

Security: Principles and Practice

Question

- Can you write a self-replicating C program?
 - program that when run, outputs itself
 - without reading any input files!
 - ex: `main() { printf("main () { printf("main () ...`

Last Time

- Approaches to storage reliability
 - Careful sequencing of file system operations
 - Copy-on-write (WAFL, ZFS)
 - Journalling (NTFS, linux ext4)
 - Log structure (flash storage)

Main Points

- Wrapup storage reliability
 - RAID
- Security theory
 - Access control matrix
 - Passwords
 - Encryption
- Security practice
 - Example successful attacks

Storage Availability

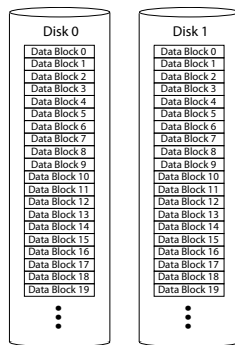
- Storage reliability: data fetched is what you stored
 - Transactions, redo logging, etc.
- Storage availability: data is there when you want it
 - More disks => higher probability of some disk failing
 - Data available $\sim \text{Prob}(\text{disk working})^k$
 - If failures are independent and data is spread across k disks
 - For large k, probability system works $\rightarrow 0$

RAID

- Replicate data for availability
 - RAID 0: no replication
 - RAID 1: mirror data across two or more disks
 - Google File System replicated its data on three disks, spread across multiple racks
 - RAID 5: split data across disks, with redundancy to recover from a single disk failure
 - RAID 6: RAID 5, with extra redundancy to recover from two disk failures

RAID 1: Mirroring

- Replicate writes to both disks
- Reads can go to either disk



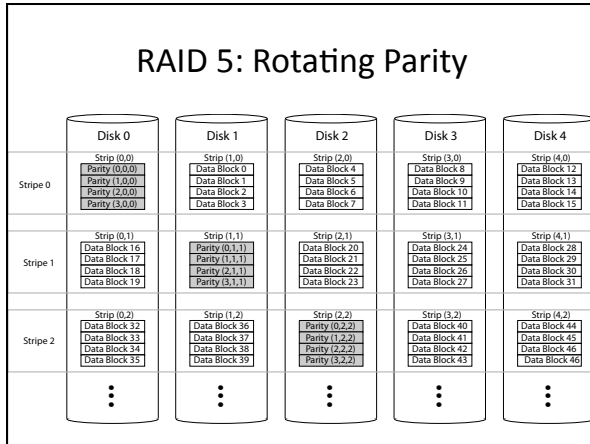
Parity

- Parity block: $\text{Block1 xor block2 xor block3} \dots$

```

10001101  block1
01101100  block2
11000110  block3
-----
00100111  parity block
    
```

- Can reconstruct any missing block from the others



RAID Update

- Mirroring
 - Write every mirror
- RAID-5: to write one block
 - Read old data block
 - Read old parity block
 - Write new data block
 - Write new parity block
 - Old data xor old parity xor new data
- RAID-5: to write entire stripe
 - Write data blocks and parity

Non-Recoverable Read Errors

- Disk devices can lose data
 - One sector per 10^{15} bits read
 - Causes:
 - Physical wear
 - Repeated writes to nearby tracks
- What impact does this have on RAID recovery?

Read Errors and RAID recovery

- Example
 - 10 1 TB disks, and 1 fails
 - Read remaining disks to reconstruct missing data
- Probability of recovery = $(1 - 10^{-15})^{(9 \text{ disks} * 8 \text{ bits} * 10^{12} \text{ bytes/disk})}$
= 93%
- Solutions:
 - RAID-6: two redundant disk blocks
 - parity, linear feedback shift
 - Scrubbing: read disk sectors in background to find and fix latent errors

Security: Theory

- Principals
 - Users, programs, sysadmins, ...
- Authorization
 - Who is permitted to do what?
- Authentication
 - How do we know who the user is?
- Encryption
 - Privacy across an insecure network
 - Authentication across an insecure network
- Auditing
 - Record of who changed what, for post-hoc diagnostics

Authorization

- Access control matrix
 - For every protected resource, list of who is permitted to do what
 - Example: for each file/directory, a list of permissions
 - Owner, group, world: read, write, execute
 - Setuid: program run with permission of principal who installed it
 - Smartphone: list of permissions granted each app

Principle of Least Privilege

- Grant each principal the least permission possible for them to do their assigned work
 - Minimize code running inside kernel
 - Minimize code running as sysadmin
- Practical challenge: hard to know
 - what permissions are needed in advance
 - what permissions should be granted
 - Ex: to smartphone apps
 - Ex: to servers

Authorization with Intermediaries

- Trusted computing base: set of software trusted to enforce security policy
- Servers often need to be trusted
 - E.g.: storage server can store/retrieve data, regardless of which user asks
 - Implication: security flaw in server allows attacker to take control of system

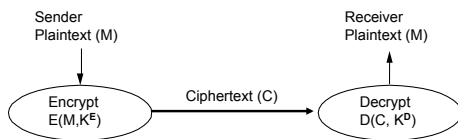
Authentication

- How do we know user is who they say they are?
- Try #1: user types password
 - User needs to remember password!
 - Short passwords: easy to remember, easy to guess
 - Long passwords: hard to remember

Question

- Where are passwords stored?
 - Password is a per-user secret
 - In a file?
 - Anyone with sysadmin permission can read file
 - Encrypted in a file?
 - If gain access to file, can check passwords offline
 - If user reuses password, easy to check against other systems
 - Encrypted in a file with a random salt?
 - Hash password and salt before encryption, foils precomputed password table lookup

Encryption



- Cryptographer chooses functions E, D and keys K^E , K^D
 - Suppose everything is known (E, D, M and C), should not be able to determine keys K^E , K^D and/or modify msg
 - provides basis for authentication, privacy and integrity

Symmetric Key (DES, IDEA)



- Single key (symmetric) is shared between parties, kept secret from everyone else
 - Ciphertext = $(M)^K$; Plaintext = $M = ((M)^K)^K$
 - if K kept secret, then both parties know M is authentic and secret

Public Key (RSA, PGP)

The diagram shows a flow from left to right. On the left, 'Plaintext' has a downward arrow pointing to an oval labeled 'Encrypt with public key'. From this oval, a horizontal arrow labeled 'Secret Ciphertext' points to a second oval labeled 'Decrypt with private key'. From this second oval, an upward arrow points to 'Plaintext'.

Keys come in pairs: public and private

- Each principal gets its own pair
- Public key can be published; private is secret to entity
 - can't derive K-private from K-public, even given M, $(M)^{K-private}$

Public Key: Authentication

The diagram shows a flow from left to right. On the left, 'Plaintext' has a downward arrow pointing to an oval labeled 'Encrypt with PRIVATE key'. From this oval, a horizontal arrow labeled 'Authentic ciphertext' points to a second oval labeled 'Decrypt with PUBLIC key'. From this second oval, an upward arrow points to 'Plaintext'.

Keys come in pairs: public and private

- $M = ((M)^{K-private})^{K-public}$
- Ensures authentication: can only be sent by sender

Public Key: Secrecy

The diagram shows a flow from left to right. On the left, 'Plaintext' has a downward arrow pointing to an oval labeled 'Encrypt with PUBLIC key'. From this oval, a horizontal arrow labeled 'Secret ciphertext' points to a second oval labeled 'Decrypt with Private key'. From this second oval, an upward arrow points to 'Plaintext'.

Keys come in pairs: public and private

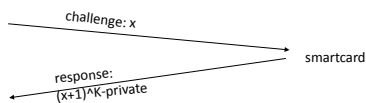
- $M = ((M)^{K-public})^{K-private}$
- Ensures secrecy: can only be read by receiver

Encryption Summary

- Symmetric key encryption
 - Single key (symmetric) is shared between parties, kept secret from everyone else
 - Ciphertext = $(M)^K$
- Public Key encryption
 - Keys come in pairs, public and private
 - Secret: $(M)^{K-public}$
 - Authentic: $(M)^{K-private}$

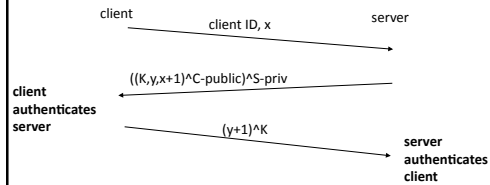
Two Factor Authentication

- Can be difficult for people to remember encryption keys and passwords
- Instead, store K-private inside a chip
 - use challenge-response to authenticate smartcard
 - Use PIN to prove user has smartcard



Public Key -> Session Key

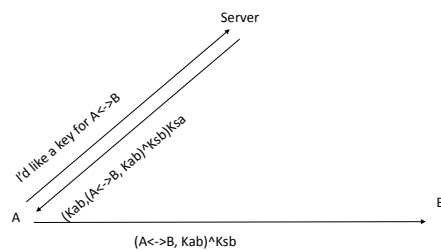
- Public key encryption/decryption is slow; so can use public key to establish (shared) session key
 - assume both sides know each other's public key



Symmetric Key -> Session Key

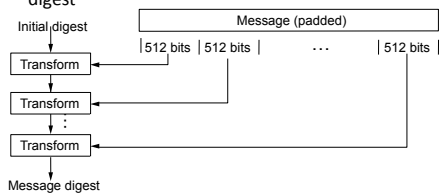
- In symmetric key systems, how do we gain a session key with other side?
 - infeasible for everyone to share a secret with everyone else
 - solution: "authentication server" (Kerberos)
 - everyone shares (a separate) secret with server
 - server provides shared session key for A <-> B
 - everyone trusts authentication server
 - if compromise server, can do anything!

Kerberos Example



Message Digests (MD5, SHA)

- Cryptographic checksum: message integrity
 - Typically small compared to message (MD5 128 bits)
 - “One-way”: infeasible to find two messages with same digest



Security Practice

- In practice, systems are not that secure
 - hackers can go after weakest link
 - any system with bugs is vulnerable
 - vulnerability often not anticipated
 - usually not a brute force attack against encryption system
 - often can't tell if system is compromised
 - hackers can hide their tracks
 - can be hard to resecure systems after a breakin
 - hackers can leave unknown backdoors

Tenex Password Attack

- Early system supporting virtual memory
- Kernel login check:


```
for (i = 0; i < password length; i++) {
  if (password[i] != userpwd[i]) return error;
}
return ok
```

Internet Worm

- Used the Internet to infect a large number of machines in 1988
 - password dictionary
 - sendmail bug
 - default configuration allowed debug access
 - well known for several years, but not fixed
 - fingerd: finger tom@cs
 - fingerd allocated fixed size buffer on stack
 - copied string into buffer without checking length
 - encode virus into string!
- Used infected machines to find/infect others

Ping of Death

- IP packets can be fragmented, reordered in flight
- Reassembly at host
 - can get fragments out of order, so host allocates buffer to hold fragments
- Malformed IP fragment possible
 - offset + length > max packet size
 - Kernel implementation didn't check
- Was used for denial of service, but could have been used for virus propagation

Netscape

- Used time of day to pick session key
 - easy to predict, break
- Offered replacement browser code for download over Web
 - four byte change to executable made it use attacker's key
- Buggy helper applications (ex: pdf)
 - if web site hosts infected content, can infect clients that browse to it

Code Red/Nimda/Slammer

- Dictionary attack of known vulnerabilities
 - known Microsoft web server bugs, email attachments, browser helper applications, ...
 - used infected machines to infect new machines
- Code Red:
 - designed to cause machines surf to whitehouse.gov simultaneously
- Nimda:
 - Left open backdoor on infected machines for any use
 - Infected ~ 400K machines; approx ~30K still infected
- Slammer:
 - Single UDP packet on MySQL port
 - Infected 100K+ vulnerable machines in under 10 minutes
- 350K node botnets now common

More Examples

- Housekeys
- ATM keypad
- Automobile backplane
- Pacemakers

Thompson Virus

- Ken Thompson self-replicating program
 - installed itself silently on every UNIX machine, including new machines with new instruction sets

Add backdoor to login.c

- Step 1: modify login.c

```
A:
    if (name == "ken") {
        don't check password;
        login ken as root;
    }
```

- Modification is too obvious; how do we hide it?

Hiding the change to login.c

- Step 2: Modify the C compiler

```
B:
    if see trigger {
        insert A into the input stream
    }
```

- Add trigger to login.c


```
/* gobblygook */
```
- Now we don't need to include the code for the backdoor in login.c, just the trigger
 - But still too obvious; how do we hide the modification to the C compiler?

Hiding the change to the compiler

- Step 3: Modify the compiler

```
C:
    if see trigger2 {
        insert B and C into the input stream
    }
```

- Compile the compiler with C present
 - now in object code for compiler
- Replace C in the compiler source with trigger2

Compiler compiles the compiler

- Every new version of compiler has code for B,C included
 - as long as trigger2 is not removed
 - and compiled with an infected compiler
 - if compiler is for a completely new machine: cross-compiled first on old machine using old compiler
- Every new version of login.c has code for A included
 - as long as trigger is not removed
 - and compiled with an infected compiler

Question

- Can you write a self-replicating C program?
 - program that when run, outputs itself
 - without reading any input files!
 - ex: `main() { printf("main () { printf("main () ...`

Security Lessons

- Hard to resecure a machine after penetration
 - how do you know you've removed all the backdoors?
- Hard to detect if machine has been penetrated
 - Western Digital example
- Any system with bugs is vulnerable
 - and all systems have bugs: fingerd, ping of death, Code Red, nimda, ...