Preimages for Reduced SHA-0 and SHA-1

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Abstract. In this paper, we examine the resistance of the popular hash function SHA-1 and its predecessor SHA-0 against dedicated preimage attacks. In order to assess the security margin of these hash functions against these attacks, two new cryptanalytic techniques are developed:

- Reversing the inversion problem: the idea is to start with an impossible expanded message that would lead to the required digest, and then to correct this message until it becomes valid without destroying the preimage property.
- \mathbf{P}^3 graphs: an algorithm based on the theory of random graphs that allows the conversion of preimage attacks on the compression function to attacks on the hash function with less effort than traditional meet-in-the-middle approaches.

Combining these techniques, we obtain preimage-style shortcuts attacks for up to 45 steps of SHA-1, and up to 50 steps of SHA-0 (out of 80). **Keywords:** hash function, cryptanalysis, preimages, SHA-0, SHA-1, directed random graph

1 Introduction

Until recently, most of the cryptanalytic research on popular dedicated hash functions has focused on collisions resistance, as can be seen from the successful attempts to violate the collision resistance property of MD4 [10], MD5 [32, 34], SHA-0 [6] and SHA-1 [13, 21, 33] using the basic ideas of differential cryptanalysis [2]. The community developed a wealth of fairly sophisticated tools that aid this type of analysis, including manual [33] and automated [7, 8, 20] methods to search and evaluate characteristics optimized for differential cryptanalysis of the used building blocks.

This wealth of results stands in stark contrast to what is known about the preimage and second preimage resistance of these hash functions. This is especially unsatisfying since most applications of hash functions actually rely more on preimage and second preimage resistance than on collision resistance.

Some of the main features of our results: All currently known generic preimage attacks require either impractically long first preimages [15], a first preimage lying in a very small subset of the set of all possible preimages [35], or a target digest constructed in a very special way [14].

In this work, we study the resistance of SHA-0 and SHA-1 against dedicated cryptanalytic attacks in settings where only relatively short preimages are allowed and a first preimage might not be available. An example of a very common use case of hash functions that relies on the resistance against these kind of attacks: hashed passwords. Especially SHA-1 is ubiquitously used, and will continue to be recommended by NIST even after 2010 outside the application of digital signatures [24], e.g., as RNG or KDF.

We exploit weak diffusion properties in the step transformation and in the message expansion to divide the effort to find a preimage, and consider only one or a small number of bits at a given time. In particular we present two new cryptanalytic tools. Firstly a compression function attack by means of correcting invalid messages, described in Sect. 3. Secondly, an algorithm based on the theory of random graphs that allows an efficient conversion of preimage attacks on the compression function to attacks on the hash function is presented in Sect. 4.

Later, in Sect. 5 we will discuss the results of combining these methods. This results in cryptanalytic shortcuts attacks for up to 50 step of SHA-0 (out of 80) and 45 steps of SHA-1. As a proof-of-concept we give a preimage for the 33-step SHA-0 compression function and also a second preimage of an ASCII text under the SHA-0 hash function reduced to 31 steps in Appendix B.

2 The SHA Family

In this paper, we will focus on the hash function SHA-1 and its predecessor SHA-0. The SHA-1 algorithm, designed by the US National Security Agency (NSA) and adopted as a standard in 1995, is widely used, and is representative for a large class of hash functions which started with MD4 and includes most algorithms in use today. In this section, we only briefly review a few features of the SHA design which are important for the techniques presented in this paper. For a complete description we refer to the specifications [25].

SHA-0 and SHA-1 consist of the iterative application of a compression function (denoted by f in Fig. 1), which transforms a 160-bit chaining variable h_{j-1} into h_j , based on a 512-bit message block m_j . At the core of the compression function lies a block cipher g which is used in Davies-Meyer mode (see Fig. 2). The block cipher itself consists of two parts: a message expansion and a state update transformation.

The purpose of the message expansion is to expand a single 512-bit input message block into eighty 32-bit words W_0, \ldots, W_{79} . This is done by splitting the message block into sixteen 32-bit words M_0, \ldots, M_{15} , which are then expanded linearly according to the following recursive rule:

$$W_{i} = \begin{cases} M_{i} & \text{for } 0 \le i < 16, \\ (W_{i-3} \oplus W_{i-8} \oplus W_{i-14} \oplus W_{i-16}) \lll s & \text{for } 16 \le i < 80. \end{cases}$$

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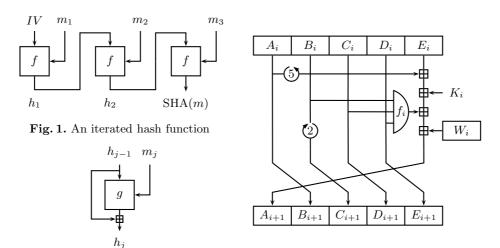


Fig. 2. The Davies-Meyer mode

Fig. 3. A single state update step

The only difference between SHA-0 and SHA-1 lies in the rotation value s, which is 0 for SHA-0, and 1 for SHA-1.

The state update transformation takes as input a 160-bit chaining variable h_{j-1} which is used to initialize five 32-bit registers A, B, \ldots, E . These registers, referred to as state variables, are then iteratively updated in 80 steps, one of which is shown in Fig. 3. Note that the state update transformation can also be described recursively in terms of A_i only: after introducing $A_{-1} = B_0$, $A_{-2} = C_0 \ll 2$, $A_{-3} = D_0 \ll 2$, and $A_{-4} = E_0 \ll 2$, we can write:

$$A_{i+1} = (A_i \lll 5) + W_i + f(A_{i-1}, A_{i-2} \ggg 2, A_{i-3} \ggg 2) + (A_{i-4} \ggg 2) + K_i.$$

Because of this property, we will only consider the state variable A_i in the remainder of this paper.

3 Inverting the Compression Function

Before devising (second-) preimage attacks against the complete SHA function, we first focus on its compression function, and develop inverting methods which will be used as building blocks afterwards.

3.1 Possible Approaches

The recent successes in constructing collisions in SHA-0 and SHA-1 raise the natural question whether the differential techniques developed for collision attacks could also be used for constructing preimages. The question is especially pertinent in the case of second preimages, which are in fact just special types of collisions.

A first straightforward approach would consist in reusing the differential characteristics used in collision attacks by applying the corresponding message difference to the given message. If the characteristic is followed, then this will yield a second preimage. While this approach was applied to MD4 by Yu et al. [35], and to SHA-1 reduced to 53 steps by Rechberger and Rijmen [29, 30], it has some serious limitations when trying to find second preimages of reasonably short messages. The main problem is that, since the starting message is already fixed, the probability of the characteristic directly translates into the success probability of the attack (instead of determining the number of trials, as in collision attacks). This probability is further reduced by the fact that we lose the possibility to influence the difference propagation by fixing bits of the message to special values. In the case of MD4 and 53-step SHA-1, this results in attacks which only succeed with a probability of 2^{-56} and $2^{-151.5}$ respectively.

A second approach, which was recently proposed by Leurent in [17], relies on the existence of special messages which can simultaneously be combined with a large number of different characteristics, resulting in a large set of related messages. The idea is to compute the hash value of such a special message, and then apply the appropriate differences in order to steer this value towards the target value. Similar strategies have previously been used in practical second preimage attacks on SMASH by Lamberger et al. [16], and more recently in preimage attacks on GOST by Mendel et al. [18, 19]. In the case of MD4, this approach does not require a first preimage to start with, and results in a preimage attack against full MD4 with a complexity of 2^{100} .

It is not clear, however, how these ideas could efficiently be applied to hash functions such as SHA-0 or SHA-1, which, while still being vulnerable, show much more resistance to differential cryptanalysis than MD4. In the next sections, we will therefore study a completely different approach, which, as will be seen, has little in common with the techniques used in collision attacks.

3.2 Turning the Function Around

The problem we are trying to solve in this section is the following: given a 160-bit target value h_1 , and a 160-bit chaining input h_0 , find a 512-bit message input m_0 such that $f(h_0, m_0) = h_1$, or equivalently that $g(h_0, m_0) = h_1 - h_0$. Since the size of the message is much larger than the size of the output, we expect this equation to have a very large number of solutions. The difficulty in determining the 512 unknown input bits, however, lies in the fact that each of the 160 bit-conditions imposed at the output, depends in a complicated way on all 512 input bits.

The main observation on which the inversion method proposed in this paper is based, is that we can obtain a larger, but considerably less interconnected system of equations by expressing the problem in terms of internal state variables, rather than in terms of message words. That is, instead of trying to tweak a message in the hope to be able to control its effect on the output after being expanded and fed through several iterations of the state update transformation, we will start from state variables which already produce the correct output, and modify them

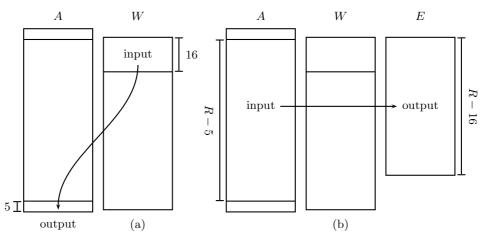


Fig. 4. Two equivalent descriptions of the inversion problem for a compression function reduced to R rounds

in such a way that the expanded message words, which can easily be derived from them, satisfy the linear recursion of the message expansion.

The idea is illustrated in Fig. 4. Instead of considering the function which maps $M_0 \ldots M_{15}$ to $A_{76} \ldots A_{80}$ as in Fig. 4(a), we will first fix $A_{76} \ldots A_{80}$ to the target value determined by $h_1 - h_0$, and then analyze the function in Fig. 4(b) which maps $A_1 \ldots A_{75}$ to error words $E_0 \ldots E_{64}$, where

$$\begin{split} E_i &= W_i \oplus W_{i+2} \oplus W_{i+8} \oplus W_{i+13} \oplus (W_{i+16} \ggg s), \quad \text{and} \\ W_i &= A_{i+1} - (A_i \lll 5) - f(A_{i-1}, A_{i-2} \ggg 2, A_{i-3} \ggg 2) - (A_{i-4} \ggg 2) - K_i \,. \end{split}$$

Clearly, finding an input which maps to $h_1 - h_0$ in Fig. 4(a) is equivalent to the problem of finding an input which maps to zero in Fig. 4(b).

The potential advantages of this alternative approach are clearly seen when analyzing how flipping a single bit in the input affects the output in both cases. In the first case, illustrated in Fig. 5(a), a single flip in the message quickly propagates through both the expanded message and the state, resulting in a completely uncontrollable pattern of changes at the output. In the second case, however, a bit-flip in the state propagates to the output in a very predictable way, as shown in Fig. 5(b). A change in the state affects at most 6 consecutive expanded messages words, and at most 22 words of the output. More importantly, depending on the position of the flipped bit in the state word, it will leave the least significant bits of all W_i and E_i untouched. The downside is that both the input and the output of the function to invert are considerably larger.

3.3 Fixing Problems Column by Column

Let us now analyze in a little bit more detail how state bits affect the output words in our new function. In order to simplify the analysis, we will for now assume that we deal with a variant of SHA-0 reduced to R rounds.

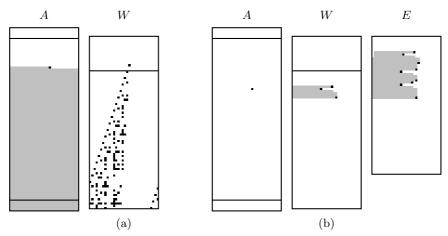


Fig. 5. Bits affected by a single bit flip at the input (SHA-1). Black bits are guaranteed to flip; gray bits may be flipped; white bits are unaffected

Suppose that we restrict ourselves to the first j + 1 bits of each expanded message word W_i (denoted by $W_i^{j\cdots 0}$), and that we keep all state bits constant except for those at bit position j + 2 (referred to as a_i^{j+2}). In this case, we can derive a simple relation (by collecting all constant parts into a j + 1-bit word $C_i^{j\cdots 0}$ and a 1-bit variable c_i^j), which holds as long as $0 \le j < 25$:

$$W_i^{j\dots 0} = C_i^{j\dots 0} - \left(f(c_i^j, a_{i-2}^{j+2}, a_{i-3}^{j+2}) \ll j\right) - \left(a_{i-4}^{j+2} \ll j\right).$$
(1)

The interesting property of this relation is that the effect of the state bits a_i^{j+2} is confined to the most significant bit of $W_i^{j\cdots 0}$. Furthermore, this effect is linear in all rounds where f_{XOR} or f_{IF} is used. Since the words E_i in SHA-0 are just a bitwise XOR of expanded message words W_i , this property holds for those words as well.

We can now use this observation to gradually fix the bits of E_i to zero, column by column. We start by determining $a_1^2 \ldots a_{R-5}^2$ such that the least significant bits of all R - 16 output words E_i are zero. Since we have R - 5degrees of freedom and only need to satisfy R - 16 conditions, we expect to find 2^{11} different solutions. Thanks to the special structure of the equations, these solutions can be found recursively with a computation effort which is linear in the number of rounds R. Next, we use $a_1^3 \ldots a_{R-5}^3$ (which, as indicated by (1), will not affect the least significant bits) to correct the second least significant bits. We proceed this way as long as (1) holds, and eventually we will only be left with non-zero bits in the 7 most significant bits of the R - 16 output words.

In order to eliminate the remaining non-zero bits, we could just repeat the previous procedure with different solutions for the state bits, until these non-zero bits disappear by themselves. This would require in the order of $2^{7 \cdot (R-16)}$ trials. In the next section, we will show how this number can be reduced.

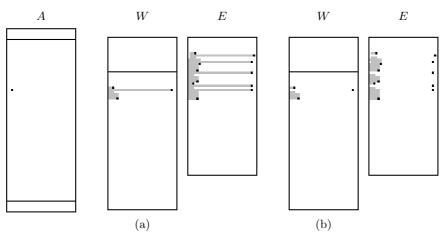


Fig. 6. Flipping state bit 29 with (a) and without (b) carries (SHA-1)

3.4 Preventing Carries

A natural way to improve the previous attack is to try to extent the property found in (1) to the case $j \ge 25$. The problem however is that the equation gets an extra term for $25 \le j < 30$:

$$W_i^{j \cdots 0} = C_i^{j \cdots 0} - (a_i^{j+2} \ll j - 25) - (f(c_i^j, a_{i-2}^{j+2}, a_{i-3}^{j+2}) \ll j) - (a_{i-4}^{j+2} \ll j) \,.$$

Hence, when trying to fix the output bits in column j, we have to make sure that this extra term at position j - 25 does not reintroduce errors in the previously fixed columns. In order to do so, we will first try to confine the potential trouble caused by this term to a single column by preventing the propagation of carries to other columns (the idea is shown in Fig. 6). This can easily be achieved by noting that the 5 most significant bits of A_i , which we are currently trying to determine, affect the least significant part of W_i through the equation $W_i = X_i - (A_i \ll 5)$, where

$$X_i = A_{i+1} - f(A_{i-1}, A_{i-2} \gg 2, A_{i-3} \gg 2) - (A_{i-4} \gg 2) - K_i$$

If we now choose the 7 least significant columns of the state in beforehand in such a way that there are no zeros in the 5 least significant bits of X_i , then no carries (borrows) will appear later on when the 5 most significant bits of A_i are modified. Once these 7 columns have been determined, we start correcting the output columns for $5 \leq j < 25$ in exactly the same way as explained in the previous section.

When we arrive at $j \ge 25$, we will try to use the state bits at position j + 2 to simultaneously correct columns j and j - 25 of the output. This time, we have R - 5 degrees of freedom to satisfy $2 \times (R - 16)$ conditions, and hence we will still have to rely on chance for R - 27 of these conditions. In total, we will leave $5 \times (R - 27)$ uncorrected output bits in columns 25–29 and $2 \times (R - 16)$ in columns 30–31. As a consequence, we will need to perform 2^c trials with $c = 2 \cdot (R - 16) + 5 \cdot (R - 27)$ in order for all non-zero bits to be eliminated.

3.5 Relaxing the Problem: Partial-Pseudo-Preimages

In the previous section, we had to leave a number of output bits uncorrected because of a lack of degrees of freedom in the state bits in columns 27–31. One way to create up to 10 additional degrees of freedom in each of these 5 columns is to allow the attacker to modify bits $a_{-4}^j \dots a_0^j$ and/or $a_{R-4}^j \dots a_R^j$ as well. In this case, the input and the output of the compression function will only partially match h_0 and h_1 , and we call this a partial-pseudo-preimage. It is easy to see that each additional degree of freedom will reduce the cost by a factor two, i.e., if we allow $b_1 \leq 25$ input bits and $b_2 \leq 25$ output bits to deviate from their original target, then the computation effort of finding a partial-pseudo-preimage will be given by

$$2^{c}$$
, where $c = 2 \cdot (R - 16) + 5 \cdot (R - 27) - (b_{1} + b_{2})$.

3.6 Application to SHA-1

The techniques explained for SHA-0 can be applied to SHA-1 in a relatively straightforward way. The only difference is that affected bits in W_i , with $i \ge 16$, will not only propagate to the corresponding columns in the error words, but also to the columns shifted by one position to the right. In order to compensate for this, it suffices to consider different state bits when correcting the columns, i.e., instead of using $a_1^{j+2} \cdot a_{R-5}^{j+2}$ to correct column j (and j-25 if $j \ge 25$), we will now use the state bits $a_1^{j+2} \cdot a_{R-5}^{j+2}$ and $a_{12}^{j+3} \cdot a_{R-5}^{j+3}$. This works fine as long as j < 29. The bits $a_{12}^{j+3} \cdot a_{R-5}^{j+3}$ cannot be used anymore when j = 29, though. Since we lose R - 16 degrees of freedom for fixing the last pair of columns (columns 29 and 4), the computational effort increases to:

$$2^{c}$$
, where $c = 3 \cdot (R - 16) + 5 \cdot (R - 27) - (b_1 + b_2)$.

In addition to this, and for the same reason, we can now only fully exploit 20 additional degrees of freedom at the output, i.e., $b_2 \leq 20$. We still have $b_1 \leq 25$, though.

4 Preimages from Partial-Pseudo-Preimages – P³graphs

For the discussion in this section, let's assume we are given a method to produce partial-pseudo-preimages that is faster than a method to find preimages directly.

We first discuss a number of well understood methods in Sect. 4.1 that transform such attacks on the compression function into a preimage attack on the hash function by means of meet-in-the-middle and tree building techniques. Next, in Sect. 4.2 we discuss a new method using so-called P^3 graphs, that makes it possible to exploit the existence of such weaker attacks more directly.

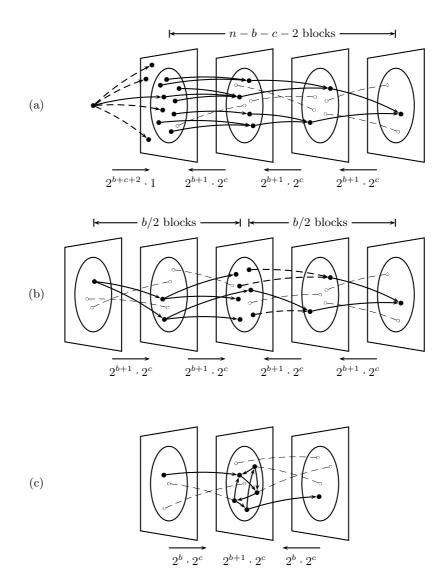


Fig. 7. Three different ways to build preimages from partial pseudo-preimages

4.1 Meet-in-the-middle and Tree Based Methods

Inverting a Davis-Meyer compression function is the problem of finding a pair (h, m) such that g(h, m) + h equals a given digest d. It was shown that no blackbox attack can give a preimage faster than essentially 2^n [3, 27]. Inverting a Merkle-Damgård hash function is the problem of, given an initial chaining input h_0 , finding an (almost arbitrarily large) number x of message blocks $m_0 \ldots m_x$ such that h_x equals a given digest d.

In the following, we assume that a part of the chaining input (say $n - b_1$ out of the n bits) can be chosen by the attacker, or in other words: the attacker can control all but b_1 bits of the chaining input (always the same $n - b_1$ bits). Let's further assume that a partial preimage attack on the compression function (of cost 2^c) has the property that a preimage can be found where all but b_2 out of nbits match the targeted digest d (again always the same $n - b_2$ bits). In addition to the parameters b_1 and b_2 introduced in Sect. 3.5, we will denote the number of bit positions of the chaining variable which can be controlled both from the input and from the output by n - b. All the following methods yield a preimage of the hash function for any given digest d

- Meet-in-the-middle approach 1. A basic unbalanced meet-in-the-middle approach that does not take advantage of the *b* bits that overlap has runtime $2^{(n+c)/2+1}$ and memory costs of $2^{(n-c)/2}$. The balanced case appeared already in [9], memoryless variants appear to have been first proposed in [23, 28].
- Meet-in-the-middle approach 2. By using the fact that both in forwards, and backwards direction, only b bits need to meet, the runtime requirement improves to $2^{b/2+c_1}+2^{b/2+c_2}$, where c_1 denotes the cost of a partial-preimage attack (the forward part, if no compression function attack is available, a brute force attack with this property has cost 2^{n-b}), and c_2 denotes the cost of the pseudo-preimage attack (this is equivalent to calling the partialpseudo-preimage attack 2^b times at the cost of 2^{b+c}). The total runtime is hence $2^{3b/2+c+1}$, the memory requirement is 2^b .
- Layered Tree method due to Leurent, see Fig. 7(a). In [17] the following tree method was proposed. Starting from the target hash d, produce two different pseudo preimages with cost 2^{b+c+1} . As a next step, produce four different pseudo preimages with the same cost that target both new target chaining values. This process is continued for n - b - c - 2 blocks and needs about $2^{n-b-c-1}$ of storage. For a fixed length preimage, only the last layer of the tree can be used for random trials in the forward direction, amounting to 2^{b+c+2} trials. Variants with a different branch number, or with less restrictions on the way the tree grows are thinkable [17].
- Alternative Backward-Forward Tree method, see Fig. 7(b). Similar to the approach above, one could let the tree grow in the backward direction for b/2 blocks, regardless of the time complexity of the compression function attack. In the forward direction we rely on using the partial-pseudo-preimage on the compression function of cost 2^c again, now having to call it 2^b times to have a partial-preimage. Using this, the tree grows in the forwards direction in exactly the same manner as in the backwards direction. Because of the

birthday effect, both trees have at least one connection with high probability. The total runtime is $b \cdot 2^{b+c+1}$, the memory requirement is $2^{b/2}$.

- Tree method due to Mendel and Rijmen, see Fig. 7(c). In [22] a tree-based method was proposed that has the same runtime and memory requirements as the new graph-based method we are about to introduce in the following section.

4.2 A Graph Based Approach

The meet-in-the-middle method discussed above requires the generation of many partial-preimages for the first part of the preimage and many pseudo-preimages for the second part of the preimage. The new method based on random directed graphs we are about to introduce allows to reduce the number of partial-preimages needed at the beginning and pseudo-preimages needed at the end to 1, at the cost of a number of partial-pseudo-preimages (each 2^c) in between. Hence the name P³graph method, see also Fig. 7(c). We first outline the proposed method, and give time and memory complexities. Afterwards we discuss and compare it with other methods.

- **Edges of P**³**graph:** Using a partial pseudo preimage algorithm, generate 2^{b+1} tuples $(h_{(i)}, m_{(i)})$, at cost 2^{b+c+1} . All these tuples, which map $h_{(i)}$ to $f(h_{(i)}, m_{(i)})$, can be seen as the 2^{b+1} edges of a directed graph consisting of 2^{b} nodes. As explained in Appendix A, we expect the majority of those nodes to be part of a large densely interconnected component.
- First message block, forward direction: Using the partial preimage generation method, generate a single tuple (h_0, m_0) that hits this component. The expected work is in the order of 2^{b+c} .
- Last message block, backward direction: Also here, generate a single tuple (h_x, m_x) such that $f(h_x, m_x) = d$ and that h_x falls into the interconnected part of the graph. The expected work is again in the order of: 2^{b+c} .
- **Connection:** What remains to be found is a connection (a path) between these nodes (the entry node and the exit node) in the graph. Given the number of edges in the graph, such a path is very likely to exist, as we discuss in detail in Appendix A. Total expected work: $2^{b+c+1} + 2^{b+c} + 2^{b+c} = 2^{b+c+2}$

On exploiting precomputation. The computations for constructing the first message block and the P^3 graph do not need to be repeated when attacking a different digest. The effort for every additional preimage attack is only 2^{b+c} .

4.3 Discussion

There are a number of useful and distinctive properties of the P^3 graph method. Firstly, the graph approach does not impose any structure on the connections of partial-pseudo-preimages, which is an intuitive explanation of the efficiency

again compared to the L-Tree and the BF-Tree methods. Secondly, the P^3 graph is friendlier towards precomputation: Whereas the full P^3 graph (potentially in such a way that the IV of the hash function is one of the nodes) can be precomputed, it is not possible to precompute the backwards tree for the L-Tree and the BF-Tree method. Another advantage of the P^3 graph method over all other known methods is that paths (and hence preimages) of almost any length have high probability to exist. There is no upper limit, the lower bound is discussed in Appendix A. This property will be useful when dealing with the padding in a preimage attack on the hash function (see Sect 5.1).

One drawback of the P^3 graph method can be the higher memory requirements. Storage requirements for all the edges is exponential in the number of bits *b* that can not be controlled. Hence the runtime gain of the P^3 graph method is useful in practice if the compression function attack allows to choose a reasonable small *b*. The P^3 graph method allows time/memory tradeoffs that resemble e.g., the BF-Tree method. Space constraints do not allow us to discuss them here. In Table 1 we summarize and compare the meet in the middle approach with the P^3 graph method.

5 Putting Everything Together

We have now set the state to talk about the security margin of the SHA-0 and SHA-1 hash function against the new cryptanalytic methods. We do this by combining the compression function attack from Sect. 3 and the P^3 graph method from Sect. 4.

5.1 Padding

So far, we neglected the fact that in a preimage attack on SHA-0 and SHA-1, the padding fixes a part of the input message of the last message block. Hence, without being able to cope with such a restriction, our attack would only be a second preimage attack, but not a preimage attack. We discuss here several possibilities to produce a correctly padded last message block without a first preimage.

 Restrict the degrees of freedom in the compression function attack: In order to fix a particular value for the message length, at least the last

Table 1. Comparison of the meet-in-the-middle approach, various tree approaches, and the P^3 graph method. All numbers are exponents of base 2.

	MITM2	L(ayered)-Tree	BF-Tree	MR-Tree	P ³ graph
total work	3b/2 + c + 1	$b + c + 1 + \log_2(n - b - c)$	$b + \log_2(b) + c + 1$	b + c + 2	b + c + 2
total mem.	b or less	n - b - c - 1	b/2	b+1	b + 1
onl. work	b + c	-	-	b + c	b + c
offl. work	2b + c	-	-	$b + c + log_2(3)$	$b + c + log_2(3)$
memory	b	-	-	b + 1	b + 1
flexible len.	no	no	no	no	yes

65 bits of the last message block need to be fixed. Among them are 25 bits whose freedom is needed in the compression function attack (for both SHA-0 and SHA-1), hence fixing them results (without further optimizations) in a slowdown of the compression function attack by up to a factor of 2^{25} . In detail, these bits are $M_{14}^0, M_{15}^{0...4,24...31}$ and $M_{16}^{0...4,24...31}$.

- **Expandable messages:** By making sure that every message length can be constructed after the compression function attacks have been performed, almost no additional degrees of freedom need to be spent for a correct padding. Using any of the following methods will hence return preimages of uncontrollable length. The only two property that the compression function attack needs to have, are as follows. Firstly, to make sure that the end of the message (before the length encoding, i.e., the LSB of M_{13}) is a '1'. Secondly, make sure that the length is a exact multiple of the block length, i.e., fix the last nine bits of M_{15} to '110111111' (447). In total ten bits need to be fixed for this, which will result (without further optimizations) in a slowdown of the compression function attack by a factor 2^6 . In detail, the six crucial bits are M_{14}^0 and $M_{16}^{0...4}$. Possibilities to construct expandable messages are as follows.
 - Multicollisions: As soon as the compression function attack has a complexity slightly above the birthday bound $(2^{n/2+log_2(n)})$, the multicollision idea [12] can be used to construct expandable messages [15] without being the bottleneck.
 - Flexibility of the P³graph method (cycles): In the random directed graph used in the P³graph method of Sect. 4.2, we expect to have many cycles, also on the path between entry- and exit node. As detailed in Appendix A, we hence expect to find paths of any length longer than some lower bound that connect any entry- and exit node with high probability.

5.2 Summary of Attacks

From Sect. 3 we learn that $b_1 = b_2 = 25$ is a straight-forward choice for the case of SHA-0. Since the method allows us to pick the same bit positions, we also have b = 25. Since $b_2 \leq 20$ for SHA-1, we will have to restrict ourselves to b = 20 in this case. Note that for seriously reduced SHA-0 and SHA-1, less degrees of freedom are of use in the compression function attack, and hence b can be smaller. A quick check in Table 1 will convince the reader that memory requirements will not be a problem in the practical implementation of such an attack, even with the most time efficient P^3 graph method.

In order to illustrate our results we consider SHA-0 and SHA-1 reduced to concrete numbers of steps, and give attack complexities in Figure 8. We combine the attacks on the compression function as given in Sect. 3 with the different generic ways of turning them into a preimage attack as outlined in Sect. 4.2. In our implementation of this attack the memory requirements are negligible. Additionally, we also give attack complexities in Table 2. For both SHA-0 and SHA-1, the number of steps for which we list results are chosen as follows. To compare (lack of) resistance against the new attack of similarly reduced

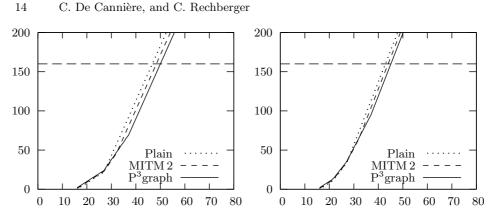


Fig. 8. Complexities of second preimage attacks against reduced SHA-0 (left) and SHA-1 (right). The line 'Plain' refers to a direct preimage attack using only a single block. The line 'MITM 2' refers to a meet-in-the-middle approach where partial-preimages in the forward direction are combined with pseudo-preimages in the backwards direction. The line 'P³graph' refers to the new graph based method.

primitives, we pick 32 steps in all cases. Additionally, we give results for the highest number of steps for which the attack would be better than the birthday bound and an actual brute force attack, respectively. Our approach takes less than 2^{160} hash evaluations for SHA-0 reduced to up to 50 steps and for SHA-1 reduced to up to 45 steps. Note that inverting the hash function also implies the ability to construct a fixed point.

6 Conclusions and Outlook

The first method to construct preimages for SHA-0 and SHA-1 reduced to a nontrivial number of steps (up to 50 out of 80) is presented. The impossible message approach we proposed exploits weak diffusion properties in the step transformation and in the message expansion, which allows to divide the work and consider only one or a small number of column at a given time. Both, the impossible message approach, and the P^3graph we introduced to efficiently transform attacks on the compression function to attacks on the hash function, are rather generic and await to be applied to other settings and hash functions as well.

Our results shed some light on the security margin offered by SHA-0 and SHA-1 when only preimage attacks are of a concern. However, several aspects of this work suggest that the security margin might be smaller. Let's compare the result of this work on cryptanalytic preimage attacks to the situation of collision search attacks in 2004 and early 2005:

- Step-reduced variants: Work on SHA-1 resulted in theoretical collision attacks for up to 58 steps [1,31]. Our preimage attacks cover slightly less steps but are on a comparable magnitude.

Table 2. Exemplification of new preimage attacks on reduced SHA-0 (left table) and SHA-1 (right table). Efforts are expressed in terms of time complexity; memory and communication costs can be considered negligible. For ideal building blocks, all these attacks would require a 2^{160} effort. For simplification, the small constant factor between the numbers given here and a naive brute force search is neglected. We give the total runtime for attacking the first target digest; attacks on subsequent targets will be faster.

type of attack	building	steps	b	effort with	building	steps	b	effort with
	block			new attack	block			new attack
inv. compression f.	SHA-0	32	25	2^{32}	SHA-1	32	20	2^{53}
inv. compression f.	SHA-0	38	25		SHA-1	35	20	
inv. compression f.	SHA-0	50	25	2^{158}	SHA-1	45	20	2^{157}
2nd preimage of hash	SHA-0	32	12	2^{47}	SHA-1	32	10	2^{65}
2nd preimage of hash	SHA-0	38	25	2^{76}	SHA-1	34	14	2^{77}
2nd preimage of hash	SHA-0	49	25	2^{163}	SHA-1	45	20	2^{159}
preimage of hash	SHA-0	37	25	2^{75}	SHA-1	34	17	2^{80}
preimage of hash	SHA-0	49	25	2^{159}	SHA-1	44	20	2^{157}

- Degrees of freedom: Whereas in the most recent collision search attacks on SHA-1 the availability of degrees of freedom is the limiting factor for further improvements, this was of no concern in earlier work. The fact that not all degrees of freedom are used in our new preimage attacks suggests that further improvements are possible.
- Sensitivity for different choices of rotation constants: The state update transformation of SHA-0 and SHA-1 uses the fixed set of rotation constants (5, -2). A study of the effect of different choices of rotation constants on earlier collision search strategies [26] concluded that already a slightly different choice would impact the performance significantly, although in a complex way. In our attack, we observe a similar situation: The attack complexity directly depends on the used rotation constants and would be lower or higher, depending on the actual choice. The most recent collision search attacks on SHA-1 do not show such a strong dependency on the choice of rotation constants. Again, this suggests that further improvements on the preimage attack presented in this paper is an interesting open problem.

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A Some Useful Properties of Random Graphs

In this appendix, we briefly review some properties of random graphs which are relevant to the graph based approach proposed in Sect. 4.2. For a more rigorous and comprehensive treatment of random graph theory we refer to [4, 11] and [5, Chapt. VII.5].

A.1 Following Edges in a Random Directed Graph

Let G be a large directed graph consisting of n nodes and $m = c \cdot n$ randomly selected edges. On average, each node has c outgoing edges, and we denote the probability that a given ordered pair of nodes is connected by an edge by:

$$p_c = \frac{m}{n^2} = \frac{c}{n}$$

Let us now study what happens when we start from an arbitrary node a and construct sets of nodes S_0, S_1, S_2, \ldots where $S_0 = \{a\}$, and S_i contains all nodes that can be reached from a in exactly i hops. If we eventually end up with an empty set, the initial node a is called a "dying" node. In the opposite case, a is said to "explode". Clearly, if there exists an edge from a to b, and b is an exploding node, then a must be exploding as well. Conversely, a node a can only die if none of the n nodes in the graph are both connected to a and exploding. Hence, the probability p_e that a node explodes must satisfy:

$$1 - p_e = (1 - p_c \cdot p_e)^n \approx e^{-c \cdot p_e}.$$

From this expression we can deduce that p_e must necessarily be 0 as long as $c \leq 1$. However, when c > 1, the equation $1 - x = e^{-c \cdot x}$ does have a non-zero (and positive) solution, which we will refer to as $\gamma(c)$.⁴

Assuming that the sets S_i reach some moderately large size (i.e., *a* does not die), we can write a simple recursive relation between the expected sizes $E(|S_i|)$ of successive sets by computing the probability that an arbitrary node is connected to at least one node of S_i :

$$E(|S_{i+1}|) = n \cdot \left[1 - (1 - p_c)^{E(|S_i|)}\right] \approx n \cdot \left[1 - e^{-c \cdot E(|S_i|)/n}\right].$$
 (2)

Note that we can apply the same reasoning to obtain an almost identical recursive relation between successive values of $E(|S_0 \cup S_1 \cdots S_i|)$. By filling in $i = \infty$, we find that the expected size of the sets converges to:

$$E(|S_{\infty}|) \approx E(|S_0 \cup S_1 \cdots S_{\infty}|) \approx n \cdot \gamma(c).$$

A.2 Connecting Two Given Nodes

In the previous section, we argued that a node a explodes with probability $p_e = \gamma(c)$, and that a fraction $\gamma(c)$ of all nodes can be reached from it if it does. Similarly, if a dies, it can be shown that only a negligible fraction of nodes will be reached. The probability p_p that two given nodes a and b are connected by a path is hence:

$$p_p = \gamma(c)^2$$

In the context of the attack proposed in this paper, we are interested in the expected number of random edges \overline{m} that need to be added to a graph in order

⁴ One can show that $\gamma(c) = 1 + W(-c \cdot e^{-c})/c$, where W(x) is Lambert's W function.

to find a path between two given nodes a and b. Suppose our current graph has m > n edges. In that case we know that with probability $1 - \gamma (m/n)^2$ there will be no path between a and b, in which case we will need at least one more edge. Repeating this reasoning, we find;

$$\overline{m} \approx n + \sum_{m=n}^{n^2} \left[1 - \gamma (m/n)^2 \right].$$

We can approximate this sum by an integral, and after a few changes of variables, we eventually obtain:

$$\overline{m} \approx n + n \cdot \int_{1}^{\infty} \left[1 - \gamma(c)^{2} \right] dc$$
$$= n + n \cdot \int_{0}^{1} \left(1 - \gamma^{2} \right) \cdot \frac{dc}{d\gamma} d\gamma$$
$$= 2 \cdot n \,.$$

This result, which states that, in order to connect two given nodes, we need on average twice as many edges as nodes (i.e., c = 2), is the main property used in Sect. 4.2.

A.3 Path Lengths

If we want to apply our graph based attack to a hash function which includes the message length in the padding block, then we not only need to make sure that there exists a path between two given nodes; we would also like to know in advance how long this path will be.

In order to estimate how many nodes can be reached for a fixed path length, we need to solve the recursive relation of (2). A closed form solution probably does not exist, but we can find a very good approximation:

$$E(|S_i|) \approx n \cdot \gamma \cdot \frac{\left[\alpha^{2 \cdot (i-\delta)} + 1\right]^{\beta}}{\alpha^{(i-\delta)} + 1}$$

where $\alpha = c \cdot (1 - \gamma)$, $\alpha^{2 \cdot \beta - 1} = c$, and $n \cdot \gamma \cdot c^{-\delta} = 1$. For c = 2, we find that $\gamma = 0.80$, $\alpha = 0.41$, $\beta = 0.12$, and

$$\delta = \frac{1}{\log_2 c} \cdot (\log_2 n + \log_2 \gamma) = \log_2 n - 0.33.$$

We can now compute the minimal path length l for which we expect that S_l includes all reachable nodes (i.e., $S_l = S_{\infty}$). By solving the inequality $E(|S_{\infty}|) - E(|S_l|) < 1$, we obtain:

$$l > \left[\frac{1}{\log_2 \alpha} - \frac{1}{\log_2 c}\right] \cdot (\log_2 n + \log_2 \gamma) = 1.77 \cdot \log_2 n - 0.58.$$

In other words, if we are given a random graph with n nodes and $2 \cdot n$ edges, and if this graph connects two arbitrary nodes a and b (this occurs with probability $\gamma^2 = 0.63$), then we expect to find paths from a to b of length l for any l exceeding $1.77 \cdot \log_2 n$.

B Proof-of-concept Examples

As a proof-of-concept, we give examples of an implementation of the described methods. We chose two examples. The first is a preimage for the 33-step SHA-0 compression function. The second is also a second preimage of a (roughly) 1KB ASCII text for the 31-step SHA-0 hash function, using the P^3 graph method.

B.1 A preimage for the 33-step compression function of SHA-0

As a proof-of-concept, we consider the compression function of SHA-0 reduced to 33 steps. In Figure 9 we give a preimage for the all-1 output. $A_{-4} \ldots A_0$ and $W_0 \ldots W_{15}$ represent the input to the compression function. Computing $A_{-4} + A_{29} \ldots A_0 + A_{33}$ results in the all-1 output.

i	A_i	W_i
-4:	0011011111111111111111111111111100	
-3:	11010111111111111111111111111111100	
-2:	001001111111111111111111111111100	
-1:	001001111111111111111111111111111111111	
0:	101101111111111111111111111111111111111	10100111011111011000111010001001
1:	00100010000000000000000000010110	01100111100011001010011000011011
2:	1100001000010000010001001110110	0101000010000010111100010000111
3:	11100001000010000100000011110110	01000001100001011000100101100011
4:	0011010100000000000000101100100	101100101111110101010111101011001
5:	010001000000000000000000000001100	101000100111100101111010010101111
6:	1011011000000000000000000111010	11011111101101110110011001001001
7:	01100111000000000000000000001110	00001111111110110111010000110011
8:	000111000000000000000000000011000	10000111001111011000001011111100
9:	101001000000000000000000000000000000000	01000001111111011000011010001011
10:	1110011100000000000000000000000000000	10011100101111010111111010000011
11:	1010001010000000000000001101001	10101101000000111111101001001011
12:	0001001001000110100000100100001	01011101010110010110110100111101
13:	00110001001011000000101011111110	00011011111010010011001011011001
14:	00101110011011010000110001001000	0000001100111011111110010011010
15:	111011011001111111111111110010000	11100001000001101011110110000010
16:	10100101000000101100100101011010	01101011001010000100011000101011
28:	0111011100111011101010101110100	11111100111010011110011000110001
29:	11001000000000000000000000000000011	01110110101111001110011000100110
30:	001010000000000000000000000000000011	11011100010011000000000000111010
31:	1101100000000000000000000000000011	10000010111111000100100010100100
32:	110110000000000000000000000000000000000	11011011010101110010011011100100
33:	010010000000000000000000000000000000000	

Fig. 9. A preimage of the all-1 output for the 33-step SHA-0 compression function

Preimages for Reduced SHA-0 and SHA-1

0000000:									Alice was beginn
0000010:	696e	6720	746f	2067	6574	2076	6572	7920	ing to get very
0000020:									tired of sitting
0000030:	2062	7920	6865	7220	7369	7374	6572	206f	by her sister o
0000040:	6e20	7468	6520	6261	6e6b	2c20	616e	6420	n the bank, and
0000050:									of having nothin
0000060:	6720	746f	2064	6f3a	206f	6e63	6520	6f72	g to do: once or
0000070:	2074	7769	6365	2073	6865	2068	6164	2070	twice she had p
0000080:	6565	7065	6420	696e	746f	2074	6865	2062	eeped into the b
0000090:	6f6f	6b20	6865	7220	7369	7374	6572	2077	ook her sister w
00000a0:	6173	2072	6561	6469	6e67	2c20	6275	7420	as reading, but
00000Ъ0:	6974	2068	6164	206e	6f20	7069	6374	7572	it had no pictur
00000c0:	6573	206f	7220	636f	6e76	6572	7361	7469	es or conversati
:00000d0	6f6e	7320	696e	2069	742c	2060	616e	6420	ons in it, 'and
00000e0:	7768	6174	2069	7320	7468	6520	7573	6520	what is the use
00000f0:	6f66	2061	2062	6f6f	6b2c	2720	7468	6f75	of a book,' thou
0000100:	6768	7420	416c	6963	6520	6077	6974	686f	ght Alice 'witho
0000110:									ut pictures or c
0000120:	6f6e	7665	7273	6174	696f	6e3f	2720	536f	onversation?' So
0000130:	2073	6865	2077	6173	2063	6f6e	7369	6465	she was conside
0000140:	7269	6e67	2069	6e20	6865	7220	6f77	6e20	ring in her own
0000150:									mind (as well as
0000160:									she could, for
0000170:									the hot day made
0000180:									her feel very s
0000190:									leepy and stupid
0000150:), whether the p
00001b0:									leasure of makin
00001c0:									g a daisy-chain
00001d0:									would be worth t
00001u0:									he trouble of ge
00001e0:									tting up and pic
0000200:									king the daisies
00002001									-
0000210:									, when suddenly
0000220:									a White Rabbit w
									ith pink eyes ra
0000240:									n close by her.
0000250:									There was nothin
0000260:									g so VERY remark
0000270:									able in that; no
0000280:									r did Alice thin
0000290:									k it so VERY muc
00002a0:									h out of the way
00002b0:									to hear the Rab
00002c0:									bit say to itsel
00002d0:									f, 'Oh dear! Oh
00002e0:									dear! I shall be
00002f0:	206c	6174	6521	2720	2877	6865	6e20	7368	late!' (when sh

Fig. 10. 31-round SHA-0: original message (part 1)

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	6520								e thought it ove
0000310:				7277					r afterwards, it
0000320:				7265					occurred to her
0000330:				7368					that she ought
0000340:				6520					to have wondered
0000350:				6973					at this, but at
0000360:				696d					the time it all
0000370:				6420					seemed quite na
0000380:	7475	7261	6c29	3b20	6275	7420	7768	656e	tural); but when
0000390:	2074	6865	2052	6162	6269	7420	6163	7475	the Rabbit actu
00003a0:	616c	6c79	2054	4f4f	4b20	4120	5741	5443	ally TOOK A WATC
00003Ъ0:	4820	4f55	5420	4f46	2049	5453	2057	4149	H OUT OF ITS WAI
00003c0:	5354	434f	4154	2d50	4f43	4b45	542c	2061	STCOAT-POCKET, a
00003d0:	6e64	206c	6f6f	6b65	6420	6174	2069	742c	nd looked at it,
00003e0:	2061	6e64	2074	6865	6e20	6875	7272	6965	and then hurrie
00003f0:	6420	6f6e	2c20	416c	6963	6520	7374	6172	d on, Alice star
0000400:	7465	6420	746f	2068	6572	2066	6565	742c	ted to her feet,
0000410:	2066	6f72	2069	7420	666c	6173	6865	6420	for it flashed
0000420:	6163	726f	7373	2068	6572	206d	696e	6420	across her mind
0000430:	7468	6174	2073	6865	2068	6164	206e	6576	that she had nev
0000440:	6572	2062	6566	6f72	6520	7365	656e	2061	er before seen a
0000450:	2072	6162	6269	7420	7769	7468	2065	6974	rabbit with eit
0000460:	6865	7220	6120	7761	6973	7463	6f61	742d	her a waistcoat-
0000470:	706f	636b	6574	2c20	6f72	2061	2077	6174	pocket, or a wat
0000480:	6368	2074	6f20	7461	6b65	206f	7574	206f	ch to take out o
0000490:	6620	6974	2c20	616e	6420	6275	726e	696e	f it, and burnin
00004a0:	6720	7769	7468	2063	7572	696f	7369	7479	g with curiosity
00004Ъ0:	2c20	7368	6520	7261	6e20	6163	726f	7373	, she ran across
00004c0:	2074	6865	2066	6965	6c64	2061	6674	6572	the field after
00004d0:	2069	742c	2061	6e64	2066	6f72	7475	6e61	it, and fortuna
00004e0:				6173					tely was just in
00004f0:	2074	696d	6520	746f	2073	6565	2069	7420	time to see it
0000500:	706f	7020	646f	776e	2061	206c	6172	6765	pop down a large
0000510:	2072	6162	6269	742d	686f	6c65	2075	6e64	rabbit-hole und
0000520:				2068					er the hedge. In
0000530:				6572					another moment
0000540:				656e					down went Alice
0000550:				6974					after it, never
0000550:				6f6e					once considering
0000570:				6e20					how in the worl
0000580:				7761					
0000580:							2007	0014	d she was to get
0000590:	2001	1014	2001	0101	0306	zeua			out again

Fig. 11. 31-round SHA-0: original message (part 2) $\,$

Preimages for Reduced SHA-0 and SHA-1

0000000:									'DB?.>A@4yPx
0000010:									~j.V
0000020:	13fd	7b20	5cbd	783c	9b3d	78d2	e0bd	8106	{ \.x<.=x
0000030:	fee5	2a1d	8efe	23eb	6bd8	7621	354f	0c9c	*#.k.v!50
0000040:	9Ъ86	3bbf	6469	db87	b11d	9195	707d	3f5a	;.dip}?Z
0000050:	277b	582e	44fa	9440	a57c	be61	14bc	7c39	'{X.D@. .a 9
0000060:	aabc	785e	3c7d	85ef	35bd	855d	1b7d	84fd	x^<}5].}
0000070:	a7d6	c497	a55a	d1ae	21ea	5210	19cc	f5e1	Z!.R
0000080:	b6a5	86d7	e20e	085d	e7ab	ab81	dd74	ffad	t
0000090:	6a33	7421	b5cf	5fa2	c709	48b3	836d	6f2a	j3t!Hmo*
00000a0:	8d3d	7e50	eefd	793c	2cbd	84ea	d83d	78bc	.=~Py<,=x.
00000Ъ0:	7d7b	64a9	483c	18f3	f559	a0d5	bf69	d5f8	}{d.H <yi< td=""></yi<>
00000c0:	5e7d	920f	9cbe	10a2	0d5d	5bb1	453d	7b31	^}][.E={1
00000d0:	d03d	7f7f	fe6d	019Ъ	5fa4	fed5	fbf5	79dd	.=y.
00000e0:	37bd	7ced	ddfd	79aa	18fd	7da7	063d	8622	7. y}=."
00000f0:	ece1	65d6	0372	499e	9c7c	8472	5267	8c88	erI .rRg
0000100:									G%]s}7.
0000110:									.= <b.52.w.iw.< td=""></b.52.w.iw.<>
0000120:	abfd	84fa	d93d	8646	9c3d	7774	b23d	7c79	=.F.=wt.= y
0000130:									A>m6
0000140:									o?^o;2e
0000150:	76ac	6b63	fa32	6784	510b	5c5d	cd0d	5413	v.kc.2g.Q.\]T.
0000160:									k } }Z
0000170:	d313	a994	f376	99d2	49ъ4	e6df	154a	5d84	vIJ].
0000180:									8Gew}.4
0000190:									T,=B
00001a0:									t.{Y%.yQq}x.
00001Ъ0:									SW7.e\$xajL.n
00001c0:									.]}okm{4
00001d0:									y[a;.+}Y.
00001e0:									.}6. .<.~.E
00001f0:									uy4
0000200:									\y.}ez.=C.
0000210:					986d				vpm .e}.c
0000220:									a=wP>=yD.}w.7=we
0000230:	c560	ac62	e5b2	47dd	01fe	aebe	e8ac	e99a	.'.bG
0000240:									.} w}.q
0000250:									{.M=1yu9
0000260:									Q={'V5}w.
0000270:									j58Y''I.TR
0000280:									Wz.co].
0000290:									r.!.s*W.3
00002a0:									.} 8
00002b0:									Y9[=Ye
00002c0:									;G}q
00002d0:									u.WILz
00002e0:									~=yU<
00002f0:									iAP.V.7.>\.&

Fig. 12. 31-round SHA-0: second preimage (part 1)

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				0054					"
0000300:									z#hQ.kos.\
0000310:									\S.K<.;Y.w.zZ
0000320:									
0000330:				4e38					WN8~Q
0000340:				9f98					D-s.
0000350:				a5a9					X:{H.Wua.
0000360:				7ac5					.=x.#.z.\$NG=z.
0000370:									l"QG9.
0000380:				bcc5					Jt.W.A.~.
0000390:				4864					z.9.HdT1 .
00003a0:				84b9					W.zp=z 7
00003Ъ0:	f88f	b361	8ec1	1971	f419	9d71	beb2	f4ca	aqq
00003c0:	1c42	eccf	31e1	3783	3e6d	bf75	3765	83a6	.B1.7.>m.u7e
00003d0:	41cc	5f17	c588	0436	df79	4dd9	fafd	752f	A6.yMu/
00003e0:	353d	7fcc	fffd	79e5	057d	7cc1	c93d	84b5	5=y} =
00003f0:	9080	9f98	75f5	c427	c6d3	ffbb	2d55	00d0	u'U
0000400:	3c01	d6c7	410b	7bcd	8d7c	f79e	c27d	7b5c	<
0000410:	f6dc	7047	4bd6	6e66	2ab7	84a2	2e7d	8676	pGK.nf*}.v
0000420:	b1fd	795b	dbbd	7e58	043d	82bf	9b3d	836Ъ	y[~X.==.k
0000430:	fbc6	0485	29f2	5213	6b02	b802	3b6a	30df).R.k;jO.
0000440:	fa7d	8887	177d	4027	298e	7ba9	145b	7aed	.}}@').{[z.
0000450:	303d	8219	9cbd	7c5f	1cf9	36b5	b439	3dee	0= 69=.
0000460:	b63d	76d4	9bfd	7b6c	bdbd	83b8	7e3d	8463	.=v{l~=.c
0000470:	93Ъ0	32ab	c928	2966	29aa	ae16	6ec5	9ad0	2()f)n
0000480:	067e	86bf	306d	7b87	f77d	ffb8	446d	7bcf	.~Om{}Dm{.
0000490:	143d	35b6	e879	39cf	d7b9	5c05	79bd	571f	.=5y9∖.y.W.
00004a0:	2cfd	8640	4f7d	80d7	bf3d	85b5	7d7d	7e35	,@0}=}}~5
00004b0:	ef2e	8255	95e1	8361	6086	946e	e1ce	3da9	Ua'n=.
00004c0:	e88c	eab7	23f1	0da3	261b	7baf	ce35	6bae	#&.{5k.
00004d0:	2f39	e040	12a1	a732	463d	693f	d915	7566	/9.@2F=i?uf
00004e0:	bfbd	7d9d	853d	7bee	f6bd	7d1e	1e3d	7afe	$$ }={}=z.
00004f0:	8ecb	8c22	62eb	7e25	7d3d	fbc1	0f75	350d	"b.~%}=u5.
0000500:	d281	c797	9775	6000	77df	9f95	3737	7fbb	u'.w77
0000510:	485c	79e1	0b9c	7585	0344	efea	56e4	f0e6	H\yuDV
0000520:	4b7d	78a6	2efd	7fc3	f03d	80c3	3f3d	827a	K}x=?=.z
0000530:	30c8	3047	1144	d3a9	104a	7c41	3947	4120	0.0G.DJ A9GA
0000540:	49a0	8a9f	5c1d	026Ъ	e885	6374	2775	8269	I\kct'u.i
0000550:	cb7d	017c	fcb4	c107	50fb	6c2e	37bb	71a6	.}. P.1.7.q.
0000560:									.}3o. w.
0000570:									H}r.j)
0000580:									d she was to get
0000590:									out again

Fig. 13. 31-round SHA-0: second preimage (part 2)