



A new cryptographic hash function based on the Cellular Automaton Rule 30

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Abstract:

New cryptographic hash functions based on cellular automaton have been proposed in the last years [1,2]. Most of these algorithms are based on the well-known Merkle-Damgård construction [3,4]. I investigated the possibility to use a completely different approach in order to generate new cryptographic hash functions with the use of simple cellular automaton in the spirit of NKS ("Simple rules can produce complex behavior" S.Wolfram). In order to prove the quality of the proposed cryptographic hash functions I used the standard Avalanche and Collision Tests [1,2].

Results:

Results of the conducted experiments have shown that it's possible to use simple cellular automaton like the 2 colors cellular automaton with rule 30 in order to produce good cryptographic hash functions.

Introduction

A hash function H is a transformation that takes a variable-size input m and returns a fixed-size string, which is called the hash value h (that is, $h = H(m)$). Hash functions with just this property have a variety of general computational uses, but when employed in cryptography the hash functions are usually chosen to have some additional properties.

The basic requirements for a cryptographic hash function are:

- the input can be of any length,
- the output has a fixed length,
- $H(x)$ is relatively easy to compute for any given x ,
- $H(x)$ is one-way,
- $H(x)$ is collision-free.

A hash function H is said to be one-way if it is hard to invert, where "hard to invert" means that given a hash value h , it is computationally infeasible to find some input x such that $H(x) = h$. If, given a message x , it is computationally infeasible to find a message y not equal to x such that $H(x) = H(y)$ then H is said to be a weakly collision-free hash function. A strongly collision-free hash function H is one for which it is computationally infeasible to find any two messages x and y such that $H(x) = H(y)$.

Applications of cryptographic hash functions

A typical use of a cryptographic hash would be as follows: Alice poses to Bob a tough math problem and claims she has solved it. Bob would like to try it himself, but would yet like to be sure that Alice is not bluffing. Therefore, Alice writes down her solution, appends a random nonce, computes its hash and tells Bob the hash value (whilst keeping the solution secret). This way, when Bob comes up with the solution himself a few days later, Alice can verify his solution but still be able to prove that she had the solution earlier. In actual practice, Alice and Bob will often be computer programs, and the secret would be something less easily spoofed than a claimed puzzle solution. - The above application is called a commitment scheme.

Another important application of secure hashes is verification of message integrity. Determination of whether or not any changes have been made to a message (or a file), for example, can be accomplished by comparing message digests calculated before, and after, transmission (or any other event). A message digest can also serve as a means of reliably identifying a file.

A related application is password verification. Passwords are usually not stored in clear text, for obvious reasons, but instead in digest form. To authenticate a user, the password presented by the user is hashed and compared with the stored hash. For both security and performance reasons, most digital signature algorithms specify that only the digest of the message be "signed", not the entire message. Hash functions can also be used in the generation of pseudo-random bits.

A family of hash function

$$H(m) = \{h_1, \dots, h_n\}, h_j = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{|m|} CA(r, m, j)$$

$$CA(r, m, j) = \text{Last}[\text{CellularAutomaton}[r, m, j]]$$

where m is the input, $H(m)$ is the output of the hash function, n is the length of the hash function, and r is the rule of the CA.

The Mathematica code:

```
hashCA[rule_, text_, len_] :=  
  (BitXor @@@ CellularAutomaton[rule, text, len])[[2 ;; len + 1]]
```

Why I used the CA rule number 30 in my tests?

- the rule 30 produces pseudo-random numbers;
- the rule 30 is not reversible;

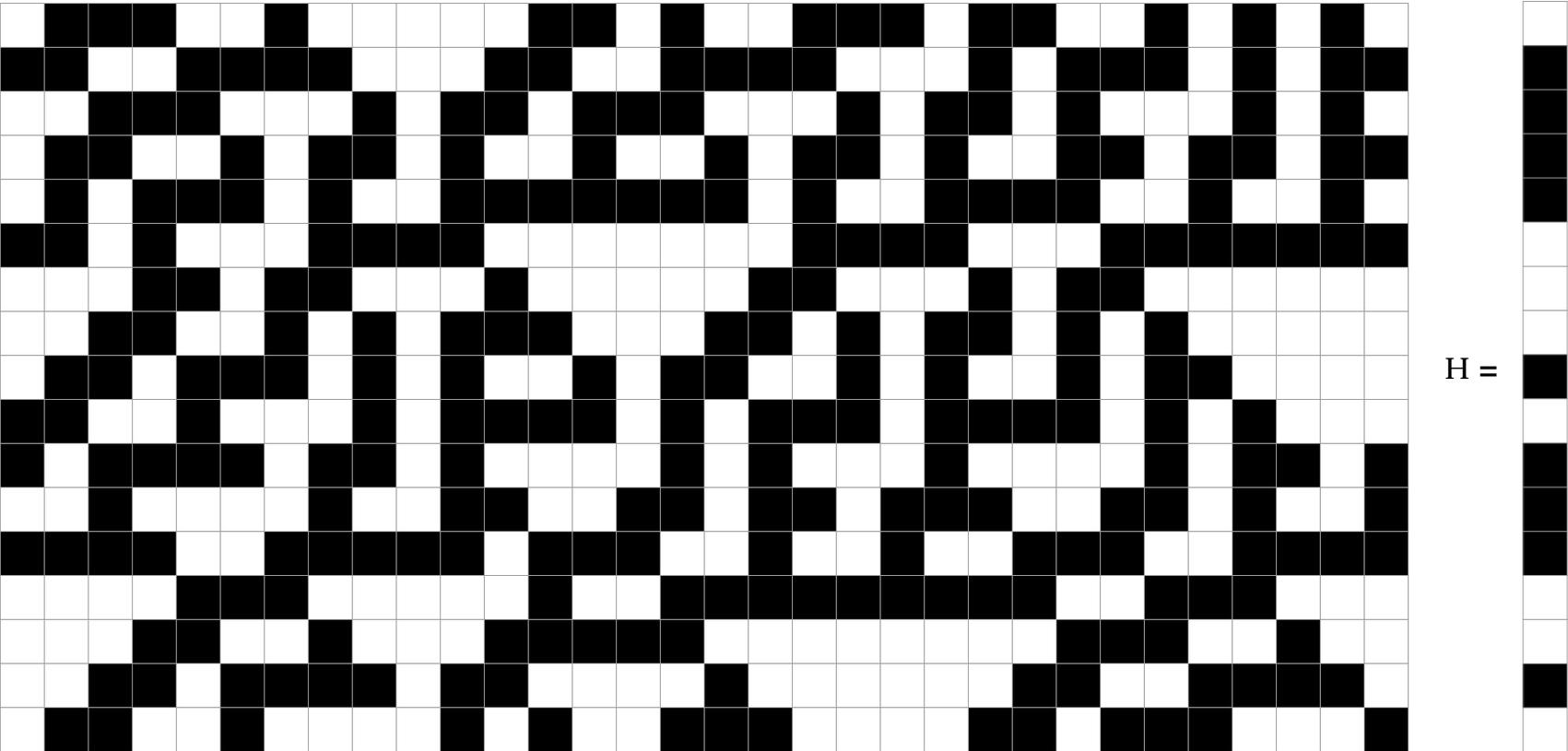




Example

$\mathbf{m} = \{0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0\}$

$\mathbf{n} = 16, \quad |\mathbf{m}| = 32, \quad \mathbf{r} = 30$ (rule of the CA), $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{m}) = \{1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0\}$



Testing the "security" of the hash function

In cryptography, the Avalanche effect refers to a desirable property of cryptographic algorithms, typically block ciphers and cryptographic hash functions. The avalanche effect is evident if, when an input is changed slightly (for example, flipping a single bit) the output changes significantly (eg, half the output bits flip). The Strict Avalanche Criterion (SAC) is a property of boolean functions of relevance in cryptography. The SAC builds on the concepts of completeness and avalanche and was introduced by Webster and Tavares in 1985. Definition: a function is said to satisfy the strict avalanche criterion if, whenever a single input bit is complemented, each of the output bits should change with a probability of one half.

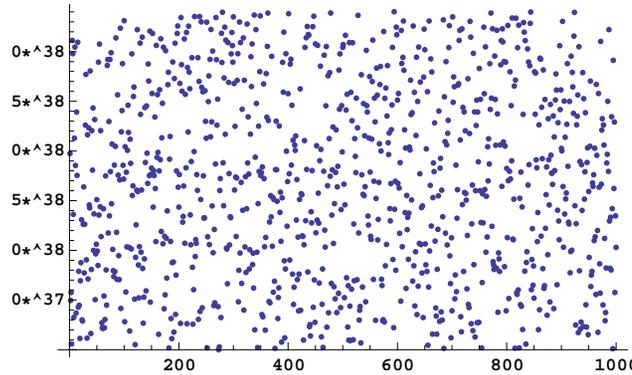
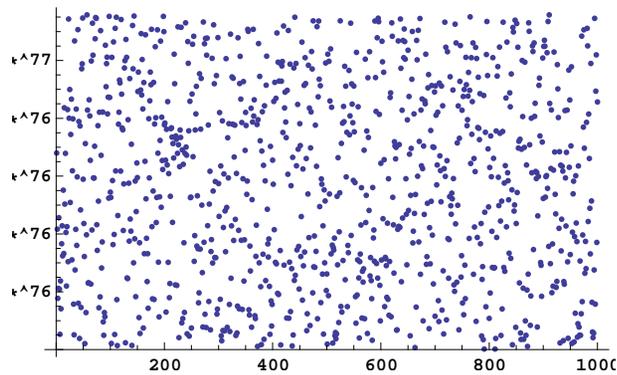
Test the avalanche effect of the hashCA:

```
sigma[x_, y_] := Mean[BitXor[x, y]]
changeOneBit[a_] := Table[BitXor[a, IntegerDigits[2^(i - 1), 2, Length[a]]], {i, Length[a]}]
avalanche[t_, len_, num_] := Table[sigma[hashCA[30, t[[i]], 128],
  hashCA[30, changeOneBit[t[[i]]][[j]], 128]], {i, 1, num}, {j, 1, len}]
```

I generated 1000 random inputs of 128 and 256 bits and for each of these inputs i generated all the possible pairs of inputs with only one bit of difference.

length	mean	standard deviation	variance	min	max
128	0.500	0.044	0.002	0.312	0.679
256	0.499	0.044	0.002	0.312	0.703

Random inputs of 256 bit (1000 values) HashCA output of 128 bit (1000 values)



Collision Test

```
findCollision[h_] := {#[[1, 1]], Last @ #} & @
  Select[Split[Sort[Table[{h[[i]], i}, {i, Length[h]}]], #[[1]] == #2[[1]] &], Length[#] > 1 &]
m = Table[Table[Random[Integer], {32}], {2^16}]
h = Table[hashCA[30, m[[i]], 128], {i, 1, 2^16}];
```

I generated 65536 hash codes of 128 bit from 65536 different inputs of 32 bit. I discovered only 8 collisions with the CA rule number 30. Moreover i investigate the possibility to use different CA rules for the generation of the hashCA. These are the results over 65536 different random inputs of 32 bit.

CA Rules	22	30	45	54	73	75	86	89	101	110	122	124	126	135	137	149
Collisions	9466	8	9	4972	31401	9	8	10	20	630	11579	646	35951	18	634	18

A nice application

What's the hash code of the Monna Lisa (or La Gioconda)?

```
m = hashCA[30, Flatten[IntegerDigits[Import["monnalisa.jpg", "RawData"], 2], 128];
```



m =

H(m) = 4 619 125 044 072 654 358 130 582 367 647 205 982

References

- [1] M.J. Mihaljevic, H. Imai, A family of fast dedicated one-way hash functions based on linear cellular automata over GF(q), IEICE Trans. Fundamentals, vol. 82-A, no.1, pp.40-47, Jan. 1999
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