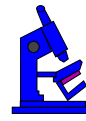
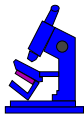




Chapter 8



Lecture 8 - Protocols



Mid semester Test



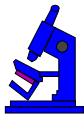
- ✓ 9th October 2003
- ✓ LT27, 14:30
- ✓ MCQ, closed book
- ✓ Covers everything up to and including today...



Last session



- Finish on error correction
- Encryption
 - Symmetric keys
 - * DES
 - Public keys
 - * RSA



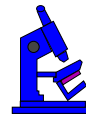
This session



- Kerberos
- Voting
- Contract signing



Summary



- ✓ Substitution, Vigenère, index of coincidence
- ✓ DES, Feistel, modes of operation
- ✓ Public key, Diffie Hellman, RSA



Vigenère



If our keyword was **BAD**, then encoding **HAD A FEED** would result in

Key	B	A	D	B	A	D	B	A
Text	H	A	D	A	F	E	E	D
Cipher	I	A	G	B	F	H	F	D

If we can discover the length of the repeated key (in this case 3), and the text is long enough, we can just consider the cipher text to be a **group of interleaved monoalphabetic substitution ciphers** and solve accordingly.



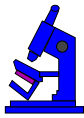
Analysis



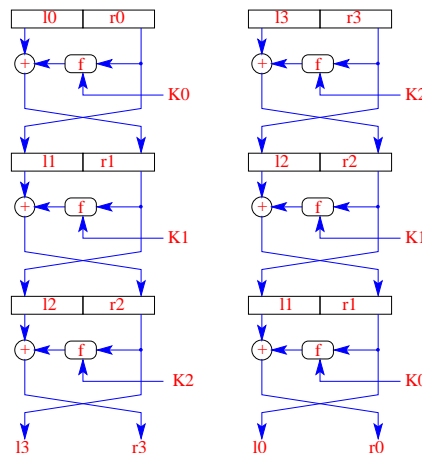
The **index of coincidence** is the probability that two randomly chosen letters from the cipher will be the same, and it can **help** us **discover** the **length** of a key

$$IC = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i=0}^{25} F_i(F_i - 1)$$

where F_i is the frequency of the occurrences of symbol i and N is the length of the cipher.



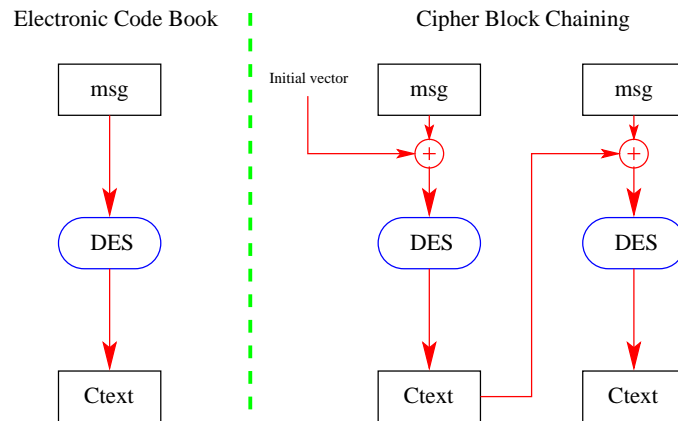
DES - Feistel



Each of the 16 stages (rounds) of DES uses a Feistel structure which encrypts a 64 bit value into another 64 bit value using a 48 bit key derived from the original 56 bit key.



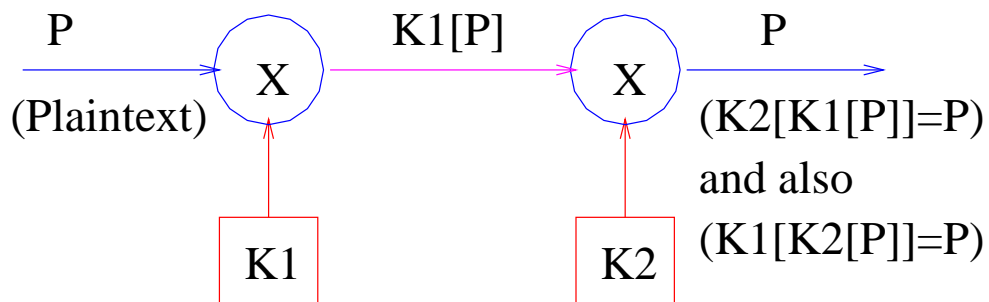
DES modes of operation



Public key systems

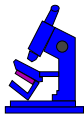
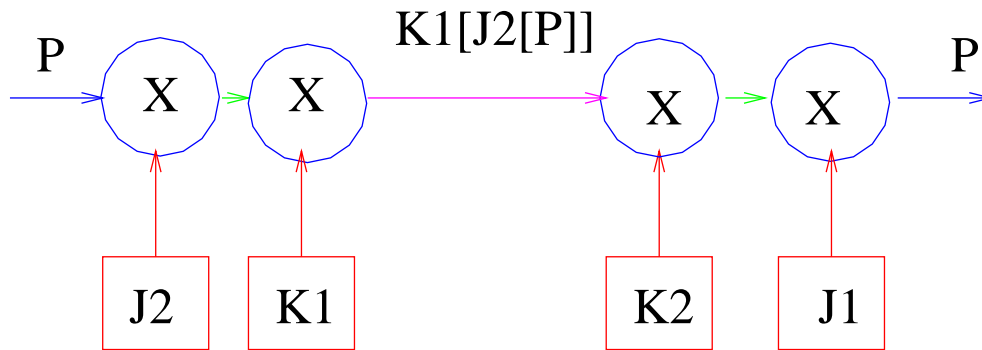
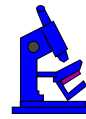


- ✓ Public key cryptography relies on the use of enciphering functions which are *not realistically invertible* unless you have a deciphering key.





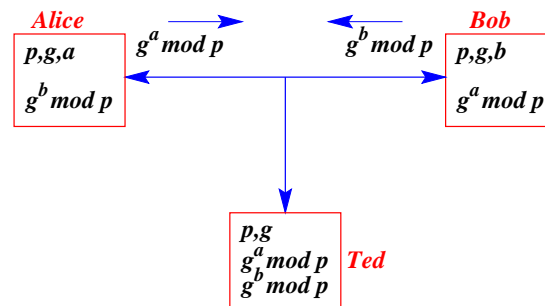
Authentication



Diffie-Hellman key agreement



Two separated users *create* and *share* a secret key. A third party is not realistically able to calculate the shared key.



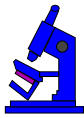


RSA coding algorithms



The four processes needed for RSA encryption:

1. Creating a **public** key
2. Creating a **secret** key
3. **Encrypting** messages
4. **Decoding** messages



Uses of encryption



1. Generating **encrypted passwords** with 1-way functions
2. **Checking integrity** by appending digital signature
3. Checking the **authenticity** of a message.
4. Encrypting **timestamps** with **messages** to prevent **replay** attacks.
5. **Exchanging a key**.



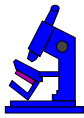
Protocols



Systems in which the protocol plays a large part:

1. [Kerberos](#) protocol for distributing keys
2. [Voting](#) protocols
3. [Contract signing](#) protocols

These three protocols are by no means the only ones.



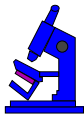
Other examples



- ✓ [Key distribution](#)
- ✓ [Clipper](#)
- ✓ [Oblivious transfer](#), in which two parties can complete a joint computation, without either party revealing any unnecessary data.



Kerberos/Cerberus



Kerberos



- ✓ Network **authentication** protocol.
- ✓ **Strong** authentication for client/server applications using **public key** cryptography.
- ✓ Kerberos is **freely available** in source form
- ✓ Kerberos is also available in **commercial** products.
- ✓ Client can prove its identity to a server (and vice versa) across an **insecure** network connection.



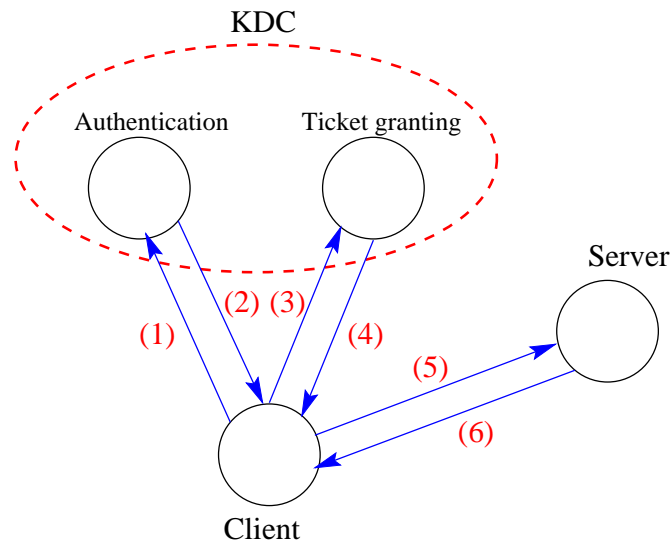
Kerberos



- ✓ After a client and server have used Kerberos to **prove** their **identity**, they can also **encrypt** all of their **communications** to assure privacy and data integrity as they go about their business.
- ✓ Must have a **Key Distribution Center (KDC)**
- ✓ Kerberos uses **Needham-Schroeder** protocol.



Kerberos





Kerberos



When a client first authenticates to Kerberos, she:

1. Talks to KDC, to get a *Ticket Granting Ticket*
2. Uses that to talk to the *Ticket Granting Service*
3. Uses the *ticket*, to interact with the *server*.

This way a user doesn't have to reenter passwords every time they wish to connect to a Kerberized service. If the Ticket Granting Ticket is compromised, an attacker can only masquerade as a user until the ticket expires.



Kerberos protocol



- ✓ Two sorts of credentials used, *tickets* and *authenticators*.
- ✓ A *ticket* $T_{c,s}$ contains the client's name and network address, the server's name, a timestamp and a session key. This is encrypted with the server's secret key (so that the client is unable to modify it).
- ✓ An *authenticator* $A_{c,s}$ contains the client's name, a timestamp and an optional extra session key. This is encrypted with the session key shared between the client and the server.



Kerberos protocol



- ✓ A *key* $K_{x,y}$ is a session key shared by both x and y .
- ✓ When we encrypt a message M using the key $K_{x,y}$ we write it as $\{M\}_{K_{x,y}}$.



Kerberos protocol



Alice wants session key for communication with Bob:

- Alice sends message to Ted containing her identity, Ted's TGS identity, and one-time value (n) : $\{a, tgs, n\}$.
- Ted responds with a key encrypted with Alice's secret key (which Ted knows), and a ticket encrypted with the TGS secret key: $\{K_{a,tgs}, n\}_{K_a} \{T_{a,tgs}\}_{K_{tgs}}$.
Alice now has ticket and session key: $\{T_{a,tgs}\}_{K_{tgs}}, K_{a,tgs}$
- Alice can prove her identity to the TGS, as she has session key $K_{a,tgs}$, and *Ticket Granting Ticket*: $\{T_{a,tgs}\}_{K_{tgs}}$.

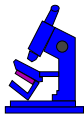


Kerberos protocol



Later, Alice can ask the TGS for a specific service ticket:

- When Alice wants a ticket for a specific service (say with Bob), she sends an *authenticator* along with the *Ticket Granting Ticket* to the TGS:
 $\{A_{a,b}\}K_{a,tgs} \{T_{a,tgs}\}K_{tgs}, b, n.$
- The TGS responds with a suitable key and a ticket:
 $\{K_{a,b}, n\}K_{a,tgs} \{T_{a,b}\}K_b.$
- Alice can now use an authenticator and ticket directly with Bob:
 $\{A_{a,b}\}K_{a,b} \{T_{a,b}\}K_b.$



Weaknesses



Host security: Kerberos makes no provisions for host security; it assumes that it is running on *trusted* hosts with an *untrusted* network.

KDC compromises: Kerberos uses a principal's password (encryption key) as the fundamental proof of identity.

Salt: This is an additional input to the one-way hash algorithm.



Voting protocols



A voting protocol is one in which

- **independent** systems **vote** in a kind of **election**, and
- afterwards we can **check** that the vote was correct.
- Each voter is only allowed a **single** vote, and
- the system should be **corruption-proof**.



Voting protocols



Example with Alice, Bob and Charles (!), who vote and then encrypt and sign a series of messages using public-key encryption. For example, if Alice votes v_A , then she will broadcast to all other voters the message

$$R_A(R_B(R_C(E_A(E_B(E_C(v_A)))))))$$

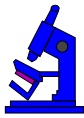
where R_A is a random encoding function which adds a random string to a message before encrypting it with A 's public key, and E_A is public key encryption with A 's public key.



Voting protocols



- ✓ Each voter then **signs** the message and **decrypts** one level of the encryption.
- ✓ At the end of the protocol, each voter has a **complete signed audit trail** and is ensured of the validity of the vote.



Tossing a coin



- ✓ Alice and Bob want to toss a coin
- ✓ Alice calculates two primes p, q and calculates $N = pq$, sends N to Bob. $N = 35 = 5 * 7$
- ✓ If Bob can factorize the number, then Bob wins a coin toss.
- ✓ Bob selects random x , and sends $x^2 \bmod N = y$ to Alice.
 $y = 31^2 \bmod 35 = 16$



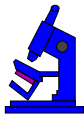
Tossing a coin



Alice calculates the four square roots of 16:

- $4^2 \pmod{35} = 16$
- $31^2 \pmod{35} = 16$
- $24^2 \pmod{35} = 16$
- $11^2 \pmod{35} = 16$

This is easy for Alice, as she knows the prime factors of N . She then sends one of these back to Bob.



Tossing a coin



- ✓ If Bob receives x or $-x$, then he learns nothing, but
- ✓ if Bob receives either of the other values, he can add this to x , and then find the GCD of the result with N :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{GCD}(24 + 31, 35) &= \text{GCD}(55, 35) \\ &= 5 \end{aligned}$$

- ✓ Alice is unable to tell she has divulged the factor



Oblivious transfer



- ✓ In an oblivious transfer, **randomness** is used to convince participants of the fairness of some transaction
- ✓ In a **coin-tossing** example, Alice knows the prime factors of a large number, and if Bob can factorize the number, then Bob wins a coin toss.
- ✓ A protocol allows Alice to either divulge one of the prime factors to Bob, or not, with **equal probability**.
- ✓ Alice is unable to tell if she has divulged the factor, and so the coin toss is fair.



Contract signing



- ✓ Signing contracts can be difficult.
- ✓ If one party signs the contract, the other may not. We have one party bound by the contract, and the other not.
- ✓ In addition, both may sign, and then one may say "***I didn't sign any contract!***" afterwards.



Contract signing



Oblivious transfer used for contract-signing where

- Up to a certain point **neither party is bound**
- After that point **both parties are bound**
- Either party can **prove** that the other party signed

Alice and Bob **exchange signed messages**, agreeing to be bound by a contract with ever-increasing probability



Contract signing



- ✓ In the event of early termination of the contract, either party can take the messages they have to an **adjudicator**, who chooses a **random** probability value (42% say) before looking at the messages.
- ✓ If both messages are over 42% then both parties are bound.
- ✓ If less then both parties are free.