Chapter 8: Network Security

Chapter goals:
- understand principles of network security:
  - cryptography and its many uses beyond “confidentiality”
  - authentication
  - message integrity
  - key distribution
- security in practice:
  - firewalls
  - security in application, transport, network, link layers

Chapter 8 roadmap
- 8.1 What is network security?
- 8.2 Principles of cryptography
- 8.3 Authentication
- 8.4 Integrity
- 8.5 Key Distribution and certification
- 8.6 Access control: firewalls
- 8.7 Attacks and counter measures
- 8.8 Security in many layers

What is network security?
Confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should "understand" message contents
- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message
Authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other
- Message Integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection
Access and Availability: services must be accessible and available to users

Who might Bob, Alice be?
- well-known in network security world
- Bob, Alice (lovers!) want to communicate "securely"
- Trudy (intruder) may intercept, delete, add messages

Friends and enemies: Alice, Bob, Trudy
There are bad guys (and girls) out there!

**Q:** What can a "bad guy" do?

**A:** a lot!

- **eavesdrop:** intercept messages
- **actively insert messages into connection**
- **impersonation:** can fake (spoof) source address in packet (or any field in packet)
- **hijacking:** "take over" ongoing connection by removing sender or receiver, inserting himself in place
- **denial of service:** prevent service from being used by others (e.g., by overloading resources)

more on this later ……

---

**Chapter 8 roadmap**

8.1 What is network security?
8.2 Principles of cryptography
8.3 Authentication
8.4 Integrity
8.5 Key Distribution and certification
8.6 Access control: firewalls
8.7 Attacks and counter measures
8.8 Security in many layers

---

**The language of cryptography**

**Symmetric key cryptography**

**substitution cipher:** substituting one thing for another

- **monoalphabetic cipher:** substitute one letter for another

  - **plaintext:** abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
  - **ciphertext:** mnbvcxzasdfghjklpoiuytrewq

  **E.g.:**
  - **plaintext:** bob. i love you. alice
  - **ciphertext:** nkn. s gktc wky. mgsbc

**Q:** How hard to break this simple cipher?:

- **brute force (how hard?)**

- **other?**

---

**Symmetric key crypto:** DES

**DES:** Data Encryption Standard

- US encryption standard [NIST 1993]
- 56-bit symmetric key, 64-bit plaintext input
- How secure is DES?
  - **DES Challenge:** 56-bit-key-encrypted phrase ("Strong cryptography makes the world a safer place") decrypted (brute force) in 4 months
  - no known "backdoor" decryption approach
- making DES more secure:
  - use three keys sequentially (3-DES) on each datum
  - use cipher-block chaining

---
Symmetric key crypto: DES

- DES operation
- Initial permutation
- 16 identical "rounds" of function application, each using different 48 bits of key
- Final permutation

AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- new (Nov. 2001) symmetric key NIST standard, replacing DES
- processes data in 128 bit blocks
- 128, 192, or 256 bit keys
- brute force decryption (try each key) taking 1 sec on DES, takes 149 trillion years for AES

Public Key Cryptography

- symmetric key crypto
  - requires sender, receiver know shared secret key
  - Q: how to agree on key in first place (particularly if never "met")?

Public key cryptography

- requires sender, receiver do not share secret key
- public encryption key known to all
- private decryption key known only to receiver

Public key encryption algorithms

Requirements:

1. need $K^*_B(m)$ and $K_B^*(\cdot)$ such that $K^*_B(K_B^* (m)) = m$
2. given public key $K_B^*$, it should be impossible to compute private key $K_B$

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adelson algorithm

RSA: Choosing keys

1. Choose two large prime numbers $p$, $q$ (e.g., 1024 bits each)
2. Compute $n = pq$, $z = (p-1)(q-1)$
3. Choose $e$ (with $en$) that has no common factors with $z$. ($e, z$ are "relatively prime")
4. Choose $d$ such that $ed - 1$ is exactly divisible by $z$ (in other words: $ed \mod z = 1$)
5. Public key is $(n, e)$. Private key is $(n, d)$. $K_B = K_B^*$, $K^*_B = K_B^*$
RSA: Encryption, decryption

0. Given $(n,e)$ and $(n,d)$ as computed above

1. To encrypt bit pattern, $m$, compute
   \[ c = m^e \mod n \] (i.e., remainder when $m^e$ is divided by $n$)

2. To decrypt received bit pattern, $c$, compute
   \[ m = c^d \mod n \] (i.e., remainder when $c^d$ is divided by $n$)

\[ m = (m^e \mod n)^d \mod n \]

Magic happens!

RSA: Why is that $m = (m^e \mod n)^d \mod n$

Useful number theory result: If $p,q$ prime and $n = pq$, then:
\[ x \mod n = x \mod (p-1)(q-1) \]

\[ (m^e \mod n)^d \mod n = m^{ed} \mod n \]
\[ = m^{ed \mod (p-1)(q-1)} \mod n \] (using number theory result above)
\[ = m^1 \mod n \] (since we chose $ed$ to be divisible by $(p-1)(q-1)$ with remainder 1)
\[ = m \]

RSA example:


\[ e=5 \] (so $e$, $z$ relatively prime),
\[ d=29 \] (so $ed-1$ exactly divisible by $z$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>encrypt</th>
<th>decrypt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>letter</td>
<td>$m$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RSA: another important property

The following property will be very useful later:
\[ K_B(K_A(m)) = m = K_A(K_B(m)) \]

use public key first, followed by private key
use private key first, followed by public key

Result is the same!

Chapter 8 roadmap

8.1 What is network security?
8.2 Principles of cryptography
8.3 Authentication
8.4 Integrity
8.5 Key Distribution and certification
8.6 Access control: firewalls
8.7 Attacks and counter measures
8.8 Security in many layers

Authentication

Goal: Bob wants Alice to "prove" her identity to him

Protocol ap1.0: Alice says "I am Alice"

"I am Alice"  
Failure scenario??
Authentication

Goal: Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

Protocol ap1.0: Alice says “I am Alice” in a network, Bob can not “see” Alice, so Trudy simply declares herself to be Alice

Authentication: another try

Protocol ap2.0: Alice says “I am Alice” in an IP packet containing her source IP address

Trudy can create a packet “spoofing” Alice’s address

Authentication: another try

Protocol ap3.0: Alice says “I am Alice” and sends her secret password to “prove” it.

Playback attack: Trudy records Alice’s packet and later plays it back to Bob

Authentication: yet another try

Protocol ap3.1: Alice says “I am Alice” and sends her encrypted secret password to “prove” it.
Authentication: another try

**Protocol ap3.1**: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her encrypted secret password to "prove" it.

record and playback still works!

Authentication: yet another try

**Goal**: avoid playback attack

**Nonce**: number (R) used only once -in-a-lifetime

**ap4.0**: to prove Alice "live", Bob sends Alice nonce, R. Alice must return R, encrypted with shared secret key.

 Failures, drawbacks?

Authentication: ap5.0

ap4.0 requires shared symmetric key

- can we authenticate using public key techniques?

**ap5.0**: use nonce, public key cryptography

"I am Alice"

Bob computes

$$k_A(K_A(R)) = R$$

and knows only Alice could have the private key, that encrypted R such that

$$k_A(K_A(R)) = R$$

ap5.0: security hole

**Man (woman) in the middle attack**: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)

Difficult to detect:

- Bob receives everything that Alice sends, and vice versa. (e.g. so Bob, Alice can meet one week later and recall conversation)
- problem is that Trudy receives all messages as well!

Chapter 8 roadmap

- What is network security?
- Principles of cryptography
- Authentication
- Message integrity
- Key Distribution and certification
- Access control: firewalls
- Attacks and counter measures
- Security in many layers
Digital Signatures

Cryptographic technique analogous to handwritten signatures.
- sender (Bob) digitally signs document, establishing he is document owner/creator.
- verifiable, nonforgeable: recipient (Alice) can prove to someone that Bob, and no one else (including Alice), must have signed document.

Digital Signatures (more)
- Suppose Alice receives msg \( m \), digital signature \( K_B(m) \)
- Alice verifies \( m \) signed by Bob by applying Bob's public key \( K_B \) to \( K_B(m) \) then checks \( K_B(K_B(m)) = m \).
- If \( K_B(K_B(m)) = m \), whoever signed \( m \) must have used Bob's private key.

Alice thus verifies that:
- Bob signed \( m \).
- No one else signed \( m \).
- Bob signed \( m \) and not \( m' \).

Non-repudiation:
- Alice can take \( m \), and signature \( K_B(m) \) to court and prove that Bob signed \( m \).

Internet checksum: poor crypto hash function

Internet checksum has some properties of hash function:
- produces fixed length digest (16 bit sum) of message
- message with given hash value, it is easy to find another message with same hash value:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>message</th>
<th>ASCII format</th>
<th>message</th>
<th>ASCII format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I O U 1</td>
<td>49 4F 55 31</td>
<td>I O U 2</td>
<td>49 4F 55 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 . 9</td>
<td>30 30 2E 39</td>
<td>0 0 . 1</td>
<td>30 30 2E 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B O B</td>
<td>39 42 02 42</td>
<td>B O B</td>
<td>39 42 02 42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B2 C1 D2 AC — different messages — B2 C1 D2 AC

equal?
Hash Function Algorithms

- MD5 hash function widely used (RFC 1321)
  - computes 128-bit message digest in 4-step process.
  - arbitrary 128-bit string x, appears difficult to construct msg m whose MD5 hash is equal to x.
- SHA-1 is also used:
  - US standard [NIEST, FIPS PUB 180-1]
  - 160-bit message digest

Chapter 8 roadmap

8.1 What is network security?
8.2 Principles of cryptography
8.3 Authentication
8.4 Integrity
8.5 Key distribution and certification
8.6 Access control: firewalls
8.7 Attacks and counter measures
8.8 Security in many layers

Trusted Intermediaries

Symmetric key problem:
- How do two entities establish shared secret key over network?
Solution:
- trusted key distribution center (KDC) acting as intermediary between entities

Public key problem:
- When Alice obtains Bob’s public key (from web site, e-mail, diskette), how does she know it is Bob’s public key, not Trudy’s?
Solution:
- trusted certification authority (CA)

Key Distribution Center (KDC)

- Alice, Bob need shared symmetric key.
- KDC: server shares different secret key with each registered user (many users)
- Alice, Bob know own symmetric keys, $K_{A,KDC}$, $K_{B,KDC}$: for communicating with KDC.

Alice and Bob communicate: using R1 as session key for shared symmetric encryption

Certification Authorities

- Certification authority (CA): binds public key to particular entity, E.
- E (person, router) registers its public key with CA.
  - E provides “proof of identity” to CA.
  - CA creates certificate binding E to its public key.
  - certificate containing E’s public key digitally signed by CA
    - CA says “this is E’s public key”

KDC generates R1

Bob knows to use R1 to communicate with Alice

Alice and Bob communicate: using R1 as session key for shared symmetric encryption

Bob’s identifying information

Certificate for Bob’s public key, signed by CA

Digital signature (signature)
**Certification Authorities**

- When Alice wants Bob's public key:
  - get Bob's certificate (Bob or elsewhere).
  - apply CA's public key to Bob's certificate, get Bob’s public key

![Diagram showing the process of obtaining Bob's public key via a certificate and digital signature](image)

**A certificate contains:**

- Serial number (unique to issuer)
- info about certificate owner, including algorithm and key value (not shown)
- info about certificate issuer
- valid dates
- digital signature by issuer

**Chapter 8 roadmap**

8.1 What is network security?
8.2 Principles of cryptography
8.3 Authentication
8.4 Integrity
8.5 Key Distribution and certification
8.6 Access control: firewalls
8.7 Attacks and counter measures
8.8 Security in many layers

**Firewalls**

- isolates organization's internal net from larger Internet, allowing some packets to pass, blocking others.

**Firewalls: Why**

- prevent denial of service attacks:
  - SYN flooding: attacker establishes many bogus TCP connections, no resources left for “real” connections.
- prevent illegal modification/access of internal data.
  - e.g., attacker replaces CIA's homepage with something else
- allow only authorized access to inside network (set of authenticated users/hosts)

**Packet Filtering**

- internal network connected to Internet via router firewall
- router filters packet-by-packet, decision to forward/drop packet based on:
  - source IP address, destination IP address
  - TCP/UDP source and destination port numbers
  - ICMP message type
  - TCP SYN and ACK bits
Packet Filtering

- Example 1: block incoming and outgoing datagrams with IP protocol field = 17 and with either source or dest port = 23.
  - All incoming and outgoing UDP flows and telnet connections are blocked.
- Example 2: Block inbound TCP segments with ACK=0.
  - Prevents external clients from making TCP connections with internal clients, but allows internal clients to connect to outside.

Application gateways

- Filters packets on application data as well as on IP/TCP/UDP fields.
- Example: allow select internal users to telnet outside.
  1. Require all telnet users to telnet through gateway.
  2. For authorized users, gateway sets up telnet connection to dest host. Gateway relays data between 2 connections
  3. Router filter blocks all telnet connections not originating from gateway.

Limitations of firewalls and gateways

- IP spoofing: router can't know if data “really” comes from claimed source
- If multiple apps. need special treatment, each has own app. gateway.
- Client software must know how to contact gateway.
  - e.g., must set IP address of proxy in Web browser
- Filters often use all or nothing policy for UDP.
- Tradeoff: degree of communication with outside world, level of security
- Many highly protected sites still suffer from attacks.

Chapter 8 roadmap

8.1 What is network security?
8.2 Principles of cryptography
8.3 Authentication
8.4 Integrity
8.5 Key Distribution and certification
8.6 Access control: firewalls
8.7 Attacks and counter measures
8.8 Security in many layers

Internet security threats

Mapping:
- Before attacking: “case the joint” – find out what services are implemented on network
- Use ping to determine what hosts have addresses on network
- Port-scanning: try to establish TCP connection to each port in sequence (see what happens)
- Nmap (http://www.insecure.org/nmap/) mapper: “network exploration and security auditing”

Countermeasures?
Internet security threats
Packet sniffing:
- broadcast media
- promiscuous NIC reads all packets passing by
- can read all unencrypted data (e.g., passwords)
- e.g.: C sniffs B's packets

Countermeasures?

Internet security threats
Packet sniffing: countermeasures
- all hosts in organization run software that checks periodically if host interface in promiscuous mode.
- one host per segment of broadcast media (switched Ethernet at hub)

Internet security threats
IP Spoofing:
- can generate "raw" IP packets directly from application, putting any value into IP source address field
- receiver can't tell if source is spoofed
- e.g.: C pretends to be B

Countermeasures?

Internet security threats
IP Spoofing: ingress filtering
- routers should not forward outgoing packets with invalid source addresses (e.g., datagram source address not in router's network)
- great, but ingress filtering can not be mandated for all networks

Internet security threats
Denial of service (DOS):
- flood of maliciously generated packets "swamp" receiver
- Distributed DOS (DDOS): multiple coordinated sources swamp receiver
- e.g., C and remote host SYN-attack A

Countermeasures?

Internet security threats
Denial of service (DOS): countermeasures
- filter out flooded packets (e.g., SYN) before reaching host: throw out good with bad
- traceback to source of floods (most likely an innocent, compromised machine)
8. Network Security

Chapter 8 roadmap

8.1 What is network security?
8.2 Principles of cryptography
8.3 Authentication
8.4 Integrity
8.5 Key Distribution and certification
8.6 Access control: firewalls
8.7 Attacks and counter measures
8.8 Security in many layers
8.8.1 Secure email
8.8.2 Secure sockets
8.8.3 IPSec
8.8.4 Security in 802.11

Secure e-mail

- Alice wants to send confidential e-mail, m, to Bob.

Bob: Alice generates a random symmetric private key, \( K_S \).

Alice digitally signs message: Alice uses three keys: her private key, Bob’s public key, newly created symmetric key.

Pretty good privacy (PGP)

Internet e-mail encryption scheme, de-facto standard.

A PGP signed message:

---BEGIN PGP SIGNED MESSAGE---
Hash: SHA1

Bob: My husband is out of town tonight. Passionately yours, Alice

--BEGIN PGP SIGNATURE--
Version: PGP 5.0
Charset: noconv

[Signature]

---END PGP SIGNATURE---
Secure sockets layer (SSL)

- transport layer security to any TCP-based app using SSL services.
- used between Web browsers, servers for e-commerce (shttp).
- security services:
  - server authentication
  - data encryption
  - client authentication (optional)

SSL (continued)

- server authentication:
  - SSL-enabled browser includes public keys for trusted CAs.
  - Browser requests server certificate, issued by trusted CA.
  - Browser uses CA's public key to extract server's public key from certificate.
- check your browser's security menu to see its trusted CAs.

IPsec: Network Layer Security

- Network-layer secrecy:
  - sending host encrypts the data in IP datagram
  - TCP and UDP segments; ICMP and SNMP messages.
- Network-layer authentication
  - destination host can authenticate source IP address
- Two principle protocols:
  - authentication header (AH) protocol
  - encapsulation security payload (ESP) protocol

Authentication Header (AH) Protocol

- provides source authentication, data integrity, no confidentiality
- AH header inserted between IP header, data field.
- protocol field: 51
- intermediate routers process datagrams as usual

ESP Protocol

- provides secrecy, host authentication, data integrity.
- data, ESP trailer encrypted.
- next header field is in ESP trailer.

IEEE 802.11 security

- War-driving: drive around Bay area, see what 802.11 networks available?
  - More than 9000 accessible from public roadways
  - 85% use no encryption/authentication
  - packet-sniffing and various attacks easy!
- Securing 802.11
  - encryption, authentication
  - first attempt at 802.11 security: Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP): a failure
  - current attempt: 802.11i
**Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP):**
- authentication as in protocol ap4.0
- host requests authentication from access point
- access point sends 128 bit nonce
- host encrypts nonce using shared symmetric key
- access point decrypts nonce, authenticates host
- no key distribution mechanism
- authentication: knowing the shared key is enough

**WEP data encryption**
- Host/AP share 40 bit symmetric key (semi-permanent)
- Host appends 24-bit initialization vector (IV) to create 64-bit key
- 64 bit key used to generate stream of keys, $k_i^{IV}$
- $k_i^{IV}$ used to encrypt ith byte, $d_i$, in frame: $c_i = d_i \oplus k_i^{IV}$
- IV and encrypted bytes, $c_i$, sent in frame

**802.11 WEP encryption**
- IV (per frame)
- $K_{sym}$: 40-bit secret
- Key sequence generator (for given $K_{sym}$, IV)
- Plaintext frame data + CRC
- Sender-side WEP encryption

**Breaking 802.11 WEP encryption**
- Security hole:
  - 24-bit IV, one IV per frame, --> IV’s eventually reused
  - IV transmitted in plaintext --> IV reuse detected
- Attack:
  - Trudy causes Alice to encrypt known plaintext $d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4, \ldots$
  - Trudy sees: $c_i = d_i \oplus k_i^{IV}$
  - Trudy knows $c_i, d_i$, so can compute $k_i^{IV}$
  - Trudy knows encrypting key sequence $k_1^{IV}, k_2^{IV}, k_3^{IV}, \ldots$
  - Next time IV is used, Trudy can decrypt!

**802.11i: improved security**
- numerous (stronger) forms of encryption possible
- provides key distribution
- uses authentication server separate from access point

**802.11i: four phases of operation**
- Discovery of security capabilities
- STA and AS mutually authenticate, together generate Master Key (MK), AP serves as “pass through”
- STA derives Pairwise Master Key (PMK)
- AS derives same PMK, sends to AP
- STA, AP use PMK to derive Temporal Key (TK) used for message encryption, integrity
**EAP: extensible authentication protocol**

- EAP: end client (mobile) to authentication server protocol
- EAP sent over separate "links"
  - mobile-to-AP (EAP over LAN)
  - AP to authentication server (RADIUS over UDP)

**Network Security (summary)**

**Basic techniques......**
- cryptography (symmetric and public)
- authentication
- message integrity
- key distribution

... used in many different security scenarios
- secure email
- secure transport (SSL)
- IP sec
- 802.11