

Information Security

Session key - Key management

Overview

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

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 key - Interchange key

- Alice wants to send a message m to Bob
 - Assume public key encryption
 - Alice know Bob's public key Z_B
- Proposed protocol
 - 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 Z_B
 - Z_B enciphers all session keys Alice uses to communicate with Bob
 - Called an *interchange key*
 - Alice sends Bob: $\{ m \} k_s \{ k_s \} Z_B$

Session key - Interchange key

■ session key

- ❑ cryptographic key associated with the communication itself
- ❑ Uses to encipher data only. Does not authenticate the principals

■ Interchange key

- ❑ a cryptographic key associated with a principal to a communication
- ❑ Can be used to authenticate the principals

Why session key?

- Limits amount of traffic enciphered with single key
 - Standard practice, to decrease the amount of traffic an attacker can obtain
- Guarantees the freshness of the keys

Key Exchange Algorithms

- Goal: Alice, Bob to get shared session key (wo/ interchange 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 use a trusted 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

Session key creation using symmetric cryptography

Simple protocol

1. Protocol details

1. $A \rightarrow B: ID_A$
2. $B \rightarrow A: (ID_B || K_S) K_{AB}$
3. A: decrypts $(ID_B || K_S) K_{AB}$ and derives K_S

2. Any security risk?

1. Attacker derives an old session key used in the past
2. He reuses the cipher text in step 2 and impersonates B
3. A communicates with the attacker using old key K_S

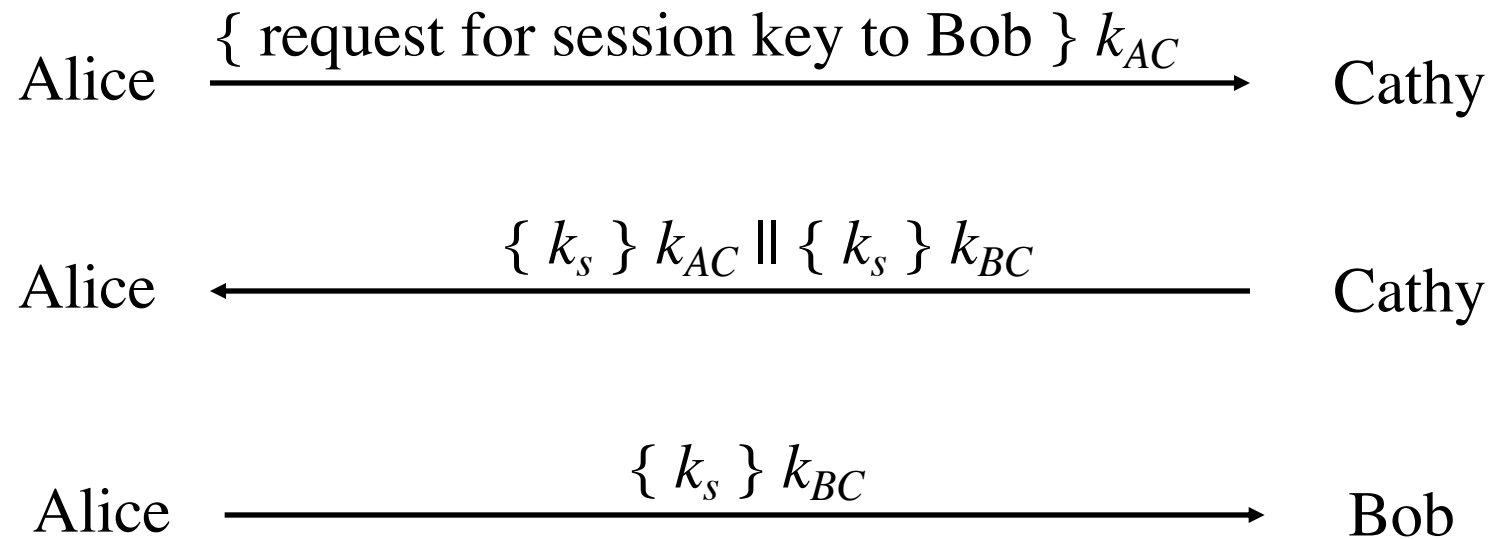
Simple protocol

- A modification against key-reuse attack
 - $A \rightarrow B: ID_A || R_1$
 - $B \rightarrow A: (ID_B || K_S || R_1 || R_2) K_M$
 - $A \rightarrow B: (R_2) K_S$
 - B: decrypts $(R_2) K_S$ and checks the value of R_2
- The weakness of the centralized key management?

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_{AC}
 - Bob and Cathy share secret key k_{BC}
 - Use this to exchange shared key k_s

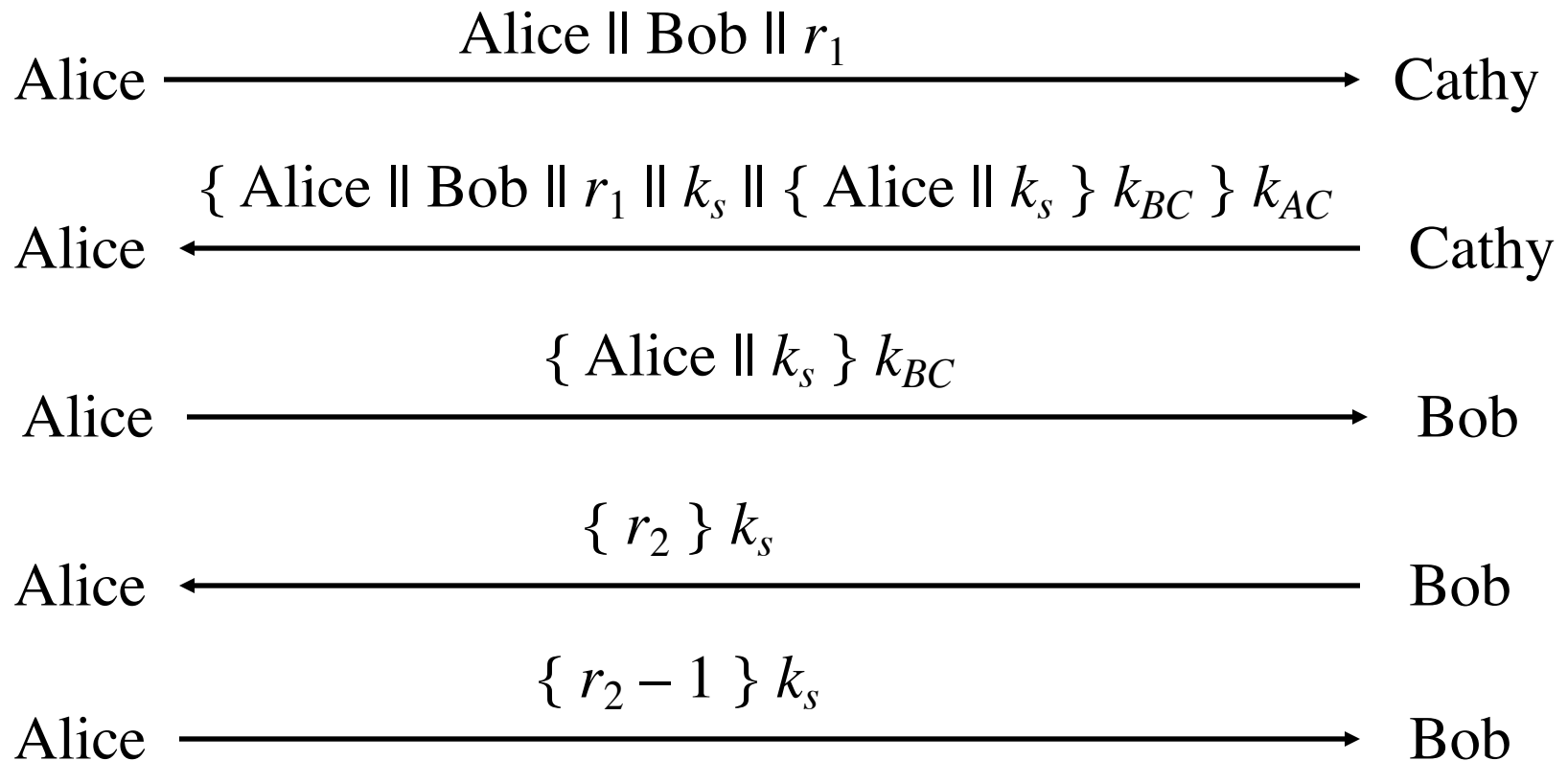
Simple Protocol



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
 - Eve may fortunately get a session key dropped by Alice
- 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

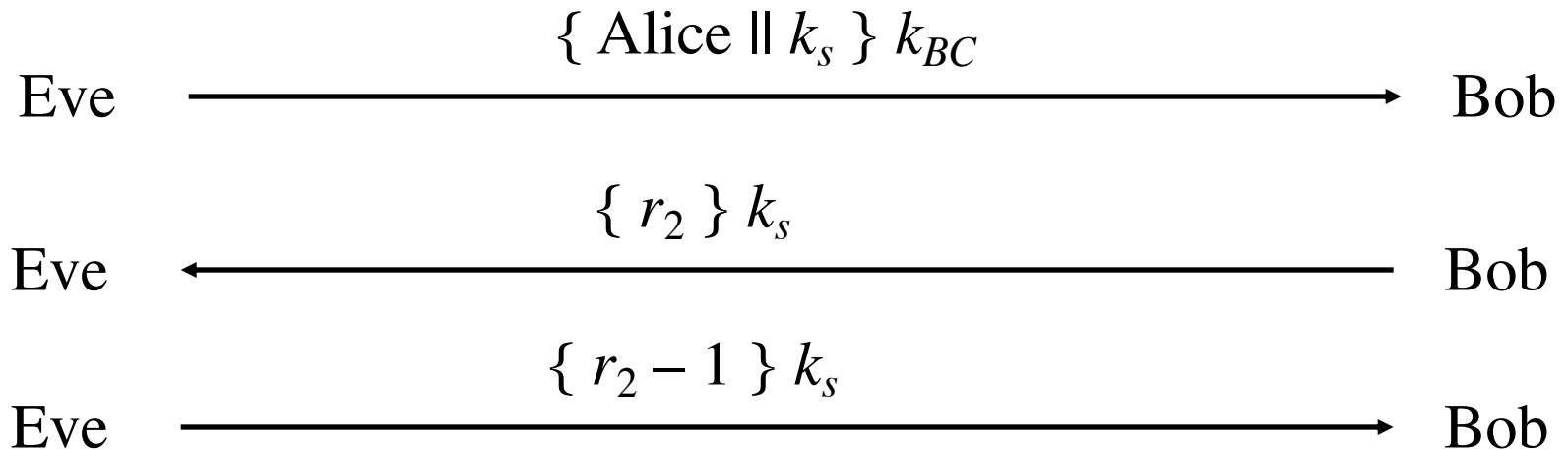
- Observe that: Enciphered using key only he and Cathy know
 - So Cathy enciphered it
- Inside are the name Alice and the session key
 - Bob concludes that Cathy provided session key, saying Alice is the other party

■ Fourth and Fifth messages:

- Use 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

Denning-Sacco Problem

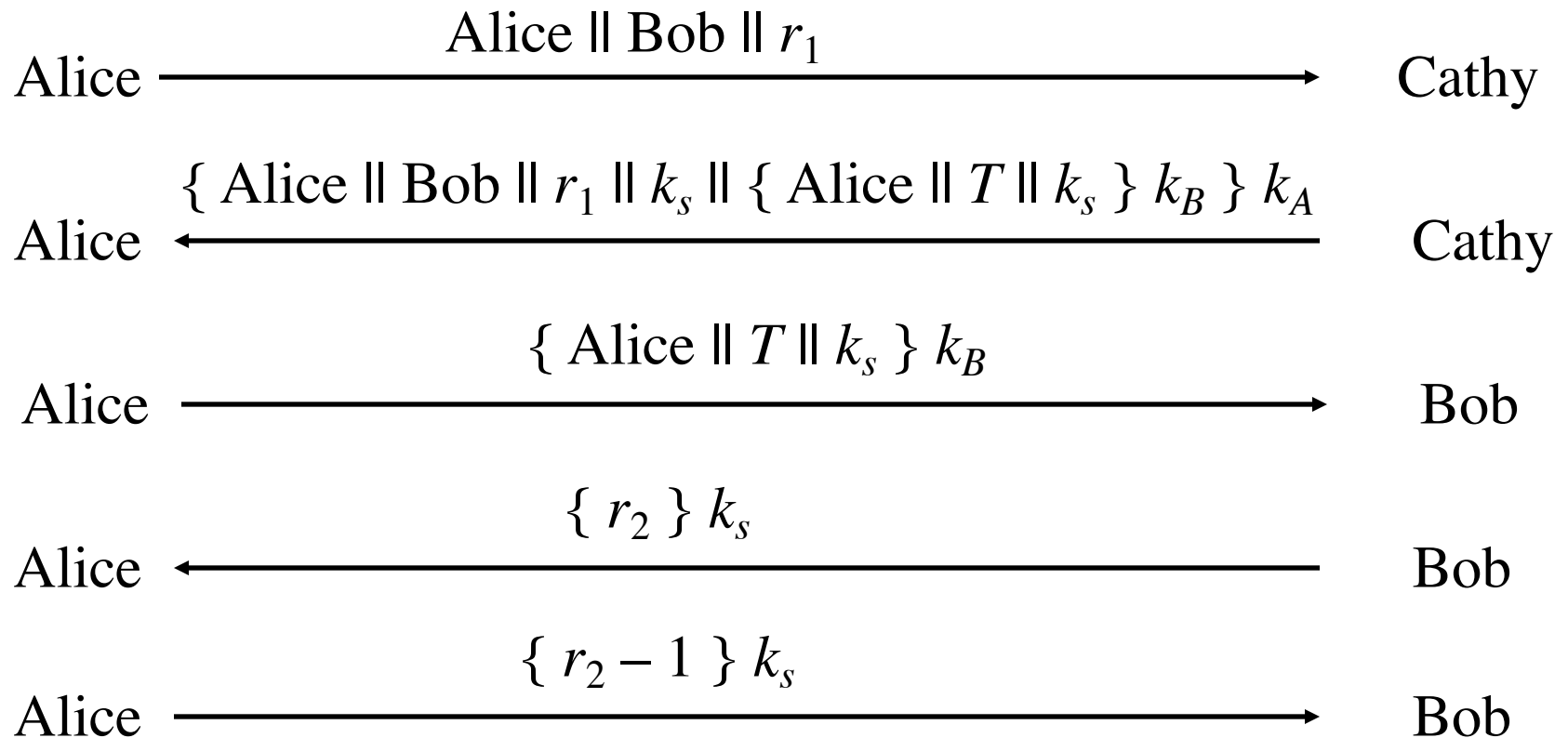
- Assumption: all keys are secret
- Question: suppose Eve can obtain session key.
How does that affect protocol?
 - In what follows, by chance Eve knows k_s



Solution

- In protocol above, Eve impersonates Alice
- Problem: replay in third step
 - First in previous slide
- Solution: use time stamp T to detect replay

Needham-Schroeder with Denning-Sacco Modification



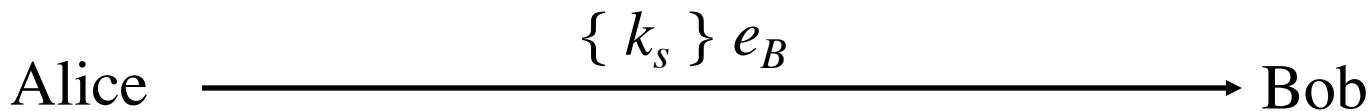
Still weakness, anyway

- 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
- Use Otway-Rees protocol (Bishop's text)

Session key creation using asymmetric cryptography

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



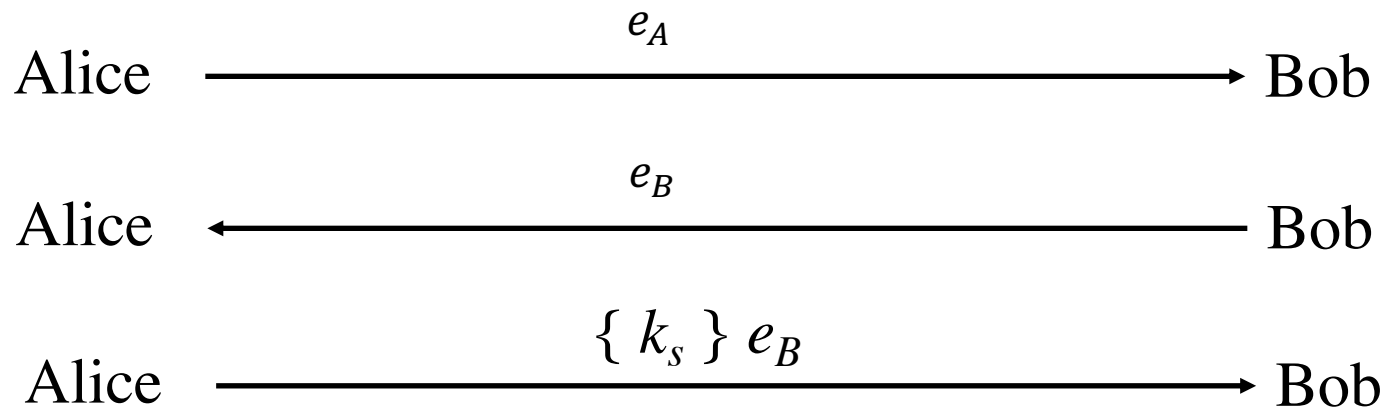
Problem and Solution

- 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

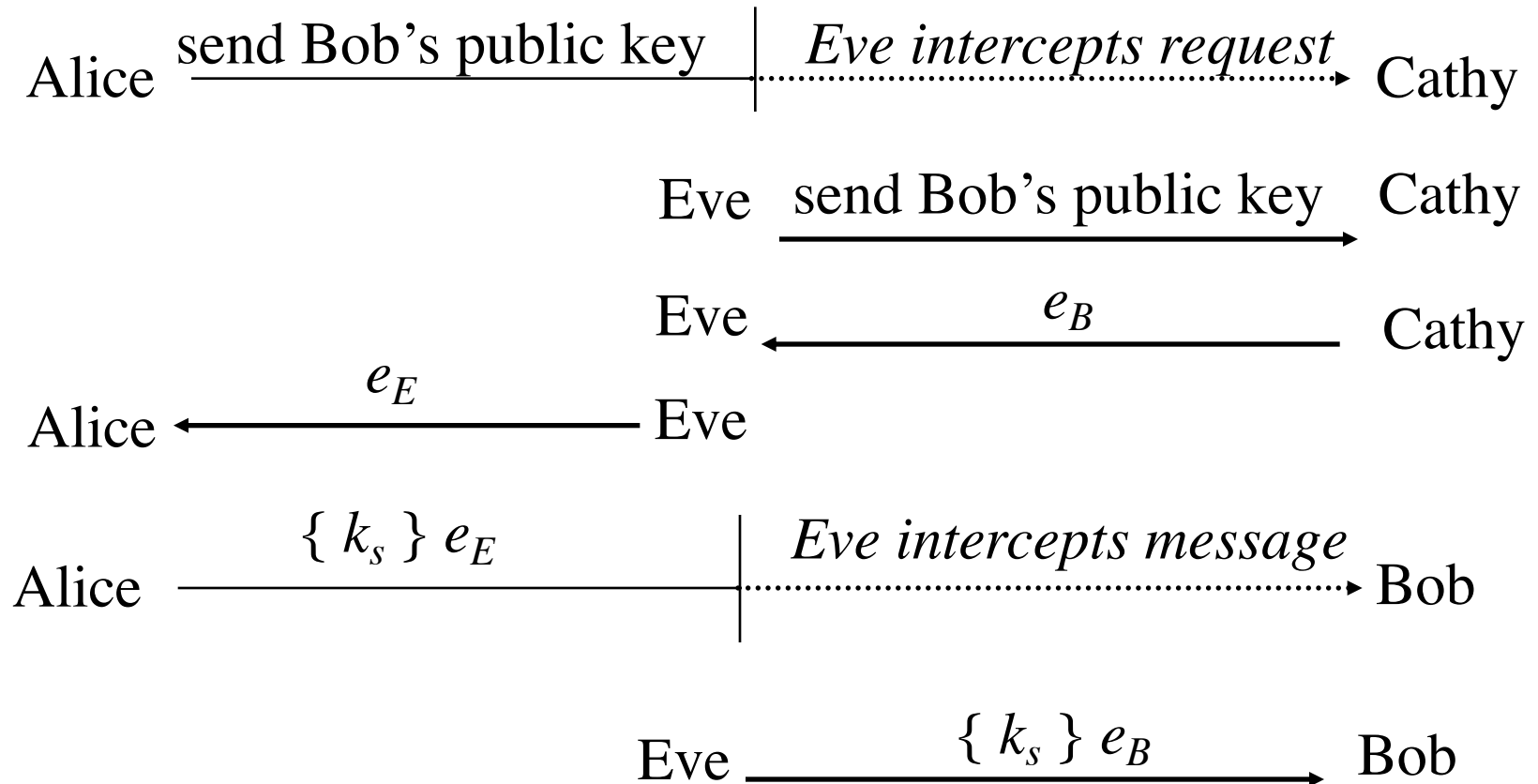
Alice $\xrightarrow{\{ \{ k_s \} d_A \} e_B}$ Bob

Bob and Alice do not know the other's public key in advance

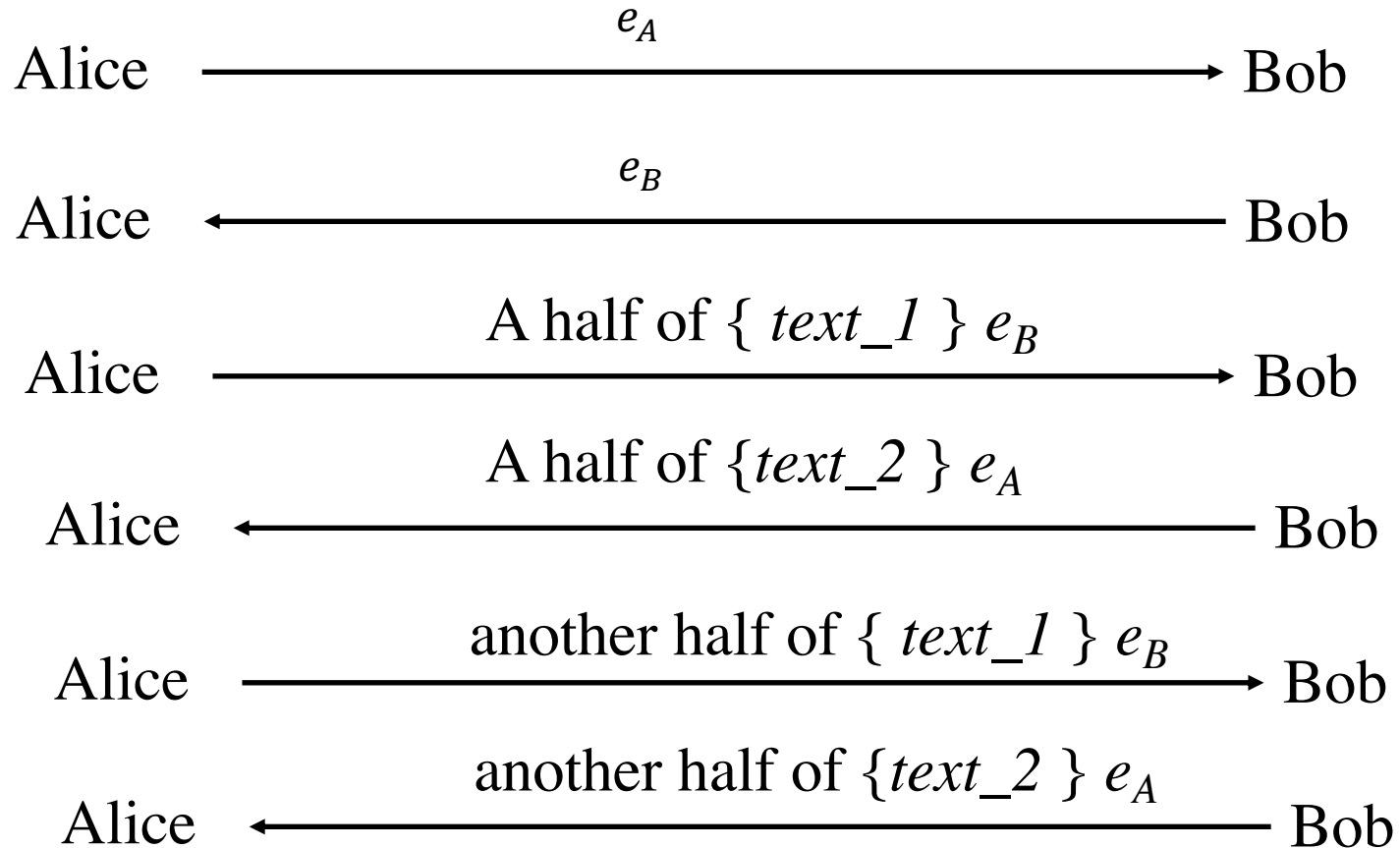
- Simple public key exchange protocol



Man-in-the-Middle Attack



Solution for Man-in-the-Middle Attack



Using a trusted third party

■ PKA (Public Key Authority)

- Keys: (e_{PKA}, d_{PKA})
- PKA know the public key of A (e_A) and B (e_B)
- A and B know the public key of PKA: e_{PKA}

■ Simple protocol

1. $A \rightarrow PKA: Alice || Bob$
2. $PKA \rightarrow A: \{Bob || e_B\} d_{KPA}$
3. $A \rightarrow B: \{r_1\} e_B$
4. $B \rightarrow PKA: Alice || Bob$
5. $PKA \rightarrow B: \{Alice || e_A\} d_{KPA}$
6. $B \rightarrow A: \{r_1\} e_A$

■ Any security risk?

Using a trusted third party

■ An improvement against key reuse attack

1. $A \rightarrow PKA: Alice || Bob || T_1$ (T_1 : timestamp)
2. $PKA \rightarrow A: \{Bob || e_B\}d_{KPA}$
3. $A \rightarrow B: \{r_1\}e_B$
4. $B \rightarrow PKA: Alice || Bob || T_2$ (T_2 : timestamp)
5. $PKA \rightarrow B: \{Alice || e_A\}d_{KPA}$
6. $B \rightarrow A: \{r_1\}e_A$

Cryptographic Key Infrastructure

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

Certificates

- Create token (message) containing
 - Identity of principal (here, Alice)
 - Corresponding public key (e_A)
 - Timestamp (when issued) (T)
 - Other information (perhaps identity of signer)signed by trusted authority (here, Cathy)

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

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 Dan; how can Alice validate Bob's certificate?
 - Have Cathy and Dan 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>>

Key Escrow

- *Key escrow system* allows authorized third party to recover key
 - Useful when keys belong to roles, such as system operator, rather than individuals
 - Business: recovery of backup keys
 - Law enforcement: recovery of keys that authorized parties require access to
- Goal: provide this without weakening cryptosystem
- Very controversial

Desirable Properties

- Escrow system should not depend on encipherment algorithm
- Privacy protection mechanisms must work from end to end and be part of user interface
- Requirements must map to key exchange protocol
- System supporting key escrow must require all parties to authenticate themselves
- If message to be observable for limited time, key escrow system must ensure keys valid for that period of time only

Components

- User security component
 - Does the encipherment, decipherment
 - Supports the key escrow component
- Key escrow component
 - Manages storage, use of data recovery keys
- Data recovery component
 - Does key recovery

Example: ESS, Clipper Chip

- Escrow Encryption Standard
 - Set of interlocking components
 - Designed to balance need for law enforcement access to enciphered traffic with citizens' right to privacy
- Clipper chip prepares per-message escrow information
 - Each chip numbered uniquely by UID
 - Special facility programs chip
- Key Escrow Decrypt Processor (KEDP)
 - Available to agencies authorized to read messages

Key Revocation

- Certificates invalidated *before* expiration
 - Usually due to compromised key
 - May be due to change in circumstance (e.g., someone leaving company)
- Problems
 - To ensure that the entity revoking the key is authorized to do so
 - To ensure timeliness of the revocation throughout the infrastructure
 - Revocation information circulates to everyone fast enough
 - Network delays, infrastructure problems may delay information

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

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

What is “Random”?

- *Sequence of cryptographically random numbers*: a sequence of numbers n_1, n_2, \dots such that for any integer $k > 0$, an observer cannot predict n_k even if all of n_1, \dots, n_{k-1} are known
 - Best: physical source of randomness
 - Random pulses
 - Electromagnetic phenomena
 - Characteristics of computing environment such as disk latency
 - Ambient background noise

What is “Pseudorandom”?

- *Sequence of cryptographically pseudorandom numbers*: sequence of numbers intended to simulate a sequence of cryptographically random numbers but generated by an algorithm
 - Very difficult to do this well
 - Linear congruential generators [$n_k = (an_{k-1} + b) \bmod n$] broken
 - Polynomial congruential generators [$n_k = (a_j n_{k-1}^j + \dots + a_1 n_{k-1} + a_0) \bmod n$] broken too
 - Here, “broken” means next number in sequence can be determined

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

- Use on UNIX-based systems:

`(date; ps aux) | md5`

where “ps aux” lists all information about all processes on system