

Lecture 9

October 10, 2022

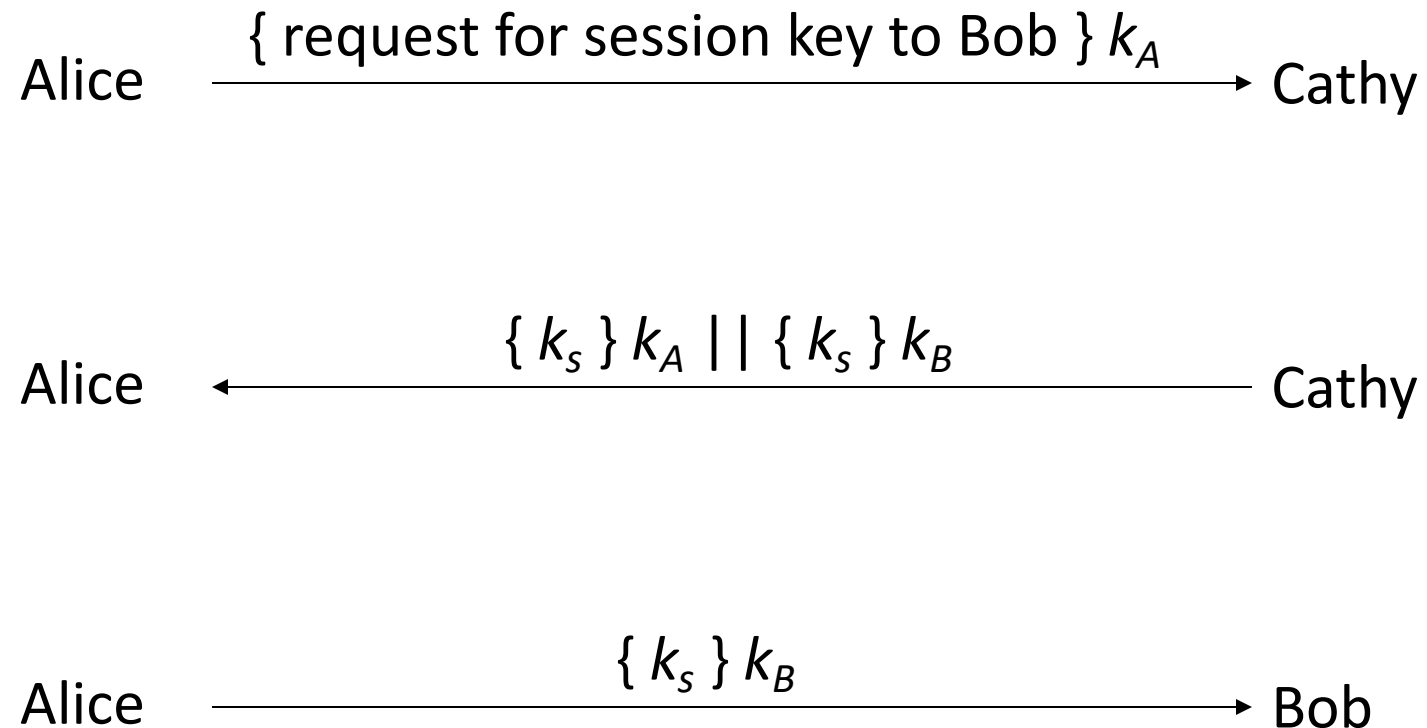
Notation

- $X \rightarrow Y : \{ Z || W \} k_{X,Y}$
 - X sends Y the message produced by concatenating Z and W enciphered by key $k_{X,Y}$, which is shared by users X and Y
- $A \rightarrow T : \{ Z \} k_A || \{ W \} k_{A,T}$
 - A sends T a message consisting of the concatenation of Z enciphered using k_A , A 's key, and W enciphered using $k_{A,T}$, the key shared by A and T
- r_1, r_2 nonces (nonrepeating random numbers)

Symmetric Key Exchange

- Bootstrap problem: how do Alice, Bob begin?
 - Alice can't send it to Bob in the clear!
- Assume trusted third party, Cathy
 - Alice and Cathy share secret key k_A
 - Bob and Cathy share secret key k_B
- Use this to exchange shared key k_S

Simple Protocol



Problems

- How does Bob know he is talking to Alice?
 - Replay attack: Eve records message from Alice to Bob, later replays it; Bob may think he's talking to Alice, but he isn't
 - Session key reuse: Eve replays message from Alice to Bob, so Bob re-uses session key
- Protocols must provide authentication and defense against replay

Session, Interchange Keys

- Alice wants to send a message m to Bob
 - Assume public key encryption
 - Alice generates a random cryptographic key k_s and uses it to encipher m
 - To be used for this message *only*
 - Called a *session key*
 - She enciphers k_s with Bob's public key k_B
 - k_B enciphers all session keys Alice uses to communicate with Bob
 - Called an *interchange key*
 - Alice sends $\{ m \} k_s \{ k_s \} k_B$

Benefits

- Limits amount of traffic enciphered with single key
 - Standard practice, to decrease the amount of traffic an attacker can obtain
- Prevents some attacks
 - Example: Alice will send Bob message that is either “BUY” or “SELL”. Eve computes possible ciphertexts $\{ \text{“BUY”} \} k_B$ and $\{ \text{“SELL”} \} k_B$. Eve intercepts enciphered message, compares, and gets plaintext at once

Kerberos

- Authentication system
 - Based on Needham-Schroeder with Denning-Sacco modification
 - Central server plays role of trusted third party (“Cathy”)
- Ticket
 - Issuer vouches for identity of requester of service
- Authenticator
 - Identifies sender

Idea

- User u authenticates to Kerberos server
 - Obtains ticket $T_{u,TGS}$ for ticket granting service (TGS)
- User u wants to use service s :
 - User sends authenticator A_u , ticket $T_{u,TGS}$ to TGS asking for ticket for service
 - TGS sends ticket $T_{u,s}$ to user
 - User sends $A_u, T_{u,s}$ to server as request to use s
- Details follow

Ticket

- Credential saying issuer has identified ticket requester
- Example ticket issued to user u for service s

$$T_{u,s} = s || \{ u || u's \text{ address} || \text{valid time} || k_{u,s} \} k_s$$

where:

- $k_{u,s}$ is session key for user and service
- Valid time is interval for which ticket valid
- u 's address may be IP address or something else
 - Note: more fields, but not relevant here

Authenticator

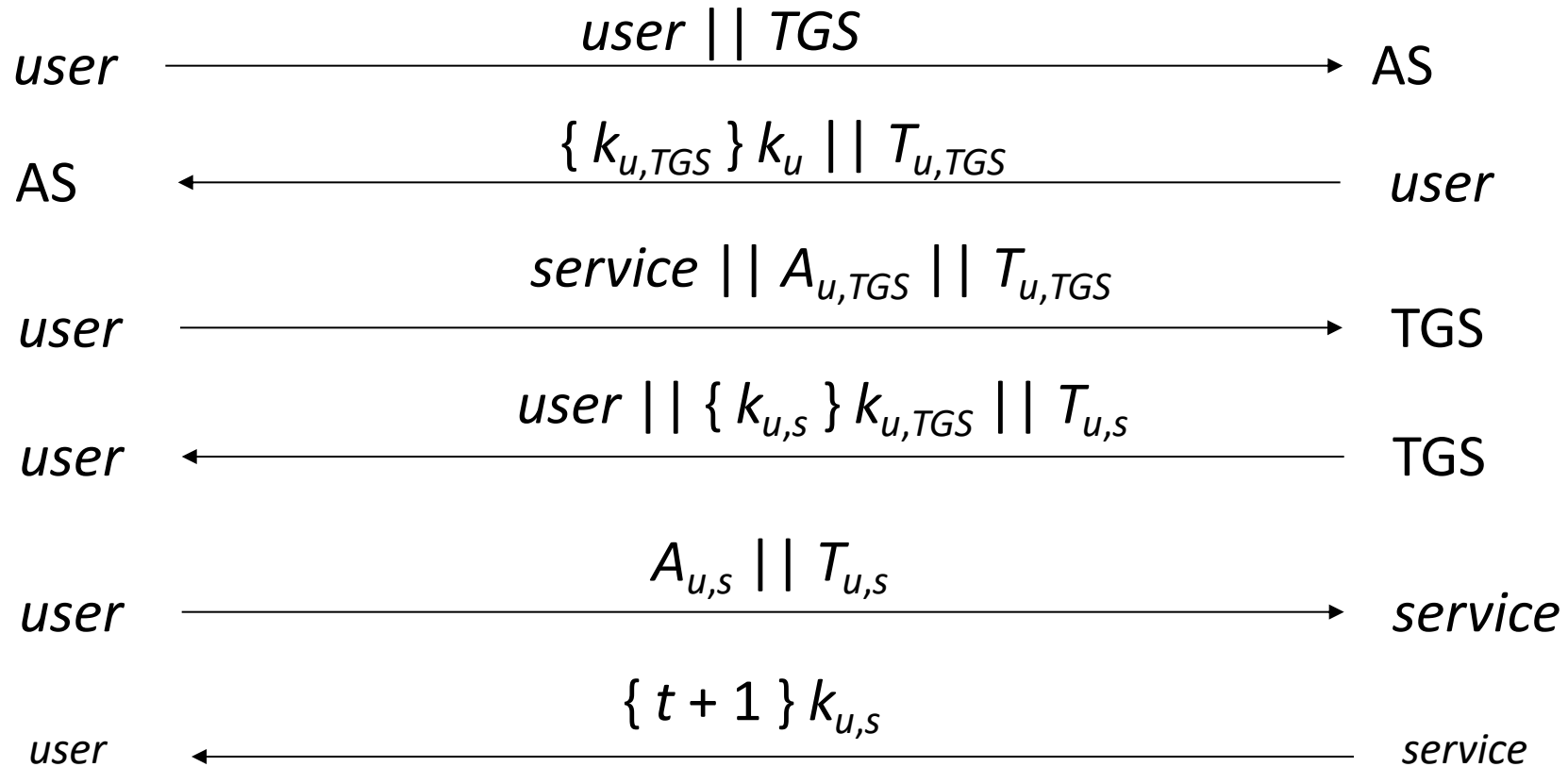
- Credential containing identity of sender of ticket
 - Used to confirm sender is entity to which ticket was issued
- Example: authenticator user u generates for service s

$$A_{u,s} = \{ u \ || \ \text{generation time} \ || \ k_t \} k_{u,s}$$

where:

- k_t is alternate session key
- Generation time is when authenticator generated
 - Note: more fields, not relevant here

Protocol



Analysis

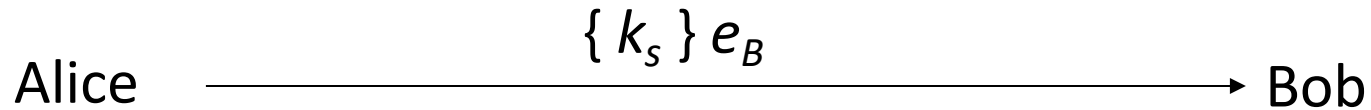
- First two steps get user ticket to use TGS
 - User u can obtain session key only if u knows key shared with AS
- Next four steps show how u gets and uses ticket for service s
 - Service s validates request by checking sender (using $A_{u,s}$) is same as entity ticket issued to
 - Step 6 optional; used when u requests confirmation

Problems

- Relies on synchronized clocks
 - If not synchronized and old tickets, authenticators not cached, replay is possible
- Tickets have some fixed fields
 - Dictionary attacks possible
 - Kerberos 4 session keys weak (had much less than 56 bits of randomness); researchers at Purdue found them from tickets in minutes

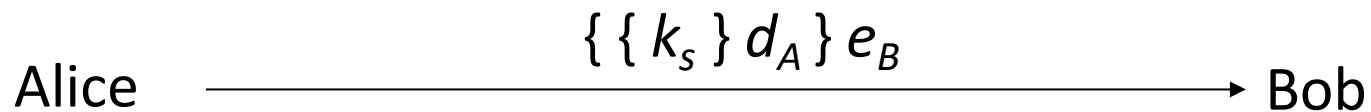
Public Key Key Exchange

- Here interchange keys known
 - e_A, e_B Alice and Bob's public keys known to all
 - d_A, d_B Alice and Bob's private keys known only to owner
- Simple protocol
 - k_s is desired session key



Problem and Solution

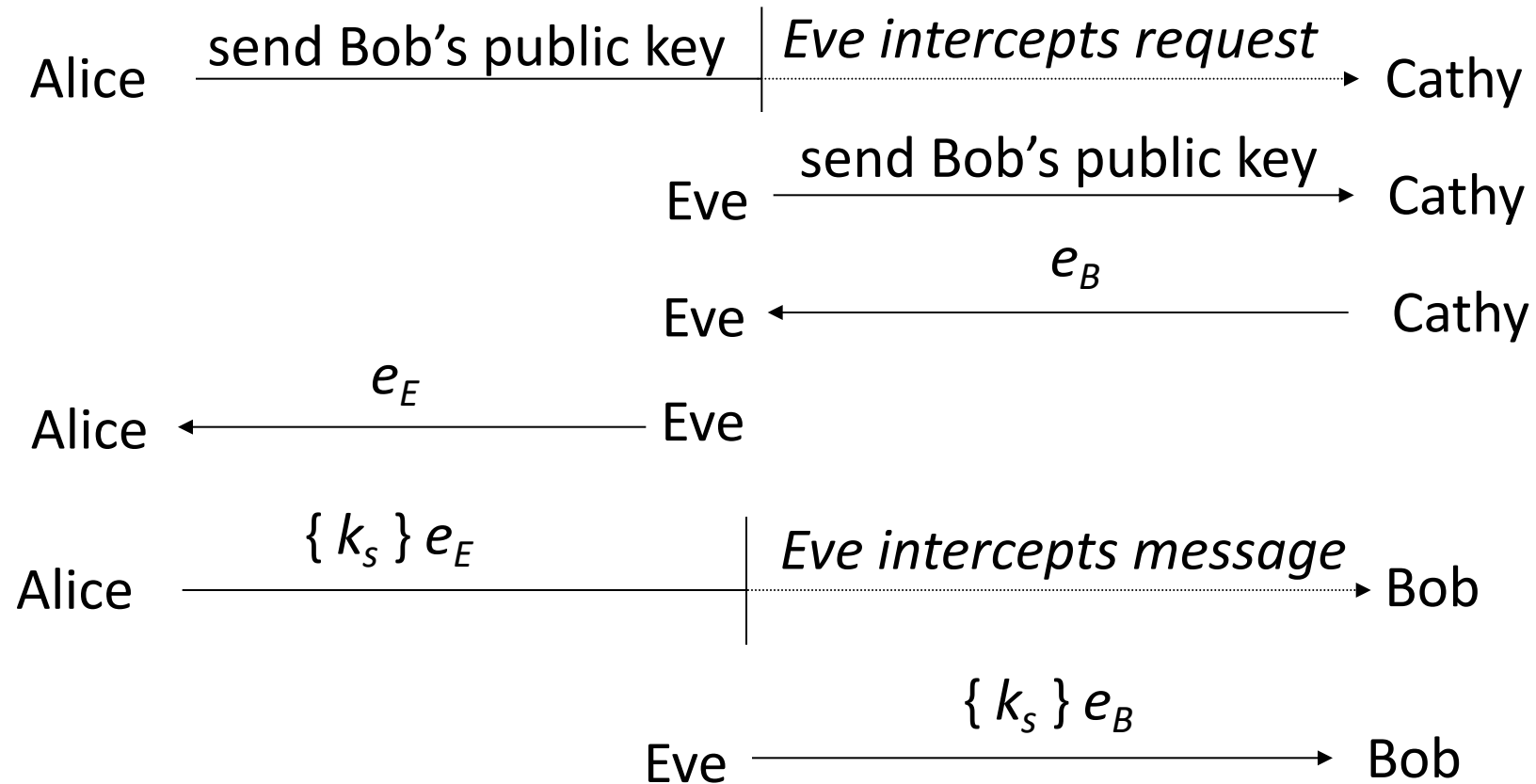
- Vulnerable to forgery or replay
 - Because e_B known to anyone, Bob has no assurance that Alice sent message
- Simple fix uses Alice's private key
 - k_s is desired session key



Notes

- Can include message enciphered with k_s
- Assumes Bob has Alice's public key, and *vice versa*
 - If not, each must get it from public server
 - If keys not bound to identity of owner, attacker Eve can launch a *man-in-the-middle* attack (next slide; Cathy is public server providing public keys)
 - Solution to this (binding identity to keys) discussed later as public key infrastructure (PKI)

Man-in-the-Middle Attack



Diffie-Hellman

- Compute a common, shared key
 - Called a *symmetric key exchange protocol*
- Based on discrete logarithm problem
 - Given integers n , g and prime number p , compute k such that $n = g^k \pmod p$
 - Solutions known for small p
 - Solutions computationally infeasible as p grows large

Algorithm

- Constants: prime p , integer $g \neq 0, 1, p-1$
 - Known to all participants
- Alice chooses private key k_{Alice} , computes public key $K_{\text{Alice}} = g^{k_{\text{Alice}}} \bmod p$
- Bob chooses private key k_{Bob} , computes public key $K_{\text{Bob}} = g^{k_{\text{Bob}}} \bmod p$
- To communicate with Bob, Anne computes $K_{\text{Alice,Bob}} = K_{\text{Bob}}^{k_{\text{Alice}}} \bmod p$
- To communicate with Anne, Bob computes $K_{\text{Bob,Alice}} = K_{\text{Alice}}^{k_{\text{Bob}}} \bmod p$
- It can be shown $K_{\text{Alice,Bob}} = K_{\text{Bob,Alice}}$

Example

- Assume $p = 121001$ and $g = 6981$
- Alice chooses $k_{\text{Alice}} = 526784$
 - Then $K_{\text{Alice}} = 6981^{526784} \bmod 121001 = 22258$
- Bob chooses $k_{\text{Bob}} = 5596$
 - Then $K_{\text{Bob}} = 6981^{5596} \bmod 121001 = 112706$
- Shared key:
 - $K_{\text{Bob}}^{k_{\text{Alice}}} \bmod p = 112706^{22258} \bmod 121001 = 78618$
 - $K_{\text{Alice}}^{k_{\text{Bob}}} \bmod p = 22258^{112706} \bmod 121001 = 78618$

Problems

- Using cipher requires knowledge of environment, and threats in the environment, in which cipher will be used
 - Is the set of possible messages small?
 - Can an active wiretapper rearrange or change parts of the message?
 - Do the messages exhibit regularities that remain after encipherment?
 - Can the components of the message be misinterpreted?

Attack #1: Precomputation

- Set of possible messages M small
- Public key cipher f used
- Idea: precompute set of possible ciphertexts $f(M)$, build table $(m, f(m))$
- When ciphertext $f(m)$ appears, use table to find m
- Also called *forward searches*

Example

- Cathy knows Alice will send Bob one of two messages: enciphered BUY, or enciphered SELL
- Using public key e_{Bob} , Cathy precomputes
$$m_1 = \{ \text{BUY} \} e_{Bob}, m_2 = \{ \text{SELL} \} e_{Bob}$$
- Cathy sees Alice send Bob m_2
- Cathy knows Alice sent SELL

May Not Be Obvious

- Digitized sound
 - Seems like far too many possible plaintexts, as initial calculations suggest 2^{32} such plaintexts
 - Analysis of redundancy in human speech reduced this to about 100,000 ($\approx 2^{17}$), small enough for precomputation attacks

Misordered Blocks

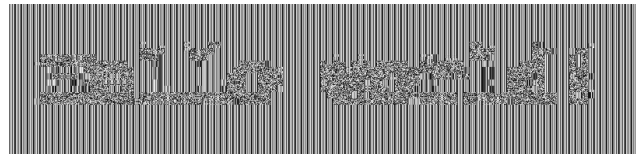
- Alice sends Bob message
 - $n_{Bob} = 262631, e_{Bob} = 45539, d_{Bob} = 235457$
- Message is TOMNOTANN (191412 131419 001313)
- Enciphered message is 193459 029062 081227
- Eve intercepts it, rearranges blocks
 - Now enciphered message is 081227 029062 193459
- Bob gets enciphered message, deciphers it
 - He sees ANNNOTTOM, opposite of what Alice sent

Statistical Regularities

- If plaintext repeats, ciphertext may too
- Example using AES-128:

- Input image: `Hello world!`

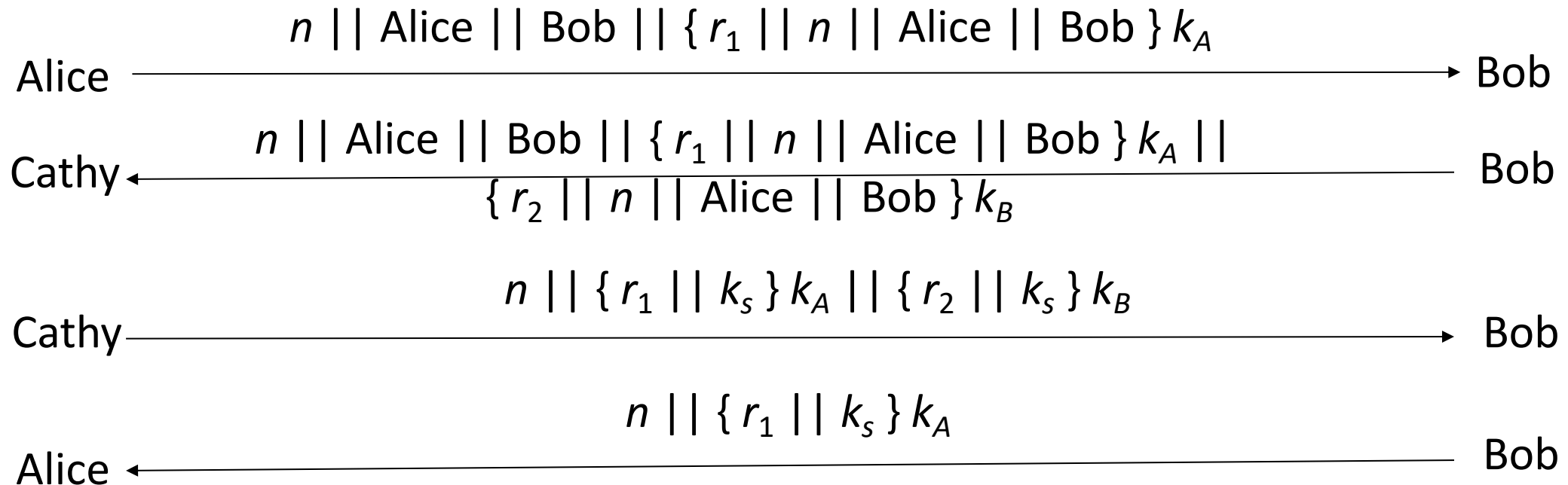
- corresponding output image:



- Note you can still make out the words
 - Fix: cascade blocks together (chaining); more details later

Type Flaw Attacks

- Assume components of messages in protocol have particular meaning
- Example: Otway-Rees:



The Attack

- Ichabod intercepts message from Bob to Cathy in step 2
- Ichabod *replays* this message, sending it to Bob
 - Slight modification: he deletes the cleartext names
- Bob *expects* $n || \{ r_1 || k_s \} k_A || \{ r_2 || k_s \} k_B$
- Bob *gets* $n || \{ r_1 || n || Alice || Bob \} k_A || \{ r_2 || n || Alice || Bob \} k_B$
- So Bob sees $n || Alice || Bob$ as the session key — and Ichabod knows this
- When Alice gets her part, she makes the same assumption
- Now Ichabod can read their encrypted traffic

Solution

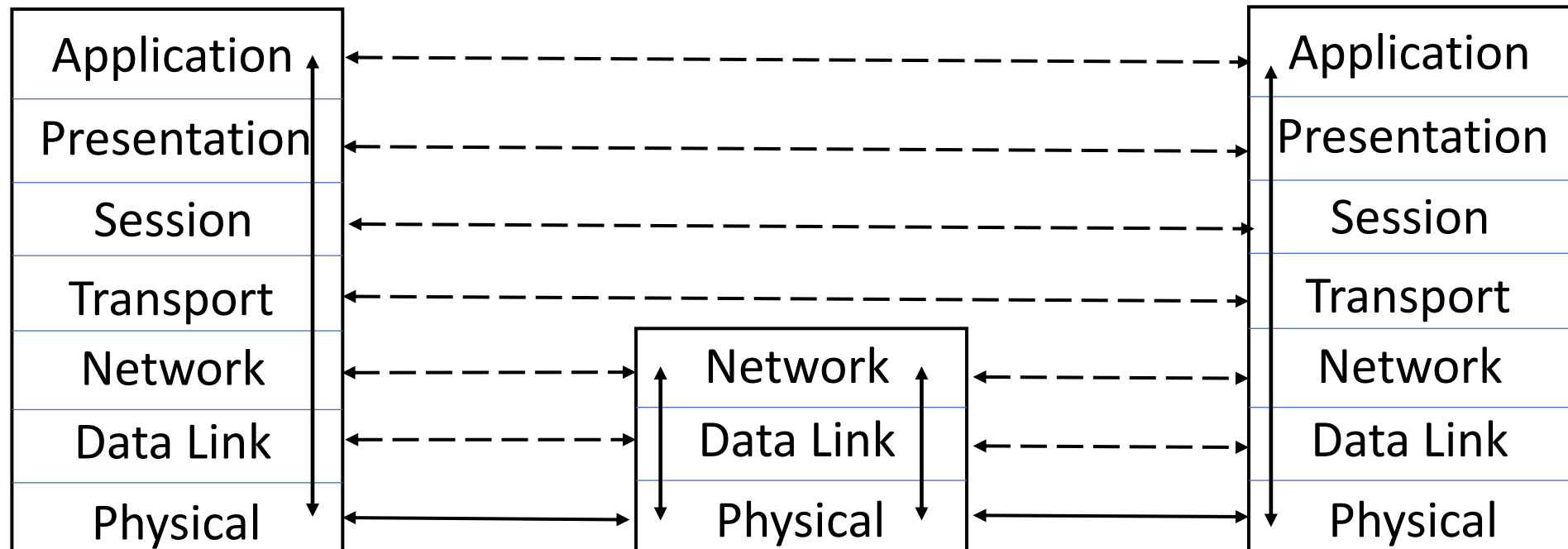
- Tag components of cryptographic messages with information about what the component is
 - But the tags themselves may be confused with data ...

What These Mean

- Use of strong cryptosystems, well-chosen (or random) keys not enough to be secure
- Other factors:
 - Protocols directing use of cryptosystems
 - Ancillary information added by protocols
 - Implementation (not discussed here)
 - Maintenance and operation (not discussed here)

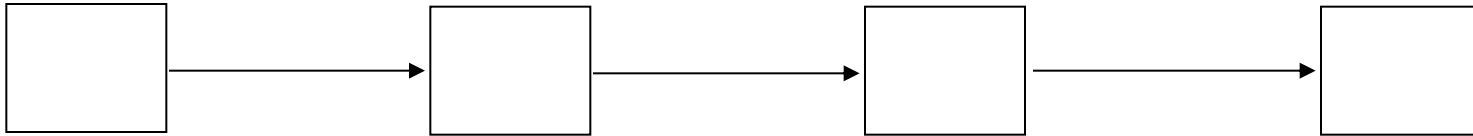
Networks and Cryptography

- ISO/OSI model
- Conceptually, each host communicates with peer at each layer



Link and End-to-End Protocols

Link Protocol



End-to-End (or E2E) Protocol

