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Location Based Authentication

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LOCATION BASED AUTHENTICATION

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
University of New Orleans
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Master of Science
in
The Department of Computer Science

by

Seema Rani Sharma

B.E. University of Pune, India, 2002

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This thesis is dedicated to
my loving parents
Mr. H.L. Sharma and Mrs. Geeta Sharma
and
my beloved brothers
Sunil and Vinay.

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ABSTRACT

With the growth of wireless technologies in sectors like the military, aviation, etc, there is a need to determine the authenticity of a genuine user. Today's conventional authentication mechanisms are based on three factors: knowledge, possession and biometrics. These factors are prone to theft, hardware failure, expensive, etc.

Consequently, there is a need of a stronger solution. One such solution is Location Based Authentication that considers the location information of a user. The location information is time based and thus hard to steal. However, accuracy of the GPS, signal strength inside the building, etc, affects its potential. Consequently, there is a need to address alternatives. One such alternative is to implement a puzzle-based authentication scheme based on the location information. In the proposed scheme, the server asks dynamic location-based questions and the client answers them based on the proposed route of travel. This scheme strengthens the current authentication mechanisms.

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Background and Motivation

Wireless technologies have become increasingly popular in burgeoning military affairs and so is security, where the identity of an individual on the other side of the network has become challenging to determine. Thus, authenticating the identity of this individual to access the private resources is a foremost concern and strong authentication between two parties (end-to-end) in a wireless data environment where one or more parties is moving or mobile needs to be implemented.

Advances in signal strength and throughput of wireless data networks, coupled with a significant reduction in size and cost, will cause the mobile computing and communication environment to grow dramatically in the immediate future. Today's conventional security systems rely upon three credentials ("something you have", "something you know", and "something you are"), coupled with device name and IP address restrictions, for the authentication of a person or device at the other end of a point-to-point connection (such as over the Internet). Unfortunately, it is not a very difficult matter to break the security of a wireless communication system since its very success depends on relatively free and easily accessible radio frequency signals. Consequently, these signals can be intercepted and then used by other wireless parties to "masquerade" as legitimate users.

In a highly fluid environment such as that experienced by war fighters, or between two moving objects such as a ship and a tactical aircraft, two or more parties need to remain mobile yet

communicate securely without fear of interception or spoofing. Authentication of identity must extend beyond conventional security layers: username-password, tokens like SIM cards, and, biometrics like fingerprints, iris scanning etc, to include location-specific signatures that attest to the veracity of a user. These location specific signatures' includes fetching latitude, longitude and altitude values that can be acquired by conventional geo-location technologies (such as global positioning systems).

The growth of wireless applications is inhibited today by concerns about security, fears of interception or eavesdropping, and an inability to authenticate sufficiently for purposes of non-repudiation. This thesis provides a more secured wireless communication between mobile parties by increasing the sophistication of authentication thereby assuring that the identity of the other party is truly trusted. Sectors that seek this assurance include, but are not limited to, military, critical infrastructure (e.g. aviation), and confidential corporate communications. Each of these sectors will be benefited directly from the strong authentication later that this project is uniquely capable of providing.

1.2 Objective

This project should seek to address the security holes present in a wireless environment so that two entities attempting to communicate with one another through wireless means can authenticate themselves using conventional security protocols. These protocols should be strengthened with signatures that are related to their geo-location history (for example, “where have you been” and “where are you now”). It should enable strong authentication of users so that, if required, their identity and real time geo-location can be validated to a high level of

assurance for purposes of access control, non-repudiation etc. This information should also enable the wireless network system to securely obtain, if desired, complete information awareness regarding the real-time geo-location of the network's users. To enable strong authentication, the user should create a prototype known as a *travel plan*. The travel plan should contain the location information, that is, a set of latitude, longitude and the name of the location. The user should be able to feed this prototype in the server ensuring that only the user and the server know the authorized locations making it harder for the hacker to masquerade as the legitimate user.

1.3 Overview

This paper is organized into seven chapters as follows:

- Chapter 1 includes background and motivation, project objective and thesis outline.
- Chapter 2 talks about Authentication and its various factors.
- Chapter 3 describes Location Based Authentication and its significance.
- Chapter 4 explains the implementation details along with screenshots and code snippets.
- Chapter 5 shows the conclusion of the thesis work.
- Chapter 6 discusses the avenues for future work on this application.
- Chapter 7 cites the list of references used.

Chapter 2. Authentication

Authentication is the verification of an entity's identification. That is the host, to whom the entity must prove his identity, trusts (through an authentication process) that the entity is in fact who he claims to be.

2.1 Why do we need it?

In a wireless network environment, there is a need to [1]:

- Control access to the network,
- Control access to the resources and services provided by the network, and,
- Be able to verify that the mechanisms used to control that access are providing proper protection.

Network access control is provided by an authentication service. This service is pivotal in providing last two points stated above. Until and unless the network user is properly identified and authenticated, there is no point in trusting and granting access to the resources.

2.2 The Need and Use of Strong Authentication

The password authentication model is the most prevalent authentication model and has been used for decades. It is still widely used by the operating system manufacturers. In order to authenticate, the user has to provide a username-password duo to the server. The server then usually performs a one-way function on this combination, and compares the result to the value it

has stored and associates with the user. If server finds a match, it deems that the user is who he avouches to be else he is not a legitimate user.

For many standalone systems, this password model is sufficient where the user provided password traverses a small distance from the user workstation to the server. Vulnerabilities that exist in this model in a standalone environment include:

- Host receiving a plaintext password.
- Easy to predict, user generated passwords.

On the other hand, in today's extremely networked and distributed domain, such a paradigm does not offer strong, reliable and legitimate authentication. The most common targets of menacing attacks are such networked domains with alarming consequences.

The client server model is such an example. People use machines by remotely logging in and accessing their services like files, printers etc. Therefore, in this networked environment, there is a necessity of strong authentication that goes beyond providing a simple password model to the machine.

There is a requirement of a lot more sophisticated authentication technique than that of a simple password when the authentication of the user to the remote host (or service) and also authentication of the remote host (or service) to the user is needed. When transmitting passwords over the network, they should not be in clear text to avoid getting filched. In a network, it is

advisable to manage passwords with various systems so that each user has a distinct password for every machine.

People used a variety of distinctive features long before computers in order to authenticate each other. Nowadays, the computer systems have applied these aspects whenever people have found a cost effective way to implement them digitally [2]. Consequently, four authentication techniques have been categorized in accordance to the unique characteristic. Each of these techniques relies on a different kind of distinguishing characteristic to authenticate people. When a user authenticates to an access control system, the user presents an identity along with evidence of this identity. This evidence is either something the user knows (e.g., a password), has (e.g., a token or smart card), is (a biometric), or geo-location (latitude, longitude, altitude). Each of these is considered an authentication *factor*. If only one of these factors is used to verify an identity, it is called single-factor authentication. Similarly if four factors are used, it is four-factor authentication.

There are few systems that combine the above stated approaches. As an example, a smart card that is *something you have*, requires the user to enter a personal identification number (PIN) that is *something you know* to unlock it, makes a good combination. Presumably, it is considered better to merge at least two characteristics, because an attacker can filch either one: the entity you have is vulnerable to ordinary pilfering, and the entity you know is compromised by sniffing if it moves over the network but it's unusual for anyone to acquire both at the same time. This is called strong authentication wherein a user is authenticated using at least two factors. Automatic teller machines (ATMs) use this approach; however, it is a relatively effortless affair for an attacker to obtain both simultaneously if he is watching you use the machine. When you are

standing by the machine trying to authenticate your identity, he can obtain your PIN and steal your card after use. Thus the attacker knows: what you have, card, and what you know, PIN.

2.3 Authentication Factors

There are varieties of distinctive aspects available to authenticate a particular user. Today's authentication procedures are categorized according to the distinguishing characteristic they use and are classified in terms of three factors described below and summarized in Figure 2.1 [2]. Each factor relies on a different kind of discrete feature to authenticate individuals.

2.3.1 Something you know: a password

Confidential information is a unique attribute that is known only to genuine users. Even before computers came into existence, this information was shared either through a spoken password or a memorized combination or a lock. But in the computer world, it is a password, a paraphrase, or a PIN.

Authentication that is based on *something you know* depends on the fact that something is hard to guess and is a secret [3]. You need to know the secret reliably if you have to authenticate reliably. A lot of people are not good at making up and memorizing not easily guessable things, and they are worst at confiding secrets. A password is a sequence of characters that is a mutual secret between the user and host. It is relatively easy to guess if you are using short passwords but it is comparatively taxing to commit to memory if you are using long passwords. A person will end up converting one type of authentication to another if writes it down somewhere, that is, converting from *something you know* to *something you have* that is discussed subsequently.

A lot of system administrators who advise their users not to jot down passwords most likely have a few stockpiled in their wallets anyway; which brings together *something you know* and *something you have*. *Something you know* is how to comprehend your own handwriting, and the slip of paper containing the passwords is *something you have*.

Factor	Benefits	Weaknesses	Examples
Something you know: password	Cheap to implement	Sniffing attacks, can't detect sniffing attacks, passwords are either easy to guess or hard to remember, cost of handling forgotten passwords	Password, PIN, Safe combination
Something you have: token	Hardest to abuse	Expensive, can be lost or stolen, risk of hardware failure, not always portable	Token, smart card, Secret data embedded in a file or device, Mechanical key
Something you are: biometric	Easiest to authenticate with, portable	Expensive, replay threats, privacy risks, characteristic can't be changed, false rejection of legitimate users, characteristic can be injured	Fingerprint, Eye scan, Voice recognition, Photo ID

Figure 2.1: Authentication Factors [2]

The major advantage of using a password is that it is fast, cheap, not so intricate to implement, and, in practice, people don't forget them or lose the pieces of paper all that often. For people who connect to the server from unpredictable remote locations, a memorized combination of a username and a password is a perfect solution for them since it travels with them.

However, it is absolutely impractical to pass this combination across the Internet in any form that can be used safely. This authentication type is weak for two reasons. Firstly, it is a relatively easy matter to intercept them or sniff, as there are a number of ways available like freely available password hacking online tools etc. Its very success depends on confidentiality and it is challenging to keep it a secret. If there is a successful sniffing attack, then there is generally no way to detect it unless some sort of damage is done. Secondly, growing threats on passwords have made it comparatively trouble-free for attackers to figure out the passwords that people are most likely to choose and remember. People tend to forget hard-to-guess passwords or are compelled to pen down somewhere in order to remember. The trouble comes with a written password, as it is more susceptible to theft rather than the memorized password. Regardless of all the hazards of *something you know* systems, it is still feasible to use such systems, provided that you are not revealing the secret to anyone in the near surrounding area whenever you authenticate.

The flaws associated with this authentication model can be summarized below:

- Passwords can be shared, written, forgotten or guessed.
- It is a relatively easy affair to steal it by observation.
- Mostly encrypted passwords are readable publicly, which makes them vulnerable to cryptographic analysis.
- It is straightforward to guess the short passwords by means of brute force method or dictionary attack.

2.3.2 Something you have: a token

The unique attribute of “something you have” systems is that legitimate individuals possess some particular thing. Way before computers came in existence; this particular thing was a seal with a private insignia or a key for a lock. But in the computer world it is a device like a smart card, or a magnetic strip card. Such items are called *tokens*. A token is an object whose features are in some way confidential, and that is difficult to duplicate. Some examples are shown in Figure 2.2 below and discussed subsequently.



Figure 2.2: Tokens [9, 10 and 11]

- A hardware device that attaches to an I/O channel (e.g., a serial line with an RS-232 connector), which can be interrogated by the system, and which must be present to execute certain programs.
- A SIM card or a smart card having non-volatile memory to store information and a CPU for processing.

This authentication model is so far the most challenging technique to exploit because of the fact that it depends on a distinct physical object that the user should possess to log on. It is extremely backbreaking to determine if a password has been stolen; on the contrary it is relatively trouble-free for the owner to find out if a token has been stolen or got lost. It is impractical to share the token with someone and still be able to log on.

The major flaws associated with this model are summarized below:

- The danger of keys getting lost, broken, borrowed, lent, or hardware failure.
- Keys and tokens can be stolen.
- It is comparatively expensive to replace the keys and compromised locks.
- It can be difficult or impossible to automatically or remotely revise authorizations associated with a particular token.
- It is extremely important to physically manage the tokens, that is, stored, logged, kept secure, etc.

2.3.3 Something you are: a biometric

A physical feature or behavior is another distinct aspect, which is exclusive to an individual being authenticated. Before computers, this might have been a personal signature, a portrait, a fingerprint, or a written description of the person's physical appearance. But nowadays, an individual's distinct features are calculated, stored digitally, and compared against an already stored pattern. Precisely, it consists of comparing some easily accessible and reliably distinct physical attribute of a human user against the system's stored values for that attribute. Well known techniques use a person's voice, fingerprints, written signature, hand shape, or eye features for authentication. Such things are called *biometrics*. Biometrics that are being used frequently are shown in Figure 2.3 and are summarized as follows:

- Hand geometry.
- Facial image.
- Iris scans.
- Finger prints.
- Voice recognition.

This authentication model serves as the most convenient method for individuals. A finely designed biometric system accepts readings from an individual and precisely carries out the authentication. Obviously, it overcomes the flaw of portability of *something you have* model, as it is a part of the person's body.



Figure 2.3: Biometric Devices [5, 6, 7 and 8]

Biometrics supports two basic core processes that together provide organizations the ability to verify claims of identity [4]:

- Enrollment – the preliminary correlation of an identity with a biometric feature.
- Verification – the comparison of data captured during enrollment process to the biometric data gathered during an authentication request process.

To support the enrollment and verification process, there are *administrative* and *cryptographic* functions. If the user cannot show his biometric feature may be due to injury or physical change, there should be a fallback process to take care of authentication.

People have two views of biometric authentication. According to some, this model is a replacement for authentication relative to the first two factors since it provides a level of handiness, which is nonexistent in the other models. However, some believe that biometric is a supplement and, thus is augmenting the present authentication techniques.

In spite of possessing many benefits, a few shortcomings are very obvious. The cost of the device plays an important role. It is comparatively expensive than the one used for *something you have* model. In addition, there is an overhead of installation and operation that is so unlike other authentication models. Besides, if it's a remote user then there is a danger of interception. It is relatively straightforward for an attacker to repeat the reading to disguise as its owner. As biometric aspect is impossible to modify, the owner has no way to reverse the damage if attacker steals the biometric readings. In reality, it is challenging to construct a system precise enough to deny illicit users without sporadically denying legitimate users. Physiological changes and injuries can also invalidate biometric readings: in one case a woman working at a high-security installation was denied entrance by the biometric device at the front door because her pregnancy had caused changes in her retinal blood vessels.

Various flaws linked with biometric authentication are summed up below:

- Biometric equipment is relatively expensive.

- For hand geometry scan and finger printing, the user should have a computable hand, that is, the hand should be ungloved and clean.
- Iris scan necessitates the user to have a computable retina. The contact lens or spectacles should not interfere.
- Voice recognition greatly depends on the clarity of throat and the surrounding environment.
- A person's appearance should not change to a large extent for facial geometry scan.

Conclusively, all the three authentication factors discussed have some shortcomings. This necessitates the requirement of a more difficult factor. One such factor is geo-location and the technique is called the location-based authentication. It takes the location information, that is, the latitude and the longitude (and maybe the altitude) into consideration making it very hard for the hacker to masquerade as the legitimate user. It is discussed in the next chapter.

2.4 Summary

Authentication is the process of verifying the identity and determining the genuineness of an individual. It is required to control the access to the network, its resources and the services. Usually, it is based on the username and password combination. However, it is vulnerable to theft. Therefore, there is a need of strong authentication. The three authentication techniques have been identified based on *something the user knows* like a password, *something the user has* like a token, *something the user is* like a biometric. All these authentication techniques possess some flaws that make it harder for the military personnel to authenticate truly the identity of the user. Consequently, there is a need of a lot more difficult authentication technique that considers

the location information like the latitude, the longitude (or may be the altitude) making verification an extremely difficult process.

Chapter 3. Location Based Authentication

3.1 Need of Location Based Authentication

As discussed in the previous chapter, existing authentication mechanisms are not totally reliable.

They fundamentally depend on the information that is either:

- known to a user like a password, which is not very difficult to guess, or
- a token, which is susceptible to theft, or
- a biometric, which is relatively harder but is still prone to pilfering. For example, a gummy finger, which is an artificial finger made of gelatin, to steal the fingerprints, etc.

Thus, it is still not backbreaking to know everything with a security breach that the wireless application developer has been working for. These existing wireless security controls are insufficient to provide the levels of security that the growing wireless computing in military affairs want.

Consequently, there is a necessity to develop another solution that addresses the new and intricate challenges of mobile computing in military operations, and is highly impregnable to let only an authorized individual gain access to secured information. The solution is **Location Based Authentication** that takes into account the physical location- typically; it includes latitude, longitude and sometimes altitude, of a person who is trying to authenticate his identity. Location information is captured along with time at that particular moment. Location is most often associated with GPS receivers like Earthmate, Garmin etrex, etc, as shown in Figure 3.1, or

GPS enabled mobile device. Integrating location information into existing security mechanisms can be used to ameliorate the efficiency of authentication and access controls.



Figure 3.1: GPS receivers [15, 16]

3.2 Use and Benefits

This solution adds a strong new layer of wireless security by permitting organizations to ensure that only authorized users are allowed to access the network and use secured resources. These users can be within a defined building, campus, or in some other geo-location or country.

The location based authentication solution is directly targeted at preventing so-called drive-by hacking of enterprise networks, where hackers try to spoof mobile device credentials while seated in a parked car or other building at a safe distance from the target enterprise [12]. Besides, a location-based strategy allows distinguished service specifications in different geo areas of a building.

People log into computers and transact business electronically without regard to their own geographic location or the locations of the systems they use [14]. As a result, a lot of malicious activities can take place across the network without anyone knowing the origin of these activities. It has become challenging to prevent access to prohibited information and access to unauthorized resources. It is extremely hard to find the location of an intruder if he hops through a lot of computers over a network that is spread across the world.

The location signature, that is, latitude, longitude (and sometimes altitude) adds a fourth feature to authentication factors and complements the current security methods. It is used to ascertain if an individual is trying to log on to the server from a permitted location, that is, his home, school or office. For a mobile user, the permitted locations will be a set of extensive geographical areas like counties, towns, cities, countries, etc. Thus, it is necessary to identify a user's location and authenticate his identity so that he can retrieve the secured information. Location information provides extra assurance in a wireless domain to the users who need to carry out secure transactions or gain confidential access to resources. It is not so difficult to locate the origin of malevolent movements if the set of authorized locations is known beforehand. Integrating

location information to the existing security mechanisms makes it relatively simpler to trace any malicious activity back to the location of the intruder.

Location-based authentication has the effect of grounding cyberspace in the physical world so that the physical locations of network entities can be reliably determined. It will be impossible for an intruder based in London to access any secured bank server in Los Angeles while pretending to come from a trusted bank branch in New York.

This technique can be done transparently to the user and be performed continuously so that it becomes impossible to intercept the connection. This means that unlike most other types of authentication information, location information can be used as a common authenticator for all systems the user accesses [13]. Besides, it provides a method for employing an electronic notary function. This function attaches location information to the document as a proof that the document existed at a particular location and time.

A location record cannot be stolen and used somewhere else to acquire prohibited access, as it is almost impossible to replicate it. The GPS receiver that captures the physical location of the user gives the location information to the server that gets stored in the server's database along with the time stamp. To authenticate, the server compares the location information provided by the user with this stored information. If it finds a match then it grants access to the secured information else denies it. Stealing the location signature of the authorized user will not allow the intruder to replay that data as it changes with time. It is hard to spoof the location and gain unauthorized entry, which is highly unlike other authentication factors. Even if the location

record is captured during communication, a hacker cannot replicate that data from some other location. Location information is from a continuously generated real-time basis and is unique to a particular place and time that becomes invalid after a short time period [13]. Thus, it is easy to reveal if an individual is a legitimate user, or masquerading as a legitimate user.

The location details guarantees that the user performs administrative functions only from authorized locations. These functions can be accessing files as root user, modifying system files, controlling sub-user's access to resources, transfer of funds and transactions across the network, downloading confidential files from secured web server, uploading the current location information etc.

Concisely, addition of location information in security mechanisms helps in making sure that only the authorized individual accesses secured information, prevents unauthorized access, and ensures that only devices positioned in specific areas can receive secured information.

3.3 Drawbacks

Although location based technique has many benefits, it still suffers from few shortcomings as discussed below:

- The accuracy of the GPS is critical to this scheme.
- It will not work in the basements or inside of a big building where GPS signal strength is not good.
- If the GPS is in a vicinity of tall buildings then signals might get delayed due to reflection providing inaccurate information.

- The geometric positioning of the satellites at wide angles relative to one another is very important.
- There is no GPS system integrity, that is, inability to inform users when the system is not reliable [19].
- Orbital errors occur when satellites provide inaccurate information [20].
- Cloudy sky and stormy weather adversely affects the potential of this technique.

Consequently, there is a need to address alternatives in order to make location-based authentication a robust authentication technique. One of the alternatives includes creating a travel plan, discussed subsequently.

3.4 Travel Plan

We propose a location-based authentication mechanism based on travel plans. Travel plans essentially create location-based authentication puzzles. A travel plan is a projected route of travel that contains the location information, that is, latitude, longitude, and location name of selected points. It has been shown in Figure 3.1 on the next page.

It can be seen from the diagram below that the locations A, B, C and D are the set of authorized locations along with the latitude and the longitude values. *Location 1* shows the current position of the user that has been captured by a GPS receiver and *Location 2* is the random position calculated by the server dynamically and can exist anywhere on the travel plan.

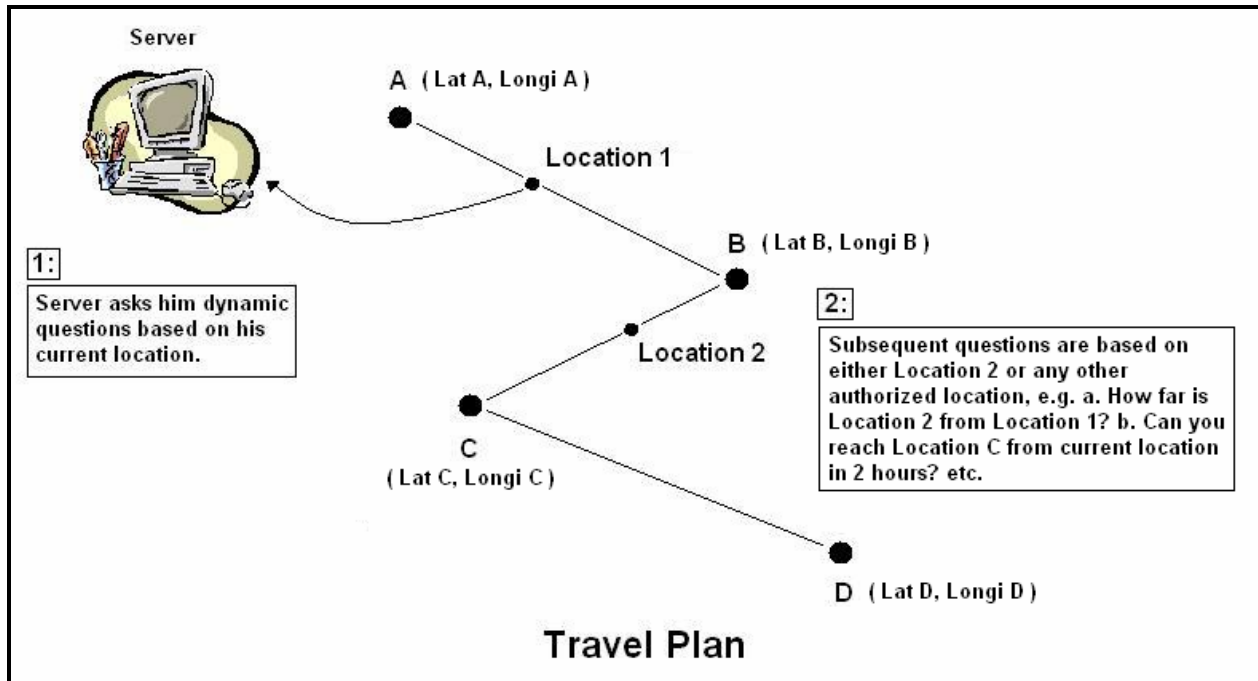


Figure 3.2: Travel Plan

Whenever a user wants to access the server, he establishes the connection from his current location, that is, *Location 1*. In order to grant access to the user, the server asks him dynamic questions based on either authorized locations, that is, Location A, B, C or D, or *Location 2*. The location-based questions can be:

- How far is your next destination?
- Can you reach Location 2 in two hours?
- How much time you need to reach Location 2?
- How far are you from Location 2?
- Did you reach Location 1 from previous destination in 4 hours?

The sequence of events, that is, the client-server's communication session discussed above has been demonstrated in the sequence diagram as shown below:

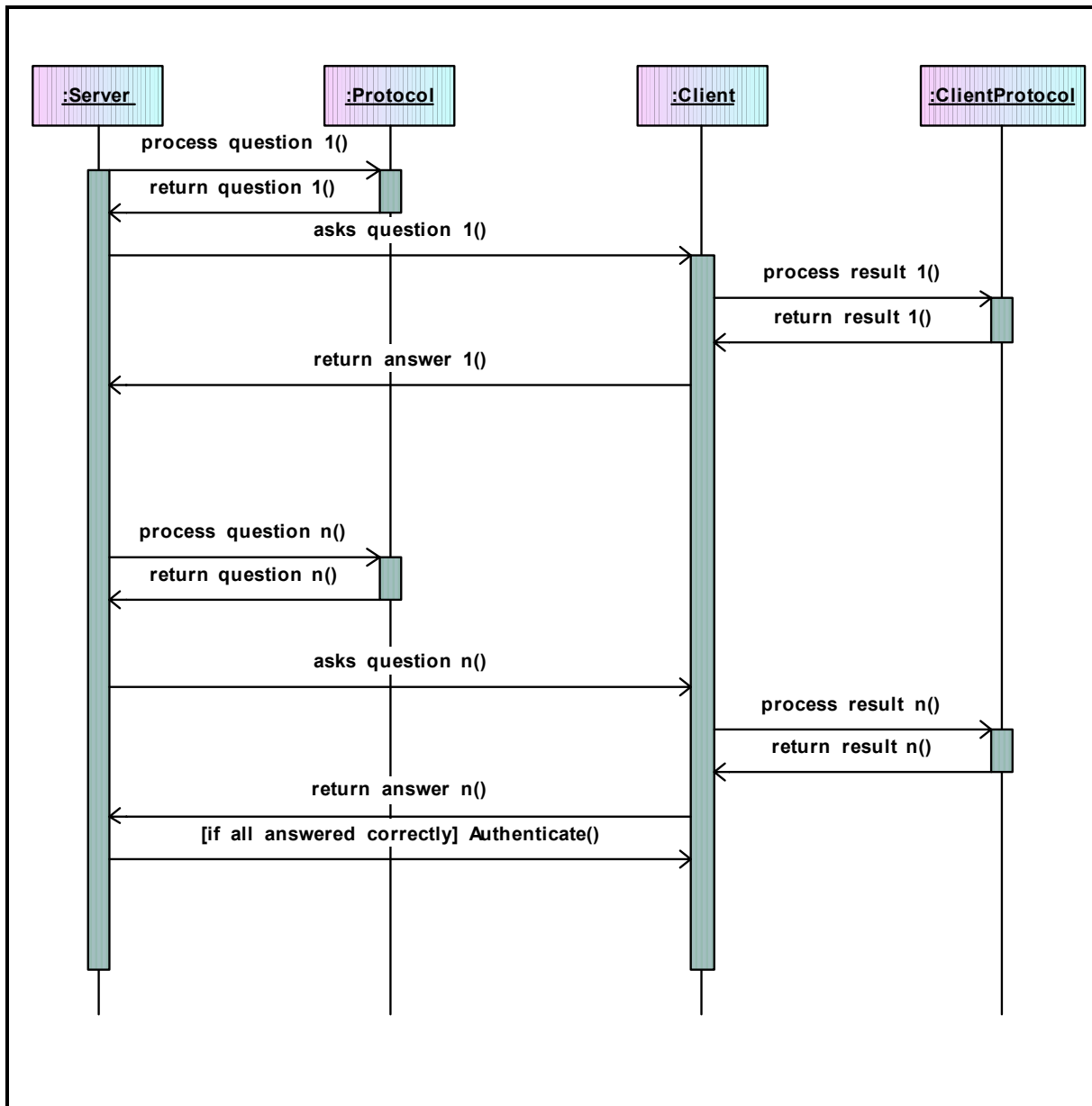


Figure 3.3: Sequence Diagram of Client Server interaction.

The *Server* asks random location based questions to the client using the *Protocol* and the *Client* answers them using the *Client protocol*. The user is a legitimate user if the *Client* answers all the questions correctly and granted access to secured information else he is masquerading as a genuine user. In the prototype, the accuracy of calculations is in the range of ± 0.001 miles. The user keeps connecting to the server whenever required and updates his information as he traverses along the path. The travel plan approach is highly robust and makes it harder for the hacker to get unauthorized access because of the following reasons:

- Only the user knows the name of the travel plan file.
- The user stores it in the server. Thus, only the server, which is inside a secured location, knows it apart from the user.

Consequently, the location-based authentication integrated with the travel plan approach makes it very difficult for the intruder to pretend as the true user.

3.5 Summary

The three authentication factors, that is, something you know, something you have and something you are, do not provide very strong authentication techniques. Thus, there is a necessity of a more robust technique that takes location information into consideration, as it is very hard to steal it. The location information includes the latitude, the longitude and may be the altitude value of a location. This data is captured by the GPS and stored in the server's database along with a time stamp. The user trying to access the resources provides his current location information to the server. The server performs an authentication check and lets the user access the resources if it finds him as a legitimate user. Thus, it ensures that only the genuine person is

able to gain access to the secured information from the authorized locations. However, it suffers from few shortcomings like the accuracy of the GPS, the signal strength inside the buildings, etc.

Consequently, there is a need to address alternatives to make this technique more strong. One of the alternatives is creating a travel plan that takes into account the latitude, the longitude and the name of the location. The travel plan is created by the user and contains the location information of the authorized locations. The user feeds this plan in the server and thus is known only to the user and the server, making this alternative the most robust solution. The server asks the location based questions like how far is your next destination, how much time you need to reach location *abc*, etc. If the user answers all the questions correctly then he is authenticated as a true user.

Thus, the location-based authentication technique integrated with the travel plan approach proves to be a good alternative.

Chapter 4. Implementation

This chapter discusses a prototype implementation detail of a travel plan-based Location Based Authentication model. Implementation has been divided into two parts:

- Creating a travel plan using Garmin Etrex GPS receiver, and
- Querying randomized location based question in order to authenticate a user.

4.1 Creating a Travel Plan

A travel plan is a proposed route of travel that a user will follow. This route includes legitimate locations known only to the server, client program and the user. The user can log on to the server while in transit and use the resources after authenticating his identity.

To create a travel plan, Linux Fedora Core 2 and “GpsDrive” [17] software have been used.

“GpsDrive” is an open source navigation system written in C that displays the current location of the user provided by a NMEA capable GPS receiver on a zoomable map. This software requires ‘gcc’ compiler version 3.0 or higher and the following development packages:

1. **GTK+-2.x (better $\geq 2.2.x$):** GTK+ is a multi-platform toolkit for creating graphical user interfaces that offers a complete set of widgets. GTK+ is free software and a part of GNU project.
2. **Pango:** It is a library for layout and rendering of text, with an emphasis on internationalization. It forms the core of text and font handling for GTK+-2.0.

3. **ATK:** The ATK library provides a set of interfaces for accessibility. By supporting the ATK interfaces, an application or toolkit can be used with such tools as screen readers, magnifiers, and alternative input devices.
4. **Glib:** Glib is the low-level core library that forms the basis of GTK+ and GNOME. It provides data structure handling for C, portability wrappers, and interfaces for such runtime functionality as an event loop, threads, dynamic loading, and an object system.

In addition to these developmental packages I also used: pcre (Perl Compatible Regular Expressions) header files, gettext, libcrypt, and x-devel (X11 development) packages.

Two buttons have been added to increase the functionality of the software as shown in Figure 4.2 on the next page and are discussed below:

1. **Show Route:** displays the complete travel plan of the user. A new button (or a widget) named as **Show Route** is first created using *gtk_button_new_from_stock()* function. As shown in the code snippet below:

```
ShowRouteButton = gtk_button_new_from_stock(_("Show Route"));
gtk_signal_connect (GTK_OBJECT>ShowRouteButton), "clicked",
                    GTK_SIGNAL_FUNC(seemaShowRoute), (gpointer) 1);
gtk_box_pack_start (GTK_BOX (vbox), ShowRouteButton, FALSE,
                    FALSE, 1 * PADDING);
```

Figure 4.1: Code snippet- ‘Show Route’ button.

gtk_signal_connect() attaches a function pointer *seemaShowRoute()* to the signal for object ShowRouteButton, that is, it connects the “clicked” event to the signal handler.

`gtk_box_pack_start()` puts together all the widgets in one place. This means that ShowRouteButton widget will be on the same parent window as the other widgets.

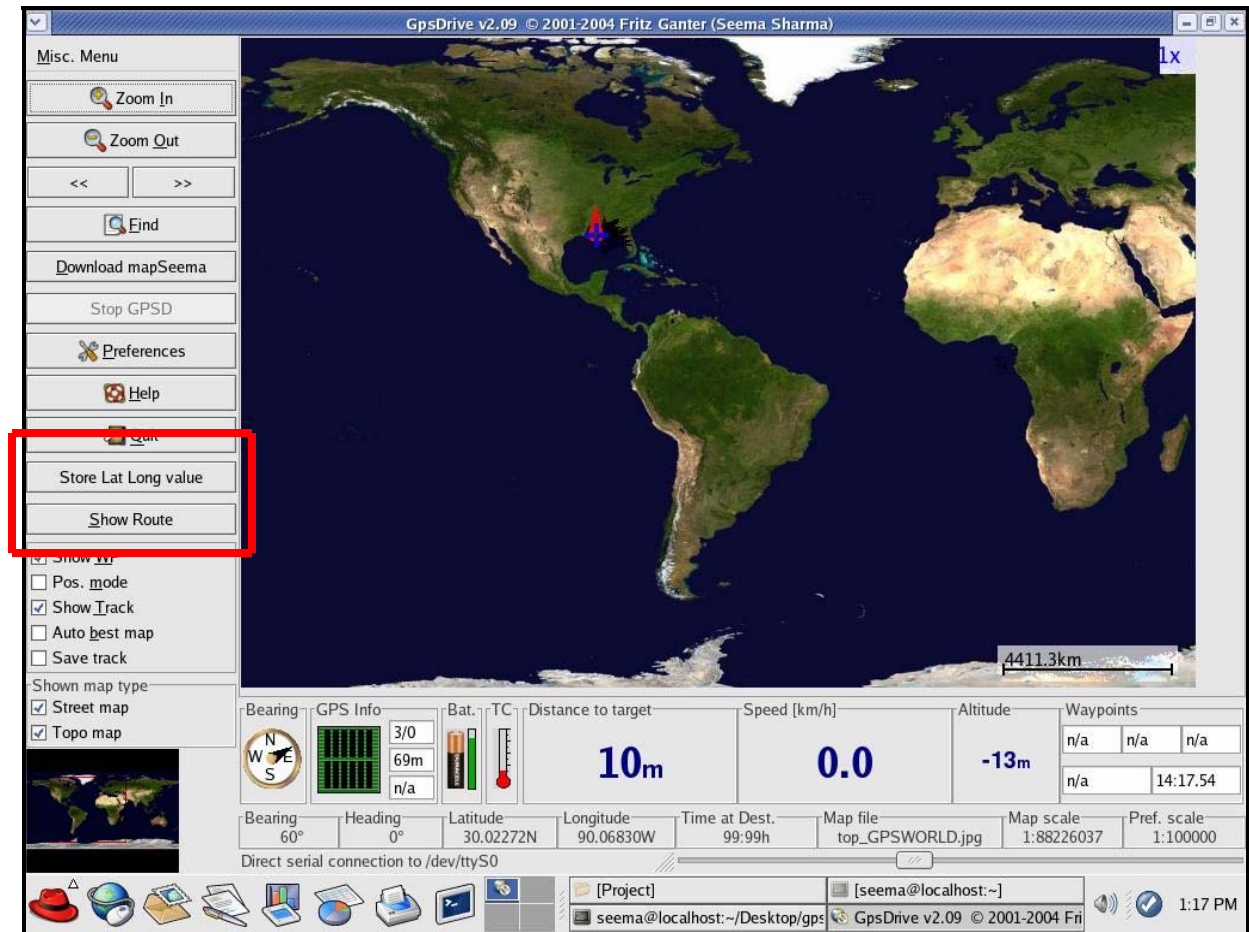


Figure 4.2: GpsDrive application screen shot.

Whenever the user clicks **Show Route** button, `seemaShowRoute()` function is called. This function first converts the latitude and longitude values into the screen coordinates “posxdest” and “posydest”. It then checks to make sure if the points are on the map and not outside. Later, it sets the attributes of the line to be drawn between the points, like the color and the thickness and

of the text to be written around the point, like the font and size. It enters the loop and keeps drawing the lines as the user enters the points. It is shown in the code snippet below:

```
// It displays the travel plan on the zoomable map.

gint seemaShowRoute (GtkWidget *widget, guint *datum) {
    gdouble posxdest=0, posydest=0;
    gchar txt[200];
    gint k, k2, shownwp = 0, j, counter = 0;
    for (counter=0;counter<iRoute;counter++) {
        calcxy(&posxdest, &posydest, storeLongi[counter],
            storeLat[counter], zoom);
        posxdestarray[counter] = posxdest;
        posydestarray[counter] = posydest;
        if ((posxdest>=0) && (posxdest<SCREEN_X) &&
            (shownwp<MAXSHOWNWP)) {
            gdk_gc_set_line_attributes(kontext,3,0,0,0);
            if ((posydest>=0) && (posxdest<SCREEN_Y)) {
                shownwp++;
                g_strlcpy(txt, storeName[counter], sizeof(txt));
                gdk_gc_set_foreground(kontext,&red);
                gdk_draw_line(drawable, kontext, posxdest+1,
                    posydest+1-5, posxdest+1, posydest+1+5);
                gdk_draw_line(drawable, kontext, posxdest+1+5,
                    posydest+1, posxdest+1-5, posydest+1);
            }
        }
    }
    // draw text
    {
        PangoFontDescription *pfd;
        PangoLayout *wplabellayout;
        gint width, height;
        gdk_gc_set_function(kontext,GDK_COPY);
        gdk_gc_set_function(kontext,GDK_AND);
        gdk_gc_set_foreground (kontext, &textbacknew);
    }
}
```



```

        wplabellayout = gtk_widget_create_pango_layout(
                                drawing_area,txt);
        pfd = pango_font_description_from_string(wplabelfont);
        pango_layout_set_font_description (wplabellayout, pfd);
        pango_layout_get_pixel_size (wplabellayout, &width, &height);
        k = width + 4;  k2 = height;
        gdk_draw_layout_with_colors (drawable, kontekst,
                                posxdest+15, posydest-k2/2, wplabellayout, &white, NULL);
        if (wplabellayout != NULL)
            g_object_unref (G_OBJECT (wplabellayout));
        pango_font_description_free (pfd);
    } // draw text end
}
} //end of for loop
gdk_gc_set_line_attributes(kontekst,5,0,0,0);
gdk_gc_set_foreground(kontekst,&green);
for (counter=0;counter<iRoute-1;counter++)
    gdk_draw_line(drawable, kontekst,posxdestarray[counter],
                posydestarray[counter],posxdestarray[counter+1],
                posydestarray[counter+1]);
return TRUE;
}

```

Figure 4.3: Code snippet- *seemaShowRoute* function.

2. **Store Lat Long value:** stores the current location of the user in a text file *SeemaLatLong.txt*.

A new button named **Store Lat Long value** is first created using

gtk_button_new_with_label() function. Even this is placed on the same parent window as

Show Route button using the function *gtk_box_pack_start()*. It is shown in the code snippet

below:

```

LatLongButton = gtk_button_new_with_label ("Store Lat Long value");
gtk_signal_connect (GTK_OBJECT (LatLongButton), "clicked",
                    GTK_SIGNAL_FUNC (seemaClicked), (gpointer) 2);
gtk_box_pack_start (GTK_BOX (vbox), LatLongButton, FALSE,
                    FALSE, 1 * PADDING);

```

Figure 4.4: Code snippet- ‘Store Lat Long Value’ button.

gtk_signal_connect() attaches a function pointer, *seemaClicked()* to the signal for object LatLongButton, that is, it attaches the “clicked” event to the signal handler.

Whenever the user clicks **Store Lat Long value** button, *seemaClicked* function is called. This function initially opens the file in write mode. When the user clicks this button, the program opens up another window called “*Storing these Lat and Long values*” and sets border attributes. This window contains the text boxes named *Latitude*, *Longitude* and *Comment*, and *OK* button. The user can write the comments here and store the latitude and the longitude values as displayed in the text boxes in a text file by clicking the *OK* button. It is shown in the code snippet below:

```

// It stores the current location of the user.

void seemaClicked (GtkWidget *widget, gpointer *data) {
    GtkWidget *LatLabel, *LongLabel, *table, *Comment, *vbox,
                *knopfSeema;

    gchar buff[300];
    G_CONST_RETURN gchar *s;
    time_t now;
    time(&now);

    FILE *fp;

```

```

fp = fopen ("SeemaLatLong.txt", "w+");
vbox = gtk_vbox_new (TRUE, 20 * PADDING);
LatLongWindow = gtk_dialog_new ();
gtk_window_set_title (GTK_WINDOW(LatLongWindow),
    _("Storing these Lat and Long Values"));
gtk_container_set_border_width(GTK_CONTAINER(LatLongWindow), 150);

knopfSeema = gtk_button_new_from_stock (GTK_STOCK_OK);
gtk_signal_connect_object (GTK_OBJECT(knopfSeema), "clicked",
    GTK_SIGNAL_FUNC (seemaOk), GTK_OBJECT (LatLongWindow));
gtk_signal_connect_object (GTK_OBJECT (LatLongWindow),
    "delete_event", GTK_SIGNAL_FUNC (seemaOk),
    GTK_OBJECT (LatLongWindow));
gtk_box_pack_start(GTK_BOX(GTK_DIALOG (LatLongWindow)->action_area)
    , knopfSeema, TRUE, TRUE, 2);
GTK_WIDGET_SET_FLAGS (knopfSeema, GTK_CAN_DEFAULT);

table = gtk_table_new (3, 2, FALSE);
gtk_table_set_row_spacings (GTK_TABLE(table), 4);
gtk_table_set_col_spacings (GTK_TABLE(table), 8);
gtk_container_border_width (GTK_CONTAINER(table), 4);
gtk_box_pack_start (GTK_BOX(GTK_DIALOG(LatLongWindow)->vbox),
    table, TRUE, TRUE, 2);

LatLabel = gtk_label_new (_("Latitude"));
gtk_table_attach_defaults (GTK_TABLE (table), LatLabel, 0, 1, 0, 1);

LongLabel = gtk_label_new (_("Longitude"));
gtk_table_attach_defaults (GTK_TABLE (table), LongLabel, 0, 1, 1, 2);

Comment = gtk_label_new (_("Comment"));
gtk_table_attach_defaults (GTK_TABLE (table), Comment, 0, 1, 2, 3);

LatText = gtk_entry_new ();

```

```

gtk_table_attach_defaults (GTK_TABLE (table), LatText, 1, 2, 0, 1);
g_snprintf (buff, sizeof (buff), "%.5f", current_lat);

if (minsecmode)          decimaltomin (buff, 1);
gtk_entry_set_text (GTK_ENTRY (LatText), buff);

LongText = gtk_entry_new ();
gtk_table_attach_defaults (GTK_TABLE (table), LongText, 1, 2, 1, 2);
g_snprintf (buff, sizeof (buff), "%.5f", current_long);

if (minsecmode)          decimaltomin (buff, 0);
gtk_entry_set_text (GTK_ENTRY (LongText), buff);

CommentText = gtk_entry_new ();
gtk_editable_set_editable(GTK_EDITABLE(CommentText), TRUE);
gtk_table_attach_defaults (GTK_TABLE (table), CommentText,1,2,2,3);
s = gtk_entry_get_text (GTK_ENTRY (CommentText));
gtk_signal_connect (GTK_OBJECT (CommentText), "changed",
                    GTK_SIGNAL_FUNC(seemaGetComment), (gpointer) 0);

gtk_label_set_justify (GTK_LABEL (LatLabel), GTK_JUSTIFY_RIGHT);
gtk_label_set_justify (GTK_LABEL (LongLabel), GTK_JUSTIFY_RIGHT);
gtk_label_set_justify (GTK_LABEL (Comment), GTK_JUSTIFY_RIGHT);

gtk_window_set_position (GTK_WINDOW(LatLongWindow),
                        GTK_WIN_POS_CENTER);
gtk_widget_show_all (LatLongWindow);

fprintf (fp, "%8.5f    %8.5f    %.24s", current_lat,
                    current_long, ctime(&now));

fclose (fp);
}

```

Figure 4.5: Code snippet- *seemaClicked* function.

These buttons have been shown in the following screen shots:



Figure 4.6: ‘Store Lat and Long value’ button screen shot.

To create a travel plan, user can use either:

- Mouse buttons, or
- Keyboard buttons.

4.1.1 Using Mouse buttons

In order to generate the travel plan, the user needs to hold the CONTROL KEY and click the left mouse button. To capture the current location on the generated travel plan, the user clicks the right mouse button holding down the CONTROL KEY. This functionality has been implemented using *seemapclick_cb()* function. This function first converts the screen coordinates into the latitude and longitude values. It then stores the complete travel plan location information and the current location information in the text files accordingly. It is shown in the code snippet below:

```
// It generates the travel plan using mouse click.

gint seemapclick_cb (GtkWidget * widget, GdkEventMotion * event) {
    gint x;
    gint y;
    gdouble lon;
    gdouble lat;
    GdkModifierType state;

    if (event->is_hint)
        gdk_window_get_pointer (event->window, &x, &y, &state);

    else {
        x = event->x;
        y = event->y;
        state = event->state;
    }

    if (state == 0)
        return 0;

    calcxytopos (x, y, &lat, &lon, zoom);

    /* Add mouse position as waypoint */
```

```

/* Left mouse button + control key */
//this add points to file Waypoint.txt
if ((state & (GDK_BUTTON1_MASK | GDK_CONTROL_MASK)) ==
    (GDK_BUTTON1_MASK | GDK_CONTROL_MASK)) {
    seemawplat = lat;
    seemawplon = lon;
    seemaaddwaypoint_cb (NULL, 0);
    return TRUE;
}

/* Add current position as waypoint */
/* Right mouse button + control key */
// this adds point to file TravelPlan.txt
if ((state & (GDK_BUTTON3_MASK | GDK_CONTROL_MASK)) ==
    (GDK_BUTTON3_MASK | GDK_CONTROL_MASK)) {
    seemawplatPlan = lat;
    seemawplonPlan = lon;
    seemaaddwaypointPlan_cb (NULL, 0);
    return TRUE;
}
return TRUE;
}

```

Figure 4.7: Code snippet- *seemamapclick_cb* function.

4.1.2 Using Keyboard buttons

In order to generate the travel plan, user needs to press number '2' key. To capture current location on the generated travel plan, user presses number '1' key. To implement this functionality, *seemakey_cb()* function has been used. This function first converts the screen coordinates into the latitude and longitude values. It then stores the complete travel plan location

information and the current location information in the text files accordingly. It is shown in the code snippet below:

```
// It generates the travel plan using keyboard.

gint seemakey_cb (GtkWidget *widget, GdkEventKey *event) {
    gdouble lat;
    gdouble lon;
    gint x;
    gint y;
    GdkModifierType state;

    gdk_window_get_pointer (drawing_area->window, &x, &y, &state);
    calcxytopos (x, y, &lat, &lon, zoom);

    // Add mouse position to TravePlan.txt file.
    if ((toupper(event->keyval)) == '1')
        seemawplatPlan = lat; //current_lat
        seemawplonPlan = lon; //current_long
        seemaaddwaypointPlan_cb(NULL, NULL);
    }

    if ((toupper(event->keyval)) == '2') {
/* Add mouse position as waypoint to Waypoint.txt file*/
        seemawplat = lat;
        seemawplon = lon;
        seemaaddwaypoint_cb (NULL, 0);
    }

    return 0;
}
```

Figure 4.8: Code snippet- *seemakey_cb* function.

The mouse button functionality and the keyboard button functionality is shown in the following screen shot:

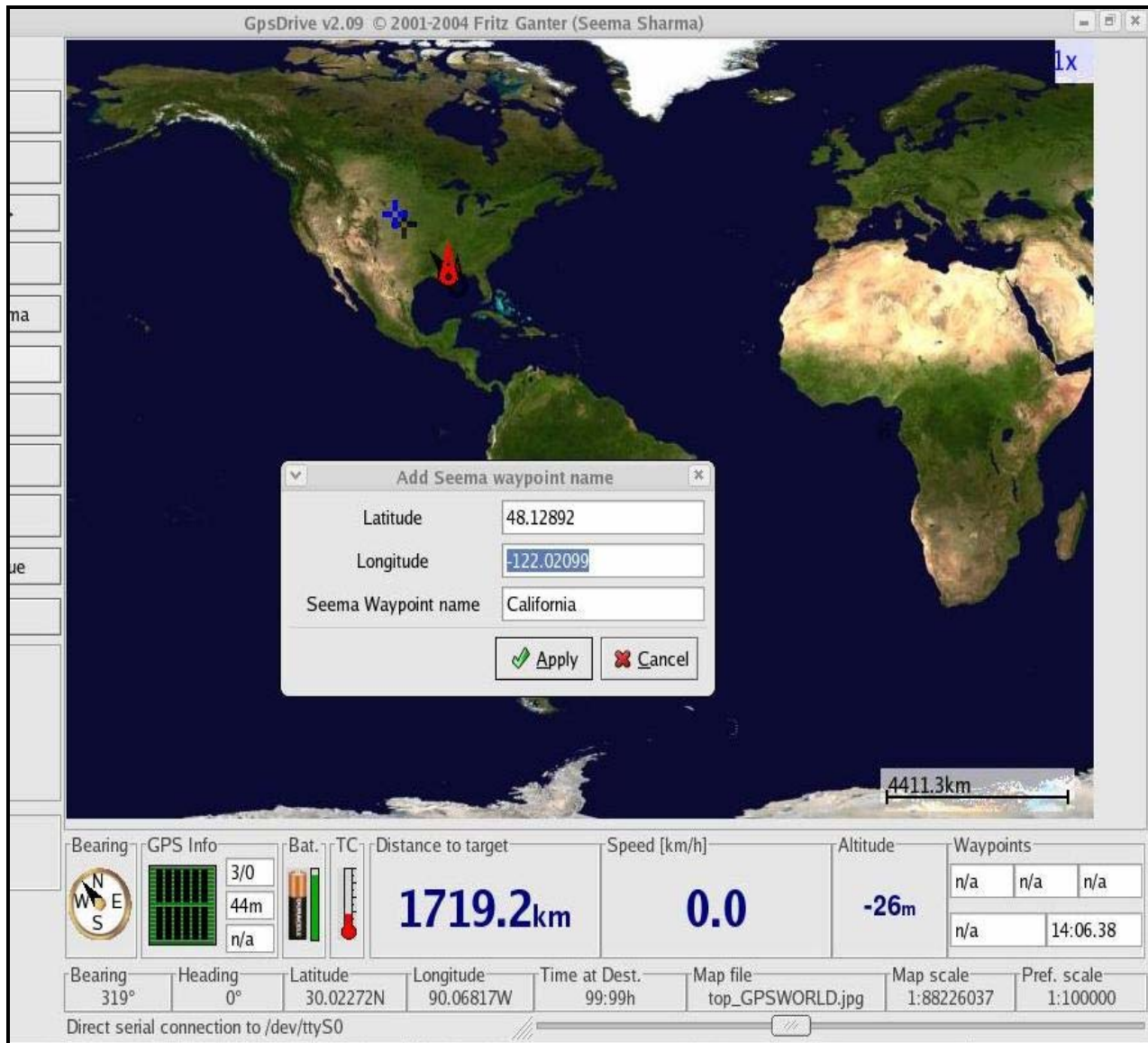
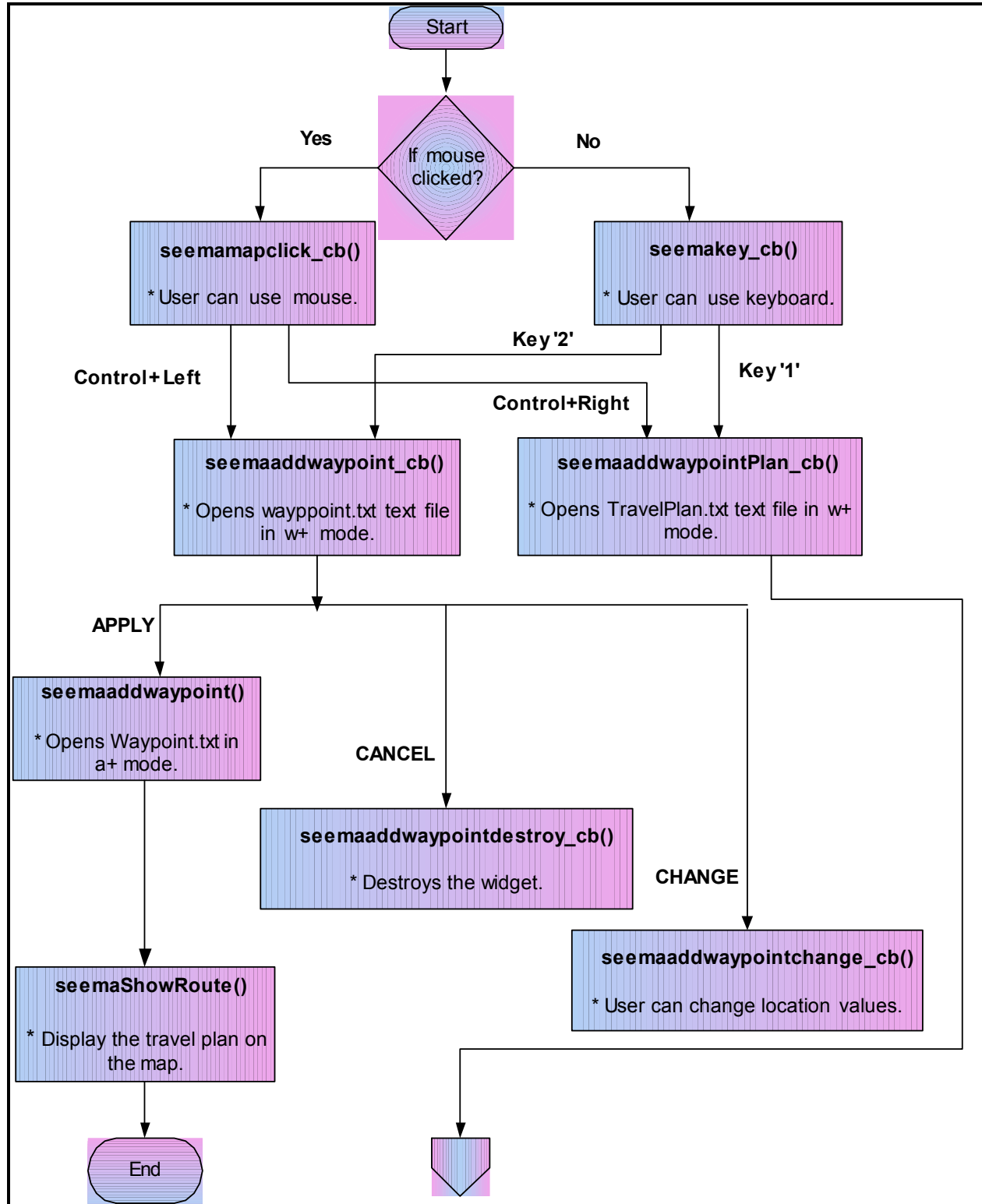


Figure 4.9: Adding location information to the Travel Plan.

The complete workflow of the system has been shown in the activity diagram below:



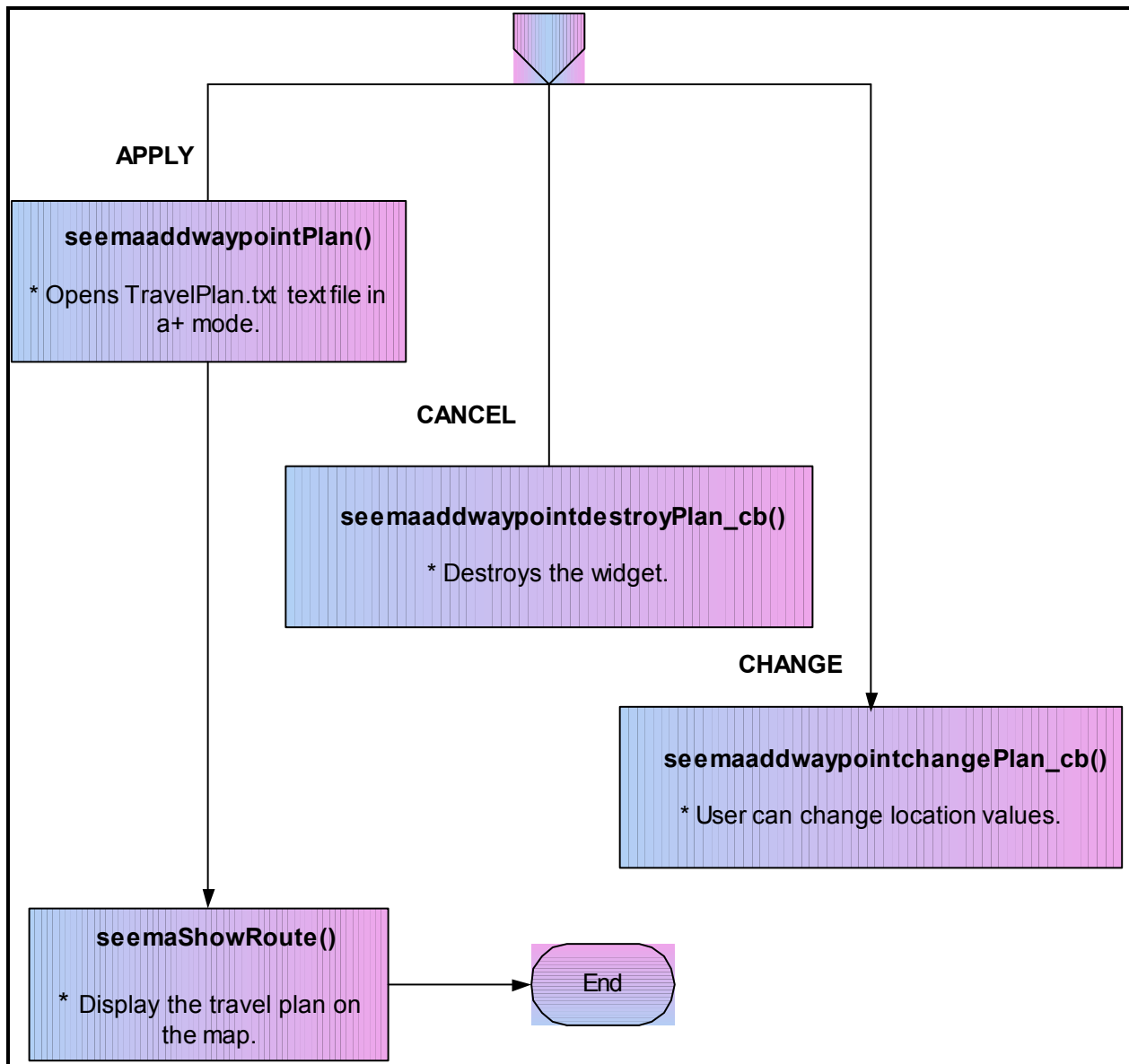


Figure 4.10: GPSDrive Activity diagram.

The final travel plan is shown in the following screen shot:

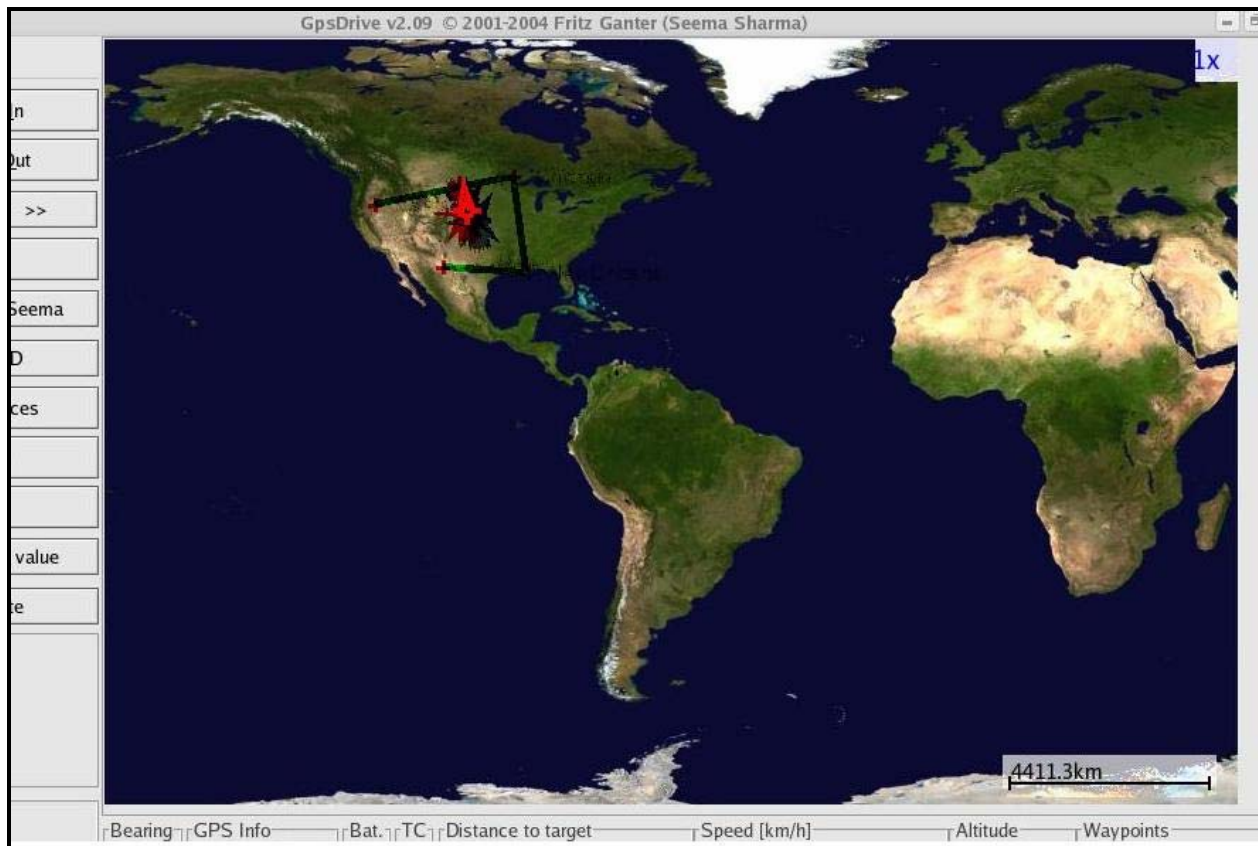


Figure 4.11: Travel Plan screenshot.

4.2 Querying randomized location-based questions

This section consists of two independently running client and server programs and is divided into four modules as follows:

- Server.java,
- Client.java,
- Protocol.java, and
- ClientProtocol.java.

Two classes implement the server program: *Server* and *Protocol*. *Server* contains the main method for server program and carries out the following functions:

- listens to the dedicated port,
- make connections with the client, and
- read from and write to the server socket.

Protocol serves up the randomized questions. It keeps track of the total number of questions being asked and randomizing their order. This class shows a chronological sequence of states that client and server need to follow in order to communicate.

To implement the client program, two classes have been used: *Client* and *ClientProtocol*. *Client* contains the main method for the client program. It establishes a connection with a server using client socket. It receives the data from and sends the data to the server through this socket. It works in conjunction with *ClientProtocol* class. *ClientProtocol* is used for automated answering of randomized questions that the server class asks.

4.2.1 Server

The server class creates a server socket and listens on port **5555** as shown in Figure 4.8 below:

```
// Server.java - creates server socket

ServerSocket serverSocket = null;
try {
    serverSocket = new ServerSocket(5555);
} catch (IOException e) {
    System.err.println("Could not listen on port: 5555.");
}
```

```
        System.exit(1);  
    }
```

Figure 4.12: Code snippet- server creating a server socket

After a successful connection to the port, the server accepts the connection from the client. The server waits for the client until it starts as shown in Figure 4.9 below:

```
// Server.java - creates client socket  
Socket clientSocket = null;  
try {  
    clientSocket = serverSocket.accept();  
} catch (IOException e) {  
    System.err.println("Accept failed....");  
    System.exit(1);  
}
```

Figure 4.13: Code snippet- server creating a client socket

Concurrently, the client requests connection on server's host and port. When the connection is established successfully, the server starts communicating with the client through the client socket. This is shown in the code fragment below:

```
// Server.java - server communicates with client  
PrintWriter out = new PrintWriter(clientSocket.getOutputStream(),  
                                   true);  
BufferedReader in = new BufferedReader( new InputStreamReader(  
                                         clientSocket.getInputStream()));  
String inputLine, outputLine;  
Protocol chatP = new Protocol();  
  
outputLine = chatP.processInput(null);  
out.println(outputLine);
```

```
while ((inputLine = in.readLine()) != null) {  
    outputLine = chatP.processInput(inputLine);  
    out.println(outputLine);  
    if (outputLine.equals("Authenticated."))  
        break;  
    else if (outputLine.equals("Not Authenticated.")) {  
        System.out.println(" ");  
        System.out.println("You are not a genuine user...");  
        System.out.println(" ");  
        break;  
    }  
}
```

Figure 4.14: Code snippet- client server communication

The server first gets the client socket's input and output stream, and opens buffered reader and printer writer on them respectively. Then it starts the communication by writing to the client socket. It creates a protocol object and calls its *processInput* method to get the first message: "Please Enter Travel Plan Filename: ", as shown in the screen shot below:

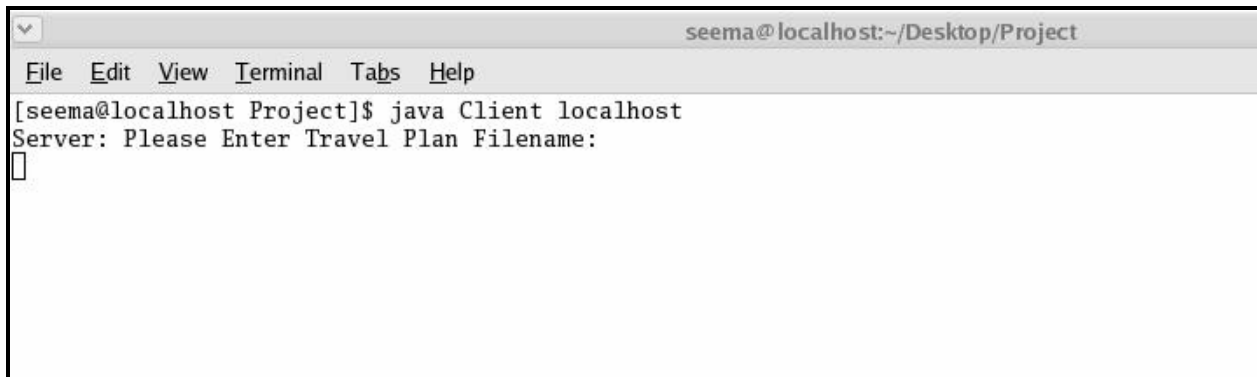


Figure 4.15: User input screen shot.

The server program then sends this message to client through client socket where it accepts the input from user. The user has no interaction with the system after this juncture as the interaction

becomes fully automated. The server program enters a finite loop and asks randomized location based questions like:

- How far is your next destination?
- Can you reach *xyz* location in *pqr* hours?
- How much time you need to reach *abc* location?

The client and server programs keep communicating until server either authenticates the client or denies it.

4.2.2 Protocol

Server program uses *Protocol* class, which implements the protocol used between client and server to communicate. *Protocol* makes sure that the communication between client and server is coherent. This class randomizes the questions by creating a random number whenever server calls *Protocol's processInput* method. This is shown in the code fragment below:

```
// Protocol.java - manages communication between client and server.

Random rand = new Random();
Hashtable ht = new Hashtable();
int kpl = 0;
while (true) {
    if (ht.size() == subsetQues)
        break;
    Integer ip = new Integer(rand.nextInt(totalQues));
    Integer ip1 = new Integer(kpl);
    kpl++;
    ht.put(ip, ip1);
} //end of while
```



```

Enumeration en = ht.elements();
array = new int[ht.size()];
int np = 0;

while (en.hasMoreElements()) {
    int kp = ((Integer)en.nextElement()).intValue();
    array[np] = kp;
    np++;
} //end of while

for (int ip = 0;ip<array.length;ip++) {
    System.err.print(array[ip]+" ");
}

for (int pp=0;pp<array.length;pp++) {
    if (array[pp]>0&array[pp]<10) {
        System.out.println("array[pp]: "+array[pp]);
        CREATEPOINT = array[pp]*0.10;
        break;
    }
}

```

Figure 4.16: Code snippet- generating random numbers and storing in array. The server asks random question based on the generated random point CREATEPOINT.

After creating the random number, *Protocol* opens *Waypoint.txt* text file that contains the complete travel plan. This file contains latitude, longitude and location-name fields. In order to compute the distances between the consecutive locations on earth, the following distance formula has been used:

```
// Distance formula between two locations A and B on earth with Lat A,
Lat B, and Long A, Long B as Latitudes and Longitudes respectively.

cos(AOB) = cos(Lat A) * cos(Lat B) * cos(Long B- Longi A) +
          sin(Lat A) * sin(Lat B) = x
AOB = acos(x)

Distance = Radius of earth * AOB in radians. UNIT: Miles
where, Radius of earth = 3959 miles.
```

Figure 4.17: Distance between two locations on the earth [18]

Protocol class contains the following set of questions:

- What is your next destination?
- Can you reach your next destination in 2 hrs?
- How far is your next destination?
- How much time you took to reach current location?
- How much time you need to reach location *xyz*?
- What was your previous destination?
- How far are you from you previous destination?
- Did you reach your current location from previous destination in 1 hr?
- How many miles is location *abc* from current location?

This class makes sure that there is no repetition of questions and keeps track of where server and client are in their talks.

4.2.3 Client

Client class implements the client program. *Client* starts after the server starts running. *Server* waits for the client connection to connect. The client program then creates a socket at the specified host and port as shown in the code snippet below:

```
// Client.java - creates client socket.

try {
    ChatSocket = new Socket(args[0], 5555);
    out = new PrintWriter(ChatSocket.getOutputStream(), true);
    in = new BufferedReader(new InputStreamReader(
        ChatSocket.getInputStream()));
} catch (UnknownHostException e) {
    System.err.println("Don't know about host: " + args[0]);
    System.exit(1);
} catch (IOException e) {
    System.err.println("Couldn't get I/O for the connection to: "
        +args[0]);
    System.exit(1);
}
```

Figure 4.18: Code snippet- client creating a client socket

The server program listens and accepts connection on port number 5555. After establishing the connections the *Client* enters a finite loop, which is a backbone of the client-server communication. The server first connects and asks questions to the client. The client program works in conjunction with the *ClientProtocol* class to answer the specific questions. User answers the first question, which is to enter the name of the Travel Plan in order to proceed. However, *Client* class along with *ClientProtocol* class answers the subsequent questions as this

is an automated program and doesn't require the involvement of the user beyond first point. The program comes out of the loop when server either authenticates or denies the user.

4.2.4 ClientProtocol

This class is used by the client program and is deployed to compute the answers to the randomized server's question. This program uses the same random point generated by *Protocol* class and answers the relevant question as shown in the code fragment below:

```
// ClientProtocol.java - uses same random point to compute answers.
try {
    File randPoint = new File("RandomPoint.txt");
    FileReader randPointFile = new FileReader (randPoint);
    BufferedReader randPt = new BufferedReader(randPointFile);
    rnd = randPt.readLine();
} catch (IOException e)
    System.err.println("Caught IOException: " + e.getMessage());
rdpt = Integer.valueOf(rnd);
RANDOMPOINT = rdpt.intValue();
```

Figure 4.19: Code snippet- client keeps track of the random point to answer relevant question.

ClientProtocol is consistent with *Protocol* in the sense that it computes the answer to the question asked by the server at one particular moment. It ensures coherent communication between client and server programs.

The sequence of events is demonstrated in the sequence diagram as shown in Figure 3.3 in the last chapter. The server class, client class, protocol class and client protocol class have been structured as shown in the class diagram below:

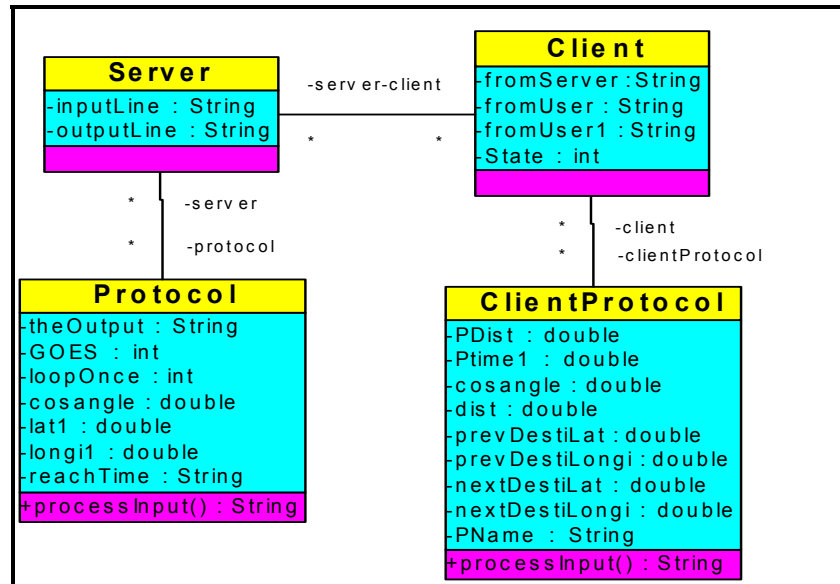


Figure 4.20: Class Diagram of Client Server Interaction.

The following screen shot shows the question answer session in between the client and the server, and how the server authenticates the client:

```

seema@localhost:~/Desktop/Project
File Edit View Terminal Tabs Help
[seema@localhost Project]$ java Client localhost
Server: Please Enter Travel Plan Filename:
WaypointGPS.txt
Client: WaypointGPS.txt

Server: What is your next destination?
Client: NewYork

Server: Can you reach your next destination in: 26.66826740449251 hrs?
Client: yes

Server: How far is your next Destination?
Client: 1600.0960442695507 miles.

Server: How much time you took to reach current location?
Client: 29.55681867792006 hrs.

Server: How much time you need to reach next destination?
Client: 26.66826740449251 hrs.

Server: What was your previous destination?
Client: Missouri

Server: How far are you from your previous destination?
Client: 1773.4091206752037 miles.

Server: Did you reach your current location from previous destination in: 29.55681867792006 hrs?
Client: yes

Server: How many miles is following point from current location?: A POINT, 47.902436 LAT, -107.69555199999999 LONGI.
Client: 531.5157700736181 miles.

Server: How much time is required to reach following point?: C POINT, 36.804472000000004 LAT, -81.989046 LONGI.
Client: 32.66016264689161 hrs.

Server: Authenticated.
  
```

Figure 4.22: Question and Answer log screen.

4.3 Implementation limitations

The limitations of the prototype are discussed below:

- Calculations consider a constant speed of 60 miles/hr.
- It considers a broad geographic area like a city and is not implemented on a street level.
- Should the user need to change route then this scheme fails.
- It considers only the straight lines and not curves.
- The places with location values over zero degree North and zero degree West are taken into consideration. Precisely, it is implemented on the North America continent and not on the entire globe.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, we presented a prototype implementation of a travel plan based Location Based Authentication model. The implementation was divided into two parts, that is, creating a travel plan and asking randomized location based questions to the client to authenticate a user. The travel plan was created using GTK toolkit on the Linux platform and second part was implemented in Java on the same platform. The limitations are constant speed, straight lines, etc but the prototype verifies the basic strategy behind travel-plan based location based authentication model.

Chapter 5. Conclusion

The three authentication factors, that is, “*something you know*”, “*something you have*”, “*something you are*”, are irrefutably fine features in authenticating the identity of an individual but they still do not suffice for very strong authentication. One cannot completely rely upon these aspects when authenticating an individual.

Location based authentication is an additional factor in providing strong authentication as a location characteristic can never be stolen or spoofed. It has provided a supplementary dimension in network security. It gives the owner the complete control of the information that only he has access to.

It is a strong deterrent to the hackers hiding behind surreptitious locations trying to access remote secured systems. It is very difficult for an intruder to gain control by pretending to be at the right location because the location data cannot be duplicated. GPS captures and stores the location information and is known to the authorized user only. An illegitimate user is oblivious of the respective locations and can only guess them to a certain extent. Consequently, he cannot answer precisely all the location specific questions thereby disclosing his fake identity. Location based questions make sure that only the genuine user is granted access to the confidential resources.

In spite of many advantages, location based authentication has a few flaws. Firstly, the accuracy of GPS is very critical to the success of this scheme. Secondly, the GPS signals are weak inside the buildings and the basements. Thirdly, it cannot inform the user when it is not reliable.

Fourthly, there is a delay in signal reception in the vicinity of tall buildings due to reflection leading to inaccurate information. Lastly, the bad weather conditions affect the potential of this scheme.

Thus, we integrated the travel plan concept, which makes hacking more difficult. The travel plan scheme is highly foolproof in the sense that it does not let the hacker know the authorized locations. Only the user and the server that is inside a secured place, like a military base, know the projected route. Even if the hacker comes to know about the current location of the user, he will not be able to answer the questions based on the succeeding locations, as he is not aware of the projected route. It is highly unlikely for the hacker to know the travel plan filename that is inside the user's brain, thereby making it very hard to masquerade as a legitimate user. There are few limitations like constant speed, straight lines, etc but the prototype verifies the basic strategy behind travel-plan based location based authentication model.

Chapter 6. Future Work

The avenues for future work on this application are:

- Curves in travel plan in addition to straight lines.
- Implementation on a PDA in addition to laptop.
- Considering variable speed instead of 60 miles/hr.
- Implementing on a street level in addition to high level.
- Besides latitude and longitude fields, an altitude field can also be added.
- Ask non-GPS related questions based on landmarks like:
 - **Can you see the building with a red roof?** The user can answer **Yes** or **No** if he sees or doesn't see the building with a red roof.
 - **What is the color and material of the wall on your right?** The user can input the wall color and its material. For example, color can be red, white, etc and material can be wood, brick, cement, etc.
 - **Where were you between 13:00 hrs and 13:20 hrs yesterday?** The user will input the location name where he was during a particular time period.
 - **In which direction is the white building pointing to with respect to your current location?** The direction can be North, South, East, West, North East, South West, etc. The user will input the direction with respect to the building.
 - **What is the temperature in your current environment?** The user enters the temperature of his current location.

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Vita

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