Transport Layer Security (TLS)

Introduction to cryptology

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What is TLS?

A cryptographic protocol to provide secure communication over a network

Features

- Data encryption
- Server and optional client authentication
- Integrity checking

Usage

- On top of some reliable transport protocol *e.g* TCP
- Browsing (`https`), file transfer (`ftps`), email (`smtps`), VoIP (xmpp), …

Two-stage protocol

Handshake: negotiation of cryptographic parameters, key exchange
Record-layer: authentication and encryption of the communication

A very brief history of TLS

The SSL family

- Produced by Netscape Communications (Tahar Elgamal)

SSL 1.0: Unpublished — many security flaws
SSL 2.0: 1995 – deprecated in 2011
SSL 3.0: 1996 – deprecated in 2015

The TLS family

- Standardized by the Internet Engineering Task Force

TLS 1.0: 1999 – deprecated in 2021
TLS 1.1: 2006 – deprecated in 2021
TLS 1.2: 2008 – in use
TLS 1.3: 2018 – in use — our focus

Quick summary of previous lectures

	Symmetric	Public-key (asymmetric)
Confidentiality	Symmetric encryption: block cipher (AES), modes (CBC, CTR)	PK encryption: RSA (OAEP), ElGamal; ↳ KEMs
Authenticity	Message authentication code (MAC): GMAC, HMAC, CBC-MAC	Signatures: (DSA), RSA-FDH, Schnorr
Others	AEAD: GCM	Key exchange: Diffie-Hellman

Hashing: SHA-2, SHA-3 (→ MACs, → Signatures)

1. TLS Handshake protocol

2. TLS record-layer protocol

3. Some attacks

TLS Handshake protocol: goals

Establish a secure session between the client and the server

Agree on the algorithms/protocols

- Version of the protocol
- Which algorithms to use
- Key size

Authentication

- Authenticate the server using certificate authorities
- (possibly) Authenticate the client

Key exchange

- Set-up keys for future encryption / authentication

TLS Handshake protocol: the ingredients

Starting point: Key exchange

- The Client and Server must agree on shared keys for subsequent communication
- Use of Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange protocol

"What-ifs?"

What if an adversary intercepts the messages from the Server?
$\rightarrow$ the Server signs its messages with its private key

What if the public key is not really the Server's public key?
$\rightarrow$ the Server provides a certificate from a Certificate Authority

What if an adversary *replays* the exchange?
$\rightarrow$ use random nonces to make replays impractical

What if some messages were modified in transit?
$\rightarrow$ use a MAC

What if the Server and Client do not use the same algorithms?
$\rightarrow$ include their descriptions in the messages

TLS Handshake protocol: overview

Client initial data: a set of CAs public keys $\{pk_1, \ldots, pk_n\}$
Server initial data: a pair (pk_S, sk_S) and a certificate $\mathrm{cert}_{i \to S}$ from a CA

1. Client: sends a message with one or several
   - sets of parameters: group with generator, symmetric encryption scheme, hash function
   - groups element g^x and a random *nonce* $N_C \twoheadleftarrow \{0,1\}^n$
2. Server: upon reception,
   - computes a shared secret $K = g^{xy}$ and keys k'_S, k'_C, k_S, k_C using a *key derivation function*
   - chooses parameters (group, encryption scheme, hash function) and sends them
   - sends the group element g^y and a random *nonce* $N_S \twoheadleftarrow \{0,1\}^n$
   - sends pk_S, $\mathrm{cert}_{i \to S}$, and a signature σ (with sk_S) of the messages $\to$ encrypted with k'_S
3. Client: upon reception,
   - computes the shared secret K and the keys k'_S, k'_C, k_S and k_C
   - decrypts pk_S, $\mathrm{cert}_{i \to S}$ and σ and checks whether pk_S and σ are valid
   - computes and sends a MAC of all exchanged messages, using k'_C
4. Server: checks the MAC

Shared final data: keys k_S and k_C

Sets of parameters

Groups

- One of several predefined groups
- Includes elliptic curves and subgroups of finite fields

Symmetric encryption

- Requires Authenticated Encryption with Associated Data
- Includes GCM with AES-128 — Lecture 5

Hash function

- Used for key derivation function and HMAC — Lecture 5
- Includes SHA-256 — Lecture 4

The key derivation function

Goal: from a secret K, deduce one or several keys

- The secret may not have the right format
- The secret may not be uniform in a suitable set

Example of HKDF

Input: a secret K, optional salt s, optional info i, output length L

1. $t \leftarrow \mathrm{HMAC}(s, K)$ — *extract* stage
2. $z_0 \leftarrow$ empty string
3. for $j = 1$ to L: $z_j \leftarrow \mathrm{HMAC}(t, z_{j-1} \| i \| 0\mathrm{x}\langle j \rangle)$ — *expand* stage
4. Return $z_1 \| \cdots \| z_L$

Security intuition

Authentication

- Using the certificate, pk_S is guaranteed to be the correct public key
- If σ is valid, the client must be communicating with the intended server
- Protection against replay attack: use of the random nonce

Integrity

- The server signs all messages of the Diffie-Hellman key-exchange
  - the values were not modified in transit
  - protection against a man-in-the-middle attack

Confidentiality

- Based on Diffie-Hellman key exchange security

1. TLS Handshake protocol

2. TLS record-layer protocol

3. Some attacks

TLS record-layer protocol: goal

Ensure confidentiality, integrity and authenticity of the communications

Context

- The Client and Server share two keys k_S and k_C
- They agreed on a set of cryptographic algorithms

Tools

- Symmetric encryption
- Message authentication codes

$\rightarrow$ Authenticated Encryption with Associated Data

The tool: Nonce-based Autenticated Encryption with Associated Data

Construction

Encryption: $c \leftarrow E_k(m, d, N)$ where

- m is the message — encrypted
- d is the associated data — clear
- N is a *nonce*

Decryption: $D_k(c, d, N)$ returns

- either m, if c is correct, and d, N are unchanged
- or « reject »

Properties

Correction if for all k and m, $D_k(E_k(m, d, N), d, N) = m$

Security if whenever *no nonce is used more than once*,

- ciphertext are *indistinguishable* — IND-CPA security
- a valid ciphertext is hard to *forge* — ciphertext integrity

TLS record-layer protocol: overview

Shared data

- two keys k_C and k_S
- a *sequence number* n, initialized to 0

Data sending

- Data is split into blocks of 2^{14} bytes
  - Each block is sent seperately
- For each block, nonce-based AEAD encryption with inputs:
  - k: k_C or k_S, depending on the sender
  - m: the block to be sent
  - d: empty associated data
  - N: $n \oplus IV$ where $IV = IV_C$ or IV_S is random obtained in the handshake

End of session

- Not part of the TLS protocol
- Delegated to the application layer

1. TLS Handshake protocol

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Attack on the CA infrastructure

Stevens *et al.*, 2009

Reminder: role of certificates

- A Certificate Authority signs a certificate $\text{cert}_{CA \to S}$ for the Server's public key pk_S
- The Client can accept the public key as valid
- A *fake certificate* allows an adversary to impersonate the Server

A bad signature algorithm: RSA-MD5

- Signature algorithm (simplified):
  1. Hash the value using MD5 $\to H(m)$
  2. Compute $\sigma = H(m)^d \bmod N$
- Collision attack on MD5 $\to$ forge of signatures

Fake certificates

- The adversary asks a CA to sign a certificate $\text{cert}_{CA \to S}$
- The adversary finds a collision $\to$ cert' with the same signature
- Difficulty: cert' should be a certificate $\to$ *chosen-prefix collision*

Attack on the handshake protocol

Logjam attack, Adrian *et al.*, 2015

Context

- TLS gives the choice between different algorithms / key sizes
- Some of them are too weak
- Example: 512-bit subgroups of finite fields for Diffie-Hellman key exchange
  - Discrete logarithm within a few minutes (after two weeks of precomputation)

An active attack strategy

1. Intercept the Client's message to the Server
   - Tamper it to ask for weak DH parameters
   - Forward to the Server
2. Intercept the answer from the Server
   - Hide the weak request
   - Forward the Server's DH parameters
3. Compute a discrete logarithm $\rightarrow$ get the shared secret

Logjam attack in practice

Real-life experiment

- Attack implemented in practice
- Tested on the top 1 million domains $\rightarrow$ 8.4% of them were vulnerable
- Not only for HTTPS, but also SMTP+STARTTLS, POP3S, IMAPS

Reasons for success

- Some servers still implement weak cryptography
- Some clients fail to reject weak DH groups
- Efficient discrete logarithm computations
- Some clients are fine with waiting

Discrete logarithms with precomputation: Number Field Sieve (NFS)

Precomputation: build a database of discrete logarithms

Computation: *descent* to compute a targeted discrete logarithm

- *Offline* precomputation, *shared* for all subsequent computations

Attack on the record-layer protocol

BEAST attack, Duong & Rizzo, 2011

The theoretical vulnerability (Rogaway, 2002)

- Symmetric encryption using CBC mode of operation
  - $m_1 \| m_2 \| \cdots \| m_t \to c_0 \| c_1 \| \cdots \| c_t$
  - c_0 is a *random* IV
  - $c_i \leftarrow E_k(m_i \oplus c_{i-1})$ for $i > 0$
- Attack if IV is not uniform Lecture 3, slide 11

Exploitation of the vulnerability

- In TLS 1.0, use of CBC with a predictible IV $\to$ last block of previous record
- The attack focuses on authentication cookies
- (Partially) Chosen Plaintext Attack

It is that easy?

- Requires code injection for instance

$\to$ Attacks mix cryptography techniques with security techniques

Conclusion

TLS mixes everything we have seen!

- Symmetric encryption through Authenticated Encryption with Associated Data
- MAC: direct use and through AEAD
- Diffie-Hellman key exchange
- Signatures
- Public-Key encryption through KEM $\rightarrow$ in a variant called KEMTLS

Protocols are hard to design

- Many attacks on different aspects of TLS
- Every tiny vulnerability will probably be exploited

For more: Cybersecurity master!

- More advanced cryptographic primitives and concepts
- More details on security architectures
- Other aspects of cybersecurity