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Security & Authorization

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Introduction to DB Security

- **Secrecy:** Users should not be able to see things they are not supposed to.
 - E.g., A student can't see other students' grades.
- **Integrity:** Users should not be able to modify things they are not supposed to.
 - E.g., Only instructors can assign grades.
- **Availability:** Users should be able to see and modify things they are allowed to.

Access Control

- A **security policy** specifies who is authorized to do what.
- A **security mechanism** allows us to enforce a chosen security policy.
- Two main mechanisms at the DBMS level:
 - Discretionary access control
 - Mandatory access control

Discretionary Access Control

- Based on the concept of access rights or **privileges** for objects (tables and views), and mechanisms for giving users privileges (and revoking privileges).
- Creator of a table or a view automatically gets all privileges on it.
 - DMBS keeps track of who subsequently gains and loses privileges, and ensures that only requests from users who have the necessary privileges (at the time the request is issued) are allowed.

The SQL GRANT Command

GRANT *privileges* **ON** object **TO** users [**WITH GRANT OPTION**]

- The following *privileges* can be specified:
 - ❖ SELECT: Can read all columns (including those added later via ALTER TABLE command).
 - ❖ INSERT(col-name): Can insert tuples with non-null or non-default values in this column.
 - ❖ INSERT means same right with respect to all columns.
 - ❖ DELETE: Can delete tuples.
 - ❖ REFERENCES (col-name): Can define foreign keys (in other tables) that refer to this column.
- If a user has a privilege with the **GRANT OPTION**, can pass privilege on to other users (with or without passing on the **GRANT OPTION**).
- Only owner can execute CREATE, ALTER, and DROP.

Examples: Grant & Revoke

- **GRANT INSERT, SELECT ON Sailors TO Horatio**
 - Horatio can query Sailors or insert tuples into it.
- **GRANT DELETE ON Sailors TO Yuppy WITH GRANT OPTION**
 - Yuppy can delete tuples, and also authorize others to do so.
- **GRANT UPDATE (*rating*) ON Sailors TO Dustin**
 - Dustin can update (only) the *rating* field of Sailors tuples.
- **GRANT SELECT ON ActiveSailors TO Guppy, Yuppy**
 - This does NOT allow the ‘uppies to query Sailors directly!
- **REVOKE:** When a privilege is revoked from X, it is also revoked from all users who got it *solely* from X.

Grant/Revoke on Views

- If the creator of a view loses the SELECT privilege on an underlying table, the view is dropped!
- If the creator of a view loses a privilege held with the grant option on an underlying table, (s)he loses the privilege on the view as well; so do users who were granted that privilege on the view!

Views & Security

```
CREATE VIEW ActiveSailors ( name, age, day)  
AS  
SELECT S.sname, S.age, R.day  
FROM Sailors S, Reserves R  
WHERE S.sid=R.sid AND S.rating>6
```

Hides other fields (eg.
R.BID) in Sailors and
Reserves

- Views can be used to present necessary information (or a summary), while hiding details in underlying relation(s).
 - Creator of view has a privilege on the view if (s)he has the privilege on all underlying tables.
- Together with GRANT/REVOKE commands, views are a very powerful access control tool.

Role-based Authorization

- In SQL-92, privileges are actually assigned to **authorization ids**, which can denote a single user or a group of users.
- In SQL:1999 (and in many current systems), privileges are assigned to **roles**.
 - Roles can then be granted to users and to other roles.
 - Reflects how real organizations work.
 - Illustrates how standards often catch up with “de facto” standards embodied in popular systems.

Security Granularity

- Can create a view that only returns one field of one tuple. (How?)
- Then grant access to that view accordingly.
- Allows for *arbitrary* granularity of control, *but*:
 - Clumsy to specify, though this can be hidden under a good UI
 - Performance is unacceptable if we need to define field-granularity access frequently. (Too many view creations and look-ups.)

Internet-Oriented Security

- **Key Issues: User authentication and trust.**
 - When DB must be accessed from a secure location, password-based schemes are usually adequate.
- For access over an external network, trust is hard to achieve.
 - If someone with Sam's credit card wants to buy from you, how can you be sure it is not someone who stole his card?
 - How can Sam be sure that the screen for entering his credit card information is indeed yours, and not some rogue site spoofing you (to steal such information)? How can he be sure that sensitive information is not "sniffed" while it is being sent over the network to you?
- *Encryption* is a technique used to address these issues.

Encryption

- “Masks” data for secure transmission or storage
 - $\text{Encrypt}(\text{data}, \text{encryption key}) = \text{encrypted data}$
 - $\text{Decrypt}(\text{encrypted data}, \text{decryption key}) = \text{original data}$
 - Without decryption key, the encrypted data is meaningless gibberish
- **Symmetric Encryption:**
 - Encryption key = decryption key; all authorized users know decryption key (a weakness).
 - DES, used since 1977, has 56-bit key; AES has 128-bit (optionally, 192-bit or 256-bit) key
- **Public-Key Encryption:**
 - Each user has two keys:
 - User’s public encryption key: Known to all
 - Decryption key: Known only to this user
 - Used in RSA scheme (Turing Award!)

RSA Public-Key Encryption

- Let the data be an integer I
- Choose a large ($\gg I$) integer $L = p * q$
 - p, q are large, say 1024-bit, distinct prime numbers
- Encryption: Choose a random number $1 < e < L$ that is relatively prime to $(p-1) * (q-1)$
 - Encrypted data $S = I^e \text{ mod } L$
- Decryption key d : Chosen so that
 - $d * e = 1 \text{ mod } ((p-1) * (q-1))$
 - We can then show that $I = S^d \text{ mod } L$
- It turns out that the roles of e and d can be reversed; so they are simply called the public and private keys

Certifying Servers: SSL, SET

- If Amazon distributes their public key, Sam's browser will encrypt his order using it.
 - So, only Amazon can decipher the order, since no one else has Amazon's private key.
- But how can Sam (or his browser) know that the public key for Amazon is genuine? The SSL protocol covers this.
 - Amazon contracts with, say, Verisign, to issue a certificate <Verisign, Amazon, amazon.com, public-key>
 - This certificate is stored in encrypted form, encrypted with Verisign's *private* key, known only to Verisign.
 - Verisign's public key is known to all browsers, which can therefore decrypt the certificate and obtain Amazon's public key, and be confident that it is genuine.
 - The browser then generates a temporary *session key*, encodes it using Amazon's public key, and sends it to Amazon.
 - All subsequent msgs between the browser and Amazon are encoded using symmetric encryption (e.g., DES), which is more efficient than public-key encryption.
- What if Sam doesn't trust Amazon with his credit card information?
 - Secure Electronic Transaction protocol: 3-way communication between Amazon, Sam, and a trusted server, e.g., Visa.

Authenticating Users

- Amazon can simply use password authentication, i.e., ask Sam to log into his Amazon account.
 - Done after SSL is used to establish a session key, so that the transmission of the password is secure!
 - Amazon is still at risk if Sam's card is stolen and his password is hacked. Business risk ...
- Digital Signatures:
 - Sam encrypts the order using his *private* key, then encrypts the result using Amazon's public key.
 - Amazon decrypts the msg with their private key, and then decrypts the result using Sam's public key, which yields the original order!
 - Exploits interchangeability of public/private keys for encryption/decryption
 - Now, no one can forge Sam's order, and Sam cannot claim that someone else forged the order.