



Studienstiftung  
des deutschen Volkes

# Unidirectional Key Distribution Across Time and Space with Applications to RFID Security [JPP08]

Studienstiftung des deutschen Volkes  
Summer Academy La Colle-sur-Loup 2009

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# Outline (1)

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## ■ Introduction

- Key exchange as a basic problem of cryptography
- Special characteristics of RFID supply chains
- Gen2 features requiring secret key exchange
- Object hierarchies in RFID supply chains



# Outline (2)

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- **Secret sharing across space**
  - General idea and terminology used
  - Main advantages compared to other key distribution schemes used in RFID environments
  - Space constraints on tags and their implications
  - TSS schemes compared to related work
  - Definition of TSS schemes
  - Definition of privacy and robustness experiments
  - Illustration and formal definitions
  - Juels' implementation sketch and real world parameterization



# Outline (3)

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- **Secret sharing across time**
  - Why use time-based secret sharing?
  - General explanation and some examples
  - The SWISS model: Basics and terminology
  - Definition of  $(k,n)$ -SWISS schemes
  - Making share sizes independent of secret size
  - Brief presentation of Generic SWISS Families
  
- **Outlook on future work**



# Introduction (1)

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- Key management and revocation is one of the basic problems of cryptography
  - "Alice and Bob"
  - Restrictions inherent to manual key distribution systems
  - Secure channels as the sole means for ensuring privacy
- Special characteristics of RFID supply chains
  - Unidirectional channels
  - Possible anonymity of widespread and multi-hierarchical supply chains
- Gen2 features requiring secret key exchange
  - Locking, perma-locking and kill commands



## Introduction (2)

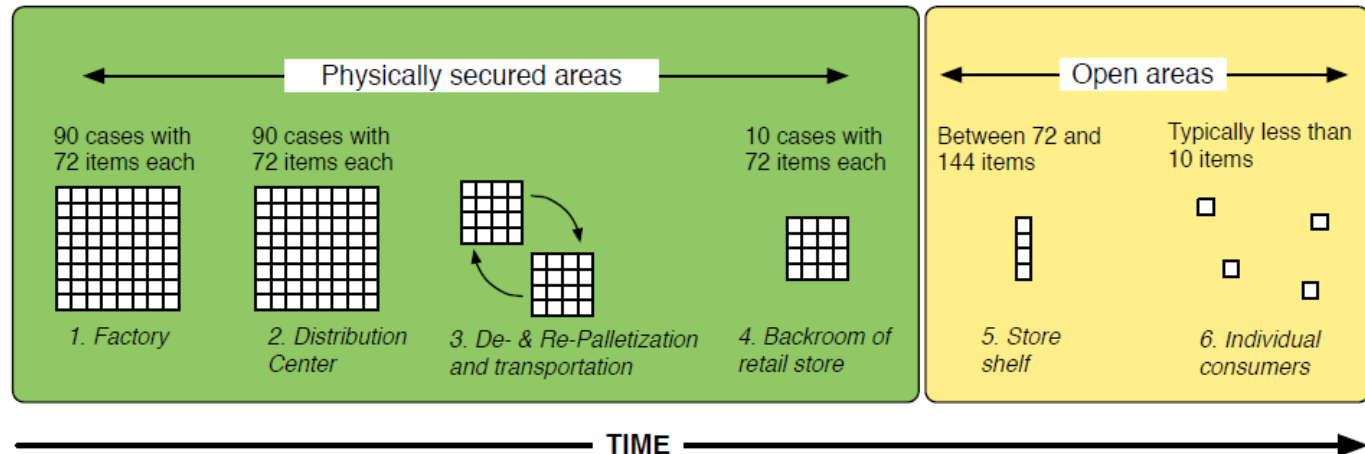
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- Motivation: Highly critical security issues with RFID-labeled products at item level
  - Ultimate sellers are burdened with the duty of invoking killing commands on each sold product
    - Retailers are likely to lack required technical infrastructure
    - Problems with ensuring provability of killing actions
  - Reliable and secure distribution of kill PINs to the retailer required
  - Serious security risks due to possibly unreliable (or criminal) retailers
    - Problems with ensuring tag integrity
    - Possible misuse of RFID tags by retailers



# Introduction (3)

## ■ Object hierarchies in RFID supply chains



- Consumer items are typically produced in large quantities
- Large entities ("cases") are divided into smaller aggregates on their way to the retailers
- Clients are likely to possess only a small part of one and the same case



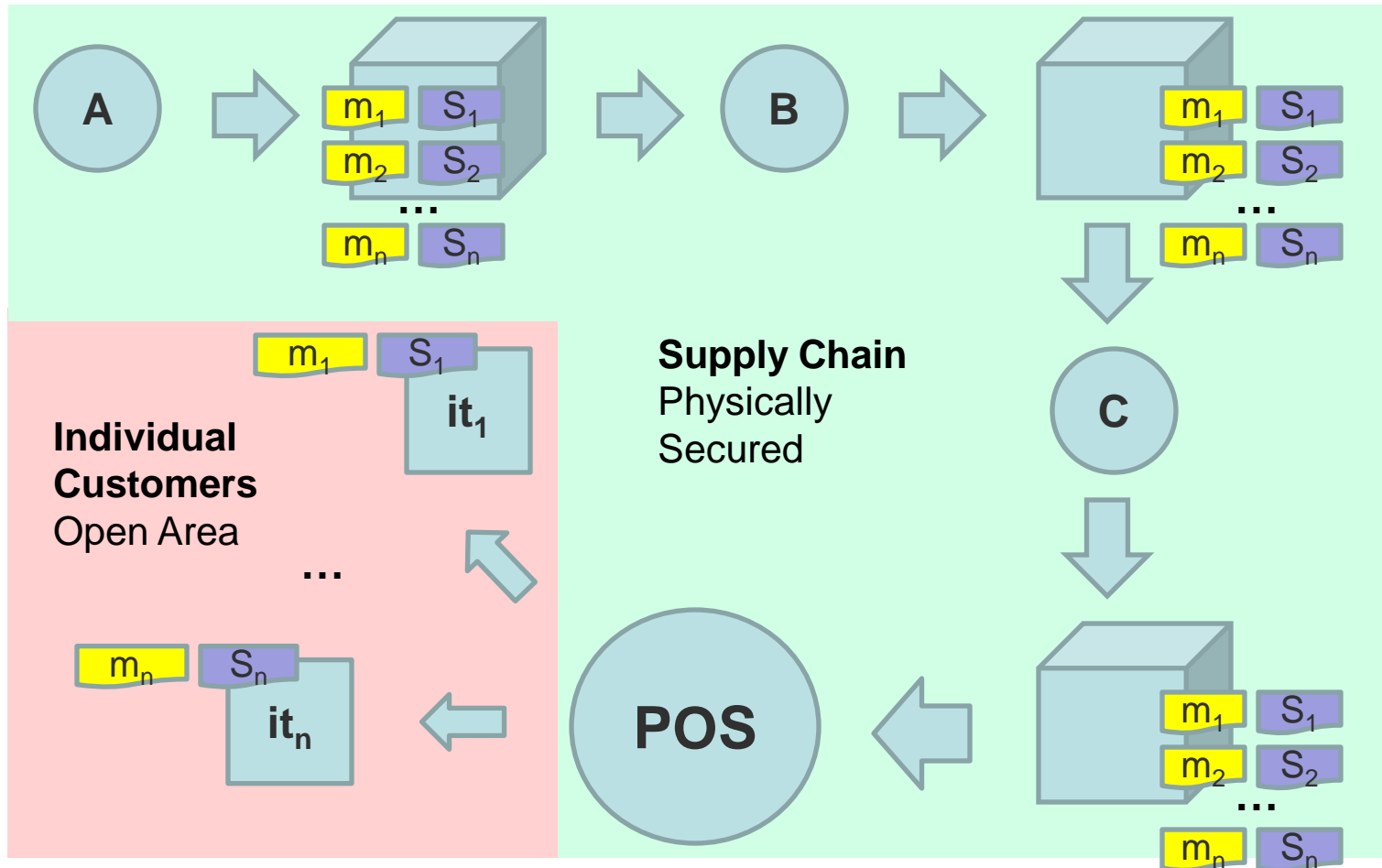
# Secret sharing across space (1)

- General idea and terminology used
  - Deploying secret keys on RFID tags themselves, thus avoiding a supplementary (not too) secure channel
  - Use of secret sharing techniques, e. g. Shamir's [Sha79]
  - All tags in a case are encrypted using the same encryption key  $\kappa$
  - Key  $\kappa$  is shared among  $n$  individual tags  $T = \{\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n\}$  using a  $(k, n)$ -PSS scheme
  - Content of each tag:  $v_i = (E_{\kappa}[m_i], S_i)$
  - Possession of a critical threshold number  $k$  of shares  $S_i$  indispensable for recovery of secret key  $\kappa$  (and, subsequently, for invoking decryption of data strings  $m_i$ )





# Secret sharing across space (2)





# Secret sharing across space (3)

- Main advantages of sharing across space
  - Violation of privacy impossible (prevention of "on-the-road" scanning of individual customers)
  - No need for killing tags at the point of sale (POS)
  - Security is ensured "implicitly" by hardness of cryptographic problems
  - No further organizational precautions required
  - Security against loss or damage of a certain number  $n-k$  of tags used within a case
  - No extra tag per case (in addition to individual item tags) needed



# Secret sharing across space (4)

- **Problems and restrictions:**
  - No security in the face of tracking attacks
    - Using encrypted values as unique identifiers
  - Space restrictions on RFID tags
    - Traditional PSS schemes impose  $l(S_i) \geq l(\kappa) = 128bit$
    - Capacity of EPC tags usually is no more than 16 bit
- **Imperfect sharing schemes as a trade-off**
  - Length of shares is below that of the secret to protect
  - Requirement of all-or-nothing indistinguishability is dropped
  - Partial information gained about the secret is proportional to  $\frac{y-t'}{t-t'}$  where  $t' \leq y < t$



# Secret sharing across space (5)

- Related work and important differences
  - CSS schemes (Krawczyk) provide shares with length **independent** of the secret's size
  - "Tiny secret shares" introduce a concept similar to Krawczyk's
  - Use of Error Correcting Codes instead of PSS and IDA schemes
    - Error Correcting Codes = generalization of secret sharing
    - ECCs allow for a smaller size of shares
    - Robustness in the face of (accidentally or deliberately) manipulated shares



# Secret sharing across space (6)

- Definition of Tiny Secret Share schemata:

*An  $n$ -party secret-sharing scheme is a pair of algorithms  $\Pi = (\mathbf{Share}, \mathbf{Recover})$  that operates over a message space  $\mathbb{X}$ , where:*

Share is a probabilistic algorithm that takes input  $x \in \mathbb{X}$  and outputs the  $n$ -vector  $S \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Share}(x)$ , where  $S_i \in \{0, 1\}^*$ . On invalid input  $\hat{x} \notin \mathbb{X}$ , Share outputs an  $n$ -vector of the special (“undefined”) symbol  $\perp$ .

Recover is a deterministic algorithm that takes input  $S \in (\{0, 1\}^* \cup \diamond)^n$ , where  $\diamond$  represents a share that has been erased (or is otherwise unavailable). The output  $\mathbf{Recover}(S) \in \mathbb{X} \cup \perp$ , where  $\perp$  is a distinguished value indicating a recovery failure.



# Secret sharing across space (7)

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- Privacy experiment
  - Only underinformed attacks are considered (for information about overinformed attacks cf [JPP08])
  - Definition of an adversarial game:
    1. The adversary is asked to choose two values
    2. The experiment selects one of them at random and generates a set of shares
    3. The adversary can see individual shares and...
    4. ...must produce a guess as to which secret was shared
  - Adversary's advantage is formally defined according to Bellare and Rogaway



# Secret sharing across space (8)

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- Robustness experiment
  - Legitimate users should be able to recover the secret key even if an attacker manipulates some of the shares
  - Definition of an adversarial game:
    1. The adversary chooses a text  $X$
    2. The Share algorithm is invoked
    3. Adversary replaces the share values of a number of players
    4. Adversary is successful, if  $\text{Recover}(X)$  fails to reconstruct  $X$
  - Adversary's advantage is again formally defined using Bellare's and Rogaway's terminology



# Secret sharing across space (9)

- Definition of a  $(k,n)$ -TSS scheme

**Definition 1** A  $(k,n)$ -TSS scheme is a pair  $(\Pi, \mathbb{X})$ , such that  $\Pi$  distributes  $n$  shares of a secret  $x \in \mathbb{X}$ , of which any set of  $k$  correct shares suffices to recover  $x$ . The security of the scheme is characterized by an adversary class  $\mathcal{A}$  and the tuple:  $(q_u, \epsilon_u, q_r, \epsilon_r)$ , where an underinformed attacker  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  making  $q_u$  corrupt queries has  $\mathbf{Adv}_A^{\text{ind}}[\Pi, \mathbb{X}] \leq \epsilon_u$ ; likewise, the pair  $(q_r, \epsilon_r)$  applies to robustness attackers. (An extended definition can include overinformed attackers as well; see Appendix A.)

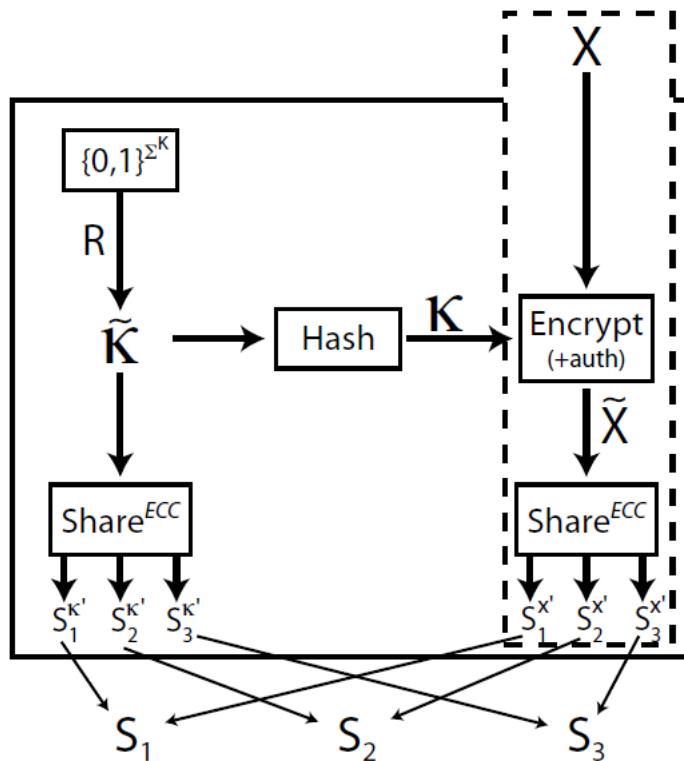
- Design goal

Development of implementations with  $\epsilon_u$  and  $\epsilon_r$  as small as possible





# Secret sharing across space (10)

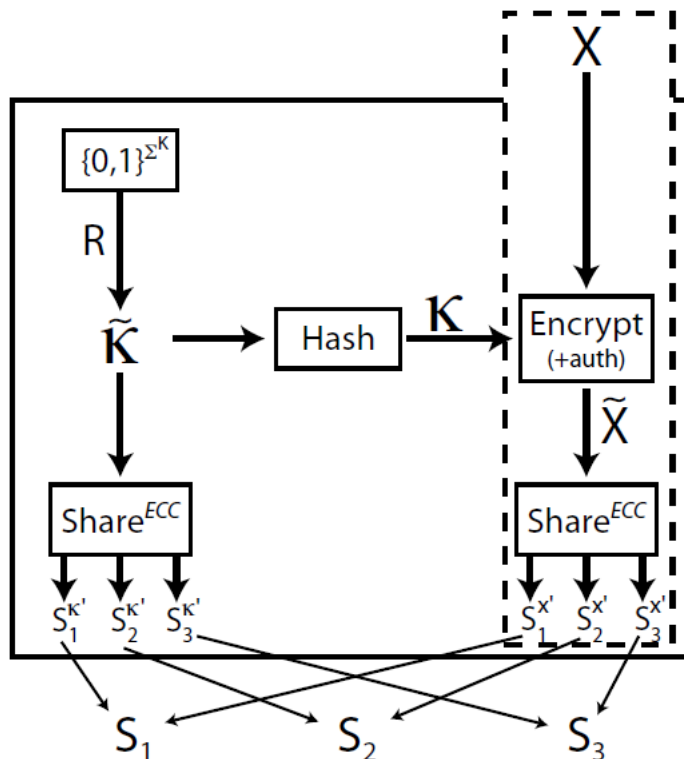


## Actions performed by the Share algorithm

1. Input: secret  $X$
2. creation of random key  $\tilde{K}$
3.  $\tilde{K}$  is hashed to  $K$   
( $K$  is indistinguishable even with  $\tilde{K}$  partially compromised)
4. Encrypt  $X$  using  $K$
5. Create shares of  $\tilde{K}$  and  $\tilde{X}$  via an ECC



# Secret sharing across space (11)



## Actions performed by the Recover algorithm

1. Apply the ECC decoding algorithm to recover  $\tilde{K}$  and  $\tilde{X}$
2. Use  $\tilde{K}$  to derive  $K$  (use the hash function)
3. Decrypt  $X$  using  $K$

## Remark:

Actions depicted in the dotted box can be omitted provided that key distribution is needed exclusively (as with **RFID tags!**)



# Secret sharing across space (12)

- Implementation sketch used by Juels et. al.
  - (15,20)-TSS schemata
  - $GF(2^{16})$ , so each share is 16 bits long
  - Random 240-bit  $\tilde{K}$  is hashed with SHA-256
  - The first half of the output of SHA-256 is set to be  $K$
  - $K$  is encoded into 20 16-symbols with a (20,15) Reed-Solomon ECC
  - 80 bits left over for the (encoded) tag ID itself
- Real World Parameterization (e. g.)
  - (200,170)-Reed Solomon ECC
  - Appropriate choice of field size (due to memory constraints)



# Secret sharing across time (1)

- Why use time-based secret sharing?
  - Schemes developed so far solely take into account one single shipment
  - Most legitimate recipients receive more than one shipment consecutively
  - Time-based secret sharing addresses this characteristic
  - Example:
    - Alice's trucks hold up to ten cases
    - Each case contains a specific tag
    - Alice selects a window of eleven cases a legitimate middleman must possess to be able to manipulate the tags



# Secret sharing across time (2)

## ■ General idea

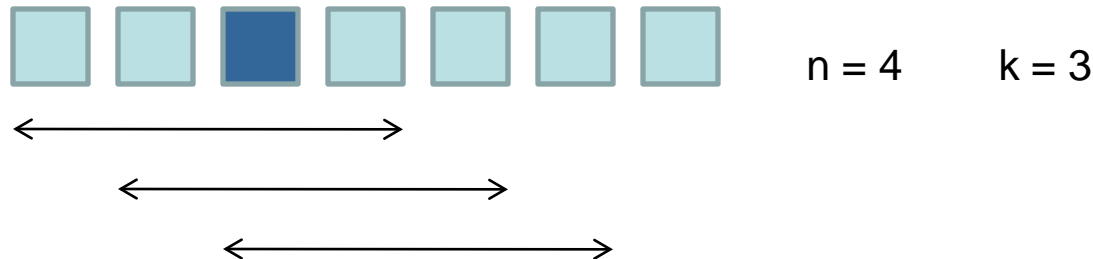
- Alice creates a master secret  $\kappa$  (now a write-access key)
- Any adversary able to recover  $\kappa$  is capable of deriving all the write-access PINs valid for the tags in the "window"
- Case-specific shares may be further distributed on individual item tags (though not necessary)
- Pre-defining windows is not feasible due to unpredictability of the individual cases Bob is going to receive
- Defining Sliding-Window Information Secret-Sharing (SWISS) schemes
  - Goal: **Any**  $k$  cases in **any** contiguous window of  $n$  cases suffice to recover **all** the case tags in the window



# Secret sharing across time (3)

## ■ Naïve idea

- Generate a key for **every** possible window of size  $n$  and share each key using a  $(k,n)$  scheme
- Each case would have to be equipped with a share for **every** window covering it



- Per-case size of shares would grow linearly with  $n$
- Linear growth not acceptable due to space restrictions



# Secret sharing across time (4)

- Development of more sophisticated schemes
  - Sequence of shares  $S = \{S_0, S_1, \dots\}$  expanding indefinitely
  - **Each** period has an associated key  $\kappa_i$
  - Within **any window** of  $n$  elements, **any  $k$  shares  $S_i$**  suffice for recovery of all keys
  - Definition of adversarial games similar to SSoS (cf paper)
- Formal definition of  $(k,n)$ -SWISS schemata

*Definition 2 We define a  $(k,n)$ -SWISS scheme as a pair of algorithms  $\Pi$  as defined above where Share produces shares of size  $\mu$ . The security is characterized by the pair  $(\lambda, \epsilon)$ , where (as explained above)  $k$  shares are sufficient to reveal  $\lambda$ . “nearby” keys for time periods not contained in a window of  $n$  shares, and  $\text{Adv}_A^{\text{ind-swiss}}[\Pi] \leq \epsilon$ .*

The tuple  $(\lambda, \epsilon)$  describes security of a given SWISS implementation

→ Ideal schema:  $(\lambda, \epsilon) = (0, 0)$  with minimal share length  $\mu$



# Secret sharing across time (5)

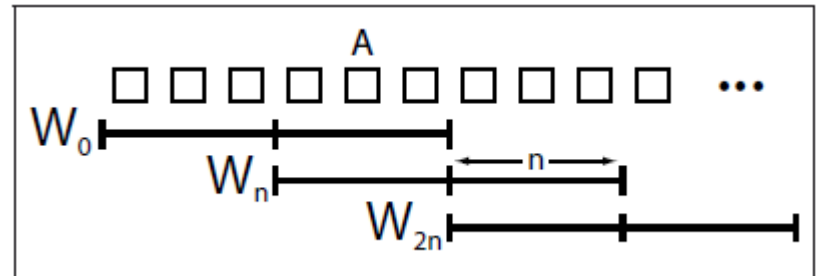
- Main design goals of SWISS schemata
  1. Keys in a window of  $n$  cases should only be recoverable with access to at least  $k$  keys in that window (as told before)
  2. Provision of a trade-off between security requirements and memory consumption
  3. Recovery of a case key  $\kappa_i$  requires possession of the **very same case (!)**
- Innovative approach
  - Share length is designed to be a (small) constant independent of  $n$  and  $k$
  - Goal is achieved using bilinear maps (combination of two multiplicative cyclic groups) – for details cf paper and referred literature





# Secret sharing across time (6)

- General idea (presented qualitatively)
  - Definition of superwindows of size  $2n$  overlapping with the previous superwindow by length  $n$
  - "Sloppiness" in the resulting access structure: Recovery of secrets in one window gives access to secrets in adjacent windows
  - Each superwindow is given a secret shared using a  $(k, 2n)$  scheme
  - Access to window secrets (and thus to case secrets) requires recovery of one of the two superwindow secrets
  - **Any  $k$**  cases fall into some superwindow of size  $2n$





# Secret sharing across time (7)

## ■ Some implementation details

- Each time period is covered by two superwindows
- Hence, each share  $S_i$  consists of two sub-shares, one for each superwindow
- Each share contains a supplementary random nonce  $r_i$  to prevent adversaries from accessing tag secrets for cases they don't possess

$$S_i = \{s_i^{\ell n}, s_i^{(\ell+1)n}, r_i\}$$

- Individual case keys are defined as follows (taking into account the window secret  $i$  belongs to and the individual random nonce  $r_i$ ):

$$\kappa_i = h(r_i, \omega_{kn})$$



# Secret sharing across time (8)

- **Generic SWISS families**
  - Provide a more flexible implementation of SWISS schemes
  - $\lambda$  (security parameter) is traded off against memory needed
  - Superwindows are divided into  $\psi+1$  subwindows
- **Real world implementation**
  - For 1 million shares: 10,000 windows of  $n = 100$  shares each
  - $k = 20 \rightarrow$  resulting shares will be 384 bits in size
  - Use of TSS schemes provides additional advantages



# Outlook on future work

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- Future work
  - Creation of sharing schemes based upon the entire history of transaction between sender and receiver