

Detecting Malicious Nodes in Wireless Sensor Networks

¹K.V.V.S. Pravallika, M.Tech ; ²Mrs. S. Venkata Lakshmi, Asst.Prof., IT Dept.
G. Narayanamma Institute of Technology and Science

Abstract: A typical wireless sensor network consists of several tiny and low-power sensors which use radio frequencies to perform distributed sensing tasks. Wireless sensor networks are used to detect the occurrence of events such as fires, intruders, or heart attacks, malicious data can be injected to create fake events, and thus trigger an undesired response, or to mask the occurrence of actual events. In this project we consider directly the scenario where an attacker gains full control of one or more sensors and can run arbitrary malware on them to fabricate new measurements and report them in place of the observed ones. Our base work only concentrated on the malicious data injection, we enhanced our base work with detecting the sink hole attack and avoiding the sink hole node to transfer the data.

Keywords: Malicious node, Detection, Malicious data.

I. Introduction.

A wireless sensor network consists of sensor nodes capable of collecting information from the environment and communicating with each other via wireless transceivers. The collected data will be delivered to one or more sinks, generally via multi-hop communication. The sensor nodes are typically expected to operate with batteries and are often deployed to not-easily-accessible or hostile environment, sometimes in large quantities. It can be difficult or impossible to replace the batteries of the sensor nodes. On the other hand, the sink is typically rich in energy.

II. Design

There are three basic modules of design that are necessary for the detection of malicious node in a WSN. They are:

- 1) Estimation
- 2) Similarity check.
- 3) Characterization.

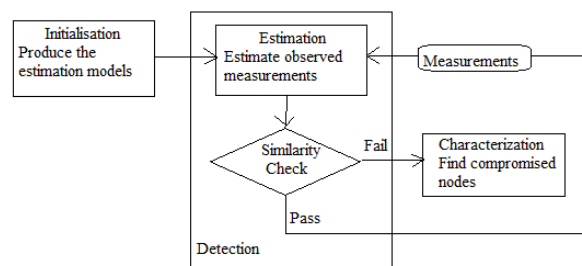


Fig.1. Outline of the system.

1) ESTIMATION

The estimation process consist of estimating the other nodes values, through which a trust based mechanism can be established between the nodes and the network to know which node has a possibility of being tampered with and the possibility of being a malicious node.

Consider a node S_i , which releases a value of i . here, the value released by the node S_i , has to be estimated by the other neighboring nodes, in order to create a basic trust within the network. This can be done by using two types of estimation processes.

- a) Pair-estimation.
- b) Aggregate estimation.

a) Pair Estimation

The pair estimation process is done by creating clusters of nodes within the network and selecting the cluster heads for the clusters.

The process of selecting the cluster head is to calculate the mean and mode of the estimated value in estimation. The measurements of two sensors are related, and in particular spatially correlated, because the sensed physical phenomena affect and propagate across the environment in which the sensors are placed. Ideally, the relationship could be characterized in a mathematically precise way, given by the laws of the physical phenomenon and its propagation.

Algorithm 1 Estimation models calculation

Input: $O_i \ i \in S$

Output: $(a_{ij}, b_{ij}) \ \forall i \neq j$

- 1: {Initialization: align the measurements with the inter-sensor delay}
- 2: **for all** $i \in S$ **do**
- 3: **for all** $j \in N(i)$ **do** { $N(i)$ indicates i 's neighbors}
- 4: $a_{ij} = cov(O_i, O_j) / var(O_i)$
- 5: $b_{ij} = E[O_i] - a_{ij}E[O_j]$
- 6: store (a_{ij}, b_{ij})
- 7: **end for**
- 8: **end for**

b) Estimate Aggregation

For every new measurement collected by a sensor, multiple pairwise estimates are calculated through the estimation models. At this point we aggregate them into a final estimate \hat{O}_i that approximates O_i and allows us to detect the presence of malicious data injections. To achieve this, \hat{O}_i must aggregate estimates in a way that is both accurate and minimally corrupted by malicious estimates. In particular, the second requirement demands us to not trust the relationships between different estimates. Indeed, different estimates for the same measurement share some mutual information, or in other words the information brought in by an estimate is reduced by knowledge of other estimates. Nevertheless, such property holds only in the absence of malicious interference. With respect to malicious data injections instead, even two estimates that are expected to be perfectly correlated bring in independent information, since we assume independent probabilities of compromise for different nodes. For this reason, our weighting scheme does not consider inter-estimate correlation.

Two candidates to aggregate pairwise estimates are *weighted mean* and the *weighted median*: both take as input a set of estimates and their prior weights and return an aggregated value. The *weighted mean* can achieve a smaller error than those of the single estimates. However, it is highly sensitive to compromise, since the final result is proportional to the input values: even one compromised (outlier) estimate can introduce an arbitrary deviation in the result. In contrast, the *weighted median* is more resistant to compromise. It first sorts the values ascendingly, then arranges the weights with the same order, transforms them into substrings with a length proportional to the weight and picks the element at the half-length of the resulting string. Its drawback is that by picking one among all estimates, the error cannot be reduced further.

Since there is a trade-off between accuracy and compromise resistance, we propose to combine the two operators with the following heuristic: first, the weighted median operator is applied; then the weighted mean is calculated with new weights, the *posterior weights* (w_{+ij}), obtained as the prior weights times a function which penalizes values distant from the result of the first step. Such function is the complementary cumulative distribution function of the estimation error, where the latter is calculated as the difference between the pairwise estimates and the result of the weighted median.

$$\begin{aligned}
 pij(\hat{O}, \hat{O}_{ij}) &= P(|\epsilon_{ij}| > |\hat{O} - \hat{O}_{ij}|) \\
 &= 1 - \text{erf} \frac{|\hat{O} - \hat{O}_{ij}|}{\sqrt{2} \text{std}(\epsilon_{ij})} \quad (2)
 \end{aligned}$$

Where *erf* is the error function and *std*(ϵ_{ij}) is the residual standard deviation, calculated together with the respective estimation model. The overall procedure is detailed in Algorithm 2 below, where $\hat{O}_{iN(i)}$ are the estimates for i 's observed measurement from its neighbors and $w_{-iN(i)}$ are their respective prior weights.

Algorithm 2 Calculation of the aggregated estimation

Input: $w_{-iN(i)}, \hat{O}_{iN(i)}$

Output: \hat{O}_i

- 1: $\hat{O}_i = \text{weightedMedian}(w_{-iN(i)}, \hat{O}_{iN(i)})$
- 2: **for all** $j \in N(i)$ **do** {Calculate the posterior weights}
- 3: $w_{+ij} = w_{-ij} \cdot pij(\hat{O}, \hat{O}_{ij})$
- 4: $w_{+iN(i)}.append(w_{+ij})$

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5: end for
6:  $w+iN(i)=w+iN(i)$ 
    $\sum_{j \in N(i)} w+ij$ 
7:  $\hat{O}_i = \text{weightedMean}(w+iN(i), \hat{O}_iN(i))$ 
8: return  $\hat{O}_i$ 
    
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To control the aggregation result, an attacker must ensure that the weighted median is one of the compromised estimates and thus that the sum of the weights of compromised estimates is >0.5 . This condition enables non-detectable injections into a single sensor but is not sufficient to keep the attack undetected. The attacker also needs to control the estimations for the other compromised sensors. The total number of sensors needed to keep all compromised sensors undetected depends on the strength of the pairwise correlations. Instead, the number of sensors needed to mask or elicit an event depends on the event detection criterion. Our empirical evaluations show that although a few sensors are generally required to subvert the event detection, a substantial additional number of sensors is required to avoid detection.

2) SIMILARITY CHECK

From the estimate aggregation step, each reported measurement S_i has an estimate \hat{O}_i of the observed value. To detect data injections in S_i , we compare the two using a *similarity metric* that must be consistent with the event detection criterion. So, two signals that are similar according to the metric must also have similar effects on the event detection and vice-versa. Here we propose two tests that capture the characteristic of most event detection criteria.

- a) Magnitude Test
- b) Shape Test

- a) **Magnitude Test**-This test verifies that reported measurements are close in magnitude to their estimates.
- b) **Shape Test**-This test verifies that the estimate and reported signal have a similar shape. The choice of the most appropriate test, or a combination of the two should be made at design time based on the event detection criterion.

a) Similarity Test 1: Magnitude

In some WSNs, events are triggered when measurements are higher or lower than a reference value. For example, fire alarms trigger when the temperature is above a threshold. An attacker must therefore inject measurements, which differ in magnitude with the observed ones. In such cases we use $M_i = (\hat{O}_i - S_i)$ —the difference between the reported measurement and its estimate—to build a *magnitude test*, which checks that the difference is small enough. We assumed that the regression *residual*, i.e. the error between a value and its estimate, is zero-mean and normally distributed. Even if \hat{O}_i is the result of the aggregation, the error $\epsilon_i = (\hat{O}_i - O_i)$ can still be assumed to be normally distributed. Indeed, our aggregate is a weighted mean of pairwise estimates, so it equals the true value plus the weighted mean of the pairwise residuals as shown below, where ϵ_{ij} denotes the residual in the regression of sensor i 's measurement based on sensor j 's.

$$\hat{O}_i = \sum_{j \in N(i)} w + \sum_{j \in N(i)} \hat{O}_j = \sum_{j \in N(i)} w + ij(O_i + \epsilon_{ij}) = O_i + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w + ij\epsilon_{ij} \quad (3)$$

Assuming that neighbors have independent residuals (e.g., because of independent noise), ϵ_i is a linear combination of independent normally distributed samples, and is thus normally distributed too. Its mean is still zero, and its variance is:

$$\text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \sum_{j \in N(i)} w + ij^2 \text{var}(\epsilon_{ij}) \quad (4)$$

This equation has an important characteristic: the variance of the estimate is a combination of the variances given by each neighbor. Therefore, if a sensor joins or leaves the network, it is sufficient that all its new/old neighbors re-compute the variance instead of learning a new one. Since $\epsilon_i \text{std}(\epsilon_i)$ follows the standard normal distribution, also $\epsilon_i M_i = \text{Mistd}(\epsilon_i)$ does when the measurements are genuine. We refer to $\epsilon_i M_i$ as the *magnitude deviation*.

Increasing the threshold reduces false positives, but decreases the detection rate. However, in event detection WSNs the false positives can be partly reduced without losing the detection rate by elaborating magnitude deviations in the same way as the event detection criterion elaborates the measurements. Consecutive magnitude deviations are unlikely to cause genuine anomalies with a long duration, unless there is a permanent fault that the fault-detection module should detect. Anomalies due to compromise, instead, have a longer

duration as the attacker aims to subvert the event detection result. The final step consists of comparing the elaborated magnitude deviation to the *threshold TM*.

b) Similarity Test 2: Shape

Some event detection algorithms trigger based on changes in the time evolution of measurements such as changes in trend or of frequency. These are characteristics of the shape of the signal rather than its magnitude.

A metric that measures similarity in the shapes of two signals is the Pearson correlation coefficient. Since our purpose is to check the shape of the measurements used for event detection, we calculate this coefficient within a moving time window of size WE : the event detection time window. Calculating Pearson correlation for all sensor pairs in a neighborhood would have a computational complexity of $O(N^2NWE)$, with NN being the neighborhood size. In contrast, we evaluate the Pearson correlation coefficient of a sensor's measurements with its estimates, achieving a complexity of $O(N^2N + WENN)$. Indeed, we compute the coefficient RS_i, \hat{O}_i , between WE consecutive values of S_i and \hat{O}_i , and compare it against the distribution of RO_i, \hat{O}_i . Specifically, if the coefficient is below the median, we check if at least $100 - CR\%$ samples are expected to be so low by testing

$$RO_i, \hat{O}_i = RO_i, \hat{O}_i - MED(RO_i, \hat{O}_i) DR_i > 1, \text{ where } DR_i \text{ is the } CR\text{-th percentile of } RO_i, \hat{O}_i.$$

To eliminate the need for the distribution of RO_i, \hat{O}_i , the quantities $MED(RO_i, \hat{O}_i)$ and DR_i are approximated with $MED(RO_i, \hat{O}_i)$ and \hat{DR}_i respectively. These are calculated with a heuristic described in Algorithm 3 for a generic sensor i . We find the best neighbor j^* , for which the median Pearson correlation coefficient is maximum. Then we approximate $MED(RO_i, \hat{O}_i)$ with its median and DR_i with its respective distance to the CR -th percentile. We characterize the samples below the median since the injected measurements are supposed to have a low correlation with the real values.

Algorithm 3 Characterization of the distribution of RS_i, O_i

Input: $R_{ij}: j \in N(i)(r), CR$

Output: $MED(RO_i, \hat{O}_i), \hat{DR}_i$

- 1: **for all** $j \in N(i)$ **do**
- 2: $MED_{Rij} = MED(R_{ij}(r))$
- 3: $MED_{Rij}.append(MED_{Rij})$
- 4: $rLOW = \{r : r < MED_{Rij}\}$
- 5: $DR_{ij} = \text{percentile}(MED_{Rij}R_{ij}(rLOW), CR)$
- 6: $DR_{ij}.append(DR_{ij})$
- 7: **end for**
- 8: $j^* = \text{argmax}_{j \in N(i)}(MED_{Rij})$
- 9: $MED(RO_i, \hat{O}_i) = MED_{Rij}[j^*]$
- 10: $\hat{DR}_i = DR_{ij}[j^*]$
- 11: **return** $(MED(RO_i, \hat{O}_i), \hat{DR}_i)$

In the absence of the distributions $R_{ij} \in N(i)(r)$, we estimate MED_{Rij} and DR_{ij} on historical data. For genuine sensors $S_i = O_i$, then $R_{ij} S_i, \hat{O}_i \leq 1$ for $CR\%$ genuine samples. We thus define $R_{ij} S_i, \hat{O}_i$ as the *shape deviation* and calculate CR as the lowest value that achieves a reasonable false alarm rate. The false positives due to short term anomalies can be reduced in a similar way to that used in the magnitude test i.e., by computing the median of WS_m consecutive correlation coefficients calculated on overlapping time windows. WS_m should never exceed WE , otherwise the information from disjoint time windows would be merged.

3) CHARACTERIZATION

When the similarity check fails for a sensor, the sensor may have been compromised by malicious data. However, in some cases the similarity check could also fail on genuine sensors, because the wrong modality was chosen (e.g., a non-event modality rather than an event modality) or because the estimation was disturbed by compromised sensors.

The latter occurs when several nearby sensors collude in providing malicious estimates. However, to bias the estimates for genuine sensors by a certain quantity and increase their deviation, compromised nodes typically need to inject measurements that have even larger deviations (if they do not need this, colluding sensors have probably enough influence over the measurements to remain undetected). Therefore, our characterization step consists in removing the sensors with the highest deviation, one by one, and re-computing the similarity check on the remaining sensors in the neighborhood. Each time we remove a sensor, which we presume compromised, the genuine sensors gain in consistency with their estimates whereas colluding sensors lose the benefits of the removed sensor's estimates. The procedure stops when all the remaining sensors pass the similarity check. The overall characterization algorithm is shown in Algorithm 4, where S_{Check} is the similarity

check and D_i is the generic deviation (coming from the magnitude/shape tests) calculated for the similarity check.

Algorithm 4 Characterization algorithm

Input: $D_i \forall i \in S$

Output: compromisedSet

1: compromisedSet= { }

2: residualSet= S

3: **while** $\exists i \in \text{residualSet} (\text{SCheck}(D_i) \text{ fails})$ **do**

4: $s^* = \text{argmax}_{i \in \text{residualSet}} D_i$

5: compromisedSet.append(s^*)

6: residualSet.remove(s^*)

7: **for all** $j \in S : s^* \in N(j)$ **do**

8: $N(j) = N(j) \setminus s^*$

9: re-compute D_j

10: **end for**

11: **end while**

12: **return** compromisedSet

Another factor to consider when the similarity check fails is the *modality assumption* (Section IV-A1). When different modalities are used in event conditions and non-event conditions, there is some uncertainty about which modality to use because malicious data may have compromised the event detection output. In this case, the wrong estimation model may be used and genuine sensors may fail it. Our solution is to run Algorithm 4 in both modalities when the similarity check fails and then choose the modality in which the smallest compromised set is returned. It is reasonable to choose the correct modality based on a majority approach, as the attack costs increase with the number of measurements that need to be controlled. Note that this is different from event detection with majority voting, since the measurements are not required to trigger in majority, but to reflect event propagation and show graceful transitions in their measurements.

III. Project Analysis

The calculations rely on solid raw measurements of the nodes which are trustworthy. These calculations are sent to the base station which has a global view on and can deal with collusion of compromised nodes. This is also the case with aggregate and estimate nodes that have a defect in their measurements. For the WSN nodes that do not act as aggregators, the estimation-based framework adds no overhead, because no additional software is run on the sensor nodes to manage votes or trust values like in high integrity sensor nodes. For the base station and aggregators, the most computationally expensive operation of our approach is the calculation of the estimation models. When this operation is done one-off, powerful devices may be used offline, but when this is not possible, for instance because there is not enough historical data, the models need to be estimated in real time. In this case using external devices may be infeasible, and an efficient calculation is required to estimate the models with the sensor nodes.

IV. Results Discussion

Our current approach has shown to detect malicious interference also with sophisticated attacks, based on injection of credible measurements. Based on our characterization algorithm, we are able to detect correctly the set of compromised sensors when the number of genuine sensors is low compared to the expected correlation.

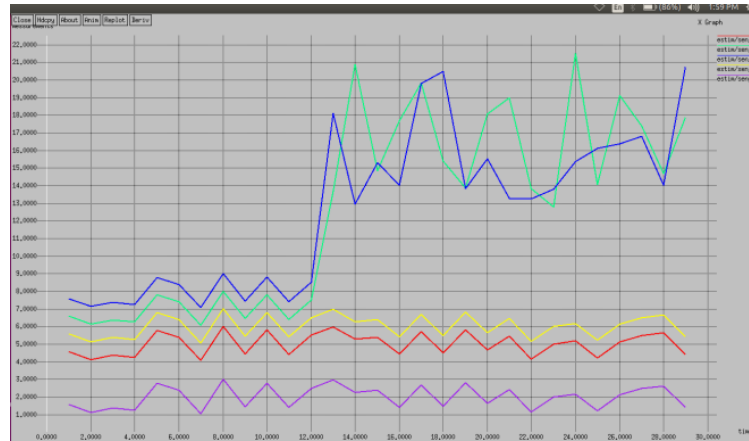


Fig.2. Estimation Graph

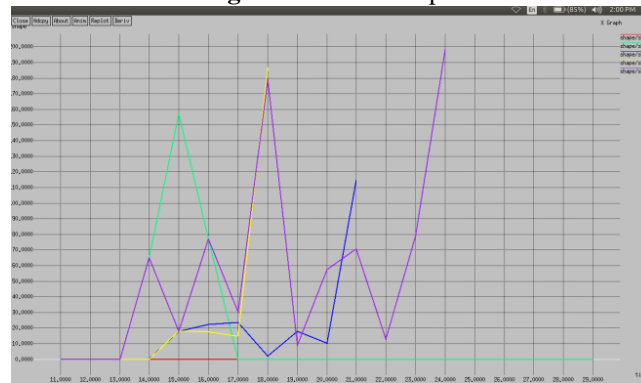


Fig.3. Shape Graph

The number of compromised sensors that can be tolerated is correlation-dependent. In one of our experiments attacks could be detected whenever fewer than 88% sensors were compromised. Voting-based frameworks instead, cannot tolerate more than 50% compromised sensors and, when our algorithm tolerated less than 50% compromised sensors, majority voting tolerated a substantially lower percentage. The reason behind this result is that the correlation between the sensors used in the experiments is not high enough to guarantee correct votes from all the genuine sensors and votes become inaccurate.

We simulate the attacks by injecting measurements describing normal circumstances but that subvert the event detection result, i.e., elicit a non-existent event, or mask a real event. In some cases, the attacker may need to inject measurements substantially different from the observed ones, but this will not be easily noticeable because the data describes wrong but still normal circumstances.

VII. Conclusion And Future Work

In this paper we have focused on detecting malicious data injections in event detection WSNs, in particular when collusion between compromised sensors occurs. We have proposed an algorithm that can be customized and used in different applications, and for different kinds of events.

Addressing this challenge has exposed several trade-offs in the design of the algorithm. Firstly, resistance to collusion requires to compare measurements over a broader set of sensors and thus introduces additional complexity and computational cost. This trade-off is particularly visible in the selection of neighborhoods, which becomes a simple ranking-based choice when using our pairwise estimation models. Another trade-off arises when merging information with potentially malicious sources. While information coming from genuine sensors increases the estimates accuracy, it is important to select only information that appears reliable. Colluding sensors should not be allowed to compensate for each other in the detection metric whilst still injecting malicious data. This requires the use of pairwise comparisons and an aggregation operator that is accurate in the presence of genuine measurements as well as resistant to malicious data.

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