

# CSE 484 / CSE M 584: Web Security + Asymmetric Cryptography

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# Announcements

- Today: Return to asymmetric crypto
- Lab 3 will be extra credit
  - Designed to be a fun lab (IoT security)
  - I encourage everyone to try it!
  - But if your schedule is too complicated right now, it is extra credit
- Yoshi's Thursday office hours this week (March 3): canceled
- Physical security lecture: Wednesday, March 9

# Begin Review Slides

# Cross-Site Request Forgery

- Users logs into bank.com, forgets to sign off
  - Session cookie remains in browser state
- User then visits a malicious website containing

`<form name=BillPayForm`

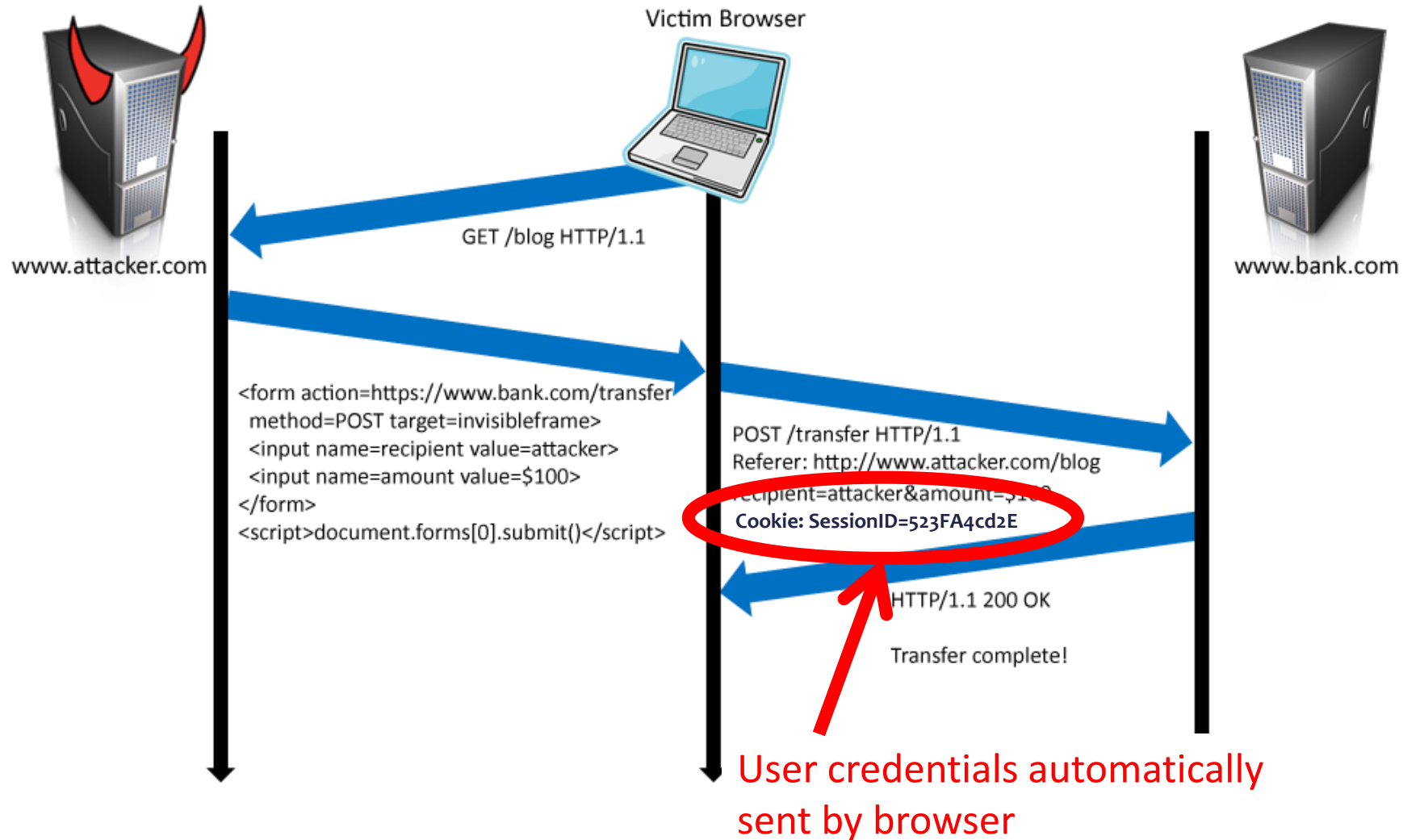
`action=http://bank.com/BillPay.php>`

`<input name=recipient value=attacker> ...`

`<script> document.BillPayForm.submit(); </script>`

- Browser sends cookie, payment request fulfilled!
- Lesson: cookie authentication is not sufficient when side effects can happen

# Cookies in Forged Requests



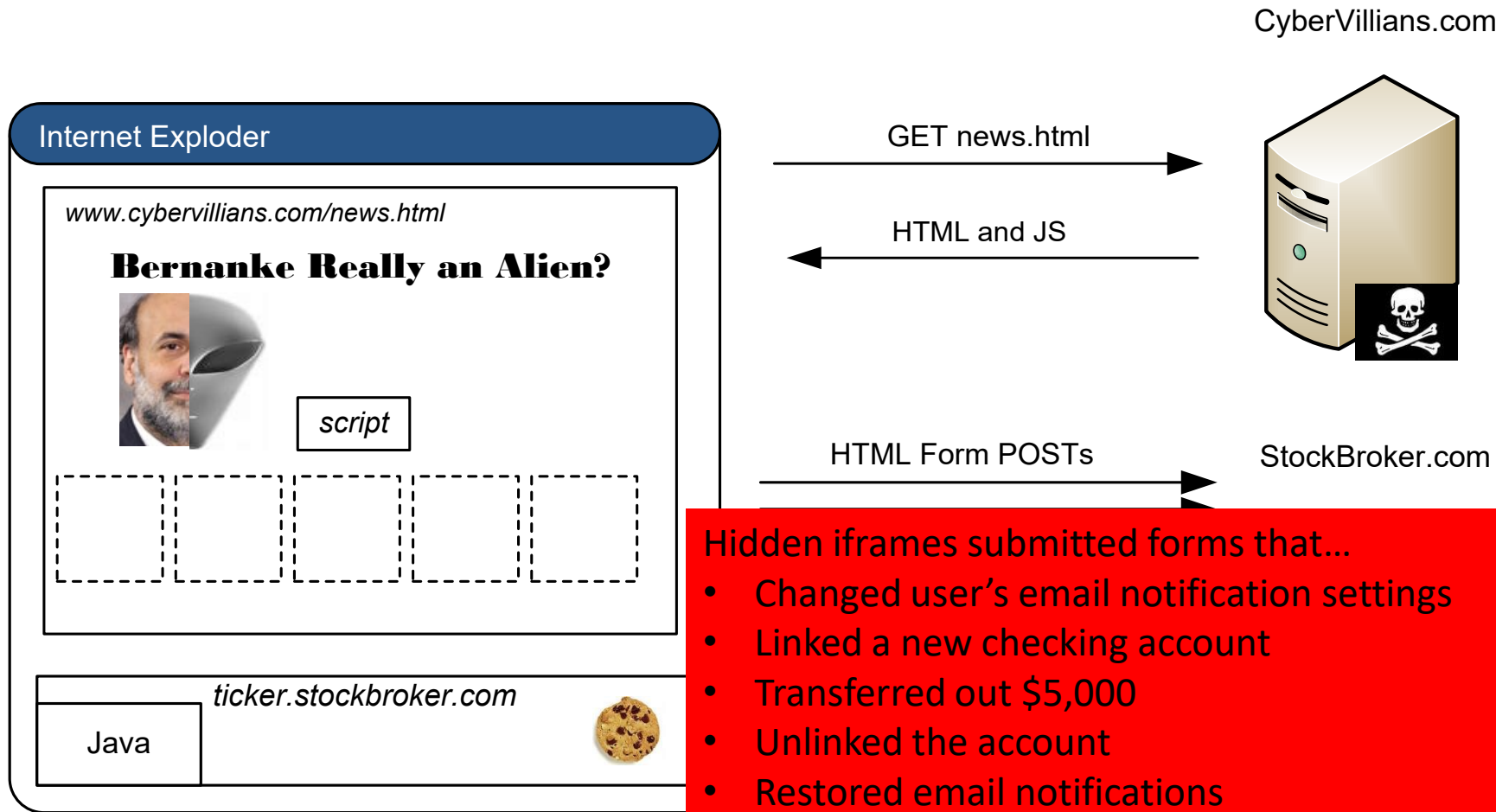
# End Review Slides

# Impact

- Hijack any ongoing session (if no protection)
  - Netflix: change account settings, Gmail: steal contacts, Amazon: one-click purchase
- Reprogram the user's home router
- Login to the *attacker's* account
  - Why?

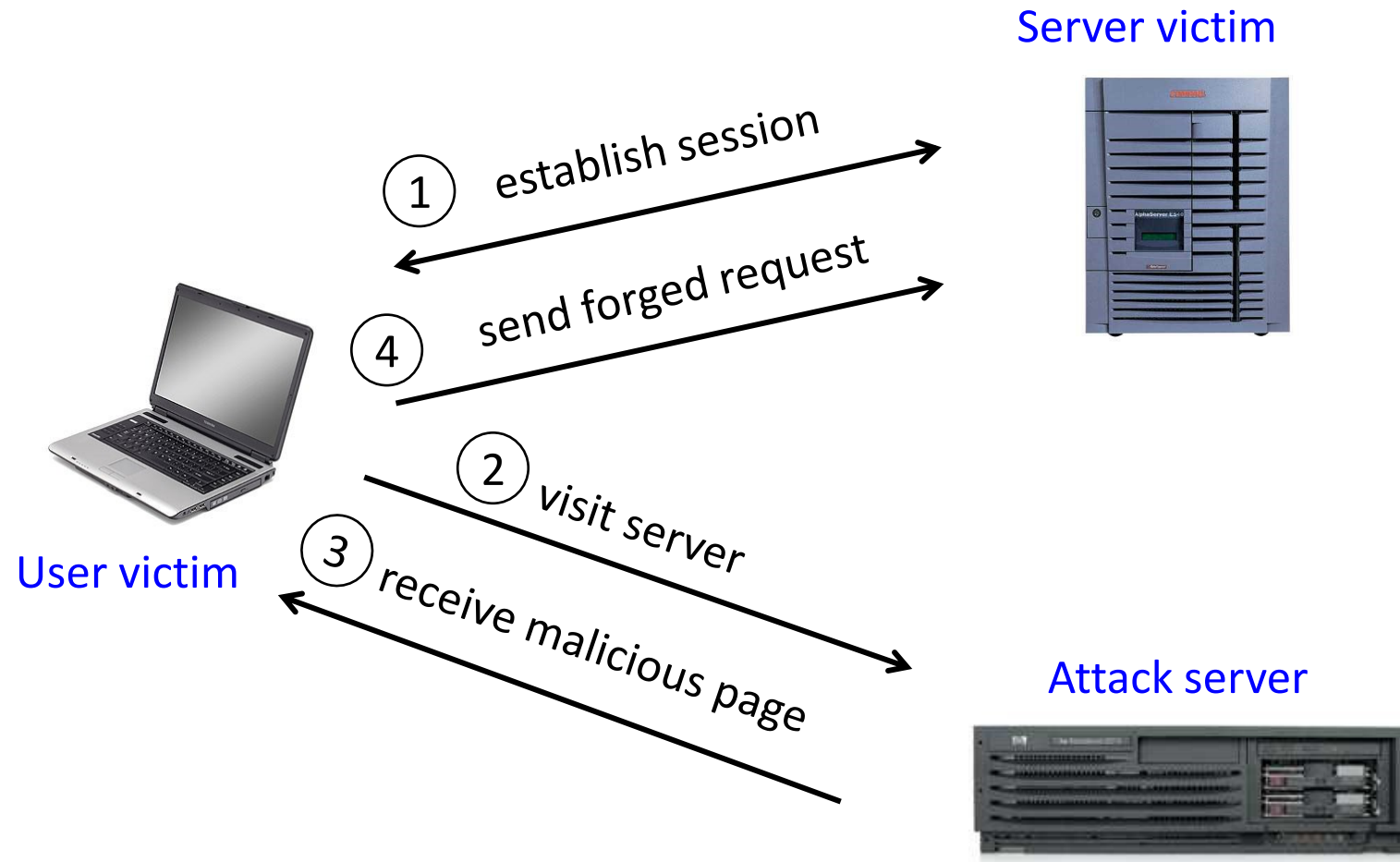
# XSRF True Story

[Alex Stamos]





# XSRF (aka CSRF): Summary



Q: how long do you stay logged on to Gmail? Financial sites?

# Broader View of XSRF

- Abuse of cross-site data export
  - SOP does not control data export
  - Malicious webpage can initiate requests from the user's browser to an honest server
  - Server thinks requests are part of the established session between the browser and the server (automatically sends cookies)

# XSRF Defenses

- Secret validation token



```
<input type=hidden value=23a3af01b>
```

- Referer validation



```
Referer:  
http://www.facebook.com/home.php
```

# Referer Validation

Facebook Login

For your security, never enter your Facebook password on sites not located on Facebook.com.

Email:

Password:

☐ Remember me

or [Sign up for Facebook](#)

[Forgot your password?](#)

✓ Referer:  
http://www.facebook.com/home.php

✗ Referer:  
http://www.evil.com/attack.html

? Referer:

- **Lenient** referer checking – header is optional
- **Strict** referer checking – header is required

# Why Not Always Strict Checking?

- Why might the referer header be suppressed?
  - Stripped by the organization's network filter
  - Stripped by the local machine
  - Stripped by the browser for HTTPS → HTTP transitions
  - User preference in browser
  - Buggy browser
- Web applications can't afford to block these users
- **Many web application frameworks include CSRF defenses today**

# Add Secret Token to Forms

```
<input type=hidden value=23a3af01b>
```

- “Synchronizer Token Pattern”
- Include a **secret challenge token** as a hidden input in forms
  - Token often based on user’s session ID
  - Server must verify correctness of token before executing sensitive operations
- Why does this work?
  - **Same-origin policy**: attacker can’t read token out of legitimate forms loaded in user’s browser, so can’t create fake forms with correct token

# Back to cryptography land

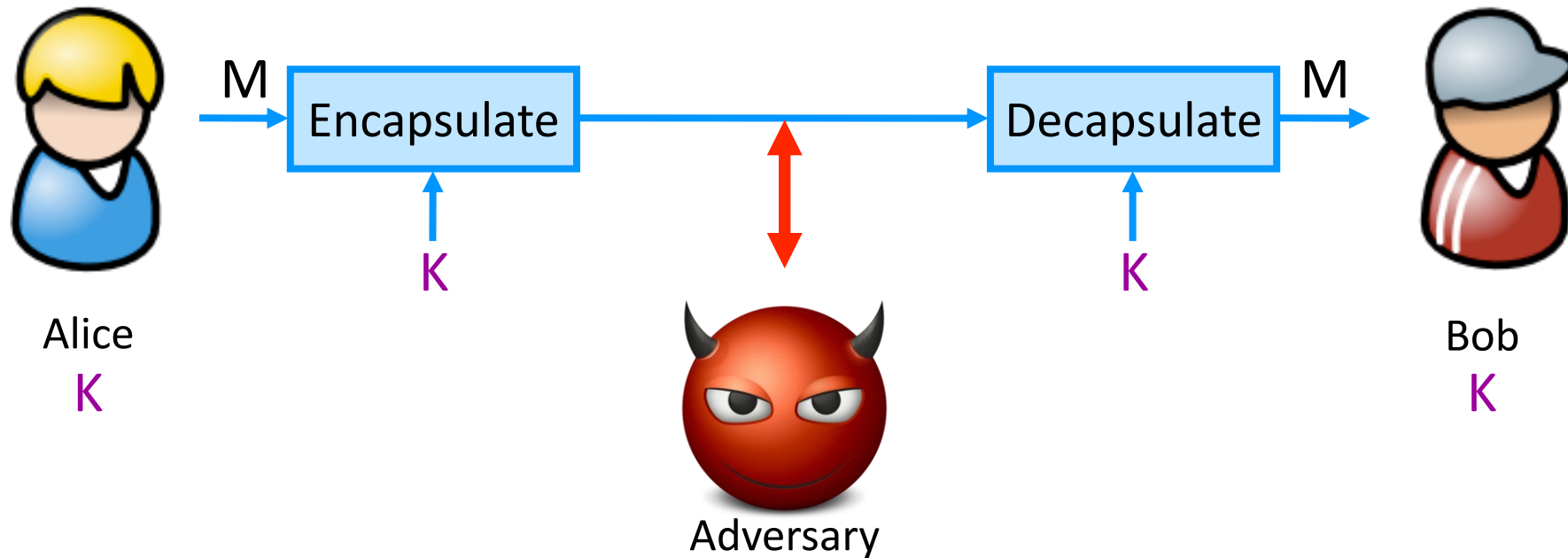
# Stepping Back: Flavors of Cryptography

- Symmetric cryptography
  - Both communicating parties have access to a **shared random string  $K$** , called the **key**.
- Asymmetric cryptography
  - Each party creates a public key  **$pk$**  and a secret key  **$sk$** .



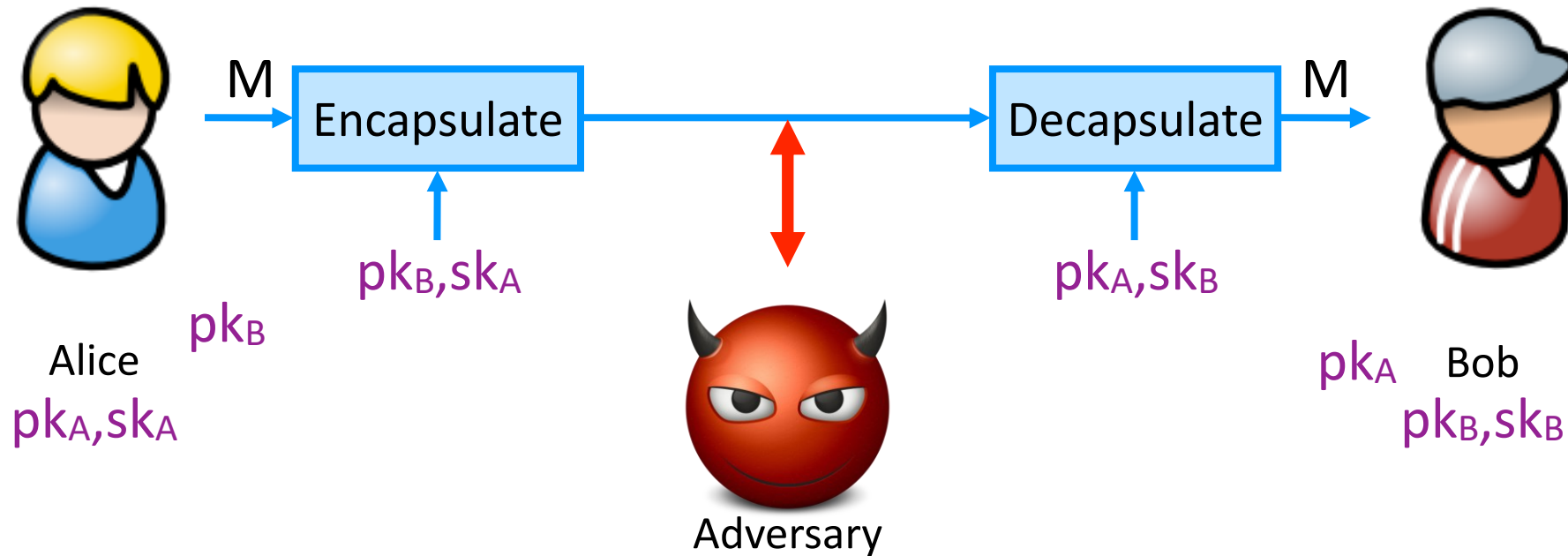
# Symmetric Setting

Both communicating parties have access to a **shared random string  $K$** , called the **key**.

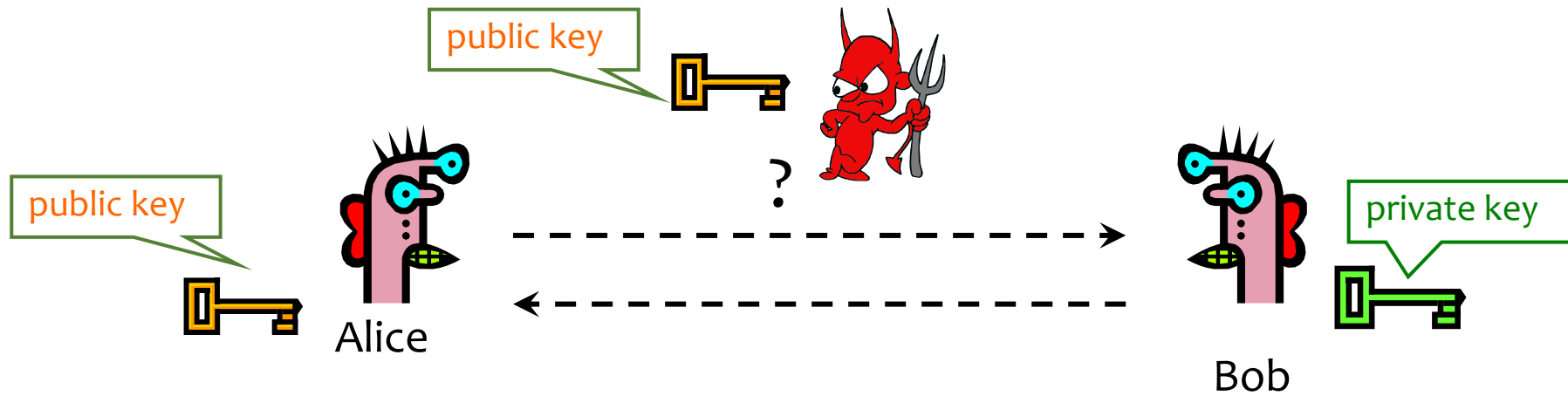


# Asymmetric Setting

Each party creates a public key  $pk$  and a secret key  $sk$ .



# Public Key Crypto: Basic Problem



Given: Everybody knows Bob's **public key**  
Only Bob knows the corresponding **private key**

Ignore for now: How do we know it's REALLY Bob's??

Goals: 1. Alice wants to send a secret message to Bob  
2. Bob wants to authenticate themselves

# Applications of Public Key Crypto

- Encryption for confidentiality
  - Anyone can encrypt a message
    - With symmetric crypto, must know secret key to encrypt
  - Only someone who knows private key can decrypt
  - Key management is simpler (or at least different)
    - Secret is stored only at one site: good for open environments
- Digital signatures for authentication
  - Can “sign” a message with your private key
- Session key establishment
  - Exchange messages to create a secret session key
  - Then switch to symmetric cryptography (why?)

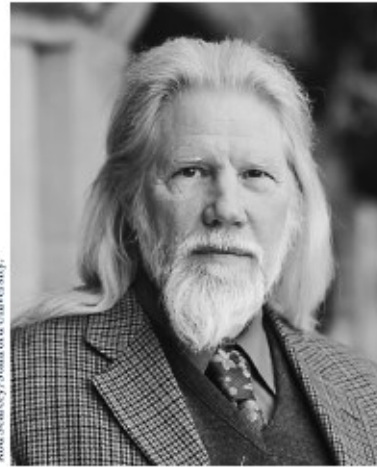
# Session Key Establishment

# Modular Arithmetic

- Given  $g$  and prime  $p$ , compute:  $g^1 \bmod p, g^2 \bmod p, \dots g^{100} \bmod p$ 
  - For  $p=11, g=10$ 
    - $10^1 \bmod 11 = 10, 10^2 \bmod 11 = 1, 10^3 \bmod 11 = 10, \dots$
    - Produces cyclic group  $\{10, 1\}$  (order=2)
  - For  $p=11, g=7$ 
    - $7^1 \bmod 11 = 7, 7^2 \bmod 11 = 5, 7^3 \bmod 11 = 2, \dots$
    - Produces cyclic group  $\{7, 5, 2, 3, 10, 4, 6, 9, 8, 1\}$  (order = 10)
    - $g=7$  is a “generator” of  $Z_{11}^*$

# Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

## Diffie and Hellman Receive 2015 Turing Award



Rod Sorensen/Stanford University

**Whitfield Diffie**

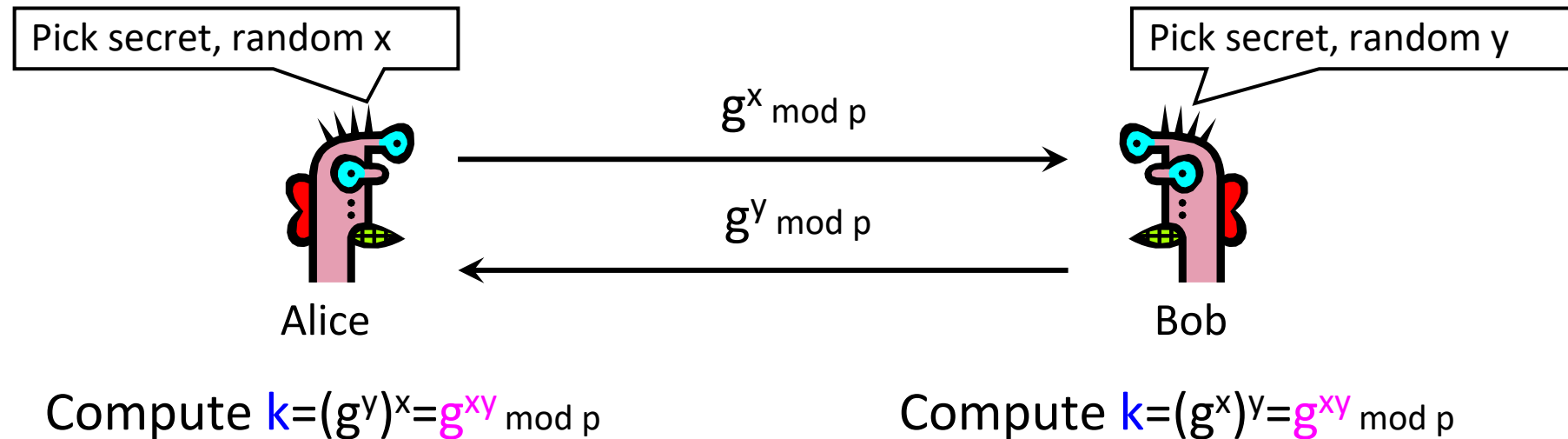


Linda A. Cicero/Stanford News Service

**Martin E. Hellman**

# Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

- Alice and Bob never met and share no secrets
- Public info:  $p$  and  $g$ 
  - $p$  is a large prime,  $g$  is a **generator** of  $Z_p^*$ 
    - $Z_p^* = \{1, 2 \dots p-1\}$ ;  $a$  is in  $Z_p^*$  if there is an  $i$  such that  $a = g^i \bmod p$
    - Modular arithmetic: numbers “wrap around” after they reach  $p$

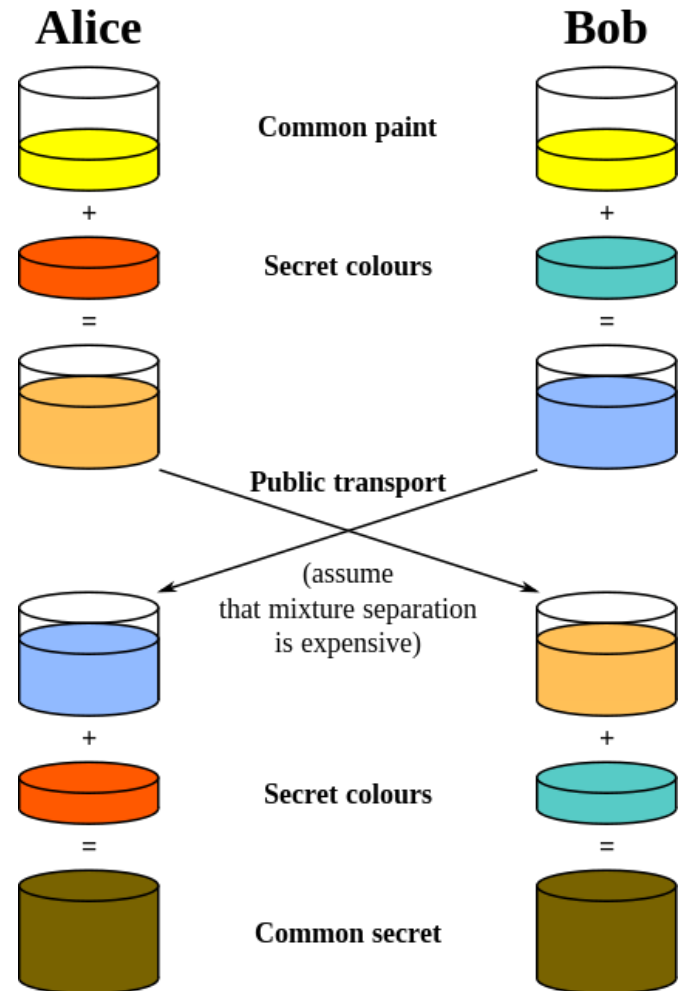




# Example Diffie Hellman Computation

- PUBLIC
  - $p = 11$
  - $g = 2$
  - ( $g$  is a generator for group mod  $p$ )
- Alice:  $x=9$ , sends 6 ( $g^x \bmod p = 2^9 \bmod 11 = 6$ )
- Bob:  $y=4$ , send 5 ( $g^y \bmod p = 2^4 \bmod 11 = 5$ )
- A compute:  $5^x \bmod 11$  ( $5^9 \bmod 11 = 9$ )
- B compute  $6^y \bmod 11$  ( $6^4 \bmod 11 = 9$ )
- Both get 9
- All computations modulo 11

# Diffie-Hellman: Conceptually



**Common paint:**  $p$  and  $g$

**Secret colors:**  $x$  and  $y$

**Send over public transport:**

$g^x \bmod p$

$g^y \bmod p$

**Common secret:**  $g^{xy} \bmod p$

[from Wikipedia]

# Why is Diffie-Hellman Secure?

- Discrete Logarithm (DL) problem:

given  $g^x \bmod p$ , it's hard to extract  $x$

- There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this
- This is not enough for Diffie-Hellman to be secure!

- Computational Diffie-Hellman (CDH) problem:

given  $g^x$  and  $g^y$ , it's hard to compute  $g^{xy} \bmod p$

- ... unless you know  $x$  or  $y$ , in which case it's easy

- Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) problem:

given  $g^x$  and  $g^y$ , it's hard to tell the difference between  $g^{xy} \bmod p$  and  $g^r \bmod p$  where  $r$  is random

# More on Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- Important Note:
  - We have discussed discrete logs modulo integers
  - Significant advantages in using elliptic curve groups
    - Groups with some similar mathematical properties (i.e., are “groups”) but have better security and performance (size) properties

# Diffie-Hellman Caveats

- Assuming DDH problem is hard (depends on choice of parameters!), Diffie-Hellman protocol is a secure key establishment protocol against passive attackers
  - Common recommendation:
    - Choose  $p=2q+1$ , where  $q$  is also a large prime
    - Choose  $g$  that generates a subgroup of order  $q$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$
    - DDH is hard in this group
  - Eavesdropper can't tell the difference between the established key and a random value
  - In practice, often hash  $g^{xy} \bmod p$ , and use the hash as the key
  - Can use the new key for symmetric cryptography
- Diffie-Hellman protocol (by itself) does not provide authentication (against active attackers)
  - Person in the middle attack (also called “man in the middle attack”)

# Example from Earlier

- Given  $g$  and prime  $p$ , compute:  $g^1 \bmod p, g^2 \bmod p, \dots g^{100} \bmod p$ 
  - For  $p=11, g=10$ 
    - $10^1 \bmod 11 = 10, 10^2 \bmod 11 = 1, 10^3 \bmod 11 = 10, \dots$
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    - Produces cyclic group  $\{7, 5, 2, 3, 10, 4, 6, 9, 8, 1\}$  (order = 10)
    - $g=7$  is a “generator” of  $Z_{11}^*$
  - For  $p=11, g=3$ 
    - $3^1 \bmod 11 = 3, 3^2 \bmod 11 = 9, 3^3 \bmod 11 = 5, \dots$
    - Produces cyclic group  $\{3, 9, 5, 4, 1\}$  (order = 5) (5 is a prime)
    - $g=3$  generates a group of prime order

# Stepping Back: Asymmetric Crypto

- We've just seen session key establishment
  - Can then use shared key for symmetric crypto
- Next: public key encryption
  - For confidentiality
- Then: digital signatures
  - For authenticity

# Requirements for Public Key Encryption

- **Key generation:** computationally easy to generate a pair (public key  $PK$ , private key  $SK$ )
- **Encryption:** given plaintext  $M$  and public key  $PK$ , easy to compute ciphertext  $C = E_{PK}(M)$
- **Decryption:** given ciphertext  $C = E_{PK}(M)$  and private key  $SK$ , easy to compute plaintext  $M$ 
  - Infeasible to learn anything about  $M$  from  $C$  without  $SK$
  - Trapdoor function:  $Decrypt(SK, Encrypt(PK, M)) = M$



# Some Number Theory Facts

- Euler totient function  $\varphi(n)$  ( $n \geq 1$ ) is the number of integers in the  $[1, n]$  interval that are relatively prime to  $n$ 
  - Two numbers are relatively prime if their greatest common divisor (gcd) is 1
  - Easy to compute for primes:  $\varphi(p) = p-1$
  - Note that  $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a) \varphi(b)$  if  $a$  &  $b$  are relatively prime

# RSA Cryptosystem [Rivest, Shamir, Adleman 1977]

- Key generation:

- Generate large primes  $p, q$ 
  - Say, 2048 bits each (need primality testing, too)
- Compute  $n=pq$  and  $\varphi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$
- Choose small  $e$ , relatively prime to  $\varphi(n)$ 
  - Typically,  $e=3$  or  $e=2^{16}+1=65537$
- Compute unique  $d$  such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$ 
  - Modular inverse:  $d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\varphi(n)}$
- Public key =  $(e,n)$ ; private key =  $(d,n)$

How to  
compute?

- Encryption of  $m$ :  $c = m^e \pmod n$

- Decryption of  $c$ :  $c^d \pmod n = (m^e)^d \pmod n = m$

# Why is RSA Secure?

- **RSA problem:** given  $c$ ,  $n=pq$ , and  $e$  such that  $\gcd(e, \phi(n))=1$ , find  $m$  such that  $m^e = c \bmod n$ 
  - In other words, recover  $m$  from ciphertext  $c$  and public key  $(n,e)$  by taking  $e^{\text{th}}$  root of  $c$  modulo  $n$
  - There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this *without* knowing  $p$  and  $q$
- **Factoring problem:** given positive integer  $n$ , find primes  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  such that  $n=p_1^{e_1}p_2^{e_2}\dots p_k^{e_k}$
- If factoring is easy, then RSA problem is easy (knowing factors means you can compute  $d = \text{inverse of } e \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$ )
  - It may be possible to break RSA without factoring  $n$  -- but if it is, we don't know how

# RSA Encryption Caveats

- Encrypted message needs to be interpreted as an integer less than  $n$
- Don't use RSA **directly** for privacy – **output is deterministic!** Need to pre-process input somehow
- Plain RSA also does not provide integrity
  - Can tamper with encrypted messages

In practice, OAEP is used: instead of encrypting  $M$ , encrypt

$$M \oplus G(r) \parallel r \oplus H(M \oplus G(r))$$

- $r$  is random and fresh,  $G$  and  $H$  are hash functions

RSA OAEP

$$M \oplus G(r) \parallel r \oplus H(M \oplus G(r))$$

# Review: RSA Cryptosystem [Rivest, Shamir, Adleman 1977]

- Key generation:

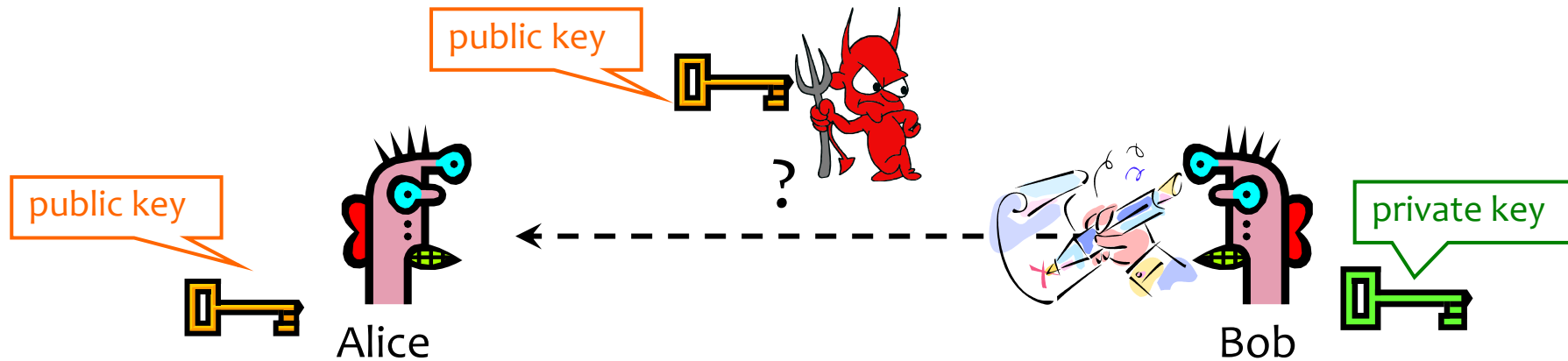
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  - Say, 2048 bits each (need primality testing, too)
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- Compute unique  $d$  such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$ 
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- Public key =  $(e,n)$ ; private key =  $(d,n)$

How to  
compute?

- Encryption of  $m$ :  $c = m^e \pmod n$

- Decryption of  $c$ :  $c^d \pmod n = (m^e)^d \pmod n = m$

# Digital Signatures: Basic Idea



Given: Everybody knows Bob's **public key**  
Only Bob knows the corresponding **private key**

Goal: Bob sends a “digitally signed” message

1. To compute a signature, must know the private key
2. To verify a signature, only the public key is needed

# RSA Signatures

- Public key is  $(n,e)$ , private key is  $(n,d)$
- To **sign** message  $m$ :  $s = m^d \bmod n$ 
  - Signing & decryption are same **underlying** operation in RSA
  - It's infeasible to compute  $s$  on  $m$  if you don't know  $d$
- To **verify** signature  $s$  on message  $m$ :  
verify that  $s^e \bmod n = (m^d)^e \bmod n = m$ 
  - Just like encryption (for RSA primitive)
  - Anyone who knows  $n$  and  $e$  (public key) can verify signatures produced with  $d$  (private key)
- In practice, also need padding & hashing
  - Without padding and hashing: Consider multiplying two signatures together
  - Standard padding/hashing schemes exist for RSA signatures



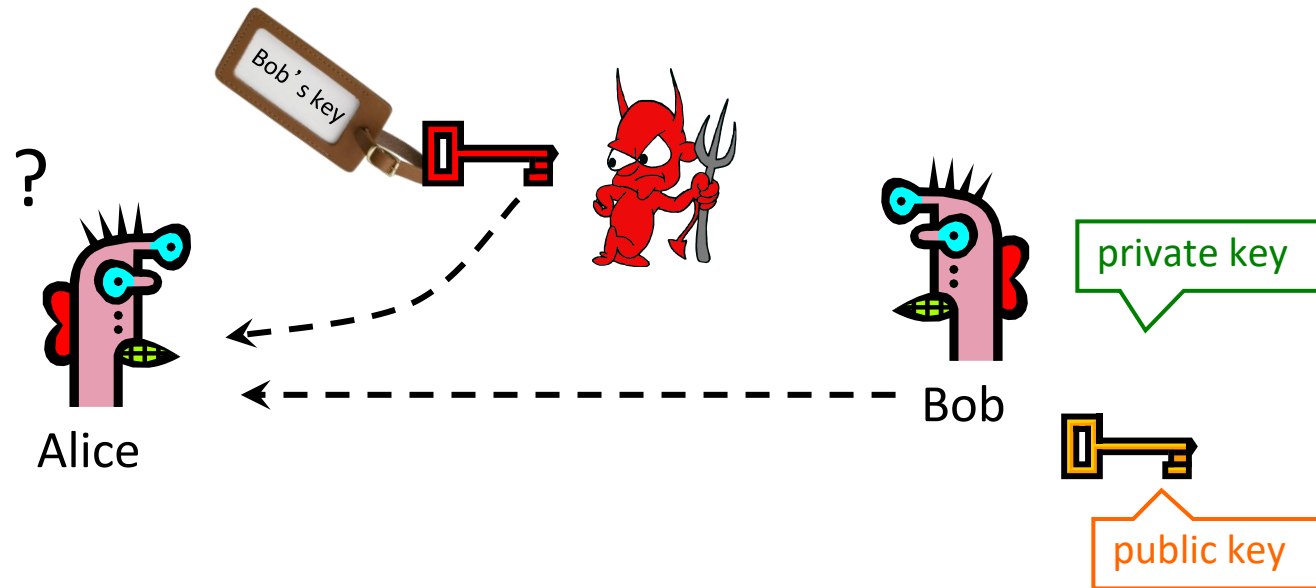
# DSS Signatures

- Digital Signature Standard (DSS)
  - U.S. government standard (1991, most recent rev. 2013)
- Public key:  $(p, q, g, y=g^x \bmod p)$ , private key:  $x$
- Each signing operation picks a new random value, to use during signing. Security breaks if two messages are signed with that same value.
- Security of DSS requires hardness of discrete log
  - If could solve discrete logarithm problem, would extract  $x$  (private key) from  $g^x \bmod p$  (public key)
- Again: We've discussed discrete logs modulo integers; significant advantages to using elliptic curve groups instead.

# Post-Quantum

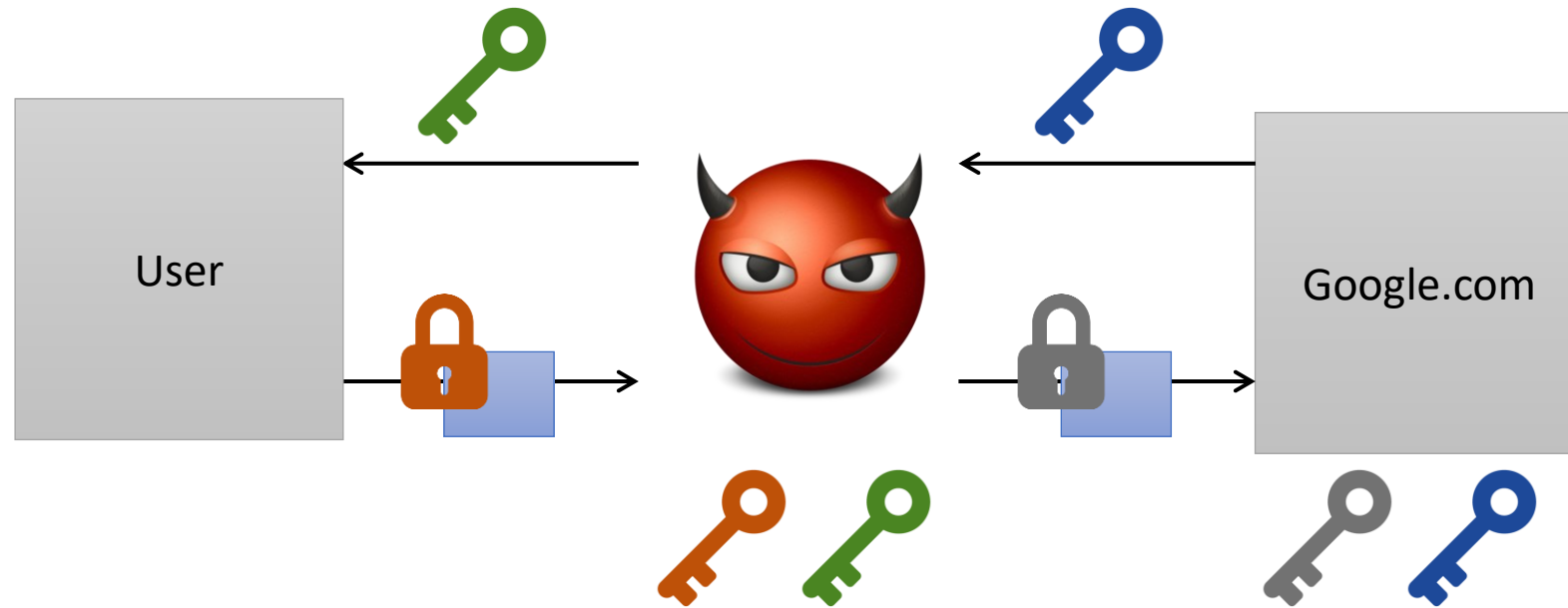
- If quantum computer become a reality
  - It becomes much more efficient to break conventional asymmetric encryption schemes (e.g., factoring becomes “easy”)
  - For block ciphers (symmetric encryption), use 128-bit keys for 256-bits of security
- There exists efforts to make quantum-resilient asymmetric encryption schemes

# Authenticity of Public Keys



Problem: How does Alice know that the public key they received is really Bob's public key?

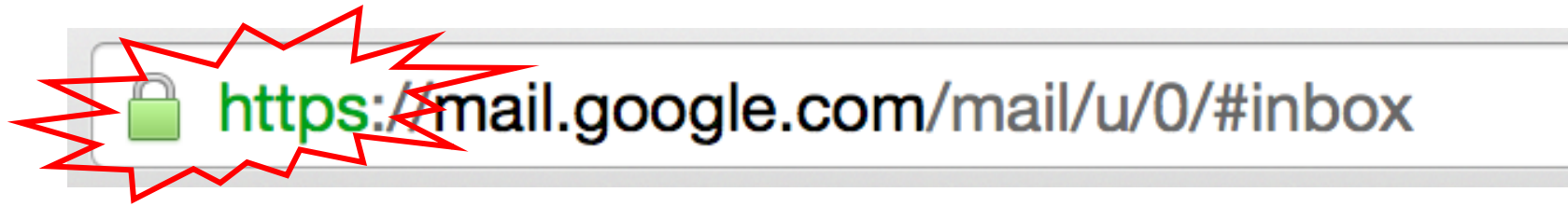
# Threat: Person-in-the Middle



# Distribution of Public Keys

- Public announcement or public directory
  - Risks: forgery and tampering
- Public-key certificate
  - Signed statement specifying the key and identity
    - $\text{sig}_{\text{CA}}(\text{"Bob"}, \text{PK}_B)$
    - Additional information often signed as well (e.g., expiration date)
- Common approach: certificate authority (CA)
  - Single agency responsible for certifying public keys
  - After generating a private/public key pair, user proves their identity and knowledge of the private key to obtain CA's certificate for the public key (offline)
  - Every computer is pre-configured with CA's public key

You encounter this every day...



**SSL/TLS:** Encryption & authentication for connections

# SSL/TLS High Level


- SSL/TLS consists of **two** protocols
  - Familiar pattern for key exchange protocols
- Handshake protocol
  - Use **public-key cryptography** to establish a shared secret key between the client and the server
- Record protocol
  - Use the **secret symmetric key** established in the handshake protocol to protect communication between the client and the server

# Example of a Certificate

GeoTrust Global CA

↳ Google Internet Authority G2

↳ \*.google.com



**\*.google.com**  
Issued by: Google Internet Authority G2  
Expires: Monday, July 6, 2015 at 5:00:00 PM Pacific Daylight Time  
✓ This certificate is valid

▼ Details

Subject Name

Country

US

State/Province

California

Locality

Mountain View

Organization

Google Inc

Common Name

\*.google.com

Issuer Name

Country

US

Organization

Google Inc

Common Name

Google Internet Authority G2

Serial Number

6082711391012222858

Version

3

Signature Algorithm

SHA-1 with RSA Encryption ( 1.2.840.113549.1.1.5 )

Parameters

none

Not Valid Before

Wednesday, April 8, 2015 at 6:40:10 AM Pacific Daylight Time

Not Valid After

Monday, July 6, 2015 at 5:00:00 PM Pacific Daylight Time

Public Key Info

Algorithm

Elliptic Curve Public Key ( 1.2.840.10045.2.1 )

Parameters

Elliptic Curve secp256r1 ( 1.2.840.10045.3.1.7 )

Public Key

65 bytes : 04 CB DD C1 CE AC D6 20 ...

Key Size

256 bits

Key Usage

Encrypt, Verify, Derive

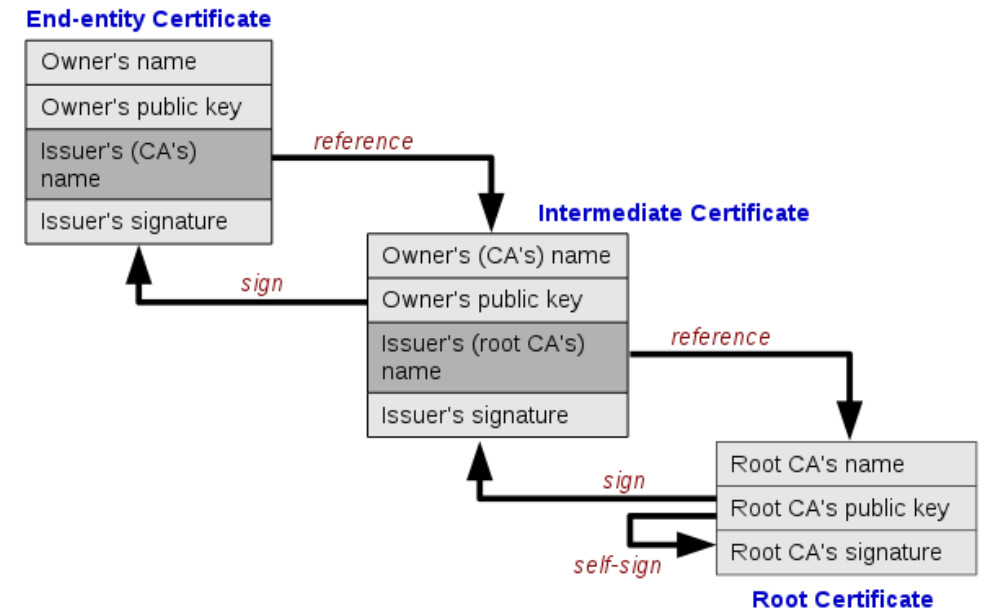
Signature

256 bytes : 34 8B 7D 64 5A 64 08 5B ...



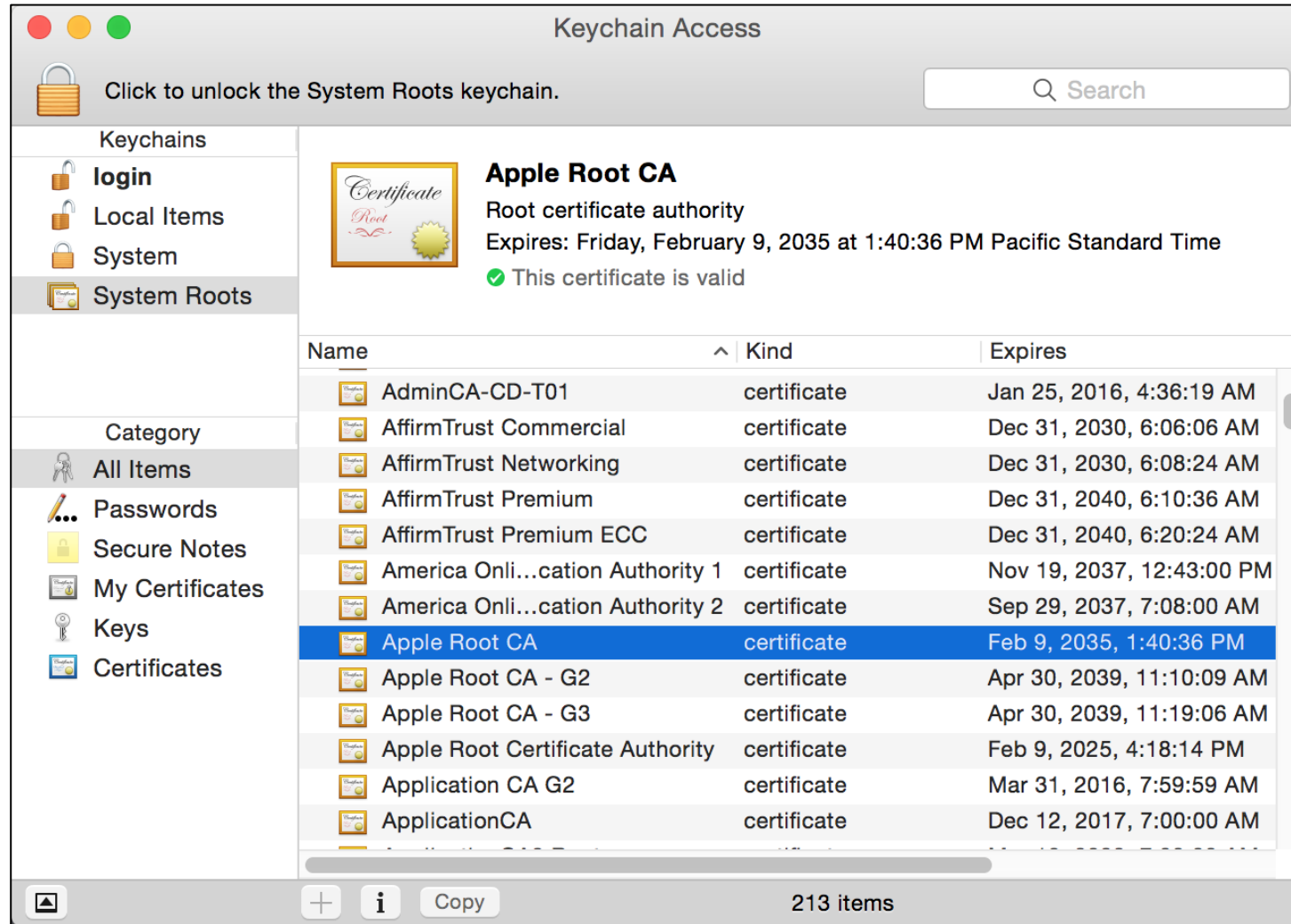
# Hierarchical Approach

- Single CA certifying every public key is impractical
- Instead, use a trusted **root authority** (e.g., Verisign)
  - Everybody must know the root's public key
  - Instead of single cert, use a **certificate chain**
    - $\text{sig}_{\text{Verisign}}(\text{"AnotherCA"}, \text{PK}_{\text{AnotherCA}})$ ,  
 $\text{sig}_{\text{AnotherCA}}(\text{"Alice"}, \text{PK}_A)$
  - Not shown in figure but important:
    - Signed as part of each cert is whether party is a CA or not



- What happens if root authority is ever compromised?

# Trusted(?) Certificate Authorities



# Turtles All The Way Down...



The saying holds that the world is supported by a chain of increasingly large turtles. Beneath each turtle is yet another: it is "turtles all the way down".

[Image from Wikipedia]

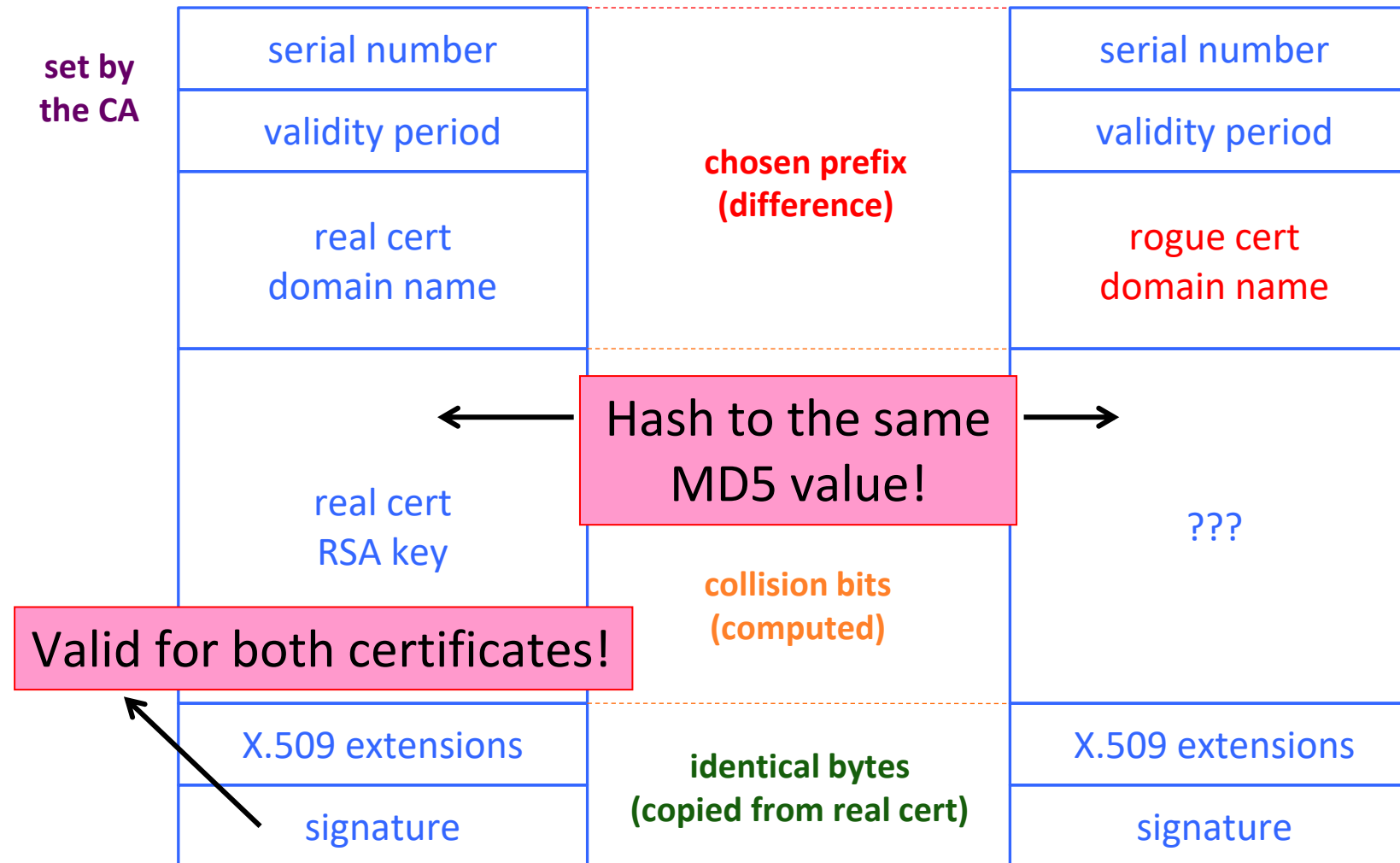
# Corporate CAs?

- Canvas!

# Many Challenges...

- Hash collisions
- Weak security at CAs
  - Allows attackers to issue rogue certificates
- Users don't notice when attacks happen
  - We'll talk more about this later in the course
- How do you revoke certificates?

# Colliding Certificates



DigiNotar is a Dutch Certificate Authority. They sell SSL certificates.



Somehow, somebody managed to get a rogue SSL certificate from them on **July 10th, 2011**. This certificate was issued for domain name **.google.com**.

What can you do with such a certificate? Well, you can impersonate Google — assuming you can first reroute Internet traffic for google.com to you. This is something that can be done by a government or by a rogue ISP. Such a reroute would only affect users within that country or under that ISP.

## Attacking CAs

### Security of DigiNotar servers:

- All core certificate servers controlled by a single admin password (Pr0d@dm1n)
- Software on public-facing servers out of date, unpatched
- No anti-virus (could have detected attack)

# Consequences

- Attacker needs to first divert users to an attacker-controlled site instead of Google, Yahoo, Skype, but then...
  - For example, use DNS to poison the mapping of mail.yahoo.com to an IP address
- ... “authenticate” as the real site
- ... decrypt all data sent by users
  - Email, phone conversations, Web browsing



# More Rogue Certs



- In Jan 2013, a rogue \*.google.com certificate was issued by an intermediate CA that gained its authority from the Turkish root CA TurkTrust
  - TurkTrust accidentally issued intermediate CA certs to customers who requested regular certificates
  - Ankara transit authority used its certificate to issue a fake \*.google.com certificate in order to filter SSL traffic from its network
- This rogue \*.google.com certificate was trusted by every browser in the world

# Bad CAs

- **DarkMatter** (<https://groups.google.com/g/mozilla.dev.security.policy/c/nnLVNfqgz7g/m/TseYqDzaDAAJ> and [https://bugzilla.mozilla.org/show\\_bug.cgi?id=1427262](https://bugzilla.mozilla.org/show_bug.cgi?id=1427262))
  - Security company wanted to get CA status
  - Questionable practices
- **Symantec!** ([https://wiki.mozilla.org/CA:Symantec\\_Issues](https://wiki.mozilla.org/CA:Symantec_Issues))
  - Major company, regular participant in standards
  - Poor practices, mismanagement 2013-2017
  - CA distrusted in Oct 2018
- Recall: Turtles all the way down. How can we trust the CAs? What happens if we can't?

# Certificate Revocation

- Revocation is very important
- Many valid reasons to revoke a certificate
  - Private key corresponding to the certified public key has been compromised
  - User stopped paying their certification fee to this CA and CA no longer wishes to certify them
  - CA's private key has been compromised!
- Expiration is a form of revocation, too
  - Many deployed systems don't bother with revocation
  - Re-issuance of certificates is a big revenue source for certificate authorities

# Certificate Revocation Mechanisms

- Certificate revocation list (CRL)
  - CA periodically issues a signed list of revoked certificates
    - Credit card companies used to issue thick books of canceled credit card numbers
  - Can issue a “delta CRL” containing only updates
- Online revocation service
  - When a certificate is presented, recipient goes to a special online service to verify whether it is still valid
    - Like a merchant dialing up the credit card processor

Attempt to Fix CA Problems:

# Certificate Transparency

- **Problem:** browsers will think nothing is wrong with a rogue certificate until revoked
- **Goal:** make it impossible for a CA to issue a bad certificate for a domain *without the owner of that domain knowing*
- **Approach:** auditable certificate logs
  - Certificates published in public logs
  - Public logs checked for unexpected certificates

[www.certificate-transparency.org](http://www.certificate-transparency.org)

Attempt to Fix CA Problems:

# Certificate Pinning

- **Trust on first access:** tells browser how to act on subsequent connections
- HPKP – HTTP Public Key Pinning
  - Use these keys!
  - HTTP response header field `"Public-Key-Pins"`
- HSTS – HTTP Strict Transport Security
  - Only access server via HTTPS
  - HTTP response header field `"Strict-Transport-Security"`