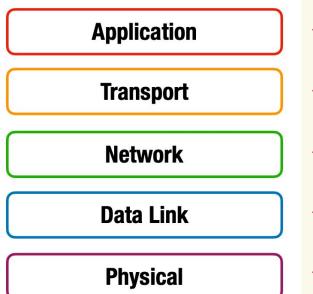
# **Internet Protocols and Network Security**

# **Review: Internet Protocols**

### The layers of the internet



+ HTTP, HTTPS, DNS, SSH (how applications communicate)

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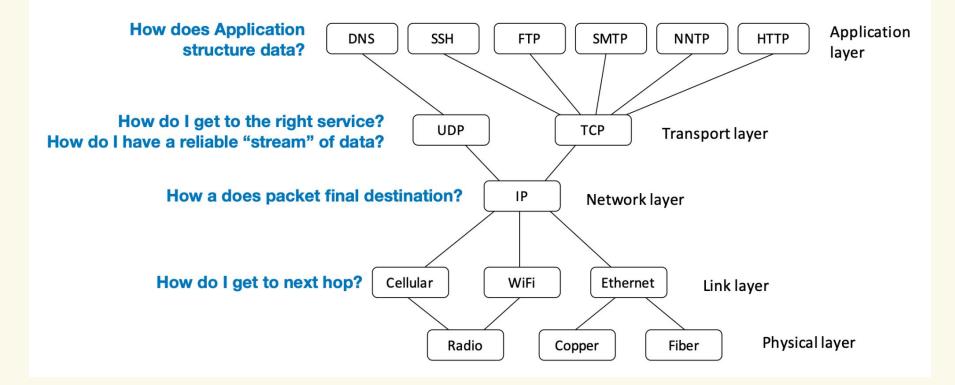
← IP layer (packet forwarding, getting from src to dst)

Ethernet layer, ARP (next hop transmission, ethernet)

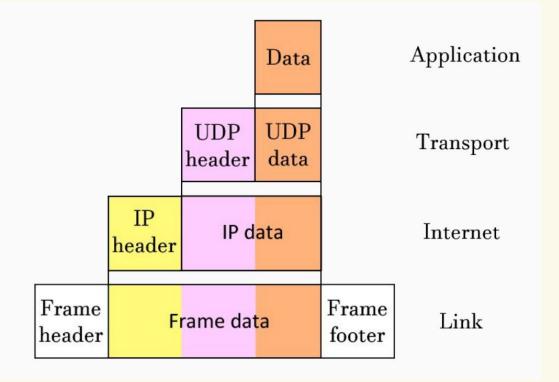
← Bits on a wire (electrical signals, often on an actual wire)

Packets on the internet are sent with one header for each layer to unwrap.

#### A map of internet protocols



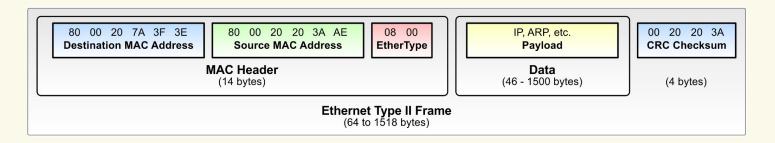
#### **Packet encapsulation**



Credit: Alex Stamos, INTLPOL 268 Hack Lab, Fall 2022

#### Ethernet

• Link layer protocol for sending data on a Local Area Network (LAN)



- Host abstraction: MAC (hardware) address (e.g. 60:3e:5f:37:d1:71)
  - To send a message to a host, you must be directly connected to it

# **Internet-layer protocols**

### **Internet Protocol (IP)**

- **Motivation**: Ethernet only allows sending packets within a local network
  - But we want to send packets that traverse the internet
- **Host abstraction**: IP address (independent of the local network)

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#### **IPv4 address**

- 32-bit address; written as 8 octets
   e.g. 171.64.64.64 (Stanford CS)
- Subnet notation: prefix and # defined bits
   e.g. 171.64.0.0/14 (Stanford)
- Private IPv4 subnets:
  - o 192.168.0.0/16
  - 172.16.0.0/12
  - 10.0.0/8

#### **IPv6 address**

- 128-bit address, written as 8 groups of 4 hexadecimal digits (blanks denote 0)

   e.g. 2606:4700:3036::ac43:9b70
- Introduced in 1995, but still not well-supported

# **IP spoofing**

- Security issue with IP: any host can pretend to be any other host!
  - A malicious host can send packets with a different source IP address

• **Defense**: perform ingress filtering to block packets coming from outside the network that have a private IP address

- **Defense in depth**: don't give special privileges to a machine just because it's inside the network
  - Add authentication and authorization for all sensitive actions (Zero Trust)

### **Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)**

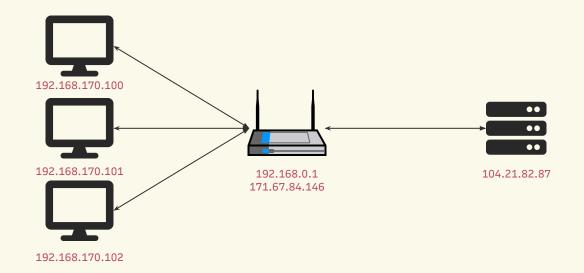
- Motivation: On a LAN, given a host where you know its IP address, how to get its MAC address?
- ARP request: a *broadcast* question "Who has IP address 192.168.170.100? Tell 192.168.170.102"
- **ARP response**: a *unicast* message "00:0c:29:74:4c:4d has IP address 192.168.170.100"
- Machines can also send a *broadcast* ARP announcement with the same body as an ARP response

## **ARP** spoofing

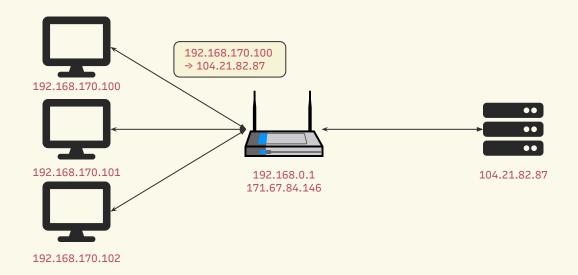
- Security issue with ARP: any host can pretend to be any other host!
  - A malicious host can *broadcast* that it has a given IP address, even if a different host on the network has that IP address

• **Defense**: ignore unsolicited ARP announcements, or detection software on the upstream switch

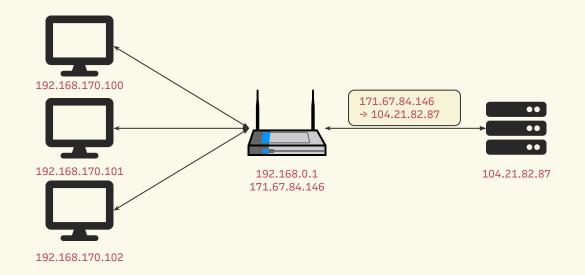
- Motivation: 32-bit addresses mean there are only  $2^{32} \sim = 4$  billion IPv4 addresses available
  - But there are far more than 4 billion internet-connected devices!
- NAT lets multiple hosts share a single public IP address while having different private addresses



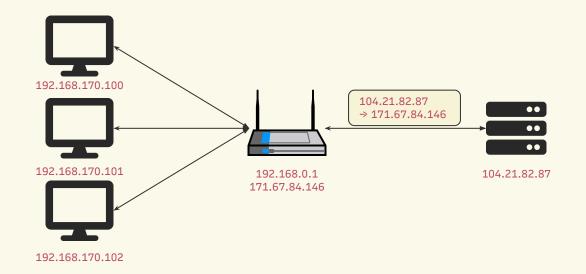
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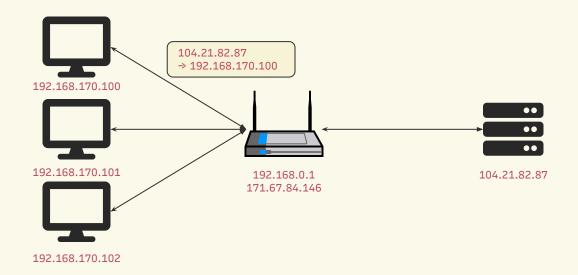
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- Security benefit: if a host needs to receive inbound traffic behind a NAT, the NAT must explicitly be configured to allow this
  - Inbound traffic is opt-in: the NAT is effectively an implicit firewall

# Routing

- **Motivation**: With IP addresses, how to make a *best effort* to get packets to their eventual destination?
- *Routers* store *routing tables* that inform how to forward packets towards their destination, often stored as tuples of (**CIDR prefix**, **next hop**)

vyos@team-router188:~\$ ip route default nhid 14 via 192.168.0.1 dev eth0 proto static metric 20 10.10.188.0/24 dev eth1 proto kernel scope link src 10.10.188.1 192.168.0.0/16 dev eth0 proto kernel scope link src 192.168.188.1 vyos@team-router188:~\$

# Routing

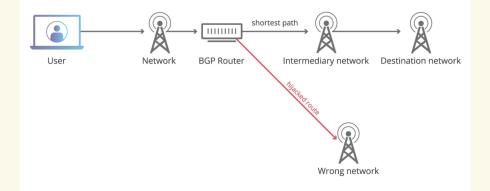
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- Border Gateway Protocol (BGP): a protocol for routers to exchange (announce) routing table information with each other
  - Autonomous Systems (AS): Groups of networks managed by a single entity that announce routes to neighboring routers via BGP

# **BGP hijacking**

- Security issue with BGP: any AS can announce routes for IP subnets that belong to other ASes!
  - e.g. in 2018 a Russian ISP advertised a route for myetherwallet.com's IP address that directed to malicious servers, allowing attackers to steal >\$150k of cryptocurrency



• **Defense**: *Resource Public Key Infrastructure* (RPKI), which provides a cryptographically auditable chain of trust for BGP route announcements

# **Transport protocols**

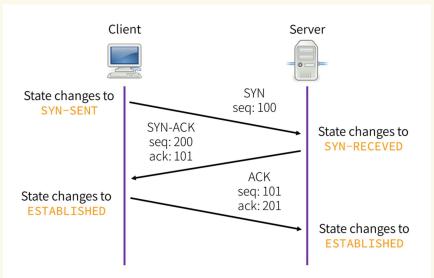
#### **User Datagram Protocol (UDP)**

- Motivation: *Multiplex* traffic on the same host (single IP address) across different *ports* 
  - This allows multiple applications to send and receive traffic from the same host

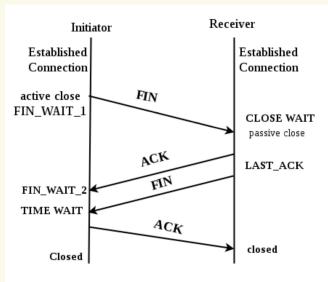


### **Transmission Control Protocol (TCP)**

- Motivation: Guarantee *acknowledged (reliable) delivery* and *data stream ordering* for internet packets
  - Implemented directly on top of IP, but can be conceptualized as extending UDP



#### Establishing a TCP connection



#### **Ending a TCP connection**

#### **Attacks on TCP**

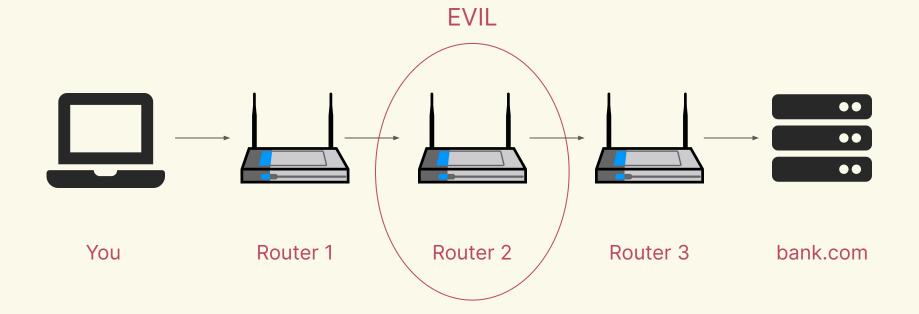
• TCP connection spoofing: Pretend to be the host (send back a SYN-ACK with guessed sequence number)

• TCP reset attack: Send RST to correct port

 TCP SYN flooding attack: Send SYN packets to all the ports of a server → denial of service

### **Transport Layer Security (TLS)**

• **Motivation**: Encrypt data in transit, such that any intermediary that routes your connection cannot see the underlying data



## Asymmetric cryptography for TLS

- Server sends you a *public key* that can **only be used to encrypt data**, such that only the corresponding *private key* can decrypt the data
  - Because the public key can't decrypt the data, an attacker has no way of viewing the plaintext data

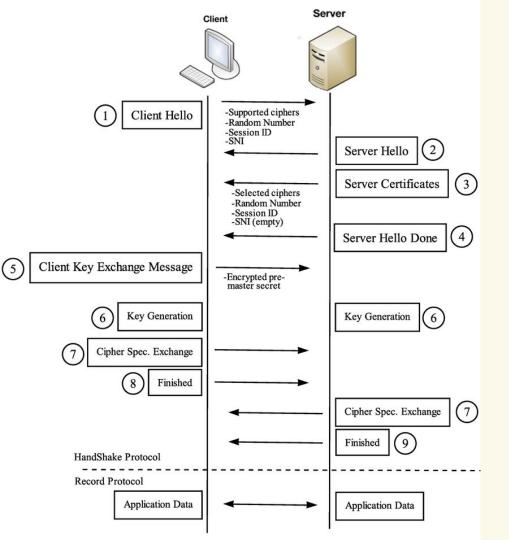
- This helps create a **secure channel** that can be used to communicate
  - Server public and private key used to **agree on a shared key** used to encrypt all traffic

- **Issue:** How do you verify the public key is **legitimately owned** by the website you are trying to connect to?
  - Solution: have some way of choosing which keys to trust
    - Designate a number of trusted providers (certificate authorities) which can verify other keys
    - Only accept a key if someone you already trust has verified it's legitimate

### **Public Key Infrastructure (PKI) for TLS**

- PKI refers to a global hierarchical tree structure of trusted certificates
  - Roots of the tree are distributed with OSes and some applications (e.g. Python, Chrome)
  - Any certificate with a chain of trust ending at one of these certificates is trusted
  - Certificates are given out by *certificate authorities* (e.g. Let's Encrypt)

- TLS certificates use the X.509 format, and contain:
  - Public key
  - *Signature* (to be widely trusted, must come from a trusted CA and not self-signed)
  - Domain name(s) the certificate is valid for
  - Expiry



# **Establishing a TLS session**

- 1) **Client:** Say hi and propose ciphers
- 2) Server: Pick a cipher
- 3) Server: Send certs
- 4) **Client**: Verify certs
- 5) **Both**: Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange
- 6) Both: Send packets

#### TLS attacks and security issues

- Forged certificates: e.g. self-signed or expired certificate
  - Defense: check the certificate is still valid
- **SSL strip attack**: prevent upgrade to HTTPS (man-in-the-middle)
  - Defense: *HTTP Strict Transport Security* (HSTS) always connect over HTTPS
  - Either in the Content Security Policy for a site, or in the HSTS Preload List

- Fraudulently or mistakenly issued certificates: by rogue or poorly secured and hacked CAs
  - Defense: *Certificate Transparency* (all CAs must declare all certs issued)

# **Common application protocols**

#### **Domain Name System (DNS)**

• Motivation: Host addressing and routing works using IP addresses, but humans don't want to type in IP addresses to load web sites

Solution: DNS provides a way to *resolve* human readable names (e.g., cs155.stanford.edu) to IP addresses

• Runs over *both* UDP and TCP, conventionally port **53** 

#### **DNS architecture**

- DNS is a hierarchical, delegatable namespace
  - Root DNS servers are maintained by ICANN
- Home routers (usually) host a *local DNS server*, which provides DNS for the internal network
  - Individual machines can host their own internal DNS records: /etc/hosts on Unix, C:\Windows\System32\drivers\etc\hosts on Windows
- Local DNS server specifies an *authoritative DNS server* for machines outside of the domain
  - Performs a *recursive DNS lookup* for all queries it cannot resolve internally

#### Well-known DNS servers

- Cloudflare: 1.1.1.1
- Google: **8.8.8.8**, **8.8.4.4**
- Others: 9.9.9.9 (Quad9), various ISP DNS servers
  - e.g. Stanford: **171.67.64.53**, **171.64.69.53**

# **DNS record types**

- A (alias): simplest record type; maps domain name to IPv4 address
  - $\circ$  e.g. applied-cyber.stanford.edu  $\rightarrow$  171.67.84.46
  - AAAA: Like A, but returns IPv6 addresses

- **CNAME** (canonical name): used to create aliases, mapping domain names to domain names
  - $\circ$  e.g. cs155.stanford.edu  $\rightarrow$  securitylab.github.io

- NS (nameserver): used to designate an authoritative nameserver
  - Output: another DNS server to query the domain name against
  - $\circ$  e.g. sad.singles  $\rightarrow$  dara.ns.cloudflare.com

# **DNS hijacking**

- Security issue with DNS: any man-in-the-middle attacker can return the client a different domain than the correct one
  - DNS is vulnerable because it is unauthenticated and unencrypted by default

# **DNS hijacking**

- Security issue with DNS: any man-in-the-middle attacker can return the client a different domain than the correct one
  - DNS is vulnerable because it is unauthenticated and unencrypted by default
- **Defense**: *DNSSEC* authenticates DNS responses using public-key cryptography
- Second defense: *DNS over TLS* (RFC 7858, 2016) and *DNS over HTTPS* (RFC 8484, 2018) encrypt DNS requests and responses so that they cannot be easily tampered with
  - Also helps with privacy!
  - Enabled by default in Firefox and Chrome since 2020

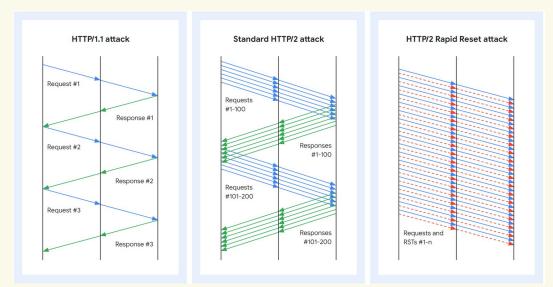
## A quick note on HTTP

- Recall: *Hypertext Transfer Protocol* (HTTP) transports unencrypted web content, conventionally over TCP port 80
  - You've already seen HTTP request and response structure in lecture

- HTTP itself can *multiplex*: a single HTTP server (one IP address) on port 80 can host web sites on different domains
  - Client needs to specify a **Host** header in a HTTP request to indicate the site it wants
  - e.g. the Cloudflare server **104.21.82.87** serves both **saligrama.io** and **infracourse.cloud**
  - This allows large hosting platforms to serve web sites from *any* of their servers

#### HTTP/2 Rapid Reset

- **HTTP/2** (RFC 9113, 2015) allows *multiplexing* of multiple HTTP streams over a single TCP connection
- HTTP/2 Rapid Reset attack (October 2023) involves creating large numbers of HTTP/2 streams to DoS a server and immediately closing them with RST\_STREAM



#### HTTPS

- HTTPS is HTTP over TLS, and conventionally listens on TCP port 443
  - All HTTP content transported via HTTPS is encrypted in transit, so no intermediate router can see plaintext content

- However: *Server Name Indication* (domain name of site being connected
  - to like a **Host** header) is unencrypted
    - Because a single server can multiplex sites on different domains, the client needs to provide SNI in plaintext, to tell the server which certificate to send
    - Encrypted SNI (2018) and Encrypted Client Hello (2020) alleviate this, but are not widely deployed yet – only enabled by default in Firefox and Chrome in late 2023

#### More Networks and Security at Stanford

- CS 144 Introduction to Computer Networking
- CS 244 Advanced Topics in Networking
- CS 249I The Modern Internet
- Stanford Applied Cyber