

# Cryptographic Protocols & Key Management

Security Engineering, Week 5

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# Learning Outcomes

- Explain the concept of a cryptographic protocol.
- Analyse a simple cryptographic protocol.
- Appreciate the difficulty of designing a secure cryptographic protocol.
- Appreciate the significance of the Diffie–Hellman protocol.
- Identify some fundamental principles of key management.
- Identify the typical goals of AKE protocols.
- Explain the purpose of a public-key certificate.
- Describe the main contents of a public-key certificate.
- Be aware of alternative approaches to certificate-based public-key management.

# Cryptographic Protocols

# Operational motivation for protocols

Applications:

- Have complex security requirements
- Involve different data items with different security requirements
- Involve information flowing between more than one entity
- Consist of a sequence of logical (conditional) events

# Components of a cryptographic protocol

- A *cryptographic protocol* is a specification of all the events which need to take place in order to achieve some required security goals. It should specify:
  - **The protocol assumptions**
  - **The protocol flow**
  - **The protocol messages**
  - **The protocol actions**

# Stages of protocol design

- Defining the objectives.  
Merchant Bob wants to make sure a contract he will receive from Alice cannot later be denied.
- Determining the protocol goals.  
At the end of the protocol, Bob requires non-repudiation of the contract received from Alice.
- Specifying the protocol.



- Protocol design is a complex process with challenges, it's best left to experts!

# Standards for Cryptographic Protocols

- The PKCS standards include some cryptographic protocols for implementing public-key cryptography.
- ISO/IEC 11770 specifies a suite of cryptographic protocols for mutual entity authentication and key establishment.
- SSL/TLS specifies a protocol for setting up a secure communication channel.

# Analysing a simple protocol

## **The Objectives**

- Alice and Bob have access to a common network. Periodically, at any time of his choosing, Bob wants to check Alice is still 'alive' and connected to the network.
- A network consists of many entities, all of whom regularly check the liveness of one another. We thus set a secondary security objective that whenever Bob receives any confirmation of liveness from Alice, he should be able to determine precisely which liveness query she is responding to.



# Analysing a simple protocol

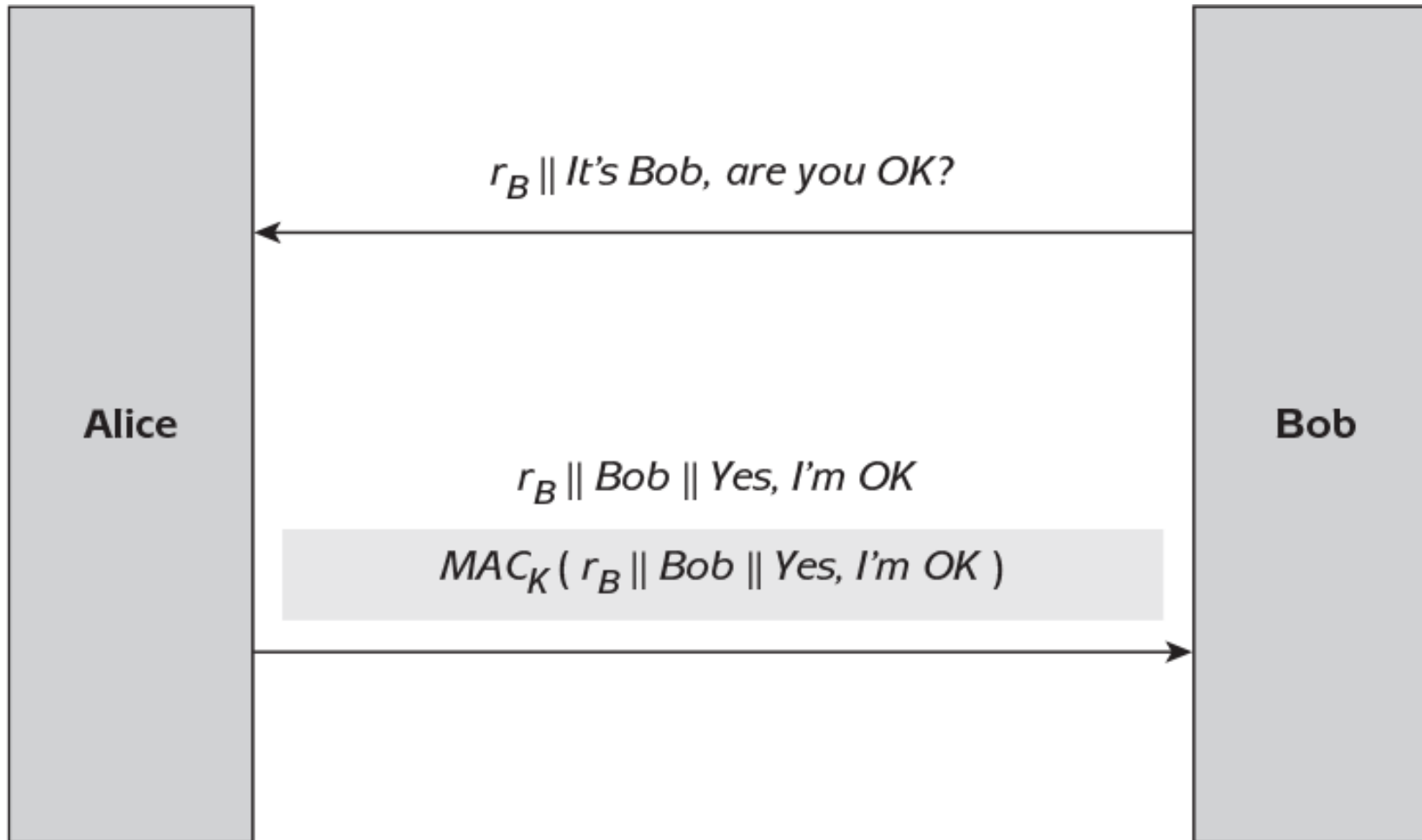
## The Protocol Goals

- **Data origin authentication of Alice's reply.**
- **Freshness of Alice's reply.** If this is not provided, then even if there is data origin authentication of the reply, this could be a replay of a previous reply.
- **Assurance that Alice's reply corresponds to Bob's request.** If this is not provided, then it is possible Bob receives a reply which corresponds to a different request (either one of his own, or of another entity in the network).

- Different candidate protocols for analysis.
- Notation used:

$r_B$	A nonce generated by Bob
$\parallel$	Concatenation
$Bob$	An <i>identifier</i> for Bob (perhaps his name)
$MAC_K(data)$	A MAC computed on <i>data</i> using key $K$
$E_K(data)$	Symmetric encryption of <i>data</i> using key $K$
$Sig_A(data)$	A digital signature on <i>data</i> computed by Alice
$T_A$	A timestamp generated by Alice
$T_B$	A timestamp generated by Bob
$ID_S$	A session identifier

# Protocol 1



# Protocol 1 analysis

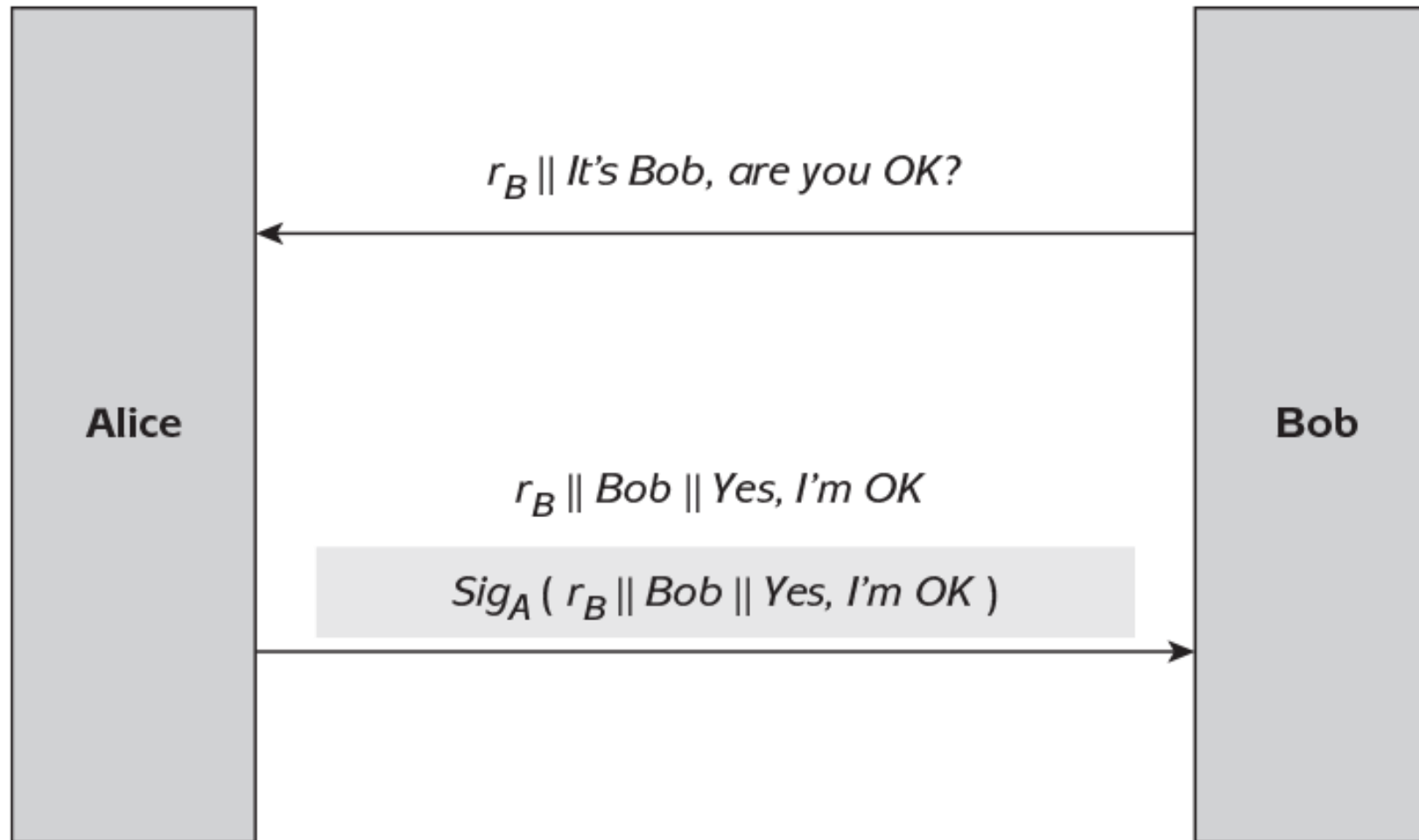
- **Data origin authentication of Alice's reply:** MAC
- **Freshness of Alice's reply:** nonce
- **Assurance Alice's reply corresponds to Bob's request:**
  1. nonce  $r_B$ , which Bob generated for this run of the protocol.
  2. The reply contains the identifier Bob.

## Protocol Assumptions

1. Bob has access to a source of randomness.
2. Alice and Bob already share a symmetric key  $K$  known only to them.
3. Alice and Bob agree on the use of a strong MAC algorithm.

Protocol 1 **meets the security goals** and hence is a suitable protocol to use in our simple application.

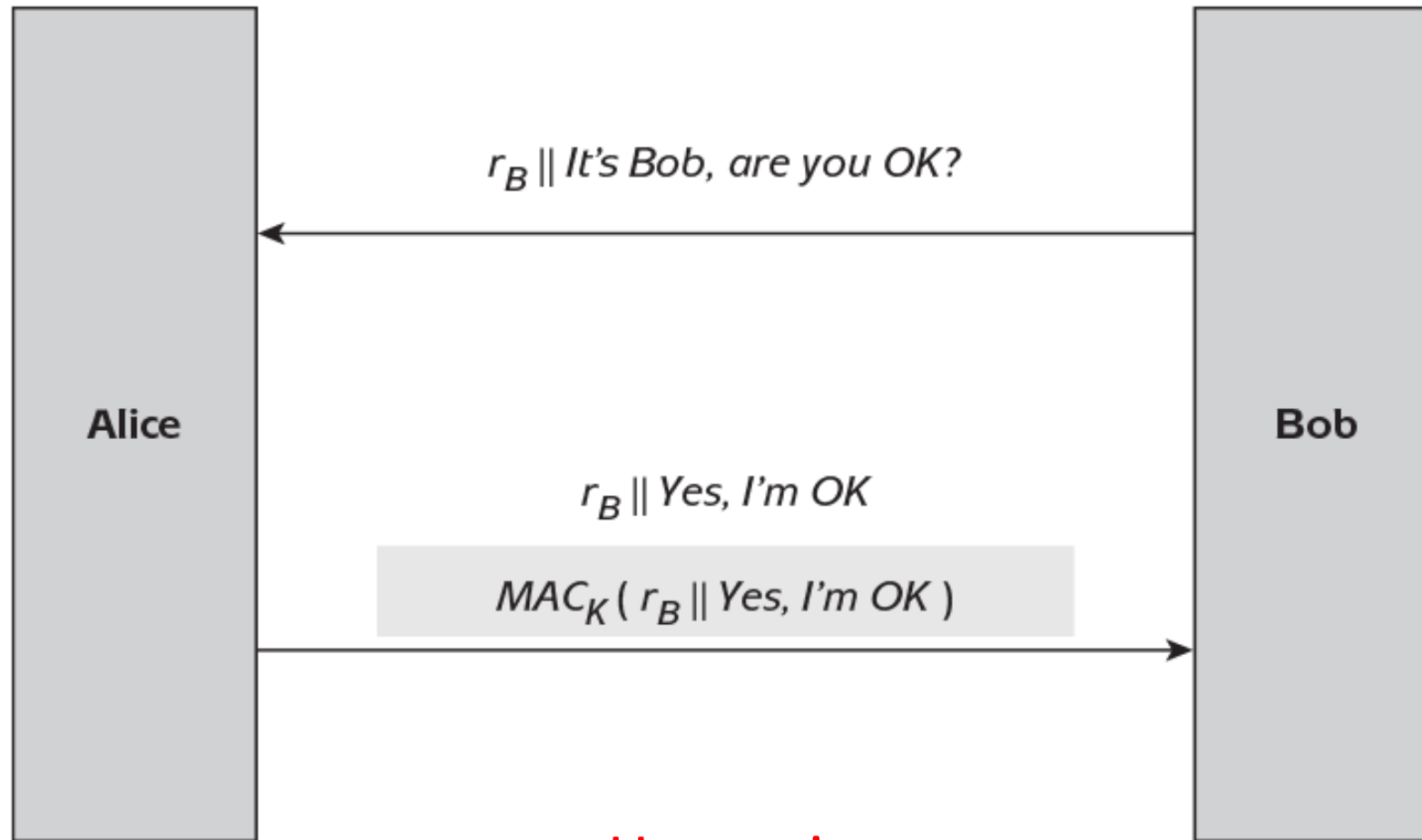
# Protocol 2



# Protocol 2 analysis

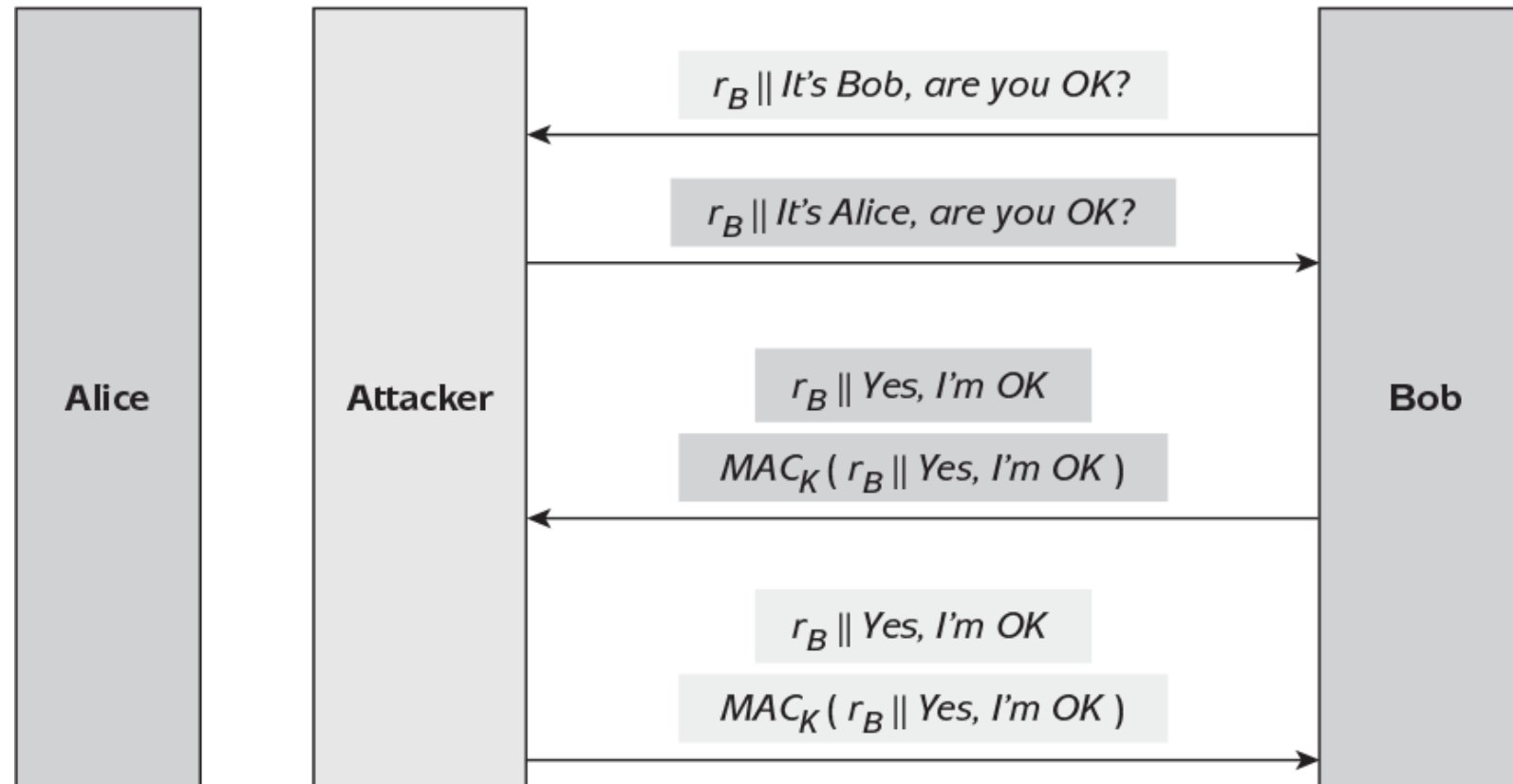
- The analysis of Protocol 2 is exactly as for Protocol 1, except for:
  - **Data origin authentication of Alice's reply:** Digital signature
- **Protocol Assumptions**
  1. Bob has access to a source of randomness. As for Protocol 1.
  2. Alice has been issued with a signature key, and Bob has access to a verification key corresponding to Alice's signature key. This is the digital signature scheme equivalent of the second assumption for Protocol 1.
  3. Alice and Bob agree on the use of a strong digital signature scheme.
- Protocol 2 also meets the three security goals.

# Protocol 3



Has serious  
problems! →

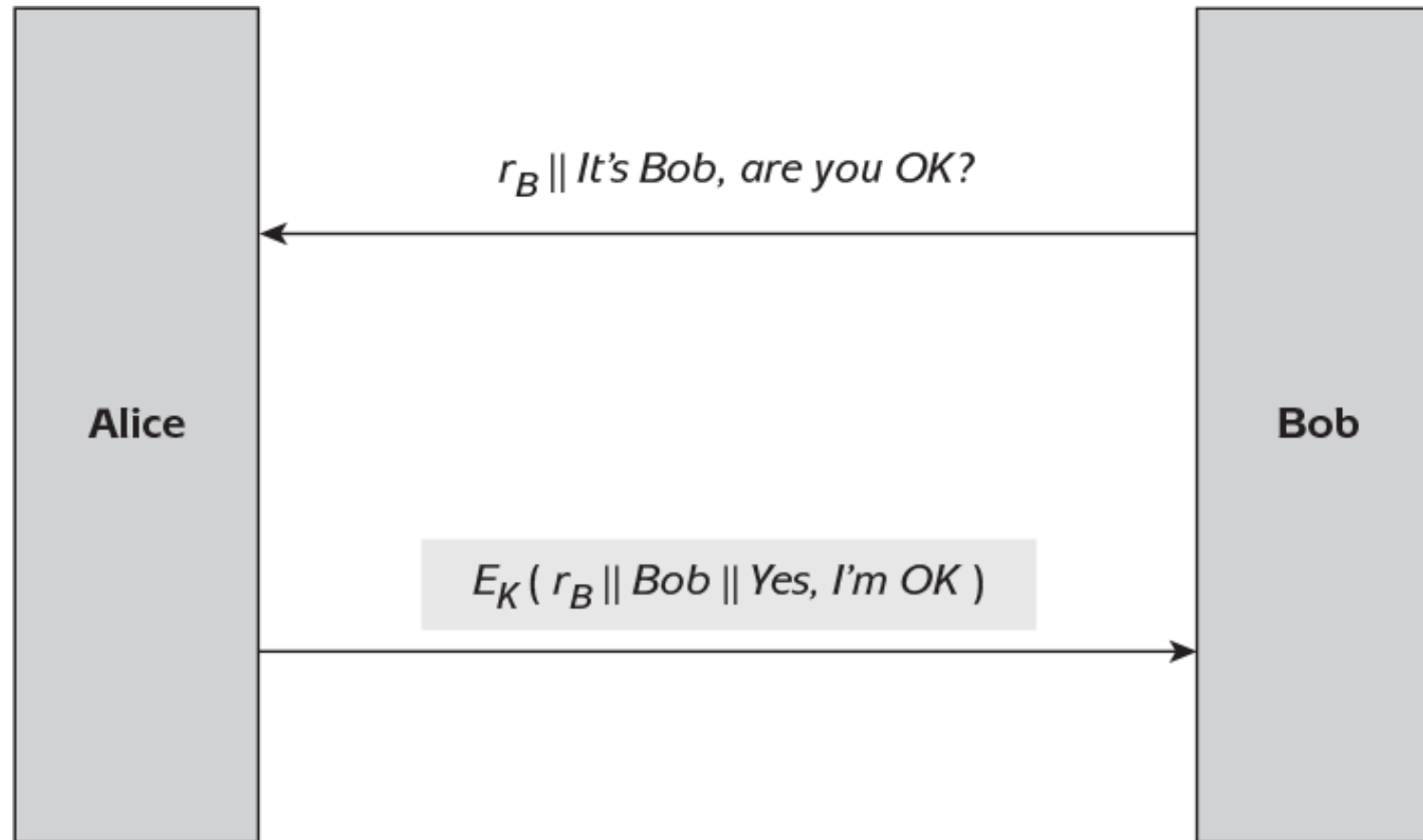
# Reflection attack



It is generally good practice in the design of cryptographic protocols to **include the identifiers** of recipients in protocol messages to prevent reflection attacks of this type.



# Protocol 4



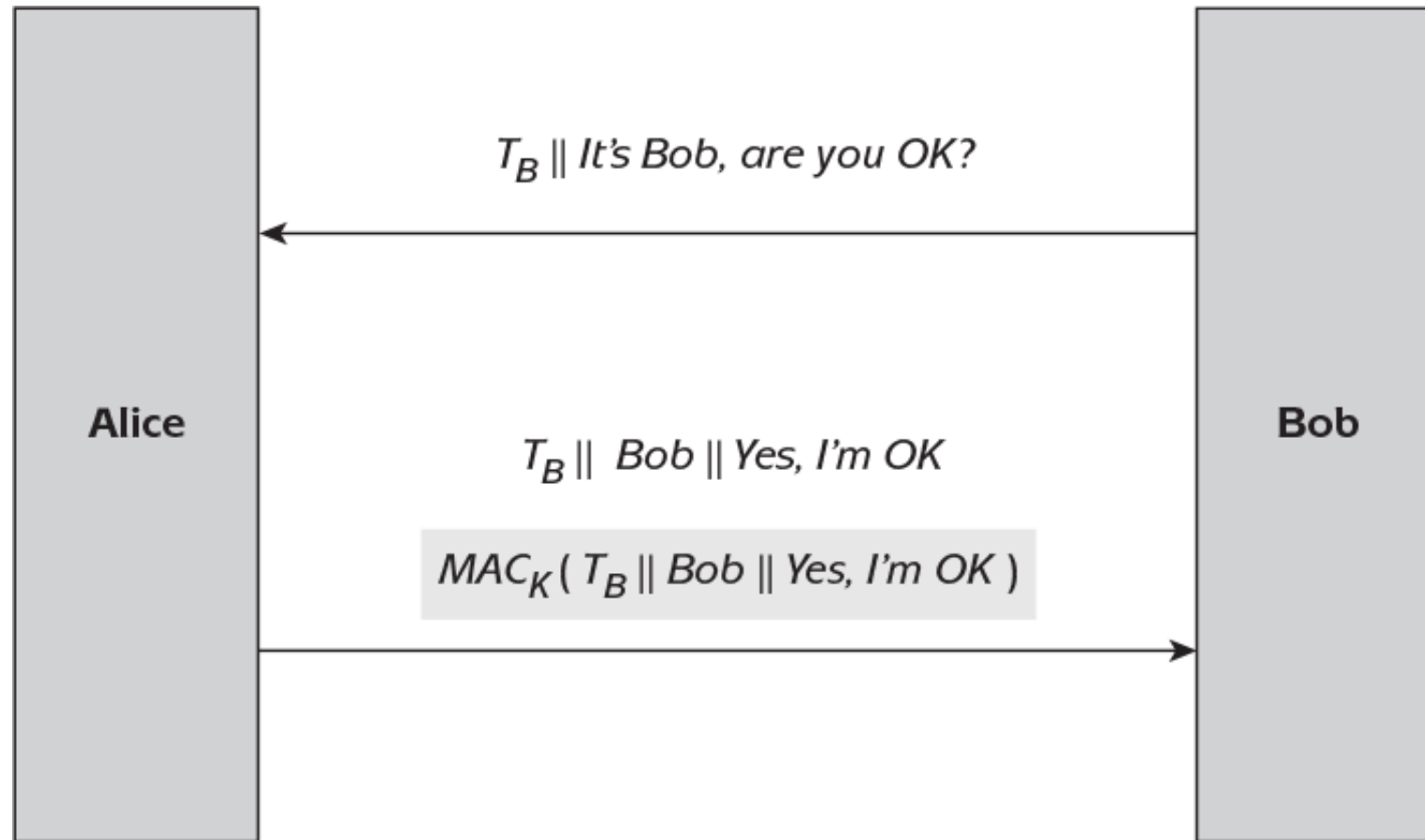
# Protocol 4 analysis

**Protocol Assumptions:** identical to Protocol 1, except that we assume Alice and Bob have agreed on the use of a strong symmetric encryption algorithm  $E$  (rather than a MAC).

## Issues:

- Encryption does not, in general, provide data origin authentication.
  - key separation
  - Types of encryption mechanism. Stream cipher?
- Encryption tends only to be used in this way if confidentiality of the message data is also required.

# Protocol 5



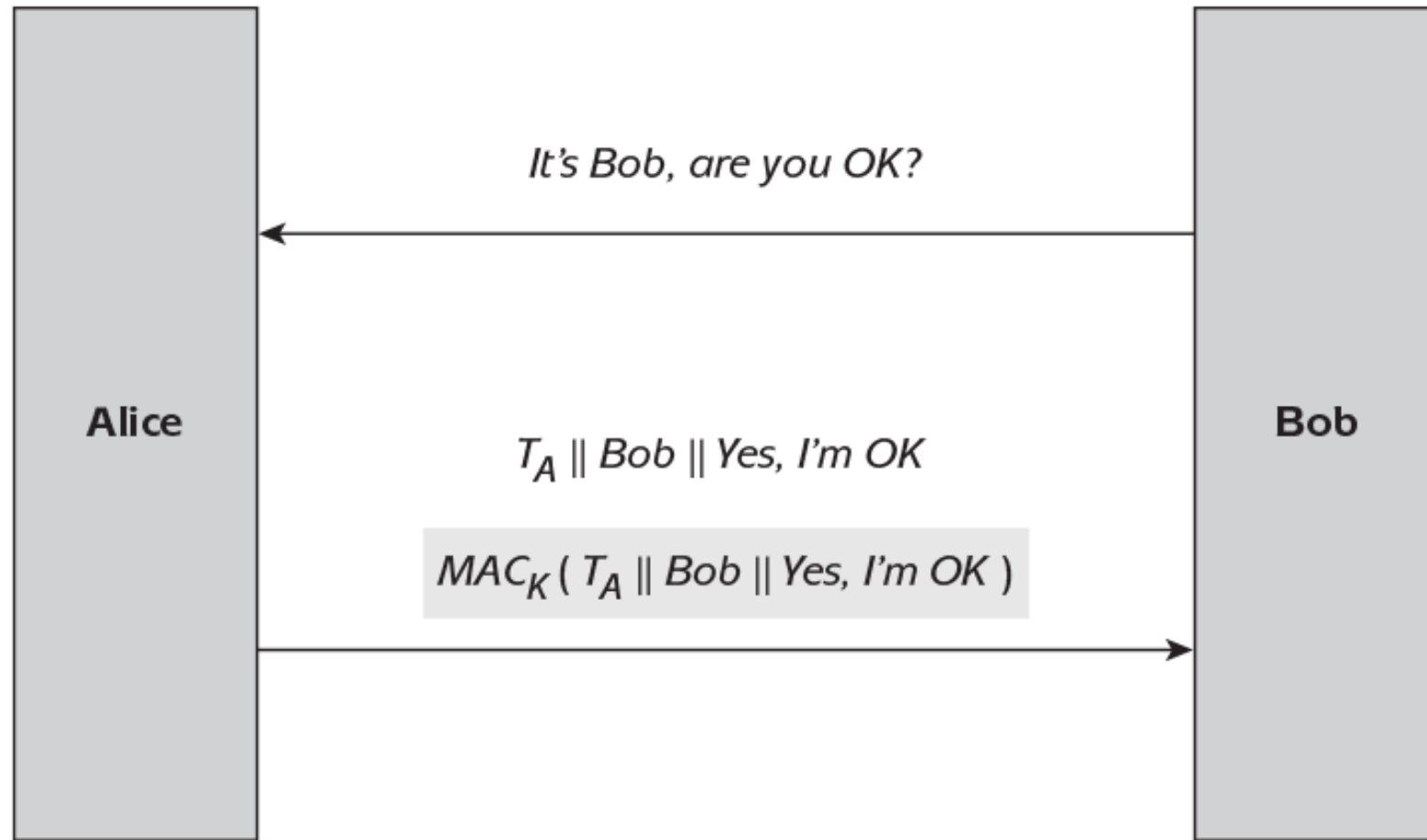
# Protocol 5 Analysis

**Protocol Assumptions:** same as protocol 1, except for the source of randomness being replaced by Bob can generate and verify integrity-protected timestamps.

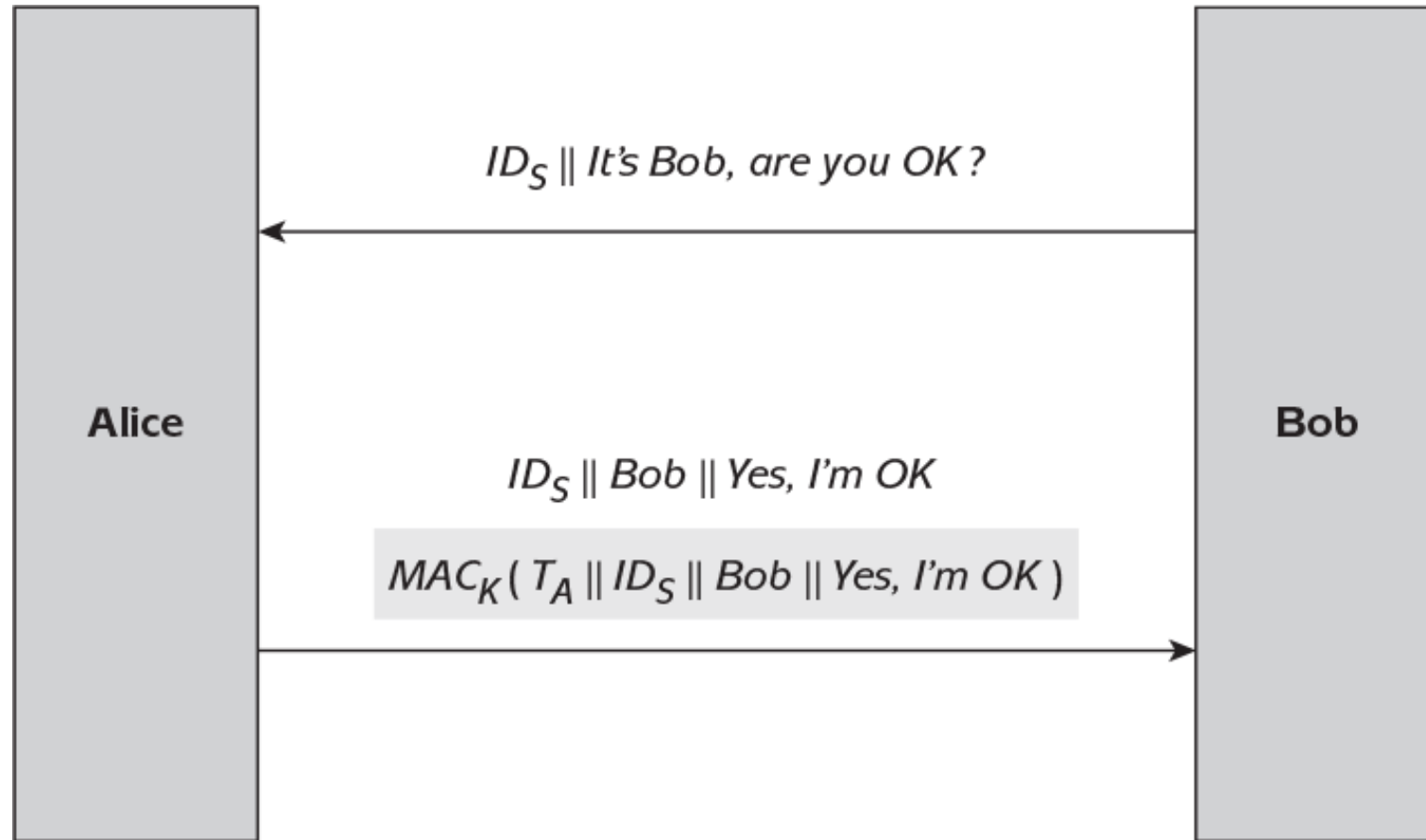
## Protocol Analysis

- Data origin authentication of Alice's reply. As for Protocol 1.
  - Freshness of Alice's reply. The reply text includes the timestamp  $T_B$  which Bob generated at the start of the protocol.
  - Assurance that Alice's reply corresponds to Bob's request: timestamp, identifier "Bob".
- 
- Protocol 5 meets the three security goals.

# Protocol 6



# Protocol 7



# Simple protocol summary

- **There is no one correct way to design a cryptographic protocol.**
  - Three protocols provide all three security goals.
  - The choice of the most suitable protocol design thus depends on what assumptions are most suitable for a given application environment.
- **Designing cryptographic protocols is hard.**
  - The deficiencies of several of these protocol variants are very subtle. Given that this application is artificially simple, the complexity of designing protocols for more intricate applications should be clear.

# Authentication and Key Establishment (AKE) protocol

## **Objectives:**

- Mutual entity authentication
- Establishment of a common symmetric key

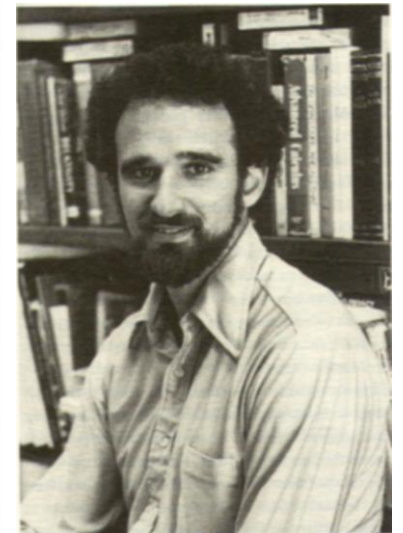
## **AKE protocol goals:**

- Mutual entity authentication.
- Mutual data origin authentication.
- Mutual key establishment.
- Key confidentiality.
- Key freshness.
- Mutual key confirmation.
- Unbiased key control.



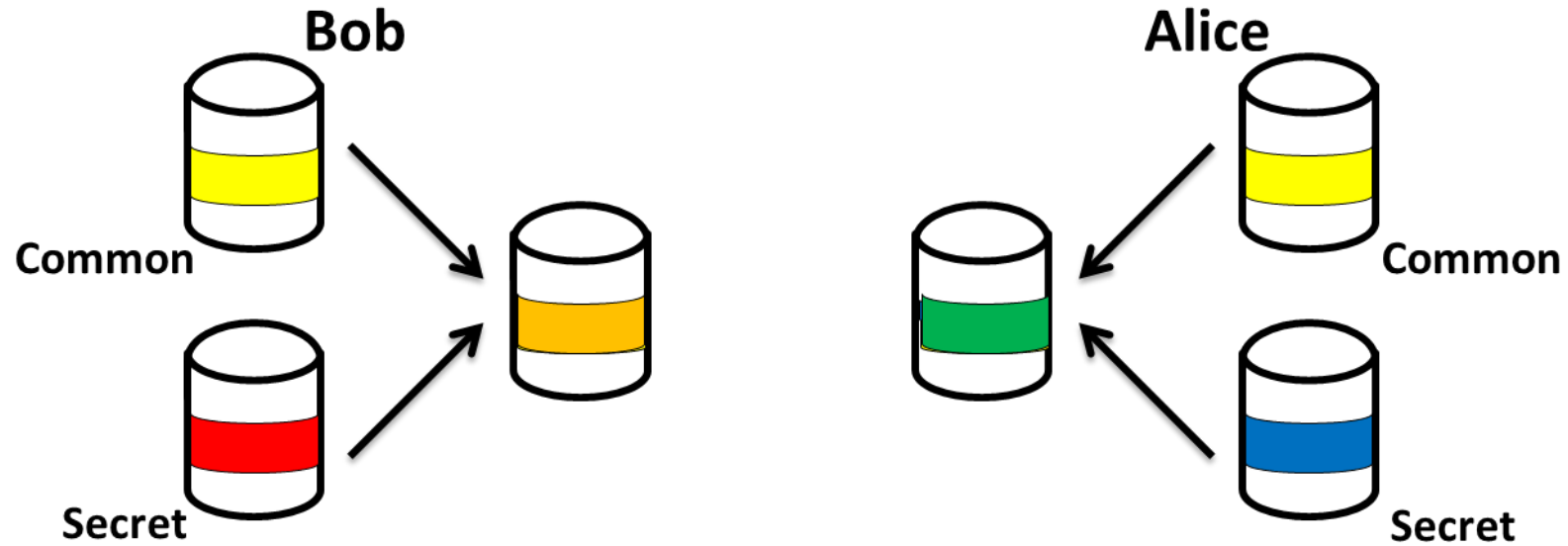
# Diffie–Hellman key agreement protocol

- One of the most influential cryptographic protocols
- The basis for majority of modern AKE protocols based on key agreement
- Designed for environments where secure channels do not yet exist
- Based on the difficulty of discrete logarithm.

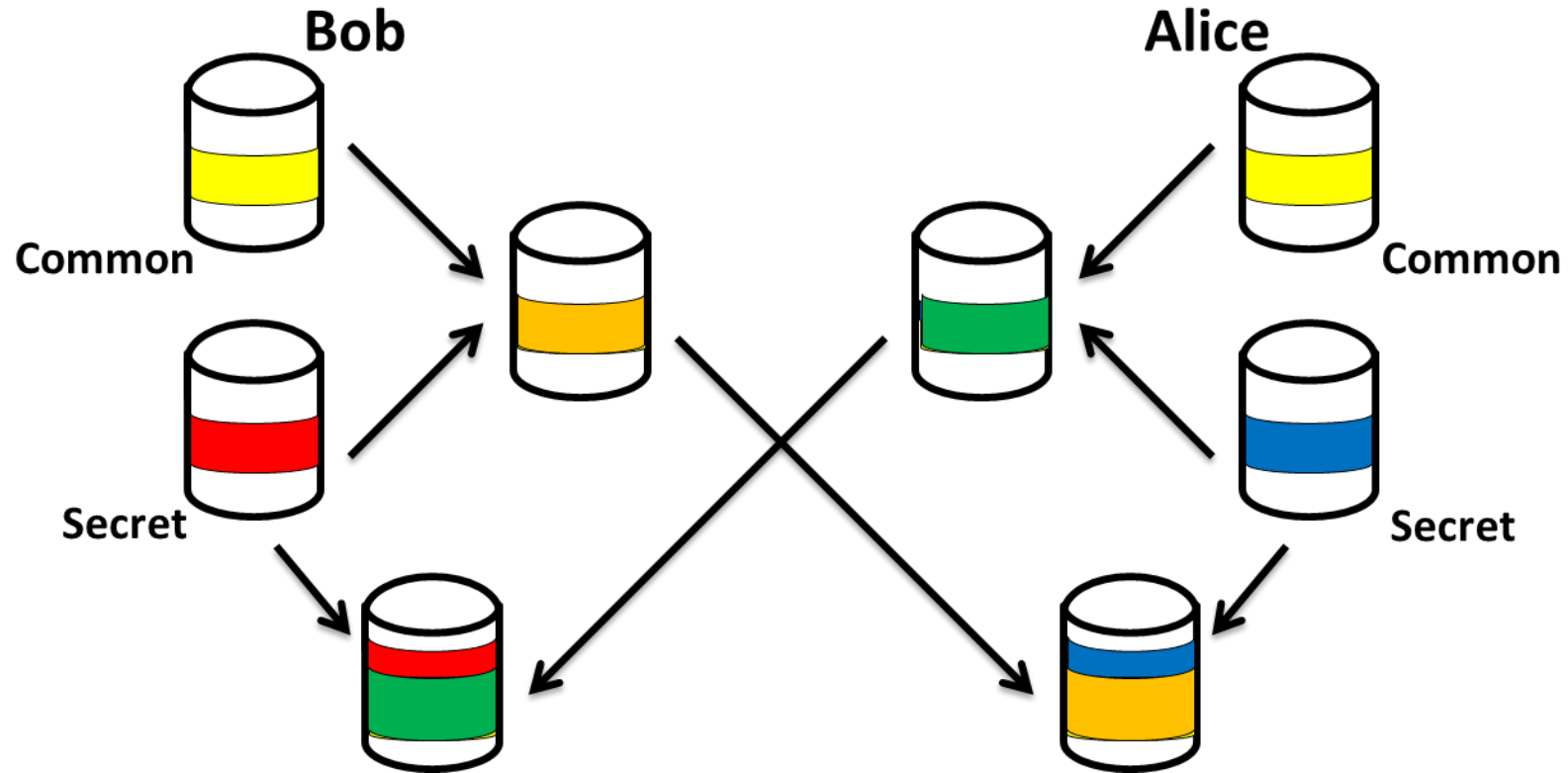


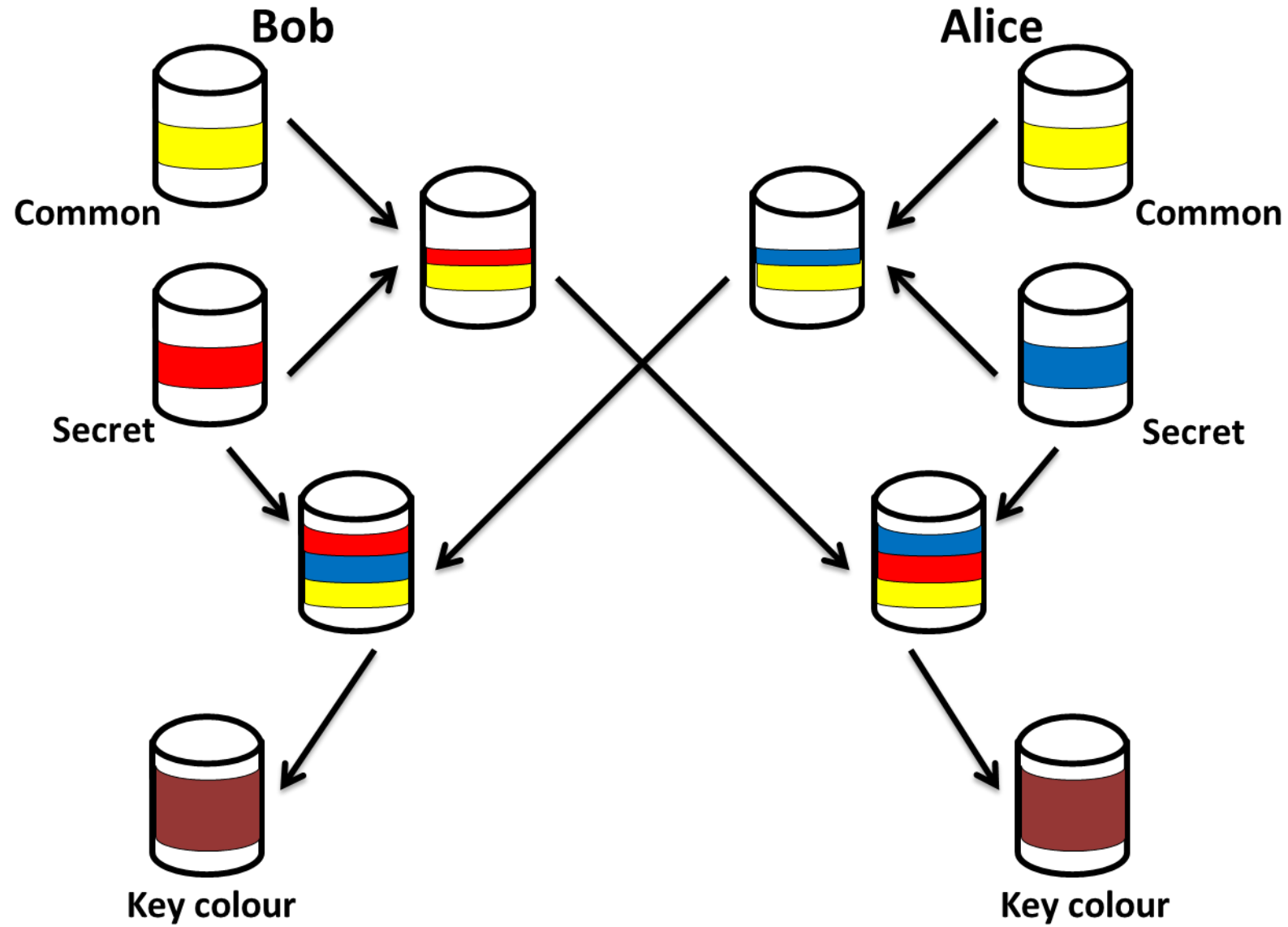
*Diffie* and *Hellman*

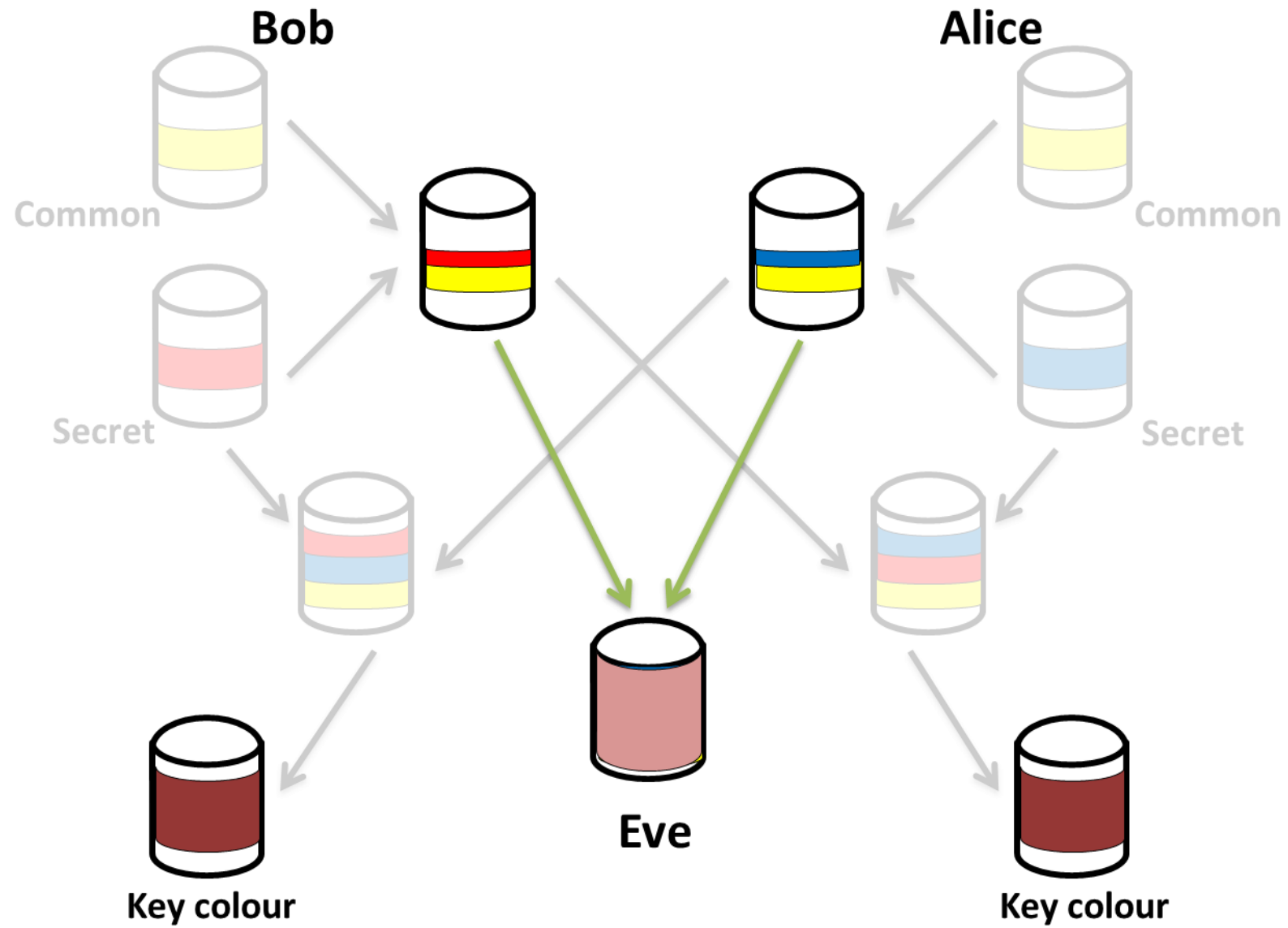
# Analogy: The secret colour



# Analogy: The secret colour







# Basic idea of Diffie-Hellman

1. Alice sends her public key  $P_A$  to Bob.
2. Bob sends his public key  $P_B$  to Alice.
3. Alice computes  $F(S_A, P_B)$ . Note that only Alice can conduct this computation, since it involves her private key  $S_A$ .
4. Bob computes  $F(S_B, P_A)$ . Note that only Bob can conduct this computation, since it involves his private key  $S_B$ .

The special property for the public-key cryptosystem and the combination function  $F$  is that  $F(S_A, P_B) = F(S_B, P_A)$ .

# Diffie-Hellman algorithm

## Global Public Elements

$q$	Prime number
$\alpha$	$\alpha < q$ , $\alpha$ a primitive root of $q$

## User Key generation

### Alice

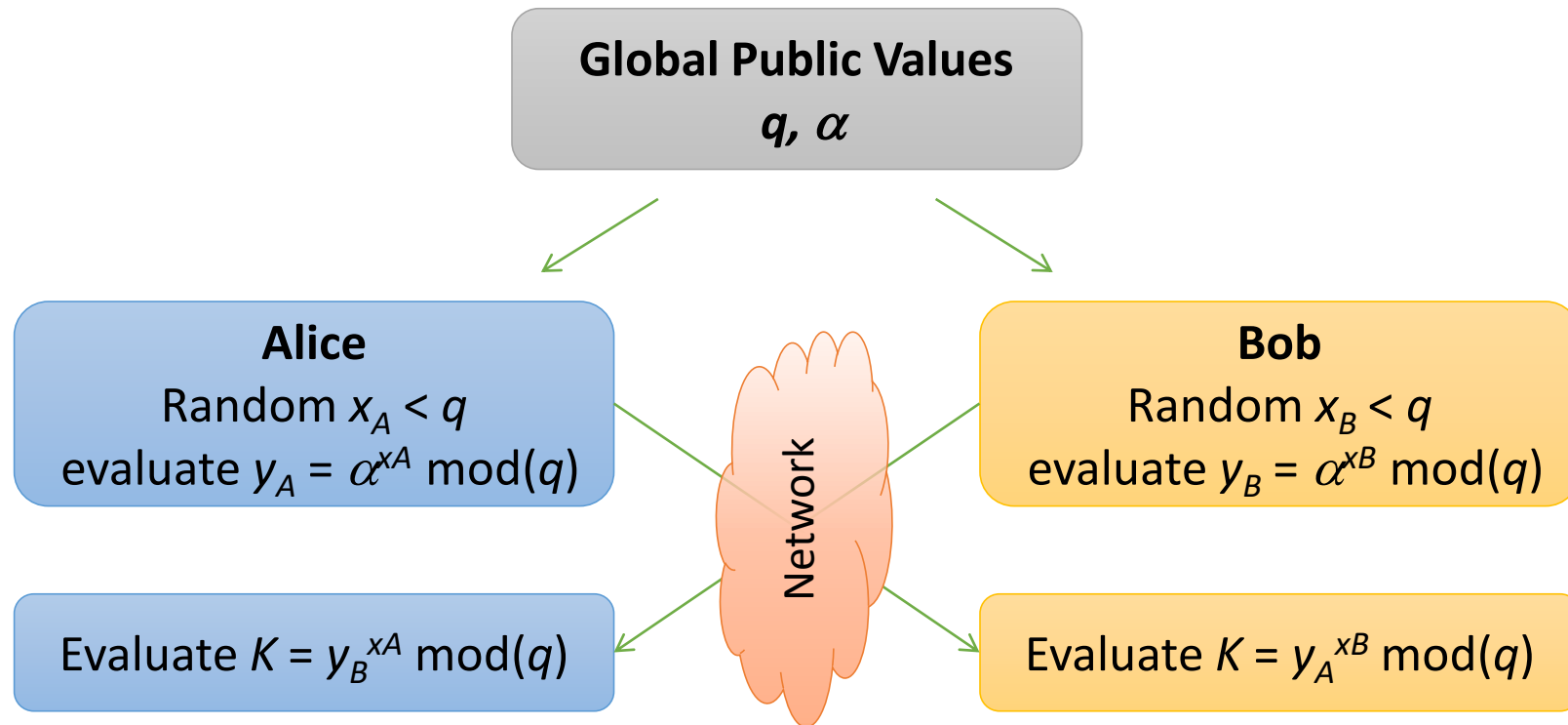
Select a private $x_A$	$x_A < q$
Calculate public $y_A$	$y_A = \alpha^{x_A} \bmod q$

### Bob

Select a private $x_B$	$x_B < q$
Calculate public $y_B$	$y_B = \alpha^{x_B} \bmod q$

Details of Diffie-Hellman algorithm are not part of evaluation.

# Diffie-Hellman algorithm



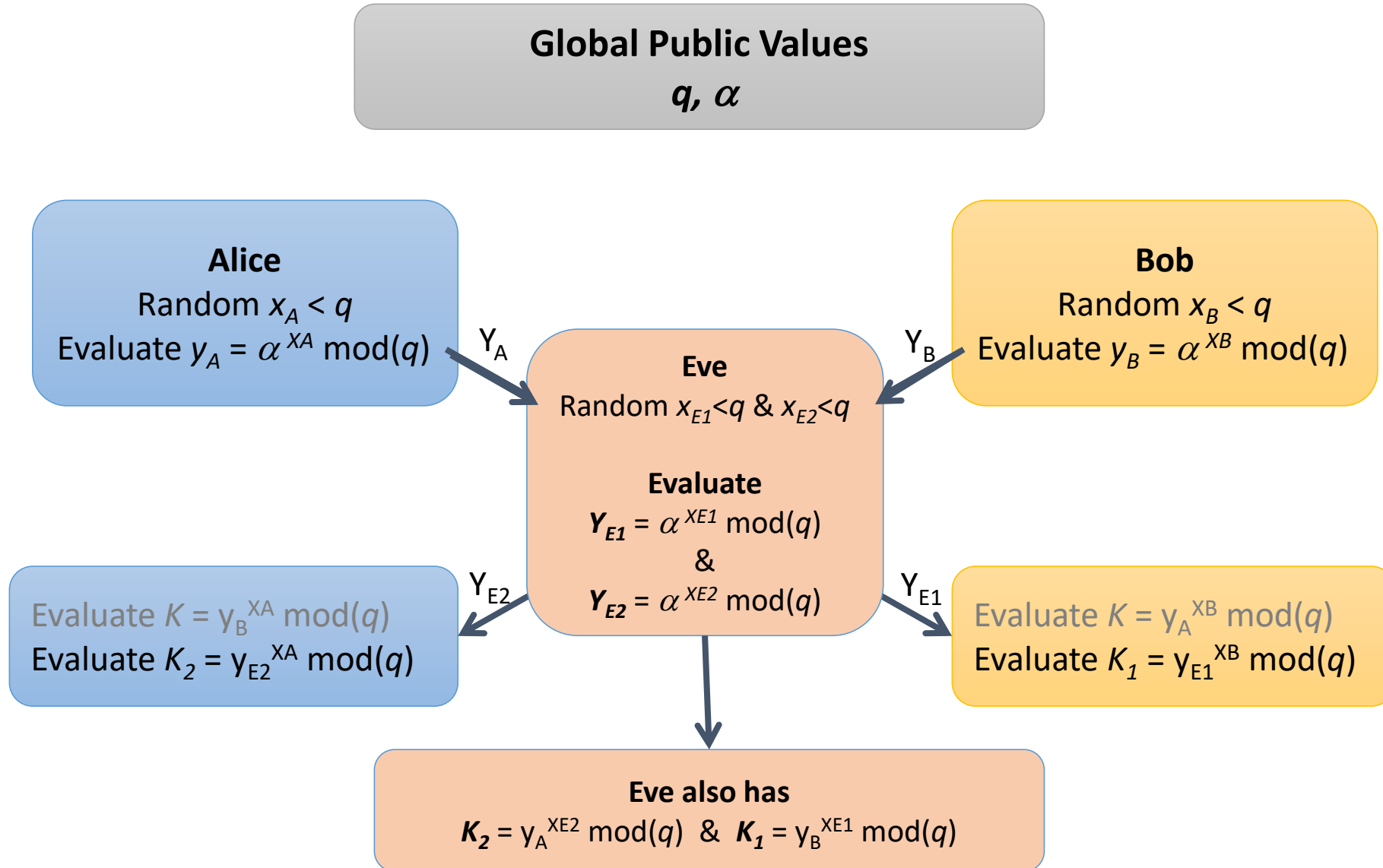


# Man-in-the-middle attack

1. Eve prepares for the attack by generating two random private keys  $X_{E1}$  and  $X_{E2}$  and then computing the corresponding public keys  $Y_{E1}$  and  $Y_{E2}$ .
2. Alice transmits  $Y_A$  to Bob.
3. Eve intercepts  $Y_A$  and transmits  $Y_{E1}$  to Bob. Eve also calculates  $K_2 = y_A^{X_{E2}} \bmod(q)$ .
4. Bob receives  $Y_{E1}$  and calculates  $K_1 = y_{E1}^{X_B} \bmod(q)$ .
5. Bob transmits  $Y_B$  to Alice.
6. Eve intercepts  $Y_B$  and transmits  $Y_{E2}$  to Alice. Eve calculates  $K_1 = y_B^{X_{E1}} \bmod(q)$ .
7. Alice receives  $Y_{E2}$  and calculates  $K_2 = y_{E2}^{X_A} \bmod(q)$ .

At this point, Bob and Alice think that they share a secret key, but instead Bob and Eve share secret key and Alice and Eve share secret key.

# Man-in-the-middle attack



- This man-in-the middle attack was only able to succeed because there is no **data origin authentication**.
- Solution: *Public-key certificates*

# One AKE protocol using Diffie-Hellman

1. Alice randomly generates a positive integer  $X_A$  and calculates  $Y_A$ . Alice sends  $Y_A$  to Bob, along with the certificate  $\text{Cert}_A$  for her verification key.
2. Bob verifies  $\text{Cert}_A$ . If he is satisfied with the result, then Bob randomly generates a positive integer  $X_B$  and calculates  $Y_B$ . Next, Bob signs a message consisting of Alice's name,  $Y_A$  and  $Y_B$ . Bob then sends  $Y_B$  to Alice, along with the certificate  $\text{Cert}_B$  for his verification key and the signed message.
3. Alice verifies  $\text{Cert}_B$ . If she is satisfied with the result, then she uses Bob's verification key to verify the signed message. If she is satisfied with this, she signs a message consisting of Bob's name,  $Y_A$  and  $Y_B$ , which she then sends back to Bob. Finally, Alice uses  $Y_B$  and her private key  $X_A$  to compute symmetric key.
4. Bob uses Alice's verification key to verify the signed message he has just received. If he is satisfied with the result, then Bob uses  $Y_A$  and his private key  $X_B$  to compute symmetric key.

# Key Management

# Key management

- Crucial to the security of any cryptosystem.
- Key management: *secure administration of cryptographic keys.*
- Key lifecycle:
  - **Key generation:** the creation of keys.
  - **Key establishment:** the process of making sure keys reach the end points where they will be used. the most difficult phase of the key lifecycle to implement.
  - **Key storage:** the safekeeping of keys.
  - **Key usage:** how keys are used.

# Key lifetimes

- A key can only be used for a specified period of time, during which it is regarded as being *live*.
- Finite key lifetimes mitigate against key compromise, key management failures, future attacks.
- Finite key lifetimes provide flexibility to suit application requirements. E.g. short data keys that expire quickly.

# Key lengths

- Key length recommendations for symmetric cryptography tend to be **algorithm-independent**.
- Key length recommendations for public-key cryptography tend to be **algorithm-specific**.

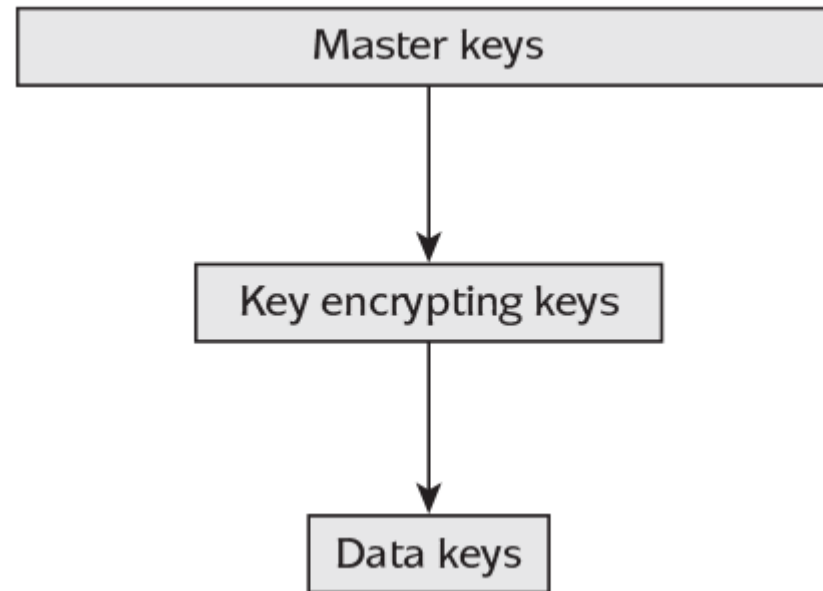


# Key lengths example

Protection	Notes	Key length
Vulnerable to attacks in 'real time' by individuals	Limited use	32
Very short-term protection against small organisations	Not for new applications	64
Short-term protection against medium organisations; medium-term protection against small organisations		72
Very short-term protection against agencies; long-term protection against small organisations	Protection to 2012.	80
Legacy standard level	Protection to 2020.	96
Medium-term protection	Protection to 2030.	112
Long-term protection	Protection to 2040.	128
'Foreseeable future'	Good protection against quantum computers	256

# Key hierarchy

- Ranking of keys, with high-level keys being more 'important' than low-level keys. Keys at one level are used to encrypt keys at the level beneath.

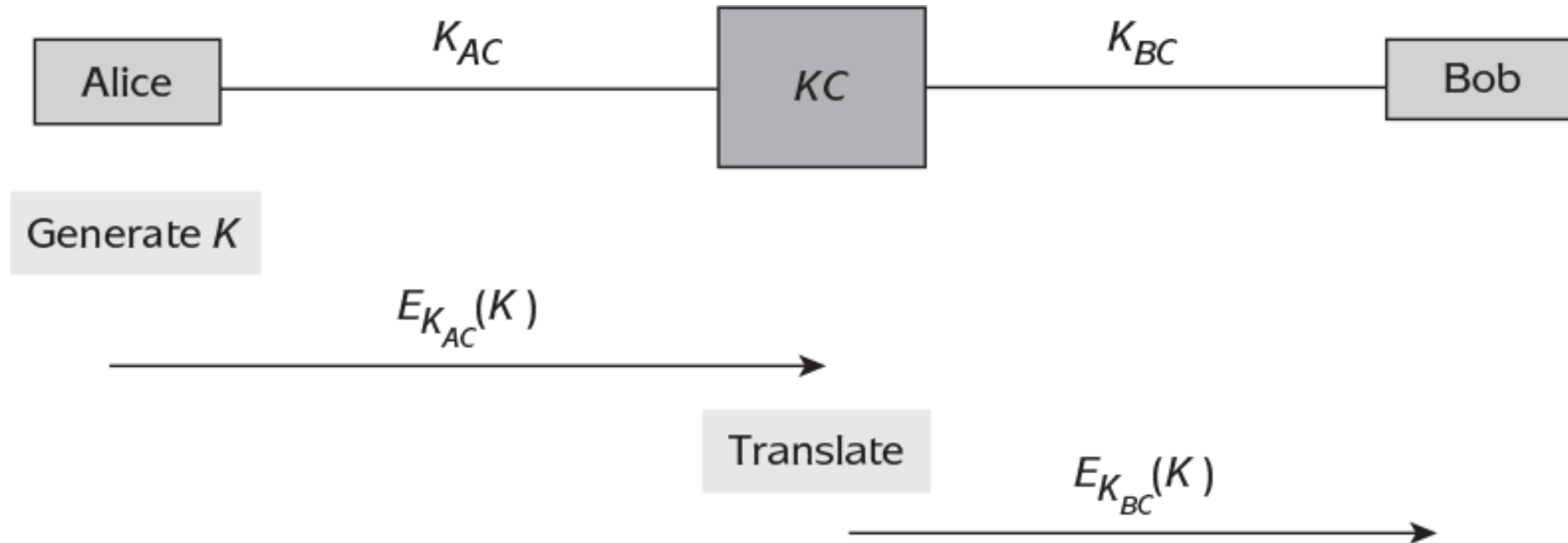


# A key distribution scenario

- Consider a simple two-level hierarchy consisting of only master and data keys.
- If we have a network of  $n$  users, then the number of possible pairs of users is  $n(n-1)/2$ , which is the number of shared master keys. This is not practical for a network with many users.
- *Key Centre* (Key Distribution Centre) – a trusted third party.
- Each user in the network shares a master key with the KC.

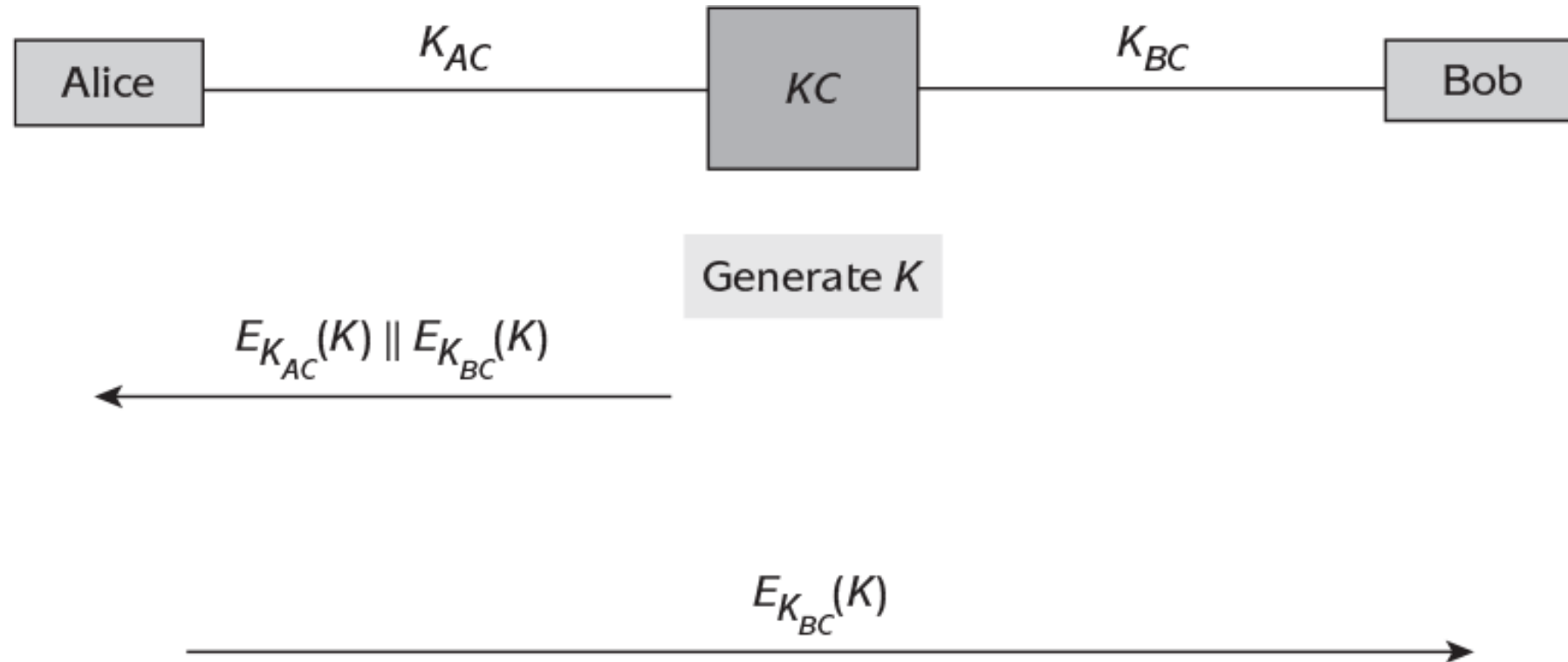
# Key distribution using symmetric encryption

- Key translation



# Key distribution using symmetric encryption

- Key despatch



# Key distribution using public-key encryption

- Hybrid encryption can be used for key distribution.
- The big question is how we can be sure the identity of another party, i.e, the public key a party claims to belong to is actually that party's public key?
- Solution: public-key certificate.

# Public-key certificate

- A *public-key certificate* is data binding a public key to data relating to the assurance of purpose of this public key. It can be thought of as a trusted directory entry in a sort of distributed database.
- Contents of a Public-Key Certificate
  - ***Name of owner***. The name of the owner of the public key. This owner could be a person, a device, or even a role within an organisation.
  - ***Public-key value***. The public key itself.
  - ***Validity time period***. This identifies the date and time from which the public key is valid and, more importantly, the date and time of its expiry.
  - ***Signature***. The creator of the public-key certificate digitally signs all the data that forms the public-key certificate, including the name of owner, public-key value, and validity time period.
  - And more... (X.509: public-key certificate standard)

# Certificate authority

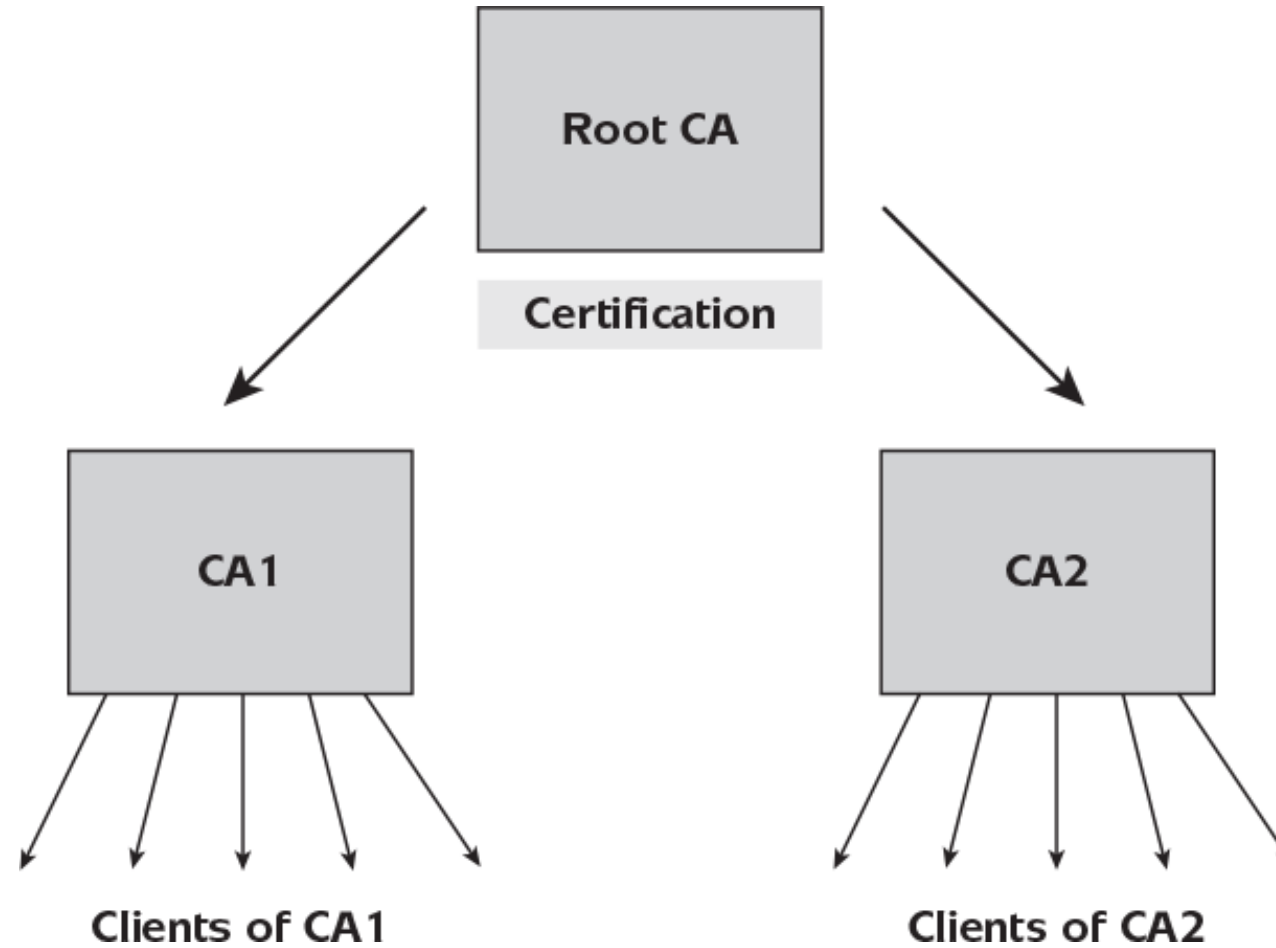
- *Certificate authority*: creator of a public-key certificate.
  - Certificate **creation**: creating and signing the public-key certificate, and then issuing it to the owner.
  - Certificate **revocation**. The CA is responsible for revoking the certificate in the event that it becomes invalid.
  - Certificate **trust anchor**. The CA acts as the point of trust for any party relying on the correctness of the information contained in the public-key certificate.



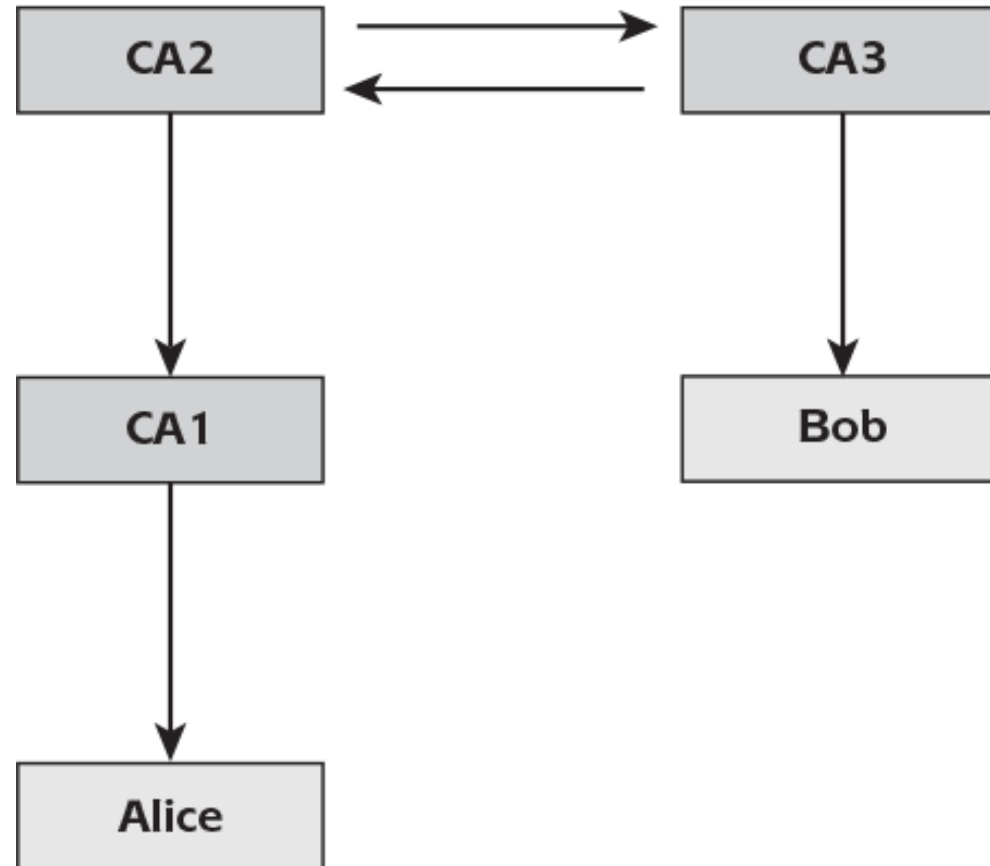
# Relying on a Public-Key Certificate

- **Trust the CA.** The relying party needs to be able to trust the CA to have performed its job correctly when creating the certificate.
- **Verify the signature on the certificate.** The relying party needs to have access to the verification key of
- **Check the fields.** The relying party needs to check all the fields in the public-key certificate. In particular, they must check the name of the owner and that the public-key certificate is valid.

# Certification hierarchies



# Certificate chains



# Web of trust

- Alternate approach to certificate-based approach.
- Suppose Alice wishes to directly provide relying parties with her public key.
- The idea of a web of trust involves other public-key certificate owner's acting as 'lightweight CAs' by digitally signing Alice's public key.
- Alice gradually develops a key ring, which consists of her public key plus a series of digital signatures by other owners attesting to the fact that the public-key value is indeed Alice's.
- Used in PGP (Pretty Good Privacy)

# Summary

- Cryptographic Protocols
  - Components, stages
- Authentication and Key Establishment (AKE) protocol
- Diffie–Hellman key agreement
- Key management
  - Lifetime, lengths, hierarchy
  - Key distribution
- Public-key certificate
  - Certificate Authority (CA)
- Web of trust