

Authentication techniques, protocols, and architectures

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Definitions of authentication

- **RFC-4949 (Internet security glossary)**

- "the process of verifying a claim that a system entity or system resource has a certain attribute value"

- **whatis.com:**

- "the process of determining whether someone or something is who or what it is declared to be"

- **NIST IR 7298 (Glossary of Key Information Security Terms)**

- "verifying the identity of a user, process, or device, often as a prerequisite to allowing access to resources in an information system"

Definitions of authentication

- **authentication of an "actor"**
 - human being (interacting via sw running on hw)
 - software component
 - hardware element (interacting via sw)
- **shorthand: authN (or also authC)**
- **different from authorization (authZ) but related**

Authentication factors

■ knowledge

- something only the user knows,
e.g. static pwd, code, personal identification number

MickeyMouse

■ ownership

- something only the user possesses
(often called an "authenticator"),
e.g. token, smart card, smartphone



■ inference

- something the user is,
e.g. a biometric characteristic
(such as a fingerprint)

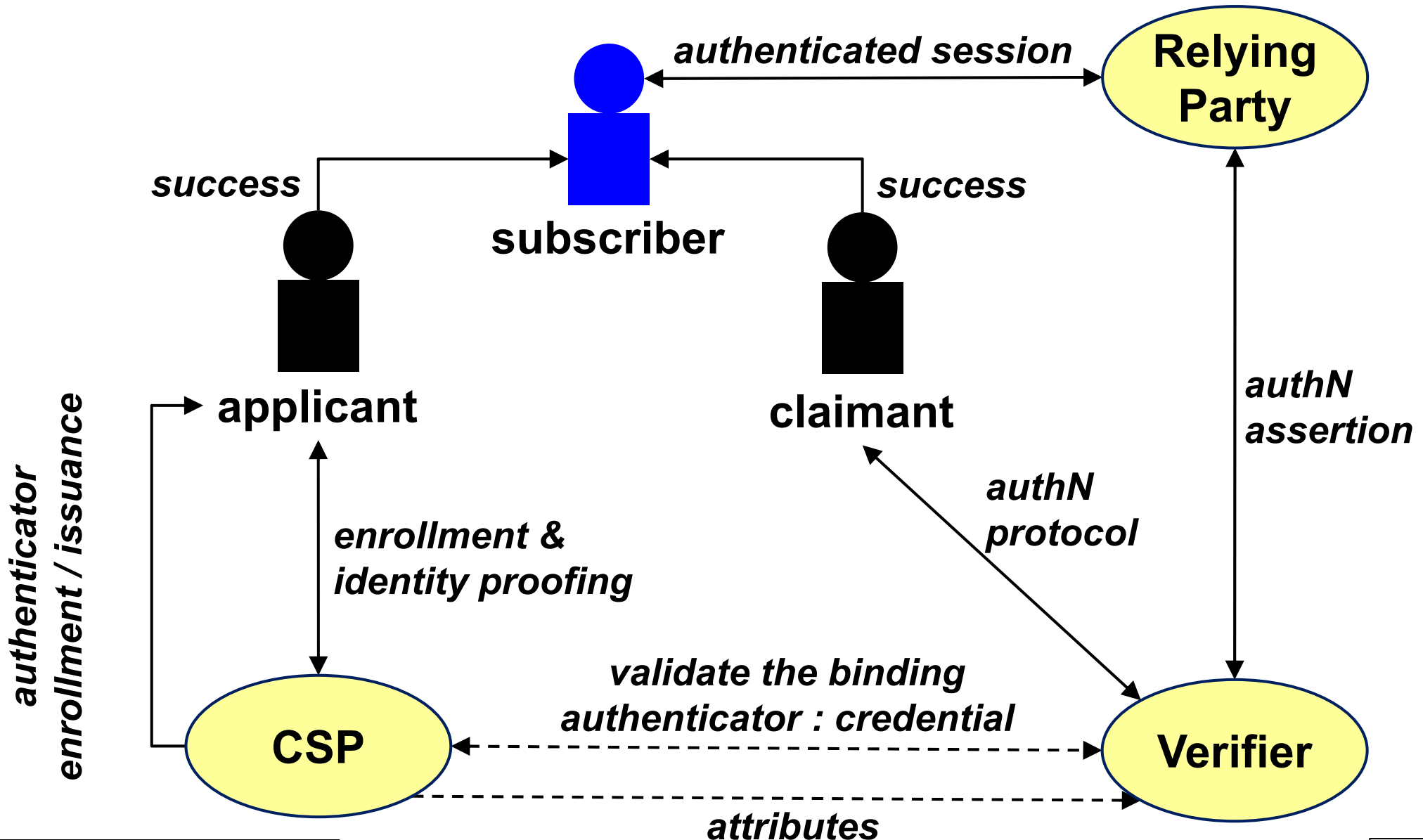


- **consider application not only to human users but also to processes and devices**

Authentication factors: risks

- **knowledge (e.g. password)**
 - risks = storage and demonstration/transmission
- **ownership (e.g. smartphone)**
 - risks = authenticator itself, theft, cloning, unauthorised usage
- **inherence (e.g. biometrics)**
 - risks = counterfeiting and privacy
 - cannot be replaced when "compromised" (big problem!)
 - use it only for local authentication, as a mechanism to unlock a secret or a device

Digital authentication model (NIST SP800.63B)



Digital authentication: entities

- **credential binds an authenticator to the subscriber, via an ID**
 - e.g. a X.509 certificate
- **CSP (Credential Service Provider)**
 - will issue or enrol user credential and authenticator
 - verify and store associated attributes
- **Verifier**
 - executes an authN protocol to verify possess of a valid authenticator and credential
- **Relying Party (RP)**
 - will request/receive an authN assertion from the Verifier to assess user identity (and attributes)
- **these roles may be separate or collapsed together**

Generic authentication protocol

verifier



1. authentication request

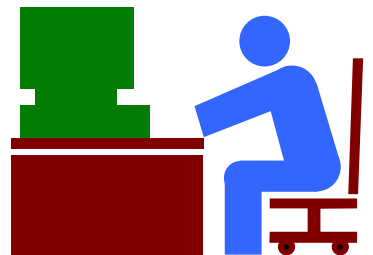


user (UID)

2. UID



3. proof request



secret (S_{UID})

{ UID : $f(S_{UID})$ }

4. proof = $F(S_{UID})$



storage of the secrets?
verification of the proof?

transmission of the proof?

storage of the secret?
insertion of the secret?

Password (reusable)

verifier



**{ UID : P_{UID} }
or
{ UID : H_{UID} }**

authentication request



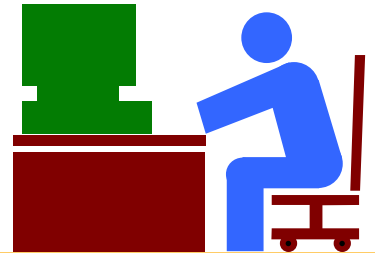
UID



password request



user (UID)



secret (P_{UID})

P_{UID}



Password-based authentication

- **secret = the user password**
- **(client) create and transmit proof**
 - $F = I$ (the identity function)
 - i.e. proof = password (cleartext!)
- **(server) verify the proof:**
 - case #1: $f = I$ (the identity function)
 - server knows all passwords in cleartext (!)
 - access control: proof == password ?
 - case #2: $f =$ one-way hash
 - server knows the passwords' digests, H_{UID} (unprotected!)
 - access control: $f(\text{proof}) == H_{UID}$?

Problems of reusable passwords

- **pwd sniffing**
- **pwd DB attacks (if DB contains plaintext or obfuscated pwd)**
- **pwd guessing (very dangerous if it can be done offline, e.g. against a list of pwd hashes)**
- **pwd enumeration**
 - if pwd limited in length or character type
 - if authN protocol does not block repeated failures
- **pwd duplication (using the pwd for one service against another one, due to user pwd reuse)**
- **cryptography ageing (flexibility on algorithms due to new attacks and more computing power)**
- **pwd capture via server spoofing and phishing**
- **MITM attacks**

Password best practice

■ suggestions to reduce the associated risks:

- alphabetic characters (uppercase + lowercase) + digits + special characters
- long (at least 8 characters)
- never use dictionary words
- frequently changed (but not too frequently!)
- don't use them 😊
 - but usage of at least one password (or PIN, or access code, or ...) is unavoidable, unless we adopt biometric techniques

Password storage

■ server-side

- NEVER in cleartext!
- encrypted password? then the Verifier must know the encryption key in cleartext ...
- better storing a digest of the password
- ... but beware of the “dictionary” attack
- ... that can be made faster by a “rainbow table”
- we must insert an unexpected variation, named “salt”

■ client-side

- should be only in the user's head ... but too many passwords
- use a post-it ☹ ... or an easy pwd (e.g. my son's name) ☹
- better use an encrypted file (or a "password wallet / manager")

The “dictionary” attack

- **hypothesis:**

- known hash algorithm
- known password hash values

- **pre-computation:**

- for (each Word in Dictionary) do
 store (DB, Word, hash(Word))

- **attack:**

- let HP be the hash value of a (unknown) password
- $w = \text{lookup} (\text{DB}, \text{HP})$
- if (success) then write("pwd = ", w)
 else write("pwd not in my dictionary")

- **pre-computation is the key (mounting the attack after discovering HP could take more time than the pwd lifetime)**

Rainbow table (I)

- a space-time trade-off technique to store (and lookup) an exhaustive hash table (less space, more time)
 - makes exhaustive attack feasible for certain password sets
- e.g. table for a 12 digits password
 - exhaustive = 10^{12} rows $\{ P_i : HP_i \}$
 - rainbow = 10^9 rows, each representing 1000 pwd
- uses the reduction function $r : h \Rightarrow p$ (which is NOT h^{-1})
- pre-computation:
 - for (10^9 distinct P)
 - for ($p=P, n=0; n<1000; n++$)
 - $k = h(p); p = r(k);$
 - store (DB, P, p) // chain head and tail

Rainbow table (II)

■ **attack:**

- let HP be the hash of a password
- for (k=HP; n=0; n<1000; n++)
 - $p = r(k)$
 - if lookup(DB, x, p) then exit ("chain found!")
 - $k = h(p)$
- exit ("HP is not in any chain of mine")

- **to avoid "fusion" of chains $r_0() \dots r_n()$ are used for the different reduction steps**
- **on sale pre-computed rainbow tables for various hash functions and password sets (e.g. SHA1 for alphanumeric)**
- **this technique is used by various attack programs**

Using the salt in storing passwords

- **for each user UID:**
 - create / ask the pwd
 - generate a salt (different for each user)
 - random (unpredictable) and long (increased dictionary complexity)
 - should contain rarely used or control characters
 - compute $HP = \text{hash}(\text{pwd} || \text{salt})$
- **store the triples $\{ \text{UID}, HP_{\text{UID}}, \text{salt}_{\text{UID}} \}$**
- **additional benefit: we have different HP for users having the same pwd**
- **makes the dictionary attacks nearly impossible**
 - included those based on rainbow tables (a space-time trade-off technique to enable exhaustive search for a character set)

Example: passwords in Linux

- originally stored in `/etc/passwd`, hashed with a DES-based hash function named `crypt()`
- since `/etc/passwd` needs to be world-readable (contains usernames, UID, GID, home, shell, ...) passwords have been moved to `/etc/shadow` readable only by system processes
- passwords are stored in the following form – see `crypt(5)`:
 - `idsalt$hashedpwd`
 - different hash functions used depending on ID, for example:
 - 1 = MD5, ..., 5 = SHA-256, 6 = SHA-512, ...
 - if `idsalt` is absent then the old DES-based hash is used (with 12-bits salt, pwd truncated to 8 characters) – danger!
 - some algorithms have adjustable complexity (to counter brute force attacks)

The LinkedIn attack

- **June 2012, copied 6.5 M password from LinkedIn**
 - ... unsalted, plain SHA-1 hash!!!
- **crowdsourcing used for cooperative password cracking**
 - at least 236,578 passwords found (before ban of the site publishing the password hashes)
- **note: nearly simultaneous problem with the discovery that the LinkedIn app for iPad/iPhone was sending in clear sensible data (not relevant to LinkedIn!)**

Example: passwords in MySQL

- username and password stored in the "user" table
- MySQL (from v 4.1) uses a double hash (but no salt!) to store the password
 - `sha1(sha1(password))`
- the hex encoding of the result is stored, preceded by * (to distinguish this case from MySQL < 4.1)
- example (for the password "Superman!!!"):
 - field `user.password` =
*868E8E4F0E782EA610A67B01E63EF04817F60005
 - verification

```
$ echo -n 'Superman!!!' | openssl sha1 -binary | openssl sha1 -hex  
(stdin)= 868e8e4f0e782ea610a67b01e63ef04817f60005
```

Strong (peer) authN

- "strong authN" often requested in specifications
- ... but never formally defined (or defined in too many different ways, which is useless)

Strong authN: ECB definition

- **strong customer authN is a procedure based on the use of two or more of knowledge, ownership, and inheritance**
- **the elements selected must be mutually independent, i.e. the breach of one does not compromise the other(s)**
- **at least one element should be non-reusable and non-replicable (except for inheritance), and not capable of being surreptitiously stolen via the Internet**
- **the strong authentication procedure should be designed in such a way as to protect the confidentiality of the authentication data**

Strong authN: PCI-DSS definition

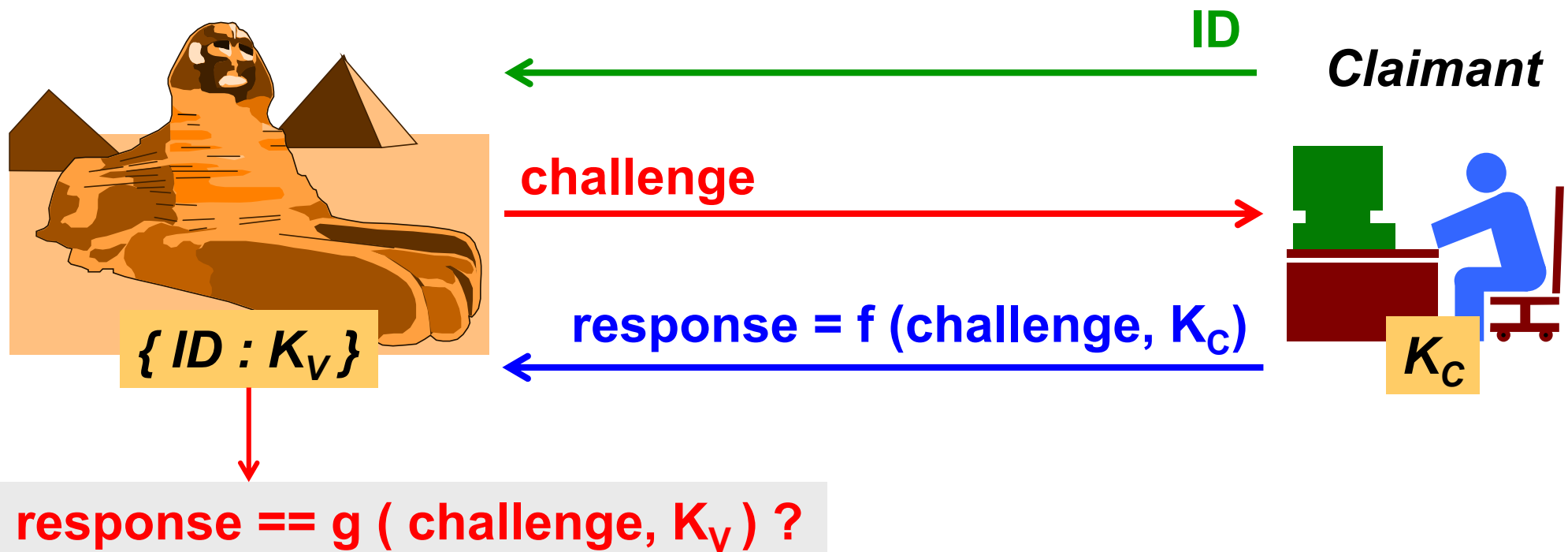
- **v3.2 requires multi-factor authentication (MFA) for access into the cardholder data environment (CDE)**
 - from trusted or untrusted network
 - by administrators
 - exception: direct console access (physical security)
- **... and for remote access**
 - from untrusted network
 - by users and third-parties (e.g. maintenance)
- **best practice until 2018/01, compulsory afterwards**
- **MFA is *not* twice the same factor (e.g. two passwords)**

Strong authN: other definitions

- **Handbook of Applied Cryptography**
 - a cryptographic challenge-response identification protocol
- **more in general**
 - technique resisting to a well-defined set of attacks
- **conclusion:**
 - an authN technique can be regarded as strong or weak depending on the attack model
 - e.g. users of Internet banking > ECB definition
 - e.g. employees of PSP > PCI-DSS definition
- **watch out for your specific application field = risks**

Challenge-response authentication (CRA)

- a challenge is sent to the Claimant...
- ... who replies with the solution computed using some secret knowledge and the challenge
- the Verifier compares the response with a solution computed via a secret associated to the Claimant



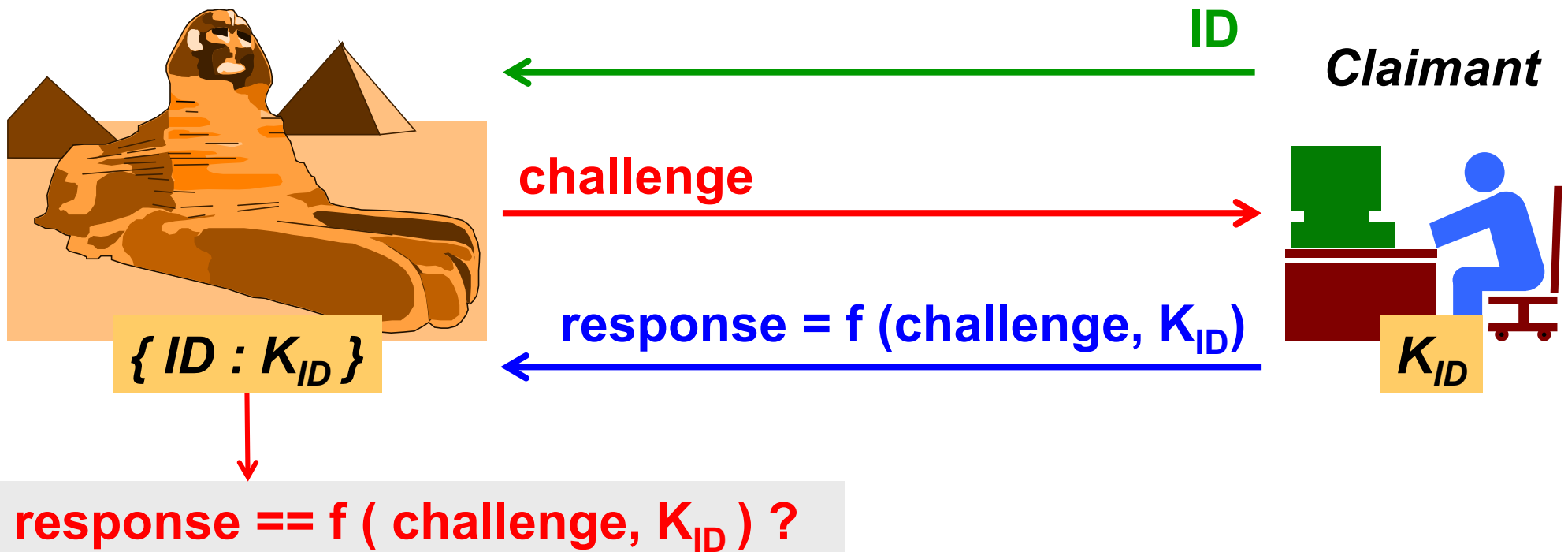
CRA: general issues

- **the challenge must be non-repeatable to avoid replay attacks**
 - usually the challenge is a (random) nonce
- **the function f must be non-invertible**
 - otherwise, a listener can record the traffic and easily find the shared secret

$$K_C = f^{-1}(\text{response}, \text{challenge})$$

Symmetric CRA

- Claimant and Verifier share a secret (e.g. a pwd or a key)
- a challenge is sent to the Claimant ...
- ... who replies with the solution after a computation R involving the shared secret and the challenge

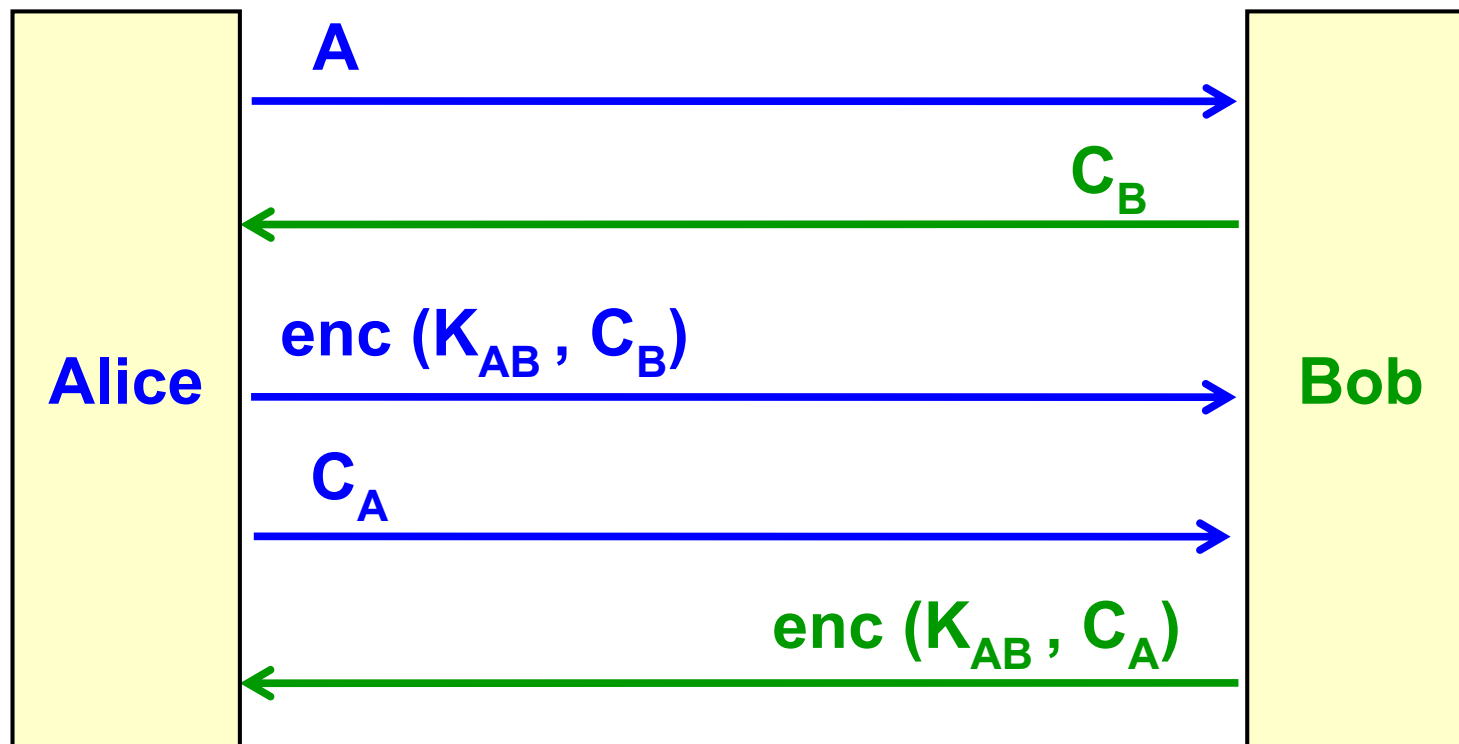


Symmetric CRA: general issues

- **the easiest implementation uses a hash function (faster than encryption)**
 - sha1 (deprecated), sha2 (recommended), sha3 (future)
- **Kc must be known in cleartext to the Verifier**
 - attacks against the { ID:K } table at the Verifier
- **SCRAM (Salted CRA Mechanism) solves this problem by using hashed passwords at the Verifier**
 - offers also channel binding
 - offers also mutual authentication

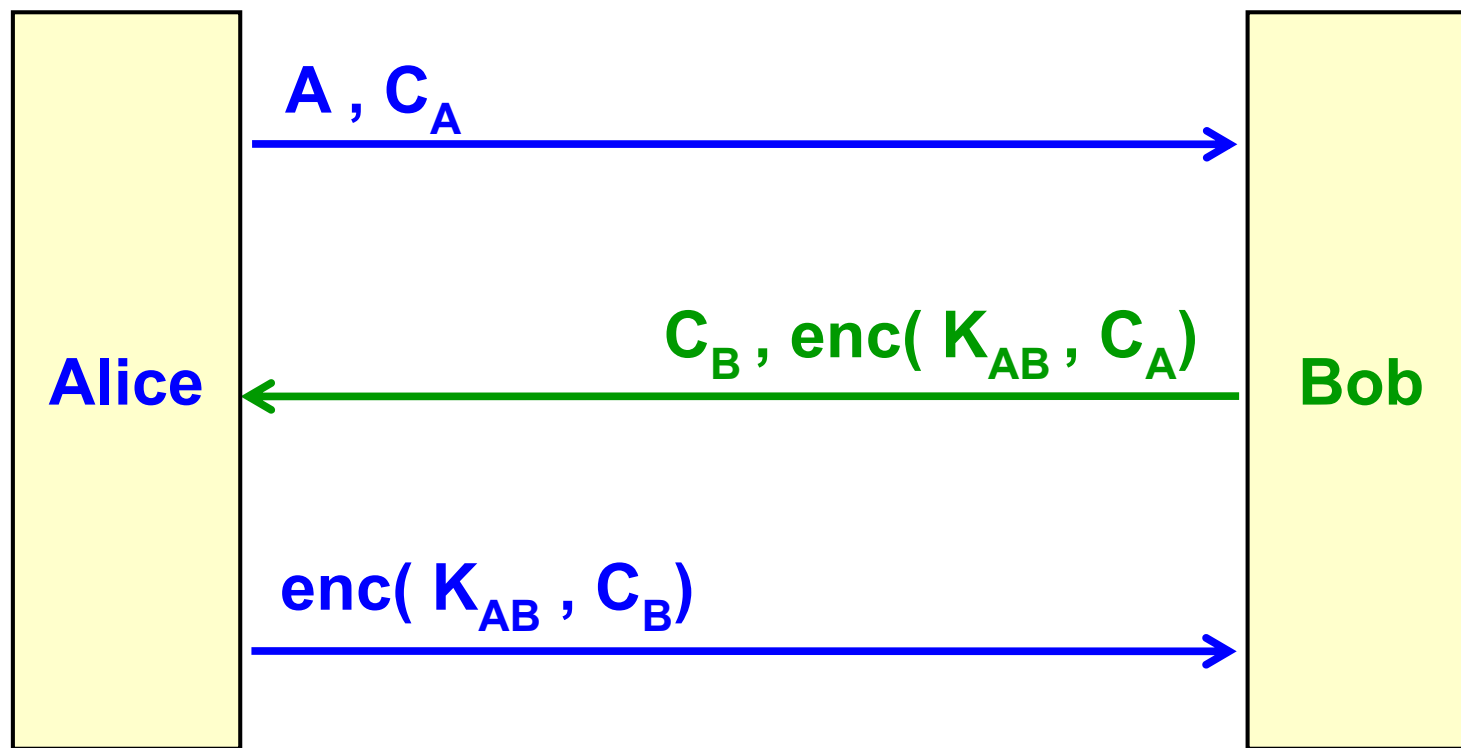
Mutual symmetric CRA (v1)

- this is the base exchange
- only the initiator provides explicitly its (claimed) identity
- BEWARE! old & bad protocol

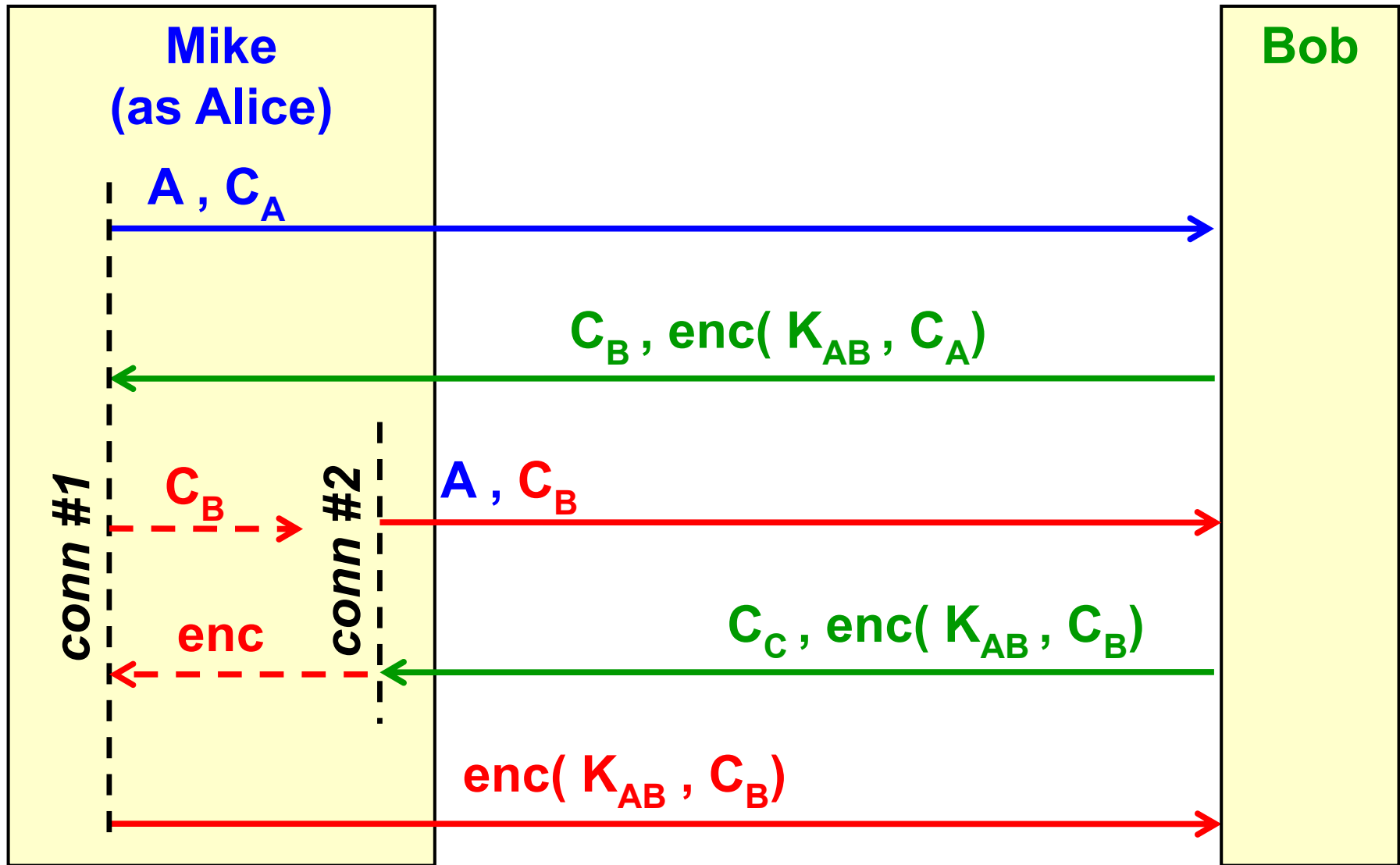


Mutual symmetric CRA (v2)

- reduction in the number of messages (better performance but no impact on security)
- used by the IBM SNA



Attack to the mutual symmetric CRA



GSM (in)security

- **GSM uses three secret algorithms:**

- A8 for symmetric key generation (in the SIM)
- A3 for authentication (in the SIM)
- A5 (stream cipher) for encryption (in the mobile device)
 - LFSR-based: A5/1 most used, A5/2 weak (some countries)
 - A5/3 based on the Kasumi block cipher

- **this is security-through-obscurity ... always a bad idea ☹**

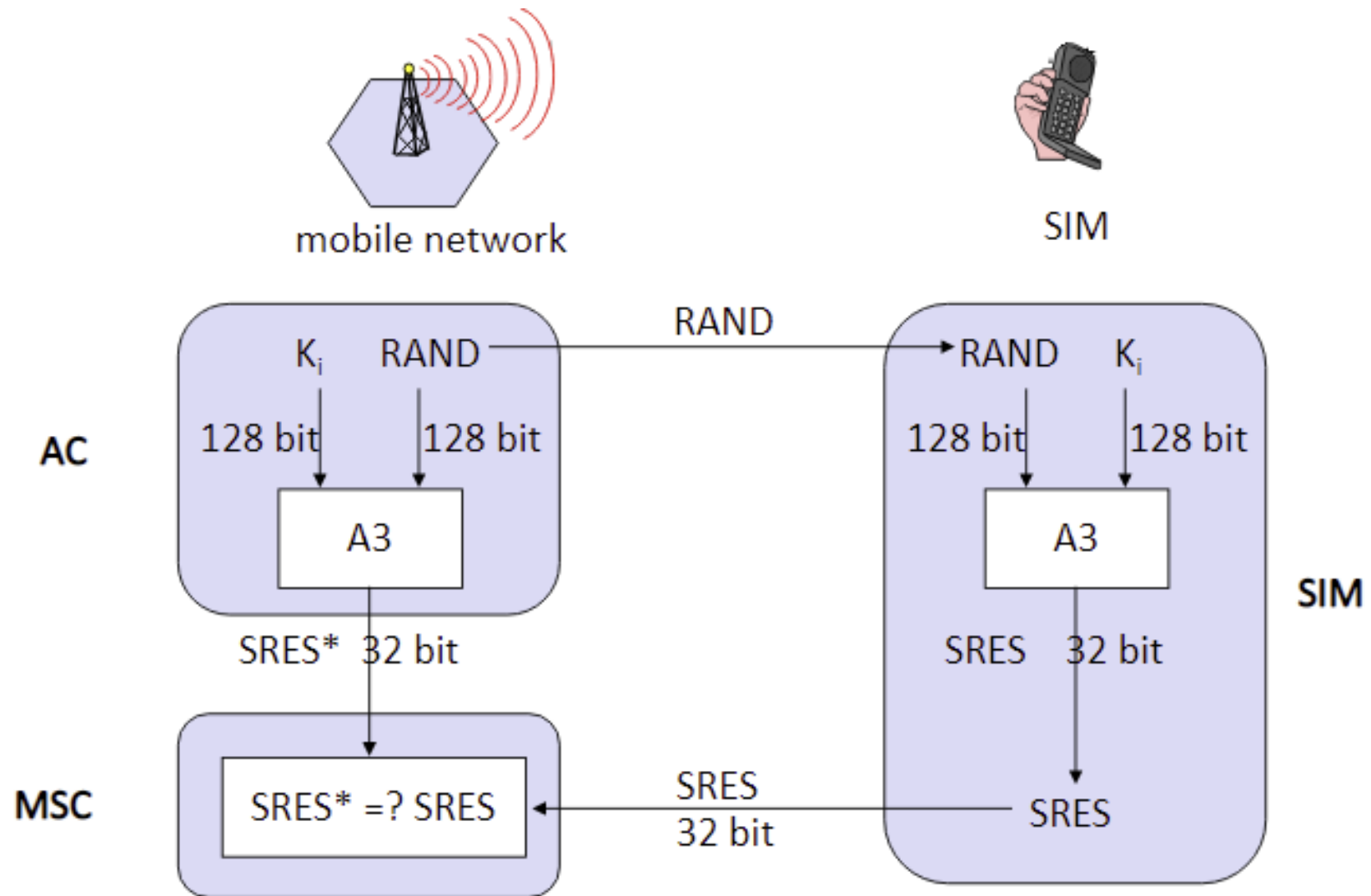
- **A8, A3, A5 are left to the choice of the MNO**

- A8 and A3 usually built upon the COMP128 (secret) function
- $Z = \text{COMP128}(X, Y)$... with X, Y, Z 128 bits each
- A8: $K_c = \text{lsb}(54, Z)$ [connection key]
- A3: $\text{SRES} = \text{msb}(32, Z)$ [Signed RESponse]

GSM authentication

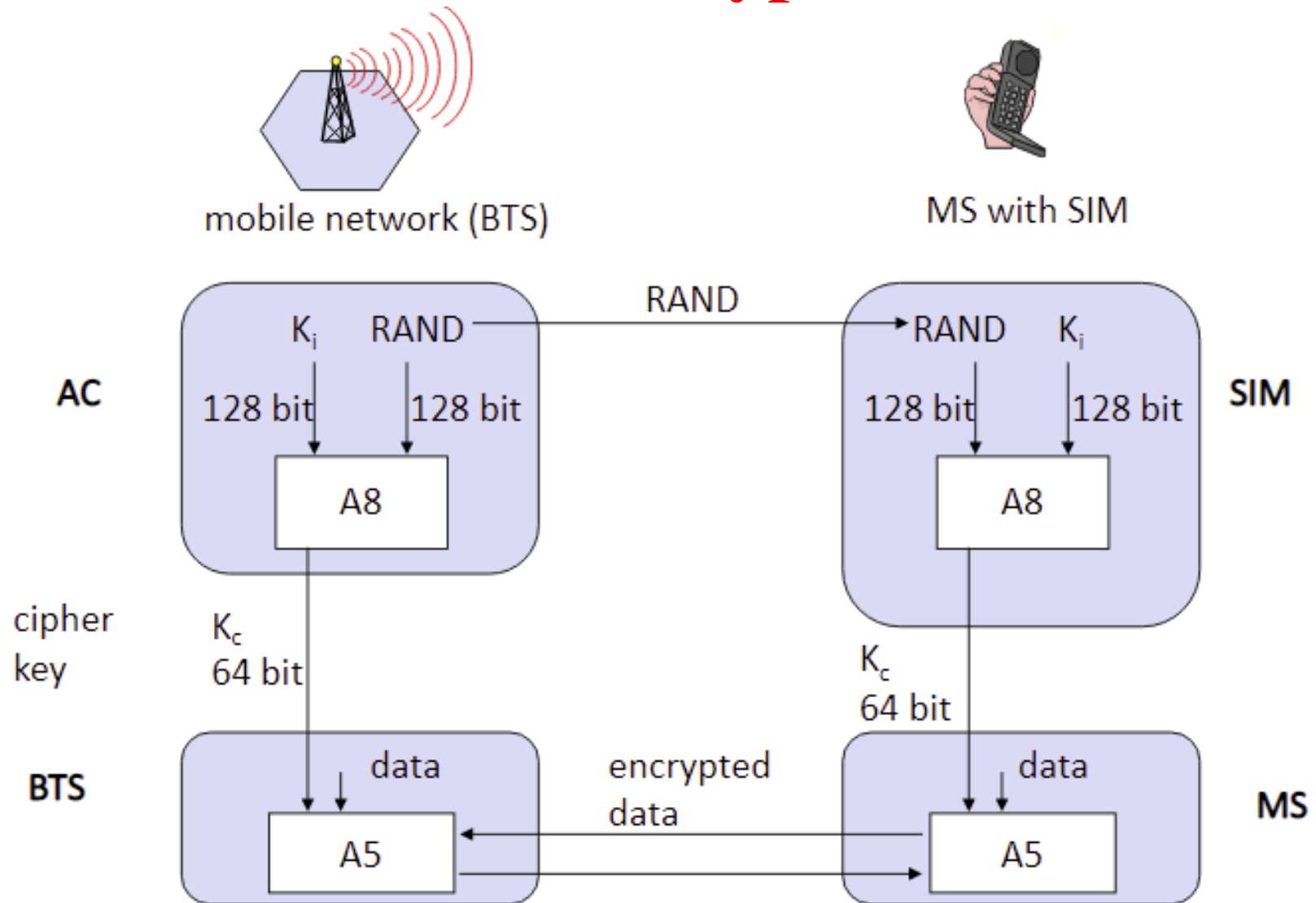
- a symmetric CRA is used to authenticate the Mobile Station (MS) via its SIM to the Base Station (BS)
 - SIM contains K_i (individual subscriber authN key)
 - K_i is a 128-bit secret shared with the AC (AuthN Centre)
- the BS sends to the SIM a random challenge C of 128 bit
- the SIM returns $SRES = A_3(C, K_i)$ of 32 bit
- but ...
 - COMP128-1 is weak ... with chosen-challenge (and differential cryptoanalysis) 150,000 challenges are sufficient to compute K_i
 - now we can
 - clone the SIM (i.e. same K_i)
 - decrypt the traffic by computing K_c for that K_i and C sent by the BS

GSM authentication



(source: <https://www.ques10.com/p/48395/gsm-authentication-procedure/>)

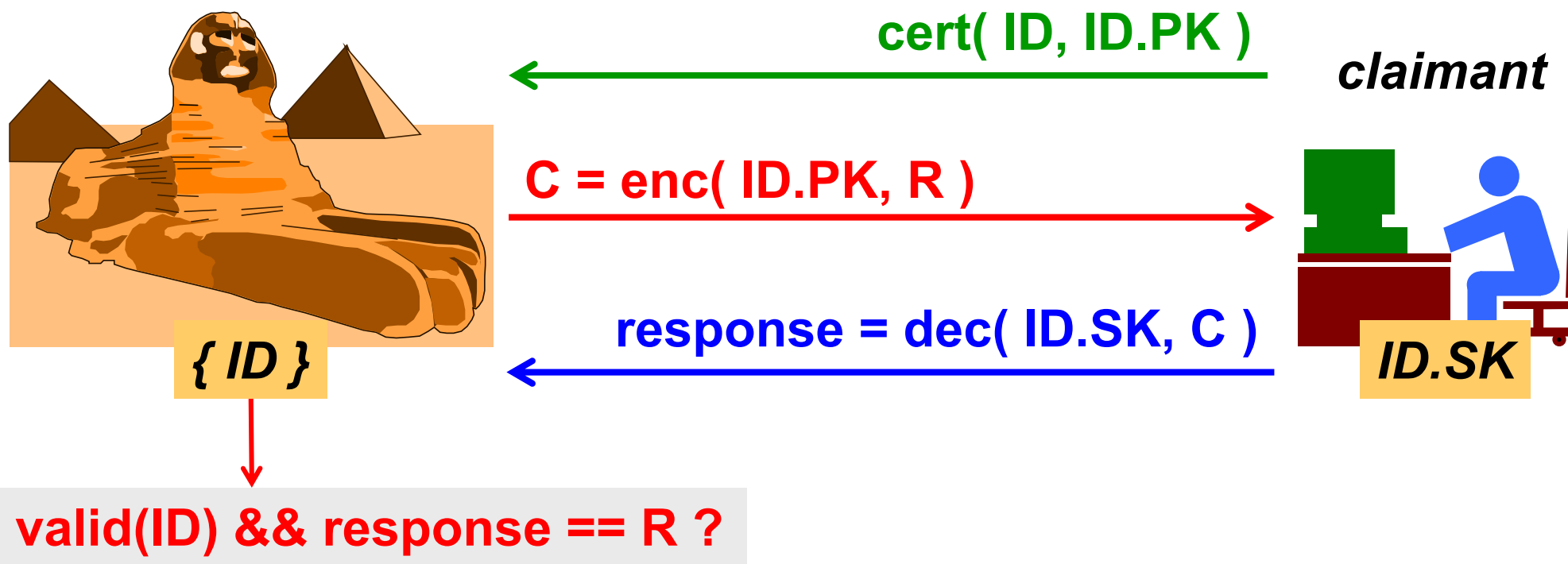
GSM encryption



(source: <https://www.ques10.com/p/48395/gsm-authentication-procedure/>)

Asymmetric CRA

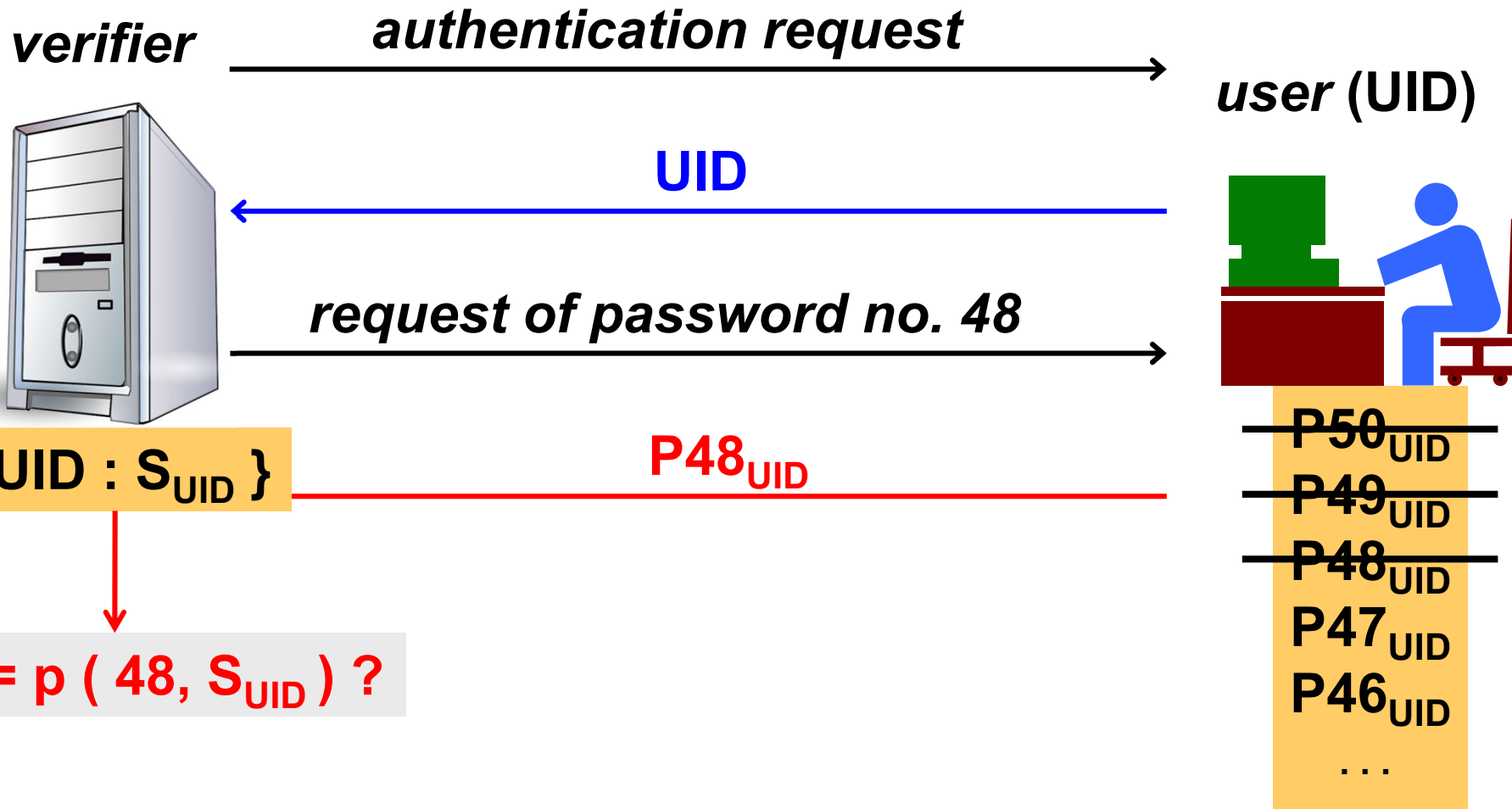
- a random nonce R is encrypted with the user's public key ...
- ... and the users replies by sending R in clear, thanks to its knowledge of the private key



Asymmetric CRA: analysis

- the strongest mechanism
- does not require secret storage at the Verifier
- implemented for peer authentication (client and server) in IPsec, SSH, and TLS
- cornerstone for user authentication in FIDO
- problems
 - slow
 - if designed inaccurately may lead to an involuntary signature by the Claimant
 - PKI issues (trusted root, name constraint, revocation)
 - avoidable if the Verifier stores ID.PK
 - ... but this moves equivalent PKI effort to the Verifier

One-time password (OTP)



One-Time Password (OTP)

- **password valid only for one run of the authentication protocol**
 - next run requires another password
- **immune to sniffing**
- **subject to MITM (needs Verifier authentication)**
- **difficult provisioning to the subscribers**
 - lot of passwords
 - password exhaustion
- **difficult password insertion**
 - typically contains random characters to avoid guessing

OTP provisioning to the users

- **on “stupid” or insecure/untrusted workstation:**
 - paper sheet of pre-computed passwords
 - “password cards”
 - hardware authenticator (crypto token)
- **on intelligent and secure/trusted workstation :**
 - automatically computed by an ad-hoc application
 - typical for smartphone, tablet, laptop, ...

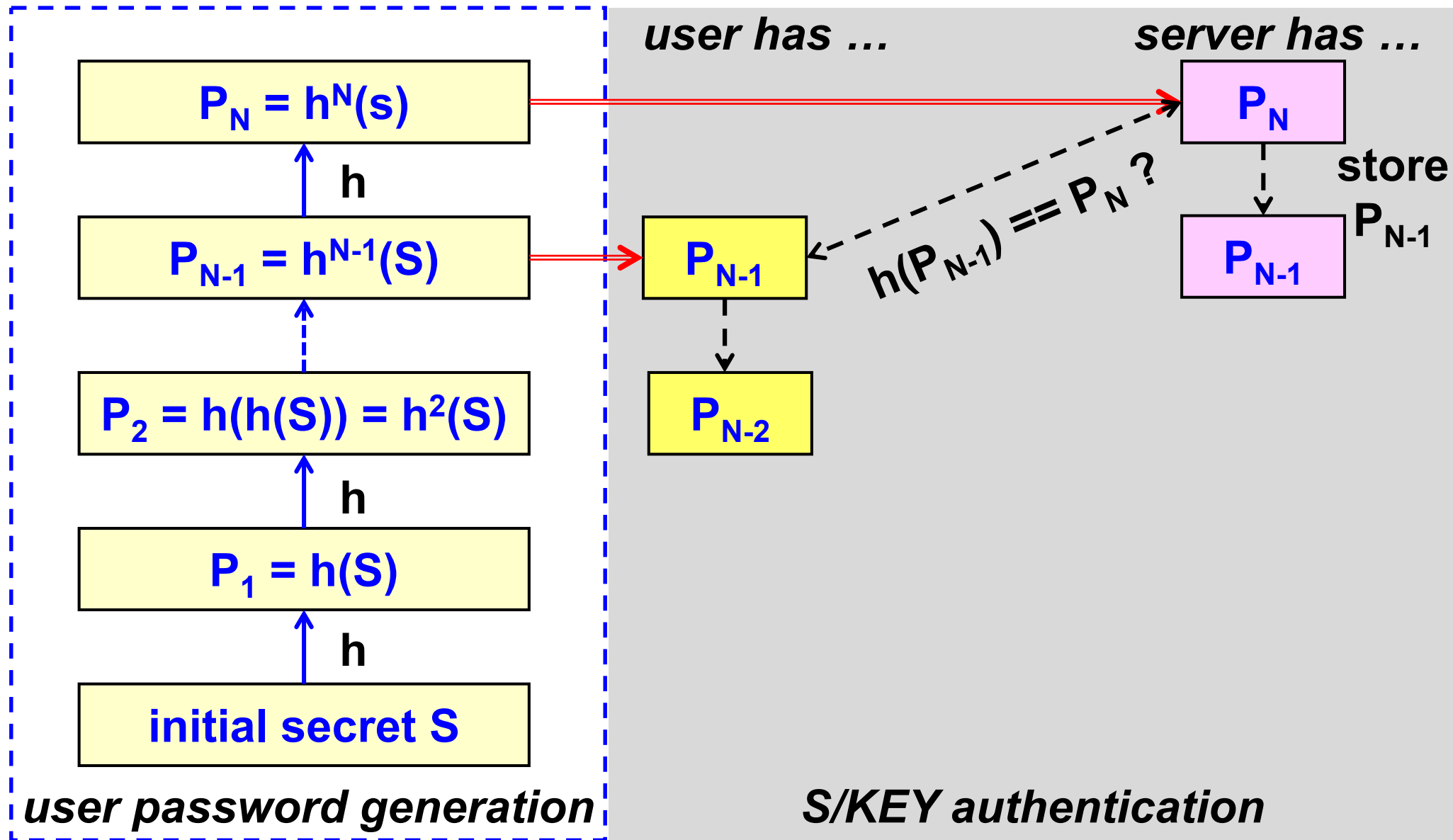
The S/KEY system (I)

- first OTP definition and implementation by Bell Labs (1981)
- the user generates a secret S_{ID}
- the user computes N one-time passwords:
 - $P_1 = h(S_{ID})$, $P_2 = h(P_1)$, ..., $P_N = h(P_{N-1})$
- the Verifier stores the last one P_N
 - this password will never be used directly for authentication, but only indirectly
- Verifier asks for P_{N-1} and gets X
 - i.e. asks for pwd in inverse order
 - if $(P_N \neq h(X))$ then FAIL else {OK; store X as P_{N-1} }

The S/KEY system (II)

- **in this way:**
 - the Verifier has no need to know the user's secret
 - only the user knows all passwords
- **RFC-1760**
 - uses MD4 (other choices are possible)
- **S/KEY is an example of Off-line / Pre-computed OTP**

The S/KEY system (III)



S/KEY – generation of the password list

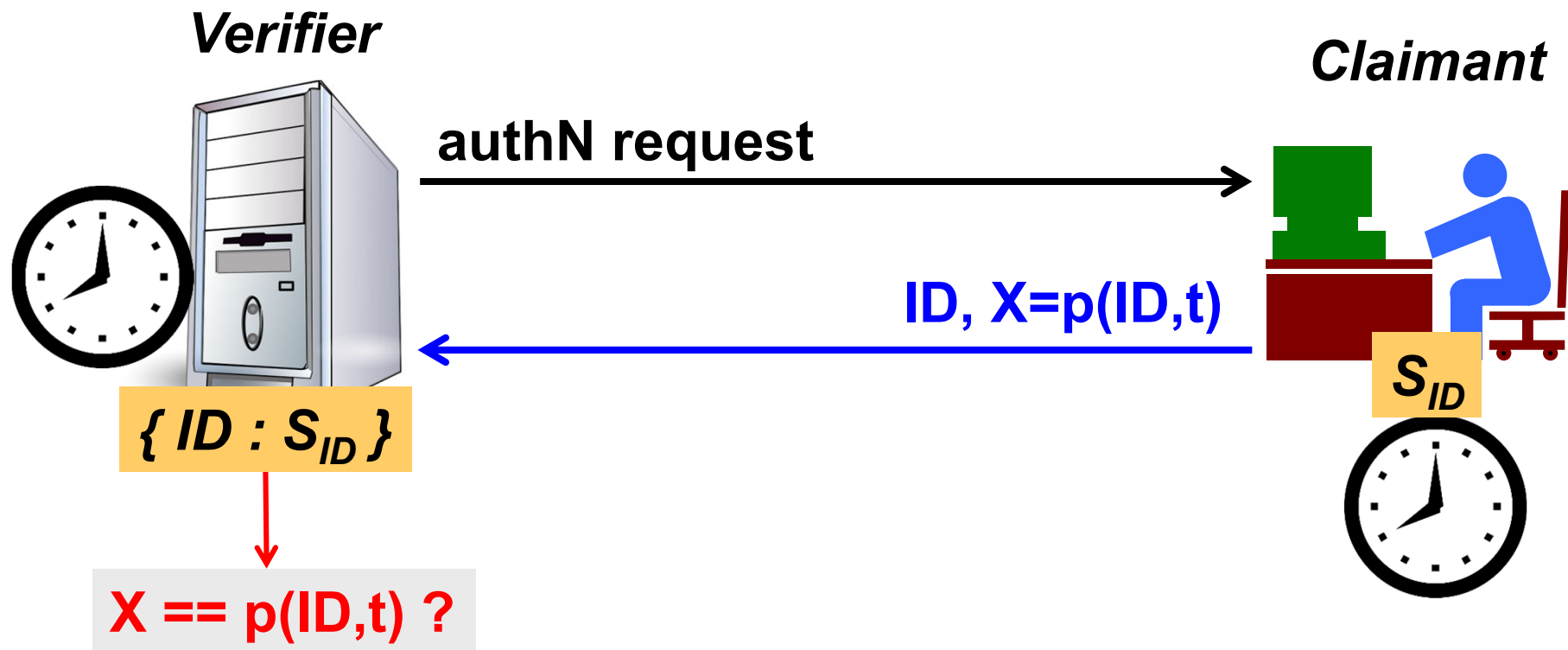
- **the user inserts a pass phrase (PP):**
 - minimum 8 char long
 - secret! (if disclosed then the security of S/KEY is compromised)
- **PP is concatenated with a server-provided seed**
 - the seed is not secret (sent in cleartext from S to C)
 - allows to use the same PP for multiple servers (using different seeds) and to safely reuse the same PP by changing the seed
- **a 64-bit quantity is extracted from the MD4 hash (by XORing the first / third 32-bit groups and the second / fourth groups)**

S/KEY – passwords

- **64-bit passwords are a compromise**
- **neither too long (complex) nor too short (insecure)**
- **entered as a sequence of six short English words chosen from a dictionary of 2048 (e.g. 0="A", 1="ABE", 2="ACE", 3="ACT", 4="AD", 5="ADA")**
- **client and server must share the same dictionary**
- **example (using the dictionary in RFC-1760):**
 - password (text) YOU SING A NICE OLD SONG
 - password (numeric)
 - 1D6E5001884BD711 (hex)
 - 2,120,720,442,049,943,313 (decimal)

Time-based OTP

- the password depends upon time and the user's secret:
 - $p(ID, t) = h(t, S_{ID})$



Time-based OTP: analysis

- **requires local computation at the subscriber**
- **requires clock synchronization (or keeping track of time-shift for each subscriber)**
- **requires time-slot and authentication window**
 - $X == p(ID,t) \parallel X == p(ID,t-1) \parallel X == p(ID,t+1)$
- **only one authentication run per time-slot**
 - typically 30s or 60s (not good for some services)
- **time attacks against subscriber and Verifier**
 - fake NTP server or mobile network femtocell
- **sensitive database at the verifier**
 - see the attack against RSA SecurID

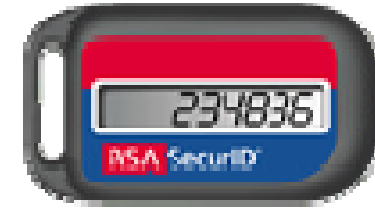
A TOTP example: RSA SecurID

- the Claimant sends to the Verifier in clear
user , PIN , *token-code* (seed, time)
or (if an authenticator with pinpad is used)
user , *token-code** (seed, time, PIN)
- based on *user* and PIN the Verifier checks against three possible token-codes:
 TC_{-1} , TC_0 , TC_{+1}
- *duress code*: PIN to generate an alarm (to be used under attack)
- ACE (Access Control Engine) components
 - ACE client (installed at the Relying Party)
 - ACE server (implements the Verifier)

RSA SecurID: recent products



SID700



SD600



SID800



SD200



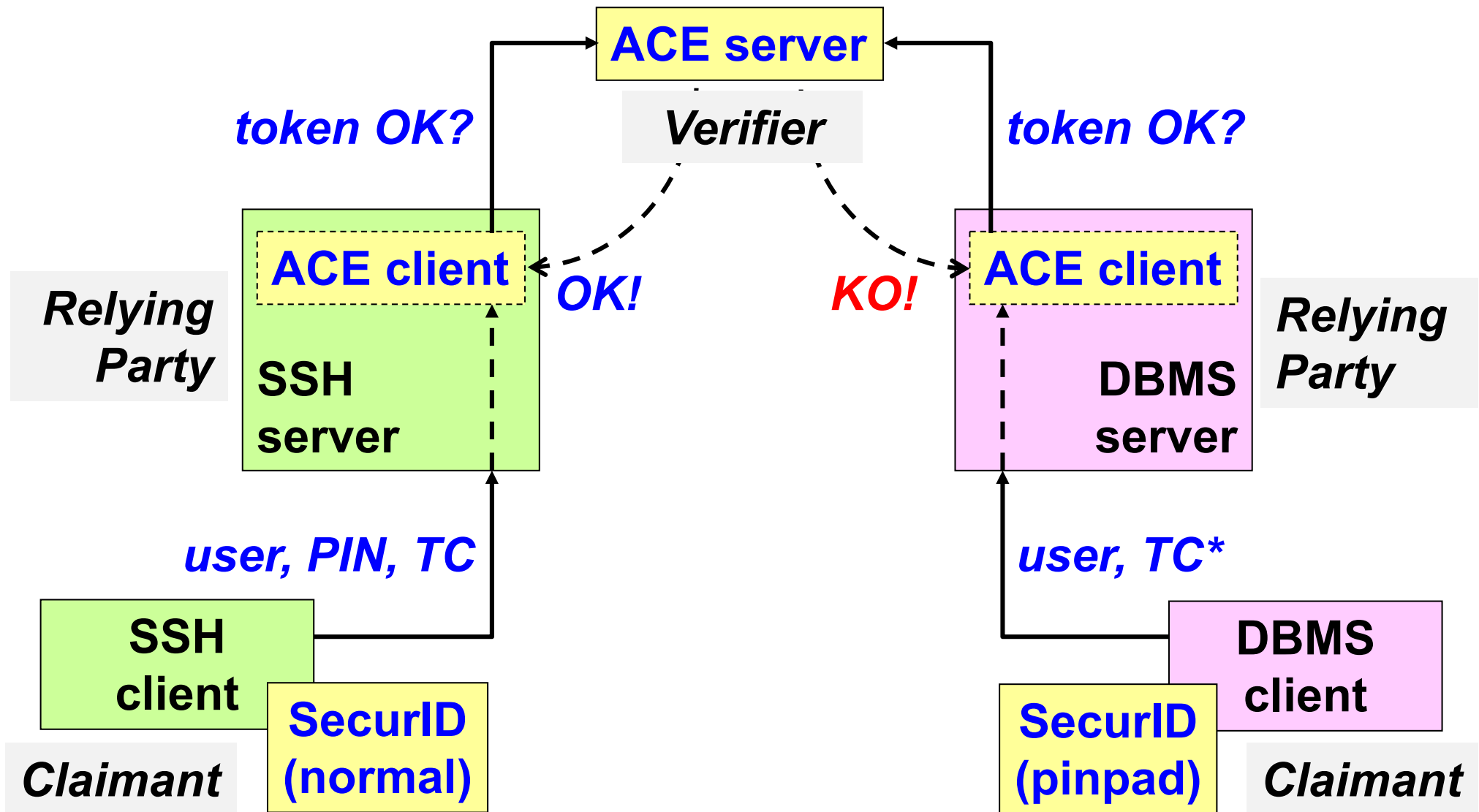
SD520



*SoftID
Token*

PINPAD

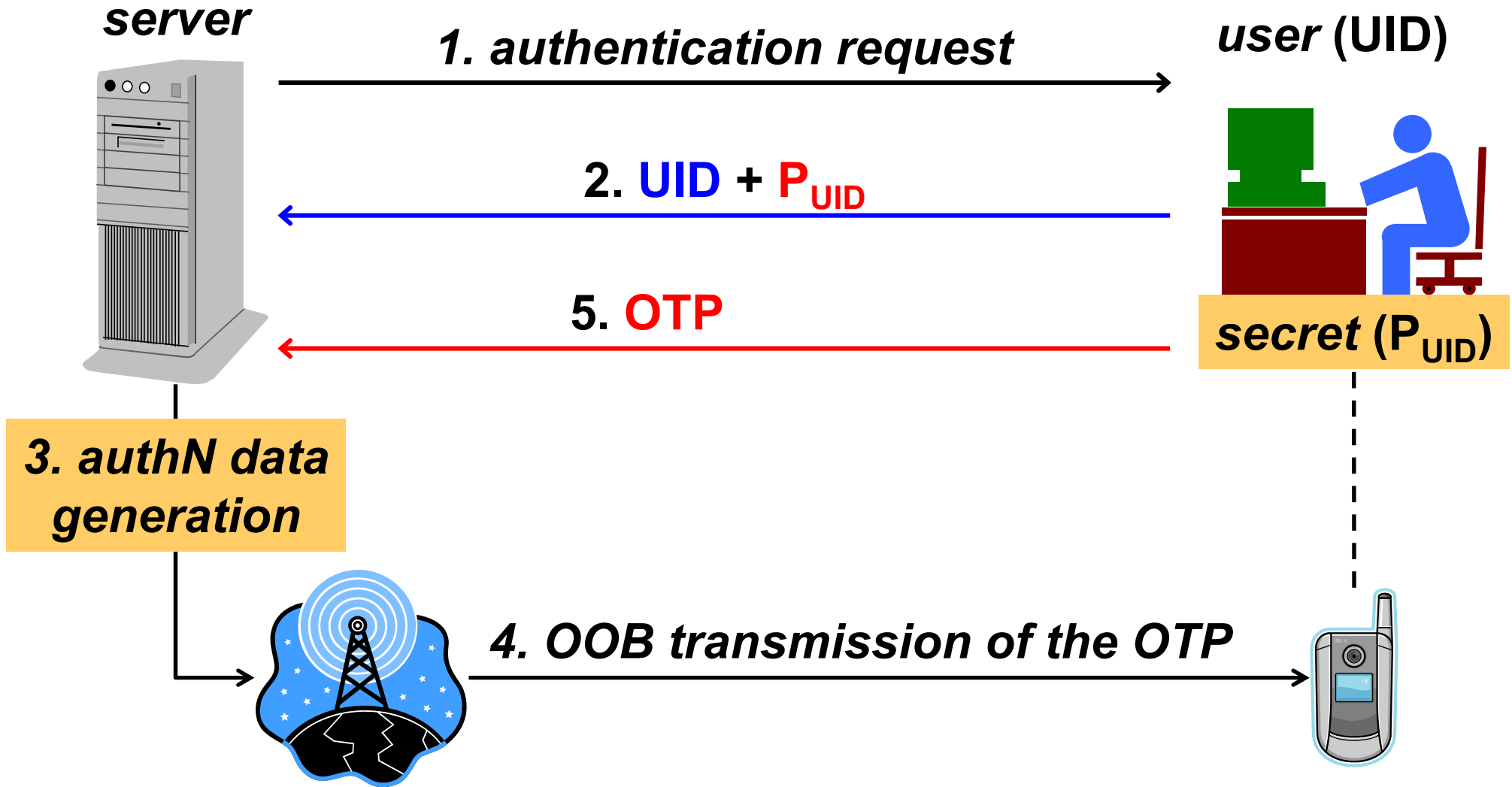
SecurID: architecture



Event-based OTP

- **uses monotonic integer counter C as input besides the seed**
 - $p(ID, C) = h(C, S_{ID})$
- **requires local computation at the subscriber**
- **counter incremented at the subscriber (e.g. button)**
- **frequent authentication runs are possible**
- **OTP pre-computation is possible**
 - useful to travel w/o authenticator (avoid risk of loss/theft)
 - ... but can also be done by an adversary with temporary access to the authenticator ☹️
- **Verifier must accommodate desynchronization**
 - the subscriber pushed button unwillingly
 - $X == p(ID, C) \parallel X == p(ID, C+1) \parallel X == p(ID, C+2) \parallel \dots ?$

Out-of-band OTP



Out-of-Band OTP

- **at step 5 secure channel w/ server authentication needed to avoid MITM attacks**
- **OOB channel frequently is text/SMS message**
 - can be attacked due to problems of VoIP, mobile user identification, and SS7 protocol
- **NIST SP800-63.B**
 - use of PSTN (SMS or voice) as OOB channel is deprecated
 - suggest using Push mechanism over TLS channel to registered subscriber device

Two-/Multi-Factors AuthN (2FA/MFA)

- **use more than one factor**
 - to increase authN strength
 - to protect authenticator
- **PIN used for authenticator protection**
 - PIN transmitted along with OTP
 - PIN entered to compute the OTP itself
 - PIN (or inherence factor) used to unlock the authenticator, very risky if:
 - lock mechanism weak
 - no protection from multiple unlock attempts
 - unlocking valid for a time window

Importance of MFA: the Iphone ransomware

- **May 2014**
- **iCloud accounts (with 1-factor authN) violated**
- **then "remote lock" used with "find my device"**
- **also a message is sent to the device (iphone, ipad):**
 - "Device hacked by Oleg Pliss!"
 - to regain control send 100 USD/EUR via Paypal to lock404(at)hotmail.com
- **don't wanna pay? then use "recovery mode" (but all the device data and app are lost...)**
- **paying doesn't help either! (fake Paypal account)**

<http://thehackernews.com/2014/05/apple-devices-hacked-by-oleg-pliss-held.html>

Authentication of human beings

- how can we be sure of interacting with a human being rather than with a program (e.g. sensing a password stored in a file)?
- two solutions:
 - CAPTCHA techniques (Completely Automated Public Turing test to tell Computers and Humans Apart)
 - e.g. picture with images of distorted characters
 - biometric techniques
 - e.g. fingerprint

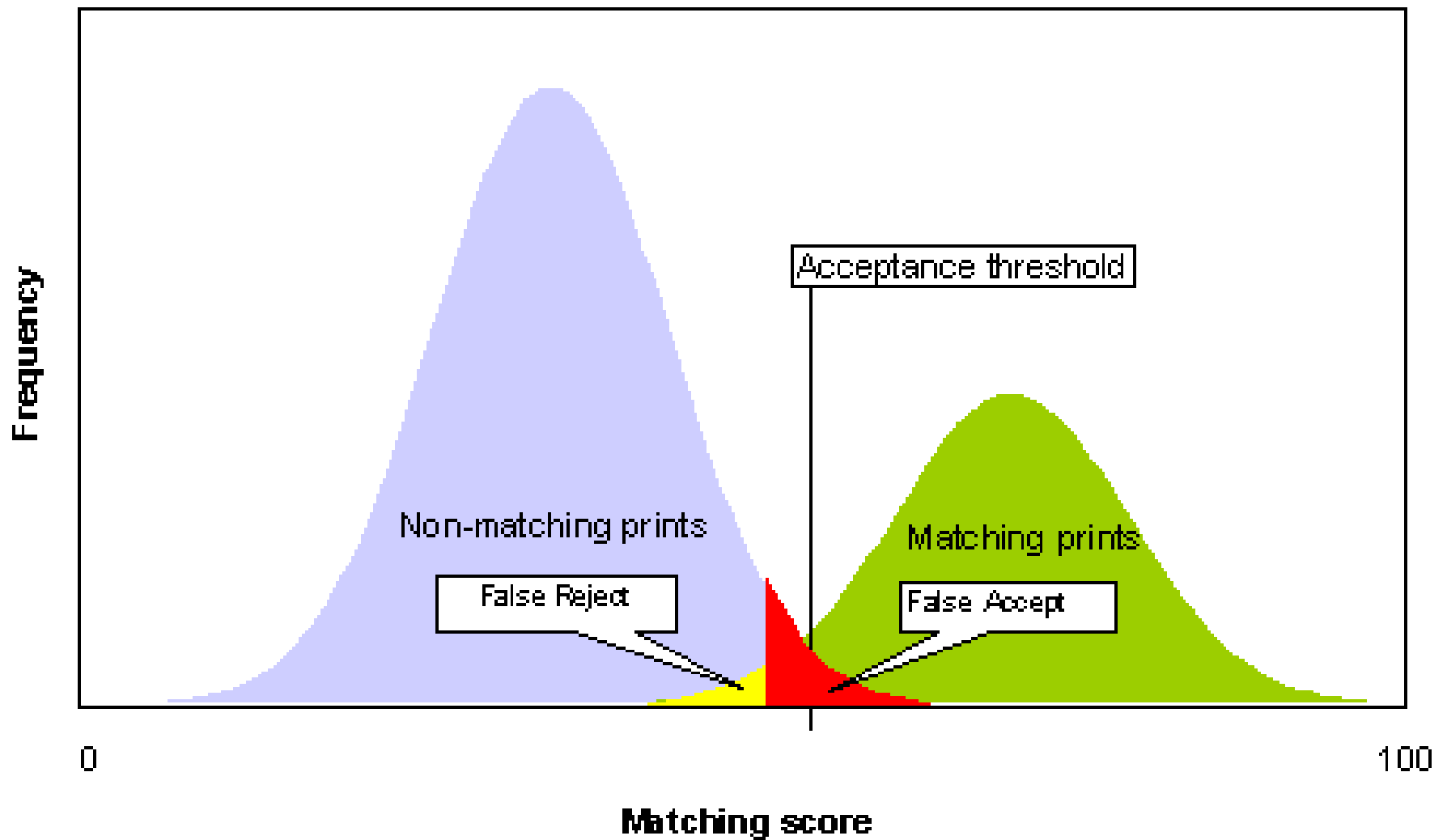
Biometric systems

- **measure of one biologic characteristics of the user**
- **main characteristics being used:**
 - fingerprint
 - voice
 - retinal scan
 - iris scan
 - hands' blood vein pattern
 - heart rate
 - hand geometry
- **each technique can potentially be circumvented**
- **additionally ... NOT REPLACEABLE (!!!)**

Problems of biometric systems

- **FAR** = False Acceptance Rate
- **FRR** = False Rejection Rate
- FAR and FRR may be partly tuned but they heavily depend on the cost of the device
- variable biological characteristics:
 - finger wound
 - voice altered due to emotion
 - retinal blood pattern altered due to alcohol or drug

FAR / FRR



Problems of biometric systems

- **psychological acceptance:**

- “Big Brother” syndrome (=personal data collection)
- some technologies are intrusive and could harm

- **privacy**

- it's an identification

- **cannot be changed if copied**

- hence only useful to *locally* replace a PIN or a password

- **lack of a standard API / SPI:**

- high development costs
- heavy dependence on single/few vendors

Kerberos

- authentication system based on a TTP (Trusted Third Party)
 - important for non-HTTP services
- invented as part of the MIT project Athena
- user password never transmitted but only used locally as (symmetric) cryptographic key
- *realm* = Kerberos domain, that is the set of systems that use Kerberos as authentication system
- *credential* = user.instance@realm



Kerberos

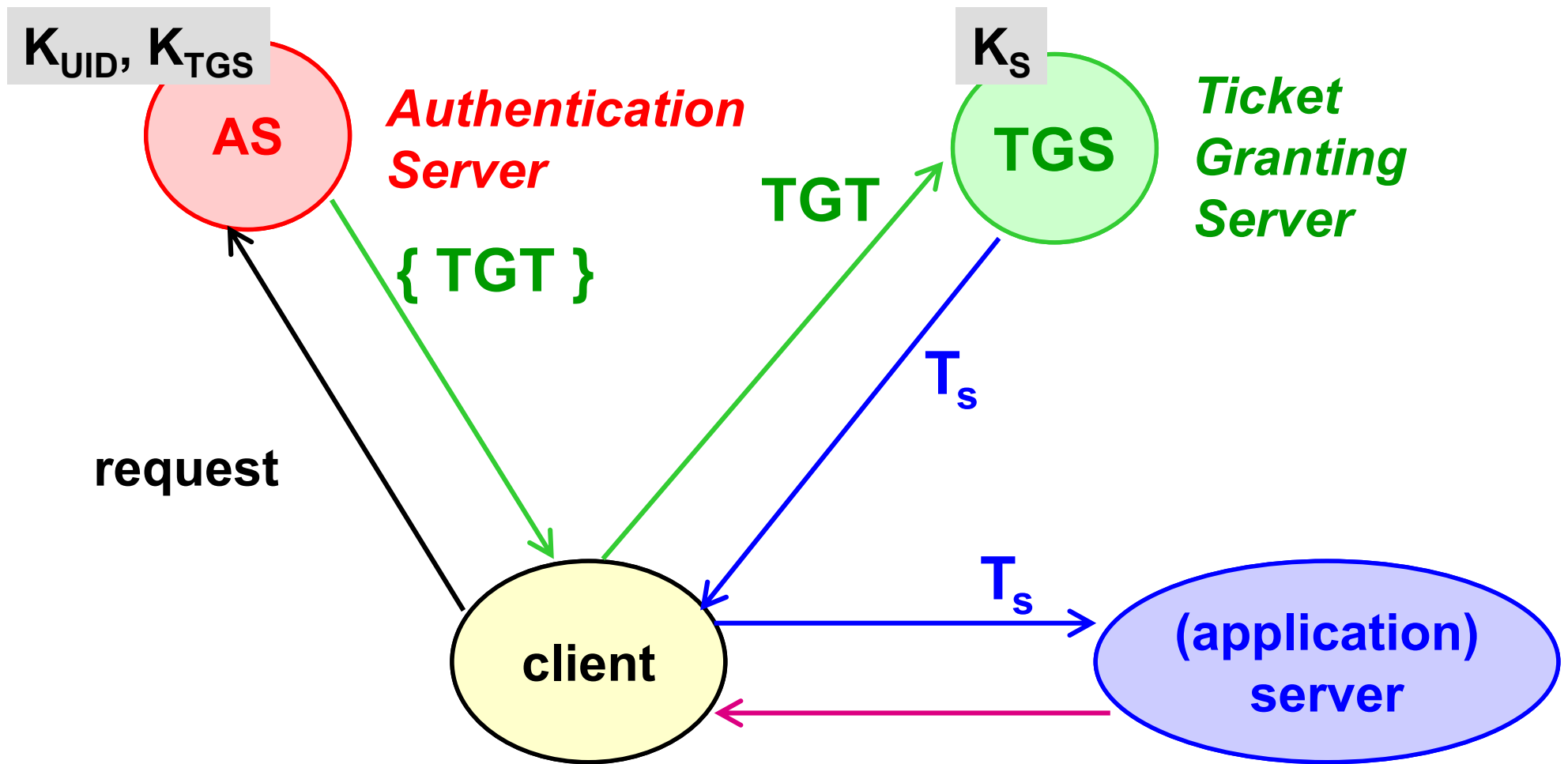
■ ticket

- data structure to authenticate a client to a server
- variable lifetime
(V4: max 21 hours = 5' x 255)
(V5: unlimited)
- encrypted with the symmetric key of the target server
- bound to the IP address of the client
- bound to just one credential

■ client authentication compulsory

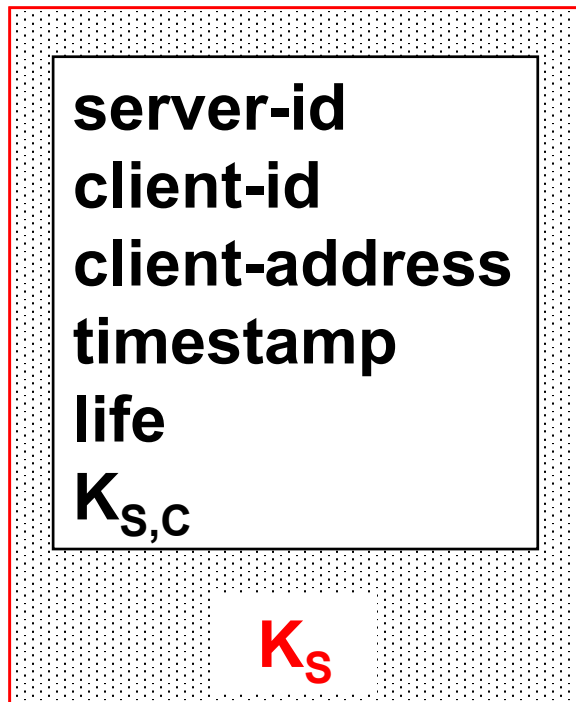
- server authentication optional

Kerberos high-level view

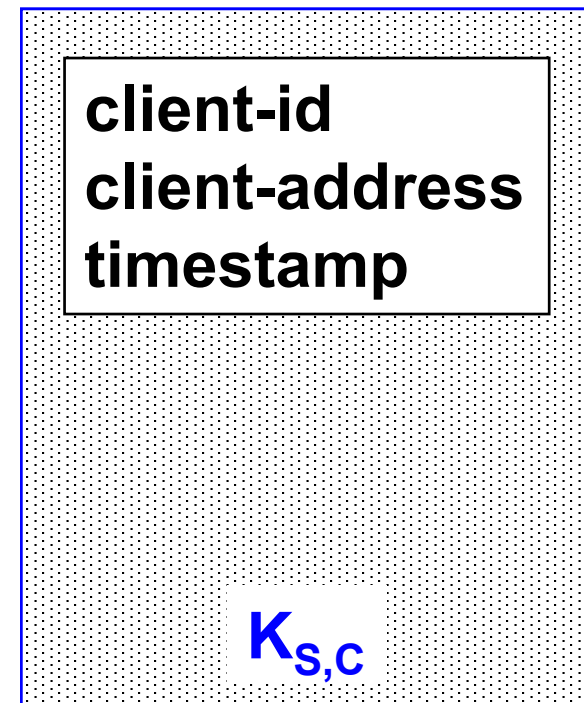


Kerberos: data formats (v4)

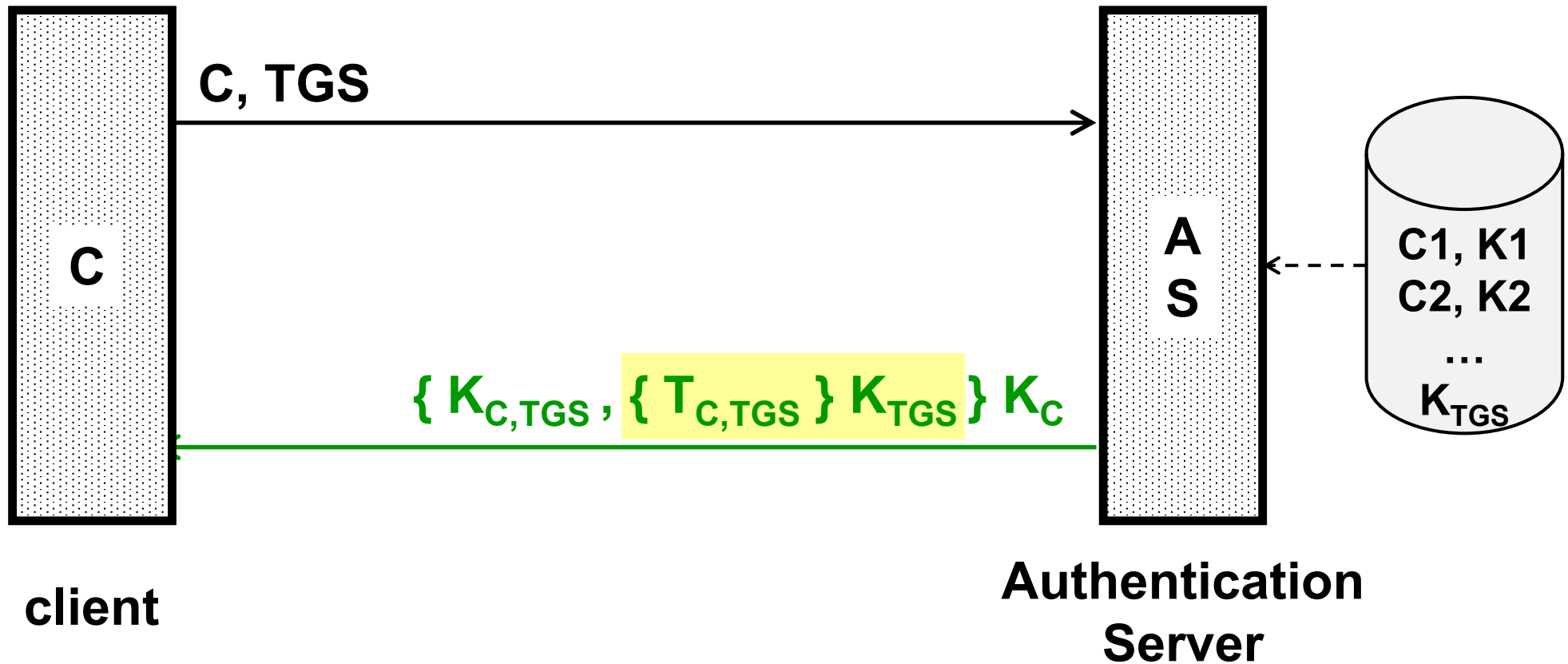
TICKET



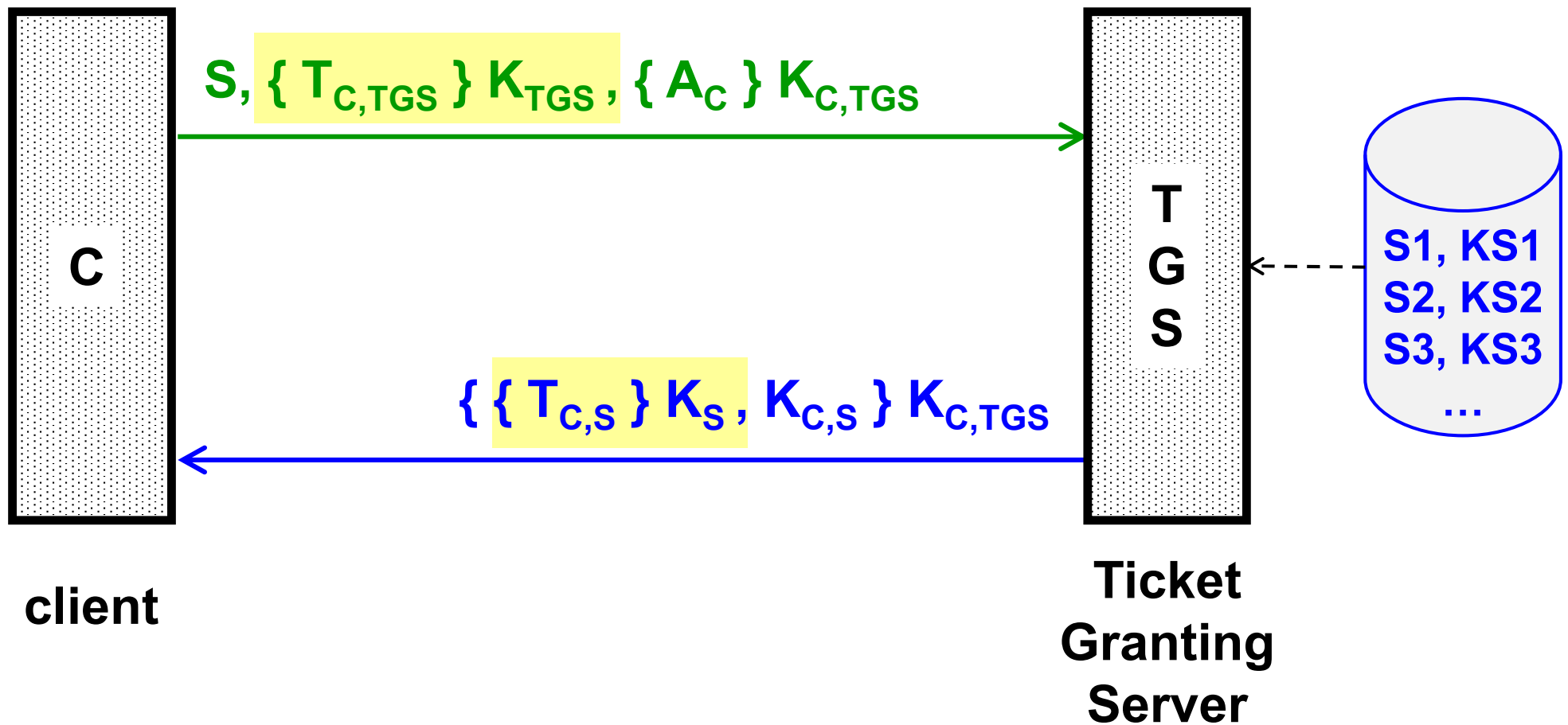
AUTHENTICATOR



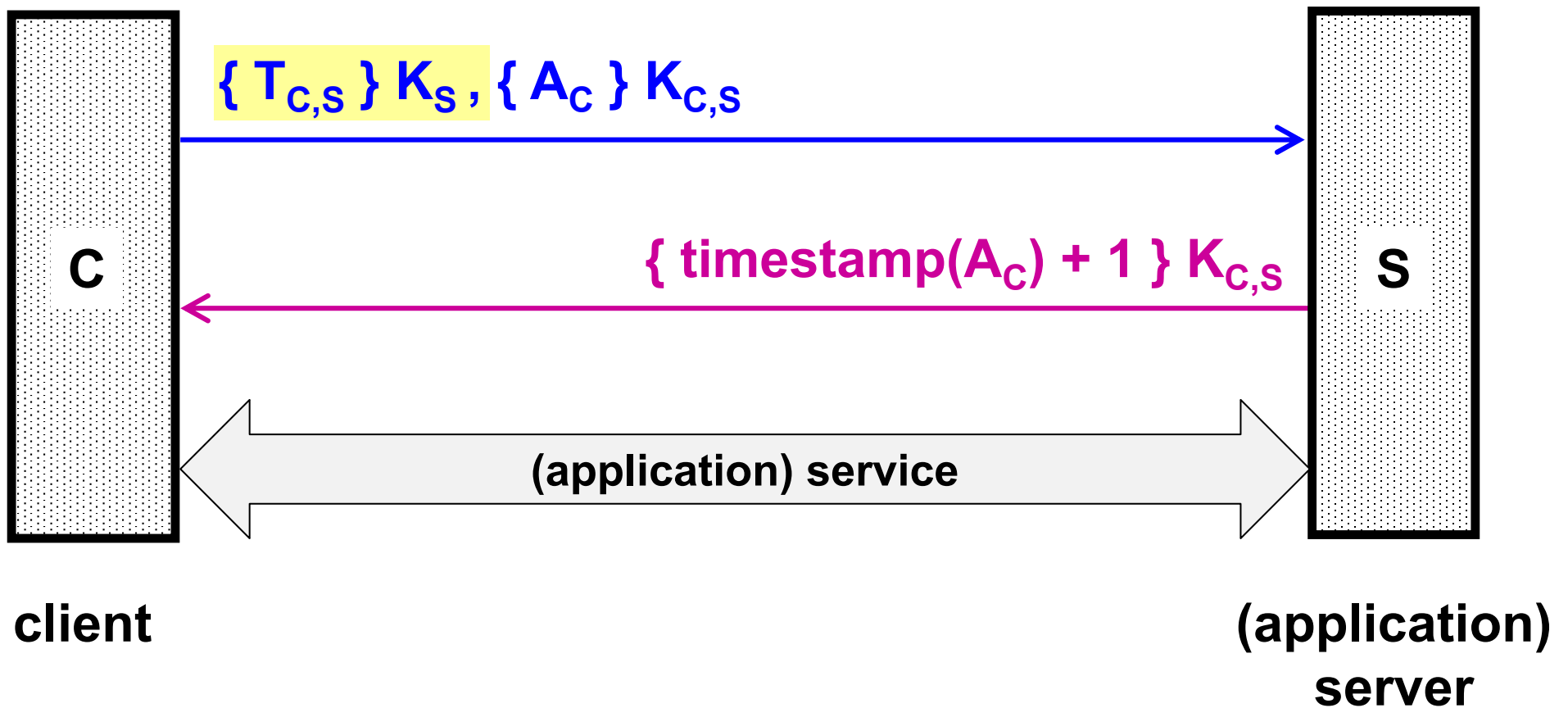
TGT request



Ticket request



Ticket use



Kerberos versions and usage

- **MIT V4**

- the original one

- **MIT V5 (also RFC-1510)**

- not only DES
- extended ticket lifetime (begin-end)
- inter-realm authentication
- forwardable ticket
- extendable ticket

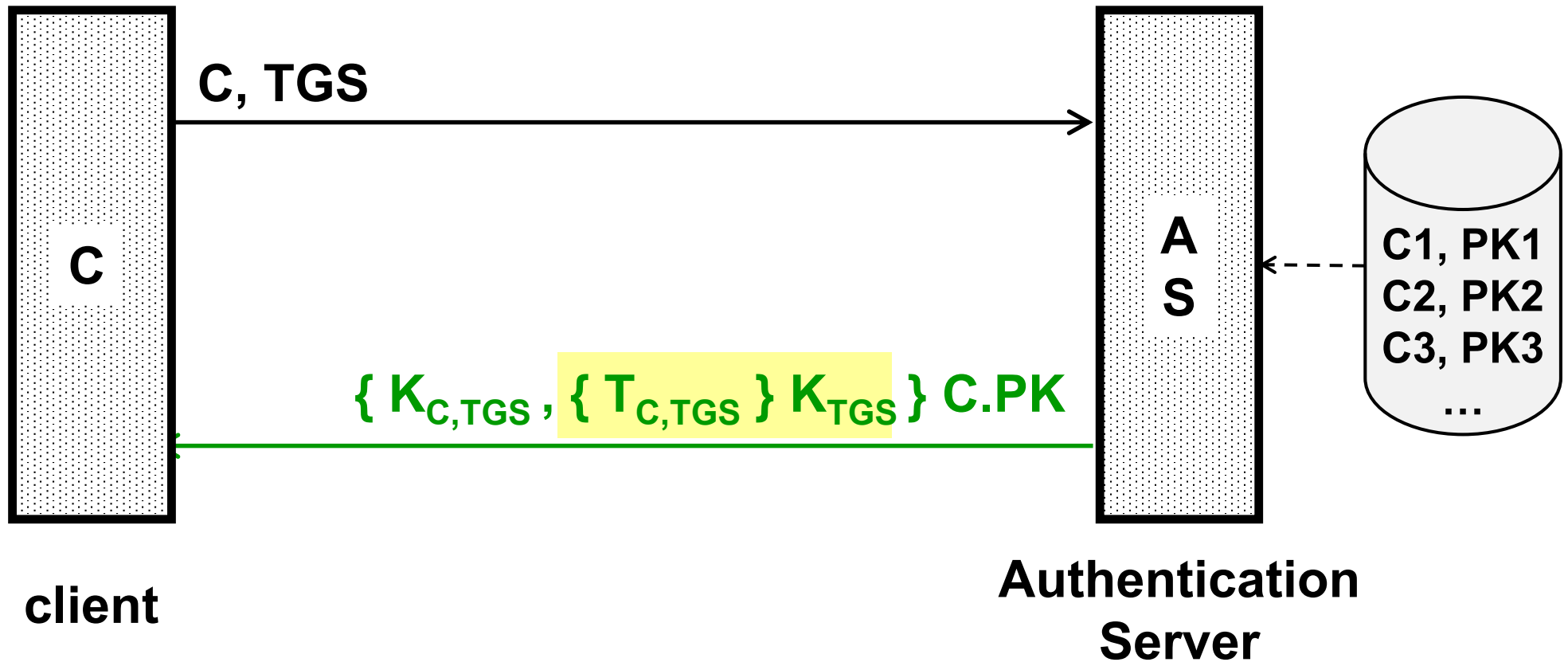
- **single login to all Kerberized services**

- K-POP, K-NFS, K-LPD, K-telnet, K-ftp, K-dbms
- services in a Windows domain (MS has adopted Kerberos* since Windows-2000)

Kerberos v5

- **RFC-4120 (obsoletes RFC-1510)**
- **algorithm flexibility**
 - client and servers may support different algorithms
 - originally it was DES-CRC32
 - then 3DES, RC4, AES, Camellia and MD4, MD5
- **pre-authentication**
 - to prevent pwd enumeration or dictionary attacks on the TGT
 - e.g in Windows, the AS_REQ must contain $\text{enc}(K_C, T)$
- **support for asymmetric crypto (in AS_REQ only)**

TGT request with PKINIT

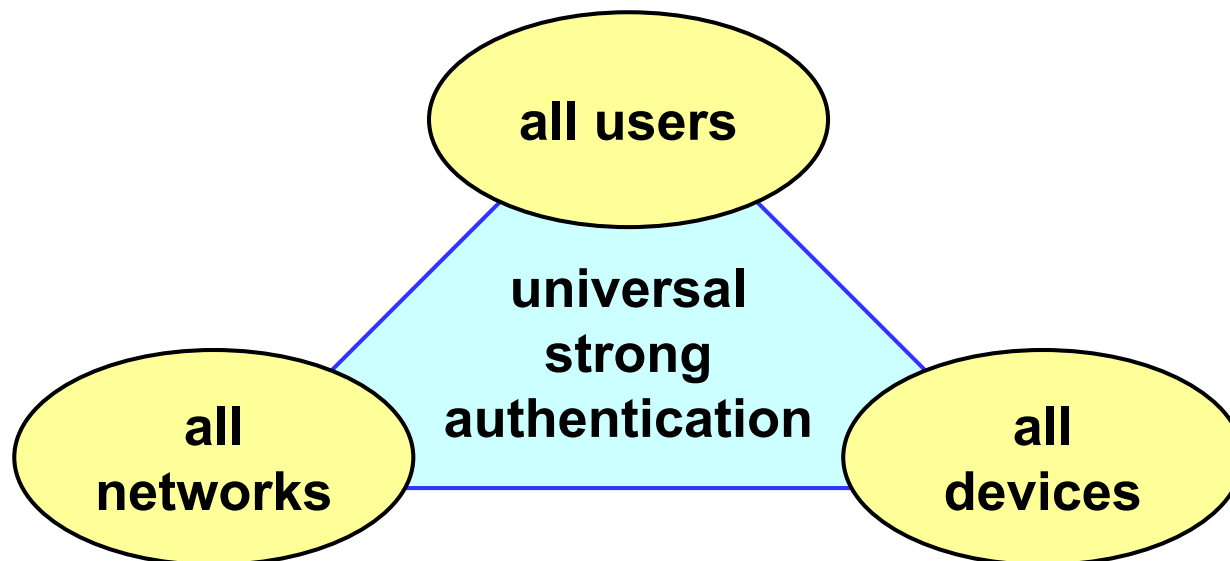


SSO (Single Sign-On)

- the user has a single “credential” to authenticate himself and access any service in the system
- fictitious SSO:
 - client for automatic password synchronization / management (alias “password wallet”)
 - specific for some applications only
- integral SSO:
 - multiapplication authentication techniques (e.g. asymmetric CRA, Kerberos)
 - likely requires a change in the applications
 - multi-domain SSO (e.g. with SAML tokens, that generalize Kerberos tickets)

Authentication interoperability

- OATH (www.openauthentication.org)
- interoperability of authentication systems based on OTP, symmetric or asymmetric challenge
- development of standards for the client-server protocol and the data format on the client



OATH specifications

- <http://www.openauthentication.org/specifications>
- HOTP (HMAC OTP, RFC-4226)
- TOTP (Time-based OTP, RFC-6238)
- OATH challenge-response protocol (OCRA, RFC-6287)
- Portable Symmetric Key Container (PSKC, RFC-6030)
 - XML-based key container for transporting symmetric keys and key-related meta-data
- Dynamic Symmetric Key Provisioning Protocol (DSKPP, RFC-6063)
 - client-server protocol for provisioning symmetric keys to a crypto-engine by a key-provisioning server

HOTP

- **K** : shared secret key
- **C** : counter (monotonic positive integer number)
- **h** : cryptographic hash function (default: SHA1)
- **sel** : function to select 4 bytes out of a byte string
- **$\text{HOTP}(K,C) = \text{sel}(\text{HMAC-h}(K,C)) \& 0x7FFFFFFF$**
- note: the mask 0x7FFFFFFF is used to set MSB=0 (to avoid problems if the result is interpreted as a signed integer)
- to generate a N digits (6-8) access code:
 $\text{HOTP-code} = \text{HOTP}(K,C) \bmod 10^N$

TOTP

- as HOTP but the counter **C** is the number of intervals **TS** elapsed since a fixed origin **T0**

$$C = (T - T0) / TS$$

- default (RFC-6238):

- $T0$ = Unix epoch (1/1/1970)
- T = unixtime(now)
seconds elapsed since the Unix epoch
- TS = 30 seconds
- ... equivalent to $C = \text{floor} (\text{unixtime}(\text{now}) / 30)$
- h = SHA1 (but MAY use SHA-256 or SHA-512)
- $N = 6$

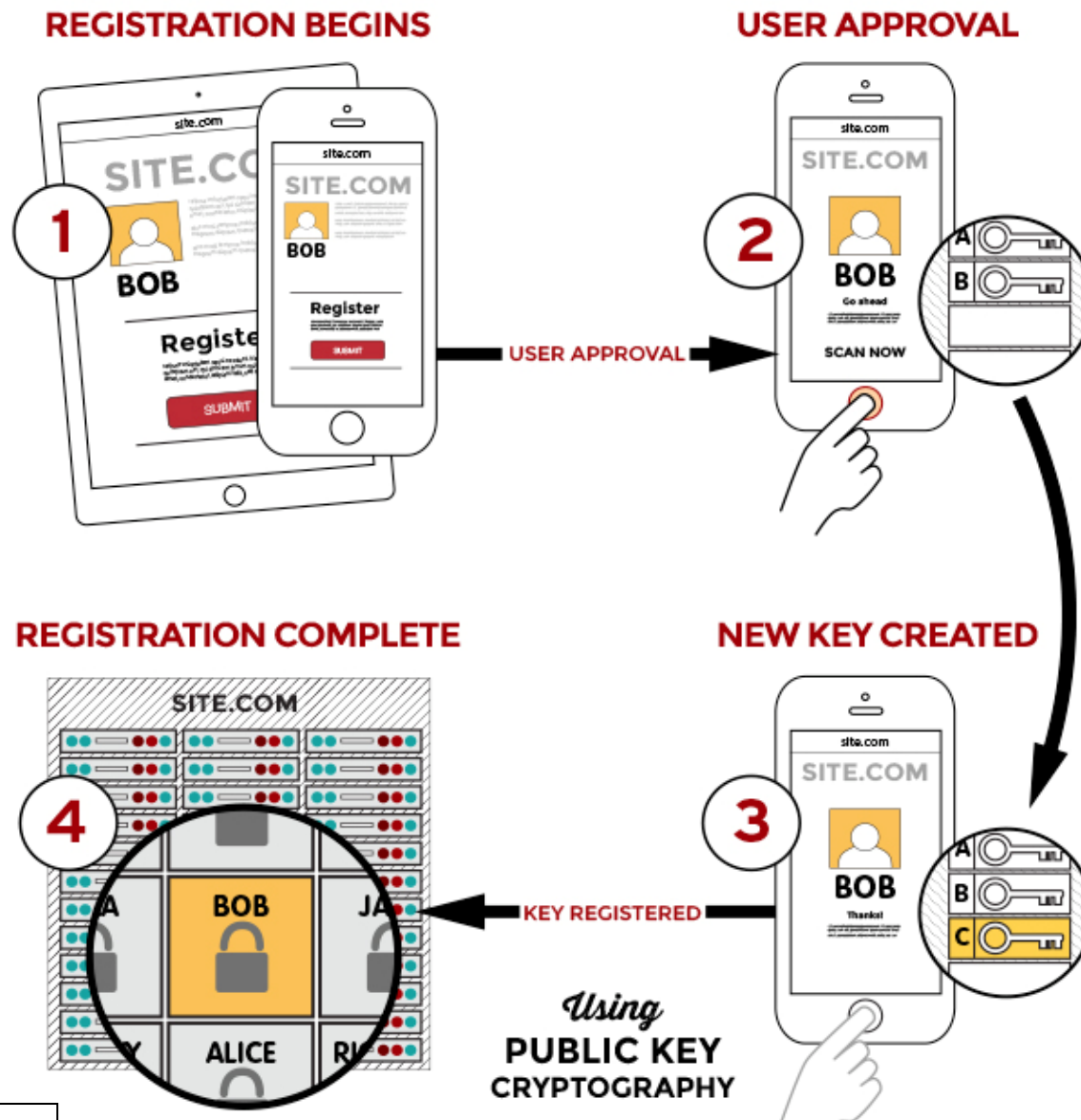
Google authenticator

- **supports HOTP and TOTP with the following assumptions:**
 - K is provided base-32 encoded
 - C is provided as uint₆₄
 - sel(X)
 - offset = 4 least-significant-bits of X
 - return X[offset ... offset+3]
 - TS = 30 seconds
 - N = 6
 - if the generated code contains less than 6 digits then it's left padded with zeroes (e.g. 123 > 000123)

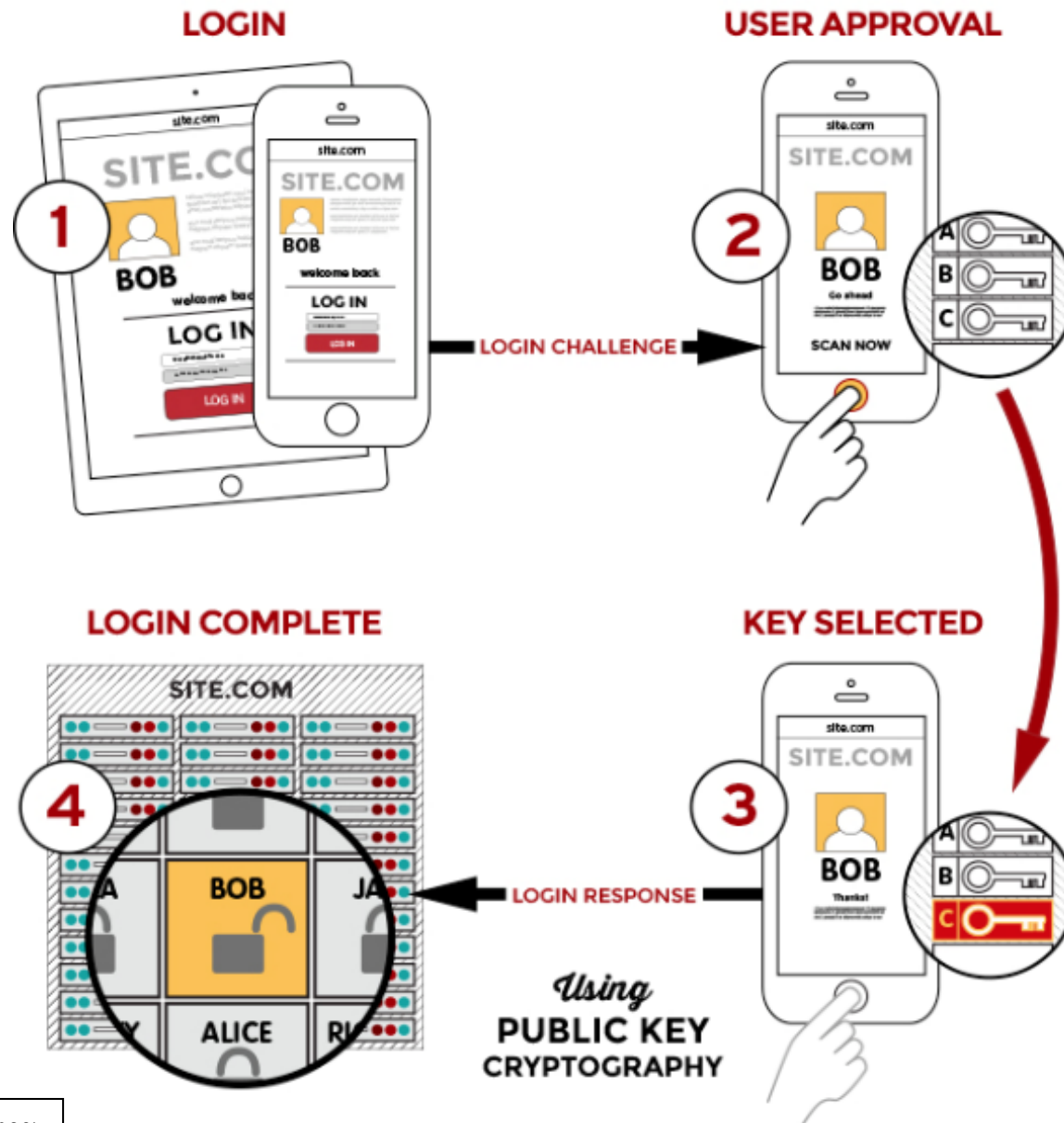
FIDO

- **Fast IDentity Online**
- **industry standard of the FIDO Alliance for:**
 - biometric authN = passwordless user experience
 - 2-factor authN = 2nd factor user experience
- **based on personal devices capable of asymmetric crypto**
 - for responding to an asymmetric challenge
 - for digital signature of texts
- **UAF = Universal Authentication Framework**
- **U2F = Universal 2nd Factor**
- **ASM = Authenticator-Specific Module**
- **available for major services (Google, Dropbox, GitHub, Twitter, ...) and also for the cloud (GCP, AWS, Azure, ...)**

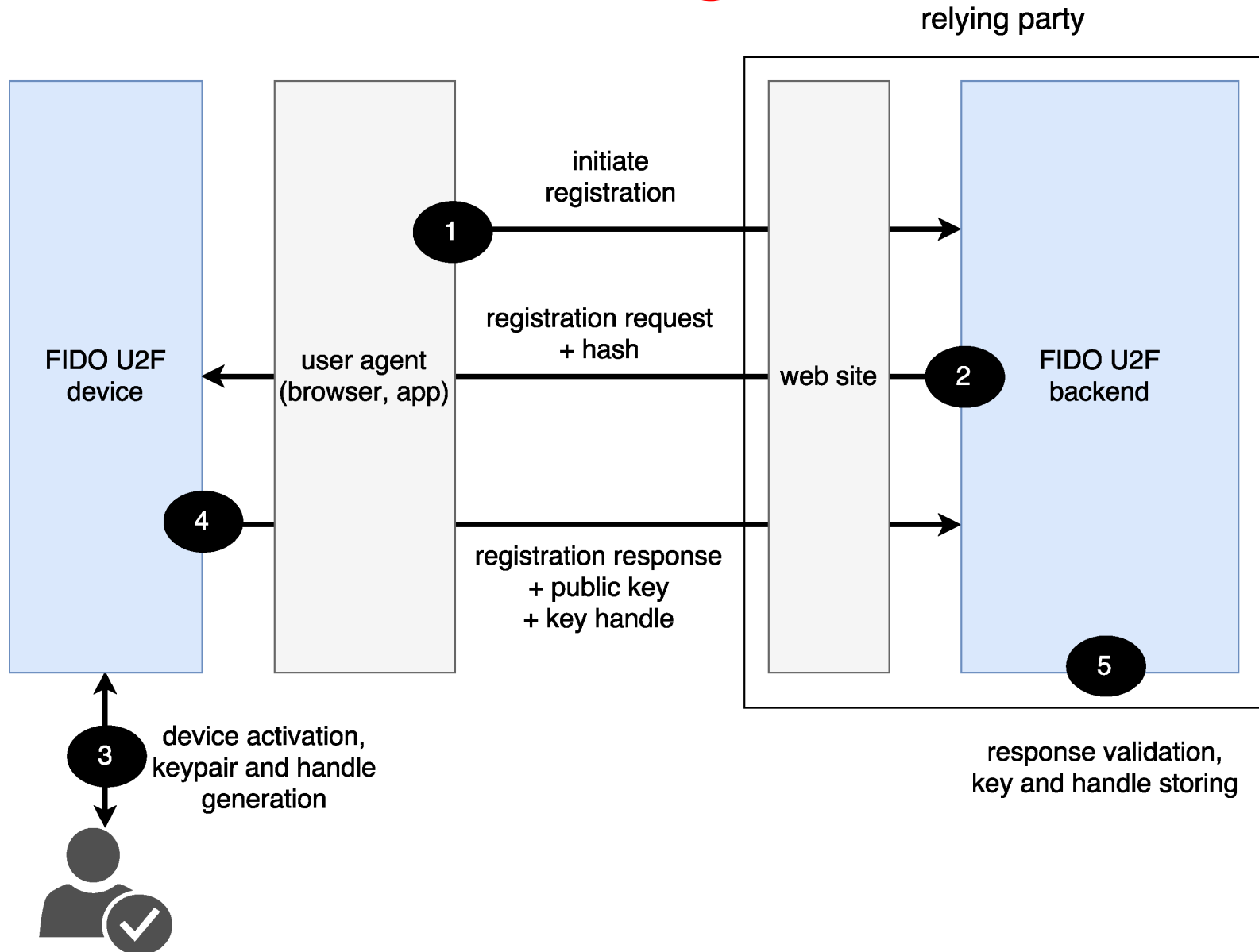
FIDO registration



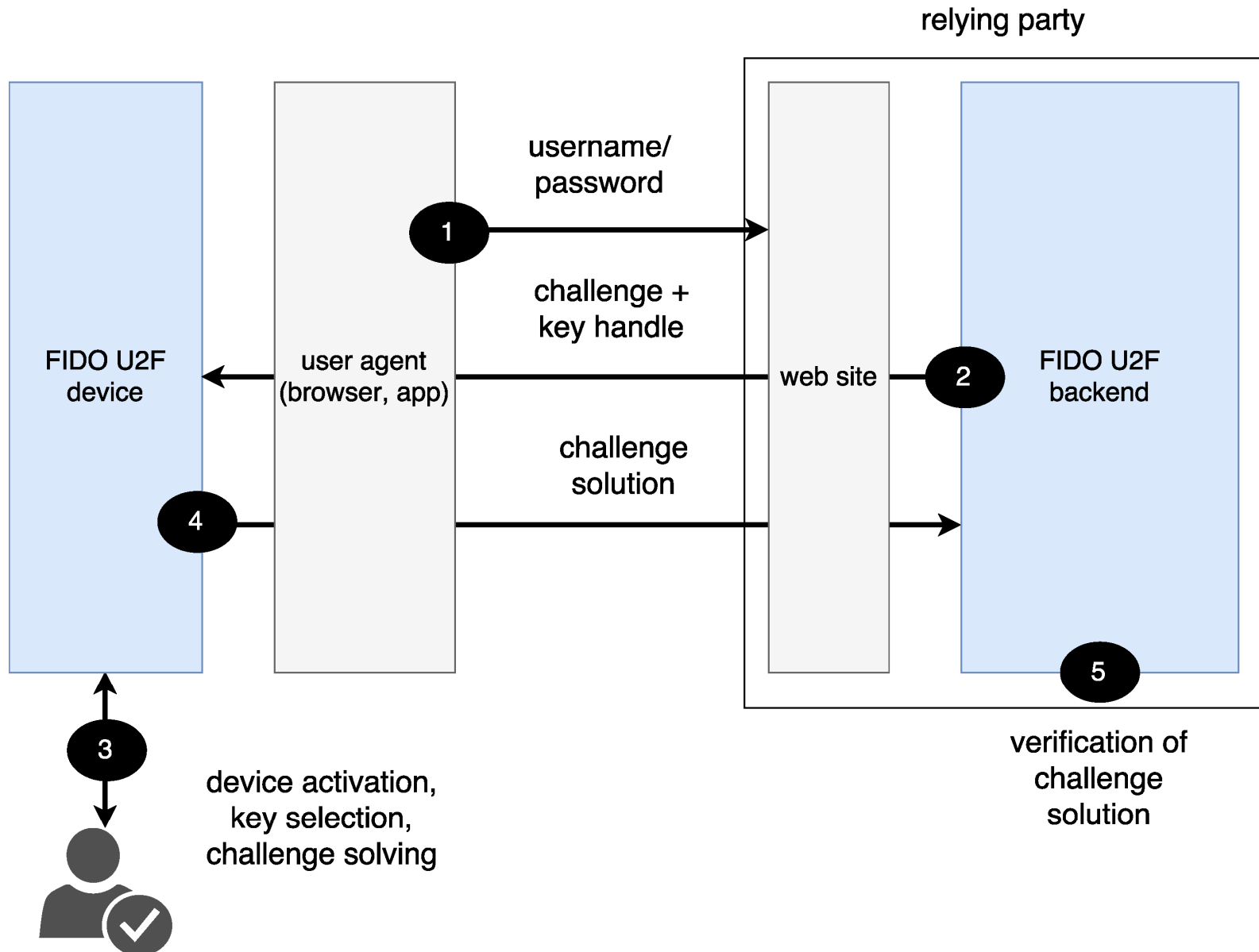
FIDO Login



FIDO U2F registration



FIDO U2F authentication



FIDO: other characteristics

- **biometric techniques**

- local authentication method to enable the FIDO keys stored on the user device

- **secure transactions**

- digital signature of a transaction text (in addition to the response to the challenge)

- **FIDO backend (or server)**

- to enable the use of FIDO on an application server

- **FIDO client**

- to create and manage credentials FIDO on a user device

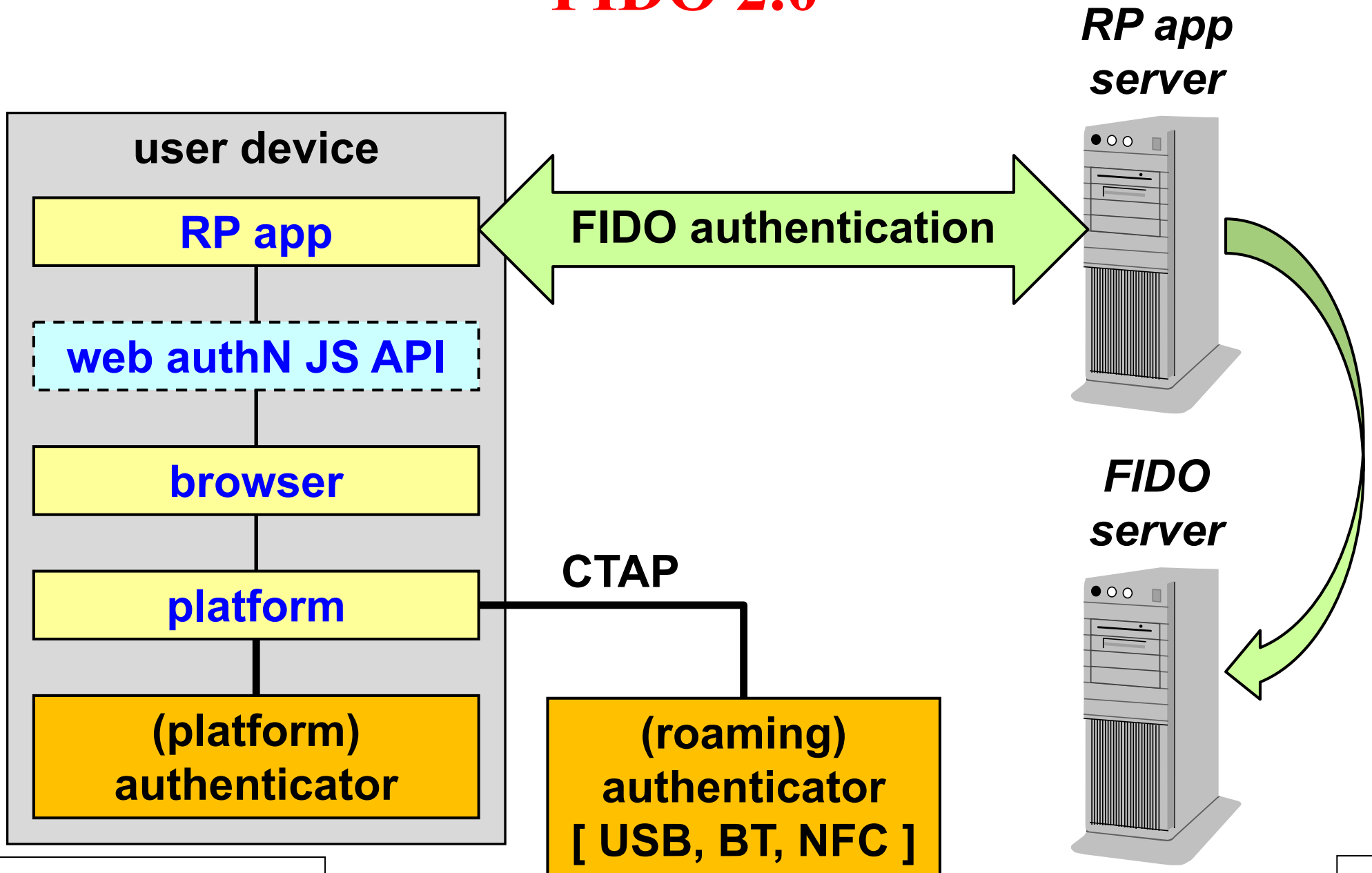
FIDO: security and privacy

- **strong authentication (asymmetric cryptography)**
- **no 3rd party in the protocol**
- **no secrets on the server side**
- **biometric data (if used) never leave user device**
- **no phishing because authN response can't be reused:**
 - it's a signature over various data, including the RP identity
- **since one new key-pair is generated at every registration, we obtain no link-ability among:**
 - different services used by the same user
 - different accounts owned by the same user
- **there is no limit because private keys are not stored in the authenticator but recomputed as needed based on an internal secret and RP identity**

Fido: evolution

- **Feb.2013: FIDO alliance launched**
- **Dec.2014: FIDO v1.0**
- **Jun.2015: Bluetooth and NFC as transport for U2F**
- **Nov.2015: submission to W3C of the Web API for accessing FIDO credentials**
- **Feb.2016: W3C creates the Web Authentication WG to define a client-side API that provides strong authentication functionality to Web Applications, based on the FIDO Web API**
- **Nov.2017: FIDO v2.0**

FIDO 2.0



FIDO 2.0: some details

- **CTAP = Client To Authenticator Protocol**
- **the platform (bound, internal) authenticators are cryptographic elements (more or less secure) able to store (and use) asymmetric keys**
 - packed attestation = authenticator with limited resources (e.g. Secure Element)
 - TPM attestation = TPM as cryptographic element
 - Android Key attestation = authenticator of Android Nougat
 - Android SafetyNet attestation = authenticator of Android via SafetyNet API
 - FIDO U2F attestation = authenticator FIDO U2F using the FIDO-U2F Message Format
- **being extended for authN of IoT devices**