

Internet Technology

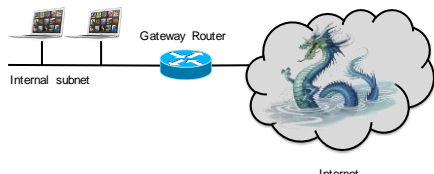
14. Network Security

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Spring 2016

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Network Security Goals

- **Confidentiality**: sensitive data & systems not accessible
- **Integrity**: data not modified during transmission
- **Availability**: systems should remain accessible



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Firewall

- Separate your local network from the Internet
 - Protect the border between trusted internal networks and the untrusted Internet
- Approaches
 - Packet filters
 - Application proxies
 - Intrusion detection / intrusion protection systems

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Screening router

- **Border router** (gateway router)
 - Router between the internal network(s) and external network(s)
 - Any traffic between internal & external networks passes through the border router

Instead of just routing the packet, decide whether to route it

- **Screening router** = Packet filter
 - Allow or deny packets based on
 - Incoming interface, outgoing interface
 - Source IP address, destination IP address
 - Source TCP/UDP port, destination TCP/UDP port, ICMP command
 - Protocol (e.g., TCP, UDP, ICMP, IGMP, RSVP, etc.)

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Filter chaining

- An IP packet entering a router is matched against a set of rules: **access control list (ACL)** or **chain**
- Each rule contains criteria and an action
 - **Criteria**: packet screening rule
 - **Actions**
 - *Accept* – and stop processing additional rules
 - *Drop* – discard the packet and stop processing additional rules
 - *Reject* – and send an error to the sender (ICMP Destination Unreachable)
 - Also
 - *Route* – reroute packets
 - *Nat* – perform network address translation
 - *Log* – record the activity

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Filter structure is vendor specific

Examples

- Windows
 - *Allow*, *Block*
 - Options such as
 - Discard all traffic except packets allowed by filters (*default deny*)
 - Pass through all traffic except packets prohibited by filters (*default allow*)
- OpenBSD
 - *Pass* (allow), *Block*
- Linux *nftables*
 - Chain types: *filter*, *route*, *nat*
 - Chain control
 - *Return* – stop traversing a chain
 - *Jump* – jump to another chain (*goto* = same but no return)

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Network Ingress Filtering (incoming packets)

Basic firewalling principle
All traffic must flow through a firewall and be inspected

- Determine which services you want to expose to the Internet
 - e.g., HTTP & HTTPS: TCP ports 80 and 443
- Create a list of services and allow only those inbound ports and protocols to the machines hosting the services.
- Default Deny** model - by default, "deny all"
 - Anything not specifically permitted is dropped
 - May want to log denies to identify who is attempting access

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Network Ingress Filtering

- Disallow IP source address spoofing
 - Restrict forged traffic (RFC 2827)
- At the ISP
 - Filter upstream traffic - prohibit an attacker from sending traffic from forged IP addresses
 - Attacker must use a valid, reachable source address
- Disallow incoming/outgoing traffic from private, non-routable IP addresses
 - Helps with **DDoS attacks** such as SYN flooding from lots of invalid addresses

```
access-list 199 deny ip 192.168.0.0 0.0.255.255 any log
access-list 199 deny ip 224.0.0.0 0.0.0.255 any log
.....
access-list 199 permit ip any any
```

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Network Egress Filtering (outbound)

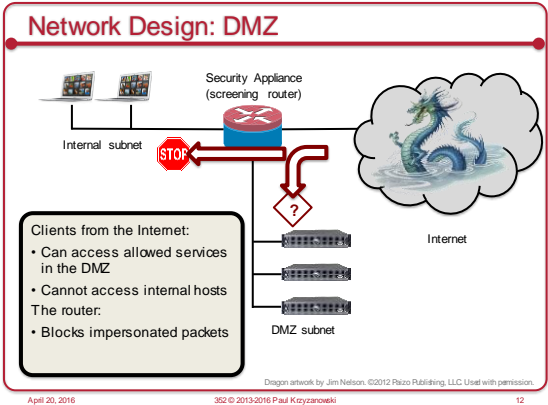
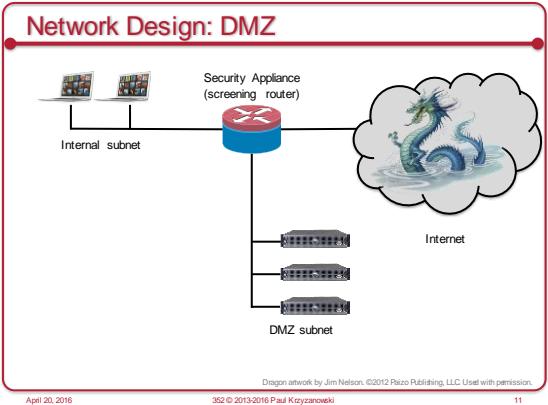
- Usually we don't worry about outbound traffic.
 - Communication from a higher security network (internal) to a lower security network (Internet) is usually fine
- Why might we want to restrict it?
 - Consider: if a web server is compromised & all outbound traffic is allowed, it can connect to an external server and download more malicious code ... or launch a DoS attack on the internal network
 - Also, log which servers are trying to access external addresses

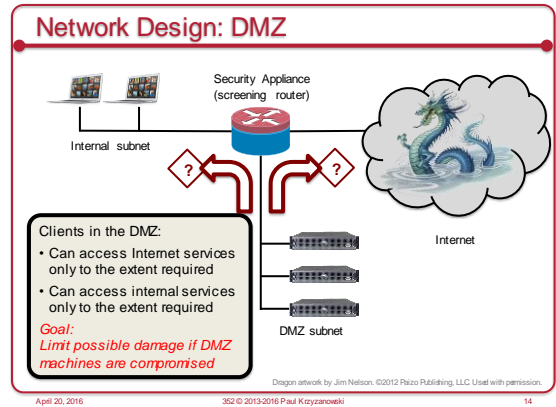
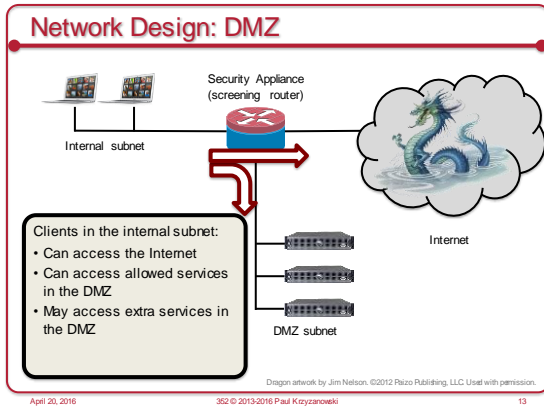
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Stateful Filters

- Retain state information about a stream of related packets
- Examples
 - TCP connection tracking
 - Disallow TCP data packets unless a connection is set up
 - ICMP echo-reply
 - Allow ICMP echo-reply only if a corresponding echo request was sent
 - Related traffic
 - Identify & allow traffic that is related to a connection
 - Example: related ports in FTP

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Network Design: NAT

- NAT is an implicit firewall (sort of)
 - Arbitrary hosts and services on them (ports) cannot be accessed unless they are specifically mapped to a specific host/port by the administrator

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Application-Layer Filtering

- Deep packet inspection
 - Look beyond layer 3 & 4 headers
 - Need to know something about application protocols & formats
- Example
 - URL filtering
 - Normal source/destination host/port filtering + URL pattern/keywords, rewrite/truncate rules, protocol content filters
 - Detect ActiveX and Java applets; configure specific applets as trusted
 - Filter others from the HTML code

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IDS/IPS

- Intrusion Detection/Prevention Systems
 - Identify threats and attacks
- Types of IDS
 - Protocol-based
 - Signature-based
 - Anomaly-based

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Protocol-Based IDS

- Reject packets that do not follow a prescribed protocol
- Permit return traffic as a function of incoming traffic
- Define traffic of interest (filter), filter on traffic-specific protocol/patterns
- Examples
 - DNS inspection: prevent spoofing DNS replies; make sure they match IDs of DNS requests
 - SMTP inspection: restrict SMTP command set (and command count, arguments, addresses)
 - FTP inspection: restrict FTP command set (and file sizes and file names)

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Signature-based IDS

- Don't search for protocol violations but for exploits in programming
- Match patterns of known "bad" behavior
 - Viruses
 - Malformed URLs
 - Buffer overflow code

Anomaly-based IDS

- Search for statistical deviations from normal behavior
 - Measure baseline behavior first
 - Use heuristics, not bit patterns
- Examples:
 - Port scanning
 - Imbalance in protocol distribution
 - Imbalance in service access

Other intrusion prevention approaches

- Port reassignment
 - Avoid well-known ports if only trusted users will access the services
 - E.g.,
 - Run *sshd* on port 2122 instead of 22
 - Run *httpd* on port 8180 instead of 80
 - The vast majority of attacks are casual
- **fail2ban**: host-based intrusion prevention framework
 - Scan log files for suspicious activity
 - Block IP addresses that are causing this activity for a period of time

Application proxies

- Proxy servers
 - Intermediaries between clients and servers
 - Stateful inspection and protocol validation
 - Incoming traffic must go through the application proxy

```

    graph LR
        EC[External client] <--> PS[Proxy server]
        PS <--> RS[Real server]
        subgraph Your_company
            PS
            RS
        end
    
```

Cryptography: Basic Concepts

Terms

- Plaintext (cleartext) message P
- Encryption $E(P)$
- Produces Ciphertext, $C = E(P)$
- Decryption, $P = D(C)$
- Cipher = cryptographic algorithm

Symmetric-key algorithm

- Same secret key, K , for encryption & decryption

$$C = E_K(P) \quad P = D_K(C)$$

- Examples: AES, 3DES, IDEA, RC5
- Key length
 - Determines number of possible keys
 - DES: 56-bit key: $2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$ keys
 - AES-256: 256-bit key: $2^{256} = 1.1 \times 10^{77}$ keys
 - *Brute force attack*: try all keys
 - Each extra bit in the key doubles # possible keys

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Communicating with symmetric cryptography

- Both parties must agree on a secret key, K
- Message is encrypted, sent, decrypted at other side

- Key distribution must be secret
 - otherwise messages can be decrypted
 - users can be impersonated

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Cipher Block Chaining

- Streams of data are broken into k -byte blocks
 - Each block encrypted separately
- Problems
 1. Same plaintext results in identical encrypted blocks
 2. Attacker can add/delete/replace blocks

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Cipher Block Chaining

- Streams of data are broken into k -byte blocks
 - Each block encrypted separately
- Problems
 1. Same plaintext results in identical encrypted blocks
 2. Attacker can add/delete/replace blocks
- Solution: **Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)**
 - Random **initialization vector** = bunch of k random bits
 - Exclusive-or with first plaintext block – then encrypt the block
 - Take exclusive-or of the result with the next plaintext block

$$C_i = E_K(m_i) \oplus C_{i-1}$$

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Key distribution

Secure key distribution is the biggest problem with symmetric cryptography

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Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Key distribution algorithm

- First algorithm to use public/private “keys”
- Not public key encryption
- Based on difficulty of computing discrete logarithms in a finite field compared with ease of calculating exponentiation

Allows us to negotiate a secret **common key** without fear of eavesdroppers

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Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- All arithmetic performed in a field of integers modulo some large number
- Both parties agree on
 - a **large prime number p**
 - and a number $\alpha < p$
- Each party generates a public/private key pair
 - Private key for user i : X_i
 - Public key for user i : $Y_i = \alpha^{X_i} \text{ mod } p$

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Diffie-Hellman exponential key exchange

- Alice has secret key X_A
- Alice has public key Y_A
- Alice computes

$$K = Y_B^{X_A} \text{ mod } p$$
- Bob has secret key X_B
- Bob has public key Y_B

$K = (\text{Bob's public key})^{(\text{Alice's private key})} \text{ mod } p$

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Diffie-Hellman exponential key exchange

- Alice has secret key X_A
- Alice has public key Y_A
- Alice computes

$$K = Y_B^{X_A} \text{ mod } p$$
- Bob has secret key X_B
- Bob has public key Y_B
- Bob computes

$$K = Y_A^{X_B} \text{ mod } p$$

$K' = (\text{Alice's public key})^{(\text{Bob's private key})} \text{ mod } p$

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Diffie-Hellman exponential key exchange

- Alice has secret key X_A
- Alice has public key Y_A
- Alice computes

$$K = Y_B^{X_A} \text{ mod } p$$
- Bob has secret key X_B
- Bob has public key Y_B
- Bob computes

$$K = Y_A^{X_B} \text{ mod } p$$
- expanding:

$$K = Y_B^{X_A} \text{ mod } p = (\alpha^{X_B} \text{ mod } p)^{X_A} \text{ mod } p = \alpha^{X_B X_A} \text{ mod } p$$
- expanding:

$$K = Y_A^{X_B} \text{ mod } p = (\alpha^{X_A} \text{ mod } p)^{X_B} \text{ mod } p = \alpha^{X_A X_B} \text{ mod } p$$

$K = K'$

K is a common key, known only to Bob and Alice

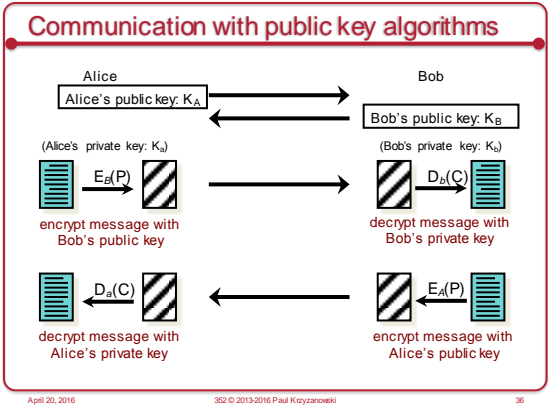
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Public-key algorithm

- Two related keys.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} C &= E_{K_1}(P) & P &= D_{K_2}(C) \\ C' &= E_{K_2}(P) & P &= D_{K_1}(C') \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{array}{l} K_1 \text{ is a public key} \\ K_2 \text{ is a private key} \end{array}$$
- Examples:
 - RSA, Elliptic curve algorithms
 - DSS (digital signature standard), Diffie-Hellman (key exchange only!)
- Key length
 - Unlike symmetric cryptography, not every number is a valid key
 - 3072-bit RSA = 256-bit elliptic curve = 128-bit symmetric cipher
 - 15360-bit RSA = 521-bit elliptic curve = 256-bit symmetric cipher

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Hybrid Cryptosystems

- **Session key**: randomly-generated key for one communication session
- Use a **public key algorithm** to send the session key
- Use a **symmetric algorithm** to encrypt data with the session key

Public key algorithms are almost never used to encrypt messages

- MUCH slower; vulnerable to *chosen-plaintext attacks*
- RSA-2048 approximately 55x slower to encrypt and 2,000x slower to decrypt than AES-256

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Communication with a hybrid cryptosystem

Alice: Pick a random **session key**, K

Alice: encrypt session key with Bob's public key $E_B(K)$

Bob: Bob's public key: K_B

Bob: $K = D_B(E_B(K))$
Bob decrypts K with his private key

Now Bob knows the secret session key K

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Communication with a hybrid cryptosystem

Alice: encrypt message using a symmetric algorithm and key K $E_K(P)$

Alice: $E_B(K)$

Bob: Bob's public key: K_B
 $K = D_B(E_B(K))$

Bob: decrypt message using a symmetric algorithm and key K $D_K(C)$

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Communication with a hybrid cryptosystem

Alice: $E_B(K)$

Bob: Bob's public key: K_B
 $K = D_B(E_B(K))$

Alice: encrypt message using a symmetric algorithm and key K $E_K(P)$

Bob: decrypt message using a symmetric algorithm and key K $D_K(C)$

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Hash functions

- **Cryptographic hash function** (also known as a digest)
 - Input: arbitrary data
 - Output: fixed-length bit string
- Properties
 - **One-way function**
 - Given $H = hash(M)$, it should be difficult to compute M , given H
 - **Collision resistant**
 - Given $H = hash(M)$, it should be difficult to find M' , such that $H = hash(M')$
 - For a hash of length L , a perfect hash would take $2^{(L/2)}$ attempts
 - **Efficient**
 - Computing a hash function should be computationally efficient
- Common hash functions: SHA-2, SHA-3 (256 & 512 bit), MD5

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Message Authentication

- **Message Authentication Code (MAC)**
 - Hash encrypted with a symmetric key:
An intruder will not be able to replace the hash value
- **Digital Signature**
 - Hash function encrypted with the owner's private key
 - Alice encrypts the hash with her **private key**
 - Bob validates it by decrypting it with her public key & comparing with $hash(M)$
 - Provides **non-repudiation**

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Authentication

Key concept: prove that you can encrypt data that is presented to you


- Pre-shared keys
- Challenge Handshake Authentication Protocol (CHAP)
 - f(shared key, challenge #)
- Diffie-Hellman
 - Key exchange protocol: precursor to public key cryptography
 - Using Bob's public "key" and her private "key", Alice can compute a common key
 - Using Alice's public "key" and his private "key", Bob can compute the same common key
 - Prove that you can encrypt or decrypt data using the common key
- Public-key
 - Prove that you can encrypt or decrypt data using your private key

Public Key Authentication

Public key authentication

Demonstrate we can encrypt or decrypt a *nonce*

- Alice wants to authenticate herself to Bob:
- **Bob:** generates nonce, S
 - Sends it to Alice
- **Alice:** encrypts S with her private key (signs it)
 - Sends result to Bob



Public key authentication

Bob:

1. Look up "alice" in a database of public keys
2. Decrypt the message from Alice using Alice's public key
3. If the result is S, then Bob is convinced he's talking with Alice

For **mutual authentication**, Alice has to present Bob with a nonce that Bob will encrypt with his private key and return

Public key authentication

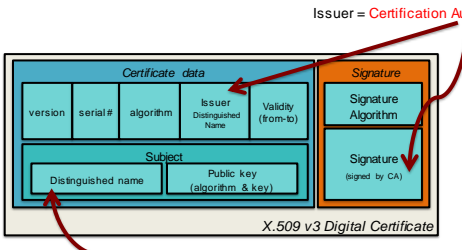
- Identity is based on the key
 - How do you know it really is Alice's public key?
- One option: get keys from a trusted source
- Problem: requires always going to the source
 - cannot pass keys around
- Another option: sign the public key
 - Contents cannot be modified
 - **digital certificate**

X.509 Certificates

ISO introduced a set of authentication protocols

X.509: Structure for public key **certificates**:

Issuer = Certification Authority (CA)



X.509 v3 Digital Certificate

Name, organization, locality, state, country, etc.

Reminder: What's a digital signature?

Hash of a message encrypted with the signer's private key

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X.509 certificates

When you get a certificate

- Verify its signature:
 - hash contents of certificate data
 - Decrypt CA's signature with CA's public key

Obtain CA's public key (certificate) from trusted source

Certificates prevent someone from using a phony public key to masquerade as another person

...if you trust the CA

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Built-in trusted root certificates in iOS 9

- A-Trust-Quest-01
- A-Trust-Quest-01
- A-Trust-Quest-02
- AAA Certificate Services
- Actalis Authentication Root CA
- AddTrust Class 1 CA Root
- AddTrust External CA Root
- AddTrust Public CA Root
- AddTrust Qualified CA Root
- Admin-Root-CA
- Admin-CA-CD-T01
- AllNetTrust Commercial
- AllNetTrust Networking
- AllNetTrust Premium ECC
- AllNetTrust Premium
- ANF Global Root CA
- Apple Root CA - G2
- Apple Root CA - G3
- Apple Root CA
- Apple Root Certificate Authority
- Application CA G2
- ApplicationCA
- ApplicationCA2 Root
- Autoridad de Certificación Firmaprofesional CIF A6254695
- Autoridad de Certificación Raíz del Estado Venezolano
- Baltimore CyberTrust Root
- Belgium Root CA2
- Bypass Class 2 CA 1
- Bypass Class 2 Root CA
- Bypass Class 3 CA 1
- Bypass Class 3 Root CA
- CA Disig Root R1
- CA Disig Root R2
- CA Disig
- Comigna
- Centrimis - Autorité Racine
- Centrimis - Root CA
- certSIGN ROOTCA
- Cetum CA
- Cetum Trusted Network CA 2
- Cetum Trusted Network CA
- Chambers of Commerce Root - 2008
- Chambers of Commerce Root
- Cisco Root CA 2048
- Class 2 Primary CA
- Common Policy
- COMODO Certification Authority
- ComSign CA
- ComSign Global Root CA
- ComSign Secured CA
- D-TRUST Root Class 3 CA 2 2009
- D-TRUST Root Class 3 CA 2 EV 2009
- Deutsche Telekom Root CA 2
- DigCert Assured ID Root CA
- DigCert Assured ID Root G2
- DigCert Assured ID Root G3
- DigCert Global Root CA
- DigCert Global Root G2
- DigCert Global Root G3
- DigCert High Assurance EV Root CA
- DigCert Trusted Root G4
- DoD Root CA 2
- DST ACES CA X6
- DST Root CA X3
- DST Root CA X4
- E-TUGa Certification Authority
- EBC Elektronik-Satellite Hizmet Sağlayicisi
- Echovox Root CA2
- EE Certification Centre Root CA
- Entrust Root Certification Authority - EC1
- Entrust Root Certification Authority - G2
- Entrust Root Certification Authority
- Entrust.net Certification Authority (2048)
- Entrust.net Certification Authority (2048)
- ePKI Root Certification Authority
- Federal Common Policy CA
- GeoTrust Global CA
- GeoTrust Primary Certification Authority - G2
- GeoTrust Primary Certification Authority - G3
- GeoTrust Primary Certification Authority
- Global Chambersign Root - 2008
- Global Chambersign Root
- GlobalSign Root CA

Partial list from: <https://support.apple.com/en-us/HT205205>

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SSL/TLS

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Transport Layer Security (TLS)

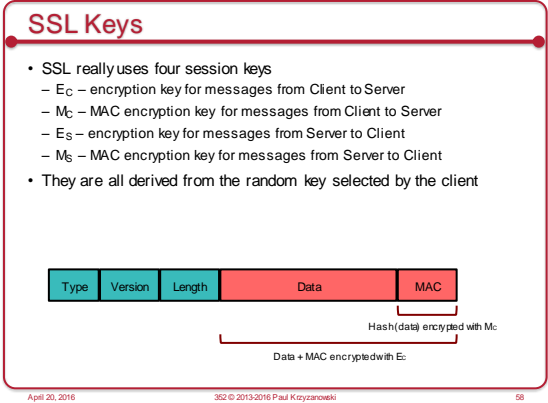
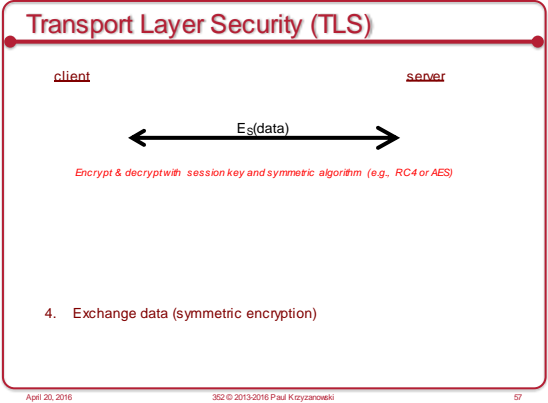
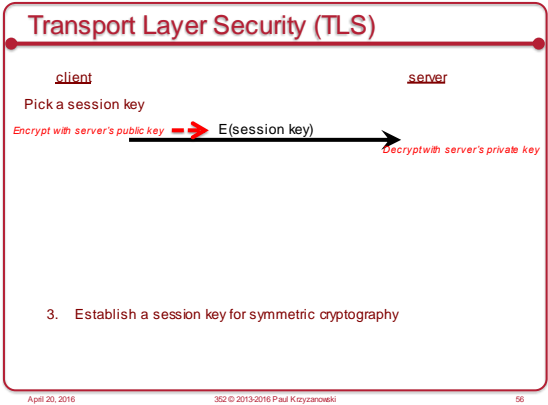
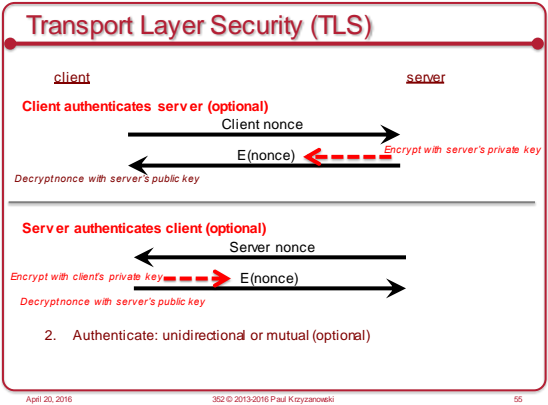
- aka **Secure Socket Layer (SSL)**, which is an older protocol
- Sits on top of TCP/IP
- Goal: provide an encrypted and possibly authenticated communication channel
 - Provides authentication via RSA and X.509 certificates
 - Encryption of communication session via a symmetric cipher
- Hybrid cryptosystem:** (usually, but also supports Diffie-Hellman)
 - Public key for authentication
 - Symmetric for data communication
- Enables TCP services to engage in secure, authenticated transfers
 - http, telnet, ntp, ftp, smtp, ...

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Transport Layer Security (TLS)

- Establish protocol, version, cipher suite
Get server certificate (or public key)
[details depend on chosen cipher]

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- ### Cryptographic toolbox
- Symmetric encryption
 - Public key encryption
 - One-way hash functions
 - Random number generators
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Virtual Private Networks

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Private networks

Connect multiple geographically -separated private subnetworks together

192.168.1.0/24 Internal subnet Gateway Router Private network line Gateway Router Internal subnet 192.168.2.0/24

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What's a tunnel?

Packet encapsulation

- Treat an entire IP datagram as payload on the public network

192.168.1.0/24 Internal subnet Gateway Router Internet Gateway Router Internal subnet 192.168.2.0/24

From: 192.168.1.11 To: 192.168.2.22 Data: [-----]

From: 68.36.210.57 To: 128.6.4.2 Data: [From: 192.168.1.11 To: 192.168.2.22 Data: [-----]]

From: 192.168.1.11 To: 192.168.2.22 Data: [-----]

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Tunnel mode vs. transport mode

- Tunnel mode
 - Communication between gateways
 - Or a host-to-gateway
 - Datagram is encapsulated
- Transport mode
 - Communication between hosts
 - IP header is not modified - routes to destination host

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IPsec

- IPsec = Internet Protocol Security
- End-to-end VPN at the IP layer
- Two protocols:
 - IPsec Authentication Header Protocol (AH)
 - IPsec Encapsulating Security Payload (ESP)

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IPsec Authentication Header (AH)

- Ensures the integrity & authenticity of IP packets
 - Digital signature for the contents of the entire IP packet
 - Over unchangeable IP datagram fields (e.g., not TTL or fragmentation)

IP AH TCP/UDP Application

New IP AH IP TCP/UDP Application

Encapsulated IP datagram - NOT ENCRYPTED

- Protects
 - Tampering
 - Forging addresses
 - Replay attacks (signed sequence number in AH)
- Directly on top of IP (protocol 51) - not UDP or TCP

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IPsec Encapsulating Security Payload (ESP)

- Encrypts entire payload
 - Optional authentication of payload + IP header (everything AH does)

IP ESP header TCP/UDP Application ESP trailer ESP auth

New IP ESP header IP TCP/UDP Application ESP trailer ESP auth

Encrypted

Authenticated

- Directly on top of IP (protocol 51) - not UDP or TCP

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The end

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