for NMAC, F:KXX -> R

 Theorem.
 Let F: K.×X→X be a secure PRF. Let TIECEC be the encrypted CEC MAC formed by F. Then, for all MAC adversaries A, there exists a PRF adversary B where
 quadratic dependence on Q arrises for similar reason as in analyzing CPA security (argue that all inputs to PRF)

 MACAdv[A, TIECEC] ≤ 2. PRFAdv[B, F] + $\frac{Q^2(l+1)^2}{1X1}$ arrises for similar reason as in analyzing CPA security (argue that all inputs to PRF)

 Proof. See Bonch-Shoup, Chapter G.
 Implication: Block size of PRF is important!
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- 3DES: $|X| = 2^{64}$; need to update key after < 2^{32} signing queries - AES: $|X| = 2^{128}$; can use key to sign many more messages (~ 2^{64} messages)

A parallelizable MAC (PMAC) - general idea:

Can use similar ideas as CMAC (randomized prefix-free encoding) to support messages that is not constant multiple of block size

Parallel structure of PMAC makes it easily updateable (assuming F is a PRP) ↓ suppose we change block i from m[i] to m'[i]: compute F⁻¹(k,,tag) ⊕ F(k,,m[i] ⊕ P(k,i)) ⊕ F(k,,m'[i] ⊕ P(k,i)) old value rew value value value value

In terms of performance:

- On sequential machine, PMAC comparable to ECBC, NMAC, CMAC Best MAC we've seen so far, but not used... - On parallel machine, PMAC much better On parallel machine, PMAC much better Reason: patents: [not patented anymon!]

Summary: Many techniques to build a large-domain PRF from a small-domain one (domain extension for PRF) > Each method (ECBC, CMAC, PMAC) gives a MAC on <u>variable-length</u> messages > Many of these designs (or their variants) are <u>standardized</u> So far, we have focused on constructing a large-domain PRF from a small-domain PRF in order to construct a MAC on long messages

+> Alternative approach: "compress the message itself (e.g.," hash the message) and MAC the compressed representation

Still require <u>unforgeobility</u>: two messages should not hash to the same value [otherwise trivial attack: if H(m,)= H(m2), then MAC on m, is also MAC on m2]

L> <u>counter-intuitive</u>: it hash value is shorter than messages, collisions <u>always</u> exist — so we can only require that they are hard to find

<u>Definition</u>. A hash function $H: M \rightarrow T$ is collision-resistant if for efficient adversaries A, CRHFAdv[A,H] = Pr[(mo, m,) \leftarrow A : H(mo) = H(m,)] = reg].

As stated, definition is problemetic: if IMI > ITI, then there always exists a collision mot, mit so consider the adversary that has mot, mit hard coded and outputs mot, mit

Thus, some adversary <u>always</u> exists (even if we may not be able to crite it down explicitly)

- Formally, we model the hash function as being parameterized by an additional parameter (e.g., a "system parameter" or a "key") so adversary cunnot output a hard-coded collision
- L> In practice, we have a concrete function (e.g., SHA-256) that does not include security or system parameters L> believed to be hard to find a collision even through there are <u>infinitely-many</u> (SHA-256 can take inputs of <u>arbitrary</u> length)

MAC from CRHFs: Suppose we have the following

- A MAC (Sign, Verify) with key space K, message space Mo and tog space T [eg., $M_0 = \{0,1\}^{256}$] - A collision resistant hash function $H: M, \rightarrow M_0$ Define S'(k,m) = S(k, H(m)) and V'(k, m,t) = V(k, H(m), t)

Theorem. Suppose That = (Sign, Verify) is a secure MAC and H is a CRHF. Then, That is a secure MAC. Specifically, for every efficient adversary A, there exist efficient adversaries B, and B, such that
MACAdu[A, Think] ≤ MACAdu[B, Think] + CRHFAdu[B, 71]

- Proof Idea. Suppose A manages to produce a valid forgery t on a message m. Then, it must be the case that — t is a valid MAC on H(m) under Trunc — If A queries the signing oracle on m' = m where H(m') = H(m), then A breaks collision-resistance of H
 - If A never gueries signing brack on m' where H(m') = H(m), then it has never seen a MAC on H(m) under TIMAC. Thus, A breaks security of TIMAC.
 - [See Boneh-Shoup for formal argument very similar to above : just introduce event for collision occurring vs. not occurring]
- Constructing above is simple and elegant, but <u>not</u> used in practice <u>Disaduantage 1</u>: Implementation requires both a secure MAC <u>and</u> a secure CRHF: more complex, need <u>multiple</u> software/handware implementations
 - <u>Droadvantage 2</u>: CRHF is a <u>key-less</u> object and collision finding is an offline attack (does not need to query verification oracle) Adversary with substantial preprocessing power can compromise collision-resistance (especially if hash size is small)

<u>Birthday attack on CRHF</u>3. Suppose we have a hash function H: {0,1}^S → {0,1}^S. How might we find a collision in 4 (without knowing anything more about H) <u>Approach 1</u>: Compute H(1), H(2), ..., H(2^l + 1) → By Pigeonhole Principle, there must be at least one collision — runs in time O(2^l) <u>Approach 2</u>: Sample M: \leq {0,1}^S and compute H(m;). Repeat writi collision is found. How many samples needed to find a collision?

Theorem (Birthday Paradox). Take any set S where
$$|S| = n$$
, Suppose $r_{i_1,...,r_{d}} \leftarrow S$. Then,

$$P_r[\exists i \neq j : r_i = r_j] \ge |-e^{-\frac{l(l-1)}{2n}}$$

When l≥ 1.2 √n, Pr[collision] = Pr[∃: \$j: r:=r;] > 2. [For birthdoys, 1.2 √365 ≈ 23]

Lis Birthdays not aniformly distributed, but this only increases collision probability.

(Try

For hash functions with range $10,13^{l}$, we can use a birthday attack to find collisions in time $\sqrt{2^{l}} = 2^{l/2}$ can even do it with $\downarrow \Rightarrow$ For 128-bit security (e.g., 2^{lP}), we need the output to be 256-bits (hence <u>SHA-256</u>) <u>constant</u> space! $\downarrow \Rightarrow$ Quantum collision-finding can be done in $2^{l/3}$ (sube noot attack), though requires more space $\left[\begin{array}{c} v_{11} \\ v_{12} \\ v_{13} \\ v_{14} \\ v_{15} \\ v_$