

# Uni IT Security Notes

Felix Pojtinger

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# Uni IT Security Notes

## 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

### 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
- **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

### 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

### 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

## 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

## Malware

- Performs unwanted functions
- Often runs without user’s consent

- Telemetry (often hidden in proprietary software behind EULAs)
- Backdoors

## Networking

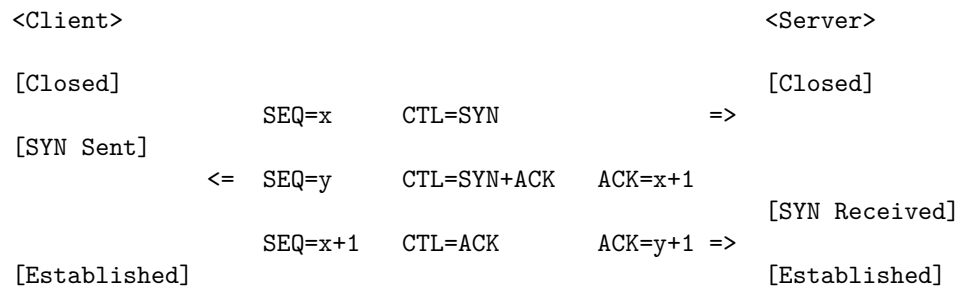
### TCP Overview

- 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:



### 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**
  - 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 half-open 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. Attacker 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 predictable algorithm for its 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
- Separation of network areas into inside/outside
- Prevent sensitive 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!
  - There 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 → 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

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

## Web Application Firewalls (WAFs)

- Acts on the application layer
- Is a reverse prxoy
- 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)
  - Cookie poisoning: Stores the hash values of sent cookies
  - HTML manipulation: Encypts URL parameters

## 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 behaviour by app-specific set of legitimate actions
- Actions
  - Send ut alarm
  - Logging
  - Blocking of known patters
- Realization
  - Appliance
  - Integration in firewall
  - Integration into host

## 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

### 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 **Cryptographically Secure Pseudo-Random Number Generator (CSPRNG)**)

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

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 → Many pseudo-random changes in ciphertext
  - Changing one bit in the key → 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  $1 \dots n$  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
- 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  $2^n$  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 checksum (MAC)
- Required Properties
  - Cannot be counterfeited; without having the sender's secret, it is too 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.  $m = \text{"I love you. Alice"}$
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:**

- $m = \text{"It's all over! Alice."}$

#### 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

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  $PK_{Alice} = (e, n)$
5. Alice keeps her private key  $SK_{Alice} = d$  and  $p, q, \phi(n)$  secret

### RSA Encryption

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

### RSA Decryption

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  $g \leq p - 1$  is called primitive element  $\mod p$  if for each  $A \in \{1, 2, \dots, p - 1\}$  there is an  $x$  such that  $A = g^x \mod p$

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

**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  $x = 0, 1, \dots, p - 1$  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

1. Alice and Bob agree publicly on prime number  $p$  and a primitive element  $g \leq p - 1$

2. Alice randomly chooses  $\alpha \in \{2, \dots, p-2\}$  and computes  $A = g^\alpha \mod p$
3. Bob randomly chooses  $\beta \in \{2, \dots, p-2\}$  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  $K$ :
  1.  $K_B = A^\beta \mod p = g^{\alpha\beta} \mod p$
  2.  $K_A = B^\alpha \mod p = g^{\alpha\beta} \mod p = K_B$

### 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 attacks!
- **Diffie-Hellman problem complexity:** Given  $g, p, A = g^x \mod p, B = g^y \mod p$  find  $K = g^{xy} \mod p$

### 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  $sig_{Alice}(m) = E_{SK_{Alice}}(hash(m))$

**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