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Kerrache, CA.; Lagraa, N.; Hussain, R.; Ahmed, SH.; Benslimane, A.; Tavares De Araujo Cesariny Calafate, CM.; Cano, J.... (2019). TACASHI: Trust-Aware Communication Architecture for Social Internet of Vehicles. IEEE Internet of Things. 6(4):5870-5877. <https://doi.org/10.1109/JIOT.2018.2880332>



The final publication is available at

<https://doi.org/10.1109/JIOT.2018.2880332>

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Additional Information

TACASHI: Trust-Aware Communication Architecture for Social Internet of Vehicles

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Abstract—The Internet of Vehicles (IoV) has emerged as a new spin-off research theme from traditional vehicular ad hoc networks. It employs vehicular nodes connected to other smart objects equipped with a powerful multisensor platform, communication technologies, and IP-based connectivity to the Internet, thereby creating a possible social network called Social IoV (SIOV). Ensuring the required trustiness among communicating entities is an important task in such heterogeneous networks, especially for safety-related applications. Thus, in addition to securing intervehicle communication, the driver/passengers honesty factor must also be considered, since they could tamper the system in order to provoke unwanted situations. To bridge the gaps between these two paradigms, we envision to connect SIOV and online social networks (OSNs) for the purpose of estimating the drivers and passengers honesty based on their OSN profiles. Furthermore, we compare the current location of the vehicles with their estimated path based on their historical mobility profile. We combine SIOV, path-based and OSN-based trusts to compute the overall trust for different vehicles and their current users. As a result, we propose a trust-aware communication architecture for social IoV (TACASHI). TACASHI offers a trust-aware social in-vehicle and intervehicle communication architecture for SIOV considering also the drivers honesty factor based on OSN. Extensive simulation results evidence the efficiency of our proposal, ensuring high detection ratios >87% and high accuracy with reduced error ratios, clearly outperforming previous proposals, known as RTM and AD-IoV.

Index Terms—Human factor, Social Internet of Vehicles (SIOV), trust, vehicular ad hoc network (VANET).

I. INTRODUCTION

MANY applications have been realized through vehicular networks as a result of communication among

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vehicles and/or the infrastructure [1]. These applications are abstractly classified into safety and nonsafety related applications. The former class of applications exhibit stringent requirements, such as delay-critical, security-critical, trust-critical, and decision-critical features, whereas the latter class of applications have relatively less stringent requirements. Nevertheless, many of these applications represent a decision-aided system where the final decision (usually taken by the human drivers) have a direct effect on the outcome of the decision. Therefore, the trustworthiness of the information and the source of information is of prime importance.

In Internet of Vehicles (IoV) paradigm, each vehicle is considered as a smart object equipped with a powerful multisensor platform, communications technologies, computation units, IP-based connectivity to the Internet, and to other vehicles either directly or indirectly. In addition, a vehicle in IoV is envisioned with a multicomunication model, enabling the interactions among intravehicle components, intervehicles, vehicle-to-infrastructure, and vehicles-to-people. IoV also enables the acquisition and processing of large amount of data from versatile geographical areas via intelligent vehicles computing platforms, to offer various categories of services for road safety and other services to drivers and passengers [2].

To this end, the communication of vehicles with different entities in IoV exhibit social features at par with the traditional social networks where the nodes share information. More precisely, Social IoV (SIOV) are a breed of socially aware ephemeral networks [3], where vehicular nodes share/exchange information with different entities and thus-forth comparable with the traditional social networks. On the other hand, with the emergence of 5G technology, almost all Internet services can be accessed anytime and anywhere [4]. In addition, vehicles' mobility patterns can be easily estimated through its history profiles and the drivers' social interactions and hobbies. Hence, the SIOV system can trigger a possible event, which would advocate for verification of the situation, resulting in stolen vehicle alert an alert or even, text the vehicle's owner. It is indeed possible that there could be false alarms; however, more insights are needed to this issue.

To fill the gaps, in this paper, we propose a novel SIOV communication architecture that takes advantage of online social networks (OSNs) to enhance the SIOV trust establishment by considering the human and location-related honesty (LRH). We leverage the group-trust metric adopted by Advogato,¹

¹[Online]. Available: <http://www.advogato.org/>

77 attempting to determine the maximum set of trusted peers,
 78 while minimizing the influence of unreliable dishonest peers
 79 during communication [5]. Afterward, an honesty-related clas-
 80 sification (i.e., good, bad, or compromised) is associated to
 81 every node (driver/passenger) and vehicle location depending
 82 on the Advogato classification of this node (i.e., either trusted
 83 or distrusted) and the location tracking system, respectively.
 84 In addition, in-vehicle interdevice communications are secured
 85 using a lightweight technique based on Chaotic Maps.

86 Furthermore, the intervehicle trust is also estimated,
 87 combined with the discrete recommendations from RSUs
 88 and trusted authorities (TAs). Finally, the Advogato results
 89 are used to probabilistically identify honest and dishonest
 90 drivers/passengers. Using this strategy, the aim is not just to
 91 reduce both the detection error ratios and also the ratio of
 92 doubtful nodes that the intervehicle trust could not classify
 93 them to either trusted or distrusted peers but also to prevent
 94 unwanted situations, such as stolen vehicles thanks to the LRH
 95 estimation.

96 To summarize, the contributions of this paper are as follows.

- 97 1) We propose a trust-aware communication architecture
 98 for social IoV (TACASHI), which offers a trust-aware
 99 social in-vehicle and intervehicle communication archi-
 100 tecture for SIOVs.
- 101 2) Secure in-vehicle communications are guaranteed
 102 through Chaotic Maps.
- 103 3) Drivers' honesty consideration using their OSN profiles
 104 reached through a trusted middleware.
- 105 4) Vehicles movement-related honesty estimation through
 106 the use of their historical mobility patterns and a path
 107 prediction algorithm.

108 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In
 109 Section II, we present some background in vehicular ad hoc
 110 network (VANET), IoV, OSNs, and trust establishment in both
 111 kinds of networks. Afterward, in Section III, we present an
 112 overview of our proposal, followed by its details in Section IV.
 113 TACASHI's dishonesty detection process is then discussed in
 114 Section V. Section VI presents our simulation environment,
 115 followed by the discussion of the results obtained. Finally, the
 116 conclusions are drawn at the end of this paper.

117 II. STATE-OF-THE-ART

118 Trust establishment in vehicular networks is essential for
 119 the realization of efficient secure applications. Various solu-
 120 tions have adopted trust modeling to enhance the intervehicle
 121 communications for VANETs, IoV, and SIOV. In this section,
 122 we provide an overview of the main features of socially aware
 123 networking, as well as the existing trust-based solutions in
 124 these domains.

125 A. Social Trust and Socially Aware Networking

126 The proliferation of hand-held devices demands mobile car-
 127 riers to provide instant connectivity. Moreover, the movements
 128 of the users are generally related to their social behaviors and
 129 relationships, and the mobility patterns of mobile devices car-
 130 ried by these users are strongly coupled with their movements.
 131 Thus, mobile networks are nowadays more human-centric. As

a result, a new field called socially aware networking has sur-
 faced that takes the human behavior into account [6]. This new
 paradigm of social-awareness is applicable to many types of
 internode interaction-based networks, such as ad hoc networks
 and its different breeds.

137 B. Trust in OSNs

138 As aforementioned, trust establishment is primarily impor-
 139 tant for enhancing the security of different networks and
 140 many solutions used trust establishment mechanisms for
 141 OSNs [7], [8]. The general trust establishment solutions for
 142 OSNs are based on either Advogato trust metric [5] or
 143 PageRank-based solutions [9].

144 Generally, trust for OSNs can be classified using three com-
 145plementary phases: 1) trust information collection; 2) trust
 146 evaluation; and 3) trust information dissemination. To identify
 147 how honest and trustful is a profile owner, social trust is based
 148 on a scalar estimation using the personal profile information,
 149 which includes user identity and interactions with other users.
 150 Once this social trust is estimated, it will be provided to the
 151 end users in different forms and for different purposes.

152 C. Trust in VANETs and IoV

153 In the VANET context, trust management schemes are gen-
 154 erally classified as entity-based, content-based, and hybrid
 155 models following the targeted adversary, which can be dis-
 156 honest entities, malicious messages, or both [10]. Several
 157 works in the literature addressed entity-based trust models.
 158 Yang's [11] solution is based on revocation of the nodes that
 159 sent falsified or fake information using different techniques.
 160 Haddadou *et al.* [12] chose to associate a credit value to
 161 each neighbor vehicle that will increase or decrease depend-
 162 ing on the messages credibility of the concerned neighbor's.
 163 Hence, this credit will be quickly decreased when replaying
 164 or injecting new (potentially false or malicious) messages.

165 For content-based trust management, Gurung *et al.* [13]
 166 adopted three metrics to classify the received messages into
 167 either legal or malicious messages; these metrics are con-
 168 tent similarity, content conflict, and routing path similarity.
 169 However, in addition to its high time complexity, this solution
 170 does not take into account the high level of mobility exhibited
 171 by VANET nodes and the node sparsity. On the other hand,
 172 our previous hybrid models [14], [15] focus mainly on facing
 173 denial-of-service and coalition attacks in VANETs using the
 174 standardized messaging service. However, the additional traf-
 175 fic generated by the recommendation requests/responses might
 176 affect some safety-related applications. Additionally, few solu-
 177 tions addressing trust issues in the IoV have also been recently
 178 published [16].

179 Hossain *et al.* [17] proposed a trust model for collect-
 180 ing evidence from IoV infrastructures, store them in vehicles
 181 tamper-proof devices, and then start intervehicle trust-based
 182 communication. The main limitation of such approach is that
 183 the behavior of vehicles may change. Thus, trust information
 184 values should remain static over time. In addition, authors
 185 did not evaluate the performance in a realistic environment
 186 implementing the different low-layer features of VANETs.

187 Unlike existing trust models, Gai *et al.* [18] proposed a
 188 trust management system for SIOV called RTM where each
 189 node stores its own reputation information rated by others
 190 during past transactions. They introduced a CA server to
 191 ensure the integrity and the undeniability of the trust informa-
 192 tion. However, besides the additional cost of the introduced
 193 server, this scheme may not be effective in rural scenarios or
 194 low-density scenarios. Furthermore, as like in other existing
 195 solutions, the human honesty factor is not considered.

196 D. Trust Computation in Vehicular Networks and OSNs

197 Due to the distributed and ephemeral nature of vehicu-
 198 lar networks, every vehicle locally evaluates its neighbors'
 199 trust. This trust computation can be carried out either in a
 200 scalar way, using the piggybacked opinions within exchanged
 201 messages, or through clustered and group-based collaboration
 202 among vehicles located in a same area [19]. Whereas, trust
 203 in OSNs requires having a sink or a third trusted party who
 204 is responsible for evaluating the trust for different peers. This
 205 sink can either handle the whole task of trust computation, or
 206 it can distribute such task among secondary sinks, which are
 207 typically community leaders [20].

208 In the light of the existing works, there is a still a huge
 209 gap between the requirements of the trust-based communi-
 210 cation in SIOV and the existing solutions. To fill the gaps,
 211 we propose a novel trust-based SIOV communication archi-
 212 tecture (namely, TACASHI), which besides the intervehicle
 213 trust establishments evaluates also their drivers and move-
 214 ment honesty. Furthermore, TACASHI also offers a secure and
 215 lightweight in-vehicle communication strategy.

216 III. TACASHI OVERVIEW

217 Establishing SIOV trust with the incorporation of the human
 218 honesty factor should be achieved by relying on third TAs
 219 as intermediaries for this information, since these authorities
 220 are the only ones having the possibility to trace/track vehi-
 221 cles identities together with their drivers/owners. Accounting
 222 for the vehicles' identity is not a problem, as every vehi-
 223 cle should have a valid certificate and a set of pseudonyms
 224 provided by the TA. However, matching the driver identity
 225 and social account with the vehicle identity involves the use
 226 of other intermediate tools, such as digital fingerprint, eyes
 227 and voice recognition systems, or a subscriber identification
 228 module, thus imposing more requirements onto the system.

229 Due to the high cost of smart vehicles, and to the probable
 230 lack of RSUs in rural environments, Android-based platforms,
 231 including smartphones and tablets have recently emerged as
 232 an alternative solution to provide vehicular communications.²
 233 This way, any trusted third authority can be reached using
 234 different cellular network technologies. This new research area
 235 is know as heterogeneous vehicular networking [21].

236 Fig. 1 represents an overview of our proposed SIOV archi-
 237 tecture in which, besides passengers, vehicles, roadside units,
 238 and TAs, we also involve OSNs. The latter are accessed

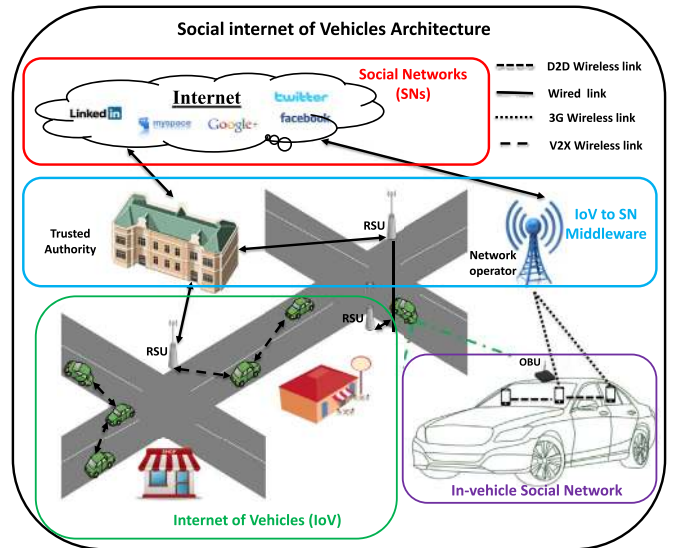


Fig. 1. Proposed SIOV architecture.

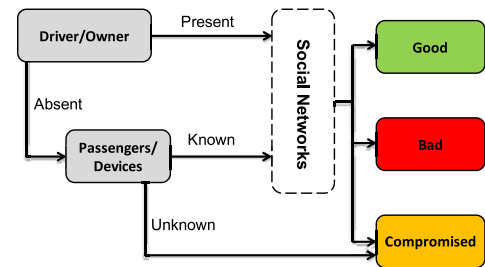


Fig. 2. Driver and passengers honesty factor.

through a trusted middleware provided by the network operator, RSUs, or TA like the City Hall.

TACASHI architecture involves five main actors: 1) the person registered as the vehicle owner; 2) the passengers within the vehicle represented by their connected devices; 3) the vehicles themselves; 4) road side units and TAs; and 5) the OSN accounts connected to the driver and passengers' devices. In addition, a path prediction algorithm [22] is also used to estimate and judge the current vehicle locations.

248 IV. TACASHI'S TRUST ESTABLISHMENT

249 As mentioned in the previous sections, our proposal involves
 250 drivers' honesty (see Fig. 2), vehicles' honesty (see Fig. 3),
 251 and vehicles' LRH (see Fig. 4). Before detailing how these
 252 factors are computed in the following sections, the next
 253 section presents the proposed in-vehicle interdevice secure
 254 communication process.

255 A. In-Vehicle Interdevices Authentication Process

256 In order to enable OSN-based trust, while preserving
 257 drivers/owners privacy, the department of motor vehicles
 258 (DMV) initializes the OBU by performing a number of oper-
 259 ations. First, the driver enters its anonymized OSN account
 260 and the DMV registers it against the user. DMV also issues a
 261 number of pseudonyms to user a , i.e., $\{ID_1^a, ID_2^a, \dots, ID_n^a\}$.

²The SmartCarPhone project. [Online]. Available: <http://www.grc.upv.es/SmartCarPhone/>

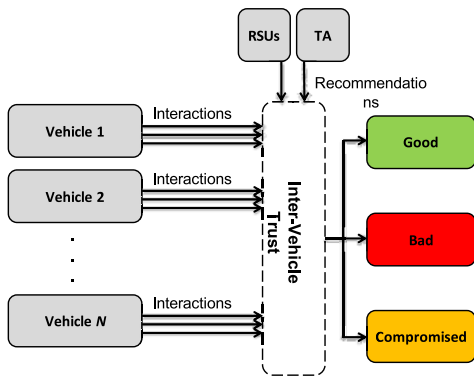


Fig. 3. Vehicles honesty factor.

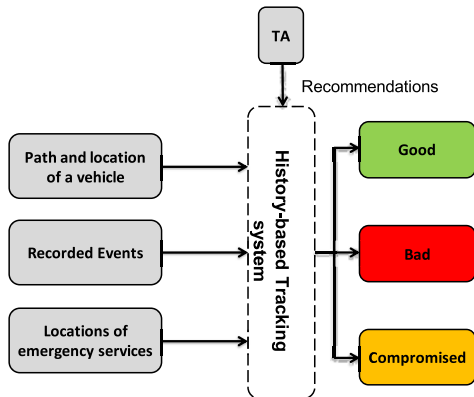


Fig. 4. LRH factor.

262 In-vehicle device/passengers in TACASHI are required to
 263 pass the authentication process before gaining access to the
 264 different network operations. If these devices fail to be authen-
 265 ticated, they are directly classified as compromised devices, as
 266 shown in Fig. 2.

267 We assume that all the devices in a network have an identity
 268 (ID_i), and get the secure token from the TA; this token is
 269 assumed to be received through a secure channel. All the nodes
 270 compute the public key $(x, Tk(x))$ and private key k using
 271 Chaotic Maps based on Chebyshev polynomials, which are
 272 known to be less energy consuming than RSA and ECC [23].

273 Consider the communication between devices A and B
 274 with their identities, i.e., ID_a and ID_b , and their public and
 275 private key pairs are $\{(x, Tk_a(x)), k_a\}$ and $\{(x, Tk_b(x)), k_b\}$,
 276 respectively.

277 If node A wants to securely communicate with node B, it
 278 initiates the authentication request as follows.

- 279 1) Node A selects a prime number p and computes the
 280 value of $T_p(x)$.
- 281 2) Node A sends the message $ma = \{H_a, C_a\}$ to node B.
- 282 3) After getting the message $ma = \{H_a, C_a\}$ from node A,
 283 B decrypts C_a with the key $k = T_t(x)$ received from TTP,
 284 and compares the value of PW from the decrypted mes-
 285 sage with its obtained PW value from TTP. If there is a
 286 match, then node B concludes that A is an authenticated
 287 node.
- 288 4) Afterward, it checks the message integrity by computing
 289 the hash value, and compares it with H_a . If there is

a match, then B concludes that the message was not
 290 altered during the communication. 291

- 292 5) Now node B selects the big prime value b and computes
 293 the values of $T_b(x)$, K_s , H_b , and C_b .
- 294 6) Node B sends the message $mb = \{H_b, C_b, T_b(x)\}$ to
 295 node A.
- 296 7) After getting the message $mb = \{H_b, C_b, T_b(x)\}$ from
 297 node B, A computes the value of $K_s = T_{pb}(x) =$
 298 $T_p(T_b(x))$ by using $T_b(x)$ from message mb . Then, node
 299 A decrypts C_b with the key K_s , and compares the value
 300 of PW from the decrypted message with its obtained
 301 PW value from TTP. If there is a match, then node A
 302 concludes that B is an authenticated node.
- 303 8) Afterward, it checks the message integrity by computing
 304 the hash value, and compares it with H_b . If there is
 305 a match, then B concludes that the message was not
 306 altered during the communication.
- 307 9) Finally, both the nodes A and B agree on an identical
 308 session key K_s and further communication is encrypted
 309 and decrypted by session key K_s .

B. Intervehicle Trust 310

Intervehicle trust is composed of two main metrics: 1) direct
 311 trust and 2) indirect trust. 312

The interaction-based trust, i.e., $(DirectT(i, j))$, of the j th
 313 vehicle as evaluated by the i th vehicle, is the ratio of honest
 314 actions $\#H(i, j)$ to the total number of actions, i.e., both honest
 315 and dishonest $\#All(i, j)$. It follows that the interaction-based
 316 trust is calculated as: 317

$$DirectT(i, j) = \frac{\#H(i, j)}{\#All(i, j)} \cdot \left[1 - \frac{1}{H(i, j) + 1} \right]. \quad (1) \quad 318$$

From (1), we can see that $1 - (1/[H(i, j) + 1])$ increases
 319 with respect to the increased number of honest actions in such
 320 a way that several honest actions are needed to increase the
 321 interaction-based trust. 322

In our proposal, the intervehicle exchanged opinions (i.e.,
 323 Indirect trust) are sent together with the unencrypted part of
 324 exchanged data messages. To favor the opinions sourced by
 325 vehicles considered as trusted, the received recommendations
 326 (opinions) sourced by a vehicle k concerning the behavior of
 327 a vehicle j [i.e., $IndirectT_k(i, j)$] are combined with respect to
 328 the honesty level of the recommender k , as follows: 329

$$IndirectT_k(i, j) = [DirectT(i, k) \cdot Recom(k, j)]^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (2) \quad 330$$

Then, the different vehicles' recommendation about the j th
 331 vehicle are combined together to find the global vehicles'
 332 recommendation value for that vehicle $RV(i, j)$, i.e., 333

$$IndirectT(i, j) = \left[\prod_{|Recom|}^k IndirectT_k(i, j) \right]^{\frac{1}{|Recom|}}. \quad (3) \quad 334$$

C. Road Side Units Trust 335

Simultaneously with the different intervehicle interactions,
 336 whenever a vehicle joins the communication range of an RSU,
 337 it sends its different neighbors overall trust to the road side
 338

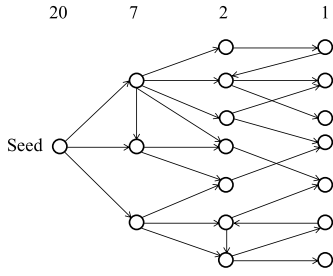


Fig. 5. Capacity assignment example.

unit. Afterward, the RSU combines all vehicles reports to build a quasi-global evaluation of the behavior of vehicles moving around.

Following (4), the roadside units compute their opinion regarding any vehicle j through the combination of the reports delivered by the other vehicles, i.e.,

$$RR(RSU, j) = \left[\prod_n^i \text{Tr}(i, j) \right]^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (4)$$

where n represents the number of vehicles having previously evaluated the j th vehicle.

D. Location-Related Trust

TACASHI classifies the LRH of a given vehicle through a similarity measurement between the current position and the estimated position, based on their historical mobility patterns [22]. Social events, such as soccer games, festivities, and emergency cases are also taken into account for the path estimation (see Fig. 4).

E. Social Networks Trust: Using the Advogato Trust Metric to Identify Trustable People

Various social networking aspects have been studied by an online, free software developers community called Advogato. This community, launched in 1999, has adopted a group-trust metric trying to determine the largest set of honest peers, while minimizing the influence of unreliable/dishonest ones [5]. Advogato uses a social graph to represent the different peers and relations in the network. Each peer in the graph represents a user's account, whereas a directed edge represents a relation (also called "certification").

The Advogato trust metric stands on the network flow. It first assigns a "capacity" C_i to every peer i , which represents a nonincreasing function of the distance separating the peer i and the seed, as returned by the considered searching (breadth-first algorithm). For instance, "advogato.org" assigns a 20 capacity for the seed, then 7 for the following two levels, 2 for peers belonging to the third level, and so on (see Fig. 5).

Each node A is then divided into two sides, i.e., A^- and A^+ , with a capacity-1 edge from A to the sink, and a capacity of (C_i-1) edge from A^- to A^+ , respectively. Finally, the certification of A to B becomes an infinite-capacity edge from A^+ to B^- (see Fig. 6).

To find the maximum flow [24], Advogato is based on the Ford-Fulkerson algorithm (see Fig. 7). Since Ford-Fulkerson

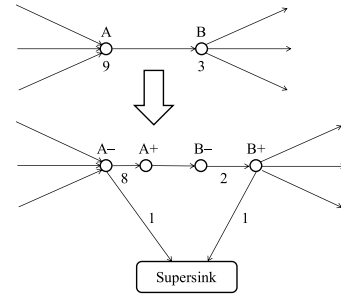


Fig. 6. Conversion into a single source, single sink.

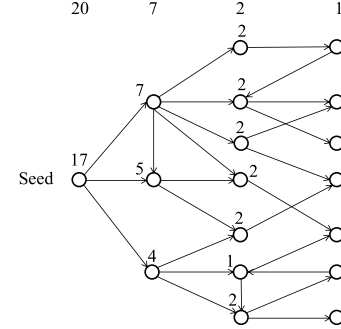


Fig. 7. Network flow computation.

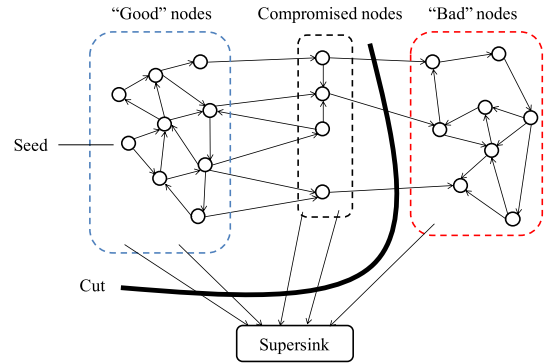


Fig. 8. Nodes classification.

selects the shortest increasing path from the current node to the seed, any node having a flow from x^- to x^+ possesses also a flow from x^- to the sink. Ford-Fulkerson takes $O(|f+||E|)$, where f is the maximum flow. In this graph, $f+$ is the number of accepted peers.

Concerning the trusted accounts identification, an adversary model should be defined first. Then, the minimum cut is created to distinguish between trusted, doubted, and compromised accounts, as shown in Fig. 8. The graph's minimum cut (i.e., a partition of the nodes of a graph into two or more— k -cut—disjoint subsets that are joined by at least one edge) is the one that is minimal in some sense (trust value in our case). We note that the Advogato trust metric has a wide range of applications, meaning that edges and connections can be defined in different ways, including, for instance, communities, friendship, shared posts, comments, or likes.

Algorithm 1 Overall Intervehicle Trust Computation

```

1: if There is an RSU OR traffic is delay-sensitive then
2:    $Tr(i, j) = [DirectT(i, j) \cdot RV(i, j)]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ ;
3: else
4:   if There is an RSU AND the exchanged traffic is
   partially delay-sensitive then
5:      $Tr(i, j) = [DirectT(i, j) \cdot RR(j)]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ ;
6:   else
7:     if There is an RSU AND the exchanged traffic is
   delay-tolerant then
8:        $Tr(i, j) = TAD(j)$ ;
9:     else
10:      if  $j$  is a dubious node (i.e.,  $0.4 \geq Tr(i, j) \geq 0.6$ )
then
11:         $Tr(i, j) = Tr(i, j) + HHF(j) + LRH(j)$ ;
12:      end if
13:    end if
14:  end if
15: end if

```

V. TACASHI'S DISHONESTY DETECTION PROCESS

In addition to the direct and recommendation-based trust, TACASHI involves also the driver's honesty factor based on their OSN profiles. This information is received through the trusted middleware, which for our case can be the TA, the deployed RSUs, or even network operators. Furthermore, the vehicles' LRH is also taken into account in the overall trust evaluation.

If a vehicle has already demonstrated its honesty, and thereby benefits from an high trust value, there is no need to take the driver's honesty factor into account, and vice versa. Thus, nodes requiring the human honesty factor as complementary data should be only those nodes whose behavior is unclear/compromised.

Depending on the OSNs, and having trust computed through the Advogato trust metric, the TA matches, for each vehicle identity, an honesty factor called honesty human factor (HHF), which refers to the human trust factor of the current driver. This factor varies within the range of $[-0.5, -0.2]$ for the drivers judged as bad, $[-0.2, 0]$ for the drivers judged as compromised, and $[0, +0, 2]$ for the drivers judged as good. Whereas, the overall trust is in the range of $[0, 1]$.

In addition, using a path prediction algorithm [22], the LRH factor is also considered.

Similarly to the HHF, the LRH varies in the range of $[-0.5, -0.2]$ for the positions judged as bad, $[-0.2, 0]$ for the positions that are compromised, and $[0, +0, 2]$ for the positions judged as good. Once the soliciting vehicles receive the HHF and LRH for neighbors they have concerns about, the trust computation will follow Algorithm 1. In this algorithm, $Tr(i, j)$ is the global intervehicle trust, $RV(i, j)$ is the recommendation coming from a nearby vehicle, $RR(RSU, j)$ is the recommendation requested and received from a nearby road side unit, and, finally, $RT(TA, j)$ is the TA evaluation about the j th vehicle's honesty.

The trust evaluation $Tr(i, j)$ is assessed after every update to keep it within the range $[0, 1]$. Using this strategy, the number of dubious nodes will be reduced. Thus, a decision about the vehicles' trustiness can be made. The latter is made by using the different vehicles reports to generate a blacklist of the detected misbehaving vehicles, *i.e.*,

$$RSU\text{Blacklist} = \forall j \quad (5)$$

$$\frac{\text{Card}(j/ \text{Tr}(i, j) \leq 0.5)}{\text{Card}(\text{RC}(j))} \geq D\text{Threshold} \quad (6)$$

where $D\text{Threshold}$ represents the threshold beyond which a vehicle is blacklisted. This threshold is compared with the ratio of negative reports about the j th vehicle to the total number of reports.

The TA's recommendations are in fact decisions that must be followed by the different sublevels (RSUs and vehicles). It makes a decision $TAD(j)$ about the j th vehicle. TA decisions are used only for nondelay-sensitive applications, as they involve all the lower level evaluations, thus implying additional computation delays. Therefore, the TA decision is computed according to

$$TAD(j) = \left[\prod_n^i RR(RSU_{i,j}) \right]^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (7)$$

where n represents the number of RSUs having previously evaluated the j th vehicle.

VI. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

Our proposal is implemented in the NS-2.35 simulator. In addition, we used the same dataset as in [25]. This dataset, called Epinions [26], has 131 828 nodes (users) and 841 372 edges (honest or malicious). We also consider that 30% of the edges represent a distrust relationship, and they are toward the 10% and 20% vehicles considered as dishonest. Hence, we considered in every case 10% of false evaluations (false positives). We selected the first 400 nodes that have more than 40 out-neighbors, and we randomly matched their identities to 400 vehicle identities. Thus, every vehicle driver is represented by a node within the used dataset. Furthermore, in every vehicle, we have four devices, being one of them assumed unknown.

For VANET settings, the traffic is generated using the Citymob mobility model [27]. In our case, we used a 4 km² map of Laghouat city in Algeria. The generated vehicles path of 80% of the vehicles to enable the paths prediction. For the 20% remaining vehicles, half of them are moving toward predefined positions called emergency location and event location (*i.e.*, hospital, soccer stadium, and so on), and the other half are assumed to move to unpredictable positions. The scenario has four randomly deployed RSUs. We run our simulation for a duration of 1000 s 15 times to reach the 95% confidence level. In addition, the vehicles communication range is set 300 m and they are moving with a speed varying in the range of $[0, 80]$ km/h. Finally, ten randomly chosen vehicles send four data packets of 256 bytes each every second.

In the following, we will compare the obtained dishonesty detection ratios to ones of RTM [18] and AD-IoV [28].

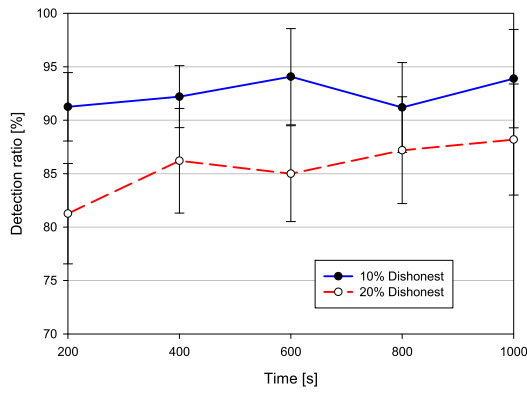


Fig. 9. Detection performance without the drivers honesty consideration.

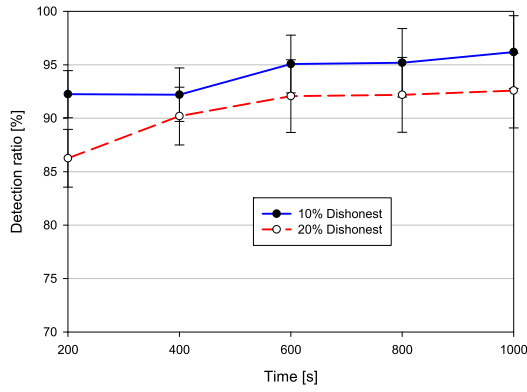


Fig. 10. Detection performance when considering the HF.

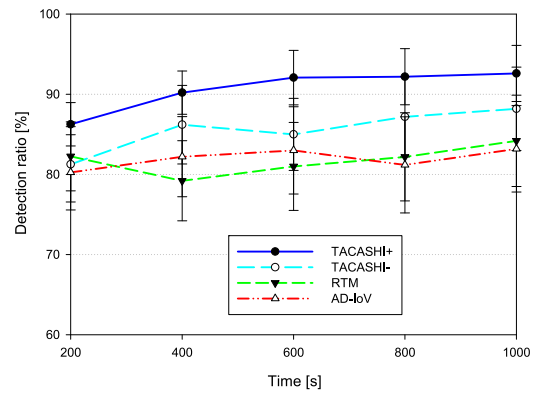


Fig. 11. Detection performance of TACASHI with and without considering the HF compared to RTM and AD-IoV.

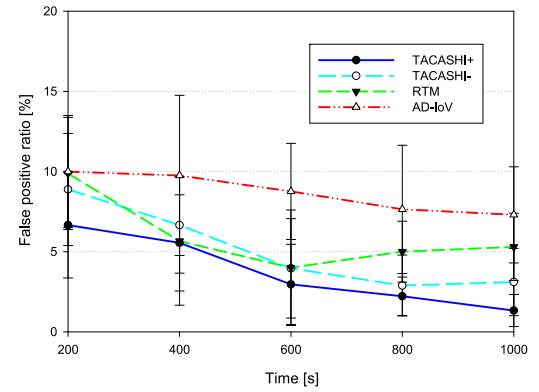


Fig. 12. Generated false positives by TACASHI with and without considering the HF compared to RTM and AD-IoV.

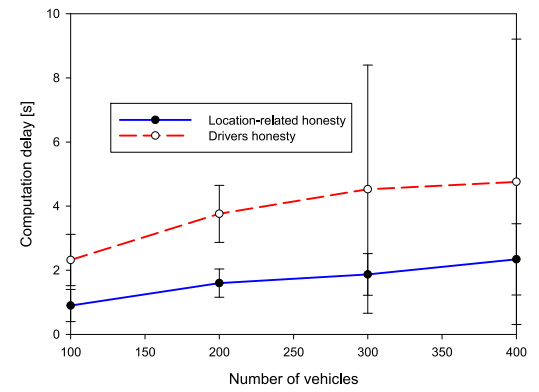


Fig. 13. TACASHI's introduced delay to compute HF and the LRH.

483 Afterward, we will analyze the generated error ratios with and
 484 without the use of our proposed OSN-aided trust architecture.

485 For the detection performance we also studied both cases,
 486 with and without human factor considerations. Fig. 9 rep-
 487 represents the obtained detection ratio without using HFF for
 488 10% and 20% of dishonest vehicles with respect to time,
 489 respectively. It shows that, although the average detection ratio
 490 exceeds the 90% for 10% of malicious nodes, the confidence
 491 interval is quite large, reaching the 5% at the end of the vari-
 492 ous runs. This is mainly because of the doubtful behavior of
 493 some peers that must be classified as behaving good or bad.
 494 On the other hand, when the human factor is considered (see
 495 Fig. 10), the detection ratio reaches up to 96% for 10% of
 496 dishonest vehicles, and 93% for the 20% case, with clearly
 497 more reduced confidence intervals.

498 Compared to the detection ratios achieved by RTM and
 499 AD-IoV, both TACASHI versions with (i.e., TACASHI+) and
 500 without (i.e., TACASHI-) driver's honesty consideration
 501 achieved higher detection ratios. Even more, with TACASHI+
 502 the obtained detection ratios reach almost optimal perfor-
 503 mance, as depicted in Fig. 11. This is mainly due to the
 504 incorporation of OSN to enhance the trust establishment and,
 505 thus, reduce the detection error ratios.

506 Confirming the previous results, the number of generated
 507 false positives with respect of time is optimized by more than
 508 3%, with more reduced confidence intervals compared to the
 509 case where the driver factor is not considered (see Fig. 12).
 510 However, the generated error ratio by both RTM and AD-IoV

is quite high, reaching up to 10% for AD-IoV, which may
 cause some undesired situations.

Although the use of the OSNs and path prediction algo-
 rithms through the trusted middleware has enhanced the
 overall trust establishment, it is still prone to cause some
 additional delay which becomes unacceptable for safety appli-
 cations. Fig. 13 presents the required computation delay of the
 drivers' honesty from OSNs and vehicles LRH through the
 trusted middleware. It shows that, on average, and based on
 the drivers honesty estimation, our proposal requires up to 5 s
 in the worst case. Indeed, this delay is not acceptable for IoV
 safety applications, but still it is considered reduced enough to

523 prevent terrorist attacks or stolen vehicles. For the latter case,
524 simulation results show that we can decide whether the cur-
525 rent position of a given vehicle is normal or abnormal within
526 less than 2 s in the worst case.

527 VII. CONCLUSION

528 IoV is composed of smart IP-based objects having connec-
529 tivity to both the Internet and to other vehicles, forming a
530 social network called SIOVs. Ensuring secure communication
531 among these vehicles and their embedded devices is an essen-
532 tial requirement of SIOV, especially when these communica-
533 tions are related to safety applications. In this paper, we aimed
534 at the trust-driven security mechanism for SIOV and proposed
535 a novel trust-aware social in-vehicle and intervehicle commu-
536 nications architecture for SIOVs called TACASHI. In addition
537 to the intervehicle trust establishment and lightweight secure
538 in-vehicle communications, TACASHI also involves OSNs to
539 estimate the honesty of vehicles' drivers. Furthermore, the his-
540 torical mobility traces of the vehicles are stored and then
541 used to estimate their future path, while also considering
542 some exceptions, such as emergency situations and events.
543 Simulation results demonstrate the performance of the pro-
544 posed TACASHI at ensuring high misbehavior detection ratios
545 clearly outperforms previous solutions known as RTM and
546 AD-IoV.

547 As future work, we plan to add another social dimen-
548 sion to our architecture by also accounting for the trustiness
549 of unmanned aerial vehicles, and their interactions with the
550 vehicles and devices on the ground.

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