System and Network Security

Based on original slides by
- Silberschatz, Galvin and Gagne
- Kurose and Ross

Objectives

- To discuss security threats and attacks
- To explain the fundamentals of encryption, authentication, and hashing
- To examine the uses of cryptography in computing
  - Secrecy
  - Message Integrity
  - Digital Signature
  - Authentication
- To describe the various countermeasures to security attacks

The Security Problem

- System **secure** if resources used and accessed as intended under all circumstances
  - Unachievable
- **Intruders** (**crackers**) attempt to breach security
- **Threat** is potential security violation
- **Attack** is attempt to breach security
- Attack can be accidental or malicious
- Easier to protect against accidental than malicious misuse

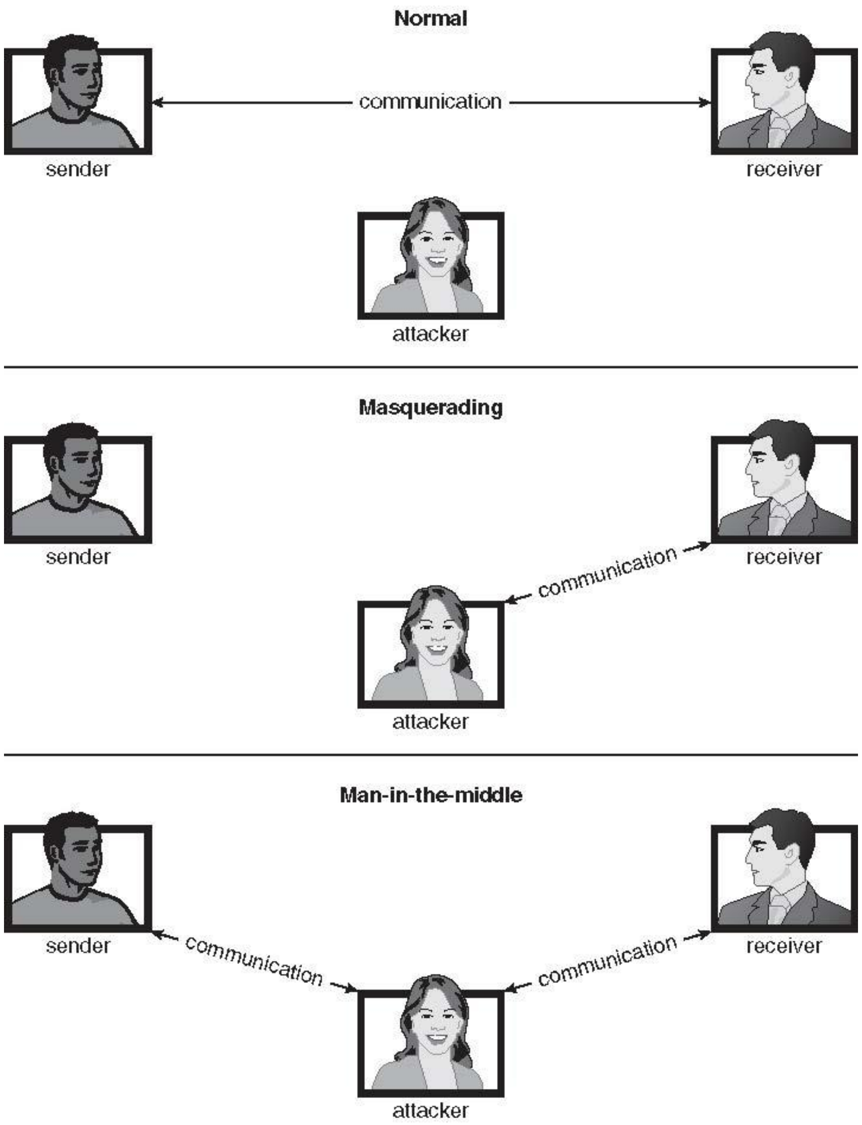
Security Violation Categories

- **Breach of confidentiality**
  - Unauthorized reading of data
- **Breach of integrity**
  - Unauthorized modification of data
- **Breach of availability**
  - Unauthorized destruction of data
- **Theft of service**
  - Unauthorized use of resources
- **Denial of service (DOS)**
  - Prevention of legitimate use

Security Violation Methods

- **Masquerading** (breach **authentication**)
  - Pretending to be an authorized user to escalate privileges
- **Replay attack**
  - As is or with **message modification**
- **Man-in-the-middle attack**
  - Intruder sits in data flow, masquerading as sender to receiver and vice versa
- **Session hijacking**
  - Intercept an already-established session to bypass authentication
- **Privilege escalation**
  - Common attack type with access beyond what a user or resource is supposed to have

Standard Security Attacks



Security Measure Levels

- Impossible to have absolute security, but make cost to perpetrator sufficiently high to deter most intruders
- Security must occur at four levels to be effective:
  - **Physical**
    - Data centers, servers, connected terminals
  - **Application**
    - Benign or malicious apps can cause security problems
  - **Operating System**
    - Protection mechanisms, debugging
  - **Network**
    - Intercepted communications, interruption, DOS
- Security is as weak as the weakest link in the chain
- Humans a risk too via **phishing** and **social-engineering** attacks
- But can too much security be a problem?

Program Threats

- Many variations, many names
- **Trojan Horse**
  - Code segment that misuses its environment
  - Exploits mechanisms for allowing programs written by users to be executed by other users
  - **Spyware**, **pop-up browser windows**, **covert channels**
  - Up to 80% of spam delivered by spyware-infected systems
- **Trap Door**
  - Specific user identifier or password that circumvents normal security procedures
  - Could be included in a compiler
  - How to detect them?

Program Threats (Cont.)

- **Malware -** Software designed to exploit, disable, or damage computer
- **Trojan Horse** – Program that acts in a clandestine manner
  - **Spyware** – Program frequently installed with legitimate software to display adds, capture user data
  - **Ransomware** – locks up data via encryption, demanding payment to unlock it
- Others include logic bombs
- All try to violate the Principle of Least Privilege

> ***THE PRINCIPLE OF LEAST PRIVILEGE***
>
> "The principle of least privilege. Every program and every privileged user of the system should operate using the least amount of privilege necessary to complete the job. The purpose of this principle is to reduce the number of potential interactions among privileged programs to the minimum necessary to operate correctly, so that one may develop confidence that unintentional, unwanted, or improper uses of privilege do not occur."—Jerome H. Saltzer, describing a design principle of the Multics operating system in 1974: https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/1c8d/06510ad449ad24fbdd164f8008cc730cab47.pdf.

- Goal frequently is to leave behind Remote Access Tool (RAT) for repeated access

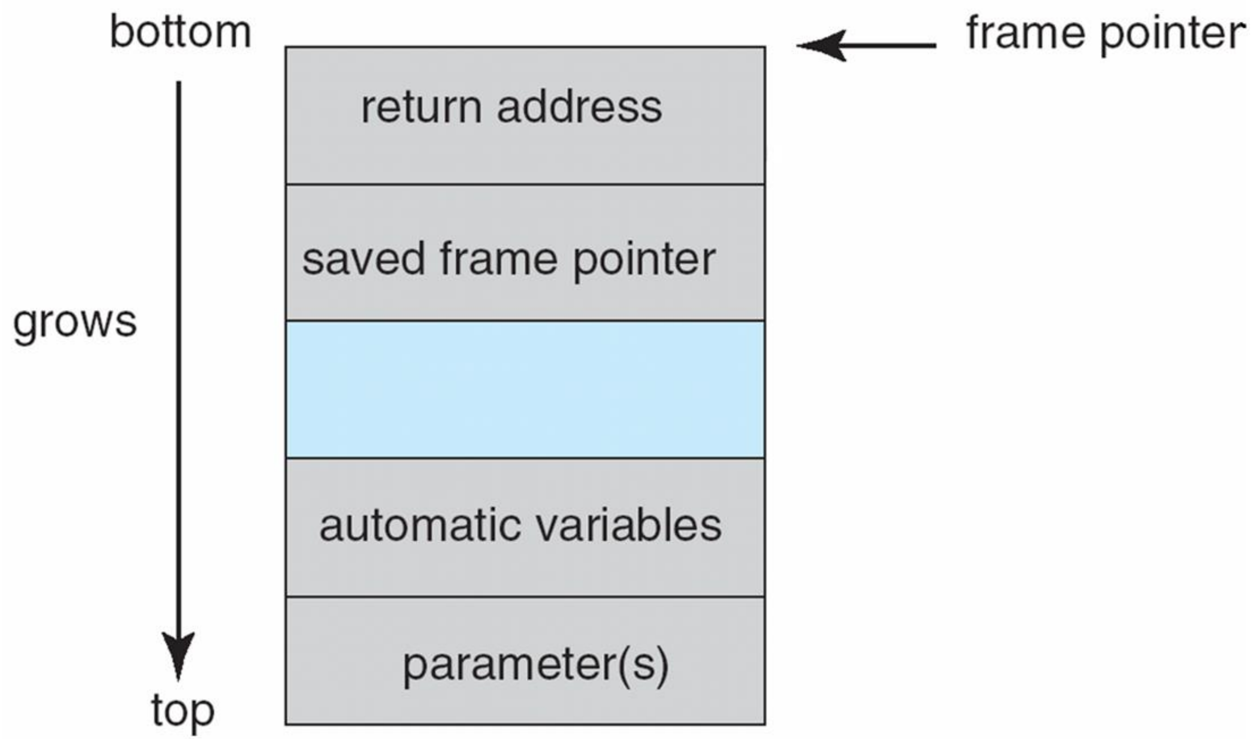
C Program with Buffer-overflow Condition

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define BUFFER_SIZE 256
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
   char buffer[BUFFER_SIZE];
   if (argc < 2)
        return -1;
   else {
        strcpy(buffer,argv[1]);
        return 0;
   }
}
```

C Program without Buffer-overflow Condition

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define BUFFER_SIZE 256
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
   char buffer[BUFFER_SIZE];
   if (argc < 2)
        return -1;
   else {
        strncpy(buffer, argv[1], sizeof(buffer)-1);
        return 0;
   }
}
```

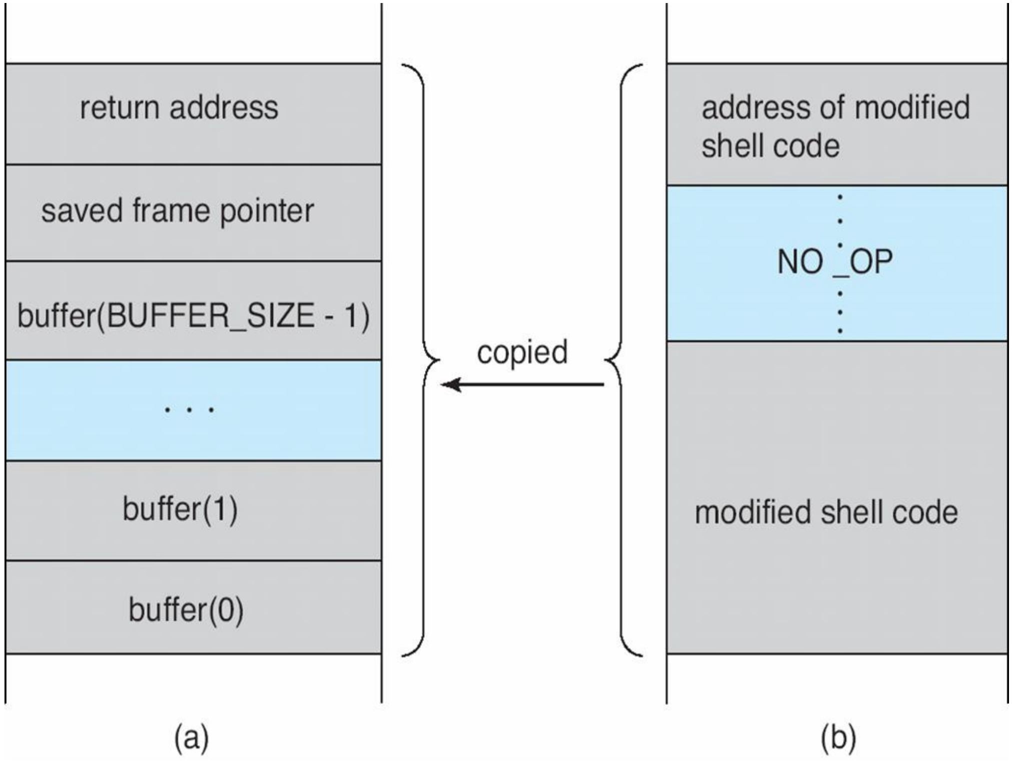
Layout of Typical Stack Frame



Modified Shell Code

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
   execvp(‘‘\bin\sh’’,‘‘\bin \sh’’, NULL);
   return 0;
}
```

Hypothetical Stack Frame



Before attack

After attack

Great Programming Required?

- For the first step of determining the bug, and second step of writing exploit code, yes
- Script kiddies can run pre-written exploit code to attack a given system
- Attack code can get a shell with the processes' owner's permissions
  - Or open a network port, delete files, download a program, etc
- Depending on bug, attack can be executed across a network using allowed connections, bypassing firewalls
- Buffer overflow can be disabled by disabling stack execution or adding bit to page table to indicate "non-executable" state
  - Available in SPARC and x86

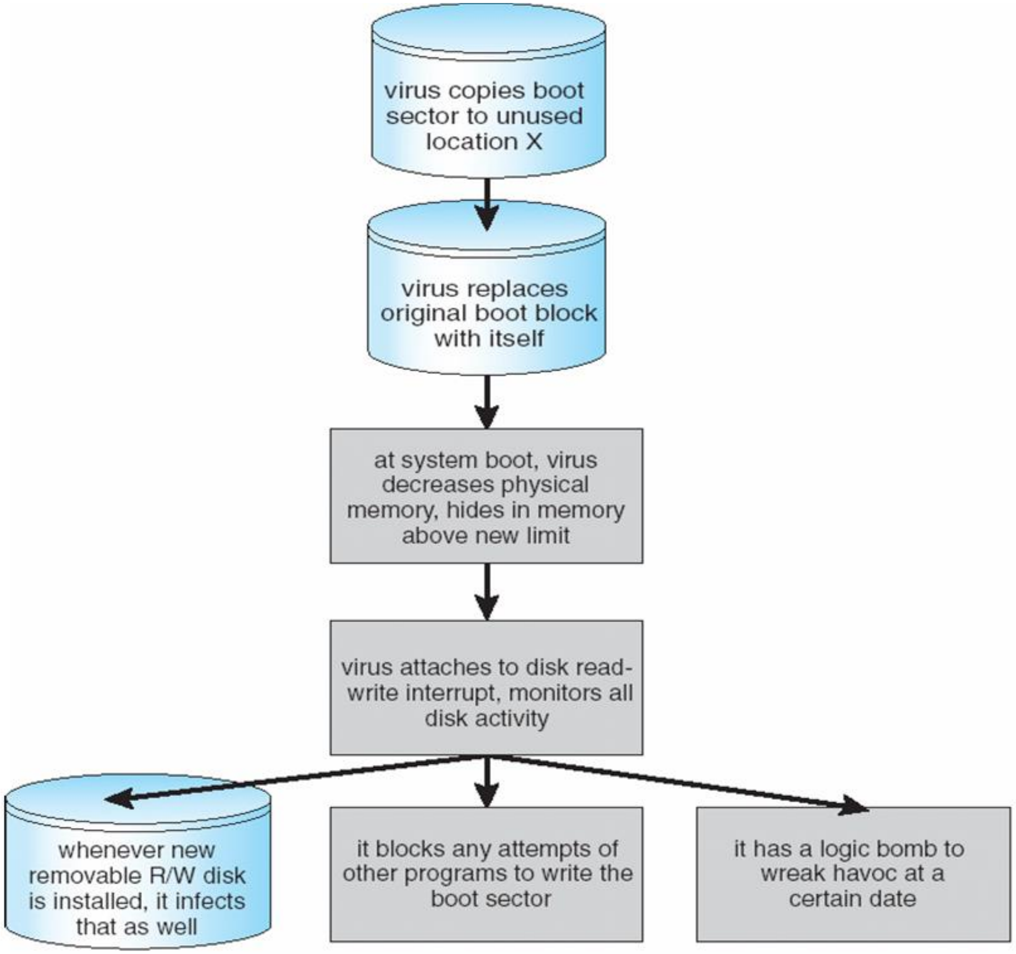
Program Threats (Cont.)

- **Viruses**
  - Code fragment embedded in legitimate program
  - Self-replicating, designed to infect other computers
  - Very specific to CPU architecture, operating system, applications
  - Usually borne via email or as a macro
    - e.g. Macro to reformat hard drive

Program Threats (Cont.)

- **Virus dropper** inserts virus onto the system
- Many categories of viruses, literally many thousands of viruses
  - File / parasitic
  - Boot / memory
  - Macro
  - Source code
  - Polymorphic to avoid having a **virus signature**
  - Encrypted
  - Stealth
  - Tunneling
  - Multipartite
  - Armored

A Boot-sector Computer Virus



The Threat Continues

- Attacks still common, still occurring
- Attacks moved over time from science experiments to tools of organized crime
  - Targeting specific companies
  - Creating botnets to use as tool for spam and DDOS delivery
  - **Keystroke logger** to grab passwords, credit card numbers
- Why is Windows the target for most attacks?
  - Most common
  - Everyone is an administrator
  - Monoculture considered harmful

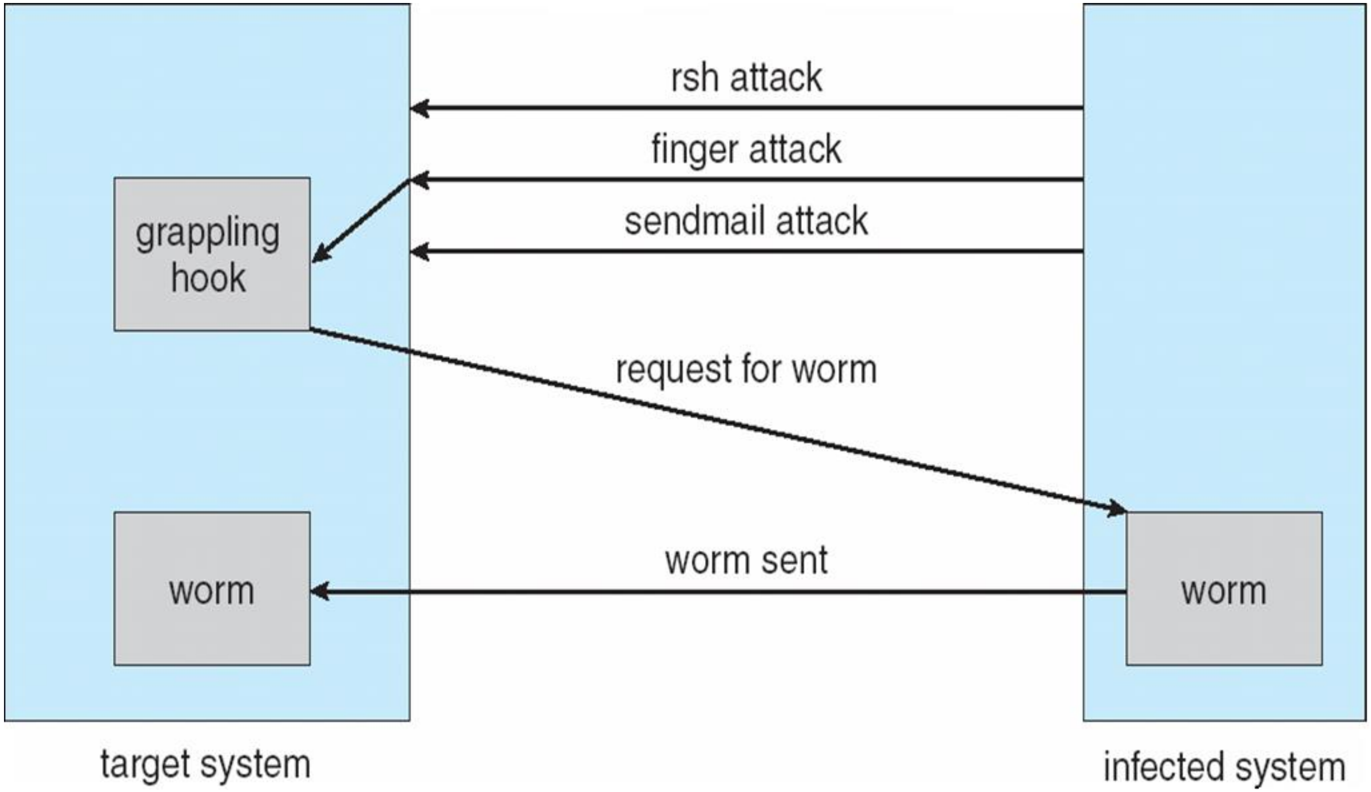
System and Network Threats

- Some systems "open" rather than **secure by default**
  - Reduce **attack surface**
  - But harder to use, more knowledge needed to administer
- Network threats harder to detect, prevent
  - Protection systems weaker
  - More difficult to have a shared secret on which to base access
  - No physical limits once system attached to internet
    - Or on network with system attached to internet
  - Even determining location of connecting system difficult
    - IP address is only knowledge

System and Network Threats (Cont.)

- **Worms** – use **spawn** mechanism; standalone program
- Internet worm
  - Exploited UNIX networking features (remote access) and bugs in *finger* and *sendmail* programs
  - Exploited trust-relationship mechanism used by *rsh* to access friendly systems without use of password
  - **Grappling hook** program uploaded main worm program
    - 99 lines of C code
  - Hooked system then uploaded main code, tried to attack connected systems
  - Also tried to break into other users accounts on local system via password guessing
  - If target system already infected, abort, except for every 7th time

The Morris Internet Worm

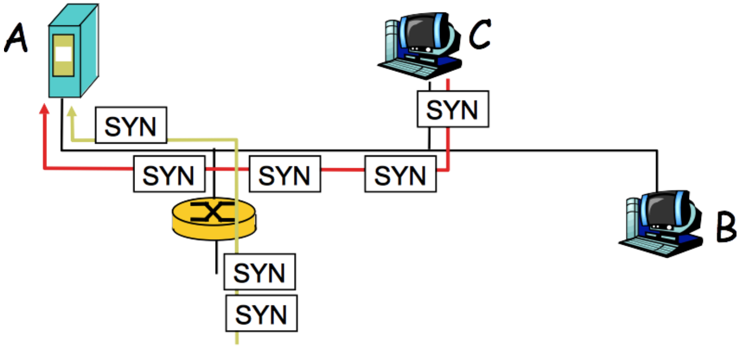


System and Network Threats (Cont.)

- **Port scanning**
  - Automated attempt to connect to a range of ports on one or a range of IP addresses
  - Detection of answering service protocol
  - Detection of OS and version running on system
  - `nmap` scans all ports in a given IP range for a response
  - `nessus` has a database of protocols and bugs (and exploits) to apply against a system
  - Frequently launched from **zombie systems**
    - To decrease trace-ability

System and Network Threats (Cont.)

- **Denial of Service**
  - Overload the targeted computer preventing it from doing any useful work
  - **Distributed denial-of-service** (**DDOS**) come from multiple sites at once
  - Consider the start of the IP-connection handshake (SYN)
    - How many started-connections can the OS handle?
    - SYN Flooding



  - Consider traffic to a web site
    - How can you tell the difference between being a target and being really popular?

Cryptography as a Security Tool

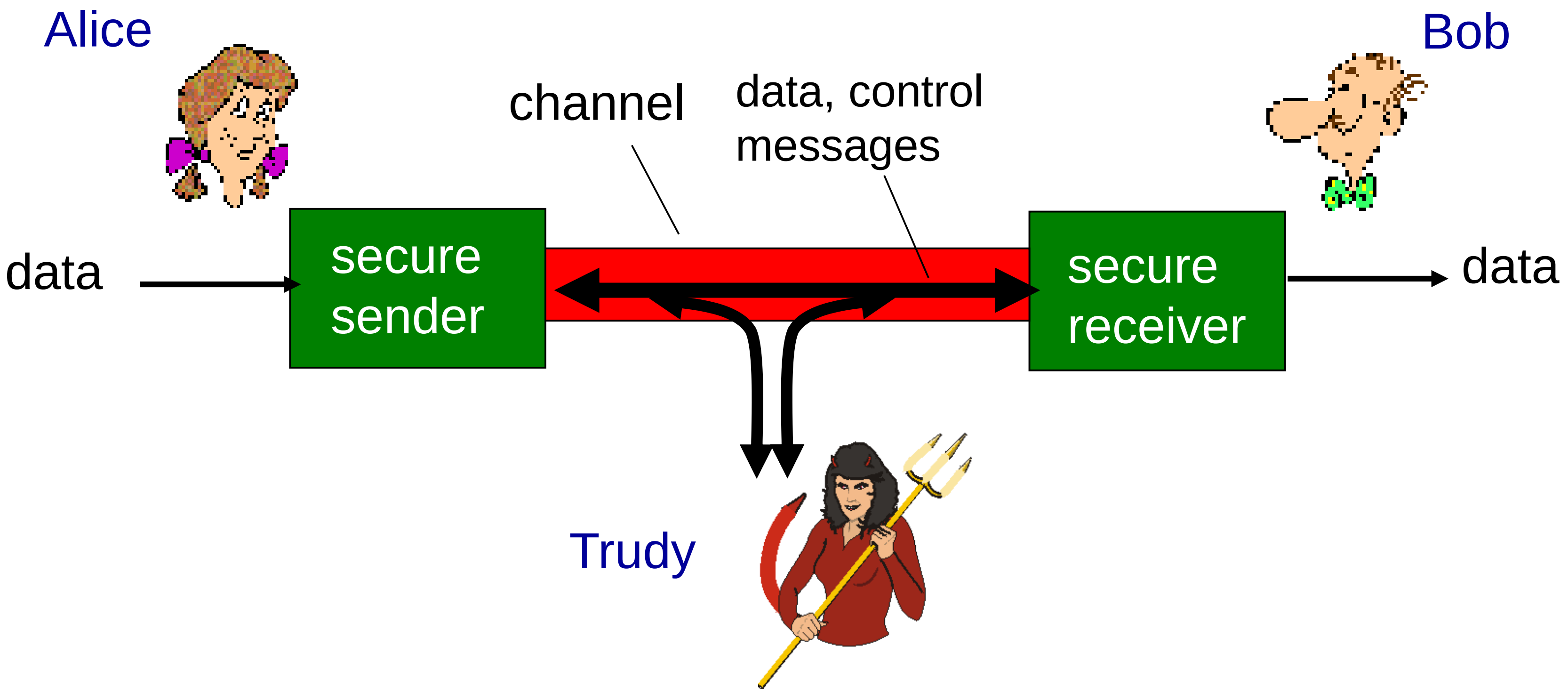
- Broadest security tool available
  - Internal to a given computer, source and destination of messages can be known and protected
    - OS creates, manages, protects process IDs, communication ports
  - Source and destination of messages on network cannot be trusted without cryptography
    - Local network – IP address?
      - Consider unauthorized host added
    - WAN / Internet – how to establish authenticity
      - Not via IP address
- Allows secure communications over an intrinsically insecure medium

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

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

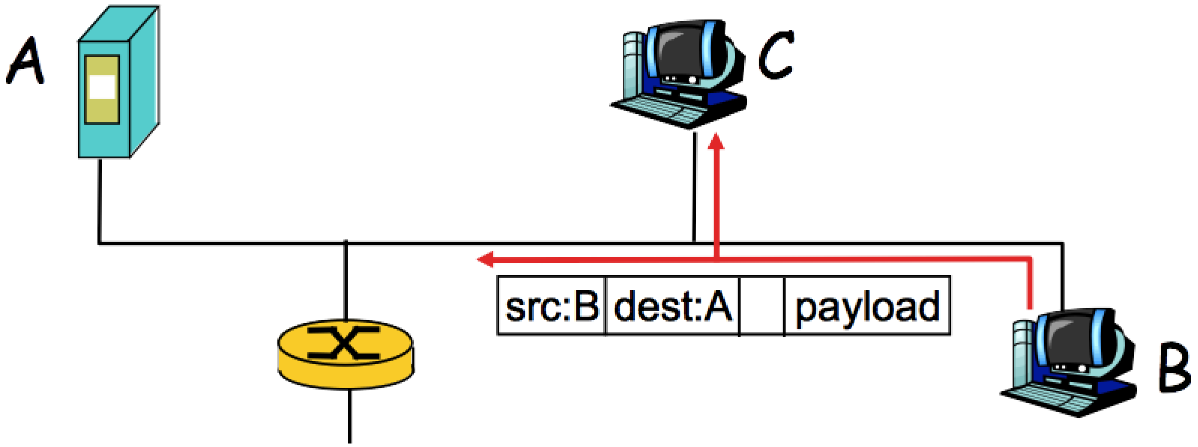


Who might Bob, Alice be?

- … 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
- ...

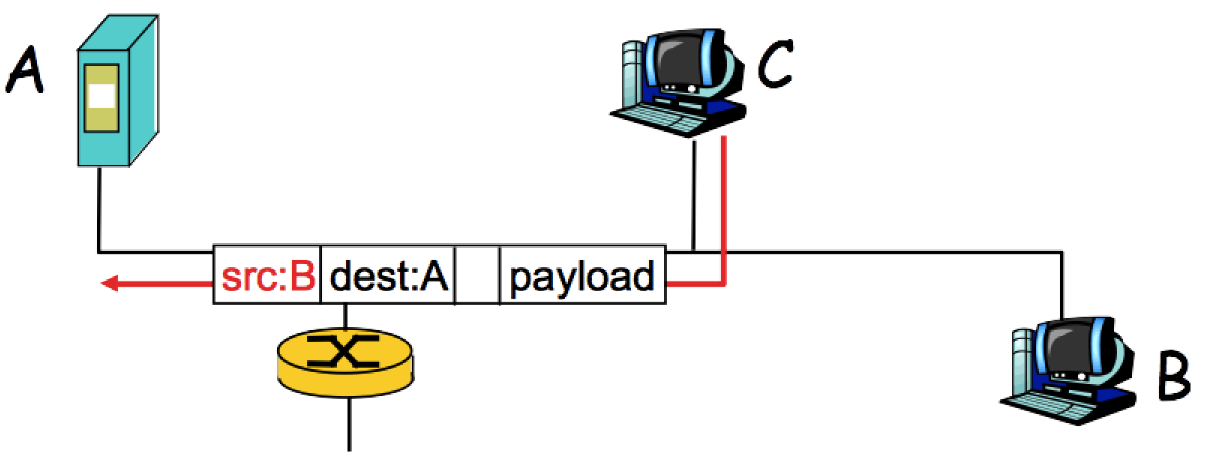
Insecure communication medium

- 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

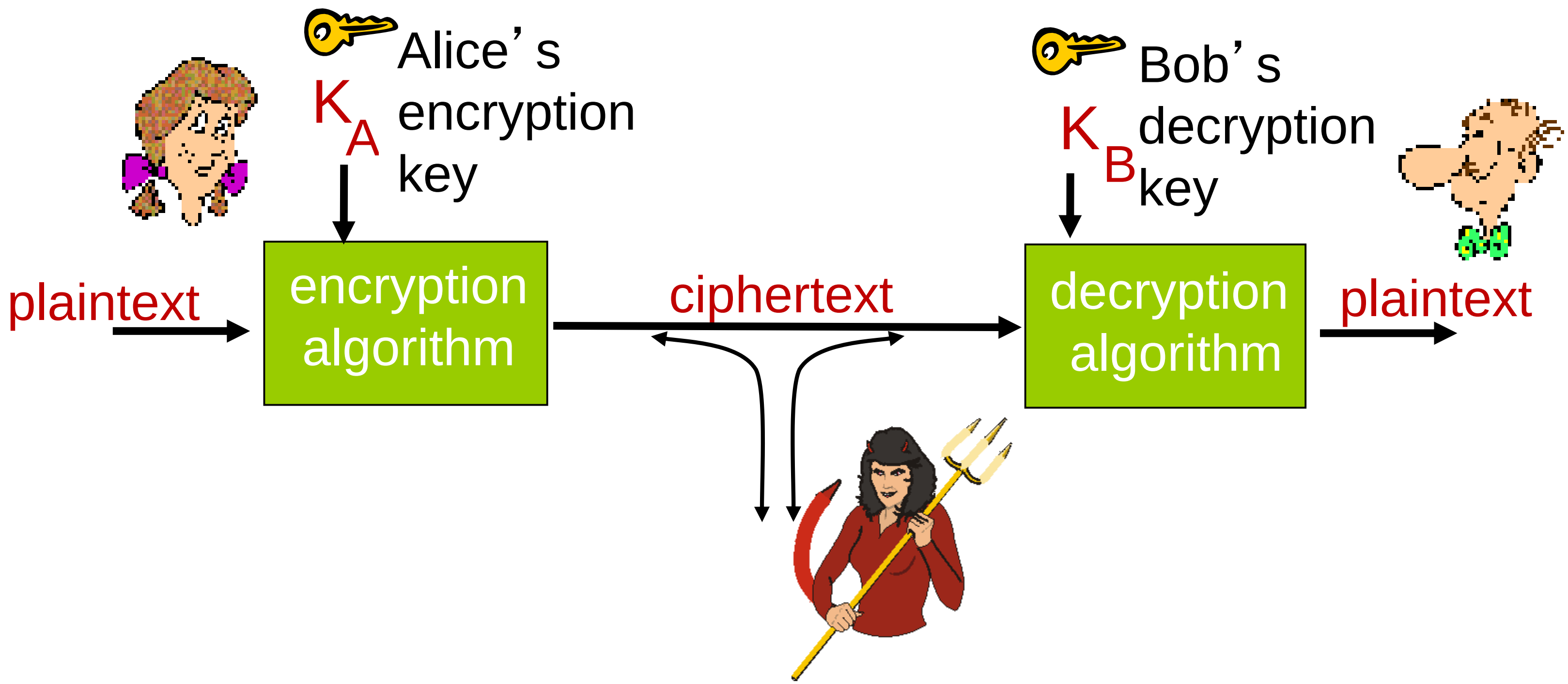


Insecure communication medium

- 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



The language of cryptography



m plaintext message

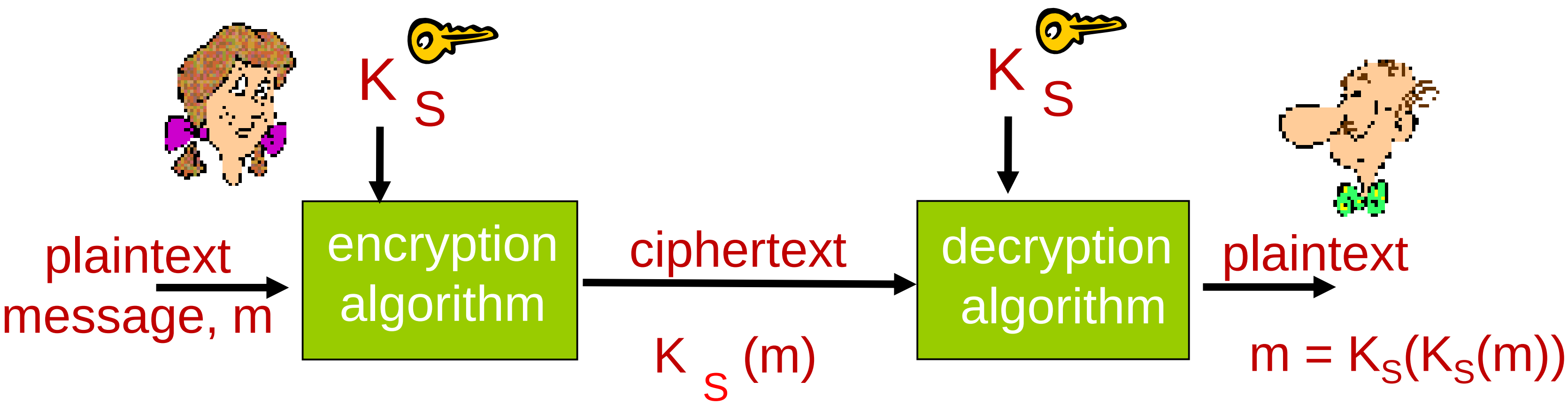
$K_A(m)$ ciphertext, encrypted with key K_A

$m = K_B(K_A(m))$

Types of Cryptography

- Crypto often uses keys:
  - Algorithm is known to everyone
  - Only “keys” are secret
- Symmetric key cryptography
  - Involves the use of one key
- Public key cryptography
  - Involves the use of two keys
- Hash functions
  - Involves the use of no keys
  - Nothing secret: How can this be useful?

Symmetric key cryptography



symmetric key crypto: Bob and Alice share same (symmetric) key: K_S

- e.g., key is knowing substitution pattern in mono alphabetic substitution cipher

Q: how do Bob and Alice agree on key value?

Simple encryption scheme

substitution cipher: substituting one thing for another

- monoalphabetic cipher: substitute one letter for another

```
plaintext:   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

ciphertext:  mnbvcxzasdfghjklpoiuytrewq
```

e.g.:

```
 Plaintext: bob. i love you. alice
ciphertext: nkn. s gktc wky. mgsbc
```

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

A more sophisticated encryption approach

- n substitution ciphers, $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_n$
- 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 M_1, o from M_3, g from M_4

Encryption key: n substitution ciphers, and cyclic pattern

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 crypto: DES

DES: Data Encryption Standard

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

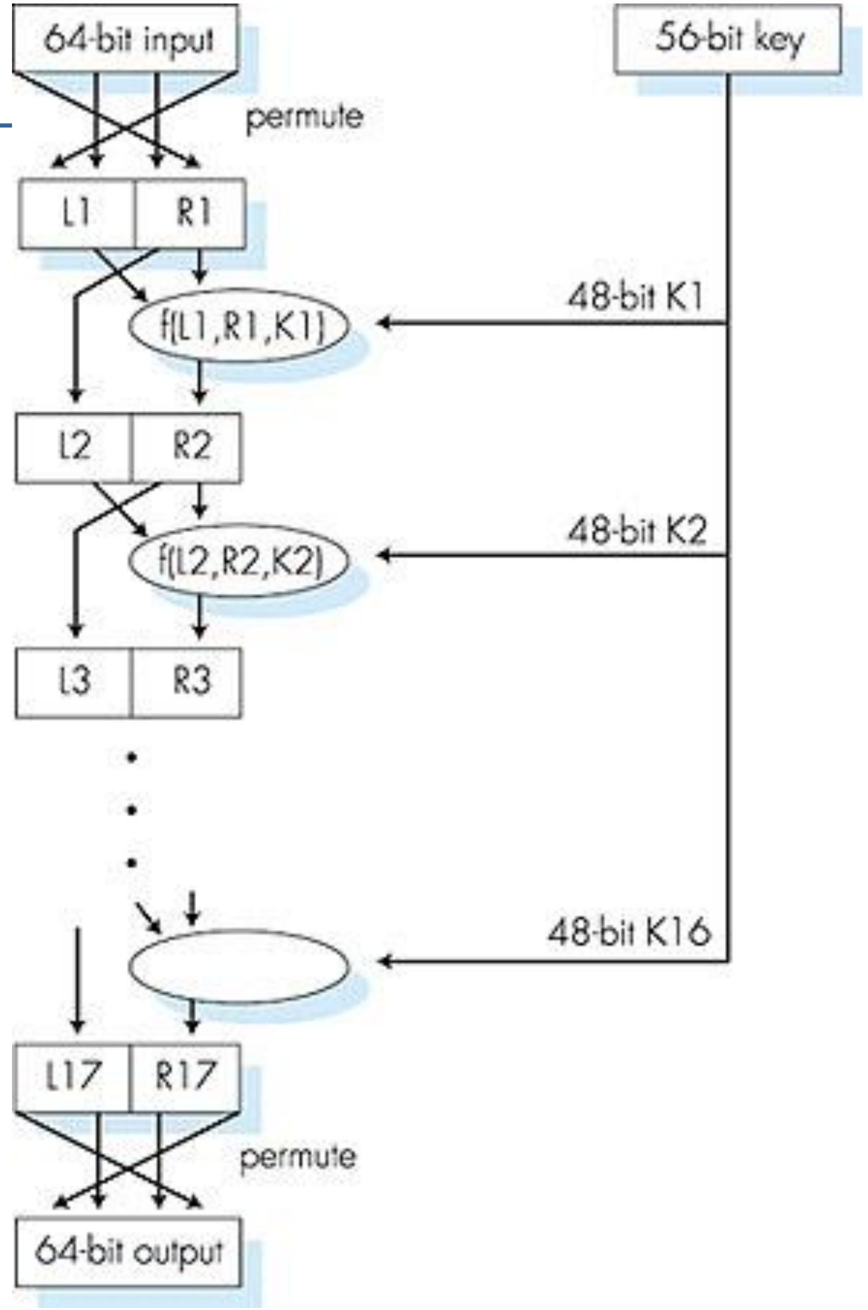
Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES operation

initial permutation

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

final permutation



AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

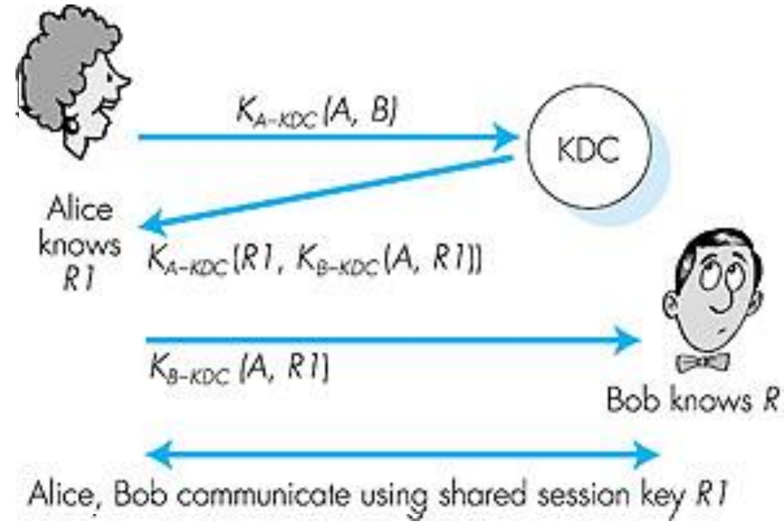
- symmetric-key NIST standard, replaced DES (Nov 2001)
- processes data in 128 bit blocks
- 128, 192, or 256 bit keys
- brute force decryption (try each key) taking 1 sec on DES, takes 149 trillion years for AES

Key question

- How do two entities establish shared secret key over network?
- Solutions:
  - Direct exchange (in person)
  - Key Distribution Center (KDC)
    - Trusted entity acting as intermediary between entities
  - Using public key cryptography

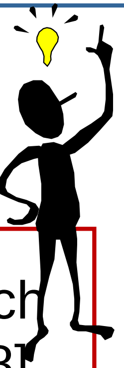
Key Distribution Center (KDC)

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



- Alice communicates with KDC, gets session key R1, and K_{B-KDC}(A,R1)
- Alice sends Bob K_{B-KDC}(A,R1), Bob extracts R1
- Alice, Bob now share the symmetric key R1.

Public Key Cryptography



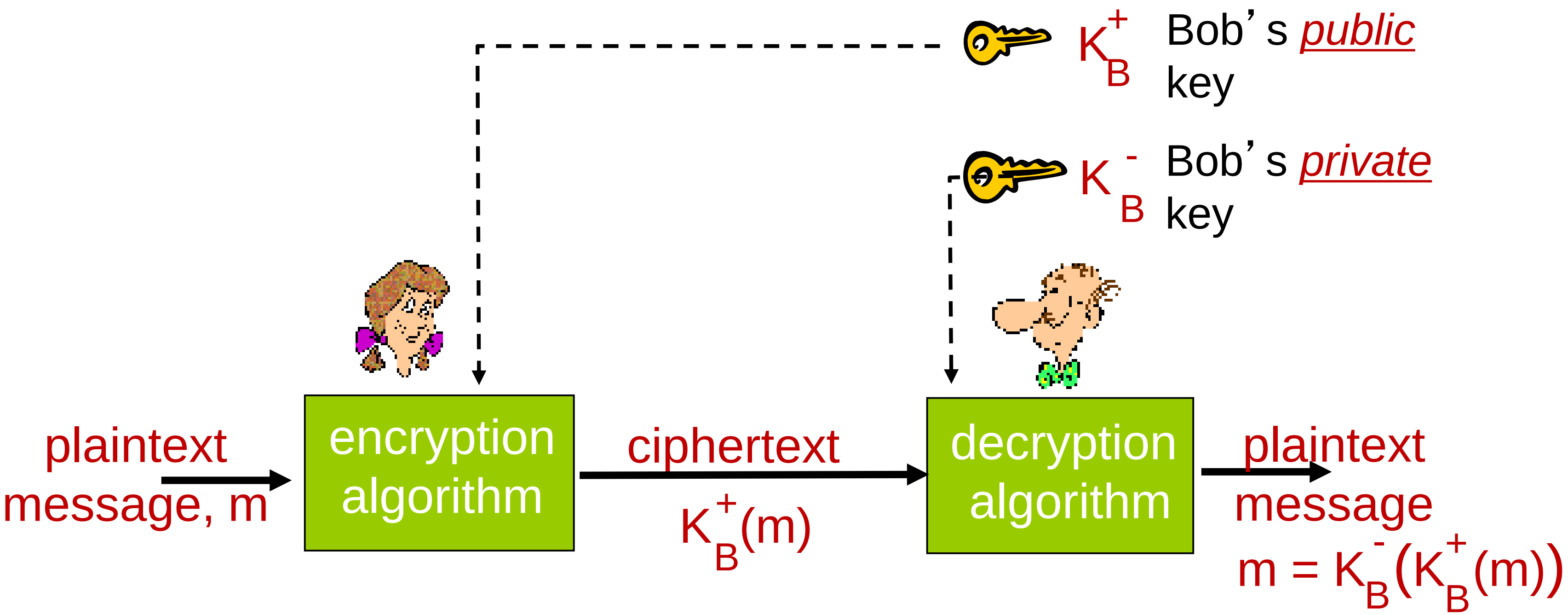
symmetric key crypto

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

public key crypto

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

Public key cryptography



Public key encryption algorithms

requirements:

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

Prerequisite: modular arithmetic

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

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

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

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

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

RSA: getting ready

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

example:

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

RSA: Creating public/private key pair

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 $\underbrace{(n,e)}_{K_B^+}$, *private* key is $\underbrace{(n,d)}_{K_B^-}$

RSA: encryption, decryption

Given (n,e) and (n,d) as computed above

1. to encrypt message m ($<n$), compute

   $c = m^e \bmod n$

2. to decrypt received bit pattern, c, compute

   $m = c^d \bmod n$

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).

encrypting 8-bit messages.

	bit pattern	m	m^e	$c = m^e \bmod n$
encrypt:	0000l000	12	24832	17

	c	c^d	$m = c^d \bmod n$
decrypt:	17	481968572106750915091411825223071697	12

Why does RSA work?

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

  $= m^{ed} \bmod n$

  $= m^{(ed \bmod z)} \bmod n$

  $= m^1 \bmod n$

  $= m$

RSA: another important property

The following property will be *very* useful later:

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

use public key first, followed by private key

use private key first, followed by public key

result is the same!

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

follows directly from modular arithmetic:

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

Why is RSA secure?

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

RSA in practice: session keys

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

session key, K_S

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

Authentication

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

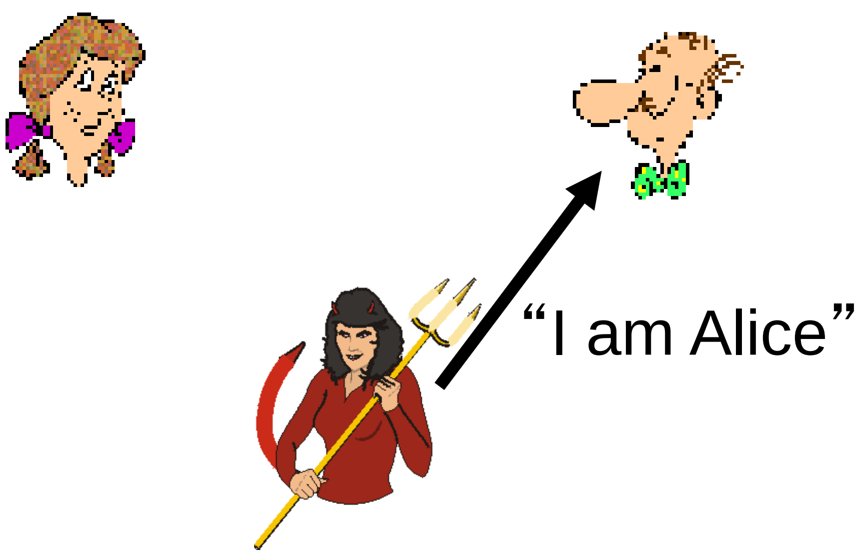
Protocol ap1.0: Alice says “I am Alice”

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

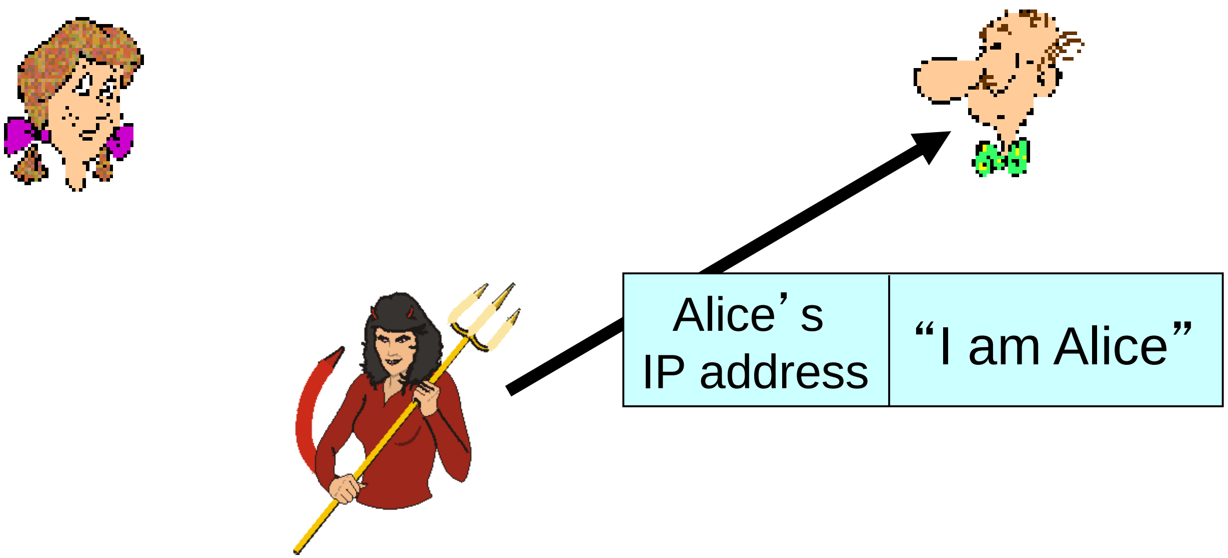
Authentication: another try

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

Failure scenario??

Authentication: another try

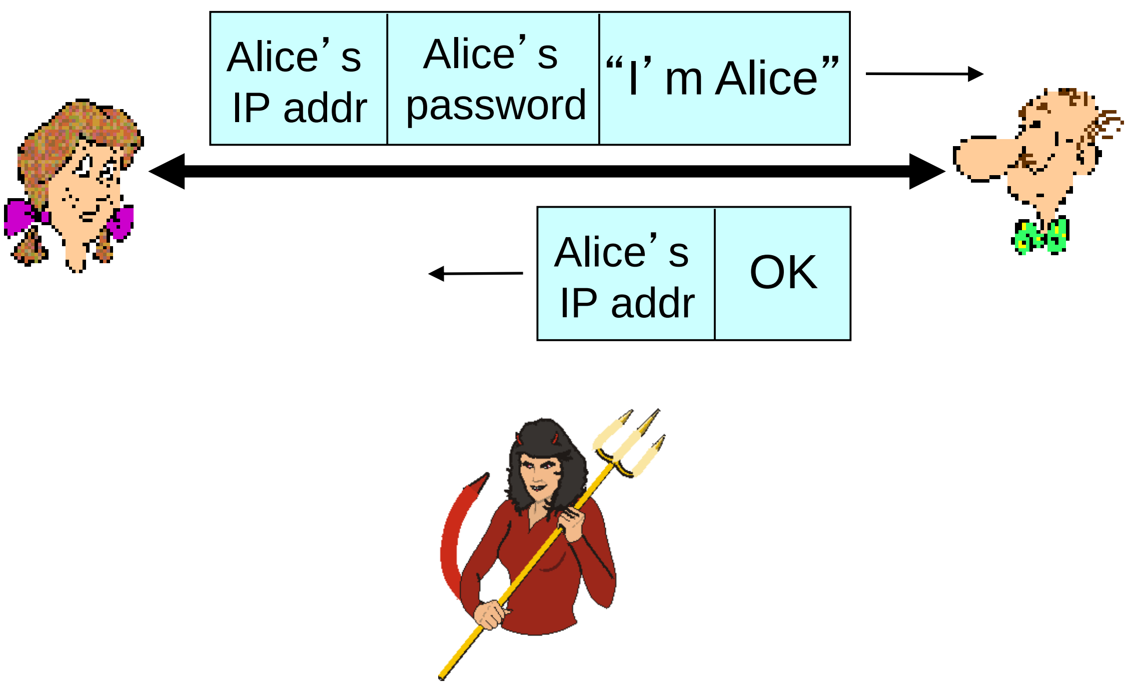
Protocol ap2.0: Alice says "I am Alice" in an IP packet containing her source IP address



Trudy can create a packet "spoofing" Alice's address

Authentication: another try

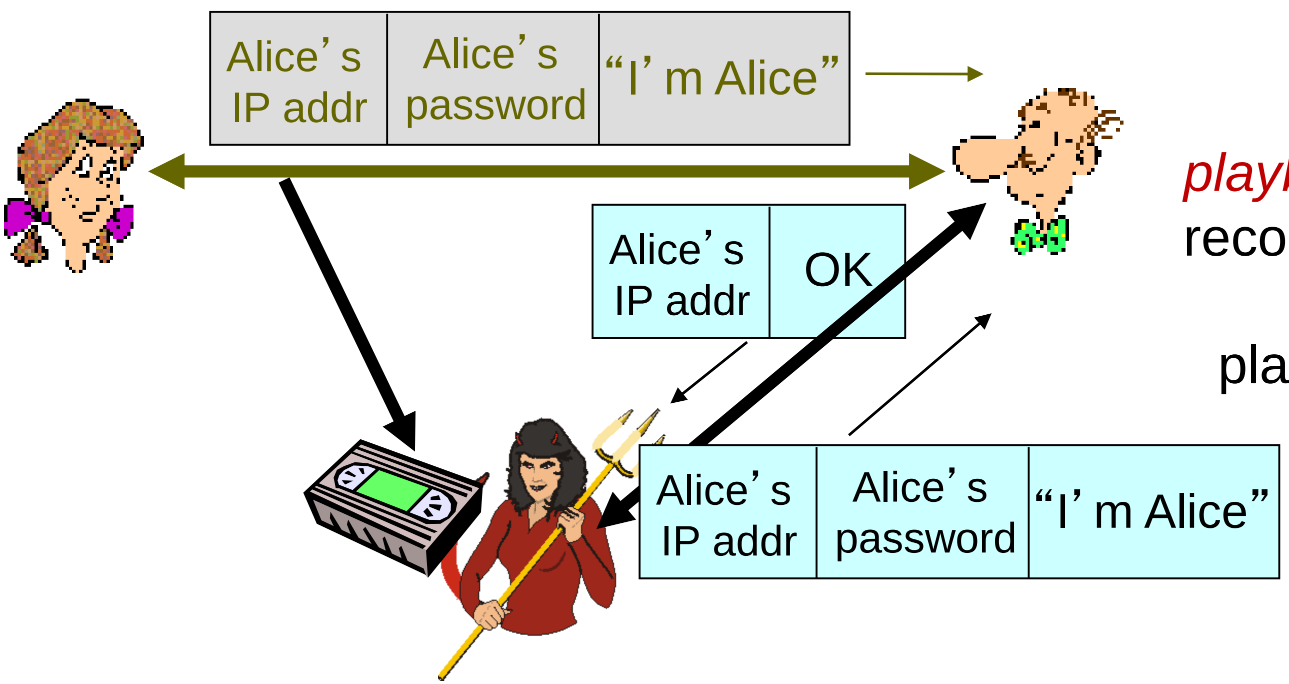
Protocol ap3.0: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her secret password to "prove" it.



Failure scenario??

Authentication: another try

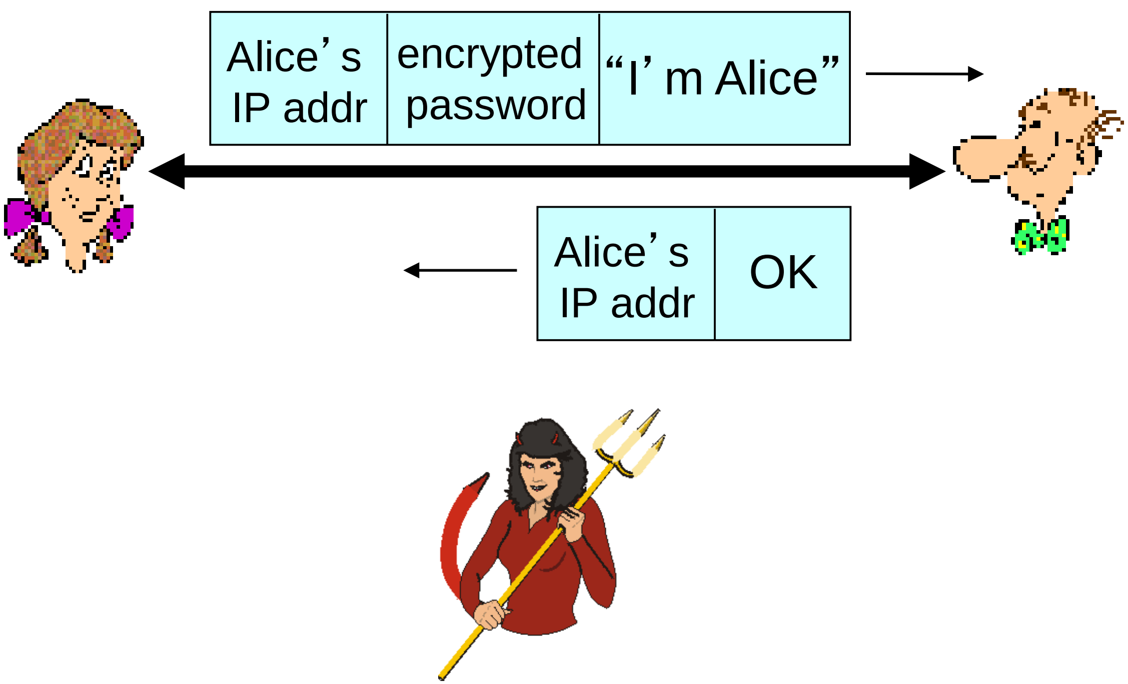
Protocol ap3.0: Alice says “I am Alice” and sends her secret password to “prove” it.



playback attack: Trudy records Alice’s packet and later plays it back to Bob

Authentication: yet another try

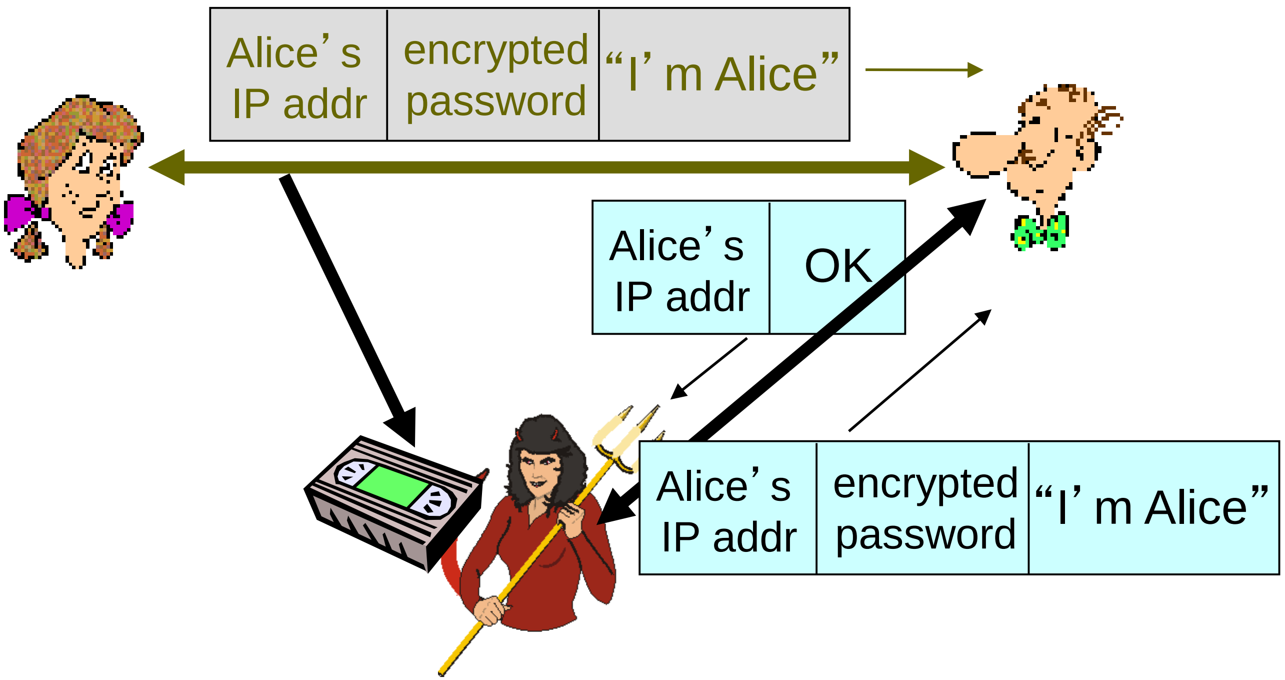
Protocol ap3.1: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her *encrypted* secret password to "prove" it.



Failure scenario??

Authentication: yet another try

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



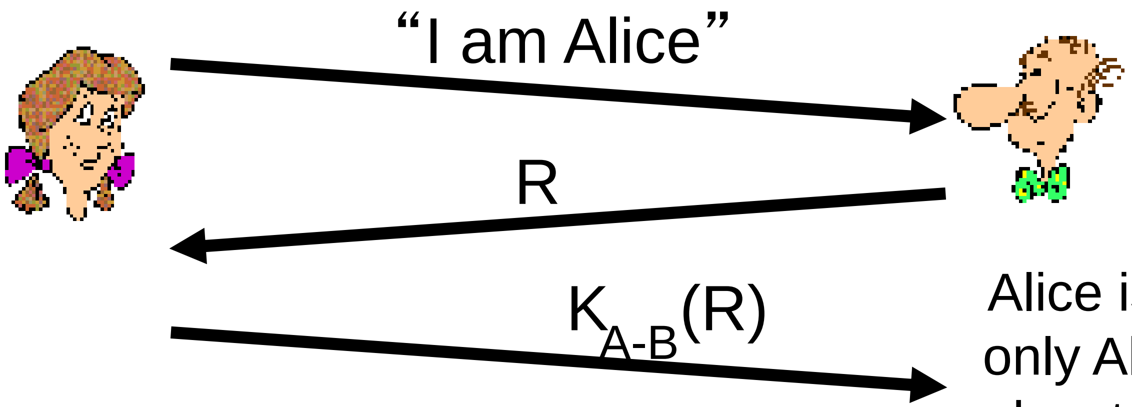
record and playback *still* works!

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



Alice is live, and only Alice knows key to encrypt nonce, so it must be Alice!

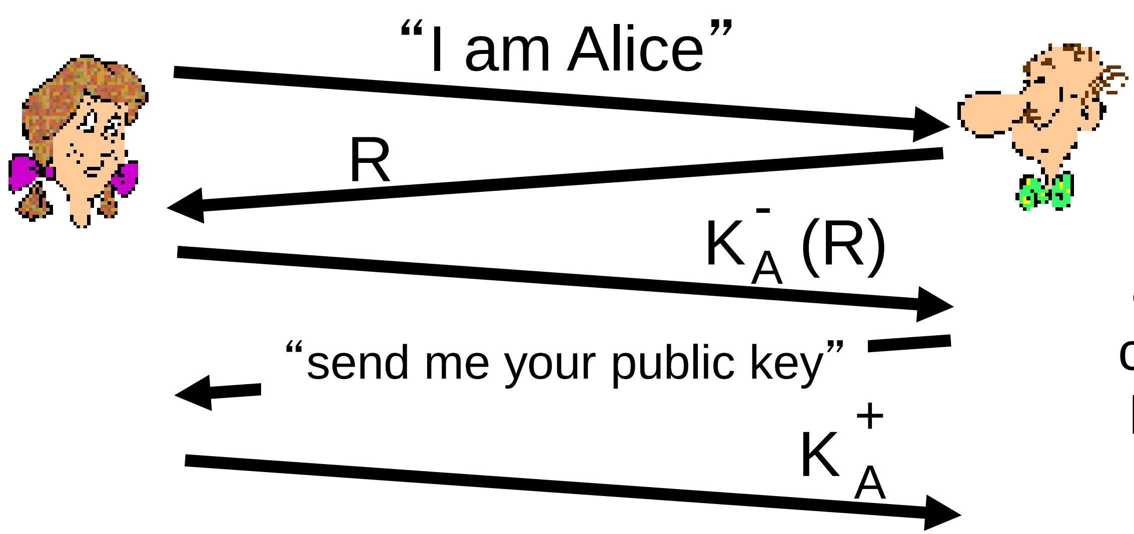
Failures, drawbacks?

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

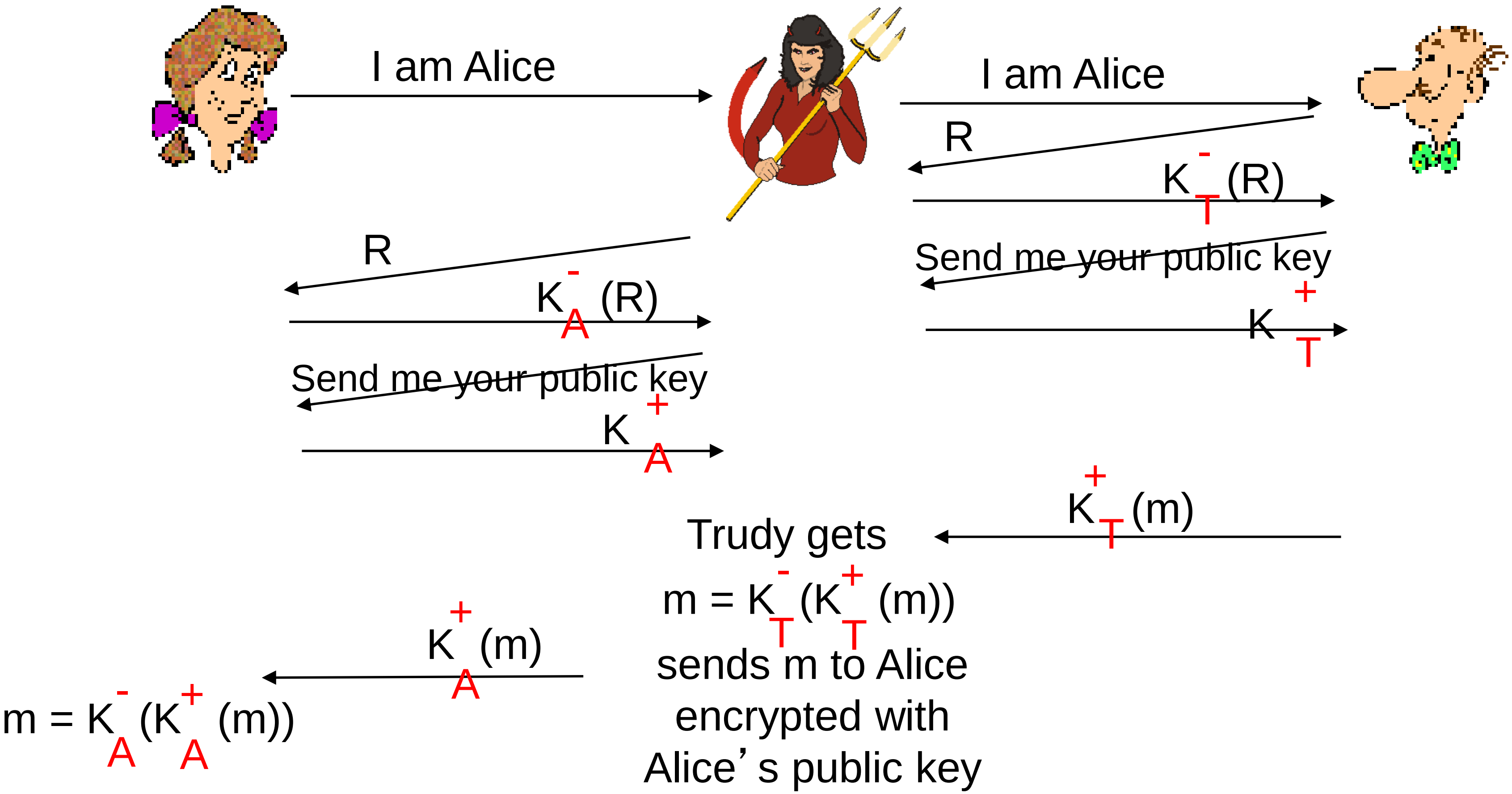
$$K_A^+(K_A^-(R)) = R$$

and knows only Alice could have the private key, that encrypted R such that

$$K_A^+(K_A^-(R)) = R$$

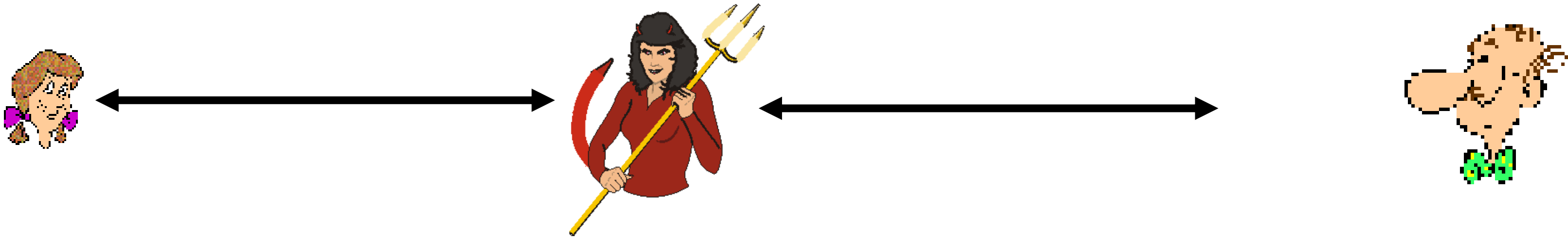
ap5.0: security hole

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



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!

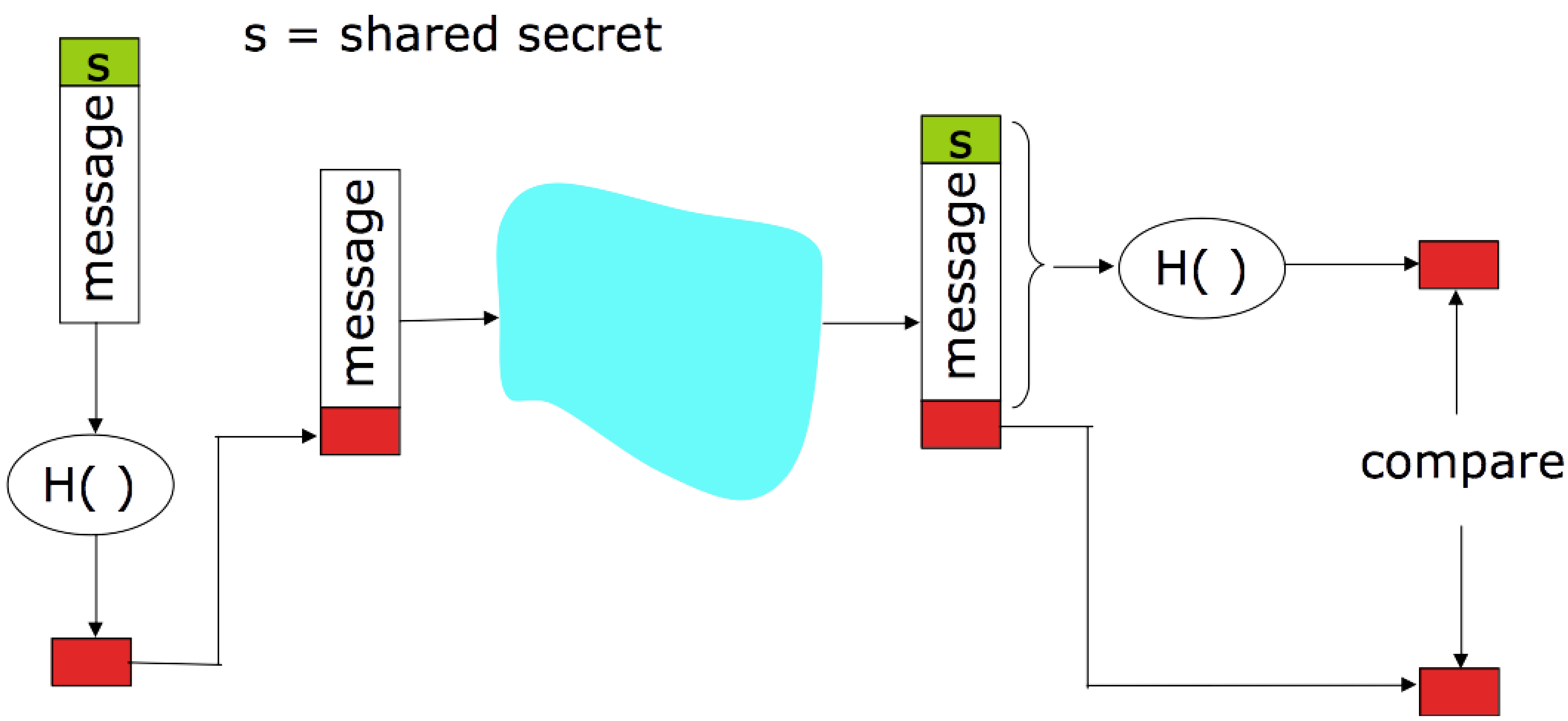
Message integrity

- Allows communicating parties to verify that received messages are authentic.
  - Source of message is who/what you think it is
  - Content of message has not been altered
  - Message has not been replayed
  - Sequence of messages is maintained
- Let's first talk about message digests

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

Message Authentication Code (MAC)



- ***Authenticates sender***
- ***Verifies message integrity***
- Sender:
  - calculates MAC: H(m||s) ;
  - send [m|| H(m||s)]
- No encryption ! Also called "keyed hash"

HMAC [RFC 2104]

- Popular MAC standard
- Can use both MD5 and SHA-1

1. Concatenates secret to front of message: [s||m]
2. Hashes concatenated message: H([s||m])
3. Concatenates the to front of message: [H([s||m])||m]
4. Hashes the combination again: H([H([s||m])||m])

Digital signatures

Cryptographic technique analogous to hand-written signatures.

- The sender (Bob) digitally signs document, establishing he is the document owner/creator.
- Verifiable
  - The recipient (Alice) can verify and prove that Bob, and no one else, signed the document.
- Non-forgeable
  - The sender (Bob) can prove that someone else has signed a message
- Non-repudiation
  - The recipient (Alice) can prove that Bob signed m and not m’
- Message integrity
  - The sender (Bob) can prove that he signed m and not m’

Digital signature

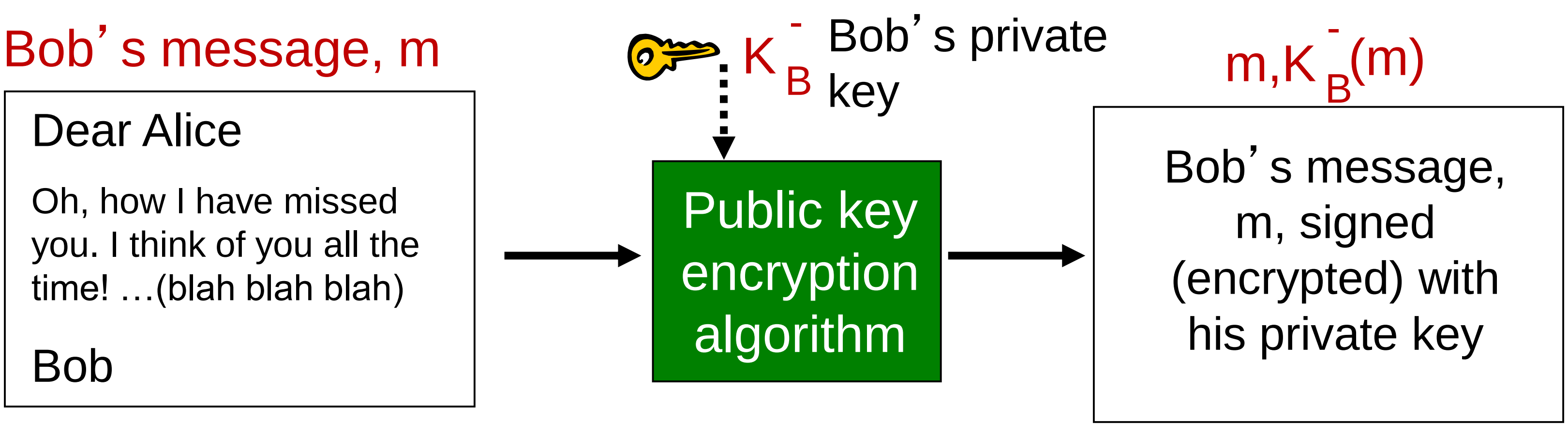
Could we use Message Authentication Code as a Digital Signature??

- Goal is similar to that of a MAC
  - MAC guarantees message integrity
- MAC does not guarantee
  - Verifiability
  - Non forgeability
  - Non repudiation
- Solution: use public key cryptography

Digital signatures

simple digital signature for message m:

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



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 $K_B^-(m)$ 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.

-

Digital signatures

Alice thus verifies that:

- ✓ Bob signed m
- ✓ no one else signed m
- ✓ Bob signed m and not m'

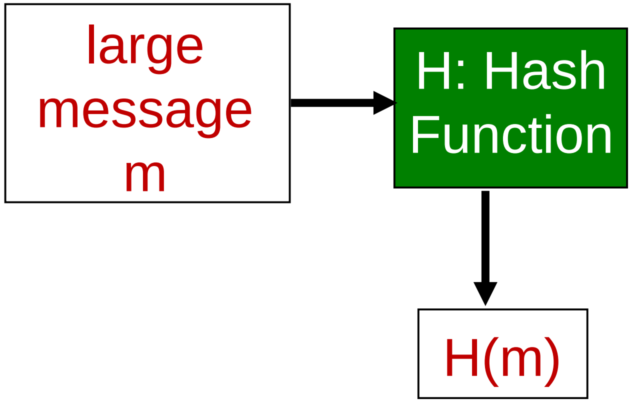
Non-repudiation:

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

Message integrity:

- ✓ Bob can prove that he signed m and not *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-1
- produces fixed-size msg digest (fingerprint)
- given message digest x, computationally infeasible to find m such that x = H(m)

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

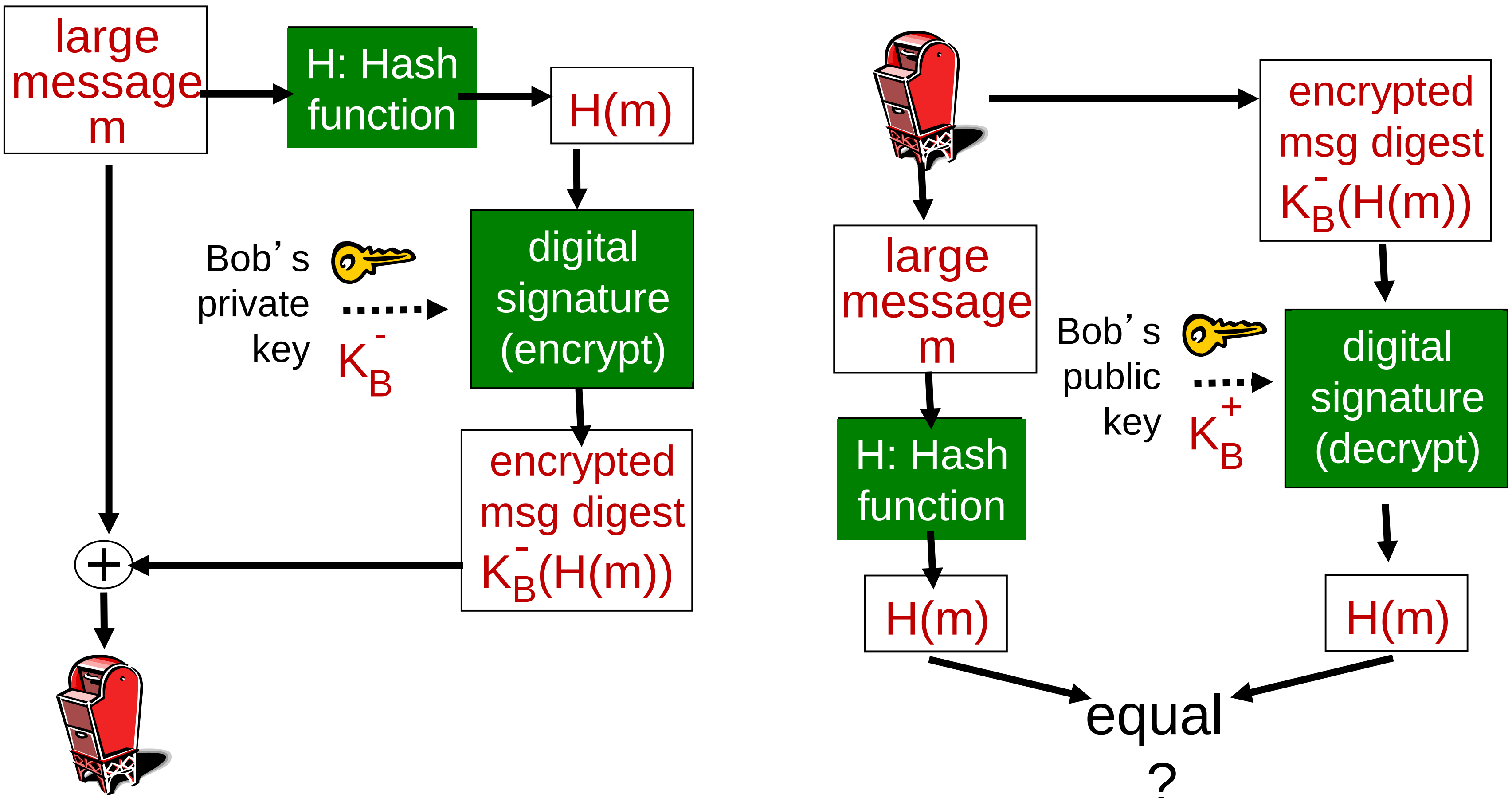
message	ASCII format
I O U 9	49 4F 55 39
0 0 . 1	30 30 2E 31
9 B O B	39 42 D2 42
	B2 C1 D2 AC

different messages but identical checksums!

Digital signature = signed message digest

Bob sends digitally signed message:

Alice verifies signature, integrity of digitally signed message:



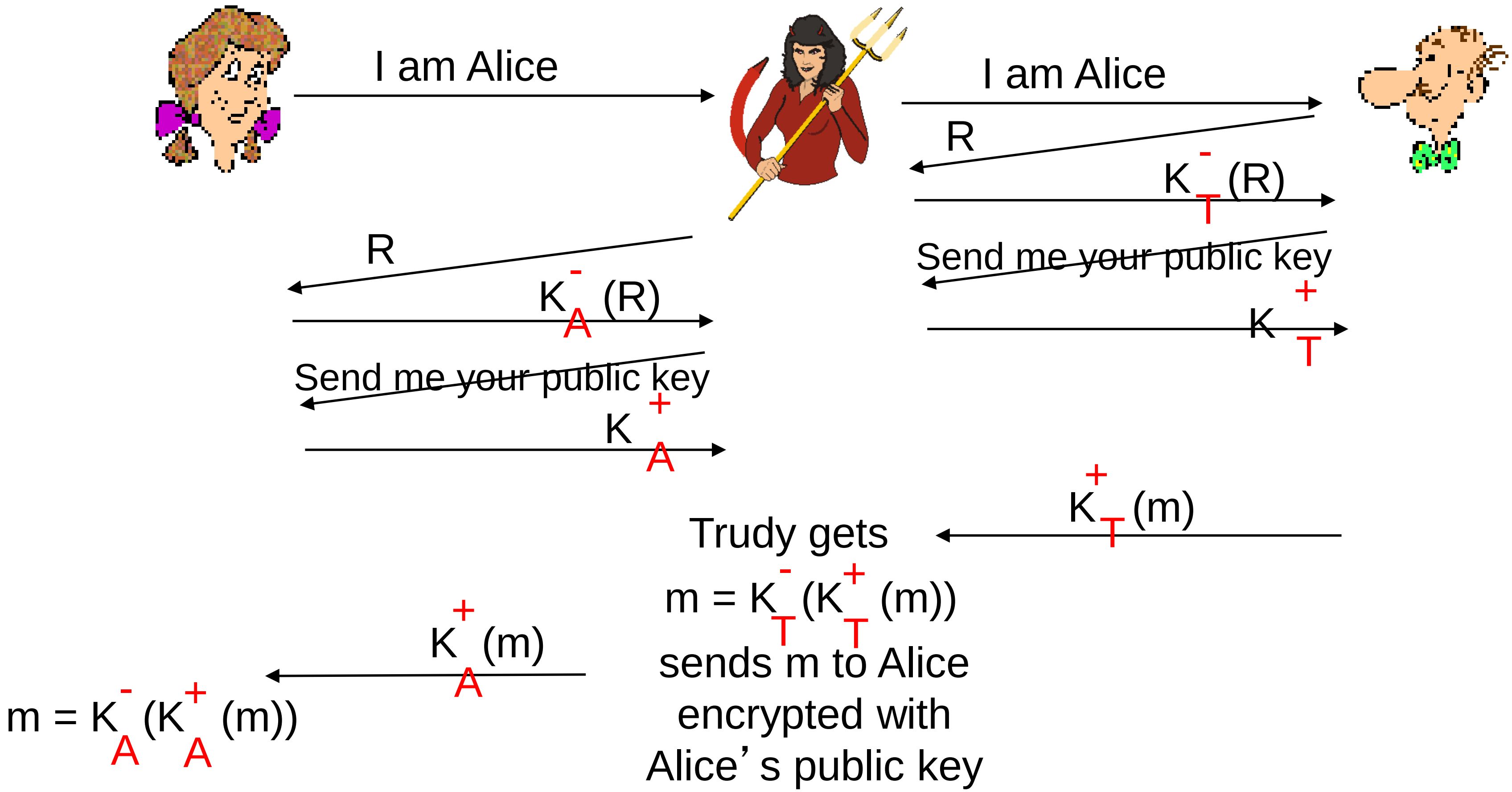
Authentication Code vs. Digital Signature

- MAC: m+s ➔ H(m+s) ➔ [m, H(m+s)]
- DS: m ➔ H(m) ➔ K-(H(m)) ➔ [m, K-(H(m))]

- Digital signature is a heavier technique
  - Requires a Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)
- In practice
  - MAC used in OSPF for message integrity
  - MAC also used for transport and network layer solutions
  - DS used in PGP for message integrity and non repudiation

Recall: ap5.0 security hole

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



Key question

- How can Alice achieve Bob’s public key?
  - E-mail?
  - Website?
  - ??

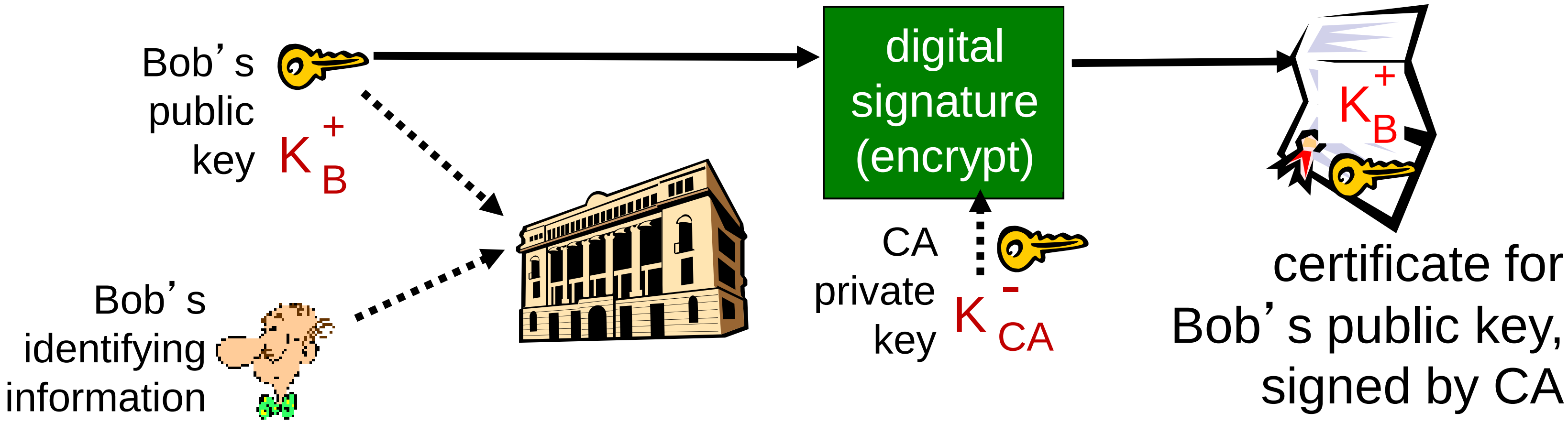
Public-key certification

- 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

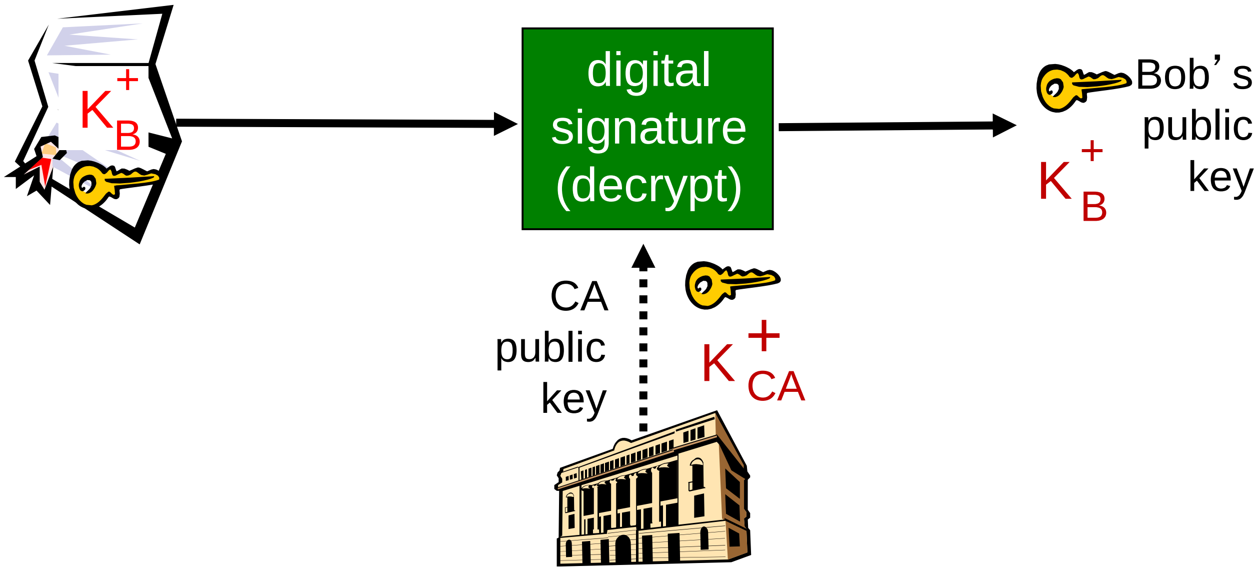
certification authority (CA): binds public key to particular entity, E.

- 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



Certificates

- Primary standard ITU X.509 (RFC 2459)
- Certificate includes:
  - Issuer name
  - Entity name, address, domain name, etc.
  - Entity's public key
  - Digital signature (signed with issuer's private key)

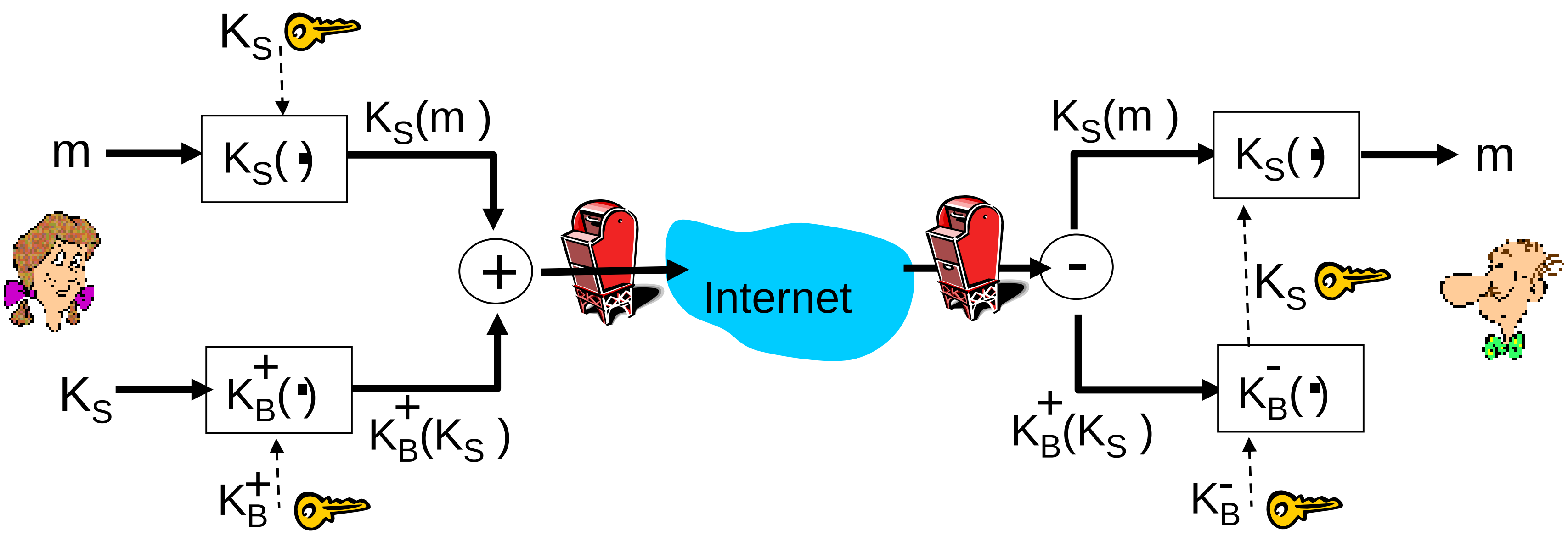
- Public-Key Infrastructure (PKI)
  - Certificates and certification authorities
  - Often considered "heavy"

Secure e-mail

- Requirements
  - Confidentiality
  - Sender Authentication
  - Message Integrity

Secure e-mail

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

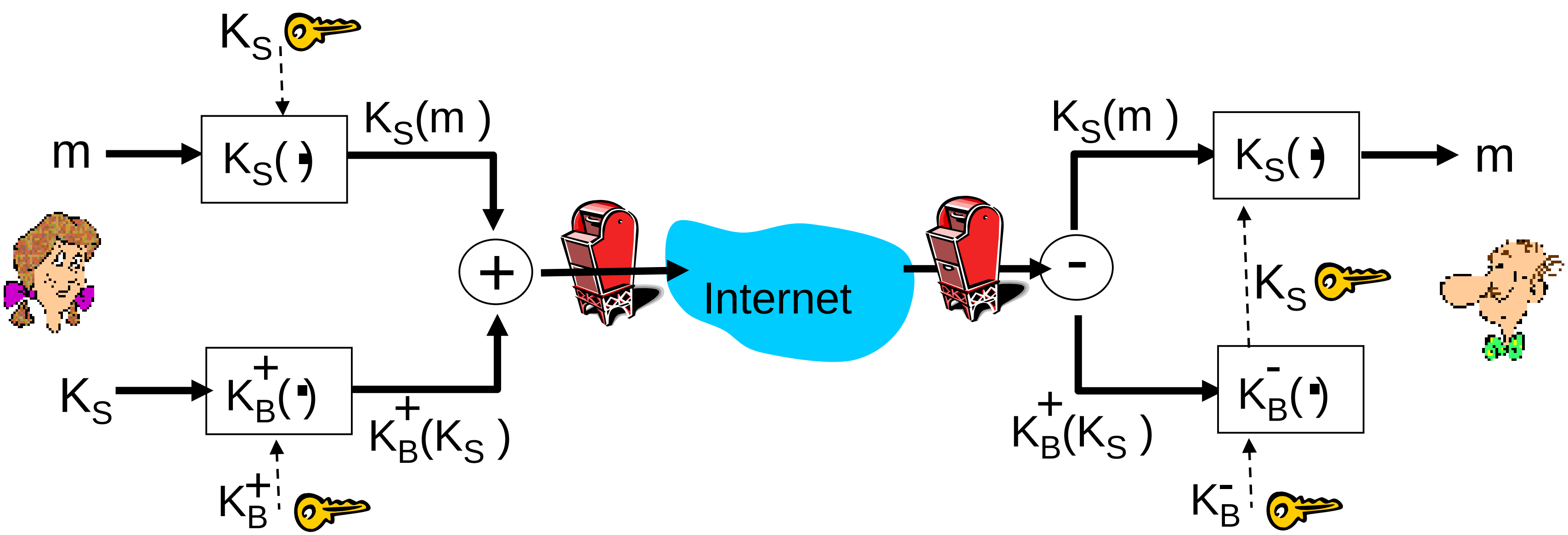


Alice:

- 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.

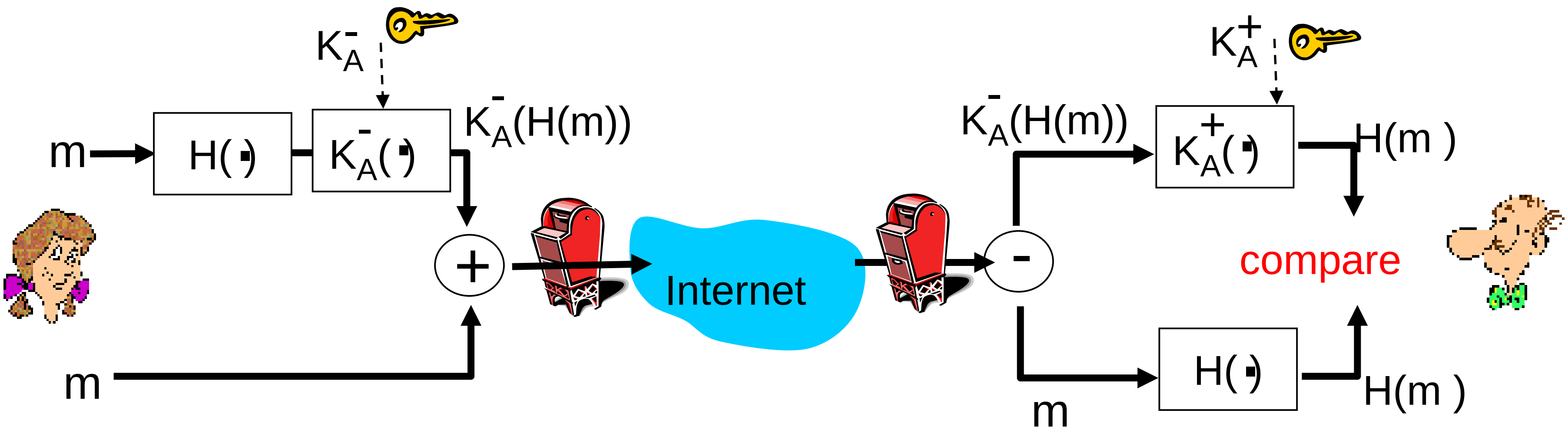


Bob:

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

Secure e-mail (continued)

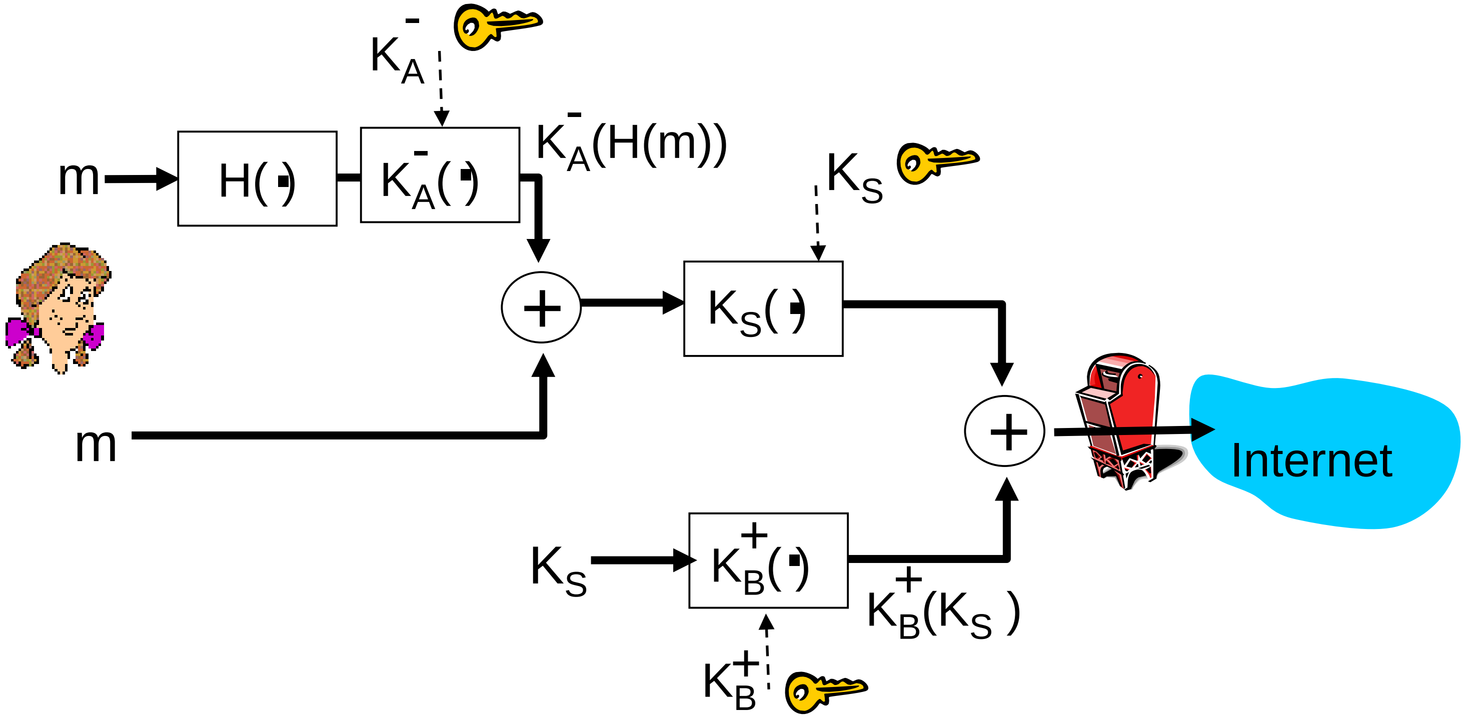
- Alice wants to provide sender authentication message integrity



- 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

Pretty good privacy (PGP)

- Internet e-mail encryption scheme, a 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:

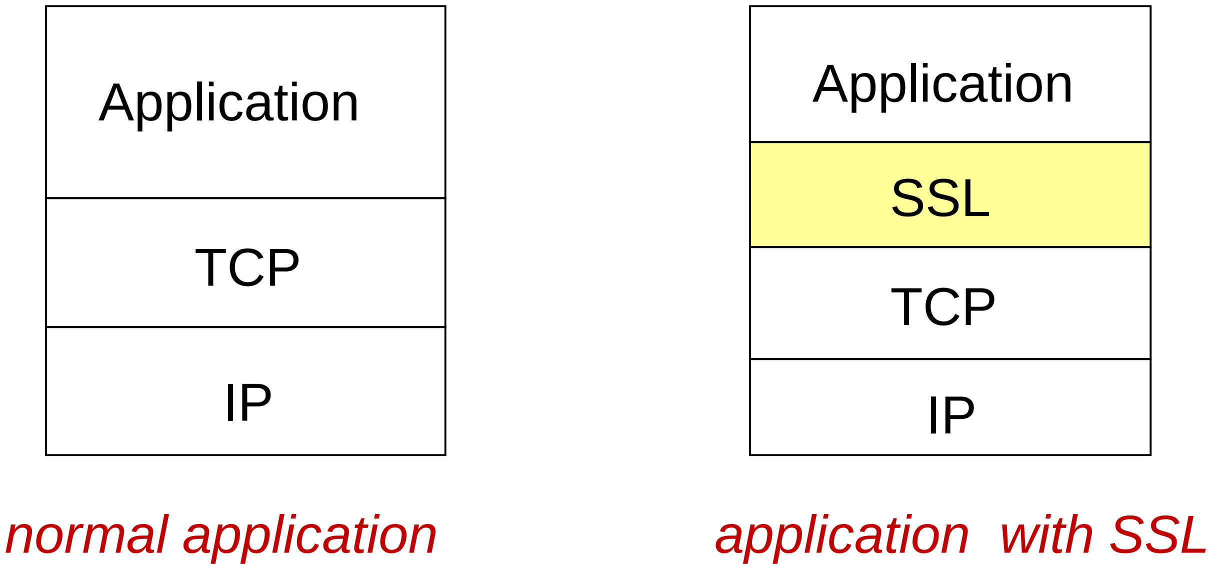
```
---BEGIN PGP SIGNED MESSAGE---
Hash: SHA1

   Bob:
   My husband is out of town
   tonight. Passionately yours,
   Alice

---BEGIN PGP SIGNATURE---
Version: PGP 5.0
Charset: noconv
yhHJRHhGJGhgg/12EpJ+lo8gE4vB3m
   qJhFEvZP9t6n7G6m5Gw2
---END PGP SIGNATURE---
```

SSL: Secure Sockets Layer

- PGP provides security for a specific network application
- SSL works at transport layer. Provides security to any TCP-based application using SSL services.
- widely deployed security protocol
  - supported by almost all browsers, web servers
  - https
  - billions $/year over SSL
- mechanisms: [Woo 1994], implementation: Netscape
- provides
  - *confidentiality*
  - *integrity*
  - *authentication*

- original goals:
  - Web e-commerce transactions
  - encryption (especially credit-card numbers)
  - Web-server authentication
  - optional client authentication
  - minimum hassle in doing business with new merchant
- available to all TCP applications
  - secure socket interface

SSL and TCP/IP



- SSL provides application programming interface (API) to applications
- C and Java SSL libraries/classes readily available

SSL Encrypted Session

- Server authentication
  - The server is verified through a certificate assuring that the client is talking to correct server
- Key exchange
  - Asymmetric cryptography used to establish a secure session key (symmetric encryption) for communication
  - Browser
    - generates a symmetric session key **Ks**
    - encrypts it with server's public key
    - sends encrypted key to server.
- Server
  - Using its private key, the server decrypts the session key **Ks**
- Secure communication
  - All data sent into TCP socket (by client or server) are encrypted with session key **Ks**

Implementing Security Defenses

- **Defense in depth** is most common security theory – multiple layers of security
- **Security policy** describes what is being secured
- Vulnerability assessment compares real state of system / network compared to security policy
- Intrusion detection endeavors to detect attempted or successful intrusions
  - **Signature-based** detection spots known bad patterns
  - **Anomaly detection** spots differences from normal behavior
    - Can detect **zero-day** attacks
  - **False-positives** and **false-negatives** a problem
- Virus protection
  - Searching all programs or programs at execution for known virus patterns
  - Or run in **sandbox** so can't damage system
- Auditing, accounting, and logging of all or specific system or network activities
- Practice **safe computing** – avoid sources of infection, download from only "good" sites, etc

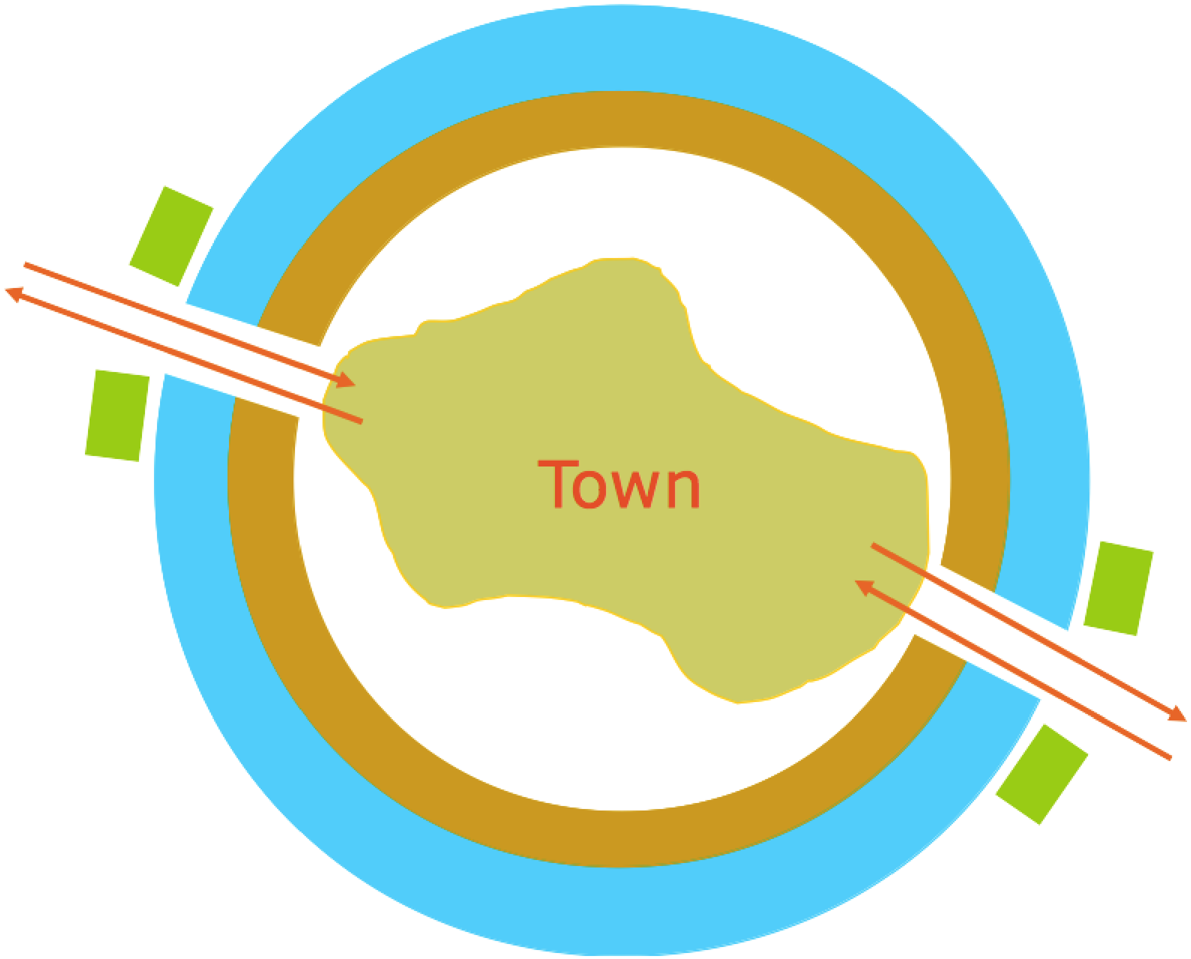
User Authentication

- Crucial to identify user correctly, as protection systems depend on user ID
- User identity most often established through **passwords**, can be considered a special case of either keys or capabilities
- Passwords must be kept secret
  - Frequent change of passwords
  - History to avoid repeats
  - Use of "non-guessable" passwords
  - Log all invalid access attempts (but not the passwords themselves)
  - Unauthorized transfer
- Passwords may also either be encrypted or allowed to be used only once
  - Does encrypting passwords solve the exposure problem?
    - Might solve **sniffing**
    - Consider **shoulder surfing**
    - Consider Trojan horse keystroke logger
    - How are passwords stored at authenticating site?

Passwords

- Encrypt to avoid having to keep secret
  - But keep secret anyway (i.e. Unix uses superuser-only readably file `/etc/shadow`)
  - Use algorithm easy to compute but difficult to invert
  - Only encrypted password stored, never decrypted
  - Add "salt" to avoid the same password being encrypted to the same value
- One-time passwords
  - Use a function based on a seed to compute a password, both user and computer
  - Hardware device / calculator / key fob to generate the password
    - Changes very frequently
- Biometrics
  - Some physical attribute (fingerprint, hand scan)
- Multi-factor authentication
  - Need two or more factors for authentication
    - i.e. USB "dongle", biometric measure, and password

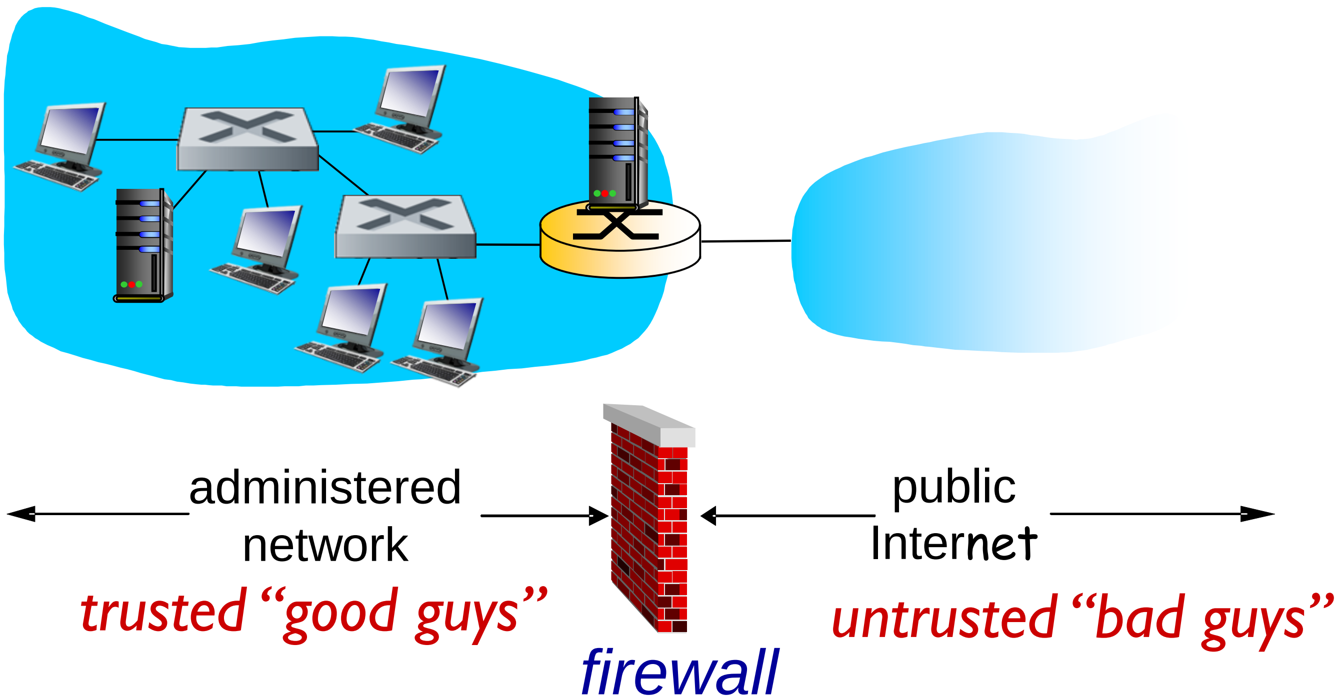
Traditional Defense Principle



Firewalls

firewall

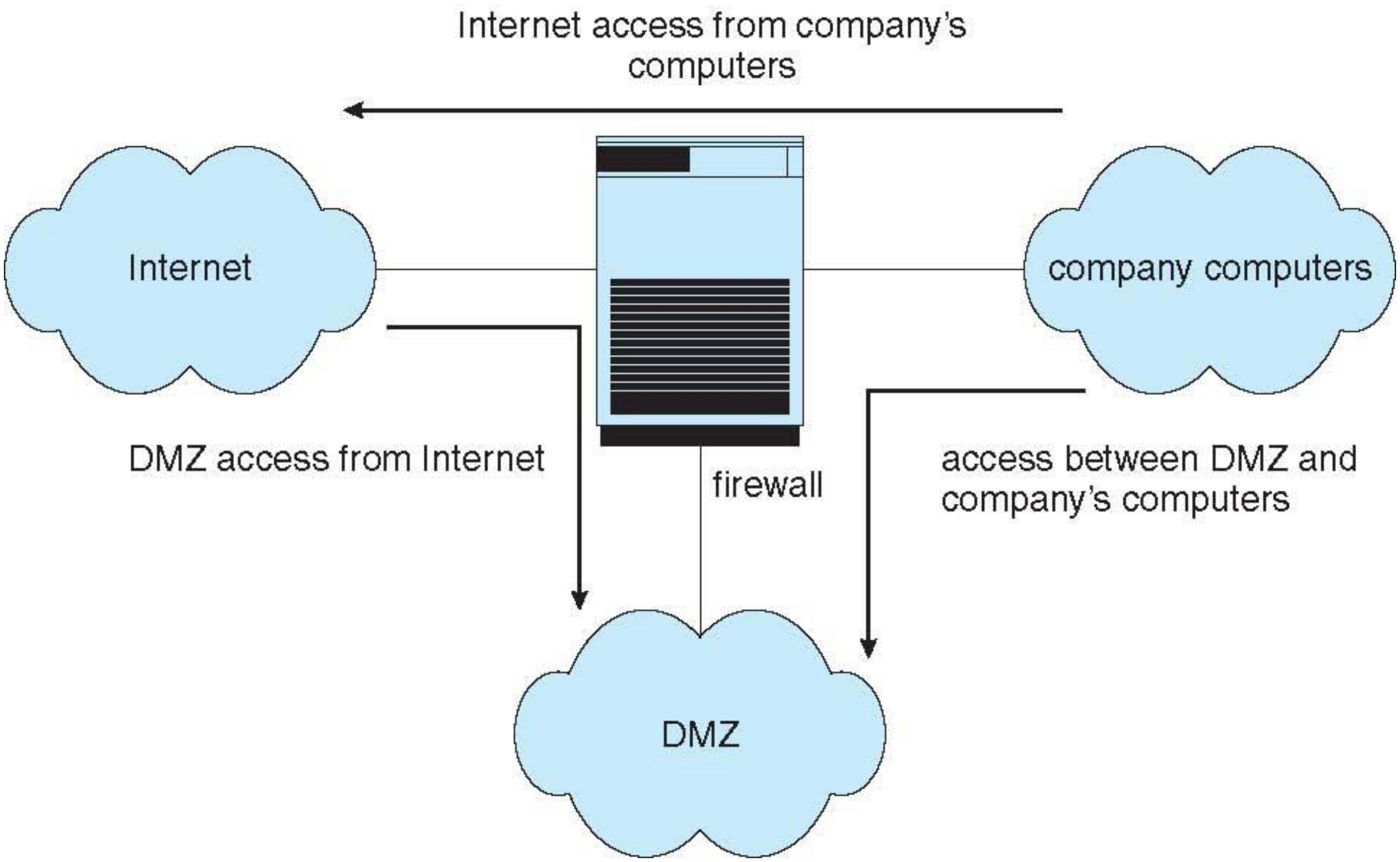
isolates organization's internal net from larger Internet, allowing some packets to pass, blocking others



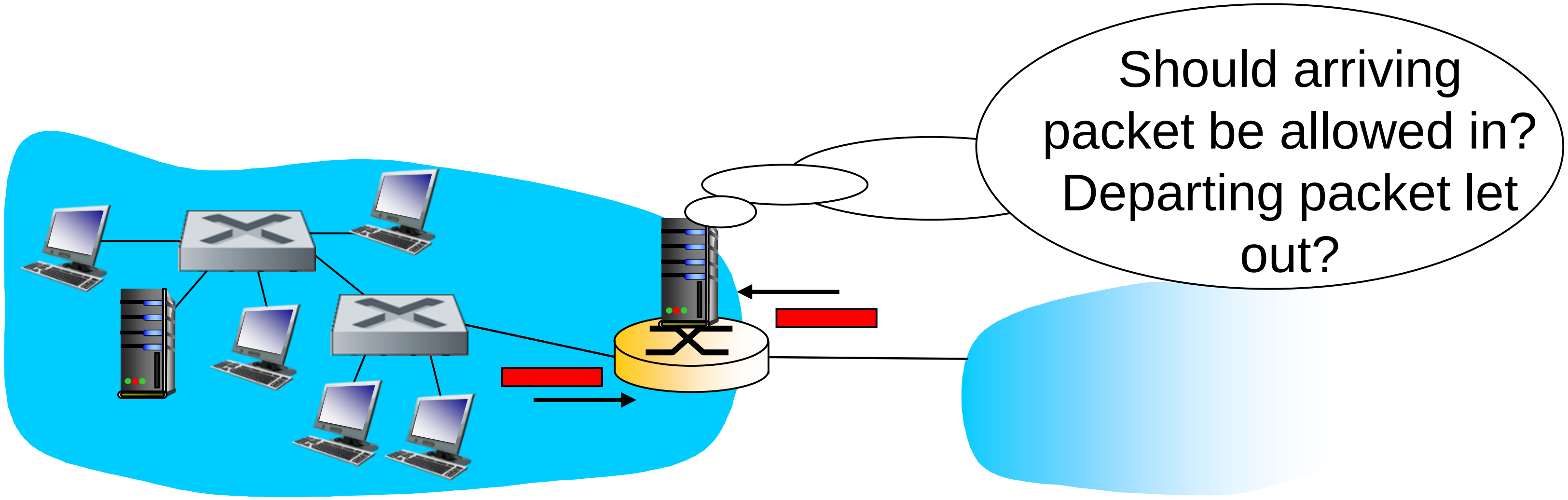
Firewalls: why

- 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

Network Security Through Domain Separation Via Firewall



Stateless 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
  - ICMP message type
  - TCP SYN and ACK bits

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

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

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

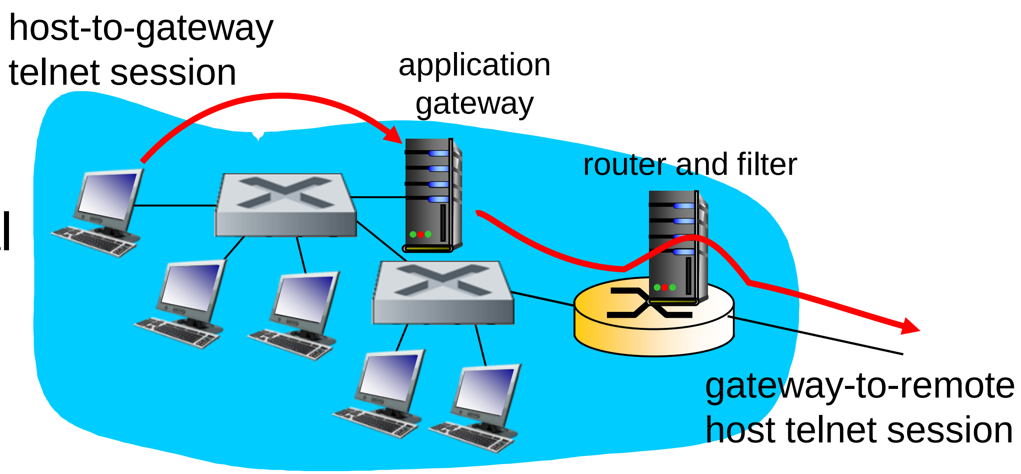
Stateful packet filtering

- 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	TCP	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	

Application gateways

- filter 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.

Limitations of firewalls, gateways

- Can be tunneled or spoofed
  - Tunneling allows disallowed protocol to travel within allowed protocol (i.e., telnet inside of HTTP)
  - Firewall rules typically based on host name or IP address which can be spoofed
- 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

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

Intrusion detection systems

- multiple IDSs: different types of checking at different locations