

Network and Communication Security

Section 8.1 - 8.3

COS 461: Computer Networks
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Overview

- Network security and definitions
- Brief introduction to cryptography
 - Cryptographic hash functions
 - Symmetric-key crypto
 - Public-key crypto

Internet's Design: Insecure

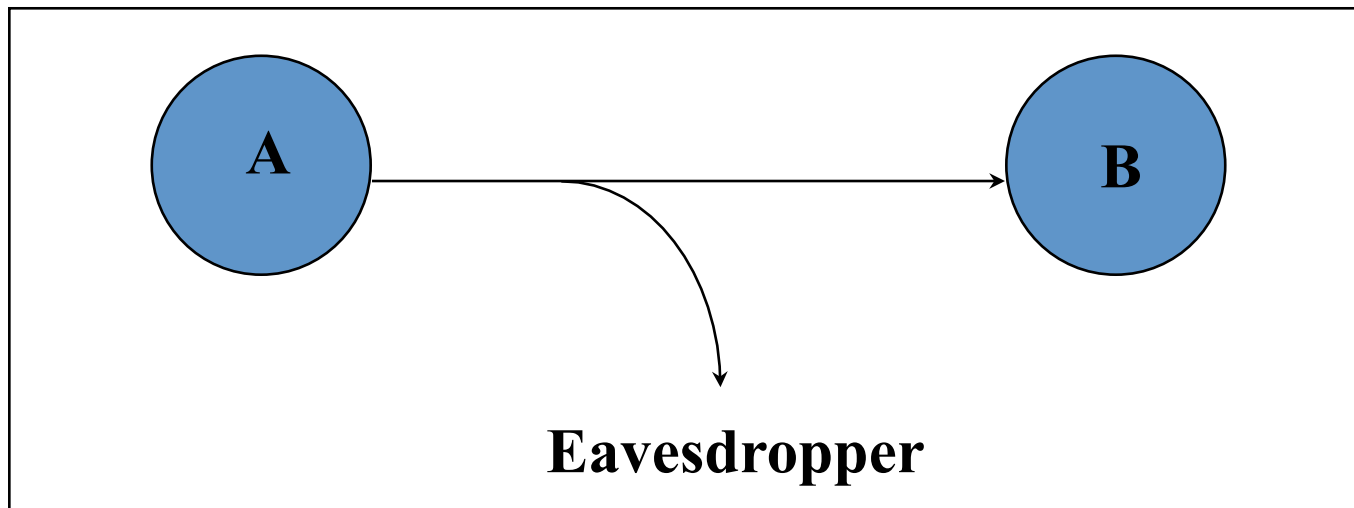
- Designed for simplicity
- “On by default” design
- Readily available zombie machines
- Attacks look like normal traffic
- Internet's federated operation obstructs cooperation for diagnosis/mitigation

Basic Components

- **Confidentiality:** Concealment of information or resources
- **Authenticity:** Identification and assurance of origin of info
- **Integrity:** Trustworthiness of data or resources in terms of preventing improper and unauthorized changes
- **Availability:** Ability to use desired info or resource
- **Non-repudiation:** Offer of evidence that a party indeed is sender or a receiver of certain information
- **Access control:** Facilities to determine and enforce who is allowed access to what resources (host, software, network, ...)

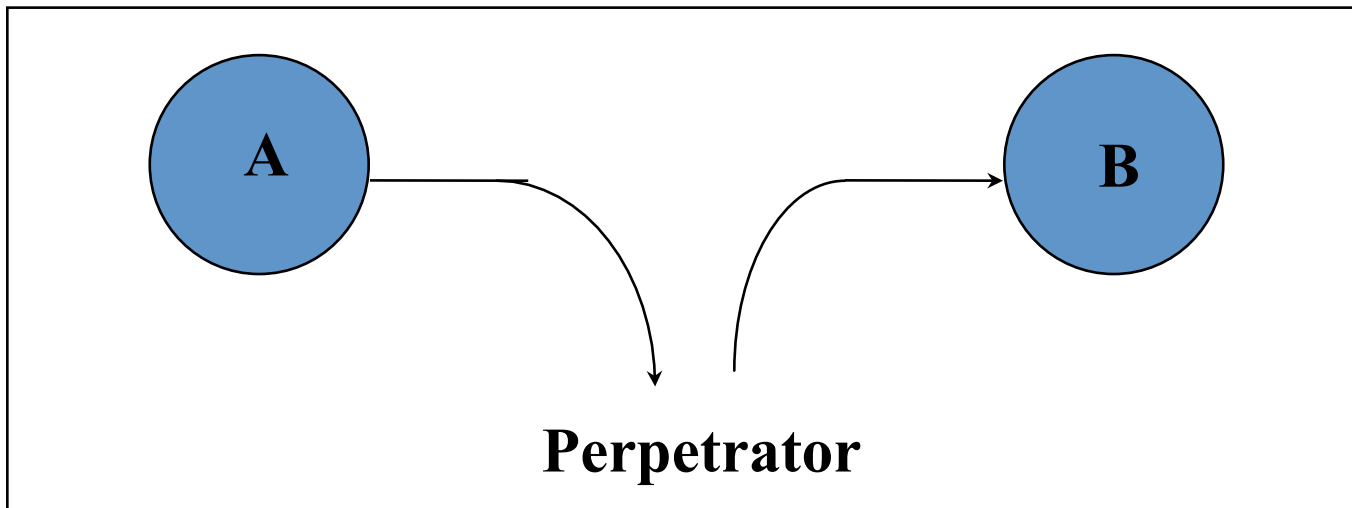
Eavesdropping - Message Interception (Attack on Confidentiality)

- Unauthorized access to information
- Packet sniffers and wiretappers (e.g. tcpdump)
- Illicit copying of files and programs



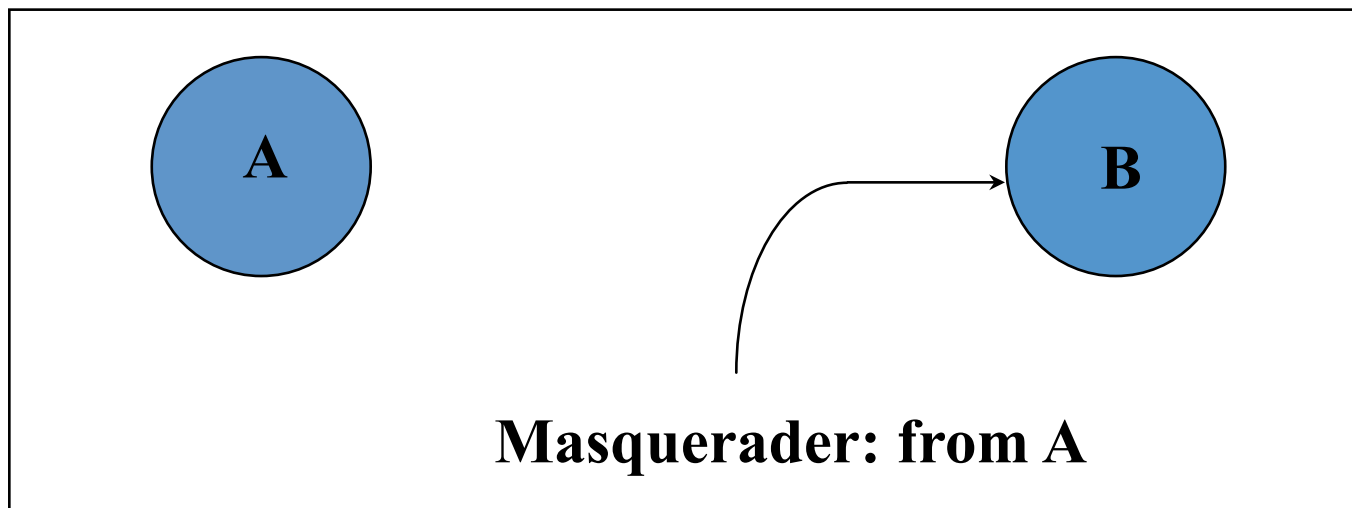
Integrity Attack - Tampering

- Stop the flow of the message
- Delay and optionally modify the message
- Release the message again



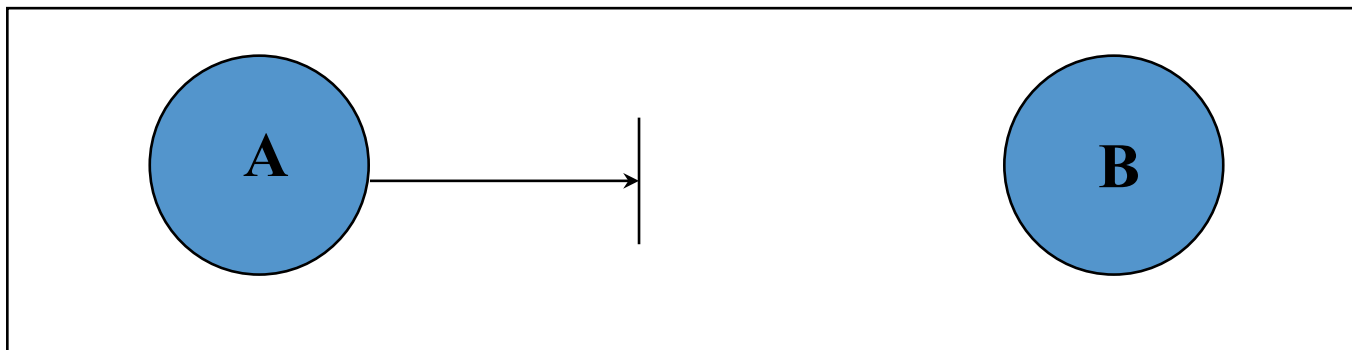
Authenticity Attack - Fabrication

- Unauthorized assumption of other's identity
- Generate and distribute objects under identity



Attack on Availability

- Destroy hardware (cutting fiber) or software
- Modify software in a subtle way
- Corrupt packets in transit



- **Blatant *denial of service* (DoS):**
 - Crashing the server
 - Overwhelm the server (use up its resource)

Impact of Attacks

- Theft of confidential information
- Unauthorized use of
 - Network bandwidth
 - Computing resource
- Spread of false information
- Disruption of legitimate services

Introduction to Cryptography

What is Cryptography?

- Comes from Greek word meaning “secret”
 - Primitives also can provide integrity, authentication
- Cryptographers invent secret codes to attempt to hide messages from unauthorized observers



- Modern encryption:
 - *Algorithm* public, *key* secret and provides security
 - May be symmetric (secret) or asymmetric (public)

Cryptographic Algorithms: Goal

- Given key, relatively easy to compute
- Without key, hard to compute (invert)
- “Level” of security often based on “length” of key

Three Types of Functions

- Cryptographic hash Functions
 - Zero keys
- Secret-key functions
 - One key
- Public-key functions
 - Two keys

Cryptographic hash functions

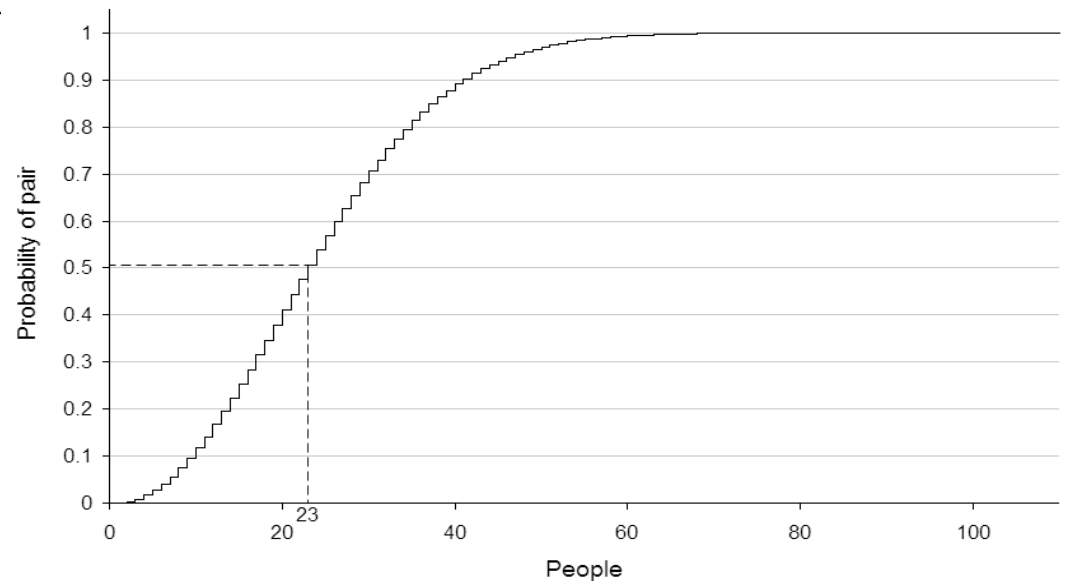
Cryptography Hash Functions

- Take message, m , of arbitrary length and produces a smaller (short) number, $h(m)$
- Properties
 - Easy to compute $h(m)$
 - Pre-image resistance: Hard to find an m , given $h(m)$
 - “One-way function”
 - Second pre-image resistance: Hard to find two values that hash to the same $h(m)$
 - E.g. discover collision: $h(m) == h(m')$ for $m \neq m'$
 - Often assumed: output of hash fn’s “looks” random

How hard to find collisions?

Birthday Paradox

- Compute probability of *different* birthdays
- Random sample of n people taken from $k=365$ days
- Probability of no repetition:
 - $P = 1 - (1) (1 - 1/365) (1 - 2/365) (1 - 3/365) \dots (1 - (n-1)/365)$
 - $P \approx 1 - e^{-(n(n-1))/2k}$
 - Let $k=n$, $P \approx 2^{(N/2)}$



How Many Bits for Hash?

- If m bits, takes $2^{m/2}$ to find weak collision
 - Still takes 2^m to find strong (pre-image) collision
- 64 bits, takes 2^{32} messages to search (easy!)
- Now, MD5 (128 bits) considered too little
- SHA-1 (160 bits) getting old

Example use #1: Passwords

- Password hashing
 - Can't store passwords in a file that could be read
 - Concerned with insider attacks!
 - Must compare typed passwords to stored passwords
 - Does `hash (typed) == hash (password)` ?
 - Actually, a “salt” is often used: `hash (input || salt)`
 - Avoids precomputation of all possible hashes in “rainbow tables” (available for download from file-sharing systems)

Example use #2: Self-certifying naming

- File-sharing software (LimeWire, BitTorrent)
 - File named by $F_{\text{name}} = \text{hash}(\text{data})$
 - Participants verify that $\text{hash}(\text{downloaded}) == F_{\text{name}}$
 - If check fails, reject data
- Recursively applied...
 - BitTorrent file has many chunks
 - Control file downloaded from tracker includes:
 - \forall \text{chunks}, F_{\text{chunk name}} = \text{hash}(\text{chunk})
 - BitTorrent client verifies each individual chunk

Example use #3: TCP SYN cookies

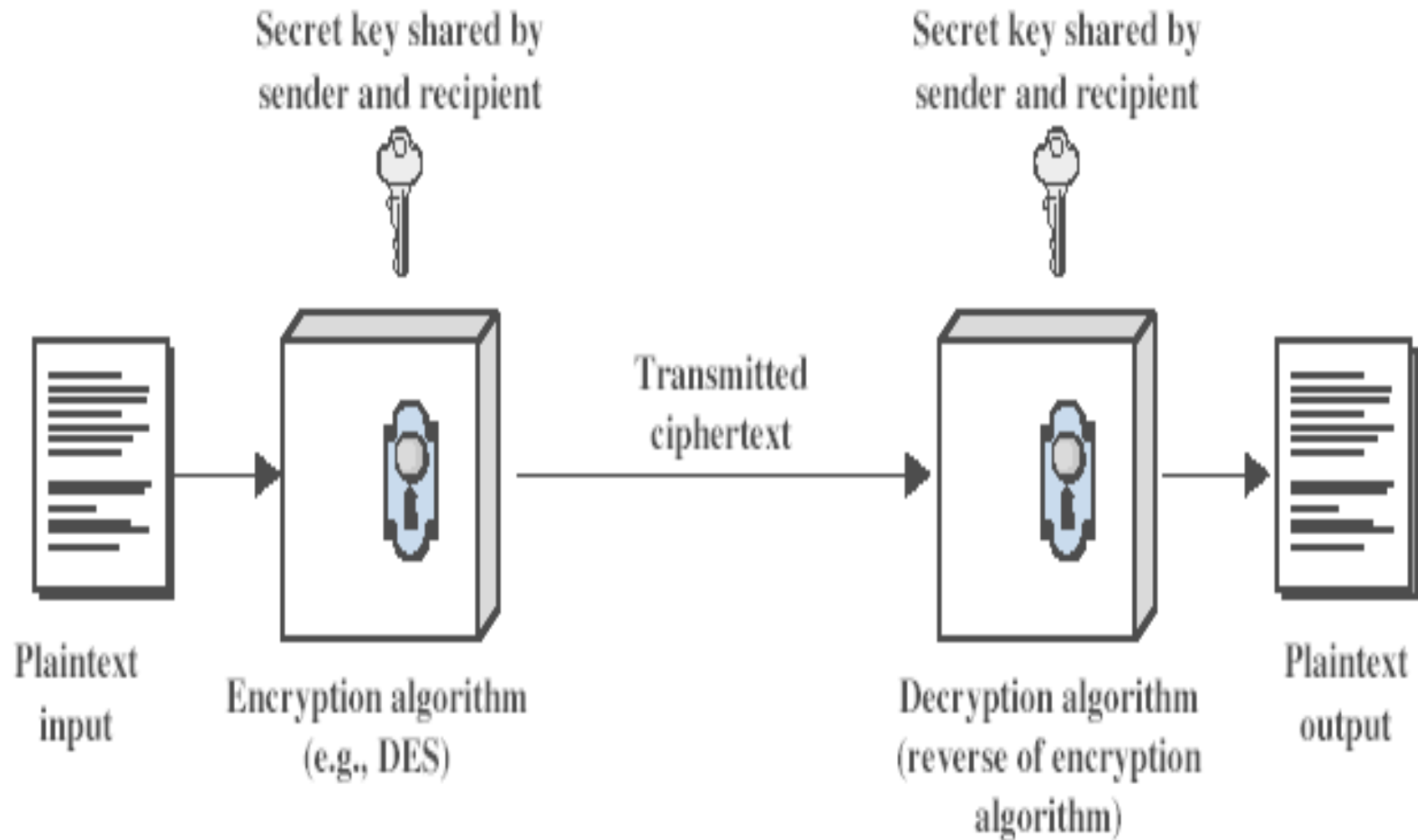
- **What state is established during TCP conn setup?**
 - Server: Initial Sequence Number (ISN), kernel bufs, MSS info
 - Attack: Setup state at server with SYN, never follow-up
 - Particularly bad: client spoofs IP, never needs response
- **General idea of SYN cookies:**
 - Server responds to Client SYN with SYN-ACK cookie
 - $\text{timestamp} = \text{time()} \bmod 32$
 - $\text{seqno} = f(\text{timestamp}, \text{src ip}, \text{src port}, \text{dest ip}, \text{dest port})$
 - Server's ISN = timestamp [5b] || mss[3b] || seqno [24b]
 - Keeps no state. Delays memory buffer allocation.
 - Honest client responds with ACK (of server ISN)
 - Server checks response. If seqno valid, establishes conn

Symmetric (Secret) Key Cryptography

Symmetric Encryption

- Also: “conventional / private-key / single-key”
 - Sender and recipient share a common key
 - All classical encryption algorithms are private-key
 - Dual use: confidentiality or authentication/integrity
 - Encryption vs. msg authentication code (MAC)
- Was only type of encryption prior to invention of public-key in 1970's
 - Most widely used
 - More computationally efficient than “public key”

Symmetric Cipher Model



Use and Requirements

- Two requirements
 - Strong encryption algorithm
 - Secret key known only to sender / receiver
- Goal: Given key, generate 1-to-1 mapping to ciphertext that looks random if key unknown
 - Assume *algorithm* is known (no security by obscurity)
 - Implies secure channel to distribute key

Confidentiality (Encryption)

Sender:

- Compute $C = \text{AES}_K(M)$
- Send C

Receiver:

- Recover $M = \text{AES}'_K(C)$

Auth/Integrity (MAC)

Sender:

- Compute $H = \text{AES}_K(\text{SHA1}(M))$
- Send $\langle M, H \rangle$

Receiver:

- Compute $H' = \text{AES}_K(\text{SHA1}(M))$
- Check $H' == H$

Public-Key Cryptography

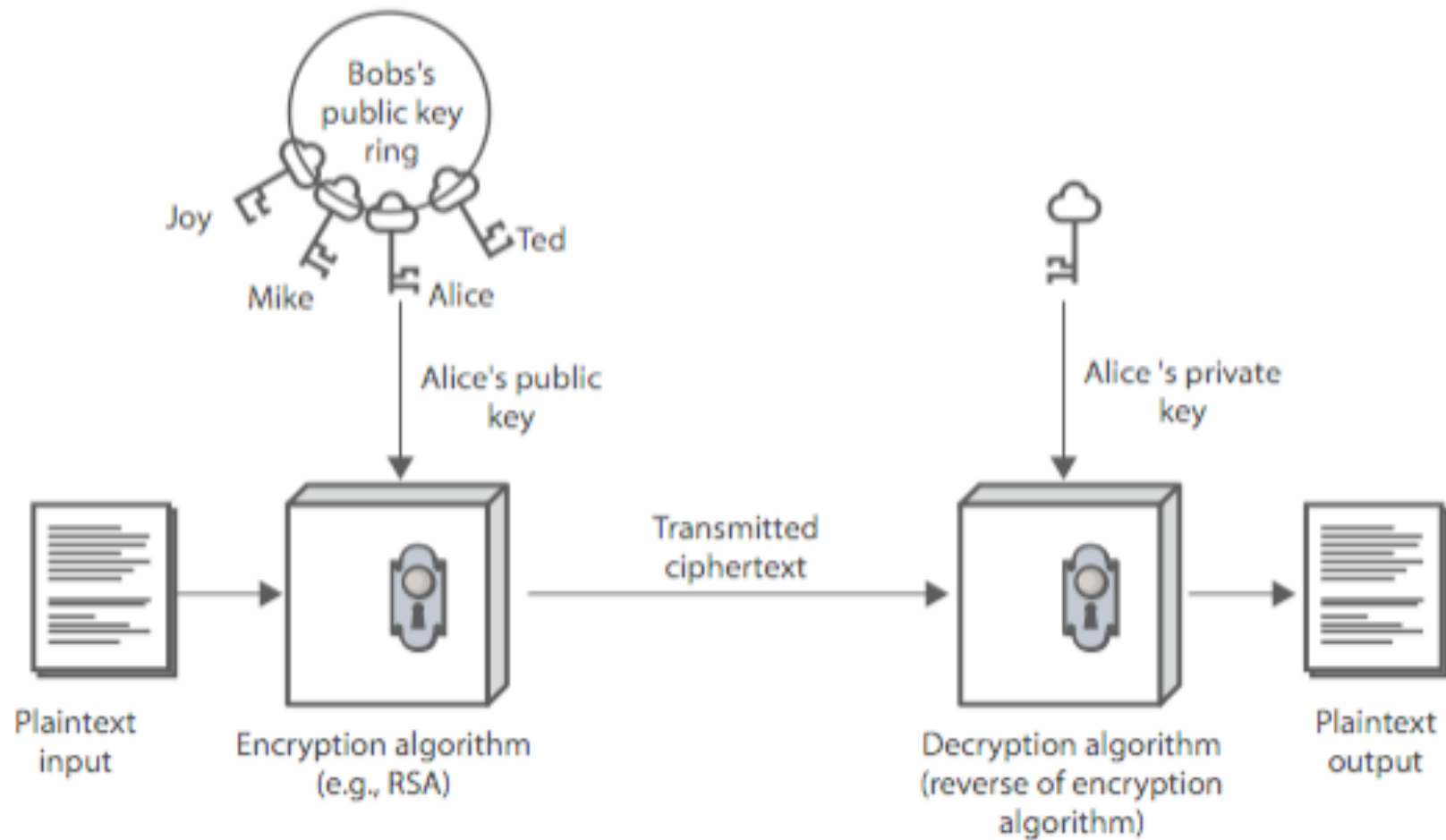
Why Public-Key Cryptography?

- Developed to address two key issues:
 - **Key distribution:** Secure communication w/o having to trust a key distribution center with your key
 - **Digital signatures:** Verify msg comes intact from claimed sender (w/o prior establishment)
- Public invention due to Whitfield Diffie & Martin Hellman in 1976
 - Known earlier in classified community

Public-Key Cryptography

- **Public-key/asymmetric** crypto involves use of two keys
 - **Public-key:** Known by anybody, and can be used to encrypt messages and verify signatures
 - **Private-key:** Known only to recipient, used to decrypt messages and sign (create) signatures
- **Asymmetric** because
 - Can encrypt messages or verify signatures w/o ability to decrypt messages or create signatures
 - If “one-way function” goes $c \leftarrow F(m)$, then public-key encryption is a “trap-door” function:
 - Easy to compute $c \leftarrow F(m)$
 - Hard to compute $m \leftarrow F^{-1}(m)$ without knowing k
 - Easy to compute $m \leftarrow F^{-1}(m,k)$ by knowing k

Public-Key Cryptography



Security of Public Key Schemes

- Like private key schemes, brute force search possible
 - But keys used are too large (e.g., ≥ 1024 bits)
- Security relies on a difference in computational difficulty b/w easy and hard problems
 - RSA: exponentiation in composite group vs. factoring
 - ElGamal/DH: exponentiation vs. discrete logarithm in prime group
 - Hard problem is known, but computationally expensive
- Requires use of very large numbers
 - Hence is slow compared to private key schemes
 - RSA-1024: 80 us / encryption; 1460 us / decryption [cryptopp.com]
 - AES-128: 109 MB / sec = 1.2us / 1024 bits

(Simple) RSA Algorithm

- **Security** due to cost of factoring large numbers
 - Factorization takes $O(e^{\log n \log \log n})$ operations (hard)
 - Exponentiation takes $O((\log n)^3)$ operations (easy)
- **To encrypt a message M the sender:**
 - Obtain public key $\{e, n\}$; compute $C = M^e \bmod n$
- **To decrypt the ciphertext C the owner:**
 - Use private key $\{d, n\}$; computes $M = C^d \bmod n$
- **Note that msg M must be smaller than the modulus n**
 - Otherwise, hybrid encryption:
 - Generate random symmetric key r
 - Use public key encryption to encrypt r
 - Use symmetric key encryption under r to encrypt M

Summary

- Network security and definitions
- Introduction to cryptography
 - Cryptographic hash functions
 - Zero keys, hard to invert, hard to find collisions
 - Symmetric-key crypto
 - One key, hard to invert, requires key distribution
 - Public-key crypto
 - Two keys, hard to invert, more expensive
- Wed: IPSec, HTTPS, DNSSEC, other security problems