CSCI 4760 - Computer Networks
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This slides are adapted from the textbook slides by J.F. Kurose and K.W. Ross

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

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

What is network security?

Confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should "understand" message contents

- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message

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

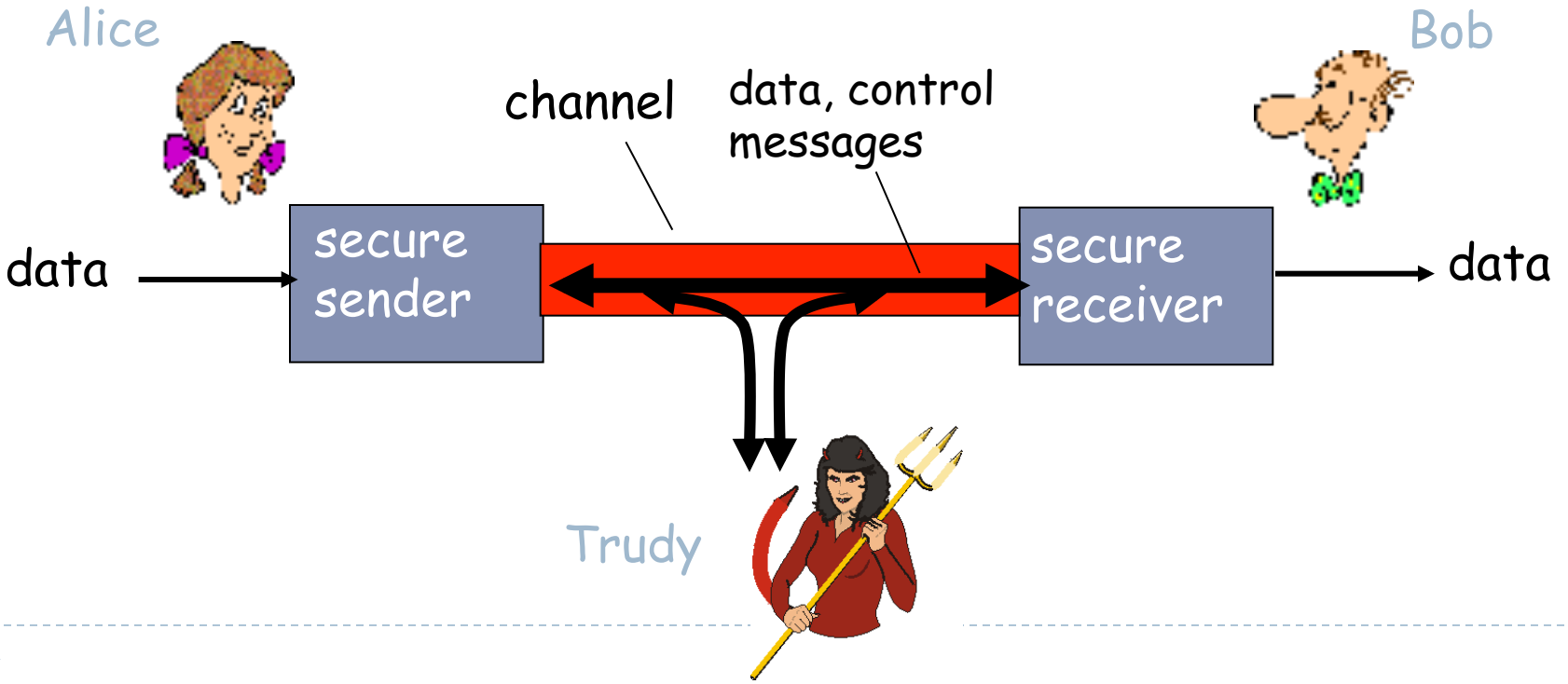
Access and availability: services must be accessible and available to users

Authentication (origin integrity): sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

Authorization: establish and enforce who can access what resources

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! 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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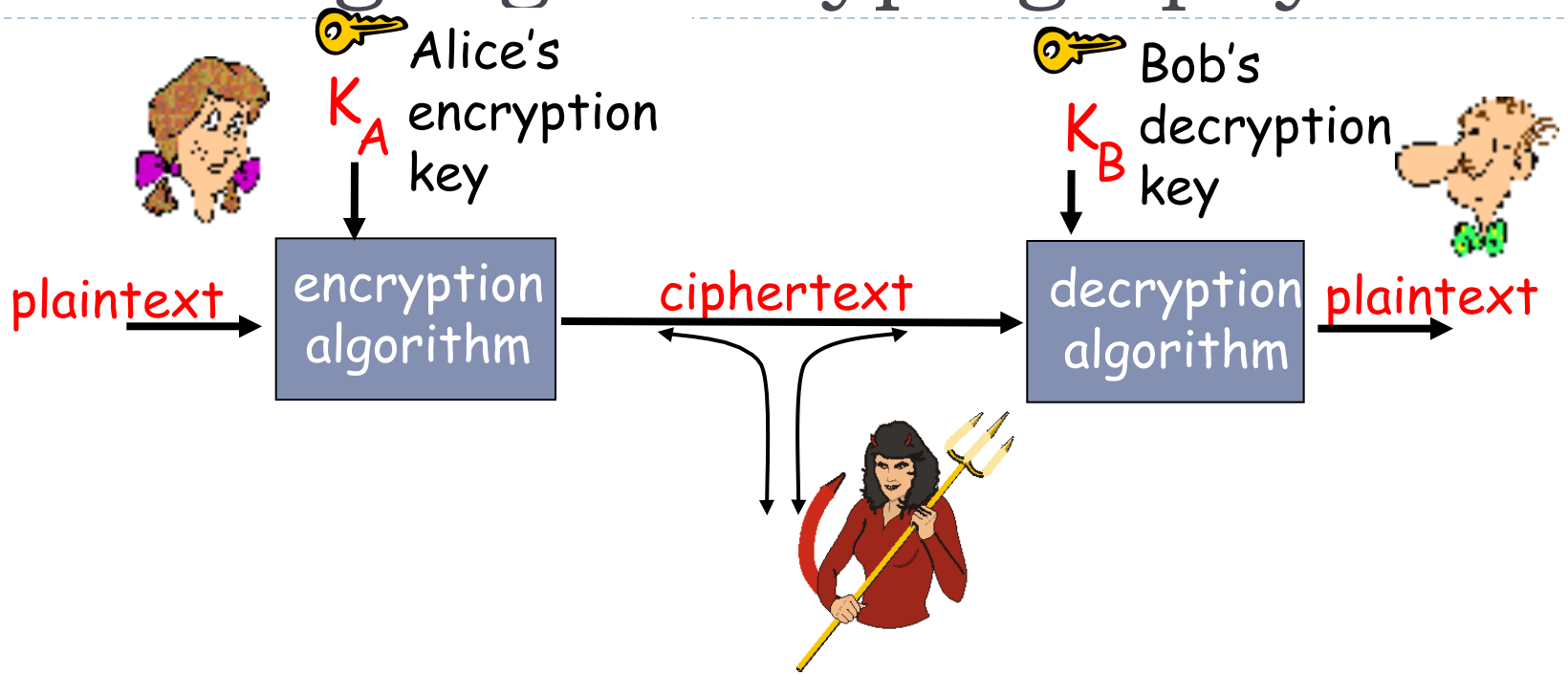
The language of cryptography



m plaintext message

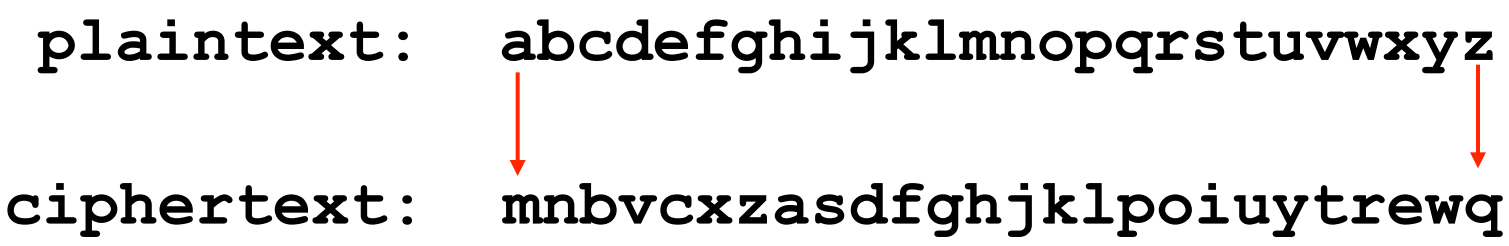
$K_A(m)$ ciphertext, encrypted with key K_A

$m = K_B(K_A(m))$

Simple encryption scheme

substitution cipher: substituting one thing for another

- monoalphabetic cipher: substitute one letter for another



E.g.: Plaintext: bob. i love you. alice

ciphertext: nkn. s gktc wky. mgsbc

Key: the mapping from the set of 26 letters to the set of 26 letters

Polyalphabetic encryption

- n monoalphabetic cyphers, $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_n$
- Cycling pattern:
  - e.g., n=4, M_1, M_3, M_4, M_3, M_2; M_1, M_3, M_4, M_3, M_2;
- For each new plaintext symbol, use subsequent monoalphabetic pattern in cyclic pattern
  - dog: d from M_1, o from M_3, g from M_4
- Key: the n ciphers and the cyclic pattern

Cryptography vs. Cryptanalysis

- Cryptographers invent new clever cryptographic schemes
  - Objective: make it infeasible to recover the plaintext
    - Computational difficulty: efficient to compute cipher-text, but hard to "reverse" without the key
- Cryptanalysis studies cryptographic schemes
  - Objective: try to find flaws in the schemes
    - E.g., recover some info about the plaintext, or recover the key
- **Fundamental Tenet of Cryptography**
  - "If lots of smart people have failed to solve a problem, then it probably won't be solved (soon)"

Breaking an encryption scheme

- Cipher-text only attack: Trudy has ciphertext that she can analyze
- Two approaches:
  - Search through all keys: must be able to differentiate resulting plaintext from gibberish
  - Statistical analysis

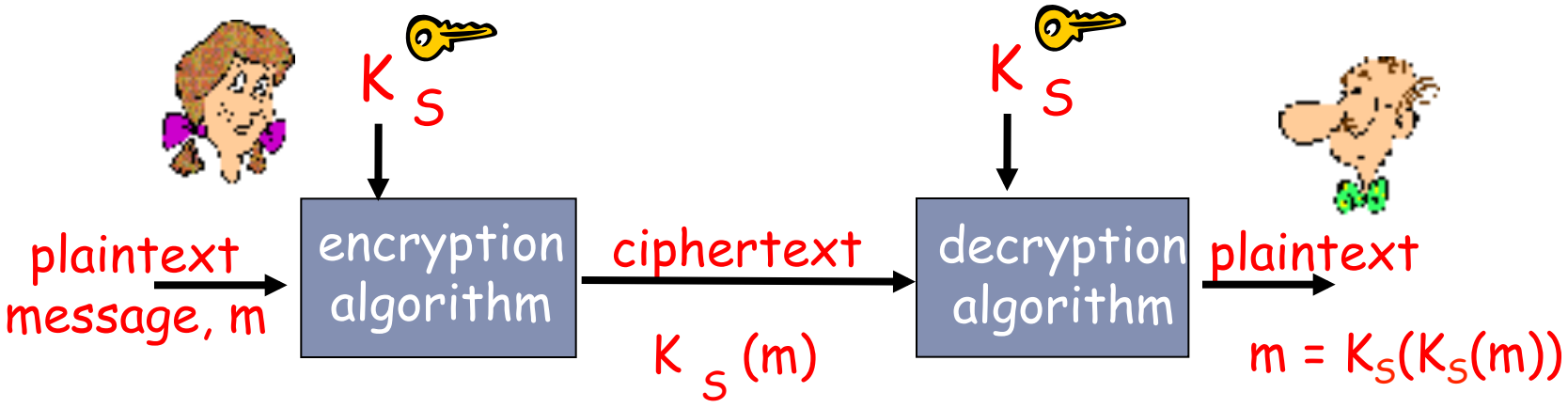
The crypto algorithms is typically public. Only thing that is assumed to be secret is the key.

- Known-plaintext attack: trudy has some plaintext corresponding to some ciphertext
  - eg, in monoalphabetic cipher, trudy determines pairings for a,l,i,c,e,b,o,
- Chosen-plaintext attack: trudy can get the cyphertext for some chosen plaintext

Types of Cryptography

- Crypto often uses keys:
  - Algorithm is known to everyone
  - Only "keys" are secret
- Public key cryptography
  - Involves the use of two keys
- Symmetric key cryptography
  - Involves the use one key
- Hash functions
  - Involves the use of no keys
  - Nothing secret: How can this be useful?

Symmetric key cryptography



symmetric key crypto: Bob and Alice share same (symmetric) key: K_S

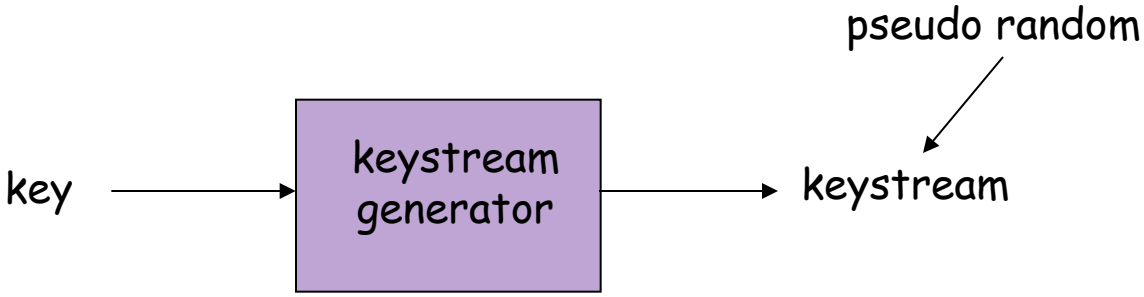
- e.g., key is knowing substitution pattern in mono alphabetic substitution cipher

Q: how do Bob and Alice agree on key value?

Two types of symmetric ciphers

- Stream ciphers
  - encrypt one bit at time
- Block ciphers
  - Break plaintext message in equal-size blocks
  - Encrypt each block as a unit

Stream Ciphers



- Combine each bit of keystream with bit of plaintext to get bit of ciphertext
- m(i) = ith bit of message
- ks(i) = ith bit of keystream
- c(i) = ith bit of ciphertext
- $c(i) = ks(i) \oplus m(i)$ ($\oplus$ = exclusive or)
- $m(i) = ks(i) \oplus c(i)$

RC4 Stream Cipher

- RC4 is a popular stream cipher
  - Extensively analyzed and considered good
  - Key can be from 1 to 256 bytes
  - Used in WEP for 802.11
  - Can be used in SSL

Block ciphers

- Message to be encrypted is processed in blocks of k bits (e.g., 64-bit blocks).
- 1-to-1 mapping is used to map k-bit block of plaintext to k-bit block of ciphertext

Example with k=3:

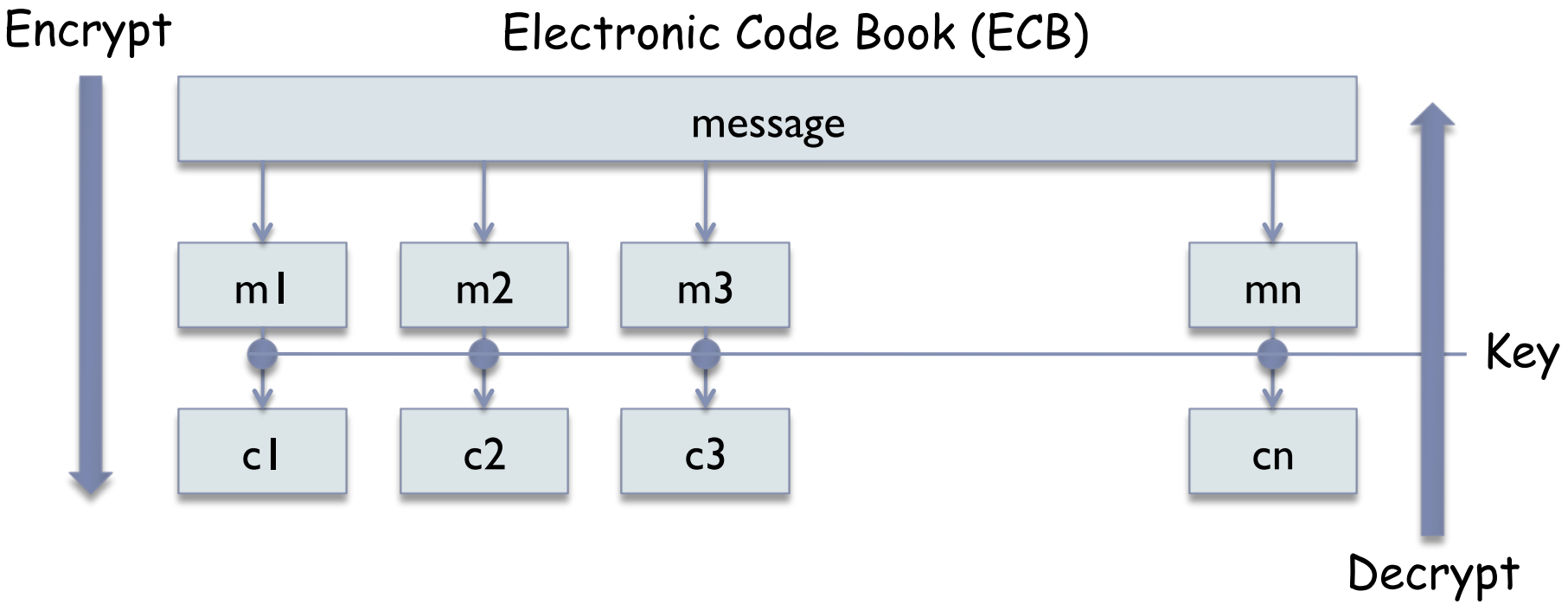
input	output
000	110
001	111
010	101
011	100

input	output
100	011
101	010
110	000
111	001

What is the ciphertext for 010110001111 ?

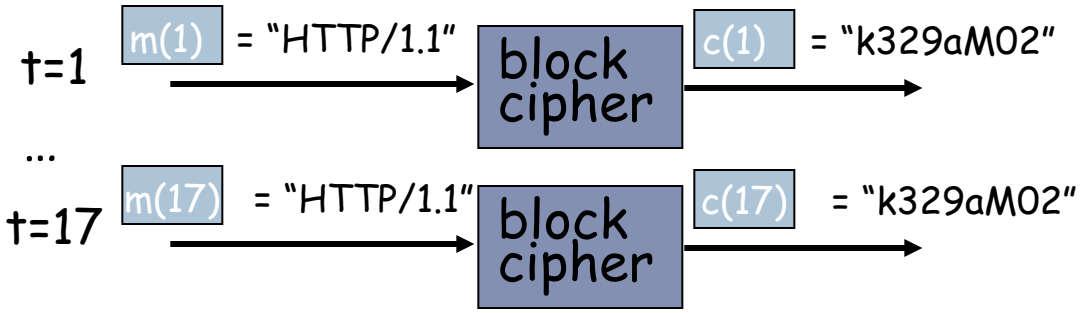
Encrypting a large message

- Why not just break message in 64-bit blocks, encrypt each block separately?



Encrypting a large message

- Why not just break message in 64-bit blocks, encrypt each block separately?
  - If same block of plaintext appears twice, will give same cyphertext
  - May facilitate cryptanalysis

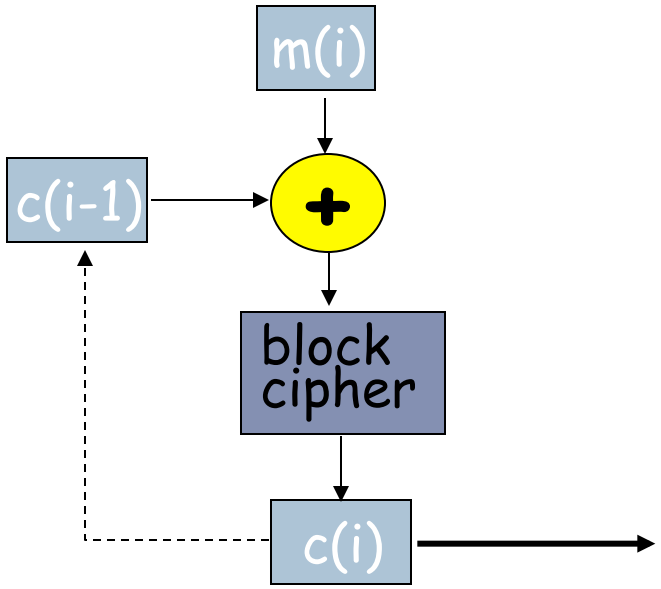


Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)

- CBC generates its own random numbers
  - Have encryption of current block depend on result of previous block
  - $c(i) = K_S(m(i) \oplus c(i-1))$
  - $m(i) = K_S(c(i)) \oplus c(i-1))$
- How do we encrypt first block?
  - Initialization vector (IV): random block = c(0)
  - IV does not have to be secret
- Change IV for each message (or session)
  - Guarantees that even if the same message is sent repeatedly, the ciphertext will be completely different each time

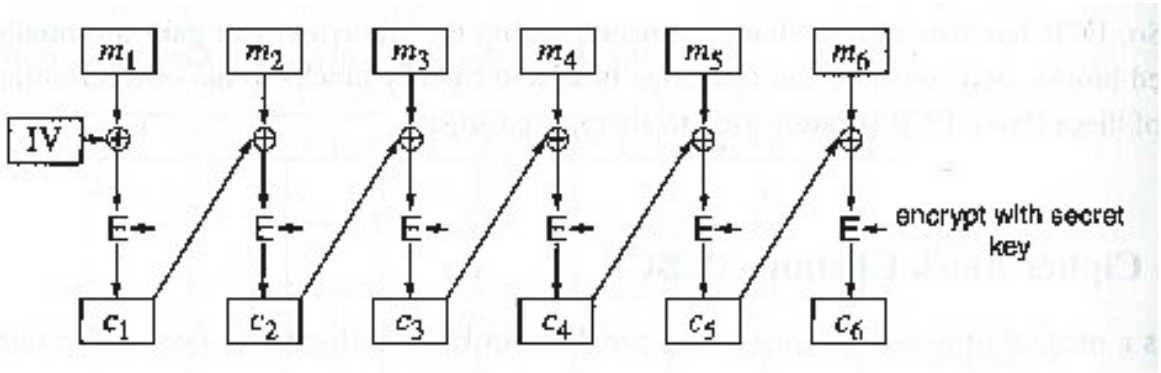
Cipher Block Chaining

- *cipher block chaining:* XOR ith input block, m(i), with previous block of cipher text, c(i-1)
  - c(0) transmitted to receiver in clear
  - what happens in "HTTP/1.1" scenario from above?

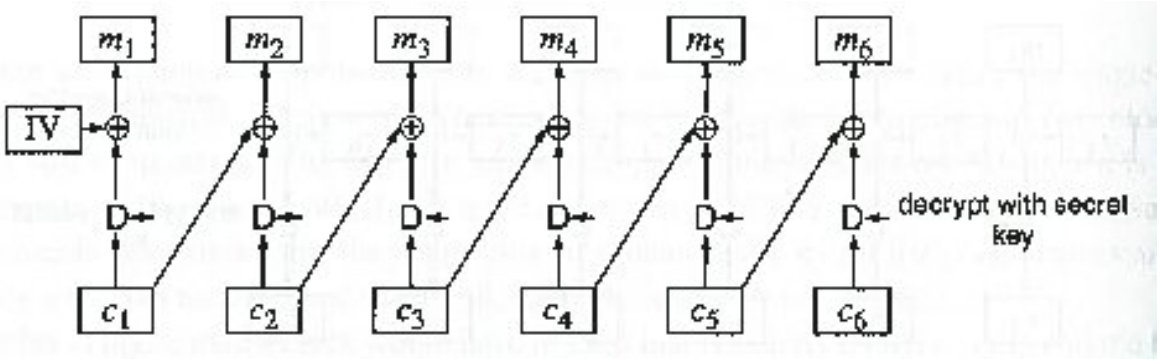


CBC

CBC Encryption



CBC Decryption



See Kaufman et al. "Network Security, Private Communication in a Public World"

Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES: Data Encryption Standard

- US encryption standard [NIST 1993]
- 56-bit symmetric key (64 – 8 parity bits)
- 64-bit plaintext input blocks
- Can be used in a cipher block chaining (CBC) setting to encrypt longer messages

3DES

- In practice only 2 keys are used
  - $c = K_a(K_b^{-1}(K_a(m)))$
  - $m = K_a^{-1}(K_b(K_a^{-1}(c)))$
  - It has been shown to be sufficiently secure
  - Avoids overhead of sending over 3 keys

- In DES we can *encrypt by decrypting* (???)
  - Using $c = K_a(K_b^{-1}(K_a(m)))$ allows for inter-operation with DES
  - Use Kb = Ka

- Why 3DES and not 120DES or 2DES?
  - 2DES has been proven not secure (takes only twice the time to brute-force a single-DES key)
  - 120DES would be very expensive from a computational point of view

AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- new (Nov. 2001) symmetric-key NIST standard, replacing DES
  - **Nice mathematical justification for design choices**
- 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

Public Key Cryptography

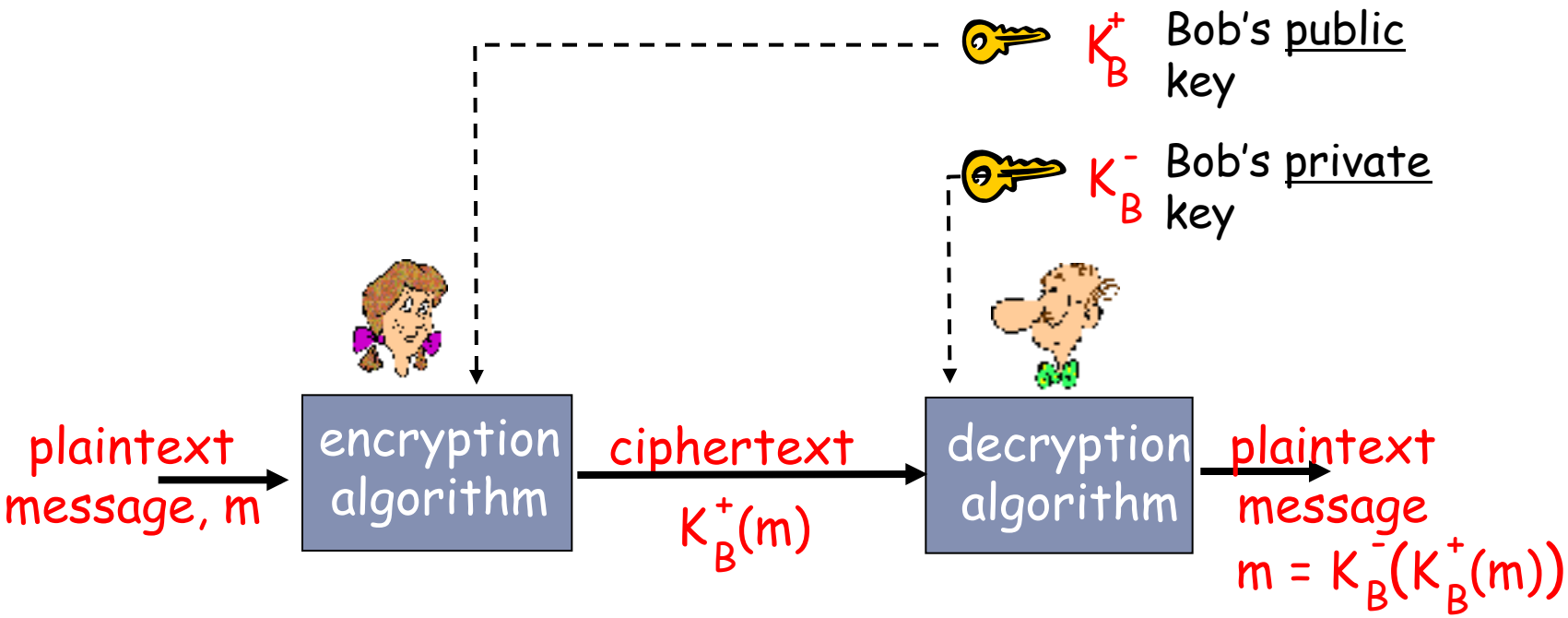
symmetric key crypto

- 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 $K_B^+(\ )$ and $K_B^-(\ )$ 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

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!

Session keys

- RSA is computationally intensive
- DES is at least 100 times faster than RSA

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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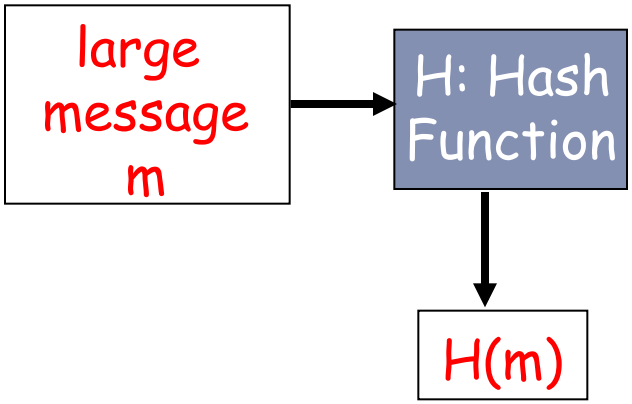
Message Integrity

- Allows communicating parties to verify that received messages are authentic.
  - Content of message has not been altered
  - Source of message is who/what you think it is
  - Message has not been replayed
  - Sequence of messages is maintained
- Let's first talk about message digests

Message Digests

- Function H( ) that takes as input an arbitrary length message and outputs a fixed-length string: "message signature"
- Note that H( ) is a many-to-1 function
- H( ) is often called a "hash function"



Often, no good justification for design choices in Hash functions.

- Desirable properties:
  - Easy to calculate
  - Irreversibility: Can't determine m from H(m)
  - Collision resistance: Computationally difficult to produce m and m' such that H(m) = H(m')
  - Seemingly random output

Internet checksum: poor message digest

Internet checksum has some properties of hash function:

- produces fixed length digest (16-bit sum) of input
- is many-to-one

- But given message with given hash value, it is easy to find another message with same hash value.
- Example: Simplified checksum: add 4-byte chunks at a time:

message	ASCII format
I O U 1	49 4F 55 31
0 0 . 9	30 30 2E 39
9 B O B	39 42 D2 42
	B2 C1 D2 AC

message	ASCII format
I O U 9	49 4F 55 39
0 0 . 1	30 30 2E 31
9 B O B	39 42 D2 42
	B2 C1 D2 AC

different messages but identical checksums!

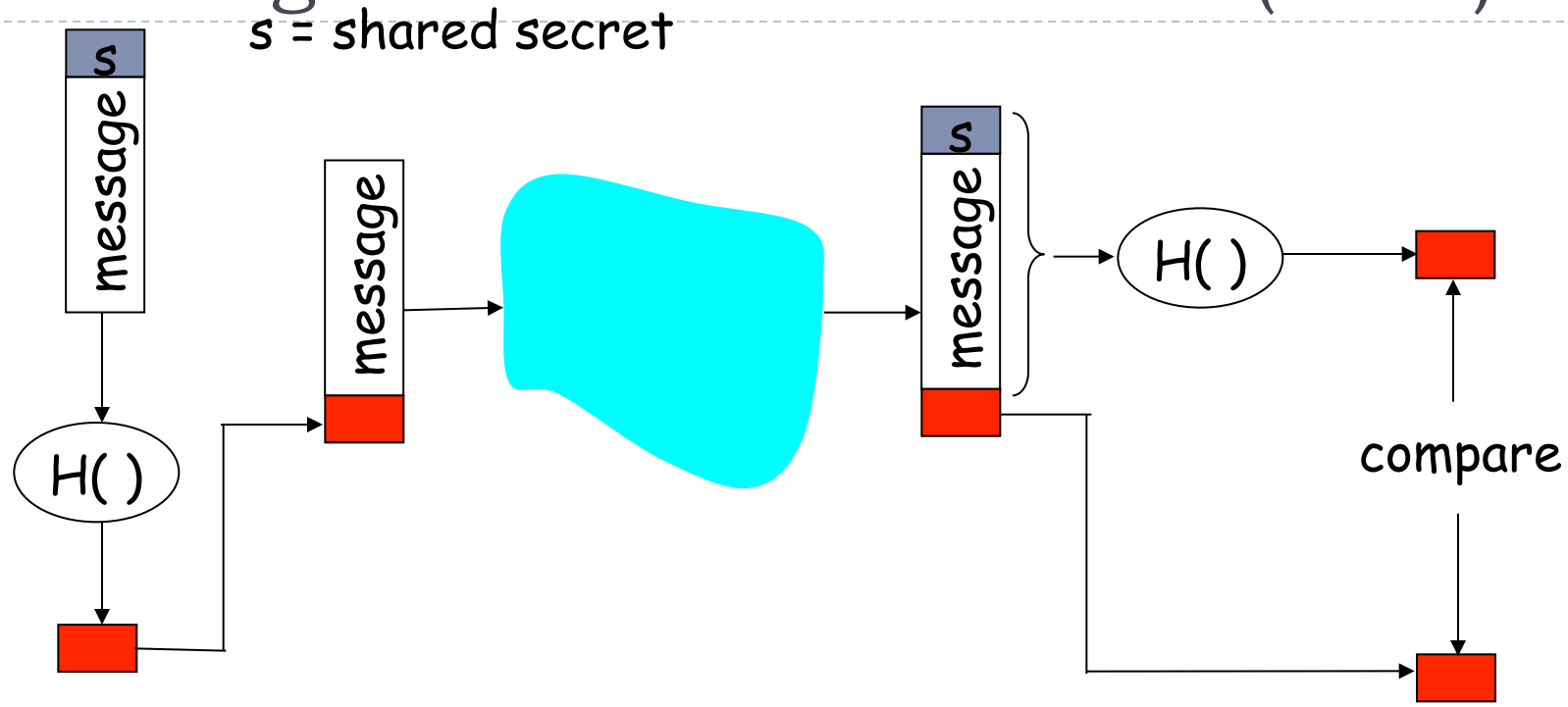
Hash Function Algorithms

- MD5 hash function widely used (RFC 1321)
  - computes 128-bit message digest in 4-step process.
- SHA-1 is also used.
  - US standard [NIST, FIPS PUB 180-1]
  - 160-bit message digest

Question

- Assume we want to send a message
  - We are not concerned with confidentiality, only integrity
- What if we send
  - m' = m || MD5(m)
  - The receiver can extract m, compute MD5(m), and check if this matches the MD5 that was sent
- Does this guarantee integrity?

Message Authentication Code (MAC)



- ***Authenticates sender***
- ***Verifies message integrity***
- No encryption !
- Also called "keyed hash"
- Notation: $MD_m = H(s||m)$; send $m||MD_m$

HMAC

- Popular MAC (Message Auth. Code) standard
- Addresses some subtle security flaws

1. Concatenates secret to front of message.
2. Hashes concatenated message
3. Concatenates the secret to front of digest
4. Hashes the combination again.

    - $HMAC_m$ ~= H(s || H(s || m)) ; send m || $HMAC_m$

Other nifty things to do with a hash

- Document/Program fingerprint
- Authentication using a shared key

- Encryption (generate key stream for stream cipher)

b1 = H(Kab|IV) c1 = p1 xor b1
b2 = H(Kab|c1) c2 = p2 xor b2
b3 = H(Kab|c2) c3 = p3 xor b3
...

End-point authentication

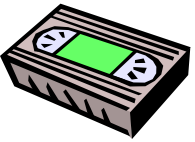
- Want to be sure of the originator of the message – *end-point authentication*.
- Assuming Alice and Bob have a shared secret, will MAC provide end-point authentication?
  - We do know that Alice created the message.
  - But did she send it?

Playback attack

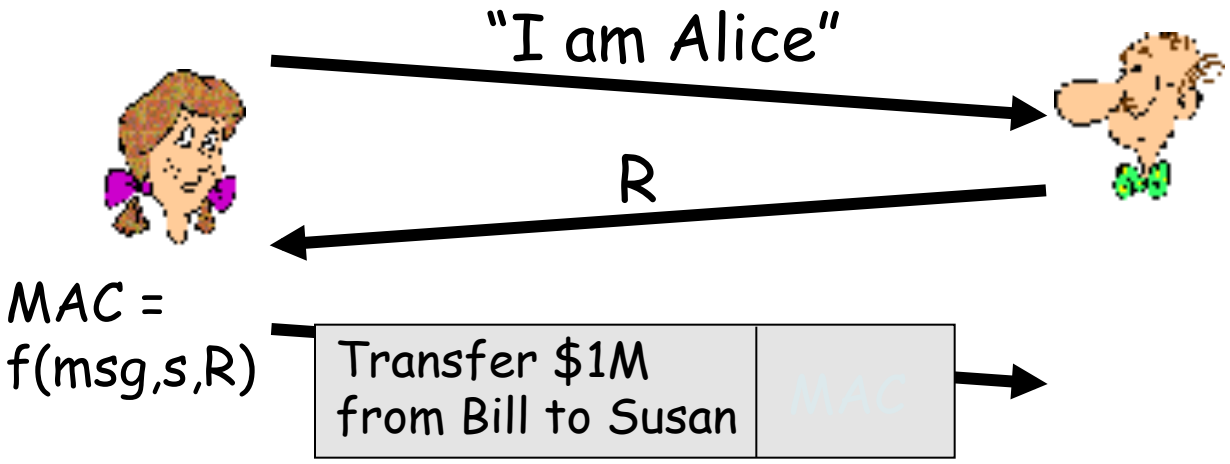
MAC = f(msg,s)

Transfer $1M from Bill to Trudy | MAC

Transfer $1M from Bill to Trudy | MAC



Defending against playback attack: nonce



Digital Signatures***

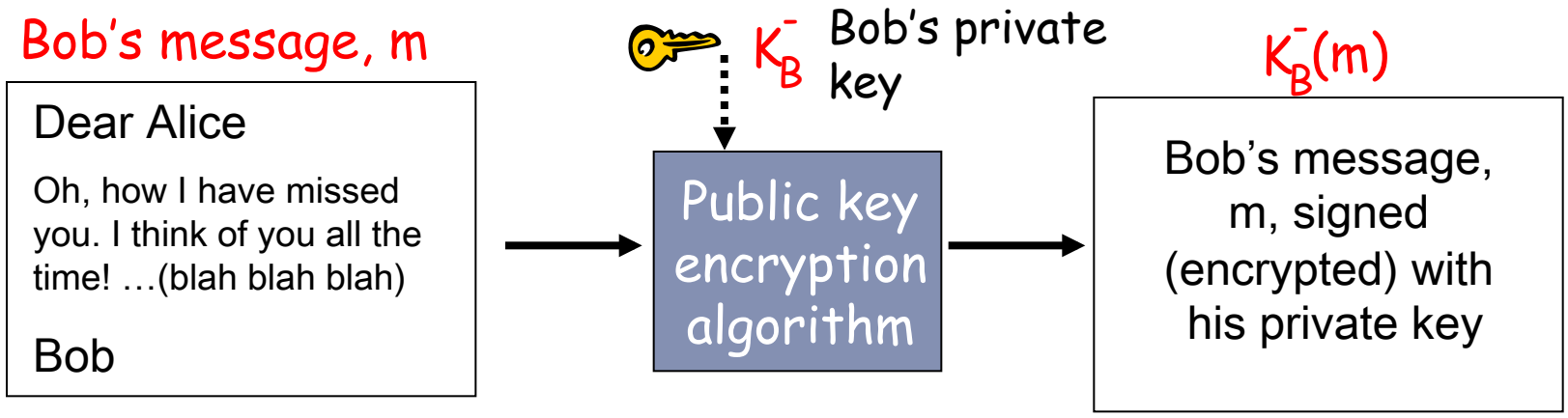
Cryptographic technique analogous to hand-written signatures.

- sender (Bob) digitally signs document, establishing he is document owner/creator.
- Goal is similar to that of a MAC, except now use public-key cryptography
- verifiable, nonforgeable: recipient (Alice) can prove to someone that Bob, and no one else (including Alice), must have signed document

Digital Signatures

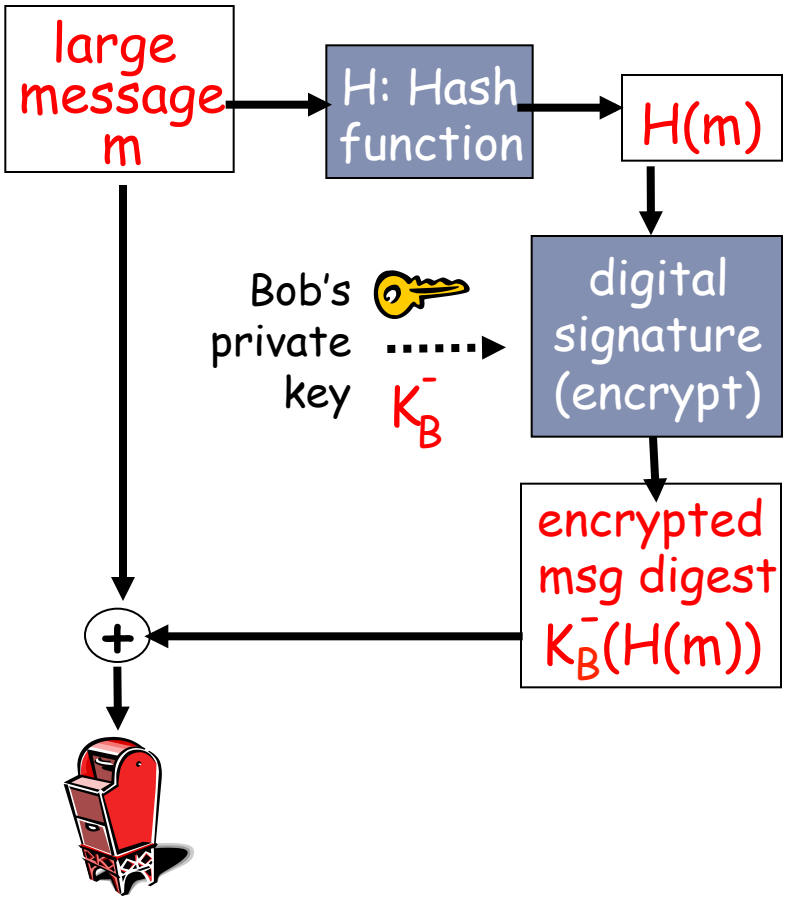
Simple digital signature for message m:

- Bob signs m by encrypting with his private key K_B^-, creating "signed" message, $K_B^-(m)$

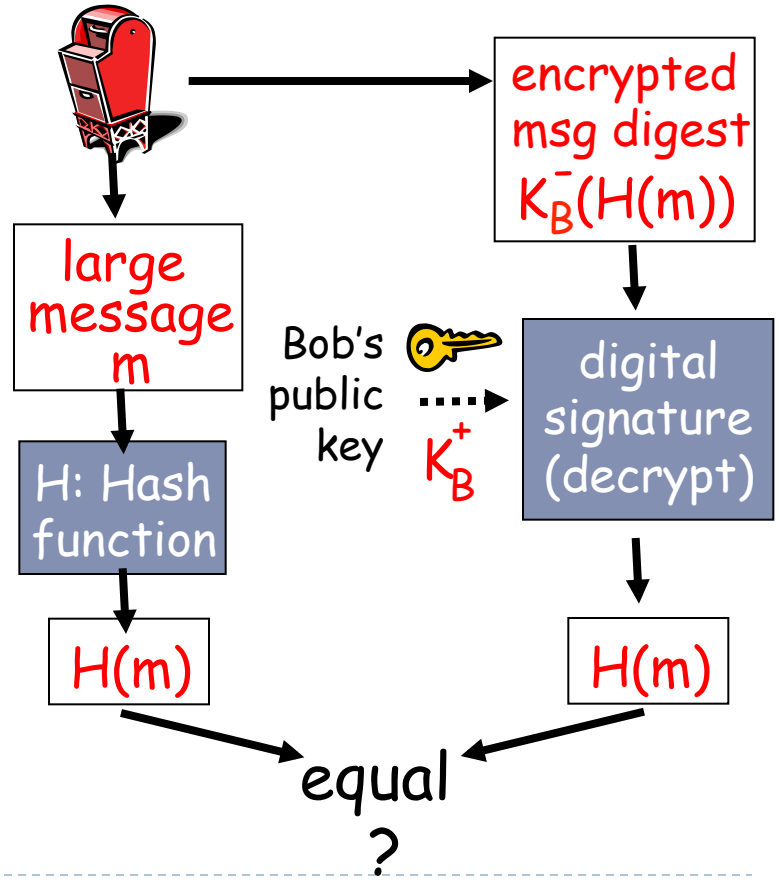


Digital signature = signed message digest

Bob sends digitally signed message:



Alice verifies signature and integrity of digitally signed message:



Digital Signatures (more)

- Suppose Alice receives msg m, digital signature $K_B^-(m)$
- Alice verifies m signed by Bob by applying Bob's public key K_B to $K_B^+(m)$ then checks $K_B^+(K_B^-(m)) = m$.
- If $K_B^+(K_B^-(m)) = m$, whoever signed m must have used Bob's private key.

Alice thus verifies that:

- Bob signed m.
- No one else signed m.
- Bob signed m and not m'.

Non-repudiation:

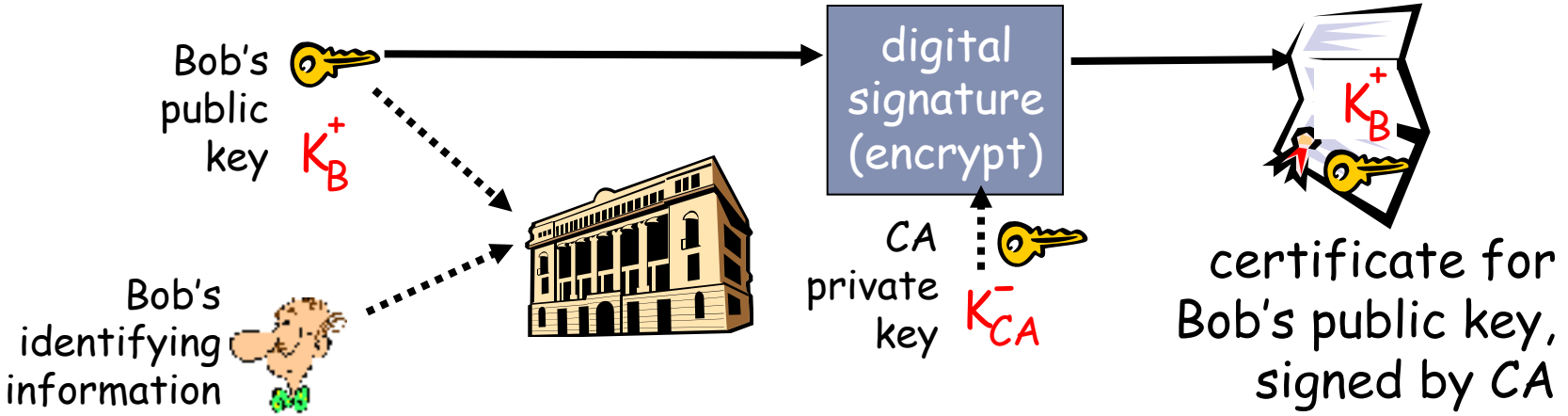
- ✓ Alice can take m, and signature $K_B^-(m)$ to court and prove that Bob signed m.

Public-key certification

- Motivation: Trudy plays pizza prank on Bob
  - Trudy creates e-mail order:
    Dear Pizza Store, Please deliver to me four pepperoni pizzas. Thank you, Bob
  - Trudy signs order with her private key
  - Trudy sends order to Pizza Store
  - Trudy sends to Pizza Store her public key, but says it's Bob's public key.
  - Pizza Store verifies signature; then delivers four pizzas to Bob.
  - Bob doesn't even like Pepperoni

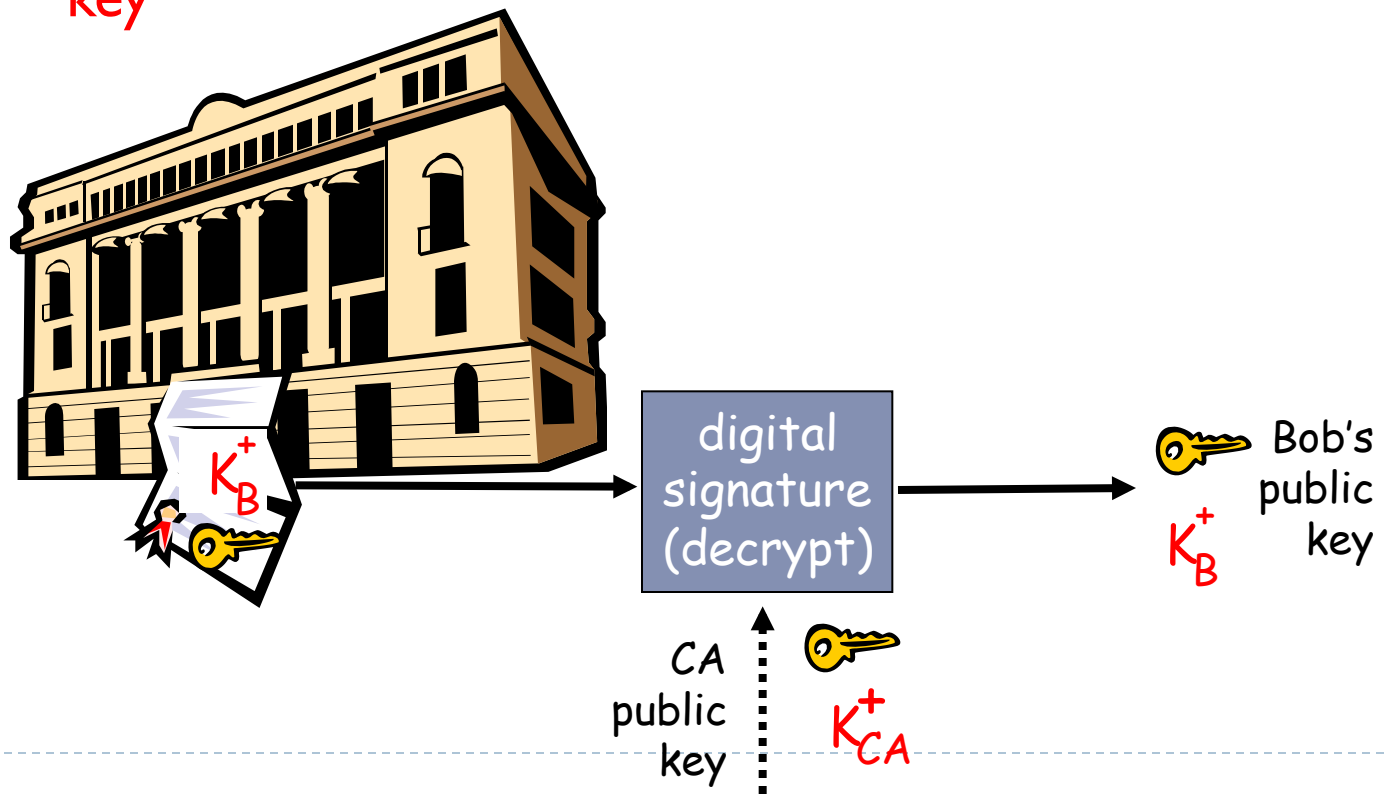
Certification Authorities

- Certification authority (CA): binds public key to particular entity, E.
- E (person, router) registers its public key with CA.
  - E provides "proof of identity" to CA.
  - CA creates certificate binding E to its public key.
  - certificate containing E's public key digitally signed by CA – CA says "this is E's public key"



Certification Authorities

- When Alice wants Bob's public key:
  - gets Bob's certificate (Bob or elsewhere).
  - apply CA's public key to Bob's certificate, get Bob's public key



Certificates: summary

- Primary standard X.509 (RFC 2459)
- Certificate contains:
  - Issuer name
  - Entity name, address, domain name, etc.
  - Entity's public key
  - Digital signature (signed with issuer's private key)
- Public-Key Infrastructure (PKI)
  - Certificates and certification authorities
  - Often considered "heavy"

Components of a PKI

- Certificates
- Repository from which certificates can be retrieved
- A method for revoking certificates
- An "anchor of trust"
- A method for verifying a chain of certificates up to the anchor of trust

- Browser example:
  - Browsers ship with many trust anchors (i.e., public key of trusted CAs)
- Can we really trust the CAs?
  - http://www.comodo.com/Comodo-Fraud-Incident-2011-03-23.html
  - It may be possible to trick users to add a trust anchor into the default set
  - The browser itself may be compromised an forced to add a malicious trust anchor

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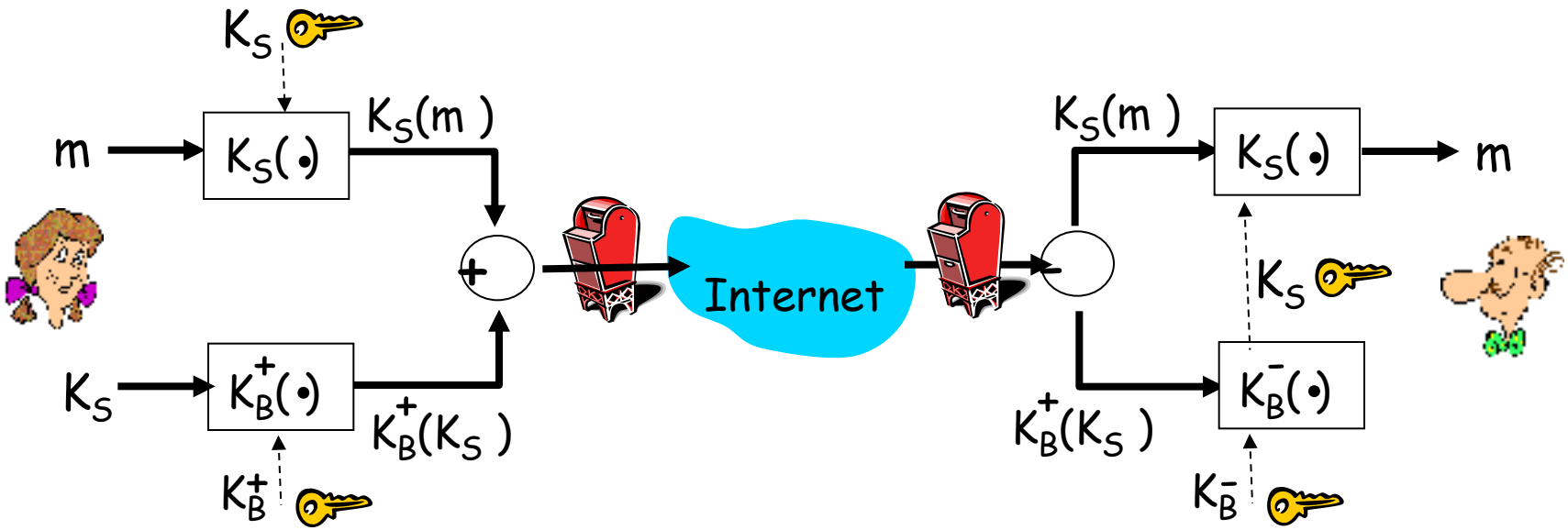
Secure e-mail

- Alice wants to send confidential e-mail, m, to Bob.

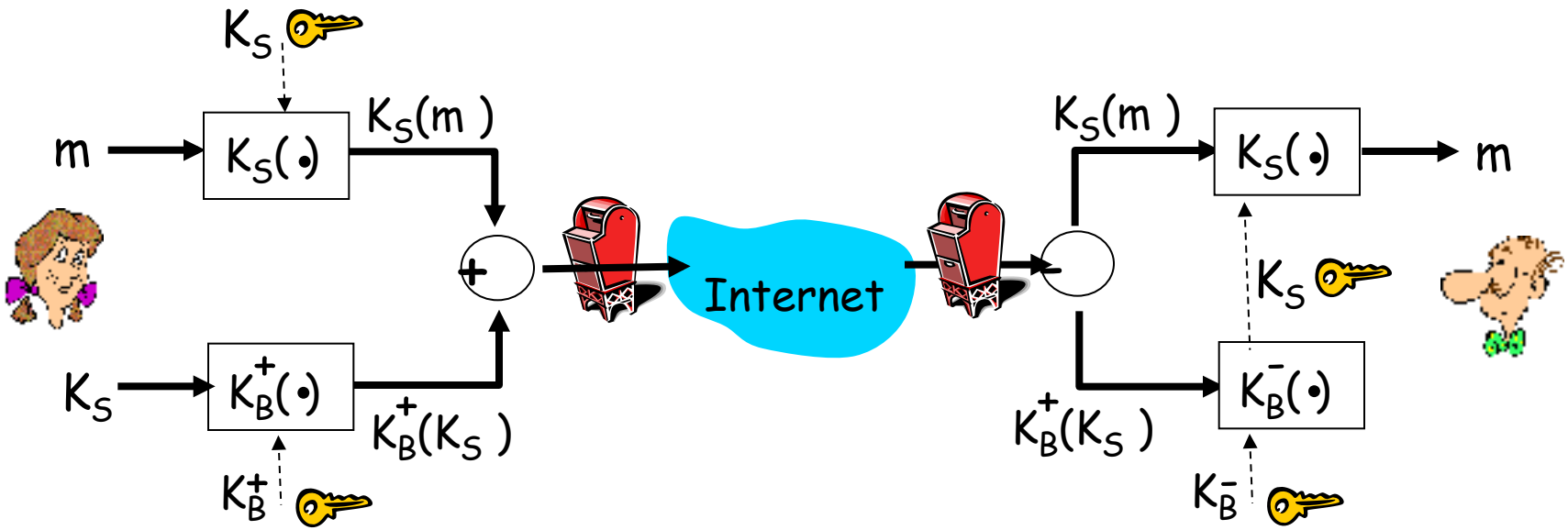


Alice:

- generates random *symmetric* private key, K_S.
- encrypts message with K_S (for efficiency)
- also encrypts K_S with Bob's public key.
- sends both $K_S(m)$ and $K_B(K_S)$ to Bob.

Secure e-mail

- Alice wants to send confidential e-mail, m, to Bob.

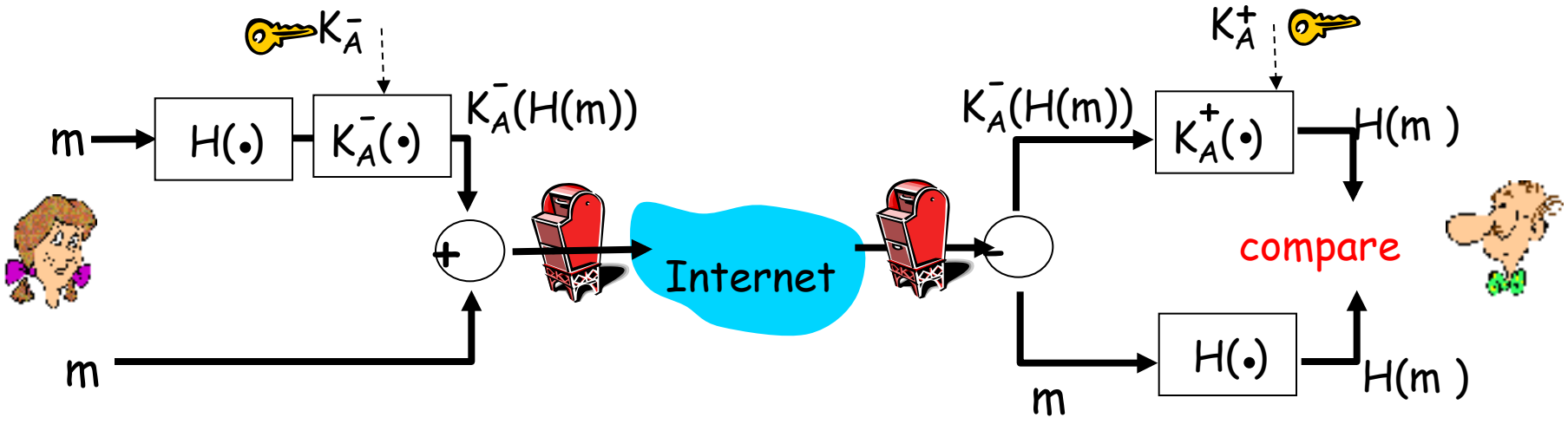


Bob:

- uses his private key to decrypt and recover K_S
- uses K_S to decrypt $K_S(m)$ to recover m

Secure e-mail (continued)

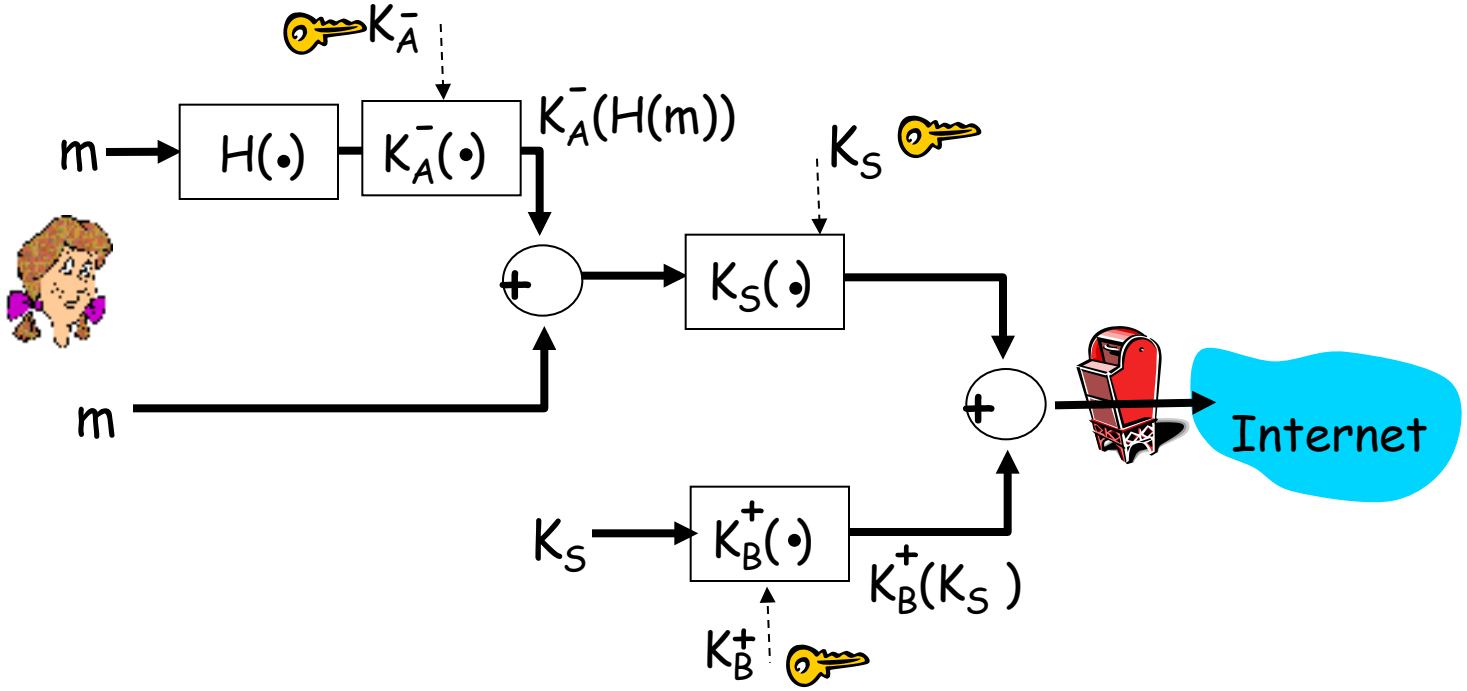
• Alice wants to provide sender authentication message integrity.



• Alice digitally signs message.
• sends both message (in the clear) and digital signature.

Secure e-mail (continued)

- Alice wants to provide secrecy, sender authentication, message integrity.



Alice uses three keys: her private key, Bob's public key, newly created symmetric key

Chapter 8 roadmap

8.1 What is network security?

8.2 Principles of cryptography

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8.5 Securing TCP connections: SSL

8.6 Network layer security: IPsec

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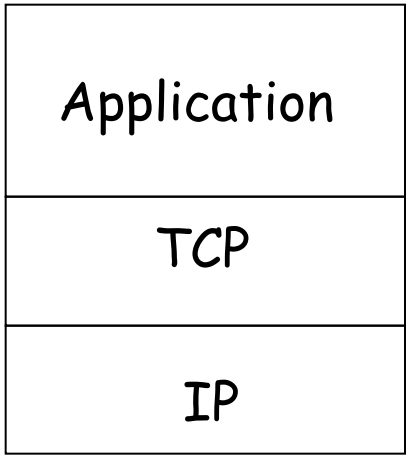
8.8 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

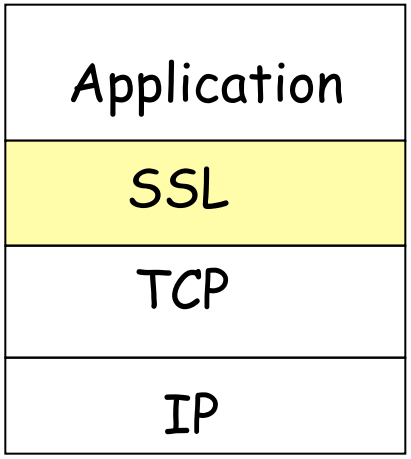
SSL: Secure Sockets Layer

- Widely deployed security protocol
  - Supported by almost all browsers and web servers
  - https
  - Tens of billions $ spent per year over SSL
- Originally designed by Netscape in 1993
- Number of variations:
  - TLS: transport layer security, RFC 2246
- Provides
  - Confidentiality
  - Integrity
  - Authentication
- Original goals:
  - Had Web e-commerce transactions in mind
  - Encryption (especially credit-card numbers)
  - Web-server authentication
  - Optional client authentication
  - Minimum hassle in doing business with new merchant
- Available to all TCP applications
  - Secure socket interface

SSL and TCP/IP



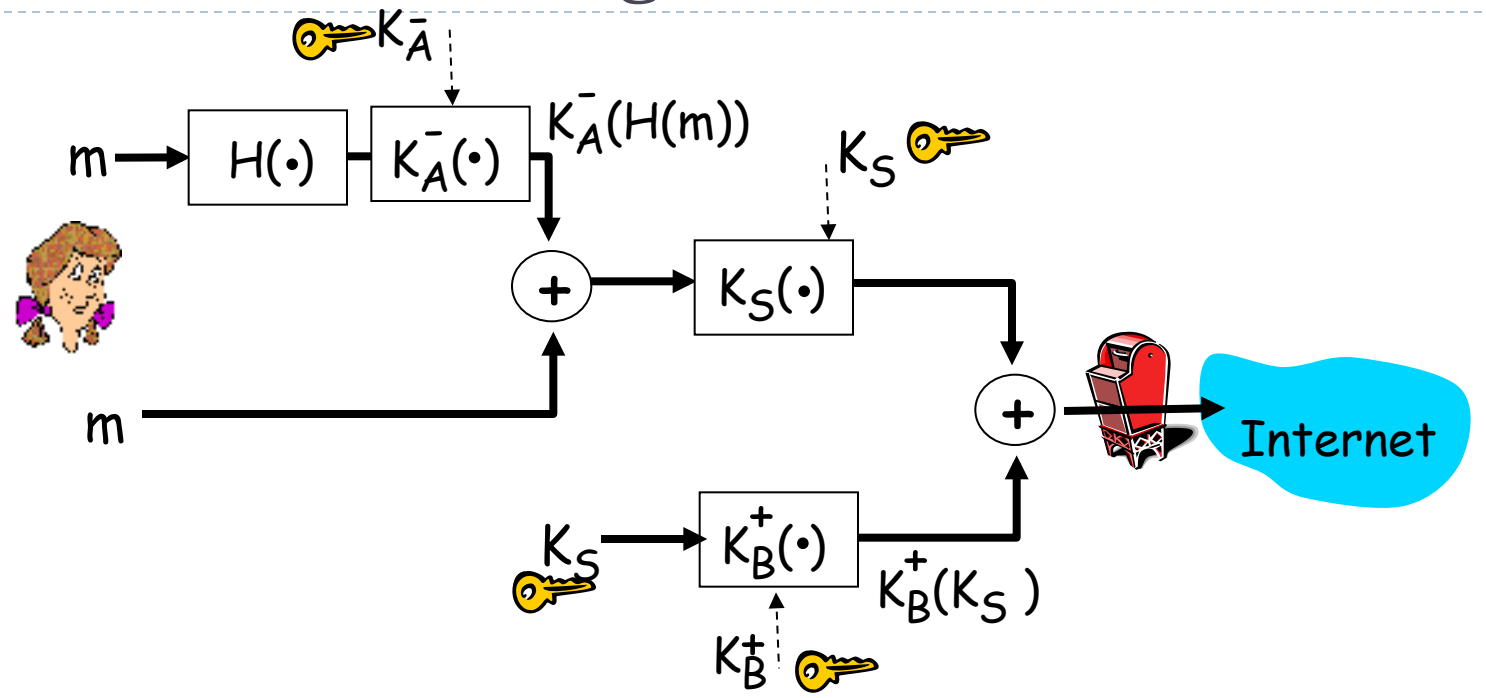
Normal Application



Application with SSL

- SSL provides application programming interface (API) to applications
- C and Java SSL libraries/classes readily available

Could do something like PGP:

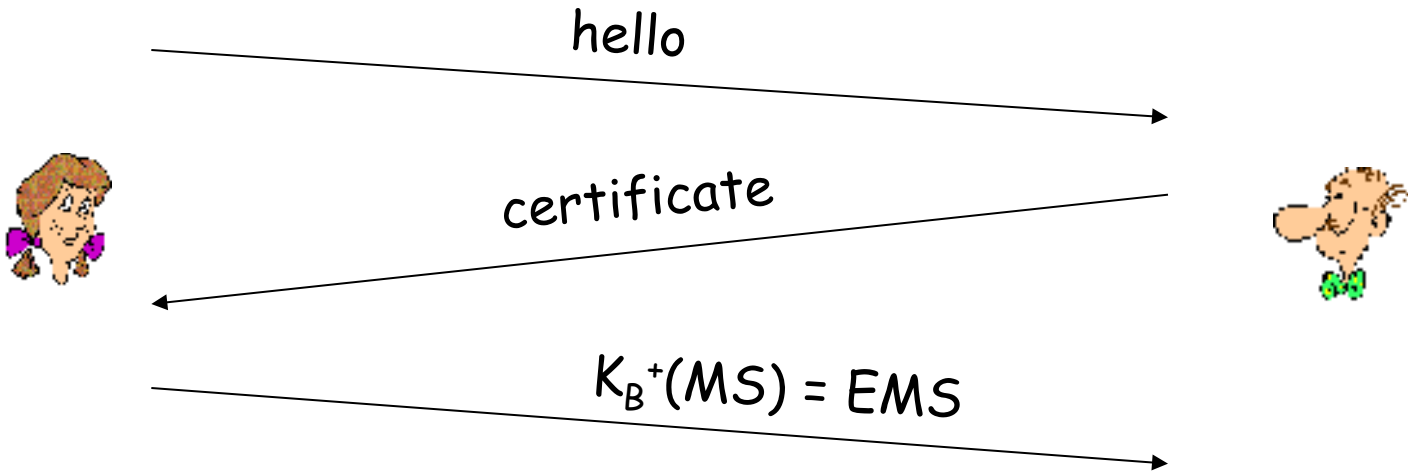


- But want to send byte streams & interactive data
- Want a set of secret keys for the entire connection
- Want certificate exchange part of protocol: handshake phase

Toy SSL: a simple secure channel

- Handshake: Alice and Bob use their certificates and private keys to authenticate each other and exchange shared secret
- Key Derivation: Alice and Bob use shared secret to derive set of keys
- Data Transfer: Data to be transferred is broken up into a series of records
- Connection Closure: Special messages to securely close connection

Toy: A simple handshake



- MS = master secret
- EMS = encrypted master secret

Toy: Key derivation

- Considered bad to use same key for more than one cryptographic operation
  - Use different keys for message authentication code (MAC) and encryption
- Four keys (both Alice and Bob will have all 4 keys):
  - K_c = encryption key for data sent from client to server
  - M_c = MAC key for data sent from client to server
  - K_s = encryption key for data sent from server to client
  - M_s = MAC key for data sent from server to client
- Keys derived from key derivation function (KDF)
  - Takes master secret and (possibly) some additional random data and creates the keys

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What is confidentiality at the network-layer?

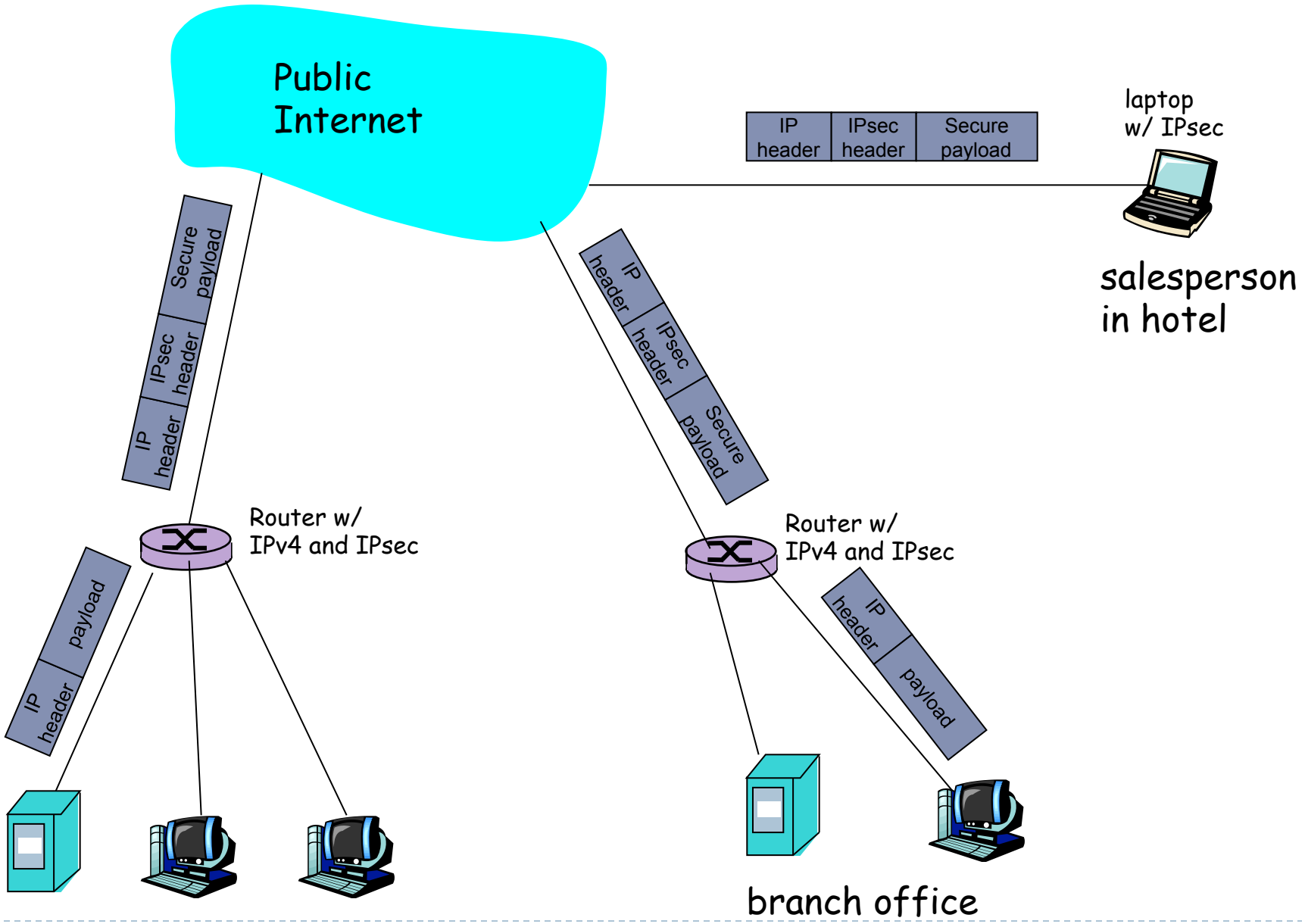
Between two network entities:

- Sending entity encrypts the payloads of datagrams. Payload could be:
  - TCP segment, UDP segment, ICMP message, OSPF message, and so on.
- All data sent from one entity to the other would be hidden:
  - Web pages, e-mail, P2P file transfers, TCP SYN packets, and so on.
- That is, "blanket coverage".

Virtual Private Networks (VPNs)

- Institutions often want private networks for security.
  - Costly! Separate routers, links, DNS infrastructure.
- With a VPN, institution's inter-office traffic is sent over public Internet instead.
  - But inter-office traffic is encrypted before entering public Internet

Virtual Private Network (VPN)

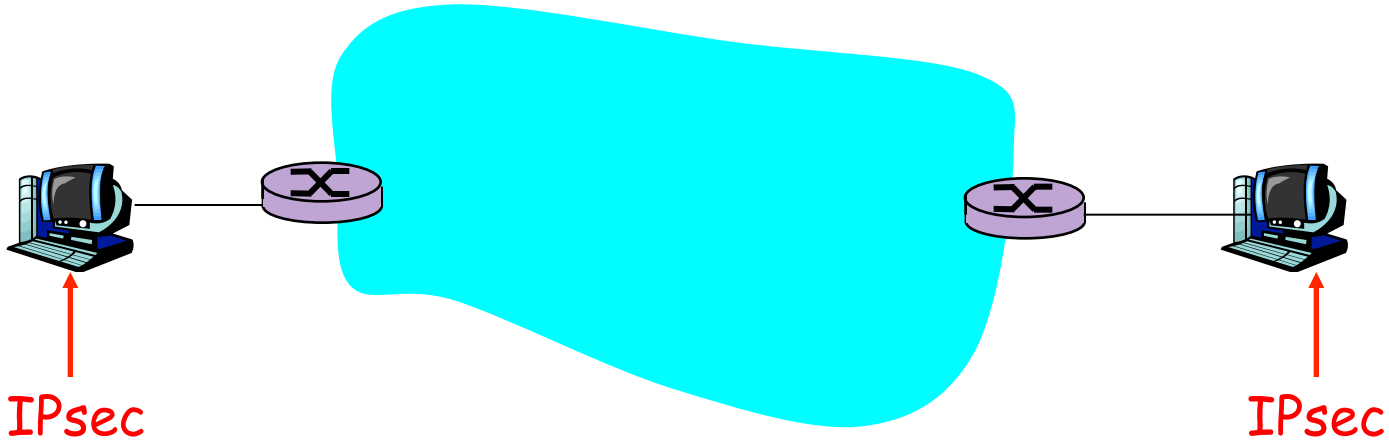


IPsec services

- Data integrity
- Origin authentication
- Replay attack prevention
- Confidentiality

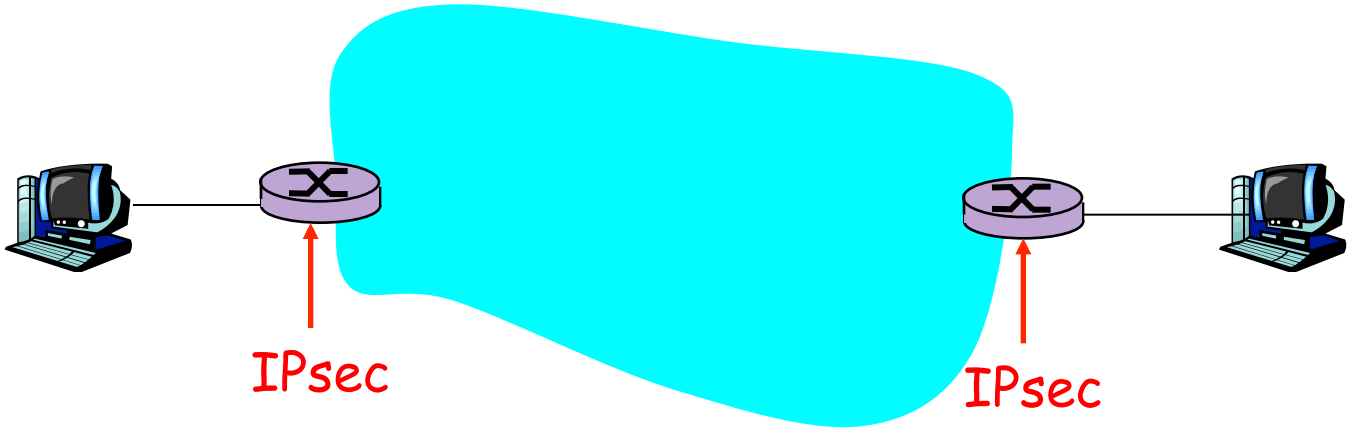
- Two protocols providing different service models:
  - AH
  - ESP

IPsec Transport Mode



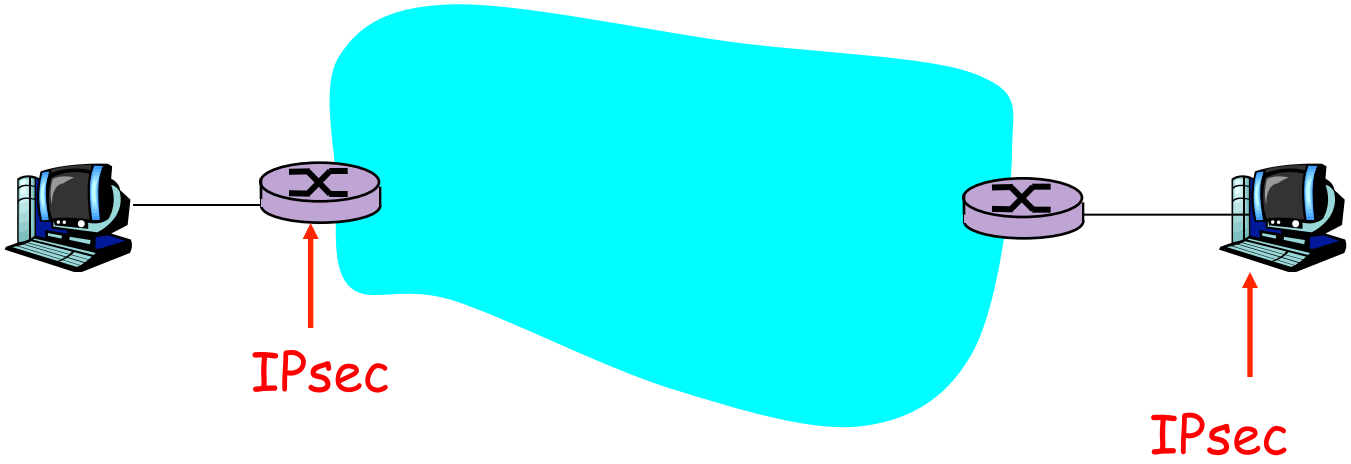
- IPsec datagram emitted and received by end-system.
- Protects upper level protocols

IPsec – tunneling mode (1)



- End routers are IPsec aware. Hosts need not be.

IPsec – tunneling mode (2)



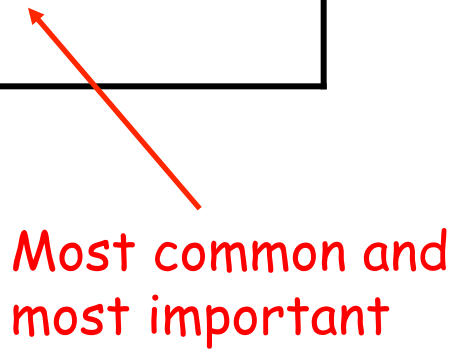
- Also tunneling mode.

Two protocols

- Authentication Header (AH) protocol
  - provides source authentication & data integrity but *not* confidentiality
- Encapsulation Security Protocol (ESP)
  - provides source authentication, data integrity, *and confidentiality*
  - more widely used than AH

Four combinations are possible!

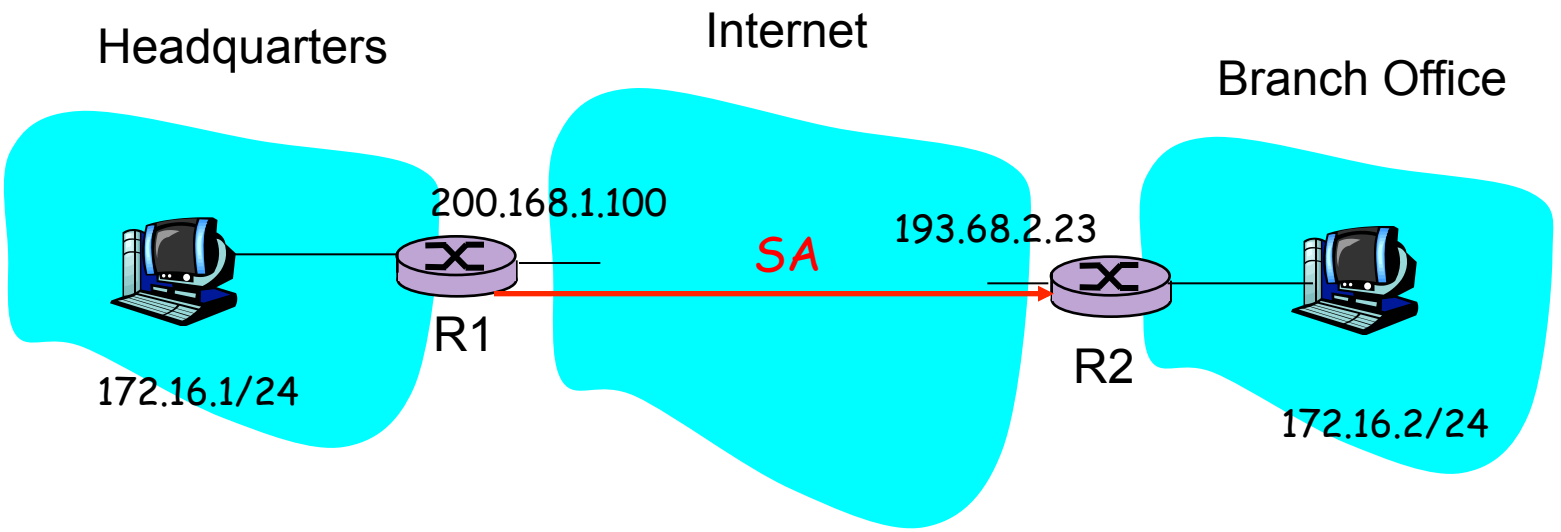
Host mode with AH	Host mode with ESP
Tunnel mode with AH	Tunnel mode with ESP

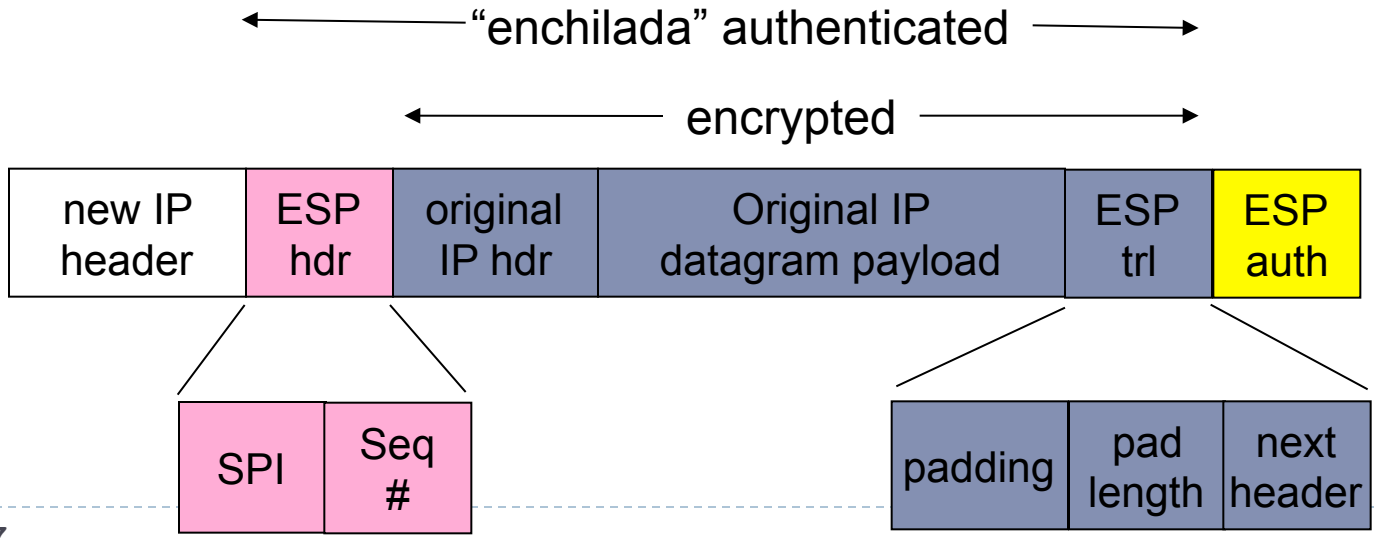


Security associations (SAs)

- Before sending data, a virtual connection is established from sending entity to receiving entity.
- Called "security association (SA)"
  - SAs are simplex: for only one direction
- Both sending and receiving entites maintain *state information* about the SA
  - Recall that TCP endpoints also maintain state information.
  - IP is connectionless; IPsec is connection-oriented!

What happens?





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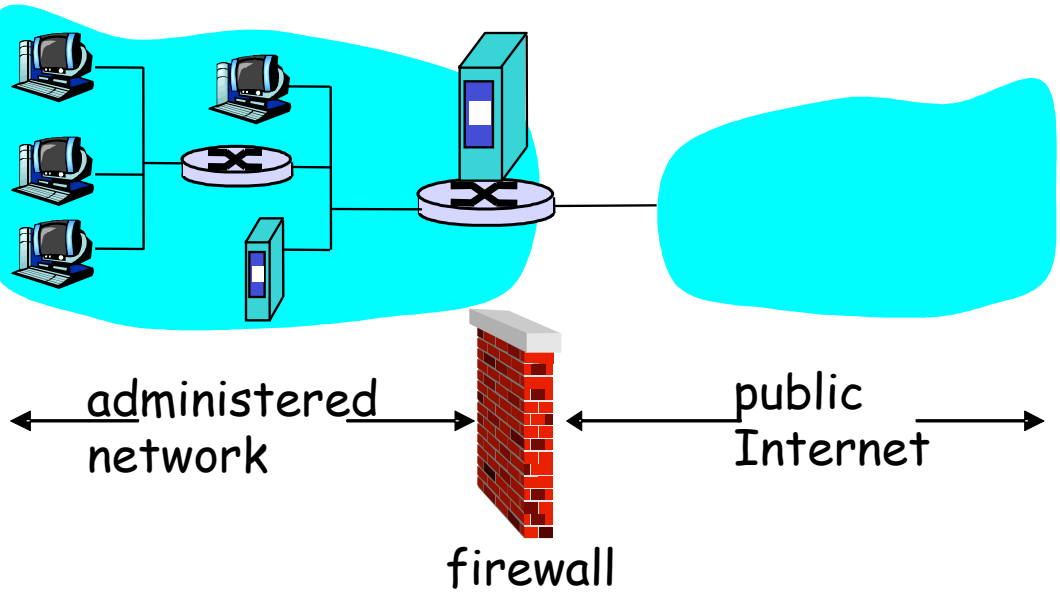
Firewalls

firewall

isolates organization's internal net from larger Internet, allowing some packets to pass, blocking others.



Firewalls: Why

prevent denial of service attacks:

- SYN flooding: attacker establishes many bogus TCP connections, no resources left for "real" connections

prevent illegal modification/access of internal services.

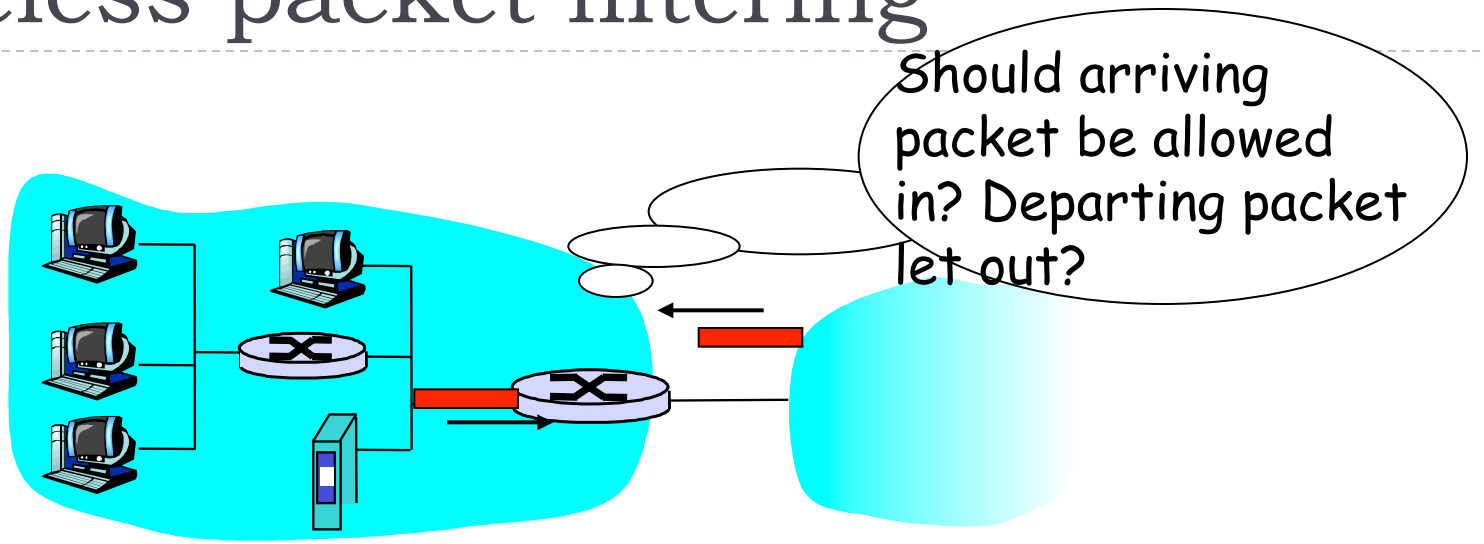
- e.g., blocks external access to NETBIOS shares

allow only authorized access to inside network (set of authenticated users/hosts)

three types of firewalls:

- stateless packet filters
- stateful packet filters
- application gateways

Stateless packet filtering



- internal network connected to Internet via router firewall
- router filters packet-by-packet, decision to forward/drop packet based on:
  - source IP address, destination IP address
  - TCP/UDP source and destination port numbers
  - ICMP message type
  - TCP SYN and ACK bits

Stateless packet filtering: example

- example 1: block incoming and outgoing datagrams with IP protocol field = 17 and with either source or dest port = 23.
  - all incoming, outgoing UDP flows and telnet connections are blocked.
- example 2: Block inbound TCP segments with ACK=0.
  - prevents external clients from making TCP connections with internal clients, but allows internal clients to connect to outside.

Stateless packet filtering: more examples

Policy	Firewall Setting
No outside Web access.	Drop all outgoing packets to any IP address, port 80
No incoming TCP connections, except those for institution's public Web server only.	Drop all incoming TCP SYN packets to any IP except 130.207.244.203, port 80
Prevent Web-radios from eating up the available bandwidth.	Drop all incoming UDP packets - except DNS and router broadcasts.
Prevent your network from being used for a smurf DoS attack.	Drop all ICMP packets going to a "broadcast" address (eg 130.207.255.255).
Prevent your network from being tracerouted	Drop all outgoing ICMP TTL expired traffic

Access Control Lists

- *ACL:* table of rules, applied top to bottom to incoming packets: (action, condition) pairs

action	source address	dest address	protocol	source port	dest port	flag bit
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	TCP	> 1023	80	any
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	TCP	80	> 1023	ACK
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	UDP	> 1023	53	---
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	UDP	53	> 1023	----
deny	all	all	all	all	all	all

Stateful packet filtering

- stateless packet filter: heavy handed tool
  - admits packets that "make no sense," e.g., dest port = 80, ACK bit set, even though no TCP connection established:

action	source address	dest address	protocol	source port	dest port	flag bit
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	TCP	80	> 1023	ACK

- *stateful packet filter:* track status of every TCP connection
  - track connection setup (SYN), teardown (FIN): can determine whether incoming, outgoing packets "makes sense"
  - timeout inactive connections at firewall: no longer admit packets

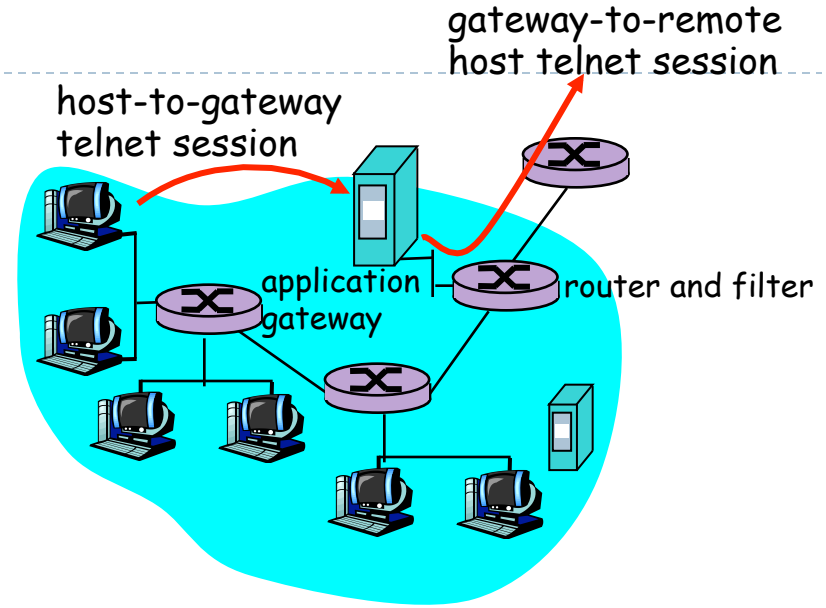
Stateful packet filtering

- ACL augmented to indicate need to check connection state table before admitting packet

action	source address	dest address	proto	source port	dest port	flag bit	check conxion
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	TCP	> 1023	80	any	
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	TCP	80	> 1023	ACK	X
allow	222.22/16	outside of 222.22/16	UDP	> 1023	53	---	
allow	outside of 222.22/16	222.22/16	UDP	53	> 1023	----	X
deny	all	all	all	all	all	all	

Application gateways

- filters packets on application data as well as on IP/TCP/ UDP fields.
- example: allow select internal users to telnet outside.



1. require all telnet users to telnet through gateway.
2. for authorized users, gateway sets up telnet connection to dest host. Gateway relays data between 2 connections
3. router filter blocks all telnet connections not originating from gateway.

Limitations of firewalls and gateways

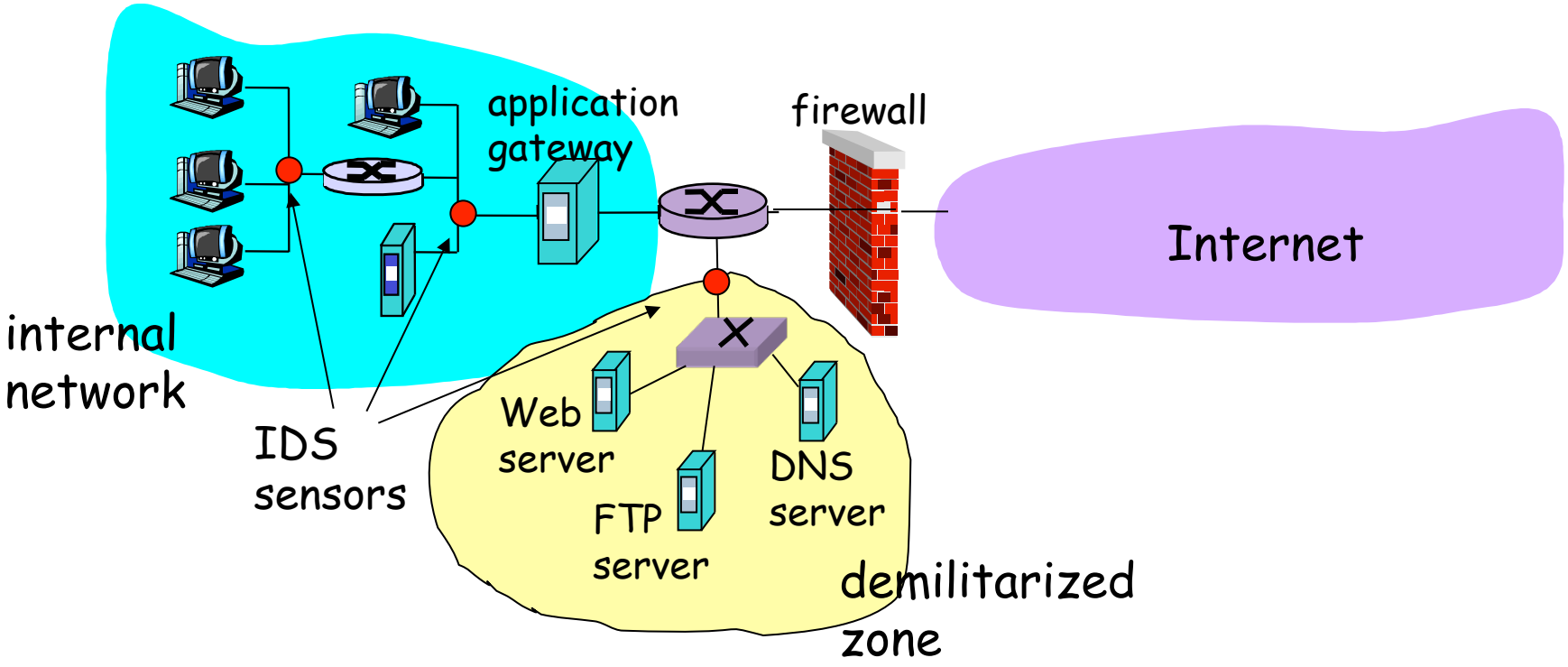
- IP spoofing: router can't know if data "really" comes from claimed source
- if multiple app's. need special treatment, each has own app. gateway.
- client software must know how to contact gateway.
  - e.g., must set IP address of proxy in Web browser
- filters often use all or nothing policy for UDP.
- tradeoff: degree of communication with outside world, level of security
- many highly protected sites still suffer from attacks.

Intrusion detection systems

- packet filtering:
  - operates on TCP/IP headers only
  - no correlation check among sessions
- *IDS: intrusion detection system*
  - *deep packet inspection:* look at packet contents (e.g., check character strings in packet against database of known virus, attack strings)
  - examine correlation among multiple packets
    - port scanning
    - network mapping
    - DoS attack

Intrusion detection systems

- multiple IDSs: different types of checking at different locations



Types of IDS

- Network- vs. Host-based
- Anomaly- vs. Misuse-based
- Rule-based vs. Statistical IDS

- Example of Snort rule
  - alert tcp $EXTERNAL_NET any -> 192.168.0.0/24 80 (msg:"Sample alert"; content:"page.cgi?id=pwn3d"; nocase; offset:12; classtype: web-application-activity)

- IDS vs. IPS
  - IPS are in-line (can block attacks, not only detect them)
  - Problems in case of FPs

Evading IDS

- Evading Signatures
  - Polymorphic Attacks
- Evading Statistical Models
  - Polymorphic Blending Attacks

Network Security (summary)

Basic techniques…...

- cryptography (symmetric and public)
- message integrity
- end-point authentication

…. used in many different security scenarios

- secure email
- secure transport (SSL)
- IP sec
- 802.11

Operational Security: firewalls and IDS