ECE 455: CYBERSECURITY

Lecture #6

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Announcement

- Read papers for quiz after midterm.
- Finish Lab 1 (parts 3 and 4)
- Start work on final project.
 - We'll have a check-in on 11/4.



Introduction

- Crypto transforms security problems into key management problems
 - Don't lose that key!
- To use encryption, digital signatures, or MACs, we have to hold the "right" cryptographic keys.
 - Public key algorithms need authentic public keys.
 - Symmetric key algorithms need shared secret keys.

Session Keys

- Public key algorithms are more expensive than symmetric key algorithms.
 - Cost factors: key length, computation time, bandwidth
- It is desirable to use long-term keys only sparingly to reduce the "attack surface".
 - Potential problem: attacks that collect a large amount of encrypted material.
 - Solution: long-term keys establish short term session keys.

Key Usage

- Good practice: restrict the use of keys to a specific purpose.
- In key management, we may use key encrypting keys and data encrypting keys.
- Examples for key usages:
 - Encryption or Decryption
 - Signature or Non-repudiation
 - Master key or Transaction key
- Don't use a single key pair for both encryption and signatures!

Key Establishment

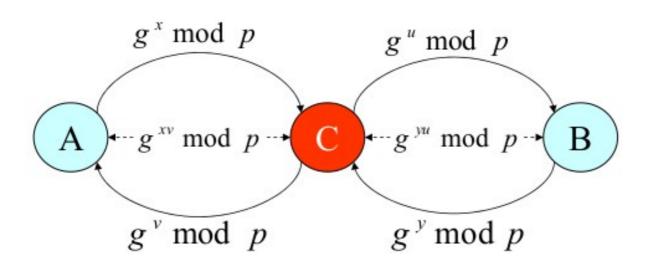
- Key establishment shares a secret between two or more parties, for later cryptographic use.
- Key transport: One party creates the secret value and securely transfers it to the other(s).
- Key agreement: Both parties contribute to the generation of the secret value much that no party can predict the outcome.

Key Authentication

- Key authentication: assurance that no one except a specific second party may access a particular secret key
- Key confirmation: assurance that another party has possession of a particular secret key
- Explicit key authentication: both key authentication and key confirmation

Man-in-the-Middle Attacks

- Diffie-Hellman doesn't provide authentication: parties do not know whom they are establishing a key with.
- An attacker C sitting between A and B can mount a man-in-the-middle attack



Unauthenticated Diffie-Hellman

- Unauthenticated Diffie-Hellman is susceptible to man-in-the-middle attacks.
- Does this imply that unauthenticated Diffie-Hellman should never be used?
- What are its advantages?

Known Key Attack

- Denning & Sacco found a problem when more than one protocol run is considered.
 - e.g. Alice and Bob send multiple messages over time.
- We have to consider:
 - Compromise of long-term secret keys.
 - Compromise of past session keys.
- Known key attack: use a compromised past session key to compromise a future session.

Perfect Forward Secrecy

- When a long-term key is compromised, we can no longer protect future sessions.
 - Design protocols where past sessions remain secure.
- Forward secrecy: secrecy of old keys is carried forward into the future.
- Perfect forward secrecy: compromise of longterm keys does not compromise past session keys.

Password-based Protocols

- Use password P to encrypt a randomly generated session key $K_{\rm s}$; use session key to encrypt further data.
 - A \rightarrow B: e(P, K_s)
 - B \rightarrow A: e(K_s, data)
- Vulnerable to off-line dictionary attack.
 - Guess password P, decrypt first message and get a candidate session key K'_s; decrypt the second message with K'_s

Encrypted Key Exchange (EKE)

- Encrypt data with the password as the key.
- Alice generates a random public key/private key pair $\mathbf{K_a}$, $\mathbf{K_{a-1}}$
 - Alice sends public key K_a to Bob, encrypted under the password P (symmetric encryption)
 - Bob randomly generates session key K_s
 - Bob sends K_s to Alice encrypted first under K_a (public-key encryption) and then under P (symmetric encryption):
- A \rightarrow B: e(P, K_a)
- B \rightarrow A: e(P, e(K_a, K_s))

Public Key Infrastructures

Certificates

Binding a name to a key

· X.509

Standard for public key certs

Electronic Signatures

 Security service for associating documents (or keys) with persons

Certificates

- How do we bind a name to a public key?
 - Original suggestion: public directory of names and keys
- Kohnfelder [1978]
 - digitally signed records containing a name and a public key
 - coined the term certificate for these records.
- Certificates originally had a single function: associate names and keys.
- Today: a certificate is a signed document binding a subject to other information; subjects can be people, keys, names

X.509

• X.509: The Directory: Authentication Framework

- Geared towards identity based access control
- Predates web-apps, e-commerce and many modern scenarios

Infrastructure Terms

- Certification authority (CA): an authority trusted by one or more users to create and assign certificates.
- User certificate (aka. public key certificate, certificate): public key of a user, rendered unforgeable and signed with the secret key of the certification authority
- Attribute certificate: a set of attributes of a user, digitally signed under the private key of the CA.

X.509v3 Certificate Format

version (v3) serial number signature algorithm id issuer name validity period subject name subject public key info issuer unique identifier subject unique identifier extensions

Extensions: added to increase flexibility

Critical extensions: if a critical extension cannot be processed, the certificate must be rejected

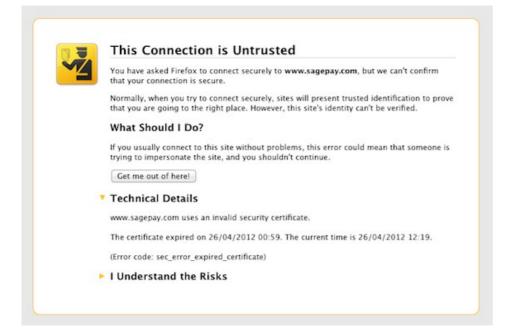
Critical extensions are also used to standardize policy

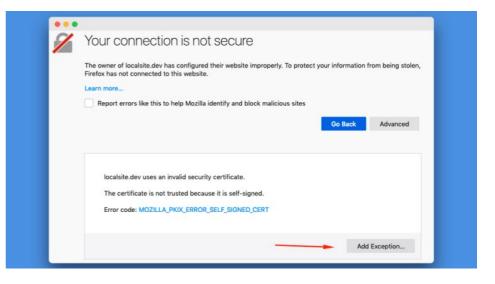
extensionID critical: YES/NO extensionValue

Validity

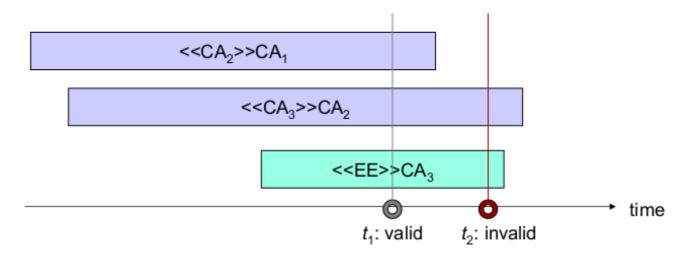
- Certificates have expiry dates, validity periods.
- Misconception: a certificate cannot be used after it has expired.
 - Dealing with expired certificates is a policy decision.
- How to evaluate a certificate chain?
 - Certificates may expire
 - Certificates may be revoked
- Shell model: all certificates have to be valid at the time of evaluation.
- Chain model: issuer's certificate has to be valid at the time the certificate was issued

Browser Cert Polices





Shell Model

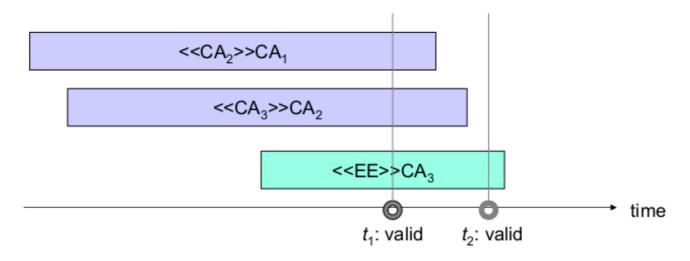


- Certificate <<EE>>CA₃ valid at time t₁ as all three certificates are valid.
- Certificate <<EE>>CA $_3$ invalid at time t_2 as certificate <<CA $_2>>$ CA $_1$ has expired.

Shell Model

- CAs should only issue certificates that expire before their own certificate.
- If a top level certificate expires or is revoked, all certificates signed by the corresponding private key have to be re-issued under a new key.
- Appropriate for certificates defining hierarchical address spaces.

Chain Model



- Certificate <<EE>>CA₃ is valid at times t₁ and t₂:
- <<CA₃>>CA₂ valid when <<EE>>CA₃ was issued
- <<CA₂>>CA₁ valid when <<CA₃>>CA₂ was issued

Chain Model

- Requires a time-stamping service
 - Reliably establishing when a certificate was issued
- If a top level certificate expires or is revoked, certificates signed by the corresponding private key remain valid.
- Problem: Business or CA shutdown, but certs remain valid!

Revocation

- Certificates may have to be revoked:
 - if a corresponding private key is compromised,
 - if a fact the certificate vouches for no longer is valid.
- Certificate Revocation Lists (CRLs):
 - original solution proposed in X.509
 - distributed in regular intervals or on demand,
 - Delta-CRL: record only the changes since last CRL.
- CRLs make sense if on-line checks are not possible or too expensive.

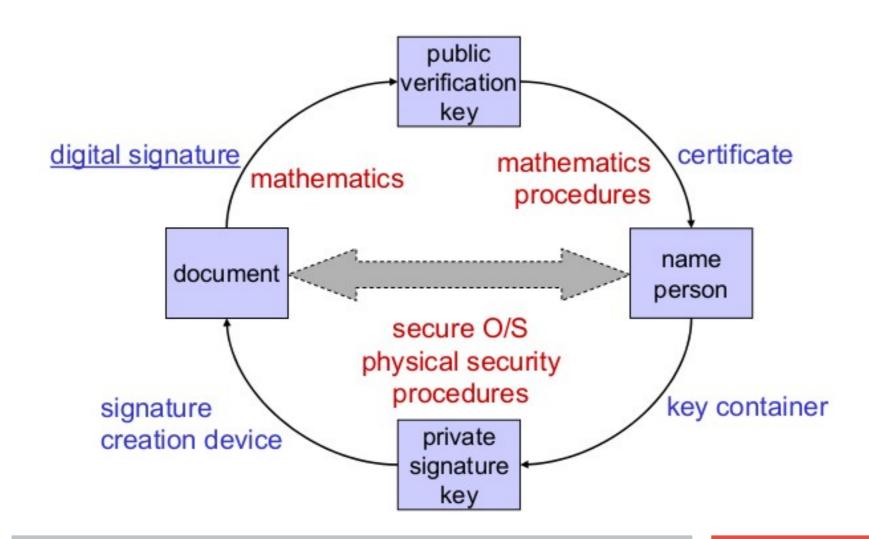
Revocation On-line

- CRLs can be queried on-line
 - Online Certificate Status Protocol OCSP [RFC 2560]
- A CA issuing certificates for its own use (e.g. for access control) requires only a local CRL.
- Alternative to revocation: short-lived certificates

Electronic Signatures

- Digital signature: associates documents with keys (cryptographic signing)
- Electronic signature: associates documents with persons
- Electronic signature services usually use digital signatures, but could be implemented without them
- Certificates can record the binding between the name of a person and a key.

Electronic Signatures



Certificates: Browser Example

- Browser compares domain name in cert w/ URL
- Browser accesses separate cert belonging to issuer
 - These are hardwired into the browser and trusted!
- Browser applies issuer's public key to verify signature S, obtaining hash of what issuer signed
- Compares with its own SHA-256 hash of Amazon's cert
 - Hashes match, now have high confidence it's indeed Amazon

Certificates: Browser Example, cont.

What if browser can't find a cert for the issuer?



Certificates: Browser Example, cont.

- If it can't find the cert, then warns the user that site has not been verified
 - Can still proceed, just without authentication
- Which end-to-end security properties do we lose if we incorrectly trust that site?
- All of them!
 - Goodbye confidentiality, integrity, and authentication
 - Man in the middle attacker can read everything, modify, impersonate

Attestation

- Access request arrives from a remote source.
- How can we "trust" claims about application making the request?
- A system has to be able to make statements about the software it is running.
 - Think about secure boot
- Other systems have to verify such statements.

Attestation

- Hardware = "root of trust".
- Trusted Platform Module (TPM)
 - hardware module that signs statements about the software it is running.
 - Signature (attestation) key installed by hardware manufacturer in TPM.
- TPM digitally signs the system configuration and the software that is running.

Unlinkable Attestation

- All attestations from a TPM are signed by the same key
- All transactions from a TPM could be linked
- Full anonymity is not desirable; we must be able to recognize attestations from TPMs known to be compromised.
- Need a from of "group privacy" anyone in group can sign, but don't know who exactly

Direct Anonymous Attestation

- Ernie Brickell, Liqun Chen, Jan Camenisch: Direct Anonymous Attestation, http://eprint.iacr.org/2004/205/
- Zero-knowledge proof can verify the credential without violating the platform's privacy.
- The protocol also supports a blacklisting to identify compromised TPMs

Group Signatures & Zero-knowledge

Based on group signatures:

- Only group members can generate valid signatures.
- Anyone can verify a signature, but not the individual signer.
- The 'group' is all valid TPMs.
- Zero-knowledge proofs
 - Prove knowledge of X without explicitly revealing X.
 - Prove knowledge of a discrete logarithm without revealing any information about its value



Introduction

- Net adversary
- TCP attacks
- DNS attacks
- Firewalls
- Intrusion detection
- Honeypots

Secure End-to-End Channels

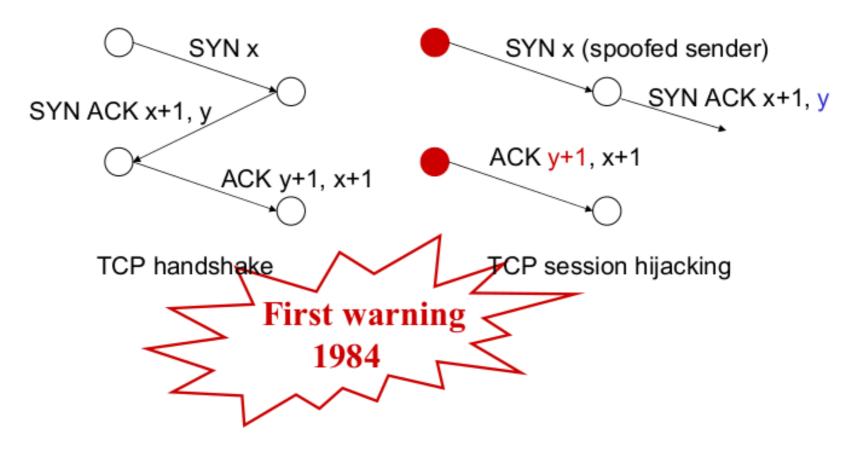
- End-to-end = protect channel from originating client to intended server, between endpoints
 - no need to trust intermediaries
- Dealing with threats:
 - Eavesdropping?
 - Encryption (including session keys)
 - Manipulation (injection, MITM)?
 - Integrity (use of a MAC); replay protection
 - Impersonation? (someone pretending as you)
 - Signatures
 - Availability?

Net Adversary

- A botnet consists of bots, programs running on the machines of unwitting Internet users and receiving commands from a bot controller.
- Net adversary threat model
- A malicious network node able to:
 - read messages directly addressed to it,
 - spoof arbitrary sender addresses,
 - try to guess fields sent in unseen messages.

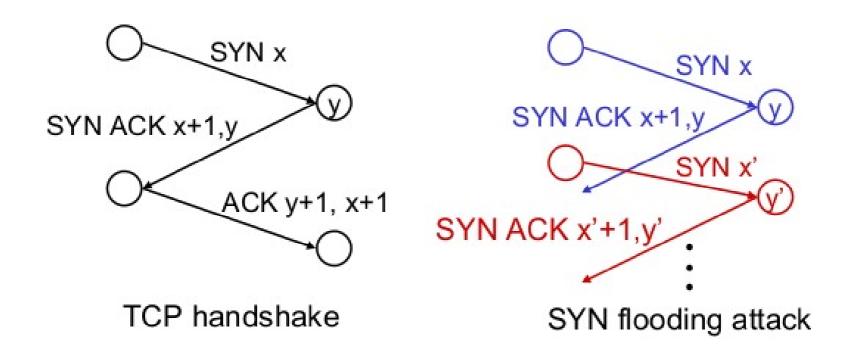
TCP Session Hijacking

 Predict challenge to send messages that appear to come from a trusted host.



TCP SYN Flooding Attacks

Exhaust responder's resources by creating half-open
TCP connection requests.





Domain Name System (DNS)

- Essential infrastructure for the Internet
 - critical-path for just about everything we do
 - Maps host names to IP addresses (and vice versa)
- Design only scales if we can minimize lookup traffic
 - Lots of caching!
 - Pre-fetching additional answers
- Originally designed for a friendly environment; only basic authentication mechanisms
- Directly interacting w/ DNS: dig program on Unix
 - Allows querying of DNS system
 - Dumps each field in DNS responses

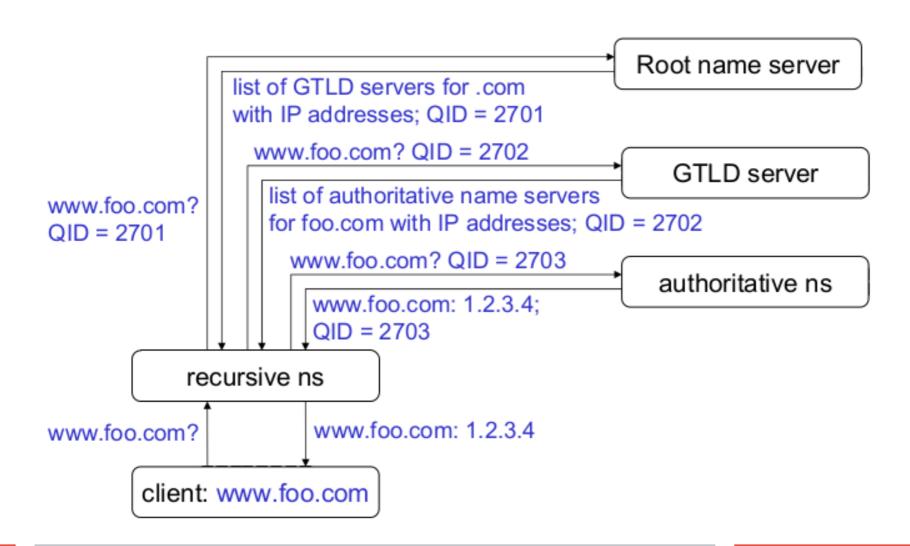
Domain Name System (DNS)

- Distributed directory service for domain names (host names) used for:
 - look up IP address for host name, host name for IP address.
 - anti-spam: Sender Policy Framework uses DNS records.
 - basis for same origin policies applied by web browsers.
- Various types of resource records.
- Host names and IP addresses collected in zones managed by authoritative name servers.

DNS Infrastructure

- 13 root servers; all name servers configured with the IP addresses of these root servers.
- Global Top Level Domain (GTLD) servers for top level domains: .com, .net, .org, etc.
 - There can be more than one GTLD server per TLD.
 - Root servers know about GTLD servers.
- Authoritative name servers provide mapping between host names and IP addresses for their zone.
- GTLD servers know authoritative servers in their TLD
- Recursive name servers pass client requests on to other name servers and cache answers received.

IP Address Lookup - Review



Cache & Time-to-live

- Performance optimization: stores map in cache
- Name server first checks its cache
- Answer remains in cache until it expires; timeto-live (TTL) of answer is set by sender.
- Design question: reasons for setting TTL by sender, reasons for setting TTL by receiver?
- Does Long TTL = high security, low TTL = low security?

Light-weight Authentication

Threat model:

- Attacker can only read messages forwarded to her
- Anybody can pretend to be an authoritative name server for any zone
- How does a recursive name server know that it has received a reply from an authoritative name server?
 - Recursive name server includes a 16-bit query ID (QID) in its requests.
 - Responding name server copies QID into reply
 - Recursive name server caches first answer for a given QID and host name; then discards this QID.
 - Drops answers that do not match an active QID.

Authentication - Security?

- Attack method: guess QID to subvert cache entries.
- If query is not passed by mistake to the attacker, her chance of generate faking a answer is 2^-16
- Security relies on correct routing from local name to authoritative name server.

DNS Cache Poisioning

- Ask recursive name server to resolve host name in attacker's domain.
- Request to attacker's name server contains current QID.
- Attackers asks recursive name server to resolve victim host name
- Attacker sends answer that includes next QID and maps victim host name to chosen IP address
- If attacker's answer arrives first; the correct answer is dropped and cache is poisoned

Predictable Challenges

- Do not use predictable challenges (e.g. QID)
- Attacker can improve chances:
 - Send answers with QIDs from a small window.
 - Slow down authoritative name server with a DoS attack.
 - Prevent that a new query from restoring the correct binding, set a long time to live.

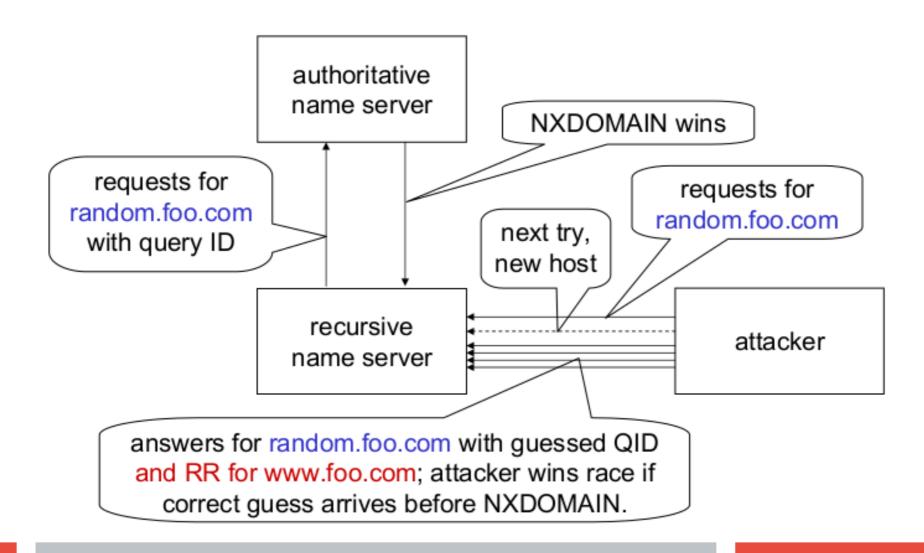
Bailiwick Checking

- Bailiwick: an area of jurisdiction
- Optimize perf:
 - Name servers send additional resource records
 - Might save round trips
 - Assumes benign servers
 - Malicious name server sends records for other domains
- Bailiwick checking rejects records outside of the queried domain (i.e. out of jurisdiction)

Dan Kaminsky's Attack (2008)

- Attacker requests random.foo.com from name server
- Recursive name server refers request to authoritative name server for foo.com
- Attacker sends answers for random.foo.com with guessed QIDs and additional resource record for www.foo.com (in bailiwick)
- If guessed QID is correct and attacker wins race with NXDOMAIN, poison entry is cached with a TTL set by attacker
- Recursive name server will now direct all queries for www.foo.com to attacker's IP address

Dan Kaminsky's Attack



Countermeasures

- Run queries on random ports
 - Attacker now must guess QID & port number
- Restrict access to local recursive name server: split name server
- Access control for records prevent unauthorized overwriting
- DNSSec: authentication using digital signatures
- Server does not reply to malformed queries??

Split-split Name Server

- Local users who want to connect to the outside world
- Remote users who want to connect to local hosts
- Recursive name server for internal queries to resolve (external) host names
- Non-recursive authoritative name server for zone to resolve external queries for host names in zone
- DNS server facing external users does not cache resource records so there is no cache to poison
- No defense against local attackers

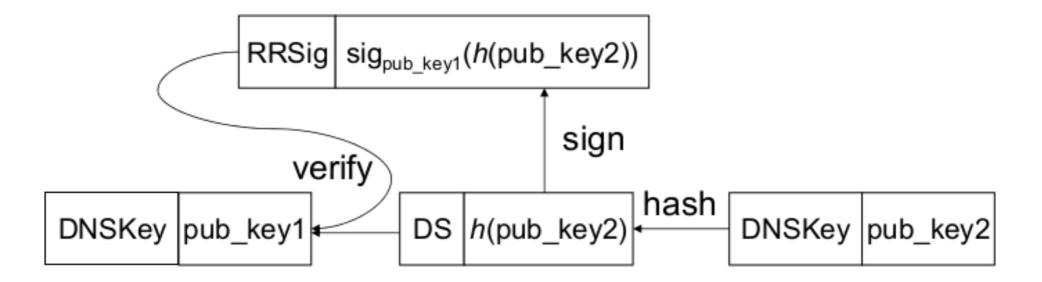
DNSSec

- DNS Security Extensions, protect resource records with digital signatures
- Several new resource record types introduced:
 - RRSIG resource records contain digital signatures of other resource records.
 - DNSKEY resource records contain the public keys of zones.
 - DS (Delegation Signer) resource records contain hashes of DNSKEY research records.

DNSSec

- Build chain by alternating DNSKEY and DS records.
- Key in DNSKEY record verifies the signature on the next DS record
- Hash in the DS record links to next DNSKEY record, and so on.
- Verification in the resolver has to find a trust anchor for the chain (root verification key).

DNSSec - Chain



DNS Rebinding

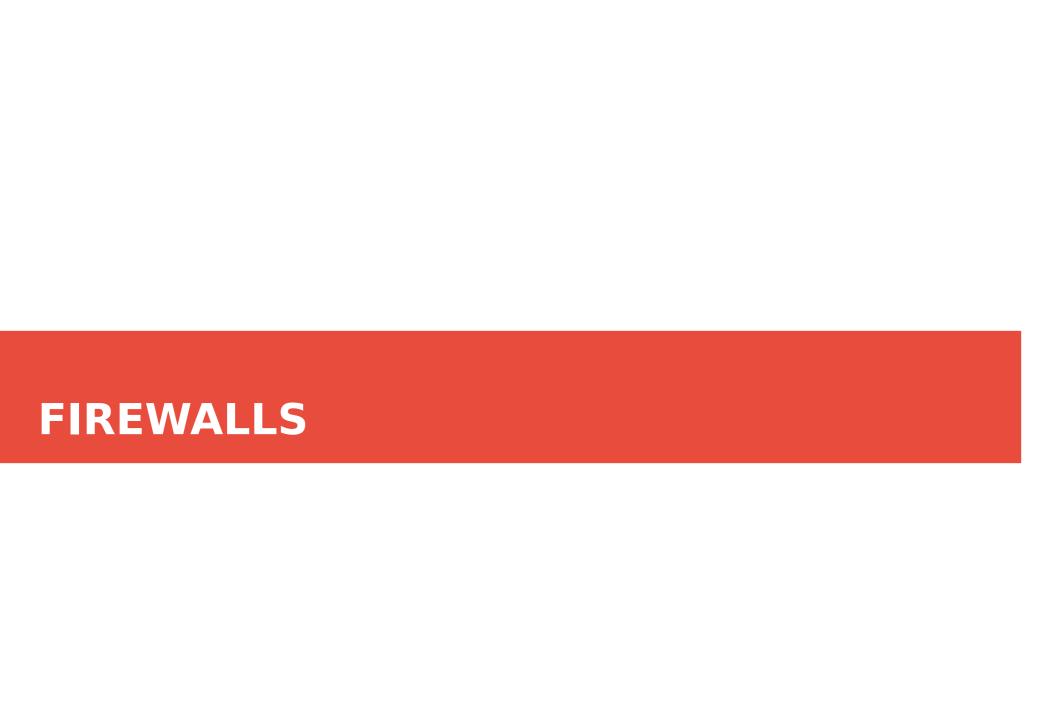
- Same origin policy: script in a web page can only connect back to the server it was downloaded from.
- To make a connection, the client's browser needs the IP address of the server.
- Authoritative DNS server resolves 'abstract' DNS names in its domain to 'concrete' IP addresses.
- The client's browser 'trusts' the DNS server when enforcing the same origin policy.
- Trust is Bad for Security!

- "Abuse trust": Attacker creates attacker.org domain and name server
- Evil names server binds attacker.org IP and then switches to victim IP address
- Client downloads applet from attacker.org; script connects to target; permitted by same origin policy.
- Defense: Same origin policy with IP address.
 - D. Dean, E.W. Felten, D.S. Wallach: Java security: from HotJava to Netscape and beyond, 1996 IEEE Symposium on Security & Privacy.

- Client visits attacker.org; attacker's DNS server resolves this name to attacker's IP address with short time-to-live.
- Attack script waits before connecting to attacker.org.
- Binding at browser has expired; new request for IP address of attacker.org, now bound to target address.
- Defense: Don't trust the DNS server on time-tolive; pin host name to original IP address

- Attacker shuts down its web server after the page has been loaded.
- Malicious script sends delayed request to attacker.org.
- Browser's connection attempt fails and pin is dropped.
- Browser performs a new DNS lookup and is now given the target's IP address.
- Error handling procedures has security implications!

- Next round browser plug-ins, e.g. Flash.
- Plug-ins may do their own pinning.
- Dangerous combinations:
 - Communication path between plug-ins.
 - Each plug-in has its own pinning database.
- Attacker may use the client's browser as a proxy to attack the target.
 - DDOS, send spam, etc.



Introduction

- Cryptographic mechanisms protect data in transit
- Authentication protocols verify the source of data.
- Control which traffic is allowed to enter or leave our system
- Access control decisions based on information like addresses, port numbers, protocol, etc.

Firewall

- Firewall: a network security device controlling traffic flow between two parts of a network.
- Often installed between an organization's network and the Internet
- All traffic has to go through the firewall for protection to be effective.
 - Wireless LANs, USB devices!?

Purpose

- Firewalls control network traffic to and from the protected network.
- Can allow or block access to services (both internal and external).
- Can enforce authentication before allowing access to services.
- Can monitor traffic in/out of network.

Types of Firewalls

- Packet filter
- Stateful packet filter
- Circuit-level proxy
- Application-level proxy

Packet Filter

- Inspect headers of IP packets, TCP and UDP ports
- Rules specify which packets are allowed through the firewall, and which are dropped.
- Actions: bypass, drop, protect
- Rules may specify source / destination IP addresses, and source / destination TCP / UDP port numbers.
- Rules for traffic in both directions.
- Certain common protocols are difficult to support securely (e.g. FTP).

Example

- TCP/IP packet filtering router.
 - Router which can throw packets away.
- Examines TCP/IP headers of every packet going through the Firewall, in either direction.
- Packets can be allowed or blocked based on:
 - IP source & destination addresses
 - TCP / UDP source & destination ports
- Implementation on router for high throughput.

Stateful Packet Filter

- Packet filter that understands requests and replies
 - e.g. for TCP: SYN, SYN-ACK, ACK
- Rules need only specify packets in one direction
 - from client to server the direction of the first packet in a connection
- Replies and further packets in the connection are automatically processed.
- Supports wider range of protocols than simple packet filter (FTP, IRC).

Stateful Packet Filter & FTP

- Client sends ftp-request to server
- Firewall stores connection state
 - FTP-Server Address
 - state of connection (SYN, ACK, ...)
- If correct FTP-server tries to establish data connection, packets are not blocked.

Circuit-level proxy

- Similar to a packet filter, except that packets are not routed.
- Incoming TCP/IP packets accepted by proxy.
- Rules determine which connections will be allowed and which blocked.
- Allowed connections generate new connection from firewall to server.
- Similar specification of rules as packet filter.

Application-level Proxy

- Layer-7 proxy server.
- "Client and server in one box".
- For every supported application protocol.
- SMTP, POP3, HTTP, SSH, FTP, NNTP...
- Packets received and processed by server.
- New packets generated by client.
- MITM?

Application-level Proxy

- Complete server & client implementation in one box for every protocol the firewall should handle.
 - Client connects to firewall.
 - Firewall validates request.
 - Firewall connects to server.
- Response comes back through firewall and is also processed through client/server.
- Large amount of processing per connection.
- Can enforce application-specific policies.

Firewall Policies

Permissive: allow by default, block some.

- Easy to make mistakes.
- If you forget something you should block, it's allowed, and you might not realize for a while.
- If somebody finds find a protocol is allowed, they might not tell you

Restrictive: block by default, allow some.

- Much more secure.
- If you forget something, someone will complain and you can allow the protocol.

Firewall Policies - Examples

- Permissive policies: Allow all traffic, but block ...
 - IRC
 - telnet
- Restrictive policies: block all traffic, but allow ...
 - http
 - POP3
 - SMTP
 - ssh

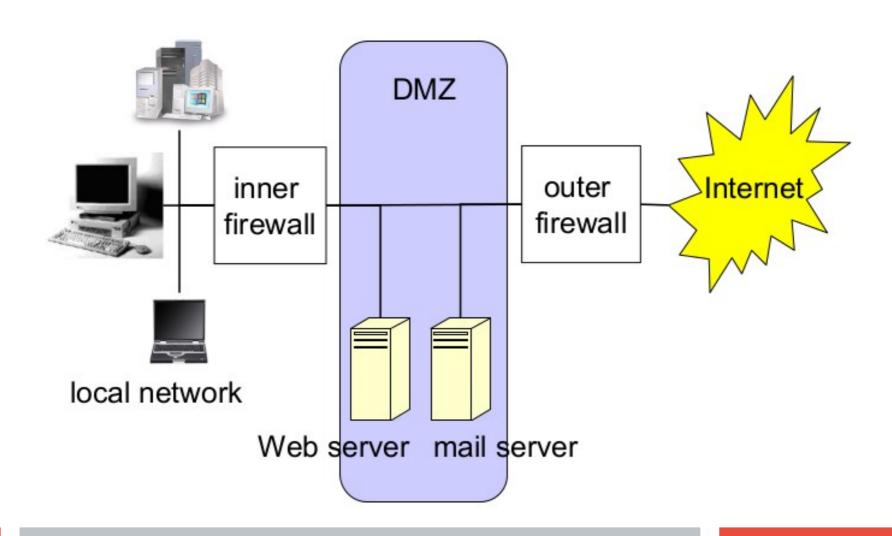
Typical Firewall Ruleset

- Allow from internal network to Internet:
 - HTTP, FTP, HTTPS, SSH, DNS
- Allow reply packets
- Allow from anywhere to Mail server:
 - TCP port 25 (SMTP) only
- Allow from Mail server to Internet:
 - SMTP, DNS
- Allow from inside to Mail server:
 - SMTP, POP3
- Block everything else

Firewall Location

- Firewall can only filter traffic which goes through it.
- Where should we put a mail server?
 - Requires external access to receive mail from the Internet.
 - Should be on the inside of the firewall
 - Requires internal access to receive mail from the internal network.
 - Should be on the outside of the firewall
- Solution: "a perimeter network" (aka DMZ).

DMZ



Firewalls - Limitations

- Firewalls do not protect against insider threats.
- Blocking services may create inconveniences for users.
- Network diagnostics may be harder.
- Some protocols are hard to support.
- Protocol tunneling: sending data for one protocol through another protocol circumvents the firewall.
 - More and more protocols are tunneled through http to get through the firewall
- Encrypted traffic cannot be examined and filtered
 - Some solutions can! HTTPS proxy



Reminder: Security Strategies

- Prevention: take measures that prevent your assets from being damaged.
- Detection: take measures so that you can detect when, how, and by whom an asset has been damaged.
- Reaction: take measures so that you can recover your assets or to recover from a damage to your assets.

Security Strategies

- Cryptographic mechanisms and protocols are fielded to prevent attacks.
- Perimeter security devices (e.g. firewalls) mainly prevent attacks by outsiders.
- Although it would be nice to prevent all attacks, in reality this is rarely possible.
- New types of attacks occur: denial-of-service (where crypto may make the problem worse).
- How to we detect network attacks?

Vulnerability Assessment

Examines the "security state" of a network:

- Open ports
- Software packages running (which version, patched?)
- Network topology
- Returns prioritized lists of vulnerabilities

Only as good as the knowledge base used.

Have to be updated to handle new threats

Vulnerability Assessment Methods.

- Software solutions (ISS Scanner, Stat, Nessus etc.)
- Audit Services (manual Penetration tests etc)
- Web based commercial (Qualys, Security Point etc)

Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS)

- Passive supervision of network, analogue to intruder alarms.
 - Creates more work for personnel.
 - Provides security personnel with volumes of reports that can be presented to management
- Approaches to Intrusion Detection:
 - Knowledge-based IDS Misuse detection
 - Behavior-based IDS Anomaly detection
- IDS can also be used as response tool.