

Chapter 8 Network Security

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Chapter 8: Network Security

Chapter goals:

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



Chapter 8 Roadmap of Lecture 22

- 8.1 What is network security?
- 8.2 Principles of cryptography

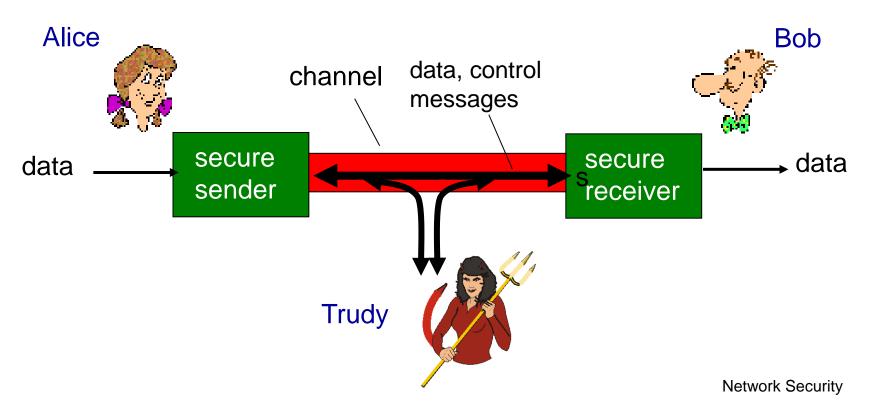


What is network security?

- 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

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?

There are bad guys (and girls) out there

Q: What can a "bad guy" do?

A: A lot! See section 1.6

- 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)

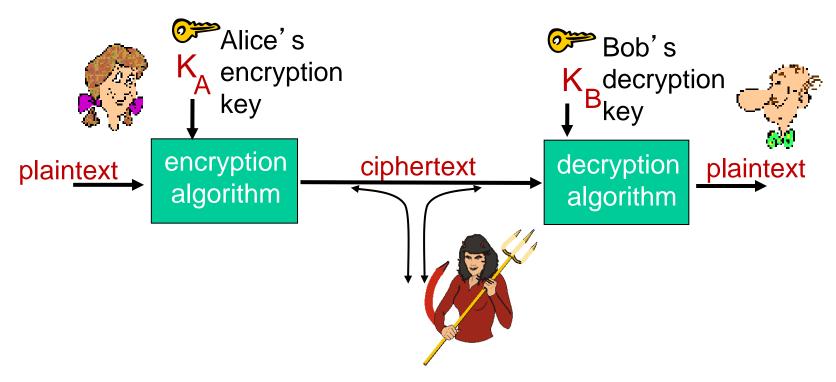


Chapter 8 roadmap

- 8.1 What is network security?
- 8.2 Principles of cryptography
- 8.3 Message integrity, authentication
- 8.4 Securing e-mail
- **8.5** Securing TCP connections: SSL
- 8.6 Network layer security: IPsec
- 8.7 Securing wireless LANs
- 8.8 Operational security: firewalls and IDS







m plaintext message $K_A(m)$ ciphertext, encrypted with key $K_A(m) = K_B(K_A(m))$



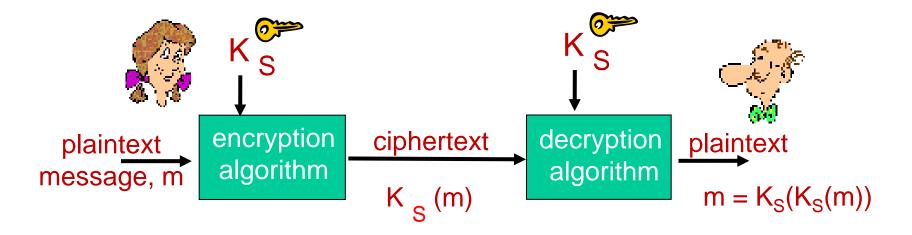
Breaking an encryption scheme

- cipher-text only attack:
 Trudy has ciphertext she
 can analyze
- two approaches:
 - brute force: search through all keys
 - statistical analysis

- known-plaintext attack:
 Trudy has plaintext
 corresponding to ciphertext
 - e.g., in monoalphabetic cipher, Trudy determines pairings for a,l,i,c,e,b,o,
- chosen-plaintext attack:
 Trudy can get ciphertext for chosen plaintext



Symmetric key cryptography



- symmetric key crypto: Bob and Alice share same (symmetric) key: K_S
- e.g., key is knowing substitution pattern in mono alphabetic substitution cipher
- Q: how do Bob and Alice agree on key value?



Simple encryption scheme

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

Encryption key: mapping from set of 26 letters to set of 26 letters

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A more sophisticated encryption approach

- \bullet n substitution ciphers, $M_1, M_2, ..., M_n$
- cycling pattern:
 - e.g., n=4: M_1, M_3, M_4, M_3, M_2 ; M_1, M_3, M_4, M_3, M_2 ; ...
- for each new plaintext symbol, use subsequent substitution pattern in cyclic pattern
 - dog: d from M₁, o from M₃, g from M₄



Encryption key: n substitution ciphers, and cyclic pattern

key need not be just n-bit pattern

Symmetric key crypto: DES



DES: Data Encryption Standard

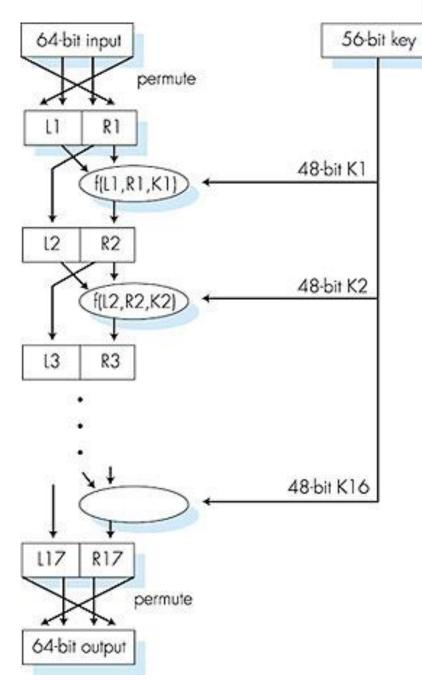
- US encryption standard [NIST 1993]
- 56-bit symmetric key, 64-bit plaintext input
- block cipher with cipher block chaining
- how secure is DES?
 - DES Challenge: 56-bit-key-encrypted phrase decrypted (brute force) in less than a day
 - no known good analytic attack
- making DES more secure:
 - 3DES: encrypt 3 times with 3 different keys

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

- symmetric-key NIST standard, replacied DES (Nov 2001)
- processes data in 128 bit blocks
- 128, 192, or 256 bit keys
- brute force decryption (try each key) taking I sec on DES, takes I49 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")?

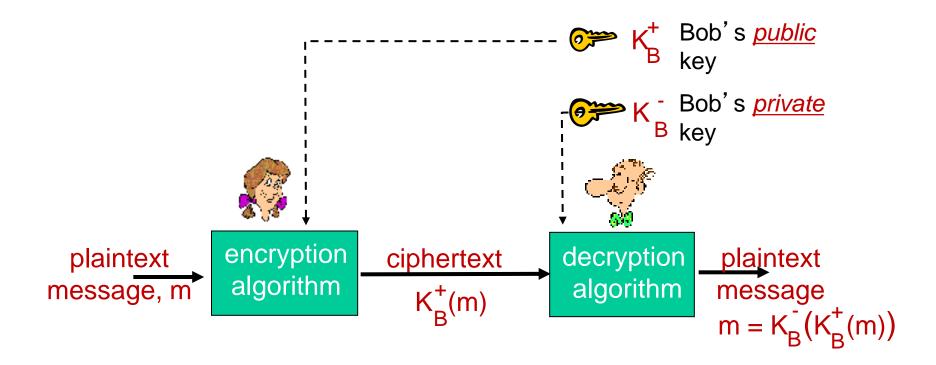
public key crypto

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





Public key cryptography





Public key encryption algorithms

requirements:

- need $K_B^+(\cdot)$ 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

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adelson algorithm



Prerequisite: modular arithmetic

- x mod n = remainder of x when divide by n
- facts:

```
[(a mod n) + (b mod n)] mod n = (a+b) mod n

[(a mod n) - (b mod n)] mod n = (a-b) mod n

[(a mod n) * (b mod n)] mod n = (a*b) mod n
```

- thus
 - $(a \mod n)^d \mod n = a^d \mod n$
- * example: x=14, n=10, d=2: $(x \mod n)^d \mod n = 4^2 \mod 10 = 6$ $x^d = 14^2 = 196 \quad x^d \mod 10 = 6$



RSA: getting ready

- message: just a bit pattern
- bit pattern can be uniquely represented by an integer number
- thus, encrypting a message is equivalent to encrypting a number.

example:

- m= 10010001. This message is uniquely represented by the decimal number 145.
- to encrypt m, we encrypt the corresponding number, which gives a new number (the ciphertext).



RSA: Creating public/private key pair

- I. 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).



RSA: encryption, decryption

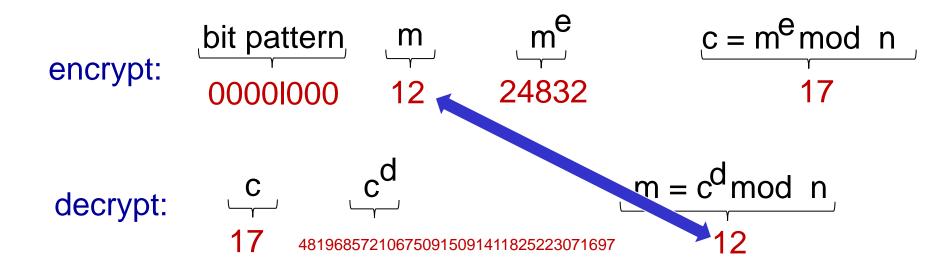
- 0. given (n,e) and (n,d) as computed above
 - I. to encrypt message m (<n), compute $c = m^e \mod n$
- 2. to decrypt received bit pattern, c, compute $m = c^d \mod n$

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

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).

encrypting 8-bit messages.





Why does RSA work?

- must show that c^d mod n = m where $c = m^e \mod n$
- fact: for any x and y: $x^y \mod n = x^{(y \mod z)} \mod n$
 - where n = pq and z = (p-1)(q-1)
- thus, $c^d \mod n = (m^e \mod n)^d \mod n$ = m^{ed} mod n $= m^{(ed \mod z)} \mod n$ $= m^{l} \mod n$ = m



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 first, followed by private key

use private key first, followed by public key

result is the same!



Why
$$K_{B}(K_{B}(m)) = m = K_{B}(K_{B}(m))$$
?

follows directly from modular arithmetic:

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



Why is RSA secure?

- suppose you know Bob's public key (n,e). How hard is it to determine d?
- essentially need to find factors of n without knowing the two factors p and q
 - fact: factoring a big number is hard



RSA in practice: session keys

- exponentiation in RSA is computationally intensive
- DES is at least 100 times faster than RSA
- use public key cryto to establish secure connection, then establish second key – symmetric session key – for encrypting data

session key, K_S

- ❖ Bob and Alice use RSA to exchange a symmetric key K_S
- once both have K_S, they use symmetric key cryptography