Distributed Systems

(4th edition, version 01)

Chapter 09: Security



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Dependability

Basics

A dependable system provides availability, reliability, safety, maintainability, confidentiality, and integrity.

- Confidentiality: refers to the property that information is disclosed only to authorized parties.
- Integrity: alterations to a system's assets can be made only in an authorized way, ensuring accuracy and completeness.

Alternative

We attempt to protect against security threats:

- 1. Unauthorized information disclosure (confidentiality)
- 2. Unauthorized information modification (integrity)
- 3. Unauthorized denial of use (availability)

Security threats, policies, and mechanisms

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Security mechanisms

- Encryption: transform data to something an attacker cannot understand, or that can be checked for modifications.
- Authentication: verify a claimed identity.
- Authorization: check an authenticated entity whether it has the proper rights to access resources.
- Monitoring and auditing: (continuously) trace access to resources

Security threats, policies, and mechanisms 3/49 Security threats, policies, and mechanisms 3/49

Security		Introduction to security	Security	у	Introduction to security
Securi	ty principles				
	Fail-safe defaults: defaults should Infamous example: the default "ac Open design: do not apply securi	dmin, admin" for edge devices.	•		
•	distributed system is open for revi Separation of privilege: ensure that be fully controlled by just a single	at critical aspects of a system can never			
•	Least privilege: a process should privileges.	•			
•		tiple components require the same be offered the same implementation of			
Design issues		4 / 49	Design	issues	4 / 49

Where to implement security mechanisms? Application Application OS Services OS Services Transport Transport OS kernel OS kernel Network Network Low-level protocols Datalink Hardware Physical Physical Observation We are increasingly seeing end-to-end security, meaning that mechanisms are implemented at the level of applications. Issue: which layer do we trust?

Design issues 5/49 Design issues 5/49

Trusted Computing Base: The set of all security mechanisms in a (distributed) computer system that are necessary and sufficient to enforce a security policy.

Observation
Privacy and confidentiality are closely related, yet are different. Privacy can be invaded, whereas confidentiality can be breached ⇒ ensuring confidentiality is not enough to guarantee privacy.

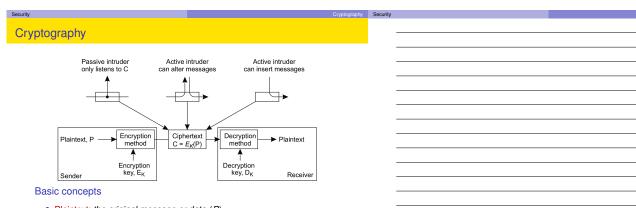
Right to privacy
The right to privacy is about "a right to appropriate flow of personal information."
Control who gets to see what, when, and how ⇒ a person should be able to stop and revoke a flow of personal information.

General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)
The GDPR is a comprehensive set of regulations aiming to protect personal data.

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GDPR: Database perspective

GDPR regulation	Impact on da	atabase systems
	Attributes	Actions
Collect data for explicit purposes	Purpose	Metadata indexing
Do not store data indefinitely	TTL	Timely deletion
Inform customers about GDPR metadata associated with their data	Purpose, TTL, Origin, Sharing	Metadata indexing
Allow customers to access their data	Person id	Metadata indexing
Allow customers to erase their data	TTL	Timely deletion
Do not use data for objected reasons	Objections	Metadata indexing
Allow customers to withdraw from algorithmic decision-making	Automated decisions	Metadata indexing
Safeguard and restrict access to data		Access control
Do not grant unlimited access to data		Access control
Audit operations on personal data	Audit trail	Monitor and log
Implement appropriate data security		Encryption
Share audit trails from affected systems	Audit trail	Monitor and log



- Plaintext: the original message or data (P)
- Ciphertext: the encrypted version of the the plaintext (C)

• Encryption key: input E_K to a function for encryption: $C = E_K(P)$ • Decryption key: input D_K to a function for decryption: $P = D_K(C)$

Cryptosystems Symmetric: if $P = D_K(E_K(P))$ then $D_K = E_K$. **Asymmetric**: if $P = D_K(E_K(P))$ then $D_K \neq E_K$. Also called public-key systems with a publicly known key PK and secret key SK Examples Let PK_X denote public key of X and SK_X the associated secret key. Confidential message: if m is to be kept private: $C = PK_{receiver}(m)$. Authenticated message : if m is to be authenticated: $C = SK_{sender}(m)$. Homomorphic encryption Mathematical operations on plaintext can be performed on the corresponding

ciphertext: if x and y are two numbers, then

$$E_K(x) \star E_K(y) = E_K(x \star y)$$

Alice computes a digest from m; encrypts the digest with her private key; encrypted digest is sent along with m to Bob:

Alice: send [m, sig] with $sig = SK_A(H(m))$.

Bob decrypts digest with Alice's public key; separately calculates the message digest. If both match, Bob knows the message has been signed by Alice:

Bob: receive [m, sig], compute h' = H(m) and verify $h' = PK_A(sig)$.

 Hash functions
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 Hash functions
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Key management

Essence

How do Alice and Bob get the correct (often shared) keys so that they can set up secure channels?

Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Assume two large, nonsecret numbers \emph{p} and \emph{g} (with specific mathematical properties):



Key management 11/49 Key manag

DH key exchange: example Security

Multiparty computation

Can we protect private data while computing statistics? Who has the highest salary without revealing salaries? Can we compute the number of votes cast for a specific candidate without revealing who voted for whom?

Oblivious transfer

Alice has n secret messages m_1,\ldots,m_n . Bob is interested (and allowed) to know only message m_i . Which message he wants to know should be kept secret to Alice; all messages $m_j \neq m_i$ should be kept secret to Bob.

Solution

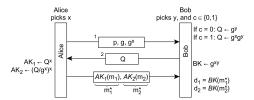
Bob generates a number Q that Alice, in turn, uses to generate n different encryption keys PK_1, \dots, PK_n : $m_i^* = PK_i(m_i)$

Bob uses Q to generate a decryption key SK_i that matches only PK_i . When Bob receives m_1^*, \ldots, m_n^* he can decrypt only m_i^* . $SK_i(m_i^*)$ (with $i \neq j$) will fail.

Cocurity

Cryptography

1-out-of-2 oblivious transfer



Analysis

- $c = 0 \Rightarrow Q = g^y$, $AK_1 = BK = g^{xy}$, $AK_2 = g^{xy-x^2}$.
- $c = 1 \Rightarrow Q = g^{x+y}, AK_1 = g^{x^2+xy}, AK_2 = BK = g^{xy}.$

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Example, continued

Cryptography Security

Preliminaries

- P_1 and P_2 need to compute F(a,b).
- Parameter a is secret and known only to P₁; secret b known only to P₂.
- $a \in X$ and $b \in Y$; X and Y are finite.
- Construct a $|\mathbf{X}| \times |\mathbf{Y}|$ matrix **F**.
- $\mathbf{F}[i,j] = F(x_i,y_j)$ for each pair $(x_i,y_j) \in \mathbf{X} \times \mathbf{Y}$.

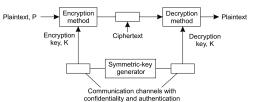
Solution

- P_1 generates $|\mathbf{X}| \cdot |\mathbf{Y}|$ unique key pairs (K_i, K_j)
- Construct $\mathbf{F}^*[i,j] = K_i(K_j(F(x_i,x_j)))$. Assume $a = x_i$.
- P_1 permutes \mathbf{F}^* and sends it along with K_i to P_2
- P_1 sends Q using a 1-out-of- $|\mathbf{Y}|$ oblivious transfer.
- Assume $b = y_j$. Using Q, P_2 can construct K_j , and only K_j
- P_2 decrypts $\mathbf{F}^*[i,j]$, corresponding to F(a,b).

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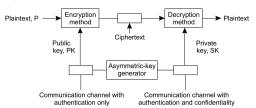
What is needed to distribute keys

Symmetric-key distribution



Observation

In general, we will need a secure channel to distribute the secret key to the communicating parties.



Observation

No need for a scure channel in the case of the public key, but you do need to know that the key is authentic \Rightarrow have the public key be signed by a certification authority. Note, we do need to trust that authority, or otherwise make sure that its signature can be verified as well.

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Authentication

Essence
Verifying the claimed identity of a person, a software component, a device, and so on.

Means of authentication

- Based on what a client knows, such as a password or a personal identification number.
- Based on what a client has, such as an ID card, cell phone, or software token.
- 3. Based on what a client is, i.e., static biometrics such as a fingerprint or facial characteristics.
- Based on what a client does, i.e., dynamic biometrics such as voice patterns or typing patterns.

Introduction to authentication 17/49 Introduction to authentication 17/49 Introduction to authentication 17/49

Authentication versus message integrity

Observation

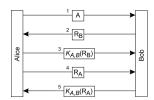
Observation

Authentication without integrity (and vice versa) is meaningles:

- Consider a system that supports authentication but no mechanisms to ensure message integrity. Bob may know for sure that Alice sent m, but how useful is that if he doesn't know that m may have been modified?
- Consider a system that guarantees message integrity, but does not provide authentication. Can Bob be happy with a guaranteed unmodified message that states he just won \$1,000,000?

Authentication protocols 18/49 Authentication protocols 18/49 Supervision (18/49) Authentication protocols 18/49 Supervision (18/49) Supervision (

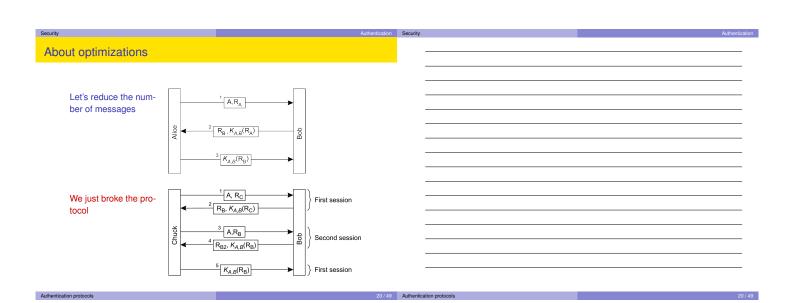
Using a shared secret key

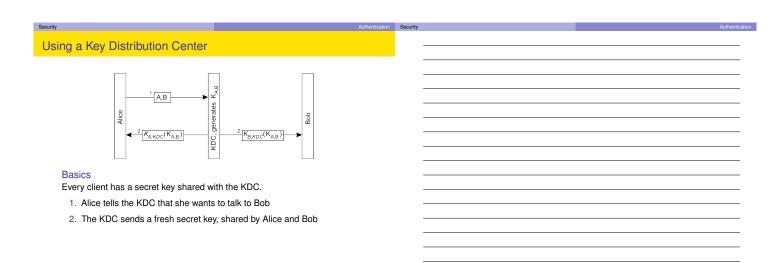


Steps

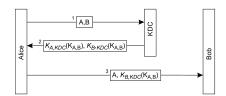
- 1. Alice announces she wants to talk to Bob.
- 2. Bob returns a nonce.
- 3. Alice encrypts the nonce with the shared key $K_{A,B}$, thus proving that she owns $K_{A,B} \Rightarrow \mathsf{Bob}$ knows he's talking to Alice.
- 4. Alice sends a nonce to Bob.
- 5. Bob returns proof that he owns the shared secret key as well \Rightarrow Alice knows she's talking to Bob.

Authentication protocols 19/49 Authentication protocols 19/49 Outhentication protocols 19/49 Authentication protocols





Using a Key Distribution Center



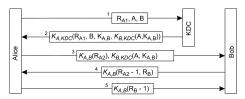
Basics

Using a ticket is practically better:

- 1. Alice tells the KDC that she wants to talk to Bob
- 2. The KDC sends a fresh secret key, shared by Alice and Bob
- 3. Alice tells Bob that she wants to talk, along with the key to be used.

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The Needham-Schroeder protocol



Important observation

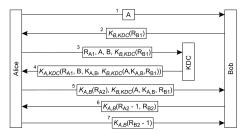
In the case of request-response messages, you want to make sure that the received response, is associated with the sent request. Mitigates replay attacks.

General principle

Use nonces to relate any combination of request-response messages.

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Mitigate against reuse of keys



Some observations

- Note how B1 ties message #2 to #5
- Note that by returning $R_{A2}-1$ in #6, Bob proves he knows $K_{A,B}$
- And, likewise, in the case of Alice in #6 (by modifying R_{B2}).

Authentication protocols 24/49 Authentication protocols 24/49 (Authentication protocols 24/49

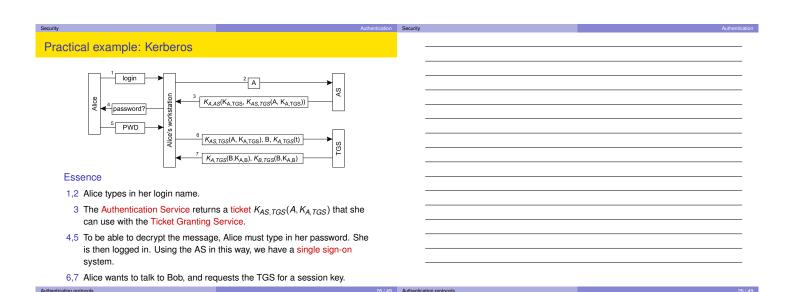
Using public keys

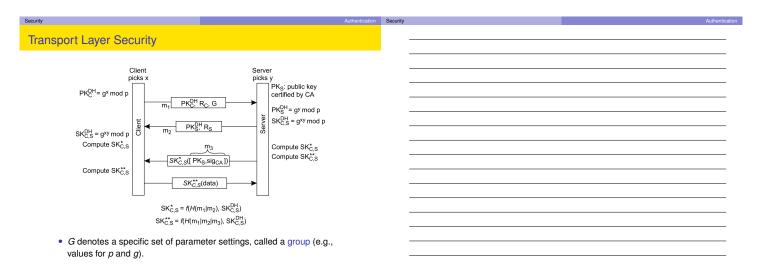


Steps

- 1. Alice tells Bob she wants to talk, sending a nonce R_A , and encrypting the message with Bob's public key.
- 2. Bob generates a shared secret session key $K_{A,B}$, proves he is the owner of PK_B by decrypting R_A , and challenges Alice to prove she owns PK_A .
- Alice decrypts the response, and proves to Bob that she is Alice by then sending Bob's nonce back encrypted with the generated session key K_{A,B}.

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• The client uses a nonce R_C ; the server uses R_S

• $H(m_1|m_2)$ denotes the hash over the concatenation of m_1 and m_2

On trust Definition Trust is the assurance that one entity holds that another will perform particular actions according to a specific expectation.

Important observation

- Expectations have been made explicit \Rightarrow no need to talk about trust?
- Example: Consider a Byzantine fault-tolerant process group of size n
 - Specificiation: the group can tolerate that at most $k \le (n-1)/3$ processes go rogue.
 - Realisation: for example PBFT.
 - Consequence: if more than k processes fail, all bets are simply off.
 - Consequence: it's not about trust, it's all about meeting specifications.
- Observation: if a process group often does not meet its specifications, one may start to doubt its reliability, but this is something else than (dis)trusting the system.

Trust in the face of Byzantine failures

Sybil attack Essence: Just create multiple identities, but owned by one entity

• In the case of a peer-to-peer network:

```
\begin{array}{l} H = \textbf{set} \text{ of honest nodes} \\ S = \textbf{set} \text{ of Sybil nodes} \\ A = Attacker node \\ d = \texttt{minimal fraction of Sybil nodes needed } \textbf{for} \text{ an attack} \end{array}
while True:
    s = A.createNode()
    S.add(s)
                                                                          # create a Sybil node
# add it to the set S
          if len(S) / len(H) > d: # enough sybil nodes for...
A.attack() # ...an attack
```

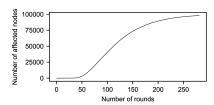
- In the case of a Web-of-trust:
 - · Endorse a public key without an out-of-band check.
 - Bob checks with k > 1 others that they have endorsed Alice's key.
 - Alice creates k > 1 identities each stating her key is valid.

Trusting an identity

Eclipse attack

Essence: Try to isolate a node from the network

Example: a hub attack in the case of a gossip-based service. In this case, when exchanging links to other peers, a colluding node returns links only to other colluders.



Affected node: has links only to colluders.

General solution

Use a centralized certification authority.

Preventing Sybil attacks: Blockchain solutions Essence: creating an identity comes at a cost

In the case of permissionless blockchains:

- Proof-of-Work: Let validators run a computational race. This approach requires considerable computational resources
- Proof-of-Stake: Pick a validator as a function of the number of tokens it

owns. This approach requires risking loss of tokens.			

Preventing Sybil attacks: Decentralized accounting

A simple example

- Each node P maintains a list of nodes interested in doing work for P: the choice set of P (choice(P)).
- Selecting $Q \in choice(P)$ depends on Q's work for others (i.e., its
- P maintains a (subjective) view on reputations. Of course, P knows precisely what it has done for others, and what others have done for P.
- P can compute a capacity (cap(Q):

$$cap(Q) = max\{MF(Q, P) - MF(P, Q), 0\}$$

with MF(P,Q) the amount of work that P has, or could have contributed to work done for Q, including the work done by others.

Security	Trust in distributed systems	Security	Trust in distributed systems
Preventing Sybil attacks: Decent	ralized accounting	-	
Essence: Keep track of work that n	odes do for each other	-	
•	hits of work for Q , and R had processed butled 3 units of work for Q , through R .	-	
 Reasoning: R may never have be worked for P. 	en able to work for Q , if it had not	-	
		-	
		-	
		-	
		-	

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Preventing Sybil attacks: Decentralized accounting

How Sybil attacks are prevented

- Let $Q \in choice(P)$ create n Sybil nodes Q_1^*, \dots, Q_n^* ; $Q = Q_0^*$
- For work by Q_i^* for Q_i^* to increase $cap(Q_i^*)$:
 - 1. Q_i^* needs to have worked for some node R
 - 2. R needs to have worked for P

In other words: Q can successfully attack only if it had worked for honest nodes. Also, honest nodes have to work for Q: the total capacity Tcap(Q) of the Sybils must grow, with

$$Tcap(Q) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} cap(Q_k^*)$$

- Assume that P works 1 unit for Q_i^{*} ⇒ MF(P, Q_i^{*}) increases by 1 unit ⇒ cap(Q_i^{*}) drops by 1 unit, and so does Tcap(Q).
- As soon as Tcap(Q) drops to 0, P will look at other nodes.

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Security Trust in distributed systems Security

Trusting a system: Blockchains

Essence

One needs to know for sure that the information in a blockchain has not been tampered with: data integrity assurance. Solution: make sure that no change can go unnoticed (recall: a blockchain is an append-only data structure).

ı	Block number		Block number		Block number		Block number
	Timestamp		Timestamp		Timestamp		Timestamp
	0x00000000	7	Hash predecessor	,	Hash predecessor		Hash predecessor
	TX ₁		TX ₁	1	TX ₁		TX ₁
ı	•		•		•	1	•
	•				•		
	•		•		•		•
	TX _n		TX _n		TX _n		TX _n
	Hash	r	Hash	P	Hash		Hash

Observation

Any change of block B_k , will affect its hash value, and thus that of B_{k+1} , which would then also need to be changed, in turn affecting the hash value of B_{k+2} , and so on.

Authorization

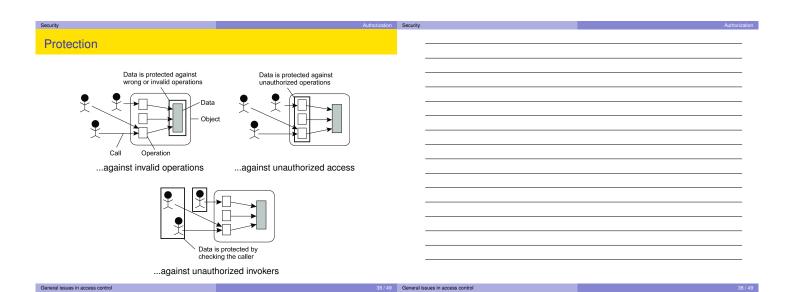
Making sure that authenticated entities have only access to specific resources.



Observation

The reference monitor needs to be tamperproof: it is generally implemented under full control of the operating system, or a secure server.

General issues in access control	General issues in access control	



Access control policies

1. Mandatory access control: A central administration defines who gets access to what.

2. Discretionary access control: The owner of an object can change access rights, but also who may have access to that object.

3. Role-based access control: Users are not authorized based on their identity, but based on the role they have within an organization.

4. Attribute-based access control: Attributes of users and of objects they want to access are considered for deciding on a specific access rule.

General issues in access control 39 / 49 General issues in access control 39 / 49

Capabilities General issues in access control

Special case: Attribute-based Access Control Distinguish different classes of attributes:

- User attributes: name, data of birth, current roles, home address, department, qualifiers obtained, contract status, etc. May also depend on role (e.g., teacher or student).
- Object attributes: anything creator, last-modified time, version number, file type, file size, but also information related to its content.
- Environmental attributes: describe the current state of the system, e.g., date and time, current workload, maintenance status, storage properties, available services, etc.
- Connection attributes provide information on the current session, e.g., IP address, session duration, available bandwidth and latency estimates, type and strength of security used.
- · Administrative attributes: reflect global policies, e.g., minimal security settings, general access regulations, and maximum session durations.

Attribute-based access control

Example: the Policy Machine Essence A server maintains sets of (attribute, value) pairs, distinguishing users, applications, operations, and objects. At the core, we formulate access control rules. Access control rules • Assignment: A user u can be assigned to an attribute $ua: u \rightarrow ua$. An object to an attribute: $o \rightarrow oa$; an attribute to an attribute: $ua_1 \rightarrow ua_2$ (meaning that if $u \rightarrow ua_1$, then $u \rightarrow ua_2$. Leads to rules like allowed(ua, ops, oa): users assigned to ua are allowed to execute operations in ops on objects assigned to oa. • Prohibition: explicitly state what is not allowed, such as denied(u, ops, os). Also: $denied(u, ops, \neg os)$, meaning denial when uwants to perform o assigned to ops on an object not in os.

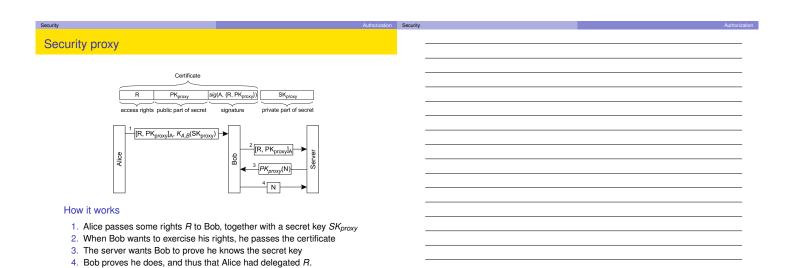
· Obligation: automated action upon an event, such as denying copying of

information:

Observation

It is not a good idea to hand over all user credentials to an application: why would the application or the machine be trusted? \Rightarrow use a security proxy.

delegate Alice's access rights to her mail client?



Example: Open Authorization (OAuth) Four different roles • Resource owner: typically an end user. • Client: an application that one would like to act on behalf of the resource owner, • Resource server: An interface through which a person would normally access the resource. Authorization server: an entity handing out certificates to a client on behalf of a resource owner. Initial steps 1. The client application registers itself at the authorization server and receives its own identifier, cid. 2. Alice wants to delegate a list R of rights \Rightarrow

with a hash of a temporary secret \mathcal{S}

Client: send [cid, R,H(S)]

Completing the process

Final steps

- 3. Alice is required to \log in and confirm delegation R to the client.
- 4. Server sends a temporary authorization code AC to client.
- 5. Client requests a final access token:

Client: sends [cid, AC, S].

Sending S to the authorization server allows the latter to verify the identity of the client (by computing H(S).

The authorization server has now (1) verified that Alice wants to delegate access rights to the client, and (2) has verified the identity of the client \Rightarrow it returns an access token to the client.

Example: decentralized authorization

WAVE (and keeping it very simple)

Essence: Alice delegates rights to Bob, Bob delegates some of those rights to Chuck.

• When Check wants to exercise his rights, there should be no need for Alice or Bob to be online.

• No one but Alice, Bob, and Chuck need to be aware of the delegation.

Essentials

Alice delegates rights R to Bob, for which he creates a keypair (PK_B^R, SK_B^R):

A sends: PK_B^R([R|SK_A^R]))

In the property of those rights R' to Chuck, assuming he is allowed to do so:

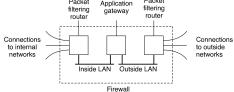
B sends: PK_B^R([R'|m_1|SK_B^R])

Decentralized authorization: an example 47/49 Decentralized authorization: an example 47/49

Firewalls Monitoring Security Security

Essence

Simply prevent anything nasty coming in, but also preventing unwanted outbound traffic.



Different types of firewalls

- Packet-filtering gateway: operates as a router and makes filters packets based on source and destination address.
- Application-level gateway: inspects the content of an incoming or outgoing message (e.g., gateways filtering spam e-mail).
- Proxy gateway: works as a front end to an application, filtering like an application-level gateway (e.g., Web proxies).

Security	Monitoring	Security	Monitorin
Intrusion detection systems			
Two flavors • Signature-based: matches agains intrusions. Problematic when serie when new attacks take place.	t patterns of known network-level ss of packets need to be matched, or		
•	can model or extract typical behavior or anomalous behavior. Relies heavily chnologies.		

Using sensors

Key idea is to manage false and true positives (FP/TP) as well as false and true negatives (FN/TN). Maximize accuracy and precision:

Accuracy: $\frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$

Precision: $\frac{TP}{TP+FP}$

Intrusion detection: basics	Intrusion detection: basics	49 / 49