

Middleware and Distributed Systems

Security

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Introduction

- Threat model: shared resources need to be protected against adversaries
- Security Policy: specification defining what operations are on the resources are acceptable
 - Often declared through *access control*
- Security Mechanism: procedure/infrastructure to enforce a security policy
- Design process
- Cryptography: art of encoding information so that only a designated recipient can understand it; distinct from security

Cryptography

- based in military applications (esp. intelligence and counter-intelligence)
- recently also used for other parts of life (esp. industry)
 - opening of cryptography caused better understanding of the concept, more uniform terminology (e.g. usage of common names Alice, Bob, Carol, Dave, Eve, Mallory, Sara)
- Literature
 - Schneier, Applied Cryptography
 - Anderson, Security Engineering

Threats and Attacks

- Threats
 - Leakage: acquisition of information by unauthorized recipients
 - Tampering: unauthorized alteration of information
 - Vandalism: inference with proper operation of a system without gain for the perpetrator
- Attacks depend on gaining access to a channel or a node
 - Eavesdropping: obtaining copies of messages without authority
 - Masquerading: sending or receiving messages using the identity of another participant
 - Replaying: storing intercepted messages and sending them later
 - Denial of service: flooding a channel or node so that access to others is denied

Design process for secure systems

- Assume for the worst
 - interfaces are exposed to attackers
 - networks are insecure
 - algorithms are available to attackers
 - attackers may have access to large resources
- Define policies
- Define list of threats
- Specify how each threat is prevented through mechanism built into the system
 - ideally: formally proof properties
- employ auditing

Cryptography

- Only consider "advanced" techniques here (e.g. no substitution algorithms)
 - Algorithm should have a secret key as its parameter (K_A , K_B)
 - Encryption $E(K, M)$, decryption $D(K, M)$
- Shared-key algorithms: K_{AB} used both for encryption and decryption
- public/private key algorithms: each participant has a pair of keys
- Applications of cryptography:
 - Secrecy and integrity of messages
 - Authentication
 - Digital Signatures

Secrecy and Integrity

- Secrecy: Alice sends Bob $E(K, M)$; Bob applies $D(K, E(K, M))$
 - Problem: How can Alice and Bob exchange the key securely? (*key exchange*)
 - Problem: How can Bob know that Alice just send the message, as Mallory might have captured a message and replayed it? (*replay attack*)
- Integrity: may just use encryption; if D yields a meaningful result, it is authentic
 - better: use Message Authenticity Codes $MAC(M)$:
 - Alice sends encrypted MAC along with the message
 - Bob decrypts received MAC, computed $MAC(M)$, and compares them

Authentication

- Needham, Schroeder (1978): Using Encryption for Authentication in Large Networks. Communications of the ACM, Vol. 21, pp. 993-999
- Authentication against a central server: Sara has shared secrets with both Alice and Bob
- Alice sends a plain-text message to Sara requesting a ticket for authentication to Bob
- Sara generates a new random secret key K_{AB} , and puts $E(K_B, K_{AB})$ into the ticket
- Sara sends to Alice: $E(K_A, \text{ticket} + K_{AB})$
- Alice decrypts the message, and extracts $E(K_B, \text{ticket})$ and K_{AB}
- Alice sends to Bob: ticket, $E(K_{AB}, M)$
- Bob decrypts the ticket, learns that it is from Sara, retrieves K_{AB} , and decodes the message

Authentication (2)

- Needham/Schroeder algorithm uses concept of a *challenge*: Alice can only use the ticket for B if she really possesses K_A
 - sending her password to Sara is not necessary for authentication
- Problem with that algorithm: a central server is needed which shares a secret key with each user
 - Problem later solved through public/private key cryptography

Digital Signatures

- Scenario 1: Bob wants to make sure the message really originates from Alice
 - Can use MAC as discussed earlier
 - MAC is sometimes also called *message digest*
- Scenario 2: Bob wants to prove to Carol that the message is from Alice
 - Cannot use shared keys anymore, since Bob would need to reveal the key to Carol
 - Solution 1: Alice provides $K_{A_{pub}}$ to Bob in advance, then sends $M, E(K_{A_{priv}}, \text{digest}(M))$; Bob and Carol both decrypt the digest and verify it
 - Problem: How can Carol be sure about $K_{A_{pub}}$?
 - Solution 2: Digital Certificates

Digital Certificates and Digital Signatures

- Dave, an authority, publishes his public key K_{Dpub}
- Alice identifies herself somehow to Dave, and simultaneously provides K_{Apub}
- Dave returns to Alice $C = E(K_{Dpriv}, K_{Apub})$
- Alice sends $C, M, E(K_{Apriv}, \text{digest}(M))$ to Bob
- Bob and Carol decrypt C with K_{Dpub} , obtain *certified* K_{Apub} , then decrypt the digest with K_{Apub} , and compare it with $\text{digest}(M)$

Access Control

- Protection domain: List of <resource, right> pairs given to a set of processes in a distributed system
 - typically established by a principal authenticating to the system, then processes acting on behalf of the principal
 - typically implemented through *capabilities* or *access control lists*
 - variations: role-based access control (principals act in roles, and gain access based on their roles)

Capabilities

- tokens that enumerate the operations that a process may perform
 - similar to physical keys in the real world
- need to be unforgable in a distributed system
- client passes capability along with the request; server verifies it and performs the operation
- problem 1: key theft
 - may try to revoke capability when it is reported stolen
 - partial solution: include the holder in the capability
- problem 2: capability revocation
 - need to communicate to servers to "exchange the locks"
 - partial solution: add timeout (end of validity) to capability

Access Control Lists

- add a list of <principal, operation> pairs to each resource
 - several variations, e.g. groups of principals, separate allow and deny entries, ...
- problem: assumes that principals can be reliably authenticated

Credentials

- evidence provided by principal when requesting access to a resource
 - certificates, passwords, physical tokens, ...
- *speaks-for* relationship: possession of credentials allows a principal to speak for another one
- delegation: passing of credentials from one process to another, to allow the other process to speak for the principal
 - typically limited by permitted operations and by time

Cryptographic Algorithms

- Cryptoanalysis: known ciphertext, known plaintext, chosen plaintext; differential analysis (similar input data), related key analysis (similar keys)
 - algorithm considered *broken* if a better-than-brute-force attack is known
- Symmetric vs. asymmetric algorithms
- block ciphers: algorithms often operate on fixed-size blocks (e.g. 64 bits)
 - threat: attacker might recognize patterns, perform known plaintext analysis
- cipher block chaining: cipherblock i is XOR'ed with plaintext block $i+1$ before encryption
 - repeated plaintext data will not result in same ciphertext anymore
 - threat: first encrypted block in a communication just based on plaintext

Cryptographic Algorithms (2)

- Stream ciphers: encrypting blocks of data might be inappropriate if data need to be transmitted quickly after they get produced
 - e.g. live AV data
 - encryption must encrypt bit-per-bit
 - solution: keystream generator produces a stream of key bits based on some initial state
- Quality of algorithm: diffusion and confusion (Shannon)
 - confusion: make output look different from input (e.g. combining multiple input bits into one)
 - diffusion: dissipate regular patterns in the input, to make output look "random" (Avalanche Effect)

Shared-key (symmetric) algorithms

- TEA (Tiny Encryption Algorithm): Wheeler and Needham 1994
 - mainly for educational usage
 - 128 bit keys (4x32), 64 bit blocksize
- DES (Data Encryption Standard): U.S. National Bureau of Standards 1977
 - originally by IBM
 - 56-bit key, 64 bit blocksize
 - designed for efficient implementation in hardware
- IDEA (International Data Encryption Algorithm): Lai and Massey 1990
 - developed as successor to DES; 128-bit keys

Shared-key algorithms (2)

- RC4: Rivest 1992
 - variable-length keys up to 256 bytes
 - allows for efficient implementation in software, used in 802.11
- AES (Advanced Encryption Standard): Daemen and Rijmen 2000
 - submitted to U.S. NIST under the name Rijndael
 - AES: block length 128 bits, key lengths 128, 192, 256
 - usable for U.S. SECRET data (TOP SECRET requires keys \geq 192 bits)
 - Rijndael: block and key length multiple of 32, between 128 and 256

TEA

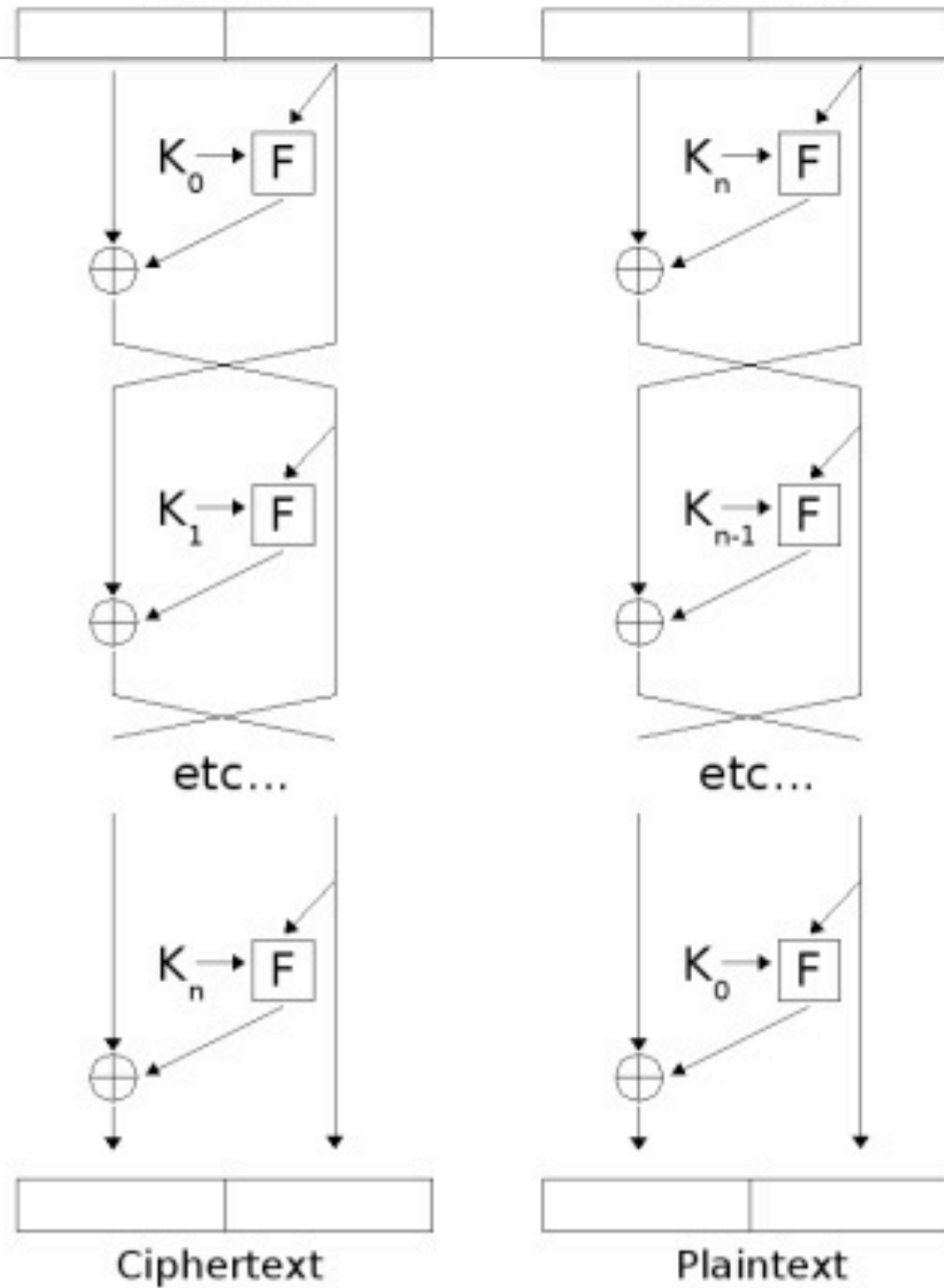
- uses integer addition, XOR and shift for diffusion and confusion
 - bit shuffling: P-boxes (permutation)
 - non-linear functions: S-boxes (substitution)
- Feistel network:
 - encryption and decryption are very similar (reverse key schedule)
 - product cipher (output is product of several rounds)
- 32 rounds
- each round takes as input the two 32-bit parts of the text, and combines them with the 4 32-bit parts of the key and with each other
- delta added to obscure key

Encryption:

Decryption:

Plaintext

Ciphertext



Feistel Cipher

Source: Wikipedia

TEA: Encryption

```
void encipher(unsigned long *const v,unsigned long *const w,
  const unsigned long *const k)
{
  register unsigned long      y=v[0],z=v[1],sum=0,delta=0x9E3779B9,
                              a=k[0],b=k[1],c=k[2],d=k[3],n=32;

  while(n-->0)
  {
    sum += delta;
    y += (z << 4)+a ^ z+sum ^ (z >> 5)+b;
    z += (y << 4)+c ^ y+sum ^ (y >> 5)+d;
  }

  w[0]=y; w[1]=z;
}
```

TEA: Decryption

```
void decipher(unsigned long *const v,unsigned long *const w,
              const unsigned long *const k)
{
    register unsigned long      y=v[0],z=v[1],sum=0xC6EF3720,
                                delta=0x9E3779B9,a=k[0],b=k[1],
                                c=k[2],d=k[3],n=32;

    /* sum = delta<<5, in general sum = delta * n */

    while(n-->0)
    {
        z -= (y << 4)+c ^ y+sum ^ (y >> 5)+d;
        y -= (z << 4)+a ^ z+sum ^ (z >> 5)+b;
        sum -= delta;
    }

    w[0]=y; w[1]=z;
}
```

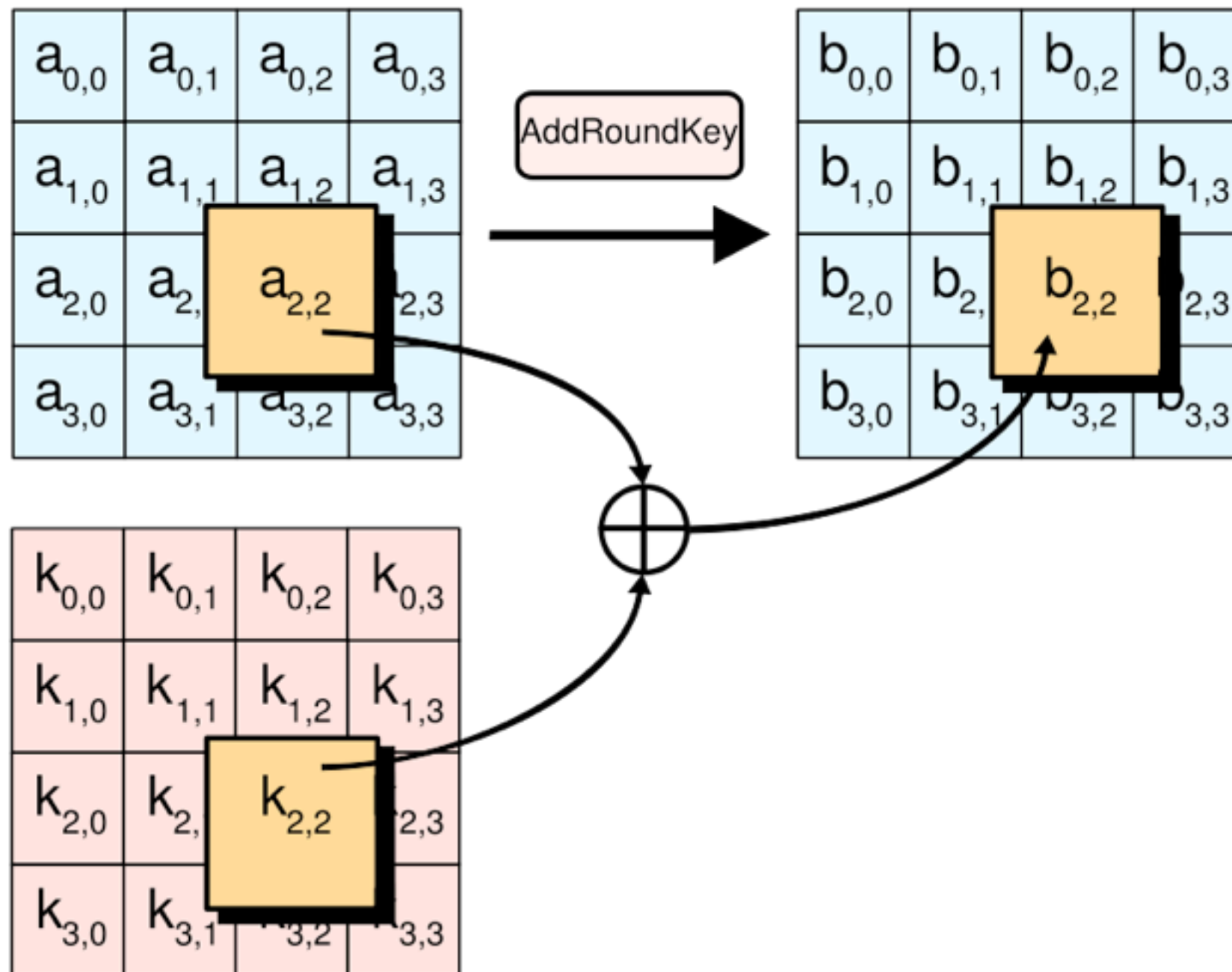
TEA weaknesses

- key equivalence: symmetric usage of key causes certain 4-tuples of keys to be equivalent
 - effective key size is only 126
- related key attacks: similar keys lead to similar output
 - need 2^{23} chosen plaintexts for successful key discovery

AES

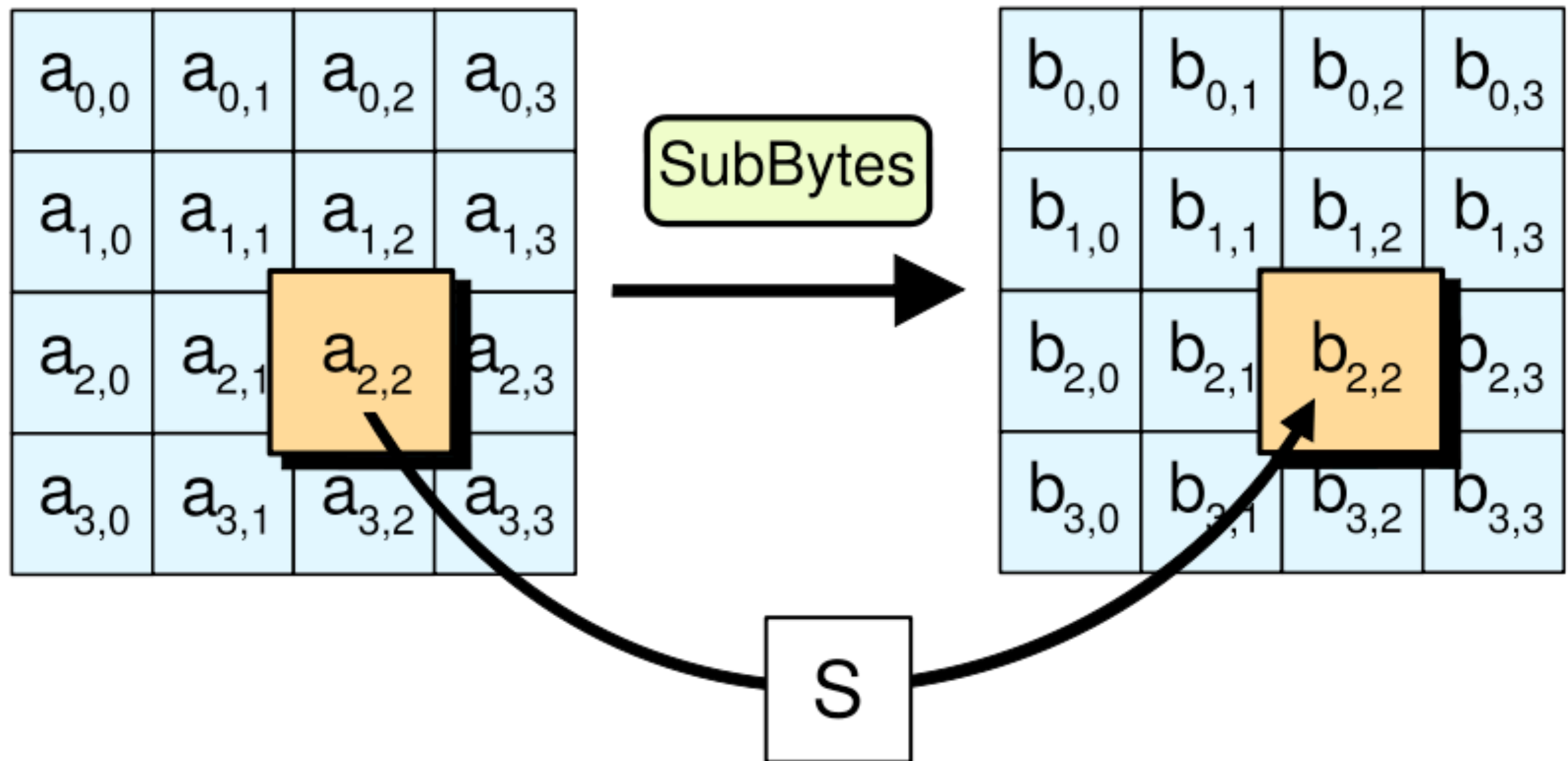
- general substitution-permutation network
- key schedule: generate round keys from encryption key, expanding it to block size
- each round has four steps:
 - AddRoundKey: combine 4x4 bytes with round key
 - SubBytes: substitute each byte with another one according to a specified table
 - ShiftRows: shift each row of the table somewhat
 - MixColumns: apply a linear transformation on each column

AES: AddRoundKey

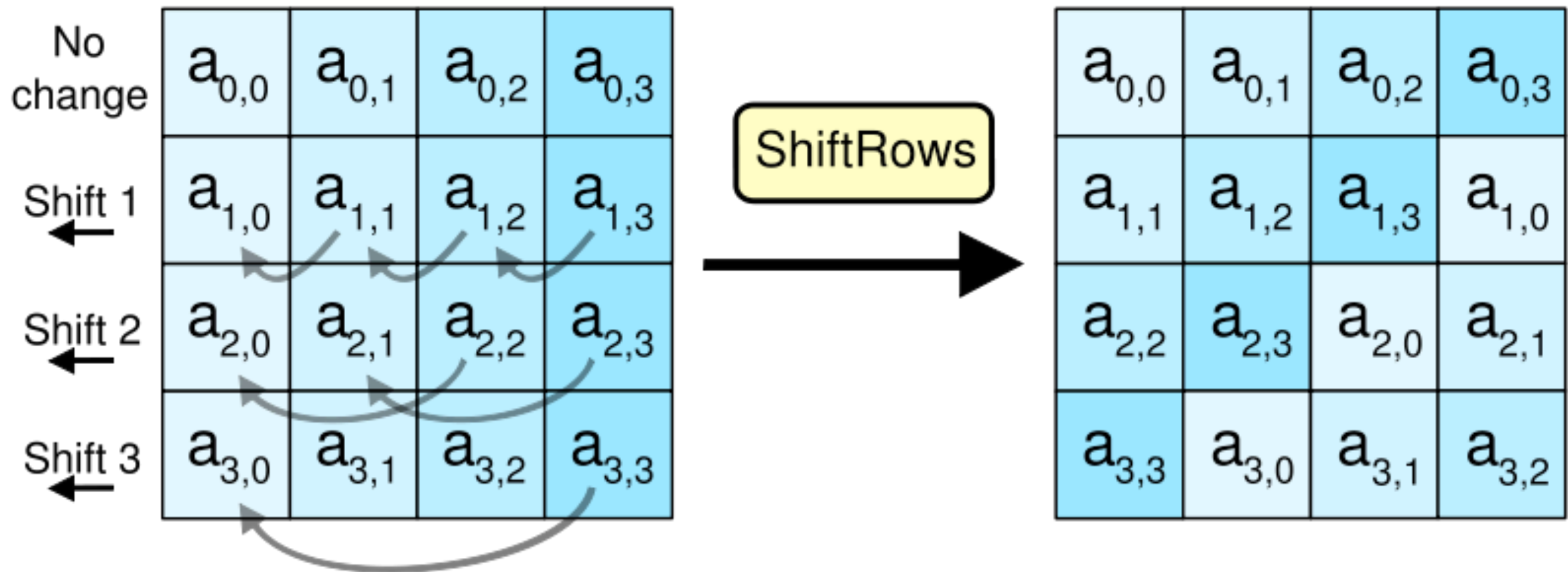


Source: Wikipedia

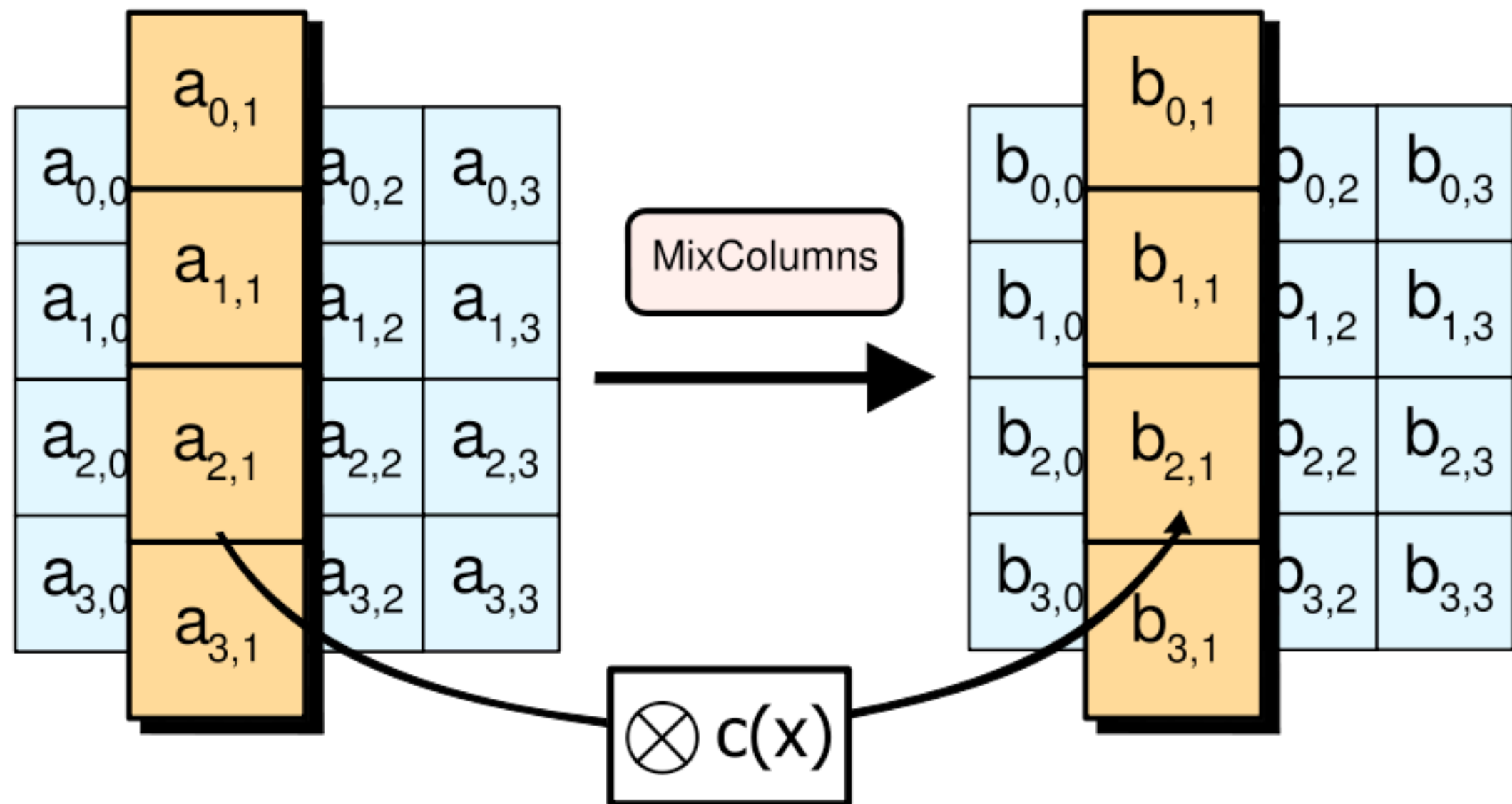
AES: SubBytes



AES: ShiftRows



AES: MixColumns



Public Key (asymmetric) Algorithms

- Key pair: K_e, K_d so that $D(K_d, E(K_e, M)) == M$
 - K_e made known public; K_d kept secret
- Assumption: Derivation of K_d from K_e is computationally expensive; generation of a new pair K_d/K_e is not
- RSA (Rivest, Shamir, Adelman), 1978
 - arbitrary key sizes, must generate two large primes
- ElGamal: Taher Elgamal, 1984
 - need to compute a large prime and its generator
- Various algorithms based elliptic curves

RSA

- Choose two large primes P and Q , $N = P \cdot Q$, $Z = (P-1) \cdot (Q-1)$
 - Publish N , keep Z secret
- Choose d so that it is relatively prime with Z ($\text{lcd}(d, Z) = 1$)
- Choose e so that $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{Z}$
 - Compute through extended Euclidean algorithm
- $E(e, M) = M^e \pmod{N}$
 - Compute through repeated quadration
- $D(d, M) = M^d \pmod{N}$
 - Idea: $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{Z}$
 - Fermat-Euler-Theorem: $M^Z \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$
 - hence $M^{ed} \equiv M^{1+kZ} \equiv M^1 M^{Zk} \equiv M^1 1^k \equiv M \pmod{N}$

RSA Analysis

- Chosen plain-text attack: Encrypt all messages with the public key until the encrypted message is found
 - needs block size large enough to make this attack infeasible
- Compute private key from public key: Needs to factor $N=PQ$
 - feasibility depends on efficient factorization algorithm; none is known today
- Key generation: need to test primality of large numbers quickly
 - probabilistic tests: determine whether P, Q are "probable primes"
 - fast deterministic tests: cyclotomy test, elliptic curve primality test, AKS test
- N not a power of two - need padding to achieve bit-oriented block sizes
 - introduce randomized padding to protect better against brute force attacks

AKS Primality Test

- Manindra Agrawal, Neeraj Kayal, Nitin Saxena, 2002: PRIMES is in P
- deterministic primality test, in time polynomial with the bit length of candidate
- History:

- Agrawal 1999: probabilistic primality test: N is prime, iff, for all a ,

$$(x + a)^N \equiv x^N + a \pmod{N}$$

- Bhattacharjee, Pandey, 2001 (Bachelor's thesis): study modulus of $x^r - 1$

- Kayal, Saxena, 2002 (Bachelor's thesis): Assuming Riemann's thesis, prove assumption of Bhattacharjee, Pandey that if r is a prime and not a factor of N , and

$$(x + 1)^N \equiv x^N + 1 \pmod{x^r - 1, N}$$

then either N is a prime, or $N^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{r}$

AKS Primality Test (2)

- Lenstra/Pomerance optimization of original algorithm

Find the smallest r so that $O_r(n) > \text{ld}^2(n)$

$O_r(n)$: smallest k , so that $n^k \equiv 1 \pmod{r}$

ld : binary logarithm

for $a = 1$ to r :

if $\text{gcd}(a, n) \neq 1$: output *composite*

for $a = 1$ to $\lfloor 2\sqrt{r} \log(n) \rfloor + 1$:

if $(x + a)^n \equiv x^n + a \pmod{x^r - 1, n}$: output *prime*

Key Agreement

- Objective: Alice and Bob want to agree on a shared key
 - Eve must not find out what the key is
- Solution 1: use asymmetric algorithm - Alice generates key, encrypts with Bob's public key
- Solution 2: Diffie-Hellman-Merkle Key Agreement (1976)
 - Alice computes large prime P , primitive root g , chooses private key a
 - Alice sends Bob $P, g, A=g^a \pmod{P}$
 - Bob chooses private key b , sends Alice $B=g^b \pmod{P}$
 - Alice computes $K = B^a = g^{ab} \pmod{P}$
 - Bob computes $K = A^b = g^{ab} \pmod{P}$

Secure Hashing

- fixed-length bit pattern that characterizes a message
 - Digest/Hash function $H(M)$
 - ideally: collision-free; $M_1 \neq M_2 \Rightarrow H(M_1) \neq H(M_2)$
 - practically: if hash is short than message, there will be collisions
 - collisions should not appear in practice
 - ideally: irreversible (*one-way hash functions*)
- Birthday paradox (birthday attack): for a random sample of

$$\sqrt{2 * \ln(2) * N} \approx 1.2\sqrt{N}$$

elements from a total of N elements, there is a 50% probability of duplicates

Secure Hashing (2)

- MD5 (Message Digest 5): Rivest 1992
 - arbitrary-sized input, 128 bit hash
 - broken; vulnerable to suffix attack (if $\text{MD5}(A) == \text{MD5}(B)$ then for all X, Y $\text{MD5}(X+A+Y) == \text{MD5}(X+B+Y)$)
- SHA-1 (US Secure Hash Algorithm 1): NIST 1993
 - based on MD4, 160 bit hash
 - assumed broken: Xiaoyun Wang, Yiqun Lisa Yin, and Hongbo Yu report that fewer than 2^{69} operations are necessary to produce collision
- SHA-2 (SHA-224, SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512): NIST 2002
 - different size of resulting hash

MD-5

- Input message split into 512-bit chunks; potentially padded
 - padding: last 64 bits specify size of the original message, preceded by zeros, preceded by a single 1-bit, preceded by the original message
 - multiple blocks are fed to algorithm
- state: 4 words
 - $A = 01\ 23\ 45\ 67$, $B = 89\ ab\ cd\ ef$, $C = fe\ dc\ ba\ 98$, $D = 76\ 54\ 32\ 10$
- each 32-bit word is processed in four rounds
 - 16 words per chunk -> 64 rounds

MD5 (2)

- 64 constant K_i , one per round (computed from sine values)
- 4 round functions:

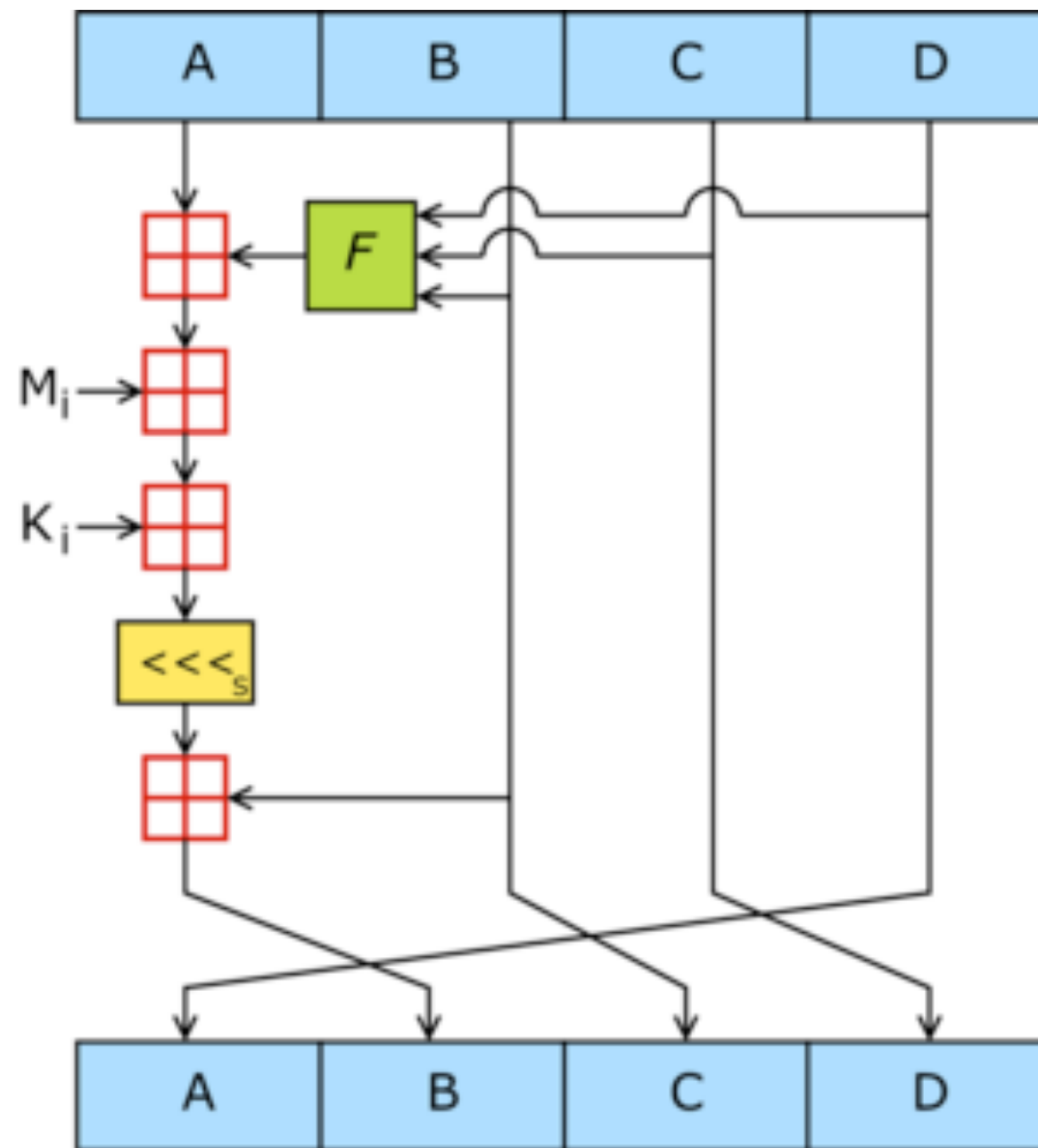
$$F(X, Y, Z) = (X \wedge Y) \vee (\neg X \wedge Z)$$

$$G(X, Y, Z) = (X \wedge Z) \vee (Y \wedge \neg Z)$$

$$H(X, Y, Z) = X \oplus Y \oplus Z$$

$$I(X, Y, Z) = Y \oplus (X \vee \neg Z)$$

MD5 (3)



Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

- X.509: Information technology - Open Systems Interconnection - The Directory: Public-key and attribute certificate frameworks, CCITT 1988
 - part of OSI Directory
 - RFC 3280 (obsoletes 2459): Internet X.509 Public Key Infrastructure Certificate and Certificate Revocation List (CRL) Profile
- Certificate Authority (CA): issuer/signer of public keys
 - removes need for independent verification of public keys, assuming CA is trusted
 - CA policy: under what conditions are certificates issued? how is the private key of the CA protected against theft? what information about the *subject* will be included?

PKI (2)

- CA hierarchy: individual users don't obtain certificate from a single authority, but *root* CA certifies sub-ordinate CA
 - certificate chain: sequence of certificates leading up to root
- signed information in certificate:
 - subject: who is being certified (distinguished name, public key)
 - issuer: what CA issued the certificate (distinguished name, signature)
 - period of validity
 - additional attributes

X.509: Certificate

```
Certificate ::= SEQUENCE {  
    tbsCertificate    TBSCertificate,  
    signatureAlgorithm AlgorithmIdentifier,  
    signatureValue    BIT STRING }
```

TBSCertificate

```
TBSCertificate ::= SEQUENCE {  
    version          [0] EXPLICIT Version DEFAULT v1, -- today, always v3  
    serialNumber     CertificateSerialNumber,  
    signature        AlgorithmIdentifier,  
    issuer           Name,  
    validity         Validity,  
    subject          Name,  
    subjectPublicKeyInfo SubjectPublicKeyInfo,  
    issuerUniqueID  [1] IMPLICIT UniqueIdentifier OPTIONAL,  
    subjectUniqueID [2] IMPLICIT UniqueIdentifier OPTIONAL,  
    extensions      [3] EXPLICIT Extensions OPTIONAL  
}
```

```
Version ::= INTEGER { v1(0), v2(1), v3(2) }
```

Certificate fields

CertificateSerialNumber ::= INTEGER

Validity ::= SEQUENCE {

notBefore Time,

notAfter Time }

Time ::= CHOICE {

utcTime UTCTime, -- UNIVERSAL 23

generalTime GeneralizedTime }

Uniquelfentifier ::= BIT STRING

SubjectPublicKeyInfo ::= SEQUENCE {

algorithm AlgorithmIdentifier,

subjectPublicKey BIT STRING }

Extensions ::= SEQUENCE SIZE (1..MAX) OF Extension

Algorithms

AlgorithmIdentifier ::= SEQUENCE {
 algorithm OBJECT IDENTIFIER,
 parameters ANY DEFINED BY algorithm OPTIONAL }

Names

Name ::= CHOICE { RDNSequence }

RDNSequence ::= SEQUENCE OF RelativeDistinguishedName

RelativeDistinguishedName ::= SET OF AttributeTypeAndValue

AttributeTypeAndValue ::= SEQUENCE {

type AttributeType,

value AttributeValue }

AttributeType ::= OBJECT IDENTIFIER

AttributeValue ::= ANY DEFINED BY AttributeType

Extensions

```
Extension ::= SEQUENCE {  
    extnID    OBJECT IDENTIFIER,  
    critical  BOOLEAN DEFAULT FALSE,  
    extnValue OCTET STRING }
```

Predefined extensions:

```
id-ce OBJECT IDENTIFIER ::= { joint-iso-ccitt(2) ds(5) 29 }
```


OIDs for Algorithms

- 1.3.14.3.2.3 md5WithRSA
- 1.3.14.3.2.6 des-ecb
- 1.3.14.3.2.7 des-cbc
- 1.3.14.3.2.13 DSA-SHA
- 1.3.14.3.2.15 RSA-SHA
- 1.3.14.3.2.26 sha1
- 1.2.840.113549.1.1.1 rsaEncryption
- 1.2.840.113549.1.1.4 md5WithRSAAEncryption
- 1.2.840.113549.1.1.5 sha1WithRSAAEncryption
- 1.2.840.113549.1.1.11 sha256WithRSAAEncryption
- 1.2.840.113549.1.1.13 sha512WithRSAAEncryption
- 1.3.6.1.4.1.18832.11.3.1 Elliptic-Curve Nyberg-Rueppel with SHA-1 signature

OIDs for Names

- 2.5.4.3 CN
- 2.5.4.4 SN
- 2.5.4.5 serialNumber
- 2.5.4.6 C
- 2.5.4.7 L
- 2.5.4.8 ST
- 2.5.4.9 streetAddress
- 2.5.4.10 O
- 2.5.4.11 OU
- 2.5.4.72 role
- 0.9.2342.19200300.100.1.1 userId
- 1.2.840.113549.1.9.1 emailAddress

OIDs for Extensions

- 2.5.29.14 Subject Key Identifier
- 2.5.29.15 Key Usage
- 2.5.29.17 Subject Alternative Name
- 2.5.29.18 Issuer Alternative Name
- 2.5.29.19 Basic Constraints
- 2.5.29.37 Extended Key Usage
- 2.16.840.1.113730.1.2 Netscape Base Url
- 2.16.840.1.113730.1.3 Netscape Revocation Url
- 2.16.840.1.113730.1.13 Netscape Comment
- 1.3.6.1.4.1.311.20.2 Microsoft Certificate Type

Key Usage Extension

id-ce-keyUsage OBJECT IDENTIFIER ::= { id-ce 15 }

KeyUsage ::= BIT STRING {
 digitalSignature (0),
 nonRepudiation (1),
 keyEncipherment (2),
 dataEncipherment (3),
 keyAgreement (4),
 keyCertSign (5),
 cRLSign (6),
 encipherOnly (7),
 decipherOnly (8) }

Subject Alternative Name Extension

GeneralNames ::= SEQUENCE SIZE (1..MAX) OF GeneralName

GeneralName ::= CHOICE {

otherName	[0]	OtherName,
rfc822Name	[1]	IA5String,
dNSName	[2]	IA5String,
x400Address	[3]	ORAddress,
directoryName	[4]	Name,
ediPartyName	[5]	EDIPartyName,
uniformResourceIdentifier	[6]	IA5String,
iPAddress	[7]	OCTET STRING,
registeredID	[8]	OBJECT IDENTIFIER }

OtherName ::= SEQUENCE {

type-id	OBJECT IDENTIFIER,
value	[0] EXPLICIT ANY DEFINED BY type-id }

Extended Key Usage Extension

- ExtKeyUsageSyntax ::= SEQUENCE SIZE (1..MAX) OF KeyPurposeId
- KeyPurposeId ::= OBJECT IDENTIFIER
- 1.3.6.1.5.5.7.3.1 Server Authentication
- 1.3.6.1.5.5.7.3.2 Client Authentication
- 1.3.6.1.5.5.7.3.3 Code Signing
- 1.3.6.1.5.5.7.3.4 Email Protection
- 1.3.6.1.5.5.7.3.8 Time Stamping
- 1.3.6.1.5.5.7.3.9 OCSP Signing
- 1.3.6.1.4.1.311.10.3.4 Microsoft Encrypting File System

Transport Layer Security

- RFC 5246 (TLS version 1.2)
- goal: provide privacy and data integrity, interoperable, extensible, efficient
- two layers: record protocol, handshake protocol
- record protocol:
 - private connection (DES, RC4, ...)
 - reliable transport (SHA, MD5, ...)
- handshake protocol: allow client and server to authenticate to each other, using asymmetric algorithms
 - one peer does not need to authenticate
 - negotiate shared secret for communication

Kerberos

- Originally RFC 1510 (Kerberos v5), recently revised in RFC 4120
- based on Needham/Schroeder algorithm
- developed for MIT Project Athena
- KDC: Key Distribution Center
- Realm: Scope of a KDC
- Principal: uniquely named client or server
- Server: principal which provides a resource to clients
- Ticket: record to authenticate a client to a server

Kerberos: Basic Operation

- Client requests TGT (Ticket Granting Ticket) from AS (Authentication service)
 - KRB_AS_REQ and KRB_AS_REP
- Client requests ticket for specific service from TGS (Ticket-Granting Service)
 - KRB_TGS_REQ and KRB_TGS_REP; ticket carries session key
 - client caches all tickets in ticket cache
- Client communicates session key to service
 - KRB_AP_REQ and KRB_AP_REP (only for mutual authentication)
 - Messages include "authenticator": nonce values computed from system time and principal name, signed with session key
 - time stamp prevents replay attacks; server needs replay cache for clock skew
- Client and server exchange KRB_PRIV and KRB_SAFE messages

Kerberos: Tickets

```
Ticket ::=      [APPLICATION 1] SEQUENCE {
    tkt-vno[0]    INTEGER, -- 5
    realm[1]      Realm,
    sname[2]      PrincipalName,
    enc-part[3]   EncryptedData
}
Realm ::=      GeneralString
PrincipalName ::= SEQUENCE {
    name-type[0]  INTEGER,
    name-string[1] SEQUENCE OF GeneralString
}
```

Kerberos: Tickets (2)

```
EncTicketPart ::= [APPLICATION 3] SEQUENCE {
    flags[0]          TicketFlags,
    key[1]            EncryptionKey,
    crealm[2]         Realm,
    cname[3]          PrincipalName,
    transited[4]      TransitedEncoding,
    authtime[5]       KerberosTime,
    starttime[6]      KerberosTime OPTIONAL,
    endtime[7]        KerberosTime,
    renew-till[8]     KerberosTime OPTIONAL,
    caddr[9]          HostAddresses OPTIONAL,
    authorization-data[10] AuthorizationData OPTIONAL
}
```

```
KerberosTime ::= GeneralizedTime
                -- Specifying UTC time zone (Z)
```

TicketFlags

```
TicketFlags ::= BIT STRING {  
    reserved(0),  
    forwardable(1),  
    forwarded(2),  
    proxiable(3),  
    proxy(4),  
    may-postdate(5),  
    postdated(6),  
    invalid(7),  
    renewable(8),  
    initial(9),  
    pre-authent(10),  
    hw-authent(11)  
}
```

TicketFlags (2)

- initial: ticket originates from AS
- pre-authenticated: the client has authenticated itself to the KDC
 - required in Active Directory; client needs to encrypt time stamp with password hash
 - designed to prevent offline attacks against the shared secret
- HW-authenticated: the client has authenticated itself using a hardware token
- forwardable/forwarded: TGT can be moved to a different network
- proxiable/proxy: ticket allows the service to act on the principal's behalf
- renewable: ticket can be renewed until renew-till; KDC might check whether it was reported stolen
- may-postdate/postdated: ticket starts validity at a future point in time

Application Programming Interfaces and Layering

- GSSAPI (RFC 2743): Generic Security Service API
 - Attempt to integrate multiple security mechanisms into single API
 - Implies wire protocol for interoperability
 - different mechanisms are not interoperable: Kerberos, NTLM, DCE, SPKM, ...
- CryptoAPI and SSPI (Microsoft): single API for multiple mechanisms
 - CSP: Cryptographic Service Provider
 - offers various cryptographic functions
 - SSPI authentication mechanisms: Schannel (TLS), Kerberos, Negotiate (SPNEGO), NTLM, DIGEST