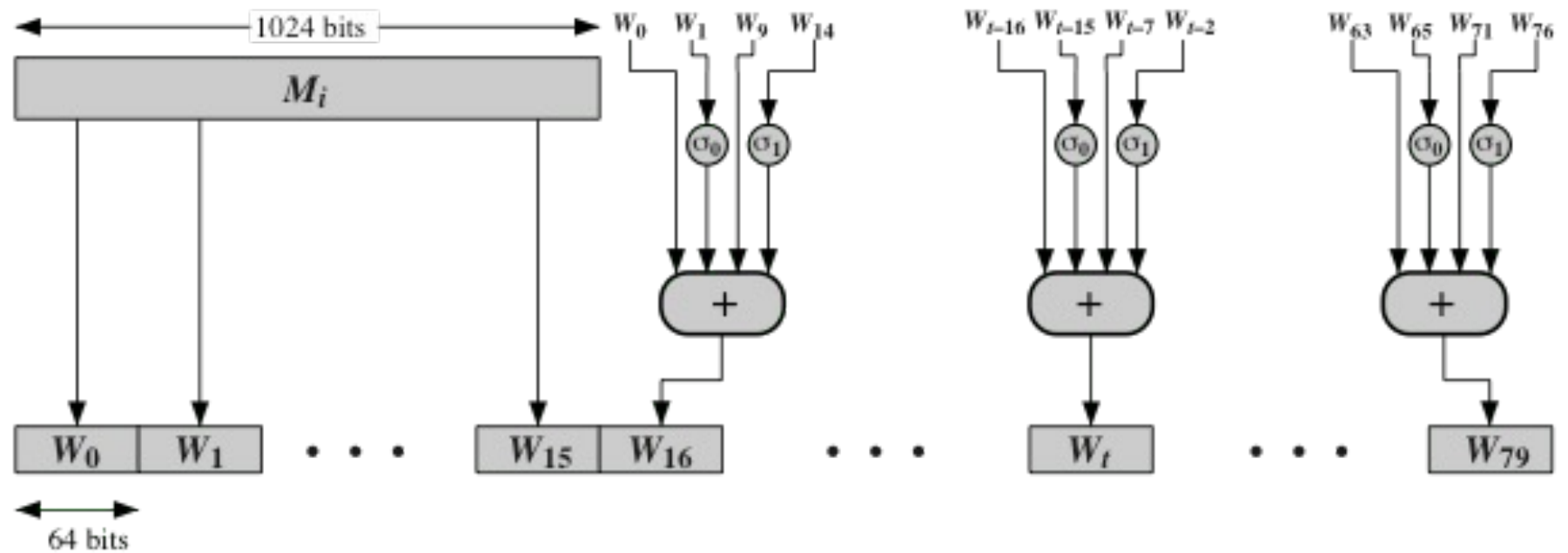


Figure 11.11 Elementary SHA-512 Operation (single round)



**Figure 11.12 Creation of 80-word Input Sequence for SHA-512 Processing of Single Block**

# Functions Definitions

Six logical functions are used in SHA-512. Each of these functions operates on 64-bit words and produces a 64-bit word as output. Each function is defined as follows:

$$Ch(x, y, z) = (x \wedge y) \oplus (\neg x \wedge z)$$

$$Maj(x, y, z) = (x \wedge y) \oplus (x \wedge z) \oplus (y \wedge z)$$

$$\Sigma_0(x) = S^{28}(x) \oplus S^{34}(x) \oplus S^{39}(x)$$

$$\Sigma_1(x) = S^{14}(x) \oplus S^{18}(x) \oplus S^{41}(x)$$

$$\sigma_0(x) = S^1(x) \oplus S^8(x) \oplus R^7(x)$$

$$\sigma_1(x) = S^{19}(x) \oplus S^{61}(x) \oplus R^6(x)$$

$R^n$       right shift by n bits

$S^n$       right rotation by n bits

# SHA-512 Round

- Each round takes as input the 512-bit buffer value *abcdefgh*, and updates the contents of the buffer.
- At input to the first round, the buffer has the value of the intermediate hash value,  $H_{i-1}$ .
- Each round  $t$  makes use of a 64-bit value  $W_t$ , derived from the current 1024-bit block being processed ( $M_i$ ).
- Each round also makes use of an **additive constant  $K_t$** , where  $0 \leq t \leq 79$  indicates one of the 80 rounds.
- **These words** represent the first sixty-four bits of the fractional parts of the cube roots of the first eighty prime numbers.

# SHA-512 Round

- The constants provide a “randomized” set of 64-bit patterns, which should eliminate any regularities in the input data.
- The operations performed during a round consist of circular shifts, and primitive Boolean functions based on AND, OR, NOT, and XOR.
- The output of the eightieth round is added to the input to the first round ( $H_{i-1}$ ) to produce  $H_i$ .
- The addition is done independently for each of the eight words in the buffer with each of the corresponding words in  $H_{i-1}$ , using addition modulo  $2^{64}$ .

# SHA-512 Algorithm

- The SHA-512 algorithm has the property that every bit of the hash code is a function of every bit of the input.
- The complex repetition of the basic function F produces results that are well mixed; that is, it is unlikely that two messages chosen at random, even if they exhibit similar regularities, will have the same hash code.
- Unless there is some hidden weakness, the difficulty of coming up with two messages having the same message digest is on the order of  $2^{256}$  operations, while the difficulty of finding a message with a given digest is on the order of  $2^{512}$  operations.

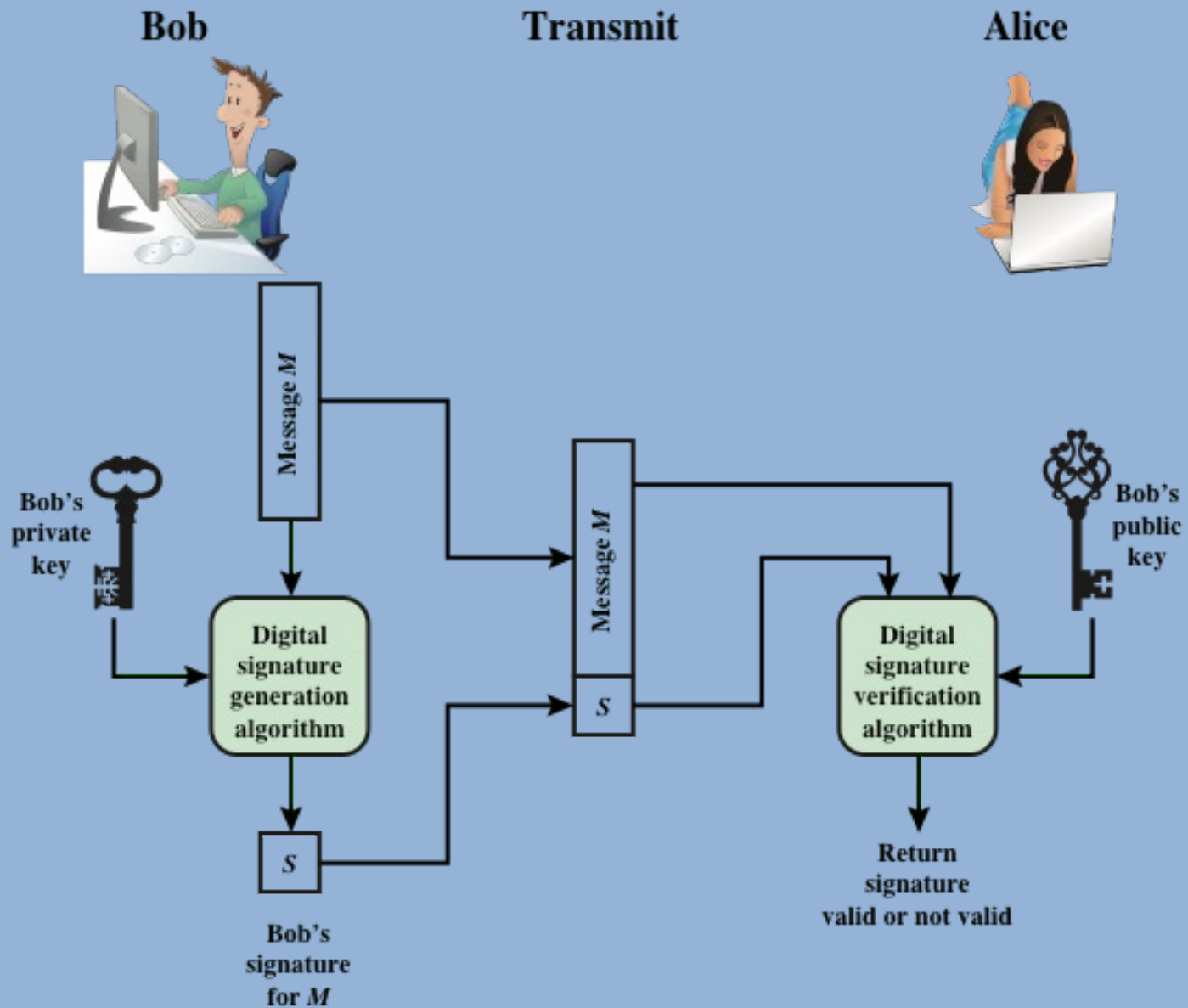
SHA Demo: <http://caligatio.github.io/jsSHA/>

# Other Secure Hash Functions

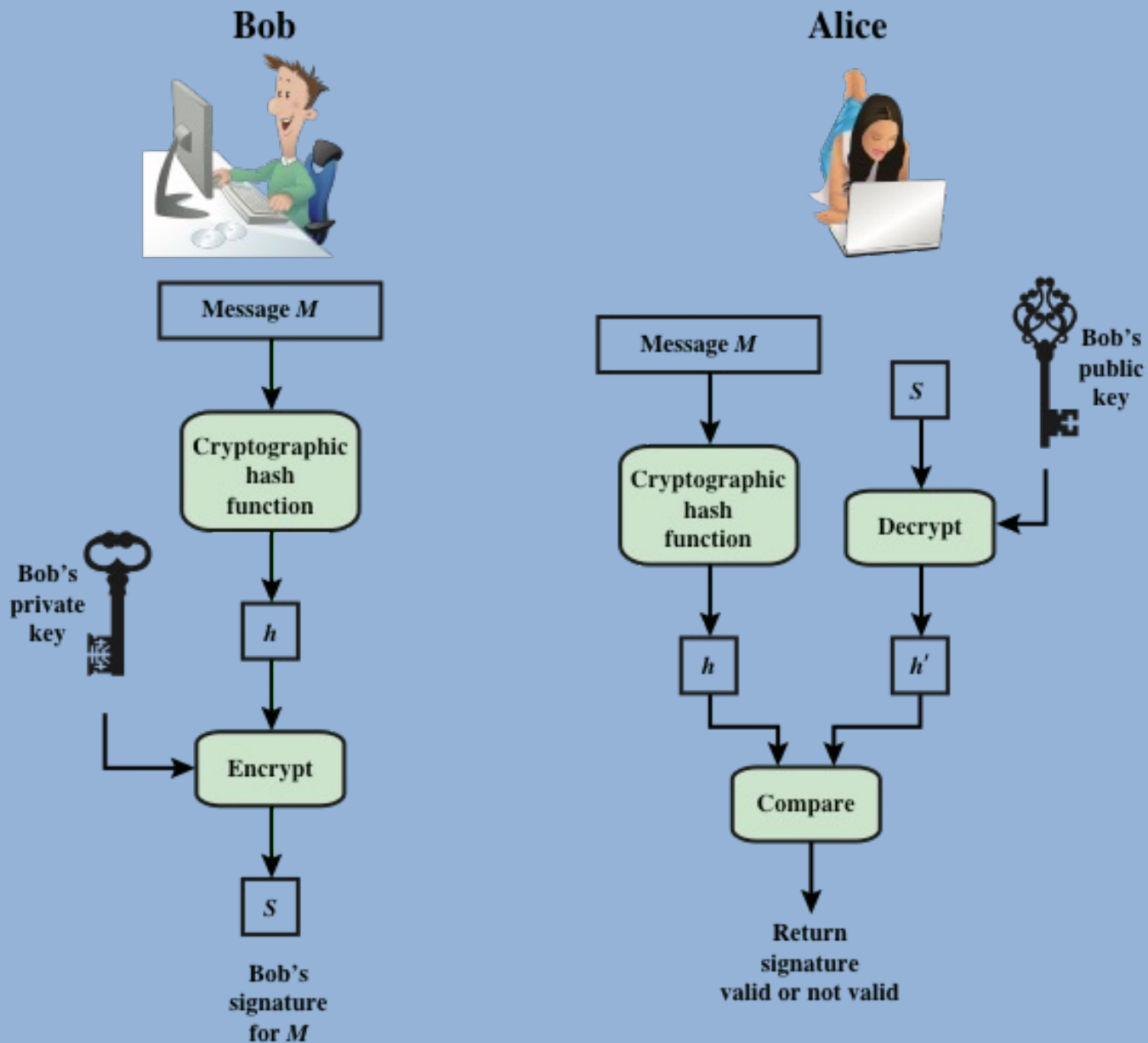
- Most based on iterated hash function design
  - if compression function is collision resistant
  - so is resultant iterated hash function
- MD5 (RFC1321)
  - was a widely used hash developed by Ron Rivest
  - produces 128-bit hash, now too small
  - also have cryptanalytic concerns
- Whirlpool (NESSIE endorsed hash)
  - developed by Vincent Rijmen & Paulo Barreto
  - compression function is AES derived W block cipher
  - produces 512-bit hash

# Digital Signatures



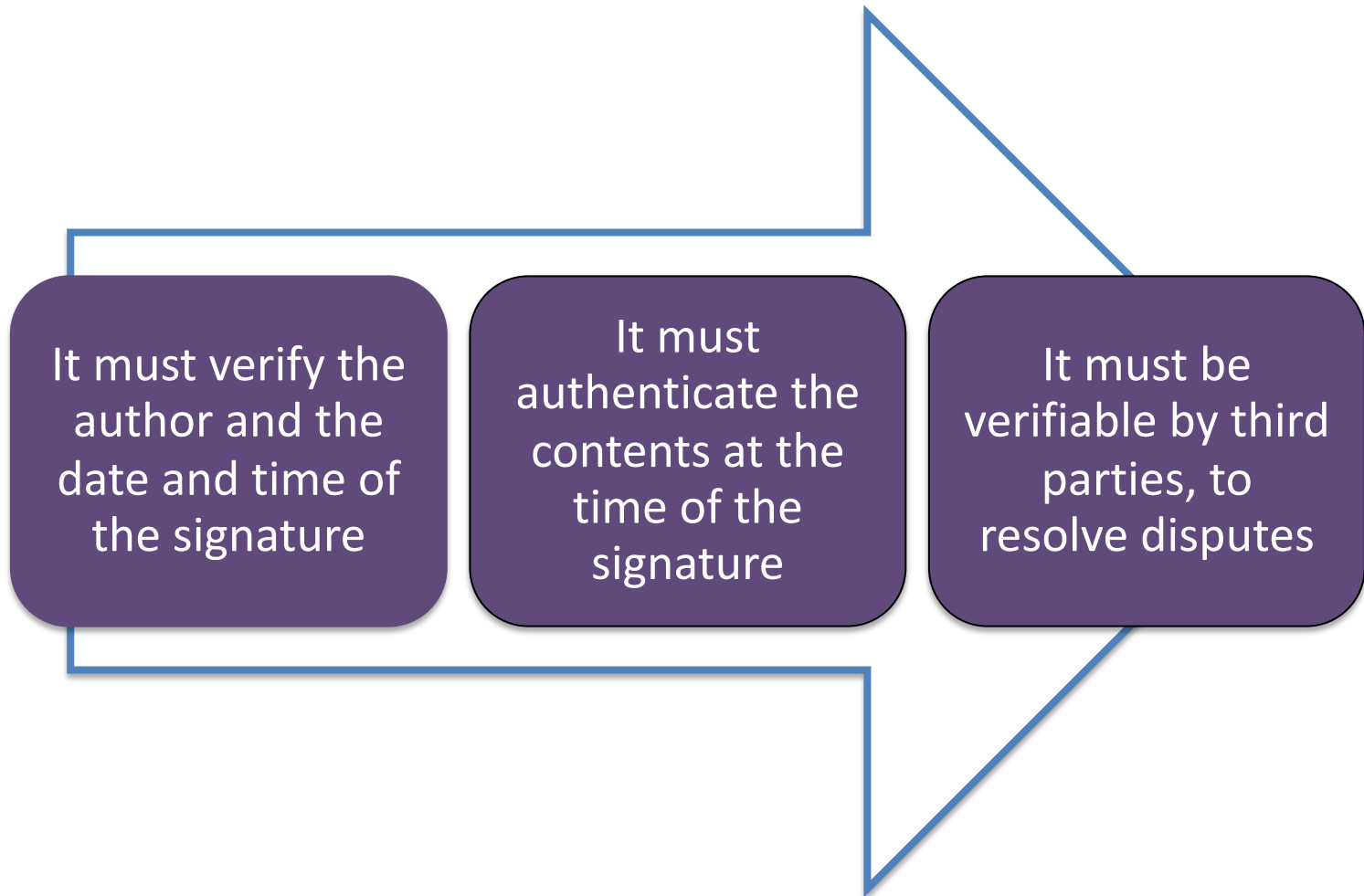


**Figure 13.1 Generic Model of Digital Signature Process**



**Figure 13.2 Simplified Depiction of Essential Elements of Digital Signature Process**

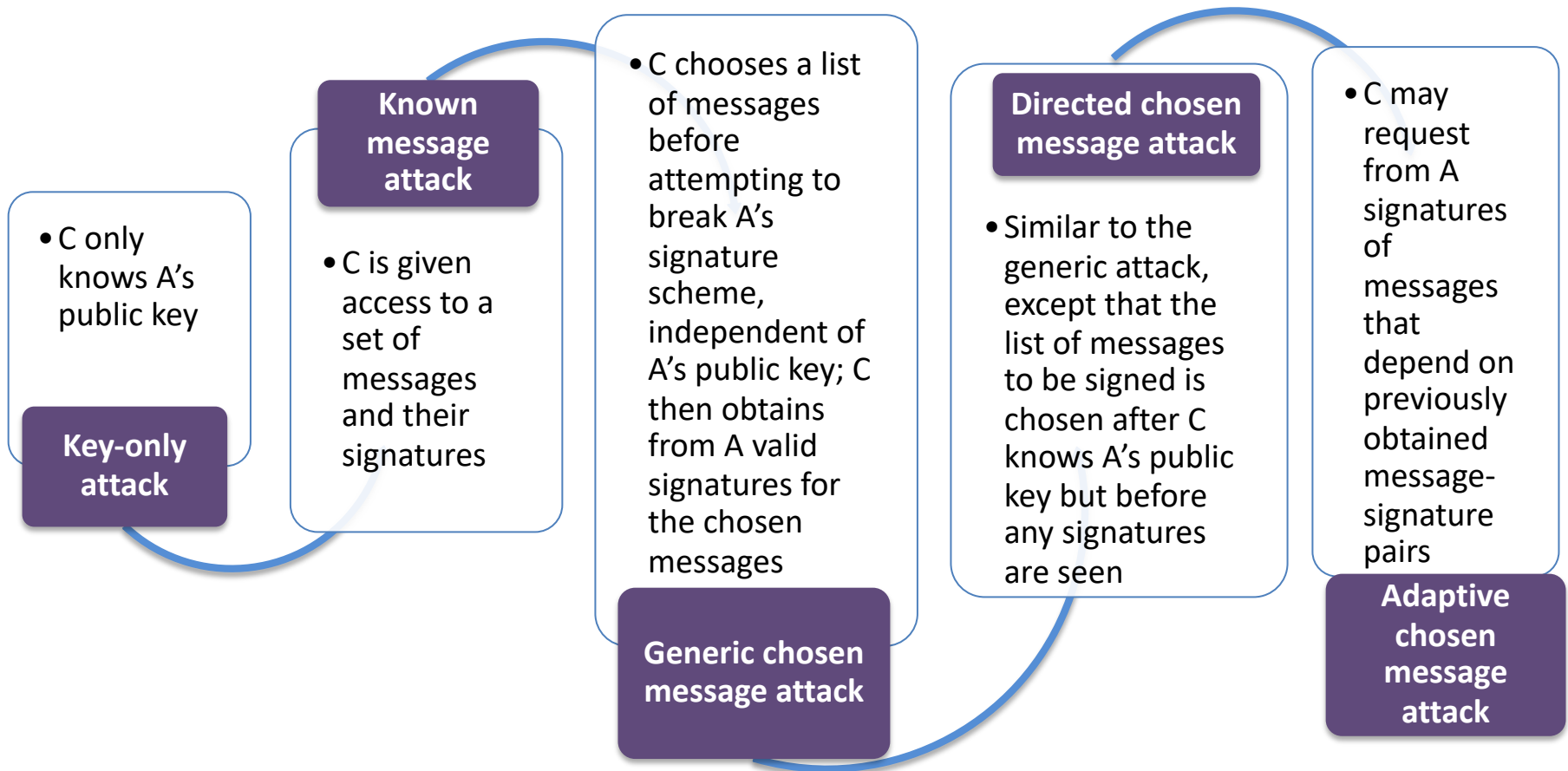
# Digital Signature Properties



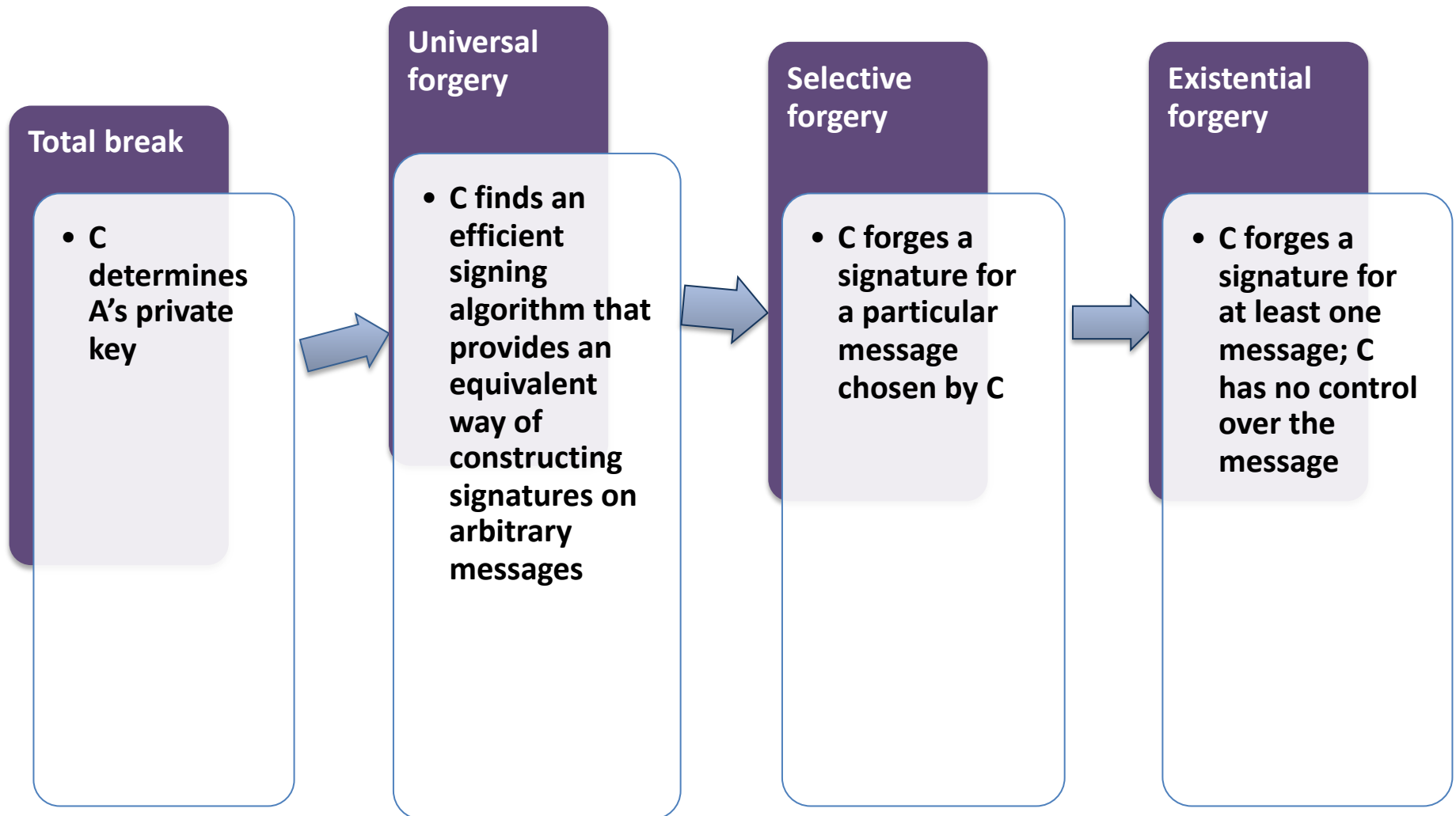
# Attacks



C denotes the attacker



# Forgeries



# Digital Signature Requirements

- The signature must be a bit pattern that **depends on the message** being signed
- The signature must use **some information unique to the sender** to prevent both forgery and denial
- It must be **relatively easy to produce** the digital signature
- It must be **relatively easy to recognize and verify** the digital signature
- It must be **computationally infeasible to forge** a digital signature, either by constructing a new message for an existing digital signature or by constructing a fraudulent digital signature for a given message
- It must be practical to **retain a copy of the digital signature** in storage

# Digital Signature Scheme

- A signature scheme consists of two algorithms
  1. a **signing algorithm**  $sig_K$ , depending on a signature key  $K$ , which computes for each possible message  $x$  a corresponding signature  $sig_K(x)$  that is appended to the message.
  2. a **verification algorithm**  $ver_K$  which checks, for any possible message  $x$  and any possible signature  $s$ , whether  $s = sig_K(x)$ . Thus,
    - $ver_K(x, s) = \text{true}$  if  $s = sig_K(x)$
    - $ver_K(x; s) = \text{false}$  if  $s \neq sig_K(x)$

# Digital Signature Scheme

- The signing and verification algorithms should be fast.
- The signature key  $K$  and so the function  $sig_K$  will be secret, whereas  $ver_K$  will be a public function, with a public verification key  $K$ , so that anybody can check digital signatures. It should be computationally infeasible to forge a digital signature on a message  $x$ .
- That is, given  $x$ , only the authorized user should be able to compute the signature  $s$  such that  $ver_K(x, s) = \text{true}$ .



# Digital Signature Scheme using Public Key Cryptography

$x$  = "I am Alice (userid) and I want to transfer \$1000 to my friend Bob"

$d$  = Alice's private key

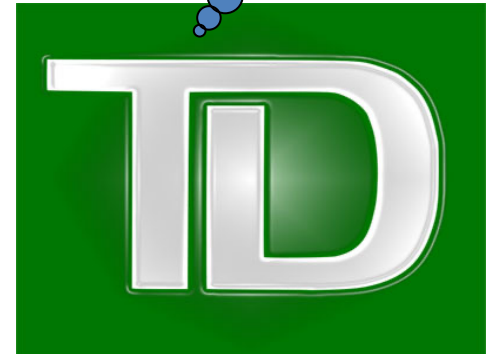
$$y = x^d \pmod{n}$$



Since I got  $x$  using  $e$  (Alice's public key), I can assume that the message has really come from Alice. So, I will do the transaction.



Customer



$$x = y^e \pmod{n}$$

$$ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(n)}$$

# RSA Digital Signature Scheme

*Public key:*  $n$  and  $e$ .

*Private key:*  $p$ ,  $q$ , and  $d$ .

*Signing algorithm:* The user  $\mathcal{A}$  signs a plaintext  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_n$  by computing

$$s := x^d \pmod{n}$$

and sending the pair  $(x, s)$  to  $\mathcal{U}$ .

*Verification algorithm:* Upon receiving  $(x, s)$ ,  $\mathcal{U}$  computes

$$s^e \pmod{n}$$

and checks whether it agrees with  $x$ .

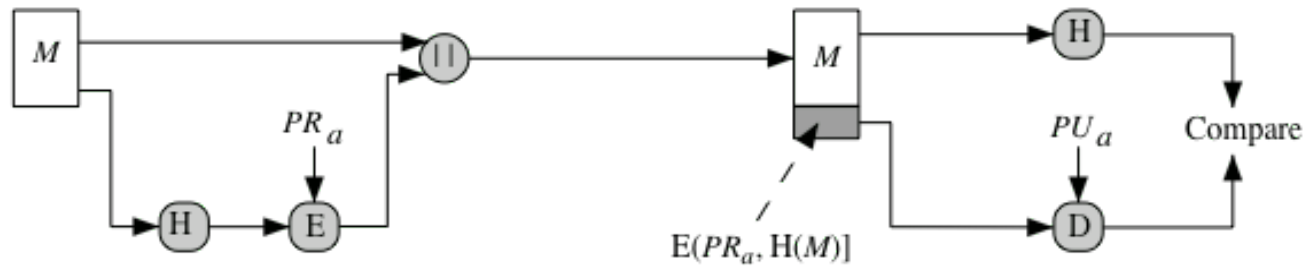
# Digital Signature Schemes

- There are other Digital Signature schemes based on:
  - ElGamal's cryptosystem
  - Elliptic Curve Cryptography

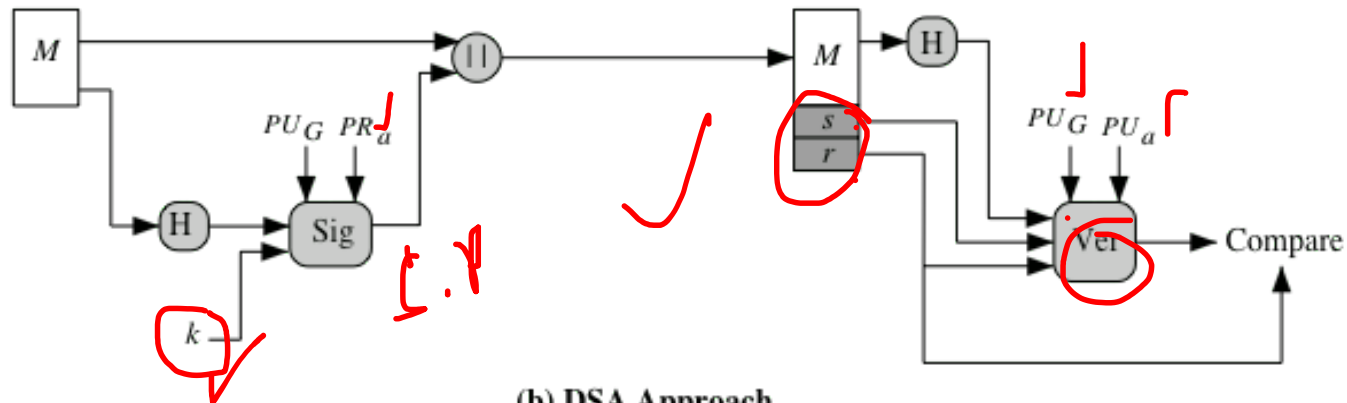
# NIST's Digital Signature Algorithm

- Published by NIST as Federal Information Processing Standard FIPS 186
- Makes use of the Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA)
- The latest version, FIPS 186-3, also incorporates digital signature algorithms based on RSA and on elliptic curve cryptography

# Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)



(a) RSA Approach



(b) DSA Approach

Figure 13.3 Two Approaches to Digital Signatures

RSA Demo: <https://kjur.github.io/jsrsasign/sample/sample-rsassign.html>

### Global Public Key Components

$p$  prime number where  $2^{L-1} < p < 2^L$   
 for  $512 \leq L \leq 1024$  and  $L$  a multiple of 64  
 i.e., bit length of between 512 and 1024 bits in  
 increments of 64 bits

$q$  prime divisor of  $(p-1)$ , where  $2^{159} < q < 2^{160}$   
 i.e., bit length of 160 bits

$g = h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p$   
 where  $h$  is any integer with  $1 < h < (p-1)$   
 such that  $h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p > 1$

### User's Private Key

$x$  random or pseudorandom integer with  $0 < x < q$

### User's Public Key

$y = g^x \bmod p$

### User's Per-Message Secret Number

$k$  = random or pseudorandom integer with  $0 < k < q$

### Signing

$$r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$$

$$s = [k^{-1}(H(M) + xr)] \bmod q$$

Signature =  $(r, s)$

### Verifying

$$w = s^{-1} \bmod q$$

$$u_1 = [H(M')w] \bmod q$$

$$u_2 = (r')w \bmod q$$

$$v = [(g^{u_1} y^{u_2}) \bmod p] \bmod q$$

TEST:  $v = r'$

$M$  = message to be signed  
 $H(M)$  = hash of  $M$  using SHA-1  
 $M', r', s'$  = received versions of  $M, r, s$

Figure 13.4 The Digital Signature Algorithm (DSS)

# DSA Signing and Verifying

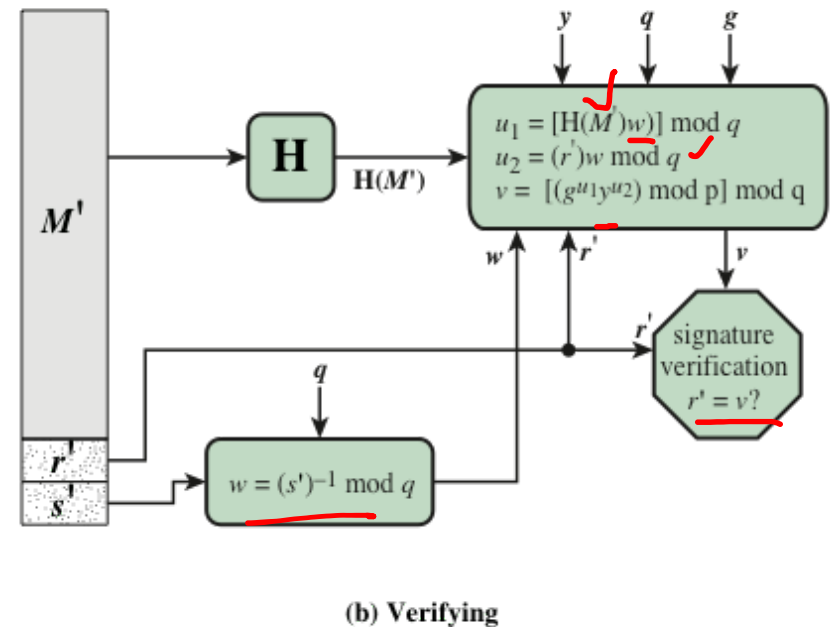
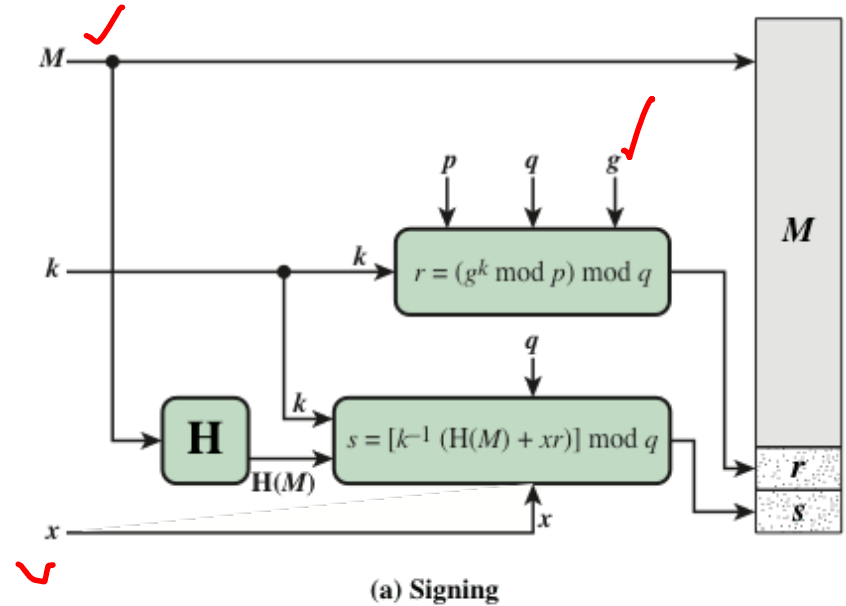


Figure 13.5 DSA Signing and Verifying

# NIST Updates on DSS

- July 2013: <https://www.nist.gov/news-events/news/2013/07/nist-releases-updates-digital-signature-standard>



# Summary

- Message authentication codes
- Secure hash functions
- Digital Signatures