Chapter 8 Security

Computer
Networking

ATOP-DOWN APPROACH

KUROSE • ROSS

Computer
Networking: A Top
Down Approach

7th edition
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Pearson/Addison Wesley

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Security 8-1

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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

- 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

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What is network security?

confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should "understand" message contents

- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message

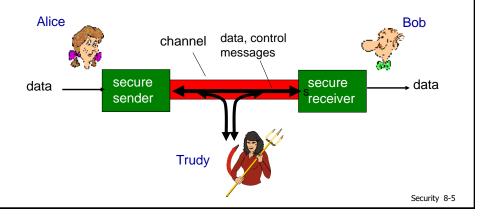
authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

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?

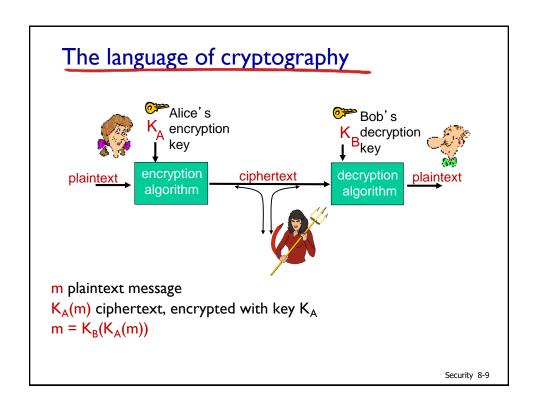
There are bad guys (and girls) out there!

- 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)

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Chapter 8 roadmap

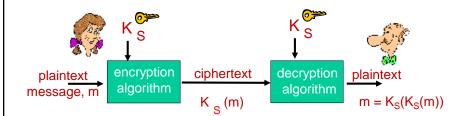
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Breaking an encryption scheme

- 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?

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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

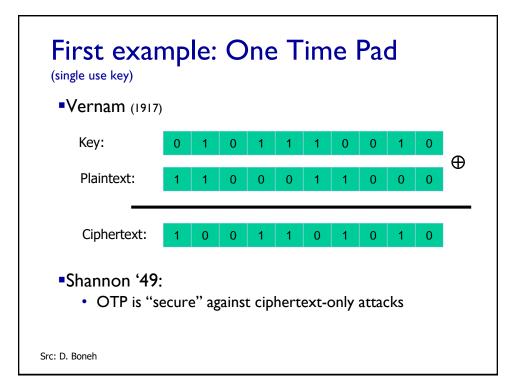
A more sophisticated encryption approach

- 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

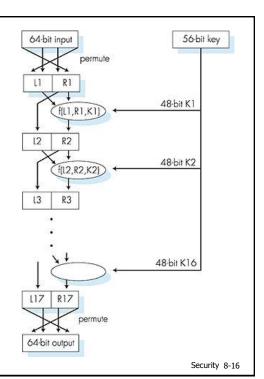
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Symmetric key crypto: DES

- DES operation

initial permutation

16 identical "rounds" of function application, each using different 48 bits of key final permutation



Symmetric key crypto: AES

AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- symmetric-key NIST standard, replaced 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 149 trillion years for AES

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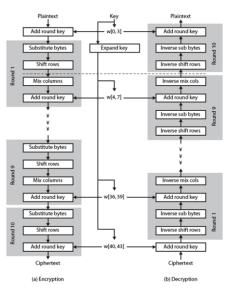
Symmetric key crypto: AES

- AES operation

Iterative cipher that processes data as block of 4 columns of 4 bytes.

Key is expanded to array of words

9/11/13 rounds in which data block undergoes: byte substitution, byte permutation, mixing of columns, adding of the round key



Src: W. Stallings, Fig. 5.3

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

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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⁻_B

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adleman algorithm

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Prerequisite: modular arithmetic

- x mod n = remainder of x when divided 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 = 4² mod 10 = 6
 x^d = 14² = 196 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).

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RSA: Creating public/private key pair

- I. choose two large prime numbers p, q. (e.g., 1024 bits each)
- 2. compute n = pq, $\varphi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- 3. choose e (with e < n) that has no common factors with $\varphi(n)$ (e, $\varphi(n)$ are "relatively prime").
- 4. choose d such that ed-I is exactly divisible by $\varphi(n)$. (in other words: $ed \mod \varphi(n) = I$).
- 5. public key is $(\underline{n,e})$. private key is $(\underline{n,d})$.

RSA: encryption, decryption

- 0. given (n,e) and (n,d) as computed above
- 1. 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
$$m = (m^e \mod n)^d \mod n$$

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RSA example:

Bob chooses p=5, q=7. Then n=35, $\varphi(n)=24$. e=5 (so e, $\varphi(n)$ relatively prime). d=29 (so ed-1 exactly divisible by φ).

encrypting 8-bit messages.

decrypt: $\frac{c}{17}$ $\frac{c^d}{481968572106750915091411825223071697}$ $\frac{d}{12}$

Why does RSA work?

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

```
c^d \mod n = (m^e \mod n)^d \mod n
```

 $= m^{ed} \mod n$

 $= m^{(ed \mod \varphi)} \mod n^{\leftarrow}$

 $= m^{1} \mod n$

= 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 first, use private key followed by private key 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
```

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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 crypto 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

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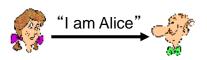
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Authentication

Goal: Bob wants Alice to "prove" her identity to him

Protocol ap 1.0: Alice says "I am Alice"



Failure scenario??



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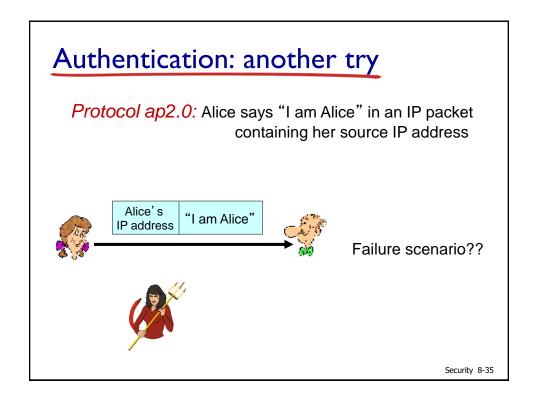
Authentication

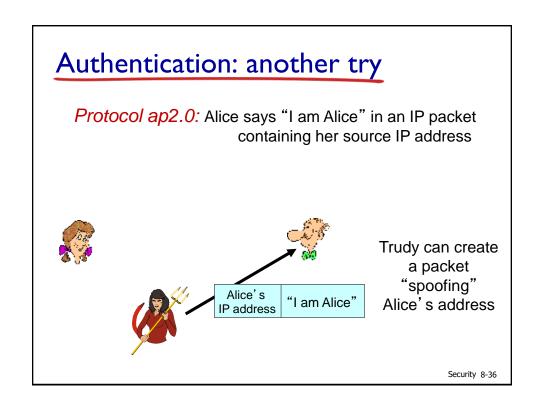
Goal: Bob wants Alice to "prove" her identity to him

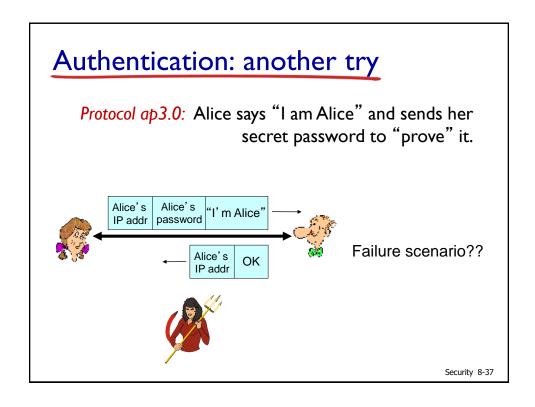
Protocol ap 1.0: Alice says "I am Alice"

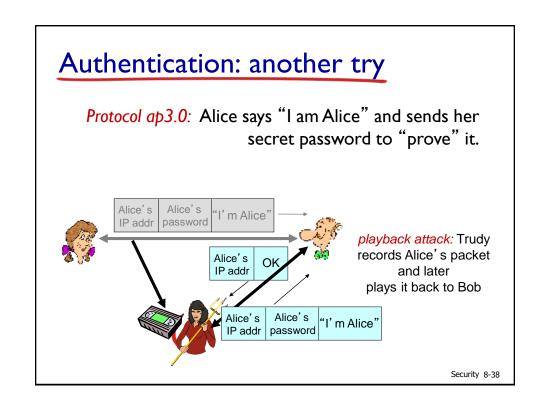


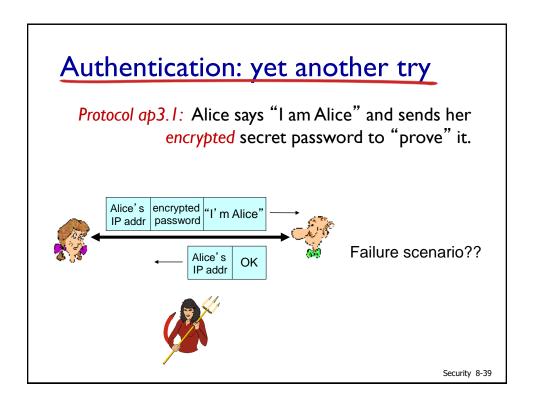
in a network, Bob can not "see" Alice, so Trudy simply declares herself to be Alice

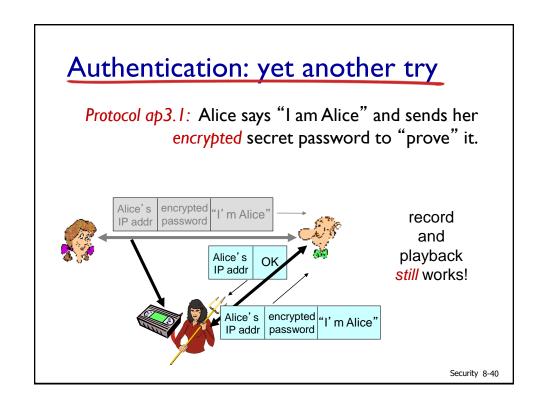








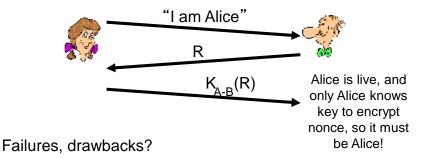




Authentication: yet another try

Goal: avoid playback attack nonce: number (R) used only once-in-a-lifetime

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

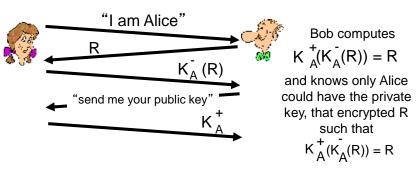


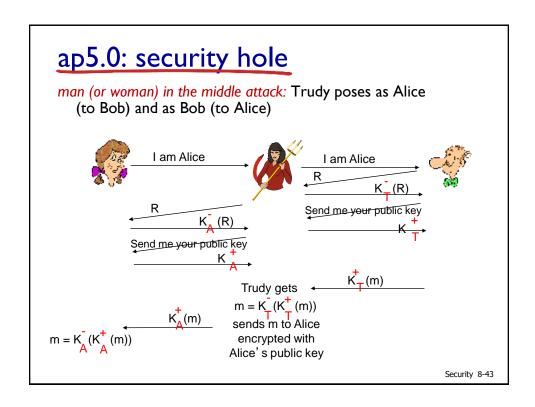
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Authentication: ap5.0

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 (or 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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Digital signatures

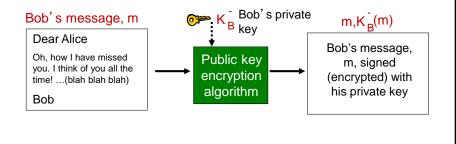
cryptographic technique analogous to hand-written signatures:

- 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

Digital signatures

simple digital signature for message m:

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



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Digital signatures

- suppose Alice receives msg m, with signature: m, $K_B(m)$
- Alice verifies m signed by Bob by applying Bob's public key K_B to ${}^{\dagger}K_B(m)$ then checks $K_B(K_B^{\dagger}(m)) = m$.
- 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
- Bob signed m and not m '

non-repudiation:

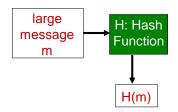
✓ Alice can take m, and signature $K_B(m)$ to court and prove that Bob signed m

Message digests

computationally expensive to public-key-encrypt long messages

goal: fixed-length, easy-to-compute digital "fingerprint"

 apply hash function H to m, get fixed size message digest, H(m).



Hash function properties:

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

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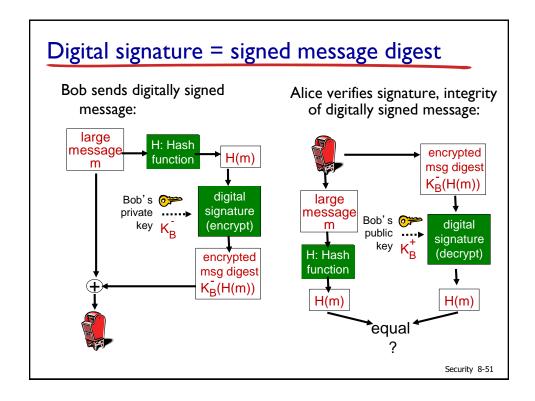
Internet checksum: poor crypto hash function

Internet checksum has some properties of hash function:

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

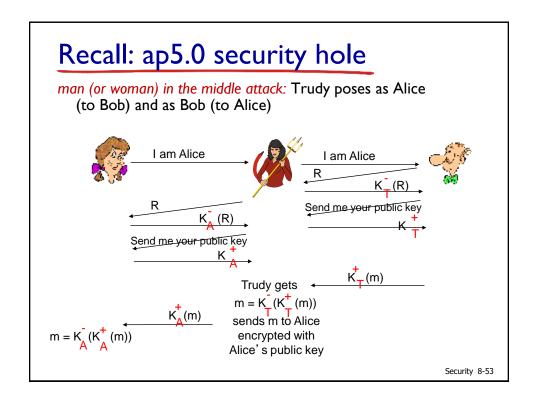
But given message with given hash value, it is easy to find another message with same hash value:

<u>message</u>	ASCII format	<u>message</u>	ASCII format
I O U 1	49 4F 55 31	I O 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
	B2 C1 D2 AC	different messages but identical checksums!	B2 C1 D2 AC
		but identical checksums:	



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-I is also used
 - US standard [NIST, FIPS PUB 180-1]
 - 160-bit message digest

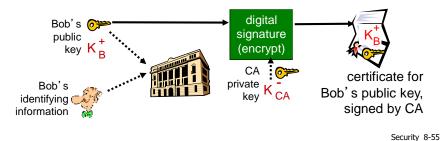


Public-key certification

- motivation: Trudy plays pizza prank on Bob
 - Trudy creates e-mail order:
 Dear Pizza Store, Please deliver to me four pepperoni pizzas. Thank you, Bob
 - Trudy signs order with her private key
 - Trudy sends order to Pizza Store
 - Trudy sends to Pizza Store her public key, but says it's Bob's public key
 - Pizza Store verifies signature; then delivers four pepperoni pizzas to Bob
 - Bob doesn't even like pepperoni

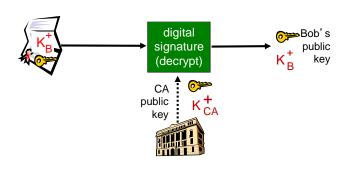
Certification authorities

- certification authority (CA): binds public key to particular entity, E.
- E (person, router) registers its public key with CA.
 - E provides "proof of identity" to CA.
 - CA creates certificate binding E to its public key.
 - certificate containing E's public key digitally signed by CA CA says "this is E's public key"



Certification authorities

- when Alice wants Bob's public key:
 - gets Bob's certificate (Bob or elsewhere).
 - apply CA's public key to Bob's certificate, get Bob's public key



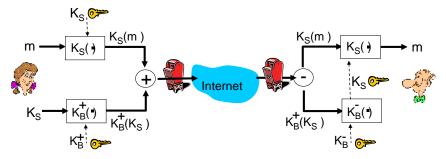
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Secure e-mail

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

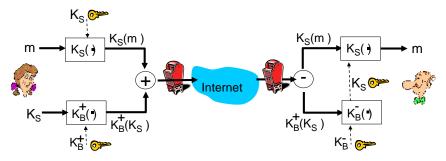


Alice:

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

Secure e-mail

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



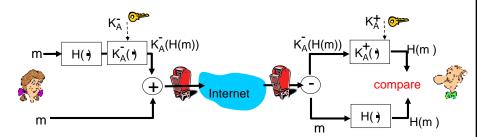
Bob:

- uses his private key to decrypt and recover K_s
- uses K_S to decrypt $K_S(m)$ to recover m

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Secure e-mail (continued)

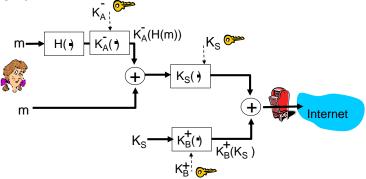
Alice wants to provide sender authentication message integrity



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

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

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What is network-layer confidentiality?

between two network entities:

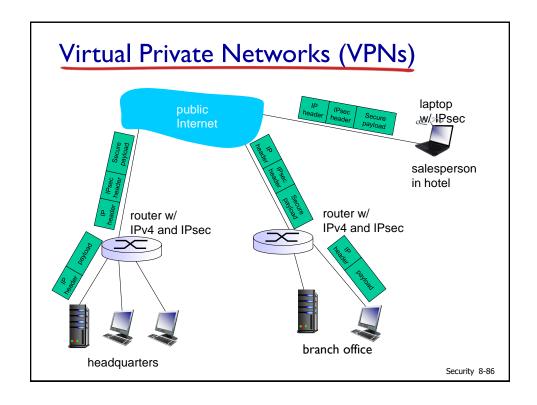
- sending entity encrypts datagram payload, payload could be:
 - TCP or UDP segment, ICMP message, OSPF message
- all data sent from one entity to other would be hidden:
 - web pages, e-mail, P2P file transfers, TCP SYN packets
- "blanket coverage"

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Virtual Private Networks (VPNs)

motivation:

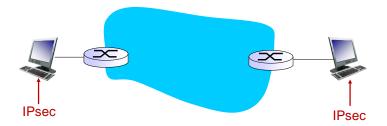
- institutions often want private networks for security.
 - \bullet costly: separate routers, links, DNS infrastructure.
- VPN: institution's inter-office traffic is sent over public Internet instead
 - encrypted before entering public Internet
 - logically separate from other traffic



IPsec services

- data integrity
- origin authentication
- replay attack prevention
- confidentiality
- two protocols providing different service models:
 - AH
 - ESP

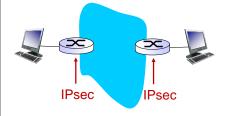
IPsec transport mode



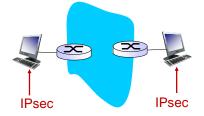
- IPsec datagram emitted and received by end-system
- protects upper level protocols

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IPsec – tunneling mode



edge routers IPsecaware



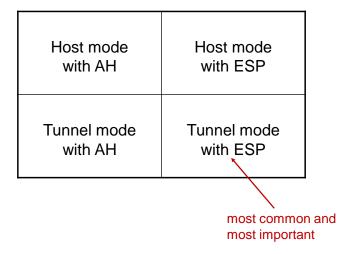
hosts IPsec-aware

Two IPsec protocols

- Authentication Header (AH) protocol
 - provides source authentication & data integrity but not confidentiality
- Encapsulation Security Protocol (ESP)
 - provides source authentication, data integrity, and confidentiality
 - more widely used than AH

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Four combinations are possible!

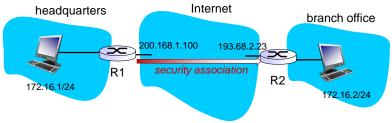


Security associations (SAs)

- before sending data, "security association (SA)" established from sending to receiving entity
 - SAs are simplex: for only one direction
- ending, receiving entitles maintain state information about SA
 - recall: TCP endpoints also maintain state info
 - IP is connectionless; IPsec is connection-oriented!
- how many SAs in VPN w/ headquarters, branch office, and n traveling salespeople?

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Example SA from R1 to R2



RI stores for SA:

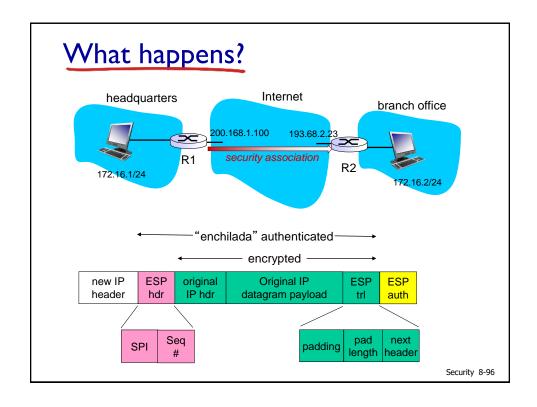
- 32-bit SA identifier: Security Parameter Index (SPI)
- origin SA interface (200.168.1.100)
- destination SA interface (193.68.2.23)
- type of encryption used (e.g., 3DES with CBC)
- encryption key
- type of integrity check used (e.g., HMAC with MD5)
- authentication key

Security Association Database (SAD)

- endpoint holds SA state in security association database (SAD), where it can locate them during processing.
- with n salespersons, 2 + 2n SAs in R1's SAD
- when sending IPsec datagram, RI accesses SAD to determine how to process datagram.
- when IPsec datagram arrives to R2, R2 examines SPI in IPsec datagram, indexes SAD with SPI, and processes datagram accordingly.

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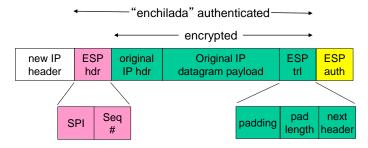
IPsec datagram focus for now on tunnel mode with ESP "enchilada" authenticatedencrypted -**ESP** new IP **ESP ESP** original Original IP header hdr IP hdr datagram payload auth Seq pad SPI Security 8-95



RI: convert original datagram to IPsec datagram

- appends to back of original datagram (which includes original header fields!) an "ESP trailer" field.
- encrypts result using algorithm & key specified by SA.
- appends to front of this encrypted quantity the "ESP header, creating "enchilada".
- creates authentication MAC over the whole enchilada, using algorithm and key specified in SA;
- appends MAC to back of enchilada, forming payload;
- creates brand new IP header, with all the classic IPv4 header fields, which it appends before payload

Inside the enchilada:



- ESP trailer: Padding for block ciphers
- ESP header:
 - SPI, so receiving entity knows what to do
 - · Sequence number, to thwart replay attacks
- MAC in ESP auth field is created with shared secret key

Security 8-98

IPsec sequence numbers

- for new SA, sender initializes seq. # to 0
- each time datagram is sent on SA:
 - sender increments seg # counter
 - places value in seq # field
- goal:
 - prevent attacker from sniffing and replaying a packet
 - receipt of duplicate, authenticated IP packets may disrupt service
- method:
 - · destination checks for duplicates
 - doesn't keep track of all received packets; instead uses a window

Security Policy Database (SPD)

- policy: For a given datagram, sending entity needs to know if it should use IPsec
- needs also to know which SA to use
 - may use: source and destination IP address; protocol number
- info in SPD indicates "what" to do with arriving datagram
- info in SAD indicates "how" to do it

Security 8-100

Summary: IPsec services



- suppose Trudy sits somewhere between R1 and R2. she doesn't know the keys.
 - will Trudy be able to see original contents of datagram? How about source, dest IP address, transport protocol, application port?
 - flip bits without detection?
 - masquerade as R1 using R1's IP address?
 - replay a datagram?

IKE: Internet Key Exchange

 previous examples: manual establishment of IPsec SAs in IPsec endpoints:

Example SA

SPI: 12345

Source IP: 200.168.1.100 Dest IP: 193.68.2.23

Protocol: ESP

Encryption algorithm: 3DES-cbc

HMAC algorithm: MD5 Encryption key: 0x7aeaca... HMAC key:0xc0291f...

- manual keying is impractical for VPN with 100s of endpoints
- instead use IPsec IKE (Internet Key Exchange)

Security 8-102

IKE: PSK and PKI

- authentication (prove who you are) with either
 - pre-shared secret (PSK) or
 - with PKI (pubic/private keys and certificates).
- PSK: both sides start with secret
 - run IKE to authenticate each other and to generate IPsec SAs (one in each direction), including encryption, authentication keys
- PKI: both sides start with public/private key pair, certificate
 - run IKE to authenticate each other, obtain IPsec SAs (one in each direction).
 - · similar with handshake in SSL.

IKE phases

- IKE has two phases
 - phase 1: establish bi-directional IKE SA
 - note: IKE SA different from IPsec SA
 - aka ISAKMP security association
 - phase 2: ISAKMP is used to securely negotiate IPsec pair of SAs
- phase I has two modes: aggressive mode and main mode
 - aggressive mode uses fewer messages
 - main mode provides identity protection and is more flexible

Security 8-104

IPsec summary

- IKE message exchange for algorithms, secret keys, SPI numbers
- either AH or ESP protocol (or both)
 - AH provides integrity, source authentication
 - ESP protocol (with AH) additionally provides encryption
- IPsec peers can be two end systems, two routers/firewalls, or a router/firewall and an end system

Chapter 8 roadmap

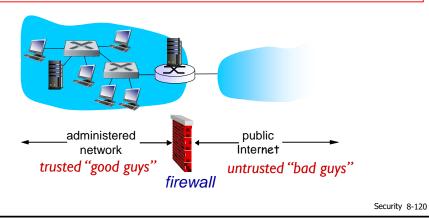
- 8.1 What is network security?
- 8.2 Principles of cryptography
- 8.3 Message integrity
- 8.4 Securing e-mail
- 8.5 Securing TCP connections: SSL
- 8.6 Network layer security: IPsec
- 8.7 Securing wireless LANs
- 8.8 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

Security 8-119

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

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

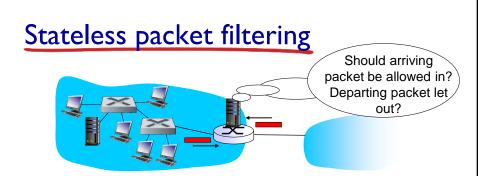
allow only authorized access to inside network

set of authenticated users/hosts

three types of firewalls:

- stateless packet filters
- stateful packet filters
- application gateways

Security 8-121



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

Stateless packet filtering: example

- example 1: block incoming and outgoing datagrams with IP protocol field = 17 and with either source or dest port = 23
 - result: all incoming, outgoing UDP flows and telnet connections are blocked
- example 2: block inbound TCP segments with ACK=0.
 - result: prevents external clients from making TCP connections with internal clients, but allows internal clients to connect to outside.

Security 8-123

Stateless packet filtering: more examples

Policy	Firewall Setting			
No outside Web access.	Drop all outgoing packets to any IP address, port 80			
No incoming TCP connections, except those for institution's public Web server only.	Drop all incoming TCP SYN packets to any IP except 130.207.244.203, port 80			
Prevent Web-radios from eating up the available bandwidth.	Drop all incoming UDP packets - except DNS and router broadcasts.			
Prevent your network from being used for a smurf DoS attack.	Drop all ICMP packets going to a "broadcast" address (e.g. 130.207.255.255).			
Prevent your network from being tracerouted	Drop all outgoing ICMP TTL expired traffic			

Access Control Lists

ACL: table of rules, applied top to bottom to incoming packets: (action, condition) pairs: looks like OpenFlow forwarding (Ch. 4)!

action	source address	dest address	protocol	source port	dest port	flag bit
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	TCP	> 1023	80	any
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	TCP	80	> 1023	ACK
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	UDP	> 1023	53	
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	UDP	53 > 1023		
deny	all	all	all	all	all	all

Security 8-125

Stateful packet filtering

- stateless packet filter: heavy handed tool
 - admits packets that "make no sense," e.g., dest port = 80, ACK bit set, even though no TCP connection established:

action	source address	dest address	protocol	source port	dest port	flag bit
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	TCP	80	> 1023	ACK

- stateful packet filter: track status of every TCP connection
 - track connection setup (SYN), teardown (FIN): determine whether incoming, outgoing packets "makes sense"
 - timeout inactive connections at firewall: no longer admit packets

Stateful packet filtering

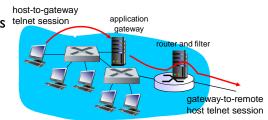
ACL augmented to indicate need to check connection state table before admitting packet

action	source address	dest address	proto	source port	dest port	flag bit	check conxion
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	TCP	> 1023	80	any	
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	ТСР	80	> 1023	ACK	X
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	UDP	> 1023	53		
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	UDP	53	> 1023		X
deny	all	all	all	all	all	all	

Security 8-127

Application gateways

- filter packets on application data as well as on IP/TCP/UDP fields.
- example: allow select internal users to telnet outside



- I. require all telnet users to telnet through gateway.
- 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.

Limitations of firewalls, gateways

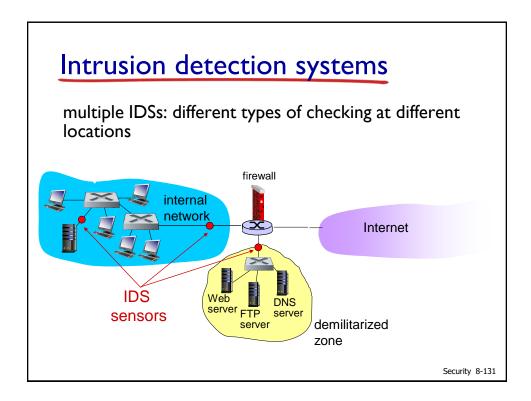
- IP spoofing: router can't know if data "really" comes from claimed source
- if multiple app's. need special treatment, each has own app. gateway
- client software must know how to contact gateway.
 - e.g., must set IP address of proxy in Web browser

- 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

Security 8-129

Intrusion detection systems

- packet filtering:
 - operates on TCP/IP headers only
 - · no correlation check among sessions
- IDS: intrusion detection system
 - deep packet inspection: look at packet contents (e.g., check character strings in packet against database of known virus, attack strings)
 - examine correlation among multiple packets
 - port scanning
 - network mapping
 - DoS attack



Network Security (summary)

basic techniques.....

- cryptography (symmetric and public)
- message integrity
- end-point authentication

.... used in many different security scenarios

- · secure email
- secure transport (SSL)
- IP sec
- 802.11

operational security: firewalls and IDS