



# **IT-Security**

## **Chapter 5: Authentication and Key Establishment**

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# Overall Lecture Context

- **In the last chapters we covered**

- ▶ Symmetric and asymmetric mechanisms to provide
- ▶ Integrity protection
  - Message Authentication Codes and digital signatures schemes
- ▶ Confidentiality
  - Symmetric and asymmetric encryption schemes

- **All these mechanisms require keys to be distributed**

- ▶ to the authentic entities

- **In this chapter we learn how to**

- ▶ authenticate entities, i.e., check that they are who they claim to be
- ▶ establish keys between different entities

# Overview

- **Building Blocks for Entity Authentication**

- ▶ Definition of Entity Authentication
- ▶ MAC-based authentication
- ▶ Signature-based authentication

- **Key Distribution with trusted Third Parties**

- ▶ Key Distribution Centers
- ▶ Certificates and Public Key Infrastructures

- **Authenticated Session Key Establishment**

- ▶ Definitions around session key establishment
- ▶ Authenticated Diffie Hellman variants
- ▶ Session key establishment w-o DH
- ▶ Session Key derivation principles

- **Password-based authentication**

- ▶ Password-based user authentication
- ▶ Password-based authenticated key establishment
- ▶ Dictionary attacks on password-based authentication

# Definition of Entity Authentication

## Unilateral entity authentication of A to B

- ▶ A (claimant) proves its identity to B (verifier)
- ▶ B is assured that A is currently interacting with B

## Mutual authentication

- ▶ A authenticates to B and B authenticates to A

## Objectives

- ▶ **Correctness**: A can always successfully authenticate to B
- ▶ **Resistance against transferability**: After A authenticated to B successfully, B cannot authenticate as A to C (\*)
- ▶ **Resistance against impersonation**:  $C \neq A$  cannot make B believe that it is A (\*)

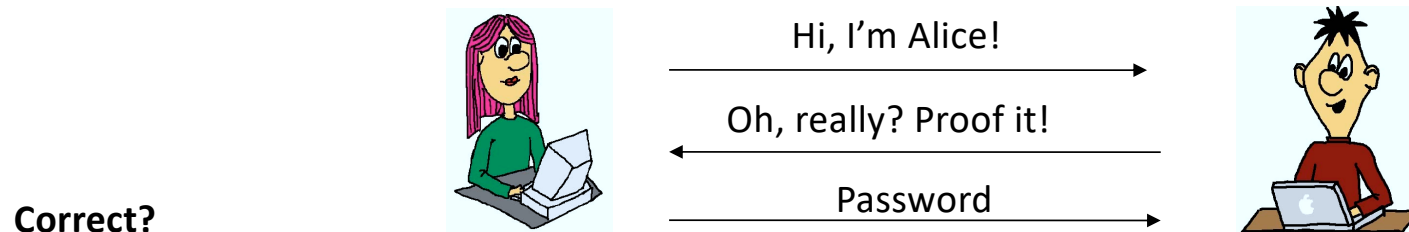
## All three objectives still hold

- ▶ if an attacker has observed multiple authentication instances between A and B

(\*) Except for with negligible probability: guessing is of course always possible

## Example

- Assume **A** and **B** have agreed upon a secret password when they last met
- Now **A** authenticates to **B** with the following protocol



- ▶ Yes!

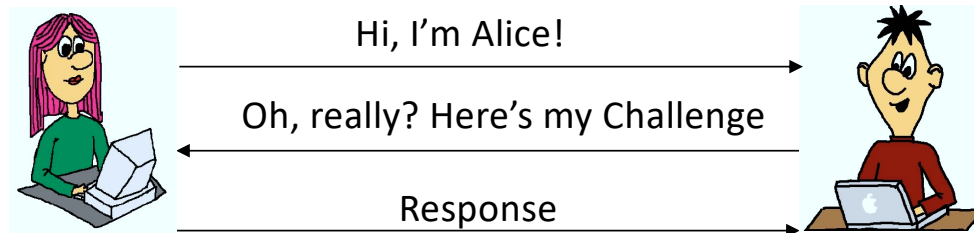
### Resistant against transferability?

- ▶ Yes, at least if Alice does not use the password in multiple places

### Resistant against impersonation?

- ▶ No! The password is sent in the clear so any eavesdropper can impersonate Alice after the first run of the protocol

# Challenge-Response Authentication

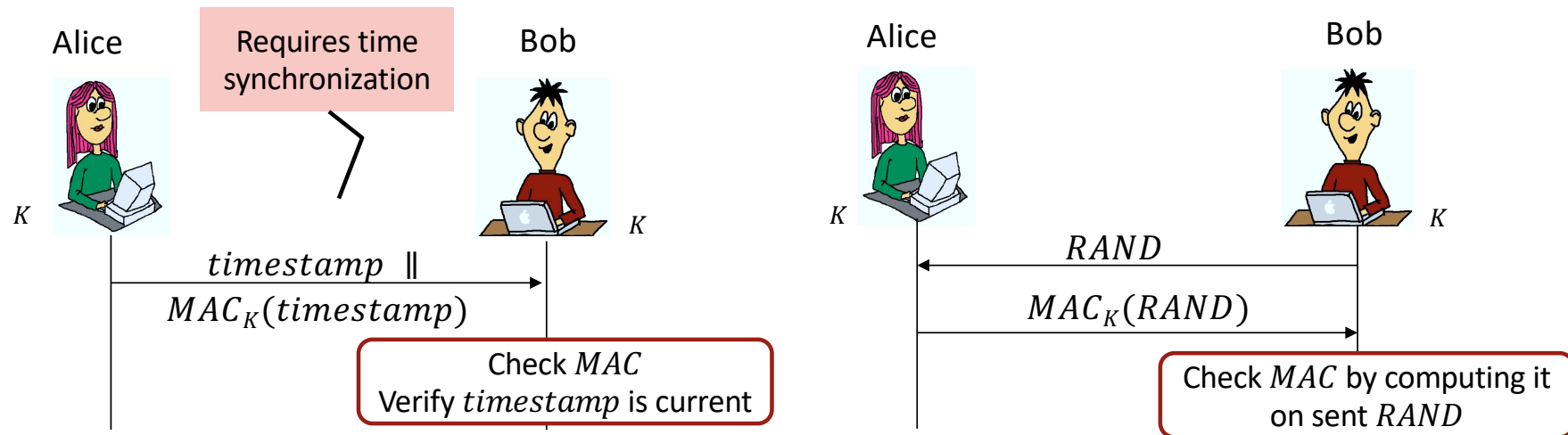


## Idea:

- ▶ **B** generates a fresh challenge
  - E.g., a random number or a time stamp (implicit challenge)
- ▶ **A** proves its identity by computing a response that
  - Depends on the challenge and a secret
  - Secret can be a secret key shared with B, a private key of A,...

**Response Calculation must guarantee that the objectives hold**

## Example Building Blocks for Unilateral Entity Authentication based on shared key K

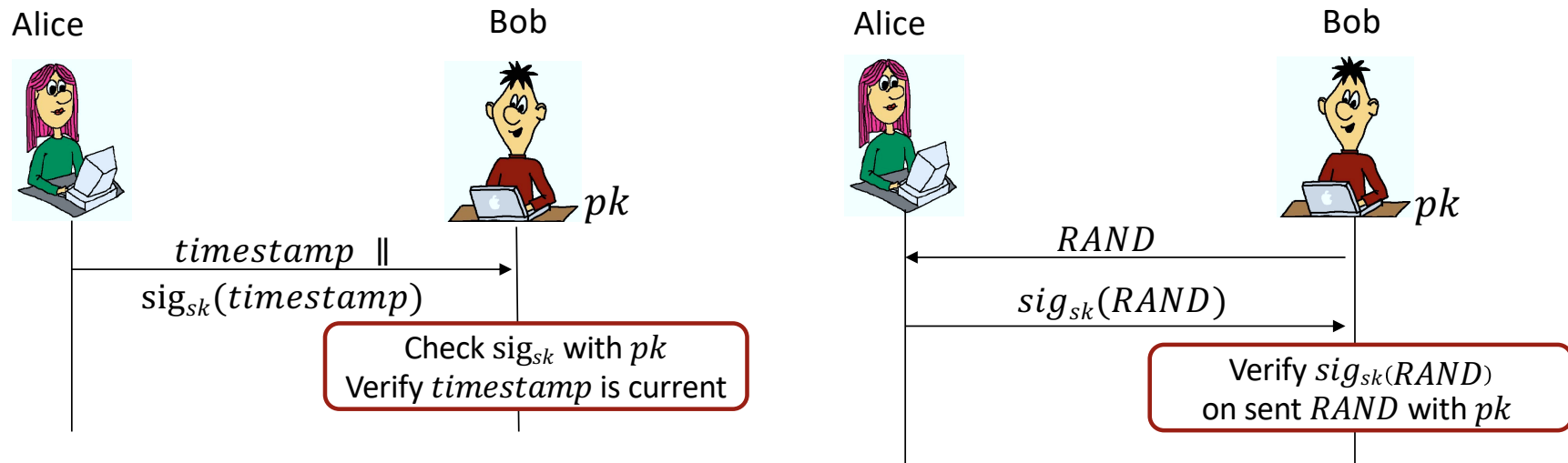


- ▶ Alice computes a *MAC* on timestamp
- ▶ Sends timestamp and *MAC* to Bob
- ▶ Bob verifies *MAC* by computing *MAC* on received timestamp and comparing it to received *MAC*
- ▶ Bob checks if *timestamp* is in an acceptable range around Bob's current time

- ▶ Bob selects a random number *RAND* as challenge and sends it to Alice
- ▶ Alice computes a *MAC* on *RAND* using  $K$
- ▶ Bob verifies that the received *MAC* corresponds to the one he computes using *RAND* as input

# Example Building Blocks for Unilateral Entity Authentication

Unilateral authentication of A to B based on a private key  $sk$  of Alice assuming Bob knows Alice's public key  $pk$



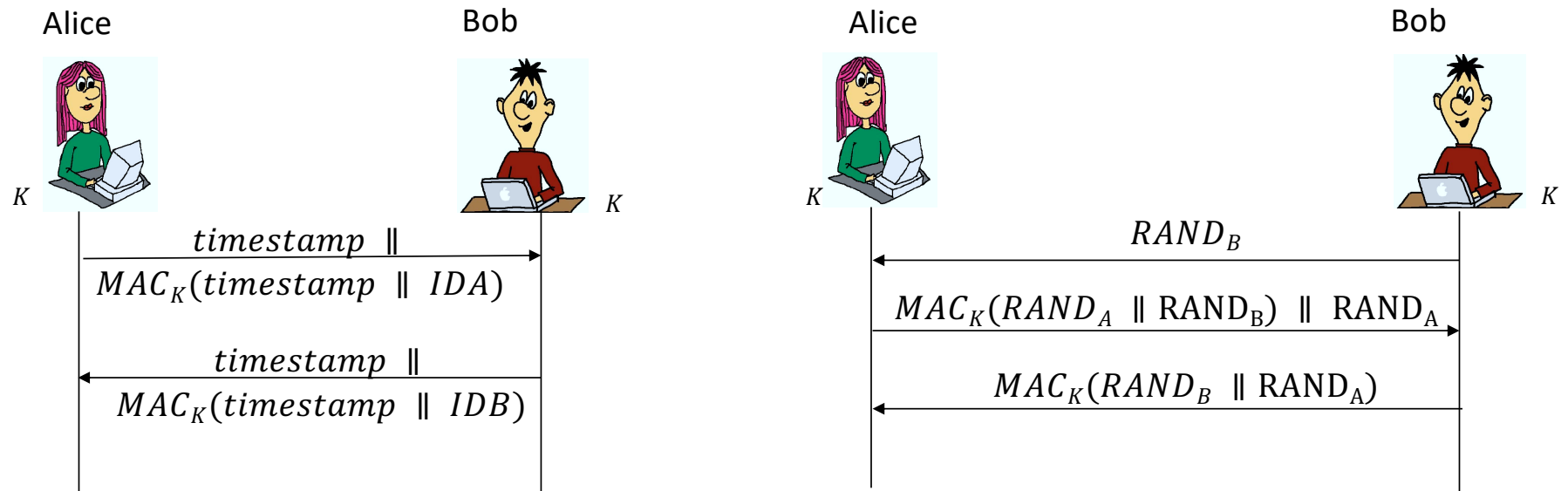
- ▶ Alice computes a signature on the current timestamp (implicit challenge) using  $sk$
- ▶ Sends the  $timestamp$  and the signature to Bob
- ▶ Bob verifies signature with  $pk$  and checks if  $timestamp$  is in an acceptable range

- ▶ Bob selects a random number  $RAND$  as challenge and sends it to Alice
- ▶ Alice computes a signature on  $RAND$
- ▶ Bob verifies that the received signature is a signature on the sent  $RAND$



# Example Building Blocks for Mutual Entity Authentication

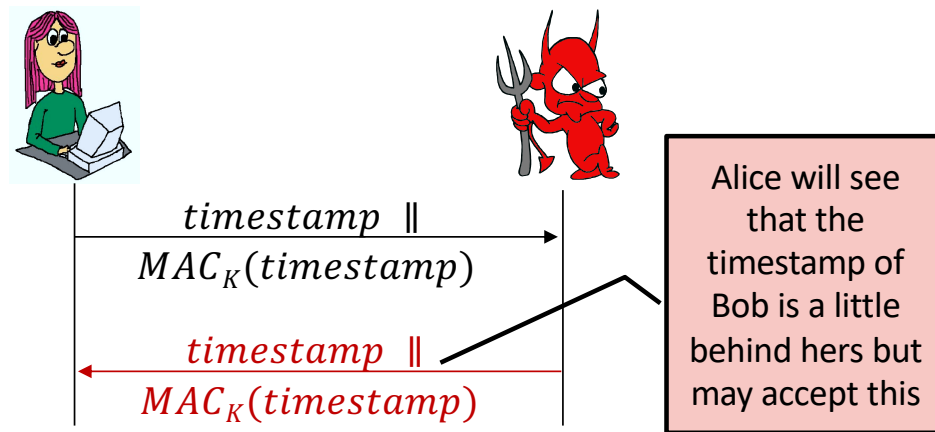
- Mutual authentication of A to B and B to A based on a shared secret key  $K$



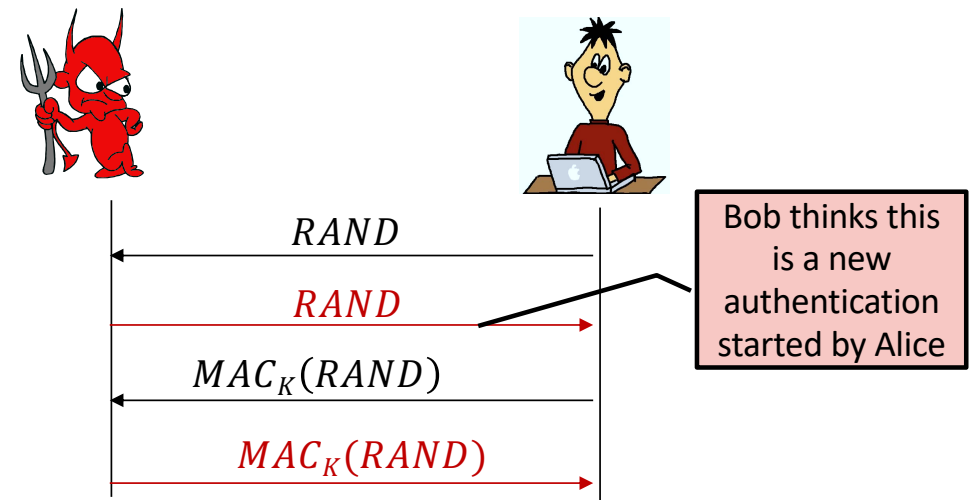
**Does work with signatures just as well**

# Example for Insecure Building Blocks for Mutual Authentication

Simply combining the building blocks for unilateral authentication **MAY NOT be SECURE**



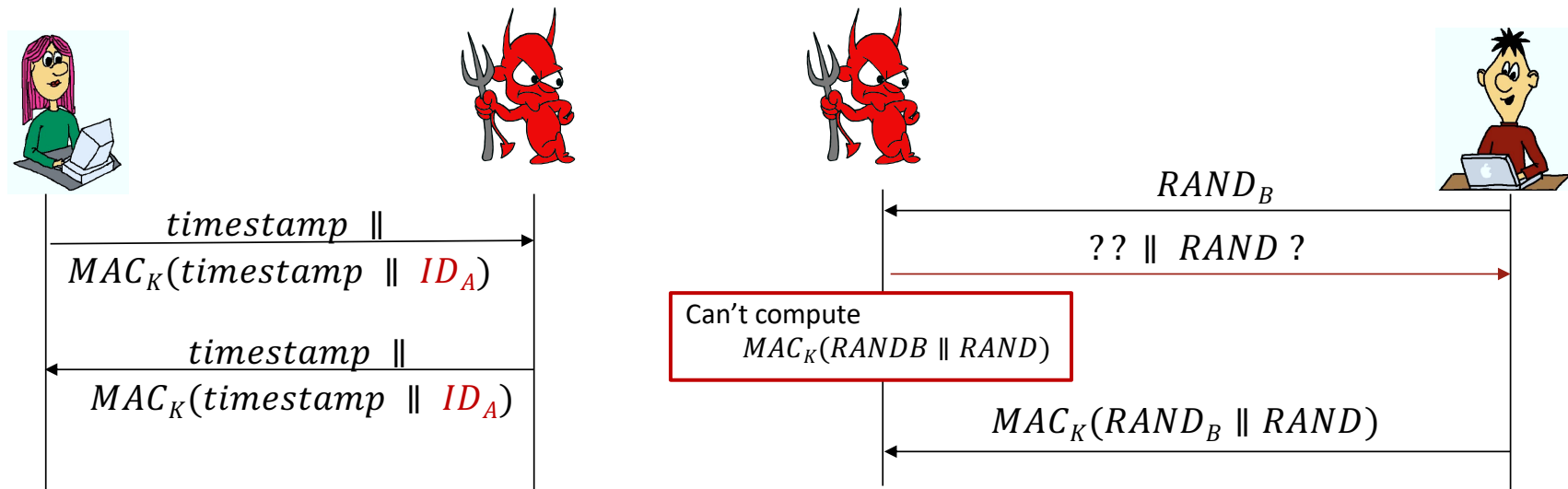
- ▶ Attacker could claim to be Bob and just reflect Alice's message to Alice
- ▶ Not impersonation resistant
- ▶ Need messages of Alice and Bob to be different



- ▶ Attacker could start a second run of the protocol by reflecting  $RAND$  back to Bob
- ▶ Wait for Bob's reply
- ▶ Then reflect the MAC computed by Bob back to Bob

# Protection against Reflection Attacks

- Making A and B compute MACs on different messages, where each message contains input controlled by the other part protects these building blocks from reflection attacks



- ▶ Attacker can only reflect message including Alice's ID which will be detected by Alice

- ▶ Attacker can only reflect with the random number in Bob's order not in the order expected from Alice

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# Entity Authentication Alone is useless!

- ▶ Authentication exchange typically only guarantees that one specific message originates from a particular entity
- ▶ If hash of previously sent messages is included, these can be authenticated as well
- ▶ But: what about future messages exchanged? And what about encryption?
- **Could keep signing messages if signatures are used**
  - ▶ Very inefficient
- **Could keep computing MACs with key K on all messages**
  - ▶ Key K would be used repeatedly on lots of traffic

## Solution: Session Keys

- ▶ Establish new session keys for integrity protection and encryption
- ▶ Thus, create independence across communication sessions
- ▶ Limit amount of data protected under the same key

# Session Key Establishment Protocols

A session **key establishment protocol** is a protocol

- ▶ that establishes a shared secret key between two parties

There are two types of key establishment protocols

- ▶ **Key transport protocols**
  - Key generated by one party, securely transported to the other party
- ▶ **Key agreement protocols**
  - shared key is derived from input of both parties, e.g. like in the Diffie-Hellman **key agreement** protocol

## Examples

- ▶ **Simple key transport protocol**
  - Assume A and B share a long-term key  $K$
  - A selects a session key  $SK$
  - Computes  $E_K(SK)$  and sends it to B
  - B decrypts  $E_K(SK)$  with  $K$  and thus obtains  $SK$
- ▶ **Diffie-Hellman key agreement (Chapter 4)**
  - Each party selects a random private value
  - Computes a public value based on private one
  - Parties exchange the public values
  - Each computes that key as function of own private and other party's public value

# Objectives of Key Establishment Protocols

## Authenticated key Establishment

- ▶ **Entity authentication (see above)**
- ▶ **Implicit key authentication:** a party is assured that no other party but a particular second party may gain access to the established key

## Explicit key authentication

- ▶ Implicit key authentication
- ▶ **Key confirmation:** a party is assured that a second party has possession of the established key

## Additional Objectives

- ▶ **Key freshness:** a party is assured that the key is newly generated and not a replayed old key
- ▶ **Perfect forward secrecy:** a future compromise of long-term keys does not compromise past session keys
- ▶ **Protection against known-key attacks:** the compromise of a past session key does not allow
  - a passive adversary to compromise future session keys
  - an active attacker to impersonate a party in the future

**The objectives can hold for none, only one or both parties**

# Efficiency Considerations

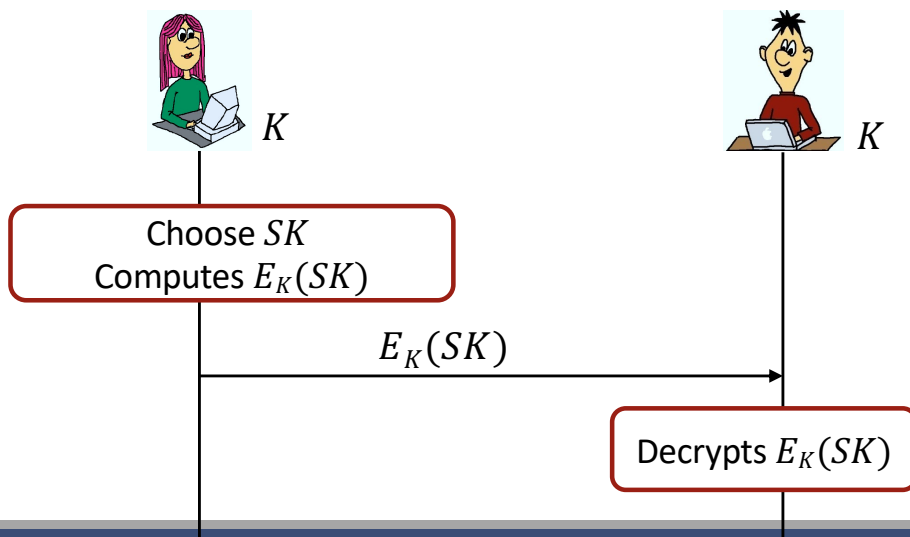
- **When analyzing the efficiency of protocols, we consider**
  - ▶ Number of messages exchanged between parties
  - ▶ Bandwidth required by the messages (total number of bits transmitted)
  - ▶ Complexity of computations that need to be carried out by the parties
  - ▶ Possibility for pre-computation to reduce the online load during protocol execution



# Example: Simple key transport protocol

## Simple key transport protocol

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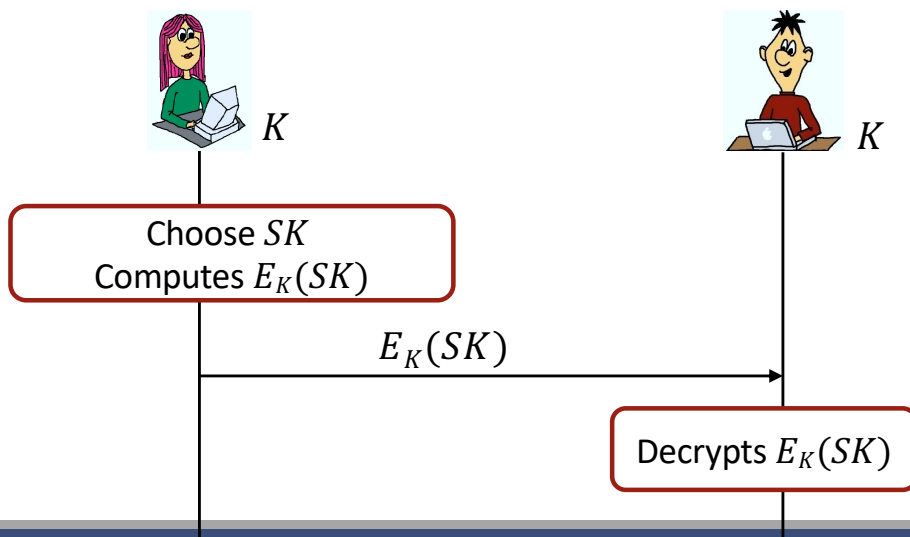
## Properties

- ▶ Implicit key authentication
  - Yes, from both parties' point of view
- ▶ Key freshness
  - Yes, from A's point of view
  - No from B's point of view
- ▶ Perfect forward secrecy
  - No
- ▶ Protection against known keys
  - Past session keys have no influence on new future ones
- ▶ Authenticated key establishment
  - No! No entity authentication (replay possible)

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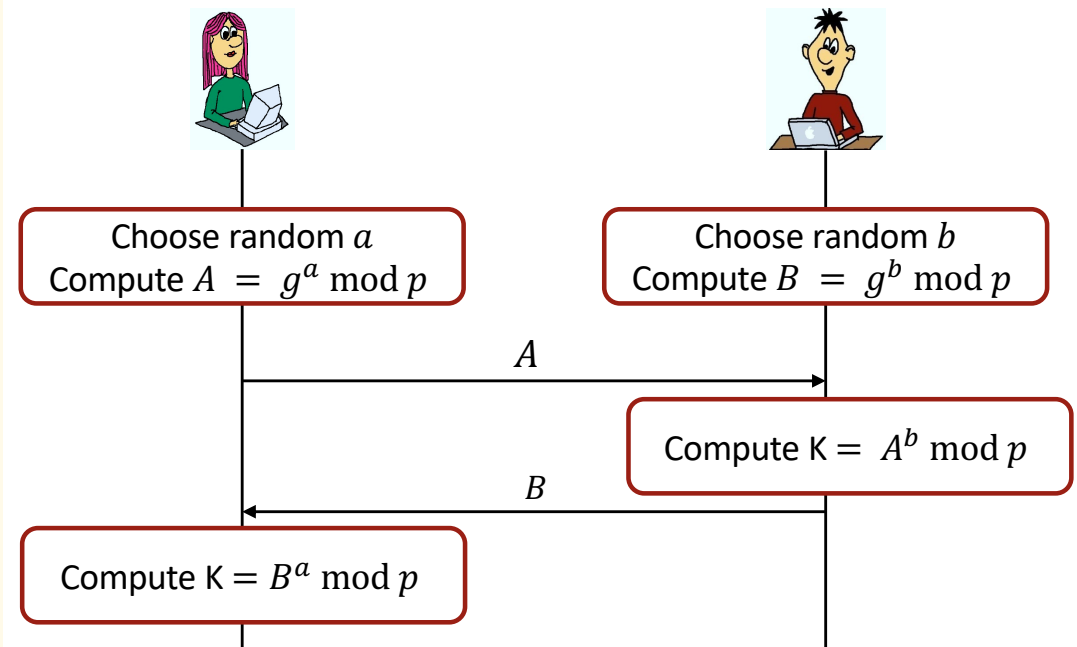


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# Diffie-Hellman Key Agreement

- ▶ Implicit key authentication
  - No
- ▶ Key freshness
  - Yes, from both parties' point of view
- ▶ Perfect forward secrecy
  - Yes, future keys completely independent
- ▶ Protection against known keys
  - Past session keys have no influence on future ones
- ▶ Authenticated key establishment
  - No! No entity authentication (replay possible), no implicit key authentication

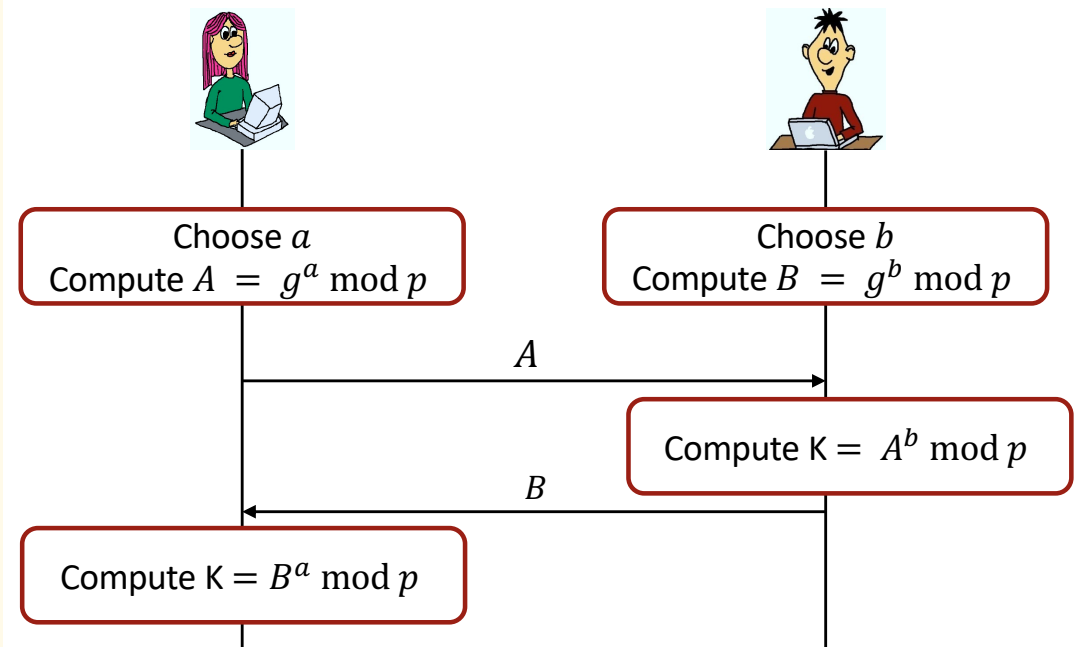


$$\text{As } A^b \text{ mod } p = g^{ab} = g^{ba} = B^a \text{ mod } p$$

**Alice and Bob now share the secret key  $K = g^{ab}$**

# Diffie-Hellman Key Agreement

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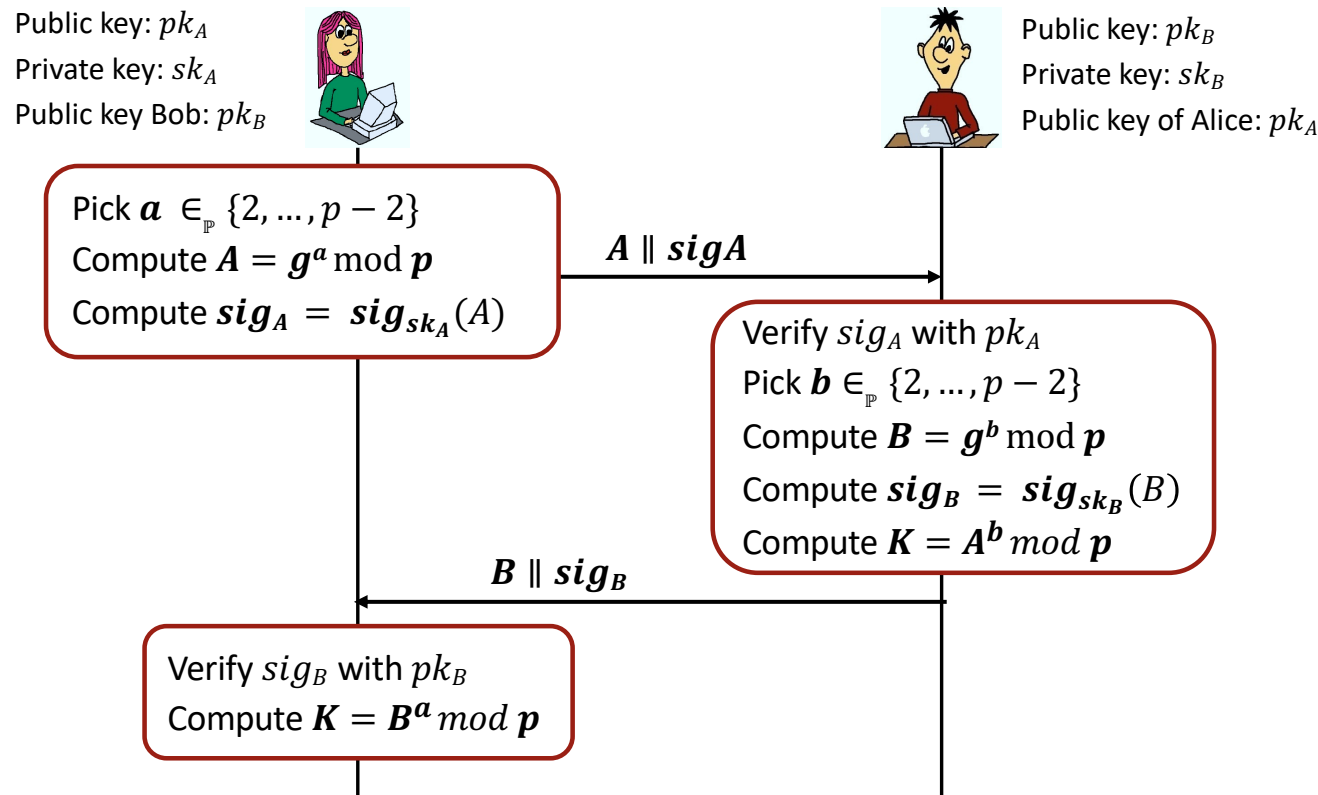
# Diffie-Hellman Key Agreement with Implicit Key Authentication

## • Implicit key authentication

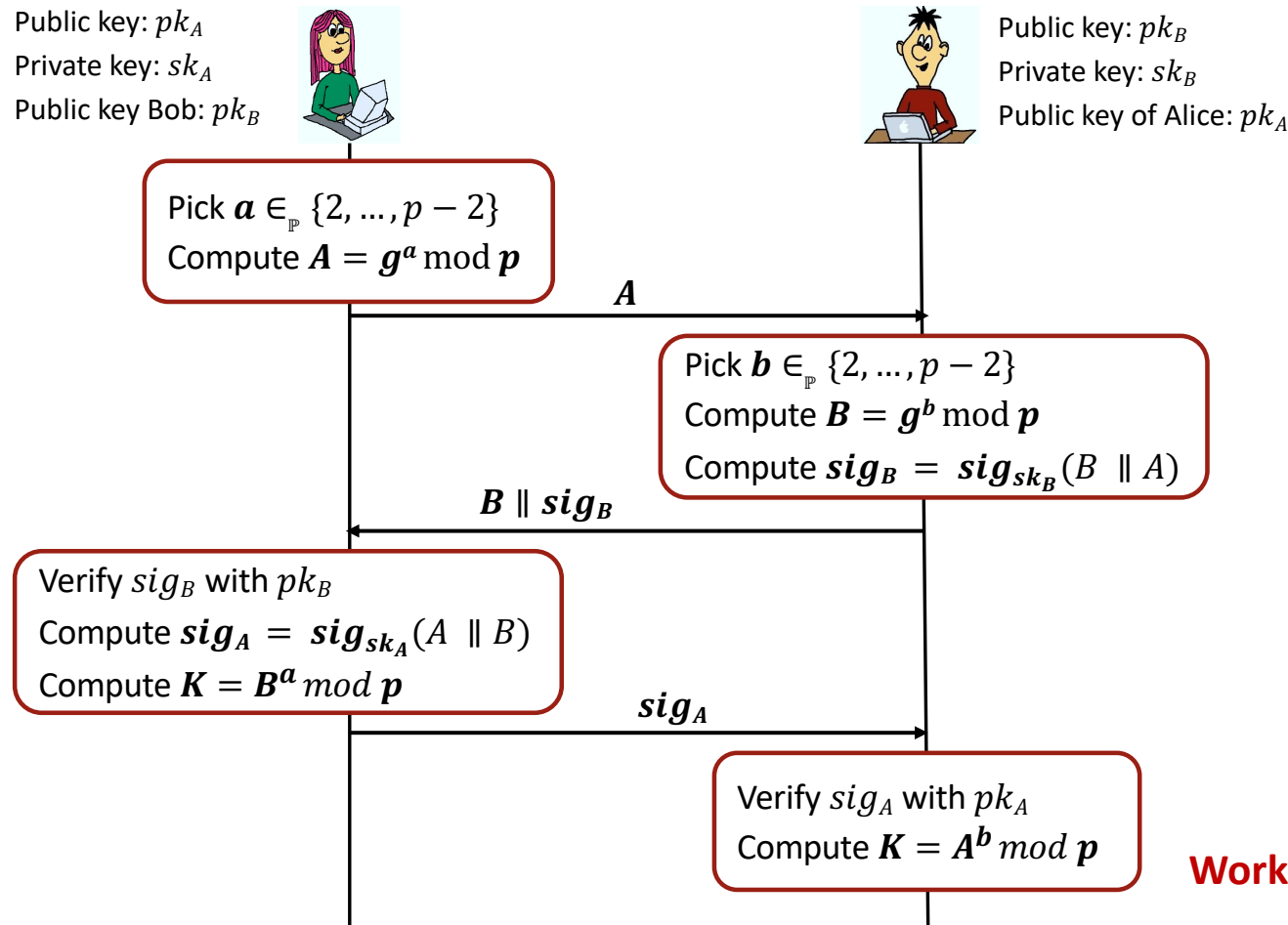
- ▶ Public DH value has been signed by the desired second party
- ▶ Only that party (if any) will be able to compute K

## • But: no entity authentication

- ▶ Old messages could be replayed
- ▶ Parties do not get guarantee that other party interacts right now



# Authenticated Diffie-Hellman Key Agreement with Signatures



- **Mutual authentication between Alice and Bob**

- ▶ See slide 8
- ▶ A and B act as random values here

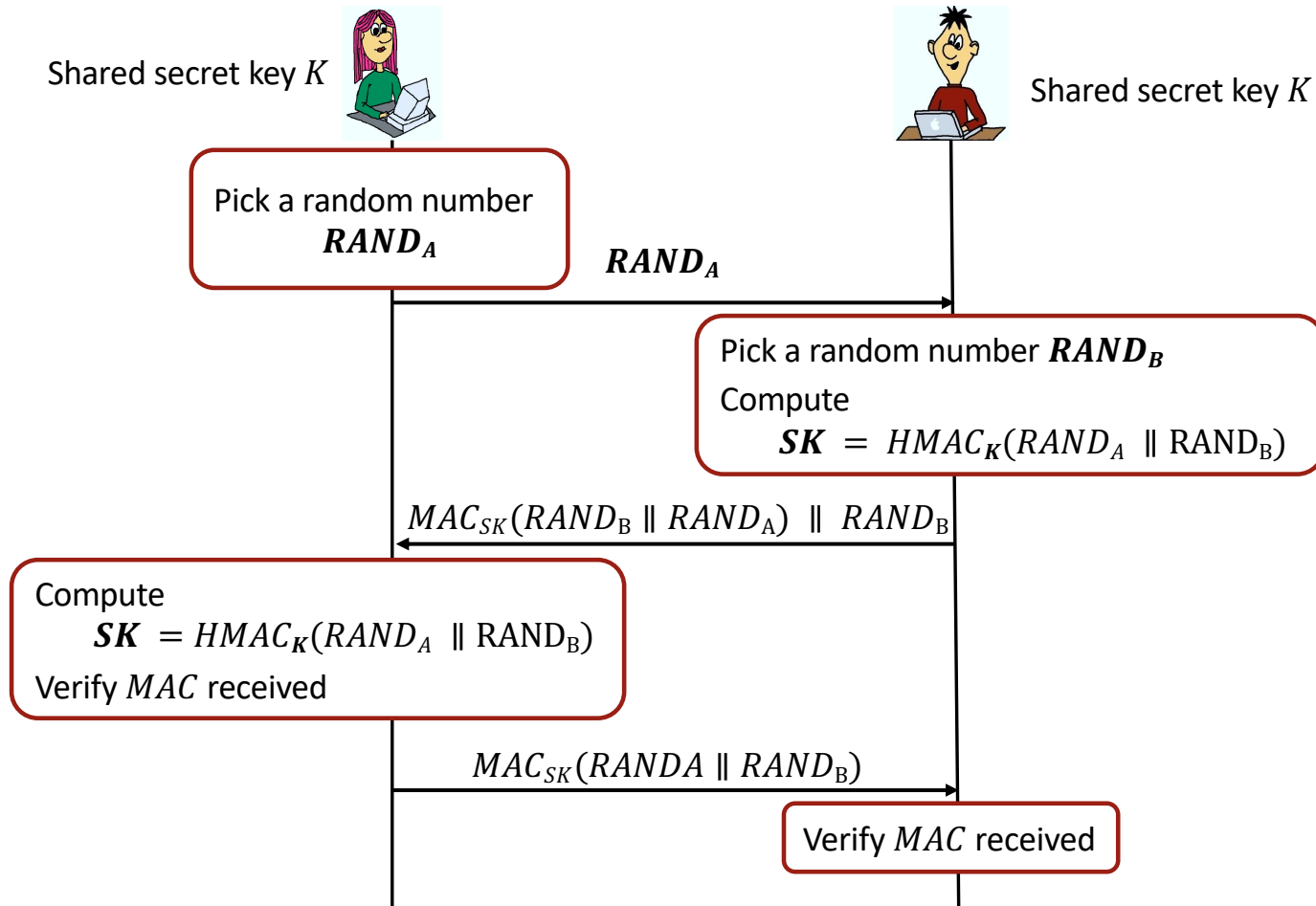
- **Implicit key authentication**

- ▶ Alice is assured that B is from B so only Bob can compute K (and herself)
- ▶ Same holds for Bob

- **Authenticated key agreement**

**Works with a shared key and MACs as well!**

# Example Session Key Establishment without DH

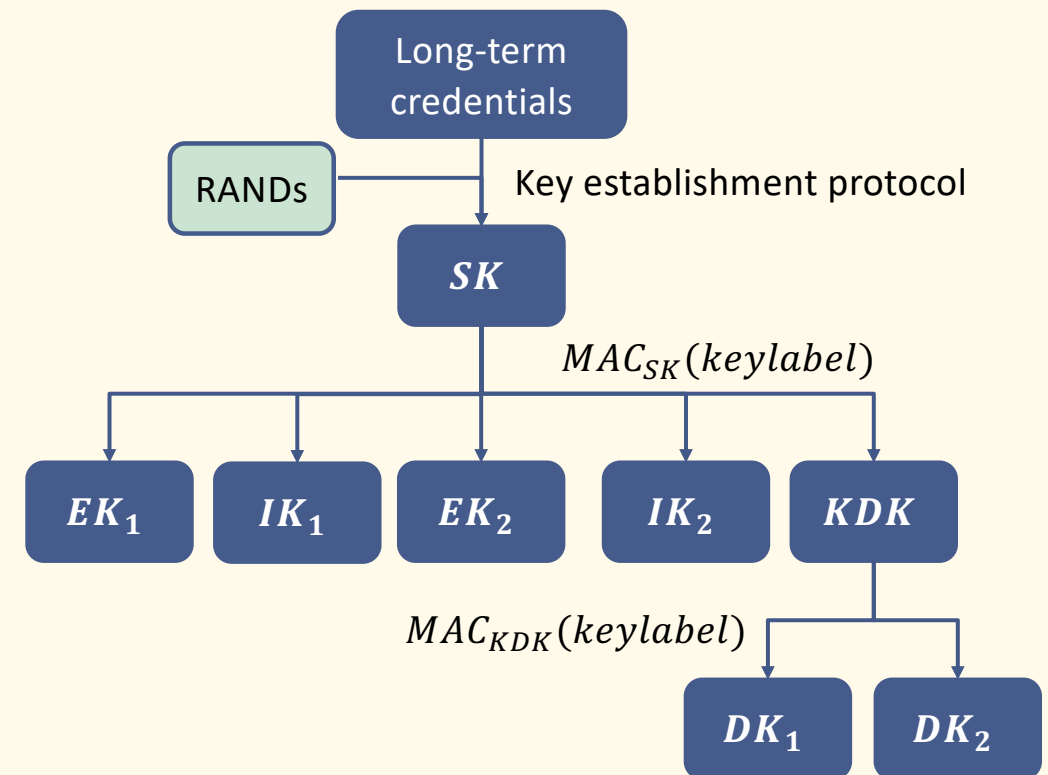


- **Implicit key authentication**
  - ▶ Yes!  $K$  required to compute  $SK$
- **Key freshness**
  - ▶ Yes, for both parties
- **Perfect forward secrecy**
  - ▶ No! If  $K$  broken and exchange recorded, then  $SK$  broken
- **Protection against known keys**
  - ▶ Past session keys have no influence on future ones
- **Authenticated key establishment**
  - ▶ Yes!

# Session Key Derivation: Key Hierarchies

- **Key establishment protocols**
  - ▶ establish a session key  $SK$  based on long term credentials and session specific random numbers
- $SK$  often used to derive additional keys, e.g.
  - ▶ Integrity key and an encryption key
  - ▶ Different keys for different directions
  - ▶ A key derivation key for future derivations
- **Results in key hierarchy**
  - ▶ Key derivation should be efficient
  - ▶ A break of a lower layer key does not break higher layer keys or keys on the same layer

## Example Hierarchy





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# Facilitating Key Distribution with Trusted Third Parties

## Assumption so far: Alice and Bob

- ▶ Either already share a secret (long-term) key
- ▶ Or have an authentic copy of each other's public keys

## Trusted Third Party

- ▶ Mediator to reduce the number of pre-installed keys required

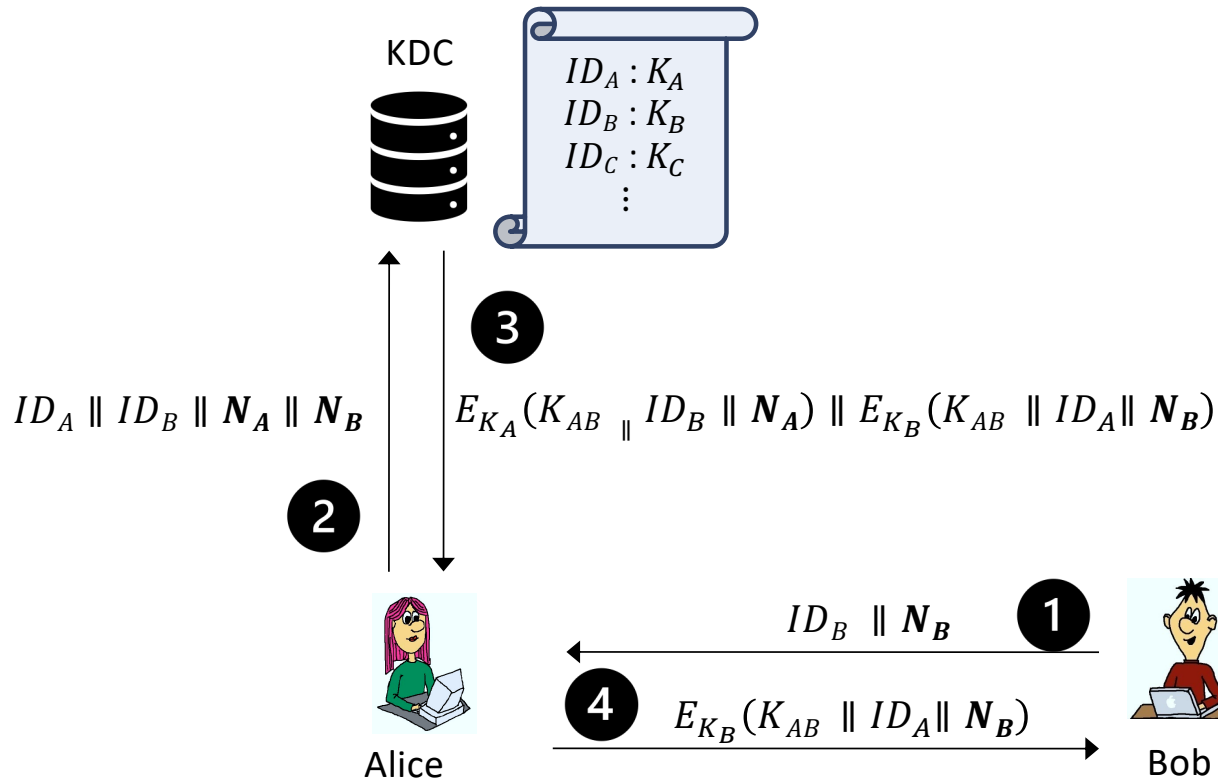
## Symmetric Case: Key Distribution Centers

- ▶ Each client shares a **secret key** with the key distribution center
- ▶ The key distribution center helps to establish keys between its clients

## Asymmetric Case: Certification Authorities

- ▶ Each client has the public key of a certification authority pre-installed
- ▶ The certification authority helps to distribute authentic copies of public keys

# Example: Key Transport with a KDC



- KDC shares a long-term secret key  $K_A$  with Alice and  $K_B$  with Bob
- Upon request, KDC generates a session key  $K_{AB}$  for Alice and Bob
- $E_K$  here stands for an AEAD encryption with  $K$
- $N_B$  and  $N_A$  authenticates KDC to Bob and Alice respectively
- Inclusion of  $ID_B$  in  $E_{K_A}(K_{AB} \parallel ID_B \parallel N_A)$  gives Alice **implicit key authentication** of  $K_{AB}$
- Inclusion of  $ID_A$  in  $E_{K_B}(K_{AB} \parallel ID_A \parallel N_B)$  gives Bob **implicit key authentication** of  $K_{AB}$
- No **perfect forward secrecy**, no **key freshness**, **protection against known key attacks**

# Facilitating Key Distribution with Trusted Third Parties

## Assumption so far: Alice and Bob

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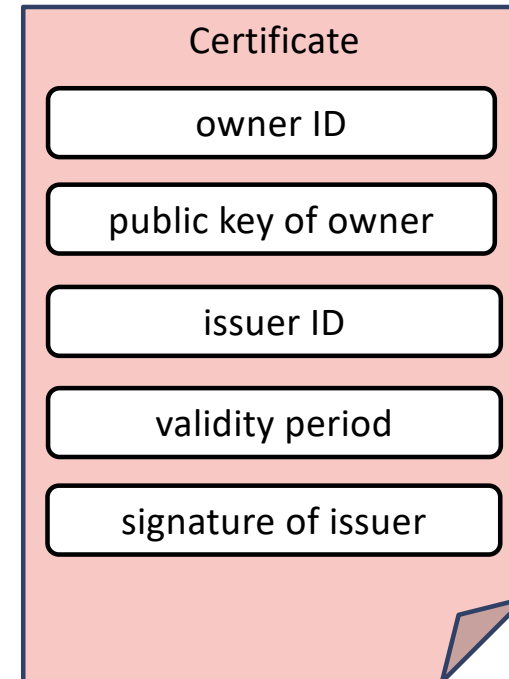
## Asymmetric Case: Certification Authorities

- ▶ Each client has the public key of a certification authority pre-installed
- ▶ The certification authority helps to distribute authentic copies of public keys

# Certification Authorities and Public Key Infrastructures

- **Certification Authority**

- ▶ Signs a certificate for each of its clients
- ▶ Certificate
  - owner ID: identifier of the owner of the public key
  - public key of owner
  - issuer ID: identifier for the CA that issued the certificate
  - Validity period: not before, until dates defining when this certificate becomes valid and when it expires
  - Signature of the issuing CA on all of the content of the certificate, binds public key to owner ID

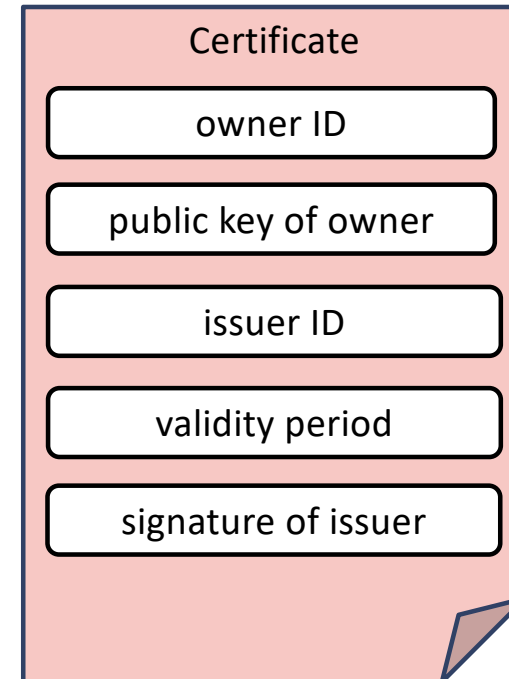


- **Anyone in possession of the public key of the CA**

- ▶ Can verify the **authenticity of the public key** of the owner

# Certificate Verification

- **Anyone in possession of the public key of the CA**
  - ▶ Can verify the **authenticity of the public key** of the owner
- **Certificate verification entails**
  - ▶ checking the validity period of the certificate
  - ▶ checking that the owner ID is as expected
    - E.g., in the context of web does the domain name included as identifier in the certificate match the host name part of the URL of the visited website
  - ▶ checking the signature on the certificate with the public key of the issuer
  - ▶ checking the revocation status of the certificate



# Certificate Revocation Approaches

## Certificates may need to be revoked before they expire

- ▶ Due to stolen devices, precaution after malware infection,...
- ▶ Due to lost passwords unlocking private keys

### Certificate revocation lists = CRLs

- ▶ Issuing CA periodically publishes a signed CRL
- ▶ CRL includes serial numbers of all revoked unexpired certificates
- ▶ Disadvantage: revocation only as timely as period used to publish CRLs

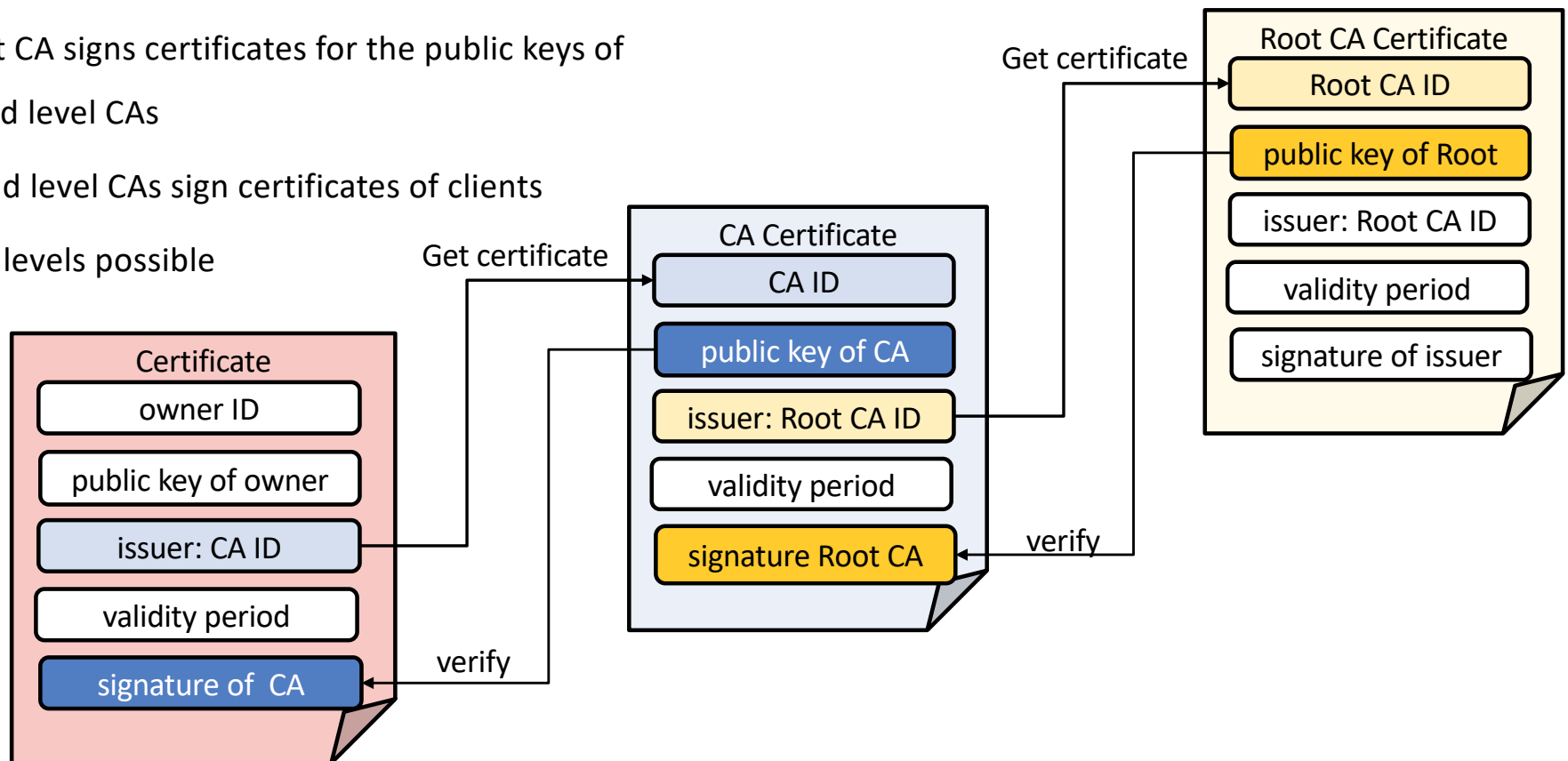
### Online Certificate Status Protocol = OSCP

- ▶ Protocol to obtain immediate feedback on the revocation status of certificates
- ▶ Advantage: very timely revocation possible
- ▶ May add additional overhead and requires connectivity to the OSCP server

# Chains of Certificates

- Hierarchies of certification authorities

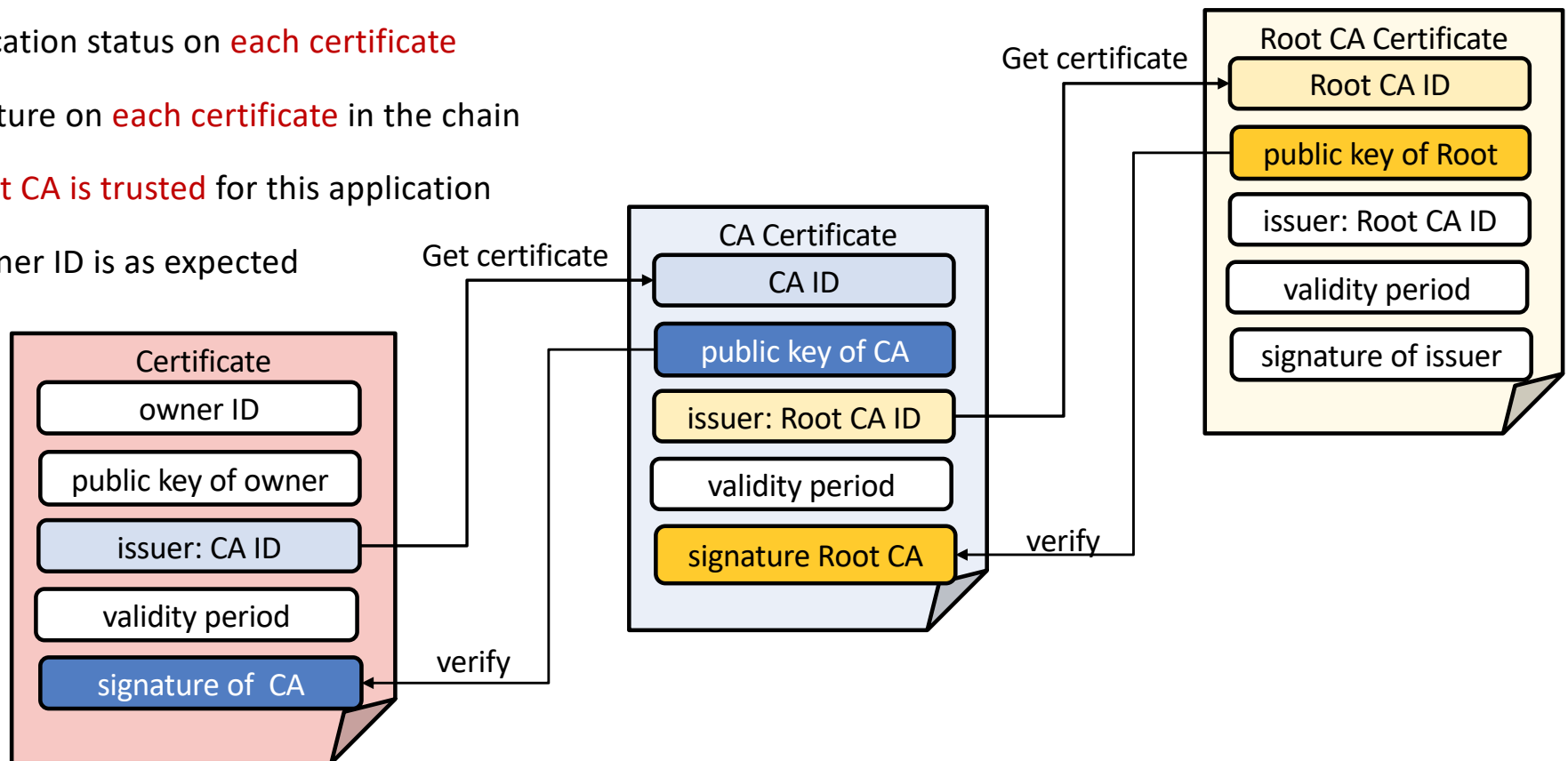
- ▶ A root CA signs certificates for the public keys of second level CAs
- ▶ Second level CAs sign certificates of clients
- ▶ More levels possible





# Verifying Chains of Certificates

- Check validity period of **each certificate**
- Check revocation status on **each certificate**
- Verify signature on **each certificate** in the chain
- Check if **root CA is trusted** for this application
- Check if owner ID is as expected



# Example Secure Authenticated DH with Chain of Certificates

Public key:  $pk_A$   
 Private key:  $sk_A$   
 Public key of root CA:  $pk_{root}$



Public key:  $pk_B$   
 Private key:  $sk_B$   
 Public key of root CA:  $pk_{root}$



Pick  $a \in_{\mathbb{R}} \{2, \dots, p-2\}$   
 Compute  $A = g^a \text{ mod } p$

$A$

Pick  $b \in_{\mathbb{R}} \{2, \dots, p-2\}$   
 Compute  $B = g^b \text{ mod } p$   
 Compute  $sig_B = sig_{sk_B}(B \parallel A)$

$B \parallel sig_B \parallel cert_B$

Verify chain of certificates  $cert_B$   
 Verify  $sig_B$  with  $pk_B$  extracted from B's certificate  
 Compute  $sig_A = sig_{sk_A}(A \parallel B)$   
 Compute  $K = B^a \text{ mod } p$

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 Verify  $sig_A$  with  $pk_A$  extracted from A's certificate  
 Verify  $sig_A$  with  $pk_A$   
 Compute  $K = A^b \text{ mod } p$

- $cert_B / cert_A$ : chain of certificates starting with a certificate for A / B, where the last one is the root certificate

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# Password-based Authentication

## Three main flavors used in practice

- Certificate-based server authentication
- Password-based user authentication
- Vulnerable to dictionary attacks if password file stolen

Used, e.g., in  
HTTPs



- MAC-based authenticated key exchange
- MAC-key derived from password
- Vulnerable to dictionary attacks

Used, e.g., in 4-  
Way-Handshake  
in WPA2 WLAN



- Password-Authenticated Diffie Hellman
- Protected against Dictionary attacks
- Same (one-time) password entered on both devices

Used, e.g., Secure  
Authentication of  
Equals in WPA3



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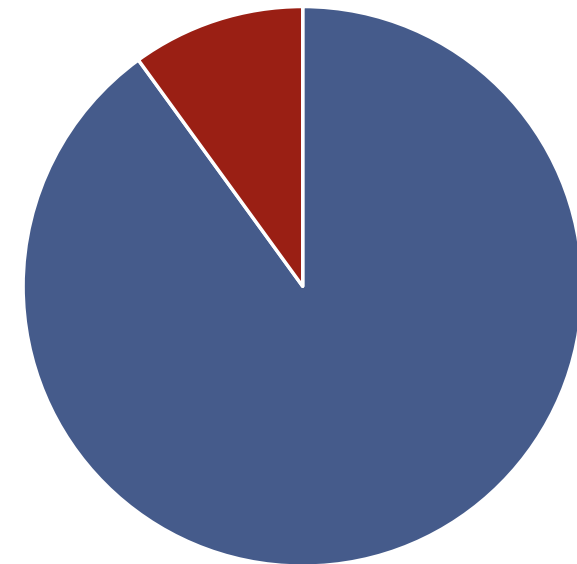
Used, e.g., Secure  
Authentication of  
Equals in WPA3

Advance  
ITSec  
Lecture

# Password Length and Bit-Equivalence

- **Assume users can chose  $n$  character passwords**
  - ▶ small letters = 26 and capital letters = 26
  - ▶ numbers = 10, special characters except for space = 32
- **Then there are  $94^n$  theoretically possible passwords**
  - ▶  $n = 8 \Rightarrow \approx 2^{52}$  possible passwords  $\triangleq$  random secret key of 52 bit
  - ▶  $n = 16 \Rightarrow \approx 2^{104}$  possible passwords  $\triangleq$  random secret key of 104 bit
- **Users tend NOT to select passwords randomly!**
  - ▶ Mainly because they cannot remember random passwords longer than 8 characters
  - ▶ And on average only one of these

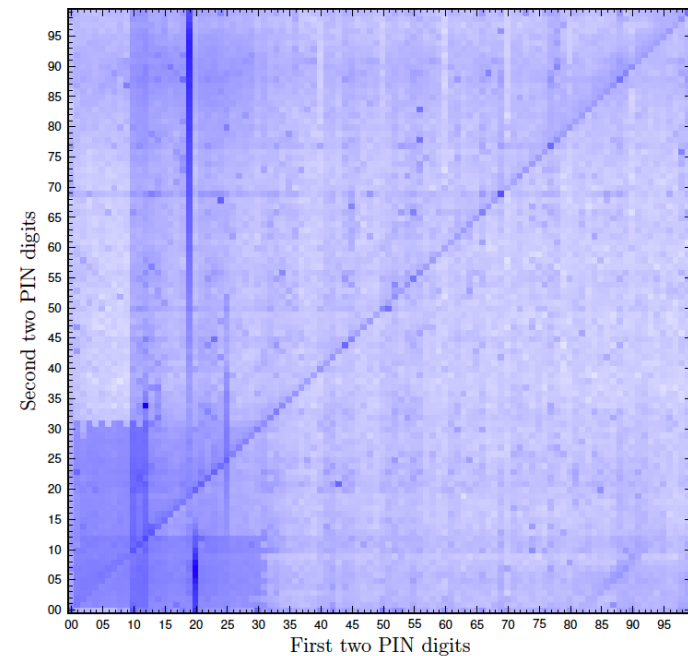
User-selected Passwords



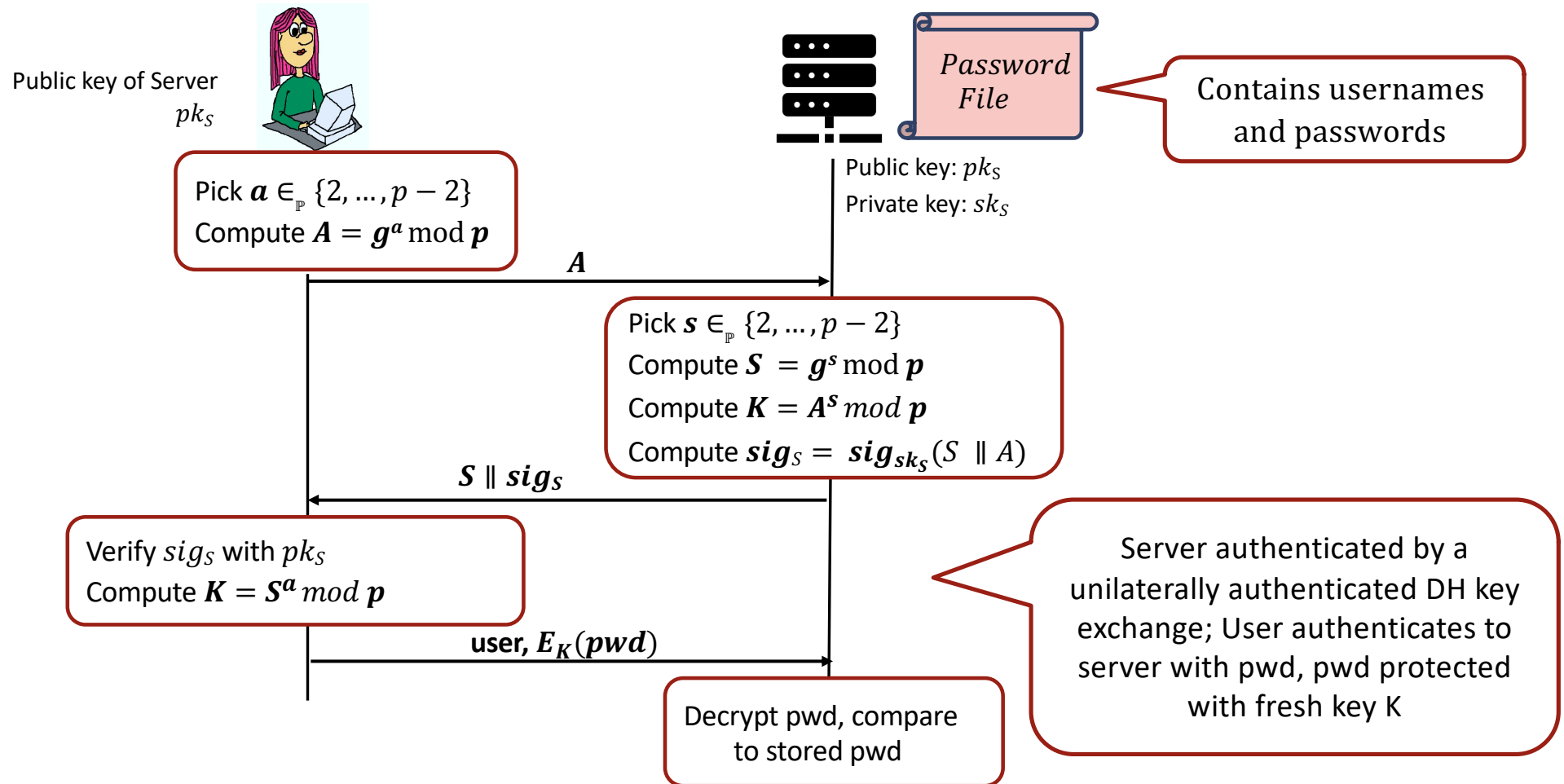
■ Potential Passwords    ■ Passwords Selected by Users

# Classic Example: User's self-selected Banking PINs 2012

- **Distribution of 4-Digit PINs in a data base of 32 Million Banking PINS**
- **Enforcing rules on the password selection reduces the overall number of possible passwords**
  - ▶ E.g., if 8 characters are used and at least one of them needs to be an upper case letter, one a lower case letter one a number and one a special character
  - ▶ Longer passwords required
- **General recommendation**
  - ▶ Use random passwords and a password manager



# Password-based User and Certificate-based Server Authentication





# Storing Passwords in Password Files (1)

## In the clear?

- ▶ If attacker gains access to the file, break is immediate

User	<i>pwd</i>
Alice	D^6as\$%kjahG
Bob	(*&)A8a;sdifh

## Encrypted?

- ▶ No immediate access
- ▶ But: encryption key needs to be stored somewhere
- ▶ Decryption adds overhead

User	<i>pwd</i>	$E_K(pwd)$
Alice	D^6as\$%kjahG	Svl0EKlmp76XcePiC+wL7g
Bob	(*&)A8a;sdifh	1YE/i6MU4lBEnmbq/Wn1Zw

## Key

a57987a344d32336

## Storing Passwords in Password Files (2)

### Store $h(pwd)$ using a cryptographic hash function

- ▶ Attacker only learns hashes from file
- ▶ Cannot compute pre-images of the hashes
- ▶ But: what if multiple users use same pwd?

### Better: store random salt and $h(pwd \parallel salt)$

- ▶ Now users using the same passwords will have different hashes

User	<i>pwd</i>	salt	SHA256
Alice	D^6as\$%kjahG		c25559cad0aca1566d4ba7609759e2de824c8af9e1e0b27891e99ac495e77877
Bob	(*&)A8a;sdifh		f69f1260b38daf282d8d729df34e40c0bdf0fb634f72fe7c17b09054d96c5724
Clare	(*&)A8a;sdifh		f69f1260b38daf282d8d729df34e40c0bdf0fb634f72fe7c17b09054d96c5724
Alice	D^6as\$%kjahG	(*daw	3bcc5a93e5510780f3ce13b8f673758cee1e246963be321ced2d6f2d74054558
Bob	(*&)A8a;sdifh	&OGa8	373d0dd007c4409bdc5a05e6174e5322e88cc16d736d71c99a8876f01c70a9d9
Clare	(*&)A8a;sdifh	6YY34	5ee7d56e09d86f7d262fc0d68f27861644252c1dbd80cb59bbd6cedf6c080831

# Dictionary Attacks on Password Files

- **Dictionary**

- ▶ List of commonly used passwords

- **Dictionary attack**

- ▶ Try out all passwords in the dictionary

## Attack on a stolen password files w/o salts

- ▶ Pre-compute  $h(pwd)$  for any  $pwd$  in the dictionary
- ▶ Compare computed hashes with stored ones

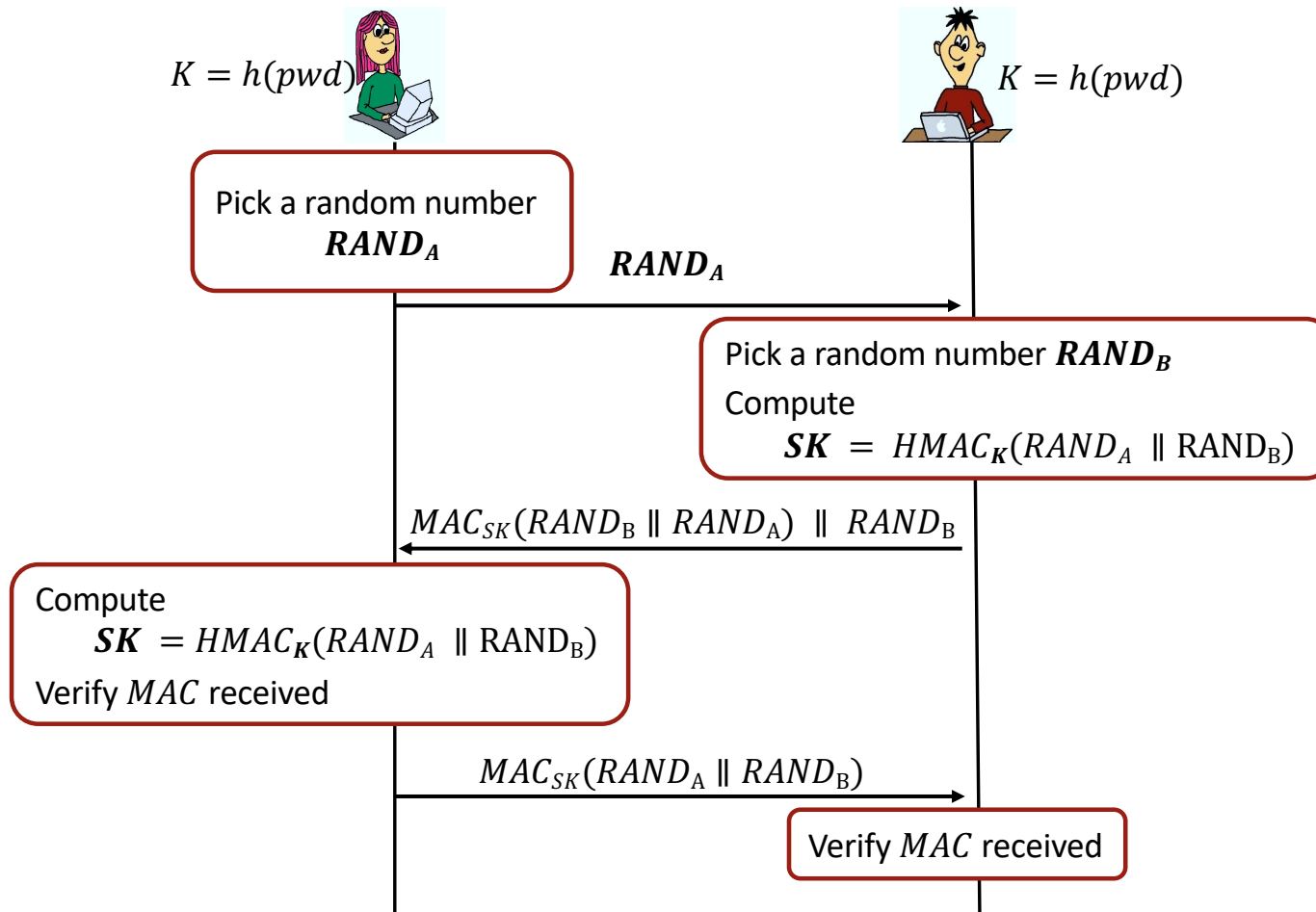
## Attack on a stolen password file with salts

- ▶ Compute  $h(pwd \parallel salt)$  for any  $salt$  in the password file and any  $pwd$  in the dictionary
- ▶ Compare computed hashes with stored ones

Salts are pwd-file specific

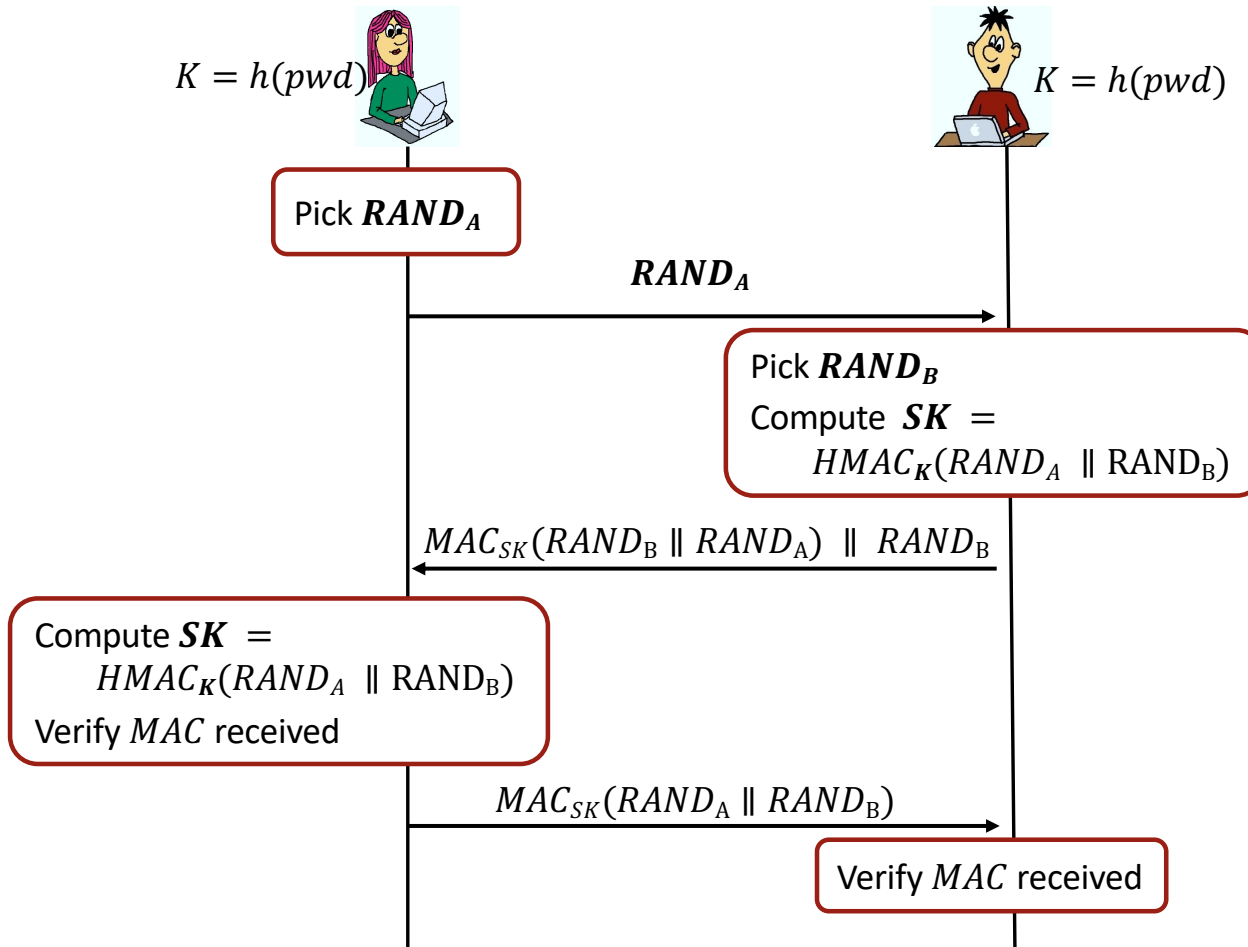
Needs to be done only once

# Authentication and Key Agreement with Password-Generated MAC Keys



- Secret key generated by a shared password
- Note that the key is only as strong as the password
  - ▶ K will be 128 bit but will be as easily guessable as the pwd

# Dictionary Attack on Password-Authenticated Key Agreement



- Record the message flow

- ▶  $RAND_A, RAND_B$

- ▶  $MAC_{SK}(RAND_B || RAND_A)$

- For **pwd** in the dictionary

- ▶ compute  $K = h(pwd)$

- ▶ compute  $SK$  from recorded RANs

- ▶ Check if

$MAC_{SK}(RAND_B || RAND_A) =$

$MAC_{SK}(RAND_B || RAND_A)$  recorded

- ▶ If yes: **pwd** = pwd

- ▶ Else: try next **pwd** in dictionary

# Summary

- **Entity authentication requires**

- ▶ an unforgeable proof that the other entity is active in the current protocol
- ▶ session key establishment
  - Ensures continuous authentication of the authenticated entity

- **Entity authentication can be**

- ▶ unilateral or mutual
- ▶ be based on
  - secret keys using message authentication codes
  - or public/private key pairs

- **Key Establishment protocols**

- ▶ can be key agreement or key transport protocols

# Summary

## Potential properties of key establishment protocols

- ▶ entity authentication
  - ▶ implicit key authentication
  - ▶ key confirmation
  - ▶ key freshness
  - ▶ perfect forward secrecy
  - ▶ protection against known key attacks
- explicit key authentication {
- } authenticated key establishment

# Summary

- **Trusted third parties can help to**

- ▶ reduce the amount of pre-stored keys that need to be exchanged
- ▶ Key distribution centers are TTPs that
  - help their clients establish symmetric keys
- ▶ CAs are TTP that
  - help to distribute authentic copies of their clients' public keys

- **End-users are often authenticated with the help of passwords**

- ▶ The larger the alphabet and the longer the password the stronger the password is

- **End-users tend to pick specific passwords more often than others**

- ▶ Can compile a dictionary of often picked passwords



# References

- **W. Stallings, Cryptography and Network Security: Principles and Practice, 8<sup>th</sup> edition, Pearson 2022**
  - ▶ Chapter 15: Cryptographic Key Management and Distribution
  - ▶ Chapter 16: User Authentication
- RFC 5869 HMAC-based Extract-and-Expand Key Derivation Function (HKDF)