

Week 7 Network Security



These slides are prepared based on the originals by J.F. Kurose and K.W. Ross and lecture notes from CMU

*Computer Networking:
A Top Down Approach
Featuring the Internet,
2nd edition.
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Addison-Wesley, July
2002.*

Network Security 7-1

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

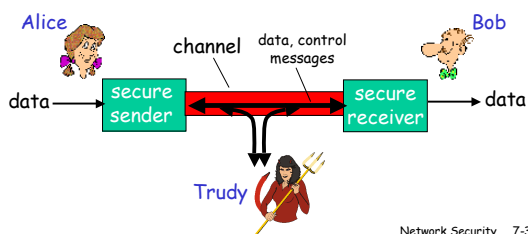
Message Integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection

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

Network Security 7-2

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



Network Security 7-3

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?

Network Security 7-4

There are bad guys (and girls) out there!

Q: What can a "bad guy" do?

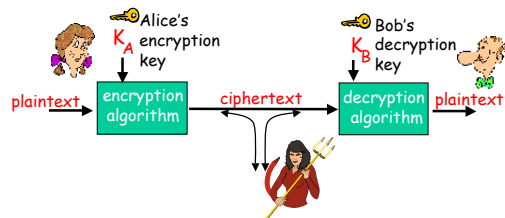
A: a lot!

- **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)

more on this later

Network Security 7-5

The language of cryptography

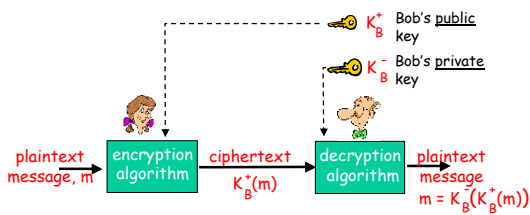


symmetric key crypto: sender, receiver keys *identical*

public-key crypto: encryption key *public*, decryption key *secret* (private)

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Public key cryptography



Network Security 7-13

Public key encryption algorithms

Requirements:

- ① 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_B^-

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adelson algorithm

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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: $ed \bmod z = 1$).
 5. Public key is (n, e) . Private key is (n, d) .
- $K_B^+ = (n, e)$ $K_B^- = (n, d)$

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RSA: Encryption, decryption

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

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

c

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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).

	letter	m	m^e	$c = m^e \bmod n$
encrypt:	I	12	1524832	17
decrypt:	c	c^d	$m = c^d \bmod n$	letter
	17	481968572106750915091411825223071697	12	I

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

Useful number theory result: If p, q prime and $n = pq$, then: $x^y \bmod n = x^{y \bmod (p-1)(q-1)} \bmod n$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n &= m^{ed} \bmod n \\
 &= m^{ed \bmod (p-1)(q-1)} \bmod n \\
 &\quad \text{(using number theory result above)} \\
 &= m^1 \bmod n \\
 &\quad \text{(since we chose } ed \text{ to be divisible by } (p-1)(q-1) \text{ with remainder 1)} \\
 &= m
 \end{aligned}$$

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RSA: another important property

The following property will be *very* useful later:
Goal: Bob wants Alice to "prove" her identity to him

$$K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m = K_B^+(K_B^-(m))$$

use public key
first, followed
by private key

use private key
first, followed
by public key

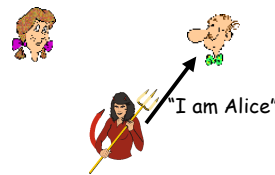
Result is the same!

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Authentication

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

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

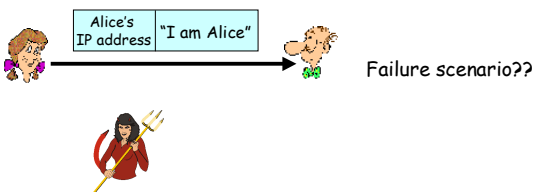


in a network,
Bob can not "see"
Alice, so Trudy simply
declares
herself to be Alice

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Authentication: another try

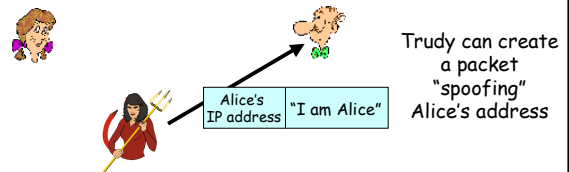
Protocol ap2.0: Alice says "I am Alice" in an IP packet containing her source IP address



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Authentication: another try

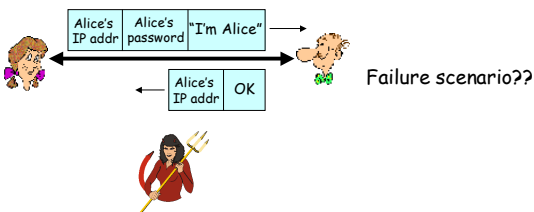
Protocol ap2.0: Alice says "I am Alice" in an IP packet containing her source IP address



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Authentication: another try

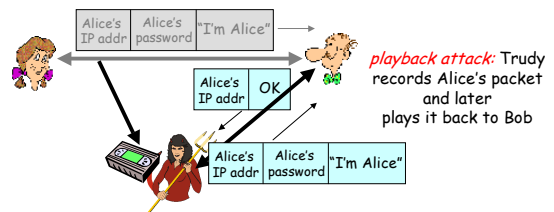
Protocol ap3.0: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her secret password to "prove" it.



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Authentication: another try

Protocol ap3.0: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her secret password to "prove" it.



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Digital Signatures

Cryptographic technique analogous to hand-written signatures.

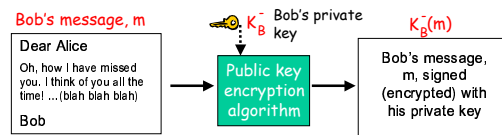
- sender (Bob) digitally signs document, establishing he is document owner/creator.
- verifiable, nonforgeable: recipient (Alice) can prove to someone that Bob, and no one else (including Alice), must have signed document

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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 (more)

- 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 .
- ✓ 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 .

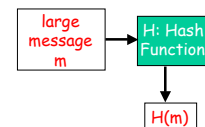
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Message Digests

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-1
- 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:

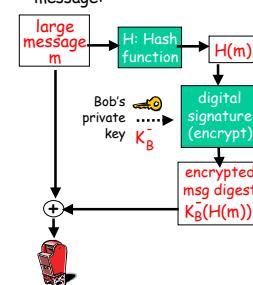
message	ASCII format	message	ASCII format
I O U 1	49 4F 55 31	I O U 9	49 4F 55 39
0 0 . 9	30 30 2E 39	0 0 . 1	30 30 2E 31
9 B O B	39 42 D2 42	9 B O B	39 42 D2 42
B2 C1 D2 AC		B2 C1 D2 AC	

different messages but identical checksums!

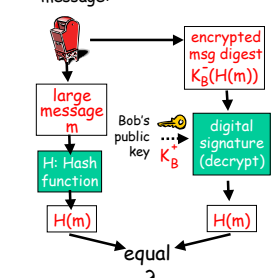
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Digital signature = signed message digest

Bob sends digitally signed message:



Alice verifies signature and integrity of digitally signed message:



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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.
 - US 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?

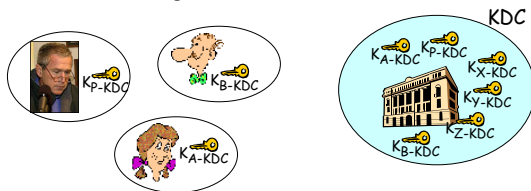
Solution:

 - trusted certification authority (CA)

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Key Distribution Center (KDC)

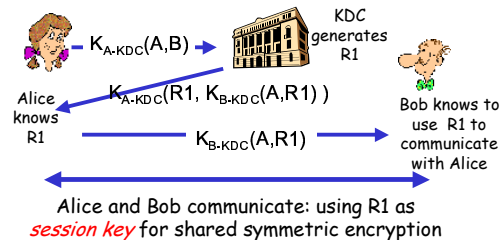
- Alice, Bob need shared symmetric key.
- KDC: server shares different secret key with *each* registered user (many users)
- Alice, Bob know own symmetric keys, K_{A-KDC} , K_{B-KDC} , for communicating with KDC.



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Key Distribution Center (KDC)

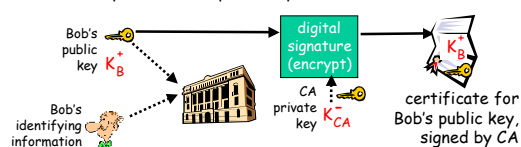
Q: How does KDC allow Bob, Alice to determine shared symmetric secret key to communicate with each other?



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Certification Authorities

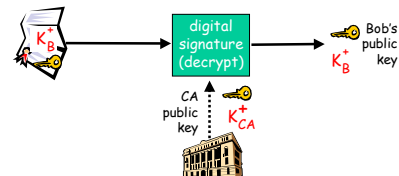
- Certification authority (CA): binds public key to particular entity, E.
- E (person, router) registers its public key with CA.
 - E provides "proof of identity" to CA.
 - CA creates certificate binding E to its public key.
 - certificate containing E's public key digitally signed by CA - CA says "this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



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Certification Authorities

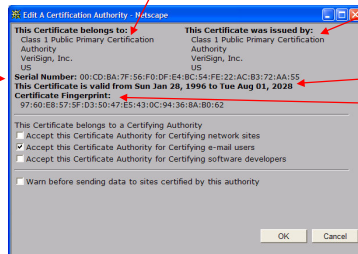
- When Alice wants Bob's public key:
 - gets Bob's certificate (Bob or elsewhere).
 - apply CA's public key to Bob's certificate, get Bob's public key



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A certificate contains:

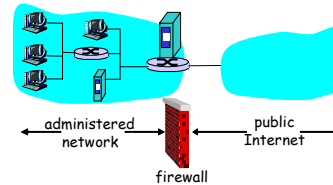
- ❑ Serial number (unique to issuer)
- ❑ info about certificate owner, including algorithm and key value itself (not shown)
- ❑ info about certificate issuer
- ❑ valid dates
- ❑ digital signature by issuer



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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

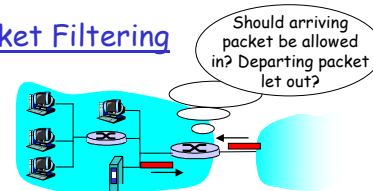
allow only authorized access to inside network (set of authenticated users/hosts)

two types of firewalls:

- ❑ application-level
- ❑ packet-filtering

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Packet Filtering



- ❑ 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
 - ❑ TCP SYN and ACK bits

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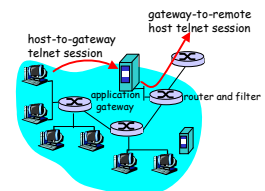
Packet Filtering

- ❑ 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.

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Application gateways

- ❑ Filters packets on application data as well as on IP/TCP/UDP fields.
- ❑ Example: 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.

Network Security 7-49

Internal Firewalls

- ❑ Large organization
- ❑ Limit trust, failures, damage
- ❑ Ease recovery
- ❑ Guidelines
 - No file access across firewall
 - No shared login across firewall
 - Separate DNS
 - No trusted hosts or users across firewall

Network Security 7-50

Building Firewalls

- ❑ Do it yourself - Don't
- ❑ Firewall Toolkits
- ❑ Complete Firewall
- ❑ Managed Security Provider
- ❑ Questions:
 - What am I protecting?
 - How much money?
 - How much access is needed?
 - How do I get users to use firewall?

Network Security 7-51

Wrappers, Proxies and Honeypots

- ❑ Wrappers - server-based software to examine request before satisfying it
- ❑ Proxies - bastion-based software to examine request before passing to server
- ❑ Honeypots - False response to unsupported services (for attack alarm, confusion)

Network Security 7-52

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?

Network Security 7-53

Internet security threats

Mapping: countermeasures

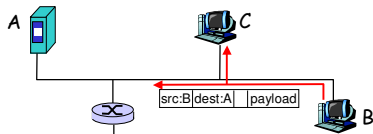
- record traffic entering network
- look for suspicious activity (IP addresses, ports being scanned sequentially)

Network Security 7-54

Internet security threats

Packet sniffing:

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



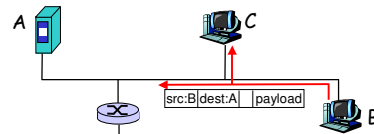
Countermeasures?

Network Security 7-55

Internet security threats

Packet sniffing: countermeasures

- 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)

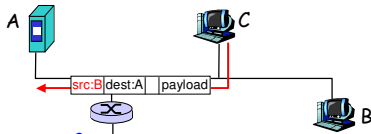


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Internet security threats

IP Spoofing:

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



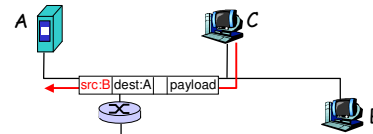
Countermeasures?

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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

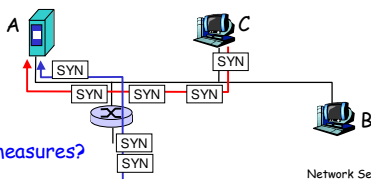


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Internet security threats

Denial of service (DOS):

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



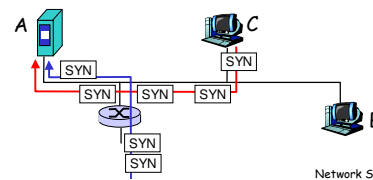
Countermeasures?

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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)



Network Security 7-60

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,
Alice

---BEGIN PGP SIGNATURE---
Version: PGP 5.0
Charset: noconv
yhHJRhhGJGhgG/12EpJ+lo8gE4vB3mqJ
hFEvZP9t6n7G6m5Gw2
---END PGP SIGNATURE---
```

Network Security 7-61

Secure sockets layer (SSL)

- transport layer security to any TCP-based 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.**

Network Security 7-62

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.

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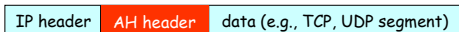
IPsec: Network Layer Security

- Network-layer secrecy:**
 - 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:**
 - 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:**
 - security protocol (AH or ESP)
 - source IP address
 - 32-bit connection ID

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Authentication Header (AH) Protocol

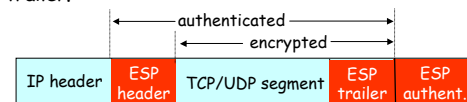
- provides source authentication, data integrity, no confidentiality
- AH header inserted between IP header, data field.
- protocol field: 51
- intermediate routers process datagrams as usual
- AH header includes:**
 - connection identifier
 - authentication data: source- signed message digest calculated over original IP datagram.
 - next header field: specifies type of data (e.g., TCP, UDP, ICMP)



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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.



Network Security 7-66

Bastion Considerations

- ❑ Make bastion a pain to use directly
- ❑ Enable all auditing/logging
- ❑ Limit login methods/file access
- ❑ Allow minimal file access to directories
- ❑ Enable process/file quotas
- ❑ Equivalent to no other machine
- ❑ Monitor! Monitor! Monitor!

Network Security 7-67

Common Firewall Failures

- ❑ Installation errors
 - ❑ Policy too permissive
 - ❑ Users circumvent
 - ❑ Users relax other security
 - ❑ Attract attacks (less common)
 - ❑ Insiders
 - ❑ Insufficient architecture
- Conclusion: Plan security as if firewall was failure

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Connectivity

- ❑ Bellovin - "The best firewall is a large air gap between the Internet and any of your computers, and a pair of wire cutters is the most effective network protection mechanism."
- ❑ Do users need to access the Internet?
- ❑ Can they use shared access to some services?
- ❑ What services are:
 - Work-required
 - Work-related
 - Moral boosters
 - Unneeded

Network Security 7-69

Malicious Code

- ❑ Vulnerable Software
- ❑ Unauthorized communications
- ❑ Greedy Programs / Logic bombs
- ❑ Salami Attacks
- ❑ Trapdoors
- ❑ Worms/Viruses

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Vulnerable Software

- ❑ Buffer overflows
- ❑ Insecure running environment
- ❑ Insecure temporary files
- ❑ Insecure program calls
- ❑ Weak encryption
- ❑ Poor programming
- ❑ "If people built buildings the way that programmers write software, the first woodpecker to come along would destroy civilization."

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Handling Vulnerabilities

- ❑ Locating
- ❑ Dealing with vendors
- ❑ Applying patches
- ❑ Disabling services
- ❑ Reconfiguring software/services

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Back/Trapdoors

- ❑ Pieces of code written into applications of operating systems to grant programmers easy access
- ❑ Useful for debugging and monitoring
- ❑ Too often, not removed
- ❑ Examples:
 - Dennis Richie's logging/compiler hack
 - Sendmail DEBUG mode
- ❑ Countermeasures
 - Sandboxing
 - Code Reviews

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Logic Bombs

- ❑ Pieces of code to cause undesired effects when event occurs
- ❑ Used to enforce licenses (time-outs)
- ❑ Used for revenge by disgruntled
- ❑ Can be hard to determine malicious
- ❑ Examples
 - British accounting firm logic bomb
 - British bank hack
- ❑ Countermeasures
 - Personnel security

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Viruses

- ❑ Pieces of code that attach to existing programs
- ❑ Not distinct program
- ❑ No beneficial use - VERY destructive
- ❑ Examples:
 - Michelangelo
 - Love letter
- ❑ Countermeasures
 - Virus detection/disinfection software

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Worms

- ❑ Stand-alone programs that copy themselves from system to system
- ❑ Some use in network computation
- ❑ Examples:
 - Dolphin worm (Xerox PARC)
 - Code Red
 - Morris Worm
- ❑ Countermeasures
 - Sandboxing
 - Quick patching

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Trojan Horses

- ❑ Programs that have malicious covert purpose
- ❑ Have been used for license enforcement
- ❑ Examples:
 - FIX2001
 - AOL4FREE
 - RIDBO
- ❑ Countermeasures
 - Sandboxing
 - Code reviews

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