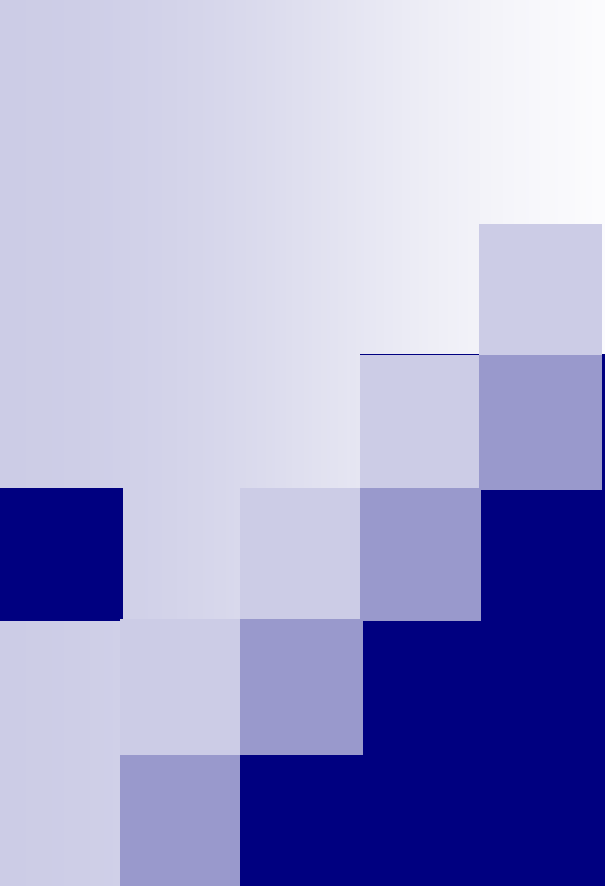




Distributed Systems

Lecture 12

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Spring 2013



Security

- Introduction
- Secure channels
- Access control
- Security management

Dependability Revisited

- **Basics:** A **component** provides **services** to **clients**
- To provide services, a component might require services of other components and, thus, it might **depend** on other components
- Properties of dependability
 - Availability** Readiness for usage
 - Reliability** Continuity of service delivery
 - Safety** Very low probability of catastrophes
 - Maintainability** Ease with which a failed system be repaired
 - Confidentiality** No unauthorized disclosure of information
 - Integrity** No accidental or malicious alterations of information (even by authorized entities)
- **Note:** In distributed systems, **security** is the combination of **confidentiality** and **integrity**. A **dependable** distributed system is thus **fault-tolerant** and **secure**

Security Threats

- **Subject:** Entity capable of issuing a request for a service provided by an object
- **Channel:** The carrier of requests and replies for services
- **Object:** Entity providing services to subjects
- Channels and objects are subject to **security threats**

Threat	Channel	Object
☐ Interruption	Preventing message transfer	Denial of service
☐ Inspection	Reading contents of transferred messages	Reading data contained in an object
☐ Modification	Changing message content	Changing an object's data
☐ Fabrication	Inserting messages	Spoofing an object

Security Mechanisms

- **Security mechanism:** Protects against security threats. Some security mechanisms are:
 - **Encryption:** Transform data into other data that an attacker cannot understand (confidentiality). Also used to check whether data have been modified (integrity)
 - **Authentication:** Verify that a subject is who he/she claims to be, i.e., verify the identity of a subject
 - **Authorization:** Determine whether a subject is permitted to use certain services
 - **Auditing:** Trace what data subjects accessed, and how they did so. Useful only if it can help catch an attacker
- **Note:** Authorization makes sense only if the requesting subject has been authenticated

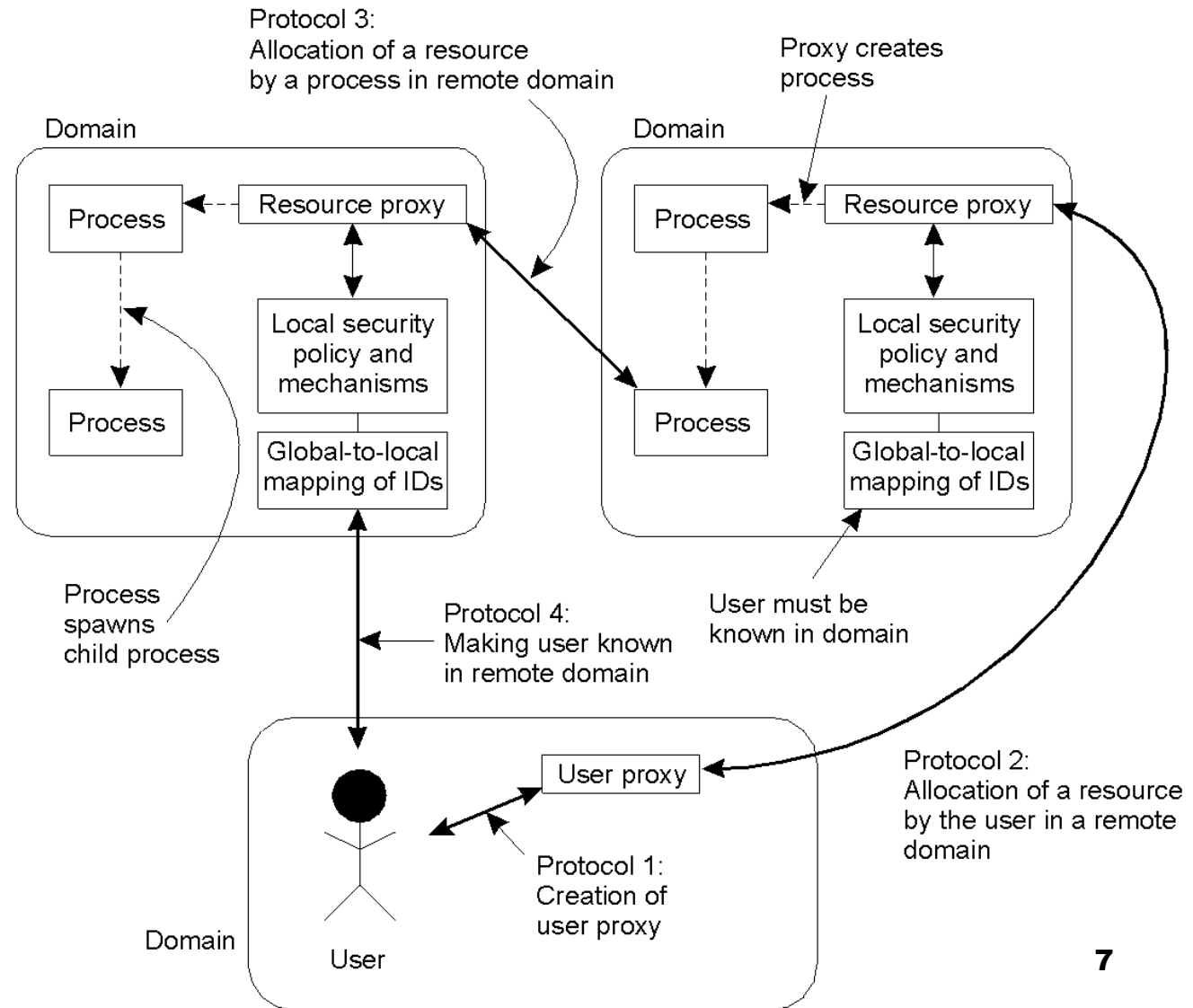
Security Policies

- **Security policy:** Prescribes how to use mechanisms to protect against attacks. Requires that a model of possible attacks is described, i.e., a **security architecture**
- **Example: Globus security architecture**
 - There are multiple administrative domains
 - Local operations are subject to local security policies
 - Global operations require requester to be globally known
 - Inter-domain operations require mutual authentication
 - Global authentication replaces local authentication
 - Users can delegate privileges to processes
 - Processes in the same domain can share credentials

Globus Security Architecture

■ Policies lead to mechanisms for cross-domain authentication and users who are globally known =>

user proxies and **resource proxies**



Protection of Data

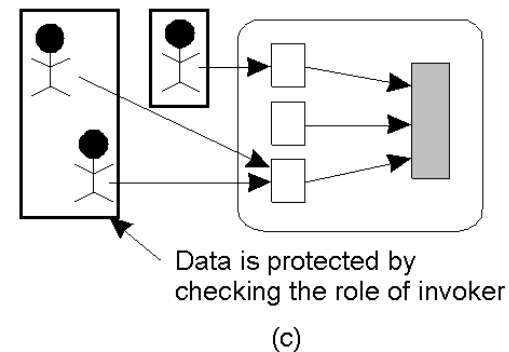
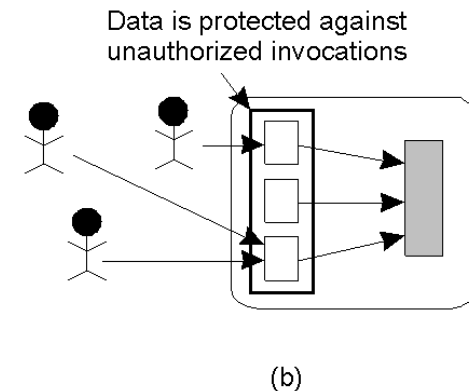
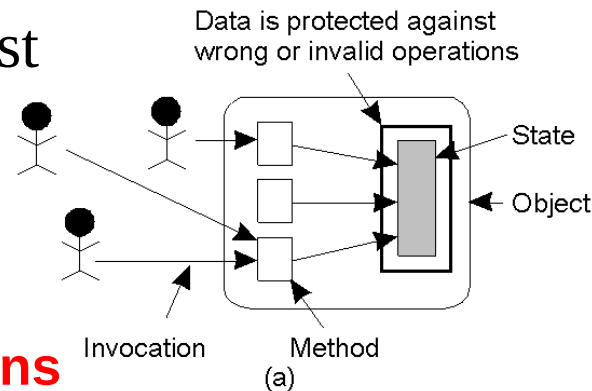
- Three approaches for protection of data against security threats

(a) Protection against **invalid operations**

(b) Protection against **unauthorized invocations**

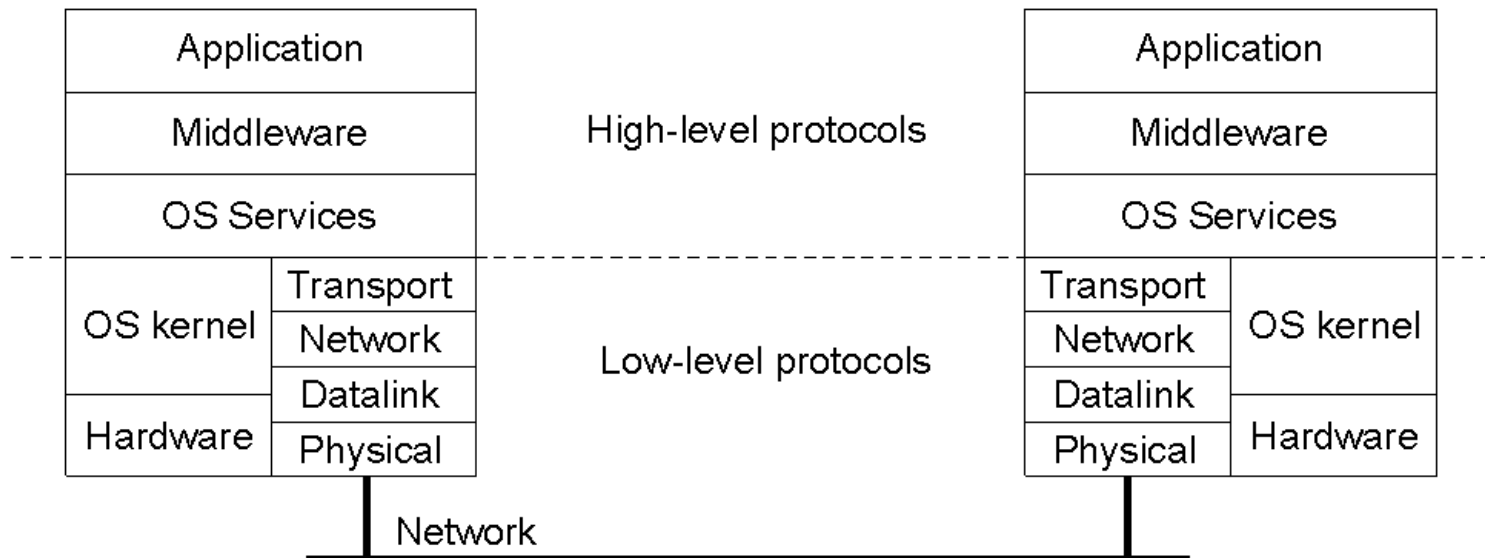
(c) Protection against **unauthorized users**

- Note: Generally, we need all three, but each requires different mechanisms



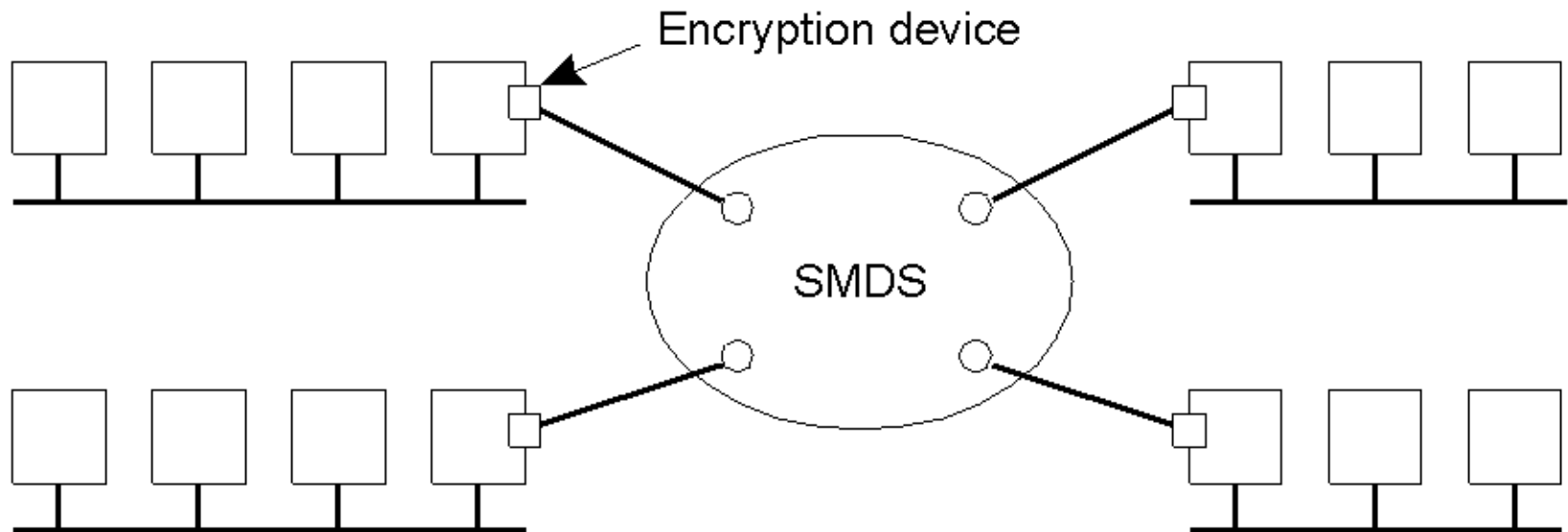
Layering of Security Mechanisms

- The logical organization of a distributed system into several layers
At which logical level should we implement security mechanisms?
- Whether security mechanisms are actually used is related to the **trust** a user has in those mechanisms. No trust => implement your own
- **Trusted Computing Base (TCB)**: What is the set of mechanisms needed to enforce a security policy? The smaller, the better



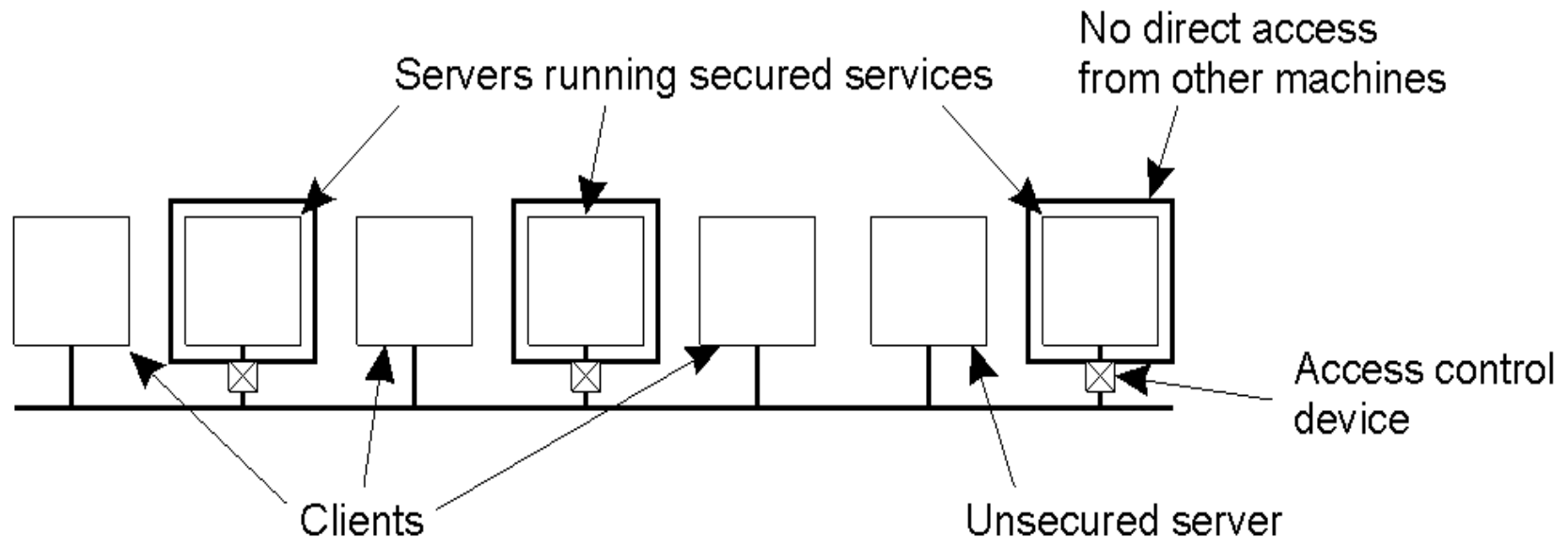
Layering of Security Mechanisms

- **Encryption devices** for local-area networks of computers connected through a wide-area backbone service, called the Switched Multi-Megabit Data Service (SMDS)



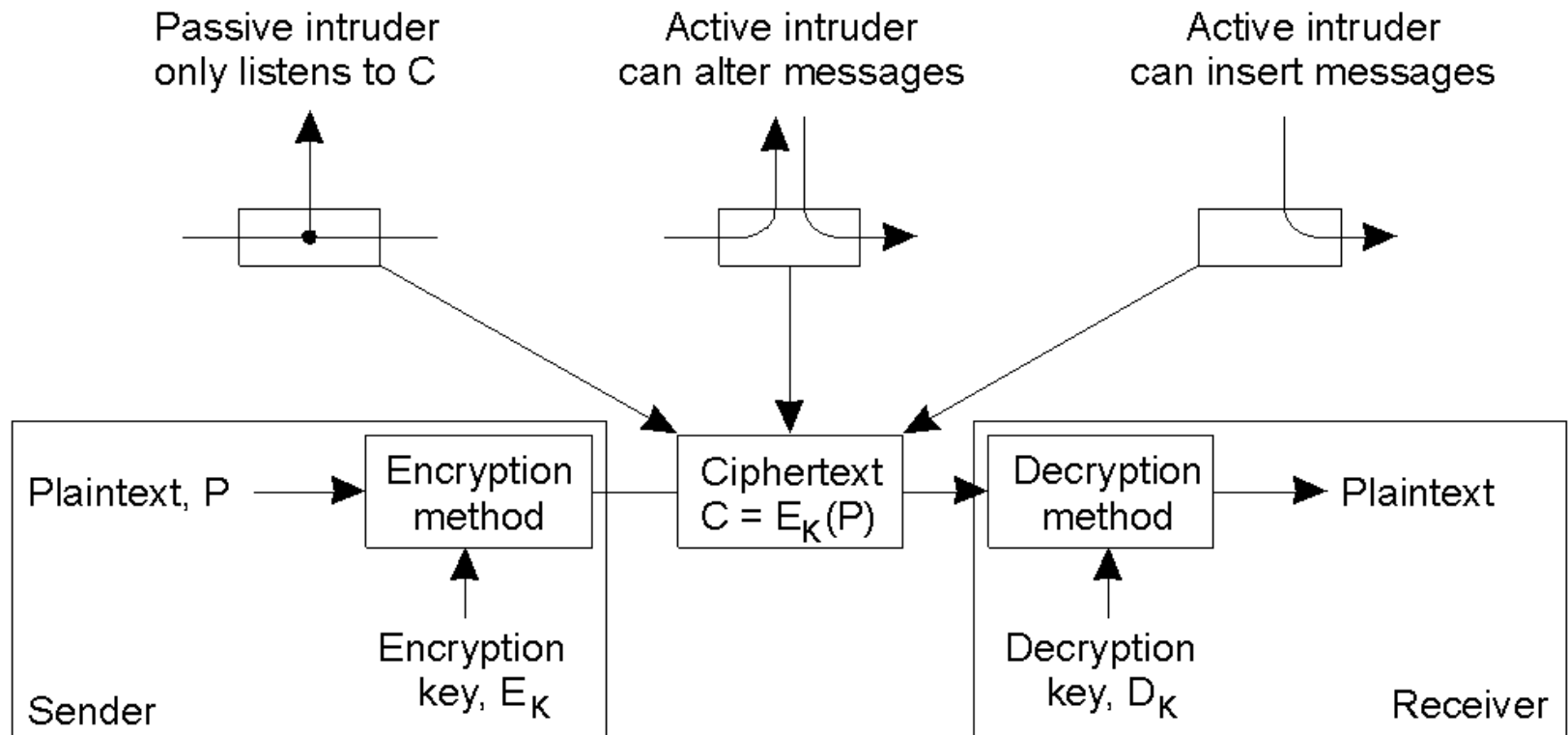
Layering of Security Mechanisms

- **Access control devices** on several computers that provide Reduced Interfaces for Secure System Component (RISSC)



Cryptography

- Intruders and eavesdroppers in communication, and the use of encryption and decryption



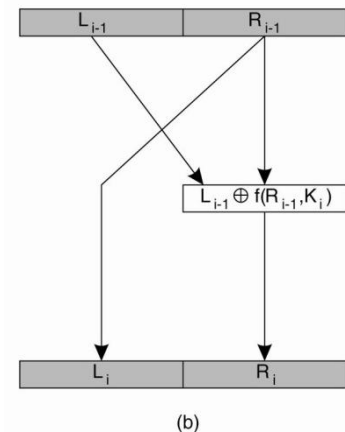
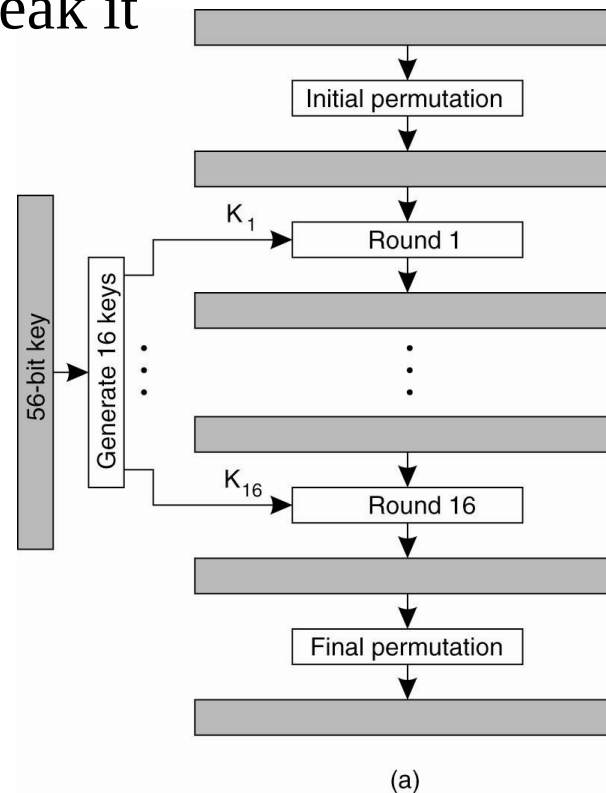
Cryptography

■ Different kinds of Cryptographic Systems

- **Symmetric System:** Use a **single** key to encrypt the plaintext and to decrypt the ciphertext. The sender and the receiver **share** a secret key
- **Asymmetric System (Public Key Cryptosystem):** Use different keys for encryption and decryption, one **public** and one **private**
- **Hashing System:** Encrypt the data and produce a fixed-length **digest**. No decryption; only comparison

Symmetric Cryptosystem

- **Data Encryption Standard (DES) Algorithm**, U.S. standard for unclassified information, developed by IBM (1974)
- **Aim:** To make the encryption algorithm so complicated that not even a computer can break it
- Same key for encryption and decryption
- Encrypts in 64-bit blocks
- Uses 56-bit key
- Has 19 stages, 16 stages that each use a different key K_i as the parameter of the function f



Symmetric Cryptosystem

■ DES Algorithm

□ Each iteration i of the 16 iterations uses a different key K_i

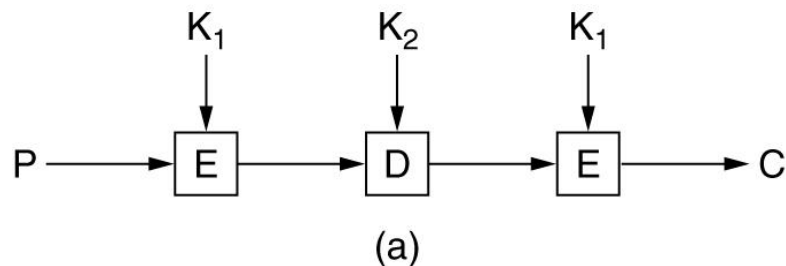
1. Before the algorithm starts, apply a 56-bit transposition to the key
2. Before each iteration i , partition the key into two 28-bit numbers, and rotate the left half by the number of bits determined by the iteration number i
3. Obtain the key K_i from the rotated key by applying another 56-bit transposition

□ The function f involves four steps

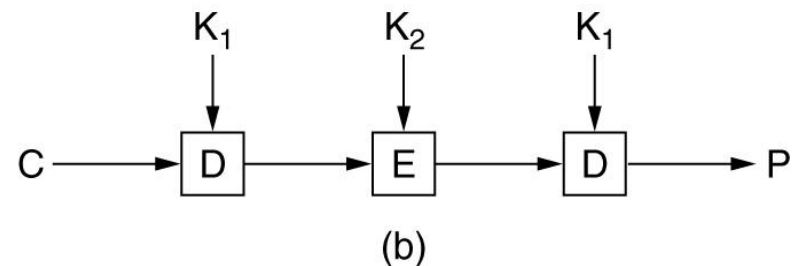
1. Construct a 48-bit number E by expanding a 32-bit number R_{i-1} according to a transposition and duplication rule
2. XOR E and K_i
3.
 - a. Partition the output into 8 groups of 6 bits each
 - b. Input each group to a different substitution box
 - c. Substitution box produces 4 output bits
 - d. Result is 8 4-bit numbers
4. Pass 32 bits through a permutation box

Symmetric Cryptosystem

- **Triple DES** – Effectively increases the key length, uses two keys K_1 and K_2 and three stages
 - In the first stage, encrypt the plaintext using DES in the usual way with the key K_1
 - In the second stage, run DES in decryption mode, using the key K_2
 - In the third stage, encrypt again using DES with the key K_1



Triple DES Encryption



Triple DES Decryption

Asymmetric Cryptosystem

- **Diffie Hellman Algorithm** (1976) – Radically different from a symmetric cryptosystem; uses *different* keys (rather than the same key) for encryption and decryption
- Uses an encryption algorithm E and a decryption algorithm D, such that even if you know E you can't determine D
- Three requirements:
 - $D(E(P)) = P$
 - Can't deduce D (private) from E (public)
 - Can't break D by a plaintext attack
- A makes public its encryption algorithm and key E_A
B makes public its encryption algorithm and key E_B
- A encrypts A's message P using B's public key E_B to obtain $E_B(P)$
B decrypts A's message using B's private key D_B to obtain $D_B(E_B(P)) = P$

Asymmetric Cryptosystem

- **RSA algorithm** - named after Rivest, Shamir, Adelman (1978)
- Four steps:
 1. Choose two large primes p and q (typically 1024 bits)
 2. Compute $n = p \times q$ and $z = (p-1) \times (q-1)$
 3. Find a number d relatively prime to z
 4. Find a number e such that $e \times d \equiv 1 \pmod{z}$
- Divide the plaintext into blocks P of k bits where k is the largest integer such that $2^k < n \Rightarrow 0 \leq P < n$
- The **public** key consists of the pair (e, n)
The **private** key consists of the pair (d, n)
- To **encrypt** P , compute $C = P^e \pmod{n}$
To **decrypt** C , compute $P = C^d \pmod{n}$
- RSA algorithm is based on the difficulty of factoring large numbers
 - If you can factor n , then you know p and q , and also z
 - If you know z and e , you can find d

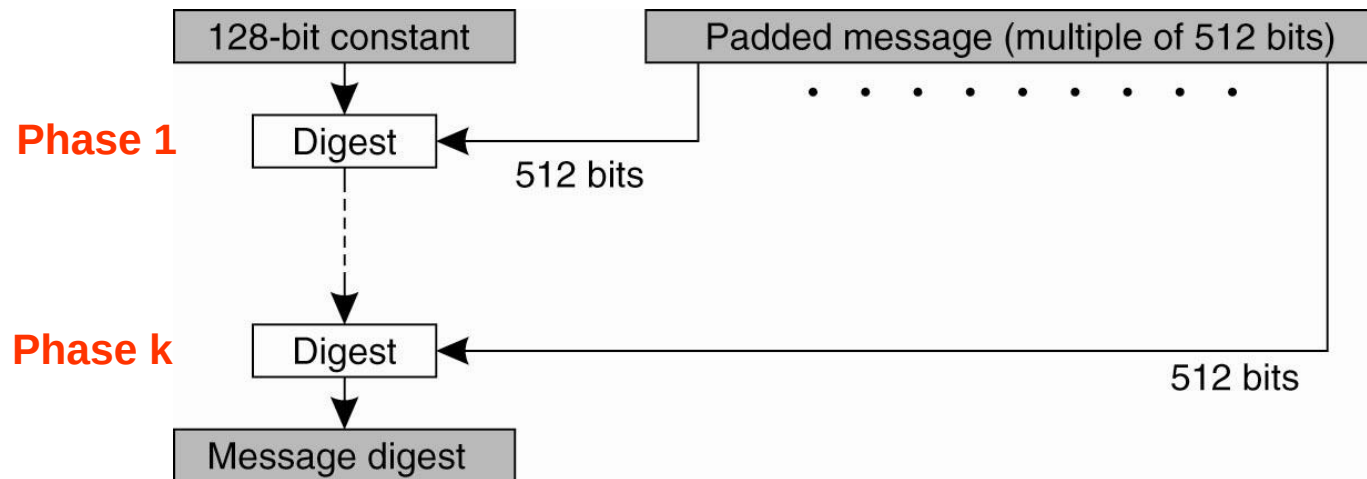
Asymmetric Cryptosystem

- A simple example of the RSA algorithm
 - $p = 3, q = 11 \Rightarrow n = p \times q = 33$ and $z = (p-1) \times (q-1) = 20$
 - Find d relatively prime to z , e.g., $d = 7$
 - Find e by solving $7 \times e \equiv 1 \pmod{20}$, e.g., $e = 3$
 - $C \equiv P^3 \pmod{33}, P \equiv C^7 \pmod{33}$

Plaintext (P)		Ciphertext (C)			After decryption	
Symbolic	Numeric	P^3	$P^3 \pmod{33}$	C^7	$C^7 \pmod{33}$	Symbolic
S	19	6859	28	13492928512	19	S
U	21	9261	21	1801088541	21	U
Z	26	17576	20	1280000000	26	Z
A	01	1	1	1	01	A
N	14	2744	5	78125	14	N
N	14	2744	5	78125	14	N
E	05	125	26	8031810176	05	E
Sender's computation				Receiver's computation		

Hash Function

- **MD5** – Hash function for computing a 128-bit fixed-length **message digest** from an arbitrary-length binary input string
 - **Convert the input string to a sequence of k 512-bit blocks**
 - (a) Pad the input string to a total length of $448 \text{ bits mod } 512$
 - (b) Add the length of the original bit string as a 64-bit integer



Hash Function

■ MD5 (continued)

□ The algorithm then proceeds in k phases

During each phase, a 128-bit digest is computed from the 512-bit block and the 128-bit digest in the preceding phase

□ A phase consists of four rounds of computation

Each round uses one of the following four functions:

$$F(x,y,z) = (x \text{ AND } y) \text{ OR } ((\text{NOT } x) \text{ AND } z)$$

$$G(x,y,z) = (x \text{ AND } z) \text{ OR } (y \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } z))$$

$$H(x,y,z) = x \text{ XOR } y \text{ XOR } z$$

$$I(x,y,z) = y \text{ XOR } (x \text{ OR } (\text{NOT } z))$$

- MD5 uses only AND, OR, NOT, XOR, and can be implemented in hardware, but is still quite complex (see the text p. 396 for an example)

Cryptographic Functions

- **Essence:** Make the encryption method E public, but let the encryption as a whole be parameterized by means of a key K (same for decryption)
- **One-way function:** Given an output message m_{out} of E_K , it is computationally infeasible to find an input message m_{in} such that $E_K(m_{\text{in}}) = m_{\text{out}}$
- **Weak collision resistance:** Given a pair $m, E_K(m)$, it is computationally infeasible to find a different input message $m^* \neq m$ such that $E_K(m^*) = E_K(m)$
- **Strong collision resistance:** It is computationally infeasible to find two different input messages $m \neq m^*$ such that $E_K(m) = E_K(m^*)$

Cryptographic Functions

- **One-way key:** Given an encrypted message m_{out} , a message m_{in} , and an encryption function E , it is computationally infeasible to find a key K such that $m_{\text{out}} = E_K(m_{\text{in}})$
- **Weak key collision resistance:** Given a triplet m, K, E , it is computationally infeasible to find a different key $K^* \neq K$ such that $E_{K^*}(m) = E_K(m)$
- **Strong key collision resistance:** It is computationally infeasible to find two different keys $K \neq K^*$ such that for all messages m $E_K(m) = E_{K^*}(m)$
- **Note:** Not all cryptographic functions have keys, for example, hash functions do not

Secure Channels

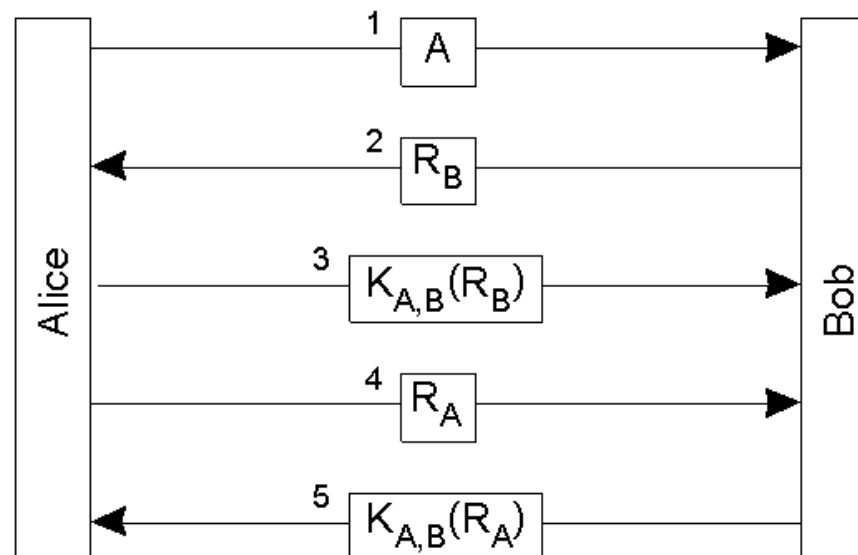
- **Goal:** Set up a channel for secure communication between two processes with the following properties
 - **Authentication:** They both know who is on the other side of the channel
 - **Integrity:** They both know that messages cannot be tampered with
 - **Confidentiality:** They both know messages cannot be leaked

Authentication vs. Integrity

- **Note:** Authentication and integrity rely on each other
- Consider an active attack by Trudy on the communication from Alice to Bob
- **Authentication without integrity:** Alice's message is authenticated, but it is intercepted by Trudy, who tampers with its contents, but leaves the authentication part in tact
 - **Authentication has become meaningless**
- **Integrity without authentication:** Trudy intercepts a message from Alice, and then makes Bob believe that the contents were really sent by Trudy
 - **Integrity has become meaningless**
- **Question:** What can we say about authentication and integrity vs. confidentiality?

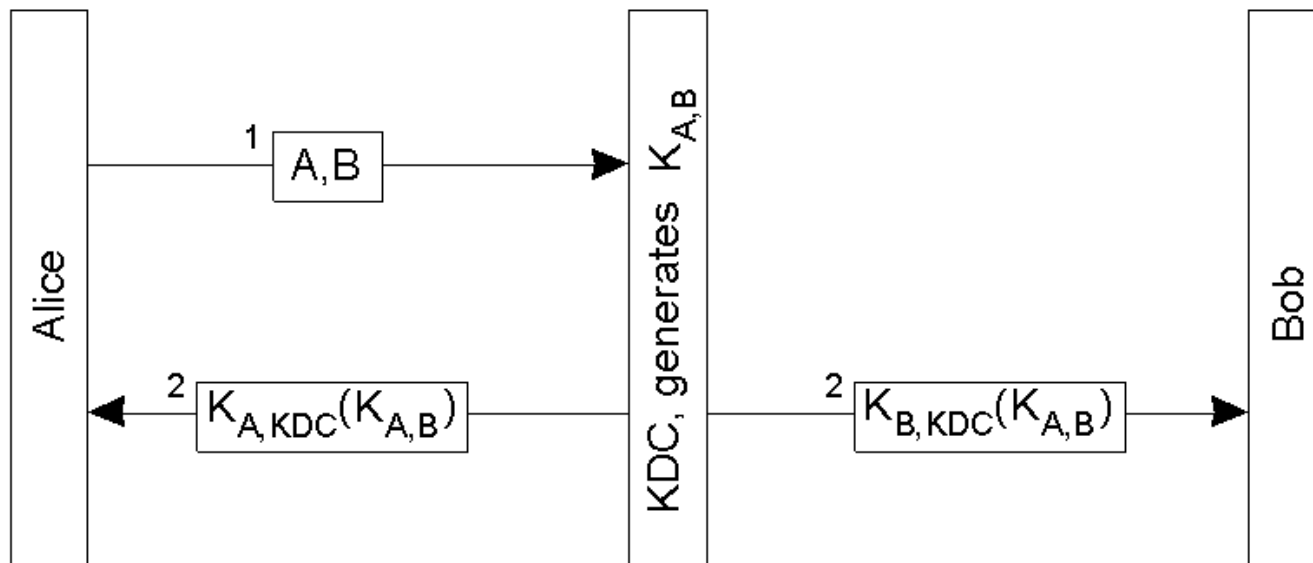
Authentication

- Authentication based on a **shared secret key** $K_{A,B}$ with a **nonce** R_A for Alice and a **nonce** R_B for Bob
 - A **nonce** is a number used only once, such as a timestamp, that is used to relate two (or more) messages to each other and that the response is not a replay of an older message



Authentication Using a Key Distribution Center

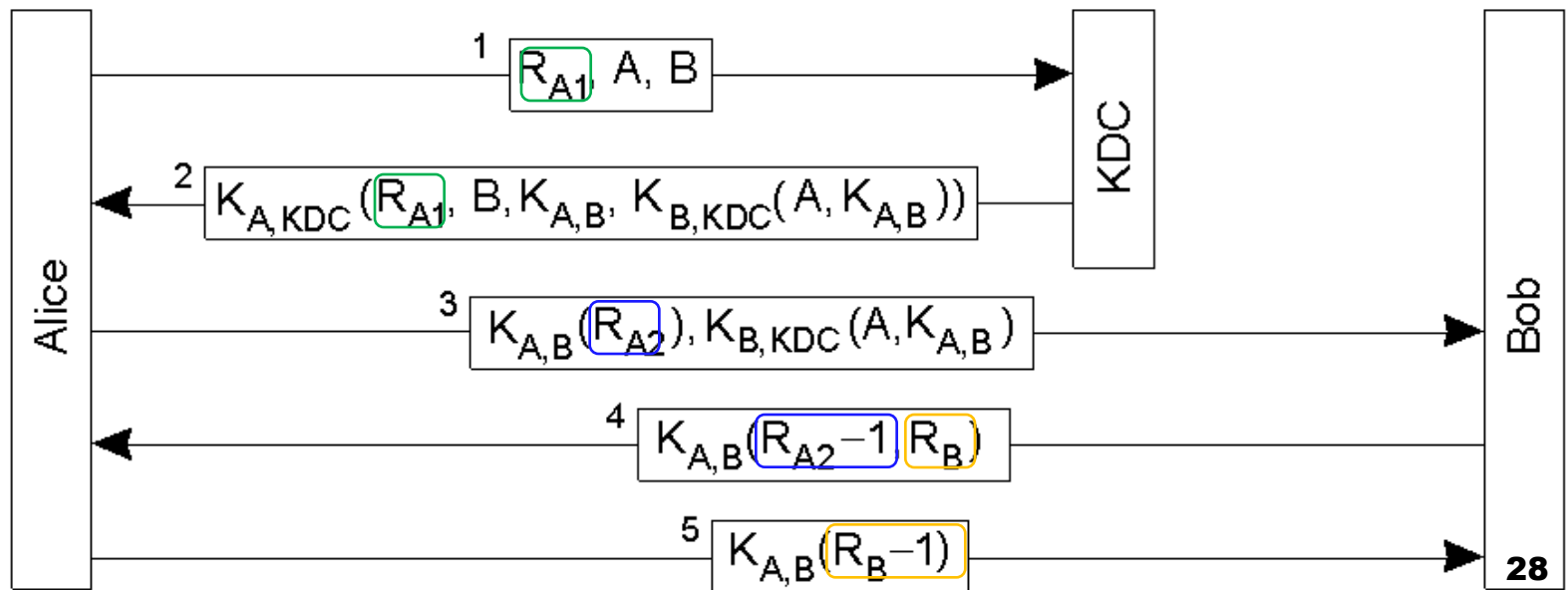
- **Problem:** With N subjects, we need to manage $N(N-1)/2$ shared keys, each subject knowing $N-1$ keys
- **Solution:** Use a trusted **Key Distribution Center (KDC)** that generates a **shared session key** $K_{A,B}$ when necessary
 - Then we need only N keys: $K_{A,KDC}$ for Alice, $K_{B,KDC}$ for Bob, etc.



Authentication Using a Key Distribution Center

■ **Needham-Schroeder authentication protocol** that uses:

- **Shared session key** $K_{A,B}$
- **Ticket** $K_{B,KDC}(A, K_{A,B})$ that enables Alice to tell Bob what the shared key is
- **Nonce** R_{A1} for Alice with the KDC
- **Nonce** R_{A2} for Alice with Bob
- **Nonce** R_R for Bob with Alice

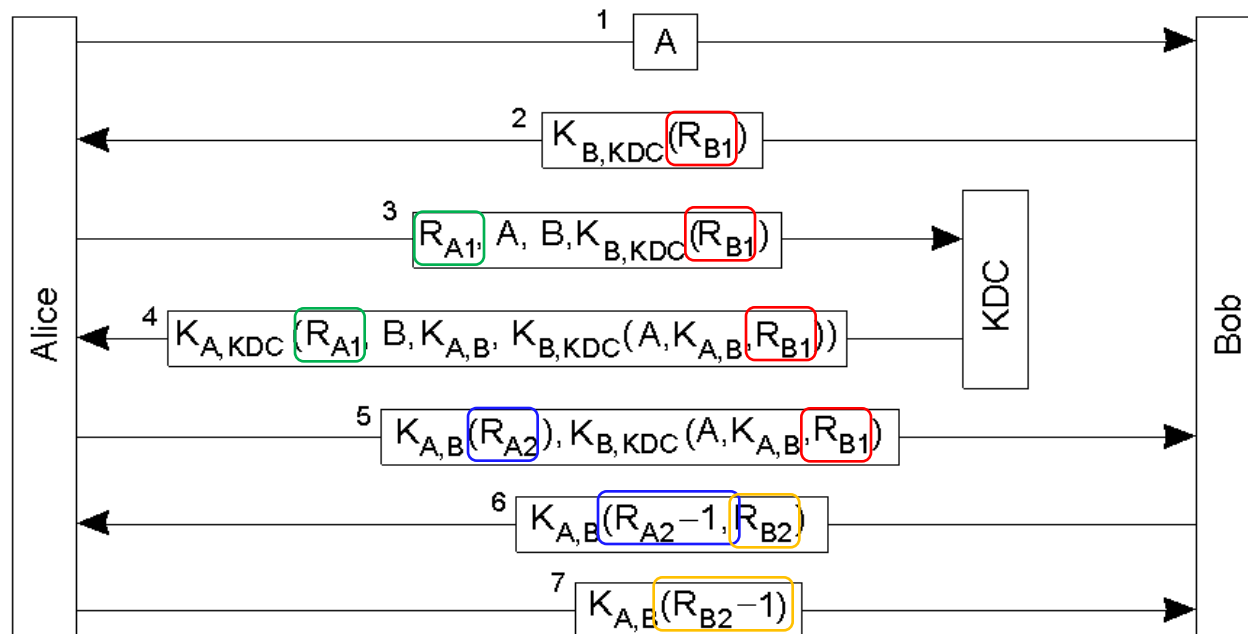


Needham-Schroeder: Subtleties

- **Question 1:** Why does the KDC put Bob into its reply message, and Alice into the ticket?
- **Question 2:** The message sent back to Alice by the KDC is encrypted with Alice's key. Is this necessary?
- **Security flaw:** Suppose Chuck discovers Alice's private key $K_{A,KDC}$. He can use that key anytime to impersonate Alice, even if Alice changes her private key at the KDC
- **Reasoning:** Once Chuck discovers Alice's private key $K_{A,KDC}$, he can use it to decrypt a (possibly old) ticket for a session with Bob, and convince Bob to talk to him using the old session key
- **Solution:** Have Alice get an encrypted nonce from Bob first, and put the encrypted nonce in the ticket provided by the KDC => thus ensuring that every session is known at the KDC

Authentication Using a Key Distribution Center

- Fixing the security flaw in the Needham-Schroeder protocol to protect against malicious reuse of a previous session key
 - Bob communicates with Alice providing a **nonce** R_{B1} for Bob with Alice
 - The nonce R_{B1} is included in four messages, so Chuck can't replay an old message sequence



Authentication Using Public Key Cryptography

- Mutual authentication in a public key cryptosystem, using:
 - Bob's public key K_B^+
 - Alice's public key K_A^+
 - Alice's nonce R_A
 - Bob's nonce R_B
- Bob sends a **session key** $K_{A,B}$ to Alice, encrypted with Alice's public key K_A^+
- Alice decrypts it with her private key K_A^-

