

Security and Privacy

- 12A. Operating Systems and Security
- 12B. Authentication
- 12C. Authorization
- 12D. Trust
- 13G. Encryption
- 12E. At-Rest Encryption

Security

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Why Security is Difficult

- complexity of our software and systems
 - millions of lines of code, thousands of developers
 - rich and powerful protocols and APIs
 - numerous interactions with other software
 - constantly changing features and technology
 - absence of comprehensive validation tools
- determined and persistent adversaries
 - commercial information theft/black-mail
 - national security, sabotage

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Common Terms used in Security

- *security*
 - policies regarding who can access what, when and how
- *protection*
 - mechanisms that implement/enforce security policies
- *attacker*
 - an actor who seeks to bypass access control policies
- *vulnerability*
 - a protection weakness that enables a potential attack
- *exploit*
 - a successful use of a vulnerability to bypass protection
 - also refers to the code or methodology that was used
- *trust*
 - confidence in the reliability (invulnerability) of a mechanism
 - confidence about the future behavior of an actor

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Trust

- An extremely important security concept
- You do certain things for those you trust
- You don't do them for those you don't
- Seems simple, but . . .
 - How do you express trust?
 - Why do you trust something?
 - How can you be sure who you're dealing with?
 - What if trust is situational?
 - What if trust changes?

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Trust and the Operating System

- We have to trust our operating system
 - it controls the CPU and memory
 - it controls how your processes are handled
 - it controls all the I/O devices
- The OS is the foundation for all software
 - all higher level security is based on a reliable OS
- If the OS is out to get you, you are gotten
 - which makes compromising an OS a big deal
 - which makes securing the OS a big deal

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Operating System Security – Goals

- *privacy*
 - keep other people from seeing your private data
- *integrity*
 - keep other people from changing your protected data
- *trust*
 - programs you run cannot compromise your data
 - remote parties are who they claim to be
 - binding commitments and authoritative records
- *controlled sharing*
 - you can grant other people access to your data
 - but they can only access it in ways you specify

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Terms w/very special meanings

- *principals*
 - (e.g. users) own, control, and use protected objects
- *agents*
 - (e.g. programs) act on behalf of principals
- *authentication*
 - confirming the identity of requesting principal
 - confirming the integrity of a request
- *credentials*
 - information that confirms identity of requesting principal
- *authorization*
 - determining if a particular request is allowed
- *mediated access*
 - agents must access objects through control points

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Security – Key Elements

- reliable authentication
 - we must be sure who is requesting every operation
 - we must prevent masquerading of people/processes
- trusted policy data
 - policy data accurately describes desired access rules
- reliable enforcement mechanisms
 - all operations on protected objects must be checked
 - it must be impossible to circumvent these checks
- audit trails
 - reliable records of who did what, when

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Authentication

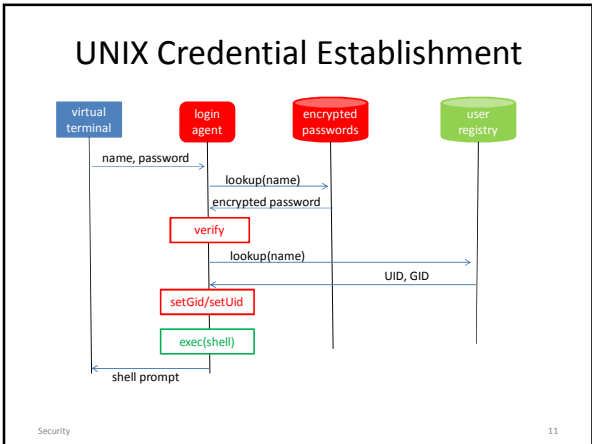
- security policy says who is allowed to do what
- enforcement presumes we know who is asking
- Authentication problems
 - how to authenticate an actor’s claimed identity?
 - how can we trust authentication secrets?
 - how can we trust authentication dialogs?

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Internal (process) Authentication

- OS associates credentials with each process
 - stored, within the OS, in the process descriptor
 - automatically inherited by all child processes
 - identify the agent on whose behalf requests are made
- they are the basis for access control decisions
 - they are consulted when accessing protected data
 - they are reported in audit logs of who did what
- how do we ensure their correctness
 - commands are coming from the indicated principal
 - not from some would-be attacker/impostor

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External (user) Authentication

- authentication done by trusted "login" agent
 - typically based on passwords and/or identity tokens
 - movement towards biometric authentication
- ensuring secure passwords
 - they must not be guess-able or brute-force-able
 - they must not be steal-able
- ensuring secure authentication dialogs
 - protection from crackers: humanity checkers
 - protection from snoopers: challenge/response
 - protection from fraudulent servers: certificates
- evolving encryption technology can assist us here

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Cryptographic Hash Functions

- “one-way encryption” function: $H(M)$
 - $H(M)$ is much shorter than M
 - it is inexpensive to compute $H(M)$
 - it is infeasible to compute $M(H)$
 - it is infeasible to find an M' : $H(M') = H(M)$
- uses
 - store passwords as $H(\text{pw})$
 - verify by testing $H(\text{entered}) = \text{stored } H(\text{pw})$
 - secure integrity assurance
 - deliver $H(\text{msg})$ over a separate channel

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Secure Passwords

- one-way hashes protect stored passwords
- unless they are easily guessed, because
 - ... they are short enough to brute-force
 - ... they are obvious enough to guess
 - ... they are words in a dictionary
 - ... they have been shared with others
 - ... they were written where others found them
 - ... they are seldom changed
- password guidelines try to prevent these

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challenge/response authentication

- untrusted authentication
 - client/server distrust one-another & connecting wire
 - both claim to know the secret password
 - neither is willing to send it over the network
- client and server agree on a complex function
 - response = $F(\text{challenge}, \text{password})$
 - F may be well known, but is very difficult to invert
- server issues random challenge string to client
 - server & client both compute $F(\text{challenge}, \text{password})$
 - client sends response to server, server validates it
- man-in-middle cannot snoop, spoof, or replay

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Goals for Access Control

- Complete mediation
 - all protected object access is subject to control
- Cost and usability
 - mediation does not impose performance penalties
 - mediation does not greatly complicate use
- Useful in a networked environment
 - where all resources not controlled by a single OS
- Scalability
 - large numbers of computers, agents, and objects

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Complete Mediation?

- protected resources must be inaccessible
 - hardware protection must be used to ensure this
 - only the OS can make them accessible to a process
- to get access, issue request to resource manager
 - resource manager consults access control policy data
- access may be granted directly
 - resource manager maps resource into process
- access may be granted indirectly
 - resource manager returns a “capability” to process
 - capability can be used in subsequent requests

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Access Mediation

- Per-Operation Mediation (e.g. file)
 - all operations are via requests
 - we can check access on every operation
 - revocation is simple (cancel the capability)
 - access is relatively expensive (system call/request)
- Open-Time Mediation (e.g. shared segment)
 - one-time access check at open time
 - if permitted, resources is mapped in to process
 - subsequent access is direct (very efficient)
 - revocation may be difficult or awkward

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Capabilities and ACLs

- Capabilities – per agent access control
 - record, for each principal, what it can access
 - each granted access is called a "capability"
 - a capability is required to access any system object
- Access Control Lists – per object access control
 - record, for each object, which principals have access
 - each protected object has an Access Control List
 - OS consults ACL when granting access to any object
- Either must be protected & enforced by the OS

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Access Control Lists vs. Capabilities

- Access Control Lists
 - short to store and easy to administer
- Capabilities make very convenient handles
 - if you have the capability, you can do the operation
 - without one, you can't even ask for operations
- many operating systems actually use both
 - ACLs describe what accesses are allowed
 - when access is granted, a Capability is issued
 - capability is used as handle for subsequent operations

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Unix files – access control lists

- Subject Credentials:
 - user and group ID, established by password login
- Supported operations:
 - read, write, execute, chown, chgrp, chmod
- Representation of ACL information:
 - rules (owner:rwX, group:rwX, others:rwX)
 - owner privileges apply to the file's owner
 - group privileges apply to the file's owning group
 - others privileges apply to all other users
 - only owner can chown/chgrp/chmod

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Unix File Access – example

given a file with:

user ID: 100

group ID: 15

file protection: `rwx r-x r--`

UID/GID	read	write	execute	chmod
100/001	yes	yes	yes	yes
001/015	yes	no	yes	no
001/001	yes	no	no	no
000/###	yes	yes	yes	yes

* In UNIX, a process with UID=0 (super user) can do anything

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Unix files also have capabilities

- if a process wants to read or write a file
 - it must open the file, requesting read or write access
 - open will check permissions before granting access
 - if operation permitted, OS returns a file descriptor
- the user file descriptor is a capability
 - it is an unforgeable token conferring access to the file
 - it confers a specific access (r/w) to a specific file
 - a required argument to the read/write system calls
 - without a file descriptor reads/writes are impossible

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Truly Unforgeable Capabilities

- real capabilities come from a trusted source (OS)
 - who checks access permissions before granting them
 - having a capability conveys access to the resource
- resource references must be unforgeable
 - otherwise people could forge references for anything
- ensure this by keeping them inside the OS
 - give the user an index into a per-process table
 - e.g. user file descriptors are index into a per-process array
 - process can only refer to capabilities by index number
- a system call can pass capabilities to others
 - because only the OS can create the table entries

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Very Hard-to-forge Capabilities

- random cookies from sparse name spaces
 - they can be verified, but are very difficult to forge
 - this is easily achieved with encryption technology
- resource mgr decrypts cookie on each request
 - determine which object is to be used
 - ensure requester has adequate access for operation
- this is also a very common approach
 - product activation codes (product, version)
 - heavily exploited in distributed systems
- such cookies are easily exchanged in messages

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Trusted Computing Base

- All protection information stored in OS
 - applications cannot directly access/modify it
- OS creates and maintains process state
 - OS can associate a principal w/each process
- OS implements file, process, IPC operations
 - OS can mediate all access to these objects
 - no way to access without going through OS
- This is a foundation on which apps run
 - apps can depend on processes and files
 - higher level services can depend on these

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Principle of Least Privilege

- operate with minimum possible privileges
 - surrender privileges when no longer needed
 - operate in the most restricted possible context
- allow minimum possible access to resources
 - apply multiple levels of protection
- trust, but verify
 - sanity check requests before performing them
- minimize amount of privileged software
 - minimize the attack surface
 - minimize amount of code to be audited

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Quis Custodiet ipsos Custodes?

- OS can do a very good job of enforcement
 - if reasonably designed, reviewed, and implemented
- What does the OS enforce?
 - all access is according to access control database
- Enforcement is only as good as the policy data
 - human beings set up the authorization policy data
 - they may misunderstand our intentions
 - they may make errors in entering the rules
 - they may deliberately violate our intentions
- These are problems the OS cannot solve

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Privileged Users – the big hole

- OS Maintenance requires extraordinary privileges
 - installing and configuring system software
 - backing up and restoring file systems
- many systems have privileged users
 - authorized to update system files
 - authorized to perform privileged operations
 - often there is a Super-User, who can do anything
- users with these passwords are dangerous
 - they can make mistakes or do mischief
 - they can leak the passwords to others

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Finer Granularity Authorization

- “super users” are dangerous
 - they are permitted to do anything
 - not merely a single particular privileged operation
 - accidentally mistyped commands can be disastrous
 - ordinary file protections do not prevent them
- finer granularities of privilege
 - backups, file system allocation, user creation, etc.
- finer granularities of operations
 - privilege granted for only one operation at a time
 - confirmation dialogs in system management tools

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Role Based Access Control (RBAC)

- system management is not “a person”
 - it is a role that some people, sometimes, perform
- don't predicate authorization decisions on identity
 - users are authorized to perform roles
 - they must declare that they are operating in a role
 - checks their authorization to function in the role
 - creates credentials to authorize role based operations
 - privileged operations check role credentials
 - specifically check for role-specific privileges
- superior authorization control
 - fine grained operation control for limited periods
 - audit records record the “real person” who took the actions

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Trust Worthy Software

- very carefully developed
 - designed with security as a primary goal
 - stringent design and code review processes
 - extensive testing
 - open source helps, but is a two-edged sword
- obtained from a trusted source
 - who can certify its authenticity
 - who has a high stake in its correctness
 - who maintains and updates it well

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Trusted Applications

- Not all trusted code is in the OS kernel
 - file system management and back-up
 - login and user-account management
 - network services (remote file systems, email)
- These applications have special privileges
 - they can execute privileged system calls
 - they can access files that belong to multiple users
 - they can access otherwise protected devices
 - they can compromise system security

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Special Application Privileges

- privileged daemons ... started by the OS
 - many system daemons run as the super user
 - others are run as the owner of key resources
- privileged commands ... run by users
 - UNIX SetUID/SetGID load modules
 - run with the credentials of the program's owner
 - may be able to create/set their own credentials
 - e.g. login, sudo
 - these must be very carefully designed/reviewed

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Can we trust trusted applications?

- most complex programs have many bugs
 - unfortunately even the best code is imperfect
 - some bugs just make the program fail
 - some bugs make the programs do the wrong thing
- real example: login buffer overflow bug
 - login program checks entered passwd w/correct one
 - buffer for real passwd is after buffer for entered one
 - entering a very long password overwrites real one
- determined hackers will find & exploit such bugs

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the login buffer overflow bug

```

char inbuf[80];          /* buffer for user entered password */
char pwbuf[80];        /* buffer for real password (encrypted) */
....
getpwent( uname, pwbuf ); /* get real (encrypted) password */
stty( 0, no_echo );      /* no echo, character at a time input */
write(1,"password: ", 9); /* prompt user for password */
p = inbuf;
do { read(0, p, 1);      /* read password entered by user */
    } while (*p++) != '\n'); /* until a newline character is entered */
pencrypt(inbuf);        /* encrypt what the user entered */
if (strcmp(inbuf, pwbuf, 8) == 0) /* see if it matches real password */
    ... he's in

```

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Trojan Horses

- accidental bugs in trusted software create holes
 - what if the software was designed with evil intent?
- the original "Trojan Horse" and the fall of Troy
 - the Greeks built it, left it, and departed
 - the Trojans thought it was a tribute to their valor
 - the Trojans brought it into the city and had a party
 - that night, soldiers came out and destroyed Troy
- modern "Trojan Horses" (phishing)
 - pretend to be the login program
 - pretend to be financial institution web-page

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Ken Thompson's 3-part Trojan Horse

Trojan horse #1 ... in the login program
recognizes a special (hard-coded) password and will allow anyone who knows it to log on as any user.

Trojan horse #2 ... in the C compiler
recognizes the password checking code in the login program, and automatically inserts Trojan horse #1 into the compiled code.

Trojan horse #3 ... in the C compiler
recognizes the code generator in the C compiler, and automatically inserts both Trojan horses (#2 and #3) into the compiled code.

None of these can be found by reading the code of either the login program or compiler.

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Plaintext and Ciphertext

- Plaintext** is the original form of the message (often referred to as *P*)

Transfer \$100 to my savings account
- Ciphertext** is the encrypted form of the message (often referred to as *C*)

Sqzmredq #099
sn lx rzuhmfr
zbbntms

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Symmetric Cryptosystems

- $C = E(K, P)$
 - cipher text is encrypted using key and plain text
- $P = D(K, C)$
 - plain text is decrypted using key and cipher text
- $P = D(K, E(K, P))$
 - decryption is the inverse of encryption
 - $E()$ and $D()$ may be different functions
- Privacy: difficult to infer *P* from *C* without *K*
- Authenticity: difficult to forge *P'* without *K*

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Simple Symmetric Encryption

sender's system insecure network receiver's system

message → symmetric encryption → encrypted transmission → symmetric encryption → message

shared secret (e.g. password)

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Some Popular Symmetric Ciphers

- The Data Encryption Standard (DES)
 - the old US encryption standard (56-bit keys)
 - still fairly widely used, due to legacy
 - weak by modern standards
- The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)
 - the current US encryption standard (128-256 bit keys)
 - probably the most widely used cipher
- Blowfish
 - popular, general purpose, public domain
 - relatively strong (32-448 bit keys)
- there are many others

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Symmetric Encryption

- Advantages
 - privacy and authentication in one operation
 - relatively efficient/inexpensive algorithms
 - no central authentication services required
- Disadvantages
 - scalability ... establishing keys w/many partners
 - authentication ... doesn't work w/new partners
 - privacy ... shared secret is known by one-too-many
 - weakness ... short keys are subject to brute force

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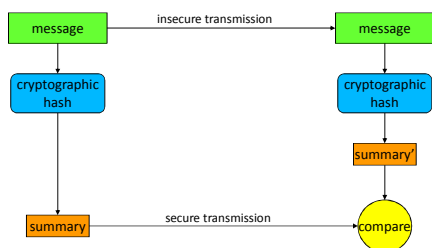
Tamper Detection: Cryptographic Hashes

- check-sums often used to detect data corruption
 - add up all bytes in a block, send sum along with data
 - recipient adds up all the received bytes
 - if check-sums agree, the data is probably OK
 - check-sum (parity, CRC, ECC) algorithms are weak
- cryptographic hashes are very strong check-sums
 - unique –two messages won't produce same hash
 - one way – cannot infer original input from output
 - well distributed – any change to input changes output
- much less expensive than encryption

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Cryptographic Hash Authentication



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(Using Cryptographic Hashes)

- start with a message you want to protect
- compute a cryptographic hash for that message
 - e.g. using the Message Digest 5 (MD5) algorithm
- transmit the hash over a separate channel
- recipient computes hash of received text
 - if both hash results agree, the message is intact
 - else message has been corrupted/compromised
- hash must be delivered over a secure channel
 - encrypted, or otherwise separate and trusted
 - or else bad guy could just forge the validation hash

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Bypassing Mediation

- OS can enforce authorization policy
 - control the operations processes can perform
- OS enforcement has exceptions and limits
 - privileged users can override file protection
 - passwords can be observed/stolen/guessed
 - bugs may enable malware to gain privileges
 - backups can be accessed w/o the OS
 - file systems can be accessed w/o OS
 - data stored in the cloud is beyond our protection

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At-Rest Encryption

- added data protection, beyond file protection
- Disk (or file system) level
 - password must be given at boot or mount time
 - driver or file system does encrypt/decrypt
 - protects computer against unauthorized access
- File level
 - password must be given when file is opened
 - application (or library) does encrypt/decrypt
 - protects file against unauthorized access

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Assignments

- Reading (34pp)
 - AD 47 Distributed Systems
 - Goals and Challenges of Distributed Systems
 - Reiher: Distributed Systems Security
 - RESTful interfaces

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Supplementary Slides

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Authentication and Authorization

- In many security situations, we need to know who wants to do something
 - We allow trusted parties to do it
 - We don't allow others to do it
- That means we need to know who's asking
 - Determining that is *authentication*
- Then we need to check if that party should be allowed to do it
 - Determining that is *authorization*
 - Authorization usually requires authentication

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Why Should we Trust the OS

- Can we trust the supplier's intentions?
 - do they have the right business incentives?
 - will their customers keep them honest?
- Can we trust the supplier's processes?
 - design and code review processes
 - testing processes (including penetration)
 - security bug fixes and patches
 - security bug frequency and severity
- Open Source ... a two edged sword

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Direct Access to Resources

- resource is mapped into process address space
 - process manipulates resource w/normal instructions
 - examples: shared data segment or video frame buffer
- advantages
 - access check is performed only once, at grant time
 - very efficient, process can access resource directly
- disadvantages
 - process may be able to corrupt the resource
 - access revocation may be awkward

Security

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Indirect Access to Resources

- resource is not directly mapped into process
 - process must issue service requests to use resource
 - examples: network and IPC connections
- advantages
 - only resource manager actually touches resource
 - resource manager can ensure integrity of resource
 - access can be checked, blocked, revoked at any time
- disadvantages
 - overhead of system call every time resource is used

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Real World Authentication

- Identification by recognition
 - I see your face and know who you are
- Identification by credentials
 - You show me your driver's license
- Identification by knowledge
 - You tell me something only you know
- Identification by location
 - You're behind the counter at the DMV
- These all have cyber analogs

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Authentication With a Computer

- Not as smart as a human
 - Steps to prove identity must be well defined
- Can't do certain things as well
 - E.g., face recognition
- But lightning fast on computations and less prone to simple errors
 - Mathematical methods are acceptable
- Often must authenticate non-human entities
 - Like processes or machines

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Identities in Operating Systems

- We usually rely primarily on a user ID
 - Which uniquely identifies some user
 - Processes run on his behalf, so they inherit his ID
 - E.g., a forked process has the same user associated as the parent did
- Implies a model where any process belonging to a user has all his privileges
 - Which has its drawbacks
 - But that's what we use

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Bootstrapping OS Authentication

- Processes inherit their user IDs
- But somewhere along the line we have to create a process belonging to a new user
 - Typically on login to a system
- We can't just inherit that identity
- How can we tell who this newly arrived user is?

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Passwords

- Authenticate the user by what he knows
 - A secret word he supplies to the system on login
- System must be able to check that the password was correct
 - Either by storing it
 - Or storing a hash of it
 - That's a much better option
- If correct, tie user ID to a new command shell or window management process

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Problems With Passwords

- They have to be unguessable
 - Yet easy for people to remember
- If networks connect remote devices to computers, susceptible to password sniffers
 - Programs which read data from the network, extracting passwords when they see them
- Unless quite long, brute force attacks often work on them
- Widely regarded as an outdated technology
- But extremely widely used

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Challenge/Response Systems

- Authentication by what questions you can answer correctly
 - Again, by what you know
- The system asks the user to provide some information
- If it's provided correctly, the user is authenticated
- Safest if it's a different question every time
 - Not very practical

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Hardware-Based Challenge/Response

- The challenge is sent to a hardware device belonging to the appropriate user
 - Authentication based on what you have
- Sometimes mere possession of device is enough
 - E.g., text challenges sent to a smart phone to be typed into web request
- Sometimes the device performs a secret function on the challenge
 - E.g., smart cards

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Problems With Challenge/Response

- If based on what you know, usually too few unique and secret challenge/response pairs
- If based on what you have, fails if you don't have it
 - And whoever does have it might pose as you
- Some forms susceptible to network sniffing
 - Much like password sniffing
 - Smart card versions usually not susceptible

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Biometric Authentication

- Authentication based on what you are
- Measure some physical attribute of the user
 - Things like fingerprints, voice patterns, retinal patterns, etc.
- Convert it into a binary representation
- Check the representation against a stored value for that attribute
- If it's a close match, authenticate the user

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Problems With Biometric Authentication

- Requires very special hardware
 - With some minor exceptions
- Many physical characteristics vary too much for practical use
- Generally not helpful for authenticating programs or roles
- Requires special care when done across a network

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Errors in Biometric Authentication

- False positives
 - You identified Bill Smith as Peter Reiher
 - Probably because your biometric system was too generous in making matches
 - Bill Smith can pretend to be me
- False negatives
 - You didn't identify Peter Reiher as Peter Reiher
 - Probably because your biometric system was too stingy in making matches
 - I can't log in to my own account

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Biometrics and Remote Authentication

- The biometric reading is just a bit pattern
- If attacker can obtain a copy, he can send the pattern over the network
 - Without actually performing a biometric reading
- Requires high confidence in security of path between biometric reader and checking device
 - Usually OK when both are on the same machine
 - Problematic when the Internet is between them

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How does the OS ensure security?

- all key resources are kept inside of the OS
 - protected by hardware (mode, memory management)
 - processes cannot access them directly
- all users are authenticated to the OS
 - by a trusted agent that is (essentially) part of the OS
- all access control decisions are made by the OS
 - the only way to access resources is through the OS
 - we trust the OS to ensure privacy and proper sharing
- what if key resources could not be kept in OS?

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Generalized Capabilities

- user file descriptors are per-process capabilities
 - they are associated with a particular process
 - they are stored in the process descriptor
 - they are intrinsically unforgeable
 - they are not transferrable
- generalized capabilities are transferrable
 - they can be delegated to others
 - they can be sent in messages
 - anyone who has the capability can use the resource

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Issues with Generalized Capabilities

- capability containment
 - I give you a capability for my file, you give it to my enemy
 - I want to prevent this, or revoke your access later
- capability forgery
 - if they can be passed in messages, can they be forged?
- make passing of capabilities a protected operation
 - capabilities can be stored in the OS, passing controlled
- make capabilities very difficult to forge
 - not like OS DSCBs, like Digital Signatures

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Can we trust the OS?

- trusted software is developed with great care
 - it is very carefully designed, reviewed, and tested
 - it may be audited/certified by a respected third party
- but we obtain software from insecure places
 - e.g. down-loading drivers, applications and plug-ins
- how can we know new software is good?
 - is it authentic, or a cleverly crafted Trojan horse?
 - has an originally good program been infected?
- we need tamper-proof certificates of authenticity

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Computer Viruses

- a biological virus is the simplest form of life
 - so simple that people argue about whether it is alive
- a biological virus can only do three things:
 - penetrate cells and get to the nucleus
 - force the cell to replicate many more copies of itself
 - copies spread to other cells, the process continues
- a computer virus is completely analogous
 - enter computer, copy itself, spread to other computers
 - enters system through e-mail or infected software
 - some merely reproduce, others are destructive

Security

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Cryptography

- Much of computer security is about keeping secrets
- One method of doing so is to make it hard for others to read the secrets
- While (usually) making it simple for authorized parties to read them
- That's what cryptography is all about
 - Transforming bit patterns in controlled ways to obtain security advantages

Security

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Cryptography Terminology

- Typically described in terms of sending a message
 - Though it's used for many other purposes
- The sender is S
- The receiver is R
- *Encryption* is the process of making message unreadable/unalterable by anyone but R
- *Decryption* is the process of making the encrypted message readable by R
- A system performing these transformations is a *cryptosystem*
 - Rules for transformation sometimes called a *cipher*

Security

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Cryptographic Keys

- Most cryptographic algorithms use a *key*
 - often referred to as K
- The key is a secret
 - without the key, decryption is hard
 - with the key, decryption is easy
- One secret key can encrypt many messages
 - but there's still a secret
 - if it is compromised, all the messages are as well

Security

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More Terminology

- The encryption algorithm is referred to as $E()$
- $C = E(K,P)$
- The decryption algorithm is referred to as $D()$
- The decryption algorithm also has a key
- The combination of the two algorithms are often called a *cryptosystem*

Security

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Disadvantages of Symmetric Cryptosystems

- Encryption and authentication performed in a single operation
 - Makes signature more difficult
- Non-repudiation hard without servers
- Key distribution can be a problem
- Scaling
 - Especially for Internet use

Security

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Symmetric Ciphers and Brute Force Attacks

- If your symmetric cipher has no flaws, how can attackers crack it?
- *Brute force* – try every possible key until one works
- The cost of brute force attacks depends on key length
 - For N possible keys, attack must try N/2 keys, on average, before finding the right one
- DES uses 56 bit keys
 - Too short for modern brute force attacks
- AES uses 128 or 256 bit keys
 - Long enough

Security

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