Applied Cryptography and Computer Security CSE 664 Spring 2017

Lecture 18: Key Distribution and Agreement

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- Secret-key encryption is much faster than public-key encryption
 - to have efficiency, we are to deal with distribution of the shared keys
- Recall that public-key cryptography can bootstrap communication with symmetric keys
 - suppose Alice knows Bob's public key pk_B

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- Alice chooses a session key s and sends Bob $E_{pk_B}(s)$
- Bob decrypts it and now they share the same key
- this simple solution can work in some cases, but has disadvantages

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- There are many possibilities for key distribution
 - assume that we have an insecure network of n users
 - there is also a trusted authority (TA)
 - the TA's responsibilities could include checking user identities, issuing certificates, transmitting keys, etc.
- We divide all approaches in 3 categories
 - key predistribution
 - a TA distributes keying information during the setup phase using a secure channel
 - a pair of users is then able to compute a key known only to them

- Types of key distribution (cont.)
 - session key distribution
 - on request, an online TA chooses a session keys and distributes it to two users
 - the TA communicates the new keys by encrypting them using previously distributed secret keys
 - session keys are used for a fixed, rather short period of time
 - key agreement (a.k.a. key establishment or key exchange)
 - network users employ an interactive protocol to construct a session key
 - no TA's help is used

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• can be based on secret-key or public-key schemes

- The difference between key distribution and key agreement:
 - in key distribution, one party (e.g., a TA) chooses a key and transmits it to one or more parties
 - key transmission is performed in an encrypted form
 - in key agreement, two or more parties jointly establish a secret key
 - communication is performed over a public channel
 - each participant contributes to the value of the resulting key
 - the key is not sent from one party to another

- In the network, users may have long-lived keys
 - they can be precomputed and stored securely
 - they could be secret keys known to a pair of users or to a user and the TA
 - they also could be private keys corresponding to public keys stored in users' certificates
- Pairs of users often employ short-lived session keys
 - a session key is used for a particular session and is discarded at the end of it
 - session keys are normally secret keys for a symmetric encryption scheme or MAC

- Since the network is insecure, we need to protect against attackers
 - the adversary might be one of the users in the network
- An active adversary can:
 - modify messages being transmitted on the network
 - save messages for later use
 - try to masquerade as another user in the network
- Adversary's goal might be:
 - fool someone into accepting an invalid key as valid
 - learn some information about the key being established
 - use another user's identity to establish a shared key with someone

- In real life applications, the adversary can have even more power
 - suppose that a session key has been exposed
 - we prefer to see no impact on the security of the long-lived key
 - suppose that an attacker gets ahold of your long-lived key
 - ideally this should not compromise the security of past session keys
 - this property is called perfect forward secrecy
- Often we also want parties to authenticate during the key agreement protocol
 - this is called authenticated key exchange

Diffie-Hellman Key Predistribution

- The following key predistribution scheme is a modification of the Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol
 - its security is based on the hardness of the Decision Diffie-Hellman (DDH) problem

• The setup

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- the public domain parameters consist of a group (G, \cdot) and an element $g \in G$ of some order q
- every user U in the network has a long-lived private key x_U ($0 < x_U \le q - 1$) and the corresponding public key $y_U = g^{x_U}$
- the users' public keys are certified (signed) by the TA to guarantee their authenticity

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Diffie-Hellman Key Predistribution

• Diffie-Hellman key predistribution

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- A and B would like to setup a joint key
- A computes the key $k_{A,B}$ using B's (signed) public key y_B and A's private key x_A :

$$k_{A,B} = y_B^{x_A} = g^{x_A x_B}$$

- likewise, B, using A's (signed) public key y_A and B's private key x_B , computes:

$$k_{A,B} = y_A^{x_B} = g^{x_A x_B}$$

• Each pair of users performs the same computation to obtain the key known only to them

Diffie-Hellman Key Predistribution

• Hardness assumptions

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- Computational DH: given g, g^a and g^b , it is hard to compute g^{ab}
- Decision DH: given g, g^a , g^b , and g^c , it is hard to decide whether $g^c = g^{ab}$
- Security of DH key predistribution
 - since there is no interaction, an active adversary cannot do much
 - if CDH problem is hard, recovery of any key $k_{U,V}$ is infeasible
 - if DDH problem is hard, the keys are indistinguishable from random



Session Key Distribution Schemes

- Assume that the TA has a shared key with each user on the network
 - k_A is the key shared with Alice, k_B is the key shared with Bob, etc.
- The TA chooses session keys and distributes them in encrypted form upon user requests
- How do we do this?
 - the simplest solution is for Alice to send a session key request for users A, B
 - the TA chooses a key k at random and sends $E_{k_A}(k||B)$ to Alice and $E_{k_B}(k||A)$ to Bob
 - each of them decrypt and start communicating using k
 - is this enough?

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Session Key Distribution Schemes

- Needham-Schroeder SKDS was designed in 1978
 - uses fresh nonces, but stil doesn't provide adequate security
- Denning and Sacco discovered an attack on Needham-Schroeder SKDS
 - it is called known session key attack because it assumes the attacker obtains one of the past session keys k
- Kerberos is a series of related SKDSs developed at MIT in the 80-90s
 - it additionally uses validity period in security tokens

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- this limits the time period during which a Denning-Sacco type of attack can be carried out
- Neither solution has a security proof and both have security weaknesses

- Bellare and Rogaway proposed an SKDS in 1995 that has a proof of security
 - it has a different flow structure than the earlier schemes
- Bellare-Rogaway SKDS

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- Alice chooses random r_A and sends A, B, and r_A to Bob
- Bob chooses random r_B and sends A, B, r_A , and r_B to the TA
- the TA chooses a random session key k and computes $y_B = (E_{k_B}(k), MAC_B(A||B||r_B||E_{k_B}(k)))$ and $y_A = (E_{k_A}(k), MAC_A(B||A||r_A||E_{k_A}(k)))$
- the TA sends y_B to Bob and y_A to Alice

- Alice and Bob need to verify that the messages have a correct form, the MAC is valid, and the proper values r_A and r_B were used
- No explicit key confirmation is provided
 - if Alice accepts, she believes that she has received a new session key from the TA
 - she doesn't know if Bob received everything as well, but she is confident that noone other than Bob can compute the session key
- We arrive at (informal) definition of a secure session key distribution scheme
 - if a protocol participant "accepts," then the probability that someone other than the intended peer knows the session key is negligible

- To show security, we make certain assumptions
 - Alice and Bob are honest
 - r_A , r_B , and k are chosen perfectly at random
 - the encryption scheme and MAC are secure
 - secret keys are known only to their intended owners
- Possibilities for an adversary
 - Mallory is a passive adversary
 - Mallory is an active adversary
 - she may impersonate Alice, Bob, or the TA; intercept and modify messages

- If Mallory is passive, Alice and Bob compute the same key and accept
 - Mallory cannot compute the key because encryption is secure
- Now assume that Alice is a legitimate user and Mallory is active
 - Alice doesn't know if she is really communicating with Bob or the TA
 - when Alice receives y_A , she checks that the MAC contains her r_A , the identities are A and B
 - this convinces her that the response is fresh and came from the TA
 - using r_A prevents replay attacks
 - also, including $E_{k_A}(k)$ under the MAC prevents its replacement by the attacker
- Similar reasoning applies to Bob's side

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Key Distribution and Agreement

- Recall that setting up a shared key between two users can be done by
 - predistributing keys to them
 - using a session key distribution scheme
 - engaging them in a key agreement protocol
- We next cover key agreement (or key exchange) schemes
 - a key exchange is an interactive protocol between two users without active participation of a TA
 - this is achieves by means of public-key cryptography

- The best-known key exchange protocol is due to Diffie and Hellman
 - recall that Alice and Bob want to establish a shared key
 - the common parameters are (G, q, g)
 - Alice chooses a random number a from \mathbb{Z}_q , computes g^a , and sends g^a to Bob
 - Bob chooses a random number b from \mathbb{Z}_q , computes g^b , and sends g^b to Alice
 - Alice computes the shared key as $(g^b)^a = g^{ab}$
 - Bob computes the shared key as $(g^a)^b = g^{ab}$

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• Diffie-Hellman key exchange

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- Alice and Bob compute the same key, but it is computationally difficult for someone else to compute their key
- the security property holds only against a passive attacker
- the protocol has a serious weakness in the presence of an active adversary
 - this is called a man-in-the-middle attack
 - Mallory will intercept messages between Alice and Bob and substitute her own
 - Alice establishes a shared key with Mallory and Bob also establishes a shared key with Mallory

• Man-in-the-middle attack on Diffie-Hellman key exchange



- Alice shares the key $g^{ab'}$ with Mallory
- Bob shares the key $g^{a'b}$ with Mallory
- Alice and Bob do not share any key
- what is Mallory capable of doing?

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- Alice and Bob need to make sure they are exchanging messages with each other
 - there is a need for authentication
 - preceding this protocol with an authentication scheme is not guaranteed to solve the problem
 - after they authenticate, the same attack can be carried out
- We need a protocol that authenticates the participants at the same time the key is being established
 - such a protocol is called an authenticated key agreement scheme
 - it should simultaneously guarantee secure mutual authentication and secure key computation

• Authenticated Diffie-Hellman key exchange

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- each user U has a private signing key sk_U and the corresponding public verification key pk_U
- there is a trusted authority TA that signs keys
- user U holds a certificate cert(U) issued by the TA

$$cert(U) = (U, pk_U, \sigma_{TA}(U, pk_U))$$

- the protocol is also known as station-to-station key agreement
- it combines the key exchange with a mutual authentication scheme

- Authenticated Diffie-Hellman key exchange (simplified)
 - public parameters are as before (G, q, g)
 - Alice chooses random a, computes $x_A = g^a$, and sends cert(A) and x_A to Bob
 - Bob chooses random *b*, computes

 $x_B = g^b, \ k = (x_A)^b = g^{ab}$, and $y_B = \sigma_B(A||x_B||x_A)$ and sends cert(B), x_B , and y_B to Alice

- Alice verifies y_B ; if the signature is valid, she computes

$$k = (x_B)^a = g^{ab}$$
 and $y_A = \sigma_A(B||x_A||x_B)$

and sends y_A to Bob

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- Bob verifies y_A ; if the signature is valid, he accepts

- Security of authenticated Diffie-Hellman
 - the man-in-the-middle attack on DH key exchange no longer works
 - what happens now is:

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Mallory cannot forge Alice's and Bob's signature, so she cannot be successful

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- Security of authenticated Diffie-Hellman
 - this protocol is a secure mutual identification scheme
 - this can be proven using the security definitions for mutual authentication
 - if an adversary is active, this will be detected by the participants
 - if the adversary is passive, both parties will accept with the same key
 - the adversary cannot compute any information about the key assuming that the DDH problem is hard

- Let's look at the level of assurance Alice and Bob receive
 - Alice accepts after sending g^a and receiving $\sigma_B(A||g^b||g^a)$ back
 - Alice is confident that she is really communicating with Bob
 - if Bob followed the instructions, he will be able to compute the key
 - Alice is confident that Bob can compute g^{ab} because g^a and g^b were in Bob's signature
 - Bob accepts after sending $\sigma_B(A||g^b||g^a)$ to Alice and receiving $\sigma_A(B||g^a||g^b)$ back
 - the analysis is similar for Bob, except that he knows that Alice already accepted
 - when Alice accepts, she doesn't know whether Bob will accept

- We can define different levels of assurance that Alice (or Bob) obtain during a key exchange protocol
 - implicit key authentication is provided if A is assured that noone other than B can compute the key
 - implicit key confirmation is provided if A is assured that B can compute the key and noone else can
 - explicit key confirmation is provided if A is assured that B computed the key and noone else can compute it
- Authenticated Diffie-Hellman provides implicit key confirmation to both parties
- Kerberos and Needham-Schroeder provide explicit key confirmation

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- We might want to consider possible influence that different sessions can have on each other in real life usage
- We'll next look at security under a known session key attack
 - Mallory observes several sessions with different users (which can involve Mallory as well) of her choice
 - Mallory is able to compromise session keys associated with some of the observed sessions of her choice
 - Mallory is then asked to recover the key for a challenge session

- Consider the authenticated Diffie-Hellman protocol
 - Mallory observes values g^a and g^b (and signatures)
 - Mallory is also allowed to ask for $k = g^{ab}$
 - we allow Mallory to ask for a key even if she cheats in a protocol
 - suppose Mallory is engaging in a key exchange with Bob
 - Mallory picks a random h sends it to Bob (i.e., $h = g^x$ s.t. Mallory doesn't know x)
 - Bob sends g^b back (and they send signatures)

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• Mallory is still allowed to ask for the key $k = h^b$

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- Known session key attack on authenticated Diffie-Hellman
 - this key exchange protocol is secure against the known session key attack
 - intuition:

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- the values g^a , g^b are chosen anew for each session
- they are not related to previous sessions or the long-term keys of the participants
- it is computationally infeasible, given g^a and g^b , to compute any information about g^{ab}

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- Perfect forward secrecy
 - this property means that compromise of long-term key does not compromise past session keys
 - suppose Mallory records sessions between Alice and Bob and somehow gets ahold of Alice's secret signing key
 - this property requires that Mallory cannot recover session keys for Alice's expired session
 - an expired session is a session for which Alice erased all information used to generate the session key k
 - what is this information in authenticated Diffie-Hellman?

- Perfect forward secrecy (cont.)
 - where do we stand with respect to authenticated Diffie-Hellman key exchange?
 - in authenticated Diffie-Hellman protocol, session keys are independent of long-term keys
 - it achieves perfect forward secrecy
- We arrive at the following conclusion:

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- authenticated Diffie-Hellman key agreement scheme is an authenticated key agreement scheme secure against known session key attacks and achieving perfect forward secrecy
- now this is the standard security requirement for key exchange protocols

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- There are different versions of authenticated DH key exchange
- We'll study **SIGMA** next
 - SIGMA is signature-based authenticated key exchange
 - it stands for SIGn-and-MAc
 - it has been formally analyzed and proven secure
 - it has been standardized as the main protocol in Internet Key Exchange (IKE) version 1 and 2 (RFCs 2409 and 4306, respectively)
- As before, assume that Alice and Bob want to agree on a session key
- Each of them hold a private signing and a public verification key

SIGMA Key Exchange

• SIGMA key exchange

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- here
$$K_m = h(g^{ab})$$
 is a hash of g^{ab}

- the sender includes 0 in the MAC, and the responder includes 1
- the purpose of the MAC is to prevent the identity misbinding attack
- also notice that the identity of the peer is never signed

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SIGMA Key Exchange

• There is a 3-message variant of the protocol

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- the 4-message SIGMA is called SIGMA-R and the 3-message variant is called SIGMA-I
- SIGMA-I can be obtained by reverting the order of the 3rd and 4th messages

Alice g^a Bob $g^b, B, \sigma_B(g^a, g^b), \mathsf{MAC}_{K_m}(1||B)$ $A, \sigma_A(g^b, g^a), \mathsf{MAC}_{K_m}(0||A)$

- this has advantage of identity protection if the last two messages are encrypted
 - g^a and g^b are then used to compute such an encryption key

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- Another rather new standardized key exchange protocol is **SKEME**
 - it is based on public-key encryption instead of signatures
 - it also uses MAC
 - it was introduced because of its deniability property
- **Deniability** provides a way to deny participation in a key exchange (and the consecutive encrypted conversation)
 - authenticated Diffie-Hellman is not deniable
 - SIGMA provides limited deniability
 - SKEME is fully deniable

- All protocols so far relied on the use of public keys and certificates
- What happens if there is no public-key infrastructure and instead two users share a password?
 - a password can often be shared between a user and a server
 - the password is likely to be too short to be used as a good cryptographic key
- How can we establish a session key then?
 - one suggestion is to encrypt the session key with the password
 - i.e., Alice chooses a new key k and sends $\mathsf{Enc}_{pwd}(k)$ to Bob
 - Bob decrypts and they start sending messages encrypted with \boldsymbol{k}

- Password-based key establishment
 - unfortunately, since the password is short, Mallory can try all possibilities
 - Mallory saves $x = Enc_{pwd}(k)$ and $y = Enc_k(m)$
 - she computes $k' = Dec_{pwd}(x)$ and $m' = Dec_{k'}(y)$ for each possible password pwd
 - since m normally contains redundancy, Mallory will be able to tell when a match is found
 - Mallory now can impersonate the user or read all communication
- It is still possible to securely encrypt data during the key agreement
 - such schemes are called Encrypted Key Exchange (EKE)

- We'll look at the simplified Bellovin-Merritt protocol obtained from DH key exchange
- Bellovin-Merritt EKE2

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- public parameters consist of a group G and element $g \in G$
- Alice and Bob share a secret password pwd
- Alice picks a and Bob picks b, and the session key is $k = g^{ab}$
- the difference from previous solutions is that values g^a and g^b are encrypted using the password during the transmission

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Bellovin-Merritt EKE

• Bellovin-Merritt EKE2

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Alice
choose aBob
A, $Enc_{pwd}(g^a)$ Bob
choose bB, $Enc_{pwd}(g^b)$

- each of them decrypt the messages received and compute the shared key $k=g^{ab}$
- authentication is not used, but encryption prevents an adversary from carrying out a successful attack
 - Alice knows that knowledge of g^a is required to construct the key
 - the only person who knows the decryption key is Bob

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Bellovin-Merritt EKE

• Bellovin-Merritt EKE2

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- the above analysis assumes that the password is not known to other parties
- it is also assumed that an adversary cannot compute any information about the password
- consider the previous brute force search attack
 - before attacker could test all possible passwords because he would know when a match occurred
 - now the password is used to encrypt g^a and g^b , while a different value g^{ab} is used for encryption of messages themselves
- even if the value of a past session key is known to the attacker, the password remains secure

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Summary

- There are many key exchange protocols, many of which are based off of the Diffie-Hellman key exchange
- The properties that are essential
 - secure mutual authentication
 - secure key computation
 - resilience to known session key attack
 - perfect forward secrecy

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• Deniability can be important as well