

Database security



Advantages of using databases

- ▷ Shared access
 - ♦ Many users, one common, centralized data set
- ▷ Minimal redundancy
 - ♦ Individual users do not have to collect and maintain their own sets of data
- ▷ Data consistency
 - ♦ A change to a data value affects all users of that data value
- ▷ Data integrity
 - ♦ Data values can be protected against accidental or malicious undesirable changes
- ▷ Controlled access
 - ♦ Only authorized users are allowed to view or to modify data values



Security requirements (1/2)

- ▷ Physical integrity
 - ♦ Immunity to physical problems
 - e.g. power failures
 - ♦ Ability to reconstruct the database if destroyed in a catastrophe
- ▷ Logical integrity
 - ♦ Data structure (schema) is preserved
- ▷ Element integrity
 - ♦ Data in each element is accurate
- ▷ Auditability
 - ♦ It is possible to track who or what has accessed (or modified) which elements in the database



Security requirements (2/2)

- ▷ Access control
 - ♦ A user/role is allowed to access only authorized data/queries
 - ♦ Different users/roles can be restricted to different modes
 - e.g. read or write records
- ▷ User authentication
 - ♦ Every user/role is positively identified
 - ♦ Fundamental for audit trails and for permissions to access data
- ▷ Availability
 - ♦ Users/roles can access the database in general and all the data for which they are authorized



Two-phase updates

▷ Problem

- ♦ Failures during updates may render databases incoherent
 - Logical integrity problem
- ♦ But DBMS require ACID properties
 - Atomicity
 - Entire transaction happens or not
 - Consistency
 - The DB state must be consistent after transactions
 - Isolation
 - Concurrent transactions do not interfere with each other
 - Durability
 - Changes occur even in the presence of failures

▷ Solution: two-phase updates



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Two-phase update

▷ 1st phase: intent phase

- ♦ The DBMS gathers resources it needs to perform the update
- ♦ It does everything to prepare for the update, but makes no changes to the database
- ♦ Committing: writes a commit flag to the database
 - Point-of-no-return
 - After, the DBMS begins making permanent changes

▷ 2nd phase: commit phase

- ♦ Makes the permanent changes in the database
 - Idempotent changes
- ♦ It lasts until finishing all changes prepared in the first phase
- ♦ When it finishes, the database changed to a new, stable and coherent state



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Redundancy / internal consistency

- ▷ Error detection and correction codes
 - ♦ Parity bits, Hamming codes, cyclic redundancy checks
 - ♦ Can be applied to different data elements
 - Fields, records, entire database
 - ♦ More space
 - To store error detection/correction information
- ▷ Shadow fields
 - ♦ Duplication of fields or records
 - ♦ Requires substantial storage space



Concurrency / consistency

- ▷ Accesses by two users of the same DBMS must be constrained so that neither interferes with each other
 - ♦ Simple locking: multiple readers, one writer
 - ♦ But simple locking may not be enough on query-update cycles
- ▷ Solution
 - ♦ Treat every query-update cycle as a single atomic operation (a transaction)
 - e.g. flight booking
 - ♦ Synchronization should be applied to transactions
 - Two concurrent transactions cannot write (and sometimes read) the same field/record



Monitors

- ▷ DBMS unit responsible for the DB structural integrity
 - ♦ Checks entered values to ensure their consistency with field, record or database consistency constraints
- ▷ Types of monitors
 - ♦ Range comparisons
 - Tests if values belong to an acceptable range
 - ♦ State constraints
 - Describe the condition of the entire database
 - e.g. the commit flag
 - Impose integrity restriction rules
 - e.g. to detect duplicate records
 - ♦ Transition constraints
 - Describe required conditions before changing the database



Database activity monitoring

- ▷ DBMS usage supervision
 - ♦ To detect abuses
 - ♦ To detect unusual/suspect activity or operations
- ▷ DBMS independent
 - ♦ Not part of the DBMS
 - ♦ External observation of DBMS activity
- ▷ Monitoring sensors
 - ♦ Network activity
 - ♦ Local SQL commands performed
 - ♦ Log analysis



Sensitive data

- ▷ Data that cannot be publicly disclosed
 - ♦ With restricted visibility & use
- ▷ Risks
 - ♦ Privacy and welfare of individuals
 - ♦ Business activities
 - ♦ Security-related activities



Sensitive data

- ▷ Some databases contain sensitive data
 - ♦ Data that should not be made public
 - e.g. clinical records of patients
- ▷ Sensitivity depends on: BD purpose + DB data
 - ♦ Some record fields, entire records/tables, entire database
 - e.g. personal health record (HER) with all detected pathologies, treatments and interventions
 - e.g. clinical records of an AIDS table
 - e.g. defense-related databases
- ▷ Complexity
 - ♦ Simple cases: all or nothing
 - Everything sensitive, nothing sensitive
 - ♦ Complicated cases: part of the DB elements are sensitive
 - In some cases, sensitivity is extended to the simple existence of a field data or record



Sensitive data:

Factors that make data sensitive

- ▷ Inherently sensitive
 - ♦ The value itself may be so revealing that it is sensitive
- ▷ From a sensitive source
 - ♦ The value may reveal the identity of its source
- ▷ Declared sensitive
 - ♦ The value was explicitly declared sensitive
- ▷ Belongs to a sensitive record
 - ♦ Value of a record explicitly marked as sensitive
- ▷ Sensitive given previously disclosed information
 - ♦ By itself, the data is not sensitive, but together with other data, the whole can be sensitive



Sensitive data:

General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)

- ▷ Personal data
 - ♦ Data that can be unequivocally linked to a (living) individual
 - ♦ Links can be provided by unique identifiers or sets of quasi-identifiers
- ▷ Specially sensitive personal data
 - ♦ Those that can threaten fundamental rights
 - Ethnic/racial origins
 - Political opinions
 - Philosophical or religious beliefs
 - Syndicate memberships
 - Sexual life and orientations
 - Health status and history
 - Related with genetics or biometrics



Laws for the protection of personal data

- ▷ Each country has its own set of laws
 - ♦ There is not a global consensus
- ▷ In Portugal this is supervised by CNPD
 - ♦ Comissão Nacional de Proteção de Dados
 - ♦ All data processing involving personal data gathered from individuals needs to be submitted to CNPD for authorization
- ▷ General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)
 - ♦ Started on May 25, 2018



Types of disclosures (of sensitive data)

- ▷ Exact data
 - ♦ The exact value of a sensitive datum
 - ♦ The most serious disclosure
- ▷ Bounds
 - ♦ Sensitive data item is $>$ lower bound or $<$ upper bound
 - ♦ Sometimes bounds are used to protect (hide) sensitive data
 - By providing bounds to elements instead of their exact value
- ▷ Negative result
 - ♦ By getting a negative result for a query on a sensitive value, a user can conclude that the value has a particular set of values
 - e.g. from a list of effective voters we can conclude who didn't vote



Types of disclosures (of sensitive data)

▷ Existence

- ♦ The existence of a sensitive field in a record can be, by itself, sensitive information
 - Because it may reveal a hidden data gathering & processing activity

▷ Probable value

- ♦ By crossing the results of several queries we can infer a probability for an element value



Inference

▷ Definition

- ♦ A way to extract, or derive, sensitive information from non-sensitive information
- ♦ We are assuming that there is no free access to the entire data repository
 - Conclusions need to be taken from authorized queries that, by themselves, alone, do not:
 - Leak any sensitive information
 - Allow an exclusive use of sensitive fields to select information



Inference attacks

▷ Direct attack

- Uses queries with a blend of selection rules that use sensitive fields and non-sensitive fields
- The DBMS can be deceived by the selection rules with non-sensitive fields, which are not intended to select particular records

▷ Indirect attack

- Inference of particular values from statistical values computed over several records
 - Counts, sums, averages



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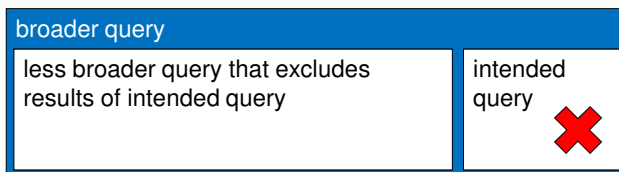
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Inference attacks

▷ Tracker attack

- The database may conceal data when a small number of records make up the large proportion of the data revealed
- A tracker attack can fool the DBMS by using different queries that reveal data and, by combining the results, the attacker can get the desired information



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K-anonymity

L. Sweeney, "K-anonymity: A Model for Protecting Privacy", Int. Journal on Uncertainty, Fuzziness and Knowledge-based Systems. 2002

▷ Definition

- ♦ No query can deliver an **anonymity set** with less than **k** entries
- ♦ The **anonymity set** is the set of all possible subjects

▷ Privacy-critical attributes

- ♦ (Unique) identifiers
- ♦ Quasi-identifiers
 - When combined can produce unique tuples
- ♦ Sensitive attributes
 - Potentially unique per subject
 - Disease, salary, crime committed, etc.



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Multilevel security: Goal

- ▷ Tag information items with security classifications
 - ♦ e.g. unclassified, confidential, secret, top secret
- ▷ Tag queries with security levels
 - ♦ The security level of the entity responsible for the query
- ▷ Prevent queries from observing values of fields with a different security classification
 - ♦ Or from observing meaningful values



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Multilevel security: Confidentiality with poli-instanciation

- ▷ A record with a particular key field may be duplicated in different security levels
 - ♦ Possibly with different values
- ▷ This reduces the precision of the database information
 - ♦ The correctness of the information depends on the entity performing the query
 - ♦ Duplicates can legitimately occur



Multilevel security: Separation strategies (1)

- ▷ Partitioning
 - ♦ Different security levels, different databases
 - ♦ Queries are directed to the appropriate DB
- ▷ Advantages
 - ♦ Easy to implement
- ▷ Disadvantages
 - ♦ Redundancy of information
 - ♦ Problems in the access to records with fields with different security levels



Multilevel security: Separation strategies (2)

- ▷ Encryption
 - ♦ Fields are encrypted with a security-level key
- ▷ Advantages
 - ♦ Single database, same database structure
- ▷ Disadvantages
 - ♦ Decryption on each query with the adequate security level key
 - ♦ Randomized encryption: equal fields should not produce the same cryptogram
 - Otherwise statistics and known-plaintext attacks disclose values
 - Solution: different keys per record or different IVs per record
 - ♦ No encrypted values should be updated by providing another encrypted value



Multilevel security: Separation strategies (3)

- ▷ Integrity lock
 - ♦ Each data item is formed by three parts:
 - Data item, sensitivity label, checksum
 - ♦ The sensitivity label should be
 - Unforgeable (cannot be changed)
 - Unique (cannot be copied to another data item)
 - Concealed (cannot be observed)
- ▷ Advantages
 - ♦ Can use a regular DBMS
 - ♦ Trusted stored procedures are enough to implement them
- ▷ Disadvantages
 - ♦ Space for storing sensitivity labels and checksums

