

Agenda

Security Engineering Fall 2015

*Lecture 11 – Cryptography
(or 2000 years in 2 hours)*

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- **Topic**
 - Introduction
 - Symmetric key cryptography
 - Hash (one-way) functions
 - Public key cryptography
 - Digital signatures
 - Authentication – key establishment
- **Disclaimer**
 - This is a quick summary to provide an introduction to people who have no crypto background. For the real thing attend the Crypto course.

Terminology

Why do we need cryptogrphay?

- **Cryptography**
 - the science of designing methods “secret writing”.
- **Cryptanalysis**
 - The science of methods for analysing and breaking ciphers.
- **Cryptology = cryptography & cryptanalysis.**
- **Cryptography today**
 - the study of mathematical techniques related to aspects of information security, such as confidentiality, data integrity, entity authentication, and data origin authentication.
- **Why do we need it?**

- **Because we want to talk over a channel that only process bits**
- **Do bits have colors?**
 - Alice sends Bob a stream of “green” bits b1...bn
 - Charlie sends Bob the same stream of “red” bits.
 - If bits had colors Alice could tell them apart
- **Are bits invisible?**
 - Alice sends Bob a stream of “invisible” bits b1...bn
 - Charlie can read the stream b1...bn
 - If bits were invisible only Bob could read them

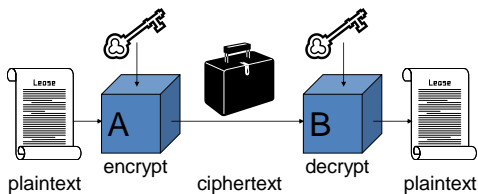
Security services

- **Data confidentiality: encryption** hides the content of messages.
- **Data integrity: integrity check functions (hash functions)** detect changes to documents.
- **Data origin authentication: digital signatures and message authentication codes** verify the source and integrity of documents
- **More services may mean authentication against a third party vs authentication for yourself only**

Encryption

- **Encryption algorithms (ciphers) protect the confidentiality of data.**
 - Some (but not all) encryption algorithms can also be used for integrity checks.
- **A plaintext (clear text) x is converted into a ciphertext $eK(x)$ under the control of a key K .**
- **Decryption with an appropriate key K' computes the plaintext from the ciphertext $dK'(eK(x))=x$**
- **Properties**
 - If you don't know K' the message should look random.
 - Relation between K and K' determines type of crypto

Symmetric key encryption



Symmetric Key Cryptography

- **Properties**
 - Symmetric ciphers (secret key cryptography): same key used for encryption & decryption.
 - Encryption protects documents on the way from A to B.
 - A and B have to share a key and keep their keys secret.
 - A procedure is required for A and B to obtain their shared key.
 - For n parties to communicate directly, about n^2 keys are needed.
- **Example**
 - SWIFT (the network used for international bank transfers) use symmetric keys to encrypt data in transit
 - Long ago people with a suitcase full of key material (a tape) had to physically bring the key material across the world.

Block ciphers & stream ciphers

- **Block ciphers: encrypt sequences of “long” data blocks without changing the key.**
 - Security relies on design of encryption function.
 - Typical block length: 64 bits, 128 bits.
- **Stream ciphers: encrypt sequences of “short” data blocks under a changing key stream.**
 - Security relies on design of key stream generator.
 - Encryption can be quite simple, e.g. XOR.
 - Typical block length: 1 bit, 1 byte, 8-bit word
- **Typical usage**
 - Stream cipher → streaming data (eg phone conversation)
 - Block cipher → data at rest (eg image)

One time pad

- **Very simple algorithm**
 - Given a streaming sequence of N message bits p_i
 - Take a sequence of N truly random bits k_i
 - To encrypt → $c_i = k_i \text{ xor } m_i$
 - Decrypt → $m_i = m_i \text{ xor } k_i$
- **Properties**
 - Perfect confidentiality in information theoretic sense
 - BUT only if you use the key only ONCE
 - Zero integrity protection
 - (so good only if integrity protected otherwise)
 - Hugely expensive: truly random sequence are difficult to generate

Sorry man, I have a 1GB file...

- **If your file is large and your block ciphers only do 128B how do you do encrypt the whole?**
 - “chain” the result of the first encryption to encrypt the data of the second and so on
 - Basically generalize the idea of the one-time pad
- **Key-only chaining (stream ciphers style)**
 - $K_{i+1} = \text{enc}(K, K_i)$
- **Text and Key chaining (many variants)**
 - $C_{i+1} = P_{i+1} \text{ xor } \text{enc}(K, C_i)$
- **Advantage:**
 - if touch a bit decryption fails → can spot manipulation
- **Disadvantage:**
 - if you touch a bit decryption fails → can't recover the plaintext

Block Ciphers

- **Algorithms: AES (Rijndael), DES, 3DES, ...**
- **Typical block sizes: 64, 128, 256 bits.**
- **No provable security.**
- **Algorithms designed to resist known attacks: e.g. differential & linear cryptanalysis.**
- **Recommended key length: 80-90 bits.**
- **DES: 56-bit keys vulnerable to brute-force key search.**

Key Size (bits)	Number of Alternative Keys	Time Required at 1 Decryption/μs	Time Required at 10 ⁶ Decryptions/μs
32	$2^{32} = 4.3 \times 10^9$	$2^{32} \mu\text{s} = 35.8 \text{ minutes}$	2.15 milliseconds
56	$2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$	$2^{56} \mu\text{s} = 1142 \text{ years}$	10.01 hours
128	$2^{128} = 3.4 \times 10^{38}$	$2^{127} \mu\text{s} = 5.4 \times 10^{25} \text{ years}$	$5.4 \times 10^{18} \text{ years}$
168	$2^{168} = 3.7 \times 10^{50}$	$2^{167} \mu\text{s} = 5.9 \times 10^{36} \text{ years}$	$5.9 \times 10^{29} \text{ years}$
26 characters (guessability)	$26! = 4 \times 10^{26}$	$2 \times 10^{26} \mu\text{s} = 6.4 \times 10^{12} \text{ years}$	$6.4 \times 10^5 \text{ years}$

Cryptographic hash functions

- **Cryptographic hash functions are used for integrity checks.**
- **Apply a hash function h to a document x and store the result $h(x)$ in a secure place.**
- **The result $h(x)$ is called “hash value”, “message digest”, or “checksum”.**
- **Changes to x detected by re-computing the hash of x and comparing the result with the stored value.**

Security properties

- **Ease of computation: it is easy to compute $h(x)$.**
- **Compression: the hash function maps inputs of arbitrary length to fixed length results.**
- **Pre-image resistance (one-way): given y , it is computationally infeasible to find x so that $h(x)=y$.**
- **More properties**
 - weak collision resistance
 - computationally infeasible given x to find $y \neq x$ such that $H(y) = H(x)$
 - strong collision resistance
 - computationally infeasible to find any pair (x, y) such that $H(x) = H(y)$
- **Many hash functions: *SHA, RIPEMD-160, MD5* (dubious)**
- **As of now no proof that they always work**
 - Actually their existence is at the core of P vs NP question

Message authentication codes

- **Hash functions do not need keys.**
- **For integrity checks, hash values have to be protected: keys for cryptographic protection.**
- **Message authentication code (MAC): keyed hash function for data origin authentication.**
- **HMAC construction: take a hash function h , for a key k and a document x , compute**
- **$HMAC(x) = h(k || p_1 || h(k || p_2 || x))$**
(p_1, p_2 are padding fields, $||$ is concatenation)

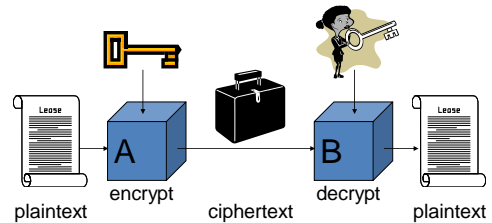
Back to square one?

- **Symmetric key encryption:**
 - sender and receiver have to share a key.
- **Keyed Hash:**
 - sender and receiver have to share a key
- **To send a secret message from A to B, or to verify the integrity of a message from A to B we have to get a secret key to A and B first.**
 - To solve the problem of sending secret messages, we have to solve the problem of sending secret keys.
- **Are we moving in circles?**

Public key encryption

- **Proposed in the open literature by Diffie & Hellman in 1976.**
 - Arguably invented by British Secret Service some year earlier
- **Each party has a *public encryption key* and a *private decryption key*.**
- **Computing the private key from the public key should be computationally infeasible.**
- **The public key need not be kept secret but it is not necessarily known to everyone.**
- **There exist applications where access to public keys is restricted.**

Encryption with public keys



Basic idea

Protocol for A

- **A and B share off line**
 - common parameters P_{ab}
- **A computes**
 - random number X_a
- **A sends**
 - $1\text{-way-}A(P_{ab}, X_a)$
- **A computes**
 - Combine- $A(1\text{-way-}B(P_{ab}, X_b), X_a)$
- **If the math commutes A and B share a secret**

Protocol for B

- **A and B share off line**
 - common parameters P_{ab}
- **B computes**
 - random number X_b
- **B sends**
 - $1\text{-way-}B(P_{ab}, X_b)$
- **B computes**
 - Combine- $B(1\text{-way-}A(P_{ab}, X_a), X_b)$
- **If the math commutes A and B share a secret**

Diffie Hellman

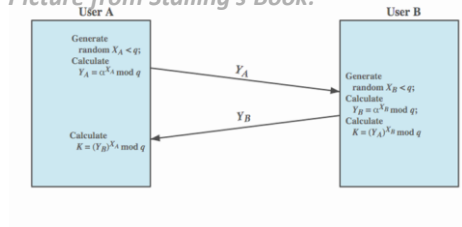
- **Based on the discrete log problem**
- **Given**
 - p is prime number
 - g is a primitive root of p (generator)
 - powers of g generate all integers from 1 to $p-1$
 - m any integer $< p$
- **Compute discrete logarithm a**
 - $m = g^a \pmod p$ for $0 \leq a \leq p-1$
- **Computationally untractable (as of now)**
- **However something commutes**
 - $(g^a)^b = (g^b)^a$

Diffie-Hellman Example

- **Have**
 - prime number $q = 353$
 - primitive root $g = 3$
- **A and B each compute their private secret (X_A, X_B) and public keys (Y_A, Y_B)**
 - A computes $Y_A = 3^{97} \text{ mod } 353 = 397 \text{ mod } 353 = 40$
 - B computes $Y_B = 3^{233} \text{ mod } 353 = 3233 \text{ mod } 353 = 248$
- **then exchange (Y_A, Y_B) and compute shared secret**
 - for A: $K = (Y_B)^{X_A} \text{ mod } 353 = 248^{97} \text{ mod } 353 = 160$
 - for B: $K = (Y_A)^{X_B} \text{ mod } 353 = 40^{233} \text{ mod } 353 = 160$
 - Math (modulo p): $(Y_B)^{X_A} = (g^{X_B})^{X_A} = g^{X_B \cdot X_A} = (g^{X_A})^{X_B} = (Y_A)^{X_B}$
- **attacker must**
 - Solve $3^x \text{ mod } 353 = 40$ to find x which is hard
 - desired answer is 97, then compute key as B does

Key Exchange Protocols

- **Picture from Stalling's Book:**



Some complications...

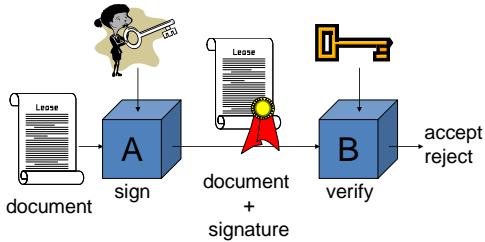
- **What if messages can be changed in transit?**
- **How do you beat a Chess Master?**
 - Have another chess master playing against him
- **DH can be attacked because it only guarantee confidentiality but not integrity**
- **Attack**
 - A send Y_A to B and C intercepts it
 - C sends Y_C to B claiming to be A
 - B sends Y_B to A and C intercepts it
 - C sends Y_C to B claiming to be B
 - What has A? What has B? What has C?

Digital signature mechanisms

- **Used for non-repudiation, origin authentication and data integrity services.**
- **Used in some authentication exchange mechanisms.**
- **Digital signature mechanisms have three components:**
 - key generation
 - signing procedure (private)
 - verification procedure (public)

Digital signatures

Digital Signatures



- **A has a public verification key and a private signature key**(\rightarrow public key cryptography).
- **A uses her private key to compute her signature on document m .**
- **B uses a public verification key to check the signature on a document m he receives.**
- **At this technical level, digital signatures are a cryptographic mechanism for associating documents with verification keys.**

Digital Signatures continued

Electronic signatures

- **To get an authentication service that links a document to A's name (identity) and not just a verification key, we require a procedure for B to get an authentic copy of A's public key.**
- **Only then do we have a service that proves the authenticity of documents 'signed by A'.**
- **Yet even such a service does not provide non-repudiation at the level of persons.**

- **Digital signatures: mathematical evidence linking a document to a public key.**
- **Electronic signatures: a security service for associating documents with legal persons.**
- **The link between a public key and a person has to be established by procedural means.**
- **This link can be recorded in a certificate.**
- **Certificates are not necessary for verifying digital signatures, verification keys are.**

Certificates

- **How do you get a verification key?**
 - Public key cryptosystems often assume there is a public directory of user names and keys.
 - But a “Global PK directory” does not exist
- **Kohfelder [1978]: implement the directory as a set of digitally signed data records containing a name and a public key; he coined the term *certificate* for these records.**
- **Today: a certificate is a *signed document* binding a *subject* to other information; subjects can be people, keys, names, ...**

Certification Authorities

- **Certificates are signed by an Issuer.**
- **Certification Authority (CA) is just another name for Issuer.**
- **Sometimes CA is used more narrowly for organizations issuing ID certificates [PKIX].**
- **The application determines the technical and procedural ‘trust’ requirements a CA has to meet.**
- **Sometimes Trusted Third Party (TTP) is used as a synonym for CA.**

Public Key Infrastructures

- **The protocols, services and standards that facilitate the use of public-key cryptography by allowing the secure distribution of public keys between communicating parties.**
- **PKI standards: X.509 [ISO/IEC 9594-8], PKIX [RFC 2459], PKCS.**
- **X.509 certificates were intended to bind public keys [originally passwords] to X.500 path names (Distinguished Names) who has permission to modify X.500 directory nodes.**

X.509 certificates

- **User certificate (public key certificate, certificate): the public key of a user, together with some information, rendered unforgeable by encipherment with the secret key of the certification authority which issued it.**
- **Attribute certificate: a set of attributes of a user together with some other information, digitally signed under the private key of the CA.**
- **Certification authority: an authority trusted by one or more users to create and assign certificates.**

X.509v3 certificate format

version (v3)
 serial number
 signature algorithm id
 issuer name
 validity period
 subject name
 subject public key info
 issuer unique identifier
 subject unique identifier
 extensions

Extensions: added to increase flexibility.

Critical extensions: if a critical extension cannot be processed, the certificate must be rejected.

Critical extensions are also used to standardize policy.

extensionID
 critical: YES/NO
 extensionValue

Revocation

- **Certificates may have to be revoked**
 - if a corresponding private key is compromised.
 - if a fact the certificate vouches for no longer is valid.
- **Certification Revocation Lists (CRLs):**
 - Distributed in regular intervals or on demand.
 - Make sense if on-line checks are not possible or too expensive.
- **When on-line checks are feasible, certificate status can be queried on-line:**
 - Online Certificate Status Protocol – OCSP.
 - Positive lists in the German signature infrastructure.

Question...

- **In order to verify a certificate you need a verification key.**
 - If you get a verification key from a certificate, how do you get a certificate?
- **Ask a certificate server to send you a signed certificate**
 - How do you get the verification key to check the key that signed the certificate?
- **Ask a certificate server to send you a signed certificate certifying the certificate server...**
 - Spot a certain loop here?
- **Need a root of trust**
 - How many people trust

How to bootstrap trust?

- **Do you trust...**
 - TÜRKTRUST Bilgi İletişim ve Bilişim Güvenliği Hizmetleri A.Ş.
 - A-Trust Ges. f. Sicherheitssysteme im elektr. Datenverkehr GmbH
 - Go Daddy Root Certificate Authority - G2
 - CA 沃通根证书
 - XRamp Security Services Inc
- **How many of you actually trusted in the last month...**
 - GeoTrust Universal CA

Oh man but I have still my 1GB...

- **How do you sign a 1GB file?**
- **The mathematician's correct answer**
 - I just use elliptic curve over a field of "1GB" instead of 512Bits
 - You'll die before the algorithm calculates that
- **The computer scientist's hack**
 - Let m be very large
 - Compute $\text{hash}(m)$ – now this is small
 - Compute $\text{sign}(\text{privK}, \text{hash}(m))$
 - If hash is broken \rightarrow digital signature down the pipe

Sorry man, I also need encrypting my 1GB

- **How do you encrypt a 1GB file?**
- **The dumb CS hack**
 - Let m be very large
 - Compute $\text{hash}(m)$ – now this is small
 - Compute $\text{enc}(\text{pubK}, \text{hash}(m))$
- **The smart CS's hack**
 - Let m be very large
 - Generate a random symmetric key session K
 - Compute $\text{enc}(\text{sessionK}, m)$, $\text{enc}(\text{pubK}, \text{sessionK})$
 - Send both
 - If symmetric encryption broken \rightarrow security broken

Key exchange and distribution

- **Crypto transforms (communications) security problems into key management problems.**
- **To use encryption, digital signatures, or MACs, the parties involved have to hold the "right" cryptographic keys.**
- **With public key algorithms, parties need authentic public keys.**
- **With symmetric key algorithms, parties need shared secret keys.**

Key usage

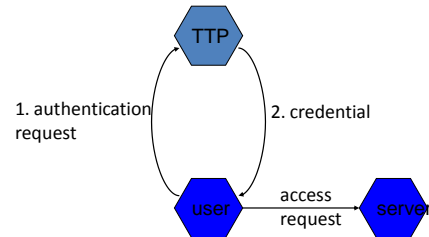
- **It is good cryptographic practice to restrict the use of keys to a specific purpose.**
- **In key management, we may use key encrypting keys and data encrypting keys.**
- **Examples for key usages:**

Encryption	Decryption
Signature	Non-repudiation
Master key	Transaction key ...
- **With RSA, don't use a single key pair both for encryption and for digital signatures.**

Key establishment & TTPs

- In a protocol like TLS where key authentication is based on digital signatures, we may need a **Trusted Third Party (TTP)** to vouch for the authenticity of verification keys.
- In a protocol where authentication is based on symmetric cryptographic algorithms, a TTP may serve as a **key distribution centre (KDC)** supplying parties with session keys.

Key distribution



Key distribution

- **Advantage: scalability** – a single authentication server can support many servers and users.
- The credential tells the server that the user has been authenticated.
- The credential could contain a **session key** to be shared between user and server so that the server can authenticate further requests.
- The TTP would also serve as **Key Distribution Centre (KDC)**.

Kerberos

- Kerberos was developed at MIT for user authentication in a distributed system.
- The parties involved are client **A**, server **B**, and Kerberos authentication server (KAS) **S**.
- Based on the **Needham-Schroeder key establishment ("authentication")** protocol: the server provides **A** and **B** with a session key.
- Uses a symmetric encryption algorithm.
- More of this in the network security lectures

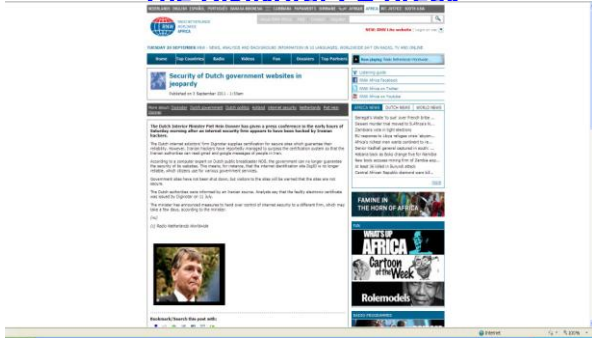
Cryptographic keys

- **Most cryptographic algorithms take a *key* as one of their inputs.**
- **Kerckhoffs' principle: Do not rely on the secrecy of cryptographic algorithms; only the keys have to be kept secret.**
- **State of the art: Standardized algorithms that have been examined quite intensively and are often the strongest part in a security architecture.**
- **Good key management practices are required to reap the benefits of strong cryptography.**

Key management questions

- **Where are keys generated?**
- **How are keys generated?**
- **Where are keys stored?**
- **How do they get there?**
- **Where are the keys actually used?**
- **How are keys revoked and replaced?**
- **When keys are stored on a computer, cryptography relies on strong computer security.**
- **If the keys are computer generated (and not truly random numbers) cryptography rely on strong random number generators**

The DigiNotar CA Break



The DigiNotar CA Break



Resources

- **Chapters 2,19, 20 and 21. Stallings & Brown. Computer Security Principles and Practice.**
- **Chapter 14,15. Dieter Gollmann. Computer Security**
- **Alfred Menezes, Paul van Oorschot, Scott Vanstone: Handbook of Applied Cryptography**
<http://www.cacr.math.uwaterloo.ca/hac/>
- **Bruce Schneier: Applied Cryptography**