CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 23

Distributed Storage, Key-Value Stores, Security

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Recall: Two Phase (2PC) Commit

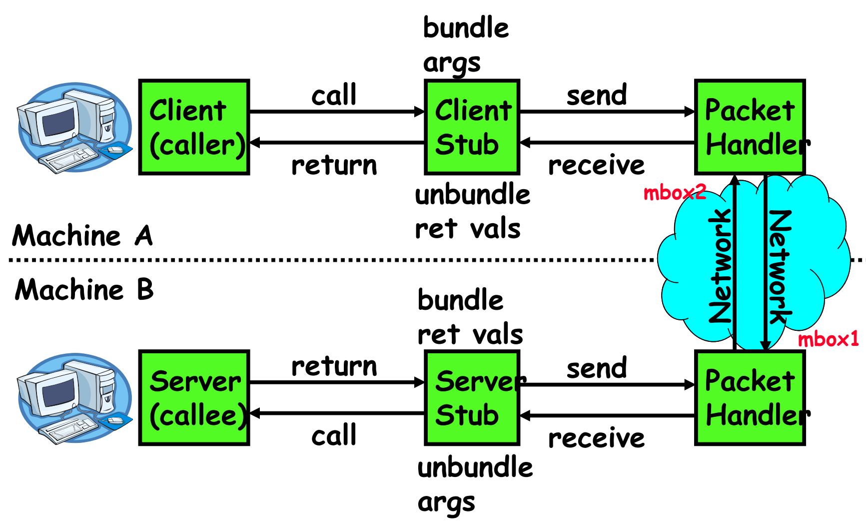
- Distributed transaction: Two or more machines agree to do something, or not do it, atomically
- Two Phase Commit:
  - One coordinator
  - N workers (replicas)
- High level algorithm description
  - Coordinator asks all workers if they can commit
  - If all workers reply "VOTE-COMMIT", then coordinator broadcasts "GLOBAL-COMMIT",

    Otherwise coordinator broadcasts "GLOBAL-ABORT"
  - Workers obey the GLOBAL messages
- Use a persistent, stable log on each machine to keep track of what you are doing
  - If a machine crashes, when it wakes up it first checks its log to recover state of world at time of crash

Brief aside: Remote Procedure Call

- Raw messaging is a bit too low-level for programming
  - Must wrap up information into message at source
  - Must decide what to do with message at destination
  - May need to sit and wait for multiple messages to arrive
- Better option: Remote Procedure Call (RPC)
  - Calls a procedure on a remote machine
  - Client calls:
    `remoteFileSystem→Read("rutabaga");`
  - Translated automatically into call on server:
    `fileSys→Read("rutabaga");`
- Implementation:
  - Request-response message passing (under covers!)
  - "Stub" provides glue on client/server
    - » Client stub is responsible for "marshalling" arguments and "unmarshalling" the return values
    - » Server-side stub is responsible for "unmarshalling" arguments and "marshalling" the return values.
- Marshalling involves (depending on system)
  - Converting values to a canonical form, serializing objects, copying arguments passed by reference, etc.

RPC Information Flow



RPC Details

- Equivalence with regular procedure call
  - Parameters ⇔ Request Message
  - Result ⇔ Reply message
  - Name of Procedure: Passed in request message
  - Return Address: mbox2 (client return mail box)
- Stub generator: Compiler that generates stubs
  - Input: interface definitions in an "interface definition language (IDL)"
    - » Contains, among other things, types of arguments/return
  - Output: stub code in the appropriate source language
    - » Code for client to pack message, send it off, wait for result, unpack result and return to caller
    - » Code for server to unpack message, call procedure, pack results, send them off
- Cross-platform issues:
  - What if client/server machines are different architectures or in different languages?
    - » Convert everything to/from some canonical form
    - » Tag every item with an indication of how it is encoded (avoids unnecessary conversions).

RPC Details (continued)

- How does client know which mbox to send to?
  - Need to translate name of remote service into network endpoint (Remote machine, port, possibly other info)
  - Binding: the process of converting a user-visible name into a network endpoint
    - » This is another word for "naming" at network level
    - » Static: fixed at compile time
    - » Dynamic: performed at runtime
- Dynamic Binding
  - Most RPC systems use dynamic binding via name service
    - » Name service provides dynamic translation of service→mbox
  - Why dynamic binding?
    - » Access control: check who is permitted to access service
    - » Fail-over: If server fails, use a different one
- What if there are multiple servers?
  - Could give flexibility at binding time
    - » Choose unloaded server for each new client
  - Could provide same mbox (router level redirect)
    - » Choose unloaded server for each new request
    - » Only works if no state carried from one call to next
- What if multiple clients?
  - Pass pointer to client-specific return mbox in request

Problems with RPC

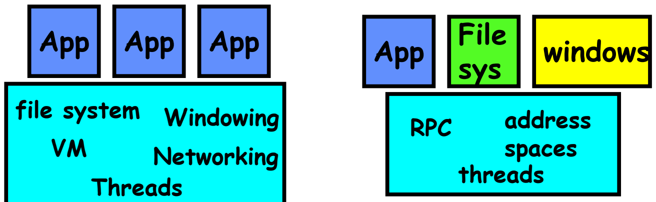
- Non-Atomic failures
  - Different failure modes in distributed system than on a single machine
  - Consider many different types of failures
    - » User-level bug causes address space to crash
    - » Machine failure, kernel bug causes all processes on same machine to fail
    - » Some machine is compromised by malicious party
  - Before RPC: whole system would crash/die
  - After RPC: One machine crashes/compromised while others keep working
  - Can easily result in inconsistent view of the world
    - » Did my cached data get written back or not?
    - » Did server do what I requested or not?
  - Answer? Distributed transactions/Byzantine Commit
- Performance
  - Cost of Procedure call « same-machine RPC « network RPC
  - Means programmers must be aware that RPC is not free
    - » Caching can help, but may make failure handling complex

Cross-Domain Communication/Location Transparency

- How do address spaces communicate with one another?
  - Shared Memory with Semaphores, monitors, etc…
  - File System
  - Pipes (1-way communication)
  - "Remote" procedure call (2-way communication)
- RPC's can be used to communicate between address spaces on different machines or the same machine
  - Services can be run wherever it's most appropriate
  - Access to local and remote services looks the same
- Examples of modern RPC systems:
  - CORBA (Common Object Request Broker Architecture)
  - DCOM (Distributed COM)
  - RMI (Java Remote Method Invocation)

Microkernel operating systems

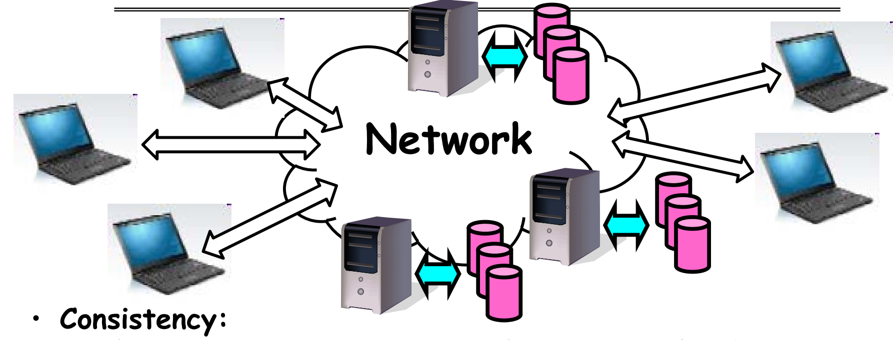
- Example: split kernel into application-level servers.
  - File system looks remote, even though on same machine



Monolithic Structure   Microkernel Structure

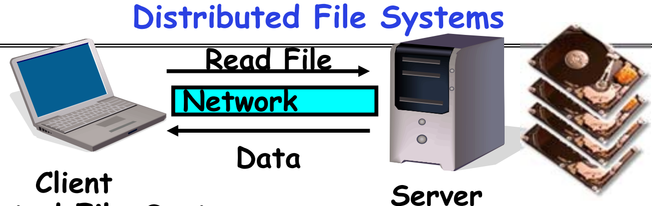
- Why split the OS into separate domains?
  - Fault isolation: bugs are more isolated (build a firewall)
  - Enforces modularity: allows incremental upgrades of pieces of software (client or server)
  - Location transparent: service can be local or remote
    - » For example in the X windowing system: Each X client can be on a separate machine from X server; Neither has to run on the machine with the frame buffer.

Network-Attached Storage and the CAP Theorem

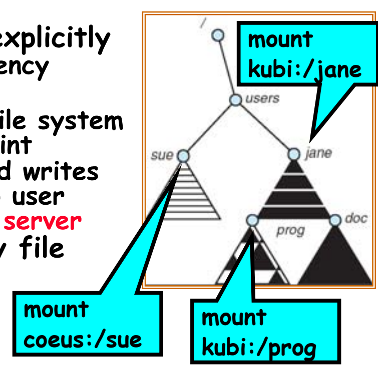


- Consistency:
  - Changes appear to everyone in the same serial order
- Availability:
  - Can get a result at any time
- Partition-Tolerance
  - System continues to work even when network becomes partitioned
- Consistency, Availability, Partition-Tolerance (CAP) Theorem: Cannot have all three at same time
  - Otherwise known as "Brewer's Theorem"

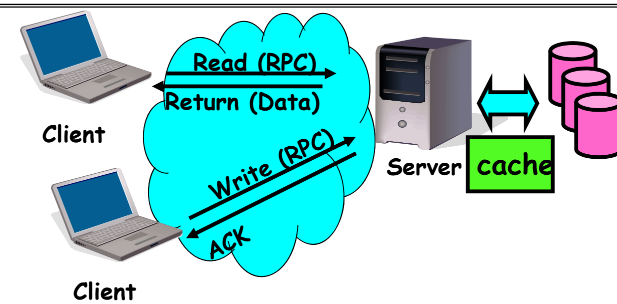
Distributed File Systems



- Distributed File System:
  - Transparent access to files stored on a remote disk
- Naming choices (always an issue):
  - *Hostname*:localname: Name files explicitly
    - » No location or migration transparency
  - *Mounting* of remote file systems
    - » System manager mounts remote file system by giving name and local mount point
    - » Transparent to user: all reads and writes look like local reads and writes to user e.g. /users/sue/foo→/sue/foo on server
  - *A single, global name space:* every file in the world has unique name
    - » Location Transparency: servers can change and files can move without involving user



Simple Distributed File System

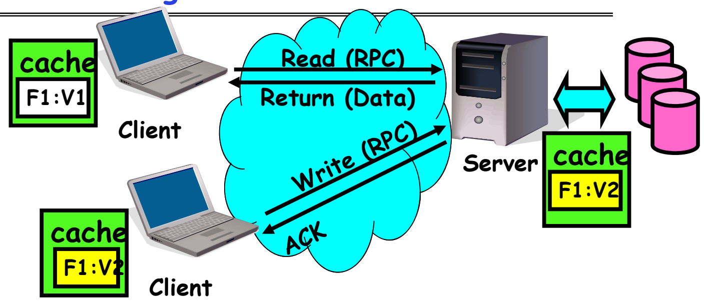


- Remote Disk: Reads and writes forwarded to server
  - Use Remote Procedure Calls (RPC) to translate file system calls into remote requests
  - No local caching/can be caching at server-side
- Advantage: Server provides completely consistent view of file system to multiple clients
- Problems? Performance!
  - Going over network is slower than going to local memory
  - Lots of network traffic/not well pipelined
  - Server can be a bottleneck

Use of caching to reduce network load

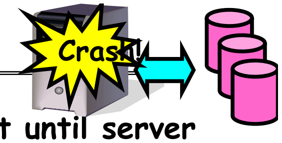
read(f1)→V1
read(f1)→V1
read(f1)→V1
read(f1)→V1

write(f1)→OK
read(f1)→V2



- Idea: Use caching to reduce network load
  - In practice: use buffer cache at source and destination
- Advantage: if open/read/write/close can be done locally, don't need to do any network traffic…fast!
- Problems:
  - Failure:
    - » Client caches have data not committed at server
  - Cache consistency!
    - » Client caches not consistent with server/each other

Failures



- What if server crashes? Can client wait until server comes back up and continue as before?
  - Any data in server memory but not on disk can be lost
  - Shared state across RPC: What if server crashes after seek? Then, when client does "read", it will fail
  - Message retries: suppose server crashes after it does UNIX "rm foo", but before acknowledgment?
    - » Message system will retry: send it again
    - » How does it know not to delete it again? (could solve with two-phase commit protocol, but NFS takes a more ad hoc approach)
- Stateless protocol: A protocol in which all information required to process a request is passed with request
  - Server keeps no state about client, except as hints to help improve performance (e.g. a cache)
  - Thus, if server crashes and restarted, requests can continue where left off (in many cases)
- What if client crashes?
  - Might lose modified data in client cache

Administrivia

- Midterm 2 grading
  - In progress. Hopefully done by end of week.
  - Solutions have been posted
- Final Exam
  - Friday, May 15th, 2015.
  - 3-6P, Wheeler Auditorium
  - All material from the course
    - » With slightly more focus on second half, but you are still responsible for all the material
  - Two sheets of notes, both sides
  - Will need dumb calculator
- Should be working on Project 3!
  - Checkpoint 1 this Wednesday

Administrivia (con't)

- Final Lecture topics submitted to me:
  - Real Time Operating systems
  - Peer to peer systems and/or Distributed Systems
  - OS trends in the mobile phone industry (Android, etc)
    - » Differences from traditional OSes?
  - GPU and ManyCore programming (and/or OSes?)
  - Virtual Machines and/or Trusted Hardware for security
  - Systems programming for non-standard computer systems
    - » i.e. Quantum Computers, Biological Computers, …
  - Net Neutrality and/or making the Internet Faster
  - Mesh networks
  - Device drivers
  - A couple of votes for Dragons…
- This is a lot of topics…

Network File System (NFS)

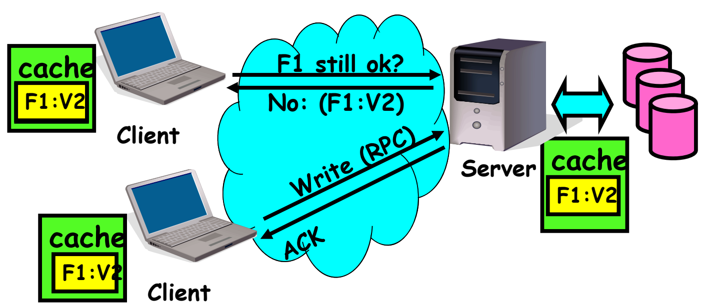
- Three Layers for NFS system
  - UNIX file-system interface: open, read, write, close calls + file descriptors
  - VFS layer: distinguishes local from remote files
    - » Calls the NFS protocol procedures for remote requests
  - NFS service layer: bottom layer of the architecture
    - » Implements the NFS protocol
- NFS Protocol: RPC for file operations on server
  - Reading/searching a directory
  - manipulating links and directories
  - accessing file attributes/reading and writing files
- Write-through caching: Modified data committed to server's disk before results are returned to the client
  - lose some of the advantages of caching
  - time to perform write() can be long
  - Need some mechanism for readers to eventually notice changes! (more on this later)

NFS Continued

- NFS servers are stateless; each request provides all arguments require for execution
  - E.g. reads include information for entire operation, such as `ReadAt(inumber,position)`, not `Read(openfile)`
  - No need to perform network open() or close() on file – each operation stands on its own
- Idempotent: Performing requests multiple times has same effect as performing it exactly once
  - Example: Server crashes between disk I/O and message send, client resend read, server does operation again
  - Example: Read and write file blocks: just re-read or re-write file block – no side effects
  - Example: What about "remove"? NFS does operation twice and second time returns an advisory error
- Failure Model: Transparent to client system
  - Is this a good idea? What if you are in the middle of reading a file and server crashes?
  - Options (NFS Provides both):
    - » Hang until server comes back up (next week?)
    - » Return an error. (Of course, most applications don't know they are talking over network)

NFS Cache consistency

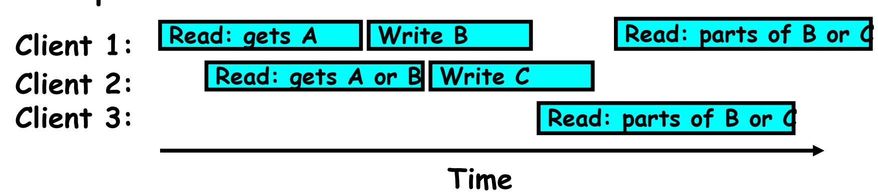
- NFS protocol: weak consistency
  - Client polls server periodically to check for changes
    - » Polls server if data hasn't been checked in last 3-30 seconds (exact timeout it tunable parameter).
    - » Thus, when file is changed on one client, server is notified, but other clients use old version of file until timeout.



  - What if multiple clients write to same file?
    - » In NFS, can get either version (or parts of both)
    - » Completely arbitrary!

Sequential Ordering Constraints

- What sort of cache coherence might we expect?
  - i.e. what if one CPU changes file, and before it's done, another CPU reads file?
- Example: Start with file contents = "A"



- What would we actually want?
  - Assume we want distributed system to behave exactly the same as if all processes are running on single system
    - » If read finishes before write starts, get old copy
    - » If read starts after write finishes, get new copy
    - » Otherwise, get either new or old copy
  - For NFS:
    - » If read starts more than 30 seconds after write, get new copy; otherwise, could get partial update

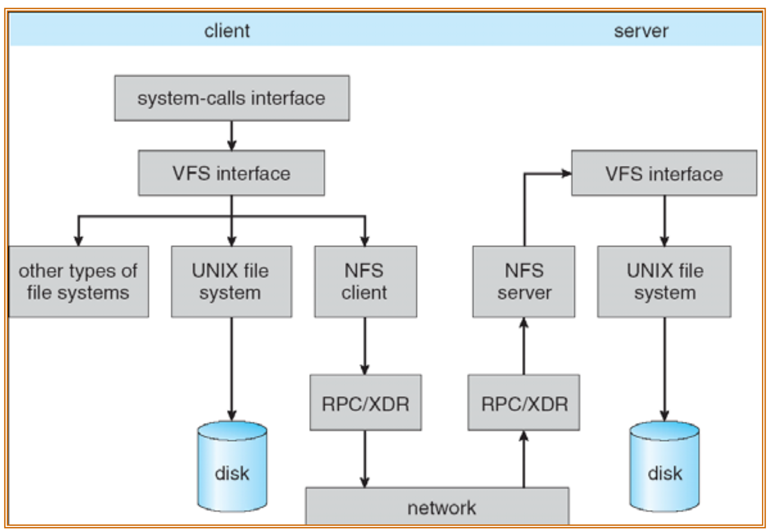
Andrew File System

- Andrew File System (AFS, late 80's) → DCE DFS (commercial product)
- Callbacks: Server records who has copy of file
  - On changes, server immediately tells all with old copy
  - No polling bandwidth (continuous checking) needed
- Write through on close
  - Changes not propagated to server until close()
  - Session semantics: updates visible to other clients only after the file is closed
    - » As a result, do not get partial writes: all or nothing!
    - » Although, for processes on local machine, updates visible immediately to other programs who have file open
- In AFS, everyone who has file open sees old version
  - Don't get newer versions until reopen file

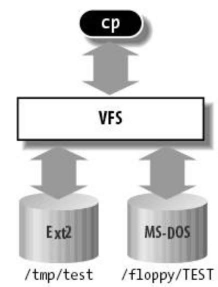
Andrew File System (con't)

- Data cached on local disk of client as well as memory
  - On open with a cache miss (file not on local disk):
    - » Get file from server, set up callback with server
  - On write followed by close:
    - » Send copy to server; tells all clients with copies to fetch new version from server on next open (using callbacks)
- What if server crashes? Lose all callback state!
  - Reconstruct callback information from client: go ask everyone "who has which files cached?"
- AFS Pro: Relative to NFS, less server load:
  - Disk as cache ⇒ more files can be cached locally
  - Callbacks ⇒ server not involved if file is read-only
- For both AFS and NFS: central server is bottleneck!
  - Performance: all writes→server, cache misses→server
  - Availability: Server is single point of failure
  - Cost: server machine's high cost relative to workstation

Implementation of NFS



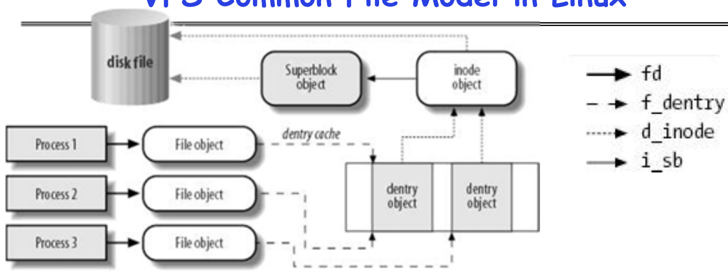
Enabling Factor: Virtual Filesystem (VFS)




```
inf = open("/floppy/TEST", O_RDONLY, 0);
outf = open("/tmp/test",
        O_WRONLY|O_CREAT|O_TRUNC, 0600);
do {
    i = read(inf, buf, 4096);
    write(outf, buf, i);
} while (i);
close(outf);
close(inf);
```

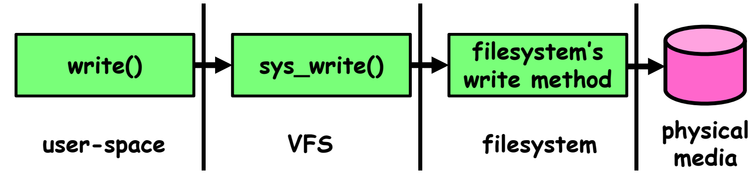
- VFS: Virtual abstraction similar to local file system
  - Provides virtual superblocks, inodes, files, etc
  - Compatible with a variety of local and remote file systems
    - » provides object-oriented way of implementing file systems
- VFS allows the same system call interface (the API) to be used for different types of file systems
  - The API is to the VFS interface, rather than any specific type of file system
- In linux, "VFS" stands for "Virtual Filesystem Switch"

VFS Common File Model in Linux



- Four primary object types for VFS:
  - superblock object: represents a specific mounted filesystem
  - inode object: represents a specific file
  - dentry object: represents a directory entry
  - file object: represents open file associated with process
- There is no specific directory object (VFS treats directories as files)
- May need to fit the model by faking it
  - Example: make it look like directories are files
  - Example: make it look like have inodes, superblocks, etc.

Linux VFS



- An operations object is contained within each primary object type to set operations of specific filesystems
  - "super_operations": methods that kernel can invoke on a specific filesystem, i.e. `write_inode()` and `sync_fs()`.
  - "inode_operations": methods that kernel can invoke on a specific file, such as `create()` and `link()`
  - "dentry_operations": methods that kernel can invoke on a specific directory entry, such as `d_compare()` or `d_delete()`
  - "file_operations": methods that process can invoke on an open file, such as `read()` and `write()`
- There are a lot of operations

Key Value Storage

- Handle huge volumes of data, e.g., PBs
  - Store (key, value) tuples
- Simple interface
  - put(key, value); // insert/write "value" associated with "key"
  - value = get(key); // get/read data associated with "key"
- Used sometimes as a simpler but more scalable "database"

Key Values: Examples

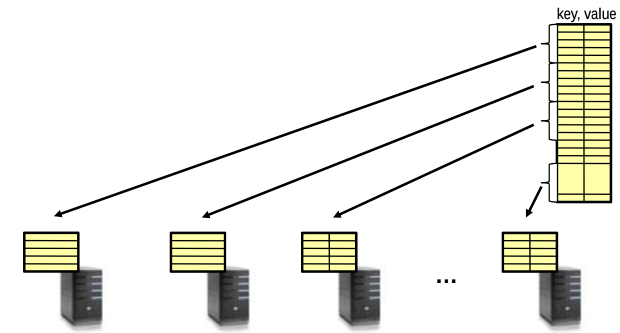
- Amazon:
  - Key: customerID
  - Value: customer profile (e.g., buying history, credit card, ..)
- Facebook, Twitter:
  - Key: UserID
  - Value: user profile (e.g., posting history, photos, friends, …)
- iCloud/iTunes:
  - Key: Movie/song name
  - Value: Movie, Song

Examples

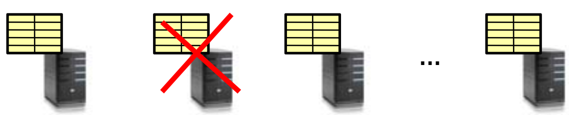
- Amazon
  - DynamoDB: internal key value store used to power Amazon.com (shopping cart)
  - Simple Storage System (S3)
- BigTable/HBase/Hypertable: distributed, scalable data storage
- Cassandra: "distributed data management system" (developed by Facebook)
- Memcached: in-memory key-value store for small chunks of arbitrary data (strings, objects)
- eDonkey/eMule: peer-to-peer sharing system
- …

Key Value Store

- Also called Distributed Hash Tables (DHT)
- Main idea: partition set of key-values across many machines



Challenges



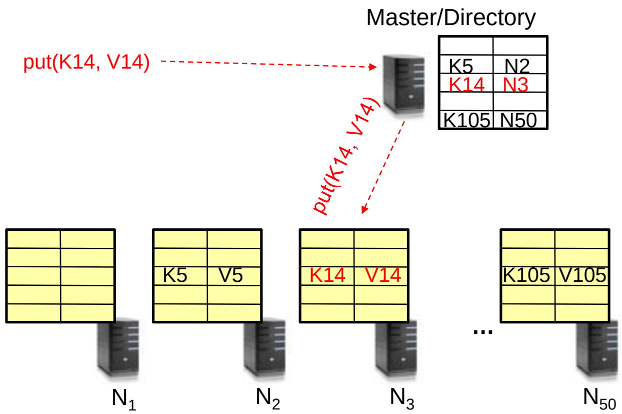
- Fault Tolerance: handle machine failures without losing data and without degradation in performance
- Scalability:
  - Need to scale to thousands of machines
  - Need to allow easy addition of new machines
- Consistency: maintain data consistency in face of node failures and message losses
- Heterogeneity (if deployed as peer-to-peer systems):
  - Latency: 1ms to 1000ms
  - Bandwidth: 32Kb/s to 100Mb/s

Key Questions

- put(key, value): where do you store a new (key, value) tuple?
- get(key): where is the value associated with a given "key" stored?
- And, do the above while providing
  - Fault Tolerance
  - Scalability
  - Consistency

Directory-Based Architecture

- Have a node maintain the mapping between keys and the machines (nodes) that store the values associated with the keys



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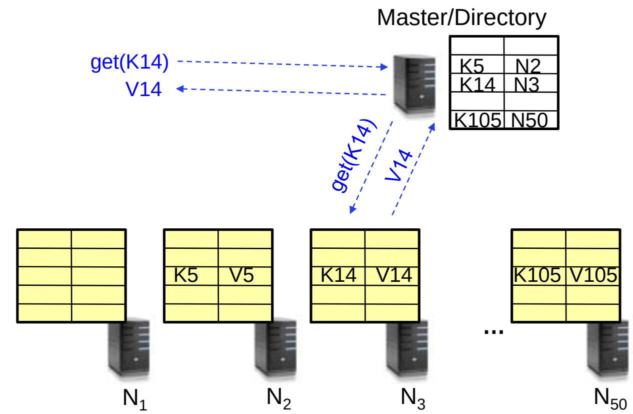
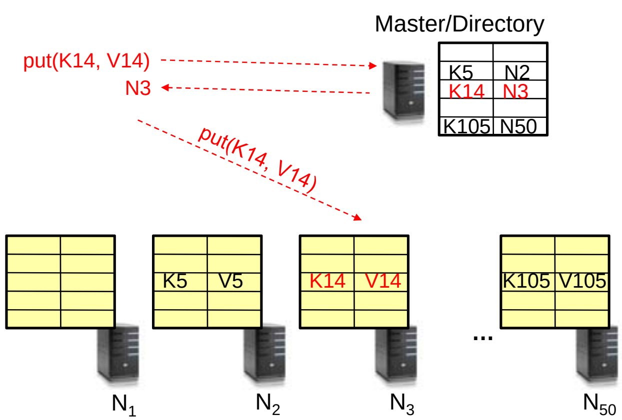


Directory-Based Architecture

- Having the master relay the requests → recursive query
- Another method: iterative query (this slide)
  - Return node to requester and let requester contact node



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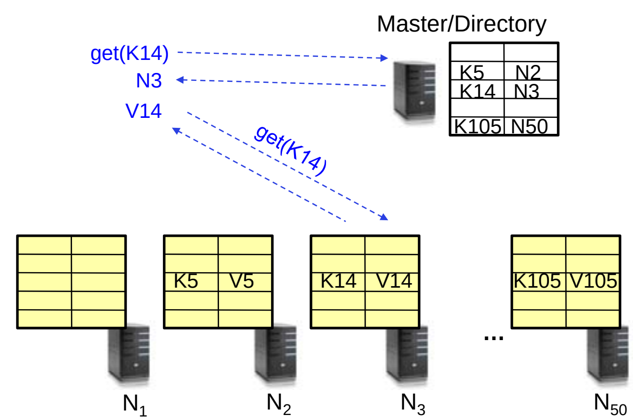
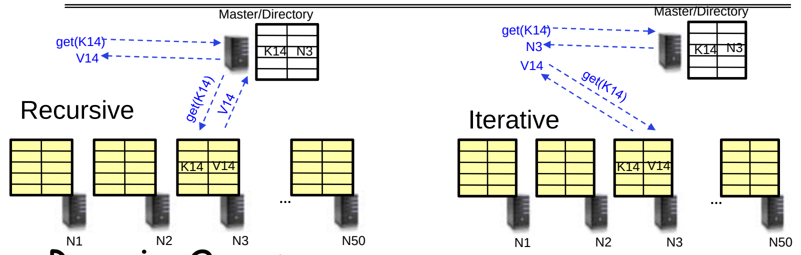


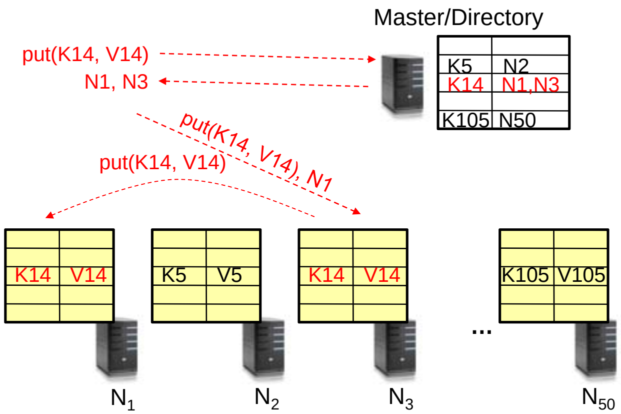
Discussion: Iterative vs. Recursive Query



- **Recursive Query:**
  - Advantages:
    - » Faster, as typically master/directory closer to nodes
    - » Easier to maintain consistency, as master/directory can serialize puts()/gets()
  - Disadvantages: scalability bottleneck, as all "Values" go through master/directory
- **Iterative Query**
  - Advantages: more scalable
  - Disadvantages: slower, harder to enforce data consistency

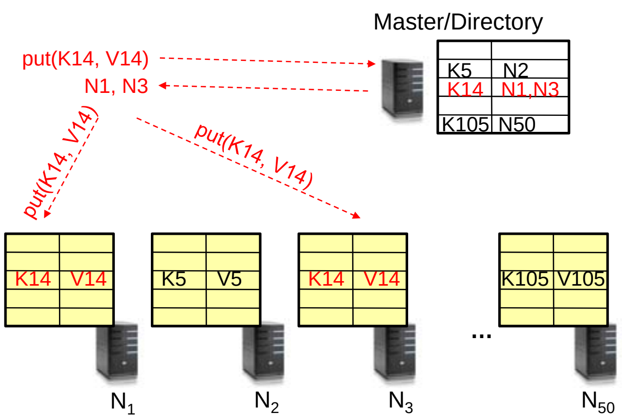
Fault Tolerance

- Replicate value on several nodes
- Usually, place replicas on different racks in a datacenter to guard against rack failures



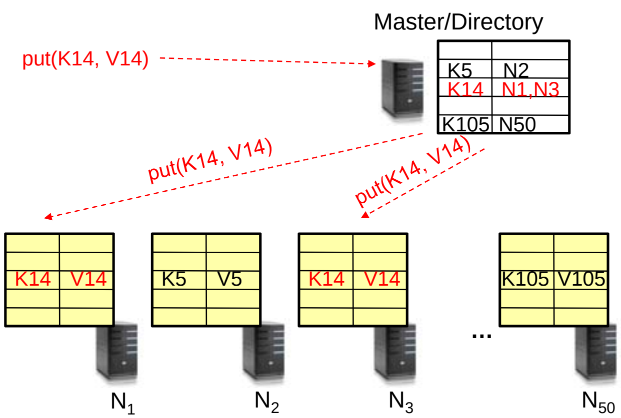
Fault Tolerance

- Again, we can have
  - Recursive replication (previous slide)
  - Iterative replication (this slide)



Fault Tolerance

- Or we can use recursive query and iterative replication…



Scalability

- Storage: use more nodes
- Number of requests:
  - Can serve requests from all nodes on which a value is stored in parallel
  - Master can replicate a popular value on more nodes
- Master/directory scalability:
  - Replicate it
  - Partition it, so different keys are served by different masters/directories
    - » How do you partition?

Scalability: Load Balancing

- Directory keeps track of the storage availability at each node
  - Preferentially insert new values on nodes with more storage available
- What happens when a new node is added?
  - Cannot insert only new values on new node. Why?
  - Move values from the heavy loaded nodes to the new node
- What happens when a node fails?
  - Need to replicate values from fail node to other nodes

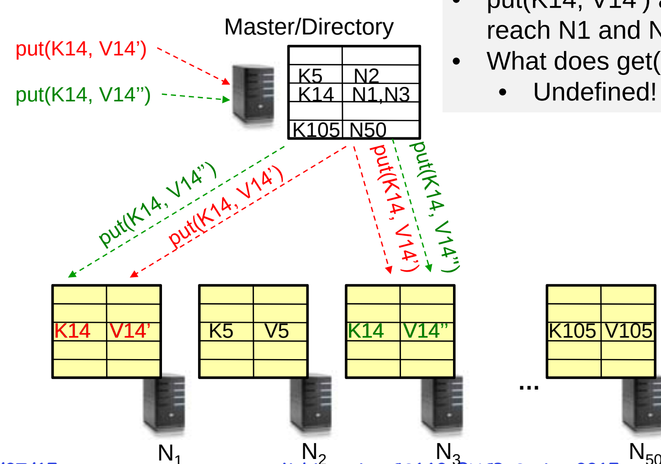
Consistency

- Need to make sure that a value is replicated correctly
- How do you know a value has been replicated on every node?
  - Wait for acknowledgements from every node
- What happens if a node fails during replication?
  - Pick another node and try again
- What happens if a node is slow?
  - Slow down the entire put()? Pick another node?
- In general, with multiple replicas
  - Slow puts and fast gets

Consistency (cont'd)

- If concurrent updates (i.e., puts to same key) may need to make sure that updates happen in the same order

- put(K14, V14') and put(K14, V14'') reach N1 and N3 in reverse order
- What does get(K14) return?
  - Undefined!



Consistency (cont'd)

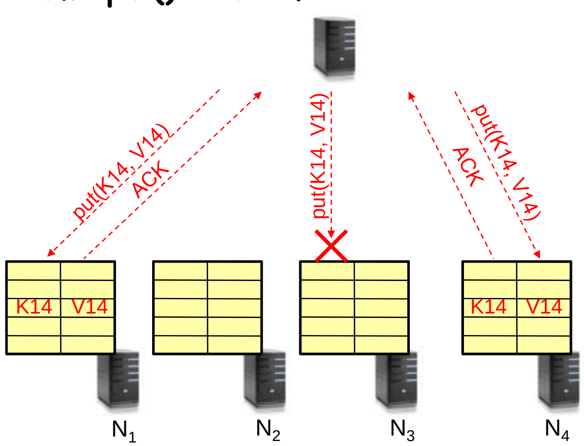
- Large variety of consistency models:
  - Atomic consistency (linearizability): reads/writes (gets/puts) to replicas appear as if there was a single underlying replica (single system image)
    - » Think "one updated at a time"
    - » Transactions
  - Eventual consistency: given enough time all updates will propagate through the system
    - » One of the weakest form of consistency; used by many systems in practice
  - And many others: causal consistency, sequential consistency, strong consistency, …

Quorum Consensus

- Improve put() and get() operation performance
- Define a replica set of size N
  - put() waits for acknowledgements from at least W replicas
  - get() waits for responses from at least R replicas
  - W+R > N
- Why does it work?
  - There is at least one node that contains the update
- Why might you use W+R > N+1?

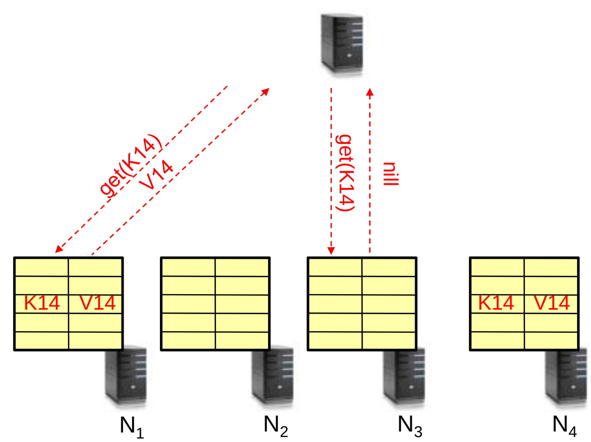
Quorum Consensus Example

- N=3, W=2, R=2
- Replica set for K14: {N1, N2, N4}
- Assume put() on N3 fails



Quorum Consensus Example

- Now, issuing get() to any two nodes out of three will return the answer

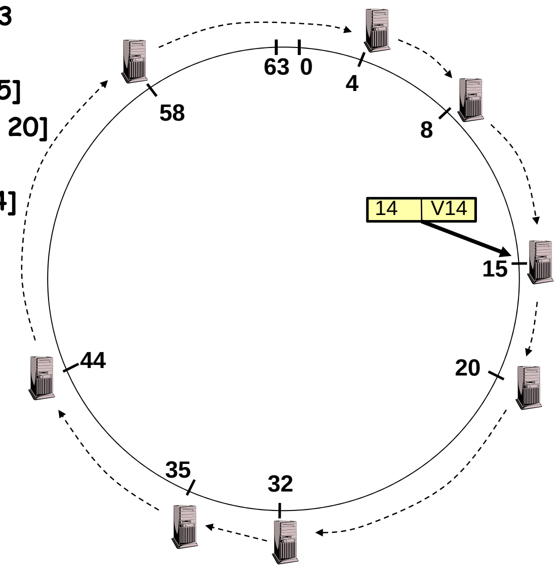


Scaling Up Directory

- Challenge:
  - Directory contains a number of entries equal to number of (key, value) tuples in the system
  - Can be tens or hundreds of billions of entries in the system!
- Solution: consistent hashing
- Associate to each node a unique *id* in an *uni-dimensional* space $0..2^m-1$
  - Partition this space across *m* machines
  - Assume keys are in same uni-dimensional space
  - Each (Key, Value) is stored at the node with the smallest ID larger than Key

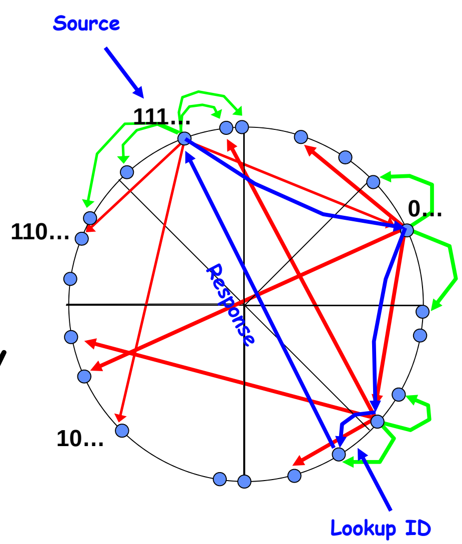
Key to Node Mapping Example

- m = 6 → ID space: 0..63
- Node 8 maps keys [5,8]
- Node 15 maps keys [9,15]
- Node 20 maps keys [16, 20]
- …
- Node 4 maps keys [59, 4]



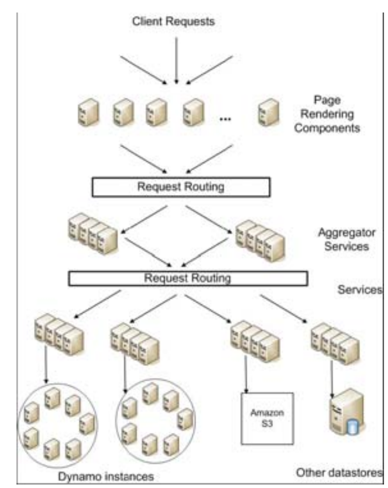
Lookup in Chord-like system (with Leaf Set)

- Assign IDs to nodes
  - Map hash values to node with closest ID
- Leaf set is successors and predecessors
  - All that's needed for correctness
- Routing table matches successively longer prefixes
  - Allows efficient lookups
- Data Replication:
  - On leaf set



DynamoDB Example: Service Level Agreements (SLA)

- Application can deliver its functionality in a bounded time:
  - Every dependency in the platform needs to deliver its functionality with even tighter bounds.
- Example: service guaranteeing that it will provide a response within 300ms for 99.9% of its requests for a peak client load of 500 requests per second
- Contrast to services which focus on mean response time



Service-oriented architecture of Amazon's platform

What is Computer Security Today?

- Computing in the presence of an adversary!
  - Adversary is the security field's defining characteristic
- Reliability, robustness, and fault tolerance
  - Dealing with Mother Nature (random failures)
- Security
  - Dealing with actions of a knowledgeable attacker dedicated to causing harm
  - Surviving malice, and not just mischance
- Wherever there is an adversary, there is a computer security problem!

Protection vs. Security

- Protection: mechanisms for controlling access of programs, processes, or users to resources
  - Page table mechanism
  - Round-robin schedule
  - Data encryption
- Security: use of protection mech. to prevent misuse of resources
  - Misuse defined with respect to policy
    - » E.g.: prevent exposure of certain sensitive information
    - » E.g.: prevent unauthorized modification/deletion of data
  - Need to consider external environment the system operates in
    - » Most well-constructed system cannot protect information if user accidentally reveals password – social engineering challenge

Security Requirements

- Authentication
  - Ensures that a user is who is claiming to be
- Data integrity
  - Ensure that data is not changed from source to destination or after being written on a storage device
- Confidentiality
  - Ensures that data is read only by authorized users
- Non-repudiation
  - Sender/client can't later claim didn't send/write data
  - Receiver/server can't claim didn't receive/write data

Authentication: Identifying Users

- How to identify users to the system?
  - Passwords
    - » Shared secret between two parties
    - » Since only user knows password, someone types correct password ⇒ must be user typing it
    - » Very common technique
  - Smart Cards
    - » Electronics embedded in card capable of providing long passwords or satisfying challenge → response queries
    - » May have display to allow reading of password
    - » Or can be plugged in directly; several credit cards now in this category

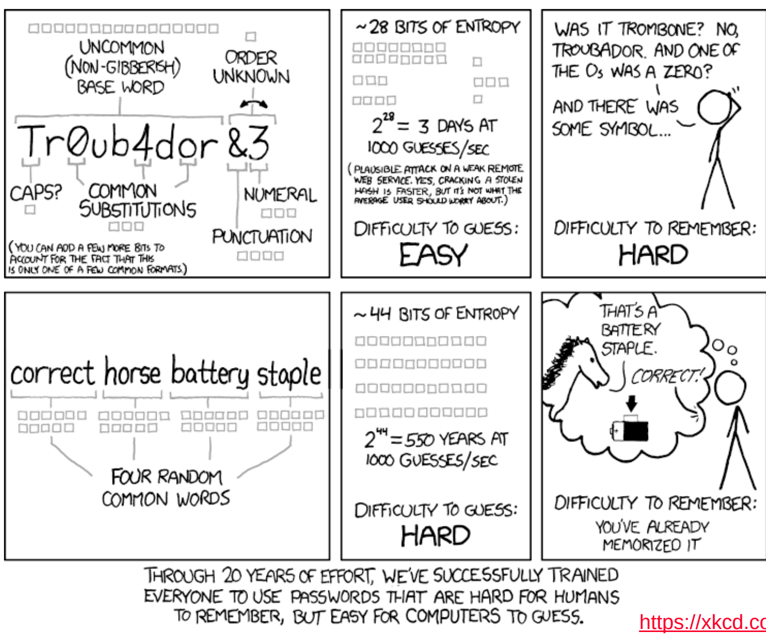
  - Biometrics
    - » Use of one or more intrinsic physical or behavioral traits to identify someone
    - » Examples: fingerprint reader, palm reader, retinal scan
    - » Becoming quite a bit more common

Passwords: Secrecy

- System must keep copy of secret to check against passwords
  - What if malicious user gains access to list of passwords?
    - » Need to obscure information somehow
  - Mechanism: utilize a transformation that is difficult to reverse without the right key (e.g. encryption)
- Example: UNIX /etc/passwd file
  - passwd→one way transform(hash)→encrypted passwd
  - System stores only encrypted version, so OK even if someone reads the file!
  - When you type in your password, system compares encrypted version
- Problem: Can you trust encryption algorithm?
  - Example: one algorithm thought safe had back door
    - » Governments want back door so they can snoop
  - Also, security through obscurity doesn't work
    - » GSM encryption algorithm was secret; accidentally released; Berkeley grad students cracked in a few hours

Passwords: How easy to guess?

- Ways of Compromising Passwords
  - Password Guessing:
    - » Often people use obvious information like birthday, favorite color, girlfriend's name, etc…
  - Dictionary Attack:
    - » Work way through dictionary and compare encrypted version of dictionary words with entries in /etc/passwd
  - Dumpster Diving:
    - » Find pieces of paper with passwords written on them
    - » (Also used to get social-security numbers, etc)
- Paradox:
  - Short passwords are easy to crack
  - Long ones, people write down!
- Technology means we have to use longer passwords
  - UNIX initially required lowercase, 5-letter passwords: total of 26^5=10million passwords
    - » In 1975, 10ms to check a password→1 day to crack
    - » In 2005, .01μs to check a password→0.1 seconds to crack
    - » Even faster today (use multiple processors)
  - Takes less time to check for all words in the dictionary!



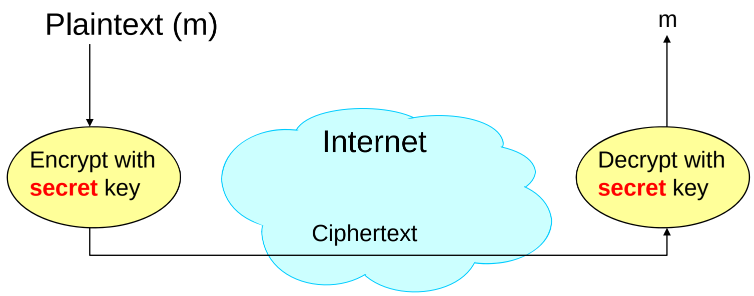
https://xkcd.com/936/

Securing Communication: Cryptography

- Cryptography: communication in the presence of adversaries
- Studied for thousands of years
  - See the Simon Singh's The Code Book for an excellent, highly readable history
- Central goal: confidentiality
  - How to encode information so that an adversary can't extract it, but a friend can
- General premise: there is a key, possession of which allows decoding, but without which decoding is infeasible
  - Thus, key must be kept secret and not guessable

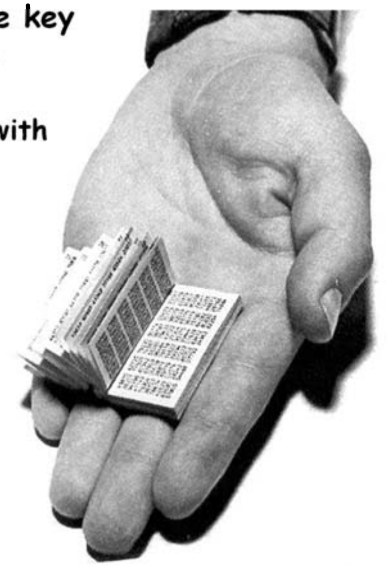
Using Symmetric Keys

- Same key for encryption and decryption
- Achieves confidentiality
- Vulnerable to tampering and replay attacks



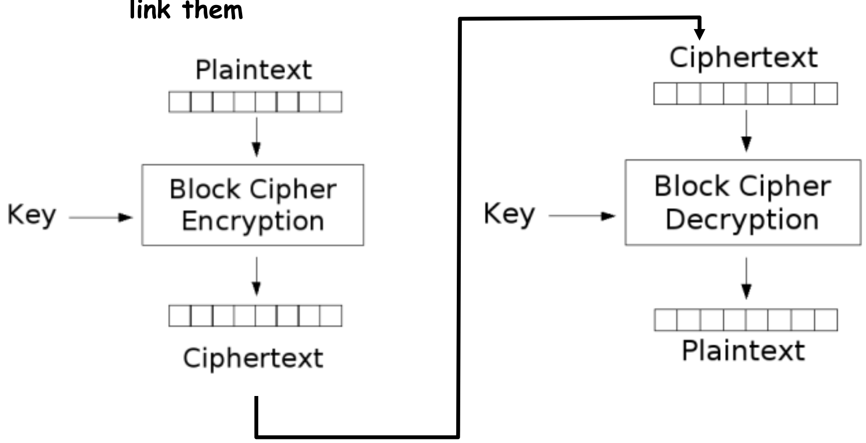
Symmetric Keys

- Can just XOR plaintext with the key
  - Easy to implement, but easy to break using frequency analysis
  - Unbreakable alternative: XOR with one-time pad
    - » Use a different key for each message



Symmetric Keys

- More sophisticated (e.g., block cipher) algorithms
  - Works with a block size (e.g., 64 bits)
    - » To encrypt a stream, can encrypt blocks separately, or link them

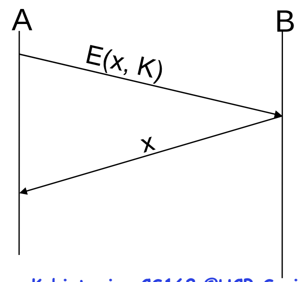


Symmetric Key Ciphers - DES & AES

- Data Encryption Standard (DES)
  - Developed by IBM in 1970s, standardized by NBS/NIST
  - 56-bit key (decreased from 64 bits at NSA's request)
  - Still fairly strong other than brute-forcing the key space
    - » But custom hardware can crack a key in < 24 hours
  - Today many financial institutions use Triple DES
    - » DES applied 3 times, with 3 keys totaling 168 bits
- Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)
  - Replacement for DES standardized in 2002
  - Key size: 128, 192 or 256 bits
- How fundamentally strong are they?
  - No one knows (no proofs exist)

Authentication via Secret Key

- Main idea: entity proves identity by decrypting a secret encrypted with its own key
  - K – secret key shared only by A and B
- A can asks B to authenticate itself by decrypting a nonce, i.e., random value, x
  - Avoid replay attacks (attacker impersonating client or server)
- Vulnerable to man-in-the middle attack

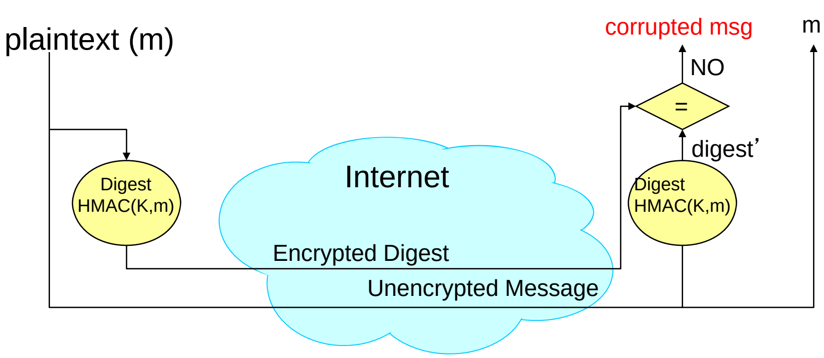


Notation: E(m,k) – encrypt message m with key k

Integrity: Cryptographic Hashes

- Basic building block for integrity: cryptographic hashing
  - Associate hash with byte-stream, receiver verifies match
    - » Assures data hasn't been modified, either accidentally – or maliciously
- Approach:
  - Sender computes a secure digest of message m using H(x)
    - » H(x) is a publicly known hash function
    - » Digest d = HMAC (K, m) = H (K | H (K | m))
    - » HMAC(K, m) is a hash-based message authentication function
  - Send digest d and message m to receiver
  - Upon receiving m and d, receiver uses shared secret key, K, to recompute HMAC(K, m) and see whether result agrees with d

Using Hashing for Integrity



Can encrypt m for confidentiality

Standard Cryptographic Hash Functions

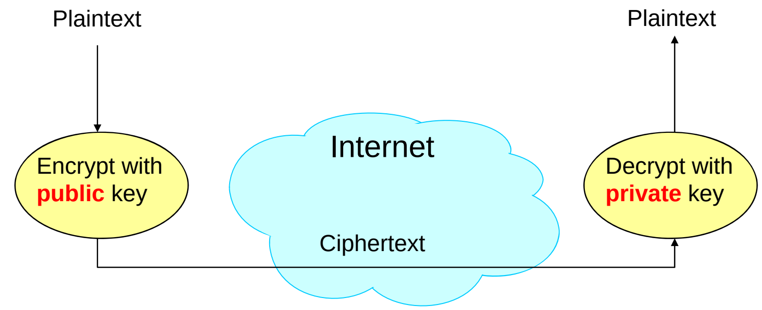
- MD5 (Message Digest version 5)
  - Developed in 1991 (Rivest), produces 128 bit hashes
  - Widely used (RFC 1321)
  - Broken (1996-2008): attacks that find collisions
- SHA-1 (Secure Hash Algorithm)
  - Developed in 1995 (NSA) as MD5 successor with 160 bit hashes
  - Widely used (SSL/TLS, SSH, PGP, IPSEC)
  - Broken in 2005, government use discontinued in 2010
- SHA-2 (2001)
  - Family of SHA-224, SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512 functions
- HMAC's are secure even with older "insecure" hash functions
  -

Asymmetric Encryption (Public Key)

- Idea: use two different keys, one to encrypt (e) and one to decrypt (d)
  - A key pair
- Crucial property: knowing e does not give away d
- Therefore e can be public: everyone knows it!
- If Alice wants to send to Bob, she fetches Bob's public key (say from Bob's home page) and encrypts with it
  - Alice can't decrypt what she's sending to Bob …
  - … but then, neither can anyone else (except Bob)

Public Key / Asymmetric Encryption

- Sender uses receiver's public key
  - Advertised to everyone
- Receiver uses complementary private key
  - Must be kept secret



Public Key Cryptography

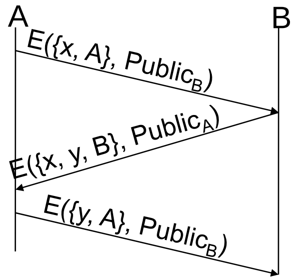
- Invented in the 1970s
  - Revolutionized cryptography
  - (Was actually invented earlier by British intelligence)
- How can we construct an encryption/decryption algorithm using a key pair with the public/private properties?
  - Answer: Number Theory
- Most fully developed approach: RSA
  - Rivest / Shamir / Adleman, 1977; RFC 3447
  - Based on modular multiplication of very large integers
  - Very widely used (e.g., ssh, SSL/TLS for https)

Properties of RSA

- Requires generating large, random prime numbers
  - Algorithms exist for quickly finding these (probabilistic!)
- Requires exponentiating very large numbers
  - Again, fairly fast algorithms exist
- Overall, much slower than symmetric key crypto
  - One general strategy: use public key crypto to exchange a (short) symmetric session key
    - » Use that key then with AES or such
- How difficult is recovering d, the private key?
  - Equivalent to finding prime factors of a large number
    - » Many have tried - believed to be very hard (= brute force only)
    - » (Though quantum computers can do so in polynomial time!)

Simple Public Key Authentication

- Each side need only to know the other side's public key
  - No secret key need be shared
- A encrypts a nonce (random num.) x
  - Avoid replay attacks, e.g., attacker impersonating client or server
- B proves it can recover x
- A can authenticate itself to B in the same way
- *Many more details to make this work securely in practice!*



Notation: E(m,k) – encrypt message m with key k

Summary (1/2)

- Distributed File System:
  - Transparent access to files stored on a remote disk
  - Caching for performance
- Cache Consistency: Keeping client caches consistent with one another
  - If multiple clients, some reading and some writing, how do stale cached copies get updated?
  - NFS: check periodically for changes
  - AFS: clients register callbacks to be notified by server of changes
- Remote Procedure Call (RPC): Call procedure on remote machine
  - Provides same interface as procedure
  - Automatic packing and unpacking of arguments (in stub)
- VFS: Virtual File System layer
  - Provides mechanism which gives same system call interface for different types of file systems

Summary

- Key-Value Store:
  - Two operations
    - » put(key, value)
    - » value = get(key)
  - Challenges
    - » Fault Tolerance → replication
    - » Scalability → serve get()'s in parallel; replicate/cache hot tuples
    - » Consistency → quorum consensus to improve put() performance
- Distributed identity: Use cryptography
- Symmetrical (or Private Key) Encryption
  - Single Key used to encode and decode
  - Introduces key-distribution problem
- Public-Key Encryption
  - Two keys: a public key and a private key
  - Slower than private key, but simplifies key-distribution
- Secure Hash Function
  - Used to summarize data
  - Hard to find another block of data with same hash