

Cellular Network Security

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1. INTRODUCTION

Cellular networks are high-speed, high-capacity voice and data communication networks with enhanced multimedia and seamless roaming capabilities for supporting cellular devices. With the increase in popularity of cellular devices, these networks are used for more than just entertainment and phone calls. They have become the primary means of communication for finance-sensitive business transactions, lifesaving emergencies, and life-/ mission-critical services such as E-911. Today these networks have become the lifeline of communications.

A breakdown in a cellular network has many adverse effects, ranging from huge economic losses due to financial transaction disruptions; loss of life due to loss of phone calls made to emergency workers; and communication outages during emergencies such as the September 11, 2001, attacks. Therefore, it is a high priority for cellular networks to function accurately.

It must be noted that it is not difficult for unscrupulous elements to break into a cellular network and cause outages. The major reason for this is that cellular networks were not designed with security in mind. They evolved from the old-fashioned telephone networks that were built for performance. To this day, cellular networks have numerous well-known and unsecured vulnerabilities providing access to adversaries. Another feature of cellular networks is network relationships (also called *dependencies*) that cause certain types of errors to propagate to other network locations as a result of regular network activity. Such propagation can be very disruptive to a network, and in turn it can affect subscribers. Finally, Internet connectivity to cellular networks is another major contributor to cellular networks' vulnerability because it gives Internet users direct access to cellular network vulnerabilities from their homes.

To ensure that adversaries do not access cellular networks and cause breakdowns, a high level of security must be maintained in cellular networks. However, though great efforts have been made to improve cellular networks in terms of support for new and innovative services, greater number of subscribers, higher speed, and larger bandwidth, very little has been done to update the security of cellular networks. Accordingly, these networks have become highly attractive targets to adversaries, not only because of their lack of security but also due to the ease with which these networks can be exploited to affect millions of subscribers.

In this chapter we analyze the security of cellular networks. Toward understanding the security issues in cellular networks, the rest of the chapter is organized as follows. We present a comprehensive overview of cellular networks with a goal of providing a fundamental understanding of their functioning. Next we present the current state of cellular network security through an in-depth discussion on cellular network vulnerabilities and possible attacks. In addition, we present a cellular network specific attack taxonomy. Finally, we present a review of current cellular network vulnerability assessment techniques and conclude with a discussion.

2. OVERVIEW OF CELLULAR NETWORKS

The current cellular network is an evolution of the early-generation cellular networks that were built for optimal performance. These early-generation cellular networks were proprietary and owned by reputable organizations. They were considered secure due to their proprietary ownership and their *closed nature*, that is, their control infrastructure was unconnected to any public network (such as the Internet) to which end subscribers had direct

access. Security was a nonissue in the design of these networks.

Recently, connecting the Internet to cellular networks has not only imported the Internet vulnerabilities to cellular networks, it has also given end subscribers direct access to the control infrastructure of a cellular network, thereby opening the network. Also, with the increasing demand for these networks, a large number of new network operators have come into the picture. Thus, the current cellular environment is no longer a safe, closed network but rather an insecure, open network with many unknown network operators having nonproprietary access to it. Here we present a brief overview of the cellular network architecture.

Overall Cellular Network Architecture

Subscribers gain access to a cellular network via radio signals enabled by a radio access network, as shown in Figure 17.1. The radio access network is connected to the wireline portion of the network, also called the *core network*. Core network functions include servicing subscriber requests and routing traffic. The core network is also connected to the Public Switched Telephone Network (PSTN) and the Internet, as illustrated in Figure 17.1[1].

The PSTN is the circuit-switched public voice telephone network that is used to deliver voice telephone calls on the *fixed landline telephone network*. The PSTN uses Signaling System No. 7 (SS7), a set of telephony signaling protocols defined by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) for performing telephony functions such as call delivery, call routing, and billing. The SS7 protocols provide a universal structure for telephony network signaling, messaging, interfacing, and network maintenance. PSTN connectivity to the core network enables mobile subscribers to call fixed network subscribers, and vice versa. In the past, PSTN networks

were also closed networks because they were unconnected to other public networks.

The core network is also connected to the Internet. Internet connectivity allows the cellular network to provide innovative multimedia services such as weather reports, stock reports, sports information, chat, and electronic mail. Interworking with the Internet is possible using protocol gateways, federated databases, and multi-protocol mobility managers [2]. Interworking with the Internet has created a new generation of services called *cross-network services*. These are multivendor, multidomain services that use a combination of Internet-based data and data from the cellular network to provide a variety of services to the cellular subscriber. A sample cross-network service is the *Email Based Call Forwarding Service* (CFS), which uses Internet-based email data (in a mail server) to decide on the call-forward number (in a call-forward server) and delivers the call via the cellular network.

From a functional viewpoint, the core network may also be further divided into the circuit-switched (CS) domain, the packet-switched (PS) domain, and the IP Multimedia Subsystem (IMS). In the following, we further discuss the core network organization.

Core Network Organization

Cellular networks are organized as collections of interconnected *network areas*, where each network area covers a fixed geographical region (as shown in Figure 17.2). At a particular time, every subscriber is affiliated with two networks: the *home network* and the *visiting network*.

Every subscriber is permanently assigned to the home network (of his device), from which they can roam onto other visiting networks. The home network maintains the subscriber profile and his current location. The visiting network is the network where the subscriber is currently roaming. It provides radio resources, mobility management, routing, and services for roaming subscribers. The visiting network provides service capabilities to the subscribers on behalf of the home environment [3].

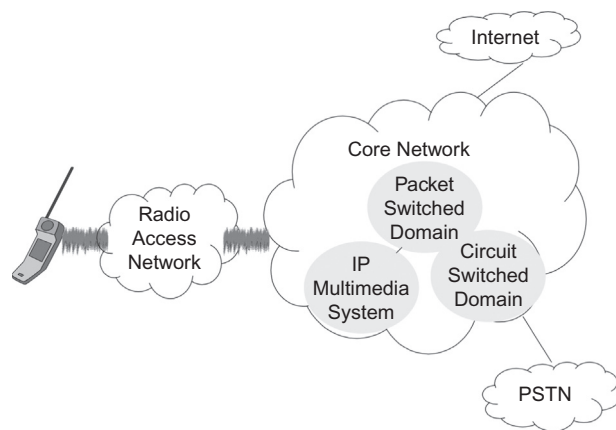


FIGURE 17.1 Cellular network architecture.

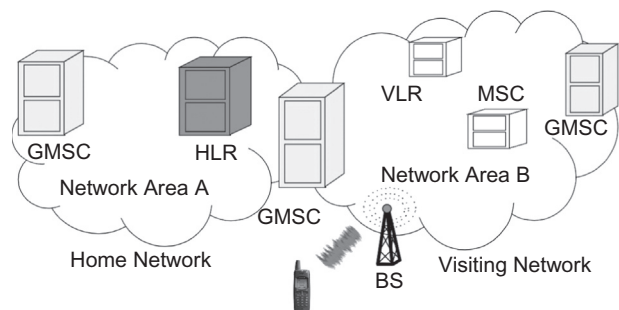


FIGURE 17.2 Core network organization.

The core network is facilitated by network servers (also called *service nodes*). Service nodes are composed of (1) a variety of *data sources* (such as cached read-only, updateable, and shared data sources) to store data such as subscriber profile and (2) *service logic* to perform functions such as computing data items, retrieving data items from data sources, and so on.

Service nodes can be of different types, with each type assigned specific functions. The major service node types in the circuit-switched domain include the Home Location Register (HLR), the Visitor Location Register (VLR), the Mobile Switching Center (MSC), and the Gateway Mobile Switching Center (GMSC) [4].

All subscribers are permanently assigned to a fixed HLR located in the home network. The HLR stores permanent subscriber profile data and relevant temporary data such as current subscriber location (pointer to VLR) of all subscribers assigned to it. Each network area is assigned a VLR. The VLR stores temporary data of subscribers currently roaming in its assigned area; this subscriber data is received from the HLR of the subscriber. Every VLR is always associated with an MSC. The MSC acts as an interface between the radio access network and the core network. It also handles circuit-switched services for subscribers currently roaming in its area. The GMSC is in charge of routing the call to the actual location of the mobile station. Specifically, the GMSC acts as interface between the fixed PSTN network and the cellular network. The radio access network comprises a transmitter, receiver, and speech transcoder called the base station (BS) [5].

Service nodes are geographically distributed and serve the subscriber through collaborative functioning of various network components. Such collaborative functioning is possible due to the inter-component network

relationships (called dependencies). A *dependency* means that a network component must rely on other network components to perform a function. For example, there is a *dependency* between service nodes to service subscribers. Such a dependency is made possible through signaling messages containing data items. Service nodes typically request other service nodes to perform specific operations by sending them signaling messages containing data items with predetermined values. On receiving signaling messages, service nodes realize the operations to perform based on values of data items received in signaling messages. Further, dependencies may exist between data items so that received data items may be used to derive other data items. Several application layer protocols are used for signaling messages. Examples of signaling message protocols include Mobile Application Part (MAP), ISDN User Part (ISUP), and Transaction Capabilities Application Part (TCAP) protocols.

Typically in a cellular network, to provide a specific service a preset group of signaling messages is exchanged between a preset group of service node types. The preset group of signaling messages indicates the operations to be performed at the various service nodes and is called a *signal flow*. In the following, we use the *call delivery service* [6] to illustrate a signal flow and show how the various geographically distributed service nodes function together.

Call Delivery Service

The *call delivery service* is a basic service in the circuit-switched domain. It is used to deliver incoming calls to any subscriber with a mobile device regardless of their location. The signal flow of the call delivery service is illustrated in Figure 17.3. The call delivery service signal

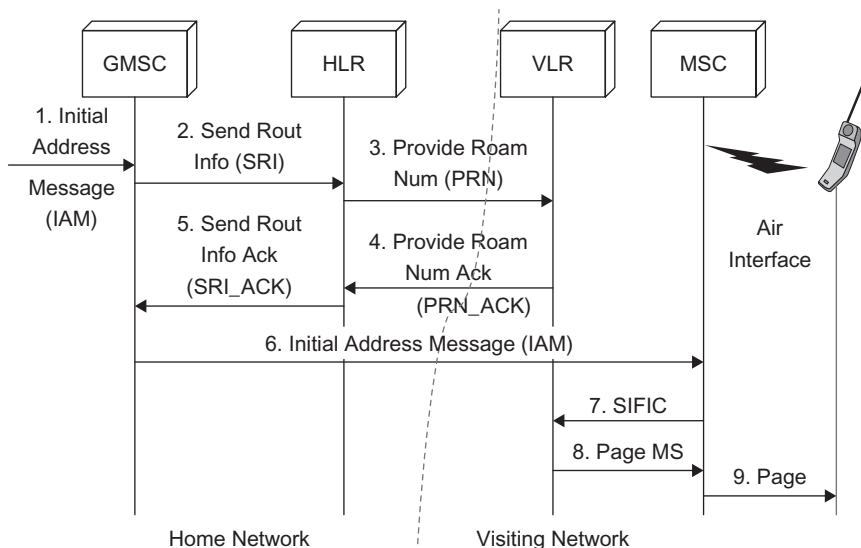


FIGURE 17.3 Signal flow in the call delivery service.

flow comprises MAP messages SRI, SRI_ACK, PRN, and PRN_ACK; ISUP message IAM; and TCAP messages SIFIC, Page MS, and Page.

Figure 17.3 illustrates the exchange of signal messages between different network areas. It shows that when a subscriber makes a call using his mobile device, the call is sent in the form of a signaling message IAM to the nearest GMSC, which is in charge of routing calls and passing voice traffic between different networks. This signaling message IAM contains data items such as *called number* that denotes the mobile phone number of the subscriber receiving this call. The *called number* is used by the GMSC to locate the address of the HLR (home network) of the called party. The GMSC uses this address to send the signaling message SRI.

The SRI message is an intimation to the HLR of the arrival of an incoming call to a subscriber with *called number* as mobile phone number. It contains data items such as the *called number* and *alerting pattern*. The *alerting pattern* denotes the pattern (*packet-switched data*, *short message service*, or *circuit-switched call*) used to alert the subscriber receiving the call. The HLR uses the *called number* to retrieve from its database the current location (pointer to VLR) of the subscriber receiving the call. The HLR uses this subscriber location to send the VLR the message PRN. The PRN message is a request for call routing information (also called *roaming number*) from the VLR where the subscriber is currently roaming. The PRN message contains the *called number*, *alerting pattern*, and other *subscriber call profile* data items.

The VLR uses the *called number* to store the *alerting pattern* and *subscriber call profile* data items and assign the *roaming number* for routing the call. This *roaming number* data item is passed on to the HLR (in message PRN_ACK), which forwards it to the GMSC (in message SRI_ACK). The GMSC uses this *roaming number* to route the call (message IAM) to the MSC where the subscriber is currently roaming. On receipt of the message IAM, the MSC assigns the *called number* resources for the call and also requests the *subscriber call profile* data items, and *alerting pattern* for the *called number* (using message SIFIC) from the VLR, and receives the same in the Page MS message. The MSC uses the *alerting pattern* in the incoming call profile to *derive* the *page type* data item. The *page type* data item denotes the manner in which to alert the mobile station. It is used to page the mobile subscriber (using message Page). Thus subscribers receive incoming calls irrespective of their locations.

If data item values are inaccurate, a network can misoperate and subscribers will be affected. Hence, accurate functioning of the network is greatly dependent on the integrity of data item values. Thus signal flows allow the various service nodes to function together, ensuring that the network services its subscribers effectively.

3. THE STATE OF THE ART OF CELLULAR NETWORK SECURITY

This part of the chapter presents the current state of the art of cellular network security. Because the security of a cellular network is the security of each aspect of the network, that is, radio access network, core network, Internet connection, and PSTN connection, we detail the security of each in detail.

Security in the Radio Access Network

In a cellular network, the radio access network uses radio signals to connect the subscriber's cellular device with the core network. Hence it would seem that attacks on the radio access network could easily happen because anyone with a transmitter/receiver could capture these signals. This was very true in the case of early-generation cellular networks (first and second generations), where there were no guards against eavesdropping on conversations between the cellular device and BS; cloning of cellular devices to utilize the network resources without paying; and cloning BSs to entice users to camp at the cloned BS in an attack is called a *false base station attack*, so that the target user provides secret information to the adversary.

In the current generation (third-generation) of cellular networks, all these attacks can be prevented because the networks provide adequate security measures. Eavesdropping on signals between the cellular device and BS is not possible, because cipher keys are used to encrypt these signals. Likewise, replay attacks on radio signals are voided by the use of non-repeating random values. Use of integrity keys on radio conversations voids the possibility of deletion and modification of conversations between cellular devices and BSs. By allowing the subscriber to authenticate a network, and vice versa, this generation voids the attacks due to cloned cellular devices and BSs. Finally, as the subscriber's identity is kept confidential by only using a temporary subscriber identifier on the radio network, it is also possible to maintain subscriber location privacy [7].

However, the current generation still cannot prevent a denial-of-service attack from occurring if a large number of registration requests are sent via the radio access network (BS) to the visiting network (MSC). Such a DoS attack is possible because the MSC cannot realize that the registration requests are fake until it attempts to authenticate each request and the request fails. To authenticate each registration request, the MSC must fetch the authentication challenge material from the corresponding HLR. Because the MSC is busy fetching the authentication challenge material, it is kept busy and the genuine registration requests are lost [7]. Overall there is a great

improvement in the radio network security in the current third-generation cellular network.

Security in Core Network

Though the current generation of a cellular network has seen many security improvements in the radio access network, the security of the core network is not as improved. Core network security is the security at the service nodes and security on links (or wireline signaling message) between service nodes.

With respect to wireline signaling message security, of the many wireline signaling message protocols, protection is only provided for the Mobile Application Part (MAP) protocol. The MAP protocol is the cleartext application layer protocol that typically runs on the security-free SS7 protocol or the IP protocol. MAP is an essential protocol and it is primarily used for message exchange involving subscriber location management, authentication, and call handling. The reason that protection is provided for only the MAP protocol is that it carries authentication material and other subscriber-specific confidential data; therefore, its security was considered top priority and was standardized [8–10]. Though protection for other signaling message protocols was also considered important, it was left as an improvement for the next-generation networks [11].

Security for the MAP protocol is provided in the form of the newly proposed protocol called Mobile Application Part Security (MAPSec), when MAP runs on the SS7 protocol stack, or Internet Protocol Security (IPSec) when MAP runs on the IP protocol. Both MAPSec and IPSec, protect MAP messages on the link between service nodes by negotiating security associations. Security associations comprise keys, algorithms, protection profiles, and key lifetimes used to protect the MAP message. Both MAPSec and IPSec protect MAP messages by providing source service node authentication and message encryption to prevent eavesdropping, MAP corruption, and fabrication attacks.

It must be noted that though MAPSec and IPSec are deployed to protect individual MAP messages on the link between service nodes, signaling messages typically occur as a group in a signal flow, and hence signaling messages must be protected not only on the link but also in the intermediate service nodes. Also, the deployment of MAPSec and IPSec is optional; hence if any service provider chooses to omit MAPSec/IPSec's deployment, the efforts of all other providers are wasted. Therefore, to completely protect MAP messages, MAPSec/IPSec must be used by every service provider.

With respect to wireline service nodes, while MAPSec/IPSec protects links between service nodes, there is no standardized method for protecting service

nodes [7]. Remote and physical access to service nodes may be subject to operator's security policy and hence could be exploited (insider or outsider) if the network operator is lax with security. Accordingly, the core network suffers from the possibility of node impersonation, corruption of data sources, and service logic attacks. For example, unauthorized access to HLR could deactivate customers or activate customers not seen by the building system. Similarly, unauthorized access to MSC could cause outages for a large number of users in a given network area.

Corrupt data sources or service logic in service nodes have the added disadvantage of propagating this corruption to other service nodes in a cellular network [12–14] via signaling messages. This fact was recently confirmed by a security evaluation of cellular networks [13] that showed the damage potential of a compromised service node to be much greater than the damage potential of compromised signaling messages. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to standardize a scheme for protecting service nodes in the interest of not only preventing node impersonation attacks but also preventing the corruption from propagating to other service nodes.

In brief, the current generation core networks are lacking in security for all types of signaling messages, security for MAP signaling messages in service nodes, and a standardized method for protecting service nodes. To protect all types of signaling message protocols and ensure that messages are secured not only on the links between service nodes but also on the intermediate service nodes (that is, secured end to end), and prevent service logic corruption from propagating to other service nodes, the End-to-End Security (EndSec) protocol was proposed [13].

Because signaling message security essentially depends on security of data item values contained in these messages, EndSec focuses on securing data items. EndSec requires every data item to be signed by its source service nodes using public key encryption. By requiring signatures, if data items are corrupt by compromised intermediate service nodes en route, the compromised status of the service node is revealed to the service nodes receiving the corrupt data items. Revealing the compromised status of service nodes prevents corruption from propagating to other service nodes, because service nodes are unlikely to accept corrupt data items from compromised service nodes.

EndSec also prevents misrouting and node impersonation attacks by requiring every service node in a signal flow to embed the PATH taken by the signal flow in every EndSec message. Finally, EndSec introduces several control messages to handle and correct the detected corruption. Note that EndSec is not a standardized protocol.

Security Implications of Internet Connectivity

Internet connectivity introduces the biggest threat to the security of cellular networks. This is because cheap PC-based equipment with Internet connectivity can now access gateways connecting to the core network (of a cellular network). Therefore, any attack possible in the Internet can now filter into the core network via these gateways. For example, Internet connectivity was the reason for the slammer worm to filter into the E-911 service in Bellevue, Washington, making it completely unresponsive [15]. Other attacks that can filter into the core network from the Internet include spamming and phishing of short messages [16].

We expect low-bandwidth DoS attacks to be the most damaging attacks brought on by Internet connectivity [16,17,18]. These attacks demonstrate that by sending just 240 short messages per second, it is possible to saturate a cellular network and cause the MSC in charge of the region to be flooded and lose legitimate short messages per second. Likewise, it shows that it is possible to cause a specific user to lose short messages by flooding that user with a large number of messages, causing a buffer overflow. Such DoS attacks are possible because the short message delivery time in a cellular network is much greater than the short message submission time using Internet sites [17].

Also, short messages and voices services use the same radio channel, so contention for these limited resources may still occur and cause a loss of voice service. To avoid loss of voice services due to contention, separation of voice and data services on the radio network (of a cellular network) has been suggested [14]. However, such separation requires major standardization and overhaul of the cellular network and is therefore unlikely to be implemented very soon. Other minor techniques such as queue management and resource provisioning have been suggested [17].

Though such solutions could reduce the impact of short message flooding, they cannot eliminate other types of low-bandwidth, DoS attacks such as attacks on connection setup and teardown of data services. The root cause for such DoS attacks from the Internet to the core network of a cellular network was identified as the difference in the design principles of these networks. Though the Internet makes no assumptions on the content of traffic and simply passes it on to the next node, the cellular network identifies the traffic content and provides a highly tailored service involving multiple service nodes for each type of traffic [18].

Until this gap is bridged, such attacks will continue, but bridging the gap itself is a major process because either the design of a cellular network must be changed to

match the Internet design, or vice versa, which is unlikely to happen soon. Hence a temporary fix would be to secure the gateways connecting the Internet and core network. As a last note, Internet connectivity filters attacks not only into the core network, but also into the PSTN network. Hence PSTN gateways must also be guarded.

Security Implications of PSTN Connectivity

PSTN connectivity to cellular networks allows calls between the fixed and cellular networks. Though the PSTN was a closed network, the security-free SS7 protocol stack on which it is based was of no consequence. However, by connecting the PSTN to the core network that is in turn connected to the Internet, the largest open public network, the SS7-based PSTN network has “no security left” [19].

Because SS7 protocols are plaintext and have no authentication features, it is possible to introduce fake messages, eavesdrop, cause DoS by traffic overload, and incorrectly route signaling messages. Such introduction of SS7 messages into the PSTN network is very easily done using cheap PC-based equipment. Attacks in which calls for 800 and 900 numbers were rerouted to 911 servers so that legitimate calls were lost are documented [20]. Such attacks are more so possible due to the IP interface of the PSTN service nodes and Web-based control of these networks.

Because PSTN networks are to be outdated soon, there is no interest in updating these networks. So, they will remain “security free” until their usage is stopped [19].

So far, we have addressed the security and attacks on each aspect of a cellular network. But an attack that is common to all the aspects of a cellular network is the *cascading attack*. Next we detail the cascading attack and present the corresponding vulnerability assessment techniques.

4. CELLULAR NETWORK ATTACK TAXONOMY

In this part of the chapter, we present a cellular network specific attack taxonomy. This attack taxonomy is called the *three-dimensional taxonomy* because attacks are classified based on the following three dimensions: (1) adversary’s physical access to the network when the attack is launched; (2) type of attack launched; and (3) vulnerability exploited to launch the attack.

The three-dimensional attack taxonomy was motivated by a *cellular network specific abstract model*, which is an atomic model of cellular network service nodes. It enables better study of interactions within a cellular network and aids in derivation of several insightful characteristics of attacks on the cellular network.

The abstract model not only led to the development of the three-dimensional attack taxonomy that has been instrumental in uncovering (1) *cascading attacks*, a type of attack in which the adversary targets a specific network location but attacks another location, which in turn propagates the attack to the target location, and (2) *cross-infrastructure cyber-attack*, a new breed of attack in which a cellular network may be attacked from the Internet [21]. In this part of the chapter we further detail the three-dimensional attack taxonomy and cellular network abstract model.

Abstract Model

The abstract model dissects functionality of a cellular network to the basic atomic level, allowing it to systematically isolate and identify vulnerabilities. Such identification of vulnerabilities allows attack classification based on vulnerabilities, and isolation of network functionality aids in extraction of interactions between network components, thereby revealing new vulnerabilities and attack characteristics.

Because service nodes in a cellular network comprise sophisticated *service logic* that performs numerous network functions, the abstract model logically divides the service logic into basic atomic units, called *agents* (represented by the elliptical shape in Figure 17.4). Each agent performs a single function. Service nodes also manage data, so the abstract model also logically divides data sources into data units specific to the agents they support. The abstract model also divides the data sources into *permanent* (represented by the rectangular shape in Figure 17.4) or *cached* (represented by the triangular shape in Figure 17.4) from other service nodes.

The abstract model developed for the CS domain is illustrated in Figure 17.4. It shows agents, permanent and cached data sources for the CS service nodes. For example, the *subscriber locator agent* in the HLR is the agent that tracks the subscriber location information. It receives and responds to location requests during an incoming call and stores a subscriber's location every time they move. This location information is stored in the *location data source*. Readers interested in further details may refer to [21,22].

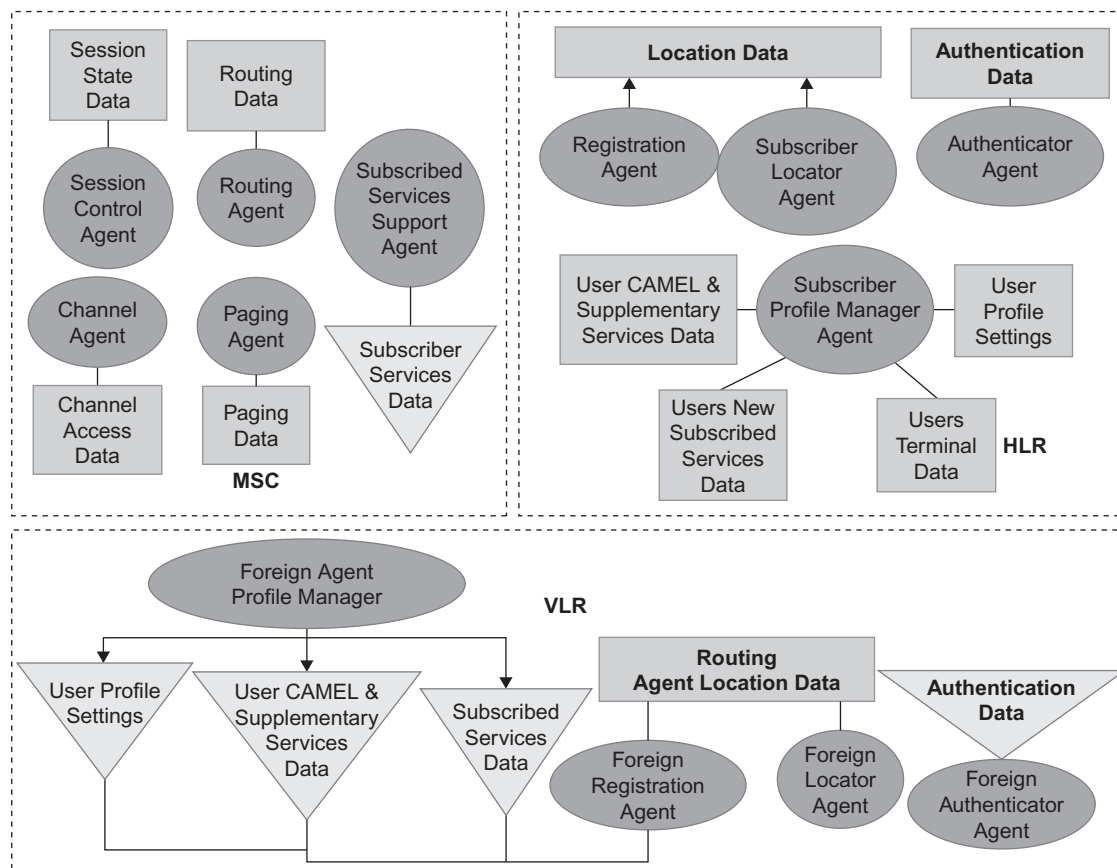


FIGURE 17.4 Abstract model of circuit-switched service nodes.

Abstract Model Findings

The abstract model led to many interesting findings. We outline them as follows:

Interactions

To study the network interactions, service nodes in signal flows (call delivery service) were replaced by their corresponding abstract model agents and data sources. Such an abstract-model – based signal flow based on the call delivery service is shown in [Figure 17.5](#).

In studying the abstract model signal flow, it was observed that interactions happen (1) between agents typically using procedure calls containing data items; (2) between agents and data sources using queries containing data items; and (3) between agents belonging to different service nodes using signaling messages containing data items.

The common behavior in all these interactions is that they typically involve *data items* whose values are set or modified in agents or data source, or it involves data items passed between agents, data sources, or agents and data sources. Hence, the value of a data item not only can be corrupt in an agent or data source, it can also be easily passed on to other agents, resulting in propagation of

corruption. This propagation of corruption is called the *cascading effect*, and attacks that exhibit this effect are called *cascading attacks*. In the following, we present a sample of the cascading attack.

Sample Cascading Attack

In this sample cascading attack, cascading due to corrupt data items and ultimately their service disruption are illustrated in [Figure 17.6](#). Consider the call delivery service explained previously. Here the adversary may corrupt the *roaming number* data item (used to route the call) in the VLR. This corrupt *roaming number* is passed on in message PRN_ACK to the HLR, which in turn passes this information to the GMSC. The GMSC uses the incorrect *roaming number* to route the call to the incorrect MSC_B, instead of the correct MSC_A. This results in the caller losing the call or receiving a wrong-number call. Thus corruption cascades and results in service disruption.

The type of corruption that can cascade is *system-acceptable incorrect value corruption*, a type of corruption in which corrupt values taken on system-acceptable values, albeit incorrect values. Such a corruption can cause the roaming number to be incorrect but a system-acceptable value.

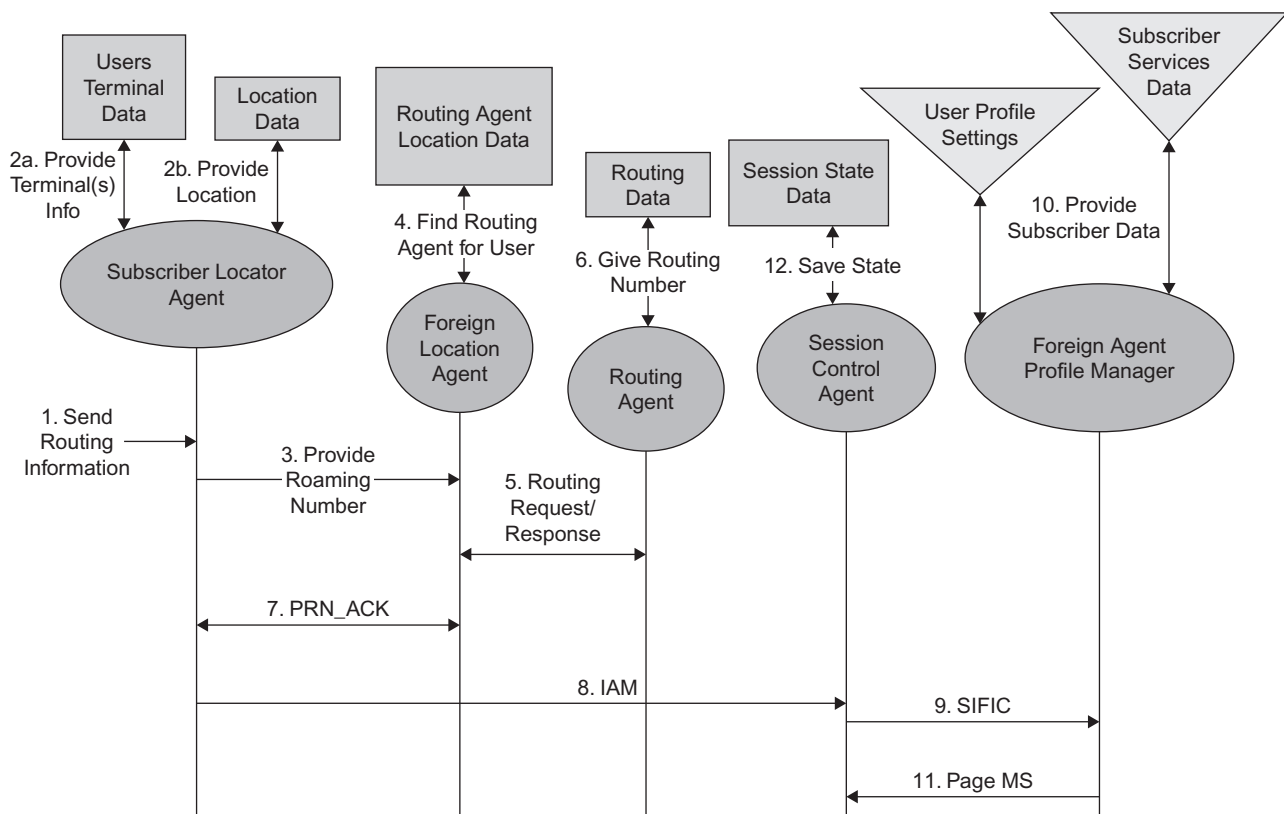


FIGURE 17.5 Abstract model-based signal flow for the call delivery service.

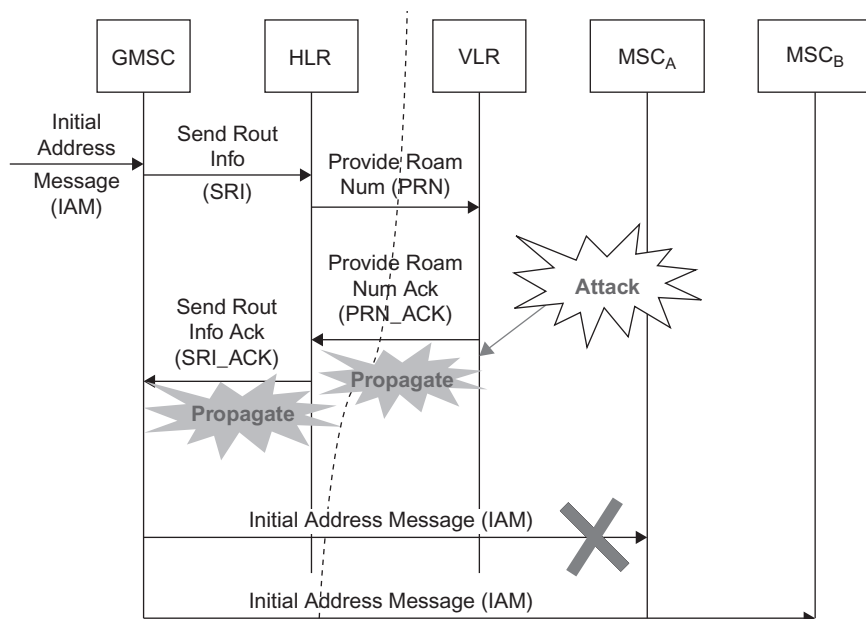


FIGURE 17.6 Sample cascading attacks in the call delivery service.

Note that it is easy to cause such system-acceptable incorrect value corruption due to the availability of Web sites that refer to proprietary working manuals of service nodes such as the VLR [23,24]. Such command insertion attacks have become highly commonplace, the most infamous being the telephone tapping of the Greek government and top-ranking civil servants [25].

Cross-Infrastructure Cyber Cascading Attacks

When cascading attacks cross into cellular networks from the Internet through *cross-network services*, they're called *cross-infrastructure cyber cascading attacks*. This attack is illustrated on the CFS in Figure 17.7.

As the CFS forwards calls based on the emails received, corruption is shown to propagate from the mail server to a call-forward (CF) server and finally to the MSC. In the attack, using any standard mail server vulnerabilities, the adversary may compromise the mail server and corrupt the email data source by deleting emails from people the victim is expecting to call. The CF server receives and caches incorrect email from the mail server.

When calls arrive for the subscriber, the call-forwarding service is triggered, and the MSC queries the CF server on how to forward the call. The CF server checks its incorrect email cache, and because there are no emails from the caller, it responds to the MSC to forward the call to the victim's voicemail when in reality the call should have been forwarded to the cellular device. Thus

the effect of the attack on the mail server propagates to the CF service nodes. This is a classic example of a cross-infrastructure cyber cascading attack, whereby the adversary gains access to the cross-network server, and attacks by modifying data in the data source of the cross-network server. Note that it has become highly simplified to launch such attacks due to easy accessibility to the Internet and subscriber preference for Internet-based cross-network services.

Isolating Vulnerabilities

From the abstract model, the major vulnerable-to-attacks network components are: (1) data sources; (2) agents (more generally called service logic); and (3) signaling messages. By exploiting each of these vulnerabilities, data items that are crucial to the correct working of a cellular network can be corrupted, leading to ultimate service disruption through cascading effects.

In addition, the effect of corrupt signaling messages is different from the effect of corrupt data sources. By corrupting data items in a data source of a service node, all the subscribers attached to this service node may be affected. However, by corrupting a signaling message, only the subscribers (such as the caller and called party in case of call delivery service) associated with the message are affected. Likewise, corrupting the agent in the service node can affect all subscribers using the agent in the service node. Hence, in the three-dimensional taxonomy, a vulnerability exploited is considered as an attack dimension, since the effect on each vulnerability is different.

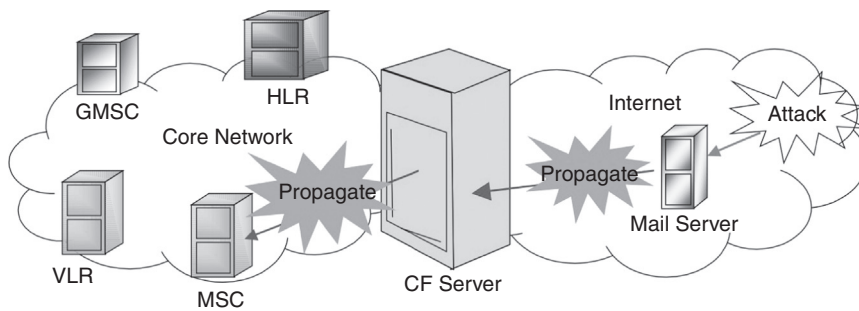


FIGURE 17.7 Cross-infrastructure cyber cascading attacks on call-forward service.

Likewise, the adversary's physical access to a cellular network also affects how the vulnerability is exploited and how the attack cascades. For example, consider the case when a subscriber has access to the air interface. The adversary can only affect messages on the air interface. Similarly, if the adversary has access to a service node, the data sources and service logic may be corrupted. Hence, in the three-dimensional taxonomy, the physical access is considered a category as it affects how the vulnerability is exploited and its ultimate effect on the subscriber.

Finally, the way the adversary chooses to launch an attack ultimately affects the service in a different way. Consider a passive attack such as *interception*. Here the

service is not affected, but it can have a later effect on the subscriber, such as identity theft or loss of privacy. An active attack such as *interruption* can cause complete service disruption. Hence, in the three-dimensional taxonomy, the attack means are considered a category due the ultimate effect on service. In the next part of the chapter, we detail the cellular network specific three-dimensional taxonomy and the way the previously mentioned dimensions are incorporated (see checklist: "An Agenda For Action When Incorporating The Cellular Network Specific Three-Dimensional Attack Taxonomy").

Table 17.1 shows a sample tabulation of Level I attacks grouped in Case 1. For example, with Level I

An Agenda for Action when Incorporating the Cellular Network Specific Three-Dimensional Attack Taxonomy

The three dimensions in the taxonomy include Dimension I: Physical Access to the Network, Dimension II: Attack Categories and Dimension III: Vulnerability Exploited. In the following, we outline each dimension (check all tasks completed):

____ **1.** Dimension I—Physical Access to the Network: In this dimension, attacks are classified based on the adversary's level of physical access to a cellular network. Dimension I may be further classified into *single infrastructure attacks* (Level I–III) and *cross-infrastructure cyber-attacks* (Level IV–V):

- ____ **a.** *Level I: Access to air interface with physical device.* Here the adversary launches attacks via access to the radio access network using standard inexpensive "off-the-shelf" equipment [26]. Attacks include false base station attacks, eavesdropping, and man-in-the-middle attacks and correspond to attacks previously mentioned.
- ____ **b.** *Level II: Access to links connecting core service nodes.* Here the adversary has access to links connecting to core service nodes. Attacks include disrupting normal transmission of signaling messages and correspond to message corruption attacks previously mentioned.

- ____ **c.** *Level III: Access core service nodes.* In this case, the adversary could be an insider who managed to gain physical access to core service nodes. Attacks include editing the service logic or modifying data sources, such as subscriber data (profile, security and services) stored in the service node and corresponding to corrupt service logic, data source, and node impersonation attacks previously mentioned.
- ____ **d.** *Level IV: Access to links connecting the Internet and the core network service nodes.* This is a cross-infrastructure cyber-attack. Here the adversary has access to links connecting the core network and Internet service nodes. Attacks include editing and deleting signaling messages between the two networks. This level of attack is easier to achieve than Level II.
- ____ **e.** *Level V: Access to Internet servers or cross-network servers.* This is a cross-infrastructure cyber-attack. Here the adversary can cause damage by editing the service logic or modifying subscriber data (profile, security and services) stored

in the cross-network servers. Such an attack was previously outlined earlier in the chapter. This level of attack is easier to achieve than Level III.

- ____ 2. **Dimension II—Attack Type:** In this dimension, attacks are classified based on the type of attack. The attack categories are based on Stallings [27] work in this area:

- ____ a. *Interception.* The adversary intercepts signaling messages on a cable (Level II access) but does not modify or delete them. This is a passive attack. This affects the privacy of the subscriber and the network operator. The adversary may use the data obtained from interception to analyze traffic and eliminate the competition provided by the network operator.
- ____ b. *Fabrication or replay.* In this case, the adversary inserts spurious messages, data, or service logic into the system, depending on the level of physical access. For example, via a Level II access, the adversary inserts fake signaling messages; and via a Level III access, the adversary inserts fake service logic or fake subscriber data into this system.
- ____ c. *Modification of resources.* Here the adversary modifies data, messages, or service logic. For example, via a Level II access, the adversary modifies signaling messages on the link; and via a Level III access, the adversary modifies service logic or data.
- ____ d. *Modification of resources.* Here the adversary modifies data, messages, or service

logic. For example, via a Level II access, the adversary modifies signaling messages on the link; and via a Level III access, the adversary modifies service logic or data.

- ____ e. *Denial of service.* In this case, the adversary takes actions to overload a network results in legitimate subscribers not receiving service.
 - ____ f. *Interruption.* Here the adversary causes an interruption by destroying data, messages, or service logic.
- ____ 3. **Dimension III—Vulnerability Exploited:** In this dimension, attacks are classified based on the vulnerability exploited to cause the attack. Vulnerabilities exploited are explained as follows:
- ____ a. *Data.* The adversary attacks the data stored in the system. Damage is inflicted by modifying, inserting, and deleting the data stored in the system.
 - ____ b. *Messages.* The adversary adds, modifies, deletes, or replays signaling messages.
 - ____ c. *Service logic.* Here the adversary inflicts damage by attacking the service logic running in the various cellular core network service nodes.
 - ____ d. *Attack classification.* In classifying attacks, we can group them according to *Case 1: Dimension I versus Dimension II*, and *Case 2: Dimension II versus Dimension III*. Note that the Dimension I versus Dimension III case can be transitively inferred from Case 1 and Case 2.

TABLE 17.1 Sample Case 1 Classification.

	Interception	Fabrication/Insertion	Modification of Resources	Denial of Service	Interruption
Level I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observe time, rate, length, source, and destination of victim's locations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using modified cellular devices, the adversary can send spurious registration messages to the target network. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> With a modified base station and cellular devices, the adversary modifies conversations between subscribers and their base stations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The adversary can cause DoS by sending a large number of fake registration messages. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Jam victims' traffic channels so that victims cannot access the channels.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> With modified cellular devices, eavesdrop on victim. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Likewise, using modified base stations, the adversary can signal victims to camp at their locations. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Broadcast at a higher intensity than allowed, thereby hogging the bandwidth.

access an adversary causes interception attacks by observing traffic and eavesdropping. Likewise, fabrication attacks due to Level I access include sending spurious registration messages. Modification of resources due to Level I access includes modifying conversations in the radio access network. DoS due to Level I access occurs when a large number of fake registration messages are sent to keep the network busy so as to not provide service to legitimate subscribers. Finally, interruption attacks due to Level I access occur when adversaries jam the radio access channel so that legitimate subscribers cannot access the network. For further details on attack categories, refer to [22].

5. CELLULAR NETWORK VULNERABILITY ANALYSIS

Regardless of how attacks are launched, if attack actions cause a system-acceptable incorrect value corruption, the corruption propagates, leading to many unexpected cascading effects. To detect remote cascading effects and identify the origin of cascading attacks, cellular network vulnerability assessment tools were developed.

These tools, including the *Cellular Network Vulnerability Assessment Toolkit* (CAT) and the *advanced Cellular Network Vulnerability Assessment Toolkit* (aCAT) [12,28], receive the input from users regarding which data item(s) might be corrupted and output an attack graph. The CAT attack graph not only shows the network location and service where the corruption might originate, it also shows the various messages and service nodes through which the corruption propagates.

An attack graph is a diagrammatic representation of an attack on a real system. It shows various ways an adversary can break into a system or cause corruption and the various ways in which the corruption may propagate within the system. Attack graphs are typically produced manually by red teams and used by systems administrators for protection. CAT and aCAT attack graphs allow users to trace the effect of an attack through a network and determine its side effects, thereby making them the ultimate service disruption.

Cellular networks are at the nascent stage of development with respect to security, so it is necessary to evaluate security protocols before deploying them. Hence, aCAT can be extended with security protocol evaluation capabilities into a tool [13] called *Cellular Network Vulnerability Assessment Toolkit for evaluation* (eCAT). eCAT allows users to quantify the benefits of security solutions by removing attack effects from attack graphs based on the defenses provided. One major advantage of this approach is that solutions may be evaluated before expensive development and deployment.

It must be noted that developing such tools — CAT, aCAT, and eCAT — presented many challenges: (1) cellular networks are extremely complex systems; they comprise several types of service nodes and control protocols, contain hundreds of data elements, and support hundreds of services; hence developing such toolkits requires in-depth working knowledge of these systems; and (2) every cellular network deployment comprises a different physical configuration; toolkits must be immune to the diversity in physical configuration; and finally (3) attacks cascade in a network due to regular network activity as a result of dependencies; toolkits must be able to track the way that corruption cascades due to network dependencies.

The challenge of in-depth cellular network knowledge was overcome by incorporating the toolkits with cellular network specifications defined by the Third Generation Partnership Project (3GPP) and is available at no charge [29]. The 3GPP is a telecommunications standards body formed to produce, maintain, and develop globally applicable “technical specifications and technical reports” for a third-generation mobile system based on evolved GSM core networks and the radio access technologies that they support [24].

Usage of specifications allows handling of the diversity of physical configuration, as specifications detail the functional behavior and not the implementation structure of a cellular network. Specifications are written using simple flow-like diagrams called the Specification and Description Language (SDL) [30], and are referred to as *SDL specifications*. Equipment and service providers use these SDL specifications as the basis for their service implementations.

Corruption propagation is tracked by incorporating the toolkits with novel dependency and propagation models to trace the propagation of corruption. Finally, Boolean properties are superimposed on the propagation model to capture the impact of security solutions.

CAT is the first version of the toolkit developed for cellular network vulnerability assessment. CAT works by taking user input of *seeds* (data items directly corrupted by the adversary and the cascading effect of which leads to a goal) and *goals* (data parameters that are derived incorrectly due to the direct corruption of seeds by the adversary) and uses SDL specification to identify cascading attacks. However, SDL is limited in its expression of relationships and is implicit in its assumptions and hence cannot capture all the dependencies; therefore CAT misses several cascading attacks.

To detect a complete set of cascading effects, CAT was enhanced with new features, to aCAT. The new features added to aCAT include (1) a network dependency model that explicitly specifies the exact dependencies in a cellular network; (2) infection propagation rules that identify the reasons that cause corruption to cascade; and (3) a small amount of expert knowledge. The network

dependency model and infection propagation rules may be applied to SDL specifications and help alleviate their limited expression capability. The expert knowledge helps capture the inexplicit assumptions made by SDL.

In applying these features, aCAT captures all those dependencies that were previously unknown to CAT, and thereby aCAT was able to detect a complete set of cascading effects. Through extensive testing of aCAT, several interesting attacks were found and the areas where SDL is lacking was identified.

To enable evaluation of new security protocols, aCAT was extended to eCAT. eCAT uses Boolean probabilities in attack graphs to detect whether a given security protocol can eliminate a certain cascading effect. Given a security protocol, eCAT can measure effective coverage, identify the types of required security mechanisms to protect the network, and identify the most vulnerable network areas. eCAT was also used to evaluate MAPSec, the new standardized cellular network security protocol. Results from MAPSec's evaluation gave insights into MAPSec's performance and the network's vulnerabilities. In the following, we detail each toolkit.

Cellular Network Vulnerability Assessment Toolkit (CAT)

In this part of the chapter, we present an overview of CAT and its many features. CAT is implemented using the Java programming language. It is made up of a number of subsystems (as shown in Figure 17.8). The *knowledge base* contains the cellular network knowledge obtained from SDL specifications. SDL specifications contain simple flowchart-like diagrams. The flowcharts are converted into data in the *knowledge base*. The *integrated data structure* is similar to that of the knowledge base; it holds intermediate attack graph results.

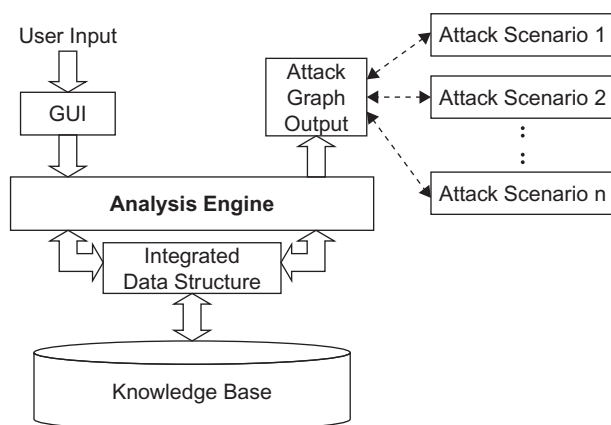


FIGURE 17.8 Architecture of CAT.

The GUI subsystem takes user input in the form of seeds and goals. The analysis engine contains algorithms (forward and midpoint) incorporated with cascading effect detection rules. It explores the possibility of the user input *seed* leading to the cascading effect of the user input *goal*, using the knowledge base, and outputs the cascading attack in the form of attack graphs.

Using these attack graphs, realistic attack scenarios may be derived. Attack scenarios explain the effect of the attack on the subscriber in a realistic setting. Each attack graph may have multiple interpretations and give rise to multiple scenarios. Each scenario gives a different perspective on how the attack may affect the subscriber.

Cascading Effect Detection Rules

The Cascading Effect Detection Rules were defined to extract cascading effects from the SDL specifications contained in the knowledge base. They are incorporated into the algorithms in the analysis engine. These rules define what constitutes propagation of corruption from a signaling message to a block, and vice versa, and propagation of corruption within a service node. For example, when a service node receives a signaling message with a corrupt data item and stores the data item, it constitutes propagation of corruption from a signaling message to a block. Note that these rules are high level.

Attack Graph

The CAT attack graph may be defined as a state transition showing the paths through a system, starting with the conditions of the attack, followed by attack action, and ending with its cascading effects. In Figure 17.9, we present the CAT attack graph output, which was built using user input of *ISDN Bearer Capability* as a seed and *Bearer Service* as goal. The attack graph constitutes nodes and edges. Nodes represent states in the network with respect to the attack, and *edges* represent network state transitions. For description purposes, each node has been given a node label followed by an alphabet, and the attack graph has been divided into layers.

Nodes may be broadly classified as *conditions*, *actions*, and *goals*, with the conditions of the attack occurring at the lowest layer and the final cascading effect at the highest layer. In the following, we detail each node type.

Condition Nodes

Nodes at the lowest layer typically correspond to the conditions that must exist for the attack to occur. These condition nodes directly follow from the taxonomy. They are an adversary's physical access, target service node, and vulnerability exploited. For example, the adversary

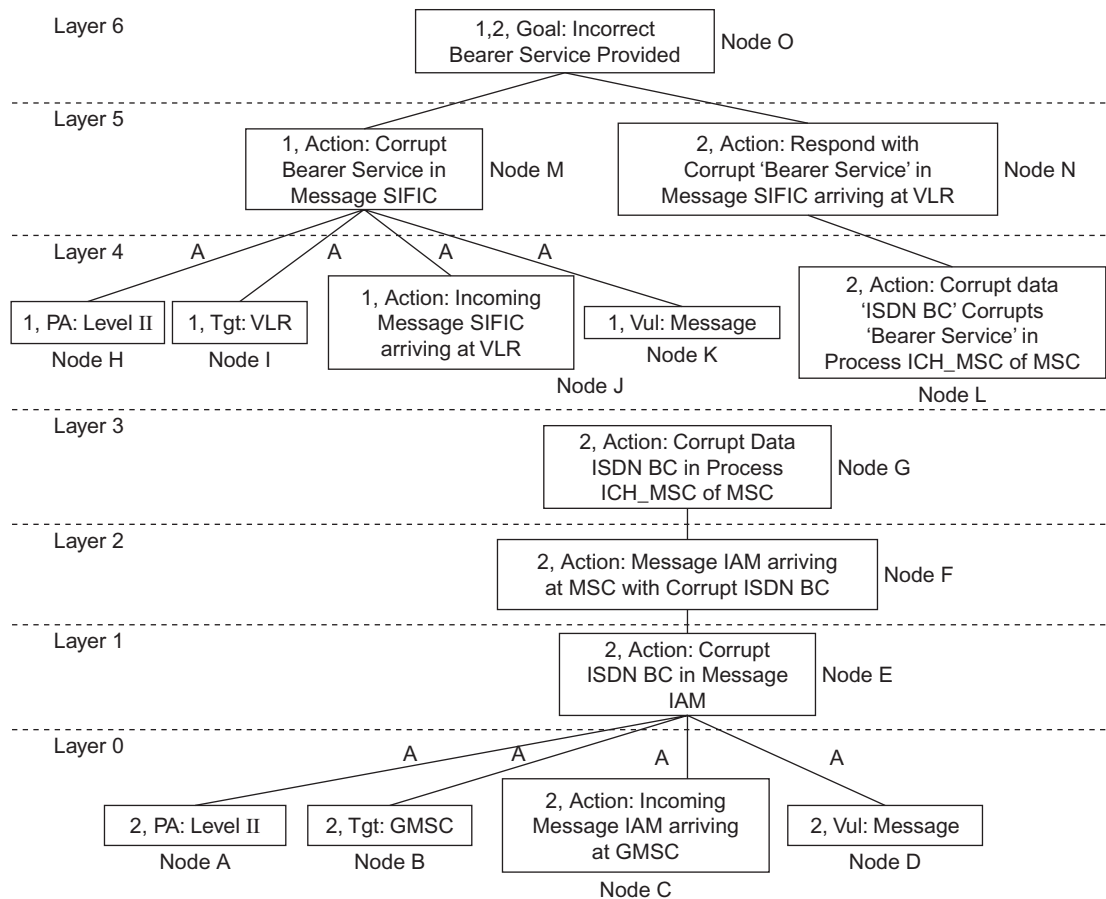


FIGURE 17.9 CAT attack graph output.

has access to links connecting to the GMSC service node, that is, Level II physical access; this is represented as Node A in the attack graph. Likewise, the adversary corrupts data item ISDN Bearer Capability in the IAM message arriving at the GMSC. Hence the target of the attack is the GMSC and is represented by Node B. Similarly, the adversary exploits vulnerabilities in a message (IAM); and, this is represented by Node D in the attack graph.

The CAT attack graphs show all the possible conditions for an attack to happen. In other words, we see not only the corruption due to the seed ISDN Bearer Capability in the signaling message, but also IAM arriving at the GMSC. But, there are also other possibilities, such as the corruption of the goal Bearer Service in the signaling message SIFIC, represented by Node M.

Action Nodes

Nodes at higher layers are actions that typically correspond to effects of the attack propagating through the network. Effects typically include propagation of corruption between service nodes, such as from MSC to VLR (Node N), propagation of corruption within service nodes such

as ISDN Bearer Capability corrupting Bearer Service (Node L), and so on. Actions may further be classified as adversary actions, normal network operations, or normal subscriber activities. Adversary actions include insertion, corruption, or deletion of data, signaling messages, or service logic represented by Node E. Normal network operations include sending (Node N) and receiving signaling messages (Node E). Subscriber activity may include updating personal data or initiating service.

Goal Nodes

Goal nodes typically occur at the highest layer of the attack graph. They indicate corruption of the goal items due to the direct corruption of seeds by the adversary (Node A).

Edges

In our graph, edges represent network transitions due to both normal network actions and adversary actions. Edges help show the global network view of adversary action. This is the uniqueness of our attack graph.

Transitions due to adversary action are indicated by an edge marked by the letter A (edges connecting Layer 0 and Layer 1). By inclusion of normal network transitions in addition to the transitions caused by the adversary, our attack graph shows not only the adversary's activity but also the *global network view of the adversary's action*. This is a unique feature of the attack graph.

Trees

In the graph, trees are distinguished by the tree numbers assigned to its nodes. For example, all the nodes marked with number 2 belong to Tree 2 of the graph. Some nodes in the graph belong to multiple trees. Tree numbers are used to distinguish between AND and OR nodes in the graph. Nodes at a particular layer with the same tree number(s) are AND nodes. For example, at Layer 4, Nodes H, I, J, and K are AND nodes; they all must occur for Node M at Layer 5 to occur. Multiple tree numbers on a node are called OR nodes. The OR node may be arrived at using alternate ways. For example, Node O at Layer 6 is an OR node, the network state indicated by Node O may be arrived at from Node M or Node N.

Each attack tree shows the attack effects due to corruption of a seed at a specific network location (such as signaling message or process in a block). For example, Tree 1 shows the attack due to the corruption of the seed Bearer Service at the VLR. Tree 2 shows the propagation of the seed ISDN Bearer Capability in the signaling message IAM. These trees show that the vulnerability of a cellular network is not limited to one place but can be realized due to the corruption of data in many network locations.

In constructing the attack graph, CAT assumes that an adversary has all the necessary conditions for launching the attack. The CAT attack graph format is well suited to cellular networks because data propagates through the network in various forms during the normal operation of a network; thus an attack that corrupts a data item manifests itself as the corruption of a different data item in a different part of the network after some network operations take place.

Attack Scenario Derivation

The CAT attack graph is in cellular network semantics, and realistic attack scenarios may be derived to understand the implications of the attack graph. Here we detail the principles involved in the derivation of realistic attack scenarios:

End-User effect

Goal node(s) are used to infer the end effect of the attack on the subscriber. According to the goal node in

Figure 17.9, the SIFIC message to the VLR has incorrect goal item Bearer Service. The SIFIC message is used to inform the VLR the calling party's preferences such as voice channel requirements and request the VLR to set up the call based on the calling party and receiving party preferences.

If the calling party's preferences (such as Bearer Service) are incorrect, the call setup by the VLR is incompatible with the calling party, and the communication is ineffective (garbled speech). From the goal node, it can be inferred that Alice, the receiver of the call, is unable to communicate effectively with Bob, the caller, because Alice can only hear garbled speech from Bob's side.

Origin of Attack

Nodes at Layer 0 indicate the origin of the attack, and hence the location of the attack may be inferred. The speech attack may originate at the signaling messages IAM, or the VLR service node.

Attack Propagation and Side Effects

Nodes At All Other Layers Show The Propagation Of Corruption Across The Various Service Nodes In The Network. From Other Layers In Figure 17.9, It Can Be Inferred That The Seed Is The ISDN Bearer Capability And The Attack Spreads From The MSC To The VLR.

Example Attack Scenario

Using these guidelines, an attack scenario may be derived as follows. Trudy, the adversary, corrupts the ISDN Bearer Capability of Bob, the victim, at the IAM message arriving at the GMSC. The GMSC propagates this corruption to the MSC, which computes, and hence corrupts, the Bearer Service. The corrupt Bearer Service is passed on to the VLR, which sets up the call between Bob, the caller, and Alice, the receiver. Bob and Alice cannot communicate effectively because Alice is unable to understand Bob.

Though CAT has detected several cascading attacks, its output to a great extent depends on SDL's ability to capture data dependencies. SDL is limited in its expression capability in the sense that it does not always accurately capture the relationship between data items, and in many cases, SDL does even specify the relationship. Without these details CAT may miss some cascading effects due to loss of data relationships. CAT's output to a minor extent also depends on user input in the sense that to accurately capture all the cascading effect of a seed, the user's input must comprise all the seeds that can occur in the cascading effect; otherwise the exact

cascading effect is not captured. To alleviate CAT's inadequacies, aCAT was developed.

Advanced Cellular Network Vulnerability Assessment Toolkit (aCAT)

In this section, we present aCAT, an extension of CAT with enhanced features. These enhanced features include (1) incorporating expert knowledge to compensate for the lacking caused by SDL's inexplicit assumptions; expert knowledge added to the knowledge base with the SDL specifications; (2) defining a network dependency model that accurately captures the dependencies in a cellular network; the network dependency model is used to format the data in knowledge base, thereby clarifying the nature of the network dependency; and (3) defining infection propagation rules that define fine-grained rules to detect cascading attacks; these infection propagation rules are incorporated into the analysis engine, which comprises the forward, reverse, and combinatory algorithms. aCAT is also improved in terms of its user input requirements. It requires as input either seeds or goals, whereas CAT required both seeds and goals.

In principle, cascading attacks are the result of propagation of corruption between network components (such as signaling messages, caches, local variables, and service logic) due to dependencies that exist between these

network components. Hence, to uncover these attacks, the network dependency model and infection propagation (IP) rules were defined. In the following, we detail the network dependency model and infection propagation model using Figure 17.10.

Network Dependency Model

The network dependency model accurately defines fine-grained dependencies between the various network components. Given that service nodes comprise agents and data sources (from the abstract model), the dependencies are defined as follows. In interagent dependency, agents communicate with each other using agent invocations (as shown by 6 in Figure 17.10) containing data items. Thus, agents are related to each other through data items. Likewise, in agent to data source dependency, agents communicate with data sources using Read and Write operations containing data items. Therefore, agents and data items are related to each other through data items. Within agents, derivative dependencies define relationships between data items. Here data items are used as input to derive data items using derivation operations such as AND, OR operations. Therefore, data items are related to each other through derivation operation. For further detail on the network dependency model, refer to [12].

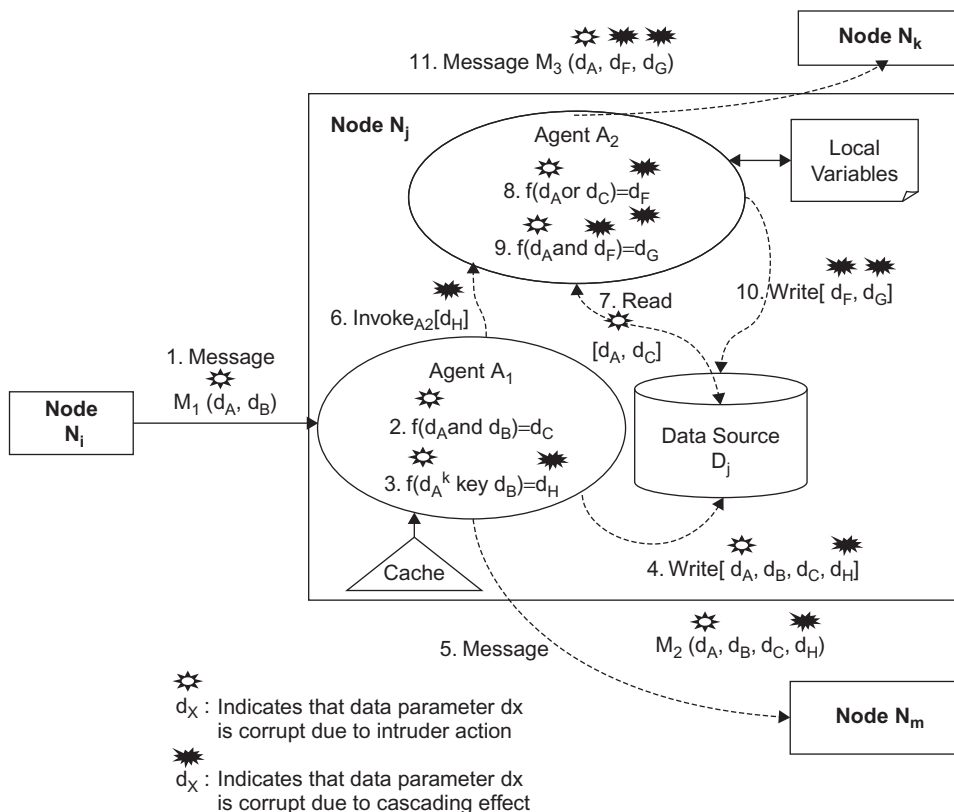


FIGURE 17.10 Network dependency model.

Infection Propagation (IP) Rules

These are finegrained rules to detect cascading effects. They are incorporated into the algorithms in the analysis engine. An example of the IP rule is that an output data item in the AND dependency is corrupt only if both the input data items are corrupt (as shown by 9 in Figure 17.10). Likewise, an output data item in the OR dependency is corrupt if a single input data item is corrupt (as shown by 8 in Figure 17.10). Similarly, corruption propagates between agents when the data item used to invoke the agent is corrupt, and the same data item is used as an input in the derivative dependency whose output may be corrupt (as shown by 6, 8 in Figure 17.10). Accordingly, corruption propagates from an agent to a data source if the data item written to the data source is corrupt (as shown by 4 in Figure 17.10). Finally, corruption propagates between service nodes if a data item used in the signaling message between the service nodes is corrupt, and the corrupt data item is used to derive corrupt output items or the corrupt data item is stored in the data source (as shown by 1, 3 or 1, 4 in Figure 17.10) [12].

With such a fine-grained dependency model and infection propagation rules, aCAT was very successful in identifying cascading attacks in several key services offered by a cellular network, and it was found that aCAT can indeed identify a better set of cascading effects in comparison to CAT. aCAT has also detected several interesting and unforeseen cascading attacks that are subtle and difficult to identify by other means. These newly identified cascading attacks include the alerting attack, power-off/power-on attack, mixed identity attack, call redirection attack, and missed calls attack.

Alerting Attack

In the following we detail aCAT's output, a cascading attack called the *alerting attack*, shown in Figure 17.11. From goal nodes (Node A at Level 5, and Node C at Level 4) in the alerting attack, it can be inferred that the Page message has incorrect data item *page type*. The Page message is used to inform subscribers of the arrival of incoming calls, and "page type" indicates the type of call. "Page type" must be compatible with the subscriber's mobile station or else the subscriber is not alerted. From the goal node it may be inferred that Alice, a subscriber of the system, is not alerted on the arrival of an incoming call and hence does not receive incoming calls. This attack is subtle to detect because network administrators find that the network processes the incoming call correctly and that the subscriber is alerted correctly. They might not find that this alerting pattern is incompatible with the mobile station itself.

Also, nodes at Level 0 indicate the origin of the attack as signaling messages SRI, PRN, the service nodes VLR,

or the HLR. From the other levels it may be inferred that the seed is the *alerting pattern* that the adversary corrupts in the SRI message and the attack spreads from the HLR to the VLR and from the VLR to the MSC. For more details on these attacks, refer to [12].

Cellular Network Vulnerability Assessment Toolkit for Evaluation (eCAT)

In this part of the chapter, we present eCAT an extension to aCAT. eCAT was developed to evaluate new security protocols before their deployment. Though the design goals and threat model of these security protocols are common knowledge, eCAT was designed to find (1) the effective protection coverage of these security protocols in terms of percentage of attacks prevented; (2) the other kinds of security schemes required to tackle the attacks that can evade the security protocol under observation; and (3) the most vulnerable network areas (also called *hotspots*) [13].

eCAT computes security protocol coverage using attack graphs generated by aCAT and Boolean probabilities in a process called *attack graph marking* and quantifies the coverage using *coverage measurement formulas* (CMF). Attack graph marking also identifies network hotspots and exposes if the security protocol being evaluated protects these hotspots. eCAT was also used to evaluate MAPSec, as it is a relatively new protocol, and evaluation results would aid network operators.

Boolean Probabilities

Boolean probabilities are used in attack graphs to distinguish between nodes eliminated (denoted by 0, or shaded node in attack graph) and nodes existing (denoted by 1, or unshaded node in attack graph) due to the security protocol under evaluation. By computing Boolean probabilities for each node in the attack graph, eCAT can extract the attack effects that may be eliminated by the security protocol under evaluation.

Attack Graph Marking

To mark attack graphs, user input of Boolean probabilities must be provided for Layer 0 nodes. For example, if the security protocol under evaluation is MAPSec, then because MAPSec provides security on links between nodes, it eliminates Level 2 physical access. For example, consider the attack graph generated by eCAT shown in Figure 17.12. Here, Node 5 is set to 0, while all other nodes are set to 1.

eCAT uses the input from Layer 0 nodes to compute the Boolean probabilities for the rest of the nodes starting from Layer 1 and moving upward. For example, the

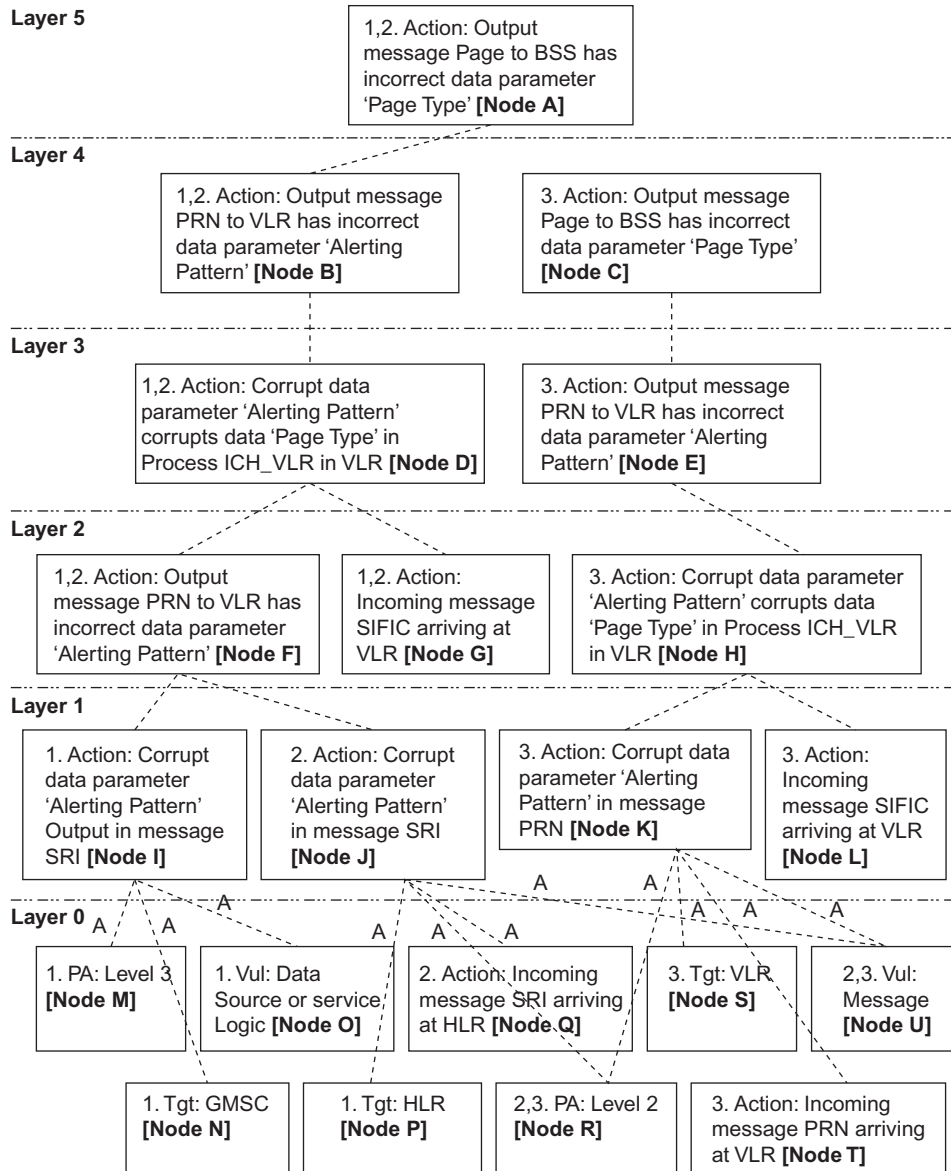


FIGURE 17.11 Attack graph for alerting attack.

Boolean probability of the AND node (Node 18) is the product of all the nodes in the previous layer with the same tree number. Because Node 5 has the same tree number as Node 18, and Node 5's Boolean probability is 0, Node 18's Boolean probability is also 0. This process of marking attack graphs is continued until Boolean probability of all the nodes is computed till the topmost layer.

Hotspots

Graph marking also marks the network hotspots in the attack graph. With respect to the attack graph, hotspots are the Layer 0 nodes with the highest tree number count. For example in Figure 17.12, Node 3 and Node 4 are the hotspots. A high tree number count indicates an increased

attractiveness of the network location to adversaries. This is because by breaking into the network location indicated by the hotspot node, the adversary has a higher likelihood of success and can cause the greatest amount of damage.

Extensive testing of eCAT on several of the network services using MAPSec has revealed hotspots to be "Data Sources and Service Logic." This is because a corrupt data source or service logic may be used by many different services and hence cause many varied cascading effects, spawning a large number of attacks (indicated by multiple trees in attack graphs). Thus attacks that occur due to exploiting service logic and data source vulnerabilities constitute a major portion of the networkwide vulnerabilities and so a major problem. In other words, by exploiting service logic and data sources, the likelihood

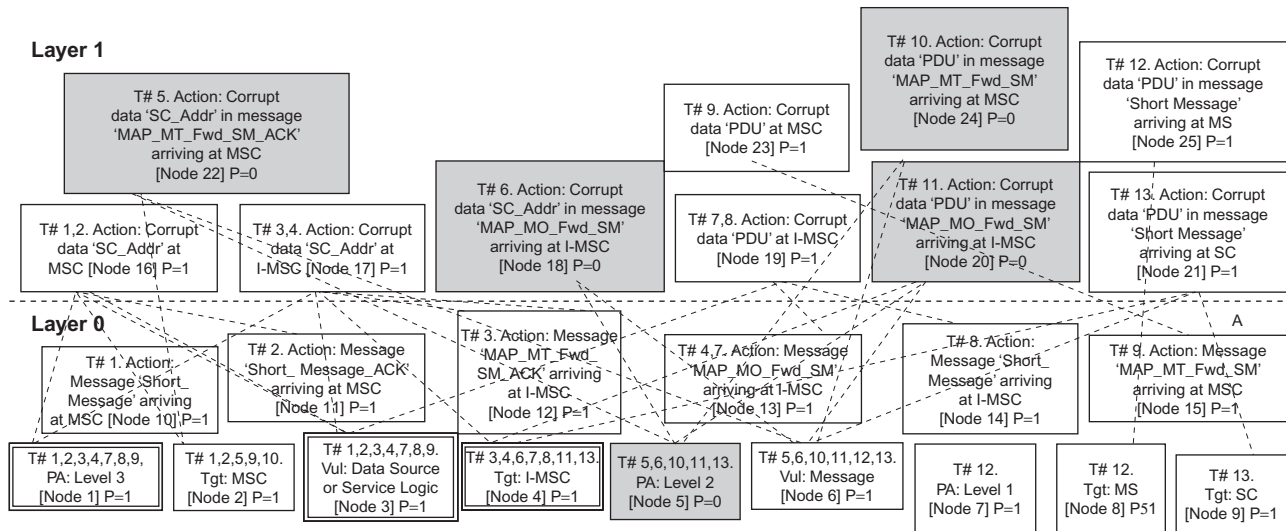


FIGURE 17.12 Fragment of a marked attack graph generated by eCAT.

of attack success is very high. Therefore data source and service logic protection mechanisms must be deployed. It must be noted that MAPSec protects neither service logic nor data sources; rather, it protects MAP messages.

Coverage Measurement Formulas

The CMF comprises the following set of three formulas to capture the coverage of security protocols: (1) *effective coverage*, to capture the average effective number of attacks eliminated by the security protocol; the higher the value of Effective Coverage the greater the protection the security protocol; (2) *deployment coverage*, to capture the coverage of protocol deployments; and (3) *attack coverage*, to capture the attack coverage provided by the security protocol; the higher this value, the greater is the security solution's efficacy in eliminating a large number of attacks on the network.

Extensive use of CMF on several of the network services has revealed that MAPSec has an average network-wide attack coverage of 33%. This may be attributed to the fact that message corruption has a low spawning effect. Typically a single message corruption causes a single attack, since messages are typically used by a single service. Hence MAPSec is a solution to a small portion of the total network vulnerabilities.

Finally, in evaluating MAPSec using eCAT, it was observed that though MAPSec is 100% effective in preventing MAP message attacks, it cannot prevent a successfully launched attack from cascading. For MAPSec to be truly successful, every leg of the MAP message transport must be secured using MAPSec. However, the overhead for deploying MAPSec can be high, in terms of both

processing load and monetary investment. Also, as MAP messages travel through third-party networks en route to their destinations, the risk level of attacks without MAPSec is very high. Hence, MAPSec is vital to protect MAP messages.

In conclusion, because MAPSec can protect against only 33% of attacks, it alone is insufficient to protect the network. A complete protection scheme for the network must include data source and service logic protection.

6. SUMMARY

Next to the Internet, cellular networks are the most highly used communication network. It is also the most vulnerable, with inadequate security measures making it a most attractive target to adversaries that want to cause communication outages during emergencies. As cellular networks are moving in the direction of the Internet, becoming an amalgamation of several types of diverse networks, more attention must be paid to securing these networks. A push from government agencies requiring mandatory security standards for operating cellular networks would be just the momentum needed to securing these networks.

Of all the attacks discussed in this chapter, cascading attacks have the most potential to stealthily cause major network misoperation. At present there is no standardized scheme to protect from such attacks. EndSec is a good solution for protecting from cascading attacks, since it requires every data item to be signed by the source service node. Because service nodes are unlikely to corrupt data items and they are to be accounted for by their signatures, the possibility of cascading attacks

is greatly reduced. EndSec has the added advantage of providing end-to-end security for all types of signaling messages. Hence, standardizing EndSec and mandating its deployment would be a good step toward securing the network.

Both Internet and PSTN connectivity are the open gateways that adversaries can use to gain access and attack the network. Because the PSTN's security is not going to be improved, at least its gateway to the core network must be adequately secured. Likewise, since neither the Internet's design nor security will be changed to suit a cellular network, at least its gateways to the core network must be adequately secured.

Finally, because a cellular network is an amalgamation of many diverse networks, it has too many vulnerable points. Hence, the future design of the network must be planned to reduce the number of vulnerable network points and reduce the number of service nodes that participate in servicing the subscriber, thereby reducing the number of points from which an adversary may attack.

Finally, let's move on to the real interactive part of this Chapter: review questions/exercises, hands-on projects, case projects and optional team case project. The answers and/or solutions by chapter can be found in the Online Instructor's Solutions Manual.

CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS/EXERCISES

True/False

1. True or False? Cellular networks are high-speed, high-capacity voice and data communication networks with enhanced multimedia and seamless roaming capabilities for supporting cellular devices.
2. True or False? The current cellular network is an evolution of the early-generation cellular networks that were built for optimal performance.
3. True or False? It would seem that attacks on the radio access network could not easily happen, because anyone with a transmitter/receiver could capture these signals.
4. True or False? Though the current generation of a cellular network has seen many security improvements in the radio access network, the security of the core network is not as improved.
5. True or False? Internet connectivity introduces the biggest threat to the security of cellular networks.

Multiple Choice

1. Cellular networks are organized as collections of interconnected:
 - A. Message Integrity Codes (MIC)
 - B. Temporal Key Integrity Protocols (TKIP)

- C. Application Program Interfaces
 - D. Network Areas
 - E. Extensible Authentication Protocol (EAP) framework
2. The core network is facilitated by network servers, which are also called?
 - A. Middle Layers
 - B. Network Layers
 - C. Transport Layers
 - D. Service Nodes
 - E. All of the above
 3. What is a basic service in the circuit-switched domain?
 - A. Secure on-demand routing protocol service
 - B. Taxonomy service
 - C. Caller delivery service
 - D. Authenticated Routing for Ad hoc Networks (ARAN) service
 - E. Destination-Sequenced Distance Vector (DSDV) routing service
 4. The cloning of cellular devices to utilize the network resources without paying; and cloning BSs to entice users to camp at the cloned BS in an attack, is called a:
 - A. False base station attack.
 - B. Privacy attack.
 - C. Eavesdropping attack
 - D. Man-in-the-Middle Attack.
 - E. Passive attack.
 5. What introduces the biggest threat to the security of cellular networks?
 - A. HELLO Flood connectivity.
 - B. Denial-of-service attack connectivity.
 - C. Internet connectivity.
 - D. Sybil connectivity.
 - E. All of the above.

EXERCISE

Problem

What are the limitations of cellular network security?

Hands-On Projects

Project

What are the security issues in cellular networks?

Case Projects

Problem

What types of attacks are cellular networks open to?

Optional Team Case Project

Problem

What additional security mechanisms are available to cellular networks?

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