

CS-3002: Information Security

Lecture # 9: Authentication and Access Control

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Overview

- Authentication
- Passwords
- Secure ID
- Google 2-step Authentication
- Access Control



Authentication



- Authentication = binding of an identity to a subject
- Confirmation of identity by ...
 - Knowledge factors = what the entity knows
 - Ownership factors = what the entity has
 - Human factors = what the entity is
 - Location factors = where the entity is



Example

- Login to a computer
 - Authentication by *knowledge* (*password*)
- Online debit cards
 - Authentication by ownership (card) and knowledge (PIN)
- Offline debit cards
 - Authentication by ownership (card) and human factor (signature)









Multi-Factor Authentication

- Authentication using multiple factors
 - Example: Scene from the movie "Mission Impossible"

Ethan Hunt needs to

- 1. use a stolen chip card (ownership factor)
- 2. forge a fingerprint (human factor)
- 3. enter the terminal room (location factor)
- 4. enter a password (knowledge factor)





Passwords

- **Password** = information confirming the identity of an entity
 - Knowledge of a secret word, phrase or number



- Often combination with (a)symmetric cryptography
 - e.g. password is mapped to key of symmetric cipher
 - e.g. password protects private key of public-key algorithm
- Passwords are just great. Wait, it's not that easy



Problems with Passwords

Password snooping

- Eavesdropping of passwords in network traffic
- Retrieval of passwords from hosts (e.g. via malware)

• Password guessing (online) or cracking (offline)

- Dictionary attacks = guessing using dictionary of words
- Brute-force attacks = guessing using all possible strings

Human deficiencies

Weak and often re-used passwords





Passwords Storage

- Passwords should never be stored in clear
 - Application of cryptographic one-way functions
 - Only encoded (hashed) passwords are stored
 - Sony data breach revealed clear text password.
 - Why twitter auto-reset the passwords recently?
- Example: \$stored_pw = hash(\$password);
 - Simple to validate: hash(\$input) == \$stored_pw?
 - Hard to deduce password from strong hash functions
- Efficient cracking of stored passwords still possible
 - Brute-force or dictionary attack using hashed strings



Salted Passwords

- Encoding of password with random string (salt)
 - Example: \$stored_pw = hash(\$password+\$salt);
 - Salt value stored along with hashed password



- Cracking of stored passwords more expensive
 - Same password maps to different hash values
 - Without salt: cracking depends on # words
 - With salt: cracking depends on (# words × # salts)
- Security depends on quality of password, hash and salt



Example: Unix Password

- User credentials stored in two separate databases
 - /etc/passwd Basic user information (publicly readable)



/etc/shadow Salt and hashed passwords (protected)

```
gdm:*:14728:0:99999:7:::
rieck::$6$wSamfPBQ$51Bo1yhdrwZ6735PDG...:15010:0:99999:7:::

Name Method Salt SHA-512 hash of password
```



Good Password?

- Testing for insecure passwords is *very easy*
 - A normal core i3 laptop can test 21 million MD5 hashs per hour
- Passwords should be very hard to guess
 - No dictionary words, names, dates and patterns
 - Simple transformations (e.g. reversing) not sufficient
 - Minimum length and diversity of passwords
- Study by Klein from 1989
 - 21% of 13,797 passwords cracked within one week



Selection of Passwords

- What about these? Hmh40hcr. and DB:L,I4yF!
- Trick: first letters of memorable phrase
 - "He made him an offer he can't refuse." = **Hmh40hcr.**
 - "Darth Vader: Luke, I am your father!" = **DB:L,I4yF!**
- Trick: interweave words of memorable phrase
 - "My kingdom for a horse!" = **KiHor;NgSe**
- Avoidance of too common phrases
 - 2bon2b found in 4 out of 30 million passwords



One-time Passwords

- Security of passwords "weakens" over time
 - Password aging = enforced changing of passwords
 - One-time passwords = passwords used exactly once
- Example: S/Key Algorithm
 - User chooses initial key K1
 - Recursive hashing: H(K1) = K2, H(K2) = K3,... H(Kn-1) = Kn
 - One-time passwords: P1 = Kn, P2 = Kn-1, ... Pn = K1
 - Hard to deduce next password Pi from previous Pi-1



Example: RSA SecureID

- Security system using two-factor authentication
 - Factors: knowledge (password) and ownership (device)
 - Device generates authentication code every 60 seconds
 - Authentication using password and current code

Code Generation

- Device initialized for each user with seed (random number)
- Code computed from seed and current time (~one-time password)





Example: Google 2-Step Verification

- Security system by Google similar to SecureID
 - Factors: knowledge (password) and ownership (phone)
 - Authentication code computed on mobile phone
 - Login at Google requires password and current code

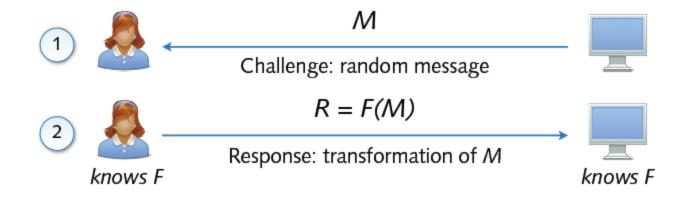


https://blog.duosecurity.com/2013/02/bypassing-googles-two-factor-authentication/



Challenge-Reponse

- Generic protocol scheme for authentication
 - System and user share a secret function F



- Advantages over naive authentication methods
 - Secret, e.g. password, is never transmitted in cleartext
 - Replay attacks against authentication not possible



Challenge-Response (con't)

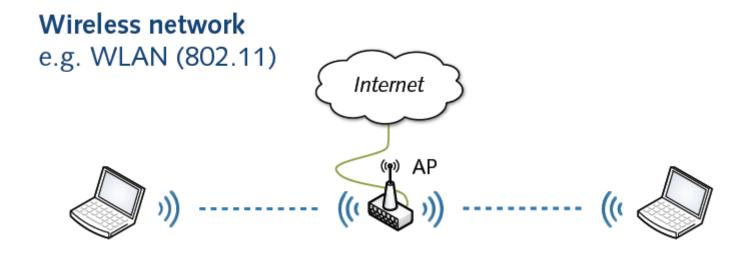
- Secret function often parameterized by password
 - F = H(M + P) hash function H and password P
 - $F = E_P(M)$ encryption function E and password P
 - Hard to deduce P if F is cryptographically strong
- Several methods related to challenge-response scheme
 - One-time passwords
 - = challenge (index of password); response (password)
 - SecurID / Google 2-step
 - = challenge (current time); response (authentication code)



Example: WPA2 (A Short Excursion)



Wireless Networks



- Inherent security problems with wireless networks
 - Communication over shared medium (air)
 - No physical access control and protection
 - Need for additional security measures (WEP, WPA, ...)



- Common attacks types
- Masquerading and spoofing
- Eavesdropping of communication
- Tampering of messages

Countermeasures

- 4 Authentication
- **4** Encryption
- 4 Integrity checks





Attacker

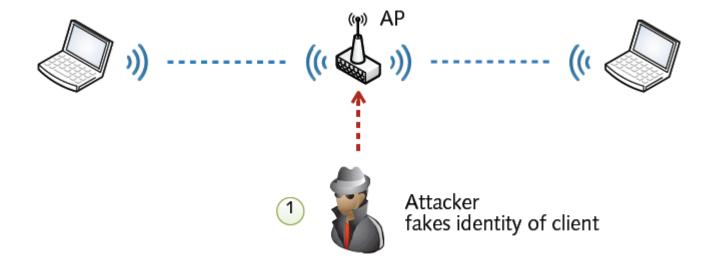


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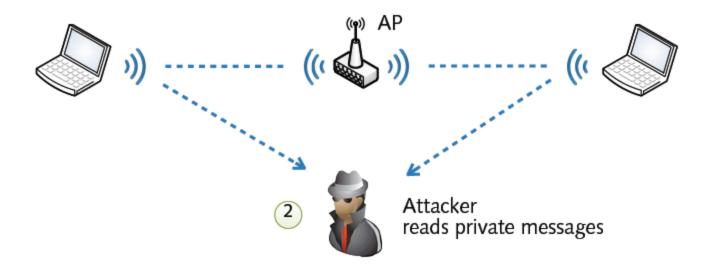


Common attacks types

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Countermeasures

- 4 Authentication
- 2 Encryption
- 4 Integrity checks



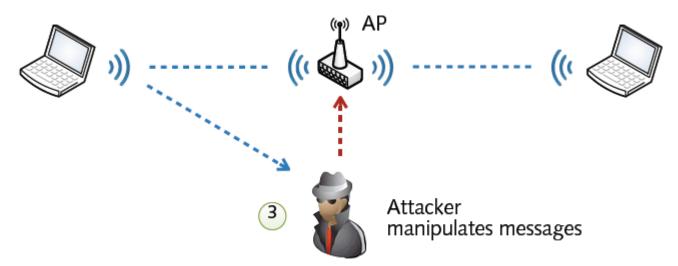


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Countermeasures

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- **4** Encryption
- 4 Integrity checks





802.11 and Security

	Authentication	Encryption	Integrity check
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1997 WEP (Wired Equivalent Privacy) 802.11a

Shared keys	RC4	CRC-32
medium	weak	weak

2003 WPA (Wi-Fi Protected Access) subset of 802.11i

Shared keys / 802.1x	TKIP	Michael
strong	medium	medium

2004 WPA2 (Wi-Fi Protected Access 2) 802.11i

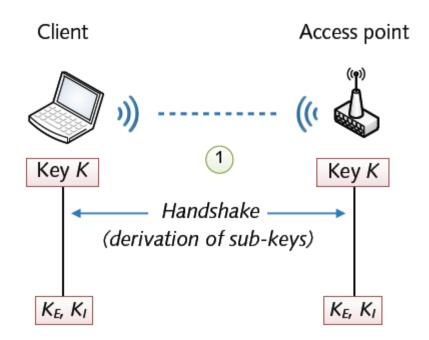
Shared keys / 802.1x	AES-CCMP	AES-CCMP	
strong	strong	strong	

TKIP = Temporal Key Integrity Protocol
AES-CCMP = Counter Cipher Mode with Block Chaining Message Authentication Code Protocol



WPA2 Authentication

- Two different modes for authentication in WPA2
- 1. Personal: Pre-shared keys (PSK) (aka "passwords")
- 2. Enterprise: 802.1x with Extensible Authentication Protocol





WPA2 Authentication

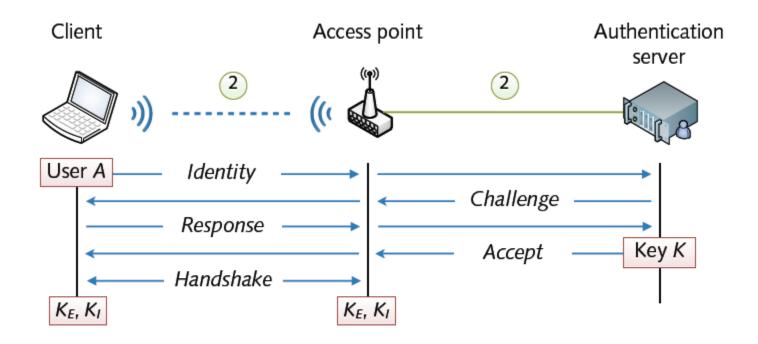
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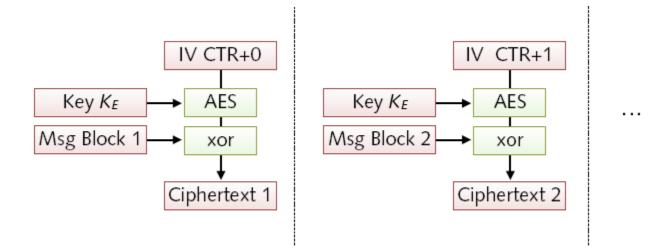


WPA2 Encryption

Partitioning of each message in blocks



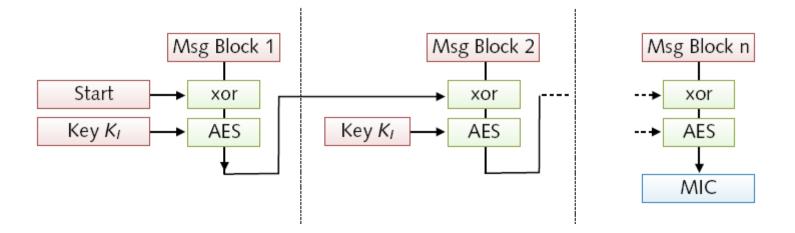
- Encryption of each message block in counter mode
 - Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) using key KE





WPA2 Integrity Check

- Chaining of cipher blocks to a keyed hash value
 - Message Integrity Code (MIC) using key K_I



MIC appended to message prior to encryption

Headers Msg Block 1 Msg Block 2 ... Msg Block n MIC



How secure is WPA2?

Attacks against WPA2

- (Almost) no attacks against cryptographic protocol
- Best attack strategy so far: brute-force attacks
- Target for potential attacks: Complexity of protocol

WPA2 security in practice

- Strength of passphrase in personal mode
- Strength of authentication protocol in enterprise mode



Access Control



Access Control



Authorization and access control

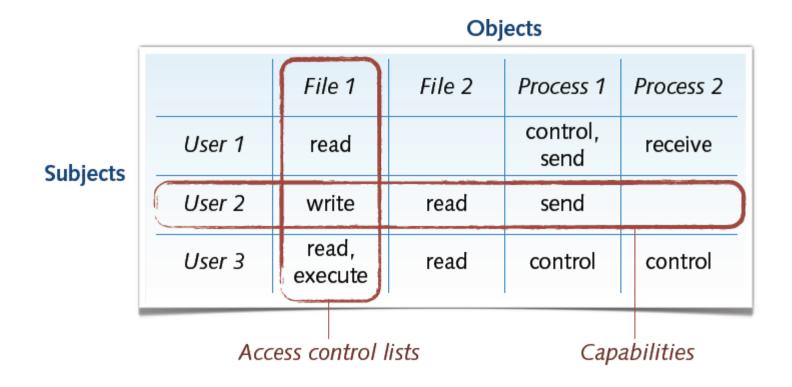
- Control of what a subject is allowed to do
- Management of permissions and capabilities
- Often tight coupling with authentication

Examples

• Execution of programs, reading of files, ...



Access Control Matrix



- Classic and simple representation for access control
 - Mapping from subjects and objects to permissions



Access Control Models

- Access control non-trivial in practice
 - Complex systems ---> complex access control models
- Some characteristics of access control models
 - Definition of objects and subjects
 E.g. subjects can be users, processes or hosts
 - Representation of permissions
 E.g. columns (access control lists), rows (capabilities)
 - Management of permissions
 E.g. discretionary, mandatory or role-based access control



Representation: Access Control Lists

- Access control lists (ACL)
- Attachment of permissions to objects (columns)
- \ominus Listing of subject permissions very involved
- Example: OpenBSD packet filter
 - Deny access to the SSH service from any host
 - \rightarrow block in quick proto tcp from any to any port ssh



Representation: Capabilities

- Capabilities
- Attachment of permissions to subjects (rows)
- ① Listing and control of subject permissions simple
- \ominus Fine-grained permissions difficult to implement
- Example: Linux capabilities
 - Restrict permissions to reboot system and load modules
 - $\rightarrow lcap z CAP_SYS_BOOT CAP_SYS_MODULE$



Management of Permissions

- Discretionary Access Control (DAC)
 - Owner of an object controls access
 - Convenient but insecure if object changes owner
- Mandatory Access Control (MAC)
 - System globally enforces access control
 - Very secure but tedious to design and operate
- Role-based Access Control (RBAC)
 - System enforces access control using roles
 - In-between DAC and MAC models



Example: UNIX Permissions

- Discretionary access control of files
 - Owner manages permissions of his files
- Fixed-size access control lists: rwx rwx rwx
 - Three subjects: user, group and other
 - Three permissions: read, write and execute

```
-rw-r---- 1 root shadow 4321 17 Aug 00:23 /etc/shadow
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5086 16 Aug 00:20 /etc/passwd
Permissions Owner Group
```

- (a) Everybody can read the passwd file; root can write to it
- (b) Only root and the group shadow can read the shadow file



Example: UNIX Permissions (con't)

- Simple notation for management of permissions
 - <*subjects*> +/-/= <*permissions*>
 - Subjects: u (user), g (group), o (others), a (all)
 - Permissions: r (read), w (write), x (execute)

Examples

- Make file readable to everyone: $chmod\ a+r\ file$
- Remove write permission from group: *chmod g-w file*
- Make file readable by user only: $chmod\ u=r\ file$
- Alternative for UNIX gurus: octal encoding



Special Permissions

- Some permissions with special semantics
 - +x makes directories searchable
 - +t sticky bit (for directories deletion is restricted)
 - +s suid bit (change user id to file owner during execution)

A UNIX backdoor from the 1990s

```
# cp /bin/sh /tmp/.backdoor
# chown root:root /tmp/.backdoor
# chmod u+s /tmp/.backdoor
```

• If it's bad, why do we need the suid bit?



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