#### **ORIGINAL RESEARCH**



# ILAS-IoT: An improved and lightweight authentication scheme for IoT deployment

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#### **Abstract**

In 2019, Banerjee et al. (IEEE Int Things J 6(5):8739–8752, 2019; https://doi.org/10.1109/JIOT.2019.2931372) proposed an authenticated key agreement scheme to facilitate the session establishment resulting into a session key between a user and a smart device for IoT based networks. As per their claim, the scheme of Banerjee et al. provides known security features and resist all known attacks using only lightweight symmetric key primitives. The analysis in this paper; however, shows that the scheme of Banerjee et al. cannot complete normally. The user in their scheme, after sending a request message may never receive the response from smart device. This incorrectness results into total in applicability of Banerjee et al.'s scheme. Moreover, it is also shown that their scheme has weaknesses against stolen verifier attack. Then an improved lightweight authentication scheme for IoT deployments (ILAS-IoT) is proposed in this article. ILAS-IoT performs the process correctly by increasing very little computation and communication overheads. The proposed ILAS-IoT also resists stolen verifier and all known attacks, which is evident from the formal and informal security analysis.

**Keywords** IoT · Key establishment · Device access control · Lightweight cryptography

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### 1 Introduction

Internet of Things (IoT) (Shakshuki et al. 2020) has become a trend from previous few years, also through studies (Gubbi et al. 2013; Lu et al. 2020; Thyagarajan and Kulanthaivelu 2020) it is probable to remain in trend in probable future. In IoT system, the data and the information are sensed through IoT devices [e.g., wearable devices, embedded systems, RFID (Radio Frequency Identification) devices] before they are send to some other IoT device, intermediary node/device (e.g., fog or edge computing node) or cloud, thorough Internet. These data are widely used in health care, pattern recognition and other fields (Chen et al. 2019b; Zhang et al. 2020). The applications of IoT comprise the Industry 4.0 also those which are at high risk situations like battlefields and disaster relief. In any prevalent deployment of the consumer technology (Atzori et al. 2010), privacy and the security are main concerns. For better understanding, let's take an application of IoT healthcare (Mukherjee et al. 2020) as an example. In this setting, quality of the health-care (Selvakanmani and Sumathi 2020) related services can be improved by permitting the medical practitioner to have direct access of data that is sensed/collected by body sensor device being



deployed into the patient's body. Such kind of information could comprise recent vital readings (blood pressure, level of blood sugar etc) (Mishra et al. 2020). Important re-medical actions are decided on the basis of this recent information. Undoubtedly, this data and information are confidential and private. Both the user and accessed sensor node need mutual authentication also session key establishment. Explicitly, to facilitate the access of data or services, both the accessed sensor node and user can communicate with each other securely by using created session keys.

To accomplish this aim, very recently, Banerjee et al. (2019) presented a lightweight symmetric key based and secure user authentication protocol with the agreement of session key customized for the IoT environment. They proved the security of their scheme using ROR model (Abdalla et al. 2005) as well as showed the key agreement and authentication using (BAN) logic (Syverson and Cervesato 2000). Despite their claim, the analysis in this paper shows that their scheme has correctness issues because of the incorrectness in their scheme, the login and authentication phase of Banerjee et al. can not complete normally, the user in their scheme, after sending a request message may never receive the response. Moreover, it is also shown that their scheme is vulnerable to stolen verifier attack. Any insider after stealing the verifier can get private keys of the registered participants and can impersonate on behalf of any user of the system. To remove the design flaws, we proposed an improved scheme (ILAS-IoT). The ILAS-IoT securely and correctly completes authentication between a user and a sensing devices with the help of gateway node. The formal analysis of security of ILAS-IoT is carried out through ROR (real-or-random) (Abdalla et al. 2005). Moreover, the informal analysis of security is performed to illustrate that introduced ILAS-IoT is secure against various other communication attacks.

# 2 Related work

The basic requirements of security which is required in IoT network is similar as needed by other wireless sensor networks (WSNs) (Chen et al. 2018; Mathapati et al. 2020). The requirements required by any wireless networks are named as integrity, authorization, forward and backward secrecy, confidentiality, non-repudiation, authentication and availability. An IoT infrastructure-based user authentication scheme requires to be resilience to attacks such as smart card stolen, offline password guessing, replay, privileged insider, man-in-middle and replay attacks. The curtailed computation and communication cost should also be incorporated by the IoT environment-based user authentication scheme. The scheme should involve efficient password alteration phase that enables the user to locally alter the password

without participation of gateway node (GWD). The addition phase of dynamic sensing device is required because an attacker can attack some IoT devices physically or the battery power drains some devices due to limited resources and after primary deployment of the nodes (Karthika and Vidhya Saraswathi 2020), the additional sensor devices are required to place in the network. Suppose a scenario where a medical practitioner (MU) is wandering in the environment of medical IoT. In such environment, the user's confidential information is essential to be secured. For example, the user is prevented for linking his messages or session to other parties by attaining the preservation of user's anonymity. Because, if the identity of user is revealed then the location history and current location of MU can be tracked by any unauthorized user. In other words, one of the numerous basic features of authentication schemes is anonymity of user (He et al. 2015). When the user communicates from one location to other then the track of user must not be followed by an attacker for the purpose of untraceability. This feature is very important in applications of IoT because it make the attacker unable to track the user (Chen et al. 2019c). In distributed systems, the literature has some other studies for remote user authentication, such as privacy, user's anonymity, trust, untraceability and liability (He et al. 2015; Li et al. 2018b; Granjal et al. 2015; Mansoor et al. 2019).

In 2018, it is identified by Makhdoom et al. (2018) that identity management of user is the privacy and security challenge (Zahra and Chishti 2020). Thus, it is compulsory for IoT system-based authentication schemes to offer the features of untraceability and user anonymity. Numerous protocols in this regard have been introduced in last decade in literature. For example, a new authentication scheme is designed by Zhang et al. (2013) for preserving the privacy of user by using only lightweight cryptographic primitives. However, user anonymity is not efficiently offered by their scheme. The two authentication schemes are introduced by Chang and Le (2015). The only hash and bitwise XOR operations are used by first scheme while elliptic curve cryptographic approach is used by the second scheme. In addition, offline password guessing attack and the flaw of breaching the session specific information (Das et al. 2016) is present in both schemes. An enhanced data encryption and authentication mechanism for IoT medical system and RFID (Hsu et al. 2011; Campioni et al. 2019) based system is designed by Li et al. (2017, 2018a).

A test-bed is introduced by Khalil et al. (2014) in which the devices are controlled by using sensors in a smart building. An authentication scheme is developed by Porambage et al. (2014), in which a secure session is established between users and sensors by mutually authenticating each other. Their scheme performs in two stages, and it is scalable with size of network and applicable for deployment on heterogenous resource constrained nodes. However, user



anonymity is not preserved by their scheme as determined by Li et al. (2019). The scheme of Wazid et al. also entails correctness issues, as the server will not recognize the specific user who requested for session initiation. A computationally effective scheme is designed by Turkanović et al. (2014), but their scheme is not able to offer untraceability and not able to prevent privileged insider, offline password guessing and impersonation attack. A multilayer system for smart homes security is proposed by Jie et al. (2013). However, Song et al. noticed that large computational overhead on  $SD_c$  is present in Jie et al. (2013) due to certificate authority. The limitations are diminished by developing the two authentication schemes by them: (1) hash operation are used by first, (2) chaotic systems are used by other. A signature-based authentication scheme is designed by Chen et al. (2019c) based on elliptic curve cryptography for IoT deployment. However, the utilization of ECC cryptographic functions causes high computation overhead. A user authentication scheme is designed by Amin et al. (2018) for the environment of distributed cloud computing which consists of IoT devices. However, their scheme is vulnerable to several security threats, such as impersonation and privileged insider attack (Challa et al. 2018). Chaudhry et al. (2020), described that both the schemes of Chen et al. (2019c); Challa et al. (2018) are having correctness issues and cannot extend authentication between two entities. A multi factor remote user authentication scheme is designed by Dhillon and Kalra (2017) for IoT infrastructure but properties of user anonymity and untraceability is not offered by their scheme. The authentication schemes are classified by Chaung et al. into two types namely device to device and user to device models. Afterwards, a lightweight authentication scheme is presented by them, but their scheme is not able to offer anonymity of sensing device. A briefed survey on numerous authentication schemes, including schemes for IoT infrastructure, is applicable in Chen et al. (2020) and Ferrag et al. (2017). In literature, various security requirements are not satisfied by various authentication schemes (Hassan et al. 2020; Irshad et al. 2020) and the required functionality features are lacked by them (e.g. untraceability, anonymity, password change procedures and addition of IoT sensing device dynamically). Therefore, our goal is to design a new lightweight user authentication scheme appropriate for IoT environment, which will offer untraceability and anonymity.

# 2.1 Adversarial model

The common and realistic adversarial model as considered in Dolev and Yao (1983); Ali et al. (2020); Ghani et al. (2019) is adopted for the security analysis purposes. As per model, the  $\mathcal{A}$  posses following capabilities:

- 1.  $\mathcal{A}$  administer the communication over public channel. Precisely,  $\mathcal{U}_{\mathcal{A}}$  can intercept, modify, replay, and/or insert a new message and can stop anyone.
- Any user A registered with GWD, can extract data stored in his own smart card issued by the trusted party/GWD (Messerges et al. 2002; Kocher et al. 1999).
- 3. Any insider say A can expose the verifier information stored in the database maintained by GWD (Hao et al. 2020; He et al. 2018; Hussain and Chaudhry 2019).

# 3 Review of the scheme of Banerjee et al.

Following four phases describe Banerjee et al.'s protocol; whereas, Table 1 is provided for notations used in the paper.

# 3.1 Setup phase

System parameters are selected in this phase. The gateway node GN selects hash h(.), Fuzzy Probabilistic Generation FGen(.), Reproduction FRep(.) functions along with symmetric encryption/decryption  $E[.]_k$ ,  $D[.]_k$  algorithms. GN further selects the stateless CBC mode of AES algorithm. Finally, GN selects it's private key PKG.

# 3.2 IoT device enrollment phase

Any IoT device  $SD_k$  can be enrolled dynamically. On a enrollment request, GN selects an identity  $ID_y$ , a random number  $r_y$  and computes  $LSK_y = h(PKG \oplus h(ID_y||r_y))$  for requesting device  $SD_y$ . The GN then loads  $ID_y$  and  $LSK_y$  in memory of  $SD_y$  and deploys it in the system and updates the available devices list by adding  $SD_y$ .

# 3.3 User registration phase

Following steps are performed for registering a user:

Table 1 Notation guide

Notations	Description
$\overline{U_x}$ , $ID_x$ , $SC_x$	User, $U_x$ 's identity, smart card
$PW_x$ , $BIO_x$	Password and biometrics of $U_x$
,⊕	Concatenation, xor
$h(.),\stackrel{?}{=}$	Hash function, checking equality
$E[.]_k/D[.]_k$	Symmetric encryption and decryption using $k$ as key
$GN$ , $ID_{gn}$	Gateway node, Identity of GN
FGen() FRep()	Fuzzy generation and reproduction function
$LSK_x$	Long term shared key between $GN$ and entity $X$
PKG	Private key of GN
$\sigma_{_{\! X}}, \tau_{_{\! X}}$	Biometric key and reproduction parameter
$T_x$ , $\Delta T$	Time-stamp of entity $X$ , delay tolerance
$\Delta T_L$ , $A$	Life time of $EID_x$ , adversary



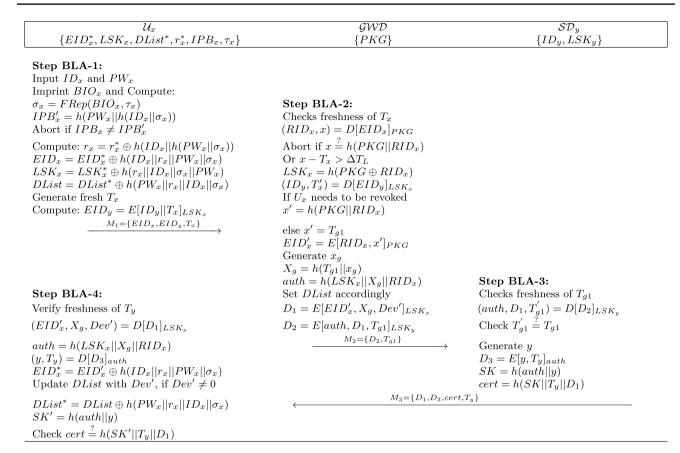


Fig. 1 The scheme of Banerjee et al

- BUR 1:  $\mathcal{U}_x$  selects  $ID_x$ ,  $r_x$  and computes  $RID_x = h(ID_x||r_x)$ . The  $\mathcal{U}_x$  sends  $RID_x$  to GN.
- BUR 2: The GN upon reception, computes  $LSK_x = h(PKG||RID_x)$  and gets current time stamp x. The GN then computes  $EID_x = E[RID_x, x]_PKG$  and imprints the tuple  $\{EID_x, LSK_x, DList\}$  in smart card  $SC_x$ , where DList defines the available for access, devices in the network for  $SC_x$ .
- BUR 3:  $\mathcal{U}_x$  upon receiving  $SC_x$ , selects  $PW_x$ , imprints  $BIO_x$  and computes  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\tau_x$  as  $(\sigma_x, \tau_x) = FGen(BIO_x)$  along with a verification token  $IPB_x = h(PW_x||h(ID_x||\sigma_x))$ .  $\mathcal{U}_x$  then computes  $r_x^* = r_x \oplus h(ID_x||h(PW_x||\sigma_x))$  and inserts  $r_x^*$  and  $IPB_x$  into  $SC_x$ .
- BUR 4: Finally,  $SC_x$  replaces  $EID_x^* = EID_x \oplus h$   $(ID_x||r_x||PW_x||\sigma_x)LSK_x^* = LSK_x \oplus h(r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x||PW_x)$  and  $DList^* = DList \oplus h(PW_x||r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x)$  in it's memory.

### 3.4 Login & authentication

The login and authentication procedure in Banerjee et al.'s scheme (*BLA*), as illustrated in Fig. 1, can be invoked by a registered user  $U_r$  of the system, when  $U_r$  decides to establish

- a connection with some IoT device  $SD_y$ . Following steps are performed between  $U_x$  and  $SD_y$ , for successful completion of this phase:
- BLA 1:  $U_x$  insert  $SC_x$  in reader and supplies  $ID_x$ ,  $PW_x$  and  $BIO_x$ .  $U_x$  then computes  $\sigma_x = FRep(BIO_x, \tau_x)$ ,  $IPB'_x = h(PW_x||h(ID_x||\sigma_x))$ . Aborts the session if  $IPB'_x$  computed is not equal to  $IPB_x$  stored in  $SC_x$ ; otherwise,  $SC_x$  computes  $r_x = r_x^* \oplus h(ID_x||h(PW_x||\sigma_x))$  and extracts  $EID_x = EID_x^* \oplus h(ID_x||r_x||PW_x||\sigma_x)$ ,  $LSK_x = LSK_x^* \oplus h(r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x||PW_x)$  and  $DList = DList^* \oplus h(PW_x||r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x)$ . The  $T_x$  is generated next and  $SC_x$  further computes  $EID_y = E[ID_y||T_x]_{LSK_x}$ . At end,  $SC_x$  sends the request message  $M_1 = \{EID_x, EID_y, T_x\}$  to GN.
- BLA 2: Upon reception of  $M_1$ , the GN checks the freshness of  $T_x$  with a maximum delay tolerance  $\Delta t$ , session is aborted by GN if  $T_x$  is not fresh. Otherwise, GN computes  $(RID_x, x) = D[EID_x]_{PKG}$ . The session is aborted if  $x = h(PKG||RID_x)$  holds or  $x T_x > \Delta T_L$ , both these implies that the access of  $U_x$  has been revoked. GN then c o m p u t e s  $LSK_x = h(PKG \oplus RID_x)$  a n d  $(ID_y, T_x') = D[EID_y]_{LSK_x}$ . Now, GN decides about access rights of user, if user needs to be revoked GN set

 $x' = h(PKG||RID_x)$  and in normal scenario GN sets  $x' = T_{g1}$ . The GN then computes  $EID'_x = E[RID_x, x']_{PKG}$ . Subsequently, GN extracts  $LSK_y$  corresponding to  $ID_y$ , generates random  $x_g$  and computes  $X_g = h(T_{g1}||x_g)$ ,  $auth = h(LSK_x||X_g||RID_x)$ . Then GN checks if the device access list DList of  $\mathcal{U}_x$  has changed in case of dynamic device addition, GN adds the change and in unchanged scenario, GN sets  $Dev' = \phi$ . Now, GN computes  $D_1 = E[EID'_x, X_g, Dev']_{LSK_x}$ ,  $D_2 = E[auth, D_1, T_{g1}]_{LSK_y}$  and sends  $M_2 = \{D_2, T_{g1}\}$  to IoT device  $SD_y$ .

- BLA 3: Once  $SD_y$  receives  $M_2 = \{D_2, T_{g1}\}$ , verifies the freshness of  $T_{g1}$  using the delay lag  $\Delta t$ . Upon successful freshness verification, the procedure continues and  $SD_y$  computes  $(auth, D_1, T'_{g1}) = D[D_2]_{LSK_y}$ . Then  $SD_y$  checks the equality of received  $T_{g1}$  and extracted  $T'_{g1}$  from  $D_2$   $(T'_{g1} = T_{g1})$ . Aborts the session in failure scenario. Otherwise,  $SD_y$  generates y and computes  $D_3 = E[y, T_y]_{auth}$ , SK = h(auth||y),  $cert = h(SK||T_y||D_1)$  and sends reply  $M_3 = \{D_1, D_3, cert, T_y\}$  directly to  $\mathcal{U}_x$ .
- BLA 4: Upon receiving  $M_3$ , the user  $\mathcal{U}_x$  verifies the freshness of  $T_y$  and in case of success, computes  $(EID'_x, X_g, Dev') = D[D_1]_{LSK_x}$ auth =  $h(LSK_x||X_g||RID_x)$  and  $(y, T'_y) = D[D_3]_{auth}$ . Then  $\mathcal{U}_x$  verifies the equality of received  $T_y$  and extracted  $T'_y$  from  $D_3$ . In success scenario,  $\mathcal{U}_x$  computes  $EID_x^* = EID'_x \oplus h(ID_x||r_x||PW_x||\sigma_x)$  and updates device list accordingly if  $Dev \neq \phi$  and replaces  $DList^*$  with  $DList^* = DList \oplus h(PW_x||r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x)$ .  $\mathcal{U}_x$  further computes SK' = h(auth||y) and checks  $cert = h(SK'||T_y||D_1)$ , the session key SK is accepted only if the cert equality holds. The SK' = h(auth||y) is the now used to establish the secure session between  $\mathcal{U}_x$  and  $SD_y$ .

# 4 Weaknesses of Banerjee et al.'s scheme

The discussion in this section shows that the authentication scheme for IoT by Banerjee et al. is incorrect. Moreover, their scheme is also vulnerable to stolen verifier attack. Following subsections present the weaknesses of Banerjee et al.'s scheme:

## 4.1 Incorrectness

The login and authentication phase of the scheme of Banerjee et al. can not complete normally, the user in their scheme, after sending a request message may never receive the response. Hence, there may be no authentication at all. The scenario can be depicted as follows:

1. The user say  $U_x$  initiates login request message by computing and sending  $M_1 = \{EID_x, EID_y, T_x\}$  to GN.

- 2. For processing the received request, The gateway device GN computes and sends  $M_2 = \{D_2, T_{g1}\}$  to an IoT device say  $SD_{y}$ .
- 3.  $SD_y$  upon reception of  $M_2 = \{D_2, T_{g1}\}$  from GN, verifies the validity and then computes response message  $M_3 = \{D_1, D_3, cert, T_y\}$  intended for  $\mathcal{U}_x$ . However,  $SD_y$  does not know the identity of  $\mathcal{U}_x$  nor it has any established connection with  $\mathcal{U}_x$ . The situation here is  $SD_y$  is sending a message to an unknown entity even without the receiver's address. Moreover,  $SD_y$  does not have any established connection with  $\mathcal{U}_x$ . Therefore,  $SD_y$  cannot send any message to  $\mathcal{U}_x$  directly.

Hence, Banerjee et al.'s scheme can work when there is one and only user of the system. Such situation is not desirable in any scenario. Specifically, the IoT scenario pre-requisites multiple devices connecting with multiple users on demand. The incorrectness of Banerjee et al.'s scheme leads to its' in-applicability in multiple scenario specially in IoT based deployments.

#### 4.2 Stolen verifier attack

In Banerjee et al.'s scheme, GN stores private key  $(LSK_i : \{i = 1 ... n\})$  of each device  $(ID_i : \{i = 1 ... n\})$  in its database/verifier table. These private keys are looked-up during processing of some user request in Step **BLA-2** completed by GN. Such verifiers are subject to stolen verifier attack as mentioned in realistic adversarial model in Sect. 2.1. Any adversary after stealing the verifier can impersonate as any device of the system using the private key of the real device. Therefore, Banerjee et al.'s scheme is susceptible to stolen verifier attack.

### 5 Proposed ILAS-IoT

We have slightly modified IoT device enrollment phase and some changes are made in login and authentication phases of Banerjee et al.'s proposal; whereas, the user registration, password and biometric update, card revocation and dynamic device addition phases are taken as it is from Banerjee et al.'s scheme. Moreover, in this article an explanation regarding the post authentication, access control phase is also given. The proposed ILAS-IoT as depicted in Fig. 2 is explained in following subsections:

## 5.1 Setup phase

System parameters are selected in this phase. The gateway node GN selects hash h(.), Fuzzy Probabilistic Generation FGen(.), Reproduction FRep(.) functions along with symmetric encryption/decryption  $E[.]_k$ ,  $D[.]_k$  algorithms. GN



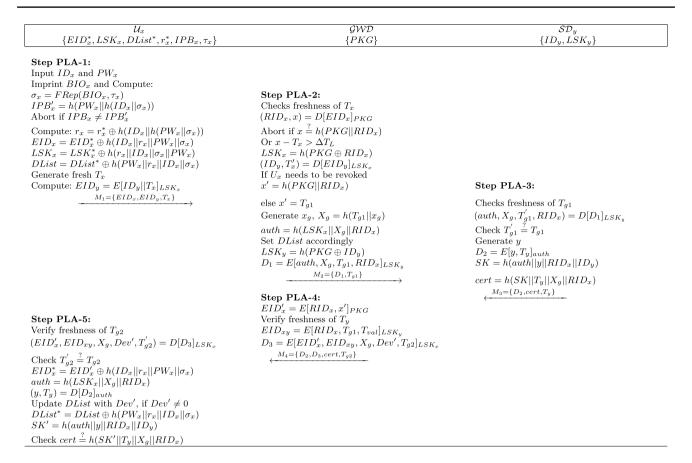


Fig. 2 Proposed ILAS-IoT

further selects the stateless CBC mode of AES algorithm. Finally, *GN* selects it's private key *PKG*.

# 5.2 IoT device enrollment phase

Any IoT device  $SD_k$  can be enrolled dynamically. On a enrollment request, GN selects an identity  $ID_y$ , a random number  $r_y$  and computes  $LSK_y = h(PKG \oplus ID_y)$  for requesting device  $SD_y$ . The GN then loads  $ID_y$  and  $LSK_y$  in memory of  $SD_y$  and deploys it in the system and updates the available devices list by adding  $SD_y$ .

**Note:** In proposed ILAS-IoT, *GN* only stores identities of IoT devices. *GN* does not store private key of any user or IoT device. To avoid stolen verifier attack, we have amended the formation of private key of each device.

#### 5.3 Login & authentication

The login and authentication procedure in proposed ILAS-IoT (*PLA*) can be invoked by a registered user  $\mathcal{U}_x$  of the system, when  $\mathcal{U}_x$  decides to establish a connection with some IoT device  $SD_y$ . Following steps are performed between  $\mathcal{U}_x$  and  $SD_y$ , for successful completion of this phase:

PLA 1:  $U_x$  insert  $SC_x$  in reader and supplies  $ID_x$ ,  $PW_x$  and  $BIO_x$ .  $U_x$  then computes  $\sigma_x = FRep(BIO_x, \tau_x)$ ,  $IPB'_x = h(PW_x||h(ID_x||\sigma_x))$ . Aborts the session if  $IPB'_x$  computed is not equal to  $IPB_x$  stored in  $SC_x$ ; otherwise,  $SC_x$  computes  $r_x = r_x^* \oplus h(ID_x||h(PW_x||\sigma_x))$  and extracts  $EID_x = EID_x^* \oplus h(ID_x||r_x||PW_x||\sigma_x)$ ,  $LSK_x = LSK_x^* \oplus h(r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x||PW_x)$  and  $DList = DList^* \oplus h(PW_x||r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x)$ . The  $T_x$  is generated next and  $SC_x$  further computes  $EID_y = E[ID_y||T_x]_{LSK_x}$ . At end,  $SC_x$  sends the request message  $M_1 = \{EID_x, EID_y, T_x\}$  to GN.

PLA 2: Upon reception of  $M_1$ , the GN checks the freshness of  $T_x$  with a maximum delay tolerance  $\Delta t$ , session is aborted by GN if  $T_x$  is not fresh. Otherwise, GN computes  $(RID_x, x) = D[EID_x]_{PKG}$ . The session is aborted if  $x = h(PKG|RID_x)$  holds or  $x - T_x > \Delta T_L$ , both these implies that the access of  $\mathcal{U}_x$  has been revoked. GN then c o m p u t e s  $LSK_x = h(PKG \oplus RID_x)$  a n d  $(ID_y, T_x') = D[EID_y]_{LSK_x}$ . Now, GN decides about access rights of user, if user needs to be revoked GN set  $x' = h(PKG||RID_x)$  and in normal scenario GN sets  $x' = T_{g1}$ . The GN then computes  $EID_x' = E[RID_x, x']_{PKG}$ . Subsequently, GN computes  $LSK_y = h(PKG||ID_y)$  corresponding to  $ID_y$ , generates random  $x_p$  and computes



 $X_g = h(T_{g1}||x_g)$ ,  $auth = h(LSK_x||X_g||RID_x)$ . Then GN checks if the device access list DList of  $U_x$  has changed in case of dynamic device addition, GN adds the change and in unchanged scenario, GN sets  $Dev' = \phi$ . Now, GN computes  $D_1 = E[auth, X_g, T_{g1}, RID_x]_{LSK_y}$  and sends  $M_2 = \{D_1, T_{g1}\}$  to IoT device  $SD_y$ .

PLA 3: Once  $SD_y$  receives  $M_2 = \{D_1, T_{g1}\}$ , verifies the freshness of  $T_{g1}$  using the delay lag  $\Delta t$ . Upon successful freshness verification, the procedure continues and  $SD_y$  computes  $(auth, X_g, T'_{g1}, RID_x) = D[D_1]_{LSK_y}$ . Then  $SD_y$  checks the equality of received  $T_{g1}$  and extracted  $T'_{g1}$  from  $D_1T'_{g1} = T_{g1}$ . Aborts the session in failure scenario. Otherwise,  $SD_y$  generates y and computes  $D_2 = E[y, T_y]_{auth}$ ,  $SK = h(auth||y||RID_x||ID_y)cert = h(SK||T_y||X_g||RID_x)$  and sends reply  $M_3 = \{D_2, cert, T_y\}$  directly to  $\mathcal{U}_x$ .

PLA 4: Upon receiving  $M_3$ , the GN verifies the freshness of  $T_y$  and in case of success, computes  $EID_{xy} = E[RID_x, T_{g1}, T_{val}]_{LSK_y}$  and generates new time stamp  $T_{g2}$ . The GN then computes  $D_3 = E[EID'_x, EID_{xy}, X_g, Dev', T_{g2}]_{LSK_x}$  and sends  $M_4 = \{D_2, D_3, cert, T_{g2}\}$  to  $\mathcal{U}_y$ .

PLA 5: Upon receiving  $M_4$ ,  $\mathcal{U}_x$  verifies the freshness of  $T_{g2}$  and in case of success, computes  $(EID_x', EID_{xy}, X_g, Dev', T_{g2}') = D[D_3]_{LSK_x}$  and replaces  $EID_x^* = EID_x' \oplus h(ID_x||r_x||PW_x||\sigma_x)$ .  $\mathcal{U}_x$  now computes auth  $= h(LSK_x||X_g||RID_x)$ ,  $(y, T_y) = D[D_2]_{auth}$  and updates device list accordingly if  $Dev \neq \phi$  and replaces  $DList^*$  with  $DList^* = DList \oplus h(PW_x||r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x)$ . The  $\mathcal{U}_x$  further computes  $SK' = h(auth||y||RID_x||ID_y)$  and checks  $cert = h(SK'||T_y||X_g||RID_x)$ , the session key SK is accepted only if the cert equality holds.  $\mathcal{U}_x$  stores dynamic pseudo identity  $EID_{xy}$  for subsequent time based access control of  $SD_y$ . The  $SK' = h(auth||y||RID_x||ID_y)$  is the now used to establish the secure session between  $\mathcal{U}_x$  and  $SD_y$ .

# 5.4 Access control phase

This phase as illustrated in Fig. 3, concerns with access control/data collection by an IoT device. The phase is initiated after a successful round of login and authentication (Zhou et al. 2019; Wu et al. 2018) with key agreement between a user  $\mathcal{U}_x$  and IoT device  $SD_y$  with the help of gateway node GN.  $\mathcal{U}_x$  gets access rights for a limited time and a secure session key SK is exchanged between  $\mathcal{U}_x$  and  $SD_y$ . For access control purposes,  $\mathcal{U}_x$  generates fresh time stamp  $T_{xf}$  and computes  $C_1 = E[m_x, T_{xf}]_{SK}$  and sends  $U_m = \{EID_{xy}, C_1, T_{xf}\}$  to  $SD_y$ . Upon reception,  $SD_y$  verifies the freshness of  $T_{xf}$  and on successful verification (Alamer 2020), computes  $(RID_x, T_{g1}, T_{val}) = D[EID_{xy}]_{LSK_y}$ .  $SD_y$  checks the validity of  $EID_{xy}$  by verifying the lag between

the gateway's time stamp  $T_{current} >= T_{val} - T_{g1}$ . Upon successful validation  $SD_y$  decrypts  $(m_x, T'_{xf}) = D[C_1]_{SK}$  and checks  $T'_{xf} \stackrel{?}{=} T_{xf}$ . On success and as per the required information  $m_x$ , the sensor node generates fresh time stamp  $T_{yf}$ , encrypts the response data  $m_y$  as  $C_2 = E[m_y, T_{yf}]_{SK}$  and sends  $S_m = \{C_2, T_{yf}\}$  to  $\mathcal{U}_x$ . The  $\mathcal{U}_x$  on receiving  $S_m$  verifies the freshness of  $T_{yf}$  and on success, computes  $(m_y, T'_{yf}) = D[S_m]_{SK}$  and verifies the equality  $T'_{yf} \stackrel{?}{=} T_{yf}$ . The data  $m_y$  is accepted by  $\mathcal{U}_x$  on successful verification.

**Note:** The access rights delegated to  $\mathcal{U}_x$  are valid for a certain time and  $\mathcal{U}_x$  has to renew its lease once validity expires. This is true depiction of real world IoT objects, where user pays to acquire services for limited time and renews his lease after expiration, like: PayTV system, telecare medical services etc.

# 6 Security analysis

The formal and informal analysis of ILAS-IoT is presented in this section. To prove the session key security we have used ROR model (Abdalla et al. 2005). Furthermore, informal security analysis shows that the resilience of proposed scheme against realistic attacks.

# 6.1 Informal security analysis

Here, the security features extended by ILAS-IoT are discussed. The security analysis demonstrates the correctness of ILAS-IoT and highlights that it is secured against various attacks.

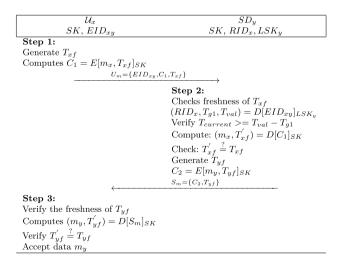


Fig. 3 ILAS-IoT access control phase



#### 6.1.1 Stolen verifier attack

The introduced scheme in this paper is free from storing any database containing verifier. Similarly, there is no database maintained by server. Moreover, the  $\mathcal{U}_x$  does not send the password in plain text so insider is not able to exploit and misapply  $\mathcal{U}_x$  Password.

#### 6.1.2 User impersonation attack

An attacker  $\mathcal{A}$  may attempt to launch user impersonation attack (UIA) to feign as another user say  $\mathcal{U}_x$  and for faking purposes,  $\mathcal{A}$  may send  $M_1$  (request message) to  $\mathcal{GWD}$  by pretending as  $\mathcal{U}_x$ . The legitimate request  $M_1 = \{EID_x, EID_y, T_x\}$  contains timestamp  $T_x$ , which can be constructed easily; whereas, to compute  $EID_y = E[ID_y || T_x]_{LSK_x}$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  needs  $ID_y$  and  $LSK_x$ , which are secret. Therefore, it may be a failed attempt. Thus, forging  $M_1$  is computationally infeasible and ILAS-IoT provides resilience against UIA.

## 6.1.3 $\mathcal{GWD}$ impersonation attack

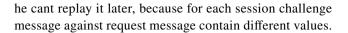
 $\mathcal{A}$  may attempt to feign as  $\mathcal{GWD}$  by faking the message  $M_2 = D_1, T_{g1}$  and may send forged  $M_2$  to some device  $\mathcal{SD}_{\uparrow}$ .  $\mathcal{A}$  can produce  $T_{g1}$  freshly on the fly. However, the legitimate  $D_1 = E[auth, X_g, T_{g1}, RID_x]LSK_y$  can only be generated if  $\mathcal{A}$  has access to shared key  $LSK_y$  between  $\mathcal{GWD}$  as well as  $X_g$  and  $RID_x$  which are secret and finding these are computationally infeasible. Thus, forging  $M_2$  is computationally infeasible and ILAS-IoT provides resilience against  $\mathcal{GWD}$  impersonation attack.

#### 6.1.4 Smart device impersonation attack (SDIA)

 $\mathcal{A}$  may attempt to feign as smart device  $\mathcal{SD}_y$  by faking the message  $M_3 = D_2, cert, T_y$  and may send forged  $M_3$  to some device  $\mathcal{GWD}$ .  $\mathcal{A}$  can produce  $T_y$  freshly on the fly. However, the legitimate  $D_2 = E[y, T_y]_a uth$  and  $SK = h(auth||y||RID_x||ID_y)$  as well as  $cert = h(SK||T_y||X_g||RID_x)$  can only be generated if  $\mathcal{A}$  has access to shared key auth as well as  $LSK_y$  between  $\mathcal{GWD}$  as well as  $X_g$  and  $RID_x$  which are secret and finding these are computationally infeasible. Thus, forging  $M_3$  is computationally infeasible and ILAS-IoT provides resilience against  $\mathcal{SD}_y$  impersonation attack.

# 6.1.5 Replay attack

For each session timestamps are generated  $T_x$ ,  $T_{g1}$ ,  $T_y$  if the adversary as a malicious A intercepts the request message



# 6.1.6 Smart card stolen attack

The smartcard in proposed ILAS-IoT consists of  $\{EID_x^*, LSK_x^*, DList^*, r_x^*, IPB_x\}$ . Let  $\mathcal{A}$  attempts to verify a guessed  $PW_x$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  has  $r_x^* = r_x \oplus h(ID_x||h(PW_x||\sigma_x))$ , inserts  $r_x^*$  and  $IPB_x$  into  $SC_x$ ,  $EID_x^* = EID_x \oplus h(ID_x||r_x||PW_x||\sigma_x)$ ,  $LSK_x^* = LSK_x \oplus h(r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x||PW_x)$  and  $DList^* = DList \oplus h(PW_x||r_x||ID_x||\sigma_x)$  parameters to perform the said task. However, without having the secrets  $r_x$ ,  $\sigma_x$  and  $ID_x$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  will have to solve a computationally hard problem to verify the guessed password  $PW_x$ . Likewise,  $\mathcal{A}$  needs  $r_x$ ,  $PW_x$ , and  $ID_x$  to compute  $\sigma_x$ . Hence, even if the smart card is stolen, the attacker will have no benefit to locate the password and/or biometrics.

### 6.1.7 Provision of user anonymity

In our introduced protocol,  $ID_x$  (identity) of  $\mathcal{U}_x$  is not being sent in plain text. In-fact  $EID_x = EID_x^* \oplus (ID_x, r_x, PW_x, \sigma_x)$  is computed and forwarded over secure channel to  $\mathcal{GWD}$ . Moreover, only the legitimate  $\mathcal{GWD}$  can extract  $ID_x$  after having the private key of server  $\mathcal{GWD}$ . Therefore, our introduced protocol offers user anonymity.

#### 6.1.8 Man-in-the-middle attack

Suppose  $U_A$  intercepts the login message  $\{EID_x, EID_y, T_x\}$ , still he can not change the login message because the value of  $EID_x$  and  $EID_y$  is encrypted by private key PKG. So, the ILAS-IoT protocol is secured against Man-in-the-middle attack.

# 6.1.9 Sensing-device physical capture

 $\mathcal{A}$  can capture one or more sensing devices deployed in some hostile environment and the parameters  $\{ID_y, LSK_y\}$  stored in each device are subject to expose by power analysis. The  $\mathcal{A}$  after accessing  $\{ID_y, LSK_y\}$  can only compromise those devices, as this pair of values are unique for each device, Therefore, capturing of one or more devices may not effect the secure communication of non-captured devices with user and gateway.

# 6.1.10 $\mathcal{GWD}$ bypassing

Through  $\mathcal{GWD}$  bypassing,  $\mathcal{A}$  by creating some legal message and send it directly to some device or user and the  $\mathcal{GWD}$  is bypassed in this scenario. In ILAS-IoT any attacker may attempt to bypass  $\mathcal{GWD}$  and send message  $M_2 = D_1, T_{g1}$  to some device  $\mathcal{SD}_{v}$ . However, as described in Sect. 6.1.3, it



has been discussed that forging  $M_3$  is computationally hard problem. Hence, proposed ILAS-IoT resists bypassing  $\mathcal{GWD}$ 

6.2 Formal security analysis

Before providing the formal security proof, we define the ROR model (Abdalla et al. 2005), which has been used in many schemes (Irshad et al. 2020; Chaudhry et al. 2020; Li et al. 2019; Chen et al. 2019c; Banerjee et al. 2019; Mahmood et al. 2019) for security proofs.

#### 6.2.1 ROR model

The proposed ILAS-IoT involves three entities (1) User  $U_x$ , (2) Gateway device  $\mathcal{GWD}$  and (3) IoT device  $\mathcal{SD}_y$ . Following are attached with ROR model, related to the scheme:

- A: Participants: Www indicate  $\pi_{ux}^x$ ,  $\pi_{GWD}^y$  and  $\pi_{SD_y^z}$ , where x, y, z are instances that are corresponding to the  $\mathcal{U}_x$ ,  $\mathcal{GWD}$  and  $\mathcal{SD}_y$ . These instances are also offers as oracles.
- B: Accepted state: Lets assume that  $\pi^z$  is an instance and  $\pi^z$  represents an accepted state, after disposition of the final message of expected protocol. If all the messages of  $\pi^z$  are managed into series, then it develops current session's identifier sid of  $\pi^z$ .
- C: Partnering: Two instances,  $\pi^{z_1}$  and  $\pi^{z_2}$  are consider partner if following indicators are fulfilled: i)  $\pi_1^z$  and  $\pi_2^z$  will be in accept state. ii)  $\pi^{z_1}$  and  $\pi^{z_2}$  will authenticate each other while having same std; and iii)  $\pi^{z_1}$  and  $\pi^{z_2}$  will be partners.
- D: Freshness: We consider the instance either  $\pi_{U_x}^x$  and  $\pi_{SD_y}^y$  as fresh when SK between  $\mathcal{U}_x$  and  $S\mathcal{D}_y$  is not exposed to  $\mathcal{A}$  with defined Reveal ( $\pi^z$ ) query (Chaudhry et al. 2020).
- E: Adversary: According to the adversarial model 2.1,  $\mathcal{A}$  have full control over all the messages that are being communicated because ROR model is constructed over DY threat model (Dolev and Yao 1983). It means that  $\mathcal{A}$  can breach, delete and effect integrity of the transmitted messages. Furthermore, following queries are also accessible of  $\mathcal{A}$  (Chang and Le 2015).
- F: Execute( $\pi^x$ ,  $\pi^y$ ,  $\pi^z$ ):  $\mathcal{A}$  can intercept all the messages among  $\mathcal{U}_a$ ,  $\mathcal{GWD}$  and  $\mathcal{SD}_v$  by executing this query.
- G: Send( $\pi^z$ , msg): An active attack can be performed by executing this query. Using Send query can initiate as message as well as receive a response by participating instance  $\pi^z$ .
- H: Reveal  $(\pi^z)$ : This query helps to reveal the *SK* computed by  $\pi^z$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ .

- I: CorruptSC  $(\pi_{U_x}^x)$ : With the execution of query, the credentials  $\{EID_x^x, LSK_s, DList^*, r_x^*, IPB_x, \pi_x\}$  stored in  $\mathcal{U}'s_x$  lost smart card are known to  $\mathcal{A}$
- J: CorruptSD ( $\pi_{SD_y}^z$ ): This query helps  $\mathcal{A}$  to extract credentials { $ID_y$ ,  $LSK_y$ , } from the stolen or captured IOT device  $SD_y$ . Both queries CorruptSD and CorruptSC are assumed to provide weak Corrupt model in which internal data short term key are not Corrupted (Chang and Le 2015).
- K: Test( $\pi^z$ ): SK established between  $\mathcal{U}_x$  and  $\mathcal{SD}_y$  following the in-distinguishabilty of ROR model (Abdalla et al. 2005) can be determine using  $Test(\pi^z)$  query. First of all, a coin Cn is needed to be tossed up and then its resultant is available to  $\mathcal{A}$ . This resultant decides the Test query's result. Let suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  executes the query. If session key SK fresh than  $\pi^z$  generates SK after the satisfaction off condition Cn = 1 or a randomly generated number for the holding of the condition Cn = 0 else, it returns null.

According to Chaudhry et al. (2020),  $\mathcal{A}$  can access only limited number of CorruptSD ( $\pi^z_{SD_y}$ ) and  $CorruptSC(\pi^z_{SD_y})$  queries.  $\mathcal{A}$  cannot make make any corrupt query corresponding to  $\mathcal{GWD}$  until the  $\mathcal{GWD}$  is trusted. All entities of the scheme including adversary can access hash function h(.). Hash function is modeled as random oracle, termed as  $\mathcal{H}$ 

# 6.2.2 Security proof

Under the ROR model, proposed ILAS-IoT system's security  $\mathcal{P}_s$ , is described in Theorem T. It is observed in Wang et al. (2017) that Zipf's law does not represent the passwords in uniform distribution space. Particularly, the size of user's password is much more restricted because user's normally use small space of the allowed character for password (Wang et al. 2017). So, we have applied zipf's law to prove the security of session key in Theorem T.

Theorem T If  $\mathcal{A}$  is an adversary running against  $P_s$ , l indicates the total bits in biometric secret key and x and  $Advt_{P_s}^{AKE}$ , A is  $\mathcal{A}$ 's advantage in breaking  $P_s$  then  $Advt_{P_s,\mathcal{A}}^{AKE} \leq \frac{q_{ns}^2}{|Hash|} + 2(\{C',q_{sn}^{s'},\frac{q_{sn}}{2^l}\} + Advt_{\Omega}^{IND-CPA}(K))$  where  $q_{hs}$ ,  $q_{sn}$  and |Hash| are the  $\mathcal{H}$  queries, Send queries and the range of hash function h(.) while the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  in cracking the IND-CPA symmetric cipher  $\Omega$  in  $Advt_{\Omega}^{IND-CPA}(K) = Advt_{\Omega,SE}^{IND-CPA}(K)$ . C' and s' are the zipf's parameter (Wang et al. 2017).

**Proof** We use the similar proof of theorem as defined in Wang et al. (2017), with five games  $G_x(x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4)$ . Let  $Succ_A^{G_x}$  indicates an event where  $\mathcal{A}$  can easily guess the



random bit b in Game  $G_x$ , while the corresponding advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $Advt_{P_A}^{G_x} = P_r[Succ_A^{G_x}]$ .

**Game**  $G_0$ : This is the first game, which is corresponding to the attack executed by  $\mathcal{A}$  in ROR model against ILAS-IoT scheme  $\mathcal{P}_s$ . Until bit b is chosen from the start of  $GameG_0$ , it follows the semantic security's definition that

$$Advt_{P_{o},A}^{AKE} = |2Advt_{P_{o},A}^{G_0} - 1|$$

$$\tag{1}$$

**Game**  $G_1$ : An execute query can made by  $\mathcal{A}$ , and breaches all the messages  $M_1 = \{EID_x, EID_y, T_x\}$ ,  $M_2 = \{D_1, T_{g1}\}$ ,  $M_3 = \{D_2, cret, T_y\}$  and  $M_4 = \{D_2, D_3, cret, T_{g2}\}$  transmitted in different phases of the ILAS-IoT scheme. *Test* query is made by  $\mathcal{A}$  after finishing of this game. This originality of session key  $SK = \{auth||y||RID_x||ID_y\}$  is decided on the basic test query's outcome. In  $SK = \{auth||y||RID_x||ID_y\}$  and  $Y_g = (T_{g1}||x_g)T_{g1}$  and  $x_g$  are the secret keys chosen by  $\mathcal{GWD}$  and  $\mathcal{SD}_y$  respectively. So,  $\mathcal{A}$  needs the  $T_{g1}$ ,  $x_g$ ,  $X_g$ ,  $LTK_x$  and  $RID_x$  to calculate the session key SK. All these credentials cannot be derived by  $\mathcal{A}$ , the probabilities of winning the game is not enhanced. Therefore,

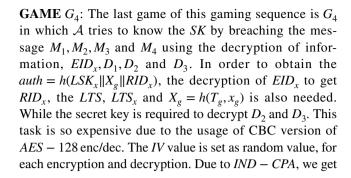
$$Advt_{P,\mathcal{A}}^{G_1} = Advt_{P,\mathcal{A}}^{G_0} \tag{2}$$

**Game**  $G_2$ : Except *Send* and H queries included in  $G_2$ , it is distinguishable with respect to  $G_1$  are almost same. The main task of A in  $G_2$  is to convince the participant that the message is not changed but legitimate. In ILAS-IoT scheme, it is important to note that all the messages  $M_1, M_2, M_3$  and  $M_4$  are made in a way that all are dynamic and no collision occurs in them. As per the work of birthday paradox, it follows

$$|Advt_{P_s,\mathcal{A}}^{G_1} - Advt_{P_s,\mathcal{A}}^{G_2}| \le q_{ns}^2 \left(\frac{2}{|Hash|}\right) \tag{3}$$

**Game**  $G_3$ : The simulation of *CorruptSD* and *CorruptSC* are introduced in  $G_3$ .  $\mathcal{A}$  can got the information  $\{EID_x^*, LSK_x, DList^*, r_x^*, IPB_x, T_x\}$  stored in  $\mathcal{U}_x$  smart card and  $\{ID_y, LSK_y\}$  of captured deice  $\mathcal{SD}_y'$ . But  $ID_y$  and  $LTK_y$  are different for non-captured device  $\mathcal{SD}_y$ . The user  $\mathcal{U}_x$  uses biometric and password. The chances of guessing the secret key of biometric  $\sigma_x$  of l bits is almost  $\frac{1}{2_l}[49]$ . Adversary can also use zipf's law to guess the low entropy password (Wang et al. 2017). While considering the trawling guessing attacks then the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  will be over 0.5 when  $V_{sn}=10^7$  or  $10^8$  (Wang et al. 2017). As  $G_3$  and  $G_4$  are similar in the case of guessing attack's absence, so the resultant is as follow:

$$|[Advt_{P_s,\mathcal{A}}^{G_2} - Advt_{P_s,\mathcal{A}}^{G_2}]| \le max\left\{C', q_{sn}^{s'}, \frac{q_{sn}}{2^l}\right\}$$
(4)



$$|Advt_{P_{e},A}^{G_3} - Advt_{P_{e},A}^{G_4}| \le Advt_{\Omega}^{IND-CDA}(K)$$
 (5)

After the execution of all oracles, the only thing remain to guess is bit b for winning the game after querying the Test query. So,  $Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_4} = \frac{1}{2}$ . From equation 1 and 2 we get  $(\frac{1}{2})$ .  $Advt^AKE_{P_s,A} = |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_0} - \frac{1}{2}| = |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1} - |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_4}|$ . The inequality of triangular gives  $|Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1} - Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_0}| \le |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1} - Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1}| + |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_2} - Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_4}| \le |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1} - Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_2}| + |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_2} - Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_3}| + |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_3} - Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_4}| \le (\frac{q_{ns}^2}{2}) + |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1} - Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_2}| \le (\frac{q_{ns}^2}{2}) + |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1} - Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1}| \le (\frac{q_{ns}^2}{2}) + |Advt_{P_s,A}^{G_1} - Advt_{P_s,$ 

$$Advt_{P_s,\mathcal{A}}^{AKE} \leq q_{ns}^2 |Hash| + 2\left(max\left\{C'.q_{sn}^{s'}, \left(\frac{q_2}{2^l}\right)\right\} + adv_{\Omega}^{IND-CPA}(K)\right)$$

$$\tag{6}$$

# 7 Comparative study

This section presents a comparative study of the introduced scheme with related IoT based schemes in terms of computation and communication complexities and security features/ attack resilience provided by these schemes.

#### 7.1 Computation complexity

For computation complexity,  $T_{oh}$  donate the time required for one way hash function,  $T_{Ec/Dc}$  donate the time required for encryption decryption and  $T_m$  donate the time required for point of multiplication. The approximate time required (in milli seconds) to perform the cryptographic operations that

Table 2 Comparison of computation and communication overheads

$\downarrow$ Protocols/cost $\rightarrow$	Computation	Comm.
ILAS-IoT	$20T_{oh} + 10T_{Ec/Dc} = 97$ ms	4224
Banerjee et al. (2019)	$19T_{oh} + 10T_{Ec/Dc} = 96.5 \text{ ms}$	3296
Li et al. (2019)	$26T_{oh} + 8T_{Ec/Dc} = 82.5 \text{ ms}$	4800
Chen et al. (2019c)	$19T_{oh} + 16T_m = 891.5 \text{ ms}$	3488
Chang and Le (2015)	$20T_{oh} + 4T_m = 263.3 \text{ ms}$	4704



**Table 3** Comparison of security features

	-		-		
Protocols→	Our	Banerjee et al. (2019)	Li et al. (2019)	Chen et al. (2019c)	Chang and Le (2015)
Features↓					
$\overline{\mathcal{SFC}_1}$	<b>✓</b>	×	×	<b>✓</b>	<b>✓</b>
$\mathcal{SFC}_2$	✓	✓	$\checkmark$	×	✓
$\mathcal{SFC}_3$	✓	✓	$\checkmark$	✓	×
$\mathcal{SFC}_4$	✓	✓	$\checkmark$	✓	✓
$\mathcal{SFC}_5$	✓	✓	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	✓
$\mathcal{SFC}_6$	✓	✓	$\checkmark$	×	×
$\mathcal{SFC}_7$	✓	✓	$\checkmark$	✓	✓
$\mathcal{SFC}_8$	✓	✓	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	✓
$\mathcal{SFC}_9$	✓	✓	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	✓
$\mathcal{SFC}_{10}$	✓	X	$\checkmark$	✓	✓
$\mathcal{SFC}_{11}$	✓	×	×	-	_

 $\mathcal{SFC}_1$  Correctness,  $\mathcal{SFC}_2$  user impersonation attack,  $\mathcal{SFC}_3$  gateway impersonation attack,  $\mathcal{SFC}_4$  IOT smart device impersonation attack,  $\mathcal{SFC}_5$  replay attack,  $\mathcal{SFC}_6$  smart card stolen attack,  $\mathcal{SFC}_7$  user anonymity,  $\mathcal{SFC}_8$  man in the middle attack,  $\mathcal{SFC}_9$  resilience against sensing device physical capture attack,  $\mathcal{SFC}_{10}$  stolen verifier attack,  $\mathcal{SFC}_{11}$  access control phase

are used in scheme are taken from the experimental results performed in He et al. (2013) and Jiang et al. (2014) where  $T_{oh}$ ,  $T_{Ec/DC}$  and  $T_m$  takes 0.5 ms, 8.7 ms and 63.075 ms, respectively. The Table 2 demonstrates that the proposed ILAS-IoT takes less overall computation complexity then the existing protocols.

#### 7.2 Communication overhead

For communication overhead, it is assumed that arbitrary number, password, P the point multiplication, username and time stamp are 160-bit long, server's public and private key are 256-bits, hash function is 256-bits, Encryption and decryption are 512 bits, the Table 2 summarizes the communication overhead. Although, proposed ILAS-IoT scheme increased some computation and communication costs as compared with Banerjee et al.'s scheme, but in the Table 2 it can be clearly seen that the ILAS-IoT takes less communication cost than most of the existing protocols.

# 7.3 Security features

Table 3 demonstrates the comparative summary of functionality and security features of our scheme and other related schemes. Proposed ILAS-IoT provides known security features and thwarts all known attacks, the scheme of Banerjee et al. lacks correctness and is vulnerable to stolen verifier attack as mentioned in Sects. 4.1, 4.2. The same incorrectness issue is persistent in Wazid et al.'s scheme,

where the gateway generates the user specific credentials without specifying a user. It's important to understand the information (Chen et al. 2019a). The user in Wazid et al.'s scheme sends alias identity and the gateway is having no information to extract his credentials and the scheme (if it is) can work with only a single user. Moreover schemes of Wazid et al. and Banerjee et al. do not provide the access control method. The scheme of Challa et al. is helpless against user impersonation and Chang and Le's scheme is vulnerable to gateway impersonation attack, whereas, both the mentioned schemes are unable to detect replay attack.

### 8 Conclusion

In this paper, we analyzed a recent lightweight authenticated key agreement scheme presented by Banerjee et al. We have shown that their scheme is not correct and is vulnerable to stolen verifier attack. Moreover, their scheme lacks the description regarding the access control phase. We than proposed an improved and light weight scheme for IoT based deployments (ILAS-IoT). The security of ILAS-IoT is carried out using formal and informal methods. Although, the ILAS-IoT increased some computation and communication overheads as compared with Banerjee et al.'s scheme, but ILAS-IoT provides resistance to all known attacks including stolen verifier attacks and completes the process correctly. Moreover, ILAS-IoT also provides access control mechanism and is more desirable in IoT based access control scenarios.

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