Chapter 15: Security

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- The Security Problem
- Program Threats
- System and Network Threats
- Cryptography as a Security Tool
- User Authentication
- Implementing Security Defenses
- Firewalling to Protect Systems and Networks
- Computer-Security Classifications
- An Example: Windows XP

Objectives

- To discuss security threats and attacks
- To explain the fundamentals of encryption, authentication, and hashing
- To examine the uses of cryptography in computing
- To describe the various countermeasures to security attacks

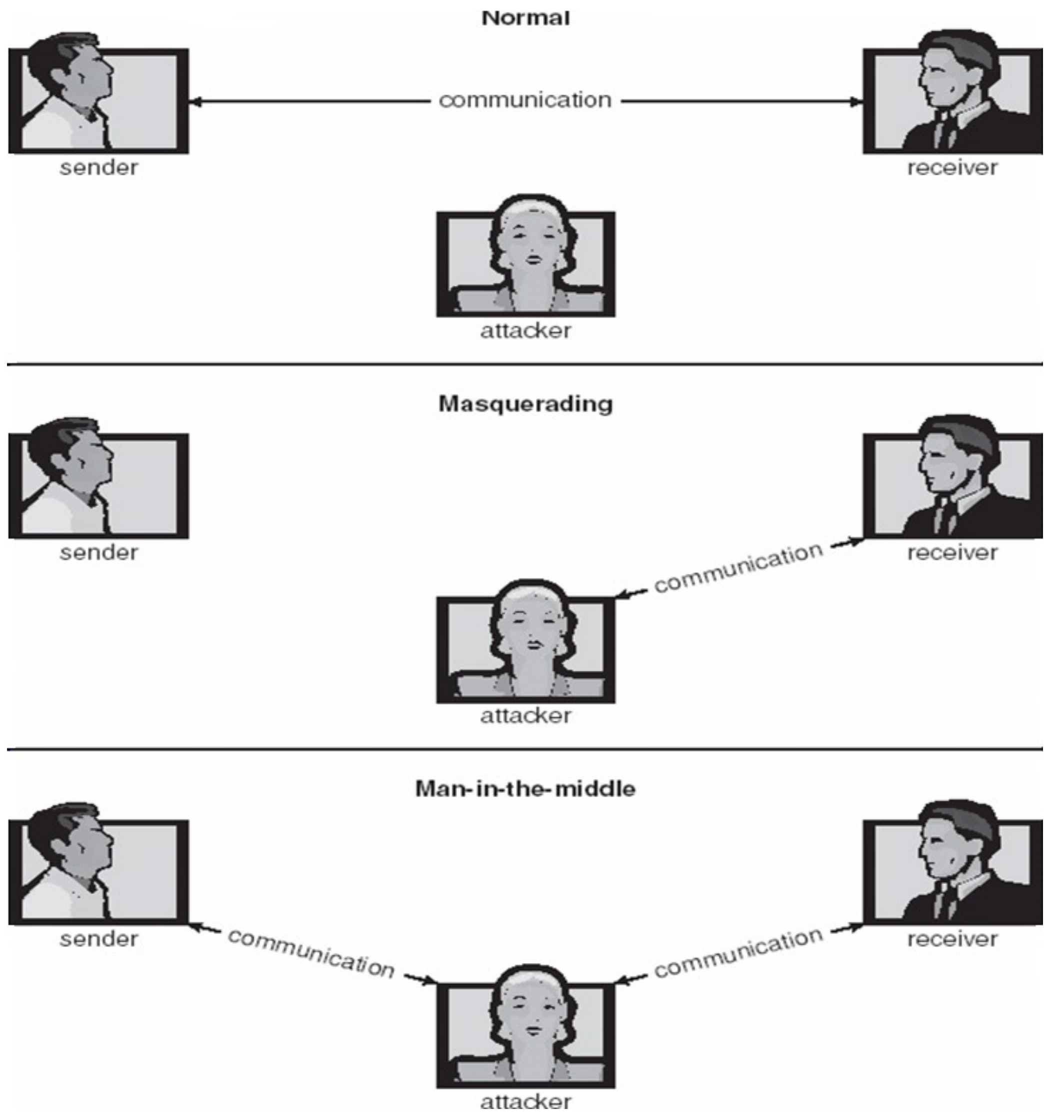
The Security Problem

- Security must consider external environment of the system, and protect the system resources
- Intruders (crackers) attempt to breach security
- Threat is potential security violation
- **Attack** is attempt to breach security
- Attack can be accidental or malicious
- Easier to protect against accidental than malicious misuse

Security Violations

- Categories
  - **Breach of confidentiality**
  - **Breach of integrity**
  - **Breach of availability**
  - **Theft of service**
  - **Denial of service**
- Methods
  - **Masquerading (breach authentication)**
  - **Replay attack**
    - **Message modification**
  - **Man-in-the-middle attack**
  - **Session hijacking**

Standard Security Attacks



Security Measure Levels

- Security must occur at four levels to be effective:
  - **Physical**
  - **Human**
    - Avoid social engineering, phishing, dumpster diving
  - **Operating System**
  - **Network**
- Security is as weak as the weakest link in the chain

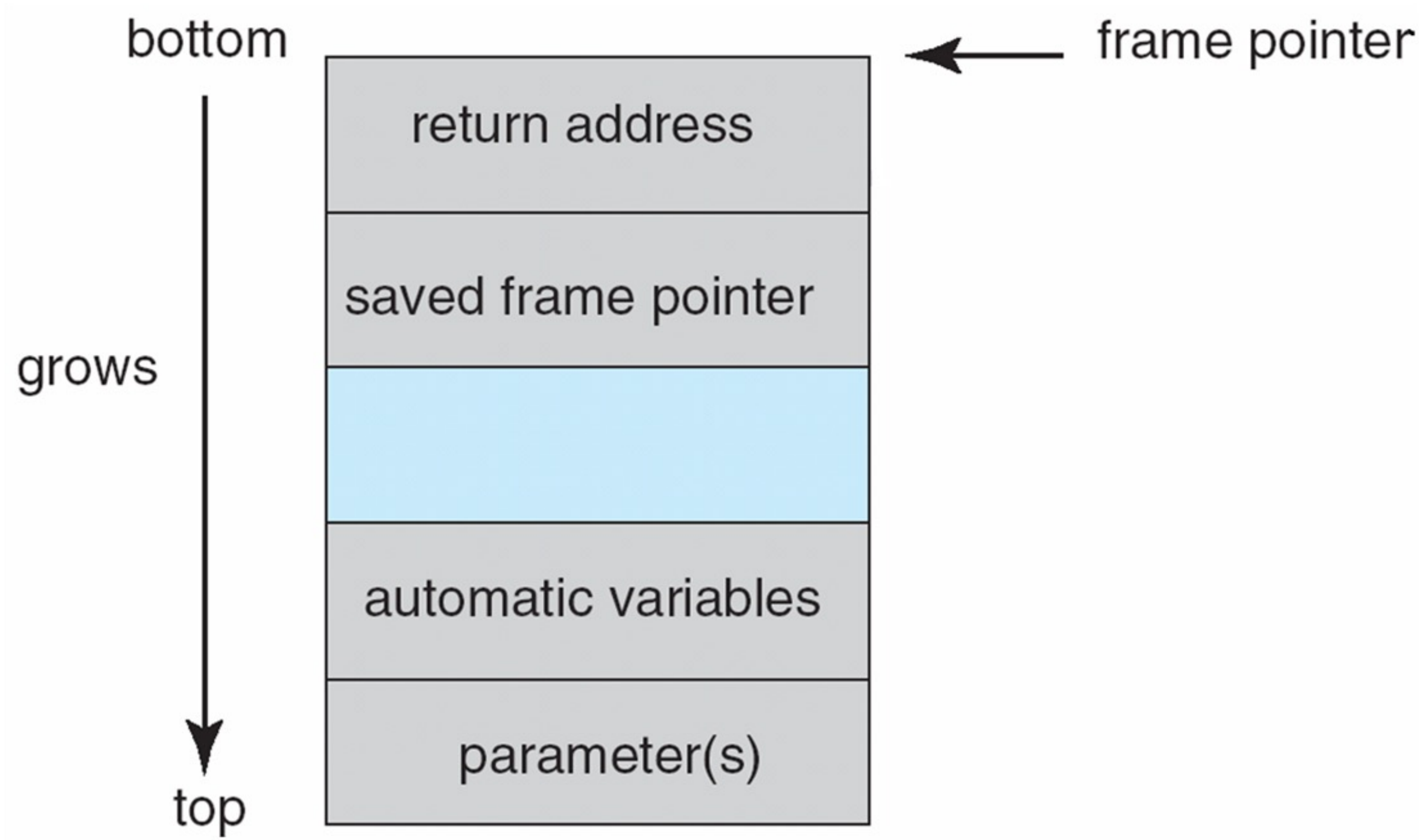
Program Threats

- **Trojan Horse**
  - Code segment that misuses its environment
  - Exploits mechanisms for allowing programs written by users to be executed by other users
  - Spyware, pop-up browser windows, covert channels
- **Trap Door**
  - Specific user identifier or password that circumvents normal security procedures
  - Could be included in a compiler
- **Logic Bomb**
  - Program that initiates a security incident under certain circumstances
- **Stack** and **Buffer Overflow**
  - Exploits a bug in a program (overflow either the stack or memory buffers)

C Program with Buffer-overflow Condition

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define BUFFER SIZE 256
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
   char buffer[BUFFER SIZE];
   if (argc < 2)
        return -1;
   else {
        strcpy(buffer,argv[1]);
        return 0;
   }
}
```

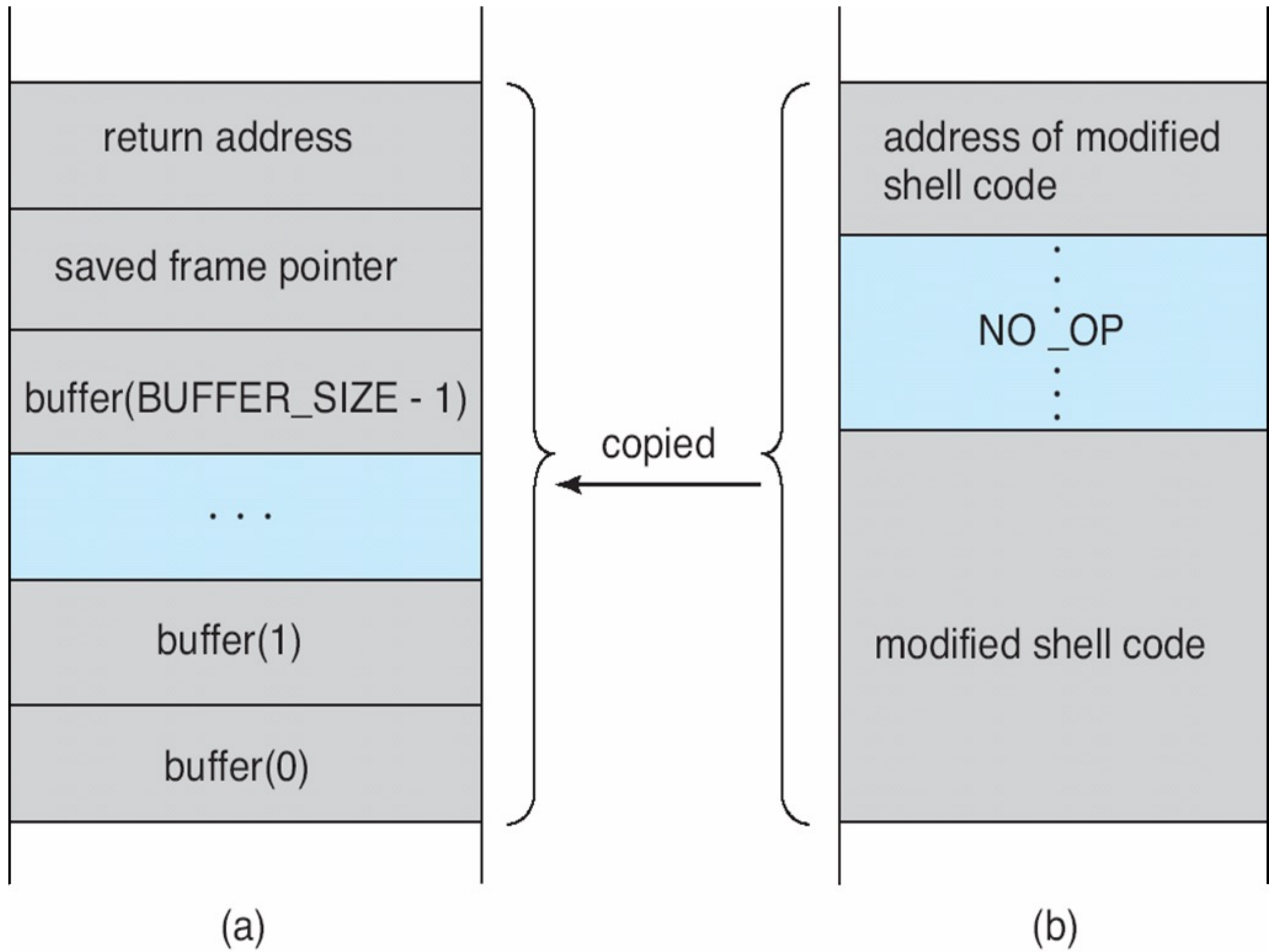
Layout of Typical Stack Frame



Modified Shell Code

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
   execvp(‘‘\bin\sh’’,‘‘\bin \sh’’, NULL);
   return 0;
}
```

Hypothetical Stack Frame



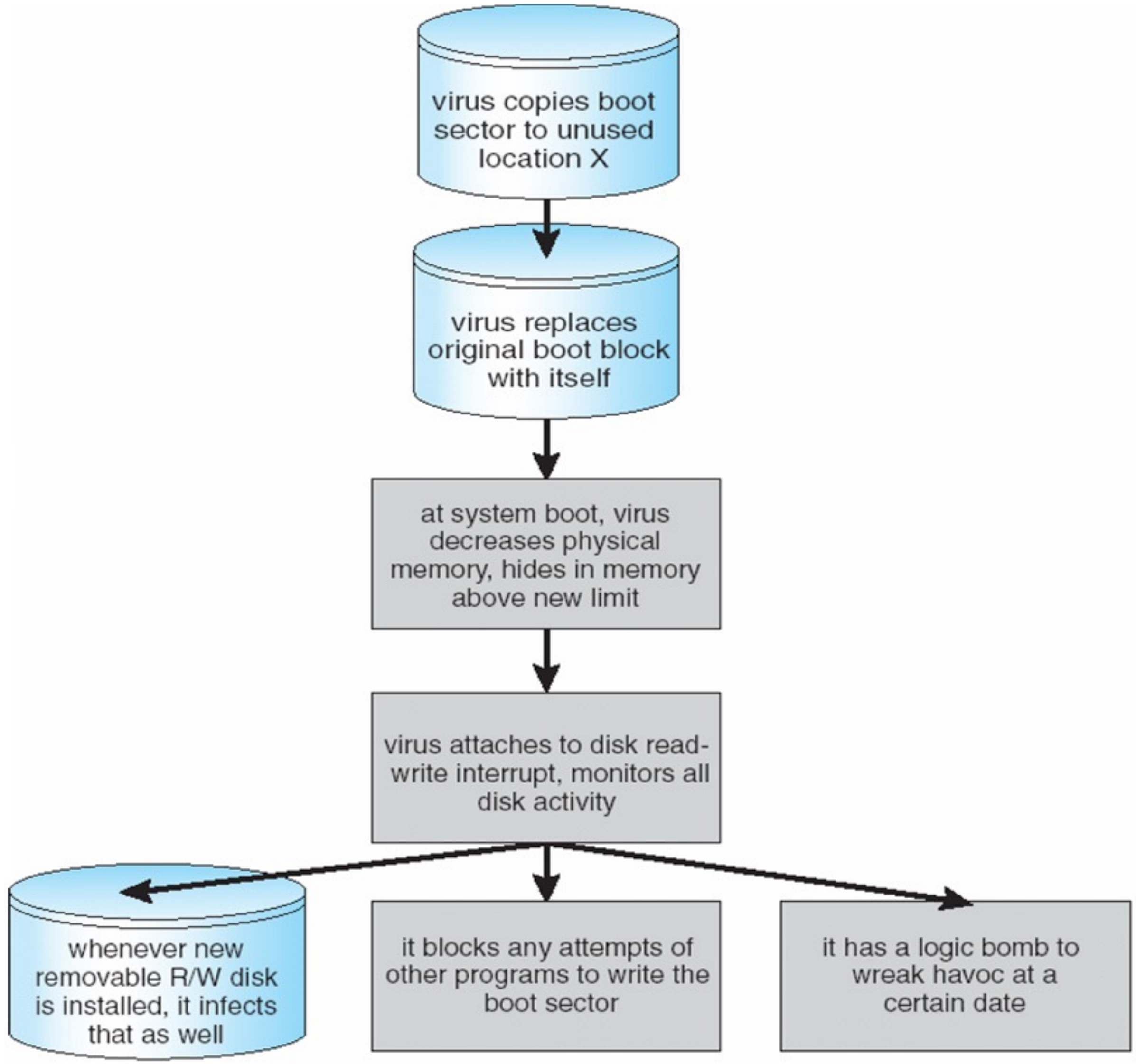
Before attack

After attack

Program Threats (Cont.)

- Many categories of viruses, literally many thousands of viruses
  - File
  - Boot
  - Macro
  - Source code
  - Polymorphic
  - Encrypted
  - Stealth
  - Tunneling
  - Multipartite

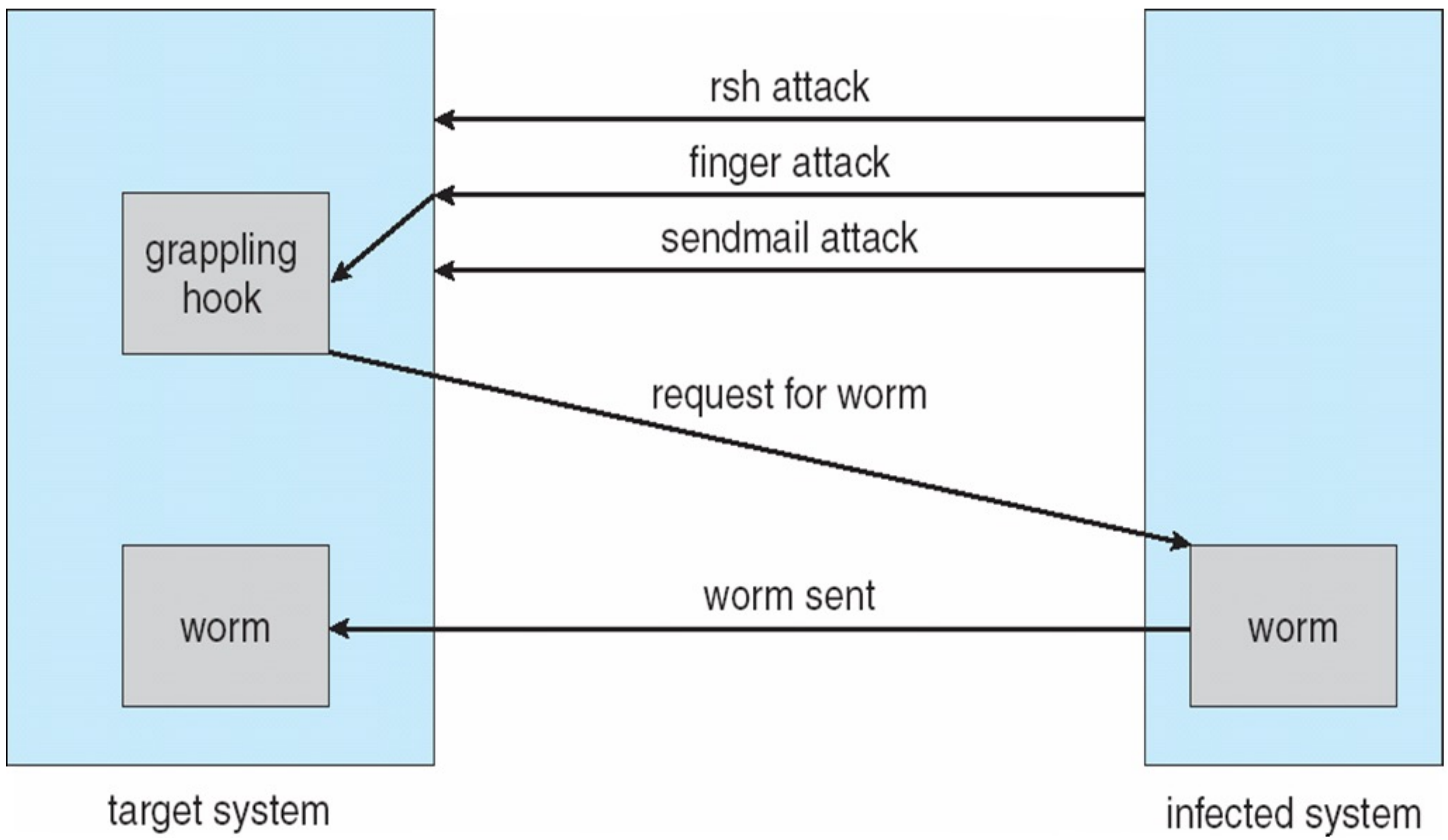
A Boot-sector Computer Virus



System and Network Threats

- **Worms** – use spawn mechanism; standalone program
- Internet worm
  - Exploited UNIX networking features (remote access) and bugs in *finger* and *sendmail* programs
  - Grappling hook program uploaded main worm program
- **Port scanning**
  - Automated attempt to connect to a range of ports on one or a range of IP addresses
- **Denial of Service**
  - Overload the targeted computer preventing it from doing any useful work
  - Distributed denial-of-service (DDOS) come from multiple sites at once

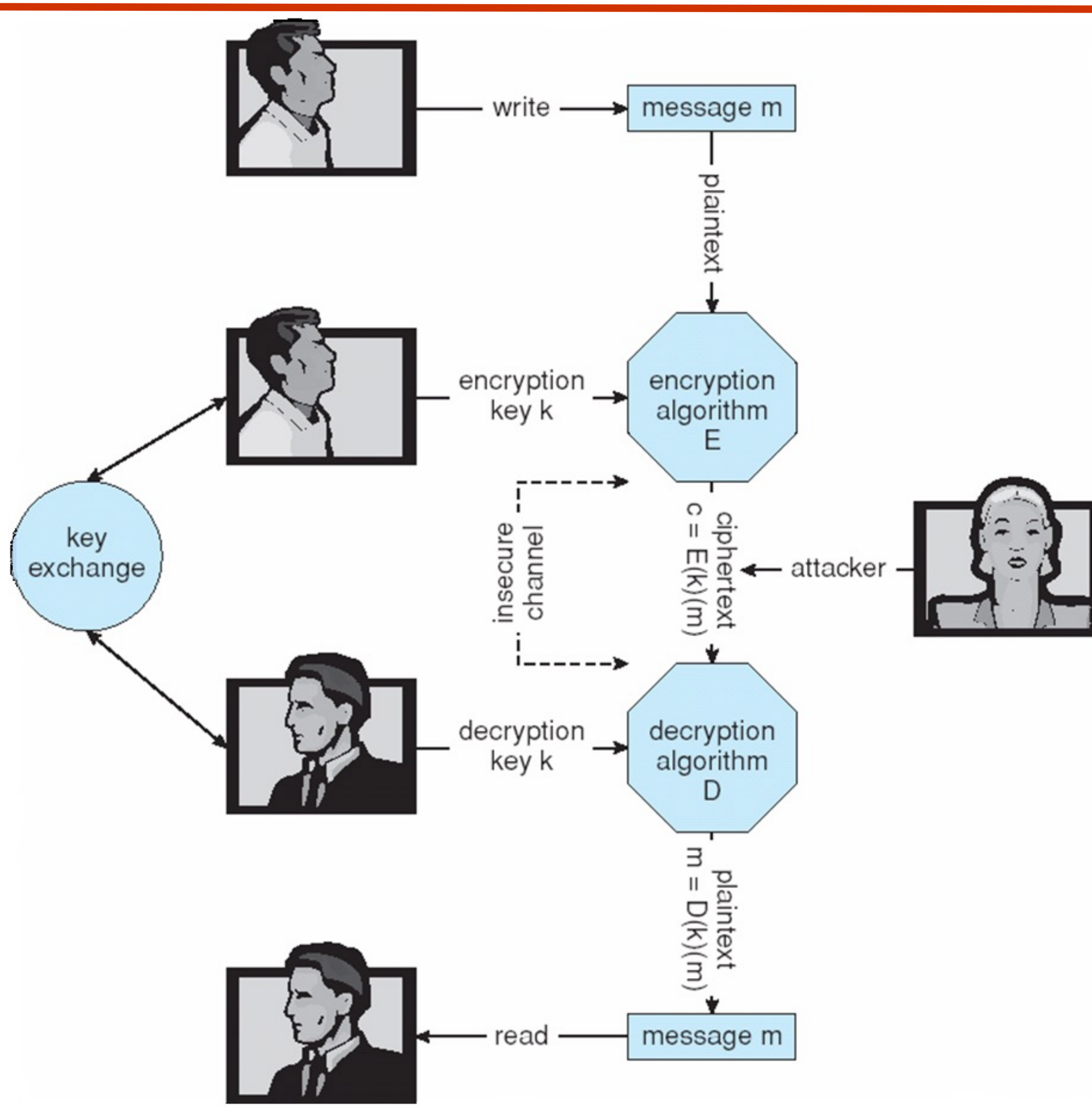
The Morris Internet Worm



Cryptography as a Security Tool

- Broadest security tool available
  - Source and destination of messages cannot be trusted without cryptography
  - Means to constrain potential senders (*sources*) and / or receivers (*destinations*) of *messages*
- Based on secrets (keys)

Secure Communication over Insecure Medium



Encryption

- Encryption algorithm consists of
  - Set of K keys
  - Set of M Messages
  - Set of C ciphertexts (encrypted messages)
  - A function $E : K \rightarrow (M \rightarrow C)$. That is, for each $k \in K$, $E(k)$ is a function for generating ciphertexts from messages
    - Both E and $E(k)$ for any k should be efficiently computable functions
  - A function $D : K \rightarrow (C \rightarrow M)$. That is, for each $k \in K$, $D(k)$ is a function for generating messages from ciphertexts
    - Both D and $D(k)$ for any k should be efficiently computable functions
- An encryption algorithm must provide this essential property: Given a ciphertext $c \in C$, a computer can compute m such that $E(k)(m) = c$ only if it possesses $D(k)$.
  - Thus, a computer holding $D(k)$ can decrypt ciphertexts to the plaintexts used to produce them, but a computer not holding $D(k)$ cannot decrypt ciphertexts
  - Since ciphertexts are generally exposed (for example, sent on the network), it is important that it be infeasible to derive $D(k)$ from the ciphertexts

Symmetric Encryption

- Same key used to encrypt and decrypt
  - *E*(*k*) can be derived from *D*(*k*), and vice versa
- DES is most commonly used symmetric block-encryption algorithm (created by US Govt)
  - Encrypts a block of data at a time
- Triple-DES considered more secure
- Advanced Encryption Standard (AES), twofish up and coming
- RC4 is most common symmetric stream cipher, but known to have vulnerabilities
  - Encrypts/decrypts a stream of bytes (i.e wireless transmission)
  - Key is a input to psuedo-random-bit generator
    - Generates an infinite keystream

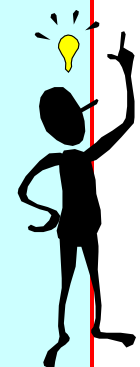
Public key cryptography

symmetric key crypto

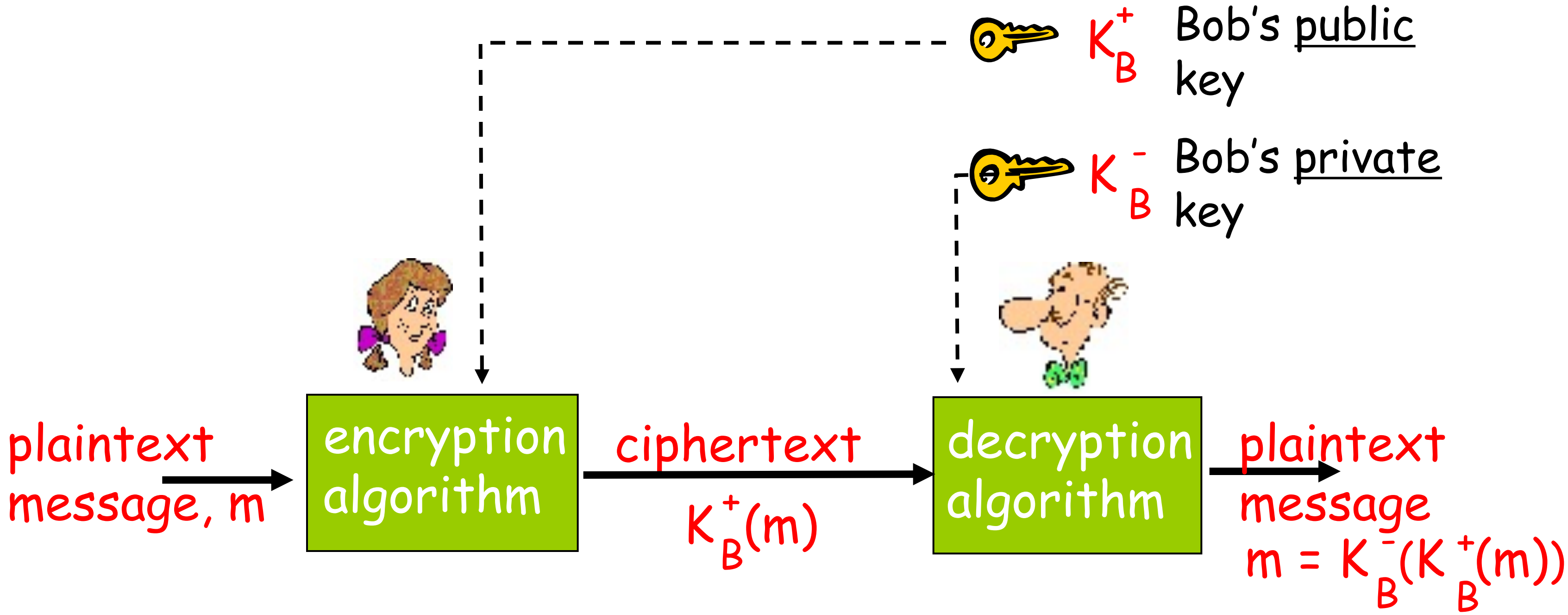
- requires sender, receiver know shared secret key
- Q: how to agree on key in first place (particularly if never "met")?

public key cryptography

- radically different approach [Diffie-Hellman76, RSA78]
- sender, receiver do *not* share secret key
- *public* encryption key known to *all*
- *private* decryption key known only to receiver



Public key cryptography



Public key encryption algorithms

Requirements:

1. need $K_B^{+}(\ )$ and $K_B^{-}(\ )$ such that

$$K_B^{-}(K_B^{+}(m)) = m$$

2. given public key K_B^{+}, it should be impossible to compute private key K_B^{-}

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adleman algorithm

RSA: Choosing keys

1. Choose two large prime numbers *p, q.* (e.g., 1024 bits each)

2. Compute $n = pq$, $z = phi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$

3. Choose *e* (with *b<n)* that has no common factors with z. (*e, z* are "relatively prime").

4. Choose *d* such that *ed-1* is exactly divisible by *z.* (in other words: *ed* mod *z* = *1*).

5. *Public* key is *(n,e). Private* key is *(n,d).*

K_B^+ K_B^-

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RSA: Encryption, decryption

0. Given (n,b) and (n,a) as computed above

1. To encrypt bit pattern, m, compute

   $x = m^e \bmod n$ (i.e., remainder when m^e is divided by n)

2. To decrypt received bit pattern, c, compute

   $m = x^d \bmod n$ (i.e., remainder when c^d is divided by n)

Magic happens! $m = \underbrace{(m^e \bmod n)}_{x}{}^{d} \bmod n$

RSA example:

Bob chooses *p=5, q=7*. Then *n=35, z=24*.

e=5 (so *e, z* relatively prime).
d=29 (so *ed-1* exactly divisible by z.

	letter	m	m^e	$c = m^e \bmod n$
encrypt:	l	12	1524832	17

	c	c^d	$m = c^d \bmod n$	letter
decrypt:	17	481968572106750915091411825223071697	12	l

RSA: Why is that $m = (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n$

Useful number theory result: If p,q prime and $n = pq$, then:

$$x^y \bmod n = x^{y \bmod (p-1)(q-1)} \bmod n$$

$$(m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n = m^{ed} \bmod n$$

$$= m^{ed \bmod (p-1)(q-1)} \bmod n$$

(using number theory result above)

$$= m^1 \bmod n$$

(since we chose ed to be divisible by $(p-1)(q-1)$ with remainder 1)

$$= m$$

RSA: another important property

The following property will be *very* useful later:

$$K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m = K_B^+(K_B^-(m))$$

use public key first, followed by private key

use private key first, followed by public key

Result is the same!

Cryptography (Cont.)

- Note symmetric cryptography based on transformations, asymmetric based on mathematical functions
  - Asymmetric much more compute intensive
  - Typically not used for bulk data encryption

Authentication

- Constraining set of potential senders of a message
  - Complementary and sometimes redundant to encryption
  - Also can prove message unmodified

Authentication (Cont.)

- For a message m, a computer can generate an authenticator $a \in A$ such that $V(k)(m, a)$ = `true` only if it possesses $S(k)$
- Thus, computer holding $S(k)$ can generate authenticators on messages so that any other computer possessing $V(k)$ can verify them
- Computer not holding $S(k)$ cannot generate authenticators on messages that can be verified using $V(k)$
- Since authenticators are generally exposed (for example, they are sent on the network with the messages themselves), it must not be feasible to derive $S(k)$ from the authenticators

Authentication – Hash Functions

- Basis of authentication
- Creates small, fixed-size block of data (message digest, hash value) from m
- Hash Function H must be collision resistant on m
  - Must be infeasible to find an $m' \neq m$ such that $H(m) = H(m')$
- If $H(m) = H(m')$, then $m = m'$
  - The message has not been modified
- Common message-digest functions include MD5, which produces a 128-bit hash, and SHA-1, which outputs a 160-bit hash

Authentication - MAC

- Symmetric encryption used in message-authentication code (MAC) authentication algorithm
- Simple example:
  - MAC defines $S(k)(m) = f(k, H(m))$
    - Where f is a function that is one-way on its first argument
      - k cannot be derived from $f(k, H(m))$
    - Because of the collision resistance in the hash function, reasonably assured no other message could create the same MAC
    - A suitable verification algorithm is $V(k)(m, a) \equiv (f(k,m) = a)$
    - Note that k is needed to compute both $S(k)$ and $V(k)$, so anyone able to compute one can compute the other

Authentication – Digital Signature

- Based on asymmetric keys and digital signature algorithm
- Authenticators produced are digital signatures
- In a digital-signature algorithm, computationally infeasible to derive $S(k_s)$ from $V(k_v)$
  - V is a one-way function
  - Thus, k_v is the public key and k_s is the private key
- Consider the RSA digital-signature algorithm
  - Similar to the RSA encryption algorithm, but the key use is reversed
  - Digital signature of message $S(k_s)(m) = H(m)^{k_s} \bmod N$
  - The key k_s again is a pair d, N, where N is the product of two large, randomly chosen prime numbers p and q
  - Verification algorithm is $V(k_v)(m, a) \equiv (a^{k_v} \bmod N = H(m))$
    - Where k_v satisfies $k_v k_s \bmod (p - 1)(q - 1) = 1$

Authentication (Cont.)

- Why authentication if a subset of encryption?
  - Fewer computations (except for RSA digital signatures)
  - Authenticator usually shorter than message
  - Sometimes want authentication but not confidentiality
    - Signed patches et al
  - Can be basis for non-repudiation

Key Distribution

- Delivery of symmetric key is huge challenge
  - Sometimes done out-of-band
- Asymmetric keys can proliferate – stored on key ring
  - Even asymmetric key distribution needs care – man-in-the-middle attack

Digital Certificates

- Proof of who or what owns a public key
- Public key digitally signed a trusted party
- Trusted party receives proof of identification from entity and certifies that public key belongs to entity
- Certificate authority are trusted party – their public keys included with web browser distributions
  - They vouch for other authorities via digitally signing their keys, and so on

Encryption Example - SSL

- Insertion of cryptography at one layer of the ISO network model (the transport layer)
- SSL – Secure Socket Layer (also called TLS)
- Cryptographic protocol that limits two computers to only exchange messages with each other
  - Very complicated, with many variations
- Used between web servers and browsers for secure communication (credit card numbers)
- The server is verified with a certificate assuring client is talking to correct server
- Asymmetric cryptography used to establish a secure session key (symmetric encryption) for bulk of communication during session
- Communication between each computer the uses symmetric key cryptography

User Authentication

- Crucial to identify user correctly, as protection systems depend on user ID
- User identity most often established through *passwords*, can be considered a special case of either keys or capabilities
  - Also can include something user has and /or a user attribute
- Passwords must be kept secret
  - Frequent change of passwords
  - Use of “non-guessable” passwords
  - Log all invalid access attempts
- Passwords may also either be encrypted or allowed to be used only once

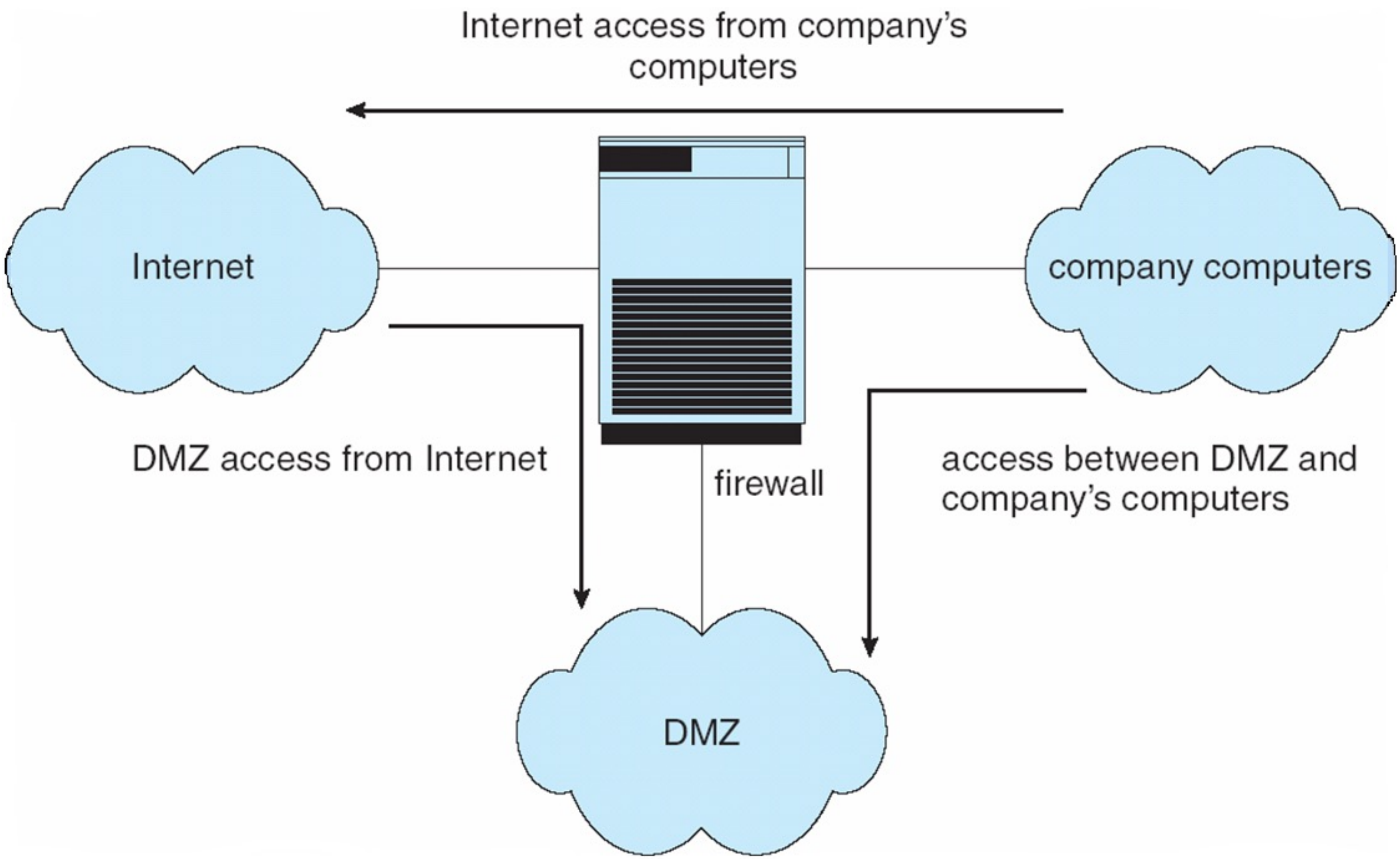
Implementing Security Defenses

- Defense in depth is most common security theory – multiple layers of security
- Security policy describes what is being secured
- Vulnerability assessment compares real state of system / network compared to security policy
- Intrusion detection endeavors to detect attempted or successful intrusions
  - Signature-based detection spots known bad patterns
  - Anomaly detection spots differences from normal behavior
    - Can detect zero-day attacks
  - False-positives and false-negatives a problem
- Virus protection
- Auditing, accounting, and logging of all or specific system or network activities

Firewalling to Protect Systems and Networks

- A network firewall is placed between trusted and untrusted hosts
  - The firewall limits network access between these two security domains
- Can be tunneled or spoofed
  - Tunneling allows disallowed protocol to travel within allowed protocol (i.e. telnet inside of HTTP)
  - Firewall rules typically based on host name or IP address which can be spoofed
- Personal firewall is software layer on given host
  - Can monitor / limit traffic to and from the host
- Application proxy firewall understands application protocol and can control them (i.e. SMTP)
- System-call firewall monitors all important system calls and apply rules to them (i.e. this program can execute that system call)

Network Security Through Domain Separation Via Firewall



Computer Security Classifications

- U.S. Department of Defense outlines four divisions of computer security: **A**, **B**, **C**, and **D**
- **D** – Minimal security
- **C** – Provides discretionary protection through auditing
  - Divided into **C1** and **C2**
    - **C1** identifies cooperating users with the same level of protection
    - **C2** allows user-level access control
- **B** – All the properties of **C**, however each object may have unique sensitivity labels
  - Divided into **B1**, **B2**, and **B3**
- **A** – Uses formal design and verification techniques to ensure security

Example: Windows XP

- Security is based on user accounts
  - Each user has unique security ID
  - Login to ID creates security access token
    - Includes security ID for user, for user's groups, and special privileges
    - Every process gets copy of token
    - System checks token to determine if access allowed or denied
- Uses a subject model to ensure access security. A subject tracks and manages permissions for each program that a user runs
- Each object in Windows XP has a security attribute defined by a security descriptor
  - For example, a file has a security descriptor that indicates the access permissions for all users

End of Chapter 15