# CSE 127 Computer Security

Stefan Savage, Fall 2024, Lecture 9

Cryptography I: Primitives

based on slides by Kirill Levchenko, Stefan Savage and Alex Gantman

#### Midterm NEXT class

Thursday, In class, 80mins

Closed notes/laptop/device/etc

You can bring one sheet of paper (8.5x11") with notes

 You can use both sides, but must be readable with the human eye (normal glasses/contacts allowed)

#### In scope

- Everything up through the lecture on side channels
- Will NOT include crypto
- Lecture, readings, PAs all fair game
- Primarily multiple choice/ true false
- Might I have some code snippets? Yes, but I won't ask you to know weird or arbitrary things
- Some sample questions at the end of these slides (in the style of the questions you'll get)

### Today

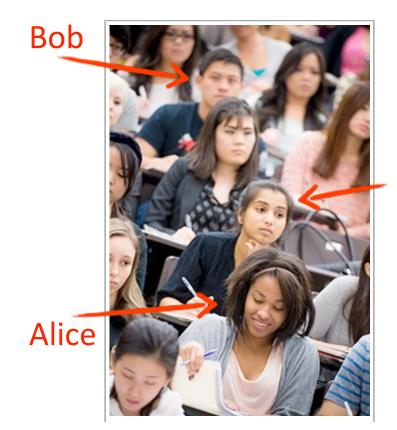
### Change of Focus

- Thus far we have largely focused on low-level security issues on a machine (i.e., how we try to protect ourselves from attacks on code or the OS)
- Today we're going to start looking at cryptography
   Means for providing (principally) confidentiality and integrity/authenticity across trust boundaries

## Cryptography: A Simple Example

Alice, Bob, Eve in a classroom (back when we had those)

Alice and Bob can pass notes ... but only via Eve



Eve

### A Simple Example

Alice wants to communicate to Bob whether or not she will work with him on CSE 127 Assignment 2

- Think of this as one bit of information: "yes" or "no"

Alice does not want Eve to know this ... but Eve can observe every message between them

### A Simple Example

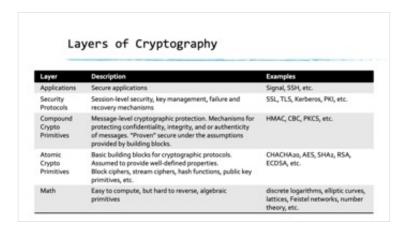
How can Alice communicate with Bob without Eve knowing her answer?

How can Bob know that the message is really from Alice without Eve being able to modify or spoof it?

### Cryptography

Cryptography provides mechanisms for enforcing confidentiality and integrity across time and space controlled by an adversary

Very broad subject



We focus primarily on using it as a tool in designing secure systems.

- CSE107/207 goes deeper into design of compound primitives and security protocols

### Motivation

#### Two parties want to communicate securely

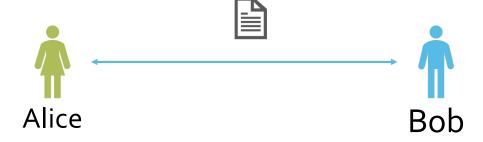
- Confidentiality: no one else can read messages
- Integrity: messages cannot be modified
- Authenticity: parties cannot be impersonated

#### Example: Military orders

- Enemy can't know what the orders say
- Enemy can't modify the orders
- Enemy can't send fake orders

# Setting

Alice and Bob communicate by sending messages



### Setting

Alice and Bob communicate by sending messages

Eve can read, create, modify, or block messages

Attacker model determines Eve's control of the channel between Alice and Bob

- Passive attacker: can read only
- Active attacker: can read, create, and possibly modify, block
- *Person-in-the-middle* (PitM) attacker: can read, create, modify, block



### Back to our Simple Example

Let's say Alice and Bob *pre-agree* on Bob a secret code:

- "eagle": "yes"

- "snake": "no"

Alice sends message "eagle"

- Bob knows this means yes
- Eve learns nothing because she doesn't know the code



Eve

Alice

### Back to our Simple Example

What if Eve knows Alice and Bob have a secret code?

- ... that the secret code is a pair of code words?
- ... that the two code words are "eagle" and "snake"?

Eve learns nothing even if she knows everything except which code word means "yes" and which means "no"

Does this scheme provide confidentiality?

- Yes, but only for a single message!

Integrity? Authenticity?

#### The Basics

Know your threat model!

Know whether you need to protect *confidentiality*, *integrity*, or both.

Confidentiality and integrity are protected by different cryptographic mechanisms!

Having one does not imply the other!!!

### The Basics

Know your threat model!

Know whether you need protection against a *passive* or *active/PitM* adversary.

Systems that are secure against the former may not be secure against the latter.

### Encryption

We usually want to encrypt more than one bit of information

- In general binary string of arbitrary length
- Cipher: mechanical algorithm for transforming plaintext to/from ciphertext

Plaintext (m): unencrypted message to be communicated

- From now on, assume this is a binary string

Ciphertext (c): encrypted version of message

Also a binary string (may not be same length as plaintext)

$$c = E(m)$$

$$m = D(c)$$

$$m = D(c)$$

### One-Time Pad

We can achieve *perfect secrecy* if we XOR plaintext with a random stream of bits known only to Alice and Bob

Why?

$$c = m \oplus r$$

Random binary string of the same length as plaintext

#### One-Time Pad

For a given ciphertext, every plaintext is equally probable

- Probability taken over random choice of pad r (i.e., the key)

One bit yes/no protocol as a one-time pad:

- Plaintext: yes  $\rightarrow$  1, no  $\rightarrow$  0
- Ciphertext (if r = 0):  $0 \rightarrow 0$ ,  $1 \rightarrow 1$
- Ciphertext (if r = 1):  $0 \rightarrow 1, 1 \rightarrow 0$

$$c = m \oplus r$$

### One-Time Pads

### Perfect secrecy.

- Used when perfect secrecy is necessary
- Requires a lot of pre-arranged secrets
- Each pad can only be used once Why?

No integrity or authenticity



http://www.ranum.com/security/computer\_security/papers/otp-faq/otp.jpg

### Computational Cryptography

Sharing large secrets is impractical

Modern cryptographic systems depend on small(-er) secrets

But, if the pre-arranged secret is smaller than the message, then not all plaintexts are equally probable

- Ciphertext reveals some information about plaintext

Practical cryptography has to sacrifice perfect secrecy

- It's no longer **impossible** to learn anything about the plaintext from the ciphertext
  - ... just computationally impractical for the adversary without the secret
  - ... we hope

### Computational Cryptography

**Kerckhoffs's Principle**: A cryptosystem should be secure even if everything about the system, except the [secret] key, is public knowledge.

(related) Shannon's Maxim: "the enemy knows the system",

 i.e., "one ought to design systems under the assumption that the enemy will immediately gain full familiarity with them"

Assume all details of the algorithm are public

- Only the key is secret
- No reliance on "security through obscurity"

### Cryptographic Primitives

### **Symmetric** Cryptography

- Alice and Bob share a **secret key** that they use to secure their communications
- Secret keys are random bit-strings
- aka Secret-Key or Shared-Key Cryptography

### Cryptographic Primitives

#### **Asymmetric** Cryptography

- Each subject has two keys: Private and Public
- Public keys can be used by anyone for "unprivileged" operations
   Encrypt message for intended receiver. Verify signature
- Private keys are secret and used for "privileged" operations
   Decrypt message. Sign message
- Public and private key parts are related in algorithm-dependent way
   Can't just pick a random bit-string as your key as with symmetric keys
   Need a key-generation function.
- aka Public-Key Cryptography

#### How Does It Work?

Goal: learn how to use cryptographic primitives correctly

- We will treat them as a **black box** that mostly does what it says

To learn what's inside black box take CSE 107/207, Number Theory, etc.

### Avoid making your own crypto at all costs!

- This often fails, even when very smart people do it

#### How Does It Work?

Symmetric cryptographic primitives [atomic]:

- 1 part arcane magic and folk superstition +
- 2 parts bitter experience of past failures
- When a primitive gets broken move on to another one
- E.g. AES replaces DES, SHA-3 standardized to replace SHA-2, etc

Asymmetric cryptographic primitives [atomic]: based on computational complexity of certain problems

- Breaking one means a breakthrough in solving a hard problem
- Have (mostly) weathered the test of time better

### Cryptographic Primitives

#### **Encryption**: provides confidentiality, without integrity protection.

- Formally: adversary can't\* distinguish which of the two plaintexts were encrypted without knowing the [secret] key.
  - \* within practical computational bounds.
- Does not provide integrity protection!
  - Changes to ciphertext may lead to predictable changes in decrypted plaintext.
  - Needs separate message authentication.

### Cryptographic Primitives

*Message Authentication Code* (symmetric) and *Digital Signature* (asymmetric): provides integrity, without confidentiality.

- Formally: adversary can't\* generate a valid MAC or signature for a new message without knowing the [secret] key.
  - \* within practical computational bounds.
- Does not provide confidentiality!
  - Needs separate message encryption.

### Aside: Cryptographic Randomness

Almost all cryptography relies on good random numbers.

#### What is random?

- Uniformly distributed?
- Unpredictable?

# Cryptographically Secure Pseudo-Random Number Generator (CSPRNG) requirements:

- Given the first n bits of a random sequence, can't\* predict  $(n+1)^{th}$  bit with probability better than  $\frac{1}{2}$ .
- Even if internal state has been revealed (or guessed correctly), can't\* reconstruct the stream of random numbers prior to the revelation.
  - \* within practical computational bounds.

#### Pay attention to randomness requirements when using cryptographic APIs

Need to use the system APIs for cryptographic random numbers (rand() won't cut it)

int getRandomNumber()

return 4: // chosen by fair dice roll.

// guaranteed to be random.

#### Aside: Brute Force

All modern cryptography is breakable by brute force given enough knowledge about plaintext

Try to decrypt ciphertext with every possible key until expected plaintext is found

Attack complexity proportional to size of key space

- Keys are just binary strings, size of key space expressed in bits
- 64-bit key requires 264 decryption attempts (worst case)

#### Hash Functions

A *cryptographic hash function* maps arbitrary length input into a fixed-size string and has the following properties:

#### Pre-image Resistance

- Given a specific hash function output, it is impractical to find an input (pre-image) that generates the same given output.

#### Collision Resistance

- It is impractical to find any two inputs that hash to the same output.

$$h = H(m)$$

#### Hash Functions

Example: SHA-2: Secure Hash Algorithm 2

- Designed by NSA
- Output: 224, 256, 384, or 512 bits
- Previous hash functions (SHA-1, MD5) now considered weak
   (e.g. computationally feasible to generate collisions)

#### SHA-3: Secure Hash Algorithm 3

- Result of NIST SHA-3 contest (original candidate name: Keccak)
- Output: arbitrary size
- Recommended for new applications and replacement if SHA-2 broken

## Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

Goal: Validate message integrity and authenticity based on a shared secret.

 How can Bob know that the message is really from Alice and has not been modified or spoofed by Eve?

MAC: Message Authentication Code

- Function of message and secret key.
- Impractical to forge without knowing the key.

i.e. to come up with a valid MAC for a new message.

$$a = MAC_k(m)$$

### Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

Alice sends m||a| (||means "concatenated with")

Bob uses his copy of the secret key k to independently compute a' on m and compare to the one received.

Note, no confidentiality guarantees.

$$a = MAC_k(m)$$

### Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

MACs can be constructed out of hash functions or ciphers

HMAC: MAC based on hash function

- HMAC-SHA2: HMAC construction using SHA-2
- What's wrong with just using a hash of the message H(m) as a MAC?
- What about H(k||m)? (The operator "||" here stands for concatenation)

Many hash functions susceptible to length extension attack; attacker can create valid H(x||y) from H(x) without knowing x, just its length

Don't make up your own MAC constructions!!!

Cipher-based MACs covered briefly later

 $HMAC(k, m) = H((k' \oplus opad)||H((k' \oplus ipad)||m))$ 

### Symmetric Encryption

$$c=E_k(m)$$
Encryption function shared secret key
 $m=D_k(c)$ 
Decryption function shared secret key

### Symmetric Ciphers

**Stream cipher**: generate a pseudorandom string of bits as long as the plaintext and XOR w/plaintext

- Pseudorandom: hard to tell apart from random
   Hard: computationally hard to distinguish from random
- Can't reuse string of bits (remember one-time pad!)

**Block cipher**: Encrypt/decrypt fixed-size blocks of bits

- Need a way to encrypt longer or shorter messages

### Stream Ciphers

#### Produces a pseudorandom keystream

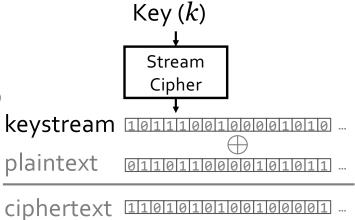
- Each key results in a unique, pseudorandom keystream

To encrypt, keystream is XORed with plaintext

To decrypt, keystream is XORed with ciphertext

Example: ChaCha20

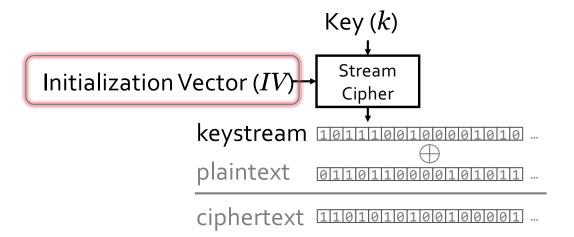
- 256-bit keys
- 96-bit *nonce (also called Initialization Vector)*



## Stream Ciphers

## Insecure if key used more than once

- Need mechanism to either generate different one-time keys from a master key, or
  - a random initialization value on each use



## **Block Ciphers**

#### Block ciphers operate on fixed-size blocks

- Common sizes: 64 and 128 bits

#### A block cipher is typically a combination of **permutation**

- Each input mapped to exactly one output

#### ... and substitution

- Some codewords mapped to other codewords

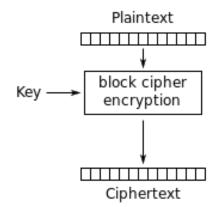
#### Typically in *multiple rounds*

Example: AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

Replacement for DES based on Rijndael cipher

- Key size: 128, 192, 256 bits

- Block size: 128 bits



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Block\_cipher\_mode\_of\_operation

## **Block Ciphers**

Block ciphers encrypt/decrypt fixed-size blocks.

How to encrypt a message shorter than a block?

- Pad plaintext to full block size
- Must be able to unambiguously distinguish padding from plaintext
- Don't make up your own padding scheme!

How to encrypt a message longer than a block?

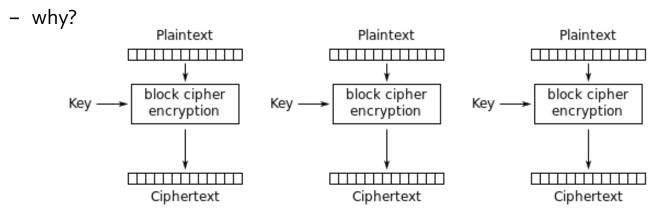
- "Chain" individual blocks
- Methods of chaining are known as modes of operation.
   There are a bunch of choices, I'll describe three of the best known

## Electronic Code Book (ECB) Mode

Naïve mode of operation: encrypt each block separately

 As if looking it up in a code book. Known as Electronic Code Book (ECB) mode Very fast (easy to parallelize)

#### DO NOT USE without very good reason!!!

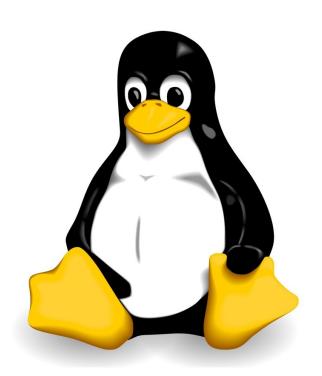


Electronic Codebook (ECB) mode encryption

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Block\_cipher\_mode\_of\_operation

## Electronic Code Book (ECB) Mode

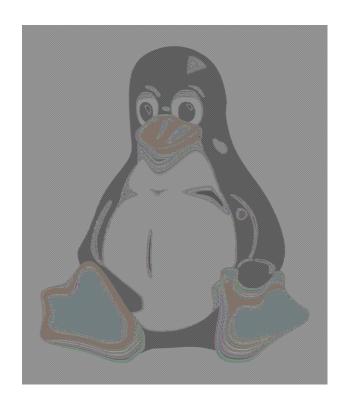
What if we encrypt this bitmap picture in ECB mode?



https://www.macitynet.it/linux-quello-ancora-non-funziona-ce-sistemare/

## Electronic Code Book (ECB) Mode

What if we encrypt this bitmap picture in ECB mode?



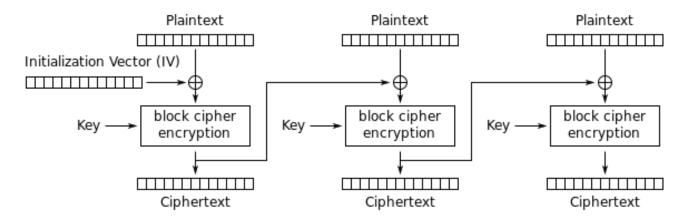
https://blog.filippo.io/the-ecb-penguin/

## Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Mode

#### XOR ciphertext block into next plaintext

#### Use random IV

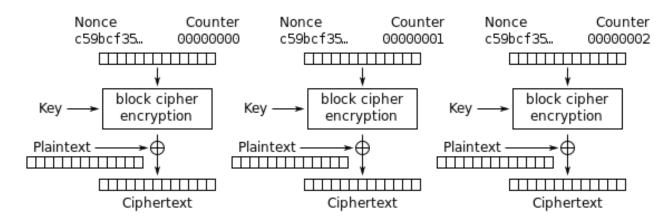
- Subtle attack possible if attacker knows IV, controls plaintext



Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode encryption

## Counter (CTR) Mode

Encrypt successive counter values and XOR result with plaintext Block cipher becomes stream cipher



Counter (CTR) mode encryption

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Block\_cipher\_mode\_of\_operation

## Cipher Properties

Encryption and decryption are inverse operations:

$$m = D_k(E_k(m))$$

#### Informally: ciphertext reveals nothing about plaintext

- More formally: can't distinguish which of two plaintexts were encrypted without key
- Is ECB secure under this definition?  $E_k(m_o||m_o)$  is trivially distinguishable from  $E_k(m_o||m_o)$

#### Non-property: integrity

- May be possible to change decrypted plaintext in known way
- Needs separate message authentication

#### Key hygiene:

 Do not use same key with different modes (or for separate encryption and authentication operations)

## Authenticated Encryption

Many real-world systems were broken because encryption and authentication were combined in insecure ways.

**Authenticated encryption** simultaneously provides confidentiality, integrity, and authenticity.

- Designed to work with single key.

Rule of thumb: If you have a job in which you have to select a symmetric-key cipher suite (in the next year), use one of the following:

- **AES-GCM** (Galois/Counter Mode)
- ChaCha2o+Poly13o5AES
- AEAD

## Limitations of Symmetric Cryptography

We can now protect confidentiality and integrity of messages without sharing very large secrets.

#### But...

- We still need to securely establish pairwise secret keys between all parties
- Challenging in practice

## Asymmetric Cryptography

#### aka *Public Key Cryptography*

Two separate keys: *public key* and *private key* (secret)

#### Public key known to everyone.

- Given Alice's public key

Anyone can send an encrypted message to Alice.

Anyone can verify that a message was signed by Alice.

#### Private key is kept secret.

- Only Alice can decrypt messages encrypted with her public key.
- Only Alice can sign messages so that they can be verified with her public key.

## Asymmetric Primitives

Confidentiality: encryption and decryption.

Integrity and Authenticity: signing and verification.

## Asymmetric Cryptography

Each subject has a public and private key.

Keys related to each other in algorithm-dependent way.

- Can't just pick a random string as your key as with symmetric
- Need a key-generation function

#### Notation:

- *K*: public key
- *k*: private key
- r: random bits.

$$(K, k) \leftarrow \text{Keygen}(r)$$

## Asymmetric Encryption and Decryption

Encryption uses public key

$$c = E_K(m)$$

Decryption uses private key

$$m = D_k(c)$$

Computationally hard to decrypt without private key.

Messages are fixed size.

## Asymmetric Usage

Public directory contains everyone's public key

To encrypt to a person, get their public key from directory

No need for shared secrets!



https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Address-book.svg

## Signing and Verification

Signing uses private key

$$s = S_k(m)$$

Verification uses public key

$$V_K(m,s)$$

Computationally hard to sign without private key.

Messages are fixed size.

## Classic Asymmetric Ciphers

## ElGamal encryption (1985)

- Based on Diffie-Helman key exchange (1976)
- Computational basis: hardness of discrete logarithms

#### RSA encryption (1978)

- Invented by Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman
- Computational basis: hardness of factoring (ish)

## Classic Asymmetric Signatures

## DSA: Digital Signature Algorithm (1991)

- Closely related to ElGamal signature scheme (1984)
- Computational basis: hardness of discrete logarithms

#### RSA signatures

- Invented by Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman
- Computational basis: hardness of factoring (ish)

## Practical Considerations

Asymmetric cryptography operations generally **much** more expensive than symmetric operations

- Both in compute time
- And key size

Asymmetric primitives operate on fixed-size messages

Usually combined with symmetric for performance

- Use asymmetric to bootstrap ephemeral secret

# Example use of combined symmetric/asymmetric encryption

Generate an ephemeral (one time) symmetric secret key (i.e., random)

Encrypt message using this ephemeral secret key

Encrypt ephemeral key using asymmetric encryption

Send encrypted message and encrypted ephemeral key

Decryption: decrypt ephemeral key, use it to decrypt message

$$(E_K(k'), E_{k'}(M))$$

# Example use of combined symmetric/asymmetric signing

Signing: Compute cryptographic hash of message and sign it using asymmetric signature scheme

Verification: Compute cryptographic hash of message and verify it using asymmetric signature scheme

Summary: Symmetric Primitives

$$A = \operatorname{MAC}_k(M)$$
 $C = \operatorname{Enc}_k(M)$ 
 $M = \operatorname{Dec}_k(C)$ 

## Summary: Asymmetric Primitives

$$(K, k) \leftarrow \text{Keygen}(r)$$
  $(K, k) \leftarrow \text{Keygen}(r)$ 

$$C = E_K(M)$$
  $S = S_k(M)$ 

$$M = D_k(C)$$
  $V_K(M, S)$ 

#### Review

Confidentiality and integrity are protected by different cryptographic mechanisms!

- Having one does not imply the other!!!

Kerckhoffs's Principle: A cryptosystem should be secure even if everything about the system, except the [secret] key, is public knowledge.

Use existing methods and tools. If possible, use existing applications...

- Do not descend into lower layers unless you are an expert and brought back up
- Same goes for implementation. Do not modify or re-implement cryptographic libraries. Minor changes can lead to catastrophic failure.

Even if functionality is not affected (i.e. produces "correct" results)

## Additional Resources

## <u>Cryptography Engineering</u> by Niels Ferguson, Bruce Schneier, and Tadayoshi Kohno

- https://www.goodreads.com/book/show/7602360-cryptography-engineering

#### NIST Cryptographic Standards and Guidelines

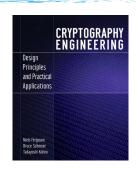
- https://csrc.nist.gov/projects/cryptographic-standards-and-guidelines

#### Cryptographic Right Answers

- http://latacora.singles/2018/04/03/cryptographic-right-answers.html

#### A Few Thoughts on Cryptographic Engineering by Matthew Green

https://blog.cryptographyengineering.com/



## Additional Resources

#### Introduction to Modern Cryptography by Mihir Bellare

- AKA CSE 107/207
- https://cseweb.ucsd.edu/~mihir/cse1o7/classnotes.html
- https://cseweb.ucsd.edu/~mihir/cse2o7/classnotes.html
- https://cseweb.ucsd.edu/~mihir/papers/gb.html
- <a href="http://web.cs.ucdavis.edu/~rogaway/classes/227/springo5/book/main.pdf">http://web.cs.ucdavis.edu/~rogaway/classes/227/springo5/book/main.pdf</a>

## Next

Midterm on Thursday!

Class cancelled on Tuesday

Next class (a week from Thursday)

- Key distribution

## Sample sample questions

(t)True (f)False

(to get a feel for the kinds of questions on the midterm)

L.	True/False a. By definition, a threat model describes all possible attacks against a system. (t)True (f)False
	<ul> <li>b. Return-oriented Programming is a technique whereby the attacker overwrites the return address to point to code the attacker has previously injected onto the stack.         <ul> <li>(t) True</li> <li>(f) False</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>c. Use-after-free attacks can used to read confidential data (i.e., what is in memory), but cannot be used to manipulate control flow (i.e., what get executed).         (t) True         (f) False</li> </ul>
	d. Control Flow Integrity (CFI) is a technique for dynamically checking if indirect control transfers during program execution are consistent with those described by the program source code.

## Some sample questions

- In Aleph One's "Smashing the Stack for Fun and Profit", the author writes a candidate shellcode but then transforms it. We discussed this in class. What changes did he make and why? (select all that apply)
  - (a) To add NOP instructions (a so-called "NOP sled") to make it easier to jump to shellcode
  - (b) To remove any existing NOP instructions that would interfere with NOP sleds
  - (c) To remove any zero bytes that might terminate a string function
  - (d) Using pointer subterfuge to skip the stack canary value and avoid detection
- 2. Control Flow Integrity (select all that apply)
  - (a) Prevents the overflow of heap buffers
  - (b) Prevents the overflow of stack buffers
  - (c) Requires that the attacker cannot modify the code segment
  - (d) Checks the target of each indirect jump/call to ensure it is reachable from that call site
  - (e) Requires the heap pointers only point to "live" memory (i.e., currently allocated)
  - (f) Is only applicable for programs written in type-safe languages
  - (q) Validates that the target of each direct jump/call to ensure it is reachable from that call site

## Some sample questions

- 3. The operating system kernel protects itself from user programs using which of the following techniques? (fill in all that apply)
  - (a) Only allowing user programs to execute in the processor's unprivileged execution mode
  - (b) Carefully validating the arguments passed in system calls from user programs
  - (c) Encrypting the kernel heap to protect it from being read or altered by user programs
  - (d) Protecting the memory holding kernel data structures from being read/written by user programs
  - (e) Randomizing the order in which user programs execute
  - (f) Flushing the processor cache after each system call