What are computer protocols, how are they verified against attacks, and how is this relevant to people today?

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August 2017 / May 2021

1 Abstract

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3 Introduction

3.1 Security

In 1997 Tim Berners-Lee wrote a research paper ‘Realising the Full Potential of the Web’. In it, he said “The web was designed as an instrument to prevent misunderstanding”. This is, in hindsight, clearly false. Most weeks we hear a news report of hackers stealing state and corporate secrets and causing millions of pounds in damages and hundreds of thousands in fines. Bugs such as Heartbleed and Cloudleak have destroyed companies, and damaged the livelihoods of many hundreds of people. This is an issue of computer security, which is only indirectly in the public eye, but is hugely important. This is why computer protocols are relevant today, companies lose money and people lose personally identifiable information, because someone has uncovered an exploit and used it to their advantage.

3.2 Technique

In this essay I set out to investigate how computer protocols, specifically authentication protocols, work, how and why they are attacked, and whether this is still relevant, given that a lot of research on the topic was done around forty years ago. I decided to read research papers by contemporary computer scientists, who were on the cutting edge of research, and try to write a program to emulate one of the protocols running.

3.3 Why are protocols important?

Computer protocols are intrinsically related to security, as anything wrong with them can lead to catastrophic security breaches, that could affect innumerable numbers of systems and machines. Firstly I will discuss what computer protocols are, and look over a variety of types of protocol, and will then take a more in depth look at authentication protocols, especially the Needham-Schroeder protocol, is a good example of protocols of the authentication variety, and has a freshness flaw, that links well into my second question: how are protocols verified against attacks? I will then go over a variety of contemporary techniques of verification. Finally, I will analyse how relevant protocols are today, with a similar focus on authentication protocols.

4 What are computer protocols?

4.1 Types of protocols

In the loosest sense, a computer protocol is “A sequence of operations that ensure protection of data” one could consider the analogy - the recipe a computer follows to bake a cake. However, they come in many types, each of which achieves a different thing. Consensus protocols, ensure that even if a proportion of a system fails, the system keeps going and maintains integrity. This type of protocol is used in the real world very commonly, but like most of this topic, is relatively unknown. Consensus protocols are used for things like clock synchronization - which is incredibly important in the real world, as unsynchronized clocks can cause huge problems in transport systems. Even the algorithms search engine conglomerates like Google uses to order pages are heavily reliant on consensus protocols. Cryptographic protocols are designed to take data, and encrypt it, making it unreadable, usually to prevent unauthorised access. Cryptographic protocols can be ‘symmetric’, requiring the same encryption key to encrypt and decrypt, or ‘asymmetric’, requiring linked, but different, encryption keys to encrypt and decrypt. They are used ubiquitously and commonly, from your smartphone to in top-secret government organisations, and are a founding pillar of computer security. Transport protocols, as the name suggests, ensure that data is transferred securely. This type of protocol is generally used for things like secure browsing on the internet, and to stop other people reading your emails and SMS messages. If this type of protocol has a vulnerability, swathes of personally identifiable information can be lost. The type of protocol I mostly researched in the course of this essay is an authentication protocol. An authentication protocol helps two parties establish a secret - which is in most cases an encryption key, that they both trust. This is hugely important, and is the backbone of many security systems, as establishing a secret between two parties is the basis for many transport protocols, discussed above.

4.2 How protocols link to security

Security is in essence what all of these protocols strive to achieve. Security is especially important in today's political and sociological climate. Back in the 1950s when computers were just being developed, security was not an issue. There were no malicious parties in the teams of computer scientists doing research - everyone started with a "tabula rasa", did their research, and reset the computer. However, as computers got smaller and more widely available, and LAN and WAN were invented, people realised they could circumvent security systems. This lead to an arms race - where cryptography, and computer protocols were invented, to maintain data integrity and security.

4.3 The Needham-Schroeder protocol

The task of an authentication protocol at first glance seems impossible, To share a secret between two parties, when all communications between them can be heard, but can be done in a remarkable short number of steps. One of the first teams to achieve this was Roger Needham and Michael Schroeder. In their paper "Using Encryption for Authentication in large networks of computers" they outlined a authentication protocol for two parties and an authentication server. This paper was a foundation for many authentication protocols today.

4.3.1 What is the Needham-Schroeder protocol

One of the protocols discussed in the Needham-Schroeder paper aims for the "Establishment of authenticated and interactive communication between two principals on different machines". Broken down, this means creating a two-way communication, like email or SMS between two different people on two different computers. To demonstrate how protocols work, computer scientists have devised a notation that describes authentication protocols. This is the notation as described in Needham-Schroeder's paper:

4.3.2 Protocol notation

Consider the following protocol:

$$A \rightarrow AS : A, B, I_{A1} \tag{1}$$

We can break this down by the colon. Before the colon $A \rightarrow AS$ means the message is from the sender A (commonly personified as Alice) and to the server AS (commonly personified as Sam). After the colon the A, B, I_{A1} is the content of the message. The character I (sometimes indicated by N) denotes a nonce (which is shorthand for a number only used once) and the subscript denoted the sender and the number of the nonce. Nonces are used to guarantee the freshness of the message.

Consider the following protocol:

$$A \rightarrow B : \{CK, A\}^{KB} \tag{2}$$

We can similarly break this down by the colon and surmise from our previous knowledge that it is a message from A (Alice) to B (Bob). The content of the message however is different. Content within curly braces is encrypted with the encryption key shown in superscript next to it. Furthermore content with the character K in tends to stand for encryption key's. For example, in this case CK is a conversation key and KB is the key of Bob.

Furthermore, we can do arithmetic operations on nonces, as they are numbers, this will prove useful later and is denoted by $I_{B1} - 1$.

The Needham-Schroeder protocol is:

$$A \rightarrow AS : A, B, I_{A1} \tag{3}$$

$$As \rightarrow A : \{I_{A1}, B, CK, \{CK, A\}^{KB}\}^{KA} \tag{4}$$

$$A \rightarrow B : \{CK, A\}^{KB} \tag{5}$$

$$B \rightarrow A : \{I_B\}^{CK} \tag{6}$$

$$A \rightarrow B : \{I_B - 1\}^{CK} \tag{7}$$

This can be shown visually in the diagram:

Breaking the protocol down now becomes fairly trivial: In step 1, Alice indicates that she wants to communicate with Bob and provides the nonce I_{A1}. The authentication server then replies with a big package of content $\{I_{A1}, B, CK, \{CK, A\}^{KB}\}^{KA}$. Alice then decrypts what she can (the outer layer of the message) and sends on what she can't to Bob in step 3. Then Bob replies with a fresh nonce and Alice responds with the nonce, but modified by an arithmetic operation, for example subtract 1.

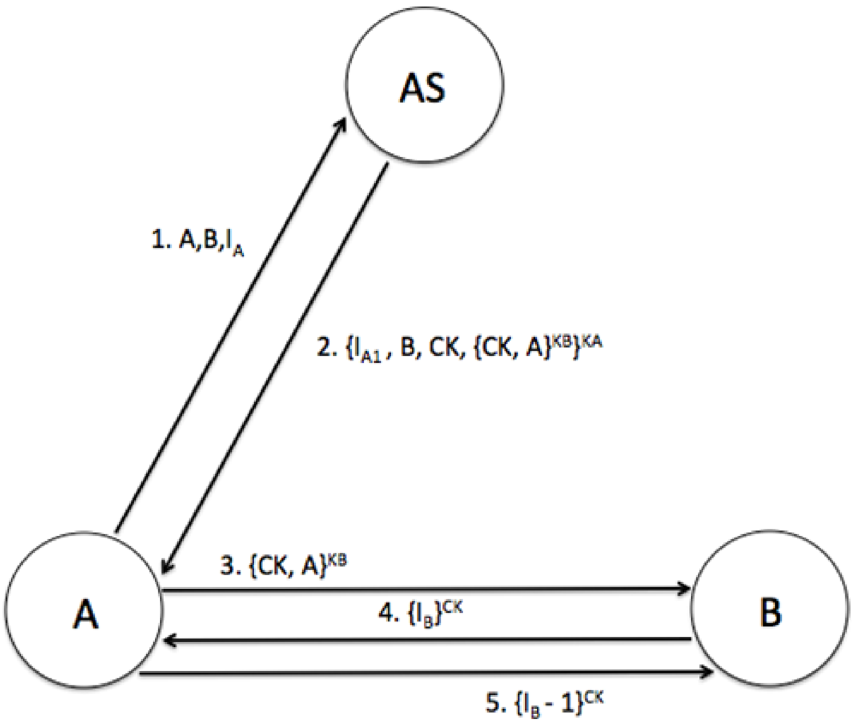


Figure 1: A diagram of the steps Needham-Schroeder protocol

4.3.3 Computer modelling

I have written a computer model in the programming language Python that endeavours to model computer protocols with the test case of the Needham-Schroeder protocol, ¡See appendix 1¿ This is relevant to this essay as it is on the topic of computer protocols, but also, it is written in another fundamental facet of computer science, programming. My computer model takes a list of commands as an input, and interprets them with standard protocol notation, It then generates numbers to represent them, and uses rudimentary encryption where necessary. This produces an output in the form of a table, containing each of the messages, which gives a better sense of how protocols work. However, as with any program, it might still contain bugs that hinder its performance.

4.3.4 Flaws in the Protocol

However, there is an issue, which has been rectified in the Kerberos and Denning-Sacco protocols, but had passed undetected for an extended and potentially dangerous period of time. This was ironically predicted by Needham and Schroeder in his commentary on the paper 'Protocols that are developed here are prone to extremely subtle errors that are unlikely to be detected in normal operation.' This highlights the issue that, in essence, most of computer science today could be sitting on a metaphoric unexploded bomb. And leads us onto my next question - how are protocols verified against attacks.

5 How are protocols verified against attacks

5.1 Why do protocols need to be verified?

The problem computer scientists now faced was they had many authentication protocols, used widely and in varied contexts, but they didn't really know if they were secure. A single exploit on one of these protocols could cripple telecommunications, and consumer trust in the industry. This caused an agenda among computer scientists, surmised in the Needham-Schroeder paper as a "need for techniques to verify the correctness of such protocols". 11 years later, Needham co-authored a paper on exactly this with Burrows and Abadi. Titled 'A logic of authentication', this paper outlined a logic for analysing authentication protocols and then went on to use this technique on a variety of commonly used protocols.

5.2 BAN logic

The technique (BAN logic, shorthand for Burrows-Abadi-Needham logic) rectifies the ambiguity of the protocol notation, replacing in with a formal logic notation, then uses this notation to find all assumptions made for the protocol to work. If there are any dubious assumptions, the protocol might be vulnerable to exploits. The formal logic uses a notation that was easy to typeset when the paper was written, but ironically, with the digital era came ASCII and UNICODE , which inhibits the writing of the characters used in the formal logic. In their paper, Burrows, Abadi and Needham then proceeded to analyse various protocols for flaws, including: Needham-Schroeder, Otway-Rees, Kerberos, Wide-mouthed frog, Yahalom, Andrew RPC and CCITT. Exactly half of the protocols analysed had “Bugs”, which could be exploited with dangerous results

5.3 Informal techniques

Furthermore, other computer scientists have devised less formal techniques protocol designers should follow, that mean protocols are less likely to be vulnerable to attacks. For example, Ross Anderson and Roger Needham wrote the paper “Robustness principles for public key protocols”, in which they suggested various principles, which include:

1. “Sign before encrypting”. This is important as if you sign after encryption, you can be subject to “novel” attacks, where a malicious party can forge your signature, furthermore, this is an easy mistake for a lazy engineer to make.

2. “Be careful how entities are distinguished”. Entities in this case refers to encryption keys, as if you use one encryption key for two processes, as not only is it twice as easy to compromise the protocol, but various attacks can be derived from it (see principle 4).

3. ”Distinguish between different runs of the same protocol”. This is involved in stopping replay attacks such as the one that compromised the Needham-Schroeder protocol.

4. ”Do not assume the secrecy of others secrets”. This idea is mirrored many other fields, for example the idiom “Never trust the user”. It is fairly trivial to see how others flawed secrets could compromise you.

5. ”Do not assume a message has a certain form, unless you can verify it does”. This is also fairly self-explanatory, as a misunderstanding of a message could be catastrophic to a protocol.

6. ”Be explicit about crypto primitives”. Crypto primitives are basic cryptographic algorithms, i.e. hashing or encryption. This removes possible ambiguity among principals, and disallows insecure algorithms to be used.

7. ”Robust security is about explicitness”. Taking all of the above principles into account, the key tenet of building a protocol is to be clear.

5.4 Should new protocols be developed?

In an informal discussion Gavin Stark (Computer Laboratory, University of Cambridge) suggested that at this stage, producing new protocols was a bad idea. Commonly used protocols were written around forty years ago, and have passed the test of time because they work. Recently, students have been rewriting and making new protocols, but in doing so, have broken the security strived for in the first place. Although we have developed mathematical and informal techniques for verification against attacks, we still cannot perfectly ensure a protocol is valid.

However, there are naturally new scenarios to which no old protocols are applicable, so some cases necessitate the writing of new protocols. Whilst this has the drawback of them not having stood the test of time, more tools to ensure such protocols are correct (such as BAN logic), and most often the greatest security issue in a system is incorrect implementation or application of a protocol, as opposed to it inherently being flawed, so it may be better to develop a new one, than try to ”bodge” an old one into a scenario where it should not be applied.

6 How are protocols relevant to people today?

This field of computer science is, in my opinion, very relevant to people today. This is due to clear fact that errors do occur, even in the most established places. This can lead to cataclysmic exploits, that can and will rock companies and individuals. I have already discussed Heartbleed and Cloudleak as examples, but there are many (albeit varying in magnitude). Furthermore, it is lesson to computer scientists now and in the future, there is no substitute for good logic, and there is no shortage of sloppy and badly written code and logic. Also, errors in protocols tend to be so intrinsic to platforms using them, there is a great difficulty in fixing thing them. This links back to the introduction in that errors in protocols can have terrible results on computer security. Some might argue that everything in this field happened 40 years ago, and it is thus dead, but I suggest that its age makes it more important, as it is more likely to be a basis for more things on more platforms. This means that even if the protocols are entirely correct, it is probable, someone will implement it in a way it was not meant for, and that could cause a cascade of effects. Many people may not need to know about them, but anybody considering a career in computer science, would do well to have a rudimentary understanding of protocols

7 Conclusion

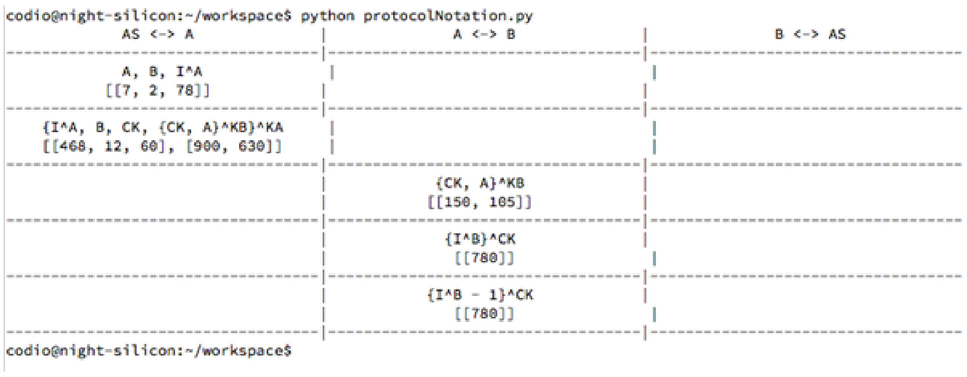
To conclude, in this essay I have answered three questions: what are computer protocols, how are they verified against attacks, and how is this relevant to people today. I have investigated computer protocols to be “A sequence of operations that ensure protection of data”, and I know that they come in various different varieties, from consensus to transport. I then took an in depth look at authentication protocols and the literature surrounding them. I have looked at the methods used to verify these protocols against attacks, considering both formal and informal techniques. Finally, I considered whether protocols are relevant to people today, and concluded that anybody following a career in computer science should definitely find it relevant.

9 Glossary

Authentication protocol - A type of computer protocol, which tries to establish a secure connection between two principals. Authentication server - A computer whose purpose is to participate in an authentication protocol Consensus protocols - A type of computer protocol, which tries to ensure that data integrity, even if there is a failure in the system storing it. Encryption - The process of encoding information, such as text, generally to prevent unauthorised access Encryption key - A piece of data required for encryption or decryption to occur Entities - A broad term for distinct part of a protocol i.e. a principal, a nonce, or an encryption key. Exploit - taking advantage of a flaw in a computer system, typically for malicious purposes. Freshness - Whether something is new/has not been used before, this is important in preventing replay attacks. Hackers - a person who uses computers to gain unauthorized access to data. Hashing - The transformation of text of an arbitrary length, to a fixed length, where a small change in the input would create a large change in the output, algorithms range from the insecure (md5) to the military grade (SHA4096). Integrity - The accuracy and consistency of data/information LAN - Local Area Network, a specific type of computer network Machine - A independent computer, for example a laptop. Nonce - A number used only once, used to ensure freshness Parties - A person or people participating in a protocol. Personally identifiable information - Any information that can be used to distinguish one person from another. Principal - Similar to a party, A person participating in a protocol. Replay attack - The re-use of an old run of a protocol to impersonate a principal without knowledge of their key, that should be required. Signature - The digital equivalent of its namesake, verifies that a principal wrote the message. Tabula rasa - Literally ‘A blank slate’, if a computer is reset to Tabula rasa, all data is deleted from it. Transport protocols - A type of computer protocol, which deals with the transportation and security thereof of data. Trust - Whether it is reasonable for a principal to assume something is true, i.e. the principal trusted that Nonce IB is fresh. WAN - Wide Area Network, a specific type of computer network

10 Appendices

10.1 Sample run



```
codio@night-silicon:~/workspace$ python protocolNotation.py
           AS <-> A                |              A <-> B               |              B <-> AS
-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------
           A, B, I^A                |                                    |
          [[7, 2, 78]]             |                                    |
-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------
    {I^A, B, CK, {CK, A}^KB}^KA     |                                    |
    [[468, 12, 60], [900, 630]]     |                                    |
-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------
                                   |            {CK, A}^KB              |
                                   |            [[150, 105]]            |
-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------
                                   |              {I^B}^CK              |
                                   |               [[780]]               |
-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------
                                   |            {I^B - 1}^CK            |
                                   |               [[780]]               |
-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------
codio@night-silicon:~/workspace$
```

Figure 2: A screenshot of a sample run of the program

10.2 Source code

```
    #Written by Edmund Goodman - For a HPQ (2016/17) - Python V2.7
import time, os, collections, random


def chunks(braces):
    #helper function to pair a list up 1st with last, 2nd with penultimate etc.
    newbraces = collections.OrderedDict()
    for i in range(0, int(len(braces)/2)):
        newbraces[braces[i]] = braces[-(i+1)]
    return newbraces

def encrypt(plain, keys):
    #the most basic private key encryption I could think of - the focus is not on cryptography
    #it works by multiplying the key(s) by the plaintext - both of which are numerically encoded
    superKey, cipher = 1, []
    for n in keys:
        superKey *= n
    for i in plain:
        cipher.append(i*superKey)
    return cipher

def generateNonce():
    #note this is NOT a timestamp, but merely a nonce based off of a time function
    time.sleep(0.1) #ensure timestamps do not collide, comprimising their use as nonces
    return int(time.strftime('%S%M%H').replace("0", "")) #remove all zeroes, to eliminate math error

def assignVariables(newMessageParts):
    #long helper function to make a dictionary of variables, so they can be accessed
    #the sequence of if statements handeles different variable types
    message = []
    for newMessagePart in newMessageParts:
        while 1:
            try:
                #print(variables[newMessagePart])
                message.append(variables[newMessagePart])
                break
            except:
                if "I" in newMessagePart:
                    #print("Nonce", newMessagePart)
```

```python
                    variables[newMessagePart] = generateNonce()
                elif bool(set(["+", "-", "*", "/"]) & set(newMessagePart)):
                    #print("Operand", newMessagePart)
                    newMessagePart = resolveOperands(newMessagePart)
                    variables[newMessagePart] = newMessagePart
                elif bool(set([str(x) for x in range(0, 3*10**3)]) & set(newMessagePart)):
                    #print("Number", newMessagePart)
                    variables[newMessagePart] = int(newMessagePart)
                else:
                    #print("Variable", newMessagePart)
                    variables[newMessagePart] = random.randint(0, 35)
    return message

def resolveOperands(message):
    #shorter helper function to "resolve operands" i.e. do the arithmetic
    message = [i for i in message]
    delList = []
    for i in ["+", "-", "*", "/"]:
        for n in range(0, len(message)):
            if message[n] == i:
                delList.append(n)
    for n in delList:
        exec("working = int(message[n-1]){}int(message[n+1])".format(message[n]))
        message.pop(n+1)
        message.pop(n)
        message[n-1] = working
    return message

#========================================================================================================
os.system('clear') ; print("")
needhamSchroederConventional2Way = [
    "A -> AS: A, B, I^A",
    "AS -> A: {I^A, B, CK, {CK, A}^KB}^KA",
    "A -> B: {CK, A}^KB",
    "B -> A: {I^B}^CK",
    "A -> B: {I^B - 1}^CK",
]
variables = {}
print("             AS <-> A               |              A <-> B               |              B <-> AS
for step in needhamSchroederConventional2Way: #evaluate statement
    #split up command into recipient and command
    command = step.split(": ")
    command[0] = (command[0].split(" -> "))
    recipient = [command[0][0], command[0][1], "public"]
    #print(command[0], command[1])

    #find braces so as to evaluate statement
    braces = [i for i, x in enumerate([i for i in command[1]]) if x == "{"]
    braces.extend([i for i, x in enumerate([i for i in command[1]]) if x == "}"])
    braces = chunks(braces)
    #print(braces)

    #use the positions of the braces to find the encryption keys and continue cutting up the command
    encryptionKeys, messageParts = [], []
    for k, v in braces.items():
        encryptionKeys.append(command[1][(v+2):(v+4)])
        messageParts.append(command[1][k:v+1])
    if messageParts == []:
        messageParts.append(command[1])
    if encryptionKeys == []:
        encryptionKeys.append('1')
```

```
#print(messageParts, encryptionKeys)

#format the command to remove repeats and make linked lists (messageParts : encryptionKeys)
for i in range(1, len(messageParts)):
    if messageParts[i] in messageParts[i-1]:
        startIndex = messageParts[i-1].find(messageParts[i]) - 2
        endIndex = startIndex + len(messageParts[i]) + 5
        messageParts[0] = messageParts[0].split(messageParts[0][startIndex:endIndex])
        messageParts = [x for sublist in messageParts for x in sublist]
        messageParts = "".join(messageParts)
        messageParts = messageParts.split("{")[1:]
        messageParts = ["{"+x for x in messageParts]
for i in range(0, len(messageParts)):
    if "{" in messageParts[i]:
        messageParts = [l[1:-1] for l in messageParts] ; break
#print(messageParts, encryptionKeys)

#assign values to the variables
concFinalMessage = []
for e in range(0, len(encryptionKeys)):
    formatEncryptionKeys = [encryptionKeys[i] for i in list(set([ee for ee in range(0, e+1)]))]
    splitMessageParts = messageParts[e].split(", ")
    message = assignVariables(splitMessageParts)
    keys = assignVariables(formatEncryptionKeys)
    finalMessage = encrypt(message, keys)
    concFinalMessage.append(finalMessage)
#print(concFinalMessage)

#display the generated data in a tabular format
comLen, mesLen, spaLen = len(command[1]), len(str(concFinalMessage)), 35
comLen2, mesLen2, space, line = (35-comLen)/2, (35-mesLen)/2, spaLen*" ", spaLen*"-"
com = int(comLen2)*" "+str(command[1])+(int(comLen2)+1)*" "
mes = int(mesLen2)*" "+str(concFinalMessage)+(int(mesLen2)+1)*" "
#print(com, mes, space)
if command[0] == ['A', 'AS'] or command[0] == ['AS', 'A']:
    print("{}|{}|{}\n{}|{}|{}\n{}|{}|{}".format(com, space, space, mes, space, space, line, line, l
if command[0] == ['A', 'B'] or command[0] == ['B', 'A']:
    print("{}|{}|{}\n{}|{}|{}\n{}|{}|{}".format(space, com, space, space, mes, space, line, line, l
if command[0] == ['B', 'AS'] or command[0] == ['AS', 'B']:
    print("{}|{}|{}\n{}|{}|{}\n{}|{}|{}".format(space, space, com, space, space, mes, line, line, l
```