

# On the Security of Chien’s Ultralightweight RFID Authentication Protocol

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**Abstract.** Recently, Chien proposed an ultralightweight RFID authentication protocol to prevent all possible attacks. However, we find two de-synchronization attacks to break the protocol.

**Key words:** RFID, cryptanalysis, identification protocols

## 1 Introduction

RFID systems will soon be widely deployed. Currently, they are not secure enough, and hence researchers have proposed various solutions as introduced by Chien in [1]. Chien classified these protocols into four classes. They are *full-fledged*, *simple*, *lightweight*, and *ultralightweight* protocols. The first uses cryptographic functions or public key algorithms to provide mutual authentication between the reader and the tag. The second requires a random number generator and a hash function on each tag. The third uses CRC functions instead of hash functions. The fourth class only needs simple operations, such as XOR, AND, OR, etc. Recently, Chien [1] proposed a new ultralightweight protocol, called SASI, which provides mutual authentication, tag anonymity, data integrity, and forward security. It was designed to resist de-synchronization attack, replay attack, and man-in-the-middle attack. However, we find two de-synchronization attacks to break the protocol.

## 2 SASI protocol

In this section, we review Chien’s protocol. There are three entities in the scheme: tag, reader, and backend database. It is assumed that the reader and the database shares a secure channel, but the channel between the reader and the tag is insecure. The tag is initialized with a static identification ( $ID$ ), a pseudonym ( $IDS$ ) which is used as the search index in the database, and two secret keys  $K1$  and  $K2$ . The length of each variable is 96 bits. These variables are also stored in the database.

Let  $R$  denote the reader and  $T$  denote the tag. The symbol ' $\oplus$ ' refers to bitwise exclusive-or, '+' refers to addition under  $mod\ 2^{96}$ , and ' $\vee$ ' refers to bitwise-or.  $Rot(x, y)$  stands for left rotating  $x$  according to  $y$ 's bits. More precisely, for  $y = y_{96}y_{95}y_{94}...y_2y_1$ , each input bit  $y_i$ , where  $1 \leq i \leq 96$ , is examined and processed by: if  $y_i = 1$ ,  $x$  is left rotated one bit; otherwise, do nothing. (Note that  $Rot(x, y)$  is not clearly defined in [1]. We confirm it in [2]). In fact,  $Rot(x, y)$  acts as an  $w(y)$ -bit left rotation on  $x$ , where  $w(y)$  denotes the Hamming weight of  $y$ . The protocol works as follows:

1.  $R \rightarrow T : hello$
2.  $T \rightarrow R : IDS$

3. The reader uses  $IDS$  to find a matched record in the database and access the corresponding secret information  $ID$ ,  $K1$ , and  $K2$  for the tag. If the  $IDS$  is not found in the database, the reader will request the old  $IDS$  by Step 2 again.
4. The reader chooses two random numbers  $n1, n2$  and sends:
 
$$R \rightarrow T : A||B||C, \text{ where}$$

$$A = IDS \oplus K1 \oplus n1,$$

$$B = (IDS \vee K2) + n2,$$

$$\overline{K1} = Rot(K1 \oplus n2, K1),$$

$$\overline{K2} = Rot(K2 \oplus n1, K2),$$

$$C = (K1 \oplus \overline{K2}) + (K2 \oplus \overline{K1}).$$
5.  $T$  extracts  $n1$  and  $n2$  from  $A$  and  $B$ . Then it computes  $C$ . If  $C$  matches with the one in Step 4, then it updates its  $IDS$ ,  $K1$ , and  $K2$  as follows:
  - (a)  $IDS_{old} = IDS; K1_{old} = K1; K2_{old} = K2,$
  - (b)  $IDS_{next} = (IDS + ID) \oplus (n2 \oplus \overline{K1}),$
  - (c)  $K1_{next} = \overline{K1}; K2_{next} = \overline{K2}.$
6.  $T \rightarrow R : D$ , where
 
$$D = (\overline{K2} + ID) \oplus ((K1 \oplus K2) \vee \overline{K1}).$$
7.  $R$  computes  $D$ . If  $D$  matches with the one in Step 6,  $R$  updates its  $IDS$ ,  $K1$ , and  $K2$ .

Note that in Step 7, if  $D$  passes the verification, the database will update the variables  $IDS$ ,  $K1$ , and  $K2$  with the value of  $IDS_{next}$ ,  $K1_{next}$ , and  $K2_{next}$  respectively. The old values of the variables are discarded [2].

### 3 The First Attack

We assume that there is a synchronized tag in which  $(IDS_{next}, K1_{next}, K2_{next})$  equals to  $(IDS, K1, K2)$  stored in the database. We denote these variables as  $(IDS_1, K1_1, K2_1)$ . Now, suppose the reader goes to read the tag. The attacker records the messages  $(A, B, C)$  as  $(A', B', C')$ . At the end of the protocol, the attacker interrupts the message  $D$  so that the reader will not update its variables. However, the tag will update its variables as follows:

- a)  $(IDS_{old}, K1_{old}, K2_{old}) = (IDS_1, K1_1, K2_1),$
- b)  $(IDS_{next}, K1_{next}, K2_{next}) = (IDS_2, K1_2, K2_2).$

Next, we allow the reader and the tag to run the protocol again without intervening them. Because  $IDS_2$  is not found in the database, both the reader and the tag use  $IDS_1$  to communication. Thus, the database will update its variable list to  $(IDS_3, K1_3, K2_3)$ . In the tag, the values of  $(IDS_{old}, K1_{old}, K2_{old})$  are now updated to  $(IDS_1, K1_1, K2_1)$  and  $(IDS_{next}, K1_{next}, K2_{next})$  are now updated to  $(IDS_3, K1_3, K2_3)$ .

Finally, when the reader leaves the reading range of the tag, the attacker imitates as a valid reader to query the tag. The tag will reply  $IDS_{next}$ , which is  $IDS_3$ . The attacker pretends that he cannot find  $IDS_{next}$  and requests the old  $IDS$ . The tag will response  $IDS_{old}$ , which has the value  $IDS_1$ . The attacker now replays the recorded message  $A_1, B_1, C_1$  to the tag. Since these values were computed by a valid reader with  $IDS_1$  previously, the tag will treat the attacker as a valid reader and update its variables again as:

- a)  $(IDS_{old}, K1_{old}, K2_{old}) = (IDS_1, K1_1, K2_1),$
- b)  $(IDS_{next}, K1_{next}, K2_{next}) = (IDS_2, K1_2, K2_2).$

Now, they are desynchronized since the values stored in the database are  $(IDS_3, K1_3, K2_3)$ , which are completely different from the values stored in the tag.

#### 4 The Second Attack

We assume that there is a synchronized tag with the above settings. The attacker eavesdrops on a successful session between the tag and the reader, and records the values  $(A, B, C)$  as  $(A_1, B_1, C_1)$ . At the same time, the database updates its variable list to  $(IDS_2, K1_2, K2_2)$ . In the tag, the values of  $(IDS_{old}, K1_{old}, K2_{old})$  are  $(IDS_1, K1_1, K2_1)$  and  $(IDS_{next}, K1_{next}, K2_{next})$  are  $(IDS_2, K1_2, K2_2)$ .

When the reader leaves the reading range of the tag, the attacker initiates the protocol and requests  $IDS_1$  by claiming a mismatching for  $IDS_2$ .

Thus, the tag will reply with  $IDS_1$ . The attacker's goal is to forge a tuple  $(A'_1, B'_1, C'_1)$  that is accepted by the tag. The attack makes  $A'_1 = A_1^*$  where  $A_1^*$  is to flip the  $k$ -th bit in  $A_1$ ,  $B'_1 = B_1$ , and  $C'_1 = C_1^*$  where  $C_1^*$  is to flip the most significant bit (MSB) of  $C_1$ . Then, the attacker replies the tag with  $(A'_1, B'_1, C'_1)$ .

Note that in the protocol of SASI, flipping the  $k$ -th bit in  $A$  leads to the  $k$ -th bit in  $n1$  be flipped if  $IDS$  and  $K$  remain unchanged. Therefore, the  $k$ -th bit in  $K2 \oplus n1$  will flip.

If the flipped bit is coincidentally rotated to the MSB in  $\overline{K2}$ , then  $C$  will be changed in the MSB. This is because the addition overflowing bit under  $mod 2^{96}$  would be discarded. Therefore,  $x + y$  only differs from  $x^* + y$  in the MSB if  $x^*$  only differs from  $x$  in the MSB. More precisely, there are eight cases. Let us use  $X, Y$ , and  $C_{MSB}$  to denote the MSBs of  $(K1 \oplus \overline{K2})$ ,  $(K2 \oplus \overline{K1})$ , and  $C$  respectively. Let  $carry$  represent whether the sum of the rest bits of the two operands generates a carry bit. We have  $C'_{MSB}$  denote the MSB of  $C$  after we flip  $X$ . The truth table is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Truth table

$X$	$Y$	$carry$	$\overline{X}$	$C_{MSB}$	$C'_{MSB}$
0	0	0	1	0	1
0	0	1	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	0	1	0

In this way,  $C'_{MSB}$  always flips and  $C_1^*$  from the attacker will pass the verification process of the tag. Since the rotation is controlled by the Hamming weight of  $K2_1$ , the attacker can obtain an authenticated tuple  $(A'_1, B'_1, C'_1)$  by at most 96 trials for all possible values of  $k$ . We also note that an authenticated tuple can be confirmed if there is a response  $D'$  from the tag in Step 6. In fact,  $D'$  differs from  $D$  in the MSB, too. Once an authenticated tuple  $(A'_1, B'_1, C'_1)$  is accepted by the tag, the tag will update  $(IDS_{next}, K1_{next}, K2_{next}) = (IDS_2, K1_2, K2_2^*)$ , where  $K2_2^*$  has the  $k$ -th bit flipped in  $K2_2$ .

In the next time, when the reader tries to read the tag, the tag replies  $IDS_2$ . This value can be found in the database, but the reader will be rejected by the tag, since the key  $K2_{next}$  stored in the tag is no longer synchronized with the database. This makes them de-synchronized.

## 5 Discussion and Conclusion

In order to prevent the first attack, it is possible to store two copies of variables in the database.

In this way, the old  $IDS$ , i.e.,  $IDS_{old}$ , can be found in the database so that the first attack can not work. However, this approach is still vulnerable to the second attack. In the second attack,  $IDS_{next}$  in the tag is the same as  $IDS_{next}$  in the database. However, the reader cannot be authenticated due to the difference in  $K2_{next}$ .

We often find security loopholes in authentication protocols without hash functions. It is still a hard challenge to design an ultralightweight secure authentication protocol.

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## References

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