

# Communication in Electronic Systems

## Lecture 9: Introduction to Security in Communication Systems

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Connectivity

# Course Overview: Part 2. Communication and Networking

- MM5: Introduction to Communication Systems
- MM6: Simple Multiuser Systems and Layered System Design
- MM7: Network Topology and Architecture
- MM8: Networking and Transport Layers
- **MM9: Introduction to Security**
- **Guest lecture**
- MM10: Packets and Digital Modulation
- MM11: Communication Waveforms
- MM12: Workshop on Modulation and Link Operation

# outline

1. security requirements, threat models and security risk analysis
2. basic cryptographic methods
  - encryption
  - authentication
  - integrity protection
3. cryptographic protocols
  - key agreement: Diffie-Hellman
  - no-key protocol, mental poker, simple digital cash

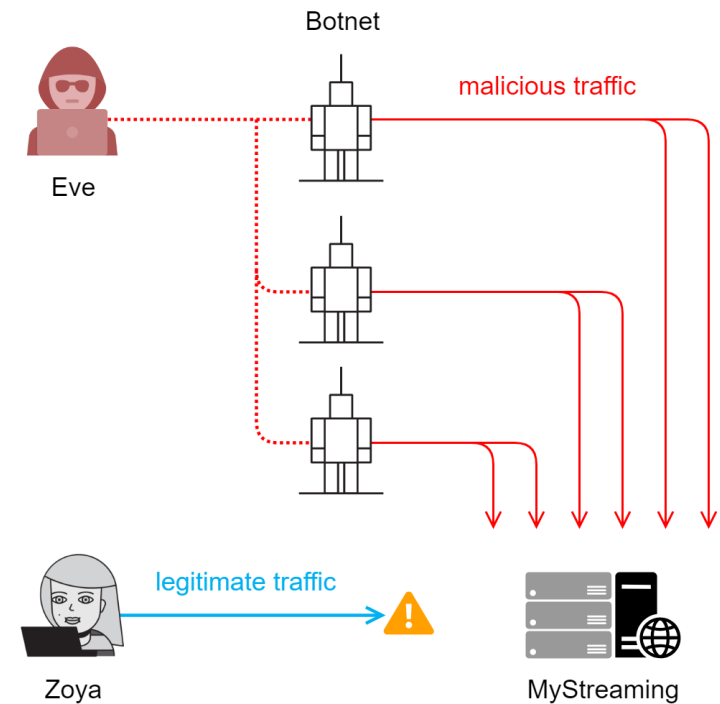
# security: main requirements

- authentication: the communication parties want to be sure that the other party is indeed the one claimed.
- confidentiality: only sender and receiver shall be able to read the transferred data.
- privacy/anonymity: personal information (including own identity) should not be revealed.
- integrity: assurance that data has not been changed on the way from the sender to the receiver.
- availability: network and services shall be available whenever needed.
- non-repudiation: a user cannot deny having used a certain service.
- legal requirements: country specific legal security requirements (e.g. Legal interception, etc.)
- double spending: ensure that digital money is spent only once (the main invention in Bitcoin).

your experience on security attack?

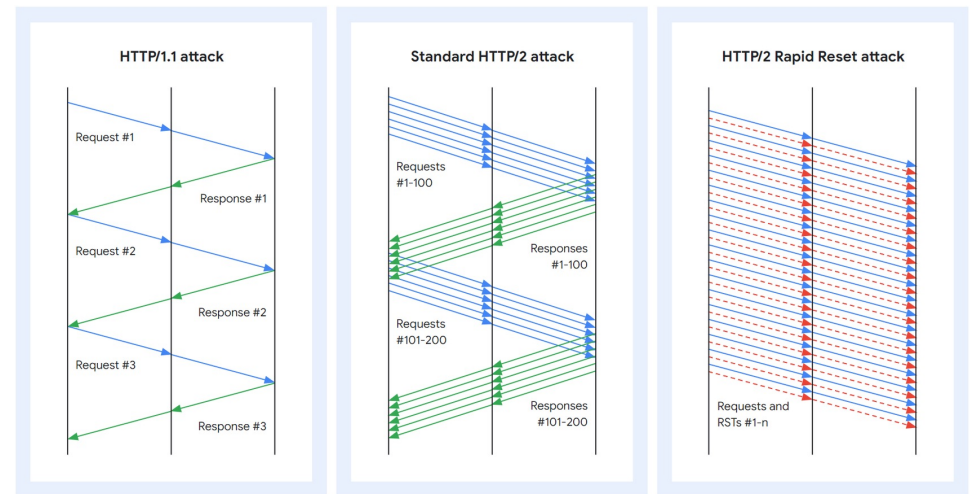
# the largest DDoS attack (until now) (1)

- distributed denial-of-service (DDoS)
- disrupt a server, service, or network by producing huge amounts of illegitimate requests
- botnet
  - machines infected by malware
  - controlled by the attacker
- solutions
  - blackhole routing
  - rate limiting
  - application firewall

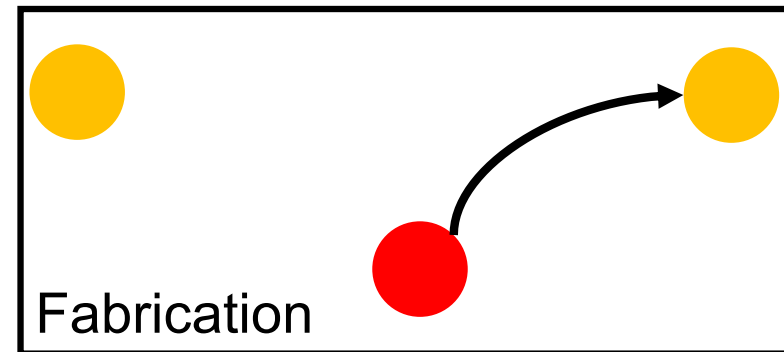
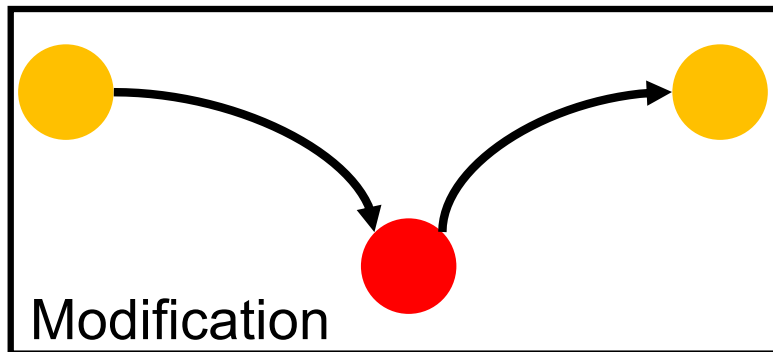
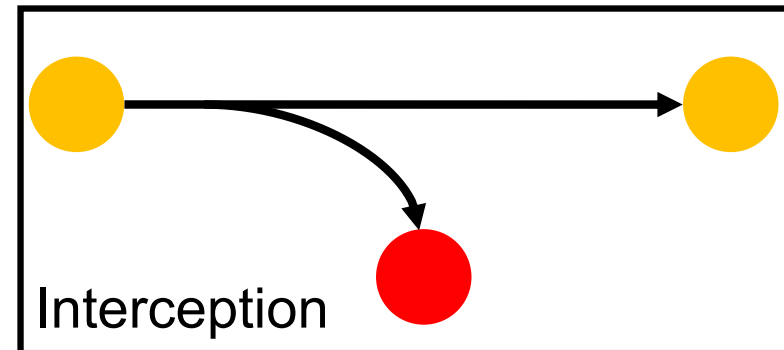
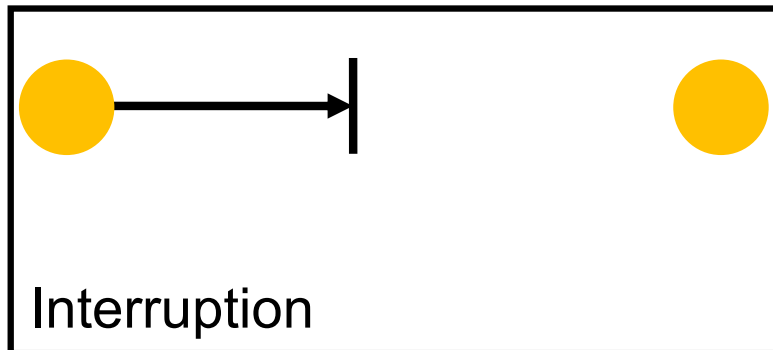


# the largest DDoS attack (until now) (2)

- Google, August 2023
  - 398 million requests per minute
  - 2-minute attack
  - more requests than 1 month of Wikipedia
- HTTP/2 rapid request technique
  - attack at the application layer
  - up to 100 parallel requests/connection
  - RST\_REQUEST frame
  - a client can cancel a request unilaterally
- mitigation
  - we cannot simply ban clients that use the RST\_REQUEST frame
  - track connection statistics
  - ban clients that cancel a high fraction of requests



## security attacks



# passive vs active attacks

## ■ passive attacks

- difficult to detect -> prevention, not detection
- release of message contents
- traffic analysis

## ■ active attacks

- masquerade
- replay
- modification of messages
- denial of service



# how to make a system secure?

- why increased focus on security when a system contains a communication network part?
  - system becomes open
  - information is transmitted over an open network (internet, large user community, flexibility)
  - Off-the-Shelf (OTS) technology
  - wireless networks (easy access to medium, mobility)



# from threat analysis to security solutions

- threat analysis
  - **what attacks** can occur for the system?
  - what is the **impact** of the attack?
  - how **difficult** is it for different user groups (internal/external/OAM staff) to perform the attack (~how likely is the attack)?
- security solutions
  - which **methods/technologies** can prevent a certain attack?
  - how **costly** are the solution approaches?
  - what **limitations** are created by the security solution?
- not all attacks can be prevented
  - adequate logging for post-analysis
  - intrusion detection and alarming
  - contingency plans
- security is only partially addressed by technology; adequate processes are equally important

# threat/risk analysis

- early discovering potential vulnerabilities that could be fixed
- estimating the associated risk to the business and the resources available to fix the vulnerabilities
- OWASP Risk Rating Methodology: <https://owasp.org> but remember modifications to address the specific needs
- two factors are taking into account in this risk model: **likelihood** and **impact**
  - Risk = likelihood x impact
    - Step 1: Identifying a risk
    - Step 3: Factors for estimating likelihood
    - Step 3: Factors for estimating impact
    - Step 4: Determining the Severity of the Risk

## estimating likelihood

- threat agent factors
  - skill level
  - motive
  - opportunity - resources
  - size
- vulnerability factors
  - ease of discovery
  - ease of exploit
  - awareness
  - intrusion detection

## estimating impact

- technical impact factors
  - loss of privacy, integrity, availability, accountability
- business impact factors
  - financial damage
  - reputation damage
  - privacy violation

# determining severity of the risk

| Likelihood and Impact Levels |        |
|------------------------------|--------|
| 0 to <3                      | LOW    |
| 3 to <6                      | MEDIUM |
| 6 to 9                       | HIGH   |

| Overall Risk Severity |        |            |        |          |
|-----------------------|--------|------------|--------|----------|
| Impact                | HIGH   | Medium     | High   | Critical |
|                       | MEDIUM | Low        | Medium | High     |
|                       | LOW    | Note       | Low    | Medium   |
|                       |        | LOW        | MEDIUM | HIGH     |
|                       |        | Likelihood |        |          |

# basic cryptographic methods

# terminology

- plaintext - original message
- ciphertext - coded message
- cipher - algorithm for transforming plaintext to ciphertext
- key – secret information used in cipher known only to sender/receiver
- encipher (encrypt) - converting plaintext to ciphertext
- decipher (decrypt) - recovering ciphertext from plaintext
- cryptography - study of encryption principles/methods
- cryptanalysis (code breaking) –  
study of principles/methods of deciphering ciphertext without knowing key

# encryption

- **the encryption security depends on the secrecy of the key, not the secrecy of the algorithm**
- sender and the receiver have obtained the copy of the secret key in a secure fashion and must keep the key secure
- practical reasons – makes it feasible for widespread use.
- manufacturers can and have developed low-cost chip implementations of data encryption algorithms.
  - widely available and incorporated into a number of products.



## cryptographic systems classified along 3 independent dimensions

- the type of operations used for transforming plaintext to ciphertext
- the types of keys used
- the way in which the plaintext is processed

## the type of operations used for transforming plaintext to ciphertext

- **substitution**

- each element in the plaintext is mapped into another element
- example of a key for shift-by-3 “Caesar’s cipher”

|            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| plaintext  | a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h | i | j | k | l | m | n | o | p | q | r | s | t | u | v | w | x | y | z |
| ciphertext | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | O | P | Q | R | S | T | U | V | W | X | Y | Z | A | B | C |

- fourscoreandsevenyearsago -> IRXUVFRUHDQGVHYHQBHDUVDJR
- how many keys of this type exist? how would you go on to break them?

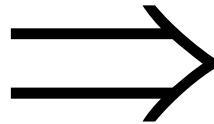
## the type of operations used for transforming plaintext to ciphertext

- **transposition** - elements in the plaintext are rearranged; fundamental requirement is that no information be lost.
- **product systems** - multiple stages of substitutions and transpositions

plaintext: **attackxatxdawn**      ciphertext: **xtawxnattxadakc**

|       | col 1 | col 2 | col 3 |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| row 1 | a     | t     | t     |
| row 2 | a     | c     | k     |
| row 3 | x     | a     | t     |
| row 4 | x     | d     | a     |
| row 5 | w     | n     | x     |

permute rows  
and columns



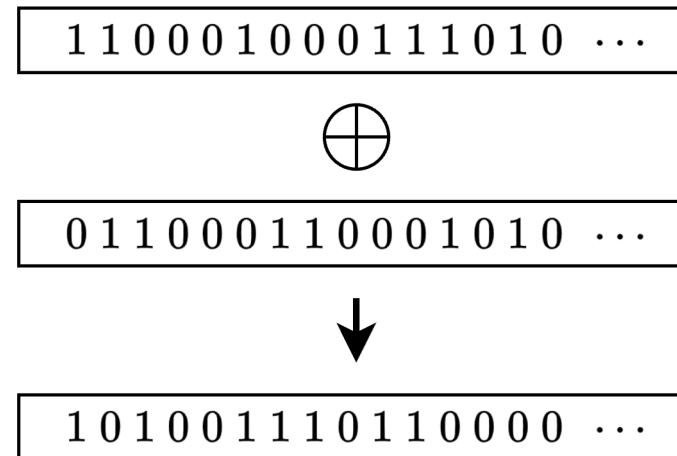
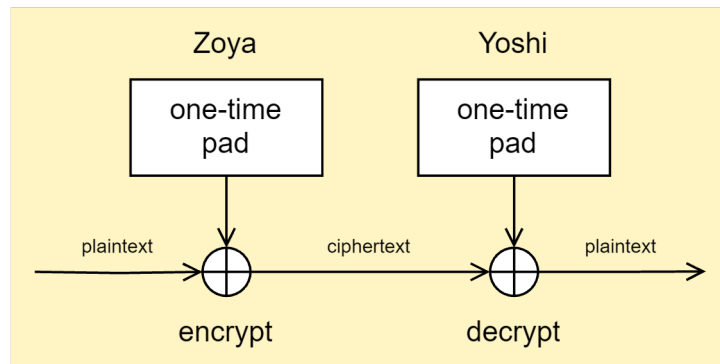
|       | col 1 | col 3 | col 2 |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| row 3 | x     | t     | a     |
| row 5 | w     | x     | n     |
| row 1 | a     | t     | t     |
| row 4 | x     | a     | d     |
| row 2 | a     | k     | c     |

key: matrix size  
and permutations

## cryptographic systems classified along 3 independent dimensions

- the type of operations used for transforming plaintext to ciphertext
- the types of keys used
  - **symmetric**, if both sender and receiver use the same key
  - **asymmetric**, or public-key encryption if the sender and receiver each use a different key
- the way in which the plaintext is processed
  - **block cipher** processes the input one block of elements at a time, producing an output block for each input block
  - **stream cipher** processes the input elements continuously, producing output one element at a time, as it goes along

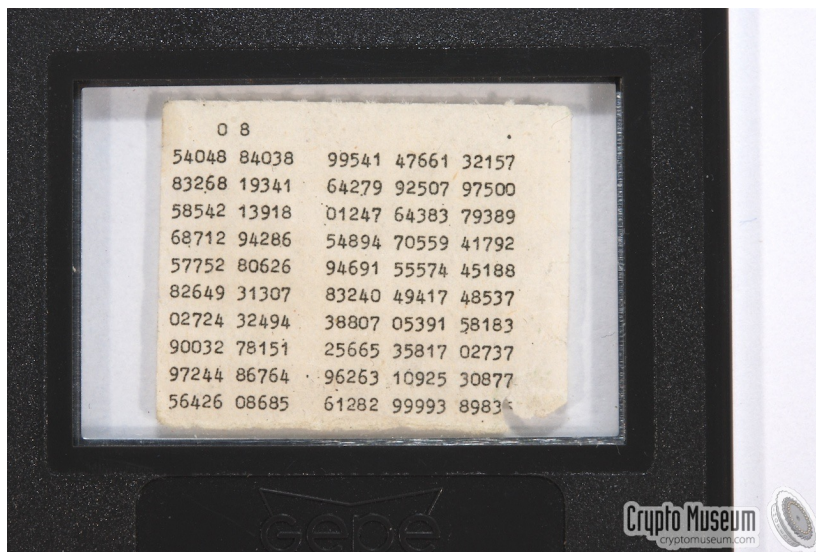
## one-time pad



- A stream cipher with infinite long random sequence as a key is the only provable secure scheme

## one-time pad: practical key exchange

- physical layer security



- Quantum Key Distribution

## attack type      what is known by the cryptanalyst

|                   |  |
|-------------------|--|
| Ciphertext only   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Encryption algorithm</li> <li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li> </ul>   |
| Known plaintext   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Encryption algorithm</li> <li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li> <li>•One or more plaintext-ciphertext pairs formed with the secret key</li> </ul>   |
| Chosen plaintext  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Encryption algorithm</li> <li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li> <li>•Plaintext message chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding ciphertext generated with the secret key</li> </ul>  |
| Chosen ciphertext | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Encryption algorithm</li> <li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li> <li>•Purported ciphertext chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding decrypted plaintext generated with the secret key</li> </ul>  |
| Chosen text       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Encryption algorithm</li> <li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li> <li>•Plaintext message chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding ciphertext generated with the secret key</li> <li>•Purported ciphertext chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding decrypted plaintext generated with the secret key</li> </ul> |

- computationally secure scheme
  - the cost of breaking the cipher exceeds the value of the encrypted information
  - the time required to break the cipher exceeds the useful lifetime of the information

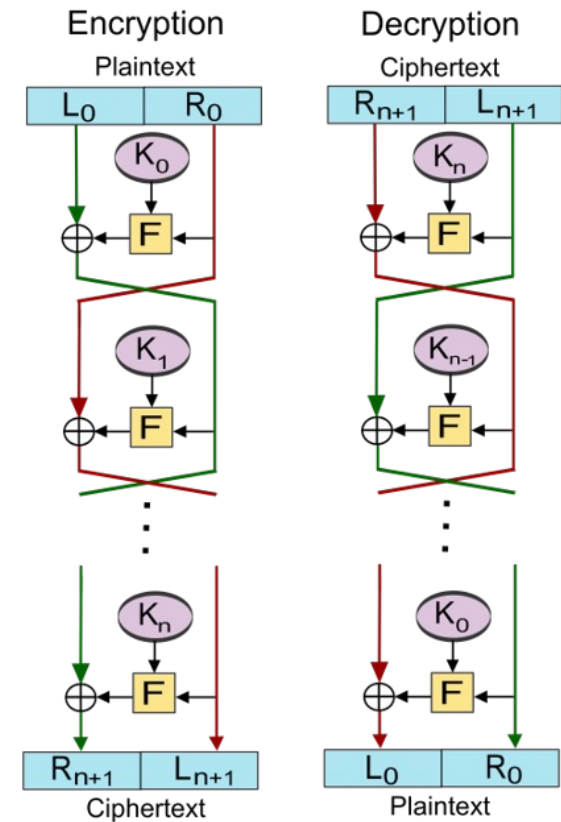
## block cipher

- plaintext and ciphertext consist of fixed-sized blocks
- ciphertext obtained from plaintext by iterating a **round function**
- input to round function consists of key and output of previous round
- usually implemented in software



# Feistel cipher structure

- all conventional block encryption algorithms have this structure
  - not a specific block cipher, but rather a blueprint
- parameters for a concrete realization:
  - block size, e.g. 64 bits
  - key size, e.g. 128 bits
  - number of rounds, e.g. 16
  - subkey generation algorithm
  - round (inner) function  $F$

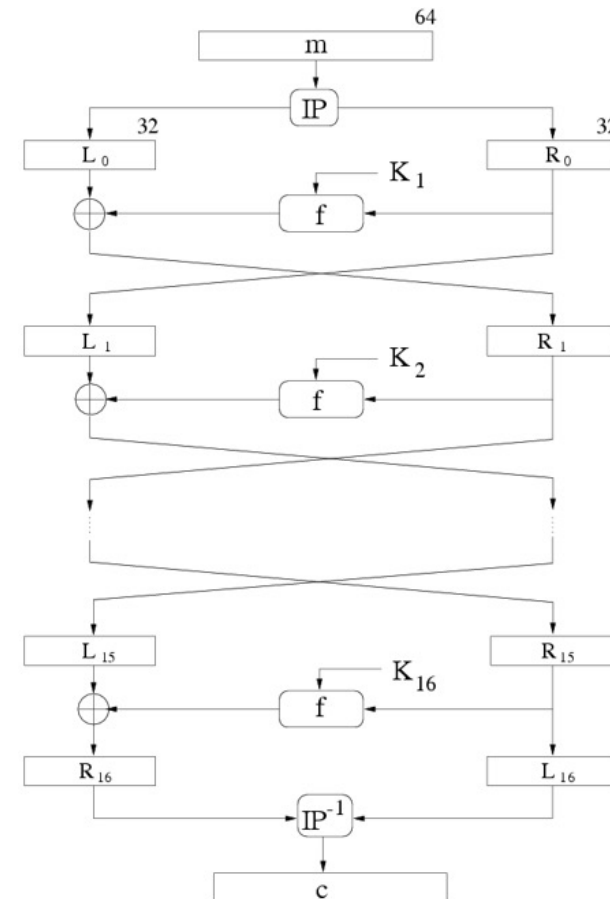


# symmetric block encryption algorithms

- Data Encryption Standard (DES)
- Triple DES (3DES)
- Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)
- Blowfish
- RC5

# data encryption standard (DES)

- DES is a Feistel cipher with...
  - 64 bit block length
  - 56 bit key length
  - 16 rounds
  - 48 bits of key used each round (subkey)
- Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)
  - block size: 128 bits
  - key length: 128, 192 or 256 bits
  - 10 to 14 rounds (depends on key length)



# block cipher modes of operation

- a symmetric block cipher processes one block of data at a time
  - In the case of DES and 3DES, the block length is  $b=64$  bits
  - For AES, the block length is  $b=128$
- for longer amounts of plaintext,  
it is necessary to break the plaintext into  $b$  bit blocks, padding the last block if necessary
- questions
  - How to encrypt multiple blocks?
  - Do we need a new key for each block?
  - Encrypt each block independently?
  - How to handle partial blocks?

# Electronic Code Book (ECB)

- notation:  $C = E(P, K)$
- given plaintext  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_m, \dots$
- most obvious way to use a block cipher:

Encrypt

$$C_0 = E(P_0, K)$$

$$C_1 = E(P_1, K)$$

$$C_2 = E(P_2, K) \dots$$

Decrypt

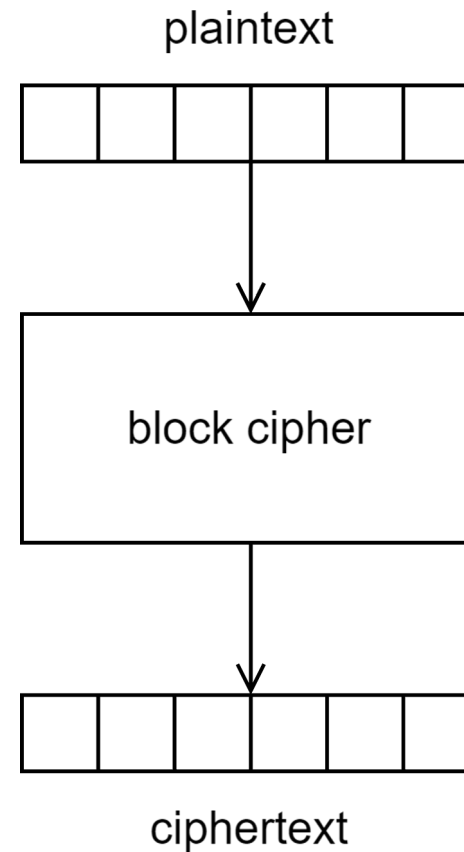
$$P_0 = D(C_0, K)$$

$$P_1 = D(C_1, K)$$

$$P_2 = D(C_2, K) \dots$$

## the trouble with ECB

- if the same b-bit block of plaintext appears more than once in the message, it always produces the same ciphertext
- due to this, for lengthy messages, the ECB mode may not be secure
- if the message is highly structured, it may be possible for a cryptanalyst to exploit these regularities



# cipher block chaining (CBC)

- blocks are “chained” together
- a random initialization vector (IV), is required to initialize CBC mode
- IV is random, but not secret
- trouble: if a block/packet is lost, then all subsequent cannot be decrypted
  - recall our flow control and transport protocols from the last time

Encryption

$$\begin{aligned}C_0 &= E(IV \oplus P_0, K), \\C_1 &= E(C_0 \oplus P_1, K), \\C_2 &= E(C_1 \oplus P_2, K), \dots\end{aligned}$$

Decryption

$$\begin{aligned}P_0 &= IV \oplus D(C_0, K), \\P_1 &= C_0 \oplus D(C_1, K), \\P_2 &= C_1 \oplus D(C_2, K), \dots\end{aligned}$$

## public-key cryptography

- two keys, one to encrypt, another to decrypt
  - Alice uses Bob's public key to encrypt
  - Only Bob's private key decrypts the message
- based on “trap door, one way function”
  - “One way” means easy to compute in one direction, but hard to compute in other direction
  - Example: Given  $p$  and  $q$ , product  $N = pq$  easy to compute, but hard to find  $p$  and  $q$  from  $N$
  - “Trap door” is used when creating key pairs
- encryption
  - Suppose we encrypt  $M$  with Bob's public key
  - Bob's private key can decrypt  $C$  to recover  $M$
- digital signature



# public-key cryptography

- each party has a pair of keys:  $K_1$  is the public key and  $K_2$  is the secret key, such that  $D_{K_2}(E_{K_1}(M))=M$
- knowing the public-key and the cipher, it is computationally infeasible to compute the private key
  - thereby **asymmetric** crypto system
- the public-key  $K_1$  may be made publicly available
  - many can encrypt, only one can decrypt
- two parties who do not share any private information through communications arrive at some secret not known to any eavesdroppers
  - use it to share a secret key

## RSA (Rivest, Shamir and Adleman 1978)

- based on difficulty of determining prime factors of large numbers
- approach
  - select secret primes  $p, q$  ( $>100$  decimal digits)
  - communicate  $N=pq$ , the modulus
  - choose  $e$  relatively prime to  $(p-1)(q-1)$
  - find  $d$  such that  $ed = 1 \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$
  - public key is  $(N, e)$
  - private key is  $d$
- encryption and decryption
  - Encryption:  $c = m^e \bmod N$
  - Decryption:  $m = c^d \bmod N$

## a simple RSA example

- generate RSA key pair
  - select “large” primes  $p = 11$ ,  $q = 3$
  - then  $N = pq = 33$  and  $(p - 1)(q - 1) = 20$
  - choose  $e = 3$  (relatively prime to 20)
  - Find  $d$  such that  $ed = 1 \bmod 20$ . we find that  $d = 7$  works
  - Public key:  $(N, e) = (33, 3)$ , Private key:  $d = 7$
- suppose the message to encrypt is  $M = 8$
- ciphertext  $C$  is computed as
$$C = M^e \bmod N = 8^3 = 512 = 17 \bmod 33$$
- decrypt  $C$  to recover the message  $M$  by
$$M = C^d \bmod N = 17^7 = 410,338,673 = 12,434,50 \cdot 33 + 8 = 8 \bmod 33$$

# RSA cube root attack (1)

## ■ efficient RSA cryptosystems

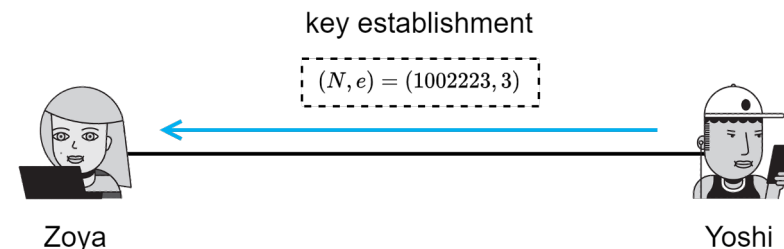
- encryption exponent  $e = 3$
- fast encryption with just 2 multiplications
- condition for the cube root attack:  $M < N^{1/3}$

## ■ public and private keys

- $(N, e) = (1002223, 3)$
- $d = 661467$

## ■ checking if the keys are valid

- $N = pq$ ,  $p = 101$ ,  $q = 9923$ ,  $p$  and  $q$  are primes  $\Rightarrow N$  is a valid modulus
- $(p - 1)(q - 1) = 992200$  and  $e = 3$  are coprimes  $\Rightarrow e$  is a valid encryption exponent
- $ed \bmod (p - 1)(q - 1) = 1 \Rightarrow d$  is a valid decryption exponent



## RSA cube root attack (2)

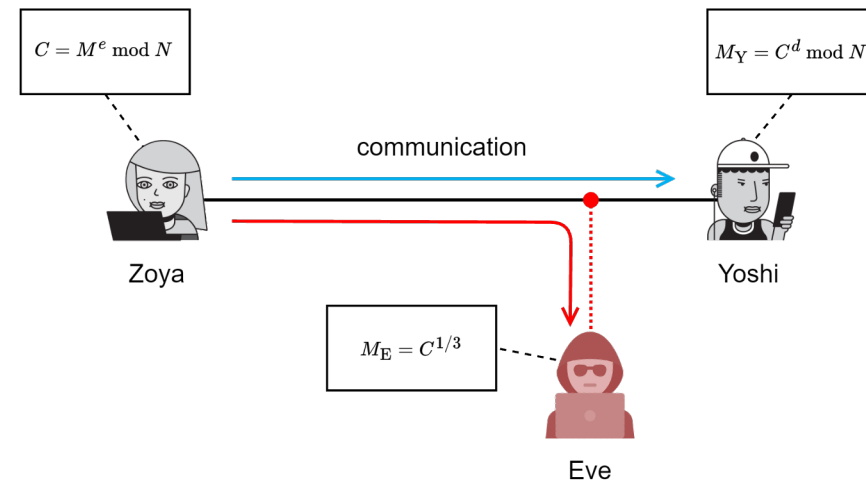
- transmitting ASCII characters

- $A \equiv 01000001_2 \equiv 65_{10}$
- $U \equiv 01010101_2 \equiv 85_{10}$

- Zoya transmits 3 messages: A, A, U

- Eve can obtain the messages without the decryption exponent

- $M < N^{1/3}$ , that is  $85 < 1002223^{1/3} \approx 100$



| Character | Bits     | Plaintext ( $M$ ) | Cipher ( $C$ ) | Yoshi ( $M_Y$ ) | Eve ( $M_E$ ) |
|-----------|----------|-------------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| A         | 01000001 | 65                | 274625         | 65              | 65            |
| A         | 01000001 | 65                | 274625         | 65              | 65            |
| U         | 01010101 | 85                | 614125         | 85              | 85            |

# RSA cube root attack (3)

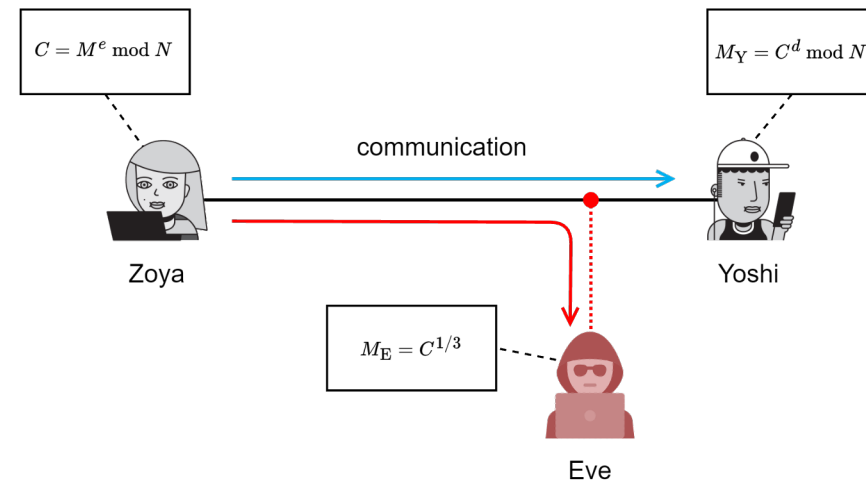
## padding

- adding extra bits to the message
- beginning, middle, or end of the message
- padding bits are discarded by the receiver

## Zoya adds a bit 0 at the end of each message

## Eve cannot obtain the messages without the decryption exponent

- $M > N^{1/3}$ , that is  $130 > 1002223^{1/3} \approx 100$



| Character | Bits      | Plaintext ( $M$ ) | Cipher ( $C$ ) | Yoshi ( $M_Y$ ) | Eve ( $M_E$ ) |
|-----------|-----------|-------------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| A         | 010000010 | 130               | 192554         | 130             | 57.74         |
| A         | 010000010 | 130               | 192554         | 130             | 57.74         |
| U         | 010101010 | 170               | 904108         | 170             | 96.69         |

# RSA cube root attack (4)

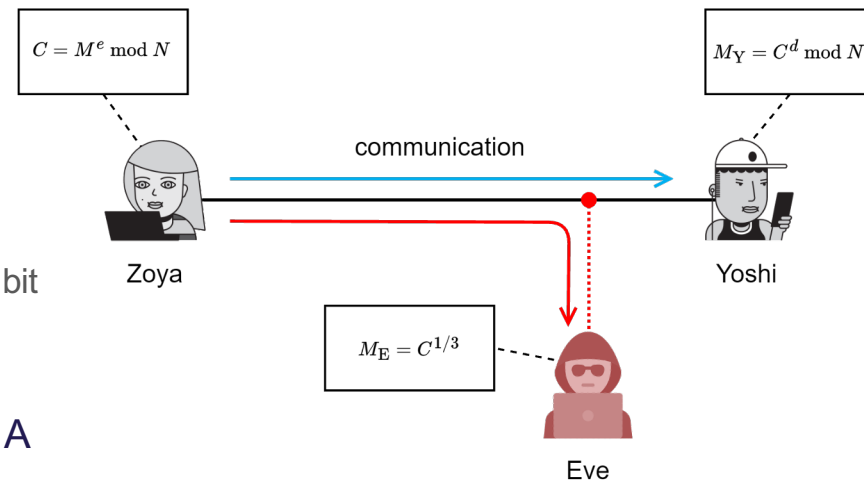
## ■ obfuscation

- the last bit is always discarded by Yoshi
- so Zoya can randomize the value of the padding bit

## ■ Zoya adds a bit 0 at the end of the first A

## ■ then Zoya adds a bit 1 at the end of the second A

## ■ the padding bit changed the cipher, so Eve cannot detect a message repetition



| Character | Bits      | Plaintext ( $M$ ) | Cipher ( $C$ ) | Yoshi ( $M_Y$ ) | Eve ( $M_E$ ) |
|-----------|-----------|-------------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| A         | 010000010 | 130               | 192554         | 130             | 57.74         |
| A         | 010000011 | 131               | 243645         | 131             | 62.45         |
| U         | 010101010 | 170               | 904108         | 170             | 96.69         |

## public key infrastructure (1)

- digital certificate contains name of user and user's public key (possibly other info too)
- signed by the issuer, a Certificate Authority (CA), such as VeriSign
  - $M = (\text{Alice}, \text{Alice's public key}), S = [M]_{CA}$
  - Alice's Certificate = (M, S)
- signature on certificate is verified using CA's public key
  - must verify that  $M = \{S\}_{CA}$
- certificate authority (CA) is a trusted 3rd party (TTP):
  - creates and signs certificates



## public key infrastructure (2)

- the collection of elements needed to securely use public key crypto
  - Key generation and management
  - Certificate authority (CA) or authorities
  - certificate revocation lists (CRLs), etc.
- no general standard for PKI, but three generic trust models
  - monopoly model: universally trusted CA
  - oligarchy of multiple trusted CAs, used in browsers
  - anarchy model: everyone is a CA, users decide whom to trust

# integrity protection

- **integrity:** detect unauthorized writing (i.e., detect unauthorized mod of data)
  - example: Inter-bank fund transfers
- Message Authentication Code (MAC)
  - used for data integrity. not the same as confidentiality!
- MAC can be computed as CBC (Cipher Block Chaining) residue
  - $C_0 = E(IV \oplus P_0, K)$ ,
  - $C_1 = E(C_0 \oplus P_1, K)$ ,
  - $C_2 = E(C_1 \oplus P_2, K), \dots$
  - $C_{N-1} = E(C_{N-2} \oplus P_{N-1}, K) = \text{MAC}$
  - send IV,  $P_0$ ,  $P_1$ , ...,  $P_{N-1}$  and MAC
  - both sender and receiver need to know K (symmetric key!)

# integrity protection with hash functions

- Cryptographic Hash Functions, „*Fingerprint*“:  $h=H(m)$ 
  - For given  $m$ ,  $h=H(m)$  efficiently computable
  - $M=H^{-1}(h)$  not efficiently computable
  - For given  $m$  and  $h=H(m)$ : difficult to find  $m_2$  with  $H(m_2)=h=H(m)$
- a hash uniquely represents a given text  
and it is difficult to produce another text that hashes to the same value
- any change to the message after the digest has been perform is detectable
- examples: Message Digest 5 (MD5), Secure Hash Function (SHA)
- ideal hash function: random oracle
  - gives a fully random answer to every query
  - provides the same answer for the same query
  - useful in analyzing hash functions

# cryptographic hash function: properties

- it is deterministic so the same message always results in the same hash
- it is quick to compute the hash value for any given message
- it is infeasible to generate a message from its hash value except by trying all possible messages
- a small change to a message should change the hash value so extensively that the new hash value appears uncorrelated with the old hash value
- it is infeasible to find two different messages with the same hash value

# authentication

- symmetric authentication
- based on shared secret: key  $K$
- problem: Key  $K$  must not be transmitted over channel in the authentication protocol
- Solution: Challenge-response methods
  - Scenario: B authenticates at A
    - A picks random number ,rand' (the challenge) and sends to B
    - B computes cryptographic one-way function  $y=f(\text{rand},K)$  and sends  $y$  to A, e.g. exponentiation  $y = \text{rand}^K \bmod n$
    - A verifies whether the received  $y$  equals  $f(\text{rand},K)$
- Asymmetric Authentication
  - Based on pairs of private and public key
  - Public Key Infrastructures (PKI), certificates

# replay attacks

- where a valid signed message is copied and later resent
- countermeasures include
  - use of sequence numbers (generally impractical)
  - timestamps (needs synchronized clocks)
  - challenge/response (using unique **nonce**)
- some questions
  - assume that two parties know each other's public keys
  - how to prevent a replay attack?
  - how to ensure that the messages are not delayed?

# questions on replay attacks

- assume that two parties know each other's public keys
  - If one message is sent from A to B, what can be verified?
  - if two messages are exchanged, what can be verified?
- how to prevent a replay attack?
- how to ensure that the messages are not delayed?

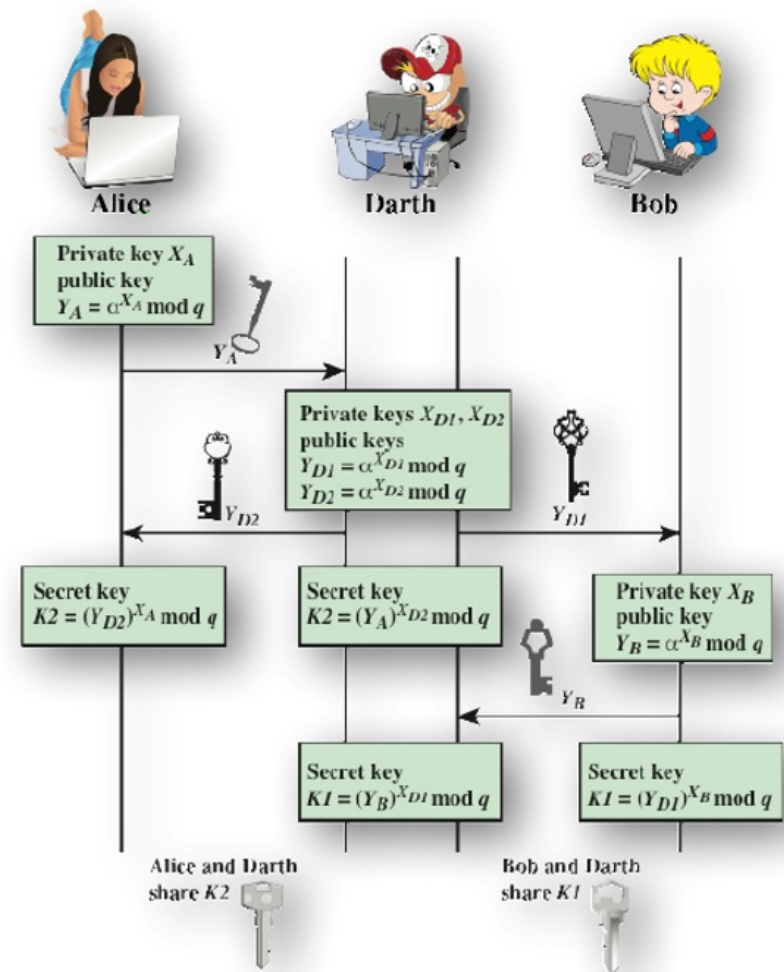
# cryptographic protocols



# cryptographic protocols: key agreement

- Task: Agreement on joint, secret session key  $k$
- Diffie-Hellman key exchange
  - invented by Williamson (GCHQ) and, independently, by D and H (Stanford)
  - a “key exchange” algorithm, used to establish a shared symmetric key
  - based on discrete log problem
    - **given:**  $g$ ,  $p$ , and  $g^k \bmod p$ , **find:** exponent  $k$
    - this problem is hard
  - Steps
    1. A and B agree on prime number  $p$  and integer  $g$  (can be publicly known)
    2. A selects secret  $a$ , B selects secret  $b$
    3. A computes  $\alpha = g^a \bmod p$  and sends  $\alpha$  to B, B computes  $\beta = g^b \bmod p$  and sends  $\beta$  to A
    4. A computes  $k = \beta^a \bmod p$ , B computes  $k = \alpha^b \bmod p$
    5. A and B can communicate with secret session key  $k$

## D-H: man-in-the middle attack



# no-key protocol: Shamir's three-pass protocol

- confidential message transmission without shared or public/private keys
- principle: A wants to send  $m$  to B
  1. A encrypts  $m$  with its ,local key'  $c_A = E_A(m, k_A)$
  2. A transmits  $c_A$  to B
  3. B encrypts received message with its own ,local key':  $c_{AB} = E_B(c_A, k_B)$
  4. B sends  $c_{AB}$  to A
  5. A decrypts the message with its key and sends result back to B
  6. B decrypts received value with its own key
- B has obtained the message  $m$  when the encryption operations commute  
i.e.,  $E_B(E_A(m, k_A), k_B) = E_A(E_B(m, k_B), k_A)$  for all  $m$
- Example: exponentiation in finite fields

# conclusions and outlook

- we have defined the context for security/attacks in digital systems
  - only a sample considered, vast area
- basic cryptographic models
  - symmetric/secret key
  - asymmetric/public key
- elements of cryptographic protocols

# BACKUP

# examples of security threats

- eavesdropping messages
- modifying messages on their path from sender to receiver
- using somebody else's identity
- manipulate charging
  - use services without payment or with payment from third person's account
  - 'overcharge' third persons account (without use of services)
- block certain functionality (Denial of Service Attacks)
  
- possible origin/point of attack
  - via external Interfaces: e.g., connection to Internet
  - while passing through un-trusted intermediate networks (e.g. backbone connecting site networks)
  - air interface/wireless links
  - malicious processes/users within the distributed system
    - viruses, worms, etc.
  - distributed attacks, e.g. via botnets
  - network management/administration