Title Goes Here

Understanding Authentication and Access Control in Distributed Systems

Mike Reiter

University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

Partially based on: Lampson, Abadi, Burrows and Wobber. Authentication in distributed systems: Theory and practice. *ACM TOCS* 10(4), November 1992.

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Access Control

- Principal makes a request for an object
- Reference monitor grants or denies the request



Ex: Host Route packet Firewall

- Authentication: Determining who made request
- Authorization: Determining whether requestor is trusted to access an object
 - The "decision" the reference monitor must make

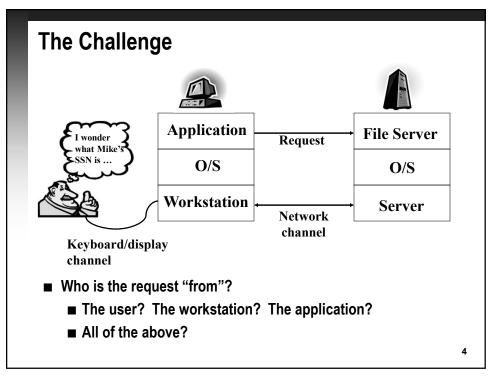
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Authenticating a Channel

- Each request arrives on some channel, e.g.,
 - **▼** Kernel call from a user process
 - Network connection
 - A channel defined by a cryptographic key
- Reference monitor must authenticate the channel, i.e., determine whom the request is from
- Easy in a centralized system
 - OS implements all channels and knows the principal responsible for each process
- Harder in a distributed system
 - Request may have traversed different, not-equally-trusted machines
 - Different types of channels
 - Some parts of the system may be faulty or broken

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Our Approach to Studying the Problem

- Explain authentication and access control using a logic
- The logic forces us to make assumptions explicit and teaches us how to think about access control
- Logic helps us to reason about principals and the statements they make
- Principals can be
 - **▼** Keys
 - ▼ People
 - **■** Machines
 - ▼ Principals in roles
 - Groups
 - ◥ ...

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Trusted Computing Base (TCB)

- Logic will help us identify the "trusted computing base", i.e., the collection of hardware and software that security depends on
 - Compromise or failure of a TCB element may result in an incorrect "Yes" access-control decision
- Thus, TCB should be as small as possible
 - Must be carefully tested, analyzed and protected
- Benign failure of an untrusted (non-TCB) element may produce more "No" answers, not more "Yes" ones
 - This is called "fail secure" or "fail safe"
- Ex: An untrusted server holding a digitally signed credential
 - Failure prevents credential from being retrieved (more "Nos")
 - Cannot undetectably modify the credential (due to the signature)

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The Logic

- The logic is inhabited by
 - <u>Terms</u> that denote principals and strings
 - ▼ Formulas that are either "true" or "false"
- Terms:

$$t ::= s \mid p$$
$$p ::= \text{key}(s) \mid p.s$$

where s ranges over strings and p over principals

■ Formulas:

 $\phi ::= s \text{ signed } \phi \mid p \text{ says } \phi$ $\phi ::= action(s) \mid p \text{ speaksfor } p \mid delegate(p, p, s)$ where s ranges over strings and p over principals

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A Logic of Authorization (cont.)

■ Inference rules

$$\frac{pubkey \mathbf{signed} F}{\mathbf{key}(pubkey) \mathbf{says} F}$$
 (says-I)

$$\frac{A \text{ says } (A.S \text{ says } F)}{A.S \text{ says } F}$$
 (says-LN)

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A Logic of Authorization (cont.)

■ Inference rules

$$\frac{F}{A \text{ says } F}$$
 (says-I2)

$$\frac{A \text{ says } (F \to G) \quad A \text{ says } F}{A \text{ says } G}$$
 (impl-E)

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A Logic of Authorization (cont.)

■ Inference rules

$$\frac{A \text{ says } (B \text{ speaksfor } A) \qquad B \text{ says } F}{A \text{ says } F}$$
 (speaksfor-E)

$$\frac{A \text{ says } (B \text{ speaksfor } A.S)}{A.S \text{ says } F}$$
 (speaksfor-E2)

$$\frac{A \text{ says delegates}(A, B, U) \quad B \text{ says action}(U)}{A \text{ says action}(U)}$$
 (delegate-E)

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Message Authentication Codes (Informal Defn)

- A message authentication code (MAC) scheme is a triple $\langle G, T, V \rangle$ of efficiently computable functions
 - **▼** *G* outputs a "secret key" *K*

$$K \leftarrow G(\cdot)$$

■ T takes a key K and "message" m as input, and outputs a "tag" t

$$t \leftarrow T_{K}(m)$$

 \blacksquare V takes a message m, tag t and key K as input, and outputs a bit b

$$b \leftarrow V_K(m, t)$$

- If $t \leftarrow T_K(m)$ then $V_K(m, t)$ outputs 1 ("valid")
- **■** Given only message/tag pairs $\{ < m_i, T_K(m_i) > \}_i$, it is computationally infeasible to compute < m, t > such that

$$V_K(m, t) = 1$$

for any new $m \neq m_i$

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Digital Signatures (Informal Definition)

- A digital signature scheme is a triple $\langle G, S, V \rangle$ of efficiently computable algorithms
 - **■** *G* outputs a "public key" K and a "private key" K^{-1}

$$< K, K^{-1} > \leftarrow G(\cdot)$$

■ S takes a "message" m and K^{-1} as input and outputs a "signature" σ

$$\sigma \leftarrow S_{K^{-1}}(m)$$

■ V takes a message m, signature σ and public key K as input, and outputs a bit b

$$b \leftarrow V_K(m, \sigma)$$

- **■** If $\sigma \leftarrow S_{K^{-1}}(m)$ then $V_K(m, \sigma)$ outputs 1 ("valid")
- **¬** Given only *K* and message/signature pairs $\{ < m_i, S_{K^{-1}}(m_i) > \}_i$, it is computationally infeasible to compute $< m, \sigma >$ such that

$$V_{\kappa}(m, \sigma) = 1$$

any new $m \neq m_i$

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Hash Functions

■ A hash function is an efficiently computable function *h* that maps an input *x* of arbitrary bit length to an output

$$y \leftarrow h(x)$$

of fixed bit length

- **■** Preimage resistance: Given only y, it is computationally infeasible to find any x' such that h(x') = y.
- **■** 2nd preimage resistance: Given x, it is computationally infeasible to find any $x' \neq x$ such that h(x') = h(x).
- **■** Collision resistance: It is computationally infeasible to find any two distinct inputs x, x' such that h(x) = h(x').

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Cryptographic Keys as Channels

- Let t be a MAC tag on message x such that $V_K(x, t) = 1$
- Let σ be a digital signature on x such that $V_K(x, \sigma) = 1$
- Interpret t or σ as "K signed x" (for respective K)
- Sometimes, public identifiers are needed for keys (channels)
 - If *K* is a public key, then id(K) = K
 - If K is a secret key, then id(K) = h(K) works if h is a preimage resistant, 2^{nd} preimage resistant, and collision-resistant function
- "id(K) signed x" can be used in place of "K signed x" when encoded in a system, if necessary

Authenticating a Channel

- \blacksquare Reference monitor receives a request C says s
- An access-control list usually specifies named principals
- Thus, reference monitor must collect certificates to prove that C speaksfor A for some A on the access control list
- Two general methods
 - Push: The sender on the channel *C* collects *A*'s credentials and presents them to authenticate the channel to the receiver.
 - Pull: The receiver looks up *A* in some database to get credentials for *A* when it needs to authenticate the sender.

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Certification Authorities

- Credentials typically come from "certification authorities"
- A certification authority is a named principal *CA*
- CA issues statements of the form

 K_{CA} signed (key(K_A) speaksfor key(K_{CA}).A)

- lacktriangleq If K_{CA} is a public key, this statement is called a *certificate*
 - But K_{CA} can be a symmetric key, too

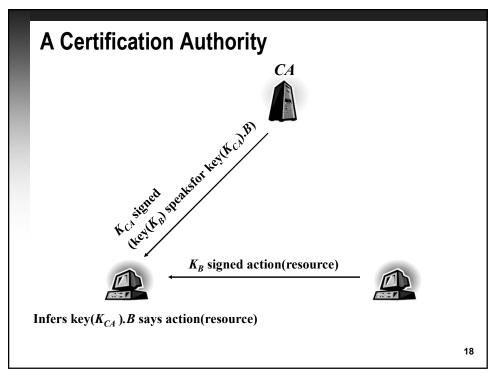
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An Example Proof

- 1. K_{CA} signed (key(K_A) speaksfor key(K_{CA}).A)
- 2. K_A signed action(resource)
- 3. $key(K_{CA})$ says $(key(K_A)$ speaksfor $key(K_{CA}).A)$ says-I(1)
- 4. $key(K_A)$ says action(resource) says-I(2)
- 5. $key(K_{CA})A$ says action(resource) speaksfor-E2(3, 4)

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Groups

- A group is a principal whose members speak for it
- Simplest way to define a group *G* is for a defining *CA* to issue certificates

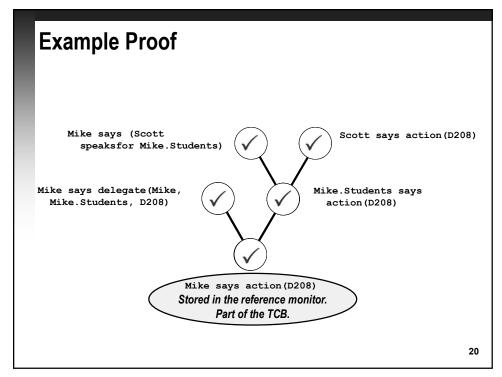
$$\begin{split} & \ker(K_{C\!A}) \text{ says } P_1 \text{ speaks for } \ker(K_{\mathrm{CA}}).G \\ & \ker(K_{C\!A}) \text{ says } P_2 \text{ speaks for } \ker(K_{\mathrm{CA}}).G \end{split}$$

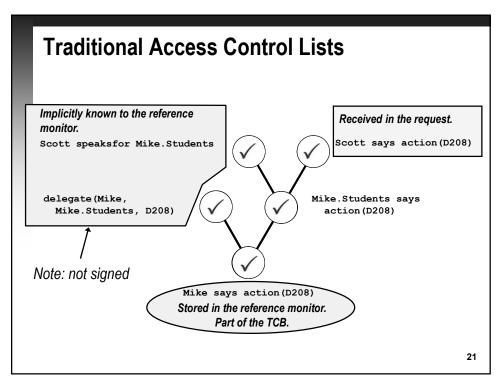
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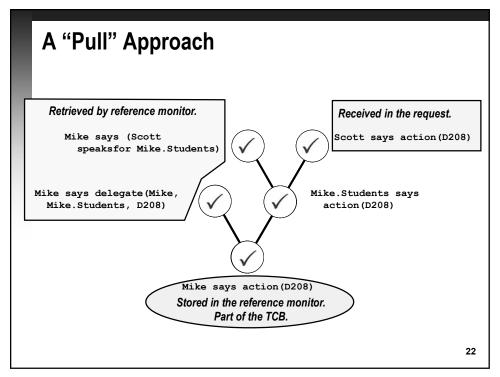
for group members P_1, P_2, \dots

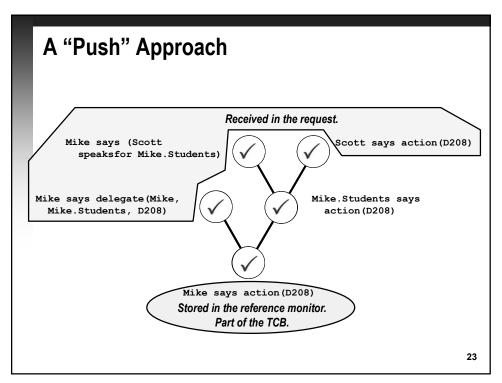
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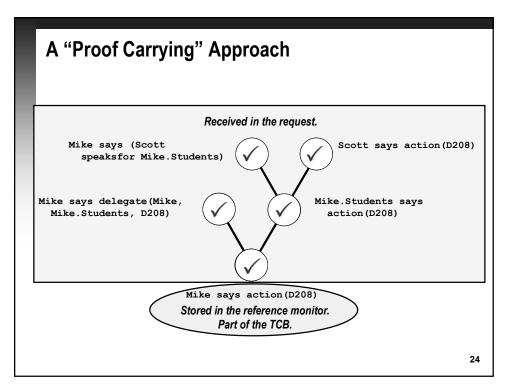
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Roles

- Suppose a principal wants to *limit* its authority
 - Reiter "as" GamePlayer
 - Reiter "as" SysAdmin
- Intuition: A "as" R should be weaker than A
- A can accomplish this by enabling statements of the form

A.R says F

to be created

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Programs as an Application of Roles

- Acting in a role is like acting according to some program
- If node N is running program with text I, then N can make N.I says F

for a statement F made by the process running I

■ Instead of using the whole program I, N can instead make

N.D says F

where D = h(I) for h a collision-resistant and 2^{nd} preimage resistant hash function, and using

D speaksfor P

where P is the program name

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Loading Programs

- To load program named P, node N
 - Creates a process pr
 - \blacksquare Reads text *I* of file *P* from the file system
 - **▼** Finds credentials for *D* speaksfor *P* and checks h(I) = D
 - Copies *I* into *pr*
 - \blacksquare Gives pr ability to write to channel C
 - \blacksquare Emit: N says C speaksfor N.P
- Now pr can issue requests on channel C
 - \blacksquare Will be granted if *N.P* is on ACL

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Virus Control

- Some viruses alter texts of programs in the file system
 - If I' is the infected program text, then D' = h(I') will be different from D = h(I), and so D speaksfor P will not apply
- Certification authority *CA* can issue certificates

 K_{CA} signed P speaksfor $key(K_{CA})$.trustedSW

 K_{CA} signed N speaksfor $key(K_{CA})$.trustedNodes

 K_{CA} signed (P speaksfor key(K_{CA}).trustedSW \land

N **speaksfor** $key(K_{CA})$.trustedNodes \rightarrow

N.P **speaksfor** key(K_{CA}).trustedNode.trustedSW)

where trusted SW and trusted Nodes are group names, P is a program name, and N is a node name

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Secure Booting

- 'trustedNodes' should be computers that
 - **▼** run operating systems validated before booting
 - **▼** validate other software before loading it
- Validating O/S during boot is like validating other software
 - Machine W holds h(I) in boot ROM, where I is O/S image ■ i.e., h(I) speaksfor P
- \blacksquare To create a channel C such that C speaksfor W.P, W can
 - **■** Generate a new signature key pair $K_{W,P}$, $K_{W,P}^{-1}$, and
 - **■** Give $K_{W,P}^{-1}$ to P, along with K_W signed key $(K_{W,P})$ speaksfor key $(K_W).P$
- \blacksquare Private key for K_W must be protected in secure hardware
 - Otherwise, O/S can read it

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Example: TCG

- Historically, PC manufacturers have chosen flexibility over security
 - User can modify the PC in any way she likes
 - PC does not have hardware protection for boot procedure, does not validate O/S before loading it, does not validate other programs
- This is changing with efforts like the Trusted Computing Group (TCG; www.trustedcomputinggroup.org)
 - Alliance formed in Jan 1999 by Compaq, HP, IBM, Intel & Microsoft
 - More than 150 companies by 2002
 - Developing a standard for a "trusted platform" (TP), based on principles similar to those we've discussed
 - Scope of specs is at hardware, O/S and BIOS levels
 - Main spec released in Aug 2000 (v1.0) and Feb 2001 (v1.1)
 - **▼** PC-specific spec released in Sep 2001

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Example: TCG

- Some goals of TP
 - Enable local and remote users to obtain reliable information about the software running on the platform
 - Provide a basis for secure key storage
 - Enable conditional release of secret information to the TP based on the software running
- TP enabled by a "trusted processing module" (TPM)
 - A hardware processing component that is isolated from software attacks and at least partially resistant to hardware tampering
- Each TPM is equipped with a different private key K_{TPM}^{-1} and a certificate

 K_{TPME} says $\text{key}(K_{\text{TPM}})$ speaksfor $\text{key}(K_{\text{TPME}})$. TrustedProcessingModules signed by a "trusted platform module entity" (TPME)

■ TrustedProcessingModules is a group

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TCG "Roots of Trust"

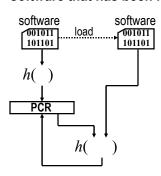
TCPA specifies two logical "roots of trust"

- Root of trust for measurement (RTM): A platform-dependent component that starts "measurement" of software running
 - In a PC, the RTM is the platform itself, which is acceptable only if the RTM cannot be subverted before or during its operation
 - In practice, this means that the RTM must run first (or everything that is run before it is trusted)
 - e.g., BIOS boot block, called the "core root of trust for measurement" (CRTM)
- Root of trust for reporting (RTR): A platform-independent component that stores "measurements" as they happen, in such a way that measurements cannot be "undone"
 - **■** RTR is implemented by the TPM

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TPM Platform Configuration Registers

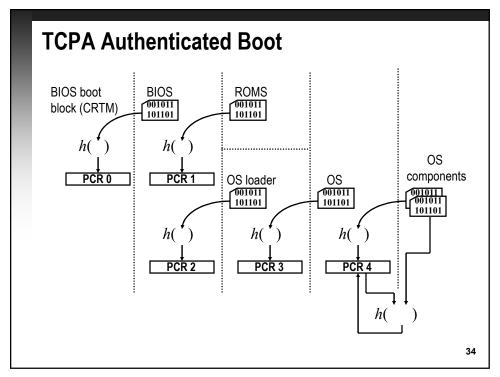
- TPM (version 1.1) contains sixteen 20-byte "platform configuration registers" (PCRs)
 - 20 bytes in order to store a SHA-1 hash value
- Each PCR records the last in a sequence of hashes of the software that has been loaded and run



- PCR is updated before newly loaded software gets control
- PCR cannot be erased except by reboot (or protected processor instruction in v1.2 TPMs)
- In this way, PCR contains record of software running

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TCG Secure Boot

- Non-volatile "data integrity registers" (DIRs) are loaded with expected PCR values
 - DIRs are contained within TPM and require owner authorization to write
- If a PCR value, when computed, doesn't match corresponding DIR value, then boot is canceled

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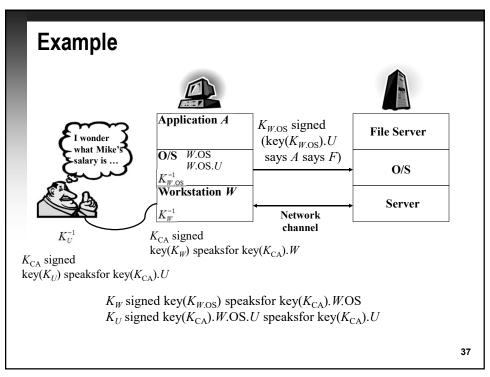
TCG Integrity Challenge and Response

- Remote machine can query TPM for contents of PCRs
- **TPM responds with signed PCR values**
 - **■** Think of it as signed with K_{TPM}

 K_{TPM} signed PCRvals = ...

- **■** (In reality, is not signed with K_{TPM} but another "identity key" is used to enhance privacy)
- TP additionally responds with records (hints) of what is "summarized" in the PCR values
 - Records could contain software itself, but more likely contains name, supplier, version, and URL for software
 - Enables remote machine to reconstruct and check PCR values
 - Records not trusted and so are stored outside TPM

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Example (cont.)

- 1. K_{CA} signed key(K_W) speaksfor key(K_{CA}).W
- 2. K_{CA} signed key(K_U) speaksfor key(K_{CA}).U
- 3. K_W signed key($K_{W.OS}$) speaksfor key(K_{CA}). W.OS
- 4. K_U signed key(K_{CA}).W.OS.U speaksfor key(K_{CA}).U
- 5. $K_{W.OS}$ signed (key($K_{W.OS}$). U speaksfor key(K_{CA}). W.OS.U)
- 6. $K_{W.OS}$ signed (key($K_{W.OS}$).U says A says F)
- 7. $key(K_{CA})$ says $key(K_W)$ speaksfor $key(K_{CA}).W$ says-I(1)
- 8. $key(K_{CA})$ says $key(K_U)$ speaksfor $key(K_{CA}).U$ says-I(2)
- 9. $key(K_W)$ says $key(K_{W.OS})$ speaksfor $key(K_{CA}).W.OS$ says-I(3)
- 10. $\text{key}(K_U)$ says $\text{key}(K_{CA}).W.OS.U$ speaksfor $\text{key}(K_{CA}).U$ says-I(4)
- 11. $\text{key}(K_{W.OS})$ says $(\text{key}(K_{W.OS}).U$ speaksfor $\text{key}(K_{CA}).W.OS.U)$

says-I(5)

12. $key(K_{W.OS})$ says $(key(K_{W.OS}).U$ says A says F) says-I(6)

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Example (cont.)

- 13. $\text{key}(K_{\text{CA}}).W$ says $\text{key}(K_{W.\text{OS}})$ speaks for $\text{key}(K_{\text{CA}}).W.\text{OS}$ speaks for-E2(7, 9)
- 14. $\text{key}(K_{\text{CA}}).U$ says $(\text{key}(K_{\text{CA}}).W.\text{OS}.U$ speaksfor $\text{key}(K_{\text{CA}}).U)$ speaksfor-E2(8, 10)
- 15. $\text{key}(K_{\text{CA}}).W.\text{OS says }(\text{key}(K_{W.\text{OS}}).U \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{\text{CA}}).W.\text{OS}.U)$ speaksfor-E2(13, 11)
- 16. $key(K_{W.OS}).U$ says A says F says-LN(12)
- 17. $key(K_{CA}).W.OS.U$ says A says F speaksfor-E2(15, 16)
- 18. $key(K_{CA}).U$ says A says F speaksfor-E(14, 17)

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Example: Web Server Authentication (1)

- What happens when you access https://www.foo.com?
- A protocol called Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) or Transport Layer Security (TLS) is used to authenticate the web server
 - Also performs other functions that are not important for the moment

HTTP	FTP	SMTP
SSL or TLS		
ТСР		
IP		

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Example: Web Server Authentication (2)

■ As part of SSL/TLS, web server sends a certificate

 K_{CA} signed (key($K_{\text{www.foo.com}}$) speaksfor key(K_{CA}).'www.foo.com') to browser

■ Browser is shipped with public keys for numerous CAs:

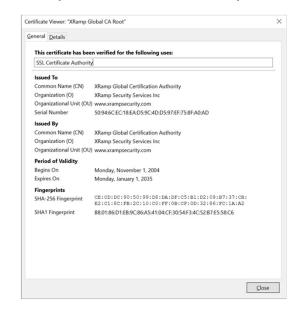
$$K_{CA1}$$
 , K_{CA2} , K_{CA3} , ...

- E.g., Mozilla Firefox 58.0.1 ships with *hundreds* of CA keys preloaded
- Reportedly these represent organizations from all over the world
- Should we really trust that $key(K_{CA})$.'www.foo.com' is the "right" www.foo.com for all of these CAs?

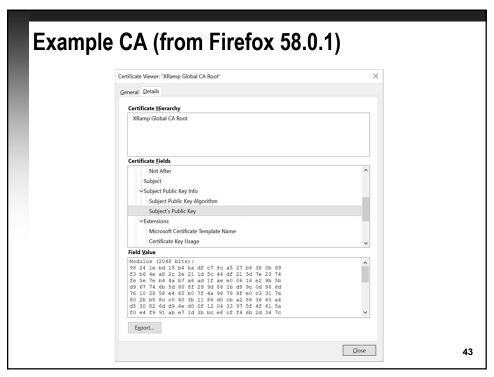
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Example CA (from Firefox 58.0.1)



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What if $K_{ m www.foo.co\ m}^{-1}$ Is Compromised?

- In SSL/TLS, the certificate is sent from the web server
 - CA sends long-lived certificate to web server in advance
 - Web server stores it, and forwards it in SSL/TLS handoff protocol
- This structure has a benefit
 - K_{CA}^{-1} can be kept offline and made more secure
- What if $K_{\text{www.foo.com}}^{-1}$ is exposed?
 - **■** CA may wish to revoke the statement (certificate) K_{CA} **signed** (key($K_{www.foo.com}$) **speaksfor** key(K_{CA}).'www.foo.com')

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Certificate Countersigning

- For rapid certificate revocation, there needs to be some online authority *O* that vouches for it
 - Compromise of *O* can keep a certificate "alive" longer than it should be, but cannot make new certificates
- CA makes a weaker certificate

$$K_{CA}$$
 signed ($(\text{key}(K_O) \text{ says key}(K_A) \text{ speaks for key}(K_O).A)$
 $\rightarrow \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaks for key}(K_{CA}).A$)

■ O "countersigns" with

$$K_O$$
 signed (date() < '2019.02.01'
 $\rightarrow \text{key}(K_A)$ speaksfor $\text{key}(K_O).A$)

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Certificate Countersigning

- 1. K_{CA} signed ((key(K_O) says key(K_A) speaksfor key(K_O).A) \rightarrow key(K_A) speaksfor key(K_CA).A)
- 2. K_0 signed (date() < '2019.02.01' \rightarrow key(K_A) speaksfor key(K_0).A)
- 3. $\ker(K_{CA})$ says $((\ker(K_O) \text{ says } \ker(K_A) \text{ speaks for } \ker(K_O).A)$ $\rightarrow \ker(K_A)$ speaks for $\ker(K_{CA}).A)$ says-I(1)
- 4. $\ker(K_O)$ says (date() < '2019.02.01' $\rightarrow \ker(K_A)$ speaksfor $\ker(K_O)$.A) says-I(2)
- 5. date() < '2019.02.01'
- s. $key(K_0)$ says (date() < '2019.02.01') says-I2(5)
- 7. $key(K_0)$ says $key(K_A)$ speaksfor $key(K_0)A$ impl-E(4, 6)
- 8. $key(K_{CA})$ says $(key(K_O)$ says $key(K_A)$ speaksfor $key(K_O).A)$

says-I2(7)

9. $key(K_{CA})$ says $key(K_A)$ speaksfor $key(K_{CA}).A$ impl-E(3, 8)

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Certificate Revocation Lists

- Certificate Revocation Lists (CRLs) are an alternative to countersignatures by an online authority
 - Also more commonly used
- Each CA periodically produces a digitally signed statement recanting listed certificates

 K_{CA} says "certificates 134, 538, and 977 are invalid" Certificate serial numbers

- CRLs must have limited lifetimes
- All certificate serial numbers must be included in one CRL

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Revisiting Trust of CA

- Trusting that for all CAs, $key(K_{CA}).A$ is the "correct" A is too strong
 - Remember that Firefox comes shipped with hundreds of them!
- A better approach would reduce this trust
- If principal names are hierarchical, then this is natural
 - Many naming schemes are hierarchical, but the most well known one is the Domain Name System ("DNS")

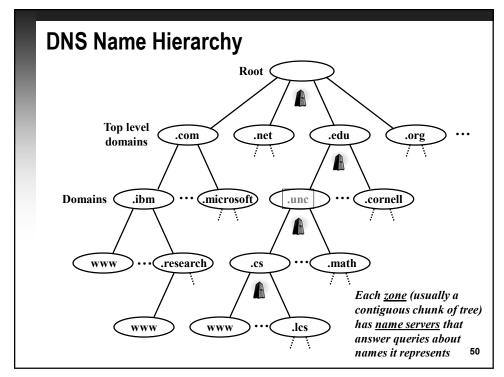
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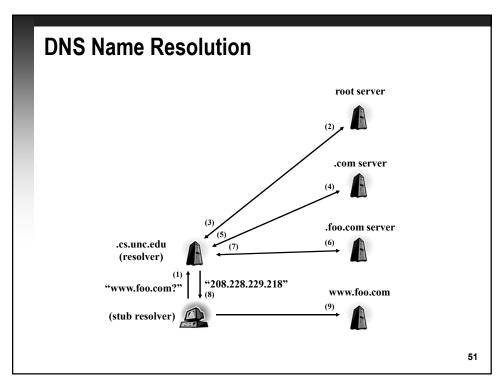
Example: DNS Security

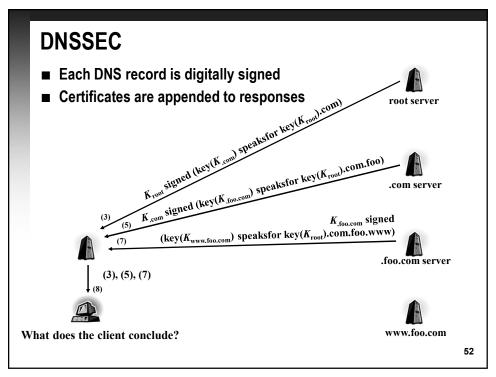
- DNS translates between human-readable hostnames and IP addresses
 - **▼** Ex: translates www.foo.com to 208.228.229.218
 - Originally specified in RFC 1034 and RFC 1035, and revised by many since
- DNS Security ("DNSSEC") specifies extensions to DNS to make DNS more secure
 - "Owned" by the DNSEXT working group in IETF
 - Specified in RFC 2065 (January 1997), revised since

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Example Proof

- 1. K_{root} signed (key($K_{\text{.com}}$) speaksfor key(K_{root}).com)
- 2. $K_{\text{.com}}$ signed (key($K_{\text{.foo.com}}$) speaksfor key(K_{root}).com.foo)
- 3. $K_{.foo.com}$ signed (key($K_{www.foo.com}$) speaksfor key(K_{root}).com.foo.www)
- 4. $K_{\text{www.foo.com}}$ signed F
- 5. $key(K_{root})$ says $(key(K_{com})$ speaksfor $key(K_{root})$.com says-I(1)
- 6. $key(K_{.com})$ says $(key(K_{.foo.com})$ speaksfor $key(K_{root})$.com.foo) says-I(2)
- 7. $\text{key}(K_{.\text{foo.com}})$ says $(\text{key}(K_{www.foo.com})$ speaksfor $\text{key}(K_{root})$.com.foo.www) says-I(3)
- 8. $key(K_{www.foo.com})$ says F says-I(4)
- 9. $\text{key}(K_{\text{root}})$.com says $(\text{key}(K_{.\text{foo.com}}) \text{ speaksfor key}(K_{\text{root}})$.com.foo)
 - speaksfor-E2(5, 6)
- 10. $\text{key}(K_{\text{root}})$.com.foo says $(\text{key}(K_{\text{www.foo.com}}) \text{ speaksfor} \text{ key}(K_{\text{root}})$.com.foo.www) speaksfor-E2(9, 7)
- 11. $key(K_{root})$.com.foo.www says F speaksfor-E2(10, 8)

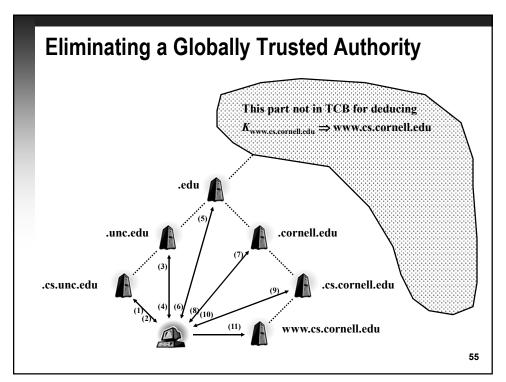
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What Went Wrong?

- We didn't reduce the trust on the root
 - But that's real life: DNSSEC root is in TCB for every DNS name
- Is this bad? ... The answer depends on your perspective
- Optimist: DNS already requires a trusted root, at least DNSSEC is better (but not in this sense)
- Pessimist: Could have done better
 - But probably not without changing how DNS works
 - So, let's try changing how DNS works

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Extensions to the Logic

A says ascend(key($K_{B.C}$), B.C.D)

 $\frac{\text{key}(K_{B.C}) \text{ says ascend(key}(K_B), B.C)}{\text{(ascent)}}$

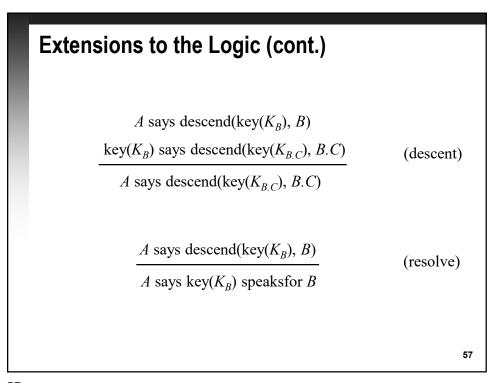
A says ascend($key(K_B)$, B.C)

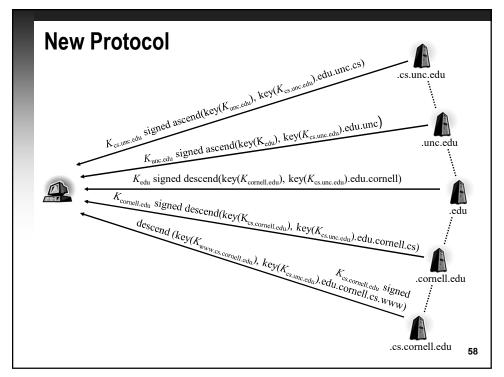
 \blacksquare If $C \neq D$

A says ascend(key(K_B), B.C) $\frac{\text{key}(K_B) \text{ says descend(key}(K_{B.D}), B.D)}{\text{(a2d)}}$

A says descend(key($K_{B.D}$), B.D)

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Analysis

- 1. $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ signed ascend(key($K_{unc.edu}$), key($K_{cs.unc.edu}$).edu.unc.cs)
- 2. $K_{\text{unc.edu}}$ signed ascend(key(K_{edu}), key($K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}}$).edu.unc)
- 3. K_{edu} signed descend(key($K_{\text{cornell.edu}}$), key($K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}}$).edu.cornell)
- 4. K_{cornell.edu} signed

 $descend(key(K_{cs.cornell.edu}), key(K_{cs.unc.edu}).edu.cornell.cs)$

- $K_{cs.cornell.edu}$ signed
 - descend (key($K_{\text{www.cs.cornell.edu}}$), key($K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}}$).edu.cornell.cs.www)
- 6. Kwww.cs.cornell.edu signed F
- 7. $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$ says ascend($\text{key}(K_{\text{unc.edu}})$, $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$.edu.unc.cs)
- 8. $\text{key}(K_{\text{unc.edu}})$ says ascend($\text{key}(K_{\text{edu}})$, $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$.edu.unc) says-I(2)
- 9. $\text{key}(K_{\text{edu}})$ says descend($\text{key}(K_{\text{cornell.edu}})$, $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$.edu.cornell) says-I(3)

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Analysis (cont.)

- 10. $\text{key}(K_{\text{cornell.edu}})$ says descend($\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.cornell.edu}})$, $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$.edu.cornell.cs) says-I(4)
- 11. $key(K_{cs.cornell.edu})$ says descend $(key(K_{www.cs.cornell.edu}),$

 $key(K_{cs.unc.edu}).edu.cornell.cs.www)$ says-I(5)

- 12. $\text{key}(K_{\text{www.cs.cornell.edu}}) \text{ says } F$ says-I(6)
- 13. $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$ says ascend($\text{key}(K_{\text{edu}})$, $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$.edu.unc) ascent(7, 8)
- 14. $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$ says

 $descend(key(K_{cornell.edu}), key(K_{cs.unc.edu}).edu.cornell)$ a2d(13, 9)

15. $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$ says descend($\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.cornell.edu}})$,

 $key(K_{cs.unc.edu}).edu.cornell.cs)$ descent(14, 10)

16. $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$ says descend $(\text{key}(K_{\text{www.cs.cornell.edu}}),$

 $key(K_{cs.unc.edu}).edu.cornell.cs.www)$ descent(15, 11)

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Analysis (cont.)

- 17. $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$ says $\text{key}(K_{\text{www.cs.cornell.edu}})$ speaksfor $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}})$.edu.cornell.cs.www resolve(16)
- 18. $key(K_{cs.unc.edu})$.edu.cornell.cs.www says F speaksfor-E2(12, 17)

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Bibliography

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