

Crypto 4: Public Key



Twitter Fight Last Year: Nick Vs Rust Rand_Core Random Number Generators

- Rust (well, the 3rd party library for it) has an interface for "secure" Random Number Generators... But they aren't actually secure!
- EG, "ChaCha8Rng"
 - A **reduced round** stream cipher!
 - That has no `update()` function: no way of adding in entropy after seeding
 - And `seed()` takes only 32B total (no combining entropy!)
 - Oh, and no rollback resistance either
- **NONE** of the "Secure" RNGs are actually cryptographically secure...
 - Because none accept and consume arbitrarily long seeds or have an update to mix in more entropy
- When I say **ONLY** use HMAC_DRBG, I mean it!
 - Use `/dev/urandom` and everything else you can think of to shove into HMAC_DRBG

And Vuln of the Day: CVE-2019-16303

- If you wrote an app in JHipster last year or before...
 - You probably want a password reset function...
- Password reset generates "random" URLs
 - But of course, they used a bad RNG!
- So generate a password request for your account
 - You get the RNGs state in the reset URL
- Now you can generate more password resets...
 - And predict what the "random" URL is...
and take over any account you want!

Reminder Of Our Primitives So-Far:

Block Cipher

- Block Cipher: Takes a fixed sized message and fixed-sized key
 - $E(M, K)$, $E_k(M)$
 - Corresponding inverse/decryption function $D_k(M)$
 - Keyed permutation on an N bit block:
If you don't know the key, it should be indistinguishable from a random permutation
 - If you change a single bit of either the input or the key, the output should look totally different
 - E.g. AES: 128b data blocks, keys are 128, 192, 256 (AES-128, AES-192, AES-256)
- Block Cipher Mode
 - A way of repeatedly applying a block cipher on a longer message:
Goal is to make it independent under chosen plaintext attacks

Reminder Of Primitives So-Far:

Hash Function

- Hash takes an arbitrary message M and reduces it to a fixed size
 - Should be indistinguishable from a random number
 - Change a single bit on the input \rightarrow Output looks like a completely different random number
 - SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512: SHA2 family outputting 256b, 384b, 512b
 - SHA3-256, SHA3-384, SHA3-512: SHA3 family
- Irreversible & resists collisions
 - Intractable given $H(X)$ to determine X
(1st Preimage Resistant)
 - Intractable given X , $H(X)$, find $X' \neq X$ such that $H(X) = H(X')$
(2nd Preimage Resistant)
 - Intractable to find any X , X' , $X' \neq X$ such that $H(X) = H(X')$
(Collision Resistant)

Reminder Of Primitives So-Far:

MAC

- MAC takes an arbitrary message M and a key K creating a fixed-length tag
 - $MAC(M, K) \rightarrow T$
 - Without K , it is infeasible to create M' such that $MAC(M', K) \rightarrow T$
 - Without K , it is infeasible to create M', T' such that $MAC(M', K) \rightarrow T'$
 - But with K , of course you can create a valid M', T' pair
 - And for some MACs create M' which MACs to T
- Several alternatives but only One True MAC to use:
HMAC
 - Construct using hash functions to create a MAC:
Has all the previous properties of a hash plus all the properties of a MAC

Reminder Of Primitives So-Far:

pRNG (Pseudo Random Number Generator)

- Three operations:
 - seed(entropy): Set internal state based on arbitrarily long, truly random inputs
 - update(entropy): Add in additional entropy
Update with 0-entropy should not degrade internal state
 - generate(length): Generate an n bit string that should be indistinguishable from random
- If you know the internal state it is fully predictable
- If you don't it should be indistinguishable from random
- HMAC_DRBG is the absolute best
 - Also has rollback resistance, if you learned the internal state at time T , you can't predict previous outputs

Public Key...

- All our previous primitives required a "miracle":
 - We somehow have to have Alice and Bob get a shared k .
- Enter Public Key cryptography: the miracle of modern cryptography
 - How starting Friday, but *what* today
- Three primitives:
 - Public Key Agreement (previous Ephemeral Diffie/Hellman)
 - Public Key Encryption
 - Public Key Signatures
- Based on some families of magic math...
 - For us, we will use some group-theory based primitives

Public Key Agreement

- Alice and Bob have a channel...
 - There may be an eavesdropper *but not a manipulator*
- The goal: Alice & Bob agree on a *random* value
 - This will be *k* for all subsequent communication
- When done, the key is thrown away
 - Designed to prevent an attacker who later recovers Alice or Bob's long lived secrets from finding *k*.

Reminder of Primitives So Far:

Ephemeral Diffie/Hellman Key Exchange

- Public values: prime p , generator g
 - Elliptic curve: different magic math, fewer bits (256b/384b instead of 2048b/3096b for the same security)
- Alice creates random a , $0 < a < p$, computes $A = g^a \bmod p$, sends it
- Bob creates random b , $0 < b < p$, computes $B = g^b \bmod p$, sends it
- Alice computes $B^a \bmod P = g^{ab} \bmod P = K$
- Bob computes $A^b \bmod P = g^{ab} \bmod P = K$
- Thought to be hard to go backwards (discrete log) to a given A

Public Key Encryption

- Alice has **two** keys:
 - K_{pub} : Her public key, anyone can know
 - K_{priv} : Her private key, a deep dark secret
 - Sometimes written as K_{alice} , K^{-1}_{alice}
- Anyone has access to Alice's public key
- For anyone to send a message to Alice:
 - Create a random session key k
 - Used to encrypt the rest of the message
 - Encrypt k using Alice's K_{pub} .
- Only Alice can **decrypt** the message
 - The decryption function only works with K_{priv} !

Public Key Signatures

- Once again, Alice has **two** keys:
 - K_{pub} : Her public key, anyone can know
 - K_{priv} : Her private key, a deep dark secret
- She can sign a message
 - Calculate $H(M)$
 - $S(K_{priv}, H(M))$: Sign $H(M)$ with K_{priv} .
- Anyone can now verify
 - Recalculate $H(M)$
 - $V(K_{pub}, S(K_{priv}, H(M)), H(M))$: Verify that the signature was created with K_{priv}

Things To Remember...

- Public key is ***slow!***
 - Orders of magnitude slower than symmetric key
- Public key is based on delicate magic math
 - Discrete log in a group is the most common
 - RSA
 - Some new "post-quantum" magic...
- Some systems in particular are easy to get wrong
 - We will get to some of the epic crypto-fails later

Our Roadmap For Public Key...

- Public Key:
 - Something **everyone** can know
- Private Key:
 - The secret belonging to a specific person
- Diffie/Hellman:
 - Provides key exchange with no pre-shared secret
- ElGamal & RSA:
 - Provide a message to a recipient only knowing the recipient's **public key**
- DSA & RSA signatures:
 - Provide a message that anyone can prove was generated with a **private key**

Public Key Cryptography #1: RSA

- Alice generates two **large** primes, **p** and **q**
 - They should be generated randomly:
Generate a large random number and then use a "primality test":
A **probabilistic** algorithm that checks if the number is prime
- Alice then computes **$n = p * q$** and **$\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$**
 - **$\phi(n)$** is Euler's totient function, in this case for a composite of two primes
 - **n** is big: 2048b to 4096b long!
- Chose random **$2 < e < \phi(n)$**
 - **e** also needs to be relatively prime to **$\phi(n)$** but it can be small
- Solve for **$d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$**
 - You can't solve for **d** without knowing **$\phi(n)$** , which requires knowing **p** and **q**
- **n**, **e** are public, **d**, **p**, **q**, and **$\phi(n)$** are secret

RSA Encryption

- Bob can easily send a message m to Alice:
 - Bob computes $c = m^e \bmod n$
 - Without knowing d , it is believed to be intractable to compute m given c , e , and n
 - But if you can get p and q , you can get d :
It is ***not known*** if there is a way to compute d without also being able to factor n , but it is known that if you can factor n , you can get d .
 - And factoring is ***believed*** to be hard to do
- Alice computes $m = c^d \bmod n = m^{ed} \bmod n$
- Time for some math magic...

RSA Encryption/Decryption, con't

- So we have: $D(C, K_D) = (M^{e \cdot d}) \bmod n$
- Now recall that d is the **multiplicative inverse** of e , modulo $\phi(n)$, and thus:
 $e \cdot d = 1 \bmod \phi(n)$ (by definition)
 $e \cdot d - 1 = k \cdot \phi(n)$ for some k
- Therefore $D(C, K_D) = M^{e \cdot d} \bmod n = (M^{e \cdot d - 1}) \cdot M \bmod n$
 $= (M^{k \phi(n)}) \cdot M \bmod n$
 $= [(M^{\phi(n)})^k] \cdot M \bmod n$
 $= (1^k) \cdot M \bmod n$ *by Euler's Theorem: $a^{\phi(n)} \bmod n = 1$*
 $= M \bmod n = M$

(believed) Eve can recover M from C iff Eve can factor $n=p \cdot q$

But It Is Not That Simple...

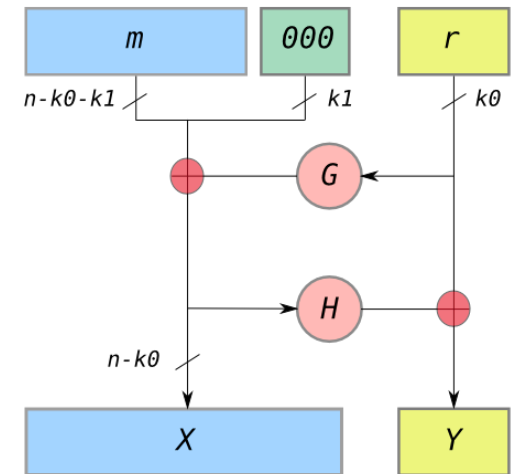
- What if Bob wants to send the same message to Alice twice?
 - Sends $m^{e_a} \bmod n_a$ and then $m^{e_a} \bmod n_a$
 - Oops, not IND-CPA!
- What if Bob wants to send a message to Alice, Carol, and Dave:
 - $m^{e_a} \bmod n_a$
 $m^{e_b} \bmod n_b$
 $m^{e_c} \bmod n_c$
 - This ends up leaking information an eavesdropper can use *especially* if $3 = e_a = e_b = e_c$!
- Oh, and problems if both **e** and **m** are small...
- As a result, you **can not** just use plain RSA:
 - You need to use a "padding" scheme that makes the input random but reversible



RSA-OAEP

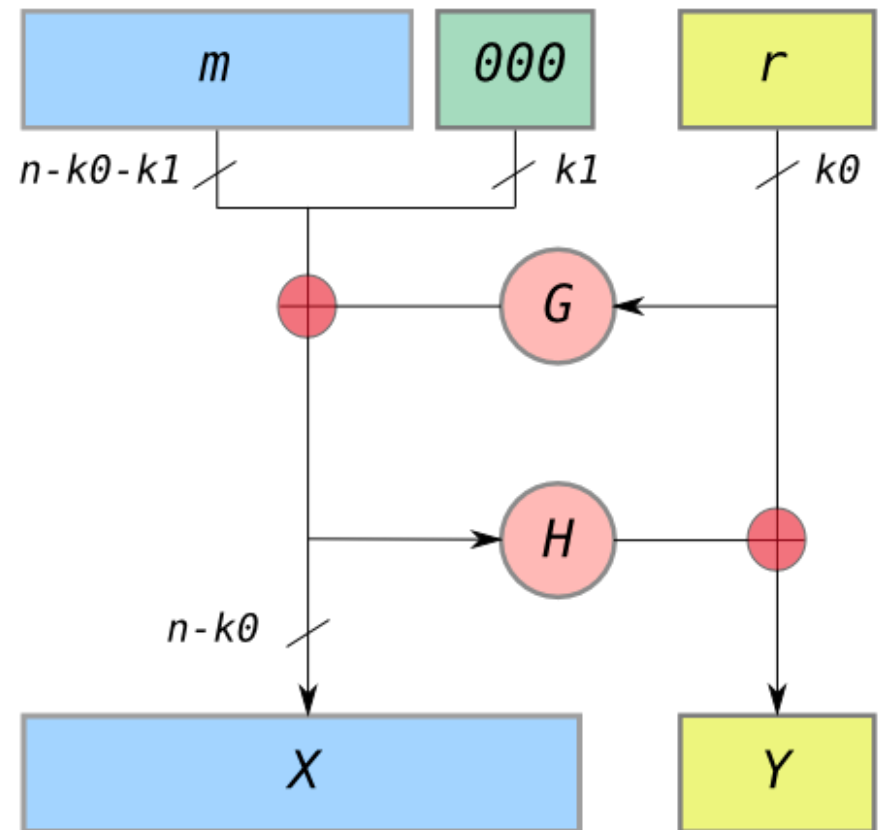
(Optimal asymmetric encryption padding)

- A way of processing m with a hash function & random bits
- Effectively "encrypts" m replacing it with $X = [m, 0...] \oplus G(r)$
 - G and H are hash functions (EG SHA-256)
 $k_0 = \#$ of bits of randomness, $\text{len}(m) + k_1 + k_0 = n$
- Then replaces r with $Y = H(G(r) \oplus [m, 0...]) \oplus R$
- This structure is called a "Feistel network":
 - It is always designed to be reversible.
Many block ciphers are based on this concept applied multiple times with G and H being functions of k rather than just fixed operations
- This is more than just block-cipher padding (which involves just adding simple patterns)
- Instead it serves to both pad the bits and make the data to be encrypted "random"



So How Does This Work?

- G and H are not (necessarily) reversible
 - EG, for OAEP it is a hash function:
Designed to mix in the randomness and make it uniform
 - Needed for RSA because we want to only ever encrypt "random" values with the public key
 - And since r is random and G is a hash, m is xor'ed with random...
 - Which is then hashed and XOR'ed back into r to produce Y
- But XOR is!
 - So we do $H(X)$ xor Y to recover r
 - And now $G(r)$ xor X to recover m



But Its Not That Simple...

Timing Attacks

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- Using normal math, the **time** it takes for Alice to decrypt **c** depends on **c** and **d**
 - Ruh roh, this can leak information...
 - More complex RSA implementations take advantage of knowing **p** and **q** directly... but also leak timing
- People have used this to guess and then check the bits of **q** on OpenSSL
 - <http://crypto.stanford.edu/~dabo/papers/ssl-timing.pdf>
- And even more subtle things are possible...

```
x = C
for j = 1 to n
  x = mod(x2, N)
  if dj == 1 then
    x = mod(xC, N)
  end if
next j
return x
```



So How to Find Bob's Key?

- Lots of stuff later, but for now...
The Leap of Faith!
- Alice wants to talk to Bob:
 - "Hey, Bob, tell me your public key!"
- Now on all subsequent times...
 - "Hey, Bob, tell me your public key", and check to see if it is different from what Alice remembers
- Works assuming the ***first time*** Alice talks to Bob there isn't a Man-in-the-Middle
 - ssh uses this

RSA Signatures...

- Alice computes a hash of the message $H(m)$
 - Alice then computes $s = (H(m))^d \bmod n$
- Anyone can then verify
 - $v = s^e \bmod m = ((H(m))^d)^e \bmod n = H(m)$
- Once again, there are "F-U"s...
 - Have to use a proper encoding scheme to do this properly and all sort of other traps
 - One particular trap: a scenario where the attacker can get Alice to repeatedly sign things (an "oracle")



But Signatures Are Super Valuable...

- They are how we can prevent a MitM!
- If Bob knows Alice's key, and Alice knows Bob's...
- Alice doesn't just send a message to Bob...
 - But creates a random key k ...
 - Sends $E(M, K_{\text{sess}})$, $E(K_{\text{sess}}, B_{\text{pub}})$, $S(H(M), A_{\text{priv}})$
- Only Bob can decrypt the message, and Bob can verify the message came from Alice
 - So Mallory is SOL!

RSA Isn't The Only Public Key Algorithm

- Isn't RSA enough?
 - RSA isn't particularly compact or efficient: dealing with 2000b (comfortably secure) or 3000b (NSA-paranoia) bit operations
 - Can we get away with fewer bits?
 - Well, Diffie-Hellman isn't any better...
 - But **elliptic curve** Diffie-Hellman is
- RSA also had some patent issues
 - So an attempt to build public key algorithms around the Diffie-Hellman problem

El-Gamal

- Just like Diffie-Hellman...
 - Select \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{g}
 - These are public and can be shared:
Note, they need to be carefully considered how to create \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{g} ...
Math beyond the level of this class
- Alice chooses \mathbf{x} randomly as her private key
 - And publishes $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{x}} \bmod \mathbf{p}$ as her public key
- Bob, to encrypt \mathbf{m} to Alice...
 - Selects a *random* \mathbf{y} , calculates $\mathbf{c}_1 = \mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{y}} \bmod \mathbf{p}$, $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{h}^{\mathbf{y}} \bmod \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} \bmod \mathbf{p}$
 - \mathbf{s} becomes a shared secret between Alice and Bob
 - Maps message \mathbf{m} to create \mathbf{m}' , calculates $\mathbf{c}_2 = \mathbf{m}' * \mathbf{s} \bmod \mathbf{p}$
- Bob then sends $\{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2\}$

El-Gamal Decryption

- Alice first calculates $s = c_1^x \bmod p$
 - Then Alice calculates $m' = c_2 * s^{-1} \bmod p$
 - Then Alice calculates the inverse of the mapping to get m
- Of course, there are problems...
 - Attacker can always change m' to $2m'$
 - What if Bob screws up and reuses y ?
 - $c_2 = m_1' * s \bmod p$
 $c_2' = m_2' * s \bmod p$
 - Ruh roh, this leaks information:
 $c_2 / c_2' = m_1' / m_2'$
 - So if you know $m_1...$



In Practice: Session Keys...

- You use the public key algorithm to encrypt/agree on a session key..
 - And then encrypt the real message with the session key
 - You **never** actually encrypt the message itself with the public key algorithm
 - Often a set of keys: encrypt and MAC keys that are separate in each direction
- Why?
 - Public key is **slow**... Orders of magnitude slower than symmetric key
 - Public key may cause weird effects:
 - EG, El Gamal where an attacker can change the message to **2m**...
 - If **m** had meaning, this would be a problem
 - But if it just changes the encryption and MAC keys, the main message won't decrypt

DSA Signatures...

- Again, based on Diffie-Hellman
 - Two initial parameters, **L** and **N**, and a hash function **H**
 - **L** == key length, eg 2048
 - **N** <= **len(H)**, e.g. 256
 - An N-bit prime **q**, an L-bit prime **p** such that **p - 1** is a multiple of **q**, and **g** = **h^{(p-1)/q} mod p** for some arbitrary **h** ($1 < h < p - 1$)
 - **{p, q, g}** are public parameters
 - Alice creates her own random private key **x** < **q**
 - Public key **y** = **g^x mod p**

Alice's Signature...

- Create a random value $k < q$
 - Calculate $r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$
 - If $r = 0$, start again
 - Calculate $s = k^{-1} (H(m) + xr) \bmod q$
 - If $s = 0$, start again
 - Signature is $\{r, s\}$ (Advantage over an El-Gamal signature variation: Smaller signatures)
- Verification
 - $w = s^{-1} \bmod q$
 - $u_1 = H(m) * w \bmod q$
 - $u_2 = r * w \bmod q$
 - $v = (g^{u_1} y^{u_2} \bmod p) \bmod q$
 - Validate that $v = r$

But Easy To Screw Up...

- **k** is not just a nonce... It must be random and **secret**
 - If you know **k**, you can calculate **x**
- And even if you just reuse a random **k**... for two signatures **s_a** and **s_b**
 - A bit of algebra proves that $\mathbf{k} = (\mathbf{H}_A - \mathbf{H}_B) / (\mathbf{s}_a - \mathbf{s}_b)$
- A good reference:
 - How knowing **k** tells you **x**:
<https://rdist.root.org/2009/05/17/the-debian-gpg-disaster-that-almost-was/>
 - How two signatures tells you **k**:
<https://rdist.root.org/2010/11/19/dsa-requirements-for-random-k-value/>



And ***NOT*** theoretical: Sony Playstation 3 DRM

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- The PS3 was designed to only run ***signed*** code
 - They used ECDSA as the signature algorithm
 - This prevents unauthorized code from running
 - They had an ***option*** to run alternate operating systems (Linux) that they then removed
- Of course this was catnip to reverse engineers
 - Best way to get people interested: ***remove*** Linux from a device...
- It turns for out one of the key authentication keys used to sign the firmware...
 - Ended up reusing the same k for multiple signatures!



And **NOT** Theoretical: Android RNG Bug + Bitcoin

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- OS Vulnerability in 2013
Android "SecureRandom" wasn't actually secure!
- Not only was it low entropy, it would occasionally return the **same value multiple times**
- Multiple Bitcoin wallet apps on Android were affected
 - "Pay B Bitcoin to Bob" is signed by Alice's public key using ECDSA
 - Message is broadcast publicly for all to see
 - So you'd have cases where "Pay B to Bob" and "Pay C to Carol" were signed with the same **k**
- So **of course** someone scanned for **all** such Bitcoin transactions



And ***Still*** Happens! Chromebook

- Chromebooks have a built in U2F "Security key"
 - Enables signatures using 256b ECDSA to validate to particular websites
- There was a bug in the secure hardware!
 - Instead of using a random k that was 256b long, a bug caused it to be 32b long!
 - So an attacker who had a signature could simply try all possible k values!
- Fortunately in this case the damage was slight: this is for authenticating to a single website: each site used its own private key
- But still...
- <https://www.chromium.org/chromium-os/u2f-ecdsa-vulnerability>



So What To Use?

- Paranoids like me:
Good libraries and use the parameters from NSA's CNSA suite
 - Open algorithms approved for Top Secret communication
 - Better yet, libraries that implement full protocols that use these under the hood!
- Symmetric cipher: AES: 256b
 - CFB mode, thankyouverymuch. Counter mode and modes which include counter mode can DIAF...
- Hash function: SHA-384
 - Use HMAC for MAC
- RSA: 3072b
- Diffie/Hellman: 3072b
- ECDH/ECDSA: P-384
- But really, this is extra paranoid:
2048b RSA/DH, 256b EC, 128b AES, SHA-256 excellent in practice

How Can We Communicate With Someone New?

- Public-key crypto gives us amazing capabilities to achieve confidentiality, integrity & authentication without shared secrets ...
- But how do we solve MITM attacks?
- How can we trust we have the true public key for someone we want to communicate with?
- Ideas?

Trusted Authorities

- Suppose there's a party that everyone agrees to trust to confirm each individual's public key
 - Say the Governor of California
- Issues with this approach?
 - How can everyone agree to trust them?
 - Scaling: huge amount of work; single point of failure ...
 - ... and thus Denial-of-Service concerns
 - How do you know you're talking to the right authority??



Trust Anchors

- Suppose the trusted party distributes their key so everyone has it ...







Gavin Newson's Public Key is
0x6a128b3d3dc67edc74d690b19e072f64



Trust Anchors

- Suppose the trusted party distributes their key so everyone has it ...
- We can then use this to bootstrap trust
 - As long as we have confidence in the decisions that that party makes

Digital Certificates

- Certificate (“cert”) = signed claim about someone’s public key
 - More broadly: a signed *attestation* about some claim
- Notation:
 - $\{ M \}_K$ = “message M encrypted with public key k”
 - $\{ M \}_{K^{-1}}$ = “message M signed w/ private key for K”
- E.g. M = “Nick's public key is $K_{\text{Nick}} = 0xF32A99B...$ ”
Cert: M,
 - $\{ \text{“Nick's public key ... } 0xF32A99B... \text{”} \}_{K^{-1}_{\text{Gavin}}}$
 - $= 0x923AB95E12...9772F$

Certificate



Gavin Newsom hereby asserts:

Nick's public key is $K_{\text{Nick}} = \mathbf{0xF32A99B...}$

The signature for this statement using

K_{Gavin}^{-1} is $\mathbf{0x923AB95E12...9772F}$

Certificate



Gavin Newsom hereby asserts:

Nick's public key is $K_{\text{Nick}} = \mathbf{0xF32A99B...}$

The signature for this statement using

K^{-1} **This** is $\mathbf{0x923AB95E12...9772F}$

Certificate



Gavin Newsom hereby asserts:

Nick's public key is $K_{\text{Nick}} = 0xF32A99B...$

The signature *is* computed over all of this

K_{Gavin}^{-1} is $0x923AB95E12...9772F$

Certificate



Gavin Newsom hereby asserts:

Nick's public key is $K_{\text{Nick}} = \mathbf{0xF32A99B...}$

The signature for this statement using

K_{Gavin}^{-1} is $\mathbf{0x923AB95E12...9772F}$

and can be
validated using:

Certificate



This:

Gavin Newsom hereby asserts:

Nick's public key is K_{Nick}

The signature for this st

K_{Gavin}^{-1} is **0x923AB95**



If We Find This Cert Shoved Under Our Door ...

- What can we figure out?
 - If we know Gavin's key, then whether he indeed signed the statement
 - If we trust Gavin's decisions, then we have confidence we really have Nick's key
- Trust = ?
 - Gavin won't willy-nilly sign such statements
 - Gavin won't let his private key be stolen

Analyzing Certs Shoved Under Doors ...

- **How** we get the cert doesn't affect its utility
- **Who** gives us the cert doesn't matter
 - They're not any more or less trustworthy because they did
 - Possessing a cert doesn't establish any identity!
- However: if someone demonstrates they can decrypt data encrypted with K_{nick} , then we have high confidence they possess K^{-1}_{Nick}
 - Same for if they show they can sign “using” K^{-1}_{Nick}

Scaling Digital Certificates

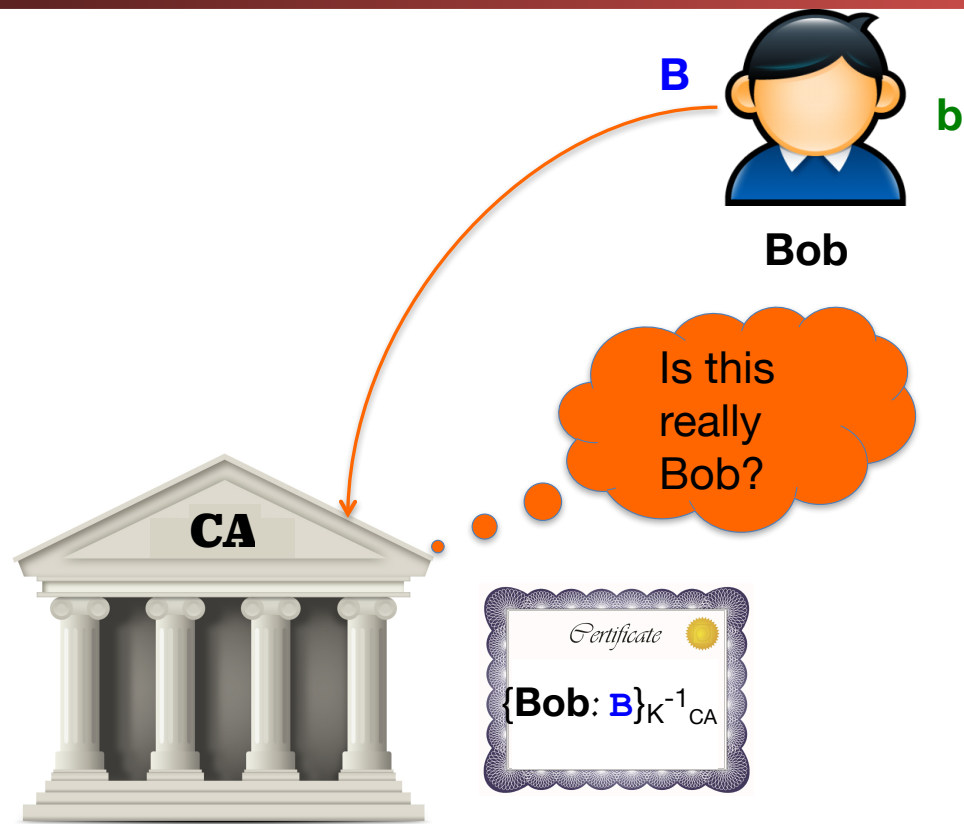
- How can this possibly scale? Surely Gavin can't sign everyone's public key!
- Approach #1: Introduce hierarchy via delegation
 - { "Michael V. Drake's public key is 0x... and I trust him to vouch for UC" } K^{-1}_{Gavin}
 - { "Carol Christ's public key is 0x... and I trust her to vouch for UCB" } K^{-1}_{Mike}
 - { "John Canny's public key is 0x... and I trust him to vouch for CS" } K^{-1}_{Carol}
 - { "Nick Weaver's public key is 0x..." } K^{-1}_{John}

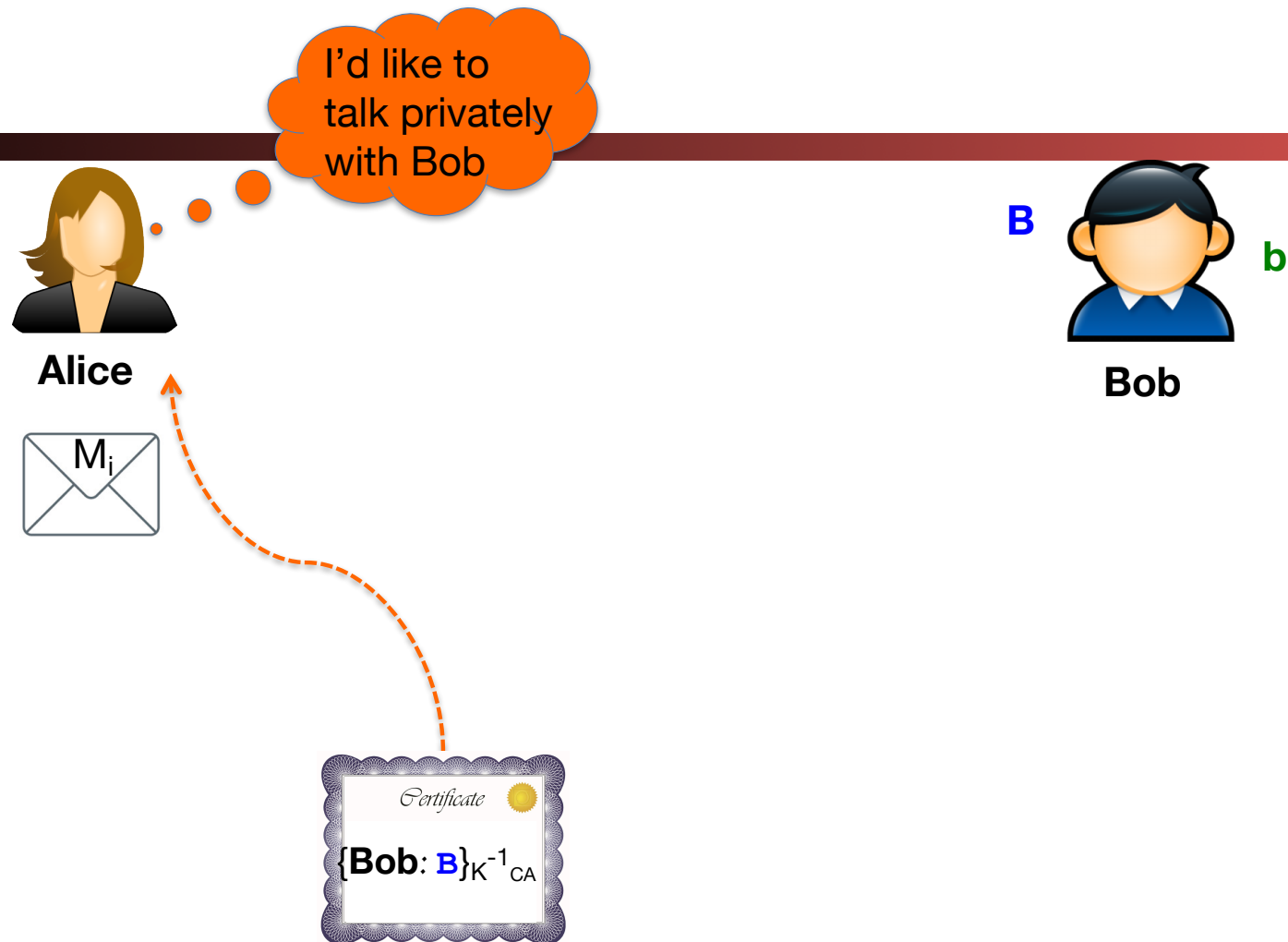
Scaling Digital Certificates, con't

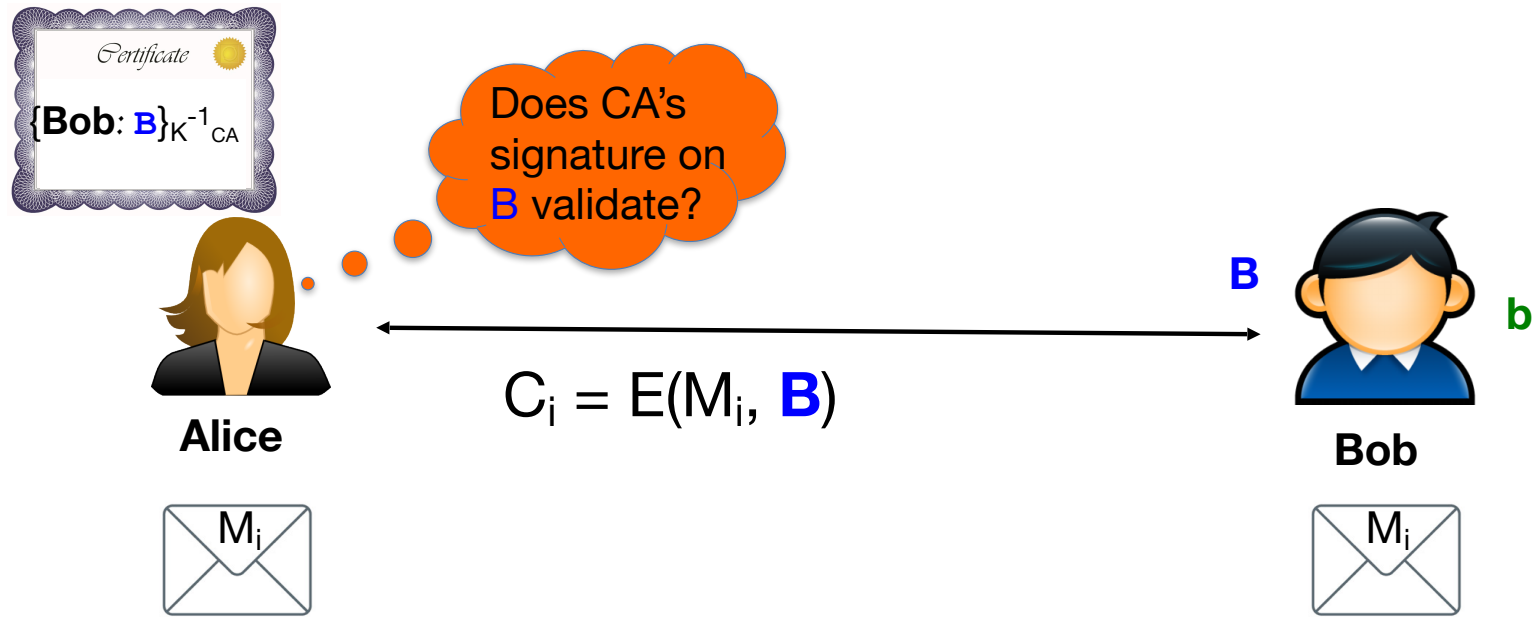
- I put this last certificate on my web page
 - (or shoves it under your door)
- Anyone who can gather the intermediary keys can validate the chain
 - They can get these (other than Gavin's) from anywhere because they can validate them, too
 - In fact, I may as well just include those certs as well, just to make sure you don't have to go search for them
- Approach #2: have multiple trusted parties who are in the business of signing certs ...
 - (The certs might also be hierarchical, per Approach #1)

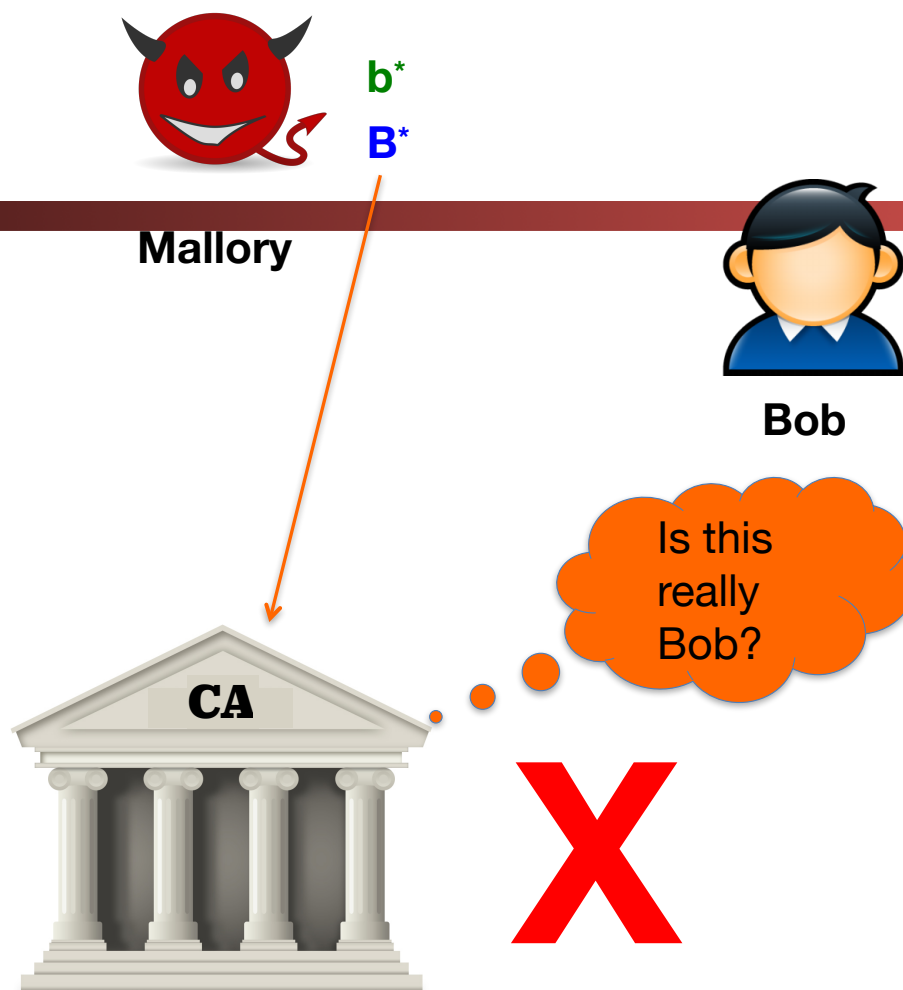
Certificate Authorities

- CAs are trusted parties in a Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)
- They can operate offline
 - They sign (“cut”) certs when convenient, not on-the-fly (... though see below ...)
- Suppose Alice wants to communicate confidentially w/ Bob:
 - Bob gets a CA to issue {Bob’s public key is B} K_{CA}^{-1}
 - Alice gets Bob’s cert any old way
 - Alice uses her known value of K_{CA} to verify cert’s signature
 - Alice extracts B, sends $\{M\}K_B$ to Bob



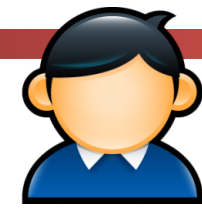






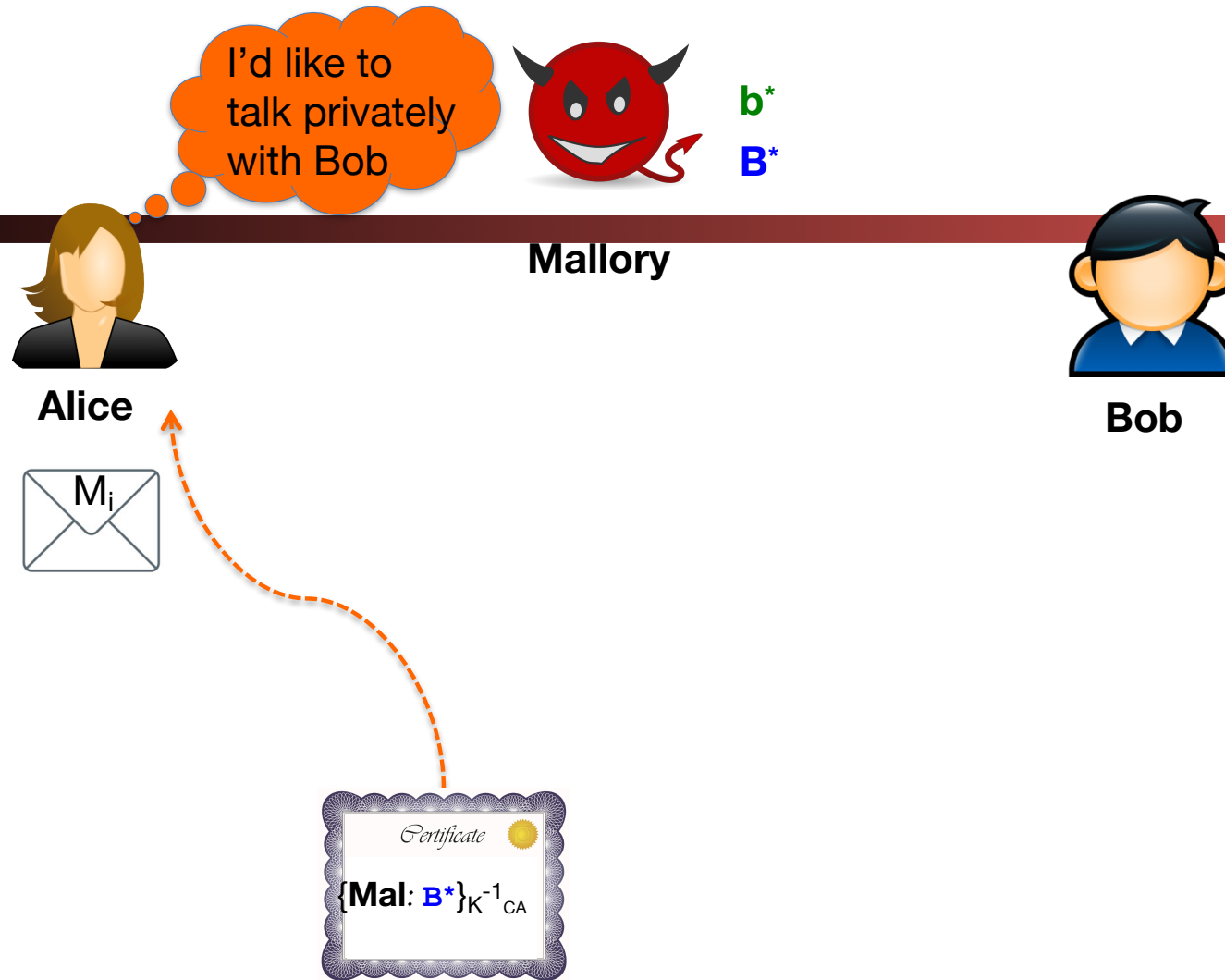


Mallory



Bob







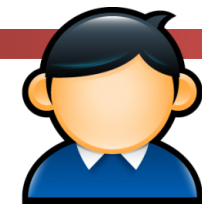
b^*
 B^*



Alice



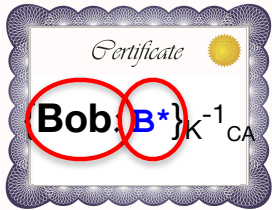
Mallory



Bob

Revocation

- What do we do if a CA screws up and issues a cert in Bob's name to Mallory?



I'd like to
talk privately
with Bob



b^*
 B^*

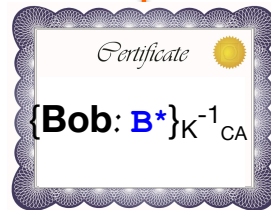
Mallory



Alice



Bob



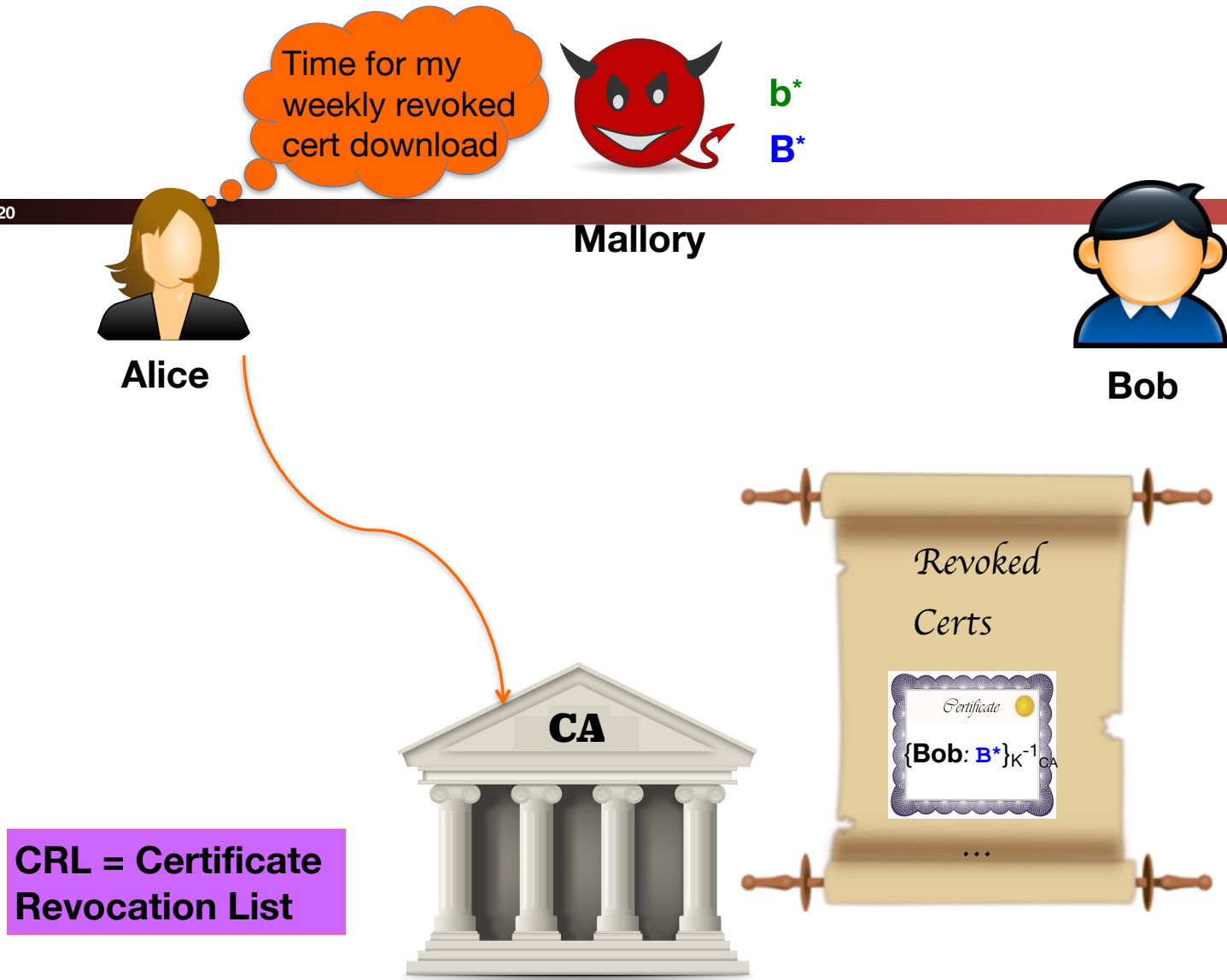
Revocation

- What do we do if a CA **screws up** and issues a cert in Bob's name to Mallory?
 - E.g. Verisign issued a **Microsoft.com** cert to a **Random Joe**
 - (Related problem: Bob realizes **b** has been **stolen**)
- **How do we recover from the error?**
- **Approach #1: expiration dates**
 - Mitigates possible damage
 - But adds management burden
 - Benign failures to renew will break normal operation
 - LetsEncrypt decided to make this VERY short to force continual updating



Revocation, con't

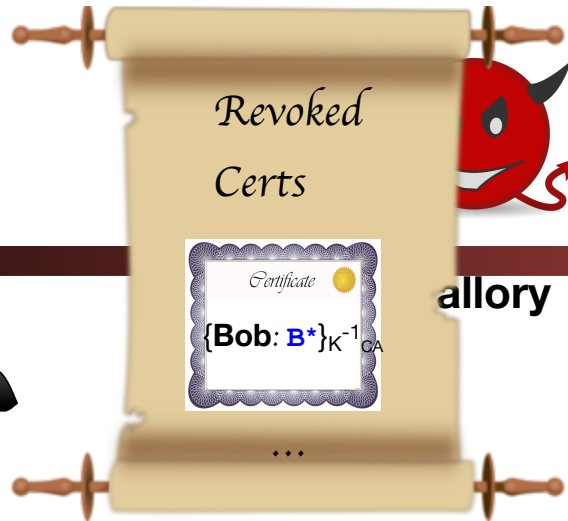
- Approach #2: announce revoked certs
 - Users periodically download cert revocation list (CRL)



Oof!



Alice



b^*
 B^*



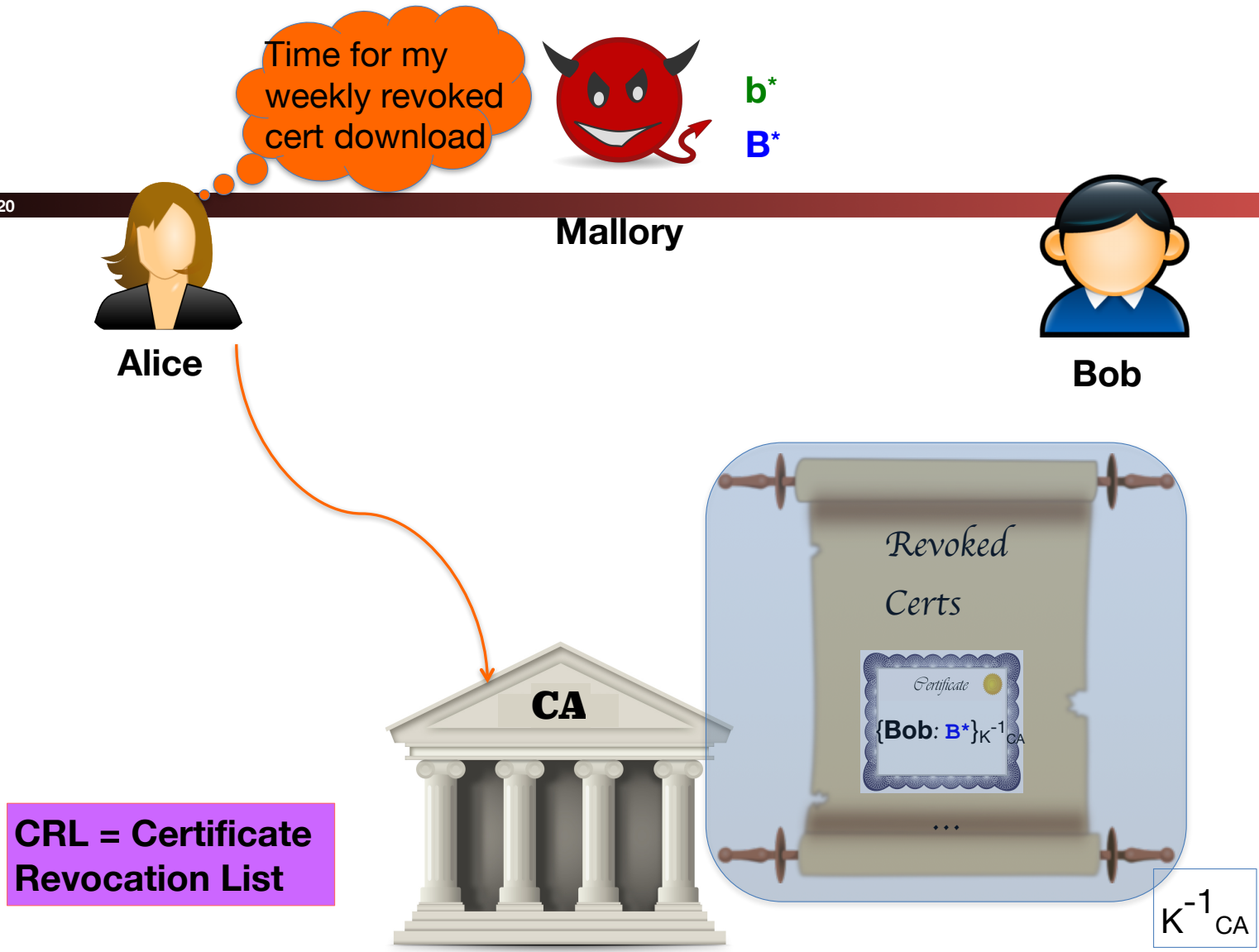
Bob

CRL = Certificate
Revocation List



Revocation, con't

- Approach #2: announce revoked certs
 - Users periodically download cert revocation list (CRL)
- Issues?
 - Lists can get large
 - Need to authenticate the list itself – how?



Revocation, con't

- Approach #2: announce revoked certs
 - Users periodically download cert revocation list (CRL)
- Issues?
 - Lists can get large
 - Need to authenticate the list itself – how? Sign it!
 - Mallory can exploit download lag
 - What does Alice do if can't reach CA for download?
 - Assume all certs are invalid (fail-safe defaults)
 - Wow, what an unhappy failure mode!
 - Use old list: widens exploitation window if Mallory can “DoS” CA (DoS = denial-of-service)



Biggest Problem is Often Complexity

- The X509 "standard" for certificates is incredibly complicated
 - Why? Because it tried to do everything...
- If you want your eyes to bleed...
 - <https://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc5280>
-

The (Failed) Alternative: The “Web Of Trust”

- Alice signs Bob's Key
 - Bob Sign's Carol's
- So now if Dave has Alice's key, Dave can believe Bob's key and Carol's key...
- Eventually you get a graph/web of trust...
- PGP started out with this model
 - You would even have PGP key signing parties
 - But it proved to be a disaster:
Trusting central authorities can make these problems so much simpler!