

User Authentication

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Introduction

Identification is the task of correctly identifying a user or entity

It is typically **required** for enforcing other security properties

Any time the **access to a resource** needs to be regulated, some form of identification is necessary

Examples:

- Users identify into a system when they **login**
- Users identify to mobile network providers through the **SIM card**
- Users identify to the SIM card through a **PIN**
- Users identify to **ATMs** with cards and PINs

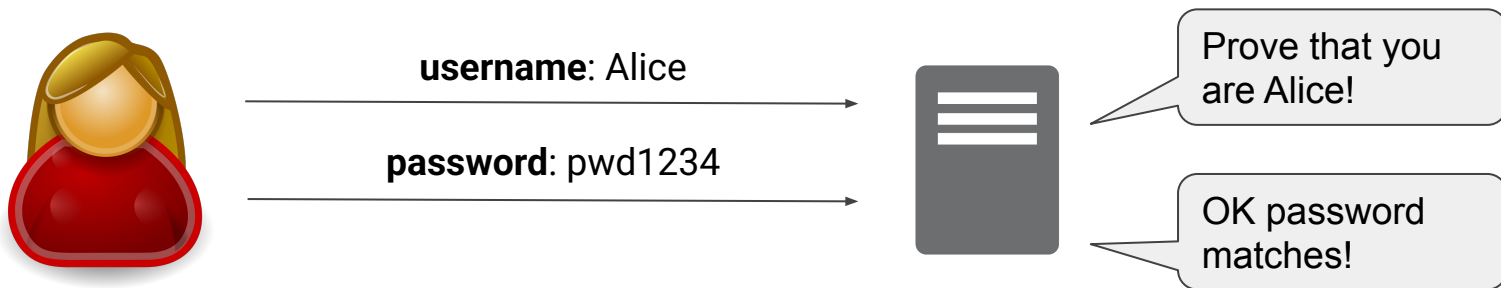
Identification == entity authentication

Identification can be thought as **authenticating a user** or, more generally, an **entity**

- Allow a **verifier** to check **claimant's** identity

Example: login-password scheme

- The user **claims** her identity by inserting the **username**
- The system **verifies** the identity by asking for a **secret password**



Properties

An identification scheme should always prevent:

Impersonation, even observing previous identifications

Uncontrolled transferability: the verifier should not **reuse** a previous identification to impersonate the claimant with a different verifier, unless **authorized**

- The verifier has more information available than an attacker, e.g., when the communication is encrypted
- **Example**: same password for different web sites!

Classes of identification schemes

Something known. Check the **knowledge** of a secret

- passwords, passphrases, Personal Identification Numbers (PINs), cryptographic keys

Something possessed. Check the **possession** of a device

- ATM cards, credit cards, smartcards, One Time Password (OTP) generators, USB crypto-tokens

Something inherent. Check **biometric** features of users

- Paper signatures, fingerprints, voice and face recognition, retinal patterns

Password-based authentication

Something known. Check the **knowledge** of a secret

- passwords, passphrases, Personal Identification Numbers (PINs), cryptographic keys

Preventing leakage and guess

Problem 1: What if the password is *sniffed*?

Solution: only use password over encrypted channels

Example 1: passwords and card numbers sent over **https**

Example 2: telnet was an **insecure** remote terminal client sending passwords in the clear

Problem 2: What if password is *guessed*?

Solution 1: Disable the service after MAX attempts

Example: lock SIM after 3 attempts

Solution 2: Use strong passwords

⇒ useful in offline attacks when the service cannot be disabled

“Encrypted” passwords

Problem 3: How are password **stored** on the server?

IDEA: The server stores a *one-way hash* of passwords

Definition (*hash function*). A hash function h computes efficiently a **fixed length** value $h(x)=z$ called **digest**, from an x of **arbitrary size**.

Definition (*one-way hash function*). A hash function h is **one-way** if given a digest z , it is **infeasible to compute a preimage** x' such that $h(x')=z$

⇒ **Finding** a pre-image is computationally infeasible

Dictionary attacks

Brute force: even if one-way hashes cannot be inverted, an attacker can try to compute hashes of *easy passwords* and see if the hashes match

Note: It is possible to **precompute** the hashes of a dictionary and just search for z into it

Example:

```
$ echo -n "mypassword" | sha256sum  
89e01536ac207279409d4de1e5253e01f4a  
1769e696db0d6062ca9b8f56767c8 -
```

Password "mypassword" is clearly weak, we can search for the hash directly in search engines or using existing [online services](#)

Salting passwords

Precomputation of password hashes is prevented by adding a *random salt*

login	hash	salt
...	...	...
r1x	z	s
...	...	...

$$h(\text{pwd}, s) \stackrel{?}{=} z$$

“Slow” hashes

Instead of using a single hash, hashes are usually iterated so to slow down brute-force

Example: Linux passwords

goofy : \$**6**\$**Lc5mF7Mm**\$**03IT.AXVhC3Vl4/rLAdomffgv5fe0lKBzNGtpEei**
2dBgK9z/4QBqM3ZMRK4qcbYJhkAE.2KscEZx0Am/y50 :

- **6**: SHA512-based hashing, iterated **5000** times, by default
- **Lc5mF7Mm**: salt
- **03IT.AXVhC3...Zx0Am/y50**: digest

Token-based authentication

Something possessed. Check the **possession** of a device

- ATM cards, credit cards, smartcards, One Time Password (OTP) generators, USB crypto-tokens

Memory cards

Passive card with a memory

Examples:

- Old ATM cards with magnetic stripe
- Hotel cards to open doors

When **paired with a PIN** the attacker needs to steal/duplicate both



Problems:

- Passive cards are usually simple to clone

Example:

- Old ATM cards were cloned by putting a fake reader and a camera (to also steal the PIN)

Smart cards

Smart token with an **embedded chip**

Various devices:

- Standard smartcard
- USB token
- Small portable objects
- Bigger objects with display and/or keyboard



Smart card interface and protocol

Interface:

- **Contact:** a conductive contact plate on the surface of the card (typically gold plated) for transmission of commands, data, and card status
- **Contactless:** Both the reader and the card have an antenna, and communicate using radio frequencies

Protocol:

1. **Static:** token provides a fixed secret (as for passive cards)
2. **One time password (OTP):** the token generates a fresh OTP that is used for authentication
3. **Challenge-response:** a challenge is processed by the token that produces a response (e.g. digitally signed)

One Time Passwords (OTP)

Once a secret is leaked it can be used to authenticate many times:

- sniffed password
- cracked password hash
- cloned passive token

One Time Passwords (OTPs) are never reused

They mitigate password leakage/crack by allowing for a single authentication (es. bank OTPs)

⇒ The token and the computer system must be kept **synchronized** so the computer knows the OTP that is current for this token.

Lamport's hash-based OTP

Given a secret s and a one-way hash function h we compute:

$$h^t(s) \quad \text{which is: } h(h(\dots h(s)\dots)) \quad t \text{ times}$$

We let the Claimant and the Verifier share this value

- The Claimant uses the list of passwords:
 $h^{t-1}(s), h^{t-2}(s), \dots, h(s), s$
- The Verifier computes $h(\text{pwd})$ and checks if it is equal to the stored hash:
 $h(h^{t-1}(s)) == h^t(s)$
- If the check succeeds the Verifier stores $h^{t-1}(s)$

Lamport's hash-based OTP

passwords: $h^{t-1}(s)$ $h^{t-2}(s)$... $h(s)$ s

stored hashes: $h^t(s)$ $h^{t-1}(s)$... $h^2(s)$ $h(s)$

Limitation: Only t authentications are possible

Security: Computing next passwords from the current is equivalent to compute the preimage of h , which is **infeasible** (h is one-way)

⇒ More secure than storing a shared secret “seed” used to generate the OTP

Case study 1: RSA seed breach

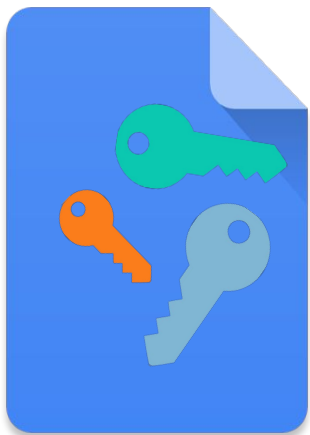
RSA SecurID Breach (March 2011)

- The values of secret “seeds” were stored insecurely and have been leaked through phishing
- ⇒ 40M of devices replaced, big companies attacked, huge image damage for RSA



Case study 2: Java keystores

Key Storage



Key Confidentiality



Key Integrity



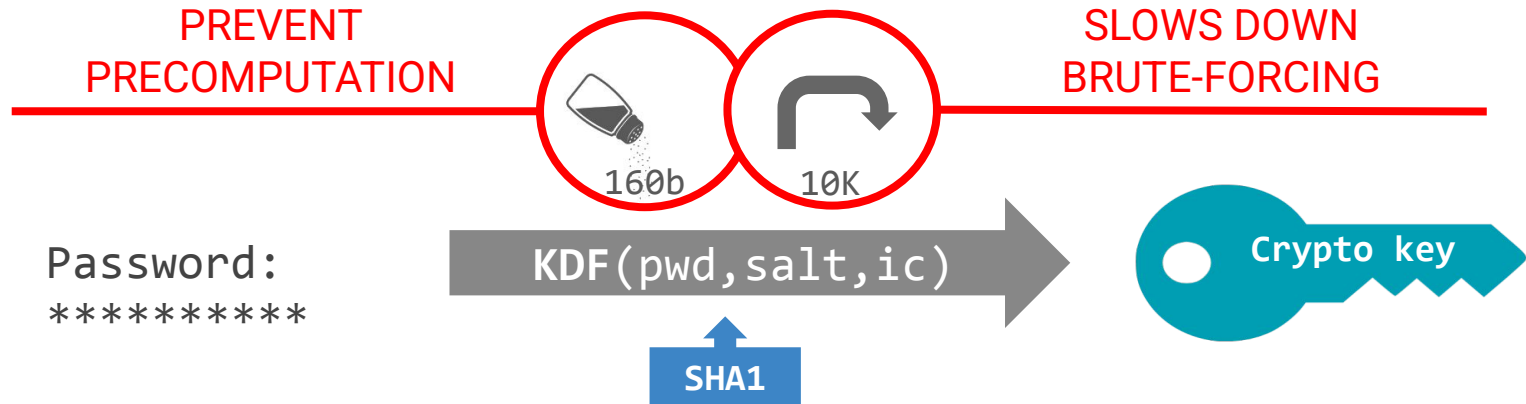
System Integrity



Keystore

- File containing keys and certificates
- Password-protected

Key derivation function (KDF)



⇒ KDF is similar to password hashing but outputs a crypto key

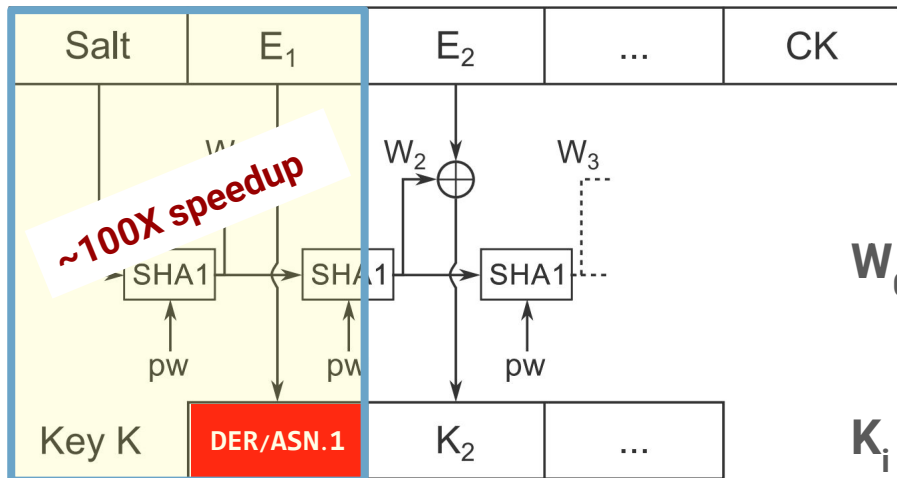
Oracle JKS Password Cracking

HASHCAT

8 billions
pw/s with
one
NVIDIA GTX
1080

Key Decryption in JKS

E = Encrypted Key



W = Keystream

$$W_0 = \text{Salt}$$

$$W_i = \text{SHA1}(\text{pw} || W_{i-1})$$

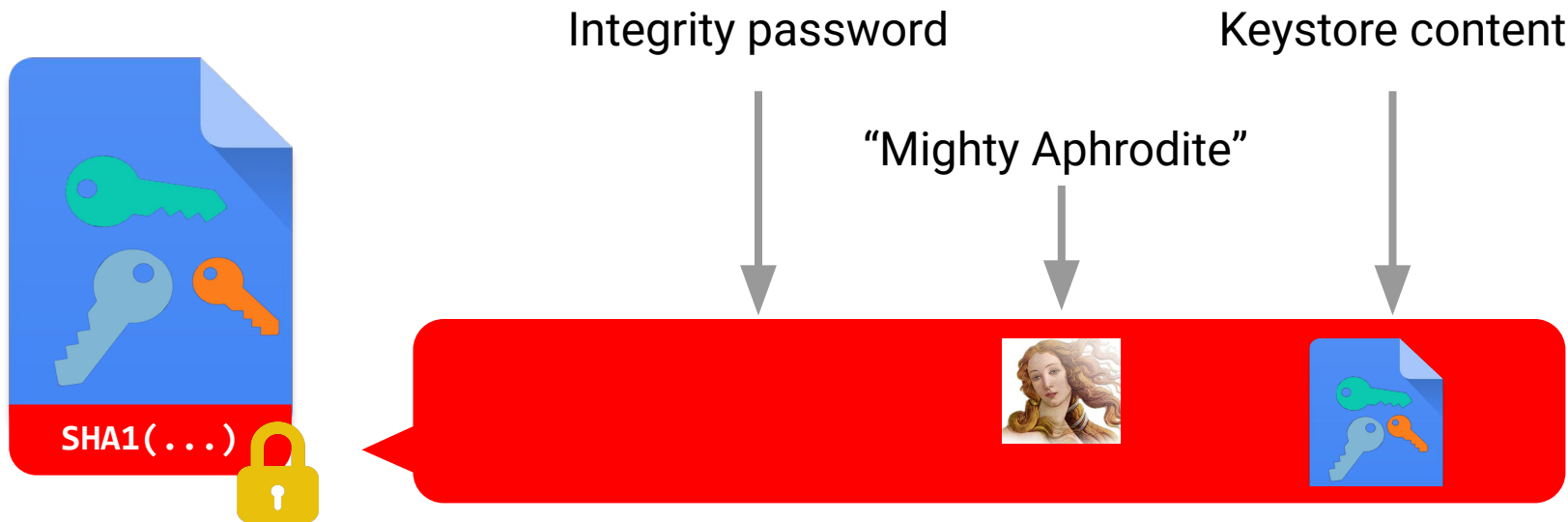
$$K_i = E_i \oplus W_i$$

$$\text{CK} = \text{SHA1}(\text{pw} || K)$$

K = Decrypted Key

CK = Checksum

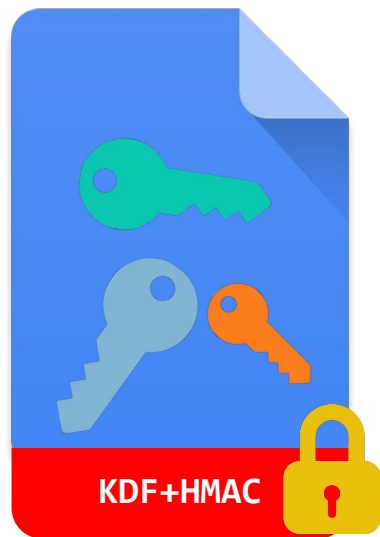
JKS/JCEKS Integrity Pwd Cracking



For JKS and JCEKS (Java Cryptography Extension) keystores:

- Efficient **integrity-password bruteforce** (fixed “salt” ... precomputation!)
- Watch out when integrity password = confidentiality password!

DoS by Parameters Abuse



Parameters

For these keystores:

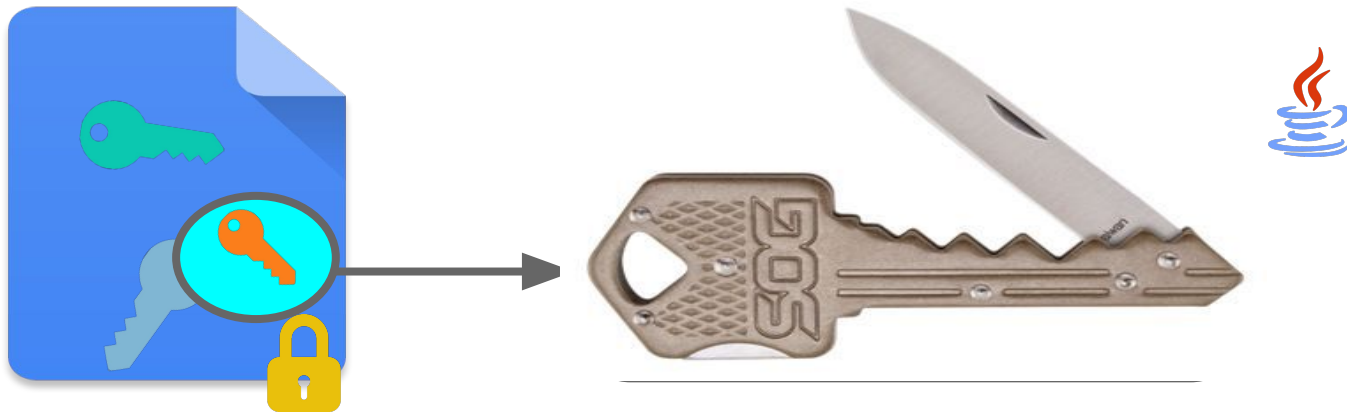
- Oracle PKCS12
- Bouncy Castle BKS
- Bouncy Castle PKCS12

SEQUENCE (3 elem)
SEQUENCE (2 elem)
SEQUENCE (2 elem)
OBJECT IDENTIFIER 1.3.14.3.2.26 sha1 (OIW)
NULL
OCTET STRING (20 byte) C9C2AF5A...
OCTET STRING (20 byte) 7B223BBC...
INTEGER 1024

Iteration Count = $2^{31}-1$
DoS the application
loading the keystore!

ASN.1 Str...

JCEKS Secret Keys Code Exec

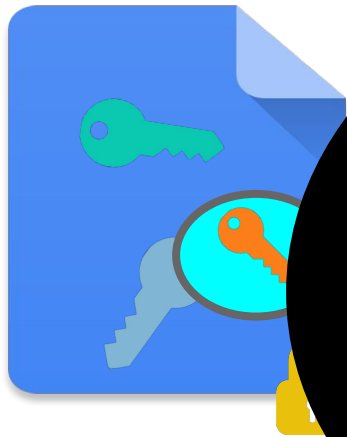


KeyStore Load Mechanism

- **deserialize** each SealedObject
- then perform **Integrity Check**

- **Command execution**
JDK≤1.7.21 & JDK≤1.8.20
- **DoS JDK>1.8.20**
- **Fixed Oct 2017 CPU**

JCEKS Code Exec after Decrypt



JCEKS

Rebrand ;)

Java Code
Execution
KeyStore

Object

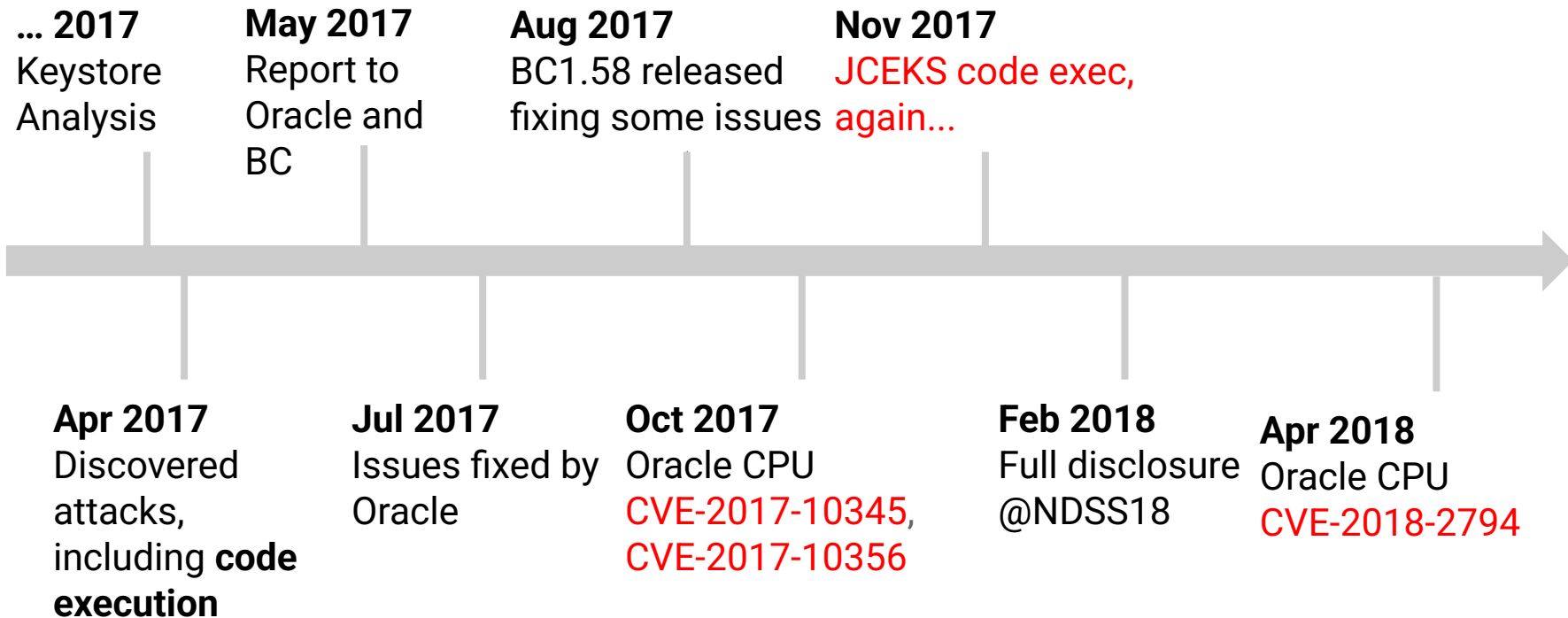


Deserialize of SecretKey

- Extended **classpath**
- Use gadgets from any **3rd-party library**

**Command execution on
latest JDK if integrity &
key password are known!**

Java keystore vulnerabilities (NDSS18)



(For more information see the [paper](#) and the [presentation](#) at NDSS18)

Responses

CVE-2017-10356

CVSS 6.2

- Oracle Keytool, **warning** on JKS/JCEKS
 - The JCEKS keystore uses a proprietary format. It is recommended to migrate to PKCS12 which is an industry standard format [...]
- Oracle JCEKS KDF params for PBE
 - from 20 to **200K iterations** (max 5M)
- Oracle PKCS12
 - from 1024 to **50K** iterations for PBE (max 5M)
 - from 1024 to **100K** iterations for HMAC (max 5M)

- Fix(es) to the Oracle JCEKS code execution
- Similar improvements in **Bouncy Castle**

CVE-2017-10345

CVSS 3.1

CVE-2018-2794

CVSS 7.7

Biometrics

Something inherent. Check **biometric** features of users

- Signatures, fingerprints, voice, face, hand geometry, retinal patterns, iris, ...

Biometrics

1. **Enrollment:** features are extracted and stored in database
2. **Verification:** features are extracted and compared with the stored ones

A delicate balance:

No impersonation (false positives)
but correct users should be identified
most of the times (no false negative)

Problem: A breach in the biometric database has **high impact**:

- biometric data is unique, belongs to users
- differently from passwords it cannot be changed if leaked

New classes of attacks: [adversarial machine learning](#)