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highlights

Hybrid Algorithm Approach

Implementing Graphical Passwords

Cognitive Radio Networks

Critical Node Test Mechanism

20 Technology
Reforming
Ideas

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ENG



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From the Chief Author's Desk

We see a drastic momentum everywhere in all fields now a day. Which in turns, say a lot to everyone to excel with all possible way. The need of the hour is to pick the right key at the right time with all extras. Citing the computer versions, any automobile models, infrastructures, etc. It is not the result of any preplanning but the implementations of planning.

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This Global Journal is like a banyan tree whose branches are many and each branch acts like a strong root itself.

Intentions are very clear to do best in all possible way with all care.

Dr. R. K. Dixit
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III. RESEARCH PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESIS

There is no direct method to run aggregate function of SQL on the encrypted data. Hypothesis of the proposed solution is to keep sensitive data column in unencrypted form in another table. This will resolve the above mentioned problem.

IV. PROPOSED METHOD AND ITS WORKING METHODOLOGY

This paper proposes a new method for directly running the aggregate function of SQL on encrypted data column. In this method two tables are used for that table which have encrypted data column. One table is the actual table and other one is just a dummy table. The dummy table will contain the encrypted data column of the actual table in the unencrypted form and hash values of that column which is used in the WHERE clause. The order of the rows will be shuffled in the dummy table in order to provide security even it is accessed by unauthorized person. There is no direct link between the actual table and this dummy table. The dummy table will be stored in secured schema. The dummy table will only be used for the aggregate function's queries.

The working methodology will be follows

When user performing query to the table having encrypted data column, so its nature will be checked. If the query having aggregate function on the encrypted data then it will be transformed to the dummy table to solve the aggregate function. The dummy table can only be accessed by those users who have clearance to the encrypted data. In this method there is no need to decrypt any value.

Table 4.1: Actual_Table

Name	Salary	Job Title	Company Name
Ikram	Encrypted	Manager	Stop-Loss 200
Umar	Encrypted	Assist manager	Atlanta Medical Services
Shahid	Encrypted	N/A admin	First Midwest Financial

TABLE 4.2 Dummy_table

XYZ (Salary column of Actual_Table)	Hash Values of company name
12000	41789000916342
10000	41789000916346
9000	14146267157396
13000	41789040916342

EXAMPLE

Reference to Table 4.1, consider the user's following query over the Actual_Table.

```
SELECT Emp_Name, SUM(Salary)
FROM Actual_Table
```

WHERE [Company Name] = 'Stop-Loss 200'

GROUP BY Emp_Name

The algorithm interprets the above query and transform as follow:

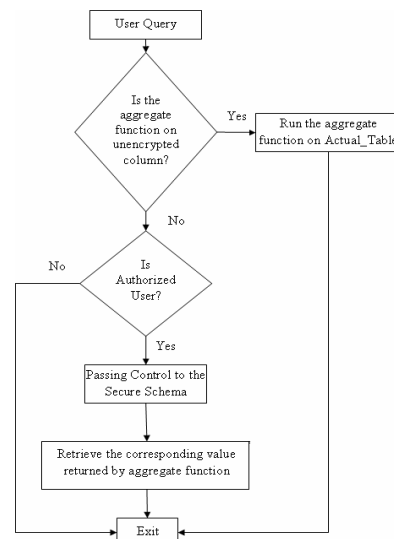
```
SELECT Emp_Name, (SELECT SUM(Salary) FROM
Dummy_table WHERE [Hash Values of company name]
=HashvalueGerateFunction(Stop-Loss 200))
```

FROM Actual_Table

GROUP BY Emp_Name

Here, in the first query if user wants to find sum of the salaries of all employees in a particular company, so he/she must decrypt that values and then retrieves the required aggregated value of sum function. In case of proposed approach the query is intercepted into the form as shown in example. In the case of second query there is no need to decrypt the values for finding the sum of salaries of employees. The inner query calculates the required aggregate function value directly from the dummy table which increases system performance.

V. FLOW CHART OF THE PROPOSED SYSTEM3



V. ALGORITHM

Following are the algorithmic steps of the proposed algorithm

1. [User Query]
User poses query
2. [Check the aggregation Column]
If (aggregation function is not on encrypted column)
Goto step 3
Else If (Authorized User)
Goto step 4
Else
Goto step 5
3. [Perform aggregate function on Data]
Run the aggregate function on Actual_Table
Goto step 5
4. [Passing Control to the Secure Schema]
[Run aggregate function on column in secure schema]
Retrieve the corresponding value returned by aggregate function
5. Exit

VI. SECURITY IN THE PROPOSED SYSTEM

Sensitive data column in database can be categorized in to the following two types:

- i. Independent data column
- ii. Dependent data column

A. Independent data column

The data column which can be used independently for some information leakiness for example the prepaid cards number of a telecom company. If the prepaid card number is stolen by someone so he/she will simply use it without any extra information.

B. Dependent data column

The dependent data columns are those whose information can not be used independently. Its data can be informative when the data of some other column is combined with it. For example salary in the employee table of an organizational database. Salary information is sensitive when the employee record is available and if the employee record does not exist then the salary information is meaningless. Similarly passwords column which needs user

name to get information from it. An organization has a lot of data in which some is very sensitive and important for that organization. All of the data in organization may not be as much sensitive but some may be sensitive. Similarly in a table all the columns may not be important for the organization security point of view. In proposed technique security is proposed at column level as all the columns may not be sensitive. Sensitive column is encrypted in the actual table and a copy of the same column is stored in another dummy table which only used for the aggregate type queries on the encrypted column. First security layer is that the dummy table is stored in a secure schema. Only those users will have access to secure schema that have clearness to the encrypted data. The proposed system is very secure in the case of Dependent data columns as there is no direct relationship between the actual table and dummy table. If the secure schema layer is broken by hacker still no information can be extracted from data in the case of dependent data.

VII. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Proposed algorithm has been tested on TPC (Transaction Processing Performance Council) [14] schema and data. A table of TPC-E schema named Cash_transaction is used for testing purposes. It has total 133152 records. Different amount of data has been retrieved for different queries having aggregate function.

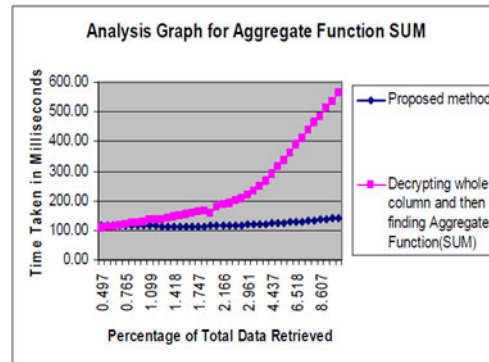


Figure 7.1: analysis graph of SUM aggregate function
The figure 7.1 shows the analysis graph of SUM aggregate function. It is shown in graph that if the queried rows are less than the 0.7 % of total rows, retrieved from table then the state of art technique is better than ours, but greater than 0.7 % gives efficient results in the proposed technique.

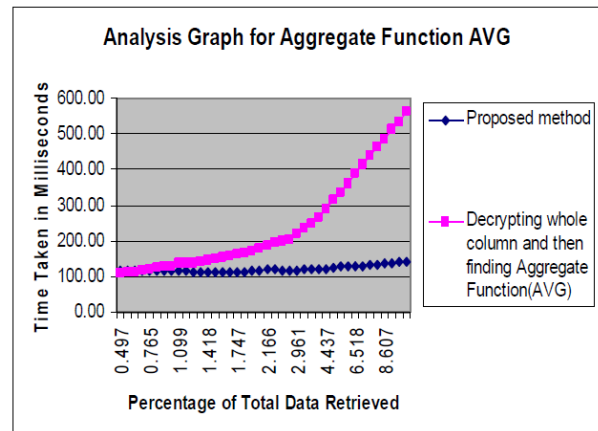


Figure 7.2: Analysis graph of average (AVG) aggregate function

The graph (Figure 7.2) is the experimental results of aggregate function AVG (average). Here, again the results of the state of art technique is better in the case of less data retrieval upto 0.7 % of total rows but expensive performance wise when selected rows in the SELECT query is more than the 0.7 % of total rows of table.

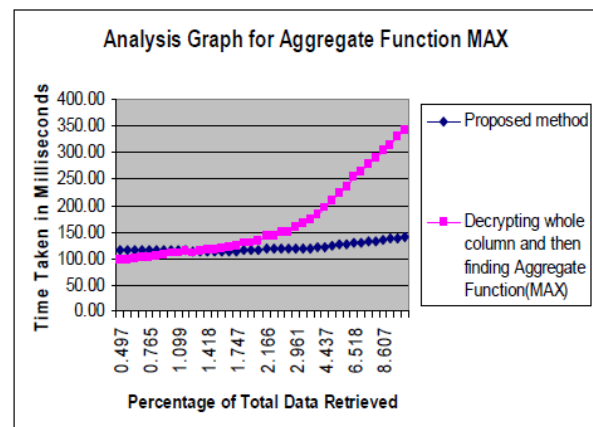


Figure 7.3: Analysis graph of MAX (maximum) aggregate

Function

The graph (figure 7.3) is the experimental results of the aggregate function MAX's query. It is obvious from the graph that the proposed system is better when we find the maximum value in more than the 1.5% of total rows in table.

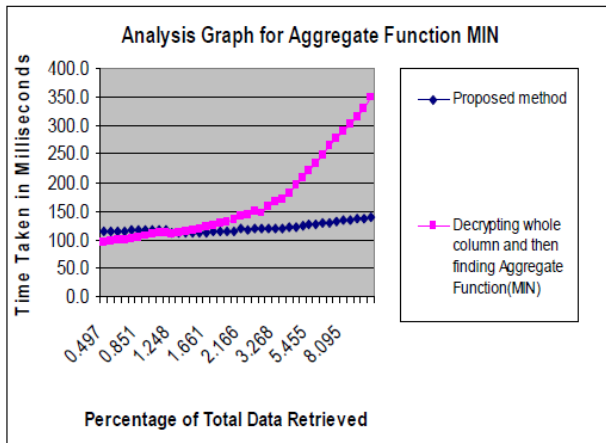


Figure 7.4: Analysis graph of MIN (minimum) aggregate Function

Figure 7.4 shows the graph of experimental results of aggregate function MIN (minimum) performance for proposed and state of arts technique. Again like the MAX, the MIN aggregate function is also better in the case of rows affected by query is more than 1.5 % of total rows in the table.

If we look to all the four graphs so the results is better in the case of proposed technique over the state of art technique. We used that state of art technique in which the total effected rows are decrypted and then the aggregate function is run on it. All the results for the proposed technique are better when the total effected rows of a table are more than 1% of total rows in that table. In the typical environment the aggregate function is run on the data in which at least more than 1% rows are selected. For example in a company there are ten different groups of worker and manager of the company is interested to find the minimum, maximum, average, or sum of salaries of all workers in a particular group then the probability of rows to be affected, in the table of workers, is 10% of total rows. It means that in the typical environment the rows affection is more than 1% of the total.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This work proposes an efficient technique for handling aggregate function's query over encrypted data. All tests conducted on the TPC schema and data. Results of the experiments are satisfactory. The proposed technique is efficient when the rows affection in the SELECT query having an aggregate function is more than 1% of the total rows.

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Employing Artificial Intelligence to eCommerce Web service

GJCST Classification
I.2.1, H.3.5

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Abstract—In recent years, web services have played a major role in computer applications. Web services are essential, as the design model of applications are dedicated to electronic businesses. This model aims to become one of the major formalisms for the design of distributed and cooperative applications in an open environment (the Internet). A main objective of this paper is application of techniques from the field of artificial intelligence (AI) to the field of web services (WS). Current commercial and research-based efforts are reviewed and positioned within these two fields. Particular attention is given to the application of AI techniques to the important issue of WS composition. Within the range of AI technologies considered, we focus on the work of the Semantic Web and Agent-based communities to provide web services with semantic descriptions and intelligent behavior and reasoning capabilities. Re-composition of web services is also considered and a number of adaptive agent approaches are introduced and implemented in publication domain and one of the areas of work is eCommerce.

Keywords—Web Services, Semantic Web, eCommerce, Artificial intelligence, Publication Domain, Dynamic Web

I. INTRODUCTION

Currently, Web services give place to active research and this is due both to industrial and theoretical factors. On one hand, Web services are essential as the design model of applications dedicated to the electronic business. On the other hand, this model aims to become one of the major formalisms for the design of distributed and cooperative applications in an open environment (the Internet). Research in the field of semantic web / web service (WS) and artificial intelligence (AI) communities are coming together to develop solutions that will take us to the next and more mature generation of the web application. The composition of web services to create a value-chain greater than the sum of the parts is a key part of what can be expected. The fulfilment of the vision of the web as an information-providing and world-altering provider of services is not far away. More futuristic is the notion of serendipitous. In both visions the services and outcomes may be the same. However, the difference between the two visions is that the first can be achieved through static and manual solutions and the second requires dynamic and automated solutions. While helpful for the first, the addition of semantic content on the web is essential to enable automatic discovery and

composition of multiple services. It is natural that earlier work in the field of AI will assist in realization of the (artificially) intelligent web. The work on the Web Services Modelling Framework (WSMF) is an example of AI being applied to this field. WSMF offers the combined use of ontology, goal (problem-type) repositories, web service descriptions and mediators to handle interoperability issues. The agent community, which is primarily AI-based, has also been actively conducting WS related research.

Our own distributed agent-based work and the AgentFactory, originates from our earlier AI research into complex knowledge based systems and generic task based configuration. On the one hand, our work on planning and automated configuration offers a way of composing eCommerce web services. On the other hand, WSs potentially provide us with components needed to achieve an implementation of our design. Through the addition of techniques from the Semantic Web community, the benefits of combining our agent technology with WSs has been mutual.

This paper offers a review of research that overlaps the fields of WS and AI. In the following section we describe web services and the need for semantics to be added. In section B we look at how the Semantic Web communities, within the field of AI, are offering semantics. In section C we present AI-based research to address the discovery of WSs. In section D we consider both commercial and AI based techniques for WS composition. In section E, the notion of re-composition of WS is considered and how adaptive agent technology, including our own, can address this problem. We conclude with future directions for the role of AI in the web services field.

II. RELATED WORKS

A. Web Services

Web services are typically application programming interfaces (API) or web APIs that can be accessed over a network, such as the Internet, and executed on a remote system hosting the requested services.

Web services are a new way of connecting business. Web services are platform-neutral and vendor-independent protocols that enable any form of distributed processing to be performed using XML and Web-based technologies.

1) Just-in-time integration

The Web Services architecture describes the principles behind the next generation of e-business architectures, presenting a logical evolution from object-oriented systems to systems of services. Web Services systems promote

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significant decoupling and dynamic binding of components: All components in a system are services, in that they encapsulate behavior and publish a messaging API to other collaborating components on the network. Services are marshaled by applications using service discovery for dynamic binding of collaborations. Web Services reflect a new service-oriented architectural approach, based on the notion of building applications by discovering and orchestrating network-available services, or just-in-time integration of applications.

B. Semantic description of Web Services

WSDL, SOAP and UDDI are seen as steps in the right direction but ones that will fail to achieve the goals of improved automation and interoperability, because they rely on a priori standardizations and require humans in the loop. To support automated reasoning, knowledge representations (such as markup languages) will be needed that express both data and rules for reasoning. The ability to dynamically locate and compose web services based on their semantic description will rely on the richness of the description and the robustness of the matching techniques used. Ontology will be used to enable definition and comprehension of meaningful content. These are the concerns of the Semantic Web community. Additionally, agents will be needed to interpret the content and transform user requests into optimized delivered solutions. The Intelligent Brokering Service for Knowledge-Component Reuse on the WWW (IBROW)⁴ can be seen as a forerunner of the Semantic Web. In IBROW problem solving methods (PSMs) and ontologies were the components being configured, the current focus is on WS configuration. PSMs and ontologies when used together are also capable of delivering services. The most significant work that has been done to describe web services has been conducted by the DAML-S coalition. The matching of service providers and service requesters via semantic descriptions of the services are key goals of this work. DAML-S uses the DAML+OIL specification language (which extends the weak semantics of RDF(S)) to define a number of ontologies that can be specifically used to describe web services. DAML-S is built on the AI-based action metaphor where each service is either an atomic/primitive or composite/complex action. Knowledge preconditions and knowledge effects are handled via the inputs and outputs of the web service. The DAML-S coalitions are providing solutions to work with current WS standards. For example, a DAML-S service grounding definition can be mapped to a WSDL definition of the service. A number of approaches to service discovery and composition that we discuss in the following sections use or extend the DAML-S web service ontology.

C. Discovering Web Services

Discovery involves locating and/or matchmaking against some selection criteria. An earlier AI system, Lark, which involved annotation of agent capabilities to enable them to be located and brokered, clearly solved a problem similar to the discovery of WS by a middle agent. This work has developed into the DAML-S Matchmaker⁵. To support

matchmaking a number of filters may be configured by the user to achieve the desired tradeoff between performance and matching quality. These filters include: word frequency comparison, ontology similarity matching, ontology subsumption matching, and constraint matching.

Offer an alternative to sequential searching when matchmaking an agent with a service request. They point out that finding possible partners via matching of service advertisements with requests is not enough. To support runtime interactions we need smarter behavior to handle components that are not quite what was requested and combining several partial components to meet the original request. The solution to overcome sequential searching is the conversion of the concepts into number intervals and the use inheritance hierarchies to determine subclass and equality relations. A generalized search tree is used to handle partial matches.

The feasibility of matchmaking largely depends on the annotation of web services. AI can also be applied to this problem. A number of markup tools have been developed for document markup and these could be applied to the semantic description of WSs. The SHOE Knowledge Annotator [19] uses ontologies to guide knowledge annotation. To produce RDF-based markup, COHSE or AeroDAML can be used. These approaches start with descriptions in DAML+OIL and DAML, respectively. These approaches support automatic conversion of markup languages but do not support information extraction or automatic mark-up. OntoMat does support some form of automated extraction of semantics. OntoMat combines the resource with its DAML-S markup. The MnM approach additionally stores the annotations in a knowledge base. Automated markup in MnM is achieved using techniques from knowledge engineering; machine learning and natural language processing have developed a query language that is used to find services.

The solution to finding services is to first describe the service using the process ontology with the assistance of the MIT Process Handbook. The Handbook is large and allows reuse to assist in ontology definition. Next, the ontology is indexed by breaking it down into its components such as attributes, ports, dependencies, subtasks and exceptions. The requester can form a query in the query language that will use the index to find matches.

Clearly AI is already contributing solutions for locating, matchmaking, querying and annotation of WS to facilitate their discovery. Discovery of web services is an important issue as it is a prerequisite to their use. However, the real value of web services lies in their composition.

D. Composing Web Services

Web service composition can be simply defined as: “the problem of composing autonomous services to achieve new functionality”. WS composition is not just an alternative to application development but a means of reducing the application backlog problem because: many services are moving online; integration is easier since WS conform to the HTTP protocol and many independent providers have related services that need to be combined to satisfy user

requirements. The rigidity and lack of intelligence of current solutions has spawned a number of research projects from a number of other research fields.

The work by has arisen from experience in the distributed systems and networking fields. They have developed the Infrastructure for Composability at Runtime of Internet Services (ICARIS). They have extended WSDL to develop the Web Services Offerings Language (WSOL). They offer flexibility and adaptability but their approach is very alternative. Instead of trying to solve the problem of how to find services dynamically and combine them, they focus on the situation where providers and requestors are already matched but will at times either make changes to their services or requests. A service is seen to have numerous offerings. The functionality will be the same but the constraints will differ such as authorization rights and QoS. They suggest that a limited number of classes of services be offered and described. Then using WSOL they are able to specialize the classes into offerings. Their solution offers dynamic switching between offerings. From a commercial point of view the notion of offerings makes sense as customers probably prefer to do business with companies they already know and businesses want to maintain their existing client base.

The work at Hewlett Packard laboratories on *eFlow* is similar in that dynamic composition involves automatic adaptation of the configuration at runtime according to the requests of the individual customer. The approach is driven by the view that composition adds value but to stay competitive, composition needs to be dynamic as services offered need to adapt to stay competitive. Their goal is to allow dynamic change in service processes with no or minimal human intervention. While they take a business process perspective they point out that web services are less static, predictable or repetitive compared to traditional business processes. Similar to most current commercial solutions, dynamic composition is made possible due to the use of a central repository that has clients and providers already attached to it.

The notion of generic solutions that are customized according to user constraints is a recurring theme in much of the literature. Also look at composition as the selection of possible services based on user specified criteria. They offer a centralized, pipes and filters architecture with two main components: a composer (user interface) and an inference engine (IE) component (which includes a knowledge base of known services). The inference engine is an OWL reasoner and includes axioms to find all relevant entailments, such as the inheritance relation between two classes which may not have been made explicit. The user identifies some criteria that the service must satisfy. The matchmaker (IE) selects services that might be suitable based on those criteria and the composer shows them to the user. Suitable services for composition are ones whose output can be an input to a selected service. While execution of WS may be performed automatically, the actual task of composition is performed by a human using the services suggested by the system.

Model-based reasoning is a common technique employed in AI approaches. In SWORD entity relationship modelling of services is performed by “base service modellers” to produce a “world model”. After building a world model for each service, a composition model is developed that models each service as an action. An expert system is used to automatically determine if the composite service can be created with existing services and if so a plan of execution is generated.

In summary, a number of solutions are offered to provide web service composition. The approaches described in this section show that composition can be assisted through the use of class definitions, inheritance hierarchies and model and rule-based reasoning. In many cases, decision making is left to humans. The only automated composition offered is in limited situations where a central repository is used and the requestor and provider are part of the same system. However, the web is distributed in nature. Intelligent reasoning and collaboration between services is needed to handle this complexity. Agents are capable of both.

E. Agents and Web Services

The autonomous and reasoning capabilities of agents make them well suited for handling cross-organizational decision making. For example, agents can be used to (re)negotiate contracts which would then require: determination of which processes are needed to fulfil the contract; creation of new business processes; and adaptation of existing business processes. Two main agent-oriented approaches exist: use wrappers to make WS behave like agents and; using agents to orchestrate WS.

1) Adding Behaviour to WS via Agents Wrappers

WS are componential, independent, software applications similar to agents. However, agents are also reactive, social and capable of reasoning. If we wish web services to work together, we need to give them social and reasoning capabilities. This can be achieved by wrapping a service in an agent. In the work of, a composition language is used to create an agent wrapper which allows services to collaborate. The created agent has first-order reasoning abilities that have been derived from the DAML-S description of the service. This then allows one agent wrapped service to know what other agent-wrapped services are capable of doing and whether they can assist in the service/agent meeting its goals. Also offer an agent-based wrapper approach to web services. They have developed a tool for creating wrappers so that web sources can be queried in a similar manner to databases. They then use an interactive, hierarchical constraint propagation system to perform integration. As in, the end user interacts via a GUI to manage the orchestration. The Racing project⁶ offers a mediator architecture also using agent wrappers that are structured into a hierarchy. A number of different agent wrappers are supported: user, query translation, query planning, resource wrapper, ontology, matchmaking, and cloning and coordination agents. The use of agent wrappers is a way of allowing multi-agent system technology to be applied to web services

2) Composing Web Services using Agents

The work of combines ideas from the Semantic Web, Knowledge Representation and Agent communities to allow WSs to be composed. Their goal is to —construct reusable, high-level generic procedures, and to archive them in shareable (DAML-S) generic-procedures ontologies so that multiple users can access them”. In the approach, WSs and user constraints are marked up in DAML-S. A generic task procedure is selected by the user and given to the DAML(-S) enabled agent, who customizes the procedure according to the user specific constraints. The generic procedures are written in an extended version of ConGolog, a situation calculus agent programming language, and executed using a Prolog inference engine. Others provide agent-oriented languages for web service description. Propose an Agent Service Description Language (ASDL) and Agent Service Composition Language (ASCL). ASDL is an extension to WSDL and captures external behaviour via a finite state machine. Their work is based on the argument that composition requires more than description of the data, but also requires a strong representation of actions and processes. A number of approaches are focused on the design of agent systems with web services as the components have developed WARP (Workflow Automation through Agent-based Reflective Processes) that uses the XML and WSDL standards. The goal is automatic configuration and management of low-level services (components). The software engineering development process that has been developed is semi-automatic involving multiple software agents and a human workflow designer. They support visualization of the process based on activity diagrams in UML.

3) (Re-)composition and Adaptable Agents

The ability of agents to adapt according to changes in system requirements and the environment is important to enable dynamic and reactive behaviour.

Agents may be adapted in a number of different ways. The knowledge and facts that an agent uses may be adapted for example the agent may use a client profile that changes according to the clients activities (e.g. this type of adaptation typically involves machine learning, e.g. An agent may also adapt its interface according to the platform on which it is being used (e.g.[brand]. A third type of adaptation, and the type of adaptation we are concerned with, is adaptation of the agent’s functionality. There is limited work in this area. Semi-automatic agent creation tools such as AGENTBUILDER, D’AGENTS/ AGENT/TCL, ZEUS and PARADE could possibly be extended to support agent adaptation.

Following the use of compositionality in the major softwareengineering paradigms (e.g. functional programming, object-orientedprogramming, component-based programmingand the Factory design pattern, we have developed an AgentFactory. The approach is based on the use of components, thegeneral agent model (GAM) and the DESIRE formal knowledge levelmodelling and specification frameworkfor multi-agentsystems. Our agent (re-

)structuring approach allows an agentto automatically adapt by reusing existing components. Ourapproach is a combination of process-oriented and object-orientedapproaches by treating processes as the 'active' parts of our agent,which are our agent components and classes as the 'passive' partof our agent, which are the data types used in the agentcomponents. We are currently exploring whether DAML-Sdescriptions of web services are adequate for automatedconfiguration of web services by the Agent Factory.the Agent Factory andbased on the notion of design patterns, assists human designers infunctional design, and the configuration of software componentsto fulfil the conceptual design specified by the designers,depending on the agent platform that is to be used. Our approachdoes more: it automates the creation and redesign of both theconceptual and operational design based on the requirements onfunction, behavior and state of an agent. Our use of web servicesas components is a further distinguishing feature.

While not currently working in the WS area, the Adapt agent approach, bring together adaptive workflow and agentresearch. They consider how agents can be used to collaborate toperform a workflow and make workflow more intelligent andhow workflow can be used to organize a set of agents andcoordinate interaction between people and agents.

The reuse of knowledge has also been a widely researchedtopic and the creation of libraries of problem solving methodsand generic task modelsoffer a similar idea to the functionalcomponents in our agent factory. The IBROW project, mentionedearlier, has even more in common with our approach by semi automaticallyconfiguring intelligent problem solvers usingproblem solving methods as building blocks. They use mappingsto act as glue between the components which are modelled asCORBA objects. Unlike our approach, their architecture isrestricted to specific languages and architectures, they onlysupport semi-automation and they do not distinguish betweenconceptual and implementation level designs.

III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section we evaluate the performance of the proposed artificial intelligence to eCommerce web service agent. We have created common web service application to integrate the all web and windows application who want to integrate eCommerce application to their application. Refer Fig 1 – 4 work flow of AI based eCommerce web service.

A. Application Overview

The Order Management System (eCommerce) has been written to provide a common means to create simple orders and process credit card transactions. The first version works only with PayPal's PayFlowProw service but can be updated to work with other online merchant services (e.g. Authorize). When the need to use an alternative provide comes up we'll code the core library accordingly. Any changes here will not affect the way you use the service.

1) Not a User Management System

The system doesn't offer any user management capabilities like sign in. It assumes the calling application knows who the user is let's it take care of any user authentication required. When you're coding your shopping carts you need primary means of identification and is required before you can process any payments.

2) Typical Lifecycle / Process Flow

It's important to understand how the Order Management System (OMS) works so you can make use of the methods in the most efficient way.

The first thing you'll need to do is to create a Processing Session in the OMS. This is done by calling the **GetSessionForKnownUser()** method and passing in the email address of the current user. The OMS will create a session and a shopping cart for the user. It's recommended that you store the ID of the session in your application cookie or in your database so it can be reused. It's not efficient to create a session every time!

To retrieve the shopping cart you simply call the **GetShoppingCart()** method. To add an item to the shopping cart simply call the **AddItemToShoppingCart()** method passing in a properly constructed **ShoppingCartItem** object. To remove an item from the shopping cart simply call the **RemoveItemFromShoppingCart()** method passing in the item to remove. You can also empty the shopping cart by calling the **EmptyShoppingCart()** method.

3) Ready to Checkout

Once you've populated the shopping cart, authenticated your user you're ready to process the transaction and turn the Shopping Cart into an Order. To do this you must create a **PaymentProcessingKey**. Think of this is a temporary key allowing you to make a credit card transaction. To create one you call the **GeneratePaymentProcessingKey()** method passing in the session. It will configure it with the session and the associated shopping cart ready for processing.

4) Payment Information Page

This page is the one responsible for taking the credit card information and processing the payment through the online payment gateway (e.g. PayFlowPro). The Order summary is displayed at the top of the page so the user can make sure they're purchasing the correct item(s). The next section prompts for the credit card information including the CVV2 security code location on the credit card.

to handle all of this. The Order Management System simply provides the relevant methods to create Processing Sessions, Shopping Carts etc you just need to implement them.

The Order Management System does keep track of "users" (customers) through the use of an email address. This is the

The last section prompts the user for the billing address that's associated with the credit card they're using. If the user is purchasing physical goods they should also populate a shipping address. If the order consists of only electronic items the shipping address can be left blank.

5) Processing the Payment

Once the user is happy that all the information has been entered correctly they should click the "Purchase Now" button to initiate the payment transaction. Processing payments is actually using a two step process:

1. The first step is to authorize the payment. The reason we do this is to basically test to see if the payment information is correct and that the payment card will accept the new payment being attempted without actually taking the funds. The reason we do this is to make sure the transaction will succeed. If this step fails we send the user back to the payment information page and display them the error. It basically means that we'll never process an order unless the payment succeeds.

2. The second step is to then retrieve the actual funds allocated during the first authorization step. At this point we're 99.9% confident that the transaction will succeed because the authorization was successful.

After a successful transaction the system performs some cleanup routines and processes the order:

1. Updates the status of the order to Complete
2. Constructs an invoice and sends this to the user
3. Constructs a notification email and sends this to the person setup in the installation configuration
4. Calls the Call-back page defined in the installation configuration. This page is located on calling application and is generally responsible for firing any triggers based on the products that were just purchased. For example it might need to perform an upgrade of a profile or add a new feature.

Once all this is complete the user is sent to the Order Confirmation Page where a summary of the order is presented.

Premium Listings	Select	Price
1. Platinum Listing Includes: Priority placement, expanded listing, company logo and document file attachment. You will receive email instructions for submitting your logo and document. View Example	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Monthly Recurring - \$ 49.95/month
2. Gold Listing Includes: Priority placement, expanded listing and company logo. You will receive email instructions for submitting your logo. View Example	<input type="radio"/>	Monthly Recurring - \$ 39.95/month
3. Silver Listing Includes: Priority placement and expanded listing. View Example	<input type="radio"/>	Monthly Recurring - \$ 29.95/month
Order Total:		\$49.95

About Recurring Billing
 Your listing will automatically renew each month and the monthly fee will be charged to credit card.
 You may cancel at any time. I have read and agree to the [FEES AND PAYMENT POLICY](#)

Order Detail(s)						
Order ID	Account Number	Create Date	Name	Firm Name	Order Status	
2	mkt60	7/23/2009 2:19:15 PM	Vadivel	ABACUS INS BROKERS INC	Order Completed	View Full Detail
44	mkt60	8/24/2009 4:07:23 AM	Vadivel	ABACUS INS BROKERS INC	Order Completed	View Full Detail
231	mkt60	6/10/2010 12:28:03 AM	Vadivel	ABACUS INS BROKERS INC	Order Completed	View Full Detail

Fig – 1 Product select and Checkout page

[Cancel and go back](#)

Order Summary

Item Name	Unit Price	Quantity	Total Cost
Platinum	\$49.95	1	\$49.95
Subtotal:			\$49.95
Tax:			\$0.00
Order Total:			\$49.95

Payment Information

Credit card Type:

Credit card number:

Credit card CWV2:

Expiry month / year:

Name on card:

Billing Address

This address must be the address on file for the credit card above.

First name:
 Last name:
 Address 1:
 Address 2:
 City:
 State:
 Country:
 Zip / Postcode:
 Telephone:

Shipping Address

Leave this address blank if your order is to be sent to the billing address or if not applicable.

First name:
 Last name:
 Address 1:
 Address 2:
 City:
 State:
 Country:
 Zip / Postcode:
 Telephone:

Submit Order

Your credit card will be charged \$49.95. Please check all entries and click "Place Order Now" to continue.
 Once the order has been submitted do not refresh your browser or you may be charged more than once.





Fig – 2 Credit card and Billing address page

 Print page

Order Confirmation

Your payment was successful, Thank you.

Billed To:
vadivelr@365media.in
 Vadivel Rangasamy
 #64 South Street No:2 Avarampalayam
 Coimbatore, Tamil nadu 641006
 919787778365

Order Number: BMHQOEMO-535
Receipt Date: 6/14/2010 3:45:00 AM
Total items purchased: 1
Order Total: \$49.95

Item Name	Unit Price	Quantity	Total Cost
Platinum	\$49.95	1	\$49.95
Subtotal:			\$49.95
Tax:			\$0.00
Order Total:			\$49.95

[Click here to continue](#)

Fig – 3 Order confirmation page

Kirschners.com Platinum Listing Confirmation Inbox | X

★ [Kirschner's Insurance Directories](#) to me, kenthai [show details](#) 1:16 PM (1 minute ago) [Reply](#)

Dear Vadivel Rangasamy,
 Thank you for placing a **Platinum Listing** on **Kirschners.com**, the leading online insurance directory.

Your **Order Information** and **Platinum Listing Details** including instructions for submitting your company logo and document file attachment (if applicable) appear below.

If you have any questions, please call us at (800) 984-7170.

Thank you,

Kirschner's Insurance Directories
 The National Underwriter Company
 Summit Business Media
www.SBMedia.com
 Editorial Office:
 6939 Sunrise Blvd Ste 113
 Citrus Heights CA 95610
 Phone: (800) 984-7170
 Fax: (800) 724-0408
 Email: Kirschners@nuco.com
www.Kirschners.com

ORDER INFORMATION
Product: Platinum Listing
ID Number: 232
Account Number: mkt60
Company: ABACUS INS BROKERS INC
Contact:
Email: vadivelr@365media.in

Billing Information:
 #64 South Street No:2, Avarampalayam
 Coimbatore, Tamil nadu 641006
 Other
Phone: 919787778365
Order Total: \$49.95
Recurring Billing: Pursuant to the agreed [FEES AND PAYMENT POLICY](#) your listing will automatically renew each month and the monthly fee will be charged to your credit card.

PREMIUM LISTING DETAILS:
 Your **online** listing information will appear as indicated below.
Product: Platinum Listing

- **Priority Placement** - Platinum listings are displayed above all Gold, Silver and free listings.
- **Expanded Listing** - Your company name, address, phone and direct links to your email and website are listed on the search results page for quick access. Expanded listings also include your service categories, company personnel and service coverage states.
- **Company Logo** - Your logo appears next to your listing for added impact.
 File type: JPG or GIF
 File size: 100 x 50
- **Document File Attachment** - Links a document to your listing - announcements on new programs for example.
 File type: PDF, DOC or TXT
 Maximum file size: 2 MB

Please email your **Company Logo** and **Document File Attachment** to: Kirschners@nuco.com. File specifications are noted above.

The information in this e-mail is confidential and may be privileged. If you are not the intended recipient, please destroy this message, delete any copies held on your systems and notify the sender immediately. You should not retain, copy, nor disclose all or any part of its content to any other person. This e-mail is believed to be free from virus. However it is the responsibility of the recipient to ensure that it is virus free. We do not accept any liability for any loss or damage arising in any way from the receipt, opening or use of this e-mail.

[Reply](#) [Reply to all](#) [Forward](#)

Fig – 4 Order confirmation email

IV. CONCLUSION

The work of the Semantic Web community to provide semantic description of web services will play a key role in enabling agents to automatically compose web services. In this eCommerce application has implemented in embedded windows and web applications with cross-platforms and it's successfully interoperability of applications. A standard communication between the agents is clearly defined and very less amount of data loss.

Existing agent platforms may need to be adapted to handle the specific requirements of web services. But in this system with no trouble to adaptable all kind of computer applications and tested in real world applications. The RETSINA functional architecture includes four basic types of agents: interface, task, information and middle agents who communicate via a special agent communication language. Each of these agents includes four reusable modules: communication and coordination, planning, scheduling and monitoring. The middle agent plays a critical role in matching providers with requesters and is offered as a solution to the heterogeneous nature of agents over the web.

In future work will continue on artificial intelligence to natural language technology research will assist discovery of web services and agents will play an important role in using web services to satisfy user requests.

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Acute Cystitis and Acute Nephritis Prediction Using Machine Learning Techniques

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GJCST Classification
1.2.6,K.3.2,J.3

Abstract-Urinary System includes kidneys, bladder, ureters and urethra. This is the major system involves electrolyte balance of the body and filters the blood and excretes the waste products in the form urine. Even the small disturbance in the renal function will step in a disasters manifestation. Among them we are considering the two diseases that affect the system are acute cystitis and acute nephritis. This paper presents the implementation of three supervised learning algorithms, ZeroR, J48 and Naive Bayes in WEKA environment. The classification models were trained using the data collected from 120 patients. The trained models were then used for predicting the acute cystitis or acute nephritis of the patients. The prediction accuracy of the classifiers was evaluated using 10-fold cross validation and the results were compared.

Keywords-Urinary System, Ureters, Urethra, AcuteCystitis, Acute Nephritis, classification, WEKA

I. INTRODUCTION

Machine learning is a scientific discipline that is concerned with the design and development of algorithms that allow computers to change behavior based on data, such as from sensor data or databases. Machine learning usually refers to the changes in systems that perform tasks associated with artificial intelligence(AI). Such tasks involve recognition, diagnosis, planning, robot control, prediction, etc. [1]

A major focus of machine learning research is to automatically learn to recognize complex patterns and make intelligent decisions based on data. Hence, machine learning is closely related to fields such as statistics, probability theory, data mining, pattern recognition, artificial intelligence, adaptive control, and theoretical computer science. The attributes considered for the algorithm comprises temperature of patient , nausea , Lumbar pain, Frequency of micturation (continuous need for urination) , micturition pain, burning sensation during micturition, itch, swelling of urethra outlet. Machine Learning Techniques are effective to classify the data and to improve the predictive accuracy

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II. MOTIVATION

Motivation behind is to apply and analyze three different machine learning algorithm for classification of the urinary system - acute cystitis and acute nephritis. The classification models were trained using the data collected from 120 patients. The trained models were then used for predicting the acute cystitis and acute nephritis of the patients. Data set includes descriptions of hypothetical samples corresponding to 120 patients. It is identified as definitely the patient is affected with Inflammation of urinary bladder or Nephritis of renal pelvis origin. [3]

III. ACUTE CYSTITIS AND ACUTE NEPHRITIS

Urinary System includes kidneys, bladder, ureters and urethra. This is the major system involves electrolyte balance of the body and filters the blood and excretes the waste products in the form urine. The body has two kidneys located in the lumbar region (back at about the location of the elbows). Each kidney has about 1000 nephrons that act as filter. Each nephron composed of glomeruli and tubules, which works as a filter and an absorber. The blood which carries glucose, electrolytes, and metabolic end products passes through the nephrons that filters and absorb the needed materials for the tissue and excretes the waste products along with the water in the form of urine. The cleaned blood leaves the kidney and travels throughout the body. Thus the kidney places the major role in electrolyte balance. Another elementary function of kidney is secretion of erythropoietin, which maintains the blood pressure. The bladder is a muscular bag in which urine is stored before being discharged through the urethra. The two ureter from each side of the kidney carries urine from the kidney to the bladder. It can hold between one half to two cups of urine before it needs to be emptied. Everyday about two to five cups of urine pass through the bladder. The urine output is directly proportional to the water intake but it does not hold good in summer season because most of the body water is excreted as sweat.

About 96% of urine is water. It also contains some waste salt and a substance called urea. Urea is made during the breakdown of proteins in liver. Urea is also excreted in sweat. If urea builds up in the body, it is a sign that the kidneys are not working properly. When the kidney fails, the metabolic waste products get accumulated in the body and lead to the consequent manifestation. For example accumulation of urea may lead on to encephalopathy [4].

Machine Learning Techniques is used to classify the presumptive diagnosis of two diseases of urinary system.

Acute cystitis, inflammation of the urinary bladder commonly crop up due to the ascending infections by several organisms. It manifests with clinical features of burning micturition, raising temperature, hematuria (passing blood in urine), sudden occurrence of pain in the abdomen region, burning micturition and micturition pain. Symptoms decay usually within several days on proper treatment. However, there is inclination to return. A person with acute cystitis should expect that the illness will turn into protracted form, which also sequelae into hydronephrosis. Acute nephritis, inflammation of the renal parenchyma occurs considerably more often at women than at men. Sudden fever, hematuria, elevated blood pressure, lumbar pain and oliguria are the symptoms of acute cystitis. Quite not infrequently there are nausea and vomiting and spread pains of whole abdomen.

IV. MACHINE LEARNING APPROACH AND ALGORITHM BASIS

For analyzing the data and classification of acute cystitis and acute nephritis, the three Machine learning algorithms ZeroR, J48 Pruned tree and Naive Bayes classifier were adopted here. Zero-R algorithm is used to predict the majority class in the training data. J48 Pruned tree algorithm is an implementation of the C4.5 decision tree learner. This implementation produces decision tree models. The algorithm uses the greedy technique to bring decision tree for classification. A decision-tree model is built by analyzing training data and the model is used to classify unseen data. J48 generates decision tree, the nodes of which evaluate the existence or significance of individual features. The Naive Bayes Classifier technique is based on Bayesian theorem and is particularly suited when the dimensionality of the inputs is high. Naïve Bayes classifiers assume that the effect of a variable value on a given class is independent of the values of other variable.

The conditional probability of attribute value given class is computed by figuring out the proportion of instances. Depending on the accurate nature of the probability model, Naive Bayes classifiers can be trained very efficiently in a supervised learning setting.

V. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The data analysis and classification was carried out using WEKA software environment for machine learning. The WEKA, Open Source, Portable, GUI-based workbench is a collection of state-of-the-art machine learning algorithms and data pre-processing tools [2]. It is designed in flexible manner to try out existing methods on new dataset. In this experiment, the data set collected from UCI Repository of 120 patients with 8 features is selected as the class label. The instances in the dataset are pertaining to the two categories based on the temperature of patient, occurrence of nausea, lumbar pain, urine pushing (continuous need for urination), micturition pain, burning of urethra, itch, swelling of urethra outlet, inflammation of urinary bladder and nephritis of renal pelvis origin. The attributes are labeled as a1, a2, a3, a4, a5, a6, d1, d2. To evaluate the

robustness of the classifier, the normal methodology is to perform cross validation on the classifier. In general, ten fold cross validation has been proved to be statistically good enough in evaluating the performance of the classifier. The machine learning techniques is implemented using WEKA tool. The 10-fold cross validation was performed to test the performance of the three models. The prediction accuracy of the models was compared.

VI. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The results of the experiments are described in Table 1, 2 and 3. The performances of the three models were evaluated based on the three criteria, the prediction accuracy, learning time and error rate and illustrated in Figures 1, 2 and 3.

Table 1. Predictive Performance Of The Classifiers

Classifiers	Zero R	Naive Bayes	J48 Pruned tree
Time taken to build the model (in sec)	0	0	0.02
Correctly Classified Instances	70	120	120
Incorrectly Classified Instances	50	0	0
Prediction Accuracy	58.3333 %	100%	100%

TABLE 2. COMPARISON OF ESTIMATES

Validation	Zero R	Naive Bayes	J48 Pruned tree
Kappa statistic	0	1	1
Mean absolute error	0.4864	0.0602	0
Root mean squared error	0.493	0.1017	0
Relative absolute error	100 %	12.3797 %	0 %
Root relative squared error	100 %	20.6264 %	0 %

Table 3. Comparison Of Evaluation Measures ByClass

Classifier	TP Rate	FP Rate	Precision	Recall	F-measure	ROC	Class
Zero R	1	1	0.583	1	0.737	0.5	no
	0	0	0	0	0	0.5	yes
Naïve Bayes	1	0	1	1	1	1	no
	1	0	1	1	1	1	yes
J48 Pruned Tree	1	0	1	1	1	1	no
	1	0	1	1	1	1	yes

From the confusion matrix given in Table 4, it is observed that Naive Bayes and J48 Pruned Tree produce relatively good results.

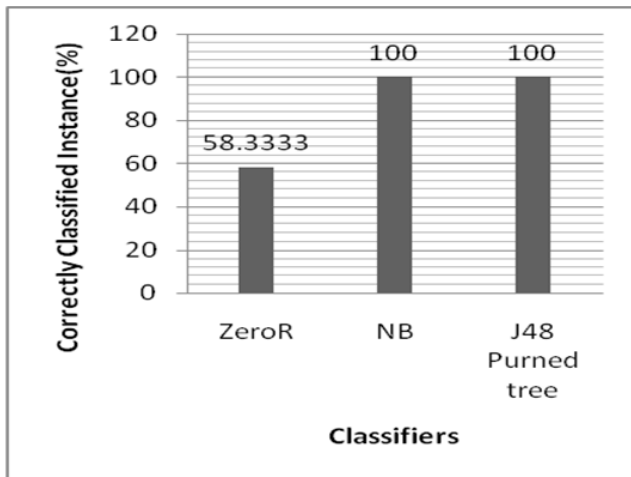
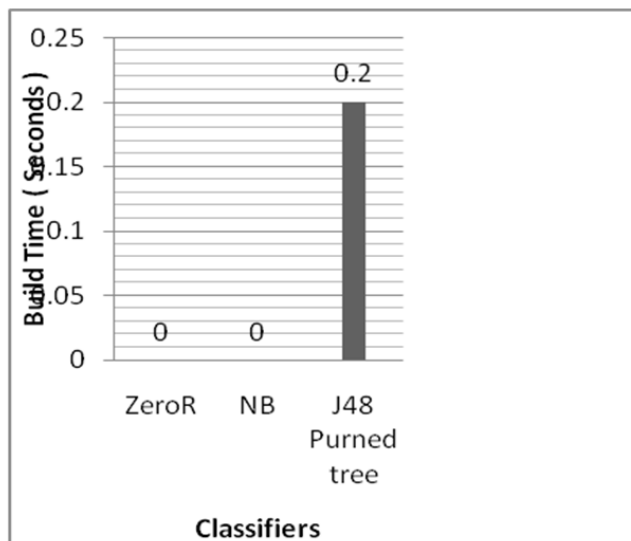


Fig.1. Prediction Accuracy



VII. CONCLUSION

Classifier systems play a major role in machine learning and knowledge-based systems. In this paper three supervised learning algorithm was implemented using WEKA software. By classifying each attributes to predict the accuracy of each algorithm and test the correctly classified instances of the attribute. The result percentage was compared to identify the algorithm that is well suited to classify the acute cystitis urinary bladder and acute nephritis. The results indicate that the Naive Bayes classifier outperforms in prediction than ZeroR and J48 Pruned algorithm. Further work can be extended by repeating the experiment with other machine learning algorithms.

Figure 2 illustrates the learning time of the three schemes under consideration. J48 Pruned tree classifier takes more time to build the model. The Naïve Bayes and ZeroR, the probabilistic classifier tends to learn more rapidly for the given dataset.

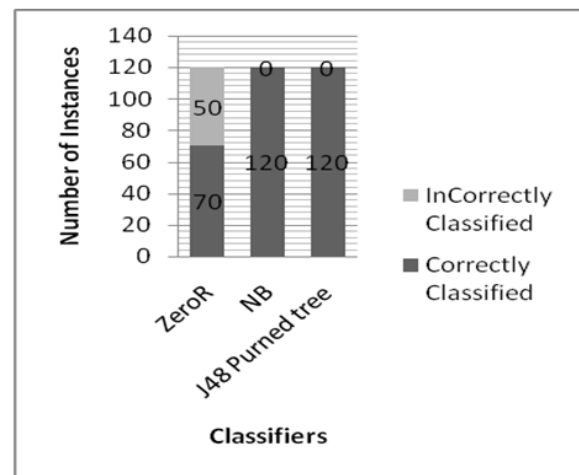


Fig.3. Error Rate

The confusion matrix was used to evaluate the classification error rate. From the confusion matrix given in Table 4, it is observed that Naive Bayes and J48 Pruned tree produce relatively good results but the time taken for the J48 Pruned tree is high when compared to the Naive Bayes.

CLASSIFIER	a	b
Zero R	70 0 a = no	50 0 b = yes
Naive Bayes	70 0 a = no	0 50 b = yes
J48 Pruned Tree	70 0 a = no	0 50 b = yes

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Analysis of shortest path algorithms

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GJCST Classification
F.2.1

Abstract-Shortest path algorithms have large number of practical applications in computer networks to flow the information from one computer to the another computer system in the minimum possible time. Researchers are continuously designing new algorithms to solve the shortest path problems which have less time complexity as well as less space complexity as compared to the existing algorithms. In this paper, analysis of shortest path algorithm is being done and it has been concluded that researchers have got remarkable success in designing better algorithms in the terms of space & time complexity to solve shortest path algorithms.

General Terms: Algorithms, Theory.

Keywords-Shortest path algorithms.

I. INTRODUCTION

An algorithm is defined as computational procedure which takes a particular input and produces a particular output. Algorithms are used to solve widerange of problems. If $G(V,E)$ is directed weighted graph, where V represents the set of vertices of graph & E represents the set of edges of graph. $|V|$ represents the total number of vertices in graph & $|E|$ represents the total number of edges in the graph. In shortest path problems, a directed weighted graph is given & the goal is to determine the shortest path among vertices. There are many variants of shortest path problems which are given below. In Single source shortest path problems, a graph $G(V,E)$ is being given & the goal is to find a shortest path from a given vertex to the remaining vertices of the graph. In Single destination Shortest path problem, the goal is to determine the shortest path from each vertex of a graph to a particular destination vertex. In Single pair shortest path problem, a pair of vertices (u,v) is being given and the goal is to find the shortest path from vertex u to the vertex v . In all pair shortest path problems, the goal is to determine a shortest path from u to v for every pair of vertices u & v in the graph $G(V,E)$.

II. COMPARISONS OF ALGORITHMS FOR SHORTEST PATH PROBLEMS

Bellman ford algorithm can be used to solve the single source shortest path problems in which edge weight may be negative. This algorithm returns a Boolean value which

indicates whether there is negative weight cycle or not in a particular graph. If there is a negative weight cycle which is reachable from the source vertex, then Bellman Ford algorithm indicates that there is no any solution but if there is negative cycle then the algorithm produces the shortest path from the single source vertex to the remaining vertices. If $G(V,E)$ be the graph, Where V represents the set of vertices & E represents the set of edges, then the time complexity for Bellman Ford algorithm is $O(|V||E|)$. Dijkstra algorithm can also be used to solve the single source shortest path problems on a given weighted, directed graph $G(V,E)$ if and only if all the weights of edges are positive. The time complexity of Dijkstra algorithm depends upon the implementation of min priority queue. If the min priority queue is being implemented by using binary heap, then the time complexity of Dijkstra algorithm is $O((V+E)\lg V)$. But if the min priority queue is being implemented by using Fibonacci Heap, then the time complexity for Dijkstra algorithm is $O(V\lg V + E)$. All pair shortest path problems can be solved by Floyd Warshall algorithm within the time complexity of $O(V^3)$. But the constraint is that there is no any negative weight cycle in the given graph but the edge may be of negative weight. Johnson's algorithm can be used to solve all pair shortest path problems within the time complexity of $O(V^2\lg V + VE)$ time. If the graph contain negative cycle then Johnson's algorithm reports that the graph contains negative cycle. If the graph does not contain negative cycle then Johnson's algorithm returns a particular matrix which shows the shortest distance among vertices. If the lengths of edges of a graph are integers, whose absolute value are bounded by N , then the time complexity of the algorithm which is used to calculate the shortest path from a given source node s to the remaining vertices is $O(n^5 \lg(N))$. Researchers are continuously applying their best efforts to design the new algorithms for shortest path problems which have less time complexity as well as less space complexity as compared to the existing algorithms. The time complexity for the shortest path algorithm which is given by Upton et al. [1979] is $O(n^{1.5})$. Henzinger et al. [1997] designed a new algorithm for single source shortest path problem which has the time complexity of $O(n^{4/3} \log^{2/3}(D))$ Where D represents the sum of the absolute value of the length. Fakcharoenphol and Rao [2006] designed a new algorithm for single source shortest path problem in planar graph which has the time complexity of $O(n \log^3 n)$ & the space complexity of $O(n \log n)$. Ahuja [1] designed a new algorithm for single source shortest path problem which has the time complexity of $O(E + V(\lg W)^{0.5})$ for graph with positive edge weights where w is the longest weight of any edge in the graph. Thorup [2009] designed a new algorithm for single source

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shortest path problems which has the time complexity of $O(E \lg V)$. Thorup[2] also designed a new algorithm for single source shortest path problem for undirected graph which has the time complexity of $O(E + V)$. Researchers are continuously applying best efforts in designing new improved algorithm for computing shortest path. Fredman[3] proves that all pair shortest path problems can be solved by using $O(V^5/2)$ comparisons between the sums of weights of edges and has designed a new algorithm which has the time complexity of $O(V^3(\lg V/\lg V)^{1/3})$ time, which is better than the running time complexity of the Floyd-Warshall algorithm. Suppose $O(nw)$ be the running time of the algorithm for multiplying $n \times n$ Matrices. As $w < 2.376$. Galil and Margalit [4, 5] and Seidel [6] designed an algorithms that solve the all-pairs shortest paths problem for undirected graphs with the time complexity of $(Vw p(V))$, where $p(V)$ represents a particular function which is polylogarithmically bounded in v . After then several researchers have extended these results to give algorithms to solve the all-pairs shortest paths problem in undirected graphs in which the weights of are integers in the range $\{1, 2, \dots, W\}$. Shoshan and Zwick [7], designed an algorithm which has the time complexity of $O(W Vw p(VW))$. Karger, Koller, and Phillips[8] and independently McGeoch[9] have designed a new algorithm for a graph with nonnegative edge weights, which has the time complexity of $O(V E^* + V^2 \lg V)$ where E^* represents the set of edges in E that participate in some shortest path. For graph with real edge weights, Yuster[10] designed a new algorithm which achieves subcubic running time with the constraint that the number of weight edges emanating from each vertex is $O(n^{0.338})$. If n is the total number of vertices then the space complexity of this algorithm is $O(n^2)$. The upper bound of the space complexity matches the lower bound of the space complexity. The quadratic bound for space complexity for all pair shortest path problems is the major bottleneck for many various large scale applications e.g. in the case of internet, the table size of the order of n^2 for answering the given distance queries is much larger than the network itself. The n^2 table size is too large to be stored in random access memory. So researchers are applying their best efforts to design the efficient algorithms for the all pair approximate shortest path problems. Approximate shortest distance is different from exact shortest distance between two vertices. It means there is some error in the case of approximate shortest distance between two vertices. This error can be additive (surplus) or multiplicative (stretch). Suppose $d(x, y)$ denotes the actual distance between two vertices x & y in a given graph $G(V, E)$. An algorithm is said to compute all pair approximate (stretch) distance for any given graph $G(V, E)$ if for any pair of vertices $x, y \in V$, the distance determined by that algorithm is at least $\alpha d(x, y)$ and at most $t \alpha d(x, y)$. Similarly an algorithm is said to be compute distance with surplus c if the distance determined by the algorithm is at least $d(x, y)$ and at most $c + \alpha d(x, y)$. An algorithm which compute all pair t approximate distance with $t < 2$ can be easily used to calculate the Boolean matrix multiplication of two $n \times n$ boolean

matrices. So computing all pair distances with stretch less than two is as hard as the multiplication of two Boolean matrices[11]. Any kind of data structure which is capable of answering a distance query with stretch less than three in constant time must occupy at least $\Omega(n^2)$ space in the worst case. Zwick and Cohen[12] designed a new $O(n^{1.5} m^{0.5})$ algorithm to calculate all pair 2 approximate distances. They also designed an algorithm to compute all pair $7/3$ approximate distances which has the time complexity of $O(n^{7/3})$ & the space complexity of $\Omega(n^2)$ for stretch less than three. Zwick and Cohen[12] also designed an algorithm for stretch equal to three which has the time complexity of $O(n^2 \lg(n))$ & the space complexity of $\Omega(n^2)$. Thorup and Zwick[13] designed a new algorithm for all pair approximate shortest paths. They showed that for an integer $c \geq 2$, an undirected weighted graph can be preprocessed in the expected time of $O(mn^{1/c})$ to design a data structure of size $O(mn^{1+1/c})$. This particular data structure is being capable of answering any distance query with a stretch $2c-1$ within the time complexity of $O(c)$. In fact this particular data structure is not storing all pair approximate distances explicitly, even then it can give the answer of any distance query in the constant time. So this particular data structure is known as approximate distance oracle. Algorithm for all pair three stretch distances as given

by Thorup & Zwick[13] is preferred when space has to be optimized as compared to the time. Algorithm for all pair three stretch distance as given by Cohen & Zwick[12] is being preferred when time has to be optimized as compared to the space. Aingworth et al. [14] designed a simple algorithm for finding all distances with an additive error of at most 2 in an unweighted, undirected graph which has the time complexity of $O(n^5/2)$. Dor et al.[11] extended the algorithms as given by Aingworth et al. [14] and designed a new algorithm to determine the distances with surplus $2(k-1)$ for all pair of vertices in unweighted undirected graphs which has the time complexity of $O(kn^{2-1/k} m^{1/k} \text{polylog}(n))$. There are also large number of algorithms for all pair approximate shortest paths in unweighted graphs which have multiplicative error as well as additive error simultaneously and which achieve close to quadratic running time.

III. CONCLUSION

In this paper, analysis of shortest path algorithm is being done and it has been concluded that researchers have got remarkable success in designing better algorithms in the terms of space & time complexity to solve shortest path algorithms.

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Allowing and Storing Of Authorized And Unauthorized Database User According To the Policy Verification and Validation of Distributed Firewall under the Specialized Database

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GJCST Classification
C.2.0.D.4.6.H.2.7

Abstract-The society has grown to rely on internet services, and the number of internet client increases every day. As more users are connected to the network, millions a user to do their damage becomes very great and lucrative. In conventional firewall rely on topology restrictions and controlled network entry points to enforce packet filtering. In this paper, I propose method of multiple firewall concepts and maintain the database for both the authorized and unauthorized entry details based on security policy to enforce the static and dynamic packet filtering. This technique is implemented in software tool called distributed firewall policy advisor and specialized database (SDB).

Keywords-Firewall, Distributed Firewall, policy Language, policy verification, Policy validation, SpecializedDatabase (SDB), Distributed firewall policy Advisor (DFPA).

I. INTRODUCTION FIREWALL

The firewall is a computer hardware or software that limits access to a computer over a network or from an outside source. The firewall is used to create security check points at the boundaries of private network.

A firewall is placed at an entry point where a private computer network is connected to the outside Internet. It intercepts all the packets that are exchanged between the private computer network and the rest of the Internet and examines the IP, TCP and UDP headers of each intercepted packet and decides whether to accept the packet or to discard the packet network of a large enterprise has tens or even hundreds of firewalls. These firewalls are placed at the entry points of the private In the case of companies, if when ordinary firewall is used everyone were given the same class policy. By the implementation of the distributed firewall, multiple firewall concepts each and every one with in the organization was provided with separate access policy, separate authentication.

A. General Techniques

General techniques that firewall use to control access and enforce the site's security policy.

Service control

It determines the types of internet service that can be accessed inbound (or) outbound.

Direction control

It determines the direction in which particular service request may be indicate and allowed to flow through the firewall.

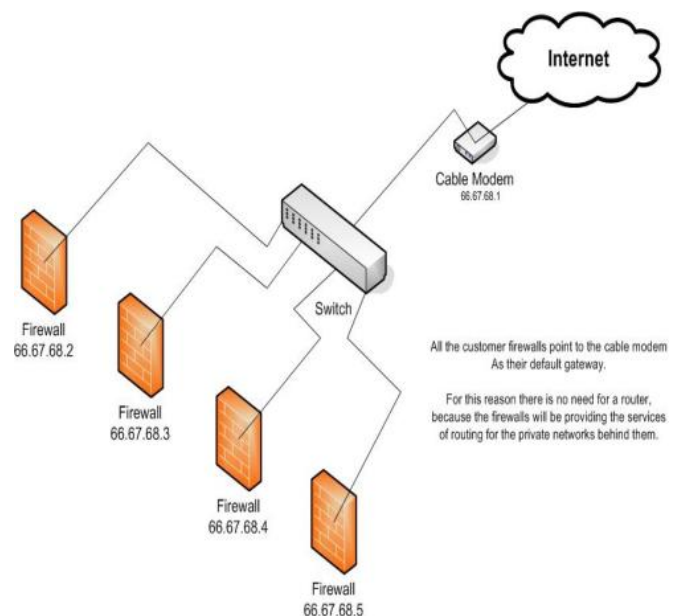
User control

Control access to service according to which user is attempting to access it.

Behavioral control

Controls now particular services are used.

B. Firewall diagram



II. THE DISTRIBUTED FIREWALL

A distributed firewall uses a central policy, but pushes enforcement towards the edges. That is, the policy defines what connectivity, inbound and outbound, is permitted; this policy is distributed to all endpoints, which enforce it. In the full-blown version, endpoints are characterized by their IPsec identity, typically in the form of a certificate. Rather than relying on the topological notions of "inside" and "outside", as is done by a traditional firewall, a distributed firewall assigns certain rights to whichever machines own the private keys corresponding to certain public keys. [1][2] To implement a distributed firewall for allowing and storing authorized and unauthorized specialized database, we need a

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strong verification and validation security policy language that can describe which connections are acceptable.

Basic Working of Distributed Firewalls

Distributed firewalls are the following three components.

1. A language for expressing policies and resolving requests. In their simplest form, policies in a distributed firewall are functionally equivalent to packet filtering rules. However, it is desirable to use an extensible system (so other types of applications and security checks can be specified and enforced in the future). The language and resolution mechanism should also support credentials, for delegation of rights and authentication purposes [4].
2. A mechanism for safely distributing security policies. This may be the IPsec key management protocol when possible, or some other protocol. The integrity of the policies transferred must be guaranteed, either through the communication protocol or as part of the policy object description (e.g., they may be digitally signed).
3. A mechanism that applies the security policy to incoming packets or connections, providing the enforcement part. Distributed firewalls rest on three notions:
 - A policy language that states what sort of connections are permitted or prohibited.[3]
 - Any of a number of system management tools, such as Microsoft's SMS or ASD, and
 - IPSEC, the network-level encryption mechanism for TCP/IP.

Components of a distributed firewall

- A central management system for designing the policies.
- Policy Distribution.
- Host end Implementation.

Central management system

Central Management, a component of distributed firewalls, makes it practical to secure enterprise-wide servers, desktops, laptops, and workstations. Central management provides greater control and efficiency and it decreases the maintenance costs of managing global security installations. This feature addresses the need to maximize network security resources by enabling policies to be centrally configured, deployed, monitored, and updated. From a single workstation, distributed firewalls can be scanned to understand the current operating policy and to determine if updating is required

Policy distribution

The policy distribution scheme should guarantee the integrity of the policy during transfer. The distribution of the policy can be different and varies with the implementation. It can be either directly pushed to end systems, or pulled when necessary. [3]

Host-end implementation

The security policies transmitted from the central management server have to be implemented by the host. The host end part of the Distributed Firewall does provide any administrative control for the network administrator to control the implementation of policies. The host allows traffic based on the security rules it has implemented.

Policy Language

Policy is enforced by each individual host that participates in a distributed firewall. The distributed firewall administrator—who is no longer necessarily the "local" administrator, since we are no longer constrained by topology—defines the security policy in terms of host identifiers. The resulting policy (probably, though not necessarily, compiled to some convenient internal format) is then shipped out, much like any other change. This policy file is consulted before processing incoming or outgoing messages, to verify their compliance. It is most natural to think of this happening at the network or transport layers, but policies and enforcement can equally well apply to the application layer.

Policy verification

Policy verification is enforced by the each incoming packet as per the user specified policy and also verifies the inconsistencies.

Policy validation

A policy validation method normally validating firewall security policy in a heterogeneous network with a complex layout. The policy validation system is concerned; there are two distinct kinds of failure.[13]

Host Failure Any of the network hosts can fail at any time. Generally, a host failure may be difficult to distinguish from a network failure, from the perspective of the rest of the network. Recovery, however, is somewhat different. The things that a node needs to keep track of—subordinates, ongoing tests, previous test results, commands, the node ID, and so forth—do not change very quickly, and it is possible to store all of that information on disk.. [13]

Network Failure The network can obviously fail at any time, or can simply not be laid out as expected. From this perspective, any command that gets lost can be viewed as an unexpected, failed network test. These can be ignored or reported to the root Manager in some way, as they indicate a network status that to the distributed firewall administrator. [13]

Distributed firewall policy Advisor (DFPA)

In DFPA techniques are simplifies the management of filtering rules and also maintain the strong security of firewalls.

The filtering rules and policy rules are implemented using java programming language in a software tool called DFPA. [6][7]

Specialized Database (SDB)

Database is nothing but collection of interrelated data and a set of programs to access those data. The collection of data usually referred to as Database (DB).

The current research propose the specialized database for allowing and storing of authorized and unauthorized database user according to policy verification and validation scheme.

III. THREAT COMPARISON

Distributed firewalls have both strengths and weaknesses when compared to conventional firewalls. By far the biggest difference is their reliance on topology. If your topology does not permit reliance on traditional firewall techniques. [5]

A. Service Exposure and Port Scanning

Both types of firewalls are excellent at rejecting connection requests for inappropriate services. Conventional firewalls drop the requests at the border; distributed firewalls do so at the host. A more interesting question is what is noticed by the host attempting to connect. Today, such packets are typically discarded, with no notification. A distributed firewall may choose to discard the packet, under the assumption that its legal peers know to use IPSEC; alternatively, it may instead send back a response requesting that the connection be authenticated, which in turn gives notice of the existence of the host.

Firewalls built on pure packet filters cannot reject some "stealth scans" very well. One technique, for example, uses fragmented packets that can pass through unexamined because the port numbers aren't present in the first fragment. A distributed firewall will reassemble the packet and then reject it.

B. Application-level Proxies

Some services require an application-level proxy. Conventional firewalls often have an edge here; the filtering code is complex and not generally available on host platforms. As noted, a hybrid technique can often be used to overcome this disadvantage.

In some cases, of course, application-level controls can avoid the problem entirely. If the security administrator can configure all Web browsers to reject ActiveX, there is no need to filter incoming HTML via a proxy.

In other cases, a suitably sophisticated IPSEC implementation will suffice. For example, there may be no need to use a proxy that scans outbound FTP control messages for PORT commands, if the kernel will permit an application that has opened an outbound connection to receive inbound connections. This is more or less what such a proxy would do.

C. Intrusion Detection

Many firewalls detect attempted intrusions. If that functionality is to be provided by a distributed firewall, each individual host has to notice probes and forward them to some central location for processing and correlation.

The former problem is not hard; many hosts already log such attempts. One can make a good case that such detection should be done in any event. Collection is more problematic, especially at times of poor connectivity to the central site. There is also the risk of co-ordinated attacks in effect causing a denial of service attack against the central machine.

D. Insider Attacks

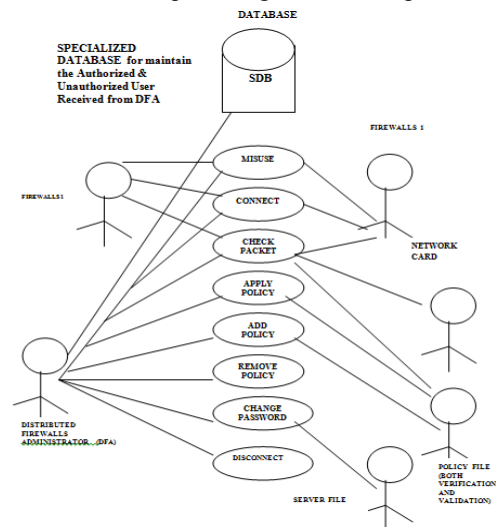
At first glance, the biggest weakness of distributed firewalls is their greater susceptibility to lack of cooperation by users. Although there are technical measures that can be taken, as discussed earlier, these are limited in their ability to cope with serious misbehavior. That said, we assert that this problem is not a real differentiator. Even conventional firewalls are easily subverted by an uncooperative insider. In other words, an insider who wishes to violate firewall policy, the firewall administrator filter that packet.

On the other hand, distributed firewalls can reduce the threat of actual attacks by insiders, simply by making it easier to set up smaller groups of users. Thus, one can restrict access to a file server to only those users who need it, rather than letting anyone inside the company pound on it.

IV. IMPLEMENTATION TECHNIQUES

A. Use case diagram

A use case is an interaction between users and a system; it captures the goal of the users and the responsibility of the system to its users. The current research in our implementation techniques diagrammatic representation as follows



It is an initiative way of describing the behavior of a system by viewing the interaction between the system and its environment.

List of actors in the distributed firewall

- Add policy
- Remove policy
- Apply policy
- Connect
- Disconnect
- Change password

- Misuse
- Check packets

Add policy

The distributed firewall administrator adds the policy to the firewall, which is stored in the temporary file.

Remove policy

The distributed firewall administrator removes the policy from the firewall, which is stored in the temporary file.

Apply policy

The distributed Firewall administrator updates the policy of the firewall from the temporary file.

Connect

Distributed firewall administrator to connect the system.

Successful case

Distributed firewall administrator makes a request control from the firewall, the control is granted.

Failure case

Firewall administrator makes a request to the firewall, as there is no firewall request gets timeout.

Disconnect

Distributed firewall administrator change to the new password by giving the old password and the new password.

Misuse

Firewall gives the blocked details to the firewall administrator which is stored in the misuse file and that can be viewed by the firewall administrator.

Check packet

Firewall checks the packets as per the user the policy.

V. RELATED WORK

Current research on distributed firewall for authorized and unauthorized database user according to the policy verification and validation mainly focus the following.

- 1) Maintaining the database for both authorized and unauthorized (ie. collecting the information from distributed firewall administrator).
- 2) Verifying and validating the security policy in the networks.
- 3) The testing and validating firewalls regularly.
- 4) Identify the Static and dynamic vulnerability analysis.
- 5) Strong Authentication and Authorization for each firewalls.

VI. CONCLUSION

The main objective of this research is to implement a authorized and unauthorized database user according to the policy verification and validation of distributed firewall under the specialized database (SDB). In distributed firewall environment in order to keep track of some certain actions in the first stage (Create, Read, Update, Delete) that are performed on the policy rule set. Then distributed firewall concept is explained and the comparison of two firewall designs is presented in terms of their performance in network security. The next stage is to give the details of distributed firewall environment for which the proposed the maintain specialized database is designed. Such an

application will be very helpful in network security management in protecting the consistency among the overall security policy. The data provided by the application can be used to implement more advanced tools like distributed firewall policy advisor tools (DFPA).

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Towards Secure Design Choices for Implementing Graphical Passwords

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GJCST Classification
D.4.6,K.6.5

Abstract—Access to computer systems is most often based on the use of alphanumeric passwords. However, users have difficulty remembering a password that is long and random appearing. Instead, they create short, simple, and insecure passwords. Graphical passwords have been designed to try to make passwords more memorable and easier for people to use and, therefore, more secure. Using a graphical password, users click on images rather than type alphanumeric characters. In this paper we describe the DAS (Draw-A-Secret) scheme, its security characteristics, and the empirical study we carried out comparing DAS to alphanumeric passwords. In the empirical study participants learned either an alphanumeric or graphical password and subsequently carried out three longitudinal trials to input their passwords over a period of five weeks. The results show that the graphical group took longer and made more errors in learning the password, but that the difference was largely a consequence of just a few graphical participants who had difficulty learning to use graphical passwords. In the longitudinal trials the two groups performed similarly on memory of their password, but the graphical group took more time to input a password.

I. INTRODUCTION

Until recently computer and network security has been formulated as a technical problem. However, it is now widely recognized that most security mechanisms cannot succeed without taking into account the user (Patrick, Long, & Flinn, 2003). A key area in security research is authentication, the determination of whether a user should be allowed access to a given system or resource. Traditionally, alphanumeric passwords have been used for authentication, but they are known to have security and usability problems. Today other methods, including graphical passwords, are possible alternatives. This paper reports on research aimed to design a new kind of graphical password system, empirically test its usability, and compare it to alphanumeric passwords. The significance of this research is the provision of a flexible graphical password system with extensive human factors data to support it. We refer to the security and usability problems associated with alphanumeric passwords as “the password problem” (Wiedenbeck, Waters, Birget, Broditskiy & Memon, 2005). The problem arises because passwords are expected to comply with two fundamentally conflicting requirements:

- 1) Passwords should be easy to remember, and the user authentication protocol should be executable quickly and easily by humans.
- 2) Passwords should be secure, i.e., they should look random and should be hard to guess; they should be changed frequently, and should be different on different accounts of the same user; they should not be written down or stored in plain text.

This problem has led to innovations to improve passwords.

One innovation is graphical passwords, i.e., passwords that are based on images rather than alphanumeric strings. The basic idea is that using images will lead to greater memorability and decrease the tendency to choose insecure passwords. This, in turn, should increase overall password security. Several graphical password systems, described in the next section, have been developed and some HCI evaluation has been done.

II. BACKGROUND ON PASSWORDS

A. Problems with Alphanumeric Passwords

The password problem arises largely from limitations of humans' long-term memory (LTM). Once a password has been chosen and learned the user must be able to recall it to log in. But, people regularly forget their passwords. Decay and interference explain why people forget their passwords. Items in memory may compete with a password and prevent its accurate recall (Wixted, 2004). If a password is not used frequently it will be even more susceptible to forgetting. A further complication is that users have many passwords for computers, networks, and web sites. The large number of passwords increases interference and is likely to lead to forgetting or confusing passwords. Users typically cope with the password problem by decreasing their memory load at the expense of security. First, they write down their passwords (Adams & Sasse, 1999). Second, when they have multiple passwords, they use one password for all systems or trivial variations of a single password. In terms of security, a password should consist of a string of 8 or more random characters, including upper and lower case alphabetic characters, digits, and special characters. A random password does not have meaningful content and must be memorized by rote, but rote learning is a weak way of remembering (Rundus, 1971). As a result, users are known to ignore the recommendations on password choice. Two recent surveys have shown that users choose short, simple passwords that are easily guessable, for example, “password,” personal names of family members, names of pets, and dictionary words (Sasse et al., 2001; Brown, Bracken, Zoccoli, & Douglas, 2004). To users the

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most important issue is having a password that can be remembered reliably and input quickly. They are unlikely to give priority to security over their immediate need to get on with their real work.

B. Why Graphical Passwords?

Graphical passwords were originally described by Blonder (1996). In his description of the concept an image would appear on the screen, and the user would click on a few chosen regions of it. If the correct regions were clicked in, the user would be authenticated. Memory of passwords and efficiency of their input are two key human factors criteria. Memorability has two aspects: (1) how the user chooses and encodes the password and (2) what task the user does when later retrieving the password. In a graphical password system, a user needs to choose memorable locations in an image. Choosing memorable locations depends on the nature of the image itself and the specific sequence of click locations. To support memorability, images should have semantically meaningful content because meaning for arbitrary things is poor (Norman, 1988). This suggests that jumbled or abstract images will be less memorable than concrete, real-world scenes. LTM does not store a replica of the image itself, but rather a meaningful interpretation (Mandler & Ritchey, 1977). To retrieve the locations a user will be dependent on the encoding used while learning. A poor encoding will hurt retrieval by failing to distinguish similar objects. Depending on the graphical password system, at retrieval time users will be presented with either a recognition task or a cued recall task. In a graphical password system based on recognition, the user has to be able only to recognize previously seen images, making a binary choice of whether the image is known or not known. Recognition is an easier memory task than pure, unaided recall (Norman, 1988). In our password system we use an intermediary form of recollection between pure recall and recognition, cued recall. Scanning an image to find previously chosen locations in it is cued recall because viewing the image reminds, or cues, users about their click areas. Psychologists have shown that with both recognition and recall tasks, images are more memorable than words or sentences (Shepherd, 1967; Paivio, Rogers & Smythe, 1972; Standing, 1973). This is encouraging in terms of memory for graphical passwords. Efficiency is important in password systems because users want to have quick access to systems. The time to input a graphical password by a highly skilled, automated user can be predicted by Fitts' Law (1954). The law states that the time to point to a target depends on the distance and size of the target - greater distance and smaller targets lead to slower performance. Existing evidence suggests that alphanumeric passwords may be faster to input than graphical passwords (Dhamija & Perrig, 2000). However, the question remains how big the difference may be.

III. PROCEDURE TO IMPLEMENT

Drawing a password on a grid.
Passwords are a series of strokes,

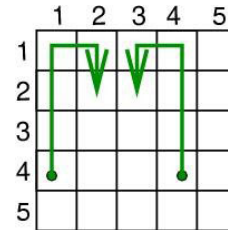
separated by "pen-up" events.

Picture maps to a sequence of (x, y) points (e.g. (1,4), (1, 3), (1,2), (1,1), (2,1), (2,2)).

Strength in temporal order.

Length is the sum of the number of cells in each stroke (excluding pen-ups), e.g. 12 in diagram to right.

Stroke-count is the number of strokes in a password (e.g. 2).



A. Important points

Motivation: Gain understanding of how certain parameters we call password complexity properties affect the security of graphical passwords (to aid in better design choices, password rules, and mnemonics).

We identify a set of complexity properties based on a set of pattern complexity factors from Attneave [1].

We refer to passwords that minimize their complexity properties to be probable passwords, belonging to the probable space.

B. Results

We identified a complexity property with a significant impact on the password space: strokecount. X.Larger impact than other complexity properties.Evidence users will choose low X (e.g. 4).We look at ways to increase security of graphical password implementations in light of these results.

The graphical password scheme we examined (DAS). Our definition of graphical password complexity properties. Results of examining complexity properties in relation to DAS. Methods to increase the DAS password space. Security implications and recommendations. Parameters that we hypothesize would adversely affect memorability, which we call complexity properties. In textual passwords, these factors could be length, and the amount of numbers, special characters, etc

A. Complexity Properties Identified

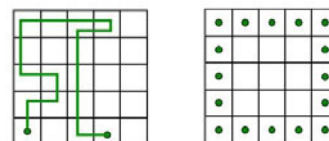
We identify a set of complexity properties based on a set of visual pattern complexity factors from Attneave:

Password-length

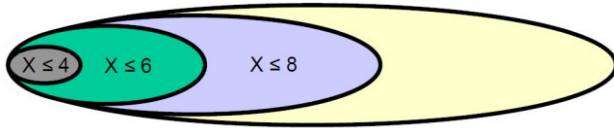
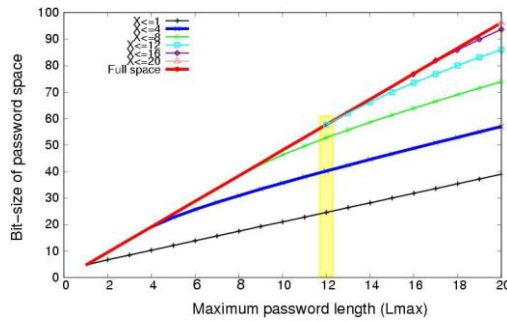
Stroke-count.

Symmetry (examined in previous work).

Number of turns (likely deserves its own study).

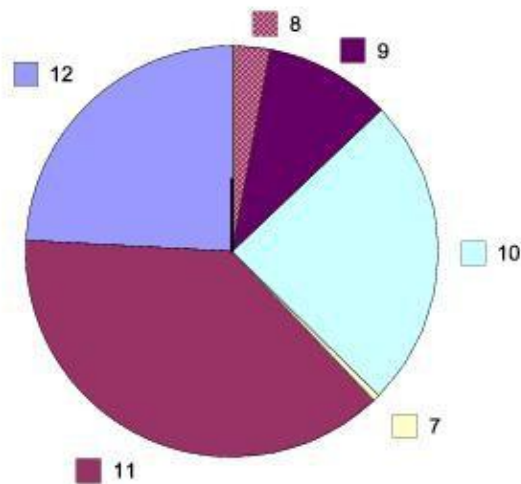


B. Maximum Stroke-count(X) and Length



C. Stroke-count (X)

12 dots (24%), 10 dots, 1 line (38%)
Proportion of password space attributable to passwords consisting of exactly X strokes.
Here $L_{max} = 12$, on a 5 by 5 grid.
Note that for 6 or fewer strokes, the proportion is so small it is not visible

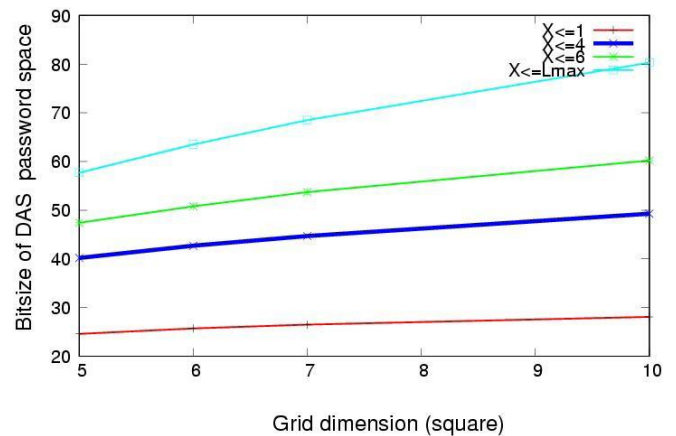


D. Security implications

These values are for $L_{max}=12$, 5 by 5 grid.
 X = stroke-count.
Key point is relative times.
We think $X \leq 4$ is more representative of what users would choose.

Password set	Time to exhaust(1CPU-32GHz)
Full DAS	541.8 Years
$X < 6$	157.1 Days
$X < 4$	1.1 Days
$X < 1$	1.9 Seconds

E. Increasing DAS's Password Space -Increasing Grid size



In the above graph, $L_{max} = 12$. Less than expected increase achieved, especially when $X \leq L_{max}/2$.

Password now becomes a combination of the drawing grid chosen, and the drawing itself. Amount of extra security achieved depends on selection grid size, and minimum/maximum accepted drawing grid dimensions.e.g. 30 by 30 selection grid, minimum 5, maximum 10 grid dimension provides 16 bits

F. Resulting Recommendations

DAS Password rules:

At least one stroke of length 1.

A stroke-count of at least

$L_{max}/2$.

Avoid global symmetry

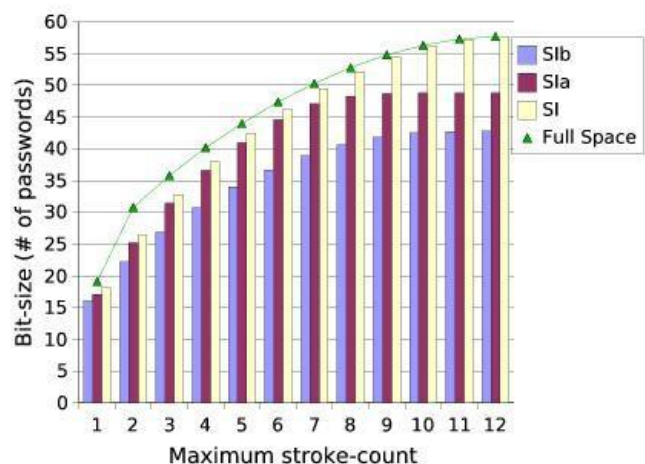
(Usenix Security 2004).

Implementation decisions:

Increasing grid size provides low payback if users choose passwords with a low strokecount (likely).

Grid selection (or related variation) should be implemented to increase the DAS space.

G. Summary of Current Knowledge



IV. Future Work

Alternate encodings for DAS to increase size of password space (and decrease number of passwords “disallowed”). A better understanding of the breakdown of what users have the most difficulty recalling, leading to a more formal definition of complexity properties. Perhaps sacrificing the most difficult to recall parts of DAS to encourage users to choose more strokes would be useful (e.g. direction of strokes). Password set Time to exhaust(1CPU-32GHz) Full DAS 541.8 Years
 $X < 6$ 157.1 Days $X < 4$ 1.1 Days $X < 1$ 1.9 Seconds
 Psychology studies to see how parameters such as stroke-count and temporal order affect memory. Stroke-count is the complexity property with the largest impact on DAS’ s password space. A more viable attack strategy for DAS passwords than previous work. Secure design choices in implementations: Grid selection instead of simple grid size increase. Password rules: user guidelines and proactive checking.

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Cognitive Radio Networks for Wireless Communication

GJCST Classification
C.2.1

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Abstract—The world of wireless communications is nowadays facing a serious problem of spectrum shortage. Such problem is not only due to "real" limitations on the available bandwidth, but also (and mainly) to inefficient policies in spectrum management. Indeed, today's wireless networks are characterized by a fixed spectrum assignment policy, which often leads to waste large spectrum portions due to sporadic utilization by the licensed users. The recent advances in the field of software defined radios are pushing forward a novel networking paradigm where all the users or part of them access the spectrum in an opportunistic way. A common cognitive radio network model features the presence of primary (or licensed) users who have priority access to the bandwidth, whereas secondary users can access the bandwidth only when vacated by the primary ones. Moreover, the strict constraint for the secondary users is not to harm primary users' transmissions.

Keywords—Full Cognitive Radio, Spectrum Sensing Cognitive Radio, Licensed Band Cognitive Radio, Unlicensed Band Cognitive Radio

I. INTRODUCTION

The idea of cognitive radio was first presented officially by Joseph Mitola III in a seminar at KTH, The Royal Institute of Technology, in 1998, published later in an article by Mitola and Gerald Q. Maguire, Jr in 1999. [1] It was a novel approach in wireless communications that Mitola later described as: The point in which wireless personal digital assistants (PDAs) and the related networks are sufficiently computationally intelligent about radio resources and related computer-to-computer communications to detect user communications needs as a function of use context, and to provide radio resources and wireless services most appropriate to those needs. It was thought of as an ideal goal towards which a software-defined radio platform should evolve: a fully reconfigurable wireless black box that automatically changes its communication variables in response to network and user demands. Regulatory bodies in various countries (including the Federal Communications Commission in the United States and Ofcom in the United Kingdom) found that most of the radio frequency spectrum was inefficiently utilized. For example, cellular network bands are over loaded in most parts of the world, but amateur radio and paging frequencies are not. Independent

studies performed in some countries confirmed that observation, and concluded that spectrum utilization depends strongly on time and place. Moreover, fixed spectrum allocation prevents rarely used frequencies (those assigned to specific services) from being used by unlicensed users, even when their transmissions would not interfere at all with the assigned service. This was the reason for allowing unlicensed users to utilize licensed bands whenever it would not cause any interference (by

Avoiding them whenever legitimate user presence is sensed). This paradigm for wireless communication is known as cognitive radio.

Depending on the set of parameters taken into account in deciding on transmission and reception changes, and for historical reasons, we can distinguish certain types of cognitive radio. The main two are Full Cognitive Radio ("Mitola radio"): in which every possible parameter observable by a wireless node or network is taken into account.

Spectrum Sensing Cognitive Radio: in which only the radio frequency spectrum is considered. Also, depending on the parts of the spectrum available for cognitive radio, we can distinguish:

Licensed Band Cognitive Radio: in which cognitive radio is capable of using bands assigned to licensed users, apart from unlicensed bands, such as U-NII band or ISM band. The IEEE 802.22 working group is developing a standard for wireless regional area network (WRAN) which will operate in unused television channels.

Unlicensed Band Cognitive Radio: which can only utilize unlicensed parts of radio frequency spectrum. One such system is described in the IEEE 802.15 Task group 2 specification. Which focuses on the coexistence of IEEE 802.11 and Bluetooth.

II. TECHNOLOGY

Although cognitive radio was initially thought of as a software-defined radio extension (Full Cognitive Radio), most of the research work is currently focusing on Spectrum Sensing Cognitive Radio, particularly in the TV bands. The essential problem of Spectrum Sensing Cognitive Radio is in designing high quality spectrum sensing devices and algorithms for exchanging spectrum sensing data between nodes. It has been shown that a simple energy detector cannot guarantee the accurate detection of signal presence, calling for more sophisticated spectrum sensing techniques and requiring information about spectrum sensing to be exchanged between nodes regularly. Increasing the number of cooperating sensing nodes decreases the probability of

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false detection.[12] Filling free radio frequency bands adaptively using OFDMA is a possible approach. Timo A. Weiss and Friedrich K. Jondral of the University of Karlsruhe proposed a Spectrum Pooling system[5] in which free bands sensed by nodes were immediately filled by OFDMA sub bands. Applications of Spectrum Sensing Cognitive Radio include emergency networks and WLAN higher throughput and transmission distance extensions. Evolution of Cognitive Radio toward Cognitive Networks is under process, in which Cognitive Wireless Mesh Network (e.g. CogMesh) is considered as one of the enabling candidates aiming at realizing this paradigm change.

III. COGNITIVE SYSTEM

We can exploit the information from physical and link layer to help routing protocol in making various routing decisions. By exploiting radio layer information routing protocol can: Differentiate routes depending on channel type due to changing propagation characteristics of various radio links. This leads to better QoS when compared to algorithm taking into account number of hops only. Increase nodes connectivity due to wider set of available radio links and available longer transmission distances: any cognitive radio node is capable of transmitting with broad set of frequencies, i.e. UNII and USM band [4] or UNII, USM and TV band [1]. By utilizing simple measure that the higher the frequency the shorter the transmission distance, routing algorithm may decide which radio link should be used for specific hop. It has very important implications to emergency network since high frequency signals have bigger problems with thick objects penetration. It is why routing has to utilize the channel information and send high priority packets on highly resilient channels (lower frequency channels).

- Detect faster link failures.
- Perform more efficient multicast due to increased connectivity.

IV. COGNITIVE RADIO SYSTEM

It is already known that physical and data link layer protocols designed for standard fixed bandwidth ad hoc networks must be changed and adapted to cognitive radio environment to effectively utilize spectrum information. The role of those modified layers of the protocol stack is to manage radio resources in the way appropriate for the nodes in the whole CRN. The remaining layers might be adapted explicitly to cognitive radio networks. Indeed in authors claim that higher layers [above link layer] will implement standard protocols not specific to cognitive radios. However it is valuable to examine in the AAF project the impact of cognitive radio capabilities on routing protocols in ad-hoc networks (application layer is beyond the scope of the AAF project). Especially the project should answer the question what is the benefit for routing protocols from introducing cognitive capabilities to network nodes in terms of:

- Time constraints: route setup time and end-to-end latency;

- Casting issues (multicast, broadcast, geocast and unicast);
- Throughput: overhead value, overall transmitted traffic value, packet loss value;□
- Route quality: route length, route discovery and reconstruction time.

V. MAIN FUNCTIONS

The main functions of Cognitive Radios are:

Spectrum Sensing: detecting the unused spectrum and sharing it without harmful interference with other users, it is an important requirement of the Cognitive Radio network to sense spectrum holes, detecting primary users is the most efficient way to detect spectrum holes. Spectrum sensing techniques can be classified into three categories:

Transmitter detection: cognitive radios must have the capability to determine if a signal from a primary transmitter is locally present in a certain spectrum, there are several approaches proposed:

- matched filter detection
- energy detection
- cyclostationary feature detection
- Interference based detection

Cooperative detection: refers to spectrum sensing methods where information from multiple Cognitive radio users are incorporated for primary user detection.

Spectrum Management: Capturing the best available spectrum to meet user communication requirements. Cognitive radios should decide on the best spectrum band to meet the Quality of service requirements over all available spectrum bands, therefore spectrum management functions are required for Cognitive radios, these management functions can be classified as:

- Spectrum analysis
- Spectrum decision

Spectrum Mobility: is defined as the process when a cognitive radio user exchanges its frequency of operation. Cognitive radio networks target to use the spectrum in a dynamic manner by allowing the radio terminals to operate in the best available frequency band, maintaining seamless communication requirements during the transition to better spectrum

Spectrum Sharing: providing the fair spectrum scheduling method, one of the major challenges in open spectrum usage is the spectrum sharing. It can be regarded to be similar to generic media access control MAC problems in existing systems

VI. COGNITIVE RADIO (CR) VERSUS INTELLIGENT ANTENNA (IA)

Intelligent antenna (or smart antenna) is antenna technology that uses spatial beam forming and spatial coding to cancel interference; however, it requires intelligent multiple or cooperative antenna array. On the other hand, cognitive radio (CR) allows user terminals to sense whether a portion of the spectrum is being used or not, so as to share the spectrum among neighbor users. The following table compares the different points between two advanced

approaches for the future wireless systems: Cognitive radio (CR) vs. Intelligent antenna (IA).

Point	Cognitive radio (CR)	Intelligent antenna (IA)
Principal goal	Open Spectrum Sharing	Ambient Reuse Spatial
Interference processing	Avoidance by spectrum sensing	Cancellation by spatial pre/post-coding
Key cost	Spectrum sensing multi-band RF	Multiple and cooperative antenna arrays
Challenging algorithm	Spectrum management tech	Intelligent beam forming/coding tech
Applied techniques	Cognitive Software Radio	Generalized Dirty-Paper and Wyner-Ziv coding
Basement approach	Orthogonal modulation	Cellular based smaller cell
Competitive technology	Ultra wideband for the higher band utilization	Multi-sectoring (3, 6, 9, so on) for higher spatial reuse
Summary	Cognitive spectrum sharing technology	Intelligent spectrum reuse technology

Intelligent antenna (IA) is antenna technology which exploits electronic intelligence to enhance the performance of radio communication systems, as well as being used to enhance the performance of free band systems. For instance, IA-based multiple antenna terminals enable to communicate multiple radio links simultaneously up to the number of embedded multiple antennas.

Dirty paper coding (DPC)-pre-cancels the known interference signal at the transmitter without the additional transmit power regardless of knowing the interference at the receiver, which can be used to optimize cognitive wireless network channels.

VII. SECURITY

One of the factors which should be considered during design process of CRN emergency network is security of the network infrastructure and security of transmitted information. Without proper network security terrorists responsible for the disaster would be able to eavesdrop emergency information and utilize it for future attacks. Moreover the network elements due to their poor security could become a target of attack itself. Because cognitive radio constitute a new approach for building wireless networks it simultaneously opens a door for new methods of attacks on their physical structure. Below we outline some of the possible methods of attacks on CRN and ways of prevention:

Licensed user emulation attack: Because cognitive radios cannot be completely sure whether a licensed spectrum is free and available for transmission they simply defer from licensed bands and utilize other non-licensed parts of the band if they are not sure if it is really free. Suppose that attacker knows in which

specific area CRN works. Knowing which licensed bands CRN might use attacker can simply transmit signal in the licensed band emulating real transmission and thus limiting overall CRN capacity. Until now we don't know any method of prevention against this attack.

Common control channel jamming: One of the possible solutions for common control channel deployment is the UWB. In this case, potential attacker can simply transmit periodical pulses which have the same spectrum as common control channel of CRN but with higher power than legitimate users. Throughout jamming of just one channel attacker blocks the possibility of communication between all CR nodes. This is the reason for building sophisticated UWB transmission methods for control channels utilizing UWB. It has to be underlined that a need for special care of control channel is the same for any type of approach (dedicated channel, channel hopping etc.).

Attacks on spectrum managers: We cannot allow having one central spectrum manager responsible for assigning frequency bands for nodes (see paragraph 2.3) because it constitutes a single point of attack. Whenever the spectrum manager is not available for CR nodes the communication process becomes impossible. That is why information about spectrum availability should be as distributed and replicated as possible. This constraint is in line with the requirement for more accurate measurements of spectrum availability. One of the preventing ways for this attack is to use specific pilot channel in each license band. It would inform secondary users about the reservation of the nodes.

Eavesdropping: Usually in the infrastructure-based corporate WLAN it was assumed that signal will not leave building due to its short distance and will be limited to eavesdropping and sniffing. However cognitive radios are allowed to work in the bands lower than UNII and ISM. This means that they can perform longer transmission distances with the same powers. It also allows for easy physical data collection from locations far distanced from CRN location where attackers invisible to emergency services. This yields a need for strong data encryption at the physical level. Frequent leaving and joining the emergency network must be preceded by authentication process. It is open for discussion which layer should be responsible for this step. Currently the most possible approach is that application layer will perform all the necessary authentication procedures. Moreover the entire WEP infrastructure should be the basis for authentication procedures in CRNs.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The rapidly changing radio environment, more radio channels to utilize, number of parameters to choose during decisions taken by MAC and routing protocols, etc. makes design of CRNs very challenging. In this deliverable we

have outlined some specific parameters and constraints which have to be taken into consideration while designing protocols for layers above PHY. Many protocols have the same design requirements (like robustness, no clock synchronization or localizing capabilities) which simplify design by small fraction. Moreover we can state that UWB as a common control channel might become a good solution for realizing certain functions outlined in this document. We also outline that cooperation between physical and link layer is essential for accurate operation of CRN. We have to emphasize that new requirements might occur during design process so this document will be constantly updated.

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Dynamic Discoverability and Automatic Configuration Using Trustworthy Computing on the Web

GJCST Classification
H.5.3.H.3.5

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Abstract—While many technologies that make use of computing have proven themselves extremely reliable and trustworthy—computers helped transport people to the moon and back, they control critical aircraft systems for millions of flight every year, and they move trillions of dollars around the globe daily—they generally haven't reached the point where people are willing to entrust them with their lives, implicitly or explicitly. Many people are reluctant to entrust today's computer systems with their personal information, such as financial and medical records, because they are increasingly concerned about the security and reliability of these systems, which they view as posing significant societal risk. If computing is to become truly ubiquitous—and fulfill the immense promise of technology—we will have to make the computing ecosystem sufficiently trustworthy that people don't worry about its fallibility or unreliability the way they do today.

I. INTRODUCTION

Trust is a broad concept, and making something trustworthy requires a social infrastructure as well as solid engineering. All systems fail from time to time; the legal and commercial practices within which they're embedded can compensate for the fact that no technology will ever be perfect. Hence this is not only a struggle to make software trustworthy; because computers have to some extent already lost people's trust, we will have to overcome a legacy of machines that fail, software that fails, and systems that fail. We will have to persuade people that the systems, the software, the services, the people, and the companies have all, collectively, achieved a new level of availability, dependability, and confidentiality. We will have to overcome the distrust that people now feel for computers. The Trustworthy Computing Initiative is a label for a whole range of advances that have to be made for people to be as comfortable using devices powered by computers and software as they are today using a device that is powered by electricity. It may take us ten to fifteen years to get there, both as an industry and as a society. This is a "sea change" not only in the way we write and deliver software, but also in the way our society views computing generally. There are immediate problems to be solved, and fundamental open research questions. There are

Actions that individuals and companies can and should take, but there are also problems that can only be solved collectively by consortia, research communities, nations, and the world as a whole.

II. TRUSTWORTHY COMPUTING

Computing devices and information services will only be truly pervasive when they are so dependable that we can just forget about them. In other words, at a time where computers are starting to find their way into just about every aspect of our life, we need to be able to trust them. Yet the way we build computers, and the way that we now build services around those computers, hasn't really changed that much in the last 30 or 40 years. It will need to.

III. A FRAMEWORK FOR TRUSTWORTHY COMPUTING

We failed to find an existing taxonomy that could provide a framework for discussing Trustworthy Computing. There is no shortage of trust initiatives, but the focus of each is narrow. For example, there are treatments of trust in e-commerce transactions and trust between authentication systems, and analyses of public perceptions of computing, but a truly effective approach needs to integrate engineering, policy, and user attitudes. Even just on the engineering side, our scope is broader than, say, the SysTrust/SAS70 models, which deal purely with large online systems. First, there are the machines themselves. They need to be reliable enough that we can embed them in all kinds of devices—in other words, they shouldn't fail more frequently than other similarly important technologies in our lives. Then there's the software that operates those machines: do people trust it to be equally reliable? And finally there are the service components, which are also largely software-dependent. This is a particularly complicated problem, because today we have to build dependability into an end-to-end, richly interconnected (and sometimes federated) system. Since trust is a complex concept, it is helpful to analyze the objective of Trustworthy Computing from a number of different perspectives. We define three dimensions with which to describe different perspectives on trust: Goals, Means, and Execution.

IV. GOALS

The Goals consider trust from the user's point of view. The key questions are: Is the technology there when I need it? Does it keep my confidential information safe? Does it do

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what it's supposed to do? And do the people who own and operate the business that provides it always do the right

Goals	The basis for a customer's decision to trust a system
Security	The customer can expect that systems are resilient to attack, and that the confidentiality, integrity, and availability of the system and its data are protected.
Privacy	The customer is able to control data about themselves, and those using such data adhere to fair information principles
Reliability	The customer can depend on the product to fulfill its functions when required to do so.
Business Integrity	The vendor of a product behaves in a responsive and responsible manner.

V. MEANS

Once the Goals are in place, we can look at the problem from the industry's point of view. Means are the business and engineering considerations that are employed to meet the Goals; they are the nuts and bolts of a trustworthy service. Whereas the Goals are largely oriented towards the end-user, the Means are inwardly facing, intra-company considerations. Think of the Goals as what is delivered, and the Means as how.

VI. EXECUTION

Execution is the way an organization conducts its operations to deliver the components required for Trustworthy Computing. There are three aspects to this: Intents, Implementation, and Evidence. Intents are the corporate and legislative guidance that sets requirements for the design, implementation, and support of the product. Implementation is the business process that operationalizes the Intents. Evidence is the mechanism by which we verify that the Implementation has delivered on the Intent. This problem can only be tackled by working on two parallel tracks. The first track is the immediate problems—what people read and worry about every day. We need to address known current problems and mitigate currently known weaknesses. This is also a way to learn about the more fundamental problems. We need to be as well-informed as we can about what is really going on and what we can and cannot fix within the constraints of the current systems. The computer industry needs to identify and solve the most critical challenges, and fold the solutions in an incremental

thing? These are the goals that any Trustworthy Computing has to meet:

Means	The business and engineering considerations that enable a system supplier to deliver on the Goals
Secure by Design, Secure by Default, Secure Deployment	Steps have been taken to protect the confidentiality, integrity, and availability of data and systems at every phase of the software development process—from design, to delivery, to maintenance.
Fair Information Principles	End-user data is never collected and shared with people or organizations without the consent of the individual. Privacy is respected when information is collected, stored, and used consistent with Fair Information Practices.
Availability	The system is present and ready for use as required.
Manageability	The system is easy to install and manage, relative to its size and complexity. (Scalability, efficiency and cost-effectiveness are considered to be part of manageability.)
Accuracy	The system performs its functions correctly. Results of calculations are free from error, and data is protected from loss or corruption.
Usability	The software is easy to use and suitable to the user's needs.
Responsiveness	The company accepts responsibility for problems, and takes action to correct them. Help is provided to customers in planning for, installing and operating the product.
Transparency	The company is open in its dealings with customers. Its motives are clear, it keeps its word, and customers know where they stand in a transaction or interaction with the company.

way into the huge legacy systems that have been built. There will be long technological replacement cycle during which the critical infrastructure systems that society depends on are gradually upgraded to a new and improved status. If these systems already exist, people are not just going to throw them out the

window and start over from scratch. So we have to identify critical infrastructure and systems weaknesses and upgrade them on a high-priority basis, and ensure that new infrastructures are built on sound principles.

VII. FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEMS POLICY

Society is only now coming to grips with the fact that it is critically dependent on computers. The computer industry must find the appropriate balance between the need for a regulatory regime and the impulses of an industry that has grown up unregulated and relying upon de facto standards. Many contemporary infrastructure reliability problems are really policy issues. The poor coverage and service of US cellular service providers is due in part to the FCC's policy of not granting nationwide licenses. These policy questions often cross national borders, as illustrated by the struggle to establish global standards for third-generation cellular technologies. Existing users of spectrum (often the military) occupy different bands in different countries, and resist giving them up, making it difficult to find common spectrum worldwide.

VIII. PROCESSING COMPLEXITY

We are seeing the advent of mega-scale computing systems built out of loose affiliations of services, machines, and application software. The emergent (and very different) behavior of such systems is a growing long-term risk. An architecture built on diversity is robust, but it also operates on the edge of chaos. This holds true in all very-large-scale systems, from natural systems like the weather to human-made systems like markets and the power grid. All the previous mega-scale systems that we've built—the power grid, the telephone systems—have experienced unpredictable emergent behavior. That is why in 1965 the power grid failed and rippled down the whole East Coast of the United States, and that's why whole cities occasionally drop off the telephone network when somebody implements a bug fix on a single switch. The complexity of the system has outstripped the ability of any one person—or any single entity—to understand all of the interactions. Incredibly secure and trustworthy computer systems exist today, but they are largely independent, single-purpose systems that are meticulously engineered and then isolated. We really don't know what's going to happen as we dynamically stitch together billions—perhaps even trillions—of intelligent and interdependent devices that span many different types and generations of software and architectures. As the power of computers increase, in both storage and computational capacity, the absolute scale, and complexity of the attendant software goes up accordingly. This manifests itself in many ways, ranging from how you administer these machines to how you know when they are broken, how you repair them, and how you add more capability. All these aspects ultimately play into whether people perceive the system as trustworthy.

IX. MACHINE-TO-MACHINE PROCESSES

The Web Services model is characterized by computing at the edge of the network. Peer-to-peer applications will be the rule, and there will be distributed processing and storage. An administrative regime for such a system requires sophisticated machine-to-machine processes. Data

will be self-describing. Machines will loosely couple, self-configure, and self-organize. They will manage themselves to conform to policy set at the center. Web applications will have to be designed to operate in an asynchronous world. In the PC paradigm, a machine knows where its peripherals are; the associations have been established (by the user or by software) at some point in the past. When something disrupts that synchronicity, the software sometimes simply hangs or dies. Improved plug-and-play device support in Windows XP and "hot-pluggable" architectures such as USB and IEEE 1394 point the way toward a truly "asynchronous" PC, but these dependencies do still exist at times. On the Web, however, devices come and go, and latency is highly variable. Robust Web architectures need dynamic discoverability and automatic configuration. If you accept the idea that everything is loosely coupled and asynchronous, you introduce even more opportunities for failure. For every potential interaction, you have to entertain the idea that it won't actually occur, because the Web is only a "best-effort" mechanism—if you click and get no result, you click again. Every computing system therefore has to be redesigned to recover from failed interactions.

X. IDENTITY

Questions of identity are sometimes raised in the context of Trustworthy Computing. Identity is not explicitly called out in the framework, because a user does not expect a computer system to generate their identity. However, user identity is a core concept against which services are provided. Assertions of identity (that is, authentication) need to be robust, so that taking actions that depend on identity (that is, authorization) can be done reliably. Hence, users expect their identities to be safe from unwanted use. Identity is difficult to define in general, but particularly so in the digital realm. We use the working definition that identity is the persistent, collective aspects of a set of distinguishing characteristics by which a person (or thing) is recognizable or known. Identity is diffuse and context-dependent because these aspect "snippets" are stored all over the place in digital, physical, and emotional form. Some of this identity is "owned" by the user, but a lot of it is conferred by others, either legally (for example, by governments or companies) or as informal social recognition.

Many elements of Trustworthy Computing systems impinge on identity. Users worry about the privacy of computer systems in part because they realize that seemingly unrelated aspects of their identity can be reassembled more easily when the snippets are in digital form. This is best evidenced by growing public fear of credit-card fraud and identity theft as a result of the relative transparency and anonymity of the Internet versus offline transactions, even though both crimes are equally possible in the physical world. Users expect that information about themselves, including those aspects that make up identity, are not disclosed in unapproved ways.

XI. PEOPLE

It's already challenging to manage extremely large networks of computers, and it's just getting harder. The immensity of this challenge has been masked by the fact that up to this point we have generally hired professionals to manage large systems. The shortcomings of the machines, the networks, the administration, the tools, and the applications themselves are often mitigated by talented systems managers working hard to compensate for the fact that these components don't always work as expected or desired. Many of the system failures that get a lot of attention happen because of system complexity. People make an administrator error, fail to install a patch, or configure a firewall incorrectly, and a simple failure cascades into a catastrophic one. There is a very strong dependency on human operators doing the right thing, day in and day out.

There are already too few knowledgeable administrators, and we're losing ground. Worse, the needs of administration are evolving beyond professional IT managers. On the one hand we are at the point where even the best operators struggle: systems are changing too rapidly for people to comprehend. On the other, the bulk of computers will eventually end up in nonmanaged environments that people own, carry around with them, or have in their car or their house. We therefore need to make it easier for people to get the right thing to happen consistently with minimal human intervention. We must aim towards a point where decision-makers can set policy and have it deployed to thousands of machines without significant ongoing effort in writing programs, pulling levers, and pushing buttons on administrators' consoles.

The industry can address this in any of a number of ways. Should we actually write software in a completely different way? Should we have system administrators at all? Or should we be developing machines that are able to administer other machines without routine human intervention?

XII. PROGRAMMING TOOLS

Each of these approaches requires new classes of software. As the absolute number and complexity of machines goes up, the administration problem outstrips the availability and capability of trained people. The result is that people in the programming tools community are going to have to think about developing better ways to write programs. People who historically think about how to manage computers are going to have to think about how computers can become more self-organizing and self-managing. We need to continue to improve programming tools, because programming today is too error-prone. But current tools don't adequately support the process because of the number of abstraction layers that require foreground management. In other words, the designer needs not only to consider system architecture and platform/library issues, but also everything from performance, localization, and maintainability to data structures, multithreading and memory management. There is little support for programming in parallel, most control structures are built sequentially and the entire process is

painfully sequential. And that is just in development; at the deployment level it is incredibly difficult to test for complex interactions of systems, versions, and the huge range in deployment environments. There is also the increasing diffusion of tools that offer advanced development functionality to a wider population but do not help novice or naive users write good code. There are also issues around long-term perspectives: for example, tools don't support "sunset-ing" or changing trends in capability, storage, speed, and so on. Think of the enormous effort devoted to Y2K because programmers of the 1960s and 1970s did not expect their code would still be in use on machines that far outstripped the capabilities of the machines of that era.

XIII. INTEROPERABILITY

The growth of the Internet was proof that interoperable technologies—from TCP/IP to HTTP—are critical to building large-scale, multipurpose computing systems that people find useful and compelling. (Similarly, interoperable standards, enforced by technology, policy or both, have driven the success of many other technologies, from railroads to television.) It is obvious and unavoidable that interoperable systems will drive computing for quite some time. But interoperability presents a unique set of problems for the industry, in terms of technologies, policies and business practices. Current "trustworthy" computing systems, such as the air-traffic-control network, are very complex and richly interdependent, but they are also engineered for a specific purpose, rarely modified, and strictly controlled by a central authority. The question remains whether a distributed, loosely organized, flexible, and dynamic computing system—dependent on interoperable technologies—can ever reach the same level of reliability and trustworthiness. Interoperability also poses a problem in terms of accountability and trust, in that responsibility for shortcomings is more difficult to assign. If today's Internet—built on the principle of decentralization and collective management—were to suffer some kind of massive failure, who is held responsible? One major reason why people are reluctant to trust the Internet is that they can't easily identify who is responsible for its shortcomings—would you blame for a catastrophic network outage, or the collapse of the Domain Name System? If we are to create and benefit from a massively interoperable (and interdependent) system that people can trust, we must clearly draw the lines as to who is accountable for what.

XIV. CONCEPTUAL MODELS

We face a fundamental problem with Trustworthy Computing: computer science lacks a theoretical framework. Computer security—itself just one component of Trustworthy Computing—has largely been treated as an offshoot of communications security, which is based on cryptography. Cryptography has a solid mathematical basis, but is clearly inadequate for addressing the problems of trusted systems. The computer-science community has not yet identified an alternative paradigm; we're stuck with

crypto. There may be research in computational combinatory, or a different kind of information theory that seeks to study the basic nature of information transfer, or research in cooperative phenomena in computing, that may eventually form part of an alternative. But, today this is only speculation. A computing system is only as trustworthy as its weakest link. The weakest link is all too frequently human: a person producing a poor design in the face of complexity, an administrator incorrectly configuring a system, a business person choosing to deliver features over reliability, or a support technician falling victim to impostors via a "social engineering" hack. The interaction between sociology and technology will be a critical research area for Trustworthy Computing. So far there is hardly any crossfertilization between these fields.

XV. CONCLUSION

Delivering Trustworthy Computing is essential not only to the health of the computer industry, but also to our economy and society at large. Trustworthy Computing is a multi-dimensional set of issues. All of them accrue to four goals: Security, Privacy, Reliability, and Business Integrity. Each demands attention. While important short-term work needs to be done, hard problems that require fundamental research and advances in engineering will remain. Both hardware and software companies, as well as academic and government research institutions, need to step up to the challenge of tackling these problems.

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Network Layer with High Performance of Cognitive Radio networks Platform

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GJCST Classification
C.2.2.C.4

Abstract-Network Layer with Radio networks High Performance Platform” being developed under the NSF NeTS ProWIN (programmable wireless networks) grant CNS-0435370. The network-centric cognitive radio architecture under consideration in this project is aimed at providing a high-performance platform for experimentation with various adaptive wireless network protocols ranging from simple etiquettes to more complex ad-hoc collaboration. Particular emphasis has been placed on high performance in a networked environment where each node may be required to carry out high throughput packet forwarding functions between multiple physical layers. Key design objectives for the cognitive radio platform include 1.multi-band operation, fast frequency scanning and agility;

2.software-defined modem including waveforms such as DSSS/QPSK and OFDM operating at speeds up to 50 Mbps;

3.packet processor capable of ad-hoc packet routing with aggregate throughput 100 Mbps; 4.Spectrum policy processor that implements etiquette protocols and algorithms for dynamic spectrum sharing

I. COGNITIVE RADIO ARCHITECTURE & DESIGN

The cognitive radio prototype’s architecture is based on four major elements: (1) MEMS-based tri-band agile RF front-end, (2) FPGA-based software defined radio (SDR); (3) FPGA-based packet processing engine; and (4) embedded CPU core for control and management. These components will be integrated into a single prototype board which leverages an SDR implementation from Lucent Bell Labs as the starting point. A proof-of-concept demonstration

board is planned for the end of year 2 (Sept 2006), and several prototype boards with full functionality are expected to be ready at the end of year 3 (Sept 2007).

The network-centric cognitive radio architecture under consideration in this project is aimed at providing a high-performance platform for experimentation with various adaptive wireless network protocols ranging from simple etiquette to more complex ad-hoc collaboration. The basic design provides for fast RF scanning capability, an agile RF transceiver working over a range of frequency bands, a software-defined radio modem capable of supporting a variety of waveforms including OFDM and DSSS/QPSK, a packet processing engine for protocol and routing functionality, and a general purpose processor for

implementation of spectrum etiquette policies and algorithms. The proposed architecture along with the associated partitioning of design/prototyping responsibilities between Rutgers, GA Tech and Lucent is shown in Figure 1.1 below

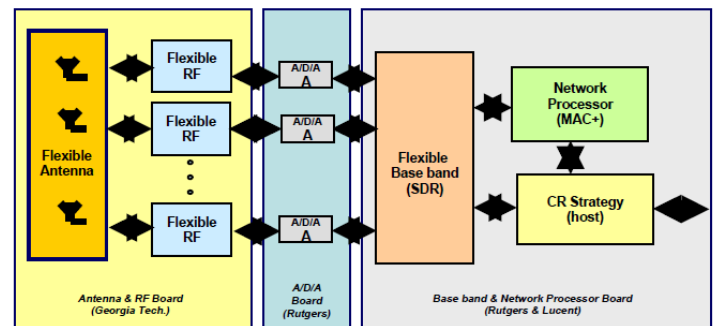


Figure 1.1 - Architecture of network-centric cognitive radio networks platform

In the original proposal, we identified the need for a base band and network processor board that would interface to the RF front-end and allow dynamically reconfigurable software and hardware implementations of multiple wireless links supporting individual data rates up to 50 Mb/s and a maximum aggregate data rate of 100 Mb/s. It was expected that this board would contain some mix of DSP and FPGA blocks together with their required memories. At the first coordination meeting in 4Q2004, we made a decision to avoid the use of DSP’s because of the difficulty associated with programming these devices. Rather, we decided to use a combination of FPGA for hardware implementation and embedded RISC for software implementation. Embedded RISC cannot match the cost and power efficiency of a DSP, but it was felt that ease of programming was of more importance in an experimental platform - especially one that would be used by students. The group also decided to aim for tri-band (700 MHz, 2.4 GHz and 5.1 GHz) capabilities using a novel MEMS device from GA Tech - this was viewed as an important flexibility feature for an experimental platform of this type. The analog front-end would also support two channels, one for measurement and one for data, with bandwidths selectable in 1 MHz increments.

A. Hardware architecture

Even though the prototyping effort is focused on an FPGA-based design, we are also exploring the architectural benefits of custom integrated circuitry, primarily related to power consumption and the silicon area, which are important performance parameters for hardware designs used in

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mobile/portable platforms. The approach we have chosen to take involves identifying the hardware architecture appropriate for low-power configurable design based on heterogeneous blocks (i.e. blocks that are highly optimized for a particular function, yet flexible enough to support a variety of configuration parameters) as a compromise for the tradeoff between programmability and power consumption/area. In addition to fast prototyping, the additional benefits of using modern FPGAs (e.g. Xilinx Virtex 4) are the availability of highly optimized features implemented as non-standard configurable logic blocks (CLB) like phase-locked loops, low-voltage differential signal, clock data recovery, lots of internal routing resources, hardware multipliers for DSP functions, memory, programmable I/O, and microprocessor cores. These advantages simplify mapping from hierarchical blocks to FPGA resources.

The hardware design effort started with an evaluation of architectures presently available for base band SDR processing at rates of 50-100 mbps. All these architectures use massive hardware parallelism to sustain high data rate. We also looked at the base band processing requirements of different wireless standards such as 802.11a/b, Bluetooth and WCDMA, and found that different stages of base band processing have very different hardware needs. Thus, using a generic hardware design leads to inefficient usage of chip area and power consumption. As a result, we proposed a “heterogeneous block-based architecture” which would help implement SDR baseband processing in an efficient way. An additional feature is the ability to efficiently reconfigure blocks in a few clock cycles to facilitate fast changeover between multiple SDR physical layers.

B. Heterogeneous block-based architecture

The heterogeneous-block based architecture (see Figure 1.2 below) combines a general microprocessor with special purpose hardware blocks. The microprocessor containing multiplier/accumulator units handles control intensive operations such as channel estimation, synchronization, and programming and interconnection of the heterogeneous blocks, while data intensive operations are handled by the heterogeneous blocks. The following heterogeneous-blocks have been identified:

1. Channel utilization Block: A configurable multi-stage filter used to select a sub-band and/or decimate the input signal for different standards
2. FFT/MWT Block: A configurable architecture which can handle FFT operations used in OFDM and also handle the modified Walsh transform used in 802.11b.
3. Rake Block: A generic four finger Rake accelerator for channel estimation, de-spreading in DSSS and CDMA.
4. Inter-leaver Block: Using a block-based memory and multiplexer-based address handler, a multi-mode architecture can handle de-interleaving for different standards.
5. Data and Channel Encoding/Decoding Block: A configurable architecture can handle both Viterbi (for 802.11a) and Encoder/Turbo Decoder (for WCDMA). Both the Data and Channel Encoder have a similar connection pattern, but only the Data

Encoder needs feedback. A common block is proposed which can be configured in one clock cycle to perform either of the two functionalities.

6. Detection and Estimation Block:

Common interference detection block.

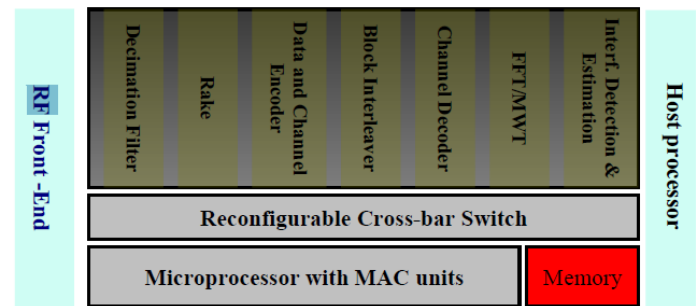


Figure 1.2 - Heterogeneous Blocks based Base band Processor Architecture

The hardware design effort started with an evaluation of architectures presently available for base band SDR processing at rates of 50-100 mbps. All these architectures use massive hardware parallelism to sustain high data rate. We also looked at the base band processing requirements of different wireless standards such as 802.11a/b, Bluetooth and WCDMA, and found that different stages of base band processing have very different hardware needs. Thus, using a generic hardware design leads to inefficient usage of chip area and power consumption. As a result, we proposed a “heterogeneous block-based architecture” which would help implement SDR base band processing in an efficient way. An additional feature is the ability to efficiently reconfigure blocks in a few clock cycles to facilitate fast changeover between multiple SDR physical layers.

Ongoing work is aimed at creating an implementation of the above SDR design using available FPGA boards and conducting evaluations on flexibility and performance. The packet processing engine's architecture will also be considered during the remainder of this reporting year. The goal is to have both SDR and packet processor FPGA implementation tested and evaluated by the end of 2005.

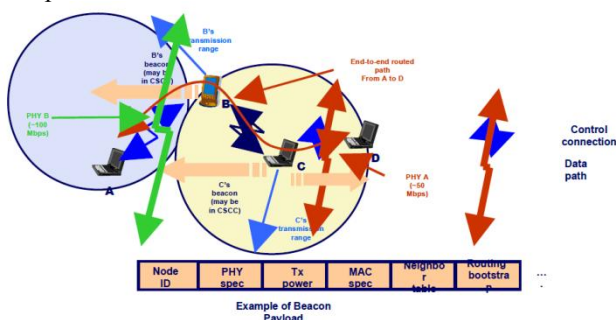
II. SPECTRUM SCANNING ALGORITHMS

An important aspect of the cognitive radio platform is its ability to opportunistically use portions of the spectrum that are not being used, which requires the ability to efficiently scan spectrum usage. Furthermore, it is very important to detect and identify types of interference that the platform is facing. This becomes increasingly difficult for arbitrary radio systems. Thus we can focus on an OFDM radio platform because it allows a simple characterization of interference in terms of the OFDM sub carriers. A project on spectrum detection algorithms was carried out in order to understand the computational complexity and response times for the scanning receiver. In order to solve this detection and estimation problem, we used an eigen value decomposition of the sample covariance matrix of the received signal. This analysis was performed using

computer simulations for two common sources of interference: a microwave oven and a Bluetooth radio. Simulations carried out show that the influence of an interfering signal on the OFDM system depends on the power of the interfering signal and the data rate in the OFDM system (this system supports the following data rates: 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, 36, 48 and 54 Mbps). As expected, the BER of the system increases with the increasing power of the interfering signal and increasing data rate of the OFDM system. In the presence of the microwave oven signal, only one of the 64 eigen values of the covariance matrix is affected. In the presence of the Bluetooth radio interference, several eigen values will be affected. The number of affected eigen values in this case is proportional to the power of the interfering signal. In the future work, we will examine how multiple radios can collaborate in the detection of interferers, including the development of protocols for the exchange and aggregation of measurements.

III. ADAPTIVE NETWORK PROTOCOLS

In parallel to SDR and packet processor design work described above, a project has been started on adaptive network protocols and related algorithms. In particular, we are studying the concept of an adaptive wireless network bootstrapped from the CSCC etiquette protocol previously developed at WINLAB. The CSCC protocol (which uses a broadcast beacon mechanism to inform neighboring radios of signal properties) is being extended to include information necessary for self-organization into a collaborative network of cognitive radios. Information on transmit power, PHY speeds, channel quality and aggregated routing information is added to the beacon to facilitate self-organization. This concept is shown in



below Figure 1.3

Figure 1.3 - Concept for CSCC-based selforganization

In a cognitive radio network

A preliminary evaluation of the protocol concepts is planned for year 2 of the project using a GNU radio extension to the ORBIT radio grid test bed. A GNU radio kit has been procured and an RF front end module is being developed for subsequent use as software-defined ORBIT radio node extension.

IV. SECURITY

One of the factors which should be considered during design process of CRN emergency network is security of the

network infrastructure and security of transmitted information. Without proper network security terrorists responsible for the disaster would be able to eavesdrop emergency information and utilize it for future attacks. Moreover the some of the possible methods of attacks on CRN and ways of prevention:

Licensed user emulation attack: Because cognitive radios cannot be completely sure whether a licensed spectrum is free and available for transmission they simply defer from licensed bands and utilize other non-licensed parts of the band if they are not sure if it is really free. Suppose that attacker knows in which specific area CRN works. Knowing which licensed bands CRN might use attacker can simply transmit signal in the licensed band emulating real transmission and thus limiting overall CRN capacity. Until now we don't know any method of prevention against this attack.

Common control channel jamming: One of the possible solutions for common control channel deployment is the UWB. In this case potential attacker can simply transmit periodical pulses which have the same spectrum as common control channel of CRN but with higher power than legitimate users. Throughout jamming of just one channel attacker blocks the possibility of communication between all CR nodes. This is the reason for building sophisticated UWB transmission methods for control channels utilizing UWB. It has to be underlined that a need for special care of control channel is the same for any type of approach (dedicated channel, channel hopping etc.).

Attacks on spectrum managers: We cannot allow having one central spectrum manager responsible for assigning frequency bands for nodes (see paragraph 2.3) because it constitutes a single point of attack. Whenever the spectrum manager is not available for CR nodes the communication process becomes impossible. That is why information about spectrum availability should be as distributed and replicated as possible. This constraint is inline with the requirement for more accurate measurements

of spectrum availability (see paragraph 2.3). One of the preventing ways for this attack is to use specific pilot channel in network elements due to their poor security could become a target of attack itself. Because cognitive radio constitute a new approach for building wireless networks it simultaneously opens a door for new methods of attacks on their physical structure. Below we outline each license band. It would inform secondary users about the reservation of the nodes.

Eavesdropping: Usually in the infrastructure-based corporate WLAN it was assumed that signal will not leave building due to its short distance and will be limited to eavesdropping and sniffing. However cognitive radios are allowed to work in the bands lower than UNII and ISM. This means that they can perform longer transmission distances with the same powers. It also allows for easy physical data collection from locations far distanced from CRN location where attackers invisible to emergency services. This yields a need for strong data encryption at the physical level. Frequent leaving and joining the emergency

network must be preceded by authentication process. It is open for discussion which layer should be responsible for this step. Currently the most possible approach is that application layer will perform all the necessary authentication procedures. Moreover the entire WEP infrastructure should be the basis for authentication procedures in CRNs.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The rapidly changing radio environment, more radio channels to utilize, number of parameters to choose during decisions taken by MAC and routing protocols, etc. makes design of CRNs very challenging. In this deliverable we have outlined some specific parameters and constraints which have to be taken into consideration while designing protocols for layers above PHY. Many protocols have the same design requirements (like robustness, no clock synchronization or localizing capabilities) which simplify design by small fraction. Moreover we can state that UWB as a common control channel might become a good solution for realizing certain functions outlined in this document. We also outline that cooperation between physical and link layer is essential for accurate operation of CRN. We have to emphasize that new requirements might occur during design process so this document will be constantly updated.

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Conceptual Clustering Of RNA Sequences With Codon Usage Model {

GJCST Classification

J.3,H.3.3

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Abstract- This paper proposes a conceptual clustering approach for RNA sequences using codons. It is shown that employing the codons (codon usage model) in the conceptual clustering of RNA sequences has high efficiency and robustness compared to conventional clustering methods. In cases where there are hidden structural patterns, homology search algorithms are inefficient in locating similar sequences and as a result are not reliable in the task of biological sequence clustering. As is shown by empirical results in this paper, conceptual clustering using the codons is able to discover similar sequences in a database of sequences with hidden structural homologues. The codon usage and cohesiveness model introduced in this paper can be efficiently employed in clustering biological sequence data where conventional homology search algorithms fail.

Keywords- Conceptual clustering, cohesiveness, codon usage, formal concept analysis, RNA sequences.

I. INTRODUCTION

Conventional Data analysis employs context-free similarity measures, that is, similarity based on the properties of the objects without considering the environment where the objects are found. On the other hand, context sensitive similarity measures are not only based on the properties of the objects but also the properties of the surrounding environment. All these similarity measures (context-free and context-sensitive) are concept-free. Similarity search based on a set of concepts describing objects, and not just on properties and environment, are what is employed in this paper.

Although biological data can be clustered using context-free similarity measures (Lee & Crawford 2005), the clustering of biological sequence data with context-sensitive similarity measures may not be appropriate. This is because the environment has little or no effect on already sequenced biological data. However, context-free homology searches can only yield less than 60% found genes and only a few of the searches can result in assigning the correct structure of the genes (Math'e, Peresetsky, D'ehais, Van Montagu & Rouz'e 1999). Therefore, biological clustering using conceptual clustering, clustering based on sets of concepts, by employing the codon usage (CU) model becomes appropriate to cluster sequences with hidden biological patterns.

Conceptual clustering is employed in this paper for the task of clustering RNA sequences. The goal is to employ codons, otherwise referred to as the CU model, and the

cohesiveness model (the degree of codon cohesion) in clustering RNA sequences. Conceptual cohesiveness, from which codon cohesiveness is derived, is a measure of similarity between two points based on a set of concepts available for describing the two points (Michalski & Stepp 1986). The method has the ability to cluster sequences which would not ordinarily be clustered with conventional categorical clustering methods like CLUSEQ - CLUSTERing for SEquences, ED - Edit Distance, and EDBO - Edit Distance with Block Operations (Yang & Wang 2003), (Levenshtein 1965), (Lopresti & Tomkins 1997).

The remainder of this paper is arranged as follows: A brief look at formal concept analysis followed by related work, the methods employed in this paper for the clustering of biological sequence data, followed by some experimental results, and lastly conclusions and future research.

II. CONCEPTUAL CLUSTERING

Conceptual clustering is a machine-learning paradigm for unsupervised classification that aims at generating a concept description for each generated class. This section considers

formal concept analysis (FCA) and the Galois or concept lattice.

A. Formal Concept Analysis

FCA aims at the automatic derivation of ontology based on a collection of objects and their properties. FCA, introduced by Rudolf Wille and his students in 1984, is a direct application of the applied lattice and order theory developed by Birkhoff and others in the 1930s (Birkhoff 1930). FCA attempts to find all the natural clusters of properties and all the natural clusters of objects in the input data. The set of all objects that share a common subset of properties or attributes is referred to as a natural object cluster, while the set of all properties or attributes shared by one of the natural object clusters is referred to as a natural property cluster.

i. Concepts Definition

From the description of FCA, concept analysis employs a set of objects and a set of properties or attributes belonging to all or some of the objects. For every set of objects O , set of properties P and an indication of which object has which attribute, a concept can be defined to be a pair (O_i, P_i) such that the following conditions hold (Vinner 1983):

- 1) $O_i \subseteq O$
- 2) $P_i \subseteq P$

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- 1) Every object in O_i has every attribute in P_i
- 2) For every object in O that is not in O_i , there is an attribute in P_i that the object does not have
- 3) For every object in P that is not in P_i , there is an attribute in O_i that does not have that attribute.

From the definition above, it can be said that a concept is a pair containing both a natural property cluster and its corresponding object cluster. The mathematical axioms defining

TABLE I
CONCEPT REPRESENTATION WITH NUCLEOTIDES

	A	C	G	U
Tyrosine	×	×		×
Cysteine		×	×	×
Tryptophan			×	×
Histidine	×	×		×
Glutamine	×	×	×	
Methionine	×		×	×
Asparagine	×	×		×
Lysine	×		×	
Aspartic acid		×	×	×
Glutamic acid	×		×	
Arginine	×		×	

A lattice based on these concepts are referred to as concept lattice or as a general term, Galois lattice.

2) *The Concept (or Galois) Lattice:* The concept lattice can be described using the concepts (O_i, P_i) . Partially ordering these concepts by inclusion, it is obtained that: if (O_i, P_i) and (O_j, P_j) are concepts, a partial order \leq can be defined that $(O_i, P_i) \leq (O_j, P_j)$ whenever $O_i \subseteq O_j$. It follows, therefore, that $(O_i, P_i) \leq (O_j, P_j)$ whenever $P_j \subseteq P_i$. There exists a unique greatest lower bound (*meet*) and a unique least upper bound (*join*) in every pair of concepts in this partial order which makes it satisfy the axioms defining a lattice. The concepts with objects $O_i \cap O_j$ are inclusive in the greatest lower bound of (O_i, P_i) and (O_j, P_j) with its attributes as $P_i \cup P_j$ and any additional attributes common to objects in $O_i \cap O_j$. Symmetrically, therefore, the least upper bound of (O_i, P_i) and (O_j, P_j) is the concepts with attributes $P_i \cap P_j$ with its objects as $O_i \cup O_j$ inclusive of additional objects with all the attributes in $P_i \cap P_j$ (Mephu-Nguifo 1994), (Wille 1992).

Biological sequence clustering, using conceptual clustering based on the CC model, becomes appropriate, therefore, to capture hidden biological (structural) pattern in sequence data. Following the rule for conceptual clustering, the objects and their attributes (properties) are derived as explained below. The objects are derived from the nucleotides in peptide formation during RNA translation using the basic RNA nucleotides- A, C, G and U. The nucleotides are the attributes. These peptides are Tyrosine, Cysteine, Tryptophan, Histidine, Glutamine, Methionine, Asparagine, Lysine, Aspartic acid, Glutamic acid and Arginine.

A tabular representation of these peptides showing their properties (attributes) based on their nucleotide formation, is

given in Table I. A cross (X) in the cells indicates the presence of an attribute, while a space indicates none. Note that the bases are in triplets, referred to as a codon, and that several contiguous bases (codons) may form a particular peptide and so a base can be repeated twice or three times, depending on the peptide involved, e.g. Lysine and Arginine with AAA, AAG and AGA, AGG, respectively.

Table I serves as a guide in the clustering of nucleic acid sequences. In the clustering task, sequences are represented as objects while peptides are the attributes.

III. RELATED WORK

Several algorithms have been proposed for conceptual clustering since the idea was developed in the 1980s. Carpineto and Romano (Carpineto & Romano 1993), introduced GALOIS which is an order-theoretic approach to conceptual clustering. From experimental results presented, Carpineto and Romano argued that GALOIS performs better than other methods. Michalski and Stepp (Michalski & Stepp 1986) developed the conjunctive conceptual clustering program CLUSTER/2 in which the predefined concept class consists of conjunctive statements involving relations on selected object attributes. The method was experimented on a large collection of Spanish folk songs. The result proved the efficiency of CLUSTER/2 in the clustering task. Kolodner (Kolodner 1983) proposed the CYRUS algorithm, which was also an improvement on existing methods. An earlier paper by Michalski (Michalski 1980) introduced the idea of partitioning data into conjunctive concepts to handle knowledge acquisition through conceptual clustering. Furthermore, Lebowitz (Lebowitz 1987) proposed the UNIMEM algorithm for incremental concept formation in conceptual clustering problems as a system that learns from

observation by noticing regularities among examples and organizing them into a generalization hierarchy. In the same year, Fisher (Fisher 1987) came up with the COBWEB algorithm for knowledge acquisition via incremental conceptual clustering. The most recent algorithms in this field were proposed by Jonyer et al. (Jonyer, Cook & Holder 2001) and Talavera and B'ejar (Talavera & B'ejar 2001), namely SUBDUE and GCF, respectively. Talavera and Bjar employed probabilistic concepts in performing a generality-based conceptual clustering. Despite the successful implementation of conceptual clustering in data analysis (Kuminek & Kazman 1997), (Ketterlin, Gancarski & Korczak 1995), it has not been employed as much in the field of bioinformatics to date. The most recent work on the application of conceptual clustering in the clustering of biological data is the work done by McClean et al. (McClean, Scotney & Robinson 2001) on the conceptual clustering of heterogeneous gene expression sequences. Other work that may look like conceptual clustering, though not explicitly stated, was done by Math'e et al. (Math'e et al. 1999). In the classification of Arabidopsis thaliana gene sequences, codon usage was employed by Math'e et al. in the classification of coding sequences into two groups. The result was an improvement in the quality of gene prediction

compared to existing methods. It is important to note that other than the work presented by Math'e et al. (Math'e et al. 1999) none of the methods mentioned above considered the application of conceptual clustering in the clustering of biological sequences, although the work presented by Math'e et al. is limited to a particular set of gene sequences.

IV. THE CODON COHESIVENESS MODEL

The codon cohesiveness model employs what is referred to here as codon usage in determining the frequency of each codon in a given sequence. The codon usage (CU) of a given

TABLE II
CLUSTERS GENERATED BY CLUSTAL

Cluster	Sequence
1	7,16,5,15,3,6,1
2	13,20,12,2,17,4
3	14,11,9,19,10,18,8

sequence is defined as:

$$CU = \frac{f_c}{S_l} F_l \quad (1)$$

where f_c = the relative codon frequencies, S_l = the sequence length and F_l = the feature (codon) length. The feature length is a constant and is equal to 3, since there are just three bases that form a codon.

The codon cohesiveness (CC) or the degree of cohesion is now defined based on the CU as follows:

$$CC = \sum_{i=0}^N \frac{f_{c_i}}{S_l} F_l = \sum_{i=0}^N CU_i \quad (2)$$

The values of CU and CC are between 0 and 1. CC determines to what extent the sequence to be clustered is close to the peptide group - the attribute. Codon cohesiveness is used to group similar sequences based on the occurrence of codons. Sequences with higher occurrence of a peptide group are grouped in the same cluster.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The method was tested on 20 *Rickettsia typhi* str. sequences from the Wilmington complete genome. Pattern element-wise search was used in detecting available codons in the sequences. When the edit distance was employed in the search, it was found that none of the sequences was at least 60% similar, based on the homology principle (Claverie & Notredame 2007), and so the clustering result was not useful. Also, clustering *Rickettsia typhi* str. sequences with edit distance violates the rule that nucleic acid sequences can only be considered homologous if and only if they are or more than 70% similar (Claverie & Notredame 2007). Overlaps are encountered with this clustering technique. The solution used to overcome the problem of overlaps is the CC model. In the result obtained in Table IV, sequences with at least 30% amino acid occurrence are grouped based on their

CC values. When this was done, 6 clusters were generated as indicated in Table II using the peptide formation grouping. Of all the sequences clustered, sequences 1, 2, 4, 6, 15 and 17 have some similarities. However, they could not be grouped based on the values of the CU model. The CU values and the resultant CC values for these sequences are less than 20%. However, they cannot be considered as outliers since they manifest some measure of similarity. Recall that the highest CU or CC values renders a sequence clusterable. However, sequence 3 could not be grouped although it has the highest CU and CC values. The method employed here reveals that sequence 3 has a STOP signal. This makes it different from the rest of the sequences tested. It will not be out of place to consider sequence 3 outlier.

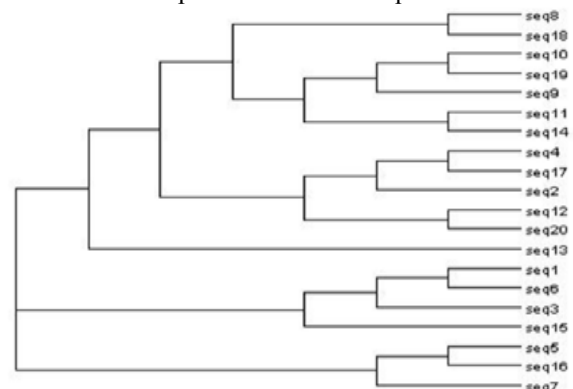


Fig. 1. Generated phylogenetic tree of the sequences

With crisp clustering (sequences belong to one and only one cluster), six clusters were generated as indicated in Table IV. From the results it is evident that the method employed in this paper produces clusters of even shape based on their codons. CLUSTAL produced three clusters with crisp clustering. The result of CLUSTAL clustering is indicated in Table II. Employing fuzzy clustering, Table III produces more clusters of sequences 11 and 14; 11, 13 and 18; 9, 10 and 19; 8, 10 and 13; 5, 11 and 16; 12 and 20; 5, 7 and 16, forming separated clusters. The result was compared with a constructed phylogenetic tree of the sequences. A phylogenetic tree (Figure V) is used to show how related the sequences are based on their genetic composition, thus defining or at the very least, giving the idea of the composition of clusters that may be formed by any clustering or similarity search algorithm. Note that phylogenetic trees are constructed mostly using multiple-alignment algorithms. Note also that alignment algorithms introduce gaps to achieve sequence alignments (Corpet 1988), (Gondro & Kinghorn 2007), (Notredame & Higgins 1995). To prove the inefficiency of such methods, gaps are penalized. The clustering done in this paper does not consider the introduction of gaps, hence, the result is somewhat different and better than the one achieved with other methods that use aligned sequences.

VI. CONCLUSION

Conceptual clustering is successfully employed in this paper

to cluster RNA sequences through the application of the genetic code triplet bases arrangement referred to as codon. The method is a strong deviation from popular clustering methods. The result obtained from the method is promising and could be extended to other areas of biological sequence clustering. Further research on this work could involve the clustering of other biological sequences, for example amino acids.

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TABLE III CALCULATED CC OF SEQUENCES

Sequence	A	Sequence	R	Sequence	G	Sequence	K	Sequence	F	Sequence	P	Sequence	S
5	0.30	11	0.65	5	0.30	5	0.30	9	0.35	8	0.40	12	0.35
11	0.65	14	0.50	7	0.30	16	0.30	10	0.35	10	0.55	20	0.35
14	0.45			11	0.45			19	0.30	13	0.40		
16	0.30			13	0.40								
18	0.30			16	0.30								
				18	0.45								

A = Alanine(GCU, GCC, GCA, GCG); R = Arginine(CGU, CGC, CGA, CCG); G = Glycine(GGU, GGC, GGA, GGG);
 K = Lysine(AAA, AAG); F = Phenylalanine(UUU, UUC); P = Proline(CCU, CCC, CCA, CCG); S = Serine(UCU, UCC, UCA, UCG)

TABLE IV CLUSTERS GENERATED BASED ON CC VALUES

CLUSTER 1		CLUSTER 2		CLUSTER 3		CLUSTER 4		CLUSTER 5		CLUSTER 6	
Sequence	A	Sequence	R	Sequence	G	Sequence	F	Sequence	P	Sequence	S
5	0.30	11	0.65	7	0.30	9	0.35	8	0.40	12	0.35
16	0.30	14	0.50	13	0.40	19	0.30	10	0.55	20	0.35
				18	0.45						

Vehicle Counting And Classification Using Kalman Filter And Pixel Scanner Technique And Its Verification With Optical Flow Estimation

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GJCST Classification
I.3.8, I.3.m

Abstract-Vehicle tracking is important in traffic monitoring systems. The behaviors of regions of moving vehicles are complicated, since the regions may combine or break during the tracking due to mistakes in vehicle detection and tracking or vehicles' overlapping with each other, and as a result, region matching simply according to similarities between successive frames is not enough to achieve reliable results. This paper proposes a novel tracking strategy that can robustly track and classify the objects within a fixed environment. We define a robust model-based tracker and classifier using kalman filtering combined with pixel scanner. The tracking is done by fitting successively more elaborate models on the tracked region and the segmentation is done by extracting the regions of the image that are consistent with the computed model of the target. We adopt a competitive and efficient dynamic Kalman filtering to adaptively update the object model by adding new stable features as well as deleting inactive features. In the next stage we need to check each and every frame for object recognition. This work introduce a diagonal pixel scanner to identify the objects. The result is verified further by implementing optical flow analysis. The tracking, counting and classification of object/vehicle have produced very consistent result. The average accuracy with short length video clipping is greater than 98%.

Keywords-Kalman filter, pixel scanner, object classification and object counting.

I. INTRODUCTION

Traffic on roads may consist of pedestrians, ridden or herded animals, vehicles, streetcars and other conveyances, either singly or together, while using the public way for purposes of travel. Traffic is often classified by type: heavy motor vehicle (e.g., car, truck); other vehicle (e.g., moped, bicycle); and pedestrian. Computer vision is concerned with the theory for building artificial systems that obtain information from images. The image data can take many forms, such as a video sequence and /or views from multiple cameras.

The Kalman filter produces estimates of the true values of measurements and their associated calculated values by predicting a value, estimating the uncertainty of the predicted value, and computing a weighted average of the predicted value and the measured value. The most weight is given to the value with the least uncertainty. The estimates produced by the method tend to be closer to the true values than the original measurements because the weighted

average has a better estimated uncertainty than either of the values that went into the weighted average.

Optical flow is the distribution of apparent velocities of movement of brightness patterns in an image. Optical flow can arise from relative motion of objects and the viewer. Consequently the optical flow can give important information about the spatial arrangement of the objects viewed and the rate of change of this arrangement. Discontinuities in the optical flow can help in segmenting images into regions that correspond to different objects. Attempts have been made to perform such segmentation using differences between successive image frames.

Several papers address the problem of recovering the motions of objects relative to the viewer from the optical flow. Some recent papers provide a clear exposition of this enterprise. The mathematics can be made rather difficult, by the way, by choosing an inconvenient coordinate system. In some cases information about the shape of an object may also be recovered. It is assumed that the optical flow has already been determined. Although some reference has been made to schemes for computing the flow from successive views of a scene, the specifics of a scheme for determining the flow from the image have not been described. Related work has been done in an attempt to formulate a model for the short range motion detection processes in human vision. The pixel recursive equations of Netravali and Robbins designed a method for coding motion in television signals. This bear some similarity to the iterative equations developed in this paper. A recent review of computational techniques for the analysis of image sequences contains over 150 references. It suggests that the optical flow cannot be computed at a point in the image independently of neighboring points without introducing additional constraints, because the velocity field at each image point has two components while the change in image brightness at a point in the image plane due to motion yields only one constraint.

Velocity is a vector quantity which refers to "the rate at which an object changes its position." Imagine a person moving rapidly - one step forward and one step back - always returning to the original starting position. While this might result in a frenzy of activity, it would result in a zero velocity. Because the person always returns to the original position, the motion would never result in a change in position. Since velocity is defined as the rate at which the

position changes, this motion results in zero velocity. If a person in motion wishes to maximize their velocity, then that person must make every effort to maximize the amount that they are displaced from their original position. Every step must go into moving that person further from where he or she started. For certain, the person should never change directions and begin to return to the starting position.

Considering a patch of pattern where brightness varies as a function of one image coordinate but not the other. Movement of the pattern in one direction alters the brightness at a particular point, but motion in the other direction yields no change. Thus components of movement in the latter direction cannot be determined locally.

II. RELATED WORK

After referring some of the technical papers under Traffic analysis resulted in novel idea to reach the objective. Some of the papers referred are presented here. Discussion on referred paper provides the limitations of those methods and how our approach seems to be advantageous over them. Reference [1] presents algorithms for vision-based detection and classification of vehicles in monocular image sequences of traffic scenes recorded by a stationary camera. Processing is done at three levels: raw images, region level and vehicle level. It is observed that data acquisition of monocular image sequence is a very tedious task. The information gathered is more than required as it covers the region level information as well. the present method incorporates .avi standard sequences which can be easily manipulated and worked upon. The computational time and memory requirement is much less than compared to the above method. In [2] a study on a stand-alone image tracking system for automatic traffic monitoring is presented. The proposed image tracker consists of three parts: an edge detection module, an image tracking module and a traffic monitoring module. The above paper uses a tracking system which automatically does the monitoring system with no manual interference in real time. It consists of edge detection, image tracking and monitoring the traffic. A novel tracking strategy is proposed in [3] that can robustly track an object within a fixed environment. Authors define a robust model-based tracker using Kalman filtering combined with recursive least squares. It uses a tracking done by fitting successively more elaborate models on the tracked region and the segmentation is done by extracting the regions of the image that are consistent with the computed model of the target. But the present work adopts a competitive and efficient dynamic Kalman filtering to adaptively update the object model by adding new stable features as well as deleting inactive features. Reference [4] reads real

time monitoring video from communications department and converts it into images. After that, we change them into corresponding gray images and carry out image binarization with dynamic multiple thresholds method which selects thresholds depending on pixel, grayscale and pixel position. Here the system updates the background periodically background refreshing method. We also put forward an

adaptive background subtraction method, which can remove noise, to identify the moving objects and get total movement in a given time.

A new approach is developed in [5], in order to track the vehicles, which is known as region processing. The regions may combine or break during the tracking due to mistakes in vehicle detection and tracking or vehicles overlapping with each other, so a method to overcome this effect is developed and accomplished. In this paper, a vehicle tracking method is proposed to reduce mistake in spatial segmentation. "Temporary vehicle", "confirmed vehicle" and the corresponding judging rules are presented. A fuzzy judgment is proposed to determine whether vehicle overlapping occurs or not. Reference [6] presents a practical real-time traffic monitoring system based on object detection and tracking for measuring traffic parameters such as speed and volume. In the proposed system, background is modeled by using edge information and this model is used for extracting foreground moving objects. The advantage of using edge information to model the background is that it is more robust to the lighting variation. The extracted moving objects are then tracked by using Lukas-Kanade (Pyramid) optical flow algorithm. Only the successfully tracked vehicle will be considered for retrieving traffic information. In [7] a real time video surveillance is presented for traffic monitoring of vehicle volume on major highways. This paper deals with the determination of traffic volume automatically in real time to dynamically plan their trips more efficiently. A new method known as the virtual line analyzer detects vehicles as they cross the virtual boundary. The goal of this paper is to provide real time and accurate vehicle counter when using stationary web cams, fixed highways and lanes, and deterministic vehicle characteristics.

A real time system for pedestrian tracking in sequences of grayscale images acquired by a stationary camera is presented in [8]. The proposed scheme is also useful for the detection of several diverse tracking objects of interest. Blob tracking is modeled as a graph optimization problem. Pedestrians are modeled as dynamic rectangular patches. Kalman filtering is used in order to estimate pedestrian parameters. Disadvantage is that this system assumes that all objects in the scene are pedestrians. This means that if another object /vehicle appear into the scene, it will be treated as group of pedestrians.

A computer vision based approach for event detection and data collection at traffic intersections is proposed in [9]. It implements a robust tracking algorithm for targets through combination of multiple uses and multiple motion models. Also, event detection system using results of a switching Kalman filter in combination with some simple rules is implemented. The estimation is that the detected events are very simple based on simple rules for detection. The system makes no distinction between a target moving and stopped vehicle in the scene.

III. IMPLEMENTATION

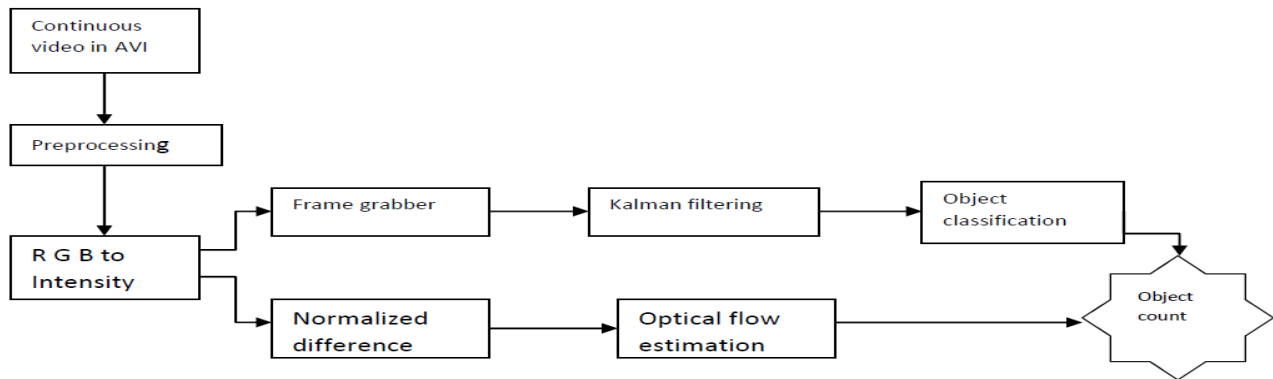


Fig.1: Block diagram representation of the developed system.

The methodology described above is followed and the computation is done. The whole procedure is represented by a block diagram as shown in Fig.1. The input to the system is video sequence which is in MPEG2 format. The video sequences are then converted into AVI format with the help of software. Then this is converted into frame wise using frame grabber software. Then a frame with no vehicle is taken and this is said to be a reference image which is then used for background subtraction. Continuous frames are sent so that the subtraction takes place within the reference image and the current image. Thus we accomplish the background subtraction via which we determine the object segmentation which is useful in classification of vehicles. Next this is passed through the Kalman filter. The state of the object is upgraded and thus it helps in the classification of vehicles. Pixel scanner is just acting like a sensor. Initially while fixing pixel scanner, each and every pixels having different RGB values for different frames. Basically a pixel scanner line consisting of more than 100 pixels, once an object enters into the frame and when it passes through pixel scanner, there will be drastic changes in RGB values of the pixel until the object is in contact with the pixel scanner.

IV. OPTICAL FLOW

First the video is selected which is in avi format. then it is subjected to intensity form by converting its RGB into its respective intensity. Then this intensity is next converted into single image format where white pixel representation is obtained. To this the optical flow technique is implemented with which we get the velocity. The optical flow method used here is the Horn-schunk[10] method where the horizontal and vertical components are taken into consideration and the difference between them are calculated so that the velocity is determined. This velocity is then subjected to thresholding and median filtering where morphological features are extracted. This results with the motion vector. Thus the determination of optical flow is implemented. Further, the result is used for counting and classification of vehicles.

V. OBJECT RECOGNITION BY USING KALMAN FILTER

Here we need to maintain separate data base for each and every object, and it is totally depending upon your camera position that's related to your road. Object data base will vary according to distance between camera and main road, so accordingly we need to maintain an object data base.

Take an example: Two-wheeler

Distance between camera and road ==5m

Overall road width==10m

Total from camera position==15m

Suppose bike travelling in 10m distance from camera,

Assume that height==5cm

Width==7cm (by using keen observation)

Find area now,

Area A== $(1/2) \times \text{height} \times \text{width} = 17.5 \text{ cm/sq}$

Now construct a rectangle of area between 15-20cm/sq by using kalman filter.

It means in between 15-20 we should suppose to maintain 10 or more than 10 rectangle areas in our background database. Then apply Kalman filter to each and every frames, find object areas and compare with backgrounds present in our data base, when it matches (not 100 percent) almost, then you can easily recognize a given object. Similarly you can do it for four-wheeler and heavy objects also. For object display operation we have taken a frame which is having much change in their almost all pixels RGB values which are all present in the pixel scanner line, and then algorithm can read that frame easily.

By using velocity vectors in optical flow, we can easily find out vehicle count by using pixel scanner line. Green value will increase once velocity vector reaches pixel scanner line.

VI. DIFFERENCE FILTER

1. Compute I_x and I_y using the kernel $[-1 \ 8 \ 0 \ -8 \ 1]/12$ and its transposed form.
If you are working with fixed-point data types, the kernel values are signed fixed-point values with word length equal to 16 and fraction length equal to 15.
2. Compute I_t between images 1 and 2 using the $[-1 \ 1]$ kernel.
3. Smooth the gradient components, I_x , I_y , and I_t , using a separable and isotropic 5-by-5 element kernel whose effective 1-D coefficients are $[1 \ 4 \ 6 \ 4 \ 1]/16$. If you are working with fixed-point data types, the kernel values are unsigned fixed-point values with word length equal to 8 and fraction length equal to 7.
4. Solve the 2-by-2 linear equations for each pixel using the following method:

$$\bullet \text{ If } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum W^2 I_x^2 & \sum W^2 I_x I_y \\ \sum W^2 I_y I_x & \sum W^2 I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then the eigen values of A are } \lambda_i = \frac{a+c}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{4b^2 + (a-c)^2}}{2}; i=1,2$$

$$\frac{a+c}{2}, Q = \frac{\sqrt{4b^2 + (a-c)^2}}{2}$$

In the fixed-point diagrams,

When the block finds the eigen values, it compares them to the threshold, that corresponds to the value you enter for the Threshold for noise reduction parameter. The results fall into one of the following cases: The Compute optical flow between, N, and Velocity output parameters are described in Horn-Schunck Method. Use the Threshold for noise reduction parameter to eliminate the effect of small movements between frames. The higher the number, the less small movements impact the optical flow calculation.

Case 1: $\lambda_1 \geq \tau$ and $\lambda_2 \geq \tau$

A is nonsingular, so the block solves the system of equations using Cramer's rule.

Case 2: $\lambda_1 \geq \tau$ and $\lambda_2 < \tau$

A is singular (noninvertible), so the block normalizes the gradient flow to calculate u and v .

Case 3: $\lambda_1 < \tau$ and $\lambda_2 < \tau$

The optical flow, u and v , is 0.

The Compute optical flow between, N, and Velocity output parameters are described in Horn-Schunck Method. Use the Threshold for noise reduction parameter to eliminate the effect of small movements between frames. The higher the number, the less small movements impact the optical flow calculation.

VII. DERIVATIVE OF GAUSSIAN

If you set the Temporal gradient filter parameter to Derivative of Gaussian, the block solves for u and v using the

following steps. You can see the flow chart for this process at the end of this section:

- Compute I_x and I_y using the following steps:
 - Use a Gaussian filter to perform temporal filtering. Specify the temporal filter characteristics such as the standard deviation and number of filter coefficients using the Number of frames to buffer for temporal smoothing parameter.
 - Use a Gaussian filter and the derivative of a Gaussian filter to smooth the image using spatial filtering. Specify the standard deviation and length of the image smoothing filter using the Standard deviation for image smoothing filter parameter.
- Compute I_t between images 1 and 2 using the following steps:
 - Use the derivative of a Gaussian filter to perform temporal filtering. Specify the temporal filter characteristics such as the standard deviation and number of filter coefficients using the Number of frames to buffer for temporal smoothing parameter.
 - Use the filter described in step 1b to perform spatial filtering on the output of the temporal filter.

- iii. Smooth the gradient components, I_x , I_y , and I_z using a gradient smoothing filter. Use Standard deviation for gradient smoothing filter parameter to specify the standard deviation of the number of filter coefficients for the gradient smoothing filter.
- iv. Solve the 2-by-2 linear equations for each pixel using the following method:

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum W^2 I_x^2 & \sum W^2 I_x I_y \\ \sum W^2 I_y I_x & \sum W^2 I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the eigenvalues of A are

$$\lambda_i = \frac{a+c}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{4b^2 + (a-c)^2}}{2}; i = 1, 2$$

When the block finds the eigenvalues, it compares them to the threshold, that corresponds to the value you enter for the Threshold for noise reduction parameter. The results fall into one of the following cases:

Case 1: $\lambda_1 \geq \tau$ and $\lambda_2 \geq \tau$

A is nonsingular, so the block solves the system of equations using Cramer's rule.

Case 2: $\lambda_1 \geq \tau$ and $\lambda_2 < \tau$

A is singular (noninvertible), so the block normalizes the gradient flow to calculate u and v .

Case 3: $\lambda_1 < \tau$ and $\lambda_2 < \tau$

The optical flow, u and v , is 0.

Select the Discard normal flow estimates when constraint equation is ill-conditioned check box if it is required that the block to set the motion vector to zero when the optical flow constraint equation is ill-conditioned. The block calculates these motion vectors on a pixel-by-pixel basis.

Select the Output image corresponding to motion vectors (accounts for block delay) check box if required that the block to output the image that corresponds to the motion vector being output by the block.

VIII. ALGORITHM

Initially algorithm will read continuous movie in AVI format by using MATLAB, then we will separate out the frames by using frame grabber. In the next stage we need to check each and every frame for object recognition. So we can introduce a diagonal pixel scanner to identify the objects. Pixel scanner is just acting like a sensor. Initially while fixing pixel scanner, each and every pixels having different RGB values for different frames. Basically a pixel scanner line consisting of more than 100 pixels, once an object enters into the frame and when it passes through pixel scanner, there will be drastic changes in RGB values of the pixel until the object is in contact with the pixel scanner. Now we can consider output of pixel scanner lines, I mean

RGB values of each and every pixels present in the pixel scanner.

Following are the steps involved:

- i. Pixel 1: initial RGB value=30, 20, 10....when there is no object present in the scene
- ii. Changed R1G1B1 values= 220, 110, 80....presence of object in the scene.
- iii. Subtract RGB from R1G1B1
- iv. Initialize counter.....c==0
- v. If (R1G1B1-RGB) is greater than or equal to (10,10,10)====increment count
Count ==c+1:
- Else
Count==c:
- End
- vi. Display the result of object counting.

Object Recognition By Using Kalman Filter

At this level of analysis it is needed to maintain separate data base for each and every object, and it's totally depending upon your camera position that's related to your road. Object data base will vary according to distance between camera and main road, so accordingly we need to maintain an object data base.

Specific Identifier

Two-wheeler

Distance between camera and road ==5m

Overall road width==10m

Total from camera position==15m

Suppose bike travelling in 10m distance from camera,

Assume that height==5cm

Width==7cm (by using keen observation)

Find area now,

Area A== (1/2)*height*width==17.5cm/sq

Now construct a rectangle of area between 15-20cm/sq by using Kalman filter.

It means in between 15-20 we should suppose to maintain 10 or more than 10 rectangle areas in our background database. Then apply Kalman filter to each and every frames, find object areas and compare with backgrounds present in our data base, when it matches (not 100 percent) almost, then you can easily recognize a given object. Similarly you can do it for four-wheeler and heavy objects also.

For object display operation we have taken a frame which is having much changes in their almost all pixels RGB values which are all present in the pixel scanner line, then you can read that frame easily.

By using velocity vectors in optical flow, we can easily find out vehicle count by using pixel scanner line. Green value will increase once velocity vector reaches pixel scanner line.

Table 1: Tabulates results achieved for different natural video streams

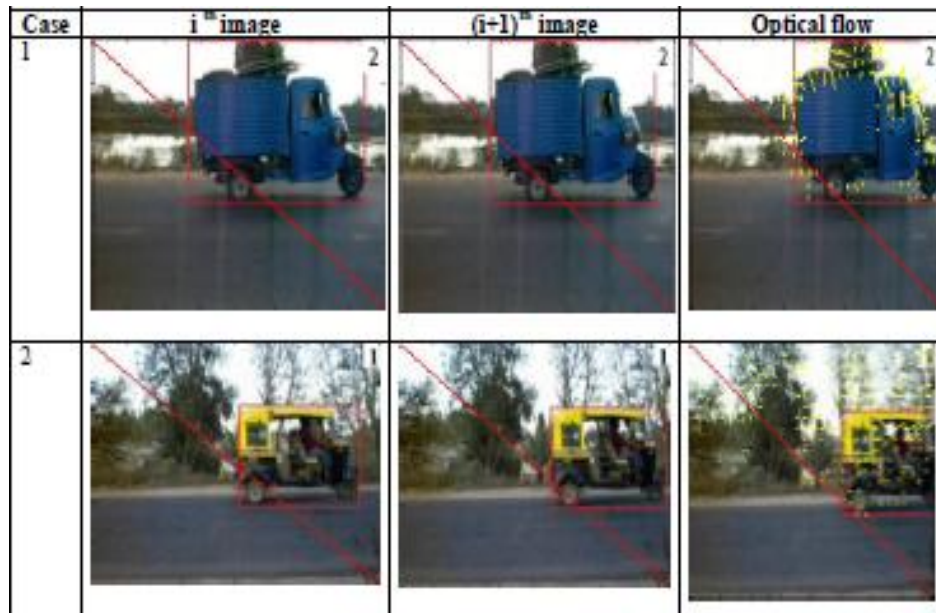
	Actual Classification	Count	Estimated Classification	Count	Error	Accuracy
Case1	Two wheeler	1	Two wheeler	1	0	100%
	Four wheeler	4	Four wheeler	4	0	100%
	Heavy vehicles	3	Heavy vehicles	3	0	100%
	Total	8	Total	8	0	100%
Case2	Two wheeler	4	Two wheeler	1	0	100%
	Four wheeler	4	Four wheeler	1	0	100%
	Heavy vehicles	1	Heavy vehicles	1	0	100%
	Total	9	Total	9	0	100%
Case3	Two wheeler	7	Two wheeler	6	0	85.71%
	Four wheeler	5	Four wheeler	5	0	100%
	Heavy vehicles	2	Heavy vehicles	2	0	100%
	Total	14	Total	13	0	95.12%
Case 4	Two wheeler	4	Two wheeler	0	0	100%
	Four wheeler	3	Four wheeler	3	1	100%
	Heavy vehicles	2	Heavy vehicles	6	0	100%
	Total	9	Total	9	1	100%
Average					1.6	98.78%

IX. PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

In order to test the proposed algorithm, several sets of natural image sequences have been used. Real image sequences, recorded in MPEG2 format have been used with camera, in fixed position to capture the aerial view of the road. Different natural traffic videos are taken in situations where obstacles are found in the line of view, vehicle shadows, building shadows in the path and oblique view of the traffic. The first set of images is taken in order to establish the reference images under different illumination

condition from morning till evening. Four such reference frames have been identified for experimentation.

In the present work, a platform has been created so that complete automation of dynamic and intelligent traffic control devoid the human intervention. Monocular camera with fixed resolution of 1024X1024 with a frame rate of 30 is used to acquire the data. The present algorithm translates image size 1024X1024 to 200X200 in order to reduce the computational complexity. Table.1 showcases the result established through the implementation of the present algorithm.



Optical Flow Estimation



Fig.2-Display of results of optical flow needle diagram for different vehicles

Display of results of optical flow needle diagram for different vehicles is as shown in Fig.2. The needle diagram clearly indicates the direction of movement of the vehicle. Hence, bidirectional vehicular movement analysis is achieved apart from counting and classification of vehicles..

Reslts Presentation: Object Counting By Using Kalman Filter













Case	Object	Count	Display
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

Fig.3

Display of results of Kalman filter for different vehicles.

The classification of vehicles based on Kalman filter is showcased in Fig.3. The result presentation consists of the vehicle count, its sequence of appearance and type. It also provides the insight to the frame number at which each vehicle passed through the geometric center of the frame.

X. CONCLUSION

The result established is consistent with good repeatability. The system developed consider output of pixel scanner lines, it means that RGB values of each and every pixels present in the pixel scanner. We also notice that the proposed method fails if the traffic is too congested, because in this case, vehicles may overlap from the beginning to the end, or more than two vehicles are overlapped with each other, so it is difficult to distinguish each of the vehicles. The Optical Flow block estimates the direction and speed of object motion from one image to another or from one video frame to another using either the Horn-Schunck or the Lucas-Kanade method in order to verify the result.

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Hybrid Algorithm Approach To Job Shop Scheduling Problem

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Abstract- In this paper, we analyze the characteristics of the dynamic job shop scheduling problem when machine breakdown and new job arrivals occur. A hybrid approach involving neural networks (NNs) and genetic algorithm (GA) is presented to solve the dynamic job shop scheduling problem as a static scheduling problem. The objective of this kind of job shop scheduling problem is minimizing the completion time of all the jobs, called the makespan, subject to the constraints. The result shows that the hybrid methodology which has been successfully applied to the static shop scheduling problems can be also applied to solve the dynamic shop scheduling problem efficiently.

Keywords- dynamic job shop, neural network, genetic algorithm, hybrid methodology, makespan

I. INTRODUCTION

Job shop scheduling (JSP) is usually a strongly NP complete problem of combinatorial optimization problems and is the most typical one of the production scheduling problems^[1,2]. Unfortunately, most publication in shop scheduling area focuses on the static shop scheduling. Very few of them suggest a comprehensive model and solution to the dynamically job shop problem^[3,4]. To deal with dynamic scheduling, most researches usually partition the scheduling process into two phases. In Phase 1, they consider the optimization of makespan under idealized conditions; then in Phase 2, they simply deal with reactive scheduling based on some scheduling rules, in case of accidental disturbance. Muhleman et al analyzed the periodic scheduling policy in a dynamic and stochastic job shop system. Their experiments indicated that more frequent revision was needed to obtain better scheduling performance^[5]. Church and Uzsoy considered periodic and event-driven rescheduling approaches in a single machine production system with dynamic job arrivals. Their result indicated that the performance of periodic scheduling deteriorate as the length of rescheduling period increased and event-driven methods achieved a reasonably good performance^[6]. Subramaniam et al demonstrated that significant improvements to the performance of dispatching in a dynamic job shop could be achieved easily through the use of simple machine selection rules^[7]. SQ. Liu et al presented a framework to model dynamic shop scheduling problem. Using the proposed framework, a metaheuristic was proposed to solve dynamic shop problem. The result showed that the metaheuristic methodology which had been

applied to solve dynamic shop scheduling problem efficiently^[8]. Borstjan and Peter proposed an alternative way to avoid infeasibility by incorporating a repairing technique into the mechanism for applying moves to a schedule. Whenever an infeasible move was being applied, a repairing mechanism rearranged the underlying schedule in such a way that the feasibility of the move was restored. The possibility of reaching infeasible solutions was, therefore, eliminated on the lowest possible conceptual level^[9]. Hiroshi and Toshihiro considered the jobshop scheduling problem of minimizing the total holding cost of completed and in-process products subject to no tardy jobs. A heuristic algorithm based on the shifting bottleneck procedure was proposed for solving the minimum total holding cost problem subject to no tardy jobs. Several benchmark problems which were commonly used for job-shop scheduling problems of minimizing the makespan were solved by the proposed method and the results were reported^[10].

Recently, much attention has been paid to applying neural networks or genetic algorithms et al to production scheduling problems. Haibin Yu et al presented neural network and genetic algorithm to solve the expand job shop problem. The GA was used for optimization of sequence and NN was used for optimization of operation start times with a fixed sequence. New type of neurons were defined to construct neural network (CNN). The neurons can represent processing restrictions and resolve constraint conflicts. Combining gradient CNN with GA for sequence optimization, a hybrid approach was put forward. The approach had been tested by a large number of simulation cases and practical applications. It had been shown that the hybrid approach was powerful for complex JSP^[11]. Shengxiang Yang et al presented a new adaptive neural network and heuristics hybrid approach for job shop scheduling. One heuristic was used to accelerate the solving process of neural network and guarantee its convergence; the other heuristic was used to obtain non-delay schedules from the feasible solutions gained by neural network. Computer simulations had shown that the proposed hybrid approach was of high speed and efficiency^[12]. Hong Zhou and Yuncheng Feng proposed a hybrid heuristics method for $n/m/G/C_{\max}$, where the scheduling rules, such as shortest processing time (SPT) and MWKR, were integrated into the process of genetic evolution. In addition, the neighborhood search technique was adopted as an auxiliary

procedure to improve the solution performance^[13]. Byung developed an efficient method based on genetic algorithm to address JSP. The scheduling method based on single genetic algorithm and parallel genetic algorithm was designed. In the scheduling method, the initial population was generated through integrating representation and G&T algorithm, the new genetic operators and selection method were designed to better transmit the temporal relationships in the chromosome, and island model PGA were proposed^[14]. Dirk and Christian considered a job shop scheduling problems with release and due-dates, as well as various tardiness objectives. The genetic algorithm can be applied to solve this kind of problem. The heuristic reduction of search space can help the algorithm to find better solution in a shorter computation time^[15]. Jose presented a hybrid genetic algorithm for job shop scheduling problem. The chromosome representation of the problem was based on random keys. The schedules were constructed using a priority rule in which the priorities were defined by the genetic algorithm. Schedules were constructed using a procedure that generates parameterized active schedules. After a schedule was obtained a local search heuristic that was applied to improve the solution^[16]. Guo proposed a universal mathematic model of the JSP problem for apparel assembly process. The objective of this model was to minimize the total penalties of earliness and tardiness by deciding when to start each order's production and how to assign the operations to machine. A genetic optimization process was then presented to solve this model. In which a new chromosome representation, a heuristic initialization process and modified crossover and mutation operators were proposed^[17]. Masato and Kenichi proposed the modified genetic algorithm with search area adaptation (mGSA) for solving the jobshop scheduling problem. To show the effectiveness of the proposed method that conducted numerical experiments by using two benchmark problems. It was shown that this method had better performance than existing GAs^[18]. Young Su Yun proposed a new genetic algorithm (GA) with fuzzy logic controller (FLC) for dealing with preemptive job-shop scheduling problems (p-JSP) and non-preemptive job-shop scheduling problems (np-JSP). The proposed algorithm considered the preemptive cases of activities among jobs under single machine scheduling problems. For these preemptive cases, they first used constraint programming and secondly developed a new gene representation method, a new crossover and mutation operators in the proposed algorithm^[19]. In those papers, most publications in job shop scheduling area focus on the static shop scheduling problems and seldom takes into account the dynamic disturbance such as machine breakdown and new job arrivals. In this paper, a university mathematical model for dynamic job shop scheduling problem is constructed. The objective of this model is to minimize makespan. In order to solve this mixed- and multi-product scheduling problem, a combination of a genetic algorithm and a neural network is used to find the optimal solution. The Back-Propagation Neural Network (BPNN) is designed to describe machine breakdown and new job arrivals etc, detecting whether

constraints are satisfied and resolving the conflicts by their feedback adjustments. Then the BPNN can generate a feasible solution for the JSP. For sequence optimization and makespan, a GA is employed. The algorithm will then be used to solve the JSP problem of 10 working procedure and 10 machines. Though the simulation, it is shown that the approach can be used to model real production scheduling problems and to efficiently find an optimal solution.

II. MODELING THE JOB-SHOP SCHEDULING PROBLEM

In a JSP we have a set N of jobs, $N = \{1, \dots, n\}$, that have to be processed in a set M of stages, $M = \{1, \dots, m\}$. At each stage i , $i \in M$ we have a set $M_i = \{1, \dots, m_i\}$ of unrelated parallel machines that can process the jobs where $m_i \geq 1$. We consider the dynamic job shop case where stages might be skipped. Every job is a chain of operations and every operation has to be processed on a given machine for a given time. The task is to find the completion time of the very last operation is minimal. The chain order of each job has to be maintained and each machine can only process one job at the same time. Once an operation starts, it must be completed; two operations of a job can not be processed at the same time; no more than one job can be handled on a machine at the same time; the same priority level at each operation; there is no setup and idle time; the money value is not considered. The following additional definitions and notations will help in formulating the problem:

- i. i : number of machines, $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$;
- ii. j_i : number of operations of machine i , $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$;
- iii. P_{ij} : processing time of operation j on machine i ; $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$, $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$;
- iv. O_j : sequence and technique restriction of job j , such as job j passing through machine sequence = $(O_{j1}, O_{j2}, \dots, O_{jn})$, $O_{ij} \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$, $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$, $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$;
- v. t_{ij} : starting time of operation j on machine i ;
- vi. t_j : completion time of operation j .
- vii. $X_{ijk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if operation } j \text{ precedes operation } k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- viii. $z_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if operation } j \text{ is allocated on machine } i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- ix. C_{ij} : the completion time of operation j on machine i

- x. C_{\max} : makespan, at the end of the production step,
is thus of its final operation O_j .

According to above suggestion, parameter and decision variable of problem, the mathematical model is identified as followed:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min C_{\max} \\ & s.t \\ & \sum_{j=1}^n z_{ij} = 1 \\ & \sum_{j=1, j \neq k}^n \sum_{i=1}^m X_{ijk} = 1 \\ & t_{ij} + p_{ij} \leq t_{i+1,j} \\ & t_{ij} + p_{ij} \leq t_{ik} + (1 - X_{ijk})M \\ & \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n (X_{ijk} + X_{ikj}) \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

The objective function is to minimize the maximum completion time (makespan). In a job shop environment, how should the jobs be scheduled and how should they be rescheduled when dynamic events occur, so that the makespan is dynamically minimize? In this study, we restrict our attention to two dynamic factors, the machine breakdown and new job arrivals only.

III. BPNN MODEL

Artificial neural networks are parallel computational devices consisting of groups of highly interconnected processing elements called neurons. Neurons are basic elements of BPNN. A common neural cell or neuron is defined by linearly weighted summation of its input signals, and serially connected non-linear activity function $F(T_i)$.

$$T_i = \sum_{j=1}^n (W_{ij} X_j) \quad Y_i = F(T_i) \quad T_i(k+1) = T_i(k) + Y_i(k)$$

where W_{ij} is the connection weight of the j th input signal X_j and the i th neuron. T_i is the weighted summation of the i th neuron. $F(T_i)$ is the activity function and Y_i is the output of the i th neuron. Links among neurons are through their weights. They represent the scheduling restriction. They also reflect the adaptation or adjustment to resolve constraint conflicts through proper feedback links, when restrictions are not met. The working order and start time etc are used as input nodes, and the feedback represents iterative adjustment, and the breakdown and new job arrivals etc are used as output nodes.

In the event of machine breakdown, two scenarios should be resume or the entire job to be taken out from the schedule. For the first case, the unfinished operation usually has priority to be processed first when the machine has been

repaired, considering the set up time or other realistic. For the second case, the affected job should be taken out either to be discarded or processed offline. We consider the first case.

To solve the job shop scheduling problem, the BPNN is adopted that can generate a feasible solution. x_1 represents input node, and y_1 represents output node. For example, $x_1 = 0$ represents that all machines are working order, otherwise $x_1 = 1$. $x_2 = 0$ represents that the start time of each operation is above or equal to 0, otherwise $x_2 = 1$. $x_3 = 0$ represents that all the job is processed, otherwise $x_3 = 1$. $y_1 = 0$ represents that new job arrivals don't occur, otherwise $y_1 = 1$. $y_2 = 0$ represents that the machine don't break down, otherwise $y_2 = 1$. $y_3 = 0$ represents that due dates isn't tardiness, otherwise $y_3 = 1$. $y_4 = 0$ represents X_{ijk} , otherwise $y_4 = 1$. $y_5 = 0$ represents z_{ij} , otherwise $y_5 = 1$.

According to built BPNN, it has three input neurons and five output neurons and six hidden neurons. The training sample is as table 1.

Table 1: some BPNN training sample

Sample number	input			output				
	x1	x2	x3	y1	y2	y3	y4	y5
1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1

IV. DESCRIPTION OF GA AND BPNN MODEL

This section first gives out the description of two models, which are used to improve the performance of job shop scheduling problem. One is BPNN that is used to accelerate the solving process of JSP and guarantee feasible solution, the other is GA that is used to obtain the global optimal solution from feasible solution with determined order of operations. The BPNN model is set three levels, which I_i is

The I_i 's input of input layer and H_i is output of hidden layer and O_i is output of output layer. So WIH_{ij} is weight between input layer and hidden layer and WHO_{ji} is weight between hidden layer and output layer. Secondly the algorithm of hybrid approach of BPNN and GA for job shop scheduling problem is presented as follows:

Step 1-Initialization population P is generated, which include probability of crossover P_c and probability of mutation P_m and initializing WIH_{ij} and WHO_{ji} . Real coding is adopted, and initial population is 30.

for i=1:10

L=M(i,:);

for j=1:10

L(j)=L(j)+1;

end

M(i,:)=L;

end

NIND=40;

MAXGEN= 200;

GGAP=0.9;

XOVR=0.8;

MUTR=0.6;

[R,Q]=size(P);

[S2,Q]=size(O);

S1=6;

S=R*S1+S1*S2+S1+S2;

Step 2-The fitness is defined and sort order, and network individual is selected as the following probability

$$p = f_i / \sum_{i=1}^N f_i$$

Then f_i is adaptive value of individual i , and evaluated by error sum of squares.

$$f(i) = 1/E(i) \quad E(i) = \sum_p \sum_k (V_k - T_k)^2$$

FitnV=ranking(ObjV);

SelCh=select('sus', Chrom, FitnV, GGAP);

SelCh=across(SelCh,NIND*GGAP,XOVR,WNumber);
SelCh=aberrance(SelCh,NIND*GGAP,M
UTR,WNumber); disp_fqre=100;
max_epoch=3000;err_goal=0.002;lr
=0.01;

TP=[disp_fqre max_epoch err_goal
lr];[W1,B1,W2,B2,te,tr]=trainbp(W1,B1,'tansig',W2,B2,'purelin',P,O,TP);

Step 3-The crossover is operated in the population G_i and G_{i+1} according to probability of crossover P_c , so the offspring G_i' and G_{i+1}' are generated.

Step 4-The individual G_j is selected randomly according to probability of mutation P_m , so the offspring G_j' is generated.

[PVal ObjVSel
N]=cal(SelCh,NIND*GGAP,T,M,PNumber,MNumber,WP
Number); [Chrom ObjV]=reins(Chrom, SelCh,1, 1,
ObjV, ObjVSel);

[PVal ObjV1
N]=cal(Chrom,NIND,T,M,PNumber,MNumber,WPNumber
);

Step 5-

if gen==1

Val1=PVal;

Val2=N;

MinVal=min(ObjV);

end

Step 6-If the optimal solution is obtained, stopping the program and the best solution is output, otherwise going back to step3.

V. SIMULATION STUDY

We take the benchmark $10/10/J/C_{\max}$ problem. The simulation is finished under Matlab environment. Through 200 epochs searching, the fitness goes stabilization. The sum squared error and fitness curve are showed in figure 1.

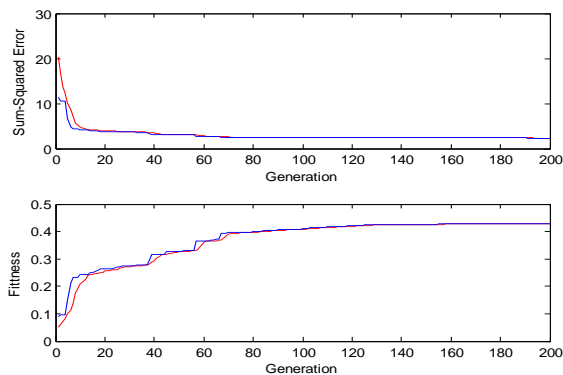


Figure 1:sum-squared error and fitness curve

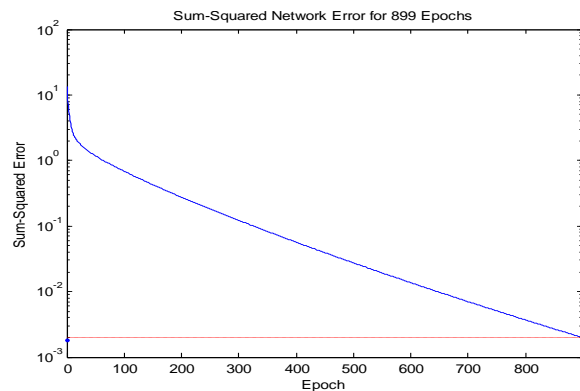


Figure 2: sum-squared network error of BP algorithm

The result of simulation is as

follows:[0.0004,0.9930,0.0054,0.0015;0.0013,
0.0036,0.0008,0.0011;0.9998,0.0110,-0.0074,-
0.0032;0.0006,-0.0302,0.0230,0.0069;-0.0015, 0.0123, -
0.0080,0.9973]. So the idea output is [0 1 0 0;0 0 0 0;1 0 0
0;0 0 0 0;0 0 0 1], and the runtime is 10.6750 seconds.

The sum-squared network error of BP algorithm is showed in figure 2. The error objective is 0.002, and learn rate is 0.01. From the figure, the error objective is convergence to 0.02 when the BPNN algorithm run 899 epochs and the runtime is 13.690000 seconds.

Although the idea result is gotten by weight of NN that is trained by GA from the above comparing, it takes longtime comparing with BPNN algorithm. Because GA is convergence by heuristic searching such as method of exhaustion, in addition, the complexity of network structure and a large amount of calculated data. For example, the weight of BPNN and threshold number is 58, and the thirty populations are 1740. Such number will be coding, decoding, crossover and mutation, and the dealt data is much greatness. So the searching time is longer. Considering the

BPNN is accuracy to seek optimal solution, but it traps into local optimization easily. The GA has global searching capacity, and we could combine the GA with BPNN, which show each advantage.

A. Ga-Bp Algorithm

The principle of GA-BP algorithm is the optimal initial value is inherited by GA that focuses at the random position firstly, which is as the initial weight of BPNN. Secondly, it is trained by BPNN.

i. The algorithm of hybrid approach for job shop scheduling problem is presented as follows:

Step 1- 5: The same as above, which is NN that is trained by GA

Step 6: The sum squared error is calculated. If the predetermined value (ϵ_{GA}) is obtained, going to step 7, otherwise going back to step 3

Step 7: The optimal initial value is inherited as the initial weight of BPNN by GA. It is trained by BPNN till the predetermined precision $\epsilon_{BP}(\epsilon_{BP} < \epsilon_{GA})$ is gotten.

B. Experiment result

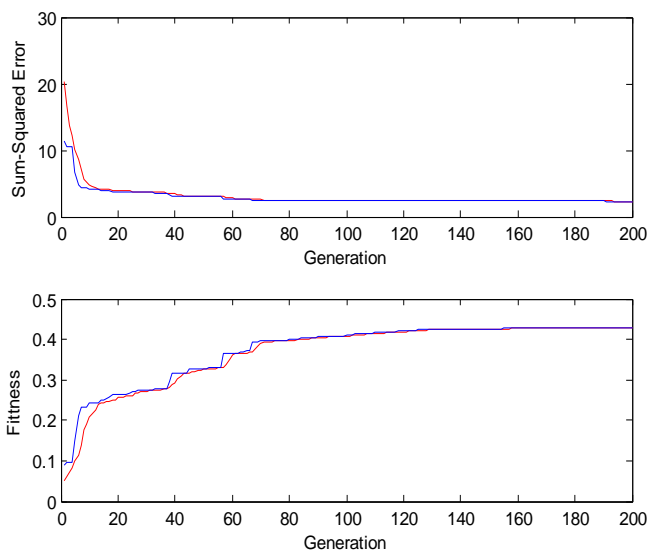


Figure 3: Sum-squared error and fitness curve of GA

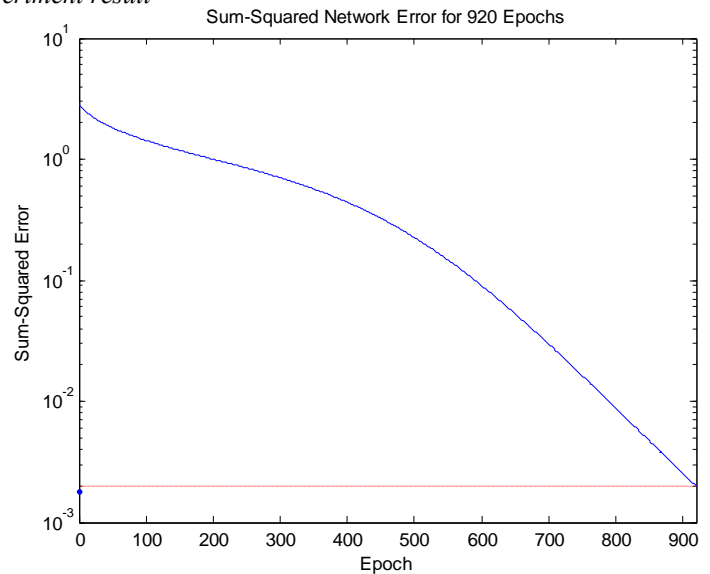


Figure 4: Sum-squared network error of BP algorithm

The sum squared error and fitness curve of GA are showed from figure 3, and the training objective of BPNN is showed from figure 4. We set initial population of GA is 30, and predetermined value is 5. The result of simulation is as follows:[0.0115,0.9647,0.0097,0.0114;0.0039,-
0.0018,0.0007,0.0034;1.0025,-0.0076,-0.0034,0.0042;-
0.0007,-0.008,0.0041,0.0037;-0.0073, 0.0081, -

0.0059,1.0039]. So the idea output is [0 1 0 0;0 0 0 0;1 0 0
0;0 0 0 0;0 0 0 1], and the runtime is 5.739000 seconds.

The objective value is obtained through 80 epochs by GA, and the predetermined precision is convergence by 920 epochs. The run time is 18.326. It is obviously that the GA-BP algorithm is better than BP algorithm that is in convergence rate and Runtime.

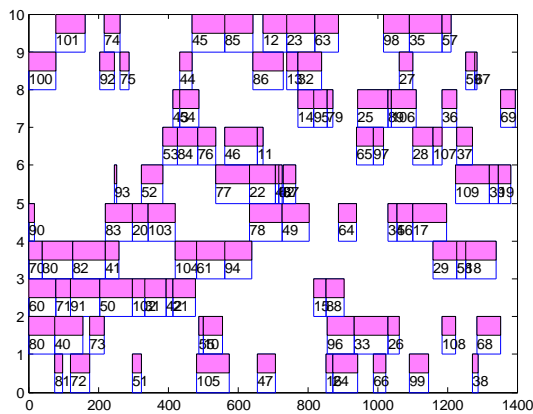


Figure 5: Gantt chart of JSP

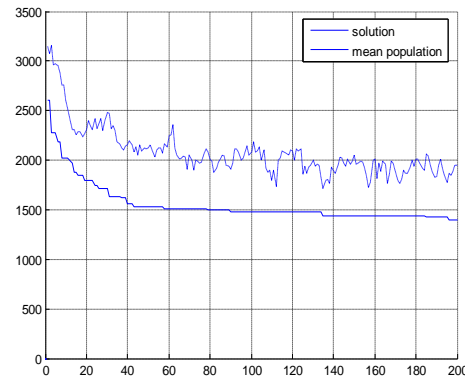


Figure 6: The solution and population curve

The result shows the sequence of each job, and makespan is 1395 from figure 5. The makespan is attained 1395, when the iterative number is 80, and the mean population is random from the figure

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we analyze the characteristics of the dynamic job shop scheduling problem, and present a new hybrid approach, combining the BPNN with GA for solving when machine breakdown and new job arrivals occur. The BPNN is used to obtain feasible solution during the iterations. In order to overcome the shortcomings that BP algorithm is usually trapped to a local optimum and it has a low speed of convergence weights. The GA is adapted to the global optimal searching. This algorithm can effectively and reliably be used in JSP problem. Simulation has shown that the proposed hybrid approach for JSP has excellent performance with respect to the quality of solution and speed of calculation.

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Security Provision For Mobile Ad-Hoc Networks Using Ntp & Fuzzy Logic Techniques

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Abstract-Ad-hoc Networks are a new generation of networks offeringunrestricted mobility without any underlying infrastructure.Primary applications of Ad-hoc networks are in military, tacticaland other security sensitive operations, where the environment is hostile. Hence, security is a critical issue. Due to the nature of Adhocnetworks, conventional security measures cannot be used.New techniques of security measures are essential for highsurvivability networks. The performance of the network will be severely affected, in the presence of compromised nodes, whichcause undetermined and unpredictable complex failures. Thisproject is mainly to identify the misbehaviors caused by some malicious node for NTP (Node Transition Probability) protocol,and eliminate them from the network. The performance analysis is done based upon two cases .In first case the complete networktopology is studied and based upon it a threshold value is fixed to detect the malicious activity and eliminate it. In the second case a fuzzy model is introduced so that automation of threshold can be done for anomaly detection of malicious nodes in network withvarying topology. In contrast to the case one -- intrusion detectionmodels for ad hoc networks we have implemented an efficient andbandwidth-conscious framework that takes into distributed natureof ad hoc wireless network management and decision policies.

Keywords- NTP, MAL, REMAL, PURGE packets, IDM, IRM, Crisp value, Security.

I. INTRODUCTION

Ad-hoc networks demand a protocol completely different from those used for wired and infrastructured wireless networks. Ad-hoc networks have their own requirements and constraints and require a protocol that takes into account these issuesand provide reliable communication under such constraints. This section explains the protocol aspects for ad-hoc mobile networks. In particular, it reveals what are the problems associated with routing in such networks. Although several routing schemes have been proposed, most of them are modified extensions of existing link-state or distance-vector based routing protocols. However, in an ad-hoc mobile network where mobile hosts are acting as routers and have both power and bandwidth constraints, conventionalprotocols that employ periodic broadcast are unlikelyto be suitable. A novel routing scheme is required toprovide efficient and high throughput communicationamong mobile adhoc networks (MANET).

The newrouting protocol-NTP that was proposed determinesroutes based on the probability that the nodes lie within the host node's proximity for a longer timethereby improving the stability of the route. Theobjective is to enhance the security issues of the NTPprotocol.

II. NTP

The proposed a new routing scheme called NodeTransition Probability (NTP) based routing, whichuses less control packets to determine the routesbetween two nodes. The proposed algorithm adaptsquickly to routing changes when host movement isfrequent. NTP based routing algorithm, whichdetermines route using the received power at a particular node from all other nodes. In thisalgorithm, a node floods a control packet only if thereis no neighbor table and has data to send. Theneighbor table is computed based on the receivedreplies and we choose the node, which is replied withmaximum power for more times as neighbor. Bychoosing the neighbor table route table is computedfor the Source-Destination pair. The performance ofthis algorithm is studied for various scenarios andcompared their performance such as throughput,control over head and end to end delay with anexisting routing protocol. The performance resultshows that this algorithm maximizes the bandwidthduring heavy traffic with less overhead.

A. The Fuzzy Approach

In this paper the traffic pattern of the Node transition based probability protocol is to be established in terms of fuzzy logic parameters. For fuzzification process 'mamdani' method is used and for defuzzification process 'Mirror rule' is applied. We define the traffic levels to be low level, medium level and high level based upon the crisp value of the fuzzy security model. Intrusion detection is an important but complex task for an adhoc network. Many Artificial intelligent techniques have been widely used in intrusion detection systems. There are two main reasons for introducing fuzzy logic for intrusion detection. First, many quantitative features are involved in intrusion detection. Fuzzy set theory provides a reasonable and efficient way to categorize these quantitative features in order to establish highlevel patterns. Second, security itself is fuzzy. For quantitative features, there is no sharp delineation between normal operations and anomalies. Fuzzy episode rules allow one to create the high-level sequential patterns representing

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normal behavior. With fuzzy spaces, fuzzy logic allows an object to belong to different classes at the same time. This concept is helpful when the difference between classes is not well defined. This is the case in the intrusion detection task, where the differences between the normal and abnormal classes are not well defined. Thus the intrusion detection problem (IDP) is a two-class classification problem: the goal is to classify patterns of the system behavior in two categories (normal and abnormal), using patterns of known attacks, which belongs to the abnormal class, and patterns of normal behavior. In fuzzy logic, fuzzy sets define the linguistic notions, and membership functions define the truth-value of such linguistic expressions.

B. Fuzzy Algorithm

We can determine the crisp value for the different traffic range of the mobile nodes based upon the quality of service parameters for the given Node

Transition Probability protocol [6]

Input (1) ----- Queue length (QL)

Input (2) ----- Data rate (DR)

Input (3) ----- Item size (IT)

Range of the Input levels

Now based upon the input levels selected the 'Rule base' is sorted output for various traffic levels. Membership graph for the three levels of input is shown in the figure 2.5.1.

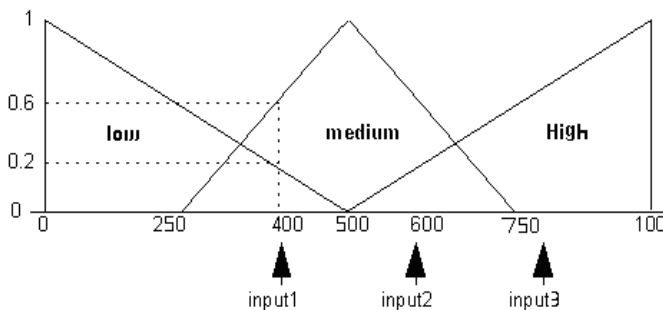


Figure: 2.2.1: Membership graph for the three levels of input.

Rule base:

With respect to the different levels of input traffic the rule base for the fuzzy model is framed as low-level, medium-level and high-level and is shown in table 2.5.1, 2.5.2 and 2.5.3 respectively.

Low level:

Rules	Queue length	Data rate	Item size	Traffic range
Rule1	Low	Low	Low	Low
Rule2	Low	Low	High	Low
Rule3	Low	Low	Medium	Low
Rule4	Low	Medium	High	Low
Rule5	Low	High	Low	Low
Rule6	Low	Medium	Low	Low
Rule7	Low	High	Medium	Low
Rule8	High	Low	Low	Low
Rule9	Medium	Low	Low	Low

Table: 2.2.1 Rule Base for low level range

Medium Level

Rules	Queue length	Data rate	Item size	Traffic range
Rule10	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium
Rule11	Medium	Medium	Low	Medium
Rule12	Medium	Medium	High	Medium
Rule13	Medium	Low	High	Medium
Rule14	Medium	Low	Medium	Medium
Rule15	Medium	High	Medium	Medium
Rule16	Medium	High	Low	Medium
Rule17	Low	Medium	Medium	Medium
Rule18	High	Medium	Medium	Medium

Table: 2.2.2 Rule Base for Medium level range

High level

Rules	Queue length	Data rate	Item size	Traffic range
Rule19	High	High	High	High
Rule20	High	High	Low	High
Rule21	High	High	Medium	High
Rule22	High	Medium	Low	High
Rule23	High	Low	High	High
Rule24	High	Medium	High	High
Rule25	High	Low	Medium	High
Rule26	Low	High	High	High
Rule27	Medium	High	High	High

Table: 2.2.3 Rule Base for High level range

Thus for the three input parameters queue length, data rate and the packet size we have framed 27 rules for determining the crisp value. Now based upon the crisp value output the threshold parameter associated with respect to the traffic pattern in any routing protocol can be changed to achieve desired flow

control. The Intrusion detection model and the intrusion response model can be improved using this 'crisp value' to reduce the malicious node activity in the given 'MANET'. The fuzzy logic parameters can be selected as the packet size, queue length of the data packets, data rate, power margin of nodes, and mobility range of nodes etc., In this paper queue length, data rate, packet size are taken as the fuzzy parameters, a rule base is formed based upon these parameters. The rule base has three level of ranges based upon the fuzzy parameters selected to determine the crisp value of the traffic range for the given Node Transition Probability model. Now, this fuzzy approach for security enhancement of NTP protocol is the main source for the IDM & IRM model.

C. Algorithm For Intrusion Detection Model

The node sends to neighboring node an intrusion (or anomaly) state request. Each node (including the initiation node) then propagates the state information, indicating the likelihood of an intrusion or anomaly, to its immediate neighbors. Each node then determines whether the majority of the received reports indicate an intrusion or anomaly; if yes, then it concludes that the network is under attack.

Any node that detects an intrusion to the network can then initiate the response procedure.

A node identifies that another node is compromised, when its malcount exceeds the crisp value of the fuzzy approach or threshold value as for (case-1) for allegedly compromised node. In such cases, it propagates this information to the entire network by transmitting a Mal packet. If other nodes also suspect that the node, which has been detected, is compromised, it reports its suspicion to the network by transmitting a ReMal packet.

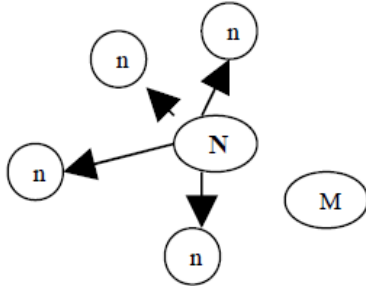


Figure: 2.6.1 Generation of mal Packets

The rationales behind this scheme are as follows. Audit data from other nodes cannot be trusted and should not be used because the compromised nodes can send falsified data. However, the compromised nodes have no incentives to send reports of intrusion, anomaly because the intrusion response may result in their expulsion from the network. Therefore, unless the majority of the nodes are compromised, in which case one of the legitimate nodes will probably be able to detect the intrusion with strong evidence and will respond, the above scheme can detect intrusion even when the evidence at individual nodes is weak.

D. Algorithm For Intrusion Response Model

The following steps are taken after a purge packet is sent to all nodes regarding the malicious node:

- i. All the nodes in the network are made aware of the malicious node.
- ii. All the data, control packets from the purged node is dropped.
- iii. A signal for route table entry modification is sent to all the nodes.
- iv. The purged node is deleted from the neighbor table and seen table for the neighbor nodes.

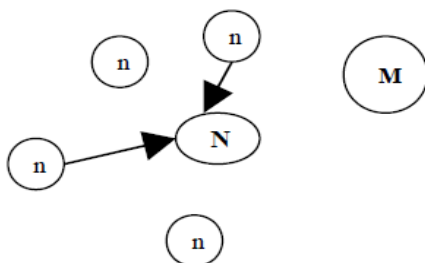


Figure: 2.8.1. Generation of Re-Mal packet by the nodes

E. Implementation

The proposed security measures were implemented using GloMoSim as the simulator. The implementation part consists of following steps:

i. Creation of Malicious Nodes

Out of N nodes in the network 20% of the nodes were made malicious. In the network the malicious nodes are the nodes, which generate more of RouteRequests than the normal value [3]. These nodes were selected randomly. Normally the nodes generate route requests when data is present in their buffer and a proper route to the destination is not known. The randomly selected nodes were made to generate more number of route requests irrespective of their buffer and route discovery status. Each malicious node in the network generates a variable number of route requests to another randomly. The above said IDSIRS operations are done cooperatively by a group of nodes when the confidence percentage level is very low. When the confidence level is very high the alleged node is directly purged from the network increasing the efficiency of the model and thereby decreasing the time taken for the detection and response modules incorporated. Thus the mal nodes are identified through the proposed security model.

III. PERFORMANCE METRICS

A. Control Overhead

The number of control packets transmitted for every data packet is noted down. Each hop of the routing packet is treated as a packet. The following graph shows that the malicious nodes increase the routing load of the network as they generate the false route requests and thereby increasing the number of control packets for each data packet transmitted. After implementing the proposed security model, it considerably decreases the routing load by identifying the malicious nodes and eliminating them from the network and bringing the network near to normal NTP protocol. The performance metrics of control overhead Vs Pause Time is shown in the figure 3.1.

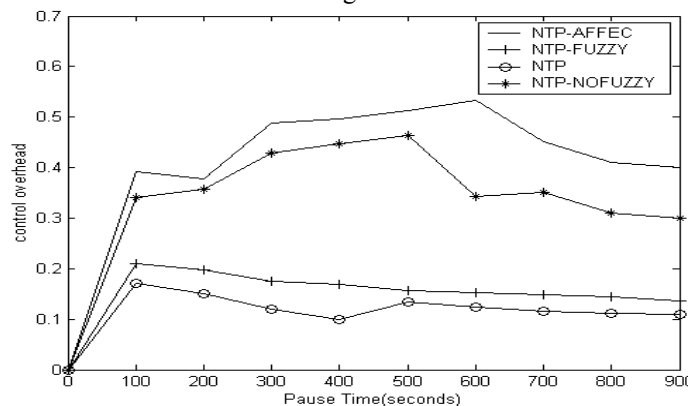


Figure 3.1: Control Overhead Vs Pause Time

B. Packet Delivery Fraction

This is the ratio of CBR packets delivered to that generated and is measured as throughput. For different pairs of the source destination pair corresponding throughput is noted down. The throughputs for the NTP affected with malicious nodes are less when compared with ordinary NTP protocol. After incorporating the fuzzy approach the throughput is getting increased. Thus we prove that fuzzy approach is better than direct assignment of threshold for anomaly detection. The performance metrics of throughput Vs Source-Destination Pair is shown in the figure 3.2.

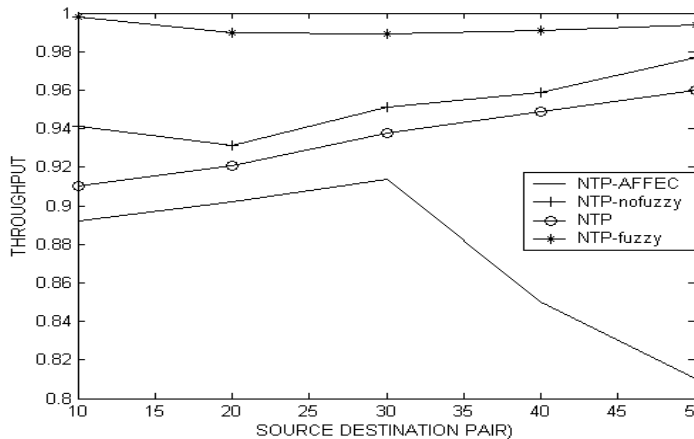


Figure 3.2: Throughput Vs Source-Destination Pair

C. Mobility

For different ranges of mobility the graph is plotted. The system performance has been observed in the presence of malicious nodes and measured. The performance enhancement is due to the implemented model. In the simulation misbehaving node generates false route requests. So the corresponding packet delivery decreases for it. The performance metrics of Packet delivery Vs Mobility is shown in the figure 3.3.

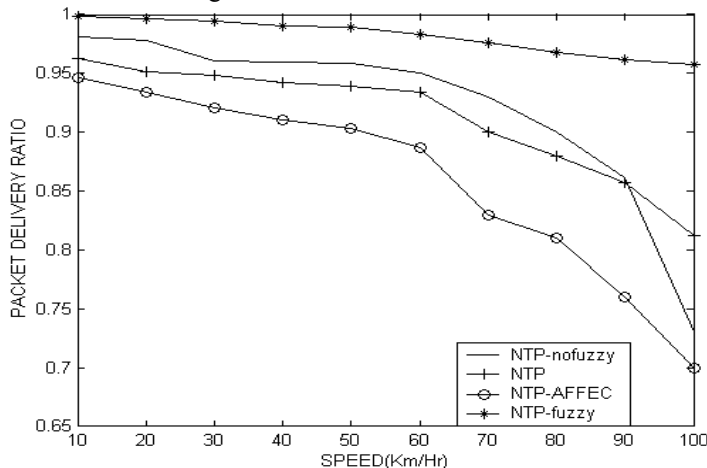


Figure 3.3: Packet Delivery ratio Vs Mobility

D. Average End To End Delay

This is the average of delays incurred by all packets that are successfully transmitted. The following graph shows that the malicious nodes in the network have phenomenally increased the end-to-end delay of the network compared to the normal network as the nodes forward the false RREQs to other nodes and thereby increasing the overall time to process the control packets. The performance metrics of delay Vs Pause Time is shown in the figure 3.4.

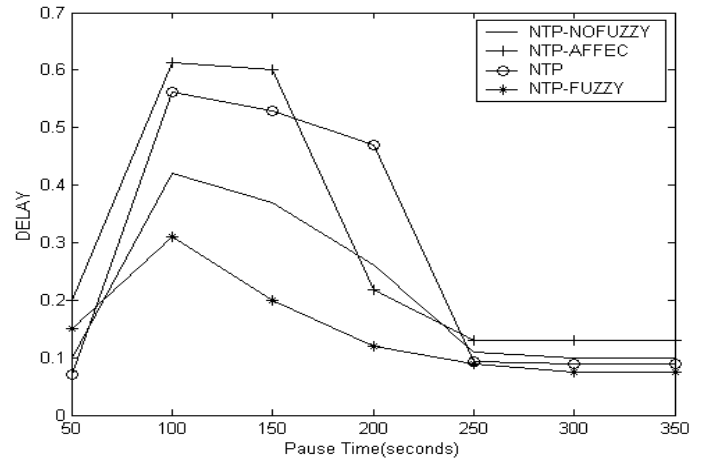


Figure 3.4: Delay Vs Pause Time

After incorporating the fuzzy security scheme the end-to-end delay is brought down to near normal network as intruder nodes are identified and their activities are restricted and intruder nodes are eliminated from the network.

IV. CONCLUSION

The distributed false route request problem increases end-to-end delay, routing overhead and decreasing the throughput and overall efficiency of the network. Our solution to this problem as successfully eliminated the intruder nodes and has brought the network performance near to the normalcy. The performance characteristics of network depicted in the graphs prove this statement.

V. FUTURE WORK

The future work of the paper is to extend the fuzzy automation for the security enhancement of the NTP protocol in terms of power margin and Noise margin.

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Performance Analysis of Wired and Wireless LAN Using Soft Computing Techniques- A Review

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Abstract— The wired Computer Networks provide a secure and faster means of connectivity but the need of mobility i.e. anywhere, anytime and anyone access is tilting the network users towards wireless technology. In this paper, an overview of the current research literature, in the field of Wired and wireless networks, has been presented. The network simulators provide an ease in predicting and estimating the performance of networks. Among the various network simulators available, OPNET gains an edge in analysing the performance of the networks through simulations. The metrics like throughput, delay and retransmission attempts have been overviewed for performance analysis of the wireless and wired computer networks using soft computing techniques like simulation through OPNET.

Keywords—IEEE 802.11, RTS/CTS, OPNET, Wired LAN, Wireless LAN.

I. INTRODUCTION

Networks have grown like weed over the past few decades providing a pace to the means of accessing network resources. For example, the use of Internet is gaining importance with the adoption of network technologies for purposes like education, business, banking and defence. These interconnected set of computer system permits interactive resource sharing between connected pair of systems. Rapid advances have taken place in the field of Wired and Wireless Networks. Several network models have been modelled by various researchers, using network simulators, to find out the most feasible ones. Investigations of these network models have been performed using the simulation techniques that reduce the cost of prediction, estimation and implementation of the network models. Among the various network simulators available like NetSim, NS-2, GloMoSim etc., OPNET provides the industry's leading environment for network modelling and simulation. It allows to design and study communication networks, devices, protocols, and applications with flexibility and scalability. It provides object oriented modelling approach and graphical editors that mirror the structure of actual networks and network components. It provides support for modelling both the wired and wireless LANs. Though the wired networks have provided the high speed connectivity but due to the drawbacks like extensive cabling and immobility etc., the WLAN gained momentum. The computer networks today are not only wired but wireless too, depending on the type of circumstances like need of mobility, rough terrains, or secure networks.

Open system interconnection (OSI) reference model divides the Data Link Control (DLC) layer into Logical Link Control (LLC) and Medium Access Control (MAC) sub layers. The LLC layer is independently specified for all 802 LANs, wireless or wired. Like IEEE 802.3 (Ethernet), IEEE 802.5 (Token Ring), IEEE 802.11 (WLANs) standard also focuses on the above mentioned two layers [1]. Our study has focused on performance analysis of IEEE 802.3 (Ethernet) based Wired LANs and IEEE 802.11b based Wireless LANs using soft computing techniques like network simulators. This paper has been organised as follows: Part I deals with Introduction, Part II deals with the Literature Overview, Part III and IV deals with the brief description of IEEE 802.11 and IEEE 802.3, Part V deals with the performance metrics being focused upon and in the last section the paper has been concluded.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A wireless communication is flexible data communication system implemented as an extension to or as an alternative for a wired communication. It has overshadowed the wired technology over a span of time and is a rapidly growing segment of the communications industry, with a potential to provide high-speed, high quality information exchange between the portable devices located anywhere in the world. Wireless Local Area Networks (WLANs) have been developed to provide users in a limited geographical area with high bandwidth and similar services supported by the wired Local Area Network (LAN). Unlike wired networks, WLANs, which uses IEEE 802.11 standards, to transmit and receive radio waves through the air medium between a wireless client and an Access Point (AP), as well as among two or more wireless clients within a certain range of each other. A WLAN basically consists of one or more wireless devices connected to each others in a peer-to-peer manner or through APs, which in turn are connected to the backbone network providing wireless connectivity to the covered area. In [8], the authors worked on improving the performance of WLANs using Access points. They investigated and estimated the traffic load on an access point, which can help determine the number of access point to be employed in a network. The effect of enabling Point Coordination Function (PCF) on network stations and also the number of PCF stations that can be deployed per access point was also investigated. Correctly setting the number of PCF stations will help tune the performance of these nodes as well as the overall network performance. In [20], also the author introduced a wireless LAN design framework for optimal placements of access points at suitable locations to satisfy the coverage and capacity requirements of the users. Optimal planning of WLANs can result in improved Quality of Services, efficient use of resources, minimizing

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interference and reduced deployment cost. The performance of WLANs depends on the RF conditions in which they operate. Randomized optimization algorithms were used, to solve the AP placement and channel allocation problems like coverage, traffic, Redundancy, channel interference and wiring cost. Then the output of this algorithm was validated using OPNET.

Another important issue is the Bandwidth of wireless networks. The bandwidth of wireless local area networks is limited as compared to that of wired local area networks which provide a large bandwidth. This limitation is due to the error prone physical medium (air). The methods like tuning the physical layer related parameters [6], tuning the IEEE 802.11 parameters and using enhanced link layer (media access control) protocol were used to improve the performance of WLANs.

The IEEE 802.11 standard operates far from theoretical throughput limit depending on the network configuration [7]. An analytical model was proposed to achieve maximum protocol capacity (theoretical throughput limit), by tuning the window size of the IEEE 802.11 back-off algorithms. The main reason why the capacity of the standard protocol is often far from theoretical limit is that during the overload conditions, a station experiences a large number of collisions before its window has a size which gives a low collision probability. It was cited that proper appropriate tuning of the back-off algorithm can derive the IEEE 802.11 protocol close to the theoretical throughput limit.

The identification time is another critical indicator for the performance enhancement of RIFD in wireless systems. In [12], the authors proposed a Rician fading channel model to highlight the fading effect in Radio frequency Identification (RIFD) System, using the statistics of Bit Error Rate (BER) and Signal-to-noise Ratio (SNR). This model was employed in addition to the existing RIFD system and was used to calculate the identification time to reflect the influence of channel situation on tag identification. The simulation showed that the Fading channel effect increased the Identification time as BER varies. It was also analyzed that the wireless channel has strong effect on the identification time.

The throughput performance of WLANs is affected by the mobility of the users [19]. The wireless data connections have high bit error rates, low bandwidth and long delays. The physical and MAC layer were fine tuned to improve the performance of WLAN. The performance metrics like slot time, short Inter-frame spacing (SIFS), minimum contention window (CW_{min}), Fragmentation Threshold (FTS) and Request to send (RTS) thresholds were focused upon to reduce collisions and media access delay. Hence an increase in throughput and channel utilization occurs, which can improve the performance of Wireless networks under heavy load conditions (high BER values). The effectiveness of optional RTS/CTS handshake mechanism on the performance of IEEE 802.11 based wireless local area networks (WLANs) using OPNET was also evaluated in [21]. The impact of parameters like throughput, packet loss rate, round trip time (RTT) for packets, retransmission rate and collision count on the performance metrics like

retransmissions, throughput, media access delay was presented.. It was cited that handshake mechanism is useful where hidden node problem exists, but the unnecessary use of RTS/CTS mechanism increases the overhead of RTS/CTS packets. The parameters like RTS/CTS threshold, fragmentation threshold and data rate impact the performance of wireless LAN. In [3], also the authors proposed the wireless network performance optimization using OPNET Modeler. The model was simulated and the results indicated that fine tuning of these parameters can help to improve the performance of WLANs.

THE IMPACT OF LOAD, NUMBER OF NODES, RTS/CTS, FTS AND DATA RATE ON PERFORMANCE METRICS LIKE END-TO-END THROUGHPUT AND AVERAGE DELAY WAS ANALYZED BY MEANS OF SIMULATION. THE SIMULATION STUDY OF IEEE 802.11B WIRELESS LAN USING OPNET IT GURU ACADEMIC EDITION 9.1 FOR IMPROVEMENT IN THE THROUGHPUT BY FINE TUNING THE ATTRIBUTES LIKE FRAGMENTATION THRESHOLD AND RTS THRESHOLD [1].

In the literature, discussed above the performance analysis of wireless LANs has been surveyed but the use of wireless technology doesn't mean an end to the wired technology. The following literature survey provides scope of improvement in the wired technology too.

In order to deal with burst data transmission the 100Mbps Ethernet is preferable to ensure communication performance [18]. The features of conventional protection system, including current differential protection and distance protection were analysed by the author. The disadvantages of complex power systems were pointed out. The comparative investigation of three wide area protection System (WAPS) architectures, i.e. centralized, distributed and networked using OPNET, revealed that networked structure is considered to be best due to its fast response time in terms of lesser delay or transfer time. The architecture and communication network of WAPS was investigated to utilize global information instead of local information to achieve better performance.

The load on the network server increases with increase in the user activity. An increased number of users increase the network load and degrades the performance. An effort was made to improve the performance by load balancing. Various probabilistic methods to study network performance [2] had been proposed during the research. The significance of using discrete-event simulation, as a methodology to confront network design and fine-tuning its parameters was also highlighted.

Another major problem exists in the form of network congestion. To overcome the problem of congestion, Fiber Distributed Data Interface and Asynchronous Transfer Mode type high-performance networks along with the bucket congestion control mechanism were modeled and simulated [4]. The effect of variation in attributes like traffic load on the performance metrics like end-to-end delay and throughput was analyzed.

The increase in traffic load effects the network performance In [5], a network model with switched Ethernet subnets and Gigabit Ethernet backbone under typical load conditions and also for time-sensitive applications such as voice over IP

was modeled and simulated. The simulations were carried out to study the impact of increase in traffic load on the performance metrics like delays was analyzed.

The type of routing technique used in the network is an important consideration to study the network performance. Three technologies – Internet protocol (IP), Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM) and Multiprotocol Label Switching (MPLS) were compared in terms of their routing capability [9]. Different performance metrics like end-to-end Delay, throughput, Channel Utilization, FTP download response time and normalized delivered traffic were analyzed using OPNET simulator. The results indicated that ATM and MPLS outperform IP (without modification) in terms of delay and response time to the exposed data. Another comparison of the performance of Gigabit Ethernet and ATM network technologies using modeling and simulation was done. Real-time voice and video conferencing type traffic were used to compare the network technologies in terms of response times and packet end-to-end delays. While ATM is a 53-byte frame connection-oriented technology, Gigabit Ethernet is a 512-byte frame (minimum) connectionless technology. The performance analysis indicated that the performance of ATM network is still very good [14]. But it does not keep up with the Gigabit Ethernet's small delay time. Hence Gigabit Ethernet provides better performance than ATM as a backbone network, even in networks that require the transmission of delay sensitive traffic such as video and voice.

A new operational model called “AMP model” and an improved ack-regulation scheme called SAD to explain and improve the performance of TCP/IP over wireless networks was presented. The use of link –sharing schedulers with just two queues (ack and packet queues, with SAD implemented on ack queues) to support bidirectional traffic was also proposed. In [10], the authors analyzed TCP performance in asymmetric networks, where throughput significantly depends on the reverse direction and packet loss.

The queuing disciplines are implemented for resource allocation mechanisms. The queuing disciplines used are First-in-first out (FIFO) queuing, priority Queuing (PQ) and weighted Fair Queuing (WFQ). A comparison of different queuing disciplines for different scenarios using simulation was presented for performance evaluation [11]. By varying the queuing disciplines the parameters like Traffic received End-to-End Delay and Traffic received or live video streaming video were presented.

The use of network connecting devices plays an important role in the network design. Various network scenarios were designed by changing the network devices like Hub, Switch and Ethernet cables using the network simulation software – OPNET. The performance of the network was analysed using various performance metrics like Delay and collision count, Traffic sink, Traffic source and packet size. It was observed that the throughput improved and collisions decreased when the packet size is reduced [13].

The choice of network simulator is very important for accurate simulation analysis. A comparative study of two network simulators: OPNET Modeler and NS-2 for packet level analysis was presented in [15]. Both discrete events

and analytical simulation methods were combined to check the performance of simulator in terms of speed while maintaining the accuracy. For performance testing of the network, different types of traffic like CBR (constant Bit Rate) and an FTP (File transfer protocol) were generated and simulated. Though both the simulators provide similar results, the “freeware” version of NS-2 makes it more attractive to a researcher but OPNET Modeler modules gain an edge by providing more features. So, OPNET can be of use in academia i.e. advanced networking education [16]. Various scenarios like VoIP, WLAN or video Streaming were designed, simulated and also analysed analytically to check accuracy. This illustrated the broader insight the OPNET software can offer in the networking technologies, simulation techniques and its impact of applications on the network performance.

III. IEEE 802.11

An 802.11 LAN is based on a cellular architecture where the system is subdivided into cells. Each cell called Basic Service Set is controlled by a Base Station called Access Point. Although a wireless LAN may be formed by a single cell, with or without a single Access Point, most installations will be formed by several cells, where the Access Points are connected through some kind of backbone called Distribution System. This backbone is typically Ethernet and, in some cases, is wireless itself as shown in Figure 1. The whole interconnected Wireless LAN, including the different cells, their respective Access Points and the Distribution System, is seen as a single 802 network to the upper layers of the OSI model and is known in the Standard as Extended Service Set. As any 802.x protocol, the 802.11 protocol covers the MAC and Physical Layer.

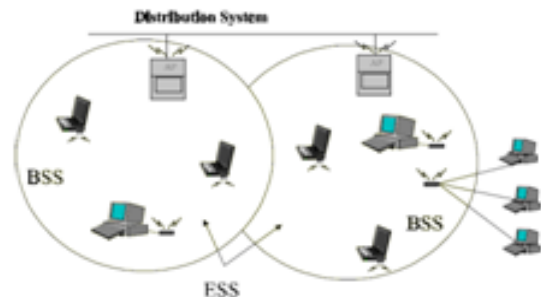


Figure 1: IEEE 802.11 LAN

The Standard currently defines a single MAC which interacts with three PHYs (running at 1 and 2Mbit/s) as Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum (in 2.4 GHz Band), Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum (in 2.4 GHz Band), and Infrared. The MAC Layer defines two different access methods, the Distributed Coordination Function and the Point Coordination Function. The IEEE 802.11b DCF mode is based on a “listen before-talk” mechanism i.e. it may be CSMA/CA protocol – a basic two way handshaking mechanism or Virtual Carrier Sense mechanism – four way handshaking mechanisms.

IV. IEEE 802.3

Wired Local Area Networking includes several technologies such as Ethernet, token Ring, Token bus, FDDI and ATM

LAN. Some of these technologies survived for a while, but Ethernet is by far the dominant technology. Evolution from a 10Mbps Standard Ethernet to bridged Ethernet and then to a switched Ethernet paved a way for faster Ethernet. IEEE 802.3 Standard specifies CSMA/CD as the access method for first-generation 10-Mbps Ethernet, a protocol that helps devices share the bandwidth evenly without having the two devices transmit at the same time on the network medium. This CSMA/CD protocol was created to overcome the problem of collisions that occur when the packets are transmitted simultaneously from different nodes.

V. PERFORMANCE METRICS

Some of the Performance metrics focused on, in the literature review, regarding wired and wireless LAN are:

Collision count: Total number of collisions encountered by this station during packet transmissions.

Data Dropped: Total number of bits that are sent by wireless node but never received by another node.

Delay: This statistic represents the end to end delay of all packets received by all the stations and forwarded to the higher layer.

Load: Total number of bits received from the higher layer. Packets arriving from the higher layer are stored in the higher layer queue. It may be measured in bits/sec or packets/sec.

Media access delay: Total time (in Seconds) that the packet is in the higher layer queue, from the arrival to the point when it is removed from the queue for transmission.

Queue Size: Represents the total number packets in MAC's transmission queue(s) (in 802.11e capable MACs, there will be a separate transmission queue for each access category).

Throughput: Total number of bits sent to the higher layer from the MAC layer. The data packets received at the physical layer are sent to the higher layer if they are destined for this destination.

Though Wireless networks, in contrary to wire networks, are relatively a new field of research, there exist some simulators to develop and test the effect of change in the input/other attributes parameters on various performance metrics.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the paper is to highlight the research going on in the field of Wireless and wired Computer Networks. Various simulation studies were done using different types of network simulators, to study their performance comparison. An extensive literature review on wireless and wired networks using simulation has been investigated for their performance comparison by varying the attributes of network objects such as traffic load, file size, RTS/CTS, customizing the physical characteristics to vary BER, slot time, SIFS time or the contention window, to determine their impact on throughput & delay.

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Texture Classification With High Order Local Pattern Descriptor: Local Derivative Pattern

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GJCST Classification
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Abstract-This paper proposes a novel method for texture classification using high-order local pattern descriptor: Local Derivative Pattern (LDP). LDP is used to encode directional pattern features based on local derivative variations. The n th order LDP is proposed to encode the $(n-1)$ th order local derivative direction variations, which can capture more detailed information. The local texture information for a given pixel and its neighborhood is characterized by the texture units calculated in different ways, and the global textural aspect of an image is revealed by its texture spectrum. This paper uses the second, third and fourth order LDPs to classify the textures. For this classification, the texture images are taken from Brodatz album.

Keywords- Local Derivative Pattern, Texture spectrum, Texture classification.

I. INTRODUCTION

Texture has long been an important topic in image processing [1,2,3,7,8,9,13,18]. Methods of texture analysis are usually divided into two major categories [8,15]. The first is the structural approach, where texture is considered as a repetition of some primitives, with a specific rule of placement. The traditional Fourier spectrum analysis and wavelet based analysis [11] are often used to determine the primitives and placement rule. Several authors have applied these methods to texture classification and texture characterization with a certain degree of success [5]. The second major approach in texture analysis is statistical method. Its aim is to characterize the stochastic properties of the spatial distribution of gray levels in an image. The gray tone co-occurrence matrix is frequently used for such characteristics. A set of textural features derived from the co-occurrence matrix is widely used to extract textural information from digital images [2,4].

Study of patterns on textures is recognized as an important step in characterization and classification of textures. Textures are classified recently by various pattern methods: preprocessed images [18], long linear patterns [10,17], and edge direction movements [6], Avoiding Complex Patterns [16], marble texture description [14]. Textures are also described and classified by using various wavelet transforms: one based on primitive patterns [19], and another based on statistical parameters [12].

Recently, local descriptors have gained much attention in texture analysis for their robustness to illumination and pose variations. One of the local descriptors is local feature analysis (LFA) proposed by Penev et al. [25]. In LFA, a dense set of local-topological fields are developed to extract local features. Through discovering a description of one class objects with the derived local features, LFA is a purely second-order statistic method.

The recently proposed local binary pattern (LBP) features are originally designed for texture description [23,24,26]. The operator has been successfully applied to facial expression analysis [27], background modeling [22] and face recognition [21]. In face recognition, it achieves a much better performance than Eigenface, Bayesian and EBGM methods, providing a new way of investigating into the face representation. The idea behind using the LBP features is that a texture can be seen as a composition of micropatterns [21]. LBP in nature represents the first-order circular derivative pattern of images, a micropattern generated by the concatenation of the binary gradient directions. However, the first-order pattern fails to extract more detailed information contained in the input object. To the best of our knowledge, no high-order local pattern operator has been investigated for texture analysis. In fact, the high-order operator can capture more detailed discriminative information. A novel object descriptor, the high order Local Derivative Pattern (LDP) is proposed by Baochang Zhang et al [20]. LBP can conceptually considered as a non-directional first order local pattern, which is the binary result of the first order derivative image. The second order LDP can capture the change of derivative directions among local neighbors, and encode the turning point in a given direction. The present paper computes the texture unit(TU) and texture spectrum by using second, third and fourth order LDPs in 00, 450, 900 and 1350 on original texture images. Later a classification method has been introduced to classify and to find accuracy rate of classification. For this purpose the present paper is organized as follows. Methodology is defined in the second section while in the third section results and discussions are given. The last section deals with conclusions.

II. METHODOLOGY

Derived from a general definition of texture in a local neighborhood, LBP is defined as a grayscale invariant texture measure and is a useful tool to model texture images. The LBP operator labels the pixels of an image by thresholding the 3×3 neighborhood of each pixel with the value of the central pixel and concatenating the results binomially to form a number. The thresholding function

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for the basic LBP can be formally represented in Fig. 1(a) and it is represented in equation 1.

$$E_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } V_i < V_0 \\ 1 & \text{if } V_i \geq V_0 \end{cases} \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, 8 \quad \dots (1)$$

where E_i , $i=1, 2, \dots, 8$, is an 8-neighborhood point around E_0 as shown in Fig. 1. Fig. 1(b) shows an example of obtaining an LBP. The resultant LBP for this is 101001111.

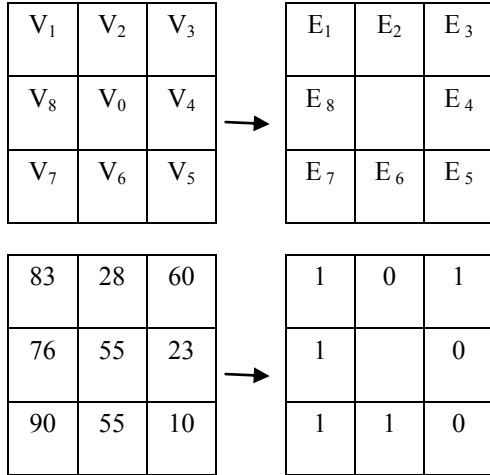


Fig. 1 (a)LBP representation(b)Example of obtaining the LBP

A. Local Derivate Pattern (Ldp)

Given an image $I(V)$, the first-order derivatives along 0° , 45° , 90° and 135° directions are denoted as $I'_\alpha(V)$ where $\alpha=0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ$ and 135° . Let V_0 be a point in $I(V)$, and $V_i, i=1, \dots, 8$ be the neighboring point around V_0 (see Fig. 1(a)). The four first-order derivatives at $V=V_0$ are given in equations 2, 3, 4 and 5 for $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ$ and 135° respectively[20].

$$I'_{0^\circ}(V_0) = I(V_0) - I(V_4) \quad (2)$$

$$I'_{45^\circ}(V_0) = I(V_0) - I(V_3) \quad (3)$$

$$I'_{90^\circ}(V_0) = I(V_0) - I(V_2) \quad (4)$$

$$I'_{135^\circ}(V_0) = I(V_0) - I(V_1) \quad (5)$$

The second-order directional LDP, $LDP^2_\alpha(V_0)$, in α direction at $V=V_0$ is defined as

$$LDP^2_\alpha(V_0) = \{f(I'_\alpha(V_0), I'_\alpha(V_1)), f(I'_\alpha(V_0), I'_\alpha(V_2)), \dots, f(I'_\alpha(V_0), I'_\alpha(V_7)), f(I'_\alpha(V_0), I'_\alpha(V_8))\} \quad (6)$$

where $f(.,.)$ is a binary coding function determining the types of local pattern transitions. It encodes the co-occurrence of two derivative directions at different neighboring pixels as

$$f(I'_\alpha(V_0), I'_\alpha(V_i)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } I'_\alpha(V_i)I'_\alpha(V_0) > 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } I'_\alpha(V_i)I'_\alpha(V_0) \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad i=1, 2, \dots, 8 \quad (7)$$

Finally, the second-order Local Derivative Pattern, $LDP^2(V)$, is defined as the concatenation of the four 8-bit directional LDPs as given in equation 8.

$$LDP^2(V) = \{LDP^2_\alpha(V) | \alpha = 0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ\} \quad (8)$$

To calculate the third-order Local Derivative Pattern, we first compute the second-order derivatives along $0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ$ and 135° directions, denoted as $I''_\alpha(V)$ where $\alpha=0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$. The third-order Local Derivative Pattern, $LDP^3_\alpha(V_0)$, in α direction at $V=V_0$ is defined as

$$LDP^3_\alpha(V_0) = \{f(I''_\alpha(V_0), I''_\alpha(V_1)), f(I''_\alpha(V_0), I''_\alpha(V_2)), \dots, f(I''_\alpha(V_0), I''_\alpha(V_7)), f(I''_\alpha(V_0), I''_\alpha(V_8))\} \quad (9)$$

where $f(.,.)$ is defined as

$$f(I''_\alpha(V_0), I''_\alpha(V_i)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } I''_\alpha(V_i)I''_\alpha(V_0) > 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } I''_\alpha(V_i)I''_\alpha(V_0) \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad i=1, 2, \dots, 8 \quad (10)$$

$$LDP^3(V) = \{LDP^3_\alpha(V) | \alpha = 0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ\} \quad (11)$$

In a general formulation, the n^{th} order LDP is a binary string describing gradient trend changes in a local region of directional $(n-1)^{\text{th}}$ order derivative images $I'^n_\alpha(V)$ as

$$LDP^n_\alpha(V_0) = \{f(I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0), I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_1)), f(I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0), I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_2)), \dots, f(I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0), I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_7)), f(I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0), I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_8))\} \quad (12)$$

where $I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0)$ is the $(n-1)^{\text{th}}$ order derivative in α direction at $V=V_0$. $f(I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0), I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_i))$ is defined in (11), which encodes the $(n-1)^{\text{th}}$ -order gradient transitions into binary patterns, providing an extra order pattern information on the local region.

$$f(I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0), I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_i)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_i)I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0) > 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_i)I'^{n-1}_\alpha(V_0) \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad i=1, 2, \dots, 8 \quad (13)$$

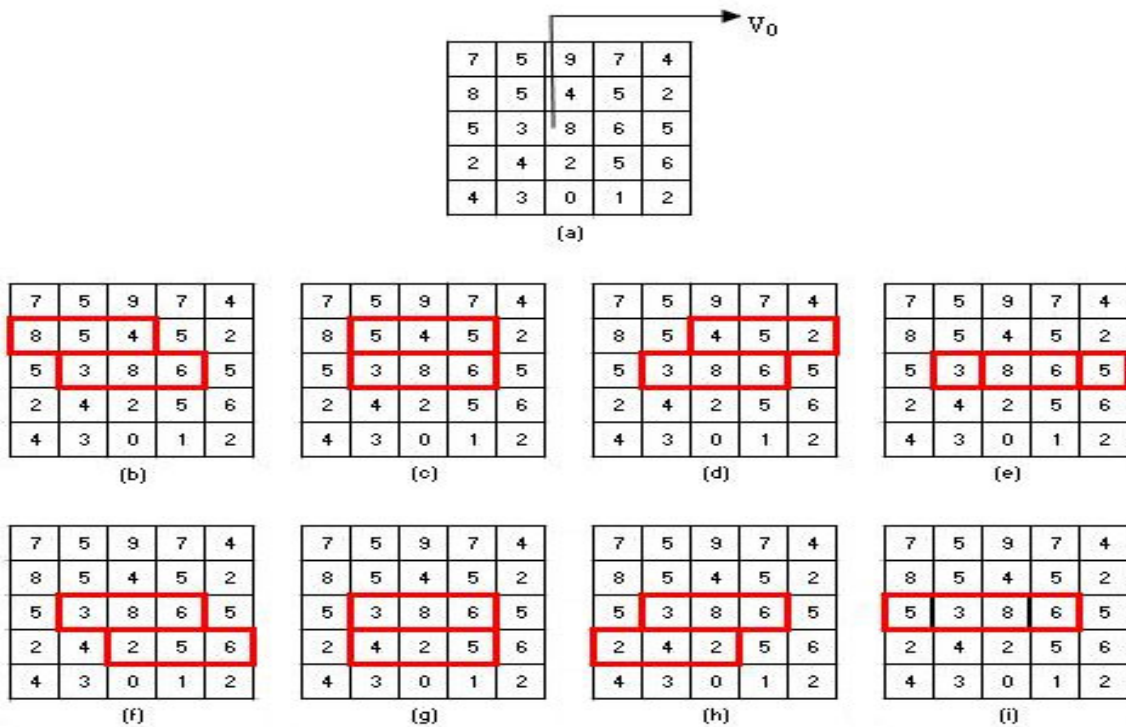


Fig. 2. Example to obtain the third order LDP(a) Original image (b) $f(I_0^*(V_0), I_0^*(V_1))$ (c) $f(I_0^*(V_0), I_0^*(V_2))$ (d) $f(I_0^*(V_0), I_0^*(V_3))$ (e) $f(I_0^*(V_0), I_0^*(V_4))$ (f) $f(I_0^*(V_0), I_0^*(V_5))$ (g) $f(I_0^*(V_0), I_0^*(V_6))$ (h) $f(I_0^*(V_0), I_0^*(V_7))$ (i) $f(I_0^*(V_0), I_0^*(V_8))$.

B. Algorithm For Evaluating Percentage Of Correct Classification On Images Using Local Derivative Pattern (LDP)

Begin

- Take input Brodatz Textures Tk, k= 1 to 12.
- Subdivide the Tk , into 16 equal sized blocks. Name them as subimage TkSi, k=1 to 12 and i = 1 to 16.
- Select at random, a training sample sub image from each Tk, k= 1to 12 and denote it as TkSj where 'j' is any of the sample pieces 1 to 16 of a particular Tk.
- Calculate the LDP and Texture Spectrum for the second, third and fourth order LDPs by moving the 3x3 matrix across the sample with overlapping (Convolving), for TkSj.
- To obtain Texture Spectrum value of testing subimage repeat step 3 for TkSm k= 1 to 12, m=1 to 16(m ≠ j).
- To classify a subimage TkSm, the distance between the training set and the testing samples is measured.
- The tested set falls into the Class k, k= 1 to 12, such that D (k) is minimum among all the D (k), k=1to 12.
- For each texture Tk, k=1 to 12, we evaluate the percentage of correct classification (PCC) and list the output in the form of table.

End

$$PCC_k = \frac{\text{Number of subimages correctly classified}}{\text{Number of subimages considered for testing}} \times 100$$

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The Table 1 shows the percentage of correct classification (PCC) on 12 Brodatz textures [28] using original images derived from the second, third and fourth order LDPs respectively. The tables clearly indicate that for second order LDP the PCC is around 92% which has decreased to 83% for third order LDP and fourth order LDP. By using second order LDP except the textures D₁, D₄, D₅ and D₉ the remaining eight textures showing a PCC of 100%. But it is little bit different for third and fourth order LDPs. The PCC is also shown with the help of a graph in Fig. 3.

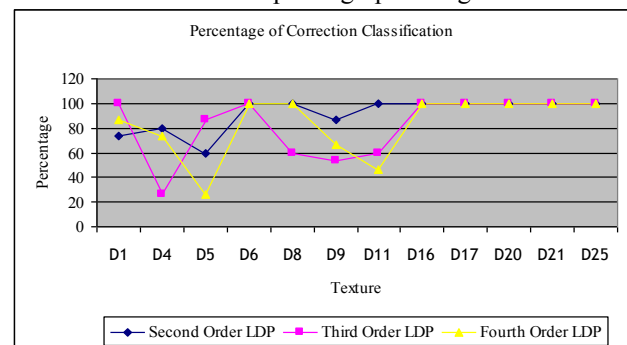


Fig. 3. Percentage of Correct Classification of Brodatz Textures

IV. CONCLUSIONS

This paper proposed a new method of texture classification using high order local patterns: Local Derivative Patterns (LDP). The second, third and fourth order LDP in the four directions i.e. 00, 45, 90 and 135 are calculated from which texture spectrum is obtained. By using this texture spectrum the percentage of correct classification is obtained. The LDP extract high order local information by encoding various distinctive spatial relationships contained in a given local region. The experimental results clearly indicate that the percentage of correct classification for second order LDP is good when compared with third and fourth order LDP.

Table 1: Percentage of Correct Classification for the Brodatz Textures

Texture	Second Order LDP	Third Order LDP	Fourth Order LDP
D ₁	73.33	100.00	86.67
D ₄	80.00	26.67	73.33
D ₅	60.00	86.67	26.67
D ₆	100.00	100.00	100.00
D ₈	100.00	60.00	100.00
D ₉	86.67	53.33	66.67
D ₁₁	100.00	60.00	46.67
D ₁₆	100.00	100.00	100.00
D ₁₇	100.00	100.00	100.00
D ₂₀	100.00	100.00	100.00
D ₂₁	100.00	100.00	100.00
D ₂₅	100.00	100.00	100.00
Avg.	91.67	82.22	83.33

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Information Security Using Threshold Cryptography With Paillier Algorithm

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GJCST Classification
D.4.6, K.6.5

Abstract—The dynamic and cooperative nature of ad hoc networks present challenges in securing these networks. There are recent research efforts in securing ad hoc networks. Amongst security approaches, there are threshold cryptography and authentication. In this paper we survey the threshold cryptography based schemes and the authentication schemes that have been proposed to secure ad hoc networks. We conclude this paper and identify the challenges and open research areas associated with each of these approaches. The idea of threshold cryptography is to protect information (or computation) by fault-tolerantly distributing it among a cluster of cooperating computers. First consider the fundamental problem of threshold cryptography, a problem of secure sharing of a secret. A secret sharing scheme allows one to distribute a piece of secret information among several servers in a way that meets the following requirements: (1) no group of corrupt servers (smaller than a given threshold) can figure out what the secret is, even if they cooperate; (2) when it becomes necessary that the secret information be reconstructed, a large enough number of servers (a number larger than the above threshold) can always do it.

I. INTRODUCTION

Threshold Cryptography is the art of chopping a secret into little bits. Only by possessing more than a threshold number of bits of the secret can the secret be determined. Algorithms exist to break any secret up such that at least and exactly M out of N holders of pieces of the secret must give approval (and their partial secret or key) in order to compute the total secret (e.g. 3 of 5, 3 of 12, 5 of 12, etc.). Removing probability has a cost, though... a secret must be broken into $C(N, M-1)$ pieces and each holder carries $(NM+1)/N$ parts of the whole key... so '3 of 12' is more expensive per-node than '5 of 12'. (These numbers come from the pigeonhole principle and constraints: any piece 'pK' must be found on $NM+1$ holders so that access to a full M secret holders guarantees 'pK' will be known, whilst access to $M-1$ computers must guarantee that there is at least one piece not found, so 'pK' must NOT be with the other $M-1$ computers. The minimum number of component 'pK' elements to do this is $(N) \text{ Choose } (M-1)$. Individual pK elements can be made artificially large in order to subvert guessing of one or two missing pieces; the combinatory function needn't be

straightforward appended. However, The computation and storage cost of this approach is high, and it may do well to combine it with some straightforward split-and-distribute as listed above; e.g. splitting the 'require 5 of 7 pieces' to 'more than 7' people is the natural extension to splitting 'require 3 of 3 pieces' to '12 people'. The combined effect can avoid the massive costs of splitting and storing, say '5 of 20' parts ($C(20,4)$ unique parts, every node holding $\sim 16/20$ ths of total secret, vs. $C(7,4)$ parts with each node holding $3/7$ ths of total secret). The main advantage of mixing in this algorithmic division approach is in achieving better guarantees as to redundancy and survivability while simultaneously increasing the number of users one must access to possess the whole secret. E.g. for the other approach, to require 5 users would require splitting the key into 5 pieces and divvying that up among, say, 15 people; it would take access to 5 people to gain the secret, and the secret could be lost by losing 3 people. Splitting it to 5 of 7 first, then dividing the 7 chunks among 14 people results in 2 different people having a copy of any given chunk, and the secret won't be lost before losing 6 people (losing three whole chunks).

As a security measure, Threshold Cryptography requires that many systems must be compromised prior to taking control of a secret, inherently including resistance to snooping or abuse by any super users of the computation resource (who would have the ability to do so if the secret were wholly on one system). It also provides inherent redundancy of the secret... e.g. if you can guarantee that it takes at least and at most 5 of 12 secret-holders to build the secret, you can guarantee that a failure of up to 7 systems is tolerable without failure. With a probabilistic split, you can easily calculate a percentage chance that the data is unavailable for each loss of node... and, with intelligent split of components, you can guarantee that at least some count of nodes must be lost before the data has any chance of being lost. In the case of authorization to access a different system (e.g. to control a power plant), security can be increased further by demanding that a few parts of the approval come from particular people that are known to still be accessible... and by changing these people at regular intervals. This makes it much more difficult to gain access even by compromising the systems... because you can't easily know which particular systems ought to be compromised.

II. MOTIVATION

The strongest reason for using this mechanism over straightforward encryption is that a secret might need to be available to users that can only provide a -certificate-authorizing access to a file or service, and the primary

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encryption isn't against any key with which individuals share long-term access (there is no shared key). E.g. one can use Threshold Cryptography to encrypt files or split keys requiring, say, either 'Secret' clearance with 'Power Grid' specialization, or 'Top Secret' clearance, represented as a certificate signed by a government master key not in expiration, and any individual that can prove to M of N systems that he or she possesses the necessary clearances will be provided the capability to actually perform the task. Key distribution is a difficult problem, doubly so when you won't trust that any one key distribution server hasn't been compromised. Threshold Cryptography is one of the more elegant answers to that particular problem. A very useful extension of secret sharing is function sharing. Its main idea is that a highly sensitive operation, such as decryption or signing, can be performed by a group of cooperating servers in such a way that no minority of servers is able to perform this operation by themselves, nor would they be able to prevent the other servers from performing the operation when it is required.

In many real-life situations, we don't believe that any given person can be trusted, and we may even suspect that a big fraction of all people are dishonest, yet it is reasonable to assume that the majority of people are trustworthy. Similarly, in on-line transactions, we may doubt that a given server can be trusted, but we hope that the majority of servers are working properly. Based on this assumption, we can create trusted entities. A good example of an application whose security could be greatly improved with a threshold solution is a network Certification Authority, a trusted entity that certifies that a given public key corresponds to a given user. If we trust one server to perform this operation, then it is possible that as a result of just one break-in, no certificate can any longer be trusted. Thus it is a good idea to distribute the functionality of the certification authority between many servers, so that an adversary would need to corrupt half of them before he can forge a certificate on some public key.

Goals: In the threshold setting, we would like to implement, via efficient protocols, the most secure cryptosystems and signature schemes. We would also like to make our protocols secure in the strongest possible model of faults. The following are some of the various considerations we make when modeling computer faults

A. The Size Of The Threshold

What fraction of the servers can be corrupted by the adversary without any harm to the service (e.g. signature or decryption) that these servers implement?

B. Efficiency Considerations

How much communication, storage, and computation do these fault-tolerant protocols require?

C. Model Of Communication

How realistic are the requirements we place on it? Do we require synchronous or partially synchronous

communication, authenticated broadcast and secure links between servers?

D. Type Of Adversary We Tolerate

How does the adversary choose which players to corrupt? Can a server securely erase its local data so that it cannot be retrieved by the adversary once the server is infiltrated?

III. PAILLIER CRYPTOSYSTEM ALGORITHM

A. Key Generation

- i. Choose two large prime numbers p and q randomly and independently of each other such that $\gcd(pq, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$. This property is assured if both primes are of equivalent length, i.e., $p, q \in 1 || \{0, 1\}^{s-1}$ for security parameter s .

Compute $n = pq$ and $\lambda = \text{lcm}(p-1, q-1)$.

- ii. Select random integer g where $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{n^2}^*$
- iii. Ensure n divides the order of g by checking the existence of the following modular multiplicative inverse $\mu = (L(g^\lambda \bmod n^2))^{-1} \bmod n$.

Where function L is defined as $L(u) = \frac{u-1}{n}$.

Note that the notation $\frac{a}{b}$ does not denote the modular multiplication of a times the modular multiplicative inverse of b but rather the quotient of a divided by b , i.e., the largest integer value $v \geq 0$ to satisfy the relation $a \geq vb$.

- a. The Public (Encryption) Key Is (N, G) .
- b. The private (decryption) key is (λ, μ) .

If using p, q of equivalent length, a simpler variant of the above key generation steps would be to set $g = n+1, \lambda = \varphi(n)$, And $\mu = \varphi(n)^{-1} \bmod n$ where $\varphi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$.

IV. ENCRYPTION

- i. Let m be a message to be encrypted where $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n$
- ii. Select random r where $r \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$
- iii. Compute cipher text as $c = g^m \cdot r^n \bmod n^2$

V. DECRYPTION

- i. Cipher text $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{n^2}^*$
 - ii. Compute message $m = L(c^\lambda \bmod n^2) \cdot \mu \bmod n$
- As the original paper points out, decryption is "essentially one exponentiation modulo n^2 ."

VI. HOMOMORPHIC PROPERTIES

A notable feature of the Paillier cryptosystem is its homomorphic properties. As the encryption function is additively homomorphic, the following identities can be described:

A. Homomorphic Addition Of Plaintexts

The product of two cipher texts will decrypt to the sum of their corresponding plaintexts,

$$D(E(m_1, r_1) \cdot E(m_2, r_2) \bmod n^2) = m_1 + m_2 \bmod n.$$

The product of a cipher text with A plaintext raising g will decrypt to the sum of the corresponding plaintexts,

$$D(E(m_1, r_1) \cdot g^{m_2} \bmod n^2) = m_1 + m_2 \bmod n.$$

B. Homomorphic Multiplication Of Plaintexts

An encrypted plaintext raised to the power of another plaintext will decrypt to the product of the two plaintexts,

$$D(E(m_1, r_1)^{m_2} \bmod n^2) = m_1 m_2 \bmod n,$$

$$D(E(m_2, r_2)^{m_1} \bmod n^2) = m_1 m_2 \bmod n.$$

More generally, an encrypted plaintext raised to a constant k will decrypt to the product of the plaintext and the constant,

$$D(E(m_1, r_1)^k \bmod n^2) = k m_1 \bmod n.$$

However, given the Paillier encryptions of two messages there is no known way to compute an encryption of the product of these messages without knowing the private key.

VII. SEMANTIC SECURITY

The original cryptosystem as shown above does provide semantic security against chosen plaintext attacks (IND-CPA). The ability to successfully distinguish the challenge cipher text essentially amounts to the ability to decide composite residuosity. The so-called decisional composite residuosity assumption (DCRA) is believed to be intractable. Because of the aforementioned homomorphic properties however, the system is malleable, and therefore does not enjoy the highest echelon of semantic security that protects against adaptive chosen-cipher text attacks (IND-CCA2). Usually in cryptography the notion of malleability is not seen as an "advantage," but under certain applications such as secure electronic voting and threshold cryptosystems, this property may indeed be necessary. Paillier and Pointcheval however went on to propose an improved cryptosystem that incorporates the combined hashing of message m with random r . Similar in intent to the Cramer-Shoup cryptosystem, the hashing prevents an attacker, given only c , from being able to change m in a meaningful way. Through this adaptation the improved scheme can be shown to be INDCCA2 secure in the random oracle model.

VIII. APPLICATIONS

A. Electronic voting

Semantic security is not the only consideration. There are situations under which malleability may be desirable. The above homomorphic properties can be utilized by secure electronic voting systems. Consider a simple binary ("for" or "against") vote. Let m voters cast a vote of either 1 (for) or 0 (against). Each voter encrypts their choice before casting their vote. The election official takes the product of the m encrypted votes and then decrypts the result and obtains the value n , which is the sum of all the votes. The election

official then knows that n people voted for and $m-n$ people voted against. The role of the random r ensures that two equivalent votes will encrypt to the same value only with negligible likelihood, hence ensuring voter privacy.

B. ELECTRONIC CASH

Another feature named in paper is the notion of self-blinding. This is the ability to change one cipher text into another without changing the content of its decryption. This has application to the development of electronic cash, an effort originally spear-headed by David Chaum. Imagine paying for an item online without the vendor needing to know your credit card number, and hence your identity. The goal in both electronic cash and electronic voting is to ensure the e-coin (likewise e-vote) is valid, while at the same time not disclosing the identity of the person with whom it is currently associated.

IX. CONCLUSION

A new threshold Signing scheme is proposed in this project that when combined with Shared Paillier secret keys generation will lead us to a complete solution for the Threshold Paillier problem. The complete solution has also been implemented successfully in this project.

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Intrusion Detection System For Adhoc Networks

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Abstract-The rapid proliferation of wireless networks and mobile computing applications has changed the landscape of network security. The recent denial of service attacks on major Internet sites have shown us, no open computer network is immune from intrusions. The wireless ad-hoc network is particularly vulnerable due to its features of open medium, dynamic changing topology, cooperative algorithms, lack of centralized monitoring and management point, and lack of a clear line of defense. The traditional way of protecting networks with firewalls and encryption software is no longer sufficient and effective. Many intrusion detection techniques have been developed on fixed wired networks but have been turned to be inapplicable in this new environment. We need to search for new architecture and mechanisms to protect wireless networks and mobile computing application. In this paper, we examine the vulnerabilities of wireless networks and say that we must include intrusion detection in the security architecture for mobile computing environment. We have showed such architecture and evaluated key mechanisms in this architecture such as applying mobile agents to intrusion detection, anomaly detection and misuse detection for mobile ad-hoc networks.

Keywords-Intrusion, firewall, Adhoc networks, Route Discovery and Route maintenance.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last three years, the networking revolution has finally come of age. More than ever before, we see that the Internet is changing computing, as we know it. The possibilities and opportunities are limitless; unfortunately, so too are the risks and chances of malicious intrusions. It is very important that the security mechanisms of a system are designed so as to prevent unauthorized access to system resources and data. However, completely preventing breaches of security appear, at present, unrealistic. We can, however, try to detect these intrusion attempts so that action may be taken to repair the damage later. This field of research is called Intrusion Detection.

A. Computer Security And Its Role

One broad definition of a secure computer system is given by Garfinkel and Spafford as one that can be depended upon to behave as it is expected to. It is always a point of benefit to integrate security with dependability and how to obtain a dependable computing system. Dependability is the trustworthiness of a system and can be seen as the quality

of the service a system offers. Integrating security and dependability can be done in various ways. One approach is to treat security as one characteristic of dependability on the same level as availability, reliability and safety.

A narrower definition of security is the possibility for a system to protect objects with respect to confidentiality, authentication, integrity and non-repudiation.

B. Threats Of Security

Threats can be seen as potential violations of security and exist because of vulnerabilities, i.e. weakness, in a system. There are two basic types of threats: accidental threats and intentional threats.

i. Accidental Threat

An accidental threat can be manifested and the result is either an exposure of confidential information or cause of an illegal system state to occur i.e. modification of an object. Exposures can emerge from both hardware and software failures as well as from user and operational mistakes thus resulting in the violation of confidentiality. It can also be manifested as modification of an object, which is the violation of object integrity. An object here can be both information and resource.

ii. Intentional Threat

An intentional threat is an action performed by an entity with the intention to violate security. Examples of attacks are interruption, modification, interception and fabrication of data.

C. Vulnerabilities Of Mobile Wireless Networks

The nature of mobile computing environment makes it very vulnerable to an adversary's malicious attacks.

Firstly, the use of wireless links renders the network susceptible to attacks ranging from passive eavesdropping to active interfering as attacks on these links can from any direction and target at any node. This means that a wireless ad-hoc network will not have a clear line of defense, and every node has to be prepared for encounters with an adversary directly or indirectly.

Secondly, mobile nodes are autonomous units that are capable of roaming independently. Since tracking down a particular mobile node in a global scale network cannot be done easily, attacks by compromised node from within the network are more damaging and harder to detect.

Third, decision-making in mobile computing environment is sometimes decentralized and some wireless network algorithms rely on the cooperative participation of all nodes and the infrastructure. Furthermore, mobile

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computing has introduced new type of computational and communication activities that seldom appear in fixed or wired environment. Applications and services in a mobile wireless network can be a weak link as well.

D. Need For Intrusion Detection

A computer system should provide confidentiality, integrity and assurance against denial of service. However, due to increased connectivity (especially on the Internet), and the vast spectrum of financial possibilities that are opening up, more and more systems are subject to attack by intruders. These subversion attempts try to exploit flaws in the operating system as well as in application programs and have resulted in spectacular incidents like the Internet Worm incident of 1988.

There are two ways to handle subversion attempts. One way is to prevent subversion itself by building a completely secure system. We could, for example, require all users to identify and authenticate themselves; we could protect data by various cryptographic methods and very tight access control mechanisms.

The history of security research has taught us a valuable lesson – no matter how many intrusion prevention measures are inserted in a network, there are always some weak links that one could exploit to break in. We thus see that we are stuck with systems that have vulnerabilities for a while to come. If there are attacks on a system, we would like to detect them as soon as possible (preferably in real-time) and take appropriate action. This is essentially what an Intrusion Detection System (IDS) does. An IDS does not usually take preventive measures when an attack is detected; it is a reactive rather than pro-active agent. It plays the role of an informant rather than a police officer.

II. BACKGROUND ON INTRUSION DETECTION

In the last three years, the networking revolution has finally come of age. More than ever before, we see that the Internet is changing computing, as we know it. The possibilities and opportunities are limitless; unfortunately, so too are the risks and chances of malicious intrusions.

It is very important that the security mechanisms of a system are designed so as to prevent unauthorized access to system resources and data. However, completely preventing breaches of security appear, at present, unrealistic. We can, however, try to detect these intrusion attempts so that action may be taken to repair the damage later. This field of research is called Intrusion Detection.

A simple firewall can no longer provide enough security as in the past. Today's corporations are drafting intricate security policies whose enforcement requires the use of multiple systems, both proactive and reactive (and often multi-layered and highly redundant). The premise behind intrusion detection systems is simple: Deploy a set of agents to inspect network traffic and look for the "signatures" of known network attacks.

However, the evolution of network computing and the awesome availability of the Internet have complicated this

concept somewhat. With the advent of Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) attacks, which are often launched from hundreds of separate sources, the traffic source no longer provides reliable temporal clues that an attack is in progress. Worse yet, the task of responding to such attacks is further complicated by the diversity of the source systems, and especially by the geographically distributed nature of most attacks.

Intrusion detection techniques while often regarded as grossly experimental, the field of intrusion detection has matured a great deal to the point where it has secured a space in the network defense landscape alongside firewalls and virus protection systems. While the actual implementations tend to be fairly complex, and often proprietary, the concept behind intrusion detection is a surprisingly simple one: Inspect all network activity (both inbound and outbound) and identify suspicious patterns that could be evidence of a network or system attack.

A. Classification Of Intrusion Detection Systems

Intrusions can be divided into 6 main types

- i. Attempted break-ins, which are detected by atypical behavior profiles or violations of security constraints.
- ii. Masquerade attacks, which are detected by atypical behavior profiles or violations of security constraints.
- iii. Penetration of the security control system, which are detected by monitoring for specific patterns of activity.
- iv. Leakage, which is detected by atypical use of system resources.
- v. Denial of service, which is detected by atypical use of system resources.
- vi. Malicious use, which is detected by atypical behavior profiles, violations of security constraints, or use of special privileges.

We can divide the techniques of intrusion detection into two main types.

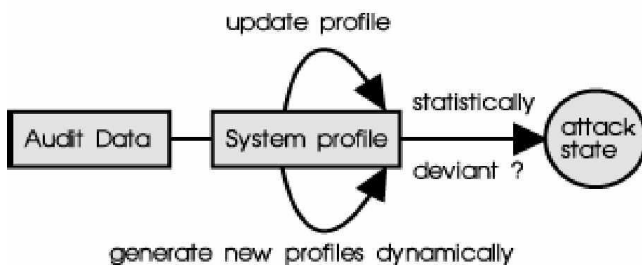
B. Anomaly Detection

Anomaly detection techniques assume that all intrusive activities are necessarily anomalous. This means that if we could establish a "normal activity profile" for a system, we could, in theory, flag all system states varying from the established profile by statistically significant amounts as intrusion attempts. However, if we consider that the set of intrusive activities only intersects the set of anomalous activities instead of being exactly the same, we find a couple of interesting possibilities: (1) Anomalous activities that are not intrusive are flagged as intrusive. (2) Intrusive activities that are not anomalous result in false negatives (events are

not flagged intrusive, though they actually are). This is a dangerous problem, and is far more serious than the problem of false positives.

The main issues in anomaly detection systems thus become the selection of threshold levels so that neither of the above 2 problems is unreasonably magnified, and the selection of features to monitor. Anomaly detection systems are also computationally expensive because of the overhead of keeping track of, and possibly updating several system profile metrics. Some systems based on this technique are discussed in Section 4 while a block diagram of a typical anomaly detection system is shown in Figure below

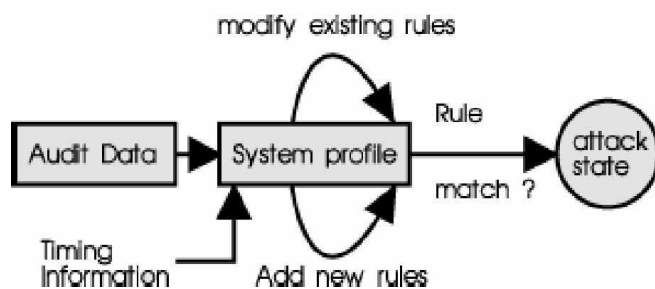
A typical anomaly detection system



C. Misuse Detection

The concept behind misuse detection schemes is that there are ways to represent attacks in the form of a pattern or a signature so that even variations of the same attack can be detected. This means that these systems are not unlike virus detection systems -- they can detect many or all known attack patterns, but they are of little use for as yet unknown attack methods. An interesting point to note is that anomaly detection systems try to detect the complement of "bad" behavior. Misuse detection systems try to recognize known "bad" behavior. The main issues in misuse detection systems are how to write a signature that encompasses all possible variations of the pertinent attack, and how to write signatures that do not also match non-intrusive activity. A block diagram of a typical misuse detection system is shown in Figure below.

A typical misuse detection system



D. Network Based Intrusion Detection

The most obvious location for an intrusion detection system is right on the segment being monitored. Network-based

intrusion detectors insert themselves in the network just like any other device, except they promiscuously examine every packet they see on the wire.

E. Host Based Intrusion Detection

While network-based intrusion detectors are straightforward to deploy and maintain, there is a whole class of attacks closely coupled to the target system and extremely hard to fingerprint. These are the ones that exploit vulnerabilities particular to specific operating systems and application suites. Only host-based intrusion detection systems (the ones running as an application on a network-connected host) can correlate the complex array of system-specific parameters that make up the signature of a well-orchestrated attack.

III. ANOMALY DETECTION SYSTEMS

There have been a few approaches to anomaly intrusion detection systems, some of which are described below.

A. Statistical Approaches

In this method, initially, behavior profiles for subjects are generated. As the system continues running, the anomaly detector constantly generates the variance of the present profile from the original one. We note that, in this case, there may be several measures that affect the behavior profile, like activity measures, CPU time used, number of network connections in a time period, etc. In some systems, the current profile and the previous profile are merged at intervals, but in some other systems profile generation is a one-time activity.

An open issue with statistical approaches in particular, and anomaly detection systems in general, is the selection of measures to monitor. It is not known exactly what the subset of all possible measures that accurately predicts intrusive activities is. Static methods of determining these measures are sometimes misleading because of the unique features of a particular system. Thus, it seems that a combination of static and dynamic determination of the set of measures should be done. Some problems associated with this technique have been remedied by other methods, including the method involving Predictive Pattern Generation, which takes past events into account when analyzing the data.

B. Predictive Pattern Generation

This method of intrusion detection tries to predict future events based on the events that have already occurred. Therefore, we could have a rule $E1 - E2 \rightarrow (E3 = 80\%, E4 = 15\%, E5 = 5\%)$. This would mean that given that events $E1$ and $E2$ have occurred, with $E2$ occurring after $E1$, there is an 80% probability that event $E3$ will follow, a 15% chance that event $E4$ will follow and a 5% probability that event $E5$ will follow.

Problem- The problem with this is that some intrusion scenarios that are not described by the rules will not be

flagged intrusive. Thus, if an event sequence A - B - C exists that is intrusive, but not listed in the rule base, it will be classified as unrecognized.

Solution- The above problem can be partially solved by flagging any unknown events as intrusions (increasing the probability of false positives), or by flagging them as nonintrusive (thus increasing the probability of false negatives). In the normal case, however, an event is flagged intrusive if the left hand side of a rule is matched, but the right hand side is statistically very deviant from the prediction.

C. Neural Networks

Another approach taken in intrusion detection systems is the use of neural networks. The idea here is to train the neural network to predict a user's next action or command, given the window of *n* previous actions or commands. The network is trained on a set of representative user commands. After the training period, the network tries to match actual commands with the actual user profile already present in the net. Any incorrectly predicted events actually measure the deviation of the user from the established profile.

IV. MISUSE DETECTION SYSTEMS

There has been significant research in misuse detection systems in the recent past. Some of these systems are explained in depth in this section.

A. Expert Systems

These systems are modeled in such a way as to separate the rule matching phase from the action phase. The matching is done according to audit trail events. IDES follows a hybrid intrusion detection technique consisting of a misuse detection component as well as an anomaly detection component. The anomaly detector is based on the statistical approach, and it flags events as intrusive if they are largely deviant from the expected behavior. To do this, it builds user profiles based on many different criteria (more than 30 criteria, including CPU and I/O usage, commands used, local network activity, system errors etc.). These profiles are updated at periodic intervals. The expert system misuse detection component encodes known intrusion scenarios and attack patterns (bugs in old versions of send mail could be one vulnerability). The rule database can be changed for different systems.

B. Keystroke Monitoring

This is a very simple technique that monitors keystrokes for attack patterns. Unfortunately the system has several defects. Features of shells like *bash*, *ksh*, and *tcsh* in which user definable aliases are present defeat the technique unless alias expansion and semantic analysis of the commands is taken up. The method also does not analyze the running of a program, only the keystrokes. This means that a malicious program cannot be flagged for intrusive activities. Operating

systems do not offer much support for keystroke capturing, so the keystroke monitor should have a hook that analyses keystrokes before sending them on to their intended receiver. An improvement to this would be to monitor system calls by application programs as well, so that an analysis of the program's execution is possible.

C. Model Based Intrusion Detection

States that are certain scenarios are inferred by certain other observable activities. If these activities are monitored, it is possible to find intrusion attempts by looking at activities that infer a certain intrusion scenario. The model-based scheme consists of three important modules. The anticipator uses the active models and the scenario models to try to predict the next step in the scenario that is expected to occur. A scenario model is a knowledge base with specifications of intrusion scenarios. The planner then translates this hypothesis into a format that shows the behavior, as it would occur in the audit trail. It uses the predicted information to plan what to search for next. The interpreter then searches for this data in the audit trail. The system proceeds this way, accumulating more and more evidence for an intrusion attempt until a threshold is crossed; at this point, it signals an intrusion attempt.

V. IDS ISSUES IN MOBILE ENVIRONMENT

Intrusion detection for traditional, wired networks has been the topic of significant research over the past few years. A problem arises, however, when taking the research for wired networks and directly applying it to wireless networks. Key assumptions are made when designing IDSs for wired networks, such as the difficulty for an attacker to penetrate the physical security of the system, the amount of network bandwidth available to the IDS, etc. Specific problems faced when building IDS for a mobile network are addressed below.

A. Lack of Physical Wires

The most obvious difference when building an IDS in a wireless environment is the fact that an attacker no longer has to gain physical access to the system in order to compromise the security of the network. Potentially, it is very simple for someone to eavesdrop on network traffic in a wireless environment because they no longer have to break through any physical medium to gain access to the traffic.

B. Bandwidth Issues

Wireless networks have more constrained bandwidth as compared to wired networks. This problem can manifest itself in a number of different ways when an IDS is using wireless communication to convey information between parts of the IDS on separate nodes. An IDS in a mobile environment must be extremely careful to limit the amount of communication that takes place between nodes. A second

problem that may possibly arise because of limited bandwidth. Is erroneous behavior of the IDS due to communication delay between nodes.

C. Difficulty of Anomaly/Normality Distinction

Distinguishing an anomaly from normalcy has always been somewhat difficult for wired IDSs and wireless IDSs are no different. If nodes in a network receive false or old routing information from a particular node then it is difficult to verify if that particular node has been compromised or not. An attacker could have taken the control of the node to send false information to other nodes in the network, or the node could just be temporarily out of sync due to fast movement or other processing requirements.

D. Secure Communication Between IDS Agents

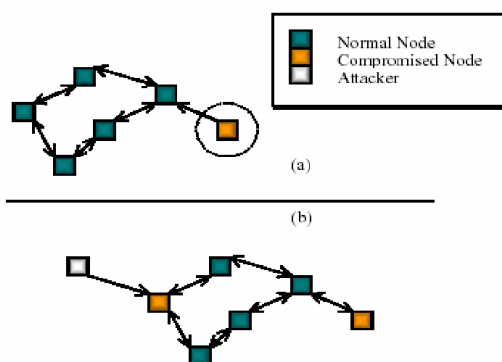
It is likely that in a wireless network there will have to be portions of the IDS running on each individual node in the network. Each of these IDS agents will have to communicate with other IDS agents in the network to convey information relating to the status of the system. It is crucial that the information being passed from agent to agent be encrypted as to not allow an attacker to gain access to the communication.

E. Lack of Centralized Access/Audit Point

The lack of centralized audit points in ad hoc networks present difficult problems for intrusion detection. Most static, wired networks have specific repositories where the IDS can obtain audit data for its misuse and anomaly detection (e.g. switches, routers, gateways, etc.). Without centralized audit points, IDSs on ad hoc networks are limited to use only the current traffic coming in and out of the node as audit data. The algorithms that the IDS uses must be distributed, and take into account the fact that a node can only see a portion of the network traffic.

F. Possibility Of A Node Being Compromised

Since ad hoc networks are dynamic and nodes can move about freely, there is a possibility that one or more nodes could be captured and compromised, especially if the network is in a hostile environment.



If the algorithms of the IDS are cooperative, it becomes important to be skeptical of which nodes one can trust. IDSs on ad hoc networks have to be wary of attacks made from nodes in the network itself, not just attacks from outside the network.

G. Difficulty In Obtaining Enough Audit Data

Mobile networks do not communicate as frequently as their wired counterparts. Bandwidth issues, and other issues such as battery life, contribute to this factor. This lack of communication can become a problem for IDSs attempting to define rules of normality for anomaly detection. If only a small amount of data is available to establish normal activity association rules, it is very hard to distinguish an attack from regular network use.

VI. NEW ARCHITECTURE

It is important to understand that most IDS architectural models are based on static, wired networks. These models alone are insufficient to help design an IDS in a mobile, ad hoc network environment. The architecture addressed is a distributed IDS, where each node on the network will have an IDS agent running on it. The IDS agents on each node in the network work together via a cooperative intrusion detection algorithm to decide when and how the network is being attacked. The architecture is divided into parts: the Mobile IDS Agents, which reside on each node in the network, and the Stationary Secure Database, which contains global signatures of known misuse attacks and stores patterns of each user's normal activity in a non-hostile environment.

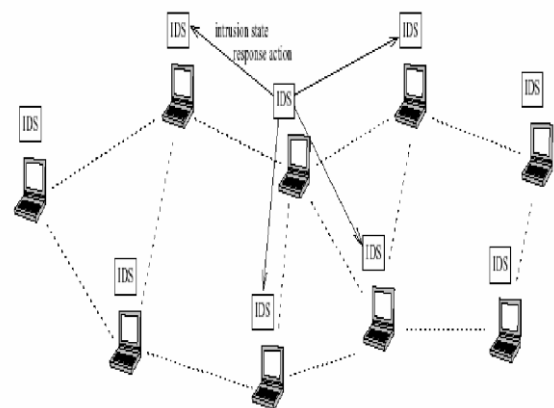


Figure 1. The IDS Architecture for Wireless Ad-Hoc Network

A. Mobile IDS Agents

Each node in the network will have an IDS agent running on it all times. This agent is responsible for detecting intrusions based on local audit data and participating in cooperative algorithms with other IDS agents to decide if the network is

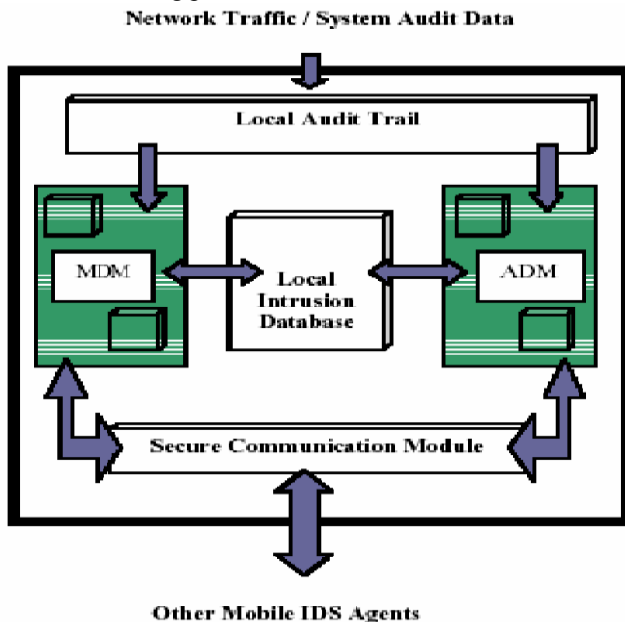
being attacked. Each agent has five parts : the Local Audit Trail, the Local IntrusionDatabase (LID), the Secure Communication Module, the Anomaly Detection Modules (ADM s), and the Misuse Detection Modules (MDM s).

i. *The Local Audit Trail*

Each agent must constantly check the audit data to decide that an intrusion is not taking place. The Local Audit Trail will consist of specific items out of the network traffic as well as user commands to the node. The Local Audit Trail is responsible for selecting only the items it needs out of the network traffic and system audit data in order to minimize the size of the audit data collected. A audit data is collected by the Local Audit Trail, it is passed to the Misuse Detection Modules and the Anomaly Detection Modules for further analysis. The Local Audit Trail is only responsible for gathering and storing audit data, not processing it.

ii. *The Local Intrusion Database (LID)*

The LID is a local database that warehouses all information necessary for the IDS agent, such as the signature files of known attacks, the established patterns of users on the network, and the normal traffic flow of the network. The Anomaly Detection Modules and Misuse Detection Modules communicated directly with the LID to determine if an intrusion is taking place.



iii. *The Secure Communication Module*

The Secure Communication Module is necessary to enable an IDS agent to communicate with other IDS agents on other nodes. It will allow the MDM s and ADM s to use cooperative algorithms to detect intrusions. It may also be used to initiate a global response when an IDS agent or a group of IDS agents detects an intrusion. Basically, any communication that needs to occur from one IDS agent to another will use the Secure Communication Module. Data communicated via the Secure Communication Module will

need to be encrypted in order to ensure that the data received by an IDS agent is accurate and has not been tampered with. The Secure Communication module is only used by IDS agents and does not communicate any other type of information between nodes. It must share the bandwidth that the mobile device uses for normal data transmission, so it is required to be efficient, and can only use the amount of bandwidth it needs. Also, the Secure Communication module must process information coming to the IDS agent from other agents in the network. For this reason, it must be fast and efficient, so as not to take away from the processing time of the mobile unit.

iv. *The Anomaly Detection Modules (ADM s)*

Each Anomaly Detection Module is responsible for detecting a different type of anomaly. There can be from one to many Anomaly Detection Modules on each mobile IDS agent, each working separately or cooperatively with other ADM s. For example, one ADM might be looking for strange network traffic patterns, while another ADM might be watching user input speed.

v. *The Misuse Detection Modules (MDM s)*

The Misuse Detection Modules function similarly to the ADM s on the IDS agent. The primary difference is that MDM s only identify known patterns of attacks that are specified in the Local Intrusion Database. Like the ADM s, if the audit data available locally is enough to determine if an intrusion is taking place, the proper response can be initiated. It is also possible for a MDM to use a cooperative algorithm to identify an intrusion.

B. *Stationary Secure Database*

The Stationary Secure Database (SSD) in this architecture acts as a secure, trusted repository for mobile nodes to obtain information about the latest misuse signatures and to find the latest patterns of normal user activity. It is assumed that the attacker will not compromise the Stationary Secure Database, as it is stored in an area of high security. To ensure that the SSD will not be compromised, it is kept stationary and not placed in a hostile environment where an attacker attack is likely. It is also assumed that no physically compromised node will come in contact with the SSD, since the attacker will not be given physical access to the area where the SSD resides. Although these are severe restrictions, they can be accommodated through operational procedures and physical security. The mobile IDS agents will collect and store audit data while in the field, and will transfer this information when it is attached to the SSD. The SSD will then use this information for data mining of new anomaly association rules. The use of the SSD to mine new anomaly rules is beneficial to the IDS for three reasons. First, the SSD will be fixed, fast machine that is capable of mining rules much faster than on slower, mobile nodes. Secondly, the processing time used to mine the new rules of anomaly will not take away from the processing time of the mobile nodes.

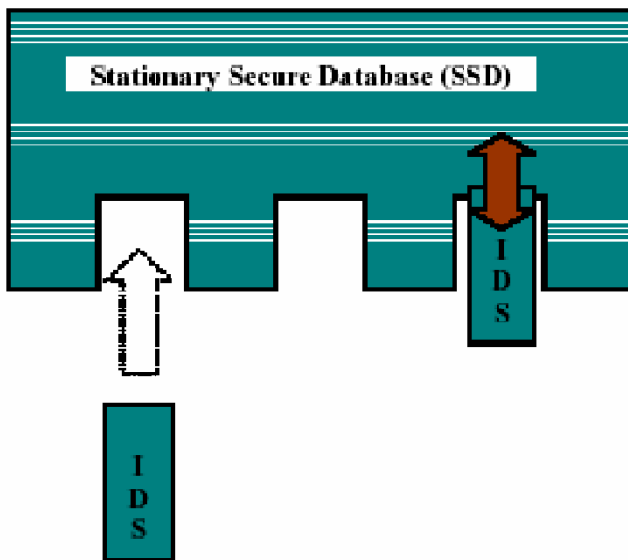


Figure: Mobile Agents Interacting with SSD

The SSD will also be the place where the system administrator can specify the newest misuse signatures. When the IDS agents are connected to SSD, they will gain access to the latest attack signatures automatically. This will make it much easier to update all the nodes in the network to keep up with the latest attacks. Instead of manually updating the attack files in the Local Intrusion Database of each individual node, or using the Secure Communication device on each node to communicate the new signatures, the SSD will be responsible for communicating the new attack signatures to each individual IDS agent.

One of the best reasons for using the SSD to communicate the new attack signatures, and establish new patterns of normalcy, is to limit the amount of communication that must take place between IDS agents in the mobile ad hoc network. As stated earlier, the IDS agents should not use very much bandwidth, because it is limited and in use by other applications on the mobile node. The use of SSD allows the IDS agents to not continually have to share information in order to update their Local Intrusion Database. Communication between the SSD and the IDS agents will be very quick and efficient, as there should be no threat of attack. By relying on the SSD to be a trusted source of update information, the IDS agent no longer has to use cooperative algorithms to determine if the information being sent is trustworthy or not.

VII. ANOMALY DETECTION IN WIRE-LESS AD-HOC NETWORKS

In this section we discuss how to build an anomaly detection models for wireless networks. Detection based on activities in different network layers may differ in the format and the amount of available audit data as well as the modeling algorithms.

A. Building An Anomaly Detection Model

i. Framework

The basic premise for anomaly detection is that there is intrinsic and observable characteristic of normal behavior that is distinct from that of abnormal behavior. Entropy and conditional entropy are used to describe the characteristics of the normal information flows and use the classification algorithms to build anomaly detection models. We can use a classifier trained using normal data to predict what normally the next event is given the previous n events. In monitoring when the actual event is not what the classifier has predicted there is an anomaly. When constructing a classifier features with high information gain are needed.

Using this framework we employ the following procedure for the anomaly detection.

- Select or partition audit data so that the normal data set has low Entropy
- Perform appropriate data transformation according to entropy measures
- Compute classifier using training data.
- Apply the classifier to test it.
- Post process alarms to produce intrusion reports.

ii. Attack Models

Route logic compromise- This type of attacks behaves by manipulating routing information, either externally by parsing false route messages or internally by maliciously changing routing cache information. In particular, we consider several special cases: (a) misrouting: forwarding a packet to an incorrect node; and (b) false message propagation: distributing a false route update.

Traffic pattern distortion- This type of attacks changes default/normal traffic behavior: (a) packet dropping; (b) packet generation with faked source address; (c) corruption on packet contents; and (d) denial-of-service.

B. Areas Where Anomaly Detection Can Be Used

The two main areas where we need anomaly detection is ad-hoc networks is

- *Abnormal Updates to the routing table.*
- *Abnormal activities in other layers.*

i. Abnormal Updates to the routing table.

The two most important factors that are required for the anomaly detection are Low False positive rate High true positive rate (percentage of anomalies detected). A routing table usually contains, at the minimum the next hop to each destination node and the number of hops. The physical movement of nodes or network membership changes causes a legitimate movement in the routing table. Our objective in this study is to lead a better understanding of the important

and challenging issues in intrusion detection for ad-hoc routing protocols. First using a given set of training, testing and evaluation scenarios, and modeling algorithms, we can identify which routing protocol, with potentially all its routing information used, can result in better performing detection models. This will help answer the question —what information should be included in the routing table to make intrusion detection effective”. This finding can be used in designing more robust protocols.

ii. Abnormal Activities In other layers

At the wireless application layer, the trace data can use the service as the class (i.e., one class for each service), and can contain the following features: for the past s seconds, the total number of requests to the same service, the number of different services requested, the average duration of the service, the number of nodes that requested (any) service, the total number of service errors, etc. A classifier on the trace data then describes for each service the normal behaviors of its requests. Many attacks generate different statistical patterns than normal requests.

VIII. IMPLEMENTED APPROACHES

Following are some of the intrusion detection techniques used in wireless and ad hoc networks.

A. IEEE 802.11

The IEEE 802.11 standard provides several mechanisms intended to provide a secure operating environment. The IEEE 802.11 standard defines the physical layers and the MAC sub layers for the wireless LANs. There are three different physical layers. They are Frequency hopping Spread Spectrum Radio; direct sequence spread spectrum Radio, and Base band infrared. The MAC layer is common for all these layers.

The IEEE 802.11 defines two authentication schemes:

- i. Open System Authentication.
- ii. Shared Key Authentication.

i. Open System Authentication

Open system authentication is the default authentication protocol for 802.11. As the name implies, open system authentication authenticates anyone who requests authentication. A terminal announces that it wishes to associate with an access point, and typically the access point allows the association. Essentially it provides NULL authentication process.

ii. Shared Key Authentication

Shared key authentication uses a standard challenge and response along with a shared secret key to provide authentication. The shared key Authentication requires that the Wired Equivalent Privacy protocol (WEP) Algorithm be

implemented on both the wireless terminal and the access point. The station wishing to authenticate, *the initiator*, sends an authentication request management frame indicating that they wish to use —shared key” authentication. The recipient of the authentication request, *the responder*, responds by sending an authentication management frame containing challenge text to the initiator. The challenge text is generated by using the WEP pseudo-random number generator (PRNG) with the —shared secret” and a random initialization vector (IV)₂. Once the initiator receives the management frame from the responder, they copy the contents of the challenge text into a new management frame body. This new management frame body is then encrypted with WEP using the —shared secret” along with a new IV selected by the initiator. The encrypted management frame is then sent to the responder. The responder decrypts the received frame and verifies that the 32-bit CRC integrity check value (ICV) is valid, and that the challenge text matches that sent in the first message. If they do, then authentication is successful. If the authentication is successful, then the initiator and the responder switch roles and repeat the process to ensure mutual Authentication.

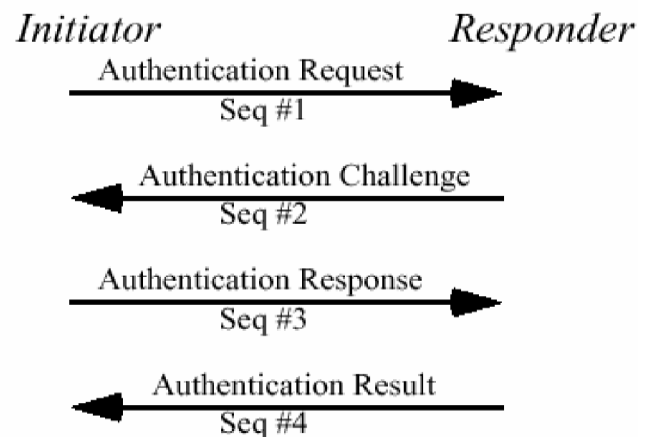


Figure: Mutual Station Authentication Using Shared Keys

Mobiles that are allowed to connect to the network use the same shared key, so this authentication method is only able to verify if the particular mobile belongs to the group allowed to connect to the network, but there is no way to distinguish one mobile from another. Also there are no means available to authenticate the network. The IEEE 802.11 does not define any key management functions. The IEEE 802.11 defines an optional WEP mechanism to implement the confidentiality and integrity of the traffic in the network. WEP is used at the station-to-station level and does not offer any end-to-end security. Using, say, the playback attack, could easily fool the Shared Key Authentication scheme. Hence, anyway an additional authentication mechanism is needed.

iii. Secure Key Generation And Distribution

The mobile systems have constraints like minimal computational capabilities and authentication and the Secure key generation and distribution capability is required by any system, which contains cryptographic authentication, confidentiality and identification. Developing faster and more powerful hardware components, which require less Energy and changing the algorithmic and protocol design of the current system would be useful to meet the future needs.

iv. *Current Approaches For The Key Generation*

a. *Key generation by the telephone manufacturer and distribution to the Service Provider via a backbone network*

This requires the manufacturers and Service provider to develop a special distribution channel. (b) Security of keys should be ensured from the time the keys are sent to the Service provider. from the manufacturer. (c) This approach is unacceptable to both the Service provider and the manufacturer.

b. *Over-The-Air Phone Activation With Key Exchange*

Over-the-air phone is the most preferred approach and requires a collaborative key generation and distribution between the mobile unit and the Service provider. The current over-the-air service provisioning (OTASP) uses the Diffie-Hellman key exchange between the Service provider and mobile unit to exchange a symmetric key called A-key (Authentication Key).

IX. CONCLUSION

The diligent management of network security is essential to the operation of networks, regardless of whether they have segments or not. It is important to note that absolute security is an abstract concept – it does not exist anywhere. All networks are vulnerable to insider or outsider attacks, and eavesdropping. No one wants to risk having the data exposed to the casual observer or open malicious mischief. Regardless of whether the network is wired or wireless, steps can and should always be taken to preserve network security and integrity.

We have said that any secure network will have vulnerabilities that an adversary could exploit. This is especially true for wireless ad-hoc networks. Intrusion Detection can complement intrusion prevention techniques (such as encryption, authentication, secure MAC, secure routing, etc.) to improve the network security. However new techniques must be developed to make intrusion detection work better for the wireless networks. We have shown that an architecture for better intrusion detection in wireless networks should be distributed and cooperative by applying Mobile Agents to the network and given few of the implemented approaches for intrusion detection. Currently, the research is taking place in developing new architecture for wireless networks for better security.

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A Hybrid Reliable Data Transmission Technique for Multicasting in Mobile Ad hoc Networks

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GJCST Classification
C.2.1

Abstract- Reliability is an important factor in multicasting in mobile ad hoc networks (MANETs), as it confirms eventual delivery of all the data to all the group members, without enforcing any particular delivery order. In this paper, we provide a hybrid reliable data transmission technique for multicasting in MANET. It uses the advantages of both Automatic Retransmission Request (ARQ) and Forward Error Correction (FEC) approaches in a controlled manner to provide a lossless non real time data to the receiver. Our technique has two phases, where in the initial phase we differentiate the data traffic as real time traffic and non-real time traffic. For both type of traffics, data is transmitted using the ARQ technique initially. In the next phase, if the traffic is non-real time, it estimates the total data loss occurred at the receivers for a given time period. If the loss is greater than a threshold value, it transmits data using FEC technique until the loss becomes less than the threshold. Thus our scheme not only controls the reliability in a network but also the overhead and scalability issues of existing ARQ and FEC techniques. By simulation results, we show that our proposed hybrid technique achieves better delivery ratio with reduced overhead when compared with existing techniques.

Keywords- Mobile ad hoc networks (MANETs), Automatic Retransmission Request (ARQ), Forward Error Correction (FEC), hybrid reliable data transmission (HRDT), Control Overhead, Constant Bit Rate (CBR).

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Mobile Ad Hoc Networks (Manet)

The term —communication anytime and anywhere” has been popular due to the recent advancement in wireless transmissions and the popularity of portable computing devices available. These advancement made users to move around, while at the same time remaining touched to the rest of the world. [1] Today, the use and spread of mobile computers like laptops and palmtops are the evolution of the ideas obtained by the concept of ad hoc networking. Ad hoc networks posses nodes that are connected by wireless links and can be mobile, where all the MNs function as hosts and routers at the same time.

Ad hoc networks gained its popularity due to its factors like self-organizing, rapidly deployable, and dynamic reconfigurable networks that require no fixed infrastructure. [3] In short, the MANET can be generally defined as a group of mobile computing medium using wireless links for communication without relying on any fixed infrastructure such as base stations.[2]

In MANET, two MNs communicate directly if they come under the radio transmission range of each other. . As the case of all wireless environments, radio links are not complete foolproof and they are affected by several sources of errors and interference resulting in a high and variable bit error rate. Consequently, one of the critical issues of a MANET is its radio interface. The second one is the mobility of the nodes. Even then many existing and forthcoming applications in MANETs require the association of groups of mobile users. [4]

The various application related to MANET are;

- i. tactical (military) networks
- ii. delay-tolerant networking
- iii. disaster recovery services
- iv. sensor networks
- v. metropolitan/campus-area communication networks
- vi. enhanced cellular networks

B. MANET Multicast

Multicasting can be defined as the process of the parallel broadcast of the same single copy of data packets to multiple destinations which they tend to be identified by a single address. The transmitter may be one or even multiple nodes. The single transmitter is called”one to many” model and the multi transmitter is called”many to many” model. [5] Multicasting reduces the communication costs for applications that transmit the same data to multiple recipients. Instead of transmitting via multiple unicast, multicasting reduces the link bandwidth consumption, processing of sender and router, and delivery delay.

Many of the recent multicast routing protocols are proposed in a way such that it support both unicast and multicast routing. [6] The most basic and simple technique to multicast group, maintenance and creation is known as flooding. With flooding, every node that receives a packet in the network simply rebroadcasts it. [7] The need of

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multicast routing protocols for MANET's are necessary because the standard protocols that are installed in fixed networks or infra-structured mobile networks cannot be used in MANET's. This is because MANET is a highly dynamic environment, so the traditional well established multicasting protocols cannot be deployed directly to it. Some modification and extension should be made while considering all the constraints, such as limited bandwidth, dynamic network topology and power. [9]

MANET Multicast routings are basically classified into two categories; tree-based protocols and mesh-based protocols. [10]

- i. Tree-based schemes: It establishes a single path between any two nodes in the multicast group. These schemes need to have minimum number of copies per packet to be sent along the branches of the tree.
- ii. Mesh-based schemes: It establishes a mesh of paths that connect the sources and destinations. They are more resilient to link failures as well as to mobility.

C. Issues in MANET Multicast

The primary challenges which are in front of multicast routing in MANETs is the need to have reliability along with, robustness, for data packets to reach completely to their destinations. Along with the above issues the problems in tree maintenance and frequent reconfiguration during link failures, the packet losses caused by error-prone wireless media and nodal mobility also provide a major challenge. Similarly in the two protocols i.e in tree based and mesh-based protocols. In the tree-based protocols, where a tree tends to do multicast, severe packet loss occurs due to the limited connectivity of the tree. If even a single node in the tree does not receive a multicast packet, then all its downstream children cannot receive the packet too. On the other hand, mesh-based protocols overcome the problem of the tree by forwarding multicast packets with a mesh, such that a node can receive the packets from several upstream nodes. However, mesh-based protocols are inefficient in that they introduce redundant packet transmissions and nodes need to be able to distinguish previously-received packets in some way. [4,11,12]

D. Reliable Multicast Protocols

Reliability is the most important aspect of multicasting protocols in MANET. [9] Reliable multicast becomes a very demanding research problem due to high packet loss rate associated to MANETs. The packet losses are due to the error-prone wireless media and nodal mobility. Reliable multicast solutions proposed for wired network can not be directly ported for MANET, like [14] ;

- i. link breakages
- ii. concentrated retransmissions
- iii. route changes
- iv. concentrated retransmissions and heavy overhead

There have been many efforts to develop reliable multicasting protocols. There are three ways to provide

some extent of reliability to multicast in the network layer. One is NACK-based method, the second is flooding and the third is the gossip method, which is 'flooding with some limitation'. [9] Generally, the reliable multicast protocols can be classified into three categories according to the recovery mechanisms used. The categories are; Automatic Retransmission Request (ARQ) - based, gossip-based and Forward Error Correction (FEC) - based.

- i. In ARQ, it provides a valuable feature for wireless networks and permits much more reliable communications across lossy wireless links. ARQ mitigates lost data packets through automatically triggered retransmissions from the original receptionist, where the recipient continuously supplies feedback (acknowledgements or negative acknowledgements) to make the transmitter know what packets have been received successfully. [15]
- ii. In gossip, when a node receives a message for the first time, rather than retransmitting immediately the data like in flooding, it engages a probabilistic process to resolve whether or not to retransmit. Essentially, it retransmits each message with probability p . From a security point of view, this approach may have objectionable properties. [13]
- iii. In the FEC, it transmits redundant data with the original data transmission. Thus, when errors or packet losses happen at the receptionist side, original data can be reconstructed using the ones received. Errors or losses may occur to them at the receptionist side. However, the encoder in use has a property that if any k packets out of the n packets are received, the source data can be reconstructed.

E. Problem Identification And Proposed Solution

In our previous papers, we have managed to provide solution to the need of congestion control and bandwidth allocation. In this paper, we provide a reliable multicast routing protocol for maintaining fault tolerance to minimize losses in the network. As discussed above the various challenges in MANET multicast routing protocol have various drawbacks and challenges. In this paper we identify the main problems in a reliable multicast MANET protocol and provide an efficient solution to overcome it.

II. RELATED WORKS

Emy E. Egbogah et.al. [16] have proposed a reliable routing protocol named Scalable Team Oriented Reliable Multicast (STORM). STORM combines individual nodes with comparable mobility patterns and speeds into teams, and builds hierarchy-based multicasts mesh structure among elected team nodes. A Unicast Acknowledgement Scheme (UAS) is developed to construct the routing structure in an efficient manner. To improve the reliability of STORM, a modified version of Reliable Adaptive Congestion controlled multicasts (ReACT) is used as a reliable transport protocol. It offers scalability as the network size, multicast groups and total number of multicast group member's

increase as well as creating and propagating control packets with reliable delivery and low memory consumption.

Bo Rong et.al. [17] have proposed a new hybrid error control scheme that combines interleaving, forward error correction (FEC), and threshold based ARQ to mitigate the error and loss effects encountered in MANETs. In particular, the threshold based ARQ is studied to shorten the transmission delay in reliable multicast. In order to work compatibly with a variety of MANET multicast routing protocols, this new scheme is based on Client/Server architecture which resides on the top of UDP layer. Moreover, they used specification and description language (SDL) to formally portray the hybrid error control scheme from a broad overview down to detailed design levels.

Mehdi EffatParvar et.al.[18] have proposed a reliable multicast algorithm with local recovery approach. By using the proposed algorithm, nodes can join to multicast group in minimum time and data delivery can be increased. The algorithm tries to accomplish fast recovery during any route breakage, so that the destination can connect to source in new route or in the same route.

Dimitrios Koutsonikolas and Y. Charlie Hu [19] have examined FEC's efficiency in wireless network by implementing four reliable schemes initially proposed for wired networks on top of On Demand Multicast Routing Protocol (ODMRP). They proved that pure FEC can offer significant improvements in terms of reliability, increasing Packet Delivery Ratio up to 100% in many cases, but it can be very inefficient regarding the number of redundant packets it transmits. Moreover, a carefully designed hybrid protocol, such as RMDP, can maintain higher reliability while improving the efficiency compared to a pure FEC scheme.

Erik M. Ferragut [20] has proposed a new erasure code as a solution to the dynamic erasure code problem. The dynamic erasure code problem is to extend the digital fountain concept to a message generator, simultaneously with the transmission (i.e., live data). Solution of this problem provides a means for robust multicasting or one-way transmission of live data on a computer network. It also gives a method for robust distributed storage of log data, or other serially generated data.

Ali Alsaih and Tariq Alahdal [21] have proposed a reliable multicast transport protocol over combined networks using sub sub-casting called RMSS. It is based on a hierarchical structure where receivers are grouped into local regions. In each local region there are special receivers, which are called designated receivers and mobile agents. Each of the receivers is responsible for retransmission of requested packets to the receivers which are in their local region. Here a sub sub-casting is used to retransmit the data only to the requested receivers.

In our previous paper [22], we have proposed an energy efficient and reliable congestion control (EERCCP) protocol for multicasting in mobile adhoc networks. Our algorithm tries to overcome the disadvantages of existing multicast congestion control protocols which depend on individual receivers to detect congestion and tries to adjust their receiving rates. Our protocol consists of three phases;

First phase - Builds a multicast tree routed at the source, by including the nodes with higher residual energy towards the receivers.

Second phase- An admission control scheme, depending on the output queue size, to analyze flow is admission or rejection

Third phase- Adjusts the multicast traffic rate at each bottleneck of a multicast tree.

III. PROPOSED SCHEME

In section 1.4, we have discussed Reliable multicast in MANET and the various protocols used. We have discussed above (section 2) various recent works related to the different protocols used in reliable multicast like the ARQ, Gossip or FEC based. These protocols have their own merits and demerits when used. [23] have proposed a hybrid method called Reliable Multicast data Distribution Protocols (RMDP) which uses the FEC encoding to improve the behaviour of the protocol in presence of large groups of receivers, and to reduce the amount of feedback from receivers. ARQ is used to deal with those cases where the default amount of redundancy does not suffice to complete reception. The RMDP method identifies the drawbacks of both FEC and ARQ method and uses the advantage of the two protocols in order to overcome the drawbacks.

The major drawback of using ARQ single handedly is that it scales very badly to large sets of receivers as well as scalability problems also exist in handling feedback from the receivers. In the same way, FEC is computationally expensive, since the entire data stream must be processed to produce the encoded packets, each one conveying information on a number (possibly as large as k) of source data packets. As in of [23] hybrid method maintains a balance between both the ARQ as well as FEC. The use of FEC techniques to drastically reduce the impact of independent losses for different receivers, which make ARQ-based protocols perform very poorly as the number of receivers grows. The protocol is well-suited to the use with mobile equipment because of its simplicity, robustness to losses, moderate demand for feedback, and scalability.

In our work, as like [23], we introduce a hybrid method of ARQ and FEC. Our method is a two phase technique, where in the initial step we differentiate the data services among the real time data services and non-real time data services. If the data service is a non-real time data services, then the next phase is executed. We use our concept of hybrid method in accordance to the data loss. In general, the service in default uses ARQ method to send data but if there exists an excessive data loss then the system changes over to FEC to send data.

A. Phase – 1

In the initial phase, we determine the data services available. We classify the data services into two major groups; the real time services and the non-real time services. The real time data services are basically those information/data which are delivered immediately after collection. There is no delay in the timeliness of the information provided. These are often

used for navigation or tracking. [24] These data needs to be sent to the receiver without any time delay even there exist a minimal loss. Therefore we can compromise the losses but the time lagging can not be compromised in the case of real time data services. Similarly the other data services are termed as non real-time services. In these services of non real-time data, the time lagging factors provide less importance but the losses in these service plays a major role. We consider the two factors of data loss and time lagging of both the services and detect between the two services. As real time data services are less prone to data losses, the information is sent in ARQ process. But in the case of non-real time services, the data loss plays a major role. So we cannot take the ARQ services in the non real-time services, if the losses are high. Thus we detect the losses and if the losses are higher than a threshold level, we shift the services from ARQ to FEC. We discuss this issue in the next section.

B. Phase - 2

As discussed above, the default services for sending the data, we consider the ARQ services. But when a non real time data is sent, we periodically determine the losses caused by the ARQ services. If the services cause a higher data loss (above a certain threshold level) in a particular time period, the default ARQ services is changed into an FEC services.

Consider a period λ in which the losses are determined for a non real time data. We analyze a data drop rate (DL) in each period λ . The probability of data loss of DL along with the number of multicast receiver (r) is given as;

$$P(DL, r) = 1 - (1 - DL)^r \quad (1)$$

Where,

$$DL = \frac{\text{Number of packet dropped}}{\text{Time period}} \quad (2)$$

The above equation state two factors;

- Increase in data drop increases the probability of data loss.
- Increase in receivers along with data drop evolves a higher data loss.

Thus when a probability of losses increases due to either data loss or due to increase in receivers and cross a particular threshold level ($P(DL, r)_{th}$), the source get informed. The source then changes the ARQ service and adopts FEC services (We evaluate the use of FEC in the next section.). The FEC service is sent throughout the section (till the next sets of data are sent). After the complete of section, the default ARQ services are resumed again. If the probability of the threshold level does not reduce, the FEC service is again resumed or else the ARQ service gets maintained.

C. FEC Service

FEC or Forward error correction is a system of error control for data transmission, whereby the sender adds carefully selected redundant data to its messages, also known as an error-correction code. Here we use Luby transform (LT)

coding for the FEC service. LT codes are the first class of practical fountain codes that are near optimal erasure correcting codes which employing a particularly simple algorithm based on the exclusive or operation (\oplus) to encode and decode the message. [26]

The LT Coding algorithm [27] produces a virtually unlimited number of encoded blocks from some k original data blocks via logical XOR operations. The k original data blocks are obtained by partitioning the original data into k uniform segments and the creation of each encoded block, or "symbol", will require $O(\ln(\frac{k}{\delta}))$ logical operations on the

original blocks. To decode the original data with a $1 - \delta$ chance of success, any $k + O(\sqrt{k} \ln^2(\frac{k}{\delta}))$ encoded blocks

should be sufficient.

The encoding process is relatively straight forward.

- Choose some degree d for the next encoded block according to the Robust Soliton Distribution
- Randomly choose d different original data blocks and XOR them together to produce the encoded block.
- Repeat steps 1 and 2 until the desired number of encoded blocks have been produced.

It should be noted that as each encoded symbol is produced, the identities of its sources must be stored as meta-data for the decoding process.

The process of decoding the data is as follows

- When an encoded block is received, XOR it with all of its neighbors in the bipartite graph which have been recovered, and remove the edges that join the XORed nodes.
- If the encoded block has only one remaining neighbor, then part of the original data has been recovered. Copy its data to its sole neighbor and place that data node in a queue of original nodes to process.
- While the queue is not empty, choose a data node from the queue. XOR each received neighbor's data with the data in the original node and disconnect the nodes. For each neighbor that is XORed, perform step 2.
- Continue receiving and processing encoded blocks until the original data has been completely recovered.

Thus our technique of hybrid usage of ARQ and FEC cumulatively produces a reduces loss based scheme which helps the non real time data to maintain loss free even if the number of receivers are increased. This increases the scalability of the network and avoids time-waste for redundancy.

Algorithm

Consider an incoming traffic flow at $\lambda = 1$, where λ is a given period

- If the flow is real-time, then
1.1 flows are transmitted using ARQ

```

end if
ii. if flow is non-real time, then
    2.1 Flow are transmitted using ARQ
    2.2 determine probability of data loss,  $P(DL, r)$ 
2.3 If  $P(DL, r) > P(DL, r)_{th}$ , then
    2.3.1 Flow are transmitted using FEC
    2.3.2 After FEC session complete, repeat
from 1.
Else
2.3.3 Continue the transmission using
ARQ
End if
End if
iii.  $\lambda = \lambda + 1$ ,
iv. Repeat from 1

```

IV. SIMULATION RESULTS

A. Simulation Model And Parameters Simulation Model And Parameters

We use NS2 [29] to simulate our proposed technique. The proposed hybrid reliable data transmission (HRDT) technique is applied in our previous multicast routing protocol EERCCP [23]. In our simulation, the channel capacity of mobile hosts is set to the same value: 2 Mbps. We use the distributed coordination function (DCF) of IEEE 802.11 for wireless LANs as the MAC layer protocol. It has the functionality to notify the network layer about link breakage.

In our simulation, 50 mobile nodes move in a 1000 meter x 1000 meter region for 50 seconds simulation time. We assume each node moves independently with the same average speed. All nodes have the same transmission range of 250 meters. In our simulation, the speed of the mobile is 5 m/s. The simulated traffic is Constant Bit Rate (CBR). Our simulation settings and parameters are summarized in table 1

Table1. Simulation Parameters

No. of Nodes	50
Area Size	1000 X 1000
Mac	802.11
Radio Range	250m
Simulation Time	50 sec
Traffic Source	CBR and VBR
Rate	0.5,1,1.5 and 2Mb
Mobility Model	Random Way Point
Speed	5m/s
Receivers	5,10,...25
Pause time	5 s
Transmit Power	0.660 w
Receiving Power	0.395 w
Idle Power	0.335 w
Initial Energy	3.1 J

B. Performance Metrics

We compare our (HRDT) technique with existing multicast AODV [28] and RMDP [24]. We evaluate mainly the performance according to the following metrics.

i. Average end-to-end Delay

The end-to-end-delay is averaged over all surviving data packets from the sources to the destination.

ii. Average Packet Delivery Ratio

It is the ratio of the No. of packets received successfully and the total no. of packets sent.

iii. Average Energy Consumption

The average energy consumed by the nodes in receiving and sending the packets are measured.

iv. Control Overhead

The control overhead is defined as the total number of routing control packets normalized by the total number of received data packets

C. Results

i. Varying the Receivers

In this experiment, we vary the group size or the number of receivers per group as 5,10,...25.

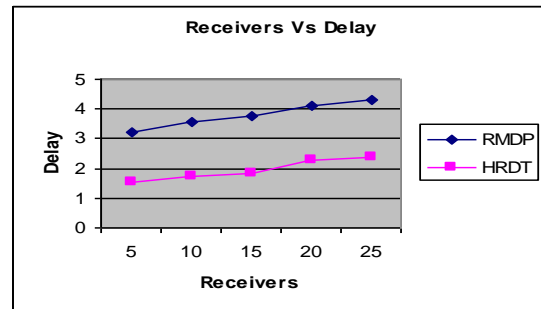


Fig. 1. Receivers Vs Delay

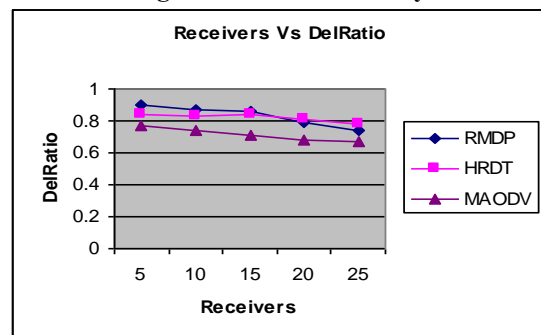


Fig. 2. Receivers Vs Delivery Ratio

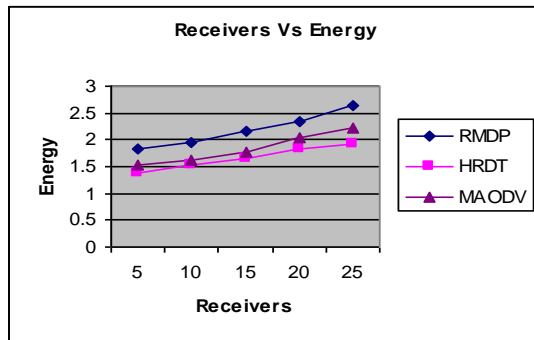


Fig. 3. Receivers Vs Energy

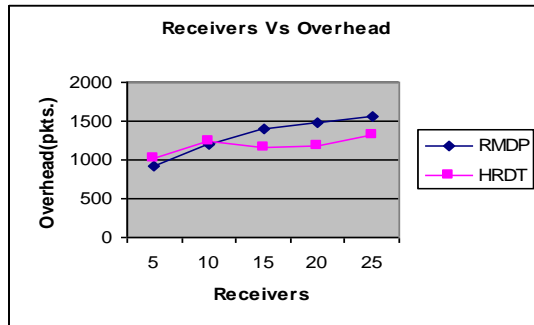


Fig. 4. Receivers Vs Overhead

When the number of receivers is increased, we observe the following results.

Fig1- shows the end-to-end delay occurred for both HRDT and RMDP. As we can see from the figure, the delay is significantly less for HRDT, when compared to RMDP. This is because, RMDP is completely FEC based resulting in high delay for encoding and decoding.

Fig2 -shows the packet delivery ratio for HRDT, RMDP and MAODV. As we can see from the figure, the delivery ratio is initially less for HRDT than RMDP for the receivers 5,10 and 15, since ARQ suffer from poor performance, when the receivers are increased. But when the receivers are more than 15, it changes to FEC mode, resulting in more delivery ratio than RMDP. Since MAODV does not involve any error recovery features, it has the least delivery ratio

Fig3-shows the energy consumption for HRDT, RMDP and MAODV. The energy consumption is more for RMDP compared to HRDT and MAODV, since FEC requires more energy for encoding and decoding.

Fig4- gives the overhead occurred for both HRDT and RMDP. Clearly the overhead is less in HRDT than RMDP. This is due to the fact that HRDT adaptively changes to FEC, when the receivers are more.

ii. Varying the Rate

In this experiment, we vary the data sending rate as 0.5,1,1.5 and 2Mb.

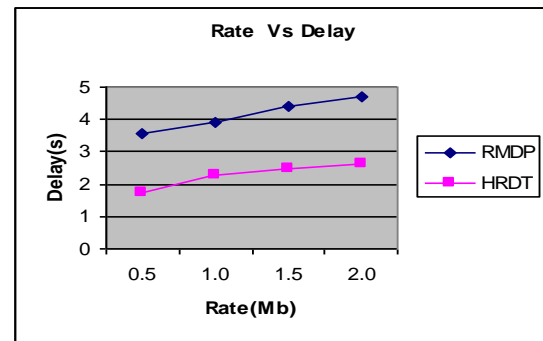


Fig. 5. Rate Vs Delay

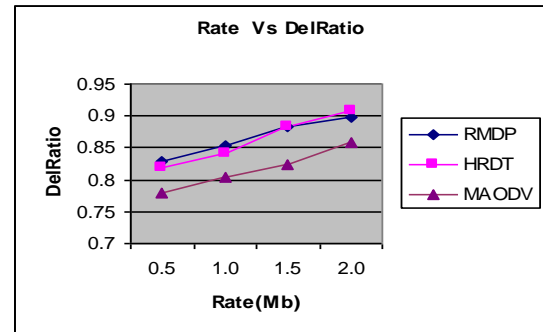


Fig. 6. Rate Vs Delivery Ratio

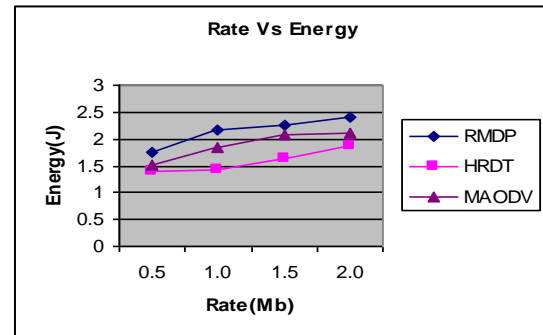


Fig. 7. Rate Vs Energy

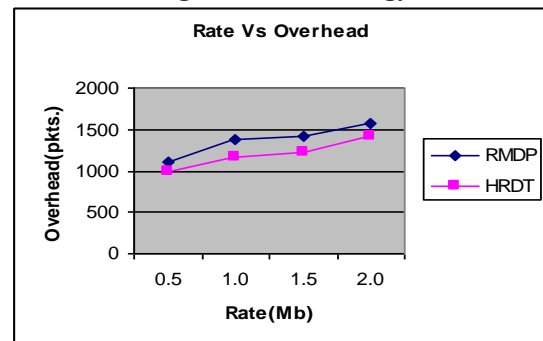


Fig. 8. Rate Vs Overhead

When the rate is increased,

Fig5- shows the end-to-end delay occurred for both HRDT and RMDP. As we can see from the figure, the delay is significantly less for HRDT, when compared to RMDP. This is because, RMDP is completely FEC based resulting in high delay for encoding and decoding.

Fig6- shows the packet delivery ratio for HRDT, RMDP and MAODV. As we can see from the figure, the delivery ratio is initially less for HRDT than RMDP for the rate 0.5Mb and 1Mb, since ARQ has more packet drops, compared to FEC. But when the rate is more than 1Mb, it changes to FEC mode, resulting in more delivery ratio than RMDP. Since MAODV does not involve any error recovery features, it has the least delivery ratio

Fig7- shows the energy consumption for HRDT, RMDP and MAODV. The energy consumption is more for RMDP compared to HRDT and MAODV, since FEC requires more energy for encoding and decoding.

Fig8- gives the overhead occurred for both the cases. Clearly the overhead is less in HRDT than RMDP. This is due to the fact that HRDT adaptively changes to FEC, when the receivers are more.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have provided a hybrid reliable data transmission technique (HRDT) for multicasting in MANET. It uses the advantages of both Automatic Retransmission Request (ARQ) and Forward Error Correction (FEC) approaches in a controlled manner to provide a lossless non real time data to the receiver. Our scheme is based on two phases in which the first phase determines the type of the data traffic as real time and non-real time and the second phase determines the losses. Among the two traffic services, the non real time data traffic need to be have a lower loss even if there exist a delay and the real-time traffic need minimum delay irrespective of the losses. Since ARQ involves less delay and overhead, the real-time data is transmitted completely using the ARQ technique. But for the non real-time data, the total data loss occurred at the receivers, is estimated for a give time period. If the loss is greater than a threshold value, it transmits data using FEC technique since FEC achieves more reliability than ARQ. Once the loss becomes less than the threshold, again the data is transmitted using ARQ. Thus our scheme not only controls the reliability in a network but also the overhead and scalability issues of existing ARQ and FEC techniques. By simulation results, we have shown that our proposed hybrid technique achieves better delivery ratio with reduced overhead when compared with existing techniques.

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An Efficient Connection Admission Control Mechanism For IEEE 802.16 Networks

R Murali Prasad

GJCST Classification
C.2.2

Abstract- The main function of connection admission control (CAC) is to resolve whether or not to accept a new connection. The decision is made based on the aspects whether the Quality of Service (QoS) of new connection is satisfied and whether the QoS of ongoing connections is influenced after new connection is accepted. There has been no architecture that clearly describes a CAC for IEEE 802.16 networks. In this paper, we wish to design an efficient admission control mechanism for IEEE 802.16 networks to solve the above issues. Our CAC is based on the estimation of bandwidth utilization of each traffic class, with the constraint that the delay requirement of real-time flows should be satisfied. The current available bandwidth is estimated for all the nodes and for the new incoming flows, it estimates the requested bandwidth and decides to admit this new flow or not. By simulation results we show that our proposed approach reduces the blocking probability, thereby increasing the throughput for all classes of traffic.

Keywords- Quality of Service (QoS), Connection Admission control (CAC), Bandwidth based CAC, IEEE 802.16, MAC protocol.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. WIMAX Networks

WiMAX (Worldwide interoperability for Microwave access) or IEEE 802.16 is regarded as a standard for metropolitan area networks (MANs) [1]. It is one among the most reliable wireless access technologies for upcoming generation all-IP networks. In reality, this access technology enables obtaining high bit rate and reaching large areas with a single Base Station (BS), and because of this it provides to operators the option of supplying connectivity to end users in an economical way [2]. It is a reliable choice to offer last-mile access in wireless metropolitan area network (WMAN) together with the merits of low cost, high speed, rapid and easy deployment, such that a large number of applications can be applied also in the areas where the installation of wired infrastructure is cost-effective or technically achievable [3]. In consequence to the characteristics of WiMax, it can be widely employed in several related fields, comprising of mobile service, mobile commerce, mobile entertainment, mobile learning and mobile healthcare [4]. Fixed subscriber stations (SSs) and mobile subscriber stations (MSSs) remain in contact with BSs by means of air interfaces [1]. Even though the deployment and the utilization of this standard have begun, the exploitation of WiMAX networks is still restricted to certain situations. Research works on WiMAX access networks is still taking place, because several topics have yet to be described to

permit and optimize the utilization of this technology in upcoming generation networks [2]. Traffic on 4G networks namely WiMAX is heterogeneous with random mix of real and non-real time traffic with applications needing widely varying and miscellaneous QoS guarantee [5].

B. Connection Admission Control (CAC)

IEEE 802.16 achieves QoS guarantee between Base Station (BS) and Subscriber Station (SS) by using connection admission control (CAC), packet scheduling, dynamic sub-carrier assignment etc, in order to keep up multimedia services. In ensuring QoS, CAC is the first stage. Also the selection of scheduling and resource allocation algorithms is controlled by the choice of CAC algorithms [7].

To resolve whether or not to accept a new connection, is the main function of CAC. The decision is made owing to two aspects

- i. Whether the QoS of new connection is satisfied,
- ii. Whether the QoS of ongoing connections is influenced after new connection is accepted [7].

The basic idea in CAC is to consider information from other cells in the network along with local information. The confined cell, where the new call has been requested, interacts with a set of cells called cluster that will take part in the admission process. In general, the schemes vary from each other in accordance with how the cluster is constructed, the nature of information exchanged and how this information is used. Making the choice of admission control in a decentralized manner, will be the primary idea [8].

i. CAC schemes

Call admission control schemes can be divided into following categories,

Local schemes- It uses local information alone (e.g. local cell load) when taking the admission decision.

Collaborative schemes- It involves more than one cell in the admission process. The cells exchange information about the ongoing sessions and about their capabilities to support these sessions [8].

Bandwidth based CAC (BW-CAC)- It admits flows as long as there is enough bandwidth to satisfy the incoming request, but it does not consider the deadline constraints of the connections. The BW-CAC receives all the DSA/DSC/DSD requests and updates the available bandwidth after admitting new connection or deleting an outgoing connection or honoring bandwidth change request of a connection [9].

QoS based CAC (QoS-CAC)- It services the UGS connection queue first, followed by RTPS and then by

NRTPS queues. Thus, it provides highest priority to UGS connections requests followed by RTPS and NRTPS connection requests. There is no need for Admission Control to Best-Effort connections since it does not require any guarantees [9].

ii. Issues in CAC

The presented admission control strategies can handle the resource management in homogeneous wireless networks only but not the issues in heterogeneous wireless environment. In mobile communication environment, the mobility of the terminals makes the resource allocation, a difficult task at what time the resources are always insufficient. This contradicting situation can be handled by efficient call admission control policies which optimize the resource utilization [8].

The CAC mechanism deals with the advent of a new call in the connection-oriented systems and decides whether the system accept a new connection or not. CAC should verify that the new call does not affect the QoS of present connections and also the system can offer the QoS requirements of the new call before taking a decision. The ongoing calls of present cell might be handed over to another cell because of user mobility. Due to the network overload or aggressive channel conditions, the receiving cell might have scarce resources. Consequently, it may start dropping calls or decline handoff attempts if the arrival rate of new or handoff calls exceeds the capability of a cell [10]. In IEEE 802.16 networks, there has been no clear structure described for CAC. Although a few authors have recommended implicit conventional bandwidth based CAC, such simple CAC cannot guarantee QoS to application services. Consequently such ancient CAC may make the execution uncooperative as well as inappropriate for application using diverse services of 802.16 [9].

II. RELATED WORK

Ke Yu et al [7] have proposed a statistical CAC mechanism for IEEE 802.16 network. In order to avoid the QoS degradation, their proposed CAC mechanism considers the traffic variability and overflow. Furthermore, a model of traffic and air interface capacity is provided to make their CAC mechanism easy to be implemented. They also proposed a performance analysis model based on Markov chains.

Ramesh Babu H.S et al [8] have proposed an optimal call admission control algorithm to reduce call blocking probability in Next generation wireless network (NGWN) and provided optimal QoS to the mobile users. In their proposed algorithm they have considered three classes of traffic having different QoS requirements which are complementary in nature with respect to their QoS requirements are considered.

Sarat Chandra and Anirudha Sahoo [9] have presented an efficient CAC algorithm which not only provides bandwidth guarantee, but also ensures QoS guarantees to connections as per their service types.

Prasun Chowdhury et al [11] have focused on the integration of Call Admission Control (CAC) and Uplink Packet Scheduling (UPS) mechanism to identify quantitative measurement of some QoS parameters like delay, loss rate, throughput, connection acceptance probabilities and bandwidth utilization of the system. Reservation based Prioritized CAC with degradation (RPCAC- Deg) and Non Reservation based Prioritized

CAC with degradation (NRP-CAC-Deg) schemes along with the two delay models maintaining delay guarantee have been evaluated by their integrated Markov Chain model.

Anas Majeed et al [12] have described a problem in the mesh network Relay station that how to serve the mobile stations (MSs) which are out of the Relay station coverage. They also proposed a solution for mobile stations out of the coverage of the WIMAX Relay stations mesh Network. Therefore they defined Ad-hoc network as a solution by using its admission control scheme and apply it on the mobiles inside and outside the Relay station coverage.

III. EFFICIENT ADMISSION CONTROL MECHANISM

A. System Model and Overview

We consider a wireless metropolitan area mesh network in which the infrastructure/backbone is built using IEEE 802.16 technology. The mesh network consists of fixed wireless mesh routers and end mobile clients. The wireless mesh routers form a multi-hop wireless backbone to relay traffic to and from mobile clients. An IEEE 802.16 cell consists of a base station and one or more mobile stations based on point-to-multipoint (PMP) network topology. Wireless mesh routers also serve as base stations to mobile stations within their coverage area.

We describe an IEEE 802.16-based wireless mesh network as a set of nodes $N = \{1, \dots, N\}$ that includes all the mobile clients and mesh routers and a set of wireless links $L = \{1, \dots, L\}$ that includes all the backhaul links as well as the links between mobile stations and base stations. Assume the bandwidth requirement for the new arrival is REQ_{bw} . Each node and each link along the chosen route must have at least $MIAB_{bw}$ units of bandwidth available for the new connection.

Our CAC is based on the estimation of bandwidth utilization of each traffic class, with the constraint that the delay requirement of real-time flows should be satisfied. The principle of our CAC algorithm is:

- i. First, system calculates the current available bandwidth.
- ii. Second, for new incoming flows, system estimates the bandwidth it will take and the system will decide to grant this new flow or not.

B. Available Bandwidth Estimation

The area within transmission range is defined as the direct range, and the area between transmission range and interference range is defined as the indirect range. The total numbers of these two areas denotes the number of

competitive nodes. Therefore; each node maintains two tables, the Direct Range Members (DRM) and Indirect Range Members (IRM) tables. DRM is found from the first hop nodes and IRM may be found from two or more hops nodes or hidden nodes. A node wishing to transmit data should consider both its local bandwidth and the bandwidth of all interference range nodes. In our proposed system, each node sends out a special signal with double power at a predefined interval, and collects all the signals from its neighboring nodes and updates its DRM and IRM tables. The local bandwidth and neighboring nodes' bandwidth are determined as below.

Since bandwidth is shared among neighboring nodes, a node listens to the channel and estimates bandwidth based on the ratio of idle and busy times for a predefined interval.

The local bandwidth LBW is estimated as follows:

$$L_{BW} = C_{BW} X \frac{idle_t}{int_t} \quad (1)$$

where C_{BW} denotes the channel capacity, $idle_t$ denotes the idle time in a predefined interval int_t .

The neighboring nodes bandwidth is given by NMBW which is collected from the neighboring nodes.

So the residual bandwidth R_{BW} is calculated as

$$BW_{res} = NM_{BW} - L_{BW} \quad (2)$$

C. Estimating Requested Bandwidth

Let N and F_L be the session duration and frame length respectively. Let the traffic arrival rate be TR_i (bps) and packet size is b_i bits. When a traffic flow wants to establish a connection with BS, it sends parameters TR_i and b_i to the BS and waits for the responses from BS. An extra parameter, delay requirement $Dreq_i$, will be sent by rtPS flows. In order to meet delay requirement of rtPS packets, packets generated at time t must start to send after k_i-1 frames after t , where

$$k_i = \frac{Dreq_i}{F_L} \quad (4)$$

If data rate is bigger than TR_i , these b_i bits can be shared by k_i-1 frames before deadline.

Therefore, our estimation of the data volume in a time frame is:

$$(TR_i * F_L) + \frac{Dreq_i}{k_i - 1} \quad (5)$$

And, the expected bandwidth of the flow is estimated as

$$TR_i + \frac{Dreq_i}{(k_i - 1) * F_L} \quad (6)$$

Let N_{rtPS} be the number of rtPS connections, BW_{req} be the bandwidth required by all rtPS connections, we can know that BW_{req} can be calculated as

$$BW_{req} = \sum_i^{N_{rtPS}} (TR_i + \frac{Dreq_i}{(k_i - 1) * F_L}) \quad (7)$$

D. Call Admission Control

In order to avoid starvation of some traffic classes, we set a threshold of bandwidth used for each class. They are: TUGS,

T_{rtPS} , T_{nrtPS} and T_{BE} ,

$$T_{UGS} + T_{rtPS} + T_{nrtPS} + T_{BE} \leq BW_{Tot}$$

where BW_{Tot} is the total bandwidth. When the bandwidth occupied by a class is over its threshold, this class will have lower priority to the bandwidth resource.

For rtPS flow, (3) is used to estimate its bandwidth; for the other three flows, TR_i , the token rate, will be used to estimate bandwidth. Our CAC algorithm is as follows:

Algorithm

- i. Calculate the residual bandwidth BW_{res} and requested bandwidth BW_{req} using (2) and (7), respectively.
- ii. If $BW_{req} < BW_{res}$, then
Accept the new flow
Else
iii. If $BW(nrtPS) > Th_{nrtPS}$ and $BW(BE) > Th_{BE}$
Allocate less time slots
Go to step-2.
- iv. Else if $BW(rtPS) > Th_{rtPS}$ and $BW(UGS) > Th_{UGS}$ then
Degrade TR_i of UGS and rtPS.
Else
v. Reject new flow.
End if.
End if.

In the above algorithm, step-5 refers to the "Stealing bandwidth from upper class". Stealing bandwidth from upper class may be an issue. Stealing bandwidth from BE and nrtPS flows is relatively simple. We can easily decrease the bandwidth used by them because of they are not real-time flows. To steal bandwidth from the other two real-time classes, we will choose some connections of these two classes and degrade their TR_i , e.g. make TR_i to be $C * TR_i$, where $0 < C < 1$.

IV. SIMULATION RESULTS

A. Simulation Model And Parameters

To simulate the proposed scheme, network simulator (NS2) [13] is used. The proposed scheme has been implemented over IEEE 802.16 MAC protocol. In the simulation, clients (SS) and the base station (BS) are deployed in a 1000 meter x 1000 meter region for 50 seconds simulation time. All nodes have the same transmission range of 250 meters. In

the simulation, the video traffic (VBR) and CBR traffic are used.

The simulation settings and parameters are summarized in table 1.

Area Size	1000 X 1000
Mac	802.16
Nodes	50
Radio Range	250m
Simulation Time	50 sec
Traffic Source	VBR
Physical Layer	OFDM
Packet Size	1500 bytes
Frame Duration	0.005
Rate	1Mb
OFDM Bandwidth	10 MHz

B. Performance Metrics

We compare our efficient CAC (ECAC) method with the Modified Complete Sharing algorithm with CAC (MCS-CAC) [7]. We mainly evaluate the performance according to the following metrics

Blocking Probability- It is the ratio of number of requests rejected to the total number of requests.

Average End-to-End Delay- The end-to-end-delay is averaged over all surviving data packets from the sources to the destinations.

Throughput- It is the bandwidth received measured in Mb/s. The performance results are presented in the next section.

V. RESULTS

A. Based on Traffic class

In our initial experiment we vary the classes: UGS, rtPS, nrtPS and BE, as 1, 2, 3 and 4

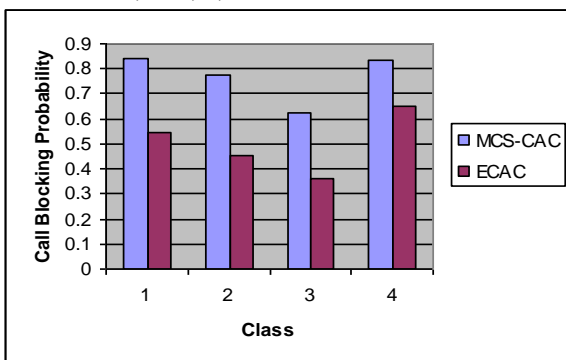


Fig. 1 Class Vs Blocking Probability

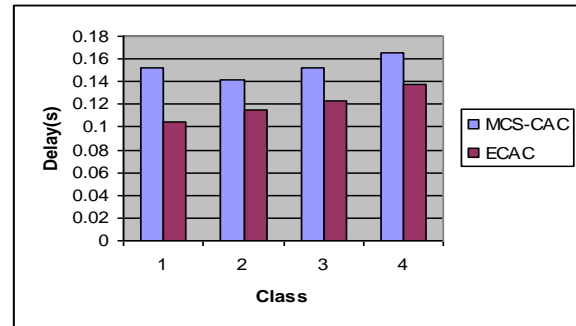


Fig. 2 Class Vs Delay

Fig. 1 shows that the blocking probability is more for MCS-CAC when compared with our proposed ECAC scheme. From Fig. 2 it is clear that the delay for our proposed ECAC scheme is less when compared with the MCS-CAC scheme.

B. Based on number of Users

In our second experiment we vary the number of users as 2, 4, 6 and 8.

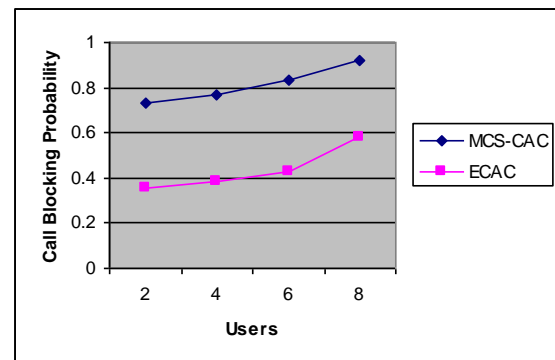


Fig. 3 Users Vs Blocking Probability

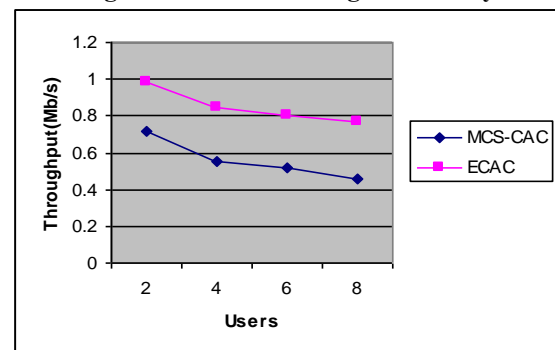


Fig. 4 Users Vs Throughput

Fig. 3 show that the blocking probability is more for MCS-CAC when compared with our proposed ECAC scheme. From Fig. 4 it is clear that the throughput for our proposed ECAC scheme is high when compared with the MCS-CAC scheme.

VI. CONCLUSION

There has been no architecture that clearly describes a CAC for IEEE 802.16 networks. Though some authors have suggested implicit conventional bandwidth based CAC, such simple CAC cannot guarantee QoS to application services.

In this paper, we have designed an efficient admission control mechanism for IEEE 802.16 networks to solve the above issues. Our CAC is based on the estimation of bandwidth utilization of each traffic class, with the constraint that the delay requirement of real-time flows should be satisfied. First the current available bandwidth is estimated for all the nodes based on the local and neighborhood bandwidth information. Then for the new incoming flows, the requested bandwidth is estimated for each class of service. Admission is made for the flows whose requested bandwidth is less than the available bandwidth. In order to admit a real time flow with additional bandwidth requirement, the QoS of best effort traffic is degraded by rate limiting its bandwidth. By simulation results we have shown that our proposed approach reduces the blocking probability, thereby increasing the throughput for all classes of traffic.

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Generation Of Arbitrary Topologies For The Evaluation Stages In Critical Node Test Mechanism

Nitiket N Mhala

GJCST Classification
B.4.3,C.2.1

Abstract-The applications of MANET are increasing in modern generation. But MANET are more vulnerable to many attacks because of their adhoc nature. The security issue is the main concern in the use of MANET application. Therefore, the selection of efficient methodologies and techniques to protect MANET is an important aspect. Detecting malicious nodes in an open adhoc network in which participating nodes have no previous security associations presents a number of challenges not faced by the traditional wired networks. Traffic monitoring in wired network is usually preferred at switches, routers and gateways, but adhoc network does not have these types of network elements where the Intrusion Detection System (IDS) can collect and analyze audit data for the entire network. Any kind of network diagnosis or intrusion detection depends on the degree of mobility of nodes. This paper presents a Critical Node Test Mechanism which is a lightweight solution that can be used to determine the proper conditions to activate more demanding IDS. Here, we generate arbitrary logical network topologies in order to perform real time operations on adhoc network at a relatively low cost in a laboratory environment without having to physically move the nodes in the adhoc network.

Keywords- adhoc, test bed, critical node, node degree, MANET, IDS.

I. INTRODUCTION

A mobile adhoc network is a relatively new communication paradigm. In modern generation, the applications of MANET are increasing in use. MANET does not require expensive base stations of wired infrastructure. Therefore, it is an attractive networking option for connecting mobile devices quickly and spontaneously. MANET is self organized in such way that a collection of mobile nodes without a fixed infrastructure and central management is formed automatically. Wireless presents a number of unique problems for Intrusion Detection System (IDS). Network traffic can be monitored on a wire segment, but adhoc nodes can only monitor network traffic within their observable radio range. A MANET is most likely not under a single administrative domain, making it difficult to perform any kind of centralized management or control.

In an adhoc network, malicious node may enter and leave the intermediate radio transmission range at random interval, may collude with other malicious nodes to disrupt network activity and avoid detection, or behave maliciously only intermittently, further complication their detection. A node that sends out false routing information could be a compromised node, or merely a node that has a temporarily

stale routing table due to volatile physical conditions. Packets may be dropped due to network congestion or because a malicious node is not faithfully executing a routing algorithm [1] MANET with loose or no prior security associations are more difficult to diagnose than a MANET comprised of nodes from the same organization with strong security services. Establishing trust in an open adhoc network in which higher-level security services are unavailable can be hampered by the short lived presence of both collaborating and malicious nodes. In addition to having no previously established trust associations, nodes in an adhoc network have little incentive for reciprocity to faithfully execute a routing protocol or provide a minimum level of service. Closed adhoc networks that support critical applications may not be able to tolerate the presence of malicious nodes; fortunately closed networks can more established prior trust associations for collaborative IDS. The effectiveness of collaborative IDS also depends on the amount and trustworthiness of data that can be collected by each node.

Malicious nodes in sparsely populated networks can be more harmful than malicious nodes in a densely populated network since these nodes can effectively not only disrupt communication but also disconnect the network.

II. RELATED WORK

Various IDS techniques have been proposed in the research literature. Zhang and Lee describe a distributed and collaborative anomaly detection-based IDS for adhoc network [2,3]. Theodorakopoulos and Baras present a method for establishing trust metrics and Evaluating trust [4]. Michiardi and Molva assign a value to the "reputation" of a node and use this information to identify misbehaving nodes and co-operate only with trusted reputations. [5]. Certain nodes in MANETS can produce attacks which cause congestion, distribution of incorrect routing information, services preventing proper operation or disable them [6]. As routing protocols exchange routing data between nodes, as a result, they would maintain routing status in each node. Based on routing status, data packets are transmitted by mediated nodes along an established route to the destination [7]. M.K Rafsanjani, A Movaghar presents a scheme in which nodes do not need to exchange multiple messages to prove their identities [8].

III. METHODOLOGY

The dynamic nature of adhoc networks suggests that prevention techniques that monitor the security status of the network and identify anomalous and /or malicious

behavior. These techniques are usually less expensive to implement and can be easily developed in existing adhoc networks without requiring modification to nodes configuration or routing protocols being used. Here, our concept is built around the notion of critical node in an adhoc network. We consider a critical node whose failure or malicious behavior disconnects or significantly degrades the performance of the network.

In order to determine a critical node, a graph theoretic approach to detect a vertex-cut and an edge-cut is studied. [9]. A vertex-cut is a set of vertices whose removal produces a sub graph with more components than the original graph. A cut-vertex or articulation point is a vertex cut on sitting of single vertex. An edge-cut is a set of edges whose removal produces a sub graph with more components than original graph. A cut-edge or bridge, is an edge –cut consisting of a single edge. Although the cut-vertex or cut edge of graph G can be determined by applying a straight forward algorithm. Finding a cut vertex in the graphical representation of an adhoc network is not a straightforward, since the nodes cannot be assumed to be stationary. A network discovery algorithm can give an approximation of the network topology, but the value of such an approximation in performing any kind of network diagnosis or intrusion detection depends on the degree of mobility of nodes.

A. Role Of Our Adhoc Network Test Bed

The basic idea of our emulation Test Bed[10] is having a number of MANET nodes physically close to each other inside the laboratory, but forces them to ‘think’ that they can only communicate with a selected few of them. That way, we can emulate a logical topology. In order to work, there is the need of hardware. Our Test bed is an emulator, not a simulator. So, we have the necessary hardware equipment. Each node is a device that has a wireless (802.11 b/g) interface, so that it can communicate with other adhoc nodes and run MANET protocols. In addition, the device should also have a wired interface (Ethernet), which is used for administrative purposes. In brief, the Test Bed uses the wired interface to transfer files needed for its operation to and from the node and manipulate its networking element in such way that will create logical topology we want. That

Leaves the wireless interface free of any interface and most importantly, emulates an actual MANET, which is the whole point all along. In fact, Test Bed uses ix86 architecture and Linux can run even in 80386 machines (at least requirement is Pentium II), so we can gather all those old PCs intended thrown away, adding a PCMCIA wireless card on each of them and set up a MANET test bed in a laboratory at a very low cost.

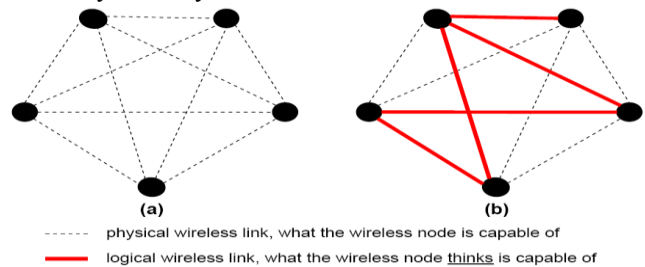


Figure1. (a) Physical links, (b) logical links between MANET nodes

B. Design Concept For Creation Of Logical Topology In Our Test Bed

Determining the global network topology in a mobile adhoc network is somewhat difficult, but determining an approximation of this topology or subset of this topology within a certain time frame may be useful. Our test bed allows user to create arbitrary network topologies and emulate the mobility. By changing the logical topology of the network, users can conduct test on adhoc network without having to physically move the nodes in the adhoc network. By giving the number of nodes in adhoc network Test Bed, each node's IP and MAC address, software module used in a test Bed creates arbitrarily connected graphs and updates each node's IP_TABLES accordingly through socket servers running on each network node in order to reflect the new logical topology. Thus arbitrary graph is represented in an adjacency matrix that is then translated into the corresponding IP_TABLES. Software module uses open source graph visualization tool Graphviz [11] to display the logical topology of the adhoc network as shown below.

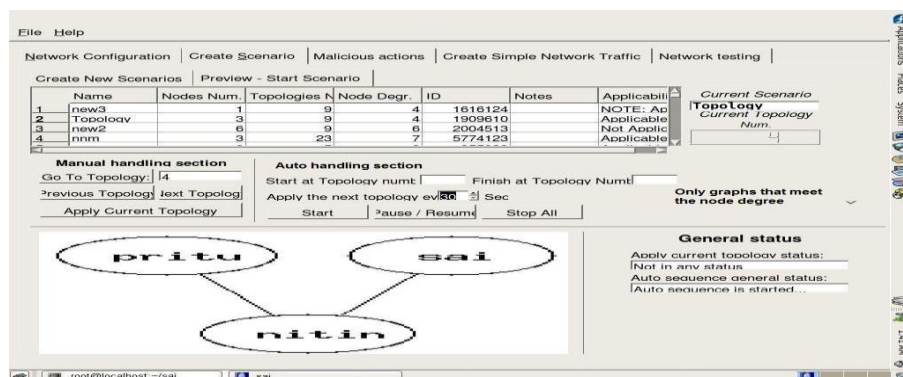


Fig. 2 Logical Topology Creation (Node degree = 4)

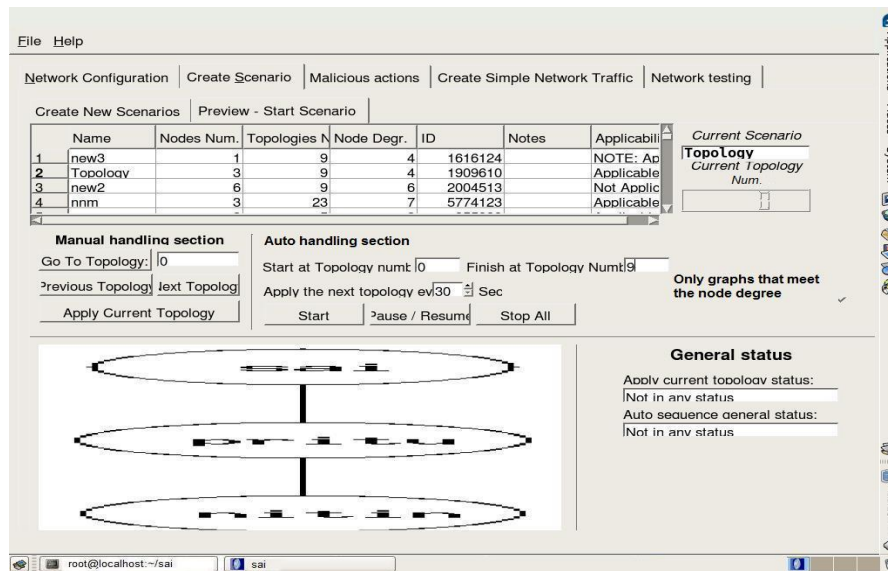


Fig. 3 Logical Topology Creation (Node degree = 4)

Above figures indicates arbitrary creation of logical topology of actual three nodes in every 30 seconds in our laboratory. We can set 150 physical nodes and theoretically, there is no limit to the number of nodes this test bed can handle. Therefore, we design the module which allows users to save and replay different mobility scenarios to control the maximum and minimum degree, produces an output in the form of adjacency matrix for further analysis and produces a framework for building additional adhoc network tools. An approximation of the network topology can provide the useful information about network density, network mobility, critical path and critical nodes.

IV. CRITICAL NODE TEST CONSIDERATION

A. Basic Steps

- i. The node performing the test is referred to as testing node and the node under test is referred as node under test.
- ii. Use of ip,route and ping utilities. The ip utility is a TCP/IP interface configuration and routing utility that configures the network interfaces.
- iii. The route utility manipulates the Kernel's IP routing Table. It's primary purpose is to set static routes to specific hosts or networks via an interface after it has been configured with ifconfig program.
- iv. When used together, ip route provides the necessary tools for manipulating any routing tables such as displaying routes, routing cache, adding routes, deleting routes, altering routes, getting routing information and clearing routing table.

B. Evaluation Stages In A Critical Node Test Mechanism

It is very necessary to detect whether the testing node shares a critical link with its Neighbors.

i. First Stage

- a) To temporarily modify the testing node's routing table to allow only one communication link to be operational at a time, while blocking communication through all others.
- b) The enabled communication link will be between the testing node and a node other than the node under test.
- c) Each communication link has to test sequentially in this way to determine if an alternative path to the link under test exists.
- d) If an alternative path exists, then the link is not critical because its removal will not disconnect the network.

ii. Second Stage

- 1) This stage is for the host to attempt to discover an alternative path by using ping to the node under test without using the suspected cut-edge between the testing node and node under test.

- 2) To discover an alternative path to the node under test, the testing node executes the following command

```
#ping -c -s 4 <node_under_test> -A-R
```

Where -c is the number of pings that the host executes

-s is the number of data bytes to be sent

-A is the audit flag

-R flag returns the route, if exists, to the <node_under_test> node

- 1) When the results of the ping are returned, the network routing table is restored during this final step to its initial configuration.
- 2) . It is very important to note that, after the end of critical node test, all previously established routes are restored .The duration of critical node depends on the network density and topology.
- 3) Critical node conditions however are likely to occur when a node has a relatively small degree (see fig 3 and fig 4) and therefore fewer tests are required.

iii. Third stage

V. INFERENCES

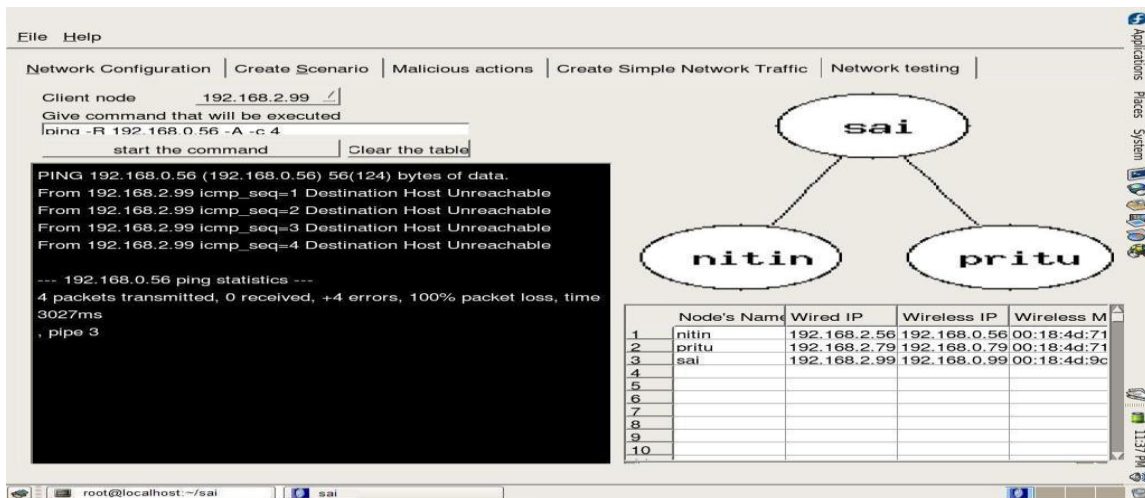


Fig. 4 (node test)

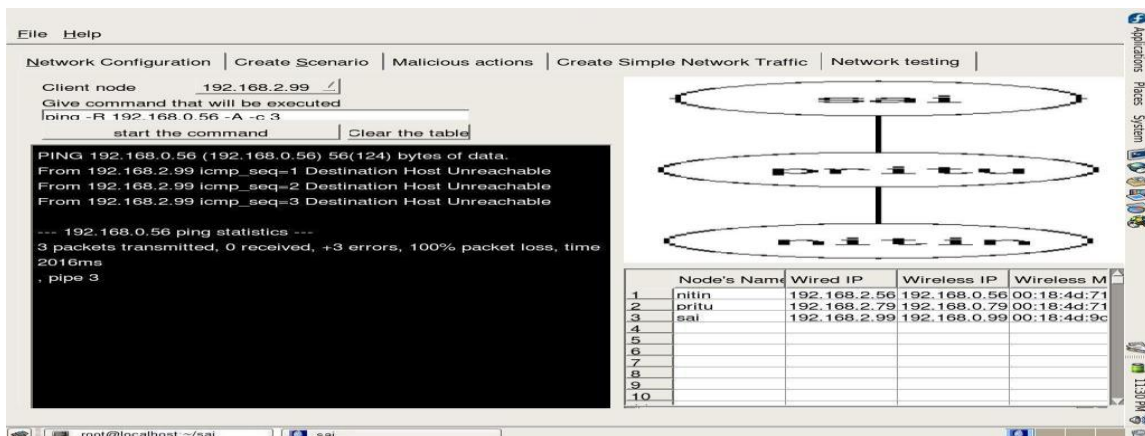


Fig. 5 (node test)

Above two figures show different topology created in our test bed for the same node degree of 4.

Fig 4- indicates the ping results from the Host node Sai (Wired IP 192.168.2.99 & Wireless IP 192.168.0.99) To node nitin (Wired IP 192.168.2.56 & wireless IP 192.168.0.56) showing the node nitin unreachable.

(The statistics is that 4 packets transmitted, 0 received, +4 errors, 100% packet loss, time 3027 ms, pipe 3)

Fig 5- indicates the ping results from the Host node Sai (Wired IP 192.168.2.99 & Wireless IP 192.168.0.99) to node nitin (Wired IP 192.168.2.56 & wireless IP 192.168.0.56) showing the node nitin unreachable for the changed topology.

(The statistics is that 3 packets transmitted, 0 received, +3 errors, 100% packet loss, time 2016 ms, pipe 3) Thus, we made inference that Host node Sai has a critical (or semi critical) link with node nitin.

VI. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In order to improve the lifetime of the network, an effective method in selecting a monitoring node is needed so that a required level of detection Intrusion in MANET would be provided. When a critical link is detected, it can be the focus of more resource intensive or other diagnostic measures. The host node may choose expend additional resources to initiate an IDS module that is more resource intensive such as Traffic monitoring watch dog module or Collaborative IDS. But if there is no critical link then this metric can be used to help decide if the application or risk environment warrant the expenditure of additional requires monitoring diagnosis and and altering other nodes about the problems. Or if there is no critical link then host can use the lighter modules to continue to monitor network traffic. Therefore, we may conclude that Critical Node Test Mechanism is a lightweight solution that can be used to determine the proper conditions to activate more demanding IDS. Involment of Trigger mechanism for the invocation of critical node test in a mobile adhoc network will be the basis of our future work. This paper effort to focus that, generating arbitrary topologies create scenarios can help researchers to test experimental IDS system under the difficult situations. We may conclude since the global topology of the adhoc network is known, which will help researchers to benchmark the actual performance of their adhoc routing algorithms and applications against the theoretical optimal performance.

VII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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