

Defense #1: Salt passwords before hashing: namely when storing password pwd, sample salt $\xleftarrow{R} \{0,1\}^n$ and store
(salt, $H(\text{salt} \parallel \text{pwd})$) on the server
↑
typically, $n \geq 64$

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

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)

$\text{PBKDF2}(\text{pwd}, \text{salt}) : \underbrace{H(H(\dots H(\text{salt} \parallel \text{pwd}) \dots))}$

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 = 'password'

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

\$salt = randbytes(20)

\$cur = hmac_sha1(\$cur, \$salt)

\$cur = remote_hmac_sha256(\$cur, \$secret)

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

\$cur = hmac_sha256(\$cur, \$salt)

salted, keyed
hash function
(key on remote service)

Facebook password onion
(circa 2014)

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

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

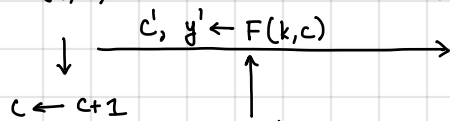
One-time passwords (OTP) (SecurID tokens, Google authenticator, Duo)

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 number

- 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)

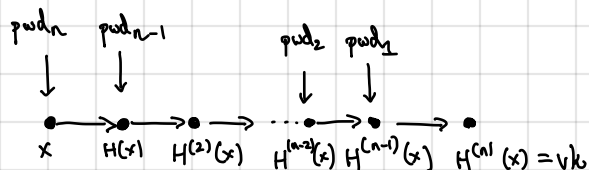
↳ can be problematic: RSA breached in 2011 and SecurID tokens compromised and used to compromise defense contractor Lockheed Martin

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