

# Organization

Slides, TP / TD sheets and code (only for this part of the course):

[andreschrottenloher.github.io/pages/teaching.html](https://andreschrottenloher.github.io/pages/teaching.html)

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# Cryptanalysis

## Part I: Collisions and random functions

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# Introduction

# What is cryptanalysis?

- “Breaking” cryptosystems?
  - More generally: **evaluating the security**
- Looking for an **unpredicted** behavior of the scheme;
  - Looking for a better algorithm to attack it.

The situation differs between:

- asymmetric and symmetric crypto;
- the provable setting (modes of operation) & the unprovable setting (primitives).

# Remark

- Most often, our “attacks” are **infeasible** (and we know that)
- They are infeasible because of the resources (time / memory) or the attacker scenario is (looks?) impractical (related-key, etc.)
- We’re at the lowest level of cybersecurity, so we **cannot afford the smallest weakness**
- Besides, weaknesses have a tendency to become worse over time.

Important principles:

$$\text{Security} = \int_0^{+\infty} \text{Cryptanalysis effort } dt$$

**“We can only gain confidence through a continuous (public!) cryptanalysis effort”**

$$\frac{d(\text{attack complexity})}{dt} < 0$$

**“An attack will only improve over time”**

# Security levels

## Security level

- A security level is expressed in “bits of security”.
- 120 bits of security  $\simeq$  the attack requires  $2^{120}$  operations to execute.

## What is feasible “in practice”?

- $1000 \simeq 2^{10}$
- $4GHz \simeq 2^{32}$  operations per second on a CPU
- multi-core CPUs

With massively parallelized GPUs:  $2^{60}$  is accessible.

The Bitcoin network computes  $2^{90}$  SHA-256 per year using a massive amount of ASICs.

However computing  $2^{128}$  hashes would require more energy than vaporizing all the Earth's oceans  $\implies$  128 bits of security is good.

# Hash Function Security



# Hash functions

A **hash function** is a public function that takes a variable-length message and outputs a fixed-length digest:  $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ .

The “ideal” behavior of a hash function is to look like a completely random function  $\{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ .

## This lecture

- Focus on **compression functions** and / or **small-range hashing**: the input has size  $n + m$ .
- Typically used with the Merkle-Damgård domain extender to produce large-scale hash functions.

The hash function output should not give **any information** on the input.

# Preimage resistance

Fix  $H : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ .

## Preimage resistance

For  $t \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n$ , it should be difficult to find  $m$  such that  $t = H(m)$ .

- By brute force, this takes time  $\mathcal{O}(2^n)$  (to succeed with constant probability)
- So it should take time  $\mathcal{O}(2^n)$

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**Example:** password authentication.

- One stores only  $H(\text{password})$ .
- An attacker having access to the database cannot find the passwords.

# Second preimage resistance

Fix  $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ .

For  $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ , it should be difficult to find  $y \neq x$  such that  $H(y) = H(x)$ .

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# Second preimage resistance

Fix  $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ .

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**Example:** hash-and-sign signatures

- Sign  $H(\text{message})$
- Integrity of files
- One cannot **forge**: find another file with a valid signature

# Collision resistance

## Collision resistance

- Producing a collision (pair  $x \neq y$  such that  $H(x) = H(y)$ ) should take time  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$  (why? next slides)

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This is the same as long as the input size is  $\geq n$  bits.

# Chosen-prefix collisions

Fix  $p_1, p_2 \in \{0, 1\}^m$ , we look for a collision of the form:

$$H(p_1 \| m_1) = H(p_2 \| m_2)$$

- Yields practical attacks: forgery of certificates, malicious GPG / SSH keys
- Flame malware using chosen-prefix collisions on MD5

# On the existence of collisions / preimages

**There exists** collisions & preimages



# On the existence of collisions / preimages

**There exists** collisions & preimages (the message space is much bigger than the hash space).

There **exists** an algorithm that returns in **constant time** a collision for **any** hash function.

⇒ however, we don't know how to write it down.

# Some examples

## MD5 (broken)

- 128-bit hash (RFC 1321, Rivest, 1992)
- Collisions found (Wang, Yu, 2005)
- Forgery of certificates (Stevens et al., 2009)

## SHA-0 (broken)

- 160-bit hash (NSA, 1993)
- Collisions (theoretical) in 1998 (Joux, Chabaud)

## SHA-1 (broken)

- 160-bit hash
- Theoretical collisions in 2005 (Wang et al.)
- Practical collisions in 2017 (Stevens et al., 2009)
- Chosen-prefix collisions (Leurent, Peyrin, 2020)
- Still used a lot ...

# Current standards

## SHA-2

- Published by NSA in 2001
- Family of hash functions of 224, 256, 384, 512 bits

## SHA-3

- a.k.a. Keccak, winner of an open competition organized by NIST
- Sponge function, published in 2015
- Outputs of 224, 256, 384, 512 bits

# Random Functions

# Random functions

- What is a **truly random function**? It's a function that we picked at random.
- **Choice 1:** pick the entire function at random before running the algorithm;
- **Choice 2:** ("lazy") build the table of the function by picking random outputs whenever needed.

⇒ these two cases are equivalent.

For a **random function**  $\{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ , (second) preimages can be found in time  $\mathcal{O}(2^n)$ . This is **tight**.

⇒ a good hash function should offer the same guarantee.

# Interlude: birthday paradox

## Lemma

Let  $y_1, \dots, y_\ell$  be random (uniform) samples in a set of size  $N$ . Then there are two distinct  $i, j$  such that  $y_i = y_j$ :

- With prob. at most  $\ell^2/2N$
- With prob. at least  $\frac{\ell(\ell-1)}{4N}$  if  $\ell \leq \sqrt{2N}$

Intuition:

- Each pair has probability  $1/N$  of forming a collision
- There are  $\ell^2/2$  pairs  $\implies$  upper bound
- But they are not independent

# Interlude: birthday paradox (ctd.)

Write  $NoColl_i$  the event “no collision among  $y_1, \dots, y_i$ .”

$$\Pr [NoColl_\ell] = \Pr [NoColl_1] \cdot \Pr [NoColl_2 | NoColl_1] \cdots \Pr [NoColl_\ell | NoColl_{\ell-1}] \quad .$$

Also:  $\Pr [NoColl_1] = 1$ , and  $\Pr [NoColl_{i+1} | NoColl_i] = 1 - i/N$  (the new element must be different from the  $i$  previous ones)

$$\implies \Pr [NoColl_\ell] = \prod_{i=1}^{\ell-1} (1 - i/N)$$

Now we do some bounding:  $\forall i, 1 - i/N \leq e^{-i/N}$ :

$$\Pr [NoColl_\ell] \leq e^{-\sum_{i=1}^{\ell-1} i/N} = e^{-\ell(\ell-1)/2N} \quad .$$

And for  $x < 1$ ,  $1 - x/2 \geq e^{-x}$ :

$$\Pr [Coll] = 1 - \Pr [NoColl_\ell] \geq 1 - e^{-\ell(\ell-1)/2N} \geq \frac{\ell(\ell-1)}{4N} \quad .$$

# Interlude: birthday paradox (ctd.)

The average number of samples to pick before a collision occurs is:

$$\sqrt{\pi/2} \cdot 2^{n/2}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(\text{nb samples}) &= \sum_{\ell \geq 0} \Pr[\text{NoColl}_\ell] \simeq \sum_{\ell \geq 0} e^{-\ell^2/2^{n+1}} \simeq \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-x^2/2^{n+1}} dx \\ &= \sqrt{\pi/2} \cdot 2^{n/2} .\end{aligned}$$



# Random function collisions

Naive algorithm:

# Random function collisions

Naive algorithm:

1. pick  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$  random inputs  $x$
2. evaluate them and put the  $(H(x), x)$  pairs in a hash table
3. sort by output and find a collision

$\implies$  we have an algorithm in time  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$ , memory  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$  to find collisions.

For a **random function**  $\{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ , collisions can be found in time  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$ . This is **tight**.

$\implies$  a good hash function should offer the same guarantee.

# Multicollisions

An  $\ell$ -collision of  $H$  is a tuple of  $\ell$  distinct entries:  $x_1, \dots, x_\ell$  such that  $H(x_1) = \dots = H(x_\ell)$ .

For a **random function**  $\{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ ,  $\ell$ -collisions can be found in time  $\mathcal{O}\left(2^{\frac{\ell-1}{\ell}n}\right)$ . This is **tight**.

Algorithm: pick  $2^{\frac{\ell-1}{\ell}n}$  elements at random  $\implies 2^{(\ell-1)n}$  tuples  $\implies$  one of them satisfies the multicollision property.

## Pollard's Rho

# A chain

- Consider  $H : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  (if the input domain is too large, fix some of the input).
- Take  $x_0$  at random in  $\{0, 1\}^n$

Evaluate:

$$x_1 = H(x_0), x_2 = H(x_1), \dots, x_i := H^i(x)$$

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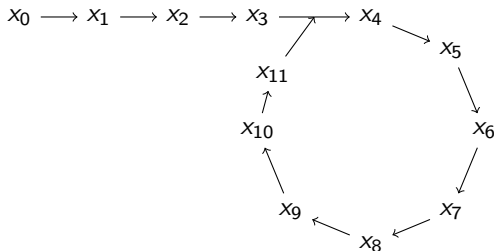
Evaluate:

$$x_1 = H(x_0), x_2 = H(x_1), \dots, x_i := H^i(x)$$

## Fact

The chain **cannot be infinite**. There exists some  $i \neq j$  such that  $H^i(x) = H^j(x)$ .

# (Pollard's) Rho



## Birthday property!

- The first pair  $i, j$  such that  $H^i(x) = H^j(x)$  has  $i = \mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$  and  $j = \mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$ ;
- $j = i + \ell$  where  $\ell$  is the **cycle length**,  $i$  the **tail length**;
- this gives a **collision**.

# Floyd's\* cycle-finding algorithm

Create two chains:

- **Tortoise**:  $x_i = H^i(x)$
- **Hare**:  $x_{2i} = H^{2i}(y)$

Iterate until **Tortoise** = **Hare**:  $x_i = x_{2i}$  .

## Fact

- The first  $i$  such that  $x_i = x_{2i}$  is  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$ .
- This  $i$  is somewhere on the cycle.

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\*Attributed to Floyd by Knuth, but nobody knows.



# Floyd's cycle-finding algorithm

Goal: find the top of the  $\rho$ .

- $i$  is somewhere on the cycle:  $i < t + \ell$  where  $t$  is the tail and  $\ell$  the cycle length
- $x_{2i} = x_i \implies 2i = i + k\ell \implies i = k\ell$  for some  $k$

Create two new chains:

- $x_j = H^j(x)$  (restarting from  $x$ )
- $y_j = H^{j+2i}(x)$  (restarting from the Hare's position)

Iterate until  $x_j = y_j \iff H^j(x) = H^{j+2i}(x)$

Here  **$j$  is the top of the  $\rho$ !**

$\implies$  retrieve the values before:  $H(H^{j-1}(x)) = H(H^{j+2i-1}(x))$  is a collision.

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Another loop is necessary if you're looking for the cycle length.

# Summary

**Input:** starting point  $x_0$

**Output:** a collision of  $H$

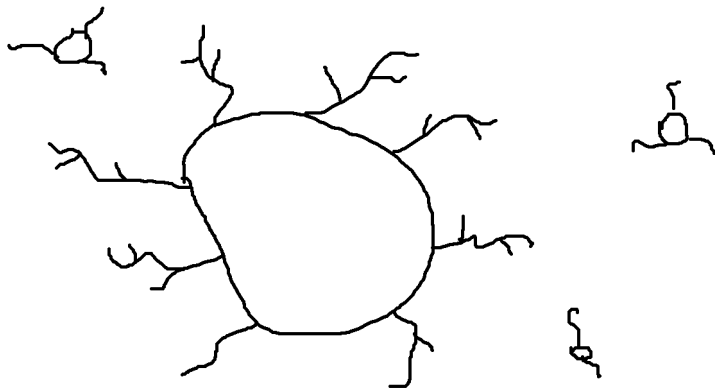
- 1: Initialize:  $x \leftarrow x_0, y \leftarrow x_0$
- 2: **repeat**
- 3:      $x \leftarrow H(x), y \leftarrow H^2(y)$
- 4: **until**  $x = y$
- 5: Restart:  $x \leftarrow x_0$
- 6: **repeat**
- 7:      $x' \leftarrow x, y' \leftarrow y$
- 8:      $x \leftarrow H(x), y \leftarrow H(y)$
- 9: **until**  $x = y$
- 10: **return**  $x', y'$

$\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$  time **and small memory**.

## Random Function vs. Random Permutation

# The graph of a random function

$$H : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n:$$



- There is a large component of size  $\simeq 2^{n+1}/3$ : a large cycle of length  $\sqrt{\pi 2^{n-3}}$ , with  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$  trees of size  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$  attached to it
- There are  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$  small components of negligible size, with small cycles

# Finding a small cycle

Some cryptanalyses require **small cycles of  $H$**  (of length  $D \ll 2^{n/2}$ ):

- Take a random starting point
- Build a chain
- Iterate until  $\geq D$  evaluations
- Restart

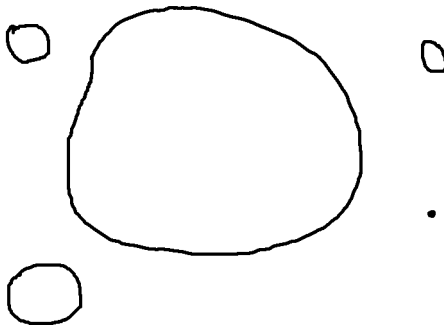
We will collide on the chain with probability  $\simeq \frac{D^2}{2^n} \implies$  redo  $\frac{2^n}{D^2}$  times  
 $\implies$  total time  $\mathcal{O}(2^n/D)$ .

# The graph of a random permutation

$$\Pi : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n:$$

# The graph of a random permutation

$$\Pi : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n:$$



- There are only cycles: the largest one is of size  $\mathcal{O}(2^n)$
- There are small cycles of negligible size

# Distinguishing

To distinguish a random function from a random permutation, **use the Tortoise-Hare algorithm.**

- If the cycle is not found after  $\mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$  iterates, conclude that this is a permutation
- This algorithm is tight