

CS 332

Computer Networks

Security

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Last Time

- We talked about mobility as a matter of context:
 - How is mobility handled as you move around a room?
Between rooms in the same building? As you drive down I-64 at 70 MPH?
- Core routers in the Internet could support mobility.
 - Why don't we do this?
- What are the tradeoffs between direct and indirect routing schemes?
- What are the equivalents of HAs and FAs in a cellular network?



Chapter 8: Network Security

Chapter goals:

- understand principles of network security:
 - cryptography and its **many** uses beyond “confidentiality”
 - authentication
 - message integrity
 - key distribution
- security in practice:
 - firewalls
 - security in application, transport, network, link layers

Chapter 8 roadmap

8.1 What is network security?

8.2 Principles of cryptography

8.3 Authentication

8.4 Integrity

8.5 Key Distribution and certification

8.6 Access control: firewalls

8.7 Attacks and counter measures

8.8 Security in many layers

What is network security?

Confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should “understand” message contents

- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message

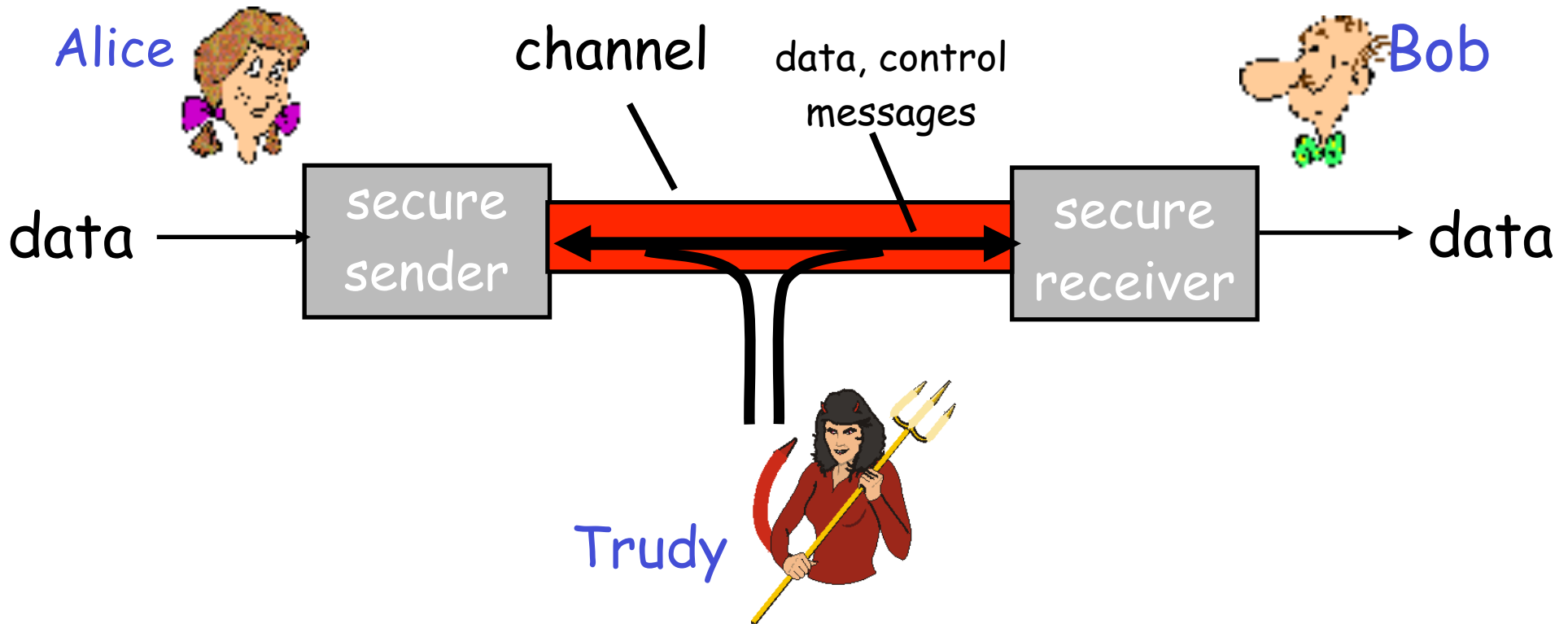
Authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

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

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
- other examples?

There are bad guys (and girls) out there!

Q: What can a “bad guy” do?

A: a lot!

- **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)

more on this later

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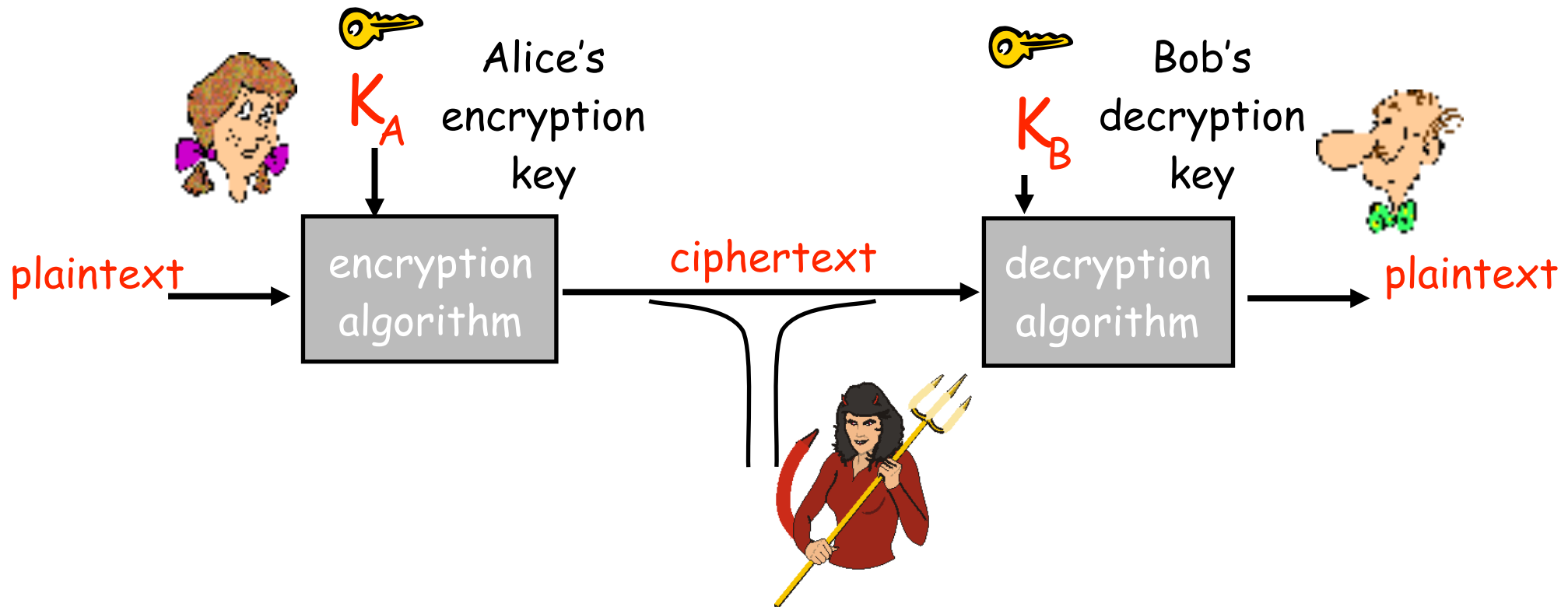
8.8 Security in many layers

Notes on Cryptography

- Cryptography in and of itself *is not security*. It is a tool that helps us achieve security.
 - Think of this as the difference between using a hammer and designing a building (an architect probably needs to be skilled in both).
- Do not, under any circumstances, attempt to “roll your own” crypto.
 - In the last 40 years, cryptography has become a science. Most work before this time can be broken with ease.
- You must assume that your enemy knows the algorithm you are using.



The language of cryptography



symmetric key crypto: sender, receiver keys identical

public-key crypto: encryption key *public*, decryption key *secret*
(private)

Caesar Cipher

- The earliest known encryption scheme, this cipher simply shifts all letters in the alphabet to the right by 3 places.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
defghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzabc

- KRZ ZHOO GRHV WKLV ZRUN?
- This example belongs to a basic class of rotation substitution ciphers.
 - e.g., ROT3, ROT13



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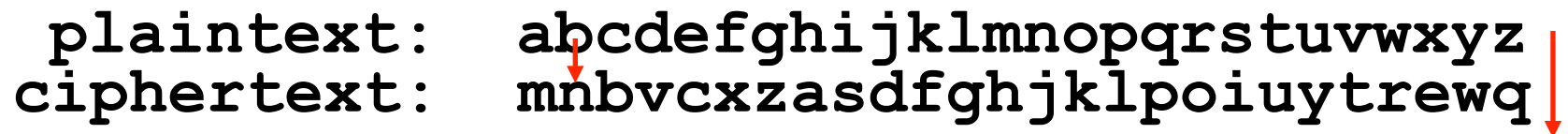


Symmetric key cryptography

substitution cipher: substituting one thing for another

- monoalphabetic cipher: substitute one letter for another

plaintext:	abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
ciphertext:	mnbvcxz asdfghjklpoiuytrewq



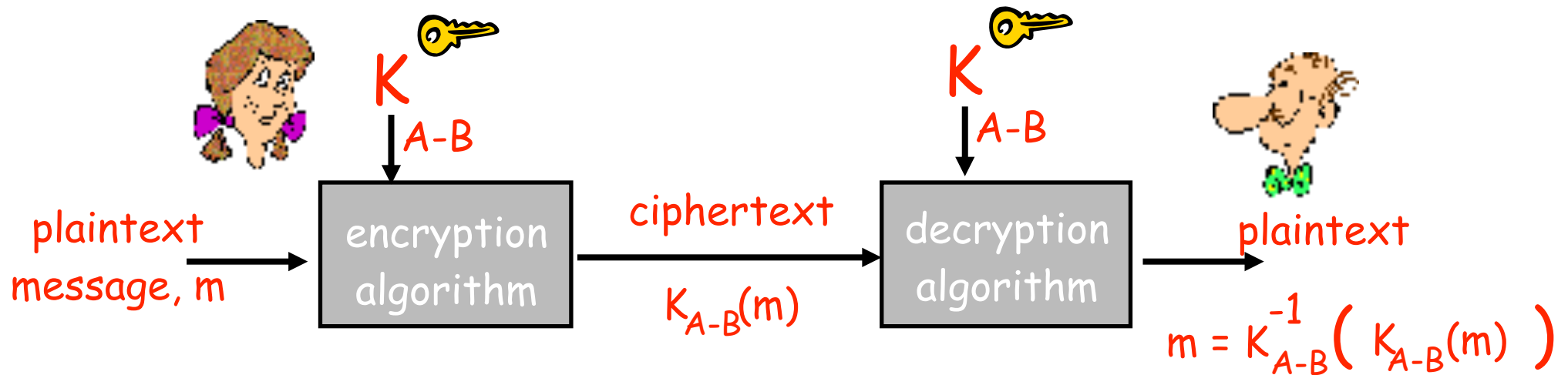
E.g.:

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

Q: How hard to break this simple cipher?:

- brute force (how hard?)
- other?

Symmetric key cryptography



symmetric key crypto: Bob and Alice share know same (symmetric) key: K_{A-B}

- e.g., key is knowing substitution pattern in mono alphabetic substitution cipher
- Q: how do Bob and Alice agree on key value?

Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES: Data Encryption Standard

- US encryption standard [NIST 1993]
- 56-bit symmetric key, 64-bit plaintext input
- How secure is DES?
 - DES Challenge: 56-bit-key-encrypted phrase (“Strong cryptography makes the world a safer place”) decrypted (brute force) in 4 months
 - no known “backdoor” decryption approach
- making DES more secure:
 - use three keys sequentially (3-DES) on each datum
 - use cipher-block chaining

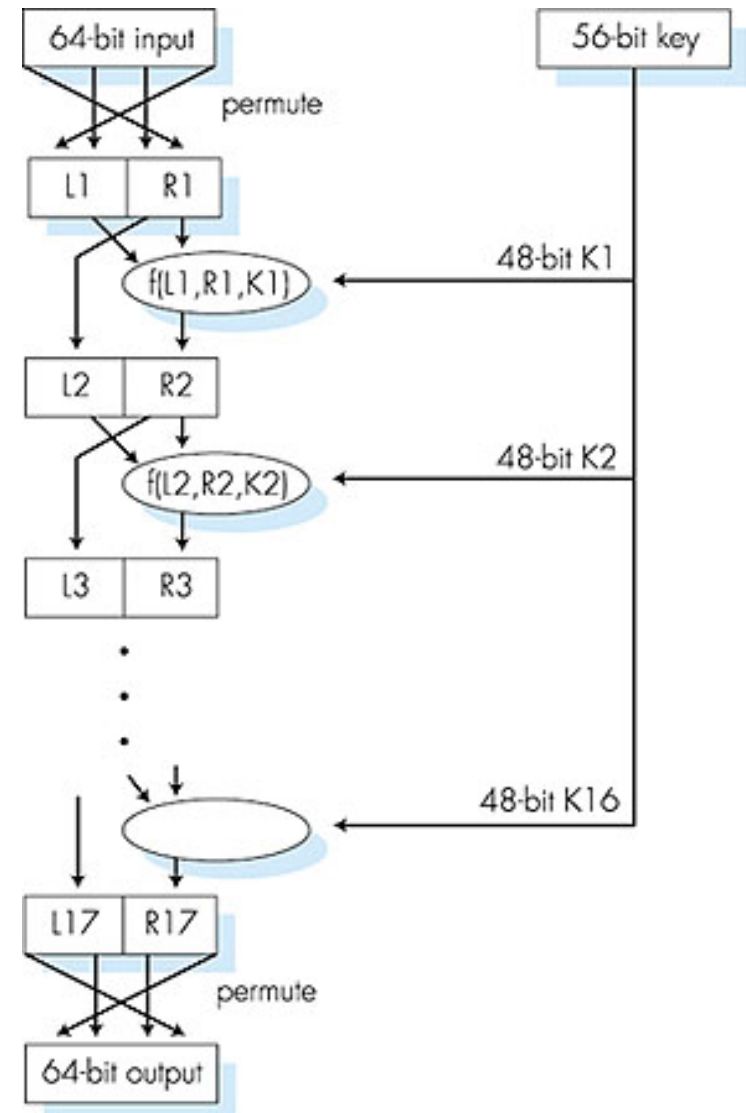
Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES operation

initial permutation

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

final permutation

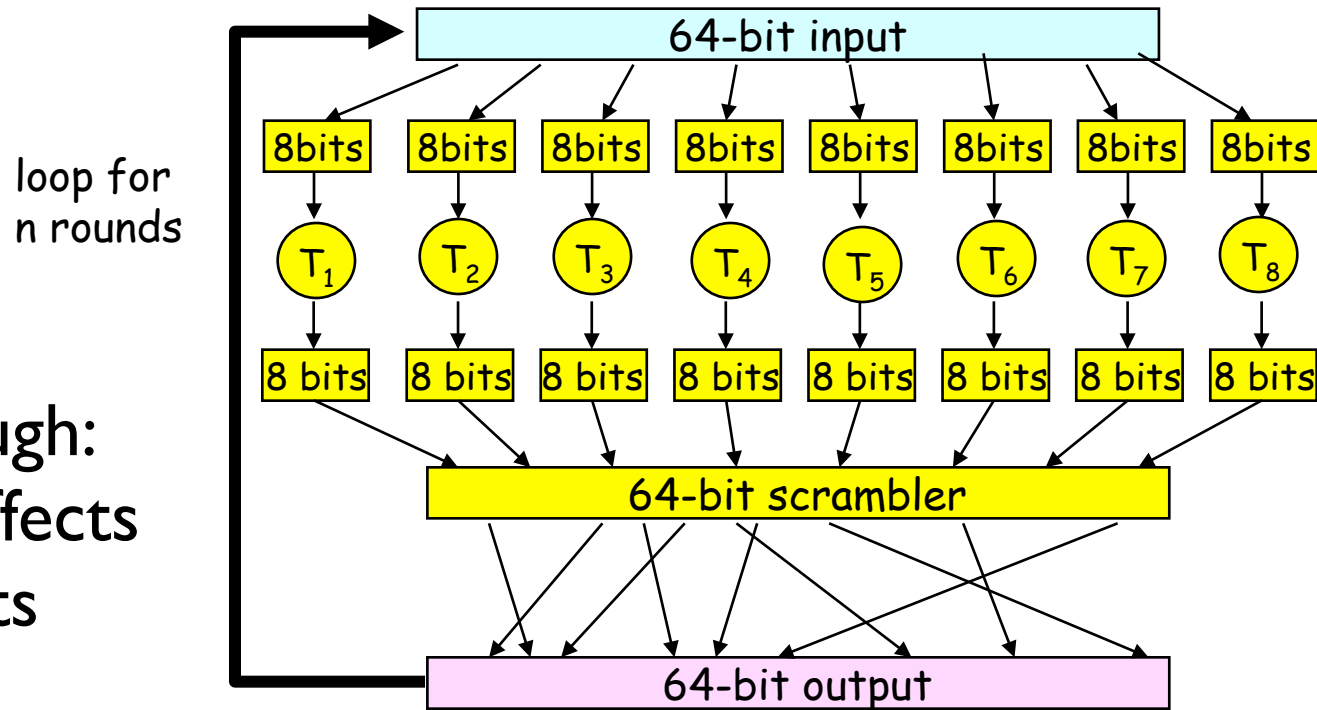


AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- new (Nov. 2001) symmetric-key NIST standard, replacing DES
- 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

Block Cipher

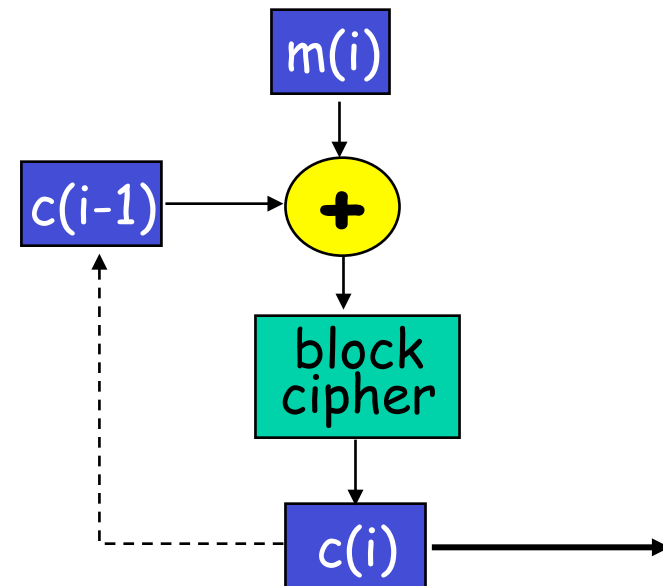
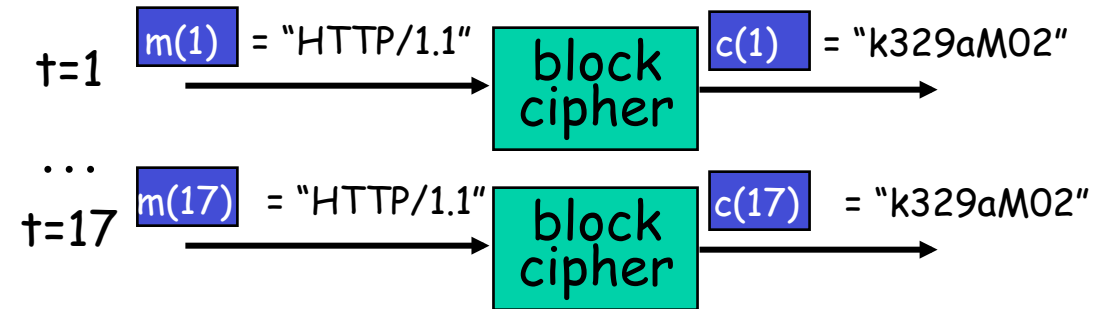
- One pass through:
one input bit affects
eight output bits



- Multiple passes: each input bit affects all output bits.
- Block ciphers: DES, 3DES, AES

Cipher Block Chaining

- Cipher block: if input block repeated, will produce same cipher text:
- Cipher block chaining:
XOR i^{th} input block, $m(i)$, with previous block of ciphertext, $c(i-1)$
 - $c(0)$ transmitted to receiver in clear
 - what happens in “HTTP/1.1 scenario from above?”



Public Key Cryptography

symmetric key crypto

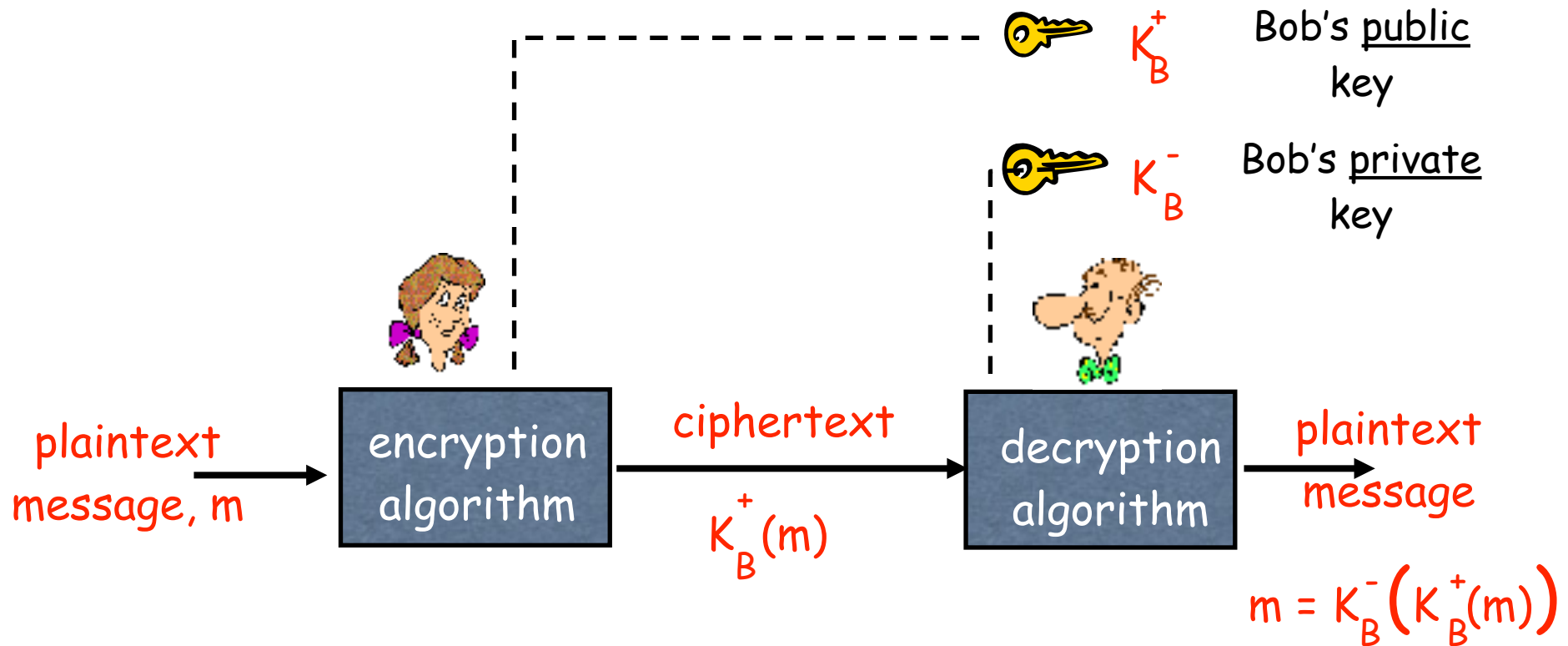
- requires sender, receiver know shared secret key
- Q: how to agree on key in first place (particularly if never “met”)?

public key cryptography

- 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

$$\bar{K}_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m$$

- ② given public key K_B^+ it should be impossible to compute private key K_B^-

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adelson algorithm

RSA: Choosing keys

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) .


The diagram shows two red curly braces under the terms (n, e) and (n, d) in the fifth step. Under the first brace is the label K_B^+ and under the second brace is the label K_B^- , both in red.

RSA: Encryption, decryption

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

1. To encrypt bit pattern, m , compute $c = m^e \bmod n$
(i.e., remainder when m^e is divided by n)

2. To decrypt received bit pattern, c , compute

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

(i.e., remainder when c^d is divided by 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).

	<u>letter</u>	<u>m</u>	<u>m^e</u>	<u>c = m^e mod n</u>
encrypt:	I	12	248832	17
	<u>c</u>	<u>c^d</u>	<u>m = c^d mod n</u>	<u>letter</u>
decrypt:	17	481968572106750915091411825223071697	12	I

Now You Try

- Choosing Keys
 - $p = 7$ and $q = 11$
 - $n = pq = ?$; $z = (p-1)(q-1) = ?$
 - Choose e (no common factors with z): 7
 - Choose d such that $7 \times d = 1 \bmod z : 43$
- Our message is 9, what is the ciphertext?
- Our ciphertext is 37, what is the message?

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

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

RSA: Why is it that $m = (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n$

Useful number theory result: If p, q prime and $n = pq$, then:

$$x^y \bmod n = x^{y \bmod (p-1)(q-1)} \bmod n$$

$$\begin{aligned} (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n &= m^{ed} \bmod n \\ &= m^{ed \bmod (p-1)(q-1)} \bmod n \\ &\quad \text{(using number theory result above)} \\ &= m^1 \bmod n \\ &\quad \text{(since we chose } ed \text{ to be divisible by } (p-1)(q-1) \text{ with remainder 1)} \\ &= m \end{aligned}$$

RSA: another important property

The following property will be **very** useful later:

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

use public key first,
followed by private
key

use private key first,
followed by public
key

Result is the same!

Diffie-Hellman

- Encrypting data with RSA is computationally expensive
 - Much faster to use a symmetric cipher
- Later, we will see examples where a symmetric key is chosen by sender and encrypted by RSA
- ... but, what about network communications?
 - We want two hosts to **agree** on a symmetric key
- Public key crypto was really started by Diffie and Hellman
 - Goal: negotiate a secret over an insecure (e.g., public) medium
 - seems impossible

Diffie-Hellman Protocol

- We have two participants: Alice (A) and Bob (B)
- Setup: pick a prime number p and a base g ($< p$)
 - This information is public, e.g., $p=13$, $g=4$
- Step 1: Each principal picks a private value x ($< p-1$)
- Step 2: Each principle generates and communicates a new value:

$$y = g^x \bmod p \quad (\text{e.g., Alice computes } g^a \bmod p, \text{ Bob } g^b \bmod p)$$

- Step 3: Each principle generates the secret shared key z

$$z = g^{ab} \bmod p$$

- z is used as the symmetric key for communication

Diffie-Hellman: Exchange

- Public Info: $p = 17, g = 5$
- Everyone choose an x

Alice picks
her x : S_A



$$T_A = g^{S_A} \bmod p$$

Bob picks
his x : S_B



$$T_B = g^{S_B} \bmod p$$

Alice computes:
 $K = T_B^{S_A} \bmod p$

$$T_B^{S_A} = (g^{S_B})^{S_A} = g^{S_B S_A} = g^{S_A S_B} = (g^{S_A})^{S_B} = T_A^{S_B} \bmod p$$

Alice computes:
 $K = T_A^{S_B} \bmod p$

Encrypted communication with K

- How does Alice know Bob sent T_A ?

‣ Stay tuned tomorrow

Next Time

- Read Section 8.3
 - Authentication
- Start working on the homework and the last project.

