Computer Security

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1 Introduction to Computer Security

1.1 Security requirements

CIA Paradighm

Confidentiality Information can be accessed only by authorized entities

Integrity information can be modified only by authorized entities, and only how they're entitled to do

Availability information must be available to entitled entities, within specified time constraints

The engineering problem is that **A** conflicts with **C** and **I**

2 Computer Security Concepts

2.1 General concepts

Vulnerability Something that allows to violate some CIA constraints

- The physical behaviour of pins in a lock
- A software vulnerable to SQL injecton

Exploit A specific way to use one or more vulnerability to violate the constraints

- lockpicking
- the strings to use for SQL injection

Assets what is valuable/needs to be protected

- hardware
- software
- data
- reputation

Thread potential violation of the CIA

- DoS
- data break

Attack an intentional use of one or more exploits aiming to compromise the CIA

- Picking a lock to enter a building
- Sending a string creafted for SQL injection

Thread agent whoever/whatever may cause an attack to occour

- a thief
- an hacker
- malicious software

Hackers, attackers, and so on

Hacker Someone proficient in computers and networks

Black hat Malicious hacker

White hat Security professional

Risk statistical and economical evaluation of the exposure to damage because of vulneravilities and threads
$Risk = \underbrace{Assets \times Vulnerabilities}_{\text{controllable}} \times \underbrace{Threads}_{\text{independent}}$

Security balance of (vulnerability reduction+damage containment) vs cost

2.2 Security vs Cost

Direct cost

- Management
- Operational
- Equipment

Indirect cost

- Less usability
- Less performance
- Less privacy

Trust We must **assume** something as secure

- the installed software?
- our code?
- the compiler?
- the OS?
- the hardware?

3 Introduction to crypthography

Kerchoffs' Principle The security of a (good) cryptosystem relies only on the security of the key, never on the secrecy of the algorithm

3.1 Perfect Chipher

- $P(M = m)$ probability of observing message m
- $P(M = m|C = c)$ probability that the message was m given the observed cyphertext c

Perfect cypher: $P(M = m|C = c) = P(M = m)$

Shannon's theorem in a perfect cipher $|K| \geq |M|$

One Time Pad a real example of perfect chipher

Algorithm 1 One Time Pad

Require: $len(m) = len(k)$
Require: keys not to be reused
  return $k \oplus m$

Brute Force perfect chyphers are immune to brute force (as many "reasonable" messages will be produced). Real world chiphers are not.
A real chipher is vulnerable if there is a way to break it that is faster then brute forcing

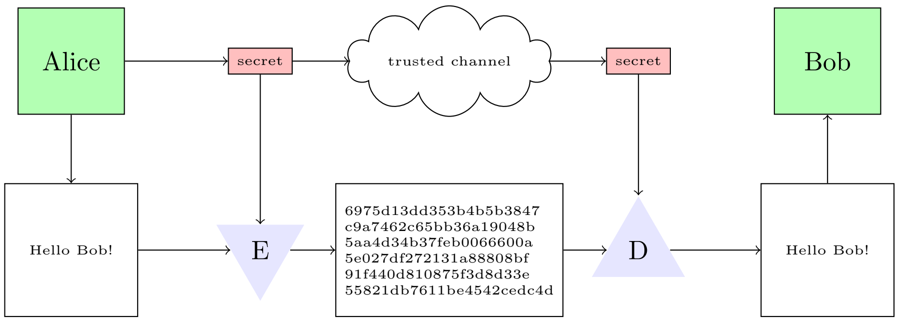
Types of attack

Ciphertext attack analyst has only the chipheertexts

Known plaintext attack analyst has some pairs of plaintext-chiphertext

Chosen plaintext attack analyst can choose plaintexts and obtain their respective ciphertext

3.2 Symmetric encryption



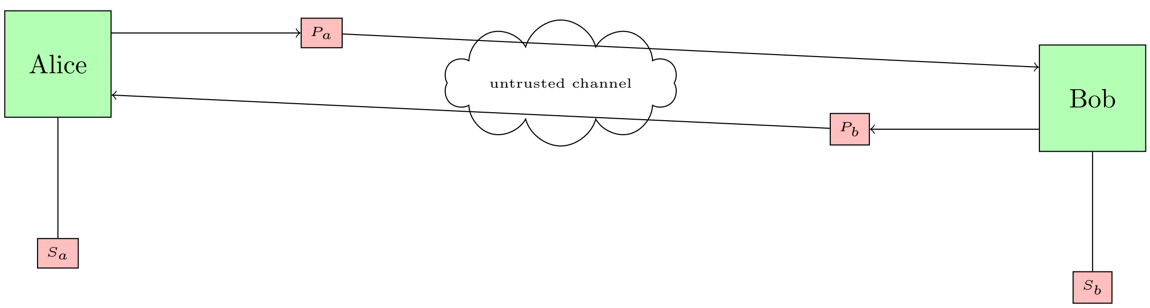
Use **K** to both encrypt and decript the message
Scalability issue
Key agreement issue

3.2.1 Ingredients

Substitution Replace each byte with another (ex: caesar chipher)

Transposition swap the values of given bits (ex: read vertically)

3.3 Asymetric encryption



Each user owns a private and a public key (S_i, P_i), where the public key is publicly available. The cryptoalgorithm is designed so that messages encrypted using P_i can only be decrypted using S_i. This allows Alice to encrypt a message using P_{bob}, and Bob (and nobody else) to decrypt is using S_{bob}. Also, to prove its identity, Bob could send a message encrypted using P_{bob}. When Alice manages to decrypt is using P_{bob}, she can be sure that the message came from Bob

3.4 Hash functions

A function $H : X \to Y$ having $|X| = \infty$ but $|Y| = k \in \mathbb{N}$. This means $|Y| < |X|$, leading to <u>collisions</u>: couples $x_1, x_2 \in X : H(x_1) = H(x_2)$.

Safery properties are proberties needed to ensure robustness of H. In particular, it must be computationally infeasible to find:

preimage attack resistance $x : H(x) = h$ with h known/crafted

second preimage attack resistance $y : y \neq x \wedge H(x) = H(y)$, where x is known/crafted

collision resistance $x, y : H(x) = H(y)$

3.4.1 Attacks to Hash Functions

Preimage attack Given an hash h, the attacker can find x such that $H(x) = h$, or given x, they can find y such that $H(x) = H(y)$. This can be done faster than brute force.
With $|Y| = n$, random collisions happen in 2^{n-1} cases

Simplified collision attack The attacker can generate $x, y :\ H(x) = H(y)$ faster than brute force.
Random collisions happen in $2^{n/2}$ cases (for the Birthday paradox)

3.5 Digital Signature

To digitally sign a message, we first hash the message. Then, we encrypt the hash with our private key.
This however only guarantees that the sign was produced using our secret key, but someone may have stolen/guessed our private key.

3.5.1 PKI

Public Key Infrastructures is a service entitled to associate an identity to a key. To do so it uses a trusted third party called **Certification Authority**. The CA signs files called **digital certificates**, which bind an identity to a public key.

Top-level CA is a special CA that self-signs its certificates. It is a trusted element. The Root CA can then sign certificates for other CAs. In practice, a Root CA is a real world CA (the state, a regulatory organization...)

Revocation Signatures cannot be revoked, but certificates can be revoked (declared invalid), for example because the private key has been broken.
To do so, a Certificate Revocation List must exist for each CA

4 Authentication

Identification an entity provides its identifier

Authentication an entity provides a proof that verifies its identity

- Unidirectional authentication
- Bidirectional authentication

Three factors authentication

Something I know low cost, easy to deploy, low effectiveness . Possible attack classes are snooping (so change the passwords), cracking (so use strong passwords) and guessing (so don't use your birthday)

- Password
- PIN
- Secret handshake

Something I have reduces the impact of human factor, relatively low cost, high security. Hard to deploy, can be lost (so use a backup factor)

- Door key
- Smart card

Something I am High level of security, no extra hw needed. Hard to deploy, non-deterministic, invasive, can be cloned. Biological entities change, privacy can be an issue, users with disabilities may be restrained.

- DNA
- Voice
- Fingerprint
- Face scan

Single Sign On Like OAuth2: exploit an ad-hoc authentication server, accessible from many apps

5 Access control

- Binary decision: allowed or denied
- Hard to scale (answers must be condensed in rules)
- Questions:
  - How do we design the rules?
  - How do we express them?
  - How do we apply them?

Reference monitor entity that encorces control access policies. Implemented by default in all modern kernels

- Tamper proof
- Cannot be bypassed
- Small enough to be verified/tested

5.1 Access Control Models

Discretionary Access Control Resource owner discretionarily decides the access privileges of the resource. Default in all off-the-shelf OS.

5.1.1 Model

We need to model:

Subjects Who can exercise privileges

Objects On what privileges can be exercised

Actions Which can be exercised

	file1	**file2**	**directory7**	**...**
Alice	Read	Read,Write,Own		...
Bob	Read,Write,Own	Read	Read,Write,Own	...
Charlie	Read,Write		Read	...
...	...	...	...	⋱

5.1.2 HRU model

Basic operations

- Create/destroy subject S
- Create/destroy object O
- Add/remove permission from $[S, O]$ matrix

Transitions atomic sequence of basic operations (as usual)

Safety problem Does it exist a transition that leaks a certain right into the access matrix?

Undecidable problem becomes decidable if

- Mono-operational systems $\rightarrow$ useless
- Finite number of objects/subjects

5.2 Common implementation

- Reproduction of HRU models
- Sparse access matrix
- Authorizations table (records S-O-A triples)
- Access control list (record by colums: S-A per O)
- Capability List (records by row (O-A by S)

5.3 Issues

- Safety cannot be proven
- Coarse granularity (can't check data inside the objects)
- Scalability and management (each user can compromise security)