Key Management

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Outline

- Identify some fundamentals principles of key management
- Discuss some key establishment mechanisms

Security Services

- The basic security services are achieved in the form of:
 - Confidentiality (with encryption algorithms)
 - Integrity (with MACs or digital signatures)
 - Message authentication (with MACs or digital signatures)
 - Non-repudiation (with digital signatures)

Key Management

- Key management is crucial to the security of any cryptosystem.
- Without secure procedures for handling of cryptographic keys throughout their lifecycle, the benefits of the use of strong cryptographic primitives are potentially lost.
- If key management is not performed correctly then there is no point in using cryptography at all.

Key Lifecycle

- Key Generation: concerns the creation of keys.
- Key Establishment: is the process of making sure that keys reach the end points where they will be used.
- Key Storage: deals with the safekeeping of keys. It may also be important to conduct key backup so that keys can be recovered in the event of loss of a key.

Key lengths

- In general, longer keys are better from a security perspective.
- A cryptographic computation normally takes more time if the key is longer.
- In addition, longer keys involve greater storage and distribution overheads.
- Longer keys are less efficient in several important respects.
- Thus key length tends to be based on an efficiency-security tradeoff.

Key lifetimes

- Every key has certain lifespan for a particular application.
- There are many reasons why cryptographic keys have finite lifetimes.
 - Mitigation against key compromise:
 - Mitigation against key management failures
 - Mitigation against future attacks
 - Enforcement of management cycles
 - Flexibility
 - Limitation of key exposure

Key Establishment

- How keys can be established using symmetric cryptosystems?
- How keys can be established using public-key cryptosystems?
- Why public-key techniques still have shortcomings for key distribution?
- What certificates are and how they are used?
- The role that public-key infrastructures play

Continued...

- All cryptographic mechanisms that we have introduced so far assume that keys are properly distributed between the parties involved, e.g., between Alice and Bob.
- The task of key establishment is in practice one of the most important and often also most difficult parts of a security system.
- We already learned some ways of distributing keys, in particular Diffie—Hellman key exchange.
- We will learn many more methods for establishing keys between remote parties.

Contd...

- Key establishment deals with establishing a shared secret between two or more parties.
- Methods for this can be classified into key transport and key agreement methods.
- A key transport protocol is a technique where one party securely transfers a secret value to others.
- In a key agreement protocol two (or more) parties derive the shared secret where all parties contribute to the secret.

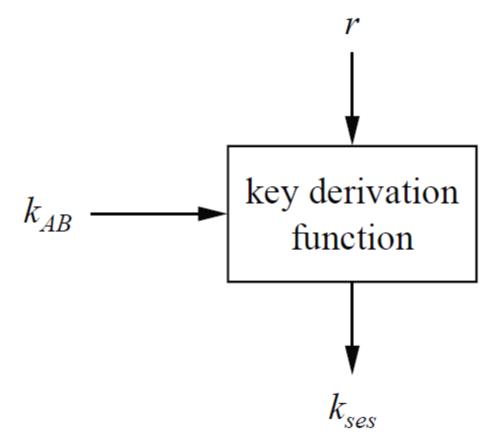
Key Freshness

- It is desirable to use cryptographic keys which are only valid for a limited time, such keys are called *session keys*.
- A major advantage is that there is less damage if the key is exposed.

Implementation issue

- There are always certain costs associated with key establishment, typically with respect to additional communication connections and computations.
- The latter holds especially in the case of public-key algorithms which are very computationally intensive.

Key Derivation



Key Derivation with Nonces

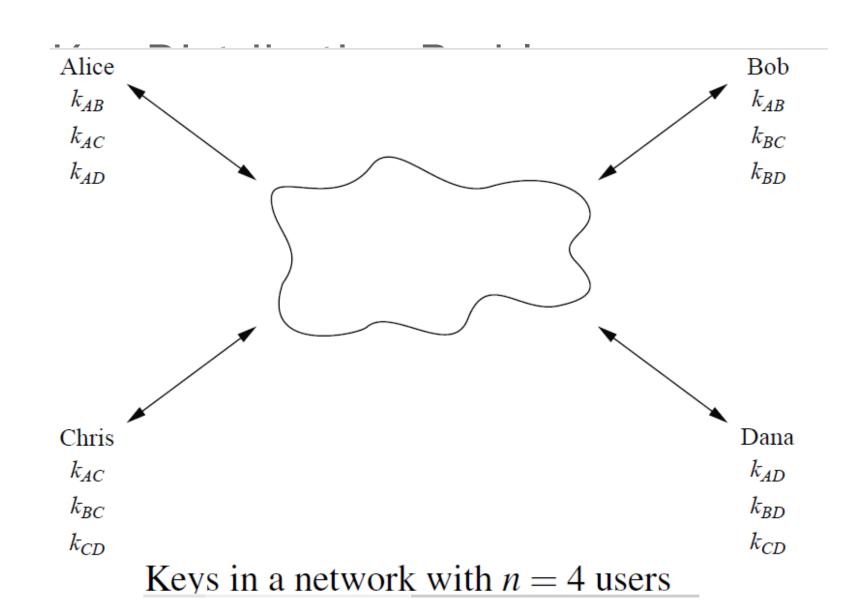
Alice

derive key $k_{ses} = e_{k_{AB}}(r)$

derive key $k_{ses} = e_{k_{AB}}(r)$

Bob

generate nonce r



Contd...

- Each user must store n-1 keys.
- There is a total of $n(n-1) \approx n^2$ keys in the network.
- A total of $n(n-1)/2 = {}^{n}C_{2}$ symmetric key pairs are in the network.
- If a new user joins the network, a secure channel must be established with every other user in order to upload new keys.

Key Establishment with KDC

Basic Key Establishment Using a Key Distribution Center

Alice

KEK: k_A

KDC

KEK: k_A , k_B

Bob

KEK: k_B

 $RQST(ID_A,ID_B)$

generate random k_{ses} $y_A = e_{k_A}(k_{ses})$

$$y_A = e_{k_A}(k_{ses})$$
$$y_B = e_{k_B}(k_{ses})$$

 y_B

 $k_{ses} = e_{k_B}^{-1}(y_B)$

$$y = e_{k_{ses}}(x)$$

 $k_{ses} = e_{k_A}^{-1}(y_A)$

$$x = e_{k_{ses}}^{-1}(y)$$

Alternative

Key Establishment Using a Key Distribution Center

Alice

KEK: k_A

KDC

KEK: k_A , k_B

Bob

KEK: k_B

 $\overrightarrow{RQST}(ID_A,ID_B)$

generate random k_{ses}

$$y_A = e_{k_A}(k_{ses})$$
$$y_B = e_{k_B}(k_{ses})$$

 y_A, y_B

$$k_{ses} = e_{k_A}^{-1}(y_A)$$

$$y = e_{k_{ses}}(x)$$

 y, y_B

$$k_{ses} = e_{k_B}^{-1}(y_B)$$

$$x = e_{k_{ses}}^{-1}(y)$$

Replay Attack

- This attack makes use of the fact that neither Alice nor Bob know whether the encrypted session key they receive is actually a new one.
- If an old session key is reused, key freshness is violated.

Key Confirmation Attack

Alice KEK: k_A

Oscar KEK: k_O KDC

Bob

KEK: k_A , k_B , k_O

KEK: k_B

 $\overrightarrow{RQST}(ID_A,ID_B)$

 y, y_O

∮ substitute

 $\begin{array}{c}
RQST(ID_A,ID_O) \\
\text{random } k_{ses} \\
y_A = e_{k_A}(k_{ses}) \\
y_O = e_{k_O}(k_{ses})
\end{array}$

 $k_{ses} = e_{k_A}^{-1}(y_A)$ $y = e_{k_{ses}}(x)$

Kerberos

Key Establishment Using a Simplified Version of Kerberos

Alice KEK: k_A generate nonce r_A

KDC KEK: k_A , k_B Bob KEK: k_R

 $RQST(ID_A,ID_B,r_A)$

generate random k_{ses} generate lifetime T $y_A = e_{k_A}(k_{ses}, r_A, T, ID_B)$ $y_B = e_{k_B}(k_{ses}, ID_A, T)$

 $k_{ses}, r_A, T, ID_B = e_{k_A}^{-1}(y_A)$ verify $r_A' = r_A$ verify ID_B verify lifetime Tgenerate time stamp T_S $y_{AB} = e_{k_Ses}(ID_A, T_S)$

 y_{AB}, y_{B}

 k_{ses} , ID_A , $T = e_{k_B}^{-1}(y_B)$ ID_A ', $T_S = e_{k_Ses}^{-1}(y_{AB})$ verify ID_A ' = ID_A verify lifetime Tverify time stamp T_S

$$y = e_{k_{SeS}}(x)$$

$$x = e_{kses}^{-1}(y)$$

Limitations

- Communication requirements
- Secure channel during initialization
- Single point of failure
- No perfect forward secrecy

Key Establishment using Asymmetric Techniques

- Public-key algorithms are especially suited for key establishment protocols since they don't share most of the drawbacks that symmetric key approaches have.
- The public-key primitives are quite slow, and that for this reason actual data encryption is usually done with symmetric primitives like AES or 3DES, after a key has been established using asymmetric techniques.
- At this moment it looks as though public-key schemes solve all key establishment problems.
- It turns out, however, that they all require what is termed an *authenticated* channel to distribute the public keys.

Man-in-the-Middle Attack

- The man-in-the-middle attack is a serious attack against public-key algorithms.
- The basic idea of the attack is that the adversary, Eve, replaces the public keys sent out by the participants with his own keys.
- This is possible whenever public keys are not authenticated.

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Alice

choose random $a = k_{pr,A}$ compute $A = k_{pub,A} \equiv \alpha^a \mod p$

 \boldsymbol{A}

B

 $k_{AB} \equiv B^a \mod p$

Bob

choose random $b = k_{pr,B}$ compute $B = k_{pub,B} \equiv \alpha^b \mod p$

 $k_{AB} \equiv A^b \mod p$

Man-in-the-Middle Attack Against the DHKE

Alice Oscar Bob choose
$$a = k_{pr,A}$$
 choose $b = k_{pr,B}$ $B = k_{pub,A} \equiv \alpha^a \mod p$
$$P \qquad \qquad A \longrightarrow \text{$\not$$$$$$$ substitute $\tilde{A} \equiv \alpha^o$} \qquad \stackrel{\tilde{A}}{\longrightarrow} \qquad A \longrightarrow \text{$\not$$$}$$

$$\leftarrow \frac{\tilde{B}}{4} \text{ substitute } \tilde{B} \equiv \alpha^o \leftarrow \frac{B}{4}$$

$$k_{AO} \equiv (\tilde{B})^a \mod p$$
 $k_{AO} \equiv A^o \mod p$ $k_{BO} \equiv B^o \mod p$

 $k_{BO} \equiv (\tilde{A})^b \bmod p$

Certificates

- The underlying problem of the man-in-the-middle (MIM) attack is that public keys are not authenticated.
- The MIM attack is not restricted to the DHKE, but is in fact applicable to any asymmetric crypto scheme.
- The attack always proceeds the same way: Eve intercepts the public key that is being sent and replaces it with his own.

Contd...

- The problem of trusted distribution of private keys is central in modern public key cryptography.
- There are several ways to address the problem of key authentication.
- The main mechanism is the use of *certificates*.
- A certificate for a user Alice in its most basic form is the following structure:

$$Cert_A = [(k_{pub,A}, ID_A), sig_{k_{pr}}(k_{pub,A}, ID_A)]$$

Contd...

- Certificates require that the receiver has the correct verification key, which is a public key.
- If we were to use Alice's public key for this, we would have the same problem that we are actually trying to solve.
- Instead, the signatures for certificates are provided by a mutually trusted third party.
- This party is called the **Certification Authority (CA)**. It is the task of the CA to generate and issue certificates for all users in the system.
- For certificate generation, the user computes her own asymmetric key pair and merely requests the CA to sign the public key.

Certificate Generation with User-Provided Keys

Alice

generate $k_{pr,A}, k_{pub,A}$

 $RQST(k_{pub,A}, ID_A)$

verify ID_A

 $s_A = \operatorname{sig}_{k_{pr},CA}(k_{pub,A},ID_A)$

 $Cert_A = [(k_{pub,A}, ID_A), s_A]$

 $Cert_A$

CA's role

- From a security point of view, the first transaction is crucial.
- It must be assured that Alice's message (k_{pub_A}, ID_A) is sent via an authenticated channel.
- Otherwise, Eve could request a certificate in Alice's name.
- In practice it is often advantageous that the CA not only signs the public keys but also generates the public—private key pairs for each user.
- In this case, a basic protocol looks like this:

Certificate Generation with CA-Generated Keys

Alice CArequest certificate CARQST(ID_A) verify ID_A generate $k_{pr,A}, k_{pub,A}$ $s_A = \operatorname{sig}_{k_{pr},CA}(k_{pub,A}, ID_A)$ $\operatorname{Cert}_A = [(k_{pub,A}, ID_A), s_A]$ $\operatorname{Cert}_A = [(k_{pub,A}, ID_A), s_A]$

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange with Certificates

Alice

$$a = k_{pr,A}$$

 $A = k_{pub,A} \equiv \alpha^a \mod p$
 $Cert_A = [(A, ID_A), s_A]$

Bob

$$b = k_{pr,B}$$

 $B = k_{pub,B} \equiv \alpha^B \mod p$
 $Cert_B = [(B, ID_B), s_B]$

 $\xrightarrow{\operatorname{Cert}_A} \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Cert}_B}$

verify certificate: $\operatorname{ver}_{k_{pub},CA}(\operatorname{Cert}_{B})$ compute session key: $k_{AB} \equiv B^{a} \mod p$ verify certificate: $\operatorname{ver}_{k_{pub},CA}(\operatorname{Cert}_{A})$ compute session key: $k_{AB} \equiv A^{b} \mod p$

- One very crucial point here is the verification of the certificates. Without verification, the signatures within the certificates would be of no use.
- Verification requires the public key of the CA. This key must be transmitted via an authenticated channel, otherwise Eve could perform MIM attacks again.
- We need the authenticated channel only once, at set-up time.
- We saw in the earlier example of DHKE without certificates, that Alice and Bob have to trust each other's public keys directly.
- With the introduction of certificates, they only have to trust the CA's public key $k_{\text{pub_CA}}$.
- If the CA signs other public keys, Alice and Bob know that they can also trust those.
- This is called a chain of trust.

Public-Key Infrastructures (PKI) and CAs

- In order for public key cryptography to be useful in commercial applications, it is necessary to have an infrastructure that keeps that track of public keys.
- A Public-Key Infrastructures (PKI) is a framework consisting of policies defining the rules under which the cryptographic systems operate and procedures for generating and publishing keys and certificates.

X.509 Certificates

Serial Number

Certificate Algorithm:

- Algorithm
- Parameters

Issuer

Period of Validity:

- Not Before Date
- Not After Date

Subject

Subject's Public Key:

- Algorithm
- Parameters
- Public Key

Signature