

Network Security fiche

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Markdown version on [github](#)

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TLS

General

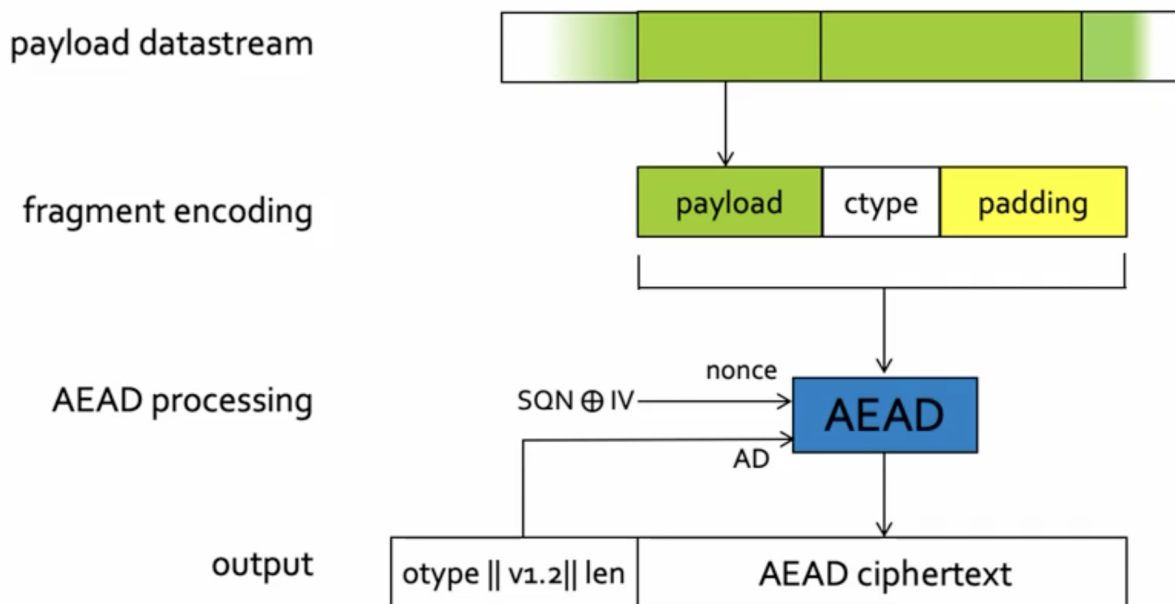
- **TLS: Transport Layer Security**
- It's goal is to provide a **secure channel between two peers**
- **Entity authentication**
 - **Server** side of the channel is *always authenticated*
 - **Client** side is *optionally authenticated*
 - Via **Assymetric crypto** or a symmetric *pre-shared key*
- **Confidentiality**
 - Data send over the channel is *only visible to the endpoints*
 - TLS does *not hide the length* of the data it transmits (but allows padding)
- **Integrity**
 - Data sent over the channel *cannot be modified* without detection
 - Integrity guarantees also cover reordering, insertion, deletion of data
- **Efficiency**
 - Attempt to minimise crypto overhead
 - Minimal use of public key techniques; maximal use of symmetric key techniques
 - Minimise number of communication round trips before secure channel can be used
- **Flexibility**
 - Protocol supports flexible choices of algorithms and authentication
- **Self negotiation**
 - The choice is done in hand, i.e. as part of the protocol itself
 - The is done through the version negotiation and cipher suite negotiation process: the client offers, server selects

- **Protection of negotiation**
 - Aim to prevent MITM attacker from performing version and cipher suite downgrade attacks
 - So the cryptography used in the protocol should also protect the choice of cryptography made
- **TLS** aims for security in the face of *attacker who has complete control of the network*
- Only requirement from underlying transport: reliable, in order data-stream
- **Handshake protocol**: Authentication, negotiation and key agreement
- **Record protocol**: Use those keys to provide confidentiality and integrity
- **TLS 1.3** design process goals
 - *Clean up*: get rid of flawed and unused crypto & features
 - *Improve latency* : for main handshake and repeated connections (while maintaining security)
 - *Improve privacy*: hide as much of the handshake as possible
 - *Continuity*: maintain interoperability with previous versions and support existing important use cases
 - *Security Assurance (added later)*: have supporting analyses for changes
- TLS uses mostly ‘boring’ cryptography yet is a very complex protocol suite
- Some protocol design errors were made, but not too many
- Legacy support for EXPORT cipher suites and long tail of old versions opened up serious vulnerabilities
- Lack of formal state-machine description, lack of API specification, and sheer complexity of specifications have led to many serious implementations errors
- Poor algorithm choices in the Record Protocol should have been retired more aggressively
- Most of this had been fixed in TLS 1.3
- TLS 1.3 was developed hand-in-hand with formal security analysis
- The design changed many times, often changes driven by security concerns identified through the analysis
- Cryptography has evolved significantly in TLS
- The largest shift was from RSA key transport to elliptic curve Diffie-Hellman, and from CBC/RC4 to AES-GCM
- A second shift now underway is to move to using newer elliptic curves, allowing greater and better implementation security
- A third shift is the move away from SHA1 in certs
- A future shift is being considered to incorporate post-quantum algorithm
- But Implementation vulnerabilities are bound to continue to be discovered

Record Protocol

- The TLS Record Protocol provides a **stream oriented** API for applications making use of it
 - Hence TLS may fragment into smaller units or coalesce into larger units any data supplied by the calling application
 - Protocol data units in TLS are called **records**
 - So each record is a fragment from a **data stream**
- Cryptographic protection in the TLS Record Protocol
 - Data origin authentication & integrity for records using a MAC
 - Confidentiality for records using a symmetric encryption algorithm
 - Prevention of replay, reordering, deletion of records using per record sequence number protected by the MAC
 - Encryption and MAC provided simultaneously by use of AEAD in TLS 1.3
 - Prevention of reflection attack by key separation
- *Datastream* is divided in different **payload**
- Each *payload* is concatenated with a bit (**ctype**) and an optional **padding**; this gives a **fragment**
- This is then given to **AEAD** encryption
 - Needs in input a *nonce*, some *associated data* (AD) (ctype, v1.2, and len field) and a plaintext
- **ctype field**
 - Single byte representing content type - indicates whether content is handshake message, alert message or application data
 - AEAD-encryption inside record; header contains dummy value ctype to limit traffic analysis

- **padding**
 - Optional features that can be used to hide true length of fragments
 - Not needed for encryption
 - Sequence of 0x00 bytes after non-0x00 content type field
 - Removed after integrity check, so no padding oracle issues arise (Timing side channel attack to recover length on plaintext)
- **AEAD nonce**
 - $Nonce = SQN \oplus IV$
 - Constructed from 64 bits sequence number (SQN)
 - SQN is incremented for each record sent on a connection
 - SQN is masked by XOR with IV field
 - IV is a fixed (per TLS connection) pseudorandom value derived from secrets in TLS handshake protocol
 - IV masking ensures nonce sequence is 'unique' per connection, good for security in multi-connection setting
- **Record header**
 - Contains dummy field, legacy version field, length of AEAD ciphertext
 - Version field is always securely negotiated during handshake
 - SQN is not included in header, but is maintained as a counter at each end of the connection (send and receive)



Handshake Protocol

- **TLS 1.3: full handshake in 1 RTT**
 - Achieved via feature reduction: we always do (EC)DHE in one of a shortlist of groups
 - Client includes DH shares in its first message, along with **ClientHello**, anticipating groups that server will accept
 - Server responds with single DH share in its **ServerKeyShare** response
 - If this works, a forward-secure key is established after 1 round trip
 - If server does not like DH groups offered by client, it sends a **HelloRetryRequest** and a group description back to client
 - * In this case, the handshake will be 2 round trips
- **0-RTT handshake** when resuming a previously established connection

- Client + server keep shared state enabling them to derive a PSK (pre-shared key)
- Client derives an ‘early data’ encryption key from the PSK and can use it to include encrypted application data along with its first handshake message
- *sacrifices* certain security properties
- Because of reliance on Ephemeral DH key exchange, TLS 1.3 handshake is **forward secure**
- This means: compromise of all session keys, DH values and signing keys has no impact on the security of earlier sessions
- Use of ephemeral DH also means: if a server’s long term (signing) key is compromised, then an attacker cannot passively decrypt future sessions
- Compare to RSA key transport option in TLS 1.2 and earlier: past and future passive interception using compromised server RSA private key

Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

- In symmetric cryptography, main challenge is key distribution as keys need to be distributed via **confidential and authentic** channels
- In public-key system, main challenge is key authentication (i.e., which key belongs to who) as keys need to be distributed via **authentic channel**
- **Public-key infrastructure (PKIs)** provide a way to validate public keys
- **CA:** certificate Authority
- A **public-key certificate** (or simply **certificate**) is signed and binds a name to a public key
- **Trust anchor, trust root:** self-signed certificates of public keys that are allowed to sign other certificates
- **X.509** standard format of digital certificate
- **Root of trust** is used to establish trust in other entities
- *Cryptography operations enable transfer of trust from one entity to another*
- Trust roots do not scale to the world
 - *Monopoly model:* single root of trust
 - * Problem: world cannot agree on who controls root of trust
 - *Oligarchy model:* numerous roots of trust
 - * Problems: Weakest link security: single compromised enables man-in-the-middle attack; not trusting some trust roots results in unverifiable entities
- **Let’s Encrypt**
 - Goal: provide free certificate based on automated domain validation, issuance, and renewal
 - Based on ACME; Automated Certificate Management Environment
- **Certificate Revocation**
 - Certificate revocation is a mechanism to invalidate certificates
 - * After a private key is disclosed
 - * Trusted employee / administrator leaves corporation
 - * Certificate expiration time is usually chosen too long
 - CA periodically publishes Certificate Revocation List (CRL)
 - * Delta CRLs only contains changes
 - * What to do if we miss CRL update?
 - What is general problem with revocation
 - * CAP theorem (Consistency, Availability, tolerance to partition): impossible to achieve all 3, must select one to sacrifice
- **DANE**
 - DNS-Based Authentication of Named Entities
 - Goal: Authenticate TLS servers without a certificate authority
 - Idea: use DNSSEC to bind certificate to names
- **Certificate Transparency**
 - Will make all public end-entity TLS certificate public knowledge, and will hold CAs publicly accountable for all certificates they issue
 - And it will do so without introducing another trusted third party
 - A CT log is an append-only list of certificate

- The log server verifies the certificate chain
- Periodically append all new certificates to the append-only log and sign that list
- Publish all updates of the signed list of certificates to the world
- A CT log is not a “Super CA”
 - * The log does not testify the goodness of certificates; it merely notes their presence
 - * The log is public: everyone can inspect all the certificates
 - * The log is untrusted: since the log is signed, the fact that everyone sees the same list of certificate is cryptographically verifiable
- How CT improves security
 - * Browser would require SCT for opening connection
 - * Browser contacts log server to ensure that certificate is listed in the log
- Consequence
 - * Attack certificate would have to be listed in public log
 - * Attacks become publicly known
- Advantages
 - * CT is fully operational today
 - * No change to domain’s web server required
- Disadvantages
 - * MitM attacks can still proceed
 - * Browser still needs to contact Log eventually to verify that certificate is listed in log
 - * Current CT does not support revocation
 - * Malicious Log server can add bogus certificate
 - * Management of list of trusted log server can introduce a kill switch
- **Summary**
 - Cannot tolerate additional latency of contacting additional server during SSL/TLS handshake
 - A key has to be immediately usable and verifiable after initial registration
 - Users shouldn’t be bothered in the decision process if certificate is legitimate
 - Need to cover entire certificate life cycle, including revocation, handling stolen and lost certificate
 - Secure crypto and secure protocols are insufficient
 - * Numerous failure possibilities
 - * User interface security and certificate management are critically important
 - The entity who controls the root keys, controls all authentication and verification operations
 - PKI and revocation can result in a powerful ‘kill switch’, which can enable shutting down part of internet
 - * Sovereign PKI continues to be an important research challenge

Virtual Private Networks (VPNs)

- VPN creates a **Secure channel** between two networks over an **untrusted network**
 - **Set-up phase:** the gateways (tunnel endpoints) *authenticate* each other and *set up keys*
 - **Tunneling phase:**
 - * Packets are encapsulated at the first gateway
 - * ... and decapsulated at the second
- Similar security properties as the TLS record protocol
 - Authentication of the source (handshake) data integrity (MACs)
 - Secrecy (symmetric encryption)
 - Replay suppression (sequence numbers)
- VPN setup 1: secure connection between two physically separated networks (site to site)
 - Replace private physical networks and leased lines
 - * Even for leased lines, encryption may be desirable
- VPN setup 2: secure connection of a remote host to company/university network (host to site)
 - Remote host can access resources in private network
 - * Private IP addresses can be accessed without port forwarding
 - * Services do not need to be exposed to the Internet

- First gateway located at the host
 - * All traffic between host and private network is secure
- VPN setup 3: VPN as a ‘secure’ proxy (to get a different IP address)
 - Circumvent censorship
 - Avoid trackigng by your ISP or in a public Wi-Fi network
 - Hide your IP address from websites
 - Spoof your location
 - Access restricted content
 - Downloads torrents (only legal ones of course)
- Important: VPN provider has access to metadata of all traffic
- *VPN/neqanonimity*
- VPNs provide some limited anonimity properties
 - Local network and ISP only see that you send traffic through some VPN
 - * They do not see which websites you access
 - Web servers do not see you real IP address
 - * Of course, if you use cookies or log in, anonimity is lost
- VPN server can monitor and record all traffic
- Why do we need VPNs when we have TLS?
 - VPNs protect *all* traffic: *blanket* security
 - * DNS requests
 - * Access to services that do not support TLs
 - VPNs can give some access to services in private networks or behind firewalls
- Why do we need TLS when we have VPNs?
 - Data is only secure in the tunnel: no security outside of it
 - VPN server can see all unencrypted traffic → TLS still necessary
 - With a VPN it is not possible to authenticate the webserver, only the tunnel endpoint
- VPNs can *negatively impact performance*
 - Additional cryptographic operations
 - Potential detours
 - Limited bandwidth at VPN server
- Generally, VPNs do not provide higher availability
 - No build in defense against DoD or routing attack
- VPNs *can defend against targeted packet filtering*
 - Routers can recognize VPN packets but not content
 - Would need to drop all VPN packets
- VPNs themselves can become targets for DoS attacks
- VPN vs **VLAN** (virtual local area network)
 - VPN (securely) *connect/combine* two different networks
 - * One virtual network over multiple physical networks
 - VLAN: set up multiple *isolated virtual networks* on a single physical infrastructure
 - * Virtual networks are identified by tags, which are added to Ethernet frames
 - * Often used in cloud-computing environments for isolating communication between VMs
- **Authentication mechanism**
 - Pre-shared key (PSK)
 - Public keys and certificates
 - Client: username/password
- **Tunneling mechanism** (tunnel protocol)
 - Custom protocols (IPsec)
 - Tunnel over TLS (SSTP)
- **Layer of connected networks** (inner protocol)
 - Layer 3 (Network Layer)
 - Layer 2 (Link Layer)
- **Implementation**
 - User space

- Kernel module
- Hardware
- VPN creates **virtual network adapter**
- Can be used like any other network adapter
- VPN interface can be used to all traffic or only selectively
- **IPsec** is a very large and complicated protocol
 - A typical IPsec session
 - * Set up a security association (SA) via IKE
 - * Encapsulate packets and tunnel them between SA endpoints
- **Wireguard**
 - No cryptographic agility
 - * Only use state-of-the-art primitives
 - * Simplify negotiation and remove insecure primitives
 - Very simple configuration - similar to **authorized_keys** file in ssh
 - Very small codebase, minimal attack surface, formally verifiable
 - handshake follows the Noise Protocol Framework
 - * Built exclusively on (elliptic curve) Diffie-Hellman exchanges
 - Each peer has a *static key* pair
 - Each peer creates *ephemeral key* pair
 - Derive symmetric keys from four Diffie helman combinations
 - 1-RTT handshake
 - Wireguard does not store state before authentication and does not send responses to unauthenticated packets
 - * Invisible to attackers
 - * Prevent state-exhaustion attacks
 - Initial message contains a timestamp to prevent replay attacks
- VPNs create **secure channels** on the network or link layer
- VPNs and end-to-end security (TLS) **complement each other**
- Many different VPN protocols and applications
 - **IPsec** has a long history and *numerous configuration options*
 - * Very versatile but difficult to set up
 - **WireGuard** is a new VPN protocol with a focus on simplicity
 - * Very few configuration parameters, no cryptographic agility
 - * Simple to set up
 - * Small codebase → small attack surface