



## **PROTECTED INFORMATION RETRIEVAL DESIGNED FOR DECENTRALIZED INTERFERENCE TOLERANT MILITARY NETWORKS**

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### **Abstract:-**

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Theconceptofattribute-  
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### **INTRODUCTION**

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case, it is a reasonable assumption that multiple key authorities are likely to manage their own dynamic attributes for soldiers in their deployed regions or echelons, which could be frequently changed (e.g., the attribute representing current location of moving soldiers) [4], [8], [9]. We refer to this DTN architecture where multiple authorities issue and manage their own attribute keys independently as a decentralized DTN [10]. The concept of attribute-based encryption (ABE) [11]–[14] is a promising approach that fulfills the requirements for secured data retrieval in DTNs. ABE features a mechanism that enables an access control over encrypted data using access policies and associated attributes among private keys and ciphertexts. Especially, ciphertext-policy ABE (CP-ABE) provides a scalable way of encrypting data such that the encryptor defines the attributes set that the decryptor needs to possess in order to decrypt the ciphertext [13]. Thus, different users are allowed to decrypt different pieces of data per the security policy.

However, the problem of applying the ABE to DTNs introduces several security and privacy challenges. Since some users may change their associated attributes at some point (for example, moving their region), or some private keys might be compromised, key revocation (or update) for each attribute is necessary in order to make the system secure. However, this issue is even more difficult, especially in ABE systems, since each attribute is conceivably shared by multiple users (henceforth, we refer to such a collection of

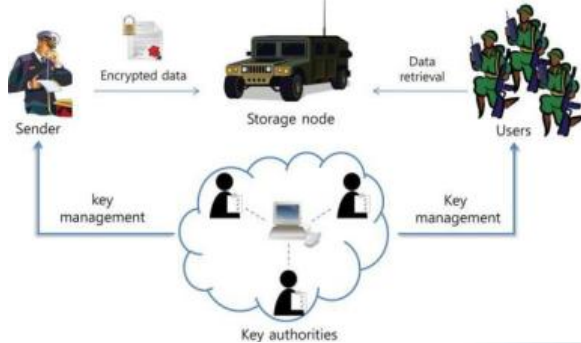
users as an attribute group). This implies that revocation of any attribute or any single user in an attribute group would affect the other users in the group. For example, if a user joins or leaves an attribute group, the associated attribute keys should be changed and redistributed to all the other members in the same group for backward or forward secrecy. It may result in a bottleneck during the keying procedure, or security degradation due to the window of vulnerability if the previous attribute key is not updated immediately.

Another challenge is the key escrow problem. In CP-ABE, a key authority generates private keys of users by applying the authority's master secret keys to users' associated set of attributes. Thus, the key authority can decrypt every ciphertext addressed to specific users by generating their attribute keys.

If the key authority is compromised by adversaries when deployed in hostile environments, this could be a potential threat to the data confidentiality or privacy especially when the data is highly sensitive. The key escrow is an inherent problem even in multiple-authority systems as long as each key authority has the whole privilege to generate their own attribute keys with their own master secrets. Since such a key generation mechanism based on the single master secret is the basic method for most of the asymmetric encryption systems such as the attribute-based or identity-based encryption protocols, removing escrow in single or multiple-authority CP-ABE is a pivotal open problem.



The last challenge is the coordination of attributes issued from different authorities. When multiple authorities manage and issue attribute keys independently with their own master secrets, it is very hard to define fine-grained access policies over attributes issued from different authorities. For example, suppose that attributes “role1” and “region1” are managed by the authority A, and “role2” and “region2” are managed by the authority B. Then, it is impossible to generate an access policy  $((\text{“role1” OR “role2”}) \text{ AND } (\text{“region1” or “region2”}))$  in the previous schemes because the OR logic between attributes issued from different authorities cannot be implemented. This is due to the fact that the different authorities generate their own attribute keys using their own independent and individual master secret keys. Therefore, general access policies, such as “-out-of-” logic, cannot be expressed in the previous schemes, which is a very practical and commonly required access policy logic.



### 1.1 Architecture Of Secure Data Retrieval In A Disruption-Tolerant Military Network

## RELATED WORK

### Robust Routing in Dynamic MANETs

A variety of work has considered the use of disjoint routes in ad hoc networks, including. In addition to the overhead cost of finding disjoint paths, if any link in a path breaks then the path itself breaks. Detection and recovery from failure is also expensive since it cannot be carried out locally. These considerations have thus motivated research on the use of non-disjoint paths. The backup routing algorithm of reinforcement forces the path selected by AODV by allowing nodes that overhear AODV control messages to become part of the routing subgraph, to be used only when links on the AODV path break. Proposes duct routing in mobile packet radio networks, where nodes neighbouring the primary route may be used. Specifically, when sending packets to the  $i$ th hop node along the primary path, one of either the  $i$ th hop node or one of its neighbours will hear the transmission first. The first node that hears the transmission will forward the packet to the  $(i+1)$ st hop node; the other nodes will overhear the forwarding transmission and refrain from transmitting. Considering an underwater network, proposes a geo-routing mesh using only nodes within a given distance from the vector from the source or current forwarding node to the sink. We note that (when all nodes neighbouring the primary path are used) and build routing subgraphs which structurally correspond to what we will describe in Section IV as a 1-hop braid. Braided multipaths are proposed to protect against node failure. A braided multipath corresponds to selecting a primary





path and then adding an additional path for each node on the primary path that does not use a node, possibly reusing parts of the primary path. Specifically considering reliability, argues for the reliability benefits of using non-disjoint paths in wireless mesh networks, showing gain over disjoint paths. Consider the problem of finding the most reliable subgraph for routing. Due to the #P-hardness of this problem, they propose a method to approximately compute reliability and a routing algorithm that leverages known contact probabilities between node pairs to select a routing subgraph. Ideally, for a given source and destination, and a specified number of edges or nodes, we would select the subgraph that has maximum 2-terminal reliability while using at most the specified number of links or nodes. Computing reliability exactly, however, is generally #P-complete, as is solving the corresponding optimization problem. For all-terminal reliability (the probability that a graph is connected), gives a randomized fully polynomial time approximation scheme. For very reliable graphs, show that only small cuts are likely to fail and that there are only a polynomial number of such cuts, otherwise Monte Carlo simulation may be used. The approach could presumably be used to approximate 2-terminal reliability, although this does not efficiently solve the optimization problem, nor lend itself easily to theoretical comparisons of the reliability of different subgraphs.

Given the difficulty of exactly computing reliability, except for relatively simple networks, we also use Monte Carlo

simulation to estimate reliability. In a discrete-time simulation of a time-varying network, we can check whether there is a path from the source to the destination at each time-step. The ratio of the number of time-steps when there was a path and the total number of time-steps simulated is then an estimate of the probability of there being at least one path from source to destination. We refer to computing the reliability in this way as “computing the reliability experimentally.”

### **Analysing the overhead in mobile ad-hoc network with a Hierarchical routing structure**

In this paper we evaluate analytically the expected overhead reduction generated by the routing protocol when we adopt a hierarchical routing scheme in MANET. We specifically evaluate the overhead incurred by the current routing protocols (reactive and proactive) used in MANET, then, we modify the obtained model to include the parameters to represent the hierarchical structure (subnet, address aggregation). Finally, we compare these models to get a preliminary idea of the reduction incurred by our proposal. The main objective of this paper is not to solve all the technological issues arisen in MANETs if subnetting solutions are approached but to show that an effort in that direction is valuable.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: a generic description of the scenario characteristics and the challenges that we have to solve for integrating successfully the hierarchical routing to MANET are given in



section II. Then, we present the analytical model of the overhead generated by the routing mechanisms. Finally, we have the conclusions and future work.

### **AntHocNet: An Adaptive Nature-Inspired Algorithm for Routing in Mobile Ad Hoc Networks**

A simulation software we use Qualnet. We ran experiments with two different base settings. In the setting, 100 nodes are randomly placed in a square area of 3000\_1000 m<sup>2</sup>. Each experiment is run for 900 seconds. Data traffic is generated by 20 constant bitrate (CBR) sources sending one 64-byte packet per second. Each source starts sending at a random time between 0 and 180 seconds after the start of the simulation, and keeps sending until the end. At the physical layer, a two-ray signal propagation model is used. The radio propagation range of the nodes is 300 meters, and the data rate is 2 Mbit/s. At the MAC layer, we use the IEEE 802.11b DCF protocol. For the different experiments in this setting, we varied the movement patterns of the nodes. We did tests with the random waypoint mobility model, in which we varied the maximum speed and the pause time, and with the Gauss-Markov mobility model, in which we again varied the maximum speed. The Gauss-Markov movement scenarios were generated with the Bonn Motion software. Parameter values were kept as follows: the update frequency was 2.5, the angle standard deviation 0.4, and the speed standard deviation 0.5. For the second setting, we used the same setup as

was used in the scalability study of AODV performed by Lee, Belding-

Royer and Perkins. In this study, the number of nodes and the size of the simulation area are varied, while keeping the average node density constant ( $\approx 7:5$ ). The authors do experiments with up to 10000 nodes, but due to computational constraints we limited our test to maximum 1500 nodes. The exact values used for the number of nodes and the size of the area are given in table 1. Other properties of the simulation setup are kept constant over the different test scenarios. The data traffic consists of 20 CBR sources sending four 512-byte packets per second. The nodes move according to the random waypoint model, with a minimum speed of 0 m/s, a maximum speed of 10 m/s, and a pause time of 30 seconds.

The radio propagation range of the nodes is 250 meters, and the channel capacity is 2 Mb/s. The choice of the above described scenarios is based on the results obtained for an earlier version of AntHocNet, which are described in. In that paper we investigated the behavior of AntHocNet in the basic scenarios used in the influential comparative study of. This scenario

is very densely packed, with 50 nodes with a radio range of 300 meters in an area of 1500\_300 m<sup>2</sup>. In such an environment, with high interference and very short paths, it is clear that the advantages of maintaining multiple paths, stochastically spreading data, using local repair, etc., do not outweigh the costs. As a simple, reactive approach, AODV is expected to be much more effective. In the tests we ran, it became clear that as the environment became more difficult (more



mobility, more sparseness, longer paths), these characteristics of AntHocNet became an advantage over those of AODV, resulting in an increasing performance gap in favor of AntHocNet. In this paper we start from a larger and sparser network, and investigate again the effect of increasing the mobility and the size. The study on larger network is necessary to validate the scalability of our approach. In the following, algorithms are evaluated in terms of average end-to-end delay per packet and delivery ratio (i.e., the fraction of successfully delivered data packets). These are two important measures of effectiveness for MANET routing algorithms. Apart from that, we also consider the delay jitter and the routing overhead. Delay jitter measures packet delay variation. It is a metric used in QoS applications and also provides a measure of the stability of the algorithm's response to changes in the network topology. Delay jitter is calculated as the average of the difference of the interarrival time between subsequently received packets: if the last three packets are received respectively at  $t_3, t_2, t_1$ , the session's jitter is calculated as the arithmetic average of the values  $(t_3 - t_2)$  and  $(t_2 - t_1)$  for all triplets of received packets. This definition of jitter was proposed in [36] and is used in Qualnet and in a number of real-world routing devices.

The routing overhead measures the algorithm's internal efficiency and is calculated as the total number of control packets sent divided by the number of data packets delivered successfully.

## **Self-Adaptive On Demand Geographic Routing Protocols for Mobile Ad Hoc Networks**

The conventional on-demand routing protocols (e.g.,) often involve flooding in route discovery, which limits the scalability. To reduce overhead, LAR reduces the flooding range by making use of the nodes' position information. Unlike topology-based routing protocols, geographic routing is based on mobile nodes' positions. Existing geographic routing protocols have many limitations as discussed in Section I. Authors in [1] attempted to remove the proactive beacons in geographic routing protocols. However, the simple contention-based scheme adopted may lead to redundant packet forwarding and higher collision probability, and hence it cannot work properly when the traffic load is high. Son et al. [2] conducted a simulation-based study on the negative effect of mobility-induced location error on routing performance. Instead, we propose two on-demand and adaptive geographic routing protocols that can meet different application and traffic needs and adapt to different conditions. Fixed-interval beaconing commonly adopted in current geographic routing protocols may result in outdated local topology knowledge at the forwarding node, which leads to non-optimal routing and forwarding failure. 1) Non-optimal routing. Fig. 1(a) shows an example of non-optimal routing due to the outdated local topology knowledge. Node B just moved into A's transmission range, which is unknown to A. Without knowing any neighbor closer to the destination G, A will





forward the packet to node C then D by using perimeter forwarding. The resulted path has five hops, while the optimal path between A and G should have only two hops after B bridges the void between A and G.

2) Forwarding failure. In literature work, a node will keep a neighbor's information until time out even when the neighbor has moved out of its transmission range and the time out interval is often set as multiple beaconing intervals. Forwarding failure will happen when the node forwards packet to such a "false" neighbor (e.g., Fig. 1 (b)) and results in packet dropping or rerouting. More seriously, before detecting the unreachability,

the continuous retransmissions at MAC layer will reduce the link throughput and fairness, and increase the collisions. This will further increase delay and energy consumption. Introduce our route optimization schemes. In both protocols, we assume every mobile node is aware of its own position, as a source can obtain the destination's position through some kind of location service, and promiscuous mode is enabled on mobile nodes' network interfaces. In the following presentation, except when explicitly indicated,  $F$  represents the current forwarding node,  $D$  is the destination,  $N$  denotes one of  $F$ 's neighbors,  $posA$  is the position coordinates of A and  $dis(A, B)$  is the distance between node A and B.

### **A Cluster-Based Multipath Dynamic Source Routing in MANET**

Recently, there have been some works on multipath routing in ad hoc networks. In TORA, the source node constructs multiple

routes by flooding a query message followed by a set of update messages. However, TORA does not have any mechanism to evaluate the quality of these multiple paths and this leads to its poor performance. SMR extends DSR in the way that the destination can discover two paths for each router request, in which one is the shortest path, and the other is the maximum disjoint path. In, A. Nasipuri and S. R. Das prove that the use of multiple paths in DSR can keep correct end-to-end transmission for a long time than a single path. In other words, the frequency of searching for new routes is much lower if a node keeps multiple paths to a destination. This is the first deep study on performance benefits of multipath routing in MANETs. However, they did not study the performance improvement of multipath routing on network load balancing. Their performance study is based on theoretical analysis, where it is difficult to take into account the influence of nodes' arbitrary movements and unreliable radio transmission. Multiple Source Routing protocol (MSR) proposes a weighted round-robin heuristic-based scheduling strategy among multiple paths in order to distribute load, but provides no analytical modeling of its performance. M. R. Perlman et al. demonstrate that multipath routing can balance network load. They also propose a diversity injection method to find more node-disjoint paths compared to DSR. However, their work is based on multiple channel networks, which are contention free but may not be available in some application scenarios. MP-DSR considers the dynamic nature of network topology as well as the importance to offer continuous network



connection in certain mission critical applications.

Thus, the objective of the protocol is to improve the level of service by providing guarantee with respect to end-to-end reliability, and to probabilistically guarantee the required connection lifetime. But it does not consider the scalability problem. Our CMDSR solves the reliability problem by selectively choosing more reliable paths and by providing soft guarantees on the end-to-end reliability. In addition, our protocol uses the hierarchical structure which can cope efficiently with an increasing node density and a significant number of nodes. It makes the protocol more scalable.

### **PROPOSED SYSTEM:**

Especially, ciphertext-policy ABE (CP-ABE) provides a scalable way of encrypting data such that the encryptor defines the attributes set that the decryptor needs to possess in order to decrypt the ciphertext. Thus, different users are allowed to decrypt different pieces of data per the security policy. In CP-ABE, the key authority generates private keys of users by applying the authority's master secret key to users' associated set of attributes. Thus, the key authority can decrypt every ciphertext addressed to specific users by generating their attribute keys. If the key authority is compromised by adversaries when deployed in the hostile environments, this could be a potential threat to the data confidentiality or privacy especially when the data is highly sensitive. The key escrow is an inherent problem even in the multiple-authority systems as long as each key authority has the whole privilege to generate

their own attribute keys with their own master secrets. Since such a key generation mechanism based on the single master secret is the basic method of most of the asymmetric encryption systems such as the attribute-based or identity-based encryption protocols, removing escrow in single or multiple-authority CP-ABE is a pivotal open problem.

### **MODULE DESCRIPTION :**

#### **1. Key Authorities :**

They are key generation centers that generate public/secret parameters for CP-ABE. The key authorities consist of a central authority and multiple local authorities. We assume that there are secure and reliable communication channels between a central authority and each local authority during the initial key setup and generation phase. Each local authority manages different attributes and issues corresponding attribute keys to users. They grant differential access rights to individual users based on the users' attributes. The key authorities are assumed to be honest-but-curious. That is, they will honestly execute the assigned tasks in the system, however they would like to learn information of encrypted contents as much as possible.

#### **2. Storage node:**

This is an entity that stores data from senders and provides corresponding access to users. It may be mobile or static. Similar to the previous schemes, we also assume the





storage node to be semi-trusted, that is honest-but-curious.

### 3. Sender :

This is an entity who owns confidential messages or data (e.g., a commander) and wishes to store them into the external data storage node before use of sharing or for reliable delivery to users in the extreme networking environments. A sender is responsible for defining (attribute based) access policy and enforcing it on its own data by encrypting the data under the policy before storing it to the storage node.

### 4. Soldier (User) :

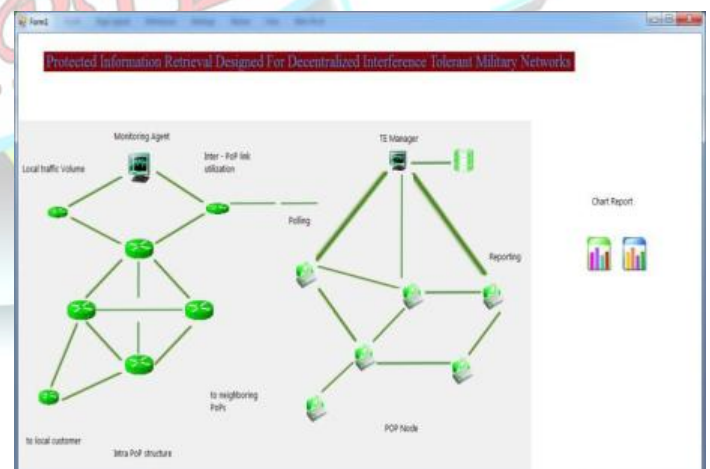
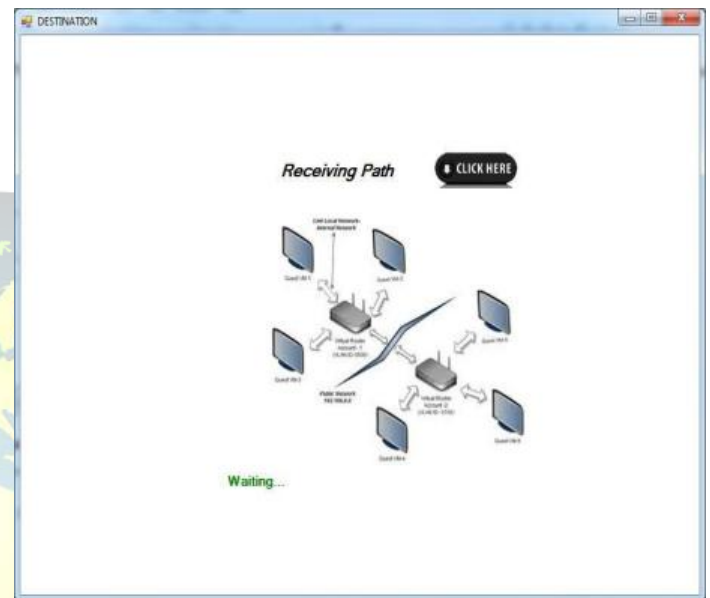
This is a mobile node who wants to access the data stored at the storage node (e.g., a soldier). If a user possesses a set of attributes satisfying the access policy of the encrypted data defined by the sender, and is not revoked in any of the attributes, then he will be able to decrypt the ciphertext and obtain the data.

### 5. CP-ABE Method :

In Ciphertext Policy Attribute Based Encryption scheme, the encryptor can fix the policy, who can decrypt the encrypted message. The policy can be formed with the help of attributes. In CP-ABE, access policy is sent along with the ciphertext. We propose a method in which the access policy need not be sent along with the ciphertext, by which we are able to preserve the privacy of the encryptor. This technique encrypted data can be kept confidential even if the storage server is untrusted; moreover, our methods are secure against collusion attacks. Previous Attribute-Based Encryption

systems used attributes to describe the encrypted data and built policies into user's keys; while in our system attributes are used to describe a user's credentials, and a party encrypting data determines a policy for who can decrypt.

## SIMULATION





## CONCLUSION

DTN technologies are becoming successful solutions in military applications that allow wireless devices to communicate with each other and access the confidential information reliably by exploiting external storage nodes. CP-ABE is a scalable cryptographic solution to the access control and secured data retrieval issues. In this paper, we proposed an efficient and secured data retrieval method using CP-ABE for decentralized DTNs where multiple key authorities manage their attributes independently. The inherent key escrow problem is resolved such that the confidentiality of the stored data is guaranteed even under the hostile environment where key authorities might be compromised or not fully trusted. In addition, the fine-grained key revocation can be done for each attribute group. We demonstrate how to apply the proposed mechanism to securely and efficiently manage the confidential data distributed in the disruption-tolerant military network.

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