Do Not Tell Me What I Cannot Do!
(The Constrained Device Shouted under the Cover of the Fog):
Implementing Symmetric Searchable Encryption on Constrained Devices

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Abstract: Symmetric Searchable Encryption (SSE) allows the outsourcing of encrypted data to possible untrusted third party services while simultaneously giving the opportunity to users to search over the encrypted data in a secure and privacy-preserving way. Currently, the majority of SSE schemes have been designed to fit a typical cloud service scenario where users (clients) encrypt their data locally and upload them securely to a remote location. While this scenario fits squarely the cloud paradigm, it cannot apply to the emerging field of Internet of Things (IoT). This is due to the fact that the performance of most of the existing SSE schemes has been tested using powerful machines and not the constrained devices used in IoT services. The focus of this paper is to prove that SSE schemes can, under certain circumstances, work on constrained devices and eventually be adopted by IoT services. To this end, we designed and implemented a forward private dynamic SSE scheme that can run smoothly on resource-constrained devices. To do so, we adopted a fog node scenario where edge (constrained) devices sense data, encrypt them locally and use the capabilities of fog nodes to store sensed data in a remote location (the cloud). Consequently, end users can search for specific keywords over the stored ciphertexts without revealing anything about their content. Our scheme achieves efficient computational operations and supports the multi-client model. The performance of the scheme is evaluated by conducting extensive experiments. Finally, the security of the scheme is proven through a theoretical analysis that considers the existence of a malicious adversary.

1 INTRODUCTION

With the rapid advancement and development of innovative and pervasive computing, traditional security mechanisms such as public key cryptography have become inadequate to properly protect users’ artefacts on their own due to the increasingly complex nature of these networks. Computing paradigms such as Internet of Things (IoT), Cloud, and Fog computing have become mainstays in corporate organizations as well as in the everyday lives of individuals. The cloud and fog computing technologies allow users to outsource resources to external service providers. Fog computing, in particular, has garnered a lot of academic and industrial interest beginning from 2014 when it was first coined as a term by Cisco (cis. 2019).

Fog computing can be described as a virtualized platform that seeks to provide various technological services such as computing, storage, control and networking services between end users and the Cloud (IEEE, 2018). This has gained lot of attention due to the increased adoption of IoT applications with the cloud computing ecosystem. This adoption has led to an exponential increase in the amount of data being generated and transmitted between the IoT devices and the cloud. One of the primary advantages of introducing Fog computing is to provide reduced latency, reliable operation and eliminate the need for devices to continually connect to the cloud.

The introduction of fog nodes between an IoT edge network and the cloud leads to increasingly advanced and complex network designs such as Vehicular ad-hoc networks (VANETs). A typical VANET consists of moving vehicles with sensors that constantly communicate with well placed fog nodes for.
instant or near real-time responses (Kalinin et al., 2017). The fog nodes after processing the data, forward specific components to the cloud for further analysis. Such advanced networks face various security and privacy threats related to trust, authentication, secure communication and end device privacy (Mukherjee et al., 2017), which are not easily mitigated with traditional security mechanisms.

To this end, researchers and industry stakeholders have touted the use of promising encryption techniques such as Symmetric Searchable Encryption (SSE) (Dowsley et al., 2017; Dowsley et al., 2016). SSE allows users to search directly over encrypted data stored in remote locations maintained by possible untrusted third parties (e.g. a cloud service) without revealing anything about the contents of the data (Etemad et al., 2018). Additionally, SSE allows users to encrypt data with a secret key which is not known to the cloud provider. Hence, providing protection against both external and internal (e.g. a malicious administrator) attacks. An ideal SSE scheme should not leak any information during any of the core processes of the (i.e. add, delete, update files and search for specific keywords). Information leakage is a very important problem in SSE due to its direct impact on both the efficiency and security.

Contribution. The core contribution of this paper can be summarized in one single sentence: "Running Symmetric Searchable Encryption on constrained devices is possible!". This is considered as an important step towards the widespread adoption of SSE schemes since majority of SSE have been designed to fit a typical cloud service scenario. The fog computing technology as well as the various security issues related to it. A brief description of the cryptographic primitives used throughout our work is presented in section 3. We formally define our system model in section 4 while in section 5, we present our scheme. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we discuss related works regarding current implementations of SSE schemes and the fog computing technology as well as the various security issues related to it. In section 6, we present our scheme. Finally in section 8 we conclude the paper.

2 RELATED WORK

Currently, there is an apparent lack of existing literature on implementing and extending purely symmetric searchable encryption schemes to the Fog computing environment. However, there are a number of substantial research works in relation to designing SSE schemes for cloud computing environments as well as securing data in a fog computing environment. For example, authors in (Etemad et al., 2018) present an efficient dynamic searchable encryption with forward-privacy in a cloud computing environment. This scheme offers efficient searching over outsourced encrypted data in an untrusted server. However, primary deficiencies with this scheme are its lack of support for multiple clients and the computational and storage overhead imposed on end entities (i.e. IoT devices in the context of this paper). Our work focuses on extending an SSE scheme to an environment with multiple data owners and end users who will use the search functionality of our scheme while reducing the computational overhead imposed on the resource constrained IoT devices.
Authors in (Ni et al., 2018) present a comprehensive survey of existing fog computing architectures, features, as well as the roles of fog nodes in providing real-time services, transient storage, data dissemination and decentralized computations. Authors discuss the various security and privacy challenges that arise when utilizing fog computing for IoT applications. For example, authors discuss several security challenges that affect specific fog node roles such as identity authentication, access control, intrusion detection, and resilience to sybil attacks when providing real-time services. Privacy-preserving data aggregation (Dimitriou and Michalas, 2014), secure data search, secure content distribution, and privacy-preserving packet forwarding when employing fog nodes for data dissemination. While for transient storage, they considered sensitive data identification and protection, data integrity protection, and secure data sharing. For our proposed scheme, we utilize fog computing nodes as data dissemination agents and designed our scheme to address the secure data search security challenge.

An example of a rather innovative security scheme for the Fog and IoT ecosystem is the use of Blockchains and Trusted execution environments (TEE) in (Fan et al., 2019). In this work, authors design a security scheme that guarantees data source trustworthiness in the fog domain by combining blockchains and TEE technologies. The scheme ensures that the information collected by the fog nodes from the IoT devices cannot be tampered with by any malicious adversary, while ensuring the safety of data interaction between interconnected fog devices. Although a very interesting approach, it does not provide an external user the ability to search over this secure data. Additionally, the proposed use of smart contracts essentially means that the IoT devices can not carry out the security scheme without incurring a substantial computational overhead cost.

To reduce the computational overhead on resource constrained devices, researchers in (Cao et al., 2019), proposed a lightweight fine-grained search over encrypted data in a similar fog computing environment by adopting the Ciphertext-Policy Attribute-based Keyword Search (CP-ABKS) (Zheng et al., 2014) and shifting majority of the computational burden to the Fog Nodes. Albeit a very powerful cryptographic algorithm that provides fine-grained access control and keyword search, CP-ABKS incurs very high computational and storage costs that our implementation avoids by utilizing SSE. Additionally, authors make the assumption that the CSP is an honest but curious entity. Hence, the CSP computes ciphertext retrieval operations based on received tokens. On the contrary, we propose to limit the functionalities of the CSP by restricting it to storing the ciphertexts of files while performing search queries in the Fog computing layer. As well as eliminating the need to trust the CSP, this reduces the communication latency involved in search queries and the return of search results.

3 BACKGROUND

Notation: Given a set $X$, we use $x \leftarrow X$ to show that $x$ is sampled from $X$ and $x \sim X$ if $x$ is sampled uniformly at random. $|X|$ denotes the cardinality of $X$. Given two strings $x$ and $y$, we use $x[y]$ to denote the concatenation of $x$ and $y$. A function $\text{negl}(\cdot)$ is called negligible if $\forall n > 0, \exists N_n$ such that $\forall x > N_n$: $|\text{negl}(x)| < 1/\text{poly}(x)$. Each IoT device is considered as a data owner. The set of all IoT devices is denoted by $D = \{d_1, \ldots, d_n\}$. Similarly, the set of all fog nodes is denoted by $F = \{f_1, \ldots, f_m\}$. In our constructions, the keywords are measurements sent by the IoT devices to a fog node. The universe of the measurements is denoted by $W = \{w_1, \ldots, w_{\ell}\}$. Each measurement $w_j$ has a unique id, denoted by $id(w_j)$ with corresponding ciphertext $c_{id(w_j)}$. Moreover, we denote by $R$ the result of a search query. We assume that each IoT device and each Fog Node holds a public/private key pair $(pk, sk)$ used for signing and verifying messages. The encrypted data base is denoted by $EDB$ and finally, we assume the existence of a hash function $h(\cdot) : \{0,1\}^\ast \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$ and that of a keyed hash function $H(\cdot, \cdot) : \{0,1\}^\ast \times \{0,1\}^\ast \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$.

Symmetric Searchable Encryption: We now proceed with the definition of a dynamic symmetric searchable encryption scheme.

Definition 1. A Dynamic Symmetric Searchable Encryption (DSSE) scheme consists of the following PPT algorithms:

- Setup(1$^\lambda$): A key-generation algorithm that takes as input the security parameter $\lambda$ and outputs the secret key $K = (K_{\text{SKE}}, K_h)$ where $K_{\text{SKE}}$ is a key for a IND-CPA secure symmetric key cryptosystem and $K_h$ is a key for the keyed hash function $H(\cdot, \cdot)$. This algorithm is executed by an IoT device.

- AddId: This algorithm is executed by an IoT device $d_i$ to add a new measurement $w_j$ to the encrypted data base (EDB). All the indexes are updated accordingly.
- **LocalSearch**: This algorithm is executed by a user in order to search for a measurement \( w_j \) of a specific type, on the local Fog Node. The indexes are updated and the Fog Node returns to the user the encrypted ids that captured the measurement \( w_j \).

- **GlobalSearch**: This algorithm is executed by a user in order to search for a measurement \( w_j \) of a specific type across multiple Fog nodes using the CSP. The indexes are updated and the CSP also returns to the user the encrypted ids that captured the measurement \( w_j \).

**Security Definitions**: The security of an SSE scheme depends on predefined leakage formalized by a leakage function \( L = (L_{\text{search}}, L_{\text{add}}) \), whose components correspond respectively to the Search and Add operations. Whenever the user triggers one of these operations, the adversary \( \mathcal{ADV} \) should not be able to learn anything that the output of the corresponding leakage function. The idea is the following: \( \mathcal{ADV} \) has full control of the client in the sense that she can trigger search and add operations at will. \( \mathcal{ADV} \) issues a polynomial number of queries and for each query she records the output. In the real experiment, everything runs honestly. In the ideal experiment however, a simulator \( \mathcal{S} \) simulates all the functionalities of the real scheme. The scheme is said to be \( L \)-adaptively secure if \( \mathcal{ADV} \) cannot distinguish between the real and ideal experiments.

**Definition 2** (Adaptive Security). Let \( \text{DSSE} = (\text{Setup}, \text{Search}, \text{Add}) \) be a dynamic symmetric searchable encryption scheme. Moreover, let \( L = (L_{\text{search}}, L_{\text{add}}) \) be the leakage function of the scheme. We consider the following experiments between the adversary \( \mathcal{ADV} \) and a simulator \( \mathcal{S} \):

- **Real Experiment.**
  1. \( \text{Record} = \{ \} \)
  2. **for** \( \kappa = 1 \) **to** \( q \) **do**
  3. **if** \( \text{op} = \text{Search} \)
  4. \( R_\kappa \leftarrow \text{Search}(\text{param}_\kappa, \text{EDB}) \)
  5. **else** (\( \text{op} = \text{Add} \))
  6. \( R_\kappa \leftarrow \text{Add}(\text{param}_\kappa, \text{EDB}) \)
  7. **end if**
  8. \( \text{Record} = \text{Record} \cup \{ R_\kappa \} \)
  9. **end for**
  10. \( b \leftarrow \mathcal{ADV}(\text{Record}) \)
  11. **Output** \( b \)

- **Ideal Experiment.**
  1. \( \text{Record} = \{ \} \)
  2. **for** \( \kappa = 1 \) **to** \( q \) **do**

\[ L_{\text{search}} = L'(D_{\text{node}}, sp) \]

Where \( L' \) is a stateless function.

A DSSE scheme is said to be forward private if for all insertions that take place after the successful execution of the Setup algorithm, the leakage is limited to the size of the file, and the number of unique keywords contained in it. In our case, since we do not deal with files, the addition operation should not leak any information at all. More formally:

**Definition 6** (Forward Privacy). An \( L \)-adaptively SSE scheme is forward private if the leakage function \( L_{\text{add}} \) can be written as:

\[ L_{\text{add}}(id(d_i)) = L'(c_{id(d_i)}) \]

Where \( L' \) is a stateless function.
4 SYSTEM MODEL

In this section, we provide a description of our system model by defining the main entities along with their respective capabilities. Our system model consists of the sensor nodes referred to as Data Owners (DO), a set of registered users \( U \), a set of fog nodes \( \mathcal{F} \), and a Cloud Service Provider \( \mathcal{CSP} \).

**Data Owners.** Let \( D = \{d_1, \ldots, d_n\} \) be the set of all sensor nodes in our environment deployed to register the occurrence of specific environmental events. The data owners in our system model are able to add and update encrypted data using our proposed scheme. For the purposes of our implementation, we utilize the Zolertia Re-Mote board devices that are based on the Texas Instruments CC2538 ARM Cortex-M3 system on chip (SoC). These boards feature a 2.4GHz IEEE 802.15.4 RF Interface, running up to 32MHz with 512KB of programmable flash and 32KB of RAM while possessing a built-in battery charger (500 mA) with energy harvesting capabilities as well as a CC1200 868/915MHz RF transceiver which allows for dual band operation. The functions performed by a data owner are:

- Register the occurrence of a sensed event (e.g. Temperature, Humidity, etc.). Data about a sensed data is referred to as *keyword* throughout the rest of this paper and is denoted by \( w_i \).
- Generate a hash of data about every sensed event \( h(w_i) \).
- Generate a unique identifier \( id_j \) for each sensed event based on the sensing device’s id, timestamp and the nature of the event (i.e. temperature, humidity, etc.).
- Encrypt the unique identifier with a symmetric key \( K \) to generate a keyword value, \( c_{id(w_i)} \), that corresponds directly to each keyword.

The sensor device then sends both \( h(w_i) \) and \( c_{id(w_i)} \) to the nearest fog node.

**Fog Nodes.** Let \( \mathcal{F} = \{f_1, \ldots, f_m\} \) be a set of all fog nodes in our environment. In this work, we consider a fog node that provides support for a TEE. The specifications of the TEE are considered to be beyond the scope of our implementation. Each fog node \( f_i \) defines a sub-network that consists of multiple sensor devices \( d_{f_i} \). During the first run of our protocol, the fog node generates three indexes:

- The NoSearch\( [w_i] \), which contains the hash of the keyword along with the number of times it has received that keyword.
- The NoApp\( [w_i] \), which contains the number of times a user has searched for the keyword.
- The Dict, which contains a mapping between each keyword and a unique identifier of the sensor node that sent it.

The fog node then stores a local copy of all three indexes and sends a copy of Dict to \( \mathcal{CSP} \) along with the identity of the fog node \( f_j \).

**Users.** We denote with \( U = \{u_1, \ldots, u_p\} \) the set of all users registered in the network to search, perform computations and receive updates on sensed events. These users submit a hash of a keyword \( h(w_j) \) to a nearest fog node for the computation of a search token. The user has the option to search locally on a single fog node \( f_j \) or to perform a global search involving multiple fog nodes (in this case, the CSP performs the search).

**Cloud Service Provider (CSP).** In this work, we consider a top level cloud computing service much like the one described in (Paladi et al., 2017). However, unlike the fog nodes, we do not require the CSP to have support for a TEE. The CSP creates a merged dictionary comprising of all Dict and the identity of the fog node \( f_j \) that sent it.

5 SEARCHING IN THE FOG

In this section, we present a detailed description of the Searching in the Fog scheme (a multi client DSSE scheme for IoT devices with forward privacy) along with the construction of the core algorithms the scheme utilizes. The proposed scheme takes advantage of the Fog computing paradigm to provide efficient computational operations and decrease communication latency. Our protocol is made up of two main algorithms; (i) Add Data and (ii) Search Data. The proposed scheme is influenced by the forward private scheme proposed in (Bakas and Michalas, 2019b).

**Add Data.** The Add Data algorithm is undertaken by both a sensor device, \( d_{f_j} \) and the nearest fog node \( f_j \). The \( d_{f_j} \) is deployed to register the occurrence of an environmental event such as temperature, humidity, motion, etc. Data about a sensed event is referred to as a keyword \( w_i \). Once an event has been registered, \( w_i \) is hashed to produce \( h(w_i) \). \( d_{f_j} \) then generates a unique identifier that will be used to identify the particular keyword. This unique identifier \( ID \) is made up on the sensor device’s id, timestamp and the type of event being registered (i.e. temperature, humidity, etc). The ID is then encrypted with a secret shared key \( K_{SKE} \) to produce \( c_{id(w_i)} \) (line 4 of algorithm 1). The sensor device sends \( h(w_i) \) and \( c_{id(w_i)} \) to the nearest fog node.
Upon receipt by the fog node, $f_j$ retrieves the corresponding NoApp[$h(w_i)$] and NoSearch[$h(w_i)$] from the local database based on $h(w_i)$. Using NoApp[$h(w_i)$], the fog node computes the Dict address addr$_w_i$ for the $c_{id}(w_i)$ received from $d_{f_j}$ (line 6 - 9 of algorithm 1). Once this stage is done, $f_j$ sends a copy of the dictionary and its identity [FogID, Dict] with the CSP.

Algorithm 1: Add Data.

**Sensor**
1. Register data about a sensed event $w_i$
2. Compute hash of the data $h(w_i)$
3. Generate a unique identifier for the sensed data ID. (ID = SensorID||t||T), where SensorID is the unique id of the sensor, $t$ is the timestamp, $T$ is the type of the measurement.
4. Compute $c_{id}(w_i) = ENC_{K_{SKE}}$(ID)
5. Send [$h(w_i), c_{id}(w_i)$] to the nearest Fog Node

**Fog Node**
6. NoApp[$h(w_i)$] ++
7. $K_w = H(K_h, h(w_i)||NoSearch[h(w_i)])$
8. $addr_w_i = h(K_w, NoApp[h(w_i)])||0$
9. $Map = Map \cup \{addr_w_i, c_{id}(w_i)\}$
10. Send [Map, FogID] to CSP

**CSP**
11. Add Map into central Dict and store along with the FogID

**Search Data:** For a successful run of the Search Data algorithm, we assume that the user has access to the secret shared key $K_{SKE}$ (used by the sensor device in line 4 of algorithm 1 to encrypt the ID). Users can search for a sensed input value, $w_i$ with the aid of the nearest fog node $f_j$. To perform the search data algorithm, a user $u_i$ computes the hash value, $h(w_i)$, of the sort after value $w_i$ and sends to the nearest fog node $f_j$. Our scheme provides support for two variations of the search algorithm: (i) Local search, which involves just one fog node, and (ii) Global search, which involves multiple fog nodes and the CSP. We describe both instances of the Search Data algorithm below;

**Local Search.** This search algorithm involves a single neighbouring fog node. Upon reception, $f_j$ retrieves the corresponding NoApp[$h(w_i)$] and NoSearch[$h(w_i)$] from the local database. After $f_j$ receives these values, it computes $K_w = h(K_w, h(w_i)||NoSearch[w_i])$ in order to calculate the addresses addr$_w_i$ of all instances of $h(w_i)$ in the dictionary Dict. The fog node then increases NoSearch[$h(w_i)$], which is then used to compute a new key $K_{w_i}'$. The new key is used to calculate new addresses $addr_{w_i}'$, which is packed in a list $L_s$. Based on the initial addresses generated, $f_j$ retrieves the corresponding ciphertext values, $c_{id}(w_i)$, in the locally stored dictionary Dict. The ciphertext values are returned to the user for decryption and the addresses replaced with the new addresses in $L_s$.

**Global Search.** This search algorithm constitutes searching over multiple fog nodes and the CSP. We designed this algorithm to be used in the event that a user wishes to search for a specific keyword in an entire region spanning multiple fog nodes. Upon the
reception of \(h(w_i)\) from a user, a neighbouring fog node, \(f_j\), generates a search token that is forwarded to the CSP. The search token is generated by retrieving the NoApp\([h(w_i)]\) and NoSearch\([h(w_i)]\) values of \(h(w_i)\) from the local database. The fog node proceeds to compute \(K_w = h(K_h,h(w_i))||\text{NoSearch}[w_i]\) in order to calculate the addresses \(addr_{w_i}\) of all possible instances of \(h(w_i)\) in the merged Dict at the CSP. A list \(L_s\) is created containing all the addresses. The fog node then increases NoSearch\([h(w_i)]\), which is then used to compute a new key \(K_w'\). The new key is used to calculate new addresses \(addr_{w_i}'\), which is also packed into another list \(L'_s\). Both lists, \((L_s, L'_s)\), along with the user’s identity is sent to the CSP.

Upon reception of the lists, the CSP uses the addresses in \(L_s\) to search the central dict for the corresponding ciphertext values \(c_{id(w_i)}\). The CSP returns the ciphertext values to the user and replaces corresponding addresses with a new address in \(L'_s\).

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Algorithm 2: Search Data - Local Search.

User
1: Compute and send \(h(w_i)\) to the Fog Node \(\Rightarrow\) Fog node is TEE enabled

Fog Node
2: Retrieve the values NoApp\([h(w_i)]\) and NoSearch\([h(w_i)]\) from the local database
3: \(K_w = H(K_h,h(w_i))||\text{NoSearch}[w_i]\)
4: NoSearch\([w_i]\) + +
5: \(K_w' = H(K_h,h(w_i))||\text{NoSearch}[h(w_i)]\)
6: \(L_s = \{\}\)
7: for \(i = 1\) to \(i = \text{NoApp}[h(w_i)]\) do
8: \(\quad\) addr\(_{w_i} = h(K_w',i)[0]\)
9: \(\quad\) \(L_s = L_s \cup \{\text{addr}_{w_i}\}\)
10: \(R = \{\}\)
11: for \(i = 1\) to \(i = \text{NoApp}[h(w_i)]\) do
12: \(\quad\) \(c_{id(w_i)} = \text{Map}[h(K_w,i)[0]]\)
13: \(\quad\) \(R = R \cup \{c_{id(w_i)}\}\)
14: Delete the row on Map and update it according to the address in \(L_s\)
15: Send \(R\) to the user
```

5.1 A Protocol-based Approach

In this section, we present a protocol-based approach of our construction based on the algorithms we described. We assume that each entity has a public and private key pair and that all the public keys are pre-shared and that each sensor node of the same sub-network shares the same symmetric key \(K_{SKE}\) generated by the Fog Node.\(^1\)

\(^1\)Key sharing is out of the scope of this paper. However, interesting approaches that fit squarely the cloud paradigm

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Algorithm 3: Search Data - Global Search.

User
1: Compute and send \(h(w_i)\) to the Fog Node \(\Rightarrow\) Fog node is TEE enabled

Fog Node
2: Retrieve the values NoApp\([h(w_i)]\) and NoSearch\([h(w_i)]\) from the local database
3: \(K_w = H(K_h,h(w_i))||\text{NoSearch}[w_i]\)
4: NoSearch\([w_i]\) + +
5: \(K_w' = H(K_h,h(w_i))||\text{NoSearch}[h(w_i)]\)
6: \(L_s = \{\}\)
7: for \(i = 1\) to \(i = \text{NoApp}[h(w_i)]\) do
8: \(\quad\) \(\text{addr}_{w_i} = h(K_w',i)[0]\)
9: \(\quad\) \(L_s = L_s \cup \{\text{addr}_{w_i}\}\)
10: \(L_s' = \{\}\)
11: for \(i = 1\) to \(i = \text{Sizeof}(L_s)\) do
12: \(\quad\) \(c_{id(w_i)} = \text{Dict}(L_s[i])\)
13: \(\quad\) \(R = R \cup \{c_{id(w_i)}\}\)
14: Delete the row on Dict and update it according to the address in \(L_s'\)
15: Send \(R\) to the user
```

To add a new measurement \(w_i\) to the local Fog Node \(f_j\), a sensor node \(d_{kj}\) first calculates \(h(w_i)\) and then generates the unique ID of the measurement. As a next step, it computes the value \(c_{id(w_i)}\) and finally, sends \(m_1 = (r_1,h(w_i),c_{id(w_i)},\sigma_{f_j}(h(r_1,h(w_i),c_{id(w_i)})))\), where \(r_1\) is a random number. Upon reception, \(f_j\) verifies both the freshness of the message and the signature and proceeds by calculating the address of the measurement \(addr_{w_i}\). Finally, \(f_j\) stores \(addr_{w_i}\) and \(c_{id(w_i)}\) to its local dictionary and also sends them to CSP along with its unique identifier FogID via \(m_2 = (r_2,\text{Map},pk_{CSP}(\text{FogID}),\sigma_f(h(r_2)||\text{Map}||\text{FogID})))\). The CSP verifies the freshness and the signature and stores \(w_{\text{addr}}\) and \(c_{id(w_i)}\) to the global dictionary Dict along with the identity of the fog node.

When a user \(u_i\) wishes to search on the encrypted database, she first hashes the keyword \(w_j\) she is looking for and then sends the result \(h(w_i)\) to the Fog Node \(f_k\) via \(m_3 = (r_3,h(w_i),\text{Enc}_{pk_{f_k}}(\text{flag}),\sigma_{u_i}(h(r_3,h(w_i)||\text{flag})))\), and leverage the power of secure hardware can be found in (Michalas, 2019; Bakas and Michalas, 2019a; Michalas et al., 2019b; Michalas et al., 2019a).
6 SECURITY ANALYSIS

We prove the security of our construction according to definition 2 in Section 3. Our goal is to construct a simulator $S$ that will simulate the addition and search tokens in such a way that no PPT adversary $\mathcal{ADV}'$ will be able to distinguish whether the tokens were generated by the real algorithms or by $S$.

**Theorem 1.** Let $\text{SKE}$ be an IND-CPA secure symmetric key cryptosystem. Moreover, let $h$ be a secure cryptographic hash function. Then, our construction is secure according to definition 2.

In a pre-processing phase $S$ generates a key for the IND-CPA secure cryptosystem. Moreover, $S$ generates a dictionary $\text{KeyStore}$ to store the last key assigned to each keyword and a dictionary $\text{Oracle}$ to reply to the random oracle queries. Both of these dictionaries can be resized over time. To prove our theorem, we make use of a hybrid argument.

**Proof.**

**Hybrid 0:** Everything runs as specified by the protocol.

**Hybrid 1:** Like Hybrid 0 but now $S$ gets as input $\mathcal{L}_{\text{add}}$ and proceeds as follows:

**Add Token Simulation**

Generate a random string $s$

$\text{val} \leftarrow \text{Enc}(\text{SKE}, 0^k)$

$v = \text{val} \oplus \text{id}(d_i)$

Output $(s, \text{val})$

Based on $s$ simulate a random address $a$

Store $(c_{\text{id}(w)}, \{a, v\})$ into Dict

The random string $s$ has exactly the same length as the output of the hash function $h$. Moreover, due to the IND-CPA security of the encryption scheme, $\mathcal{ADV}'$ cannot distinguish between the real encryption of the node id and that of zeros. Thus we have:

$$\Pr[\text{Hybrid 0} = 1] - \Pr[\text{Hybrid 1} = 1] = \text{negl}(\lambda) \quad (1)$$

**Hybrid 2:** Like Hybrid 1 but now $S$ gets as input $\mathcal{L}_{\text{search}}$. $S$ proceeds as follows:

**Search Token Simulation**

$\ell$: Number of $c_{\text{id}(w)}$ to be returned

$R = \emptyset$

if $\text{KeyStore}[w] = \text{Null}$

$\text{KeyStore}[w] \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^k$

for $i = 1$ to $i = \ell$

if $\text{Oracle}[\text{KeyStore}][0][i]$ is Null

Pick a $(c_{\text{id}(w)}, \{a_i, v_i\})$ pair

else

$a_i = \text{Oracle}[\text{KeyStore}][0][i]$

$v_i = \text{Oracle}[\text{KeyStore}][1][i] \oplus \text{val}$

end if

Remove $a_i$ from the dictionary but keep $v_i$

$R = R \cup \{c_{\text{id}(w)}\}$

end for

$\text{UpdaltedVal} = \emptyset$

$\text{KeyStore}[w] = \text{KeyStore}[w]''$

for $i = 1$ to $i = \ell$

Generate new $a_i$ and match it with $v_i$ that was kept from before

Add $(c_{\text{id}(d_i)}, \{a_i, v_i\})$ to the dictionary

$\text{UpdaltedVal} = \text{UpdaltedVal} \cup \{c_{\text{id}(w)}, a_i\}$

$\text{Oracle}[\text{KeyStore}'][0][i] = a_i$

$\text{Oracle}[\text{KeyStore}'][1][i] = v_i \oplus c_{\text{id}(w)}$

end for

$\tau_s(w) = (\text{KeyStore}', \ell, \text{UpdaltedVal})$

$R$ is returned to $\mathcal{ADV}'$

The $\text{KeyStore}[w]$ dictionary is used to keep track of the last key $K_w$ used for each keyword $w$. The $\text{Oracle}[\text{KeyStore}'][0][i]$ dictionary is used to reply to $\mathcal{ADV}$’s queries. For example, $\text{Oracle}[\text{KeyStore}'][0][i]$ represents the address of a Dict entry assigned to the $i$-th id contained in the result $R$. Similarly, $\text{Oracle}[\text{KeyStore}'][1][i]$ represents the masked value needed to recover $\text{id}(d_i)$. It is clear, that the simulated search token has exactly the same size and format as the real one and thus:

$$\Pr[\text{Hybrid 2} = 1] - \Pr[\text{Hybrid 1} = 1] = \text{negl}(\lambda) \quad (2)$$

By combining equations (1) and (2) we get:

$$\Pr[\text{Real}_{\mathcal{ADV}'}(\lambda, q) = 1] - \Pr[\text{Ideal}_{\mathcal{ADV}', S, L} (\lambda, q) = 1] = \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

And thus our proof is complete. \qed
6.1 Side Channel Attacks

Many recent works (Xu et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2017; Costan and Devadas, 2016) have shown that SGX is vulnerable to software attacks. However, according to (Fisch et al., 2017) leakage can be avoided if the programs running in the enclaves do not have memory access patterns or control flow branches that depend on the values of sensitive data. In our case, no heavy computations occur in the Fog Node enclave and the only operation is is the application of a hash function. To this end, we could use leakage resilient primitives as in (Taha and Schaumont, 2014). Hence, by assuming a constant time implementation for the software running in an SGX enclave, our construction is secure against timing attacks.

7 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we present the results of experiments conducted to demonstrate the feasibility of our proposed work. Our experiments focused primarily on evaluating the performance of the algorithms described in section 5 on both the sensor device and the fog node: For this work, we utilized a zolertia device with 512KB programmable flash and 32KB RAM as our sensor device while using an Intel i7 Ubuntu desktop with 16GB RAM as the fog node. To implement the necessary algorithms, we developed a Contiki-NG application on the sensor device written in C, using modified cryptographic functions from the TinyCrypt library (Wood, 2019). On the fog node, we developed a node.js application to interact with a local database. With regards to this database, our dictionary is implemented as tables in a MySQL database hosted on the fog node. Although existing works in the field of SSE rely on data structures such as arrays, maps, sets, lists, trees, etc, we opted for a relational database to represent a persistent storage.

The experiments measure the performance of the core cryptographic components of our work on the resource constrained sensor device, as well as the overall performance of the add and search algorithms using datasets of arbitrary sizes.

Datasets: To comprehensively measure the performance of both the search and add algorithms, it was important that we utilized datasets of different sizes. Due to the uniqueness of our work, the datasets had to be created as part of our experiments (i.e. using the add algorithm of the protocol). We left the sensor device to collect the temperature in a room every 5s for a varying number of hours and forwarded that information to the fog node. We did this for 1hr, 4hrs, 12hrs and 24hrs with a temperature range of 10-to-35 degrees (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration (hrs)</th>
<th>Number of Entries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DS1</td>
<td>737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS2</td>
<td>2,844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS3</td>
<td>8,617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS4</td>
<td>17,287</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Add Algorithm: This part of our work consists of two phases and is performed on both the sensor device and the fog node:

PH1: The sensor device collects data on a sensed event, generates a unique id, hashes the data about the sensed event, encrypts the unique id, and finally sends both the hashed data and the ciphertext to the fog node;

PH2: The fog node retrieves the NoApp and NoSearch from the database based on the hashed message received from the sensor device, builds the encrypted index and generates the dictionary.

We measure the total performance of the add algorithm by evaluating the performance of the cryptographic components on the sensor device and the time taken by the fog node to complete the algorithm.

Performance of Cryptographic Components on Sensor Device. As mentioned during the description of our dataset, the sensor device is left to collect measurements for a varying period of time. From table 1, it is observed that, for a timespan of 24 hours, the sensor device and the fog node run through various portions of the add algorithm 17,287 times. The system time for the CC2538 platform for which the sensor device is based on is represented as CPU ticks. As a result of this limitation, the performance metrics on the sensor devices are recorded in ticks and externally converted to seconds. Specific figures are derived by dividing the number of ticks by 128 (CPU ticks per second (Kurniawan, 2018)). In 17,287 iterations of the first part of the add function, the sensor device takes an average of 4.5 ticks to generate the hash of the keyword (temperature) and the ciphertext of the unique filename. This corresponds to 0.035s.

Execution Time on the Fog Node. In this part of our experiments, we measured the time taken by the fog node to build the index table and generate the encrypted dictionary. For 17,287 runs of our protocol, the fog node takes an average of 14.516ms for each
keyword hash received from the sensor device. This time includes the time taken to query and update the database. This is a very encouraging result as it illustrates that the fog node will continue to be very efficient even if we increase the number of sensor devices that communicate with it. We acknowledge that the results for this section would better resemble real life scenarios if we utilized multiple sensor devices. Unfortunately, our current implementation supports just one sensor device per fog node.

From the measurements described above, it can be seen that the add algorithm is quite efficient and fast. Hence, we can safely assume that there will be no backlog on both the sensor device and the fog node even if the sensor device collects data every 1s and sends to the fog node. The total execution time of the add algorithm is 0.0495s.

**Search Algorithm:** In this part of our experiments, we measured the total time taken to complete the search algorithm over the encrypted dictionary generated by the add algorithm. As described in Section 5, the search algorithm is performed on the fog node in a *local search* and is performed on the CSP in a *global search*. For the purposes of our experiments, we assumed that the CSP has the same specifications as the fog node. Hence, the performance of both the local and global search will only vary based on the size of the dataset. The search time is calculated by measuring the following:

1. Time taken by the fog node to generate a search token from a hashed keyword sent by a user;
2. Time needed to find the respective matches in the database;
3. Generate a new keyword address to replace the address retrieved in the dictionary.

On average, the time taken to generate the search token is 0.066ms. The search algorithm involves generating a new keyword address for every keyword value found. As such, the actual search time also includes the time taken to generate new keyword addresses. Searching for a keyword that appears 760 times in a database with 17,287 entries takes approximately 11.36s (i.e. time taken to find all the keyword values and generate new keyword addresses for all 760 instances of the keyword). The search algorithm for a keyword that appears 22 times in a database with 737 entries takes approximately 134ms. These two times represent the fastest and slowest search operation times for our experiments. The search operation times correlate directly to the size of the dataset and the number of times the keyword appears in that dataset.

### Table 2: Performance Summary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Execution Time (ms)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Add (Sensor Side)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Add (Fog Node Side)</td>
<td>14.516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Add Algorithm</td>
<td>49.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search Token Generation</td>
<td>0.066</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 8 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a forward private dynamic SSE scheme that can run on constrained devices. Our system model uses fog computing to reduce the computational burden on the sensor devices and increase the overall efficiency of the scheme. Our proposed scheme allows sensor devices to securely encrypt data on sensed events, store them in a remote location and then search over the encrypted data without revealing anything about the content of the stored data. Our scheme achieves efficient computational operations and supports the multi-client model. The performance of the scheme is evaluated by conducting extensive experiments while its security is proven through a theoretical analysis that considers the existence of a malicious adversary. From our experiments, it is observed that the add function is highly efficient even though it involves both the sensor device and a fog node. However, the search function’s efficiency varied based on the size of the dataset and the number of times the keyword appeared in that dataset. This is because the fog node is required to compute two addresses for each instance of a value (the first address is used to find the sort after value and the second address is used as a replacement for the first address once the value has been returned). We believe this work can serve as groundwork for researchers who wish to build IoT services based on the promising concept of SSE.

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2[https://gitlab.com/nisec/fogsse-experiments.git](https://gitlab.com/nisec/fogsse-experiments.git)

3[https://zenodo.org/record/3686873](https://zenodo.org/record/3686873)
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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(2019). Edge computing vs. fog computing: Definitions and enterprise uses.