

# Bitcoin Boomerang

## Collaborative Anonymity for Transaction Broadcasting

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**Abstract**—Sender anonymity is important in the design of several “cryptographically-enhanced” variations of Bitcoin, such as ZeroCoin [7]. Consequently, such variations often state that users install and use network-layer anonymity layers such as Tor [10] alongside their existing Bitcoin clients when introducing new transactions into the network. Such requirements make such variations less appealing from a usability perspective. Furthermore, since low-latency anonymity layers like Tor are susceptible to strategic timing attacks by adaptive global adversaries, and transactions do not have real-time constraints in which they must be broadcasted throughout the network, mixnets are a more appropriate solution for achieving sender anonymity. To this end, we introduce Bitcoin Boomerang, a distributed, collaborative, application-level protocol for achieving mixnet-like behavior to increase sender anonymity. Boomerang is intended to run at the application-layer *within* Bitcoin software clients as an extension of the Bitcoin protocol. We analyze the anonymity properties of Boomerang, and assess the induced performance overhead using a custom simulator that emulates the behavior of Bitcoin nodes (software clients) using the protocol. Our results indicate that with appropriate parameter tuning, increased sender anonymity can be achieved at the cost of increased computational overhead and network bandwidth consumption for each participating Bitcoin user.

### I. INTRODUCTION

Bitcoin is a relatively young form of digital currency that has become increasingly popular in recent years. Its decentralized and peer-to-peer nature, in addition to its financial transaction security guarantees, makes it very appealing to alternative systems. However, providing adequate user anonymity when making transactions remains an open problem that has motivated a significant body of work studying alternative constructions, protocol modifications, and general studies on Bitcoin anonymity. Of the most prominent deanonymization techniques are network- and protocol-level analysis. Kaminsky [5] pioneered network-level attacks on client anonymity by eavesdropping on network activity and associating the flow of transactions with the IP addresses from which they originated. This type of attack served to circumvent the now standard practice of generating fresh key pairs and shadow change (output collection) addresses for every transaction so as to ensure unlinkability among users and their transactions.

Protocol-level studies and attacks, such as those performed by TODO, rely on the flow of transactions and other side-channel information in order to deanonymize clients. Even with the usage of anonymity layers such as Tor to hide their original IP addresses, such graph-based techniques are highly

effective at linking transactions to their original users. Using eWallets or mixing services to further break the link between users and their transactions is often recommended, but there are numerous problems associated with these partial solutions. Perhaps most importantly, such services need to be trusted to not disclose the identity of their clients or simply steal a users funds. Designing mixing trustworthy and accountable mixing services has been studied several times in the literature, and the solutions to date either require modifications to the Bitcoin protocol [?] or have not yet been deployed to be adequately assessed in practice [?].

TODO: coinjoin/sharecoin

To circumvent the use of mixing services, others have proposed enhancements to the Bitcoin protocol that provide cryptographic guarantees of anonymity. Of these proposals, Zerocoin [7] appears to be the most feasible solution to implement in practice and see widespread adoption since it builds upon Bitcoin as a backing currency. Although there have been claims that its performance, which is based on RSA accumulators and zero-knowledge proof systems with expensive generation, verification, and large proofs, will ultimately impeded its acceptance, enhancements such as PinocchioCoin [?] have been proposed to alleviate such issues. PinocchioCoin provides the same functionality as Zerocoin but uses more efficient pairing-based primitives and the Pinocchio verifiable computation scheme to replace expensive zero-knowledge proofs. Also, while briefly discussed in their respective publications, each of these “anonymous” coin schemes that build upon Bitcoin require a network-layer anonymizing layer such as Tor to prevent network-level attacks.

Based on these observations, it is clear that client anonymity guarantees at the network layer is fundamental for client anonymity at the level of the Bitcoin protocol. However, it would ideal if clients did not have to install or rely upon separate networking software to achieve this anonymity. To this end, we propose Bitcoin Boomerang, a peer-to-peer mixnet *built into* the Bitcoin protocol to provide virtually the same anonymity guarantees as network-layer services such as Tor without the same vulnerabilities (e.g., timing side channel attacks). Boomerang is an overlay network on top of the Bitcoin peer-to-peer (P2P) network. All Boomerang nodes must be connected to the Bitcoin P2P network as all nodes must be able to announce transactions. Due to this requirement, the design of Boomerangs network leverages the existing Bitcoin network to discover and connect to Boomerang nodes.

In this document we describe the detail the design of Bitcoin Boomerang, which shall henceforth be referred to as Boomerang for simplicity, and discuss the anonymity properties, expected performance, and preliminary implementation and simulation results that support our claims. The remainder of this document is outlined as follows. Section 2 provides an overview of the scheme, section 3 provides a detailed discussion of the Boomerang design, section 4 presents an analysis of the security and anonymity that Boomerang enables, and finally, section 5 discusses the expected performance of Bitcoin when using Boomerang for anonymity.

## II. REVIEW OF THE BITCOIN PEER-TO-PEER NETWORK

Bitcoin uses a simple broadcast network. To connect to the network, a local client uses four main methods of bootstrapping to locate an initial remote node. The first is the internal database of addresses the client saved during the previous session. If none of those addresses are active or the client is being run for the first time, the client uses a hard-coded DNS service to locate the address of seed nodes. The third method is via hard-coded addresses of seed nodes. The final method uses user inputted addresses from the command line or loaded from a text file. The Bitcoin network also previously used Internet Relay Chat (IRC) bootstrapping, but support for this method has been removed as of Bitcoin version 0.8.2.

To connect to a remote node, the client node first sends a version message to the remote node. If the remote node accepts the version message it replies with a verack message and its own version message. If the client node accepts the remote nodes version message, it replies with a verack message. Finally, both nodes exchange getaddr messages and addr messages, which include the nodes address information as well as no more than 2,500 addresses seen in the last 3 hours in the nodes internal address database.

After a node has joined the Bitcoin P2P network, peer discovery is propagated by callback addresses, addr messages relays, and self broadcast. Callback addresses are addresses in the remote nodes version message that enable the local node to connect back. If the local node does connect back, then as described above, the local node will exchange addr messages. Address relays occur after new addresses are added into the local nodes internal database. The local node will pick two random nodes in its database and relay the new addresses in another addr message. A node will also self broadcast, in which the node advertises its own address in an addr message to all connected nodes.

## III. BOOMERANG OVERVIEW

At its heart, Boomerang is a peer-to-peer mixnet that can be leveraged by any anonymizing coin, such as Zerocoin, to provide anonymity analogous to Tor without the same side channel vulnerabilities. The main idea is to hide the source or origin from which transactions are introduced into the network. To do this, we integrate traditional mix networks into the peer-to-peer Bitcoin network such that new transactions which are to be broadcasted must first pass through a series of mixes (which are actually other participating Bitcoin users) through the network so as to obfuscate the originating network address. Functionally, this is no different from Tor. However,

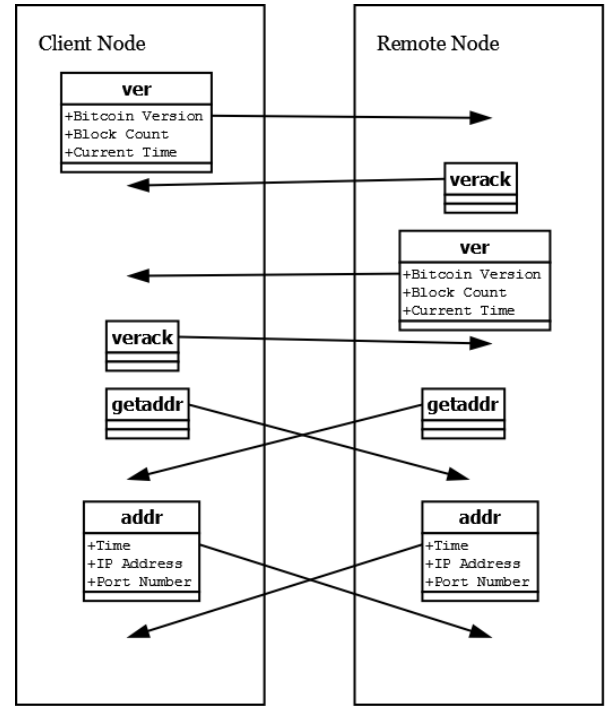


Fig. 1. Bitcoin connection setup.

Boomerang has several important distinctions that make it unique with respect to onion-routing techniques like Tor:

- 1) Transaction anonymity increases *for every participant* when more people use Boomerang messages to broadcast transactions - everyone is therefore incentivized to use Boomerang.
- 2) Involuntary mixing delays mitigate timing-based side channel attacks that can be leveraged to deanonymize clients using Tor.
- 3) Boomerang messages are enhancements to the Bitcoin protocol, rather than a means for anonymizing point-to-point TCP connections, as is done with Tor.

The main design goals of Boomerang are as follows:

### Sender anonymity

A node achieves *sender anonymity* if a node cannot be (uniquely) identified, or linked, to a particular transaction that is broadcast at the end of a Boomerang circuit (see Section IV) [4].

### Fault-tolerance via redundancy

Compromised or mobile nodes should not lead to significant delays in transaction introduction or compromise mixnet deadlocks.

### Performance

Nodes in the network should incur minimal overhead from using Boomerang messages while maximizing their anonymity.

We now provide a brief overview of how Boomerang is used by clients for transaction broadcast anonymity; A complete description of the protocol is provided in Section 4. To broadcast a new transaction  $T$  using Boomerang, a client  $C$  first creates a set of  $W$  individual mixing circuits

of length  $D_1, D_2, \dots, D_W$ , where  $W \geq 1$  and  $D_i \geq 2$ . Let  $K = \sum_{i=1}^W D_i$  be the total number of nodes selected as mixing services for the circuits. With knowledge of the public keys for each of the  $K$  nodes,  $C$  then wraps  $T$  in  $D_i$  layers of encryption for each circuit  $i = 1, \dots, W$ . Each layer of encryption also includes a forward pointer to the subsequent hop in the circuit so that decrypting nodes may forward the transaction to the appropriate location, or broadcast the plaintext transaction  $T$  if they are the last hop in the circuit.

As is standard with traditional mix networks [2], each nodes will only forward wrapped transactions after it has accumulated a certain number of transactions from other nodes. For this reason, to avoid network deadlock, we require that “cover traffic” be circulated throughout the network to keep traffic moving smoothly, similar to the cover traffic used in the Tarzan mix network [3]. Furthermore, this cover traffic must be encoded such that it appears indistinguishable from legitimate encrypted transaction messages. To solve this problem, Boomerang cover traffic messages *are legitimate transaction encryptions*, with the exception that the last “hop” of the “circuit” for these messages is the same client  $C$  that generated them in the first place. Thus, these dummy transaction messages will be circulated throughout the network and ultimately be routed to  $C$ , who can then easily check that they generated the transaction and discard it (or send out another dummy message). The circular nature of this cover traffic, which is shown by the red trajectories in Figure 2, is the inspiration for Boomerang’s name.

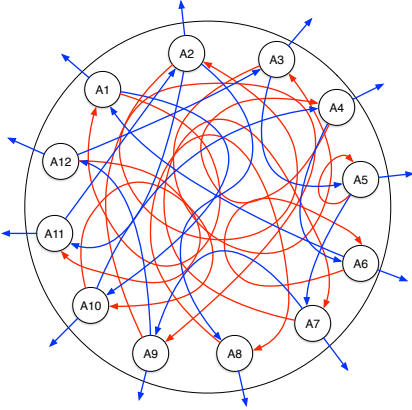


Fig. 2. Visual depiction of the traffic flow in a Boomerang network.

Given this short description, there are many important engineering problems to solve in order make Boomerang feasible in practice, such as public key distribution and usage, prevention of self-induced denial-of-service attacks, and the overconsumption of network resources. We describe solutions to all such problems in Section 4, and include a preliminary performance analysis of the Boomerang technique (based on analytical modeling and simulations) in Section 5.

#### IV. BOOMERANG DESIGN

As previously discussed, the Boomerang protocol enhancement for Bitcoin is motivated by the need to hide the source from which transactions are introduced into the network.

Furthermore, this should be done in a transparent way so that any other form of anonymous coin extension on top of Bitcoin (e.g., Zerocoin) can leverage the service for transaction anonymity. Boomerang is *not* intended to support regular Bitcoin traffic; once a transaction becomes public knowledge, Boomerang no longer plays a role in its distribution.

In the following sections we detail the core protocol and several important design and security tradeoffs that can be made in practice when using Boomerang. A formal analysis of the security and performance of Boomerang-enhanced Bitcoin is provided in Sections X and Y.

##### A. Boomerang Peer-to-Peer Network Design

Boomerang peer discovery is done in a similar manner to the Bitcoin peer discovery process described above with a few exceptions. Boomerang nodes can also query Bitcoin nodes after connecting to the Bitcoin network. Boomerang nodes can also learn the address of other nodes by routing Boomerang messages. The Boomerang peer discovery methods are:

- 1) User inputted addresses from command line or text file: If the user manually inputs address information, the client will attempt to connect to those Boomerang peers first.
- 2) Node reads stored Boomerang addresses from previous sessions: Boomerang clients will attempt to connect to peers stored in the internal address database from the previous session.
- 3) Nodes make a DNS request for Boomerang seed nodes: If there are no active nodes in the internal address database, then the client will perform a DNS lookup using hard-coded DNS servers for current seed nodes.
- 4) Nodes connect to hard-coded seed addresses: If DNS lookups fail, then the client attempts to connect to hard-coded seed addresses.
- 5) Nodes query Bitcoin network for Boomerang nodes: The client sends Boomerang connection requests to nodes on the Bitcoin network.
- 6) Nodes utilize callback addresses: After receiving a Boomerang connection request from a remote node, the client node can use the callback address to connect to the remote node and exchange address database information.
- 7) Nodes receive relayed addresses: After receiving new address information and verifying validity of the address, a node will randomly pick a few nodes in the internal database and relay the new address information.
- 8) Nodes will self broadcast periodically: Similarly to relayed addresses, periodically Boomerang clients will randomly pick a few nodes in the internal database and relay its own address information.
- 9) Boomerang messages: The destination of a Boomerang message must be a Boomerang node. The client can then request a connection with the destination node and exchange address database information.

TABLE I. BOOMERANG PROTOCOL NOTATION

Symbol	Description
$W$	Local number of parallel circuits constructed to emit a new transaction.
$D$	Global depth of transaction and dummy message circuits.
$T$	A boomerang transaction
$\bar{T}$	An encrypted boomerang transaction
$M$	A (dummy or encoded transaction) Boomerang message sent over the wire.
$\mathbf{C}$	A message is treated as an indexable array with fields shown in Figure 5.
$\mathbf{AV}$	Set of valid nodes in a node's address book from which to build a circuit.
$\text{addr}$	Address vector element of a Boomerang message.
$B$	Network address of a Bitcoin node.
Buffer	Minimum Boomerang buffer size.
$E_{pk}(\cdot)$	Boomerang message node buffer.
$D_{sk}(\cdot)$	ECC-based encryption of some plaintext under the public key $pk$ .
	ECC-based decryption of some ciphertext under the private key $sk$ .

### B. Transaction Encode and Broadcast Protocol

At the heart of the Bitcoin protocol is the ability to encode new transactions as Boomerang messages and then ripple them throughout the network. We describe the complete procedure for message encoding, `EncodeTransaction`, in Algorithm 1, where the notation contained therein is defined in Table I. This procedure takes only two parameters - a transaction  $T$  to encode and a set of valid nodes  $\mathbf{C}$  from which the circuit can be created, where nodes in the circuit are randomly sampled from this set (see Section IV-E for a more detailed description of how the address book is managed). An encoded Boomerang message has a very well-defined format, as shown in Figure 5, composed of seed element, encrypted address vector, encrypted message identifier (used internally during message validation), and the encrypted transaction. In particular, the message is composed of the following:

- 1) A potentially re-encrypted seed. By the description of `EncodeTransaction`, it is required that the public-key encryption scheme used to mask these seeds has the same domain and range. This is needed because the decrypted seed for one hop will be used as decrypted seed on the previous hop, very much like onion layers of encryption.
- 2) An encrypted address vector that is used by each hop to learn the next hop in the circuit without learning any other information about the nodes in the circuit. More specifically, a router can only learn about the immediate source and destination of a Boomerang message (the security and anonymity implications of this are discussed in the following section).
- 3) A potentially re-encrypted transaction message block. This block either stores the encrypted transaction, where the encryption is done by XORing with a pseudorandom bit string generated by the decrypted seed value, or the plaintext transaction that is to be broadcast throughout the network.

The asynchronous procedure to handle incoming Boomerang messages, `BoomerangMessageHandler`, is provided in Algorithm 3. This method will collect incoming Boomerang messages into the node's buffer, Buffer. When the number of messages in this buffer meets or exceeds  $B$ , the minimum buffer size, the `BoomerangMessageForwarder` asynchronous procedure will be invoked to shuffle the buffer, which is stored internally as a linked list, and then for each message peel off a layer of encryption on the transaction slot and transmit the result to the specified destination address.

#### Algorithm 1 `EncodeTransaction`( $T, \mathbf{C}$ )

```

1: for  $i = 1$  to  $W$  do
2:    $\bar{T} := T$ 
3:    $s \leftarrow$  random element from  $\mathbb{F}_p$ 
4:   for  $j = 1$  to  $D$  do
5:      $p := \text{PRG}(s)$ 
6:      $\bar{T} := \bar{T} \oplus p$ 
7:      $s \leftarrow E_{pk_{i,j}}(s)$ 
8:   end for
9:    $R \leftarrow$  random set of  $D$  nodes from  $\mathbf{C}$ 
10:  index := random even index from  $[0, \dots, 2D]$ 
11:   $\mathbf{AV} := [2D]$ 
12:   $\text{addr}_0 := \text{Nil}$ 
13:  for  $j = D$  downto 1 do
14:     $\mathbf{AV}[\text{index}] := E_{pk_{i,j}}(\text{addr}_{R[j]})$ 
15:    index := index + 1 (mod  $D$ )
16:     $\mathbf{AV}[\text{index}] := E_{pk_{i,j}}(\text{addr}_{R[j-1]})$ 
17:    index := unpopulated index slot from  $[0, \dots, 2D]$ 
18:     $\text{addr}_0 := \text{addr}_{R[j]}$ 
19:  end for
20:   $M := \text{Pack}(s, \mathbf{AV}, \bar{T})$ 
21:  Transmit( $\text{addr}_0, M$ )
22: end for

```

#### Algorithm 2 `BoomerangMessageHandler`( $j, M$ )

```

1:  $s := D_{sk_j}(M[0])$ 
2:  $\bar{T} := M[2] \oplus \text{PRG}(s)$ 
3: if  $\bar{T}$  is a well formed transaction then
4:   Broadcast( $\bar{T}$ ) to the Bitcoin network
5: else if  $\bar{T}$  destination address is  $\text{addr}_j$  then
6:   Discard  $\bar{T}$ ; return;
7: else
8:    $s := M[0]$ 
9:    $\mathbf{AV} := M[1]$ 
10:   $i := 1$ 
11:  while  $i < \text{len}(\mathbf{AV})$  do
12:     $\text{addr}_{src} := D_{pk_j}(\mathbf{AV}[j])$ 
13:    if  $\text{addr}_{src} = \text{addr}_j$  then
14:       $\text{addr}_{dst} := D_{pk_j}(\mathbf{AV}[j+1])$ 
15:      Buffer := append(Buffer, ( $s, T, \text{addr}_{dst}$ ))
16:    else
17:       $i := i + 2$ 
18:    end if
19:  end while
20: end if

```

TABLE II. BOOMERANG ENCODED MESSAGE FORMAT.

Field Size (bits)	Description	Data Type	Comments
256	Seed scratch	uint8_t[32]	This field is an element on the elliptic curve over the field $\mathbb{F}_p$ .
512D	Encrypted address vector	uint8_t[D][64]	Encryption of the address vector used to define the circuit trajectory.
*	Encoded transaction	uint8_t[]	Encoded transaction field with width equal to the maximum encoded transaction size.

**Algorithm 3** BoomerangMessageForwarder( $j$ )

---

```

1: Lock Buffer (block new additions)
2: Shuffle Buffer
3: for  $i = 1$  to  $|\text{Buffer}|$  do
4:    $(s, T, \text{addr}_{dst}) := \text{head}(\text{Buffer})$ 
5:    $s' := D_{pk_j}(s)$ 
6:    $p := \text{PRG}(s')$ 
7:    $T' := T \oplus p$ 
8:   Transmit( $\text{addr}_{dst}, T'$ )
9:    $\text{head}(\text{Buffer}) := \text{next}(\text{head}(\text{Buffer}))$ 
10: end for
11: Unlock Buffer (allow additions)

```

---

Similar to the Tarzan P2P mixnet, a critical part of the Boomerang protocol is the inclusion of cover traffic that is indistinguishable from legitimate encoded Boomerang transaction messages [3]. This traffic is needed for two reasons: (1) to keep legitimate transactions moving through mixnet circuits, and (2) to obfuscate the flow of legitimate transactions through the network. To support this cover traffic with minimal changes to the protocol, nodes in the network will *reuse* and *re-encode* old transactions to be sent throughout the network, with the exception that the destination node for the mixnet circuit (as specified in the EncodeTransaction procedure) will be the same as the sender. This is because the sender can easily discover when a transaction message has looped through the network and back to themselves, at which point they can then simply discard the transaction. Clearly, the rate at which this cover traffic is generated plays a critical role in the overall performance of the system when using Boomerang. We discuss the selection of parameters that achieve optimal performance without sacrificing security in Section 5.

*C. Peer Discovery Messages*

There are two types of Boomerang messages: peer discovery and maintenance messages, and encoded transaction and dummy messages. The encoded transaction and dummy messages were already described in Section IV-B. Here, we describe the format of the following peer discovery and maintenance messages: Version, VerAck, GetAddr, and Addr. Every one of such messages is prepended with a standard header whose format is shown in Table III. The Version message is used to establish a connection with a remote node, relay address information about a remote node, and verify Bitcoin protocol compatibility. Version messages are composed of the standard message header and the fields listed in Table IV. In response to a Version message, VerAck messages are sent from the recipient to the original sender. These messages include the standard message header and the fields listed in Table V. The GetAddr messages are composed of just the standard header - the body of the message is empty. Intuitively, one may think of these as short messages broadcasted throughout the group. Finally, the Addr message

contains information about active nodes on the network. An active node is a node that has been validated within the last 3 hours (this time parameter may differ on a per-client basis). The Addr message contains the standard message header and the fields listed in Table VI.

*D. Node Connections*

To connect to a remote node, the client sends a version message, which contains Bitcoin network information, Boomerang version, and a hash of the clients public key. If the remote node accepts the information in the version message, it will reply with a verack message that contains the remote nodes public key as well as its own version message. The client will reply with a verack message, which contains the client public key, if it accepts both messages from the remote node. Both nodes then add the address, public key, and time in their respective internal databases.

*E. Node Validation*

Boomerang clients draw from a pool of validated addresses for sending Boomerang transactions. If this pool is less than 1,000, Boomerang will begin to use dummy Boomerang messages to validate new addresses. The pool of addresses to be validated is equal to the number of validated addresses needed to reach the 1,000 address cap and is comprised of the most recently active non-validated addresses. If the pool of addresses is too small, Boomerang will begin sending getaddr queries to increase the pool size. An address is considered non-validated if it either has an invalid validation timestamp or a timestamp older than 3 hours. When a remote nodes address is added to the pool of addresses to be validated, the client must check if it has the nodes public key. If the address was added from a relayed addr message, the client must connect to the remote node in order to obtain the public key. If the connection could not be made, then the address is removed from the internal database and pool.

In order to validate addresses, dummy Boomerang messages will be routed through the addresses chosen from the pool of addresses to be validated as well as validated addresses. If the Boomerang message returns to the client and decrypts correctly, the nodes along the messages route are marked as verified with a second timestamp in the internal database. Both first timestamp, which keeps track of when the node was last seen as active, and the second validation timestamp are updated with the time the message arrived plus a small random number (from 0 to an hour). Boomerang will also update the timestamps if a transaction message sent by the client is heard over the Bitcoin network. Boomerang clients will only relay address information from addresses verified in the last 3 hours and never reveal the validation timestamp.

TABLE III. MESSAGE HEADER FORMAT.

Field Size	Description	Data Type	Comments
4	magic	uint32_t	Magic value indicating message origin network, and used to seek to next message when stream state is unknown
12	command	uint8_t[12]	
4	length	uint32_t	Length of payload in number of bytes
4	checksum	uint32_t	First 4 bytes of SHA256(SHA256(payload))

TABLE IV. Version MESSAGE FORMAT.

Field Size	Description	Data Type	Comments
4	version	int32_t	Identifies protocol version being used by the node
8	services	uint64_t	bitfield of features to be enabled for this connection
8	timestamp	int64_t	standard UNIX timestamp in seconds
26	addr_recv	net_addr	The network address of the node receiving this message
26	addr_from	net_addr	The network address of the node emitting this message
8	nonce	uint64_t	Node random nonce, randomly generated every time a version packet is sent. This nonce is used to detect connections to self.
?	user_agent	var_str	User Agent(0x00 if string is 0 bytes long)
4	coin_version	int32_t	Identifies Bitcoin protocol version being used
4	start_height	int32_t	The last block received by the emitting node
32	hash public key	uint8_t[32]	Hash of public key used by the node

TABLE V. VerAck MESSAGE FORMAT.

Field Size	Description	Data Type	Comments
256	public key	uint8_t[32]	Public key used by the recipient node

TABLE VI. Addr MESSAGE FORMAT.

Field Size	Description	Data Type	Comments
1+	count	var_int	Number of address entries (max: 1000)
30x?	addr_list	(uint32_t + uint8_t[32] + net_addr)[]	Address of other nodes on the network. Each address also includes timestamp of the last time the node was seen active as well as the hash of the public key the node uses.

## F. Cryptographic Primitives

Based on the EncodeTransaction and BoomerangMessageHandler procedures, we require the following cryptographic primitives to support Boomerang messages:

- 1) Efficient chosen plaintext secure (CPA-secure) public-key encryption<sup>1</sup> with regards to computational complexity and bandwidth requirements.
- 2) Deterministic PRG whose input is an element in the range specified by the public-key encryption scheme.

To satisfy the first primitive for public-key encryption and decryption, Boomerang leverages standard public-key elliptic curve cryptosystem over the NIST-recommended field  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , where  $|p| = 256$  (the size of prime  $p$  in bits) [?]. The domain parameters for the Boomerang encryption scheme are specified below:

- $p$  - the prime number defining the finite field over which all elliptic curve operations are performed.
- $a, b$  - the coefficients that define the elliptic curve -  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$ .
- $G$  - the generator base point for the field.

<sup>1</sup>The observant reader may see that CCA-security would be better suited for this design since it more accurately models a real-world adversary who can maliciously send malformed Boomerang messages with chosen ciphertexts to an honest node and observe the decrypted seed value that is output. However, since nodes will accumulate messages prior to mixing, an adversary cannot be sure *which* output message corresponded to their input message, and therefore the likelihood of an adversary discovering the plaintext associated with their chosen ciphertext is small.

- $n$  - the order of the curve generator point  $G$  (i.e., the number of points on the field).
- $h$  - the cofactor of the field (unused for encryption and decryption).

For completeness, we provide a brief (and modified) description of the setup, key generation, encryption, and decryption procedures used by the cryptosystem, denoted Setup, KeyGen, Enc, and Dec, respectively, as used in Boomerang.

- **Setup:** Generate and output domain parameters  $p, a, b, G, n$  and  $h$ .
- **KeyGen:** Select a random integer  $sk$  such that  $0 < sk < n$  and compute  $pk = sk \cdot G$ . Output the public and private key pair  $(pk, sk)$ .
- **Enc( $pk, m$ ):** Select a random integer  $r$  such that  $0 < r < n$ , compute  $R = r \cdot G$ ,  $S = r \cdot pk$  ( $S$  is the “secret” mask),  $T = m \oplus \text{DPRG}(S)$ . Output the ciphertext tuple  $(R, T)$ .
- **Dec( $sk, (R, T)$ ):** Compute  $S = sk \cdot R = sk \cdot r \cdot G = r \cdot (sk \cdot G) = r \cdot pk$ ,  $m = T \oplus \text{DPRG}(S)$ .

Traditionally, the element  $S$  is used to generate a symmetric key used to encrypt some message  $m$ . In our modified scheme, the element  $S$  is used to generate a one-time pad of the message  $m$  using a deterministic pseudorandom bit generator (DPRG), and  $R$  is used to recover the seed to remove this pad. Since  $r$  is chosen uniformly at random, the seed to the DPRG is uniformly random, and by definition the encryption  $m \oplus \text{DPRG}(S)$  is CPA-secure.

To satisfy the second primitive for the PRG, Boomerang leverages the counter mode deterministic pseudorandom bit generator (CTR-DRBG) algorithm as specified in [9] with AES-128 security strength (there is no security reason why this is chosen over Hash-DRBG or HMAC-DRBG). The CTR-DRBG takes as input a 256-bit seed to achieve AES-128 security (a seed derivation function could be used, but we omit this from the design). To use CTR-DRBG, a node must instantiate the state of the algorithm by specifying an entropy input, personalization string (fixed), and security strength parameter (optional, but assumed to be AES-128). To pump out pseudorandom bits, the update procedure is invoked using the state of the algorithm and the specified seed, as shown in Figure ??, to produce the required number of output bits  $V$  (note that the internal state value for  $Key$  is populated when the algorithm is instantiated).

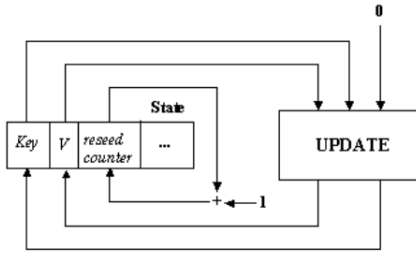


Fig. 3. CTR-DRBG update procedure.

### G. Boomerang Congestion Control

An obvious downside of the Boomerang design is that improper parameter selection (i.e., cover traffic generation rates, lengthy circuits, etc) can lead to network congestion and self-induced denial of service attacks. To this end, we propose the following congestion control strategy, motivated by the window-based congestion control algorithm in TCP Reno. Each node will maintain a window

## V. BOOMERANG PROPERTIES

In this section we elaborate on the design goals of Boomerang. We first discuss the anonymity properties that are provided by Boomerang, and then discuss system-level properties such as fault tolerance and performance.

### A. Anonymity Properties

Inspired by Tarzan [3], we analyze the anonymity properties of Boomerang with respect to static and adaptive adversaries. In particular, we strive to show that senders achieve anonymity against a minority of colluding nodes. Before proving any claims, we present the main sources of information exposure in Table VII; a positive entry indicates that an attacker will be able to uncover the source of information, whereas a negative entry indicates that such exposure is not feasible given the Boomerang design.

One of the defining properties of Boomerang messages is that both encoded transactions and dummy messages are computationally indistinguishable. Therefore, an eavesdropping adversary cannot deterministically determine the type of

messages based solely on passive observation, thus ensuring that the contents of each packet are not leaked in the network. Furthermore, even if an adversary successfully differentiates cover traffic from encoded (wrapped) transactions, an adversary cannot determine whether or not a compromised node is forwarding a transaction or is the original source of the transaction.

More formally, the size of the sender anonymity set for any particular message is exponential in the path length, i.e., in a network of  $N$  nodes comprised of  $N_{bad}$  nodes, there are  $((N - N_{bad})/N)^i$  possible sending nodes (the size of the anonymity set) of a message at hop  $i$  that could have generated the original message, assuming uniformly random and unbiased circuit creation. As a result, the probability that a node  $n$  is the originator for a particular message  $m$  if intercepted at hop  $i$  in the circuit is  $((N - N_{bad})/N)^{-(i)}$ . Building upon the anonymity analysis completed for Tarzan, we may quantify the confidence that a specific node in the anonymity set is the real sender is precisely as follows:

$$C_i = \frac{\Pr[H_i]}{E(|AS_i|) \times \Pr[H_{i+}]},$$

where  $|AS_i| = ((N - N_{bad})/N)^i$  and  $(\Pr[H_i]/\Pr[H_{i+}])$  is the probability that *some* node preceding the node at hop  $i$  is the sender. In this context, we use  $H_i$  to denote the event that first compromised node occurs at the  $i$ -th hop and  $H_{i+}$  to be the event that the first compromised node occurs somewhere after the  $i$ -th hop. Stated differently,  $\Pr[H_i]$  is the probability that a message travels through  $(i - 1)$  uncompromised nodes prior to reaching the first malicious node. Analogously,  $\Pr[H_{i+}]$  is the probability that a message traverses *at least*  $i$  honest nodes before reaching the first adversary. If the length of a circuit is  $l \leq D$ , and the average number of hops is at least  $E(l)$ , this means that  $\Pr[H_i]$  is equivalent to the product of  $((N - N_{bad})/N)^{i-1}$  and  $(N_{bad}/N)$  (i.e., the  $i$ -th hop is compromised) and the probability that the tunnel is at least  $(i - 1 + E(l))$  hops long; similar computations hold for  $\Pr[H_{i+}]$ . Stated formally, these probabilities can be computed as follows:

$$\Pr[H_i] = \left( \frac{\Pr[l \geq i - 1 + E(r)]}{\Pr[l \geq E(r)]} \right) \left( \frac{N - N_{bad}}{N} \right)^{i-1} \left( \frac{N_{bad}}{N} \right)$$

$$\Pr[H_{i+}] = \sum_{k=i-1}^D \left( \frac{\Pr[l \geq k + E(r)]}{\Pr[l \geq E(r)]} \right) \left( \frac{N - N_{bad}}{N} \right)^k \left( \frac{N_{bad}}{N} \right)$$

A simple verification of this confidence equation can be seen by observing that as  $N_{bad}/N \rightarrow 1$ ,  $C_1 \rightarrow 1$  as well, which implies that the adversary's confidence in successfully deanonymizing the original sender is 1.0 if they compromise the entire network. However, by the assumptions of the Bitcoin network, the number of honest nodes will always be a majority of the total nodes in the network. Making this substitution, we see that the expected size of the anonymity set  $E(|AS_i|)$  is bounded above by  $(1/2)^{i-1}$ , in the worst case.  $C_i$  also reduces to the following:

$$C_i = \frac{\left( \frac{\Pr[l \geq i - 1 + E(r)]}{\Pr[l \geq E(r)]} \right)}{\sum_{k=i-1}^D \left( \frac{\Pr[l \geq k + E(r)]}{\Pr[l \geq E(r)]} \right) \left( \frac{N - N_{bad}}{N} \right)^k}$$



TABLE VII. BOOMERANG INFORMATION EXPOSURE.

Information Exposed	Bad Entrance Node	Bad Intermediate Node	Bad Exit Node	Bad Entrance/Exit Nodes
Sender activity	Maybe	Maybe	No	Maybe
Sender content	No	No	No	Maybe

If an active adversary is strategic in the selection of their nodes to compromise, one may naively try to compromise the start and end nodes of a circuit to identify the sender. However, one of Boomerang's defining characteristics is that a circuit is use *once* to broadcast a new transaction. Therefore, standard attacks such as packet relay, tagging, and reordering are ineffective since they all rely on persistent circuits present in anonymizing networks such as Tor [10].

### B. System-Level Properties

From a systems perspective, Boomerang was designed with fault-tolerance and performance in mind. In particular, we (easily) claim that the Boomerang scheme is resistant to any adversarial attempt to leverage a successful denial of service (DoS) attack on the network. By the assumptions of the Bitcoin network, a majority of the participating nodes will always be honest (i.e., effectively uncompromised). Now, assume that there are  $N$  total nodes in the Bitcoin network, at least  $N/2$  such nodes are honest, and  $N_{bad} \leq \lceil N/2 \rceil - 1$  nodes are compromised. By this fact, during node selection and circuit formation,  $D$  nodes will be drawn at random without replacement, meaning that the probability of forming a circuit with at least one corrupt node  $\Pr[\text{BadCircuit}]$ , in the worst case by the union bound, is at most

$$\Pr[\text{BadCircuit}] = \sum_{i=0}^{D-1} \left[ \frac{\lceil (N-1)/2 \rceil}{N-1-i} \left( \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} 1 - \frac{\lceil (N-1)/2 \rceil}{N-j-1} \right) \right]$$

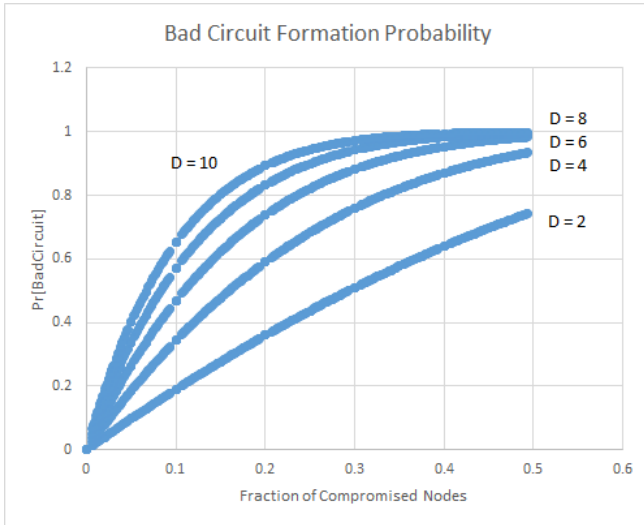


Fig. 4.  $\Pr[\text{BadCircuit}]$  behavior as a function of  $N$  and  $D$  (assuming  $W = 1$ ). As expected, the probability of forming a bad circuit, i.e., one with at least one compromised node, grows logarithmically with the number of compromised nodes in the network.

For reasonable measures of fault-tolerance, we require that this probability is kept as small as possible. However,

for anonymity purposes, we require that  $D$  is maximized to achieve optimal mixing (and thus, anonymity) throughout the network. To make this selection in an actual deployment of Boomerang, we would require some apriori knowledge about the expected number of compromised nodes at any given point in time. We are currently not aware of any means of acquiring or estimating this number. Therefore, assuming a reasonable majority of honest nodes, we recommend the selection of  $D \in \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$  in order to increase sender anonymity.

### C. Network Security Analysis

Analysis assumes a clients first connection is to an honest node. If the client first connects to a malicious node, no security is possible as the malicious node will trivially keep the client in the malicious network. The adversary can use many long-lived identities to bias the distribution of nodes towards the malicious network. If the adversary controls a majority of nodes, no security guarantees are possible. Therefore, security analysis will assume a client node to be connected to some honest nodes and the adversary does not control the majority of nodes.

The adversary can introduce many invalid addresses into the network. By using Boomerang messages to validate addresses, honest nodes can aggressively prune invalid addresses from their internal databases. In a similar fashion, Boomerang messages will prune nodes that improperly modify data that is routed through them. Due to the open nature of the Boomerang network, no solution to denial-of-service attacks are currently possible.

## VI. SIMULATIONS AND PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

In this section we describe the implementation of our simulator and discuss some performance measurements acquired using this tool. We also describe features that should be added to the simulator to support more realistic experiments. We conclude with a discussion of good parameter selection based on our observations using the simulator.

### A. Simulation Design

To assess the expected overhead introduced by Boomerang we implemented a custom discrete-time simulator that emulates the behavior of Bitcoin nodes (software clients) running Boomerang. Time in the simulation is measured in epochs; at every epoch a series of events occurs that advances the state of the system in some (usually) deterministic way. Our simulator supports the following behavior to closely resemble Boomerang:

- 1) Nodes enter and exit the network at random times.
- 2) Nodes make new transactions using configuration-specified parameters  $W$  and  $D$  at a random rate  $\pi$ .
- 3) Nodes generate cover traffic at a random rate  $\sigma$ .
- 4) Nodes manage their internal address books according the protocol described in section IV.



In addition, the simulation dynamically computes the following performance metrics:

- 1) Average number of “computations” done per node (i.e., the number of public-key encryption operations to encode a transaction).
- 2) Total and average message latency from the start to end of a circuit for single and every message, respectively.
- 3) Node forwarding throughput (messages/s).
- 4) Number of completed messages (transactions and cover messages) vs the number of in-progress messages.
- 5) Average number of transaction broadcast retries per node.

The parameters for a particular simulation are specified via a YAML configuration file which is parsed using the Java-based JYaml library [11]. An example configuration file which creates a simulation with  $N = 100$  nodes,  $D = 6$ ,  $W = 2$ , and cover and transaction generation rates uniformly distributed between  $[1, 5000]$  and  $[1, 7500]$  epochs (i.e., the most granular unit of time).

```
simTime: 2500
numNodes: 100
enterRate: 750
exitRate: 750
gridHeight: 10000
gridWidth: 10000
chaffGenRate: 5000
txGenRate: 7500
circuitWidth: 2
circuitDepth: 6
retryLimit: 7500
buffSize: 10
mixDelay: 50
pktSize: 1024
initialAddressSize: 250
validNodeTransmitReq: 50
addressBookSize: 1000
seed: 256
outfileprefix: "config-out"
path: "."
genMatrices: false
keepInMemory: false
```

The `genMatrices` and `keepInMemory` flags are used to ensure that the Java heap space isn't exhausted from memory leaks by storing all of the events generated by the simulation at each time epoch. To run the simulation with 8GB of heap space on the example configuration listed above, which is stored in a local file `config.yaml`, one would run the following command:

```
java -cp ./jyaml-1.3.jar:. -Xmx8g Boomerang
config.yaml
```

### B. Performance Metrics

Using our simulation, we performed a series of small and large experiments with properties summarized in Table ?? . Due to physical memory limitations and the initial single-threaded nature design of our simulator, we could not conduct experiments beyond  $N \approx 25000$ . We will address this shortcoming in our simulation design for future work.

TODO: discuss the graphs/charts here

### C. Parameter Selection

From a performance perspective, our main goal is to minimize the overhead of Boomerang message encoding, transmission, and forwarding while maximizing the anonymity properties discussed in the previous section. To that end, we discuss how the performance varies based on system-wide parameters that influence such anonymity properties. Based on the Boomerang design it is clear that the performance of the Boomerang scheme is tightly coupled to  $W$ ,  $D$ , and the rate at which cover traffic and new encoded transactions generation.

Using the custom simulator developed for this project, we propose \*\*\*\*

## VII. RELATED WORKS

Tarzans P2P network is much more secure than Boomerang, but may not function well in the Bitcoin environment due to scalability. Tarzans peer discovery protocol involves gossip and validation. Nodes gossip network information by exchanging all known addresses and corresponding public key hashes. A node validates an address by directly connecting to it with a gossip message that includes a nonce.

The benefit of Tarzans gossip procedure is that malicious nodes cannot respond with a different public key for every node in the network. Nodes learn public keys from gossip and not from the owner of the keys. Tarzans validation method prevents the propagation of invalid address information throughout the network. Assuming the first node a client connects to in the Tarzan network is honest, the client will eventually learn of every honest node in the network. The Tarzan network is not as scalable due to the amount of communication required to set up and maintain the network.

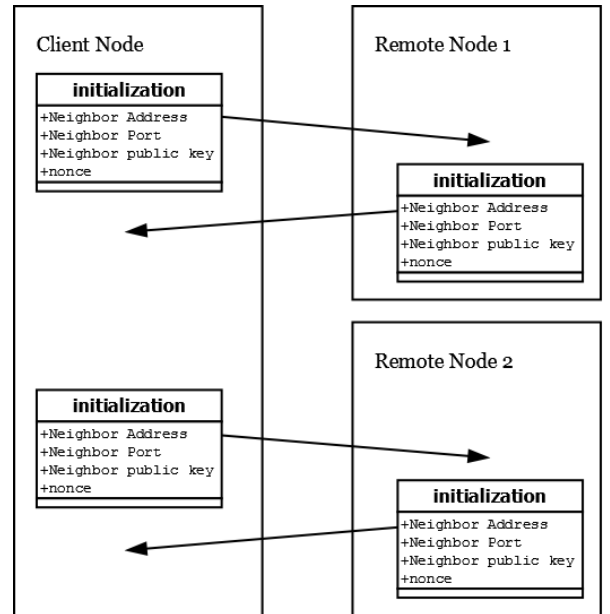


Fig. 6. Tarzan gossip and validation protocol.

Peer-to-peer distributed hash table (DHT) networks, such as Chord and Kademlia, use a distributed system to keep track

TABLE VIII. TODO

Experiment #	$N$	$D$	$W$	$\sigma_{max}$	$\pi_{max}$
1	50	6	2	5000	7500
2	100	6	2	5000	7500
3	150	6	2	5000	7500
4	200	6	2	5000	7500
5	250	6	2	5000	7500
6	1000	6	2	5000	7500
7	10000	6	2	5000	7500
8	50	8	1	5000	15000
9	100	8	1	5000	15000
10	150	8	1	5000	15000
11	200	8	1	5000	15000
12	250	8	1	5000	15000
13	1000	8	1	5000	15000
14	10000	8	1	5000	15000

TABLE IX. TODO

Experiment #	E[Message Latency]	E[Chaff Encryptions]	E[Transaction Encryptions]	E[Forwarded Messages]	E[Retries]
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6		35.25	18.91	16468.7	0.04
7		29.59	20.75	13750.8	0.02

of key-value pairs. DHT networks use a 160-bit key space. The Chord network has the keys arranged in a circle. Each node in the Chord network maintains a segment of the circle adjacent to it. A successor to a Chord node is the node that maintains the next set of keys. By searching linearly through nodes, the node responsible for a key-pair can be found. To speed up searches, each node also keeps a finger table that contains successor information as shown below.

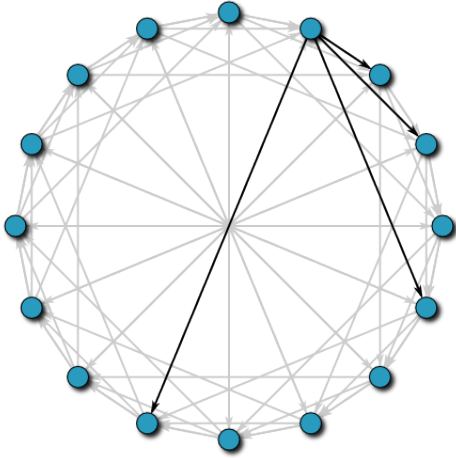


Fig. 7. A Chord network with “finger” table entries highlighted.

Kademlia DHT is similar to Chord except that it is organized as a tree and distance is calculated using the exclusive or operation. The exclusive or operation allows the nodes in the Kademlia network to have symmetric distances between two nodes. Kademlia's simpler distance calculation and iterative search, which is made possible by the tree-shaped network, allows for much faster searches than the Chord network. Both networks are decentralized, autonomous network that has fault

tolerance and scalability. Unlike the Tarzan network, DHT networks do not prevent attacks on key searches or index poisoning and therefore allow a few malicious nodes to prevent nodes from finding other honest nodes.

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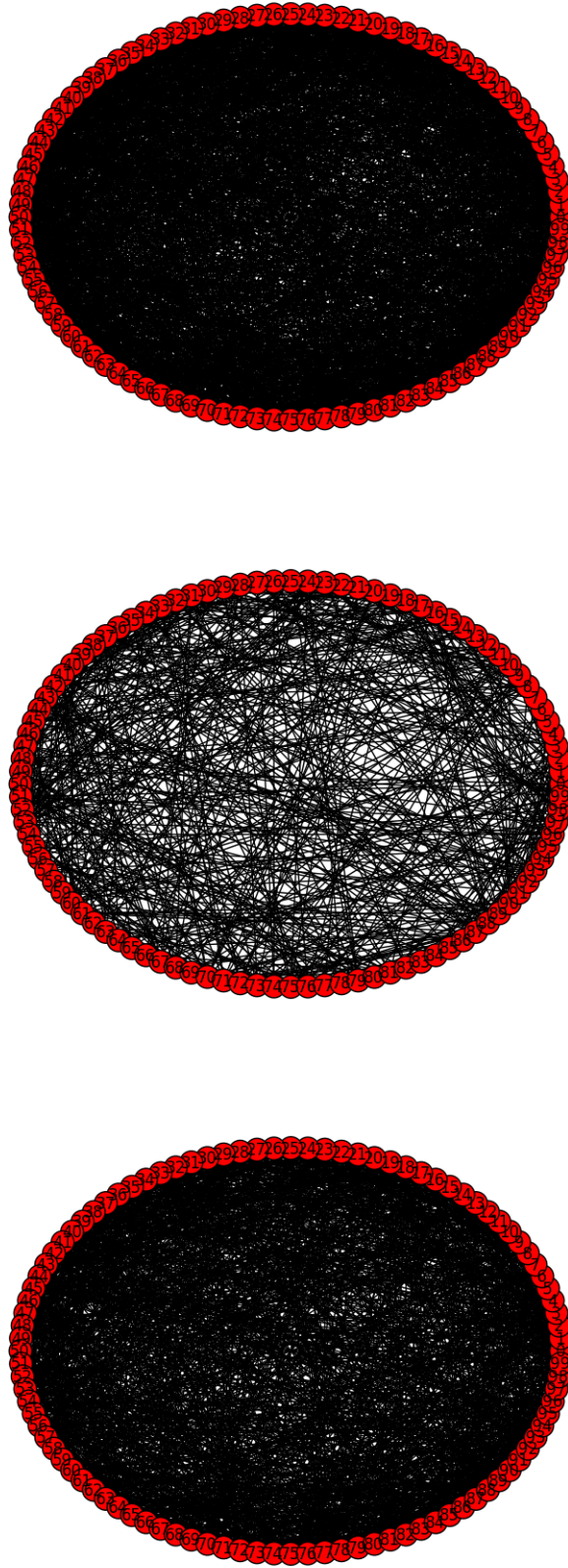


Fig. 5. Flow of dummy messages and forwarded from Experiment #1. Nodes have directed edges between them if some message was sent between them during the lifetime of the simulation. The coverage of nodes is clearly uniformly distributed, as desired.