



# Collaborative Processing in Sensor Networks

## Lecture 7 - Light-weight Security Solutions

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# Research Focus - Recap

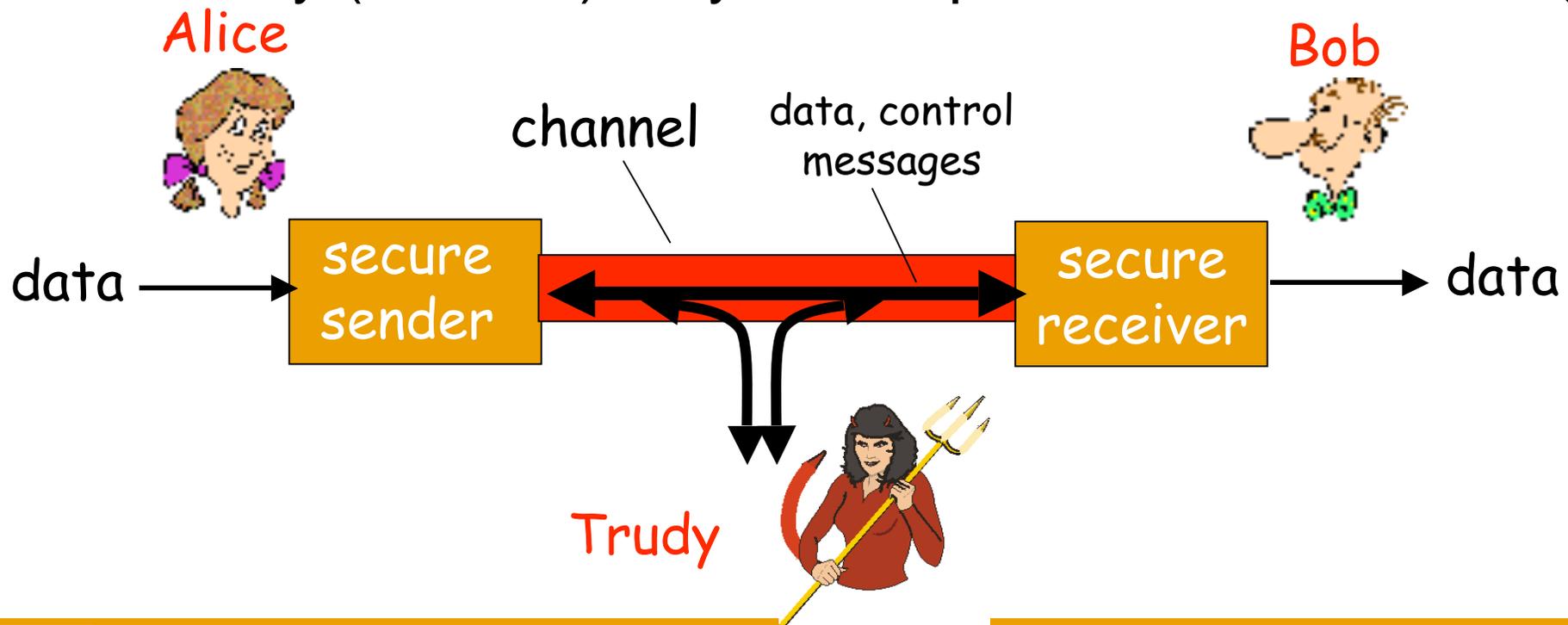
- Develop **energy-efficient** collaborative processing algorithms with **fault tolerance** in sensor networks
  - Where to perform collaboration **securely**?
    - Computing paradigms
  - Who should participate in the collaboration **securely**?
    - Reactive clustering protocols
    - Sensor selection protocols
  - How to conduct collaboration **securely**?
    - In-network processing
    - Self deployment <--> Coverage

# What is Network Security?

- Confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should “understand” message contents
  - sender encrypts message
  - receiver decrypts message
- Authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other
- Message Integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards)
- Non-repudiation
- Access Control and Availability: services must be accessible and available to legitimate users (no DoS attacks)

# Friends and Foes: Alice, Bob, Trudy

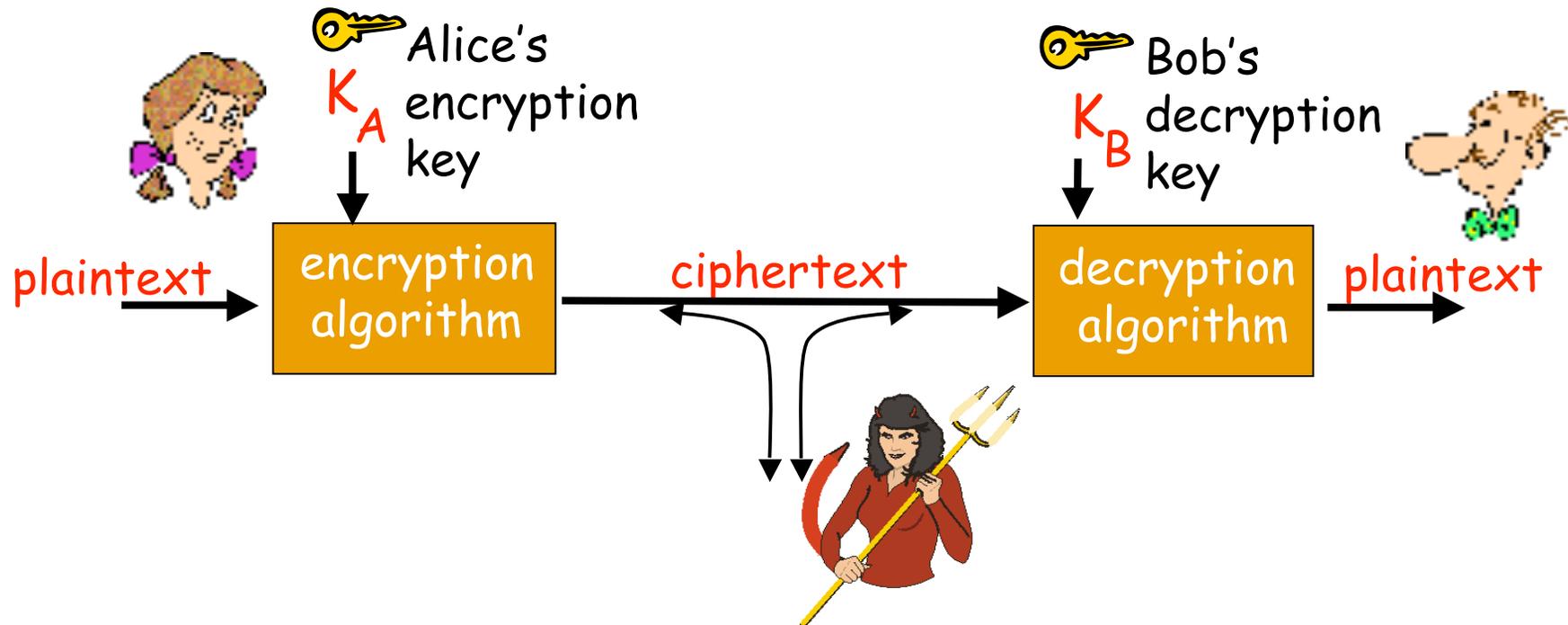
- Well-known fixtures in network security world
- Bob, Alice want to communicate “securely”
- Trudy (intruder) may intercept, delete, add message



# What Can the “Enemy” Do ?

- A lot!
  - Eavesdrop: intercept messages
  - Actively insert messages into connection
  - Impersonation: can fake (spoof) source address in packet (or any field in packet)
  - Hijacking: “take over” ongoing connection by removing sender or receiver, inserting himself in place
  - Denial of service: prevent service from being used by others (e.g., by overloading resources)

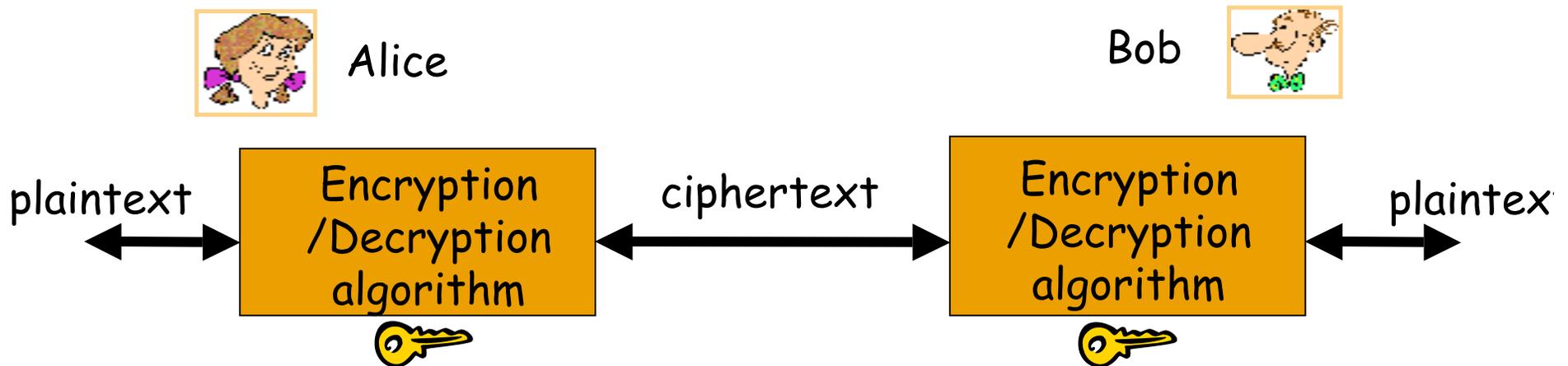
# The Language of Cryptography



- Symmetric key crypto: sender, receiver keys identical
- Public-key crypto: encryption key public, decryption key secret (private)

# Symmetric Key Cryptography

- All users (e.g., Bob and Alice) share and know the same (symmetric) key:  $K$  (e.g., DES)
- Encryption and decryption algorithms are identical



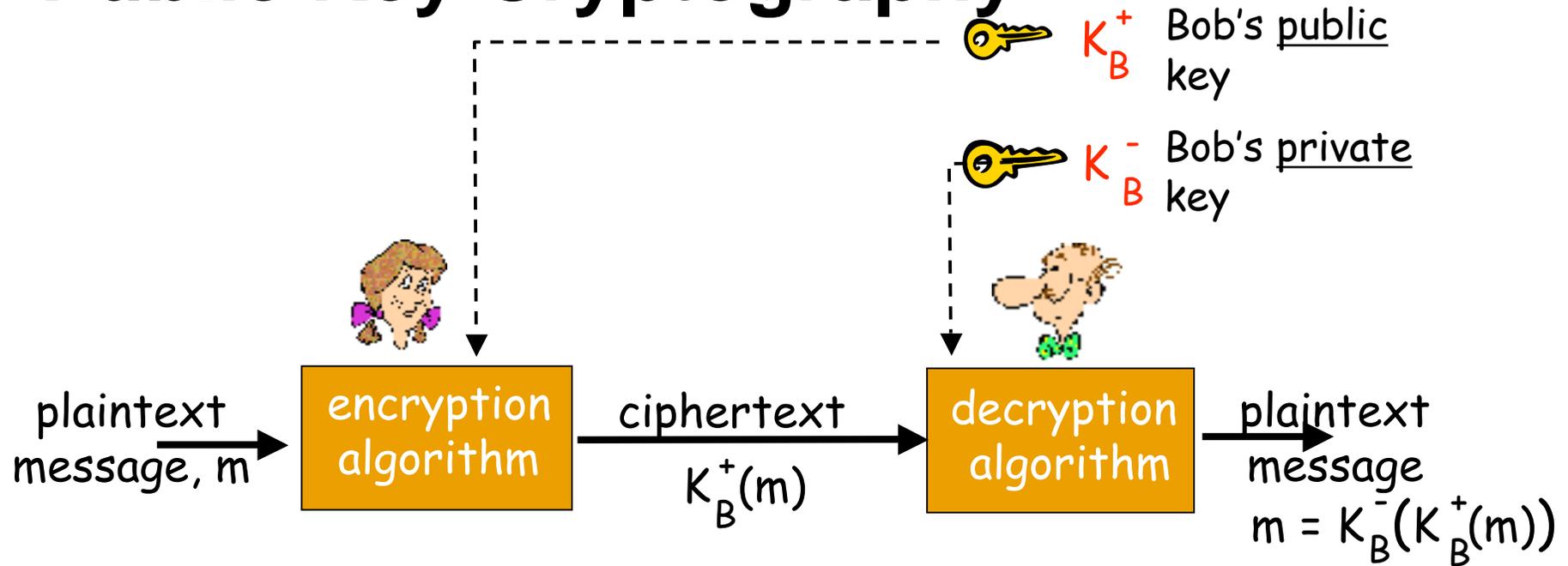
Problem: How can Bob and Alice share the same key in the first place?

# Public Key Cryptography

- Radically different approach [Diffie-Hellman76, RSA78]
  - Uncovered an entire new approach to cryptography
  - W. Diffie and M.E. Hellman, “New Directions in Cryptography,” *IEEE transactions on Information Theory*, IT 22:644-654, 1976.
- Sender, receiver do not share secret key
- Public encryption key known to all
- Private decryption key known only to receiver



# Public Key Cryptography



Requirements:

①  $K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m$

② Given a public key it should be impossible to compute the private key

# RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adelman): Choosing Keys

1. Choose two large prime numbers  $p, q$ .  
(e.g., 1024 bits each)
2. Compute  $n = pq$ ,  $z = (p-1)(q-1)$
3. Choose  $e$  (with  $e < n$ ) that has no common factors with  $z$ . ( $e, z$  are "relatively prime").
4. Choose  $d$  such that  $ed-1$  is exactly divisible by  $z$ .  
(in other words:  $ed \bmod z = 1$ ).
5. Public key is  $(n, e)$ . Private key is  $(n, d)$ .  
 $\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{K_B^+}$                        $\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{K_B^-}$

# RSA: Encryption, Decryption

Given  $(n,e)$  and  $(n,d)$  as computed above:

1. To encrypt bit pattern,  $m$  ( $m < n$ ), compute  
 $c = m^e \bmod n$  (i.e., remainder when  $m^e$  is divided by  $n$ )
2. To decrypt received bit pattern,  $c$ , compute  
 $m = c^d \bmod n$  (i.e., remainder when  $c^d$  is divided by  $n$ )

Magic  
happens!

$$m = \underbrace{(m^e \bmod n)}_c^d \bmod n$$

# RSA: Why is That?

**Useful number theory result:** If  $p, q$  prime and  $n = pq$ , then:

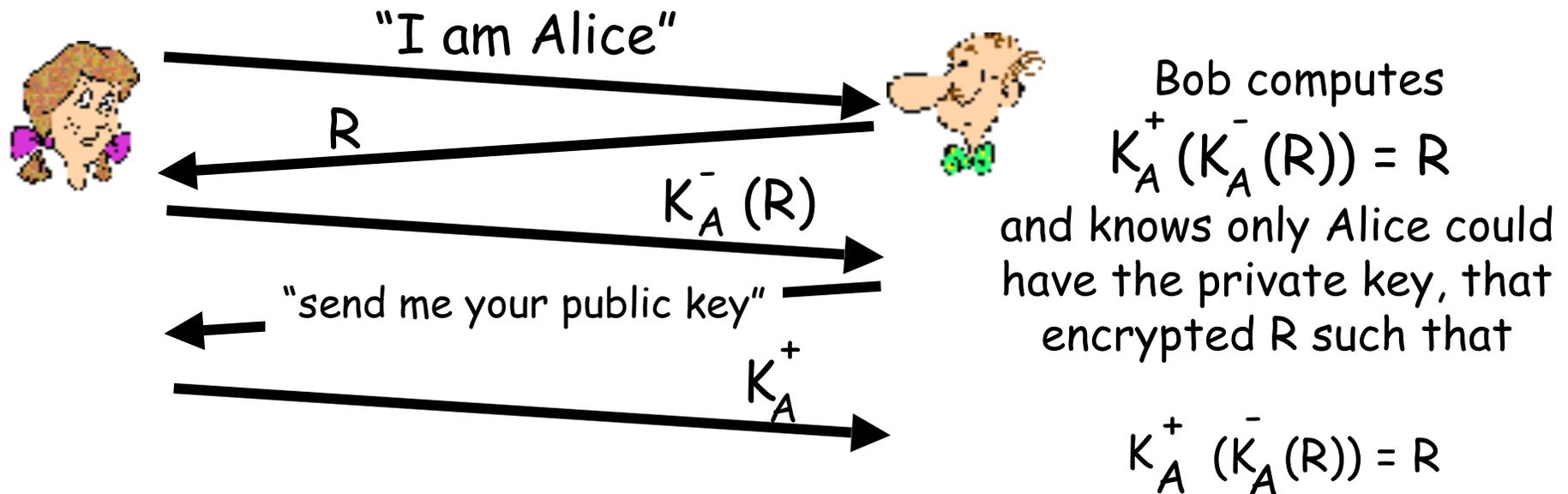
$$x^y \bmod n = x^{y \bmod (p-1)(q-1)} \bmod n$$

(Fermat's Little Theorem)

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \underbrace{(m^e \bmod n)}_{\substack{\leftarrow \text{ } \downarrow \text{ } \rightarrow \\ C - \text{ the encrypted message}}}^d \bmod n = m^{ed} \bmod n \\
 & = m^{ed \bmod (p-1)(q-1)} \bmod n \\
 & \quad \text{(using number theory result above)} \\
 & = m^1 \bmod n \\
 & \quad \text{(since we chose } ed \text{ to be divisible by } (p-1)(q-1) \text{ with remainder 1 )} \\
 & = m \text{ (since } m < n \text{)}
 \end{aligned}$$

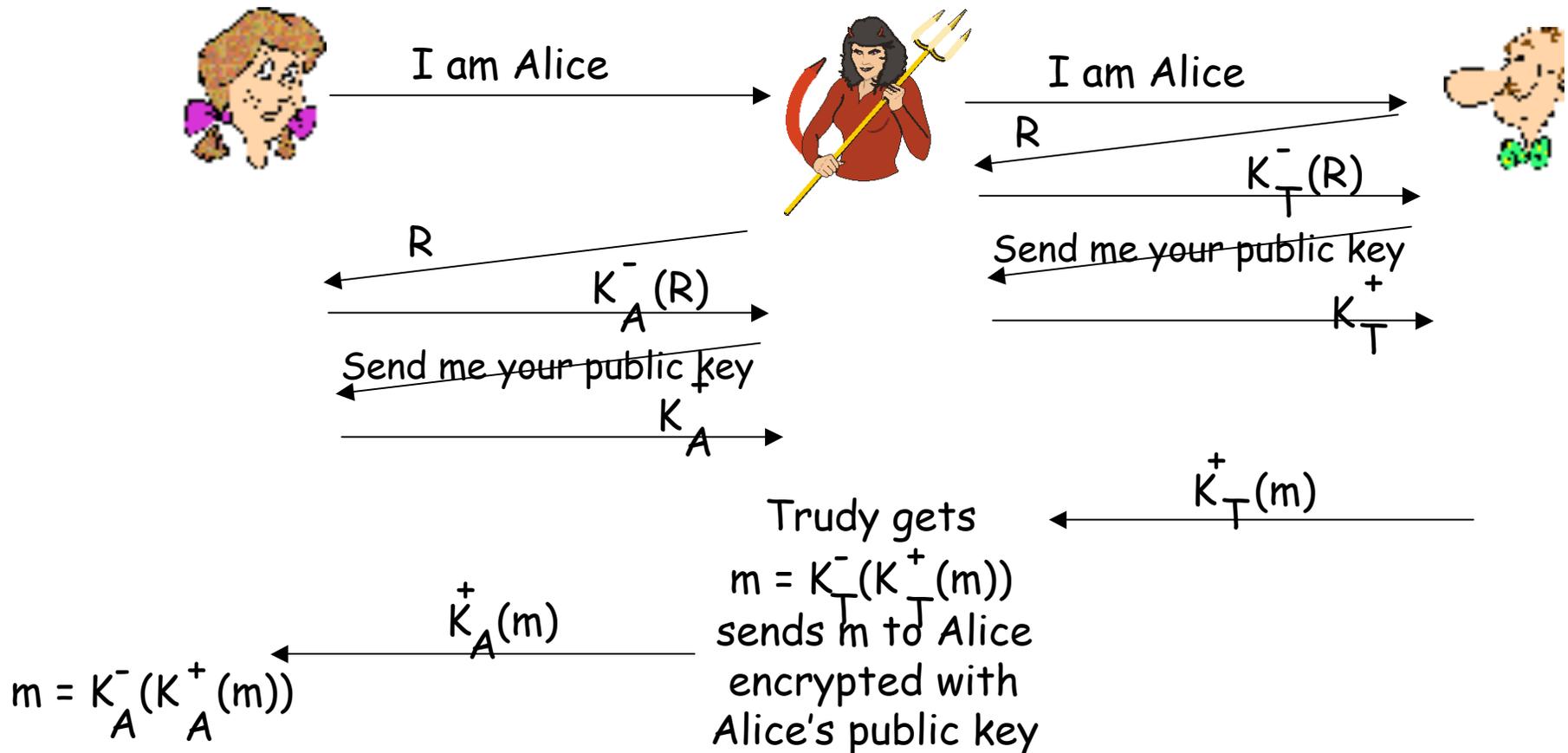
# Authentication

- There is a clear need to “prove” the identity of a sender
- Insufficient options:
  - ID by IP # ?
  - Send secret password along with message ?
  - Choose a random number, R ...



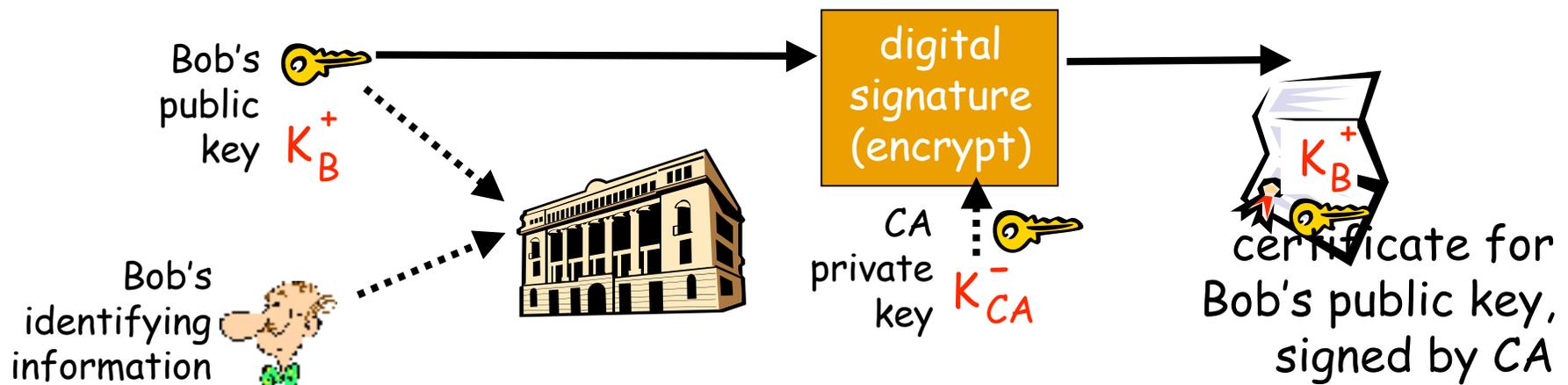
# Man-in-the-middle Attack

- Man (woman) in the middle attack: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)



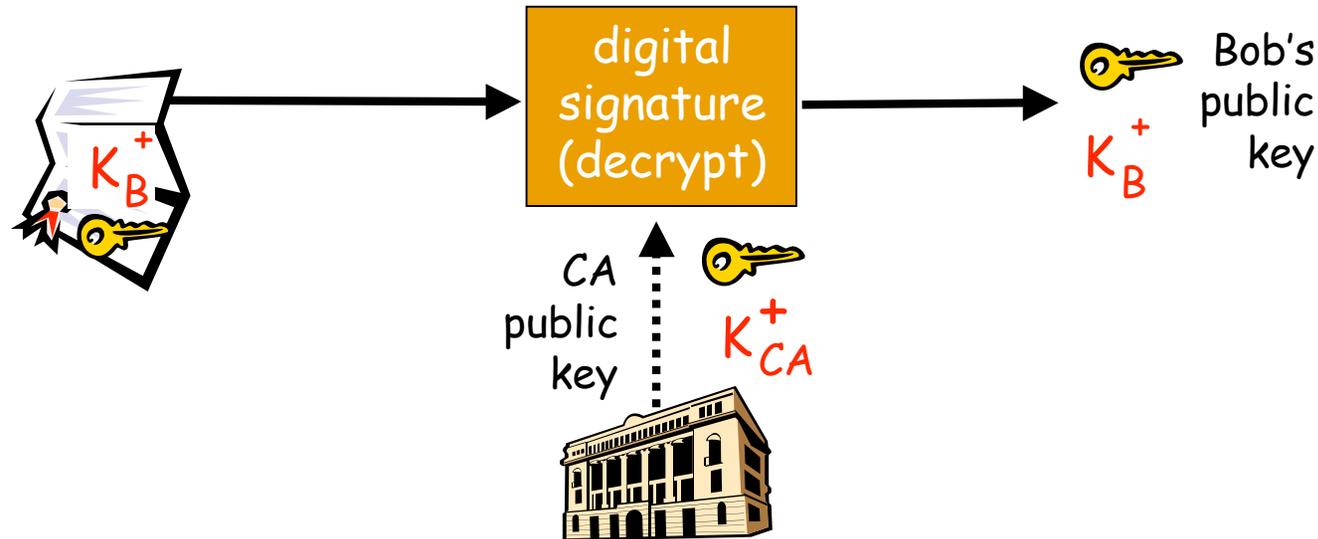
# Certification Authorities

- Question: How do you “prove” that a key is really your key ?
- Solutions: Certification authority (CA) - binds public key to particular entity (for example: Bob).
- Bob registers its public key with CA.
  - Bob provides “proof of identity” to CA.
  - CA creates certificate binding Bob to its public key.
  - Certificate containing Bob’s public key digitally signed by CA – CA says “this is Bob’s public key”



# Certification Authorities (cont.)

- When Alice wants Bob's public key:
  - gets Bob's certificate (Bob or elsewhere).
  - apply CA's public key to Bob's certificate, get Bob's public key



# What is an Elliptic Curve?

In  $GF(p)$  an ordinary elliptic curve  $E$  suitable for elliptic curve cryptography is defined by the set of points  $(x; y)$  that satisfy the equation :

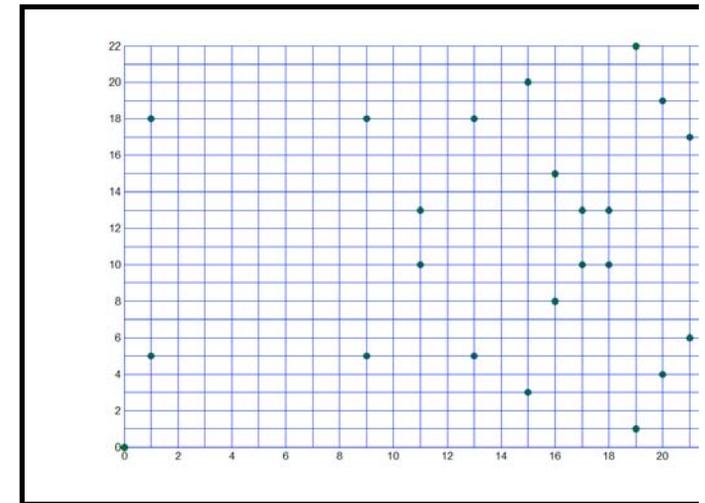
$$y^2 = (x^3 + ax + b) \text{ mod } p$$

Using ECC (Elliptic Curve Cryptography) the Discrete-log problem takes the following form:

$P, Q$ : Points on the curve

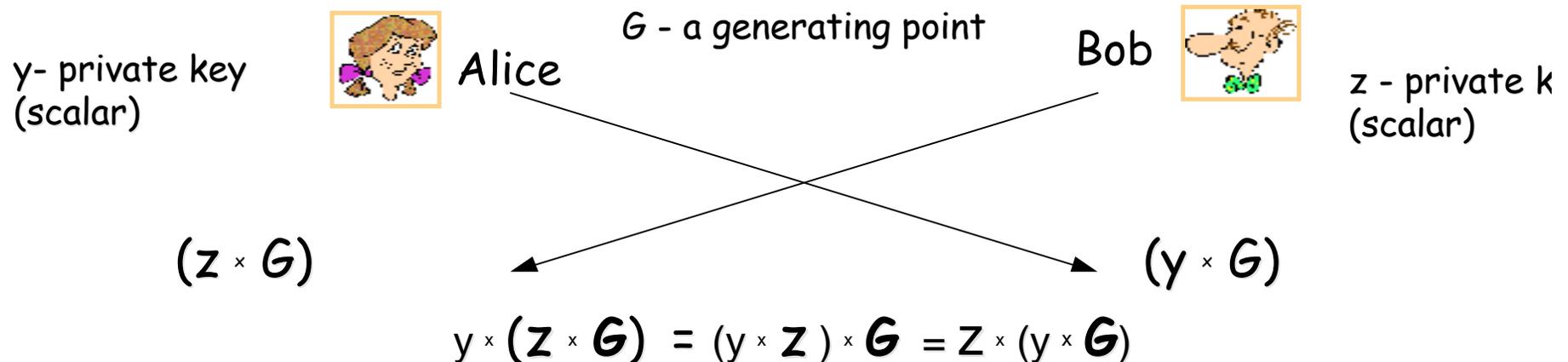
$Y$ : Large scalar  
(e.g 160)

For a given  $P$  and  $Q$ , where  $P = Y \times Q$ , there is no available algorithm to recover  $y$



# Diffie-Hellman Public Key Distribution Using ECC

- Why use Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC)?
- Calculations take less time, less memory and less hardware
- We use 160 bits (instead of 1024 bits used not in EC modular exponentiation, e.g. DH over a prime) and still retain the same “security strength”



**Point-by-scalar multiplication is the core!**

# Prior Work: Key Pre-distribution Schemes

- Loading keys into sensor nodes prior to deployment
- Two nodes find a common key between them after deployment (a.k.a. “key discovery” phase)
- Possible solutions:
  - **Master key** – one key to all networks
    - (+) Minimal communications (low power consumption)
    - (+) Memory efficient, Key discovery is not really needed
    - (-) However, once key is compromised entire network is compromised
  - **N-1 keys to each node**
    - (+) Key discovery is not really needed
    - (-) Cannot add new nodes!
    - (-) Memory requirements are not practical (non-scalable)

# Prior Work: Key Pre-distribution Schemes (cont.)

## – Random Key Predistribution

Each node is provided with a subset of a large key pool

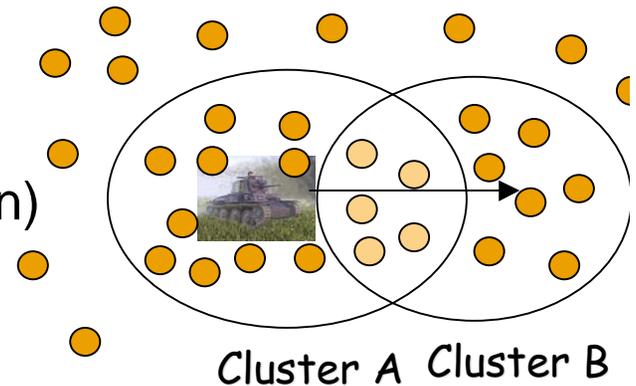
- (+) Ability to add nodes after deployment
- (+) Lower network compromise with captured nodes
- (-) Key discovery is needed

- Fundamental limitations to random key pre-distribution schemes:
  - **Scalability** – the memory, network size
  - **Communication framework** - finding nodes sharing keys
  - **Cryptographic robustness** – inherently offer “**statistical**” security, which is always questionable

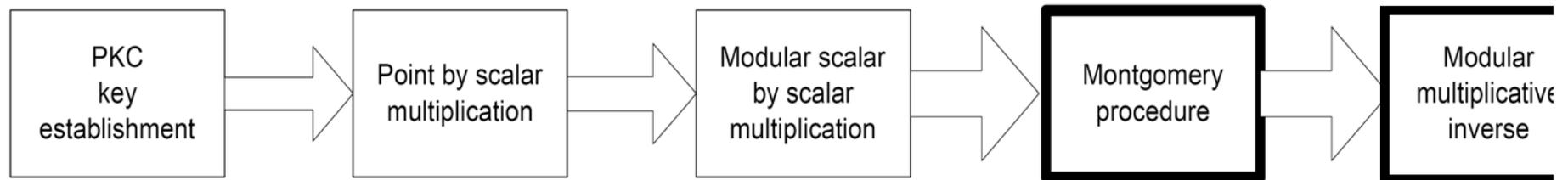
# Potential Solutions

- How to reduce the amount of point-by-scalar multiplication?

- Self-certified key generation
- Fixed key generation (1 multiplication)
- Ephemeral key generation (2 multiplication)
  - Off-loading 1 multiplication to neighbors
- Group key generation



- How to mitigate denial-of-service attack?
- How to reduce the complexity of point-by-scalar multiplication?



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