# Cryptography

# Message Authentication Code (MAC)

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## **Topic**

- 12.1 Message Authentication Requirements
- **12.2** Message Authentication Functions

Message Encryption

Message Authentication Code

- 12.3 Requirements for Message Authentication Codes
- **12.4 Security of MACs**

Brute-Force Attacks

Cryptanalysis

## Message Authentication Code (MAC)

- One of the most fascinating and complex areas of cryptography is that of message authentication and the related area of digital signatures.
- It would be impossible, in anything less than book length, to exhaust all the cryptographic functions and protocols that have been proposed or implemented for message authentication and digital signatures.
- Instead, the purpose of this chapter and the next is to provide a broad overview of the subject and to develop a **systematic means of describing the various approaches**.

## Message Authentication Code (MAC)

- Look at
- Requirement of Message authentication & Digital Signature
- Message authentication known as message authentication code (MAC).
- Security consideration of MAC

- In the context of **communications across a network**, the following attacks can be identified towards Message.
- 1. **Disclosure**: Release of message contents to any person or process not possessing the appropriate cryptographic key.
- 2. **Traffic analysis**: Discovery of the **pattern** of traffic between parties. In a connection-oriented application, the **frequency and duration of connections** could be determined. In either a connection-oriented or connectionless environment, the **number and length** of messages between parties could be determined.
- 3. **Masquerade**: **Insertion of messages** into the network from a **fraudulent source**. This includes the creation of messages by an opponent that are purported to come from an authorized entity. Also included are **fraudulent acknowledgments** of message receipt or nonreceipt by someone other than the message recipient.

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- 4. **Content modification**: Changes to the contents of a message, including inser- tion, deletion, transposition, and modification.
- 5. **Sequence modification**: Any modification to a sequence of messages between parties, including insertion, deletion, and reordering.
- 6. Timing modification: Delay or replay of messages.
  - In a **connection-oriented application**, an entire session or sequence of messages could be a **replay** of some previous valid session, or individual messages in the **sequence** could be delayed or replayed.
  - In a connectionless application, an individual message (e.g., datagram) could be delayed or replayed.

3 through 6 in the foregoing list are generally regarded as message authentication

- In the context of **communications across a network**, the following **attacks** can be identified.
- 7. Source repudiation: Denial of transmission of message by source.
- 8. **Destination repudiation**: **Denial** of **receipt** of message by destination.

7 come under the heading of **digital signatures**.

8 may require a combination of the use of **digital signatures** and a protocol designed to counter this attack.

#### Summary

1 & 2 - in the realm of message confidentiality.

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7 come under the heading of **digital signatures**.

Generally, a **digital signature** technique will also **counter** some or all of the attacks listed under items (3) through (6).

8 may require a combination of the use of **digital signatures and a protocol designed** to counter this attack.

- message authentication
- is a procedure to verify that received messages come from the alleged source and have not been altered.
- may also verify sequencing and timeliness.

• A digital signature is an authentication technique that also includes measures to counter repudiation by the source.

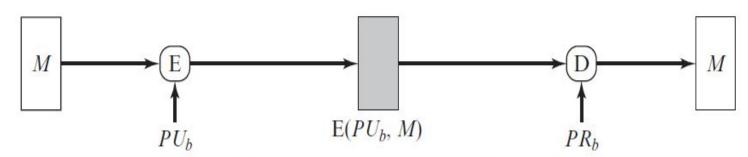
- Any message authentication or digital signature mechanism has two levels of functionality.
- 1. At the **lower level**, there must be some sort of function that **produces an authenticator**: a value to be **used to authenticate a message**.
- This lower-level function is then used as a primitive in a <u>higher-level authentication</u> protocol that enables a receiver to verify the authenticity of a message.

- Functions that produce the authenticator 3 type as follows
- 1. Hash function: A function that maps a message of any length into a fixed-length hash value, which serves as the authenticator
- 2. Message encryption: The ciphertext of the entire message serves as its authenticator
  - 1. Symmetric key and Asymmetric key encryption both provide measure of authentication.
- **3. Message authentication code (MAC):** A **function** of the message and a **secret key** that produces a fixed-length value that serves as the authenticator

- Fig (a) If no other party knows the key, then confidentiality is provided: No other party can recover the plaintext of the message
- B knows A possess the Key K and can generate the message

(a) Symmetric encryption: confidentiality and authentication

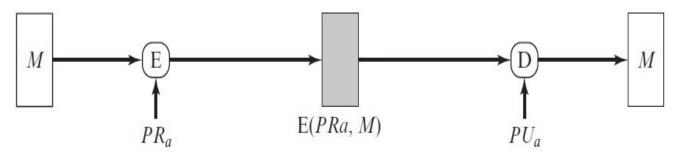
 Fig (b) public-key encryption provides confidentiality but not authentication



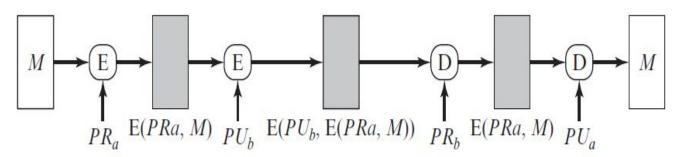
(b) Public-key encryption: confidentiality

 Fig (c) To provide authentication, A uses its private key to encrypt the message, and B uses A's public key to decrypt

 Fig (d) To provide both confidentiality and authentication,



(c) Public-key encryption: authentication and signature



(d) Public-key encryption: confidentiality, authentication, and signature

- we may say that symmetric encryption provides authentication as well as confidentiality. Is this true?
- However, this flat statement needs to be qualified.
- Consider exactly what is happening at B. Given a decryption function D and a secret key
   K, the destination will accept any input X and produce output Y = D(K, X).
- If X is the ciphertext of a **legitimate message M** produced by the corresponding encryption function, then **Y** is some plaintext message M. Otherwise, **Y** will likely be a meaningless sequence of bits.

- There may need to be some automated means of determining at B whether Y is legitimate plaintext and therefore must have come from A.
- The implications of the **line of reasoning** in the preceding paragraph are profound from the **point of view of authentication**.
- Suppose the message M can be any arbitrary bit pattern. In that case, there is no way to determine automatically, at the destination, whether an incoming message is the ciphertext of a legitimate message.
- This conclusion is incontrovertible: If **M** can be any bit pattern, then regardless of the value of X, the value Y = D(K,X) is some bit pattern and therefore must be accepted as authentic plaintext.

- PUBLIC-KEY ENCRYPTION .
- The straightforward use of public-key encryption provides confidentiality but not authentication.
- The source (A) uses the public key P<sub>U</sub>b of the destination (B) to encrypt M.
- Because only B has the corresponding private key P<sub>R</sub>b, only B can decrypt the message.
- This scheme provides no authentication, because any opponent could also use B's public key to encrypt a message and claim to be A.
- To provide authentication, A uses its **private key** to encrypt the message, and B uses A's public key to decrypt (Figure c).

- PUBLIC-KEY ENCRYPTION.
- The message must have come **from A because A is the only party that possesses PRa** and therefore the only party with the information necessary to construct ciphertext that can be decrypted with PUa.
- Again, the same reasoning as before applies: There must be some internal structure to the plaintext so
  that the receiver can distinguish between well-formed plaintext and random bits.
- To provide both confidentiality and authentication,
- A can encrypt M first using its private key, => the digital signature, and
- then using **B's public key**, => **confidentiality** (Figure d).
- disadvantage
- The **disadvantage** of this approach is that the public-key algorithm, which is complex, must be exercised **four times rather** than two in each communication.

- An alternative authentication technique involves the use of a secret key to generate a small fixed-size block of data, known as a cryptographic checksum or MAC, that is appended to the message.
- This technique assumes that two communicating parties, say A and B, share a common secret key K. When A has a message to send to B, it calculates the MAC as a **function of the message and the key**:

$$MAC = C(K, M)$$

#### where

M = input message

C = MAC function

K = shared secret key

MAC = message authentication code

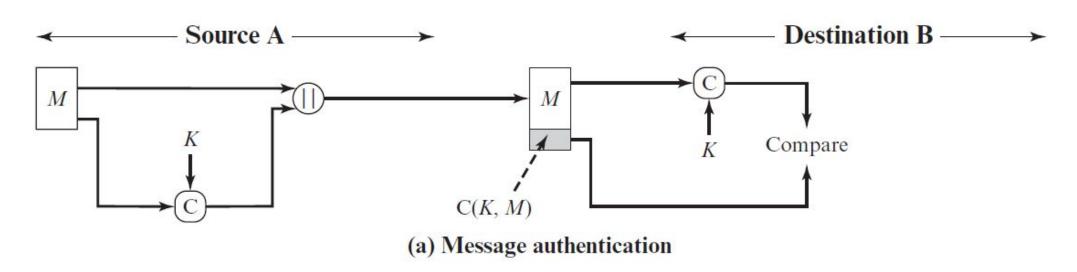
- The message plus MAC are transmitted to the intended recipient.
- The **recipient** performs the **same calculation** on the received message, using the **same secret key**, to generate a new MAC.
- The **received MAC** is compared to the **calculated MAC**. If we assume that only the receiver and the sender know the identity of the secret key, and if the received MAC matches the calculated MAC, then
- 1. The receiver is assured that the message has **not been altered**.

If an **attacker alters** the message but **does not alter the MAC**, then the receiver's calculation of the **MAC** will differ from the **received MAC**.

Because the **attacker** is assumed not to know the secret key, the attacker cannot alter the MAC to correspond to the alterations in the message.

2. The **receiver is assured** that the message is from the alleged sender. Because **no one else knows the secret key,** no one else could prepare a message with a proper MAC.

3. If the **message includes a sequence number** (such as is used with HDLC, X.25, 3. and TCP), then the **receiver can be assured of the proper sequence** because an attacker cannot successfully alter the sequence number.



- A MAC function is similar to encryption.
- One difference is that the MAC algorithm need not be reversible, as it must be for decryption.
- In general, the MAC function is a many-to-one function.
- The domain of the function consists of messages of some arbitrary length, whereas the range consists of all possible MACs and all possible keys.
- If an n-bit MAC is used, then there are  $2^n$  possible MACs, whereas there are N possible messages with N >>  $2^n$ . Furthermore, with a k-bit key, there are  $2^k$  possible keys.

- Brute Force attacks
- Cryptoanalysis

- Brute Force attacks
- A brute-force attack on a MAC is a more difficult undertaking than a brute-force attack on a hash function because it requires known message-tag pairs.
- To attack a hash code, we can proceed in the following way. Given a fixed message x with n-bit hash code h = H(x), a brute-force method of finding a collision is to pick a random bit string y and check if H(y) = H(x). The attacker can do this repeatedly offline.
- Whether an off-line attack can be used on a MAC algorithm depends on the relative size of the key and the tag.

Known message-tag pairs refer to a scenario where an attacker has access to a set of messages along with their corresponding Message Authentication Codes (MACs) or cryptographic tags. These pairs can be used as the basis for various attacks

- Brute Force attacks
- security property of a MAC algorithm, which can be expressed as follows.
- Computation resistance: Given one or more text-MAC pairs  $[x_i, MAC(K, x_i)]$ ,
- it is **computationally infeasible** to compute any text-MAC pair [x, MAC(K, x)] for any new input  $x \neq x_i$ .

- There are **two lines of attack** possible:
- attack the **key space** and
- Attack the MAC value.

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- Brute Force attacks
- attack the key space
- If an attacker can determine the MAC key, then it is possible to generate a valid MAC value for any input x.
- Suppose the **key size is k bits** and that the attacker has one **known text-tag pair.** Then the attacker can **compute the n-bit tag on the known text for all possible keys**.
- At least **one key is guaranteed** to produce the correct tag, namely, the valid key that was initially used to produce the known text-tag pair.
- This attack takes a level of **effort proportional** to 2<sup>k</sup>

- Brute Force attacks
- attack the key space
- because the MAC is a many-to-one mapping, there may be other keys that produce the correct value. => more than one key is found to produce the correct value, additional text-tag pairs must be tested.
- It can be shown that the level of **effort drops off rapidly** with each **additional text-MAC** pair and that the overall level of effort is roughly 2<sup>k</sup> [MENE97].

- Brute Force attacks
- Attack the MAC value.
- An attacker can also work on the tag without attempting to recover the key.
- Here, the objective is to **generate a valid tag** for a **given message**

or

- to find a message that matches a given tag.
- In either case, the **level of effort is comparable** to that for attacking the **one-way or weak collision-resistant property of a hash code**, or Y.
- In the case of the MAC, the attack cannot be conducted off line without further input; the attacker will require chosen text-tag pairs or knowledge of the key.

#### Cryptoanalysis

- As with encryption algorithms and hash functions, cryptanalytic attacks on MAC algorithms seek to exploit some property of the algorithm to perform some attack other than an exhaustive search.
- The way to measure the resistance of a MAC algorithm to cryptanalysis is to compare its strength to the effort required for a brute- force attack.
- That is, an ideal MAC algorithm will require a cryptanalytic effort greater than or equal to the brute-force effort.
- There is much more variety in the structure of MACs than in hash functions, so it is difficult to generalize about the cryptanalysis of MACs.
- Furthermore, far less work has been done on developing such attacks.

# **Thank You**