

# CS 1699

# Privacy in the Electronic Society

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05: Limits of cryptography

# Today's topics: Why isn't crypto enough?

Key servers can be exploited (including by their owners!)

- Is iMessage private?

Cryptographic primitives used naively can be harmful

- Padding is needed to prevent homomorphic attacks

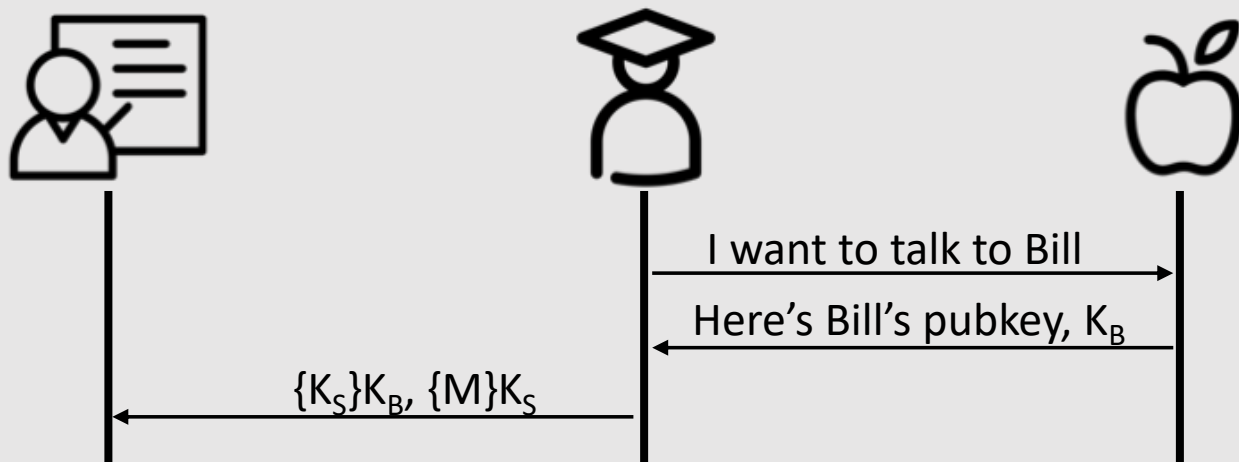
Brute-force attacks, like all other attacks, only get better

- EFF's Deep Crack (and later Distributed.net) break 56-bit DES

Random numbers are important, and easy to get wrong

- Netscape, Kerberos, Sony PS3...

# Is Apple's iMessage private?



**Note:** This protocol is not quite this simple. We'll discuss it again later in the term in more detail.

Should I **trust** Apple to distribute keys?

- What if they lie? Make a mistake? Government requests?

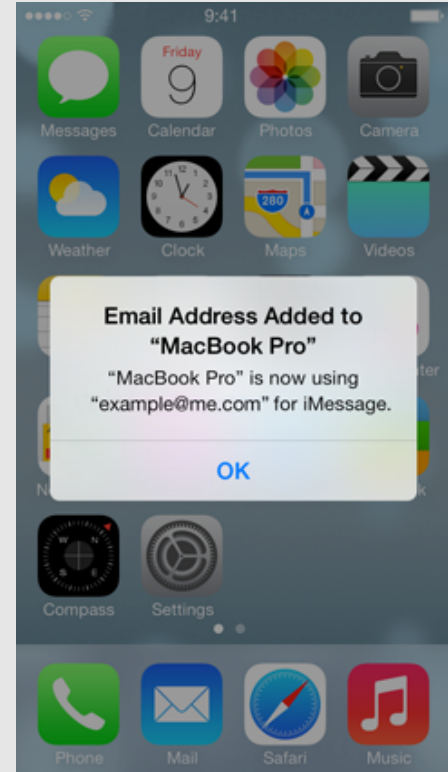
# Further complications from multi-device

You might want to chat on **both** your iPhone and Mac

- How can we **transfer** private keys?
- Instead, **key per device**; key server sends several keys
- **Hybrid crypto** means this isn't too expensive
  - $\{M\}K_S$ ,  $\{K_S\}K_{B1}$ ,  $\{K_S\}K_{B2}$ ...
- How might this change the trust I have in the key server?

Luckily, Apple alerts you if a key was added for your account

- But will they **always**? Mistakes, lies, government...



# Recently, Apple announced big changes in China

Starting Feb 28th, iCloud backups for users specifying China as their country will be stored by **GCBD** in China

- Improved **performance** for Chinese users!
- ... But also satisfying new **regulations** on cloud services
- This data is **encrypted**, so no problem... ?

**Mud puddle test:** Someone has the keys!

- If you fell in a mud puddle, destroying your phone and suffering memory loss, could you get your data back? **(Yes)**
- With separation of duties, this might be okay
  - In the US, Apple stores keys while outsourcing bulk data storage
- So who **stores the keys** in the new arrangement? How vulnerable are they?

# Cryptography is subtle and easy to misuse

Recall that **signing** and **decrypting** are the same in (many) public-key cryptosystems

- If I am willing to sign messages, I may be a **decryption oracle**

Assume I run a service to **sign homework submissions** to prove they were done on time

- My public key is  $(n, e)$ , my private key is  $d$
- You send  $M$ , I send you back  $M^d \bmod n$
- Now let's say you **discover** some  $C = M^e \bmod n$ 
  - What **is** this? What if you send it to me for signing?
  - Can I prevent this?

# But it gets worse...

Instead of sending  $C$ , you could be more clever. Let:

- $R$  be some random junk number
- $X = R^e \bmod n$
- $Y = XC \bmod n$

Send me  $Y$  to sign **instead**:

- $R^{-1}Y^d \bmod n = R^{-1}(XC)^d \bmod n$
- $\quad \quad \quad = R^{-1}X^d C^d \bmod n$
- $\quad \quad \quad = R^{-1}R^{ed} M^{ed} \bmod n$
- $\quad \quad \quad = R^{-1}RM \bmod n$
- $\quad \quad \quad = M \bmod n$

But I wouldn't recognize  $Y^d$  as being meaningful!

# Why does this work?

RSA has **multiplicative homomorphism**

- $(A^e \bmod n)(B^e \bmod n) = (AB)^e \bmod n$
- $E(x)E(y) = E(xy)$

But this **only works** if encrypting/signing raw data

- In practice, RSA should **not** be used in this way
- Instead, padding functions such as **OAEP / PKCS#1** randomly pad the message
  - $M$  to  $P(M)$
  - $P^{-1}(P(M)) = M, P^{-1}\left(D\left(E(P(M))\right)\right) = M$
  - But,  $P^{-1}(P(A)P(B)) \neq AB$

Beyond this, we should avoid services that are decryption oracles

- **Never use the same key for two purposes**
- Here, use different keys for signing and secure messaging



# Sometimes, straightforward attacks become feasible in time

DES was a **symmetric cipher** developed in the early 70s

- Federal standard in Nov 1976

DES's biggest criticism was the (short) **56-bit** key size

- 72,057,594,037,927,936 possible keys
- But, US gov't continued to stand by the infeasibility of an attack

In 1998, EFF built a **\$250k** specialized, parallel machine to crack DES

- 29 circuit boards, 64 custom chips per board
- These 1,856 chips could test **90 billion keys per second**
- Cracked key in 56 hours

Super manageable for govmts, b

In 2002, EFF and Distributed.net paired up to use 100,000 volunteer PCs

- These general-purpose machines cracked DES in 22.25 hours

# What about randomness as an input to crypto?

**Bad randomness** can mean the cryptography is useless

- Let's say I encrypt data with a random key generated with a **secure PRNG** seeded by rolling a fair 6-sided die
  - What could go wrong? What can an attacker do, and how will it hurt me? Then you only need to try every seed (only 6!) instead of breaking the keyspace.
- What if I roll the die **100 times** and append? Add? XOR?

Append: then you have  $6^{100}$  options... not

Add: leaves you in the (very small) r

XOR: obviously bad

Misuse of a PRNG can have huge implications for crypto

- Predictable keys or IVs
- Padding no longer secure
- Some ciphers require random nonce in addition to keys (think something like an IV)

# Ian Goldberg and David Wagner discovered such a problem in Netscape's key generation

```
global variable seed;
RNG_CreateContext()
    /* Time elapsed since 1970 */
    (seconds, microseconds) = time of day;
    pid = process ID;
    ppid = parent process ID;
    a = mklcpr(microseconds);
    b = mklcpr(pid + seconds + (ppid << 12));
    seed = MD5(a, b);

/* not cryptographically significant; shown for
completeness */
mklcpr(x)
    return ((0xDEECE66D * x + 0x2BBB62DC) >> 1);
```

# So what's wrong with this?

The PRNG used was considered **secure**, but it was seeded using a few basic values:

- Current time (seconds and milliseconds)
- Process ID (PID, 15 bits)
- Parent process ID (PPID, 15 bits)

## Issues?

- Can any of these be **observed** if logged in to the same machine?  
• How will the attacker know if they're right?  
• What other tricks could we use to **narrow the choices**?  
• How many bits of security is this, even if we aren't co-located?
  - $a = \text{mklcpr}(\text{microseconds});$
  - $b = \text{mklcpr}(\text{pid} + \text{seconds} + (\text{ppid} \ll 12));$

Basically (pretty c

Challenge is randomly generated also, then sent by the browser in p

Pretty easy to guess the second (since we're communicating); also, once up

# Kerberos v4 suffered a similar bug

Kerberos is an **open-source** network authentication protocol

- Widely used in academia, default in Windows, etc.
  - Used in our department for AFS distributed filesystem
- We'll discuss **authentication** later in the semester
- Closely-studied, open-source

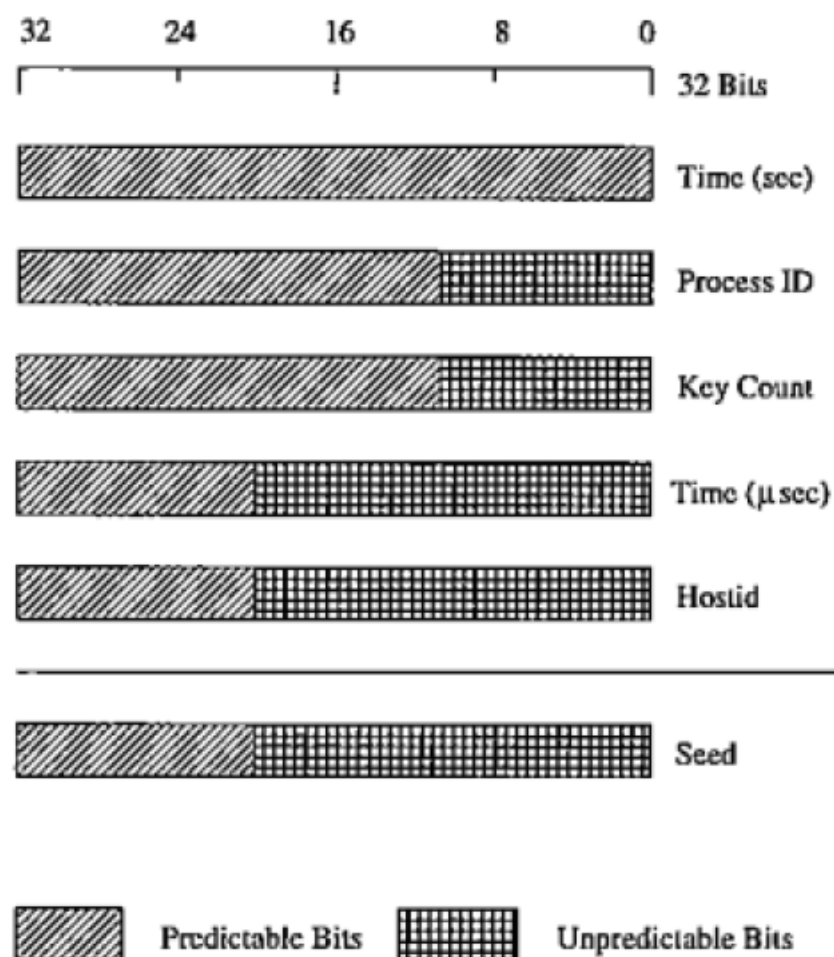
PRNG used to generate **session keys** was seeded with several 32-bit values XOR'd together:

- Time in seconds and milliseconds
- PID of server
- Cumulative count of session keys generated since launch
- Host ID of the machine

We're only XOR-ing them!! Still only a 32-bit space

How many **bits of randomness** is this?

See next page: the randomness is constrained not by th



**Figure 2. Random Number Generator Seed**

# A related mistake by Sony allowed PS3 protections to be bypassed entirely

Sony's goal: PS3 should **not install** any software except that provided by Sony

- Sign firmware updates, public key used to verify before install
- Where did the **public key** come from? Shipped with the original firmware. Update with new one later if needed, sig
- What would happen if the corresponding **private key** were discovered? Then you can rewrite the firmware and sign the modified version, not update the new keypairs, etc. The whole thing breaks.

## ECDSA (Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm)

- $e = \text{HASH}(\text{message})$ ,  $k = \text{random value}$ ,  $d = \text{private key}$
- Signature is  $(R, S)$ , where:
  - $R$  is a function of  $k$  (and public values)
  - $S = \frac{e + dR}{k}$
- $k$  must be **random** and **fresh**!

# What happens if $m$ is reused?

$R$  is a function of  $k$  (and constants), so  $R_1 = R_2$

$$S_1 = \frac{e_1 + dR}{k}, S_2 = \frac{e_2 + dR}{k}$$

$$\text{So, } S_1 - S_2 = \frac{e_1 - e_2}{k}, \text{ and } k = \frac{e_1 - e_2}{S_1 - S_2}$$

So, an attacker **can find  $k$**  given 2 signatures using the same key,  $d$  (and same  $k$ )

$S$  is part of the signature, and  $e$  is the hash we're validating against, so both are known

$$d = \frac{kS_1 - e_1}{R}$$

Given  $k$ , we can find the private key  $d$ !

**So:** Don't use the same random value  $k$  twice!



**Guess what Sony did...**

*Yep*

# Conclusions

Cryptography isn't enough to protect our privacy alone

- Central authorities can lie, make mistakes, or be coerced
  - Trust is relative!
- Primitives can be misused
  - Don't use the same key for 2 purposes!
- Attacks get better over time (threat models change)
- Randomness can be difficult True randomness is hard to come by
- Know the proper usage and up-to-date best practices for the algorithms you use Think!

Next: Side-channel attacks