# Uni IT Security Notes

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# Uni IT Security Notes

These study materials are heavily based on professor Schmitz's "IT Security" lecture at HdM Stuttgart.

# **Basics**

# Security Mindset

• Focus on weaknesses, not on features

- Don't rely on the "good case"
- Anticipate what an attacker could do to a system
- Weight security against user experience and privacy

# Aspects of IT Security

- Legal
- Technical
- Economical

# Security Objectives

- Confidentiality/conf
  - Nobody but the legitimate receiver can read a message
  - Third party cannot gain access to communication patterns
- Integrity/int: The contents of communication can't be changed without the participants knowing
- Authenticity/authN
  - **Entity Authentication**: Communication partners can prove their respective identity to one another
  - Message Authentication: It can be verified that a message is authentic (unaltered and sent by the correct entity)
- Authorization/authZ
  - Service or information is only available to those who have correct access rights
  - Depends on authentication being set up
- Non-Repudiation/nRep: A sender cannot deny having sent a message or used a service
- Availability/avail: Service is available with sufficient performance
- Access Control/ac: Access to services and information is controlled
- Privacy/priv
  - Restricted access to identity-related data
  - Anonymity
  - Pseudonymity

# Safety vs. Security

- Safety: Coincidental crashes or failures  $\rightarrow$  On average more likely
- **Security**: Intentional attacks  $\rightarrow$  Less likely

#### Attacks, Threats and Vulnerabilities

- Attacker: A person who has the skill and motivation to carry out an attack: The steps needed to carry out an attack
- Vulnerability: Some characteristics of the target that can result in a security breach
- Threat: Combination of an attacker, an attack vector and a vulnerability

- Attack: A threat that has been realized and has caused a security breach
- Attack Vector: Some characteristics of the target system that can result in a security breach

# Risk and Threat Analysis

```
graph TD
   subgraph Threat analysis
        A[System inventory and definition]-->B
        B[Threat identification]-->C
        C[Threat evaluation]
   end

C-->D

subgraph Risk analysis
        D[Impact evaluation]-->E
        E[Risk calculation]-->A
   end
```

# Threat Identification

- Define **system boundaries**: What is part of your system, what is not?
- Define **security objectives**: What is important for your system to be secure?
- List all threats you can think of: Brainstorming and discussion with experts
- Use conventions:
  - Similar threat models
  - Requirement specifications
  - How to break or circumvent the specifications
  - Note security assumptions of the system
  - Be careful with perimeter security: What if perimeter has been breached?
  - Note possible, but not yet exploitable vulnerabilities

### Trade-offs in Security

- Costs increase exponentially with increased security
- User friendliness decreases linearly with increased security
- Risk analysis can be used when tuning the level of security

# **Security Frameworks**

# **Network Specific Threat Examples**

• Remote Attacks

- Eavesdropping: Sniffing of information
- Altering information
- Spoofing
- DoS
- Session hijacking
- Viruses attacking clients
- Spam
- Phishing
- Data trails/privacy leaks

# STRIDE: Attacks on a Multi-User System

- Spoofing of Identity
- Tampering with Information
- Repudiation
- Information Disclosure
- DoS
- Escalation of Privileges

# **Security Policies**

- Classification of system states into "allowed" and "forbidden" states
- Secure system: Is only in allowed states
- Breached system: Is in forbidden state

# Security Mechanisms and Concepts

```
graph TD
```

```
A[Security policy]-->|requires|B
```

B[Security objectives]-->|realized by|C

C[Security mechanisms]-->|described by|D

D[Security concept]

#### Mitigation Strategies

• Reduce: Increase effort for attacker

• Assign: Decrease damage for target

• Accept: Accept remaining risk

# Malware

# **Malware General Definition**

- Performs unwanted functions
- Often runs without user's consent
- Telemetry (often hidden in proprietary software behind EULAs)
- Backdoors

# **Infection Paths**

- **Direct infection**: Mail  $\rightarrow$  Executable
- Exploitation of vulnerabilities: Over network, drive-by infection (downloads which a person has authorized but without understanding the consequences)
- External devices: USB sticks
- Bundled with other functionality: Trojan horses

# Malware Types

- Computer viruses
  - Boot sector virus (infects all drives)
  - File virus
  - Macro virus
  - Worm: Network based virus
- Trojan horses; adware
- Key loggers, spyware
- Botnet software
- Ransomware: Extortion

## **Trojan Horses**

- Has server and client parts
- Server is used for installation, which the client then confirms
- Once installed, an attacker can take control
  - Reading sensitive data
  - Key logging
  - Botnet integration

# Backdoors

Intentionally created remote code execution vulnerability/ingress into system (Hello, Five Eyes!).

#### Logic Bomb

Malicious function, which is called once condition evaluates to true.

#### Rootkit

Collection of services installed on a compromised system, which enables hiding

- Logins
- Processes
- Files

from users other than root.

#### **Advanced Persistent Threat**

#### Advanced:

- Attack is customized to target host (one node)
- High effort
- Targets are i.e. VIPs or institutions

#### Persistent:

- First infected host is used to infiltrate the entire system
- Scans for login information to create an account for the attackers

Threats: Often uses Zero-Day vulnerabilities

#### **Botnet**

- Infected host does work for somebody external
- Master controls the bots and distributes updates to stay hidden
- Dynamic: Needs to handle hosts being turned on/off and has to hide its existence
- Can be used to send spam, DDoS attacks, hosting of malicious sites

#### Common Reasons for Vulnerabilities

Issues in  $\dots$ 

- Architecture
- Design
- Implementation

... lead to attack vectors:

- Client side: Browser, office software, E-Mail, media players, ...
- Server side: Web apps, OS services, Anti-virus/backup software
- Relaxed security policies: User has to many capabilities
- Abuse of protocols: Instant messaging can be used as remote control, BitTorrent for distribution etc.
- Zero-day attacks: Non-public vulnerabilities

#### **Side-Channel Attacks**

Indirect (physical) attack on a system; i.e. smudge patterns on a smartphone

#### **Buffer Overflow**

- Application provides finite buffer for input but does not check size of input
  - Buffer can overflow
  - Overwriting internal information or allowing attacker to insert machine code to jump back into

- Possible due to Von Neumann architecture: Programs in data are stored in the same memory
- C does not check bounds (gets, strcopy, memcopy, prinf etc.)

# Race Conditions

Information is being changed after it has been checked, but before it has been executed.

# Networking

Videos### TCP Overview

- Characteristics
  - Reliable
  - Connection-Oriented
  - Full-Duplex
  - Layer atop IP
  - Connection management: Setup, Release and Abort
  - Ordered delivery (package sequence control)
  - Repetition of lost packets
  - End-to-End ACKs
  - Checksum in header
- Identified by a 5-tuple
  - Source IP
  - Destination IP
  - Transport Protocol
  - Source Port
  - Destination Port

#### TCP Connection Establishment

- Virtual connection between two systems
- 3-Way-Handshake with connection states

An example connection from the client to the server:

<client></client>					<server></server>	
[Closed]					[Closed]	
[SYN Sent]		SEQ=x	CTL=SYN	=>		
	<=	SEQ=y	CTL=SYN+ACK	ACK=x+1	Favor D	
		SEQ=x+1	CTL=ACK	ACK=y+1 =>	[SYN Received]	
[Established]			<b>·</b>	J <b>-</b>	[Established]	

## **IP Security Issues**

- IP header doesn't have confidentiality or integrity protection
  - Faking the sender address is easy to do
  - Traffic can be analyzed by sniffing packet headers
- IP payload doesn't have confidentiality or integrity protection
  - Eavesdropping is possible by sniffing packets
- Loose coupling with lower layers:
  - Easy to divert traffic
  - Availability can be easily attacked
  - Confidentiality and integrity can't be guaranteed
- Unprotected error signaling via ICMP: Fake error messages can affect availability
- DNS is insecure; i.e. DNS spoofing

# TCP Security Issues

- TCP header doesn't have confidentiality or integrity protection
- Session hijacking
  - When sniffing session details, attacker can impersonate a peer in a TCP connection
  - Attackers can guess session details and attack remotely using spoofed IP addresses
- RST attack: Attackers can reset/abort attacks by injecting packets with the RST flag
- Port scanning
  - Find out open ports
  - Determine software running on port
- SYN flooding
  - Overload system resources by initializing many connections and not pursuing them

### **Port Scanning**

- Objective: Collect information about ...
  - Installed services
  - Software versions
  - OS
  - Firewall
- Enumeration based on port
  - Well-known ports (i.e. SSH  $\rightarrow$  22)
  - Invalid connection requests: Different way of error handling can be used to fingerprint the OS
- Possible scanning methods
  - TCP connect scan
  - Half-open scan
  - SYN-ACK scan

#### - ACK scan

#### TCP Protection Mechanisms

- SYN flood protection
  - Limit rate of SYN packets
  - SYN cookies (RFC 4987)
    - \* Limit resources
    - \* Half-open connections are not stored in the connection table but instead as a hash in the ISN
    - \* Only if the 3rd ACK handshake packet matches the sequence number, the connection is added to the connection table
    - \* Server does not need to maintain any state information on halfopen connections: Resources can't be exhausted
- Connections are only accepted if the sequence numbers are within a certain range of acceptable values (attackers would have to sniff sequence numbers or guess them)

#### Session Hijacking

- Attacker takes over existing connection between two peers
- Requirement: Attacker has to sniff or guess sequence numbers of the connection correctly

# RST Attacks (In-Connection DoS)

Inject packet with RST flag into ongoing connection: Connection has to be aborted immediately

## **Blind IP Spoofing**

Firewall is configured to only allow one source IP address and destination IP address (A  $\rightarrow$  B).

To circumvent this restriction:

- 1. Attackers starts DoS attack on A to prevent A from sending RST packets to B
- 2. Attacker sends TCP connection setup packet with A's source IP address to B  $\,$
- 3. B sends SYN+ACK packet to A, but can't respond due to DoS
- 4. Attacker sends TCP connection ACK packet to B with ACK matching the initial sequence number chosen by B (which has to be guessed, as B sent the SYN+ACK packet to A, not the attacker)

Only works if B uses a predicable algorithm for it's ISN and packet filters aren't in place.

# Perimeter Defense in Practice

#### **Architecture Recommendations**

- Known from medieval cities, castles etc.
- Definition of system boundary between "inside" and "outside"
- Different threat models for inside and outside
  - **Inside**: Trusted
  - Outside: Untrusted
- Objectives
  - Create said boundary
  - Only a defined set of communication relations is allowed
  - Special security checks
  - Limited number of interconnection points
  - Simpler to manage and audit than a completely open architecture
- Problems
  - Requires intelligent selection of system boundaries
  - May require multiple levels of perimeters
  - No system/user in the "trusted inside" can truly be trusted

# Application in Networking

- Installing security devices at the network border
- Seperation of network areas into inside/outside
- Prevent sensistive information from being sent to the outside (view the system in the inside as the potential, probably unintentional attacker)
- Multiple levels can increase security
- But: Perimeter security is not sufficient on its own!
  - The will probably be additional non-secured paths into the network (i.e. ssh -R)
  - Some malicious traffic might look like "normal" traffic and can pass

#### Stateless Packet Filter

- Access Control List (ACL): Applies set of rules to each incoming packets
- Discards (denies, blocks) or forwards (allows, permits) packets based on ACL
- Typically configured by IP and TCP/UDP header fields
- Stateless inspection: Established connections can only be detected with the ACK control flag
- Can be easy to misconfigure by forgetting essential protocols
  - DNS
  - ICMP
- Advantages
  - Fast/High throughput
  - Simple to realize
  - Software-based, can be added as a package

- Simple to configure
- Disadvantages
  - Inflexible
  - Many attacks can only be detected using stateful filtering
  - Rules and their priorities can easily get confusing
- Default discard policy
  - Block everything which is not explicitly allowed (allowlist)
  - Issue: The security policy has to be revised for each new protocol or service
  - This rule must come last/have the lowest priority, behind all "allowing" rules

#### Stateful Packet Filters

- Store connection states
- Can make decisions based on
  - TCP connections
  - UDP replies to previous outgoing packet with same IP:Port relation ("UDP Connection")
  - Application protocol states
- Similar to application layer gates/proxy firewalls, but less intruding in communication
- Rules can be more specific than in stateless packet filters
- Rules are easier to enforce, i.e. incoming TCP packets don't have to be allowed in because they have ACK set

#### Stateful Firewalls

- Tries to fix the problems of stateless inspection
  - To many packets have to be allowed by default (ACK  $\rightarrow$  No SYN-scanning protection)
  - Protocols like FTP or SIP, which dynamically allocate port numbers, can't be filtered securely
- Create state per TCP or UDP flow
  - Source and Destination IP:Port
  - Protocol
  - Connection state
- A packet which is not associated with a state is dropped immediately
- Packets which belong to a previously established TCP/UDP "connection" are allowed to pass without further checks
- State tables have to be cleaned up periodically to prevent resource starvation

# **Application Layer Proxies**

- Protected host during connection establishment
- Different kinds

- Application level
- Circuit level
- Forward proxy (client-side)
- Reverse proxy (server-side)

## **Application Level Gateways**

- Conversion between different application layer protocols
- Evaluation up to OSI layer 7
  - Protocol verification
  - Authentication
  - Malware scanning
  - Spam filtering
  - Attack pattern filtering
- Advantage: Security policies can be enforced at application level
- Disadvantage: Computing and memory performance requirements

## Circuit Level Gateway

- Checks/controls at TCP connection level
- Creates separate connection to outside and inside
- Checks data before it is being sent to the transport layer

# Demilitarized Zone (DMZ)

- Outside world: Global Internet
- Outside router: Routes packet to and from bastion host
- Bastian host: Proxy server and relay host
- Inside router: Routes packets only to and from bastion host
- Inside (protected): Intranet

The DMZ creates 2/3 lines of defense by the use of a stub network.

Multi-Level DMZs can create even more secure perimeter defenses:

Global Internet  $\to$  Access Router and Packet Filter  $\to$  Public Services Host (offers i.e. public Web services)  $\to$  Screening Router and Packet filter (prevents IP spoofing)  $\to$  Mail host (for external mail communication)  $\to$  Bastion host (i.e. proxy for FTP and Web access)  $\to$  Intranet

# Web Application Firewalls (WAFs)

- Acts on the application layer
- Is a reverse proxy
- Can protect the web server from "evil" client input
  - Cross-Site scripting
  - SQL injection: Filters out JS or SQL commands in client input by removing special symbols (i.e. <, ' etc)</li>

- Cookie poisoning: Stores the hash values of sent cookies
- HTML manipulation: Encrypts URL parameters

# Cross-Site Scripting (XSS)

Injection of malicious client-side code (JS, WASM) into site. There are multiple types:

- Reflected/non-persistent XSS: Attacker provides malicious data i.e. via URL  $\rightarrow$  server adds malicious code to page  $\rightarrow$  browser executes the malicious code
- **DOM-based XSS**: Attacker provides malicious data i.e. via URL → client (app running in the browser) adds malicious code to page → browser then executes the malicious code
- Stored (persistent) XSS: Attacker provides malicious data using i.e. their profile page, POSTs it to the server → server stores it i.e. in a database → Client then requests i.e. the attacker's profile page → server loads the malicious data from the database → adds the stored malicious code to the page → browser then executes the malicious code

# Cross Site Request Forgery (CSRF)

Sniffing of cookies/tokens from a connection in another tab.

# Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS)

- Security product that is specialized on detecting anomalies during live operation of networks and computers
  - Virus/Botnet activity
  - Suspicious network activity (malware phoning home)
- Basic Approaches
  - Signature based: Use attack signatures/known malicious communication activity patterns
  - Anomaly based: Significant deviation from previously recorded baseline activity
  - Rule based: Define allowed by behavior by app-specific set of legitimate actions
- Actions
  - Send out alarm
  - Logging
  - Blocking of known patters
- Realization
  - Appliance
  - Integration in firewall
  - Integration into host

# Injections

- **SQL injection**: SQL commands are sent to the database because neither server nor client escape i.e. '
- **HTML injection**: Parameters in HTML forms can also be sent using a POST request

# Symmetric Encryption

# Symmetric Encryption Overview

#### Alice:

- 1. Creates message
- 2. Chooses key
- 3. Computes ciphertext
- 4. Send ciphertext to Bob

# Eve (Attacker):

- 1. Copies ciphertext
- 2. Tries to guess the key

#### Bob:

- 1. Receives ciphertext
- 2. Uses key
- 3. Computes plaintext
- 4. Reads message

## Kerckhoffs' Principle

- From "La Cryptographie Militaire"
- Most important point: The security of a crypto system must lie in the non-disclosure of the key but not in the non-disclosure of the algorithm
- Implementation
  - Keep secret which function you used for encryption
  - But a disclosure of the set of functions should not create a problem

# Strong Algorithms

- There is no attack that can break it with less effort than a brute force attack ("complete enumeration")
- There are so many keys that a **complete search of key space is infeasible**

# Crypto Attack Classes

• Active attacks

- Most relevant for cryptographic protocols
- Active interference (modification, insertion or deletion of messages)
- Man in the middle (MITM) can receive messages and modify them on the way to the receiver
- Passive attacks: Pure eavesdropping, without interference with communication

## Perfect Security

Ciphertext does not give any information you don't already have about the plaintext (p(m(c)) = p(m))

#### One-Time-Pad

- Vernam Cypher: Create ciphertext by XOR addition of secret key and plaintext
- Mauborgne: Random key, never re-use key ("one time")
- Shannon: OTP is unbreakable if key is ...
  - Truly random
  - As large
  - Never reused
  - Kept secret

# **Stream Cyphers**

Encryption like one-time-pad, but using pseudo-random bits instead of true random (using a Crytographically Secure Pseudo-Random Number Generator (CSPRNG))

# True Random Number Generators

- Output can't be reproduced or predicted
- Is based on physical processes

# (Cryptographically Secure) Pseudo-Random Number Generators (CSPRNG)

PSRNGs compute the output based on a seed and an internal state.

A CSPRNG must ...

- Be unpredictable
- Be computationally infeasible to compute the next outputs
- ... when the initial state of the CSPRNG is not known

# Design Principles for Block Cyphers

Two methods for frustrating a statistical analysis:

- Confusion: The ciphertext should depend on the plaintext in such a complicated way that an attacker cannot gain any information from the ciphertext (redundancy should not be visible anymore in the ciphertext)
- **Diffusion**: Each plaintext and key bit should influence as many ciphertext bits as possible
  - Changing one bit in plaintext  $\rightarrow$  Many pseudo-random changes in ciphertext
  - Changing one bit in the key  $\rightarrow$  Many pseudo-random changes in ciphertext

#### Feistel Networks

- Described by Horst Feistel
- Algorithm
  - Plaintext block B is divided in 2 halves
  - Derive r round key keys from key
  - Feed one half through round function F
  - Then XOR the result with the other half
  - Exchange halves
- Repeat r times

#### DES (Tripple DES)

- Single DES breakable in less than 24h (complete search of key space)
- Tripple DES is still secure
- Three steps of DES on each data block using up to three keys
- Decryption in reverse sequence
- 3 independend keys are the most secure
- Three same keys can be used for (insecure) DES compatibility

## **AES Key Features**

- FIPS standard 197
- Key length: 128/192/256 bit
- Block size: 128 bit
- Iterative rounds of substitutions and permutation, but no Feistel structure
- 10, 12 or 14 rounds
- Blocks of 16 bytes arranged in 4x4 state matrix
- Components of the round function are invertible and independent of key
  - Substitute Bytes: Non-linear substitution of bytes in state
  - **Shift Rows**: Cyclic shifting of rows
  - Min Columns: Multiplication of state elements with a fixed 4x4 matrix M

# Modes of Operation for Block Cyphers

• Objective: Encrypt multiple plaintext blocks with the same block cypher

- Straightforward solution: blockwise encryption ("Electronic Codebook Mode")
- Problem: Patterns in the distribution of plaintext blocks remain visible

# Cypher Block Chaining (CBC)

- Avoids telltale patterns in ciphertext
- Decryption fails if a data block is missing or corrupted
- Each data block is encrypted in relation to the previous block

## Counter Mode (CTR)

- Simple and efficient
- Random access still possible
- No issues if data block is missing
- Incrementing counter is involved in randomization per data block

#### **Padding**

- Plaintext needs to be a full number of blocks
- If plaintext does not fill the last block completely, it must be padded before encryption
  - In order to facilitate safe decryption, the last block is always padded:
     For example for a block size of n bytes, there are 1...n bytes added to the plaintext before encryption
  - Decryption can check last bytes and strip them off correspondingly
- Always need to pad with at least one byte!
- Common methods
  - Pad with bytes of the same value as the number of padding bytes (PKCS#5; i.e. if there are three bytes to be padded, add 0x03 0x03 0x03)
  - Pad with 0x80 followed by 0x00 bytes
  - Pad with zeroes except for the last byte that indicates the number of padding bytes
  - Pad with zeroes
  - Pad with space characters (0x20)

## **Key Length Considerations**

- Cryptography is always a matter of complexity
  - With enough time and/or space, all schemes can theoretically be broken
  - "brute force" attacks
  - Example: 56bit keys DES can be broken in <24h since 1999
- Meanwhile
  - 128bit keys have to be replaced in the coming years
  - 192bit keys are secure in medium term

- 256bit keys are hard to crack due to physical boundaries ("state of the art")
- Quantum computers might be able to crack keys much more quickly
- Numbers refer to unbroken algorithms in symmetric cryptography
  - Broken algorithm is one where an n bit key can be determined trying out significantly less than 2<sup>n</sup> keys

# Message Authentication

## Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

- Objectives
  - Integrity protection: Prevent unauthorized manipulation of data
  - Message authentication: Prevent unauthorized origination on behalf of others
- Idea: Compute a cryptographic chesum (MAC)
- Required Properties
  - Cannot be counterfeited; without having the sender's secret, it is to complex to ...
    - \* Find another message matching the same MAC
    - \* Construct a suitable MAC for another message
  - Even smallest changes to message cause a big change of the MAC

## General Scenario

#### Alice:

- 1. m = "I love you. Alice"
- 2. Select secret key K
- 3. Compute  $MAC_K(m)$

#### Bob:

- 1. Receives m'
- 2. Selects secret key K
- 3. Computes  $MAC_K(m')$
- 4. Compares computed MAC with received MAC  $\rightarrow$  Matches!

**Assertion**: If computed MAC equals the MAC included in the received message, an owner of the key (Alice) really sent this message and it was not changed on the way.

#### Scenario with Modified Message

Alice: Same as in General Scenario

# Mallory:

• m = "It's all over! Alice."

# Bob

- 1. Receives m'
- 2. Selects secret key K
- 3. Computes  $MAC_K(m')$
- 4. Compares computed MAC with received MAC  $\rightarrow$  Doesn't match!
- 5. Ignore m

## **MAC Computation**

- Requirements
  - Shared key k between sender and receiver
  - Hash function to create a code that changes if the message has been altered
- Using block cypher  $f_k$  and hash function  $hash: MAC(m) = f_k(hash(m))$
- Using a key dependent cryptographic hash function hash(k,m): MAC(m) = hash(k,m)

# **Hash Function Requirements**

- Weak **collision resistance**: For a given message and hash it is impossible/to complex to find another message such that the hashes match
- One-way property
  - Easy to compute hash
  - Impossible to find message from hash

# **Asymmetric Encryption**

# Public Key Cryptography

# Alice:

- 1. Generates key pair  $(PK_{Alice}, SK_{Alice})$
- 2. Published  $PK_{Alice}$  at Trent's
- 3. c received  $\rightarrow$  decrypts  $m = D_{SK_{Alice}}(C)$

#### Trent:

- Stores public keys
- Provides public keys on request

# Bob:

- 1. Wants to send m to Alice confidentially
- 2. Obtains  $PK_{Alice}$  from Trent
- 3. Computes  $c = E_{PK_{Alice}}(m)$
- 4. Sends c to Alice

# RSA Key Generation

Also see the handwritten notes.

- 1. Alice chooses 2 large prime numbers p,q and computes  $n=p\cdot q,\,\phi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$
- 2. Alice chooses an integer e with  $1 < e < \phi(n)$  that is relatively prime to  $\phi(n)$
- 3. Alice computes an integer d with  $1 < d < \phi(n)$  and  $d \cdot e = k \cdot \phi(n) + 1$
- 4. Alice publishes her public key  $PK_{Alice} = (e, )$
- 5. Alice keeps her private key  $SK_{Alice} = d$  and  $p, q, \phi(n)$  secret

# **RSA** Encryption

Also see the handwritten notes.

- 1. Bob obtains  $PK_{Alice} = (e, n)$
- 2. Bob composes plaintext  $m \in M = \{1, 2, ..., n-1\}$
- 3. Bob computes the ciphertext  $c = E_{PKAlice}(m) = m^e \mod n$
- 4. Bob sends c to Alice

## **RSA Decryption**

Also see the handwritten notes.

Alice can obtain the plaintext message m by computing  $m=D_{SK_{Alice}}(c)=c^d \mod n=m^{ed} \mod n$ 

# **RSA Security**

- **RSA problem**: Given e, n and  $c = m^e \mod n$ , find m
  - Most efficient approach to solve the RSA problem is currently the integer factorization of n: An upper limit to the complexity of the problem; can be used to derive the private key from the prime factors
  - Quantum computers will be more efficient in doing integer factorization (Shor's algorithm)
  - RSA problem and integer factorization still lack mathematical proof for their complexity
- Organizational properties
  - **Authenticity** of the public key (e, n)
  - Confidentiality of the secret key (d, p, q)
- Mathematical properties
  - Complexity of factoring the modulus n
  - Complexity of solving the RSA problem
- Failure of any properties will compromise the security of the method!

## Hybrid Method

Combination of asymmetric and symmetric key methods.

#### Alice:

- 1. Generates key pair  $(PK_{Alice}, SK_{Alice})$
- 2. Publishes  $PK_{Alice}$  at Trent's
- 3. c received  $\rightarrow$  Decrypts  $K = D_{SK_{Alice}}(c)$
- 4. Alice and bob switch over to the symmetric key algorithm with key K

#### Trent:

- Stores public keys
- Provides public keys on request

#### Bob:

- 1. Obtains  $PK_{Alice}$  from Trent
- 2. Generates symmetric key K
- 3. Computes  $c = E_{PK_{Alice}}(K)$
- 4. Sends c to Alice

# Discrete Logarithms

**Primitive element**: Let p be a prime number. An element  $g \le p-1$  is called primitive element  $\mod p$  if for each  $A \in \{1,2,...,p-1\}$  there is an x such that  $A = g^x \mod p$ 

**Discrete logarithm:** Let p be a prime number and let  $g \le p-1$  be a primitive element p mod p. Then an element p is called discrete logarithm of p to base p mod p if p mod p.

**Discrete logarithm problem**: Given A, g, p, find  $x \leq p-1$  with  $A=g^x \mod p$ 

#### **One-Way Functions**

- "Trap-door" functions
- Easy to compute in one direction (i.e.  $f(x) = g^x \mod p$ )
- Hard to invert
  - Ideally only possible using complete enumeration of all possible inputs
  - I.e. for a given y you need to try out all possible values x=0,1,...,p-1 to find one  $x_0:f(x_0)=y$
- Definition of complexity often of the P and NP complexity classes
  - **P**: Answer of a problem can be found in polynomial time (*b* bits of problem size  $\rightarrow$  algorithm takes time  $b^k$ )
  - **NP**: Answer of problem cannot be found in polynomial time (b bits of problem size  $\rightarrow$  algorithm takes time  $k^b$ ), but the correctness of given answer can be checked in polynomial time

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol

Purpose: Allow communication partners without prior knowledge of another to establish a shared secret key over an insecure communication channel

Also see the handwritten notes.

- 1. Alice and Bob agree publicly on prime number p and a primitive element
- 2. Alice randomly chooses  $\alpha \in \{2, ..., p-2\}$  and computes  $A = g^{\alpha} \mod p$
- 3. Bob randomly chooses  $\beta \in \{2, ..., p-2\}$  and computes  $B = g^{\beta} \mod p$
- 4. Alice and Bob publicly exchange A and B
- 5. Alice and Bob hold a common secret key K:

  - $\begin{array}{ll} 1.\ K_B=A^\beta \mod p=g^{\alpha\beta} \mod p\\ 2.\ K_A=B^\alpha \mod p=g^{\alpha\beta} \mod p=K_B \end{array}$

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol Security

It depends on three properties which can't be relaxed:

- Discrete logarithm problem: There is no efficient inversion for integer exponentiation
- Authenticity of exchanged messages: No protection against MITM at-
- Diffie-Hellman problem complexity: Given  $g, p, A = g^x \mod p, B =$  $q^y \mod p \text{ find } K = q^{xy} \mod p$

#### Trust

# **Digital Signatures**

- Requirements
  - Tamper-proof
  - Unambiguous attribution of signature to signing person/identity
  - Inseparable connection between signature and signed document
  - Non-repudiability of signature
- Typical approach
  - Encrypt hash of document with secret key
  - Signature can be verified using the public key

#### Alice:

- 1. Generates key pair  $(PK_{Alice}, SK_{Alice})$
- 2. Publishes  $PK_{Alice}$  at Trent's
- 3. Computes  $sigAlice(m) = E_{SK_{Alice}}(hash(m))$

#### Trent:

- Stores public keys
- Provides public keys on request

# Bob:

- 1. Obtains  $PK_{Alice}$  from Trent
- 2. Computes  $hash(m_{received})$
- 3. Decrypts signature  $D_{PK_{Alice}}(sig_{received})$ 4. Compares  $hash(m_{received})$  to the received signed hash

# RSA Signatures

- Conventions
  - $-\ PK_{Alice} = (e,n)$
  - $-\ SK_{Alice} = d$
  - -m is the message to be signed
  - -h is the secure hash function
- Computation of signature:  $sig_{Alice}(m) = (h(m))^d \mod n$
- Verification of signature
  - Bob receives (m', sig')
  - Bob computes h(m') and  $(sig')^e \mod n$
  - If both match, the signature is verified

# Certificates

- A certificate (cert) certifies that a certain public key belongs to a certain identity ("person")
- Certificates are digitally signed by service providers (Certificate Authorities, CAs) or government agencies (i.e. COVID certs)
- X.509: ITU standard for a common certificate format; contains
  - Version (v3)
  - Serial number (unique within the CA)
  - Signature algorithm
  - Issuer name (name of the CA)
  - Time of validity (not before, not after)
  - Subject name (who the cert is for)
  - Subject public key info (public key of subject, algorithm of public key)
  - ID of signature algorithm
  - Certificate signature algorithm
  - Certificate signature value (signature of the CA which signs the cert)

# Transport Security

#### Internet Model

- 7: Application Layer: HTTP, SMTP, ...
- Between: TLS, SSH, ...
- 4: Transport Layer: TCP, UDP, ...
- 3: Internetwork Layer: IP

- 2: Data Link Layer: IEEE 802.x
- 1: Physical Layer: IEEE 802.x
- (0): Physical transmission medium: Wire, fiber, wireless

#### TLS Handshake Overview

title TLS Handshake

Client->Server: Hello Server->Client: Hello

Server->Client: Cert public key
Server->Client: Hello Done

note over Client: Pre-master secret note over Client: Symmetric key

Client->Server: Change cypher key exchange

Client->Server: Client finished

note over Server: Pre-master secret note over Server: Symmetric key

Server->Client: Change cypher sec

Server->Client: Finished

Client<->Server: Encrypted data transfer

#### TLS Record Protocol

#### Sender:

- 1. Fragmentation
- 2. Compression (optional)
- 3. MAC computation (Key dependent; MD5, SHA-1, SHA-256 etc.)
- 4. Encryption

# Receiver:

- 1. Decryption
- 2. MAC verification
- 3. Decompression (optional)
- 4. Reassembly

#### **Connection States**

- Each side has four connection states
  - One for each direction (read/write)
  - One current and one pending set of states

- \* Parameters negotiated by the TLS handshake protocol
- \* Pending states made current by the change cypher spec protocol
- Security parameters
  - Connection end (client/server)
  - Bulk encryption algorithm
  - MAC algorithm
  - Compression algorithm
  - Master secret
  - Client random
  - Server random
- Security items for both directions (client write/server write)
  - Encryption keys
  - MAC secrets
  - Initialization vectors (in case of block cypher)
  - Sequence numbers (no wrapping)

# SSH Transport Layer Protocol

- Tasks
  - Server authentication
  - Negotiation of algorithms and keys
  - Confidentiality and integrity protection (for application data)
- Prerequisites
  - Server has a public key ("host key")
  - Client has a trustworthy copy of the host key
  - Reliable transport protocol (TCP) between client and server

# Frequently Asked Questions

# **Phishing Attacks**

- Attacker tries to get a user to log in with a fake mail and a fake site
- Attacker steals the login information of the user in order to get access to bank accounts or credit card info
- Many options in addition to mail
  - Malware (Keylogger)
  - DNS-based phishing (Redirection to fake site)
  - Man-in-the-middle Phishing
  - XSS
- Violated security objectives
  - Authenticity: Attacker pretends to be a different company
  - Confidentiality: Non-secured connection
  - **Authorization**: The attacker can steal credentials
  - Privacy: The attacker can get identity-related info by access to the user's account
  - Non-repudation: The attacker can transfer money

## **Phishing Attack Prevention**

- Spam filters: Most phishing mails can be filtered using a spam filter
- A link's text should be compared to the actual URL (the href tag)
- Check the URL in the address bar
- Antivirus-Apps
- Using an up-to-date system
- Checking the certificates of a site
- Using HTTPS

### Certificates and CAs

- Certifies properties of people or objects and their authenticity and integrity using cryptographic processes
- A public key certificate provides the public key of a person or organization and confirms it
- Certificates are signed by the service provider/certificate authority (CA) or a government authority (i.e. COVID-19), which adds to trust

#### Certificate Revocation

- As soon as a cert's private key has been leaked, it needs to be revoked by putting it on a certificate revocation list
- Before a cert should be used it should be checked if it has not been revoked vet
- There are also other reasons for cert revocation
  - Change of certificate metadata (i.e. name change)
  - Dissolution of the organization
  - Removal of privileges

#### Validation of Certificates

- Certificate has the service provider's/CA's signature
- The signature is a hash of the certificate encrypted with the CA's private key, which can be validated by decrypting it with the CA's known public key
- Date validity needs to be checked
- Revocation needs to be checked
- Risks
  - Revocation checks are crucial because they allow a user to verify the identity of the owner of the site and discover whether the certificate authority still considers the digital certificate trustworthy
  - Attacker could fake a site using a revoked certificate

#### Why can DES be decrypted even though F is not invertible?

• Key is divided and only one half is put through the round function

- Both halves are joined using XOR
- In order to decrypt a block, the same algorithm is used, but the divided keys are used in the opposite order

# **SQL** Injection

- Inputs from forms, API requests etc. are passed to the database without any validation for embedded snippets
- Embedded SQL snippets will run on the DB, allowing the attacker to run any snippet on the database
- Violated security objectives
  - Authorization: Access is granted without authorization
  - Confidentiality: Access to info in database
  - Integrity: Data can be manipulated
  - **Privacy**: Access to potentially identity-related private info
  - Availability: Database could be dropped, which would take the system down (no schema after attack)

#### **DNS Spoofing**

- Attacker sends fake DNS answers and pretends to be the relevant nameserver
- Attacker needs to send the fake answer before the relevant nameserver can; this is for example possible by a DoS attack
- Attacker can also add a fake entry to /etc/hosts
- Violated security objectives
  - Authenticity: Attacker pretends to be someone else
  - Confidentiality: Attacker eavesdrops on communication with DNS server

## Replay Attacks and Signatures

- Attacker tries to communicate using a packet which they sniffed beforehand
- Can be provided by using a random number or nonce, which is also being encrypted; the number would have to be guessed
- Encryption and signatures don't help prevent replay attacks as decryption is not required to replay the attack
- Violated security objectives
  - Confidentiality: Third parties shouldn't have access to the communication
  - Authenticity: Attacker can pretend to be someone else
  - Authorization: If sniffed packet contains login info

# VPN Access from Intranet to external Mail Server

• VPN gateway is required

- IPSec tunnel mode can be used
- Firewall rules, VPN connection and routing tables need to be configured

# Stateless vs. Stateful Packet Filters/Firewalls

- Stateless: Decides what to do with packets based on static values
  - IP:Port of source/destination
  - TCP flags
- Stateful: Decides what to do using a state table
  - Keeps track of connections using a state table (new/established/related/...)
  - Can detect MTU changes and packet fragmentation
  - Can't secure application layer from viruses
  - Decides what to do with packets based on dynamic values
    - \* TCP connections
    - $\ast\,$  UDP replies to previous outgoing packet with same IP:Port relation ("UDP connection")
    - \* Application protocol states
  - Drops unsolicited requests: Packets which don't match known criteria or are part of a DoS attack