

Sample attacks

- Protocol 1:
- (1) $A \rightarrow B: E_B(M)$
 - (2) $B \rightarrow A: E_A(M)$
- Attack 1:
- (1) $A \rightarrow B: E_B(M)$, intercept
 - (2) $Z \rightarrow B: E_B(M)$
 - (3) $B \rightarrow Z: E_Z(M)$; Z decrypts
- Protocol 2:
- (1) $A \rightarrow B: E_B(E_B(M), A)$
 - (2) $B \rightarrow A: E_A(E_A(M), B)$
- Attack 2:
- (1) $Z \rightarrow A: E_A(E_A(E_A(M), B), A)$
 - (2) $A \rightarrow Z: E_Z(E_Z(E_A(M), B), A)$
 - (3) Z decodes $E_A(M), B$, and A
 - (4) $Z \rightarrow A: E_A(E_A(M), Z)$
 - (4) $A \rightarrow Z: E_Z(E_Z(M), A)$

Symmetric and asymmetric key encr.

- A fundamental problem: establishing a two-way secure channel between two entities
- Symmetric key encryption** (secret key, shared key)
- shared key known only by the two participants
 - decryption and encryption key related by a simple transformation (conventionally considered as being the same)
 - examples: Data Encryption Standard (1975), outdated AES (Rijndael)
- Asymmetric key encryption** (public key)
- each participant A : has a pair of keys, one is inverse of the other
 - public key, K_a / private key K_a^{-1}
 - A sends $K_b(K_a^{-1}(M))$: only A can create, only B can read
 - ex. Rivest-Shamir-Adleman (1976), El-Gamal

Verification of security protocols

January 19, 2006

- models of security protocols
- typical examples of protocols and attacks
- modeling in BAN logic
- verification methods

The Dolev-Yao intruder model

- Intruders are "active": they can eavesdrop on the communication, acquire messages and do anything possible to do so.
- An intruder:
- a) can obtain every message from the network
 - b) is a legitimate user of the system; in particular, s/he can initiate conversations with any user
 - c) will have the opportunity to receive messages from any user
- (more generally: any user B can become recipient for any message sent to B)

Protocol Models

- [Dolev & Yao '83]: stressed the importance of clear modeling, analysis and verification of protocols:
- 1) In a public key encryption system:
 - a) encryption functions cannot be broken
 - b) public key directory has guaranteed identity
 - c) everybody has access to all public keys $E_X, \forall X$
 - d) only X has access to its decryption key D_X
 - 2) A protocol between two entities does not require a third for encryption or decryption
 - 3) In a uniform protocol, all communicating parties use the same format

Security Protocols and their Import

- Need for secret communication dates back to antiquity, likewise the discovery of ciphers and beginnings of cryptography.
- Security involves multiple aspects:
- authentication, authorization, integrity, confidentiality.
- Solutions are complex and reasoning them about the security of a protocol must not depend on the secrecy (no "security through obscurity")
- Subtle errors in existing (and widely used) protocols covered after very long time (17 years, for Lowe's attack Schroeder)
 - there are great risks in compromising a weak algorithm and thus unscrutinized by specialists
- \Rightarrow importance of formal verification even greater

Needham-Schroeder: attack #

- [Lowe '95] finds an error in the public key version (af
- (1) $A \rightarrow B: A, B, \{N_a, A\}_{K_b}$ A asks to communicate
 - (2) $B \rightarrow A: B, A, \{N_a, N_b\}_{K_a}$ B replies with nonce N
 - (3) $A \rightarrow B: A, B, \{N_b\}_{K_b}$ A confirms reception

Attack with two concurrent sessions: A initiates session I ; the latter impersonates A in session β with B

- ($\alpha.1$) $A \rightarrow I: A, I, \{N_a, A\}_{K_i}$
- ($\beta.1$) $I(A) \rightarrow B: A, B, \{N_a, A\}_{K_b}$
- ($\beta.2$) $B \rightarrow I(A): B, A, \{N_a, N_b\}_{K_a}$
- ($\alpha.2$) $I \rightarrow A: I, A, \{N_a, N_b\}_{K_a}$
- ($\alpha.3$) $A \rightarrow I: A, I, \{N_b\}_{K_i}$
- ($\beta.3$) $I(A) \rightarrow B: A, B, \{N_b\}_{K_b}$

Discovered: with FDR model checker for CSP language
Correction: including the encrypted name of the sender

Needham-Schroeder shared key protocol

- (1) $A \rightarrow S: A, B, N_a$
 A announces to server S the intention to communicate and guarantees freshness of the message with a nonce
- (2) $S \rightarrow A: \{N_a, B, K_{ab}, \{K_{ab}, A\}_{K_{as}}\}_{K_{ss}}$
 S sends to A the key K_{ab} , together with an encrypted A will retransmit to B :
- (3) $A \rightarrow B: \{K_{ab}, A\}_{K_{bs}}$
 B extracts the key K_{ab} and announces A by sending:
- (4) $B \rightarrow A: \{N_b\}_{K_{ab}}$
 A confirms by retransmitting a message based on N_b (conventionally, decremented by 1 to avoid replay)
- (5) $A \rightarrow B: \{N_b - 1\}_{K_{ab}}$

Now, both participants know they can communicate

First formal results

Dolev & Yao discuss two types of protocols, defined operations:

1. Cascade protocols
 - encryption with any public key
 - decryption only with own key
2. Name stamp protocols. In addition:
 - appending a participant's name to a message
 - deleting a certain participant's name
 - deleting any name

Correctness problem becomes a rewriting problem for alphabet, decidable in polynomial time

– but undecidable for more complex problems

Types of attacks

"Cryptography is not broken, it is circumvented" – A

Clark & Jacob, "A Survey of Authentication Protocol Literature"

- freshness attacks (replay attacks)
- a message (or fragment) from an earlier communication stored and inserted by the intruder in a new session
- type flaw attacks
- A message is composed of fields, each with a given (data, nonce, participant name, key value)
- Attack based on accepting a message with another bit pattern than the one initially sent

Authentication protocols

protocols by which participants convince each other (and either establish shared secrets (keys) for communication or recognize the use of partners' secret keys)

– are the most widely studied security protocols in the literature
Notations: A, B : participants, S : authentication server, N_a, N_b : "nonce" (from: number once) = random padding generated to avoid reuse of old messages by an intruder, $\{X\}_K$: message X encrypted with key K

[Needham & Schroeder '78] "Using Encryption for Large Networks of Computers": classic article, the first importance of formal verification methods

Needham-Schroeder: attack #

[Denning & Sacco, 1981]

Problem: an intruder who eavesdropped on a previous session B to accept an old key, potentially compromised

Intruder I impersonates A (denoted $I(A)$) and sends to B from the earlier session, with the old key K_c :

- (3) $I(A) \rightarrow B: \{K_c, A\}_{K_{bs}}$
- (4) $B \rightarrow I(A): \{N_b\}_{K_c}$
- (5) $I(A) \rightarrow B: \{N_b - 1\}_{K_c}$

Danger: I has practically unlimited time to compromise

Correction: timestamps or extra nonce

BAN logic: inference rules (cont)

Jurisdiction rule:

$$\frac{P \models Q \models X, P \models Q \models X}{P \models X}$$

Composition: P believes a compound \Leftrightarrow believes the
 Projection: P said a compound \Rightarrow said the parts

$$\frac{P \models X, P \models Y}{P \models (X, Y)} \quad \frac{P \models (X, Y)}{P \models X} \quad \frac{P \models Q \vdash (X)}{P \models Q \vdash Y}$$

Decryption rules:

$$\frac{P \models K, Q, P \triangleleft \{X\}_{K^{-1}}}{P \triangleleft X}$$

Bidirectionality of keys and secrets among participants

$$\frac{P \models R, A, R'}{P \models R' \triangleleft R}$$

BAN logic: basic notions

- $P \models X$ P believes X
- $P \triangleleft X$ P sees (receives, reads) message X
- $P \vdash X$ P said (sent) X sometime in the past
- $P \models X$ P has jurisdiction over X . P is an authority on X (e.g., a key) and must be believed
- $\#(X)$ X is fresh (has not been sent so far)
- $\frac{K}{P}, Q$ P and Q can use shared key K to communicate
- $\frac{K}{P}$ P has public key K
- $\frac{X}{K}$ X is a secret known only by P and Q
- $\{X\}_K$ message X encrypted with key K
- $\langle X \rangle_Y$ X combined with secret Y (for identification)

Types of attacks (cont'd.)

- parallel session attacks
 - two or more concurrent sessions of the same protocol
 - messages from a session used to attack another
- implementation-dependent attacks
 - type flaw attacks can be eliminated if the representation contains redundancy to distinguish the two
 - interaction between protocol and encryption method of a bit in bitwise encryption)
- binding attacks (key integrity attacks)
 - tampering with partner's public key (replacing it with ... and many others

Example: Needham-Schroeder with shared secrets

- (1) $A \rightarrow S: A, B, N_a$
- (2) $S \rightarrow A: \{N_a, B, K_{ab}, \{K_{ab}, A\}_{K_{bs}}\}_{K_{as}}$
- (3) $A \rightarrow B: \{K_{ab}, A\}_{K_{bs}}$
- (4) $B \rightarrow A: \{N_b\}_{K_{ab}}$
- (5) $A \rightarrow B: \{N_b - 1\}_{K_{ab}}$

We idealize the protocol: instead of bit messages, formulas, corresponding to message meaning:

- (1) Message 1 is only a request, has no logic value
- (2) $S \rightarrow A: \{N_a, B, (A \xrightarrow{K_{ab}} B), \#(A \xrightarrow{K_{ab}} B)\}_{K_{as}}$
- (3) $A \rightarrow B: \{A \xrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}_{K_{bs}}$
- (4) $B \rightarrow A: \{N_b, (A \xrightarrow{K_{ab}} B)\}_{K_{ab}}$ from B
- (5) $A \rightarrow B: \{N_b, (A \xrightarrow{K_{ab}} B)\}_{K_{ab}}$ from A

BAN logic: inference rules

Rules on meaning of messages:

- for shared keys:

$$\frac{P \models Q \xrightarrow{K} P, P \triangleleft \{X\}_K}{P \models Q \vdash X}$$

- for public keys:

$$\frac{P \models K, Q, P \triangleleft \{X\}_{K^{-1}}}{P \models Q \vdash X}$$

- for shared secrets:

$$\frac{P \models Q \xrightarrow{Y} P, P \triangleleft (X)_Y}{P \models Q \vdash X}$$

Rules on freshness of messages

$$\frac{P \models \#(X), P \models Q \vdash X}{P \models Q \models X} \quad \frac{P \models \#(X)}{P \models \#(X, Y)}$$

Modeling in BAN logic

- [Burrows, Abadi, Needham '89: "A logic of authentic
 - most important method for modeling using logic
 - a *logic of belief*, as opposed to a *logic of knowledge*
 - deals with what every participant *believes* is true

Goal: to express precisely

- initial assumptions about the workings of a protocol
- the final conclusions reached by the participants

Examples:

- what does the protocol achieve ?
- does it need more assumptions than another protocol
- does it send/encrypt something which is not needed?

Verification: theorem proving

- Model checking requires finite model \Rightarrow finite participants
- Theorem provers do not have this limitation
- Rewriting of reasoning in Prolog: Interrogator [Miller NRL Protocol Analyzer [Meadows et al.]
- combination of theorem-proving + model checking
- starts from an error state (should be inaccessible)
- searches backwards using inductive techniques
- Athena [Song et al., CMU/Berkeley]
- representation using *strand spaces* based on causal
- visual executions \Rightarrow reduces state space significantly

Verification: model checking

- Protocol is asynchronous composition b/w participant
- Intruder can listen to anything, and delete, change or according to its current knowledge set.
- State space is given by execution point for each participant
- knowledge set of intruder (set of terms constructed through intruder)
- Intruder is modeled by a relation \vdash by which the intruder messages m from an initial set of information I :
 - if $m \in I$ then $I \vdash m$
 - concatenation: if $I \vdash m_1$ and $I \vdash m_2$ then $I \vdash m_1 \cdot m_2$
 - projection: if $I \vdash m_1 \cdot m_2$ then $I \vdash m_1$ and $I \vdash m_2$
 - encryption: if $I \vdash m$ and $I \vdash k$ then $I \vdash \{m\}_k$
 - decryption: if $I \vdash \{m\}_k$ and $I \vdash k^{-1}$ then $I \vdash m$
- Model checkers: FDR (for CSP), OFMC (on-the-fly based)

Reasoning Needham-Schroeder with shared keys

- We start with the assumptions (denote $P \models X$ and $Q \models A, S \models A \xrightarrow{K_{ps}} S \quad B, S \models B \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} S \quad S \models A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B$)
- $A, B \models (S \vdash A \xleftrightarrow{K} B) \quad A \models (S \vdash \#(A \xleftrightarrow{K} B))$ (a goal)
- $A \models \#(N_a) \quad B \models \#(N_b) \quad S \models \#(A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B)$
- From $A \models \#(N_a)$, and (2) we deduce: $A \models S \models A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B, A \models S \models \#(A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B)$
- and from the jurisdiction rule: $A \models A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B \quad A \models \#(_)$
- After receiving message (3) from A , we deduce: $B \models A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B$
- We cannot obtain $B \models A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B$ without the premise E
- From the freshness of messages (4) and (5) we deduce: $A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B$ and $B \models A \xrightarrow{K_{sp}} B$, thus each participant that the key is valid, and that the other participant knows it
- Reasoning explicates the missing premise, which allows to substitute a compromised key.

Verification: theory generation

- Problem in model checking: representing potentially infinite theory generation (RVChecker, REVERE [Kindred&V BAN logic])
- a syntactic method of saturation-based theorem proving
- produces a finite representation of a potentially infinite theory (all theorems generated from some premises and rule)
- termination based on limiting the application of theorems which can generate conclusions of larger size than premises
- Combination with model checking:
 - a dubious premise found by theory generation: used to attack
 - conversely, a counterexample, modeled as logic deductions, identifies a dubious premise

BAN logic: applicability and limitations

- allows to prove properties about a protocol
- if property can't be proved, there are serious reasons why
- can identify dubious/missing/non-explicit premises
- But:
 - monotone logic: an existing fact cannot be retracted
 - cannot handle the notion of key confidentiality or key compromise (e.g. sending a key in plaintext)