# SSL and TLS: Theory and Practice

### Chapter 3 – TLS Protocol

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#### Reference Book



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https://www.esecurity.ch/Books/ssltls3e.html

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Chapter 3 – TLS Protocol

# Challenge Me



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#### Outline

## 3. TLS Protocol

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3.1 Introduction

- The TLS protocol is structurally identical to the SSL protocol
- It is a client/server protocol stacked on top of TCP
- It consists of the same two layers and (sub)protocols
  - The TLS record protocol fragments, optionally compresses, and cryptographically protects higher-layer protocol data
  - The TLS change cipher spec (20), alert (21), handshake (22), and application data (23) protocols are layered on top of the record layer and the respective protocol
  - New record types
    - 24 for the TLS/DTLS Heartbeat extension
    - 25 for DTLS ciphertext with a connection identifier (CID)
    - 26 for DTLS ACK messages

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3.1 Introduction

- Like the SSL protocol, the TLS protocol employs sessions and connections (where multiple connections may belong to the same session)
- Four connection states
  - Current read and write states
  - Pending read and write states
- All TLS records are processed under the current (read and write) states, whereas the security parameters and elements for the pending states are negotiated by the handshake protocol

3.1 Introduction

# Table 3.1 Security Parameters for a TLS Connection

connection end	Information about whether the entity is considered the "client" or the "server" in the connection
bulk encryption algorithm	Algorithm used for bulk data encryption (including its key size, how much of that key is secret, whether it is a block or stream cipher, and the block size if a block cipher is used)
MAC algorithm	Algorithm used for message authentication
compression algorithm	Algorithm used for data compression
master secret	48-byte secret shared between the client and the server
client random	32-byte value provided by the client
server random	32-byte value provided by the server

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3.1 Introduction

# Table 3.2TLS Connection State Elements

compression state	The current state of the compression algorithm
cipher state	The current state of the encryption algorithm (this includes
	all values needed to execute the algorithm, such as a key and
	an IV if the cipher is operated in CBC mode)
MAC secret	MAC secret for this connection
sequence number	64-bit sequence number for the records transmitted under a
	particular connection state (initially set to zero)

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3.1 Introduction

- A major difference between SSL and TLS 1.0 refers to the way the keying material is generated
  - SSL uses an ad-hoc and hand-crafted construction to generate the master secret and key block
  - TLS 1.0 uses a slightly different construction known as TLS PRF
- The PRF for TLS versions 1.0 and 1.1 is different from the PRF for TLS versions 1.2 and 1.3

3.1 Introduction



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3.1 Introduction

```
PRF(secret,label,seed) =
```

```
P_MD5(S1,label + seed) XOR P_SHA-1(S2,label + seed)
```



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3.1 Introduction

The auxiliary data expansion function P\_hash is defined as

```
P_hash(secret,seed) = HMAC_hash(secret,A(1) + seed) +
```

. . .

- $HMAC_hash(secret, A(2) + seed) +$
- $HMAC_hash(secret, A(3) + seed) +$

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The A-function is recursively defined as

A(0) = seed A(i) = HMAC\_hash(secret,A(i-1))

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3.1 Introduction



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3.1 Introduction

- While TLS 1.0 and 1.1 use MD5 and SHA-1 in the P\_hash-function, TLS 1.2 uses SHA-256
- TLS 1.3 also uses SHA-256, but the TLS PRF is replaced with the HMAC-based key derivation function (HKDF)
- The HKDF is standardized by the IETF (RFC 5869) and heavily used for Internet applications

3.1 Introduction

```
master_secret =
    PRF(pre_master_secret,"master secret",
        client_random + server_random)
key_block =
    PRF(master_secret,"key expansion",
        server_random + client_random)
iv block =
```

PRF("","IV block",client\_random + server\_random)

3.1 Introduction

- Exported keying material (EKM) may be used to (cryptographically) bind an application to a TLS connection
- This may be used to mitigate MITM attacks (e.g., using the token binding mechanism and respective TLS extension)
- The mechanism to construct EKM is similar to the construction of keying material (i.e., it uses the same TLS PRF)

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- TLS 1.0 was published in 1999 (RFC 2246)
- The version is 3,1 (0×0301)
- The cipher suites are inherited from SSL 3.0 (except FORTEZZA-based KEA)
- The MAC construction is more aligned with the "normal" HMAC construction (i.e., *version* field is also included)

```
HMAC_{K}(TLSCompressed) = 
h(K \parallel opad \parallel h(K \parallel ipad \parallel seq_number \parallel type \parallel version \parallel length \parallel fragment))
```

TLSCompressed

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- TLS\_DHE\_DSS\_WITH\_3DES\_EDE\_CBC\_SHA is the only cipher suite that is mandatory in TLS 1.0
- In addition to 3DES, there are cipher suites that employ a Japanese block cipher named Camellia (cf. Table 3.3)
- While SSL 3.0 requires complete certificate chains, TLS 1.0 can handle certificate chains up to a trusted (intermediate) CA
- New alert messages are added (cf. Tables 3.5 and 3.6)
- The CERTIFICATEVERIFY and FINISHED messages are simplified

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- TLS 1.1 was published in 2006 (RFC 4346)
- The version is 3,2 (0×0302)
- The major differences are motivated by cryptographic vulnerabilities that have been exploited by attacks against block ciphers operated in CBC mode (e.g., Vaudenay and BEAST attacks)
- Also, a new way of specifying parameters and parameter values was introduced
- The IANA maintains a number of registries

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- TLS\_RSA\_WITH\_3DES\_EDE\_CBC\_SHA is mandatory (instead of TLS\_DHE\_DSS\_WITH\_3DES\_EDE\_CBC\_SHA)
- All cipher suites that comprise an export-grade key exchange algorithm are discouraged (i.e., they should no longer be negotiated actively)
- There are a few changes in alert messaging and the way premature closures of sessions are handled (i.e., they can still be resumed)

- TLS 1.2 was published in 2008 (RFC 5246)
- The version is 3,3 (0×0303)
- It employs SHA-256 (instead of combining MD5 and SHA-1) PRF(secret,label,seed) = P\_hash(secret,label+seed)
- Otherwise, the construction of the keying material remains the same
- The biggest change is the new extension mechanism (RFC 6066)
- There are many TLS extensions (cf. Appendix C)

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- Each extension is structurally the same and consists of two fields
  - A two-byte *type* field
  - A variable-length *data* field of which the first two bytes specify its length
- If a client wants to signal support for the secure renegotiation extension, then it must append 0xFF, 0x01, 0x00, 0x01, and 0x00 to the CLIENTHELLO message
  - 0xFF and 0x01 refer to the extension type (= 65,281)
  - $0 \times 00$  and  $0 \times 01$  refer to the length of the data (= 1)
  - 0x00 refers to the data of the extension

- TLS\_RSA\_WITH\_AES\_128\_CBC\_SHA is mandatory (instead of TLS\_RSA\_WITH\_3DES\_EDE\_CBC\_SHA)
- All cipher suites that employ DES or IDEA are no longer recommended and thus removed
- The use of authenticated encryption with associated data (AEAD) is addressed in RFC 5116
- Modes of operation for block ciphers to provide AEAD
  - Counter with CBC-MAC (CCM)
  - Galois/counter mode (GCM)
- AEAD requires only an encryption key (no MAC key is needed)

- There are situations in which public key operations are too expensive or have other disadvantages
- RFC 4279 provides three sets of cipher suites in which the key exchange is based on a preshared key (PSK), i.e., PSK, DHE\_PSK, and RSA\_PSK
- TLS 1.2 supports ECC-based certificates
- TLS 1.2 provides support for the DEFLATE compression algorithm (that combines LZ77 and Huffman encoding), but does not recommend its use (due to compression-related attacks, cf. Appendix A.6)

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- TLS 1.3 was published in 2018 (RFC 8446)
- The version is 3,4 (0×0304)
- Design goals for TLS 1.3
  - Protection against all (known) types of attacks
  - Efficiency and performance (e.g., in terms of RTTs)

#### Security issues

- No compression
- PSK-based mechanisms instead of session resumption and renegotiation
- PSK and/or ephemeral Diffie-Hellman key exchange only (i.e., no static key exchange)
- PSK or digital signature (i.e., RSA, ECDSA, or EdDSA) for authentication
- AEAD cipher for data confidentiality and integrity
- HDKF for key derivation (see below)

 To provide better privacy protection (i.e., type and length), TLS 1.3 provides a simple encapsulation mechanism for encrypted data (that is also used in DTLS)



TLS Record (TLSCiphertext)

- With regard to efficiency, the designers of TLS 1.3 were influenced by technologies like Snap Start and False Start from Google, as well as a protocol named OPTLS
- The key idea is to have the client guess a Diffie-Hellman group supported by the server and already provide a Diffie-Hellman share in the first message (i.e., CLIENTHELLO message)
- This results in a 1-RTT handshake
- If there is a PSK, then a 0-RTT handshake is possible

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 If the client-provided parameters do not match, then the server sends back a HELLORETRYREQUEST message (that looks like a SERVERHELLO message with a fixed random value)



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- Up to TLS 1.2, session IDs and session tickets are used to refer to previously established sessions and session keys
- In TLS 1.3, session IDs and session tickets are no longer available
- Instead, they are replaced with PSKs
- If forward secrecy is required, then a PSK can optionally be combined with an ephemeral (EC)DHE key exchange
- The use of a PSK is similar to the use of a session ticket

 $\blacksquare$  A  $\rm NewSessionTicket$  message to establish a PSK



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The PSK can then be used in a (shortened) TLS 1.3 handshake



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- TLS 1.3 differs from its predecessors in terms of key derivation
- It uses a standardized KDF that is based on the HMAC construction and follows the extract-then-expand paradigm
- The HMAC construction is used for both the extraction of a uniform key from a source key (*HKDF<sub>extract</sub>*) and the expansion of this key into a key stream (*HKDF<sub>expand</sub>*)
- The resulting KDF is known as HMAC-based KDF (HKDF) and is specified in RFC 5869

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Extract function (for salt s and source key k)

$$HKDF_{extract}(s,k) = HMAC_{s}(k) = k'$$

Expand function (for context string c and length l)

$$HKDF_{expand}(k', c, l) = T_1 \parallel T_2 \parallel \ldots \parallel T_n$$

with  $T_0$  is the zero string and  $T_i$  is recursively computed as

$$T_i = HMAC_{k'}(T_{i-1} \parallel c \parallel i)$$

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- Both the client\_application\_traffic\_secret\_0 and server\_application\_traffic\_secret\_0 keys are used to protect application data
- The distinction between keys to protect handshake traffic and keys to protect application data is new in TLS 1.3
- The postfix \_0 in the traffic keys' names suggests that there is a possibility to update the keys
- This is where the notion of a KEYUPDATE message comes into play (it allows either side to update its traffic secret)
- Application\_traffic\_secret\_N+1 can be generated from application\_traffic\_secret\_N and a distinct label

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#### 3. TLS Protocol 3.6 HSTS

- At the 2009 BlackHat conference, Moxie Malinspike presented "new tricks for defeating SSL in practice"
- One of these tricks referred to a tool named SSLStrip
- The tool acts as a MITM and attempts to remove the use of SSL/TLS by modifying unencrypted data on the fly
- To mitigate the attack, it makes sense to strictly apply HTTPS (instead of HTTP)
- This is where HTTP strict transport security (HSTS) specified in RFC 6797 comes into play

#### 3. TLS Protocol 3.6 HSTS

- HSTS uses a special HTTP response header named Strict-Transport-Security
- Using this header, a web server can inform the browser that SSL/TLS needs to be invoked
- Its use is governed by two directives
  - Max-age is mandatory and specifies how long (in seconds) HSTS applies
  - IncludeSubDomains is optional and valueless
- If the includeSubDomains directive is not used, then HSTS can be used to track users (using "HSTS supercookies")



- Refer to the reference book (pages 136 153) for TLS 1.0 and TLS 1.2 transcripts
- Wireshark PCAP files for TLS 1.2 and TLS 1.3 can be downloaded from the reference book's web site

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3.8 Security Analysis

- The SSL and TLS protocols have a long history, and hence they have also been subject to many security analyses and attacks (cf. Appendix A)
- The lessons learned have been incorporated in TLS 1.3
- Two caveats
  - A secure protocol does not exclude the existence of implementation and configuration flaws that may be exploited in attacks (e.g., Hearbleed)
  - Even a highly secure protocol cannot disable cross-protocol attacks (e.g., DROWN, ALPACA, ...)

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3.9 Final Remarks

- While TLS 1.0 started as a simple protocol, TLS 1.1 and 1.2 added complexity and turned TLS into a protocol that supports many features and is involved
- This makes the protocol flexible and useful in many (maybe nonstandard) situations and use cases
- This includes situations in which the use of SSL/TLS is optional
- This practice is sometimes referred to as opportunistic security
- It is a dual-edged sword

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3.9 Final Remarks

- TLS 1.2 is the typical result of standardization
- It supports almost all technologies and techniques the cryptographic community has come up with, including AES (GCM), ECC, HMAC, and SHA-2
- Whenever a new cryptographic technology or technique is proposed, there is incentive to write an RFC that specifies how to incorporate it into the TLS ecosystem
- Examples include SRP, Camellia and ARIA, Suite B cryptography, and quantum cryptography

3.9 Final Remarks

- The downside of TLS 1.2's flexibility and feature richness is that interoperability becomes an issue
- When people specified TLS 1.3, care was taken that the protocol is reduced to its core, and that only basic and undisputed functionalities are incorporated
- The result is considered to be highly secure, but also as simple as possible to enable interoperability
- The existence of middleboxes acting as interception proxies has turned out to be a major obstacle for interoperability and end-to-end deployment of TLS 1.3

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#### Questions and Answers



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#### Thank you for your attention



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