

# Cryptanalysis of two post-quantum authenticated key agreement protocols

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## Abstract

As the use of the internet and digital devices has grown rapidly, keeping digital communications secure has become very important. Authenticated Key Agreement (AKA) protocols play a vital role in securing digital communications. These protocols enable the communicating parties to mutually authenticate and securely establish a shared secret key. The emergence of quantum computers makes many existing AKA protocols vulnerable to their immense computational power. Consequently, designing new protocols that are resistant to quantum attacks has become essential. Extensive research in this area had led to the design of several post-quantum AKA schemes.

In this paper, we analyze two post-quantum AKA schemes proposed by Dharminder et al. [2022] and Pursharathi and Mishra. [2024] and demonstrate that these schemes are not secure against active adversaries. An adversary can impersonate an authorized user to the server. We then propose reliable solutions to prevent these attacks.

## Keywords

Authentication, Key agreement, Lattice-based cryptography, Post-quantum security

## 1 Introduction

A mutual authenticated key agreement scheme between two entities,  $A$  and  $B$ , is a protocol that enables parties to authenticate each other as well as establish a shared secret key [15]. Achieving a shared key along with mutual authentication has many applications in the real world [2, 16, 24, 25, 28, 31, 33, 34], two common ones are as follows.

First, the development and expansion of IoT in recent years have increased the data produced by smart devices [23]. This increase has led to challenges such as determining efficient solutions for storing, maintaining, and accessing these data, in a way that if these data are stored and maintained on a cloud server, users can access them when needed. Access to and retrieval of data by users from the cloud server must be such that no one other than the authorized user can gain knowledge of or access the exchanged data. For this purpose, one of the existing solutions is the use of mutual authenticated key agreement schemes. In this case, after mutually authenticating each other, they establish a shared session key and securely exchange data.

Second, another use case for these schemes is in establishing secure communications on mobile devices [32]. Nowadays, people use mobile devices for many daily activities. In many cases, the proper functioning of these devices is contingent upon establishing connections with the outside world and other devices to

exchange data and access provided services. As mentioned in the previous section, to ensure security in these communications such that the confidentiality of sensitive data is protected and access to this data and services is restricted to authorized individuals, the use of mutually authenticated key agreement schemes is desirable.

Many of these schemes use classical computational hard assumptions such as integer factorization [22] and discrete logarithm problem [7, 20] to establish their security.

With the advent of quantum computers and consequently quantum algorithms, many cryptographic schemes based on the hardness of classical computational assumptions will be broken and will no longer be secure [19, 30]. Post-quantum cryptography refers to cryptographic systems that remain secure even if an attacker possesses a quantum computer [3]. These cryptographic systems use various approaches to maintain security against quantum attacks. Lattice-based cryptography [21] and problems such as Learning With Errors (LWE) [29] and Ring-LWE [18], which are fundamental lattice-based problems, receiving significant attention in the design of post-quantum schemes [26]. According to the predictions that quantum computers capable of breaking classical schemes will be produced within the next 20 years, there is a need to design schemes resistant to quantum attacks [4]. Consequently, Dharminder et al. [6] have proposed a lattice-based post-quantum mutually authenticated key agreement scheme for the Internet of Things (IoT), and Pursharathi and Mishra [27] have designed a lattice-based post-quantum mutually authenticated key agreement scheme for communications in mobile devices.

In this paper, we analyze the two aforementioned schemes and we demonstrate that [6] is vulnerable to impersonation attacks and [27] is vulnerable to replay attacks and then propose a solution to address the existing flaws.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the lattice-based authenticated key agreement schemes are reviewed. In the next section, we present the necessary preliminary concepts to examine the two protocols [6, 27]. In Section 4, scheme [6] is reviewed, followed by a discussion of its vulnerabilities. Then a solution is proposed to fix its vulnerabilities. The next section follows a similar structure as Section 4 and is dedicated to examining the scheme proposed in [27]. Finally, we conclude this article in the last section.

## 2 Related Work

Katz and Vaikuntanathan [14] in 2009 first proposed a password-authenticated key exchange (PAKE) scheme based on the LWE assumption, allowing two parties to establish a new shared key using a low-entropy password, with security that can be proven under the LWE assumptions. Then in 2012, Ding et al. [10] proposed a

scheme based on the RLWE assumptions to agree on a session key. This key exchange protocol was inspired from the Diffie-Hellman key exchange [8]. However, the scheme was vulnerable to man-in-the-middle (MitM) attacks because it lacked mutual authentication. Consequently, an authenticated version of this scheme [35], secure against active adversaries, was subsequently proposed.

In 2017, Ding et al. [9] introduced a new attack called the signal leakage attack (SLA) on [10], unveiling new vulnerabilities in RLWE-based key exchange schemes. Utilizing this idea, Liu et al. [17] were able to find out the vulnerability of scheme [1] against this type of attack. In 2020, Islam [13] proposed a lattice-based authenticated key agreement (AKA) scheme, which was proven secure in the random oracle model. Just like other schemes that used RLWE assumptions, this scheme was also insecure against SLA [5].

In 2018, Feng et al. [12] proposed an anonymous ideal lattice-based authenticated key agreement scheme for client-server environments, which was proven secure based on the hardness of the RLWE problem in the random oracle model. In this environment, authorized users can authenticate and utilize services provided by the server without worrying about their identity privacy being compromised. Ding et al. [11], upon reviewing [12], realized that this scheme was insecure against the SLA and consequently proposed a secure anonymous AKA scheme against this attack. Subsequently, Pursharthi and Mishra [27] reviewed [11] and realized the vulnerabilities of this scheme against attacks such as device-stolen attacks, password-guessing attacks, and insider attacks. They proposed a secure scheme against these attacks with improved computational complexity compared to the previous ones. In this paper, we will demonstrate that the scheme [27] is vulnerable to replay attacks. Additionally, by reviewing the scheme proposed by Dhar-minder et al. [6], which is a lattice-based AKA scheme for the Internet of Things, we will show that this scheme is insecure against active adversaries because an adversary can impersonate an authorized user to the server.

### 3 Preliminaries

In this section, we will cover the basic concepts required for the schemes [6, 27]. Suppose  $q$  is an odd prime number,  $\mathbb{Z}$  is the set of all integers,  $\mathbb{R}^+$  is the set of all non-negative real numbers,  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  is the set of all non-negative integers, and  $\mathbb{R}$  is the set of all real numbers. Let  $\chi_\beta$  represent a discrete Gaussian distribution where  $\beta$  is a scaling parameter affecting the variance of the distribution, defined over  $\mathbb{R}^+$  and  $n = 2^t$  where  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Also, let  $\mathbb{Z}[X]$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  represent the rings of polynomials over  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , respectively. Consider two polynomial rings  $R = \mathbb{Z}[X]/(x^n + 1)$  and  $R_q = \mathbb{Z}_q[X]/(x^n + 1)$ . Suppose  $M = \{-\lfloor q/4 \rfloor, \dots, \lfloor q/4 \rfloor\}$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{Z}_q = \{-(q-1)/2, \dots, (q-1)/2\}$ .

**DEFINITION 1.** For any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ , the characteristic function  $Cha$  is defined as follows:

$$Cha(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \in M \\ 1 & x \notin M \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

**DEFINITION 2.** The auxiliary mod function  $Mod_2 : \mathbb{Z}_q \times \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is defined as follows:

$$Mod_2(r, s) = (r + s \cdot (q-1)/2 \pmod{q}) \pmod{2} \quad (2)$$

where  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  and  $s = Cha(r)$ .

This function is denoted by  $\Psi_2$  in [27].

**LEMMA 1.** If  $q$  is an odd prime number,  $c, e \in R_q$  such that  $|e| < q/8$  and  $w = c + 2 \cdot e$ , then  $Mod_2(c, Cha(c)) = Mod_2(w, Cha(c))$

Now, we want to extend two functions  $Cha$  and  $Mod_2$  on  $R_q$ : each element  $c = c_0 + c_1x^1 + \dots + c_{n-1}x^{n-1} \in R_q$  can be described as  $c = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1})$ . For any random vector  $u = (u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}) \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , the definitions of the above functions are extended as follows:

$$Cha(c) = (Cha(c_0), Cha(c_1), \dots, Cha(c_{n-1})) \quad (3)$$

$$Mod_2(c, u) = (Mod_2(c_0, u_0), Mod_2(c_1, u_1), \dots, Mod_2(c_{n-1}, u_{n-1})) \quad (4)$$

**DEFINITION 3 (RING LEARNING WITH ERRORS).** Suppose  $A_{s, \chi_\beta}$  is a distribution over  $(c, c \cdot s + e) \in R_q \times R_q$  where  $c, s \leftarrow R_q$  and  $e \leftarrow \chi_\beta$  are chosen randomly. The distinction of  $A_{s, \chi_\beta}$  from a uniform distribution over  $R_q \times R_q$  for any PPT adversary is computationally infeasible.

## 4 Cryptanalysis of Dhar-minder's protocol

In this section, we first examine protocol [6]. Then, we analyze its security and point out the existing vulnerability. Finally, we conclude this section with a proposed secure approach to address the existing security flaw. The symbols used in this protocol are described in Table 1.

**Table 1: Symbols and Their Descriptions**

Notations	Descriptions
$U_i$	$i^{th}$ user
$MD_i$	$U_i$ 's smart (mobile) device
$S$	cloud server
$Cha$	Characteristic mapping
$Mod_2$	Auxiliary modular mapping
$ID_{U_i}$	Identity of $U_i$
$SK$	Session key shared between $U_i$ and $S$
$PW_i$	$U_i$ 's chosen (sufficiently strong) password
$x$	Master secret key of server $S$
$\alpha_{U_i}, rn_{U_i}$	Random secrets generated by $U_i$
$T_1, T_2$	Current timestamps
$\Delta T$	Maximum allowable transmission delay
$q$	A sufficiently large prime
$R_q$	Finite ring
$x \leftarrow A$	$x$ is randomly chosen from the set $A$
$\chi_\beta$	Discrete Gaussian distribution
$h(\cdot)$	Collision-resistance hash function
$c$	$c$ is randomly chosen from $R_q$
$n$	Positive integer of the form $2^k, k > 0$
$P$	Public key of server
$\oplus$	Bitwise exclusive-OR (XOR)
$\parallel$	String concatenation

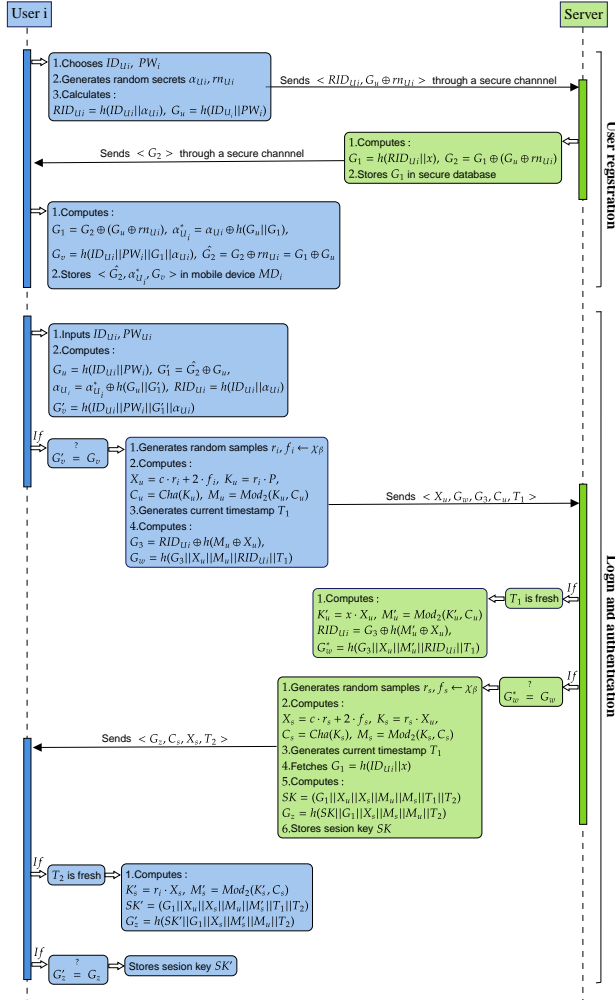


Figure 1: Sequence Diagram of Dharminer's Protocol

#### 4.1 Dharminer's protocol

Protocol [6] is a post-quantum mutual authenticated key agreement protocol in which two entities, a user and a server, intend to establish a session key after mutual authentication. This protocol is divided into four main phases:

- **Setup Phase:** In this phase, the server, after executing the setup algorithm, makes the parameters  $\{n, q, c, \chi_\beta, P, h(\cdot)\}$  publicly available to the users and keeps  $x$  private.
- **Registration Phase:** As shown in Figure 1, the user  $U_i$  initially sends a registration request to the respective server after determining  $ID_{U_i}, PW_i$  and calculating  $RID_{U_i}, G_u$  by sending  $\langle RID_{U_i}, G_u \oplus m_{U_i} \rangle$  through a secure channel. The server then uses the received values and  $x$  to calculate  $G_1, G_2$ , and after storing  $G_1$ , sends  $G_1$  back to the user through a secure channel. Now, the user calculates the values  $\langle \hat{G}_2, \alpha_{U_i}^*, G_v \rangle$  in such a way that by storing these values on his/her mobile device, he/she can later use them

along with input, after user authentication by the mobile device, to calculate  $G_1$ .

- **Login and Mutual Authentication Phase:** After a successful registration in the previous phase, as shown in Figure 1, the user inputs  $ID_{U_i}, PW_{U_i}$  to create a new session key. Subsequently, the mobile device calculates  $G'_v$  using these values along with those stored during the registration phase and compares it with  $G_v$ . If  $G'_v = G_v$  holds, the user is authenticated by the mobile device, and the login phase is successfully completed. In the next phase,  $MD_i$  by calculating and sending  $\langle X_u, G_w, G_3, C_u, T_1 \rangle$  through a public channel to the server, requests authentication and the creation of a new session key. Upon receiving the user's message at time  $T_1^*$ , the server verifies the validity of the received timestamp by checking the condition  $|T_1 - T_1^*| < \Delta T$ . If  $T_1$  is valid, the server uses the received values and  $x$  to calculate  $G_w^*$  and compares it with  $G_w$ . If  $G_w^* = G_w$  holds, the user is authenticated by the server. Then, the server calculates  $X_s, K_s, C_s, M_s, G_z$ , and the shared session key  $SK$ . The server sends  $\langle G_z, C_s, X_s, T_2 \rangle$  to the user, enabling the user to authenticate the server and compute the shared session key. Finally, upon receiving the server's message, the user first verifies the validity of the received timestamp by checking the condition  $|T_2 - T_2^*| < \Delta T$ . If  $T_2$  is valid, the user uses the received values and  $G_1$  to calculate  $SK'$  and  $G'_z$ . Then, the value  $G'_z$  is compared with  $G_z$ . If  $G'_z = G_z$  holds, the server is authenticated by the user, and the key  $SK'$  is stored as the new session key.
- **User Password Change Phase:** In this phase, if the registered user wishes, their password can be updated to a new one locally without the need to establish a connection with the server.

#### 4.2 Attack on Dharminer's protocol

We want to show that in Protocol [6], an adversary  $A$  can authenticate themselves as user  $U_i$  to the server  $S$ . The adversary  $A$  can bypass the login phase on the user's mobile device and send a message as  $U_i$  in the public channel. Now, to authenticate  $U_i$  to the server using the received message, it is sufficient for the adversary to calculate and send valid  $\langle \hat{X}_u, \hat{G}_w, \hat{G}_3, \hat{C}_u \rangle$  to the server. For this purpose, the adversary  $A$  first randomly selects  $r', f'$  from  $\chi_\beta$  and calculates the following values:

$$\hat{X}_u = c \cdot r' + 2 \cdot f' \quad (5)$$

$$\hat{K}_u = r' \cdot P \quad (6)$$

$$\hat{C}_u = Cha(\hat{K}_u) \quad (7)$$

$$\hat{M}_u = Mod_2(\hat{K}_u, \hat{C}_u) \quad (8)$$

Then, in addition to generating the timestamp  $T_1$  at the same time, the adversary produces a random value  $RID_{U_i}$  with a length equal to the hash function's range  $h(\cdot)$ . The adversary calculates the values  $\hat{G}_3, \hat{G}_w$  as follows:

$$\hat{G}_3 = RID_{U_i} \oplus h(\hat{M}_u \oplus \hat{X}_u) \quad (9)$$

$$\hat{G}_w = h(\hat{G}_3 || \hat{X}_u || \hat{M}_u || RID_{U_i} || T_1) \quad (10)$$

And finally, the adversary sends  $\langle \hat{X}_u, \hat{G}_w, \hat{G}_3, \hat{C}_u, T_1 \rangle$  to the server  $S$  on behalf of user  $U_i$ . Upon receiving the message, if the timestamp  $T_1$  is verified to be fresh, the server uses the received data and  $x$  to calculate the following values:

$$K_{u'} = x \cdot \hat{X}_u \quad (11)$$

$$M_{u'} = \text{Mod}_2(K_{u'}, \hat{C}_u) = \hat{M}_u \quad (12)$$

$$RID_{U_i} = \hat{G}_3 \oplus h(M_{u'} \oplus \hat{X}_u) = RID_{U_i} \oplus h(\hat{M}_u \oplus \hat{X}_u) \oplus h(M_{u'} \oplus \hat{X}_u) = RID_{U_i} \quad (13)$$

$$G_w^* = h(\hat{G}_3 || \hat{X}_u || M_{u'} || RID_{U_i} || T_1) \quad (14)$$

Since  $M_{u'} = \hat{M}_u$ ,  $RID_{U_i} = RID_{U_i}$ , then  $G_w^* = \hat{G}_w$ , and the sender's identity is authenticated as user  $U_i$  by the server. As a result, the adversary  $A$  successfully authenticated herself as user  $U_i$  to the server  $S$ . Note that although the adversary  $A$  is not able to compute the session key, she managed to impersonate  $U_i$  to the server by executing this attack.

### 4.3 Suggestions

To prevent the attack described in the previous section, it is sufficient to change the structure of  $G_w$ , where  $G_w = h(G_3 || X_u || M_u || RID_{U_i} || T_1)$ , as follows:

$$G_w = h(G_1 || G_3 || X_u || M_u || RID_{U_i} || T_1) \quad (15)$$

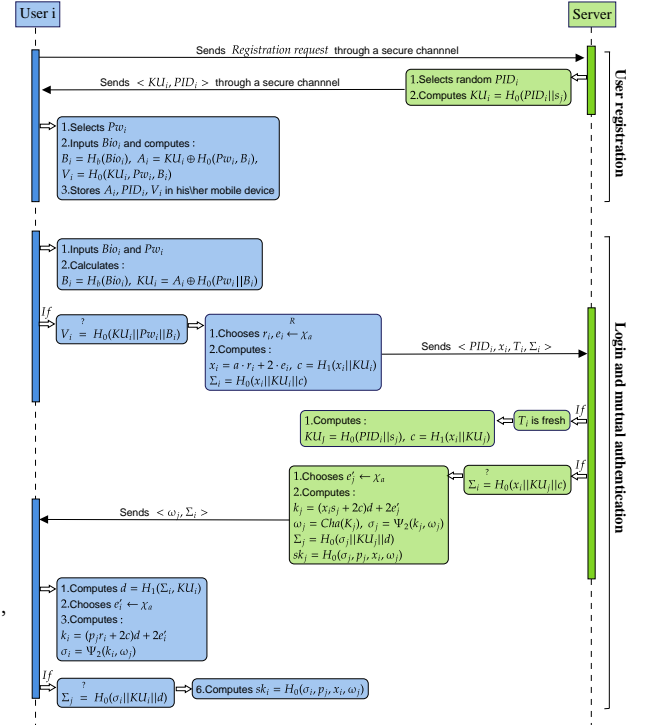
where  $G_1$  is  $G_2' \oplus G_u$ , which the user's mobile device calculates during the login phase. Additionally, the server securely stores this value during the user  $U_i$ 's registration phase. Now, if the adversary  $A$  wants to authenticate herself as user  $U_i$  to the server, she must be able to obtain  $G_1$ , which is the long-term private key shared between the server and the user, in addition to the values described in the previous section.

## 5 Cryptanalysis of Pursharthy's protocol

In this section, similar to the previous section, we first examine the main protocol, then describe the existing security flaw, and finally conclude with a proposed solution. Additionally, the symbols used in this protocol are described in Table 2.

**Table 2: Symbols and Their Descriptions**

Notations	Descriptions
$U_i$	$i^{th}$ user
$S$	Server
$Bio_i$	Boimetric of $U_i$
$T_i$	Current timestamp
$H_b(\cdot)$	Biohashing function
$H_0(\cdot)$	Hash function
$H_1(\cdot)$	Maps $\{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \chi_a$
$\chi_a$	Gaussian distribution
$a$	$a \in R_q$ public parameter
$n$	Positive integer of the form $2^k$ , $k > 0$
$\rho$	Prime number
$s_j \in \chi_a$	Server's private key
$p_j = a \cdot s_j + 2 \cdot e_j$	Server's public key where $e_j \in \chi_a$



**Figure 2: Sequence Diagram of Pursharthy's Protocol**

### 5.1 Pursharthy's protocol

Protocol [27] is also a post-quantum mutual authenticated key agreement protocol in which two entities, the user and the server, intend to establish a session key after mutual authentication. This protocol is divided into three main phases:

- **Setup Phase:** In this phase, after executing the setup algorithm, the server sends the parameters  $\{n, \rho, \chi_a, a, p_j, H_0, H_1\}$  publicly to the users and keeps  $s_j$  private.
- **Registration Phase:** As shown in Figure 2, user  $U_i$  initially sends his/her registration request to the server through a secure channel to access the server's services. Upon receiving the user's registration request, the server randomly selects a  $PID_i$  and, after calculating the value  $KU_i$ , sends the values  $\langle KU_i, PID_i \rangle$  to the user through a secure channel. Now, the user calculates the values  $\langle A_i, V_i \rangle$  using his/her chosen password  $Pw_i$  and  $Bio_i$  in such a way that by storing these values and  $PID_i$  on his/her mobile device, he/she can later use them and the input information to calculate  $KU_i$  after authenticating the user through the mobile device.
- **Login and Mutual Authentication Phase:** After successful registration in the previous step, as shown in Figure 2, the user initially enters  $Bio_i, Pw_i$  to establish a new session key. The mobile device then uses these values and the values stored during the registration phase to calculate  $H_0(KU_i || Pw_i || B_i)$  and compares it with  $V_i$ . If  $V_i = H_0(KU_i || Pw_i || B_i)$  holds, the user is authenticated by the mobile device, and the login phase is completed successfully.

In the next step, the user's mobile device calculates  $x_i$  and  $\Sigma_i$  and sends  $\langle PID_i, x_i, T_i, \Sigma_i \rangle$  through a public channel to the server, requesting authentication and consequently the establishment of a new session key. Upon receiving the user's message, the server checks the freshness of the received timestamp  $T_i$ . If  $T_i$  is valid, the server uses the received values and  $s_j$  to calculate  $H_0(x_i || KU_j || c)$  and compares it with  $\Sigma_i$ . If  $\Sigma_i = H_0(x_i || KU_j || c)$  holds, the user is authenticated by the server. The server then calculates  $k_j, \omega_j, \sigma_j, \Sigma_j$  and the shared session key  $sk_j$  and sends the values  $\langle \omega_j, \Sigma_j \rangle$  to the user so that the user can authenticate the server and calculate the shared key. Finally, upon receiving the server's message, the user calculates  $k_i, \sigma_i$  using the received values and  $KU_i$ , and then compares  $H_0(\sigma_i, KU_i, d)$  with  $\Sigma_j$ . If  $\Sigma_j = H_0(\sigma_i, KU_i, d)$  holds, the server is authenticated by the user, and the session key  $Sk_i$  is established as the new session key.

## 5.2 Attack on Pursharthi's protocol

We want to demonstrate that Protocol [27] is vulnerable to a replay attack. An adversary  $A$  can bypass the login phase on the user's mobile device and send a message in the public channel as user  $U_i$ . To authenticate  $U_i$  to the server using the received message, the adversary only needs to send a valid  $\langle PID_i, x_i, T_i, \Sigma_i \rangle$  to the server. Suppose the adversary has already eavesdropped on the public channel and obtained at least one valid  $\langle PID_i, x_i, T_i, \Sigma_i \rangle$ . In this case, the adversary can send a message  $\langle PID_i, x_i, T_i^{Current}, \Sigma_i \rangle$  where  $T_i^{Current}$  is the timestamp at the moment the adversary wants to send the message to the server. Upon receiving the message, the server first verifies  $T_i^{Current}$  and, after confirming its freshness, uses  $s_j$  and the received message to calculate  $c$  and  $KU_j$ , and then uses them to calculate  $H_0(x_i || KU_j || c)$  and compare it with  $\Sigma_i$ . Since it is assumed that the adversary has previously eavesdropped on a valid  $\langle PID_i, x_i, \Sigma_i \rangle$  and because  $T_i$  is not used in the structure of any of them, it results in  $\Sigma_i = H_0(x_i || KU_j || c)$ , and the adversary  $A$  is authenticated as user  $U_i$  to the server.

## 5.3 Suggestions

**5.3.1 Prevent Replay Attack.** To prevent the described replay attack, it is sufficient to change the structure of  $\Sigma_i$ , which is currently in the form  $H_0(x_i || KU_j || c)$ , to the following form:

$$\Sigma_i = H_0(x_i || KU_j || c || T_i) \quad (16)$$

In this case, even if the adversary eavesdrops on the sent messages and replaces  $T_i^{Current}$  with  $T_i$  by sending a fresh message, considering the new structure of  $\Sigma_i$ , her identity will ultimately not be authenticated by the server.

**5.3.2 Password Change Phase.** One of the main limitations of Protocol [27] is the lack of a mechanism for updating the user's password to a new one. In this protocol, once the user sets a password, he/she is no longer able to change it. By using the following algorithm, if the registered user wishes, his/her password can be updated to a new one locally without the need to communicate with the server.

```

function PASSWORDCHANGE( $Bio_i, Pw_i, Pw_i^{new}$ )
   $B_i = H_b(Bio_i)$ 
   $KU_i = A_i \oplus H_0(B_i || Pw_i)$ 
  if  $V_i \stackrel{?}{=} H_0(KU_i || Pw_i || B_i)$  then
     $A_i^{new} = A_i \oplus H_0(B_i || Pw_i) \oplus H_0(B_i || Pw_i^{new})$ 
     $V_i^{new} = H_0(KU_i, Pw_i^{new}, B_i)$ 
    Update ( $A_i, PID_i, V_i$ ) by computed ( $A_i^{new}, PID_i, V_i^{new}$ )
  end if
end function

```

**Figure 3: User password change phase (execute by user's mobile device)**

In the pseudocode described in Figure 3, in the first step, the user's authenticity is verified by computing  $H_0(KU_i || Pw_i || B_i)$  using the input  $Bio_i, Pw_i$  and  $A_i$  stored on the user's mobile device. Then, if the user's authenticity is confirmed, the new values  $A_i^{new}, V_i^{new}$  are calculated using the new password  $Pw_i^{new}$  and the existing values on the user's mobile device. These new values replace the previous ones so that, in addition to the expiration of the previous password, the user is able to log into the application with the updated password.

## 6 Conclusion

In this paper, we conducted security analysis of two quantum-safe authenticated key exchange schemes [6, 27]. We demonstrated that an active adversary, after bypassing the login phase in [6], by generating the necessary values using the described method can impersonate the user to the server. In protocol [27], by eavesdropping one successful session, the adversary can manage a replay attack to impersonate an authorized user to the server. Thus, both schemes fail to provide user authentication. Then, by proposing effective countermeasures, we fortified both schemes [6, 27] against the described attacks. Moreover, by providing a secure mechanism for updating the user's password locally, we eliminated the limitation of [27] in this regard.

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