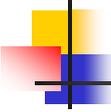


Key Management

Classic (symmetric) Key exchange

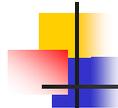
1



Key Establishment problem

- Securing communication requires that the data is encrypted before being transmitted.
- Associated with encryption and decryption are keys that must be shared by the participants.
- The problem of securing the data then becomes the problem of securing the establishment of keys.
- Task: If the participants do not physically meet, then how do the participants establish a shared key?
- Two types of key establishment:
 - Key Agreement
 - Key Distribution

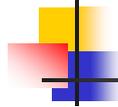
2



Session, Interchange Keys

- Alice wants to send a message m to Bob
 - Alice generates a random cryptographic key k_s and uses it to encipher m
 - To be used for this message *only*
 - Called a *session key*
 - She enciphers k_s with Bob's shared key k_{AB}
 - k_{AB} enciphers all session keys Alice uses to communicate with Bob
 - Called an *interchange key*
 - Alice sends $\{ m \}_{k_s}$ and $\{ k_s \}_{k_{AB}}$

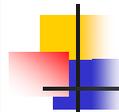
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Benefits

- Limits amount of traffic enciphered with single key
 - Standard practice, to decrease the amount of traffic an attacker can obtain
- Prevents some attacks
 - Example: Alice will send Bob message that is either "BUY" or "SELL". Eve computes possible ciphertexts $\{ \text{"BUY"} \}_{k_{AB}}$ and $\{ \text{"SELL"} \}_{k_{AB}}$. Eve intercepts enciphered message, compares, and gets plaintext at once

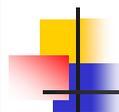
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Key Exchange Algorithms

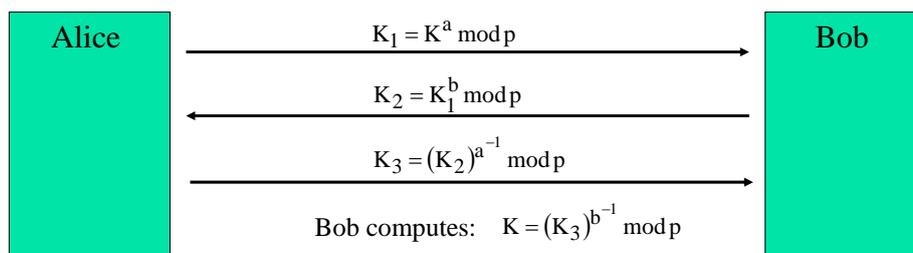
- Goal: Alice, Bob get shared key
 - Key cannot be sent in clear
 - Attacker can listen in
 - Key can be sent enciphered, or derived from exchanged data plus data not known to an eavesdropper
 - All cryptosystems, protocols publicly known
 - Only secret data is the keys, or information known only to Alice and Bob needed to derive keys
 - Anything transmitted is assumed known to attacker

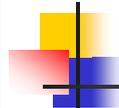
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Key Distribution

- Key Agreement protocols: the key is not determined until after the protocol is performed.
- Key Distribution protocols: one party generates the key and distributes it to Bob and/or Alice (Shamir's 3pass, Kerberos).
- Shamir's Three-Pass Protocol:
 - Alice generates $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ and Bob generates $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$.
 - a key K is distributed/generated by:

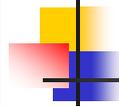




Classical Key Exchange

- Bootstrap problem: how do Alice and Bob begin since Alice cannot send it to Bob in the clear
- Assume trusted third party, Cathy
 - Alice and Cathy share secret key k_A
 - Bob and Cathy share secret key k_B
- Use this to exchange shared key k_s

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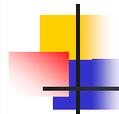
Simple Protocol

Alice $\xrightarrow{\{\text{request for session key to Bob}\} k_A}$ Cathy

Alice $\xleftarrow{\{k_s\} k_A \parallel \{k_s\} k_B}$ Cathy

Alice $\xrightarrow{\{k_s\} k_B}$ Bob

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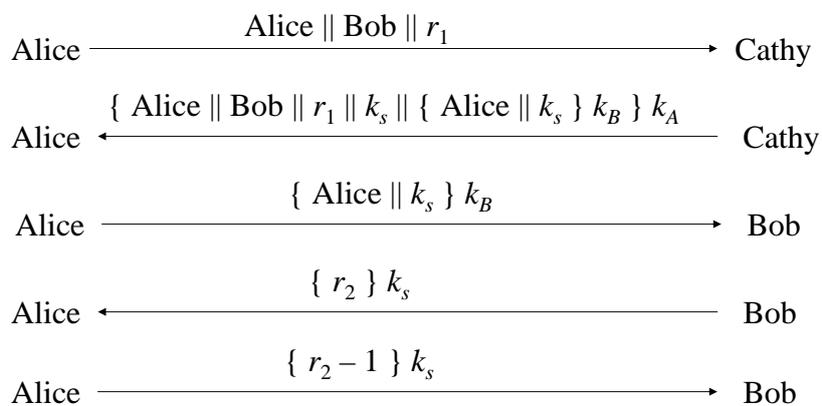
Problems

- How does Bob know he is talking to Alice?
 - Replay attack: Eve records message from Alice to Bob, later replays it; Bob may think he's talking to Alice, but he isn't
 - Session key reuse: Eve replays message from Alice to Bob, so Bob re-uses session key
- Protocols must provide authentication and defense against replay

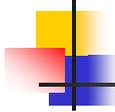
9



Needham-Schroeder



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Argument: Alice & Bob talking

- Second message
 - Enciphered using key only she and Cathy know
 - So Cathy enciphered it
 - Response to first message
 - As r_1 in it matches r_1 in first message
- Third message
 - Alice knows only Bob can read it
 - As only Bob can derive session key from message
 - Any messages enciphered with that key are from Bob

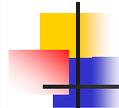
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Argument: Bob talking to Alice

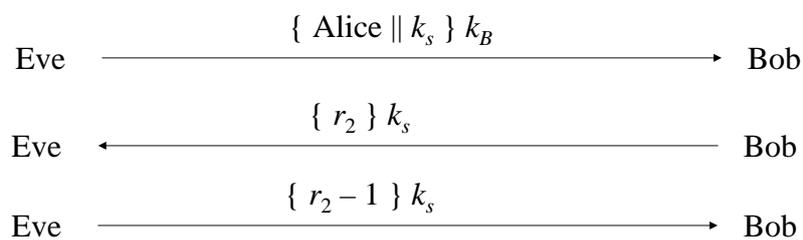
- Third message
 - Enciphered using key only he and Cathy know
 - So Cathy enciphered it
 - Names Alice, session key
 - Cathy provided session key, says Alice is other party
- Fourth message
 - Uses session key to determine if it is replay from Eve
 - If not, Alice will respond correctly in fifth message
 - If so, Eve can't decipher r_2 and so can't respond, or responds incorrectly

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Denning-Sacco Modification

- **Assumption:** all keys are secret
- **Question:** suppose Eve can obtain session key. How does that affect protocol?
 - In what follows, Eve knows k_s



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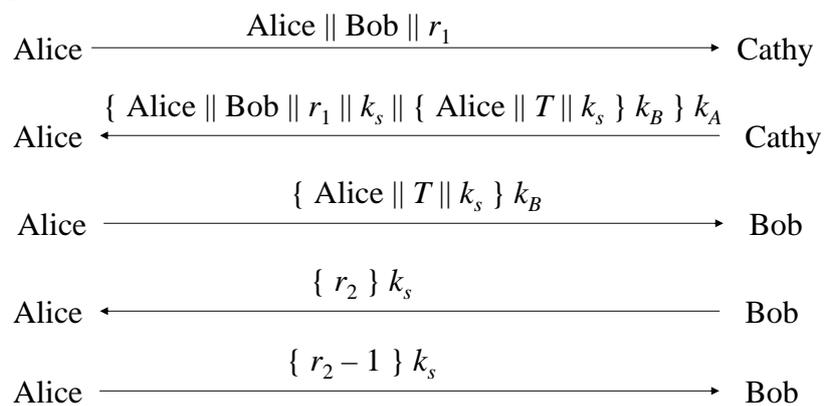


Solution

- In protocol above, Eve impersonates Alice
- Problem: replay in third step
 - First in previous slide
- Solution: use time stamp T to detect replay
- Weakness: if clocks not synchronized, may either reject valid messages or accept replays
 - Parties with either slow or fast clocks vulnerable to replay
 - Resetting clock does *not* eliminate vulnerability

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Needham-Schroeder with Denning-Sacco Modification



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Key Distribution Solutions

Centralized Approach: the trusted third party acts as a **Certificate Authority**:

- Has a known (by the parties) symmetric key, so that clients can be sure that they are talking to the CA

(there is a public key version of the Kerberos protocol using certificates)

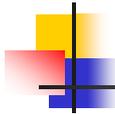
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Storing Keys

- Multi-user or networked systems: attackers may defeat access control mechanisms
 - Encipher file containing key
 - Attacker can monitor keystrokes to decipher files
 - Key will be resident in memory that attacker may be able to read
 - Use physical devices like "smart card"
 - Key never enters system
 - Card can be stolen, so have 2 devices combine bits to make single key

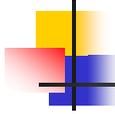
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Key secrecy

- There are problems with truly secret keys:
 - What if someone loses or forgets a key?
 - What if the holder of the key resigns or is killed?
 - What if the user is a criminal?
- On the other hand simply divulging the key to anybody (even - or perhaps especially! - the government) is very insecure
- Encryption Dilemma
 - Public's need for secure communication
 - Government's need for lawful access to information

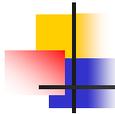
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Key Escrow

- A proposed solution is *Key Escrow*:
 - The private key is broken into pieces, which can be verified to be correct
 - Each piece is given to some authority
 - The whole key can only be reconstructed if all the authorities agree
- This is the basis of the US Clipper Chip
 - <http://www.cosc.georgetown.edu/~denning>
 - <http://www.cpsr.org/program/clipper/clipper.html>

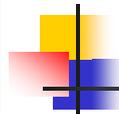
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Secret Splitting

- Usage: you want to keep “components” of some secret in several locations, so that the compromise of one location will not compromise the entire secret.
- This is a very “strong” method, in that it is not vulnerable to guessing IFF it is used correctly
- This method is vulnerable to destruction of one of the “secret” locations

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Simple Technique!

- Frank has a message M to protect
- Frank generates a random message R with as many bits in it as message M
- Frank uses XOR of M and R to generate $P = M \oplus R$
- Frank gives P to Alice and R to Bob and destroys M
- If Frank wishes to reconstruct the original message:
 - Frank gets P from Alice and R from Bob
 - Frank XORs them together; the result is $M = P \oplus R$
- As long as Frank does not reuse R, brute force guessing will not tell an enemy whether he/she has the right M if only one of P or R is compromised

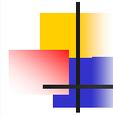
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Quick Illustration

- Suppose that the message is 1101
- Frank chooses random number R=0101
$$P = M \oplus R = (1101) \oplus (0101)$$
Bitwise: $(1 \oplus 0, 1 \oplus 1, 0 \oplus 0, 1 \oplus 1)$
$$P = 1000$$
- Reversing:
$$P \oplus R = (1000) \oplus (0101)$$
Bitwise: $(1 \oplus 0, 0 \oplus 1, 0 \oplus 0, 0 \oplus 1)$
$$M = 1101$$

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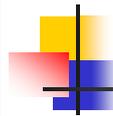
We can extend this:

- For splitting the secret M amongst n individuals rather than two, Frank must generate a sequence of random strings:

$$R_1 \dots R_{n-1}$$

- Computing P is then:
 - $P = M \oplus R_1 \oplus \dots \oplus R_{n-1}$
- Reconstruction involves XOR-ing **all** of the R_i plus P .

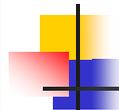
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Secret Sharing

- Note that secret splitting was vulnerable to the loss of just one site
- To balance a desire to preserve a message with the need to keep the message secret, a “secret sharing” technique is more appropriate
 - Among several, discuss one involving Polynomials!
 - This example is scaled down for ease of typing
- Threshold Scheme
 - (m,n) Threshold Scheme: A secret is divided into n pieces (called the shadows), such that combining any m of the shadows will reconstruct the original secret.
 - Our (scaled down!) example uses Shamir’s LaGrange Interpolating Polynomial Scheme

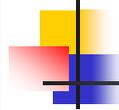
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Shamir's (m,n) Scheme

- Choose a (public) large prime p bigger than
 - the possible number of shadows
 - the size of the secret
 - other requirements for strength
 - all arithmetic will be "mod p "
- Generate an arbitrary polynomial of degree $m-1$
- Evaluate the polynomial at n different points to obtain the shadows k_i
- Distribute the shadows and destroy M and all the polynomial coefficients

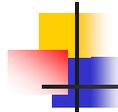
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Example poly: (3,n) threshold

- Choose an arbitrary polynomial
- $m=3$ so polynomial is degree 2
 - $F(x) = ax^2 + bx + M \pmod{P}$
- We must decide on a size for n - this is the number of shadows. The number of shadows is independent of the degree of the polynomial

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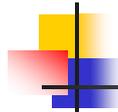


(3,5) threshold with M=11

- Suppose we want a (3,5) scheme - that means we will have 5 shadows - for hiding the message "11" (eleven)
- We choose a prime number (for example 13) larger than 5 and 11
- Our polynomial must be of degree $m-1=2$.
Select the coefficients a, b at random:

$$F(x) = 7x^2 + 8x + 11 \pmod{13}$$

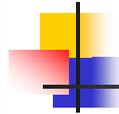
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Continuing ...

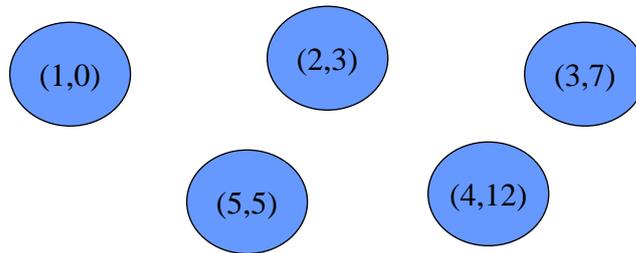
- Now generate five shadows, evaluating the polynomial at points 1,2,3,4,5 (for example)
 - $F(x) = 7x^2 + 8x + 11 \pmod{13}$
 - $k_1 = F(x_1=1) = 7+8+11 = 0$
 - $k_2 = F(x_2=2) = \dots = 3$
 - $k_3 = F(x_3=3) = \dots = 7$
 - $k_4 = F(x_4=4) = \dots = 12$
 - $k_5 = F(x_5=5) = \dots = 5$

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Distribution!

- then put the shadows (the k_i) somewhere, keeping the selected value for x k_{AB} with the shadow or with the "coordinator". Discard M , a , b .



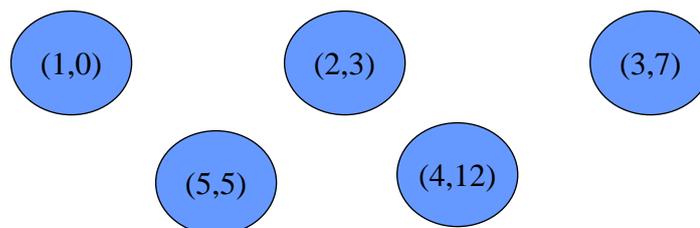
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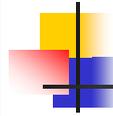
How to get the message back

- We know that this is a (3,5) scheme, so the polynomial is known to be of degree 2:

$$F(x) = Ax^2 + Bx + M$$



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To get the message back (1)

- Obtain THREE shadows from any of the five locations below. That would give us three equations and three unknowns:

$$F(x) = Ax^2 + Bx + M$$

(1,0)

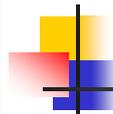
(2,3)

(3,7)

(5,5)

(4,12)

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To get the message back (2)

- For instance, choose shadows k5,k2,k3

$$F(5) = A \cdot 5^2 + B \cdot 5 + M = 5$$

(5,5)

(2,3)

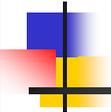
$$F(2) = A \cdot 2^2 + B \cdot 2 + M = 3$$

$$F(3) = A \cdot 3^2 + B \cdot 3 + M = 7$$

(3,7)

This gives us three equations and three unknowns, which is solvable, and yields $A=7$, $B=8$, $M=11$.

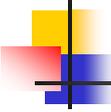
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Key Management

Public Key exchange

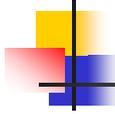
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Session, Interchange Keys

- Alice wants to send a message m to Bob
 - Assume public key encryption
 - Alice generates a random cryptographic key k_s and uses it to encipher m
 - To be used for this message *only*
 - Called a *session key*
 - She enciphers k_s with Bob's public key k_B
 - k_B enciphers all session keys Alice uses to communicate with Bob
 - Called an *interchange key*
 - Alice sends $\{ m \} k_s \{ k_s \} k_B$

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Benefits

- Limits amount of traffic enciphered with single key
 - Standard practice, to decrease the amount of traffic an attacker can obtain
- Prevents some attacks
 - Example: Alice will send Bob message that is either "BUY" or "SELL". Eve computes possible ciphertexts $\{ \text{"BUY"} \} k_B$ and $\{ \text{"SELL"} \} k_B$. Eve intercepts enciphered message, compares, and gets plaintext at once

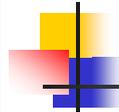
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Key Generation

- Goal: generate keys that are difficult to guess
- Problem statement: given a set of K potential keys, choose one randomly
 - Equivalent to selecting a random number between 0 and $K-1$ inclusive
- Why is this hard: generating random numbers
 - Actually, numbers are usually *pseudo-random*, that is, generated by an algorithm

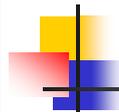
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Best Pseudorandom Numbers

- *Strong mixing function*: function of 2 or more inputs with each bit of output depending on some nonlinear function of all input bits
 - Examples: DES, MD5, SHA-1
 - In UNIX-based multiuser systems, the list of all information about all processes on system

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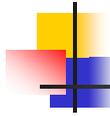


Public-Key Key Exchange

- Here interchange keys known
 - e_A, e_B Alice and Bob's public keys known to all
 - d_A, d_B Alice and Bob's private keys known only to owner
- Simple protocol
 - k_s is desired session key

Alice $\xrightarrow{\{k_s\} e_B}$ Bob

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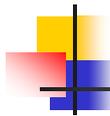


Problem and Solution

- Vulnerable to forgery or replay
 - Because e_B known to anyone, Bob has no assurance that Alice sent message
- Simple fix uses Alice's private key
 - k_s is desired session key

Alice $\xrightarrow{\{\{k_s\} d_A\} e_B}$ Bob

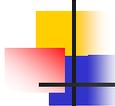
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Notes

- Can include message enciphered with k_s
- Assumes Bob has Alice's public key, and *vice versa*
 - If not, each must get it from public server
 - If keys not bound to identity of owner, attacker Eve can launch a *man-in-the-middle* attack
 - Solution to this (binding identity to keys) discussed later as public key infrastructure (PKI)

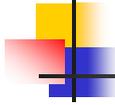
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Crypto Key Infrastructure

- Goal: bind identity to public key
 - Crucial as people will use key to communicate with principal whose identity is bound to key
 - Erroneous binding means no secrecy between principals
 - Assume principal identified by an acceptable name

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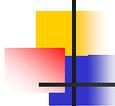
Key Distribution Solutions

Certificate Authority:

Centralized Approach

- Has a very well publicized public key, so that clients can be sure that they're talking to the CA
- This is the public key version of the Kerberos protocol

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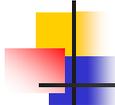


Digital Certificates

- A digital certificate is an assertion
 - Digitally signed by a “certificate authority”, “famous” and with known public key
 - An assertion
 - Typically an identity assertion, sometimes a list of authorizations
 - Create token (message) containing
 - Identity of principal (here, Alice)
 - Corresponding public key
 - Timestamp (when issued)
 - Other information (perhaps identity of signer)
- signed by trusted authority (here, Cathy)

$$C_A = \{ e_A || \text{Alice} || T \} d_C$$

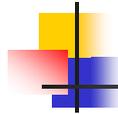
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Use

- Bob gets Alice’s certificate
 - If he knows Cathy’s public key, he can decipher the certificate
 - When was certificate issued?
 - Is the principal Alice?
 - Now Bob has Alice’s public key
- Problem: Bob needs Cathy’s public key to validate certificate
 - Problem pushed “up” a level
 - Two approaches: Merkle’s tree, signature chains

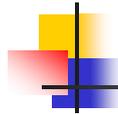
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Certificate Signature Chains

- Create certificate
 - Generate hash of certificate
 - Encipher hash with issuer's private key
- Validate
 - Obtain issuer's public key
 - Decipher enciphered hash
 - Recompute hash from certificate and compare
- Problem: getting issuer's public key

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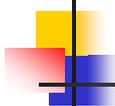
Key Distribution Solutions

Certificate Authority:

Distributed Approach

- PGP "web of trust"
 - Each client maintains a list of
 - Who you know
 - Transitive set of people that they have introduced you to
 - Confidence ratings on
 - Their identity
 - Their veracity

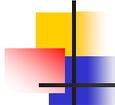
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Key Revocation

- Certificates invalidated *before* expiration
 - Usually due to compromised key
 - May be due to change in circumstance (*e.g.*, someone leaving company)
- Problems
 - Entity revoking certificate authorized to do so
 - Revocation information circulates to everyone fast enough
 - Network delays, infrastructure problems may delay information

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Key secrecy

- There are problems with truly secret keys:
 - What if someone loses or forgets a key?
 - What if the holder of the key resigns or is killed?
 - What if the user is a criminal?
- On the other hand simply divulging the key to anybody (even - or perhaps especially! - the government) is very insecure
- Encryption Dilemma
 - Public's need for secure communication
 - Government's need for lawful access to information

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