

# An Improved Free-Roaming Mobile Agent Security Protocol against Colluded Truncation Attacks

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## Abstract

*This paper proposes an improved free-roaming mobile agent security protocol. The scheme uses “one hop backwards and two hops forwards” chain relation as the protocol core to implement the generally accepted mobile agent security properties. This scheme defends most known attacks, especially colluded truncation attacks and several special cases.*

## 1. Introduction

Mobile agents are software programs which migrate from originating hosts to intermediate servers to generate and collect data, and return to the originators to submit results after completing scheduled tasks. Free-roaming agents are those mobile agents which have no pre-defined migration paths. They select their next hop at each hop they visit based on initial requirements and current conditions. Mobile agents have evoked strong interest due to features such as flexibility, autonomy and efficiency. Applications such as electronic commerce, mobile computing and network management can benefit from the mobile agent technology. However, mobile agents must have strong security properties to protect themselves and the collected data while leaving their homes and migrating to other potentially malicious servers. A malicious server may expose, modify, insert, or truncate data the agent collected from other previously visited servers to benefit itself. One of the diligent attacks is two-colluder truncation attack in which two attackers collude to delete a part of the results collected by an agent from previously visited servers. A general approach to protect mobile agent security is utilizing cryptographic mechanisms to build robust security protocols needed to meet security requirements.

## 2. Related work

Yee [1] proposed the Partial Result Authentication Codes (PRACs) to protect mobile agent results. In the PRAC schemes, an agent carries key generation functions, or lists of encryption keys or public signature keys, one for each server to be visited. The key generation functions, or

the encryption keys or public signature keys are applied to data generated at each host the agent visits. These PRACs ensure data integrity. However, agents must determine how many keys they need to carry before leaving the originators. The agents need to carefully protect the carried keys during their journey, and erase the used keys once they complete their actions on each server. The above requirements are however nearly impossible for free-roaming agents in real network environments.

Karjoth et al. [2] extended Yee’s schemes to a set of enhanced security protocols. The KAG protocol family uses digital signatures and hash functions to protect a chain relation. A chain relation links a result from the currently visited host to a result generated at the previous server and the identity of the next hop. By using different combinations of cryptographic mechanisms, each scheme of the protocol family provides different security properties. However, none of the protocols can defend two-colluder truncation attacks.

Karnik et al. [3] introduced the Append Only Container scheme. It is a compact case of the KAG protocol family. The protocol uses an encrypted checksum to build a backward chain relation to link an agent’s previous result with the agent’s data generated at the currently visited host. The backward chain relation guarantees that only new data can be added to the results the agent collected and no data can be deleted from them. This scheme cannot defend two-colluder truncation attacks.

Corradi et al. [4] integrated the Multiple-Hops Protocol in their mobile security project. Similar to the KAG protocols, this protocol uses a chain relation which includes both backward and forward chaining. At each host, the protocol runs a hash function to compute a cryptographic proof of a result from the previous host, a result generated at the current host, and the identity of the next hop. Like other protocols, this protocol cannot defend two-colluder truncation attacks.

Cheng et al. [5] enhanced the KAG protocols with a co-signing mechanism to defend the two-colluder truncation attacks. In this protocol, a preceding host co-signs a result generated at the current host. Attackers need their preceding non-attackers to co-sign fake offers when they

launch two-colluder truncation attacks, and then their actions can be detected. Like KAG protocols, to reach the so called publicly verifiable forward integrity propriety, this protocol generates a pair of one time secret private and public keys at each host for its successor to use. As Yao et al. [6] and Songsiri [7] point out, the security assurance relies on the assumption that the predecessor does not leak the secret key used by its successor. This requirement to potentially malicious hosts is not realistic. To defend a stemming attack, a special case of two-colluder truncation attacks, the protocol needs to be modified and requires a two-way authentication.

Zhou et al. [8][9] improved Cheng et al.'s protocol. In the protocol, the one time signature key pair is generated by each host rather than the preceding host. The protocol also defends the truncation attack with a special loop. Like Cheng et al.'s protocol, a major issue with the protocol is that a host requires its preceding host to co-sign encrypted data. In real business applications, signing documents assumes legal responsibilities. Since the co-signers cannot check the encrypted data, malicious hosts may ask their preceding hosts to sign encrypted documents and use these signatures against the co-signers later. This protocol cannot defend multiple-colluder truncation attacks. This protocol requires a confidential channel for adjacent hosts to exchange secret data.

Our new protocol addresses all the issues found in the previously discussed protocols, especially solutions to defend the two-colluder attack. The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 3, we give the commonly accepted mobile agent security properties, notations and assumptions used in protocol description. In Section 4, we describe our protocol in detail. In Section 5.1, we analyze the general security properties of the new protocol. In Section 5.2, we discuss two-colluder truncation attacks and other special cases. In Section 6, we conclude the highlights of the protocol.

### 3. Notations and security properties

To compare with other mobile agent security protocols, we use the similar notions used in other schemes [2][5][9].

**Table 1. Model notations**

$S_0=S_{n+1}$	Originator.
$S_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$	Hosts.
$o_0$	Token from $S_0$ to identify the agent instance on return.
$o_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$	Offer from $S_i$ . The identity of $S_i$ is explicitly specified in $o_i$ .
$O_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$	Encapsulated offer (cryptographically protected $o_i$ ) from $S_i$ .
$h_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$	Integrity check value associated with $O_i$ .
$O_0, O_1, \dots, O_n$	Chain of encapsulated offers from $S_0, S_1, \dots, S_n$ .

**Table 2. Cryptographic notations**

$r_i$	Random number generated by $S_i$ .
$(Pr_i, Pb_i)$	Private and public key pair of $S_i$ .
$(tPr_i, tPb_i)$	Temporary private and public key pair of $S_i$ .
$Enc_{Pb_i}(m)$	Message $m$ encrypted with the public key $Pb_i$ of $S_i$ .
$Sig_{Pr_i}(m)$	Signature of $S_i$ on message $m$ with its private key $Pr_i$ .
$H(m)$	One-way, collision-free hash function.
$A \rightarrow B: m$	A sends message $m$ to B.

A free-roaming agent starts at its originator  $S_0$ , and visits other intermediate servers  $S_i$  to generate and collect data, and returns to  $S_0$  after completing its itinerary  $S_0, S_1, \dots, S_i, \dots, S_m, \dots, S_0$ . While the agent migrates to server  $S_i$ ,  $S_i$  encapsulates an offer  $o_i$  with other related data to generate its encapsulated offer  $O_i$ , and then appends the encapsulated offer to the partial results carried by the agent from the preceding servers. The agent completes its trip and returns to  $S_0$ , and  $S_0$  extracts and verifies the encapsulated offers from each visited servers.

Assume the agent has a chain of encapsulated offers  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_i, \dots, O_m$  when migrating to  $S_{m+1}$ , and  $S_{m+1}$  colludes with some of previously visited servers, excluding  $S_m$  to attack the offers. Karjoth et al. [2] defined and Cheng, et al. [5] extended following mobile agent security properties based on the assumptions:

- *Data Confidentiality*: Only the originator can extract the offer  $o_i$  from the encapsulated offer  $O_i$ .
- *Non-repudiability*: Server  $S_i$  cannot repudiate its offer  $o_i$  once it has been received by the originator  $S_0$ .
- *Forward Privacy*: None of the identities of the creators of offer  $o_i$  can be extracted by anyone except the originator  $S_0$ .
- *Strong Forward Integrity*: None of the encapsulated offers  $O_k$ , where  $k < m$ , can be modified.
- *Public Verifiable Forward Integrity*: Any one can verify the offer  $o_i$  by checking whether the chain is valid at  $O_i$ .
- *Insertion Resilience*: No offer can be inserted at  $i$  unless explicitly allowed; i.e.,  $S_{m+1}$ . It is impossible for  $S_{m+1}$  to insert more than one offer unless  $S_{m+1}$  collude with some special  $L$  hosts.
- *Truncation Resilience*: Truncation at  $i$  is not possible unless some specific  $L$  hosts collude with  $S_i$  to carry out the attack.

### 4. The protocol

Our protocol builds a chain relation to link the current encapsulated offer backwards to the previous encapsulated offer and forwards to the identities of next two hops. The protocol is designed to defend all known attacks, especially two-colluder truncation attacks and their special cases, and

fix some weaknesses found in other protocols. We describe the protocol as following.

#### 4.1. Agent creation at $S_0$

The originator  $S_0$  starts the agent with a dummy offer  $o_0$  and a random number  $r_0$ . The originator signs the offer and then encrypts the offer and random number by using the originator's secret key to produce a cryptographically protected encapsulated offer  $ProtectedO_0 = Enc_{Pb_0}(Sig_{Pr_0}(o_0), r_0)$ . The agent selects and then migrates to its next hop  $S_1$  with  $ProtectedO_0$ .

$S_0$ :        Compute  $ProtectedO_0 = Enc_{Pb_0}(Sig_{Pr_0}(o_0), r_0)$   
               Decide next hop  $S_1$   
 $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ :  $ProtectedO_0$

#### 4.2. Agent at $S_1$

When the agent migrates to  $S_1$ , it carries the protected encapsulated offer  $ProtectedO_0$ , instead of the final encapsulated offer  $O_0$ .  $S_1$  generates offer  $o_1$  and a random number  $r_1$ .  $S_1$  signs its own offer, and then encodes the offer and the random number by using the originator's public key to produce  $S_1$ 's protected encapsulated offer  $ProtectedO_1$ . The server  $S_1$  also generates a pair of temporary digital signature keys  $[tPr_1, tPb_1]$  for signing its own final encapsulated offer later. The agent then selects its next hop  $S_2$ .

$S_1$ :        Receive  $ProtectedO_0$  from  $S_0$   
               Compute  $ProtectedO_1 = Enc_{Pb_0}(Sig_{Pr_1}(o_1), r_1)$   
               Generate  $[tPr_1, tPb_1]$   
               Select  $S_2$

$S_1$  sends the identity of its next hop  $S_2$  and temporary public key  $tPb_1$  to  $S_0$ . To prevent a host from inserting two offers in a self-looping mode [5],  $S_0$  checks and refuses to return its final encapsulated offer  $O_0$  if  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are the same hosts. Now  $S_0$  is able to build a chain relation  $h_0$  of its previous offer and the next two hops. Since  $S_0$  has no previous offer, the protected encapsulated offer  $ProtectedO_0$  is used here.  $S_0$  then signs its final encapsulated offer and forwards it to  $S_1$ .

$S_1 \rightarrow S_0$ :  $S_2, tPb_1$   
 $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ :  $h_0 = H(ProtectedO_0, r_0, S_1, S_2), S_1 \neq S_2$   
                $O_0 = Sig_{Pr_0}(ProtectedO_0, h_0, tPb_1)$

After receiving  $O_0$ ,  $S_1$  can verify  $O_0$  by using  $S_0$ 's public key and recover  $ProtectedO_0$ ,  $h_0$ , and  $tPb_1$ , and confirm the  $ProtectedO_0$  encapsulated in  $O_0$  is the same as the  $ProtectedO_0$  carried with the agent at the time when migrating from  $S_0$  to  $S_1$ . This step prevents  $S_0$  from changing its mind to use a different offer  $o_0$  at the time when  $S_1$  asks for the final encapsulated offer  $O_0$ .  $O_0$  not only presents  $S_0$ 's final encapsulated offer, but also certifies that  $tPb_1$  is  $S_1$ 's temporary digital signature public key. Note not all of calculation or verification steps related to  $S_0$  are

necessary in the protocol since  $S_0$  is a trust originator. We keep the actions to generalize the protocol steps.

$S_1$ :         $Ver(O_0, Pb_0)$ , recover  $ProtectedO_1, h_0$ , and  $tPb_1$

The agent migrates to  $S_2$  with the final encapsulation offer  $O_0$  from  $S_0$  and the protected encapsulated offer  $ProtectedO_1$  from  $S_1$ .

$S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ :  $O_0, ProtectedO_1$

#### 4.3. Agent at $S_i$

**4.3.1. Offer provision.** The agent migrates to  $S_i$  with all previous encapsulated offers  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{i-2}$ , plus the protected encapsulated offer  $ProtectedO_{i-1}$  from  $S_{i-1}$  (instead of the final encapsulated offer  $O_{i-1}$ ). After generating a random number  $r_i$  and a pair of temporary digital signature keys  $[tPr_i, tPb_i]$ ,  $S_i$  computes its protected encapsulated offer  $ProtectedO_i$ . To prevent reusing of the one time digital signature keys [5], a recording and checking function can be added to the agent. The agent checks and advises  $S_i$  to generate a new pair if the same temporary digital signature keys are used before. No confidential information is revealed if the agent only records and checks public key information. As a free-roaming agent, the agent then decides its next hop  $S_{i+1}$  based on the initial requirements and the current conditions, such as numbers of visited servers and availability of next hop. The discussions of the checking function and the roaming decision are out of the scope of this paper.

$S_i$ :        Receive  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{i-2}, ProtectedO_{i-1}$  from  $S_{i-1}$   
               Compute  $ProtectedO_i = Enc_{Pb_0}(Sig_{Pr_i}(o_i), r_i)$   
               Generate  $[tPr_i, tPb_i]$   
               Select  $S_{i+1}$

**4.3.2. Interactive offer encapsulation.**  $S_i$  informs its previous server  $S_{i-1}$  with the next hop identity  $S_{i+1}$  and the temporary digital signature public key  $tPb_i$ . To prevent potential self-loop attack,  $S_{i-1}$  compares  $S_i$  with  $S_{i+1}$ , and refuses to return its final encapsulated offer  $O_{i-1}$  and reports the incident if  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$  are the same host.  $S_{i-1}$  is now able to build a chain relation  $h_{i-1}$  of its previous offer  $O_{i-2}$  and its next two hops  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$ . Since the protected encapsulated offer  $ProtectedO_{i-1}$  has been computed when the agent was at  $S_{i-1}$ ,  $S_{i-1}$  just simply signs and finalizes the final encapsulation offer  $O_{i-1}$  by using its secret key  $tPr_{i-1}$ . Since  $S_i$  passes the identity of  $S_{i+1}$  to  $S_{i-1}$  to build the chain relation, this step may reveal  $S_{i+1}$ 's identity to  $S_{i-1}$ . It is feasible for  $S_i$  to pass an encoded identity to fix this weakness but the protocol needs to be modified.

$S_i \rightarrow S_{i-1}$ :  $S_{i+1}, tPb_i$   
 $S_{i-1} \rightarrow S_i$ :  $h_{i-1} = H(O_{i-2}, r_{i-1}, S_i, S_{i+1}), S_i \neq S_{i+1}$   
                $O_{i-1} = Sig_{tPr_{i-1}}(ProtectedO_{i-1}, h_{i-1}, tPb_i)$

**4.3.3. Offer verification.** Now  $S_i$  has all previous offers including the final encapsulated offer  $O_{i-1}$  from  $S_{i-1}$ .  $S_i$

recovers all of the previous *Protected* $O_k$ ,  $h_k$ , and  $tPb_{k+1}$  ( $1 \leq k \leq i-2$ ) recursively from  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{i-2}$  to verify the offers  $O_1, O_2, \dots, O_{i-1}$  with corresponding public keys. The protocol confirms the *Protected* $O_{i-1}$  encapsulated in  $O_{i-1}$  by  $S_{i-1}$  in Step 4.3.2 is the same *Protected* $O_{i-1}$  carried over by the agent in Step 4.3.1 to prevent  $S_{i-1}$  from changing its mind to use a different offer  $o_{i-1}$  after the agent migrates.

$S_i$ : *Ver*( $O_0, Pb_0$ ), recover *Protected* $O_0$ ,  $h_0$ , and  $tPb_1$   
*Ver*( $O_k, tPb_k$ ), recover *Protected* $O_k$ ,  $h_k$ , and  $tPb_{k+1}$ ,  
 $1 \leq k \leq i-2$

**4.3.4. Agent transmission.**  $S_i$  forwards all previous offers and its protected encapsulated offer to  $S_{i+1}$  if all previous encapsulated offers are verified as valid.

$S_i \rightarrow S_{i+1}$ :  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{i-1}, ProtectedO_i$

#### 4.4. Agent at $S_{i+1}$

Agent migration at  $S_{i+1}$  has the similar processes as at  $S_i$ . We outline the protocol at sever  $S_{i+1}$  for comparison with steps at  $S_i$ .

$S_{i+1}$ : Receive  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{i-1}, ProtectedO_i$  from  $S_i$   
 Compute *Protected* $O_{i+1}$ =  
 $Enc_{Pb_0}(Sig_{Pr_{i+1}}(O_{i+1}), r_{i+1})$   
 Generate [ $tPr_{i+1}, tPb_{i+1}$ ]  
 Select  $S_{i+2}$   
 $S_{i+1} \rightarrow S_i$ :  $S_{i+2}, tPb_{i+1}$   
 $S_i \rightarrow S_{i+1}$ :  $h_i = H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2}), S_{i+1} \neq S_{i+2}$   
 $O_i = Sig_{Pr_i}(ProtectedO_i, h_i, tPb_{i+1})$   
 $S_{i+1}$ : *Ver*( $O_0, Pb_0$ ), recover *Protected* $O_0$ ,  $h_0$ , and  $tPb_1$   
*Ver*( $O_k, tPb_k$ ), recover *Protected* $O_k$ ,  $h_k$ ,  
 and  $tPb_{k+1}$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq i-1$   
 $S_{i+1} \rightarrow S_{i+2}$ :  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_i, ProtectedO_{i+1}$

#### 4.5. Agent returns to $S_0$

When the agent returns to the originator  $S_0$ , it has all the encapsulated offers  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_n$ . The agent creator  $S_0$  begins to decrypt the offers and extract the data. It uses its public key  $Pb_0$  to recover *Protected* $O_0$  and temporary public key of  $tPb_1$  from  $O_0$ , and then uses the temporary public key  $tPb_1$  to recover *Protected* $O_1$  and  $tPb_2$  from the next encapsulated offer. Using these temporary public keys  $S_0$  can extract all the *Protected* $O_i$ . The *Protected* $O_i$  can be decrypted using the public key  $Pb_0$  of  $S_0$  and the offers  $o_1, \dots, o_n$  can be obtained.

### 5. Security analysis

Here we analyze how our protocol achieves the security properties defined in Section 3. We assume the agent's itinerary is  $S_0, S_1, \dots, S_{i-2}, S_{i-1}, S_i, \dots, S_m, \dots, S_0$ , and collected encapsulated offers are  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{i-2}, O_{i-1}, O_i, \dots, O_m, \dots, O_n$ .

### 5.1. General security properties

**5.1.1. Data confidentiality.** Each offer  $o_i$  is encrypted by  $S_0$ 's public key  $Pb_0$ . Only the originator can decrypt  $Enc_{Pb_0}(Sig_{Pr_i}(o_i), r_i)$  and extract  $o_i$ .

**5.1.2. Non-repudiability.** Each offer  $o_i$  is signed by  $S_i$  as  $Sig_{Pr_i}(o_i)$ .  $S_i$  cannot deny its offer  $o_i$  after  $S_0$  receives the offer and verifies the signature.

**5.1.3. Forward privacy.** Each offer  $o_i$  is signed by server  $S_i$  and then encoded by  $S_0$ 's public key  $Pb_0$  as  $Enc_{Pb_0}(Sig_{Pr_i}(o_i), r_i)$ . A random number is included in the checksum  $h_i = H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2})$  so no server identity information is exposed by examining  $h_i$ .  $tPb_i$  is a temporary public key and no identity information is associated with it. With no information revealed from the three components of  $O_i$ , no one except  $S_0$  can identify  $S_i$  by examining  $O_i$ .

**5.1.4. Strong forward integrity.** Assume an attacker  $S_m$  holds encapsulation offers  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{i-1}, O_i, \dots, O_{m-1}$ , and modifies or replaces  $O_{i-1}$  with  $O_{i-1}'$ .  $O_{i-1}$  is one of the components in the checksum  $h_i = H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2})$  in the encapsulated offer  $O_i$ . Since  $O_i$  is intact, the chain relation  $h_i = H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2})$  must be hold true, i.e.  $H(O_{i-1}', r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2}) = H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2})$ . This violates the assumption that the hash function  $H$  is collision-free. It is impossible for an attacker to modify or replace any offer without changing the next encapsulated offer if a collision-free hash function is used in the protocol.

**5.1.5. Publicly verifiable forward integrity.** As described in 4.3.3, any server  $S_i$  can recover  $h_0$  and  $tPb_1$  from  $O_0$ , and  $h_k$  and  $tPb_{k+1}$  from  $O_k = Sig_{Pr_k}(ProtectedO_k, h_k, tPb_{k+1})$  ( $1 \leq k \leq i-2$ ) recursively to verify the previous encapsulated offers  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_{i-1}$ .

**5.1.6. Insertion defense.** Assume an attacker  $S_m$  inserts an offer  $O_x$  between  $O_{i-1}$  and  $O_i$  to change the encapsulation offers to  $O_0, \dots, O_{i-1}, O_x, O_i, \dots, O_{m-1}$ . Since any two of the ordered encapsulated offers has a chain relation between them, the inserted  $O_x$  is a fake  $O_{i-1}$  to  $O_i$ . As discussed in 5.1.4,  $O_x$  cannot be inserted because the chain relation  $h_i = H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2})$  cannot be hold true after the insertion.

**5.1.7. Truncation defense.** Assume an attacker  $S_m$  truncates all encapsulated offers after  $O_{i+1}$ , and then appends its own offer  $O_m$ . The new chain of encapsulated offers is now  $O_0, O_1, \dots, O_i, O_{i+1}, O_m$ . Since  $O_i$  is intact, the chain relation  $h_i = H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2})$  must be hold true, i.e.  $H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2}) = H(O_{i-1}, r_i, S_{i+1}, S_m)$ . This violates the assumption that the hash function  $H$  is collision-free.

### 5.2. Colluded truncation attacks

Some of other mobile agent security protocols use chain relations to defend truncation attacks. As Karjoth et al. pointed out [2], inclusion of an identity of the next hop in a

chain relation guarantees that no one else except the chained next host can append the next offer. In other chain relation based schemes, including Karjoth et al.'s protocols,  $S_{i-1}$  retains the chain relation with its previous encapsulated offer  $O_{i-2}$  and next one hop  $S_i$ . Since only one forward hop is included, the chain relation  $h_{i-1}$  at  $S_{i-1}$  only guarantees that  $S_i$  can append the next offer but cannot prevent  $S_i$  from modifying the next hop identity in its own chain relation  $h_i$  when  $S_i$  joins a colluded truncation attack at a later time. Since  $S_i$  can modify its next hop in its own chain relation,  $S_i$  is able to collude with  $S_m$  to truncate the offers between them and append new offers without being detected. This is why the one-hop forward chain relation based schemes cannot defend colluded truncation attacks without other protection mechanisms.

In our protocol,  $S_{i-1}$  builds the chain relation  $h_{i-1}=H(O_{i-2}, r_{i-1}, S_i, S_{i+1})$  with next two hops  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$ . The inclusion of  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$  guarantees that no one else except hosts  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$  can append the next two offers  $O_i$  and  $O_{i+1}$ . If  $O_{i-1}$  is intact, truncation against  $O_i$  and/or  $O_{i+1}$  will break the chain relation. The chain relation  $h_{i-1}$  may not be able to prevent  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$  from changing their own chain relations, but it guarantees that only  $O_i$  from  $S_i$  and  $O_{i+1}$  from  $S_{i+1}$  can follow  $O_{i-1}$ . This property can be used to defend two-colluder truncation attack and many of its special cases. We discuss different scenarios as following.

**5.2.1. Two-colluder truncation attack.** Assume an agent migrates from a colluder  $S_i$  to a non-colluder  $S_{i+1}$  and some other non-colluder hosts, then arrives at another colluder host  $S_m$ .  $S_m$  and  $S_i$  leave  $O_{i-1}$  intact and collude to truncate  $O_i$  and/or afterward. Since  $O_{i-1}$  is intact, only  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$  can append  $O_i$  and  $O_{i+1}$  after  $O_{i-1}$ . If  $O_i$  and/or  $O_{i+1}$  are truncated, the host identities of the new offers after  $O_{i-1}$  cannot satisfy the chain relation  $h_{i-1}=H(O_{i-2}, r_{i-1}, S_i, S_{i+1})$  without violating the collision-free hash function assumption. So the truncation against  $O_i$  and  $O_{i+1}$  cannot happen or the action will be detected. Since  $S_{i+1}$  is not an attacker and  $O_{i+1}$  is intact, the chain relation  $h_{i+1}=H(O_i, r_{i+1}, S_{i+2}, S_{i+3})$  not only prevents truncations against  $O_{i+2}$  and/or  $O_{i+3}$ , but also prevents  $S_i$  from changing  $O_i$  based on the discussion in 5.1.4. Recursively, we can prove that no offers can be truncated or modified with this attack.

**5.2.2. Growing a fake stem attack.** The combined attack where an attacker simultaneously truncates offers and appends fake offers is referred as *growing a fake stem attack* [2]. In one-hop chain relation based schemes, if  $O_{i-1}$  is intact,  $S_m$  cannot truncate  $O_i$  but can truncate offers after  $O_i$ , and collude with  $S_i$  to change  $S_i$ 's chain relation  $h_i$  to add new offers. In our protocol, if  $O_{i-1}$  is intact, based on the discussion in 5.2.1, the chain relation  $h_{i-1}$  prevents  $S_i$  and  $S_m$  from truncating offers and adding new offers between them so the *growing a fake stem attack* cannot happen.

**5.2.3. Multiple-colluder truncation attack.** It is possible that multiple (three or more) colluders exist.

Assume  $S_m$  holds partial encapsulated offers from  $S_0, \dots, S_{i-1}, S_i, S_{i+1}, \dots, S_x, S_{x+1}, \dots, S_{m-1}$ , and  $S_i, S_x$ , and  $S_m$  ( $i < x < m$ ) leave  $O_{i-1}$  intact and collude to truncate  $O_x$  and/or afterwards. In our protocol,  $S_{i-1}$  builds the chain relation with next two hops  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$ . Only if  $x=i+1$ , ie, where  $S_i$  and  $S_x$  are adjacent,  $S_i$  and  $S_x$  can change their own chain relations, and collude with the third attacker  $S_m$  to truncate offers between  $S_x$  and  $S_m$ . Otherwise, based on the discussion in 5.2.1, the attack cannot be successful. In other words, our protocol defends multiple colluder truncation attacks as long as any two of the colluders are not adjacent. This protocol can be extended to overcome the limitation, but the protocol process will be too complex to implement.

**5.2.4. Revisiting attack.** In *revisiting attack* [8], an agent leaves  $S_i$ , visits some other hosts,  $S_{i+1}$ , for example, and then revisits  $S_i(S_i=S_{i+2})$ .  $S_i(S_{i+2})$  then colludes with  $S_m$  to truncate  $O_{i+2}$  and/or afterwards. In this case, the visited servers are  $S_0, \dots, S_{i-1}, S_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2}(S_i), S_{i+3}, \dots, S_m$ , and the encapsulated offers before the attack are  $O_0, \dots, O_{i-1}, O_i, O_{i+1}, O_{i+2}, O_{i+3}, \dots, O_{m-1}$ . In our protocol, similar to the discussion in 5.2.1, since  $O_{i+1}$  is intact, the chain relation  $h_{i+1}=H(O_i, r_{i+1}, S_{i+2}, S_{i+3})$  assures that  $O_{i+2}$  and  $O_{i+3}$  cannot be truncated. Using the same argument recursively, we can prove no other offers can be truncated as well.

**5.2.5. Interleaving attack.** In *interleaving attack*, attackers may truncate encapsulated offers and replace the agent to insert fake offers [10]. Assume the visited servers are  $S_0, \dots, S_i, S_{i+1}, S_{i+2}, \dots, S_m$ , and the encapsulated offers before the attack are  $O_0, \dots, O_i, O_{i+1}, O_{i+2}, \dots, O_{m-1}$ .  $S_m$  truncates the encapsulated offers to  $O_0, \dots, O_{i-1}, O_i$ , replaces the agent with its own version, and colludes with  $S_i$  to change the chain relation in  $O_i$ , and migrates the new agent to next hop. Since the new agent is created by  $S_m$ ,  $S_m$  can select an itinerary  $S_{i+1}', S_{i+2}', \dots$ , and make the agent back to  $S_m$ . If this happens,  $S_m$  gets a new encapsulated offer chain  $O_0, \dots, O_i, O_{i+1}', O_{i+2}', \dots, O_{m-1}'$ .  $S_m$  switches back to the original agent, appends its own encapsulated  $O_m$  and continues the original itinerary. In other protocols [5][9], a certified agent integrity checksum is used to allow the public to verify the agent and reject it if the agent is not from  $S_0$ . In our protocol, since  $O_{i-1}$  is intact, only  $S_i$  and  $S_{i+1}$  can append  $O_i$  and  $O_{i+1}$  after  $O_{i-1}$ . If  $S_m$  creates a new agent, the new agent must be sent to  $S_{i+1}$  again to keep the chain relation  $h_{i-1}=H(O_{i-2}, r_{i-1}, S_i, S_{i+1})$  valid.  $S_{i+1}$  is able to check the encapsulated offer chain  $O_0, \dots, O_i$ , and rejects this migration if this is a repeated action.

## 6. Conclusion

Our scheme uses a "one hop backwards and two hop forwards" chain relation to build a free-roaming agent security protocol to implement all of the generally accepted security properties. The protocol is designed especially to defend the two-colluder truncation attack and many of its special cases, including growing a fake stem attack, revisiting attack and interleaving attack. This protocol

defends multiple colluder truncation attacks in most cases. Compared with other free-roaming agent security schemes, this scheme has relatively simple protocol processes and minimum requirements on network and security environments, such as no requirements for confidential channels and no co-signs on encrypted contents. Like other schemes with ability of defending colluder truncation attacks [5][8][9], this scheme requires communications between servers after agent migrations and may increase communication overhead or cause the process fail if a previous server is not available. This protocol offers many unique and attractive features to protect free-roaming agents in a distributed environment.

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