Delegated Anonymous Credentials with Revocation Capability for IoT Service Chains

Sandeep Kiran Pinjala[1,2] and Krishna M. Sivalingam[1]
[1]*Dept. of Computer Science and Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, Chennai, India*
[2]*HCL Technologies, Chennai, India*
Email: sandeepkiranp@gmail.com, cs16s001@smail.iitm.ac.in, skrishnam@iitm.ac.in,
krishna.sivalingam@gmail.com

***Abstract*—The abstract goes here.**

***Index Terms*—**

I. Introduction

Internet of Things (IoT) enables physical objects also called *Things* to communicate with each other and to their human operators. This opens up a myriad of use cases such as smart homes, smart factories, smart cities, smart healthcare, smart grids etc [1]. It is also expected that such connected devices could reach upto 50 billion by 2020 [2]. The IoT devices (for example, a smart bulb or a temperature sensor) are very constrained in terms of memory, processing power, storage and most often are battery powered. Unlike the traditional computers these devices cannot perform computationally intensive tasks and are intended for minor operations of sensing and actuation. Also most of these devices are out in the open without any physical supervision making them easily susceptible to physical attacks.

Owing to the resource constraints and physical openness, IoT devices have been targets of various attacks [3] at physical, network and application layer. IoT devices also collect lot of personal information like user's location, eating habits, medical history etc because of which there has been a growing concern among consumers of such services. Unlike normal computers, these devices cannot provide an interface where the user can look up what personal information is being shared and with whom. In [4] the authors define privacy in IoT as a guarantee for the subject

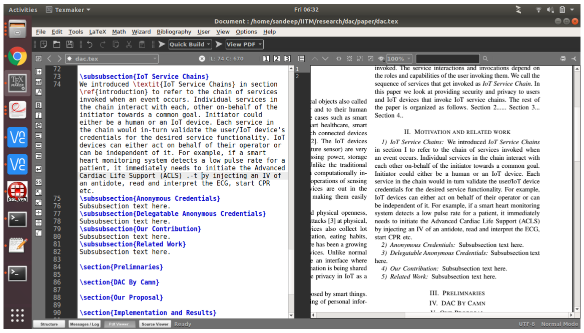
a) To be aware of the privacy risks imposed by smart things.
b) Control over collection and processing of personal information
c) Control over subject's personal information being disseminated outside of his control sphere.

They then categorize privacy threats and challenges of IoT into a) Identification b) Localization and tracking c) Profiling d) Privacy-violating interaction and presentation e) Inventory and life cycle tracking and f) linkage.

IoT services do not act in silos. They interact with each other and with external entities to provide a complete package of services to the user. For example, in Home Automation, based on the user who is entering the house (say Owner vs Guest), a completely different set of services may get invoked. The service interactions and invocations depend on the roles and capabilities of the user invoking them. We call the sequence of services that get invoked as *IoT Service Chain*. In this paper we look at providing security and privacy to users and IoT devices that invoke IoT service chains. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2...... Section 3... Section 4..

II. Motivation and related work

1) IoT Service Chains: We introduced *IoT Service Chains* in section I to refer to the chain of services invoked when an event occurs. Individual services in the chain interact with each other, on-behalf of the initiator towards a common goal. Initiator could either be a human or an IoT device. Each service in the chain would in-turn validate the user/IoT device's credentials for the desired service functionality. IoT devices can either act on behalf of their operator or can be independent of it. For example, if a smart Heart Monitoring System (HMS) detects a low pulse rate for a patient, it immediately needs to initiate the Advanced Cardiac Life Support (ACLS) by injecting an IV of an antidote, reading and interpreting the ECG, starting CPR, inform the doctor etc. The HMS in this case acts as an independent device and does not impersonate the patient. But in case of a smart fridge, which keeps track of the stock of milk, it automatically places an order for replenishment by using the owners credit card details. In this case, the smart fridge acts on behalf of the owner.



```
\subsubsection{IoT Service Chains}
We introduced \textit{IoT Service Chains} in section
\ref{introduction} to refer to the chain of services
invoked when an event occurs. Individual services in
the chain interact with each, other on-behalf of the
initiator towards a common goal. Initiator could
either be a human or an IoT device. Each service in
the chain would in-turn validate the user/IoT device's
credentials for the desired service functionality. IoT
devices can either act on behalf of their operator or
can be independent of it. For example, if a smart
heart monitoring system detects a low pulse rate for a
patient, it immediately needs to initiate the Advanced
Cardiac Life Support (ACLS) .-t by injecting an IV of
an antidote, read and interpret the ECG, start CPR
etc.
\subsubsection{Anonymous Credentials}
Subsubsection text here.
\subsubsection{Delegatable Anonymous Credentials}
Subsubsection text here.
\subsubsection{Our Contribution}
Subsubsection text here.
\subsubsection{Related Work}
Subsubsection text here.

\section{Prelimnaries}

\section{DAC By Camn}

\section{Our Proposal}

\section{Implementation and Results}
```

invoked. The service interactions and invocations depend on the roles and capabilities of the user invoking them. We call the sequence of services that get invoked as *IoT Service Chain*. In this paper we look at providing security and privacy to users and IoT devices that invoke IoT service chains. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2...... Section 3... Section 4..

II. Motivation and related work

1) IoT Service Chains: We introduced *IoT Service Chains* in section I to refer to the chain of services invoked when an event occurs. Individual services in the chain interact with each other on-behalf of the initiator towards a common goal. Initiator could either be a human or an IoT device. Each service in the chain would in-turn validate the user/IoT device credentials for the desired service functionality. For example, IoT devices can either act on behalf of their operator or can be independent of it. For example, if a smart heart monitoring system detects a low pulse rate for a patient, it immediately needs to initiate the Advanced Cardiac Life Support (ACLS) by injecting an IV of an antidote, read and interpret the ECG, start CPR etc.

2) Anonymous Credentials: Subsubsection text here.

3) Delegatable Anonymous Credentials: Subsubsection text here.

4) Our Contribution: Subsubsection text here.

5) Related Work: Subsubsection text here.

III. Prelimnaries

IV. DAC By Camn

Fig. 1. IoT Service Chain

978-1-5386-4980-0/19/$31.00 ©2019 IEEE

As can be seen in Fig. 1 there are 5 services in the IoT service chain. xxxx explanation of HMS, ACLS etc interactions among services, authentication etc

One thing to notice from the above figure is that while the service chain is being invoked, the user/IoT device has to be online so that it supplies the necessary credentials for authentication and authorization. This isn't a huge problem if the initiating entity is a user (having a smart phone or a tablet). But for a constrained IoT device generating authentication and authorization information for each service in the chain would result in draining of its resources very quickly. Also, most of the IoT devices are duty cycled and may not remain active till the chain completes. This again results in loss of packets or in retransmission. It will be even more challenging if the user/device's privacy needs to be protected through out the chain. In this paper we focus on some of the options on how device privacy can be ensured when invoking the service chain without pushing the device to its resource limits.

2) Attribute Based Anonymous Credentials: In traditional credential based system, a central authority grants credentials to users and systems. These credentials can be password or token (certificate) based. When the user wants to access a resource he presents the credential to it which inturn validates the credential. The resource (also called service) trusts the central authority and thereby the credentials issued by it. Once the credential verification is done, the service checks whether the user has got the right access level to access the resource. One of the primary concern with such a system is that the service gets to know the complete details of the user presenting the credential. for example, in public key certifcates issued to users, the service will know how long the credential (certificate in this case) is valid, the country, state, organization, email address etc of the user, who are all the intermediate chain of issuers etc. The only information that matters to the service is whether the certificate is valid and is issued by the central authority and whether the user possesses the required access right. But in this case lot more user details are available to it. With so much personal information available to the service, there is always a chance of misuse of data if it falls in wrong hands. According to European Union General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) Data Minimization principle, entities should only process adequate, relevent and limited personal data that is necessary in relation to the purposes for thish they are processed. As mentioned in [4], the privacy problem becomes manifold in IoT world. One, because there are huge number of constrained IoT devices without proper security measures in place. And two, there is very little control over what personal information is disseminated from these devices to the outside world.

Anonymous Credentials introduced in [5] provide a way in which the user can prove that he holds a credential without revealing any information about the user. The verifier cannot also forge the user's credential. In Attribute Based Anonymous Credentials, the user can selectively prove that he holds the set of attributes needed by the verifier and not reveal all of his attributes, thereby maintaining privacy. The prover creates a zero-knowledge proof of possession of the credential which the verifier verifies using the public key of the central authority. Some of the most popular Anonymous Credential Systems (ACS) are [6] and [7].

A Delegatable Anonymus Credential (DAC) System, introduced in [8] not only allows the users to generate anonymous credentials, but also allows them to anonymously delegate their credentials to other entities. For example, in a hierarchical setup, the root issuer may delegate its issuing authority to region wise issuers who in turn may delegate to division wise issuers and so on. Although there can be multiple levels of delegation, the anonymous credential generated by the prover at any level can only be verified by the public key of the root issuer. One of the primary advantages of DAC is that it alleviates the burden on the root issuer to issue credentials but still maintains anonymity of all the issuers in the chain.

3) Our Contribution: In section II-1 we talked about IoT service chains and the difficulty of ensuring user/IoT device's privacy during the chain propagation. We address this problem with our proposal on ***Delegated Anonymous Credentials in IoT Service Chains***. We describe a mechanism in which the IoT device can delegate its credentials to a controller which in turn generates an anonymous credential based on the attributes needed by the service. Our scheme is based on the DAC system developed by Camenisch *et al.* [9]. The authors developed a scheme where credentials are not delegated anonymously but the prover anonymously proves that the entire chain of delegation is valid. The verifier verifies the anonymous credential just with the root issuer's public key.

The following are major contributions in this work.

a) Discuss in detail the problem of ensuring privacy to users and IoT devices in IoT service chains.
b) Implementation of the DAC scheme outlined in [9]. We used the Pairing Based Cryptography Library from [10] for the implementation. We implemented the full L-level credential Delegation, Presentation and Verification.
c) Credential revocation has been mentioned as ”future work” in [9]. We implemented revocation of credentials in our scheme.
d) Once the verifier verifies the anonymous credential token, the next logical step would be to communicate with the prover to exchange data. In order to do that securely, a common session key needs to be established between the two parties. We demonstrate how the session key can be established.
e) We then used the above DAC implementation to realize Delegated Anonymous Credentials in IoT service chains. We outline the framework consisting of Root issuer, Controller, User/IoT device and Service as the principal components. We describe the messages exchanged between these components and outline how privacy of users can be ensured.
f) We implemented the above scheme and discuss the various possibilities on how token verification and policy implementation can be placed across constrained IoT services. Various metrics like time taken, number and size of messages exchanged, memory, CPU etc are evaluated for the various models that we discuss.

4) Related Work: Subsubsection text here.

III. Preliminaries

In this section we introduce some of the concepts related to DAC building blocks.

1) Bilinear map: A Bilinear map is a Pairing-Based Cryptography construct that allows us to build and analyze cryptographic systems. Let G_1, G_2 and G_T be multiplicative groups of order q, then a bilinear map e : $G_1 X G_2 \rightarrow G_T$ satisfies the following properties

Bilinearity

$$\forall P \in G_1, \forall Q \in G_2 : e(P^a, Q^b) = e(P, Q)^{ab}$$

Non-Degeneracy

$$A \neq 0 \Rightarrow e(A, A) \neq 1$$

Computability

e is efficiently computable

2) Zero Knowledge Proofs: Zero knowledge Proofs (ZKP), introduced in [11] allow the prover to prove that he knows certain information without revealing the information (or anything related to it) to the verifier. A ZKP should be complete, sound and should not reveal any information from teh proof. A zero-knowledge proof of knowledge is a special case where the prover possesses a secret information and not just the knowledge of it. Interactive ZKP require interaction between the prover and the verifier to prove that the prover has the secret information. For example, the Schnorr ZKP is outlined in [12]. The Non-Interactive ZKP (NIZKP) proofs do not require any kind of interaction for the proof to proceed. The Schnorr NIZKP proof is obtained through the Fiat-Shamir transformation [13].

3) Signature Schemes: A signature scheme consists of the following algorithms.

a) Setup : Given the security parameter, the algorithm outputs public parameters.

b) Key Generation : This algorithm generates a public key and the corresponding private key based on the public parameters.

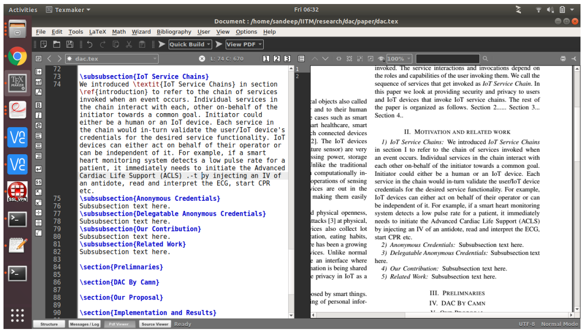
c) Signature Generation : This algorithm takes the private key and the message and outputs the signature. The generated signature should not be forge-able.

d) Signature Verification : This algorithm takes the signature, public key and the message and output whether the verification is successful or not.

[9] uses Groth's structure preserving signature scheme [14] where the public keys, messages to be signed and the signatures are all elements of group $G1$ or $G2$.

IV. DAC By Camenisch *et al.* [9] and our extensions

The authors in [9] built a practical attribute based DAC system of L-level hierarchy where the delegation is not anonymous. The delegator reveals its identity and the identity of the entire chain to the delegatee during the delegation process. It is only during the presentation of the anonymous credential, the prover hides the identity of all the intermediate delegators. The prover also selectively reveals attributes at each level of delegation. The verifier in turn uses the root issuer's public key to verify the anonymous credential token. The authors also describe the instantiation of their DAC system based on Groth [14] and Schnorr [12] schemes. The authors introduce a new signature scheme called *sibling signatures* which allows a users with a single key pair with two different signature schemes. This single key pair can be used both during delegation and token presentation.



```
\subsubsection{IoT Service Chains}
We introduced \textit{IoT Service Chains} in section
\ref{introduction} to refer to the chain of services
invoked when an event occurs. Individual services in
the chain interact with each, other on-behalf of the
initiator towards a common goal. Initiator could
either be a human or an IoT device. Each service in
the chain would in-turn validate the user/IoT device's
credentials for the desired service functionality. IoT
devices can either act on behalf of their operator or
can be independent of it. For example, if a smart
heart monitoring system detects a low pulse rate for a
patient, it immediately needs to initiate the Advanced
Cardiac Life Support (ACLS) .-t by injecting an IV of
an antidote, read and interpret the ECG, start CPR
etc.
\subsubsection{Anonymous Credentials}
Subsubsection text here.
\subsubsection{Delegatable Anonymous Credentials}
Subsubsection text here.
\subsubsection{Our Contribution}
Subsubsection text here.
\subsubsection{Related Work}
Subsubsection text here.

\section{Prelimnaries}

\section{DAC By Camn}

\section{Our Proposal}

\section{Implementation and Results}
```

invoked. The service interactions and invocations depend on the roles and capabilities of the user invoking them. We call the sequence of services that get invoked as *IoT Service Chain*. In this paper we look at providing security and privacy to users and IoT devices that invoke IoT service chains. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2...... Section 3... Section 4..

II. Motivation and related work

1) IoT Service Chains: We introduced *IoT Service Chains* in section I to refer to the chain of services invoked when an event occurs. Individual services in the chain interact with each other on-behalf of the initiator towards a common goal. Initiator could either be a human or an IoT device. Each service in the chain would in-turn validate the user/IoT device credentials for the desired service functionality. For example, IoT devices can either act on behalf of their operator or can be independent of it. For example, if a smart heart monitoring system detects a low pulse rate for a patient, it immediately needs to initiate the Advanced Cardiac Life Support (ACLS) by injecting an IV of an antidote, read and interpret the ECG, start CPR etc.

2) Anonymous Credentials: Subsubsection text here.

3) Delegatable Anonymous Credentials: Subsubsection text here.

4) Our Contribution: Subsubsection text here.

5) Related Work: Subsubsection text here.

III. Preliminaries

IV. DAC By Camn

Fig. 2. Generic Construction of Camenisch *et al.* [9]

The author's generic construction scheme is depicted in Fig. 2.At Level-0 is the root issuer with public, private key pair as (ipk, isk). The root issuer delegates certain attributes $\overrightarrow{a_1}$ to say $user1$ at Level-1 with key pair as (cpk_1, csk_1). It generates a signature (σ_1) on the combination of $(cpk_1, \overrightarrow{a_1})$ using isk. It passes on the signature and attributes to $user1$. Similarly, if $user1$ at Level-1 wants to delegate certain attributes $\overrightarrow{a_2}$ to $user2$ with key pair (cpk_2, csk_2), it generates a signature (σ_2) using $csk1$ over $(cpk_2, \overrightarrow{a_2})$. $user2$ then forwards the (σ_1), $\overrightarrow{a_1}$ and cpk_1 generated at Level-1 as well as (σ_2), $\overrightarrow{a_2}$ generated at Level-2 to $user2$. This goes on till any Level$-l$ credential. So a Level-l credential is a combination of all signatures, attributes and public keys of all $l-1$ levels and Level-l private key.

In order to anonymously present a credential at any level, the prover generates a NIZKP proof proving that he holds the entire credential chain (signatures, attributes and public keys at each level). He can selectively reveal attributes at each level. The public keys (and thereby the identity of users) at each level will remain hidden. The verifier verifies the token using just the root issuers public key. The authors provided an instantiation of their construction scheme using Bilinear Pairings and Groth-Schnorr sibling signatures. They used Groth1 to denote Groth signatures on messages in $G1$ with public key in $G2$ (called SibGS1) and Groth2 to denote Groth signatures on messages in $G2$ with public key in $G1$ (called SibGS2). The final attribute token would then look like

$$at \leftarrow NIZK\{()\}$$

In order to prove that the prover holds the private key corresponding to the public key at Level-L(cpk_L), the NIZK proof also includes the proof for a message m signed with the private key at Level-L (csk_L).

1) Credential Revocation: One of the important functionalities of any credential based system is to account for revoked credentials. Revocation allows the administrator to stop rouge elements from entering into the system. The authors in [9] left out credential revocation as a future item. In this section we discuss how credential revocation can be achieved using the author's concrete instantiation.

As mentioned in the previous section, if a user at level K-1 wants to delegate certain attributes ($\overrightarrow{a_K}$) to another user, he signs the message $(cpk_K, \overrightarrow{a_K})$ with csk_{K-1}. We propose to extend the signature message to include a Hash of $(cpk_K, \overrightarrow{a_K})$. We call this hash as the credential hash at level K. Therefore,

$$h_K = Hash(cpk_K, \overrightarrow{a_K})$$

$$\sigma_K = Sign_{csk_{K-1}}(cpk_K, h_K, \overrightarrow{a_K})$$

The credential hash is a unique representation of the public key and the delegated attributes at any level. Since the signature includes the credential hash, signature verification would fail if the hash is tampered. The delegator forwards $\sigma_K, h_K, \overrightarrow{a_K}$ to the delegatee. h_K forms a part of credential at every level. The attribute token generated for presentation would now look like

$$at \leftarrow NIZK\{()\}$$

When generating the attribute token, unlike other attributes, the credential hash value is always revealed to the verifier. There is no danger of someone modifying the hash as that would result in signature verification failure. If the root issuer or any delegator in the chain needs to revoke a credential, he would publish the credential hash in a Black List (BL) of credential hashes. The verifier has to check the credential hash for each level against the BL and if there is a match, verification should fail.

The instantiation of the NIZK for the attribute token would now look like,

xxxxxx

xxxxxx

2) Session Key Establishment: In the IoT scenario, once the token generated by the IoT device/User is verified by the IoT service, the next logical step would be to exchange data.

V. Our Proposal

VI. Implementation and Results

VII. Conclusion

The conclusion goes here.

References

[1] Ala I. Al-Fuqaha, Mohsen Guizani, Mahdi Mohammadi, Mohammed Aledhari, and Moussa Ayyash. Internet of things: A survey on enabling technologies, protocols, and applications. *IEEE Communications Surveys and Tutorials*, 17:2347–2376, 2015.

[2] D. Evans. The internet of things-how the next evolution of the internet is changing everything. April 2011. http://www.cisco.com/web/about/ac79/docs/innov/IoT_IBSG_0411FINAL.pdf3, last accessed on 01/01/20.

[3] Ioannis Andrea, Chrysostomos Chrysostomou, and George Hadjichristofi. Internet of things: Security vulnerabilities and challenges. pages 180–187, 07 2015.

[4] Jan Henrik Ziegeldorf, Óscar García-Morchón, and Klaus Wehrle. Privacy in the internet of things: threats and challenges. *Security and Communication Networks*, 7:2728–2742, 2014.

[5] David Chaum. Blind signatures for untraceable payments. In D. Chaum, R.L. Rivest, and A.T. Sherman, editors, *Advances in Cryptology Proceedings of Crypto 82*, pages 199–203, 1983.

[6] Jan Camenisch and Els Van Herreweghen. Design and implementation of the idemix anonymous credential system. In Vijayalakshmi Atluri, editor, *ACM Conference on Computer and Communications Security*, pages 21–30. ACM, 2002.

[7] Greg Zaverucha Christian Paquin. U-prove cryptographic specification v1.1, revision 3. December 2013. https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/U-Prove20Cryptographic20Specification20V1.1.pdf, last accessed on 01/01/20.

[8] Mira Belenkiy, Jan Camenisch, Melissa Chase, Markulf Kohlweiss, Anna Lysyanskaya, and Hovav Shacham. Randomizable proofs and delegatable anonymous credentials. In Shai Halevi, editor, *Advances in Cryptology - CRYPTO 2009*, pages 108–125, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2009. Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

[9] Jan Camenisch, Manu Drijvers, and Maria Dubovitskaya. Practical uc-secure delegatable credentials with attributes and their application to blockchain. In *Proceedings of the 2017 ACM SIGSAC Conference on Computer and Communications Security, CCS 2017, Dallas, TX, USA, October 30 - November 03, 2017*, pages 683–699, 2017.

[10] Ben Lynn. The pairing-based cryptography library. https://crypto.stanford.edu/pbc/.

[11] Shafi Goldwasser, Silvio Micali, and Charles Rackoff. The knowledge complexity of interactive proof systems. *SIAM J. Comput.*, 18(1):186–208, 1989.

[12] Ed F. Hao. Schnorr non-interactive zero-knowledge proof. RFC 8235, RFC Editor, 09 2017.

[13] Amos Fiat and Adi Shamir. How to prove yourself: Practical solutions to identification and signature problems. In *CRYPTO*, 1986.

[14] Jens Groth. Efficient fully structure-preserving signatures for large messages. *IACR Cryptology ePrint Archive*, 2015:824, 2015.