CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 26

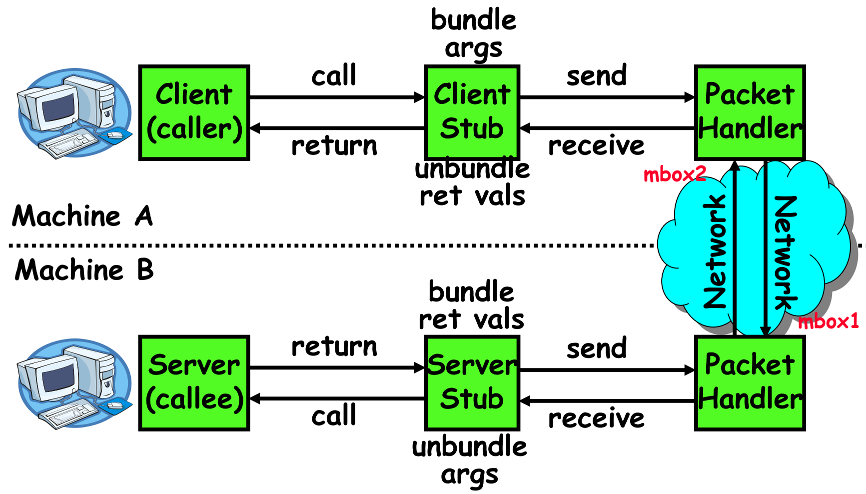
Protection and Security in Distributed Systems

December 1st, 2008

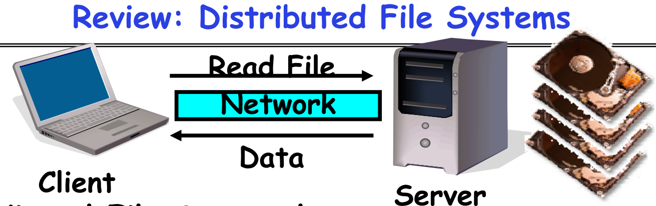
Prof. John Kubiatowicz

http://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs162

Review: RPC Information Flow



Review: Distributed File Systems



- **VFS:** Virtual File System layer
  - Provides mechanism which gives same system call interface for different types of file systems
- **Distributed File System:**
  - Transparent access to files stored on a remote disk
    - » NFS: Network File System
    - » AFS: Andrew File System
  - Caching for performance
- **Cache Consistency:** Keeping contents of client caches consistent with one another
  - If multiple clients, some reading and some writing, how do stale cached copies get updated?
  - NFS: check periodically for changes
  - AFS: clients register callbacks so can be notified by server of changes

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Goals for Today

- Finish discussing distributed file systems/Caching
- Security Mechanisms
  - Authentication
  - Authorization
  - Enforcement
- Cryptographic Mechanisms

Note: Some slides and/or pictures in the following are adapted from slides ©2005 Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne. Many slides generated from my lecture notes by Kubiatowicz.

Protection vs Security

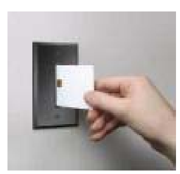
- **Protection:** one or more mechanisms for controlling the access of programs, processes, or users to resources
  - Page Table Mechanism
  - File Access Mechanism
- **Security:** use of protection mechanisms to prevent misuse of resources
  - Misuse defined with respect to policy
    - » E.g.: prevent exposure of certain sensitive information
    - » E.g.: prevent unauthorized modification/deletion of data
  - Requires consideration of the external environment within which the system operates
    - » Most well-constructed system cannot protect information if user accidentally reveals password
- What we hope to gain today and next time
  - Conceptual understanding of how to make systems secure
  - Some examples, to illustrate why providing security is really hard in practice

Preventing Misuse

- Types of Misuse:
  - Accidental:
    - » If I delete shell, can't log in to fix it!
    - » Could make it more difficult by asking: "do you really want to delete the shell?"
  - Intentional:
    - » Some high school brat who can't get a date, so instead he transfers $3 billion from B to A.
    - » Doesn't help to ask if they want to do it (of course!)
- Three Pieces to Security
  - **Authentication:** who the user actually is
  - **Authorization:** who is allowed to do what
  - **Enforcement:** make sure people do only what they are supposed to do
- Loopholes in any carefully constructed system:
  - Log in as superuser and you've circumvented authentication
  - Log in as self and can do anything with your resources; for instance: run program that erases all of your files
  - Can you trust software to correctly enforce Authentication and Authorization?????

Authentication: Identifying Users

- How to identify users to the system?
  - Passwords
    - » Shared secret between two parties
    - » Since only user knows password, someone types correct password ⇒ must be user typing it
    - » Very common technique
  - Smart Cards
    - » Electronics embedded in card capable of providing long passwords or satisfying challenge → response queries
    - » May have display to allow reading of password
    - » Or can be plugged in directly; several credit cards now in this category



  - Biometrics
    - » Use of one or more intrinsic physical or behavioral traits to identify someone
    - » Examples: fingerprint reader, palm reader, retinal scan
    - » Becoming quite a bit more common

Passwords: Secrecy

- System must keep copy of secret to check against passwords
  - What if malicious user gains access to list of passwords?
    - » Need to obscure information somehow
  - Mechanism: utilize a transformation that is difficult to reverse without the right key (e.g. encryption)
- Example: UNIX /etc/passwd file
  - passwd→one way transform(hash)→encrypted passwd
  - System stores only encrypted version, so OK even if someone reads the file!
  - When you type in your password, system compares encrypted version
- Problem: Can you trust encryption algorithm?
  - Example: one algorithm thought safe had back door
    - » Governments want back door so they can snoop
  - Also, security through obscurity doesn't work
    - » GSM encryption algorithm was secret; accidentally released; Berkeley grad students cracked in a few hours

Passwords: How easy to guess?

- Ways of Compromising Passwords
  - Password Guessing:
    - » Often people use obvious information like birthday, favorite color, girlfriend's name, etc…
  - Dictionary Attack:
    - » Work way through dictionary and compare encrypted version of dictionary words with entries in /etc/passwd
  - Dumpster Diving:
    - » Find pieces of paper with passwords written on them
    - » (Also used to get social-security numbers, etc)
- Paradox:
  - Short passwords are easy to crack
  - Long ones, people write down!
- Technology means we have to use longer passwords
  - UNIX initially required lowercase, 5-letter passwords: total of 26^5=10million passwords
    - » In 1975, 10ms to check a password→1 day to crack
    - » In 2005, .01μs to check a password→0.1 seconds to crack
  - Takes less time to check for all words in the dictionary!

Passwords: Making harder to crack

- How can we make passwords harder to crack?
  - Can't make it impossible, but can help
- Technique 1: Extend everyone's password with a unique number (stored in password file)
  - Called "salt". UNIX uses 12-bit "salt", making dictionary attacks 4096 times harder
  - Without salt, would be possible to pre-compute all the words in the dictionary hashed with the UNIX algorithm: would make comparing with /etc/passwd easy!
  - Also, way that salt is combined with password designed to frustrate use of off-the-shelf DES hardware
- Technique 2: Require more complex passwords
  - Make people use at least 8-character passwords with upper-case, lower-case, and numbers
    - » 70^8=$6x10^{14}$=6million seconds=69 days@0.01μs/check
  - Unfortunately, people still pick common patterns
    - » e.g. Capitalize first letter of common word, add one digit

Passwords: Making harder to crack (con't)

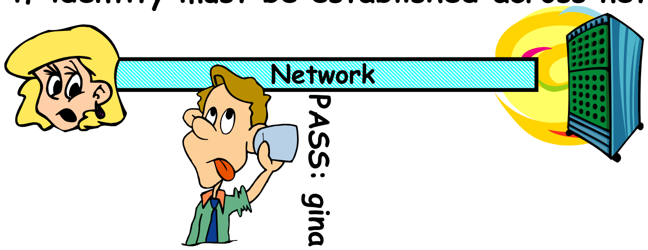
- Technique 3: Delay checking of passwords
  - If attacker doesn't have access to /etc/passwd, delay every remote login attempt by 1 second
  - Makes it infeasible for rapid-fire dictionary attack
- Technique 4: Assign very long passwords
  - Long passwords or pass-phrases can have more entropy (randomness→harder to crack)
  - Give everyone a smart card (or ATM card) to carry around to remember password
    - » Requires physical theft to steal password
    - » Can require PIN from user before authenticates self
  - Better: have smartcard generate pseudorandom number
    - » Client and server share initial seed
    - » Each second/login attempt advances to next random number
- Technique 5: "Zero-Knowledge Proof"
  - Require a series of challenge-response questions
    - » Distribute secret algorithm to user
    - » Server presents a number, say "5"; user computes something from the number and returns answer to server
    - » Server never asks same "question" twice
  - Often performed by smartcard plugged into system

Administrivia

- MIDTERM II: Wednesday December 3rd
  - 5:30-8:30pm, 10 Evans
  - All material from last midterm and up to today (lectures 13-26)
    - » Hopefully, all videos will be up by tomorrow
  - Includes virtual memory
  - One page of handwritten notes, both sides
- Review Session: Tuesday, Dec 2nd
  - 7:00-9:00, 310 Soda (Looking for larger room!)
- Final Exam
  - December 18th, 8:00-11:00am, 10 Evans
  - Covers whole course (except last lecture)
  - Two pages of handwritten notes, both sides
- Final Topics: Any suggestions?

Authentication in Distributed Systems

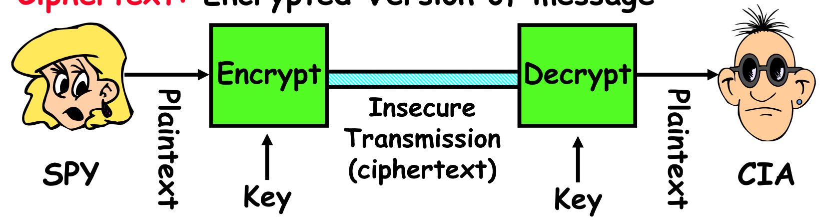
- What if identity must be established across network?



  - Need way to prevent exposure of information while still proving identity to remote system
  - Many of the original UNIX tools sent passwords over the wire "in clear text"
    - » E.g.: telnet, ftp, yp (yellow pages, for distributed login)
    - » Result: Snooping programs widespread
- What do we need? Cannot rely on physical security!
  - Encryption: Privacy, restrict receivers
  - Authentication: Remote Authenticity, restrict senders

Private Key Cryptography

- Private Key (Symmetric) Encryption:
  - Single key used for both encryption and decryption
- Plaintext: Unencrypted Version of message
- Ciphertext: Encrypted Version of message

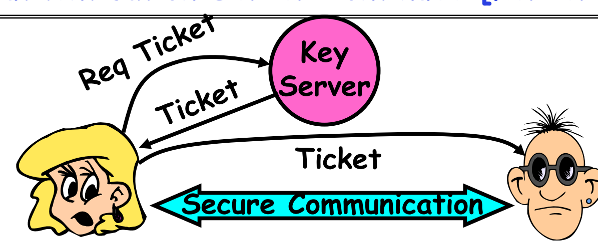


- Important properties
  - Can't derive plain text from ciphertext (decode) without access to key
  - Can't derive key from plain text and ciphertext
  - As long as password stays secret, get both secrecy and authentication
- Symmetric Key Algorithms: DES, Triple-DES, AES

Key Distribution

- How do you get shared secret to both places?
  - For instance: how do you send authenticated, secret mail to someone who you have never met?
  - Must negotiate key over private channel
    - » Exchange code book
    - » Key cards/memory stick/others
- Third Party: Authentication Server (like Kerberos)
  - Notation:
    - » K_{xy} is key for talking between x and y
    - » $(\ldots)^K$ means encrypt message (…) with the key K
    - » Clients: A and B, Authentication server S
  - A asks server for key:
    - » $A\rightarrow S$: [Hi! I'd like a key for talking between A and B]
    - » Not encrypted. Others can find out if A and B are talking
  - Server returns *session* key encrypted using B's key
    - » $S\rightarrow A$: Message [Use K_{ab} (This is A! Use K_{ab})^{Ksb}] ^{Ksa}
    - » This allows A to know, "S said use this key"
  - Whenever A wants to talk with B
    - » $A\rightarrow B$: Ticket [This is A! Use K_{ab}]^{Ksb}
    - » Now, B knows that K_{ab} is sanctioned by S

Authentication Server Continued [Kerberos]



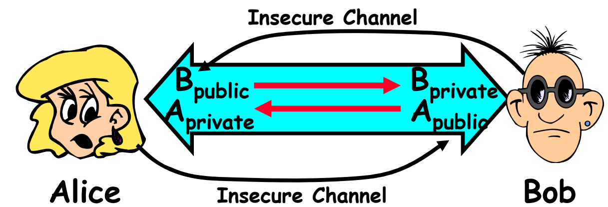
- Details
  - Both A and B use passwords (shared with key server) to decrypt return from key servers
  - Add in timestamps to limit how long tickets will be used to prevent attacker from replaying messages later
  - Also have to include encrypted checksums (hashed version of message) to prevent malicious user from inserting things into messages/changing messages
  - Want to minimize # times A types in password
    - » $A\rightarrow S$ (Give me temporary secret)
    - » $S\rightarrow A$ (Use $K_{temp-sa}$ for next 8 hours)^{Ksa}
    - » Can now use $K_{temp-sa}$ in place of K_{sa} in prototcol

Public Key Encryption

- Can we perform key distribution without an authentication server?
  - Yes. Use a Public-Key Cryptosystem.
- Public Key Details
  - Don't have one key, have two: K_{public}, $K_{private}$
    - » Two keys are mathematically related to one another
    - » Really hard to derive K_{public} from $K_{private}$ and vice versa
  - Forward encryption:
    - » Encrypt: $(cleartext)^{Kpublic} = ciphertext_1$
    - » Decrypt: $(ciphertext_1)^{Kprivate} = cleartext$
  - Reverse encryption:
    - » Encrypt: $(cleartext)^{Kprivate} = ciphertext_2$
    - » Decrypt: $(ciphertext_2)^{Kpublic} = cleartext$
  - Note that $ciphertext_1 \neq ciphertext_2$
    - » Can't derive one from the other!
- Public Key Examples:
  - RSA: Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman
    - » K_{public} of form (k_{public}, N), $K_{private}$ of form $(k_{private}, N)$
    - » N = pq. Can break code if know p and q
  - ECC: Elliptic Curve Cryptography

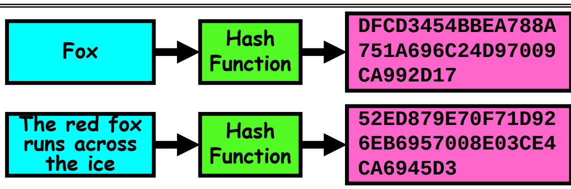
Public Key Encryption Details

- Idea: K_{public} can be made public, keep $K_{private}$ private



- Gives message privacy (restricted receiver):
  - Public keys (secure destination points) can be acquired by anyone/used by anyone
  - Only person with private key can decrypt message
- What about authentication?
  - Use combination of private and public key
  - Alice→Bob: $[(I'm\ Alice)^{Aprivate}\ Rest\ of\ message]^{Bpublic}$
  - Provides restricted sender and receiver
- But: how does Alice know that it was Bob who sent her B_{public}? And vice versa…

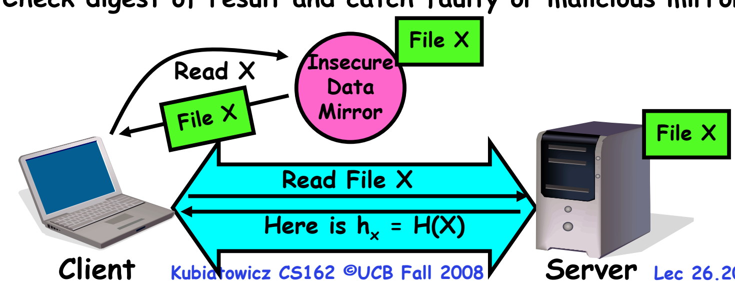
Secure Hash Function



- Hash Function: Short summary of data (message)
  - For instance, $h_1=H(M_1)$ is the hash of message M_1
    - » h_1 fixed length, despite size of message M_1.
    - » Often, h_1 is called the "digest" of M_1.
- Hash function H is considered secure if
  - It is infeasible to find M_2 with $h_1=H(M_2)$; ie. can't easily find other message with same digest as given message.
  - It is infeasible to locate two messages, m_1 and m_2, which "collide", i.e. for which $H(m_1) = H(m_2)$
  - A small change in a message changes many bits of digest/can't tell anything about message given its hash

Use of Hash Functions

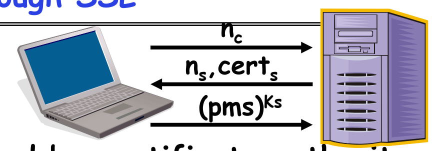
- Several Standard Hash Functions:
  - MD5: 128-bit output
  - SHA-1: 160-bit output, SHA-256: 256-bit output
- Can we use hashing to securely reduce load on server?
  - Yes. Use a series of insecure mirror servers (caches)
  - First, ask server for digest of desired file
    - » Use secure channel with server
  - Then ask mirror server for file
    - » Can be insecure channel
    - » Check digest of result and catch faulty or malicious mirrors



Signatures/Certificate Authorities

- Can use X_{public} for person X to define their identity
  - Presumably they are the only ones who know $X_{private}$.
  - Often, we think of X_{public} as a "principle" (user)
- Suppose we want X to sign message M?
  - Use private key to encrypt the digest, i.e. $H(M)^{Xprivate}$
  - Send both M and its signature:
    - » Signed message = $[M, H(M)^{Xprivate}]$
  - Now, anyone can verify that M was signed by X
    - » Simply decrypt the digest with X_{public}
    - » Verify that result matches H(M)
- Now: How do we know that the version of X_{public} that we have is really from X???
  - Answer: Certificate Authority
    - » Examples: Verisign, Entrust, Etc.
  - X goes to organization, presents identifying papers
    - » Organization signs X's key: [X_{public}, $H(X_{public})^{CAprivate}$]
    - » Called a "Certificate"
  - Before we use X_{public}, ask X for certificate verifying key
    - » Check that signature over X_{public} produced by trusted authority
- How do we get keys of certificate authority?
  - Compiled into your browser, for instance!

Security through SSL



- SSL Web Protocol
  - Port 443: secure http
  - Use public-key encryption for key-distribution
- Server has a certificate signed by certificate authority
  - Contains server info (organization, IP address, etc)
  - Also contains server's public key and expiration date
- Establishment of Shared, 48-byte "master secret"
  - Client sends 28-byte random value n_c to server
  - Server returns its own 28-byte random value n_s, plus its certificate $cert_s$
  - Client verifies certificate by checking with public key of certificate authority compiled into browser
    - » Also check expiration date
  - Client picks 46-byte "premaster" secret (pms), encrypts it with public key of server, and sends to server
  - Now, both server and client have n_c, n_s, and pms
    - » Each can compute 48-byte master secret using one-way and collision-resistant function on three values
    - » Random "nonces" n_c and n_s make sure master secret fresh

SSL Pitfalls

- Netscape claimed to provide secure comm. (SSL)
  - So you could send a credit card # over the Internet
- Three problems (reported in NYT):
  - Algorithm for picking session keys was predictable (used time of day) – brute force key in a few hours
  - Made new version of Netscape to fix #1, available to users over Internet (unencrypted!)
    - » Four byte patch to Netscape executable makes it always use a specific session key
    - » Could insert backdoor by mangling packets containing executable as they fly by on the Internet.
    - » Many mirror sites (including Berkeley) to redistribute new version – anyone with root access to any machine on LAN at mirror site could insert the backdoor
  - Buggy helper applications – can exploit *any* bug in either Netscape, or its helper applications

Recall: Authorization: Who Can Do What?

domain \ object	F_1	F_2	F_3	printer
D_1	read		read	
D_2				print
D_3		read	execute	
D_4	read write		read write	

- How do we decide who is authorized to do actions in the system?
- Access Control Matrix: contains all permissions in the system
  - Resources across top
    - » Files, Devices, etc…
  - Domains in columns
    - » A domain might be a user or a group of permissions
    - » E.g. above: User D_3 can read F_2 or execute F_3
  - In practice, table would be huge and sparse!
- Two approaches to implementation
  - Access Control Lists: store permissions with each object
    - » Still might be lots of users!
    - » UNIX limits each file to: r,w,x for owner, group, world
    - » More recent systems allow definition of groups of users and permissions for each group
  - Capability List: each process tracks objects has permission to touch
    - » Popular in the past, idea out of favor today
    - » Consider page table: Each process has list of pages it has access to, not each page has list of processes …

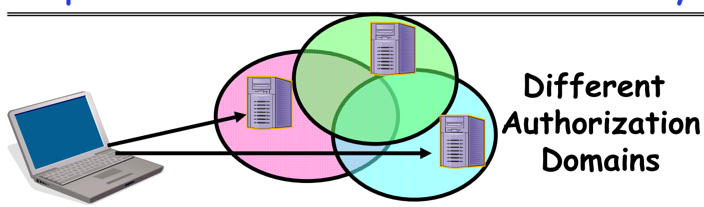
How fine-grained should access control be?

- Example of the problem:
  - Suppose you buy a copy of a new game from "Joe's Game World" and then run it.
  - It's running with your userid
    - » It removes all the files you own, including the project due the next day…
- How can you prevent this?
  - Have to run the program under *some* userid.
    - » Could create a second *games* userid for the user, which has no write privileges.
    - » Like the "nobody" userid in UNIX – can't do much
  - But what if the game needs to write out a file recording scores?
    - » Would need to give write privileges to one particular file (or directory) to your *games* userid.
  - But what about non-game programs you want to use, such as Quicken?
    - » Now you need to create your own private *quicken* userid, if you want to make sure tha the copy of Quicken you bought can't corrupt non-quicken-related files
  - But – how to get this right??? Pretty complex…

Authorization Continued

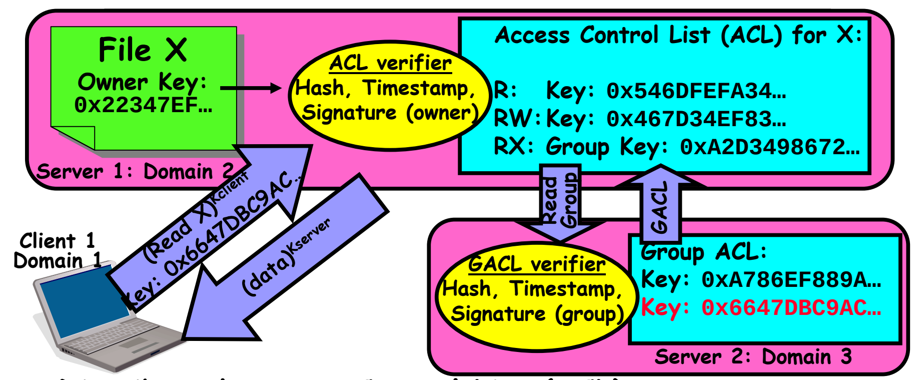
- Principle of least privilege: programs, users, and systems should get only enough privileges to perform their tasks
  - Very hard to do in practice
    - » How do you figure out what the minimum set of privileges is needed to run your programs?
  - People often run at higher privilege then necessary
    - » Such as the "administrator" privilege under windows
- One solution: Signed Software
  - Only use software from sources that you trust, thereby dealing with the problem by means of authentication
  - Fine for big, established firms such as Microsoft, since they can make their signing keys well known and people trust them
    - » Actually, not always fine: recently, one of Microsoft's signing keys was compromised, leading to malicious software that looked valid
  - What about new startups?
    - » Who "validates" them?
    - » How easy is it to fool them?

How to perform Authorization for Distributed Systems?



- Issues: Are all user names in world unique?
  - No! They only have small number of characters
    - » kubi@mit.edu → kubitron@lcs.mit.edu → kubitron@cs.berkeley.edu
    - » However, someone thought their friend was kubi@mit.edu and I got very private email intended for someone else…
  - Need something better, more unique to identify person
- Suppose want to connect with any server at any time?
  - Need an account on every machine! (possibly with different user name for each account)
  - OR: Need to use something more universal as identity
    - » Public Keys! (Called "Principles")
    - » People *are* their public keys

Distributed Access Control



- Distributed Access Control List (ACL)
  - Contains list of attributes (Read, Write, Execute, etc) with attached identities (Here, we show public keys)
    - » ACLs signed by owner of file, only changeable by owner
    - » Group lists signed by group key
  - ACLs can be on different servers than data
    - » Signatures allow us to validate them
    - » ACLs could even be stored separately from verifiers

Analysis of Previous Scheme

- **Positive Points:**
  - Identities checked via signatures and public keys
    - » Client can't generate request for data unless they have private key to go with their public identity
    - » Server won't use ACLs not properly signed by owner of file
  - No problems with multiple domains, since identities designed to be cross-domain (public keys domain neutral)
- **Revocation:**
  - What if someone steals your private key?
    - » Need to walk through all ACLs with your key and change…!
    - » This is very expensive
  - Better to have unique string identifying you that people place into ACLs
    - » Then, ask Certificate Authority to give you a certificate matching unique string to your current public key
    - » Client Request: (request + unique ID)^{Cprivate}; give server certificate if they ask for it.
    - » Key compromise⇒must distribute "certificate revocation", since can't wait for previous certificate to expire.
  - What if you remove someone from ACL of a given file?
    - » If server caches old ACL, then person retains access!
    - » Here, cache inconsistency leads to security violations!

Conclusion

- User Identification
  - Passwords/Smart Cards/Biometrics
- Passwords
  - Encrypt them to help hid them
  - Force them to be longer/not amenable to dictionary attack
  - Use zero-knowledge request-response techniques
- Distributed identity
  - Use cryptography
- Symmetrical (or Private Key) Encryption
  - Single Key used to encode and decode
  - Introduces key-distribution problem
- Public-Key Encryption
  - Two keys: a public key and a private key
- Secure Hash Function
  - Used to summarize data
  - Hard to find another block of data with same hash
- Authorization
  - Abstract table of users (or domains) vs permissions
  - Implemented either as access-control list or capability list