

IoT Security and Privacy: Basic Knowledge

CPS and IoT Security

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- An Internet of Things (IoT) describes a group of physical devices equipped with sensing, processing, and communication capabilities able to exchange information with each other over the Internet or other communication networks
- It is a result of development in different fields, including embedded devices, sensor networks, automation, and control systems
- We have already seen examples of internet of things

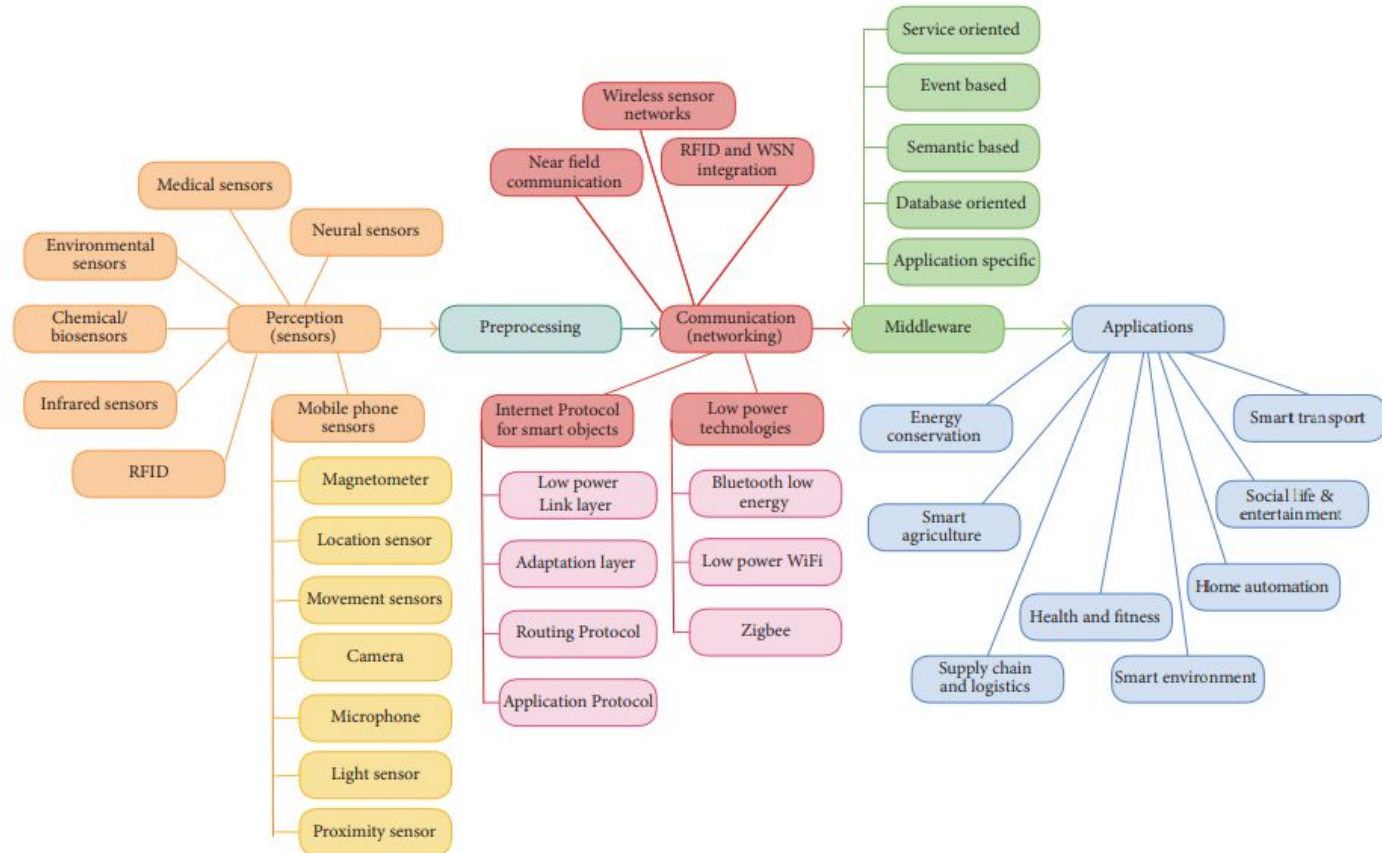
IoT Taxonomy



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- An IoT system consist of three main layers: i) devices, ii) edge gateway, iii) cloud
- Devices are the *things*, i.e., those devices equipped with sensors and actuators that collect data and report it to the gateway
- Gateway is a data aggregation system to pre-process data, securing connectivity to cloud, the event hub, and sometimes fog computing
- Cloud contains the applications built using microservices, storage, event queuing, and messaging systems



- We expect IoT networks to comprise a huge number of devices
- We use IETF IPv6 over Low-Power Wireless Personal Area Network (6LoWPAN)
- Usually operates on top of IEEE 802.15.4 defined for low rate - PAN
- For industrial networks, we have IPv6 over TSCH model of IEEE 802.15.4e (6TiSCH)
- Data transport is provided by IETF Constrained Application Protocol (CoAP), ZeroMQ, and MQTT



- Low Rate PAN standard specifying lower protocol layers (physical and MAC)
- Addressing uses a 64 bit node ID and 16 bit net ID
- Basic channel access mode is carrier-sense multiple access with collision avoidance (CSMA/CA)
- Check whether channel is occupied, if not send a RTS packet and wait for CTS
- If CTS received, send packet
- Uses data packets and ack packets

Data Packet format

1 byte	2 bytes	1 byte	0/2/4/10 bytes	0/2/4/10 bytes	variable	2 bytes
Len.	Flags	Seq. No	Dest. Address	Source Address	Data payload	CRC

Also indicates whether
security is enabled

ACK Packet format

1 byte	2 bytes	1 byte	2 bytes
Len.	Flags	Seq. No	CRC



- A link layer security protocol needs to provide four basic security services: access control, message integrity, message confidentiality, and replay protection
- In 802.15.4 security is handled at the media access control layer
- The application specifies the security stack and sets the appropriate control parameters
- Security is not enabled by default



- An application has a choice of *security suites* that controls the type of security protections provided for the transmitted data
- It defines eight different security suites
 - No security
 - Encryption only (AES-CTR)
 - Authentication only (AES-CBC-MAC)
 - Encryption and authentication (AES-CCM)
- Each category that supports authentication comes into three variants depending on the size of the MAC (4, 8, or 16 bytes)

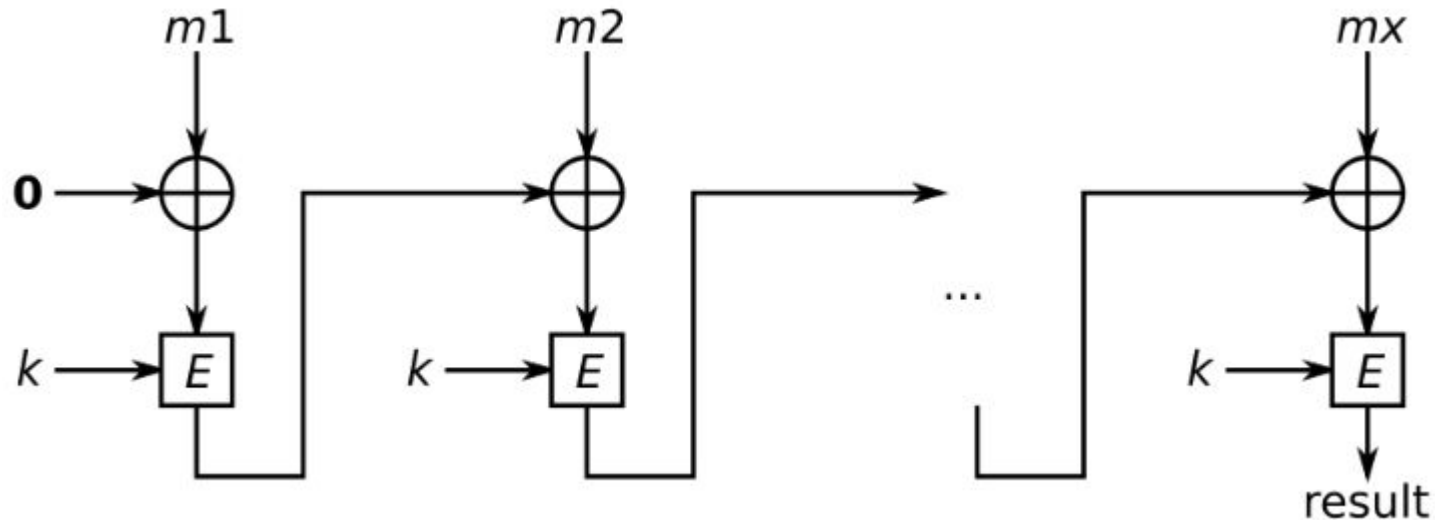
- confidentiality protection using AES block cypher with counter mode
- The sender breaks the cleartext packet into 16 byte blocks p_1, \dots, p_n and computes $c_i = p_i \oplus E_k(x_i)$ where each block uses its own counter x
- The receiver recovers the plaintext as $p_i = c_i \oplus E_k(x_i)$
- The counter, known as nonce or IV, is composed of a static flags field, sender's address, and three separate counters

1 byte	8 bytes	4 bytes	1 byte	2 bytes
Flags	Source address	Frame Ctr	Key Ctr	Block Ctr



- The frame counter is maintained by the hardware radio and the sender increments it after encrypting each packet
- The key counter is under application control
- Requirement: nonce must never repeat within the lifetime of any single key and frame and key counter should prevent nonce reuse
- The 2 bytes block counter ensures that each block will use a different nonce value

- Provide integrity protection via CBC-MAC algorithm
- It can only be computed by parts having symmetric key
- MAC protects the packet headers and data payload



- Provides both encryption and authentication
- It first applies integrity protection over header and data payload using CBC-MAC
- Encrypts data payload and MAC using AES-CTR mode

4 bytes	1 byte	variable	4/8/16 bytes
Frame Counter	Key Ctr	Encrypted Payload	Encrypted MAC



- Govern what key a node uses to communicate with another node
- Network shared keying: single network-wide shared key. Key management becomes trivial and memory requirements are minimal
- However, vulnerable to insider attacks and single key compromise
- A single compromised node can undermine the security guarantees of the entire network
- If we expect nodes to be occasionally compromised or captured, not a good approach



- Pairwise keying: limit the scope of every key
- Each pair of nodes shares a different key
- Thus, if a node is compromised, only the security of communication with its pair is undermined
- Comes with an increased overhead
- Each node must store a key for every other node it communicates to
- Select the proper key when communication with a node
- IoT nodes have limited resources



- Group keying: compromise between pairwise and network keying
- A single key is shared among a set of nodes and is used on all links between any two nodes in that group
- Groups can be created based on locations, network topology, or similarity of function
- Partial resistance to node compromise and partial improved management of resources



- Zigbee is a higher layer protocol based on IEEE 802.15.4 to create PAN networks
- It is usually leveraged for home automation, medical device data collection, and small scale projects
- It has a range of 10-100 m in line of sight
- Longer distances are achieved via multi-hop in a mesh network of intermediate devices

Three type of devices in Zigbee:

- Zigbee Coordinator (ZC): root of the network tree and bridge with other networks. Only one ZC, since it is the originator of the network. Trusted node containing e.g., keys
- Zigbee Router (ZR): act as intermediate device to pass data to other devices. They are usually mains powered to always be available
- Zigbee End Device (ZED): minimal functionalities to talk to the parent node. Battery powered and wake up only when has something to say



- Zigbee security builds on top of IEEE 802.15.4 security
- Keys and modes we've seen for 802.15.4 are basic for Zigbee
- A momentary exception exists for the addition of a previously unpaired and unconfigured device
- We need to assume trust in the initial installation of keys
- Within the protocol stack, we need access policies to cope with the lack of cryptographic separation between different layers



- Zigbee uses 128-bit keys to implement its security mechanism
- A key can be associated to a network or to a link, acquired via pre-installation, agreement, or transport
- There should be an initial master key obtained via a secure medium
- Establishment of link keys is based on a master key
- Trust center: special device in the network which other services trust for the distribution of secure keys
- Ideally, all devices will have the trust center address and initial master key

- The security architecture is distributed to different layers

MAC layer

Layer	Capabilities
MAC	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Single hop reliable communications• Security level specified by upper layers
Network	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Outgoing frames use the appropriate link key according to routing
Application	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Key established and transport services to both ZDO and applications



- After joining the network, an end-device needs to exchange security information with the trust center
- Needs to obtain the current network key from the trust center and establish a new end-to-end trust center link key
- It consists of four steps

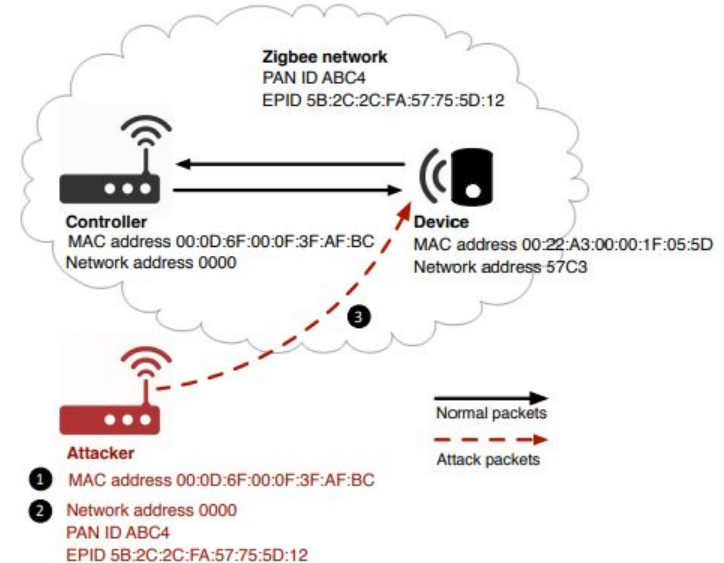


- Establish the Trust Center Link Key (TCLK): each device has a pre-installed TCLK typically obtained from the device installation code
- This key is provided to the TC through out-of-band means
- Establish the transport key: the TC and node can derive a transport key from the TCLK
- Distribute the network key: the TC can send to the new node the network key encrypted via transport key
- Establish new link key: as soon as the join procedure is completed, the TC updates the TCLK of the joining device



- There are two factors that makes it challenging to compromise Zigbee networks
- Closed nature: Zigbee devices are equipped with a dedicated commissioning process to add new devices to the network
- Commissioning usually requires users' actions to enable the controller to accept joining requests (e.g., pushing a button on the controller)
- Except commissioning, the Zigbee network is closed and the controller will not process the joining request

- Encryption and authentications: Zigbee encrypts with AES and authentication with the CCM mode
- Without knowing the correct keys exchanged during the commissioning period, it is not possible to infiltrate Zigbee systems





- The attacker impersonates a node that is already in the target Zigbee network
- Since the controller has the most capabilities, we focus on impersonation of the controller
- The following attack steps can be launched at arbitrary time during the closed normal operations of Zigbee networks



- Step 1: the attack device needs to overwrite its manufacturer-produced physical address and pretend to be the controller
- This can be obtained by sniffing Zigbee packets, since the MAC address is contained in plaintext in the header
- Step 2: The attacker extracts the controller address and network PAN ID by eavesdropping regular Zigbee packets



- To get EPID, the adversary broadcasts a beacon request
- The controller will send a beacon reply with EPID and state that the network is closed and does not accept join requests
- The adversary selects a target device and obtain its address via packet sniffing
- Step 3: the attack device constructs packets and injects them into the Zigbee network
- The goal is to cause the target device to process forged control packets



- Though Zigbee uses encryption on the network layer payload, packets crafted with specific control fields and commands can induce vulnerabilities
- The objective is to force devices to leave the network or to leak their encryption keys
- We need a way to find and generate such packets: semantic-aware fuzzing



- A first approach would be to randomly put content into the generated packets and blindly test whether they cause the Zigbee network to malfunction
- However, this is highly inefficient
- Two challenges that we want to address in the fuzzing process:
 - Zigbee uses encryption
 - Packets have varied length and formats according to header values



- To have the payload of a layer encrypted, there are three security-related fields on that layer: security enabled bit, security AUX header, and message integrity code
- The security bit plays a decisive role: if set to 0, no security mechanism, so no AUX header, nor MIC
- Packets with security bit to 1 may have impact if the system has implementation flaws
- We can develop strategies to fuzz this



- If security bit is set to 1, use AES with CCM
- The counter mode preserves the content lengths, so we can leverage the length structure of Zigbee commands to prioritize cases that are likely to lead to meaningful results
- All defined Network commands are one byte, and we add at most another one byte as attributes
- Since we do not have the network key, we set random MIC values (to fulfill the MIC lengths) and fuzz the payload only with the lengths of possible commands.



- To examine the flaws of bypassing the integrity check, we fuzz encryption payload lengths of 8 and 16 bits
- 65791 combinations in this category
- The NWK header has 3 unencrypted bits that can be fuzzed for different packet settings
- The total fuzzing number is 526,336
- In total, we can show that it takes 57-120 hours depending on the number of found vulnerabilities



- Personal Area Networks sometimes are not sufficient for IoT purposes
- Long Range (LoRa) is a proprietary radio communication technique
- LoRa Wide Area Network (LoRaWAN) defines the communication protocols and system architecture to create a larger network than PAN
- Also in this case, we consider battery powered resource constrained devices
- It is a cloud based Medium Access Control (MAC) layer protocol
- Manages communications between LPWAN gateways and end-node devices



- The LoRa alliance designed security measures for LoRaWAN accounting for low power consumption, low complexity, low cost, and high scalability
- As part of the network join procedure, a LoRaWAN end-device establishes a mutual authentication with the LoRaWAN network
- MAC and application messaging are origin authenticated, integrity and replay protected, and encrypted
- End-to-end encryption for application payloads



- LoRaWAN uses AES, and each device has a unique 128 bit AES key and a globally unique identifier (EUI-64-based DevEUI)
- Allocation of EUI-64 identifiers require the assignor to have an Organizationally Unique Identifier from IEEE registration authority
- LoRaWAN networks are identified by a 24-bit globally unique identifier assigned by the LoRa Alliance



- The Over-the-air activation (or join procedure) test whether both devices know the AppKey
- The proof is obtained by computing an AES-CMAC(AppKey) on the device's join request and by the backend receiver
- CMAC is a One-Key MAC that fixes security deficiencies of CBC-MAC, i.e., the fact that the latter is secure only for fixed-length messages
- Nevertheless, a variation of CBC-MAC



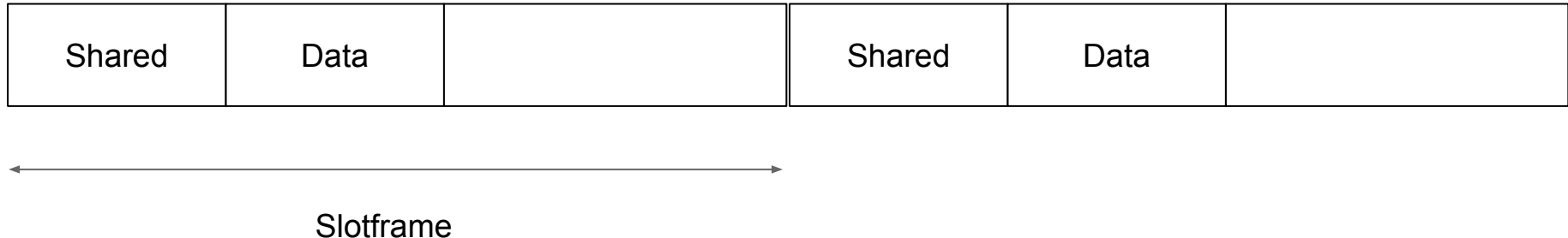
- Two keys are derived by LoRaWAN authentication:
 - Providing integrity protection and encryption of the LoRaWAN MAC commands (NwkSKey)
 - E2E encryption of application payloads (AppSKey)
- NwkSKey is distributed to the LoRaWAN network to prove and verify packet integrity and authenticity
- AppSKey is distributed to the application server to encrypt/decrypt the application payload



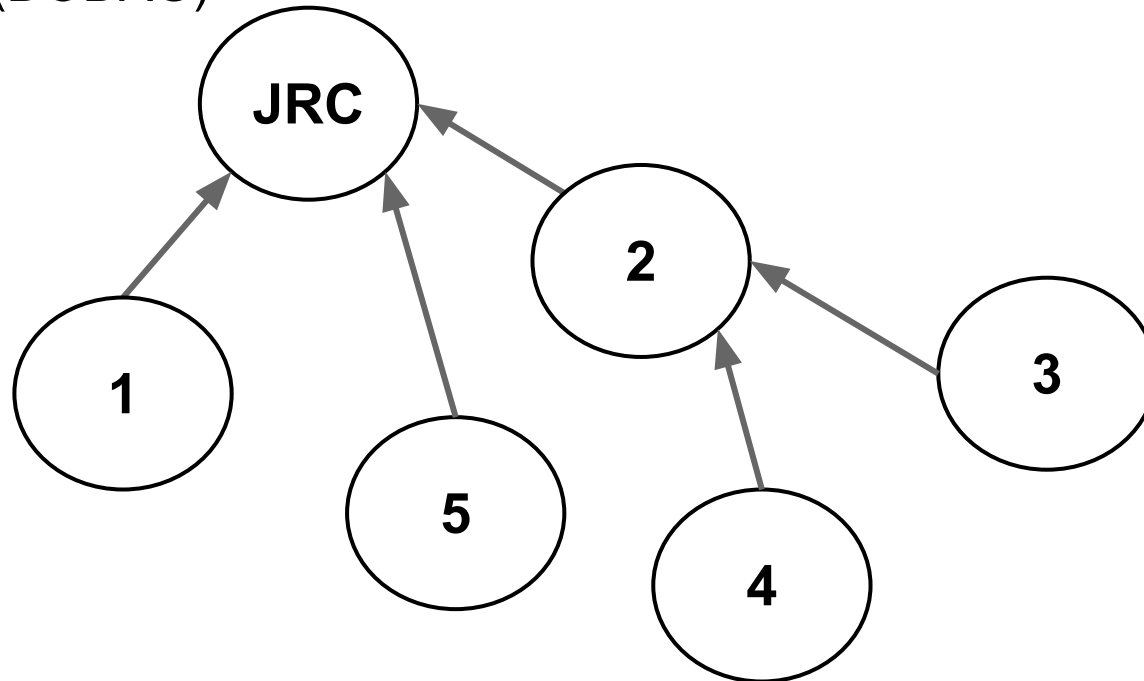
- We consider the formation of a 6TiSCH network
- There exists a root node, called Joint Registrar/Coordinator (JRC) which periodically broadcasts Enhanced Beacon (EB) frames
- EBs contain basic network information such as the JRC ID, duration of a timeslot, number of time slots in a slot frame, channel hopping sequence, location of the shared cell
- Pledges are new nodes willing to join a 6TiSCH network



- When pledges want to join the network, they start scanning until they receive a valid EB
- When it receives an EB from an already joined node, it becomes a TSCH synchronized node
- The channel is slotted, and is divided into control slots and shared slots



- The network is organized as a Destination Oriented Directed Acyclic Graph (DODAG)



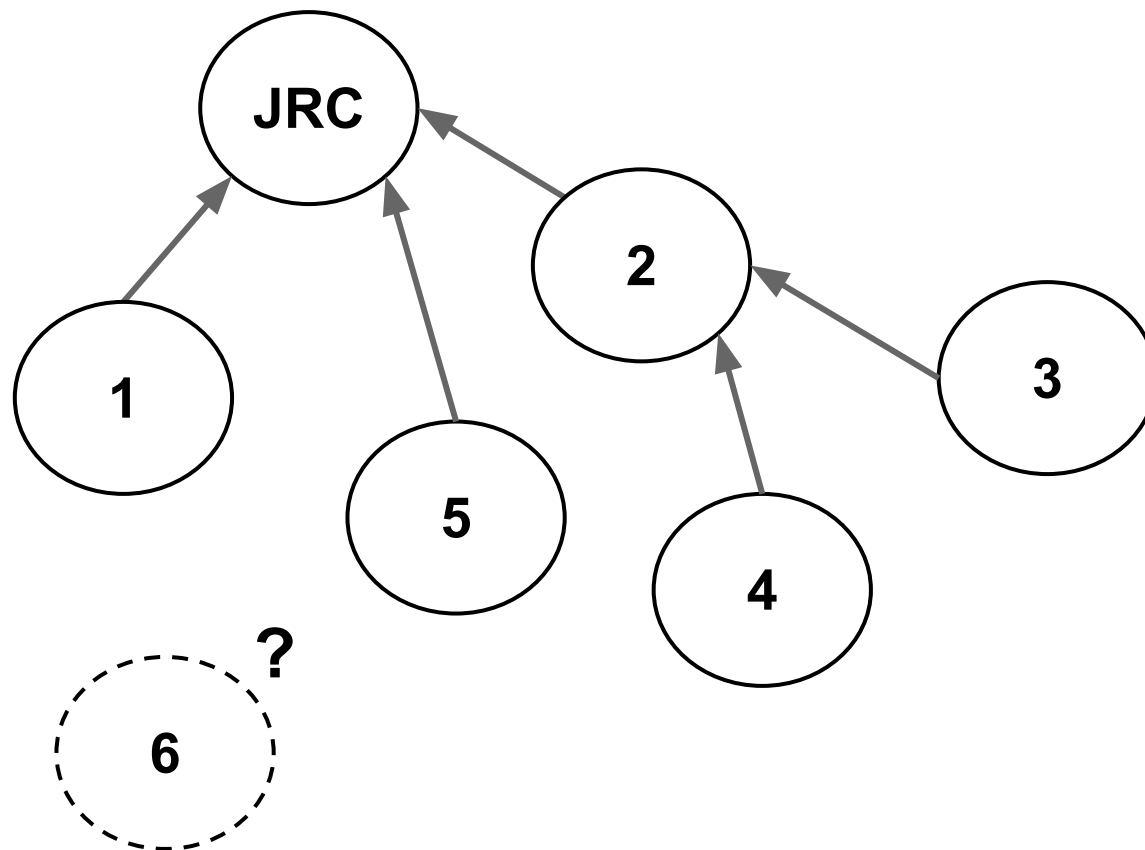
When to Join?



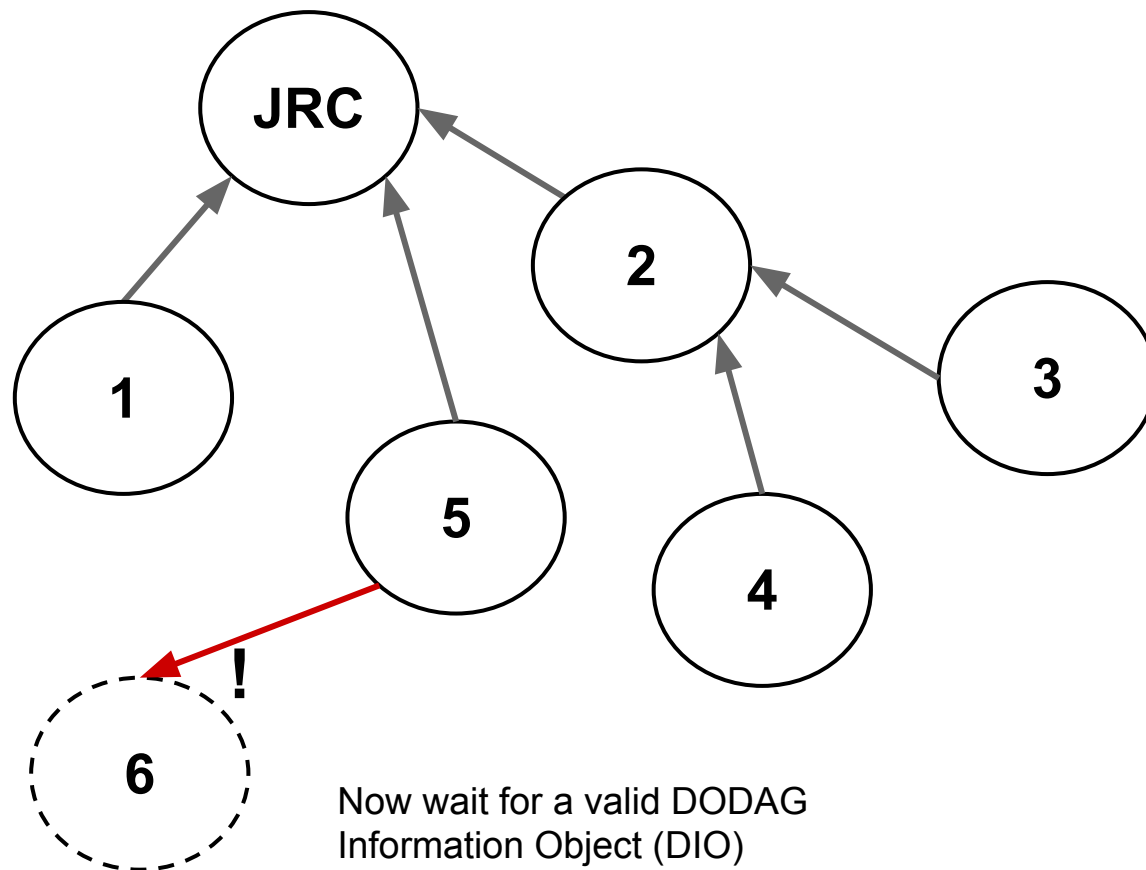
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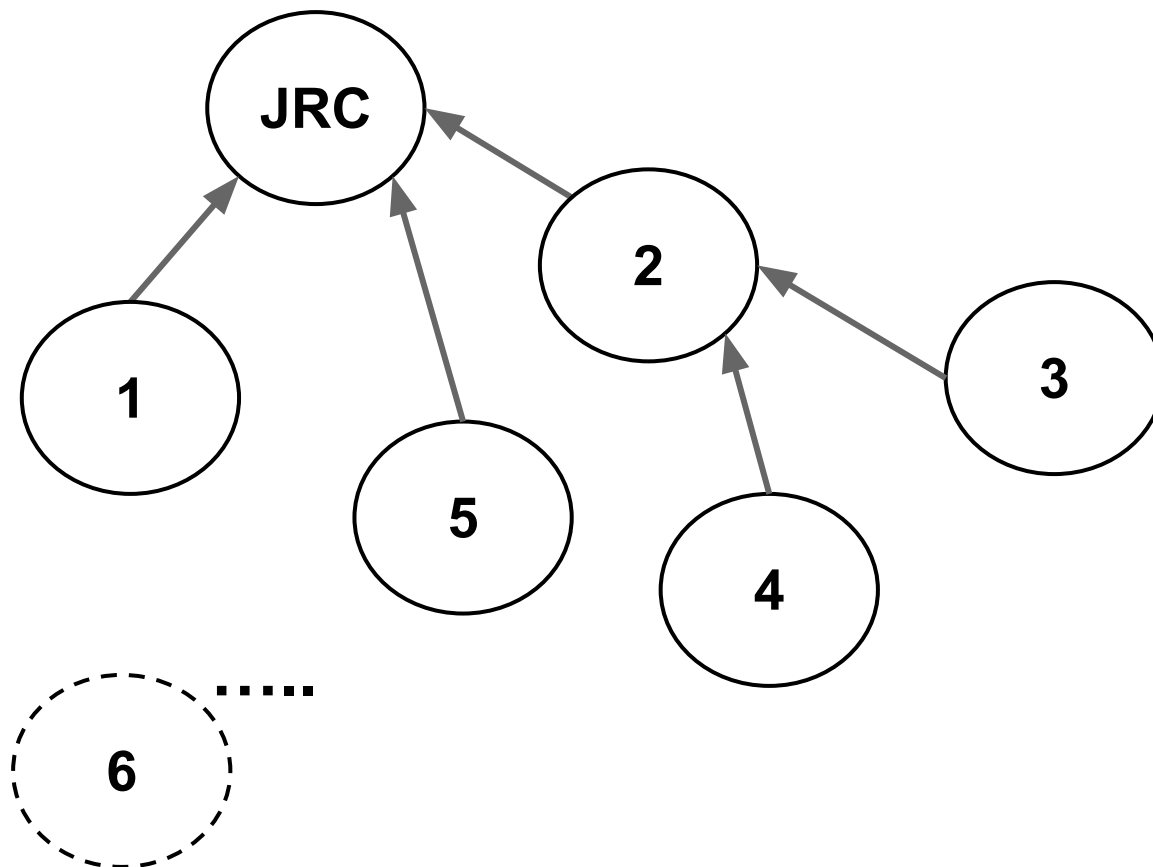
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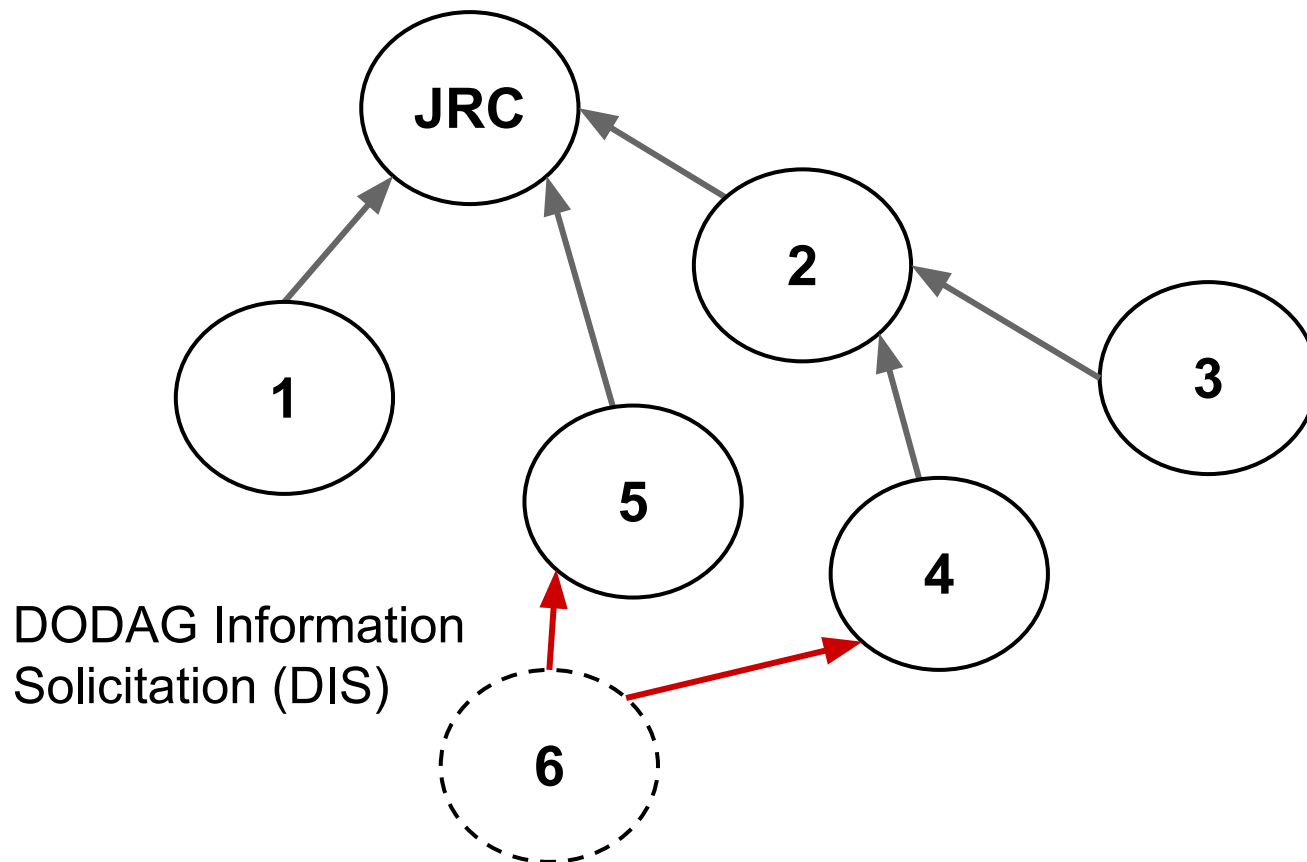
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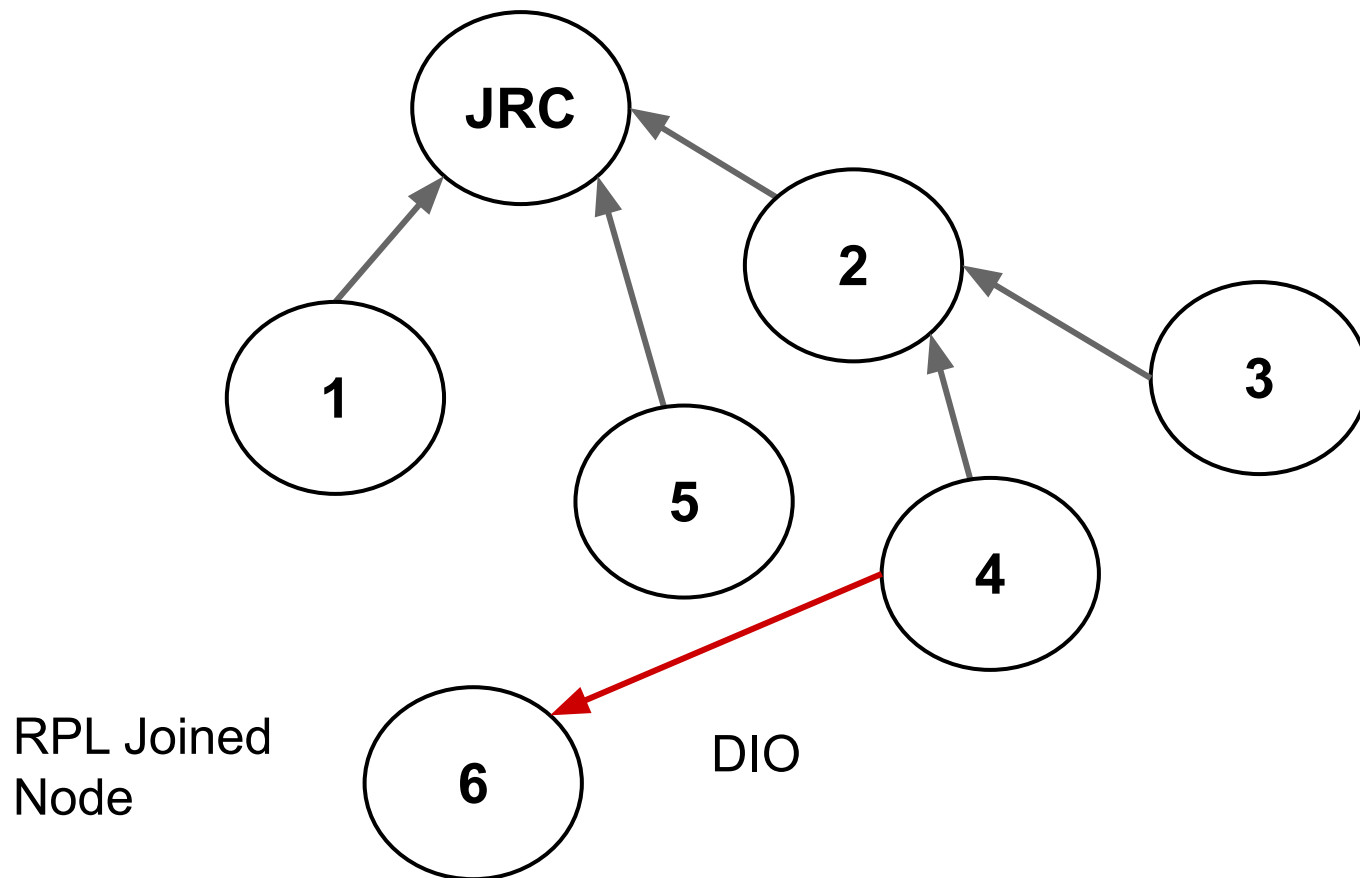
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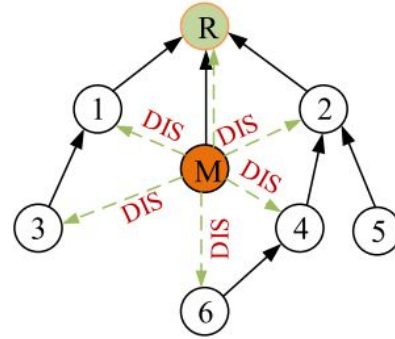


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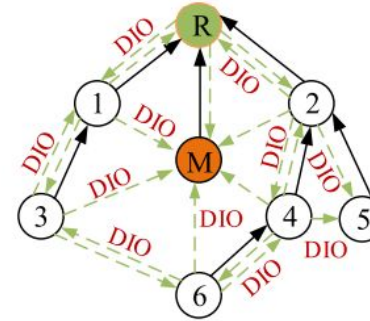




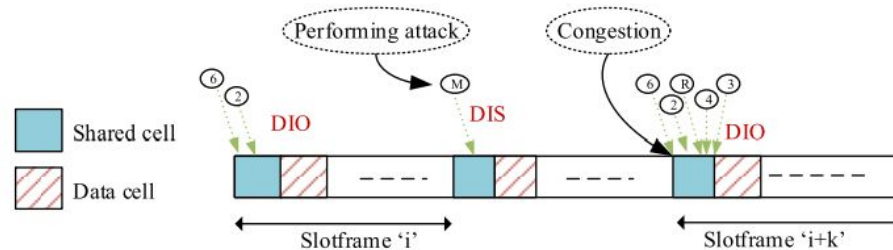
- DIS packets can be sent by arbitrary nodes to solicit the sending of DIO packets
- DIS attack: increase the number of transmissions in DIO packets in the network
- Goal: increase energy consumption and congest the shared slot



(a) A malicious node transmits its DIS packet.



(b) Legitimate joined nodes transmit their DIO packet in response.



(c) Effect of DIS attack on shared cell's congestion.



- Each node chooses its parent based on two values: the rank and objective function
- The rank should increase going downward in the DODAG, and the role of the preferred parent selection is to select the one with the best rank
- The objective of the attacker is to manipulate these values to affect the network topology

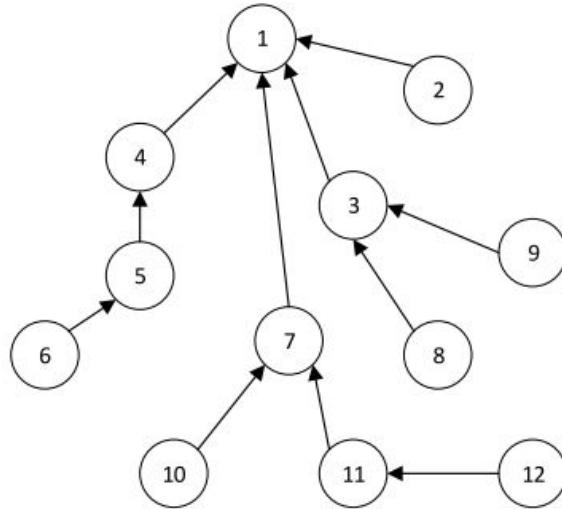


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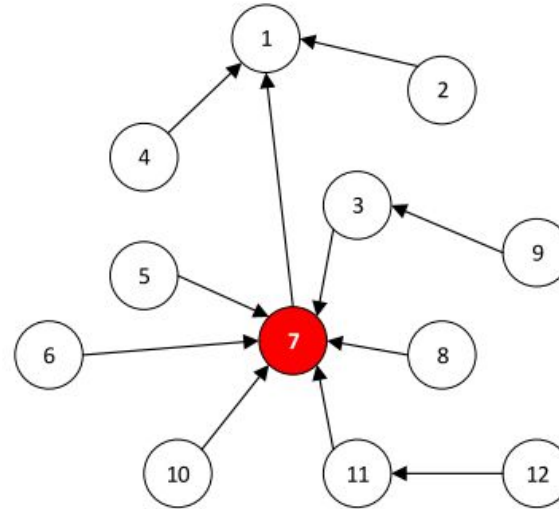


- Manipulation can be performed in two ways
- First, the attacker changes its rank by a specific values based on its neighbors rank value
- Second, the adversary manipulates its rank through the use of a different objective function to deceive legitimate nodes into giving the malicious node a better rank

- Decreased rank attack: malicious nodes advertise lower rank to other nodes resulting in many of them selecting the adversary as preferred

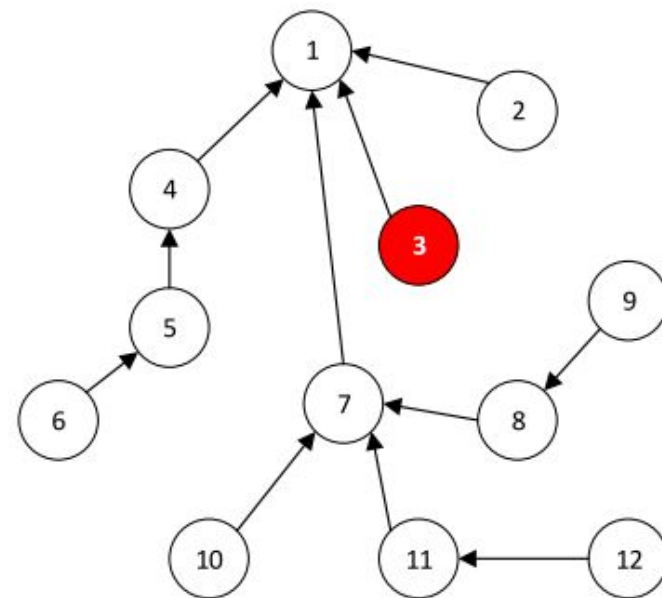


(a) Normal topology



(b) Decreased rank attack

- Increased rank attack: the attacker is near the routing node and advertises higher rank and worse routing metrics
- The idea is to cause topology disruptions and delays, so nodes will need to select further nodes as parents

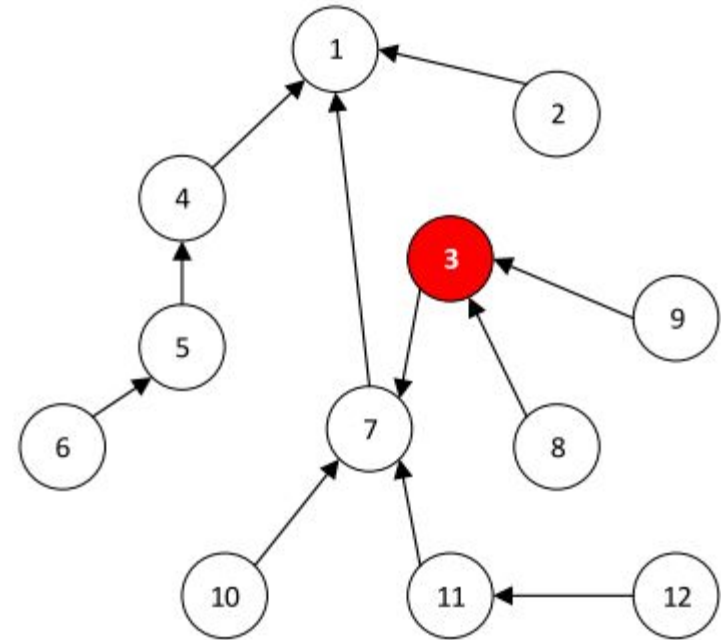


(c) Increased rank attack

Types of Rank Attack



- Worst parent attack: the attacker advertises its true rank but selects the worst parent for itself
- Deceive nodes into connecting to the attacker and cause delays due to the worst path they unwillingly select





- In this attack, the attacker node will forward any received DIO message it gets to its neighboring nodes (no modification)
- This creates the illusion that the original sender is in the range of the neighboring nodes
- Worst case scenario: the original sender has a good rank and adversary's neighbors choose it as preferred parent although being out of range



- Alone, the neighboring attack only causes a slight increase in the end-to-end delay
- However, suitably combined with other attacks gets more dangerous
- An adversary could launch a DIS attack to get DIO messages with better metrics, then selecting one of these messages to perform a neighbor attack, increasing the effect of such an attack



- RPL can work in a Point-to-Point fashion, i.e., create traffic between two nodes that are not root nodes of the DODAG
- In storing mode, each node keeps a downward routing table for its sub-DODAG and use it to forwards P→P traffic
- In practice, traffic goes upward up to a common ancestor of sender and destination that routes the packet to the destination node



- Routing table overload: the adversary sends many bogus routes (via DAO) until the node saturates
- Route table falsification: a malicious node advertises fake routes to other nodes that might exist but not be part of the attacker's sub-DODAG causing packet losses or longer delays
- All these attacks also cause resource exhaustion due to the increased overhead and repetitive repair attempts



- Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs) are the networks from which IoT was born
- Therefore, IoT inherited part of the routing attacks that existed in WSNs
- Although the working principle is the same, attacks needed to adapt to the new IoT paradigm



- In a blackhole attack, a malicious node(s) will drop all packets it receives instead of forwarding them (DoS)
- To be less detectable, an attacker may decide to selectively drop packets (i.e., only forward RPL control messages) → selective forward or greyhole attacks
- Selective-forward attacks cannot be detected nor mitigated by the self-healing mechanisms of RPL because they pass control messages



- Malicious node(s) try to be sink for as much nodes as possible by advertising a fabricated link with better metrics
- Sinkhole by themselves are not very powerful, they need to be combined with other attacks
- These attacks can be performed by advertising DIOs with better metrics or having several adversaries directing all passing traffic toward another adversary



- To create this attack, two adversaries need to cooperate to create a tunnel between them and transmit traffic through it instead of the regular path
- Three ways to create a wormhole:
 - Packet encapsulation: malicious nodes use a legitimate path between them and encapsulate packets to hide the hop count
 - Relay: deceive nodes to be neighbors
 - Out-of.band link: create links that are not part of the network



- In Clone ID attack, a malicious node(s) takes the identity of another legitimate node
- In Sybil attacks, each malicious node takes several identities from legitimate nodes
- With sybil attacks an attacker can submit forged information to manipulate the system, disturb the routing topology and reputation-based systems
- Can be mitigated by adding location information and DHTs



- To detect some of these attacks (or their declinations) there have been many proposals in terms of Intrusion Detection Systems (IDSs)
- Signature-based IDSs: use a database of signature patterns of the attacks
- Anomaly-based IDSs: create a normal behavior profile and compare the current observations with the normal behavior
- Specification-based: create a normal profile based on protocol specification
- Hybrid IDSs: combine two of the aforementioned methods



- Centralized IDS: the IDS resides either on the root node or on a dedicated host and uses the traffic passing by to detect attacks
- In many cases, it is required that the central node of the IDS send periodic request for updates to unmonitored areas
- Advantage: most of the heavy works occurs inside a powerful node, usually capable of performing firewall functionalities as well
- On the other hand, challenging to monitor the network during the attack



- Distributed IDS: each node will have a full IDS implementation, making it responsible for detecting attacks around it
- Usually nodes collaborate to increase the efficiency of the detection
- However, this approach consumes a lot of resources throughout the network
- It is usually required to optimize the IDS periodically to minimize its effects



- Hybrid IDS placement: to get the best of both worlds
- Central nodes with more resources are responsible for computationally intensive tasks (analyzing data, decision making)
- Normal nodes are responsible for lightweight duties (e.g., monitoring neighbor nodes, send info about traffic passing through them, responding to requests from central nodes)
- Requires optimization