Computer Networks LECTURE 21 Security

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Chapter 8: Network Security

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

Security 8-2

An Example: Dyn and DDoS

http://dyn.com/ddos/

 https://www.wired.com/2016/10/internet-outageddos-dns-dyn/

What is network security?

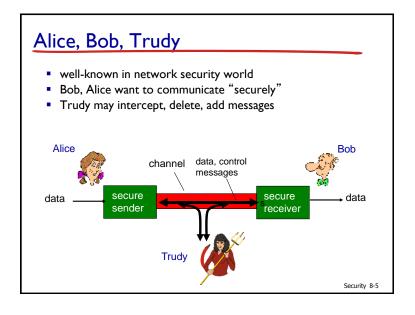
confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should "understand" message contents

- · 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



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?

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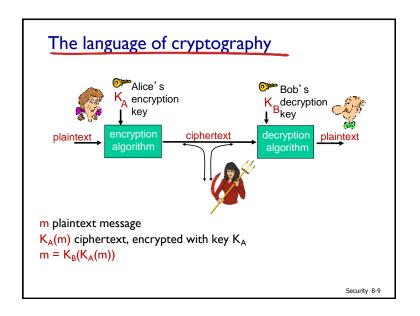
What can Trudy do with the information?

- 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

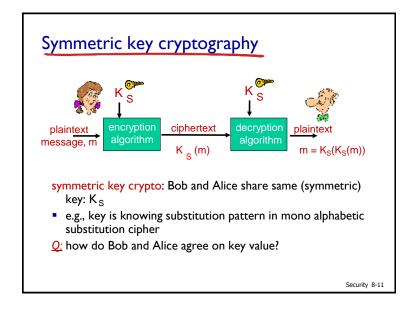
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Breaking an encryption scheme

- 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

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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

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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

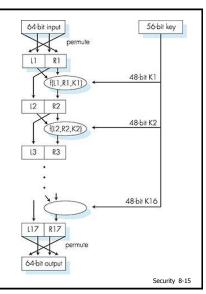
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Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES operation

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

final permutation



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 day on DES, takes I49 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 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 $K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m$
- 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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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

 $(a \mod n)^d \mod n = a^d \mod n$

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

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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, 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 $\frac{d}{d}$ such that ed-1 is exactly divisible by z. (in other words: $ed \mod z = 1$).
- 5. public key is $(\underline{n,e})$. private key is $(\underline{n,d})$.

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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 $m = c^d \mod n$

$$\frac{\text{magic}}{\text{happens!}} \quad m = (\underbrace{m^e \bmod n}_{C})^d \bmod n$$

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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).

encrypting 8-bit messages.

encrypt: $\frac{\text{bit pattern}}{00001000} \quad \frac{\text{m}}{12} \quad \frac{\text{m}^{\text{e}}}{24832} \quad \frac{\text{c} = \text{m}^{\text{e}} \text{mod n}}{17}$

decrypt: $\frac{c}{17}$ $\frac{c^d}{481968572106750915091411825223071697}$ $\frac{m = c^d \mod n}{12}$

Why does RSA work?

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

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

 $= m^{ed} \mod n$

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

 $= m^{1} \mod n$

= 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!

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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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Chapter 8 roadmap

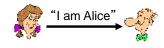
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Authentication

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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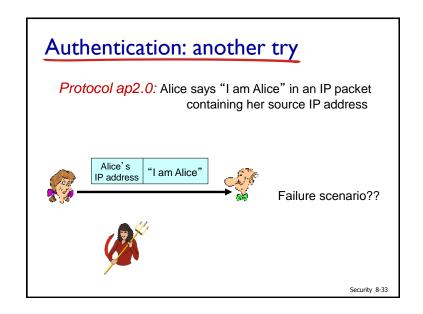
Authentication

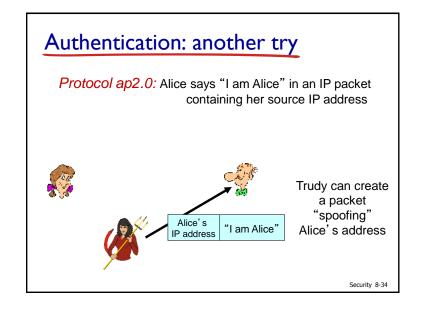
Goal: Bob wants Alice to "prove" her identity to him

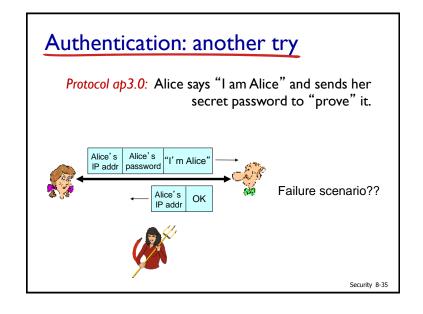
Protocol ap 1.0: Alice says "I am Alice"

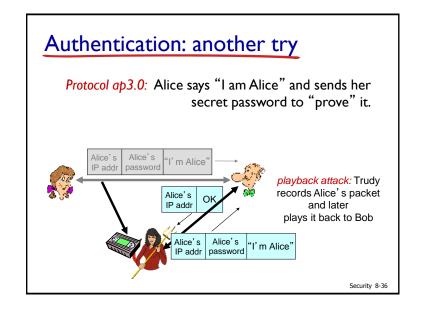


in a network, Bob can not "see" Alice, so Trudy simply declares herself to be Alice

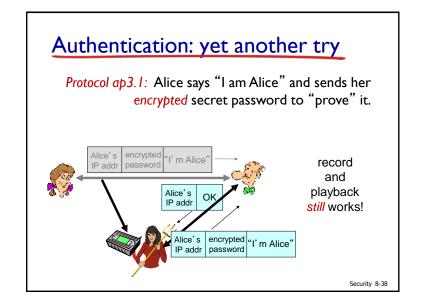


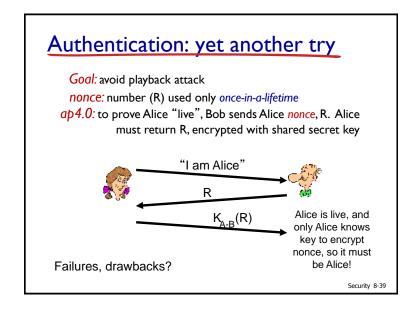


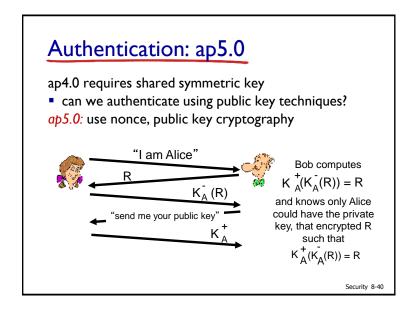


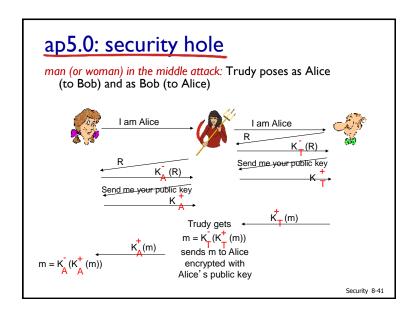


Authentication: yet another try Protocol ap3.1: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her encrypted secret password to "prove" it. Alice's encrypted "I'm Alice" password "I'm Alice" password "I'm Alice" password "I'm Alice" Failure scenario??









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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Chapter 8 roadmap

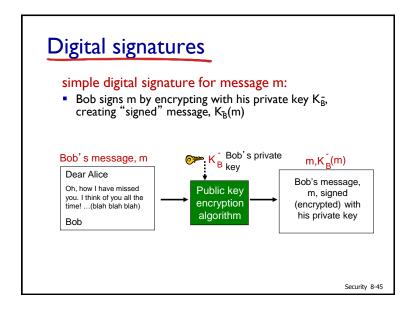
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Digital signatures

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

- 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:

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

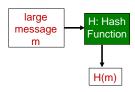
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Message digests

computationally expensive to public-key-encrypt long messages

goal: fixed-length, easyto-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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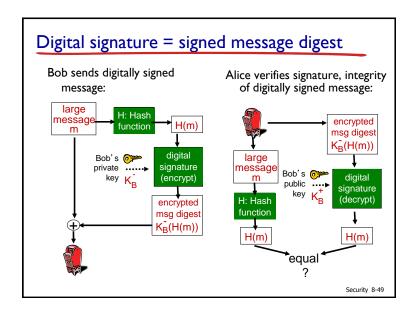
Internet checksum: poor crypto hash function

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 31
9 B O B	39 42 D2 42	9 B O B	39 42 D2 42
	B2 C1 D2 AC —	different messages —	B2 C1 D2 AC
	I	but identical checksums!	



Hash function algorithms

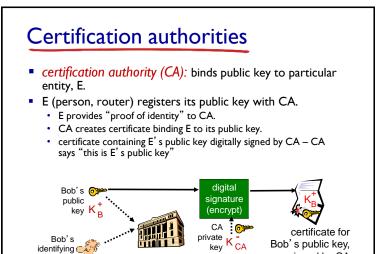
- MD5 hash function widely used (RFC 1321)
 - computes 128-bit message digest in 4-step process.
 - arbitrary 128-bit string x, appears difficult to construct msg m whose MD5 hash is equal to x
- SHA-I is also used
 - US standard [NIST, FIPS PUB 180-1]
 - 160-bit message digest

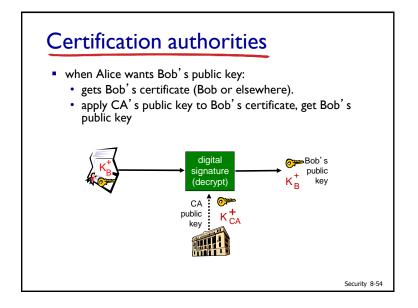
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Recall: ap5.0 security hole man (or woman) in the middle attack: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice) I am Alice I am Alice K_(R) Send me your public key K (R) Send me your public key K₊(m) Trudy gets + $m = K_{(K^+(m))}$ K, (m) sends m to Alice $m = K_{\bullet}(K_{\bullet}^{+}(m))$ encrypted with Alice's public key Security 8-51

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





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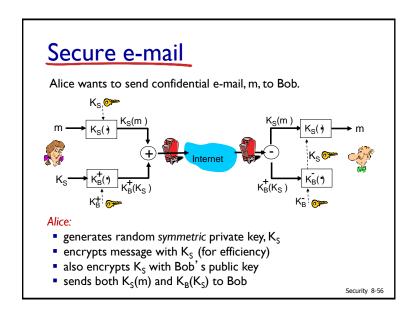
identifying 💢

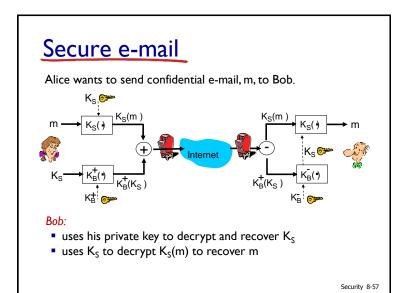
information

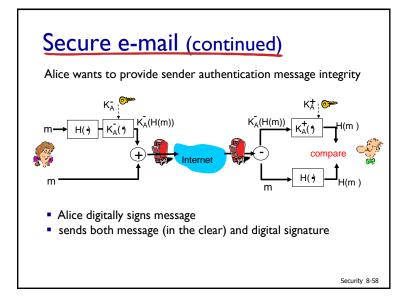
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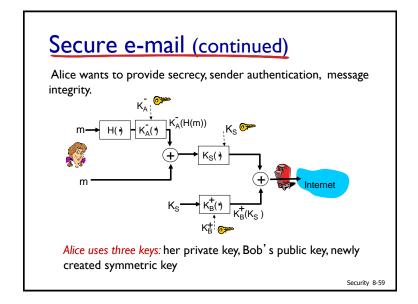
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signed by CA









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