CSCI-1680 Security

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Based on lecture notes by Scott Shenker and Mike Freedman

Today's Lecture

- Classes of attacks
- Basic security requirements
- Simple cryptographic methods
- Cryptographic toolkit (Hash, Digital Signature, ...)
- DNSSec
- Certificate Authorities
- SSL / HTTPS



Basic Requirements for Secure Communication

- Availability: Will the network deliver data?
 - Infrastructure compromise, DDoS
- Authentication: Who is this actor?
 - Spoofing, phishing
- Integrity: Do messages arrive in original form?
- Confidentiality: Can adversary read the data?
 - Sniffing, man-in-the-middle
- Provenance: Who is responsible for this data?
 - Forging responses, denying responsibility
 - Not who sent the data, but who created it



Other Desirable Security Properties

- Authorization: is actor allowed to do this action?
 Access controls
- Accountability/Attribution: who did this activity?
- Audit/Forensics: what occurred in the past?
 - A broader notion of accountability/attribution
- Appropriate use: is action consistent with policy?
 - E.g., no spam; no games during business hours; etc.
- Freedom from traffic analysis: can someone tell when I am sending and to whom?
- Anonymity: can someone tell I sent this packet?



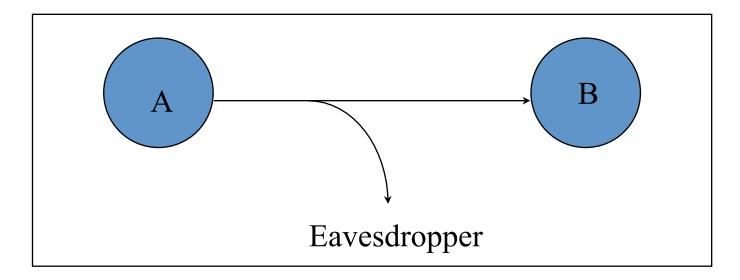
Internet's Design: Insecure

- Designed for simplicity in a naïve era
- "On by default" design
- Readily available zombie machines
- Attacks look like normal traffic
- Internet's federated operation obstructs cooperation for diagnosis/mitigation



Eavesdropping - Message Interception (Attack on Confidentiality)

- Unauthorized access to information
- Packet sniffers and wiretappers
- Illicit copying of files and programs





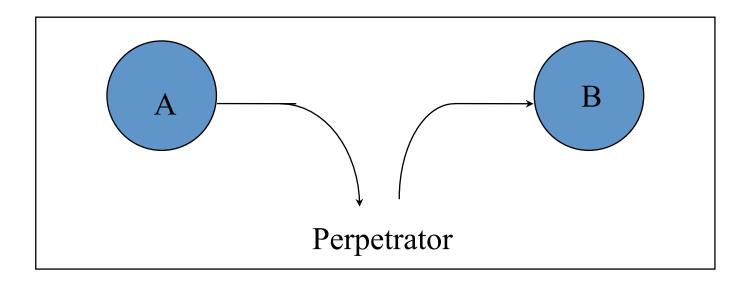
Eavesdropping Attack: Example

- tcpdump with promiscuous network interface
 - On a switched network, what can you see?
- What might the following traffic types reveal about communications?
 - DNS lookups (and replies)
 - IP packets without payloads (headers only)
 - Payloads



Integrity Attack - Tampering

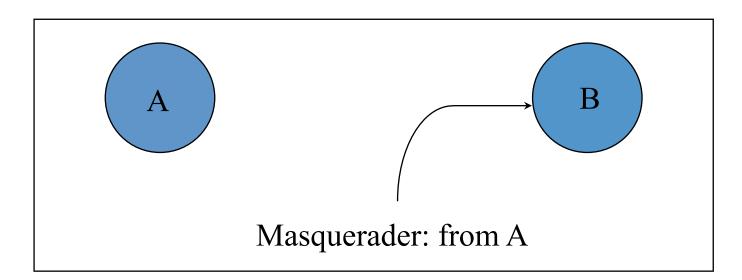
- Stop the flow of the message
- Delay and optionally modify the message
- Release the message again





Authenticity Attack - Fabrication

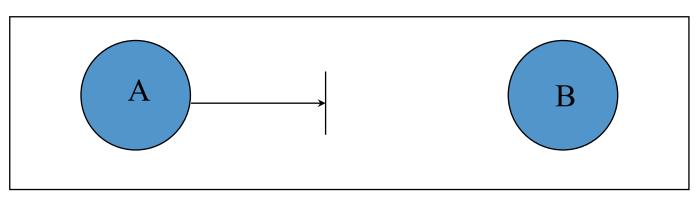
- Unauthorized assumption of other's identity
- Generate and distribute objects under this identity





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)



Basic Forms of Cryptography



Confidentiality through Cryptography

- **Cryptography:** communication over insecure channel in the presence of adversaries
- Studied for thousands of years
- **Central goal:** how to encode information so that an adversary can't extract it ...but a friend can
- General premise: a *key* is required for decoding
 Give it to friends, keep it away from attackers
- Two different categories of encryption
 - Symmetric: efficient, requires key distribution
 - Asymmetric (Public Key): computationally expensive, but no key distribution problem



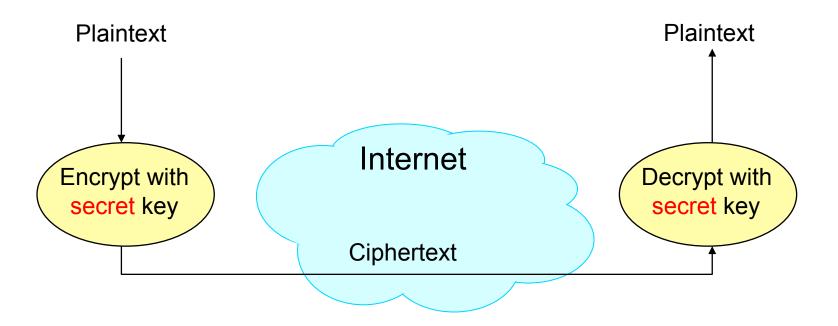
Symmetric Key Encryption

- Same key for encryption and decryption
 - Both sender and receiver know key
 - But adversary does not know key
- For communication, problem is key distribution
 - How do the parties (secretly) agree on the key?
- What can you do with a huge key? One-time pad
 - Huge key of random bits
- To encrypt/decrypt: just XOR with the key!
 - Provably secure! provided:
 - You never reuse the key ... and it really is random/unpredictable
 - Spies actually use these



Using Symmetric Keys

• Both the sender and the receiver use the same secret keys





Asymmetric Encryption (Public Key)

- Idea: use two *different* keys, one to encrypt (*e*) and one to decrypt (*d*)
 - A key pair
- Crucial property: knowing *e* does not give away *d*
- Therefore *e* can be public: everyone knows it!
- If Alice wants to send to Bob, she fetches Bob's public key (say from Bob's home page) and encrypts with it
 - <u>Alice</u> can't decrypt what she's sending to Bob ...
 - ... but then, <u>neither can anyone else</u> (except Bob)

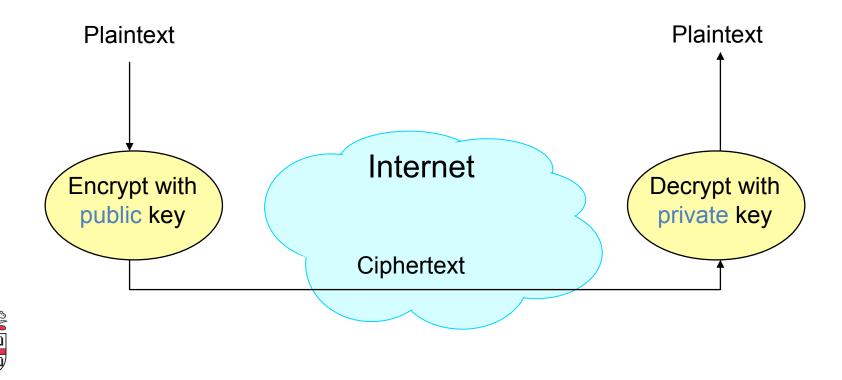


Public Key / Asymmetric Encryption

- Sender uses receiver's public key
 - Advertised to everyone

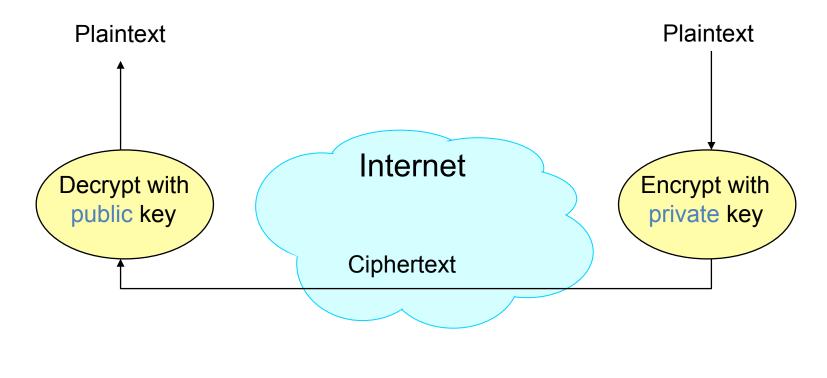
• Receiver uses complementary private key

Must be kept secret



Works in Reverse Direction Too!

- Sender uses his own private key
- Receiver uses complementary public key
- Allows sender to prove he knows private key





Realizing Public Key Cryptography

- Invented in the 1970s
 - *Revolutionized* cryptography
 - (Was actually invented earlier by British intelligence)
- How can we construct an encryption/decryption algorithm with public/private properties?

– Answer: Number Theory

- Most fully developed approach: RSA
 - Rivest / Shamir / Adleman, 1977; RFC 3447
 - Based on modular multiplication of very large integers
 - Very widely used (e.g., SSL/TLS for https)



Cryptographic Toolkit



Cryptographic Toolkit

- Confidentiality: Encryption
- Integrity: ?
- Authentication: ?
- Provenance: ?

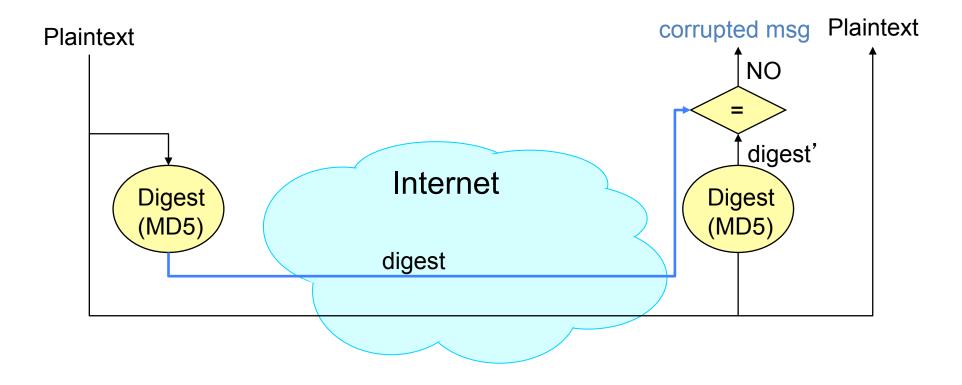


Integrity: Cryptographic Hashes

- Sender computes a *digest* of message m, i.e., H(m)
 - H() is a publicly known *hash function*
- Send *m* in any manner
- Send digest d = H(m) to receiver in a secure way:
 - Using another physical channel
 - Using encryption (why does this help?)
- Upon receiving *m* and *d*, receiver re-computes *H(m)* to see whether result agrees with *d*



Operation of Hashing for Integrity





Cryptographically Strong Hashes

• Hard to find collisions

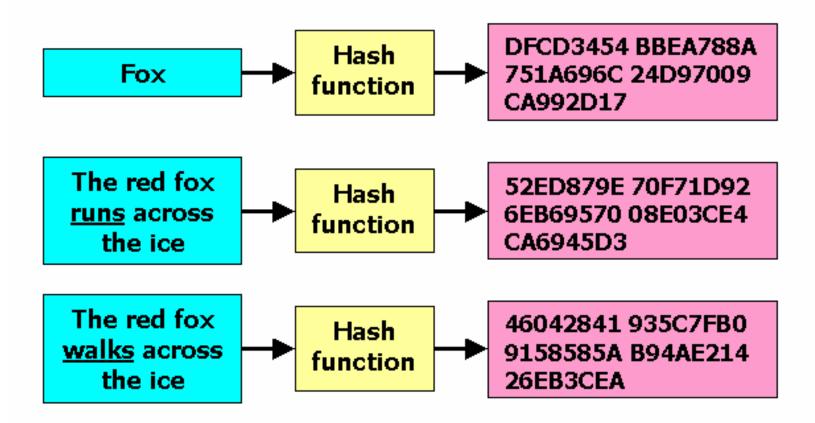
- Adversary can't find two inputs that produce same hash
- Someone cannot alter message without modifying digest
- Can succinctly refer to large objects
- Hard to invert
 - Given hash, adversary can't find input that produces it
 - Can refer obliquely to private objects (e.g., passwords)
 - Send hash of object rather than object itself



Effects of Cryptographic Hashing

Input

Hash sum





Cryptographic Toolkit

- Confidentiality: Encryption
- Integrity: Cryptographic Hash
- Authentication: ?
- Provenance: ?

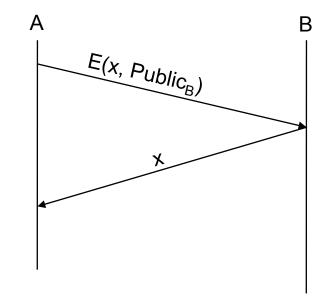


Public Key Authentication

• Each side need only to know the other side's public key

– No secret key need be shared

- A encrypts a nonce (random number) x using B's public key
- B proves it can recover x
- A can authenticate itself to B in the same way





Cryptographic Toolkit

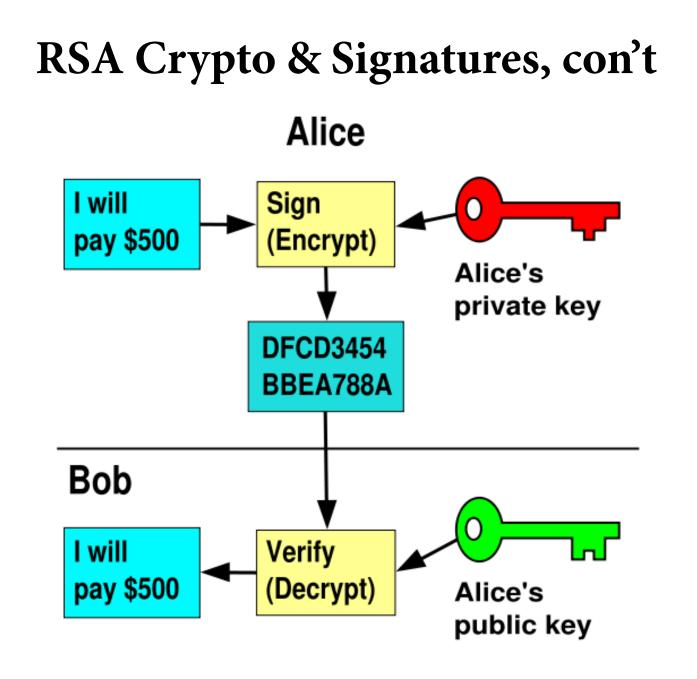
- Confidentiality: Encryption
- Integrity: Cryptographic Hash
- Authentication: Decrypting nonce
- Provenance: ?



Digital Signatures

- Suppose Alice has published public key K_E
- If she wishes to prove who she is, she can send a message *x* encrypted with her private key K_D
 - Therefore: anyone w/ public key K_E can recover *x*, verify that Alice must have sent the message
 - It provides a digital signature
 - Alice can't deny later deny it \Rightarrow non-repudiation







Summary of Our Crypto Toolkit

- If we can securely distribute a key, then
 - Symmetric ciphers (e.g., AES) offer fast, presumably strong confidentiality
- Public key cryptography does away with problem of secure key distribution
 - But not as computationally efficient
 - Often addressed by using public key crypto to exchange a session key
 - And not guaranteed secure
 - but **major** result if not



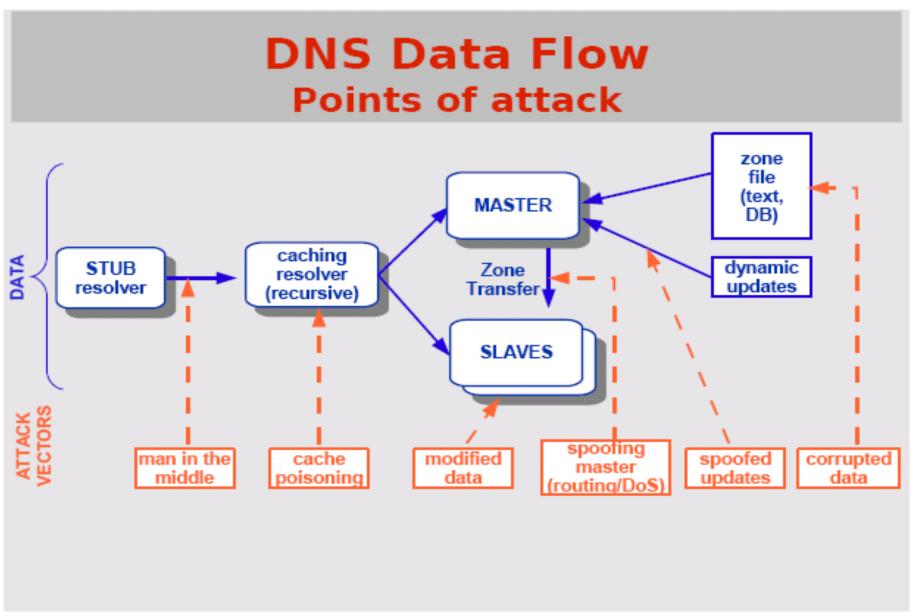
Summary of Our Crypto Toolkit, con't

- Cryptographically strong hash functions provide major building block for integrity (e.g., SHA-1)
 - As well as providing concise digests
 - And providing a way to prove you know something (e.g., passwords) without revealing it (non-invertibility)
 - But: worrisome recent results regarding their strength
- Public key also gives us signatures
 - Including sender <u>non-repudiation</u>
- Turns out there's a crypto trick based on similar algorithms that allows two parties *who don't know each other's public key* to securely negotiate a secret key even in the presence of eavesdroppers



DNS Security







Source: http://nsrc.org/tutorials/2009/apricot/dnssec/dnssec-tutorial.pdf

Root level DNS attacks

• <u>Feb. 6, 2007</u>:

- Botnet attack on the 13 Internet DNS root servers
- Lasted 2.5 hours
- None crashed, but two performed badly:
 - g-root (DoD), l-root (ICANN)
 - Most other root servers use anycast



Do you trust the TLD operators?

- Wildcard DNS record for all <u>.com</u> and <u>.net</u> domain names not yet registered by others
 - September 15 October 4, 2003
 - February 2004: Verisign sues ICANN
- Redirection for these domain names to Verisign web portal: "to help you search"

- and serve you ads...and get "sponsored" search



Defense: Replication and Caching

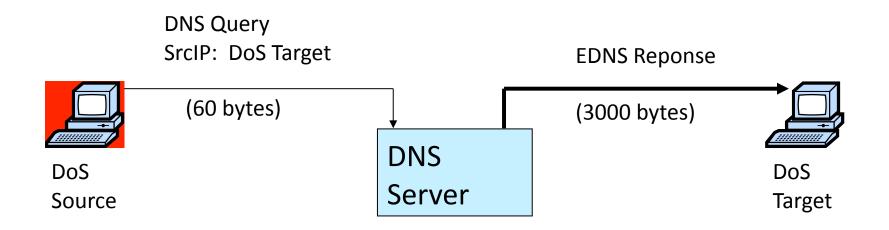
Letter	Old name	Operator	Location
Α	ns.internic.net	VeriSign	Dulles, Virginia, USA
В	ns1.isi.edu	ISI	Marina Del Rey, California, USA
с	c.psi.net	Cogent Communications	distributed using anycast
D	terp.umd.edu	University of Maryland	College Park, Maryland, USA
E	ns.nasa.gov	NASA	Mountain View, California, USA
F	ns.isc.org	ISC	distributed using anycast
G	ns.nic.ddn.mil	U.S. DoD NIC	Columbus, Ohio, USA
н	aos.arl.army.mil	U.S. Army Research Lab 🔒	Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland, USA
I	nic.nordu.net	Autonomica 🖗	distributed using anycast
J		VeriSign	distributed using anycast
к		RIPE NCC	distributed using anycast
L		ICANN	Los Angeles, California, USA
м		WIDE Project	distributed using anycast



source: wikipedia

DNS Amplification Attack

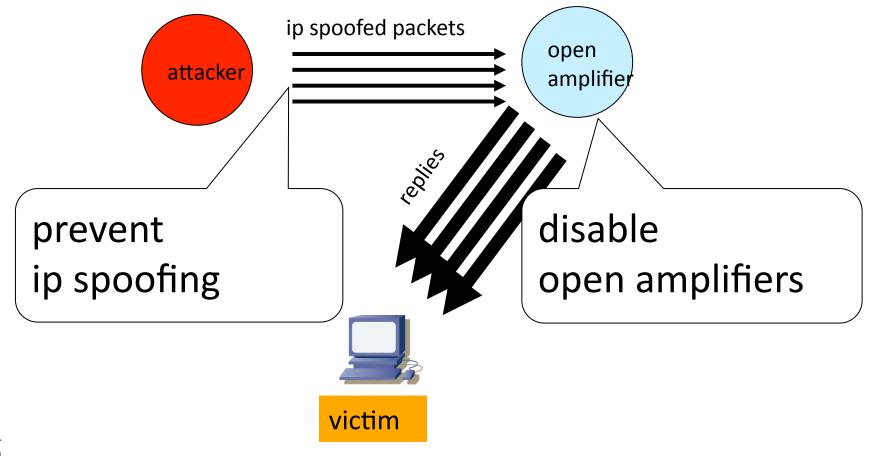
DNS Amplification attack: (×40 amplification)



580,000 open resolvers on Internet (Kaminsky-Shiffman'06)



Solutions





But should we believe it? Enter DNSSEC

- DNSSEC protects against data spoofing and corruption
- DNSSEC also provides mechanisms to authenticate servers and requests
- DNSSEC provides mechanisms to establish authenticity and integrity



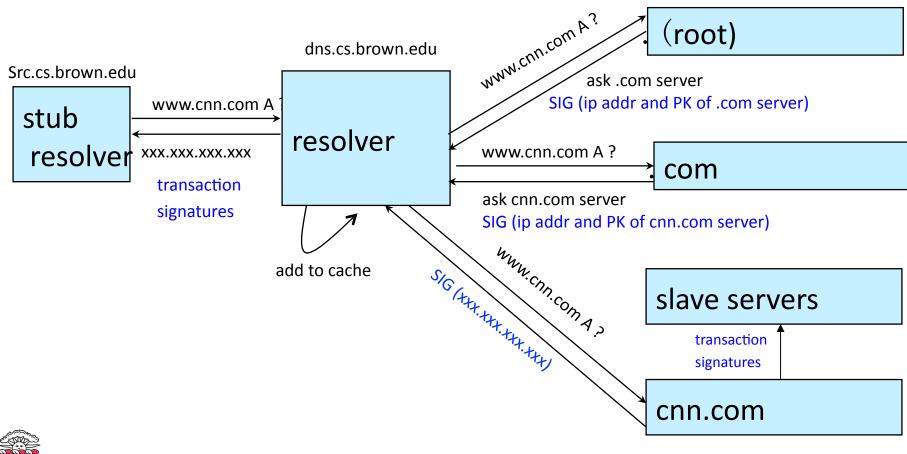
PK-DNSSEC (Public Key)

- The DNS servers sign the hash of resource record set with its private (signature) keys
- Public keys can be used to verify the SIGs
- Leverages hierarchy:
 - Authenticity of nameserver's public keys is established by a signature over the keys by the parent's private key
 - In ideal case, only roots' public keys need to be distributed out-of-band



Verifying the tree

Question: www.cnn.com ?





PKIs and HTTPS



Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

- Public key crypto is *very* powerful ...
- ... but the realities of tying public keys to real world identities turn out to be quite hard
- PKI: *Trust distribution* mechanism
 - Authentication via Digital Certificates
- Trust doesn't mean someone is honest, just that they are who they say they are...



Managing Trust

- The most solid level of trust is rooted in our direct personal experience
 - E.g., Alice's trust that Bob is who they say they are
 - Clearly doesn't scale to a global network!
- In its absence, we rely on *delegation*
 - Alice trusts Bob's identity because Charlie attests to it
 - and Alice trusts Charlie



Managing Trust, con't

• Trust is not particularly transitive

- Should Alice trust Bob because she trusts Charlie ...
- ... and Charlie vouches for Donna ...
- ... and Donna says Eve is trustworthy ...
- … and Eve vouches for Bob's identity?

• Two models of delegating trust

- Rely on your set of friends and their friends
 - "Web of trust" -- e.g., PGP
- Rely on trusted, well-known authorities (and their minions)
 - "Trusted root" -- e.g., HTTPS

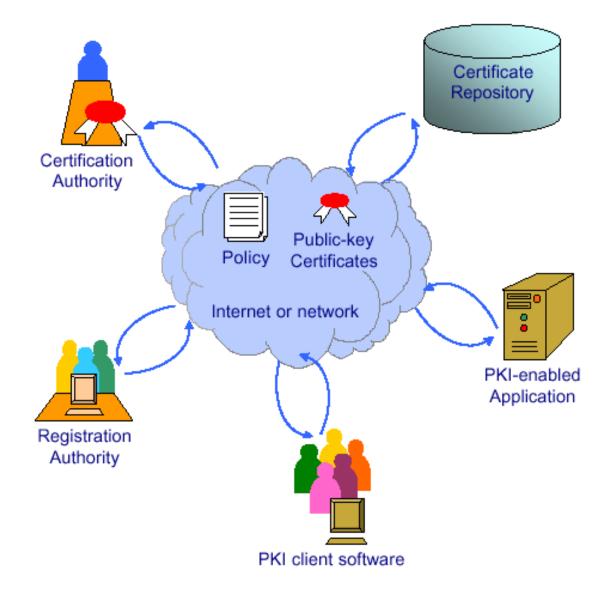


PKI Conceptual Framework

- Trusted-Root PKI:
 - Basis: well-known public key serves as root of a hierarchy
 - Managed by a Certificate Authority (CA)
- To publish a public key, ask the CA to digitally sign a statement indicating that they agree ("certify") that it is indeed your key
 - This is a certificate for your key (*certificate* = bunch of bits)
 - Includes both your public key and the signed statement
 - Anyone can verify the signature
- Delegation of trust to the CA
 - They'd better not screw up (duped into signing bogus key)
 - They'd better have procedures for dealing with stolen keys
 - Note: can build up a hierarchy of signing



Components of a PKI





Digital Certificate



Signed data structure that binds an entity with its corresponding public key

- Signed by a *recognized* and *trusted* authority, i.e., Certification Authority (CA)
- Provide assurance that a particular public key belongs to a specific entity
- Example: certificate of entity Y Cert = E({name_Y, KY_{public}}, KCA_{private})
 - KCA_{private}: private key of Certificate Authority
 - name_Y: name of entity Y
 - KY_{public}: public key of entity Y
 - In fact, they may sign whatever glob of bits you give them



• Your browser has a bunch of CAs wired into it

Certification Authority



- People, processes responsible for creation, delivery and management of digital certificates
- Organized in an hierarchy
 - To verify signature chain, follow hierarchy up to root







Registration Authority



People & processes responsible for:

Authenticating the identity of new entities (users or computing devices), e.g.,

- By phone, or physical presence + ID
- Issuing requests to CA for certificates
- The CA must trust the Registration Authority
 - This trust can be misplaced



Certificate Repository

Certificate Repository

- A database accessible to all users of a PKI
- Contains:
 - Digital certificates
 - Policy information associated with certs
 - Certificate revocation information
 - Vital to be able to identify certs that have been compromised
 - Usually done via a *revocation list*



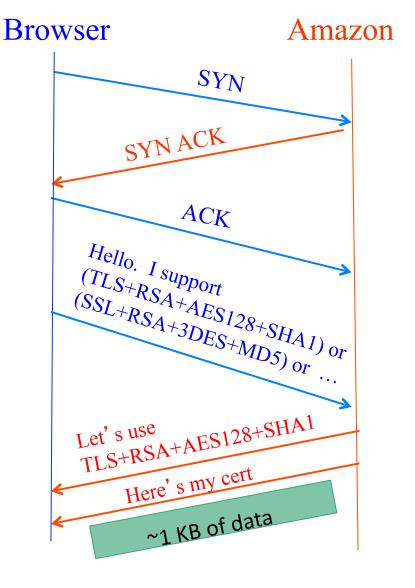
Putting It All Together: HTTPS

- Steps after clicking on https://www.amazon.com
- https = "Use HTTP over SSL/TLS"
 - SSL = Secure Socket Layer
 - TLS = Transport Layer Security
 - Successor to SSL, and compatible with it
 - RFC 4346
- Provides security layer (authentication, encryption) on top of TCP
 - Fairly transparent to the app



HTTPS Connection (SSL/TLS), con't

- Browser (client) connects via TCP to Amazon's HTTPS server
- Client sends over list of crypto protocols it supports
- Server picks protocols to use for this session
- Server sends over its certificate
 - (all of this is in the clear)





Inside the Server's Certificate

- Name associated with cert (e.g., Amazon)
- Amazon's public key
- A bunch of auxiliary info (physical address, type of cert, expiration time)
- URL to *revocation center* to check for revoked keys
- Name of certificate's signatory (who signed it)
- A public-key signature of a hash (MD5) of all this
 - Constructed using the signatory's private RSA key



Validating Amazon's Identity

- Browser retrieves cert belonging to the signatory

 These are hardwired into the browser
- If it can't find the cert, then warns the user that site has not been verified
 - And may ask whether to continue
 - Note, can still proceed, just without authentication
- Browser uses public key in signatory's cert to decrypt signature
 - Compares with its own MD5 hash of Amazon's cert
- Assuming signature matches, now have high confidence it's indeed Amazon ...
 - ... <u>assuming signatory is trustworthy</u>



HTTPS Connection (SSL/TLS), con't

- Browser constructs a random session key K
- Browser encrypts K using Amazon's public key
- Browser sends E(K, KA_{public}) to server
- Browser displays
- All subsequent communication encrypted w/ symmetric cipher using key K
 - E.g., client can authenticate using a password

