# Computer Security

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## 1 Introduction to Computer Security

## 1.1 Security requirements

### CIA Paradighm

Confidentiality Information can be accessed only by authorized entities

**Integrity** information can be modified only by authorized entities, and only how they're entitled to do

 ${\bf Availability} \ \ {\bf information} \ {\bf must} \ {\bf be} \ {\bf available} \ {\bf to} \ {\bf entitled} \ {\bf entities}, \ {\bf within} \ {\bf specified} \\ \ \ {\bf time} \ {\bf constraints}$ 

The engineering problem is that  ${\bf A}$  conflicts with  ${\bf C}$  and  ${\bf I}$ 

## 2 Computer Security Concepts

## 2.1 General concepts

Vulnerability Something that allows to violate some CIA constraints

- The physical behaviour of pins in a lock
- A software vulnerable to SQL injecton

**Exploit** A specific way to use one or more vulnerability to violate the constraints

- lockpicking
- $\bullet\,$  the strings to use for SQL injection

Assets what is valuable/needs to be protected

- $\bullet$  hardware
- software
- $\bullet$  data
- reputation

Thread potential violation of the CIA

- DoS
- data break

 ${f Attack}$  an  ${f intentional}$  use of one or more exploits aiming to compromise the CIA

- Picking a lock to enter a building
- Sending a string creafted for SQL injection

Thread agent whoever/whatever may cause an attack to occour

- a thief
- an hacker
- malicious software

Hackers, attackers, and so on

Hacker Someone proficient in computers and networks

Black hat Malicious hacker

White hat Security professional

 ${f Risk}$  statistical and economical evaluation of the exposure to damage because of vulneravilities and threads

$$Risk = \underbrace{Assets \times Vulnerabilities}_{\text{controllable}} \times \underbrace{Threads}_{\text{independent}}$$

Security balance of (vulnerability reduction+damage containment) vs cost

## 2.2 Security vs Cost

#### Direct cost

- Management
- Operational
- Equipment

#### Indirect cost

- Less usability
- Less performance
- Less privacy

Trust We must assume something as secure

- the installed software?
- our code?
- the compiler?
- the OS?
- the hardware?

## 3 Introduction to crypthography

**Kerchoffs' Principle** The security of a (good) cryptosystem relies only on the security of the key, never on the secrecy of the algorithm

## 3.1 Perfect Chipher

- P(M=m) probability of observing message m
- P(M=m|C=c) probability that the message was m given the observed cyphertext c

**Perfect cypher:** P(M = m | C = c) = P(M = m)

**Shannon's theorem** in a perfect cipher  $|K| \ge |M|$ 

One Time Pad a real example of perfect chipher

#### Algorithm 1 One Time Pad

Require: len(m) = len(k)Require: keys not to be reused

**return**  $k \oplus m$ 

**Brute Force** perfect chyphers are immune to brute force (as many "reasonable" messages will be produced). Real world chiphers are not.

A real chipher is vulnerable if there is a way to break it that is faster then brute forcing

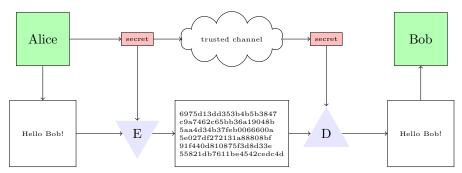
Types of attack

Ciphertext attack analyst has only the chipheertexts

Known plaintext attack analyst has some pairs of plaintext-chiphertext

 ${\bf Chosen\ plaintext\ attack\ analyst\ can\ choose\ plaintexts\ and\ obtain\ their\ respective\ ciphertext}$ 

## 3.2 Symmetric encryption



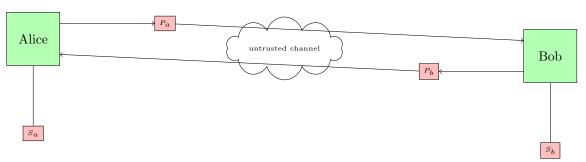
Use  $\mathbf{K}$  to both encrypt and decript the message Scalability issue Key agreement issue

#### 3.2.1 Ingredients

Substitution Replace each byte with another (ex: caesar chipher)

Transposition swap the values of given bits (ex: read vertically)

## 3.3 Asymetric encryption



Each user owns a private and a public key  $(S_i, P_i)$ , where the public key is publicly available. The cryptoalgorithm is designed so that messages encrypted using  $P_i$  can only be decrypted using  $S_i$ . This allows Alice to encrypt a message using  $P_{bob}$ , and Bob (and nobody else) to decrypt is using  $S_{bob}$ . Also, to prove its identity, Bob could send a message encrypted using  $P_{bob}$ . When Alice manages to decrypt is using  $P_{bob}$ , she can be sure that the message came from Bob

#### 3.4 Hash functions

A function  $H: X \to Y$  having  $|X| = \infty$  but  $|Y| = k \in \mathbb{N}$ . This means |Y| < |X|, leading to <u>collisions</u>: couples  $x_1, x_2 \in X: H(x_1) = H(x_2)$ .

**Safery properties** are proberties needed to ensure robustness of H. In particular, it must be computationally infeasible to find:

**preimage attack resistance** x: H(x) = h with h known/crafted

second preimage attack resistance  $y: y \neq x \land H(x) = H(y)$ , where x is known/crafted

collision resistance x, y : H(x) = H(y)

#### 3.4.1 Attacks to Hash Functions

**Preimage attack** Given an hash h, the attacker can find x such that H(x) = h, or given x, they can find y such that H(x) = H(y). This can be done faster than brute force.

With |Y| = n, random collisions happen in  $2^{n-1}$  cases

Simplified collision attack The attacker can generate x, y : H(x) = H(y) faster than brute force.

Random collisions happen in  $2^{n/2}$  cases (for the Birthday paradox)

#### 3.5 Digital Signature

To digitally sign a message, we first hash the message. Then, we encrypt the hash with our private key.

This however only guarantees that the sign was produced using our secret key, but someone may have stolen/guessed our private key.

#### 3.5.1 PKI

Public Key Infrastructures is a service entitled to associate an identity to a key. To do so it uses a <u>trusted</u> third party called **Certification Authority**. The CA signs files called **digital certificates**, which bind an identity to a public key.

**Top-level CA** is a special CA that self-signs its certificates. It is a <u>trusted element</u>. The Root CA can then sign certificates for other CAs. In practice, a Root CA is a real world CA (the state, a regulatory organization...)

**Revocation** Signatures cannot be revoked, but certificates can be revoked (declared invalid), for example because the private key has been broken. To do so, a Certificate Revocation List must exist for each CA

## 4 Authentication

Identification an entity provides its identifier

Authentication an entity provides a proof that verifies its identity

- Unidirectional authentication
- Bidirectional authentication

#### Three factors authentication

**Something I know** low cost, easy to deploy, low effectiveness. Possible attack classes are snooping (so change the passwords), cracking (so use strong passwords) and guessing (so don't use your birthday)

- Password
- PIN
- Secret handshake

**Something I have** reduces the impact of human factor, relatively low cost, high security. Hard to deploy, can be lost (so use a backup factor)

- Door key
- Smart card

**Something I am** High level of security, no extra hw needed. Hard to deploy, non-deterministic, invasive, can be cloned. Biological entities change, privacy can be an issue, users with disabilities may be restrained.

- DNA
- Voice
- Fingerprint
- Face scan

 $\bf Single\ Sign\ On\$  Like OAuth2: exploit an ad-hoc authentication server, accessible from many apps

### 5 Access control

- Binary decision: allowed or denied
- Hard to scale (answers must be condensed in rules)
- Questions:
  - How do we design the rules?
  - How do we express them?
  - How do we apply them?

**Reference monitor** entity that encorces control access policies. Implemented by default in all modern kernels

- Tamper proof
- Cannot be bypassed
- Small enough to be verified/tested

#### 5.1 Access Control Models

**Discretionary Access Control** Resource owner <u>discretionarily</u> decides the access privileges of the resource. Default in all off-the-shelf OS.

#### 5.1.1 Model

We need to model:

Subjects Who can exercise privileges

Objects On what privileges can be exercised

Actions Which can be exercised

	file1	${ m file 2}$	directory7	
Alice	Read	Read, Write, Own		
Bob	Read, Write, Own	Read	Read, Write, Own	
Charlie	Read, Write		Read	
				. :
<b></b>		<b>.</b>	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

#### 5.1.2 HRU model

#### Basic operations

- Create/destroy subject S
- Create/destroy object O
- Add/remove permission from [S, O] matrix

**Transitions** atomic sequence of basic operations (as usual)

**Safety problem** Does it exist a transition that leaks a certain right into the access matrix?

Undecidable problem becomes decidable if

- Mono-operational systems  $\rightarrow$  useless
- Finite number of objects/subjects

## 5.2 Common implementation

- Reproduction of HRU models
- Sparse access matrix
- Authorizations table (records S-O-A triples)
- Access control list (record by colums: S-A per O)
- Capability List (records by row (O-A by S)

#### 5.3 Issues

- Safety cannot be proven
- Coarse granularity (can't check data inside the objects)
- Scalability and management (each user can compromise security)

## 5.4 Mandatory Access Control

Administrator single entity establishing access privileges

Secrecy levels strictly ordered set of access classes

Labels used to classify objects

	Secrecy levels	Labels
	Top Secret	Policy
Example	Secret	Energy
	For Official Use Only	Finance
	Unclassified	Atomic

Lattice Touple <Level, Label>.

**Classification** obtained by a partial order relationship.  $C_1, L_1 \geq C_2, L_2 \leftrightarrow C_1 \geq C_2 \land L_2 \subseteq L_1$ . Such relation is reflexive, transitive, antisymmetric.

### 5.4.1 BLP model

No read up cannot read documents with higher security level than mine

No write down cannot write documents having a lower security level that mine (to avoid leaking of information)

**Discretionary Security Policy** An access matrix can be used to specify discretionay access control

Tranquility Secrecy levels of objects cannot change dinamically

## 6 Software Security

Good software engineering  $\rightarrow$  meet requirements. Security is a <u>non functional</u> requirement. The rest of the lesson is history and not particularly interesting

## 7 Buffer Overflow

## 7.1 Memory stack

$\operatorname{High}$	$\operatorname{Argc}$	
0xC0000000	Env pointer	Statically allocated local variables
		Function activation records
	Stack	Grows down
0xBFF00000	10 101112	0.2 0 1.10 0.0 0.0 0.0
0AB1 1 00000		
	<b>†</b>	Unallocated memory
	**	Dynamically allocated data
	Heap	Grows up
		Grows up
	. data	Initialized data (ex: global variables)
		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
	.bss	Not initialized data (0s)
	44	T
	.text	Executable code (machine instructions)
0x0804800		
Low	Shared Libraries	

## 7.2 Registers

**General purpose registers** execute common operations. Store data and addresses.

ESP Contains the address of the last stack operation: Top of the stack

EBP Contains the base of the current function frame

Segment 16-bit reisters to keep track of segments and backward compatibility

Control control the execution/operation of the processor

**EIP** Address of the next instruction to execute

 $\mbox{\bf Other }\,$  EFLAG: 1 bit register containing results of tests performed by the processor

### 7.3 Code structure

	add	,	
main()			
mam()	call	0x8048484	$\leftarrow \text{EIP}$
	ret		0x80484ce
foo()			
100()	mov	%esp,%ebp	
	push	%ebp	0x8048484
	mov	%esp,%ecx	
	pop	%esi	0x80483c1
Entry point $\rightarrow$	xor	%ebp,%ebp	0x80483c0

## 7.4 On function call

### Before jumping the called

- The EIP is saved on the stack (so we know where to resume execution after return)
- The EBP is saved on the stack (so we can restore the memory)
- The ESP points to the cell after the saved EBP

#### Before the function returns

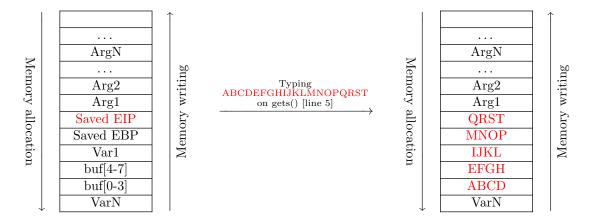
- The saved EBP is restored
- The saved EBP is popped from the stack
- The return instructions uses the saved EIP to jump back to the caller

## 7.5 Stack smashing

```
int foo(int a, int b){
   int c = 14;
   char buf[8];

gets(buf);

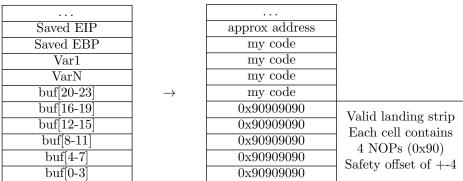
c = (a+b)*c;
   return c;
}
```



### Possible jumping destinations

- Environment variables
- Built-in functions
- Memory we can control
  - The buffer itself!
  - Some other variable

The address of the buffer/EIP is hard to find! An estimate can be retrieved using a debugger, but it's not precise. Need to have a bigger "landing strip"! NOP sleds are used for this



approx. address

What to execute Shellcode: code to spawn a (privileged) shell. It basically consists in executing execve("/bin/sh")

#### Writing shellcode

- 1. Write high-level code
- 2. Compile and disassembly
- 3. Analyse and clean up the assembly
- 4. Extract the opcode
- 5. Create the shellcode

```
Shell code example

int main() {
    char* hack [2];

    hack [0] = "/bin/sh";
    hack [1] = NULL;

execve(hack [0], &hack, &hack [1]);
```

## 7.6 Defending against Buffer Overflow

#### Source code level defence

- Use safer libraries: strncpy instead of strcpy, for example
- Use languages with Dynamic Memory Management (like java) to make guessing the buffer address harder

### Compiler level defence

- Warnings from the compiler
- Randomized reordering of stack variables
- Canary: insert a control value between the saved EIP/EBP and the local variables, and check it to know if the stack has been compromised.

**Terminator canaries** made of '\0', which cannot be written by usual functions

Random canaries random bytes choosen at runtime

**Random XOR canaries** Random canaries, but XORed with part of the structure we want to protect (R=a random number, always the same $\land$ X=something, like the EIP  $\Longrightarrow$  R $\oplus$ X $\oplus$ R=R $\oplus$ R $\oplus$ X=0 $\oplus$ X=X

#### OS level defence

- Non-executable stack (can still be breached by returning to standard libraries)
- Address space Layout Randomization: reposition the stack at each execution

## 8 Format String Bugs

Format string You know, the strings with "%d" and similar in them

```
Vulnerable example

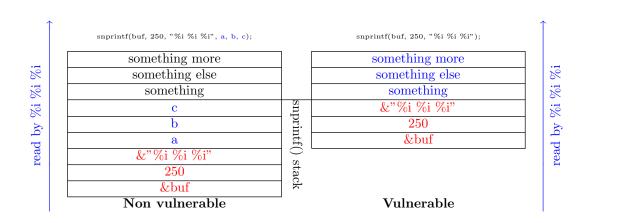
#include <stdio.h>

void test(char* arg){
    char buf[250];
    snprintf(buf, 250, arg);
    printf("buffer: %s\n", buf);

}

int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    test(argv[1]);
    return 0;
}
```

Two executions of the code above result in the following



```
Specific access

#include <stdio.h>

void test(char* arg){
    char buf[250];
    snprintf(buf, 250, arg);
```

```
printf("buffer: %s\n", buf);

int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    test(argv[1]);
    return 0;
}
```

Two executions of the code above result in the following

```
1 $ ./code "%x %x %x"
buffer: f59b87a0 d1772d80 d1772d897

3 4
5 $ ./code "%3\$x"
6 buffer: d1772d897 #the third!
```

We can use loops to find interesting positions (design the vulnerability), and then aim for those positions directly (deploy it):

We can also look for specific values:

### 8.1 Writing using format string bugs

**Super powerful placeholder:** printf("hello%n",&i)  $\rightarrow$  writes <u>in i</u> the <u>number of chars (bytes)</u> printed so far (in the example it will write 5)

Is equivalent to

```
1 $ ./code "'python -c 'print "AAAA%2$n"''
```

Which is equivalent to

```
1 | $ ./code "'python -c 'print "\x41\x41\x41\x41\x41\""
```

We can replace the  $\xspace$ x41 with whatever bytes we like (in hex), inserting whatever address we like

Using this:

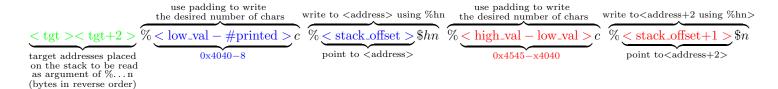
```
1 $ ./code "'python -c 'print "\x41\x41\x41\x41\x41\x50000c%2$n"''"
```

We are writing the value 50004 (50000 for the padding, 4 for the bytes of the address)

Writing big numbers we usually want to write a valid 32 bit address ad an arbitrary number. This could require a super long padding string (up to 4GB). To reduce the size written, we can split it in 2 16-bit words. Because using %c we can only increase, and we must perform the writing twice in the same string (as we can only pass one string), we need to do some math:

- 1. Word with lower absolute value
- 2. Word with higher absolute value

New vulnerable string 1: use case: 0x45454040 (first half > second half)



New vulnerable string 2: use case: 0x40404545 (first half < second half)



#### 8.2 Generalization

print functions are not the only functions affected by the problem. All functions with the following properties are vulnerable:

- Are <u>variadic functions</u>: have a variable number of parameters resolved at runtime from the stack
- Have a mechanis to read/write arbitrary locations
- The user can control them

### 3.3 Defending agains Format String bugs

- Most of the defenses explained in 7.6
- The vulnerable functions may be patched, for example by specifying the expected number of parameters
- Warnings from compilers

## 9 Web application security

### 9.1 Introduction

Client is never trustworthy any client may be an attacker, so we need to filter carefully what it sends us

Filtering is hard

## 9.2 Filtering

can be done is 3 ways

Whitelisting only allow what you expect

Blacklisting Discard bad stuff

**Escaping** Transform special/dangerous characters into something less dangerous

## 9.3 Cross site scripting (XSS)

**XSS** client-side code is injected into the web page; for example posting the following comment:

The alert will appear when the comment is loaded.

#### 9.3.1 Types of XSS:

**Stored XSS** The attacker input is stored on the target server into a database (for example a blog comment). The victim retrieves the stored code without the data been made safe to render.

Reflected XSS The following script is present in the vulnerable page:

```
url = url.searchParams.get('variable');
request = new XMLHttpRequest();
request.open('GET', url, true);
request.send(null);
//...
```

The attacker sends the victim (in an email, embedded in another website) the following link:

example.com/?variable=\$<\$script\$>\$alert('pawned!')\$<\$/script\$>
\$

Dom-based XSS Vulnerable script on the site:

```
1 document.write('<b>Current URL: </b>'+document.baseURI);
```

Malicious URL:

example.com/#<script>alert('pwned')</script>

#### 9.3.2 What XSS can do:

- Cookie theft
- Session hijack
- Session manipulation
- Execution of a fraudolent transaction
- Snooping private information
- Drive by download (make the user download malicious programs without wanting/knowing)
- Bypass same-origin policy

Same Origin Policy  $\,$  all client-side code fro origin  ${\bf A}$  should only be able to access data from  ${\bf A}$ 

Has issues with browser extensions and CORS (literal exceptions to SOP)

#### 9.3.3 Content Security Policy

**CSP:** a W3C specification to inform the browser on what to trust and what not, sent from the server to the client in an header: Content-Security-Policy: script-src 'self' http://myurl.it

(some) available directives

script-src load client code only from listed origins

form-action only listed endpoints are valid to submit data to

**frame-ancestors** lists other sources allowed to embed the currend page in them (into frames or applets)

img-src list of origins from which images can be loaded
style-src load css only from listed origins

#### Issues

- Must be very strict to work
- Must be written (mostly) manually
- Must be kept up to date
- Can have issues with browser extensions

#### 9.4 SQL injection

#### 9.4.1 Breaking authentication

Say we have the following code, server side:

```
public void login(String username, String password){
2
     SqlCommand cmd= new SqlCommand(String.Format(
        "SELECT * FROM Users
3
       WHERE username='{0}' AND password='{1}';",
5
       username, password);
     SqlDataReader reader = cmd.ExecuteReader();
7
     if(reader.HasRows()){
       grantAuthentication();
8
9
     }else{
10
       rejectAuthentication();
11
12
   }
```

The expected behaviour whould be for example the user inserting username="matteosecco" and password="s3cre3t!", which would result in the following query:

```
SELECT * FROM Users
WHERE username='matteosecco' AND password='s3cr3t!';
```

Instead, an attacker could type "matteosecco';—" as username and anything (say "lol") as password. As "—" is a comment in sql, the resulting query would be:

```
SELECT * FROM Users
WHERE username='matteosecco';--' AND password='lol';
```

Allowing the attacker to login even without knowing the password! But it can be even worse: the attacker may use "' OR '1'='1';-" as password, effectively bypassing the username too:

```
SELECT * FROM Users
WHERE username='' OR '1'='1';--' AND password='lol'
```

#### 9.4.2 Loading data from other tables

Suppose the server somewhere returns the result of the following query, where the string is a user parameter:

```
SELECT name, phone, address FROM Users
WHERE Id='userinput';
```

An attacker could obviously do

```
SELECT name, phone, address FROM Users
WHERE Id='' OR '1'='1';--';
```

To retrieve the data of all Users. But a more interesting injection allows to load the content of other tables: say the input is "' UNION ALL SELECT name, creditCardNumber, CCV2 from CreditCardTable;—". The resulting query would be:

```
SELECT name, phone, address FROM Users
WHERE Id='' UNION ALL SELECT name, creditCardNumber, CCV2 from
CreditCardTable;--';
```

And it would result in returning all the credit card infos stored! (assuming the union works  $\rightarrow$  the column names/forats are compatible

#### 9.4.3 Manipulating INSERTs

Assume we have the following schema to track exam results:

```
CREATE TABLE users (
1
2
     id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY,
3
     user VARCHAR (128),
     password VARCHAR (128),
4
5
     result VARCHAR
6
   );
7
8
   CREATE TABLE results (
     id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY,
10
     username VARCHAR (128),
     grade VARCHAR
11
12
   );
```

And a single query in the server allowing to give 18 to a custom user (having the username as a parameter):

```
1 INSERT INTO results VALUES (NULL, 'matteosecco', '18');
```

I could easly get 30L by inserting "matteosecco', '30L'),-":

```
1 | INSERT INTO results VALUES (NULL, 'matteosecco', '30L');--', '18');
```

I could also give 30L to a friend of mine:

Or I could use it to gain access to privileged data (assuming I have some way to read the data I'm inserting):

```
INSERT INTO results VALUES (NULL, 'matteosecco', (SELECT password from USERS where user='admin')),--', '18');
```

#### 9.4.4 Blind queries

Some queries, such as a login one, do not display the result to the user. We can infer the result, or some of its properties, by the resulting behaviour.

#### 9.4.5 Defending

**Input sanitization** validation and filtering of the user input

**Prepared statements** used instead of built query strings, use variable placeholders instead of concatenation and can effectively check the variable format

Not using table names as field names it causes information leakage!

**Limit query privileges** only allow some users to execute some queries

#### 9.5 Cookies

Well, already know them

## 9.6 Cross-Site Request Forgery

Make the victim's client execute unwanted actions on another platform it is currently authenticated into.

Bank page:

Malicious site:

#### 9.6.1 Defending

#### **CSRF** Token

#### **Properties**

- Random challenge token
- Unique per user session
- Regenerated for each request
- Sent to server for validation
- Not stored in cookies (added to the HTML page for example)

**Same Site Cookies** Don't sendd any session cookies with requests originating from different websites. Specified by setting a cookie:

SameSite=strict Don't send cookies for any cross-site usage

SameSite=lax sent cookies for navigation only (prevent for POSTs, images, frames...)

## 10 Network protocol attacks

### 10.1 Denial of Service

Goal: make the service unavailable to legitimate users

#### 10.1.1 Killer packets

send specific packets to a machine to make it crash/keep it busy

**Ping of death** Specific ICMP echo request which exploits a memory error in the protocol implementation:

```
1 #From windows

2 ping -I 65527 192.168.1.15

3 #From linux

4 ping -s 65527 192.168.1.15
```

**Teardrop** Exploit vulnerabilities in the TCP reassembly (putting packages toghether). While reassembling packages with overlapping offsets, the kernel may freeze/crash

Land attack Packets having

- src IP==dst IP
- SYN=1

could loop for ever and lock a TCP/IP stack. First found on Windows 95, Windows XP still vulnerable.

### 10.1.2 SYN flooding

SYN packets are the first ones of a TCP handshake. In order for the handshake to work, the sender must be stored in memory until the handshake is completed (or for a given amount of time).

However, the IP src can be arbitrarly changed from an attacker!

So an attacker can send a lot of SYN packets from (virtually) different sources (**spoofed source addresses**), filling the buffer to store received SYNs, and preventing the server from accepting legit SYN requests

**Defending: SYN cookies** Do not store SYNs in memory. Use a challenge-response mechanism to verify the connection.

#### 10.2 Distributed DoS

#### 10.2.1 Botnets

Complex attack executed in multiple steps:

- Infect a lot of computers and gain controls over them (they become bots)
- Install a Command&Control infrastructure on them in order to be able to command them
- When the time comes, control the bots to issue the malicious attack (spam, phishing, ping of death)...

#### 10.2.2 Smurf

**ICMP** communication protocol to send status messages (connection failed, service not available...)

**SMURF** send an ICMP request having src IP spoofed to match the victim's address. The victim will be flooded with ICMP responses.

#### 10.3 Sniffing

**Promiscuous mode of network card** passes to the OS any packet read on the wire

### 10.3.1 ARP spoofing

**ARP** protocol to map IP addresses to MAC addresses. No authentication: first to come, first trusted. Replies are cached.

**request** where is 192.168.1.15?

**reply** 192.168.1.15 is at b4:e8:b0:c9:81:03

**ARP spoofing:** send ARP replies leading to the a controlled machine

#### Mitigation

- Check if the response is invalid (conflicts)
- Add a SEQ/ID number in the request

## 10.3.2 CAM filling

filling the CAM tables of a switch (MAC/port tables of switches) so to force the switch to broadcast any packet

Mitigation: PORT security (CISCO term)

#### 10.3.3 Abusing the Spanning Tree Protocol

Switches decide how to build the ST by exchanging Bridge Protocol Data Unit packets. BPDU are not authenticated  $\rightarrow$  can change the tree shape how the attacker prefer

### 10.4 Spoofing

#### 10.4.1 IP address spoofing

**UDP/ICPM:** straight forward: no sequence numbers. Need to sniff/perform ARP spoofing to see the replies

TCP: has sequence numbers. The initial one is semi-random. Need to

- Guess the Initial Sequence Number (ISN)
- DoS the legit receiver, or it might send a RST

#### 10.4.2 TCP session hijacking

take over an existing TCP session. If C is the attacker:

- 1. C sniffs the conversation between A and B, recording the sequence numbers
- 2. C disrupts A's connection (DoS). A only sees a random disruption of service.
- 3. C takes over the dialogue with B by spoofing A's address and using the sniffed SNs. B cannot suspect anything.

#### 10.4.3 Man in the Middle

Vast category of attacks, where the attacker talks to the client impersonating the server and vice versa.

#### 10.4.4 DnS (cache) poisoning

#### Actors:

- Attacker C
- Victim DNS server (non authoritative) V
- Authoritative DNS server A

### Steps:

- 1. C sends V a recursive DNS query for the domain to poison
- 2. V tries to contact A to get a value to cache
- 3. C spoofs the connection impersonating A
- 4. C sends the DNS response he wants (the IP address of its own, malicious server). He must use the correct ID of the DNS query
  - Bruteforce
  - Guess
  - Sniff
- 5. V stores the crafted response in the cache
- 6. Any user contacting V will receive V's malicious IP

### 10.4.5 DHCP poisoning

DHCP is unauthenticated. By intercepting DHCP requests, an attacker can set:

- IP address
- DNS address
- Default gateway

and so basically get control of any connection of the victim

#### 10.4.6 ICMP Redirect

Have the host update its routing table, by telling him that a better route exists (passing by a machine controlled by the attacker, of course!)

This is done by sending a forged ICMP redirect packet: the attacker needs to intectept a packet of the original connection  $\rightarrow$  must be in the same network ICPM redirects are OS dependent

### 11 Secure Network Architectures

**Firewall** a system that verifies <u>all</u> and <u>only</u> the packets flowing through it ( $\rightarrow$  powerless against insider attacks or unchecked paths). It's main functions are:

- IP packet filtering
- $\bullet$  NAT

Firewalls are computers  $\to$  they can be attacked as well. However, usually they are embedded systems with only a firmware  $\to$  small attack surface

**Firewall Rules** The firewall blindly applies the specified rules: bad rules  $\rightarrow$  no protection. The rules are written to implement an higher-level security policy. The policy must be build on a <u>default deny base</u> (to avoid the issues of blackinsting)

#### Types of firewalls

Network layer • Packet filters firewall

• Stateful packet filters firewall

Application layer • Circuit level firewalls

• Application proxies

#### 11.1 Packet filters

Process packet by packet. Stateless  $\rightarrow$  no tracking of TCP connections, no payload inspections. Inspect IP & TCP headers, looking to:

- SRC IP
- DST IP
- Protocol type
- IP options

#### Implementation a table:

Firewall	Src IP	Src PORT	Direction	Dst IP	Dst PORT	Policy	Description
FW1	ANY	ANY	$Inet \rightarrow Local$	ANY	ANY	Deny	Default deny
FW1	ANY	ANY	$Inet \rightarrow Local$	ANY	ANY	Deny	Default deny
FW1	ANY	ANY	$Inet \rightarrow Local$	WS_IP	80	Allow	Allow http to web server
FW1	WS_IP	80	$\operatorname{Local} \rightarrow \operatorname{Inet}$	ANY	ANY	ALLOW	Allow outgoing http from the web server. NOT NEEDED