



Network Security

Secure Channel Add-On



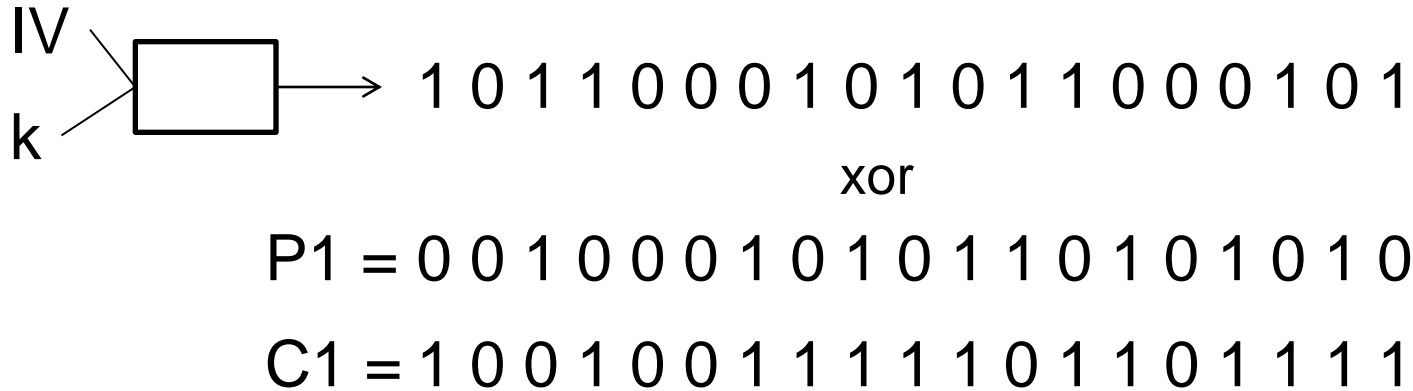
- ❑ Part I: The Secure Channel
- ❑ **Part II: Attacks against Secure Channel**
- ❑ Part III: Authenticated Encryption



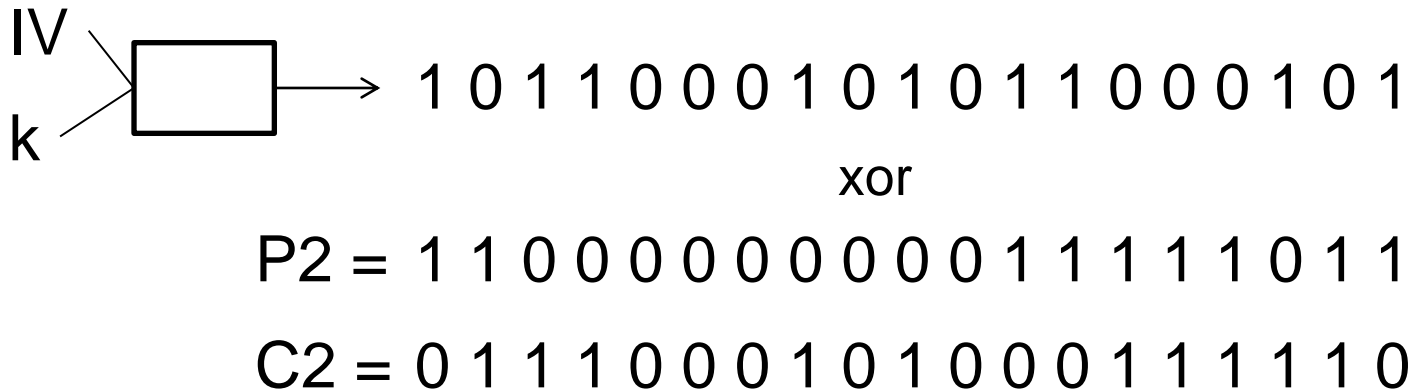
- ❑ Part I: The Secure Channel
- ❑ Part II: Attacks against Secure Channel
 - ❑ **Attacks against Secure Channel with Stream Cipher**
- ❑ Part III: Authenticated Encryption



□ Re-use of Initialization Vector (IV)



Then some time later the same IV is used again:





- Re-use of Initialization Vector (IV) continued

$$C1 = 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1$$

$$C2 = 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0$$

$$C1+C2 = 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1$$

$$= = = = = = = = = = = = = \dots \rightarrow P1+P2=C1+C2$$

$$P1+P2 = 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1$$

$$P1 = 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0$$

$$P2 = 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1$$

- As we see from the example, the attacker can compute $C1+C2$ because he observes $C1$ and $C2$, but that means he knows also $P1+P2$.
- Known Plaintext (e.g. $P1$) \rightarrow attacker can compute other plaintext
- Statistical properties of plaintext can be used if plaintext is not random-looking. That means if entropy of $P1+P2$ is low.



- ❑ Part I: The Secure Channel
- ❑ Part II: Attacks against Secure Channel
 - ❑ **Padding Oracle Attack against bad combination of CBC mode and MAC**
- ❑ Part III: Authenticated Encryption



- Passwords
 - N: size of alphabet (number of different characters)
 - L: length of password in characters
- Complexity of guessing a randomly-generated password / secret
 - The assumption is, we generate a password and then we test it.
→ $O(N^L)$
- Complexity of guessing a randomly-generated password character by character
 - The assumption is that we can check each character individually for correctness.
 - For each character it is $N/2$ (avg) and N (worst case)
 - So, overall $L*N/2$ (avg)
- In the subsequent slides we will show an attack that reduces the decryption of a blockcipher in CBC mode to byte-wise decryption (under special assumptions).

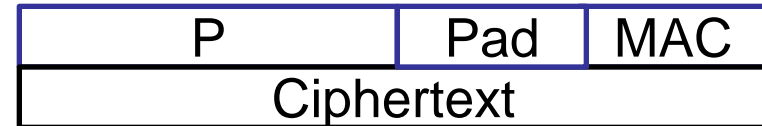


- Operation
 - P and MAC are encrypted and hidden in the ciphertext.
 - Receiver
 - Decrypts P
 - Decrypts MAC
 - Computes and checks MAC → MAC error or success
- Consequence
 - MAC does not protect the ciphertext.
 - Integrity check can only be done once everything is decrypted.
 - As a consequence, receiver will detect malicious messages at the end of the secure channel processing and not earlier.
 - But is that more than a performance issue? Well, yes.



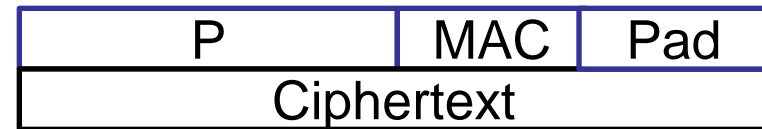
- If we use a block cipher, we have to ensure that the message encoding fits to the blocksize of the cipher.

- Encode-then-MAC-then-Encrypt:



- Format P so that with the MAC added the encryption sees the right size.
- Needs that we know the size of the MAC and blocksize of cipher when generating P | Padding.

- MAC-then-Encode-then-Encrypt



- Used in TLS/SSL
- Here, we add the MAC first and then pad the P | MAC to the correct size.
- How do we know what is padding and what not? Padding in TLS/SSL:
 - If size of padding is 1 byte, the padding is 1.
 - If size of padding is 2 bytes, the padding is 2 2.
 - If size of padding is 3 bytes, the padding is 3 3 3.
 -



- ❑ In ancient times, people asked oracles for guidance.
- ❑ In computer science, oracles are functions that give as cheaply access to information that would otherwise hard to compute.
 - E.g. $O(1)$ cost to ask specific NP-complete question \rightarrow polynomial hierarchy
- ❑ In cryptography, an attacker can trigger some participant O in a protocol or communication to leak information that might or might not be useful.
 - Participant O may re-encrypt some message fragment
 - Participant O responds with an error message explaining what went wrong
 - Response time of participant O may indicate where error happened
 - Response time may leak information about key if processing time depends (enough) on which bits are set to 1.
 - More obvious for the computationally expensive public key algorithms, but implementations of symmetric ciphers have also been attacked.



□ Side Channel Attacks

- A general class of attacks where the attacker gains information from aspects of the physical implementation of a cryptosystem.
- Can be based on: Timing, Power Consumption, Radiation, ...



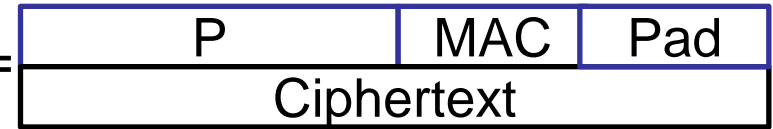
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□ Padding Oracle

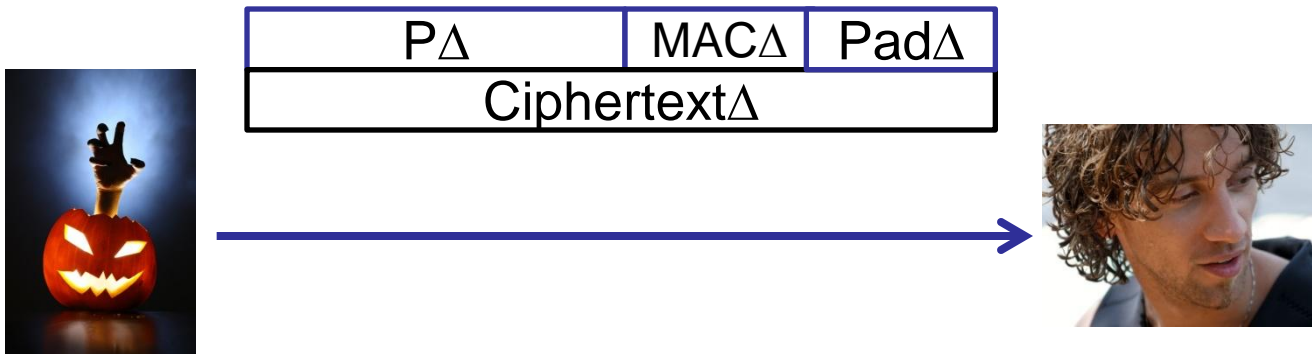
- The oracle tells the attacker if the padding in the message was correct.
- This may be due to a *message with the information*.
- It can also be due to *side channel like the response time*.



- Attacker sees unknown ciphertext C that was sent from Alice to Bob



- To decrypt the ciphertext, the attacker modifies C and sends it to Bob.

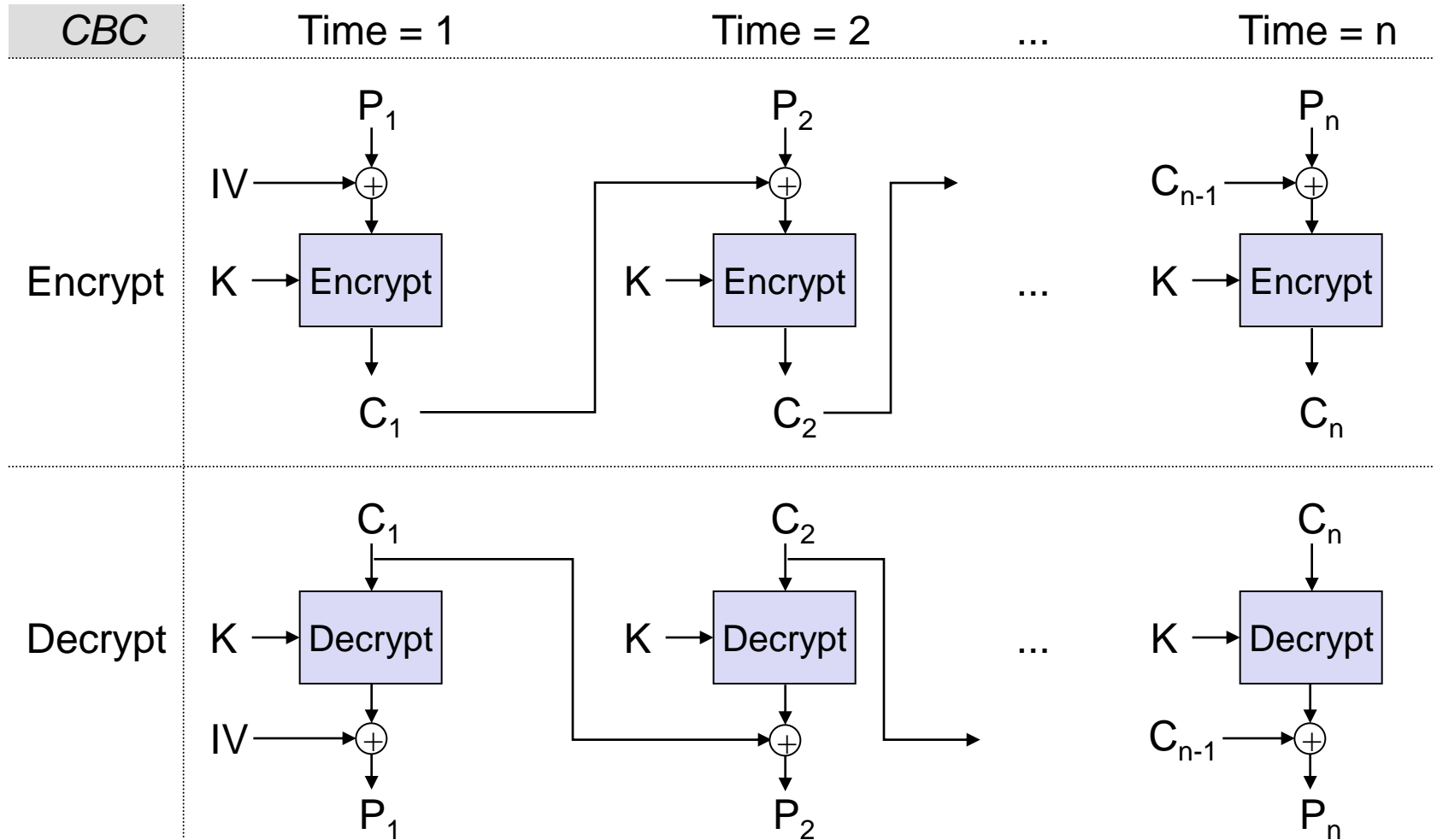


- It is unlikely that the MAC and padding are correct. So, Bob will send an error back to Alice (and the attacker).
- In earlier versions of TLS, Bob sent back different error messages for padding errors and for MAC errors.



Padding Oracle Attack – CBC mode decryption (revisited)

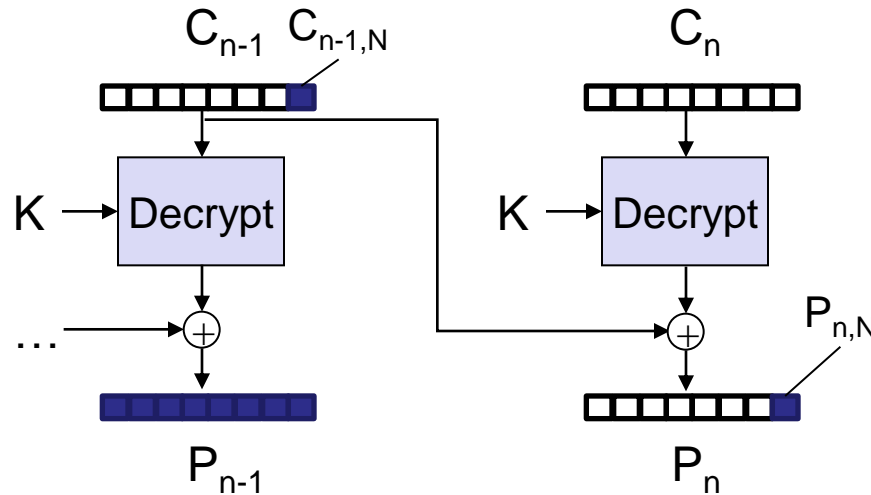
- Encryption and Decryption in CBC mode





Padding Oracle Attack against CBC

- We have n blocks and N bytes per block. The attacker first wants to decrypt the last block C_n .
- In order to do so, he starts with the last byte $C_{n-1,N}$ of the block C_{n-1} . If he changes this byte (blue bytes are changed bytes)

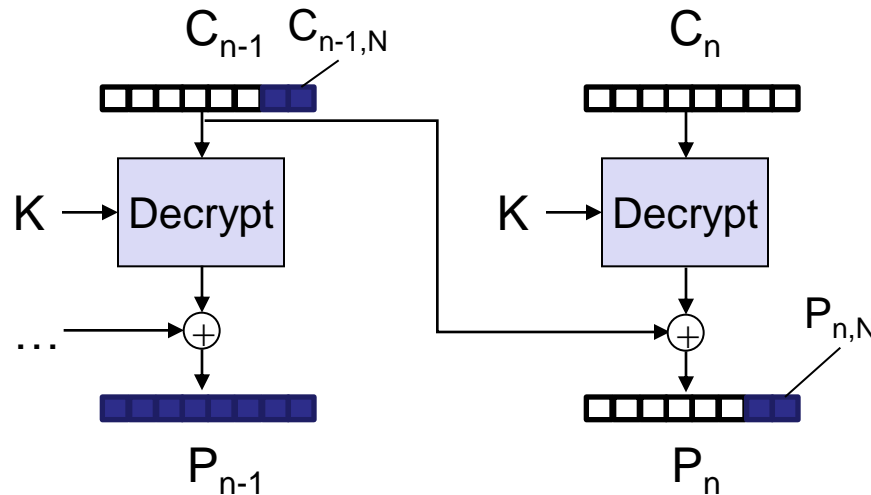


- the MAC will most likely be invalid (chance 1 in 2^m for MAC length m)
- the padding will be invalid unless $C_{n-1,N} \text{ xor } P_{n,N} = 1$ (chance 1 in 256)
- ➔ After testing the 256 values for $C_{n-1,N}$ all of them produced padding errors except for one that matches $C_{n-1,N} \text{ xor } P_{n,N} = 1$.
- ➔ We know $P_{n,N}$. The original P is then $\text{Orig}P_{n,N} = \text{Orig}C_{n-1,N} \text{ xor } P_{n,N}$.



Padding Oracle Attack against CBC (2)

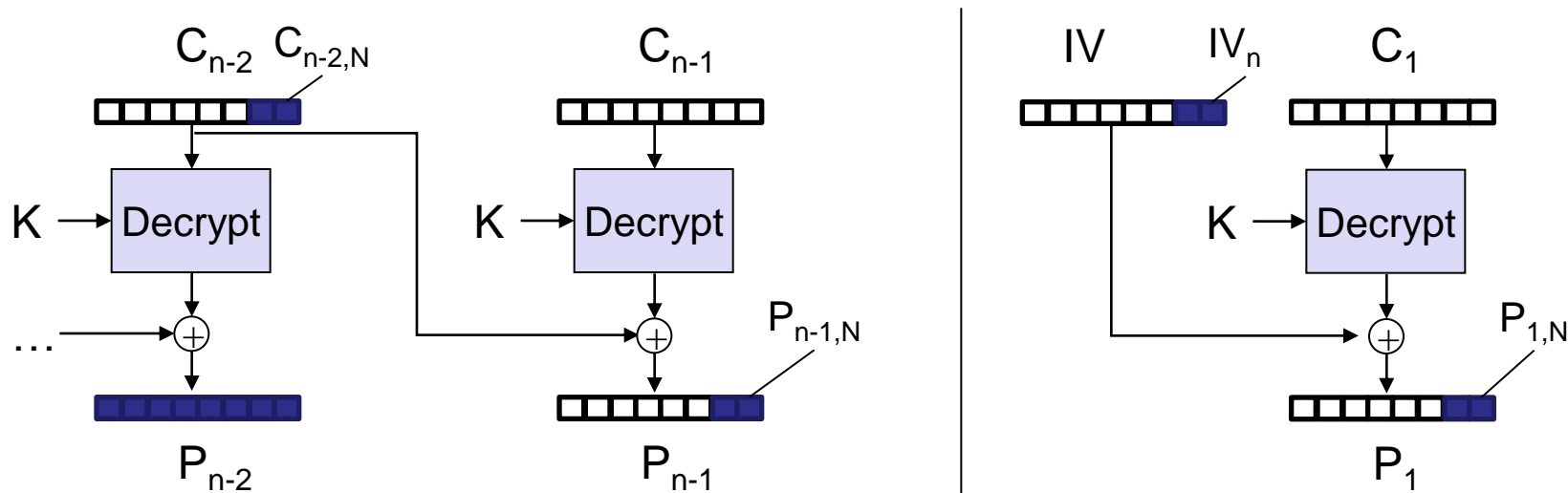
- Now, the byte $P_{n,N-1}$. For that we produce a padding of length 2.
- Since we know $P_{n,N}$ we can calculate $C_{n-1,N}$ so that $C_{n-1,N} \text{ xor } P_{n,N} = 2$
- Now, we have to find the $C_{n-1,N-1}$ that satisfies $C_{n-1,N-1} \text{ xor } P_{n,N-1} = 2$



- With the same argument as before, we need to try up to 256 values, all values except for the correct one will generate a padding error. The correct one will produce a MAC error.
→ We know $P_{n,N-1}$.



- To completely decrypt C_n we have to repeat the procedure until all bytes of the block are decrypted. In the figure with 8 bytes per block, the last padding we generate is 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8.
- To decrypt C_{n-1} we can cut off C_n and repeat the same procedure with C_{n-1} as last block. For decrypting C_1 we can use the IV as ciphertext for the attack modifications.





- The attack was against CBC mode used in MAC-then-Encode-then-Encrypt mode.
 - Padding Oracle attack known long in cryptography.
 - Mode still used in SSL / TLS. Hacks have utilized that. However, defenses have been added.

- CBC with Encode-then-Encrypt-then-MAC does not have this vulnerability.
 - Because MAC check would fail first, process would be aborted, and padding problems would then not be leaked.



- ❑ Part I: The Secure Channel
- ❑ Part II: Attacks against Secure Channel
- ❑ **Part III: Authenticated Encryption**



- Observations and Thoughts
 - Encryption → go over the data with some encryption mode
 - Integrity and authentication → go over the data with some MAC mode
 - Usually, both is needed. → Two passes over the data.
 - Difficult to do right. → Why not simplify process by providing both with one API call.

- Authenticated Encryption (AE)
 - Block Cipher Mode that provides Confidentiality, Integrity, and Authenticity
 - Any combination (e.g. AES-CTR-SHA-1-HMAC) would fall into the category
 - Some modern authenticated encryption modes do not *combine an encryption mode with a MAC mode*, but they provide *both in one mode*.
 - Needs only one pass over the data.
 - Examples for AE modes are GCM (Galois/Counter Mode), OCB (Offset Codebook Mode), CCM (Counter with CBC-MAC).



- Offset Codebook Mode
 - Authenticated Encryption Mode
 - Proposed 2001 [OCB1]
 - Standardized May 2014 [RFC 7253]

 - Encryption
 - Inspired by ECB with block-dependent offsets (avoids ECB problems!)
 - Associated Data A
 - A is not encrypted but authenticated
 - For example: Unencrypted header data
 - MAC
 - Checksum = XOR over plaintext, length- and key-dependent variables
 - $MAC = (\text{Encryption of checksum with shared key } k) \text{ XOR } (\text{hash}(k,A))$

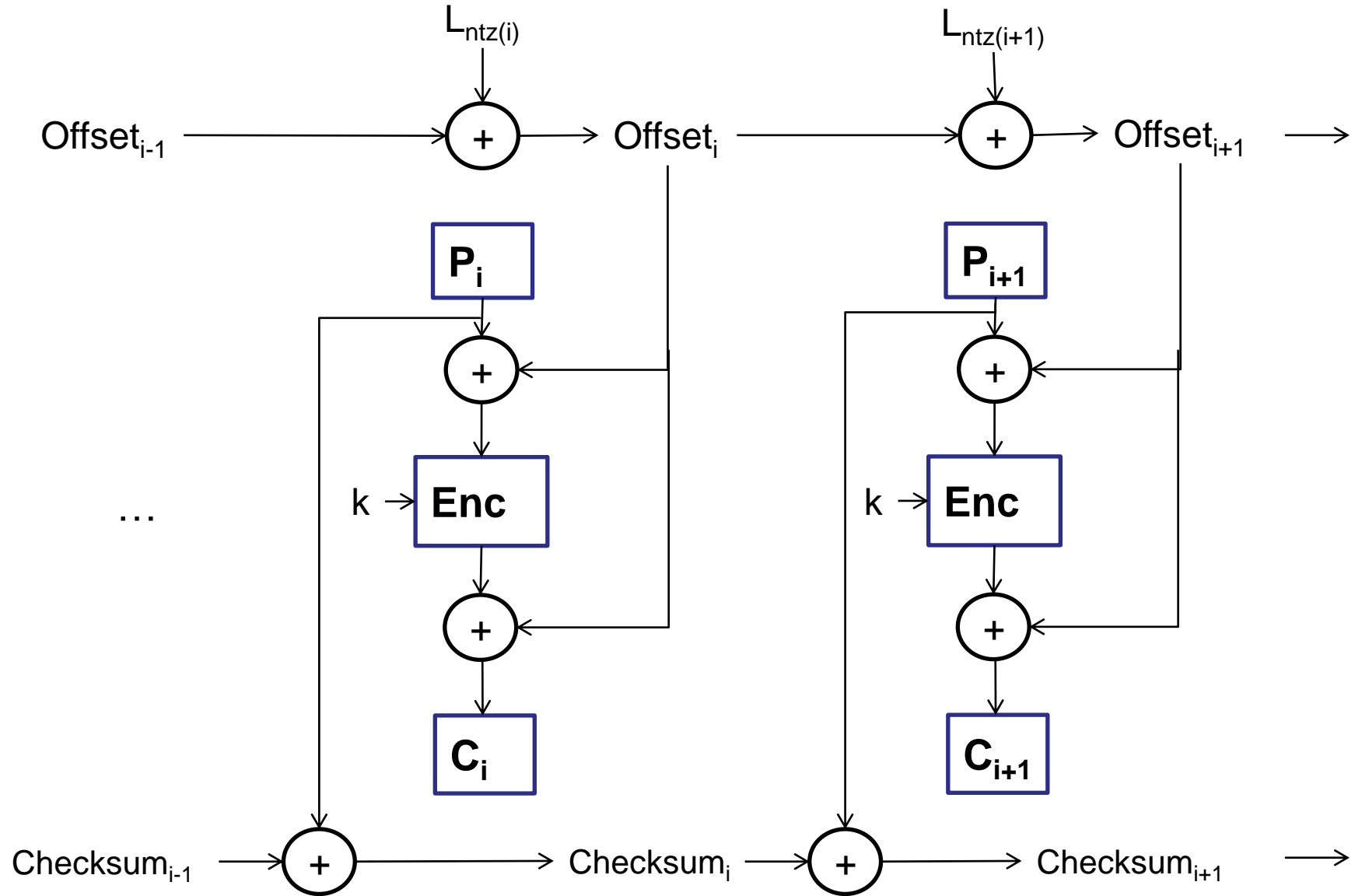
 - Requires only one key K for encryption and authentication
 - Requires a fresh nonce every time



- Let *double* be multiplication by the variable in the OCB Galois Field
- Variables depending on the key: L_{\star} , $L_{\$}$, L_0 , L_1 , $L_2 \dots$
 - $L_{\star} = Enc_K(0)$
 - $L_{\$} = double(L_{\star})$
 - $L_0 = double(L_{\$})$
 - $L_i = double(L_{i-1})$
- Let *ntz* be number of trailing zeros (zero bits at the end)
- Usage of the L's
 - $L_{\$} \rightarrow$ MAC
 - $L_{\star} \rightarrow$ Last Block
 - $L_{ntz(i)} \rightarrow$ intermediate blocks
- Note: $L_{ntz(i)}$ is used
 - Only few L_i are needed (for a fixed K)
 - They can be pre-computed and stored in a **L**ookup table



Offset Codebook Mode (OCB)





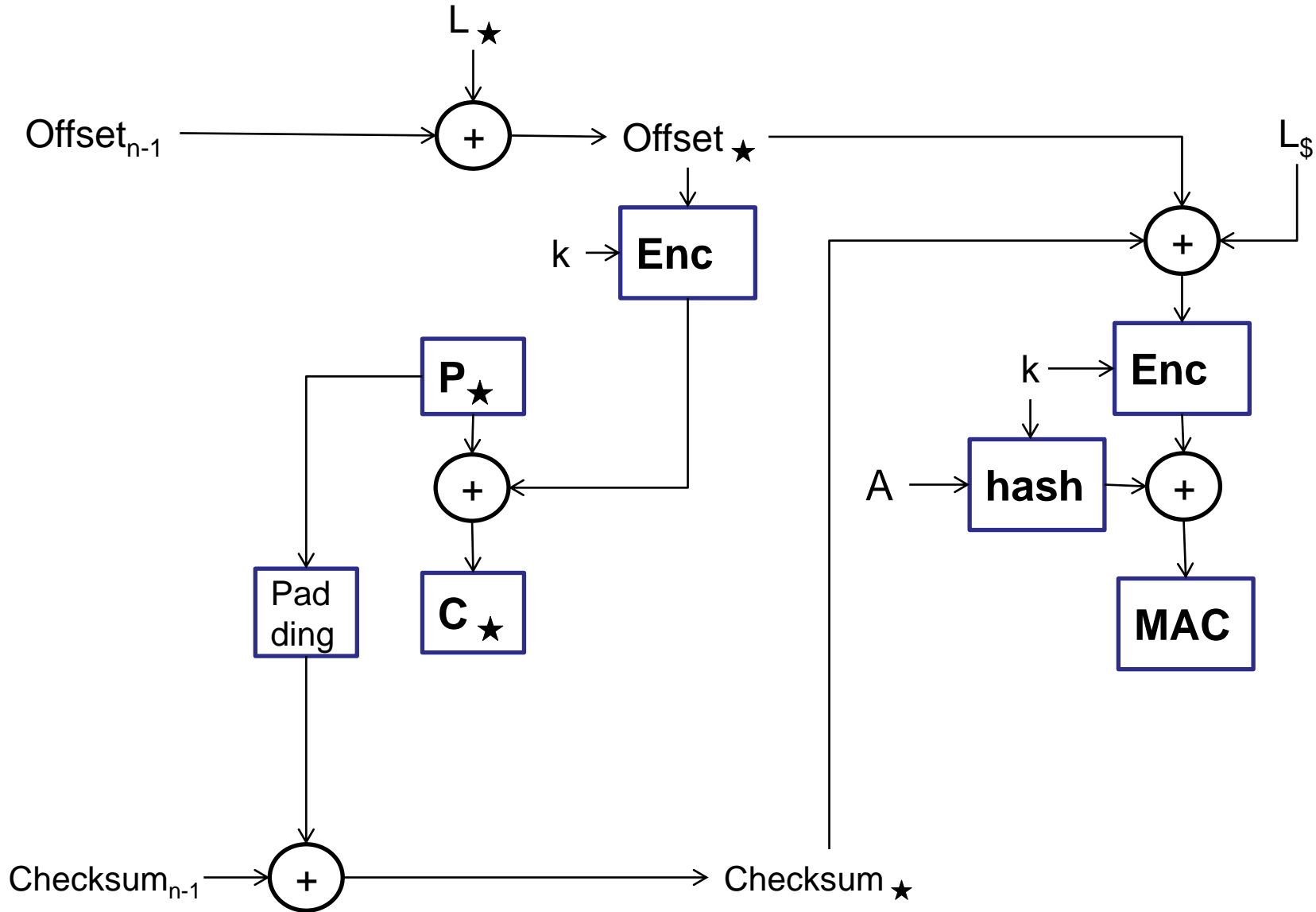
- ❑ Offset₀ depends on the key and the **nonce**
- ❑ “It is crucial that, as one encrypts, one does not repeat a nonce.”

[RFC 7253, § 5.1]

- ❑ Nonce *may* not be random, e.g. a counter works fine
- ❑ A new nonce for every authenticated encryption API call is needed!

- ❑ Details about the initialization:

<http://www.cs.ucdavis.edu/~rogaway/ocb/ocb-faq.htm>





- Question: XOR plaintext and then encrypt, that sounds like the weak MAC example from Chapter 2.2. Why is OCB more secure than the easy-to-break example?

- “OCB enjoys provable security: the mode of operation is secure assuming that the underlying blockcipher is secure. As with most modes of operation, security degrades as the number of blocks processed gets large” [RFC 7253]



- Galois/Counter Mode (GCM)
 - Developed by John Viega and David A. McGrew
 - Standardized by NIST in 2007, IETF standards for cipher suites with AES-GCM for TLS (SSL) and IPsec exist.
 - Follows the Encrypt-then-MAC concept
 - Combines concept of Counter Mode for encryption with Galois Field Multiplication to compute MAC on the ciphertext
 - $GF(2^{128})$ based on polynomial $x^{128} + x^7 + x^2 + x + 1$

- Definitions
 - H is $Enc(k, 0)$
 - Auth Data is data not to be encrypted. GCM generates check value by XOR and GF multiplication with H for each block.
 - For the MAC, this process continues on the ciphertext and a length field in the end.



Galois/Counter Mode (GCM)

Starts with IV,
not with 0.

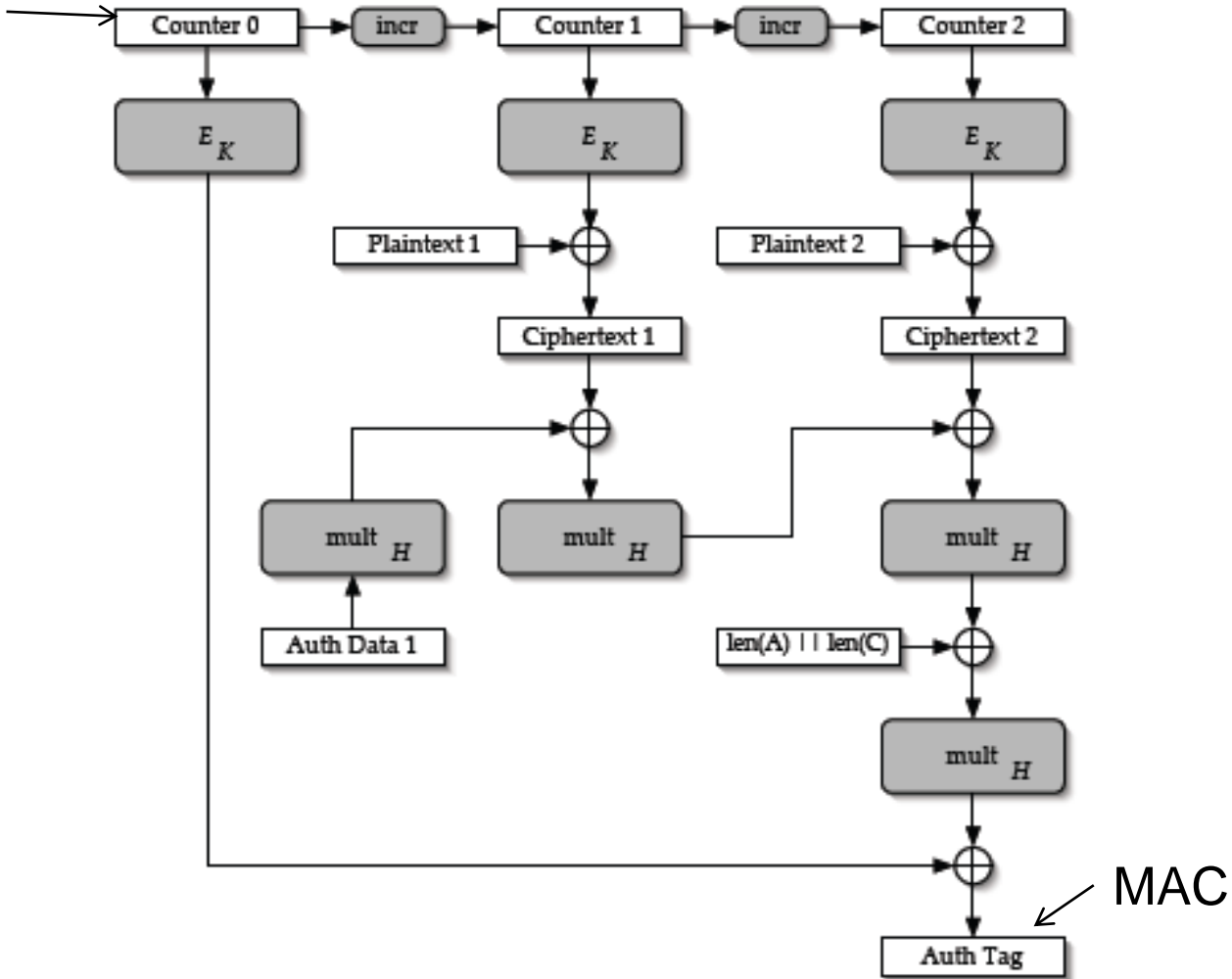


Image from Wikipedia, Author from NIST.



- In a Galois Field we consider the bitstring to represent a polynomial.
 - E.g. $1011 = x^3 + x + 1$
- As a consequence Galois Field Multiplication is based on polynomial multiplication modulus the polynomial of the field.

- Example: In $GF(2^{128})$ based on polynomial $g(x) = x^{128} + x^7 + x^2 + x + 1$
 - $P(x) = x^{127} + x^7$
 - $Q(x) = x^5 + 1$
 - $P(x) * Q(x) = x^{132} + x^{127} + x^{12} + x^7$
 - To compute the modulus, we have to compute a polynomial division $P(x) * Q(x) / g(x)$.
 - We can see that $x^4 * g(x)$ removes the x^{132} , so $P(x) * Q(x) - x^4 * g(x) = x^{127} + x^{12} + x^{11} + x^7 + x^6 + x^5 + x^4$
 - Since this polynomial fits into the 128 bit, this is the remainder of the division, thus the result, in bits: 1000...01100011110000.



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<http://tools.ietf.org/html/draft-irtf-cfrg-ocb-03>
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- [RFC 5288] AES Galois Counter Mode (GCM) Cipher Suites for TLS.
- [RFC 7253] The OCB Authenticated-Encryption Algorithm



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