



# Privacy-Preserving Resource Sharing Using Permissioned Blockchains (The Case of Smart Neighbourhood)

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**Abstract.** In a resource sharing system users offer goods and services with specified conditions that if met, the access will be granted. Traditional resource sharing systems use a trusted intermediary that mediates users' interactions. Our work is motivated by a decentralized resource sharing platform (proposed in WTSC'20) that uses a permissioned blockchain to allow users to share their digital items with their specified attributed-based access policies that are enforced through a set of smart contracts, and removes the need for a trusted intermediary. The system however allows users' accesses to be traced, and has limited availability as access to a resource requires its owner to be on-line. We design a decentralized attribute-based access control system that achieves the same functionality while preserving the privacy of user's access, and automating access which removes the need for the resource owner to be online. We use two cryptographic primitives, Ciphertext Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (CP-ABE), and ring signatures, and design smart contracts that allow specification and cryptographic enforcement of the users' specified policies. We analyze the security and privacy of the system, provide the description of smart contracts and give a proof of concept implementation of the smart contracts and cryptographic algorithms that are used in the system. Our design and implementation are general and can be used for privacy-preserving resource sharing with fine-grained access control in other settings including data and information sharing among collaborating parties.

**Keywords:** Privacy-preserving resource sharing · Blockchain · Smart contract · Attribute-based access control · Attribute-based encryption · Anonymous authentication · Smart neighborhood

## 1 Introduction

Resource sharing platforms enable peers to acquire, provide, or share goods and services through intermediary service providers. Sharing platforms such as Airbnb [1] and Uber [2] are centralized online platforms that connect resource owners with resource providers, and manage their interactions and payments.

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In centralized systems the platform provider is a single Trusted Authority (TA) that mediates all interactions. Centralized designs have the drawback of having a single point of failure and a single TA with full access to users' data. This is not only highly privacy-invasive, but in the case of compromise of TA, reveals all users information and their history of interactions.

In WTSC 2020, a decentralized resource sharing platform for digital items in smart neighbourhoods was proposed [3] that addresses some of the shortcomings of the centralized systems. Authors motivated their work by considering a smart neighbourhood application where an initial trust among parties (and so willingness to share) exists because of the geographic proximity, but there is a need for user control of their sharing so that they are confident about the outcome. Authors proposed a decentralized system that uses a permissioned blockchain that is maintained by a set of Consensus nodes (or C-nodes for short), and enables users to specify conditions of access to their resource and be confident that they will be enforced. Sharing will be among "registered" users of the system that are approved by the C-nodes that use *proof of authority* consensus among themselves to control access to the blockchain. C-nodes verify transactions to ensure they are generated by registered users and publish them on the blockchain. The system uses *attribute-based access control* to allow users to express fine-grained conditions of access to resources by specifying associated *attribute-based access policies*. Resources have certificates for their properties (attributes) that can be verified by users. A resource requester provides their (certified) attributes in their request. The request will be verified by the C-nodes for matching the stated policy. If the request is accepted, the resource owner issues an access token that allows the requester to access the resource. Authors designed a set of smart contracts that automates and implements the system and enforces the stated access policies, effectively removing the need for a single TA. The system however has major drawbacks: it offers no privacy for users and allows their attributes and accesses to be visible by the C-nodes and the resource providers; and it has limited availability: for accessing a resource, the resource provider must be online to issue the access token. We redesign the system to provide privacy for users' access, and automate users' access and remove the need for the resource owner to mediate each request.

## 1.1 Our Contributions

We use two cryptographic building blocks, a *Ciphertext Policy Attribute-based Encryption (CP-ABE)* [4] to cryptographically enforce access control, and anonymous authentication and access using *ring signature* [5], that together will allow secure private access to resources without the need for the resource owner to be online. Using CP-ABE protects the need to send the requesters' attributes in plaintext to the blockchain, and ring signature enables anonymous authentication and access request validation, preventing traceability of the requests. Effective use of these primitives needs an overhaul of smart contracts in [3] and design of a new set of contracts. We provide a detailed security and privacy anal-

ysis of our design, and provide a proof of concept implementation to demonstrate feasibility of using advanced cryptographic primitives in real-life applications.

Although our work is motivated by sharing digital items in smart neighbourhood, our design and implementation are general and will have wider applications for privacy-preserving sharing of digital items with fine-grained access control, for example, sharing documents among collaborating organizations based on an access policy.

**Proposed System.** The system consists of a number of entities that interact through the blockchain and smart contracts to publish and access resources according to the stated policies.

*Entities.* Users must register to the system. We consider three types of authorities: (i) *Blockchain Authority (BA)* that consists of the set of C-nodes, and performs user registration, maintain the blockchain and membership of the users, and verify identity of requesters; (ii) *Certificate Authorities (CA)* that are trusted for issuing certificates for attributes of users and shareable digital objects, and certificates will be verifiable by the BAs as well as the users; and (iii) *CP-ABE Attribute Authority (CP-ABE AA)* that is responsible for generating CP-ABE private and public keys for registered users (registration by BA) according to their attributes.

*Smart Contracts.* We use smart contracts to allow users to advertise their digital objects together with the specified access policy, and securely provide the requested information to the users. We design a set of interconnected smart contracts to achieve these goals with higher privacy.

We consider the following smart contracts:

- i. User directory contract (**uDir**): this contract is deployed by the blockchain authority (BA), and holds the public identity information of the registered users. The shared information of each user consists of a pseudonym and a public key certificate (that includes the user's public key) that has been issued by one of the C-nodes. The information in this contract can be (non-anonymously) requested by users from BA and will be used by users for anonymous authentication and hiding their identity among a group (using ring signature).
- ii. Object directory contract (**oDir**): this contract is deployed by the BA and contains the user information (same as included in **uDir**) and their shareable items information (one entry per item) including, object Id, description, a link to the **objPropRep** and **objACC** contracts.
- iii. Object property repository contract (**objPropRep**) is deployed by the resource owner. It holds the Id and properties of the shareable object.
- iv. Object access control contract (**objACC**) is deployed by the resource owner. It holds the object Id, the access policy and CP-ABE encrypted metadata of the resource.
- v. Adjudicator contract (**Adj**): this contract is deployed by BA, and allows requesters to report misbehaviors. The system can choose a verifier to validate the reports and penalize the misbehaving owners.

The smart contracts and the data stored by them are part of the permissioned blockchain and are accessible to registered users upon making a request.

*User Authentication.* BA runs an authentication service *AuthServ*, that register users, provide public key certificate, and verify users' requests to access blockchain. We consider that a user access request has the following format: it consists of two parts, (i) the request (e.g., a function call to a smart contract to read some data), and (ii) a signature which endorses the request. In practice, an access request can be simply a transaction or a more complex information unit depending on the implementation and the underlying blockchain system. For privacy, the user identity is verified through an anonymous authentication protocol, and the signature of the request will be based on an anonymous signature.

We use a challenge and response anonymous authentication, where the response is the ring signature [5] of the prover on the challenge sent by the verifier. The challenge in our system is obtained from a randomness beacon service (provided by the BA) that is broadcasted at regular intervals. The random string has length  $\ell$  that is determined by the system security level (we use  $\ell = 512$  bits in our implementation). The signature of each request (for e.g. an issued transaction) will include the current value of the challenge, and will be considered valid (after verification of the signature) if it has been generated within a defined interval (timeliness). This effectively combines user authentication and request validation (i.e. request is issued by a registered user within a close time interval). The request that is sent to the BA will be encrypted using the BA's public key.

*Processing a Request.* There are two types of requests, (i) non-anonymous requests which are used to browse blockchain and obtain information about existing resources and users, and (ii) anonymous requests, which are used for a specific resource. The sequence of steps in making a request to access an item, and its processing are as follows: (i) User  $B_r$  authenticates itself to an *AuthServ* using a traditional digital signature, gets the interfaces of *uDir* and *oDir* contracts (by issuing non-anonymous requests), and browses *oDir* and *uDir* contracts on the blockchain by making another non-anonymous requests; (ii)  $B_r$  makes an anonymous request (using ring signature) to the *objPropRep* contract for an object  $O$  that is listed in *oDir*; *AuthServ* authenticates the (anonymous) request of  $B_r$  and passes it to *objPropRep* contract; (iii)  $B_r$  receives the properties of the object  $O$  and the corresponding certificates, and if verified, makes an anonymous access request for the object  $O$  to the *objACC* contract; (v) *AuthServ* authenticates the (anonymous) request of  $B_r$  and passes it to the *objACC* contract; (vi)  $B_r$  receives the access policies and the CP-ABE encrypted metadata, and decrypts it using its CP-ABE private key. If the private key matches the access policy of CP-ABE encrypted metadata,  $B_r$  will obtain the link to the object  $O$ . Note that the response to anonymous requests are returned to all ring members that are determined by the requester upon issuing a request.

*Security and Privacy.* We use a CP-ABE scheme to ensure a requester whose attributes satisfy the item's stated policy is able to decrypt it (security), and

use ring signature based authentication protocol to ensure that accesses are by authorized users (security), and the BA and the resource owner cannot link the access requests to the resource requester (privacy). Outsiders will only see encrypted communications. A detailed security and privacy analysis is given in Sect. 4.

**Proof of Concept Implementation.** We use Ganache [6] to setup the required private (permissioned) Ethereum blockchain infrastructure. Smart contracts are written in *Solidity* language using Remix IDE [7], and *Truffle* is used for contract deployment and run of the experiments. We evaluate computation cost of using cryptographic primitives namely, (CP-ABE) [4], ring signature [5] and AES symmetric key encryption scheme [8], as well as the execution cost of the smart contract functions in Ethereum blockchain. Our results are presented in Sect. 5 and show viability of our system for real-world applications.

**Organization.** Section 2 reviews preliminaries, Sect. 3 describes the details of our system, assumptions and security goals and user's interaction with the system. Section 4 gives the security and privacy analysis of the proposed system. Section 5 gives the details of the implementation and evaluation result, and finally Sect. 6 concludes the paper.

## 1.2 Related Work

Anonymous access and participation in system has been used in a variety of applications including electronic voting [9], e-mail [10], and social networking [11]. Access control models have evolved over years and new models that more efficiently capture the requirements have been proposed [12, 13]. Attribute-Based Access Control (ABAC) is a more recent model that allows a fine-grained approach to express access control requirements [14, 15]. In cryptographic systems, attribute-based encryption (ABE), first proposed by Sahai and Waters [16], are proposed to allow access control based on attributes of decryptor. Goyal et al. [17] introduced ciphertext policy attribute-based encryption (CP-ABE), where each ciphertext is associated with an access structure. A user receives a secret key associated with their set of attributes and is able to decrypt a ciphertext if and only if their attributes satisfy the access structure of the ciphertext. Bethencourt et al. [4] proposed the first CP-ABE construction using the generic bilinear group model [18, 19]. CP-ABE is then used in many privacy-preserving resource sharing infrastructures including [20–24].

Using blockchain to store and enforce access control policies are given in [25–27]. In [28], smart contracts are used for enforcing role-based access control policies. The work of [29] uses smart contracts to establish an access control for IoT systems. In [30], a blockchain-enabled decentralized capability-based access control is proposed for propagation and revocation of the access authorization. A multi-authority attribute-based access control scheme is proposed in [31]. The work of [31] uses Ethereum smart contracts to develop an attribute-based access control system. Smart contracts for access control have also been considered in [32–34]. We motivate our work based on [3] and redesign it to ensure privacy of

user's access and automating the user's access. The set of smart contracts in our work differs from [3], for example the ACC contract in [3] checks whether the attributes of user match the stated access policy of the resource (enforcement of policy is done on chain) whereas we use CP-ABE to evaluate the access policies (so the enforcement of policy is done off-chain).

## 2 Preliminaries

In this section, we introduce our notations and the cryptographic primitives that are central to our work.

**Ciphertext-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (CP-ABE).** A CP-ABE scheme CP-ABE consists of four algorithms: (i) the setup algorithm CP-ABE.Setup( $1^\lambda$ ) that for a security parameter  $\lambda$ , generates the master secret key  $msk$  and the system's public key  $pk_{abe}$ ; (ii) the key generation algorithm CP-ABE.KGen( $1^\lambda$ ) that generates the CP-ABE private key  $sk_{abe}$  for a given attribute set  $attr$ ; (iii) the encryption algorithm CP-ABE.Enc that takes a message  $m$ , and a policy  $P$  and produces the ciphertext  $c^{CP-ABE}$ ; and (iv) the decryption algorithm CP-ABE.Dec that takes a ciphertext  $c^{CP-ABE}$  that is obtained as above and a private key  $sk_{abe}$  and outputs  $m$  if  $attr$ , the associated attribute set of  $sk_{abe}$ , satisfies the policy  $P$ , else returns  $\perp$ . In our implementation we use Bethencourt et al. CP-ABE scheme [4].

**Ring Signature:** Ring signature [5] is an anonymous signature scheme that hides a user's public key among a set of  $N$  public keys, making the signer of the message the holder of one of the  $N$  keys. A ring signature scheme RingS consists of three algorithms: (i) A key generation algorithm RingS.KGen( $1^\lambda$ ) that takes the security parameter  $\lambda$  and produces a set  $R$  of  $N$  public and private key pairs  $R = \{(pk_i, sk_i), i \in \{1, 2 \dots N\}\}$ ; (ii) Signature generation algorithm RingS.Sig signs a message  $m$  using the signer's private key  $sk_i$ , and the public keys in  $R$ , and outputs a ring signature  $\sigma_R$ ; and (iii) RingS.Vf that takes public keys in  $R$ , message  $m$ , and the signature  $\sigma_R$  as input and verifies the signature: if valid, returns 1, else 0. A secure ring signature ensures anonymity, unlinkability, and existential unforgeability.

**Blockchain and Smart Contracts.** A blockchain is a distributed ledger technology which stores data (transactions) in a growing chain of ordered blocks that are securely and irreversibly linked to each other through a cryptographic hash function. All peer nodes who run the system use a consensus algorithm to agree on the validity and the order of blocks [35]. We consider *permissioned blockchains* where the consensus algorithm is run by a set of privileged computing nodes, referred to as *Blockchain Authorities* (BA in this paper)<sup>1</sup>, that verify transactions of users, and if verification succeeds, publish the result on the chain based on an agreed consensus algorithm. The consensus algorithm is a *Proof of Authority algorithm* that will be defined and agreed upon by the BAs at the

<sup>1</sup> These nodes were referred to as C-nodes in [3].

time of system setup. A permissioned blockchain is only accessible to registered members of the system. In non-permissioned blockchain such as Ethereum [36] anyone can join the blockchain and participate in the consensus algorithm.

*Smart contract* is a computer program that runs in a blockchain consensus computing network [37]. Each program instruction is agreed upon through the consensus algorithm and so the execution of the program will be trusted.

**Randomness Beacon.** A randomness beacon is a service that periodically generates and publishes (broadcasts) a random string. Randomness beacons must be *unpredictable*, *unbiased* and *available* [38]. An additional desirable property of randomness beacon is *public verifiability* that ensure the claimed randomness of the beacon. An example of a randomness beacon is the NIST randomness beacon [39] that uses hardware-generated randomness.

### 3 System Design

We consider three types of authorities: (i) *Blockchain authorities*, *BAs*, that register users and issue certificates for users' public keys (for a digital signature algorithm), authenticate users (cf. Sect. 3.2 for more details), and manage interaction of users with the blockchain. Each BA also runs a randomness beacon service that broadcasts random numbers at regular intervals. BA publishes two public keys, one public key is for verifying the signed certificates, and the second public key is for an encryption algorithm that is employed by the users to communicate with blockchain. (ii) *Certificate authorities*, *CAs*, verify users attributes and objects' properties, and issue the corresponding certificates for them. CA is also responsible for checking the legal restrictions of the objects and only issues certificate for valid objects. (iii) *CP-ABE attribute authority*, *CP-ABE AA*, generates a master secret key  $msk$  and a system public key  $pk_{abe}$  for the CP-ABE cryptosystem, and publishes on the blockchain. It also generates private keys for users (corresponding to their certified attributes).

Let  $A_o$  be a user who owns object  $O$ , and  $B_r$  denote a user who makes a request  $r$ . The resource owner  $A_o$  can deploy contracts for their objects on the blockchain that will be visible to all registered users. A contract can hold the information about multiple objects, and can be updated by  $A_o$ .

Owners will be represented by pseudonyms that can be mapped to their identities by the BA who has registered the user and so are traceable by that specific BA when they use their public keys.

User authentication to BA is through a challenge-response authentication protocol between the user and the BA, where BA issues a random challenge, and the user response is the signed challenge, together with the request. A user can use their secret key to sign the request and the challenge, in which case their pseudonym will be known by BA (the BA who has registered the user additionally knows the real identity of the user), or use a ring signature for anonymous authentication. The challenge in both cases is obtained by the latest broadcasted randomness. More details on this protocol in Subsect. 3.2.

We consider five contracts in the system: User directory contract (**uDir**), Object directory contract (**oDir**), object property repository contract (**objPropRep**), object access control contract (**objACC**) and Adjudicator contract (**Adj**). **uDir**, **oDir**, and **Adj** are deployed on the blockchain by BA when the system is set up and they hold the information related to all users. **objACC** and **objPropRep** are deployed by resource owners, upon sharing a resource. A user  $B_r$  who makes a request may receive an object that does not match its advertised properties. In such cases, the requester can report misbehavior to BA that is implemented by the Adjudicator contract. The details of contracts are given in Subsect. 3.3.

### 3.1 Security Goals

We consider the following entities: (i) users, (ii) BA, (iii) CA and CP-ABE AA, and (iv) outsiders.

*Trust Assumptions.* We assume BA is semi-honest: they follow the protocol but want to infer information about users and their accesses. For example, BA may link requesters and owners, or link requests of users. CA and CP-ABE AA are fully trusted: they follow the protocol and manage the keys as required. Users can deviate arbitrarily from the protocol: an owner may be unregistered, claim properties that the object does not have, or provide invalid link to the object. Users may be curious about others.

**Security.** The goal is to ensure that access to an object is only granted if (i) the requester is registered, and (ii) the user's specified access policy is satisfied.

**Privacy.** We consider two privacy requirements.

- i. Registered users, BA, and outsiders cannot link the requester of an object  $O$  to the object owner;
- ii. Registered users, BA, and outsiders should not be able to link access requests of users.

In our privacy analysis we consider two cases:

- i. *Pre-interaction* case, where the system is ready to function (user registration and advertising resources are complete) but no browsing or access request has been made to the BA;
- ii. *Post-interaction* case, where some successful interactions to view or access objects have been made.

We define *information leakage (privacy breach) of the system* as the difference between the views of an entity in the above two cases and what can be inferred from it.



### 3.2 Authentication and Requests

We use  $\text{Beacon}(t)$  as the challenge (random value) for user authentication across the system for the time period  $[t, t + 1]$ . A user response will be generated using the digital signature scheme  $\text{DS} = (\text{DS.KGen}, \text{DS.Sig}, \text{DS.Vf})$  and user's private key, on a request that includes  $\text{Beacon}(t)$ . For anonymous authentication, a ring signature based on this signature scheme will be used. Steps of response generation are as follows.

- (i) Get auxiliary information that are required for sending a request to blockchain (e.g. list of registered users for choosing the public key set  $\text{set}_{pk}$ , the public key of  $\text{AuthServ}$  for encryption).
- (ii) Use  $r_t = \text{Beacon}(t)$  where current time is in  $[t, t + 1]$ .
- (iii) Sign  $(pk_{TYP} || m || r_t)$  where  $m$  is the request,  $r_t$  is as defined above, and  $pk_{TYP}$  is the public key of signature type  $TYP \in \{S, RS\}$ , where  $S$  and  $RS$  denote traditional digital signature and ring signature, respectively. Let  $\sigma$  denote the signature value. The response is  $(m, r, \sigma, pk_{TYP})$ .

We consider two types of requests, (i) non-anonymous requests, which are used for browsing the blockchain<sup>2</sup>, and (ii) anonymous requests that target a specific resource. For non-anonymous requests,  $pk_{TYP}$  is the public key of the user<sup>3</sup>. For anonymous requests,  $pk_{TYP}$  is equal to a set  $\text{set}_{pk}$  of public keys that belong to a set of registered users in the system (it includes the public key of the requester), and will be used in the ring signature.

We require transmitted request to the blockchain be encrypted with the BA's (precisely  $\text{AuthServ}$ ) public key  $Pk_{AS}$ . Users will use  $pk_{AS}$  to encrypt their request to BA,  $C = \text{Enc}(pk_{AS}, (m, r, \sigma, pk_{TYP}))$ . Then,  $\text{AuthServ}$  decrypts  $C$ , and verifies the requester and request as follows.

- (i) Verify that  $r = \text{Beacon}(t)$  for the time interval  $[t, t + 1]$  that user is sending the message.
- (ii) Verify that  $pk_{TYP}$  has been already recorded in  $\text{uDir}$  contract.
- (iii) Verify  $\sigma$  based on the signature type specified by  $Pk_{TYP}$ , i.e.,  $\text{result} = \text{DS.Vf}(\sigma, pk_{TYP} || m || r, pk_{TYP})$ . If  $\text{result} = 1$  send  $(m, pk_{TYP})$  to blockchain, otherwise send *reject* to the user.

*Choosing Ring Members.* We assume  $\text{set}_{pk}$  comprises of two subsets  $\text{set}_{pk} = \text{set}_1 \cup \text{set}_2$ ;  $\text{set}_1$  contains public keys that are randomly chosen from the list of registered users, and  $\text{set}_2$  is randomly selected public keys from the  $pk_{\text{set}}$  of last request issued to BA. We assume that the size of ring is determined based on the total number of malicious users in the system such that it can guarantee in each randomly chosen ring at least two parties are honest (the signer and one of the ring members).

Due to the properties of the ring signature and random beacon, our authentication system provides anonymity, unlinkability, existential unforgeability, and real-time authentication (please see Appendix A for more details).

<sup>2</sup> We highlight that the requests of resource owner to BA are also non-anonymous.

<sup>3</sup> We can use the ring signature with ring size equal to 1 as a regular signature.

### 3.3 Smart Contracts

The details of contracts are given below (see Appendix C for abstract of contracts). Note that all the contracts have a *self-destruct* method (to make the contracts inaccessible) which can be called only by the contract owner.

**User Directory Contract (uDir):** This contract holds a table containing the pseudonym and public key certificate (that includes the public key) of registered users. These information can be browsed by requesters to form the set of public keys  $set_{pk}$  for the ring signature. This contract has the following interfaces:

- **registerUser():** is used by *AuthServ* to set the information of registered users.
- **deleteUser():** is used by *Adj* contract (if a user misbehaves) or *AuthServ* to delete the information about the user.
- **getUsersInfo():** is used by requesters to get the information of registered users in the system.

**Object Directory Contract (oDir):** This contract holds a table of object Id, pseudonym and public key of the resource owner, description of the object, address of the *objACC* contract, ABI of *objACC* contract, address of the *objPropRep* contract, and ABI of the *objPropRep* contract (cf. Table 1). This contract has the following interfaces:

**Table 1.** oDir contract

Oid	$pId_o$	$pk_o$	ODesc	objACC address	objACC ABI	objPropRep address	objPropRep ABI
$M_i$	Alice	0x456ab7	Cartoon, 90 m,	0xfd45322	$[setAccessInfo(M_i), \dots]$	0xab49871	$[setPropertyInfo(M_i), \dots]$

- **registerResource():** is used by each resource owner to register their objects and provide information for accessing the objects.
- **updateResource():** is used by resource owners to update their resources. Only the user whose public key has been stored in the table is able to update the object.
- **deleteResource():** is used by resource owners and *Adj* contract to delete the information of the inaccessible objects.
- **getContractInfo():** is used by requesters to retrieve the address and ABI of the *objACC* and *objPropRep* for all objects.
- **getAdvertiseInfo():** is used by *objACC* to get the advertisement info for a specific object including the owners information and object description.

**Object Property Repository Contract (objPropRep):** This contract is deployed by each resource owner and stores the list of objects, their properties, and certificates (cf. Table 2). *objPropRep* has the following interface:

**Table 2.** objPropRep table

Oid	Properties	Cert
$M_i$	$prop_1, \dots, prop_\nu$	$cert_{CA}^{M_i}$

- **setPropertyInfo()**: is used only by the resource owner to add a new object and its properties and certificates.
- **getPropertyInfo()**: is used by requesters and objACC contract to retrieve the information of a specific resource. objACC only receives the properties of the object, whereas requesters will receive both the properties and certificates of the requested object.
- **updatePropertyInfo()**: is used only by the resource owner to update the information of a specific object.
- **deletePropertyInfo()**: is used by the resource owner and Adj to remove the information of the resources which are no longer accessible or valid.

**Access Control Contract (objACC):** This contract is deployed by each resource owner to upload the ciphertexts (cf. Table 3) and policies that are required for decrypting the CP-ABE ciphertext.

**Table 3.** objACC table

Oid	Ciphertext	Access policies
$M_i$	$c^{CP-ABE}(M(c_O))$	$Age > 6, Preference = local \vee international, club\ membership = Club2$

- **addAccessInfo()**: is used only by the resource owner to add a CP-ABE encrypted metadata and its access policies.
- **updateAccessInfo()**: is used by the resource owner to update CP-ABE encrypted metadata and policy for an object.
- **deleteAccessInfo()**: is used by the resource owner and Adj to remove the information of objects that are not accessible or valid anymore.
- **getAccessInfo()**: is used by requesters to get the CP-ABE encrypted metadata and the access policies to decrypt CP-ABE metadata.
- **setContractAddress()**: is used by the owner to set the address of the objPropRep and oDir contracts.
- **getRequestHistory()**: is used to retrieve the history of the requests that has been made to the contract. Each objACC contract stores the requests, i.e. the authentication information provided by the requester, the Oid of the accessed object, and the time of the request.

**Adjudicator Contract (Adj):** This contract is used to record misbehaviors. It keeps a table containing the *Oid* of the resource, the public key of the resource owner, the misbehavior, time of report, and state of the complain. Note that since we are ensuring anonymity for requesters Adj cannot be used to record the misbehavior of requesters (unlike [3]). However, if a resource owner provides invalid link, a requester can anonymously complain about it for further checks by a trusted entity (verifier) that is determined by BA. (c.f. Table 4)

**Table 4.** Adj table

Oid	$pk_o$	Misbehavior	Time	State
$M_i$	0x4598abc678	Incorrect link	10:05 12/9/2020	Unchecked

- **registerVerifier()**: is used by BA to set a verifier(s) who can check the complains.
- **reportMisbehavior()**: is used by requesters to complain about a resource owner and object information.
- **setMisbehaviorState()**: is used by the specified verifier to set the result of checking the misbehavior. Adj contract calls **deleteResource**( $M_i$ ) of **oDir**, **deletePropertyInfo**( $M_i$ ) of **objPropRep**, and **deleteAccessInfo**( $M_i$ ) of **objACC** contracts to delete the information about the resources that are proved to be incorrect and calls **deleteUser**( $pk_o$ ) of **uDir** contract to delete the resource owners who are misbehaving.
- **getLatestMisbehavior()**: is used by users to get the information of the latest misbehavior for a specific resource owner.

### 3.4 Interactions of Users with System

There are three stages in our scheme (cf. Appendix B for the algorithm).

#### 1. Registration:

- (a) Each user with  $Id_{A_o}$  (or similarly  $Id_{B_r}$  for requester) chooses their pseudonym  $pId_{A_o}$  and present it to the blockchain authority (BA) at the time of registration and gets the public-private key pair ( $Pk_{A_o}, Sk_{A_o}$ ) and a certificate  $cert_{Pk_{A_o}}^{BA}$  (corresponding to user's public key). Once the registration is complete, the BA publishes the list ( $pId_{A_o}, Pk_{A_o}, cert_{Pk_{A_o}}^{BA}$ ) to blockchain.
- (b) User  $A_o$  contacts the certificate authority and gets certificate for their set of attributes and the properties of the objects they hold.
- (c) The user contacts CP-ABE AA and uses their public key certificate to authenticate themselves, and obtain attribute private keys attached to their  $pId_{A_o}$  (or  $Pk_{A_o}$ ).

#### 2. Advertising a resource (please refer to [40] for the flow of advertising a resource):

- (a) User  $A_o$  who is the resource owner wants to advertise a digital object  $\mathcal{O}$ .  $A_o$  encrypts the object  $\mathcal{O}$  using a symmetric key,  $c_{\mathcal{O}} = \text{Enc}(k, \mathcal{O})$  and uploads  $c_{\mathcal{O}}$  to the cloud.
- (b) Next,  $A_o$  creates CP-ABE metadata ( $M(c_{\mathcal{O}})$ ).  $M(c_{\mathcal{O}})$  consists of (i) additional resource content description, (ii) symmetric key  $k$ , and (iii) download link of the resource content (link to encrypted file).  $A_o$  then encrypts the  $M(c_{\mathcal{O}})$  with policy  $P_{\mathcal{O}}$  using CP-ABE encryption scheme and gets the encrypted metadata  $c^{CP-ABE}(M(c_{\mathcal{O}}))$ .
- (c)  $A_o$  deploys two contracts to share their objects: (i) **objACC**, and (ii) **objPropRep**.

- (d) The blockchain authority (BA) deploys three contracts. (i) `uDir`, (ii) `oDir`, and (iii) `Adj`.
  - (e) When  $\mathcal{A}_o$  adds an object, or updates an object in `objACC` contract, `objACC` retrieves the information of the objects, including objects descriptions and properties, as well as  $\mathcal{A}_o$ 's information, including its pseudonym and public key from the `oDir` and `objPropRep` contracts and issues an event to all registered users containing the advertisement information.
3. *Request and access* (see Fig. 1 for the flow of request and access):
- (a) User  $\mathcal{B}_r$  browses `uDir` to obtain the list of registered users and chooses the ring members according to Sect. 3.2. Then,  $\mathcal{B}_r$  browses `oDir` to find an object  $\mathcal{O}$  that they want to get access to that. User  $\mathcal{B}_r$  forms a request (either for getting data from `objPropRep` contract or `objACC` contract) that includes (*Obj*), signs it using a ring signature and sends it to *BA*.
  - (b) BA runs an authentication service (*AuthServ*). *AuthServ* verifies the signed request, and if valid the respective contract (`objPropRepO` or `objACCO`) returns the requested data to requester  $\mathcal{B}_r$ , where  $\mathcal{O}$  is the object (note that the response of anonymous requests are returned, in encrypted form, to all ring members determined by  $\mathcal{B}_r$  upon making a request).  $\mathcal{B}_r$  decrypts the CP-ABE metadata using their CP-ABE private key and gets access to the object.

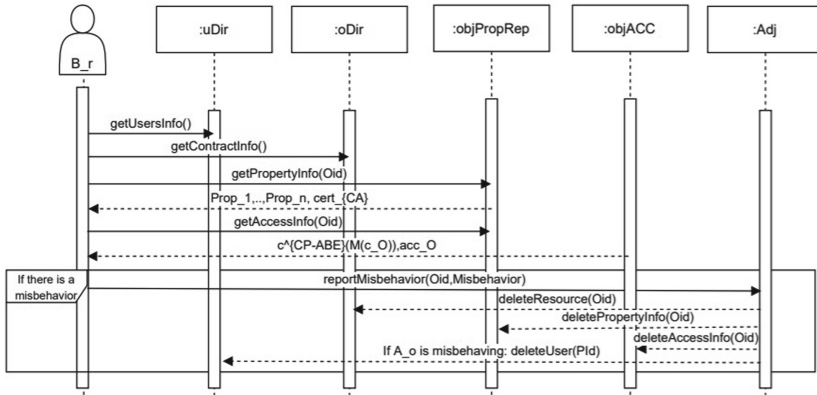


Fig. 1. Sequence diagram of requesting access from a resource requester.

## 4 Security and Privacy Analysis

For security we need to show that *only registered users whose attributes match the specified access policies of their requested object can obtain access*. For privacy we only consider post-interaction phase, and show that (i) *no registered user or BA is able to link a request to an existing resource owner*, (ii) *no registered user or BA is able to link the access requests of a resource requester to their*

*previous requests, and (iii) no outsider can link the requests.* For pre-interaction phase, published contracts can be used to develop a profile of a resource owner's resources. Protection of this profile is not a design goal of the system.

**Security.** We consider four cases: (i) outsiders are not able to access the object, (ii) requesters with attributes different from the access policies cannot get access to the object, (iii) requesters who were a registered user in some point of time but they have been removed from the system (for e.g. because of misbehaving) are not able to get access to any object that matches their attributes later, and (iv) honest requesters with attributes specified in access policies of an object can get access to the object.

Case (i) is true since any entity who issues a request proves to BA that they are a registered user, through the ring signature-based anonymous authentication scheme. Due to the unforgeability of this scheme, an outsider adversary cannot generate a valid ring signature for a new request. If the outsider adversary can successfully capture one of honest user's requests in time  $t_m$  (by eavesdropping the communication channel), it cannot use it in a later time  $t_r > t_m$ . The reason is that the beacon value at time of request  $t_r$  is different from the beacon value at time  $t_m$  and BA will reject the requests with stale random value.

Case (ii) is ensured because of the security of CP-ABE scheme. All registered users can retrieve the CP-ABE encrypted metadata, but only the users with valid CP-ABE private keys can decrypt it and get access to the object. The CP-ABE private keys are issued by CP-ABE AA who is trusted, and generates private keys after verifying the attribute certificates (which have been issued by trusted CA).

Case (iii) is guaranteed because of the use of beacons in our authentication scheme. Note that we assume the private/public keys never expire, and a CP-ABE encrypted metadata can be decrypted with any valid CP-ABE private key. If we do not use beacon in our authentication scheme, any user who has been removed from the system can capture other users' requests (by eavesdropping on their communication channel to BA) and send it later in time. As the authentication passes, attacker can get access to CP-ABE encrypted metadata (which it can decrypt). However, we protect against this attack by using fresh randomness. The copied requests will not pass the authentication, because we assume the time duration for pulsating a new random value is less than the time required for the attacker to copy a request, and hence the request contains a stale random value, which will be rejected by BA.

Case (iv) is ensured because of the correctness property of the anonymous authentication and CP-ABE scheme. The registered users can pass the authentication and retrieve the CP-ABE encrypted metadata. Users who hold a valid CP-ABE private key can decrypt the CP-ABE encrypted metadata correctly and obtain the link to the object (if the resource owner is malicious and the link is not correct, the requesters can report the misbehavior to Adj contract which can be checked by verifiers of the system).

**Privacy.** We use the users' and the BAs' views to determine the privacy breach. For *pre-interaction privacy analysis*, a registered user can see  $\mathbf{uDir}$ ,  $\mathbf{oDir}$ , and

owners contracts `objPropRep` and `objACC` and can develop a profile of the resource owner only by analyzing the advertisement that is published by the resource owner. As stated earlier we do not seek a solution for owners. We show the privacy only for the post-interaction regime; (i) no registered user and BA are able to link a request to an existing resource owner, (ii) no registered user and BA are able to link the access requests of a resource requester to their previous requests, and (iii) no outsider can link the requests.

Case (i) is guaranteed because resource requesters use anonymous authentication to prove that they are registered users. Due to the anonymity of our authentication scheme (described in Sect. 3.2), the public key of the requester will not be revealed to BA. Additionally, BA only publishes the request of the requester and its ring information to the blockchain. Therefore, other users cannot determine who is the requester. Even if other users know the real identity of a set of public keys in a given ring, since at least two honest parties exist in each ring, for an honest requester the level of anonymity is equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$  in the worst case. Malicious users are not able to choose invalid private/public keys in order to break anonymity of the scheme, since we have a registration stage that validates the generation of public keys.

Case (ii) is guaranteed because (a) the attributes of requester are not revealed to BA (requester decrypts the CP-ABE encrypted metadata off-chain), and (b) the unlinkability property of our anonymous authentication scheme (described in Sect. 3.2). BA only sees a set of public keys (a ring) which consists of a subset of public keys chosen from previous requests (rings have intersection) that provides unlinkability for consecutive requests made by a requester.

Case (iii) is ensured since outsiders cannot see the requests sent to BA and received by users (the requests are encrypted using the public key provided by BA and the response messages are encrypted and returned to users that their public keys exist in the issued request).

## 5 Implementation

In this section, we give details of our implementation for resource sharing in a permissioned Ethereum network. The goal of our proof-of-concept implementation is to analyze the practicality of our proposed model by measuring the cost (in *time*) of the cryptographic operations in our system and the cost (in *gas*) for the blockchain operations.

### 5.1 System Setup

**Actors:** We consider users (e.g., resource owner and resource requester), a blockchain authority, a certificate authority and a CP-ABE attribute authority.

**Blockchain Setup:** For proof of concept implementation, we use a private (permissioned) Ethereum blockchain to set up the required blockchain infrastructure that will be maintained by the blockchain authorities (BA). BA deploys

the smart contracts (`uDir`, `oDir` and `Adj`) and  $A_o$  deploys the smart contracts (`objPropRep` and `objACC`), in the blockchain.

**Crypto Tools:** We use OpenSSL library [41] for creating certificates, object identifier (*Oid*) (using SHA256), and generating public-private key pairs. In addition, for the symmetric key encryption scheme, we use OpenSSL library supported AES-256-CBC encryption scheme. For the ring signature we use implementation of the original algorithm by Rivest et al. [5] and for CP-ABE we use CP-ABE toolkit supported by advanced crypto software collection service [42].

**Device specification:** We evaluate the performance of our system on Windows 10 with a 3.60 GHz Intel Core i7 CPU and 8 GB RAM.

**Smart contracts in the system:** We consider the five smart contracts proposed in Sect. 3.3. All the smart contracts are written in *Solidity* language and developed using the *remix* IDE. Abstracts of these contracts are given in the Appendix C<sup>4</sup>.

## 5.2 Evaluation

To show the practicality of our proposed scheme, we measured the user's cost in different phases: (i) registration, (ii) resource advertising and (iii) resource request. We implemented an example scenario of a movie sharing for our evaluation (see [40] for the example details). We used *Ganache* [6], as a private (permissioned) Ethereum blockchain, *Remix IDE* [7] for writing the smart contracts in *Solidity* and *Truffle* to deploy and run experiments.

For *registration*, we measure the cost in terms of *time*. Table 5 shows the average time required for each user to generate the RSA keys along with the (fixed) size of the keys.

For *resource advertising*, we used AES-256-CBC encryption scheme on the object “*Tom’s Trip to Moon*” of size 16MB and used CP-ABE encryption scheme to get the CP-ABE metadata. Note that the size of the CP-ABE encrypted metadata depends only on the size of the access policies and it is independent of the object size. The reason is that the CP-ABE encrypted metadata contains the symmetric encryption key (e.g., AES 256-bit key) and the link to the object. The encryption and key generation times are shown in Table 5 with size of the outputs for each of these operations. Using the CP-ABE toolkit, it takes 0.023 seconds to generate master and CP-ABE public key. The size of master key is 156 bytes and the size of public key is 888 byte (in total 1044 byte). Moreover, each Ethereum operation is associated with an explicit cost which is expressed in *gas* [37]. We measure the cost (in terms of *gas*) of program execution in Ethereum blockchain by the resource owner for deploying two smart contracts and for executing different functions (e.g., add, update or delete) in the smart contracts. Table 6 shows the *gas* required for each of the mentioned tasks.

---

<sup>4</sup> The codes of our smart contracts are available in [40].



**Table 5.** Cost of cryptographic operations

Algorithm	Time (ms.)	Size (bytes)	Actor
Public key generation (RSA)	0.055	451	$A_o, B_r$
AES Encryption	10.704	6361840	$A_o$
AES Decryption	5.266	6361816	$B_r$
CP-ABE private key generation	1.526	71353	$A_o$
CP-ABE private key generation	2.526	119227	$B_r$
CP-ABE encryption	75.177	4024	$A_o$
CP-ABE decryption	0.107	496	$B_r$
Ring signature generation	2.834	4981	$B_r$
Ring signature verification	1.513	-	$BA$
Certificate generation	25.23	1009	$BA$

**Table 6.** Cost of blockchain operations (by resource owner)

Tasks	objACC (gas)	objProRep (gas)	oDir (gas)
Deployment	1070938	1064347	NA
Add	1307190	1243438	NA
Update	437233	418354	NA
Delete	159076	151414	NA
RegisterResource	NA	NA	614273

In case of a *resource request*, the costs includes the CP-ABE key generation, ring signature generation and CP-ABE decryption which are shown in Table 5. During this phase, for authentication, the BA sends a challenge (i.e., a random string) of size 512 bits to the requester, and the requester responds with a transaction (signed using ring signature with ring size 10) that includes this challenge value. The requester also needs to make calls to smart contract functions in order to get the required object information (e.g., CP-ABE encrypted metadata, object access policy etc.). Since these function calls does not alter the state of the blockchain (i.e., does not change any variable's value in the contract), there is no cost associated to these calls.

In summary, our proof of concept implementation results in Table 5 shows that the overhead for the cryptographic operations are not high. In addition, it should be noted that, although we measured the gas cost of the smart contract function execution in Table 6, for our model, this cost is not vital as we consider a permissioned blockchain setting. The goal is to estimate the complexity of operations performed on blockchain, provide a benchmark for possible future comparisons, and show the concrete cost in case the smart contracts are deployed on a public blockchain. Overall, the values in the tables indicate that our proposed model is feasible for developing real-world applications.

## 6 Concluding Remarks

We designed and provided a proof of concept implementation of a blockchain-based privacy-preserving resource sharing platform that enforces user defined attribute-based access policies. Our design uses cryptographic algorithms to provide privacy and direct enforcement of access policies. By leveraging these primitives one needs to balance security and efficiency. For example increasing the level of anonymity will decrease the efficiency of system, since the time required for generating and verifying ring signature will increase with the size of the anonymity set.

There are limitations in our design that can be addressed in future work. Firstly, using CP-ABE for enforcing policies requires users to obtain their private keys from CP-ABE AA which results in a single point of trust for the system (allowing CP-ABE AA to be able to access all the resources). Distributing this role among multiple authorities using multi-authority ABE schemes [43, 44] can significantly improve this limitation. A second challenge in using CP-ABE is the change in the user attributes that will affect their private keys. Efficient updating of users' private keys to reflect their current attribute sets, will be an interesting direction for future research also.

Our work can be extended in a number of ways including, providing anonymity for the resource provider, developing the platform into a marketplace by linking it to a cryptocurrency, providing an effective support for adjudication and handling of complaints, and formal analysis of the system's security and privacy.

## A On the Security of Anonymous Authentication

We consider a ring signature that provides basic anonymity, unlinkability, and existential unforgeability (for the formal definitions please see [45]). Because we have a registration authority which checks the validity of generated keys, and we assume that there are at least two honest members in the ring, the ring signature is not vulnerable to adversarially-chosen key attacks and basic anonymity is sufficient for our system. Choosing part of the ring randomly prevents the BAs from finding a pattern for the ring used by a particular requester in multiple requests and ensures that anonymity is preserved even in multiple executions of the protocol. Additionally, We assume that the random challenge that is concatenated with the message is unpredictable and unbiased, and it can provide real-time authentication for users. However, in our authentication scheme, all users that are making request in the same time interval use the same random challenge, this is different from existing point to point authentication schemes. The question is whether the multicast of the challenge random value can give an opportunity to the attacker to break the security of the scheme, specifically, to an outsider to replay the message of an honest user. However, we assume that the time interval for generating a beacon is less than the time that is needed for the attacker to capture and resend the message to BA. So, if attacker sends

the copied message the authentication fails. For unlinkability, we consider that the chosen rings by different (or even same) requesters has intersection with each other and provides some level of mixing. This prevents the BAs to link the consecutive requests from a requester.

## B Interactions in Different Phases

The interactions between different entities of our system are shown in the following Algorithm 1 where *the highlighted lines represent the interactions that involve blockchain*.

---

### Algorithm 1. Interactions in proposed resource sharing system.

---

(Registration) \*/  
1: User  $\mathcal{A}$  chooses pseudonym  $pid_{\mathcal{A}}$  and  $(pk_{\mathcal{A}}, sk_{\mathcal{A}})$   
2:  $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow BA$ :  $pid_{\mathcal{A}}, (PK_{\mathcal{A}}, SK_{\mathcal{A}})$   
3:  $BA \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ :  $cert_{BA}^{pk_{\mathcal{A}}}$   
4:  $BA$ : deploy contract **uDir**  
5:  $BA \rightarrow \mathbf{uDir}$ :  $registerUser(pid_{\mathcal{A}}, pk_{\mathcal{A}}, cert_{BA}^{pk_{\mathcal{A}}})$   
6:  $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow CA$ : request certificates  
7:  $CA \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ : certificate for user attribute and  $prop_{\mathcal{O}}$   $\triangleright prop_{\mathcal{O}}$ : properties of object  $\mathcal{O}$   
8:  $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow CP-ABEAA$ :  $register(cert_{pk_{\mathcal{A}}}^{BA})$   
9:  $CP-ABEAA \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ :  $(pk_{CP-ABE}^{\mathcal{A}}, sk_{CP-ABE}^{\mathcal{A}})$   
  
(Advertising resource) \*/  
10:  $\mathcal{A}$ : get  $c_{\mathcal{O}} = \text{Enc}(k, \mathcal{O})$  and upload  $c_{\mathcal{O}}$  to cloud  
11:  $\mathcal{A}$ : create CP-ABE metadata  $(M(c_{\mathcal{O}}))$ , and encrypt it to  $c^{CP-ABE}(M(c_{\mathcal{O}}))$   
12:  $\mathcal{A}$ : deploy **objPropRep** contract with  $(\mathcal{O}, prop_{\mathcal{O}}, cert_{\mathcal{O}}^{CA})$   
13:  $\mathcal{A}$ : deploy **objACC** contract with  $(\mathcal{O}, acc_{\mathcal{O}}, c^{CP-ABE}(M(c_{\mathcal{O}})))$   
14:  $BA$ : deploy user directory contract (**uDir**) and object directory contract (**oDir**)  
15:  $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{oDir}$ :  $registerResource(Oid, pid, pk_{\mathcal{A}}, ODesc, \text{address and ABI of objACC and objPropRep})$   
  
Requesting an access \*/  
16:  $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{oDir}$ :  $Oid$   
17:  $\mathbf{oDir} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ :  $(object\ description, \text{address of objACC/objPropRep})$   
18:  $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{objACC/objPropRep}$ :  $Oid$   
19:  $\mathbf{objPropRep} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ :  $(properties, certificate)$   
20:  $\mathbf{objACC} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ : encrypted metadata  $(c^{CP-ABE}(M(c_{\mathcal{O}})))$ , policies  $(acc_{\mathcal{O}})$   
21:  $\mathcal{A}$ : decrypt  $c^{CP-ABE}(M(c_{\mathcal{O}}))$  using its secret key  $sk_{CP-ABE}^{\mathcal{A}}$

---

## C Smart Contracts in Our System

We have five smart contracts and the abstract of these contracts are given below (cf. Algorithms 2 to 6).

---

**Algorithm 2.** Abstract uDir smart contract.

---

```

contract uDir {
  constructor (address Adjudicator);
  modifier (onlyAuthServ, onlyAdjAuth, onlyBA);
  function registerUser (string pseudonym, string pk, string certificate) onlyAuthServ public
  function deleteUser(string pk) onlyAdjAuth public
  function getUsersInfo(string pk) public
  function selfDestruct() onlyBA public }

```

---



---

**Algorithm 3.** Abstract oDir smart contract.

---

```

contract oDir {
  constructor (address Adjudicator);
  modifier (onlyObjectOwner, onlyOwnerAdj, onlyBA);
  function registerResource (bytes32 Oid, string pid, string pk, string Desc, address
ACC_addr, string ACC_abi, address PR_addr, string PR_abi) public
  function updateResource(bytes32 Oid, string desc) onlyObjectOwner public
  function deleteResource(bytes32 Oid) onlyOwnerAdj public
  function getContractInfo(bytes32 Oid) public
  function getAdvertiseInfo(bytes32 Oid) public
  function selfDestruct() onlyBA public }

```

---



---

**Algorithm 4.** Abstract objPropRep smart contract.

---

```

contract objPropRep {
  constructor (address objACC);
  modifier (onlyOwner, onlyOwnerAdj);
  function setPropertyInfo (bytes32 Oid, string properties, string certificate) onlyOwner
public
  function updatePropertyInfo(bytes32 Oid, string properties, string certificate) onlyOwner
public
  function deletePropertyInfo(bytes32 Oid) onlyOwnerAdj public
  function getPropertyInfo(bytes32 Oid) public
  function selfDestruct() onlyOwner public }

```

---



---

**Algorithm 5.** Abstract objACC smart contract.

---

```

contract objACC {
  constructor ();
  modifier (onlyOwner, onlyOwnerAdj);
  function addAccessInfo (bytes32 Oid, string CM, string[] policy) onlyOwner public
  function updateAccessInfo(bytes32 Oid, string CM, string[] policy) onlyOwner public
  function deleteAccessInfo(bytes32 Oid) onlyOwnerAdj public
  function getAccessInfo(bytes32 Oid) public
  function setContractAddress(address oPropRep, address oDir) onlyOwner public
  function getRequestHistory(bytes32 Oid) public
  function selfDestruct() onlyOwner public }

```

---



---

**Algorithm 6.** Abstract Adj smart contract.

---

```

contract Adj {
  constructor ();
  modifier (onlyBA, onlyVerifier);
  function registerVerifier (address verifier) onlyBA public
  function reportMisbehavior(bytes32 Oid, string pk, string misbehaviour, uint time) public
  function setMisbehaviorState(string state, bytes32 Oid, string pk) onlyVerifier public
  function getLatestMisbehavior(string pk) public
  function selfDestruct() onlyBA public }

```

---

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