# L7: Authentication

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■ Revised based on slides are from the author of the Textbook (Matt Bishop, Introduction to Computer Security, Addison-Wesley Professional, October, 2004, ISBN-13: 978-0-321-24774-5.)

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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 Attack Type 1: Example

### 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
    - 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 10<sup>4</sup> 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

■ User, system share a secret function f (in practice, f is a known function with unknown parameters, such as a cryptographic key)

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

### Pass Algorithms

- □ Challenge-response with the function *f* itself a secret
  - Example:
    - 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"
  - Usually used in conjunction with fixed, reusable password

### 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 Alice 
$$||E_s(p)||$$
 Bob

Alice  $E_s(E_p(k))$  Bob

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

Alice  $E_k(R_A)$  Bob

Alice  $E_k(R_AR_B)$  Bob

Alice  $E_k(R_B)$  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