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## Understanding Authentication and Access Control in Distributed Systems

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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: Editor**

**Send file**

**File server**

**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

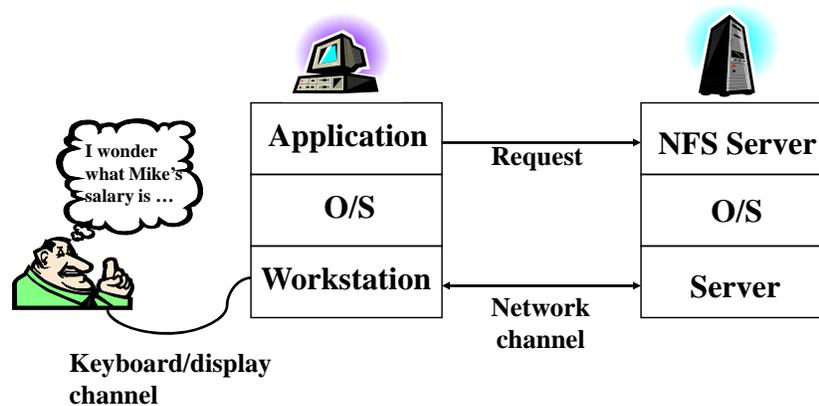
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## Authenticating a Channel

- 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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## The Challenge



- Whom is the request "from"?
  - The user? The workstation? The application?
  - All of the above?

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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
  - ▼ Terms that denote principals and strings
  - ▼ Formulas that are either “true” or “false”

- Terms:

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

where  $s$  ranges over strings and  $p$  over principals

- Formulas:

$$\phi ::= s \mathbf{signed} \phi \mid p \mathbf{says} \phi$$
$$\phi ::= \mathbf{action}(s) \mid p \mathbf{speaksfor} p \mid \mathbf{delegate}(p, p, s)$$

where  $s$  ranges over strings and  $p$  over principals

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## A Logic of Authorization (cont.)

- Inference rules

$$\frac{\mathit{pubkey} \mathbf{signed} F}{\mathbf{key}(\mathit{pubkey}) \mathbf{says} F} \quad (\mathbf{says-I})$$
$$\frac{A \mathbf{says} (A.S \mathbf{says} F)}{A.S \mathbf{says} F} \quad (\mathbf{says-LN})$$

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## A Logic of Authorization (cont.)

- Inference rules

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

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

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## A Logic of Authorization (cont.)

- Inference rules

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

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

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

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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”  $t$ 
$$t \leftarrow T_K(m)$$
  - ▼  $V$  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  $\{ \langle m_i, T_K(m_i) \rangle \}_i$ , it is computationally infeasible to compute  $\langle m, t \rangle$  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”  $K^{-1}$ 
$$\langle K, K^{-1} \rangle \leftarrow G(\cdot)$$
  - ▼  $S$  takes a “message”  $m$  and  $K^{-1}$  as input and outputs a “signature”  $\sigma$ 
$$\sigma \leftarrow S_{K^{-1}}(m)$$
  - ▼  $V$  takes a message  $m$ , signature  $\sigma$  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  $\{ \langle m_i, S_{K^{-1}}(m_i) \rangle \}_i$ , it is computationally infeasible to compute  $\langle m, \sigma \rangle$  such that
$$V_K(m, \sigma) = 1$$
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  $h(x') = y$ .
- ▼ 2<sup>nd</sup> 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  $\sigma$  be a digital signature on  $x$  such that  $V_K(x, \sigma) = 1$
- Interpret  $t$  or  $\sigma$  as " **$K$  signed  $x$** " (for respective  $K$ )
  
- Sometimes, public identifiers are needed for keys (channels)
  - ▼ If  $K$  is a public key, then  $\text{id}(K) = K$
  - ▼ If  $K$  is a secret key, then  $\text{id}(K) = h(K)$  works if  $h$  is a preimage resistant, 2<sup>nd</sup> preimage resistant, and collision-resistant function
- " **$\text{id}(K)$  signed  $x$** " can be used in place of " **$K$  signed  $x$** " when encoded in a system, if necessary

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## Authenticating a Channel

- 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  $C$  speaks for  $A$  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 ( $\text{key}(K_A)$  speaks for  $\text{key}(K_{CA}) \cdot A$ )

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

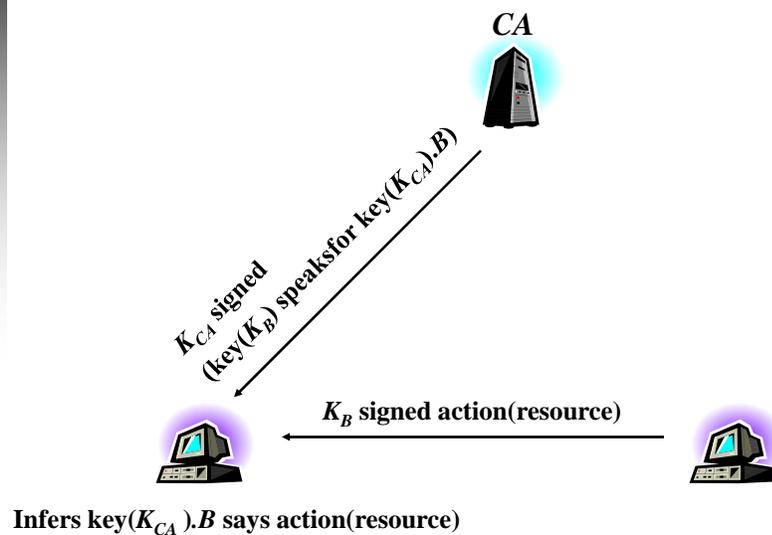
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## An Example Proof

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

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## A Certification Authority



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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

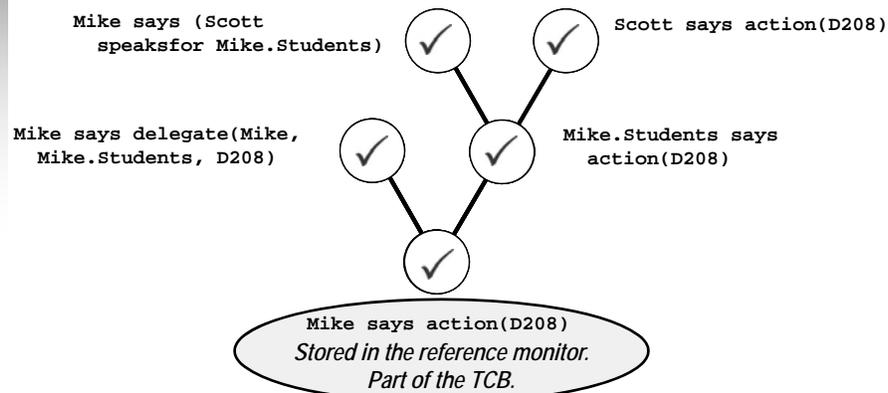
$\text{key}(K_{CA})$  says  $P_1$  speaksfor  $\text{key}(K_{CA}).G$   
 $\text{key}(K_{CA})$  says  $P_2$  speaksfor  $\text{key}(K_{CA}).G$

...

for group members  $P_1, P_2, \dots$

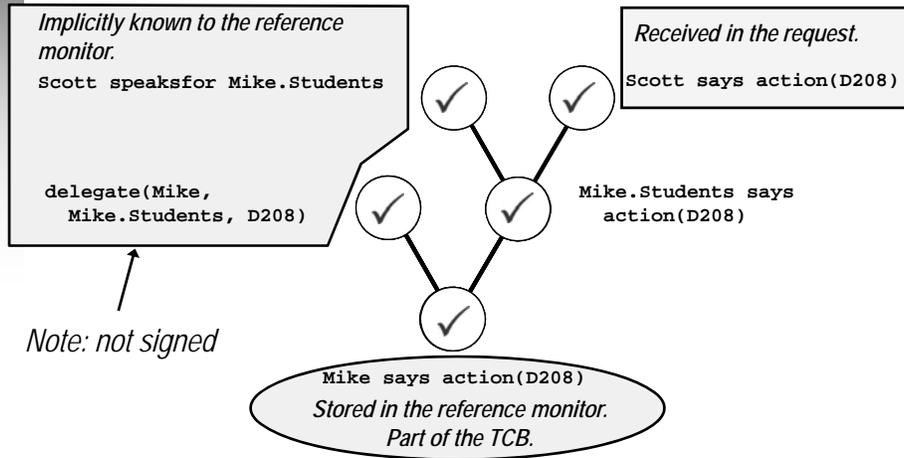
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## Example Proof



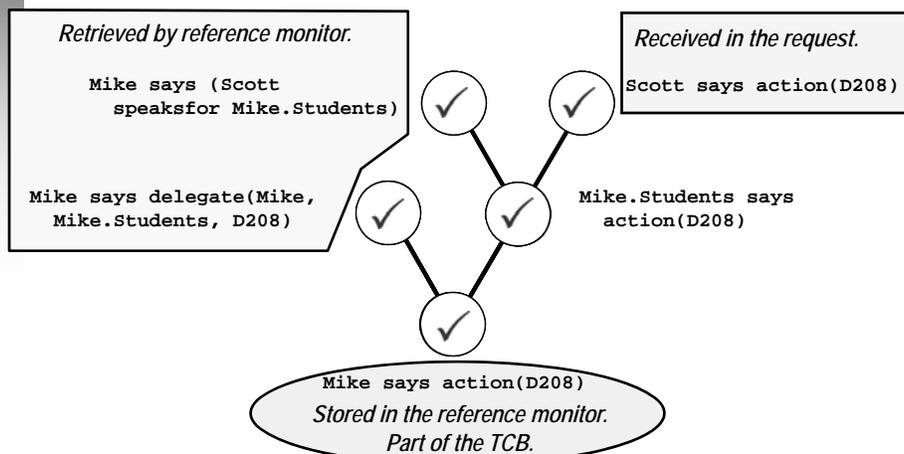
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## Traditional Access Control Lists



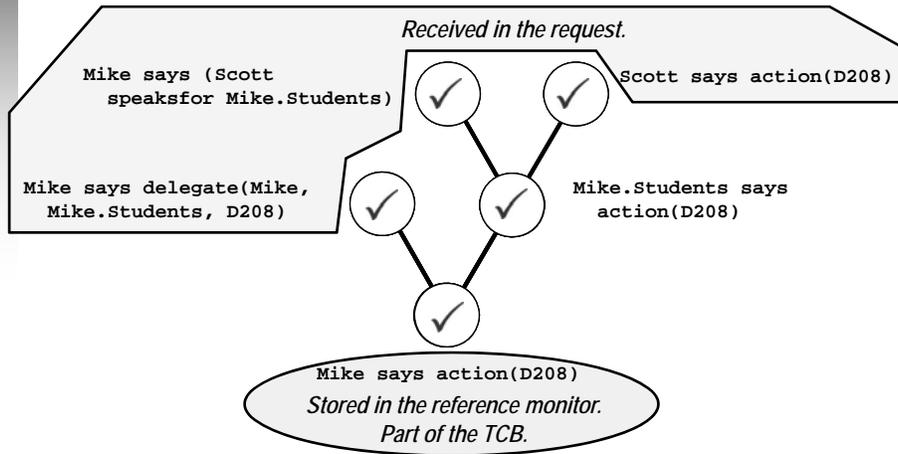
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## A "Pull" Approach



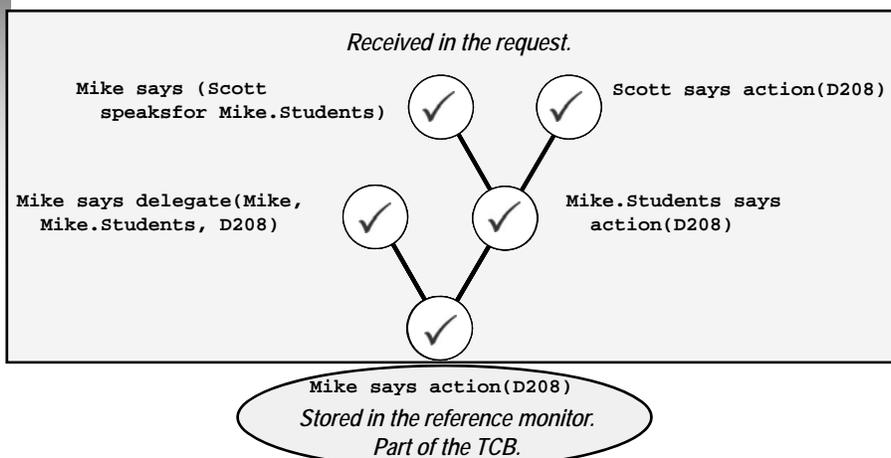
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## A "Push" Approach



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## A "Proof Carrying" Approach



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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<sup>nd</sup> 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  $pr$
  - ▼ Reads text  $I$  of file  $P$  from the file system
  - ▼ Finds credentials for  $D$  **speaksfor**  $P$  and checks  $h(I) = D$
  - ▼ Copies  $I$  into  $pr$
  - ▼ Gives  $pr$  ability to write to channel  $C$
  - ▼ Emit:  $N$  **says**  $C$  **speaksfor**  $N.P$
  
- Now  $pr$  can issue requests on channel  $C$ 
  - ▼ 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
$$K_{CA} \text{ signed } P \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).\text{trustedSW}$$
$$K_{CA} \text{ signed } N \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).\text{trustedNodes}$$
$$K_{CA} \text{ signed } (P \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).\text{trustedSW} \wedge$$
$$N \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).\text{trustedNodes} \rightarrow$$
$$N.P \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).\text{trustedNode}.\text{trustedSW})$$

where **trustedSW** and **trustedNodes** 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  $P$
- 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( $K_W$ ). $P$
- 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
- Today this is changing with efforts like the Trusted Computing Group (TCG; [www.trustedcomputing.org](http://www.trustedcomputing.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**  $\text{key}(K_{TPM})$  **speaks for**  $\text{key}(K_{TPME})$ .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)

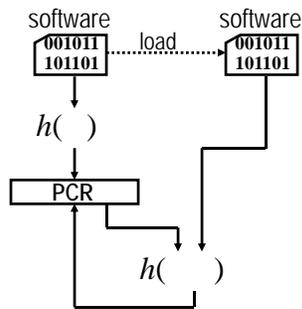
### ■ Root of trust for reporting (RTR): A platform-independent component that stores “measurements” as they happen, in such a way that measurements cannot be “undone”

- ▼ RTR is implemented by the TPM

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## TPM Platform Configuration Registers

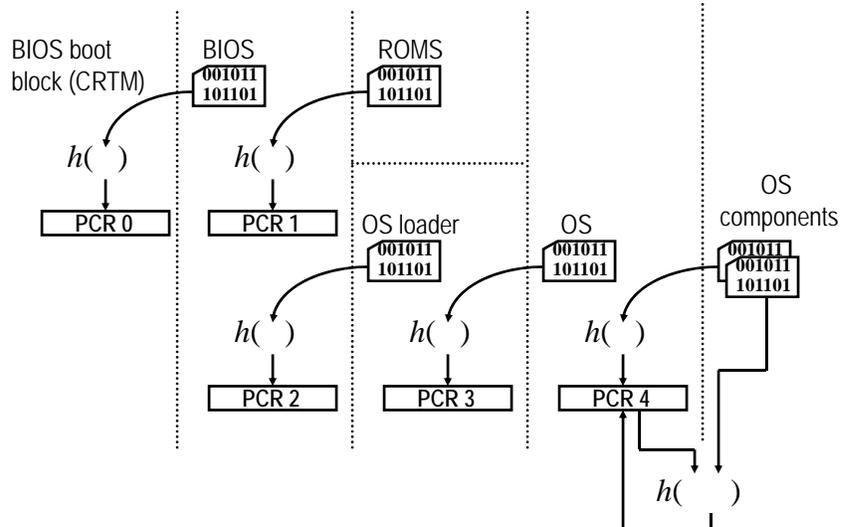
- TPM (version 1.1) contains sixteen 20-byte “platform configuration registers” (PCRs)
  - ▼ 20 bytes in order to store a SHA-1 hash value
- Each PCR records the last in a sequence of hashes of the software that has been loaded and run



- 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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## TCPA Authenticated Boot



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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

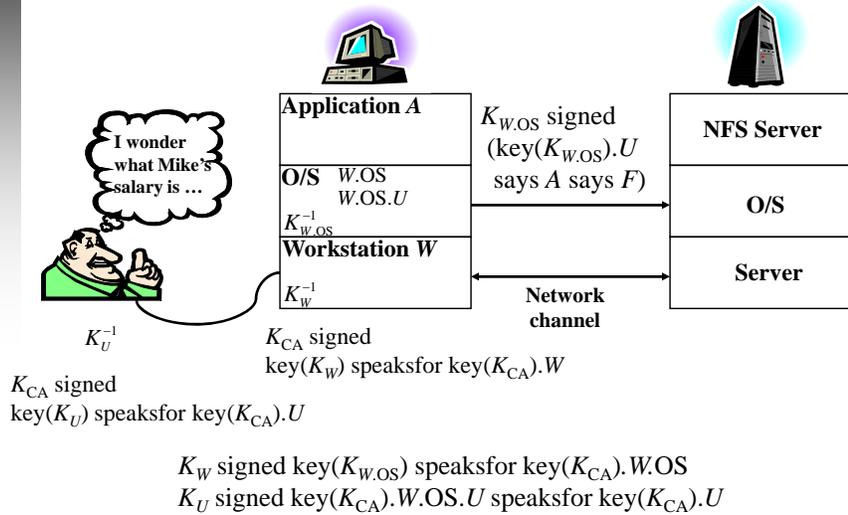
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## TCG Integrity Challenge and Response

- Remote machine can query TPM for contents of PCRs
- TPM responds with signed PCR values
  - ▼ Think of it as signed with  $K_{\text{TPM}}$   
 $K_{\text{TPM}}$  **signed** PCRvals = ...
  - ▼ (In reality, is not signed with  $K_{\text{TPM}}$  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



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## Example (cont.)

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

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## Example (cont.)

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

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## Example: Web Server Authentication (2)

- As part of SSL/TLS, web server sends a certificate  
 $K_{CA}$  signed (key( $K_{www.foo.com}$ ) speaksfor key( $K_{CA}$ ). 'www.foo.com')  
to browser

- Browser is shipped with public keys for numerous CAs:

$$K_{CA1}, K_{CA2}, K_{CA3}, \dots$$

- ▼ Mozilla Firefox ships with over 80 CA keys loaded
- ▼ Reportedly these represent 34 organizations from 15 countries: BE, BM, DE, DK, ES, FI, GB, IE, JP, NL, PL, SE, US, WW, ZA
- Should we really trust that key( $K_{CA}$ ). 'www.foo.com' is the "right" www.foo.com for all 80 CAs?

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## What if $K_{www.foo.com}^{-1}$ 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  $K_{www.foo.com}^{-1}$  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
 
$$K_{CA} \text{ signed } ( (\text{key}(K_O) \text{ says } \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_O).A) \rightarrow \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).A )$$
- $O$  “countersigns” with
 
$$K_O \text{ signed } (\text{date}() < '2008.07.31' \rightarrow \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_O).A)$$

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## Certificate Countersigning

1.  $K_{CA} \text{ signed } ((\text{key}(K_O) \text{ says } \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_O).A) \rightarrow \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).A)$
2.  $K_O \text{ signed } (\text{date}() < '2008.07.31' \rightarrow \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_O).A)$
3.  $\text{key}(K_{CA}) \text{ says } ((\text{key}(K_O) \text{ says } \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_O).A) \rightarrow \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).A) \text{ says-I}(1)$
4.  $\text{key}(K_O) \text{ says } (\text{date}() < '2008.07.31' \rightarrow \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_O).A) \text{ says-I}(2)$
5.  $\text{date}() < '2008.07.31'$
6.  $\text{key}(K_O) \text{ says } (\text{date}() < '2008.07.31') \text{ says-I2}(5)$
7.  $\text{key}(K_O) \text{ says } \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_O).A \text{ impl-E}(4, 6)$
8.  $\text{key}(K_{CA}) \text{ says } (\text{key}(K_O) \text{ says } \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_O).A) \text{ says-I2}(7)$
9.  $\text{key}(K_{CA}) \text{ says } \text{key}(K_A) \text{ speaksfor } \text{key}(K_{CA}).A \text{ impl-E}(3, 8)$

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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,  $\text{key}(K_{CA}).A$  is the “correct”  $A$  is too strong
  - ▼ Remember that Firefox comes shipped with more than 80 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”)

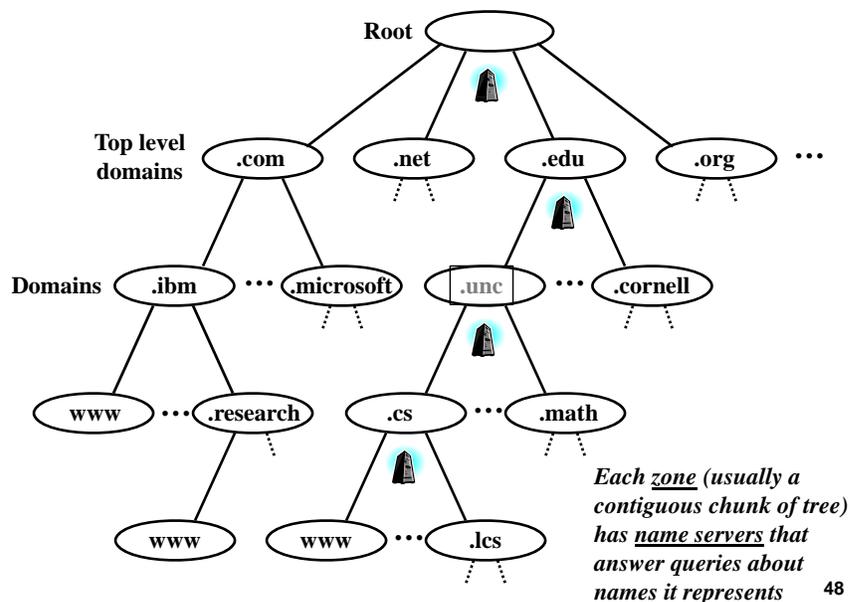
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## Example: DNS Security

- 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), probably revised since

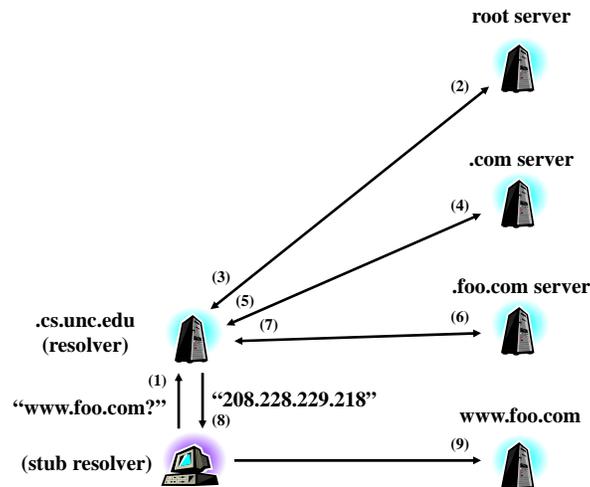
47

## DNS Name Hierarchy



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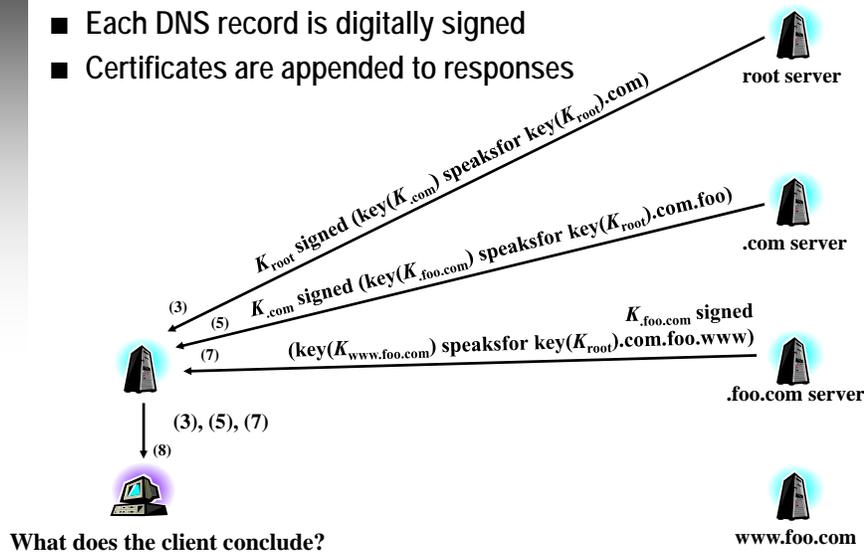
# DNS Name Resolution



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# DNSSEC

- Each DNS record is digitally signed
- Certificates are appended to responses



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## Example Proof

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

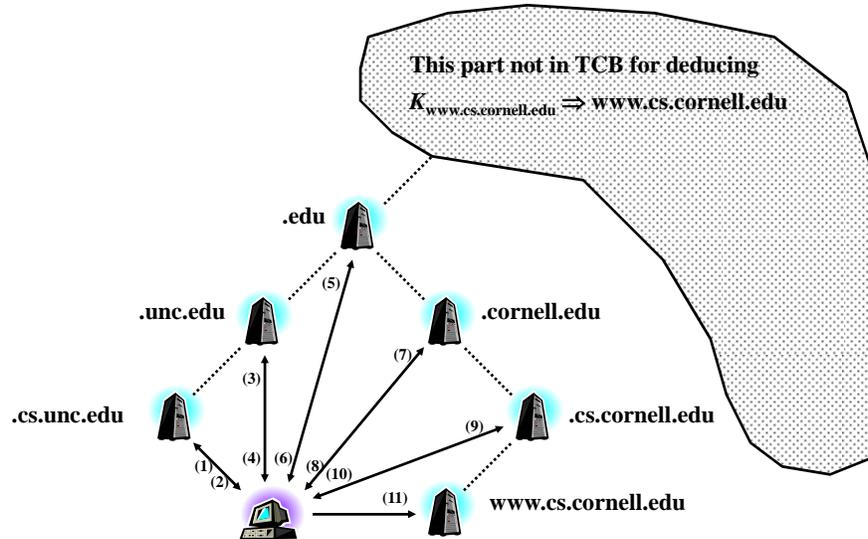
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## What Went Wrong?

- 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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## Eliminating a Globally Trusted Authority



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## Extensions to the Logic

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

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

(ascent)

$A$  says ascend( $\text{key}(K_B), B.C$ )

■ If  $C \neq D$

$A$  says ascend( $\text{key}(K_B), B.C$ )

$\text{key}(K_B)$  says descend( $\text{key}(K_{B,D}), B.D$ )

(a2d)

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

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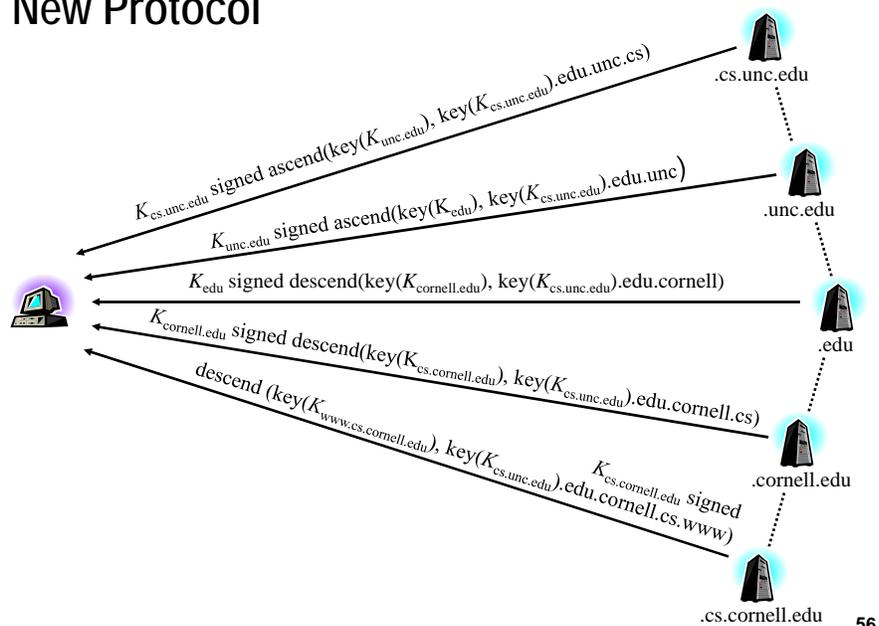
## Extensions to the Logic (cont.)

$$\frac{A \text{ says descend}(\text{key}(K_B), B) \quad \text{key}(K_B) \text{ says descend}(\text{key}(K_{B.C}), B.C)}{A \text{ says descend}(\text{key}(K_{B.C}), B.C)} \quad (\text{descent})$$

$$\frac{A \text{ says descend}(\text{key}(K_B), B)}{A \text{ says key}(K_B) \text{ speaksfor } B} \quad (\text{resolve})$$

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## New Protocol



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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.  $K_{unc.edu}$  signed ascend(key( $K_{edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.unc)
3.  $K_{edu}$  signed descend(key( $K_{cornell.edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.cornell)
4.  $K_{cornell.edu}$  signed  
descend(key( $K_{cs.cornell.edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.cornell.cs)
5.  $K_{cs.cornell.edu}$  signed  
descend (key( $K_{www.cs.cornell.edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.cornell.cs.www)
6.  $K_{www.cs.cornell.edu}$  signed  $F$
7. key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ) says ascend(key( $K_{unc.edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.unc.cs)  
says-I(1)
8. key( $K_{unc.edu}$ ) says ascend(key( $K_{edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.unc)  
says-I(2)
9. key( $K_{edu}$ ) says descend(key( $K_{cornell.edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.cornell)  
says-I(3)

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## Analysis (cont.)

10. key( $K_{cornell.edu}$ ) says descend(key( $K_{cs.cornell.edu}$ ),  
key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).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. key( $K_{www.cs.cornell.edu}$ ) says  $F$  says-I(6)
13. key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ) says ascend(key( $K_{edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.unc)  
ascend(7, 8)
14. key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ) says  
descend(key( $K_{cornell.edu}$ ), key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.cornell) a2d(13, 9)
15. key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ) says descend(key( $K_{cs.cornell.edu}$ ),  
key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ).edu.cornell.cs) descent(14, 10)
16. key( $K_{cs.unc.edu}$ ) says descend (key( $K_{www.cs.cornell.edu}$ ),  
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  
 $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}}).\text{edu.cornell.cs.www}$  resolve(16)
18.  $\text{key}(K_{\text{cs.unc.edu}}).\text{edu.cornell.cs.www}$  says  $F$  speaksfor-E2(12, 17)

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## Bibliography

- Lampson, Abadi, Burrows and Wobber. Authentication in distributed systems: Theory and practice. *ACM Transactions on Computer Systems* 10(4), November 1992.

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