SureRepute:

User Reputation in Location Certification Systems

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Abstract—Location is an important attribute for many mobile applications but it needs to be verified. For example, a user of a tourism application that gives out rewards can falsify his location to pretend that he has visited many attractions and thus receive benefits without deserving them. To counter these attacks, the system asks users to prove their location through witnesses, i.e., other devices that happen to be at the location at the same time and that can be partially trusted. The SureThing framework follows this approach, allowing constrained devices to obtain proof of their location through interaction with existing infrastructure on the location or with other devices. However, for this approach to be effective, it is important to keep track of the witness behavior over time. Many crowdsourcing applications, like Waze, build up reputations for their users and rely on user co-location and redundant inputs for data verification.

In this work, we present SureRepute, a reputation system capable of withstanding reputation attacks while still maintaining user privacy and that can be integrated into the SureThing framework or other systems.

The results show that the system is able to protect itself from reputation attacks, and the configuration is flexible, allowing different trade-offs between security and usability that are always required in real-world applications. With the integration of the system into a specific domain application, we showed how a reputation system can be easily integrated into existing applications without producing a significant overhead in the response time.

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, information systems are depending more on location, which led to the emergence of Location-Based Services (LBS), i.e., services that are based on the geographical location of a mobile user as determined by the mobile device [1]. The most common use case of a LBS involves a user sharing their location with a server, and in turn the server performs a computation that takes the location as input and returns data/services to the user. It may be important to be sure that the user was in fact in that physical location at that specific time, otherwise, a user could just lie about their location and get undeserved benefits. For example, in a scenario where users receive rewards for going to visit certain locations, without any kind of location proofs, a user could just say that he was at any location to get rewards without really needing to be there. The verification of the location can be achieved with a location certification system.

Location certification systems are able to verify if a user location claim is valid or not through the use of additional location evidence, usually collected by other devices, called *witnesses*. For example, using the previous scenario where users receive rewards for going to visit certain locations, a

user instead of just submitting its location it could also interact with other users in that location in order to complement the location with location proofs given by other users (witnesses), if the location proofs were provided by trustworthy user, it would allow to prove that the user is in fact in that location. For this approach to be effective, many and diverse witnesses are necessary. One of the ways to have witnesses without a big investment is to use crowdsourcing, i.e., allow other user devices to act as witnesses.

Crowdsourcing is the use of an Internet-scale community of people to outsource a task [2], which can be employed by leveraging the help of a community of users that use a system to do part of the tasks needed. Even when we have a community and many witnesses, the verification of location still needs to be performed, because there is always the possibility of users performing tasks incorrectly either intentionally or by mistake. To identify and prevent this problem, it is important to have some way of knowing if a user is trustworthy, i.e., if it behaves correctly. This can be achieved by keeping track of the history of the user activities, which can be done by maintaining a reputation for each user, that reflects their behavior.

The SureThing project addresses the need for creating and validating location certificates so that devices can create proof of their location. The project provides a framework with data formats and utility libraries that can be leveraged by multiple applications, such as shopping mall advertising [3], smart tourism [4], smart vehicle inspections [5] and presence verification in medical appointments [6]. It also has additional components that are intended to provide Location Certificate Transparency (LCT) and third-party verifiability [7]. A reputation system [8] can further help these systems by allowing the additional use of a reputation value when deciding if a location claim is valid or not.

Reputation systems gather feedback that reflects user's previous behavior, aggregate that feedback, map it into a reputation score, i.e., a score that reflects the user behavior, and allows remote inquiries about the reputation score. According to Resnick et al. [8] reputation mechanisms can encourage trustworthy behavior and discourage participation by those who are unskilled and dishonest. Despite their potential, reputation systems have their own intrinsic problems that need to be addressed. They have problems related to the privacy of the user, as a reputation system only works if the reputation is linked to the user identity to provide accountability, and it has to defend against reputation attacks, where users can have inconsistent behavior by creating a false impression of

themselves to be able to misbehave later.

The main goal of this work was to create a reputation system called SureRepute that can be integrated into the SureThing domain applications to provide reputation to its users, which is capable of defending against reputation attacks while still ensuring privacy to its users. This reputation can help when deciding if a location claim is valid or not by using the witnesses' score as the level of trust we can give to witness endorsements or even to the specific user that is submitting the claim.

The remainder of the document is structured as follows. The most relevant related work is discussed in Section II. Section III presents the design of SureRepute, in Section IV discusses its implementation and in Section V details its use case. Section VI shows the most relevant system evaluation results. Finally, in Section VII we conclude the paper.

II. BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

In this Section, we look into reputation systems including their key characteristics and how to build them, reputation attacks and defenses, privacy-preservation techniques and location certification systems with an emphasis on SureThing.

A. Reputation Systems

According to Mousa et al. [9], *reputation* is the collective assessment of how much an individual or an entity can be trusted. It is possible to compute reputation scores using feedback that members provide of each other, resulting in a reputation system that allows members to be held accountable for their actions. Hoffman et al. [10] further explains that reputation can be a source to build trust in the participants, by allowing parties to decide how much they trust a participant in a given context and encouraging trustworthy behavior while discouraging dishonest participation.

Mousa et al. [9] also identifies four main phases for building a reputation system: *Information Collection*, where the information needed to create a reputation is collected; *Information Mapping to Trust Score*, where the information that is continuously gathered needs to be transformed into a reputation score. A participant can start with a default score, and based on the feedback that receives it updates the score; *Dissemination*, where the participant score is spread across other entities; *Decision Making*, where a decision based on the trust score assigned to each participant needs to be made. The specific decision depends on the use case but can be used for example to decide if a contribution is accepted or not.

Abdel [11] and Mousa et al. [9] present some methods used in reputation models, that allow creating scores that reflect the uses' behavior. The most relevant model is the Bayesian model [9] [11] [12].

Jøsang and Ismail [12] presented a system called *beta* reputation system, that uses a Bayesian model which combines feedback by using *beta* distributions to allow for the derivation of reputation ratings. A beta distribution is a family of continuous probability density functions defined on the interval [0,

1], and indexed by two parameters α and β . The probability expectation value of the beta distribution is given by:

$$E(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\alpha}{(\alpha + \beta)} \tag{1}$$

In the beta reputation model $\alpha=r+1$ and $\beta=s+1$, where r is the collective amount of positive rating and s is the collective amount of negative rating, allowing to represent the reputation score of a user. The reputation score can then be calculated based on Equation 1. and is expressed as:

$$ReputationScore(i) = (E(r_i, s_i) = \frac{r_i + 1}{r_i + s_i + 2}$$
 (2)

Where the reputation is in the range of [0,1] and the value 0.5 represents a neutral rating.

Old feedback may not always be as relevant to the reputation score, because the agent may change its behavior over time. It is important to have a model, where old feedback is given less weight than more recent one. This can be achieved by introducing a *forgetting weight*, λ , to r and s:

$$r = r_{i-1} * \lambda + r_i \quad \text{and} \quad s = s_{i-1} * \lambda + s_i \tag{3}$$

B. Reputation Attacks and Defense Techniques

Entities can bias the credibility of a reputation system in diverse ways. It can be done deliberately or not and isolated or in collusion with others. It depends on the specific application and social setting of the reputation system. Koutrouli and Tsalgatidou [13], divide *reputation attacks* into three main categories: Unfair Recommendations, Inconsistent Behavior and Identity Management attacks.

Unfair recommendations are recommendations that do not share honest feedback, which can be done by individual users or in collusion, where a group(s) of malicious users tries to destabilize the system;

Inconsistent behavior is done by users to create a false impression of themselves and is divided into two types: Traitor, where the user behaves properly until a strong positive reputation is gathered and then deceives others. Discriminators, where the user behaves properly with most entities and misbehave towards a subset of them;

Identity Management attacks exploit the type of identity management used and the anonymity level provided by the system. There are four types of attacks: Whitewashing, where a user discards its identity and enters the system with a new one to avoid bad reputation. Sybil Attack, where a user create multiple identities to provide large amount of false feedback. Impersonation, where a user portrays itself as another; Man-In-The-Middle-Attack, where a user tamper with the messages of others.

Koutrouli and Tsalgatidou [13] also present defenses techniques that can be deployed to reduce or prevent these attacks. The most relevant are:

 Incorporate time in reputation estimation: making recent behavior matter more than old behavior. Can reduce the effect of inconsistent behavior done by a Traitor;

- Penalize oscillatory behavior: making negative ratings have more weight than positive ones in the score. Can reduce the effect of inconsistent behavior done by a Traitor;
- Controlled Anonymity: conceal the identities between users (but not from the administrator). Can reduce the effect of unfair recommendations and discriminators;
- Cryptographic mechanisms and unique digital identities:
 Use digital signatures which is a mathematical technique used to validate the authenticity and integrity of messages, and use cryptographic mechanisms to ensure privacy and freshness of the messages. Can reduce the affect of Unfair recommendations, Impersonation and Man-in-the-middle-attack;
- Difficult to change and create identities: By implementing
 entry fees, requiring proof-of-work, not allowing the reputation of a user to fall behind the one of a newcomer, and
 give a low reputation value to newcomers. Discourages
 unfair recommendations, Sybil attack and Whitewashing
 attack.

C. Privacy-Preservation Techniques

The privacy of a user has to do with its ability of being anonymous and not let other users record its transactions and recommendations [13]. However, a reputation system only works if the reputation is linked in some way to the identity of the user. The more information is linked to the user the less anonymity and privacy there is, but also there is an higher level of accountability, increasing the credibility of the reputation estimation.

The use of pseudonyms is a common mechanism used to protect the anonymity and privacy of the participants [14]. Instead of transmitting a real identifier of the user, all interaction with the application is performed under an alias. Pseudonyms are a good trade off between trust and privacy, which allow correlating a pseudonym with different transactions, while still maintaining the user's real identity hidden [15].

Calado and Pardal [16] present a reward system based on points where you can create tasks for other users to do in exchange for points. A user starts with one thousand points, spends one hundred points every time it creates a task and gains fifty points for answering a task. In order to assign points to the users it uses pseudonyms as a privacy mechanism which allows for the replacement of real names to identifiers with non-related values.

Ma et al. [17] propose a decentralized privacy-preserving reputation management system for mobile crowd-sensing, in which edge nodes are deployed regionally and are responsible for collecting data as well as maintaining a consortium blockchain. *Homomorphic encryption*, which is a cryptographic technique that allows for performing computations on encrypted data without decryption, is used to update and maintain its reputation values.

Differential privacy is a strategy based on quantifying and limiting an attacker's greatest possible information gain to lessen the risk of privacy breach. It consists on evaluating and

sharing data while maintaining individual privacy protection in accordance with existing policies or legal criteria for disclosure limitation or de-identification [18]. This approach limits the attacker's greatest possible information gain by ensuring that anyone looking at a collection of private information will draw the same conclusion about any private information of an individual.

D. Location Certification Systems

Location certification systems provide ways to attest and verify that a user is where s/he is saying s/he is. These systems are mainly categorized into two groups: centralized, where a trusted wireless infrastructure is employed to generate location proofs to mobile users; and decentralized, where the users act as witnesses and generate location proofs for each other. They usually have three types of entities: Prover, who needs to prove its location and makes a location claim; Witness, that may endorse location claims; Verifier, who verifies evidence and issues a location certificate.

Nosoushi et al. [19] presents a distributed location proof scheme called PASPORT (Privacy-Aware and Secure Proof Of pRoximiTy), where mobile users can act as provers or witnesses, allowing for the generation of location proofs for each other. PASPORT integrates a form of reputation that is used for witness selection, where the prover calculates entropy-based trust score for the witnesses based on its location proof generation history. The score is high when a witness provided a few location proofs to that prover, and its low when it has issued many location proofs to that same prover. Only users that have a score above a specific threshold can be selected as witnesses.

The SureThing project developed a framework for location certification that can be used when developing different applications and with internet of things devices [20]. SureThing started with the work of Ferreira and and Pardal [3] that developed a location certification system based on witnesses, for a shopping mall advertising. This system provided three techniques for location certification: geographic location, that verifies if the witness and the prover are close to each other and in an acceptable area; wi-fi fingerprinting, which verifies if the prover and witness share a minimum number of common access points; bluetooth beacons, that verifies if the beacon values provided by the prover and witness are the same and the beacon exists. It also presented two mechanisms against collusion: witness decay, where proofs of the same witness gradually lose their value and witness redundancy, where proofs have to be gathered from multiple witnesses.

SureThing [3] motivated the development of a framework that provides data formats and utility libraries as well as the development of application domains that apply location certification:

STOP [5] - Vehicle Inspection: a road transportation vehicle inspection support system with tamper-proof records to prevent location spoofing attacks. STOP main components are: Central Ledger, which is a central server that receives transportation and inspection records; Transport

- *mobile applications*, which runs in the vehicles transporting the reported goods.
- SurePresence [6] Wearable and Kiosk Devices: an application that allows a user to prove his location when interacting with a kiosk through the use of location proofs. It has tree components: The *client* which represents the prover that makes location claims; The *kiosk*, which represents a witness of the system that endorses the prover claims; The *server*, that acts as the verifier and is responsible for storing verified location certificates.
- CROSS [4] Tourist Itinerary Verification: a system that conducts location verification using Android smartphones. The main components of CROSS are CROSS-Client application, CROSS-Server, Wi-Fi access point and Kiosk. The system flow starts when the tourist downloads the app. During its use, the application logs Wi-Fi scans during visits to locations. At the end of the trip, the logging stops, and the application sends the collected data to the server for verification. If the Wi-Fi evidence is accepted, then rewards will be given. CROSS provides 3 strategies that can be employed during a trip for proving that the user is actually attending the locations on the itinerary: Capturing the access points available in specific location on the trip; Look for a specific access point that is present in specific locations of the trip; Interact with a kiosk by scanning a pair of QR codes. A new strategy was also recently added by Grade et al. [21] in a new version of CROSS, that allows for certification based on witnesses, where a prover requests witnesses nearby to endorse its location in specific stops in the itinerary.

III. SUREREPUTE: DESIGN

Let us consider now all aspects regarding the design of SureRepute. This includes the attack model, the assumptions and requirements identified, the general architecture of the system, as well as the privacy protections and the score calculation technique.

A. Attack Model

We created an attack model that describes what attacks are a problem in our solution and how they will be dealt with based on what was presented in Section II-B.

SureRepute assumes that the recommendations, i.e., the user behavior reports, are always submitted by a trusted entity, that belongs to the infrastructure of the system. For example, in CROSS [4], the CROSS-Server is a trusted entity that can send recommendations to SureRepute based respectively on the rejection and acceptance of the collected data of the trip and suspicious behavior.

The recommenders are always trusted, so unfair recommendations are not considered a threat as the recommendations are never considered malicious. The attack model will focus on inconsistent behavior and identity management-related attacks.

The reputation attacks on SureRepute and the strategies that are going to be employed by the system to prevent or reduce their impact are:

- Traitor: Penalize oscillatory behavior by having a malicious action affect much more the score than a good one. Incorporate time when updating a user score, making recent behavior matter more then old behavior;
- Discriminator: Controlled anonymity through the use of pseudonyms, i.e., when a user uses different domains it is given the same pseudonym, which leads to a global reputation that is shared among different domains, making bad behavior in a specific domain affect the reputation score in general;
- Sybil Attack and Whitewashing: Reduce the motivation for creating or changing identities by giving the smallest score possible to newcomers and have a slow build-up of reputation:
- Impersonation and Man-in-the-middle-attack: All messages will ensure Confidentiality, Integrity, Authenticity and Freshness by using cryptographic mechanisms and public-private keys that ensure unique digital identities.

B. Assumptions

- SureRepute-Server always updates the score of pseudonyms based on the behavior reports received;
- Entities that make recommendations of user behavior always submit accurate reports;
- Accounts with the same email in different application domains are always the same person;
- All entities can always communicate with other entities and no entity ever permanently fails;
- All messages that pass the Confidentiality, Integrity, Authenticity and Freshness tests are considered secure;
- Only trusted entities can interact with the Certificate Authority (CA).

C. Requirements

- R1 Provides scores that reflect the users behavior;
- **R2** Capable of being resilient to inconsistent behavior and identity management attacks;
- R3 The same user in different domains maintains a shared reputation that reflects the user general behavior;
- **R4** Use pseudonyms to ensure privacy to the users.

D. General Architecture

The solution was implemented using a client-server model that can be incorporated into each of the SureThing application domains as represented in Figure 1, namely, CROSS, SurePresence, and STOP. The client is called SureRepute-Client, and it will serve as a way for an application domain to communicate with its own server, which is called SureRepute-Server. There is one instance of the SureRepute-Server inside each application domain. Servers will communicate with each other to maintain a shared reputation of users that are present in different application domains. The clients also interact with an identity provider that is responsible for making the identity-pseudonym translations and with the CA whenever it needs a new valid certificate.

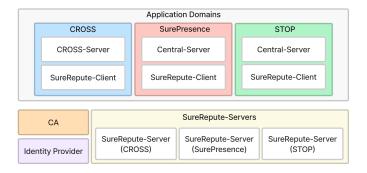


Fig. 1. SureRepute integration with SureThing Framework.

E. Privacy Protection

To ensure privacy, all communication between SureRepute entities must use TLS with client authentication enabled (except with CA), which demands that both entities are trusted.

The privacy of the users about their identity and their behavior is ensured by separating which information each entity has. The identity provider is used as a highly trusted entity that stores the relationship between real identities and pseudonyms and only responds to requests from trusted application domains. It returns the pseudonym encrypted with the appropriate SureRepute-Server public key to ensure that a client cannot associate the pseudonyms with the user's real identity. The SureRepute-Server also has no access to the real identity of the user as it only uses the pseudonyms not the real identity of the users. Furthermore, it also does not store the history of all reported behaviors individually, instead it keeps two variables that represent the *cumulative* value of good and bad behavior.

F. Score Calculation Technique

Our reputation score calculation will follow mainly the binomial Bayesian model, with some modifications. We will use Equation 2 to calculate the reputation score, and use a modified version of Equation 3 to calculate r and s, which are respectively the collective amount of positive and negative rating, to introduce different levels of behavior reports and different forgetting weights for the positive and negative behavior (λ_r and λ_s). SureRepute-Server can receive four types of behavior reports, and each will make a different change to r and s. The four types are:

- Well Behaved: where the user behaved as intended. In this case r and s will be updated with: $s = s_{i-1} * \lambda_s$ and $r = r_{i-1} * \lambda_r + 1$.
- Accidentally Malicious: where the user behaved maliciously, but could be due to factors outside of the user control. In this case s and r will be updated with: $s = s_{i-1} * \lambda_s + 0.5$ and $r = r_{i-1} * \lambda_r$
- Intentionally Malicious: where the user purposely behaved maliciously. In this case s and r will be updated with: $s = s_{i-1} * \lambda_s + 1$ and $r = r_{i-1} * \lambda_r$

• Critically Malicious: where the user purposely behaved maliciously in a critical situation. In this case s and r will be updated with: $s = s_{i-1} * \lambda_s + 2$ and $r = r_{i-1} * \lambda_r$.

The value of the forgetting weighs for r and s will be different, making good reports be forgotten much more quicker than bad reports, which can make bad behavior affect more the score while also making recent behavior matter more than old behavior. For that reason they provide a crucial defense against the *traitor* attack.

The initial values given to s and r, will not only give the initial score given to the user, but they will also provide the initial setback before the user interactions with the system start to reflect its behavior. The higher the initial s, the more a newcomer needs to interact with the system before starting to be trusted, and thus it better defends against Sybil and Whitewashing attacks. However, it also discourages newcomers, reducing usability.

IV. SUREREPUTE: IMPLEMENTATION

All entities of SureRepute were developed in Java, which runs in most operating systems and hardware platforms. We also used Apache Maven as the tool to build, test and execute the code from a central piece of information. For communication between entities we used REST software architectural style for web services, which defines a set of constraints restricting the protocol used in Client-Server architectures with regards to the possible requests and responses. For the interface description language and canonical data format we decided to use *protocol buffers*, a data representation language and platform neutral, extensible mechanism for serializing structured data, proposed originally by Google, but now opensource. To assure data persistence and avoid data corruption, we decided to use PostgreSQL as the database language for the Identity Provider and SureRepute-Server.

We also used OpenAPI, which is a language-agnostic interface description language for REST APIs that allows users to discover and understand the capabilities of the services through the generated documentation.

Let us now look into each SureRepute entity in more detail.

A. SureRepute-Client

The *SureRepute-Client* works like a library that allows application domains to make remote calls to SureRepute, allowing to abstract away of specific details about communication with the different entities of SureRepute when integrating with new domains.

SureRepute-Client makes available to application domains two mains actions:

- Get Score: Which gets the score from SureRepute of one or more users (a value in the range [0,1]).
- Report Behavior: Which allows application domains to easily submit behavior reports for a given user. The behavior reports can be: Well Behaved Report; Accidentally Malicious Report; Intentionally Malicious Report; Critically Malicious Report.

To do these actions, the first thing SureRepute-Client does is to request to the Identity Provider the associated pseudonym encrypted using the public key of the SureRepute-Server. The SureRepute-Client also stores in a cache the recent translations of user identity:encrypted pseudonym, and so, if the encrypted pseudonym is already in the cache the interaction with the Identity Provider does not happen. After having the encrypted pseudonym, it will then send the action to the associated SureRepute-Server of that domain. The server will return back the score of the user.

B. SureRepute-Server

There is one *SureRepute-Server* for each application domain. Each server is responsible for maintaining a reputation score for the pseudonyms that are interacting in their domain. This is done based on reports received from SureRepute-Clients that are used by each application domain. Furthermore, if the same user is interacting with multiple application domains, we maintain a shared reputation, that accounts the behavior of the user in all domains.

In order to maintain a shared reputation for a pseudonym and avoiding inconsistencies, we ensure that only one server is maintaining updates on the reputation of a user, which is called the *leader* of that pseudonym, other servers that also receive requests for that pseudonym are considered as its *followers*.

When a new pseudonym is received by a SureRepute-Server, it will need to first handle if the pseudonym is already known by any other servers. To do that, the server broadcasts the pseudonym to all other servers. There are two cases that can happen:

- Case 1: No leader exists yet, and so this server becomes the leader for this pseudonym and stores the pseudonym along with the initial Score Details.
- Case 2: A leader already exists, and so this server becomes a follower for this pseudonym and stores the pseudonym along with the Score Details sent by the leader.

When a behavior report is received and the pseudonym is already known, there are two interactions that can happen based on whether the server is a follower or a leader for that pseudonym:

- Case 1: If the server is a leader, then it will update
 the Score Details for that pseudonym and send back to
 all followers the updated score. Each follower will then
 update the Score Details for that pseudonym.
- Case 2: If the server is a follower then it will forward the behavior report to the leader of that pseudonym, the leader will then update the Score Details and send back to all followers the updated score. Each follower will then update the Score Details for that pseudonym.

When a client requests the score of a pseudonym that is already known to either the leader or the follower of that pseudonym, the server just needs to return the current stored value for that pseudonym.

C. Identity Provider

The *identity provider* is a highly trusted entity that is responsible for maintaining the translations between the user identity and the respective pseudonym. It initially interacts with all SureRepute-Servers in order to get their public keys.

When a SureRepute-Client requests an encrypted pseudonym for a new user, the identity provider generates a new pseudonym for them and stores this relation in the database, if the pseudonym is already known then it just gets it from the database, in both cases the pseudonym will then be encrypted using the public key of the SureRepute-Server associated with that application domain and returned back to the SureRepute-Client.

D. CA

The CA (Certificate Authority) is responsible for validating the identity of all other entities of SureRepute and provide them a certificate that is necessary to establish TLS connections with all other entities. For that, an entity must provide a certificate signing request as well as the type of entity it is, which is then validated. If valid, it creates a certificate that explicitly requires that the identities use specific dns names of our solution for communication.

V. USE CASE - CROSS

In order to attest how SureRepute can be easily added to different application domains of the SureThing project, as well as to be able to evaluate the solution in terms of overhead and if it helps make better decisions, we decided to use CROSS [4]. We decided to use CROSS because of the new strategy created by Grade et al. [21] that uses witnesses, and thus, a reputation score of the users could be really helpful, when calculating if a proof should be accepted or not.

A. CROSS-Server v2.0

The CROSS API Server component was reimplemented from Go to Java with the same technology used by SureRepute.

Related with changes to the actual behavior of CROSS:

- Allow visits to be submitted individually if there is an available Internet connection instead of in the end. This allows users to get more timely feedback about whether the visit was accepted or not;
- Removed the need for completing a trip in a specific order. Now a user can go to a specific point of interest in the route, as he may be closer to that position. This gives users more flexibility to complete a trip;
- Authentication is now done with JSON Web Token (JWT) sent in the header of every request after login. This is an efficient and widely used authorization method.

A new location proof strategy was added by Grade et al. [21] to further help prove if the traveler is actually attending the location on the itinerary, by using other travellers at the same location as witnesses. Now, when a traveler submits a visit, the confidence is calculated based on:

- displacementConfidenceMultiplier: Calculates a confidence level of the time it took to go from the previous visit to this visit based on the distance between them.
- wiFiAPsConfidence: Percentage of networks found by the client for this visit, compared to the total number of access point registered in the server for that location.
- peerEndorsementsConfidence: A visit can now provide endorsements to its location (witnesses), which are then validated. The weight of every valid endorsement is calculated as:

$$endorsementWeight(p, w_i) = \frac{Rw_i}{Npw_i + 1}$$
 (4)

where p is the prover, w_i is the specific witness, Rw_i is the reputation of the witness, which is in range [0,1], which can be provided by SureRepute, and Npw_i is the number of visits in different trips that where completed in the past by the prover, which the witness w has already testified to. The *confidence* is then calculated using:

$$min\left(\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} endorsementWeight(p, w_i)}{endorsementWeightTarget}, 1\right)$$
 (5)

where the endorsementWeightTarget is the weights sum value of all witnesses weight that it is intended to be achieved so that the strategy confidence is 100%, which is further defined in Grade et al. [21] work.

Based on these values, the confidence assigned to each visit is calculated as:

$$min(displacementConfidenceMultiplier \times (wiFiAPsConfidence+ (6) peerEndorsementsConfidence), 1)$$

making the confidence of a visit to be the sum of the confidence gathered by the strategies the user used (capture of Wi-Fi access points and/or witness endorsements), multiplied by the confidence multiplier. The minimum is used because a traveller can use more than one strategy, and each strategy can reach 100% of confidence.

The visit confidence is then compared with the confidence threshold which is a predefined percentage that need to be met by a specific visit. If $confidence \geq confidenceThreshold$, then the visit is accepted otherwise it is rejected. If all visits of a route are accepted then the trip is considered completed and a reward can be given by the CROSS application.

B. SureRepute Integration

To attest how well SureRepute can be integrated with application domains of SureThing, we decided to integrate it with the new version of CROSS.

To use SureRepute, CROSS-Server now has to submit reports that allows to create scores that reflect users behavior and that can be used by CROSS-Server when verifying if a visit is accepted or not. The scores of both the witnesses and the traveller are requested to SureRepute synchronously using the SureRepute-Client, when a visit is submitted, as we are dependent on their values, on the other hand report submission is done asynchronously.

Let us now analyse how the scores are used and when reports are submitted:

- 1) Score of Witnesses: The scores of the witnesses can be really helpful for calculating the endorsement weight that each witness provides, as detailed in Equation 4. This endorsement weight is then used to calculate the *peerEndorsementsConfidence*, which is done using the Equation 5. Using the reputation of SureRepute can be really helpful as the weight that each endorsement has will be based on the past behavior of the witness, which is represented by the reputation value.
- 2) Score of Traveller: After calculating the visit confidence, we need to compare it to the confidence threshold. The confidence threshold is the confidence level that needs to be achieved by the traveller on that location, which as a default value that is assigned when the location is created. But the score can increase the level of confidence that needs to be achieved based on the traveller score, making users that have a reputation ≤ 0.5 , to need to achieve a higher confidence level, as they have have not proven themselves as good users yet. If $proverReputation \geq 0.5$, then the prover has a well-behaved track record and the confidence threshold is not adjusted; otherwise, we use a linear function to calculate the confidence threshold:

$$\frac{1-confidenceThreshold}{0.5}*proverReputation (7)$$

3) Report Submission: As explained in section III-F, there are four types of reports we can submit, and here we adapted the conditions in which each report is submitted to this specific application: Critically Malicious: submitted for the traveler when the trip is not coherent; Intentionally Malicious: submitted for the traveller whenever we are certain that the traveller acted malicious; Accidentally Malicious: submitted for the traveller when the confidence does not reach the confidence threshold; Well Behaved: submitted whenever the confidence threshold is reached. The reports are sent for the traveller and all for all witnesses that made good endorsements.

VI. EVALUATION

We want to show that the reputation system is capable of creating scores that reflects user' behavior while also maintaining resistance against Traitor attacks as well as Sybil/Whitewashing attacks. Although the score must reflect on the behavior of the reports submitted, there are still some parameters that need to be further studied to understand what their impact is on the score given. These parameters are: the *initial score* details, i.e., the initial values for s and r, which represent the cumulative amount of bad and good behavior respectively, and that we are representing as: Details(s, r); The *forgetting weights*, i.e., λ_s , λ_r , which are represented as Forgetting (λ_s, λ_r) .

A. Score Details

The initial score details can be used to choose what score to give to a newcomer when no reports were submitted yet, and it can also give the initial setback before starting to trust the behavior submitted for the user. To demonstrate this, we provide some tests where we submitted 5 reports to the same user, and we also change the number of intentionally malicious behavior reports and good behavior reports submitted. For these tests we used different initial score details: Details(1, 0), Details(5, 0), Details(10, 0), Details(100, 0), and Details(10, 5).

The results are presented in Figure 2. You can see, with Details(1, 0) or Details(5, 0), when the user reports 5 reports of only good behavior it already gathers a positive rating, however looking at the Details(10, 0) or Details(100, 0), we can see that it still has a score below 0.5. This is because of the initial number of malicious behavior reports we give to a newcomers which serves as the initial setback before starting to trust the user real interaction with the system. After surpassing the initial setback, it is possible to verify that the user score reflects the behavior of the user, i.e., if more than 50% of reports submitted are of malicious behavior, then the score of the user is below 0.5.

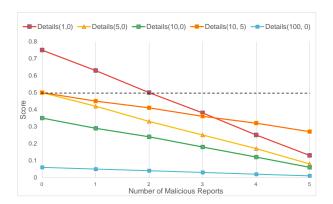


Fig. 2. 5 reports submitted using different initial score details Details $(s,\,r)$ and changing the number of intentionally malicious reports submitted.

Looking into Details(10,0) and Details(10,5), the major difference is that we can modify the default score given to a newcomer. For example for Details(10,0) we have score = (0+1)/(10+0+2) = 0.09 and with Details(10,5) we have score = 0.35, which is important when we want to give an initial setback for the user but we still want them to have a default value far from 0.

This initial setback and the default score given to newcomers is really important to defend against Sybil/Whitewashing attacks, as it allows to remove the motivation for a user to get new identities by giving a low initial score to the new identity and it provides a slow build of reputation. The specific score details to use depends on the system and how much we want to prevent these attacks, in a scenario where the user needs to be highly trusted, we need to use a high value for s in the initial score details, which can be chosen based on the average amount of report submissions that are made for

the user whenever it uses the system, but of course this is a trade-off between security and usability as by increasing this defense, a newcomer is more penalized by not being trusted for a long time, which can demotivate all new users. On the other hand if we want to prioritize usability we can use a lower value of s, which will make the system more susceptible to these attacks but make it easier for newcomer to be trusted.

B. Forgetting Weights

The forgetting weights allows to make recent behavior matter more than old behavior and can also be used to make malicious behavior to be forgotten slower than good behavior.

As mentioned before, the initial score details given to a user depend on the system that is being used, so to attest how the score reflects the user behavior, lets set a specific scenario: "Considering a system for tourism trips, where for each trip a user does, an average 3 reports are made and there is a limit of 3 trips per day. The intention is that a new user has a slow build of reputation and the system is capable of defending against reputation attacks, but the initial score cannot be too low, as it would make it impossible for trips to be accepted to newcomers."

As on average at most 9 reports are submitted a day, using score details as Details(10, 0) or Details(10, 5) seems like a reasonable initial setback, as it needs at least a day of interaction before starting to trust the reports that are being submitted. As the system needs a default value not too low choosing Details(10,5) for the next tests based on this scenario seems the most appropriate, as it will provide an initial score of 0.35 instead of 0.09.

After setting the initial scores details as Details(10,5), we need to choose the forgetting weights for s and r. By introducing forgetting weights the order of report submission matter, for this reason, we defined tests where a lot of reports were already submitted, i.e., 100 reports are submitted, and did a similar test as before, but now besides changing the number of malicious reports that are submitted we also change the order that they are submitted, which can be at the start or at the end. We did these tests using different forgetting weights: Forgetting(1,1), Forgetting(0.98, 0.95), Forgetting(0.98, 0.92), Forgetting(0.98, 0.90), Forgetting(0.95, 0.92). The Forgetting(1,1) serves as the control test, because when the forgotten weights are 1 it means that no report is ever forgotten, and so submitting malicious behavior at beginning or at the end is the same.

The results are present in Figure 3 and by looking at the graph we can see that whenever λ_s is bellow 0.98, the malicious behavior starts to be forgotten too fast, as it produces a score with a value higher than 0.5 even if 80% of the behavior is malicious. On the other hand using λ_r bellow 0.92 is also a bad idea as introduces a drastic difference of when malicious reports are submitted at the end vs at the start, looking at the graph, using Forgetting(0.98, 0.90) as the forgetting weights, the submission of 10 malicious reports already makes the score of the user to be 0.28, in comparison with 0,74 when submitted at the start, decreasing

these value would increase the difference between them. Using Forgetting(0.98, 0.95) still maintains the score above 0.5 with 10 (1 day) malicious reports submitted at the end, which is not desirable as we want malicious behavior to drastically impact the score. The forgetting weights that don't forget malicious behavior too quickly but still ensure the desirable penalization on the score is Forgetting(0.98, 0.92), and so these are the values that we would choose for this scenario.



Fig. 3. 100 Reports submitted with Details(10,5), using different forgetting weights Forgetting(λ_s , λ_r) and changing the number of intentionally malicious reports submitted and its order, which can be at the start or at the end.

C. Shared Reputation

To verify that the system maintains a shared reputation whenever a user is present in multiple application domains, we created a scenario where a client submits 80 reports sequentially for the same user, 40 of intentionally malicious behavior and 40 of good behavior, first all to a single server and then dividing the report submission between two servers and then for four servers. We also did another scenario were we submit 40 reports using threads of always good behavior, with the same number of servers. The results of both scenarios showed that all servers contain the same score at the end, which proves that servers are able to create a shared reputation.

D. Privacy

All communication is done using TLS with client authentication enabled, which prevents man-in-the-middle attack and impersonation attacks. Assuming that it is not possible to access the database of the identity provider, the pseudonyms ensure that only trusted entities can correlate the score of the users with the real identity of the user, and even without this assumption it is not possible to get back the history of all reported behaviors individually, as we only store the cumulative amount of good and bad behavior.

E. CROSS Visit Submission

To evaluate the overhead introduced by the calls to SureRepute from an application domain or if it helps making better decisions, we did several tests using CROSS integrated with SureRepute. For these tests we defined two environments:

 Local environment: CROSS-client, CROSS-Server, SureRepute-Server and Identity-Provider are running in the same computer. Deployed environment: CROSS-client is running on a local computer with the same specification as before and CROSS-Server, SureRepute-Server and Identity-Provider are deployed in the cloud in the same cluster with logical isolation.

Normally, CROSS-Client is the application that captures endorsements and/or Wi-Fi access points and submit visits to CROSS-Server during a trip. However, in these case it is a testing client that makes the requests needed for the tests, in an easy and replayable way.

To attest the overhead introduced when multiple travellers are submitting visits, we setup a scenario where we increase the number of simultaneous submissions to verify the overhead introduced, where each submission is using 15 witnesses. The results are present in figure 4. We can see that when submitting multiple visits at the same time in any of the environments with 15 witnesses, SureRepute introduces a higher overhead than with a single visit, which is normal and can be explained by the fact that multiple threads of CROSS-Server are making requests to SureRepute. But, at most, the overhead introduced by SureRepute is of 250ms in any of the environments. This value is low when compared with the overall times that are being done by CROSS without SureRepute. The high delay introduced when we change from the local environment to the cloud environment is unrelated with SureRepute, as the delay is much higher than the overhead introduced by SureRepute. If the delay is considered too high for a given user when submitting a trip, we can upgrade the cloud environment by changing the nodes type to process the requests more rapidly or make visit submission on the client app of the users to submit the visits asynchronously.

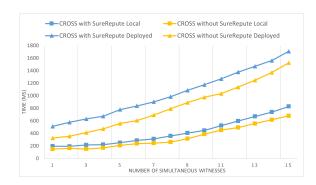


Fig. 4. CROSS Visit validation time with and without SureRepute in a local and deployed environment, varying the number of simultaneous visit submissions

To attest the benefits that SureRepute introduces to CROSS, we developed some tests, where we verify when a visit is accepted or not based only on the witness strategy, as it is where scores are used.

Consider a scenario where a visit has a default confidence threshold of 75%, and travelers submit visits with at most 15 witnesses. In these tests we change the traveler score to change the confidence threshold. When the travelers score is 0, it needs 100% $(1-\frac{1-0.75}{0.5}*0=1)$ confidence, with 0.35, it needs 82.5% confidence and finally 0.5, where it needs 75%

TABLE I
CROSS ACCEPTANCE RATE OF VISITS BASED ON: PROVER SCORE,
NUMBER OF WITNESSES AND WITNESS SCORE.

Number of Witnesses			l													
Prover	Witness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	ı
Score	Score															L
0.00	0.00															
	0.25															L
	0.35															I
	0.50															Ī
	0.75															I
	1.00															Ī
0.35	0.00															ı
	0.25															Ī
	0.35															İ
	0.50															I
	0.75															İ
	1.00															ľ
0.50	0.00															ı
	0.25															Ī
	0.35															Ī
	0.50															I
	0.75															Ì
	1.00															I
											Co	olor (Capti	on		
									Accepted Reje						ρ	

confidence. We also vary the Witness score from 0, 0.25, 0.35, 0.5, 0.75, 1. The number of witnesses goes from [1, 15]. We consider that using score of 0.5 for both the prover and witness is what simulates a scenario where SureRepute is not used. The results are shown in Table I, and as you can see, maintaining users behavior, makes the need for visits to be submitted by travellers with more or less endorsements in order to be accepted. The number of endorsements needed depend on the score of witnesses and the traveller, when we have travellers that properly behave it removes the need for the users to have a lot of witnesses. On the other hand having a traveller and witnesses that misbehave makes the need for more witnesses. If SureRepute was not used, then all witnesses and prover would have a score of 0.5 and the user would always need at least 4 endorsements, this would benefit malicious users as they could take advantage of the system more easily.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this document, we studied how to build a reputation system as well as how the reputation score of its participants can be calculated. We looked into what are the attacks and defenses as well as what are the most used privacy-preservation techniques on reputation systems. We also gathered information about location certification systems that already employ reputation and presented the SureThing application domains, where we intend to insert a reputation system.

Then, we proposed SureRepute, a reputation system that can be integrated into SureThing, which allows entities inside each application domain to submit reports of the users behavior and also to get their reputation. SureRepute provides privacy protection to its users, by using pseudonyms to segregate what information each entity has access to. The score calculation technique used is based on the binomial Bayesian model, where we made possible that different types of behavior can be submitted. We also added the use of forgetting weights and the change of the initial values of good and bad behavior, in order to ensure protections against reputation attacks.

We evaluated that the system is capable of meeting its requirements and integrated SureRepute into a real use case: CROSS. The experiments showed that the integration does not introduce a significant overhead on the application domain, and helps to make better decisions.

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