

# Introduction to cryptology (GBIN8U16)



## Message Authentication Codes, LFSRs

Pierre Karpman

`pierre.karpman@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr`

`https://www-ljk.imag.fr/membres/Pierre.Karpman/tea.html`

2018-02-07

# Authentication (in crypto)

---

Crypto is not all about encrypting. One may also want to:

- ▶ Get access to a building/car/spaceship
- ▶ Electronically sign a contract/software/Git repository
- ▶ Detect tampering on a message
- ▶ Detect “identity theft”
- ▶ Etc.

⇒ domain of digital signatures and/or message authentication codes (MACs)

# A major rule

---

In the case of a symmetric channel (e.g. on a network):

- ▶ It may be fine to only authenticate
- ▶ It is *never okay* to only encrypt
  - ▶ Recommended reading: *Attacking the IPsec Standards in Encryption-only Configurations* (Degabriele and Paterson, 2007; <https://eprint.iacr.org/2007/125>)

⇒ "Authenticated encryption" (This is hard to do properly.)

# Today: MACs (symmetric authentication)

---

## Message authentication code (MAC)

A MAC is a mapping  $\mathcal{M} : \mathcal{K}(\times\mathcal{R}) \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}$  that maps a key, message (and possibly a (random) nonce) to a *tag*.

- ▶  $\mathcal{K}$  is for instance  $\{0, 1\}^{128}$  (key space, secret)
- ▶  $\mathcal{R}$  is for instance  $\{0, 1\}^{64}$  (“nonce” space, public, either “random” or not)
- ▶  $\mathcal{X}$  is for instance  $\bigcup_{\ell < 2^{64}} \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$  (message space)
- ▶  $\mathcal{T}$  is for instance  $\{0, 1\}^{256}$  (“tag” space)

## MACs: what do we want?

---

Given a MAC  $\mathcal{M}(k, \cdot)$  with an unknown key, it should be hard to:

- ▶ Given  $m$ , find  $t$  s.t.  $\mathcal{M}(k, m) = t$  (*Universal forgery*)
- ▶ Find  $m, t$  s.t.  $\mathcal{M}(k, m) = t$  (*Existential forgery*)
- ▶ (Of course, retrieving  $k$  leads to those)

UF: ability to forge a tag for **any** message

EF: ability to forge a tag for **some** message

UF  $\Rightarrow$  EF

More generally, we want  $\mathcal{M}(k, \cdot)$  to be like a “random function”

# Attacking a MAC: what complexity?

---

The complexity of an attack depends (among others) on:

- ▶ Its time (T) complexity (“how many operations need to be computed?”)
- ▶ Its memory (M) complexity (“how much storage do I need?”)
  - ▶ The memory type: sequential? RAM?
- ▶ Its query/data (D) complexity (“how many black box/oracle access are needed?”)
  - ▶ The query type: known message, chosen message?
- ▶ Its success probability ( $p$ )

## Attacking a MAC: example

---

Take  $\mathcal{M} : \{0, 1\}^{128} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{64}$ . One has UF attacks with:

- ▶  $T = 1, p = 2^{-64}$
- ▶  $T = 2^{128}, M = 1, D = 3, p \approx 1$

And this *generically* (regardless of what  $\mathcal{M}$  is)

# Generic v. dedicated attacks

---

## Generic attack:

- ▶ Unavoidable (in a computational setting)
- ▶ Complexity only depends on security params & objectives
- ▶ Always work “with some probability”
- ▶ Dictates key, block sizes etc. (cf. first lecture)

## Dedicated attack:

- ▶ What “breaks” a specific scheme (primitive, protocol...)
- ▶ (Always) better than the corresponding generic attack



# Comments

---

- ▶ An algorithm may have no dedicated attack, but could be too weak against generic ones
  - ▶ Example: the Trivium stream cipher (80-bit keys)
- ▶ An algorithm may be broken (by a dedicated attack) but could still be used securely in practice. **THIS IS HOWEVER STRONGLY ADVISED AGAINST!**
  - ▶ Example: *preimages* for the MD4 hash function,  $T = 2^{95}$  (Zhong & Lai, 2012) instead of  $2^{128}$

# Examples

---

## Generic:

- ▶ Guessing the key (of a block cipher, a MAC, etc.)
- ▶ Guessing the tag (produced by a MAC)
- ▶ Finding collisions in the outputs of CBC encryption
- ▶ (Factoring an RSA modulus)

## Dedicated:

- ▶ (Finding a DES key using linear cryptanalysis)
- ▶ (Computing collisions for SHA-1 using differential cryptanalysis)
- ▶ (Recovering an RSA private key using continued fractions)

## Back to MACs: how to build 'em?

---

- ▶ From scratch
- ▶ Using a block cipher in a “MAC mode”
- ▶ Ditto, with a *hash function*
- ▶ Using a “polynomial” hash function
- ▶ Etc.

# MACs from block ciphers: CBC-MAC example

---

Observation:

- ▶ The last block of  $\text{CBC-ENC}(m)$  “strongly depends” on the entire message
- ▶  $\Rightarrow$  Take  $\text{MAC}(m) = \text{LastBlockOf}(\text{CBC-ENC}(m))$
- ▶ Not quite secure as is, but overall a sound idea (cf. TD)

Advantage:

- ▶ “Only” need a block cipher

Disadvantage:

- ▶ Not the fastest approach

$\Rightarrow$  Alternative: polynomial MACs

# Polynomials

---

## “Polynomials = vectors”

Let  $m = (m_0 \ m_1 \ \dots \ m_{n-1})$  be a vector of  $k^n$ , one can interpret it as  $M = m_0 + m_1X + \dots + m_{n-1}X^{n-1}$ , a degree- $(n-1)$  polynomial of  $k[X]$ .

## Polynomial evaluation

Let  $M \in k[X]$  be a degree- $(n-1)$  polynomial, the *evaluation* of  $M$  on an element of  $k$  is given by the map  $\text{eval}(M, \cdot) : x \mapsto m_0 + m_1x + \dots + m_{n-1}x^n$ .

# Polynomial hash functions

## Polynomial hash function

Let  $m \in k^n$  be a “message”. The “hash” of  $m \equiv M \in k[X]$  for the function  $\mathcal{H}_x$  is given by  $\text{eval}(M, x)$ .

Some properties:

$\mathcal{H}_x$  is linear (over  $k$ )

- ▶  $\mathcal{H}_x(a + b) = \mathcal{H}_x(a) + \mathcal{H}_x(b)$

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, \forall x \in k, \forall a \in k^n,$

- ▶  $\Pr[\mathcal{H}_x(b) = \mathcal{H}_x(a) : b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} k^n]$

- ▶  $= \Pr[\mathcal{H}_x(b - a) = 0 : b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} k^n]$

- ▶  $= \Pr[\text{eval}(B - A, x) = 0 : B \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} k[X]] \leq (n - 1) / \#k$

## How's that useful?

---

W.h.p.,  $\neq m \Rightarrow \neq \mathcal{H}_x(m)$

- ▶ E.g. take  $\#k \approx 2^{128}$ ,  $n = 2^{32}$ , the “collision probability” between two messages is  $\leq 2^{-96=32-128}$
- ▶ This is “optimum”

Problem: for a MAC, linearity is a weakness! (cf. TD)

- ▶ One way to solve this: encrypt the result of the hash with a block cipher!

## Toy polynomial MAC

Let  $\mathcal{H} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  be a polynomial hash function family,  $\mathcal{E} : \mathcal{K}' \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  be a block cipher. The MAC  $\mathcal{M} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{K}' \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  is defined as  $\mathcal{M}(k, k', m) = \mathcal{E}(k', \mathcal{H}_k(m))$ .

(Remark: not randomized)

Advantage of polynomial MACs:

- ▶ Fast
- ▶ Good and “simple” security
  - ▶ But still rely on block ciphers and friends!

Examples: UMAC; VMAC; Poly1305-AES; NaT (more sophisticated variant of the above), NaK, HaT, HaK



## Re: finite fields

---

Polynomial hash functions  $\Rightarrow$  need large finite fields (for good sec.)

Two options:

- ▶ *Prime fields*  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  for a large prime  $p$  (e.g.  $p = 2^{130} - 5$ )
- ▶ *Extension fields*  $\mathbb{F}_q$ ,  $q = p^n$  for a prime  $p$  (e.g.  $q = 2^{128}$ )

So:

- ▶ How do you “build” extension fields?

$\Rightarrow$  Let's see *Linear Feedback Shift Registers* (LFSRs) first

## LFSR (type 1)

An LFSR of length  $n$  over a field  $k$  is a map

$$\mathcal{L} : [s_{n-1}, s_{n-2}, \dots, s_0] \mapsto [s_{n-2} + s_{n-1}r_{n-1}, s_{n-3} + s_{n-1}r_{n-2}, \dots, s_0 + s_{n-1}r_1, s_{n-1}r_0]$$

where the  $s_i, r_i \in k$

## LFSR (type 2)

An LFSR of length  $n$  over a field  $k$  is a map

$$\mathcal{L} : [s_{n-1}, s_{n-2}, \dots, s_0] \mapsto [s_{n-2}, s_{n-3}, \dots, s_0, s_{n-1}r_{n-1} + s_{n-2}r_{n-2} + \dots + s_0r_0]$$

where the  $s_i, r_i \in k$

Theorem: The two above definitions are “equivalent”

# Characterization

---

An LFSR is fully determined by:

- ▶ Its base field  $k$
- ▶ Its state size  $n$
- ▶ Its feedback function  $(r_{n-1}, r_{n-2}, \dots, r_0)$

An LFSR may be used to generate an infinite sequence  $(U_m)$  (valued in  $k$ ):

- 1 Choose an initial state  $S = [s_{n-1}, \dots, s_0]$
- 2  $U_0 = S[n-1] = s_{n-1}$
- 3  $U_1 = \mathcal{L}(S)[n-1]$
- 4  $U_2 = \mathcal{L}^2(S)[n-1]$ , etc.

## Some properties

---

- ▶ The sequence generated by an LFSR is periodic (Q: Why?)
- ▶ Some LFSRs map non-zero initial states to the zero one (Q: Give an example?)
- ▶ Some LFSRs generate a sequence of maximal period (Q: What is it?)
- ▶ It is very easy to recover the feedback function of an LFSR from (enough outputs of) its generated sequence (Q: How?)

# A simple case: binary LFSRs

---

We will in fact mostly care about:

- LFSRs of type 1
- Over  $\mathbb{F}_2$

$\mathcal{L}$  becomes:

- 1 Shift bits to the left
- 2 If the (previous) msb was 1
  - 1 Add (XOR) 1 to some state positions (given by the feedback function)

## Some formalism

---

The feedback function of an LFSR can be written as a polynomial:

- ▶  $(r_{n-1}, r_{n-2}, \dots, r_0) \equiv X^n + r_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + r_1X + r_0$
- ▶  $\mathcal{L}$  corresponds to the multiplication by  $X \pmod{\text{the feedback polynomial}}$
- ▶ For simplicity: “just a notation”

Example:

- ▶ Take  $\mathcal{L}$  of length 4 over  $\mathbb{F}_2$  and feedback polynomial  $X^4 + X + 1$
- ▶  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{L} : (s_3, s_2, s_1, s_0) \mapsto (s_2, s_1, s_0 \oplus s_3, s_3)$

## Why should I care about those?

---

- ▶ Useful as a basis for stream ciphers (in the olden times, mostly)
- ▶ One way to define/compute with extension fields (e.g. example from previous slide; see more next week)
- ▶ (Notice that the structure is kind of like a Feistel)
- ▶ It's beautiful?

## Next week

---

- ▶ Hash functions (not linear ones this time)
- ▶ Extensions of  $\mathbb{F}_2$