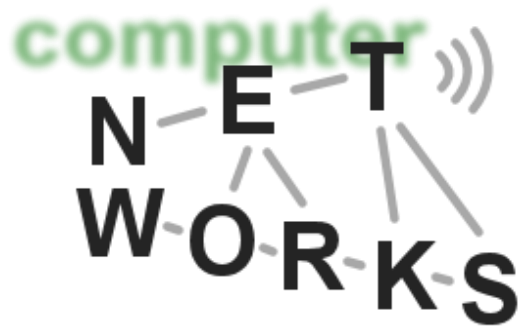


# Network Security - Part I

Computer Networks, Winter 2015/2016



# Chapter 7: 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 7 roadmap

7.1 What is network security?

7.2 Principles of cryptography

7.3 Message integrity

7.4 End point authentication

7.5 Securing e-mail

7.6 Securing TCP connections: SSL

7.7 Network layer security: IPsec

7.8 Securing wireless LANs

7.9 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

# What is network security?

**Confidentiality:** only sender, intended receiver should “understand” message contents

- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message

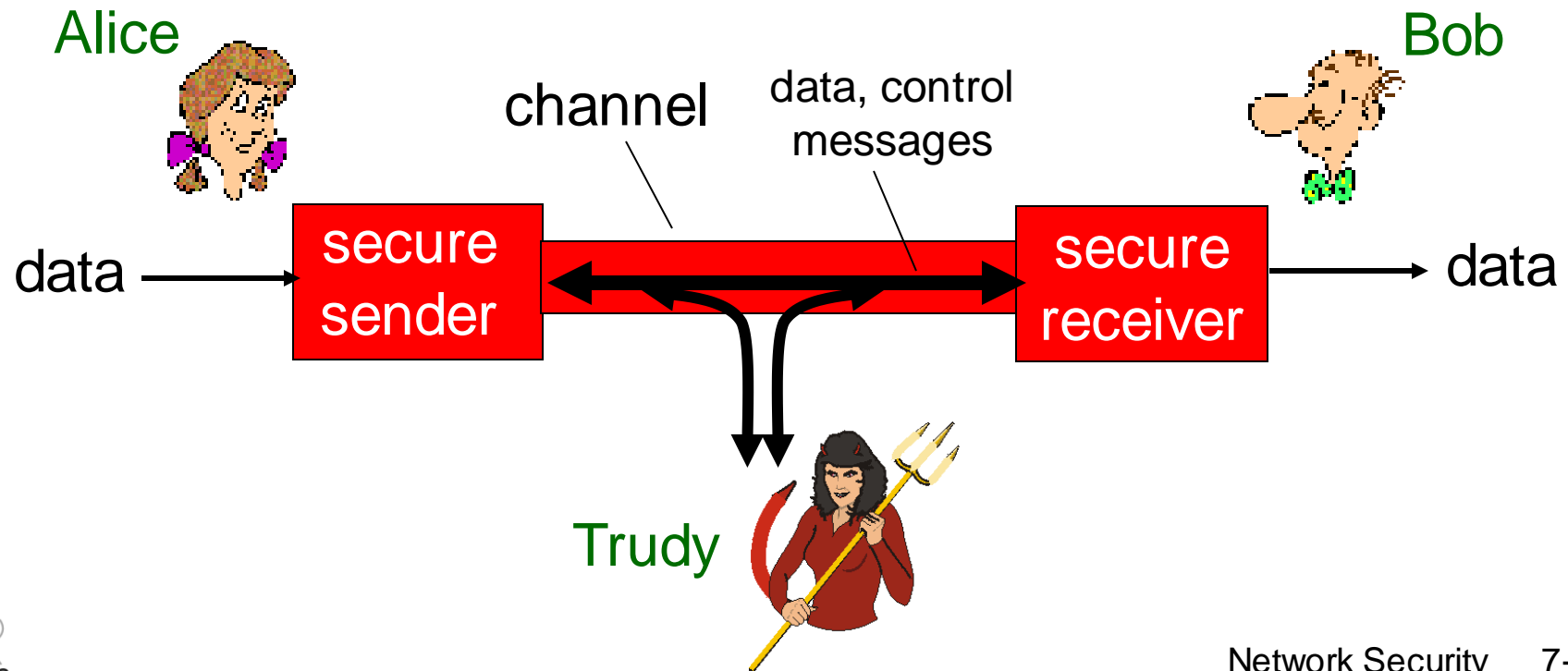
**Authentication:** sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

**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!

- *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 .....*

# Chapter 7 roadmap

7.1 What is network security?

7.2 Principles of cryptography

7.3 Message integrity

7.4 End point authentication

7.5 Securing e-mail

7.6 Securing TCP connections: SSL

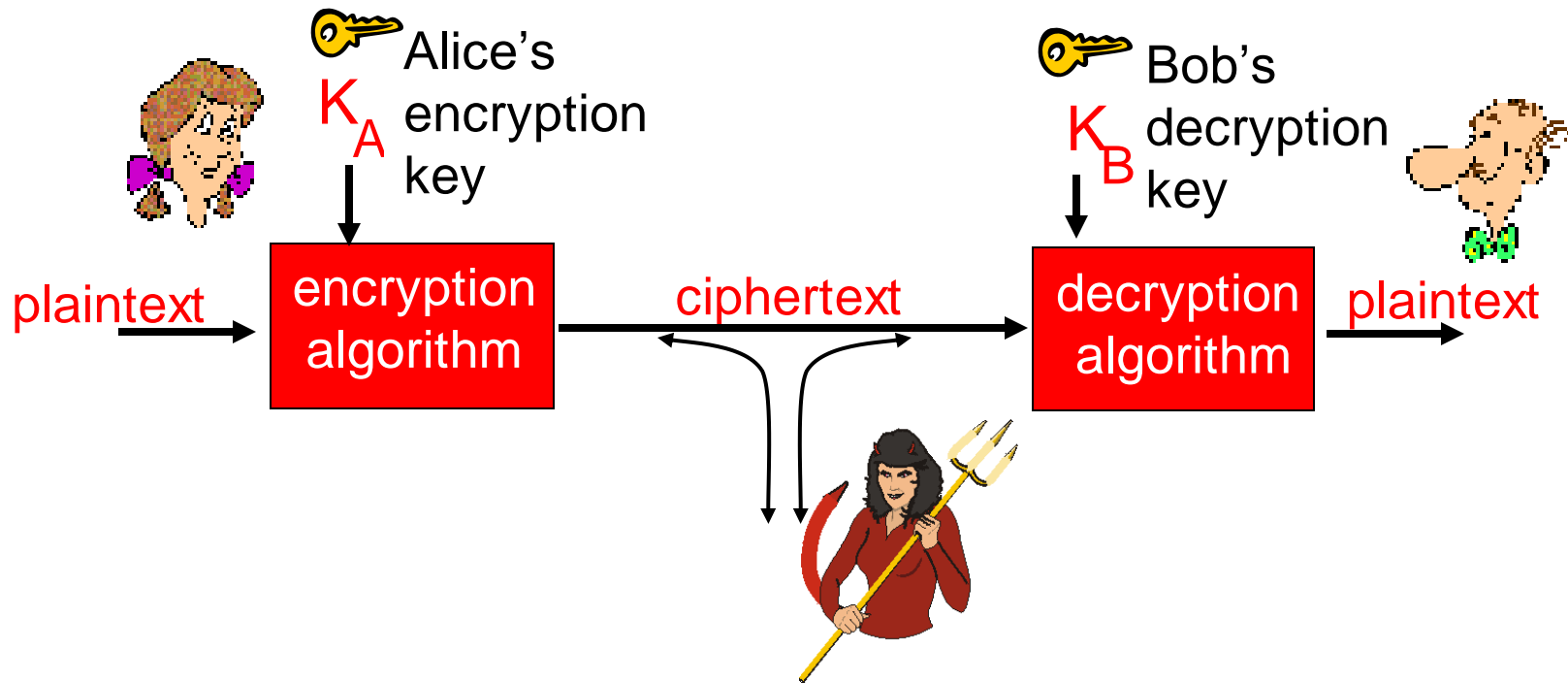
7.7 Network layer security: IPsec

7.8 Securing wireless LANs

7.9 Operational security: firewalls and IDS



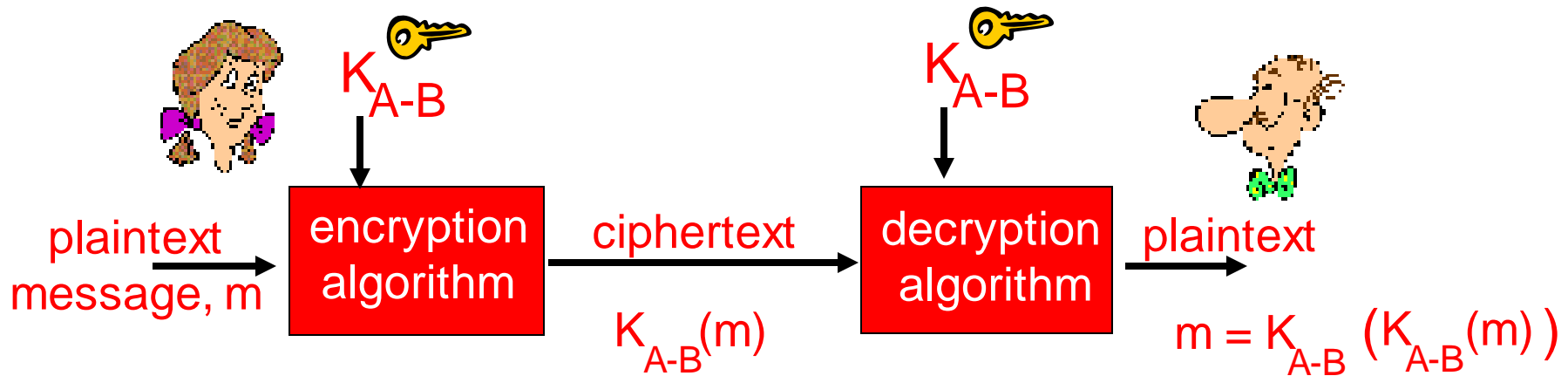
# The language of cryptography



**symmetric key** crypto: sender, receiver keys *identical*

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

# Symmetric key cryptography

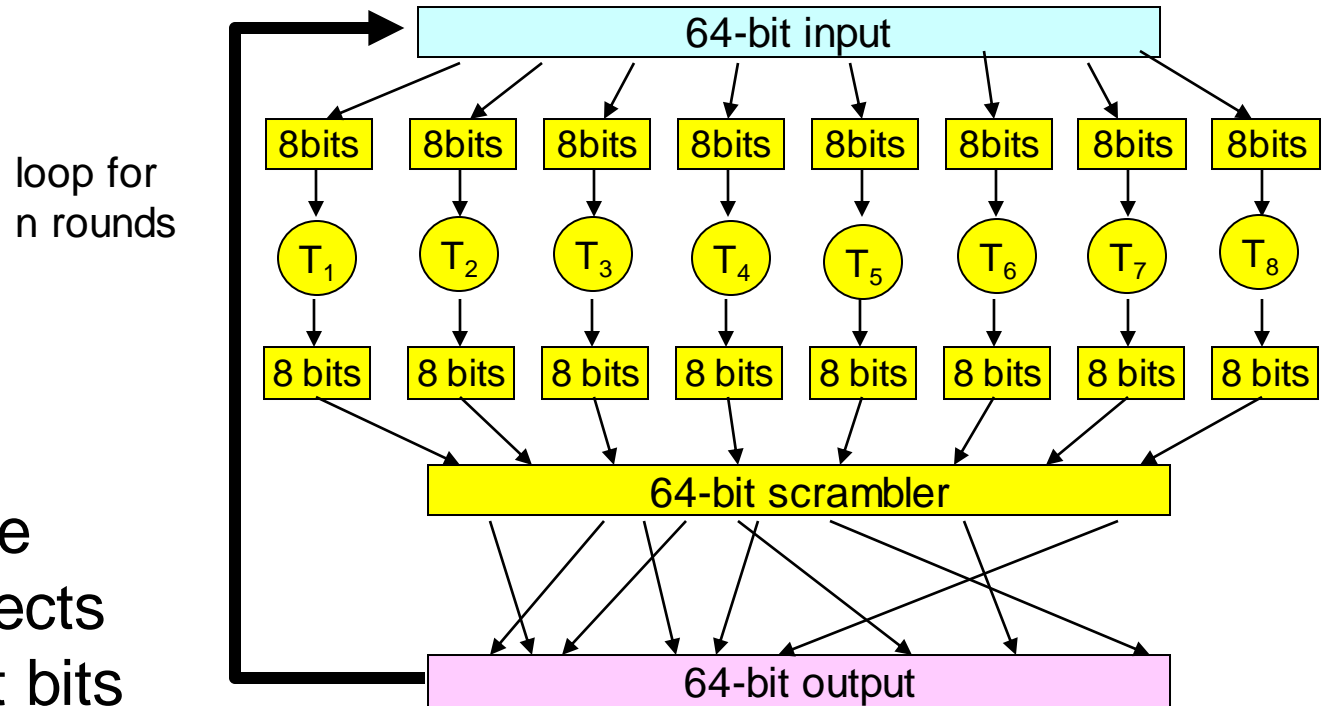


**symmetric key** crypto: Bob and Alice know same (symmetric) key:  $K_{A-B}$

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



# Block Cipher

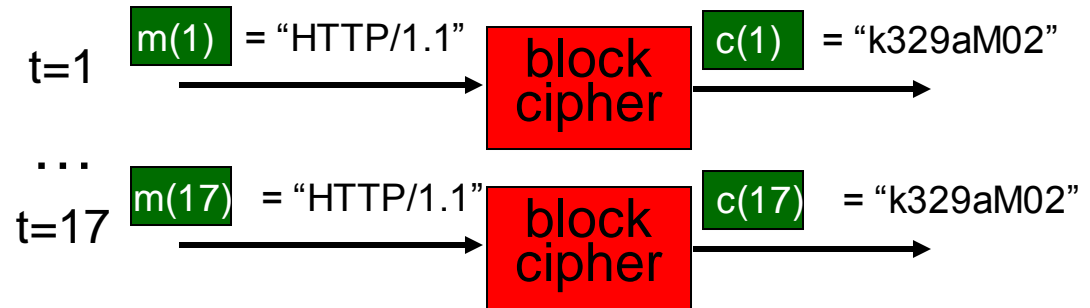


- one pass through: one input bit affects eight output bits

- multiple passes: each input bit affects all output bits
- block ciphers: DES, 3DES, AES

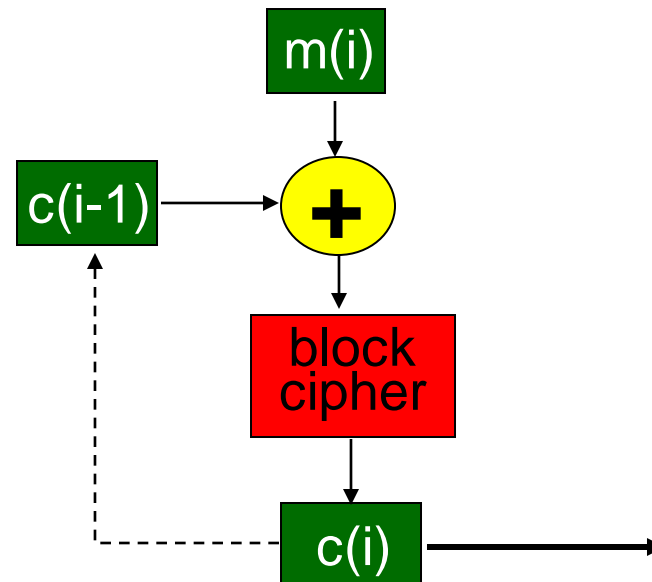
# Cipher Block Chaining

- cipher block: if input block repeated, will produce same cipher text:



- *cipher block chaining*: XOR ith input block,  $m(i)$ , with previous block of cipher text,  $c(i-1)$

- $c(0)$  transmitted to receiver in clear
- what happens in "HTTP/1.1" scenario from above?



# Symmetric key crypto: DES

## DES: Data Encryption Standard

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

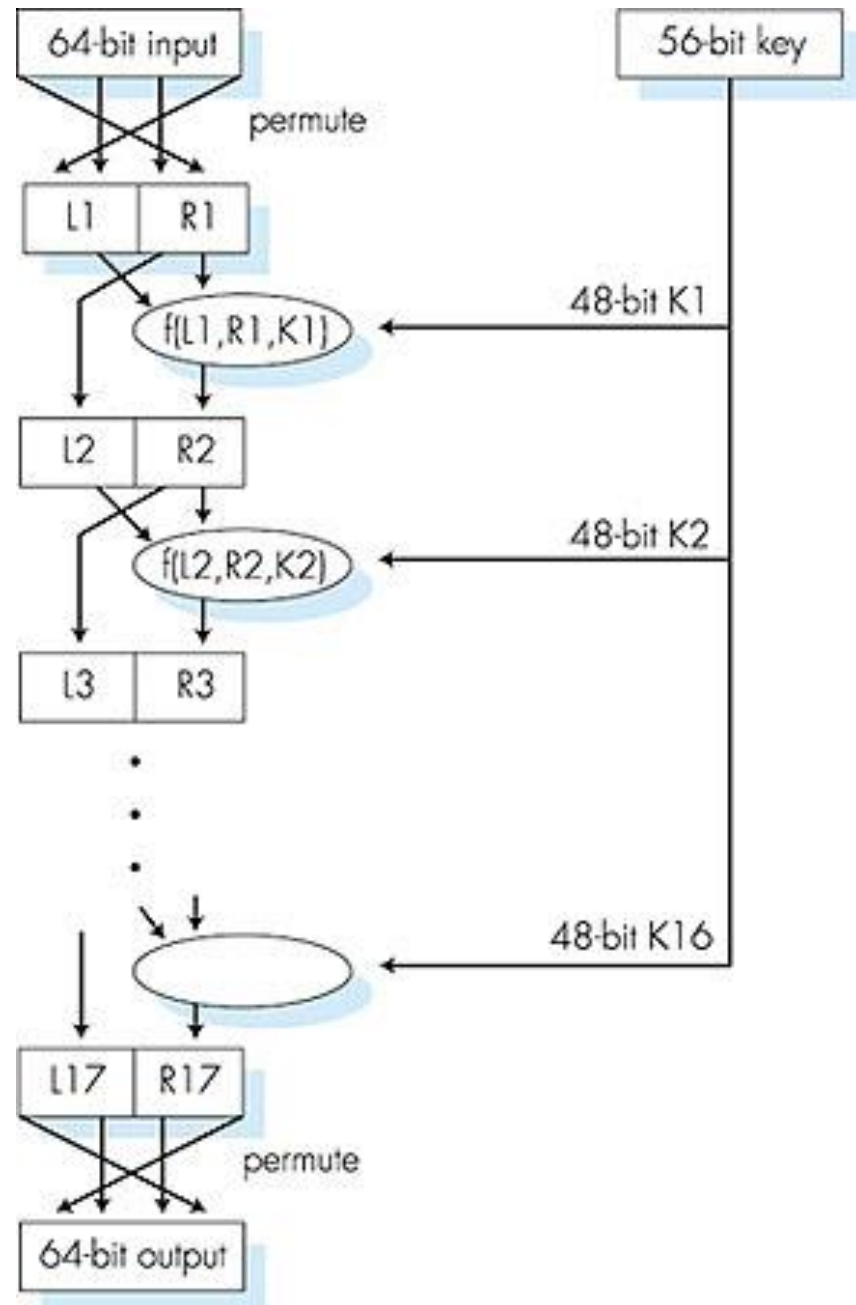
# Symmetric key crypto: DES

## DES operation

initial permutation

16 identical “rounds” of function application, each using different 48 bits of key

final permutation

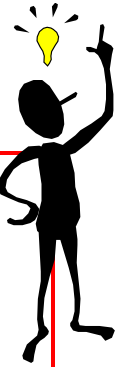


# AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- new (Nov. 2001) symmetric-key NIST standard, replacing DES
- processes data in 128 bit blocks
- 128, 192, or 256 bit keys
- brute force decryption (try each key) taking 1 sec on DES, takes 149 trillion years for AES



# Public key cryptography



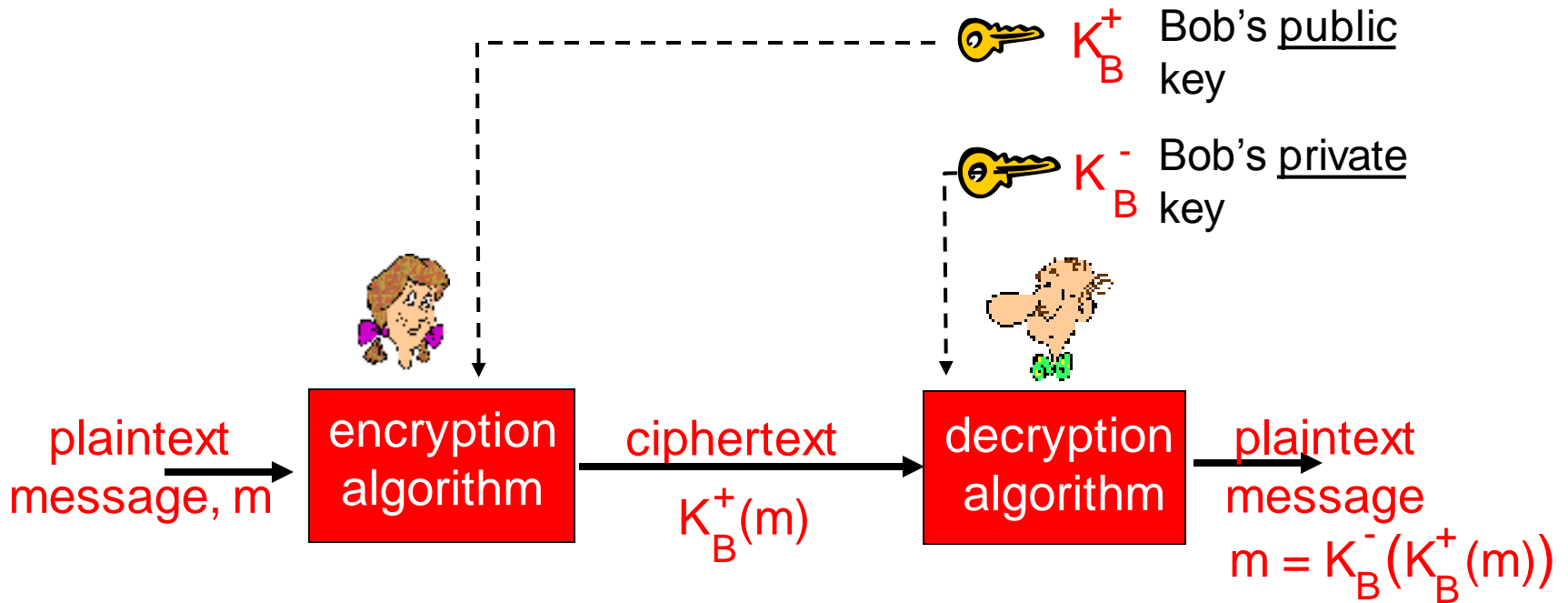
## *symmetric* key crypto:

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

## *public* key cryptography:

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

# Public key cryptography



# 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, Adleman algorithm

# RSA: Choosing keys

1. Choose two large prime numbers  $p, q$ .  
(e.g., 1024 bits each)
2. Compute  $n = pq$ ,  $z = (p-1)(q-1)$   
 $n$  is called RSA module,  $Z$  is Euler's phi function of  $n$
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  $(n, d)$ .  
 $\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{K_B^+}$                        $\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{K_B^-}$

# 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!

$$m = \underbrace{(m^e \bmod n)}_c^d \bmod n$$

# RSA example:

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

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

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

encrypt:	<u>letter</u>	<u>m</u>	<u><math>m^e</math></u>	<u><math>c = m^e \bmod n</math></u>
	I	12	248832	17
decrypt:	<u>c</u>	<u><math>c^d</math></u>	<u><math>m = c^d \bmod n</math></u>	<u>letter</u>
	17	481968572106750915091411825223071697	12	I

# RSA: another important property

The following property will be *very* useful later:

$$\underbrace{K_B^-(K_B^+(m))}_{\text{use public key first, followed by private key}} = m = \underbrace{K_B^+(K_B^-(m))}_{\text{use private key first, followed by public key}}$$

use public key  
first, followed by  
private key

use private key  
first, followed by  
public key

*Result is the same!*

# Public vs Symmetric Key?

Public Key cryptography removes need for key exchange

But: It's slow (at least a factor of 100x slower)

A combination of both is often used in practice.

How would that look like?



# Chapter 7 roadmap

7.1 What is network security?

7.2 Principles of cryptography

7.3 Message integrity

7.4 End point authentication

7.5 Securing e-mail

7.6 Securing TCP connections: SSL

7.7 Network layer security: IPsec

7.8 Securing wireless LANs

7.9 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

# Message Integrity

Bob receives msg from Alice, wants to ensure:

- message originally came from Alice
- message not changed since sent by Alice

## Cryptographic Hash:

- takes input  $m$ , produces fixed length value,  $H(m)$ 
  - e.g., as in Internet checksum
- computationally infeasible to find two different messages,  $x$ ,  $y$  such that  $H(x) = H(y)$ 
  - equivalently: given  $m = H(x)$ , ( $x$  unknown), can not determine  $x$ .
  - note: Internet checksum *fails* this requirement!

# Internet checksum: poor crypto hash function

Internet checksum has some properties of hash function:

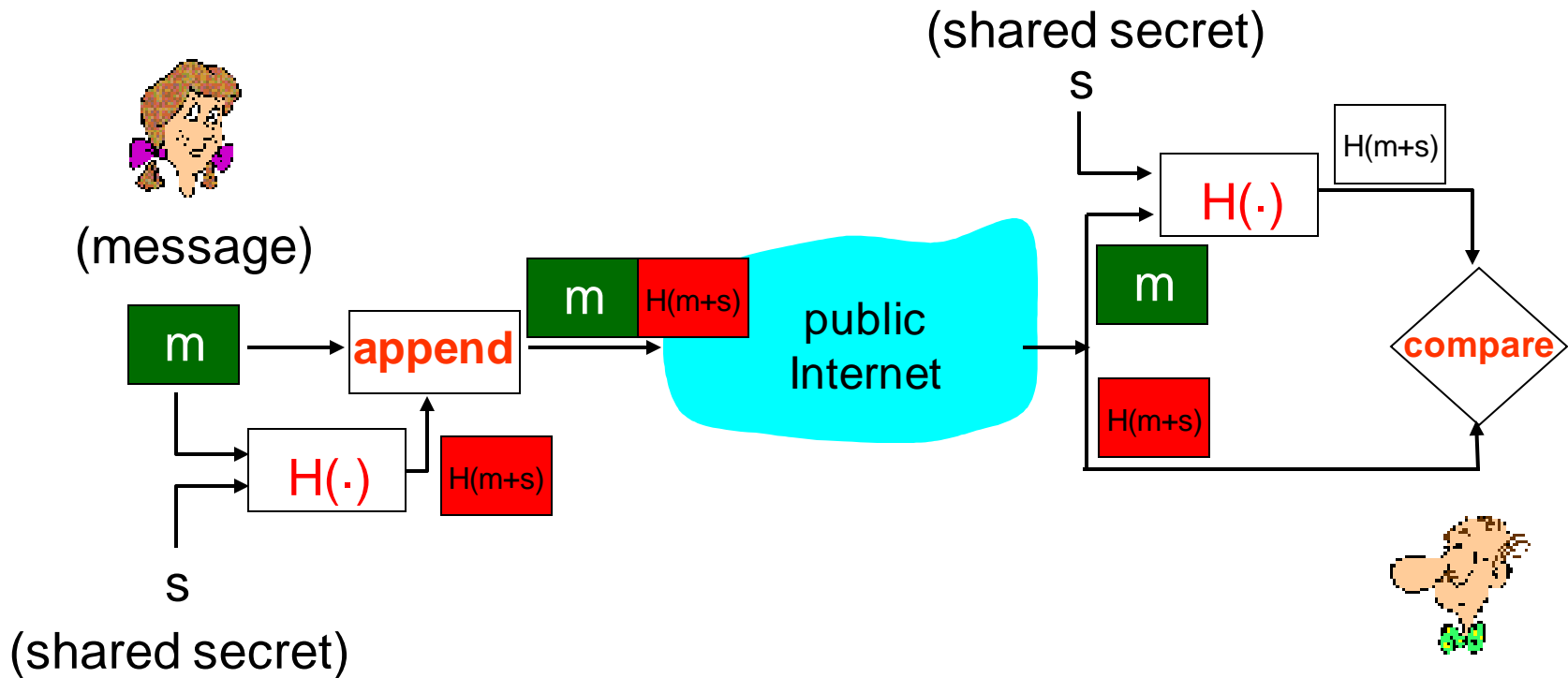
- ✓ produces fixed length digest (16-bit sum) of message
- ✓ is many-to-one

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

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

different messages  
but identical checksums!

# Message Authentication Code



# MACs in practice

- MD5 hash function widely used (RFC 1321)
  - computes 128-bit MAC in 4-step process.
  - arbitrary 128-bit string  $x$ , appears difficult to construct msg  $m$  whose MD5 hash is equal to  $x$ 
    - 2005: attacks on MD5
- SHA-1 is also used
  - US standard [NIST, FIPS PUB 180-1]
  - 160-bit MAC
  - Could also use SHA-256, -384, -512

# Digital Signatures

cryptographic technique analogous to handwritten signatures.

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


# Digital Signatures

simple digital signature for message  $m$ :

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

Bob's message,  $m$

Dear Alice  
Oh, how I have missed you. I think of you all the time! ... (blah blah blah)  
Bob

  $K_B^-$  Bob's private key

public key  
encryption  
algorithm

$K_B^-(m)$

Bob's message,  
 $m$ , signed  
(encrypted) with  
his private key

# Digital Signatures (more)

- suppose Alice receives msg  $m$ , digital signature  $K_B^-(\bar{m})$
- 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  $m'$ .

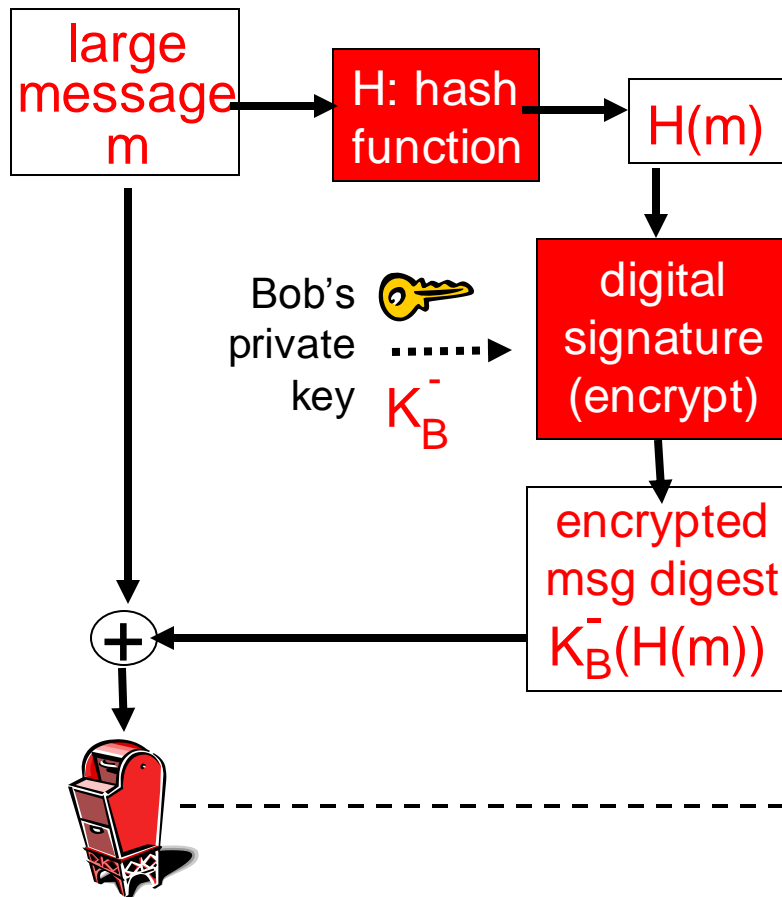
non-repudiation:

- ✓ Alice can take  $m$ , and signature  $K_B^-(\bar{m})$  to court and prove that Bob signed  $m$ .

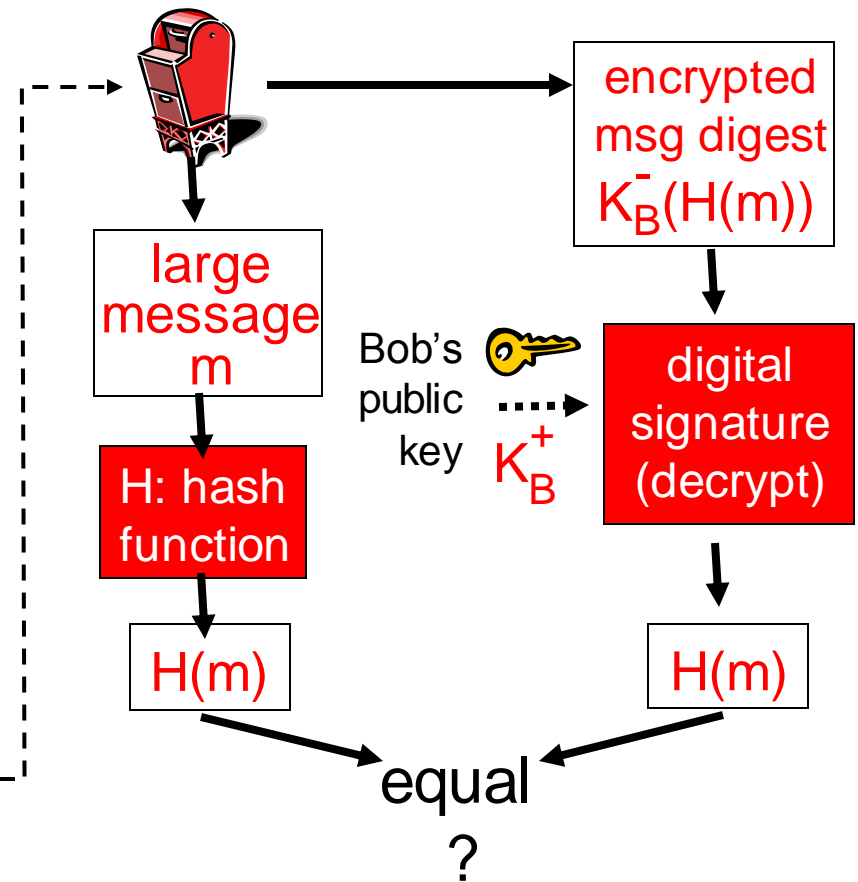


# Digital signature = signed MAC

Bob sends digitally signed message:



Alice verifies signature and integrity of digitally signed message:



# Public Key Certification

## public key problem:

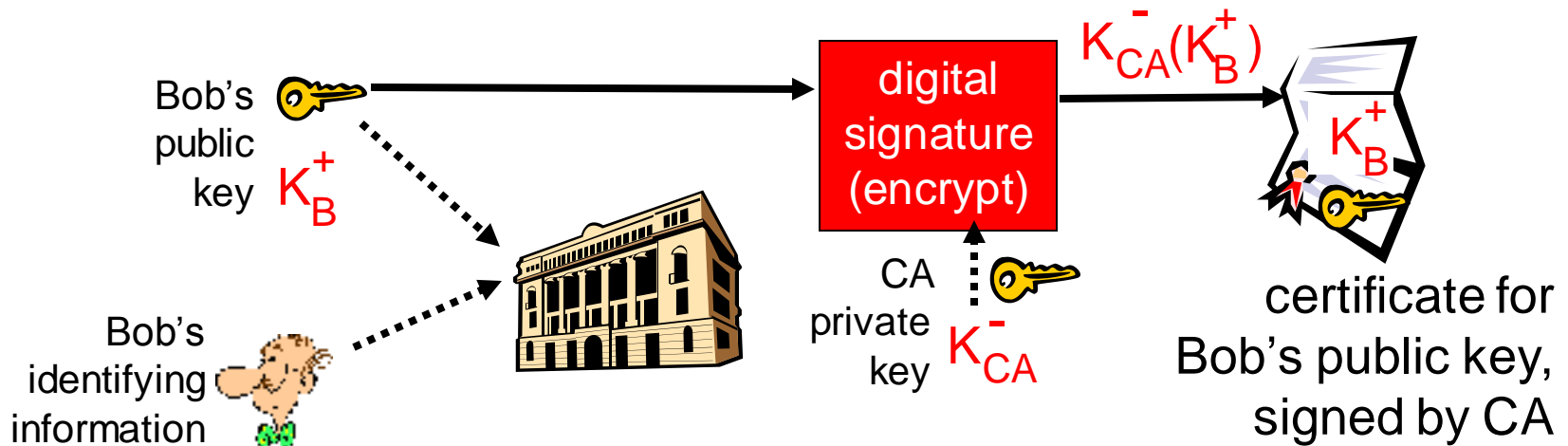
- When Alice obtains Bob's public key (from web site, e-mail, disk), how does she *know* it is Bob's public key, not Trudy's?

## solution:

- trusted certification authority (CA)

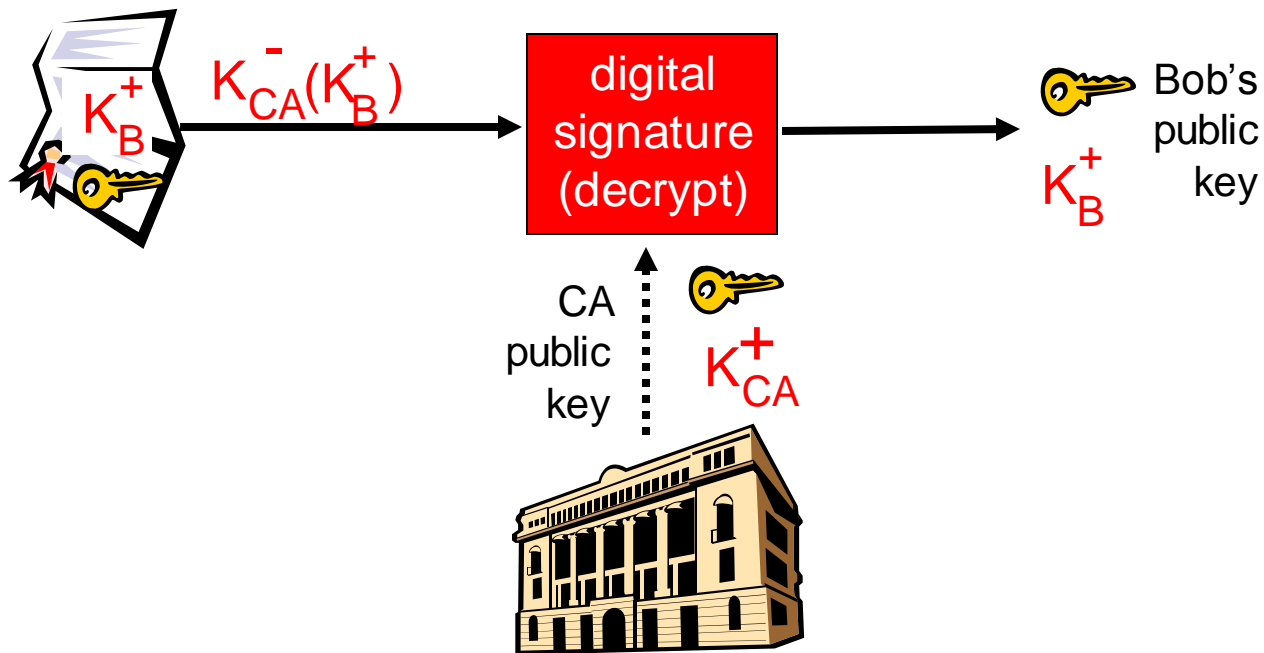
# Certification Authorities

- Certification Authority (CA): binds public key to particular entity, E.
- E 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.”



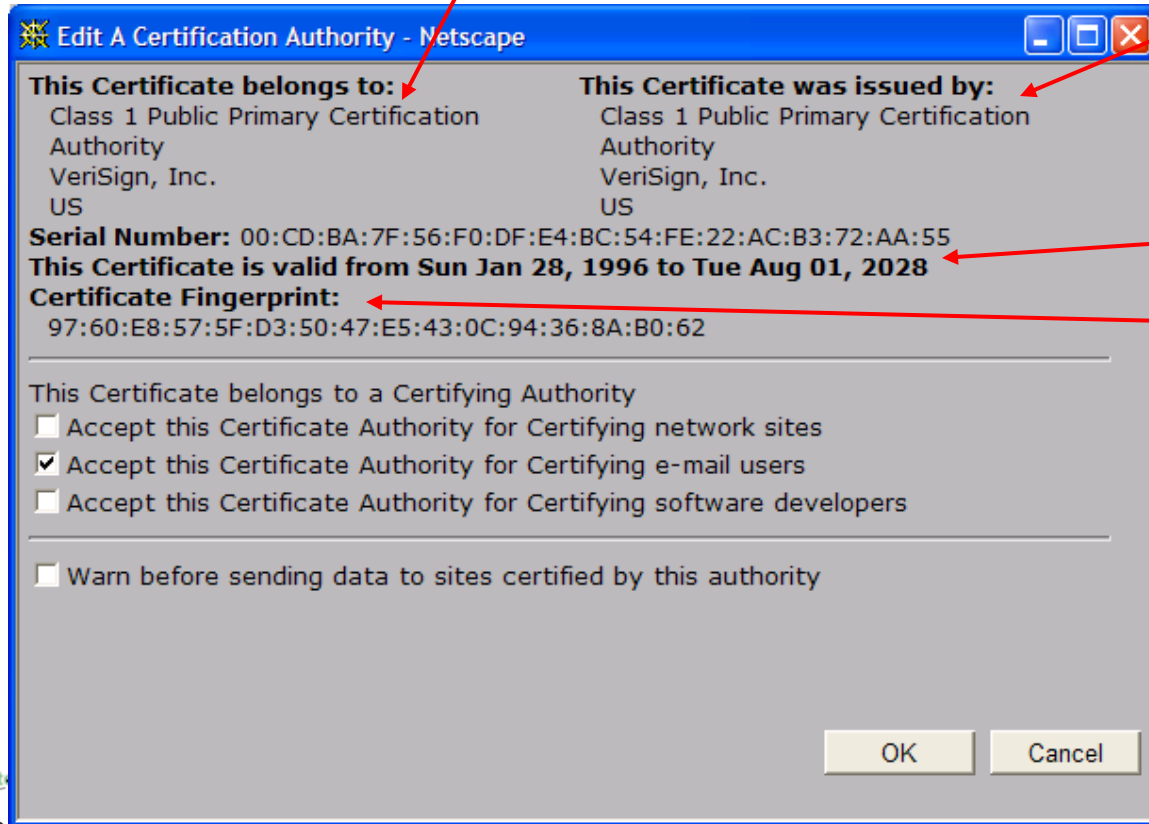
# Certification Authorities

- 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



# 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

# Chapter 7 roadmap

7.1 What is network security?

7.2 Principles of cryptography

7.3 Message integrity

7.4 End point authentication

7.5 Securing e-mail

7.6 Securing TCP connections: SSL

7.7 Network layer security: IPsec

7.8 Securing wireless LANs

7.9 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

# Authentication

**Goal:** Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

Protocol ap1.0: Alice says “I am Alice”



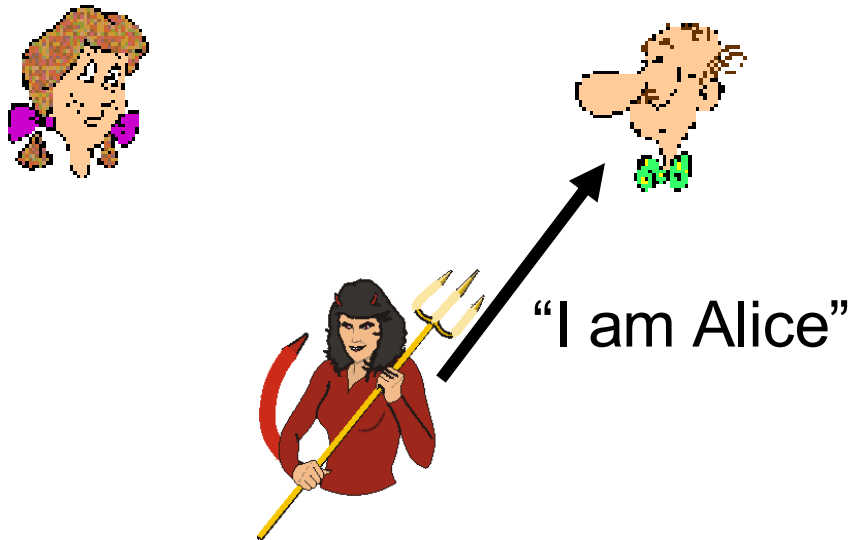
Failure scenario??



# Authentication

**Goal:** Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

Protocol ap1.0: Alice says “I am Alice”

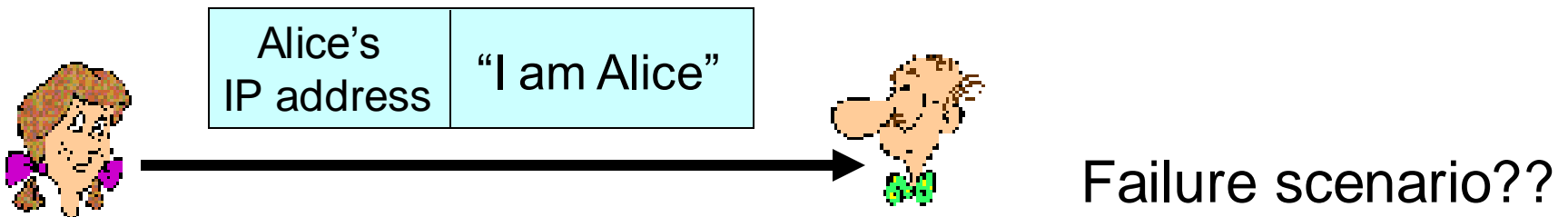


in a network,  
Bob can not “see” Alice,  
so Trudy simply  
declares  
herself to be Alice



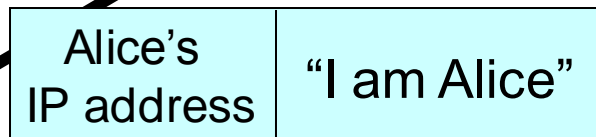
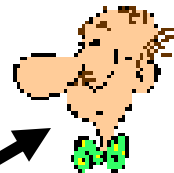
# Authentication: another try

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



# Authentication: another try

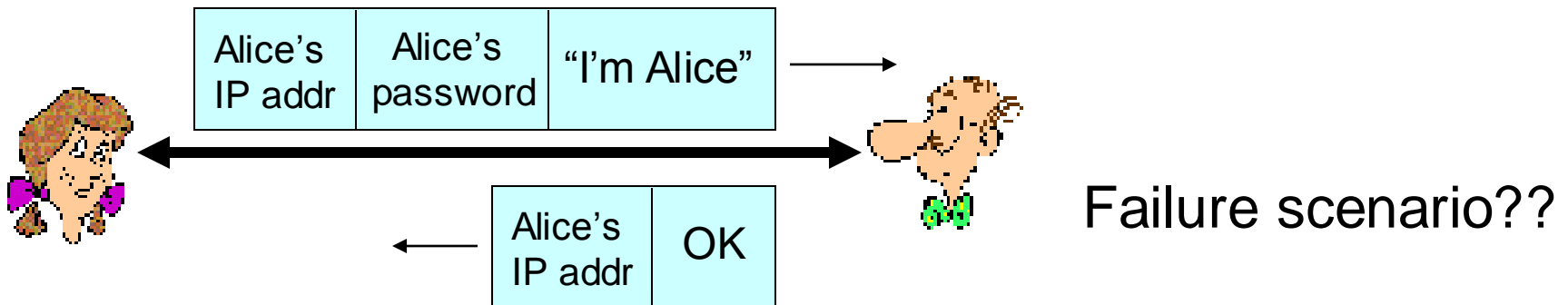
Protocol ap2.0: Alice says “I am Alice” in an IP packet containing her source IP address



Trudy can create a packet “spoofing” Alice’s address

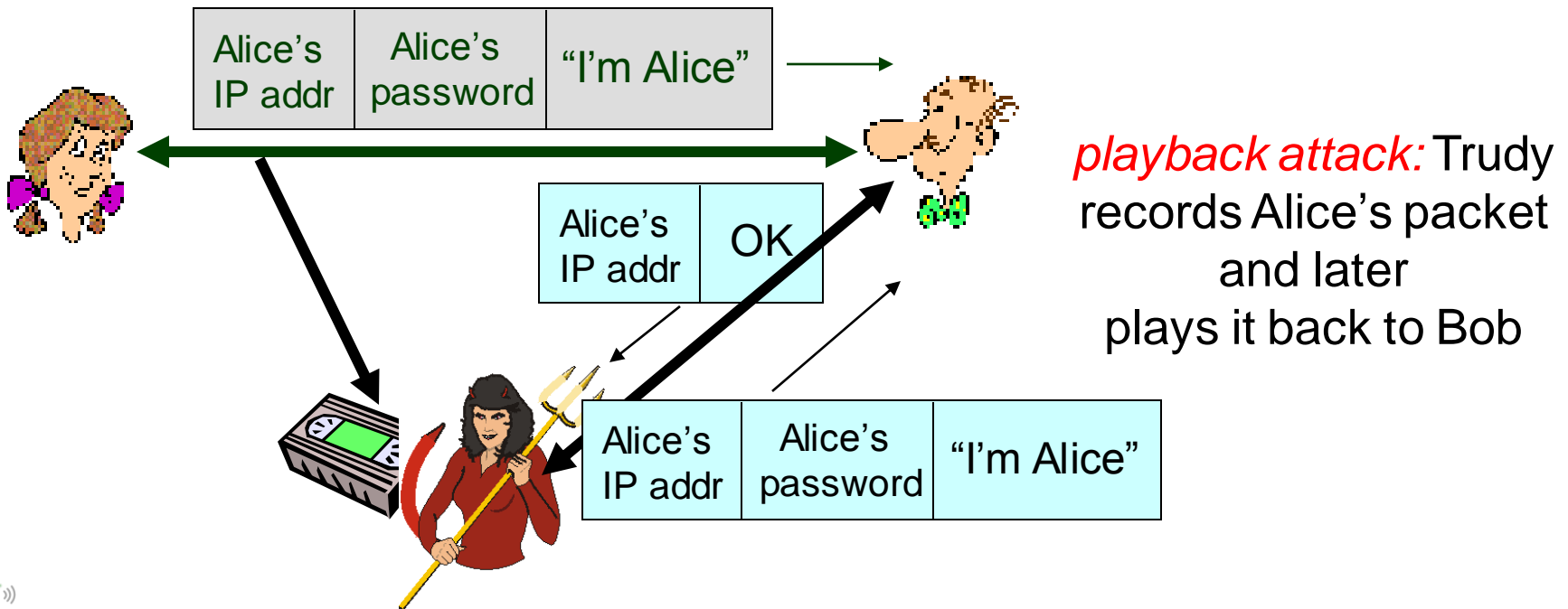
# Authentication: another try

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



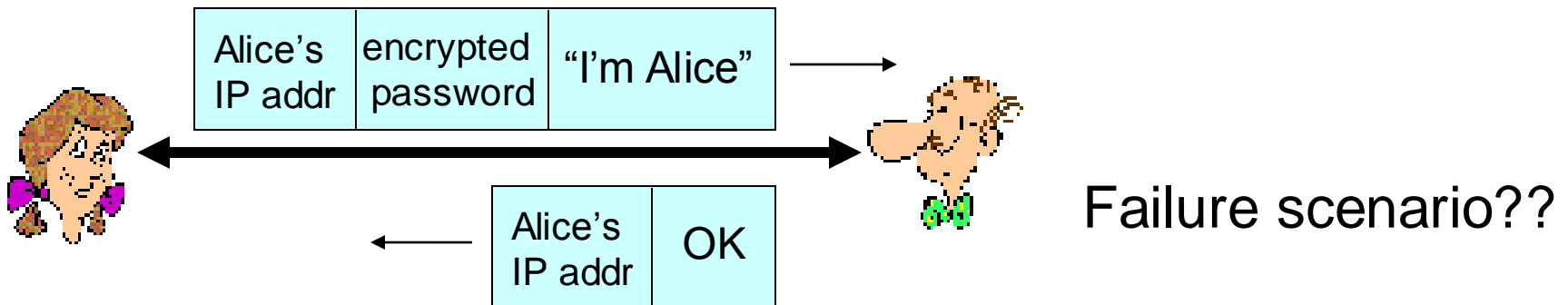
# Authentication: another try

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



# Authentication: yet another try

Protocol ap3.1: Alice says “I am Alice” and sends her *encrypted* secret password to “prove” it.

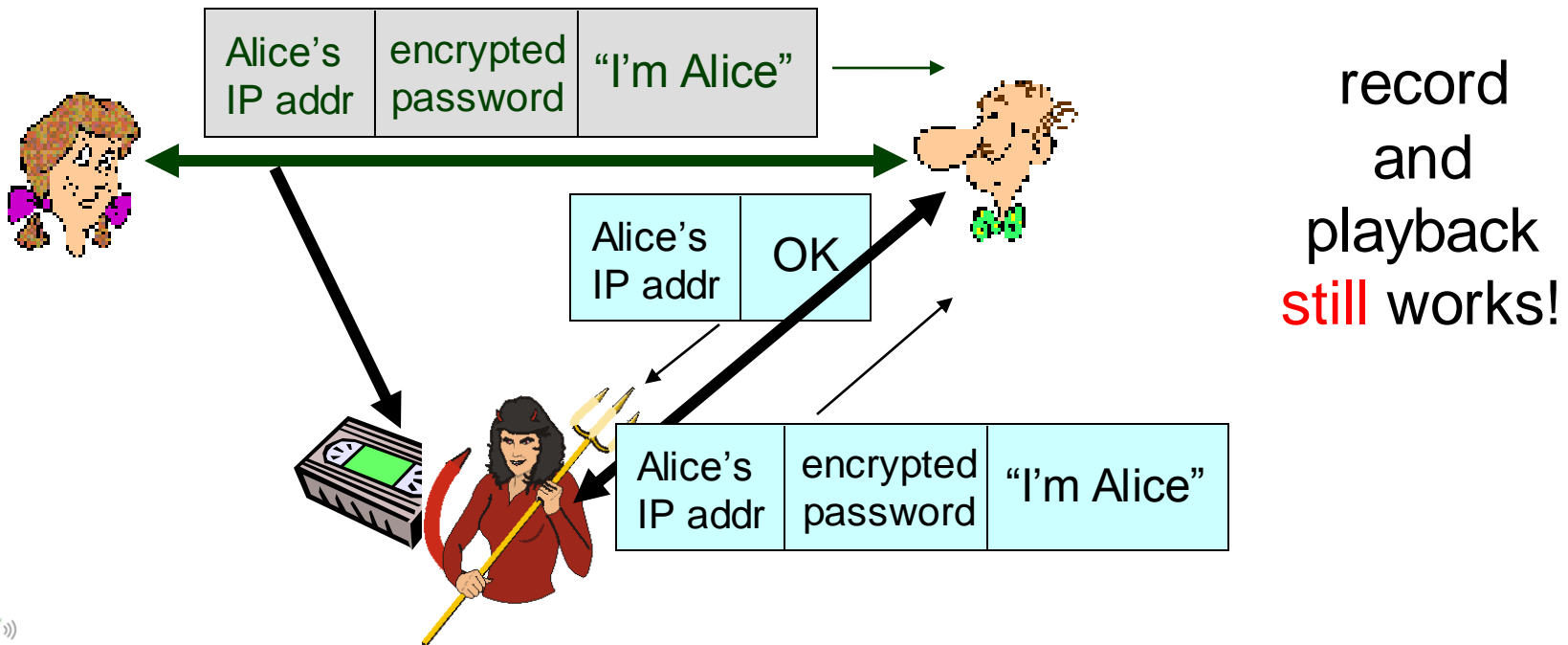


Failure scenario??



# Authentication: another try

Protocol ap3.1: Alice says “I am Alice” and sends her *encrypted* secret password to “prove” it.

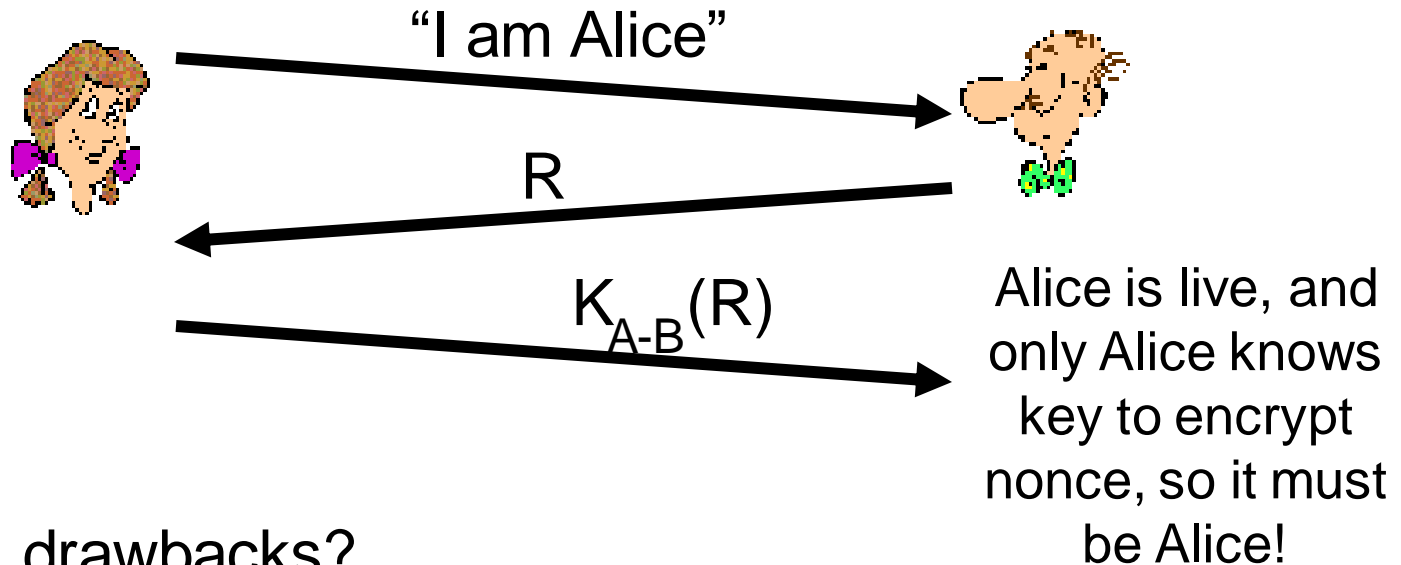


# Authentication: yet another try

Goal: avoid playback attack

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

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



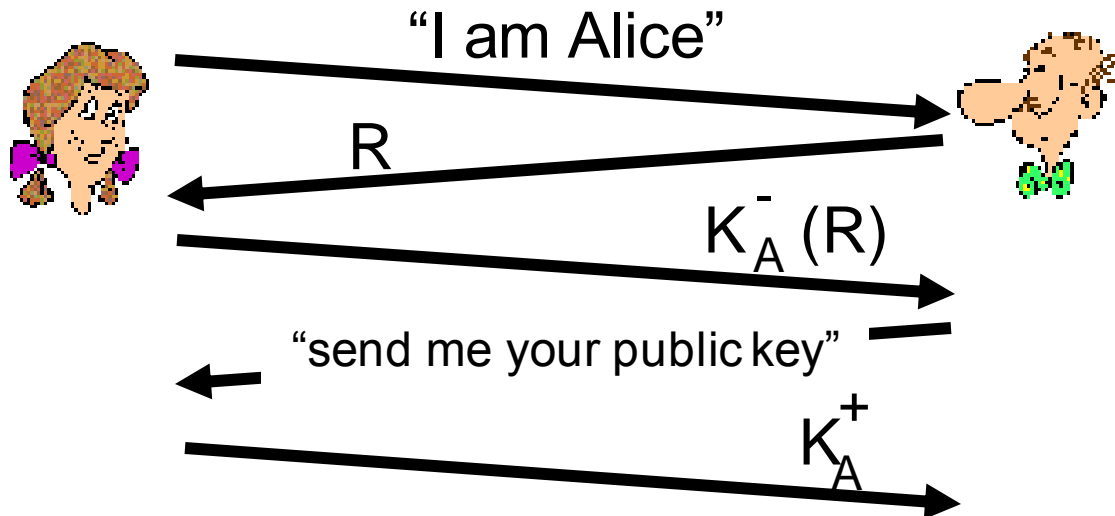
Failures, drawbacks?

# Authentication: ap5.0

ap4.0 requires shared symmetric key

- can we authenticate using public key techniques?

ap5.0: use nonce, public key cryptography

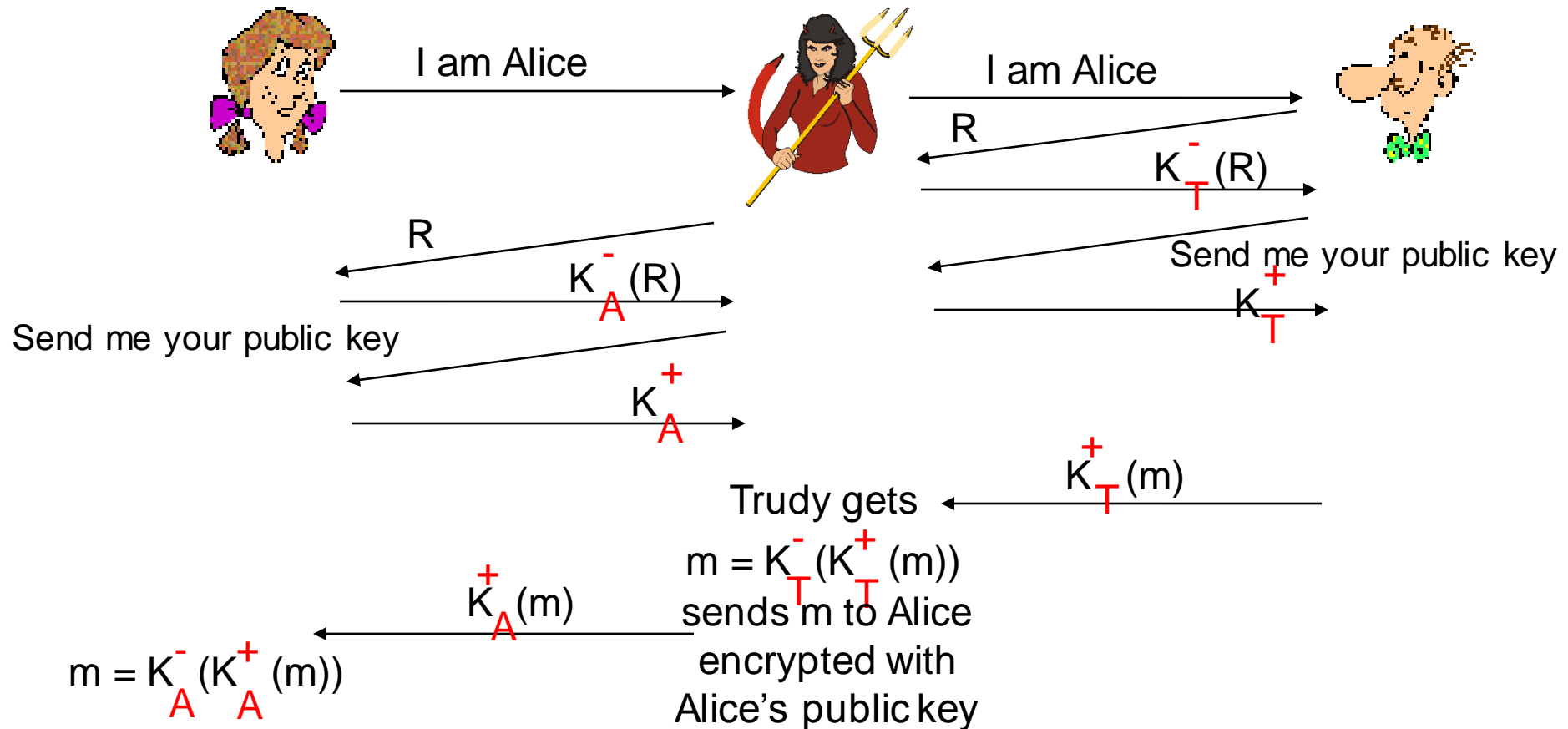


Bob computes  
 $K_A^+(K_A^-(R)) = R$   
and knows only Alice  
could have the private  
key, that encrypted  $R$   
such that  
 $K_A^+(K_A^-(R)) = R$



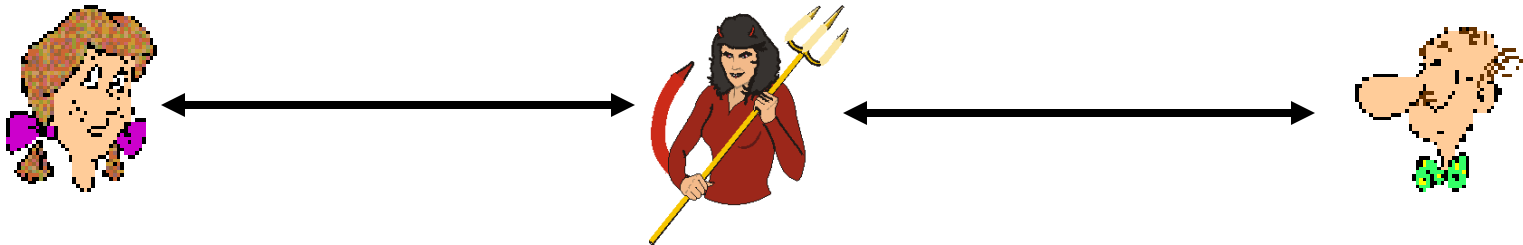
# ap5.0: security hole

Man (woman) in the middle attack: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)



# ap5.0: security hole

Man (woman) in the middle attack: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)



Difficult to detect:

- Bob receives everything that Alice sends, and vice versa. (e.g., so Bob, Alice can meet one week later and recall conversation)
- problem is that Trudy receives all messages as well!