# Chapter 9: Key Management

- Session and Interchange Keys
- Key Exchange
- Cryptographic Key Infrastructure
- Storing and Revoking Keys
- Digital Signatures

### Overview

- Key exchange
  - Session vs. interchange keys
  - Classical, public key methods
- Cryptographic key infrastructure
  - Certificates
- Key storage
  - Key revocation
- Digital signatures

### Notation

- $X \rightarrow Y : \{ Z \parallel W \} k_{X,Y}$ 
  - 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
- $A \rightarrow T : \{ Z \} k_A \parallel \{ W \} k_{A,T}$ 
  - 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  $\{m\}k_s\{k_s\}k_B$

November 1, 2004

# 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 { "BUY" } k<sub>B</sub> and { "SELL" } k<sub>B</sub>. Eve intercepts enciphered message, compares, and gets plaintext at once

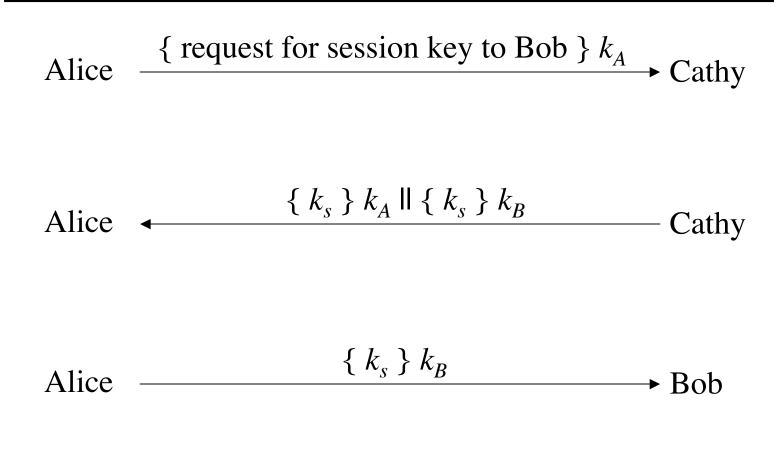
# Key Exchange Algorithms

- 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
  - Alice, Bob may trust third party
  - All cryptosystems, protocols publicly known
    - Only secret data is the keys, ancillary information known only to Alice and Bob needed to derive keys
    - Anything transmitted is assumed known to attacker

# 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  $k_s$





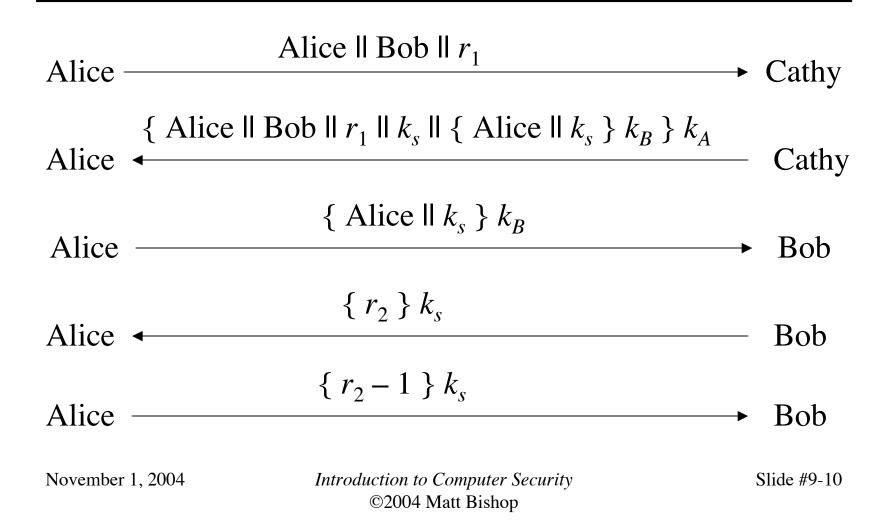
November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop Slide #9-8

### 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



# Argument: Alice talking to Bob

- Second message
  - Enciphered using key only she, Cathy knows
    - 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

# Argument: Bob talking to Alice

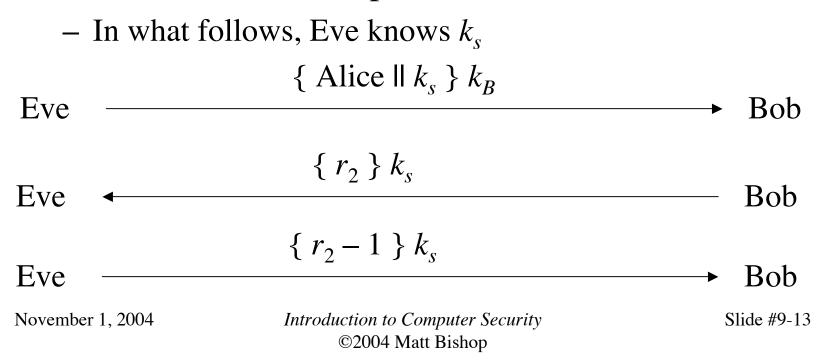
#### • Third message

- Enciphered using key only he, 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

November 1, 2004

# Denning-Sacco Modification

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



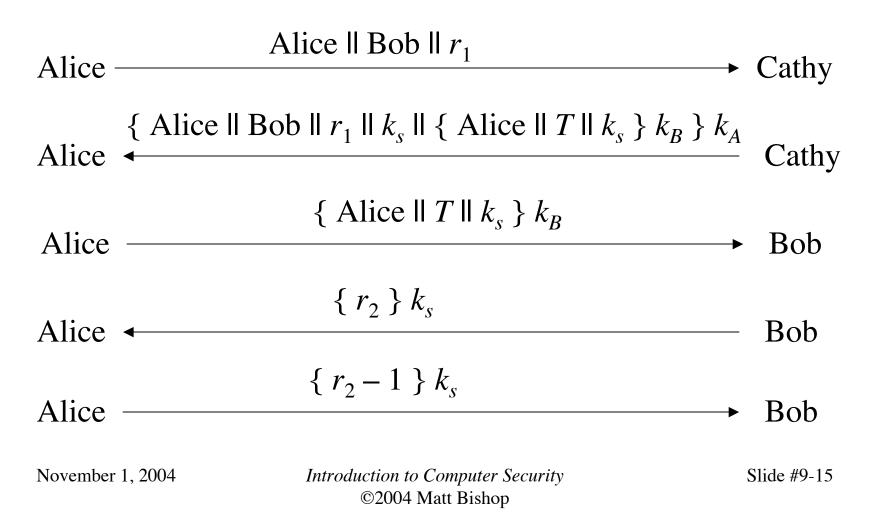
# Solution

- 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

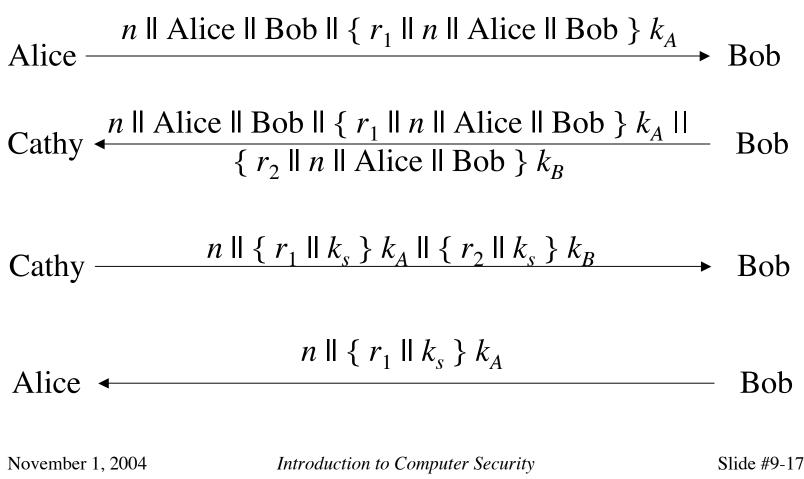
# Needham-Schroeder with Denning-Sacco Modification



# Otway-Rees Protocol

- Corrects problem
  - That is, Eve replaying the third message in the protocol
- Does not use timestamps
  - Not vulnerable to the problems that Denning-Sacco modification has
- Uses integer *n* to associate all messages with particular exchange

#### The Protocol



©2004 Matt Bishop

# Argument: Alice talking to Bob

- Fourth message
  - If *n* matches first message, Alice knows it is part of this protocol exchange
  - Cathy generated  $k_s$  because only she, Alice know  $k_A$
  - Enciphered part belongs to exchange as  $r_1$ matches  $r_1$  in encrypted part of first message

# Argument: Bob talking to Alice

- Third message
  - If *n* matches second message, Bob knows it is part of this protocol exchange
  - Cathy generated  $k_s$  because only she, Bob know  $k_B$
  - Enciphered part belongs to exchange as  $r_2$ matches  $r_2$  in encrypted part of second message

# Replay Attack

- Eve acquires old  $k_s$ , message in third step -  $n \parallel \{ r_1 \parallel k_s \} k_A \parallel \{ r_2 \parallel k_s \} k_B$
- Eve forwards appropriate part to Alice
  - Alice has no ongoing key exchange with Bob: n matches nothing, so is rejected
  - Alice has ongoing key exchange with Bob: n does not match, so is again rejected
    - If replay is for the current key exchange, *and* Eve sent the relevant part *before* Bob did, Eve could simply listen to traffic; no replay involved

November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop Slide #9-20

#### 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  $A_u$ , ticket  $T_{u,TGS}$  to TGS asking for ticket for service
  - TGS sends ticket  $T_{u,s}$  to user
  - User sends  $A_u$ ,  $T_{u,s}$  to server as request to use s
- Details follow

# Ticket

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

 $T_{u,s} = s \parallel \{ u \parallel u \text{'s address} \parallel \text{valid time} \parallel k_{u,s} \} k_s$  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

November 1, 2004

#### 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*

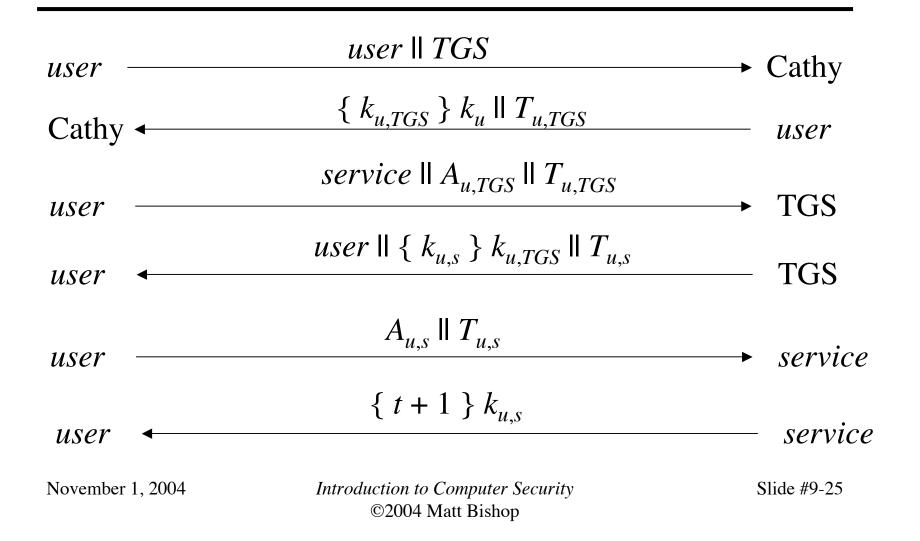
 $A_{u,s} = \{ u \mid \text{II generation time } \mid k_t \} k_{u,s}$ 

where:

- $-k_t$  is alternate session key
- Generation time is when authenticator generated
  - Note: more fields, not relevant here

November 1, 2004

#### Protocol



# Analysis

- First two steps get user ticket to use TGS
  - User *u* can obtain session key only if *u* knows key shared with Cathy
- Next four steps show how *u* gets and uses ticket for service *s* 
  - Service *s* validates request by checking sender (using  $A_{u,s}$ ) is same as entity ticket issued to
  - 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

# 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 
$$\{k_s\} e_B \longrightarrow Bob$$

November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop Slide #9-28

#### 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 
$$- \{\{k_s\} d_A\} e_B \longrightarrow Bob$$

November 1, 2004

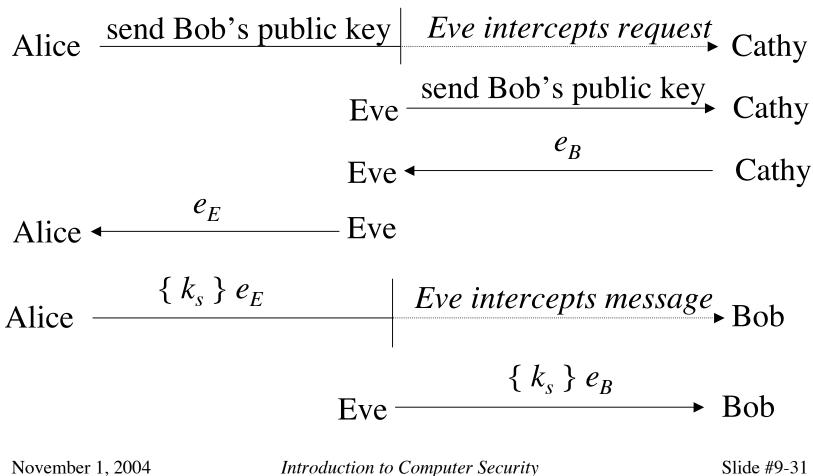
Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop Slide #9-29

#### 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 (next slide; Cathy is public server providing public keys)
    - Solution to this (binding identity to keys) discussed later as public key infrastructure (PKI)

November 1, 2004

#### Man-in-the-Middle Attack



©2004 Matt Bishop

# 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
  - 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

November 1, 2004

#### Certificates

- 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)

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

November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop Slide #9-33

#### 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

# 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

# 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

## X.509 Certificate Validation

- Obtain issuer's public key
  - The one for the particular signature algorithm
- Decipher signature
  - Gives hash of certificate
- Recompute hash from certificate and compare
  - If they differ, there's a problem
- Check interval of validity
  - This confirms that certificate is current

#### Issuers

- *Certification Authority (CA)*: entity that issues certificates
  - Multiple issuers pose validation problem
  - Alice's CA is Cathy; Bob's CA is Don; how can Alice validate Bob's certificate?
  - Have Cathy and Don cross-certify
    - Each issues certificate for the other

## Validation and Cross-Certifying

- Certificates:
  - Cathy<<Alice>>
  - Dan<<Bob>
  - Cathy<<Dan>>
  - Dan<<Cathy>>
- Alice validates Bob's certificate
  - Alice obtains Cathy<<Dan>>
  - Alice uses (known) public key of Cathy to validate Cathy<<Dan>>
  - Alice uses Cathy<<Dan>> to validate Dan<<Bob>>

## PGP Chains

- OpenPGP certificates structured into packets
  - One public key packet
  - Zero or more signature packets
- Public key packet:
  - Version (3 or 4; 3 compatible with all versions of PGP, 4 not compatible with older versions of PGP)
  - Creation time
  - Validity period (not present in version 3)
  - Public key algorithm, associated parameters
  - Public key

## OpenPGP Signature Packet

- Version 3 signature packet
  - Version (3)
  - Signature type (level of trust)
  - Creation time (when next fields hashed)
  - Signer's key identifier (identifies key to encipher hash)
  - Public key algorithm (used to encipher hash)
  - Hash algorithm
  - Part of signed hash (used for quick check)
  - Signature (enciphered hash)
- Version 4 packet more complex

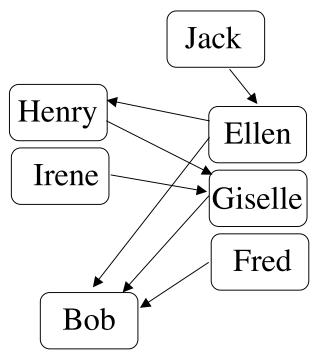
# Signing

- 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!)
- All version 4 keys signed by subject
  - Called "self-signing"

## Validating Certificates

- Alice needs to validate Bob's OpenPGP cert
  - Does not know Fred, Giselle, or Ellen
- Alice gets Giselle's cert
  - Knows Henry slightly, but his signature is at "casual" level of trust
- 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



November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop

# 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

November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop

## 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

November 1, 2004

## 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
  - Revocation message placed in PGP packet and signed
  - Flag marks it as revocation message

# Digital Signature

- Construct that authenticated origin, contents of message in a manner provable to a disinterested third party ("judge")
- Sender cannot deny having sent message (service is "nonrepudiation")
  - Limited to *technical* proofs
    - Inability to deny one's cryptographic key was used to sign
  - One could claim the cryptographic key was stolen or compromised
    - Legal proofs, *etc.*, probably required; not dealt with here

November 1, 2004

#### Common Error

Classical: Alice, Bob share key k

 Alice sends m || { m } k to Bob
 This is a digital signature
 <u>WRONG</u>

#### This is not a digital signature

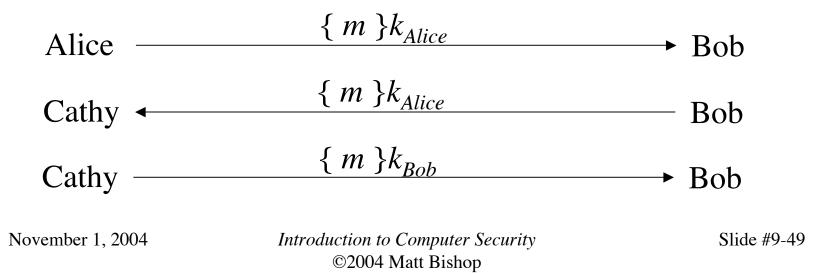
 Why? Third party cannot determine whether Alice or Bob generated message

November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop

## Classical Digital Signatures

- Require trusted third party
  - Alice, Bob each share keys with trusted party Cathy
- To resolve dispute, judge gets { *m* } *k*<sub>Alice</sub>, { *m* } *k*<sub>Bob</sub>, and has Cathy decipher them; if messages matched, contract was signed



## Public Key Digital Signatures

- Alice's keys are  $d_{Alice}$ ,  $e_{Alice}$
- Alice sends Bob

 $m \parallel \{ m \} d_{Alice}$ 

- In case of dispute, judge computes  $\{ \{ m \} d_{Alice} \} e_{Alice} \}$
- and if it is *m*, Alice signed message

– She's the only one who knows  $d_{Alice}!$ 

November 1, 2004

## **RSA Digital Signatures**

- Use private key to encipher message
  - Protocol for use is *critical*
- Key points:
  - Never sign random documents, and when signing, always sign hash and never document
    - Mathematical properties can be turned against signer
  - Sign message first, then encipher
    - Changing public keys causes forgery

November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop

#### Attack #1

• Example: Alice, Bob communicating

$$-n_A = 95, e_A = 59, d_A = 11$$

$$-n_B = 77, e_B = 53, d_B = 17$$

- 26 contracts, numbered 00 to 25
  - Alice has Bob sign 05 and 17:
    - $c = m^{d_B} \mod n_B = 05^{17} \mod 77 = 3$
    - $c = m^{d_B} \mod n_B = 17^{17} \mod 77 = 19$
  - Alice computes 05×17 mod 77 = 08; corresponding signature is 03×19 mod 77 = 57; claims Bob signed 08
  - Judge computes  $c^{e_B} \mod n_B = 57^{53} \mod 77 = 08$ 
    - Signature validated; Bob is toast

November 1, 2004

Introduction to Computer Security ©2004 Matt Bishop

#### Attack #2: Bob's Revenge

- Bob, Alice agree to sign contract 06
- Alice enciphers, then signs:  $(m^{e_B} \mod 77)^{d_A} \mod n_A = (06^{53} \mod 77)^{11} \mod 95 = 63$
- Bob now changes his public key
  - Computes *r* such that  $13^r \mod 77 = 6$ ; say, r = 59
  - Computes  $re_B \mod \phi(n_B) = 59 \times 53 \mod 60 = 7$
  - Replace public key  $e_B$  with 7, private key  $d_B = 43$
- Bob claims contract was 13. Judge computes:
  - $(63^{59} \mod 95)^{43} \mod 77 = 13$
  - Verified; now Alice is toast

November 1, 2004

# Key Points

- Key management critical to effective use of cryptosystems
  - Different levels of keys (session *vs*. interchange)
- Keys need infrastructure to identify holders, allow revoking
  - Key escrowing complicates infrastructure
- Digital signatures provide integrity of origin and content

Much easier with public key cryptosystems than with classical cryptosystems