

# IDPT-FP (IDPT, Full Protocol)

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This is a proposal for a digital proximity tracing protocol that can operate both in centralized and distributed mode with full interoperability. It is based on the mechanism described for the IDPT protocol<sup>1</sup> for interoperability between ROBERT<sup>2</sup> and DP3T<sup>3</sup> applications.

## Assumptions

We assume that in the same geographical area (e.g. the Schengen area) we have a digital proximity tracking application with users who can decide whether the risk score is done on a central server (users C), or is done on the user's phones (users D).

It may be that in a country within this geographical area, national public health authorities choose to support only users C or users D. Another option is that they give freedom of choice to their citizens, who assess the trade-offs between privacy and security and the effectiveness of the risk score.

## Beacon broadcast

- All users broadcast BLE ADV\_IND packets (which we call "tags") with a payload equal to  $g^X$ , where  $X$  is a secret number that is changed at each epoch (e.g. 15 minutes) .
- We assume that  $g^X$  is a 16 byte number.

## $g^X$ generation

- For C users,  $g^X$  is generated in a central server (C-backend server), which knows the sequence of secret values  $X$ . The C-backend server maintains a table ID associated with these secret values (this can be  $X=\text{hash}(\text{ID}, \text{epoch})$ , etc), with a structure similar to the one used in ROBERT.
- For D users,  $g^X$  is generated in the devices, which keep the sequence of secret values  $X$

## Beacon processing

All users retain the  $g^X$  values received, as well as the RSSI of the received beacon.

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<sup>1</sup> <https://github.com/IDPTdocs/documents/blob/master/IDPT-v2.pdf>

<sup>2</sup> [https://github.com/ROBERT-proximity-tracing/documents/blob/master/ROBERT-specification-EN-v1\\_0.pdf](https://github.com/ROBERT-proximity-tracing/documents/blob/master/ROBERT-specification-EN-v1_0.pdf)

<sup>3</sup> <https://github.com/DP-3T/documents/blob/master/DP3T%20White%20Paper.pdf>

# Users with positive tests

## User C is tested positive

Devices C choose a secret random number  $W$  (which is not known to server C), and make the list of tuples  $[(\text{hash}(g^XW), g^W, \text{RSSI})]$  public, so that the identity of the device remains anonymous.

## User D is tested positive

Devices D choose a secret random number  $W$ , different according to the received  $g^X$ , and make public the list of tuples  $[(\text{hash}(g^XW), g^W, \text{RSSI})]$ , so that the identity of the device remains anonymous.

The tuples are kept in the list for a limited period of time (e.g. 1 day).

# Users with positive tests

## User C

The C-backend server periodically reads the public list  $[(\text{hash}(g^XW), g^W, \text{RSSI})]$ . Then it looks for intersections of  $\text{hash}((g^W)^X)$ , for the  $X$  values stored in the IDTable, with the hash values of the list  $[(\text{hash}(g^XW), g^W, \text{RSSI})]$ .

For C users, who use the same  $W$  value for all published tuples in the list, the IDtable can obtain a time series of contacts for the risk scoring algorithm (because the user with test COVID+ publishes a constant  $g^W$  value). If the user who tested COVID+ is a user D, the time series information is lost.

Note, however, that the C-backend server does not know the identity of the users (C or D) who tested COVID+, because the  $W$  value is kept secret in the device.

## Users D

D devices periodically read the public list  $[(\text{hash}(g^XW), g^W, \text{RSSI})]$ . Then, they look for the intersections of the  $\text{hash}((g^W)^X)$ , for the  $X$  values stored in the device, with the hash values in the list  $[(\text{hash}(g^XW), g^W, \text{RSSI})]$ .

We discuss later how to reduce the number of computations in the case of D users by using Country Codes.

# Risk scoring

The proximity of the contact can be estimated from the RSSI value. The length of the contact is obtained from the times when the  $X$  value was used. Centralized backend servers can use time series in their risk scoring algorithms, since the  $W$  value in the C devices is the same for all declared tuples  $(\text{hash}(g^XW), g^W, \text{RSSI})$ .

# Support to roaming

Devices could add a country code (e.g.  $CC = \text{"ES", "FR", etc.}$ ) to each tuple in the published list:  $[(\text{hash}(g^XW), g^W, \text{RSSI}, CC)]$ .

This country code corresponds to the place where the  $g^X$  was received. Users should specify the country where they are located to the application. If no location is given, a special code can be used ("Schengen"). Since the identity of users is kept anonymous, users do not reveal publicly their location.

The C backend server knows the location where the interaction of the user who transmitted  $g^X$  took place, but this is already the situation in ROBERT in the case of federated backend servers.

Note that users D have the advantage now that their location remains private.

### **C-Users**

C-backend servers must check the intersections for the entire list published in the Schengen area. This calculation is indeed long ( $14 \times 100 \times \text{length}([(hash(g^XW), g^W, RSSI, CC)])$ ) but it is performed twice a day, and should not be a major problem for a backend server.

### **D-Users**

Device D should only evaluate the  $hash((g^W)^X)$  for elements with a CC that corresponds to one of the zones visited in the last 14 days.

## Defences again other attacks

The device can add to the list two more fields:  $hash(g^X + \text{epoch})$ ,  $hash(g^X + \text{MAC})^4$ , where epoch is the time of reception of  $g^X$ , and MAC is the MAC address of the beacon that contained  $g^X$ . These fields need to be checked only in case of intersections.

## Consequences of breaking Diffie-Hellman

If an attacker breaks DH (i.e. gets  $W$  from  $g^W$ ), she could check if a  $g^X$  that has been eavesdropped matches the  $hash(g^XW)$  value. This would lead to the conclusion that the user who transmitted  $g^X$  was close to a user who reported a COVID+ test. This vulnerability is inherent in all digital proximity tracing protocols, and the attacker can obtain this information in a much simpler way.

## Possible implementation issues

- Support of Gapple for this protocol.
- Is 16 byte Diffie-Hellman too weak?. We think that the information that an attacker can obtain from breaking DH is not worth the effort. However, if this is considered a risk, using 32 bytes DH and the corresponding consequences on beacon transmissions should be considered.

## Privacy properties

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<sup>4</sup> Is this enough:  $hash(g^X + \text{epoch} + \text{MAC})$  ?

The D-users avoid re-identification attacks of distributed protocols such as DP3T. C-users share less information with the C-backend server, as users are keep anonymous when reporting a test COVID+.

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