Lecture 12: Computer Security.

- 1. Chubby follow-up
- 2. Security in the real world
 - a. Why this paper?
 - i. Came from a sequence of papers about reasoning about trust in distributed systems
 - ii. Picked this one because it was shortest, easiest to read -- should I include full versions in future?
 - iii. Abstracts out specifics of authentication protocols (SSL, Kerberos, DAV, etc.)
 - iv. Covers high-level issues
 - b. Comments from reviews:
 - i. Need to start with trust?
 - ii. non-impact in the world, not an academic paper
 - iii. What is novelty?
 - 1. The idea of using "speaking for" to organize and prove things and reason about authentication/authorization
 - 2. E.g. Windows didn't limit what IDs domains could speak about
 - 3. E.g. on-line shopping basket APIs don't reason about what a request can speak about, and hence can reuse secure channel to do the wrong thing
 - 4. E.g. Car jacking case from yesterday couldn't reason about anything
 - c. Outline:
 - i. Security in the non-virtual world
 - ii. What are the components of security
 - iii. What are the differences between single-system security and distributed system security
 - iv. Framework for understanding and assuring authentication/authorization
- 3. Non-virtual security
 - a. How does it work?
 - i. Perfect locks? aka strong security
 - ii. Constant surveillance? aka constant logging/intrusion detection
 - b. How it really works?
 - i. Locks on our houses
 - ii. Police to track down crimes
 - iii. Value of the crime
 - iv. Together:
 - 1. Locks have to be strong enough to deter criminals

- 2. Risk of punishment must be high enough to deter criminals
- 3. So:
 - a. High value items (e.g. jewels): strong locks, high surveillance, high punishment
 - b. Low value items (e.g. shovel in my garage): no locks, little punishment
 - c. Credit cards: easy to steal/forge, but high effort to track down and limit damage (little loss, lots of surveillance)
- 4. Computer security
 - a. From paper:
 - i. Attacks come from anywhere
 - 1. Not just physically local
 - ii. People want to share with anyone
 - 1. Not just known friends
 - iii. Automated infection
 - 1. Grows faster
 - iv. Hostile code
 - 1. Running others code on your system
 - v. Hostile environment (taking a laptop to China)
 - vi. Hostile hosts
 - 1. Sending your data to other people's system or running your code on their system
 - b. What is different?
 - Economy of scale: one attack can be automated at many nodes
 - 1. Effort to break in may be low (weak locks)
 - ii. Difficult to prosecute: criminals may be overseas
 - iii. Lots of low value items
 - 1. A few dollars from a bank account
 - c. Is this always true?
 - i. NO: stuxnet, military computers
 - 1. High value, strong locks, strong surveillance
 - 2. High cost of prosecution
- 5. Basic principles of computer security:
 - a. Core components:
 - i. Policy: what you want to allow/disallow, and by whom/when/where
 - ii. Mechanism: things that enforce policy
 - iii. Assurance: how you know your policy is being enforced by the mechanism
 - b. Policies:

- i. Secrecy: controlling who reads information (e.g. Coke formula).
- ii. Integrity: controlling who modifies information (e.g. your bank balance or grades)
- iii. Availability: provide prompt access (e.g. Denial of Service attacks)
- iv. Accountability: logging who had access to what for postattack diagnosis
- v. Components:
 - 1. Who is allowed, when, where, under what circumstances
 - a. E.g. two tellers together during working hours can withdraw money
 - 2. Who is not allowed

c. Mechanisms

- i. Who are we defending against?
 - 1. Bad (buggy or hostile) programs
 - a. e.g. downloading malicious app
 - 2. Bad agents giving instructions to good but gullible programs
 - a. e.g. stack smashing attack on Apache
 - 3. Agents tapping/spoofing communications
 - a. e.g. sniff packets, inject packets, modify packets
- ii. Defensive strategies: levels of control/isolation
 - 1. Complete isolation air gap physical security
 - a. Used for very-high value. E.g. private keys used to sign Microsoft Windows binaries
 - 2. Keep bad agents out
 - a. Firewall: block bad things from getting in
 - b. Code signing: only run code from trusted sources
 - c. Trust everything on the inside with full access
 - 3. Limit damage of bad agents
 - a. Sandboxing to limit operations available
 - b. Limit programs invokable from sandbox, system calls made, etc.
 - 4. Catch the bad agents
 - a. Run intrusion detection/audit logs and figure out who they are
 - b. Difficult, but used
- iii. Basic mechanism: access control
 - 1. A "principle" requests to do an operation

- a. A principle is any identifiable agent, e.g. a user, a system, a program
- 2. A "reference monitor" decides based on the reques and the principle whether to grant access to a resource
- 3. Example:
 - a. Access a file: have write & write w/o quota requests
 - b. Access control list says all users can write, some can bypass quotas (separate requests)
- iv. Authentication vs Authorization
 - 1. Authentication: identifying who a principle is
 - 2. Authorization: deciding what they can do are they allowed to do an operation
 - 3. Auditing: record the decisions of the reference monitor
- d. Assurance ideas:
 - i. Core concept: trusted computing base
 - 1. All the software/hardware that has to work correctly to enforce policy
 - 2. Examples:
 - a. firewall to keep bad guys out at perimeter
 - b. **QUESTION:** what is TCB for file system?
 - File system, kernel, configuration data, password file, setuid root files for file system security
 - ii. Use TCB idea:
 - 1. Make it small more likely to be secure
 - 2. Defense in depth multiple layers of defenses
 - a. firewall
 - b. authentication
 - c. ACLs in application
- 6. Reasoning about security
 - a. Local access control:
 - i. Assume channel for user requests (system calls) is secure
 - ii. System has local database of names, passwords, and IDs
 - iii. User authenticates by logging in to compare password against database and lookup ID
 - iv. Programs can have identities (setuid)
 - v. Resources (files) have ACLs with principles & permissions
 - b. Extending this to an organization
 - Move database to another machine (e.g. Kerberos key distribution center, Windows domain controller/Active Directory server)

- ii. Machine sets up a **secure channel** to check password against server
 - 1. server provides a **token** that vouches for user identity & provides IDs
 - a. e.g. Kerberos ticket granting ticket
- c. Extending to multiple organizations
 - i. Key requirement: want multiple domains of users
 - 1. Allows multiple entities to vouch for password -> username/ID mapping
 - a. Assign names within a domain
 - ii. How:
 - 1. Secure channel between domains
 - a. User logon information sent to home domain, which vouches for user
 - b. Home domain uses secure channel to resource domain vouching for user identity
 - c. Resource domain communicates to resource host user identity
 - d. Resource host uses user identity to decide access control
 - iii. Requirements:
 - 1. Limit scope of what a domain can vouch for
 - a. Don't want servers at Michigan to vouch for swift@cs.wisc.edu or serve IDs in our domain
- 7. Reasoning about distributed security
 - a. Why can we do this? Consider SSL authenticated logon to a web server at Wisconsin
 - b. Working backwards:
 - i. Request comes over an SSL connection encrypted with a key K_{ssl}
 - ii. SSL connection created by a smart card K_{alice} signing a challenge from a Michigan server
 - iii. A Michigan server certifies that K_{alice} is for <u>alice@umich.edu</u>
 - iv. A Wisconsin AFS server certifies that alice@umich.edu is in the group Architects
 - v. the ACL on a file Affiliates in AFS says the group Architects has read/write access to the file
 - c. So: lots of different components. Why should we believe Alice has access?
 - i. Session keys
 - ii. User passwords/public/private keys
 - iii. Authentication across domains (wiscsonsin and Michigan)
 - iv. Group memberships
 - v. ACL entries

- 8. Core concepts:
 - a. **Speaking**: making a statement
 - i. An ACL says "user X has access to the file"
 - ii. A key can say "the holder of the key encrypted /sent this message"
 - iii. A database can say "The user that encrypts with a key is named ..."
 - iv. Also called a token:
 - 1. X.509 certificate: Kca says Kserver → Server-name
 - 2. Group membership: Database says ID user → ID group
 - v. How used:
 - 1. If signed by a public key, can be forwarded to anyone and used offline & verified by anyone
 - If encrypted with a secret key, can ask sender to reencrypt and send to anyone with whom sender shares a secret key
 - a. e.g. ask KDC to re-encrypt a ticket for a specific server
 - 3. If sent on secure channel (see below), then cannot be forwarded
 - b. **speaks for** (the happens-before of computer security?)
 - i. Basic usage:
 - "Principle P speaks for principle Q about subjects T"

 a. P→Q T
 - 2. Meanings:
 - a. If P says something about T, then Q says (or would say) the same thing about T
 - b. Q takes responsibility for what Q says about Ti. Q trusts P to speak on its behalf
 - c. P is more powerful than Q P's statements are taken as seriously as Q's
 - 3. Subjects:
 - a. Allows scoping of "speaks for"
 - b. Example:
 - i. Michigan servers can only speak about users at Michigan
 - ii. File ACLs can only speak about file permissions
 - ii. Longer example: the chain above
 - 1. Kssl → Kalice → <u>Alice@umich.edu</u> → architects → affiliates
 - a. The SSL key can speak on behalf of Alice's key (by the protocol)

- Alice's key speaks on behalf of the user <u>alice@umich.edu</u> (because certified by the server at Michigan)
- c. <u>alice@umich.edu</u> speaks for architects (by AFS group database)
- d. architects speak for the file Affiliates (by the ACL)

iii. Uses:

- 1. Key speaks for a username
- 2. Program hash speaks for the program
- 3. Certifying authority speaks for a group of names
 - Verisign can speak for mapping of keys to DNS top-level domains
 - b. A principles speaks for any name below it:
 - i. wisc.edu speaks for cs.wisc.edu
 - ii. So: if wisc says a key speaks for cs.wisc.edu, then it means cs.wisc.edu would say the key speaks for cs.wisc.edu
- 4. User can speak for a group it belongs to
- 5. Group can speak for a resource if in ACL

c. Secure Channels

- i. Messages encrypted with a key
- ii. Assume the channel speaks for the key
- 9. How do we establish the links exist?
 - a. Why do we trust the principle
 - i. If Q says $P \rightarrow Q$ about T, we believe $P \rightarrow Q$ about T
 - 1. Principles can delegate their own authority
 - b. How do we know who says the delegation
 - i. The only ways to know directly who says something
 - 1. Receive it over a secure channel (know the key that encrypted it)
 - a. If Q is a key, then Q says
 - ii. Access it from a local database
 - If Q is a guard (verifier), then Q can consult a local database (e.g. user database for a key or ACL for a file)
 - iii. Otherwise: user inference to build a chain
 - 1. A \rightarrow B and B \rightarrow then A \rightarrow C
 - 2. For mapping of a process to a file:
 - a. Process \rightarrow user \rightarrow group membership \rightarrow file
 - b. Capability = direct mapping process \rightarrow file
 - i. bypasses inference chains (e.g. login, key verification, ACL lookup)
 - c. Why willing?

- i. Some facts installed manually
 - 1. Root certificates for SSL
 - 2. Name/password for domain controller in Windows
- ii. Some from protocol:
 - 1. If I run SSL, then I authorize the SSL channel to speak for me
- 10. How do we do inference
 - a. **Push**: client generates information and sends to server
 - i. e.g. Kerberos login to get ticket, user name, group memberships, sent to server which decrypts ticket
 - b. **Pull**: Client requests, object queries database
 - i. **e**.g. access control lsits
- 11. So: Authentication
 - a. Provide to a server that a message speaks for a user
 - Convince that the key encrypting the message speaks for the user
 - ii. Key encrypting message speaks for users key
 - iii. Users key speaks for user name
 - iv. domain server speaks for user name
 - v. e.g.
 - b. Notice: need local root of trust
 - i. Need to trust that domain server speaks for user name
- 12. Example: Kerberos login
 - a. AS-req = username -- -- > AS-rep = {TGT }Kuser
 - b. TGS-req = TGT, host -- -- > TGS-req = {host, user,Ksess}Khost
 - c. AP-reg = {host,user,Ksess}Khost, {login}Ksess
 - d. Khost speaks for TGS says Ksess speaks for User
 - ρ.
- 13. QUESTIONS:
 - a. How handling naming without hierarchy?
 - i. Basically have to give up on human-readable names being unique, because collisions are unavoidable
 - ii. Use keys instead (See SPKI, SDSI)
 - b.