

# Security and Cryptography 2021

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## IX. PRIVACY

### Protection of personal data and GDPR

- declared as fundamental right in EU, but technically fundamental for cybersecurity
  - identity theft e.g. for financial criminality
  - mobbing, discrimination, social abuse
  - lack of protection is a threat for economy and national security

### Frameworks

- GDPR – EU and European Economic Area, adopted by many countries, some recognized as equivalent by EU
- Privacy Shield: <https://www.privacyshield.gov/>
- California Consumer Privacy Act
- Schrems II verdict of *Court of Justice of the European Union*

## Privacy in communication

- one can hide payload communication
- it is not trivial how to hide **who is communicating with whom**
- this is a sensitive data

### protection methods:

- broadcast channel
- token ring
- dining cryptographers -DC nets
- onion protocols and TOR

## Dining Cryptographers

- protecting the source of a 1-bit message. One of cryptographers is sending a 0 or 1.
- protocol for 3 cryptographers sitting at a round table:
  - 1 each pair of neighbors establish a shared bit at random
  - 2 each cryptographer that is not transmitting computes XOR of the bits shared with the neighbors,
  - 3 the sender computes the same XOR but swaps it if the bit transmitted is 1
  - 4 each cryptographer reveals his result
  - 5 the message is the XOR of the bits published:
    - if the message is 0, then each shared bit occurs twice:

$$(b_{AB} \oplus b_{BC}) \oplus (b_{BC} \oplus b_{CA}) \oplus (b_{CA} \oplus b_{AB}) = 0$$

- otherwise, one of the bits is swapped: e.g. we have

$$(b_{AB} \oplus b_{BC}) \oplus (b_{BC} \oplus b_{CA} \oplus 1) \oplus (b_{CA} \oplus b_{AB}) = 1$$

# Communication steganography–

## Hiding communication in innocent traffic

**Idea:** hiding data in innocent data transmitted (e.g. images, sound, protocol execution data)

steganography versus watermarking:

watermarking is not annoying but hard to remove, steganography is invisible

typical applications: copyright protection, DRM,

## steganography in images

1. original picture taken – name: stego image
2. marking algorithm (maybe with a secret key) applied to message and the stego image
3. outcome transmitted/published
4. retrieving the covered message

**invisibility:** without a key impossible to decide whether there is a message hidden

## Concrete techniques for image/video/audio steganography:

- changing LSB bits of gray scale
- JPEG encoding: cosinus transform, high frequency components are manipulated anyway for compression
- other digital transforms
- echoing
- audio encoding: transformation and assigning coefficients to waves – manipulations of certain coefficients undetectable for listeners

## Problems

- multiple stego images
- transformations to remove stego, especially fragile: stego messages as ciphertexts
- artefacts due e.g. to the block based transformations

## watermarking/stegography in network flow:

- different ways of encoding (e.g. a change is 1 no change encodes 0)
- all random parameters transmitted in clear may contain watermarks
- simple timing: interpacket delays, departure times
- mean balancing:
  - $2d$  probes divided into two sets  $A$  and  $B$ .
  - the expected values of  $A$  and  $B$  are the same with no watermarking
  - changing the characteristics so that expected values differ in some direction (the direction is the watermarked value)



- sources of mean balancing watermarks:
  - interpacket delays
  - interval centroid: divide into  $2d$  intervals, in each compute mean arrival time
  - interval counting: divide into  $2d$  intervals, in each compute the number of packets

- size: packet size (harder if block encryption applied), object size (https, malicious Javascript generating watermarked size data)
- network rate:
  - one can influence it with dummy packets
  - burst traffic
- response times in transmission, packet order etc

## Defense against steganography:

(sometimes problematic or illegal due to intellectual property rights)

- i. compression
- ii. transforms and random distortions
- iii. stretching (StirMark)
- iv. printing and scanning, input to an analog device and digitalize again

effectiveness measured by relative entropy:

$$D(P_1||P_2) = \sum_{q \in \text{space}} \text{Pr}_1(q) \cdot \log \frac{\text{Pr}_1(q)}{\text{Pr}_2(q)}$$

relative entropy of plaintexts and hidden text should be smaller than some small  $\epsilon$

## Anonymity via mixing: A mixer

messages  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$  go through a mixer  $A$ :

- message  $m_i$  sent encrypted with the public key of  $A$

$$C_i := \text{Enc}(\text{PK}_A, m_i)$$

- $A$  decrypts  $C_1, \dots, C_k$  and forwards them to their destinations

## Conditions:

encryption might be secure but nevertheless one can link the ciphertexts with the decrypted texts:

- message size
- timing

So:

- all messages should have the uniform size
- $A$  should collect them all, decrypt and send them in a random order

## Onion Routing

an attempt to hide the sender and the destination of a message – hiding in a crowd of messages

### onion creation:

an onion created for a route going through servers  $A, B, C, \dots, Z$  to the final destination  $\Gamma$

$$O_1 = \text{Enc}_A(B, \text{Enc}_B(C, \text{Enc}_C(\dots(\text{Enc}_Z(\Gamma, M))\dots)))$$

(by encryption  $\text{Enc}_X$  we mean encryption with the public key of  $X$ )

# Onion Routing

## onion processing:

- $O_1$  sent from the origin machine to  $A$ ,
- server  $A$  decrypts with its private key and gets  $B$  and

$$O_2 = \text{Enc}_B(C, \text{Enc}_C(\dots(\text{Enc}_Z(\Gamma, M))\dots))$$

- $A$  sends  $O_2$  to  $B$
- server  $B$  decrypts  $O_2$  with its private key and gets  $C$  and  $O_3 = \text{Enc}_C(\dots(\text{Enc}_Z(\Gamma, M))\dots)$
- the process is continued in the same way ...
- ... until server  $Z$  finds  $\Gamma, M$  and forwards the message  $M$  to machine  $\Gamma$

**each processing steps is like peeling off one layer of an onion**



# Onion processing



## Limitations

- **idea**: if two or more onions enter a server at the same time, get partially decrypted, then forwarded, then it is impossible to say which incoming onion corresponds to which outgoing onion - **node mixing**
  - **traffic analysis**: assigning probabilities to permutations ( $\pi(i) = j$  means that the  $i$ th sender has a message to the  $j$ th receiver)
  - **it is not enough to say that  $\pi(i) = j$  with ppb  $\approx \frac{1}{n}$**  :
    - let us assume that the adversary knows that  $\pi$  is a circular shift
    - assume that the adversary gets extra knowledge:
      - "if source  $i$  is talking to destination  $j$ , then  $i + 1$  is talking to destination  $j + 1$ "
- however, still  $\Pr(\pi(i) = j) = \frac{1}{n}$

## Question: necessary length of the onions?

**analytical results** for restricted case of  $n$  senders and  $n$  receivers, messages sent simultaneously:

- $O(\log^2 n)$  if the adversary has a full knowledge of the system (not likely to have a better estimation unless ... big progress in math), **assumption**: uniform distribution for choosing destinations
- $O(\log n)$  if the adversary can see only a constant fraction of nodes, **assumption**: sender  $i$  may have non-uniform distribution of destination points
- it is easy to see that  $\Omega(\log n)$  is necessary

## meaning of the results:

*traffic analysis does not improve our prior knowledge in a significant way* (e.g. if we know in advance that source  $i$  always sends to destination  $j$ , then onions cannot hide this fact)

the guarantees are given in terms of **total variation distance** of two probability distributions:

$$\|\pi, \mu\| = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} |\pi(\omega) - \mu(\omega)|, \quad \text{where } \Omega \text{ is the set of all events}$$

## Problems with onions

- **replay attacks**: just send the same onion (or partially decrypted onion) for the 2nd time: the same subonions will appear along the forwarding path

**defense**: universal reencryption, example based on ElGamal encryption:

- ciphertext of  $m$ :

$(\beta^r, m \cdot g^r, \beta^s, g^s)$  for  $r, s$  chosen at random

- reencryption:

1 choose  $\alpha, \beta$  at random

2 replace  $(y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4)$  by  $(y_1 \cdot y_3^\alpha, y_2 \cdot y_4^\alpha, y_3^\beta, y_4^\beta)$

thereby we get  $(\beta^{r+\alpha s}, m \cdot g^{r+\alpha s}, \beta^{s\beta}, g^{s\beta})$

if order of the group is a prime number, then this is equivalent with choosing  $(\beta^{r'}, m \cdot g^{r'}, \beta^{s'}, g^{s'})$  for random  $r', s'$

- **local view**: not all users have the same list of servers

then: **long routes do not improve anonymity**. Toy example:

- give user  $A$  a list of servers with 50% of servers used by nobody else
- no matter how long is the routing path designed by  $A$ , it is likely that close to destination the path goes through a rogue server
- a few destinations available from this rogue server (50% of cases the rogue server sends directly to the destination)
- an onion going through the rogue server originates from the attacked source

– **timing at nodes**: delays necessary

defense: collecting enough onions and flashing them at once. (**slowdown!!!**)

– **sparse traffic** means no protection

## TOR

- free BSD licence
- connection based protocol, new connection established periodically (“10 minutes or so”)
- routes limited to 3 TOR nodes



- onion based forwarding the symmetric keys
  - i each node on the path learns only the predecessor and the successor
  - ii the path established step by step:
    - after establishing a subpath  $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_k$  the subpath is used to send an encrypted message over the channel to  $X_{k+1}$  stating that the next node is  $X_{k+1}$ .
    - the sender and  $X_{k+1}$  negotiate a new connection key via DH key exchange
  - iii after making a connection the message is encrypted symmetrically with the keys:

$$\text{AES}_{\text{relay1}}(\text{AES}_{\text{relay2}}(\text{AES}_{\text{relay3}}(m)))$$

each relay node removes one layer

- iv the messages back to the sender: instead of decryption: encryption with keys shared with the sender. The sender has to decrypt the onion

## Problems:

- exit node knows the plaintext
- traffic correlation
- application level attacks
- Heartbleed - change of public keys, some clients use old keys, ....

## Other issues:

- many authorities fight against TOR as it helps to escape the control

## Onion Routing - Warning: Rogue Encryption

## PSEUDONYMIZATION

### Symmetric methods:

- **hashing the identifier:**  $\text{pseudonym} = \text{Hash}(\text{identifier})$

problem: it is impossible to compute the identifier from the pseudonym, however hashing all possible identifiers and brute force reveals the link between the pseudonym and identifier

- **encryption with a (secret) symmetric key:** unlinkability, however the user cannot compute the pseudonym himself and the owner of the secret key can link all pseudonyms
- **hashing with a key:** as above, the party holding the secret key has to perform brute force to link back the pseudonym to the identifier

## Asymmetric pseudonymization methods:

- based on Diffie Hellman Problem:

- a **domain** (service provider, database, etc) holds a pair of keys  $(d, D = g^d)$
- a user Alice holds a pair  $(x, X = g^x)$
- the **pseudonym** of Alice corresponding to  $D$  is  $g^{x \cdot d}$ , which is computed as  $X^d$  by the domain manager, and  $D^x$  by the user
- nobody but the user and the domain manager can compute the pseudonym:

for a 3rd person deciding whether  $X^d$  corresponds to  $X$  in domain  $D$  requires solving DDH Problem

- a variant based on domain and a central Authority:
  - the key  $d$  is not known to the domain authority
  - $d = d_A + d_{\text{domain}}$ , where  $d_A$  is known by the authority and  $d_{\text{domain}}$  is known by the domain manager
  - steps of generating the pseudonym by the authority:
    - 1 the Authority computes  $X' := X^{d_A}$  and presents  $X'$  to the domain manager
    - 2 the domain manager computes pseudonym as  $(X')^{d_{\text{domain}}}$
  - linking a pseudonym with the starting public key is a reverse process but **both the domain manager and the Authority must participate** in it

- a variant from German personal identity cards (Restricted Identification):
  - **pseudonym** of a user with public key  $X = g^x$  is  $\text{Hash}(D^x)$
  - **pseudonym presentation**: by the ID card over a secure channel,
    - no proof that the pseudonym is correct
    - but a smart card can create only one pseudonym per domain
  - **revocation**: by computing  $\text{Hash}((X^{d_A})^{d_{\text{domain}}})$  jointly by the Authority and the domain manager and putting the result on the **blacklist**
  - blacklisting a black sheep based on the domain pseudonym requires brute force and recomputing all pseudonyms
- more flexibility, if pairing groups are available but be careful: DDH might be easy and so the above methods do not work

## Advantages and disadvantages of Restricted Identification:

- different pseudonyms generated automatically is
  - user friendly
  - makes re-identification based solely on data related to the pseudonym much harder
- problems:
  - converting a pseudonym in domain  $D_1$  to a pseudonym in domain  $D_2$  might be hard or infeasible, and require cooperation with the user and/or an authority  
(problem area: moving pseudonymized medical records)



# DATABASES and PRIVACY for QUERIES

the main problem is answering queries: does a query result disclose personal data?

Approach 1: **anonymity set**

- a query accepted if the number of record used to answer the query is at least  $k$  (and each concerns a different person)
- the method is naive: the attack is to ask for two sets of records: one including Alice and one excluding Alice to know the value for Alice

## Approach 2: differential privacy

classify the algorithms (queries)

algorithm  $A$  satisfies  $\epsilon$ -differential privacy, if for any two databases  $D$  and  $D'$  that differ by elimination of one record:

- for any subset  $S$  of the image of  $A$ :

$$\Pr(A(D) \in S) \leq e^\epsilon \cdot \Pr(A(D') \in S)$$

where the probability is over the random choices of  $A$

Then:

- $\epsilon = 0$  is the ideal for privacy: as  $e^0 = 1$  and the probabilities are exactly the same, but the result does not depend on the database contents (noise)
- so it is necessary to find balance between privacy ( $\epsilon$  as small as possible) and information in the response ( $\epsilon$  as big as possible)

## Problem with outliers

with some records that have very different values it is hard to keep promise of *differential privacy*

**solution:** disregard them (as private data leak anyway) and concentrate on the rest

e.g.:

1. disregard a few entries that are outliers
2. for differential privacy take only those elements that have at least  $k$  neighbors in some sense

# PSEUDONYMOUS SIGNATURES

Application areas:

- while having the pseudonyms, how to authenticate digital data? Digital signatures would solve the problem
- implementing GDPR rights in practice: a data subject can authenticate the request (e.g. for data rectification) in a database with pseudonyms by sending a request with a signature corresponding to the pseudonym

## BSI Pseudonymous Signature:

- keys:

- domain parameters  $D_M$  and a pair of global keys  $(PK_M, SK_M)$
- public key  $PK_{ICC}$  for a group of eIDAS tokens, the private key  $SK_{ICC}$  known to the issuer of eIDAS tokens
- assigning the private keys for a user:

the issuer chooses  $SK_{ICC,2}$  at random, then computes  $SK_{ICC,1}$  such that

$$SK_{ICC} = SK_{ICC,1} + SK_M \cdot SK_{ICC,2}$$

- a sector (domain) holds private key  $SK_{sector}$  and public key  $PK_{sector}$ .
- a sector has revocation private key  $SK_{revocation}$  and public key  $PK_{revocation}$
- sector specific identifiers  $I_{ICC,1}^{sector}$  and  $I_{ICC,2}^{sector}$  for the user:

$$I_{ICC,1}^{sector} = (PK_{sector})^{SK_{ICC,1}}$$

$$I_{ICC,2}^{sector} = (PK_{sector})^{SK_{ICC,2}}$$

- **signing:** with keys  $SK_{ICC,1}$ ,  $SK_{ICC,2}$  and  $I_{ICC,1}^{\text{sector}}$  and  $I_{ICC,2}^{\text{sector}}$  for  $PK_{\text{sector}}$  and message  $m$

i choose  $K_1, K_2$  at random

ii compute

- $Q_1 = g^{K_1} \cdot (PK_M)^{K_2}$

- $A_1 = (PK_{\text{sector}})^{K_1}$

- $A_2 = (PK_{\text{sector}})^{K_2}$

iii  $c = \text{Hash}(Q_1, I_{ICC,1}^{\text{sector}}, A_1, I_{ICC,2}^{\text{sector}}, A_2, PK_{\text{sector}}, m)$

(variant parameters omitted here)

iv compute

- $s_1 = K_1 - c \cdot SK_{ICC,1}$

- $s_2 = K_2 - c \cdot SK_{ICC,2}$

v output  $(c, s_1, s_2)$

- **verification:**

compute

- $Q_1 = (\text{PK}_{\text{ICC}})^c \cdot g^{s_1} \cdot (\text{PK}_M)^{s_2}$
- $A_1 = (I_{\text{ICC},1}^{\text{sector}})^c \cdot (\text{PK}_{\text{sector}})^{s_1}$
- $A_2 = (I_{\text{ICC},2}^{\text{sector}})^c \cdot (\text{PK}_{\text{sector}})^{s_2}$
- recompute  $c$  and check against the  $c$  from the signature

- why it works?

$$\begin{aligned}(\text{PK}_{\text{ICC}})^c \cdot g^{s_1} \cdot (\text{PK}_M)^{s_2} &= (\text{PK}_{\text{ICC}})^c \cdot g^{K_1} \cdot (\text{PK}_M)^{K_2} \cdot g^{-c \cdot \text{SK}_{\text{ICC},1}} \cdot (\text{PK}_M)^{c \cdot \text{SK}_{\text{ICC},2}} \\ &= (\text{PK}_{\text{ICC}})^c \cdot g^{K_1} \cdot (\text{PK}_M)^{K_2} \cdot g^{-c \cdot \text{SK}_{\text{ICC},1}} \cdot (g)^{-c \cdot \text{SK}_M \cdot \text{SK}_{\text{ICC},2}} \\ &= (\text{PK}_{\text{ICC}})^c \cdot g^{K_1} \cdot (\text{PK}_M)^{K_2} \cdot g^{-c \cdot \text{SK}_{\text{ICC}}} = g^{K_1} \cdot (\text{PK}_M)^{K_2} = Q_1\end{aligned}$$

- there is a version without  $A_1, A_2$  and the pseudonyms  $I_{\text{ICC},1}^{\text{sector}}, I_{\text{ICC},2}^{\text{sector}}$

- **Problems:**

- the authorities know the private keys (there is a way to solve it when the user gets two pairs of keys on the device and takes their linear combination)
- breaking into just 2 devices reveals the system keys
- possible to create a trapdoor for enabling to link pseudonyms
  - apart from  $SK_{ICC} = SK_{ICC,1} + SK_M \cdot SK_{ICC,2}$  there is another relationship for the user  $u$

$$x_u = SK_{ICC,1} + s_u \cdot SK_{ICC,2}$$

- $x_u$  and  $s_u$  are dedicated for user  $u$  - maybe not in the database but derived from a secret key, say  $Z$
- domain trapdoor:  $T_{\text{domain},u} = PK_{\text{domain}}^{x_u}$  and  $s_u$  (it can be derived from  $Z$  alone)
- then one can conclude that  $\text{nym}_1$  and  $\text{nym}_2$  correspond to user  $u$ , if:

$$T_{\text{domain},u} = \text{nym}_1 \cdot \text{nym}_2^{s_u}$$



# ANONYMOUS CREDENTIALS

two commercial products (libraries): Idemix (IBM) and UProve (Microsoft)

some details concerning Idemix

## components:

- **actors:** issuer, recipient, verifier, trusted party
- **attributes:** for each attribute there is: name, value and type. The types are `int`, `string`, `date`, `enum` (enumeration). The attributes concern the recipient.
- **credentials:** given by the issuer to the recipient
  - i known ( $A_k$ ): the issuer knows the value of an attribute
  - ii committed ( $A_c$ ): the issuer knows a commitment to the attribute but not the commitment itself
  - iii hidden ( $A_h$ ): the attribute is completely hidden to the issuer

– **keys:**

- single master key for each user ( $m_1$ )
- single master key for the Issuer – for creation of CL signatures

– **pseudonyms:**

- a single domain pseudonym for a user per domain: generated as as

$$\text{dom}^{m_1}$$

where  $\text{dom}$  is the public key of a domain, and  $m_1$  is the user's master key

- pseudonyms are unlinkable

## Cryptographic schemes used by Idemix

### CL signatures:

- RSA group, special choice of primes:  $p = 2p' + 1$ ,  $q = 2q' + 1$ , where  $p'$  and  $q'$  are primes
- choose at random quadratic residues:  $R_1, \dots, R_l, Z, S$
- public key:  $(n, R_1, \dots, R_l, Z, S)$ , private key:  $p, q$  (enabling computation of roots mod  $n$ )
- security based on **Strong RSA assumption**: it is infeasible to compute  $e$ -roots for  $e > 2$
- signature for messages  $m_1, \dots, m_l$ :
  - choose  $v$  at random and a prime  $e > 2$  of length higher than each  $m_1, \dots, m_l$
  - $A := ((Z / (S^v \cdot \prod R_i^{m_i}))^{1/e})$
  - the signature is  $(A, e, v)$
- verification: check if

$$Z = A^e \cdot S^v \cdot \prod R_i^{m_i} \quad ?$$

## Issuing a certificate for values $m_1, \dots, m_l$

- somewhat complicated since the Issuer can learn only some attributes to be signed
- **method**: a two-party protocol to compute CL signature of the Issuer, algorithm draft:
  - the user chooses  $v'$  at random and computes  $U := S^{v'} \cdot \prod R_i^{m_i}$  apart from known attributes that are not included in the product  $\prod R_i^{m_i}$
  - the user creates a ZKP that  $U$  computed in this way, in particular that
    - the user knows hidden attributes
    - the user uses the same attributes as committed
  - the issuer checks the ZKP proofs
  - the issuer chooses at random:  $v''$  and a prime  $e$
  - the issuer computes

$$Q := Z / (U \cdot S^{v''} \cdot \prod_{\text{known } m_i} R_i^{m_i}) \text{ and } A := Q^{1/e}$$

- $(A, e, v'')$  is sent to the user together with a ZKP proof of correctness
- the user computes  $v := v' + v''$ , checks the proof and validity of signature  $(A, e, v)$

## Presenting a credential

**complicated:** also involves proofs over encrypted values and the range of attributes. Some attributes may be revealed, but some must stay hidden. Moreover, **the certificate must not be revealed** (to ensure unlinkability) .

**some details** for verification of certificate without revealing it:

- value  $\tilde{m}_i$  is chosen for each hidden attribute  $m_i$ , that is,  $i \in A_{\bar{r}}$
- the user chooses  $r_A$  at random and randomizes  $(A, e, v)$ :
  - $A' := A \cdot S^{r_A}$ ,  $v' := v - e \cdot r_A$
- so called  $t$ -values computed:
  - chosen at random:  $\tilde{e}, \tilde{v}'$
  - $\tilde{Z} := (A')^{\tilde{e}} \cdot S^{\tilde{v}'}$  .  $\prod R^{\tilde{m}_i}$
- these  $t$ -values  $\tilde{Z}$  and  $t$  values from other proofs plus some other data are hashed to get challenge  $c$
- signatures components ( $s$ -values) are derived:
  - $\hat{e} := \tilde{e} + c \cdot e$
  - $\hat{v}' := \tilde{v}' + c \cdot v'$
  - $\hat{m}_i := \tilde{m}_i + c \cdot m_i$

**Credential verification** - based on recomputation of  $t$ -values and recomputing  $c$ .

$\tilde{Z}$  recomputed as:

$$(A')^{\hat{e}} \cdot \prod_{i \in A_{\bar{r}}} R_i^{\hat{m}_i} \cdot S^{\hat{v}'} / \left( \frac{Z}{\prod_{i \notin A_{\bar{r}}} R_i^{m_i}} \right)^c$$

- we remove from  $Z$  the expressions  $R^m$  that correspond to the known attributes
- what is left will cancel the  $c \cdot e$ ,  $c \cdot v'$ ,  $c \cdot m_i$  when using the exponents  $\hat{e}$ ,  $\hat{v}'$ ,  $\hat{m}_i$

ranges have to be checked, etc

...

## IDENTIFICATION

running wireless communication protocol may enable tracing a user.

### Threats:

- explicit exchange of identifiers: an eavesdropper learns who is communicating with whom
- strong cryptographic proofs created during identification: can be misused for proving presence to the third parties

### elimination of explicit identifiers:

- at each communication round Alice and Bob create random nonce (nonces) for the next round
  - even more secure: if  $n$  is such a nonce, then Alice uses  $n'$  where  $n'$  is the same as  $n$  except for a limited number of bits at random positions
- (so the adversary has to follow Alice and Bob without long interruptions)

## deniability:

- the idea is that a transcript of a communication (including the answer from the Prover created with his private key) can be simulated

**consequence:** a third party has no grounds to believe the communication transcript presented to him

- **wrong example:** challenge-response algorithm with digital signature:

- 1 the Verifier selects  $x$  at random and sends to the Prover
- 2 the Prover returns his signature  $s$  over  $x$

unfortunately:  $s$  can serve as a proof of the claim of the Verifier: “I have talked to Prover” if  $x$  is a signature of the Verifier or something that only could be created by the Verifier

- **good example:** static Diffie-Hellman protocol

- **good example:** Stinson-Wu for Prover with the key pair  $(a, A = g^a)$

- 1 Verifier chooses  $x$  at random, computes  $X := g^x$  and  $Y := \text{Hash}(A^x)$
- 2 Verifier sends  $X, Y$  to Prover
- 3 Prover computes  $Z := X^a$  and aborts if  $Y \neq \text{Hash}(Z)$
- 4 Prover sends  $Z$
- 5 Verifier accepts iff  $Z = A^x$



## Stinson-Wu protocol

- Stinson-Wu does not create an oracle for DH Problem, Verifier must send a challenge for which *somebody* knows  $x$
- it is untrue that Verifier must know  $x$ :

Preparation:

- Eve creates correct  $X, Y$  as well as  $\text{Enc}_{\text{Hash}(Z)}(x)$
- Eve sends these data to Verifier

Identification:

- Verifier sends  $X, Y$  to Prover
- Prover computes  $Z := X^a$  and aborts if  $Y \neq \text{Hash}(Z)$
- Prover sends  $Z$
- Verifier computes  $\text{Hash}(Z)$  and uses it as a key to decrypt and derive  $x$
- Verifier accepts iff  $Z = A^x$

Proof of Interaction: **Verifier returns  $x$  to Eve as a proof of interaction with Prover**

## Anonymous Transactions

idea:

- transactions records publicly available in a distributed ledger (DLT)  $\Rightarrow$  undeniability, no backdating, possibility to detect double spending (if...) , anti Money Laundering (if...) ...
- however, we must not create a public Big Brother

core mechanism for digital currencies:

cash hides money flow, this should be the key property of digital money as well

examples below will be taken from Monero

## User keys and hidden recipient

user keys (EC notation):

- private keys  $a, b$
- public keys:  $A = a \cdot G, B = b \cdot G$
- sometimes  $(a, B)$  revealed (tracking key) – if the transactions have to be deanonymized

## Creating transaction with a hidden recipient: (Alice sends to Bob)

- Alice fetches the public key  $(A, B)$
- Alice chooses  $r$  at random,  $R := r \cdot G$
- Alice generates one-time public key  $P := \text{Hash}(r \cdot A) \cdot G + B$
- Alice uses  $P$  as a one-time destination key for the transaction containing metadata  $R$

## Receiving a transaction by Bob

- Bob tries each transaction posted:
  - compute  $P' := \text{Hash}(a \cdot R) \cdot G + B$
  - if this is the right transaction, then  $P = P'$  and Bob knows it is for him
- Bob calculates the one-time private key:

$$x = \text{Hash}(a \cdot R) + b$$

- Bob can spend the money obtained in the transaction by signing with  $x$

### Remarks:

- 1: Receiving a transaction possible with  $(a, B)$ , while  $(a, B)$  does not enable to compute  $x$
- 2: Still only a partial anonymity: using  $x$  and the public key  $P$  would indicate who has got transaction with  $P$  from Alice

## One time ring signatures

### idea:

- instead of signing with  $x$  and showing  $P$ , a ring signature created:
  - a set of public keys  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_m$  from transactions chosen at random (transaction value must be the same)
  - $x$  used for signing
- any two ring signature of this kind created with  $x$  will be linked immediately

### Goals achieved:

- double spending exposed
- $m$ -anonymity concerning where the e-coin comes from

## Creating one-time ring signature

for key pair  $(x, P)$

1. compute image key

$$I := x \cdot \text{Hash}(P)$$

2. choose a ring of keys  $\mathcal{P}(P_0, \dots, P_n)$  where  $P_s = P$  for some  $s$

3. choose  $q_0, \dots, q_n$  at random

4. choose  $w_0, \dots, w_n$  at random, except for  $w_s$

5. calculate for  $i \neq s$

$$L_i := q_i \cdot G + w_i \cdot P_i$$

6. calculate  $L_s := q_s \cdot G$

7. calculate for  $i \neq s$

$$R_i := q_i \cdot \text{Hash}(P_i) + w_i \cdot I$$

8. calculate  $R_s := q_s \cdot \text{Hash}(P_s)$

9. calculate the non-interactive challenge:

$$c := \text{Hash}(\text{message}, L_0, \dots, L_n, R_0, \dots, R_n)$$

10. calculate individual components:

–. for  $i \neq s$ :  $c_i = w_i$ , and  $r_i = q_i$

–.  $c_s := c - \sum_{i \neq s} c_i$

–.  $r_s := q_s - c_s \cdot x$

11. output signature  $(I, c_0, \dots, c_n, r_0, \dots, r_n)$



## Verification

$L_i$  recomputed as  $L'_i := r_i \cdot G + c_i \cdot P_i$

$R_i$  recomputed as  $R'_i := r_i \cdot \text{Hash}(P_i) + c_i \cdot I$

test:

$$\sum c_i = \text{Hash}(\text{message}, L'_0, \dots, L'_n, R'_1, \dots, R'_n)$$

## Linking:

via the same  $I$

## Concept used:

to close the ring somewhere a schnorr signature must be created that applies to two generators simultaneously:

- $P_s$  (which is hidden)
- $I$  (which is explicit)

**Many extensions** possible (e.g. a transaction signed with multiple keys)

