# The Key Authority – Secure Key Management in Hierarchical Public Key Infrastructures

Alexander Wiesmaier, Marcus Lippert, Vangelis Karatsiolis Technische Universität Darmstadt Department of Computer Science Hochschulstr. 10; D-64289 Darmstadt, Germany Tel: +49-6151-164889; Fax: +49-6151-166036

*Abstract*— We model a private key's life cycle as a finite state machine. The states are the key's phases of life and the transition functions describe tasks to be done with the key. Based on this we define and describe the key authority, a trust center module, which potentiates the easy enforcement of secure management of private keys in hierarchical public key infrastructures. This is done by assembling all trust center tasks concerning the crucial handling of private keys within one centralized module. As this module resides under full control of the trust center's carrier it can easily be protected by well-known organizational and technical measures.

*Index Terms*— Certification Authority, Hierarchical Trust, Key Management, PKI, Public Key Infrastructure, Trust Center

## I. INTRODUCTION

This section introduces the reader into the matter of this paper. At first, the scope of this paper is motivated. Then the problem we address with this paper is stated. Finally, some related work is presented.

## A. Motivation

Nowadays a significant and growing contingent of communication is done electronically over (often open) computer networks. In many cases, it is necessary to guarantee the confidentiality, the integrity and the authenticity of the thereby incurring electronic data [1]. This can be achieved most reasonably by means of hierarchical public key infrastructures [2].

## B. Problem

Following [3] the public key infrastructure itself must be secure in order to provide a proper degree of security. Consistently with [4] we assume that the use of the private key is necessary and sufficient for the decryption of a cipher. Of course, we assume the same for the creation of a digital signature. Thus, the handling of private keys is the most crucial domain within a public key infrastructure. The problem addressed in this paper is how to achieve secure management of private keys within hierarchical public key infrastructures.

## C. Related work

In the last years, there were many publications concerning topics around public key infrastructures. A lot of them deal with concerns of certification [5], [6], [7] and revocation [8], [9], [10]. An other often attended field is the topic of trust and its chaining [11], [12], [13]. It was recognized that the enforcement of revocations and policies is achieved most easily in hierarchical public key infrastructures [11]. However, there seems to be no publication dealing with how to achieve secure key management within a hierarchical public key infrastructure. Except a couple of proposed security measures<sup>1</sup>, there appears to be no relevant work.

# II. PRIVATE KEYS

This section looks at the main topic of this paper: Private keys within a hierarchical public key infrastructure. Firstly, the life cycle of private keys is considered. Then we care about own and foreign private keys. Lastly, we look at the security of private keys.

## A. Life cycle

Figure 1 shows a simplified life cycle of a private key within a public key infrastructure. Other thinkable life cycles may contain more or less steps as well as other connections. However, here the point of interest is not the exact life cycle but an overview over the stations in a private key's life. Thus, simplified here does not mean that some things were skipped. It means that things are as concrete as necessary but as abstract as possible in order to reflect a common life cycle in a preferably simple diagram. For example, you can think of a special key generation algorithm with possible private key recovery from the public key. This can be viewed as being a conventional key generation algorithm with mandatory key backup.

We model the life cycle of a private key as a finite state machine. Each phase in a private key's life is represented by an appropriate state of the machine. Having these states, it is easy to construct the transition function. We interpret those transitions as the tasks to be done with a private key within a public key infrastructure. One instance of the finite state machine belongs to exactly one instance of a private key. If we have more than one instances of the same key each of them is assigned its own finite state machine. The following paragraphs explain the various states and transition functions in detail and look at their security aspects.

<sup>1</sup>e.g. those associated with the German "signature act" [14], [15], [16]

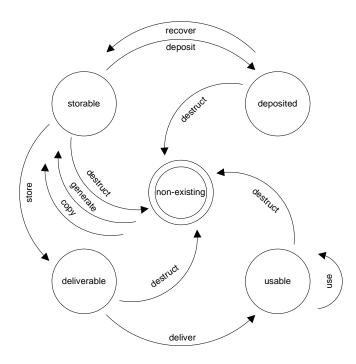


Fig. 1. A private key's life cycle

## 1) States:

*a) Non-existing:* This is the initial and at the same time the final state of our finite state machine. This is a virtual state. Being in this state, means that the private key was destroyed or that it has never existed at all. In this state, a private key is absolutely secure, at the same time the key is also absolutely useless, since it does not exist.

*b) Storable:* The first real state in a private key's life is being storable. This means the key was just generated, copied or recovered and exists in the memory of a computer, a smartcard or any other hardware. Now the key has to be stored or deposited somewhere to make it persistent. This state is very dangerous, and the unprotected key has to be shielded against eavesdropping or manipulating.

c) Deposited: For purposes of backup or similar cases, the private key can be deposited. The key remains inactive in this state until it is recovered. The deposited key may have to persist over a long time. It must be easy for authorized parties to recover the private key, while this must be impossible for unauthorized parties.

*d) Deliverable:* To be delivered to the participant the private key should be stored in a cryptographic token. Usually the token is personalized and specially secured in this state. Being in this state the private key should be properly protected by the token. As these tokens are usually protected by secret pass phrases it is necessary for them to remain a secret. In addition, the token must be shielded against manipulating or interchanging.

*e) Usable:* This is the really intended state of each private key. Now the key is hold by its participant, who is able to use it. Here the key also has to be protected against eavesdropping and manipulating. This is particular difficult because the key must be handled in clear for using it and

the "unqualified" end user is involved.

2) Transition functions:

*a) Generate:* The first thing in a new private keys life cycle is always its generation. For gaining good keys, the key parameters have to be chosen carefully. Choosing bad parameters may result in gaining insecure keys. In addition, a good random number generator has to be used. Using a bad random generator may result in obtaining predictable keys. Further, the key generation unit has to be shielded against eavesdropping or manipulation. Thus, generating keys is a very sensitive step and has to be done with expertise in a suitable environment.

b) Copy: Sometimes it is desirable to have more than one instance of the same key. Thus, beside the generation of a fresh key we have the possibility to construct a new instance by copying it from an existing one. Copying private keys is somewhat delicate because copying a private key is usually what is to be prevented. Depending on the kind of utilized token it is not in all or even in none state possible to make a copy of the private key. If the copying unit handles unprotected private keys or pass phrases it has to be shielded like the key generation unit.

c) Deposit: Depositing a private key is not as easy as it seems to be at first glance. The key must be deposited in a way that enables a long period of persistence and at the same time features a maximum of access protection. It is not suitable to just save it somewhere. A strong access protection method is to be applied to the key and it must be stored in a persistence-guaranteeing manner.

*d) Recover:* Recovering a deposited key is the third and last method for constructing an instance of a private key. Just like generating and copying a key, the recovery has to be shielded against eavesdropping or manipulation. It must be guaranteed that authorized parties can easily recover the desired key, while this must be impossible for unauthorized parties.

*e) Store:* To make the key deliverable it should be stored in some kind of cryptographic token, which is usually protected by secret pass phrases. For storing purposes, it is necessary to handle the private key and the pass phrases in clear text. Thus, appropriate shielding of the storing step is demanded. For generating the pass phrases the same demands concerning the choice of parameters and random hardware apply as with the key generation.

*f)* Deliver: As the private key should eventually reach the participant, it must be delivered to him. Hereby it is necessary that the token surely and solely reaches the intended participant. Further, it must be ensured that no one is able to eavesdrop on the key or manipulate or intercept the token. Delivering the respective pass phrase must also be subject to massive shielding measures. See also [17] for more work on this.

*g) Use:* Using the private key is the really intended sense for having it. However, it must be ensured that the authorized participant can easily use the key while this must be impossible for all other parties. Further, the key must be protected from eavesdropping, manipulating or interchange.

*h) Destruct:* The last thing in a private key's life is its destruction. Although destructing a key seems to be easy there are some things to be attended. If the key is to be destroyed, it is necessary to do it in a way that the key cannot be restored anymore. Thus, throwing away the token or simple file deletion from the hard disk are no appropriate ways to destruct a private key.

## B. Own and Foreign Private Keys

As we will have to distinguish between own and foreign private keys later, these terms are defined now.

*Definition 1:* A private key is called a participant's *own private key* if and only if the participant is entitled to use this private key.

Usually the participant, which is associated with the corresponding public key<sup>2</sup>, is entitled to use the private key and thus, is its owner. However, sometimes it can be a quiet different participant. If, for example, an employee leaves the company, the superior might be the new legal owner of the employee's decryption key to be able to decrypt the employee's business documents.

*Definition 2:* A private key is a *foreign private key* to a participant if and only if it is not the participant's own private key.

Thus, being the owner of a private key and being foreign to a private key are mutually exclusive. At any given point in time and for any given combination of a participant and a private key exactly one of these predicates is true.

# C. Security of private keys

Following [4] the private key is sufficient and necessary for decrypting a cipher or creating a signature. Thus, having secure private keys is a necessary condition for having a secure public key infrastructure. However, it is not a sufficient condition for that. If the involved processes like registering the participants or the communication with and within the trust center are unreliable, the whole public key infrastructure is insecure. However, those problems are not addressed here. Our scope is only the secure management of private keys within a hierarchical public key infrastructure.

The basic idea for securing private keys is that foreign private keys are nobody's concern. However, as seen above there are some stations and tasks concerning a private key, which require attention, expertise and a suitable environment. We cannot expect the ordinary public key infrastructure end user fulfilling these requirements [18]. Thus, it is better to give all those tasks to one party and control it adequate. Following this approach, we will define a trust center module called key authority (KA), which potentiates the easy enforcement of secure management of private keys.

Depending on the used technology and policy, more or less tasks have to be fulfilled by KA. When using high-grade smart cards with key generation features and having no key backup the KA is concerned only with the issuer private keys for signing the certificate. When using soft tokens and key backup

<sup>2</sup>e.g. in the certificate

the KA is concerned in addition with the full range of user key generation, deposition, recovery, and so on. Even if the KA does not execute certain tasks, it can at least increase their security by prearranging those tasks. An example for this case is the usage of the private key. This is naturally a task to be done at the end user's side. However, KA can enforce its security by issuing active tokens, which do not reveal the private key at all.

## III. CORE KEY AUTHORITY

In order to comprehend the specification of the key authority it is necessary to have a common vocabulary. Thus, this section gives definitions of some relevant terms, which are new or might be mistakable. Further, it introduces some simplifications to ease the definition of the key authority.

## A. Issuer

In hierarchical public key infrastructures, there is at least one dedicated participant, who issues the certificates. Each of those participants has at least one distinguished name and at least one private key for issuing the certificates. Further, each of those participants may respectively issue certificates using several distinguished names and private keys. In order to have clear circumstances we define the term issuer as follows.

*Definition 3:* An *issuer* is a participant within a hierarchical public key infrastructure, which has exactly and exclusively one distinguished name. This participant has exactly and exclusively one valid private key for issuing certificates at a point of time.

Thus, each of the mentioned three components (issuer, distinguished name and valid private key) does non-ambiguously determine the respective two others. An issuer may have more tasks than issuing certificates<sup>3</sup> and several private keys for accomplishing those tasks. Further, an issuer might use several private keys for certifying over the time, but only one of them will be valid at a point of time.

#### B. Core Public Key Infrastructure

A public key infrastructure may consist of a number of smaller sub public key infrastructures, which are connected by means of bridging, cross certifying or somehow else. Those sub public key infrastructures in turn may consist of smaller sub public key infrastructures and so on. This can lead to complicated relationships between the involved trust centers, issuers, participants and their keys. In order to avoid misunderstandings in the further, discussion we introduce to the following simplification of a public key infrastructure.

*Definition 4:* An issuer's *core public key infrastructure* is part of a whole public key infrastructure. It contains exactly those trust center products<sup>4</sup>, which were issued by the respective issuer. Further, it consists of exactly those participants and clients, which deal with those trust center products.

Thus, every issuer has exactly one core public key infrastructure and every core public key infrastructure belongs to exactly one issuer.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>e.g. revoking certificates

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>key pairs, certificates, tokens, etc.

## C. Defining the Core Key Authority

We are now ready to define the core key authority. This is done by defining, which tasks the authority has within the core public key infrastructure.

*Definition 5:* An issuer's *core key authority* executes exactly and exclusively those tasks within the core public key infrastructure which require or enable the access to the issuer's own private keys or to any foreign private keys.

All other parties are not allowed to get in touch with any private keys except their own ones. Although the key authority is in principle allowed to handle foreign private keys, the regarding owners of those might<sup>5</sup> deny the access to their private keys. Thus, the motto is "If someone is allowed to see foreign private keys, it is the core key authority and no one else".

# D. Tasks

The above definition of the core key authority gives a general description of its tasks. This subsection gives a more concrete specification of them. We describe all tasks, which require or enable the access to the issuer's or foreign private keys.

1) Issuing: The core key authority issues certificates on behalf of its issuer. Issuing the certificates means signing them with the issuer's appropriate private key.

2) *Revocation:* If it is the issuer's task to revoke certificates this is done by its core key authority, too. Revoking a certificate means signing a certificate revocation list<sup>6</sup> containing that certificate with the appropriate private key.

*3) Remaining Private Keys:* The issuer might have additional private keys for accomplishing various tasks. All those tasks will be done by the issuer's core key authority because no one else is allowed to use the issuer's private keys.

4) Key Generation: The core key authority generates all key pairs, which are not generated by their respective owners for themselves. This is because generating keys implies the access to them, which is granted only to the owner and the key authority. Of course, the key authority generates the respective issuer's key pairs.

5) Personalization: If the core key authority has generated a key pair, it has to store the private key within a personal security environment. As personal security environments are protected by (strong) pass phrases<sup>7</sup> it is also the core key authority's task to generate them and to inform the regarding owner about them. This is the key authority's task as possessing the personal security environment and knowing the pass phrase enables the access to the stored keys.

6) Archiving/Backup/Recovery: When a private key has to be archived, backuped or recovered it is the task of the core key authority to do so if the respective owner does not do this. Any other parties are not allowed to do this, as they are not allowed to see foreign private keys.

## E. Secure Key Management

This sections shows why the core key authority defined above enables an easy enforcement of secure private key management within a core public key infrastructure by enabling the leverage of suitable technical and organizational measures.

1) Easy Enforcement of Security: As the core key authority is the only party within the core public key infrastructure, which has access to the issuer's private key or to foreign private keys, one can protect those keys by just protecting the core key authority. This is manageable because you have to protect only one party instead of many. Further, it is uncomplicated because this party is located within a known environment<sup>8</sup> instead of somewhere in any participant's environment. Thus, it is easy to enforce secure key management with suitable (and well-known) technical and organizational measures.

2) Technical Measures: As all crucial private keys are under full control of the carrier of the core public key infrastructure<sup>9</sup>, it is possible to use all kinds of common technical measures for protecting keys. Examples for those measures are physical shielding, cryptographic hardware and more.

*3) Organizational Measures:* As with the technical measures, the use of common organizational measures for protecting the private keys is enabled by the centralized maintenance of crucial tasks. Those measures include running in offline mode, dual control<sup>10</sup> and so on.

## IV. KEY AUTHORITY

This section explains how an arbitrary public key infrastructure can be seen as a composite of several core public key infrastructures. Further, it is shown that the security achieved by using a core key authority<sup>11</sup> is automatically passed to a composite public key infrastructure.

#### A. Public Key Infrastructures

Any (conventional) hierarchical public key infrastructure can be seen as a collection of connected core public key infrastructures. From the view of the core public key infrastructure, the "other" issuers appear as normal participants. From the view of the whole public key infrastructure, the various core issuers appear as cross-certified or bridged sub public key infrastructures. Figure 2 shows an example of a composed public key infrastructure tree.

#### B. Key Authority

The various core key authorities may be operated within one module. This module is exclusively for assembling several core key authorities and is called *key authority*. It provides the environment to share the technical and organizational measures between the miscellaneous core key authorities. Each core key authority is operated within exactly one key authority and each key authority contains at least one core key authority. If there is exactly one core key authority within a key authority the two terms are synonymous.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>according to the trust center's policy

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>or a similar data structure

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>or similar mechanisms

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>at the trust center

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>by being assembled within the core key authority

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup>always two operators must be logged in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>within a core public key infrastructure

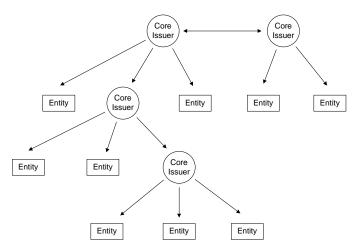


Fig. 2. A PKI as composition of core PKIs

#### C. Security

All tasks concerning issuer private keys or foreign private keys are conducted within a key authority. As shown above it is easy to protect (core) key authorities. Thus, we can easily enforce the secure key management within the whole public key infrastructure.

## V. CONCLUSION

This paper introduced a finite state machine model for a private keys life cycle. This model was used to identify the various tasks concerning private keys. Based on this the key authority, a trust center module, which performs all tasks concerning private issuer keys or foreign private keys was introduced. It was shown that using this module allows for an easy enforcement of secure key management within a hierarchical public key infrastructure.

#### References

- [1] A. Tanenbaum, Computer Networks, 4th ed. Prentice Hall PTR, 2002.
- [2] R. Housley and T. Polk, Planning for PKI. Best Practices Guide for Deploying Public Key Infrastructure. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 2002.
- [3] C. Adams and S. Lloyd, Understanding Public-Key Infrastructure: Concepts, Standards, and Deployment Considerations. MacMillan Technical Publishing, 1999.
- [4] W. Diffie and M. E. Hellman, "New Directions in Cryptography," *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, vol. IT-22, no. 6, pp. 644–654, November 1976.
- [5] R. Kohlas and U. Maurer, "Reasoning About Public-Key Certification: On Bindings Between Entities and Public Keys," in *Proceedings of Financial Cryptography '99 (FC99)*, ser. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 1648, February 1999, pp. 86–103.
- [6] J. Särs, "Analysis and Application of Accountable Certificate Management," Available from http://www.tml.hut.fi/Opinnot/Tik-110.501/2000/ (06 April 2004).
- [7] P. M. Hesse and D. P. Lemire, "Managing Interoperability in Non-Hierarchical Public Key Infrastructures," in *Proceedings of Network* and Distributed System Security Symposium 2002 (NDSS '02), February 2002.
- [8] M. Naor and K. Nissim, "Certificate Revocation and Certificate Update," in *Proceedings of the 7th USENIX Security Symposium*, January 1998, pp. 217–228.
- [9] C. A. Gunter and J. Trevor, "Generalized Certificate Revocation," in *Proceedings of the 27th ACM SIGPLAN-SIGACT Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages (POPL 2000)*, January 2000, pp. 316–329.

- [10] A. Årnes, H. Meijer, S. Lloyd, M. Just, and S. J. Knapskog, "Selecting Revocation Solutions for PKI," in *Proceedings of The Fifth Nordic* Workshop on Secure IT Systems (NORDSEC 2000), October 2000.
- [11] J. Linn, "Trust Models and Management in Public-Key Infrastructures," RSA Laboratories, Tech. Rep., 2000.
- [12] M. Blaze, J. Feigenbaum, and J. Lacy, "Decentralized Trust Management," in *Proceedings of the 1996 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy*, May 1996, pp. 164–173.
- [13] U. Maurer, "Modeling a public-key infrastructure," in *Proceedings of the* 4th European Symposium on Research in Computer Security (ESORICS 96), ser. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 1146, September 1996, pp. 325–350.
- [14] R. für Telekommunikation und Post, "Maßnahmenkatalog für technische Komponenten nach dem Signaturgesetz," http://www.bsi.de/esig/basics/ techbas/masskat/techkomp.pdf (12 April 2004), 1998, (in German).
- [15] B. für Sicherheit in der Informationstechnik, "BSI-Handbuch für digitale Signaturen," http://www.bsi.de/esig/basics/techbas/masskat/bsikat. pdf (12 April 2004), 1997, (in German).
- [16] R. für Telekommunikation und Post, "Maßnahmenkatalog für Zertifizierungsstellen nach dem Signaturgesetz," http://www.bsi.de/esig/ basics/techbas/masskat/zertst.pdf (12 April 2004), 1998, (in German).
- [17] V. Karatsiolis, M. Lippert, and A. Wiesmaier, "Using LDAP Directories for Management of PKI Processes," to appear in 1st European PKI Workshop Research and Applications, 2004 (1st EuroPKI).
- [18] T. Straub and H. Baier, "A framework for evaluating the usability and the utility of pki-enabled applications," to appear in 1st European PKI Workshop Research and Applications 2004. (1st EuroPKI).