CS 772/872: Advanced Computer and Network Security Fall 2025

Course Link:

https://shhaos.github.io/courses/CS872/netsec-fall25.html

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Network Security – Cryptography

- TCP/IP
- (D)DoS Attacks
- DNS
- BGP
- CDN

- Applied Cryptography
- PKI
- TLS/SSL and HTTPS
- **DNSSEC** (*USENIX Security '17*)
- **RPKI** (*NDSS'17*)
- HTTPS/CDN (*IEEE S&P'14*)



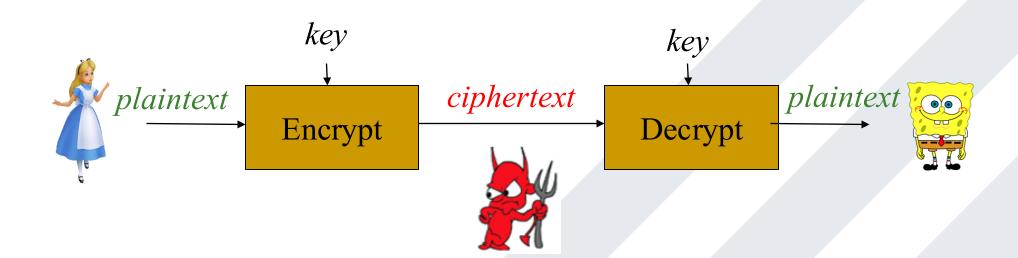
- Ensuring secrecy of the communication between two parties in the presence of malicious adversaries
 - Confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should "understand" message contents
 - sender encrypts message
 - receiver decrypts message
 - Integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards)
 - Authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other



- Ensuring secrecy of the communication between two parties in the presence of malicious adversaries
- Classical Cryptography
 - Always assumed that two parties shared some secret information (Key)
 - Private-kay or symmetric-key
- "Modern" Cryptography
 - No pre-shared secret is requited for two parties
 - Public-key or asymmetric-key



- (Symmetric Key) Encryption
 - Encrypt (encode) plaintext into ciphertext
 - Only legit-recipient can decrypt ciphertext to plaintext





- (Symmetric Key) Encryption
 - Encrypt (encode) plaintext into ciphertext
 - Only legit-recipient can decrypt ciphertext to plaintext
 - Stream Ciphers
 - Block Ciphers
 - DES (Data Encryption Standard)
 - AES (Advanced Encryption Standard)

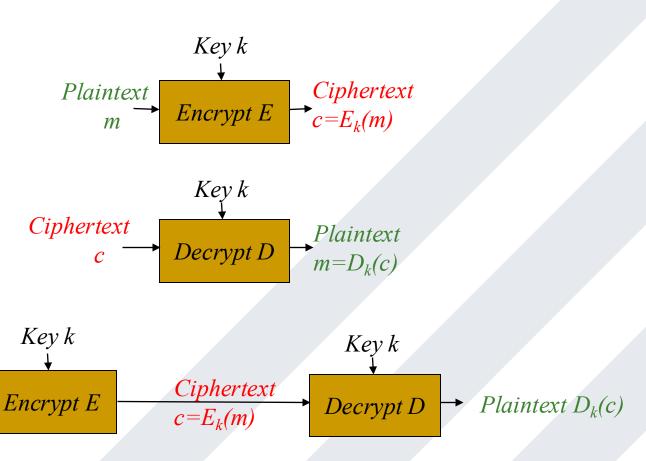


Correctness

Correctness: $m = D_k(E_k(m))$

Plaintext

m





- Threat Model for Encryption
 - Describe the assumption on the (computational) capability an attacker can gain
 - Ciphertext-only attack
 - Known-plaintext attack
 - Chosen-plaintext attack
 - Attacker was able to obtain some cipher text, encrypted using the same key, corresponding to plaintext of the attacker's choice (an oracle)



- Threat Model for Encryption
 - Describe the assumption on the (computational) capability an attacker can gain
 - Ciphertext-only attack
 - Known-plaintext attack
 - Chosen-plaintext attack
 - Chosen-ciphertext attack
 - Attacker is able to get a party to decrypt certain cipher texts of that attacker's choice.



- Threat Model for Encryption
 - Describe the assumption on the (computational) capability an attacker can gain
 - Ciphertext-only attack
 - Known-plaintext attack
 - Chosen-plaintext attack
 - Chosen-ciphertext attack

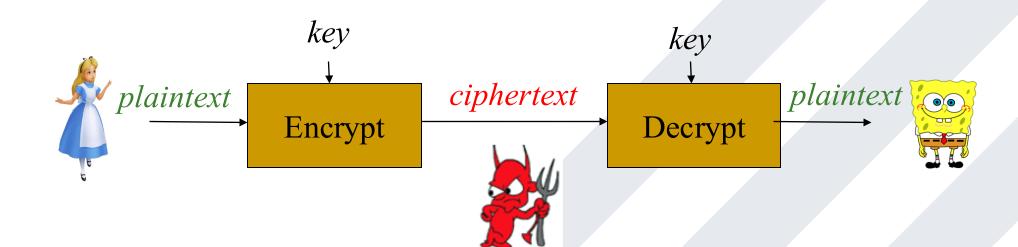
Regardless of any prior information the attacker has about the plaintext, the ciphertext observed by the attacker should leak no additional information about the plaintext.



- Threat Model for Encryption
 - Adversary's Goal
 - Recover the secret key
 - Recover plaintext from ciphertext, without knowing key
 - Learn partial information about plaintext from the ciphertext

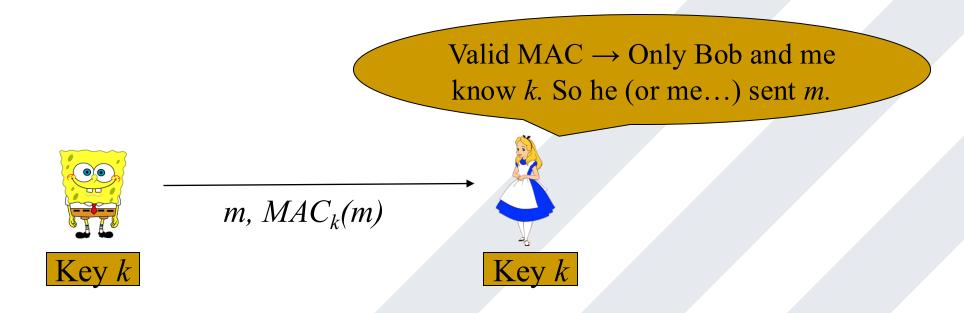


- Authentication
 - Encryption ensures Confidentiality
 - What about Integrity and Authentication
 - Does *Alice* send *this* message?



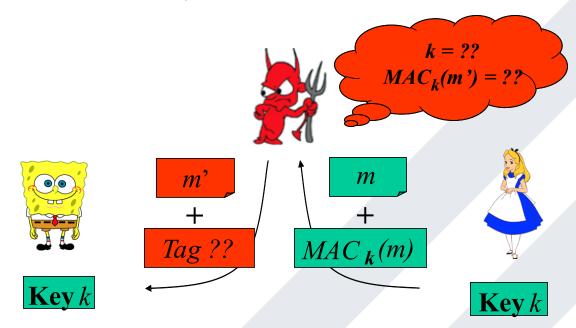


- Message Authentication Code (MAC)
 - Allow a recipient to validate that a message was sent by a key holder
 - Use shared key k to authenticate messages



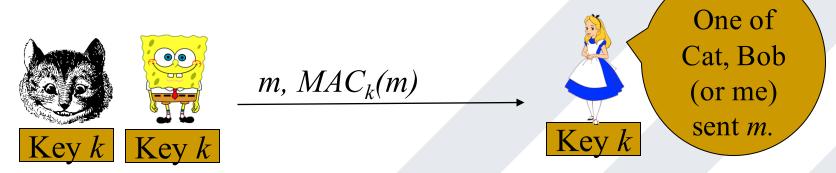


- Message Authentication Code (MAC)
 - Allow a recipient to validate that a message was sent by a key holder
 - (m, Tag) is valid iif $Tag = MAC_k(m)$





- Message Authentication Code (MAC)
 - Allow a recipient to validate that a message was sent by a key holder
 - Sender could be any key-holder including recipient
 - Specify sender and recipient in the message
 - Could be re-transmission (replay attack)
 - Add time/sequence challenge





Hash Functions

- Hash function h(m) allow verification of message: Integrity
 - Any length of message $m \rightarrow$ fixed length of hash h(m)
- Also confidentiality: one-way function
 - Hash value h(m) does not expose m
- Collision-resistance
 - $h(m) \neq h(m')$
 - Pseudo-randomness
 - Every hash has collisions: |input| >> |output|
 - But hard to find collisions

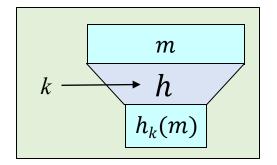


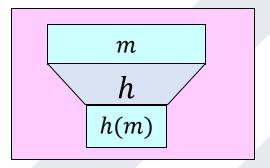
Hash Functions

- Hash function h(m) allow verification of message: **Integrity**
 - Any length of message $m \rightarrow$ fixed length of hash h(m)
- Also confidentiality: one-way function
 - Hash value h(m) does not expose m
- Practical hash functions
 - MD5: 128-bit output; collisions found in 2004
 - SHA-1: 160-bit; theoretical analysis indicates weakness
 - SHA-2: 256/512-bit output
 - SHA-3: different design than previous SHAs; results of a public competition



- Hash Functions
 - Hash functions: maps arbitrary length inputs to a fixed length output
 - Input: message m (binary strings)
 - Output: (short) binary strings *n* (message digest)
 - Keyed or unkeyed







- Private-key cryptography allows two users who share a secret key to establish a secure channel
- The need to share this secret key incurs drawbacks
 - Key distribution problem
 - How do users share a key in the first place?
 - Need to share the key using a secure channel
 - Trusted carrier/face-to-face meeting
 - Key Distribution Center



- Private-key cryptography allows two users who share a secret key to establish a secure channel
- The need to share this secret key incurs drawbacks
 - Key distribution problem
 - Key management problem
 - When each pair of users might need to communicate securely
 - O(N²) keys overall



- Private-key cryptography allows two users who share a secret key to establish a secure channel
- The need to share this secret key incurs drawbacks
 - Key distribution problem
 - Key management problem
 - Lack of "open systems"
 - Two users who have no prior relationship want to communicate securely



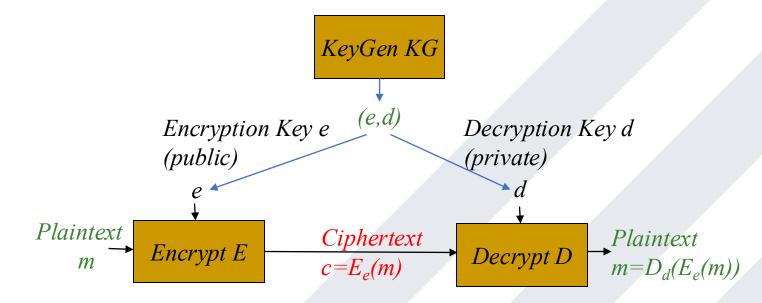
- New direction: can encryption key be *public*?
 - Anyone can encrypt the message using public encryption key
 - Decryption key will be different (and private)
 - only the key-holder can decrypt it

Each entity, Alice, generate a key pair (*P, S*).

- P is the public key and S is the secret private key
- Requirement: it must be infeasible for an adversary recovering S from P
- Example: S = (p, q) where p, q are randomly-selected large prime numbers, and P = pq

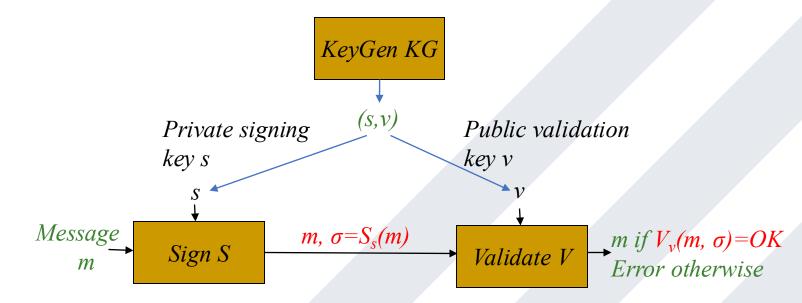


- New direction: can encryption key be *public*?
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- Public Key Cryptosystem
 - Encryption: Public key encrypts, private key decrypts
 - Also Authentication: *Digital Signature*
 - Sign with private key, validate with public key





- Public Key Cryptosystem
 - Encryption: Public key encrypts, private key decrypts
 - Also Authentication: *Digital Signature*
 - Sign with private key, validate with public key
 - Public key cryptosystem also has drawbacks: significantly expensive and slow
 - Public key cryptosystem: exchange a shared, private key
 - Private key encryption: establish a secure communication channel



- Key-Exchange Protocol
 - Alice and Bob want to agree on secret (key)
 - Secure against eavesdropping
 - No prior shared secrets



- Key-Exchange Protocol
 - Alice and Bob want to agree on secret (key)
 - Secure against eavesdropping
 - No prior shared secrets
 - A physical key-exchange problem
 - Alice has:









• Bob has







Key-Exchange Protocol

















Key-Exchange Protocol













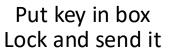


Key-Exchange Protocol













Key-Exchange Protocol









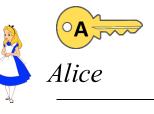
Put key in box Lock and send it



lock it too and send back



Key-Exchange Protocol









Put key in box Lock and send it

Remove key A send back



lock it too and send back



Key-Exchange Protocol







Put key in box Lock and send it

lock it too and send back



Remove key B obtain key AB



- Diffie-Hellman key-exchange
 - Alice and Bob want to agree on secret (key)
 - Secure against eavesdropping
 - No prior shared secrets
 - Security goal: even after observing the messages, the shared key k should be undisguisable from a uniform key



- Diffie-Hellman key-exchange
 - Alice and Bob want to agree on secret (key)
 - Secure against eavesdropping
 - No prior shared secrets
 - Security goal: even after observing the messages, the shared key k should be undisguisable from a uniform key
 - Discrete-logarithm problem
 - Given prime p and q, and X
 - It would be easy to have $Y = p^X \mod q$
 - But it is very hard to compute X when giving Y



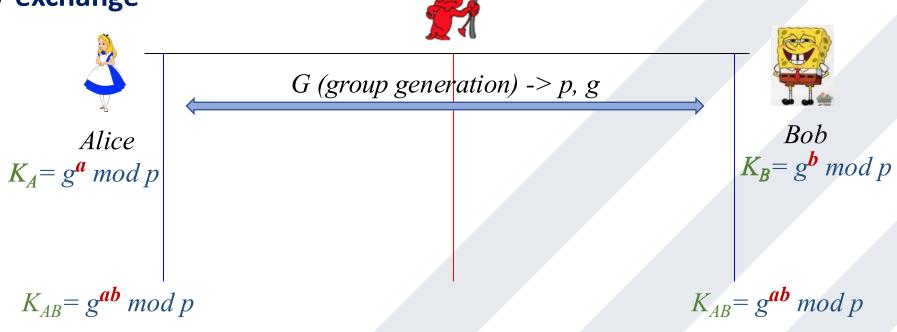
- Diffie-Hellman key-exchange
 - Alice and Bob want to agree on secret (key)
 - Alice and Bob agree on a random safe prime p (modulo) and a base g (which is a primitive root modulo p)
 - Alice chooses a secret key $a \rightarrow \text{public key } K_A = g^a \mod p$
 - Bob chooses a secret key $b \rightarrow \text{public key } K_B = g^b \mod p$
 - Alice and Bob set up a shared key

$$(g^b)^a \mod p = (g^a)^b \mod p = g^{ab} \mod p$$

Only a and b are keeping secret



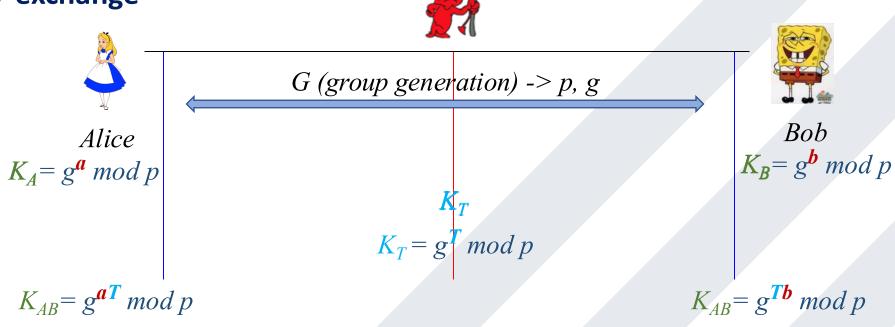
• Diffie-Hellman key-exchange



Does Diffie-Hellman secure the communication channel?



• Diffie-Hellman key-exchange



Does Diffie-Hellman secure the communication channel?
Authenticate the public key



- (Public) Key Management and Distribution
 - Encryption: Public key encrypts, private key decrypts

$$m = D_{Private\ Key}(E_{Public\ Key}(m))$$

 Assume the parties are able to obtain the correct copies of (each other's) public key



- (Public) Key Management and Distribution
 - Encryption: Public key encrypts, private key decrypts

$$m = D_{Private\ Key}(E_{Public\ Key}(m))$$

- Distributing public keys
 - Point-to-point delivery over trusted channels
 - Direct access to a trusted file
 - Use an online trusted services
 - Offline certificates that are authorizable
 - Public keys are transported in certificates issued by a certificate authority (CA)



- Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)
 - Use signatures for secure key distribution
 - Certificates: A digital document cryptographically binds an entity's identity and its public key, allowing other entities to gain trust of the authenticity of the public key
 - Certificate Authority (CA): issue and manage certificates of entities
 - PKI: A comprehensive framework that combines cryptographic techniques, protocols, policies, and management ecosystem to support secure and reliable use of public keys



- Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)
 - Use signatures for secure key distribution
 - Certificate Authority (CA)
 - Public key *P.e*
 - Private key *P.s*
 - Bob asks the CA to sign the binding (Bob, $P_{Bob.e}$)
 - $Cert_{CA \rightarrow Bob} = Sign_{CA.s}(Bob, P_{Bob.e})$
 - CA must verify Bob's identity out of band



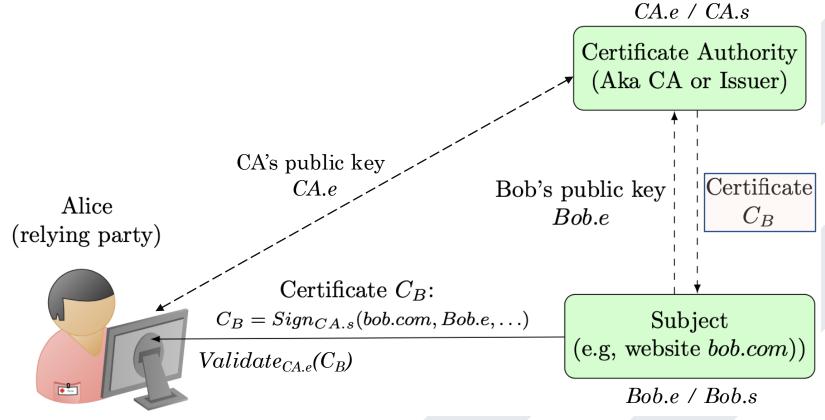
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 - CA must verify Bob's identity out of band
 - Alice obtains and wants to verify (Bob, $P_{Bob.e}$)
 - Alice obtains $P_{Bob.e}$
 - Alice requires $Cert_{CA \rightarrow Bob}$
 - Alice verifies that $Validate_{CA.e}(Bob, P_{Bob.e}, Cert_{CA \rightarrow Bob})$

$$Validate_{CA.e}(Cert_{CA \rightarrow Bob})$$

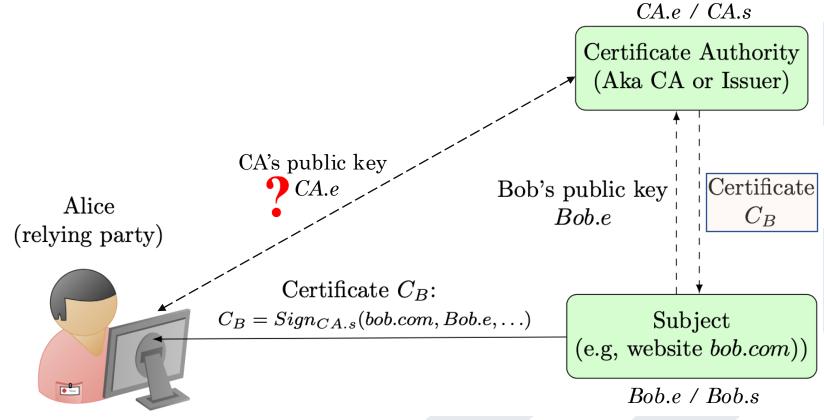




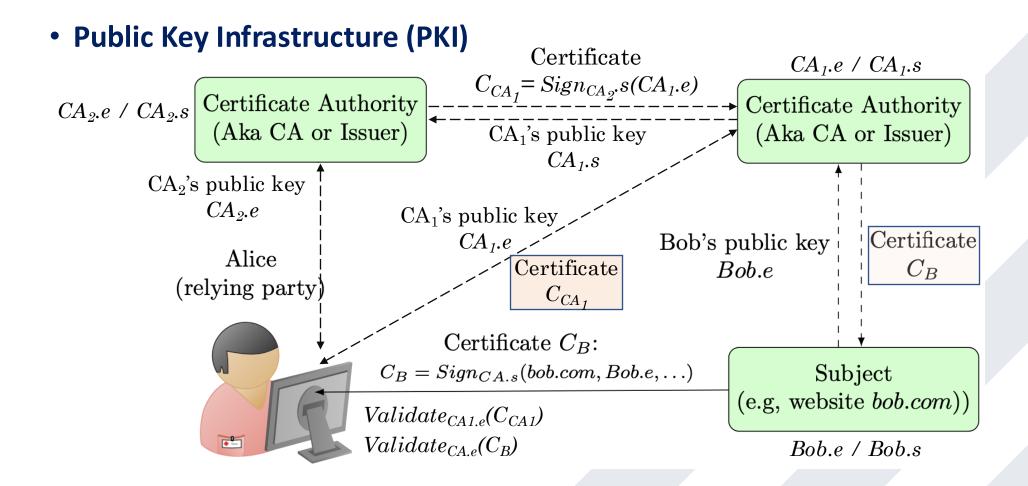


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 - Alice obtains $Cert_{CA \rightarrow Bob}$
 - Alice verifies that $Validate_{CA.e}(Bob, P_{Bob.e}, Cert_{CA \rightarrow Bob})$
 - As long as ...
 - CA is trustworthy and CA's key pair has not been compromised











Root-of-Trust

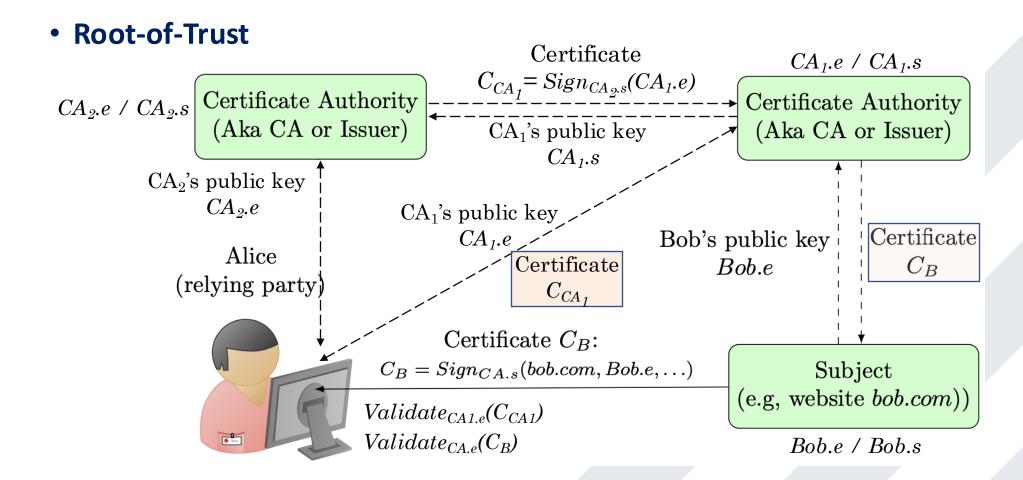
- Alice will only need to securely obtain a small number of Public key CA.e
 - Ensure secure distribution for few initial CA.e
- Root CAs
 - Root CAs issues Certificate for intermediate CA $Cert_{Root\ CA.s \to CA}$

$$Validate_{Root\ CA.e}(Cert_{Root\ CA.s \rightarrow CA})$$

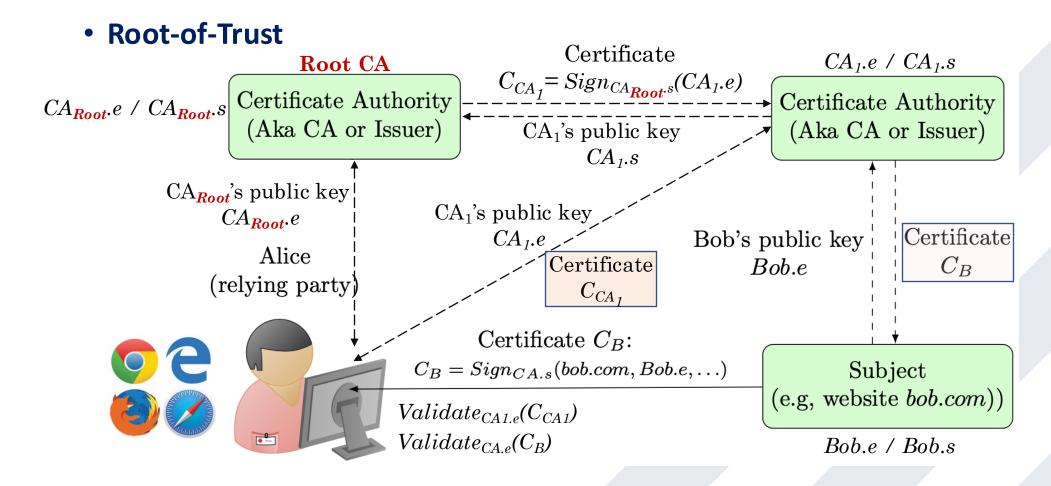
• Intermediate CAs issue Certificate for subject (website)

$$Validate_{CA.e}(Cert_{CA.s \rightarrow Bob})$$

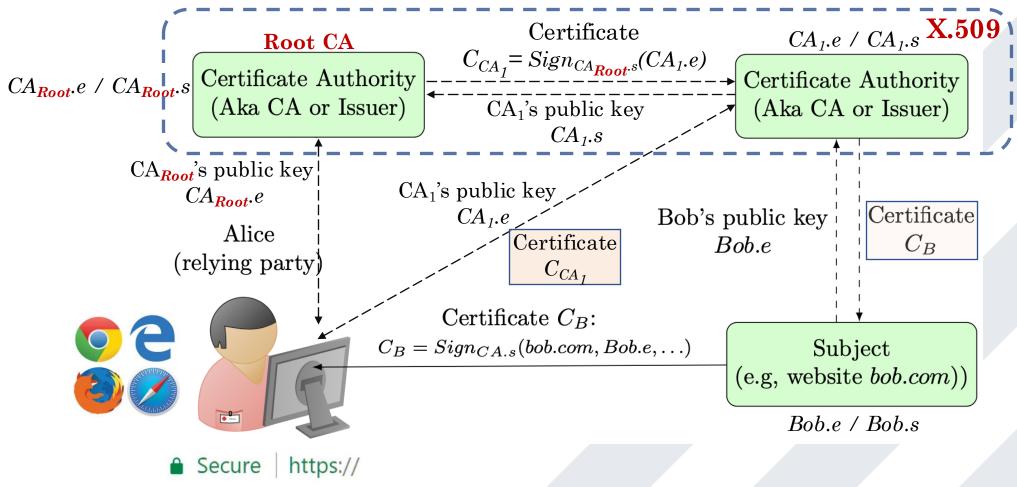














- Dealing with CA failures
 - Certificates are all about Trust

$$Cert_{CA \rightarrow Bob} = Sign_{CA.s}(Bob, P_{Bob.e})$$



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$$Cert_{CA \rightarrow Bob} = Sign_{CA.s}(Bob, P_{Bob.e})$$

- Equivocating or misleading (domain) name (Rogue Certificates)
 - Intentionally signed and issued by malicious CAs Certificates
 - Squatting misleading names







- Securing the Web in practice
 - SSL: Secure Socket Layer (Netscape, mid-'90s)
 - TLS: Transport Layer Security: an IEEE version of SSL
 - For standardizing SSL
 - TLS 1.0 (1999)
 - TLS 1.2 (2008, current)
 - TLS 1.3 (2018, adopting)
 - Used by every web browser for HTTPS connections

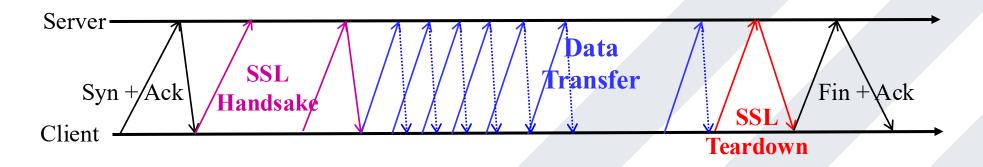


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 - TLS: Transport Layer Security

TLS Handshake	HTTPS	• • •	HTTP	
TLS record			11111	
TCP sockets API				
TCP				
IP				



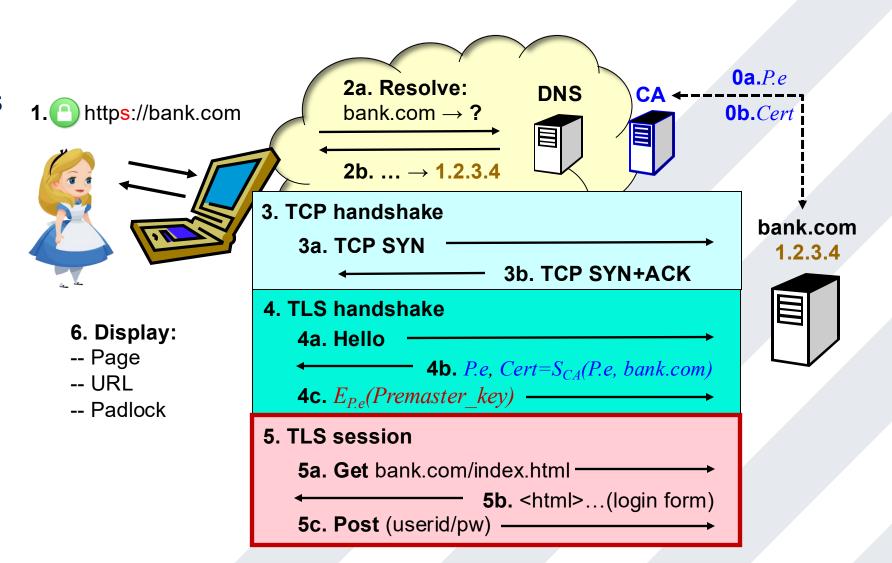
- TLS/SSL Operations
 - Handshake layer
 - Server/client authentication, cipher suite negotiation, key exchange
 - Record layer
 - Secure communications between client and server using exchanged session keys





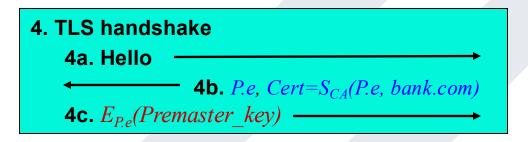
TLS/SSL Operations

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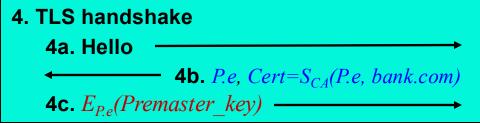


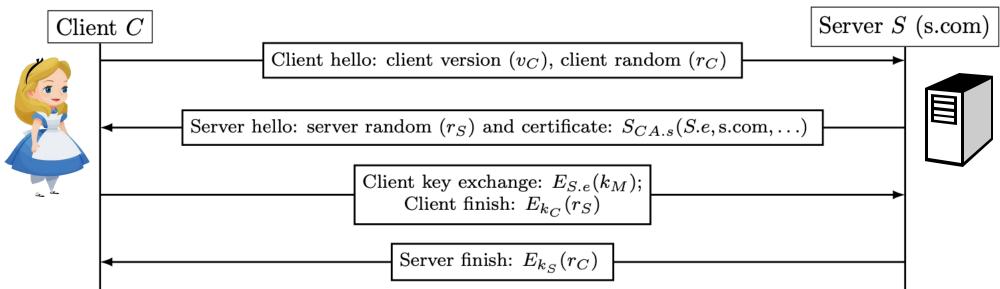
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Handshake Layer

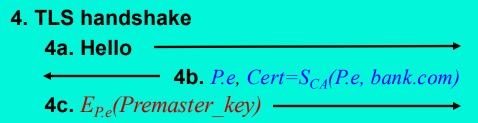


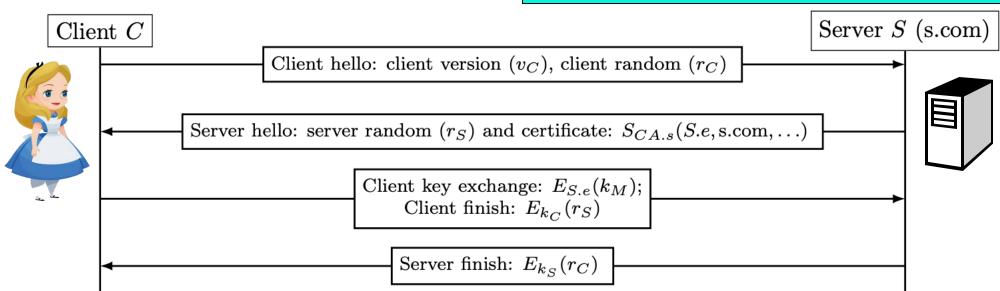


• r_C and r_S : Nonces for protecting against replay



Handshake Layer

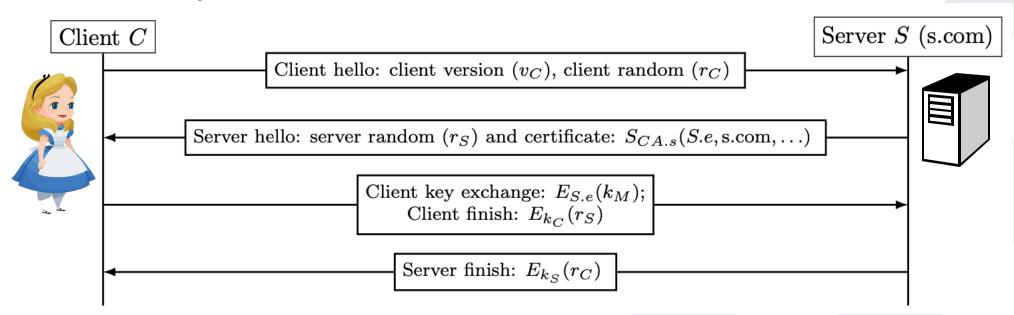




• k_C and k_S : derived from the master key k_M

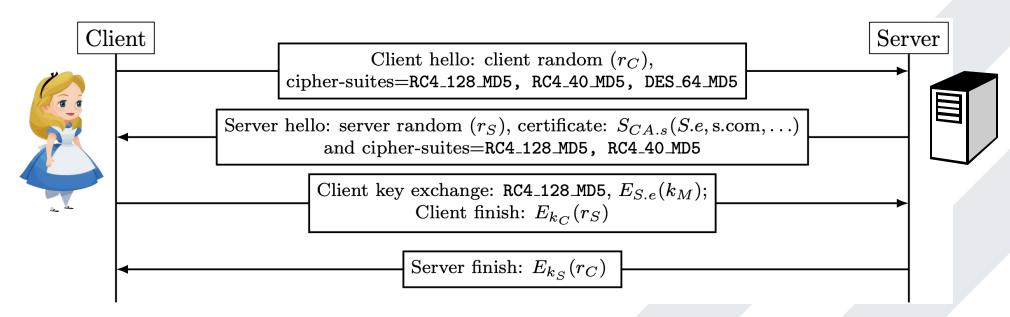


Handshake Layer





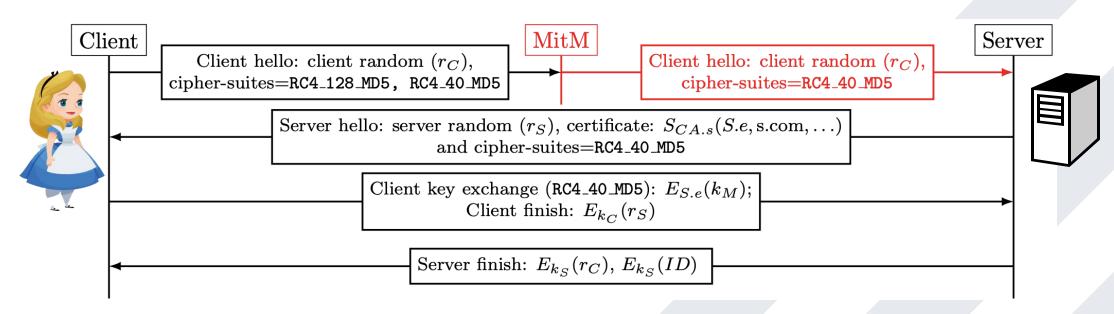
Cipher-suite negotiation (SSLv2)



Vulnerable to downgrade attack



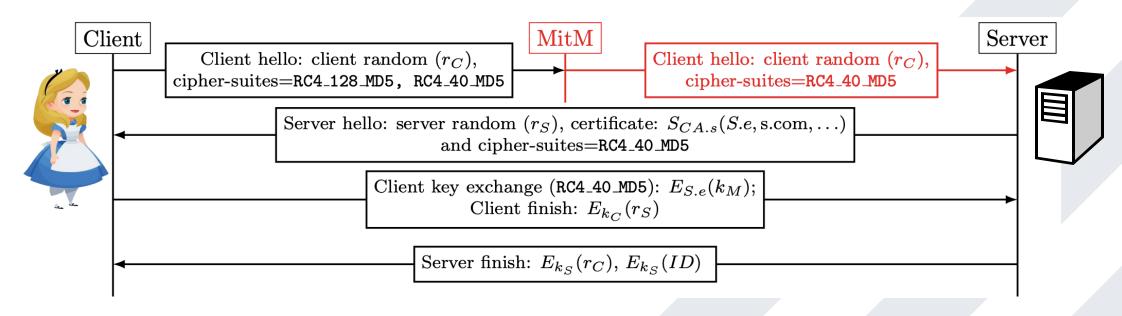
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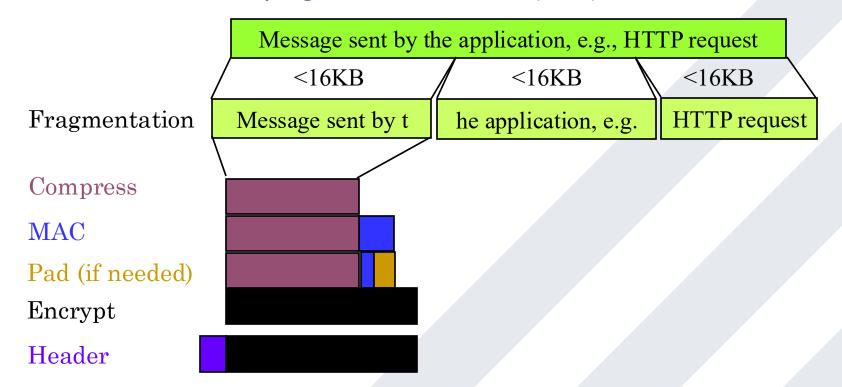
Cipher-suite negotiation (SSLv2)



• SSLv3 improvement: authenticate the handshake message with the *finish* message



- Record layer
 - Secure communications between client and server using established keys
 - Assume reliable underlying communication (TCP)



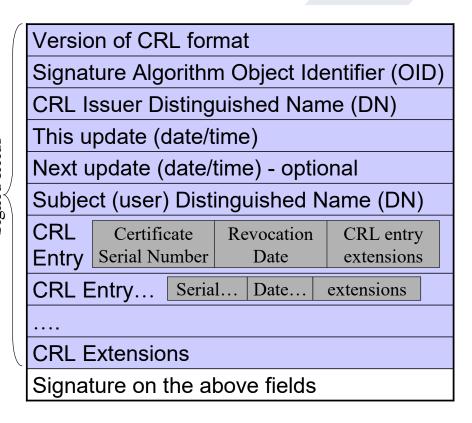


- Reasons for revoking (i.e., invalidating) certificate
 - Key compromise
 - CA compromise
 - Affiliation changed Object names or attribute
 - Cessation no longer needed
- How to inform replying parties?
 - Wait for end of validity period (short-lived certificated)
 - Distribute Certificate Revocation List
 - Online status check Online Certificate Status Protocol



- Certificate Revocation List (CRL)
 - A list of certificates that has been revoked before their expiration dates
 - Issued and signed by a CA
 - Updated at regular intervals
 - Before relying on a certificate, an entity needs to check that the certificate is not included in the latest CRLs

X.509 CRL





Revocation is hard

- CRLs contain all revoked certificates huge!
- CRLs are not immediate
 - Affiliation changed Object names or attribute
 - Frequent CRLs more overhead

Solutions

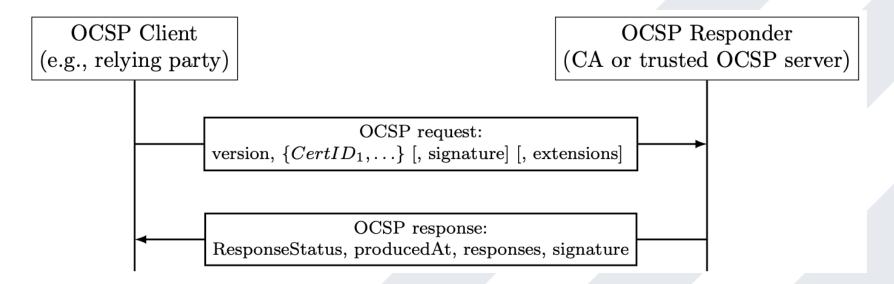
- Distributed CRLs split certificates to several CRLs
- Delta CRLs only new revocation since last "base" CRL
- Short validity for certificates no need to revoke them



- Online Certificate Status Protocol (OCSP)
 - Most browsers don't use CRLs
 - Efficiency
 - Frequent CRLs more overhead
- OCSP
 - Check validity of certificates as needed



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- Why and How CAs fail
 - (Root) CAs trusted in browsers
 - Every CA can certify any domain (name)
 - Bad certificates
 - Equivocation: rogue certificates
 - Misleading certificates (e.g., squatting names)
- How to improve defense against bad CAs/certificates



- Certificate Transparency (CT)
 - A proposal originating from Google, for improving the transparency and security of the (Web) PKI
 - Goals
 - Detecting equivocating certificates by monitoring specific domain name
 - Detecting suspect CAs/certificates
 - An extensive standardization
 - Already enforced by Chrome and supported other major browsers
 - Many websites and CAs deploy CT, making CT the most important development in PKI since X.509

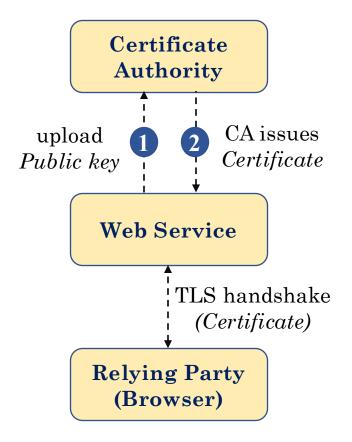


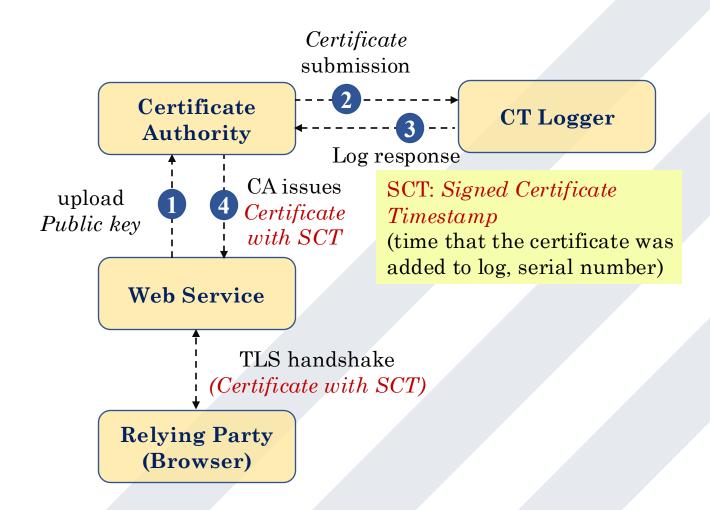
CT Entities

- Loggers: provide public logs of certificates
 - CAs send each certificate to loggers, who add the certificate to the log
 - Loggers provide accountability for the public availability of certificates
 - Google and few CAs operate loggers
- Monitors: monitor the certificates logged by (many) loggers
 - Detect (suspicious) changes of certificates for domain owners
 - Operated by Facebook and few other CAs and companies
- Auditors: ensure the logger provides exactly the same log to all parties
 - Typically implemented and performed by relying parties (browsers)



CT Operations



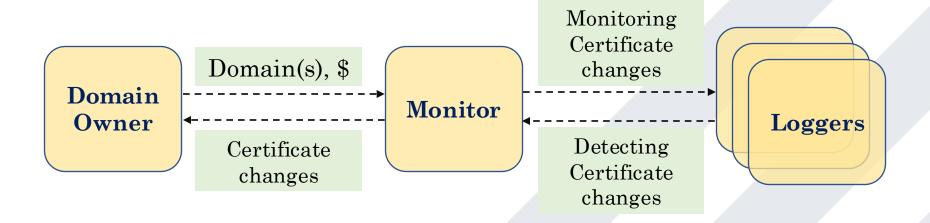




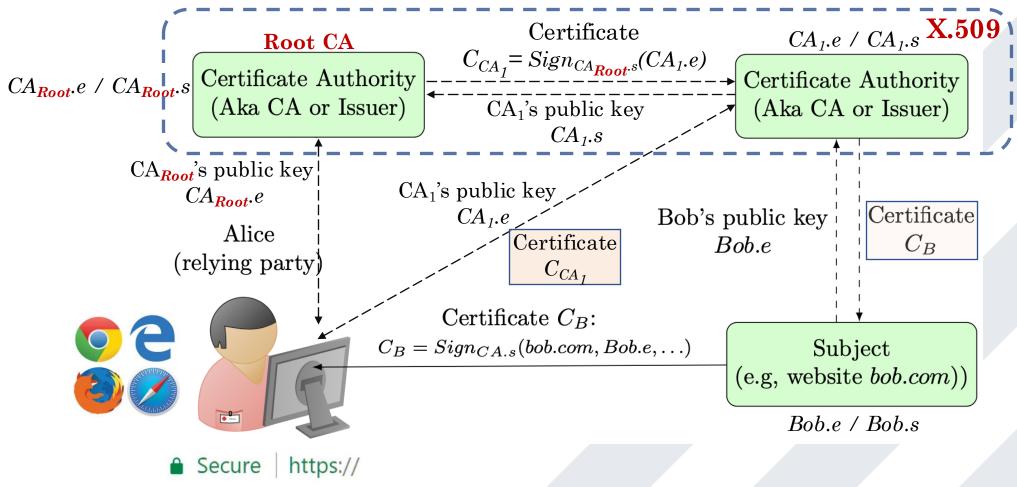
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Major Reference

- Amir Herzberg, Foundations of Cybersecurity, Volume I: An Applied Introduction to Cryptography, 2021 (Draft).
- Jonathan Katz, Yehuda Lindell. Introduction to Modern Cryptography, 2nd Edition.



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