

# The design and implementation of a private message service for mobile computers \* †

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**Abstract.** Even as wireless networks create the potential for access to information from mobile platforms, they pose a problem for privacy. In order to retrieve messages, users must periodically poll the network. The information that the user must give to the network could potentially be used to track that user. However, the movements of the user can also be used to hide the user's location if the protocols for sending and retrieving messages are carefully designed. We have developed a replicated memory service which allows users to read from memory without revealing which memory locations they are reading. Unlike previous protocols, our protocol is efficient in its use of computation and bandwidth. In this paper, we will show how this protocol can be used in conjunction with existing privacy preserving protocols to allow a user of a mobile computer to maintain privacy despite active attacks.

## 1. Introduction

In some cases, the sole purpose for carrying a mobile computer is to allow others to quickly locate the carrier (e.g. an active badge location system). In most cases, however, people carry mobile computers in order to send and receive information. While this may include messages from other users who are trying to contact them, it is not necessary, in general, to locate someone in order to contact that person. Moreover, it is common for users of communications networks to desire privacy. The focus of our work is on providing mechanisms for preserving privacy while permitting mobile communication.

In designing a system which preserves privacy for mobile users, we found it useful to partition privacy into three semi-independent components. The first is content privacy which is preserved if an attacker<sup>1</sup> is unable to extract the plain-text of the data sent from one computer to another. Content privacy can be maintained through the proper use of message encryption and signatures.

Even if the data portion of a message is encrypted, an attacker may be able to obtain useful information. By observing the addressing information attached to messages, the attacker may be able to determine who is communicating with whom. Since the network needs to

have some means of getting messages to their intended recipients, addressing information can not simply be encrypted along with the message data. One way to solve this problem is to send messages through intermediary computers which secretly pass messages from one computer to another (an example of this is a MIX-network [6,14] which will be discussed later in this paper). However, in a mobile network, it is possible to take advantage of the computers' mobility to design a more efficient protocol to hide this information from an attacker than is possible in a static network. In section 5, we will present such a protocol.

The third type of privacy is location privacy. Just as with cellular telephones, many people will soon begin to carry mobile computers with them wherever they go. While the users of these computers will wish to be able to receive messages from others at any time, they will not want others to be able to locate them. In addition to determining who is communicating with whom, an attacker may attempt to use traffic analysis to electronically "stalk" users. As we will show later, a MIX-network can be used by a computer that wishes to send a message while hiding its location.

While a MIX-network can also be used to allow a computer to receive a message while hiding its location, it is not very efficient. In section 7, we will present a technique, developed by the authors, which will allow a computer to read from a shared memory in such a way that an attacker will be unable to determine which piece of information is being read and in section 8 we will show how this protocol can be used to create a message service which will allow mobile computers to read messages without revealing their location. The message service and the protocols for interacting with it are depicted in Fig. 1.

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<sup>1</sup> Throughout this paper, when we refer to an attacker, we mean any entity which attempts to acquire information that it is not intended to receive. In all cases, an attacker will be assumed to be limited to polynomial time computations.

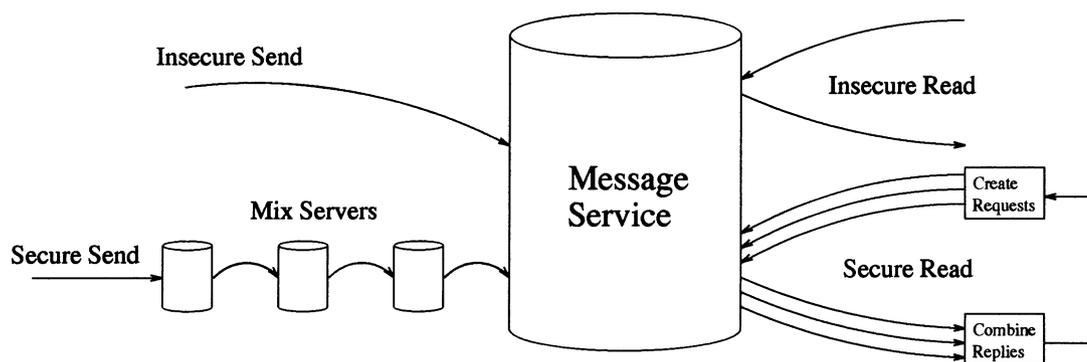


Fig 1. The message service.

## 2. Related work

Message encryption and signatures are essential to all security and privacy schemes. There are two basic types of encryption schemes, symmetric and asymmetric. In a symmetric (secret key) scheme, the same key is used for both encryption and decryption. In most cases, the secret key is known to a pair (or group) of communicating parties and kept hidden from all outsiders. While there are many different secret key encryption schemes, the most well known is DES [9]. In an asymmetric (public key) scheme, the encryption and decryption keys are distinct. In addition, it is infeasible for someone who only knows the encryption key to determine the value of the decryption key. In most cases, the encryption (public) key is made widely available while the decryption (private) key is known only to a single user (its owner). An example of a public key scheme is RSA [19]. As with most public key encryption schemes, RSA can also be used to sign messages. Messages are signed using the decryption key and verified using the encryption key. The details of message encryption and signatures are beyond the scope of this paper (see [21] for an overview of the subject).

There are several papers which describe protocols for maintaining the unlinkability of message senders and recipients. The concept of a MIX-network was introduced by David Chaum in [6]. A MIX-network takes in a batch of messages and scrambles them so that an attacker can not match incoming messages with outgoing messages. There are several other papers describing variations of the original scheme [10,11,12,15]. The protocols in [6,10] have security problems which were corrected in [13,14].

In [7], David Chaum presents an information theoretically secure technique for preserving the unlinkability of the sender and recipient of a message. This paper describes a protocol for creating a virtual network in which computers can send messages anonymously. Every computer can read every message (although they may be encrypted), but no computer is able to determine the sender of the message. Since messages are broadcast to every computer, recipient anonymity is also guaran-

teed. While this technique is secure, it requires that every computer send and receive a large volume of data as well as share a large amount of secret data. This technique is also not well suited for mobile computers which may frequently disconnect from the network.

In [4], Brassard, Crepeau, and Robert present a technique which allows a computer to read from a database without revealing which piece of information it is reading. In addition, it guarantees that the reading computer will only be able to read one piece of information. In the protocol, the entire contents of the database is transferred to the reader in an encrypted form. The reader and the database then engage in a zero-knowledge protocol to enable the reader to decrypt one of the database entries. Since our protocol does not limit the amount of information that a reader can acquire, our memory service could be implemented by simply sending the entire contents of memory unencrypted. In section 7, we will present a protocol which satisfies our more limited requirements which has a small bandwidth overhead.

There has been some work in the area of privacy for mobile computers. In [2,3,5], protocols are presented which encrypt messages that are sent along wireless links thus preventing an attacker from using the contents of these messages to locate users. The main goal of these papers is to limit the computational overhead of the mobile computers. While the protocols in these papers will maintain the unlinkability of message senders and recipients as well as the location privacy of mobile computers, they assume that the static network is secure. In this paper, we will present protocols which are resilient to attacks on the static network.

## 3. System model

### 3.1. Mobile computers

The system consists of a set of mobile computers which are assumed to be *anonymous by default*. By this we mean that if every mobile computer were to send and receive the same sequence of signals, then no attacker could determine the identity of any computer. In other

words, the only information an attacker can use to determine the identity of a mobile computer is any information that it can infer from the sequence of messages that the mobile computer sends and receives. Using this assumption, we will be able to demonstrate that our system preserves privacy by showing that a mobile computer does not send or receive any messages that might provide an attacker with information about the computer's identity.

### 3.2. Base stations

Mobile computers communicate by sending messages to, and receiving messages from, base stations<sup>2</sup>. A mobile computer is said to be in the *area* of a base station if it is able to communicate with that base station<sup>3</sup>. A mobile computer sends a message in the same way as a static computer. It attaches a header to the message with the destination address and then forwards the message to the nearest base station which will route the message towards its destination.

When a mobile computer wishes to send a query for which it expects a response<sup>4</sup>, it must use an RPC. The request will be sent to the appropriate server and the server will respond by sending its reply message to the base station from which the query originated. If the mobile computer moves to another base station before the reply arrives then it must re-send its request<sup>5</sup>.

### 3.3. The network

The network consists of a set of static computers and a set of communications links. The static computers are the base stations, the routers, and any servers that will be discussed later in the paper. We assume that the communications links and the routers can be read by an attacker, but the attacker is unable to modify or delete any of the messages. We also assume that timestamps and nonces are used as appropriate to prevent message replay attacks. Servers, on the other hand, are considered to be secure unless specified as being corrupt. An attacker can read messages that go into or come out of a correct server but does not have access to the contents of the server's memory.

Throughout this paper, we assume that servers, both correct and corrupt, do not crash or behave maliciously.

<sup>2</sup> In a wireless network, a base station is a network router that has a wireless connection.

<sup>3</sup> In the future, when we refer to the location of a mobile computer, we will mean the area of the base station with which it is connected.

<sup>4</sup> As will be shown later, this includes retrieving messages sent to it by other computers.

<sup>5</sup> If mobile computers move from base station to base station quickly relative to the round-trip time of an RPC, the server can send its reply to all of the base stations whose areas are neighbors of the area from which the request originated in addition to the originating base station.

While techniques have been developed for implementing services which can handle crash failures or a limited number of malicious failures, fault tolerance is beyond the scope of this paper. Techniques for creating fault tolerant services can be found in [16].

### 3.4. The message service

The message service is used to send messages to mobile computers. Sending a message to a mobile computer involves two steps. First, the sender attaches a *label*<sup>6</sup> to the message and sends it to the message service. Next, the intended recipient, upon discovering that the message is available, requests the message from the message service. The reason for this approach is twofold. First, it provides a means for computers to anonymously receive messages. Second, it allows one computer to send a message to another computer even if the second computer is not currently connected to the network. As will be shown later, most of the labels will be chosen randomly. Therefore, labels should be large enough so that the probability of two messages having the same label is acceptably small<sup>7</sup>.

All messages must be of the same length. Messages longer than the standard length must be fragmented and then re-assembled by the recipient. The specific means of choosing labels for messages as well as the protocols for sending messages to, and retrieving messages from, the message service are vital to providing privacy and will be discussed in detail later.

## 4. Content privacy

A conversation between two computers,  $p$  and  $q$ , begins with one of the computers, say  $p$ , sending an initiation message to the other computer. Since secret key encryption is, in general, much more efficient than public key encryption, messages sent between  $p$  and  $q$  should be encrypted using a secret key. However, since  $p$  and  $q$  do not share any secret information before the initiation message is sent, some form of key exchange must be used to generate the secret key. A simple solution is to have the initiator,  $p$ , generate a secret key,  $K_s$ , and encrypt  $K_s$  with  $q$ 's public key,  $K_q$ . The initiation message can then be  $K_q(K_s), K_s(m)$  where  $m$  is any information that  $p$  wishes to send to  $q$ .

The initiator,  $p$ , can look up  $q$ 's public key in a trusted authentication service<sup>8</sup>. As long as  $p$  trusts the authenti-

<sup>6</sup> A label in our system is equivalent to a visible implicit address in [12].

<sup>7</sup> If two messages, intended for different recipients, use the same label, then both recipients will read in and attempt to decrypt both messages. While this will not affect security or privacy, it will affect performance.

<sup>8</sup> The authentication service only needs to be trusted to provide correct information. It does not need to maintain any secret information.

cation service, it will know that  $q$ , and only  $q$ , will be able to read the initiation message. As written above, however, the initiation message provides  $q$  with no way of verifying that the initiation message came from  $p$ . In some cases, the initiating computer's user may wish to remain anonymous and the receiving computer's user may not be interested in authenticating the initiator. For example, one may wish to call an airline to find out about available flights. In this case, the airline may not be interested in authenticating the caller unless the caller tries to book a reservation.

In many cases, someone receiving an initiation message may not want to send any messages to the initiator unless the identity of the initiator has been authenticated. To accomplish this, the initiator may receive a certificate from the authentication service. The certificate will be a signature, by the authentication service, of  $p$ 's public key (i.e.  $\{id_p, K_p\}_{K_a^{-1}}$ <sup>9</sup>). The initiator,  $p$ , can then send  $K_q(K_s), K_s(\{id_p, K_p\}_{K_a^{-1}}, \{id_p, id_q, m\}_{K_p^{-1}})$  to  $q$  thus allowing  $q$  to authenticate  $p$ .

### 5. Unlinkability of sender and recipient

Since mobile computers are anonymous by default, the relationship between senders and recipients can be hidden by carefully choosing message labels. Labels can be divided into two basic categories. Label  $l$  is *public* if it is known to every user (i.e. available in a public directory) and *private* if it is known only to the sender and the intended recipient of the message.

As in the previous section, a conversation between two mobile computers,  $p$  and  $q$ , begins when one of the computers, say  $p$ , sends an initiation message to the other computer. Since  $p$  and  $q$  do not share any secret information before  $p$  sends the initiation message, the only (feasible) way for  $p$  to send a message to  $q$  is to use a public label for  $q$  (which can be found in an authentication service along with  $q$ 's public key). So, an initiation message (either the authenticated or unauthenticated version from the previous section) should be sent to  $q$  by attaching  $q$ 's public label to the message and then sending the message to the message service.

Since the initiation message contains  $q$ 's public label in plain-text, an attacker will be able to determine that an initiation message was sent to  $q$ . However, the initiation message does not contain any (unencrypted) information that would allow an attacker to determine that  $p$  sent the message. Since  $p$ 's identity remains secret (to all except possibly  $q$ ), an attacker will not be able to determine that  $p$  and  $q$  are communicating with each other.

In order to maintain this privacy,  $p$ 's identity must

<sup>9</sup> The notation  $\{m\}_{K_a^{-1}}$  signifies the signature of  $m$  using  $a$ 's private key which is  $m, K_a^{-1}(h(m))$  where  $h$  is a one-way hash function.

remain secret for the remainder of the conversation. In order to accomplish this,  $p$  can generate a random return "address" label,  $r_p$ , and send this label to  $q$  in the initiation message. If  $r_p$  is encrypted, then only  $p$  and  $q$  will know its value thus making  $r_p$  a private label. This label can then be used by  $q$  to send a message to  $p$  without an attacker being able to determine that  $p$  is the intended recipient of the message.

In order to further reduce the amount of information that an attacker might be able to infer from messages sent between  $p$  and  $q$  (such as the number of messages that  $q$  exchanged with its secret communicating party), each subsequent message (from both  $p$  and  $q$ ) should contain a new randomly generated return "address" label.

### 6. Location privacy while sending a message

In the previous two sections, we assumed that both parties wished to maintain privacy. We made this assumption since it is impossible to prevent an attacker from obtaining the identities of the participants or the contents of the messages in a conversation if the attacker is in collusion with one of the conversation's participants (if the conversation initiator does not identify itself to the other participant, then the attacker can only acquire participant information by colluding with the initiator). On the other hand,  $p$  should be able to prevent  $q$  from determining its location even if  $p$  and  $q$  are engaged in a conversation.

If  $p$  trusts  $q$  (i.e. believes that  $q$  will not attempt to locate it or does not mind being located by  $q$ ), then it is easy for  $p$  to maintain location privacy. Since, as described in the previous section,  $p$  does not include any (unencrypted) information about its identity in the messages that it sends to  $q$ , only  $q$  would be able to identify  $p$  as the message sender. Thus, an outsider will be able to determine that a message was sent from a certain location, but only  $q$  will know that  $p$  sent the message.

If  $p$  wishes to hide its location from  $q$ , then  $p$  must work to hide the location from which it sends its messages. One possible solution to this problem is to use a MIX-network [6,14] which takes batches of messages and scrambles them so that it is impossible to determine which message came from where (see Fig. 2).

The static network contains a set of  $w$  MIXes each having its own public key pair. We assume that at most  $t < w$  of the MIXes will be corrupted<sup>10</sup>. In order to send a message, a mobile computer chooses  $t + 1$  of the MIXes (call them  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_{t+1}$ ) and encrypts the message as follows:

<sup>10</sup> A server is corrupted if an attacker is able to read the contents of the server's memory or knows the server's private key. As was mentioned earlier, we are assuming in this paper that servers do not fail. However, all of the services described in this paper could be designed to handle a limited number of crash or malicious failures.

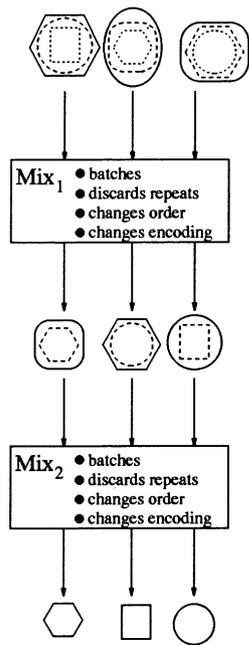


Fig. 2. Mix network (from [12]).

$$K_{M_1}(K_{M_2}(\dots K_{M_{t+1}}(l, m, S) \dots, M_3), M_2).$$

In the above equation,  $l$  is the message label,  $m$  is the encrypted message,  $K_{M_1}, \dots, K_{M_{t+1}}$  are public keys of  $M_1, \dots, M_{t+1}$ , and  $S$  is the address of a server (the final destination of the message). (As is explained in [6,14], the above message must be peppered with random data after each encryption step in order to prevent active attacks on the MIX-network.)

Each MIX reads in a block of messages, decrypts them, removes the random data, reorders the messages in some random fashion, and then sends each message to the next MIX in the chain or to a server. It is assumed that an attacker, due to the decryption and reordering steps, will be unable to match the incoming messages of a MIX with the outgoing messages unless it has corrupted the MIX. Since an attacker is unable to follow the path of a message that goes through an uncorrupted MIX and at least one of the  $t+1$  MIXes is uncorrupted, the attacker will be unable to follow the path of the message from the base station to the server.

## 7. A memory service with a blinded read operation

Just as the protocol of section 5 does not hide the location of the sender of a message from the message's intended recipient, the protocol also does not protect the recipient from the sender. Mobile computers must also be able to receive initiation messages which use public labels. One way to solve this problem is to use the MIX-network. A mobile computer wishing to receive a message would send a request message, through the MIX-network, to a message repository. The request message

would include an *anonymous return address* [6,11,14] which could be used by the message repository to send the response (via the MIX-network).

The problem with the above technique is that the mobile computer must inform the message repository of the label in which it is interested. If the label is public or if the message repository is in collusion with the message sender (and the sender knows the identity of the intended recipient) then the message repository will know the identity of the requesting computer. Since the mobile computer may reveal its identity by sending the request message, it must hide the location from which it sends the message. While this method will guarantee location privacy for the recipient, it is very expensive.

An alternative is for the mobile computer to send request messages that do not contain any information which would allow the message repository to identify the requester (thus eliminating the need for the mobile computer to hide the location from which it sent the message). In designing a protocol to achieve this goal, our main objectives were to minimize the computational and bandwidth overhead involved (especially for the mobile computers).

In this section, we will describe a protocol for a replicated shared memory which will allow a computer (whether mobile or not) to perform a blinded read operation (one in which an attacker is unable to determine which position in memory is being read). In the next section, we will modify this protocol for use as a message repository for mobile computers.

A memory service consists of a set of  $n$  memory servers each of which has an array of  $m$  cells labeled  $M[0], M[1], \dots, M[m-1]$ . As in the previous section, we will assume that at most  $t < n$  of the servers will be corrupted.

### 7.1. Reading from memory

The technique for reading from memory is similar in nature to secret sharing. The requesting computer generates a set of  $t+1$  questions and sends each question to a different server. Just as in secret sharing, an attacker that is able to obtain at most  $t$  of the questions/answers will be unable to determine the secret. However, since the nature of the secret information is different in our scheme, secret sharing techniques are not appropriate for this problem.

For this section, we will assume that only read operations are performed and that the contents of the servers' memories are the same. A computer wishing to read from memory should create  $t$  random bit-vectors of length  $m$ . Next, it should create a  $t+1$ st bit-vector by exclusive-oring the  $t$  random bit-vectors and then flipping the  $p$ th bit (in order to read cell  $p$ ). This will create a set of  $t+1$  bit-vectors that, when exclusive-ored together, will yield the bit-vector  $I_p$ :

vector	bit position							
	0	1	2	3	4	5	$m-1$	
$V_1$	0	1	1	0	1	0	...	0
$V_2$	1	1	0	1	1	0	...	1
$V_3$	1	1	1	1	0	0	...	1
$V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus V_3$	0	1	0	0	0	0	...	0

Fig. 3. Sample bit-vectors for  $t = 2, p = 1$ .

$$I_p[j] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j \neq p, \\ 1 & \text{if } j = p. \end{cases}$$

An example of such a set is shown in Fig. 3. Using these bit-vectors, the contents of cell  $M[p]$  can be obtained using the protocol in Fig. 4. While it is not shown in the figure, the bit-vectors  $V_1, V_2, \dots, V_{t+1}$  and the responses  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{t+1}$  must be encrypted so that only the client and server $_i$  can read the values of  $V_i$  and  $r_i$ .

#### Security of blinded read

*Lemma 1.* If each of the bits in the  $t$  random bit-vectors are set to 1 with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$  then an attacker which has access to at most  $t$  of the requests/responses associated with the bit-vectors will gain no information about which cell the client is reading.

*Proof.* Since the first  $t$  bit-vectors are chosen independently of the cell being read, an attacker will gain no information unless it has access to the  $t + 1$ st bit-vector. We will, therefore, assume that the attacker has the  $t + 1$ st bit-vector along with  $t - 1$  of the  $t$  random bit-vectors. Let's call the bit-vectors that the attacker knows  $V'_1, V'_2, \dots, V'_t$  and the bit-vector that it doesn't know  $V''$ .

Say that the client is reading the value of cell  $p$ .

- *case 1:  $i = p$*

Since this is the cell being read, we know that  $V'_1[p] \oplus V'_2[p] \oplus \dots \oplus V'_t[p] \oplus V''[p] = 1$ . Since  $V''[i]$  is

equally likely to be 0 or 1 and  $V'_1[i] \oplus V'_2[i] \oplus \dots \oplus V'_t[i] = \neg V''[i]$ ,  $V'_1[i] \oplus V'_2[i] \oplus \dots \oplus V'_t[i]$  is also equally likely to be 0 or 1.

- *case 2:  $i \neq p$*

Since this is not the cell being read, we know that  $V'_1[i] \oplus V'_2[i] \oplus \dots \oplus V'_t[i] \oplus V''[i] = 0$ . Since  $V''[i]$  is equally likely to be 0 or 1 and  $V'_1[i] \oplus V'_2[i] \oplus \dots \oplus V'_t[i] = V''[i]$ ,  $V'_1[i] \oplus V'_2[i] \oplus \dots \oplus V'_t[i]$  is also equally likely to be 0 or 1.

Since, for each position, the value of  $V'_1[i] \oplus V'_2[i] \oplus \dots \oplus V'_t[i]$  is equally likely to be 0 or 1 whether it is the position being read or not, the attacker gains no information about which cell is being read.

#### Sparse bit-vectors

As was shown in the previous section, if the bits in the random bit-vectors are truly chosen at random (i.e. each bit is equally likely to be either a 0 or a 1), then an attacker that sees at most  $t$  of the vectors will gain no information about the position being queried. However, using such a bit-vector can be computationally expensive for the memory servers if the memories have a large number of cells or if the cells are large (in the next section, each cell will contain a message).

One way to reduce the amount of work necessary to compute a response is to create random bit-vectors with fewer 1's. Instead of setting each bit to 1 with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ , each bit could be set to 1 with a probability  $\varphi < \frac{1}{2}$ . This will decrease the computation time but will increase the amount of information that an attacker can infer. The value for  $\varphi$  must, therefore, be chosen carefully.

In order to determine a good value for  $\varphi$ , we should look at the set of bit-vectors from an attacker's point of view to determine how much information the attacker can infer. We will assume the worst case scenario in which the attacker has acquired  $t$  of the  $t + 1$  bit-vectors, one of which is the  $t + 1$ st vector. Let's call the vectors that the attacker knows  $V'_1, V'_2, \dots, V'_t$  and the bit-vector that it doesn't know  $V''$ . Say that the client is reading the value in cell  $p$ .

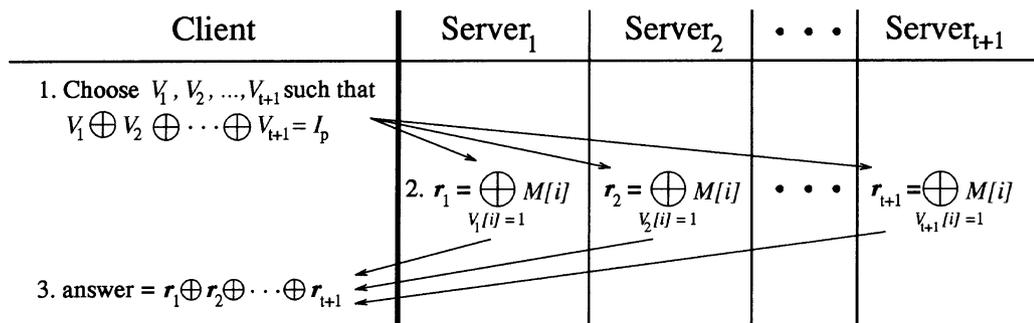


Fig. 4. Bit-vector protocol.

In order to compute the information that an attacker can infer, we will need the following values:

$$\begin{aligned} C &= V'_1 \oplus V'_2 \oplus \dots \oplus V'_t, \\ S_0 &= \{i \mid C[i] = 0\}, \\ S_1 &= \{i \mid C[i] = 1\}, \\ S'_0 &= \{i \mid V''[i] = 0\}, \\ S'_1 &= \{i \mid V''[i] = 1\}, \\ I_p[j] &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j \neq p, \\ 1 & \text{if } j = p. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Due to the way that bit-vectors are created, we know that  $V'' = C \oplus I_p$ . Therefore, we can compute the a posteriori probability that  $i = p$  as

$$\frac{\text{a priori probability that } V'' = C \oplus I_i}{\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \text{a priori probability that } V'' = C \oplus I_j}.$$

The a priori probability that  $V'' = C \oplus I_i$ , for each  $i$ , can be computed as follows:

- *case 1:  $i \in S_0$*   
In this case,  $|S'_0| = |S_0| - 1$  and  $|S'_1| = |S_1| + 1$ . From this we can conclude that the a priori probability that  $V'' = C \oplus I_i$  is  $\varphi^{|S_1|+1}(1-\varphi)^{|S_0|-1}$ .
- *case 2:  $i \in S_1$*   
In this case,  $|S'_0| = |S_0| + 1$  and  $|S'_1| = |S_1| - 1$ . From this we can conclude that the a priori probability that  $V'' = C \oplus I_i$  is  $\varphi^{|S_1|-1}(1-\varphi)^{|S_0|+1}$ .

Using the above formulas, the a posteriori probability for position  $i$  is

$$P_i = \begin{cases} \frac{\varphi^2}{|S_0|\varphi^2 + |S_1|(1-\varphi)^2} & \text{if } i \in S_0, \\ \frac{(1-\varphi)^2}{|S_0|\varphi^2 + |S_1|(1-\varphi)^2} & \text{if } i \in S_1. \end{cases}$$

Since  $P_i$  depends on  $|S_0|$  and  $|S_1|$ , in order to be able to choose a good value for  $\varphi$ , we must estimate the values of  $|S_0|$  and  $|S_1|$ . If a position,  $i$ , is not the one being read (i.e.  $i \neq p$ ), then  $C[i] = V''[i]$ . Since  $V''[i] = 1$  with probability  $\varphi$ ,  $C[i] = 1$  with probability  $\varphi$ . Since there are  $m-1$  positions,  $i$ , for which  $i \neq p$ , we can expect  $(1-\varphi)(m-1)$  to be in  $S_0$  and  $\varphi(m-1)$  to be in  $S_1$ . Since  $C[p] = \neg V''[p]$ , we have  $p \in S_0$  with probability  $\varphi$  and  $p \in S_1$  with probability  $(1-\varphi)$ . Therefore, we can estimate  $|S_0| = \varphi + (1-\varphi)(m-1)$  and  $|S_1| = (1-\varphi) + \varphi(m-1)$ .

In Fig. 5 we show the values for  $P_i$  and  $|S_i|$  for different values of  $\varphi$  for a memory with 1024 cells (the values for  $P_i$  and  $|S_i|$  were computed using the formulas above to estimate  $|S_i|$ ). In the case of  $\varphi = \frac{1}{100}$ , there is a 99% chance that  $p \in S_1$  and we can expect that  $|S_1| \approx 11.22$ . While there is a chance that  $p$  is among the approximately 1012.78 positions in  $S_0$ , it is very unlikely. So, while seeing  $t$  of the  $t+1$  vectors does not allow the attacker to rule out any of the positions entirely (for

$\varphi$	$S_0$		$S_1$	
	$P_i$	$ S_0 $	$P_i$	$ S_1 $
0	0	1023	1	1
$\frac{1}{100}$	$\frac{0.0092}{1024}$	1012.78	$\frac{90.43}{1024}$	11.22
$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{0.1103}{1024}$	920.8	$\frac{8.938}{1024}$	103.2
$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{0.2495}{1024}$	818.6	$\frac{3.991}{1024}$	205.4
$\frac{3}{10}$	$\frac{0.4283}{1024}$	716.4	$\frac{2.332}{1024}$	307.6
$\frac{2}{5}$	$\frac{0.6666}{1024}$	614.2	$\frac{1.500}{1024}$	409.8
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{1024}$	512	$\frac{1}{1024}$	512

Fig. 5. Probabilities for  $m = 1024$ .

$0 < \varphi < 1$ ), if  $\varphi$  is relatively small (or large), the attacker will be able to extract a relatively small group of positions such that the cell being read is highly likely to be in that group.

## 7.2. Writing to memory

The protocol in Fig. 4 assumes that the contents of each server's memory will be the same. If the responses to the bit-vectors are computed using cell values that differ from server to server, the computed value for the desired cell will be incorrect. As an example, consider the bit-vectors in Fig. 3. The responses from the 3 servers will be

$$\begin{aligned} r_1 &= M_1[1] \oplus M_1[2] \oplus M_1[4], \\ r_2 &= M_2[0] \oplus M_2[1] \oplus M_2[3] \oplus M_2[4] \oplus M_2[m-1], \\ r_3 &= M_3[0] \oplus M_3[1] \oplus M_3[2] \oplus M_3[3] \oplus M_3[m-1], \end{aligned}$$

and the computed answer will be

$$\begin{aligned} &M_2[0] \oplus M_3[0] \oplus \\ &M_1[1] \oplus M_2[1] \oplus M_3[1] \oplus \\ &M_1[2] \oplus M_3[2] \oplus \\ &M_2[3] \oplus M_3[3] \oplus \\ &M_1[4] \oplus M_2[4] \oplus \\ &M_2[m-1] \oplus M_3[m-1]. \end{aligned}$$

If  $M_1 = M_2 = M_3$  then the above equation will reduce to answer =  $M[1]$ . However, if  $M_2[3] \neq M_3[3]$  for some reason (perhaps a write operation is in progress), then answer =  $M[1] \oplus M_2[3] \oplus M_3[3] \neq M[1]$ .

There are two possible ways that the above situation could occur. The first is if a read operation is performed concurrently with a write operation. The second is if a client performing a write operation sends different values to different servers or fails to inform some servers of the write operation. In order to prevent the first problem, all operations should be sent to the memory servers using a totally ordered multicast. For read operations, the  $t+1$  bit-vectors should be bundled together and sent as one message (since each bit-vector will be encrypted using a different secret key, each server will only be able

to read the bit-vector intended for it even though it will receive all of the bit-vectors).

If it is necessary to guard against a malicious client (or perhaps a malicious server), then the totally ordered multicast must be tolerant to such behavior. The multicast protocol in [16] ensures that every correct server will receive the same set of messages in the same order thus preventing a malicious process from corrupting memory in this fashion<sup>11</sup>.

## 8. Retrieving a message

The message service acts as intermediate storage for messages intended for mobile computers (as shown in Fig. 1). Messages are sent to the service either directly or through a series of MIX servers and are eventually retrieved by the intended recipient. In this section, we will show how to use the memory service of the previous section to implement a message service which will enable blinded read operations.

Messages are sent to the servers using a totally ordered multicast (as was described in section 7.2). At each server, arriving messages are placed in a list in the order in which they are delivered. This list is stored in a series of tables each of which holds  $m$  messages (i.e. the  $i$ th message delivered is stored in table  $(i - 1) \bmod m$  in cell  $(i - 1) \bmod m$ ). There is a tradeoff that must be considered when choosing a table size. First, the amount of effort needed to read a cell from a table increases as  $m$  increases (the client must create and encrypt bit-vectors of length  $m$  and the servers must decrypt the bit-vectors and exclusive-or together  $\varphi m$  messages). In addition, mobile computers must wait until a table has filled before reading the messages in that table. Therefore, as  $m$  increases, the time between when a message arrives at the message service and when it can be read from the service increases. On the other hand, as will be described later, as  $m$  increases, the amount of privacy increases for computers that read from the table.

Once a table has been filled, mobile computers may read the messages from that table. In order to enable message reading, a digest of the table's contents is created and sent to all of the mobile computers. The digest of a table is  $h(l_0), h(l_1), \dots, h(l_{m-1})$  where  $l_0, l_1, \dots, l_{m-1}$  are the labels attached to the messages in each position of the table and  $h$  is a hash function.

Since every mobile computer will need to see the digest for every table, table digests are broadcast to mobile computers. Once a table is filled and its digest computed, the digest is sent to all of the base stations (using a multicast protocol for the static network). Upon receipt, each base station broadcasts the digest over its wireless link. Some of the mobile computers will not

receive the broadcast (for example, those that are disconnected from the network). Therefore, the base stations will also maintain a local copy of the digest and resend it as necessary to ensure that every mobile computer receives the digest (see [1,8] for more information on multicasting in mobile networks).

### 8.1. Reading from a table

Each mobile computer will have a list of message labels in which it is interested ( $l'_0, l'_1, \dots, l'_k$ ). When it receives a digest, it will look for  $h(l'_0), h(l'_1), \dots, h(l'_k)$  in the list  $h(l_0), h(l_1), \dots, h(l_{m-1})$ . If the mobile computer finds some  $i$  and  $j$  for which  $h(l'_i) = h(l_j)$  then it will read the message from cell  $j$  of the table.

Mobile computers can read messages from the message service in one of two ways. If the label that it wishes to read is private and the computer trusts the message sender (or the message sender does not know the identity of the recipient), then it can send a request to one of the servers containing the pair  $(i, j)$  where  $i$  is the number of the table to be read and  $j$  is the number of the cell within that table which contains the message. If the label to be read is public or if the mobile computer does not trust the message sender, then it must use the blinded read operation from section 7. The mobile computer will create  $t + 1$  bit-vectors of length  $m$  and send each bit-vector, along with the number of the table to read, to a different message server. Since mobile computers can not read from tables until after they are filled (i.e. after the last write operation has completed), the request messages do not need to be bundled and the totally ordered multicast protocol is not needed.

### 8.2. Choosing a hash function

If the hash function,  $h$ , used in creating message digests is the identity function then there will never be a case where  $h(l'_i) = h(l_j)$  but  $l'_i \neq l_j$ . This means that only mobile computers which have messages intended for them in a table will read from that table. Since an attacker can determine the location from which the mobile computers read from the table, an attacker may gain useful information about computers' locations if  $m$  is small. If  $m$  can not be made large enough to sufficiently confuse an attacker, then a hash function must be chosen which will force some mobile computers to read messages from the table that were not intended for them.

Suppose, for example, that the total number of message labels in which every mobile computer is interested is 64,000. If we choose a hash function,  $h$ , which maps message labels to values between 0 and 31,999, then there will be, on average, two message labels which hash to each value. If  $m = 1024$ , then there will be approximately 2048 requests made to the message service. Of these, 1024 will be from the intended recipients of the messages in the table and 1024 will be from randomly

<sup>11</sup> Since the memory, as described, does not contain any access controls, an attacker may still cause problems by writing bad values.

chosen mobile computers. Thus, an attacker seeing a mobile computer read a message from the table will know that there is only a 50% chance that the computer is the intended recipient of one of the messages in the table.

### 8.3. Garbage collection

In an infinite run of the system, an infinite number of messages will be sent to the message service. It is, therefore, essential to have some mechanism for removing old messages from the system. Ideally, a message should be deleted after it has been read by its intended recipient. However, since computers may retrieve messages anonymously, the message service may not know when this has happened.

An approximate solution is to delete messages after some period of time  $\Delta$  has passed. In our system, a table is left intact until its newest message has been in the system for time  $\Delta$  at which point the entire table is deleted. If  $\Delta$  is chosen properly, then every computer will have sufficient time to retrieve all messages intended for it while the number of tables stored in the system at any one time is manageable.

In some cases, a computer will be disconnected from the network for a long period of time. This can happen if the computer moves outside of the range of all of the base stations or if the computer is turned off to conserve battery power. If the computer is disconnected for too long then it may miss some of the messages that were sent to it. In order to avoid this, we have developed a vacation service.

A computer which is concerned about losing messages while it is disconnected from the network registers with the vacation service by sending it a list of message labels in which it is interested. If the vacation service does not receive a message from a registered computer within some specified period of time  $\gamma < \Delta$ , then the vacation service will begin to check the message service for messages with any of the specified labels and will store a local copy of those messages. When the mobile computer next contacts the vacation service, the vacation service will send any messages that it stored for the mobile computer to the message service and will then stop looking for any new messages for that computer. The mobile computer can then read the messages from the message service as usual.

In order to prevent the vacation service from using the registration messages to locate the user, the mobile computer should use the techniques which were described in section 6 to hide the locations from which it sends the messages.

## 9. Ending a conversation

Until this point, we have treated a conversation as a sequence of messages with a beginning but with no end.

In practice, most conversations will only last for a short period of time. Many other conversations will be sporadic in nature, with periods of high message traffic followed by long periods with no traffic. Since a mobile computer, for each conversation, must store label and key information and check every table digest for a message, it is inefficient to have a large number of conversations when most of them are inactive.

One technique for solving this problem is for computers to explicitly end conversations by including an “end of conversation” marker in a message instead of a return “address” label. After sending this message, the sender can erase from its memory any information about the conversation and the recipient can do the same upon receipt of the message.

An alternative is to use return “address” labels with expiration times. If the recipient does not send a message using the label before the label expires, then the sender will consider the conversation to have ended. If the recipient wishes to send a message after the expiration time, it can begin a new conversation by sending an initiation message. In order to have labels with expiration times, it is necessary to have synchronized clocks. This can be accomplished through the use of a time service. The details of clock synchronization and its use are beyond the scope of this paper. An overview of the subject can be found in [22].

## 10. The implementation

We have implemented a prototype of the private message service. In this prototype, all of the components are the same as they would be in a real implementation with the exception that the mobile computers are replaced by static processes on the network which communicate directly with the servers instead of communicating indirectly through base stations. However, since the primary concern in designing a private message service is the throughput of the servers, our prototype should provide an accurate indication of the performance of a real system.

### 10.1. Horus

We have implemented the private message service on top of the Horus group communications system [23]. Horus has many features which aided in the implementation of our system. First, it supports group communication. As shown in Fig. 6, process groups are used within our system in several ways. The system consists of three types of processes (message servers, MIX servers, and users) which are organized into three process groups. The message service group, in general, is used for communication between the message servers and the users, the message server group is used to distribute messages among the message servers, and the MIX service group is used to send messages through the chain of MIXes.

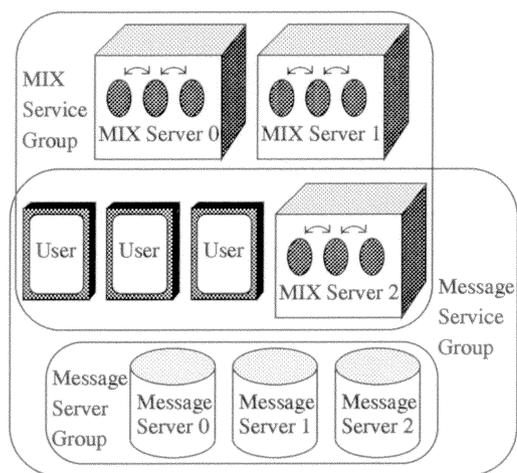


Fig. 6. Group structure.

Horus also has several mechanisms which aid in making groups fault-tolerant. Most importantly, Horus implements the virtual synchrony model of computation. Within this model of computation, it is relatively easy to reconfigure the system after the failure of one of the servers to maintain a consistent state among the surviving servers. At the same time, Horus is designed in a very modular fashion so that a process only pays for those properties that it actually uses.

Finally, Horus provides a machine independent threads package. For the user processes, we have implemented two distinct applications layers (see Fig. 7) one of which uses the X Window System. The use of multiple threads made programming this applications layer much easier since the X Windows code could run in a separate thread from the message client layer code.

### 10.2. The message servers

The message servers are responsible for both storing user messages and for handling requests from users wishing to retrieve messages. As a result, the message servers will, in general, be the bottleneck for system performance. With this in mind, we have carefully designed the system to minimize the costs of operations associated with the message servers.

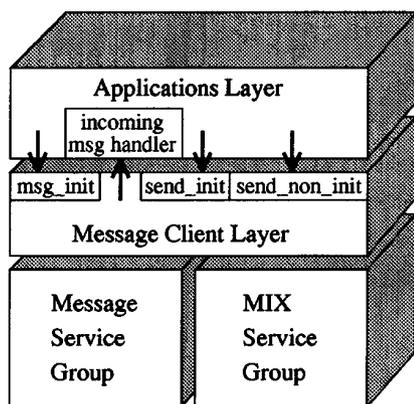


Fig. 7. The user process.

There are three basic operations that are associated with the message servers. The first is receiving user messages. In order for the message servers to maintain consistent states, users' messages must be delivered in the same order at all of the servers. In order to make this operation efficient, the process of sending a message to the message servers is divided into two steps. First, the user sends the message to the oldest message server (or the user sends the message through the MIX service and the final MIX in the chain sends the message to the oldest message server). Next, the oldest message server multicasts the message within the message server group. Since all of the messages are multicast by the same process, they can be sent using a protocol which only guarantees FIFO delivery. Thus the cost of a totally ordered multicast protocol is avoided.

When a table has been filled, the digest for that table must be sent to all of the users. In order to simplify the user code, we would like to guarantee that each table digest is delivered by each user exactly once and that the digests are delivered in order. To accomplish this, table digests are multicast by the oldest message server within the message service group using a multicast protocol which guarantees FIFO delivery. In addition to the users, the table digests are also delivered by the message servers which keep track of which table digests they have received so that they will know where to pick up if they ever become the oldest server. This allows us to guarantee that users will always receive exactly one copy of each digest.

Once the users have received a table digest, they will read any messages from the table which may be intended for them. Messages are read from the message service using RPC style requests. A user wishing to read a cell in a table first selects one of the message servers at random (or  $t + 1$  servers for a secure read operation). It sends the request message to this server and then waits until either the response arrives or the server crashes. If the server crashes, it will pick a new server and resend the request (for a secure read, only the requests associated with the crashed servers are resent).

### 10.3. The MIX servers

The MIX servers can be used by users when sending messages. The servers form a chain with the oldest server (server 0) as the first link and the newest server (server  $t$ ) the last link. A user wishing to send a message through the MIX service encrypts the message for each of the servers (as shown in section 6) and then sends the message to MIX server 0. Server 0 decrypts incoming messages with its private key and then places them in a queue. Using the messages in the queue, the server creates batches of messages. Messages are selected for batches based on the order in which they arrive with the restriction that each batch contains at most one message from each user (this is done to maintain FIFO delivery of mes-

sages as well as to prevent some types of attacks against the MIX service). Once enough messages have arrived to fill a batch, the messages in the batch are reordered and then sent to MIX server 1. Each subsequent MIX reads in the batch of messages, decrypts them, reorders them and then sends them to the next MIX in the chain. The final MIX (server  $t$ ) sends the messages to the oldest message server.

#### 10.4. The users

The code for user processes is divided into two layers, the message client layer and the applications layer (see Fig. 7). In this section, we will describe the interface between the two layers and briefly describe the message client layer.

A process begins by calling `msg_init` with the user's public label and private key and the address of a function to be called whenever an initiation message arrives. The message client layer joins the message service group and the mix service group and places the user's public label on the list of labels to search for in the table digests.

An initiation message is sent by calling the function `send_init` with the intended recipient's public label and public key, the message to be sent, and the address of a function to call when a reply message arrives. The message client layer creates a random return "address" label which it adds to the message and places on the list of labels to search for in the table digests. The message is then fragmented into uniform sized pieces and each fragment is encrypted and sent in order.

When a table digest arrives, the message client layer checks each element of the digest, in order, to see if it is on the list. If the hash value of a message stored in a cell matches the hash value of a label for which the message layer is waiting then a read request is sent. Once the value in the cell is read, the label on the message is checked and if it is on the list, the message is decrypted using the appropriate key. If the message is a fragment of a larger message, then it is added to the fragments that have already been received and the label of the next fragment is added to the list of labels for which the message client layer should search. Once the entire message has arrived, the appropriate function (from the application layer) is called with the message and a handle which can be used to reply to the message (the handle contains the return "address" label and the secret key of the conversation). The applications layer can reply to the message by calling `send_non_init` with the message handle, the reply message, and the address of the function to be called when the reply message arrives. (A message handle may only be used to send one reply message).

#### 10.5. Future and related work

There are several security and fault-tolerance issues that are not adequately treated in our current implemen-

tation of the system. First, we use a directory service to maintain the public keys of the servers and users. Since the directory service is not secure, the system can easily be attacked by altering the entries in this service. This needs to be replaced by a secured authentication service (such as described in [18]). This authentication service works in conjunction with a secure time service to provide public key certificates which are guaranteed to be fresh.

In addition, the MIX servers do not protect against replay attacks. To prevent such attacks, users would have to add timestamps to the messages that they send through the MIX servers and MIX servers would have to maintain a cache of recently received messages to compare with incoming messages.

Finally, our system can not handle many types of malicious attacks, especially attacks by malicious servers. While Horus is not currently capable of dealing with these types of failures, there is a toolkit (Rampart) under development at AT&T Bell Laboratories which provides the group semantics required by our protocols despite malicious attacks (see [16,17]).

## 11. Performance

In order to verify the feasibility of our protocols, we ran a series of tests to determine the costs associated with the different operations that the system must perform. Since latency is not a primary concern in a message system, we concentrated on measuring the throughput of the servers. Each of the tests involved a single user sending a series of 10 messages to itself in which each message was large enough to fill 128 packets (which was the size of a table in the message servers). While a commercial implementation of this system would likely use hardware to perform the cryptographic operations, our implementation made use of the RSAREF(TM) cryptographic toolkit from RSA Laboratories. Thus, as we will describe below, the time to perform cryptographic operations dominated the running time of our system.

There are two ways to send a message to the message servers, either directly or through the MIX servers. When the messages were sent directly, the time needed to send the messages to the servers was significantly less than the time needed to retrieve the messages and therefore the send operation did not significantly affect throughput. When using the MIX servers, however, each MIX had to decrypt the message before sending it on to the next server in the chain. In our system, an RSA decryption took 0.7 seconds. As a result, the throughput of the system was reduced to about 1 packet/s<sup>12</sup> whenever the messages were sent through the MIXes. When

<sup>12</sup> All of the performance numbers we state will refer to tests using 1 KByte packets.

the cryptographic operations were removed from the system, the MIXes ceased to affect the throughput of the system. Given that there is hardware which can perform RSA decryption in under 1 ms [20], we believe that use of the MIXes will not significantly reduce the throughput in a real system.

When the user reads a message from the message server, it can also perform this operation either securely or insecurely. When the read is performed insecurely, the user simply sends the table number and cell number of the message it wishes to read to one of the servers and the server sends the response. Since neither the request nor the response is encrypted, the only cryptographic operations performed are the end-to-end encryption and decryption performed by the user. In this case, if the messages are sent to the message servers directly (instead of through the MIXes), the system can handle 39 packets/s. When the incoming messages are sent through the MIXes, the throughput reduces to 1 packet/s (the rate at which the MIXes are able to provide messages to the message servers). However, when the cryptographic operations are removed, the throughput is again 39 packets/s. We, therefore, believe that in a real system (which uses hardware for the cryptographic operations), the MIXes will not reduce the system throughput.

When the user wishes to use the blinded read operation, the message servers need to decrypt the requests, exclusive-or together several messages in order to compute the response, and then encrypt the response. Since the decryption step involved performing RSA decryption, this part dominated the cost of performing the operation in our system. As a result of the cost of RSA decryption, the throughput was 1 packet/s. (Since the time to perform a blinded read was the same as the rate at which messages could pass through the MIXes, the use of the MIXes did not affect the overall throughput in this case). When the cryptographic operations were removed, the throughput increased to 27 packets/s. The difference between the throughput in this case and in the insecure read case was the cost of exclusive-oring the messages together (an average of 64 messages per response in our system).

Since most of the costs associated with the system are on a per packet basis, the throughput of the system (in terms of bytes/s) can be increased by increasing the packet size. For this reason, the packet size used in a system should be set based on the expected distribution of the lengths of messages sent.

## 12. Conclusions

We have presented a set of protocols which work together to preserve privacy for users of mobile computers. As was shown in section 11, these protocols are both practical and efficient. A major concern in designing such protocols is the limited computing power of the

mobile computers. In our approach, the computing costs of each of the protocols can be dynamically tuned by each of the mobile computers based on the amount of computing power available and the degree of any perceived threat to privacy. In addition, the protocols were designed to place most of the computational burden on the servers which can use specialized hardware in order to perform the necessary operations quickly.

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