

# The Best Keying Protocol for Sensor Networks

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**Abstract**—Many sensor networks (especially networks of mobile sensors or networks that are deployed to monitor crisis situations) are deployed in an arbitrary and unplanned fashion. Thus, any sensor in such a network can end up being adjacent to any other sensor in the network. To secure the communications between every pair of adjacent sensors in such a network, each sensor  $x$  in the network needs to store  $n - 1$  symmetric keys that sensor  $x$  shares with all the other sensors, where  $n$  is the number of sensors in the network. This storage requirement of the keying protocol is rather severe, especially when  $n$  is large and the available storage in each sensor is modest. Earlier efforts to redesign this keying protocol and reduce the number of keys to be stored in each sensor have produced protocols that are vulnerable to impersonation, eavesdropping, and collusion attacks. In this paper, we present a fully secure keying protocol where each sensor needs to store  $(n+1)/2$  keys, which is much less than the  $n-1$  keys that need to be stored in each sensor in the original keying protocol. We also show that in any fully secure keying protocol, each sensor needs to store at least  $(n - 1)/2$  keys.

**Keywords**—sensor network; keying protocol; secure communication; optimal; uniform

## I. INTRODUCTION

Many wireless sensor networks are deployed in arbitrary and unplanned fashion. Examples of such networks are networks of mobile sensors [1] and networks that are deployed in a hurry to monitor evolving crisis situations [2] or continuously changing battle fields [3].

In any such network, any deployed sensor can end up being adjacent to any other deployed sensor. Thus, each pair of sensors, say sensors  $x$  and  $y$ , in the network need to share a symmetric key, denoted  $K_{x,y}$ , that can be used to secure the communication between sensors  $x$  and  $y$  if these two sensors happen to be deployed adjacent to one another. In particular, if sensors  $x$

and  $y$  become adjacent to one another, then these two sensors can use their shared symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$  to authenticate one another (i.e. defend against impersonation) and to encrypt and decrypt their exchanged data messages (i.e. defend against eavesdropping).

It follows from this discussion that each sensor  $x$  in such a network is required to store  $n - 1$  symmetric keys, where  $n$  is the total number of sensors in the network and each stored key is shared between sensor  $x$  and a different sensor in the network. This requirement that each sensor in the network stores  $n-1$  symmetric keys, where  $n$  is the number of sensors in the network, is rather severe especially when  $n$  is large and the available storage to store keys in every sensor is modest.

There are two main keying protocols that were proposed in the past to reduce the number of stored keys in each sensor in the network. We refer to these two protocols as the probabilistic keying protocol and the grid keying protocol.

In the *probabilistic keying protocol* [4], each sensor in the network stores a small number of keys that are selected at random from a large set of keys. When two adjacent sensors need to exchange data messages, the two sensors identify which keys they have in common then use a combination of their common keys as a symmetric key to encrypt and decrypt their exchanged data messages. Clearly, this protocol can probabilistically defend against eavesdropping.

Unfortunately, the probabilistic keying protocol suffers from the following problem. The stored keys in any sensor  $x$  are independent of the identity of sensor  $x$  and so these keys cannot be used to authenticate sensor  $x$  to any other sensor in the network. In other word, the probabilistic protocol cannot defend against impersonation.

In the *grid keying protocol* [5], [6], [7], and [8], each

sensor is assigned an identifier which is the coordinates of a distinct node in a two-dimensional grid. Also each symmetric key is assigned an identifier which is the coordinates of a distinct node in two-dimensional grid. Then a sensor  $x$  stores a symmetric key  $K$  iff the identifiers of  $x$  and  $K$  satisfy certain given relation. When two adjacent sensors need to exchange data messages, the two sensors identify which keys they have in common then use a combination of their common keys as a symmetric key to encrypt and decrypt their exchanged data messages.

The grid keying protocol has two advantages (over the probabilistic protocol). First, this protocol can defend against impersonation (unlike the probabilistic protocol) and can defend against eavesdropping (like the probabilistic protocol). Second, each sensor in this protocol needs to store only  $O(\log n)$  symmetric keys, where  $n$  is the number of sensors in the network.

Unfortunately, it turns out that the grid keying protocol is vulnerable to collusion. Specifically, a small gang of adversarial sensors in the network can pool their stored keys together and use the pooled keys to decrypt all the exchanged data messages in the sensor network.

This situation raises the following important questions: Is it possible to design a keying protocol, where each sensor stores less than  $n-1$  symmetric keys and yet the protocol is deterministically secure against impersonation, eavesdropping, and collusion?

In this paper, we show that the answer to this question is yes. In particular, we present a new keying protocol where each sensor stores only  $(n+1)/2$  symmetric keys, and yet the protocol is deterministically secure against impersonation, eavesdropping, and collusion. We also show that this new protocol is optimal by showing that each sensor, in any keying protocol that is deterministically secure against impersonation, eavesdropping, and collusion, needs to store at least  $(n-1)/2$  symmetric keys.

## II. SENSOR NETWORKS AND ADVERSARIES

In this paper, we investigate a sensor network whose topology is not planned in advance, prior to the deployment of the network. Thus, when the network is deployed, any sensor can end up being adjacent to any other sensor in the network.

(There are many occasions when a sensor network needs to be deployed before its topology can be

planned in great detail. For example, when a wildfire breaks out unexpectedly, a sensor network that monitors the fire may need to be deployed in a hurry, before the network topology can be planned accurately. A second example, when a sensor network is deployed in a battlefield whose perimeter is continuously changing, the topology of the network cannot be determined fully until the time when the network is to be deployed. As a third example, if the deployed sensor network is mobile, then a detailed plan of the initial topology may be of little value.)

In this network, when a sensor  $x$  is deployed, it first attempts to identify the identity of each sensor adjacent to  $x$ , then starts to exchange data with each of those adjacent sensors.

Any sensor  $z$  in this network can be an “adversary”, and can attempt to disrupt the communication between any two legitimate sensors, say sensors  $x$  and  $y$ , by launching the following two attacks:

- 1) **Impersonation Attack:** Sensor  $z$  notices that it is adjacent to sensor  $x$  while sensor  $y$  is not. Thus, sensor  $z$  attempts to convince sensor  $x$  that it ( $z$ ) is in fact sensor  $y$ . If sensor  $z$  succeeds, then sensor  $x$  may start to exchange data messages with sensor  $z$ , thinking that it is communicating with sensor  $y$ .
- 2) **Eavesdropping Attack:** Sensor  $z$  notices that it is adjacent to both sensors  $x$  and  $y$ , and that sensors  $x$  and  $y$  are adjacent to one another. Thus, when sensors  $x$  and  $y$  start to exchange data messages, sensor  $z$  can copy each exchanged data message between  $x$  and  $y$ .

To defend against these two types of attacks, sensors  $x$  and  $y$  need to share a symmetric key, denoted  $K_{x,y}$  or  $K_{y,x}$ . The shared key  $K_{x,y}$  needs to be stored in both  $x$  and  $y$ , and not in any other sensor in the network, before these two sensors are deployed in the network. In Sections IV and V below, we show how sensors  $x$  and  $y$  can use their shared key  $K_{x,y}$  to defend against these two types of attacks.

It follows from this discussion that each sensor  $x$  should store a symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$ , for every sensor  $y$  that is adjacent to sensor  $x$  in the network, before the network is deployed. Unfortunately, as mentioned above, the knowledge of which sensor is adjacent to which other sensor can be deduced only after the network is deployed. Therefore, each sensor  $x$  should store a symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$  for every other sensor  $y$

in the network, before the network is deployed.

If the network has  $n$  sensors, then each sensor in the network needs to store  $(n - 1)$  symmetric keys before the network is deployed. If  $n$  is large, then the storage requirement, just to store the required shared keys, is relatively large, especially since the size of storage in each sensor is typically small.

To solve this problem, we present the following two results in this paper:

- 1) **Efficiency:** There is a keying protocol, where each sensor shares a distinct symmetric key with every other sensor in the network, and yet each sensor needs to store exactly  $(n+1)/2$  symmetric keys, before the network is deployed.
- 2) **Optimality:** In every keying protocol, where each sensor shares a distinct symmetric key with every other sensor in the network, each sensor needs to store at least  $(n - 1)/2$  symmetric keys, before the network is deployed.

### III. THE KEYING PROTOCOL

Let  $n$  denote the number of sensors in our network. Without loss of generality, we assume that  $n$  is an odd positive integer. Each sensor in the network has a unique identifier in the range  $0 \dots n - 1$ . We use  $ix$  and  $iy$  to denote the identifiers of sensors  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, in this network.

Each two sensors, say sensors  $x$  and  $y$ , share a symmetric key denoted  $K_{x,y}$  or  $K_{y,x}$ . Only the two sensors  $x$  and  $y$  know their shared key  $K_{x,y}$ . And if sensors  $x$  and  $y$  ever become neighbors in the network, then they can use their shared symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$  to perform two functions:

- 1) **Mutual Authentication:** Sensor  $x$  authenticates sensor  $y$ , and sensor  $y$  authenticates sensor  $x$ .
- 2) **Confidential Data Exchange:** Encrypt and later decrypt all the exchanged data messages between  $x$  and  $y$ .

(Note that sensors  $x$  and  $y$  can become neighbors in the network in two occasions. First, the two sensors  $x$  and  $y$  could be mobile and their movements cause them to become adjacent to one another. Second, the two sensors could be stationary and they are deployed adjacent to one another.)

In the remainder of this section, we show that if the shared symmetric keys are designed to have a “special structure”, then each sensor needs to store only  $(n + 1)/2$  shared symmetric keys. But before we

present the special structure of the shared keys, we need to introduce two new concepts: “universal keys” and “a circular relation, named below, over the sensor identifiers”.

Each sensor  $x$  in the network stores a symmetric key, called the *universal key* of sensor  $x$ . The universal key of sensor  $x$ , denoted  $ux$ , is known only to sensor  $x$ .

Let  $ix$  and  $iy$  be two distinct sensor identifiers. (Recall that both  $ix$  and  $iy$  are in the range  $0 \dots n - 1$ , where  $n$  is the odd number of sensors in the sensor network.) Identifier  $ix$  is said to be *below* identifier  $iy$  iff exactly one of the following two conditions holds:

- 1)  $ix < iy$  and  $(iy - ix) < n/2$
- 2)  $ix > iy$  and  $(ix - iy) > n/2$

The *below* relation is better explained by an example. Consider the case where  $n = 5$ . In this case, the sensor identifiers  $s$  are 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4, and we have:

- Identifier 0 is *below* identifiers 1 and 2.
- Identifier 1 is *below* identifiers 2 and 3.
- Identifier 2 is *below* identifiers 3 and 4.
- Identifier 3 is *below* identifiers 4 and 0.
- Identifier 4 is *below* identifiers 0 and 1.

The next three theorems, concerning the *below* relation, are in order.

**Theorem 1.** *For any two distinct sensor identifiers  $ix$  and  $iy$ , one of the following two statements is true.*

- 1)  $ix$  is *below*  $iy$ .
- 2)  $iy$  is *below*  $ix$ .

*Proof:* Let  $ix$  and  $iy$  be any two distinct sensor identifiers. Thus,  $ix$  and  $iy$  are two distinct integers in the range  $0 \dots (n - 1)$ . Without loss of generality, assume that  $ix < iy$ . Because  $n$  is an odd integer, exactly one of the following two statements holds.

- (1)  $iy - ix < n/2$
- (2)  $iy - ix > n/2$

If statement (1) holds then  $ix$  is *below*  $iy$ . Otherwise statement (2) holds and  $iy$  is *below*  $ix$ . ■

**Theorem 2.** *For each sensor identifier  $ix$ , the number of distinct sensor identifiers  $iy$ , where  $ix$  is *below*  $iy$ , is  $(n - 1)/2$ .*

*Proof:* Each of the following  $(n - 1)/2$  sensor identifiers is *below*  $ix$ :  $(ix - 1) \bmod n, (ix - 2) \bmod n, \dots, (ix - \frac{n-1}{2}) \bmod n$ .

Also,  $ix$  is *below* each of the following  $(n - 1)/2$  sensor identifiers:  $(ix + 1) \bmod n, (ix + 2) \bmod n, \dots, (ix + \frac{n-1}{2}) \bmod n$ .

Thus, the number of distinct sensor identifiers  $iy$ , where  $iy$  is below  $ix$ , is  $(n-1)/2$ . Also, the number of distinct sensor identifiers  $iy$ , where  $ix$  is below  $iy$ , is  $(n-1)/2$ . ■

**Theorem 3.** *For each sensor identifier  $ix$ , the number of distinct sensor identifiers  $iy$ , where  $iy$  is below  $ix$ , is  $(n-1)/2$ .*

*Proof:* The proof is similar to that of Theorem 2. ■

The *special structure* of the symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$ , in the case where  $ix$  is below  $iy$ , is defined as follows:

$$K_{x,y} = H(ix|uy)$$

where

- $H$  is a secure hash function
- $|$  is the concatenation operator
- $ix$  is the identifier of sensor  $x$
- $uy$  is the universal key of sensor  $y$

Note that in this case (where  $ix$  is below  $iy$ ), the symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$  needs to be stored in sensor  $x$  only since sensor  $y$  can compute this key (using  $H$ ,  $|$ ,  $ix$ , and  $uy$ ) whenever it needs it.

Note also that in the other case, where  $iy$  is below  $ix$ , the special structure of the symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$  is  $H(iy|ux)$ . And in this case,  $K_{x,y}$  needs to be stored in sensor  $y$  only since sensor  $x$  can compute this key whenever it needs it.

The correctness of this keying protocol follows from the next theorem.

**Theorem 4.** *If a sensor identifier  $ix$  is below a sensor identifier  $iy$ , then the symmetric key  $K_{x,y} = H(ix|uy)$  is stored in sensor  $x$  and can be computed by sensor  $y$  when needed. No other sensor stores  $K_{x,y}$  or can compute it.*

*Proof:* Assume that a sensor identifier  $ix$  is below a sensor identifier  $iy$ . By our keying protocol the symmetric key that is shared between sensors  $x$  and  $y$ , namely  $H(ix|uy)$ , is stored in sensor  $x$  only. Moreover, because sensor  $y$  is the only one that knows the universal key  $uy$ , only sensor  $y$  can compute the key  $H(ix|uy)$ . ■

The efficiency of the keying protocol follows from the following theorem.

**Theorem 5.** *Each sensor  $x$  stores one universal key  $ux$  and  $(n-1)/2$  symmetric keys  $K_{x,y}$  for every sensor  $y$ , where  $ix$  is below  $iy$ .*

*Proof:* According to the above keying protocol, each sensor  $x$  stores its universal key  $ux$ . Also, each sensor  $x$  stores the symmetric keys  $K_{x,y}$  that sensor  $x$  shares with every sensor  $y$  where  $ix$  is below  $iy$ . From Theorem 2, there are  $(n-1)/2$  sensors  $y$  where  $ix$  is below  $iy$ . Therefore, each sensor  $x$  stores  $(n-1)/2$  symmetric keys. ■

#### IV. A MUTUAL AUTHENTICATION PROTOCOL

Before the sensors are deployed in a network, each sensor  $x$  is supplied with the following items:

- 1) One distinct identifier  $ix$  in the range  $0 \dots n-1$
- 2) One universal key  $ux$
- 3)  $(n-1)/2$  symmetric keys  $K_{x,y} = H(ix|uy)$  each of which is shared between sensor  $x$  and another sensor  $y$ , where  $ix$  is below  $iy$

After every sensor is supplied with these items, the sensors are deployed in random locations in the network.

Now if two sensors  $x$  and  $y$  happen to become adjacent to one another, then these two sensors need to execute a mutual authentication protocol so that sensor  $x$  proves to sensor  $y$  that it is indeed sensor  $x$  and sensor  $y$  proves to sensor  $x$  that it is indeed sensor  $y$ .

The *mutual authentication protocol* consists of the following six steps.

**Step 1:** Sensor  $x$  selects a random nonce  $nx$  and sends a hello message that is received by sensor  $y$ .

$$x \rightarrow y : \text{hello}(ix, nx)$$

**Step 2:** Sensor  $y$  selects a random nonce  $ny$  and sends a hello message that is received by sensor  $x$ .

$$x \leftarrow y : \text{hello}(iy, ny)$$

**Step 3:** Sensor  $x$  determines whether  $ix$  is below  $iy$ . Then it either fetches  $K_{x,y}$  from its memory or computes it. Finally, sensor  $x$  sends a verify message to sensor  $y$ .

$$x \rightarrow y : \text{verify}(ix, iy, H(ix|iy|ny|K_{x,y}))$$

**Step 4:** Sensor  $y$  determines whether  $iy$  is below  $ix$ . Then it either fetches  $K_{x,y}$  from its memory or computes it. Finally, sensor  $y$  sends a verify message to sensor  $x$ .

$$x \leftarrow y : \text{verify}(iy, ix, H(iy|ix|nx|K_{x,y}))$$

**Step 5:** Sensor  $x$  computes  $H(iy|ix|nx|K_{x,y})$  and compares it with the received  $H(iy|ix|nx|K_{x,y})$ . If

they are equal, then  $x$  concludes that the sensor claiming to be sensor  $y$  is indeed sensor  $y$ . Otherwise, no conclusion can be reached.

**Step 6:** Sensor  $y$  computes  $H(ix|iy|ny|K_{x,y})$  and compares it with the received  $H(ix|iy|ny|K_{x,y})$ . If they are equal, then  $y$  concludes that the sensor claiming to be sensor  $x$  is indeed sensor  $x$ . Otherwise, no conclusion can be reached.

## V. A DATA EXCHANGE PROTOCOL

After two adjacent sensors  $x$  and  $y$  have authenticated one another using the mutual authentication protocol described in the previous section, sensors  $x$  and  $y$  can now start exchanging data messages according to the following *data exchange protocol*. (Recall that  $nx$  and  $ny$  are the two nonces that were selected at random by sensors  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, in the mutual authentication protocol.)

**Step 1:** Sensor  $x$  concatenates the nonce  $ny$  with the text of the data message to be sent, encrypts the concatenation using the symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$ , and sends the result in a data message to sensor  $y$ .

$$x \rightarrow y : \text{data}(ix, iy, K_{x,y}(ny|text))$$

**Step 2:** Sensor  $y$  concatenates the nonce  $nx$  with the text of the data message to be sent, encrypts the concatenation using the symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$ , and sends the result in a data message to sensor  $x$ .

$$x \leftarrow y : \text{data}(iy, ix, K_{x,y}(nx|text))$$

Sensors  $x$  and  $y$  can repeat Steps 1 and 2 any number of times to exchange data between themselves.

## VI. OPTIMALITY OF KEYING PROTOCOL

According to our keying protocol, described in Section III, each sensor in the network is required to store only  $(n+1)/2$  keys. Thus, the total number of keys that need to be stored in the sensor network is  $n(n+1)/2$ . (This is much better than storing  $n(n-1)$  keys in the sensor network as dictated by the straightforward keying protocol.)

Despite the big saving in storage, that is achieved by our keying protocol, one wonders "Is there another keying protocol that requires the network to store much less than  $n(n+1)/2$  keys?" The following theorem indicates that the answer to this question is "No".

**Theorem 6.** *Each keying protocol requires the sensor network to store at least  $n(n-1)/2$  keys.*

*Proof:* There are  $n(n-1)/2$  distinct symmetric keys in our sensor network. Thus, to prove that this theorem holds, it is sufficient to prove that every one of those symmetric keys, say  $K_{x,y}$ , causes a distinct key to be stored in sensor  $x$  or in sensor  $y$ . We carry out this proof by contradiction.

Assume that some symmetric key  $K_{x,y}$  does not cause a distinct key to be stored either in sensor  $x$  or in sensor  $y$ . In this case, sensor  $x$  stores a key  $kx$  that  $x$  can use to compute at least two symmetric shared keys  $K_{x,y}$  and  $K_{w,x}$  as follows.

$$K_{x,y} = F(iy, kx) \quad (1)$$

$$K_{w,x} = F(iw, kx) \quad (2)$$

where  $F$  is a well-known function that can be used by each sensor to compute its shared keys from its stored keys.

Similarly, sensor  $y$  stores a key  $ky$  that  $y$  can use to compute at least two symmetric shared keys  $K_{x,y}$  and  $K_{y,z}$  as follows.

$$K_{x,y} = F(ix, ky) \quad (3)$$

$$K_{y,z} = F(iz, ky) \quad (4)$$

From (1) and (3) above, we have

$$F(iy, kx) = F(ix, ky) \quad (5)$$

Sensor  $x$  should not be allowed to utilize (5) and deduce key  $ky$  (in order that  $x$  be prevented from computing the shared key  $K_{y,z}$ ). Therefore, there should not be any effectively computable function  $G$ , such that

$$G(ix, F(ix, ky)) = ky \quad (6)$$

Similarly, sensor  $y$  should not be allowed to utilize (5) and deduce key  $kx$  (in order that  $y$  be prevented from computing the shared key  $K_{w,x}$ ). Therefore, there should not be any effectively computable function  $H$ , such that

$$H(iy, F(iy, kx)) = kx \quad (7)$$

From (6) and (7), we conclude the following.

- (i) Because there is no effectively computable function  $G$  that satisfies (6), there is no effective way to compute key  $ky$  in sensor  $y$  from key

$kx$  in sensor  $x$  before the two sensors  $x$  and  $y$  are deployed in the network.

- (ii) Because there is no effectively computable function  $H$  that satisfies (7), there is no effective way to compute key  $kx$  in sensor  $x$  from key  $ky$  in sensor  $y$  before the two sensors  $x$  and  $y$  are deployed in the network.

From (i) and (ii), we conclude that the two secrets  $kx$  and  $ky$  cannot be computed and stored in sensors  $x$  and  $y$  respectively before these two sensors are deployed in the network. Contradiction! ■

A keying protocol is called *uniform* iff this protocol requires each sensor in the network to store the same number of keys. Notice that the keying protocol described in Section III is uniform. Notice also that the next theorem, concerning uniform keying protocols, follows from Theorem 6.

**Theorem 7.** *Each uniform keying protocol requires each sensor in the network to store at least  $(n - 1)/2$  keys.*

From Theorem 7, our keying protocol requires each process to store no more than one key beyond the number of keys that need to be stored in each process by the best uniform keying protocol. Thus, for all practical purposes, our protocol is the best uniform keying protocol for sensor networks.

## VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Typically, each sensor in a sensor network with  $n$  sensors needs to store  $n - 1$  shared symmetric keys to communicate securely with each other. Thus, the number of shared symmetric keys stored in the sensor network is  $n(n - 1)$ . However, the optimal number of shared symmetric keys for secure communication, theoretically, is  $\binom{n}{2} = n(n - 1)/2$ . Although there have been many approaches that attempt to reduce the number of shared symmetric keys, they lead to a loss of security: they are all vulnerable to collusion. In this paper, we show the best keying protocol for sensor networks, that needs to store only  $(n + 1)/2$  shared symmetric keys to each sensor. The number of shared symmetric keys stored in a sensor network with  $n$  sensors is  $n(n + 1)/2$ , which is close to the optimal number of shared symmetric keys for any key distribution scheme that is not vulnerable to collusion.

It may be noted that in addition to the low number of keys stored, and the ability to resist collusion between

sensors, our keying protocol has two further advantages. Firstly, it is uniform: we store the same number of keys in each sensor. Secondly, it is computationally cheap, and thus suitable for a low-power computer such as a sensor: when two sensors are adjacent to each other, the computation of a shared symmetric key requires only hashing, which is a cheap computation and can be done fast. As our protocol has many desirable properties, such as efficiency, uniformity and security, we call this protocol the best keying protocol for sensor networks.

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