

CS5285

Information Security for eCommerce

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Reminder of previous lecture

- Integrity (data origin authentication/non-repudiation)
 - Hash (known algorithm, no key)
 - Only detect accidental modification
 - Finding collisions should not be easy (birthday paradox $\gg n/2$)
 - MAC (needs key)
 - Data origin authentication (only generated of key known)
 - HMAC or CBC-MAC
 - No non-repudiation (two parties can generate MAC)
 - Digital signature (asymmetric crypto system)
 - Sign with private key (only one person)
 - Verify with public key (anyone)
 - Look at RSA version (there are other signature schemes)
 - Only mechanism to provide non-repudiation (also origin auth.)
 - Only one person can generate signature

Today's Lecture

- Authentication
 - We have spent several lecture discussing 'tools'
 - Encryption, hash, MAC, digital signature
 - In the lecture we start using these...build protocols for entity authentication
- CIL03 and CIL04
(assessment on the security analyze security measures)

Entity Authentication

Authentication

- Alice proves her identity to Bob
 - Alice and Bob can be humans or computers
- May also require Bob to prove that he is Bob (mutual authentication)
- E.g. Octopus cards, ATM machines

Authentication

- Authentication on a stand-alone computer with physically secure connection is relatively simple
- Authentication over a network is much more complex
 - Attacker can passively observe messages
 - Attacker can replay messages
 - Usually need an encrypted channel to do so securely

Authentication Example: Entry to Building

1. Insert badge into reader
2. Enter PIN
3. Correct PIN?

Yes? Enter

No? Get challenged by security guard

Authentication Example: ATM Machine Protocol

1. Insert ATM card
2. Enter PIN
3. Correct PIN?

Yes? Conduct your transaction(s)

No? Machine eats card

- Authentication between a prover and a verifier with physically secure connection is relatively simple.
- Authentication over an open network is more complex.

One-way authentication over an open network

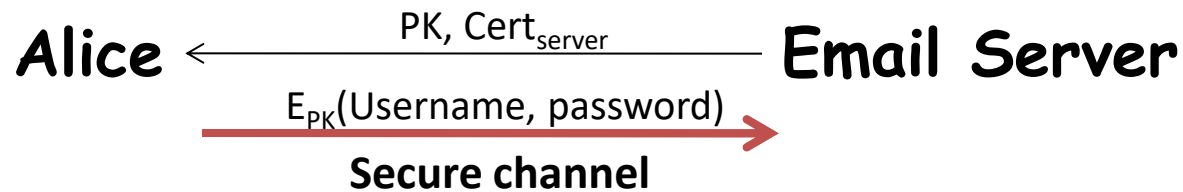
There may be eavesdroppers on an open network.



An eavesdropper can steal Alice's login information and then logon to the Email Server as Alice by using Alice's login information (**masquerade attack**).

One-way authentication over an open network

How about



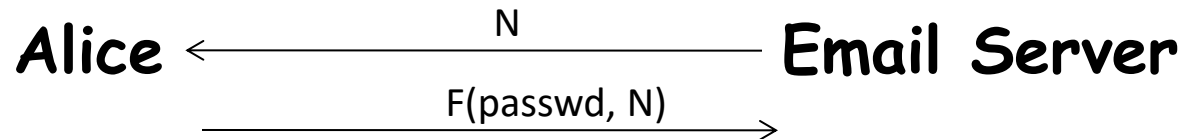
or



Adversary simply replays $E_{PK}(\text{Username, password})$ or $h(\text{password})$ in the impersonation of Alice in the replay attack.

Challenge-Response One-Way Authentication

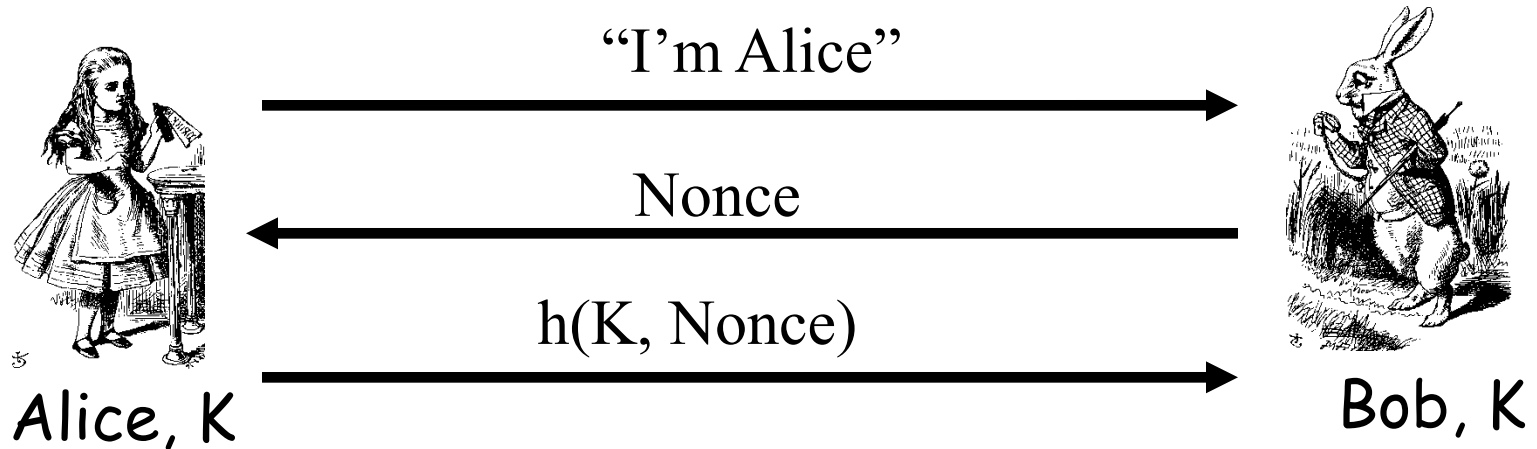
- To defend against replay attack
- Suppose Bob wants to authenticate Alice
 - Challenge sent from the verifier, Bob, to the prover, Alice
 - Only Alice should be able to provide the correct response



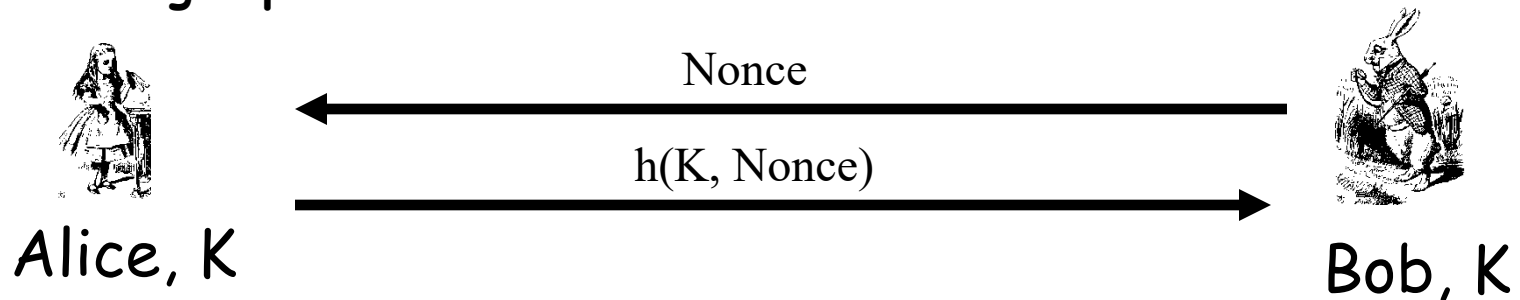
- **Challenge** N is a *nonce* (number used only once)
- N does not need to be a random number
- $F(\text{pwd}, N)$ is the **response** where F is a one-way function and “pwd” is the password of Alice
- Examples of F: hash function, block cipher
- Only Alice and the Email Server know the value of pwd. Hence only Alice can provide the correct response to the Email Server.

Challenge-Response One-Way Authentication

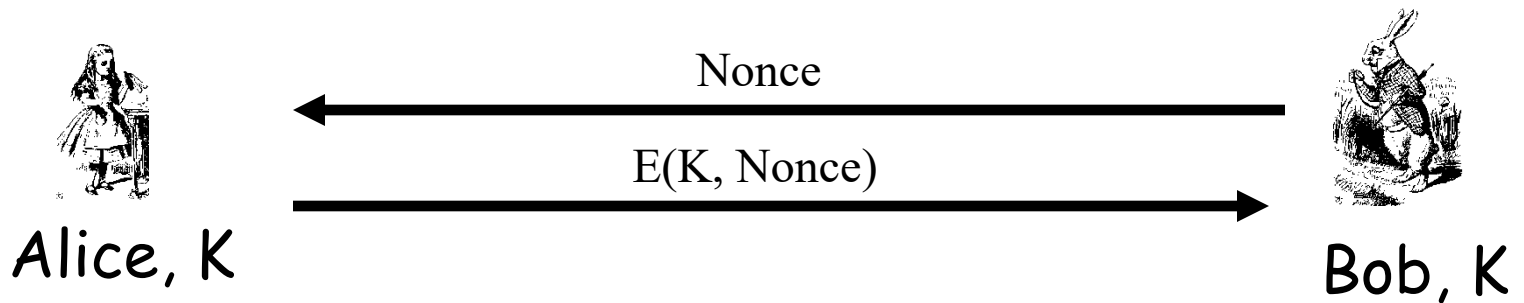
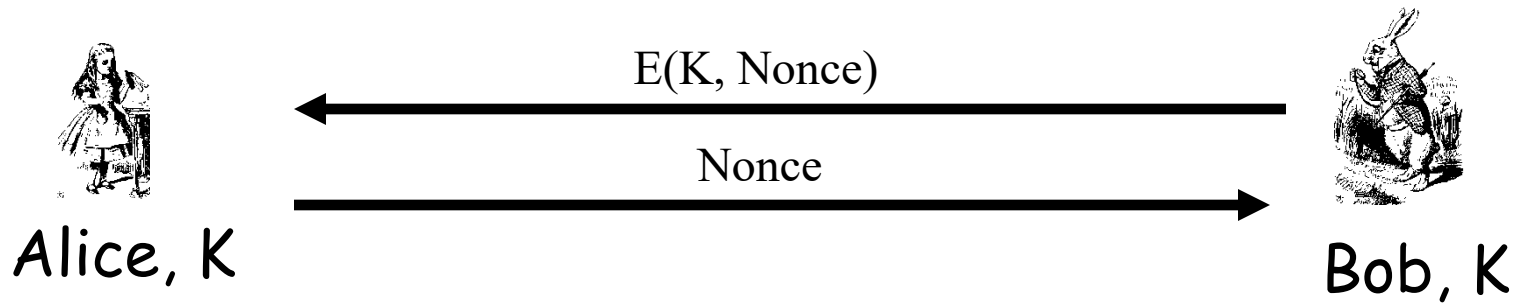
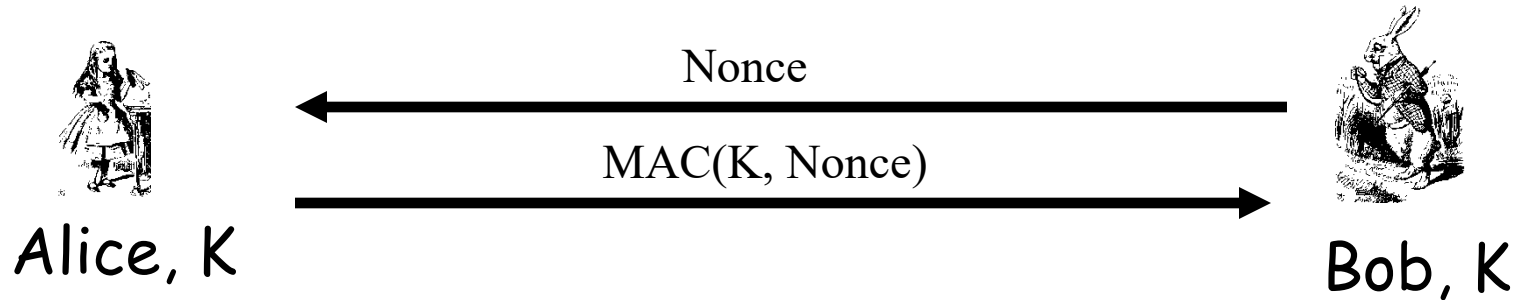
If Alice is a “device”, passwd can be changed to a symmetric key



Usually, we ignore the first message flow from Alice to Bob when describing a protocol:



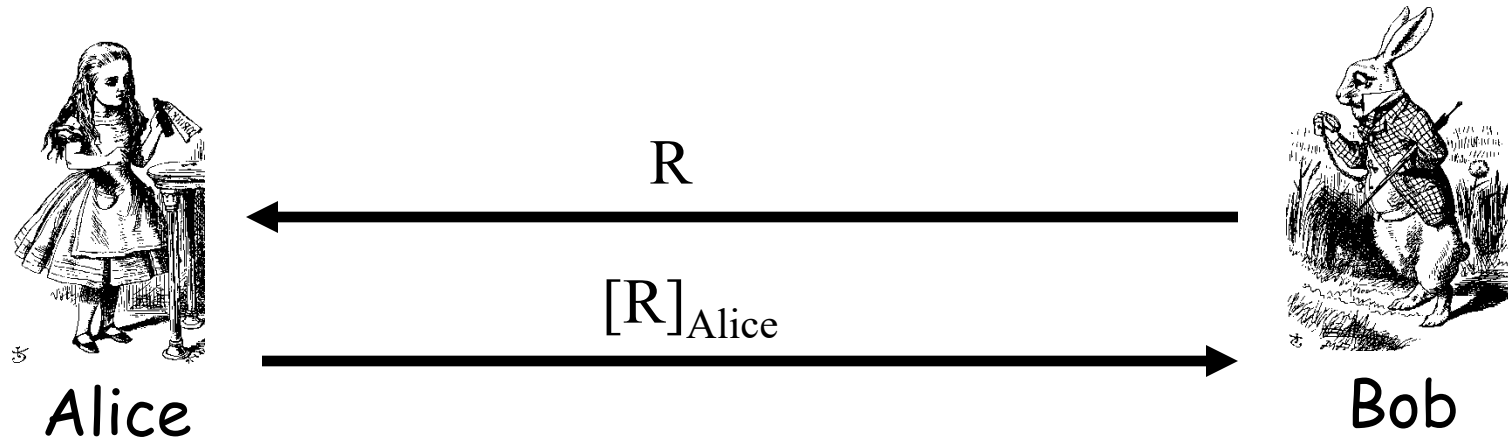
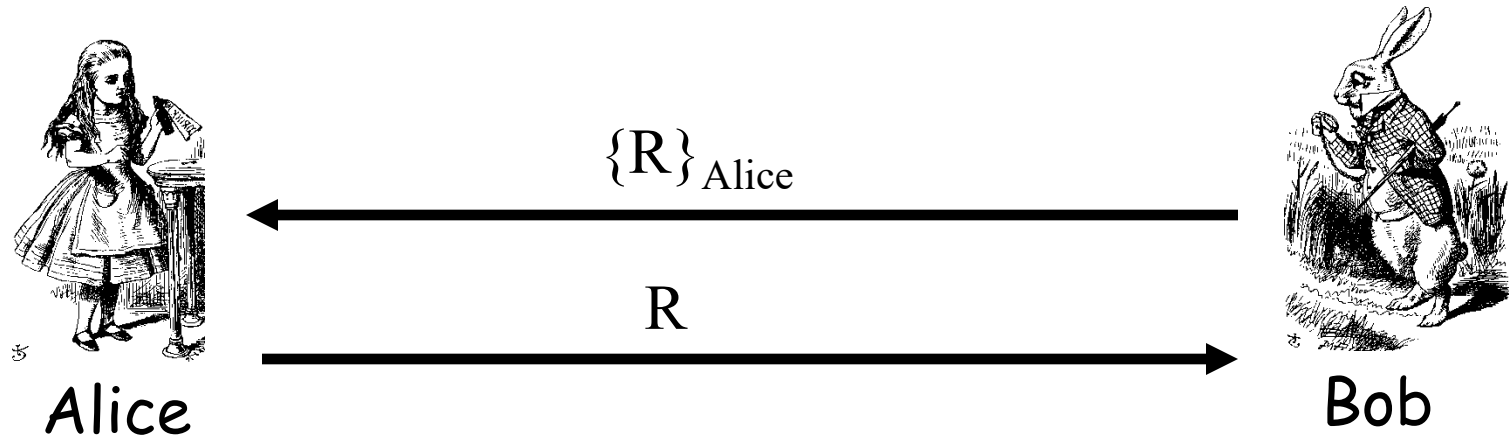
Other Challenge-Response Techniques (symmetric key based)



Public Key Notations and Assumption

- Encrypt M under Alice's public key: $\{M\}_{\text{Alice}}$
- Sign M with Alice's private key: $[M]_{\text{Alice}}$
- All public keys are assumed to be certified (e.g. digital certificates) and become publicly known.

Public Key Based One-Way Authentication



Entity authentication

- Some more formal definition:
 - Claimant: An entity claiming an identity.
 - Principal: The identity claimed by a claimant.
 - Verifier: The entity verifying a claim.
- An entity authentication protocol is a sequence of messages passed between a claimant and a verifier (along with the actions taken after receiving those messages) designed to confirm that identity of the claimant.

Entity authentication

Unilateral authentication:

- entity authentication which provides one entity with assurance of the other's identity but not vice versa.

- Mutual authentication:

- entity authentication which provides both entities with assurance of each other's identity.

Entity authentication

- A verifier only sends/receives messages, i.e. digital data.
- To check that the principal is online the verifier need to establish:
 - that the messages came from the principal (origin authentication),
 - and that the messages have been recently generated (freshness).
- If both conditions are satisfied then we have authenticated the claimant.

Origin authentication

- We have already studied two mechanisms that give origin authentication:
 - Message Authentication Codes (MACs)
 - Digital Signature Schemes
- Entity authentication protocols sometimes find it useful to use symmetric encryption as an origin authentication tool...
- ... but encryption doesn't provide origin authentication without additional features!

Origin authentication

- Encryption checks the integrity of a message by checking that it “makes sense”.
- It is hard for a computer to check whether a message makes sense or not.
- Append a *manipulation detection code* (MDC) to the message before encryption.
- A message “makes sense” if the MDC is correct for the decrypted message.
- What is MDC? Have we dealt with one before?
 - Could also be known or expected data in special case
 - A protocol could be design the receiver knows value

Freshness

- We have two methods to check that a message was recently generated (fresh).
 - Time stamps (both clock-based and “logical”)
 - Nonces or challenges (as in challenge-response protocols)
- Both involve computing some form of integrity protection for a unique string (the nonce or the time stamp).

Freshness

- The inclusion of a time stamp (stating the date and time the message was created) enables the recipient to check that it is fresh.
- Requires **securely** synchronised clocks.
- It is non-trivial to provide such clocks.
 - The clock drift of a typical workstation is about one second per day.
 - Initial synchronisation cannot use time stamps.

Freshness

- Clock synchronisation problems and network delays cause problems for time-stamp-based protocols.
- Necessary to accept time stamps within a “window of acceptance”.
- Necessary to store a log of received messages within the current window to avoid replays.

Freshness

- Logical time stamps (or sequence numbers) can be used in some protocols in place of “full” time stamps.
- Each entity maintains counters stating how many messages have been sent to and received from a particular entity.
- Let N_{AB} be the number of messages A has sent to B (both A and B should know this).

Freshness

- Whenever A sends a message to B, N_{AB} is increased by one and included in the message.
- When B receives a message that contains a counter value n :
 - If $n > N_{AB}$ then accept the message as fresh and reset $N_{AB} = n$.
 - If $n < N_{AB}$ then reject the message as not fresh.

Freshness

- The main alternative to the use of time stamps is the use of nonces.
 - *NONCE = Number used ONCE.*
- Alice generates a new random nonce and sends this to Bob...
- ...and Bob includes this nonce in his reply.
- Therefore, Alice knows that Bob's response is fresh.

Freshness

- Strictly speaking, a counter is a good way of producing nonces...
- ... however, many protocols also require the nonce to be unpredictable to the attacker.
- Three main ways to produce random nonces:
 - Generate pseudo-randomly using a non-repeating generator
 - Generate at random and store a log
 - Generate at random and accept small chance of repeated nonce

Authentication attacks

- Many security properties of secure entity authentication protocols are defined by their resistance to certain kinds of attack.
- A masquerade attack is one in which the attacker directly generates messages that demonstrate that they are someone else.
 - Prevented by origin authentication mechanisms.

Authentication attacks

- A replay attack is one in which old messages are replayed to a verifier.
 - Prevented by freshness mechanisms.
- A reflection attack is one in which data the verifier has produced is sent back to him.
 - Prevented by including identifiers that show to whom a message is being sent.

How do we design/analyse protocols

- Recognise components of a cryptographic protocol
 - The protocol **assumptions**
 - *What needs to have happened **before** the protocol is run?*
 - The protocol **flow**
 - *Who sends a message to whom (in what order)?*
 - The protocol **messages**
 - *What information is exchanged at each step?*
 - The protocol **actions**
 - *What needs to be done between each step?*

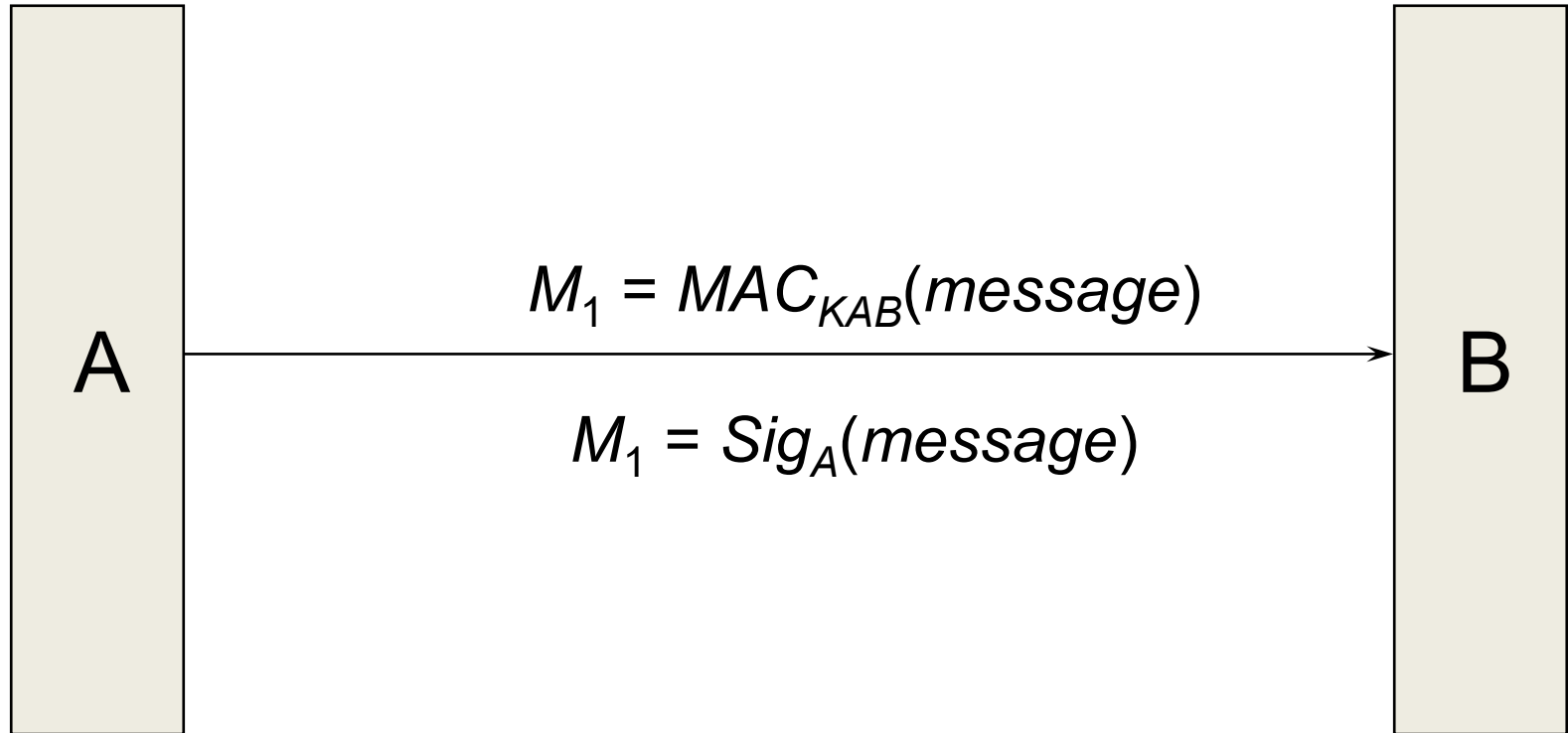
Stages of protocol design/analysis

- **What are the security objectives**
 - *What do you want to do?*
- **What are the protocol goals**
 - *Translating the security objectives into a set of cryptographic requirements to be met by the end of the protocol*
- **Define/analyse the protocol**
 - *Assumptions, flow, messages, actions*

Very simple example

- **Defining the security objectives**
 - *Bob wants to make sure that Alice was the source of a electronic purchase contract*
 - *Bob wants to the contract to be enforceable at later date (Alice should not deny it)*
- **Determining the protocol goals**
 - *Bob requires data origin authentication of the message received from Alice*
 - *Bob requires non-repudiation of the message received from Alice*

Specifying the protocol



- If you define - ensure goals are satisfied!
- If you analyze – check if goals are satisfied!

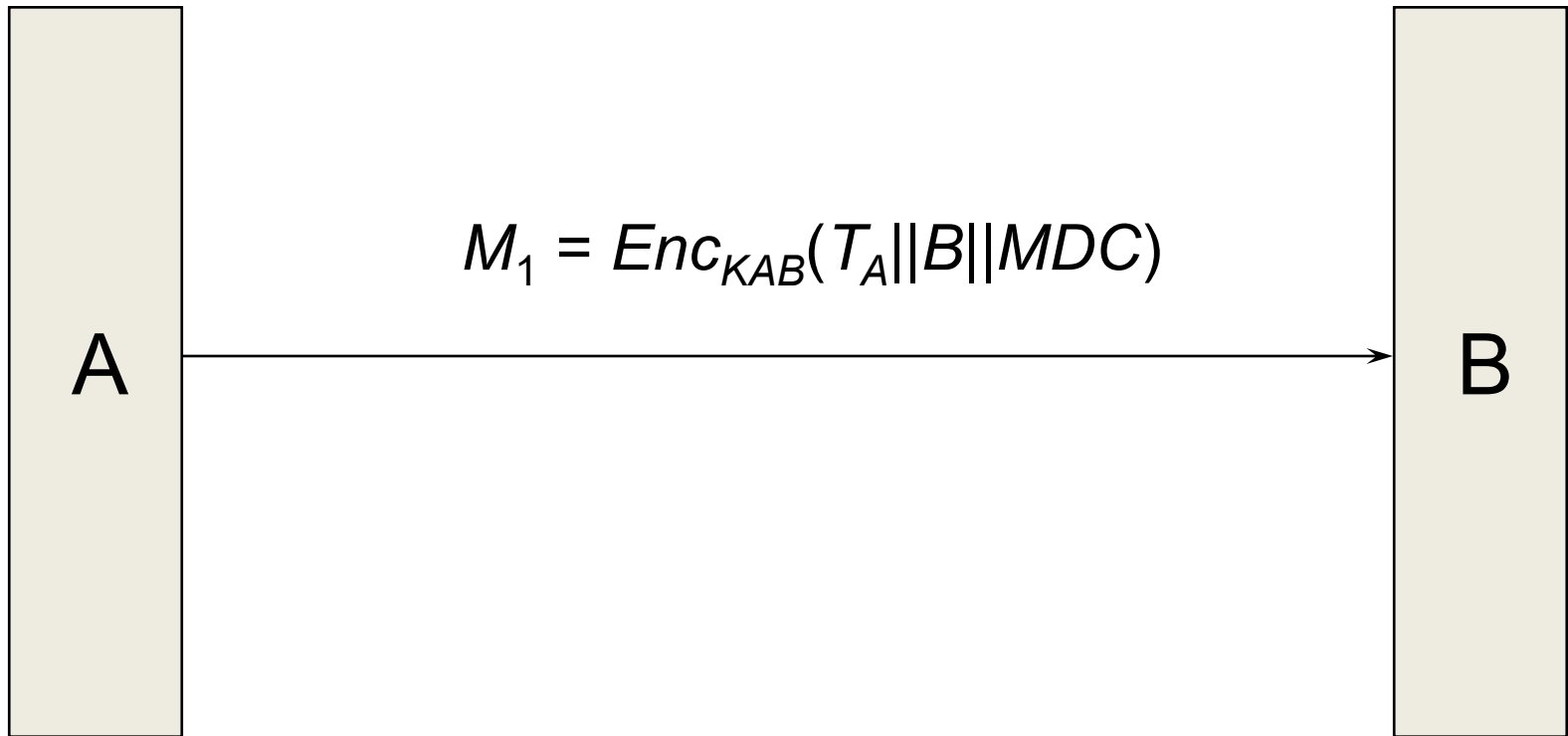
Notation

- A and B are (identifiers for) two entities who wish to engage in an authentication protocol.
- T_A is a time stamp produced by A .
- R_A is a random nonce generated by A .
- K_{AB} is a symmetric key shared by A and B .
- *Text* is an arbitrary field that can contain data of any form, particularly an MDC.

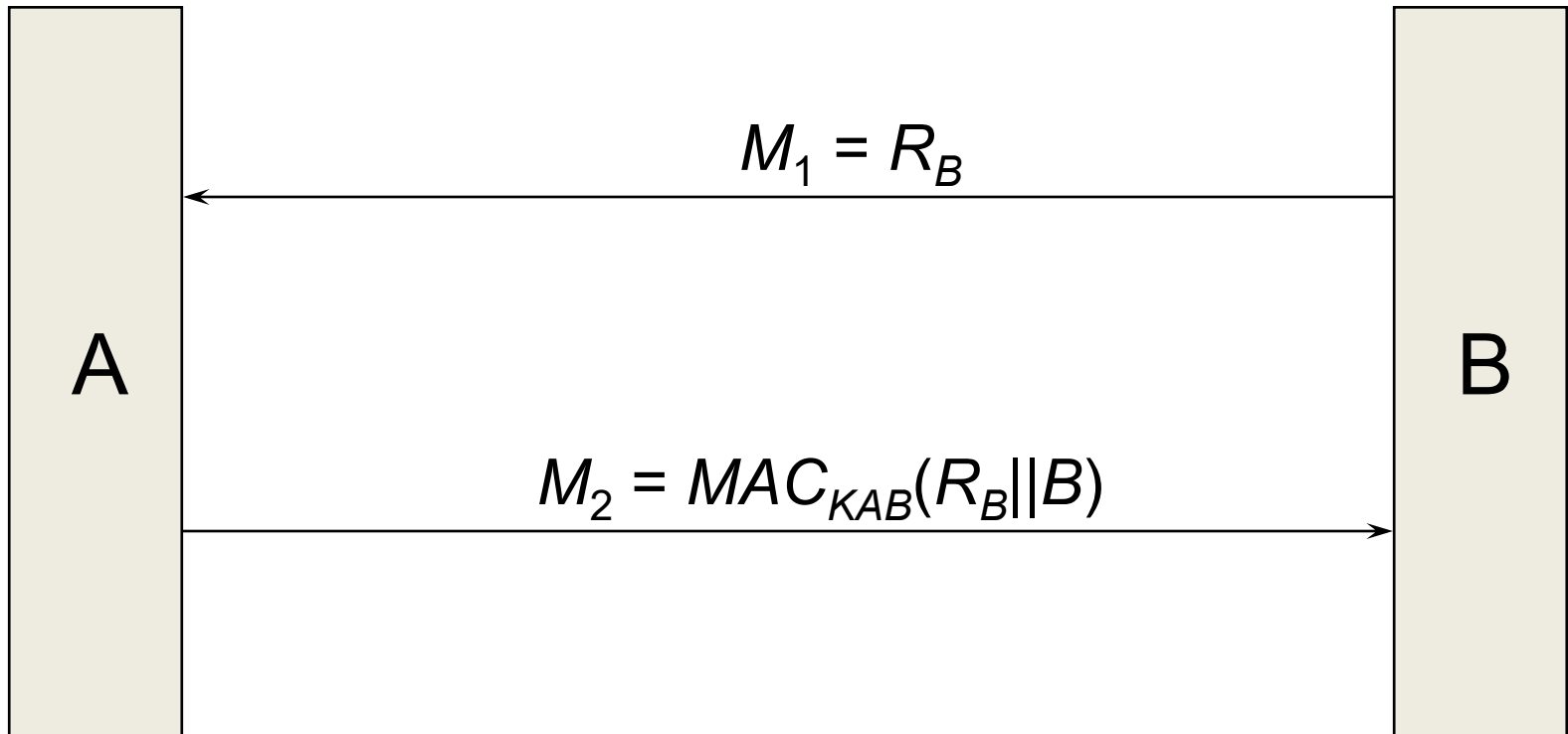
Notation

- $Enc_{KAB}(X)$ denotes the encryption of data X using a key KAB that is shared between A and B . We assume this is “integrity protected” encryption.
- $MAC_{KAB}(X)$ denotes a cryptographic check value (MAC) of data X using a key KAB that is shared between A and B .
- $Sig_A(X)$ denotes the signature (with appendix) computed by A on the data X .

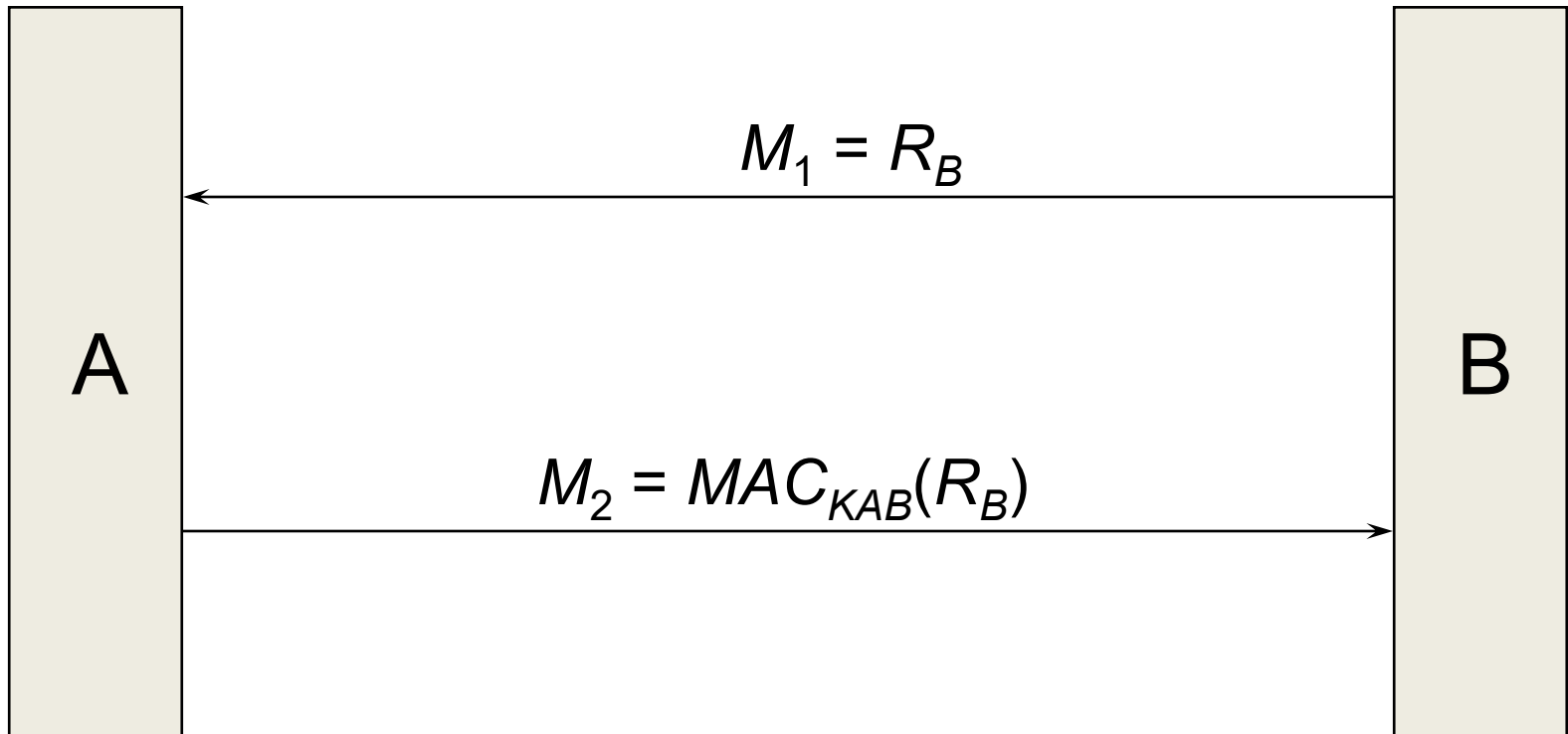
Example 1 (timestamp & encryption)



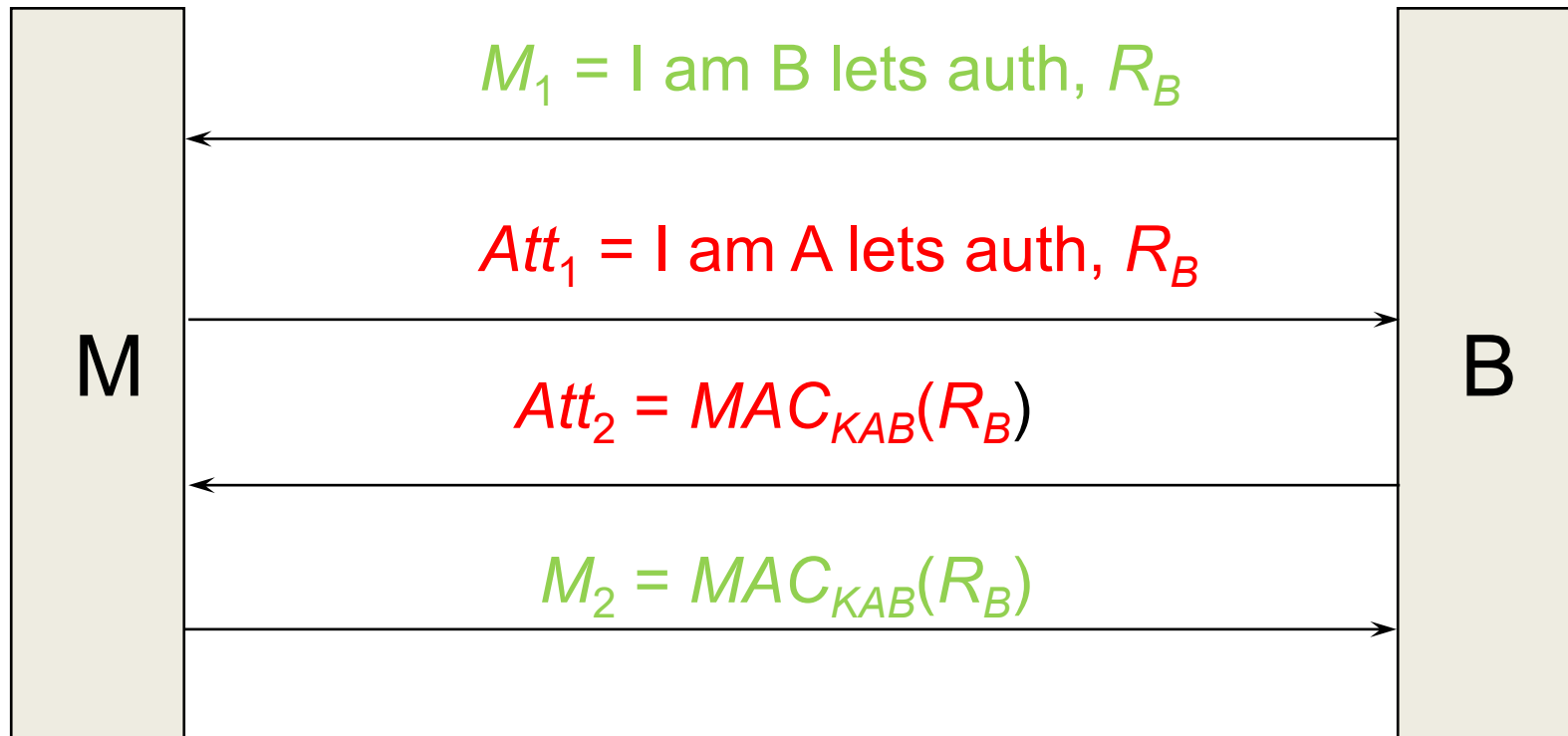
Example 2 (nonce & MAC)



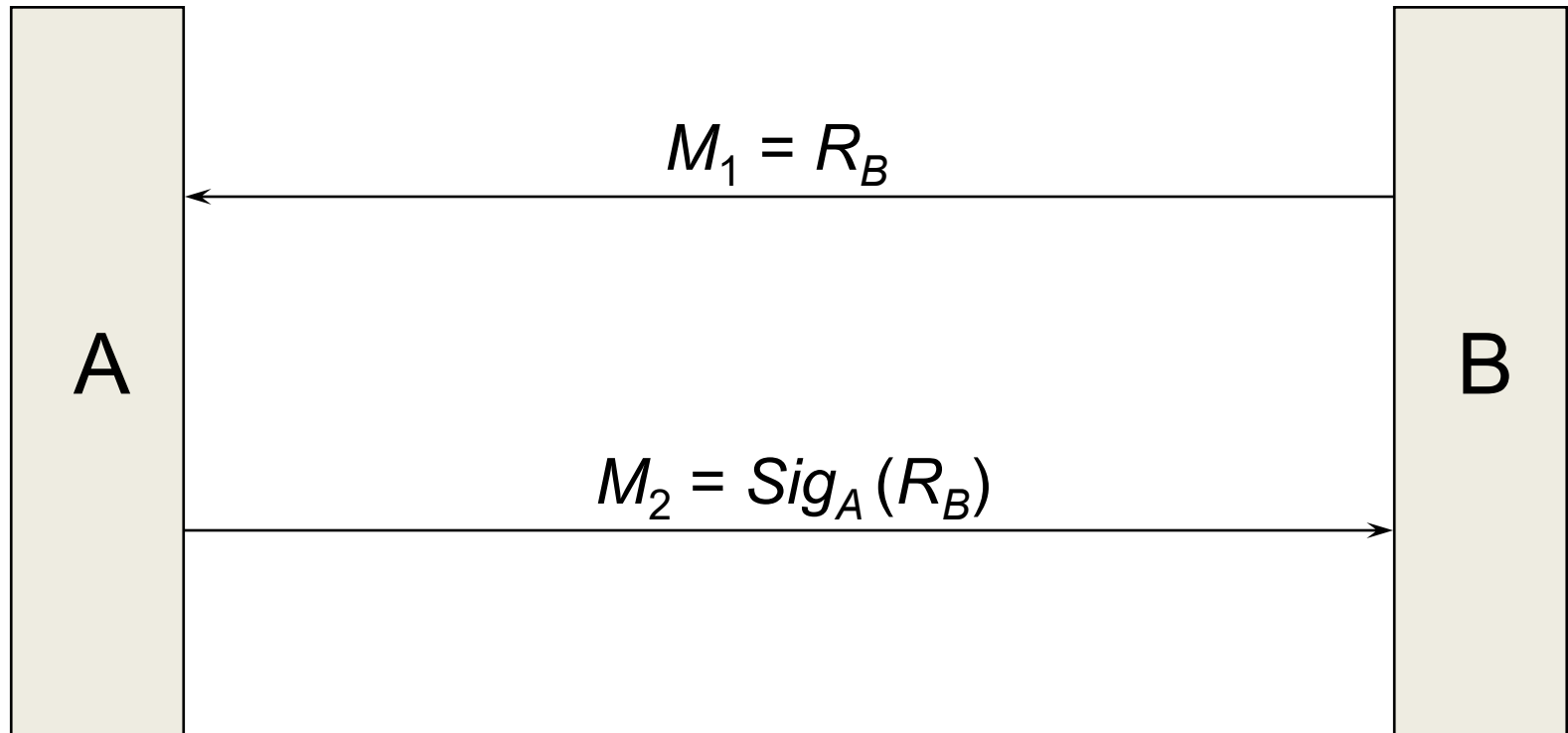
Example 2 (nonce & MAC v2)



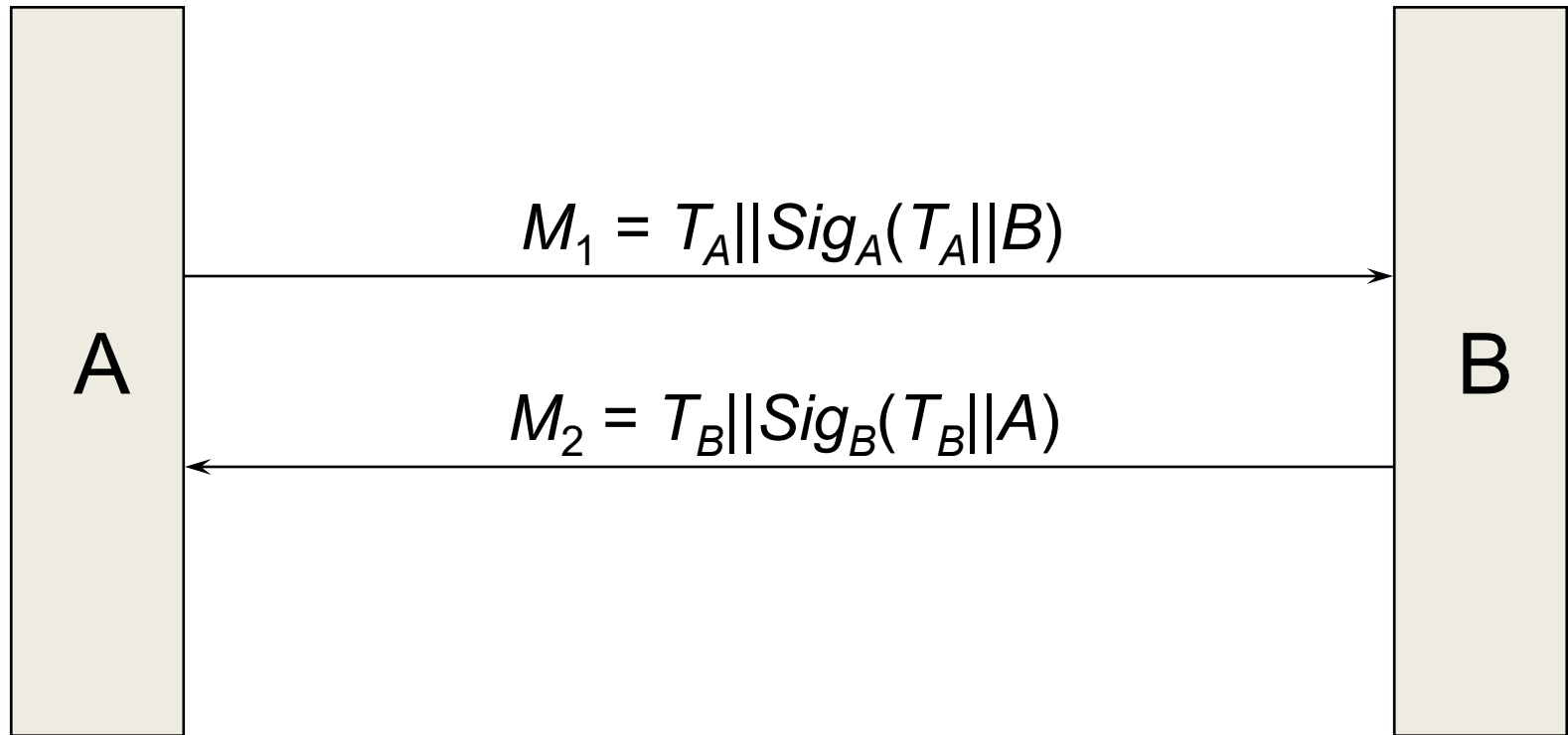
Example 2 (Reflection attack)



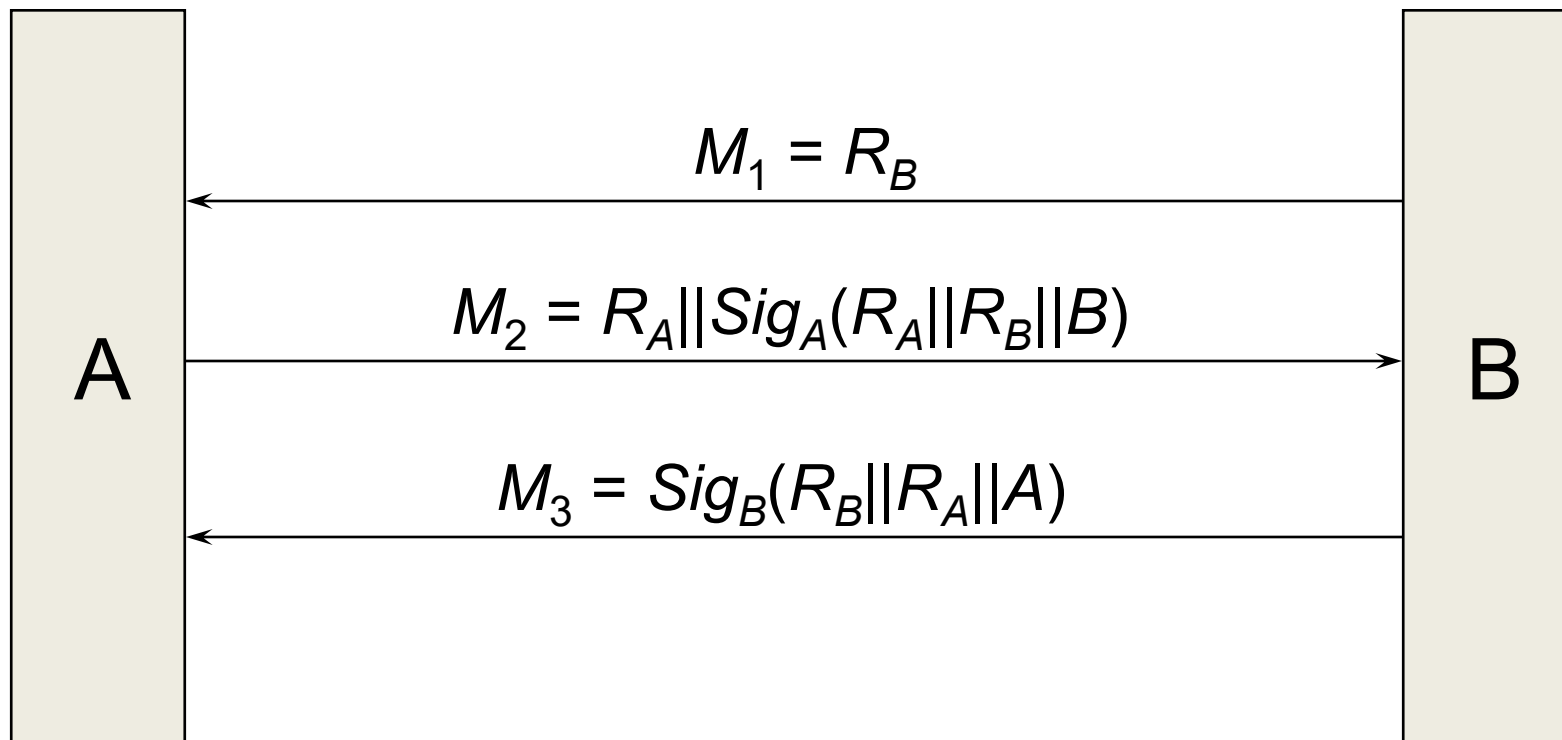
Example 2 v2 (nonce & sign)



Example 3 (timestamp & signatures)

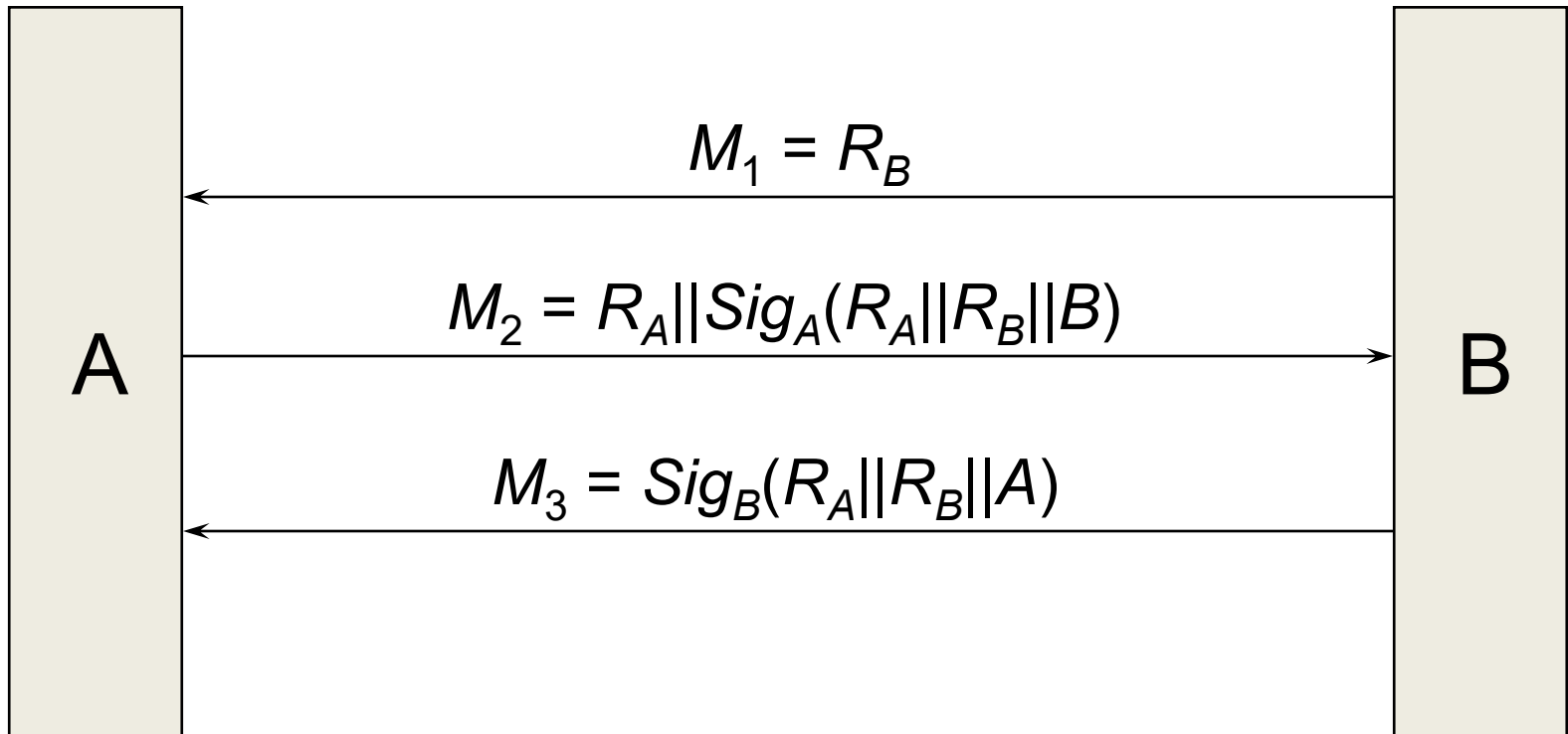


Example 4 (nonce & signature)



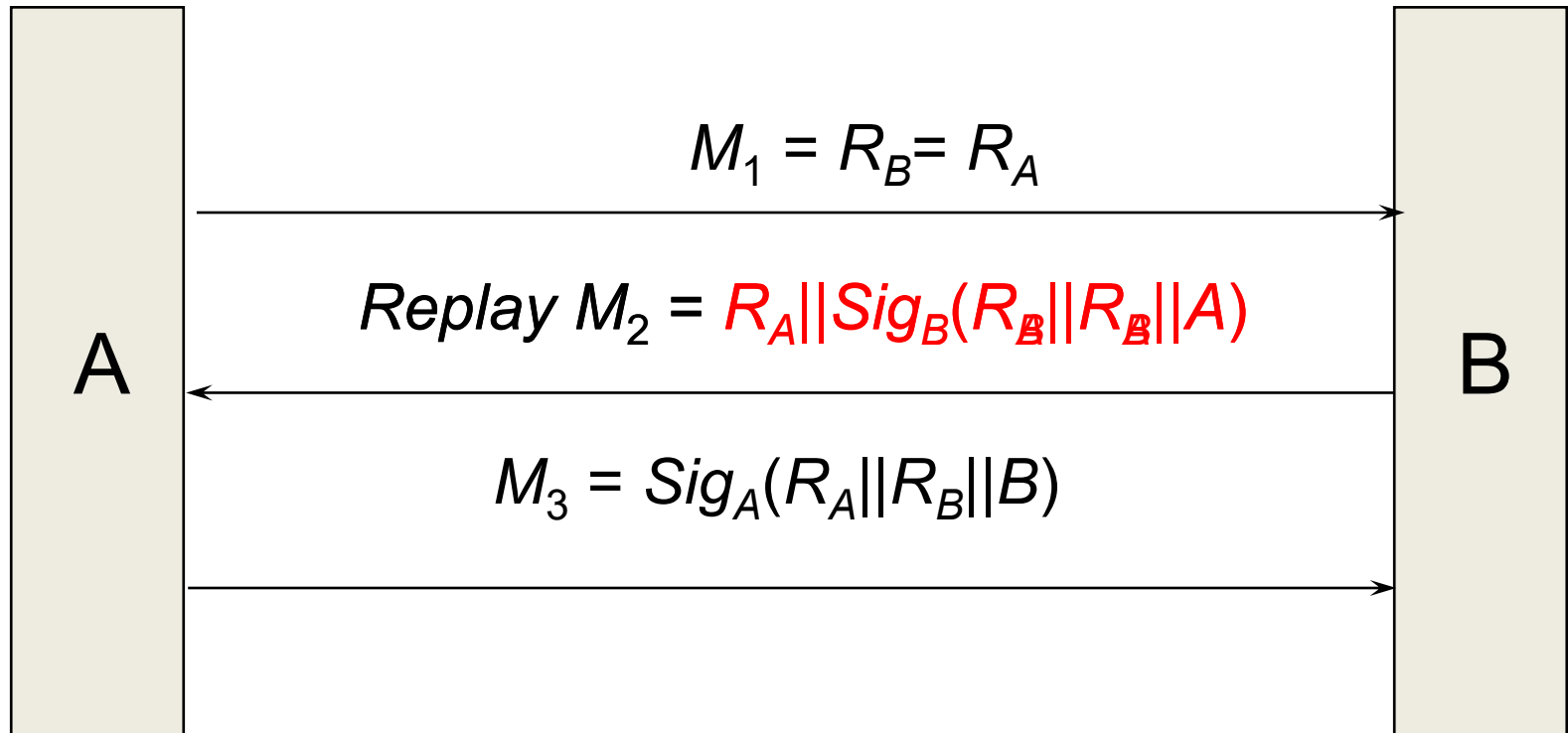
Example 5 (nonce & signature)

Assume R_B, R_A are counters $R_B > R_A$



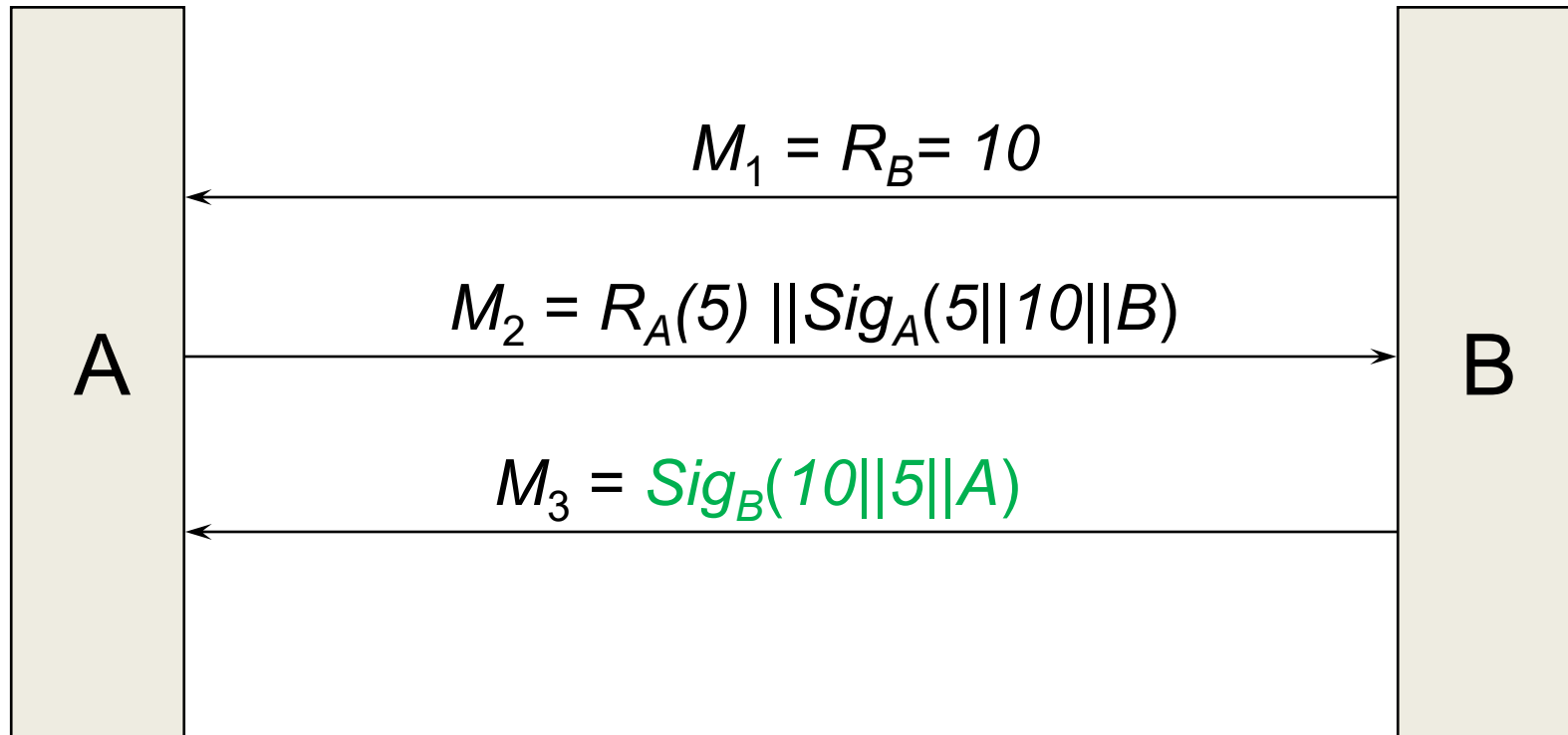
Example 5 (nonce & signature)

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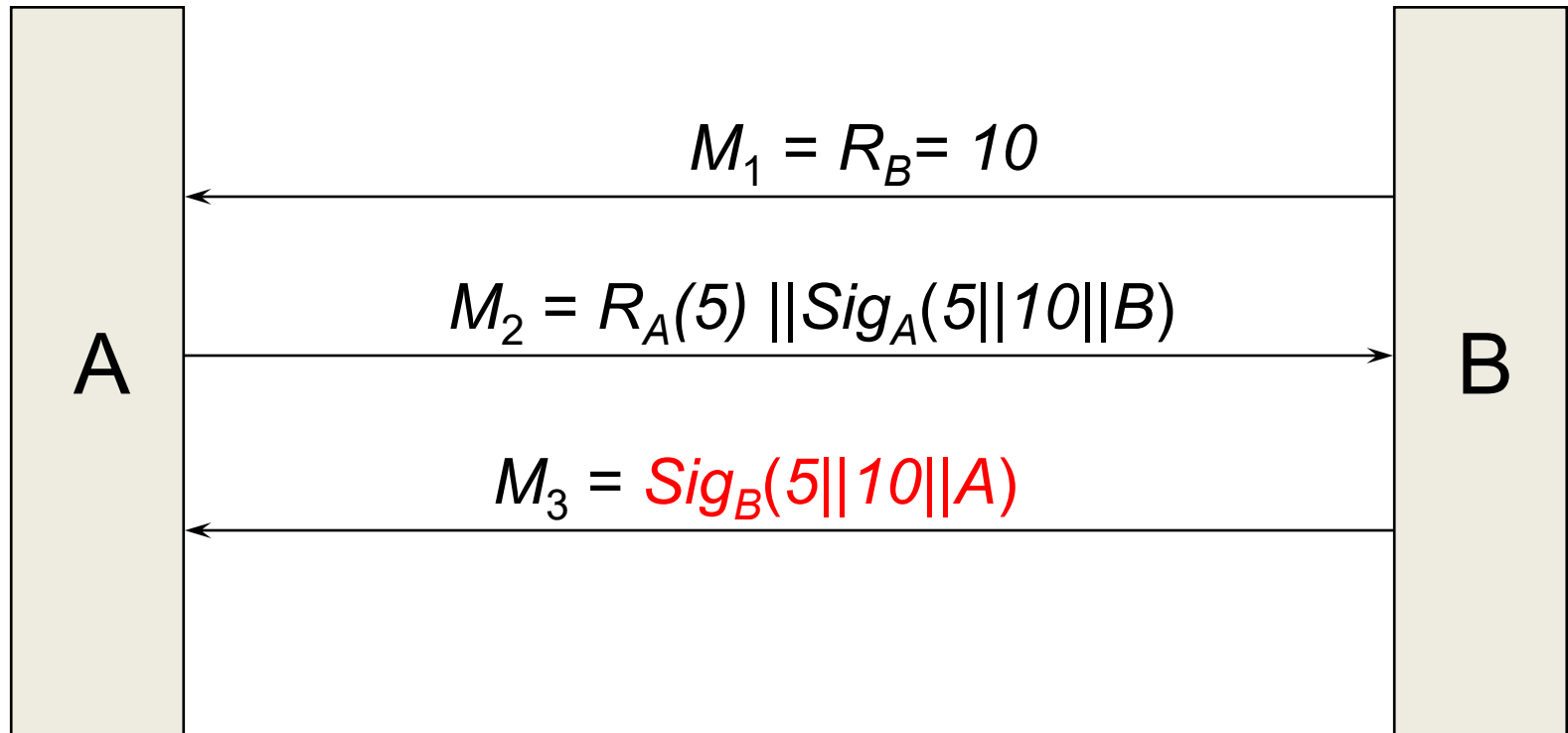
Example 5 (nonce & signature)
with swopped nonces

Assume $R_B=10, R_A=5$ are counters $R_B > R_A$

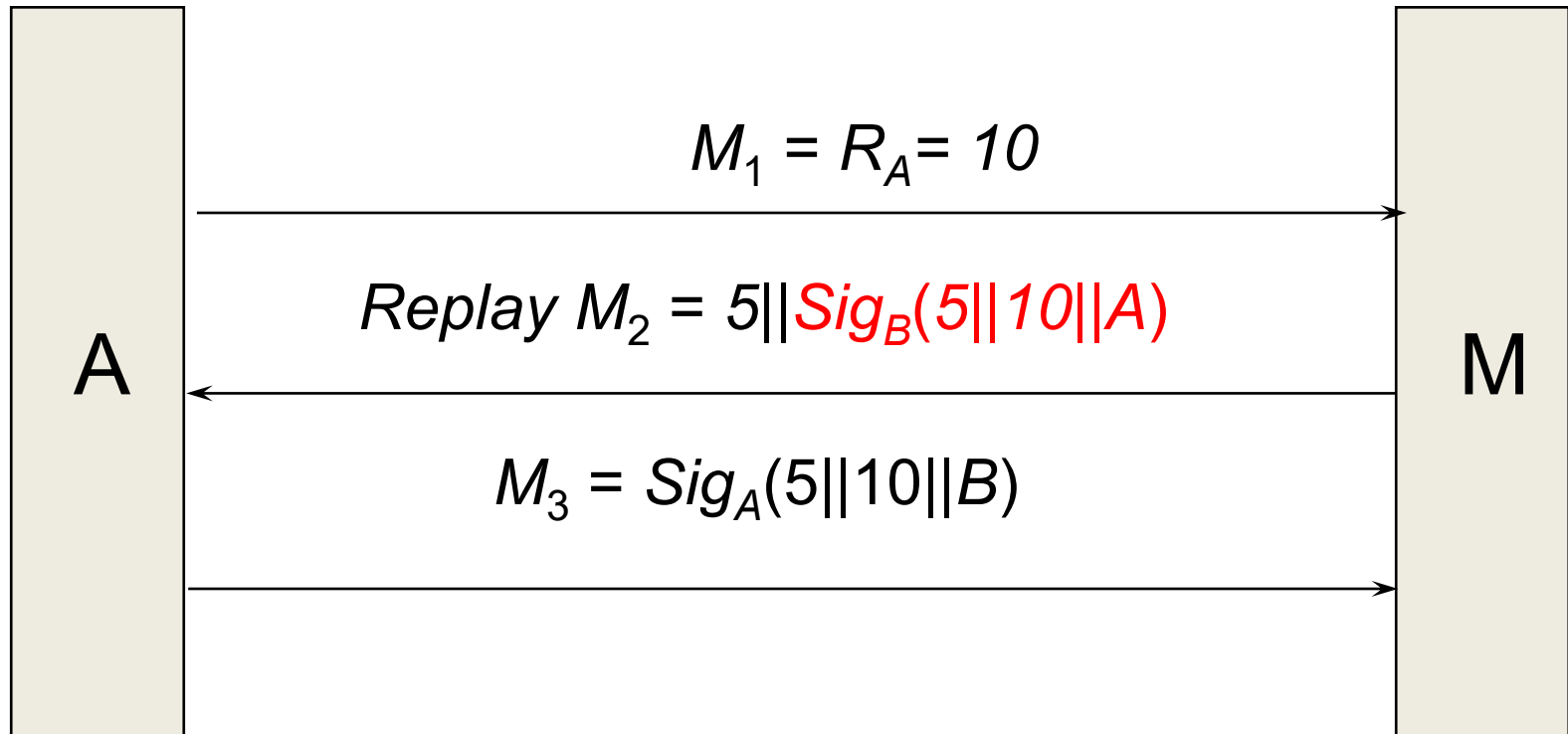


Example 5 (nonce & signature)
without swopped nonces

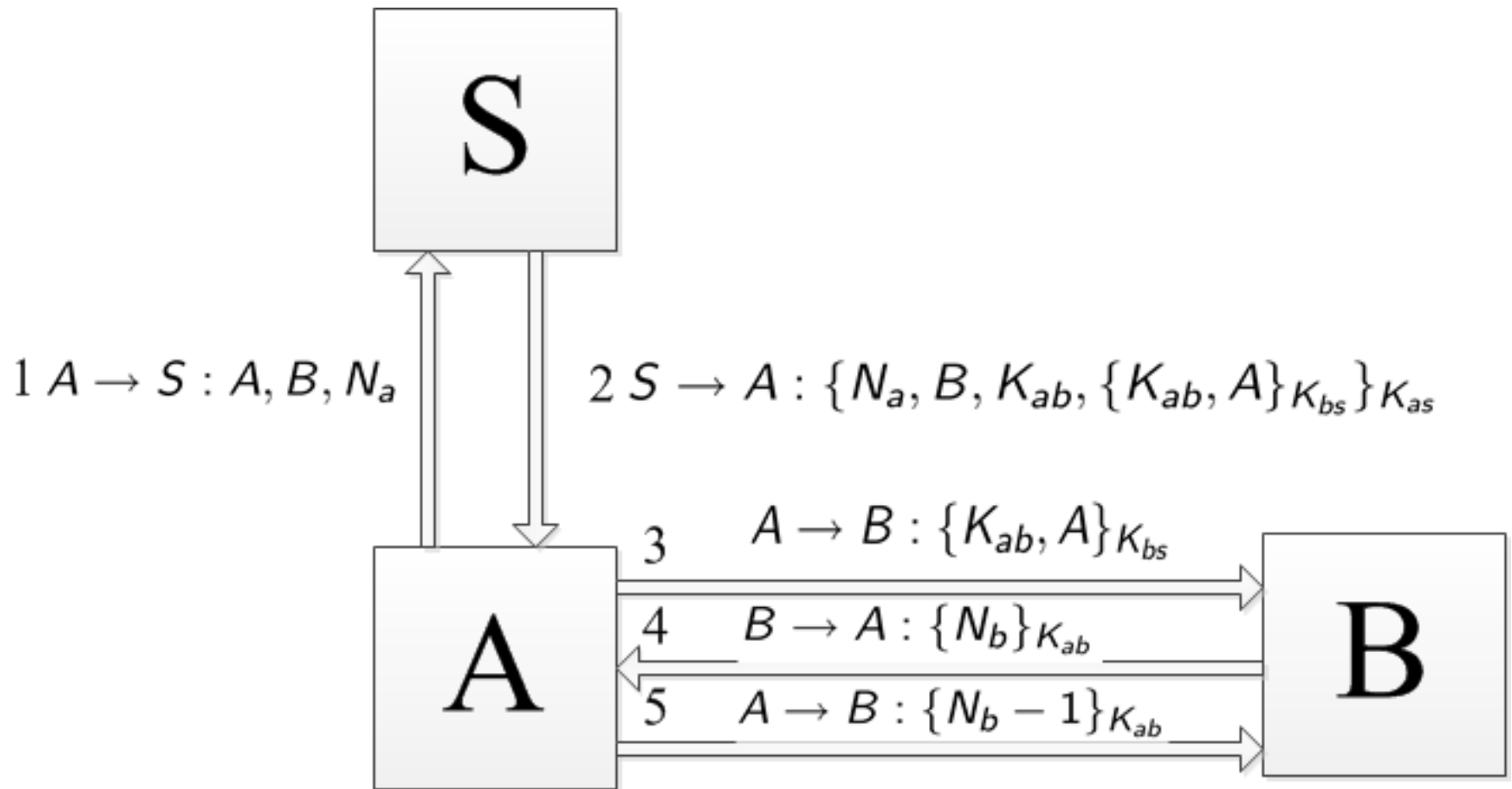
Assume $R_B=10, R_A=5$ are counters $R_B > R_A$



Later A so happens to use $M1$ that is equal to message $M1$ that B used before. This allows M to pretend to be B .



Just for fun...



The end!



Any questions...