CSE 410/565 Computer Security
Spring 2022

Lecture 11: Key Establishment and Applications

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Authentication and Key Establishment

- **Entity authentication** allows us to establish that entities are who they claim they are
  - but this not enough for secure remote communication

- Building **secure channels** combines authentication with key establishment
  - **key establishment** is a mechanism of agreeing on a secret key that can be used for consecutive communication
  - if a key is established in an authenticated way, the parties are assured that they communicate with proper entities
    - key agreement can be performed with or without authentication
Key Establishment

• Let’s look at the simplest communication of a secret key using public-key encryption
  – Bob has a public-private key pair with his public key being $pk_B$
  – Alice picks a session key $s$, encrypts it with Bob’s key, and sends the result $\text{Enc}_{pk_B}(s)$ to Bob
  – Bob decrypts it and now they share the same key
  – this can work, but we need to address at least two issues
    • this assumes that Alice can reliably obtain a correct version of Bob’s public key
    • this doesn’t take into account active adversaries

• This type of interaction is the basis for some key agreement mechanisms
• There are many possibilities for key distribution
  – assume that we have an insecure network of \( n \) users
  – there is also a trusted authority (TA)
    • the TA’s responsibilities could include checking user identities, issuing certificates, transmitting keys, etc.

• We divide all approaches in 3 categories
  – key pre-distribution
    • a TA distributes keying information during the setup phase using a secure channel
    • a pair of users is then able to compute a key known only to them
Key Distribution Mechanisms

• Types of key distribution (cont.)
  
  – **session key distribution**
    
    • on request, an online TA chooses session keys and distributes them to the users
    
    • this is done by encrypting the new keys using previously distributed secret keys
    
    • session keys are used for a fixed, rather short period of time
  
  – **key agreement** (a.k.a. key establishment or key exchange)
    
    • network users employ an interactive protocol to construct a session key
    
    • no TA’s help is used
    
    • such protocols can be based on secret-key or public-key schemes
Key Distribution Mechanisms

• The difference between key distribution and key agreement:
  – in key distribution, one party (e.g., a TA) chooses a key and transmits it to one or more parties
    • key transmission is performed in an encrypted form
    • e.g., Kerberos
  – in key agreement, two or more parties jointly establish a secret key
    • communication is performed over a public channel
    • each participant contributes to the value of the resulting key
    • the key is not sent from one party to another
    • e.g., SSH, SSL
Key Distribution Mechanisms

- In the network, users may have long-lived keys
  - they could be secret keys known to a pair of users or to a user and the TA
  - they also could be private keys corresponding to public keys stored on users’ certificates

- Pairs of users often employ short-lived session keys
  - a session key is used for a particular session and is discarded at the end of it
  - session keys are normally secret keys for a symmetric encryption scheme or MAC
  - we don’t want compromise of a session key lead to compromise of long-term key
Key Distribution Mechanisms

• Since the network is insecure, we need to protect against attackers
  – the adversary might be one of the users in the network

• An active adversary can:
  – modify messages being transmitted on the network
  – save messages for later use
  – try to masquerade as another user in the network

• Adversary’s goal might be:
  – fool someone into accepting an invalid key as valid
  – learn some information about the key being established
  – use another user’s identity to establish a shared key with someone
Key Agreement

• Diffie-Hellman key agreement (simplified)

  – Alice and Bob want to compute a shared key, which must be unknown to eavesdroppers

  – they share public parameters: modulus $p$, element $g$ ($1 < g < p$), and modulus $q$ for computation in the exponent

  – Alice chooses random $a \in \mathbb{Z}_q$, computes $g^a \mod p$, and sends it to Bob

  – Bob chooses random $b \in \mathbb{Z}_q$, computes $g^b \mod p$, and sends it to Alice

  

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A \\
| \text{secret } a \\
| \text{compute} \\
g^{ab} = (g^b)^a
\end{array}
\quad \text{\(\rightarrow\)}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
B \\
| \text{secret } b \\
| \text{compute} \\
g^{ab} = (g^a)^b
\end{array}
\]
Diffie-Hellman key agreement

- the shared key is set to $g^{ab} \mod p$
  - Alice computes $(g^b)^a \mod p = g^{ab} \mod p$
  - Bob computes $(g^a)^b \mod p = g^{ab} \mod p$

- it is believed to be infeasible for an eavesdropper to compute $g^{ab}$ given $g^a$ and $g^b$
  - this assumption holds in groups in which the discrete log problem is hard and is known as Computational Diffie-Hellman assumption
• **Diffie-Hellman key exchange**
  
  – the security property holds only against a passive attacker
  
  – the protocol has a serious weakness in the presence of an active adversary
    
    • this is called a *man-in-the-middle attack*
  
    • Mallory will intercept messages between Alice and Bob and substitute her own
  
    • Alice establishes a shared key with Mallory and Bob also establishes a shared key with Mallory
Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- Man-in-the-middle attack on Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Alice  Mallory  Bob

\[ g_a \rightarrow g_{a'} \rightarrow g_{a'b} \rightarrow g_b \rightarrow g_{ab'} \rightarrow g_{a'b} \rightarrow \]

- Alice shares the key \( g_{ab'} \) with Mallory
- Bob shares the key \( g_{a'b} \) with Mallory
- Alice and Bob do not share any key
- What is Mallory capable of doing?
Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- Alice and Bob need to ensure they are exchanging messages with each other
  - there is a need for authentication
  - preceding this protocol with an authentication scheme is not guaranteed to solve the problem
    - authentication needs to be a part of the key exchange
    - this is called authenticated key exchange
• **Authenticated Diffie-Hellman** solves this problem using certificates and digital signatures
  
  – Alice and Bob have public-private key pairs, with the
  
  – their public keys are signed by an authority
  
  – during the protocol, they sign the values transmitted along with the identities
• Assume that the TA has a shared key with each user on the network
  – $k_A$ is the key shared with Alice, $k_B$ is the key shared with Bob, etc.

• The TA chooses session keys and distributes them in encrypted form upon user requests

\[
\text{TA} \quad k_A, k_B, \ldots \\
\text{A, B} \\
\text{Enc}_{k_A}(k||B) \\
\text{A} \quad \text{secret } k_A \\
\text{decrypt } k \\
\text{Enc}_{k_B}(k||A) \\
\text{B} \quad \text{secret } k_B \\
\text{decrypt } k
\]

– is this enough?
• Another way of achieving this is for the TA to communicate with Alice only and she will relay the TA’s key to Bob

\[ t_B = \text{Enc}_{k_B}(k || A) \]

secret \( k_A \) decrypt \( k \) and \( t_B \)

Still the same problem: no freshness
Kerberos

- **Kerberos** is a series of schemes for session key distribution developed at MIT in the 80–90s, based on Needham-Schroeder SKDS (1978)

- **Simplified Kerberos V5**
  - Alice chooses a random $r_A$ and sends $A$, $B$, and $r_A$ to the TA
  - the TA chooses a random session key $k$ and a validity period $L$
  - the TA computes a ticket to Bob $t_B = \text{Enc}_{k_B}(k || A || L)$ and $y_1 = \text{Enc}_{k_A}(r_A || B || k || L)$ and sends them to Alice
  - Alice decrypts $y_1$ using $k_A$, obtains $k$, computes $y_2 = \text{Enc}_k(A || \text{time})$, and sends $t_B$ and $y_2$ to Bob
  - Bob decrypts $t_B$, obtains $k$, and uses it to decrypt $y_2$ and obtain time
  - Bob computes $y_3 = \text{Enc}_k(\text{time} + 1)$ and sends it to Alice
• Information flow in Kerberos V5

\begin{align*}
\text{TA} & \quad A, B, r_A \\
\rightarrow & \quad t_B, y_1 \\
\quad & \quad t_B, y_2 \\
\rightarrow & \quad y_3
\end{align*}

where $t_B = \text{Enc}_{k_B}(k||A||L)$, $y_1 = \text{Enc}_{k_A}(r_A||B||k||L)$, $y_2 = \text{Enc}_k(A||\text{time})$, and $y_3 = \text{Enc}_k(\text{time} + 1)$

– several checks are necessary
  
  • Alice checks that $y_1$ is in the correct form and has her $r_A$
  
  • Bob checks that $\text{time} \leq L$ in $y_2$
  
  • Alice checks that $y_3$ decrypts to $\text{time} + 1$
Kerberos

- The purpose of the validity period $L$ is to prevent an attacker from storing old messages and retransmitting them at a later time
  - this limits the time period during which a certain type of attack discovered on Needham-Schroeder scheme can be carried out

- Kerberos requires users to have synchronized clocks
  - the current time is used to determine the validity of the session key $k$
  - perfect synchronization is hard to achieve in practice, so small amount of variation should be allowed

- There are many other solutions to all of key pre-distribution, session key distribution, and key agreement
Applications for Building Secure Channels

- **Internet Security (IPsec)** and **Internet Key Exchange (IKE) protocols**
  - provides authentication and encryption mechanisms at low network layer

- **Kerberos**
  - a network authentication tool used in Windows operating system

- **Secure Socket Layer (SSL)** and **Transport Layer Security (TLS) protocols**
  - public-key based authentication technique with wide use on the web

- **Secure Shell (SSH)**
  - public-key authentication protocol suite for secure remote login
Internet Security (IPsec)

- We often think of techniques for protecting messages transmitted over networks as used at the application level.

- Protection at low level, however, can be effective for securing communication over the Internet:
  - if we can protect packet addressing information, we can prevent manipulation of this information.
  - the suite of authentication protocols standardized for internet security is called Internet Key Exchange (IKE).
  - IKE includes a variety of algorithms that can be used for integrity and confidentiality protection.

- Suppose two parties wish to conduct confidential communications by using end-to-end encryption.
• If end-to-end encryption operates at the application level, then information in the IP header is the subject of attacks
  – e.g., IP spoofing (masquerading by using a fake source IP address)

• Virtually all active attacks that we’ve seen so far require Mallory to perform manipulation at the IP level
  – message interception, man-in-the-middle, etc.

• **Internet Protocol Security (IPsec)** standard has been developed to add cryptographic protection to the IP header
  – it stipulates a mandatory authentication protection for IP header
  – it also allows for optional confidentiality protection for the endpoint-identity information
Internet Security (IPsec)

- Thus, IPsec effectively prevents many active attacks since IP header manipulation can now be detected.

- To use IPsec for authentication, there will be an additional header called the Authentication Header (AH)
  - it is positioned between the IP header and the higher-layer data
  - it provides data integrity and data origin authentication and covers the IP header fields that don’t change in transit and packet payload

- Optional confidentiality protection can be added
  - datagrams called Encapsulating Security Payloads (ESP) are specified for this purpose
  - ESP follows AH in a packet and does not protect the packet header
Secure Shell (SSH) is a public-key based authentication protocol suite

- it enables a user to securely login onto a remote server host machine from a client machine through an insecure network
- it also allows to securely execute commands on the remote host and move files from one host to another

SSH is in wide use today

- a server can be run on many operating systems
  - a server will work if the operating system supports interactive command sessions for remote users
- a client can be run on any operating system
Secure Shell (SSH)

• The basic idea behind SSH protocol
  – a user on a client machine downloads a public key of a remote server
  – he establishes a secure channel between the client and the server using the downloaded key and the user’s cryptographic credentials
  – even if the user’s credentials are only a password, they will be sent encrypted to the server

• The SSH protocol suite consists of three major components
  – SSH Transport Layer Protocol
    • provides server authentication to the client
    • the server host uses its public-private key pair and the client uses the host’s public key
Secure Shell (SSH)

- The SSH protocol **major components** (cont.)
  - **SSH User Authentication Protocol**
    - it runs over the unilateral authentication channel established by the transport layer protocol
    - it achieves entity authentication from a client-side user to the server
    - it can be based on a public-key, password, or other mechanisms
    - at the end of it a mutually authenticated secure channel is formed
  - **SSH Connection Protocol**
    - materializes an encrypted communication channel
    - tunnels it into several secure logical channels for various communication purposes
Secure Shell (SSH)

- SSH-1 was discovered to have design flaws and should be avoided
- SSH-2 provides better security and has been standardized by IETF

SSH Transport Layer Protocol

- a server host maintains a public-private key pair for each required signature algorithm
- a client must have a priori knowledge of the server’s host public key
- SSH supports two trust models on servers’ public keys:
  - the client has a local database of host names and the corresponding public keys
  - the host name and its public key is certified by a trusted certification authority
Secure Shell (SSH)

- The list of known hosts’ public keys is stored in
  $HOME/.ssh/known_hosts

- An entry might look like this:
  timberlake.cse.buffalo.edu,128.205.36.8 ssh-rsa AAAAB3NzaC1yc2EAAAABIwAAAIEArov5ZnZ1pAETHjEvmLk7J/1g65JYIHYq r6lfYWTHlTT20+IxfcWGX4vtsfcYwwpzLxhw1WTjah7/fK2MwgU1Lo /HDDcjDZrpCFXN4pTAosLUdmV5uqadwNFbbtDTAESrjxJ/beAewYZ/Gvy/V36rZRFFWeFBMrDUITXirc0NP80=
Secure Shell (SSH)

- When a user connects to a machine, the public key of which is not stored locally or has changed, SSH will ask the user to verify the public key.

- Such verification happens in the form of a fingerprint:
  - \( \text{fingerprint(host key)} = h(\text{host key}) \), where \( h \) is an agreed upon cryptographic hash function.

- To verify the key, you might:
  - have an authenticated copy of the key on another machine.
  - have generated the key (for your workstation) and know it.
  - call the security administrator and verify the fingerprint over the phone.
Secure Shell (SSH)

- SSH key exchange protocol
  - each key exchange is initiated by the client
    - the server listens on a specific port, commonly port 22
  - SSH-2 uses Diffie-Hellman key exchange for session key agreement
  - we’ll use the following notation:
    - $C$ is the client and $S$ is the server
    - $p$ is a large prime, and $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is an element with necessary properties
    - $V_C$ and $V_S$ are the client’s and the server’s versions, respectively
    - $pk_S$ is the server’s public key
    - $I_C$ and $I_S$ are the client’s and the server’s initial messages exchanged before this part begins
Secure Shell (SSH)

• SSH key exchange protocol
  - $C$ chooses a random number $x_C$, computes $y_C = g^{x_C}$ and sends it to $S$
  - $S$ chooses a random number $x_S$, computes
    
    $y_S = g^{x_S}, \quad k = y_C^x = g^{x_C x_S}$,
    
    $H = h(V_C || V_S || I_C || I_S || pk_S || y_C || y_S || k)$, $\text{sig}_{sk_S}(H)$

    and sends $pk_S, y_S$ and $\text{sig}_{sk_S}(H)$ to $C$
  - $C$ verifies that $pk_S$ is really the host key for $S$
  - $C$ then computes $k = y_S^{x_C} = g^{x_C x_S}$, $H$ (as above), and verifies the signature $\text{sig}_{sk_S}(H)$, and accepts if the verification passes

• After the key exchange, the parties use $k$ to secure the communication
Secure Shell (SSH)

- The next step is to authenticate the client using a suitable mechanism.

- One of the goals of SSH is to **improve security** on the internet in a progressive manner:
  - this is why any suitable method of verifying the server’s key is permitted
  - a variety of user authentication mechanisms is supported as well
  - this allows for quick deployment and backward compatibility
  - this is why it’s been popularly implemented and widely used
Today a user might need to access various resources for related purposes

- assume Alice is a member of an enterprise
- at work she has access to her projects at a project server
- she also can manage her own HR related issues at the HR server
- additionally, she manages her patent filing at an intellectual property server, etc.

It is infeasible to require her to maintain different credentials for each task (e.g., remember many passwords or carry many smartcards)

A suitable network solution for this environment is the Kerberos Authentication Protocol
Kerberos

• Recall that **Kerberos is a session key distribution scheme** based on symmetric keys
  
  – each user shares a long-term secret key with a trusted third party
  
  – when Alice would like to talk to Bob, she requests a session key from that trusted party

• **Windows uses Kerberos as its network authentication basis**
  
  – it uses Kerberos version 5, which is a free software
  
  – it can be downloaded from http://web.mit.edu/kerberos/www/
  
  – the exportation restrictions on cryptographic software make it available only in the US
The Kerberos Authentication Protocol consists of a suite of sub-protocols called exchanges.

Three sub-protocols are used for authentication:

- the Authentication Service (AS) exchange
  - runs between a client $C$ and an authentication server $AS$
- the Ticket-Granting Service (TGS) exchange
  - runs between $C$ and a ticket granting server $TGS$ after the AS exchange
- the client/server Authentication Application (AP) exchange
  - runs between $C$ and an application server $S$ after the TGS exchange
Kerberos

- There are five principals participating in the exchanges with the following roles:
  - $U$: a (human) user who gives instructions to her client process and enters password for authentication
  - $C$: a client (process) that requests network service on behalf of the user
  - $KDC$: key distribution center is a collective name for the following two authentication servers
    - $AS$: an authentication server that issues ticket granting tickets (TGT) for subsequent TGS exchanges
    - $TGS$: a ticket granting server that issues tickets for applications
  - $S$: an application server which provides an application resource to $C$
Kerberos exchanges

1. AS_REQ
2. TGT
3. TGS_REQ
4. TKT
5. AP_REQ
6. AP_REP
• A ticket granting ticket (TGT) has two parts
  – one part for $C$ encrypted under a key derived from password
  – another part for TGS encrypted under a key shared by AS and TGS
  – both contain a session key $k_{C,TGS}$ to be used between $C$ and TGS

• A ticket (TKT) also has two parts
  – one part is for $C$ to use encrypted under the session key $k_{C,TGS}$
  – another part is for $S$ encrypted a key shared between $S$ and TGS
  – both parts also include a session key $k_{C,S}$

• KDC is divided into AS and TGS to permit single sign-on
  – this gives flexibility and the ability to place TGSs in different domains
Kerberos can also be used to provide authentication across different administrative domains

- within a single system, called realm, each user is registered with the Kerberos server
- the Kerberos server also shares a key with each service provider
- Kerberos provides a mechanism for supporting interrealm authentication to let users use external servers
- in a federated system, one Kerberos server must trust another Kerberos server to authenticate users
- a user can be issued a ticket granting ticket for a remote ticket granting server
Federated Systems

- **Shibboleth** is an open-source project that provides single sign-on capabilities
  - authorization is based on attributes and privacy is a built-in property of the authentication mechanism
  - when a user wants to authenticate with a service provider SP, it is redirected to its identity provider IdP
  - once the user authenticates, the IdP issues a response to the SP and the user is redirected back to the SP
  - Shibboleth implements the **OASIS Security Assertion Markup Language**

- **OpenId Connect** uses OAuth, which is a standard for authorization of resources and does not deal with authentication
SSL and TLS

- The **Secure Sockets Layer Protocol** (SSL) is an important authentication protocol widely used on the web
  - the term “sockets” refers to standard communication channels linking peer processes on client/server machines
  - it runs under the application-layer protocols such as HTTP (Hypertext Transfer Protocol) and IMAP (Internet Messaging Access Protocol) and above network layer protocols (e.g., TCP/IP)
  - when socket-layer communications are secured, communications in all application-layer protocols will be secured in the same manner
  - SSL was originally developed by Netscape Communications Corporation as an integral part of the web browser and web server
  - it was later accepted by other developers
SSL and TLS

- SSL eventually evolved into an internet standard called Transport Layer Security (TLS)
  - TLS is based on SSL and is not drastically different from SSL
  - we’ll focus on the standard track TLS in this lecture (SSL is currently deprecated)

- TLS is composed of two layered protocols
  - the TLS Record Protocol
  - the TLS Handshake Protocol

- The Handshake Protocol runs on top of the Record Protocol
The **TLS Record Protocol** provides secure encapsulation of the communication channel by higher layer application protocols

- it partitions data to be transmitted into blocks
- optionally compresses the data
- applies symmetric key algorithms to achieve confidentiality and integrity

  * used to have separate encryption and MAC algorithms, while the current version TLS 1.3 instead uses authenticated encryption

The **TLS Handshake Protocol** is used to set up a secure session connection

- it allows the client and server to authenticate each other
- negotiate cryptographic algorithms and cryptographic keys (for integrity and confidentiality)
• **TLS Handshake Protocol**
  – it is *stateful* process running on the client and server machines
  – a stateful connection is called a *session*, where the communication peers perform the following steps:
    • exchange hello messages to agree on algorithms, exchange random values, and check for session resumption
    • exchange cryptographic parameters to be able to agree on a secret (called *master secret*)
    • exchange certificates and cryptographic information to allow them to authenticate one to another
    • generate session secrets from exchanged information
    • verify that their peer calculated the same parameters at the end of the handshake without tampering by an attacker
The established channel is then passed on to the TLS Record Protocol for processing higher level application communications.

**Simplified version of the handshake protocol:**

- \(C \rightarrow S\): ClientHello;
  
  Server Hello,
  ServerCertificate (optional),

- \(S \rightarrow C\): ServerKeyExchange (optional),
  Certificate Request (optional),
  ServerHelloDone;

  ClientCertificate (optional),

- \(C \rightarrow S\): ClientKeyExchange,
  CertificateVerify (optional),
  ClientFinished;

- \(S \rightarrow C\): ServerFinished.
TLS Handshake Protocol

- **Hello message exchange**
  - the server and the client exchange protocol versions, random numbers, session ID, cryptographic algorithms, and compression methods
  - the client will provide a session ID, if the session is to be resumed

- **Server’s certificate**
  - if the server’s certificate is to be authenticated, the server will send it
  - X.509.v3 certificates are used
  - each certificate contains sufficient information about the certificate owner’s name and public key and the issuing certificate authority
TLS Handshake Protocol

- **Server’s key exchange material**
  - ServerKeyExchange contains the server’s public key material matching the certificate list
  - material for DH key agreement will be included here as \((p, g, g^{x_S})\)
  - the server that provides non-anonymous services can request client’s authentication here as well

- **Client’s response**
  - the content of ClientKeyExchange message will depend on the public key algorithm agreed between the server and the client
    - in the case of RSA, the client used to generate a 48-byte master key and encrypt it under the server’s certified RSA public key
  - client’s certificate (if any) will be provided at this stage
• Finished message exchange
  – the client sends the ClientFinished message which used to include a keyed (under the master key) HMAC
  – it allows the server to confirm the proper handshake executed at the client side
  – the server then sends a similar ServerFinished message

• Example
  – consider a typical run of the Handshake Protocol where the client chooses to be anonymous
  – such one-directional authentication is the most common in e-commerce applications
Example run of the TLS handshake protocol (older version)

ClientHello.protocol_version = “TLS Version 1.0”,
ClientHello.random = \( T_C, N_C \),

\[ C \rightarrow S: \]
ClientHello.session_id = “NULL”,
ClientHello.crypto_suite = “RSA: Enc, SHA-1: HMAC”,
ClientHello.compression_method = “NULL”;

ServerHello.protocol_version = “TLS Version 1.0”,
ServerHello.random = \( T_S, N_S \),
ServerHello.session_id = “abc123”,
ServerHello.crypto_suite = “RSA: Enc, SHA-1: HMAC”,
ServerHello.compression_method = “NULL”,
ServerCertificate = server’s X.509 certificate,
ServerHelloDone;

\[ S \rightarrow C: \]
ClientKeyExchange = RSA_Enc(master_secret),
ClientFinished = SHA-1(master_secret|\( C \)|\( N_C \)|\( N_S \)...);

\[ C \rightarrow S: \]
ServerFinished = SHA-1(master_secret|\( S \)|\( N_S \)|\( N_C \)...).
• **TLS 1.3** has significant changes to the Handshake Protocol from prior versions
  
  – the handshake uses *fewer interactions*
    
    • encryption can be used as early as in the second message
  
  – the specification mandates *forward secrecy*
    
    • this makes the use of many algorithms in previous versions unacceptable
  
  – *obsolete and insecure features* from TLS 1.2 were removed
    
    • this includes MD5, SHA-1, RC4, DES, 3DES, etc.
Recent specifications of TLS also include other protocols

- **Alert protocol**
  - used to convey TLS-related alerts (based on pre-defined codes) to the peer entity

- **Heartbeat protocol**
  - ensures that the other party is still alive
  - generates activity (prevents firewall closure and enables the use of connectionless service)
Over the years, many attacks on and abuses of SSL and TLS have been discovered. These include attacks on the handshake and record protocols, certificate-related attacks, and others. The largest attack was on OpenSSL’s implementation of TLS’s Heartbeat Protocol. The Heartbleed exploit was able to read memory of a remote server. The memory could store private keys, user ids and passwords, and other sensitive information.
Summary

- **Key establishment**
  - session key distribution
  - key agreement protocols

- **Applications and standards**
  - IPsec and IKE: IP packet level integrity and confidentiality
  - SSL and TLS: socket level secure channel for all applications
  - Kerberos: network authentication framework that allows for single sign-on
  - Secure Shell: secure remote login and file transfer