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## Key Management


EECE 412

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## Kerckhoff's Principle


*"The security of a cryptosystem must not depend on keeping secret the crypto-algorithm. The security depends only on keeping secret the key"*

Auguste Kerckhoff von Nieuwenhof  
Dutch linguist  
1883




## Outline

- Key exchange
  - Session vs. interchange keys
  - Classical, public key methods
- Cryptographic key infrastructure
  - Certificates
- Quantum key distribution




## Notation

- $X \rightarrow Y: \{ Z || W \}_{k_{X,Y}}$ 
  - $X$  sends  $Y$  the message produced by concatenating  $Z$  and  $W$  enciphered by key  $k_{X,Y}$ , which is shared by users  $X$  and  $Y$
- $A \rightarrow T: \{ Z \}_{k_A} || \{ W \}_{k_{A,T}}$ 
  - $A$  sends  $T$  a message consisting of the concatenation of  $Z$  enciphered using  $k_A$ ,  $A$ 's key, and  $W$  enciphered using  $k_{A,T}$ , the key shared by  $A$  and  $T$
- $r_1, r_2$  nonces ("nonrepeating" random numbers)



## 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  $\{ m \}_{k_s} \{ k_s \}_{k_B}$
- Benefits?



## Key Exchange Algorithms

Goal: Alice, Bob get shared key

- Key cannot be sent in clear
- Alice, Bob may trust third party
- All cryptosystems, protocols publicly known



### Classical Key Exchange

- Bootstrap problem: how do Alice, Bob begin?
  - Alice can't 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  $k_S$
- Ideas?

### 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

### 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

### Needham-Schroeder

Alice  $\xrightarrow{\text{Alice} \parallel \text{Bob} \parallel r_1}$  Cathy

Alice  $\xleftarrow{\{\text{Alice} \parallel \text{Bob} \parallel r_1 \parallel k_S \parallel \{\text{Alice} \parallel k_S\} k_B\} k_A}$  Cathy

Alice  $\xrightarrow{\{\text{Alice} \parallel k_S\} k_B}$  Bob

Alice  $\xleftarrow{\{r_2\} k_S}$  Bob

Alice  $\xrightarrow{\{r_2 - 1\} k_S}$  Bob

### Denning-Sacco Modification

- Assumption: all keys are secret
- Question: suppose Eve can obtain session key. How does that affect protocol?
  - Assuming Eve knows  $k_S$

Eve  $\xrightarrow{\{\text{Alice} \parallel k_S\} k_B}$  Bob

Eve  $\xleftarrow{\{r_2\} k_S}$  Bob

Eve  $\xrightarrow{\{r_2 - 1\} k_S}$  Bob

### Needham-Schroeder with Denning-Sacco Modification


Alice  $\xrightarrow{\text{Alice} \parallel \text{Bob} \parallel r_1}$  Cathy

Alice  $\xleftarrow{\{\text{Alice} \parallel \text{Bob} \parallel r_1 \parallel k_S \parallel \{\text{Alice} \parallel T \parallel k_S\} k_B\} k_A}$  Cathy

Alice  $\xrightarrow{\{\text{Alice} \parallel T \parallel k_S\} k_B}$  Bob

Alice  $\xleftarrow{\{r_2\} k_S}$  Bob

Alice  $\xrightarrow{\{r_2 - 1\} k_S}$  Bob




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## Kerberos

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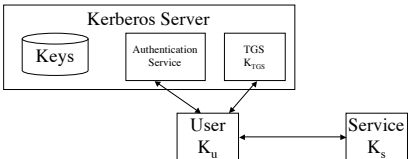

## What is Kerberos?

- Authentication system
  - Based on Needham-Schroeder with Denning-Sacco modification
  - Central server plays role of trusted third party ("Cathy")
- Ticket
  - Issuer vouches for identity of requester of service
- Authenticator
  - Identifies sender



## Idea


- User  $u$  authenticates to Kerberos server
  - Obtains ticket  $T_{u,TGS}$  for ticket granting service (TGS)
- User  $u$  wants to use service  $s$ :
  - User sends authenticator  $A_{u,s}$ , ticket  $T_{u,TGS}$  to TGS asking for ticket for service
  - TGS sends ticket  $T_{u,s}$  to user
  - User sends  $A_{u,s}$ ,  $T_{u,s}$  to server as request to use  $s$

## Ticket

- Credential saying issuer has identified ticket requester
- Example ticket issued to user  $u$  for service  $s$ 


$$T_{u,s} = s || \{ u || u's \text{ address} || \text{valid time} || k_{u,s} \} k_s$$
 where:
  - $k_{u,s}$  is session key for user and service
  - Valid time is interval for which ticket valid
  - $u$ 's address may be IP address or something else
    - Note: more fields, but not relevant here



## Authenticator

- Credential containing identity of sender of ticket
  - Used to confirm sender is entity to which ticket was issued
- Example: authenticator user  $u$  generates for service  $s$ 


$$A_{u,s} = \{ u || \text{generation time} || k_t \} k_{u,s}$$
 where:
  - $k_t$  is alternate session key
  - Generation time is when authenticator generated
    - Note: more fields, not relevant here



## Protocol

```

user -----> AS: user || TGS
AS -----> user: { k_u,TGS } k_u || T_u,TGS
user -----> TGS: service || A_u,TGS || T_u,TGS
TGS -----> user: user || { k_u,s } k_u,TGS || T_u,s
user -----> service: A_u,s || T_u,s
service -----> user: { t + 1 } k_u,s
    
```



### Analysis

- First two steps
  - get user ticket to use TGS
  - User  $u$  can obtain session key only if  $u$  knows key shared with AS
- Next four steps
  - $u$  gets and uses ticket for service  $s$
  - Service  $s$  validates request by checking sender (using  $A_{u,s}$ )
  - Step 6 optional; used when  $u$  requests confirmation

### Problems

- Relies on synchronized clocks
  - If not synchronized and old tickets, authenticators not cached, replay is possible
- Tickets have some fixed fields
  - Dictionary attacks possible
  - Kerberos 4 session keys weak (had much less than 56 bits of randomness)
    - researchers at Purdue found them from tickets in minutes

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## Public Key Exchange

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### What is 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

### 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

### Why Alice Can't Get Bob's Public Key




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## Cryptographic Key Infrastructure

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## What's Cryptographic Key Infrastructure?

- Goal: bind identity to key
- Classical: not possible as all keys are shared
  - Use protocols to agree on a shared key (see earlier)
- Public key: bind identity to public key




## Certificates

- Token (message) containing
  - Corresponding public key
  - Identity of principal (here, Alice)
  - Timestamp (when issued)
  - Other information (perhaps identity of signer)
 signed by trusted authority (here, Cathy)
 
$$C_A = \{ e_A \parallel \text{Alice} \parallel T \} d_C$$




## Use

- Cathy issues Alice's certificate
  - Creates certificate
  - Generates hash of certificate
  - Enciphers hash with her private key
- Bob gets Alice's certificate
  - Validates
    - Obtains issuer's public key
    - Deciphers enciphered hash
    - Recomputes hash from certificate and compare
- Problem?
  - Bob needs Cathy's public key to validate certificate
  - Two approaches: Merkle's trees, signature chains




## Certificate Signature Chains

- Purpose: getting issuer's public key
- Solutions:
  - tree-like hierarchies
  - Webs of trust (PGP)




## X.509 Chains

- Some certificate components in X.509v3:
  - Version
  - Serial number
  - Signature algorithm identifier: hash algorithm
  - Issuer's name; uniquely identifies issuer
  - Interval of validity
  - Subject's name; uniquely identifies subject
  - Subject's public key
  - Signature: enciphered hash



### PGP Certification

- Single certificate may have multiple signatures
- Notion of "trust" embedded in each signature
  - Range from "untrusted" to "ultimate trust"
  - Signer defines meaning of trust level (no standards!)



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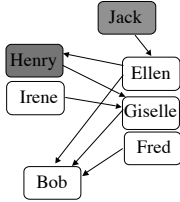

### Validating Certificates

Alice needs to validate Bob's OpenPGP cert

- Does not know Fred, Giselle, or Ellen

1. Alice gets Giselle's cert
  - Knows Henry slightly, but his signature is at "casual" level of trust
2. Alice gets Ellen's cert
  - Knows Jack, so uses his cert to validate Ellen's, then hers to validate Bob's


Arrows show signatures  
Self signatures not shown

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### Key Revocation


- Why revoke a key?
  - 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




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### CRLs

- *Certificate revocation list* lists certificates that are revoked
- X.509: only certificate issuer can revoke certificate
  - Added to CRL
- PGP: signers can revoke signatures; owners can revoke certificates, or allow others to do so



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## Quantum Key Distribution (QKD)

Slides from this section are adopted from Ravi Kumar Balachandran's slides on QKD available at <http://cse.unl.edu/~ashok/CSCE990Seminar/slides/ravib.ppt>


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### Why QKD?

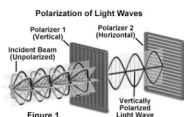
- The security of all current encryption algorithms depend on solving some computationally difficult problems
  - RSA – factoring large prime numbers
  - Symmetric ciphers -- brute force search of the key.
- Quantum computers (in the future) can speed up this process making such ciphers trivial to break
- Quantum theory also forms the basis for QKD



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### Polarization of light

- Every photon from a light source vibrates in all directions – unpolarized light
- When light is passed through a polarizer, the out coming light is said to be polarized with respect to the polarizer



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### QKD Scheme

Alice's Sending Bases	⊗	⊕	⊕	⊗	⊗	⊕	⊗	⊕
Alice's Values	↙	↔	↔	↗	↙	↔	↗	↑
Bob's Receiving Bases	⊕	⊗	⊕	⊗	⊕	⊕	⊗	⊗
Bob's Values	↔	↗	↔	↗	↔	↔	↗	↙
Alice Confirms		✓	✓		✓	✓		
Key		1	0		1	0		

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### Implementation of QKD

- First prototype in 1989, two computers separated by a distance of 32 cm by Bennet
- Los Alamos – 1996 – 14 Km with fiber in the field
- British Telecom – 1998 – 30 Km
- Successful tests have been done over distances of 1.6 Km with no waveguide
- March 2002 – 67 Km using optical fiber working at 1550nm
- October 2003 -- world's first quantum cryptographic network: 6 QKD nodes in Cambridge, MA; 22 Km
- High-grade key material at rate 5Kb/s

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