

A logic of authentication

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1 Preliminaries

1.1 Review

1.2 Outline

1.3 Preview

2 Background

2.1 Scope

- This paper is a tool you need to have in your toolbox
- But, it alone won't make you a security expert
- As earlier reading indicates: sophisticated crypto/protocol attacks are what designers (and academics) obsess about, but most real attacks come from "social engineering" or insider attacks
- Examples from "Why cryptosystems fail"
 - Insider arranges for all accounts to have same password
 - Insider steals money – knows customer will be blamed
 - * Broad conclusion: make the entity responsible for verifying security the one at risk if security authorization fails
 - * In US – burden of proof on bank (for ATM)
 - * In Britain – burden of proof on end-user
 - Test-sequence causes machine to disgorge money
 - Fake ATM machine scam
 - ...
- Example from "reflections on trusting trust"
 - Do you trust the compiler, editor, ...
 - Once your system is cracked, you are doomed
 - Principle: minimize "trusted computing base"

2.1.1 Types of Attacks

- Needham (one of the authors) elsewhere classifies 4 types of attacks on crypto systems
 - This paper only looks at one of them.

1. Attacks on the cryptographic algorithm

- brute force
 - Aside: You might be wondering: how does brute force computer decide it got the right message?
 - unstated assumption: message has redundancy to indicate it is "well formed"
 - examples: (1) ASCII text, english words (exceedingly unlikely random bits turn into ascii or english), (2) checksum, (3) magic number
 - BTW DES (56 bits) isn't enough any more
 - * Michael Wiener 1993: build a search machine (CMOS chips)
 - \$1 million → 3.5 hours
 - \$10 million → 21 minutes

key idea: easy to parallelize/build hardware: no per-key I/O just load each chip with "starting key" "encrypted message" "plaintext message"

- * 2002 – assume (conservatively) halve cost every 2 years
- * a \$1M machine can crack 1 password every 600 seconds or so
- * about 100 passwords/day → 30,000/year → 100K passwords during a 3-year lifetime → \$10/password
- * Don't use DES-56 for secrets worth more than \$1.00
- * Question: How much did it cost NSA to crack a password when they approved DES in the mid 1970s? *about \$1000?*

2. Attacks on the message

e.g. DES codes messages as separate 64 bit blocks

```
S-->A
<AAAAAAAA><BBBBBBBB><CCCCCCCC>..'
"You can trust" "machine bar" "to act as badguy"
```

```
S-->A
<DDDDDDDD><EEEEEEEE><FFFFFFFF>..'
"You can trust" "machine foo" "to act as dahlin"
```

adversary could munge second message
<DDDDDDDD><BBBBBBBB><FFFFFFFF>..'

- > solution:
1. checksums across entire message
 2. chain encryption state across message

All standard practise today

Correct implementation assumed the “conjunction” rules in BAN paper

3. Attacks on keys based on guessing

- Humans can't remember 56-bit DES keys (let alone 511-bit RSA keys)
- These keys generated from something humans can remember: passwords
- Humans generate really bad passwords
 - (e.g. the space of all likely passwords is a small subset of 2^{56} or 2^{511})
 - * common words (english or other languages)
 - * names (TV, movies, music, famous people, nicknames, brand names...)
 - * easily obtained information (birthday, licens #, userid...)
 - * keyboard batterns "qwerty"
 - * simple permutations (eg. backwards)
 - * systematic substitution (o \rightarrow 0, l \rightarrow 1)
 - * passwords on other systems
 - e.g. Internet work (nov 1988)
 - * no password
 - * user name
 - * user name appended to itself
 - * nickname for user name
 - * last name
 - * last name backwards
 - * 432 word dictionary
 - * dictionary of english words

4. attacks on the protocol by a set of messages

- adversary replays and misues my messages
- e.g. consider how often I say "Hello, mike dahlin here"
 - here I am on machine redhook",
 - "here I am on redhook running telnet to senna",
 - "here I am on machine senna", ...)
- solution: timestamps and nonces
- adversary uses message from one part of protocol in another part of a different conversation
- (e.g. the CCITT example in paper)

2.2 motivation

- Background:
- Needham and Schroeder built a distributed authentication protocol published 1978
- They were pretty famous and their protocol did (just about) exactly what you want it to do \rightarrow so this protocol became famous and was actually used pretty widely

- When it got to be widely used, people found a bug
- This upset Needham and Schroeder
 - they had thought long and hard about the protocols and didn't realize they were making a much stronger assumption about one message than they wanted to
 - Cryptography has this tradition of naming protocols after their inventors – the flawed protocol was called the "Needham Schroeder protocol"
- They are pretty smart guys and they made this mistake conclude: need a better way to design protocols
- I'm not sure of the exact timing, but I think the following is not too far off. The original protocol was published in 1978; the correction to the protocol was published in 1987 This bug hung around for a long time!
- Also, CCITT protocol made it a long ways through international standards process before this paper blew it out of the water.

2.2.1 The needham schroeder protocol

1. $A \rightarrow S: A, B, N_a$ (Note: N_a is a nonce)
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. $A \rightarrow B: \{N_b - 1\}_{K_{ab}}$

- Notice this looks pretty much like kerberos
 - (Actually, kerberos looks pretty much like this!)
- Intuition:
 - Step 2: S sends A K_{ab} and $\{K_{ab}\}_{K_{bs}}$ – all encrypted by K_{as}
 \rightarrow A has and believes K_{ab} (in fact, believes A $\xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}}$ B)
 - Step 3: A sends B $\{K_{ab}\}_{K_{bs}}$
 \rightarrow B has and believes (?) K_{ab}
 - Step 4-5: A and B handshake nonces to make sure they're both currently talking to each other
- QUESTION: What's the problem with this?
- ANSWER: Message 3 is not protected by nonces
 - There's no way for B to conclude that the K_{ab} it receives is a current key
 - Example: Intruder has unlimited time to crack an old session key and reuse it as if it were fresh
 - Example: Suppose A's private key were compromised Intruder uses K_a to get K_{as} for many services $s \rightarrow$ intruder can continue to use these session keys even after K_a 's private key is changed

- In BAN logic, we will discover that B **believes** S **once said** (A $\xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}}$ B), but we will not be able to show that B **believes** S **believes** (A $\xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}}$ B)
 - So we won't be able to take S **has jurisdiction over** (A \xleftrightarrow{K} B) and upgrade to B believing that it has a good key.

2.2.2 Timestamps and nonces

- goal: avoid being confused by replays
- (x) is **fresh** == this message has never gone over the network before
- you do this by including a nonce
 1. a timestamp in the message
 2. challenge-response:
 - If I issue a new challenge and get a new response then the message is fresh
- In the logic, the only way to upgrade from *principle once said X* to *principle believes X* is the nonce verification rule:

$$\frac{P \text{ believes } (X) \text{ is fresh}, P \text{ believes } Q \text{ once said } X}{P \text{ believes } Q \text{ believes } X}$$
- In the example, after B decrypts the message, we have
 - B **believes** S **once said** A $\xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}}$ B
e.g., "A and B can communicate using shared key Kab"
- There's no way to get from that step to a statement about belief unless you include as an initial assumption
 - B **believes** (A $\xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}}$ B) is **fresh**
- If you make that assumption that B accepts the key as new, then you can proceed:
 - B **believes** S **believes** A $\xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}}$ B
(e.g., B believes S believes A and B can communicate using Kab)
 - B **believes** A $\xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}}$ B
(e.g., B believes A and B can communicate using Kab – authority)
 - ...

3 Admin

4 BAN Logic

4.1 Definitions and notation

Verbose	Blackboard
A believes X	A \models X
A once said X	A \vdash X
A sees X	A \triangleleft X
A has jurisdiction over X	A \models X
(X) is fresh	#(X)
K is a shared key for communicating between A and B	A \xleftrightarrow{K} B
V is a secret shared between A and B	A $\stackrel{V}{\rightleftharpoons}$ B
K is B's public key	\xrightarrow{K} B

4.1.1 Key postulates in the logic

1. message meaning

- This is the rule that lets you upgrade from

$$\frac{P \text{ sees } X}{P \text{ believes } Q \text{ once said } X}$$
 to

$$P \text{ believes } Q \text{ once said } X$$
- e.g., for shared keys

$$\frac{A \text{ believes } (A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B), A \text{ sees } X_{K_{ab}}}{A \text{ believes } B \text{ once said } X}$$
- To upgrade from "A **sees** X" to "A **believes** B **once said** X" X must be associated with a secret B has:
 - A $\xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}}$ B – A and B's shared key
 - B's private key
 - A and B's shared secret

2. Nonce verification

- lets you upgrade from

$$\frac{Q \text{ once said } X}{Q \text{ believes } X}$$
 to

$$Q \text{ believes } X$$
- discussed above

$$\frac{A \text{ believes } (X) \text{ is fresh}, A \text{ believes } B \text{ once said } X}{A \text{ believes } B \text{ believes } X}$$

3. jurisdiction

- Lets you upgrade from A **believes** X to B **believes** X
- e.g., lets you transfer beliefs from authority to someone who trusts authority

$$\frac{A \text{ believes } B \text{ has jurisdiction over } X, A \text{ believes } B \text{ believes } X}{A \text{ believes } X}$$

4. etc.

- (joining, dividing, associating freshness with entire message...

4.2 Needham Shroeder protocol example

Assumptions

$$\begin{aligned} A &\models S \models A \xleftrightarrow{K} B \\ B &\models S \models A \xleftrightarrow{K} B \\ A &\models \#(Na) \\ B &\models \#(Nb) \\ A &\models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{as}} S \\ S &\models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{as}} S \\ B &\models B \xleftrightarrow{K_{bs}} S \\ S &\models B \xleftrightarrow{K_{bs}} S \end{aligned}$$

Protocol analysis:

1. $A \rightarrow S: A, B, Na$ (Note: Na is a nonce)

2. $S \rightarrow A: \{Na, A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B, \{A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}_{K_{bs}}\}_{K_{as}}$

- Apply message meaning:
 $A \models S \models \{Na, A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}$
- Apply “if one part of a formula is fresh, the entire formula must be fresh” (rule 5 in article)
 $A \models \#(A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B)$
- Apply nonce verification:
 $A \models S \models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$
- Apply jurisdiction:
 $A \models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$

3. $A \rightarrow B: \{A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}_{K_{bs}}$

- Apply message meaning:
 $B \models S \models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$
- We’re stuck!
 – No way to get to $B \models S \models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$

4. $B \rightarrow A: \{Nb\}_{K_{ab}}$

- Apply message meaning:
 $A \models B \models Nb$
 $A \models B \models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$
- Apply nonce verification:
 (recall $A \models \#(A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B)$)
 $A \models B \models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$
- Notice, this message is a bit subtle. The nonce is not here to prove freshness to A. Ignore it in interpreting this message. A already knows that K_{ab} is fresh, and already knows that $A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$, so this message proves to A that B believes in the shared key.

- From A’s point of view, this message could just be
 $B \rightarrow A: \{0_{K_{ab}}\}$
- Without this message, A would end the protocol knowing that $A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$, but not knowing that the key had successfully been transmitted to B.
- Would this message have been better formalized as:
 $4. B \rightarrow A: \{A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B, Nb\}_{K_{ab}}$

5. $A \rightarrow B: \{Nb - 1\}_{K_{ab}}$

- Without a shared key, no way to apply **message meaning** and no way for B to know who said this. We’re stuck.
- What was desired:
 - Apply (erroneously, it turns out) message meaning
 $B \models A \models \{Nb - 1, A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}$
 - Apply nonce verification (to get this far, $B \models \#(Kab)$):
 $B \models A \models A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B$

One last point

- The construction of messages 4 and 5 suggests (I think incorrectly) that Nb has something to do with proving freshness. E.g., that it is a challenge/response for A to prove it has the key. All we really need to do is send 2 different messages encrypted by the shared key. E.g.,

- 4) $B \rightarrow A: \{Message4\}_{K_{ab}}$
- 5) $A \rightarrow B: \{Message5\}_{K_{ab}}$

- How should this be formalized?
- At some level what we are saying is:

- 4) $B \rightarrow A: \{A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}_{K_{ab}}$
- 5) $A \rightarrow B: \{A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}_{K_{ab}}$

But since we need to ignore the “ $C \rightarrow D$ ” part of the message, how would these things be distinguishable? (e.g., how to avoid replay attacks?)

- Proposal:

- 4) $B \rightarrow A: \{B, A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}_{K_{ab}}$
- 5) $A \rightarrow B: \{A, A \xleftrightarrow{K_{ab}} B\}_{K_{ab}}$
- This, I think, follows the “prudent practice” of “Explicit communication...interpretation of the message should depend only on its content.”
- English translation: “After receiving K_{ab} , B says that K_{ab} is a key that A and B can use to communicate.” and similarly for msg 5.