L7: Authentication

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Overview

- **□** Basics
- **□** Passwords
 - Storage
 - Selection
 - Breaking them
- Other methods
- Multiple methods

Authentication

- Binding of identity to subject
 - An identity is an identifier of computer entity (e.g., your username)
 - A subject is a unique entity
 - Examples:
 - People, computers, services
 - Processes, threats, and any data structure instances
 - An identity is the identifier of a principal. In other words, an identity specifies a principal
 - Examples:
 - Username, hostname, service name
 - Process identifier, threat identifier, component identifier

Establishing Identity

- ☐ One or more of the following
 - What entity knows (e.g., password)
 - What entity has (e.g., badge, smart card)
 - What entity is (e.g., fingerprints, retinal characteristics)
 - Where entity is (e.g., in front of a particular terminal)

Authentication System

- Consisting of 5 components (A, C, F, L, S)
 - A: authentication information that proves identity
 - C: complementary information stored on computer and used to validate authentication information
 - F: complementation function
 - $\Box f: A \rightarrow C$
 - L: authentication functions that prove identity
 - \square *I*: $A \times C \rightarrow \{\text{true, false}\}$
 - S: selection functions enabling entity to create or alter information in A or C

Example: Cleartext password

- □ Password system, with passwords stored on line in cleartext
 - A: the set of strings making up passwords
 - C = A
 - F: the singleton set of identity function { I }
 - L: the single equality test function { eq }
 - S: the function to set/change password

Example: Encrypted password

- □ Password system, with passwords stored on line in an encrypted form
 - A: the set of strings making up passwords
 - C: the set of strings making up encrypted passwords
 - F: the set of encryption or hash functions that computes the encrypted form of a password
 - L: the set of test functions that takes a password, finds its encrypted form, and check if it is equal to a stored one
 - S: the function to set/change password

Passwords

- Sequence of characters
 - Examples: 10 digits, a string of letters, etc.
 - Generating passwords
 - 1. randomly
 - 2. by user
 - 3. by computer with user input
- Sequence of words
 - Examples: pass-phrases

Storage

- ☐ Store as cleartext
 - If password file compromised, all passwords revealed
- Store in encipher file
 - Need to have decipherment, encipherment keys in memory
 - Reduces to previous problem
- Store one-way hash of password
 - If file read, attacker must still guess passwords or invert the hash

Example: Linux/UNIX

- □ Linux/UNIX system *standard* hash function
 - Hashes password into a character string using a hash function
- As authentication system:
 - A = { strings of 8 chars or less }
 - C = { 2 char hash id | | 11 char hash }
 - $F = \{4096 \text{ versions of modified DES}\}$
 - \blacksquare L = { login, su, ... }
 - \blacksquare $S = \{ passwd, nispasswd, passwd+, ... \}$
- Latest Linux/UNIX have improvements and variations

Example: Linux/UNIX

■ Read manual pages

```
man 1 passwd
```

man 5 passwd

man 3 crypt

Anatomy of Attacking

- □ Goal
 - \blacksquare find $a \in A$ such that:
 - □ For some $f \in F$, $f(a) = c \in C$
 - **c** is associated with entity
- Two ways to determine whether *a* meets these requirements:
 - Dictionary attack type 1: direct approach, as above, compute f(a)
 - Dictionary attack type 2: Indirect approach, as I(a) succeeds iff $f(a) = c \in C$ for some c associated with an entity, compute I(a)

Exercise L7-1: Linux Shadow Passwords

- □ In Linux, read manual page man 5 shadow
- Examine two files
 - /etc/passwd
 - /etc/shadow
 - Answer the questions in the context of the description in slide 13.
 - Who can read from and write to /etc/passwd?
 - Who can read from and write to /etc/shadow?

Exercise L7-2: Linux Login Failure

- □ In Linux, log out
- When log back in, enter a wrong password intentionally
- Describe what you observe in the context of the description in slide 13.

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Dictionary Attacks

- □ Trial-and-error from a list of potential passwords
 - Off-line: know f and c's, and repeatedly try different guesses $g \in A$ until the list is done or passwords guessed
 - Examples: *crack*, *john-the-ripper*
 - On-line: have access to functions in L and try guesses g until some l(g) succeeds

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Examples: trying to log in by guessing a password

Preventing Attacks

- \Box Hide one of a, f, or c
 - Prevents obvious attack from above
 - Example: Linux/UNIX shadow password files
 - □ Hides c's
- \square Block access to all $I \in L$ or result of I(a)
 - Prevents attacker from knowing if guess succeeded
 - Example: preventing any logins to an account from a network
 - Prevents knowing results of / (or accessing /)

Preventing Attacks: Using Time

- Anderson's formula:
 - P: probability of guessing a password in specified period of time
 - G: number of guesses tested in 1 time unit
 - T: number of time units
 - \blacksquare N: number of possible passwords (|A|)
 - Then $P \ge TG/N$
- How to make attacks infeasible?
 - Goal: slow dictionary attacks
 - Number of factors to consider in the design

Example: Determine Password Length

■ Goal

- Passwords drawn from a 96-char alphabet
- Can test 10⁴ guesses per second
- Probability of a success to be 0.5 over a 365 day period
- What is minimum password length?

■ Solution

- $N \ge TG/P = (365 \times 24 \times 60 \times 60) \times 10^4/0.5 = 6.31 \times 10^{11}$
- Choose s such that $\sum_{i=0}^{s} 96^{i} \ge N \ge 6.31 \times 10^{11}$
- So $s \ge 6$, meaning passwords must be at least 6 chars long

Assumptions in Anderson's Formula

- ☐ Time required to test a password is a constant
 - This is reasonable
- All passwords are equally likely to be selected
 - However, this can be remotely different from reality

Password Selection

- Random selection
 - Any password from A equally likely to be selected
- Pronounceable passwords
- User selection of passwords

Pronounceable Passwords

- Generate phonemes randomly
 - Phoneme is unit of sound, eg. cv, vc, cvc, vcv
 - Examples: helgoret, juttelon are; przbqxdfl, zxrptglfn are not
- □ Problem: too few
- Solution: key crunching
 - Run long key through hash function and convert to printable sequence
 - Use this sequence as password

User's Selection

- □ Problem: people pick easy to guess passwords
 - Based on account names, user names, computer names, place names
 - Dictionary words (also reversed, odd capitalizations, control characters, "elite-speak", conjugations or declensions, swear words, Torah/Bible/Koran/... words)
 - Too short, digits only, letters only
 - License plates, acronyms, social security numbers
 - Personal characteristics or foibles (pet names, nicknames, job characteristics, etc.

Picking Good Passwords

- □ "LIMm*2^Ap"
 - Names of members of 2 families
- □ "OoHeO/FSK"
 - Second letter of each word of length 4 or more in third line of third verse of Star-Spangled Banner, followed by "/", followed by author's initials
- What's good here may be bad there
 - "DMC/MHmh" bad at Dartmouth ("<u>Dartmouth Medical Center/Mary Hitchcock memorial hospital</u>"), ok here
- Why are these now bad passwords? ⊗

Proactive Password Checking

- Analyze proposed password for "goodness"
 - Always invoked
 - Can detect, reject bad passwords for an appropriate definition of "bad"
 - Discriminate on per-user, per-site basis
 - Needs to do pattern matching on words
 - Needs to execute subprograms and use results
 - Spell checker, for example
 - Easy to set up and integrate into password selection system

Example: OPUS

- ☐ Goal: check passwords against large dictionaries quickly
 - Run each word of dictionary through k different hash functions h_1 , ..., h_k producing values less than n
 - Set bits $h_1, ..., h_k$ in OPUS dictionary
 - To check new proposed word, generate bit vector and see if all corresponding bits set
 - □ If so, word is in one of the dictionaries to some degree of probability
 - □ If not, it is not in the dictionaries

Example: passwd+

- Provides little language to describe proactive checking
 - test length("\$p") < 6</p>
 - □ If password under 6 characters, reject it
 - test infile("/usr/dict/words", "\$p")
 - □ If password in file /usr/dict/words, reject it
 - test !inprog("spell", "\$p", "\$p")
 - □ If password not in the output from program spell, given the password as input, reject it (because it's a properly spelled word)

Salting

- **□** Goal: slow dictionary attacks
- Method: perturb hash function so that:
 - Parameter controls which hash function is used
 - Parameter differs for each password
 - So given n password hashes, and therefore n salts, need to hash guess n

Example: Salted Passwords

- Vanilla UNIX method
 - Use DES to encipher 0 message with password as key; iterate 25 times
 - Perturb E table in DES in one of 4096 ways
 - □ 12 bit salt flips entries 1–11 with entries 25–36
- □ Alternate methods
 - Use salt as first part of input to hash function

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Exercise L7-3: Examine Linux Password Salt

- Read manual page man 5 crypt
- Examine /etc/passwd
 What are the salt used in the passwords?

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Guessing Through Authentication Function *L*

- Cannot prevent these
 - Otherwise, legitimate users cannot log in
- Make them slow
 - Backoff
 - Disconnection
 - Disabling
 - Be very careful with administrative accounts!
 - Jailing
 - Allow in, but restrict activities

Password Aging

- □ Force users to change passwords after some time has expired
 - How do you force users not to re-use passwords?
 - Record previous passwords
 - □ Block changes for a period of time
 - Give users time to think of good passwords
 - Don't force them to change before they can log in
 - Warn them of expiration days in advance

Challenge-Response

- How can we not to *reuse passwords*?
- User, system share a secret function f (in practice, f is a known function with unknown parameters, such as a cryptographic key)

```
user \longrightarrow system
user \longleftarrow random\ message\ r \ (the\ challenge)
user \longrightarrow f(r) \ (the\ response)
system
```

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Pass Algorithms

- □ Challenge-response with the function *f* itself a secret
 - Usually used in conjunction with fixed, reusable password
 - Example:
 - After the user supplies a reusable password, a second prompt is given (challenge)
 - Challenge is a random string of characters such as "abcdefg", "ageksido"
 - □ Response is some function of that string such as "bdf", "gkip"
 - Can alter algorithm based on ancillary information
 - Network connection is as above, dial-up might require "aceg", "aesd"

One-Time Passwords

- Password that can be used exactly *once*
 - After use, it is immediately invalidated
- □ Challenge-response mechanism
 - Challenge is number of authentications; response is password for that particular number
- Problems
 - Synchronization of user, system
 - Generation of good random passwords
 - Password distribution problem

Example One-Time Passwords: S/Key

- One-time password scheme based on idea of Lamport
- □ h one-way hash function (MD5 or SHA-1, for example)
- □ User chooses initial seed *k*
- System calculates:

$$h(k) = k_1, h(k_1) = k_2, ..., h(k_{n-1}) = k_n$$

□ Passwords are reverse order:

$$p_1 = k_n$$
, $p_2 = k_{n-1}$, ..., $p_{n-1} = k_2$, $p_n = k_1$

S/Key Protocol

System stores maximum number of authentications n, number of next authentication i, last correctly supplied password p_{i-1} .

$$user \longrightarrow \begin{cases} name \end{cases} \longrightarrow system$$

$$user \longleftarrow \begin{cases} i \end{cases} \longrightarrow system$$

$$user \longrightarrow \{ p_i \} \longrightarrow system$$

System computes $h(p_i) = h(k_{n-i+1}) = k_{n-i} = p_{i-1}$. If match with what is stored, system replaces p_{i-1} with p_i and increments i.

Hardware Support

- Token-based
 - Used to compute response to challenge
 - May encipher or hash challenge
 - May require PIN from user
- Temporally-based
 - Every minute (or so) different number shown
 - Computer knows what number to expect when
 - User enters number and fixed password

Challenge-Response and Dictionary Attacks

- Same as for fixed passwords
 - Attacker knows challenge r and response f(r); if f encryption function, can try different keys
 - May only need to know form of response; attacker can tell if guess correct by looking to see if deciphered object is of right form
 - Example: Kerberos Version 4 used DES, but keys had 20 bits of randomness; Purdue attackers guessed keys quickly because deciphered tickets had a fixed set of bits in some locations

Encrypted Key Exchange

- Defeats off-line dictionary attacks
- □ Idea: random challenges enciphered, so attacker cannot verify correct decipherment of challenge
- Assume Alice, Bob share secret password s
- □ In what follows, Alice needs to generate a random public key p and a corresponding private key q
- \square Also, k is a randomly generated session key, and R_A and R_B are random challenges

EKE Protocol

Alice
$$\longrightarrow$$
 Alice $||E_s(p)|$ \longrightarrow Bob

Alice \longleftarrow $E_s(E_p(k))$ \longrightarrow Bob

Now Alice, Bob share a randomly generated secret session key k

Alice \longleftarrow $E_k(R_A)$ \longrightarrow Bob

Alice \longleftarrow $E_k(R_B)$ \longrightarrow Bob

Biometrics

- Automated measurement of biological, behavioral features that identify a person
 - Fingerprints: optical or electrical techniques
 - Maps fingerprint into a graph, then compares with database
 - Measurements imprecise, so approximate matching algorithms used
 - Voices: speaker verification or recognition
 - Verification: uses statistical techniques to test hypothesis that speaker is who is claimed (speaker dependent)
 - Recognition: checks content of answers (speaker independent)

Other Characteristics

- □ Can use several other characteristics
 - Eyes: patterns in irises unique
 - Measure patterns, determine if differences are random; or correlate images using statistical tests
 - Faces: image, or specific characteristics like distance from nose to chin
 - □ Lighting, view of face, other noise can hinder this
 - Keystroke dynamics: believed to be unique
 - Keystroke intervals, pressure, duration of stroke, where key is struck
 - Statistical tests used

Cautions

- □ These can be fooled!
 - Assumes biometric device accurate in the environment it is being used in!
 - Transmission of data to validator is tamperproof, correct

Location

- □ If you know where user is, validate identity by seeing if person is where the user is
 - Requires special-purpose hardware to locate user
 - □ GPS (global positioning system) device gives location signature of entity
 - □ Host uses LSS (location signature sensor) to get signature for entity

Multiple Methods

- Example: "where you are" also requires entity to have LSS and GPS, so also "what you have"
- Can assign different methods to different tasks
 - As users perform more and more sensitive tasks, must authenticate in more and more ways (presumably, more stringently) File describes authentication required
 - Also includes controls on access (time of day, etc.), resources, and requests to change passwords
 - Pluggable Authentication Modules in Linux

PAM in Linux

- Idea: when program needs to authenticate, it checks central repository for methods to use
- □ Library call: pam_authenticate
 - Accesses file with name of program in /etc/pam_d
- Modules do authentication checking
 - sufficient: succeed if module succeeds
 - required: fail if module fails, but all required modules executed before reporting failure
 - requisite: like required, but don't check all modules
 - optional: invoke only if all previous modules fail

Example PAM File

For ftp:

- If user "anonymous", return okay; if not, set PAM_AUTHTOK to password, PAM_RUSER to name, and fail
- Now check that password in PAM_AUTHTOK belongs to that of user in PAM_RUSER; if not, fail
- Now see if user in PAM_RUSER named in /etc/ftpusers; if so, fail; if error or not found, succeed

Exercise L7-4: Examine PAM in a Linux system

■ Read manual page

```
man 7 pam
```

man 8 pam_unix

man 8 pam_tally2

- Examine /etc/pam.d/login
- □ Configure the system so that it locks a user account after 4 failed logins
 - Create a new user to test this (otherwise, you may be locked out)

Summary

- Authentication is not cryptography
 - You have to consider system components
- Passwords are here to stay
 - They provide a basis for most forms of authentication
- Protocols are important
 - They can make masquerading harder
- Authentication methods can be combined
 - Example: PAM