

# Key Establishment

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# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Classification and Framework
- 3 Key Establishment Based on Symmetric Encryption
- 4 Key Establishment Based on Asymmetric Encryption
- 5 Secret Sharing



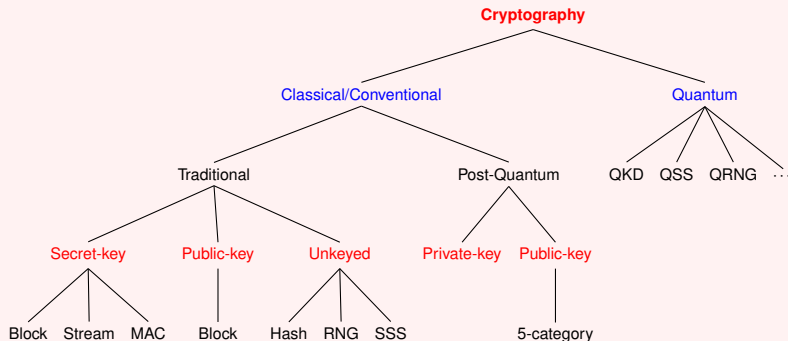
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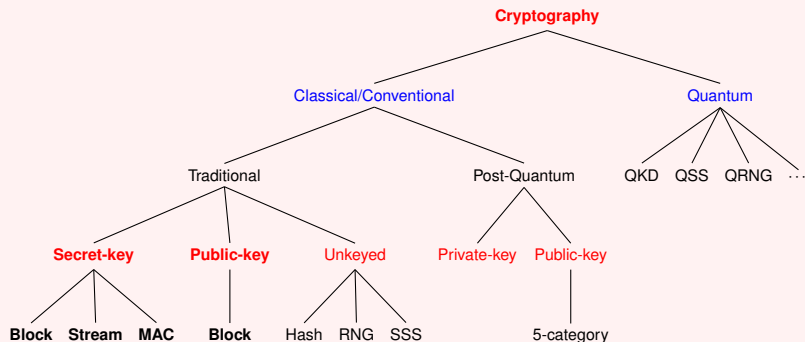
# Classification of Cryptography

## Classification



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## Classification



# Principle

The philosophy of modern cryptanalysis is embodied in the following principle formulated in 1883

- Basic assumptions:

- The system is completely known to the attacker
- Only the key is secret
- That is, crypto algorithms are not secret

- This is known as *Kerckhoffs' Principle*



- Why do we make this assumption?

- Easier to maintain secrecy of a short key rather than an algorithm
  - Algorithm parts may be leaked: insider or reverse engineering.
- Key revocation/reissue is easier than algorithm revocation/reissue
- Different people communication: different keys or different algorithms?



- All cryptographic mechanisms that we have learnt so far **assume that keys are properly distributed** between the parties involved.





- All cryptographic mechanisms that we have learnt so far **assume that keys are properly distributed** between the parties involved.
- 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**.



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# Fundamental Concepts

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It is a **process** or **protocol** whereby a shared secret becomes available to two or more parties, for subsequent cryptographic use.

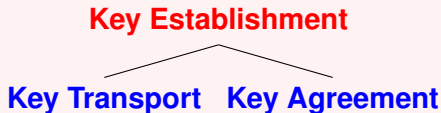


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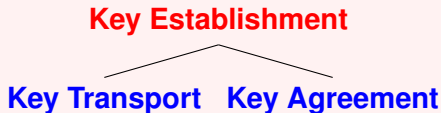


# Fundamental Concepts

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## Key Establishment



- **Key Transport:** One party generates and distributes a secret key
- **Key Agreement:** Parties jointly generate a secret key

A **protocol** is a multi-party algorithm, defined by a sequence of steps precisely specifying the actions required of two or more parties in order to achieve a specified objective



# Fundamental Concepts

- Key establishment protocol itself is strongly related to **entity authentication/identification**.
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- Key establishment protocol itself is strongly related to **entity authentication/identification**.
- Involving authentication typically require a **set-up phase** whereby authentic and possibly secret initial keying material is distributed.
- One may think of attacks by **unauthorized users who join the key establishment protocol** with the aim of masquerading as either Alice or Bob with the goal of establishing a secret key with the other party.
- To prevent such attacks, each party must be **assured of the identity of the other entity**.



# Fundamental Concepts

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- **Dynamic key establishment** schemes are those whereby the key established by a fixed pair (or group) of users varies on subsequent executions.
  - Dynamic key establishment is also referred to as **session key establishment**.
  - In this case the session keys are dynamic, and it is usually intended that the protocols are immune to known-key attacks.



# Trusted Third Party

- Many key establishment protocols involve a **centralized** or **trusted party**, for either or both initial system setup and on-line actions.



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- Many key establishment protocols involve a **centralized** or **trusted party**, for either or both initial system setup and on-line actions.
- This party is referred as
  - trusted third party,
  - trusted server,
  - authentication server,
  - key distribution center (KDC),
  - key translation center (KTC), and
  - certification authority (CA).



# Fundamental Concepts

- **Key authentication**



# Fundamental Concepts

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- **Key confirmation**



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  - The focus in key authentication is the *identity of the second party* rather than *the value of the key*, whereas in key confirmation the opposite is true.



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  - The focus in key authentication is the *identity of the second party* rather than *the value of the key*, whereas in key confirmation the opposite is true.
- **Explicit key authentication** is the property obtained when both *key authentication* and *key confirmation* hold.





# Fundamental Concepts

- An **authenticated key establishment protocol** provides key authentication.
- A key establishment protocol is said to be **identity-based** if identity information of the party involved is used as the party's public key.



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- A key establishment protocol is said to be **identity-based** if identity information of the party involved is used as the party's public key.
- **Objectives:**
  - **Authentication protocol** – to provide to one party some degree of assurance regarding the identity of another with which it is purportedly communicating;
  - **Key establishment protocol** – to establish a shared secret;
  - **Authenticated key establishment protocol** – to establish a shared secret with a party whose identity has been (or can be) corroborated.



# Motivation for Use of Session Keys

- Key establishment protocols result in shared secrets which is used to derive **session keys** or **ephemeral keys**.
- Motivation for ephemeral keys:



# Motivation for Use of Session Keys

- Key establishment protocols result in shared secrets which is used to derive **session keys** or **ephemeral keys**.
- **Motivation for ephemeral keys:**
  - to limit available ciphertext (under a fixed key) for cryptanalytic attack;
  - to limit exposure, with respect to both time period and quantity of data, in the event of (session) key compromise;
  - to avoid long-term storage of a large number of distinct secret keys by creating keys only when actually required;
  - to create independence across communications sessions or applications.



# Key Freshness and Key Derivation

- A key is **fresh** if it can be guaranteed to be new, as opposed to possibly an old key being reused through actions of either an adversary or authorized party.
- In **key transport protocols**, one party chooses a key value; whereas in **key agreement**, the key is derived from joint information, and it may be **desirable that neither party be able to control or predict the value of the key**.



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  - Execute the key establishment protocols over and over again. However, there are always certain costs associated with key establishment, typically w.r.t. additional communication and computations.
  - Use a **key derivation function (KDF)**



# The $n^2$ Key Distribution Problem

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  - If a **new user joins the network**, a secure channel must be established with every other user in order to upload new keys.



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  - If a **new user joins the network**, a secure channel must be established with every other user in order to upload new keys.
- The consequences of these observations are not very favorable if the number of users increases.
- All these keys must be generated securely at one location, which is typically **some type of trusted authority**.



# Adversaries in Key Establishment Protocols

- Communicating parties or entities in key establishment protocols are formally called **principals**.
- In addition to legitimate parties, the presence of an unauthorized **'third'** party is hypothesized, which is given many names as:
  - adversary,
  - intruder,
  - opponent,
  - enemy,
  - attacker,
  - eavesdropper, or
  - impersonator.



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- When **examining the security of protocols**, it is assumed that **the underlying cryptographic mechanisms used are secure**.
- Otherwise, there is no hope of a secure protocol.
- An adversary is hypothesized to be **not a cryptanalyst** attacking the underlying mechanisms directly, but rather one attempting to attack the protocol itself.



# Attacks in Key Establishment Protocols

- A **passive attack** involves an adversary who attempts to defeat a cryptographic technique by simply recording data and thereafter analyzing it (e.g., in key establishment, to determine the session key).



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- A **passive attack** involves an adversary who attempts to defeat a cryptographic technique by simply recording data and thereafter analyzing it (e.g., in key establishment, to determine the session key).
- An **active attack** involves an adversary who modifies or injects messages.



# Attacks in Key Establishment Protocols

- An adversary in a key establishment protocol may pursue many strategies, including attempting to:
  - 1 deduce a session key using information gained by eavesdropping;
  - 2 participate covertly in a protocol initiated by one party with another, and influence it, e.g., by altering messages so as to be able to deduce the key;
  - 3 initiate one or more protocol executions, and combine messages from one with another, so as to masquerade as some party or carry out one of the above attacks;
  - 4 without being able to deduce the session key itself, deceive a legitimate party regarding the identity of the party with which it shares a key



# Attacks in Key Establishment Protocols

- The potential impact of **compromise of various types of keying material should be considered**, even if such compromise is not normally expected.
  - 1 **compromise of long-term secret** (symmetric or asymmetric) keys, if any;
  - 2 **compromise of past session keys.**



# Attacks in Key Establishment Protocols

- A protocol is said to have **perfect forward secrecy/break-backward protection** if compromise of long-term keys does not compromise past session keys.



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- A protocol is said to have **perfect forward secrecy/break-backward protection** if compromise of long-term keys does not compromise past session keys.
- A protocol is said to be vulnerable to a **known-key attack** if compromise of past session keys allows either a passive adversary to compromise future session keys, or impersonation by an active adversary in the future



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# Basic Protocol

- It developed based on a **Key Distribution Center** (KDC).
- This is a server that is fully trusted by all users and that shares a secret key with each user.
- **Key Encryption Key** (KEK), is used to securely transmit session keys to users.



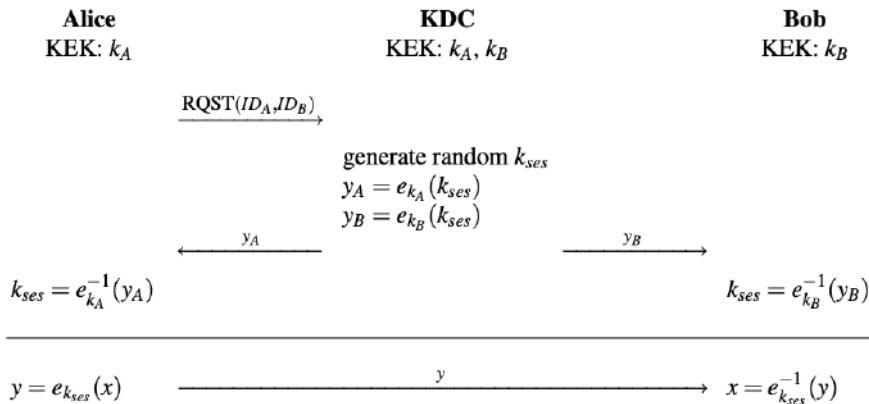
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# Basic Protocol

- It is important to note that **two types of keys** are involved in the protocol.
- The KEKs  $k_A$  and  $k_B$  are **long-term keys** that do not change.
- The session key  $k_{ses}$  is an **ephemeral key** that changes frequently.
- Since the KEKs are long-term keys, whereas the session keys have typically a much shorter lifetime, in practice sometimes **different encryption algorithms** are used with both.



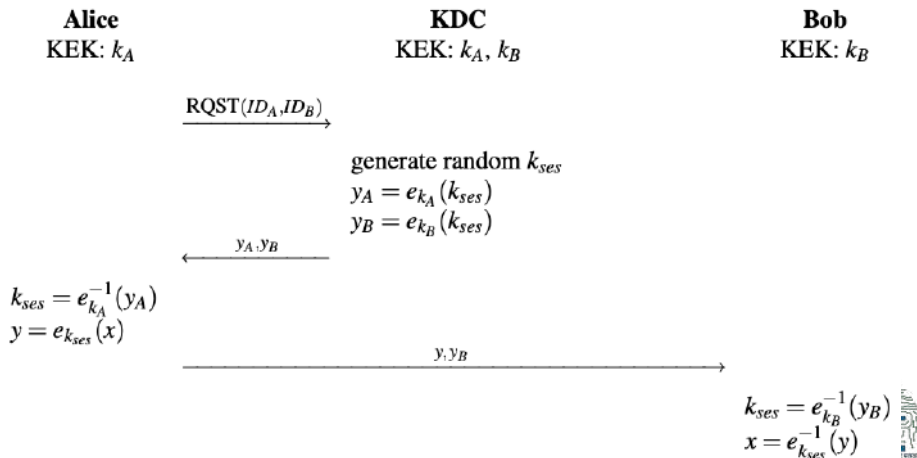
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# Basic Protocol

- Both of the KDC-based protocols have **the advantage**.
- There are only  $n$  long-term symmetric key pairs in the system.
- The first naive scheme that we discussed, where  $\approx \frac{n^2}{2}$  key pairs were required.
- The  $n$  long-term KEKs only need to be stored by the KDC, while each user only stores his/her own KEK.
- Most importantly, if a new user  $N$  joins the network, a secure channel only needs to be established once between the KDC and  $N$  to distribute the KEK  $k_N$ .



# Analysis of Basic Protocol

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- **Replay Attack**
  - It 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 one is reused, **key freshness is violated**.
  - This can be a particularly serious issue if an old session key has become **compromised**.
  - This could happen if **an old key is leaked**, e.g., through a hacker, or if the **encryption algorithm used with an old key has become insecure** due to cryptanalytical advances.



# Analysis of Basic Protocol

- If Oscar gets hold of a previous session key, he can impersonate the KDC and resend old messages  $y_A$  and  $y_B$  to Alice and Bob.
- Since Oscar knows the session key, he can decipher the plaintext that will be encrypted by Alice or Bob.

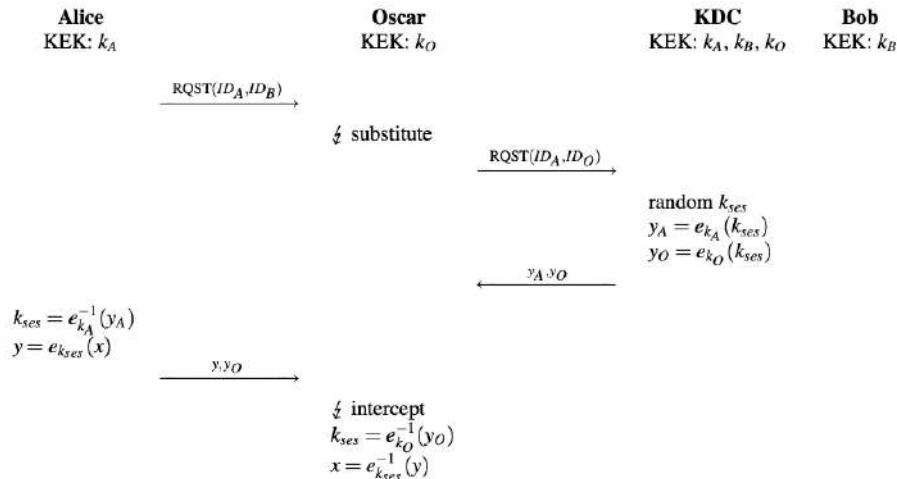


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- Since Oscar knows the session key, he can decipher the plaintext that will be encrypted by Alice or Bob.
- **Key Confirmation Attack**
  - Another weakness of the above protocol is that Alice is not assured that the key material she receives from the KDC is **actually for a session between her and Bob**.
  - This attack assumes that Oscar is also a legitimate (but malicious) user.
  - By changing the session-request message Oscar can trick the KDC and Alice to set up session between him and Alice as opposed to between Alice and Bob.



# Key Confirmation Attack

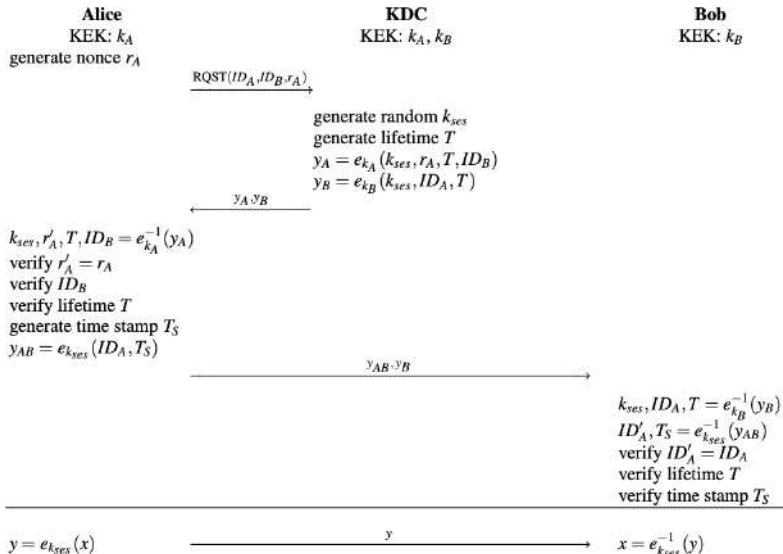


# Kerberos

- Kerberos protects against **both replay and key confirmation attacks**.
- It is more than a mere key distribution protocol.
- Its main purpose is to provide **user authentication in computer networks**.
- Kerberos was standardized as **an RFC 1510 in 1993** and is in widespread use.



# Kerberos



# Kerberos

- Kerberos **assures the timeliness** of the protocol through two measures.
  - 1 First, the KDC specifies a lifetime  $T$  for the session key.
  - 2 Second, Alice uses a time stamp  $T_S$ , through which Bob can be assured that **Alice's messages are recent and are not the result of a replay attack.**
- The usage of the lifetime parameter  $T$  and the time stamp  $T_S$  prevent replay attacks by Oscar.



# Kerberos

- It provides **key confirmation** and **user authentication**.
- In the beginning, Alice sends a random nonce  $r_A$  to the KDC.
- This can be considered as a challenge because she challenges the KDC to encrypt it with their joint KEK  $k_A$ .
- If the returned challenge  $r'_A$  matches the sent one, Alice is assured that the message  $y_A$  was actually sent by the KDC.
- This method to authenticate users is known as **challenge-response protocol** and is widely used, e.g., **for authentication of smart cards**.





# Kerberos

- Through the inclusion of Bob's identity  $ID_B$  in  $y_A$ , Alice is assured that the session key is actually meant for a session between herself and Bob.
- With the inclusion of Alice's identity  $ID_A$  in both  $y_B$  and  $y_{AB}$ , Bob can verify that
  - 1 the KDC included a session key for a connection between him and Alice and
  - 2 that he is currently actually talking to Alice.



# Problems with Symmetric-Key Distribution

- **Communication requirements:**

- One problem in practice is that the KDC needs to be contacted if a new secure session is to be initiated between any two parties in the network.



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- Kerberos can run with tens of thousands of users but not for all Internet users.



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- Kerberos can run with tens of thousands of users but not for all Internet users.

- **Secure channel during initialization**

- **Single point of failure**

- The database that contains the key encryption keys, the KEKs.
- If the KDC becomes compromised

- **No perfect forward secrecy**



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# Advantages

- In key establishment, *perfect forward secrecy (PFS)* can be achieved using asymmetric encryption.
- It overcomes most of the drawbacks that we observed in symmetric key approaches.
- They can be used for both **key transport** and **key agreement**.
- For **key agreement**, we used **Diffie-Hellman, Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman** key exchange.
- For **key transport**, any of the public-key encryption schemes like **RSA or ElGamal**, can be used.



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**Drawback:** It requires **an authenticated channel** to distribute the public keys.



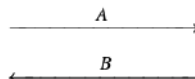
# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

**Alice**

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

**Bob**

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



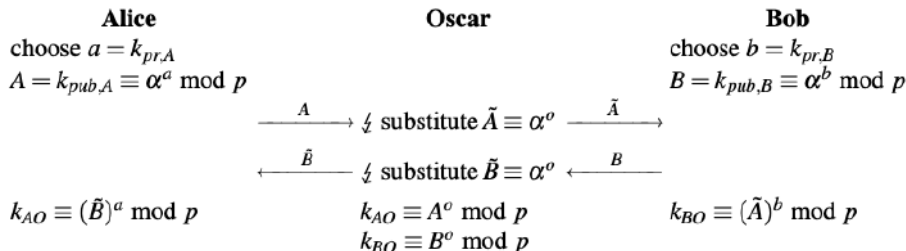
$$k_{AB} \equiv B^a \bmod p$$

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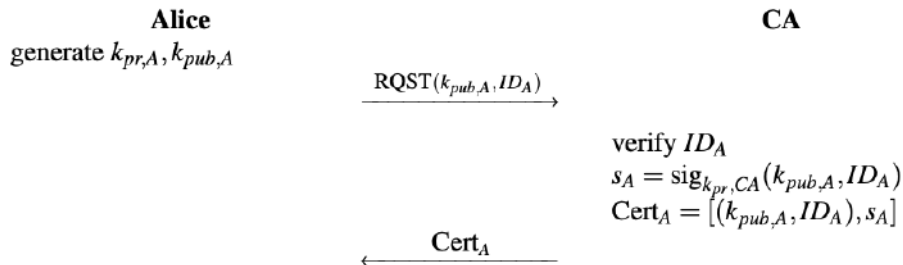




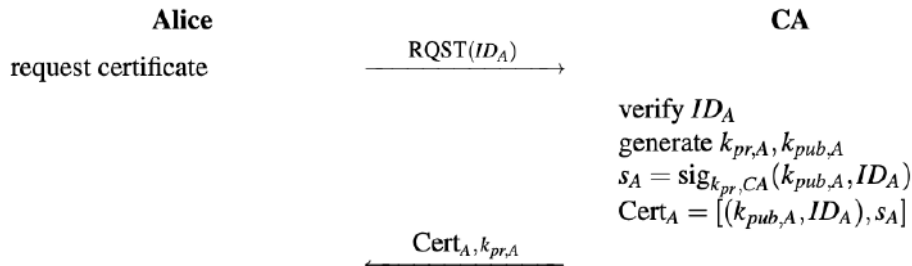
# MITM Against Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange



# Certificate Generation with User-Provided Keys



# Certificate Generation with CA-Generated Keys



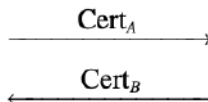
# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange with Certificates

**Alice**

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

$$A = k_{pub,A} \equiv \alpha^a \pmod{p}$$

$$\text{Cert}_A = [(A, ID_A), s_A]$$



verify certificate:

$$\text{ver}_{k_{pub,CA}}(\text{Cert}_B)$$

compute session key:

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

**Bob**

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

$$B = k_{pub,B} \equiv \alpha^b \pmod{p}$$

$$\text{Cert}_B = [(B, ID_B), s_B]$$

verify certificate:

$$\text{ver}_{k_{pub,CA}}(\text{Cert}_A)$$

compute session key:

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



# Licensed CAs



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*"Three may keep a secret,*





*"Three may keep a secret, if two of them are dead."*

– Benjamin Franklin



# Shamir's Secret Sharing Scheme

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## How to Share a Secret

Adi Shamir  
Massachusetts Institute of Technology

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**In this paper we show how to divide data  $D$  into  $n$  pieces in such a way that  $D$  is easily reconstructable from any  $k$  pieces, but even complete knowledge of  $k - 1$  pieces reveals absolutely no information about  $D$ . This technique enables the construction of robust key management schemes for cryptographic systems that can function securely and reliably even when misfortunes destroy half the pieces and security breaches expose all but one of the remaining pieces.**

**Key Words and Phrases:** cryptography, key management, interpolation



A. Shamir,,

*How to Share a Secret*, Communications of the ACM, 22: pages 612 - 613, 1979.



# A $(t, n)$ -Threshold Scheme

- A  $(t, n)$ -threshold scheme based on polynomial interpolation over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , where  $p$  is prime.
- $p \geq n + 1$  be a prime
- **Initialization phase:**
  - The TA selects  $n$  distinct elements  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  from  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$
  - The TA gives  $x_i$  to  $P_i \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$
  - The  $x_i$ 's are public information



# Share Generation for the Shamir's Scheme

- Given a secret  $K \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , the **share generation algorithm** is as follows:
  - The TA chooses  $a_1, \dots, a_{t-1}$  independently and uniformly at random from  $\mathbb{Z}_p$
  - The TA defines

$$a(x) = K + \sum_{j=1}^{t-1} a_j x^j$$

- The TA constructs the share

$$s_i = a(x_i) \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$$



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# The End

**Thanks a lot for your attention!**

