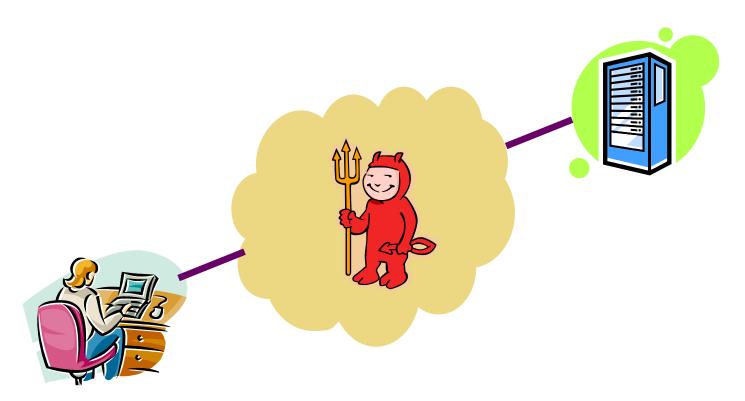
How to use Cryptography

CS155

Not How to use Cryptography

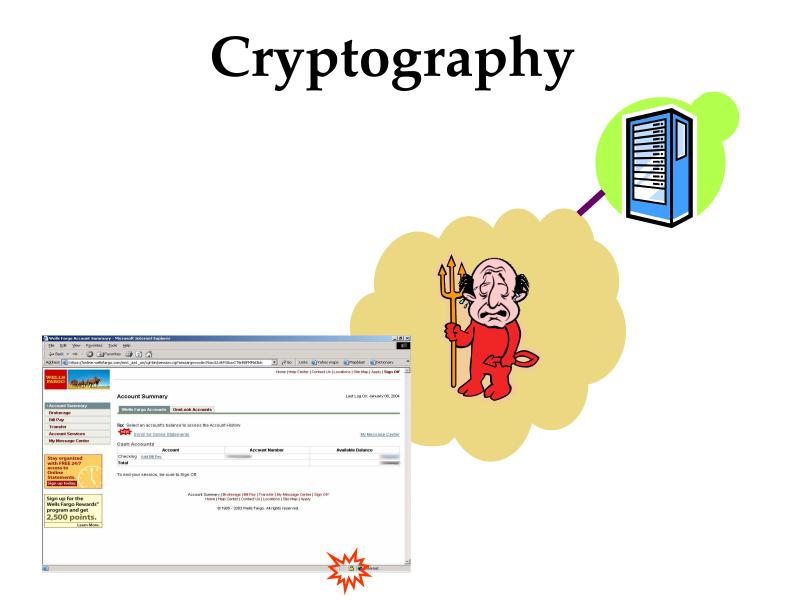
CS155

Motivation: communication security



• To a first approximation, attackers control network

- We will talk about *how* they do this in two weeks
- But imagine attackers can intercept you packets, tamper with or suppress them, and inject arbitrary packets



- Still possible to communicate securely
 - Cryptography is a tool that can often help

[Symmetric] Encryption

- Encryption keeps communications secret
- An encryption algorithm has two functions: E and D
 - To communicate secretly, parties share secret key *K*
- Given a message *M*, and a key *K*:
 - *M* is known as the *plaintext*
 - $E(K,M) \rightarrow C$ (*C* known as the *ciphertext*)
 - $D(K,C) \rightarrow M$
 - Attacker cannot efficiently derive *M* from *C* without *K*
- Note *E* and *D* take same argument *K*
 - Thus, also sometimes called *symmetric* encryption

One-time pad

- Share a completely random key *K*
- Encrypt *M* by XORing with *K*:

$$E(K,M) = M \oplus K$$

• Decrypt by XORing again:

$$D(K,C)=C\oplus K$$

- Advantage: Information-theoretically secure
 - Given *C* but not *K*, any *M* of same length equally likely
- Disadvantage: *K* must be as long as *M*
 - Makes distributing *K* for each message difficult

Idea: Computational security

- Distribute small *K* securely (e.g., 128 bits)
- Use *K* to encrypt far larger *M* (e.g., 1 MByte file)
- Given C = E(K, M), may be only one possible M
 - If *M* has redundancy
- But believed computationally intractable to find
 - E.g., could try every possible K, but 2^{128} keys a lot of work!

Types of encryption

• Stream ciphers – pseudo-random pad

- Generate pseudo-random stream of bits from short key
- Encrypt/decrypt by XORing as with one-time pad
- But **NOT** one-time PAD! (People who claim so are frauds!)

• Most common algorithm type: Block cipher

- Operates on fixed-size blocks (e.g., 64 or 128 bits)
- Maps plaintext blocks to same size ciphertext blocks
- Today should use AES; other algorithms: DES, Blowfish, ...

Example stream cipher (RC4)

• Initialization:

```
S[0...255] ← permutation ⟨0,...255,⟩
(based on key—specifics omitted)
i ← 0; j ← 0
```

• Generating pseudo-random bytes:

```
i \leftarrow (i+1) \mod 256;

j \leftarrow (j+S[i]) \mod 256;

\mathbf{swap} \ S[i] \leftrightarrow S[j];

t \leftarrow (S[i]+S[j]) \mod 256;

\mathbf{return} \ S[t];
```

RC4 security

• Goal: be indistinguishable from random sequence

- given part of the output stream, it should be intractable to distinguish it from a truly random string

Problems

- Second byte of RC4 is 0 with twice expected probability [MS01]
- Bad to use many related keys (see WEP 802.11b) [FMS01]
- Recommendation: Discard the first 256 bytes of RC4 output [RSA, MS]

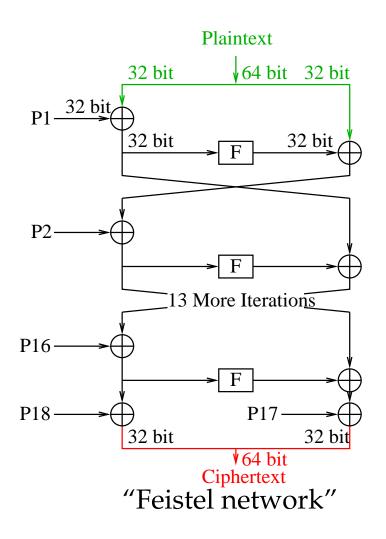
Example use of stream cipher

- Pre-arrange to share secret s with web vendor
- Exchange payment information as follows
 - Send: E(s, ``Visa card #3273...'')
 - Receive: E(s, "Order confirmed, have a nice day")
- Now an eavesdropper can't figure out your Visa #

Wrong!

- Let's say an attacker has the following:
 - $c_1 = \text{Encrypt}(s, \text{``Visa card #3273...''})$
 - c_2 = Encrypt(s, "Order confirmed, have a nice day")
- Now compute:
 - $m \leftarrow c_1 \oplus c_2 \oplus$ "Order confirmed, have a nice day"
- Lesson: Never re-use keys with a stream cipher
 - Similar lesson applies to one-time pads (That's why they're called **one-time** pads.)

Example block cipher (blowfish)



- Derive F and 18 subkeys from Key— $P_1 \dots P_{18}$
- Divide plaintext block into two halves, L_0 and R_0

•
$$R_i = L_{i-1} \oplus P_i$$

 $L_i = R_{i-1} \oplus F(R_i)$

•
$$R_{17} = L_{16} \oplus P_{17}$$

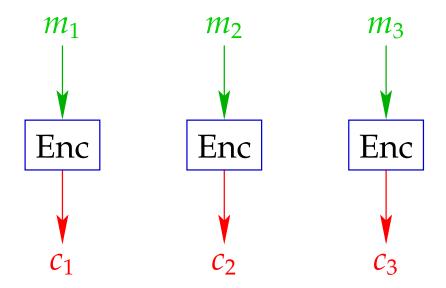
 $L_{17} = R_{16} \oplus P_{18}$

• Output $L_{17}R_{17}$.

(Note: This is just to give an idea; it's not a complete description)

Using a block cipher

- In practice, message may be more than one block
- Encrypt with ECB (electronic code book) mode:
 - Split plaintext into blocks, and encrypt separately

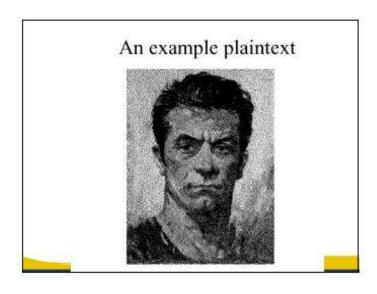


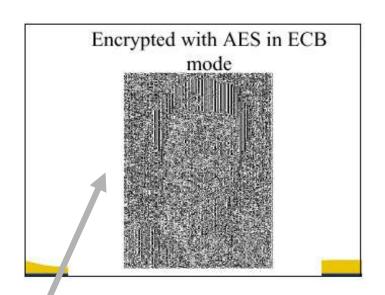
- Attacker can't decrypt any of the blocks; message secure
- Note: can re-use keys, unlike stream cipher
 - Every block encrypted with cipher will be secure

Wrong!

- Attacker will learn of repeated plaintext blocks
 - If transmitting sparse file, will know where non-zero regions lie
- Example: Intercepting military instructions
 - Most days, send encryption of "nothing to report."
 - On eve of battle, send "attack at dawn."
 - Attacker will know when battle plans are being made

Another example [Preneel]





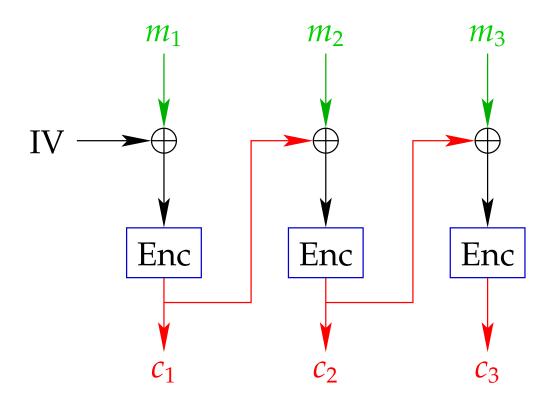
Encrypted with AES in CBC mode

Similar plaintext blocks produce similar ciphertext (see outline of head)

What we want: No apparent pattern

Cipher-block chaining (CBC)

- $c_1 = E(K, m_i \oplus IV)$, $c_i = E(K, m_i \oplus c_{i-1})$
- Ensures repeated blocks are not encrypted the same



Encryption modes

- CBC, ECB are encryption modes, but there are others
- Cipher Feedback (CFB) mode: $c_i = m_i \oplus E(K, c_{i-1})$
 - Useful for messages that are not multiple of block size
- Output Feedback (OFB) mode:
 - Repeatedly encrypt IV & use result like stream cipher
- Counter (CTR) mode: $c_i = m_i \oplus E(K, i)$
 - Useful if you want to encrypt in parallel
- Q: Given a shared key, can you transmit files securely over net by just encrypting them in CBC mode?

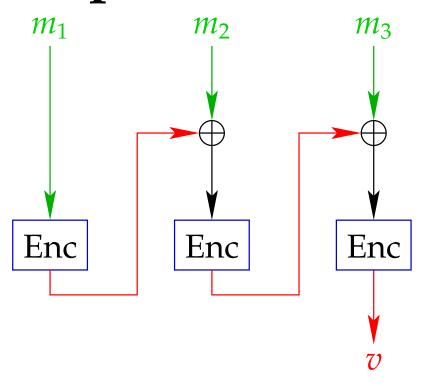
Problem: Integrity

- Attacker can tamper with messages
 - E.g., corrupt a block to flip a bit in next
- What if you delete original file after transfer?
 - Might have nothing but garbage at recipient
- Encryption does not guarantee integrity
 - A system that uses encryption alone (no integrity check) is often incorrectly designed.
 - Exception: Cryptographic storage (to protect disk if stolen)

Message authentication codes

- Message authentication codes (MACs)
 - Sender & receiver share secret key *K*
 - On message m, MAC(K, m) $\rightarrow v$
 - Intractable to produce valid $\langle m, v \rangle$ without K
- To send message securely, append MAC
 - Send $\{m, MAC(K, m)\}\$ (m could be ciphertext, E(K', M))
 - Receiver of $\{m, v\}$ checks $v \stackrel{?}{=} MAC(K, m)$
- Careful of Replay don't believe previous $\{m, v\}$

Example: CBC MAC



- Encrypt M in CBC mode, keep only last block
 - Or re-encrypt last block w. different key to strengthen
- Do not use CBC MAC as encryption
 - Must encrypt/MAC in two passes with two keys
 - More efficient single-pass "Authenticated encryption modes" such as OCB exist, but non-obvious; don't roll your own

Cryptographic hashes

Hash arbitrary-length input to fixed-size output

- Typical output size 160–512 bits
- Cheap to compute on large input (faster than network)

Collision-resistant: Intractable to find

$$x \neq y$$
, $H(x) = H(y)$

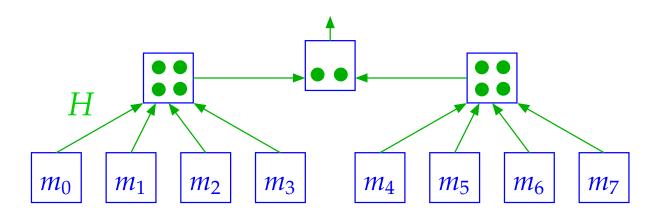
- Of course, many such collisions exist
- But no one has been able to find one, even after analyzing the alrogithm

• Most popular hash SHA-1

- [Nearly] broken
- Today should use SHA-256 or SHA-512

Applications of cryptographic hashes

- Small hash uniquely specifies large data
 - Hash a file, remember the hash value
 - Recompute hash later, if same value no tampering
 - Hashes often published for software distribution
- Hash tree [Merkle] lets you verify check small piece of large file/database with log number of nodes



HMAC

- Use cryptographic hash to produce MAC
- $\mathsf{HMAC}(K, m) = H(K \oplus \mathsf{opad}, H(K \oplus \mathsf{ipad}, m))$
 - *H* is a cryptographic hash such as SHA-1
 - ipad is 0x36 repeated 64 times, opad 0x5c repeated 64 times
- Note: Don't just use H(K,M) as a MAC
 - Say you have $\{M, SHA-1(K, M)\}$, but not K
 - Can produce $\{M', SHA-1(K, M')\}$ where $M' \neq M$

Order of Encryption and MACs

• Should you Encrypt then MAC, or vice versa?

Order of Encryption and MACs

- Should you Encrypt then MAC, or vice versa?
- MACing encrypted data is always secure
- Encrypting {Data+MAC} may not be secure!
 - Consider the following secure, but stupid encryption alg
 - Transform $m \to m'$ by mapping each bit to two bits: Map $0 \to 00$ (always), $1 \to \{10, 01\}$ (randomly pick one)
 - Now encrypt *m'* with a stream cipher to produce *c*
 - Attacker flips two bits of *c*—if msg rejected, was 0 bit in *m*

Public key encryption

• Three randomized algorithms:

- Generate $G(1^k) \rightarrow K, K^{-1}$
- $Encrypt E(K, m) \rightarrow \{m\}_K$
- $Decrypt D(K^{-1}, \{m\}_K) \rightarrow m$

Provides secrecy, like conventional encryption

- Can't derive m from $\{m\}_K$ without knowing K^{-1}

• Encryption key *K* can be made public

- Can't derive K^{-1} from K
- Everyone can use the same public key to encrypt messages for one recipient.

The RSA algorithm

• Generation:

- Pick two primes, p and q, let N = pq
- Pick random *e* that does not divide (p-1)(q-1)
- Compute *d* such that $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
- Public key: *N*, *e*, private key *N*, *d*
- If $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, then $(m^e \mod N)^d \mod N = m$.
- Fact: For large enough p, q and random m
 - Given N, e, and $m^e \mod N$, but not p, q, d
 - No one knows practical algorithm to find *m*
- To encrypt a message, just treat bits as number and compute $m^e \mod N$.

Wrong!

- What if message is from a small set (yes/no)?
- What if I want to outbid you in secret auction?
 - I take your encrypted bid *c* and submit $c (101/100)^e \mod n$.
- What if there's some protocol in which I can learn other message decryptions?
 - E.g., people escrow ciphertexts, and get them back under certain circumstances (if an employee is fired or dies)
 - I take your ciphertext $c = m^e \mod n$, and escrow $c2^e \mod n$.
 - After I'm fired, my coconspirator gets back 2*m*
- Many people make this mistake, including SSL
 - SSL didn't return decryptions, bur error messages had some information

Notions of security

How do design systems using RSA?

- You don't want to think about interactions between your error messages, modular exponentiation, and lattice theory.

A PKS is adaptive chosen ciphertext secure if

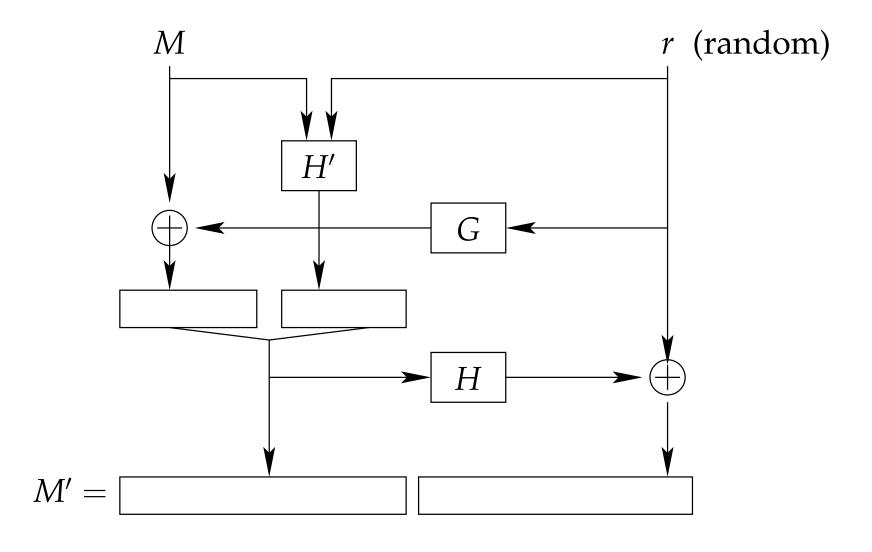
- No attacker A can win the following game with probability more than 1/2+negligible:
- A can first ask for arbitrary messages to be decrypted
- A then produces two messages, m_0 and m_1
- The good guy flips a coin $b \leftarrow \{0,1\}$, returns $c = E(K, m_b)$.
- *A* can ask for any messages except *c* to be decrypted
- *A* guesses the value of *b*

Achieving Adaptive CC security

- Good properties for message → integer mapping
 - Randomness: unique ciphertext even for same message
 - Redundancy: make most strings invalid ciphertexts
 - Entanglement: partial information about integer should reveal nothing about message
 - Invertibility: of course, need to recover message
- Note last two were achieved by Fiestel network
- Can use similar idea to construct a padding scheme

Practical solution: OAEP+ [Shoup]

• Transforms plaintext M into number M' for RSA:



Not provable, but heuristically secure

Digital signatures

• Three (randomized) algorithms:

- Generate $G(1^k) \rightarrow K, K^{-1}$
- $Sign S(K^{-1}, m) \rightarrow \{m\}_{K^{-1}}$
- $Verify V(K, \{m\}_{K^{-1}}, m) \rightarrow \{true, false\}$

• Provides integrity, like a MAC

- Cannot produce valid $\langle m, \{m\}_{K^{-1}} \rangle$ pair without K^{-1}

Many keys support both signing & encryption

- But Encrypt/Decrypt and Sign/Verify different algorithms!
- Common error: Sign by "encrypting" with private key

Digital signature security

- Want signatures to be secure for all applications
 - Analogous to strength of encryption definition
- Existential unforgeability against chosen message attack => attacker has negligible chance of winning this game:
 - Attacker asks you to sign m_0, m_1, \ldots, m_n
 - Attacker gets valid s_i after request for m_i
 - Attacker outputs (m', s'), where $m' \notin \{m_i\}$ and $Verify(K, m', s') = \mathbf{true}$

Example: ElGamal signatures

• Key generation:

- Chose large prime p, generator g of \mathbf{Z}_p^* (p, g can be global)
- Select *x* such that $1 \le x \le p-2$, compute $y \leftarrow g^x \mod p$
- Public key is (p, g, y), private key is (p, g, x)

• Signature of m is (r,s), computed as follows:

- Chose random k s.t. $1 \le k \le p-2$ and $k^{-1} \mod p-1$ exists
- Set $r \leftarrow g^k \mod p$, $s \leftarrow k^{-1} (H(m) xr) \mod (p-1)$

• Verification:

- Sanity check: $1 \le r \le p-1$
- Verify: $y^r r^s \stackrel{?}{\equiv} g^{H(m)} \pmod{p}$
- $y^r r^s = (g^{xr})(g^{ks}) = g^{xr+ks} = g^{xr+k \cdot k^{-1}(H(m)-xr)} = g^{H(m)}$

Cost of cryptographic operations

Operation	msec
Encrypt	0.18
Decrypt	6.60
Sign	6.71
Verify	0.03

[1,280-bit Rabin-Williams keys on 3 GHz Pentium IV]

- Cost of public key algorithms significant
 - Encryption only on small messages (< size of key)
 - Signature cost relatively insensitive to message size
- In contrast, symmetric algorithms much cheaper
 - Symmetric can encrypt+MAC faster than 100Mbit/sec LAN

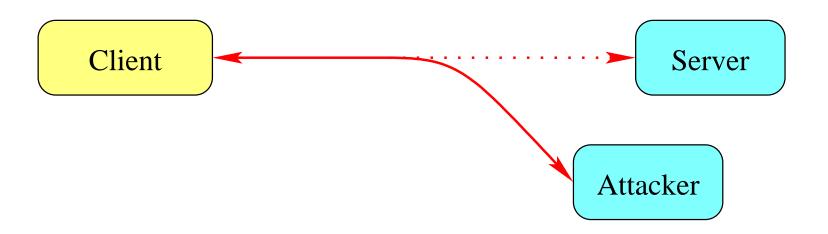
Hybrid schemes

- Use public key to encrypt symmetric key
 - Send message symmetrically encrypted: $\{msg\}_{K_S}$, $\{K_S\}_{K_P}$
- Use PK to negotiate secret session key
 - E.g., Client sends server $\{K_1, K_2, K_3, K_4\}_{K_P}$
 - Client sends server: $\{\{m_1\}_{K_1}, MAC(K_2, \{m_1\}_{K_1})\}$
 - Server sends client: $\{\{m_2\}_{K_3}, MAC(K_4, \{m_2\}_{K_3})\}$
- Often want mutual authentication (client & server)
 - Or more complex, user(s), client, & server

Server authentication

- An approach: Use public key cryptography
 - Give client public key of server
 - Lets client authenticate secure channel to server
- Problem: Key management problem
 - How to get server's public key?
 - How to know the key is really server's?

Danger: impersonating servers



- Attacker pretends to be server, gives its own pub key
- Client sends sensitive data to fake server
- Attacker sends bad data back to client

Man in the middle attacks

Attacker might not look like server

- E.g., user might notice different web site & not send password

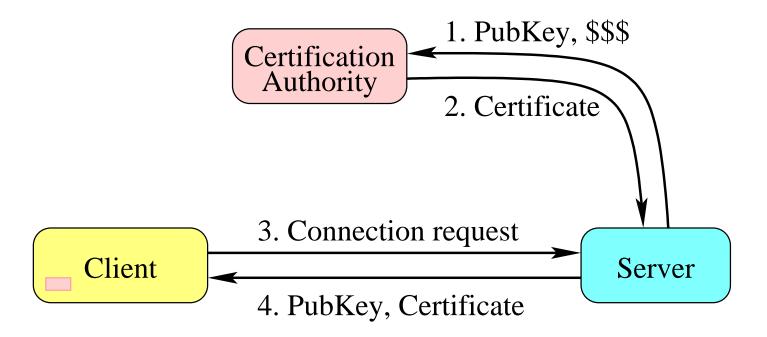
• Man in the middle attack foils user:

- Attacker emulates server when talking to client
- Attacker emulates client when talking to server
- Attacker passes most messages through unmodified
- Attacker substitutes own public key for client's & server's
- Attacker records secret data, or tampers to cause damage

Key management

- Put public keys in the phone book
 - How do you know you have the real phone book?
 - How is a program supposed to use phone book www.phonebook.com? (are you talking to real web server)
- Exchange keys with people in person
- "Web of trust" get keys from friends you trust

Certification authorities



- Everybody trusts some certification authority
- Everybody knows authority's public key
 - E.g., built into web browser

SSL/TLS Overview

- SSL offers security for HTTP protocol
 - That's what the padlock means in your web browser



- Authentication of server to client
- Optional authentication of client to server
 - Incompatibly implemented in different browsers
 - CA infrastructure not in widespread use
- Confidentiality of communications
- Integrity protection of communications

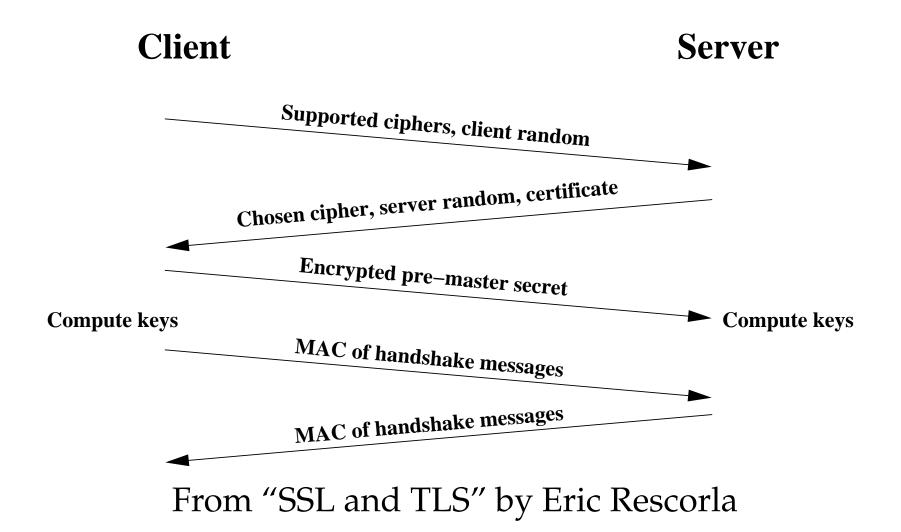
Purpose in more detail

- Authentication based on certification authorities (CAs)
 - Certifies who belongs to a public key (domain name and real name of company)
 - Example: Verisign
- What SSL Does Not Address
 - Privacy
 - Traffic analysis
 - Trust management

Ciphersuites: Negotiating ciphers

- Server authentication algorithm (RSA, DSS)
- Key exchange algorithm (RSA, DHE)
- Symmetric cipher for confidentiality (RC4, DES)
- MAC (HMAC-MD5, HMAC-SHA)

Overview of SSL Handshake



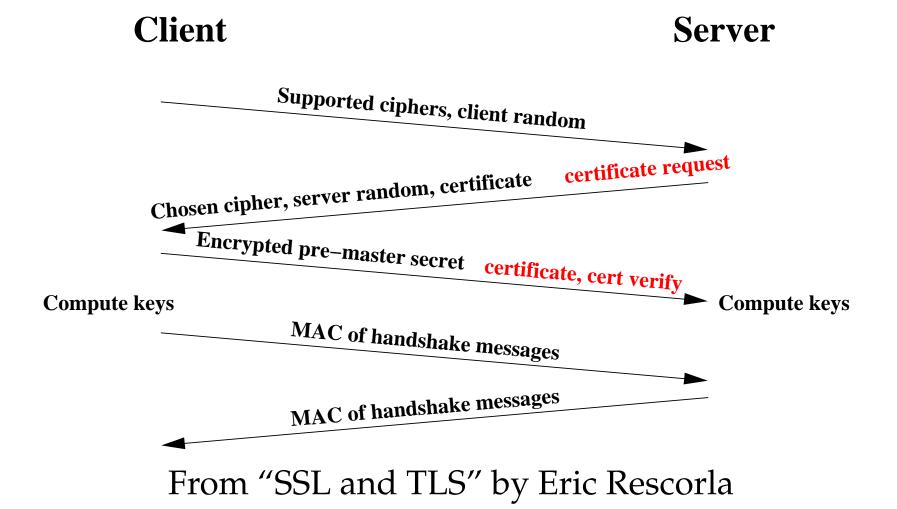
Simplified SSL Handshake

- Client and server negotiate on cipher selection.
- Cooperatively establish session keys.
- Use session keys for secure communication.

Client Authentication Handshake

- Server requests that client send its certificate.
- Client signs a signed digest of the handshake messages.

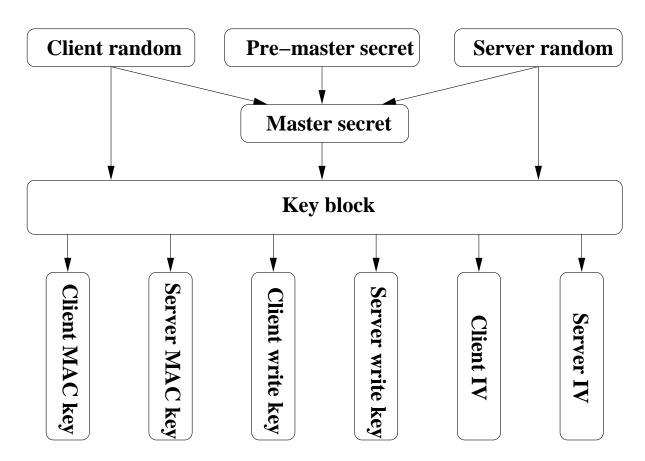
SSL Client Certificate



Establishing a Session Key

- Server and client both contribute randomness.
- Client sends server a "pre-master secret" encrypted with server's public key.
- Use randomness and pre-master secret to create session keys:
 - Client MAC
 - Server MAC
 - Client Write
 - Server Write
 - Client IV
 - Server IV

Establishing a Session Key



From "SSL and TLS" by Eric Rescorla

Session Resumption

- Problem: Public key crypto expensive
- New TCP connection, reuse master secret.
 - Avoids unnecessary public key cryptography.
- Combines cached master secret with new randomness to generate new session keys.
- Works even when the client IP changes (servers cache on session ID, clients cache on server hostname).

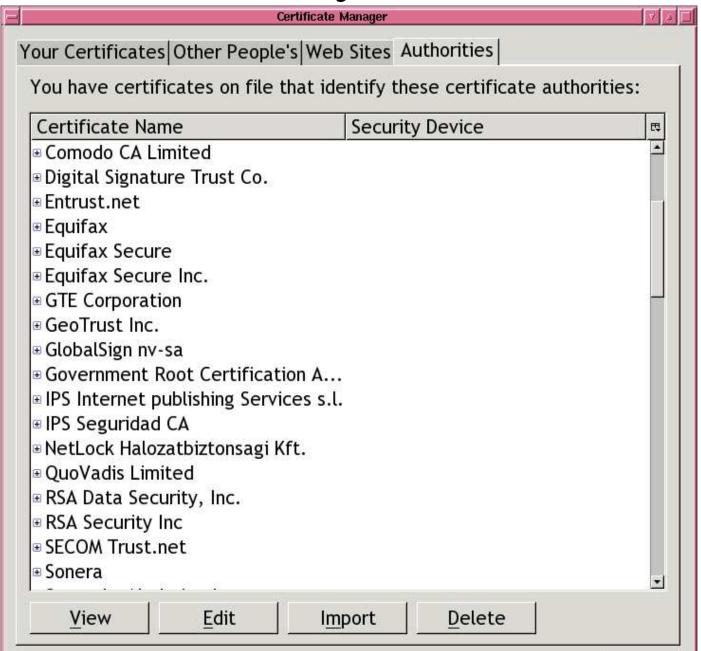
What does CA mean by certificate?

- That a public key belongs to someone authorized to represent a hostname?
- That a public key belongs to someone who is associated in some way with a hostname?
- That a public key belongs to someone who has lots of paper trails associated to a company related to a hostname?
- That the CA has no liability?
- >100-page Certification Practice Statement (CPS)

How to get a Verisign certificate

- Pay Verisign (\$300)
- Get DBA license from city call (\$20)
 - No on-line check for name conflicts...can I do business as Microsoft?
- Letterhead from company (\$0)
- Notarized document (need driver's license) (\$0)
- Conclusions:
 - Easy to get a fraudulent certificate
 - Maybe not so easy to avoid prosecution afterwards
- But that's only Verisign's policy
 - Many CAs can issue certificates

So many CAs...



-p.53/5

CA Convenience vs. Security

• How convenient is a Verisign certificate?

- Need \$300 + cooperation from Stanford IT to get one here
- Good for credit cards, but shuts out many other people

• How trustworthy is a Verisign certificate?

- In mid-March 2001, VeriSign, Inc., advised Microsoft that on January 29 and 30, 2001, it issued two... [fraudulent] certificates.... The common name assigned to both certificates is "Microsoft Corporation."

VeriSign has revoked the certificates.... However... it is not possible for any browser's CRL-checking mechanism to locate and use the VeriSign CRL.

- Microsoft Security Bulletin MS01-017