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Spectrum Sensing and Security Challenges and Solutions: Contemporary Affirmation of the Recent Literature Shribala Nagul¹, Dr. Srihari² and Dr. B C Jinaga³ ¹ Bhoj Reddy Engineering College for Women Received: 10 December 2013 Accepted: 31 December 2013 Published: 15 January 2014

7 Abstract

Cognitive radio (CR) has been recently proposed as a promising technology to improve 8 spectrum utilization by enabling secondary access to unused licensed bands. A prerequisite to 9 this secondary access is having no interference to the primary system. This requirement makes 10 spectrum sensing a key function in cognitive radio systems. Among common spectrum sensing 11 techniques, energy detection is an engaging method due to its simplicity and efficiency. 12 However, the major disadvantage of energy detection is the hidden node problem, in which the 13 sensing node cannot distinguish between an idle and a deeply faded or shadowed band. 14 Cooperative spectrum sensing (CSS) which uses a distributed detection model has been 15 considered to overcome that problem. On other dimension of this cooperative spectrum 16 sensing, this is vulnerable to sensing data falsification attacks due to the distributed nature of 17 cooperative spectrum sensing. As the goal of a sensing data falsification attack is to cause an 18 incorrect decision on the presence/absence of a PU signal, malicious or compromised SUs may 19 intentionally distort the measured RSSs and share them with other SUs. Then, the effect of 20 erroneous sensing results propagates to the entire CRN. This type of attacks can be easily 21 launched since the openness of programmable software defined radio (SDR) devices makes it 22 easy for (malicious or compromised) SUs to access low layer protocol stacks, such as PHY and 23 MAC. However, detecting such attacks is challenging due to the lack of coordination between 24 PUs and SUs, and unpredictability in wireless channel signal propagation, thus calling for 25 efficient mechanisms to protect CRNs. Here in this paper we attempt to perform 26 contemporary affirmation of the recent literature of benchmarking strategies that enable the 27 trusted and secure cooperative spectrum sensing among Cognitive Radios. 28

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Index terms— cognitive radio network, secure spectrum sensing, mobility and trust, cognitive radio,
 symmetric cryptographic key generation, LT code.

32 1 Introduction

ireless technology is increasing swiftly, and the view of pervading wireless computing and communications offers 33 34 the potential of many interpersonal and solitary pros. While individual gadgets in particular mobile phones, smart phones and notebook computers be given a lot of consideration, the effect of wireless engineering is much 35 more comprehensive, e.g., implies sensor networks for protection applications and home automation, smart grid 36 control, body sensor devices and embedded wireless devices, and entertainment systems. This increase of wireless 37 solutions brings about an everincreasing demand for more radio spectrum. Conversely, most quickly accessible 38 spectrum bands being given, despite the fact that various investigations have actually indicated that these bands 39 are substantially underneath in utilization. These factors to consider have encouraged the radio technologies 40

that can level to reach foreseeable future requirements equally in terms of spectrum effectiveness and application
 functionality.

Cognitive radios come with the promise of being a troublesome engineering advancement that will make it 43 possible for the future telecommunication world. Cognitive radios are thoroughly automated cordless devices 44 that can perceive their settings and dynamically adjust their transmitting waveform, channel access method, 45 spectrum use, and networking protocols as needed for good networking and device performance. We foresee that 46 cognitive radio engineering will eventually come up from initial phase research studies and to become a general-47 purpose automated radio that will suffice as a widespread platform for wireless system advancement, far similar 48 to microprocessors, which have served a similar role for computation. There is conversely a big gap among having 49 an adaptable cognitive radio, reliable building block, and the extensive deployment of cognitive radio networks 50 that dynamically maximize spectrum usage. 51

52 **2** II.

⁵³ 3 Contemporary Affirmation of the

Literature of Secure Spectrum Sensing in [2], study impact of mobility on collaborative spectrum sensing. The 54 authors show that because of mobility, the secondary user sensing results get uncorrelated faster thus giving 55 56 better performance compared to spectrum sensing performed by static secondary users but does not consider the presence of malicious users. To identify the malicious users in the CRN, the evaluation of trust for each secondary 57 user under collaborative spectrum sensing has been addressed using different techniques in the literature. In the 58 solution proposed by authors in [5], secondary users in close proximity are grouped into clusters and the system 59 detects abnormal reports using shadow-fading correlation filters. The authors in [4] evaluate the secondary users 60 trust, comparing deviation suffered by each secondary user's sensing measurement from the average measurement 61 reported at the fusion center. The Bayesian rule is applied in [6] to compute the a posteriori probability of being 62 63 an attacker for each secondary user. When the posteriori probability of a certain secondary user exceeds the 64 suspicious level threshold, it is claimed to be an attacker and is removed from the collaboration. For multiple attackers, the large number of combinations of attackers and honest users is removed by using an onion-peeling 65 66 based approximation to reduce computational complexity. Abnormality detection algorithm based on proximity, which is widely used in the field of data mining has been introduced in [3], to solve the problem of malicious 67 users in the system using history reports of each secondary user. The proposed architecture in [7], needs to 68 collect spectrum sensing data from multiple sources or equipment on consumer premises. This process is known 69 70 as crowd sourcing. The authors consider the area of interest is divided in cells and the credibility of these devices are kept in check by corroboration and merging among neighboring cells. The corroboration in a hierarchical 71 72 structure is used to identify cells with significant number of malicious nodes. To the best of our knowledge, none 73 of the existing work studied malicious and primary user detection for mobile CRNs. Our proposed solutions are 74 different from all the existing solutions that we separate the location reliability from the user trust, thus achieve better performance on malicious user detection. 75 The rapid growth in wireless communications has contributed to a huge demand on the deployment of new 76 wireless services in both the licensed and unlicensed frequency spectrum. However, recent studies show that the 77 fixed spectrum assignment policy enforced today results in poor spectrum utilization. To address this problem, 78 cognitive radio (CR) [8,9] has emerged as a promising technology to enable the access of the intermittent periods 79 of unoccupied frequency bands, called white space or spectrum holes, and thereby increase the spectral efficiency. 80 The fundamental task of each CR user in CR networks, in the most primitive sense, is to detect the licensed 81 82 users, also known as primary users (PUs), if they are present and identify the available spectrum if they are 83 absent. This is usually achieved by sensing the RF environment, a process called spectrum sensing [8][9][10][11]. The objectives of spectrum sensing are twofold: first, CR users should not cause harmful interference to PUs by 84 either switching to an available band or limiting its interference with PUs at an acceptable level and, second, 85 CR users should efficiently identify and exploit the spectrum holes for required throughput and quality f service 86 (QoS). Thus, the detection performance in spectrum sensing is crucial to the performance of both primary and 87

CR networks. The detection performance can be primarily determined on the basis of two metrics: probability of false alarm, which denotes the probability of a CR user declaring that a PU is present when the spectrum is actually free, and probability of detection, which denotes the probability of a CR user declaring that a PU is present when the spectrum is indeed occupied by the PU.

The idea of using Beta Reputation System as reputation evaluation system has been proposed in ??12] in 92 93 which a node's confidence in its spectrum sensing report is used as a weight during calculation of spectrum 94 decisions. This work assumes that the PU's transmission range is large enough to be received by all nodes in the 95 CRN including the SU base station (SUBS), the controlling entity of the CRN. It also assumes that the PU can 96 communicate with SUBS, wherein a PU may complain to the SUBS regarding any interference caused by CRN operation. Since this work assumes that the PU cannot sell its unused spectrum bands, therefore there is no 97 incentive for it to communicate with the CRN. This communication may cost a PU, additional hardware and/or 98 system complexity, just to inform the CRN regarding interference caused to its communications. Furthermore, 99 need for any changes to the incumbent PU. This work also does not deal with any mobility by SUs or PUs. 100

101 A collaborative spectrum sensing scheme is presented in [13] which introduces Location Reliability and

Malicious intent as trust parameters. The authors employ the Dempster-Shafer theory of evidence to evaluate 102 trustworthiness of reporting secondary user nodes. The proposed scheme assigns trust values to different cells in 103 the network which may receive abnormal levels of PU's signal due to the effects of multi-path, signal fading and 104 other factors in the radio environment. Equal emphasis is given to the spectrum sensing reports from SUs using 105 Equal Gain Combining while using trust values of the cells from where these reports were received as weights for 106 data aggregation. This approach also assumes that the PU's communication range is large enough to be received 107 by the entire CRN and uses the spectrum sensing reports of all CRN nodes to reach the final spectrum decision. 108 Authors in [4] and [14] assume that the transmission range of PU is large enough to be received in the entire 109 CRN. [4] Proposes pre-filtering to remove extreme spectrum sensing reports and a simple average combining 110 scheme to calculate spectrum sensing decisions while considering all reports that pass the prefiltering phase. 111 [14]Characterizes the spectrum sensing problem as an M-ary hypotheses testing problem and considers a cluster-112 based CRN where cluster heads receive and process raw spectrum sensing data before forwarding to the fusion 113 center. Since PU's transmission range is assumed to be large enough to be received by every node in the network, 114 both approaches cannot be adopted for a CRN in which a PU has smaller transmission range than the size of 115 CRN. 116

Muhammad Faisal Amjadet al [81] proposed a novel reputation aware collaborative spectrum sensing framework based on spatio-spectral anomaly detection. Their proposed system is well suited for situations where the PU's communication range is limited within a subregion of the CRN. Simulations of their system shown that it is robust against SSDF attacks and can detect malicious behavior up to 99.3 percent of the time when malicious node density is within a reasonable range and is still very effective when the number malicious nodes is even greater. Their proposed system is also flexible enough to be used where PU's communication range spans the entire CRN.

¹²⁴ 4 b) Secure Cooperative Spectrum Sensing in Cognitive

Radio Networks CR related research has received great attention recently. Because its dynamic spectrum access 125 is fundamentally different from conventional wireless systems, there is a need to design different components in 126 the protocol stack. The physical layer requires most fundamental change. A major research problem is how to 127 correctly detect the existence of primary users and spectrum opportunities. In [15], Challapaliet. al proposes to 128 use Hough Transform and autocorrelation function to detect spectrum opportunities. A more direct approach 129 was presented in [16] to observe primary user's signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and entropy for seeking spectrum 130 opportunities. A spectrum opportunity is recognized only when a spectrum has both low SNR and low entropy. 131 According to [15], these schemes belong to collocated sensing architectures, since a single secondary user device 132 carries on the spectrum sensing task and makes an independent decision to access a spectrum. However, due to 133 the hidden-terminal problem, such a scheme may show poor performance in terms of miss detection and false 134 alarm probabilities. To address this problem, techniques for cooperative spectrum sensing was investigated. In the 135 authors utilize the fact that noise is independent at different users while signals are correlated, so adding up the 136 received signals at two secondary users can increase SNR and improve detection accuracy. A similar approach is 137 used in to increase detection sensitivity. The authors of [20,22] employ sensors for distributed spectrum sensing. 138 In [20], some sensors are placed close to primary receivers to detect their local oscillator leakage power, and 139 then these sensors relay the detection information to secondary users. In [15], an independent sensor network 140 is proposed to be deployed specially for spectrum sensing. All secondary users query the sensor network to 141 learn the information about spectrum opportunities. In the link layer, CR related research mainly investigates 142 new media access control (MAC) protocols to adapt to the dynamic change of spectrum opportunities. These 143 protocols are more or less derived from conventional wireless MAC protocols. For example, DC-MAC [21] is 144 a slotted MAC protocol similar to ALOHA but with an enhanced mechanism to optimize per-slot throughput; 145 DOSS protocol was derived from MAC protocols based on busy tone; and CR MAC protocol [17] generalizes 146 802.11 into supporting multiple channels. There is less research on the network layer or layers above since the 147 lower layers are still not welldefined for CR networks. However, there has been research that takes cross-layer 148 approaches to optimize network or above layer objectives by defining MAC or physical layer behaviors [19,21]. 149 Although security is an important aspect of spectrum sensing, to the best of our knowledge, there is virtually 150 no previous work that addresses this issue. In the authors discuss the impact of malicious users on the required 151 sensing sensitivity of individual terminals when cooperative spectrum sensing is performed. However, methods 152 to ensure the robustness of spectrum sensing were not discussed. 153

There has been a growing interest in attackresilient collaborative spectrum sensing in CRNs. Liu et al. [22] exploited the problem of detecting unauthorized

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Volume XIV Issue V Version I usage of a primary licensed spectrum. In this work, the path-loss effect is studied to detect anomalous spectrum usage, and a machine-learning technique is proposed to solve the general case. Chen et al. [23] focused on a passive approach with robust signal processing, and investigated robustness of various data-fusion techniques against sensing-targeted attacks. Kaligineedi et al. [4] presented outlier detection schemes to identify abnormal sensing reports. Min et al. [24]proposed a mechanisms for detecting and filtering

out abnormal sensing reports by exploiting shadowfading correlation in received primary signal strengths among 162 nearby SUs. Fatemiehetal. [7]used outlier measurements inside each SU cell and collaboration among neighboring 163 cells to identify cells with a significant number of malicious nodes. Li et al. in [24]detected possible abnormalities 164 according to SU sensing report histories. Our work is different from existing approaches in three aspects. First, 165 we consider cooperation among attackers, so the attacks are much more challenging to prevent. Second, unlike 166 the previous work which focused on sensing data falsification attacks, we also consider the case where the 167 attackers violate the fusion center's decision regarding spectrum access. Finally, our proposed attack-prevention 168 mechanisms can easily prevent attacks without differentiating attackers from honest SUs. 169

The problem of ensuring robustness in distributed sensing has been studied in [23], [4], and [27]. Chen et al. [23] 170 proposed a robust data-fusion scheme that dynamically adjusts the reputation of sensors based on the majority 171 rule. Similarly, in the IEEE 802.22 standard draft, a voting rule [27] has been proposed for secure decision fusion. 172 Kaligineedi et al. [4] presented a profiteering scheme based on a simple outlier method that filters out extremely 173 low or high sensor reports. However, their method may not suitable for avery low SNR environment such as 174 802.22 WRANs wherea final data-fusion decision is very sensitive to small deviations in RSSs. The defense against 175 Primary User Emulation Attack (PUEA) has also been studied in [25] and [26]. Chen et al. [25] proposed an 176 RSS-based location verification scheme to detect a fake primary transmitter. This scheme, however, requires the 177 178 deployment of a dense sensor network for estimating the location of a signal source, and thus, incurs high system 179 overhead. Anand et al. [26] analyzed the feasibility of PUEA and presented a lower-bound on the probability 180 of a successful PUEA. However, they did not address the impact of PUEA on the performance of cooperative sensing. The problem of enforcing/enticing secondary users to observe spectrum etiquette has also been studied. 181 Woyachet al. [28] studied how to entice secondary users to observe spectrum etiquette by giving them incentives. 182 In a similar context, Liu et al. [22] studied the problem of detecting unauthorized use of a licensed spectrum. 183 They exploited the path-loss effect as a main criterion for detecting anomalous spectrum usage and presented 184 a machine-learning approach for more general cases. In contrast, we focus on intelligent filtering of suspicious 185 sensor reports. In a broader context, our paper is related to work on secure data aggregation [29], [30], [31] and 186 insider attack detection [32] in wireless sensor networks. However, the problem we consider differs in that it 187 focuses on an important, realistic case where attackers manipulate sensor reports to mislead the fusion center in 188 making a final decision on detection of a primary signal. 189

In order to entice SUs to follow the protocol, i.e., reporting the sensing results honestly, researchers used game-theoretic approaches to analyze SUs' behavior. Duan et al. [34] proposed attack prevention mechanisms with direct and indirect punishments. Assuming that SUs care for their rewards, their scheme prevents SUs from reporting falsified sensing data by setting appropriate reward and punishment functions. Woyach et al. [28] developed a model for the incentives associated with attacks and for the tradeoffs between the different elements of an enforcement structure.

To detect discrepancies among sensing data and ensure robust decisions in cooperative spectrum sensing, 196 researchers have studied robust data-fusion in CRNs. Kaligineedi et al. [4] introduced a trust factor which gives 197 a measure of reliability of each SU. By applying an outlier detection method, their data-fusion scheme assigns 198 a lower trust factor to a SU whose sensing report is extremely high or low, reducing its effect on the sensing 199 decision. Chen et al. [23] presented a weighted sequential probability ratio test which introduces a reputation-200 based mechanism to the sequential probability ratio test (SPRT). By increasing the reputation of a SU whose 201 sensing report is consistent with the majority at each step, their scheme dynamically adjusts the weight of each 202 SU so that a SU with higher reputation can have more influence on the sensing decision. Min et al. [33] proposed 203 a correlation filter for the detection of abnormal sensing reports by exploiting the shadow fading correlation in 204 RSSs. 205

Assuming that RSSs at nearby SUs are correlated, they proposed a clustering method and data-fusion rules based on the correlation analysis of sensing reports.

These defense schemes, however, have their own limitations in that their assumptions may not hold. Gametheoretic attack prevention assumes that SUs try to maximize their utilities by following the protocol. However, considering that attackers outside of a network can compromise inside of the network. These schemes may not work well if these attackers do not care about compromised SUs' utilities. Robust datafusion schemes compare sensing data among SUs assuming that the numbers of honest SUs are much larger than that of malicious/compromised SUs which mount sensing data falsification attacks. Obviously,

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Year 2014 robust fusion schemes may not be suitable for detecting attacks when the number of honest SUs becomes small. Noting that this number can easily be reversed in a network of a small number of SUs, CRNs are required to be capable of detecting attacks even when the number of honest SUs is small.

Cooperative spectrum sensing has received considerable attention as a viable means to enhance the detection performance by exploiting spatial diversity in received signal strengths. However, this is vulnerable to sensing data falsification attacks due to the distributed nature of cooperative spectrum sensing. To overcome this problem, we introduce a primary user emulation test (PUET), under which a trustful central entity (e.g., a cellular base station) transmits a test signal while other users are sensing the spectrum. The core of PUET is to correlate the reported sensing data with the transmission power of the test signal. Since this test signal is, in reality, interference to the sensing of a primary signal, sensors cannot distinguish the test signal from the primary signal. Considering this characteristic of sensors, PUET detects attacks by evaluating the consistency of channel parameters, which are not known to sensors. By recognizing this defense mechanism, PUET checks the validity of reports from each sensor separately. The efficacy of PUET is validated via experimentation on a test bed deployed in an indoor environment. Our measurement study shows that PUET achieves over 95% detection rate while keeping the false alarm rate under 5%.

Seunghyun Choi et al [82] proposed the design of reliable distributed sensing for opportunistic spectrum use 231 is a major research challenge in DSA networks. To meet this challenge, they proposed PUET that detects the 232 falsification of sensing results. The key idea behind PUET is that CPEs can acquire only RSSs, not the information 233 of the signal source. To realize this idea, the BS transmits a test signal when CPEs sense the channel. Since 234 CPEs cannot distinguish a test signal from a PU signal, the BS can detect sensing data falsification attacks by 235 checking if the reported sensing data reflects the test signals it transmitted. In order to check the validity of 236 sensing reports, the BS tests three consecutive sensing reports in a testing window. By checking the consistency 237 of estimation of the received primary signal strength, the BS determines if there exist nonzero attack strengths 238 in the sensing reports. They have evaluated the performance of attack detection with an indoor USRP2-based 239 240 test bed. By conducting experiments on the test bed, we have confirmed that PUET detects attacks with both 241 random and ON/OFF attack strengths. They have also found that PUET correctly detects PU signals even 242 when more than a half of reports are faulty.

noise channel was first addressed by Urkowitz [37]. In his proposal, the receiver consisted of an energy detector 243 which measures the energy in the received waveform over an observation time window. This energy-detection 244 problem has been revisited recently by Kostylev in ??36] for signals operating over a variety of fading channels. 245 Our contribution in this letter is twofold. First, we present an alternative analytical approach to the one presented 246 in[36] and obtain closed-form expressions for the probability of detection over Rayleigh and Nakagami fading 247 channels. Second, and more importantly, we quantify the improvement in detection capability (specially for 248 relatively low-power applications) when low-complexity diversity schemes such as square-law combining (SLC) 249 and square-law selection (SLS) are implemented. While diversity analysis is carried out for independent Rayleigh 250 channels for the SLS scheme, both independent and correlated cases are considered for the SL Cone. For more 251 details, the reader is referred to [35]. 252

253 The underutilization of the radio spectrum as revealed by extensive measurements of actual spectrum usage [38] has stimulated exciting activities in the engineering, economics, and regulation communities in searching for 254 better spectrum management policies. The diversity of the envisioned spectrum reform ideas is manifested in the 255 number of technical terms coined so far: dynamic spectrum access's. Dynamic spectrum allocation, spectrum 256 property rights vs. spectrum commons, opportunistic spectrum access vs. spectrum pooling, spectrum underlay 257 vs. spectrum overlay. Often, the broad term "cognitive radio" is used as a synonym for dynamic spectrum access. 258 As an initial attempt at unifying the terminology and documenting recent developments, we provide a taxonomy 259 of dynamic spectrum access and an overview of the technical challenges and advances in this emerging research 260 261 area.

Radio spectrum is a valuable commodity, and a unique natural resource shared by various types of wireless 262 services. Unlike other natural resources, it can be repeatedly re-used, provided certain technical conditions are 263 met. In practice radio spectrum can accommodate a limited number of simultaneous users. Therefore, radio 264 spectrum requires careful planning and management to maximise its value for all users. Currently, spectrum 265 regulatory framework is based on static spectrum allocation and assignment policy. Radio spectrum is globally 266 allocated to the radio services on the primary or secondary basis. This is reflected in the Radio Regulations 267 published by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) ??39], which contains definitions of these services 268 and a table defining their allocations for each of three ITU geographic world The PROBLEM of detecting an 269 unknown deterministic signal over a flat band limited Gaussian regions. On the European level, radio spectrum is 270 governed in the European Union by the Radio Spectrum Policy Group (RSPG) and Radio Spectrum Committee 271 (RSC) and by European Conference of Postal and Telecommunications Administrations (CEPT). Additionally, 272 national regulatory agencies define national allocation table and assign radio spectrum to licence holders on a 273 long term for large geographical regions on exclusive basis. Generally, user can use radio spectrum only after 274 obtaining individual license issued by national regulatory agency. In technical point of view, this approach helps 275 in system design since it is easier to make a system that operates in a dedicated band than a system that can 276 use many different bands over a large frequency range. In addition, spectrum licensing offers an effective way to 277 guarantee adequate quality of service and to prevent interference, but it unfortunately leads to highly inefficient 278 use of radio spectrum resource. Analyzing Article 5 of Radio Regulations [39], and national allocation tables it 279 can be concluded that usage of radio spectrum bands is already determined. Furthermore, in national spectrum 280 assignment databases almost all frequency bands of commercial or public interest are already licensed. Current 281 predictions of further growth of demand for wireless communication services show substantial increase in demand 282 of radio spectrum. All of this circumstances support raising serious concerns about future radio spectrum 283 shortages. Nevertheless, related radio spectrum observation surveys have proved that most of the allocated 284 spectrum is underutilized [40][41] ??42][43][44][45][46]. FCC's measurements in Atlanta, New Orleans, and San 285 Diego in 2002 revealed that there are large variations in the intensity of spectrum use below 1 GHz [40,41]. 286

By observing two non-adjacent 7 MHz spectrum bands with a sliding 30 second window, the measurements 287 showed that a fraction of 55-95 % of the observed frequencies were idle during the observation period on one 288 band while on the other band the frequencies were almost fully idle. Shared Spectrum Company conducted 289 spectrum occupancy measurements on the bands between 30 MHz and 3 GHz at six locations in the USA ??42]. 290 The average occupancy over the locations was found to be only 5.2 % with the maximum occupancy 13.1 %291 in New York City and minimum occupancy 1 % in a rural area. Similar spectrum measurements conducted in 292 Europe [43][44][45][46] (Germany, Spain, Netherlands, Ireland, France, Czech Republic) shows higher spectrum 293 occupancy comparing to USA, but still rather low (e.g. 32% for the band 20-3000 MHz in Aachen area, Germany). 294 Generally it can be concluded that spectrum occupancy is moderate below 1 GHz and very low above 1 GHz. 295

Radio spectrum is as carcere source. The regulatory body Federal Communication Commission (FCC) is 296 responsible for radio spectrum resources and regulation of radio emissions. The FCC assigns spectrum to licensed 297 holders, primary users(PU) on a long term basis for large geographic alregio However, FCC found that most radio 298 frequency spectrum was underutilized or in efficiently utilized. Therefore, now they have proposed then otion 299 of secondary utilization where the users who have no spectrum licenses, these condary users (SU) are allowed 300 touse temporarily unused licensed spectrum. Cognitive radio technology has brought are volutionary change in 301 communication par adig man disreceiving growing attention in recent ears [47]. This technology can provide 302 303 faster and more reliable wireless services by utilizing the existing spectrum band more efficiently and without 304 interference to primary users. The cognitive radio network users need to be aware of dynamic environment and 305 adaptively adjust their transmission or reception parameters based on interactions with the environment and other users in the network to execute its task efficiently without interfering with licensed users or other cognitive 306 radios. Since, cognitive radio is a secondary user; it has to vacate the band immediately as soon as there is arrival 307 of primary user. Therefore, it is indeed very important for cognitive radio that transmissions hould be achieved 308 with less bandwidth requirement and that correct data decoding should be possible at receiver side without the 309 need of ACK (acknowledge) signal and Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ). To overcome this problem, a new 310 class of erasure correcting codes known as fountain codes (also known as rate less erasure codes) is introduced 311 and is under consideration to be used for transmission over cognitive radio network. The fountain code acts 312 as a channel code to combat the effects of loss against PU interference and other channel conditions and helps 313 receiver to decode complete data accurately. The fountain code produce limit less number of encoded symbols 314 from given set of source symbols such that original source symbols can be recovered from any subset of encoded 315 symbols of size equal toors lightly larger than number of source symbols. There are two classes off ounta in 316 codes: Lu by Trans form(LT) codes and Raptor codes. Although Raptor codes are the most efficient codes, a 317 new class of fountain codes, Raptor Q code sh as been introduced recently which seems to be more promising 318 than its previous version Raptor code with increase do ding efficiency and improved reception over head and with 319 performance almost like ideal performance of fountain code. 320

With explosive increase in demand for additional frequency spectrum, cognitive radios (CRs) were offered to support existing and new services. CR scenarios were proposed to improve spectrum efficiency and to solve the normally occurring spectrum scarcity. CR is also highly agile wireless platform, so it is capable of autonomously choosing operating parameters based on both frequency spectrum and network conditions. CRs promise an enhanced utilization of the limited spectral resources. In CR scenarios, secondary users (SUs) and primary users (PUs) coexist simultaneously [47], [48][49][50][51].

The detection of PUs can be accomplished by opportunistic spectrum sharing [50,52]. In opportunistic 327 spectrum sharing, the PU usage is automatically monitored by SUs based on CR scenario. In the CR scenarios, 328 no changes have to be made to legacy systems as the PU is unaware of the secondary usage of its spectrum. Since 329 the arrival of a PU acts like an erasure on the SU link, it causes the SU to lose all the packets that are being 330 transmitted over the channel which was under that particular PU's carrier. In order to overcome this problem 331 caused by PU arrival on the SU link, some techniques have been proposed in [53]. In fact, any method to employ 332 some sort of feedback procedures is not practical over CR network, indeed, once the channel has been captured 333 by a PU, the retransmission request has to be placed on a different channel, which may not be available or 334 reliable. So in order to avoid the need for a feedback channel, erasurecorrecting codes are suggested [54]. Hence, 335 the packets that are lost due to PU interference are now considered as erasures. The erasure-correcting codes 336 used in our model are digital Fountain codes. 337

The concept of digital Fountain codes was first introduced by Byers et al. [55,56] in 1998 for information distribution. Fountain codes are a class of erasure codes with the property that a potentially limitless sequence of encoding symbols can be generated from a given set of source symbols. The original source symbols can ideally be recovered by the decoder from any subset of the received coded symbols of size equal to or only slightly larger than the number of source symbols. The term fountain or rate less refers to the fact that these codes do not exhibit a fixed code rate. In [57] a solution to further enhance the performance of cognitive radio networks is proposed.

LT complexity of the encoding and decoding is very low [54]. Some networks, such as cognitive radio networks, do not have a feedback channel. Applications on these networks still require reliability. The SU link of cognitive radio can be modeled as a two states channel. One state is influenced by channel fading and noise but the other is like erasure channel. Thus, erasure code is a good choice for cognitive radio [58]. On the other hand, in cognitive radio network, it is normal to assume that there are no network attackers and the participants involved in the protocols are honest. But attackers always try to corrupt data anyway. As a result, a secure code is essential that can save time and cost.

As mentioned the successful deployment of CR networks and the realization of their benefits depend on the placement of essential security mechanisms in sufficiently robust form to resist misuse of the systems. Ensuring the trustworthiness of the spectrum sensing process is important in the CR networks, since spectrum sensing directly affects spectrum management and incumbent coexistence [59][60][61][62][63].

Hosseiniet al., [83] presented a secondary link channel model and then secure LT code is proposed to supply security and reliability simultaneously. In the proposed block, a code matrix is used for generation of cryptographic key. Cryptographic key is not sent over the channel; as a result, the frequency spectrum is saved. Also coder information is used to generate cryptographic key.

The importance of security in a cognitive radio network must highly be recognized. Since CR scenario 360 permits attackers to easy and unauthorized access. First of all, secondary link channel model is proposed and a 361 combinational block is proposed for a secure LT code, as well as providing security and error correction capability 362 simultaneously. In SLC, a generator matrix is used to generate a random cryptographic key. SLC supply security 363 without transmitting the key in a symmetric cryptography in a secure channel, as a result, the increase in 364 spectrum efficiency becomes apparent. This implies saving time and costs. Besides, the key does not appear on 365 366 channel, consequently, the attackers have to consider all possible key combinations. This block is useful in all 367 communication systems that have no feedback channel.

³⁶⁸ 7 d) Trusted Collaborative Spectrum Sensing

In cognitive radio networks (CRNs), spectrum sensing must meet the strict "ability to detect" requirements set by 369 the FCC to protect primary users' communications from excessive interference caused by secondary CR devices. 370 To meet these requirements, cooperative sensing [58] and sensing Permission to make digital or hard copies of 371 372 all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made 373 or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. To copy otherwise, to republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific 374 375 scheduling [64,67] have been studied as efficient means to improve the sensing performance by exploiting spatiotemporal diversity in received signal strengths (RSSs). In [67], we proposed a sensing framework that minimizes 376 the sensing-time while meeting the detection requirements by jointly optimizing sensor selection and sensing 377 scheduling. An interesting observation made there is that when sensors are stationary as in 802.22 WRANs, 378 379 the measured RSSs at each sensor are pseudo timeinvariant, depending on their geographic allocation, thus limiting the performance gain from sensing scheduling. Mobility is one of the most important factors in wireless 380 381 systems because it affects numerous network characteristics, such as network capacity, connectivity, coverage [65], 382 routing [66], etc. It is also an inherent feature to support various types of wireless services in CRNs. While the 383 802.22 Working Group considered only stationary sensors (i.e., CPEs) in the initial standard draft, recently, they adopted an amendment for the operation of portable devices. Despite its importance, however, mobility is still 384 385 largely unexplored in the context of dynamic spectrum access. Allowing sensor mobility in CRNs will introduce numerous challenges, making it necessary to revisit current system design and protocols, such as mechanisms for 386 spectrum sensing, interference management and routing. As a first step to understand the impact of mobility in 387 CRNs, we study the performance of spectrum sensing with mobile sensors via a theoretical study. In particular, 388 we show that, when sensing is scheduled multiple times, sensor mobility can yield a significant performance gain 389 by exploiting spatiotemporal diversity in received primary signal strengths. This is in sharp contrast to the case 390 391 of stationary sensors where the benefit to be gained from scheduling sensing is marginal. Our theoretical analysis 392 indicates that the contribution of sensing scheduling to the performance improvement increases as the speed of mobile sensor increases, raises an interesting question: how to establish a balance between the number of sensors 393 to use and the number of times to sense? To address this question, we derive an optimal combination of these 394 two design parameters that minimizes the overall sensing overhead. To our best knowledge, this is the first study 395 to examine the impact of sensor mobility on the performance of spectrum sensing. 396

The performance gains, achieved by collaborative spectrum sensing in CRNs are well established in literature. The centralized collaborative spectrum sensing has been included in the IEEE 802.22 standard draft **??**1]. The secondary users report sensing results to a base station (fusion center) on a periodic or on-demand basis about the presence and absence of primary user using spectrum sensing. The secondary user trust is critical for such a cooperative systems to operate reliably. Trust-based mechanisms have been widely suggested for collaborative spectrum sensing under report falsifying attacks, where dishonest attackers lie on their sensing results.

403 The calculation of the trust of secondary users has been addressed using different techniques in the literature. 404 The trust values can be calculated from the reports received from the secondary users, comparing deviation 405 suffered by each from average [4]. The secondary users are penalized according to the deviations calculated. In another paper by the same authors [8], outlier techniques are studied in detail and based on the knowledge of 406 partial primary user activity, malicious user(s) identification is done. Among other techniques, the Bayesian rule 407 can be applied to compute the a posteriori probability of being an attacker for each secondary user. When the 408 posteriori probability of a certain secondary user exceeds the suspicious level threshold, it is claimed to be an 409 attacker and is removed from the collaboration [6]. For multiple attackers, the large number of combinations of 410

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411 attackers and honest users is removed by using an onion-peeling based approximation to reduce computational 412 complexity.

Abnormality detection algorithm based on proximity, which is widely used in the field of data mining has been introduced in [3], to solve the problem of malicious users in the system using history reports of each secondary user. The proposed architecture in [7], needs to collect spectrum sensing data from multiple sources or equipment on consumer premises. This process is known as crowd sourcing. In [7], the area of interest is divided in to cells and the credibility of these devices are kept in check by corroboration among neighboring cells in a hierarchical structure to identify cells with significant number of malicious nodes.

In the solution proposed by authors in [5], focus is on a small region for enhancing the primary user detection by exploring the spatial diversity in user reports. In another paper by the same authors, [2], impact of mobility in spectrum sensing is analyzed. The authors show that because of mobility, the secondary user sensing results get uncorrelated faster thus giving better performance compared to spectrum sensing performed by static secondary users.

To the best of our knowledge, none of the existing work studied the impact of mobility on the malicious user detection and primary user detection under attack in CRNs. None of the existing trust-based collaborative spectrum sensing solutions are directly applicable for mobile scenarios, either. Our proposed solutions [13] are different from all the existing solutions that we separate the location reliability from the user trust, thus achieve better performance on malicious user detection which in turn improve the primary user detection under attacks in mobile scenarios.

Collaborative spectrum sensing is a key technology in cognitive radio networks (CRNs). Although mobility is 430 an inherent property of wireless networks, there has been no prior work studying the performance of collaborative 431 spectrum sensing under attacks in mobile CRNs. Existing solutions based on user trust for secure collaborative 432 spectrum sensing cannot be applied to mobile scenarios, since they do not consider the location diversity of the 433 network, thus over penalize honest users who are at bad locations with severe pathloss. In this paper, we propose 434 to use two trust parameters, location reliability and malicious intention (LRMI), to improve both malicious 435 user detection and primary user detection in mobile CRNs under attack. Location reliability reflects path-loss 436 characteristics of the wireless channel and malicious intention captures the true intention of secondary users, 437 respectively. We propose a primary user detection method based on location reliability (LR) and a malicious 438 user detection method based on LR and Dempster-Shafer (D-S) theory. 439

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Volume XIV Issue V Version I Year 2014 E Simulations show that mobility helps train location reliability and 441 detect malicious users based on our methods. Our proposed detection mechanisms based on LRMI significantly 442 outperforms existing solutions. In comparison to the existing solutions, we show an improvement of malicious user 443 detection rate by 3 times and primary user detection rate by 20% at false alarm rate of 5%, respectively. Shraboni 444 Jana et al [84] studied the performance of spectrum sensing under different pathloss and fading conditions and 445 came up with a solution fitting for mobile CRNs. The numerically simulated results showed that our approach 446 (LRMI) greatly improves malicious detection in mobile CRNs and hence, performance of collaborative-spectrum 447 sensing for primary user detection. Thus mobile CRNs, need to be evaluated considering both the location from 448 449 where the report was generated and who has generated the report. Mobility is also found to be an aiding factor in malicious users detection. The simulation results also show that as the average velocity of the secondary users 450 in the system increases, the ROC curves for the system improves. 451

An interesting extension of the work will be to evaluate how malicious users can exploit mobility to their advantage and avoid getting detected. The primary user is static in our current model.

⁴⁵⁴ 9 e) Spectrum Sensing Technique for Cognitive Radio Networks ⁴⁵⁵ Under Denial of Service Attack

Jamming in wireless networks has been extensively studied. Most prior research assumes that the jammer is an external entity, oblivious to the protocol specifics and cryptographic secrets [25].Recently, several works have considered the problem of jamming by an internal adversary, who exploits knowledge of network protocols and secrets to launch DoS attacks on layers above the physical layer [13], [4], [7], [68], [6]. In this section, we classify related work based on the adversarial model.

Opportunistic spectrum access in CRNs makes them an easy target for attackers that may jeopardize its operation for their individual gains or merely because of malicious intent. Therefore, security of DSA in CRNs has been the focus of attention for many research efforts lately. This section provides an overview of related work and provides an insight as to how these studies differ from the work presented in this paper.

Measures to prevent the jamming of Common Control Channel (CCC) in an ad hoc CRN are presented in [69]. It assumes that the jammers are aware of the protocol specifics as well as cryptographic quantities used to secure network operations. The authors propose two techniques to identify malicious nodes that act independently and those that collude to jam the CCC. They also propose generation and secure elude jammers. This however is primarily aimed at defending against jamming the CCC through which spectrum sensing and other control data are shared. On the other hand, our work addresses defense against jamming of spectrum sensing itself. In [1], authors consider an ad hoc CRN in which they introduce various types of jammers: jammers that jam a fixed channel, a random selection of channels and channels that are predicted to be used next in subsequent time slots. An algorithm is proposed with which senders and receivers learn the jammers' channel access pattern and can evade jamming by hopping to jamming-free channels. Our proposed DS3 algorithm does not resort to channel hopping and evades jamming while staying on the same channel.

A collaborative defense technique is presented in [2] where the SUs in a CRN defend against a collaborative 476 477 DoS attack launched by sweeping and jamming the channels in the entire spectrum. The SUs make use of spatial and temporal diversity to form proxies in order to continue communicating. This work however does not consider 478 that the jammer may seek to conserve its jamming power budget and jam only the fast sensing stage and the 479 main defense against jamming attack is for the CRN to hop to another channel. Authors in [13] present a game 480 theoretic approach to defend against jamming attacks in CRNS. They derive an optimal strategy for the SUs to 481 decide whether to remain in the current band or to hop to another band by employing a Markov Decision Process 482 approach. The authors propose a learning process through which SUs estimate current network conditions based 483 on past observations using the maximum likelihood estimation technique. This work also does not consider the 484 two-stage spectrum sensing that is employed in the current IEEE 802.22 WRAN draft standard, and the defense 485 against jamming is for CRN to hop to another channel. 486

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt to address a smart jamming attack by malicious users and to make maximum utilization of spectrum opportunities while staying in the spectrum band that is being jammed and not hopping away from it.

490 Cliff C. Zou et al [85] proposed a novel algorithm DS3, which minimizes the effects of smart jamming as well as 491 noise on the fast sensing phase of DSA and improves spectrum utilization through dynamic fine sensing decision algorithm with minimal increase in the overhead caused due to additional delay in the detection of PU's presence 492 on the spectrum. DS3 achieves up to 90% improvement in spectrum utilization under jamming attack while 493 keeping the PU detection delay to less than 50% of the maximum allowed PU detection delay. The collaborative 494 or cooperative spectrum sensing paradigm in CRN opens a way to the attackers who can falsify the sensing 495 results. The motivation of an attacker can be either selfish or malicious. Being selfish, an attacker may report 496 the presence of the primary user when there is actually none in order to deny the legitimate users' access to the 497 spectrum (Denial of Service attack). While being malicious, an attacker may report an absence of the primary 498 user when there is one, thus causing chaos and interference for primary and secondary users. Here in this paper 499 we explored the contemporary affirmation of the recent literature on secure spectrum sensing, which indicates 500 the opportunity for significant research to devise novel cooperation and collaboration strategies for CRNs, which 501 are in regard to blocking the vulnerabilities that let the falsification of the cooperation and collaboration. 502

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 $^{^1 \}ensuremath{\mathbb C}$ 2014 Global Journals Inc. (US)



Figure 1: Figure 1 :

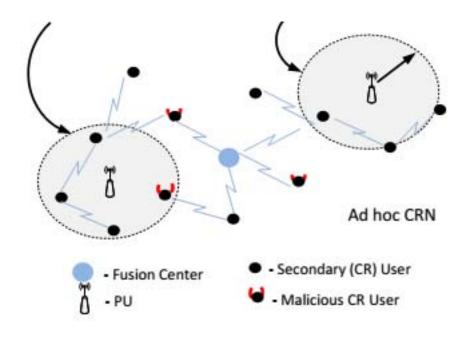


Figure 2:

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