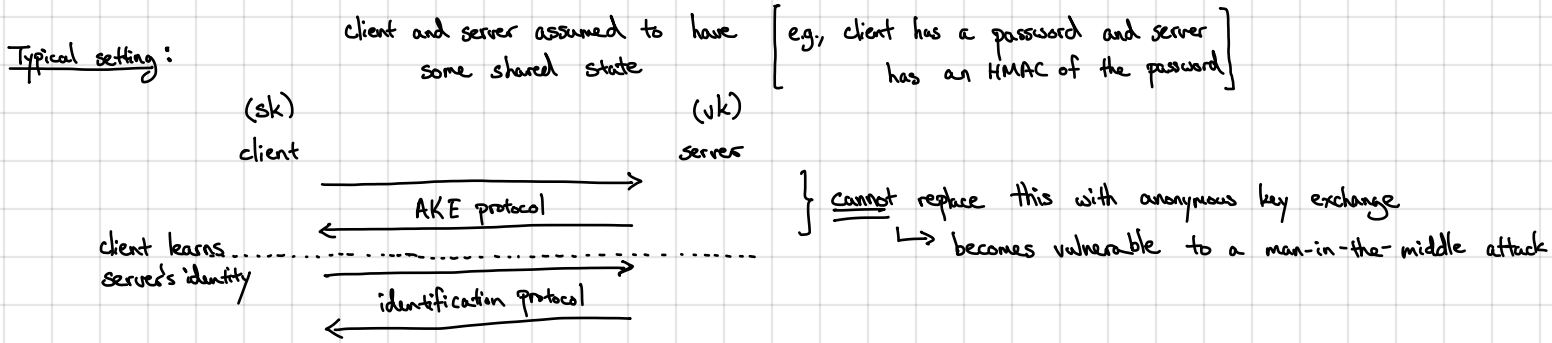


TLS 1.3 and authenticated key-exchange protocols on the Internet typically provide one-sided authentication (i.e., client learns id of the server, but not vice versa)

Question: how does the client authenticate to the server (without providing a certificate)

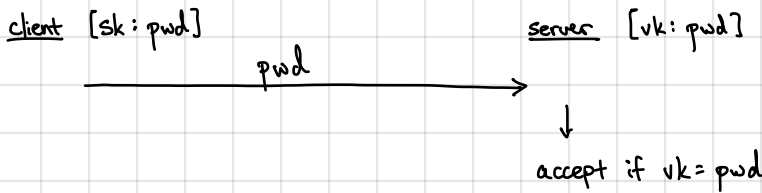
↳ e.g., how does client login to a web service?



Threat models: Adversary's goal is to authenticate to server

- Direct attack: adversary only sees vk and needs to authenticate
(e.g., physical analogy: door lock - adversary can observe the lock, does not see the key sk)
- Eavesdropping attack: adversary gets to observe multiple interactions between honest client and the server
(e.g., physical analogy: wireless car key - adversary observes communication between car key and car)
- Active attack: adversary can impersonate the server and interact with the honest client
(e.g., physical analogy: fake ATM in the mall - honest clients interact directly with the adversary)

Simple (insecure) password-based protocol:



Not secure even against direct attacks! Adversary who learns vk can authenticate as the client [adversary who breaks into server] [learns user's password!]

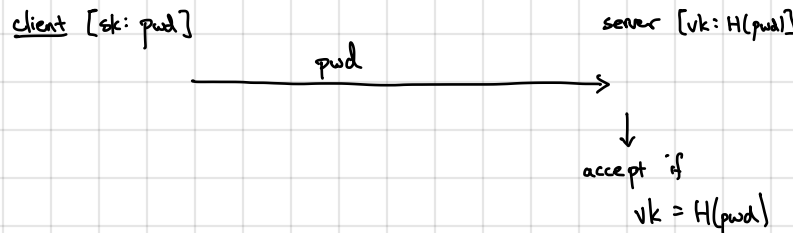
NEVER STORE PASSWORDS IN THE CLEAR!

Slightly better solution: hash the passwords before storing

server maintains mappings Alice $\mapsto H(\text{pwd}_{\text{Alice}})$

Bob $\mapsto H(\text{pwd}_{\text{Bob}})$

where H is a collision-resistant hash function



If passwords have high entropy, then hard to recover pwd from $H(\text{pwd})$ [by one-wayness of H]

↳ But not true in practice...

Users often choose weak passwords (e.g., 123456, password, 123456789, ...)

↳ With a dictionary of 360 million entries, can cover about 25% of user passwords
(3% choose 123456)

(10% choose among top 25 common passwords)

} Based on password hashes that have been leaked from compromised databases

Simple hashing vulnerable to "offline dictionary attack":

adversary computes table $(\text{pwd}, H(\text{pwd}))$ for common passwords — completely offline
given $H(\text{pwd})$, can now invert with a single lookup if pwd is contained in the database

for LinkedIn breach in 2012, attacker stole password file with ~6 million passwords

(all passwords hashed using single iteration of unsalted SHA-1) → 90% of passwords recovered in ~6 days!

Problem: One-time precomputation (computing the lookup table) can be reused to compromise many passwords

Overall cost of attack: $O(m+n)$ where m is the dictionary size and n is the number of passwords to attack

Defense #1: Salt passwords before hashing: namely when storing password pwd , sample salt $\overset{r}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^n$ and store
 $(\text{salt}, H(\text{salt} \parallel \text{pwd}))$ on the server

Note: Salt is a public value (needed for verification)

↑
typically, $n \geq 64$

Offline dictionary attack no longer effective since every salt value induces different set of hash values

Overall cost of dictionary attack: $O(mn)$ — need to re-hash dictionary for every salt

Defense #2: Use a slow hash function [SHA-1 is very fast — enables fast brute-force search]

— PBKDF2 (password-based key-derivation function): iterate a cryptographic hash function many times:

(or bcrypt)

$\text{PBKDF2}(\text{pwd}, \text{salt}) : \underbrace{H(H(\dots H(\text{salt} \parallel \text{pwd}) \dots))}_{\text{can use 100,000 or 1,000,000 iterations of SHA-256}}$

can use 100,000 or 1,000,000 iterations of SHA-256

honest user only needs to evaluate hash function once per authentication; adversary evaluates many times

Drawback: custom hardware can evaluate SHA-256 very fast

— scrypt (more recent: Argon2i): slow hash function that needs lots of memory (space) to evaluate

↳ custom hardware do not provide substantial savings (limiting factor is space, not compute)

Can also use a keyed hash function (e.g., HMAC with key stored in HSM)

↳ ensures adversary who does not know key cannot brute force at all!

Best practice: Always salt passwords

Always use a slow hash function (e.g., PBKDF2, scrypt) or keyed hash function or both!

$\$cur = \text{'password'}$

$\$cur = \text{md5}(\$cur)$ raw MD5 hash — not secure!

$\$salt = \text{randbytes}(20)$

$\$cur = \text{hmac_sha1}(\$cur, \$salt)$

$\$cur = \text{remote_hmac_sha256}(\$cur, \$secret)$

$\$cur = \text{scrypt}(\$cur, \$salt)$ slow hash function

$\$cur = \text{hmac_sha256}(\$cur, \$salt)$

Facebook password onion
(circa 2014)

↓
layers gradually added over time to achieve better security
(and probably to avoid password rehashing)

salted, keyed hash function
(key on remote service)

Password-based protocol not secure against eavesdropping adversary
 (adversary sees vk and transcript of multiple interactions between honest prover + honest verifier)

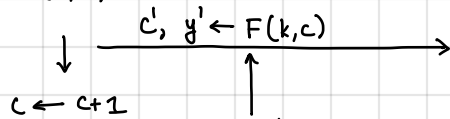
One-time passwords (OTP) (SecurID tokens, Google authenticator, Duo)

Construction 1: Consider setting where verification key vk is secret (e.g., server has a secret)

- Client and server have a shared PRF key k and a counter (initialized to 0):

client (k, c)

server (k, c)



check that $y' = F(k, c')$ and $c' > c$ (no replaying)
 if successful, update $c \leftarrow c'$

} cor key authentication

concretely: can interpret output as 6-digit numbers

- RSA SecurID: stateful token (counter incremented by pressing button on token)

↳ State is cumbersome - need to maintain consistency between client/server

- Google Authenticator: time-based OTP: counter replaced by current time window (e.g., 30-second windows)

If PRF is secure \Rightarrow above protocol secure against eavesdroppers (but requires server secrets)

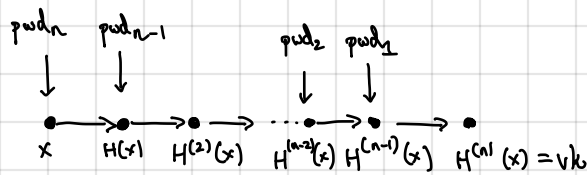
↳ can be problematic: RSA breached in 2011 and SecurID tokens compromised and used to compromise defense contractor Lockheed Martin

Construction 2: No server-side secrets (S/key) "under composition"

- Relies on a hash function (should be one-way)

- Secret key is random input x and counter n ;

Verification key is $H^{(n)}(x) = \underbrace{H(H(\dots H(x)\dots))}_{n \text{ evaluations of } H}$



to verify y : check $H(y) \stackrel{!}{=} vk$
 if successful, update $vk \leftarrow y$

} attacker has to invert H in order to authenticate

- Verification key can be public (credential is preimage of vk)

↳ Can support bounded number of authentications (at most n) - need to update key after n logins

↳ Output needs to be large (~ 80 bits or 128 bits) since password is the input/output to the hash function

- Naively, client has to evaluate H many times per authentication ($\sim O(n)$ times)

↳ Can reduce to $O(\log n)$ hash evaluations in an amortized sense by storing $O(\log n)$ entries along the hash chain

Thus far, only considered passive adversaries, but in reality, adversaries can be malicious

↳ no man-in-the-middle protection

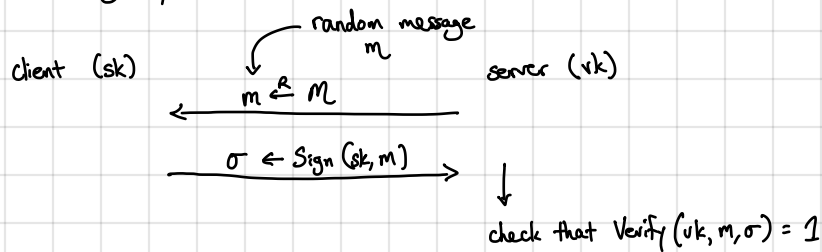
- Adversary can impersonate server (e.g., phishing) and then try to authenticate as client (but cannot interact with client during auth.)

- All protocols thus far are vulnerable [all consist of client sending token that server checks, which can be extracted by] active adversary

- For active security, we use challenge-response

Signature-based challenge-response

- Server stores a verification key vk for digital signature scheme
- Client holds signing key sk



Server asks client to sign a random message

- ↳ Client's signature indicates proof of possession of sk associated with vk
 - ↳ Active adversary that interacts with the client before interacting with the prover cannot forge signatures
- Provides active security but signatures are long (~ 384 bits)

Signature-based challenge response: client "demonstrates knowledge" of signing key

- ↳ we will generalize this to "proving" arbitrary statements