UNIT - III: EMAIL PRIVACY: Email privacy, Pretty Good Privacy (PGP), PGP and S/MIME, IP Security Overview, IP Security Architecture, Authentication Header, Encapsulating Security Payload, Combining Security Associations, Internet Key Exchange, cryptographic Suites.

TEXTBOOK William Stallings, Network Security Essentials (Applications and Standards), Pearson Education.

PRETTY GOOD PRIVACY

PGP is a remarkable phenomenon. Largely the effort of a single person, Phil Zimmermann, PGP provides a confidentiality and authentication service that can be used for electronic mail and file storage applications. In essence, Zimmermann has done the following:

1. Selected the best available cryptographic algorithms as building blocks.

2. Integrated these algorithms into a general-purpose application that is independent of operating system and processor and that is based on a small set of easy-to-use commands.

3. Made the package and its documentation, including the source code, freely available via the Internet, bulletin boards, and commercial networks such as AOL (America On Line).

4. Entered into an agreement with a company (Viacrypt, now Network Associates) to provide a fully compatible, low-cost commercial version of PGP.

PGP has grown explosively and is now widely used. A number of reasons can be cited for this growth.

1. It is available free worldwide in versions that run on a variety of platforms, including Windows, UNIX, Macintosh, and many more. In addition, the commercial version satisfies users who want a product that comes with vendor support.

2. It is based on algorithms that have survived extensive public review and are considered extremely secure. Specifically, the package includes RSA, DSS, and Diffie-Hellman for public-key encryption;CAST-128, IDEA, and 3DES for symmetric encryption; and SHA-1 for hash coding.

3. It has a wide range of applicability, from corporations that wish to select and enforce a standardized scheme for encrypting files and messages to individuals who wish to communicate securely with others worldwide over the Internet and other networks.

4. It was not developed by, nor is it controlled by, any governmental or standards organization. For those with an instinctive distrust of "the establishment," this makes PGP attractive.

5. PGP is now on an Internet standards track (RFC 3156; *MIME Security with OpenPGP*). Nevertheless, PGP still has an aura of an anti-establishment endeavor.

Notation

Most of the notation used in this chapter has been used before, but a few terms are new.

It is perhaps best to summarize those at the beginning.The following symbols are used.

- K_s = session key used in symmetric encryption scheme
- PR_a = private key of user A, used in public-key encryption scheme
- PU_a = public key of user A, used in public-key encryption scheme
- $EP = public-key encryption$
- $DP = public-key decryption$

 $EC = symmetric encryption$

 $DC =$ symmetric decryption

- $=$ hash function H
- $\|$ = concatenation
- $Z =$ compression using ZIP algorithm
- $R64 =$ conversion to radix 64 ASCII format¹

Operational Description

The actual operation of PGP, as opposed to the management of keys, consists of four services: authentication, confidentiality, compression, and e-mail compatibility

Function	Algorithms Used	Description
Digital signature	DSS/SHA or RSA/SHA	A hash code of a message is created using SHA-1. This message digest is encrypted using DSS or RSA with the sender's private key and included with the message.
Message encryption	CAST or IDEA or Three-key Triple DES with Diffie-Hellman or RSA	A message is encrypted using CAST-128 or IDEA or 3DES with a one-time session key generated by the sender. The session key is encrypted using Diffie-Hellman or RSA with the recipient's public key and included with the message.
Compression	ZIP	A message may be compressed for storage or transmission using ZIP.
E -mail compatibility	Radix-64 conversion	To provide transparency for e-mail applica- tions, an encrypted message may be converted to an ASCII string using radix-64 conversion.

Table 7.1 Summary of PGP Services

AUTHENTICATION

PGP is the digital signature scheme.The sequence is as follows.

1. The sender creates a message.

2. SHA-1 is used to generate a 160-bit hash code of the message.

3. The hash code is encrypted with RSA using the sender's private key, and the

result is prepended to the message.

4. The receiver uses RSA with the sender's public key to decrypt and recover the hash code.

5. The receiver generates a new hash code for the message and compares it with the decrypted hash code. If the two match, the message is accepted as authentic.

The combination of SHA-1 and RSA provides an effective digital signature scheme. Because of the strength of RSA, the recipient is assured that only the possessor of the matching private key can generate the signature. Because of the strength of SHA-1, the recipient is assured that no one else could generate a new message that matches the hash code and, hence, the signature of the original message. As an alternative, signatures can be generated using DSS/SHA-1.

CONFIDENTIALITY Another basic service provided by PGP is confidentiality, which is provided by encrypting messages to be transmitted or to be stored locally as files. In both cases, the symmetric encryption algorithm CAST-128 may be used. Alternatively, IDEA or 3DES may be used.

The sequence, which can be described as follows.

1. The sender generates a message and a random 128-bit number to be used as

a session key for this message only.

2. The message is encrypted using CAST-128 (or IDEA or 3DES) with the session key.

3. The session key is encrypted with RSA using the recipient's public key and is prepended to the message.

4. The receiver uses RSA with its private key to decrypt and recover the session key.

5. The session key is used to decrypt the message.

As an alternative to the use of RSA for key encryption, PGP provides an option referred to as *Diffie-Hellman*. Diffie- Hellman is a key exchange algorithm. In fact, PGP uses a variant of Diffie-Hellman that does provide encryption/decryption, known as ElGamal.

CONFIDENTIALITY AND AUTHENTICATION As, both services may be used for the same message. First, a signature is generated for the plaintext message and prepended to the message. Then the plaintext message plus signature is encrypted using CAST-128 (or IDEA or 3DES), and the session key is encrypted using RSA (or ElGamal). This sequence is preferable to the opposite: encrypting the message and then generating a signature for the encrypted message. It is generally more convenient to store a signature with a plaintext version of a message. Furthermore, for purposes of third-party verification, if the signature is performed first, a third party need not be concerned with the symmetric key when verifying the signature.

COMPRESSION As a default, PGP compresses the message after applying the signature but before encryption. This has the benefit of saving space both for e-mail transmission and for file storage.

The placement of the compression algorithm, indicated by Z for compression and Z–1 for decompression.

1. The signature is generated before compression for two reasons:

a. It is preferable to sign an uncompressed message so that one can store only the uncompressed message together with the signature for future verification. If one signed a compressed document, then it would be necessary either to store a compressed version of the message for later verification or to recompress the message when verification is required.

b. Even if one were willing to generate dynamically a recompressed message for verification, PGP's compression algorithm presents a difficulty. Applying the hash function and signature after compression would constrain all PGP implementations to the same version of the compression algorithm.

2. Message encryption is applied after compression to strengthen cryptographic security. Because the compressed message has less redundancy than the original plaintext, cryptanalysis is more difficult.

E-MAIL COMPATIBILITY When PGP is used, at least part of the block to be transmitted is encrypted. If only the signature service is used, then the message digest is encrypted (with the sender's private key). If the confidentiality service is used, the message plus signature (if present) are encrypted (with a one-time symmetric key). Thus, part or all of the resulting block consists of a stream of arbitrary 8-bit octets. However, many electronic mail systems only permit the use of blocks consisting of ASCII text. To accommodate this restriction, PGP provides the service of converting the raw 8-bit binary stream to a stream of printable ASCII characters.

Flow of PGP is as follows

On transmission (if it is required), a signature is generated using a hash code of the uncompressed plaintext. Then the plaintext (plus signature if present) is compressed. Next, if confidentiality is required, the block (compressed plaintext or compressed signature plus plaintext) is encrypted and prepended with the public-key encrypted symmetric encryption key. Finally, the entire block is converted to radix-64 format.

On reception, the incoming block is first converted back from radix-64 format to binary. Then, if the message is encrypted, the recipient recovers the session key and decrypts the message. The resulting block is then decompressed. If the message is signed, the recipient recovers the transmitted hash code and compares it to its own calculation of the hash code.

(b) Generic reception diagram (to B)

Cryptographic Keys and Key Rings

PGP makes use of four types of keys: one-time session symmetric keys, public keys, private keys, and passphrase-based symmetric keys.

- 1. A means of generating unpredictable session keys is needed.
- 2. We would like to allow a user to have multiple public-key/private-key pairs. One reason is that the user may wish to change his or her key pair from time to time. In addition to the need to change keys over time, a user may wish to have multiple key pairs at a given time to interact with different groups of

correspondents or simply to enhance security by limiting the amount of material encrypted with any one key.

3. Each PGP entity must maintain a file of its own public/private key pairs as well as a file of public keys of correspondents.

SESSION KEY GENERATION

- Each session key is associated with a single message and is used only for the purpose of encrypting and decrypting that message.
- Recall that message encryption/decryption is done with a symmetric encryption algorithm.
- CAST-128 and IDEA use 128-bit keys; 3DES uses a 168-bit key.
- For the following discussion, we assume CAST-128.
- Random 128-bit numbers are generated using CAST-128 itself.
- The input to the random number generator consists of a 128-bit key and two 64-bit blocks that are treated as plaintext to be encrypted. Using cipher feedback mode, the CAST-128 encrypter produces two 64-bit cipher text blocks, which are concatenated to form the 128-bit session key.

KEY IDENTIFIERS

- As we have discussed, an encrypted message is accompanied by an encrypted form of the session key that was used for message encryption.
- The session key itself is encrypted with the recipient's public key.
- Hence, only the recipient will be able to recover the session key and therefore recover the message.
- If each user employed a single public/private key pair, then the recipient would automatically know which key to use to decrypt the session key: the recipient's unique private key.
- We have stated a requirement that any given user may have **multiple public/private key pairs**.

How, then, does the recipient know which of its public keys was used to encrypt the session key?

- \triangleright One simple solution would be to transmit the public key with the message.
- The recipient could then verify that this is indeed one of its public keys, and proceed.
- This scheme would work, but it is unnecessarily wasteful of space.
- An RSA public key may be hundreds of decimal digits in length.
- Another solution would be to associate an identifier with each public key that is unique at least within one user.
- That is, the combination of user ID and key ID would be sufficient to identify a key uniquely.
- Then only the much shorter key ID would need to be transmitted.
- This solution, however, raises a management and overhead problem: Key IDs must be assigned and stored so that both sender and recipient could map from key ID to public key.
- This seems unnecessarily burdensome.
- The solution adopted by PGP is to assign a key ID to each public key that is, with very high probability, unique within a user ID.
- The key ID associated with each public key consists of its least significant 64 bits
- This is a sufficient length that the probability of duplicate key IDs is very small.
- A key ID is also required for the PGP digital signature. Because a sender may use one of a number of private keys to encrypt the message digest, the recipient must know which public key is intended for use.
- Accordingly, the digital signature component of a message includes the 64-bit key ID of the required public key.
- When the message is received, the recipient verifies that the key ID is for a public key that it knows for that sender and then proceeds to verify the signature.

Format of a transmitted message

A message consists of three components: the message component, a signature (optional), and a session key component (optional).

The **message component** includes the actual data to be stored or transmitted, as well as a filename and a timestamp that specifies the time of creation.

The **signature component** includes the following.

- **Timestamp:** The time at which the signature was made.
- **Message digest:** The 160-bit SHA-1 digest encrypted with the sender's private signature key. The digest is calculated over the signature timestamp concatenated with the data portion of the message component. The inclusion of the signature timestamp in the digest insures against replay types of attacks.
- **Leading two octets of message digest:** Enables the recipient to determine if the correct public key was used to decrypt the message digest for authentication by comparing this plaintext copy of the first two

octets with the first two octets of the decrypted digest. These octets also serve as a 16-bit frame check sequence for the message.

 Key ID of sender's public key: Identifies the public key that should be used to decrypt the message digest and, hence, identifies the private key that was used to encrypt the message digest.

The message component and optional signature component may be compressed using ZIP and may be encrypted using a session key.

 The **session key component** includes the session key and the identifier of the recipient's public key that was used by the sender to encrypt the session key. The entire block is usually encoded with radix-64 encoding.

PGP KEY RINGS

Each PGP user has a pair of keyrings to store public and private keys

– public-key ring contains all the public-keys of other PGP users known to this user

Public Key Ring

Private-key ring contains the public/private key pair(s) for this user,

Private keys are encrypted using a key derived from a hashed passphrase.

- **Timestamp:** The date/time when this entry was generated.
- **Key ID:** The least significant 64 bits of the public key for this entry.
- **Public Key:** The public key for this entry.
- **User ID:** Identifies the owner of this key. Multiple user IDs may be associated with a single public key.

Private Kev Ring

Private-key ring

- **Timestamp**: The date/time when this key pair was generated.
- **Key ID:** The least significant 64 bits of the public key for this entry.
- **Public key:** The public-key portion of the pair.
- **Private key:** The private-key portion of the pair; this field is encrypted.
- **User ID**: Typically, this will be the user's e-mail address (e.g., stallings@acm.org). However, the user may choose to associate a different name with each pair (e.g., Stallings, WStallings, WilliamStallings, etc.) or to reuse the same User ID more than once.
- The private-key ring can be indexed by either User ID or Key ID
- Although it is intended that the private-key ring be stored only on the machine of the user that created and owns the key pairs and that it be accessible only to that user, it makes sense to make the value of the private key as secure as possible.
- Accordingly the private key itself is not stored in the key ring.
- Rather this key is encrypted using CAST-128 (or IDEA or 3DES).

The procedure is as follows (for encrypting the private keys and storing the private key ring)

- 1. The user selects a passphrase to be used for encrypting private keys.
- 2. When the system generates a new public/private key pair using RSA it asks the user for the passphrase. Using SHA-1, a 160-bit hash code is generated from the passphrase and the passphrase is discarded.
- 3. The system encrypts the private key using CAST-128 with the 128 bits of the hash code as the key. The hash code is then discarded, and the encrypted private key is stored in the private-key ring.
- Subsequently, when a user accesses the private-key ring to retrieve a private key, he or she must supply the passphrase. PGP will retrieve the encrypted private key, generate the hash code of the passphrase, and decrypt the encrypted private key using CAST-128 with the hash code.

PGP Message Generation (from User A to User B: no compression or radix-64 conversion)

1. Signing the message:

a. PGP retrieves the sender's private key from the private-key ring using your_userid as an index. If your userid was not provided in the command, the first private key on the ring is retrieved. **b.** PGP prompts the user for the passphrase to recover the unencrypted private key.

c. The signature component of the message is constructed.

2. Encrypting the message:

a. PGP generates a session key and encrypts the message.

b. PGP retrieves the recipient's public key from the public-key ring using her userid as an index.

c. The session key component of the message is constructed. The receiving PGP entity performs the following steps.

Figure 7.6 PGP Message Reception (from User A to User B; no compression or radix-64 conversion)

1. Decrypting the message:

a. PGP retrieves the receiver's private key from the private-key ring using the

Key ID field in the session key component of the message as an index.

b. PGP prompts the user for the passphrase to recover the unencrypted private key.

c. PGP then recovers the session key and decrypts the message.

2. Authenticating the message:

a. PGP retrieves the sender's public key from the public-key ring using the Key

ID field in the signature key component of the message as an index.

b. PGP recovers the transmitted message digest.

c. PGP computes the message digest for the received message and compares it

to the transmitted message digest to authenticate.

Public-Key Management

This whole business of protecting public keys from tampering is the single most difficult problem in practical public key applications. It is the "Achilles heel" of public key cryptography, and a lot of software complexity is tied up in solving this one problem.

PGP provides a structure for solving this problem with several suggested options that may be used. Because PGP is intended for use in a variety of formal and informal environments, no rigid public-key management scheme is set up.

APPROACHES TO PUBLIC-KEY MANAGEMENT The essence of the problem is this: User A must build up a publickey ring containing the public keys of other users to interoperate with them using PGP. Suppose that A's key ring contains a public key attributed to B, but in fact the key is owned by C. This could happen, for example, if A got the key from a bulletin board system (BBS) that was used by B to post the public key but that has been compromised by C. The result is that two threats now exist. First, C can send messages to A and forge B's

signature so that A will accept the message as coming from B. Second, any encrypted message from A to B can be read by C.

A number of approaches are possible for minimizing the risk that a user's public-key ring contains false public keys

- 1. Physically get the key from B. B could store her public key (PU_b) on a floppy disk and hand it to A. A could then load the key into his system from the floppy disk. This is a very secure method but has obvious practical limitations.
- 2. Verify a key by telephone. If A can recognize B on the phone, A could call B and ask her to dictate the key, in radix-64 format, over the phone. As a more practical alternative, B could transmit her key in an e-mail message to A.
- 3. Obtain B's public key from a mutual trusted individual D. For this purpose, the introducer, D, creates a signed certificate. The certificate includes B's public key, the time of creation of the key, and a validity period for the key.
- 4. Obtain B's public key from a trusted certifying authority. Again, a public-key certificate is created and signed by the authority. A could then access the authority, providing a user name and receiving a signed certificate.

THE USE OFTRUST

- The basic structure is as follows. Each entry in the public-key ring is a public key certificate
- Associated with each such entry is a **key legitimacy field** that indicates the extent to which PGP will trust that this is a valid public key for this user
- In turn, each signature has associated with it a **signature trust field** that indicates the degree to which this PGP user trusts the signer to certify public keys
- Each entry defines a public key associated with a particular owner, and an **owner trust field** is included that indicates the degree to which this owner is trusted to sign other public-key certificates.

Assigning of trust values by PGP Entity

When A inserts a new public key on the public-key ring, If the owner is A, and therefore this public key also appears in the private-key ring, then a value of *ultimate trust* is automatically assigned to the trust field.

Otherwise, PGP asks A for his assessment of the trust to be assigned to the owner of this key, and A must enter the desired level. The user can specify that this owner is **unknown, untrusted, marginally trusted, or completely trusted.**

- When the new public key is entered, one or more signatures may be attached to it. When a signature is inserted into the entry, PGP searches the public-key ring to see if the author of this signature is among the known public-key owners.
- The value of the key legitimacy field is calculated on the basis of the signature trust fields present in this entry. If at least one signature has a signature trust value of *ultimate*, then the key legitimacy value is set to complete. Otherwise, PGP computes a weighted sum of the trust values

- Note that all keys whose owners are fully or partially trusted by this user have been signed by this user, with the exception of node L. Such a user signature is not always necessary, as the presence of node L indicates, but in practice, most users are likely to sign the keys for most owners that they trust. So, for example, even though E's key is already signed by trusted introducer F, the user chose to sign E's key directly.
- We assume that two partially trusted signatures are sufficient to certify a key. Hence, the key for user H is deemed legitimate by PGP because it is signed by A and B, both of whom are partially trusted.
- A key may be determined to be legitimate because it is signed by one fully trusted or two partially trusted signatories, but its user may not be trusted to sign other keys. For example, N's key is legitimate because it is signed by E, whom this user trusts, but N is not trusted to sign other keys because this user has not assigned N that trust value. Therefore, although R's key is signed by N, PGP does not consider R's key legitimate. This situation makes perfect sense. If you wish to send a private message to some individual, it is not necessary that you trust that individual in any respect. It is only necessary that you are sure that you have the correct public key for that individual.

REVOKING PUBLIC KEYS

- A user may wish to revoke his or her current public key either because compromise is suspected or simply to avoid the use of the same key for an extended period
- The convention for revoking a public key is for the owner to issue a key revocation certificate, signed by the owner. This certificate has the same form as a normal signature certificate but includes an indicator that the purpose of this certificate is to revoke the use of this public key. Note that the corresponding private key must be used to sign a certificate that revokes a public key

S/MIME

Secure/Multipurpose Internet Mail Extension (S/MIME) is a security enhancement to the MIME Internet e-mail format standard based on technology from RSA Data Security. Although both PGP and S/MIME are on an IETF standards track, it appears likely that S/MIME will emerge as the industry standard for commercial and organizational use, while PGP will remain the choice for personal e-mail security for many users. S/MIME is defined in a number of documents—most importantly RFC 3370, 3850, 3851, and 3852.

RFC 5322

RFC 5322 defines a format for text messages that are sent using electronic mail. It has been the standard for Internet-based text mail messages and remains in common use. In the RFC 5322 context, messages are viewed as having an envelope and contents. The envelope contains whatever information is needed to accomplish transmission and delivery. The contents compose the object to be delivered to the recipient.

The overall structure of a message that conforms to RFC 5322 is very simple. A message consists of some number of header lines (*the header*) followed by unrestricted text (*the body*). The header is separated from the body by a blank line.

A header line usually consists of a keyword, followed by a colon, followed by the keyword's arguments; the format allows a long line to be broken up into several lines. The most frequently used keywords are *From*, *To*, *Subject*, and *Date*. Here is an example message:

> Date: October 8, 2009 2:15:49 PM EDT From: "William Stallings" <ws@shore.net> Subject: The Syntax in RFC 5322 To: Smith@Other-host.com Cc: Jones@Yet-Another-Host.com Hello. This section begins the actual message body, which is delimited from the message heading by a blank line.

Limitations of the SMTP/5322 scheme

- SMTP cannot transmit executable files or other binary objects
- SMTP cannot transmit text data that includes national language characters
- SMTP servers may reject mail message over a certain size.
- SMTP gateways that translate between ASCII and the character code EBCDIC do not use a consistent set of mappings, resulting in translation problems.
- SMTP gateways to X.400 electronic mail networks cannot handle non textual data included in X.400 messages.
- Some SMTP implementations do not adhere completely to the SMTP standards defined in RFC 821. Common problems include:
	- Deletion, addition, or reordering of carriage return and linefeed

Truncating or wrapping lines longer than 76 characters

Removal of trailing white space (tab and space characters)

- Padding of lines in a message to the same length
- Conversion of tab characters into multiple space characters

MIME is intended to resolve these problems in a manner

Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions

Multipurpose Internet Mail Extension (MIME) is an extension to the RFC 5322. The MIME specification includes the following elements.

- 1. Five new message header fields are defined, which may be included in an RFC 5322 header. These fields provide information about the body of the message.
- 2. A number of content formats are defined, thus standardizing representations that support multimedia electronic mail.
- 3. Transfer encodings are defined that enable the conversion of any content format into a form that is protected from alteration by the mail system.

The five header fields defined in MIME are

MIME-Version: Must have the parameter value 1.0. This field indicates that the message conforms to RFCs 2045 and 2046.

• **Content-Type:** Describes the data contained in the body with sufficient detail that the receiving user agent can pick an appropriate agent or mechanism to represent the data to the user or otherwise deal with the data in an appropriate manner.

• **Content-Transfer-Encoding:** Indicates the type of transformation that has been used to represent the body of the message in a way that is acceptable for mail transport.

• **Content-ID:** Used to identify MIME entities uniquely in multiple contexts.

• **Content-Description:** A text description of the object with the body; this is useful when the object is not readable (e.g., audio data).

Here is a simple example of a multipart message containing two parts—both consisting of simple text (taken from RFC 2046).

```
From: Nathaniel Borenstein <nsb@bellcore.com>
To: Ned Freed <ned@innosoft.com>
Subject: Sample message
MIME-Version: 1.0
Content-type: multipart/mixed; boundary="simple
boundary"
This is the preamble. It is to be ignored, though it
is a handy place for mail composers to include an
explanatory note to non-MIME conformant readers.
-simple boundary
This is implicitly typed plain ASCII text. It does NOT
end with a linebreak.
-simple boundary
Content-type: text/plain; charset=us-ascii
This is explicitly typed plain ASCII text. It DOES end
with a linebreak.
-simple boundary-
This is the epilogue. It is also to be ignored.
```
MIME CONTENT TYPES

There are four subtypes of the multipart type, all of which have the same overall syntax.

- The **Multipart/Mixed subtype** is used when there are multiple independent body parts that need to be bundled in a particular order.
- For the **multipart/parallel subtype**, the order of the parts is not significant. If the recipient's system is appropriate, the multiple parts can be presented in parallel.
	- For example, a picture or text part could be accompanied by a voice commentary that is played
	- while the picture or text is displayed.
- For the **multipart/alternative subtype**, the various parts are different representations of the same information.
- The **multipart/digest subtype** is used when each of the body parts is interpreted as an RFC 5322 message with headers.
- The **message/partial subtype** enables fragmentation of a large message into a number of parts, which must be reassembled at the destination. For this subtype, three parameters are specified in the Content-Type: Message/Partial field: an *id* common to all fragments of the same message, a *sequence number* unique to each fragment, and the *total* number of fragments

MIME CONTENT TYPES

Table 7.3 MIME Content Types

MIME TRANSFER ENCODINGS

- The objective is to provide reliable delivery across the largest range of environments.
- The MIME standard defines two methods of encoding data. The Content- Transfer-Encoding field can actually take on six values.
Table 7.4 MIME Transfer Encodings
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S/MIME Functionality

In terms of general functionality, S/MIME is very similar to PGP. Both offer the ability to sign and/or encrypt messages.

S/MIME provides the following functions.

- Enveloped data: This consists of encrypted content of any type and encrypted content encryption keys for one or more recipients.
- **Signed data:** A digital signature is formed by taking the message digest of the content to be signed and then encrypting that with the private key of the signer. The content plus signature are then encoded using base64 encoding. A signed data message can only be viewed by a recipient with S/MIME capability.
- **Clear-signed data:** As with signed data, a digital signature of the content is formed. However, in this case, only the digital signature is encoded using base64.As a result, recipients without S/MIME capability can view the message content, although they cannot verify the signature.
- **Signed and enveloped data:** Signed-only and encrypted-only entities may be nested, so that encrypted data may be signed and signed data or clear-signed data may be encrypted.

CRYPTOGRAPHIC ALGORITHMS Table 7.6 summarizes the cryptographic algorithms used in S/MIME. S/MIME uses the following terminology taken from RFC 2119 (*Key Words for use in RFCs to Indicate Requirement Levels*) to specify the requirement level:

• **MUST:** The definition is an absolute requirement of the specification. An implementation must include this feature or function to be in conformance with the specification.

• **SHOULD:** There may exist valid reasons in particular circumstances to ignore this feature or function, but it is recommended that an implementation include the feature or function.

Scope of S/MIME Security

- S/MIME secures a MIME entity
	- a MIME entity is entire message except the headers
	- so the header is not secured
	- First MIME message is prepared
- This message and other security related data (algorithm identifiers, certificates, etc.) are processed by S/MIME

and packed as one of the S/MIME content type

S/MIME Content Types

Table 7.7 S/MIME Content Types

Type	Subtype	smime Parameter	Description
Multipart	Signed		A clear-signed message in two parts: one is the message and the other is the signature.
Application	pkcs7-mime	signedData	A signed S/MIME entity.
	pkcs7-mime	envelopedData	An encrypted S/MIME entity.
	pkcs7-mime	degenerate signedData	An entity containing only public-key certificates.
	pkcs7-mime	CompressedData	A compressed S/MIME entity.
	$pkcs7-$ signature	signedData	The content type of the signature subpart of a multipart/signed message.

ENVELOPED DATA

Used for message encryption

The steps for preparing an enveloped Data MIME entity are

1. Generate a pseudorandom session key for a particular symmetric encryption algorithm (RC2/40 or triple DES).

2. For each recipient, encrypt the session key with the recipient's public RSA key.

3. For each recipient, prepare a block known as RecipientInfo that contains an identifier of the recipient's public-key certificate,3 an identifier of the algorithm used to encrypt the session key, and the encrypted session key.

4. Encrypt the message content with the session key.

To recover the encrypted message, the recipient first strips off the base64 encoding. Then the recipient's private key is used to recover the session key. Finally, the message content is decrypted with the session key.

SIGNEDDATA

The steps for preparing a signedData MIME entity are

1. Select a message digest algorithm (SHA or MD5).

2. Compute the message digest (hash function) of the content to be signed.

3. Encrypt the message digest with the signer's private key.

4. Prepare a block known as SignerInfo that contains the signer's publickey certificate, an identifier of the message digest algorithm, an identifier of the algorithm used to encrypt the message digest, and the encrypted message digest.

To recover the signed message and verify the signature, the recipient first strips off the base64 encoding. Then the signer's public key is used to decrypt the message digest. The recipient independently computes the message digest and compares it to the decrypted message digest to verify the signature.

CLEAR SIGNING

Clear signing is achieved using the multipart content type with a signed subtype. As was mentioned, this signing process does not involve transforming the message to be signed, so that the message is sent "in the clear." Thus, recipients with MIME capability but not S/MIME capability are able to read the incoming message.

A multipart/signed message has two parts. The first part can be any MIME type but must be prepared so that it will not be altered during transfer from source to destination.This means that if the first part is not 7bit, then it needs to be encoded using base64 or quoted-printable.Then this part is processed in the same manner as

signedData, but in this case an object with signedData format is created that has an empty message content field. This object is a detached signature.

S/MIME Certificate Processing

S/MIME uses public-key certificates that conform to version 3 of X.509. The key-management scheme used by S/MIME is in some ways a hybrid between a strict X.509 certification hierarchy and PGP's web of trust.

USER AGENT ROLE An S/MIME user has several key-management functions to

perform.

• **Key generation:** The user of some related administrative utility (e.g., one associated with LAN management) MUST be capable of generating separate Diffie-Hellman and DSS key pairs and SHOULD be capable of generating RSA key pairs. Each key pair MUST be generated from a good source of nondeterministic random input and be protected in a secure fashion. A user agent SHOULD generate RSA key pairs with a length in the range of 768 to 1024 bits and MUST NOT generate a length of less than 512 bits.

• **Registration:** A user's public key must be registered with a certification authority in order to receive an X.509 public-key certificate.

• **Certificate storage and retrieval:** A user requires access to a local list of certificates in order to verify incoming signatures and to encrypt outgoing messages. Such a list could be maintained by the user or by some local administrative entity on behalf of a number of users.

VERISIGN CERTIFICATES

VeriSign provides a CA service that is intended to be compatible with S/MIME and a variety of other applications. VeriSign issues X.509 certificates with the product name VeriSign Digital ID. As of early 1998, over 35,000 commercial Web sites were using VeriSign Server Digital IDs, and over a million consumer Digital IDs had been issued to users of Netscape and Microsoft browsers.

At a minimum, each Digital ID contains

- Owner's public key
- Owner's name or alias
- Expiration date of the Digital ID
- Serial number of the Digital ID
- Name of the certification authority that issued the Digital ID
- Digital signature of the certification authority that issued the Digital ID.

Digital IDs can also contain other user-supplied information, including

- Address
- E-mail address
- Basic registration information (country, zip code, age, and gender).

VeriSign provides three levels, or classes, of security for public-key certificates, as summarized in Table 7.8.

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Summary of Confirmation of Identity	Automated unam- biguous name and e-mail address search.	Same as Class 1, plus automated enrollment infor- mation check and automated address check.	Same as Class 1, plus personal presence and ID documents plus Class 2 automated ID check for individuals; business records (or filings) for organizations.
IA Private Key Protection	PCA: trustworthy hardware; CA: trust- worthy software or trustworthy hardware.	PCA and CA: trustworthy hardware.	PCA and CA: trustworthy hardware.
Certificate Applicant and Subscriber Private Key Protection	Encryption software (PIN protected) recommended but not required.	Encryption software (PIN protected) required.	Encryption software (PIN protected) required; hardware token recommended but not required.
Applications Implemented or Contemplated by Users	Web-browsing and certain e-mail usage.	Individual and intra- and inter-company e-mail, online subscriptions, password replacement, and software validation.	E-banking, corp. database access, personal banking, membership-based online services, content integrity services, e-commerce server, software validation; authenti- cation of LRAAs; and strong encryption for certain servers.

Table 7.8 Verisign Public-Key Certificate Classes

IA $=$ Issuing Authority

 CA $=$ Certification Authority

 $PCA = VeriSign public primary certification authority$

 $PIN = Personal Identification Number$

LRAA = Local Registration Authority Administrator

Enhanced Security Services

As of this writing, three enhanced security services have been proposed in an Internet draft. The details of these may change, and additional services may be added. The three services are

• **Signed receipts:** A signed receipt may be requested in a SignedData object. Returning a signed receipt provides proof of delivery to the originator of a message and allows the originator to demonstrate to a third party that the recipient received the message. In essence, the recipient signs the entire original message plus the original (sender's) signature and appends the new signature to form a new S/MIME message.

• **Security labels:** A security label may be included in the authenticated attributes of a SignedData object. A security label is a set of security information regarding the sensitivity of the content that is protected by S/MIME encapsulation. The labels may be used for access control, by indicating which users are permitted access to an object. Other uses include priority (secret, confidential, restricted, and so on) or role based, describing which kind of people can see the information (e.g., patient's health-care team, medical billing agents, etc.).

• **Secure mailing lists:** When a user sends a message to multiple recipients, a certain amount of per-recipient processing is required, including the use of each recipient's public key. The user can be relieved of this work by employing the services of an S/MIME Mail List Agent (MLA). An MLA can take a single incoming message, perform the recipient-specific encryption for each recipient, and forward the message.The originator of a message need only send the message to the MLA with encryption performed using the MLA's public key

IP SECURITY OVERVIEW

- In 1994, the Internet Architecture Board (IAB) issued a report titled "Security in the Internet Architecture" (RFC 1636).
- The report focussed the need to secure the network infrastructure from unauthorized monitoring and control of network traffic and the need to secure end-user-to-end-user traffic using authentication and encryption mechanisms
- To provide security, the IAB included authentication and encryption as necessary security features in the next-generation IP, which has been issued as IPv6 & IPV4
- This means that vendors can begin offering these features now, and many vendors now do have some IPsec capability in their products.

Applications of IPsec:

IPsec provides the capability to secure communications across a LAN, across private and public WANs, and across the Internet.

- **Secure branch office connectivity over the Internet:** A company can build a secure virtual private network over the Internet or over a public WAN. This enables a business to rely heavily on the Internet and reduce its need for private networks, saving costs and network management overhead.
- **Secure remote access over the Internet:** An end user whose system is equipped with IP security protocols can make a local call to an Internet Service Provider (ISP) and gain secure access to a company network. This reduces the cost of toll charges for traveling employees and telecommuters.
- **Establishing extranet and intranet connectivity with partners:** IPsec can be used to secure communication with other organizations, ensuring authentication and confidentiality and providing a key exchange mechanism
- **Enhancing electronic commerce security:** Even though some Web and electronic commerce applications have built-in security protocols, the use of IPsec enhances that security. IPsec guarantees that all traffic designated by the network administrator is both encrypted and authenticated, adding an additional layer of security to whatever is provided at the application layer

Benefits of IPsec Some of the benefits of IPsec:

- When IPsec is implemented in a firewall or router, it provides strong security that can be applied to all traffic crossing the perimeter. Traffic within a company or workgroup does not incur the overhead of security-related processing.
- IPsec in a firewall is resistant to bypass if all traffic from the outside must use IP and the firewall is the only means of entrance from the Internet into the organization.
- There is no need to change software on a user or server system when IPsec is implemented in the firewall or router. Even if IPsec is implemented in end systems applications, is not affected.
- There is no need to train users on security mechanisms, issue keying material on a per-user basis, or revoke keying material.
- IPsec can provide security for individual users if needed. This is useful for offsite workers and for setting up a secure virtual subnetwork within an organization for sensitive applications.

Routing Applications

IPsec can play a vital role in the routing architecture required for internetworking. IPsec can assure that

- A router advertisement (a new router advertises its presence) comes from an authorized router.
- A neighbor advertisement (a router seeks to establish or maintain a neighbour relationship with a router in another routing domain) comes from an authorized router.
- A redirect message comes from the router to which the initial IP packet was sent.

• A routing update is not forged.

IPsec Documents

IPsec encompasses three functional areas: authentication, confidentiality, and key management. The documents can be categorized into the following groups.

- **Architecture:** Covers the general concepts, security requirements, definitions, and mechanisms defining IPsec technology. The current specification is RFC 4301, *Security Architecture for the Internet Protocol*.
- **Authentication Header (AH):** <u>AH is an extension header to provide message authentication</u>. The current specification is RFC 4302, *IP Authentication Header*.
- **Encapsulating Security Payload (ESP):** ESP consists of an encapsulating header and trailer used to provide encryption or combined encryption/authentication. The current specification is RFC 4303, *IP Encapsulating Security Payload (ESP)*.
- **Internet Key Exchange (IKE):** This is a collection of documents describing the key management schemes for use with IPsec. The main specification is RFC 4306, *Internet Key Exchange (IKEv2) Protocol*, but there are a number of related RFCs.
- **Cryptographic algorithms:** This category encompasses a large set of documents that define and describe cryptographic algorithms for encryption, message authentication, pseudorandom functions (PRFs), and cryptographic key exchange.
- **Other:** There are a variety of other IPsec-related RFCs, including those dealing with security policy and management information base (MIB) content.

IPsec Services

RFC 4301 lists the following services:

- Access control
- Connectionless integrity
- Data origin authentication
- Rejection of replayed packets (a form of partial sequence integrity)
- Confidentiality (encryption)
- Limited traffic flow confidentiality

Transport and Tunnel Modes

Both AH and ESP support two modes of use: transport and tunnel mode.

TRANSPORT MODE Transport mode provides protection primarily for upper-layer Protocols. Examples include a TCP or UDP segment or an ICMP packet. Typically, transport mode is used for end-to-end communication between two hosts.

ESP in transport mode encrypts and optionally authenticates the IP payload but not the IP header. AH in transport mode authenticates the IP payload and selected portions of the IP header.

TUNNEL MODE Tunnel mode provides protection to the entire IP packet. To achieve this, after the AH or ESP fields are added to the IP packet, the entire packet plus security fields is treated as the payload of new outer IP packet with a new outer IP header. The entire original, inner, packet travels through a tunnel from one point of an IP network to another; no routers along the way are able to examine the inner IP header. Because the original packet is encapsulated, the new, larger packet may have totally different source and destination addresses, adding to the security.

Here is an example of how tunnel mode IPsec operates. Host A on a network generates an IP packet with the destination address of host B on another network. This packet is routed from the originating host to a firewall or secure router at the boundary of A's network. The firewall filters all outgoing packets to determine the need for

IPsec processing. If this packet from A to B requires IPsec, the firewall performs IPsec processing and encapsulates the packet with an outer IP header. The source IP address of this outer IP packet is this firewall, and the destination address may be a firewall that forms the boundary to B's local network. This packet is now routed to B's firewall, with intermediate routers examining only the outer IP header. At B's firewall, the outer IP header is stripped off, and the inner packet is delivered to B.

ESP in tunnel mode encrypts and optionally authenticates the entire inner IP packet, including the inner IP header. AH in tunnel mode authenticates the entire inner IP packet and selected portions of the outer IP header.

	Transport Mode SA	Tunnel Mode SA
AH	Authenticates IP payload and selected portions of IP header and IPv6 extension headers.	Authenticates entire inner IP packet (inner header plus IP payload) plus selected portions of outer IP header and outer IPv6 extension headers.
ESP	Encrypts IP payload and any IPv6 exten- sion headers following the ESP header.	Encrypts entire inner IP packet.
ESP with Authentication	Encrypts IP payload and any IPv6 extension headers following the ESP header. Authenticates IP payload but not IP header.	Encrypts entire inner IP packet. Authenticates inner IP packet.

Table 8.1 Tunnel Mode and Transport Mode Functionality

ENCAPSULATING SECURITY PAYLOAD

ESP can be used to provide confidentiality, data origin authentication, connectionless integrity, an anti-replay service (a form of partial sequence integrity), and (limited) traffic flow confidentiality.

ESP Format

- **Security Parameters Index (32 bits):** Identifies a security association.
- **Sequence Number (32 bits):** A monotonically increasing counter value; this provides an anti-replay function, as discussed for AH.
- **Payload Data (variable):** This is a transport-level segment (transport mode) or IP packet (tunnel mode) that is protected by encryption.
- **Padding (0–255 bytes):** The purpose of this field is discussed later.
- Pad Length (8 bits): Indicates the number of pad bytes immediately preceding this field.
- Next Header (8 bits): Identifies the type of data contained in the payload data field by identifying the first header in that payload (for example, an extension header in IPv6, or an upper-layer protocol such as TCP).
- **Integrity Check Value (variable):** A variable-length field (must be an integral number of 32-bit words) that contains the Integrity Check Value computed over the ESP packet minus the Authentication Data field.

Encryption and Authentication Algorithms

The Payload Data, Padding, Pad Length, and Next Header fields are encrypted by the ESP service. If the algorithm used to encrypt the payload requires cryptographic synchronization data, such as an initialization vector (IV), then these data may be carried explicitly at the beginning of the Payload Data field. If included, an IV is usually not encrypted, although it is often referred to as being part of the ciphertext.

The ICV field is optional. potentially reducing the impact of denial of service (DoS) attacks. It also allows for the possibility of parallel processing of packets at the receiver, i.e., decryption can take place in parallel with integrity checking.

Padding

The Padding field serves several purposes:

• If an encryption algorithm requires the plaintext to be a multiple of some number of bytes (e.g., the multiple of a single block for a block cipher), the Padding field is used to expand the plaintext (consisting of the Payload Data, Padding, Pad Length, and Next Header fields) to the required length.

• The ESP format requires that the Pad Length and Next Header fields be right aligned within a 32-bit word. Equivalently, the ciphertext must be an integer multiple of 32 bits. The Padding field is used to assure this alignment.

• Additional padding may be added to provide partial traffic-flow confidentiality by concealing the actual length of the payload.

Anti-Replay Service

A **replay attack** is one in which an attacker obtains a copy of an authenticated packet and later transmits it to the intended destination. The receipt of duplicate, authenticated IP packets may disrupt service in some way or may have some other undesired consequence. The Sequence Number field is designed to thwart such attacks.

When a new SA is established, the **sender** initializes a sequence number counter to 0. Each time that a packet is sent on this SA, the sender increments the counter and places the value in the Sequence Number field. Thus, the first value to be used is 1. If anti-replay is enabled (the default), the sender must not allow the sequence number to cycle past 2^{32} – 1 back to zero. Otherwise, there would be multiple valid packets with the same sequence number. If the limit of $2^{32} - 1$ is reached, the sender should terminate this SA and negotiate a new SA with a new key.

Because IP is a connectionless, unreliable service, the protocol does not guarantee that packets will be delivered in order and does not guarantee that all packets will be delivered. Therefore, the IPsec authentication document dictates that the **receiver** should implement a window of size W, with a default of W = 64.The right edge of the window represents the highest sequence number, , so far received for a valid packet. For any packet with a sequence number in the range from $N - W + 1$ to N that has been correctly received (i.e., properly authenticated), the corresponding slot in the window is marked (Figure 8.6). Inbound processing proceeds as follows when a packet is received:

- 1. If the received packet falls within the window and is new, the MAC is checked. If the packet is authenticated, the corresponding slot in the window is marked.
- 2. If the received packet is to the right of the window and is new, the MAC is checked. If the packet is authenticated, the window is advanced so that this sequence number is the right edge of the window, and the corresponding slot in the window is marked.
- 3. If the received packet is to the left of the window or if authentication fails, the packet is discarded; this is an auditable event.

Transport and Tunnel Modes

Figure 8.7 shows two ways in which the IPsec ESP service can be used. In the upper part of the figure, encryption (and optionally authentication) is provided directly between two hosts. Figure 8.7b shows how tunnel mode operation can be used to set up a **virtual private network**. In this example, an organization has four private networks interconnected across the Internet. Hosts on the internal networks use the Internet for transport of data but do not interact with other Internet-based hosts. By terminating the tunnels at the security gateway to each internal network, the configuration allows the hosts to avoid implementing the security capability. The former technique is supported by a transport mode SA, while the latter technique uses a tunnel mode SA.

TRANSPORT MODE ESP Transport mode ESP is used to encrypt and optionally authenticate the data carried by IP (e.g., a TCP segment), as shown in Figure 8.8b.

(b) A virtual private network via tunnel mode

Figure 8.7 Transport-Mode versus Tunnel-Mode Encryption

(c) Tunnel Mode

Scope of ESP Encryption and Authentication Figure 8.8

For this mode using IPv4, the ESP header is inserted into the IP packet immediately prior to the transport-layer header (e.g., TCP, UDP, ICMP), and an ESP trailer (Padding, Pad Length, and Next Header fields) is placed after the IP packet. If authentication is selected, the ESP Authentication Data field is added after the ESP trailer. The entire transport-level segment plus the ESP trailer are encrypted. Authentication covers all of the ciphertext plus the ESP header.

In the context of IPv6, ESP is viewed as an end-to-end payload; that is, it is not examined or processed by intermediate routers. Therefore, the ESP header appears after the IPv6 base header and the hop-by-hop, routing, and fragment extension headers. The destination options extension header could appear before or after the ESP header, depending on the semantics desired. For IPv6, encryption covers the entire transport-level segment plus the ESP trailer plus the destination options extension header if it occurs after the ESP header. Again, authentication covers the ciphertext plus the ESP header.

Transport mode operation may be summarized as follows.

1. At the source, the block of data consisting of the ESP trailer plus the entire transport-layer segment is encrypted and the plaintext of this block is replaced with its ciphertext to form the IP packet for transmission. Authentication is added if this option is selected.

2. The packet is then routed to the destination. Each intermediate router needs to examine and process the IP header plus any plaintext IP extension headers but does not need to examine the ciphertext.

3. The destination node examines and processes the IP header plus any plaintext IP extension headers. Then, on the basis of the SPI in the ESP header, the destination node decrypts the remainder of the packet to recover the plaintext transport-layer segment.

TUNNEL MODE ESP Tunnel mode ESP is used to encrypt an entire IP packet (Figure 8.8c). For this mode, the ESP header is prefixed to the packet and then the packet plus the ESP trailer is encrypted. This method can be used to counter traffic analysis.

Because the IP header contains the destination address and possibly source routing directives and hop-by-hop option information, it is not possible simply to transmit the encrypted IP packet prefixed by the ESP header. Intermediate routers would be unable to process such a packet. Therefore, it is necessary to encapsulate the entire block (ESP header plus ciphertext plus Authentication Data, if present) with a new IP header that will contain sufficient information for routing but not for traffic analysis.

Whereas the transport mode is suitable for protecting connections between hosts that support the ESP feature, the tunnel mode is useful in a configuration that includes a firewall or other sort of security gateway that protects a trusted network from external networks. In this latter case, encryption occurs only between an external host and the security gateway or between two security gateways. This relieves hosts on the internal network of the processing burden of encryption and simplifies the key distribution task by reducing the number of needed keys. Further, it thwarts traffic analysis based on ultimate destination. Consider a case in which an external host wishes to communicate with a host on an internal network protected by a firewall, and in which ESP is implemented in the external host and the firewalls.

The following steps occur for transfer of a transport- layer segment from the external host to the internal host. **1.** The source prepares an inner IP packet with a destination address of the target internal host. This packet is prefixed by an ESP header; then the packet and ESP trailer are encrypted and Authentication Data may be added. The resulting block is encapsulated with a new IP header (base header plus optional extensions such as routing and hop-by-hop options for IPv6) whose destination address is the firewall; this forms the outer IP packet.

2. The outer packet is routed to the destination firewall. Each intermediate router needs to examine and process the outer IP header plus any outer IP extension headers but does not need to examine the ciphertext. **3.** The destination firewall examines and processes the outer IP header plus any outer IP extension headers. Then, on the basis of the SPI in the ESP header, the destination node decrypts the remainder of the packet to recover the plaintext inner IP packet. This packet is then transmitted in the internal network.

4. The inner packet is routed through zero or more routers in the internal network to the destination host.

COMBINING SECURITY ASSOCIATIONS

An individual SA can implement either the AH or ESP protocol but not both. Sometimes a particular traffic flow will call for the services provided by both AH and ESP.

The term *security association bundle* refers to a sequence of SAs through which traffic must be processed to provide a desired set of IPsec services.

Security associations may be combined into bundles in two ways:

Transport adjacency: Refers to applying more than one security protocol to the same IP packet without invoking tunneling. This approach to combining AH and ESP allows for only one level of combination.

Iterated tunneling: Refers to the application of multiple layers of security protocols effected through IP tunneling. This approach allows for multiple levels of nesting.

(a) Transport mode

(b) Tunnel mode

Figure 8.9 Protocol Operation for ESP

Authentication Plus Confidentiality

Encryption and authentication can be combined in order to transmit an IP packet that has both confidentiality and authentication between hosts. We look at several approaches.

Approach 1: *ESP WITH AUTHENTICATION OPTION*

This approach is illustrated in Figure 8.8. In this approach, the user first applies ESP to the data to be protected and then appends the authentication data field. For both cases, authentication applies to the ciphertext rather than the plaintext. There are actually two subcases:

• **Transport mode ESP:** Authentication and encryption apply to the IP payload delivered to the host, but the IP header is not protected.

• **Tunnel mode ESP:** Authentication applies to the entire IP packet delivered to the outer IP destination address (e.g., a firewall), and authentication is performed at that destination. The entire inner IP packet is protected by the privacy mechanism for delivery to the inner IP destination.

Approach 2: *TRANSPORT ADJACENCY*

Another way to apply authentication after encryption is to use two bundled transport SAs, with the inner being an ESP SA and the outer being an AH SA

Approach 3: *TRANSPORT-TUNNEL BUNDLE* The use of authentication prior to encryption might be preferable for several reasons. First, because the authentication data are protected by encryption, it is impossible for anyone to intercept the message and alter the authentication data without detection. Second, it may be desirable to store the authentication information with the message at the destination for later reference. It is more convenient to do this if the authentication information applies to the unencrypted message; otherwise the message would have to be re-encrypted to verify the authentication information.

One approach to applying authentication before encryption between two hosts is to use a bundle consisting of an inner AH transport SA and an outer ESP tunnel SA. In this case, authentication is applied to the IP payload plus the IP header (and extensions) except for mutable fields. The resulting IP packet is then processed in tunnel mode by ESP; the result is that the entire, authenticated inner packet is encrypted and a new outer IP header (and extensions) is added.

Basic Combinations of Security Associations The IPsec Architecture document lists four examples of combinations of SAs.

Figure 8.10 Basic Combinations of Security Associations

Case 1. All security is provided between end systems that implement IPsec. For any two end systems to communicate via an SA, they must share the appropriate secret keys.

Case 2. Security is provided only between gateways (routers, firewalls, etc.) and no hosts implement IPsec. This case illustrates simple virtual private network support.

Case 3. This builds on case 2 by adding end-to-end security.The same combinations discussed for cases 1 and 2 are allowed here.The gateway-to-gateway tunnel provides either authentication, confidentiality, or both for all traffic between end systems.

Case 4. This provides support for a remote host that uses the Internet to reach an organization's firewall and then to gain access to some server or workstation behind the firewall.

INTERNET KEY EXCHANGE

The key management portion of IPsec involves the determination and distribution of secret keys. A typical requirement is four keys for communication between two applications. The IPsec Architecture document mandates support for two types of key management:

Manual: A system administrator manually configures each system with its own keys and with the keys of other communicating systems. This is practical for small, relatively static environments. • **Automated:** An automated system enables the on-demand creation of keys for SAs and facilitates the use of keys in a large distributed system with an evolving configuration.

The default automated key management protocol for IPsec is referred to as ISAKMP/Oakley and consists of the following elements:

• **Oakley Key Determination Protocol:** Oakley is a key exchange protocol based on the Diffie-Hellman algorithm but providing added security. Oakley is generic in that it does not dictate specific formats. • **Internet Security Association and Key Management Protocol (ISAKMP):** ISAKMP provides a framework for Internet key management and provides the specific protocol support, including formats, for negotiation of security attributes. This doesnot follow any particular algorithm but consists of message types

Key Determination Protocol

IKE key determination is a refinement of the Diffie-Hellman key exchange algorithm. Recall that Diffie-Hellman involves the following interaction between users A and B. There is prior agreement on two global parameters: q , a large prime number; and α , a primitive root of q. A selects a random integer X_A as its private key and transmits to B its public key $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \mod q$. Similarly, B selects a random integer X_B as its private key and transmits to A its public key $Y_B = \alpha^{X_B} \text{ mod } q$. Each side can now compute the secret session key:

$$
K = (Y_B)^{X_A} \mod q = (Y_A)^{X_B} \mod q = \alpha^{X_A X_B} \mod q
$$

The Diffie-Hellman algorithm has two attractive features:

- Secret keys are created only when needed. There is no need to store secret keys for a long period of time, exposing them to increased vulnerability.
- The exchange requires no pre-existing infrastructure other than an agreement on the global parameters.

However, there are a number of weaknesses to Diffie-Hellman, as pointed out in [HUIT98].

- It does not provide any information about the identities of the parties.
- It is subject to a man-in-the-middle attack, in which a third party C impersonates B while communicating with A and impersonates A while communicating with B. Both A and B end up negotiating a key with C, which can then listen to and pass on traffic. The man-in-the-middle attack proceeds as
	- 1. B sends his public key Y_B in a message addressed to A (see Figure 3.13).
	- 2. The enemy (E) intercepts this message. E saves B's public key and sends a message to A that has B's User ID but E's public key Y_E . This message is

sent in such a way that it appears as though it was sent from B's host system. A receives E's message and stores E's public key with B's User ID. Similarly, E sends a message to B with E's public key, purporting to come from A.

- 3. B computes a secret key K_1 based on B's private key and Y_E . A computes a secret key K_2 based on A's private key and Y_E . E computes K_1 using E's secret key X_E and Y_B and computers K_2 using X_E and Y_A .
- 4. From now on, E is able to relay messages from A to B and from B to A, appropriately changing their encipherment en route in such a way that neither A nor B will know that they share their communication with E.
- It is computationally intensive. As a result, it is vulnerable to a clogging attack, in which an opponent requests a high number of keys. The victim spends considerable computing resources doing useless modular exponentiation rather than real work.

FEATURES OF IKE KEY DETERMINATION The IKE key determination algorithm is characterized by five important features:

- **1.** It employs a mechanism known as cookies to thwart clogging attacks.
- **2.** It enables the two parties to negotiate a *group*; this, in essence, specifies the global

parameters of the Diffie-Hellman key exchange.

3. It uses nonces to ensure against replay attacks.

4. It enables the exchange of Diffie-Hellman public key values.

5. It authenticates the Diffie-Hellman exchange to thwart man-in-the-middle attacks.

The **cookie exchange** requires that each side send a pseudorandom number, the cookie, in the initial message, which the other side acknowledges. This acknowledgment must be repeated in the first message of the Diffie-Hellman key exchange. If the source address was forged, the opponent gets no answer. Thus, an opponent can only force a user to generate acknowledgments and not to perform the Diffie-Hellman calculation.

- **1.** The cookie must depend on the specific parties
- **2.** It must not be possible for anyone other than the issuing entity to generate cookies that will be accepted by that entity.
- **3.** The cookie generation and verification methods must be fast to thwart attacks intended to sabotage processor resources.

The recommended method for creating the cookie is to perform a fast hash (e.g., MD5) over the IP Source and Destination addresses, the UDP Source and Destination ports, and a locally generated secret value.

IKE key determination supports the use of different groups for the Diffie-Hellman key exchange. Each group includes the definition of the two global parameters and the identity of the algorithm. The current specification includes the following groups.

• Modular exponentiation with a 768-bit modulus

$$
q = 2^{768} - 2^{704} - 1 + 2^{64} \times (\lfloor 2^{638} \times \pi \rfloor + 149686)
$$

$$
\alpha = 2
$$

• Modular exponentiation with a 1024-bit modulus

$$
q = 2^{1024} - 2^{960} - 1 + 2^{64} \times (\lfloor 2^{894} \times \pi \rfloor + 129093)
$$

$$
\alpha = 2
$$

- Modular exponentiation with a 1536-bit modulus
	- Parameters to be determined
- Elliptic curve group over 2^{155}
	- Generator (hexadecimal): $X = 7B$, $Y = 1C8$
	- Elliptic curve parameters (hexadecimal): $A = 0$, $Y = 7338F$
- Elliptic curve group over 2^{185}
	- Generator (hexadecimal): $X = 18, Y = D$
	- Elliptic curve parameters (hexadecimal): $A = 0, Y = 1EE9$

Symmetric-key encryption: A key derived by some out-of-band mechanism can be used to authenticate the exchange by symmetric encryption of exchange parameters.

Three different **authentication** methods can be used with IKE key determination:

[•] **Digital signatures:** The exchange is authenticated by signing a mutually obtainable hash; each party encrypts the hash with its private key. The hash is generated over important parameters, such as user IDs and nonces. • **Public-key encryption:** The exchange is authenticated by encrypting parameters such as IDs and nonces with the sender's private key.

IKE^{\prime}*2 Exchanges* The IKE^{\prime}₂ protocol involves the exchange of messages in pairs. The first two pairs of exchanges are referred to as the **initial exchanges** (Figure 8.11a). In the first exchange, the two peers exchange information concerning cryptographic algorithms and other security parameters they are willing to use along with nonces and Diffie-Hellman (DH) values.

In the second exchange, the two parties authenticate. The **CREATE_CHILD_SA exchange** can be used to establish further SAs for protecting traffic. The **informational exchange** is used to exchange management information, IKEv2 error messages, and other notifications.

Initiator

Responder

Header and Payload Formats

 $IDx = identity$

 $CERT = certificate$

CERTREQ = Certificate request

IKE HEADER FORMAT An IKE message consists of an IKE header followed by one or more payloads. It consists of the following fields.

 $N = Notify$

 $D = Delete$

 $CP =$ Configuration

- **•** Initiator SPI (64 bits): A value chosen by the initiator to identify a unique IKE security association (SA).
- **Responder SPI (64 bits):** A value chosen by the responder to identify a unique IKE SA.
- Next Payload (8 bits): Indicates the type of the first payload in the message; payloads are discussed in the next subsection.
- **Major Version (4 bits):** Indicates major version of IKE in use.
- **Minor Version (4 bits):** Indicates minor version in use.
- **Exchange Type (8 bits):** Indicates the type of exchange; these are discussed later in this section.
- **Flags (8 bits):** Indicates specific options set for this IKE exchange. Three bits are defined so far.The initiator bit indicates whether this packet is sent by the SA initiator. The version bit indicates whether the transmitter is capable of using a higher major version number than the one currently indicated. The response bit indicates whether this is a response to a message containing the same message ID
- Message ID (32 bits): Used to control retransmission of lost packets and matching of requests and responses.
- Length (32 bits): Length of total message (header plus all payloads) in octets

IKE PAYLOAD TYPES

Table 8.3 IKE Payload Types

CRYPTOGRAPHIC SUITES

RFC 4308 defines two cryptographic suites for establishing virtual private networks. Suite VPN-A matches the commonly used corporate VPN security used in older IKEv1 implementations at the time of the issuance of IKEv2 in 2005. Suite VPN-B provides stronger security and is recommended for new VPNs that implement IPsecv3 and IKEv2

Table 8.4 Cryptographic Suites for IPsec

(a) Virtual private networks (RFC 4308)

VPN-A relies on 3DES and HMAC, while VPN-B relies exclusively on AES. Three types of secret-key algorithms are used:

• **Encryption:** For encryption, the cipher block chaining (CBC) mode is used.

• **Message authentication:** For message authentication, VPN-A relies on HMAC with SHA-1 with the output truncated to 96 bits. VPN-B relies on a variant of CMAC with the output truncated to 96 bits.

• **Pseudorandom function:** IKEv2 generates pseudorandom bits by repeated use of the MAC used for message authentication.

(b) NSA Suite B (RFC 4869)