

# On the Security of the Novel Authentication Scheme for UAV-Ground Station and UAV-UAV Communication

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**Keywords:** IoD, Authentication, UAV, PUF, Security Analysis.

**Abstract:** With the unexpected increase in the number of commercialized and marketed UAVs in the last few years, both in the civilian and military fields, the security and privacy remain the exceedingly urgent problem of national security for many countries over the world. In fact, it is imperative that drone security and privacy issues have to be properly and utterly addressed by drone manufacturers as well as commercial operators, via implementing efficient authentication mechanisms executed between the system entities before any exchange of sensitive information. In this paper, we examine in depth the security of the PUF-based authentication scheme published most recently by Alladi et al. in one of the renowned international scientific journals "IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology". Our results indicate that the claimed security performance of this scheme has been overestimated. We show that Alladi et al.'s scheme is prone to the secret session key disclosure attack. We demonstrate that the attacker can easily reveal the shared secret and decrypt all the exchanged messages for both UAV-Ground Station (GS) and UAV-UAV authentication phases. To mitigate the revealed issues, some possible improvements are suggested for this scheme. Further, via formal security analysis, using Random Oracle, we show that Alladi et al.'s improved IoD scheme could deliver all the merits of the original scheme and can prevent the aforementioned vulnerabilities.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) are now widely used for both military and civilian applications, including package delivery, traffic surveillance, and search and rescue missions. UAV networks are rapidly evolving into the Internet of Drones, a layered network control design, with the help of embedded sensors and the acceptance of Internet of Things (IoT) as one of the main approaches in next generation (5G) (IoD) (Yahuza et al., 2021). IoD is referred to as a layered network control design that is primarily intended for managing UAV access to regulated airspace and offering navigation services between nodes. The Internet and other cutting-edge technologies like cloud computing, multi-access edge computing (MEC), artificial intelligence and communication networks enhance conventional UAV technology, creating enormous opportunities for future on-demand service-oriented and user-friendly IoD applications (Choudhary et al., 2018). Additionally, under the IoD concept, a large number of UAVs are grouped together to form a mesh network where each UAV, outfitted with

sensors, gathers data from a specific airspace, disseminates/collects real-time data from other UAVs, and interacts with ground stations (Alsamhi et al., 2019). However, due to the highly sensitive nature of the collected data and the wireless nature of communication among the various entities that comprise the system, security and privacy of the exchanged information became a key concern (Lv, 2019). The pitfalls are to be held responsible for security flaws, which result in significant loss of availability and resources, as well as a loss of privacy. Because the collected data in such a scenario is highly sensitive and decisive, so a secure and efficient authentication and key agreement (AKA) mechanism is required to ensure mutual authentication between the various entities uniting the system.

In recent years, the security and privacy in IoD systems have received a distinct attention. Numerous overviews and surveys on IoD security and privacy have been proposed in the literature (Lv, 2019; Choudhary et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2018; Alsamhi et al., 2019). Inspired by previous works that allow users to establish a shared key while being mutually

authenticated, many authentication schemes with innovative techniques in IoD environments have been proposed in the literature (Alladi et al., 2020b; Alladi et al., 2020a; Gope and Sikdar, 2020; Gope et al., 2021; Hussain et al., 2021). Let us concentrate on the most recent contributions concerning IoD security. Tian et al. (Tian et al., 2019) presented in 2019 an IoD privacy-preserving authentication scheme based on a digital signature scheme. Nonetheless, it is demonstrated that this scheme is insecure against location threats and physical attacks (Gope and Sikdar, 2020). TCALAS is a temporal credential anonymous lightweight authentication scheme for IoD proposed by Srinivas et al. in 2019. However, Ali et al. (Ali et al., 2020) showed that Srinivas et al. (Srinivas et al., 2019) scheme is susceptible to stolen verifier attacks and lacks anonymity. In 2020, Zhang et al. (Zhang et al., 2020) devised a lightweight AKA scheme based on bitwise XOR and one-way hash function operations to ensure mutual authentication between users and drones. Zhang et al. showed that their solution can resist to various known attacks and can achieve AKA-security under the random oracle model. Zhang et al. developed a lightweight AKA system based on one-way hash function and bitwise XOR operation to enable mutual authentication between users and drones in an IoD environment. (Zhang et al., 2020) demonstrated that their solution can withstand several known attacks and attain AKA-security under the random oracle paradigm. Furthermore, it provides improved functionality in terms of computation and transmission expenses. Nevertheless, Gope and Sikdar (Gope and Sikdar, 2020) examined Zhang et al.'s approach and proved its vulnerability to physical and forgery attacks. Furthermore, since the drone must store specific security credentials settings, it may be physically caught and all data stored in its memory accessed (Gope and Sikdar, 2020). Chen et al. suggested a traceable and privacy-preserving AKA for UAV communication control systems in 2020. In 2021, Yahuza et al. (Yahuza et al., 2021) showed that Chen et al. scheme is not secure under the widely used Canetti-Krawczyk (CK) adversary model. These attacks include the well-known session-specific temporary information attack, the partial key-escrow attack and the replay attack induced by a loss of integrity in the exchange messages. In 2021, Jan et al. (Jan et al., 2021) presented a lightweight message authentication scheme for IoD implementing hash function. (Jan et al., 2021) also showed that their protocol is immune to stolen-verifier and privileged insider attacks. On the other side, numerous notable PUF-based authentication solutions have been proposed in the literature in recent years with the goal of ensuring

higher efficiency and degree of security generated by the Physically Unclonable Function (PUF) intrinsic properties such as unclonability, tamper-evident properties, and uniqueness. In this regard, Gope and Sikdar (Gope and Sikdar, 2020), Alladi et al., and Gope et al. (Gope et al., 2021) suggested efficient PUF-based authentication schemes for IoD environments.

In this paper, we first thoroughly examine the security of Alladi et al.'s (Alladi et al., 2020a) PUF-based authentication technique. Our findings suggest that this scheme's claimed security performance has been overestimated. As a result, we will show that Alladi et al.'s scheme is vulnerable to eavesdropping attack, in which an attacker who observes the insecure channel between the UAV and the ground station GS can easily extract the secret session key and then procure the overall exchanged communications between the various entities (UAV-UAV and UAV-GS). An improved scheme is suggested.

## 2 PRELIMINARIES

In this section, we will introduce some fundamental mathematical concepts that are used in the studied scheme.

### 2.1 Hash Function

A hash function is a one-way cryptographic function that transforms an entry string  $X$  of an arbitrary length to an output string  $Y$ .  $X \in \{0, 1\}^*$  into a condensed output string  $Y$  of specified length  $Y \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , expressed as digests (Rogaway and Shrimpton, 2004). This one way function is expressed as  $h(\cdot) : X \rightarrow Y$  and has the collision and pre-image resistances properties.

This characteristic can be described as follows:  $Adv_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}}^{Hash}(t) = Pr[(x, x') \leftarrow_R \hat{\mathcal{A}} : x \neq x' \text{ and } h(x) = h(x')]$ , where  $Pr[e]$  is the random occurrence  $e$  probability,  $(x, x') \leftarrow_R \hat{\mathcal{A}}$  is the pair message  $(x, x')$  randomly picked by the attacker  $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$  and  $Adv_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}}^{Hash}(t)$  signifies the probability advantage gained over random picks by  $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$  for a specified amount of time  $t$ . Then, if this function is collision-resistant,  $Adv_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}}^{Hash}(t) < \epsilon$  for small values of  $\epsilon > 0$ .

### 2.2 Physically Unclonable Function

PUFs are used in the design of AKA systems as one of the most practical one way functions to provide a high security level against invasive and physical attacks. A PUF is defined as a pair of challenge/response pairs

(CRPs) for which the PUF generates  $R$  for a given input  $C$  such that  $R = PUF(C)$ . Otherwise, as reported in numerous contributions in the literature, a potential attacker can amass challenge response pairs (CRPs) from their build in PUF functions to establish a machine learning (ML) model that could be employed to predict the responses of future challenges with high accuracy (Shi et al., 2019; Yu and Wen, 2019).

Thus, we expect that in our enhanced authentication system, we would use new PUF functions similar to those described in (Wang et al., 2021) and (Wu et al., 2022) to avoid ML attacks (NoPUF and FLAM-PUF). The latter has novel countermeasures based on obfuscating challenge, which protects the PUF. For example, the prediction accuracy of modeling attacks over FLAM-PUF, which is basically composed of one Galois linear-feedback shift register (LFSR) and one Arbiter PUF (APUF), along with some simple logic gates, is around 50% under the commonly used ML techniques, namely support vector machines (SVMs), deep neural networks (DNNs), etc.

### 2.2.1 Definition

$PUF_{Div}: \{0, 1\}^{L_1} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{L_2}$  linked to a given thing  $Div$  is a function expressed with the following characteristics (Frikken et al., 2009):

1.  $PUF_{Div}$  is easy to calculate.
2.  $Adv_{\hat{A}}^{PUF}(L_2)$  is insignificant ( $\leq \epsilon$ ) in  $L_2$  for any probabilistic polynomial-time adversary ( $\hat{A}$ ).
3. Bounded noise: in a wide range of circumstances, the distance between two given outputs from the  $PUF_{Div}$  on the same challenge  $C$  is at most  $d$ , i.e.  $Pr[Dist_H(y, z) > d \mid y \leftarrow PUF_{Div_1}(C), z \leftarrow PUF_{Div_2}(C) \text{ and } C \leftarrow U_{L_2}] \leq \epsilon$ , for sufficiently small  $\epsilon$ , where  $Dist_H(\cdot, \cdot)$  is the Hamming distance.
4. Unique: the  $PUF_{Div}$  is specific to each technological equipment i.e.  $Pr[Dist_H(y, z) \leq d \mid y \leftarrow PUF_{Div}(C), z \leftarrow PUF_{Div}(C) \text{ and } C \leftarrow U_{L_2}] \leq \epsilon$ , for a very tiny  $\epsilon$ .

## 3 SECURITY ANALYSIS OF ALLADI et al. SCHEME

A PUF-based lightweight mutual authentication scheme was suggested by Alladi et al. (Alladi et al., 2020a) for the implementation of the Internet of Drones. This authentication scheme, known as SecAuthUAV, is recommended to secure communications between UAV-Ground station (GS) and UAV-UAV. SecAuthUAV was suggested to ensure a secure

session between various entities without storing any sensitive data. In the event that the UAV is captured, this procedure will prevent the attacker from learning the secret keys that are kept in its memory. Furthermore, the authors argued that their scheme ensures crucial security aspects including mutual authentication, forward secrecy and UAV anonymity compared to recently proposed authentication schemes in this field. In addition, they showed that their scheme is resilient to a variety of well-known attacks, including the man-in-the-middle attack, masquerade attack, cloning attack, tampering attack, etc. However, in this section we will show how Alladi et al. scheme is susceptible to eavesdropping attack, in which an attacker might discover the shared secret and decode all the exchanged messages for both the UAV-Ground Station (GS) and UAV-UAV authentication phases. The main steps of this scheme are briefly described before we proceed to discuss the vulnerabilities that have been found.

### 3.1 Review of Alladi et al.'s Scheme

*SecAuthUAV* scheme consists of three phases, i.e. the UAV registration phase, UAV-GS authentication phase and the UAV-UAV authentication phase given in the following:

#### 3.1.1 UAV Registration

- Before deployment, each  $UAV_{U_i}$  must always be enrolled with the  $GS$  using a secure channel.
- $GS$  creates a temporary identity  $TUID_i$  for each  $U_i$  and maintains the permanent identity  $GID$ .
- Utilizing  $U_i$ 's PUF, a challenge-response pair  $(C, R)$  are produced and kept in the  $GS$  memory.
- The set  $\{TUID_i, C, R\}$  is securely stored in the  $GS$ 's database (DB), while the set  $\{TUID_i, GID, C\}$  is stored in the UAV's memory.

#### 3.1.2 UAV-GS Authentication

During this phase, the  $UAV_{U_i}$  and the  $GS$  interact across an unsecured channel to establish mutual authentication and a session key for future interactions.

1. Once, a  $UAV_{U_i}$  needs to authenticate with  $GS$ , it computes the response  $R = PUF(C)$  using the stored challenge  $C$ . Then, it generates a random nonce  $N_A$  and calculates  $H(R || TUID_i || N_A)$  and it sends them together with its temporary identity  $TUID_i$  to  $GS$  i.e.  $M_1 = \{TUID_i, N_A, H(R || TUID_i || N_A)\}$ .

- Upon receiving  $M_1$ ,  $GS$  checks the freshness of  $NA$  and requests its DB for any entry corresponding to the received  $TUID_i$ . If these conditions are not satisfied, the  $U_i$ 's authentication demand will be rejected. Thereafter, once that hash value is checked,  $GS$  finds the corresponding challenge-response pair  $(C, R)$  from its DB. After that, it generates nonce  $N_B$  and subsequently splits  $R$  into two parts denoted here as  $K_1$  and  $K_2$ , it calculates the message  $Q$  as follows:

$$X_1 = N_A \oplus K_2 \quad (1)$$

$$Y_2 = N_B \oplus X_1 \oplus K_1 \quad (2)$$

$$Q = (Y_2 || X_1) \oplus (K_2 || K_1) \quad (3)$$

- $GS$  broadcasts the message  $M_2 = \{Q, H(Q || GID || N_A || N_B)\}$  to  $U_i$ .
- Upon the reception of  $M_2$ , it splits  $R$  into  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  and does the following operations:

$$Y_2 || X_1 = K_2 || K_1 \oplus Q \quad (4)$$

$$N_B = Y_2 \oplus X_1 \oplus K_1 \quad (5)$$

$$N_A = X_1 \oplus K_2 \quad (6)$$

- Once the nonce  $N_A$  and  $N_B$  are extracted,  $U_i$  recalculates the hash message using the retrieved nonce and compares it with the received one. If the verification does not hold,  $U_i$  terminates the session. Otherwise,  $U_i$  generates a random nonce  $N_C$ , a substring serves as a new challenge  $C'$  ( $C'$  is obtained from  $N_C$ ) and subsequently it computes  $R' = PUF(C')$  using its PUF. These new generated parameters are encoded as follows:

$$M' = R' \oplus K_2 || K_1 \quad (7)$$

$$N' = N_C \oplus K_1 \quad (8)$$

The session key with which the two entities will communication is computed as follows:

$$Sk_i = (K_1 \oplus N_B) || (K_2 \oplus N_C) \quad (9)$$

- Then,  $U_i$  sends the message  $M_3 = \{M', N', H(R || TUID_i || N_B || N_C || Sk_i)\}$  to  $GS$ .
- Upon the reception of  $M_3$ ,  $GS$  obtains the new challenge-response pair and the session key:

$$N_C = N' \oplus K_1 \quad (10)$$

$$R' = M' \oplus (K_2 || K_1) \quad (11)$$

$$Sk_i = (K_1 \oplus N_B) || (K_2 \oplus N_C) \quad (12)$$

- Afterward,  $GS$  checks the hash value  $H(R' || TUID_i || N_B || N_C || Sk_i)$  using the retrieved parameters. If the verification is unsuccessful,  $GS$  terminates the session. Otherwise,  $GS$  memorizes the new challenge response pair  $(C', R')$  along

with the old pair in its DB. At this stage, the mutual authentication is completed, so  $GS$  can start a secure transmission with  $U_i$  using the shared session key  $Sk_i$ .

- In the other hand, both  $U_i$  and  $GS$  update the temporary identity  $TUID_i$  for their subsequent authentication rounds as follows:

$$TUID_{i+1} = H(K_2 || TUID_i || K_1) \quad (13)$$

- This phase ends with an acknowledgement string  $Ack$  along with a hash  $H(Ack || GID || N_C)$  transferred from the  $GS$  to address the desynchronization issue.

### 3.1.3 UAV-UAV Authentication

This phase describes how any two given UAVs could open a secure transmission session UAV-UAV while basing itself on the above described UAV-GS authentication scheme. The different steps of this phase are given as follows:

- When a secure session is achieved between the  $UAV_{U_1}$  and  $GS$  using  $Sk_1$ ,  $U_1$  requests  $GS$  for a secure session with a second  $UAV_{U_2}$ . At this stage,  $GS$  sends an authentication request to the  $UAV_{U_2}$  that includes  $\{Req, H(Req || TUID_2 || GID)\}$ .
- Afterward,  $U_2$  checks the validity of  $H(Req || TUID_2 || GID)$  and starts the same authentication process described in the above section, to establish a secure transmission session with  $GS$  using the shared session key  $Sk_2$ .
- Subsequently,  $GS$  produces a new secret key  $Sk_{12}$  and transmits it encrypted to both  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  using the shared session keys  $Sk_1$  and  $Sk_2$ , respectively. Finally, both UAVs share the same  $Sk_{12}$  and thus a secure communication channel is established between the two UAVs.

## 3.2 Session Key Disclosure Attack

In this section, we show that Alladi et al.'s scheme is vulnerable to eavesdropping attack and secret disclosure attack. According to the attack model assumed by the authors, an attacker ( $\mathcal{A}$ ) can eavesdrop on the communication between the  $U_i$  and  $GS$  where he has access to the exchanged messages. This spying allows to the attacker to combine the broadcasted messages, such as the parameter  $Q$  and  $M'$  to reveal the session key  $Sk_i$  shared between the UAV and  $GS$  and that shared between the two UAV ( $Sk_{12}$ ) during the UAV-UAV authentication phase.



### 3.2.1 Session Key Disclosure Attack (UAV-GS)

The session key  $Sk_i$  is supposed to be a secret parameter shared only between the  $GS$  and the  $UAV$  to ensure a secure communication session. In fact, the disclosure of this shared key will allow to the attacker to decrypt all the communications between the two entities and then get all the secret exchanged data during the communication. The different steps of this attack are given below:

As the authors of (Alladi et al., 2020a) have misused or badly combined the concatenation and the XOR operations in equation (14) from the  $M_2$ , this has led to the following simplification of this equation (as showed in figure (1)), using mathematical properties between XOR and concatenation operations, knowing that  $X_1$ ,  $Y_2$ ,  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are 160 bit length.

$$Q = (Y_2 \| X_1) \oplus (K_2 \| K_1) \quad (14)$$

$$Q = (Y_2 \| X_1) \oplus (K_2 \| K_1) = (Y_2 \oplus K_2) \| (X_1 \oplus K_1) \quad (15)$$

On top of that, knowing that (from equations (1) and

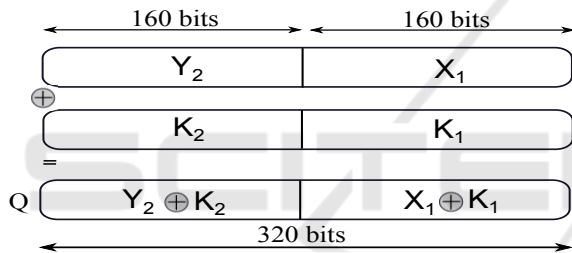


Figure 1: The simplification of the equation (14).

(2)):  $X_1 = N_A \oplus K_2$  and  $Y_2 = N_B \oplus X_1 \oplus K_1$

We can shorten the message  $Q$  as follows:

$$Q = (N_B \oplus (N_A \oplus K_2) \oplus K_1 \oplus K_2) \| (N_A \oplus K_2 \oplus K_1) \quad (16)$$

$$Q = (N_B \oplus N_A \oplus K_1) \| (N_A \oplus K_2 \oplus K_1)$$

It can be easily seen that  $Q$  can be splitted into two parts  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  given as follows:  $Q = q_1 \| q_2$  where:

$$q_1 = N_B \oplus N_A \oplus K_1 \quad (17)$$

$$q_2 = N_A \oplus K_2 \oplus K_1 \quad (18)$$

Accordingly, as the parameters  $N_A$  and  $Q$  are public, we can calculate the following quantities:

$$Q_1 = q_1 \oplus N_A = N_B \oplus K_1 \quad (19)$$

$$Q_2 = q_2 \oplus N_A = K_2 \oplus K_1 \quad (20)$$

The parameter  $Q_1$  appears to be the first part of the session key  $Sk_i$  (knowing that  $Sk_i = (K_1 \oplus N_B) \| (K_2 \oplus N_C)$ ). While the second part of  $Sk_i$  can be derived by combining equations (8) and (20) as follows:  $N' \oplus (Q_2) = N_C \oplus K_1 \oplus (K_2 \oplus K_1) = N_C \oplus K_2$ . Then, the session key is obtained.

Finally, using the disclosed  $Sk_i$  between the  $UAV U_i$  and the  $GS$ , the attacker could decrypt and exploit all the sensitive and critical information exchanged between the two entities which could lead to harmful impacts. Consequently, Alladi et al.'s scheme is vulnerable to session key disclosure attack which can be used to decrypt all the sensitive data exchanged via the insecure channel.

### 3.2.2 Session Key Disclosure Attack (UAV-UAV)

In this subsection, we show how an attacker can exploit the session key disclosure attack of  $Sk_i$  between the  $UAV U_i$  and the  $GS$ , described above, to disclose the secret session key  $Sk_{12}$  shared between the  $UAV U_1$  and  $UAV U_2$  and then decrypt the UAV-UAV communications. The steps of this attack are given in the following:

▷ When  $UAV_{U_1}$  requests  $GS$  for a secure session with a second UAV,  $GS$  transmits an authentication request to an appropriate  $UAV U_2$ .

▷ Thereafter,  $UAV U_2$  starts the same authentication process ( $UAV_{U_2}$ -GS) to establish a secure session with  $GS$  i.e. produces the session key  $Sk_2$ .

▷ In this case, the attacker follows the same session disclosure attack, given above, to extract the secret key  $Sk_2$ .

▷ Subsequently,  $GS$  generates a new secret key  $Sk_{12}$  and transmits it encrypted to both  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  using  $Sk_1$  and  $Sk_2$ , respectively.

▷ Therefore, the attacker decrypts the secret key  $Sk_{12}$  using the disclosed session keys  $Sk_1$  or  $Sk_2$ .

Consequently, revealing the session key  $Sk_{12}$  allows to the attacker decrypting all the exchanged messages between the two UAVs, which makes the communication session insecure. This attack could have serious concerns on the mission course, especially for the case of military or strategic missions.

## 4 THE IMPROVED IoD SCHEME

In this section, we describe our suggested improved version of Alladi et al. scheme. In this enhanced scheme, we put forward efficient countermeasures to overcome the revealed flaws and then ensure a secure mutual authentication and key agreement between the different communicating entities. Consequently, the improved IoD authentication scheme includes three major phases as in the original scheme SecAuthUAV of Alladi et al. (Alladi et al., 2020a). In the improved version, we assume the same network and adversary models as in the original paper. Besides, we maintains the same assumptions.

## 4.1 Introduced Countermeasures

The critical weakness of Alladi et al. scheme is essentially related to the session key generating procedure that is not deeply examined and also to the misuse of the combination of XOR and concatenation operations employed to introduce diffusion on the different exchanged messages. These flaws largely facilitated the computation of the session key for the attacker. As a result, in the enhanced version we suggest a new expression for the session key computation while we keep almost all the steps of the three phases of SecAuthUAV scheme without change. Accordingly, we suggest the following new expression to compute  $Sk_i$ : In step (5) of the UAV-GS authentication phase, the user  $U_i$  and the GS have to proceed as follows:

In both sides, GS and UAV have to split the PUF output  $R'$  into  $K'_1$  and  $K'_2$  and compute the session key  $Sk_i$  according to the new equation:

$Sk_i = H(N_B || N_C || (K'_1 \oplus N_B \oplus K_1) || (K'_2 \oplus K_2 \oplus N_C))$ . In fact, with this new session key formula, it is difficult for an attacker to reveal any useful information from the exchanged public messages or from the new value of  $Sk_i$  which contains both ephemeral secrets and random variables secured by the hash function. Alongside, with the new equation of  $Sk_i$ , it is difficult for the attacker to construct it. On the other hand, even though the new scheme adds an extra computation by summing up a hash function, this does not affect the whole scheme. On the contrary, it provides additional security features and a high security level for the application that makes it hard to break. Additionally, we maintain the same steps in the UAV-UAV authentication phase as the revealed session key disclosure attack for this phase are caused essentially by the vulnerability of the UAV-GS authentication phase fixed above.

## 4.2 Security Analysis

The main objective of this section is to prove that the improved version provides all the security features claimed by Alladi et al. (Alladi et al., 2020a) and in addition, show its resistance against to the described attack. In this context, numerous security analysis tools via formal and informal models are used in the literature to check the robustness and security level of authentication schemes. These security tools can include Mao Boyd logic (Paulson, 1997), BAN (Abadi and Needham) logic (Agray et al., 2001), AVISPA model (Vigano, 2006), random and dynamic oracle models (Ene et al., 2009), etc. For this scheme, we perform this step using the well-accepted random oracle model as defined in (Canetti et al., 2004) by

demonstrating that both the two authentication phases of the new scheme are secure against session key disclosure attack. So, we assume the following random oracle for the attacker  $\mathcal{A}$ :

**Reveal.** The *Reveal* random oracle will totally output the string  $x$  from the corresponding hash value  $y$ , i.e.  $y = H(x)$ .

**Proposition 1.** Under the PUF function  $P(\cdot)$  and the one-way hash function  $H(\cdot)$  which acts as random oracle, our improved UAV-GS authentication is secure against an attacker  $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$  disclosing the session key  $Sk_i$  and GS's identity  $GID$ .

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Algorithm 1:  $Exp1_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, Im-IoD}^{Hash, PUF}$

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1-Eavesdrop on the insecure channel and intercept
 $(M_1 = \{TUID_i, N_A, H(R || TUID_i || N_A)\}, M_2 = \{Q, H(Q || GID || N_A || N_B)\}$  and  $M_3 = \{M', N', H(R || TUID_i || N_B || N_C || Sk_i)\}$ ).
2-Call Reveal oracle on input  $H(R || TUID_i || N_A)$ . Let  $(R') \leftarrow \text{Reveal } 1 H(R || TUID_i || N_A)$ 
3-Compute  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  and then extract  $N_A$  and  $N_B$ .
4-Call Reveal oracle 1 on input  $H(Q || GID || N_A || N_B)$ . Let  $(GID') \leftarrow \text{Reveal } 1 H(Q || GID || N_A || N_B)$ .
if  $GID' = GID$  then
    Accept  $GID'$  as the GS's identity.
5-Call Reveal oracle on input  $H(R || TUID_i || N_B || N_C || Sk_i)$ . Let  $(Sk'_i) \leftarrow \text{Reveal } 1 H(R || TUID_i || N_B || N_C || Sk_i)$ 
    if  $Sk'_i = Sk_i$  then
        Accept  $Sk'_i$  as the session key  $Sk_i$  between UAV-GS.
    else
        Return 0 (Failure)
    end if
else
    Return 0 (Failure)
end if

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**Proof:** Consider an attacker  $\mathcal{A}$  with capabilities to disclose the shared session key  $Sk_i$  between the UAV and GS and get the GS's identity  $GID$ . For this,  $\mathcal{A}$  initiates the algorithm experiment  $Exp1_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, Im-IoD}^{Hash}$  given in Algorithm 1 against the improved IoD scheme, say Im-IoD by simulating the reveal Oracle 1. We express the success probability of the above given experiment as  $succ_1 = |Pr[Exp1_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, Im-IoD}^{Hash} = 1] - 1|$ . Besides, the advantage supported by  $\mathcal{A}$  is expressed as  $Adv1_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, Im-IoD}^{Hash}(t, q_{rev}) = \max_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}} \{succ_1\}$ , where  $\mathcal{A}$  can launch maximum *Reveal* queries  $q_{rev}$ . as stated in  $Exp1_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, Im-IoD}^{Hash}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  is able to divulge the shared session key  $Sk_i$  and the GS's identity  $GID$  only if he has the ability to invert the one-way hash function. Conversely, according to the *definition*, it is com-

putationally untractable for  $\mathcal{A}$  to break the one-way function and the win the game, i.e.  $Adv_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}}^{Hash}(t) \leq \epsilon$ , for any sufficiently small  $\epsilon > 0$ . Therefore,  $Adv_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, \text{Im-IoD}}^{Hash}(t, q_{rev}) \leq \epsilon$ . Consequently, our enhanced scheme is invincible against  $\mathcal{A}$  disclosing the session key  $Sk_i$  between the UAV-GS and the GS's identity.

**Proposition 2.** Based the one-way hash function  $H(\cdot)$  which acts as random oracle, our enhanced UAV-UAV authentication is secure against  $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$  extracting the session key  $Sk_{12}$ .

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Algorithm 2:  $Exp_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, \text{Im-IoD}}^{2Hash}$ .

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1-Eavesdrop on the public channel between  $UAV_1 - GS$  or  $UAV_2 - GS$  and intercept the exchanged public messages (ex. for  $UAV_1 - GS$ :  $M_1 = \{TUID_i, N_A, H(R\|TUID_i\|N_A)\}$ ,  $M_2 = \{Q, H(Q\|GID\|N_A\|N_B)\}$ ,  $M_3 = \{M', N', H(R\|TUID_i\|N_B\|N_C\|Sk_i)\}$ ,  $\{\text{Session key } Sk_{12}\}_{Sk_1}$  and  $\{\text{Session key } Sk_{12}\}_{Sk_2}$ ).

2-Call Reveal oracle on input  $H(R\|TUID_i\|N_B\|N_C\|Sk_i)$ . Let  $(Sk'_i) \leftarrow \text{Reveal } 1H(R\|TUID_i\|N_B\|N_C\|Sk_i)$

**if**  $Sk'_i = Sk_i$  **then**  
 Accept  $Sk'_i$  as the shared secret key  $Sk_i$  between the UAV-GS.

3-Extract  $Sk'_{12}$  from  $\{\text{Session key } Sk_{12}\}_{Sk_1}$ .

**if**  $Sk'_{12} = Sk_{12}$  **then**  
 Accept  $Sk_{12}$  as the shared secret key between  $UAV_1$  and  $UAV_2$ .  
 Return 1 (Success)

**else**  
 Return 0 (Failure)

**end if**

**else**  
 Return 0 (Failure)

**end if**

---

**Proof.** Let's consider an attacker  $\mathcal{A}$  who have the capacity to disclose the shared session key  $Sk_{12}$  between two  $UAV_1$  and  $UAV_2$  throughout the UAV-UAV authentication phase. To do that,  $\mathcal{A}$  performs the experiment  $Exp_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, \text{Im-IoD}}^{2Hash}$  specified in Algorithm 2 against the enhanced scheme, by performing the reveal Oracle 1. We define the success probability of the above given experiment as  $succ_2 = |Pr[Exp_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, \text{Im-IoD}}^{2Hash} = 1] - 1|$ . Besides, the advantage supported by  $\mathcal{A}$  is given as  $Adv_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, \text{Im-IoD}}^{2Hash}(t, q_{rev2}) = Max_{\mathcal{A}}\{succ_2\}$ , where  $\mathcal{A}$  can send maximum  $Reveal_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}}$  queries  $q_{rev2}$ . Based on  $Exp_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, \text{Im-IoD}}^{2Hash}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  is able to disclose the shared session key  $Sk_{12}$  if he has the capacity to invert the one-way hash function. Reciprocally, according to the *definition 1*, it is computa-

tionally difficult for  $\mathcal{A}$  to break the one-way function, i.e.  $Adv_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}}^{Hash}(t) \leq \epsilon$ , for any insignificant  $\epsilon > 0$ . As a result,  $Adv_{\hat{\mathcal{A}}, \text{I-scheme}}^{2Hash}(t, q_{rev2}) \leq \epsilon$ . Finally, our enhanced scheme is secure against  $\mathcal{A}$  who trying to disclose the shared session key  $Sk_{12}$  between the two UAVs.

### 4.3 Performance Analysis and Comparison

Our enhanced IoD scheme inherits all the strengths of Alladi et al.'s scheme and in addition, it considers new countermeasure against the revealed pitfall. Thus, extra computational cost was added to provide additional security features by using a supplementary hash function in the calculation of the shared session key  $Sk_i$ . Besides, the communication and the storage costs of the enhanced scheme are similar to those of the original one. Finally, with the introduce enhancement, the improved scheme could resist to the following security attacks: masquerade attack, man in the middle attack, replay attack, de-synchronization attack, cloning attack, etc. In addition, it provides the following security requirements: the provision for session key establishment, user anonymity, mutual authentication, forward secrecy, etc.

## 5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we thoroughly examined the security of Alladi et al.'s IoD authentication scheme, revealing a fundamental flaw that is generated from a misuse of the mathematical combination of the concatenation and XOR operations. We showed that an eavesdropping attack can disclose the shared secret session key between the UAV and the GS, as well as the shared secret between the two UAVs, which might induce major risks to the mission's course, particularly in the case of strategic applications. Besides, we have suggested an upgraded version that fixes the discovered flaw. We may conclude from these kind of flaws that new authentication scheme's designs should be thoroughly evaluated from both informal and formal perspectives, using well-known concepts and guidelines. Furthermore, we may learn that misusing even a secure cipher with powerful cryptographic functions (PUF, hash function) can exceedingly compromise the security and privacy of the entire application. Lastly, we hope that this study will assist authentication designers in evaluating and improving the security and the durability of their IoD authentication solutions.

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