

CSE5014 CRYPTOGRAPHY AND NETWORK SECURITY

Dr. QI WANG

Department of Computer Science and Engineering

Office: Room413, CoE South Tower

Email: wangqi@sustech.edu.cn

- As we defined, PRGs are limited
 - They have fixed-length output
 - They produce output in "one shot"
- In practice, PRGs are based on stream ciphers
 - Can be viewed as producing an "infinite" stream of pseudorandom bits, on demand
 - More flexible, more efficient



Pair of efficient, deterministic algorithms (Init, GetBits)



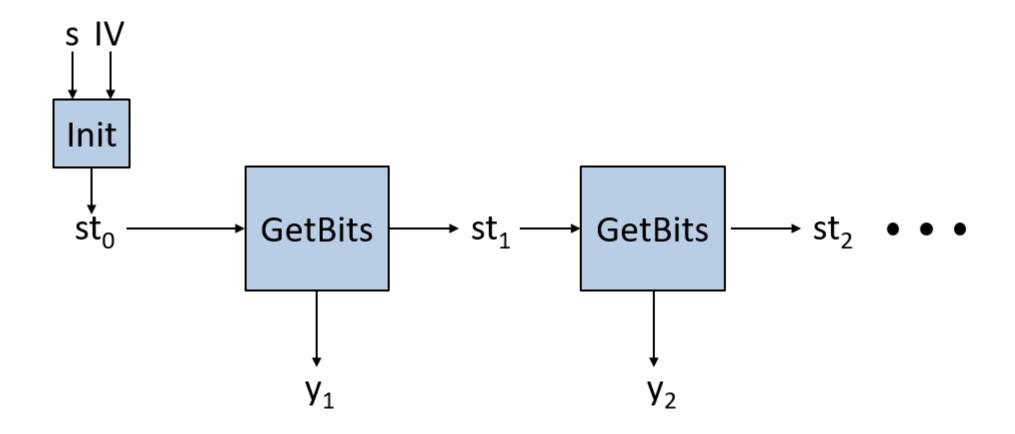
- Pair of efficient, deterministic algorithms (Init, GetBits)
 - Init takes a seed s_0 (and optional IV), and outputs initial state st_0
 - GetBits takes the current state st and outputs a bit y along with updated state st'



- Pair of efficient, deterministic algorithms (Init, GetBits)
 - Init takes a seed s_0 (and optional IV), and outputs initial state st_0
 - GetBits takes the current state st and outputs a bit y along with updated state st'
 - In practice, y would be a block rather than a bit

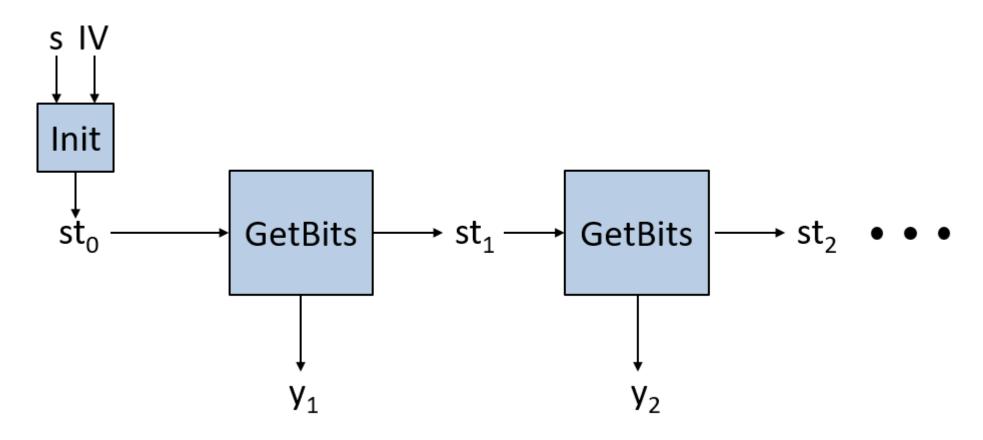


Can use (Init, GetBits) to generate any desired number of output bits from an initial seed





- A *stream cipher* is *secure* (informally) if the output stream generated from a uniform seed is pseudorandom
 - I.e., regardless of how long the output stream is (so long as it is polynomial)



Modes of operation

- Stream-cipher modes of operation
 - Synchronized
 - Unsynchronized



Modes of operation

- Stream-cipher modes of operation
 - Synchronized
 - Unsynchronized
- Synchronized mode
 - Sender and receiver maintain state (they are stateful),
 and must be synchronized

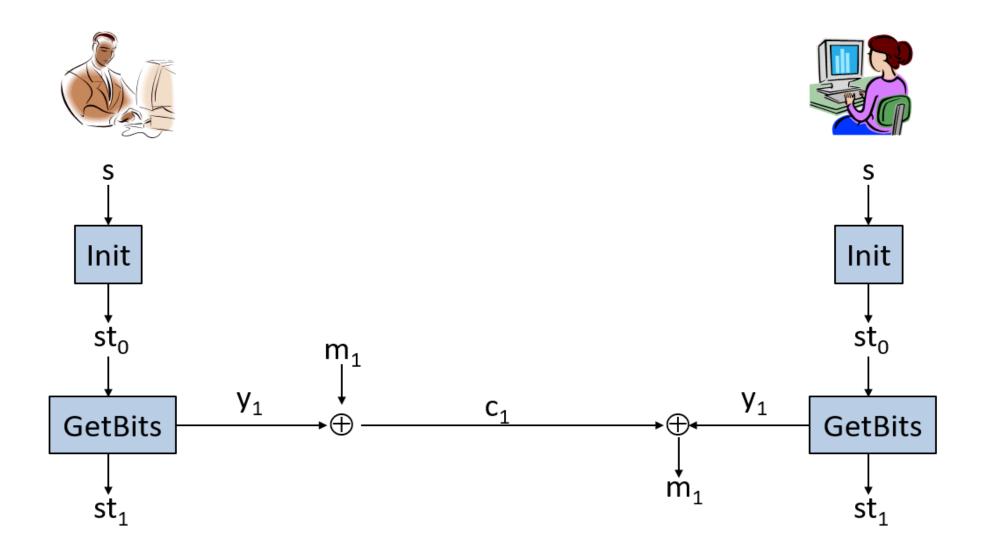


Modes of operation

- Stream-cipher modes of operation
 - Synchronized
 - Unsynchronized
- Synchronized mode
 - Sender and receiver maintain state (they are stateful),
 and must be synchronized
 - Makes sense in the context of a limited-time communication session where messages are received in order, without being lost



Synchronized mode





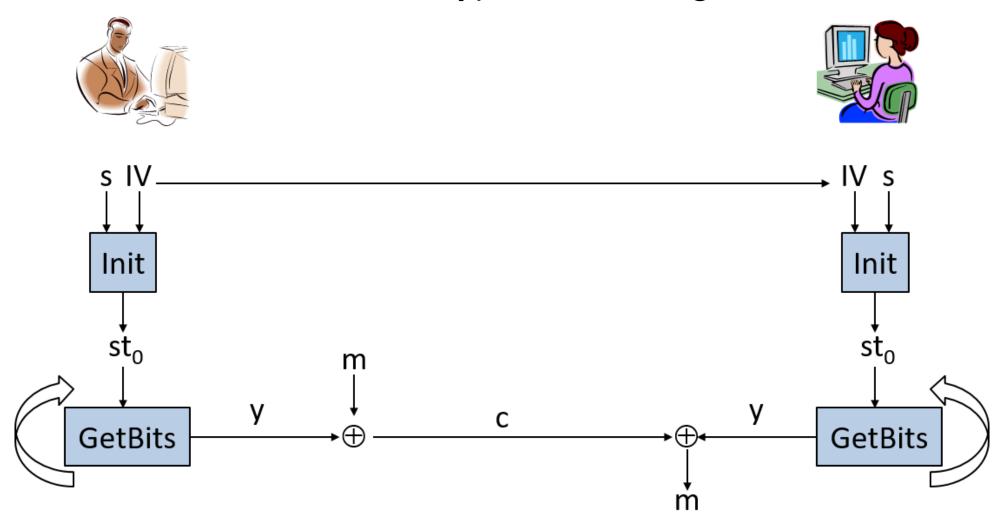
Choose random /V to encrypt next message



- Choose random IV to encrypt next message
- Similar to the first CPA-secure scheme we have seen
 - But "natively" handles arbitrary-length messages with better ciphertext expansion



Choose random /V to encrypt next message





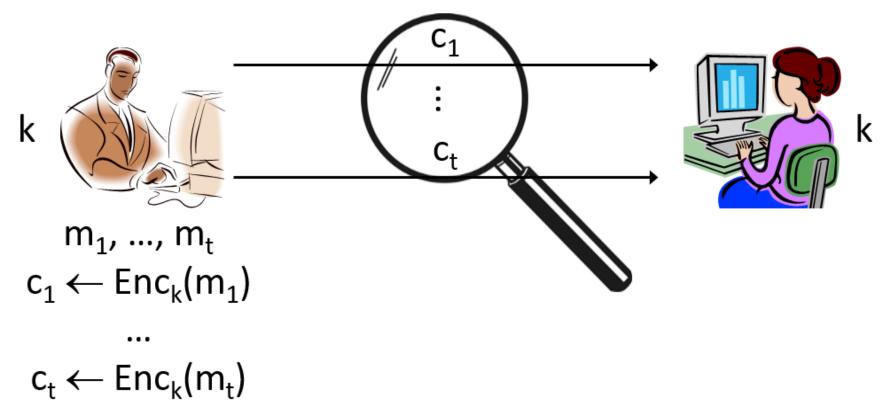
- Note that for security, we require the stream cipher to be a PRF
 - I.e., for fixed seed s, the output of the stream cipher when using different IVs should all look uniform and independent
 - The ciphertext $\langle IV, G_{\infty}(s, IV, 1^{|m|}) \oplus m \rangle$ $F_k(IV) := G_{\infty}(k, IV, 1^{\ell})$ is a PRF



- So far, we have been assuming only a passive, eavesdropping attacker
 - Even if it can carry out chosen-plaintext attacks (CPA)



- So far, we have been assuming only a passive, eavesdropping attacker
 - Even if it can carry out chosen-plaintext attacks (CPA)

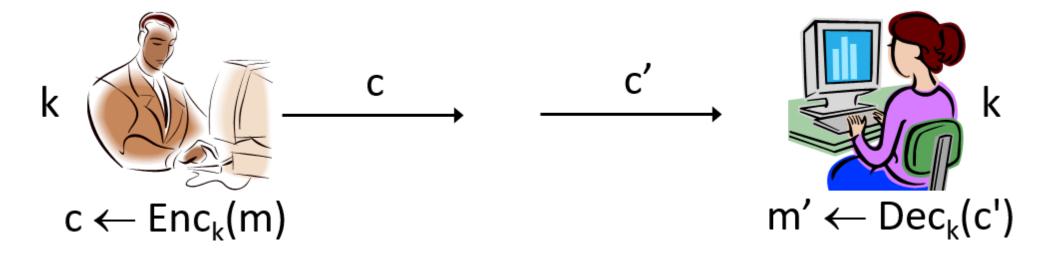




- So far, we have been assuming only a passive, eavesdropping attacker
 - Even if it can carry out chosen-plaintext attacks (CPA)
- What if the attacker can be active?
 - E.g., interfering with the communication channel



- So far, we have been assuming only a passive, eavesdropping attacker
 - Even if it can carry out chosen-plaintext attacks (CPA)
- What if the attacker can be active?
 - E.g., interfering with the communication channel





• (Informal): A scheme is malleable if it is possible to modify a ciphertext and thereby cause a predictable change to the plaintext

- (Informal): A scheme is malleable if it is possible to modify a ciphertext and thereby cause a predictable change to the plaintext
- Malleability can be dangerous!
 - E.g., encrypted bank transactions

- (Informal): A scheme is malleable if it is possible to modify a ciphertext and thereby cause a predictable change to the plaintext
- Malleability can be dangerous!
 - E.g., encrypted bank transactions
- All the schemes we have seen so far are malleable
 - E.g., the one-time pad ...

- (Informal): A scheme is malleable if it is possible to modify a ciphertext and thereby cause a predictable change to the plaintext
- Malleability can be dangerous!
 - E.g., encrypted bank transactions
- All the schemes we have seen so far are malleable
 - E.g., the one-time pad …

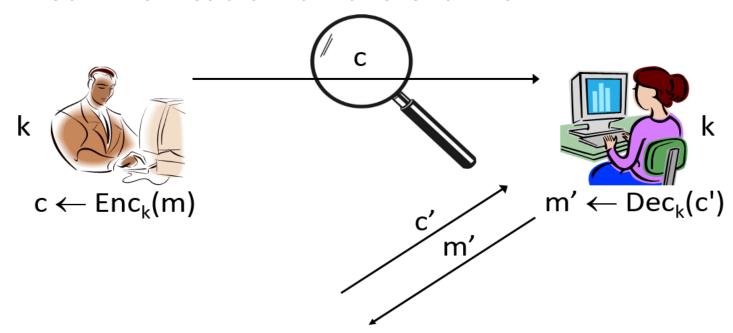
$$k \xrightarrow{c_1c_2...c_n} \xrightarrow{c_1c_2...c'_n} k$$

$$c := (m_1m_2...m_n) \oplus k \qquad m_1m_2...m'_n := (c_1c_2...c'_n) \oplus k$$

- So far, we have been assuming only a passive, eavesdropping attacker
 - Even if it can carry out chosen-plaintext attacks
- What if the attacker can be active?
 - E.g., "impersonating" the sender; injecting communication on the channel



- So far, we have been assuming only a passive, eavesdropping attacker
 - Even if it can carry out chosen-plaintext attacks
- What if the attacker can be active?
 - E.g., "impersonating" the sender; injecting communication on the channel





Chosen-ciphertext attacks

- Models settings in which the attacker can influence what gets decrypted, and observe the effects
 - How to model?



Chosen-ciphertext attacks

- Models settings in which the attacker can influence what gets decrypted, and observe the effects
 - How to model?
- Allow attackers to submit ciphertexts of its choice (with one restriction) to the receiver, and learn the corresponding plaintext
 - In addition to being able to carry out a chosen-plaintext attack



CCA-security

- Define a randomized experiment $PrivCCA_{A,\Pi}(n)$:
 - 1. $k \leftarrow Gen(1^n)$
 - 2. $A(1^n)$ interacts with an encryption oracle $Enc_k(\cdot)$, and a decryption oracle $Dec_k(\cdot)$, and then outputs m_0, m_1 of the same length
 - 3. $b \leftarrow \{0,1\}$, $c \leftarrow Enc_k(m_b)$, give c to A
 - 4. A can continue to interact with $Enc_k(\cdot)$, $Dec_k(\cdot)$, but may not request decryption of c
 - 5. A outputs b'; A succeeds if b=b', and experiment evaluates to 1 in this case



CCA-security

- Define a randomized experiment $PrivCCA_{A,\Pi}(n)$:
 - 1. $k \leftarrow Gen(1^n)$
 - 2. $A(1^n)$ interacts with an encryption oracle $Enc_k(\cdot)$, and a decryption oracle $Dec_k(\cdot)$, and then outputs m_0, m_1 of the same length
 - 3. $b \leftarrow \{0,1\}$, $c \leftarrow Enc_k(m_b)$, give c to A
 - 4. A can continue to interact with $Enc_k(\cdot)$, $Dec_k(\cdot)$, but may not request decryption of c
 - 5. A outputs b'; A succeeds if b=b', and experiment evaluates to 1 in this case

Definition 6.1 Π is secure against chosen-ciphertext attacks (CCA-secure) if for all PPT attackers A, there is a negligible function ϵ such that

$$\Pr[PrivCCA_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1] \le 1/2 + \epsilon(n)$$



Chosen-ciphertext attacks and malleability

- If a scheme is *malleable*, then it cannot be *CCA-secure*
 - Modify c, submit the modified ciphertext c' to the decryption oracle and determine original message based on the result



Chosen-ciphertext attacks and malleability

- If a scheme is *malleable*, then it cannot be *CCA-secure*
 - Modify c, submit the modified ciphertext c' to the decryption oracle and determine original message based on the result
- CCA-security implies non-malleability



Chosen-ciphertext attacks and malleability

- If a scheme is malleable, then it cannot be CCA-secure
 - Modify c, submit the modified ciphertext c' to the decryption oracle and determine original message based on the result
- CCA-security implies non-malleability

```
Gen(1<sup>n</sup>): choose a uniform key k \in \{0,1\}^n

Enc<sub>k</sub>(m), for |m| = |k|

- Choose uniform r \in \{0,1\}^n (nonce/ initialization vector)
```

- Output ciphertext $\langle r, F_k(r) \oplus m \rangle$

 $Dec_k(c_1, c_2)$: output $c_2 \oplus F_k(c_1)$

Theorem 5.1 If F is a pseudorandom function, then this scheme is CPA-secure.

CCA-security

- In the definition of CCA-security, the attacker can obtain the decryption of any ciphertext of its choice (besides the challenge ciphertext)
 - Is this realistic?

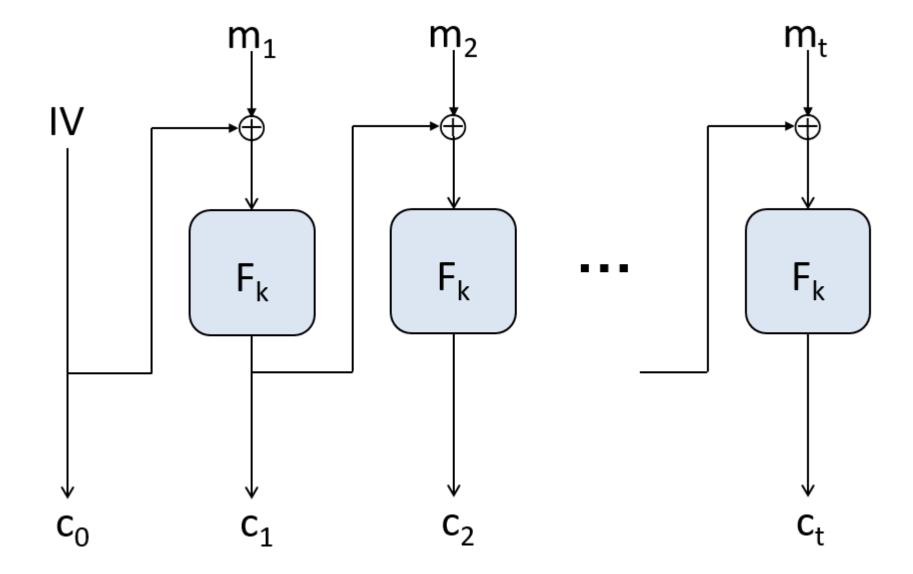


CCA-security

- In the definition of CCA-security, the attacker can obtain the decryption of any ciphertext of its choice (besides the challenge ciphertext)
 - Is this realistic?
- We show a scenario where:
 - One bit about decrypted ciphertexts is leaked
 - The scenario occurs in the real world!
 - This can be exploited to learn the entire plaintext!



CBC mode





Arbitrary-length messages

lacktriangle Message ightarrow encoded data ightarrow ciphertext



Arbitrary-length messages

- lacktriangle Message ightarrow encoded data ightarrow ciphertext
- PKCS #5 encoding:
 - Assume message is an integeral # of bytes
 - Let L be the block length (in bytes) of the cipher
 - Let $b \geq 1$ be # of bytes that need to be appended to the message to get length a multiple of L
 - $-1 \le b \le L$; note $b \ne 0$
 - Append b (encoded in 1 byte), b times
 - I.e., if 3 bytes of padding are needed, append 0×030303



Decryption?

- To Decrypt:
 - Use CBC-mode decryption to obtain encoded data
 - Say, the final byte of encoded data has value b



Decryption?

To Decrypt:

- Use CBC-mode decryption to obtain encoded data
- Say, the final byte of encoded data has value b
 - If b = 0 or b > L, return "error"
 - If final b bytes of encoded data are not all equal to b, return "error"
 - Otherwise, strip off the final b bytes of the encoded data, and output what remains as the message

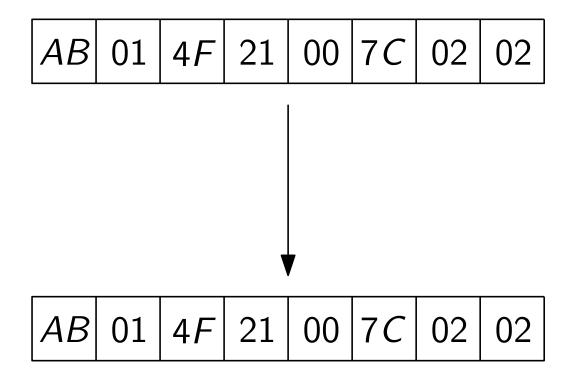


<i>AB</i> 01	4 <i>F</i>	21	00	7 <i>C</i>
--------------	------------	----	----	------------

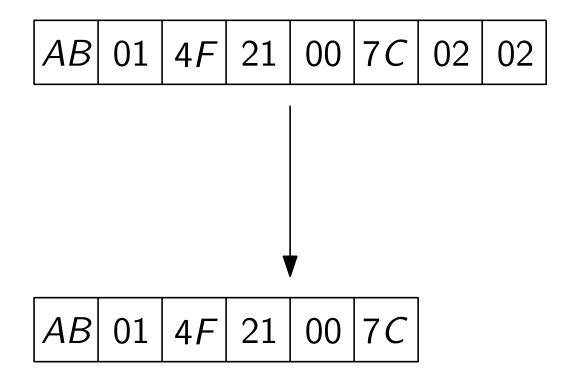


AB 01 4F 21 00 7C 02 02

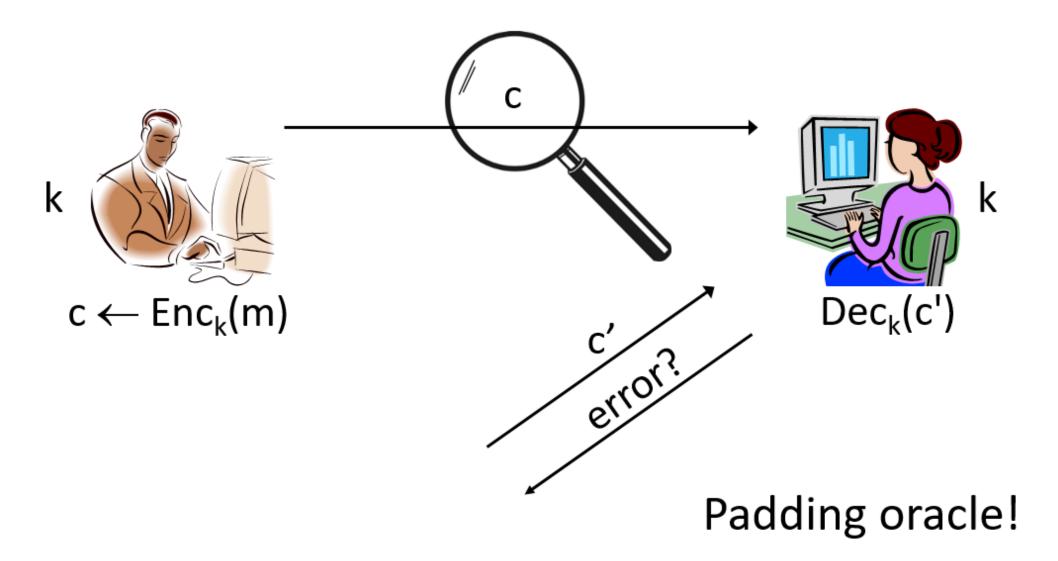














- Padding oracles are frequently present in, e.g., web applications
- Even if an error is not explicitly returned, an attacker might be able to detect differences in timing, behavior, etc.



- Padding oracles are frequently present in, e.g., web applications
- Even if an error is not explicitly returned, an attacker might be able to detect differences in timing, behavior, etc.
- Main idea of the attack
 - Consider a two-block ciphertext IV, c
 - Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$



- Padding oracles are frequently present in, e.g., web applications
- Even if an error is not explicitly returned, an attacker might be able to detect differences in timing, behavior, etc.
- Main idea of the attack
 - Consider a two-block ciphertext IV, c
 - Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$
 - Main observation: If an attacker modifies the *i*th byte of *IV*, this causes a predictable change (only) to the *i*th byte of the encoded data



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: $XX XX $XX$$

__

Encoded data:



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

_

Encoded data:



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

Encoded data:



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

Encoded data:



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

"Success" –

"Error"



Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$



Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$ $0 \times 9E \oplus 0 \times 06$ $F_{k}^{-1}(c)$: *IV*: 00 | 7C 02 9E 21 Encoded 06 06 06 06 06 data: "Success" "Error"



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX 98

/V: AB 01 4F 21 00 7C 02 9E



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

Encoded data:



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX 98

__



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

Encoded data:



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX 98

_



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX XX 98

__



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX 98

_



Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX 98



Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX 98

__



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX 98

_

Encoded data:



• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

$$F_k^{-1}(c)$$
: XX XX XX XX XX XX 98

__

Encoded data:

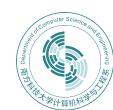


• Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

_

 $XX \oplus 0x41 = 0x07$

"Success"
$$\Rightarrow XX = 0x41 \oplus 0x07$$



Encoded data = $F_k^{-1}(c) \oplus IV$

_

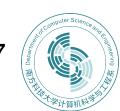
Encoded data:

"Success"

 $XX \oplus 0x41 = 0x07$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 XX = 0x41 \oplus 0x07

$$\Rightarrow$$
 plaintext byte = XX \oplus 0x01 = 0x47



Attack complexity

 $\blacksquare \leq L$ tries to learn the # of padding bytes (b)

 $^{-} \le 2^8 = 256$ tries to learn each plaintext byte



CCA-security: a summary

Chosen-ciphertext attacks represent a significant, real-world threat

Modern encryption schemes are designed to be CCA-secure

None of the schemes we have seen so far are CCA-secure



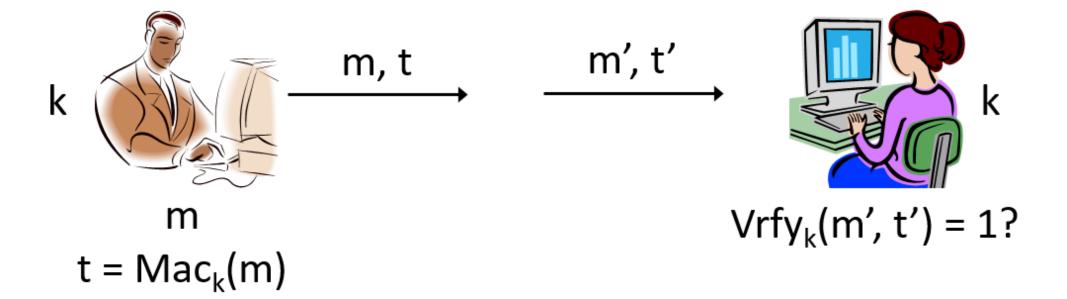
Secrecy vs. integrity

So far we have been concerned with ensuring secrecy of communication



- So far we have been concerned with ensuring secrecy of communication
- What about integrity?
 - I.e., ensuring that a received message originated from the intended party, and was not modified
 - Even if an attacker controls the channel!
 - Standard error-correction techniques are not enough!
 - The right tool is a *message authentication code*







- Secrecy and integrity are orthogonal concerns
 - Possible to have either one without the other
 - Sometimes you might want one without the other
 - Most often, both are needed



- Secrecy and integrity are orthogonal concerns
 - Possible to have either one without the other
 - Sometimes you might want one without the other
 - Most often, both are needed
- Encryption does not (in general) provide any integrity
 - Integrity is even stronger than non-malleabity
 - None of the schemes we have seen so far provide any integrity



Message authentication code (MAC)

- A message authentication code is defined by three PPT algorithms (Gen, Mac, Vrfy):
 - Gen: take as input 1^n ; outputs k. (assume $|k| \ge n$.)
 - Mac: take as input key k and message $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$; outputs $tag\ t$: $t := Mac_k(m)$
 - Vrfy: takes key k, message m, and tag t as input;
 outputs 1 ("accept") or 0 ("reject")



Message authentication code (MAC)

- A message authentication code is defined by three PPT algorithms (Gen, Mac, Vrfy):
 - Gen: take as input 1^n ; outputs k. (assume $|k| \ge n$.)
 - Mac: take as input key k and message $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$; outputs $tag\ t$: $t := Mac_k(m)$
 - Vrfy: takes key k, message m, and tag t as input;
 outputs 1 ("accept") or 0 ("reject")

```
For all m and all k output by Gen, Vrfy_k(m, Mac_k(m)) = 1
```



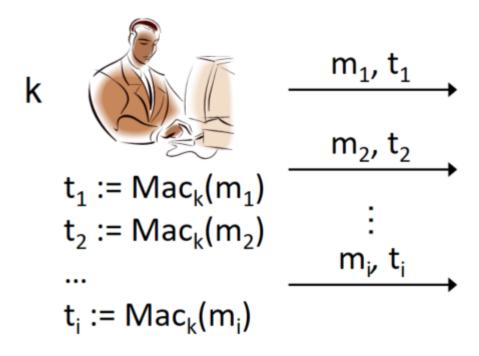
- Threat model
 - "Adaptive chosen-message attack"
 - Assume the attacker can induce the sender to authenticate messages of the attacker's choice

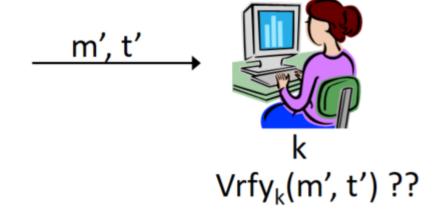


- Threat model
 - "Adaptive chosen-message attack"
 - Assume the attacker can induce the sender to authenticate messages of the attacker's choice
- Security goal
 - "Existential unforgeability"
 - Attacker should be unable to forge a valid tag on any message not previously authenticated by the sender



MAC







Formal definition

- Fix A, Π. Define a randomized experiment $Forge_{A,\Pi}(n)$:
 - 1. $k \leftarrow Gen(1^n)$
 - 2. $A(1^n)$ interacts with an *oracle* $Mac_k(\cdot)$; let M be the set of messages submitted to this oracle
 - 3. A outputs (m, t)
 - 4. A succeeds, and the experiment evaluates to 1, if $Vrfy_k(m,t)=1$ and $m \notin M$



Formal definition

- Fix A, Π. Define a randomized experiment $Forge_{A,\Pi}(n)$:
 - 1. $k \leftarrow Gen(1^n)$
 - 2. $A(1^n)$ interacts with an *oracle* $Mac_k(\cdot)$; let M be the set of messages submitted to this oracle
 - 3. A outputs (m, t)
 - 4. A succeeds, and the experiment evaluates to 1, if $Vrfy_k(m, t) = 1$ and $m \notin M$

Definition 6.2 Π is *secure* if for all PPT attackers A, there is a *negligible* function ϵ such that

$$\Pr[Forge_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1] \le \epsilon(n)$$



- Is the definition too strong?
 - We don't want to make any assumptions about what the sender might authenticate
 - We don't want to make any assumptions about what forgeries are "meaningful"



- Is the definition too strong?
 - We don't want to make any assumptions about what the sender might authenticate
 - We don't want to make any assumptions about what forgeries are "meaningful"
- An MAC satisfying this definition can be used anywhere integrity is needed



Replay attacks

- Replay attacks are not prevented
 - No stateless mechanism can prevent them
- Replay attacks are often a significant real-world concern
- Need to protect against replay attacks at a higher level
 - Decision about what to do with a replayed message is application-dependent



A fixed-length MAC

- Intuition: we need a keyed function Mac such that:
 - Given $Mac_k(m_1)$, $Mac_k(m_2)$, ...,
 - It is infeasible to predict the value $Mac_k(m)$ for any $m \notin \{m_1, m_2, \ldots\}$



A fixed-length MAC

- Intuition: we need a keyed function Mac such that:
 - Given $Mac_k(m_1)$, $Mac_k(m_2)$, ...,
 - It is infeasible to predict the value $Mac_k(m)$ for any $m \notin \{m_1, m_2, \ldots\}$
- Let *Mac* be a PRF!



Construction

Let F be a length-preserving PRF (aka block cipher)



Construction

- Let F be a length-preserving PRF (aka block cipher)
- Construct the following $MAC \Pi$:
 - Gen: choose a uniform key k for F
 - $Mac_k(m)$: output $F_k(m)$
 - $Vrfy_k(m, t)$: output 1 iff $F_k(m) = t$



Construction

- Let F be a length-preserving PRF (aka block cipher)
- Construct the following $MAC \Pi$:
 - Gen: choose a uniform key k for F
 - $Mac_k(m)$: output $F_k(m)$
 - $Vrfy_k(m, t)$: output 1 iff $F_k(m) = t$
- **Theorem 6.3** П is a *secure* MAC



Next Lecture

proof, authenticated encryption ...

