Practical Principles for Computer Security

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Outline

Introduction: what is security?

- Principals, the "speaks for" relation, and chains of responsibility
- Secure channels and encryption
- Names and groups
- Authenticating systems
- Authorization
- Implementation

REAL-WORLD SECURITY

It's about value, locks, and punishment.

- -Locks good enough that bad guys don't break in very often.
- -Police and courts good enough that bad guys that do break in get caught and punished often enough.
- -Less interference with daily life than value of loss.

Security is expensive—buy only what you need. —People *do* behave this way —We don't *tell* them this—a big mistake —Perfect security is the worst enemy of real security

Elements of Security

Policy :	<i>Specifying</i> security What is it supposed to do?
Mechanism:	<i>Implementing</i> security How does it do it?
Assurance:	<i>Correctness</i> of security Does it really work?

Abstract Goals for Security

Secrecycontrolling who gets to read informationIntegritycontrolling how information changes or
resources are usedAvailabilityproviding prompt access to information
and resourcesAccountabilityknowing who has had access to
information or resources

Dangers

Dangers

Vandalism or sabotage that
-damages information
-disrupts serviceintegrity
availabilityTheft of moneyintegrityTheft of informationsecrecyLoss of privacysecrecy

Vulnerabilities

Vulnerabilities

- -Bad (buggy or hostile) programs
- -Bad (careless or hostile) **people** giving instructions to good programs
- Bad guys corrupting or eavesdropping on communications

Threats

-Adversaries that can and want to exploit vulnerabilities

Why We Don't Have "Real" Security

A. People don't buy it

- -Danger is small, so it's OK to buy features instead.
- -Security is expensive.
 - Configuring security is a lot of work.
 - Secure systems do less because they're older.
- -Security is a pain.
 - It stops you from doing things.
 - Users have to authenticate themselves.

B. Systems are complicated, so they have bugs. –Especially the configuration

"Principles" for Security

Security is not formal Security is not free Security is fractal

Abstraction can't keep secrets –"Covert channels" leak them

It's all about lattices

ELEMENTS OF SECURITY

- Policy:Specifying security
What is it supposed to do?Mechanism:Implementing security
How does it do it?
- Assurance: *Correctness* of security Does it really work?

Specify: Policies and Models

Policy — specifies the whole system informally.SecrecyWho can read information?IntegrityWho can change things, and how?AvailabilityHow prompt is the service?

Model—specifies just the computer system, but does so precisely.

Access control model gu

Information flow model

guards control access to resources.

classify information, prevent disclosure.

Implement: Mechanisms and Assurance

<i>Mechanisms</i> — too	ls for implementation.
Authentication	Who said it?
Authorization	Who is trusted?
Auditing	What happened?
Trusted computing	base.
Keep it small and	d simple.
Validate each co	mponent carefully.

Information flow model (Mandatory security)

A lattice of labels for data:

-unclassified < secret < top secret;

-public < personal < medical < financial

label(f(x)) = max(label(f), label(x))

Labels can keep track of data properties:

- -how secret Secrecy
- -how trustworthy *Integrity*

When you use (release or act on) the data, user needs a \geq clearance

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Access Control Model

Guards control access to valued resources.



Access Control

Guards control access to valued resources.

Structure the system as —

Objectsentities with state.Principalscan request operationson objects.

Operations how subjects read or change objects.



Access Control Rules

Rules control the operations allowed for each principal and object.

Principal may do	<i>Operation</i> on	Object
Taylor	Read	File "Raises"
Lampson	Send "Hello"	Terminal 23
Process 1274	Rewind	Tape unit 7
Schwarzkopf	Fire three shots	Bow gun
Jones	Pay invoice 432	Account Q34

Mechanisms—The Gold Standard

Authenticating principals

-Mainly people, but also channels, servers, programs (encryption makes channels, so key is a principal)

Authorizing access

-Usually for *groups*, principals that have some property, such as "Microsoft employee" or "typesafe" or "safe for scripting"

Auditing

Assurance

-Trusted computing base

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END-TO-END EXAMPLE

Alice is at Intel, working on Atom, a joint Intel-Microsoft project

Alice connects to Spectra, Atom's web page, with SSL



Chain of responsibility

Alice at Intel, working on Atom, connects to Spectra, Atom's web page, with SSL

Chain of responsibility:

 $K_{SSL} \Rightarrow K_{temp} \Rightarrow K_{Alice}$ \Rightarrow Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft \Rightarrow Spectra



Principals

Authentication: Who sent a message? Authorization: Who is trusted? **Principal** — abstraction of "who": People Lampson, Taylor Machines VaxSN12648, Jumbo Services SRC-NFS, X-server Groups SRC, DEC-Employees Roles Taylor **as** Manager Joint authority Taylor and Lampson Weakening Taylor **Or** UntrustedProgram Channels Key #7438

Theory of Principals

Principal says statement



- Lampson says "read /MSR/Lampson/foo"
- MSR-CA says "Lampson's key is #7438"

Axioms

If A says s and A says (s implies s') then A says s' If A = B then (A says s) = (B says s)

The "Speaks for" Relation \Rightarrow

- Principal A speaks for B about T $A \Rightarrow_T B$ If A says something in set T, B does too:
- Thus, A is stronger than B, or responsible for B, about T
 - Precisely: $(A \text{ says } s) \land (s \in T) \text{ implies } (B \text{ says } s)$
- These are the links in the chain of responsibility

Examples

Alice \Rightarrow Atom Key #7438 \Rightarrow Alice group of people key for Alice

Delegating Authority

How do we establish a link in the chain: a fact $Q \Rightarrow R$ The "verifier" of the link must see evidence, of the form

"P says
$$Q \Rightarrow R$$
"

There are three questions about this evidence

-How do we *know* that *P* says the delegation?

-Why do we *trust P* for this delegation?

-Why is *P* willing to say it?

How Do We Know P says X?

If P is	then
a key	P signs X cryptographically
some other channel	message X arrives on channel P
the verifier itself	X is an entry in a local database
These are the only w know who said some or store it locally	ays that the verifier can <i>directly</i> thing: receive it on a secure channel
Otherwise we need C	$C \Rightarrow P$, where C is one of these cases

-Get this by recursion

Why Do We Trust The Delegation?

We trust *A* to delegate its own authority.

Delegation rule: If *P* says $Q \Rightarrow P$ then $Q \Rightarrow P$

Reasonable if P is competent and accessible.

Restrictions are possible

Why Is *P Willing* To Delegate To *Q*?

Some facts are installed manually

- $-K_{Intel} \Rightarrow$ Intel, when Intel and Microsoft establish a direct relationship
- -The ACL entry Lampson \Rightarrow usr/Lampson

Others follow from the properties of some algorithm

- -If Diffie-Hellman yields K_{DH} , then I can say
 - " $K_{DH} \Rightarrow$ me, provided

You are the other end of the K_{DH} run

- You don't disclose K_{DH} to anyone else
- You don't use K_{DH} to send anything yourself."

In practice I simply sign $K_{DH} \Rightarrow K_{me}$

Why Is *P Willing* To Delegate To *Q*?

Others follow from the properties of some algorithm

- -If server *S* starts process *P* from and sets up a channel *C* from *P*, it can say $C \Rightarrow SQLv71$
 - Of course, only someone who believes $S \Rightarrow SQLv71$ will believe this

To be conservative, *S* might compute a strong hash H_{SQLv71} of SQLv71.exe and require

Microsoft says " $H_{SQLv71} \Rightarrow$ SQLv71" before authenticating C

End-To-End Example



Chain of Responsibility

Alice at Intel, working on Atom, connects to Spectra, Atom's web page, with SSL

Chain of responsibility:

 $K_{SSL} \Rightarrow K_{temp} \Rightarrow K_{Alice}$ \Rightarrow Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft \Rightarrow Spectra



Authenticating Channels



Authenticating Names: SDSI

A name is in a name space, defined by a principal *P*

-*P* is like a directory. The root principals are keys. Rule: *P* speaks for *any* name in its name space

 $K_{Intel} \Rightarrow \text{Intel} \Rightarrow \text{Intel}/\text{Alice} (= \text{Alice@Intel})$



Authenticating Names



End-To-End Example



Authenticating Groups

A group is a principal; its members speak for it
-Alice@Intel ⇒ Atom@Microsoft
-Bob@Microsoft ⇒ Atom@Microsoft

Evidence for groups: Just like names and keys.

 $K_{Microsoft} \Rightarrow$ Microsoft \Rightarrow Microsoft/Atom





Authenticating Groups



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Authorization with ACLs

View a resource object O as a principal P on O's ACL means P can speak for O —Permissions limit the set of things P can say for O If Spectra's ACL says Atom can r/w, that means

Spectra **says** Atom@Microsoft $\Rightarrow_{r/w}$ Spectra


Authorization with ACLs



End-to-End Example: Summary

Request on SSL channel: K_{SSL} says "read Spectra" Chain of responsibility:

 $K_{SSL} \Rightarrow K_{temp} \Rightarrow K_{Alice}$ \Rightarrow Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft \Rightarrow Spectra



End-To-End Example



Compatibility with Local OS?

(1) Put network principals on OS ACLs(2) Let network principal speak for local one

 $-Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Alice@microsoft$

–Use network authentication

replacing local or domain authentication

–Users and ACLs stay the same

(3) Assign SIDs to network principals

-Do this automatically

–Use network authentication as before

Summaries

The chain of responsibility can be long K_{temp} says $K_{SSL} \Rightarrow K_{temp}$ K_{Alice} says $K_{temp} \Rightarrow K_{Alice}$ K_{Intel} says $K_{Alice} \Rightarrow$ Alice@Intel $K_{Microsoft}$ says Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft Spectra **says** Atom@Microsoft $\Rightarrow_{r/w}$ Spectra Can replace a long chain with one summary certificate Spectra says $K_{SSL} \Rightarrow_{r/w}$ Spectra Need a principal who speaks for the end of the chain This is often called a capability

Lattice of Principals

 $\Rightarrow \text{ is the lattice's partial order}$ $A \text{ and } B \qquad \qquad \text{max, least upper bound}$ $A \text{ or } B \qquad \qquad \text{min, greatest lower bound}$ $A \Rightarrow B \equiv (A = A \text{ and } B) \equiv (B = A \text{ or } B)$ $(A \text{ and } B) \text{ says } s \equiv (A \text{ says } s) \text{ and } (B \text{ says } s)$ $(A \text{ or } B) \text{ says } s \Leftarrow (A \text{ says } s) \text{ or } (B \text{ says } s)$

Could we interpret this as sets? Not easily: **and** is not intersection

Facts about Principals

- A = B is equivalent to $(A \Rightarrow B)$ and $(B \Rightarrow A)$
- \Rightarrow is transitive

and, or are associative, commutative, and idempotent and, or are monotonic:

If $A' \Rightarrow A$ then $(A' \text{ and } B) \Rightarrow (A \text{ and } B)$

$$(A' \text{ or } B) \Longrightarrow (A \text{ or } B)$$

Important because a principal may be stronger than needed

Lattices: Information Flow to Principals

A lattice of labels:

```
-unclassified < secret < top secret;
-public < personal < medical
< financial</pre>
```

Use the same labels as principals, and let \Rightarrow represent clearance

- lampson \Rightarrow secret

Or, use names rooted in principals as labels

- lampson/personal, lampson/medical

Then the principal can declassify

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SECURE CHANNELS

A secure channel:

- says things directly
- has known possible receivers possible senders





Examples

Within a node: operating system (pipes, etc.) Between nodes:

Secure wire Network Encryption difficult to implement fantasy for most networks practical

Names for Channels

A channel needs a name to be authenticated properly

$$-K_{Alice}$$
 says $K_{temp} \Longrightarrow K_{Alice}$

It's not OK to have

 $-K_{Alice}$ says "this channel $\Rightarrow K_{Alice}$ "

unless you trust the receiver not to send this on another channel!

-Thus it is OK to authenticate yourself by sending a password to amazon.com on an SSL channel already authenticated (by a Verisign certificate) as going to Amazon.

Multiplexing a Channel

Connect *n* channels *A*, *B*, ... to one channel *X* to make *n* new sub-channels X|A, X|B, ... Each subchannel has its own address on *X*

The multiplexer must be trusted



Quoting

 $\overline{A \mid B} \qquad A \text{ quoting } B$ $A \mid B \text{ says } s \equiv A \text{ says } (B \text{ says } s)$

Axioms

| is associative | distributes over **and**, or | is idempotent: $A \mid A = A$ $A \Longrightarrow_{A/B} A \mid B$

Multiplexing a Channel: Examples

Multiplexer	Main channel	Subchannels	Address
OS	node-node	process– process	port or process ID
Network routing	node– network	node–node	node address

Signed Secure Channels

The channel is defined by the key: If only *A* knows K^{-1} , then $K \Rightarrow A$ (Actually, if only *A uses K*⁻¹, then $K \Rightarrow A$) *K* says *s* is a message which *K* can verify



$$K \text{ says } s \left\{ \xrightarrow{} Verify(K, s) \rightarrow OK? \right\}$$

The bits of "*K* says *s*" can travel on any path

Abstract Cryptography: Sign/Verify

Verify(K, M, sig) = true iff sig = Sign(K', M) and $K' = K^{-1}$ -Is sig K's signature on M?

Concretely, with RSA public key: $-Sign(K^{-1}, M) = RSAencrypt(K^{-1}, SHA1(M))$ -Verify(K, M, sig) = (SHA1(M) = RSAdecrypt(K, sig))Concretely, with AES shared key:

-Sign(K, M) = SHA1(K, SHA1(K || M))

-Verify(K, M, sig) = (SHA1(K, SHA1(K || M)) = sig)

Concrete crypto is for experts only!

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Abstract Cryptography: Seal/Unseal

Unseal(K^{-1} , Seal(K, M)) = M, and without K^{-1} you can't learn anything about M from Seal(K, M)

Concretely, with RSA public key:

 $-Seal(K, M) = RSAencrypt(K^{-1}, IV || M)$ $-Unseal(K, M_{sealed}) = RSAdecrypt(K, M_{sealed}).M$ Concretely, with AES shared key:

-Seal(K, M) = AESencrypt(K, IV || M)

 $-\text{Unseal}(K, M_{sealed}) = \text{AESdecrypt}(K, M_{sealed}).M$

Concrete crypto is for experts only!

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Sign and Seal

Normally when sealing must sign as well!

 $-\text{Seal}(K_{seal}^{-1}, M \parallel \text{Sign}(K_{sign}^{-1}, M))$

Often Sign is replaced with a checksum ???

Concrete crypto is for experts only!



Public Key vs. Shared Key

Public key:
$$K \neq K^{-1}$$

- -Broadcast
- -Slow
- -Non-repudiable (only one possible sender)
- -Used for certificates

Key \Rightarrow name: K_{Intel} says $K_{Alice} \Rightarrow$ Alice@Intel Temp key \Rightarrow key: K_{temp} says $K_{SSL} \Rightarrow K_{temp}$ K_{Alice} says $K_{temp} \Rightarrow K_{Alice}$

Shared key: $K = K^{-1}$ -Point to point -Fast—100-3000x public key

Can simulate public key with trusted on-line server

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Messages on Encrypted Channels

If K says s, we say that s is signed by K
Sometimes we call "K says s" a certificate
The channel isn't real-time: K says s is just bits
K says s can be viewed as

- An event: *s* transmitted on channel *K*
- A pile of bits which makes sense if you know the decryption key
- A logical formula

Messages vs. Meaning

Standard notation for Seal(K_{seal}^{-1} , $M \parallel \text{Sign}(K_{sign}^{-1}, M)$) is $\{M\}K$. This does not give the meaning

Must *parse* message bits to get the meaning –Need *unambiguous* language for *all K*'s messages –In practice, this implies version numbers

Meaning could be a logical formula, or English

- $-A, B, \{K\}_{K_C}$ means C says "K is a key".
 - C says nothing about A and B. This is useless
- $-\{A, B, K\}_{K_C}$ means *C* says "*K* is a key for *A* to talk to *B*". *C* says nothing about when *K* is valid
- $-\{A, B, K, T\}_{K_C}$ means *C* says "*K* is a key for *A* to talk to *B* first issued at time *T*"

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Replay

Encryption doesn't stop replay of messages.

- Receiver must discard duplicates.
- This means each message must be unique. Usually done with sequence numbers.
- Receiver must remember last sequence number while the key is valid.
- Transport protocols solve the same problem.

Timeliness

Must especially protect authentication against replay

If *C* says $K_A \Rightarrow A$ to *B* and Eve records this, she can get *B* to believe in K_A just by replaying *C*'s message.

Now she can replay *A*'s commands to *B*.

If she *ever* learns K_A , even much later, she can also impersonate A.

To avoid this, *B* needs a way to know that *C*'s message is not old.

Sequence numbers impractical—too much long-term state.

Timestamps and Nonces

Timestamps

With synchronized clocks, C just adds the time T, saying to B

 K_C says $K_A \Rightarrow A$ at T

Nonces

Otherwise, *B* tells *C* a *nonce* N_B which is new, and *C* sends to *B*

 K_C says $K_A \Longrightarrow A$ after N_B

AUTHENTICATING SYSTEMS: Loading

A digest X can authenticate a **program** SQL: $-K_{Microsoft}$ says "If image I has digest X then I is SQL" formally $X \Rightarrow K_{Microsoft} / SQL$ $-This is just like K_{Alice} \Rightarrow Alice@Intel$ But a program isn't a principal: it can't say things To become a principal, a program must be *loaded* into a *host H*

-Booting is a special case of loading

 $X \Rightarrow \text{SQL makes } H$ -want to run *I* if *H* likes SQL -willing to assert that SQL is running

Roles: *P* as *R*

To *limit* its authority, a principal can assume a role. People assume roles: Lampson **as** Professor Machines assume roles as nodes by running OS programs: Vax#1724 **as** BSD4.3a4 = Jumbo

Nodes assume roles as servers by running services: Jumbo **as** SRC-NFS

Metaphor: a role is a programEncoding: A as $R \equiv A \mid R$ if R is a roleAxioms: $A \Rightarrow_{*\Rightarrow A/R} A$ as Rif R is a role

Authenticating Systems: Roles

A loaded program depends on the *host* it runs on. -We write H as SQL for SQL running on H(H as SQL) says s = H says (SQL says s)*H* can't *prove* that it's running SQL But *H* can be *trusted* to run SQL $-K_{TUM}$ says $(H \text{ as } SQL) \Rightarrow TUM / SQL$ This lets *H* convince others that it's running SQL -H says $C \Rightarrow H$ as SQL -Hence $C \Rightarrow \text{TUM} / \text{SQL}$

Node Credentials

Machine has some things accessible at boot time.

- A secret K_{ws}^{-1} A trusted CA key K_{ca}
- Boot code does this:
 - Reads K_{ws}^{-1} and then makes it unreadable.
 - Reads boot image and computes digest X_{taos} .
 - Checks K_{ca} says $X_{taos} \Rightarrow$ Taos.
 - Generates K_n^{-1} , the node key.
 - Signs credentials K_{ws} says $K_n \Rightarrow K_{ws}$ as Taos Gives image K_n^{-1} , K_{ca} , credentials, but not K_{ws}^{-1} .
- Other systems are similar: K_{ws} as Taos as Accounting

Node Credentials: Example



Example: Server's Access Control



Sealed Storage: Load and Unseal

Instead of authenticating a new key for a loaded system,

 $-K_{ws}$ says $K_n \Longrightarrow K_{ws}$ as Taos

Unseal an existing key

 $-SK = \text{Seal}(K_{WSseal}^{-1}, < \text{ACL: Taos, Stuff: } K_{TaosOnWS}^{-1} >)$ -Save(ACL: Taos, Stuff: $K_{TaosOnWS}^{-1} >$) returns SK-Open(SK) returns $K_{TaosOnWS}^{-1}$ if caller \Rightarrow Taos

Assurance: NGSCB (Palladium)

- A cheap, convenient, "physically" separate machine A high-assurance OS stack (we hope)
- A systematic notion of program identity
 - -Identity = digest of (code image + parameters) Can abstract this: K_{MS} says digest $\Rightarrow K_{MS} / SQL$
 - -Host certifies the running program's identity: H says $K \Rightarrow H$ as P
 - -Host grants the program access to sealed data *H* seals (data, ACL) with its own secret key *H* will unseal for *P* if *P* is on the ACL

NGSCB Hardware

Protected memory for separate VMs Unique key for hardware Random number generator Hardware attests to loaded software Hardware seals and unseals storage Secure channels to keyboard, display

NGSCB Issues

Privacy: Hardware key must be certified by manufacturer

- -Use K_{ws} to get one or more certified, anonymous keys from a trusted third party
- -Use zero-knowledge proof that you know a mfgcertified key

Upgrade: v7of SQL needs access to v6 secrets

-v6 signs "v7 \Rightarrow v6"

-or, both \Rightarrow SQL

Threat model: Other software

-Won't withstand hardware attacks

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NGSCB Applications

Keep keys secure Network logon Authenticating server Authorizing transactions Digital signing Digital rights management

Need app TCB: factor app into -a complicated, secure part that runs on Windows -a simple, secure part that runs on NGSCB

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NAMES FOR PRINCIPALS

Authorization is to named principals. Users have to read these to check them.

Lampson may read file report

Root names must be defined locally

 $K_{Intel} \Rightarrow \texttt{Intel}$

From a root you can build a path name

Intel/Alice (= Alice@Intel)

With a suitable root principals can have global names.

```
/DEC/SRC/Lampson may read file
/DEC/SRC/udir/Lampson/report
```

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Authenticating Names


Authenticating a Channel

Authentication — who can send on a channel.

 $C \Rightarrow P$; *C* is the channel, *P* the sender.

Initialization — some such facts are built in: $K_{ca} \Rightarrow CA$.

To get new ones, must trust some principal, a *certification authority*.

Simplest: trust *CA* to authenticate any name: $CA \Rightarrow$ Anybody

Then CA can authenticate channels:

$$K_{ca}$$
 says $K_{ws} \Rightarrow WS$
 K_{ca} says $K_{bwl} \Rightarrow bwl$

One-Way Authentication



Mutual Authentication



This also works with shared keys, as in Kerberos.

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Who Is The CA

"Built In"

- CA's in browsers
 - -There are lots
 - -Because of politics
 - -Look at Tools / Internet options / Content / Publishers / Trusted root certification authorities
- This is a configuration problem

Revocation

Revoke a certificate by making the receiver think it's invalid.

To do this fast, the source of certificates must be online.

This loses a major advantage of public keys, and reduces security.

Solution: countersigning —

An offline CA_{assert}, highly secure.

An online *CA*_{revoke}, highly timely.

Both must sign for the certificate to be believed, i.e.,

 CA_{assert} and $CA_{revoke} \Rightarrow$ Anybody

Large-Scale Authentication

A large system can't have CA ⇒ Anybody. Instead, must have many CA's, one for each part. One natural way is based on a naming hierarchy: A tree of directories with principals as the leaves



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Large-Scale Authentication: Example

Keep trust as local as possible:

Authenticating A to B needs trust only up to least common ancestor



Trusting Fewer Authorities: Cross-Links

For less trust, add links to the tree



GROUPS and Group Credentials

Defining groups: A group is a principal; its members speak for it

- Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft
- $Bob@Microsoft \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft$
- • •

Proving group membership: Use certificates $K_{Microsoft}$ says Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft

Authenticating Groups



What Is A Group

Set of principals

 $-Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft$

Principals with some property

-Resident over 21 years old

-Type-checked program

Can think of the group (or property) as an *attribute* of each principal that is a member

Certifying Properties / Attributes

Need a trusted authority: $CA \Rightarrow typesafe$

-Actually K_{MS} says $CA \Rightarrow K_{MS}$ / typesafe

Usually done manually

Can also be done by a program P

-A compiler

-A class loader

-A more general proof checker

Logic is the same: $P \Rightarrow typesafe$

-Someone must authorize the program:

$$-K_{MS}$$
 says $P \Longrightarrow K_{MS}$ / typesafe

Groups As Parameters

An application may have some "built-in" groups Example: In an enterprise app, each division has

-groups: manager, employees, finance, marketing

-folders: budget, advertising plans, ...

Thus, the steel division is an instance of this, with

-steelMgr, steelEmps, steelFinance, steelMarketing

-folders: steelBudget, steelAdplans, ...

P and **Q**: Separation of Duty

Often we want two authorities for something. We use a compound principal with **and** to express this: A and B max, least upper bound $A \Rightarrow B \equiv (A = A \text{ and } B)$ (A and B) says $s \equiv (A \text{ says } s) \land (B \text{ says } s)$ Lampson and Taylor two users user running an application Lampson and Ingres CA_{assert} and CA_{revoke} online and offline CAs

P or *Q*: Weakening

Sometimes want to weaken a principal

min, greatest lower bound A or B $A \Rightarrow B \equiv (A = A \text{ and } B) \equiv (B = A \text{ or } B)$ (A or B) says $s \Leftarrow (A \text{ says } s) \lor (B \text{ says } s)$ $-A \lor B$ says "read f" needs both $A \Rightarrow_R f$ and $B \Rightarrow_R f$ -Example: Java rule—callee \Rightarrow caller \lor callee-code -Example: NT restricted tokens—if process P is running untrusted-code for blampson then $P \Rightarrow blampson \lor untrusted-code$

P as R: Roles

To *limit* its authority, a principal can assume a role. People assume roles: Lampson **as** Professor Machines assume roles as nodes by running OS programs: Vax#1724 **as** BSD4.3a4 = Jumbo

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Checking access:

Given a request an ACL

- Q says read O P may read/write O $Q \Rightarrow P$
- Check that *Q* speaks for *P* rights are OK

<u>v</u> → I read/write > read

Auditing

Each step is justified by a signed statement, or a rule

Summary: The "Speaks for" Relation \Rightarrow

- Principal A speaks for B about T $A \Rightarrow_T B$ If A says something in set T, B does too:
- Thus, A is stronger than B, or responsible for B, about T
 - Precisely: $(A \text{ says } s) \land (s \in T) \text{ implies } (B \text{ says } s)$
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Examples

Alice \Rightarrow Atom Key #7438 \Rightarrow Alice group of people key for Alice

Summary: Chain of Responsibility

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Chain of responsibility:

 $K_{SSL} \Rightarrow K_{temp} \Rightarrow K_{Alice}$ \Rightarrow Alice@Intel \Rightarrow Atom@Microsoft \Rightarrow Spectra



References

Look at my web page for these: research.microsoft.com/lampson

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