Computer Security

2018 Exam 3 Review

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Grades

	Exam 1	Exam 2	Exam 3
Average	78.4	72.1	69.6
σ	12.3	9.9	12.3
Highest	97	95	96
Lowest	40	45	39
Top 10%	≥ 94	≥ 85	≥ 82
Top 20%	≥ 90	≥ 81	≥ 78
Bottom 10%	≤ 62	≤ 60	≤ 53
Bottom 20%	≤ 67	≤ 64	≤ 59

Approximate grades

Α	83	77	74
B+	77	71	68
В	71	66	62
C+	65	61	56
С	58	56	50

Which of the following is *not* an example of two-factor authentication?

- (a) Password and a code sent to your phone via SMS.
- (b) Access card and PIN.
- (c) Fingerprint and a retina scan.
- (d) All of these are examples of two-factor authentication.

Two-factor = two *different* factors

Fingerprint & retina scan both use biometrics

- (a) Something you know (password) & something you have (phone)
- (b) Something you have (card) & something you know (PIN)

Salt in a hashed password:

- (a) Makes it virtually impossible to use a brute-force search to guess a password.
- (b) Obscures the ability to see that multiple users have the same password in a password file.
- (c) Turns normal passwords into one-time passwords.
- (d) Ensures that passwords have special characters in addition to alphanumeric text.
- (a) No. The password remains unchanged. It makes it difficult to use a table of pre-computed passwords.
- (b) Yes. Each user has a random salt, so hash(password + salt) will yield two different values even if the passwords match
- (c) No.
- (d) No.

1 point for (a)

The challenge-handshake authentication (CHAP) protocol relies on

- (a) Sending an encrypted password to the server.
- (b) Showing that you can decrypt data sent by a server.
- (c) Using a trusted third party to handle user authentication.
- (d) Proving that you have a secret value that is shared with the server.

- (a) Encrypted data of any kind is never sent.
- (b) No. You're proving you can generate the same *f*(*challenge*, *key*).
- (c) No.
- (d) Yes. Both sides generate f(challenge, key)

The <u>Time-based One-Time Password</u> (TOTP) protocol:

- (a) Relies on a shared secret between the client and server.
- (b) Allows an administrator to control when a user can log in.
- (c) Provides a time limit for the number of login attempts.
- (d) Enables an administrator to set an expiration time for user passwords.

password := hash(secret_key, time) % 10password_length

Both sides can generate the same password because they know the secret.

- (b, c) This has nothing to do with the protocol.
- (d) An expiration time for the shared secret needs to be managed outside of the protocol. Time is granular to 30 seconds and can be changed in some implementations but that's a *granularity*, not an *expiration time*.

2 points for (d)

A list of *hashes* is often used in an application signature to:

- (a) Enable the user to pinpoint what modifications have been made to the application.
- (b) Validate the integrity of the software even if some of the hashes are maliciously modified.
- (c) Allow an operating system to check the integrity of the software as pieces of it are loaded into memory.
- (d) Validate different parts of an application: code, data, stack, heap.
- (a) This can be done but is never used that way. A user's system simply cares that an app has been compromised.
- (b) No. The hashes are not redundant
- (c) Yes per-page hashing avoids the need to scan the entire app before executing it.
- (d) No. Only static components are hashed.

Biometric authentication algorithmically differs from other forms of authentication because it:

- (a) Compares images instead of passwords.
- (b) Uses data that cannot be shared.
- (c) Relies on thresholds rather than exact matches.
- (d) Provides a far higher degree of security.
- (a) Not necessarily depends on the biometricAlso, images are pre-processed (e.g., identify minutia on fingerprint)
- (b) Biometric data can be stolen but cannot be easily shared– but this is not an algorithmic differentiation!
- (c) Yes fuzzy matches
- (d) No.

1 point for (b)

A problem with *CAPTCHA* is that:

- (a) Computer vision algorithms have been improving rapidly.
- (b) It is easy for an attacker to try various combinations of text.
- (c) Results are not sent over a secure link.
- (d) The answer can be found directly in the JavaScript code of the challenge.

(a) Yes. ML-based vision algorithms can reach levels of human competence



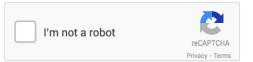
- (b) No. Need to resubmit a page each time, which will cause a new CAPTCH to be generated
- (c) Depends on the implementation they should be but it doesn't matter– they're single use
- (d) No

No CAPTCHA reCAPTCHA is a variation of CAPTCHA that:

- (a) Presents a puzzle to solve instead of text to decode.
- (b) Looks at a user's activity on the web page and server-side data to decide if it is a human.
- (c) Provides alternatives to users, such as recognizing images or transcribing audio.
- (d) Allows scripts as well as humans to interact with websites.

No CAPTCHA reCAPTCHA:

asks users to check a box stating that I'm not a robot



- (a) No. The puzzle (text or other) is a fallback in case No CAPTCHA fails.
- (b) Yes server-side reputation management + JavaScript metrics
- (c) No.
- (d) No that would defeat the point of CAPTCHA!

A CAM (Content Addressable Memory) <u>overflow attack</u> on an Ethernet switch requires sending Ethernet frames:

- (a) With varying fake source addresses.
- (b) To a huge set of destination addresses.
- (c) At a rate faster than the switch can process.
- (d) That are malformed to indicate a length longer than the actual payload.
- (a) Yes. The CAM table stores a mapping of
 [MAC address] → [switch port]
 A large # of source MAC addresses will overflow this table
- (b) No destination addresses don't affect the table
- (c) No that might cause the switch to drop frames but not overflow the CAM table
- (d) No

A key problem with both ARP and DHCP is that:

- (a) Neither queries nor responses are encrypted.
- (b) Clients have no way of authenticating themselves.
- (c) A client might send a message to the wrong server.
- (d) A client has no way of knowing who the authoritative server is.

- (a) True, but that's not the key problem with the protocols
- (b) No.
 - ARP doesn't give out secret data
 - <u>Authorization</u> may be useful before allowing a system to join your network and that's done at another time with other protocols
- (c) Clients broadcast ARP and DHCP requests.
- (d) Right. A client has no way of knowing if a response comes from a legitimate server or an imposter.

ARP cache poisoning attacks can be reduced by:

- (a) Configuring a switch to disallow ARP responses from systems not designated as ARP servers.
- (b) Ignoring responses that are not associated with your request.
- (c) Requiring responses to be signed.
- (d) First establishing an encrypted channel to the server.
- (a) There are no ARP servers

 Every system is an "ARP server" answering queries for its own IP address
- (b) A system often accept gratuitous ARP messages responses it sees on the network not associated with any request it made – to pre-populate its ARP cache
- (c) No key infrastructure in place for validating this (+performance)
- (d) How would the system know what server to connect to?

SYN cookies were designed to:

- (a) Provide a way for a client to authenticate a server.
- (b) Create a shared secret between the client and server to encrypt traffic.
- (c) Provide a time limit for establishing a TCP connection.
- (d) Reduce the amount of state that a server sets up before finalizing a TCP connection.
- (a) No. There is no authentication in a TCP connection setup
- (b) No.
- (c) No.
- (d) Yes. The server delays allocating TCP state upon receiving a SYN SYN/ACK sets a sequence number = f(secret#), which the client does not know
 - ACK from client must contain that #+1 for the server. Server ensures it's talking with a client before allocating memory.

The <u>Border Gateway Protocol</u>, <u>BGP</u>, is used to share routing information among ISPs. A security weakness with this protocol is:

- (a) Hosts can bypass its advertisements and use alternate routes.
- (b) An ISP can maliciously advertise better routes to divert traffic.
- (c) It allows an attacker to impersonate an arbitrary host on the network.
- (d) ISP routers that lose a shared key will not be able to communicate to external networks.
- (a) Not really. An admin can always configure routes but that's by design.
- (b) Yes. Malicious BGP messages can reroute traffic to other ASes (ISPs)
- (c) Not directly. An ISP would need to know how to route the re-routed traffic to a malicious host
- (d) There are no keys.

1 point for (c)

Network tunneling is best described as:

- (a) Sending a stream of packets over an encrypted communication channel.
- (b) Relaying messages via a trusted third party.
- (c) Signing all messages between two communicating hosts.
- (d) Encapsulating one packet within another.

- (a) Encryption is not necessary for tunneling
- (b) No third parties are involved
- (c) Signing is not necessary for tunneling
- (d) Yes tunneling is simply encapsulating other packets

Unlike IPsec with the Encapsulating Security Payload, <u>SSL</u> and <u>TLS</u>:

- (a) Encrypt messages in both directions.
- (b) Are designed for point-to-point connections over TCP.
- (c) Use a MAC to ensure message integrity.
- (d) Rely on a trusted third party.

- (a) So does IPsec/ESP
- (b) Yes IPsec is below the transport layer over IP
- (c) So does IPsec/ESP
- (d) No third parties are involved.

- A <u>stateless screening router</u> is unlikely to be able to be configured to drop:
- (a) TCP packets addressed to your mail server computer but accessing port 80 (HTTP).
- (b) Any UDP packets from a set of IP addresses known to be untrusted.
- (c) TCP packets to your web server that contain URLs with malicious syntax.
- (d) UDP packets from the external network that are disguised with internal source addresses.
- (a) Drop any packet where protocol=TCP, dest_addr=10.11.12.13, port=80
- (b) Drop any packet where protocol=UDP, interface=external, source_addr=128.6.0.0/16
- (c) URLs in HTTP requests will be in the data requires deep packet inspection may not even be in the first packet
- (d) Drop any packets where protocol=UDP, interface=external, source addr=192.168.0.0/24

A DMZ (demilitarized zone) is a subnet that contains:

- (a) Systems offering Internet-facing services.
- (b) No computers but acts as a barrier between the LAN and Internet.
- (c) Internal hosts that may not be properly secured.
- (d) Known malicious systems.

- (a) The DMZ is a protected subnet for externally-facing services
- (b) It has computers in it.
- (c) No. That's the internal network.
- (d) No.

<u>Signature-based</u> intrusion detection systems (IDS):

- (a) Scan incoming data to see if it matches known malicious patterns.
- (b) Validate messages bidirectionally to ensure they conform to the right protocol.
- (c) Detect deviations in network activity from known normal behavior.
- (d) Drop all unsigned messages coming into the local network and add signatures to messages leaving the local network.
- (a) Yes
- (b) That's a protocol-based IDS
- (c) That's an anomaly-based IDS
- (d) This doesn't make sense

<u>Deperimiterization</u> creates a problem in network security because:

- (a) One system may run a virtual machine (VM) and host multiple operating systems.
- (b) A single operating system may host secure and non-secure services.
- (c) Trusted hosts are not confined to specific known networks.
- (d) Network traffic may be seen by malicious parties.
- (a) Not a problem ... unless the VMs are outside of a network that can be protected
- (b) Bad engineering ... but that's not deperimiterization
- (c) Hosts may move around: mobile devices, AWS services communicating with Azure services, ...
- (d) Applications can encrypt their traffic

1 point for (d)

Denial of Service (DoS) <u>amplification</u> techniques rely on exploiting services where:

- (a) Queries get forwarded to a larger number of hosts.
- (b) Critical systems are taken out of service, causing systems that rely on them to die.
- (c) Small queries generate large responses.
- (d) Malware can infiltrate other systems to make them to participate in the attack.
- (a) That's not DoS amplification.
- (b) No. That's just DoS.
- (c) Yes.
 - E.g., DNS query vs. response
- (d) That's using malware to build a DDoS botnet

Which statement is most accurate about Bitcoin?

- (a) Each participant keeps a copy of all transactions since the beginning.
- (b) Participants only keep a copy of uncommitted transactions.
- (c) Each participant keeps a different portion of the ledger (transaction log).
- (d) One server holds the master copy of the ledger but participants may cache recently used blocks.
- (a) Yes. Each participating system keeps a copy of the entire blockchain so it can verify transactions.
- (b) No.
- (c) No.
- (d) There is no master copy and no master server.

- In Bitcoin, a *proof of work* is performed to:
- (a) Prove that a transaction has not been forged.
- (b) Make it computationally extremely difficult to modify a block.
- (c) Validate that the sender has sufficient coins for the transaction.
- (d) Log the fact that a certain number of bitcoins have been created.
- (a) Individual transactions are signed. Bob cannot create a transaction on Alice's behalf
- (b) Yes. A malicious participant may try to delete Alice's transaction but that would require re-computing the proof of work for all blocks going back to that transaction
- (c) No. That just involves traversing the list of transactions
- (d) That's a side-effect the reward for doing the proof of work. The logging of new coins occurs after

 99 blocks have been added.

 1 point for (d)

A transaction is considered *confirmed* by a merchant:

- (a) After a majority of participants approve the transaction.
- (b) When the block that contains the transaction is added to the blockchain.
- (c) After at least one participant approves it.
- (d) After a certain number of additional blocks are added to the blockchain.
- (a) A majority of participants do not need to approve the transaction. Each participant adds it to the list when the participant decides the transaction is valid.
- (b) Not necessarily.
- (c) No.
- (d) Yes typically 1 block for small transactions, 3 blocks for deposits and mid-size payments, and 6 blocks for large payments.
 - To modify the past, you'd need to recompute proof of work #s for past blocks to reconstruct the longest chain
 - 51% attack: to do this, you need >50% computing power of all participants

If a web client at cs.rutgers.edu loads a web page from pk.org that downloads JavaScript from github.com, the JavaScript code on the page can access content (e.g., cookies) belonging to:

- (a) pk.org
- (b) github.com
- (c) cs.rutgers.edu
- (d) All of the above.
- (a) Scripts follow the same-orgin policy.

JavaScript code executes with the authority of its frame's origin If cnn.com loads JavaScript from jQuery.com, the script runs with the authority of cnn.com

Typo in exam: *request* forgery, not *resource* forgery

Cross-site request forgery (*XSRF*) is a problem that occurs when:

- (a) JavaScript on one page can access resources from a different site.
- (b) A user clicks a maliciously placed link containing a command to a site that identifies the user via cookies.
- (c) A server masquerades as another web site.
- (d) A server presents cookies that are labeled for another site.

XSRF targets: sites where

- Site sets cookies that authenticate a user
- User requests are sent via the URL bank.com/transfer.jsp?amount=10000&from=202164&to=593144
- (a) No.
- (c) No. Any malicious link will suffice.
- (d) No. Cookies are sent to the correct site.

Cross-site scripting (XSS) is an attack that allows an attacker to:

- (a) Run JavaScript hosted from a different server than the web page.
- (b) Run a script on a web page that accesses resources on a different site.
- (c) Add JavaScript to a trusted web site.
- (d) Run a script that replaces links on a page to point to malicious sites.

XSS is a code injection attack

A website allows user input in its pages and renders it as HTML

May be part of URL and the site will incorporate the arguments in its response

- ... or may be entered onto the page e.g., forum responses
- (a) No. The JavaScript gets run on the target web server.
- (b) Not necessarily. It may just as easily do something directly on the site.
- (c) Yes.
- (d) Highly unlikely.

<u>Extended validation certificates</u> are considered more secure than domain validated certificates because:

- (a) They force a session to be established that is encrypted in both directions.
- (b) They require two-factor authentication to establish a connection.
- (c) The user has to authenticate with a password after an SSL session is established.
- (d) The CA puts extra effort into validating the identity of the certificate holder.
- (a) No. That's up to the site configuration few expect clients to have certificates.
- (b) No.
- (c) No. That has nothing to do with EV certificates.

The main mechanism that Android uses to isolate applications is:

- (a) User IDs.
- (b) Containers.
- (c) Namespaces.
- (d) Kernel-level sandboxes.

Unique Linux (Android) User IDs are assigned to each application.

- (a) No containers are user.
- (b) No namespaces are used just directory permissions.
- (c) No kernel-level sandboxing.

 The Dalvik sandbox is used for the Dalvik VM but not for native code.

The main mechanism that iOS uses to isolate applications is:

- (a) User IDs.
- (b) Containers.
- (c) Namespaces.
- (d) Kernel-level sandboxes.

Kernel-level sandboxing – essentially the same as in macOS – configures filename patterns, network access, privileged calls

ARM's *TrustZone*:

- (a) Uses hardware to speed up encryption, decryption, hashing, and key generation operations.
- (b) Runs a separate operating system in isolated memory for security-sensitive features.
- (c) Is a region of protected memory that is accessible only to privileged applications.
- (d) Is a set of flags in the memory management unit to assign regions of memory to an application.
- (a) Yes but that's in place with or without Trustzone
- (b) Yes separate execution environment Protected memory, separate registers.
- (c) No Trustzone offers protected memory but it's accessible only to the code executing in Trustzone, not privileged apps under the main OS
- (d) No.

A DVD contains an encrypted movie. The decryption key is:

- (a) Programmed into the player.
- (b) Encrypted on the DVD with a master key that the player knows.
- (c) Encrypted on the DVD via each of 409 player keys for various trusted manufacturers of DVD players.
- (d) Obtained from a trusted server prior to playing the DVD.

Each movie is encrypted with a unique key.

Each family of players contains a unique key.

The movie key is encrypted with each of the player keys.

A <u>null cipher</u>.

- (a) Signs messages but does not encrypt them.
- (b) Is a stubbed-out encryption function that performs no actual encryption.
- (c) Encrypts with a key of all 0s with the hope that the adversary doesn't realize there is encrypted text present.
- (d) Intermixes plaintext with non-relevant text.

It's not an encryption algorithm.

A null cipher hides the message within irrelevant data. You need to know where to look.

Chaffing and winnowing:

- (a) Shifts characters in text slightly to create a steganographic bit pattern.
- (b) Encrypts data with a null cipher (chaffing) that a trusted receiver then decrypts (winnowing).
- (c) Adds concealed data inside an image or audio file.
- (d) Intermixes legitimate messages with proper MACs with non-relevant messages with invalid signatures.

Some messages are valid and some are not.

Each message is signed (e.g., HMAC)

Valid messages have a valid signature.

Invalid messages do not have a valid signature.

An eavesdropper cannot check.

