Learning Objectives

▶ What are cryptographic protocols?
▶ Protocols for key exchange without public key cryptography
▶ Protocols for key exchange with public key cryptography
▶ What are secure channels?
▶ Terminology: Forward secrecy, future secrecy, asynchrony, repudiation
▶ Contemporary protocols for secure channels
▶ Attacks
▶ Modern secure channels
Protocols

“A protocol is a series of steps, involving two or more parties, designed to accomplish a task.”

Everyone involved must know the steps in advance and agree to follow it.

The protocol must be complete and unambiguous.

For cryptographic protocols, it should not be possible to do more or learn more than what is specified in the protocol.
Dramatis Personae

▶ Alice, Bob, Carol and Dave
▶ Eve – Eavesdropper
▶ Mallory – Malicious active attacker
▶ Trent – Trusted arbitrator
▶ Walter – Warden
▶ Peggy – Prover
▶Victor – Verifier
Attack Personae

- Eavesdroppers
- Passive cheaters
- Active cheaters
- Real-world adversaries – Mallory
Efficiency

- Number of steps in protocol
- Size of messages
- Conflict resolution cost:
  1. Involvement of trusted party (arbitrated protocols)
  2. Resolution by trusted party on dispute (adjudicated protocols)
  3. Self-enforcing protocols
Example: Symmetric Cryptography

1. Alice and Bob agree on a cryptosystem
2. Alice and Bob agree on a key
3. Alice encrypts plaintext with key
4. Alice sends ciphertext to Bob
5. Bob decrypts ciphertext and reads it
Problem

Alice has an item $x$, and Bob has a set of five distinct items $y_1, \ldots, y_5$. Design a protocol through which Alice (but not Bob) finds out whether her $x$ equals any of Bob’s five items; Alice should not find out anything other than the answer (‘Yes’ or ‘No’) to the above question, and Bob should not know that answer. Your solution must always be correct, not just with high probability.
The basic security goals of key establishment are:

- **Key secrecy**: Session keys must not be known by anyone else than Alice, Bob (and maybe some trusted third party). Mallory must not learn anything about session keys.

- **Authenticity**: One party can be assured about the identity of the other party it shares the session key with. That is, Alice knows that she has session key with Bob.

- **Freshness of keys**: Mallory must not be able to replay old session keys.
Protocols

- **Key establishment** is realized by using *protocols* whereby a shared secret becomes available to two or more parties, for subsequent cryptographic use.
- Until now, we have been discussing non-interactive crypto primitives, in the following we look at crypto protocols.
- It is *even harder* to design secure protocols, than designing non-interactive primitives. In fact, there is a long list of protocols designed by famous (and not so famous) cryptographers that were found to be flawed.
Session keys

- Key establishment protocols result in shared secrets which are typically called (or used to derive) session keys.
- Ideally, a session key is an ephemeral secret, i.e., one whose use is restricted to a short time period such as a single telecommunications connection (or session), after which all trace of it is eliminated.
- Motivation for ephemeral keys includes the following:
  1. To limit available ciphertext (under a fixed key) for cryptanalytic attack;
  2. To limit exposure, with respect to both time period and quantity of data, in the event of (session) key compromise;
  3. To avoid long-term storage of a large number of distinct secret keys by creating keys only when actually required;
  4. To create independence across communications sessions or applications.
Classification of key establishment methods

Chapter 13 of Understanding Cryptography by Christof Paar and Jan Pelzl
Private channels

- Let us informally refer to a *private channel* as an authentic and confidential channel.
  - Exchange of secret keys on a USB stick
  - Pre-installation of keys on a company laptop
- Symmetric key distribution is impossible without private channels.
- Private channels are, loosely speaking, “complicated”, “inefficient”, “expensive”.
- The goal in the following is to:
  - *Reduce the number* of private channels required to exchange keys.
  - Use an *initial private channel* today to exchange a secret key that they may use *tomorrow for establishing a secure channel over an insecure link*. 
Once upon a time...
1. Alice sends $A, R_A$ to Bob.

2. Bob sends $B, R_B, E_B(A, R_A, T_B)$ to Trent, where $T_B$ is a timestamp and $E_B$ uses a key Bob shares with Trent.

3. Trent generates random session key $K$ and sends $E_A(B, R_A, K, T_B), E_B(A, K, T_B), R_B$ to Alice where $E_A$ uses a key Alice shares with Trent.

4. Alice decrypts and confirms that $R_A$ is her random value. She then sends to Bob $E_B(A, K, T_B), E_K(R_B)$.

5. Bob extracts $K$ and confirms that $T_B$ and $R_B$ have the same value as in step 2.
1. Alice sends $A, B$ to Trent
2. Trent sends Alice $S_T(B, K_B), S_T(A, K_A)$
3. Alice sends Bob $E_B(S_A(K, T_A)), S_T(B, K_B), S_T(A, K_A)$
4. Bob decrypts, checks signatures and timestamps
Wide-Mouth Frog protocol

1: \( A, \{T_a, B, K_{ab}\}_{K_{as}} \)

2: \( \{T_s, A, K_{ab}\}_{K_{bs}} \)

Alice → TTP → Bob
The wide-mouth frog protocol has some conceptual shortcomings:

- Assumes synchronized clocks between the parties to achieve freshness.
- Although having synchronized clocks seems to be straight-forward, this is actually not the case.
  - Synchronized clocks under normal conditions is indeed easy (you have that in Windows, Linux...).
  - Synchronized clocks under attack is much harder: you need to have another protocol that securely synchronizes clocks.
  - But as soon as clock synchronization becomes security relevant, you can bet that it gets attacked.
- Bob must trust Alice that she correctly generates the session key.
Needham-Schroeder protocol

1: $A, B, N_a$

2: $\{N_a, B, K_{ab}, \{K_{ab}, A\}_K_{bs}\}_K_{as}$

3: $\{K_{ab}, A\}_K_{bs}$

4: $\{N_b\}_K_{ab}$

5: $\{N_b - 1\}_K_{ab}$
Needham-Schroeder protocol

- Needham is one of the IT security pioneers. Protocol was conceived in 1978 and is one of the most widely studied security protocols ever.
- Removes timestamps and introduces nonces to achieve freshness.
- The session keys are generated by TTP in on the previous slide, thus removes problem of Wide-Mouth Frog protocol.
- Protocol is insecure against *known session key attacks*. Adversary who gets session key can replay the last three messages and impersonate A to B.
  - The reason for this problem is that B does not know whether the session key is fresh.
  - This vulnerability was discovered only some times after the protocol was published. Thus, even the smartest and most experienced people can fail to design secure crypto protocols.
Kerberos

1: \( A, B \)

2: \( \{T_s, L, K_{ab}, B, \{T_s, L, K_{ab}, A\}_{K_{bs}}\}_{K_{as}} \)

3: \( \{T_s, L, K_{ab}, A\}_{K_{bs}}, \{A, T_A\}_{K_{ab}} \)

4: \( \{T_A + 1\}_{K_{ab}} \)
Kerberos

- Developed at MIT around 1987, made it into Windows 2000, and is still used as the authentication / key establishment / authorization mechanism within Windows.
- Quite similar to Needham-Schroeder, but removes weakness against known session key attacks using synchronized clocks.
- Shorter than Needham-Schroeder: only 4 messages instead of 5.
Otway-Rees protocol

1: $M, A, B, \{N_a, M, A, B\}_{K_{as}}$

2: $M, A, B, \{N_a, M, A, B\}_{K_{as}}, \{N_b, M, A, B\}_{K_{bs}}$

3: $M, \{N_a, K_{ab}\}_{K_{as}}, \{N_b, K_{ab}\}_{K_{bs}}$

4: $M, \{N_a, K_{ab}\}_{K_{as}}$

Bob -> TTP -> Alice
Otway-Rees protocol

- Only 4 messages as Kerberos, but completely different messages.
- Does not require clock synchronization.
- Has a number of problems ⇒ Homework!
Describe possible attacks on this protocol:

1. Alice transmits $A, S_A(E_{B_{pub}}(K, R_A))$ to Bob.
2. Bob transmits $B, E_K(R_A)$ to Alice.
3. Their secure, authenticated exchange is then:
   3.1 Alice sends $E_K(i_A, M_{iA}^A, H(i_A, M_{iA}^A))$ to Bob.
   3.2 Bob sends $E_K(i_B, M_{iB}^B, H(i_B, M_{iB}^B))$ to Alice.
Station to station key agreement protocol

**Common input:** \( \mathbb{Z}_p^* \) and \( g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* \), and \( n \) such that \( g^n \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \)

1. \( x_A \in [0, n-1] \)
   \[ y_A = g^{x_A} \]

Alice

CERT\(_A\), \( y_A \)

2. \( x_B \in [0, n-1] \)
   \[ y_B = g^{x_B} \]

\( \text{CERT}\(_B\), \text{sig}\(_B\), y_B \)

\[ \text{sig}_B = \text{sign}(A\|B\|y_B\|y_A, SK_B) \]

Bob

3. verify\((A\|B\|y_B\|y_A, \text{sig}_B, PK_B)\)
   \[ \text{sig}_A = \text{sign}(A\|B\|y_A\|y_B, SK_A) \]
   \[ y_{AB} = y_B^{x_A} \]

\( A, \text{sig}_A \)

4. \( y_{AB} = y_B^{x_A} \)
   verify\((A\|B\|y_A\|y_B, \text{sig}_A, PK_A)\)

- The protocol above is a simplified version of the STS protocol to illustrate the idea of authenticating messages with public keys.
- For a detailed spec refer to [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Station-to-Station_protocol](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Station-to-Station_protocol)
The “station to station protocol” is the DH protocol made secure against MIM attacks:

1. The idea is simple: Alice and Bob basically sign all the messages they exchange in the Diffie-Hellman protocol.
2. The “exchange of authenticated signing keys” is done using certificates.

Station to station protocol is the basis for the practically important IKE (Internet Key Exchange protocol).

The bottom line is: one cannot establish authenticated keys without bootstrapping the system using an “exterior authentication mechanism” (e.g., without first establishing public key certificates for Alice and Bob).
RSA key transport

https://www.theinquirer.net/inquirer/news/2343117/ietf-drops-rsa-key-transport-from-ssl
Lessons Learned

▶ Do not try to be too clever, over-optimization is often the cause for vulnerabilities

▶ Which optimizations you can do (and which optimization actually matter) depends on your assumptions (adversary model, system capabilities)

▶ Which protocol to use depends on your performance goals and communications capabilities (all-to-all communication, trusted party, latency, bandwidth and computational constraints)
Break
Overview

▶ By *secure channel* we refer to a logical channel running on top of some insecure link (typically the Internet) that provides
  ▶ Confidentiality
  ▶ Integrity and authenticity
  ▶ Message freshness
▶ Secure channels are probably one of the most important applications of crypto in the real world.
▶ Many well known secure network protocols such as TLS/SSL, VPNs, IPSec, WPA etc but also application specific (e.g., secure VoIP), and proprietary protocols (maybe Skype?) make use of secure channels.
▶ Essentially all these protocols build upon the basic ideas we discuss in the following.
▶ It is also possible to get it wrong, e.g., the WEP protocol has a series of security flaws.
Secure channel

Alice \((k, m)\):

\[ c := \text{secure-send}(k, m) \]

Eve (aka Malroy):

Bob \((k)\):

\[ c \]

If \( m := \text{secure-receive}(k, c) \neq \text{FAIL} \)
Then \( m \) is valid message
Secure channel - Secure send

secure-send(m, k_E, k_M) {

STATIC msgsnt := 1

IF (msgsnt ≥ MAX_MSGS) THEN RETURN ⊥

c := ENC(k_E, m)

\( \tilde{m} \) := msgsnt || LENGTH(c) || c

t := MAC(k_M, \( \tilde{m} \))

SEND(\( \tilde{m} \) || t)

msgsnt := msgsnt + 1

}

Secure channel - Secure receive

\[
\text{secure-receive}(C, k_E, k_M) \{
\]

\text{STATIC } \text{msgrcvd} := 0

\( (msgsnt, len, c, t) = \text{PARSE}(C) \)

\text{IF } (t \neq \text{MAC}(k_M, msgsnt||len||c)) \text{ THEN RETURN } \perp

\text{IF } (msgsnt \leq msgrcvd) \text{ THEN RETURN } \perp

m := \text{DEC}(k_E, c)

msgrcvd := msgsnt

RETURN m

\}
Remarks

- The *freshness property* based on counters guarantees the following: If \( m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_n \) denote the messages send using secure-send(), then secure-receive() can guarantee that the messages \( m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_n \) being received are subsequence of the messages sent.

- Counters give no timing guarantees, i.e., the adversary Mallory can delay messages at will.

- Timing guarantees can be achieved using
  - Time-stamps
  - Challenges

- No security protocol can prevent Mallory from discarding messages.

- MACs provide not just integrity protection but also *authenticity*, as discussed earlier.

- Further reading material: Chapter 8 in Practical Cryptography by Schneier & Ferguson.
Remarks

- Typically, secure-send() and secure-receive() are run by both parties using a secure channel.
- Each party will have an independent key-pair (enc & MAC).
- In practice, one introduces the notion of a session (e.g., e-banking). Consists of a session ID in the header, which allows the receiver to look-up session state (keys, counters etc.) when receiving a message.
- Generally better is the use of authenticated encryption, where the block-cipher mode guarantees confidentiality and integrity.
- For more info see last week’s slides on AES-GCM and http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Authenticated_encryption
Repudiation vs. non-repudiation

- Digital signatures allow *proving* that someone said something
- Alice may be happy to authenticate to Bob, but not to Eve or Mallory!
Repudiation vs. non-repudiation

- Digital signatures allow *proving* that someone said something.
- Alice may be happy to authenticate to Bob, but not to Eve or Mallory!
- Bob may turn “evil” and use Alice’s statements against her later.

⇒ Signatures may provide too much (authentication *and* non-repudiation)

Off-the-record (OTR) protocols allow *repudiation*
$$S_A(T_A)$$

$$S_B(T_B)$$

$$HKDF(DH(T_A, T_B))$$
The OTR protocol protects the above KX by wrapping it inside another ephemeral key exchange:

\[
K_1 : = DH(T_A^1 || T_B^1)
\]

\[
E_{K_1}(S_A(T_A^2))
\]

\[
E_{K_1}(S_B(T_B^2))
\]

\[
K_2 : = HKDF(DH(T_A^2, T_B^2))
\]

To achieve forward secrecy, OTR keeps rolling out new keys \( T_{i A,B}^1 \). To improve deniability, OTR publishes the old MAC keys once the conversation progresses.
Is OTR deniable?
Is OTR deniable?

Both parties still have proof that they communicated: $S_X(T_X)$!
3DH (Trevor Perrin)

A: $K = \text{HKDF}(DH(T_a, T_B) || DH(T_a, B) || DH(a, T_B))$

B: $K = \text{HKDF}(DH(T_A, T_b) || DH(T_A, b) || DH(A, T_b))$
With 3DH, what happens if Alice’s private key \((a, T_a)\) is compromised?
A Message from God (Dominic Tarr)

With 3DH, what happens if Alice’s private key \((a, T_a)\) is compromised?

\[ M: K = HKDF(DH(T_a, T_G)||DH(T_a, G)||DH(a, T_G)) \]
\[ A: K = HKDF(DH(T_a, T_G)||DH(T_a, G)||DH(a, T_G)) \]
Forward secrecy

What happens if your private key is compromised to your past communication data?
Static keys vs. ephemeral keys

Diffie-Hellman with:

- static keys allow authenticated encryption without signatures
- ephemeral keys protect against replay attacks and provide forward secrecy
Asynchronous forward secrecy: SCIMP

Idea of Silence Circle’s SCIMP:

Replace key with its own hash.

- New key in zero round trips!
- Forward secrecy!
Future secrecy

Suppose you regain control over your system. What happens with your future communication data?
Axolotl / Signal Protocol

```
MK  CK  RK  CK  MK
--  --  --  --  --
    ECDH(A0,B0)

    /  ECDH(A1,B0) +
    /    |
    /    + ECDH(A1,B1)

    /    /
    /    /
    /    + CK-A1-B0

    /    /
    /    /
    /    + MK-0 ----+

    /    /
    /    /
    /    + MK-1 ----+

    /    /
    /    /
    /    + MK-2 ----+

    /  ECDH(A2,B1) +
    /    |
    /    + ECDH(A2,B2)

    /    /
    /    /
    /    + CK-A2-B1

    /    /
    /    /
    /    + MK-0 ----+

    /    /
    /    /
    /    + CK-A2-B2
```
Securing unidirectional communication

- Alice knows Bob’s public key $B$
- Alice wants to send $M$ to Bob
- Alice cannot receive messages from Bob (possibly ever)
Securing unidirectional communication

- Alice knows Bob’s public key $B$
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- Alice cannot receive messages from Bob (possibly ever)

Suggestion:

$$K : = DH(T_A, B)$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)
$$C : = E_K(S_A(T_A, A, B)||M)$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

With Curve25519, cryptography has 92–128 bytes overhead:

- one or two 32 byte public keys
- one 64 byte EdDSA signature
- (plus HMAC)

What are the security properties we get here?
This presentation used material from:

- [https://signal.org/blog/simplifying-otr-deniability/](https://signal.org/blog/simplifying-otr-deniability/)
- Endre Bangerter (BTI 7261/2017)
References
