## Alice Who?

## Authentication Protocols

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## The Menu

- Simple Authentication Protocols


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- Common Pitfalls


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- Ways to Analyze Protocols


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- Needham-Schroeder


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Alice and Bob want to communicate, but can't really be sure that the other is really who he/she says he/she is. So they exchange a series of messages $\Rightarrow$ a protocol.

## Basics (2)

- May be one-sided: Alice may be a computer and Bob may be a user. Bob logs in to Alice; Alice then knows it's Bob, but Bob doesn't (in general) know it's Alice.


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- There might be an intruder-Trudy-that can listen to and inject messages.


## Basics (3): Protocol Notation

$$
\text { Alice } \longrightarrow \operatorname{Bob}: N,\{M, N\}_{K}
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This notation means that the principal Alice transmits to the principal Bob a message containing a nonce $N$, and the plaintext $M$ concatenated with $N$, encrypted under the key $K$.

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A nonce is anything that guarantees the freshness of a message, such as a random number, a serial number, or a challenge received from a third party.
We'll usually distinguish between a principal "Bob" and the identifying information that he sends over the wire, "Bob".

## Basics (4)



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Alice

We won't use this often, because it's often easier to see what happens when using the formula notation, especially when there are more than two parties involved.

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- Telephone calls are usually not (properly) authenticated; otherwise Kevin Mitnlick couldn't have been as successful as he was. (Remember the very first lecture in this course?)


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As you can see, we'll encounter pretty powerful adversaries.

But we'll not defend against all threats. For example, we'll usually not defend against deleted messages (for the practical reason that there's not much that we can do about it).

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- Alice could be in the posession of a unique token that she presents to Bob. (Who you are is what you have.)
- Alice could agree on submitting to a biometric scan, e.g., a fingerprint scan or face scan. (Who you are is what you are.)
.. . What You Know (aka Passwords)
The protocol goes like this: Bob maintains a database of secret passwords. Alice then authenticates herself to Bob like this:

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This attack is not always feasible, but it's feasible enough in so many environments that you must abstain from using this protocol.

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But is this really necessary?
No, because Eve can still just capture the entire encrypted message and replay it to Bob.

## Challenge-Response

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Or, more formally,

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where $R$ is a random challenge.

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- Somehow Bob needs to maintain a database of secrets and keep it secure. In practice, that's bloody difficult.
- Trudy could hijack the connection after the initial exchange.
- If $K$ is derived from a password (that only Alice needs to know), then Eve could mount an offline password-guessing attack.


## Variation 1

Alice $\longrightarrow$ Bob : Alice<br>Bob $\longrightarrow$ Alice : $\{R\}_{K}$<br>Alice $\longrightarrow$ Bob : $R$,

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- Authentication is mutual if $R$ is a recognizable quantity with a limited lifetime.


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Alice $\longrightarrow$ Bob : Alice, $\{t\}_{K}$, where $t$ is a timestamp.

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- Time setting and login are now coupled.


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## Mutual Authentication "Optimized"

We attempt to optimize this protocol:

Alice $\longrightarrow$ Bob : Alice, $R_{2}$
Bob $\longrightarrow$ Alice : $\left\{R_{2}\right\}_{K}, R_{1}$
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- Let the initiator of a protocol be the first to prove his identity.


## Authentication With Public Key

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- Database must still be protected against modification (much easier).


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- Both protocols have the flaw that if Eve can impersonate Bob, she can get arbitrary values signed (or encrypted).
- This is a serious flaw if the Alice's key pair is used for things other than authentication (e.g., for signing bank transfers).


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By combining two protocols that are secure in themselves, you get a system that is not secure at all; and you can design protocols whose deployment threatens the security of a system that is already in place!

For people who like to sound clever, we can also say that security isn't closed under composition.

## Mutual Authentication With Public Key

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Bob $\longrightarrow$ Alice : $R_{2},\left\{R_{1}\right\}_{\text {Alice }}$
Alice $\longrightarrow$ Bob : $R_{1}$

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In an obvious variation, Alice could send $R_{2}$ and Bob could return $\left[R_{2}\right]_{\text {Bob }}$; Bob would then send $R_{1}$ and Alice would return $\left[R_{1}\right]_{\text {Alice }}$.

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- With a Key Distribution Center (KDC);
- With Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)


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At the same place, one can store information that would enable Alice to learn Bob's public key:

- Encrypted with a key derived from Alice's password;
- Signed with Alice's private key.


## Mediated Authentication

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After this exchange, Alice and Bob can (must) authenticate themselves.

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In practice, it's impractical to use the protocol like this:

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Therefore, Trent will in general return to Alice not only $\left\{\text { Use } K_{A B} \text { for Bob }\right\}_{\text {Alice }}$, but also $t=\left\{\text { Use } K_{A B} \text { for Alice }\right\}_{\text {Bob }}$, which is called a ticket.

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Alice will then present $t$ when she initiates a connection to Bob.
Both will then have to complete a mutual authentication.

## Needham-Schroeder (1)

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- It's a classic mediated authentication protocol with mutual authentication.
- It's been a model for many other protocols.
- It's used in Kerberos and Kerberos is used in Active Directory $\Longrightarrow$ huge installed base.
- We'll analyze this protocol in some detail in order to understand its strengths and weaknesses.


## Needham-Schroeder (2)

```
Alice }\longrightarrow\mathrm{ Trent : N1, Alice wants Bob
    Trent : Invents K}\mp@subsup{K}{AB}{
```



```
    Alice : Verifies N}\mp@subsup{N}{1}{}\mathrm{ , extracts }\mp@subsup{K}{AB}{}\mathrm{ and ticket
    Alice }\longrightarrow\mathrm{ Bob : {K KAB,Alice } Bob, {N N } }\mp@subsup{\mp@code{AB}}{}{\prime
    Bob : Extracts K}\mp@subsup{K}{AB}{}\mathrm{ from ticket
    Bob }\longrightarrow\mathrm{ Alice : {N N - 1,N N} }\mp@subsup{\mp@code{AB}}{}{\prime
    Alice }\longrightarrow\mathrm{ Bob : {N N-1} AB
```

where $\left\{K_{A B}, \text { Alice }\right\}_{\text {Bob }}$ is Trent's ticket for Alice's conversation
with Bob and the $N_{i}$ are nonces, i.e., quantities used only once.

## Analysis of Needham-Schroeder (1)

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> Eve $\longrightarrow$ Alice $:\left\{\text { Bob, } K_{A B},\left\{K_{A B}, \text { Alice }\right\}_{\text {Bob }}\right\}_{\text {Alice }}$
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and Eve will now be able to decrypt the conversation between Alice and Bob. This can't happen with $N_{1}$ used in the first step, because Eve can't encrypt $N_{1}$.

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\begin{aligned}
\text { Alice } \longrightarrow \text { Trudy }: & \text { Alice wants Bob } \\
\text { Trudy }: & \text { Intercepts and changes the message } \\
\text { Trudy } \longrightarrow \text { Trent }: & \text { Alice wants Trudy } \\
\text { Trent } \longrightarrow \text { Trudy }: & \left\{K_{A B},\left\{K_{A B}\right\}_{\text {Trudy }}\right\}_{\text {Alice }} \\
\text { Trudy } \longrightarrow \text { Alice }: & \left\{K_{A B},\left\{K_{A B}\right\}_{\text {Trudy }}\right\}_{\text {Alice }} \\
\text { Trudy }: & \text { Impersonates Bob }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Nonces

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It is possible to introduce weaknesses into protocols if the nonces have the wrong properties.

Nonce types are:

- a timestamp;
- a sequence number; and
- a large random number.


## Large Random Numbers as Nonces (1)

Why can we use a random number as a nonce when there is a chance that it would be reused?

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Why can we use a random number as a nonce when there is a chance that it would be reused?

Back-of-envelope-calculation: Assume $n$-bit random numbers; there are $N=2^{n}$ of them. The probability that $k$ independent draws out of $N$ numbers yield all different numbers is $N(N-1) \cdots(n-k+1) / N^{k}$.

The relative difference between $N$ and $N-k+1$ is
$\delta=(k-1) / N$. (I.e., $N-k+1=(1-\delta) N$.) Let's assume we generate a 128 -bit nonce every millisecond for 1000 years. That will be $1000 \cdot 366 \cdot 24 \cdot 3600 \cdot 1000=31622400000000$ or about $2^{45}$ nonces. With $N=2^{128}$ and $k=2^{45}$, we have $\delta \approx 2^{45} / 2^{128}=2^{-83}$.

## Large Random Numbers as Nonces (2)

$N-k+1 \approx\left(1-2^{-83}\right) N$; therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
N(N-1) \cdots(N-k+1) / N^{k} & \geq(N-k+1)^{k} / N^{k} \\
& \approx\left(1-2^{-83}\right)^{k} N^{k} / N^{k} \\
& \approx\left(1-2^{-83}\right)^{k} \\
& \approx 1-k \cdot 2^{-83} \\
& \approx 1-2^{45} \cdot 2^{-83} \\
& =1-2^{-38}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Timestamps and Sequence Numbers

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Alice $\longrightarrow$ Bob : Alice
Bob $\longrightarrow$ Alice : $\{R\}_{A B}$
Alice $\longrightarrow$ Bob : $R$

## Breaking The Protocol

If Bob used sequence numbers, Eve could listen in to only one exchange between Alice and Bob. Then she would know the current value of $R$ and could impersonate Alice:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Eve } \longrightarrow \text { Bob }: \text { Alice } \\
& \text { Bob } \longrightarrow \text { Eve }:\{R+1\}_{A B} \\
& \text { Eve } \longrightarrow \text { Bob }: R+1
\end{aligned}
$$

Eve can answer " $R+1$ " in step 3 , even though she can't decrypt $\{R+1\}_{A B}$, because she can predict what the challenge will be.

## Random Numbers

If you use random numbers for nonces, be sure to pick good ones. We've had two lectures on how to do that, so we won't talk about that any further.

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- Number of public-key encryptions
- Number of bytes encrypted with a secret key
- Number of bytes to be hashed
- Number and size of messages transmitted
- Number of connection buildups and teardowns


## Checklist

A checklist can be found in Charlie Kaufman, Radia Perlman, Mike Speciner, Network Security, Prentice-Hall. (The second edition has the list on p. 285f.)

## Summary

- Simple Authentication Protocols


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- Common Pitfalls


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- Needham-Schroeder


## Resources

- Ross Anderson, Security Engineering, John Wiley \& Sons


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