

## Network Security: Goals of authenticated key exchange

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## Purpose of key exchange

- With public keys:
	- A and B each have public-private key pairs and certificates
	- Goal: generate a symmetric shared secret session key
	- Public keys are used for the key exchange. Session keys are used for efficient protection session data (symmetric encryption and MAC or AE)
- With a shared master secret:
	- A and B share a secret master key, e.g. 128-bit random number
	- Goal: generate a shared session key for short-term use
	- Motivation: compromise of a session key is quite likely; the seldom-used master key can be better protected, e.g. SIM
- The master key and certificates are called trust roots

## Basic security goals

- Create a good session key:
	- Secret i.e. known only to the intended participants
	- Fresh i.e. never seen or used before
	- Separation short-term secrets and long-term security: compromise of session keys does not endanger future authentication or secrecy
- **E** Authentication:
	- Mutual i.e. two-directional authentication: each party knows who it shares the session key with
	- Sometimes only one-way i.e. unidirectional authentication

## Other common security properties

- Perfect forward secrecy (PFS)
	- Compromise of long-term secrets today should not compromise old session data
	- Typically achieved with empheral Diffie-Helmann
	- Can also be implemented with public-key encryption by creating a fresh key pair and then throwing it away

### Other common security properties

- Entity authentication: each (or one) participant knows that the other is online and participated in the protocol
- Key confirmation: each (or one) participant knows that the other knows the session key (implies entity authentication)
	- Receives proof vs. trusts the other participant

### Correspondence properties

- Correspondence properties (or consistency): agreement between the states and beliefs of the two endpoints, or between the endpoint's initial intention and final state
	- More precise definition of authentication and key confirmation
	- Example: If responder B accepts the session key K for communication with initiator A, then A has previously created the key K for communication with B

### Other common security properties

- Contributory key exchange: both endpoints contribute randomness to the session key; neither can decide the key alone
	- Key distribution where on party decides the key; often in broadcast and sometimes in asynchronous communication
- Algorithm agility: support for negotiating, upgrading and deprecating algorithms
	- Downgrading protection: Endpoints negotiate the best algorithms and latest protocol version supported by both, and the attacker cannot manipulate the process

## Privacy and identity issues

#### **E** Identity protection

- Unauthenticated Diffie-Hellman first; then encrypt the identities and certificates
- Passive sniffer cannot learn the identities of the protocol participants
- Usually only one side can have identity protection against active attacks: one side must reveal its identity first, making its identity vulnerable to active attacks

Would you give stronger identity protection to the initiator or responder?

## Privacy and identity issues

#### ■ Non-repudiation

– Evidence preserved, so that a participant cannot later deny taking part (usually not an explicit goal)

#### ■ Plausible deniability

– No evidence left of taking part (usually not an explicit goal either)

### DoS resistance

- Various denial-of-service resistance requirements:
	- The protocol cannot be used to exhaust memory or CPU of the participants
	- Not easy to spoof packets that prevent others from completing a key exchange (especially off-route attackers)
	- When an on-route MitM attacker stops dropping and breaking messages, the protocol recovers
	- The protocol cannot be used to flood third parties with data or to amplify DDoS attacks

### Authenticated DH properties

- Signed Diffie-Hellman with nonces and key confirmation:
	- 1. A  $\rightarrow$  B: A, B, N<sub>A</sub>, g, p, g<sup>x</sup>, S<sub>A</sub>("Msg1", A, B, N<sub>A</sub>, g, p, g<sup>x</sup>), Cert<sub>A</sub> 2.  $B \to A: A, B, N_B, g^y, S_B("Msg2", A, B, N_B, g^y),$  Cert<sub>B</sub>, MAC<sub>SK</sub>(A, B, "Responder done.")  $A \rightarrow B$ : A, B, MAC<sub>SK</sub>(A, B, "Initiator do. Secret, fresh session key  $SK = h(N_A, N_B, g^{xy})$ • Secret, fresh session key **Mutual or one-way authentication** • Entity authentication, key confirmation **Perfect forward secrecy (PFS)** 
		- Contributory key exchange
		- Downgrading protection
		- **Identity protection**
		- Non-repudiation
		- Plausible deniability
		- DoS resistance

# What is a protocol flaw?

- Poorly understood security requirements
- Limitations on the applicability of the protocol:
	- Is the protocol used for a new purpose or in a new environment?
	- Historical examples: insider attacks, multiple parallel executions
	- Timely example: distributed cloud implementation
- Unwritten expectations for implementations
	- Encryption in old specs is assumed to protect integrity
	- Authenticated messages should include type tags
- New attacks and security requirements arise over time: – DoS amplification, PFS, identity protection

### Notes on protocol engineering

- Security is just one requirement for network protocols
	- Cost, complexity, performance, deployability, code reuse, time to market etc. may override some security properties
- Security protocol engineering requires experienced experts and peer scrutiny
	- Reuse well-understood solutions like TLS; avoid designing your own
	- Only use strong security solutions (privacy and DoS make exceptions)
- The most difficult part is understanding the problem
	- Must understand both security and the application domain
	- When the security requirements are understood, potential solutions often become obvious