

Key management with cryptography

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(Received: August 12, 2010; Accepted: September 04, 2010)

ABSTRACT

In this paper, we present an idea of adopting certificateless public key encryption (CL-PKE) schemes over mobile ad hoc network (MANET), which has not been explored before. In current literature, essentially there exists two main approaches, namely the public key cryptography and identity-based (ID-based) cryptography. Unfortunately, they both have some inherent drawbacks. In the public key cryptography system, a certificate authority (CA) is required to issue certificates between users' public keys and private keys to ensure their authenticity, whilst in an ID-based cryptography system, users' private keys are generated by a key generation center (KGC), which means the KGC knows every users' keys (the key escrow problem). To avoid these obstacles, Al-Riyami and Paterson proposed certificateless cryptography systems where the public keys do not need to be certified and the KGC does not know users' keys. Essentially, certificateless cryptography relies between the public key cryptography and ID-based cryptography. In this work, we adopt this system's advantage over MANET. To implement CL-PKE over MANET and to make it practical, we incorporate the idea of Shamir's secret sharing scheme. The master secret keys are shared among some or all the MANET nodes. This makes the system self-organized once the network has been initiated. In order to provide more flexibility, we consider both a full distribution system and a partial distribution system. Furthermore, we carry out two simulations to support our schemes. We firstly simulate our scheme to calculate our encryption, decryption and key distribution efficiency. Then we also simulate our scheme with AODV to test the network efficiency. The simulations are performed over OPNET.

Key words: certificateless cryptography, MANET, AODV, OPNET, public key cryptography, identity based cryptography, secret sharing.

INTRODUCTION

Growing number of business operations conducted via Internet or using a network environment for exchanging private messages requires increasing means for providing security and privacy of communication acts. Cryptography techniques are essential component of any secure communication. Two main cryptography systems are used today: symmetric systems called also systems with a secret key, and public-key systems. An extensive overview of currently known or emerging cryptography techniques used in both type of systems can be found in [12]. One of such a

promising cryptography techniques is applying cellular automata (CAs). CAs were proposed for public-key cryptosystems by Guan¹ and Kari⁵. In such systems two keys are required: one key is used for encryption and the other for decryption, and one of them is held in private, the other rendered public. The main concern of this paper are however cryptosystems with a secret key. In such systems the encryption key and the decryption key are the same. The encryption process is based on generation of pseudorandom bit sequences, and CAs can be effectively used for this purpose. CAs for systems with a secret key were first studied by Wolfram¹⁶, and later by Habutsu *et al.*³, Nandietal.

[10] and Gutowitz². Recently they were a subject of study by Tomassini & Perrenoud¹⁴¹, and Tomassini & Sipper¹⁵¹ who considered one and two dimensional (2D) CAs for encryption scheme. This paper is an extension of these recent studies and concerns of application of one dimensional (1D) CAs for the secret key cryptography. The paper is organized as follows. The next section presents the idea of an encryption process based on Vernam cipher and used in CA-based secret key crypto system. Section 3 outlines the main concepts of CAs, overviews current state of applications of CAs in secret key cryptography and states the problem considered in the paper. Section 4 outlines evolutionary technique called cellular programming and section 5 shows how this technique is used to discover new CA rules suitable for encryption process. Section 6 contains the analysis of results and the last section concludes the paper

Mobile Ad Hoc Network

MANET Overview : Mobile Ad-hoc Network

(MANET) is one of the most widely discussed and researched areas in the field of wireless communications. In a traditional network, mobile devices connect to each other via an access point. If the access point fails, users cannot communicate to each other. In the MANET scenario, no access point or node is required. MANET is a network that only consists of mobile devices such as personal digital assistants (PDAs) and laptops. It requires no centralized infrastructure like basic switch centers or wireless routers. Nodes connect to each other via the ad hoc model. Nodes work not only as a host but also as a router, joining or leaving the network at any moment, making the network highly dynamic.

Because of MANET's non-centralized infrastructure and highly dynamic characteristics, routing is an essential part of this network. Without routing, devices are unable to connect to each other, and the network becomes crippled. Routing protocols for the Internet do not perform very well in MANET. Routes may become invalid at any second, which may be caused by a slight movement of one node. In this case, dynamic adaptive routing protocols must be applied. AODV Ad-hoc on-demand distance vector (AODV) routing protocol is an on-demand routing protocol in MANET proposed

by Perkins, Belding-Royer and Das [10, 7]. In this protocol, nodes do not perform routing until a request is generated or received. It uses three types of control messages: Route Request (RREQ), Route Reply (RREP) and Route Error (RERR) to control the whole network.

In order to discover a Destination Node (DN), the source node (SN) broadcasts a RREQ message. A sequence number is given to each node which has received a RREQ message. When this RREQ message finds its way to the DN, a RREP message is generated, sending back to the SN the same way the RREQ came from, and thus a route is established. After this, this route will be assigned with a lifetime. Every time a message is transferred via this route, the lifetime is refreshed. When the lifetime is expired, the route becomes invalid.

Existing Key Management Schemes

Partially distributed authority scheme Partially distributed authority scheme was firstly proposed by Zhou and Hass⁸. In their scheme it is assumed that there is an Offline Trust Third Party (OTTP) constructing and distributing keys for all the nodes. Firstly, this OTTP generates a pair of master public/secret keys. The master public key (mpk) is known by every node in the MANET, while the master secret key (msk) is divided into n parts, where each part is presented by $S_i (i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n)$. Then OTTP picks n arbitrary nodes, randomly distributed with msk parts.

These n nodes collectively form the Distributed Certificate Authority (DCA). The OTTP then generates certificates for all of the nodes and distributes them respectively. In Zhou and Hass' scheme, those certificates are fully stored in each DCA node as well. This provides authentication from potential threats of unauthorized nodes. Any unauthorized node does not have a valid certificate, thus will not get key shares from DCA nodes. Assuming the threshold of the system is t , node i needs to obtain at least $t-1$ msk shares to retrieve them sk. Node i will send out requests to t DCA nodes, with a certificate of its own. Once the certificate is verified by a DCA node, which is achieved by comparing with DCA's certificate database, the DCA node will reply with a share of msk. After successfully obtaining valid key shares, node

i will retrieve the msk. This brings an imbalanced load to the DCA nodes, because those DCA nodes are in charge of the whole network. This scheme also requires pre-establishment before the initiation. Certificates of each node are pre-stored in the DCA nodes. In order to solve these problems, Yi and Kravers proposed a modified model⁶. It makes use of the broadcast certification request (CREQ) and the certification reply (CREP) packets. It allows nodes to broadcast the certification request (CREQ) packets using a flooding method. Any DCA which gets this packet answers with a certification reply (CREP). If the node successfully collects $t+1$ CREPs, it will be able to reconstruct the full certificate. If the certificate is valid, the certification is successful; otherwise, the node will generate another CREQ packet.

Issues and design principles

We incorporate a distributed system to replace the KGC, so that the network becomes self-organized. This fully distributed system is based on the threshold cryptography with two patterns (t, n). The pattern t represents the threshold of the model, which means any $t+1$ malicious users can break the system (hence, the system is upper bounded by $t+1$, which means that as long as there are at most t malicious users, then the system is considered to be at the 'secure' state). The pattern n represents the total number of users. We denote n' to be the maximum number of users, and t' to be the number of malicious users in the network at the initiation state. t' should be less than t to get the network initiated. Unfortunately, we cannot anticipate if a new-joint node is malicious or not. If the system is based on fully distributed model, then in the worst case, all the new-joint nodes are malicious, which add up to $n'-n+t'$ malicious DKG nodes. In order to keep the system running well, this $n'-n+t'$ should be smaller than t . The system becomes vulnerable when $t-t'$ nodes join the network. If the system is based on the partially distributed model, every DKG sends its data to a random non DKG node before it goes offline. When $t-t'$ original nodes go offline, and they all replicate themselves to new-joint nodes, the system becomes vulnerable. Fully distributed systems are more efficient, but only allow a small number of new-joint nodes. Partially distributed systems can be secure as long as certain amount of origin nodes stay online, but it requires

cooperation between DKG nodes and new-joint nodes, and it brings along with extra communication overhead searching for DKG nodes. Different systems should be chosen over different scenarios.

Vernam Cipher and Secret Key Cryptography

Let P be a plain-text message consisting of m bits $P_1P_2\dots P_m$, and k be a bit stream of a key k . Let c_i be the i -th bit of a cipher-text obtained with use of XOR (exclusive-or) enciphering operation:

The original bit p_i of a message can be recovered by applying the same operation XOR on c_i with use of the same bit stream key k : The enciphering algorithm called the Vernam cipher is known to be [8, 12] perfectly safe if the key stream is truly unpredictable and used only one time. From practical point of view it means that one must find answers on the following questions: (a) how to provide a pure randomness of a key bit stream and unpredictability of random bits, (b) how to obtain such a key with a length enough to encrypt practical amounts of data, and (c) how to pass safely the key from the sender to receiver and protect the key. In this paper we address questions (a) and (b). We will apply CAs to generate high quality pseudorandom number sequences (PNSs) and a safe secret key. CAs has been used successfully to generate PNSs. We will show that the quality of PNSs for secret key cryptography and a safety of the key can be increased with use of ID CAs.

Cellular Automata and Cryptography

One dimensional CA is in a simplest case a collection of two-state elementary automata arranged in a lattice of the length N , and locally interacted in a discrete time t . For each cell i called a central cell, a neighborhood of a radius r is defined, consisting of $n_i = 2r + 1$ cells, including the cell i . When considering a finite size of CAs a cyclic boundary condition is applied, resulting in a circle grid. It is assumed that a state $c_i(t)$ of a cell i at the time $t + 1$ depends only on states of its neighborhood at the time t , i.e. $c_i(t+1) = f(c_{i-1}(t), c_i(t), c_{i+1}(t))$, and a transition function f , called a rule, which defines a rule of updating a cell i . A length L of a rule and a number of neighborhood states for a binary uniform CAs is $L = 2^n$, where $n = n_i$ is a number of cells of a given neighborhood, and a number of such rules

can be expressed as $2L$. For CAs with e.g. $r = 2$ the length of a rule is equal to $L = 32$, and a number of such rules is $2a^2$ and grows very fast with L . When the same rule is applied to update cells of CAs, such CAs are called uniform CAs, in opposite to non uniform CAs when different rules are assigned to cells and used to update them. The first who applied CAs to generate PNSs was S. Wolfram¹⁶¹. He used uniform, ID CAs with $r = 1$, and rule 30. Hortensius *et al.*,⁴ and Nandi et al. [IO] used nonuniform CAs with two rules 90 and 150, and it was found that the quality of generated PNSs was better than the quality of the Wolfram system. Recently Tomassini and Perrenoud[14] proposed to use non uniform, ID CAs with $r = 1$ and four rules 90, 105, 150 and 165, which provide high quality PNSs and a huge space of possible secret keys which is difficult for cryptanalysis. Instead to design rules for CAs they used evolutionary technique called cellular programming (CP) to search for them. In this study we continue this line of research. We will use finite, ID, non uniform CAs. However, we extend the potential space of rules by consideration of two sizes of rule neighborhood, namely neighborhood of radius $r = 1$ and $r = 2$. To discover appropriate rules in this huge space of rules we will use CP.

Classical cryptography(CC)

'Security through computational complexity' is the working rule for Classical Cryptography. It uses one way mathematical operations which makes the reverse process of finding the key or plain text an almost impossible job. But if eve is assumed to have infinite computational power, then CC backslides bringing around a disadvantage into this field. Briefing on a Couple of CC Algorithms

Public Key Cryptography

In 1976, Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman changed the paradigm of cryptography forever. They used two different keys, one public and the other private. It is computationally hard to deduce the private key from the public key. Anyone with the public key can encrypt a message but not decrypt it. Only the person with the private key can decrypt the message. It is as if someone turned the cryptographic safe into a mailbox. Putting mail

in the mailbox is analogous to encrypting with the public key; anyone can do it. But opening the mailbox (a strong vault) and reading the content is easier for the one with the key rather than the one with a hacksaw. There are many algorithms which use this concept but the most popular and cogent one is the RSA Algorithm. RSA Algorithm with example:

1. Choose two prime numbers (p, q)
E.g. $p = 61$ and $q = 53$
2. Compute $n = pq : n = 61 \times 53 = 3233$
3. Compute the totient $\Phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
 $\Phi(n) = (61-1)(53-1) = 3120$
4. Choose $e > 1$ co-prime to 3120: $e = 17$
5. Compute d such that $de \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$
e.g., by computing the modular multiplicative inverse of e modulo $\phi(n)$: $d = 2753$ since $17 \cdot 2753 = 46801$ and $\text{mod}(46801, 3120) = 1$ this is the correct answer. Thus the public key is $(n = 3233, e = 17)$. For a padded message m the encryption function is: $c = me \pmod{n} = m17 \pmod{3233}$. The private key is $(n = 3233, d = 2753)$. The decryption function is: $m = cd \pmod{n} = c2753 \pmod{3233}$. For example, to encrypt $m = 123$, we calculate $c = 12317 \pmod{3233} = 855$. To decrypt $c = 855$, we calculate $m = 8552753 \pmod{3233} = 123$

Symmetric Key

Symmetric algorithms, sometimes called conventional algorithms, are algorithms where the encryption key can be calculated from the decryption key and vice versa. In most symmetric algorithms, the encryption key and the decryption key are the same. These algorithms, also called secret-key algorithms, single-key algorithms, or one-key algorithms, require that the sender and receiver agree on a key before they can communicate securely. The security of a symmetric algorithm rests in the key, divulging the key means that anyone could encrypt and decrypt messages. As long as the communication needs to remain secret, the key must remain secret. Usually Public Key or any other key management algorithms are used to exchange the keys before the communication takes place. Encryption and decryption with a symmetric algorithm are denoted by:

$$E_k(M) = C$$

$$D_K(C) = M$$

CONCLUSION

This paper presented the design and the simulation of a key distribution scheme over mobile ad hoc network, based on the certificateless cryptography and threshold secret sharing scheme. In this work, we have successfully issued public/secret keys for users without providing certificates.

Our scheme also ensures that system can work on self-organized networks after the initiation. From the simulation we found out that our scheme works extremely well in a small size of MANET. It reduces both packet drop rate and route discovery time for around 30 per cent, compared with pure AODV networks.

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