

Introduction to Cryptography

Lecture 3

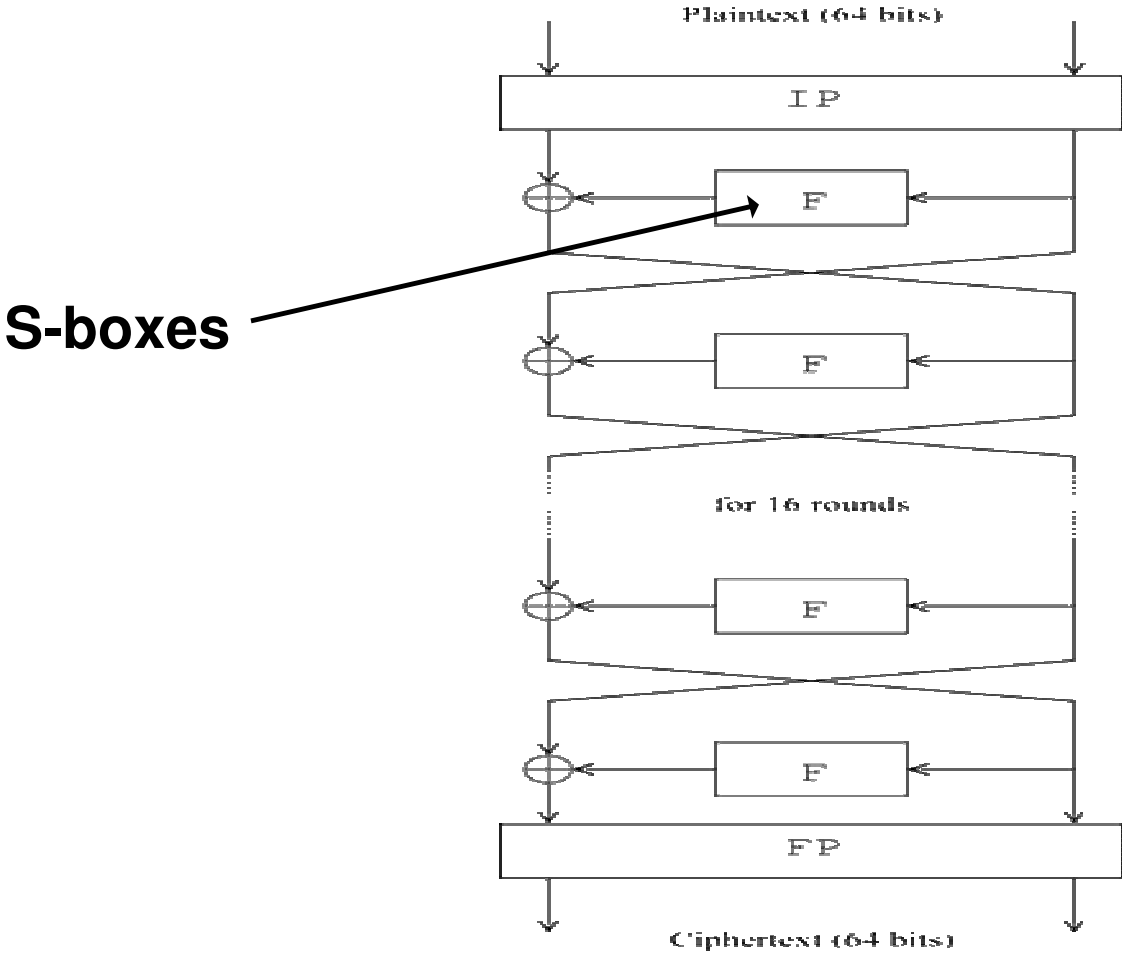
Differential cryptanalysis
Message authentication

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Plan

- Today
 - Differential cryptanalysis
 - Message authentication
 - Hash function
- Next week
 - No class
- Following that
 - Public key cryptography
 - Number theory

DES diagram



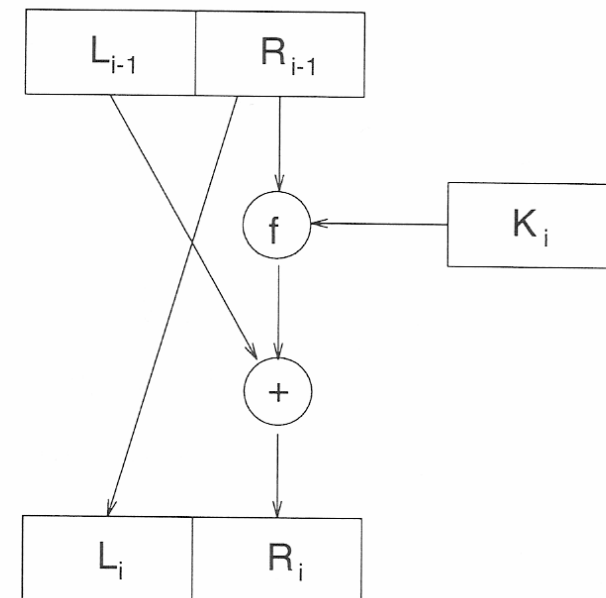
Differential Cryptanalysis [Biham-Shamir]

- The first attack to reduce the overhead of breaking DES to below exhaustive search
- Very powerful when applied to other encryption algorithm

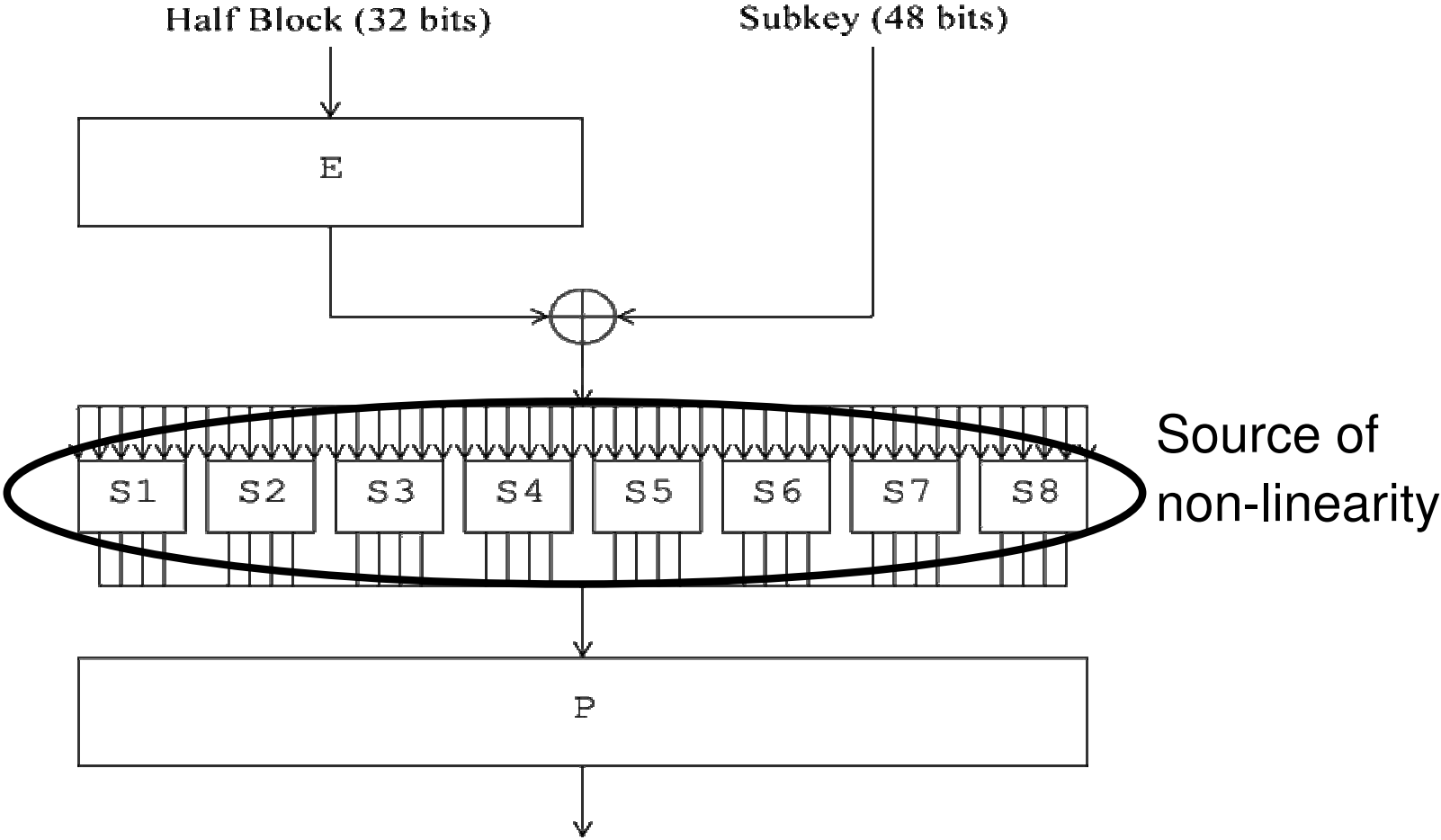
- Depends on the structure of the encryption algorithm
- Observation: all operations except for the s-boxes are linear
- Linear operations:
 - $a = b \oplus c$
 - a = the bits of b in (known) permuted order
 - a = the bits of c in (known) permuted order
- Linear relations can be exposed by solving a system of linear equations

A Linear F in a Feistel Network?

- Suppose F is linear
- E.g., $F(R_{i-1}, K_i) = R_{i-1} \oplus K_i$
- Then $R_i = L_{i-1} \oplus R_{i-1} \oplus K_i$
 $L_i = R_{i-1}$
- Write L_{16}, R_{16} as linear functions of L_0, R_0 and K .
 - Given L_0, R_0 and L_{16}, R_{16} Solve and find K .
- F must therefore be non-linear.
- It is the only source of non-linearity in DES.



DES F functions



Differential Cryptanalysis

- The S-boxes are non-linear
- We study the differences between two encryptions of two different plaintexts
- Notation:
 - The plaintexts are P and P^*
 - Their difference: $P' = P \oplus P^*$
 - Let X and X^* be two intermediate values, for P and P^* , respectively, in the encryption process.
 - Their difference is $x' = x \oplus x^*$

The advantage of looking at XORs

- It's easy to predict the difference of the results of linear operations
- Unary operations, (e.g. P is a permutation of the bits of X)
 - $(P(X))' = P(x) \oplus P(x^*) = P(x')$
- XOR
 - $(X \oplus Y)' = (x \oplus y) \oplus (x^* \oplus y^*) = x' \oplus y'$
- Mixing the key
 - $(X \oplus K)' = (x \oplus k) \oplus (x^* \oplus k) = x \oplus x^* = x'$
 - The result here is key independent (the key disappears)

Differences and S-boxes

- S-box: a function (table) from 6 bit inputs to 4 bit output
- X and X^* are inputs to the same S-box, and we know their difference $X' = X \oplus X^*$.
- $Y = S(X)$
- When $X' = 0$, $X = X^*$, and therefore $Y = S(X) = S(X^*) = Y^*$, and $Y' = 0$.
- When $X' \neq 0$, $X \neq X^*$ and we don't know Y' for sure, but we can investigate its distribution.
- For example,

Distribution of Y' for $S1$

- $X' = 110100$
- $2^6 = 64$ input pairs, $\{ (000000, 110100), (000001, 110101), \dots \}$
- For each pair compute xor of outputs of $S1$
- E.g., $S1(000000) = 1110$, $S1(110100) = 1001$. $Y' = 0111$.

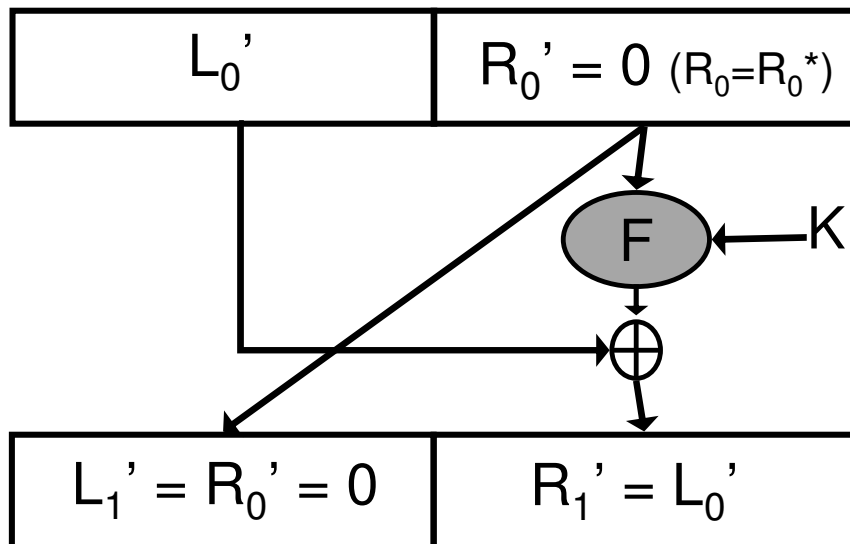
0000	0001	0010	0011	0100	0101	0110	0111
0	8	16	6	2	0	0	12
1000	1001	1010	1011	1100	1101	1110	1111
6	0	0	0	0	8	0	6

Differential Probabilities

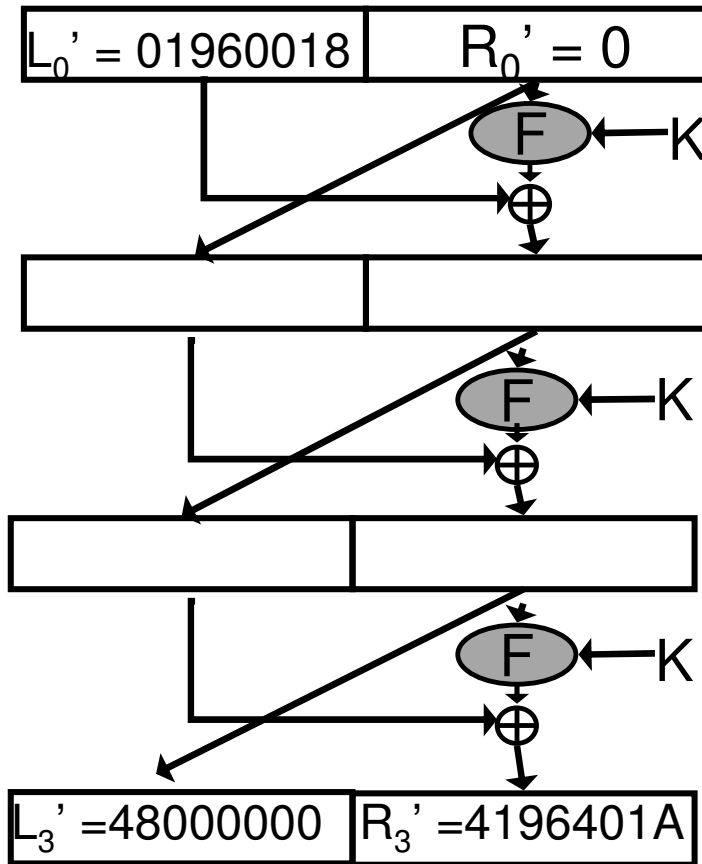
- The probability of $X' \Rightarrow Y'$ is the probability that a pair of difference X' results in a pair of difference Y' (for a given S-box).
- Namely, the entries in the table divided by 64.
- Differential cryptanalysis uses entries with large values
 - $X'=0 \Rightarrow Y'=0$
 - Entries with value 16/64.

Warmup

Inputs: L_0R_0 , $L_0^*R_0^*$, s.t. $R_0=R_0^*$.
Their xor is $L_0'R_0'$



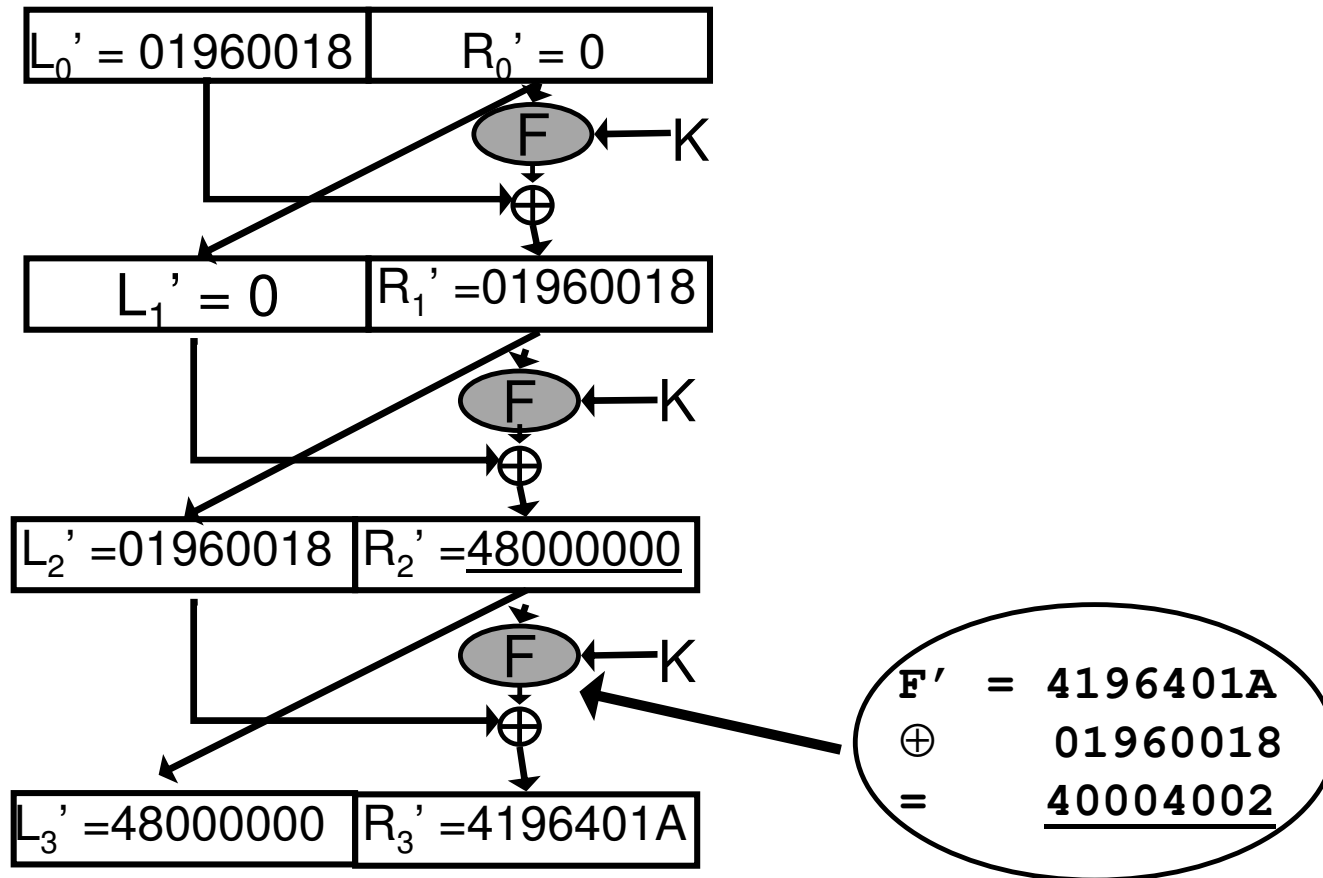
3 Round DES



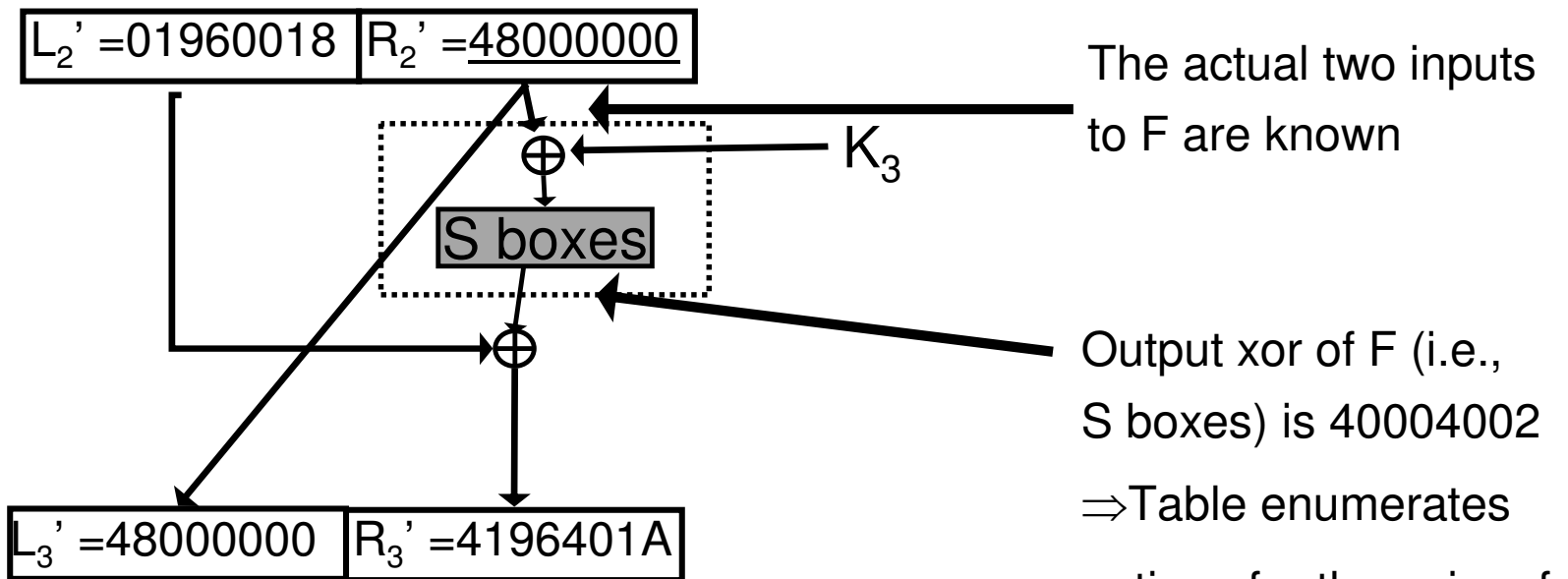
Known plaintext/ciphertext differences

Also, save actual ciphertext values

Intermediate differences equal to plaintext/ciphertext differences



Finding K



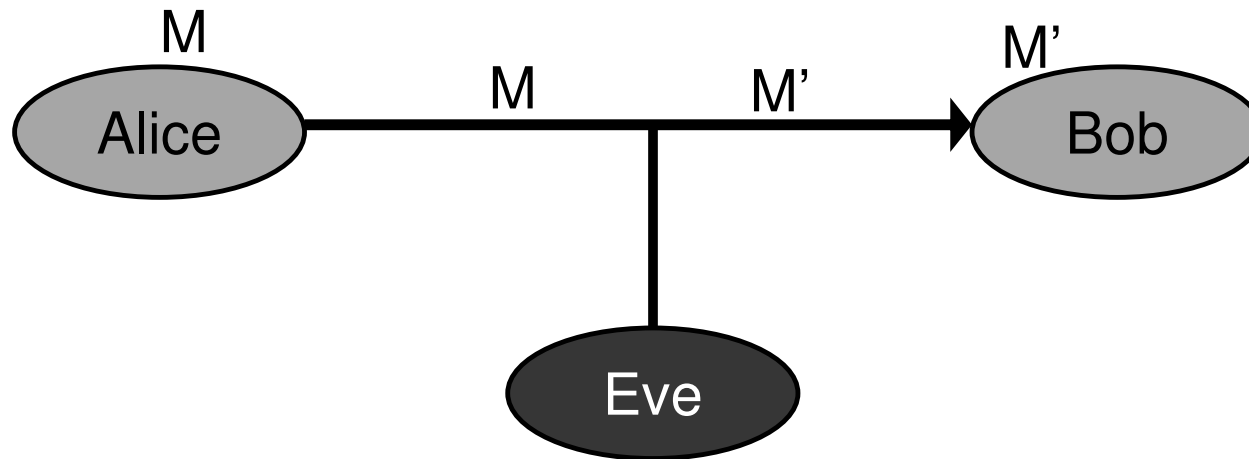
Find which K_3 maps the inputs to an s-box input pair that results in the output pair!

DES with more than 3 rounds

- Carefully choose pairs of plaintexts with specific xor, and determine xor of pairs of intermediate values at various rounds.
- E.g., if $L_0' = 40080000_x$, $R_0' = 04000000_x$
Then, with probability $1/4$, $L_3' = 04000000_x$, $R_3' = 40080000_x$
- 8 round DES is broken given 2^{14} chosen plaintexts.
- 16 round DES is broken given 2^{47} chosen plaintexts...

Data Integrity, Message Authentication

- Challenge: an *active* adversary might change messages exchanged between Alice and Bob



- Authentication is orthogonal to secrecy. A relevant challenge regardless of whether encryption is applied.

One Time Pad

- OTP is a perfect cipher, yet provides no authentication
 - Plaintext $x_1x_2\dots x_n$
 - Key $k_1k_2\dots k_n$
 - Ciphertext $c_1=x_1\oplus k_1, c_2=x_2\oplus k_2, \dots, c_n=x_n\oplus k_n$
- Adversary changes, e.g., c_2 to $1\oplus c_2$
- User decrypts $1\oplus x_2$
- Error-detection codes are insufficient

Definitions

- Scenario: Alice and Bob share a secret key K .
- Authentication algorithm (Message Authentication Code): $MAC_K(m)$.
- Verification algorithm: $V_K(m, a)$.
 - $V_K(m, MAC_K(m)) = \text{accept}$.
 - For $a \neq MAC_K(m)$, $V_K(m, a) = \text{reject}$.
- Common usage:
 - Every message m is sent as $(m, MAC_K(m))$.
 - Recipient receives (m, a) , computes $MAC_K(m)$.
 - $V_K(m, a) = 1$ iff $MAC_K(m) = a$.

Requirements

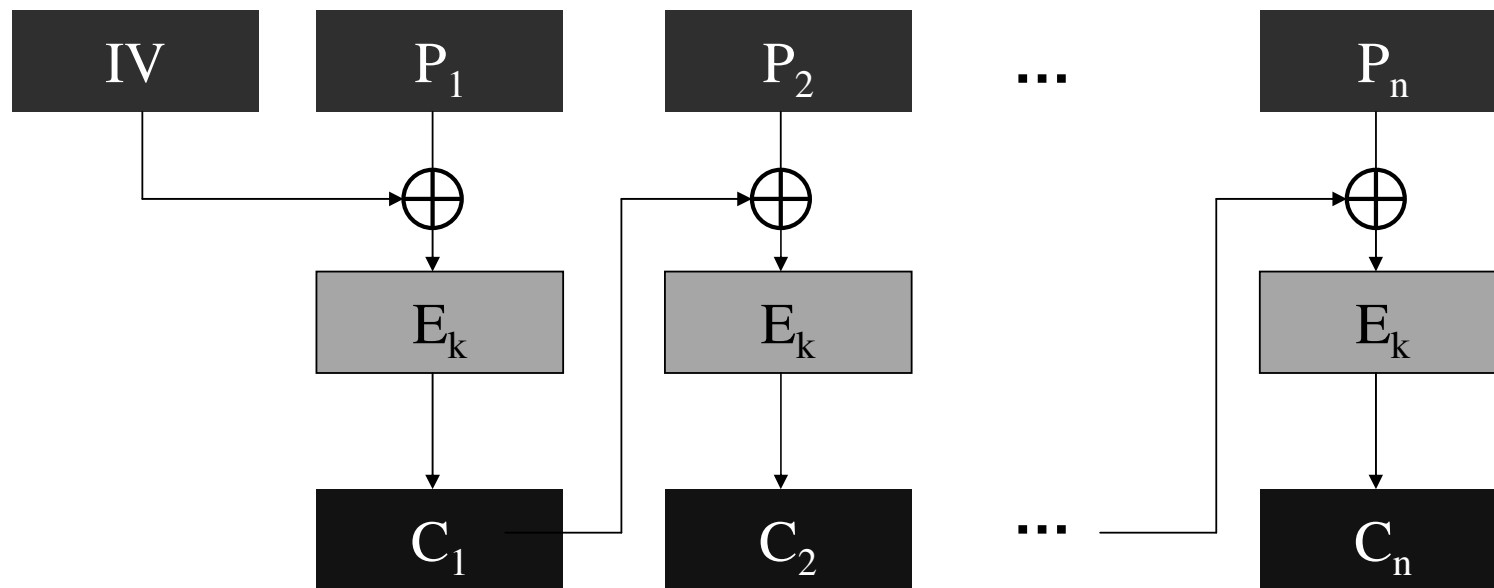
- Security: The adversary,
 - Knows the MAC algorithm (but not K).
 - Is given many pairs $(m_i, MAC_K(m_i))$, where the m_i values might also be chosen by the adversary (chosen plaintext).
 - Cannot compute $(m, MAC_K(m))$ for any new m ($\forall i m \neq m_i$).
 - The adversary must not even compute $MAC_K(m)$ for a message m which is “meaningless” (since we don’t know the context of the attack).
- Efficiency: output must be of fixed length, and as short as possible.
 - \Rightarrow The MAC function is not 1-to-1.

Constructing MACs

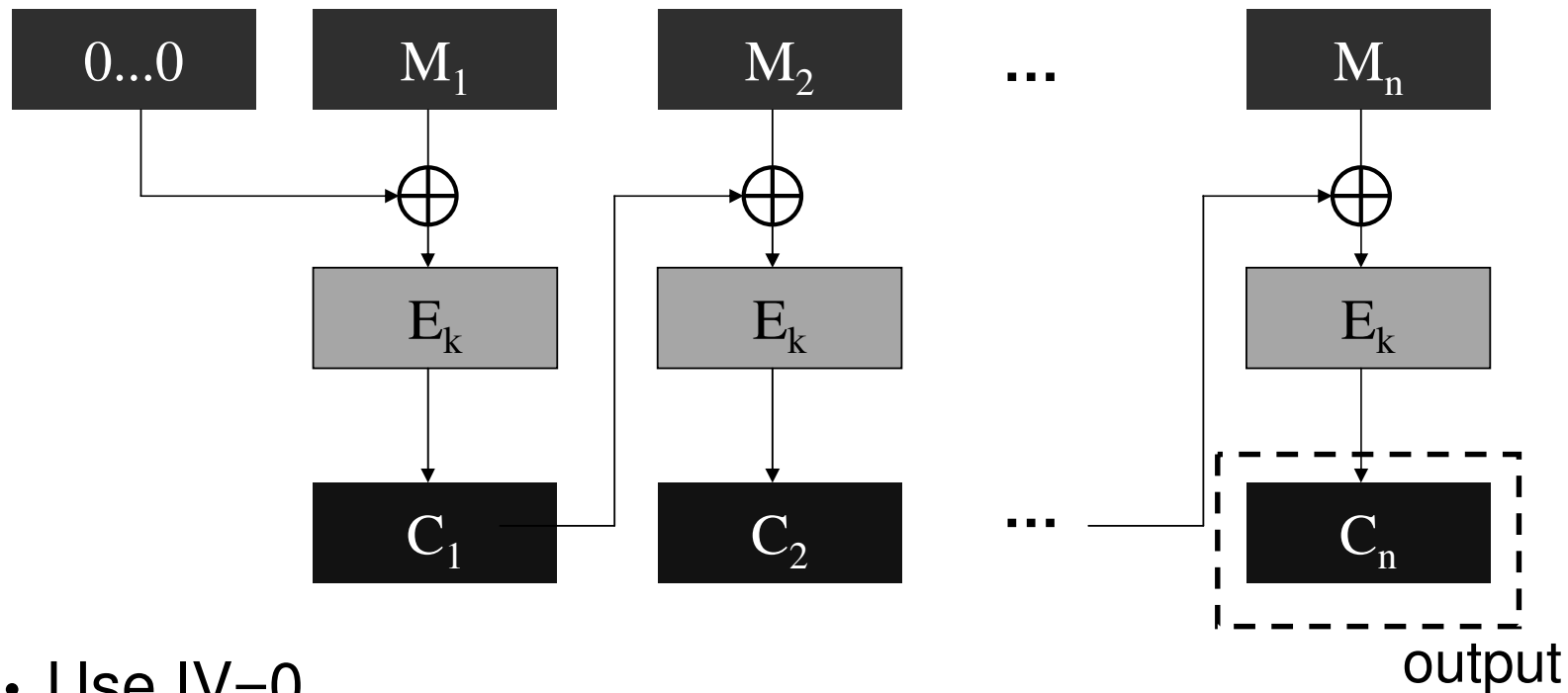
- Based on block ciphers (CBC-MAC)
- Based on hash functions
 - More efficient
 - At the time, encryption technology was controlled (export restricted) and it was preferable to use other means when possible

CBC

- Reminder: CBC encryption
- Plaintext block is XORed with previous ciphertext block



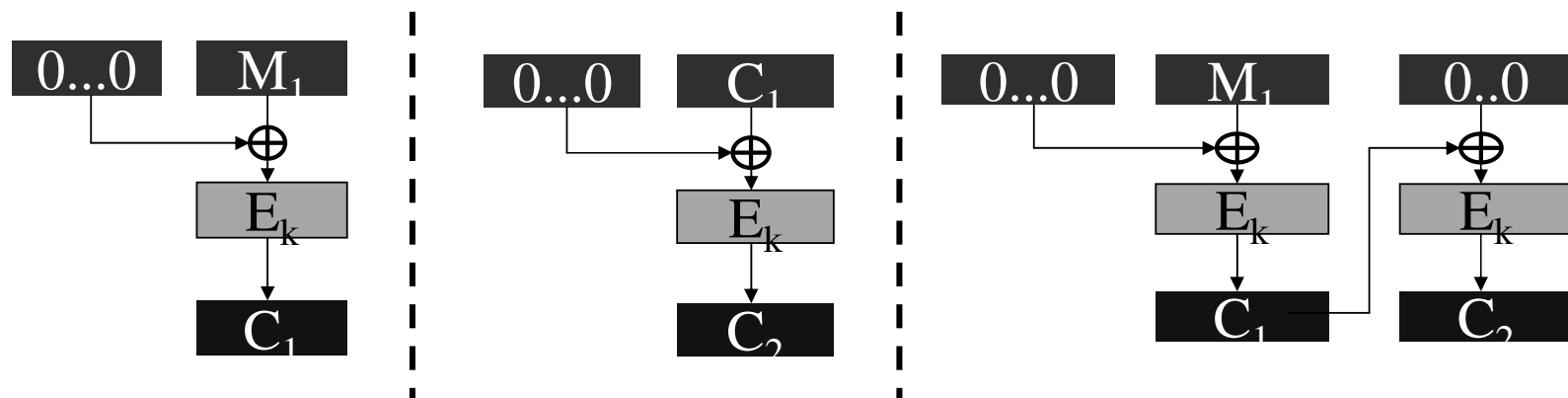
CBC MAC



- Use $IV=0$.
- Encrypt M in CBC mode, using the MAC key. Discard C_1, \dots, C_{n-1} and define $MAC_K(M_1, \dots, M_n) = C_n$.

Security of CBC-MAC

- Claim: if E_K is pseudo-random then CBC-MAC, applied to *fixed length messages*, is resilient to forgery.
- But, insecure if messages of different lengths are allowed
 - Get $C_1 = \text{CBC-MAC}_K(M_1) = E_K(0 \oplus M_1)$
 - Ask for MAC of C_1 , i.e., $C_2 = \text{CBC-MAC}_K(C_1) = E_K(0 \oplus C_1)$
 $= E_K(C_1 \oplus 0) = E_K(E_K(0 \oplus M_1) \oplus 0) = \text{CBC-MAC}_K(M_1 \parallel 0)$



CBC-MAC for variable length messages

- Solution 1: The first block of the message is set to be its length. I.e., to authenticate M_1, \dots, M_n , apply CBC-MAC to (n, M_1, \dots, M_n) .
 - Drawback: The message length (n) has to be known in advance.
- “Solution 2”: apply CBC-MAC to (M_1, \dots, M_n, n)
 - Message length does not have to be known in advance
 - But, this scheme is broken
- Solution 3: (preferable)
 - Use a second key K' .
 - Compute $\text{MAC}_{K, K'}(M_1, \dots, M_n) = E_{K'}(\text{MAC}_K(M_1, \dots, M_n))$
 - Essentially same overhead as CBC-MAC

Hash functions

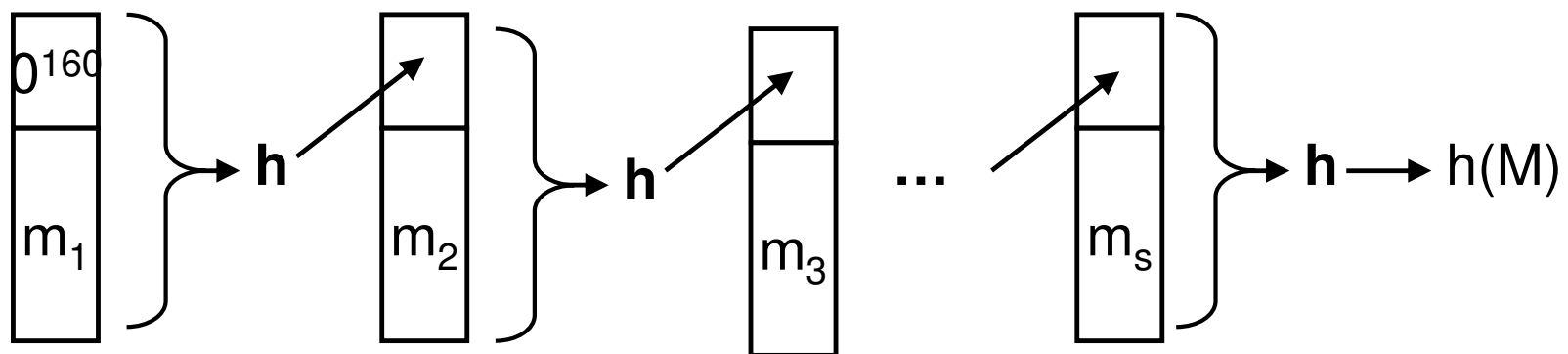
- A hash function $h:X \rightarrow Z$ maps long inputs to fixed size outputs. ($|X| > |Z|$)
- No secret key. The hash function algorithm is public.
- There are collisions ($x \neq y$ for which $h(x) = h(y)$).
- Weak collision resistance: for any $x \in X$, given x , it is hard to find $x' \neq x$ such that $h(x) = h(x')$. (Also known as “universal one-way hash”, or “target collision resistance”).
- Strong collision resistance: it is hard to find any x, x' for which $h(x) = h(x')$.
- Real world hash functions: MD5, SHA-1.

The Birthday Paradox

- For 23 people chosen at random, the probability that two of them have the same birthday is $\frac{1}{2}$.
- (compare to: the probability that one or more of them have the same birthday as G.W. Bush is about $\frac{23}{365}$ (more accurately, $1-(1-1/365)^{23}$.)
- More generally, for a random $h: X \rightarrow Z$, if we choose $s = 1.17|Z|^{1/2}$ elements of Z at random, the probability that two of them are mapped to the same image is $> \frac{1}{2}$.
- Implication: it's harder to achieve strong collision resistance
 - Hash function with a 40 bit output
 - Find x, x' with $h(x) = h(x')$ after about 1,117,000 tries.
 - Find $x \neq 0$ s.t. $h(x) = h(0)$ after about 2^{39} attempts.

Hash functions

- Input block length is usually 512 bits ($|X|=512$)
- Output length is at least 160 bits (birthday attacks)
- Extending the domain to arbitrary inputs
 - Suppose $h:\{0,1\}^{512} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{160}$
 - Input: $M=m_1\dots m_s$, $|m_i|=512-160=352$.
 - $y_0=0^{160}$. $y_i=h(y_{i-1},m_i)$. $h(M)=y_s$.
 - Why is it secure? What about different length inputs?



Basing MACs on Hash Functions

- Hash functions are not keyed. MAC_K uses a key.
- Idea: MAC by combining message and a secret key, and hashing with a collision resistant hash function.
 - E.g. $\text{MAC}_K(m) = h(k,m)$. (insecure..., given $\text{MAC}_K(m)$ can compute $\text{MAC}_K(m|m')$.)
 - $\text{MAC}_K(m) = h(m,k)$. (insecure..., use a birthday attack to find m,m' such that $h(m)=h(m')$.)
- Difficulty:
 - Want to prove that if MAC is insecure than so is hash function h .
 - Insecurity of MAC: adversary can generate $\text{MAC}_K(m)$ without knowing k .
 - Insecurity of h : adversary finds collisions ($x \neq x'$, $h(x)=h(x')$.)

HMAC

- Input: message m , a key K , and a hash function h .
- $\text{HMAC}_K(m) = h(K \oplus \text{opad}, h(K \oplus \text{ipad}, m))$
 - where ipad , opad are 64 byte long fixed strings
 - K is 64 byte long (if shorter, append 0s to get 64 bytes).
- Overhead: as applying h to m , plus an additional invocation to a short string.

- It was proven [BCK] that if HMAC is broken then either
 - h is not collision resistant (even when the initial block is random and secret)
 - The output of h is not “unpredictable” (when the initial block is random and secret)
- HMAC is used everywhere (SSL, IPsec).

What we learned today

- Differential cryptanalysis of DES
 - Depends on the structure of the cipher
- Message authentication
 - CBC MAC
 - Hash functions
 - The birthday paradox
 - HMAC