# Chapter 8: Network Security

## Chapter goals:

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

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# 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

- o sender encrypts message
- o receiver decrypts message

Authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

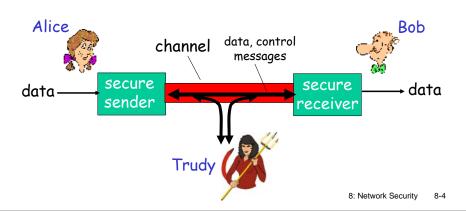
Message Integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection

Access and Availability: services must be accessible and available to users

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## Friends and enemies: Alice, Bob, Trudy □ well-known in network security world Bob, Alice (lovers!) want to communicate "securely"

- Trudy (intruder) may intercept, delete, add messages



# Who might Bob, Alice be?

- ... well, real-life Bobs and Alices!
- □ Web browser/server for electronic transactions (e.g., on-line purchases)
- on-line banking client/server
- DNS servers
- routers exchanging routing table updates
- □ other examples?

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## There are bad guys (and girls) out there!

Q: What can a "bad guy" do?

A: a lot!

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

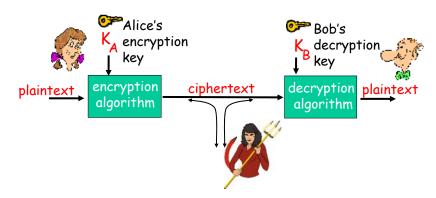
more on this later .....

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## The language of cryptography



symmetric key crypto: sender, receiver keys identical public-key crypto: encryption key *public*, decryption key secret (private)

## Symmetric key cryptography

substitution cipher: substituting one thing for another

o monoalphabetic cipher: substitute one letter for another

plaintext: abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

mnbvcxzasdfghjklpoiuytrewq ciphertext:

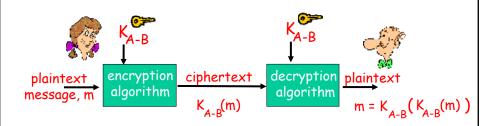
E.g.: Plaintext: bob. i love you. alice ciphertext: nkn. s gktc wky. mgsbc

Q: How hard to break this simple cipher?:

- □ brute force (how hard?)
- other?

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## Symmetric key cryptography



symmetric key crypto: Bob and Alice share know same (symmetric) key: K

- □ e.g., key is knowing substitution pattern in mono alphabetic substitution cipher
- □ Q: how do Bob and Alice agree on key value?

## Symmetric key crypto: DES

### DES: Data Encryption Standard

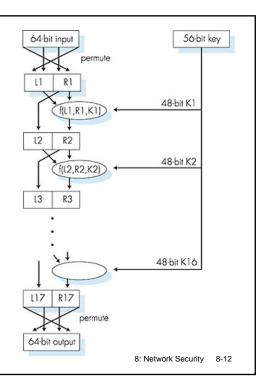
- □ US encryption standard [NIST 1993]
- □ 56-bit symmetric key, 64-bit plaintext input
- ☐ How secure is DES?
  - DES Challenge: 56-bit-key-encrypted phrase ("Strong cryptography makes the world a safer place") decrypted (brute force) in 4 months
  - o no known "backdoor" decryption approach
- making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

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# <u>Symmetric key</u> <u>crypto: DES</u>

#### -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

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## Public Key Cryptography

#### symmetric key crypto

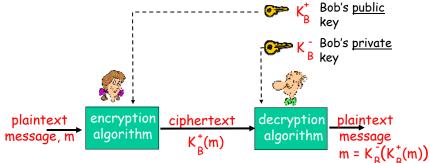
- requires sender, receiver know shared secret key
- Q: how to agree on key in first place (particularly if never "met")?

#### public key cryptography

- radically different approach [Diffie-Hellman76, RSA78]
- □ sender, receiver do *not* share secret key
- public encryption key known to a//
- private decryption key known only to receiver







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# Public key encryption algorithms

## Requirements:

- 1) need  $K_B^+(\cdot)$  and  $K_B^-(\cdot)$  such that  $K_B(K_B^+(m)) = m$
- given public key  $K_B^+$ , it should be impossible to compute private key K<sub>R</sub>

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 *e<n*) 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).  $K_B^+$

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# RSA: Encryption, decryption

- 0. Given (n,e) and (n,d) as computed above
- 1. To encrypt bit pattern, m, compute  $c = m^e \mod n \text{ (i.e., remainder when } m^e \text{ is divided by } n)$
- 2. To decrypt received bit pattern, c, compute  $m = c^d \mod n$  (i.e., remainder when  $c^d$  is divided by n)

Magic happens! 
$$m = (m^e \mod n)^d \mod n$$

## RSA example:

```
Bob chooses p=5, q=7. Then n=35, z=24.

e=5 (so e, z relatively prime).

d=29 (so ed-1 exactly divisible by z.
```

encrypt: 
$$\frac{\text{letter}}{\text{I}} \quad \frac{\text{m}}{12} \quad \frac{\text{m}^e}{1524832} \quad \frac{\text{c} = \text{m}^e \text{mod n}}{17}$$

decrypt: 
$$\frac{c}{17}$$
  $\frac{c^d}{481968572106750915091411825223071697}$   $\frac{m = c^d \mod n}{12}$  letter

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

$$(m^e \mod n)^d \mod n = m^{ed} \mod n$$

$$= m^{ed} \mod (p-1)(q-1) \mod n$$
(using number theory result above)

$$= m^1 \mod n$$
(since we chose ed to be divisible by  $(p-1)(q-1)$  with remainder 1)

$$= m$$
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## RSA: another important property

The following property will be very useful later:

$$K_{B}(K_{B}^{+}(m)) = m = K_{B}^{+}(K_{B}(m))$$

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

Result is the same!

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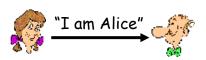
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# **Authentication**

<u>Goal:</u> Bob wants Alice to "prove" her identity to him

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



Failure scenario??



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# **Authentication**

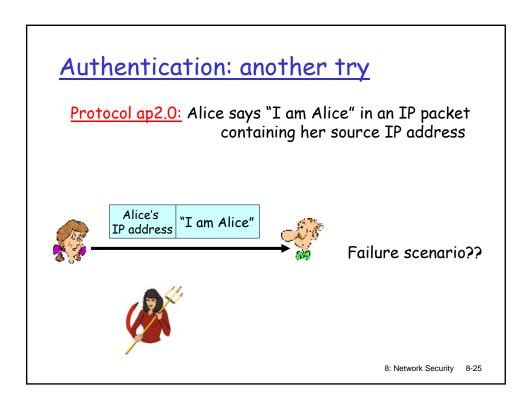
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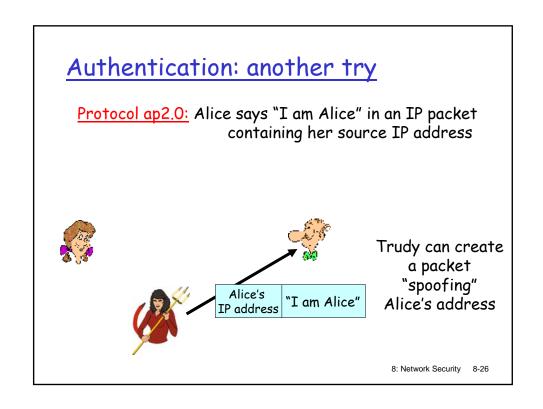
Protocol ap1.0: Alice says "I am Alice"

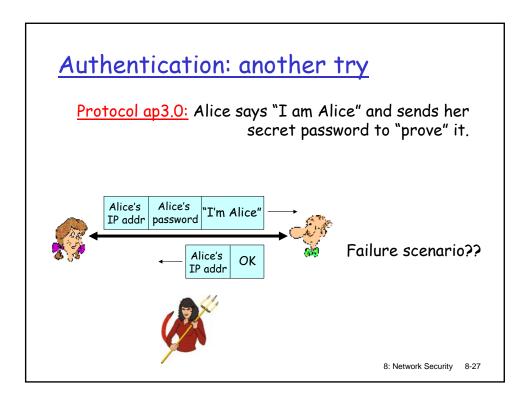


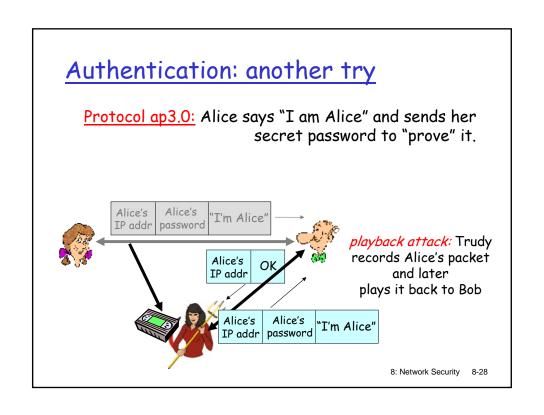


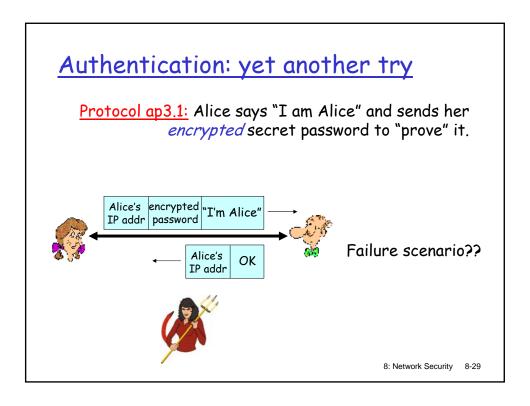
in a network,
Bob can not "see"
Alice, so Trudy simply
declares
herself to be Alice

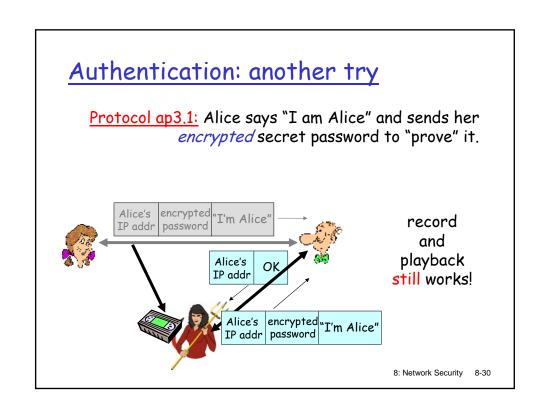










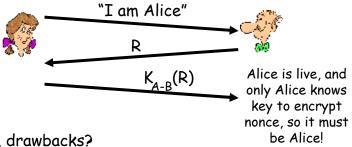


## Authentication: yet another try

**Goal:** avoid playback attack

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

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



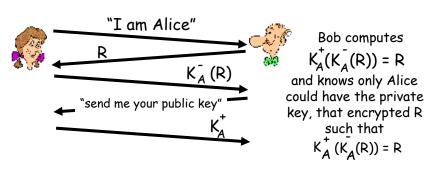
Failures, drawbacks?

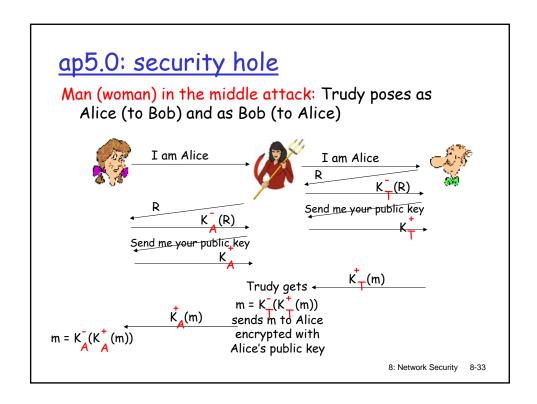
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## Authentication: ap5.0

ap4.0 requires shared symmetric key

□ can we authenticate using public key techniques? ap5.0: use nonce, public key cryptography





## 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!

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## <u>Digital Signatures</u>

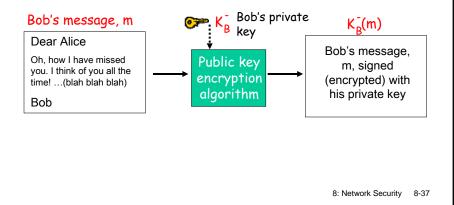
Cryptographic technique analogous to handwritten signatures.

- □ 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

## <u>Digital Signatures</u>

## Simple digital signature for message m:

■ Bob signs m by encrypting with his private key  $K_B^-$ , creating "signed" message,  $K_B^-$ (m)



## Digital Signatures (more)

- $\Box$  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.
- $\checkmark$  Bob signed m and not m'.

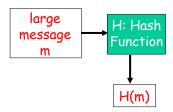
#### Non-repudiation:

✓ Alice can take m, and signature  $K_B(m)$  to court and prove that Bob signed m.

## Message Digests

Computationally expensive to public-key-encrypt long messages

- Goal: fixed-length, easyto-compute digital "fingerprint"
- apply hash function H to m, get fixed size message digest, H(m).



#### Hash function properties:

- many-to-1
- produces fixed-size msq digest (fingerprint)
- given message digest x, computationally infeasible to find m such that x = H(m)

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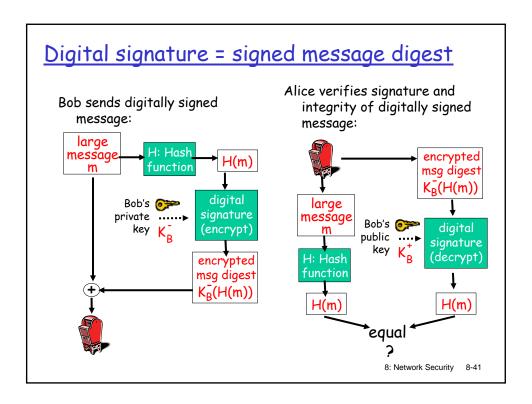
## Internet checksum: poor crypto hash function

Internet checksum has some properties of hash function:

- ✓ produces fixed length digest (16-bit sum) of message
- √ is many-to-one

But given message with given hash value, it is easy to find another message with same hash value:

message	<b>ASCII</b> format	message	ASCII format
IOU1	49 4F 55 31	ІО U <u>9</u>	49 4F 55 <u>39</u>
00.9	30 30 2E 39	0 0 . <u>1</u>	30 30 2E <u>31</u>
9 B O B	39 42 D2 42	9 B O B	39 42 D2 42
		<ul> <li>different messages —</li> <li>but identical checksums!</li> </ul>	B2 C1 D2 AC
	,		8: Network Security 8-40



## 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.
  - OUS standard [NIST, FIPS PUB 180-1]
  - 160-bit message digest

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# 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:

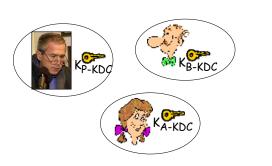
■ When Alice obtains Bob's public key (from web site, e-mail, diskette), how does she know it is Bob's public key, not Trudy's?

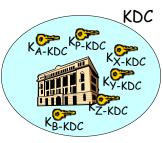
#### Solution:

trusted certification authority (CA)



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

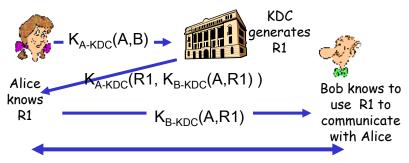




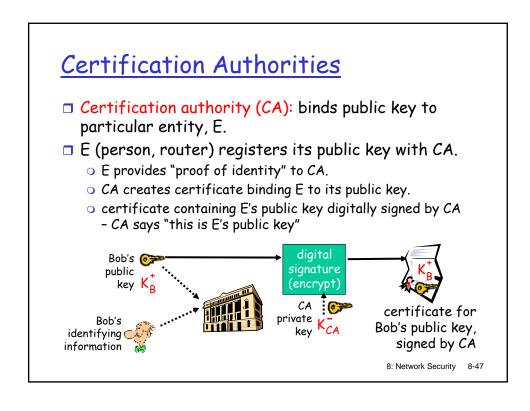
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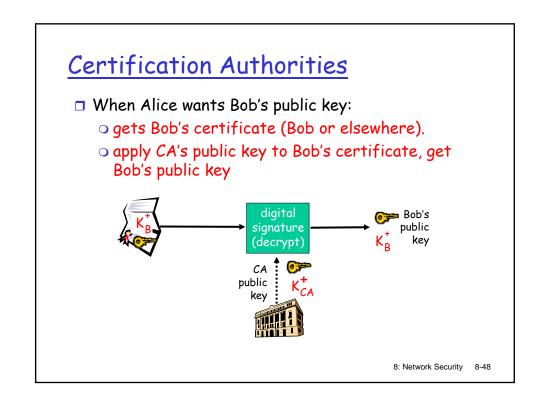
# Key Distribution Center (KDC)

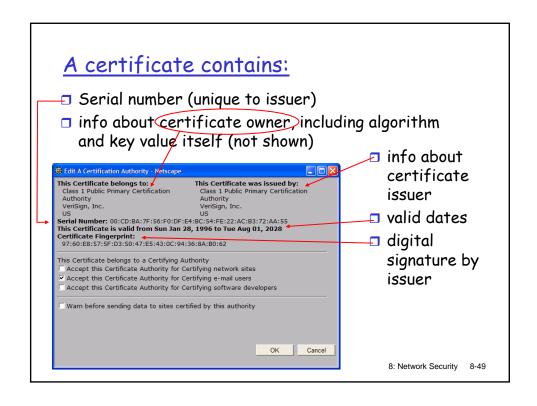
Q: How does KDC allow Bob, Alice to determine shared symmetric secret key to communicate with each other?



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







# 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

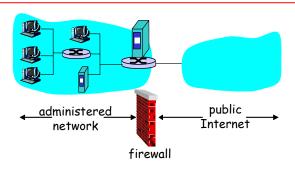
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8.8 Security in many layers

## Firewalls

#### -firewall

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



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## 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.

o e.g., attacker replaces CIA's homepage with something else

allow only authorized access to inside network (set of authenticated users/hosts)

#### two types of firewalls:

- application-level
- packet-filtering



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

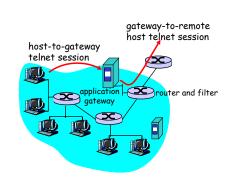
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## Packet Filtering

- 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.
- <u>Example:</u> 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.

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## Limitations of firewalls and gateways

- IP spoofing: router can't know if data "really" comes from claimed source
- if multiple app's. 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.

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## 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

## Mapping: countermeasures

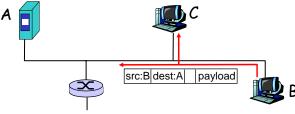
- o record traffic entering network
- look for suspicious activity (IP addresses, ports being scanned sequentially)

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## Internet security threats

## Packet sniffing:

- o broadcast media
- o promiscuous NIC reads all packets passing by
- o can read all unencrypted data (e.g. passwords)
- o e.g.: C sniffs B's packets

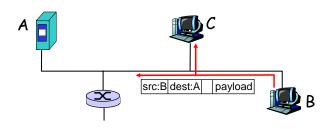


Countermeasures?

## <u>Internet security threats</u>

#### Packet sniffing: countermeasures

- o 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)

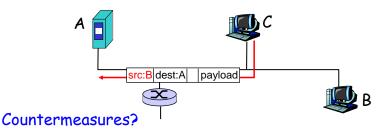


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## Internet security threats

## IP Spoofing:

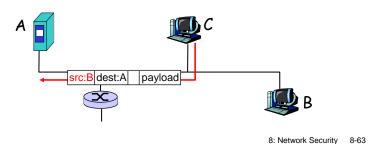
- o can generate "raw" IP packets directly from application, putting any value into IP source address field
- o receiver can't tell if source is spoofed
- o e.g.: C pretends to be B



## Internet security threats

## IP Spoofing: ingress filtering

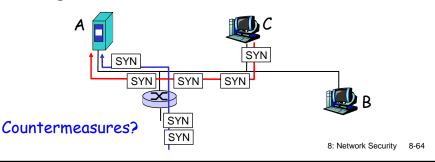
- routers should not forward outgoing packets with invalid source addresses (e.g., datagram source address not in router's network)
- great, but ingress filtering can not be mandated for all networks



## Internet security threats

## Denial of service (DOS):

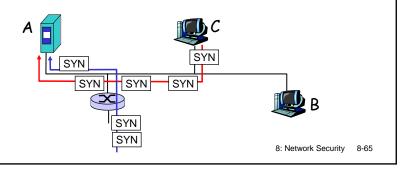
- flood of maliciously generated packets "swamp" receiver
- Distributed DOS (DDOS): multiple coordinated sources swamp receiver
- o e.g., C and remote host SYN-attack A



## 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)

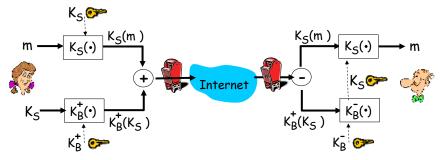


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  - 8.8.1. Secure email
  - 8.8.2. Secure sockets
  - 8.8.3. IPsec
  - 8.8.4. Security in 802.11

## Secure e-mail

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



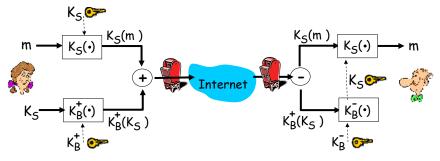
#### Alice:

- $lue{}$  generates random symmetric private key,  $K_s$ .
- $\square$  encrypts message with  $K_S$  (for efficiency)
- $\square$  also encrypts  $K_s$  with Bob's public key.
- $\square$  sends both  $K_s(m)$  and  $K_B(K_s)$  to Bob.

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## Secure e-mail

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

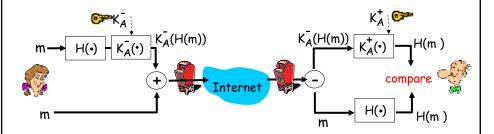


#### Bob:

- $lue{}$  uses his private key to decrypt and recover  $K_S$
- $\square$  uses  $K_S$  to decrypt  $K_S(m)$  to recover m

## Secure e-mail (continued)

 Alice wants to provide sender authentication message integrity.

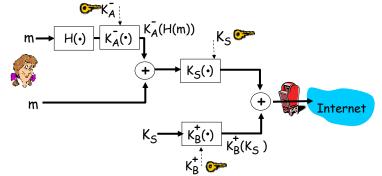


- · Alice digitally signs message.
- sends both message (in the clear) and digital signature.

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## Secure e-mail (continued)

• Alice wants to provide secrecy, sender authentication, message integrity.



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.
- uses symmetric key cryptography, public key cryptography, hash function, and digital signature as described.
- provides secrecy, sender authentication, integrity.
- inventor, Phil Zimmerman, was target of 3-year federal investigation.

#### A PGP signed message:

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

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

---BEGIN PGP SIGNATURE---

Version: PGP 5.0 Charset: noconv

yhHJRHhGJGhgg/12EpJ+lo8gE4vB3mqJ

hFEvZP9t6n7G6m5Gw2

---END PGP SIGNATURE---

8: Network Security 8-71

## Secure sockets layer (SSL)

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

#### 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.

## SSL (continued)

#### Encrypted SSL session:

- Browser generates symmetric session key, encrypts it with server's public key, sends encrypted key to server.
- Using private key, server decrypts session key.
- □ Browser, server know session key
  - All data sent into TCP socket (by client or server) encrypted with session key.

- □ SSL: basis of IETF Transport Layer Security (TLS).
- SSL can be used for non-Web applications, e.g., IMAP.
- Client authentication can be done with client certificates.

8: Network Security 8-73

## IPsec: Network Layer Security

- Network-layer secrecy:
  - o 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:
  - o authentication header (AH) protocol
  - encapsulation security payload (ESP) protocol

- For both AH and ESP, source, destination handshake:
  - create network-layer logical channel called a security association (SA)
- Each SA unidirectional.
- Uniquely determined by:
  - o security protocol (AH or
  - o source IP address
  - 32-bit connection ID

## 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

#### AH header includes:

- connection identifier
- authentication data: source- signed message digest calculated over original IP datagram.
- next header field: specifies type of data (e.g., TCP, UDP, ICMP)

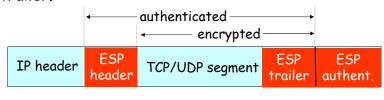
IP header AH header data (e.g., T

data (e.g., TCP, UDP segment)

8: Network Security 8-75

## ESP Protocol

- provides secrecy, host authentication, data integrity.
- data, ESP trailer encrypted.
- next header field is in ESP trailer.
- ESP authentication field is similar to AH authentication field.
- □ Protocol = 50.



## 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
  - o packet-sniffing and various attacks easy!
- □ Securing 802.11
  - o encryption, authentication
  - first attempt at 802.11 security: Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP): a failure
  - o current attempt: 802.11i

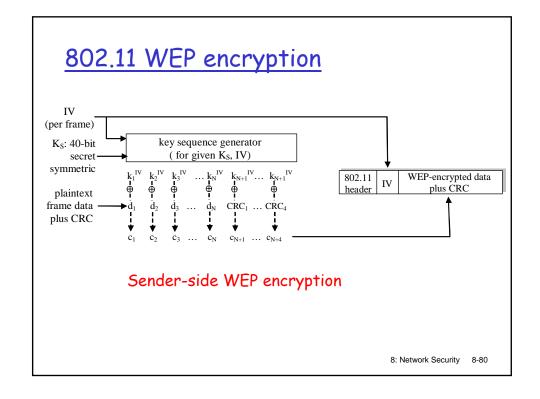
8: Network Security 8-77

## Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP):

- □ authentication as in protocol ap4.0
  - o host requests authentication from access point
  - o access point sends 128 bit nonce
  - host encrypts nonce using shared symmetric key
  - o 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 (semipermanent)
- Host appends 24-bit initialization vector (IV) to create 64-bit key
- □ 64 bit key used to generate stream of keys, k<sub>i</sub><sup>IV</sup>
- $c_i = d_i XOR k_i^{IV}$
- $\square$  IV and encrypted bytes,  $c_i$  sent in frame



## 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

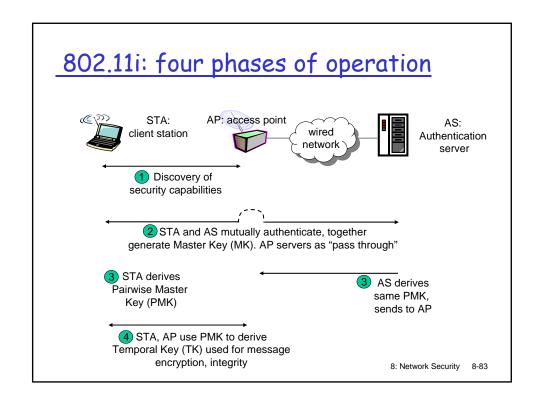
#### ☐ Attack:

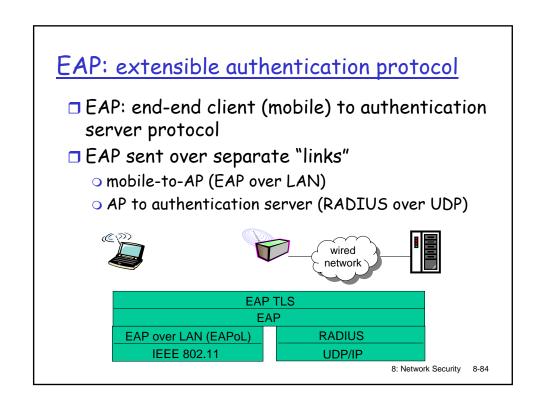
- $\circ$  Trudy causes Alice to encrypt known plaintext d<sub>1</sub> d<sub>2</sub> d<sub>3</sub> d<sub>4</sub> ...
- Trudy sees: c; = d; XOR k; IV
- Trudy knows c<sub>i</sub> d<sub>i</sub>, so can compute k<sub>i</sub><sup>IV</sup>
- $\circ$  Trudy knows encrypting key sequence  $k_1^{IV}$   $k_2^{IV}$   $k_3^{IV}$  ...
- Next time IV is used, Trudy can decrypt!

8: Network Security 8-81

# 802.11i: improved security

- numerous (stronger) forms of encryption possible
- provides key distribution
- □ uses authentication server separate from access point





# Network Security (summary)

## Basic techniques.....

- o cryptography (symmetric and public)
- authentication
- o message integrity
- o key distribution

## .... used in many different security scenarios

- secure email
- secure transport (SSL)
- o IP sec
- **o** 802.11