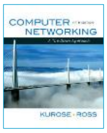
CSC358 *Intro. to Computer Networks*

Lecture 11: *VLAN, MPLS, Network Security*

Amir H. Chinaei, Winter 2016

ahchinaei@cs.toronto.edu
http://www.cs.toronto.edu/~ahchinaei/

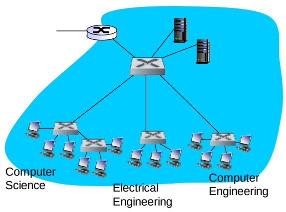


Many slides are (inspired/adapted) from the above source

Office Hours: T 17:00–18:00 R 9:00–10:00 BA4222

TA Office Hours: W 16:00-17:00 BA3201 R 10:00-11:00 BA7172
csc358ta@cdf.toronto.edu
http://www.cs.toronto.edu/~ahchinaei/teaching/2016jan/csc358/

VLANs: motivation



consider:

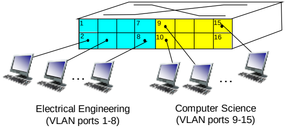
- CS user moves office to EE, but wants connect to CS switch?
- single broadcast domain:
  - all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown location of destination MAC address) must cross entire LAN
  - security/privacy, efficiency issues

VLANs

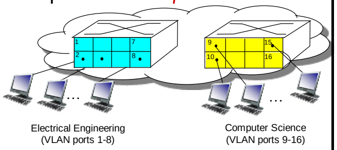
Virtual Local Area Network

switch(es) supporting VLAN capabilities can be configured to define multiple ***virtual*** LANS over single physical LAN infrastructure.

port-based VLAN: switch ports grouped (by switch management software) so that *single* physical switch ……

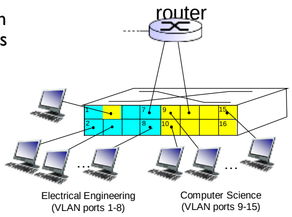


… operates as *multiple* virtual switches

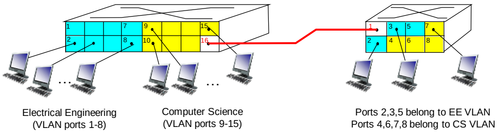


Port-based VLAN

- *traffic isolation:* frames to/from ports 1-8 can *only* reach ports 1-8
  - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- dynamic membership: ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs
- forwarding between VLANS: done via routing (just as with separate switches)
  - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers



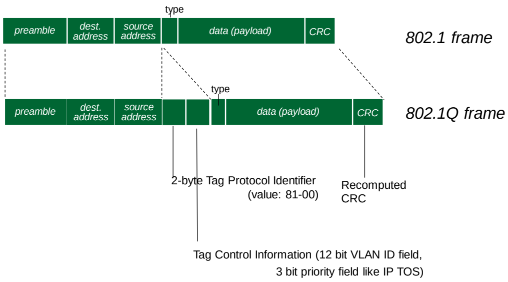
VLANS spanning multiple switches



- *trunk port:* carries frames between VLANS defined over multiple physical switches
  - frames forwarded within VLAN between switches can't be vanilla 802.1 frames (must carry VLAN ID info)
  - 802.1q protocol adds/removed additional header fields for frames forwarded between trunk ports

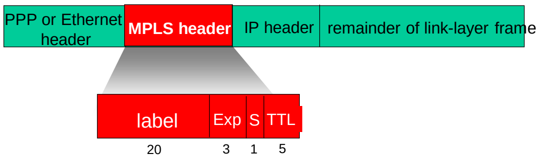
---

802.1Q VLAN frame format



Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

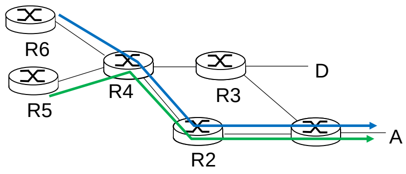
- initial goal: high-speed IP forwarding using fixed length label (instead of IP address)
  - fast lookup using fixed length identifier (rather than longest prefix matching)
  - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
  - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



MPLS capable routers

- a.k.a. label-switched router
- forward packets to outgoing interface based only on label value (*don't inspect IP address*)
  - MPLS forwarding table distinct from IP forwarding tables
- *flexibility:* MPLS forwarding decisions can *differ* from those of IP
  - use destination *and* source addresses to route flows to same destination differently (traffic engineering)
  - re-route flows quickly if link fails: pre-computed backup paths (useful for VoIP)

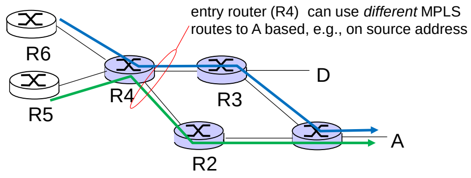
MPLS versus IP paths



- *IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone*

IP router

MPLS versus IP paths



entry router (R4) can use *different* MPLS routes to A based, e.g., on source address

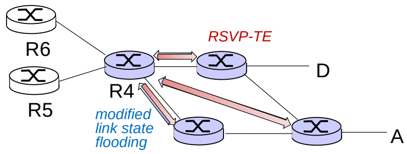
- *IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone*
- *MPLS routing:* path to destination can be based on source *and* dest. address
  - *fast reroute:* precompute backup routes in case of link failure

IP-only router

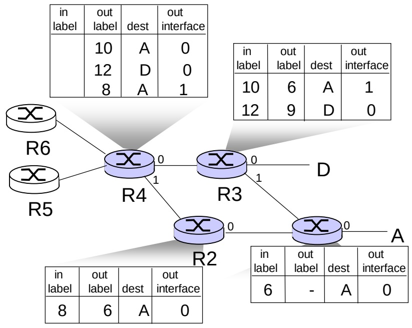
MPLS and IP router

MPLS signaling

- modify OSPF, IS-IS link-state flooding protocols to carry info used by MPLS routing,
  - e.g., link bandwidth, amount of "reserved" link bandwidth
- *entry MPLS router uses RSVP-TE signaling protocol to set up MPLS forwarding at downstream routers*



MPLS forwarding tables



in label	out label	dest	out interface
	10	A	0
	12	D	0
	8	A	1

in label	out label	dest	out interface
10	6	A	1
12	9	D	0

in label	out label	dest	out interface
8	6	A	0

in label	out label	dest	out interface
6	-	A	0

Data center networks

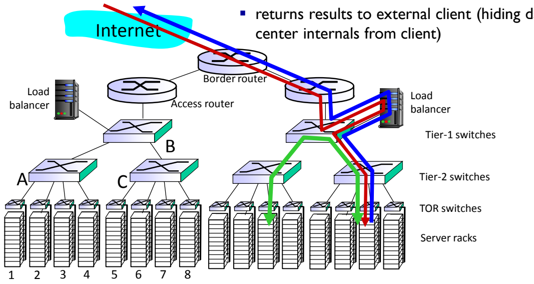
- 10's to 100's of thousands of hosts, often closely coupled, in close proximity:
  - e-business (e.g. Amazon)
  - content-servers (e.g., YouTube, Akamai, Apple, Microsoft)
  - search engines, data mining (e.g., Google)
- challenges:
  - multiple applications, each serving massive numbers of clients
  - managing/balancing load, avoiding processing, networking, data bottlenecks

Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center

Data center networks

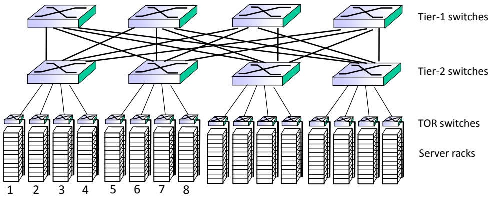
load balancer: application-layer routing

- receives external client requests
- directs workload within data center
- returns results to external client (hiding data center internals from client)



Data center networks

- rich interconnection among switches, racks:
  - increased throughput between racks (multiple routing paths possible)
  - increased reliability via redundancy



Link layer, LANs: outline

5.1 introduction, services

5.2 error detection, correction

5.3 multiple access protocols

5.4 LANs
- addressing, ARP
- Ethernet
- switches
- VLANS

5.5 link virtualization: MPLS

5.6 data center networking

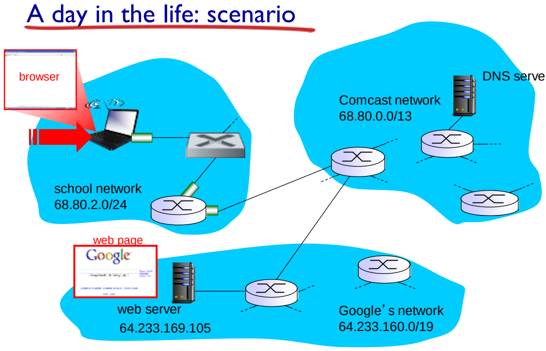
5.7 a day in the life of a web request

Synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

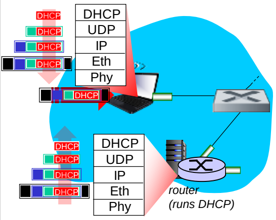
- journey down protocol stack complete!
  - application, transport, network, link
- putting-it-all-together: synthesis!
  - *goal:* identify, review, understand protocols (at all layers) involved in seemingly simple scenario: requesting www page
  - *scenario:* student attaches laptop to campus network, requests/receives www.google.com

---

A day in the life: scenario

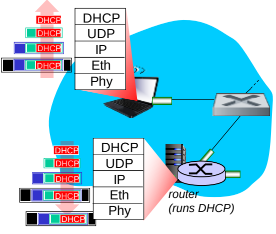


A day in the life… connecting to the Internet



- connecting laptop needs to get its own IP address, addr of first-hop router, addr of DNS server: use *DHCP*
- DHCP request encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in 802.3 Ethernet
- Ethernet frame broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running DHCP server
- Ethernet demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to DHCP

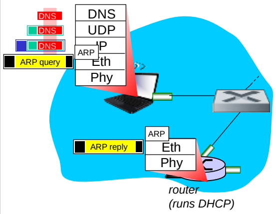
A day in the life… connecting to the Internet



- DHCP server formulates *DHCP ACK* containing client's IP address, IP address of first-hop router for client, name & IP address of DNS server
- encapsulation at DHCP server, frame forwarded (switch learning) through LAN, demultiplexing at client
- DHCP client receives DHCP ACK reply

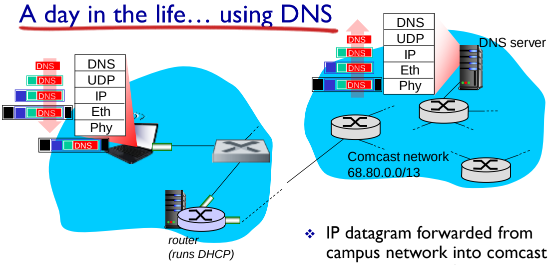
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

A day in the life… ARP (before DNS, before HTTP)



- before sending *HTTP* request, need IP address of www.google.com: *DNS*
- DNS query created, encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in Eth. To send frame to router, need MAC address of router interface: ARP
- ARP query broadcast, received by router, which replies with ARP reply giving MAC address of router interface
- client now knows MAC address of first hop router, so can now send frame containing DNS query

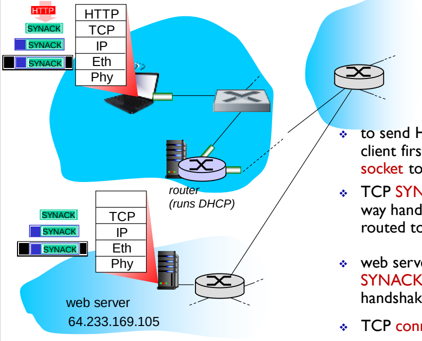
A day in the life… using DNS



- IP datagram containing DNS query forwarded via LAN switch from client to 1st hop router

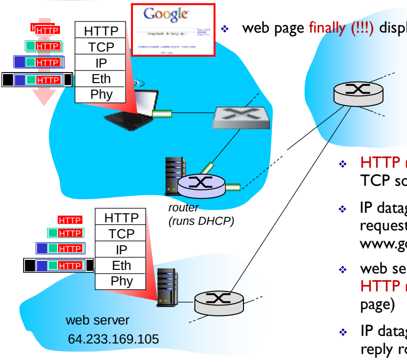
- IP datagram forwarded from campus network into comcast network, routed (tables created by RIP, OSPF, IS-IS and/or BGP routing protocols) to DNS server
- demux'ed to DNS server
- DNS server replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

A day in the life…TCP connection carrying HTTP



- to send HTTP request, client first opens TCP socket to web server
- TCP SYN segment (step 1 in 3-way handshake) inter-domain routed to web server
- web server responds with TCP SYNACK (step 2 in 3-way handshake)
- TCP connection established!

A day in the life… HTTP request/reply



- web page finally (!!!) displayed

- HTTP request sent into TCP socket
- IP datagram containing HTTP request routed to www.google.com
- web server responds with HTTP reply (containing web page)
- IP datagram containing HTTP reply routed back to client

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

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

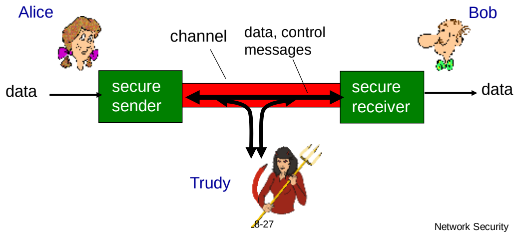
message integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection

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?

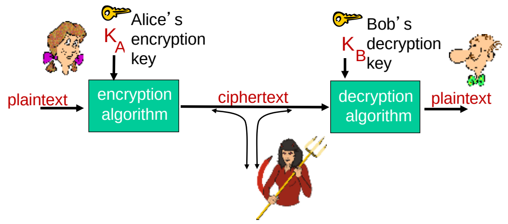
There are bad guys (and girls) out there!

Q: What can a "bad guy" do?

A: A lot! 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)

The language of cryptography



m plaintext message

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

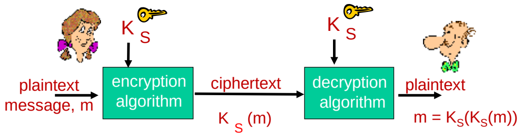
$m = K_B(K_A(m))$

Breaking an encryption scheme

- cipher-text only attack: Trudy has ciphertext she can analyze
- two approaches:
  - brute force: search through all keys
  - statistical analysis
- 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,
- 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?

Simple encryption scheme

substitution cipher: substituting one thing for another

- monoalphabetic cipher: substitute one letter for another

```
 plaintext:  abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

ciphertext:  mnbvcxzasdfghjklpoiuytrewq
```

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, $M_1,M_2,\ldots,M_n$
- 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 subsitution pattern in cyclic pattern
  - dog: d from M_1, o from M_3, g from M_4

Encryption key: n substitution ciphers, and cyclic pattern

- key need not be just n-bit pattern

Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES: Data Encryption Standard

- US encryption standard [NIST 1993]
- 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
  - no known good analytic attack
- making DES more secure:
  - 3DES: encrypt 3 times with 3 different keys

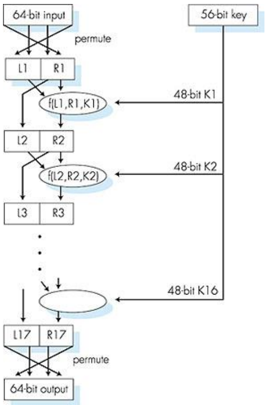
Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES operation

initial permutation

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

final permutation



AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- symmetric-key NIST standard, replacied DES (Nov 2001)
- 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

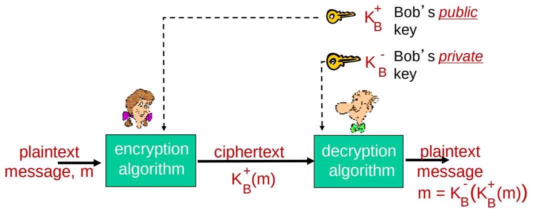
symmetric key crypto

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

public key 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



K_B^+ Bob's *public* key

K_B^- Bob's *private* key

plaintext message, m → encryption algorithm → ciphertext $K_B^+(m)$ → decryption algorithm → plaintext message $m = K_B^-(K_B^+(m))$

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

Prerequisite: modular arithmetic

- x mod n = remainder of x when divide by n
- facts:
  [(a mod n) + (b mod n)] mod n = (a+b) mod n
  [(a mod n) - (b mod n)] mod n = (a-b) mod n
  [(a mod n) * (b mod n)] mod n = (a*b) mod n
- thus
  $(a \bmod n)^d \bmod n = a^d \bmod n$
- example: x=14, n=10, d=2:
  $(x \bmod n)^d \bmod n = 4^2 \bmod 10 = 6$
  $x^d = 14^2 = 196 \quad x^d \bmod 10 = 6$

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).

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 $\underbrace{(n,e)}_{K_B^+}$. *private* key is $\underbrace{(n,d)}_{K_B^-}$.

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! $m = \underbrace{(m^e \bmod n)}_{c}{}^d \bmod n$

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).

encrypting 8-bit messages.

encrypt:	bit pattern	m	m^e	$c = m^e \bmod n$
	00001100	12	24832	17
decrypt:	c	c^d	$m = c^d \bmod n$	
	17	481968572106750915091411825223071697	12	

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 $z = (p-1)(q-1)$
- thus,
  $c^d \bmod n = (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n$
  $= m^{ed} \bmod n$
  $= m^{(ed \bmod z)} \bmod n$
  $= m^1 \bmod n$
  $= m$

RSA: another important property

The following property will be *very* useful later:

$$\underbrace{K_B^-(K_B^+(m))}_{} = m = \underbrace{K_B^+(K_B^-(m))}_{}$$

use public key first, followed by private key

use private key first, followed by public key

result is the same!

Why $K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m = K_B^+(K_B^-(m))$?

follows directly from modular arithmetic:

$(m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n = m^{ed} \bmod n$
$= m^{de} \bmod n$
$= (m^d \bmod n)^e \bmod n$

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

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

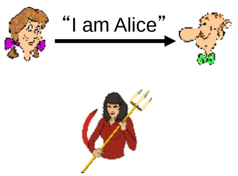
Chapter 8 roadmap

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

Authentication

Goal: Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

Protocol ap1.0: Alice says “I am Alice”

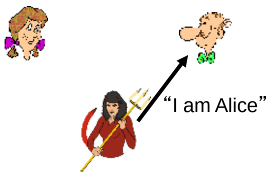


Failure scenario??

Authentication

Goal: Bob wants Alice to “prove” her identity to him

Protocol ap1.0: Alice says “I am Alice”

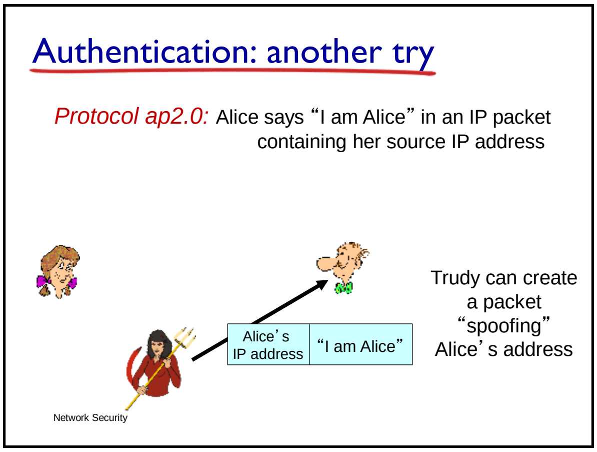


in a network,
Bob can not “see” Alice,
so Trudy simply declares
herself to be Alice

Authentication: another try

Protocol ap2.0: Alice says “I am Alice” in an IP packet containing her source IP address

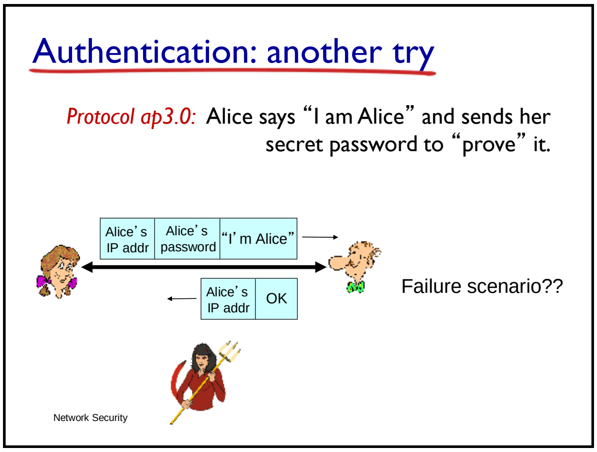
Failure scenario??



Authentication: another try

Protocol ap2.0: Alice says "I am Alice" in an IP packet containing her source IP address

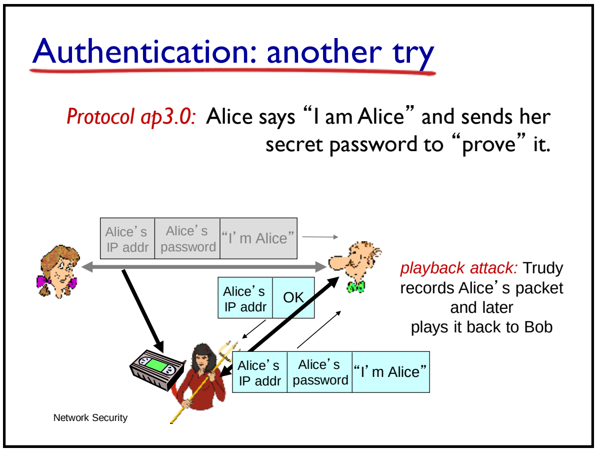
Trudy can create a packet "spoofing" Alice's address



Authentication: another try

Protocol ap3.0: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her secret password to "prove" it.

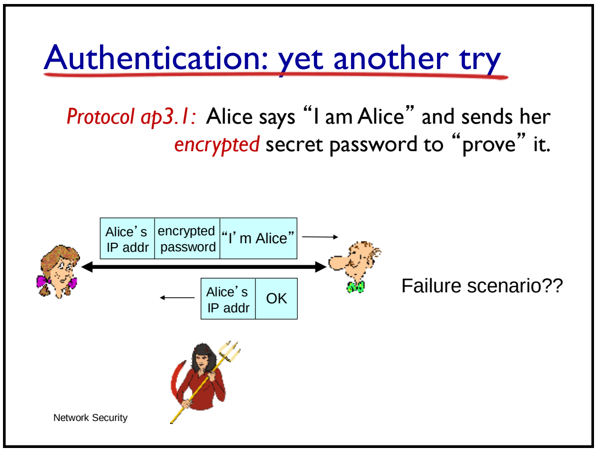
Failure scenario??



Authentication: another try

Protocol ap3.0: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her secret password to "prove" it.

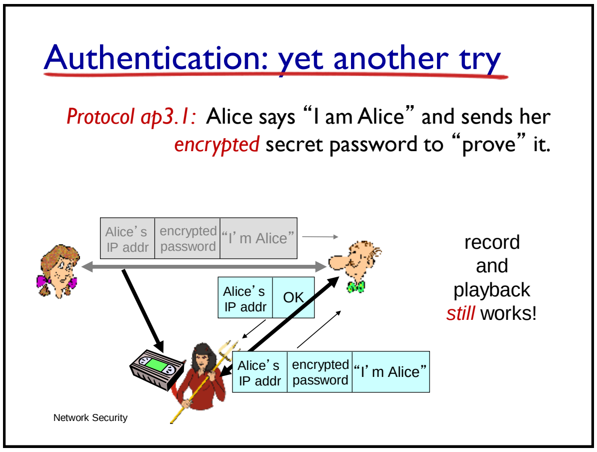
playback attack: Trudy records Alice's packet and later plays it back to Bob



Authentication: yet another try

Protocol ap3.1: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her *encrypted* secret password to "prove" it.

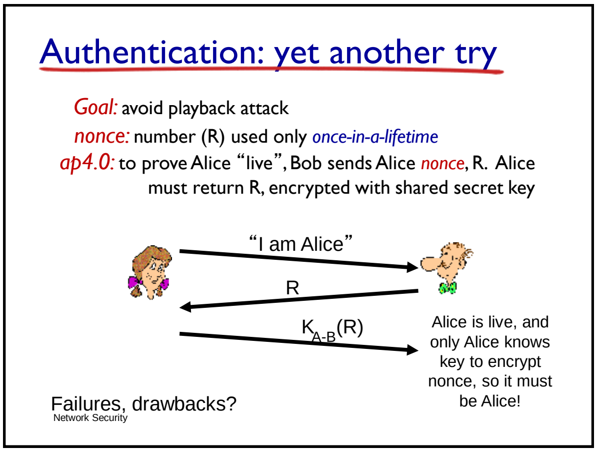
Failure scenario??



Authentication: yet another try

Protocol ap3.1: Alice says "I am Alice" and sends her *encrypted* secret password to "prove" it.

record and playback *still* works!



Authentication: yet another try

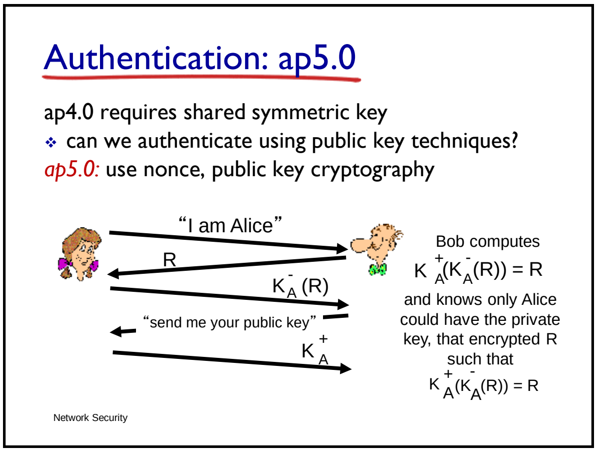
Goal: avoid playback attack

nonce: number (R) used only *once-in-a-lifetime*

ap4.0: to prove Alice "live", Bob sends Alice *nonce*, R. Alice must return R, encrypted with shared secret key

Alice is live, and only Alice knows key to encrypt nonce, so it must be Alice!

Failures, drawbacks?



Authentication: ap5.0

ap4.0 requires shared symmetric key

- can we authenticate using public key techniques?

ap5.0: use nonce, public key cryptography

"I am Alice"

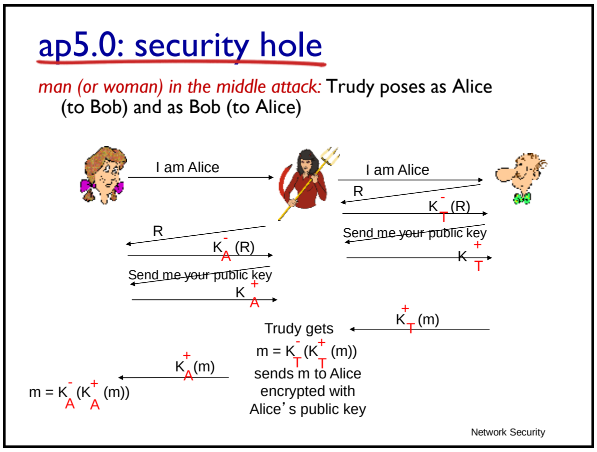
R

$K_A^-(R)$

"send me your public key"

K_A^+

Bob computes
$K_A^+(K_A^-(R)) = R$
and knows only Alice
could have the private
key, that encrypted R
such that
$K_A^+(K_A^-(R)) = R$



ap5.0: security hole

man (or woman) in the middle attack: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)

I am Alice

I am Alice

R

$K_T^-(R)$

Send me your public key

K_T^+

R

$K_A^-(R)$

Send me your public key

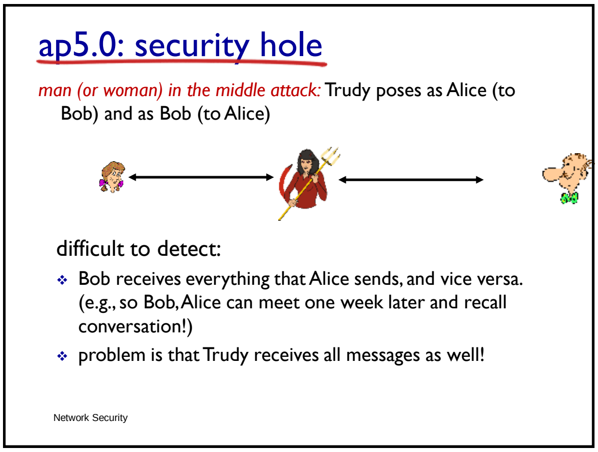
K_A^+

$K_T^+(m)$

Trudy gets
m = $K_T^-(K_T^+(m))$
sends m to Alice
encrypted with
Alice's public key

$K_A^+(m)$

m = $K_A^-(K_A^+(m))$

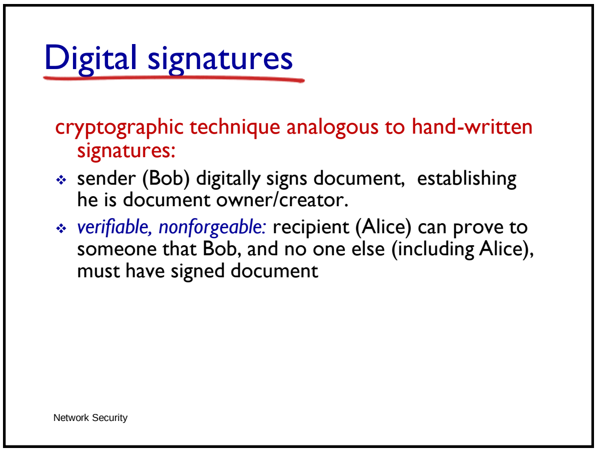


ap5.0: security hole

man (or woman) in the middle attack: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)

difficult to detect:

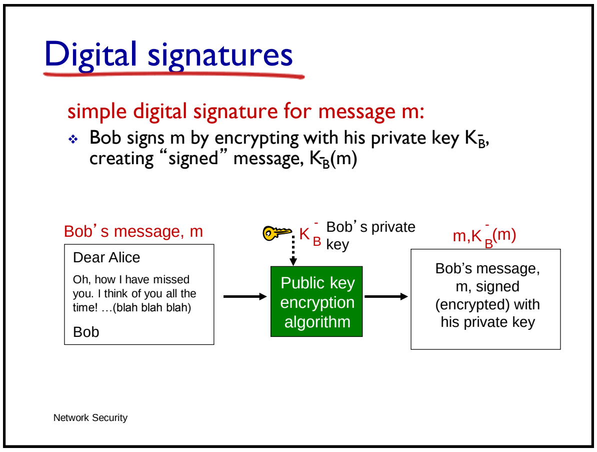
- Bob receives everything that Alice sends, and vice versa. (e.g., so Bob, Alice can meet one week later and recall conversation!)
- problem is that Trudy receives all messages as well!



Digital signatures

cryptographic technique analogous to hand-written signatures:

- sender (Bob) digitally signs document, establishing he is document owner/creator.
- *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, $K_B^-(m)$

Bob's message, m

Dear Alice

Oh, how I have missed you. I think of you all the time! …(blah blah blah)

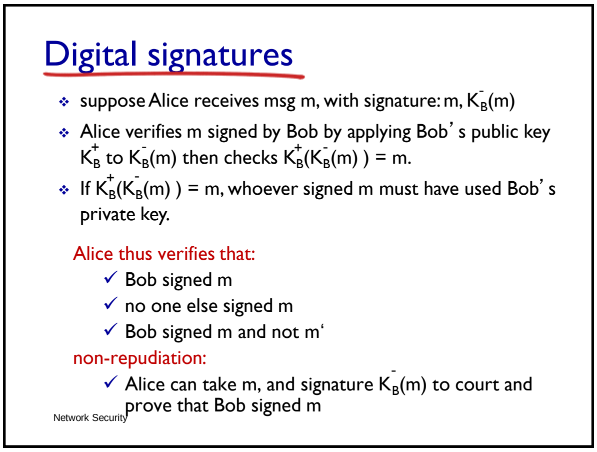
Bob

K_B^- Bob's private key

Public key encryption algorithm

$m, K_B^-(m)$

Bob's message, m, signed (encrypted) with his private key



Digital signatures

- suppose Alice receives msg m, with signature: m, $K_B^-(m)$
- 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

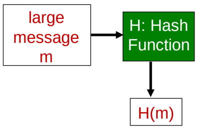
✓ no one else signed m

✓ 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

Message digests



computationally expensive to public-key-encrypt long messages

goal: fixed-length, easy- to-compute digital "fingerprint"

- apply hash function H to *m*, get fixed size message digest, *H(m).*

Hash function properties:

- many-to-1
- produces fixed-size msg digest (fingerprint)
- given message digest x, computationally infeasible to find m such that x = H(m)

Internet checksum: poor crypto hash function

Internet checksum has some properties of hash function:

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

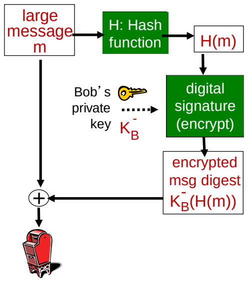
But given message with given hash value, it is easy to find another message with same hash value:

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

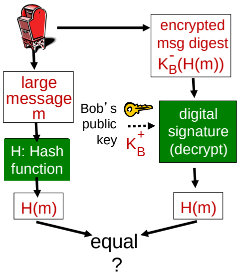
different messages but identical checksums!

Digital signature = signed message digest

Bob sends digitally signed message:



Alice verifies signature, integrity of digitally signed message:

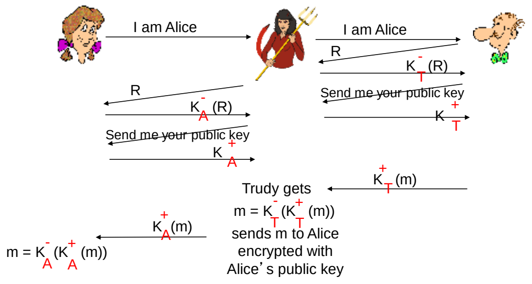


Hash function algorithms

- MD5 hash function widely used (RFC 1321)
  - computes 128-bit message digest in 4-step process.
  - arbitrary 128-bit string x, appears difficult to construct msg m whose MD5 hash is equal to x
- SHA-1 is also used
  - US standard [NIST, FIPS PUB 180-1]
  - 160-bit message digest

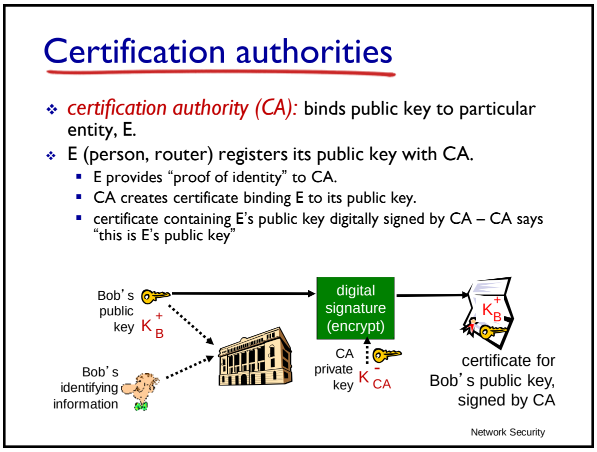
Recall: ap5.0 security hole

man (or woman) in the middle attack: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)



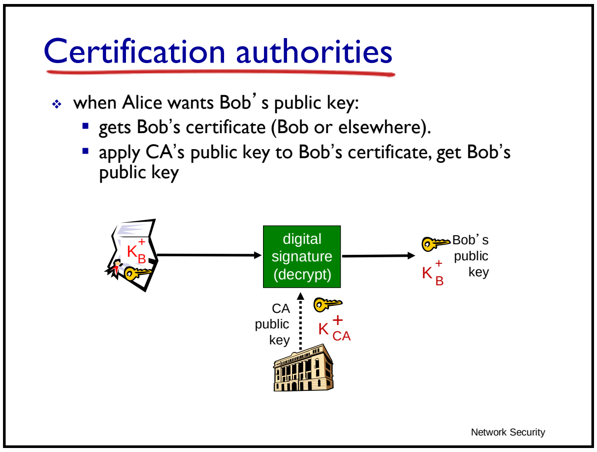
Public-key certification

- 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 pepperoni 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