

On the Applicability of Combinatorial Designs to Key Predistribution for Wireless Sensor Networks

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This presentation

There have been a number of proposals to use **combinatorial designs** in different ways to construct **key predistribution schemes** for **wireless sensor networks**.

We will provide an overview of these techniques and ask:

Question

Are these uses of combinatorial designs appropriate?

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A major computing trend is towards:

- ▶ distributed,
- ▶ dynamic,
- ▶ wireless

networks consisting of lightweight devices, such as **wireless sensor networks (WSNs)**.

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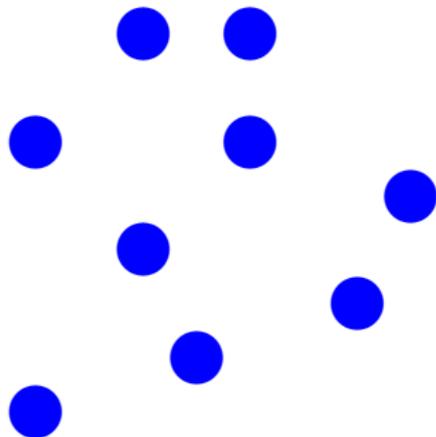
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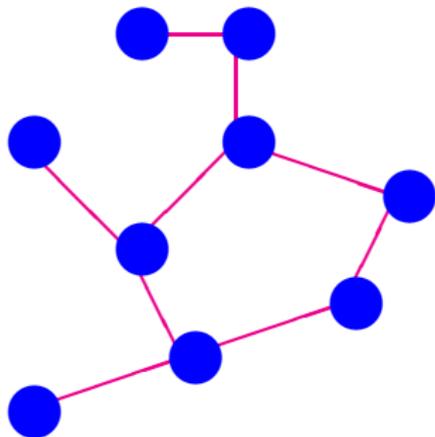
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Wireless sensor network characteristics

WSNs are characterised by:

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Wireless sensor network characteristics

WSNs are characterised by:

- ▶ **Highly constrained nodes:** Very small battery-powered devices, highly constrained with respect to memory, storage and power.

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WSNs are characterised by:

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- ▶ **Lack of central control:** After deployment, all network functionality must be achieved through co-operation between the nodes.

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- ▶ **Requirement to connect to a sink:** Nodes will communicate data back to a **sink**.

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- ▶ **Dynamic network structure:** Nodes regularly **sleep** and **expire**.

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- ▶ **Hop-based communication:** Nodes communicate by **hopping** (a node passes data to a node within range).
- ▶ **Dynamic network structure:** Nodes regularly **sleep** and **expire**.
- ▶ **Nodes vulnerable to compromise.** Physical security protection such as tamper-resistance is usually not viable, thus nodes can be fairly easily captured.

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Three assumptions

1. **Homogeneous nodes:** We will assume that all nodes have the same capabilities and constraints.

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Three assumptions

1. **Homogeneous nodes:** We will assume that all nodes have the same capabilities and constraints.
2. **Communication structure:** We will assume that the main aim of any communication in the WSN is to send data from a node to the sink. We will thus not be attempting to set up fully connected subnetworks or establish group keys.

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Three assumptions

1. **Homogeneous nodes:** We will assume that all nodes have the same capabilities and constraints.
2. **Communication structure:** We will assume that the main aim of any communication in the WSN is to send data from a node to the sink. We will thus not be attempting to set up fully connected subnetworks or establish group keys.
3. **No mobility:** We will assume that nodes are not mobile after deployment.

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Classification of WSN environments

1. **Uncontrolled** if the location of sensors cannot be predicted before deployment. This is the default WSN scenario.

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Classification of WSN environments

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2. **Partially controlled** if some information about the location of sensors is known before deployment.

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Classification of WSN environments

1. **Uncontrolled** if the location of sensors cannot be predicted before deployment. This is the default WSN scenario.
2. **Partially controlled** if some information about the location of sensors is known before deployment.
3. **Fully controlled** if the precise location of sensors is known before deployment.

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Cryptography in WSN environments

- ▶ We assume that the constraints lend themselves to the use of **symmetric** cryptography.
- ▶ There has been some debate about whether **public key** cryptography can be used on sensor nodes:

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Cryptography in WSN environments

- ▶ We assume that the constraints lend themselves to the use of **symmetric** cryptography.
- ▶ There has been some debate about whether **public key** cryptography can be used on sensor nodes:
 - ▶ Even if it can, symmetric cryptography may be preferred for efficiency reasons.
 - ▶ Related technology with smaller “sensors” is likely to be proposed.

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Sets systems

Definition

A *set system* $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$ consists of a set \mathcal{I} of v elements (*points*) and a collection \mathcal{B} of subsets (*blocks*) of \mathcal{I} .

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Definition

The **degree** of $x \in \mathcal{I}$ is the number of blocks of \mathcal{B} containing x and $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$ is **regular** if all points have the same degree r .

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Definition

The **rank** k of $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$ is the size of the largest block in \mathcal{B} and we say that $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$ is **uniform** if all blocks have size k .

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Definition

A regular, uniform set system with $|\mathcal{I}| = v$, $|\mathcal{B}| = b$ is known as a (v, b, r, k) -design. In such designs it must be the case that $bk = vr$.

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Definition

A (v, b, r, k) -design in which every t points occurs on precisely λ blocks is known as a t - (v, b, r, k, λ) -design (we often just refer to a t - (v, k, λ) -design since b and r can then be uniquely derived).

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Definition

In a *dual* design, the roles of points and blocks are interchanged.

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Definition

*Symmetric designs are self-dual and thus have $v = b$, $k = r$ and every t blocks meeting in λ points. A symmetric $2-(s^2 + s + 1, s^2 + s + 1, s + 1, s + 1, 1)$ -design is known as a *projective plane*.*

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Definition

A *transversal design* $TD(k, n)$ is set system consisting of nk points such that there exists a partition \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{I} into k groups of size n such that:

1. Every $H \in \mathcal{H}$ intersects a block $B \in \mathcal{B}$ in precisely one point;
2. Every pair of points from different groups occur together in precisely one block.

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Key establishment

- ▶ One of the most important key management processes is **key establishment**, which governs the placement of cryptographic keys in a network.

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Key establishment

- ▶ One of the most important key management processes is **key establishment**, which governs the placement of cryptographic keys in a network.
- ▶ This is especially relevant in applications of symmetric cryptography, where it is necessary to ensure that all parties who are authorised to access (or verify) a cryptographically protected piece of information have the appropriate key.

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- ▶ This is especially relevant in applications of symmetric cryptography, where it is necessary to ensure that all parties who are authorised to access (or verify) a cryptographically protected piece of information have the appropriate key.
- ▶ Most key establishment mechanisms involve a **key management authority (KMA)** at some stage in the process.

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Key predistribution

Definition

*A **key predistribution scheme** is a key establishment scheme in which the KMA can only be involved in initialisation processes that take place prior to deployment of the network.*

A KMA thus needs to load keys onto nodes prior to deployment using a KPS to determine which keys are allocated to which nodes.

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After deployment, two nodes will be able to use a cryptographic service on a network link if they:

1. are in radio communication range of one another; and
2. share at least one key.

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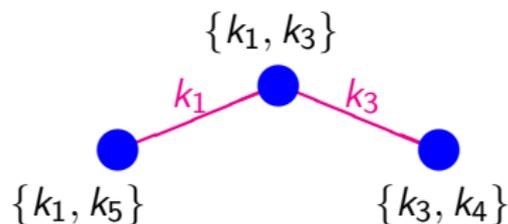
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Example



Key predistribution scheme

- ▶ nodes are assigned keys before deployment



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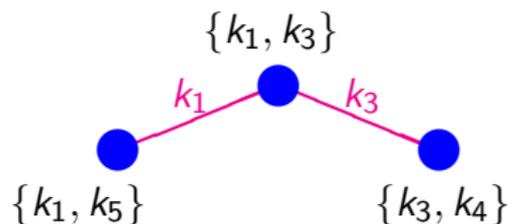
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Key predistribution scheme

- ▶ nodes are assigned keys before deployment
- ▶ nodes that share keys can communicate securely



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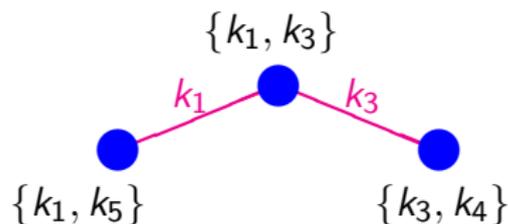
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Key predistribution scheme

- ▶ nodes are assigned keys before deployment
- ▶ nodes that share keys can communicate securely
- ▶ **two-hop path:** nodes communicate via intermediate node



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Phase 1: Key predistribution

- ▶ The KMA chooses a KPS defined on the n nodes $\mathcal{U} = \{U_1, \dots, U_n\}$ in the network.

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Phase 1: Key predistribution

- ▶ The KMA chooses a KPS defined on the n nodes $\mathcal{U} = \{U_1, \dots, U_n\}$ in the network.
- ▶ This KPS can be modelled by a **set system** $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$, where $\mathcal{I} = \{x_i : 1 \leq i \leq v\}$ is a set of v **key identifiers** and $\mathcal{B} = \{B_j : 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ is a set of n **node allocations**.

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- ▶ For each key identifier x_i , KMA randomly selects a key K_i .

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- ▶ For each key identifier x_i , KMA randomly selects a key K_i .
- ▶ The KMA associates each node U_j in the network with a node allocation B_j and issues U_j with the keys $L_j = \{K_i : x_i \in B_j\}$.

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- ▶ The KMA associates each node U_j in the network with a node allocation B_j and issues U_j with the keys $L_j = \{K_i : x_i \in B_j\}$.
- ▶ The association of U_j with B_j need not be a secret, however the instantiation of B_j by L_j must be.

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Phase 2: Shared key discovery

If two nodes within communication range of one another wish to deploy a cryptographic service:

- ▶ They first need to determine if they have any keys in common.

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Phase 2: Shared key discovery

If two nodes within communication range of one another wish to deploy a cryptographic service:

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- ▶ The default method is to broadcast their node allocations to one another, but more efficient techniques can sometimes be found.

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- ▶ They first need to determine if they have any keys in common.
- ▶ The default method is to broadcast their node allocations to one another, but more efficient techniques can sometimes be found.
- ▶ If they have key identifiers in common then a session key can be generated from the common keys associated with these identifiers by means of a suitable key derivation function.

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Phase 3: Path-key establishment

If two nodes fail to identify common keys during shared key discovery then they need to find a secure path between one another that employs intermediate nodes which can.

Obviously, the shorter this secure path the better.

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Competing requirements

- ▶ **Storage:** The number of keys stored on each node should be kept as low as possible.

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Competing requirements

- ▶ **Storage:** The number of keys stored on each node should be kept as low as possible.
- ▶ **Connectivity:** Each node should store sufficient keys that secure paths through the network can be established when needed.

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Competing requirements

- ▶ **Storage:** The number of keys stored on each node should be kept as low as possible.
- ▶ **Connectivity:** Each node should store sufficient keys that secure paths through the network can be established when needed.
- ▶ **Resilience:** Keys should be distributed in such a way that the damage caused by exposure of the keys stored on a node is controlled.

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- ▶ **Efficiency:** Processes such as computation, shared key discovery, and path-key establishment should be as efficient as possible.
- ▶ **Network size:** It is important that a KPS can support as large number of nodes as possible.

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Two trivial KPSs

Single Key KPS: This KPS consists of a single key that is stored by each node in the network. It provides:

- ▶ optimal connectivity
- ▶ optimal storage
- ▶ poor resilience.

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Two trivial KPSs

Single Key KPS: This KPS consists of a single key that is stored by each node in the network. It provides:

- ▶ optimal connectivity
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Complete Pairwise Key KPS: In this KPS, a unique key is assigned to each pair of nodes. It provides:

- ▶ optimal connectivity
- ▶ optimal resilience
- ▶ poor storage

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Blom's KPS

- ▶ Based on a polynomial $P(x, y) \in \text{GF}(q)[x, y]$ with the property that $P(i, j) = P(j, i)$ for all $i, j \in \text{GF}(q)$.
- ▶ Node U_i stores the univariate polynomial $f_i(y) = P(U_i, y)$.
- ▶ In order to establish a common key with U_j , node U_i computes $K_{ij} = f_i(U_j) = f_j(U_i)$.

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- ▶ optimal connectivity
- ▶ if P has degree w then:
 - ▶ each node stores $w + 1$ co-efficients
 - ▶ full resilience up to capture of w nodes
- ▶ very efficient shared key discovery
- ▶ does not strictly conform to our model

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Random KPS

- ▶ Probabilistic KPS
- ▶ Each node draws keys uniformly without replacement from some finite keypool \mathcal{K} .
- ▶ Properties depend on the number of keys drawn and the size of \mathcal{K} .
- ▶ Can be further parameterised (for example to require a threshold number of common keys).

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KPS design observations

1. **Optimal connectivity is not necessary:**
 - ▶ Most pairs of nodes never communicate directly.

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KPS design observations

1. **Optimal connectivity is not necessary:**
 - ▶ Most pairs of nodes never communicate directly.
2. **Deterministic schemes have some advantages:**
 - ▶ Analysis is easier
 - ▶ Efficient shared key discovery possible

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KPS design observations

1. **Optimal connectivity is not necessary:**
 - ▶ Most pairs of nodes never communicate directly.
2. **Deterministic schemes have some advantages:**
 - ▶ Analysis is easier
 - ▶ Efficient shared key discovery possible
3. **Flexibility is attractive:**
 - ▶ Competing requirements require flexibility

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KPS design observations

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2. **Deterministic schemes have some advantages:**
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3. **Flexibility is attractive:**
 - ▶ Competing requirements require flexibility
4. **Compromise is desirable:**
 - ▶ Moderation is more likely to be suitable than extremes

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Direct Application of Combinatorial Designs

Combinatorial designs are very natural objects to consider as candidate key rings for KPSs:

- ▶ Deterministic
- ▶ Rich and well understood structure
- ▶ Have long been associated with the building of KPSs

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Prioritising local connectivity

Theorem

1. Any block in a (v, b, r, k) -design *meets* at most $k(r - 1)$ other blocks.
2. Every block meets $k(r - 1)$ blocks precisely when the design has the property that any two blocks meet in at most one point.

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(v, b, r, k) -designs where any two blocks meet in at most one point are known as (v, b, r, k) -configurations.

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- ▶ KPSs based on configurations have optimal **local connectivity**.

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Definition

(v, b, r, k) -designs where any two blocks meet in at most one point are known as (v, b, r, k) -configurations.

- ▶ KPSs based on configurations have optimal **local connectivity**.
- ▶ However they offer no guarantees about resilience.

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Prioritising resilience

Definition

A *w-key distribution pattern (KDP)* is a set system $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$ with $|\mathcal{B}| = n$ such that for any:

1. pair $B_i, B_j \in \mathcal{B}$ with: $B_i \cap B_j \neq \emptyset$; and
2. $\{B_{l_1}, \dots, B_{l_w}\} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \setminus \{B_i, B_j\}$:
$$B_i \cap B_j \not\subseteq (B_{l_1} \cup \dots \cup B_{l_w}).$$

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- KPSs based on KDPs offer optimal resilience if no more than w nodes are compromised.

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A *w*-key distribution pattern (KDP) is a set system $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$ with $|\mathcal{B}| = n$ such that for any:

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- ▶ KPSs based on KDPs offer optimal resilience if no more than w nodes are compromised.
- ▶ A general KDP does not provide any guarantees of connectivity.

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Fully connected configurations

Theorem

1. A (v, b, r, k) configuration is fully connected precisely when it is the dual of a $2 - (b, v, k, r, 1)$ -design.
2. When this happens, $b \leq k(k - 1) + 1$.
3. This bound is met by the *projective planes*.

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2. When this happens, $b \leq k(k - 1) + 1$.
3. This bound is met by the *projective planes*.

- ▶ Optimal connectivity
- ▶ Efficient shared key discovery
- ▶ Facilitating a very large number of nodes comes at the unattractive cost of relatively large key storage for each node (storage is approximately the square root of the number of nodes).

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Fully connected designs

Full connectivity places too many constraints:

- ▶ **Lack of flexibility:**
 - ▶ little room for tradeoff between important parameters

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Full connectivity places too many constraints:

- ▶ **Lack of flexibility:**
 - ▶ little room for tradeoff between important parameters
- ▶ **Restrictions on number of nodes:**
 - ▶ reasonable storage limitations lead to limited number of possible nodes.

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Full connectivity places too many constraints:

- ▶ **Lack of flexibility:**
 - ▶ little room for tradeoff between important parameters
- ▶ **Restrictions on number of nodes:**
 - ▶ reasonable storage limitations lead to limited number of possible nodes.
- ▶ **Too much to the extreme:**
 - ▶ full connectivity is more than we need
 - ▶ storage and resilience costs too high

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KPSs from Common Intersection Designs

Definition

Let $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$ be a (v, b, r, k) -configuration. We say that $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B})$ is a (v, b, r, k, μ) -**common intersection design (CID)** if for any distinct pair of blocks $B_i, B_j \in \mathcal{B}$ we have:
 $|\{B_k \in \mathcal{B} : B_i \cap B_k \neq \emptyset \text{ and } B_j \cap B_k \neq \emptyset\}| \geq \mu.$

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 $|\{B_k \in \mathcal{B} : B_i \cap B_k \neq \emptyset \text{ and } B_j \cap B_k \neq \emptyset\}| \geq \mu.$

- ▶ CIDs do not have full connectivity
- ▶ Optimal CIDs have been constructed from:
 - ▶ generalised quadrangles
 - ▶ group-divisible designs
 - ▶ strongly-regular graphs

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KPSs from transversal designs

- ▶ A $TD(k, n)$ is a $(kn, n^2, n, k, k^2 - k)$ -CID.
- ▶ For any prime $k \leq n$, a useful class of $TD(k, n)$ s can be constructed known as **linear schemes**.
- ▶ k and n can be varied to produce a range of compromises between the storage k , maximum number of nodes n^2 , local connectivity $k(n + 1)$ and resilience

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- ▶ k and n can be varied to produce a range of compromises between the storage k , maximum number of nodes n^2 , local connectivity $k(n + 1)$ and resilience
- ▶ the local connectivity and resilience can be computed
- ▶ very efficient shared-key discovery phase

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Designs without full connectivity

Designs without full connectivity tend to provide:

- ▶ more room for flexibility between parameters
- ▶ more nodes for a given storage constraint

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Conclusions

Designs without full connectivity

Designs without full connectivity tend to provide:

- ▶ more room for flexibility between parameters
- ▶ more nodes for a given storage constraint

However...

- ▶ Less known about them
- ▶ Still a lack of flexibility
- ▶ Still a restriction on the number of nodes

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Conclusions

Designs as Building Blocks

- ▶ Combinatorial designs are very natural objects to use as **components** in the construction of a KPS.
- ▶ The resulting KPSs can hopefully be:
 - ▶ more flexible
 - ▶ inherit the advantages of designs

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Splitting a KPS

1. Start with an original KPS
2. **Split** nodes by associating each node in the original KPS with a set of nodes in a component KPS.
3. Form a new KPS consisting of:
 - ▶ several component KPSs
 - ▶ “bound” together by the original KPS.

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 3. Form a new KPS consisting of:
 - ▶ several component KPSs
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-
- ▶ the main gain is an increase in the number of nodes
 - ▶ the main costs can be either in connectivity or resilience

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Extending a KPS

1. Start with an original KPS
2. **Extend** it to a new KPS by appending additional node allocations, which could be:
 - ▶ random
 - ▶ from another KPS

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1. Start with an original KPS
2. **Extend** it to a new KPS by appending additional node allocations, which could be:
 - ▶ random
 - ▶ from another KPS

As an example:

- ▶ KPSs from projective planes were extended by adding random subsets of blocks of the **complementary design**
- ▶ the main gain was more nodes and greater resilience
- ▶ the main loss was connectivity (although it was better than the random KPS)

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Packing a KPS

1. Start with an original KPS
2. **Pack** it into a new KPS by adding key identifiers to each node allocation.

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Conclusions

Packing a KPS

1. Start with an original KPS
2. **Pack** it into a new KPS by adding key identifiers to each node allocation.

As an example:

- ▶ the main gain is connectivity
- ▶ the main losses are storage and resilience

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Breaking a KPS

1. Start with an original KPS
2. **Break** it up to form a new KPS:
 - ▶ **Contracting**: removing key identifiers (throughout) the KPS
 - ▶ **Block splitting**: splitting node allocations.

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Breaking a KPS

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 - ▶ **Contracting**: removing key identifiers (throughout) the KPS
 - ▶ **Block splitting**: splitting node allocations.
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- ▶ the main gain is reduced storage and resilience
 - ▶ the main losses are connectivity

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Joining KPSs

1. Start with an **outer** KPS based on set system $(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{B}^{\text{out}})$
 - ▶ Node U_j is associated with the block B_j^{out}
 - ▶ Key identifier x_i defines a subset of nodes $N_i = \{U_j : x_i \in B_j^{\text{out}}\}$.

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2. Define an **inner** KPS on the nodes N_i
 - ▶ Node $U_j \in N_i$ receives the node allocation $B_j^{\text{in}-i}$

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- ▶ KPSs not based on a set system can be used as inner KPSs
 - ▶ such as the Blom KPS

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Combinatorial engineering

Definition

Combinatorial engineering is the use of combinatorial objects as components, which are combined with other (not necessarily combinatorial) objects to build new structures.

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Combinatorial engineering

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Cons:

- ▶ relatively unstudied from a mathematical perspective

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 - ▶ often can only be studied through simulations

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Pros:

- ▶ some combinatorics can be better than no combinatorics
 - ▶ some structural guarantees can usually be preserved
 - ▶ can potentially gain the “best of all worlds”

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- ▶ desirable properties of components can be lost
- ▶ resulting constructions hard to analyse
 - ▶ often can only be studied through simulations

Pros:

- ▶ some combinatorics can be better than no combinatorics
 - ▶ some structural guarantees can usually be preserved
 - ▶ can potentially gain the “best of all worlds”
- ▶ highly flexible
 - ▶ KPSs for WSNs are not classical combinatorial objects

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KPSs for Special Networking Environments

Thus far we have discussed **uncontrolled** and **homogeneous** KPSs.

- ▶ Partially controlled KPSs
- ▶ Fully controlled KPSs
- ▶ Heterogenous KPSs

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Partially controlled KPSs

- ▶ One such scenario arises when nodes are deployed in **groups** where: nodes within one group are deployed **closer together on average** than nodes from different groups

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Partially controlled KPSs

- ▶ One such scenario arises when nodes are deployed in **groups** where: nodes within one group are deployed **closer together on average** than nodes from different groups
- ▶ Keys can be predistributed more efficiently (than for uncontrolled environments):
 - ▶ Can deploy a “relaxed” KPS on each group
 - ▶ Build in some means of inter-group communication
 - ▶ **Balanced local connectivity** desirable

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- ▶ One such scenario arises when nodes are deployed in **groups** where: nodes within one group are deployed **closer together on average** than nodes from different groups
- ▶ Keys can be predistributed more efficiently (than for uncontrolled environments):
 - ▶ Can deploy a “relaxed” KPS on each group
 - ▶ Build in some means of inter-group communication
 - ▶ **Balanced local connectivity** desirable
- ▶ Such a KPS can be constructed from joining KPSs, where:
 - ▶ outer KPS is based on a **resolvable** transversal design:
 - ▶ two types of inner KPS, both based on Blom KPSs
 - ▶ parameters are flexible
 - ▶ connectivity and resilience can be traded off against storage
 - ▶ efficient shared key discovery inherited from components

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Fully controlled KPSs

- ▶ Precise knowledge of node location allows for very efficient KPSs

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Fully controlled KPSs

- ▶ Precise knowledge of node location allows for very efficient KPSs
- ▶ One option is to only assign shared keys to “neighbours”
 - ▶ For dense networks there are more efficient options

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Fully controlled KPSs

- ▶ Precise knowledge of node location allows for very efficient KPSs
- ▶ One option is to only assign shared keys to “neighbours”
 - ▶ For dense networks there are more efficient options
- ▶ If nodes are deployed in a highly structured physical formation then it is natural to look to combinatorial mathematics for building KPSs:
 - ▶ square grids
 - ▶ hexagonal grids
 - ▶ constructions use **distinct difference configurations** (which are related to designs)

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Heterogeneous KPSs

In **heterogeneous networks** not all the nodes have the same capabilities.

Two simple cases are:

1. **Simple two-level hierarchies**
2. **Two-level hierarchies with a backbone**

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Summary

- ▶ Combinatorial designs have been widely proposed for use as KPSs (for WSNs).

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Summary

- ▶ Combinatorial designs have been widely proposed for use as KPSs (for WSNs).
- ▶ Many direct applications of designs are too inflexible.

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Summary

- ▶ Combinatorial designs have been widely proposed for use as KPSs (for WSNs).
- ▶ Many direct applications of designs are too inflexible.
- ▶ Some specific designs offer a degree of flexibility:
 - ▶ More research on not fully connected designs is merited.

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Summary

- ▶ Combinatorial designs have been widely proposed for use as KPSs (for WSNs).
- ▶ Many direct applications of designs are too inflexible.
- ▶ Some specific designs offer a degree of flexibility:
 - ▶ More research on not fully connected designs is merited.
- ▶ Designs are potentially useful building blocks for KPSs:
 - ▶ More investigation of **meaningful** construction techniques required
 - ▶ Schemes offering good trade-offs are desirable
 - ▶ Ad hoc proposals do not necessarily add to the knowledge base

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Summary

- ▶ Combinatorial designs have been widely proposed for use as KPSs (for WSNs).
- ▶ Many direct applications of designs are too inflexible.
- ▶ Some specific designs offer a degree of flexibility:
 - ▶ More research on not fully connected designs is merited.
- ▶ Designs are potentially useful building blocks for KPSs:
 - ▶ More investigation of **meaningful** construction techniques required
 - ▶ Schemes offering good trade-offs are desirable
 - ▶ Ad hoc proposals do not necessarily add to the knowledge base
- ▶ Some interesting applications of combinatorial designs to special WSN environments.

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Back to the original question

Question

Are combinatorial designs appropriate tools to construct KPSs for WSNs?

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Back to the original question

Question

Are combinatorial designs appropriate tools to construct KPSs for WSNs?

Answer

- ▶ *Yes, in some cases they do provide very interesting constructions.*
- ▶ *The most interesting KPSs do not necessarily come directly from designs.*
- ▶ *Designs can be used as components for interesting KPSs.*

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