Cryptography 101: From Theory to Practice

Chapter 16 – Key Management

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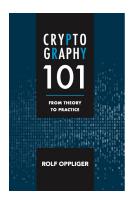
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Reference Book



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Challenge Me



Part IV CONCLUSIONS

Outline

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16.1 Introduction

- According to RFC 4949, the term **key management** refers to "the process of handling and controlling cryptographic keys and related material (such as initialization values) during their life cycle in a cryptographic system, including ordering, generating, distributing, storing, loading, escrowing, archiving, auditing, and destroying the material"
- This process is complex and represents the Achilles' heel of all systems that employ cryptography (e.g., cryptocurrencies)
- Key generation, distribution, storage, and destruction are particularly challenging

16.1 Introduction — Key generation

- Unless one is in the realm of unkeyed cryptosystems, the use of a cryptographic system always requires some keying material that needs to be generated in some way
- This requires the use of a random generator
- Either the random generator is used directly or it is used indirectly (e.g., to seed a PRG or a KDF)
- It is important to know and understand the realizations and implementations of random generators and PRGs
- The use of some ratcheting mechanisms may be needed

16.1 Introduction — Key distribution

- If cryptographic keys are not generated where needed, they must be distributed in a secure way way
- It must be ensured that they are protected against passive and active attacks
- Some key establishment protocols are outlined in Chapter 12
- Many other protocols have been developed, proposed, implemented, and partly deployed in the field (including some home-grown and ad-hoc designs)

16.1 Introduction — Key storage

- During its entire lifetime, a cryptographic key must be stored in a secure way
- This is particularly challenging for keys in actual use
- There are hardware-based or -supported solutions
 - Smartcards
 - Hardware security modules (HSMs)
 - Trusted platform modules (TPMs)
 - Trusted execution evironments (TEEs) and secure enclaves
 -
- Without hardware support, protecting a key that resides in memory is difficult and depends on the operating system

16.1 Introduction — Key storage

- Stratgies to extract a key from memory
 - Try out all possible byte sequences (e.g., a 4GB memory has $4 \cdot 10^9 \approx 2^{48}$ possibilities)
 - Ignoring nonrandom-looking regions in memory
 - Exploiting the key schedule of the cipher in use
 - Exploiting the way the application stores keys (e.g., constant bit patterns as prefixes)
 -
- If there is no single place to securely store a key, then one may consider the use of secret splitting or sharing (see below)

16.1 Introduction — Key destruction

- At the end of its life cycle, a cryptographic key may be archived and must be destroyed
- This is technically challenging (for all data stored electronically)
- The feasibility of recovering electronically stored data was demonstrated by the cold boot attack (and many follow-up attacks)
- Note that there may be (several) temporary copies of the key held in memory (shadow copies)

16.2 Secret Sharing

- In some situations it may be useful to split a secret into multiple parts and have different parties manage them
- How to have *n* parties share a secret *s*
 - Randomly choose n-1 values s_1, \ldots, s_{n-1}
 - Compute $s_n = s \oplus s_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus s_{n-1}$
 - Distribute s_1, \ldots, s_n to the *n* parties
- $lue{S}$ can be recovered iff all n parties contribute their parts
- Such a secret splitting system requires all parties to be available and behave honestly

16.2 Secret Sharing

- In 1979, Adi Shamir and George Blakley independently came up with the idea of secret sharing
- In a secret sharing system, it is not required that all parties are available and behave honestly
- Instead, the reconstruction of s requires only the parts of a well-defined subset of all parts (shares)
- Such a system allows a dealer to share s among a set P of n players, i.e., $P = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$, such that only a qualified subset of P can reconstruct s from their shares

16.2 Secret Sharing

Definition 16.1 (K-out-of-n secret sharing system)

A secret sharing system in which the access structure is

$$\Gamma = \{ M \subseteq 2^P : |M| \ge k \}$$

A k-out-of-n secret sharing system is **perfect** if k-1 players who collaborate (i.e., pool their shares) are not able to recover s or retrieve any useful information about s

16.2 Secret Sharing — Shamir's System

- Shamir's system is perfect and based on polynomial interpolation
- It employs the fact that that a polynomial f(x) of degree k-1 (over a field) can be uniquely interpolated from k points
- This means that a polynomial of degree 1 can be interpolated from 2 points, a polynomial of degree 2 can be interpolated from 3 points, and so on
- The respective interpolation algorithm is due to Lagrange

16.2 Secret Sharing — Shamir's System

Let

$$f(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + \ldots + r_{k-1} x^{k-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} r_i x^i$$
 (1)

be a polynomial of degree k-1 that passes through

$$(x_1, f(x_1) = y_1)$$

 $(x_2, f(x_2) = y_2)$
...
 $(x_k, f(x_k) = y_k)$

16.2 Secret Sharing — Shamir's System

■ Lagrange's interpolating polynomial P(x) is then given by

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} P_i(x)$$

where

$$P_i(x) = y_i \prod_{j=1; j \neq i}^k \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}$$

16.2 Secret Sharing — Shamir's System

Written explicitly,

$$P(x) = P_{1}(x) + P_{2}(x) + \dots + P_{k}(x)$$

$$= y_{1} \frac{(x - x_{2})(x - x_{3}) \cdots (x - x_{k})}{(x_{1} - x_{2})(x_{1} - x_{3}) \cdots (x_{1} - x_{k})}$$

$$+ y_{2} \frac{(x - x_{1})(x - x_{3}) \cdots (x - x_{k})}{(x_{2} - x_{1})(x_{2} - x_{3}) \cdots (x_{2} - x_{k})}$$

$$+ \dots$$

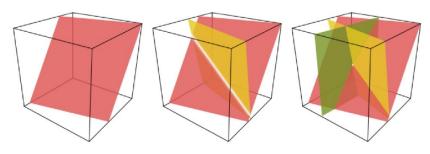
$$+ y_{k} \frac{(x - x_{1})(x - x_{2}) \cdots (x - x_{k-1})}{(x_{k} - x_{1})(x_{k} - x_{2}) \cdots (x_{k} - x_{k-1})}$$

16.2 Secret Sharing — Shamir's System

- In Shamir's k-out-of-n secret sharing system, the secret (to be shared) represents the coefficient r_0
- The dealer randomly selects k-1 coefficients r_1, \ldots, r_{k-1} to define a polynomial f(x) of degree k-1
- For every player P_i , the dealer then assigns a fixed nonzero field element x_i and computes $y_i = f(x_i)$
- P_i 's share is $(x_i, f(x_i))$
- Anybody who is given k shares can compute the secret r_0 by evaluating Lagrange's interpolating polynomial at zero, i.e., $r_0 = P(0)$

16.2 Secret Sharing — Blakley's System

 Blakley's system is geometric (it is not perfect but can be modified to be so)



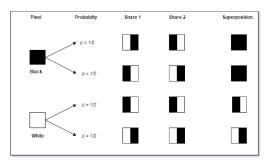
© A. Shamsoshoara, "Overview of Blakley's Secret Sharing Scheme," 2019

16.2 Secret Sharing

- K-out-of-n secret sharing systems are interesting from a theoretical viewpoint
- From a practical viewpoint, there are at least two problems
 - If a malicious player is not honest and provides a wrong share, then the secret that is reconstructed may be wrong
 - If the dealer is malicious or untrusted, the players may want to have a guarantee that they can put together the correct secret
- A verifiable secret sharing system may be needed here (so that the players can verify the shares)

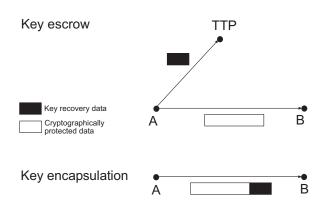
16.2 Secret Sharing

 In 1994, Moni Naor and Shamir proposed a visual variant of secret sharing known as visual cryptography



- If one uses cryptographic techniques for data encryption, then one may be concerned about the fact that keys get lost
- According to RFC 4949, the term key recovery refers to "a process for learning the value of a cryptographic key that was previously used to perform some cryptographic operation"
- Alternatively, it refers to "techniques that provide an intentional, alternate (i.e., secondary) means to access the key used for data confidentiality service"

- Classes of key recovery techniques
 - Key escrow is "a technique for storing knowledge of a cryptographic key or parts thereof in the custody of one or more third parties called escrow agents, so that the key can be recovered and used in specified circumstances"
 - **Key encapsulation** is "a technique for storing knowledge of a cryptographic key by encrypting it with another key and ensuring that only certain third parties called recovery agents can perform the decryption operation to retrieve the stored key"



- Key recovery and key escrow became hotly debated topics in the mid-1990s, when the U.S. government published the Escrowed Encryption Standard (EES) and released the Clipper Chip
- It was a secret splitting system with two governmental bodies acting as escrow agents
- It was argued that key escrow on transmitted data is neither necessary nor particularly useful
- The controversy suddenly came to an end when it was shown that the original design of the EES was flawed



- In 1997, a group of cryptographers wrote a paper about the risks related to key recovery, key escrow, and TTP encryption
- Today, the U.S. export controls are relaxed, but state-controlled cryptography prevails
- A follow-up paper appeared in 2015
- It can be used as starting point to discuss the Crypto Wars



- Most cryptographic technologies and protocols in use today employ public key cryptography and public key certificates
- According to RFC 4949, a certificate refers to "a document that attests to the truth of something or the ownership of something"
- In the realm of pubic key cryptography, the term (public key) certificate was coined by Loren M. Kohnfelder to refer to a digitally signed record holding a name and a public key (as a replacement for a public file)
- There are also attribute certificates

- Public key ertificates are issued by certification authorities (CAs), whereas attribute certificates are issued by attribute authorities (AAs)
- A CA and an AA may be the same organization
- Also, a CA can have one or several registration authorities
 (RAs) sometimes called local registration authorities or
 local registration agents (LRAs)
- The certificates generated by the CAs may be made available in online directories or certificate repositories

- According to RFC 4949, a public key infrastructure (PKI) is "a system of CAs that perform some set of certificate management, archive management, key management, and token management functions for a community of users," that employ public key cryptography
- As such, it is as an infrastructure that can be used to issue, validate, and revoke public keys and public key certificates
- It comprises a set of agreed-upon standards, CAs, structures among multiple CAs, methods to discover and validate certification paths, operational and management protocols, interoperable tools, and supporting legislation

- In the past, PKIs have experienced a great deal of hype, and many companies and organizations have started to provide certification services on a commercial basis
- Most of these service providers have failed to become commercially successful
- In fact, the PKI business has turned out to be particularly difficult to make a living from
- There are only a few CAs that are self-feeding, and most CAs have other sources of revenue

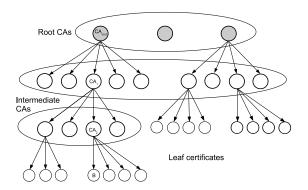
- Many standardization bodies are working in the field
- Most importantly, the Telecommunication Standardization Sector of the International Telecommunication Union (ITU-T) has released a recommendation (ITU-T X.509)
- ITU-T X.509 has been adopted by many other standardization bodies, including the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) and International Electrotechnical Committee (IEC) Joint Technical Committee 1 (JTC1) and the IETF PKIX WG
- There are only a few alternatives to X.509 certificates, such as PGP certificates and SDSI/SPKI

- An X.509 (version 3) certificate may have several fields
 - Version
 - Serial number
 - Algorithm ID
 - Issuer
 - Validity
 - Subject
 - Subject Public Key Info
 - Issuer Unique Identifier
 - Subject Unique Identifier
 - Extensions



16.4 Certificate Management

X.509 certificates are based on the hierarchical trust model



- Challenges in public key certification
 - Naming
 - ASN.1 and encoding rules (i.e., BER or DER)
 - Management of root CAs
 - Certificate path validation
 - Certificate revocation and misuse detection(e.g., CRL, OCSP \pm stapling, Certificate Transparency, CAA/DANE, . . .)
- PKI technologies have only been successful, if they are put in place and used in stealth mode (e.g., invisible to the user)

16.5 Final Remarks

- Key management is complex and the Achilles' heel of almost every system that employs cryptographic techniques
- This is also true if data is stored in the cloud (i.e., BYOK, CYOK, or HYOK)
- The key life cycle includes many important phases, such as key generation, distribution, storage, and destruction
- Secret splitting and sharing, as well as key recovery yield important technologies
- Certificate management is a topic of its own

Questions and Answers



Thank you for your attention

