Key Agreement Schemes

CSG 252 Lecture 9

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Key Establishment Problem

PK cryptosystems have advantages over SK cryptosystems

- PKCs do not need a secure channel to establish secret keys
- However, PKCs generally less efficient than SKCs
- So you often want SKCs anyways

The problem: n agents on an insecure network

 Want to establish keys between pairs of agents to communicate securely

Distribution vs Agreement

Last time: Secret Key Distribution Scheme (SKDS):

- Assume a Trusted Authority (TA) a server
- TA chooses a secret key for communicating, and transmits it to parties that wants to communicate

Key Agreement Scheme (KAS):

- Two or more parties want to establish a secret key on their own
- Uses public key cryptography

Main Goal of Key Agreement

At the end of an exchange:

- Two parties share a key K
- The value of K is not known to any other party
 - Secrecy

Sometimes want more: mutual identification (chap. 9)

- No honest participant in a session of the scheme will accept after any interaction in which an adversary is active
- Also called mutual authentication

Attacker Models

May or may not be a user in the system

insider vs outsider attacker

May be passive or active

- Alter messages in transit (including intercepting)
- Save messages for later reuse
- Attempt to masquerade as other users

Possible Attacker Objectives

Passive objectives:

 Determine some (partial) information about key exchanged by users

Active objectives:

- Fool U and V into accepting an "invalid" key
 - E.g. an old expired key, or a key known to adv
- Make U and V believe they have exchanged a key with each other when that is not the case

Extended Attacker Models

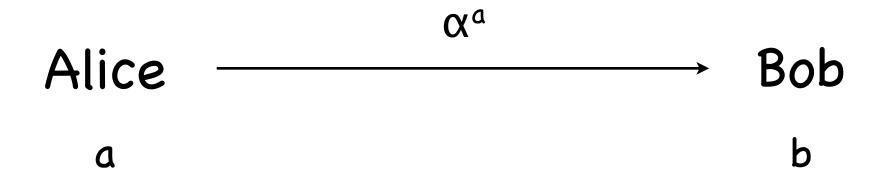
Known session key attack:

• Attacker learns session keys, want other session keys (as well as private keys) to remain secret

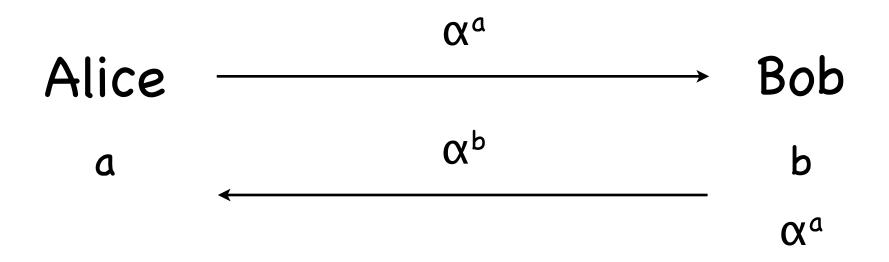
Known private key attack:

- Attacker learns private key of a participant, want previous session keys to remain secret
- Perfect forward secrecy
 - This is not a property of a cryptosystem, but of how a cryptosystem is used!

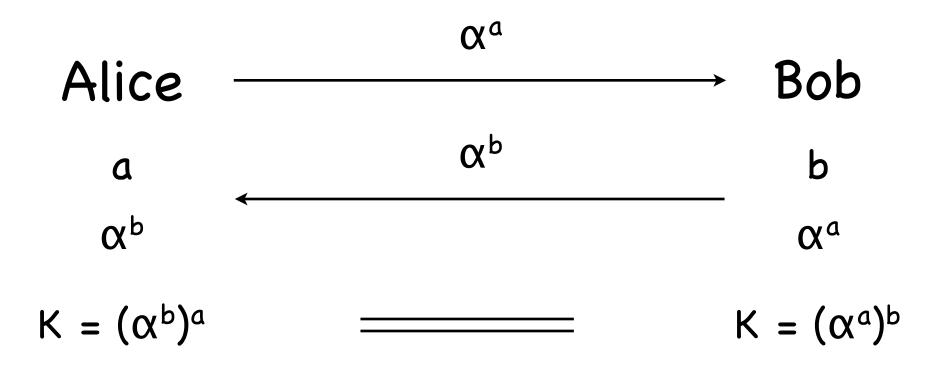
Diffie-Hellman Scheme



Diffie-Hellman Scheme



Diffie-Hellman Scheme



Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem

For the previous scheme to be secure, need for the group G and α to be such that:

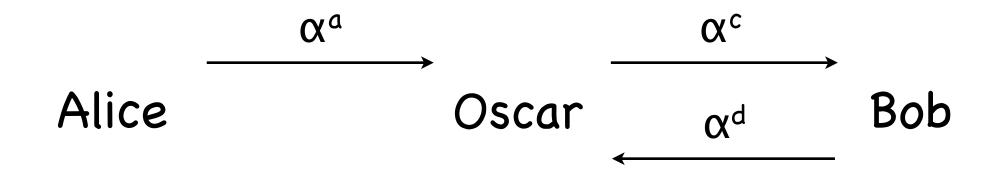
• Given α^a and α^b , it is hard to find α^{ab}

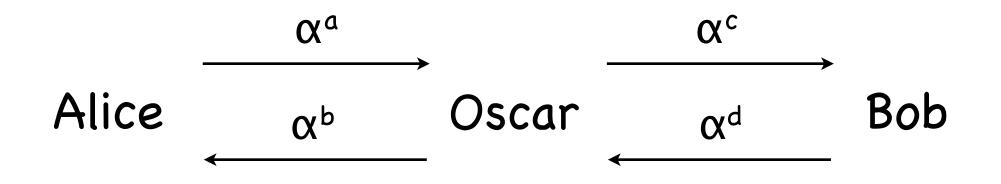
Can show (6.7.3) that if you can solve the CDH problem, then you can solve the discrete log problem in G

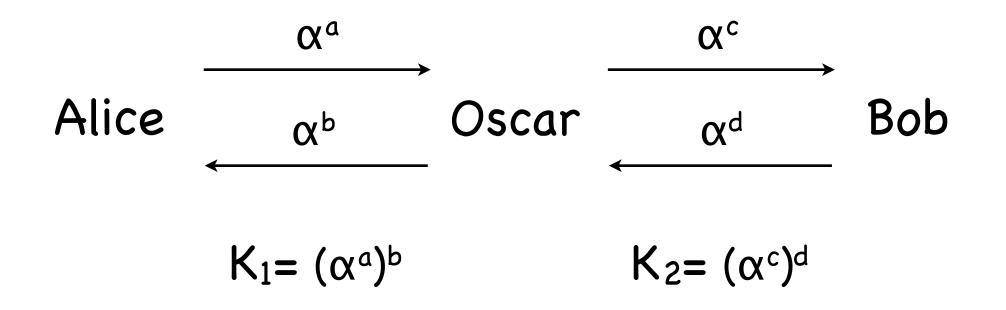












Authenticated DHS

Various ways to authenticate DH Scheme:

- Use signatures
- Use ElGamal-style public keys
- Use passwords

None of these approaches are perfect

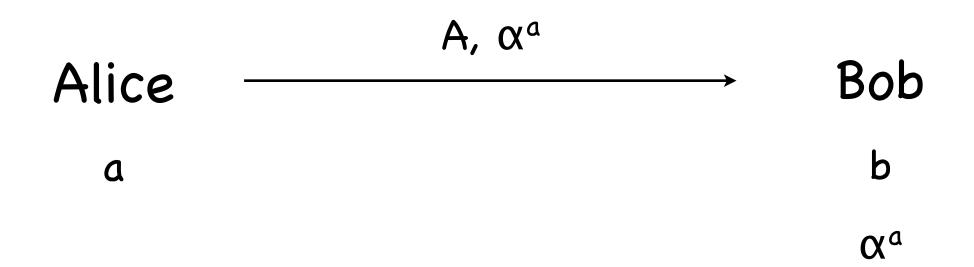
Bob

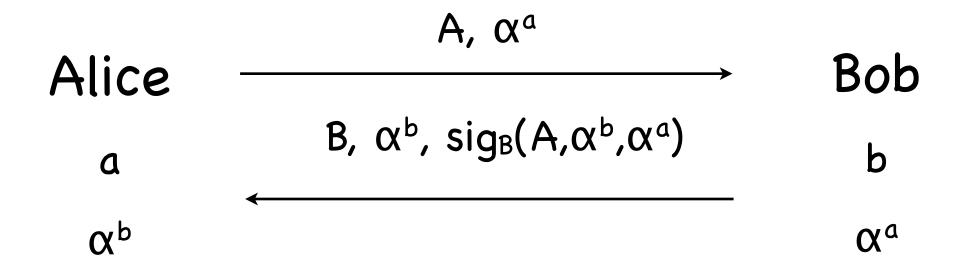
b

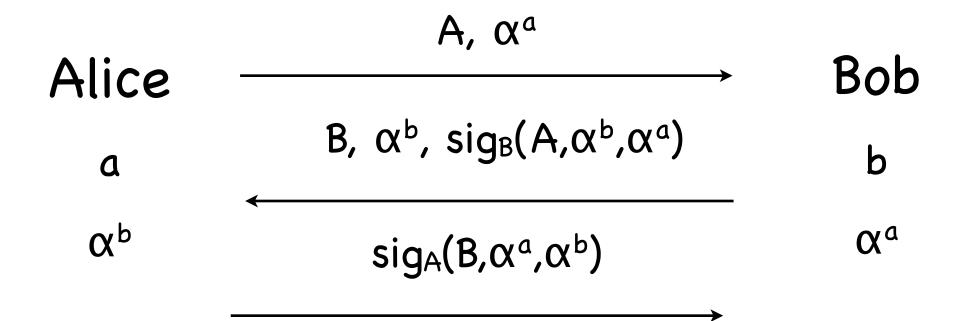
G a group and $\alpha{\in}G$ of order n

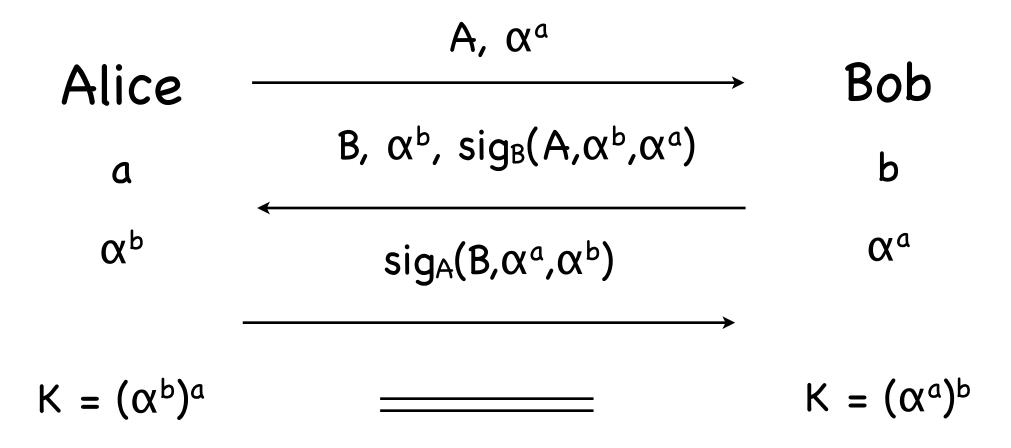


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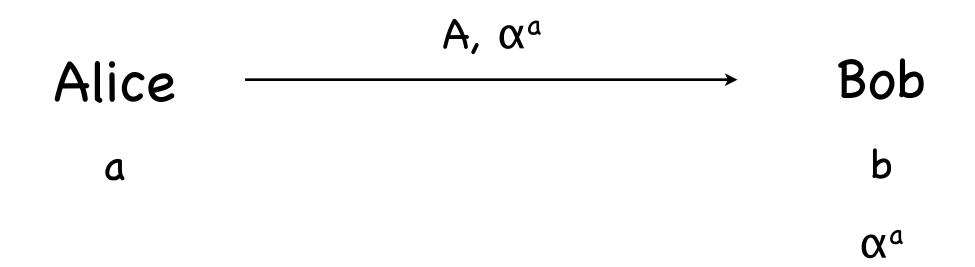
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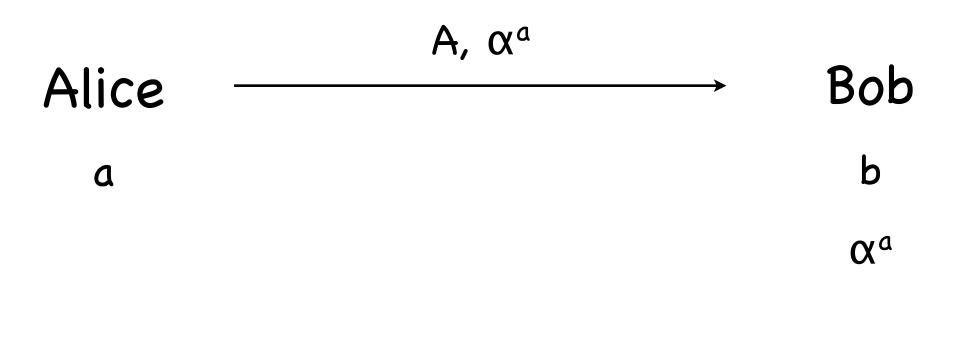
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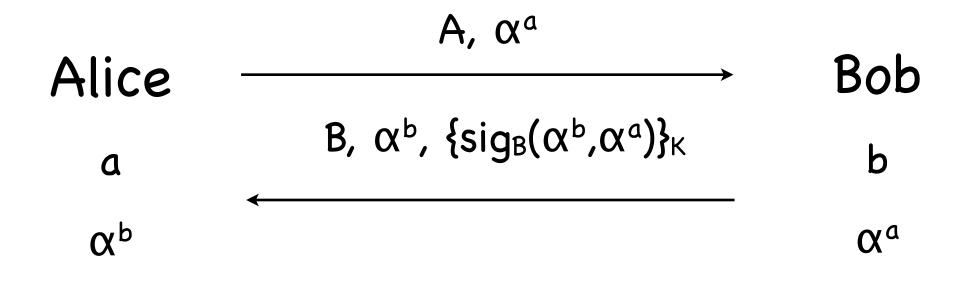
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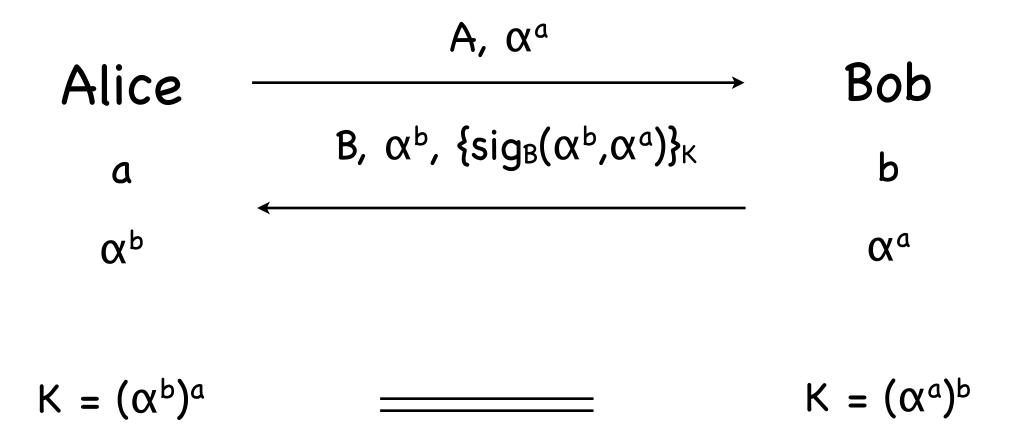
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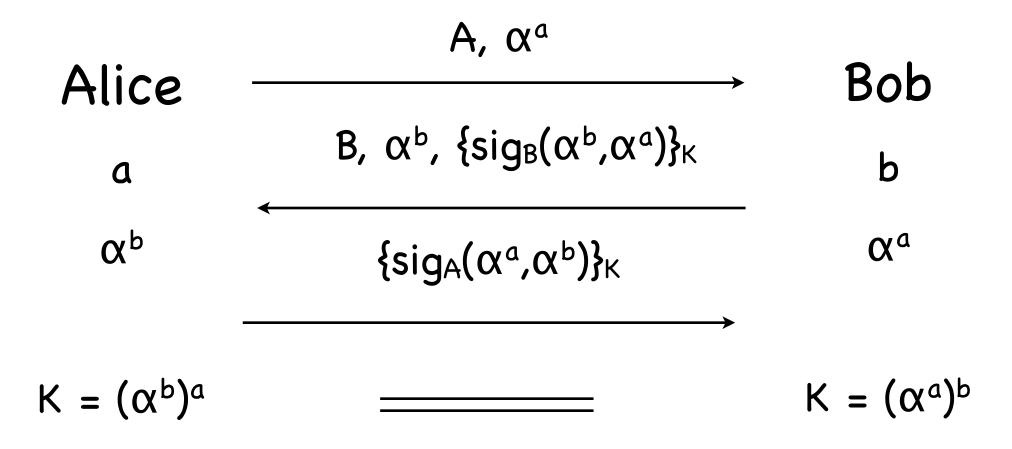


 $K = (\alpha^a)^b$



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G a group and $\alpha \in G$ of order n

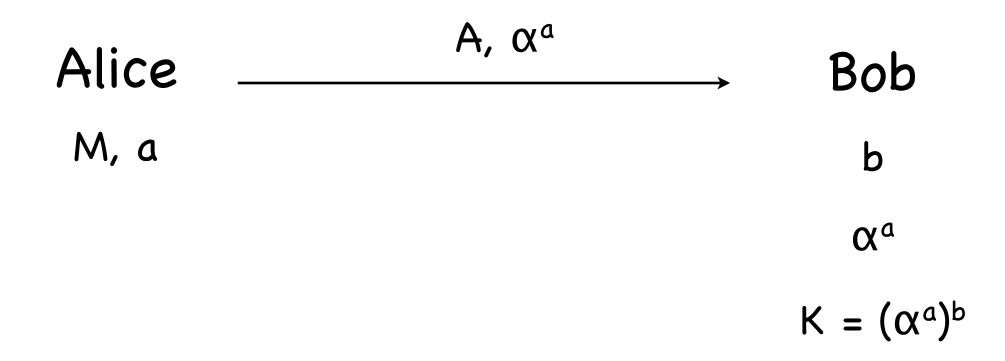
Let M be Alice's private key, α^{M} her public key

Alice M, a

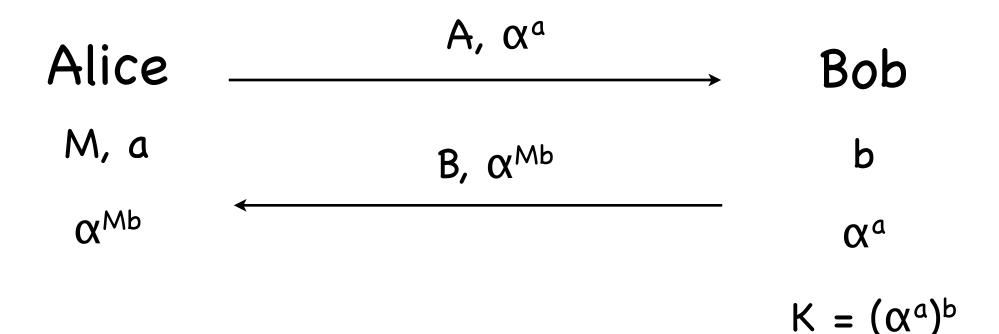
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b

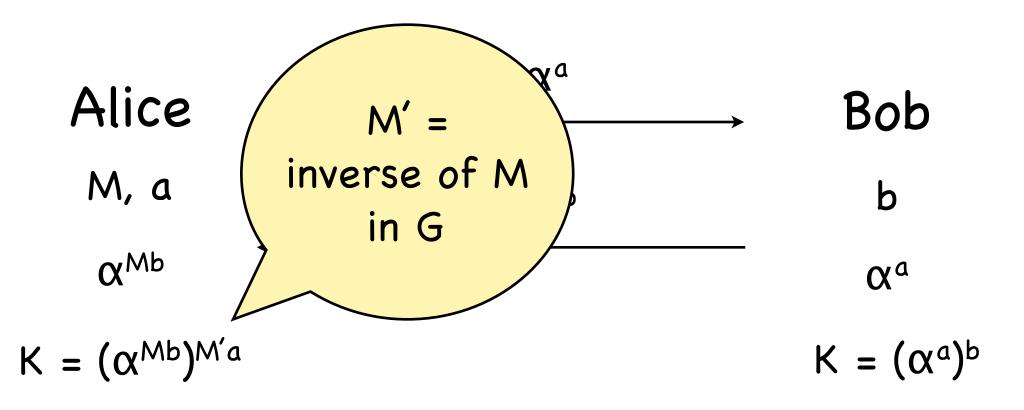
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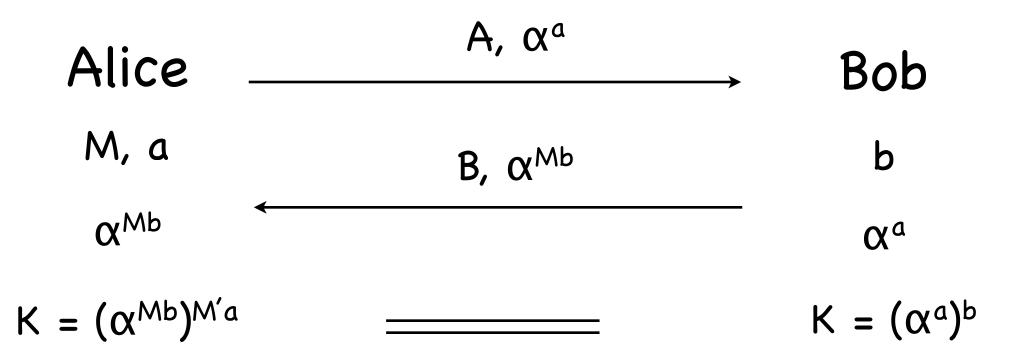
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Using ElGamal public keys: MTI Scheme

Matsumoto, Takashima, Imai (1986)

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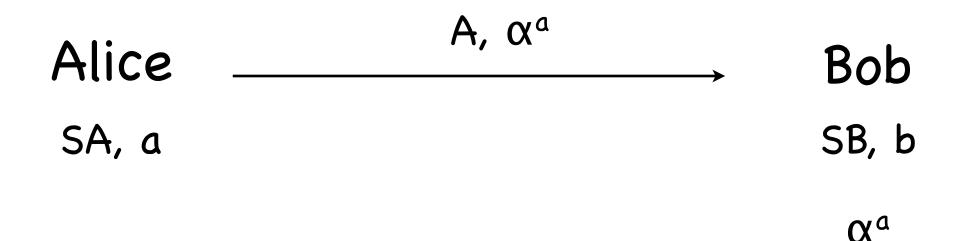
Alice SA, a

Bob SB, b

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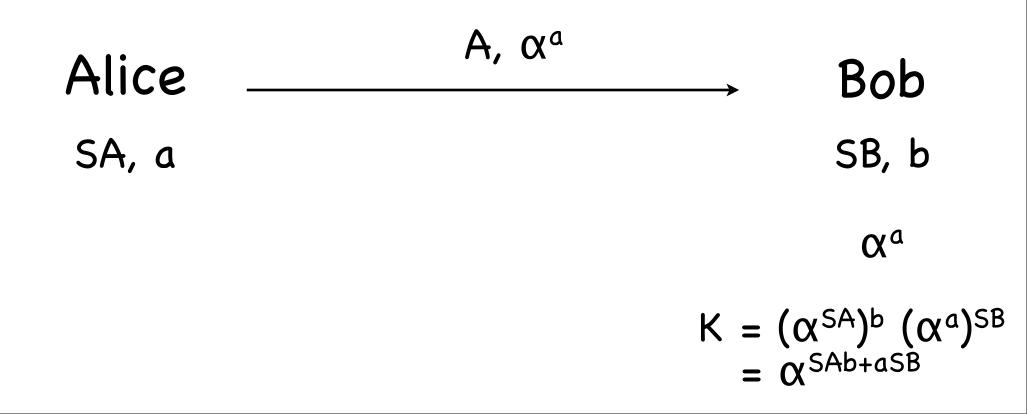
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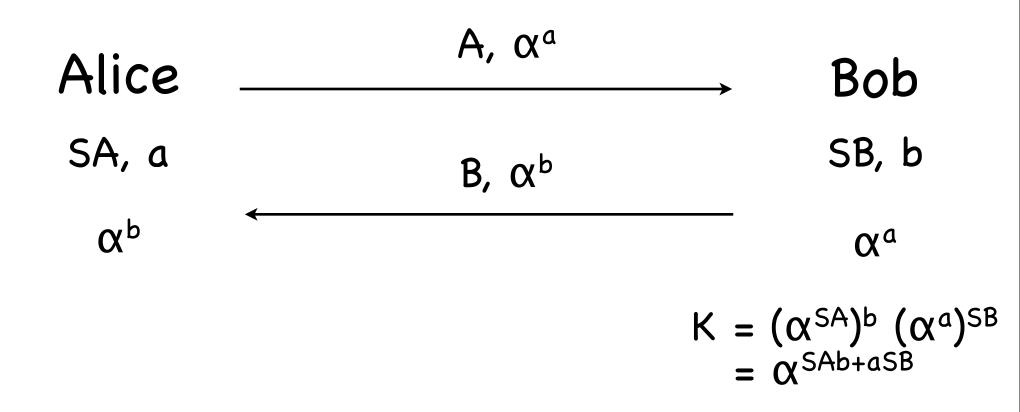
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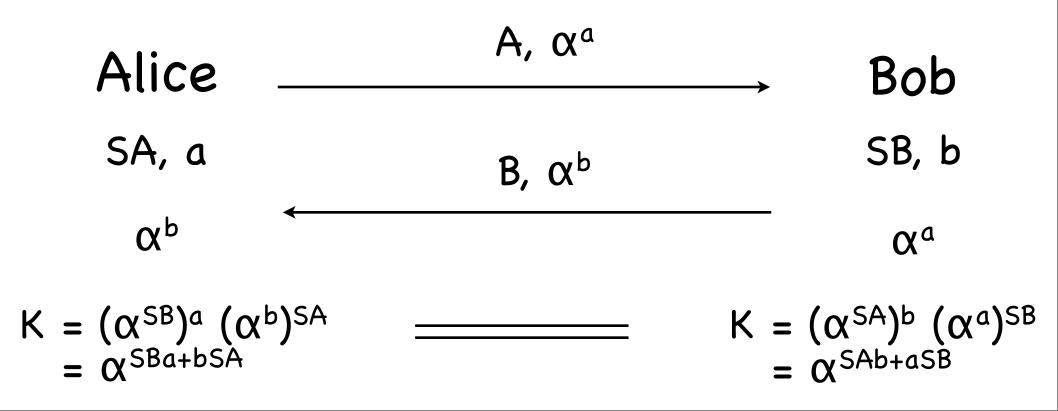
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Variants

There are **many** variants of these schemes

- Using a keyed hash (a MAC) instead of encryption in STS(2)
- MQV protocol MTI with more complex key computation
- IKE a component of IPSec

Each solves or addresses different issues, or make different tradeoff choices

Jablon (1996)

Suppose Alice and Bob share a password **p** (not a key)

Alice

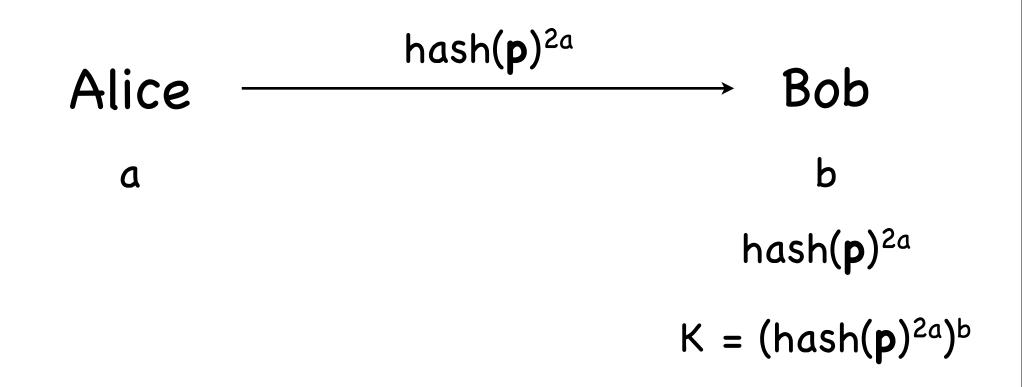
Bob

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b

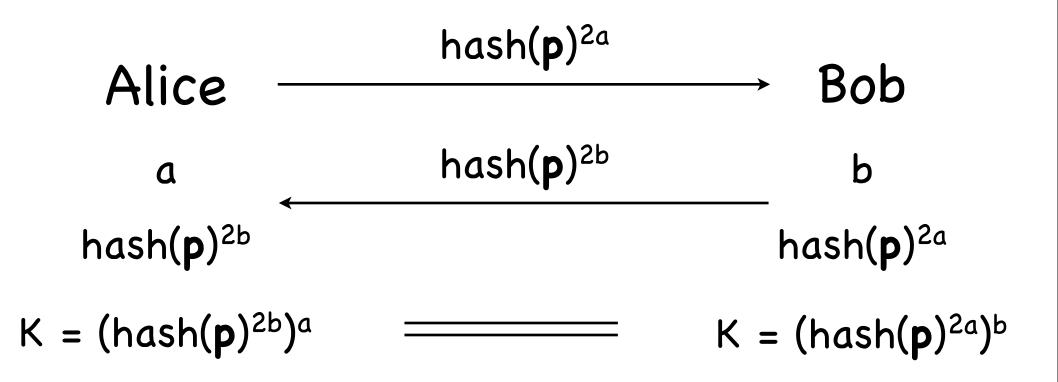
Jablon (1996)

Suppose Alice and Bob share a password **p** (not a key)



Jablon (1996)

Suppose Alice and Bob share a password **p** (not a key)



Jahlon (1996)

Main worry: dictionary attacks Su (brute force attacks against the password) Need to make sure that the opponent cannot mount offline dictionary attacks, and cannot use parties as quess validators nasi $K = (hash(\mathbf{p})^{2a})^{b}$

 $K = (hash(p)^{2b})^{a}$

PKI and Certificates

The main problem with the previous protocols:

- requiring a priori knowledge (public keys, password)
- A solution:
 - send the public key as part of the protocol
 - how do you know the key is the "right" key?

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X.509 standard

Certificate, signed by a Certification.

 $Cert_{CA}(U,pk_{U}) = (U, pk_{U}, sig_{CA}(U,pk_{U}))$

Bob

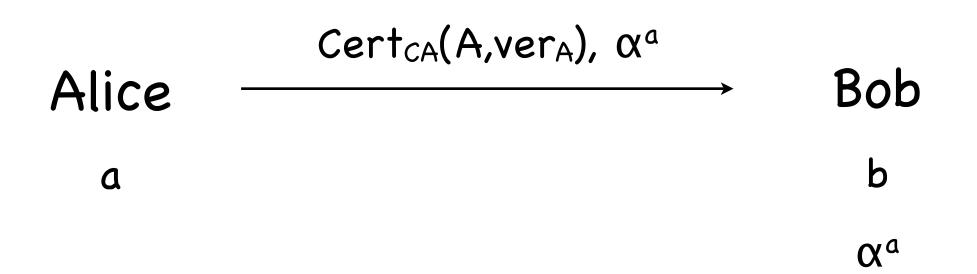
b

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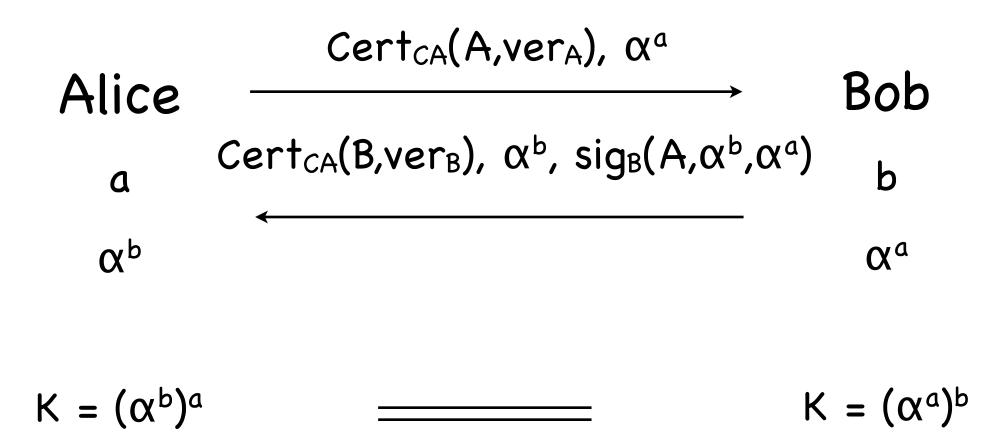
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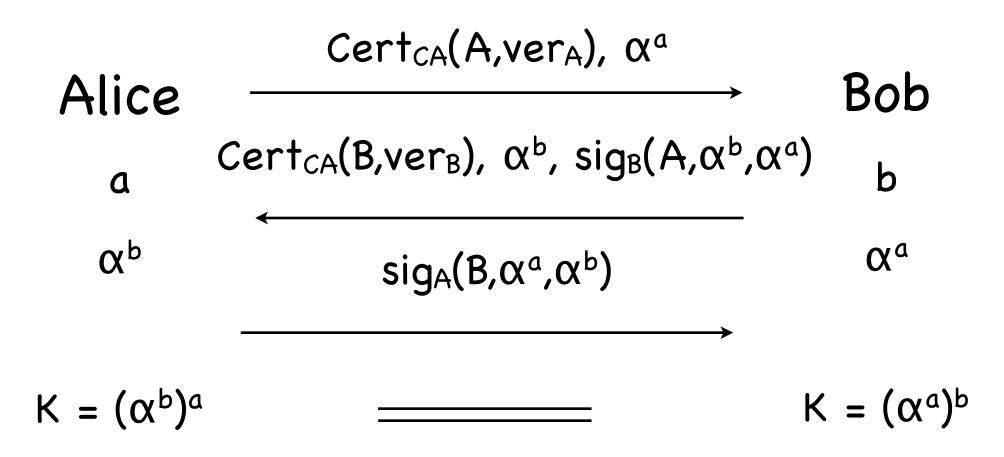


$$\mathsf{K} = (\alpha^a)^b$$

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Certificates: Problem 1

Certificate Revocation

- When a secret key is compromised, we should revoke the certificate
- Expiration/TTL is not enough all expired certificates are invalid, but not all invalid certificates are expired

Use Certificate Revocation Lists (CRL)

- Need to be checked at every certificate validation
- Potential for denial-of-service attacks
- Somewhat defeats the purpose of PK

No comprehensive solution

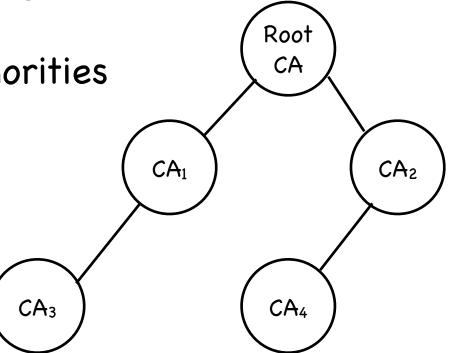
Certificates: Problem 2

Compromised Certification Authorities

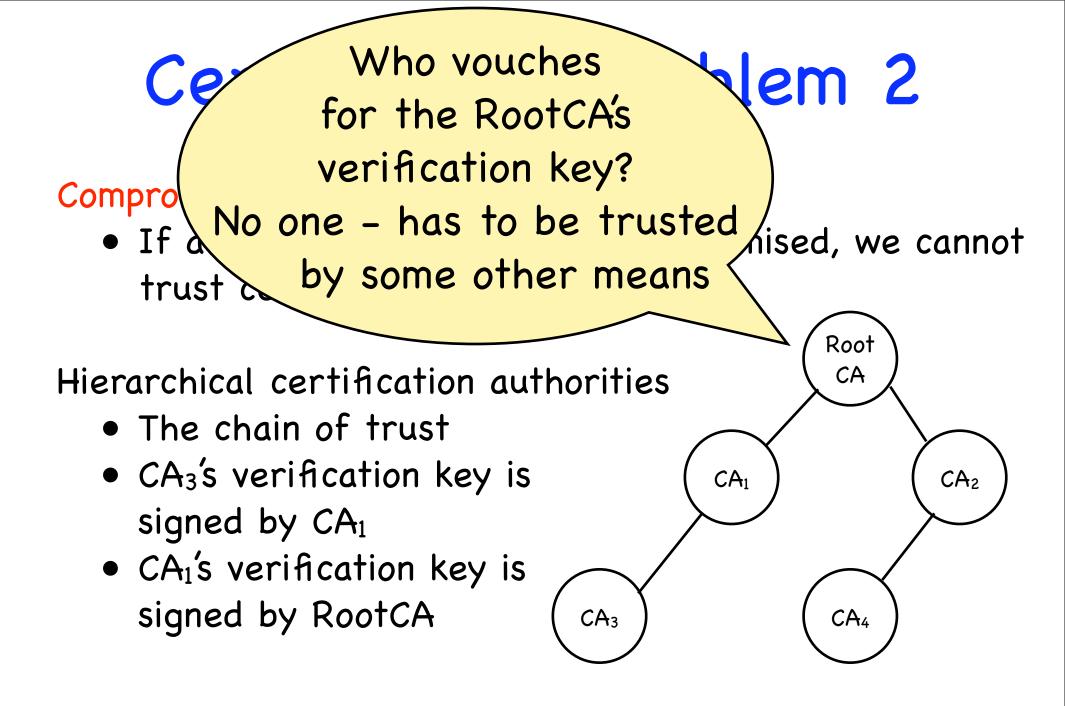
• If a certificate authority is compromised, we cannot trust certificates it has signed

Hierarchical certification authorities

- The chain of trust
- CA₃'s verification key is signed by CA₁
- CA₁'s verification key is signed by RootCA



• BUT: Need to send all certificates in a chain



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