

DETECTION OF MISREPORTING NODES IN DISRUPTION TOLERANT NETWORK

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Abstract- Disruption Tolerant Networks (DTNs) exploit the intermittent connectivity between nodes to transfer data. It follows a store-carry-forward mechanism to transfer data. A node misbehaves by dropping packets and acts selfish as they are unwilling to spend resources such as power and buffer on forwarding packets of other nodes. In such nodes routing misbehavior reduces the packet delivery ratio and wastes system resources such as power and bandwidth. Methods to mitigate routing misbehavior in mobile networks cannot be applied to DTN because of its intermittent connectivity. Existing systems are designed to identify selfish node or malicious node on DTNs. When it finds misbehaving or packet dropping node then it sends information to server. Server will then stop the data transfer and choose alternate route for communication. It detects misbehaving node and is selected dynamically to avoid it being compromised. When a misbehaving node misreports, it is converted to blacklist node and avoid this node from the network.

1. INTRODUCTION

Disruption Tolerant Networks (DTNs) consist of mobile nodes carried by human beings vehicles etc. DTNs enable data transfer when mobile nodes are only intermittently connected, making them appropriate for applications where no communication infrastructure is available such as military scenarios and rural areas. Due to lack of consistent connectivity, two nodes can only exchange data when they move into the transmission range of each other (which is called a contact between them). DTNs employ such contact opportunity for data forwarding with store carry-and-forward. When a node receives some packets, it stores these packets in its buffer carries them around until it contacts another node, and then forwards them. Since the contacts between nodes are opportunistic and the duration of a contact may be short because of mobility the usable bandwidth which is only available during the opportunistic contacts is a limited resource.

Also, mobile nodes may have limited buffer space. Due to the limitation in bandwidth and buffer space, DTNs are vulnerable to flood attacks. In flood attacks, maliciously or selfishly motivated attackers inject as many packets as possible into the network, or instead of injecting different packets the attackers forward replicas of the same packet to as many nodes as possible. For convenience, call the two types of attack packet flood attack and replica flood attack

respectively. Flooded packets and replicas can waste the precious bandwidth and buffer resources prevent benign packets from being forwarded and thus degrade the network service provided to good nodes. Moreover, mobile nodes spend much energy on transmitting/receiving flooded packets and replicas which may shorten their battery life.

Therefore, it is urgent to secure DTNs against flood attacks. Although many schemes have been proposed to defend against flood attacks on the Internet and in wireless sensor networks they assume persistent connectivity and cannot be directly applied to DTNs that have intermittent connectivity. In DTNs, little work has been done on flood attacks, despite the many works on routing data dissemination black hole attack wormhole attack and selfish dropping behavior. Here noted that the packets flooded by outsider attackers packets and replicas with valid signatures. Thus, it is still an open problem is to address flood attacks in DTNs.

2. MOTIVATION

2.1 The Potential Prevalence of Flood Attack

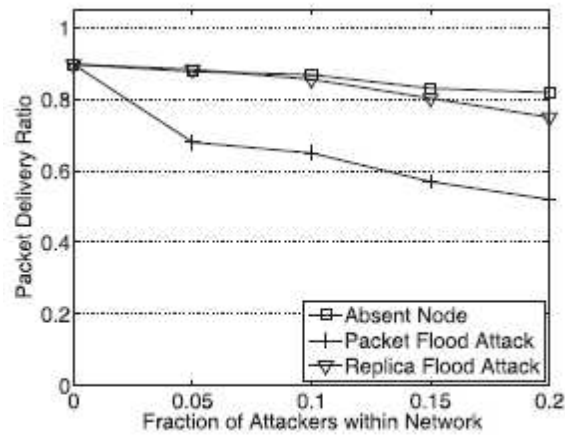
Many nodes may launch flood attacks for malicious or selfish purposes. Malicious nodes, which can be the nodes deliberately deployed by the adversary or subverted by the adversary via mobile phone worms [16], launch attacks to congest the network and waste the resources of other nodes.

Selfish nodes may also exploit flood attacks to increase their communication throughput. In DTNs, a single packet usually can only be delivered to the destination with a probability smaller than 1 due to the opportunistic connectivity. If a selfish node floods many replicas of its own packet, it can increase the likelihood of its packet being delivered, since the delivery of any replica means successful delivery of the packet. With packet flood attacks, selfish nodes can also increase their throughput, albeit in a subtler manner.

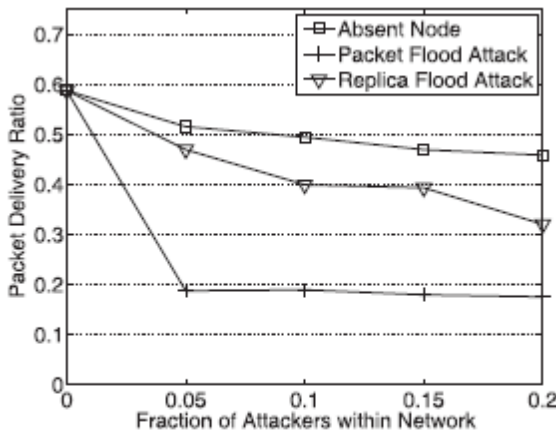
2.2 The Effect of Flood Attacks

To study the effect of flood attacks on DTN routing and motivate our work, we run simulations on the MIT Reality trace [17] (see more details about this trace in Section 7). We consider three general routing strategies in DTNs. 1) Single-copy routing (e.g., [18], [8]): after forwarding a

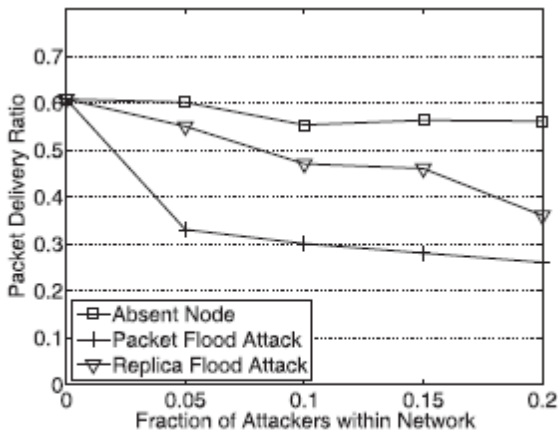
packetout, a node deletes its own copy of the packet. Thus, each packet only has one copy in the network. 2) Multicopy routing (e.g., [19]): the source node of a packet sprays a certain number of copies of the packet to other nodes and each copy is individually routed using the single-copy strategy. The maximum number of copies that each packet can have is fixed. 3) Propagation routing (e.g., [17], [20], [21]): when a node finds it appropriate (according to the routing algorithm) to forward a packet to another encountered node, it replicates that packet to the encountered node and keeps its own copy. There is no preset limit over the number of copies a packet can have. In our simulations, SimBet [8], Spray-and-Focus [19] (three copies allowed for each packet) and Propagation are used as representatives of the three routing strategies, respectively. In Propagation, a node replicates a packet to another encountered node if the latter has more frequent contacts with the destination of the packet.



(c) Propagation Routing



(a) Single-copy Routing



(b) Multi-copy Routing

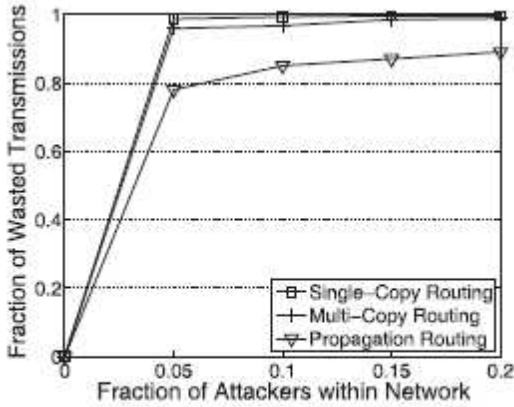
Two metrics are used, The first metric is packet delivery ratio, which is defined as the fraction of packets delivered to their destinations out of all the unique packets generated. The second metric is the fraction of wasted transmissions (i.e., the transmissions made by good nodes for flooded packets). The higher fraction of wasted transmissions, the more network resources are wasted. We noticed that the effect of packet flood attacks on packet delivery ratio has been studied by Burgess et al. [22] using a different trace [4]. Their simulations show that packet flood attacks significantly reduce the packet delivery ratio of single-copy routing but do not affect propagation routing much. However, they do not study replica flood attacks and the effect of packet flood attacks on wasted transmissions. In our simulations, a packet flood attacker floods packets destined to random good nodes in each contact until the contact ends or the contacted node's buffer is full. A replica flood attacker replicates the packets it has generated to every encountered node that does not have a copy. Each good node generates thirty packets on the 121st day of the Reality trace, and each attacker does the same in replica flood attacks. Each packet expires in 60 days. The buffer size of each node is 5 MB, bandwidth is 2 Mbps and packet size is 10 KB.

3. PROBLEM DEFINITION

3.1 Defense against Packet Flood Attacks

We consider a scenario where each node has a rate limit L on the number of unique packets that it as a source can generate and send into the network within each time interval T . The time intervals start from time $0, T, 2T$, etc. The packets generated within the rate limit are deemed legitimate, but the packets generated beyond the limit are deemed flooded by this node. To defend against packet flood attacks, our goal is to detect if a node as a source has generated and sent more unique packets into the network than its rate limit L per time interval. A node's rate limit L does not depend on any specific

routing protocol, but it can be determined by a service contract between the node and the network operator as discussed in Section 3.1.3. Different nodes can have different rate limits and their rate limits can be dynamically adjusted. The length of time interval should be set appropriately. If the interval is too long, rate limiting may not be very effective against packet flood attacks. If the interval is too short, the number of contacts that each node has during one interval may be too nondeterministic and thus it is difficult to set an appropriate rate limit. Generally speaking, the interval should be short under the condition that most nodes can have a significant number of contacts with other nodes within one interval, but the appropriate length depends on the contact patterns between nodes in this specific deployment scenario.



(a) Packet Flood Attack

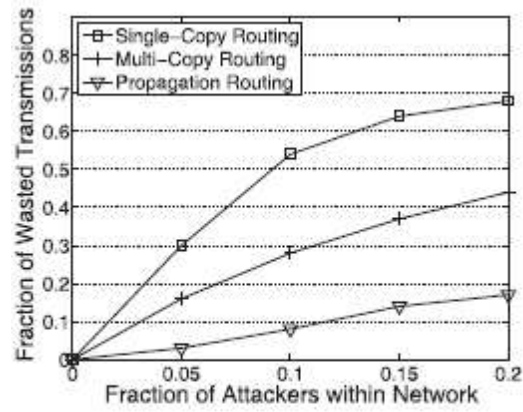
3.2 Defense against Replica Flood Attacks

As motivated in Section 2, the defense against replica flood considers single-copy and multicopy routing protocols. These protocols require that, for each packet that a node buffers no matter if this packet has been generated by the node or forwarded to it, there is a limit l on the number of times that the node can forward this packet to other nodes. The values of l may be different for different buffered packets. Our goal is to detect if a node has violated the routing protocol and forwarded a packet more times than its limit l for the packet.

A node's limit l for a buffered packet is determined by the routing protocol. In multicopy routing, $l \leq L_0$ (where L_0 is a parameter of routing) if the node is the source of the packet, and $l \leq L$ if the node is an intermediate hop (i.e., it received the packet from another node). In single-copy routing, $l \leq L$ no matter if the node is the source or an intermediate hop. Note that the two limits L and l do not depend on each other.

We discuss how to defend against replica flood attacks for quota-based routing [23], [19], [24] in Section 4.9.3.1.3 Setting the Rate Limit L . One possible method is to set L in a request-approve style. When a user joins the network, she

requests for a rate limit from a trusted authority which acts as the network operator.

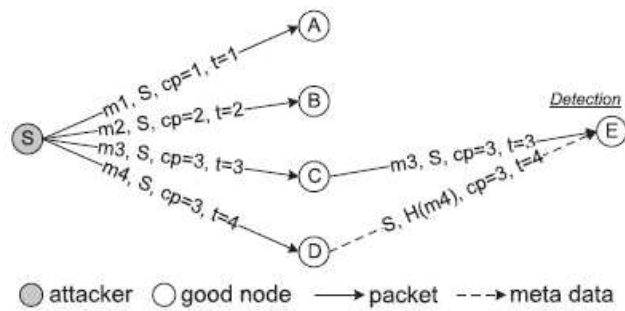


(b) Replica Flood Attack

4. BASIC IDEA: CLAIM-CARRY-AND-CHECK

4.1 Packet Flood Detection

To detect the attackers that violate their rate limit L , we must count the number of unique packets that each node as a source has generated and sent to the network in the current interval. However, since the node may send its packets to any node it contacts at any time and place, no other node can monitor all of its sending activities. To address this challenge, our idea is to let the node itself count the number of unique packets that it, as a source, has sent out, and claim the up-to-date packet count (together with a little auxiliary information such as its ID and a timestamp) in each packet sent out. The node's rate limit certificate is also attached to the packet, such that other nodes receiving the packet can learn its authorized rate limit L . If an attacker is flooding more packets than its rate limit, it has to dishonestly claim a count smaller than the real value in the flooded packet, since the real value is larger than its rate limit and thus a clear indicator of attack. The claimed count must have been used before by the attacker in another claim, which is guaranteed by the pigeonhole principle, and these two claims are inconsistent. The nodes which have received packets from the attacker carry the claims included in those packets when they move around. When two of them contact, they check if there is any inconsistency between their collected claims. The attacker is detected when an inconsistency is found. Let us look at an example in Fig.

(a) Packet flood ($L = 3$)

a. S is an attacker that successively sends out four packets to A, B, C, and D, respectively. Since $L \geq 3$, if S claims the true count 4 in the fourth packet m_4 , this packet will be discarded by D. Thus, S dishonestly claims the count to be 3, which has already been claimed in the third packet m_3 . m_3 (including the claim) is further forwarded to node E.

5. ALGORITHM

The protocol run by each node in a contact

- 1: Metadata (P-claim and T-claim) exchange and attack detection
- 2: if Have packets to send then
- 3: For each new packet, generate a P-claim;
- 4: For all packets, generate their T-claims and sign them with a hash tree;
- 5: Send every packet with the P-claim and T-claim attached;
- 6: end if
- 7: if Receive a packet then
- 8: if Signature verification fails or the count value in its P-claim or T-claim is invalid then
- 9: Discard this packet;
- 10: end if
- 11: Check the P-claim against those locally collected and generated in the same time interval to detect inconsistency;
- 12: Check the T-claim against those locally collected for inconsistency;
- 13: if Inconsistency is detected then
- 14: Tag the signer of the P-claim (T-claim, respectively) as an attacker and add it into a blacklist;
- 15: Disseminate an alarm against the attacker to the network;
- 16: else
- 17: Store the new P-claim (T-claim, respectively);
- 18: end if
- 19: end if

6. METADATA EXCHANGE

When two nodes contact they exchange their collected P-claims and T-claims to detect flood attacks. If all claims are exchanged, the communication cost will be too high. Thus, our scheme uses sampling techniques to keep the communication cost low. To increase the probability of attack detection, one node also stores a small portion of claims exchanged from its contacted node, and exchanges them to its own future contacts. This is called redirection.

6.1 Sampling

Since P-claims and T-claims are sampled together (i.e., when a P-claim is sampled the T-claim of the same packet is also sampled), in the following we only consider P-claims. A node may receive a number of packets (each with a P-claim) in a contact. It randomly samples Z (a system parameter) of the received P-claims, and exchanges the sampled P-claims to the next K (a system parameter) different nodes it will contact, excluding the sources of the P-claims and the previous hop from which these P-claims are received. However, a vulnerability to tailgating attack should be addressed. In tailgating attack, one or more attacker tailgate a good node to create a large number (say, d) of frequent contacts with this node, and send Z packets (not necessarily generated by the attackers) to this node in each created contact. If this good node sends the Zd P-claims of these contacts to the next K good nodes it contacts, much effective bandwidth between these good nodes will be wasted, especially in a large network where K is not small. To address this attack, the node uses an inter-contacts sampling technique to determine which P-claims sampled in historical contacts should be exchanged in the current contact. Let SK denote a set of contacts. This set includes the minimum number of most recent contacts between this node and at least K other different nodes. Within this set, all the contacts with the same node are taken as one single contact and a total of Z P-claims are sampled out of these contacts. This technique is not vulnerable to the tailgating attack since the number of claims exchanged in each contact is bounded by a constant.

6.2 Redirection

There is a stealthy attack to flood attack detection. For replica flood attacks, the condition of detection is that at least two nodes carrying inconsistent T-claims can contact. However, suppose the attacker knows that two nodes A and B never contact. Then, it can send some packets to A, and invalidly replicate these packets to B. In this scenario, this attacker cannot be detected since A and B never contact. Similarly, the stealthy attack is also harmful for some routing protocols like Spray-and-Wait [19] in which each packet is forwarded from the source to a relay and then directly delivered from the relay to the destination. To address the stealthy attack, our idea is to add one level of indirection. A node redirects the Z P-claims and T-claims sampled in the current contact to one of the next K nodes it will contact, and this contacted node will exchange (but not redirect again) these redirected claims into its own

subsequent contacts. Look at the example in Fig. 6. Suppose attacker S sends mutually inconsistent packets to two nodes A and B which will never contact. Suppose A and B redirect their sampled P-claims to node C and D, respectively. Then so long as C and B or D and A or C and D can contact, the attack has a chance to be detected. Thus, the successful chance of stealthy attack is significantly reduced.

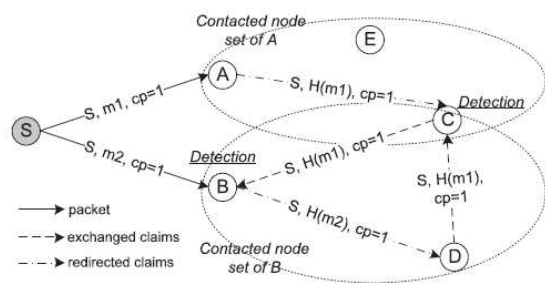


Fig. 6. The idea of redirection which is used to mitigate the stealthy attack.

6.3 The Exchange Process

Each node maintains two separate sets of P-claims (T-claims, respectively in the following) for metadata exchange, a sampled set which includes the P-claims sampled from the most recent contacts with K different nodes (i.e., SK in section 5.1), and a redirected set which includes the P-claims redirected from those contacts. Both sets include Z P-claims obtained in each of those contacts. When two nodes A and B contact, they first select KZ P-claims from each set with the inter-contact sampling technique and then send these P-claims

to each other. When A receives a P-claim, it checks if this P-claim is inconsistent with any of its collected P-claims. If the received P-claim is inconsistent with a locally collected one and the signature of the received P-claim is valid, A detects that the issuer (or signer) of the received P-claim is an attacker. Out of all the P-claims received from B, A randomly selects Z of the P-claims from the sampled set of B, and stores them to A's redirected set. All other P-claims received from B are discarded after inconsistency check. Metadata Deletion

A node stores the P-claims and T-claims collected from received data packets for a certain time denoted by $_$ and deletes them afterward. It deletes the claims redirected from other nodes immediately after it has exchanged them to K different nodes.

7. CONCLUSION

The rate limiting to mitigate flood attacks in DTNs, and proposed a scheme which exploits claim-carry-and-check to probabilistically detect the violation of rate limit in DTN environments. Our scheme uses efficient constructions to keep the computation, communication and storage cost low. Also, analyzed the lower bound and upper bound of detection probability. Extensive trace-driven simulations showed that our

scheme is effective to detect flood attacks and it achieves such effectiveness in an efficient way. Our scheme works in a distributed manner, not relying on any online central authority or infrastructure, which well fits the environment of DTNs. Besides, it can tolerate a small number of attackers to collude.

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