# CSE 451: Operating Systems
# Spring 2010

# Module 19
# Security: Authentication

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# Basic Concepts

- Principals – who is acting
  - User / Process Creator
  - Code Author
- Objects – what is that principal acting on?
  - File
  - Network connection
- Rights
  - Read
  - Write

# Policy: The Access Matrix Concept

|        | Alice         | Bob           | Carl          |
|--------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| /etc   | Read          | Read          | Read Write    |
| /homes | Read Write    | Read Write    | Read Write    |
| /usr   | None          | None          | Read          |

- This is a picture of a concept
- There are multiple implemenation alternatives
  - Policy / mechanism distinction
- We'll get back to this later

# Some Fundamental Concepts

- Authentication (who are you)
  - identifying principals (users / programs)

- Authorization (what are you allowed to do)
  - determining what access users and programs have to things

- Auditing (what happened)
  - record what users and programs are doing for later analysis / prosecution

# Authentication

- How does the provider of a secure service know who it's talking with?
    - Example: login


- We'll start with the local case (the keyboard is attached to the machine you want to login to)


- Then we'll look at a distributed system

# Local Login
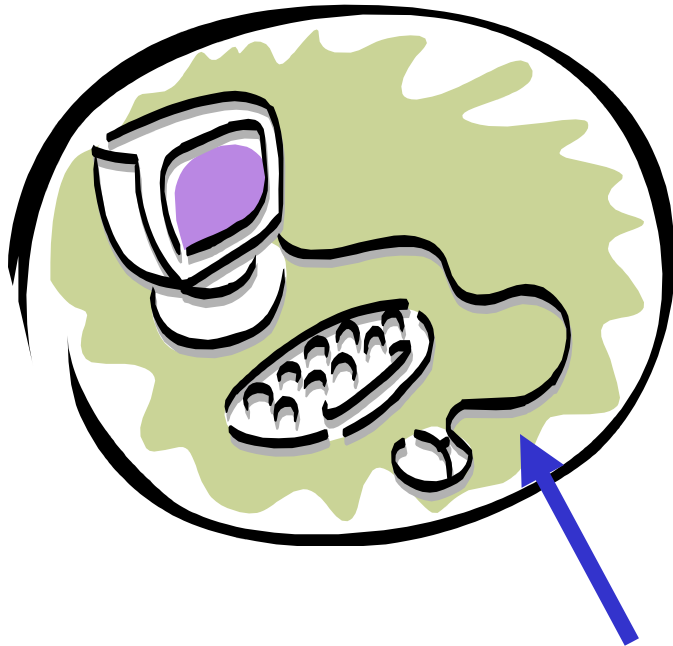


("Local" $\Rightarrow$ this connection is assumed secure)

How does the OS know that I'm 'zahorjan'?

# Shared Secret



The shared secret is typically a password, but it could be something else:

- Retina scan
- A key

# Simple Enough

- This seems pretty trivial

- Like pretty much all aspects of security, there are perhaps unexpected complications

- As an introduction to this, let's look at briefly at the history of password use

# Storing passwords

- CTSS (1962): password file {user name, user identifier, password}

> Bob, 14, "12.14.52"
> David, 15, "allison"
> Mary, 16, "!ofotc2n"

If a bad guy gets hold of the password file, you're in deep trouble

— **Any** flaw in the system that compromises the password file compromises all accounts!
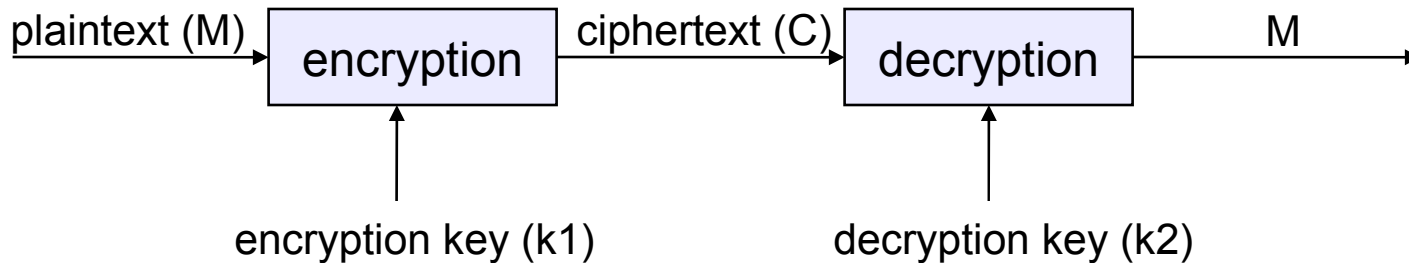
# Two Choices

1. Make sure there are no flaws in the system
2. Render knowledge of the password file useless

Unix (1974): store encrypted forms of the passwords

Zahorjan:
2zppQ01c

My dog
has
fleas

# Aside on Encryption

plaintext (M) → [ encryption ] → ciphertext (C) → [ decryption ] → M

encryption key (k1)     decryption key (k2)

- Encryption: takes a key and plaintext and creates ciphertext: $E_{k1}(M) = C$
- Decryption: takes ciphertext and a key and recovers plaintext: $D_{k2}(C) = M$

- Symmetric algorithms (aka secret-key aka shared secret algorithms):
  - k1 = k2 (or can get k2 from k1)
- Public-Key Algorithms
  - decryption key (k2) cannot be calculated from encryption key (k1)
  - encryption key can be made public!
    - encryption key = "public key", decryption key = "private key"

- Computational requirements:
  - Deducing M from $E_k(M)$ is "really hard"
  - Computing $E_k(M)$ and $D_k(C)$ is efficient

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# Unix Password File (/etc/passwd)

- Encrypt passwords with passwords

$K=[\text{alison}]_{\text{allison}}$

Bob: 14: S6Uu0cYDVdTAk
David: 15: J2ZI4ndBL6X.M
Mary: 16: VW2bqvTalBJKg

- David's password, "allison," is encrypted using itself as the key and stored in that form.

- Password supplied by user is encrypted with itself as key, and result compared to stored result.

- "No problem if someone steals the file"

# The Dictionary Attack

- Encrypt many (all) possible password strings offline, and store results in a dictionary
  - I may not be able to invert any particular password, but the odds are very high I can invert one or more

- 26 letters used, 7 letters long
  - 8 billion passwords (33 bits)
  - Generating 100,000/second requires 22 hours

- But most people's passwords are not random sequences of letters!
  - girlfriend's/boyfriend's/spouse's/dog's name/words in the dictionary

- Dictionary attacks have traditionally been incredibly easy

# Making it harder

- Using symbols and numbers and longer passwords
  - 95 characters, 14 characters long
  - $10^{27\ passwords} = $ 91 bits
  - Checking 100,000/second breaks in $10^{14}$ years

- Require frequent changing of passwords
  - guards against loaning it out, writing it down, etc.

# Do longer passwords work?

- People can't remember 14-character strings of random characters
- People write down difficult passwords
- People give out passwords to strangers
- Passwords can show up on disk
- If you are forced to change your password periodically, you probably choose an even dumber one
    - "feb04" "mar04" "apr04"
- How do we handle this in CSE?

# Countermeasure to the Dictionary Attack: Salt

- Unix (1979): salted passwords
  - The salt is just a random number from a large space

$K=[\text{alison392}]_{\text{allison392}}$

Bob: 14: T7Vs1dZEWeRcL: 45
David: 15: K3AJ5ocCM4ZM$: 392
Mary: 16: WX3crwUbmCKLf: 152

Encryption is computed after affixing a number to the password.  Thwarts pre-computed dictionary attacks

Okay, are we done?  Problem solved?

# Attack Models

- Besides the problems already mentioned that obviously remain (people give out their passwords / write them down / keyloggers / ...), there may be other clever attacks that we haven't thought of

- Attack Model: when reasoning about the security of a mechanism, we need typically need to carefully describe what kinds of attacks we're thinking of
  - helps us reason about what vulnerabilities still remain

# Example 1: Login spoofers

- Login spoofers are a specialized class of Trojan horses
  - Attacker runs a program that presents a screen identical to the login screen and walks away from the machine
  - Victim types password and gets a message saying "password incorrect, try again"

- Can be circumvented by requiring an operation that unprivileged programs cannot perform
  - E.g., start login sequence with a key combination user programs cannot catch, CTRL+ALT+DEL on Windows

# Example 2: Cool password attack

- VMS (early 80's) password checking flaw

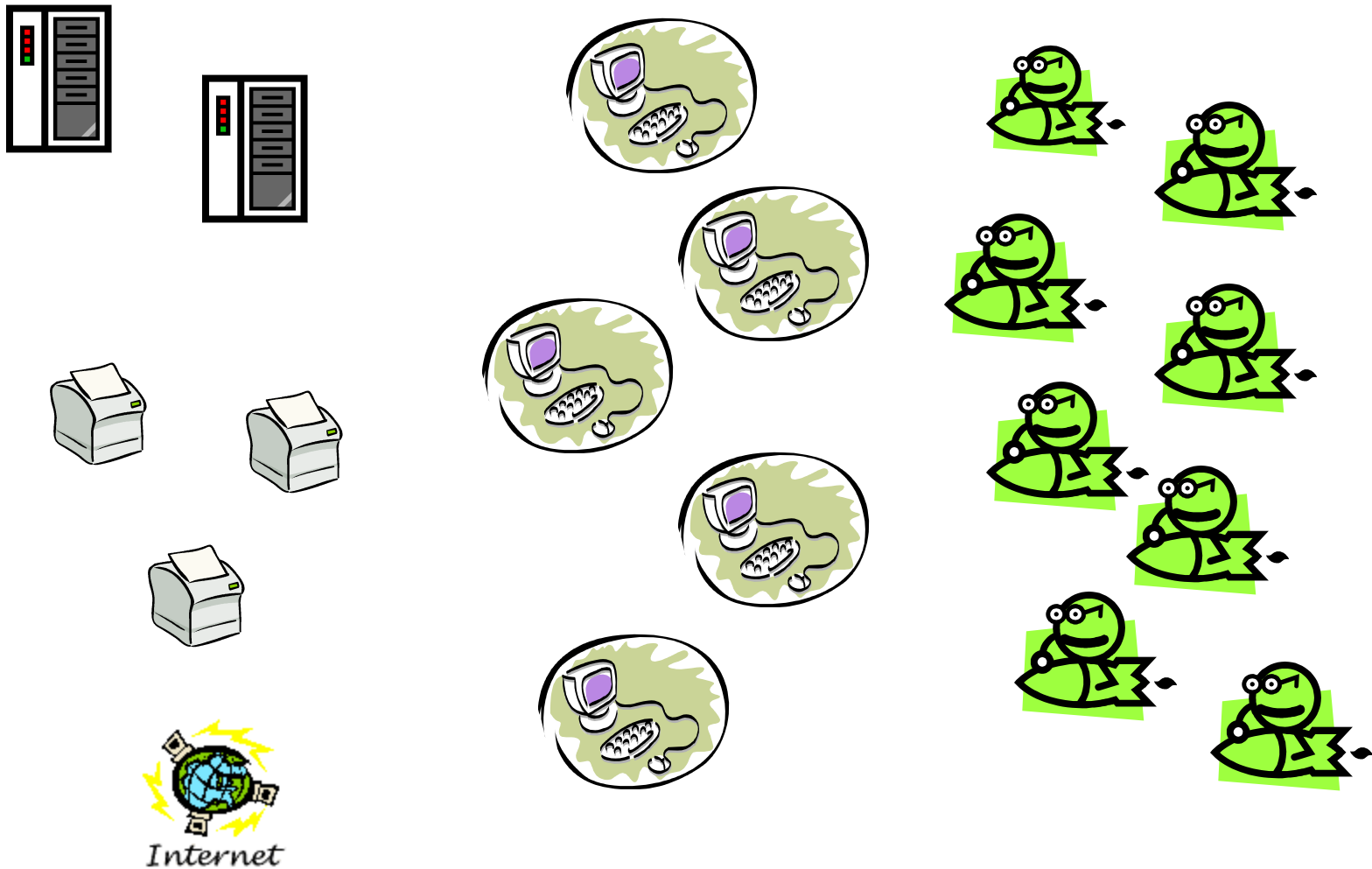  - password checking algorithm:

    ```
    for (I=0; I<password.length( ); I++) {
        if password[I] == supplied_password[I]
            return false;
    }
    return true;
    ```
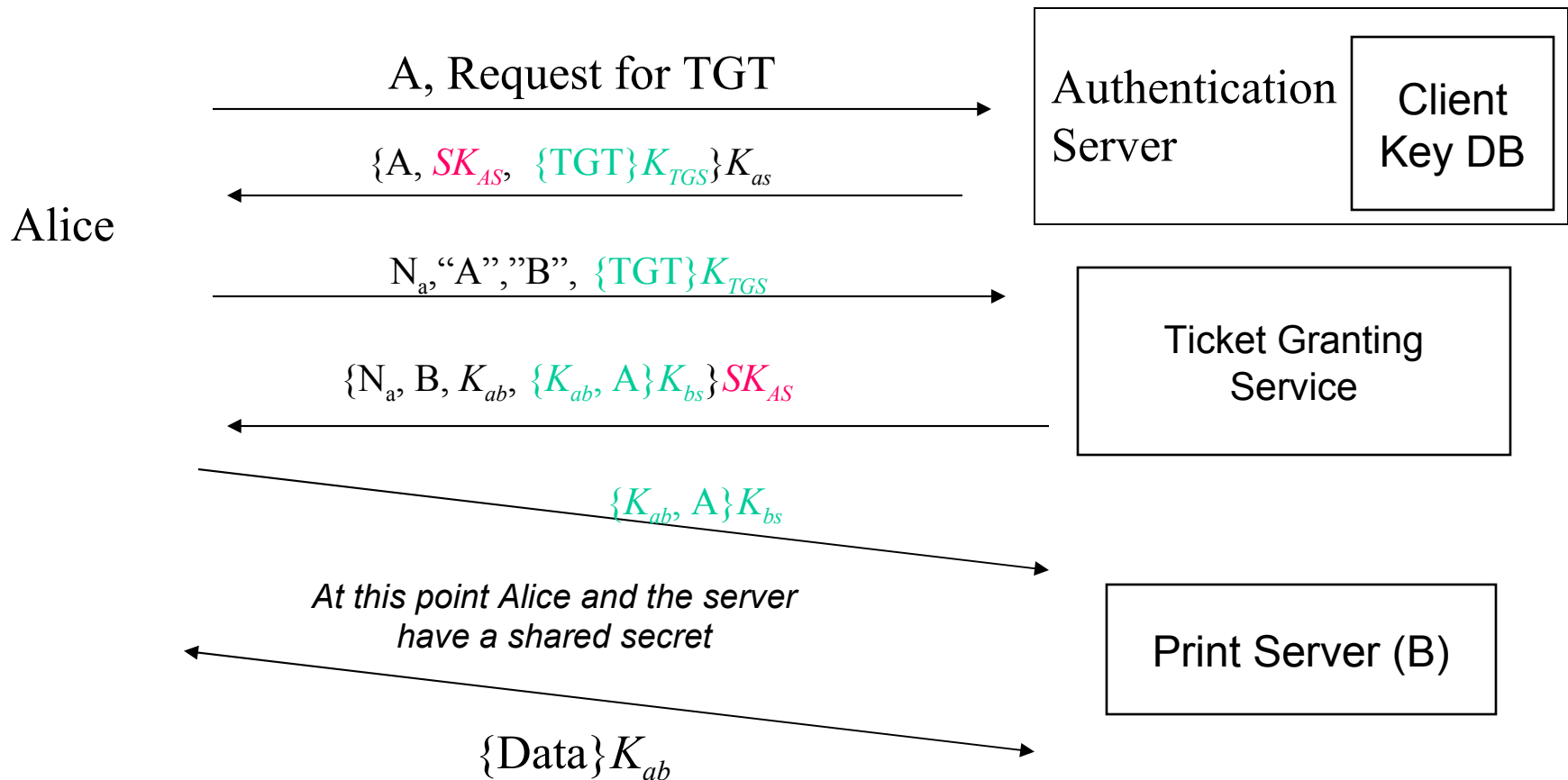
  - can you see the problem?
    - hint: think about virtual memory…
    - another hint:  think about page faults…
    - final hint:  who controls where in memory supplied_password lives?

# Distributed Authentication (Single Domain)

# Kerberos

Alice

A, Request for TGT →

← $\{A, SK_{AS}, \{TGT\}K_{TGS}\}K_{as}$

$N_a, "A", "B", \{TGT\}K_{TGS}$ →

← $\{N_a, B, K_{ab}, \{K_{ab}, A\}K_{bs}\}SK_{AS}$

$\{K_{ab}, A\}K_{bs}$ →

*At this point Alice and the server have a shared secret*

←

$\{Data\}K_{ab}$ →

Authentication Server | Client Key DB

Ticket Granting Service

Print Server (B)

# Trust Relationships

- Both Alice and the server must trust the Kerberos servers ("trusted third party")

- This architecture is essentially what Microsoft Passport is (the predecessor to Microsoft Windows Live ID):
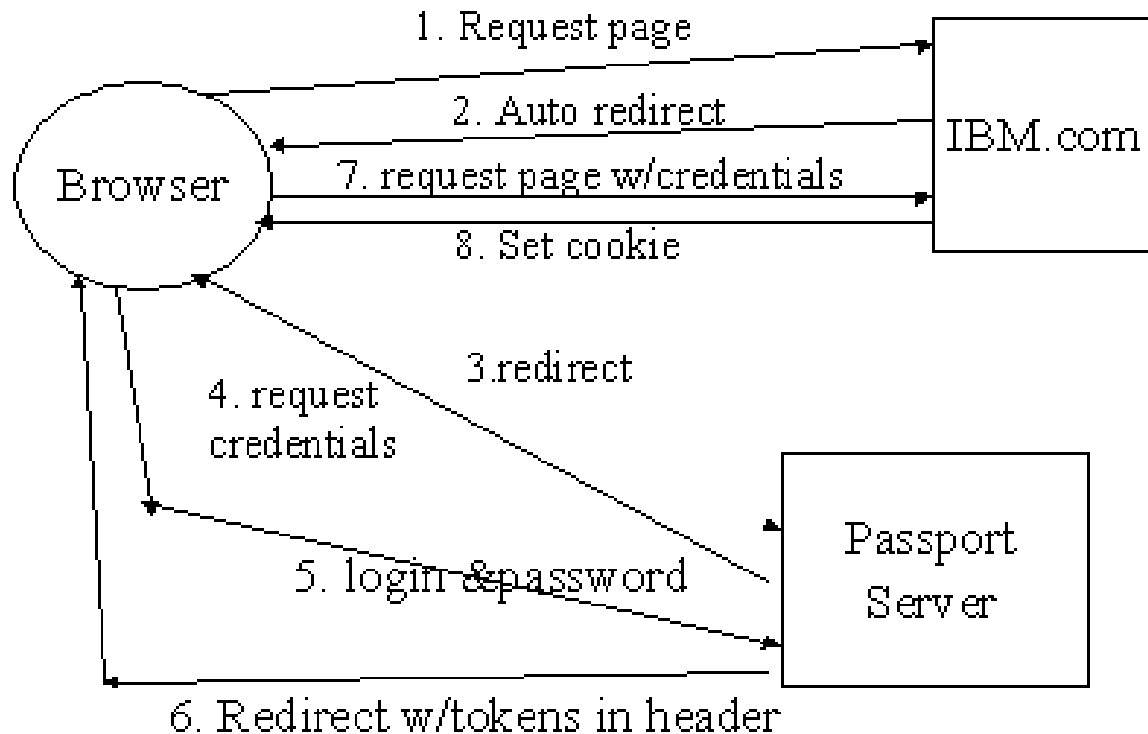
# Microsoft's Passport Flaw Fixed

**WASHINGTON, May 8, 2003**

**(AP)** A computer researcher in Pakistan discovered how to breach Microsoft Corp.'s security procedures for its popular Internet Passport service, designed to protect customers visiting some retail Web sites, sending e-mails and in some cases making credit-card purchases.

Microsoft acknowledged the flaw affected all its 200 million Passport accounts but said it fixed the problem early Thursday, after details were published on the Internet. Product Manager Adam Sohn said the company was unaware of hackers actually hijacking anyone's Passport account, but several experts said they successfully tested the procedure overnight.

In theory, Microsoft could face a staggering fine by U.S. regulators of up to $2.2 trillion. Under a settlement with the Federal Trade Commission last year over lapsed Passport security, Microsoft pledged to take reasonable safeguards to protect personal consumer information during the next two decades or risk fines up to $11,000 per violation.

The FTC said it was investigating this latest lapse. The agency's assistant director for financial practices, Jessica Rich, said Thursday that each vulnerable account could constitute a separate violation - raising the maximum fine that could be assessed against Microsoft to $2.2 trillion.

"If we were to find that they didn't take reasonable safeguards to protect the information, that could be an order violation," Rich said.

The researcher, Muhammad Faisal Rauf Danka, determined that by typing a specific Web address that included the phrase "emailpwdreset," he could seize any person's Passport account and change the password associated with it.

# And More…

*In December 1999, Microsoft neglected to pay their annual $35 "passport.com" domain registration fee to Network Solutions. The oversight made Hotmail, which used the site for authentication, unavailable on Christmas Eve, December 24. A Linux consultant, Michael Chaney, paid it the next day (Christmas), hoping it would solve this issue with the downed site. The payment resulted in the site being available the next morning.[9]  In Autumn 2003, a similar good Samaritan helped Microsoft when they missed payment on the "hotmail.co.uk" address, although no downtime resulted.[10]*

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Microsoft_Passport

# And Finally…

Windows Live ID security breached
Sunday June 17, 2007 – 22:32

"A critical error was made by the Microsoft programmers that allows everyone to create an ID for virtually any e-mail address", says Erik. The procedure indeed checked out to be very simple: After registration on www.live.com with a valid e-mail address that the user does have access to, the confirmation link is received. Before using it however, it is allowed to change the initial e-mail address to one that even cannot exist, or you do not own. After logging out a second time and confirming using the first link, the Microsoft system simply confirms the account, using the new and unowned e-mail address.