

Crypto

Part 3 of 3

CMSC 23200/33250, Winter 2020, Lecture 5

David Cash and Blase Ur

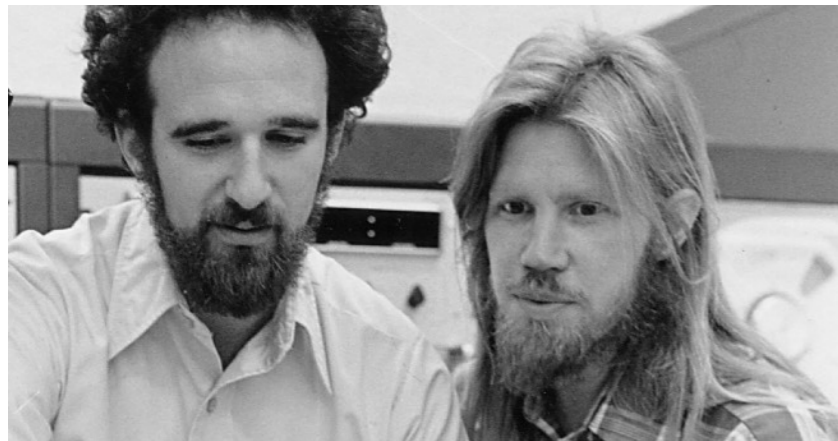
University of Chicago

Public-Key Encryption

Basic question: If two people are talking in the presence of an eavesdropper, and they don't have pre-shared a key, is there any way they can send private messages?

Public-Key Encryption

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Diffie and Hellman
in 1976: **Yes!**

*Turing Award, 2015,
+ Million Dollars*



Rivest, Shamir, Adleman
in 1978: **Yes, differently!**

*Turing Award, 2002,
+ no money*

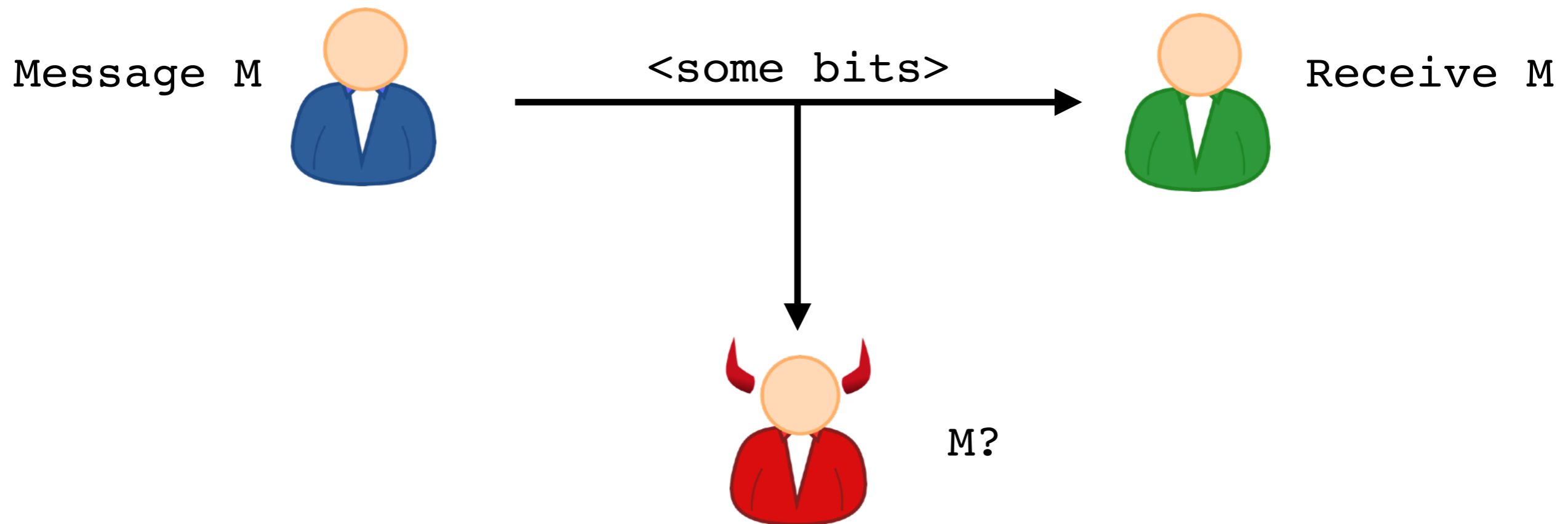


Cocks, Ellis, Williamson
in 1969, at GCHQ:
Yes, we know about both...

Pat on the back?

Public-Key Encryption

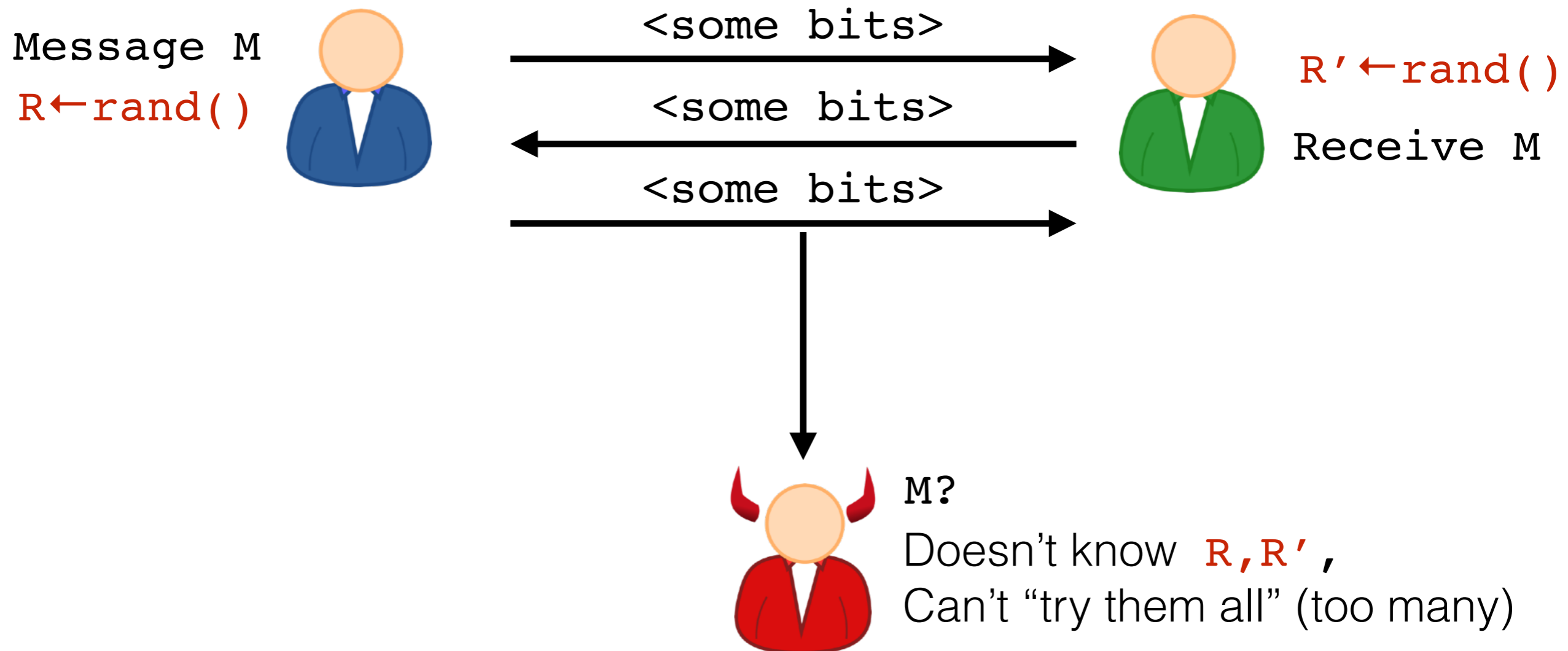
Basic question: If two people are talking in the presence of an eavesdropper, and they don't have pre-shared a key, is there any way they can send private messages?



Formally impossible (in some sense):
No difference between receiver and adversary.

Public-Key Encryption

Basic question: If two people are talking in the presence of an eavesdropper, and they don't have pre-shared a key, is there any way they can send private messages?

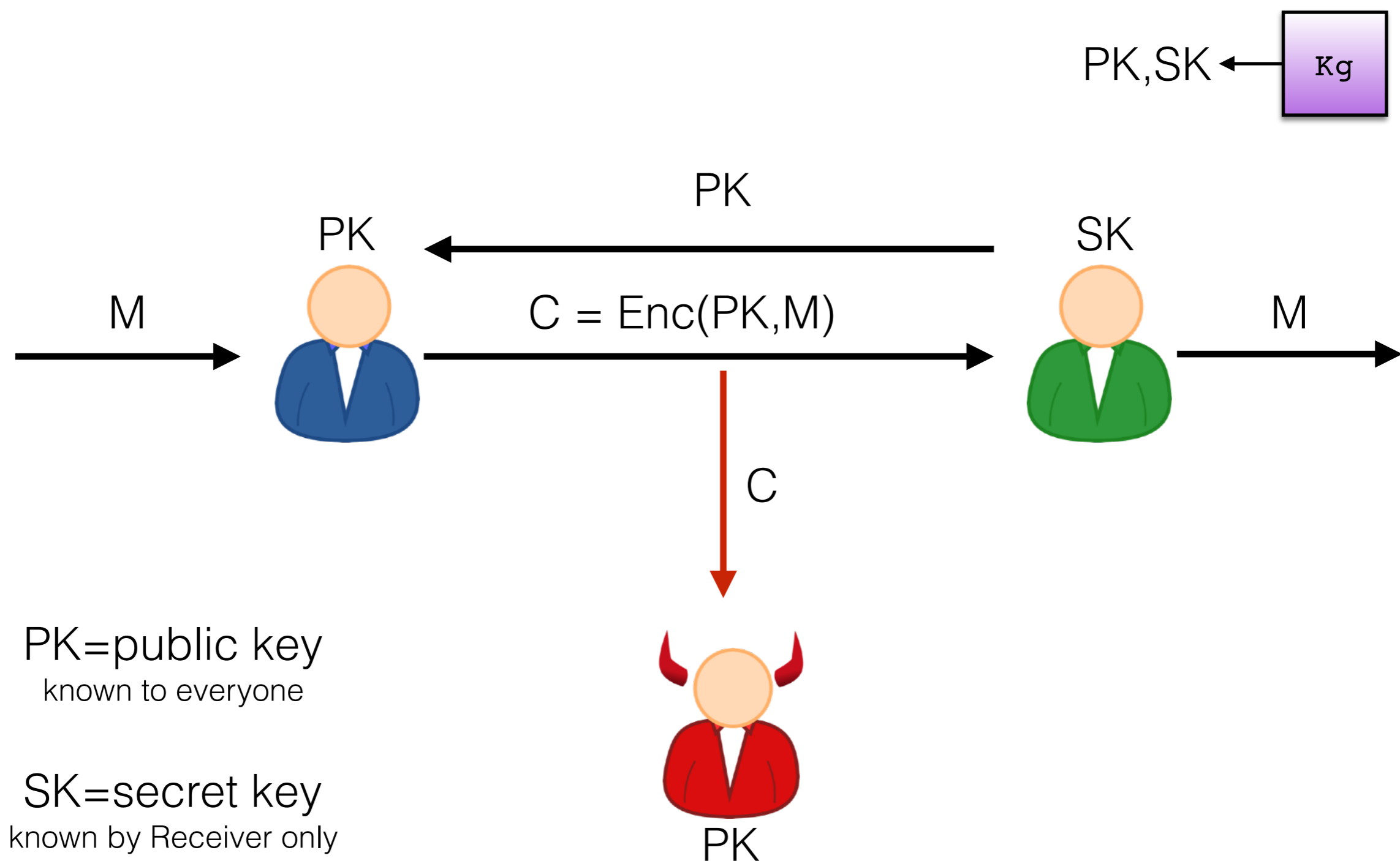


Public-Key Encryption

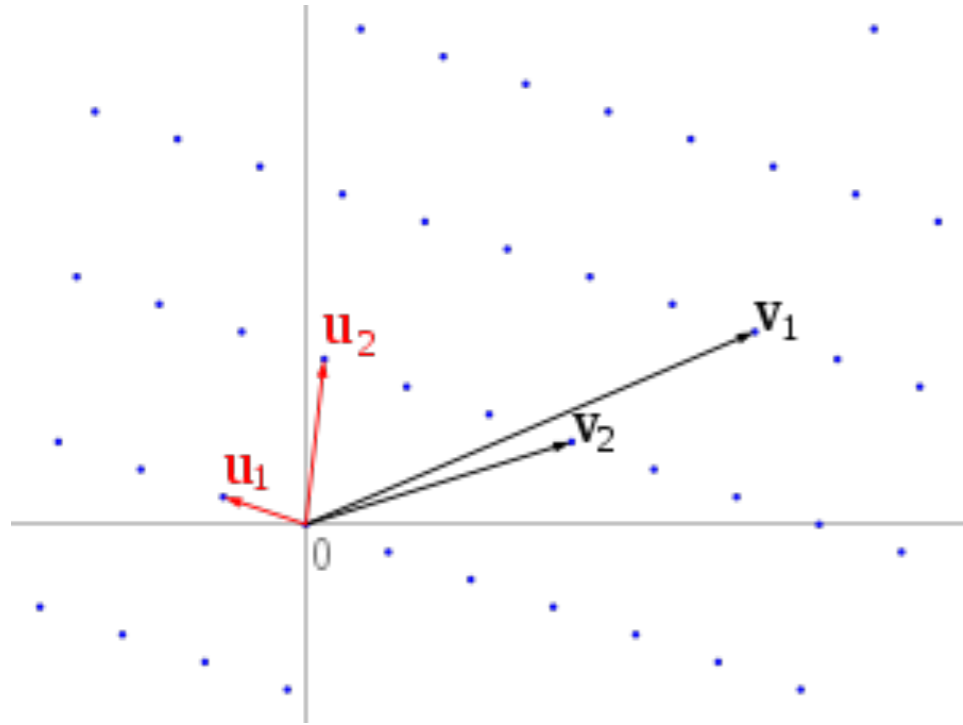
Definition. A public-key encryption scheme consists of three algorithms **Kg**, **Enc**, and **Dec**

- Key generation algorithm Kg, takes no input and outputs a (random) public-key/secret key pair (PK, SK)
- Encryption algorithm Enc, takes input the public key PK and the plaintext M , outputs ciphertext $C \leftarrow \text{Enc}(PK, M)$
- Decryption algorithm Dec, is such that
$$\text{Dec}(SK, \text{Enc}(PK, M)) = M$$

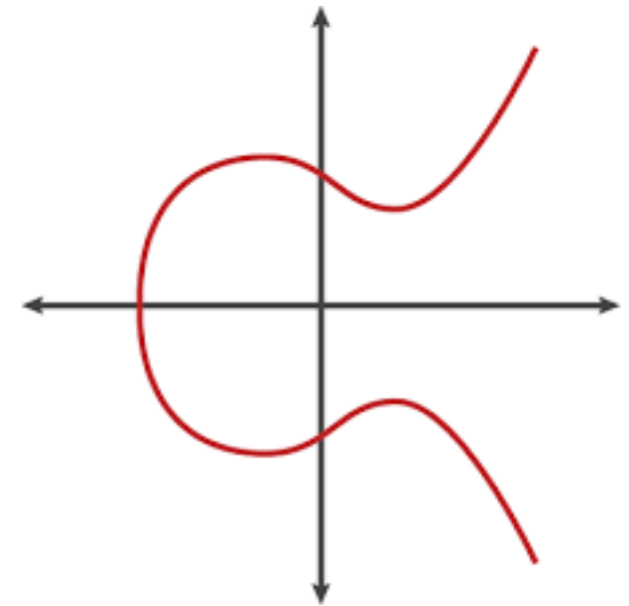
Public-Key Encryption in Action



All known Public-Key Encryption uses...



MATH



$$N = pq$$

Some RSA Math

Called “2048-bit primes”

RSA setup

p and q be large prime numbers (e.g. around 2^{2048})

$$N = pq$$

N is called the **modulus**

p=7, q=11 gives N=77

p=17 q=61 gives N=1037

Modular Arithmetic: Two sets

$$\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_N^* = \{i : \gcd(i, N) = 1\} \quad (\mathbb{Z}_N^* \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}_N)$$

\gcd = “greatest common divisor”

Examples:

$$\mathbb{Z}_{13}^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$$

Defintion: $\phi(N) = |\mathbb{Z}_N^*|$

$$\phi(13) = 12 \quad \phi(15) = 8$$

Modular Arithmetic

Definition

$x \bmod N$ means the remainder when x is divided by N .

$$\mathbb{Z}_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$$

$$2 \times 4 = 8 \bmod 15 \qquad 13 \times 8 = 14 \bmod 15$$

Theorem:

\mathbb{Z}_N^* is “closed under multiplication modulo N ”.

RSA “Trapdoor Function”

Lemma: Suppose $e, d \in \mathbb{Z}_{\phi(N)}^*$ satisfy $ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$. Then for any $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ we have that

$$(x^e)^d = x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$$

Example: $N = 15$, $\phi(N) = 8$, $e = 3$, $d = 3$

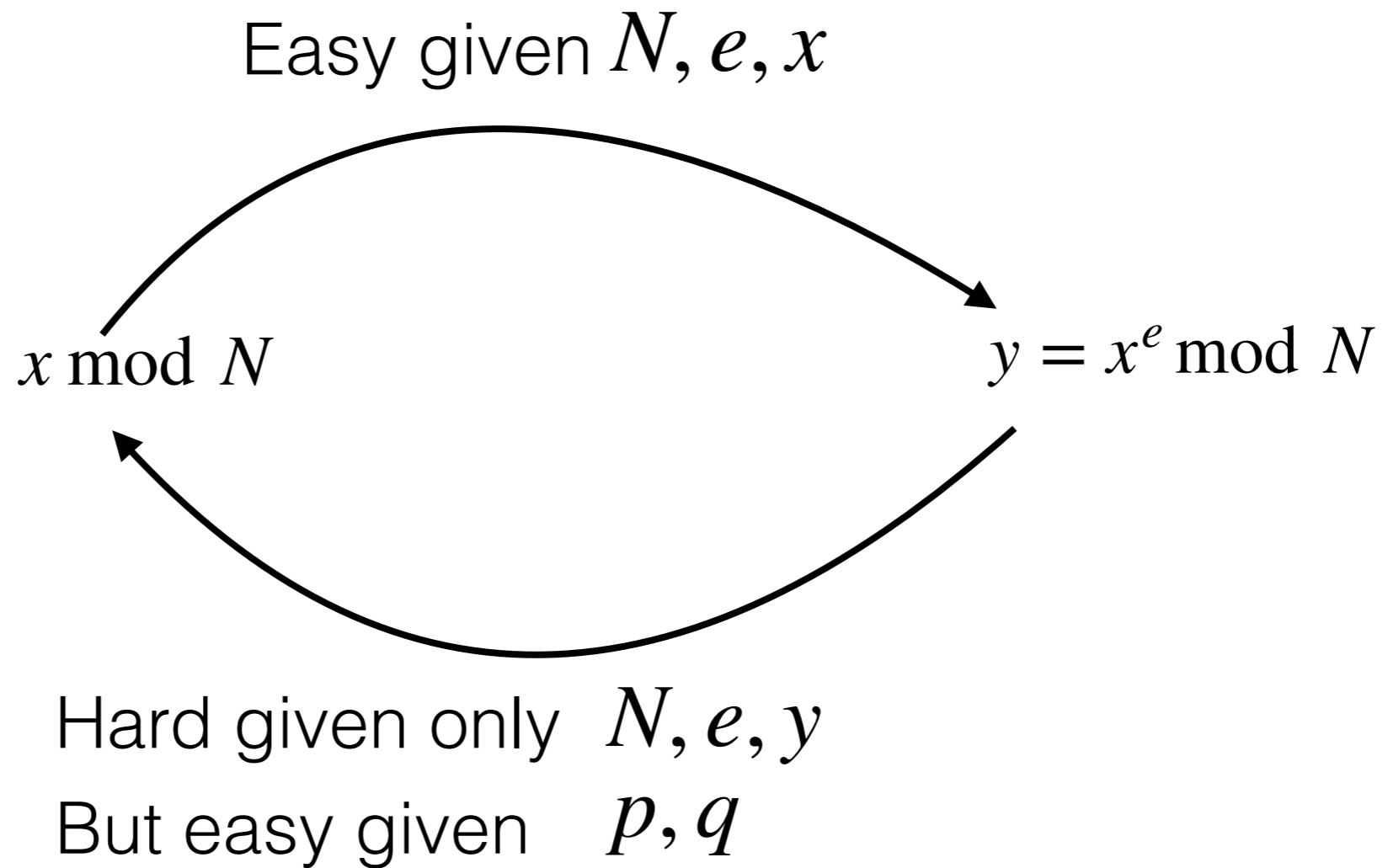
The satisfy condition in lemma: $ed = 3 \cdot 3 = 9 = 1 \pmod{8}$

So “powering by 3” always un-does itself.

$$(5^3)^3 = 5^9 = 1953125 = 5 \pmod{15}$$

Usually e and d are different.

RSA “Trapdoor Function”



Finding “e-th roots modulo N” is hard.

Contrast is usual arithmetic, where finding roots is easy.

RSA “Trapdoor Function”

$$PK = (N, e) \quad SK = (N, d) \quad \text{where} \quad N = pq, \quad ed = 1 \bmod \phi(N)$$

$$\text{Enc}((N, e), M) = M^e \bmod N$$

$$\text{Dec}((N, d), C) = C^d \bmod N$$

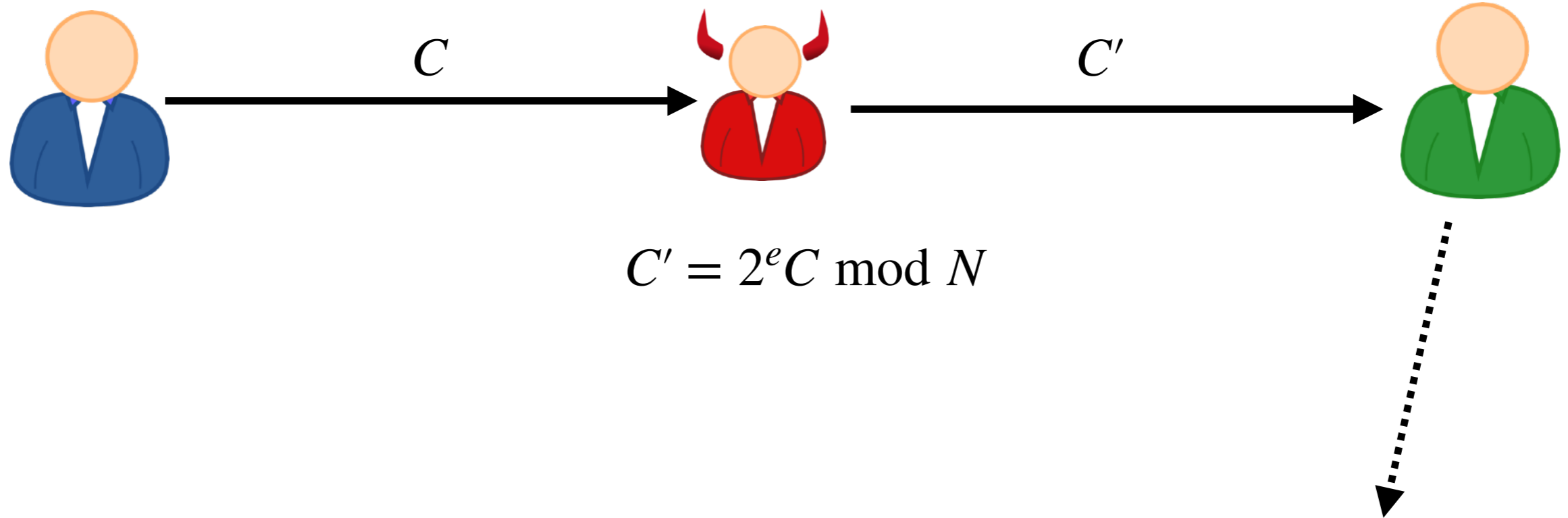
Messages and ciphertexts
are in \mathbb{Z}_N^*

Setting up RSA:

- Need two large random primes
- Have to pick e and then find d
- Don't worry about how exactly

Non-Integrity of the RSA Trapdoor Function

$$\text{Enc}((N, e), M) = M^e \bmod N = C$$



$$C' = 2^e C \bmod N$$

$$(C')^d = (2^e M^e)^d = (2M)^{ed} = 2M \bmod N$$

Encryption with the RSA Trapdoor Function?

$$\text{Enc}((N, e), M) = M^e \bmod N$$

$$\text{Dec}((N, d), C) = C^d \bmod N$$

Messages and ciphertexts
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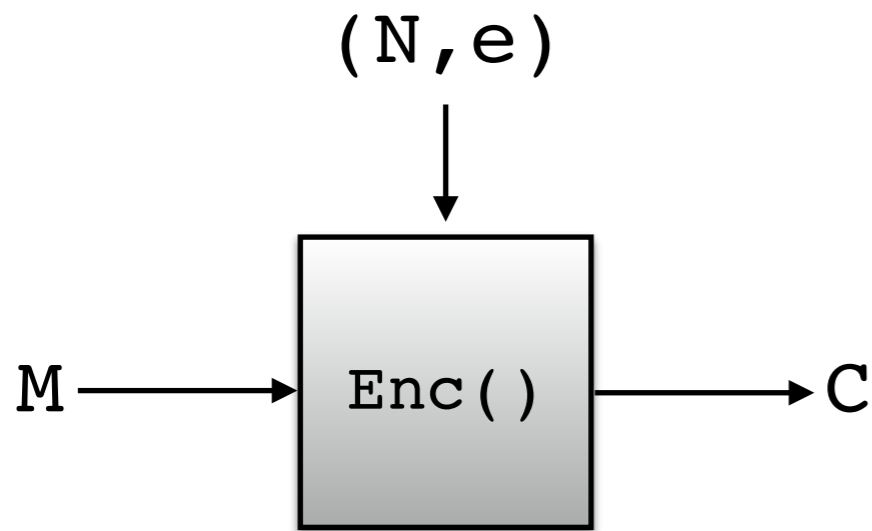
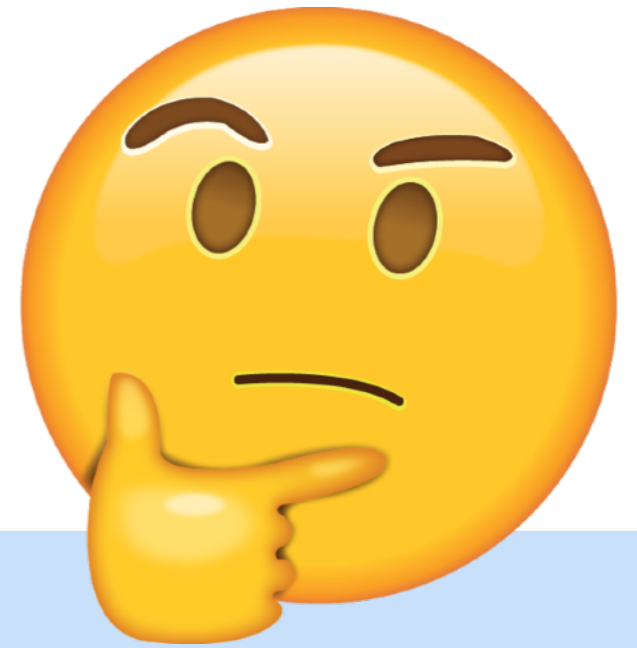
- Several problems
 - Encryption of 1 is 1
 - $e=3$ is popular. Encryption of 2 is 8... (no wrapping mod N)
 - RSA Trapdoor Function is deterministic

Solution: Pad input M using random (structured) bits.

- Serves purpose of padding **and** nonce/IV randomization

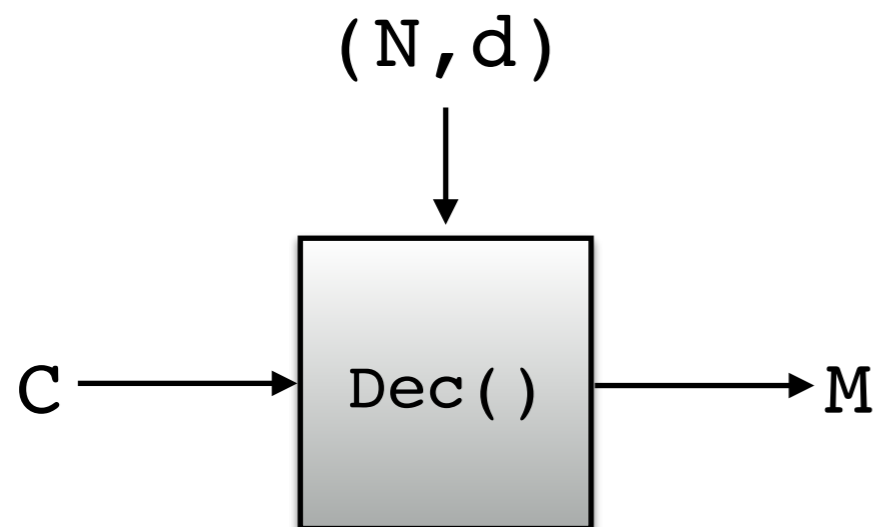
PKCS#1 v1.5 RSA Encryption

N: n-byte long integer.
Want to encrypt m-byte messages.



$\text{Enc}((N, e), M)$:

1. $\text{pad} \leftarrow (n-m-3)$ random non-zero bytes.
2. $X \leftarrow 00 || 02 || \text{pad} || 00 || M$
3. Output $X^e \bmod N$



$\text{Dec}((N, d), M)$:

1. $X \leftarrow C^d \bmod N$
2. Parse $X = aa || bb || \text{rest}$
3. If $aa \neq 00$ or $bb \neq 02$ or $00 \notin \text{rest}$:
Output ERROR
4. Parse $\text{rest} = \text{pad} || 00 || M$
5. Return M



Warning: Broken





Bleichenbacher's Padding Oracle Attack (1998)

$PK = (N, e)$



Want to
decrypt c

c'

ACCEPT or
REJECT

System
(e.g. webserver)
 $SK = (N, d)$

Infer something about
 $(c')^d \bmod N$

Info about x

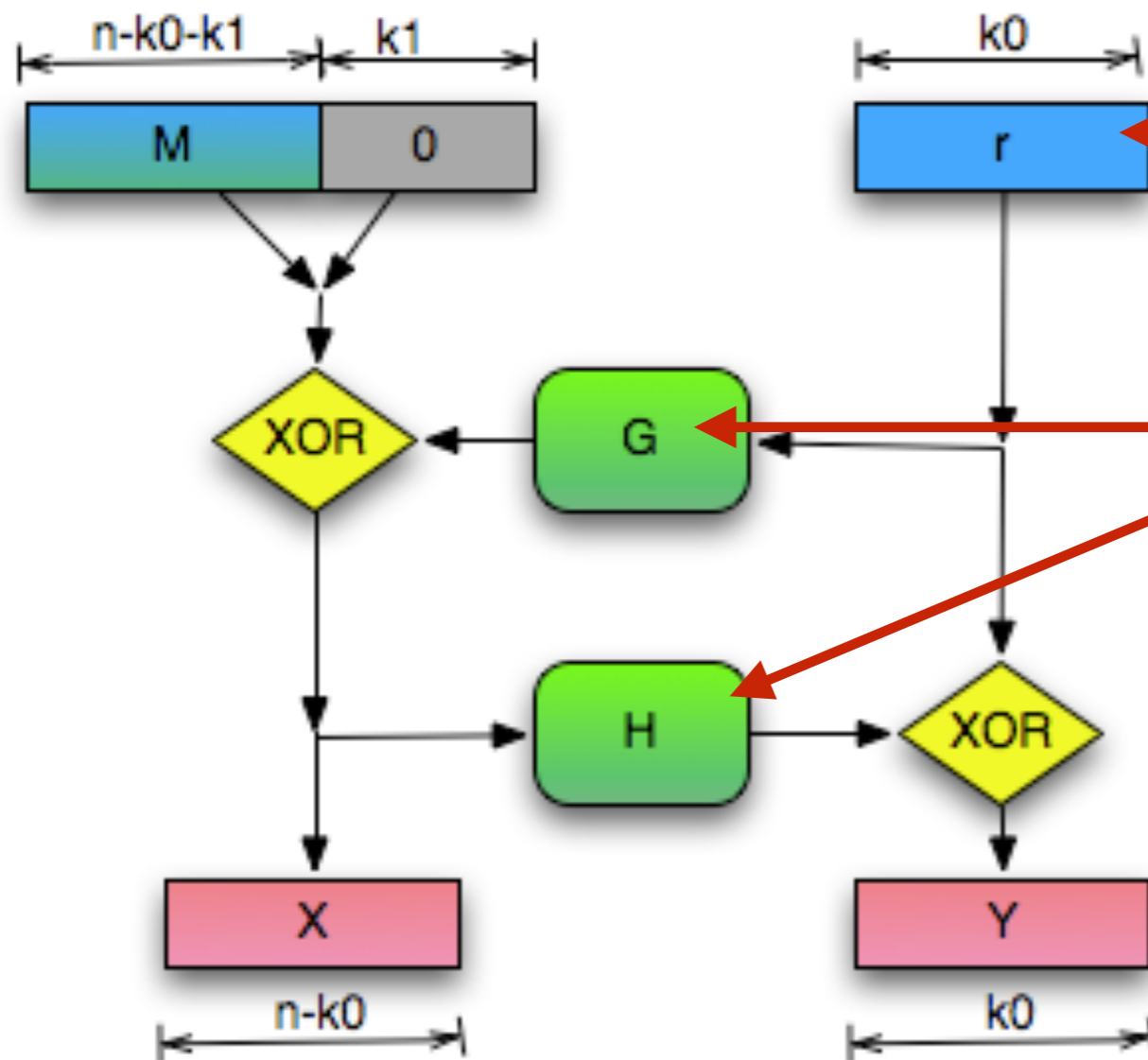
Originally needed millions of c' .
Best currently about 10,000.

$Dec((N, d), M)$:

1. $X \leftarrow C^d \bmod N$
2. Parse $X = aa || bb || rest$
3. If $aa \neq 00$ or $bb \neq 02$ or $00 \notin rest$:
 Output ERROR
4. Parse $rest = pad || 00 || M$
5. Return M

Better Padding: RSA-OAEP

RSA-OAEP [Bellare and Rogaway, '94]
prevents padding-oracle attacks with
better padding using a hash function.



random bytes

functions based on
hash functions

Uses “Feistel Network” (!)

(Then apply RSA trapdoor function.)

Security of RSA Trapdoor Function Against Inversion

Inverting RSA Trapdoor Function

Given N, e, y find x such that $x^e = y \pmod N$



If we know d ...

Compute $x = y^d \pmod N$



If we know $\varphi(N)$...

Compute $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\varphi(N)}$



If we know p, q ...

Compute $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$



But if we only know N ...

Learning p and q from N is called the *factoring problem*.

- In principle one may invert RSA without factoring N , but it is the only approach known.

Naive Factoring Algorithm

- Given input $N=901$, what are p, q ?

NaiveFactor(N):

```
1. For  $i=2 \dots \sqrt{N}$ :  
    If  $i$  divides  $N$ :  
        Output  $p=i, q=N/i$ 
```

- Runtime is $\sqrt{N} \ll N$
- But \sqrt{N} is still huge (e.g. $\sqrt{2^{2048}} = 2^{1024}$)

Factoring Algorithms

- If we can factor N , we can find d and break any version of RSA.

Algorithm	Time to Factor N
Naive: Try dividing by 1,2,3,...	$O(N^{.5}) = O(e^{.5 \ln(N)})$
Quadratic Sieve	$O(e^c)$ $c = (\ln N)^{1/2}(\ln \ln N)^{1/2}$
Number Field Sieve	$O(e^c)$ $c = 1.9(\ln N)^{1/3}(\ln \ln N)^{2/3}$

- Total break requires $c = O(\ln \ln N)$

Factoring Records

- Challenges posted publicly by RSA Laboratories

Bit-length of N	Year
400	1993
478	1994
515	1999
768	2009
795	2019

- Recommended bit-length today: 2048
- Note that fast algorithms force such a large key.
 - 512-bit N defeats naive factoring

Public-Key Encryption in Practice: Hybrid Encryption

- RSA runs reasonably fast but is orders of magnitude slower than symmetric encryption with AES.
 - My laptop...
 - Can encrypt 800 MB per second using AES-CBC
 - Can only evaluate RSA 1000 times per second

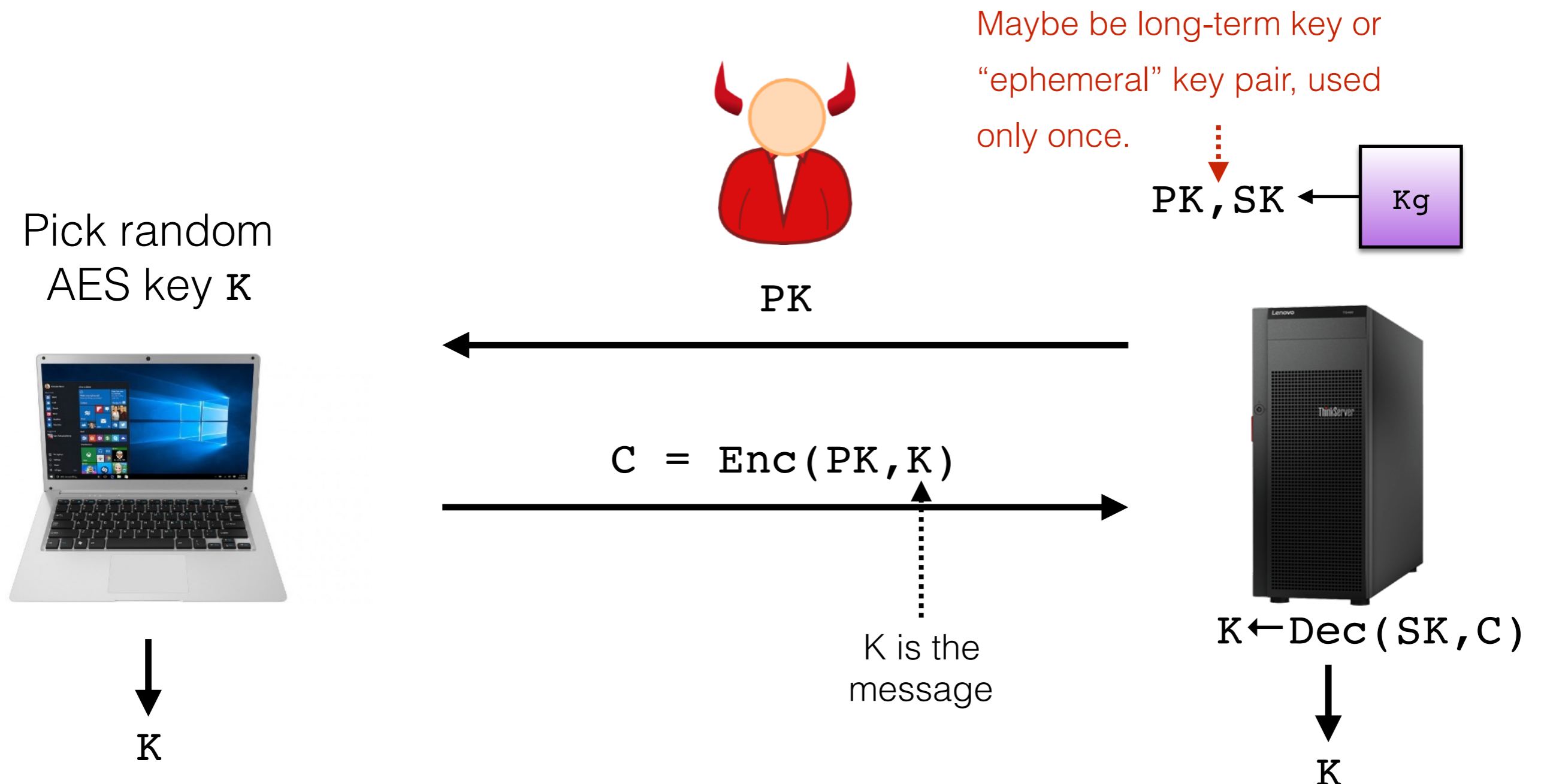
Solution: Use public-key encryption to send a 16-byte key K for AES. Then encrypt rest of traffic using authenticated encryption.

- Called “hybrid encryption”

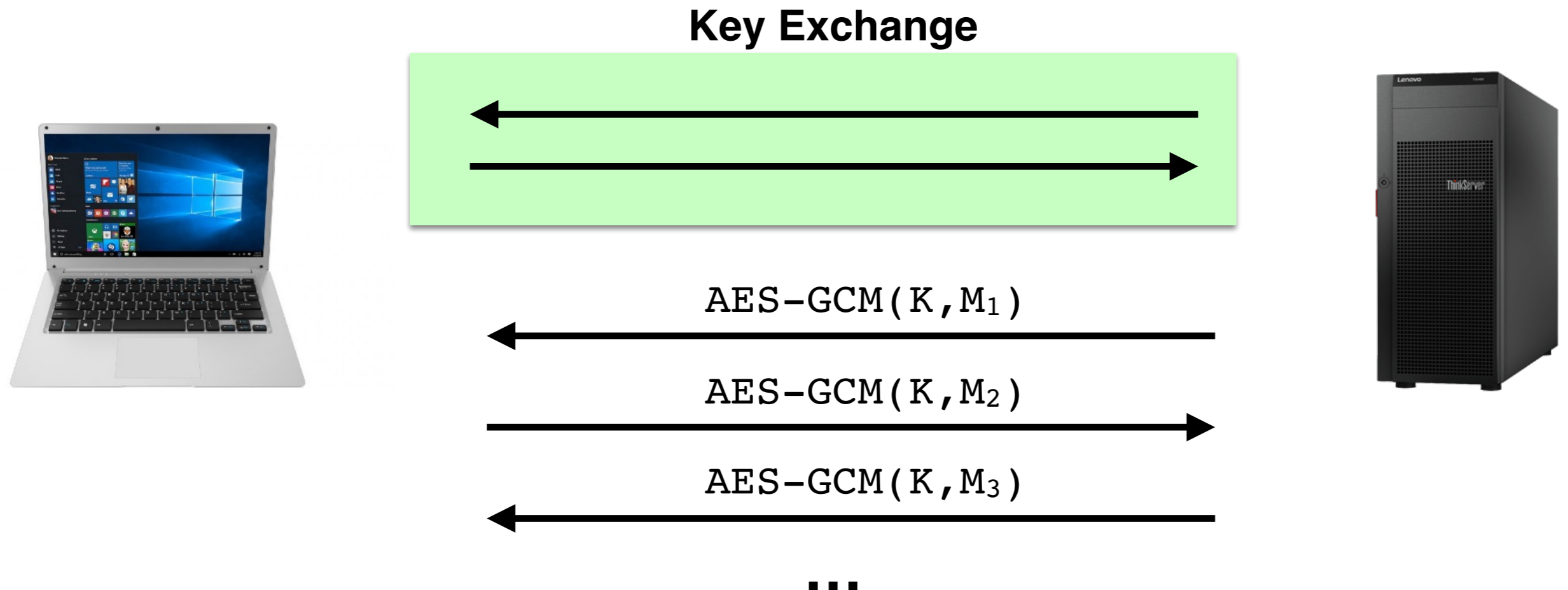
Key Exchange and Hybrid Encryption

(Kg, Enc, Dec) is a public-key encryption scheme.

Goal: Establish secret key K to use with Authenticated Encryption.



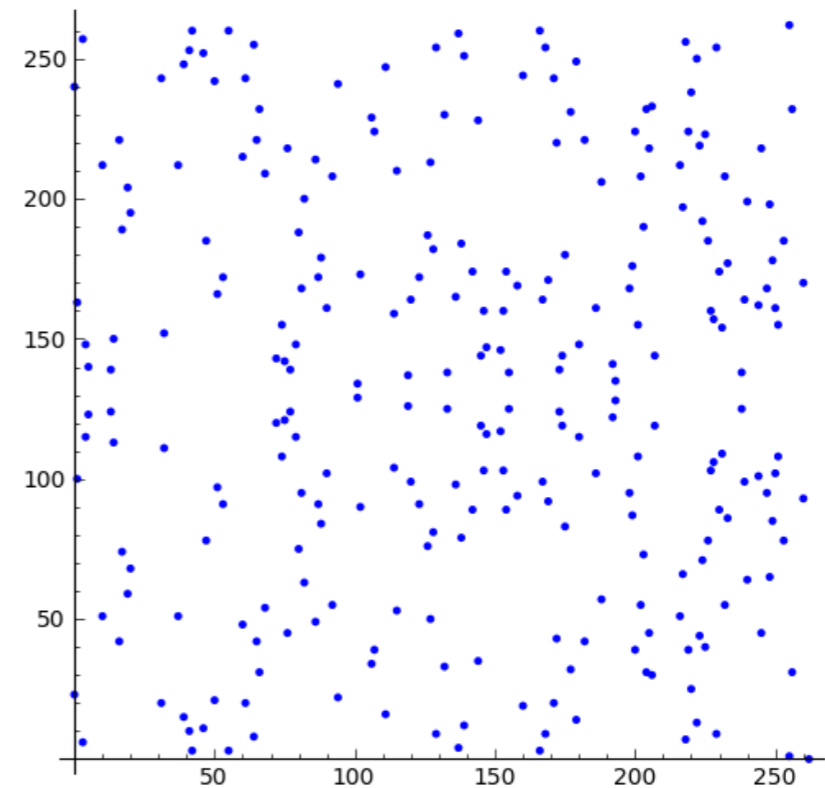
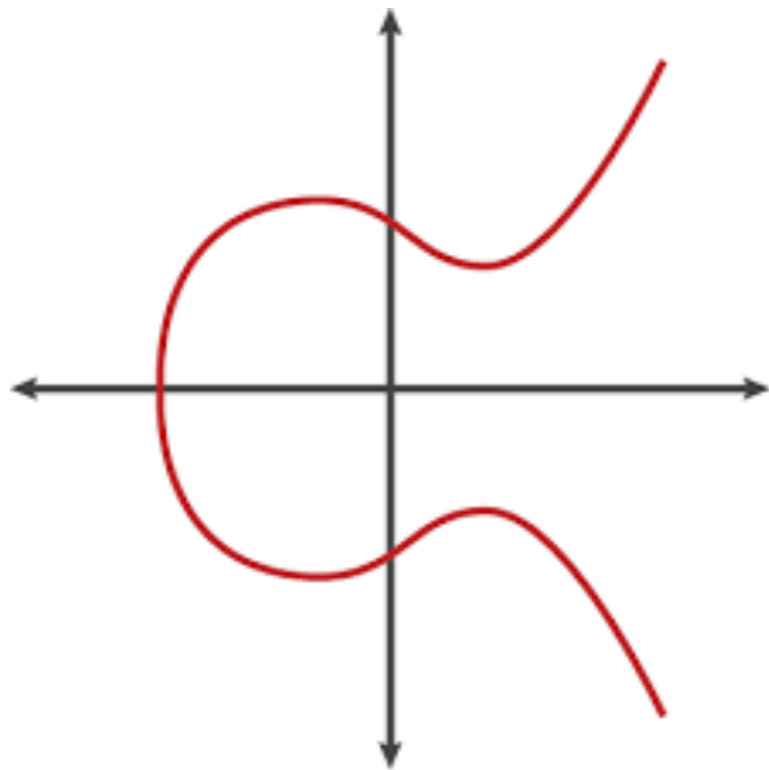
Key Exchange and Hybrid Encryption



- After up-front cost, bulk encryption is very cheap
- TLS/SSH (covered later) Terminology:
 - “Handshake” = key exchange
 - “Record protocol” = symmetric encryption phase

Key Exchange Going Forward: Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman

- Totally different math from RSA
- Advantage: Bandwidth and computation (due to higher security)
 - 256 bit vs 2048-bit messages.



- Will be covered when we do secure messaging!

Public-Key Encryption/Key Exchange Wrap-Up

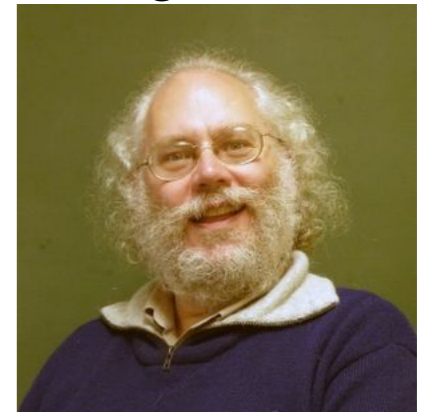
- RSA-OAEP and Diffie-Hellman (either mod a prime or in an elliptic curve) are unbroken and run fine in TLS/SSH/etc.
- Elliptic-Curve Diffie-Hellman is preferred choice going forward.

Huge quantum computers will break:

- RSA (any padding)
- Diffie-Hellman



Shor's algorithm, 1994

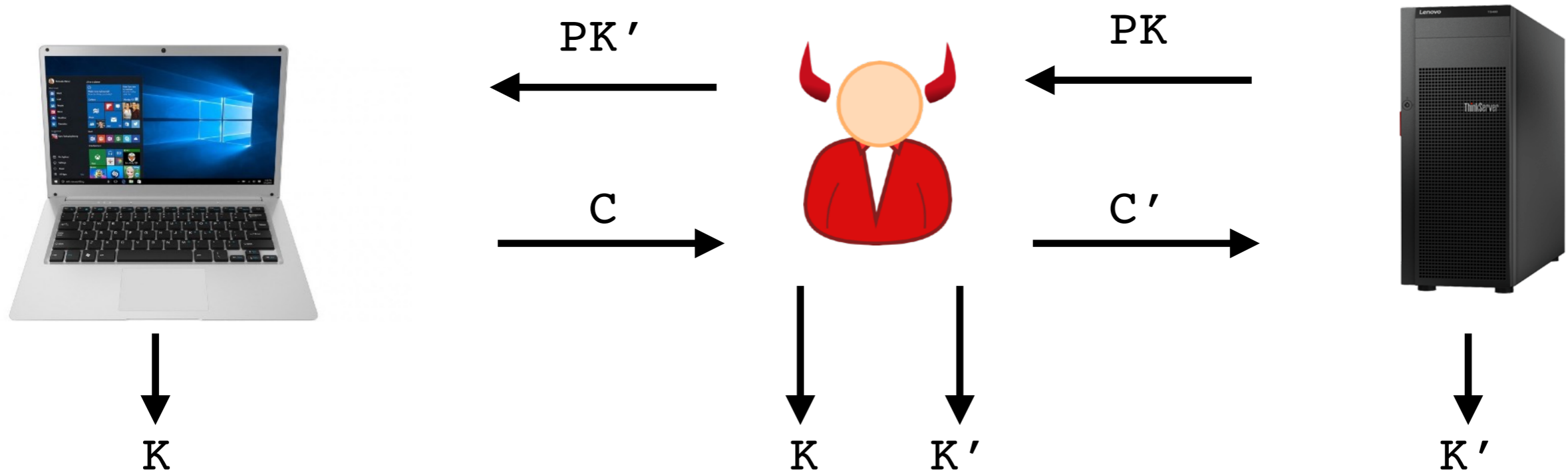


Peter Shor

- First gen quantum computers will be far from this large
- “Post-quantum” crypto = crypto not known to be broken by quantum computers (i.e. not RSA or DH)
- On-going research on post-quantum cryptography from hard problems on lattices, with first beta deployments in recent years

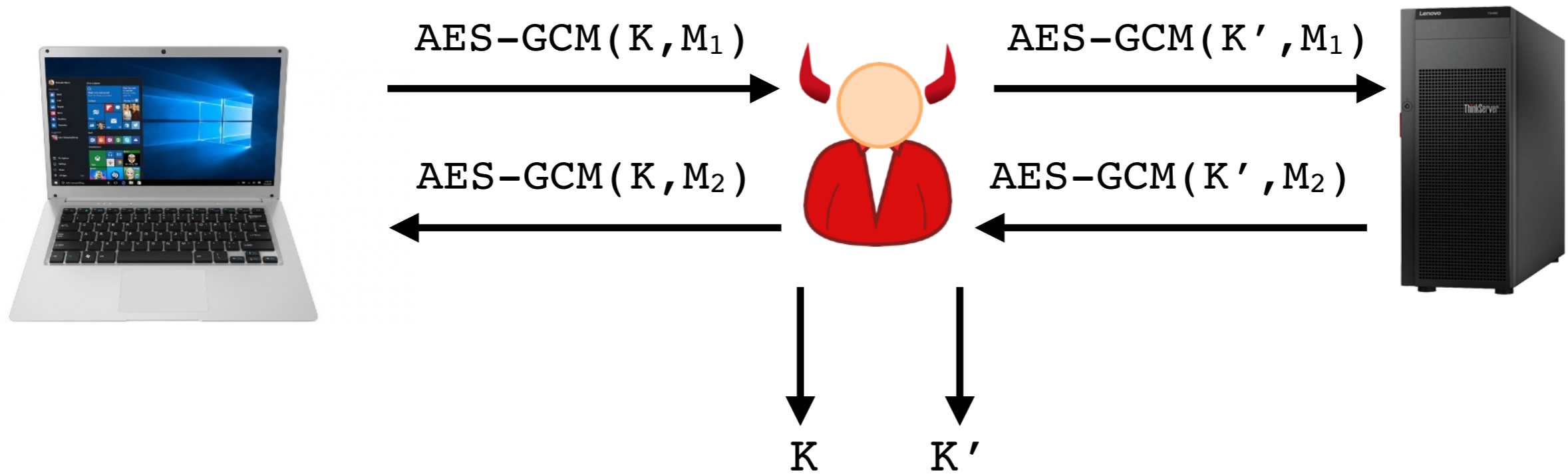
Key Exchange with a Person-in-the-Middle

Adversary may silently sit between parties and modify messages.

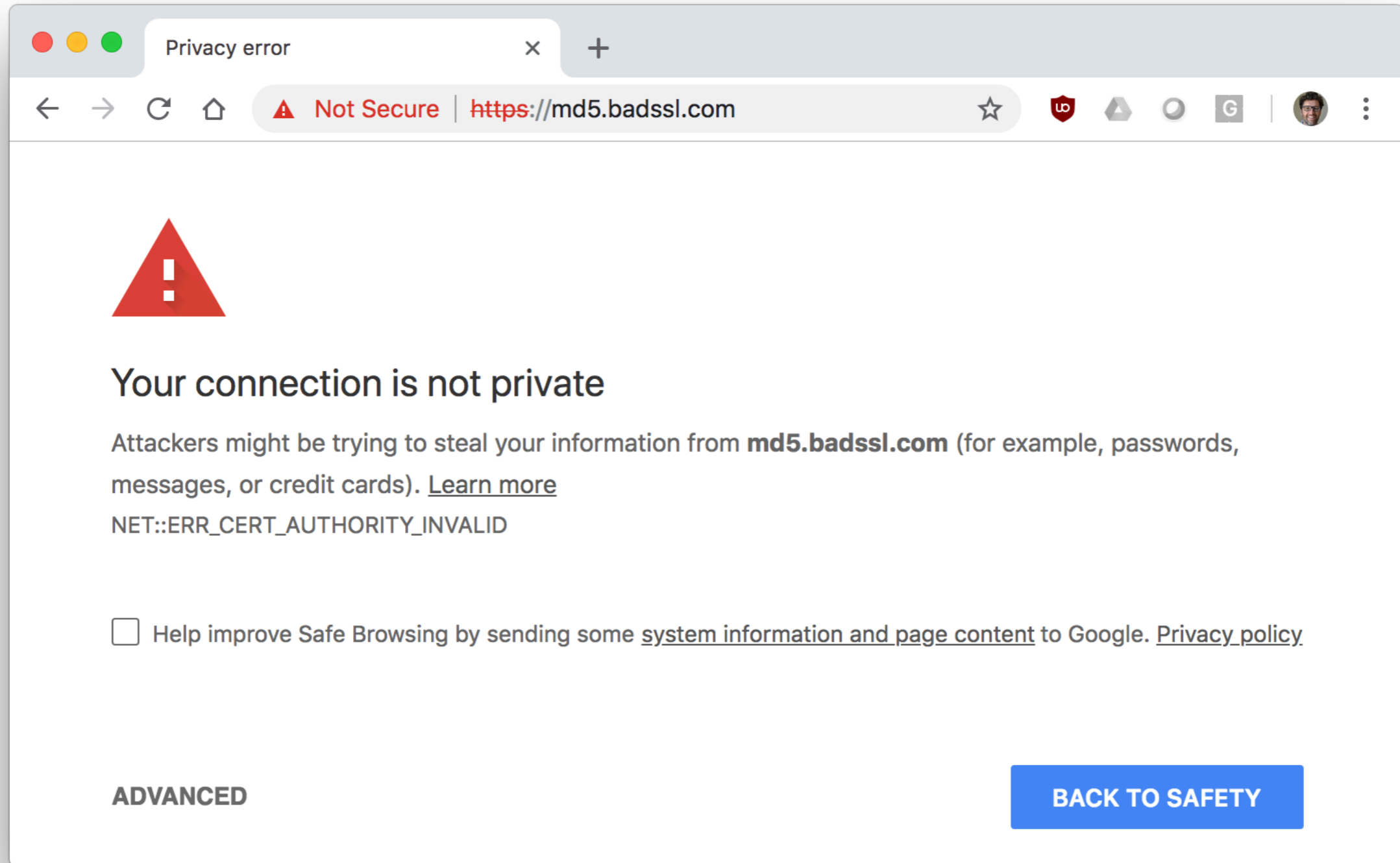


Parties agree on different keys, both known to adversary...

Key Exchange with a Person-in-the-Middle



Connection is totally transparent to adversary.
Translation is invisible to parties.



Next up: Tool for Stopping the Person-in-the-Middle

- Digital Signatures

Later during networking week:

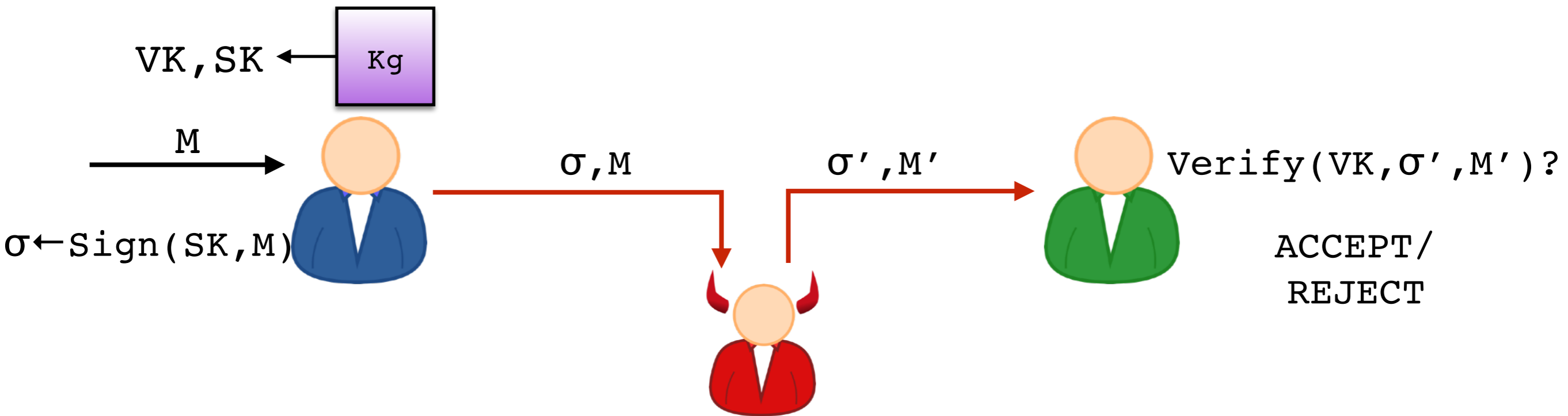
- Public-Key Infrastructure (PKI)
- Certificates and chains of trust

Crypto Tool: Digital Signatures

Definition. A digital signature scheme consists of three algorithms **Kg**, **Sign**, and **Verify**

- Key generation algorithm **Kg**, takes no input and outputs a (random) public-verification-key/secret-signing key pair (VK, SK)
- Signing algorithm **Sign**, takes input the secret key SK and a message M , outputs “signature” $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(SK, M)$
- Verification algorithm **Verify**, takes input the public key VK , a message M , a signature σ , and outputs **ACCEPT/REJECT**
 $\text{Verify}(VK, M, \sigma) = \text{ACCEPT/REJECT}$

Digital Signature Security Goal: Unforgeability



Scheme satisfies **unforgeability** if it is unfeasible for Adversary (who knows VK) to fool Bob into accepting M' not previously sent by Alice.



Broken



“Plain” RSA with No Encoding

$$VK = (N, e) \quad SK = (N, d) \quad \text{where} \quad N = pq, \quad ed = 1 \bmod \phi(N)$$

$$\text{Sign}((N, d), M) = M^d \bmod N$$

$$\text{Verify}((N, e), M, \sigma) : \sigma^e = M \bmod N?$$

Messages & sigs
are in \mathbb{Z}_N^*

$e = 3$ is common for fast verification; Assume $e=3$ below.



Broken



“Plain” RSA Weaknesses

Assume $e=3$.

$$\text{Sign}((N, d), M) = M^d \bmod N \quad \text{Verify}((N, 3), M, \sigma) : \sigma^3 = M \bmod N?$$

To forge a signature on message M' : Find number σ' such that $(\sigma')^3 = M' \bmod N$

M=1 weakness: If $M'=1$ then it is easy to forge. Take $\sigma'=1$:

$$(\sigma')^3 = 1^3 = 1 = M' \bmod N$$



Cube-M weakness: If M' is a *perfect cube* then it is easy to forge.
Just take $\sigma' = (M')^{1/3}$; i.e. the usual cube root of M' :

Example: To forge on $M'=8$, which is a perfect cube, set $\sigma'=2$.

$$(\sigma')^3 = 2^3 = 8 = M' \bmod N$$



(Intuition: If cubing does not “wrap modulo N ”, then it is easy to un-do.)



Broken



Further “Plain” RSA Weaknesses

$$\text{Sign}((N, d), M) = M^d \bmod N \quad \text{Verify}((N, 3), M, \sigma) : \sigma^3 = M \bmod N?$$

To forge a signature on message M' : Find number σ' such that $(\sigma')^3 = M' \bmod N$

Malleability weakness: If σ is a valid signature for M , then it is easy to forge a signature on $8M \bmod N$.

Given (M, σ) , compute forgery (M', σ') as

$$M' = (8 * M \bmod N), \text{ and } \sigma' = (2 * \sigma \bmod N)$$

Then $\text{Verify}((N, 3), M', \sigma')$ checks:

$$(\sigma')^3 = (2 * \sigma \bmod N)^3 = (2^3 * \sigma^3 \bmod N) = (2^3 * M \bmod N) = 8M \bmod N$$

$\sigma^3 = M \bmod N$ b/c σ is valid sig. on M





Broken



Further “Plain” RSA Weaknesses

$$\text{Sign}((N, d), M) = M^d \bmod N \quad \text{Verify}((N, 3), M, \sigma) : \sigma^3 = M \bmod N?$$

To forge a signature on message M' : Find number σ' such that $(\sigma')^3 = M' \bmod N$

Backwards signing weakness: Generate *some* valid signature by picking σ' first, and then defining $M' = (\sigma'^3 \bmod N)$

Then $\text{Verify}((N, 3), M', \sigma')$ checks:

$$(\sigma')^3 = (M' \bmod N)$$





Broken



Further “Plain” RSA Weaknesses

$$\text{Sign}((N, d), M) = M^d \bmod N \quad \text{Verify}((N, 3), M, \sigma) : \sigma^3 = M \bmod N?$$

To forge a signature on message M' : Find number σ' such that $(\sigma')^3 = M' \bmod N$

Summary:

- Plain RSA Signatures allow several types of forgeries
- It was sometimes argued that these forgeries aren't important: If M is english text, then M' is unlikely to be meaningful for these attacks
- But often they are damaging anyway

RSA Signatures with Encoding

$$VK = (N, e) \quad SK = (N, d) \quad \text{where} \quad N = pq, \quad ed = 1 \bmod \phi(N)$$

$$\text{Sign}((N, d), M) = \text{encode}(M)^d \bmod N$$

Messages & sigs are in \mathbb{Z}_N^*

$$\text{Verify}((N, e), M, \sigma) : \sigma^e = \text{encode}(M) \bmod N?$$

encode maps bit strings to numbers in \mathbb{Z}_N^*

Encoding needs to address:

- Small M or M = perfect cube
- Malleability
- Backwards signing

Encoding must be chosen with extreme care.



Broken



RSA Signature Padding: PKCS #1 v1.5

Note: We already saw PKCS#1 v1.5 *encryption* padding. This is *signature* padding. It is different.

N: n-byte long integer.

H: Hash function.

hash_id: Magic number assigned to H

Ex: for H=SHA-256,
hash_id = 3051...0440

Sign((N,d),M):

1. $\text{digest} \leftarrow \text{hash_id} || H(M)$ // m bytes long
2. $\text{pad} \leftarrow \text{FF} || \text{FF} || \dots || \text{FF}$ // n-m-3 'FF' bytes
3. $X \leftarrow 00 || 01 || \text{pad} || 00 || \text{digest}$
4. Output $\sigma = X^d \bmod N$

Verify((N,3),M, σ):

1. $X \leftarrow (\sigma^3 \bmod N)$
2. Parse $X \rightarrow \text{aa} || \text{bb} || \text{Y} || \text{cc} || \text{digest}$
3. If $\text{aa} \neq 00$ or $\text{bb} \neq 01$ or $\text{cc} \neq 00$
or $\text{Y} \neq (\text{FF})^{n-m-3}$
or $\text{digest} \neq \text{hash_id} || H(M)$:
Output REJECT
4. Else: Output ACCEPT

Encoding needs to address:

- Perfect cubes \longrightarrow The high-order bits + digest means X is large and random-looking, rarely a cube.
- Malleability \longrightarrow Stopped by hash, ex: $H(2 * M) \neq 2 * H(M)$
- Backwards signing \longrightarrow Stopped by hash: given digest, hard to find M such that $H(M) = \text{digest}$.

RSA Signature Padding: PKCS #1 v1.5

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3. $X \leftarrow 00 || 01 || \text{pad} || 00 || \text{digest}$
4. Output $\sigma = X^d \bmod N$

Verify((N,3),M,σ):

1. $X \leftarrow (\sigma^3 \bmod N)$
2. Parse $X \rightarrow \text{aa} || \text{bb} || Y || \text{cc} || \text{digest}$
3. If $\text{aa} \neq 00$ or $\text{bb} \neq 01$ or $\text{cc} \neq 00$
or $Y \neq (\text{FF})^{n-m-3}$
or $\text{digest} \neq \text{hash_id} || H(M)$:
Output REJECT
4. Else: Output ACCEPT

Introduces new weakness:

- Hash collision attacks: If $H(M) = H(M')$, then ...

$$\text{Sign}((N,d),M) = \text{Sign}((N,d),M')$$

- i.e., can reuse a signature for M as a signature for M'

Now: A Buggy Implementation, with an Attack

- Padding check is often implemented incorrectly
- Enables forging of signatures on *arbitrary* messages

Real-world attacks against:

- OpenSSL (2006)
- Apple OSX (2006)
- Apache (2006)
- VMWare (2006)
- All the biggest Linux distros (2006)
- Firefox/Thunderbird (2013)
- ...
- (at least 6 more in 2018 alone)



Broken



Buggy Verification in PKCS #1 v1.5 RSA Signatures

Sign((N,d),M):

1. $\text{digest} \leftarrow \text{hash_id} || H(M)$ // m bytes long
2. $\text{pad} \leftarrow \text{FF} || \text{FF} || \dots || \text{FF}$ // n-m-3 'FF' bytes
3. $X \leftarrow 00 || 01 || \text{pad} || 00 || \text{digest}$
4. Output $\sigma = X^d \bmod N$

Verify((N,3),M, σ):

1. $X \leftarrow (\sigma^3 \bmod N)$
2. Parse $X \rightarrow \text{aa} || \text{bb} || \text{Y} || \text{cc} || \text{digest}$
3. If $\text{aa} \neq 00$ or $\text{bb} \neq 01$ or $\text{cc} \neq 00$
or $\text{Y} \neq (\text{FF})^{n-m-3}$
or $\text{digest} \neq \text{hash_id} || H(M)$:
Output REJECT
4. Else: Output ACCEPT

BuggyVerify((N,3),M, σ):

1. $X \leftarrow (\sigma^3 \bmod N)$
2. Parse $X \rightarrow \text{aa} || \text{bb} || \text{rest}$
3. If $\text{aa} \neq 00$ or $\text{bb} \neq 01$:
Output REJECT
4. Parse $\text{rest} = (\text{FF})^p || 00 || \text{digest} || \dots$,
where p is any positive number
5. If $\text{digest} \neq \text{hash_id} || H(M)$:
Output REJECT
6. Else: Output ACCEPT

Checks if **rest** starts with any number of FF bytes followed by a 00 byte.

If so, it takes the next m bytes as digest.

Correct: X = 00 01 FF FF FF FF FF FF FF FF 00 <DIGEST>

Buggy: X = 00 01 FF 00 <DIGEST> <IGNORED BYTES>

↑
One or more FF bytes



Attacking Buggy Verification

One or more FF bytes



Buggy: $X = 00\ 01\ FF\ 00\ \langle \text{DIGEST} \rangle\ \langle \text{IGNORED} \dots\dots\dots \text{BYTES} \rangle$

To forge a signature on message M' : Find number σ' such that

$$(\sigma')^3 = 00\ 01\ FF\ 00\ H(M')\ \langle \text{JUNK} \rangle \bmod N$$

We'll use one FF byte

m bytes long

$n-m-4$ bytes free
for attacker to pick

Freedom to pick $\langle \text{JUNK} \rangle$ means we can take any σ' such that:

$$00\ 01\ FF\ 00\ H(M')\ 00\ \dots\dots\ 00 \leq (\sigma')^3 \leq 00\ 01\ FF\ 00\ H(M')\ FF\ \dots\dots\ FF$$

Sufficient to find: Any perfect cube in the given range. Then apply perfect cube attack.

Fun! (Assignment 2)

Steps in Attack

1. Pick M you want to forge on
2. Compute lower and upper bounds (numbers), using $H(M)$.
3. Find a perfect cube x within allowed range
4. Output cube root of x as forged signature σ .

Attack Summary

- When padding check allows variable number of **FF** bytes, forging is easy
 - Only requires a simple search for a perfect cube in a given range
- *Why did so many make this error?*
 - I don't *really* know for sure
 - My guesses:
 - Plugging in libraries for padding removal without checks.
 - Specifically, ASN.1 parsing libraries are used to remove padding. These are overkill and programmers do not fully understand their behavior (but they also don't want to do the parsing by hand).
 - Traditional unit testing is hard to apply to crypto.
- Attack defeated by using large **e=65537**

Other RSA Padding Schemes: Full Domain Hash

N: n -byte long integer.

H: Hash fcn with m -byte output. ← Ex: SHA-256, $m=32$

$k = \text{ceil}((n-1)/m)$

Sign((N,d),M):

1. $X \leftarrow 00 || H(1 || M) || H(2 || M) || \dots || H(k || M)$
2. Output $\sigma = X^d \bmod N$

Verify((N,e),M, σ):

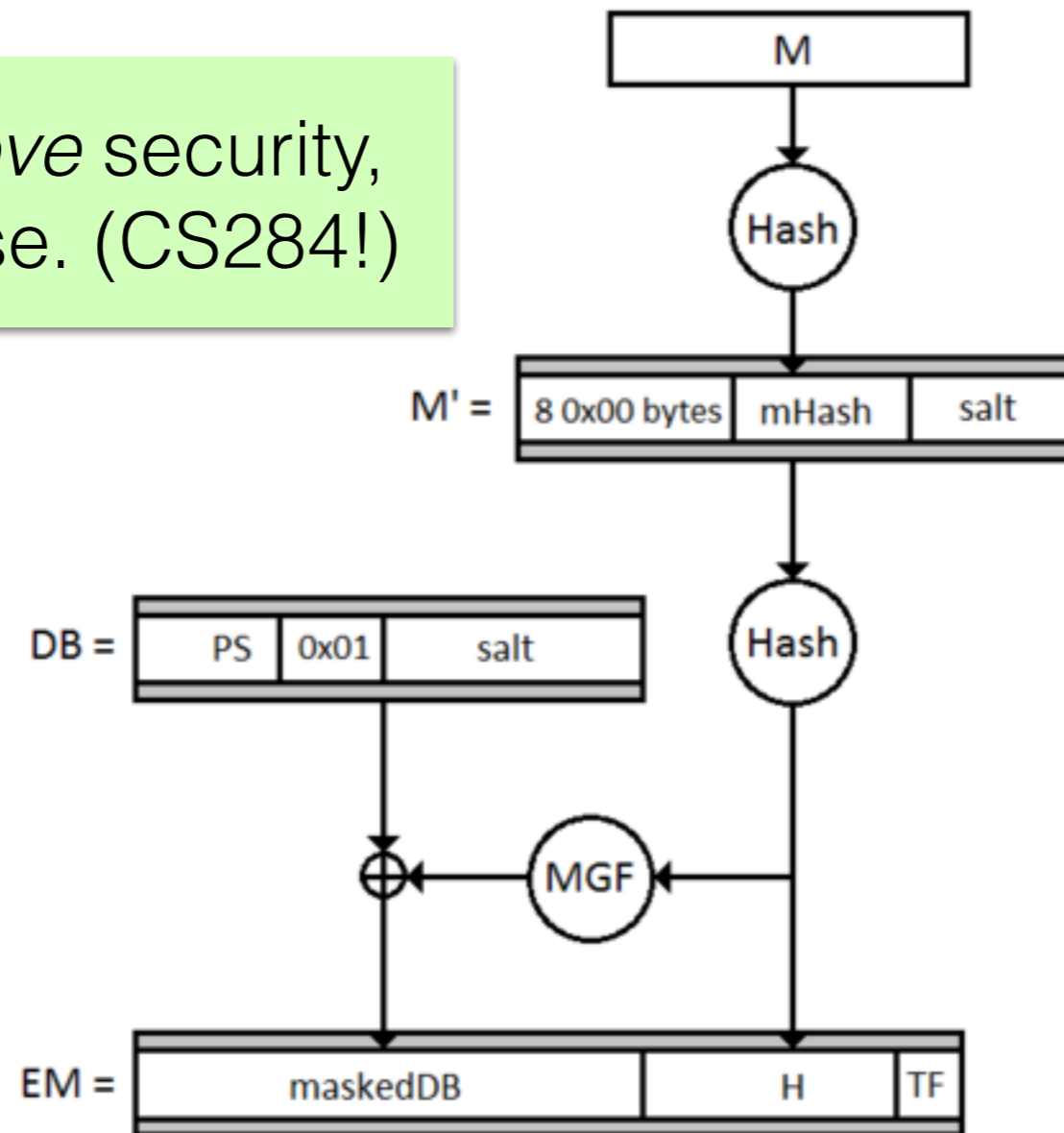
1. $X \leftarrow 00 || H(1 || M) || H(2 || M) || \dots || H(k || M)$
2. Check if $\sigma^e = X \bmod N$

Bonus: Can *prove* security,
in a strong sense.

Other RSA Padding Schemes: PSS (In TLS 1.3)

- Somewhat complicated
- *Randomized* signing

Bonus: Can *prove* security, in a strong sense. (CS284!)



RSA Signature Summary

- Plain RSA signatures are very broken
- PKCS#1 v.1.5 is widely used, in TLS, and fine if implemented correctly
- Full-Domain Hash and PSS should be preferred
- Don't roll your own RSA signatures!

Other Practical Signatures: DSA/ECDSA

- Based on ideas related to Diffie-Hellman key exchange
- Secure, but ripe for implementation errors

—
Hackers obtain PS3 private
cryptography key due to epic
programming fail? (update)



Sean Hollister
12.29.10

2
Shares

Sony's ECDSA code

```
int getRandomNumber()  
{  
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.  
              // guaranteed to be random.  
}
```

Bonus: New Signature Vulnerability Yesterday!

<https://blog.lessonslearned.org/chain-of-fools/>

<https://media.defense.gov/2020/Jan/14/2002234275/-1/-1/0/CSA-WINDOWS-10-CRYPT-LIB-20190114.PDF>



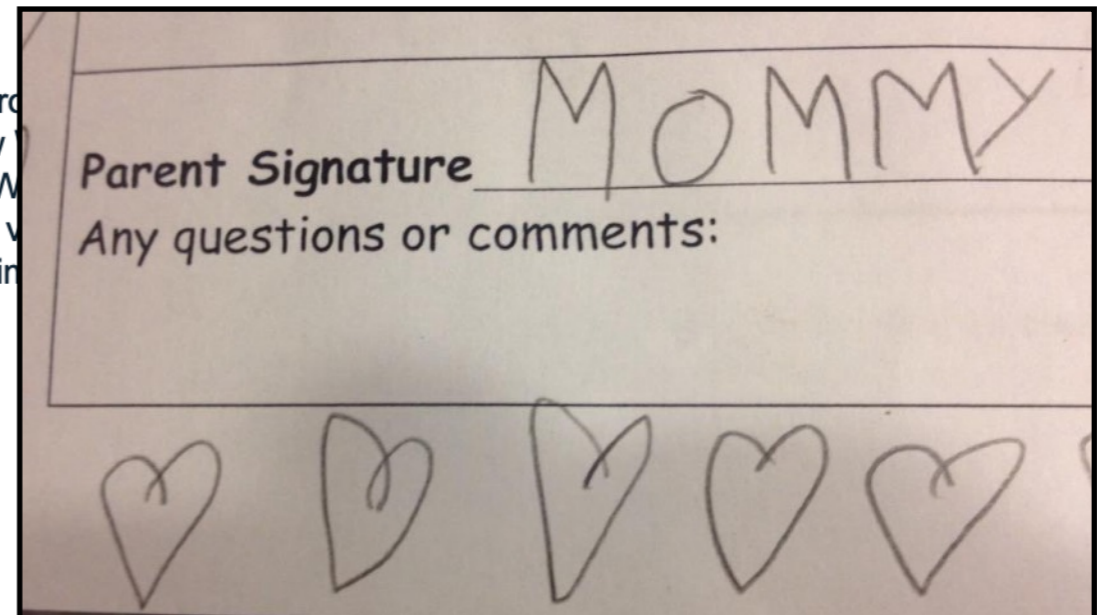
National Security Agency | Cybersecurity Advisory

Patch Critical Cryptographic Vulnerability in Microsoft Windows Clients and Servers

Summary

NSA has discovered a critical vulnerability (CVE-2020-0601) affecting Microsoft Windows. The certificate validation vulnerability allows an attacker to undermine how Windows enables remote code execution. The vulnerability affects Windows 10 and Windows Server applications that rely on Windows for trust functionality. Exploitation of the vulnerability over network connections and deliver executable code while appearing as legitimate. Validation of trust may be impacted include:

- HTTPS connections
- Signed files and emails
- Signed executable code launched as user-mode processes



- Details not known yet, but it looks like Windows was not checking crucial parameters before doing signature verification
- Windows was accepting malicious code as authentic.

The End