

Chapter 8 Security

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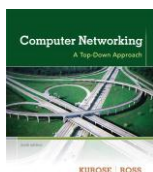
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CSCI 363 at Bucknell
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Computer
Networking: A Top
Down Approach
6th edition
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Addison-Wesley
March 2012

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Network Security 8-2

Chapter 8: 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 8 roadmap

- 8.1 What is network security?
- 8.2 Principles of cryptography
- 8.3 Message integrity, authentication
- 8.4 Securing e-mail
- 8.5 Securing TCP connections: SSL
- 8.6 Network layer security: IPsec
- 8.7 Securing wireless LANs
- 8.8 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

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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

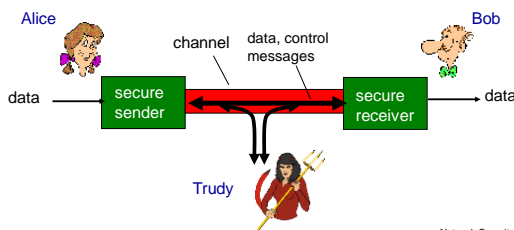
message integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection

access and availability: services must be accessible and available to users

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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



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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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There are bad guys (and girls) out there!

Q: What can a “bad guy” do?

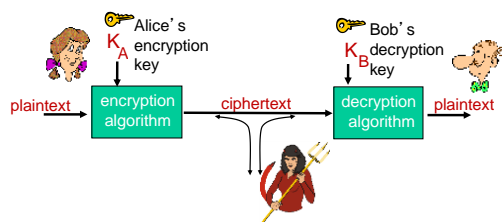
A: A lot! See section 1.6

- **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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The language of cryptography



m plaintext message

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

$m = K_B(K_A(m))$

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8.6 Network layer security: IPsec

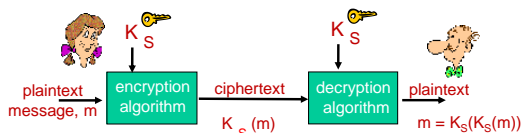
8.7 Securing wireless LANs

8.8 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

Breaking an encryption scheme

- ❖ **cipher-text only attack:** Trudy has ciphertext she can analyze
- ❖ **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,b
- ❖ **two approaches:**
 - brute force: search through all keys
 - statistical analysis
- ❖ **chosen-plaintext attack:** Trudy can get ciphertext for chosen plaintext

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?

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Simple encryption scheme

substitution cipher: substituting one thing for another

- monoalphabetic cipher: substitute one letter for another

plaintext: a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z
 ciphertext: m n b v c x z a s d f g h j k l p o i u y t r e w q

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, \dots, M_n
- ❖ cycling pattern:
 - e.g., $n=4$: M_1, M_3, M_4, M_2 ; $M_1, M_3, M_4, M_2, \dots$
- ❖ for each new plaintext symbol, use subsequent substitution pattern in cyclic pattern
 - bob: b using M_1 , o using M_3 , b using M_4
 - b \rightarrow 'k', o \rightarrow 'm', b \rightarrow 'y'

🔑 **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

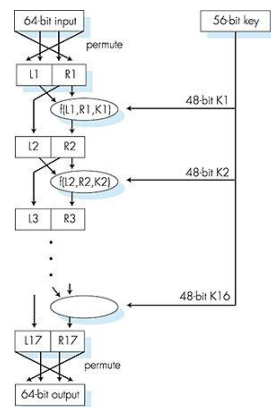
- ❖ US encryption standard, published 1975, originally adopted 1976, reaffirmed 1983, 1988, 1993, 1999, withdrew 2004
- ❖ 56-bit symmetric key, 64-bit plaintext input
- ❖ block cipher with cipher block chaining
- ❖ how secure is DES?
 - DES Challenge: 56-bit-key-encrypted phrase decrypted (brute force) in less than a day (2008)
 - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data_Encryption_Standard
 - 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



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AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- ❖ symmetric-key NIST standard, replaced DES (Nov 2001)
- ❖ processes data in 128 bit blocks
 - 10 cycles for 128 bit keys
 - 12 cycles for 192 bit keys
 - 14 cycles for 256 bit keys
- ❖ brute force decryption (try each key) takes 1 sec on DES, would take 149 trillion years for AES
- ❖ See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Advanced_Encryption_Standard

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How to agree on "key(s)"?

symmetric key crypto

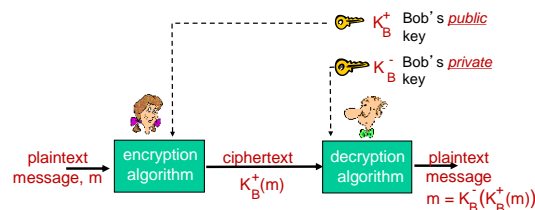
- ❖ requires sender, receiver know shared secret key
- ❖ Q: how to agree on key in first place (particularly if never "met")?

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



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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

- ❖ $x \bmod n$ = remainder of x when divide by n
- ❖ facts:
 - $[(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a+b) \bmod n$
 - $[(a \bmod n) - (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a-b) \bmod n$
 - $[(a \bmod n) * (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a*b) \bmod n$
- ❖ thus

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

$$(x \bmod n)^d \bmod n = 4^2 \bmod 10 = 6$$

$$x^d = 14^2 = 196 \quad x^d \bmod 10 = 6$$

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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

1. choose two large prime numbers p, q .
(e.g., 1024 bits each)
2. compute $n = pq, z = (p-1)(q-1)$
3. choose e (with $e < n$) that has no common factors with z (e, z are “relatively prime”).
4. choose d such that $ed-1$ is exactly divisible by z .
(in other words: $ed \bmod z = 1$).
5. **public key** is (n, e) . **private key** is (n, d) .

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RSA: encryption, decryption

0. given (n, e) and (n, d) as computed above
1. to encrypt message m ($< n$), compute

$$c = m^e \bmod n$$
2. to decrypt received bit pattern, c , compute

$$m = c^d \bmod n$$

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

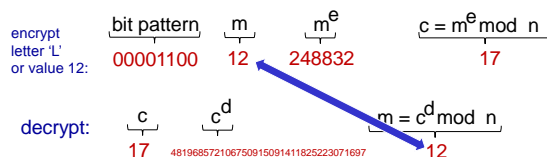
See a proof later.

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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.



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RSA implementation in openssl

- ❖ At the Linux command prompt, where openssl has been installed
 - To generate private key
 - `openssl genrsa -out private.pem 2048`
 - To generate public key based on the private key
 - `openssl rsa -in private.pem -outform PEM -pubout -out public.pem`
- ❖ PEM format
 - The PEM format is the most common format that Certificate Authorities issue certificates in.
 - They are Base64 encoded ASCII files.

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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 $z = (p-1)(q-1)$
 - Fact 4 in earlier set: $ed \bmod z = 1$
- ❖ thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 c^d \bmod n &= (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n \\
 &= m^{ed} \bmod n \\
 &= m^{(ed \bmod z)} \bmod n \\
 &= m^1 \bmod n \\
 &= m
 \end{aligned}$$

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RSA: another important property

The following property will be *very* useful later:

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

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:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n &= m^{ed} \bmod n \\
 &= m^{de} \bmod n \\
 &= (m^d \bmod n)^e \bmod n
 \end{aligned}$$

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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

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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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