Authentication and Passwords

CMSC 426 - Computer Security

Outline

- Types of authentication
- Vulnerabilities of password authentication
- Linux password authentication
- Windows Password authentication
- Cracking techniques

Goals of Authentication

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- *Identification* provide a claimed identity to the system.
- *Verification* establish validity of the provided identity.

We're *not* talking about message authentication, e.g. the use of digital signatures.

Means of Authentication

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- Something you know, e.g. password
- Something you have, e.g. USB dongle or Common Access Card (CAC)

- Something you are, e.g. fingerprint
- Something you do, e.g. hand writing

Password-Based Authentication

- User provides identity and password; system verifies that the password is correct for the given identity.
- Identity determines access and privileges.
- Identity can be used for Discretionary Access Control, e.g. to give another user access to a file.

Password Hashing

- System stores hash of the user password, not the plain text password.
- Commonly used technique, e.g. UNIX password hashing.



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Password Vulnerabilities

Assume the authentication system stores hashed passwords. There are eight attack strategies.

- Off-line Dictionary Attack get hold of the password file, test a collection (dictionary) of possible passwords.
 - Most systems protect the password file, but attackers sometimes get hold of one.

- *Specific Account Attack* given a specific user account, try popular passwords.
 - Most systems use lockout mechanisms to make these attacks difficult.
- *Popular Password Attack* given a popular password, try it on multiple accounts.
 - Harder to defend against have to look for patterns in failed access attempts.

- *Targeted Password Guessing* use what you know about a user to intelligently guess their password.
 - Counter with password policies and enforcement.
- *Workstation Hijacking* walk up to an unattended, unlocked workstation and do your business!
 - Umm...don't leave your workstation unattended and unlocked.

- Exploiting User Mistakes Does the user write their password (or clues) on a sticky note? Do they share passwords with other users? Do they forget to change default passwords?
- *Exploiting Multiple Password Use* crack the password from one account, and you're in to multiple accounts.
 - Technology can encourage stronger password usage by easing the management of multiple, strong passwords.

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- *Electronic Monitoring* watch for passwords or password hashes being sent over the network for remote authentication.
 - Modern protocols avoid this; use vetted protocols.

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Salted Hashing Salt - random quantity prepended to password before hashing. Commonly used technique, e.g. UNIX password hashing.

Salt Advantages

- Prevents duplicate passwords from being visible in password file. Different salts ensure different hashes.
- Increases difficulty of off-line dictionary attacks. For *b*-bit salt, dictionary is 2^b times larger.
- More difficult to identify multiple password use. Same password on two systems will produce different hashes.

UNIX Password Authentication

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UNIX crypt

- 8-character password represented in 7-bit ASCII to produce 56-bit key.
- 12-bit salt introduced via modified DES.
- Modified DES used with key to encrypt 64bit block of zeroes; iterated 25 times.
- Final output block is the hash.
- Modification to DES makes it one-way.

Problems and Solutions

- Even iterating 25 times, UNIX hash function is no longer sufficient. Dictionary attacks are very effective.
- For password hashing **slow is good**. Add more iterations.
- Use stronger hashes.
- Several variants for UNIX-like OSes.

Most systems are configurable. Choose your hash.

- *Linux, Solaris, FreeBSD* change hash function to MD5 and use 48-bit salt. Far slower than UNIX *crypt*.
- *OpenBSD* hash based on Blowfish symmetric algorithm and use128-bit salt. Can vary the cost to compute a hash.
- *Red Hat, Ubuntu, Mac OS* SHA-2 based scheme.

Protecting Hashes

- On original UNIX systems, the password hashes were stored in /etc/password
- /etc/password had to be world-readable because it included information such as the user's login shell
- Later systems (incl. Linux) move the hashes to /etc/shadow, only readable by root.

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/etc/shadow

User name: sally

Algorithm ID: 6 (SHA-512)

Salt: 54y91160

Password hash: 9DRcg4cWQy2nTCfnRwNO...

Salt and hash are encoded using the 64-character alphabet [a-zA-Z0-9./].

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Windows Password Authentication

Windows LM Hash

- LAN Manager Hash (LM Hash)
 - Pad password to 14 character
 - Convert to upper case
 - Construct two 7-byte DES keys
 - Encrypt fixed string with both keys
- No Salt Seriously Weak!
- Prior to Windows NT

Windows NT Hash

- MD4 hash of encoded password
 - Encoding is UTF-16 little-endian
- Allows for longer passwords
- Doesn't convert to upper case
- Still no salting!

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NTLMv1 Protocol

- NT Lan Manager Authentication Protocol
 - Server sends eight byte challenge (*C*). Server may just be the OS.
 - Client computes 48 byte response *R* from *C*. Client may just be a login service.
 - Response *R* involves LM and NT hashes of the user password and DES encryptions of the challenge.
 - Server computes expected response; compares to R.
- Still uses LM Hash; DES not secure enough.

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NTLMv2 Protocol

- Improvement over NTLMv1
- Eight byte challenge; 32 byte response
- LM Hash *finally* goes away
- No more DES uses HMAC-MD5
 - Hash-based Message Authentication Code built on MD5, keyed with NT Hash

NTLM Weak Nonce

- What happens if the eight-byte challenge (*nonce*) is not "random enough?"
- Repeated nonces allow for replay attacks
 - Attacker records challenges and responses
 - Attempts to authenticate hoping for a repeated challenge; replays response
- Hernan Ochoa & Agustin Azubel, February 2010
 - Most (all?) Win versions affected over 17 years!

Kerberos

- Replaces NTLM...but NTLM still used in some cases, e.g. stand-alone systems
- Kerberos is based on an Authentication Server and separate Ticket Granting Server — we'll learn more about it later in the semester.

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Cracking Techniques

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Cracking Approaches

- *Dictionary Attacks* given a list of possible passwords, hash each one and compare it to the target hash.
- *Rainbow Tables* are a clever way to speedup certain password recovery attacks.

Time-Memory Trade-Off

- A class of attacks invented by Martin Hellman in 1980.
- Large up-front work requiring substantial storage in exchange for faster password recovery.
- Need a *Return Function* R(*h*), a mapping from the space of hashes back to the space of possible passwords.

TMTO One-Time Work



- Do this **many** times with different starting passwords.
- Keep list of (*start, finish*) pairs end up with a big table.

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TMTO Attack

- Given a target hash *h*₀, compute *h*₁ = H(R(*h*₀)) and iterate, i.e. compute *h*₂, *h*₃, etc.
 - $h_{i+1} = H(R(h_i))$
- If *h_n* matches one of the finish points in our table, compute H(start), H(R(H(start))), etc.
- Probably you will find a password such that H(password) = h₀.

Rainbow Tables

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- Rainbow tables are a type of TMTO.
- They solve a particular technical difficulty by using many different return functions.
- The result is a more efficient TMTO.

Note: TMTOs are not effective against salted hashes. Why??

