

# Application of Distributed Key Generation in Secured Sealed-Bid Auction Mechanism



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## Abstract

Sealed-Bid auctions are subject to bid-rigging attack by the coercer. Receipt-free sealed-bid auction mechanisms are developed to prevent bid-rigging. The prior receipt-free schemes assume the availability of untappable channel between the bidders and the auction authorities. However, it is often difficult and impractical to deploy untappable channel in real senario. Moreover they also assume the authorities not to be colluded, therefore no partial information of any bidder's secret is revealed. In this work we present a receipt-free sealed-bid auction scheme where neither the untappable channel is used nor we assume all authorities to be honest (there must be some honest authorities). We design secure multi-party computation to provide receipt-freeness, whereas deniable encryption followed by anonymous communication is used to relax the requirement of untappable channel. *Distributed Key Generation* is used for secure multiparty computation. We assume a set of player executes the protocol to output a common public key, where the secret key is shared among the players.

**Keywords:** Bid-rigging, Receipt-freeness, Incoercibility

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1	Survey . . . . .	2
<b>2</b>	<b>Mathematical Concepts</b>	<b>4</b>
2.1	Number Theory . . . . .	4
2.1.1	Set . . . . .	4
2.1.2	Group . . . . .	5
2.1.3	Abelian Group . . . . .	5
2.2	Cyclic Group . . . . .	5
2.2.1	Generator: . . . . .	5
2.3	Ring . . . . .	6
2.4	Field . . . . .	6
2.5	Intractable Mathematical Problems . . . . .	7
2.5.1	Discrete Log Problem (DLP) . . . . .	7
2.5.2	Integer Factorization Problem (IFP) . . . . .	7
2.6	Cryptographic Algorithm (Asymmetric Cryptography) . . . . .	7
2.6.1	The RSA Public-key Encryption Algorithm . . . . .	7
2.6.2	The ElGamal Public-key Encryption Algorithm . . . . .	9
<b>3</b>	<b>Secret Sharing</b>	<b>11</b>
3.1	How To Share a Secret . . . . .	11
3.1.1	Methodology . . . . .	11
3.1.2	Problems . . . . .	11
3.1.3	Note to Distributed Secret Sharing . . . . .	12

<b>4</b>	<b>Distributed Key Generation</b>	<b>13</b>
4.1	Introduction . . . . .	13
4.2	Pedersen’s Verifiable Secret Sharing . . . . .	13
4.3	Pedersen Threshold Cryptosystem . . . . .	14
4.4	Distributed Key Generation (DKG) . . . . .	15
4.4.1	Pedersen’s Distributed Key Generation Protocol . . . . .	16
4.4.2	New Distributed Key Generation . . . . .	17
<b>5</b>	<b>Application of Disributed Key Generation (DKG) in Sealed-Bid Auction</b>	<b>19</b>
5.1	Introduction . . . . .	19
5.2	Problem and Parameters . . . . .	20
5.3	Protocol . . . . .	21
5.3.1	System Setting . . . . .	21
5.4	Receipt-free sealed-bid auction mechanism . . . . .	22
5.4.1	<b>Bidding Phase:</b> . . . . .	22
5.4.1.1	Constructing the encrypted bid vector . . . . .	22
5.4.1.2	Sealing the bid-vector . . . . .	23
5.4.2	Bid Verification . . . . .	24
5.4.3	<b>Opening Phase</b> . . . . .	26
5.4.4	<b>Trading:</b> . . . . .	27
<b>6</b>	<b>Analysis of Receipt-Free Sealed-Bid Auction</b>	<b>29</b>
6.1	Receipt-Freeness . . . . .	29
6.2	Non-Repudiation . . . . .	30
6.3	Correctness . . . . .	30
6.3.1	Publicly Verifiable Opening . . . . .	30
6.3.2	Adversary . . . . .	31
6.4	Efficiency . . . . .	32
6.5	Overhead of Message Passing for Misbehaviors in Distributed Key Generation . . . . .	34
<b>7</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>35</b>
7.1	Further Work . . . . .	35



References

39

# List of Figures

5.1	Setting of Sealed-Bid Auction . . . . .	20
6.1	Bid Corruption . . . . .	32
6.2	Bidding Time . . . . .	33
6.3	Sealing Time . . . . .	33
7.1	Decimal representation of bid vector. . . . .	36

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Auction is an efficient and convincing method to establish the price of goods and trading the goods in the open market. In sealed-bid auction the bidders submit their bids securely in closed envelop. The bids are remain secure until they are not opened at the time of *opening*. During the *opening* the sealed envelopes are broken and the bids are disclosed. The winning price and winner is determined accordingly. Implementing the sealed-bid auction in the electronic domain, there are many threats to the security of the system [6, 3] like: correctness, fairness, privacy, nonrepudiation etc. Any adversarial activity that either corrupts the bids or manipulates the output of the auction is mostly due to the naive implementation of the system. The adversary may be the *insider* or *outsider*. The misbehavior of the *insider* (e.g. colluded auctioneers who involved in the conspiracy with coercer) yields an improper auction where the coercing bidder takes the advantage over others. Whereas the *outsider* attempts to corrupt the bids (sealed bids) which yield to the failure of the system. The system is also in trouble when the winner repudiates. There have been a number of schemes proposed for secure electronic sealed-bid auction [26, 22, 24, 11, 25, 2]. Those scheme do not address the problem of bid-rigging. Bid-rigging is the problem where the powerful entity called coercer orders the other to bid at low price so that the coercer could win the auction by quoting unreasonably low price (little higher than the other bidders). When bid-rigging happens the auction fails to meet the true valuation of the goods. The first proposal to prevent rigging was [18] where they introduced the receipt-free mechanism in an *Electronic Voting Protocol*. Receipt-freeness is

the inability of any entity to prove his secret value in a voting or auctioning scenario. Most of the electronic sealed-bid auction, the bidder either publishes or carries a commitment of his secret bid. The commitment plays the role of receipt and is exploited by the coercer to determine the secret, even if the bidder is not willing to disclose.

## 1.1 Survey

The first receipt-free sealed-bid auction was proposed by *Abe, Suzuki* in [1]. Their scheme was based on secret-sharing over untappable channel. In their scheme the bidder constructs  $n$  shares of his bid and securely communicates the shares to the auctioneers over untappable channel. However the scheme fails to provide receipt-freeness in presence of dishonest (colluded) auctioneers. *Huang et al.* [17] proposed some improvement of *Abe, Suzuki's* [1] scheme, but could not overcome the problem of dishonest auctioneer. *Chen, Lee* [5] proposed another receipt-free scheme based on homomorphic encryption. In their proposed scheme, bidder along with seller construct the receipt-free bid over the untappable channel. Bidder and seller individually prove the validity of their operation. *Chen et al.* argued that the seller would not be colluded due to benefit collision. However the assumption is partially correct, as the seller may also be colluded when the item to be sold is not the property of the seller (e.g. government of a country wants to auction the mine sector). More over the auctioneer may open the bids and determines the highest bid price before the scheduled opening period. Whereas *Her et al.*[12] proposed another scheme of receipt-freeness, where the bidder has to do registration prior to bidding. Nevertheless, if the Registering authority is dishonest, the scheme fails to provide receipt-freeness. However *Gao et al.* [8] in their proposed scheme used undeniable signature for providing incoercibility in Electronic-Auction. The scheme demand all the bidders to be present during opening. Later on *Howlader, Ghosh, Pal* [14] proposed a receipt-free scheme for sealed bid auction using multiple sealer and single auctioneer. In their scheme, the bidder's secret bid is sealed by multiple sealers to form the receipt-free bid.

However the scheme fails to provide receipt-freeness as the verification carries the receipt of the initial secret bid.

In *Howlader et al.* [16, 15] deniable encryption [4, 13] is used as a tool for replacing the untappable channel, which was an essentially required in most of the prior receipt-free mechanism. However the technique fails to prevent receipt-freeness in the presence of dishonest authorities [15]. Latter on a “coercing resistant MIX” was proposed for anonymous bidding. In this case, the authorities receive anonymous bids from the bidder, hence could not corresponds the bidder “who-bid-what”. On the other hand, the bidder transmits deniable ciphers, where he can plausibly deny his true value.

# Chapter 2

## Mathematical Concepts

In this chapter, we introduce the basic mathematical concepts which are used in our work.

### 2.1 Number Theory

#### 2.1.1 Set

In this section, we describe the fundamental discrete structure on which all other discrete structures are built, namely, the set. Sets are used to group objects together. Often, the objects in a set have similar properties. An *axiomatic definition* of set is given below:

**Definition:** A set is an unordered collection of objects.

**Definition:** The objects in a set are called the *elements*, or *members*, of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. Set can be represented in various way.

**Example:**

1. The set of *natural numbers*  $\mathbf{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
2. The set of *integers*  $\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
3. The set of *positive integers*  $\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
4. The set of *rational numbers*  $\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p \in \mathbf{Z}, q \in \mathbf{Z} \text{ and } q \neq 0\}$
5. The set of *vowel*  $\mathbf{V} = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$

### 2.1.2 Group

**Definition:** A *group*  $(G, \oplus)$ , is a set of elements with a binary operation denoted by  $\oplus$  that associates to each ordered pair  $(a, b)$  of elements in  $G$  an element  $(a \oplus b)$  in  $G$ , such that the following axioms are obeyed:

1. **Closure:** If  $a$  and  $b \in G$ , then  $a \oplus b \in G$ .
2. **Associative:**  $a \oplus (b \oplus c) = (a \oplus b) \oplus c$  for all  $a, b, c \in G$ .
3. **Identity element:** There exists a (unique) element  $e \in G$  such that  $e \oplus a = a \oplus e = a$  for all  $a \in G$ . The element  $e$  is called the *identity* of  $G$ .
4. **Inverse element:** For each  $a \in G$ , there exists a (unique) element  $b \in G$  such that  $a \oplus b = b \oplus a = e$ . The element  $b$  is called the *inverse* of  $a$ .

**Order of a group:** The *order of a group*  $G$  is the cardinality or number of element in that group  $G$ .

**Order of an element:** The *order of an element*  $a$  in group  $G$  is the least positive integer  $k$  such that  $a^k$  is the identity.

### 2.1.3 Abelian Group

A group  $(G, \oplus)$  is called *abelian* or *commutative* group if  $a \oplus b = b \oplus a$  for all  $a, b \in G$ .

## 2.2 Cyclic Group

A group is **Cyclic** if every element of  $G$  is a power  $g^k$  ( $k$  is an integer) of a fixed element  $g \in G$ .

### 2.2.1 Generator:

Let  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , the order of  $g$  is the least positive integer  $i$  such that  $g^i \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .  $g$  will be called a generator of  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , if  $i$ , the order of  $g$  equals to  $\phi(n)$ , where  $\phi(n)$  is the cardinality of the set  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$ .

## 2.3 Ring

A *ring*  $R$ , sometimes denoted by  $\{R, +, \times\}$ , is a set of elements with two binary operations, called *addition* and *multiplication*, such that for all  $a, b, c \in R$  the following axioms are obeyed.

1.  $R$  is an abelian group with respect to addition.
2. **Closure under multiplication:** If  $a$  and  $b$  belong to  $R$ , then  $ab$  is also in  $R$ .
3. **Associativity of multiplication:**  $a(bc) = (ab)c$  for all  $a, b, c$  in  $R$ .
4. **Distributive laws:**  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  for all  $a, b, c$  in  $R$ .  
 $(a + b)c = ac + bc$  for all  $a, b, c$  in  $R$ .

## 2.4 Field

A *field*  $F$ , sometimes denoted by  $\{F, +, \times\}$ , is a set of elements with two binary operations, called *addition* and *multiplication*, such that for all  $a, b, c \in F$  the following axioms are obeyed.

1.  $F$  is a ring.
2. **Commutativity of multiplication:**  $ab = ba$  for all  $a, b \in R$ .
3. **Multiplicative identity:** There is an element  $1$  in  $R$  such that  $a1 = 1a = a$  for all  $a$  in  $R$ .
4. **No zero divisors:** If  $a, b$  in  $R$  and  $ab = 0$ , then either  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ .
5. **Multiplicative inverse:** For each  $a$  in  $F$ , except  $0$ , there is an element  $a^{-1}$  in  $F$  such that  $aa^{-1} = (a^{-1})a = 1$ .



## 2.5 Intractable Mathematical Problems

### 2.5.1 Discrete Log Problem (DLP)

Let  $G$ , be a finite cyclic (multiplicative) group with cardinality  $n$  and a generator  $g$ . Given an element  $a \in G$ , find an integer  $x$  (or *the* integer  $x$  with  $0 \leq x \leq n-1$ ) such that  $a = g^x$  in  $G$ . Finding the unique integer  $x$  is hard and  $x$  is the discrete logarithm  $\log_g a$ .

Three different types of groups are commonly used for cryptographic applications: the multiplicative group of a finite field, the group of rational points on an elliptic curve over a finite field and the jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve over a finite field. Here we used DLP over finite fields.

### 2.5.2 Integer Factorization Problem (IFP)

Given the product  $n$  as a product of two distinct prime integers, it is computationally hard to determine the prime factors of  $n$ .

## 2.6 Cryptographic Algorithm (Asymmetric Cryptography)

A form of cryptosystem in which encryption and decryption are performed using two different keys, one of which is referred to as the public key and another one is referred to as the private key.

**Public Key:** The public key is made public by the entity and used in conjunction with a corresponding private key.

**Private Key:** The private key is the secret key and only known to the entity

Following are two asymmetric encryption decryption algorithms:

### 2.6.1 The RSA Public-key Encryption Algorithm

The *Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman (RSA)* algorithm [21] is based on *integer factorization problem*. *RSA* algorithm are of three parts,

## 2.6 Cryptographic Algorithm (Asymmetric Cryptography)

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- Key Generation (Algorithm 2.1).
- Encryption (Algorithm 2.2).
- Decryption (Algorithm 2.3).

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### Algorithm 2.1: RSA Key Generation

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**Input:** A bit length  $l$ .

**Output:** A random RSA key pair

**Steps:**

- 1 Generate two different random primes  $p$  and  $q$  each of bit length  $l$ .
  - 2  $n := pq$ .
  - 3 Choose an integer  $e$  coprime to  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ .
  - 4  $d := e^{-1}(\text{mod}\phi(n))$ .
  - 5 Return the pair  $(n, e)$  as the public key and the pair  $(n, d)$  as the private key.
- 

---

### Algorithm 2.2: RSA Encryption

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**Input:** The RSA public key  $(n, e)$  of the recipient and the plaintext message  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Output:** The ciphertext message  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Steps:**

- 1  $c := m^e(\text{mod } n)$ .
- 

---

### Algorithm 2.3: RSA Decryption

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**Input:** The RSA private key  $(n, d)$  of the recipient and the ciphertext message  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Output:** The recovered plaintext message  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Steps:**

- 1  $m := c^d(\text{mod } n)$ .
-

---

## 2.6 Cryptographic Algorithm (Asymmetric Cryptography)

### 2.6.2 The ElGamal Public-key Encryption Algorithm

The *ElGamal* public key encryption algorithm [7] is based on *discrete log problem* (DLP) 2.5.1. The algorithm has three parts,

- Key Generation (Algorithm 2.4).
- Encryption (Algorithm 2.5).
- Decryption (Algorithm 2.6).

Let  $p$  is a prime number and  $G$  is the cyclic group of order  $p - 1$ . Let  $g \in G$  is a generator of the group.

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**Algorithm 2.4:** ElGamal Key Generation

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**Input:**  $G, g$

**Output:** A random ElGamal key pair.

**Steps:**

- 1 Generate a random integer  $d, 2 \leq d \leq k - 1$ .
  - 2 Return  $h = g^d$  as the public key and  $d$  as the private key.
- 

---

**Algorithm 2.5:** ElGamal Encryption

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**Input:**  $(G, g)$  and the ElGamal public key  $h$ , the plaintext message  $m \in G$ .

**Output:** The ciphertext message  $(r, s) \in H \times G$  (where  $H = \langle g \rangle$ ).

**Steps:**

- 1 Generate a (random) session key  $d', 2 \leq d' \leq k - 1$ .
  - 2  $r := g^{d'}$ .
  - 3  $s := mh^{d'}$ .
- 

Unlike *RSA*, *ElGamal* is a random encryption, that is if the message  $m$  is encrypted with the same public key for multiple times, ElGamal cipher differs every time as the element  $d'$  is selected randomly.

## 2.6 Cryptographic Algorithm (Asymmetric Cryptography)

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**Algorithm 2.6:** ElGamal Decryption

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**Input:**  $(G, g)$  and the ElGamal private key  $d$ , the ciphertext message  $(r, s) \in H \times G$ .

**Output:** The recovered plaintext message  $m \in G$ .

**Steps:**

1  $m := sr^{-d}$ .

---

# Chapter 3

## Secret Sharing

### 3.1 How To Share a Secret

Shamir's secret sharing is the threshold scheme, which is used to share a secret within more than one party. A secret  $s$  is shared within  $n$  party such that  $k$  party can recompute the secret  $s$  again, where  $k \leq n$ .

#### 3.1.1 Methodology

The scheme is based on *polynomial interpolation*: given  $n$  points in the 2-dimensional plane  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_k, y_k)$  with distinct  $x_i$ 's, there is one and only one polynomial  $q(x)$  of degree  $k - 1$  such that  $q(x_i) = y_i$  for all  $i$ .

**Example:** 2 points are sufficient to define a straight line, 3 points are sufficient to define a parabola, 4 points to define a cubic curve and so on.

#### 3.1.2 Problems

In Shamir's secret sharing protocol [23] a trusted party (dealer) shares a secret  $s \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  among the parties  $P_1, \dots, P_n$  in the following way. The dealer chooses at random a polynomial  $f(x)$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  of degree  $k - 1$ , such that  $f(0) = s$ . He then secretly transmits to each party  $P_i$  a share  $s_i = f(i) \bmod p$ . It is clear that  $k - 1$  or less parties have no information about the secret while  $k$  can easily reconstruct it by polynomial interpolation.

### 3.1.3 Note to Distributed Secret Sharing

In the presence of malicious adversary, Shamir's secret sharing protocol could fail. Indeed, it is possible for a dealer to share values which do not lie on a polynomial of degree  $k - 1$ . Also dishonest parties may contribute incorrect shares at reconstruction time. *Verifiable secret sharing (VSS)* protocols [19] are intended to prevent this possibility.

However this scheme approaches us to *distributed secret sharing*, where every party acts as a dealer and distributes shares to others of its secret.

# Chapter 4

## Distributed Key Generation

### 4.1 Introduction

Distributed key generation is a main component of threshold cryptosystems. It allows a set of  $n$  servers to generate jointly a pair of public and private keys according to the distribution defined by the underlying cryptosystem without ever having to compute, reconstruct, or store the secret key in any single location and without assuming any trusted party (dealer). While the public key is output in the clear, the private key is maintained as a (virtual) secret shared via a threshold scheme. For discret-log-based (dlog-based) schemes, distributed key generation amounts to generating a secret sharing of a random, uniformly distributed value  $x$  and making public the value  $y = g^x$ .

### 4.2 Pedersen's Verifiable Secret Sharing

The scheme uses the parameters  $p$  and  $q$ , are the two large primes such that  $q$  divides  $p - 1$ ,  $G_q$  is the unique subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  of order  $q$ , and  $g$  is a generator of  $G_q$ . Another additional element  $h \in G_q$ . It is assumed that the adversary cannot compute  $\log_g h$ . Let dealer will distribute it's secret  $s \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ . The scheme as follows:

1. Dealer publishes a commitment to  $s : E_0 = E(s, t)$  for a randomly chosen

### 4.3 Pedersen Threshold Cryptosystem

---

$t \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ , where

$$E(s, t) = g^s h^t$$

2. Dealer chooses  $F \in \mathbb{Z}_q[x]$  of degree at most  $k - 1$  satisfying  $F(0) = s$ , and computes  $s_i = F(i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Let  $F(x) = s + F_1x + \dots + F_{k-1}x^{k-1}$ . Dealer chooses  $G_1, \dots, G_{k-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  at random and uses  $G_i$  when committing to  $F_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k - 1$ .

3. Let  $G(x) = t + G_1x + \dots + G_{k-1}x^{k-1}$  and let  $t_i = G(i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Then dealer sends  $(s_i, t_i)$  secretly to  $P_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

4. Dealer compute,

$$\begin{aligned} E_j &= E(F_j, G_j) \\ &= g^{F_j} h^{G_j} \end{aligned}$$

and broadcast  $E_j$ , for  $j = 1, \dots, k - 1$ .

When  $P_i$  has received his share  $(s_i, t_i)$  he verifies that

$$E(s_i, t_i) \stackrel{?}{=} \prod_{j=0}^{k-1} E_j^{i^j} \pmod{p} \tag{4.1}$$

If a party  $P_i$  holds a share that does not satisfy equation 4.1 then he *complains* against the dealer. The dealer reveals the share  $(s_i, t_i)$  matching equation 4.1 for each complaining party  $P_i$ . If any of the revealed shares fails this equation, the dealer is disqualified.

## 4.3 Pedersen Threshold Cryptosystem

Pedersen shown how the private key  $x$  is distributed such that any  $k$  or more members can find it. The scheme uses the parameters  $p$  and  $q$ , are the two large primes such that  $q$  divides  $p - 1$ ,  $G_q$  is the unique subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  of order  $q$ , and  $g$  is a generator of  $G_q$ . The dealer  $P_i$  distributes  $x_i$  as follows:



## 4.4 Distributed Key Generation (DKG)

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1.  $P_i$  chooses at random a polynomial  $f_i(z) \in \mathbb{Z}_q(z)$  of degree at most  $k - 1$  such that  $f_i(0) = x_i$ . Let

$$f_i(z) = f_{i0} + f_{i1}z + \cdots + f_{i,k-1}z^{k-1}$$

where  $f_{i0} = x_i$ .

2.  $P_i$  computes  $F_{ij} = g^{f_{ij}}$  for  $j = 0, \dots, k - 1$  and broadcasts  $(F_{ij})_{j=1, \dots, k-1}$  ( $F_{i0} = h_i$  is known beforehand).
3. When everybody have sent these  $k - 1$  values,  $P_i$  sends  $s_{ij} = f_i(j)$  *secretly* and a signature on  $s_{ij}$  to  $P_j$  for  $j = 1, \dots, n$  (in particular  $P_i$  keeps  $s_{ii}$ ).
4.  $P_i$  verifies that the share received from,  $P_j(s_{ji})$  is consistent with the previously published values by verifying that

$$g^{s_{ji}} \stackrel{?}{=} \prod_{l=0}^{k-1} F_{jl}^{i_l}$$

If this fails,  $P_i$  broadcasts that an error has been found, publishes  $s_{ij}$  and the signature and then stops.

5.  $P_i$  computes his share of  $x$  as the sum of all shares received in step 3  $s_i = \sum_{j=1}^n s_{ji}$ .

## 4.4 Distributed Key Generation (DKG)

Distributed Key Generation (DKG) protocol allows a set of Players to generate a pair of public, private key. The public key is output in clear and the corresponding private key is shared among the players with  $(t-n)$  secret sharing [23]. Unlike Shamir's secret sharing [23], DKG does not assume any trusted party (Dealer) for compute and reconstruct the shares and secret respectively. DKG protocol successfully outputs the desire keys even there is an adversary who can corrupt at most  $t - 1$  Players to executes the protocol as instructed by the adversary. The secret sharing is verifiable if the protocol meets the following two requirements:

1. After receiving a share  $s_{ij}$  from Player  $P_i$ , the receiver  $P_j$  must be able to verify whether or not the share is a valid piece of the secret of  $P_i$ .

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## 4.4 Distributed Key Generation (DKG)

2. There is no perceivable advantage of determining the secret by randomly selecting any less than  $t$  number of shares.

Torben Pryds Pedersen [20] first proposed the verifiable DKG for discrete log base cryptosystem. The basic idea of the protocol is as follows:

- Players  $\{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\}$  with their randomly selected secret  $\{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n\}$  respectively, initiate the protocol.
- Every Player  $P_j$  receives the share of the secret of  $P_i$  as  $s_{ij}$  and computes its secret as  $x_j = \sum_{i=1}^n s_{ij}$ .
- The public key is output as,  $h = g^{\sum_{i=1}^n s_i}$ .
- Decryption would be done by a quorum of at least  $t > n/2$  Players.

### 4.4.1 Pedersen's Distributed Key Generation Protocol

Pedersen's protocol is verifiable where every Player checks whether or not the received shares are the correct pieces of the sender's secret. If the verification determines a Player as *cheater*, the protocol *disqualifies* the Player and the public key is output without the component of the *cheating* Player. The protocol is as follows:

1. Each Player  $P_i$  takes a random  $t - 1$  degree polynomial  $f_i(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} a_{ik}x^k$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  where  $a_{i0} = s_i$ .
2. Player  $P_i$  computes  $E_{ik} = g^{a_{ik}}$ , for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, t$  and broadcasts  $E_{ik}$ .
3. After all players has broadcast their  $E_{ij}$ , every Player  $P_i$  computes the share of his secret for player  $P_j$  as  $s_{ij} = f_i(j)$  and secretly transmits the share to Player  $P_j$ .
4. Player  $P_j$  verifies the share received from  $P_i$  is consistent by checking

$$g^{s_{ij}} = \prod_{k=0}^{t-1} (E_{ik})^{j^k} \pmod{p}$$

---

## 4.4 Distributed Key Generation (DKG)

If Player  $P_j$  computes a failure of the  $P_i$ 's share, he complains against  $P_i$ . To Player  $P_i$  reveals his shares  $s_{ij}$  against every complains to satisfy the verification otherwise disqualified.

5. After having a defined set of qualifying Players ( $QUAL$ ), the public key is determined as  $h_s = \prod_{i \in QUAL} E_{i0}$
6. Player  $P_i$  sets his secret share as  $x_i = \sum_{j \in QUAL} s_{ji}$

Pedersen's DKG protocol allows the adversary to bias the output key (public & private) to a non-uniform distribution. As the value of the private secret depends on the definition of  $QUAL$  and the adversary can see all the broadcast information beforehand, it is shown in [10] that the adversary who controls some Players to react after seeing all the public information such that the Player may either *qualifies* or *disqualifies*. In fact Pedersen's DKG determines the  $QUAL$  after outputting the keys. Later on [9, 10] proposed a new DKG based on the Pedersen's scheme.

### 4.4.2 New Distributed Key Generation

In the new DKG, the  $QUAL$  is determines first then the private and public values are generated. The new DKG is as follows:

#### 1. Determining $QUAL$ and private secret:

- (a) Each Player  $P_i$  randomly chooses two polynomials of degree  $t - 1$  as  $f_i(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} a_{ij}x^j$  and  $\hat{f}_i(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} \hat{a}_{ij}x^j$ . Let  $a_{i0} = s_i$ . Player  $P_i$  broadcasts  $E_{ik} = g^{a_{ik}} h^{\hat{a}_{ik}} \pmod p$ , for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, t - 1$ .
- (b) Player  $P_i$  computes the share ( $s_{ij} = f_i(j)$ ,  $\hat{s}_{ij} = \hat{f}_i(j)$ ) and secretly sends to Player  $P_j$ .
- (c) Player  $P_j$  verifies the consistency of the  $P_i$ 's share as

$$g^{s_{ij}} h^{\hat{s}_{ij}} \stackrel{?}{=} \prod_{k=0}^{t-1} (E_{ik})^{j^k} \pmod p$$

Player  $P_j$  complains against  $P_i$  if the check fails.

## 4.4 Distributed Key Generation (DKG)

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- (d) Player  $P_i$  broadcasts  $(s_{ij}, \acute{s}_{ij})$  if there is a complain launched by  $P_j$ .  
The Player  $P_i$  disqualifies if either (1) there is more than  $t-1$  complains against  $P_i$  or (2)  $(s_{ij}, \acute{s}_{ij})$  reviled by  $P_i$  is falsify.
- (e) The  $QUAL$  is determined with the qualifying set of Players.
- (f) Each Player  $P_i$  computes his secret share  $x_i = \sum_{j \in QUAL} s_{ji}$

### 2. Determining the public key using Pedersen's DKG

- (a) Each Player  $P_{i \in QUAL}$ , broadcast  $C_{ik} = g^{a_{ik}} \pmod p$ , for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, t-1$ .
- (b) Each Player  $P_{j \in QUAL}$ , verifies the values broadcast by other Players  $P_{i \in QUAL}$  as:

$$g^{s_{ij}} \stackrel{?}{=} \prod_{k=0}^{t-1} (C_{ik})^{j^k}$$

$P_j$  complains against Player  $P_i$  if the check fails for Player  $P_i$  and publicly announces the  $s_{ij}, \acute{s}_{ij}$ .

- (c) If the complain against  $P_k$  is **valid**, the  $QUAL$  is reconfigured as  $QUAL = QUAL - P_k$ .
- (d) The Players  $P_i \in QUAL$  recompute their private secret  $x_i = \sum_{j \in QUAL} s_{ji}$ .  
The public key is output as  $h_s = \prod_{i \in QUAL} C_{i0}$  for  $i \in QUAL$

## Chapter 5

# Application of Distributed Key Generation (DKG) in Sealed-Bid Auction

### 5.1 Introduction

Sealed-Bid auctions are subject to bid-rigging attack by the powerful entity called coercer. Bid-rigging is the problem where coercer orders the other to bid at low price so that the coercer could win the auction by quoting unreasonably low price (little higher than the other bidders). When bid-rigging happens the auction fails to meet the true valuation of the goods. Receipt-free sealed-bid auction mechanisms [14] are developed to prevent bid-rigging. Receipt-freeness is the inability of any entity to prove his secret bid. The [14] scheme is based on multi-party computation and the entities are *bidder*, *sealer* and *auctioneer*. The mechanism is with a group of  $n$  sealers. At the time of sealing every sealer is needed to seal. The mechanism fails if any sealer is unavailable. We use a threshold cryptosystem  $(k - n)$  on sealers. The protocol will be successful in the presence of any  $k$  sealers where  $k \leq n$ .

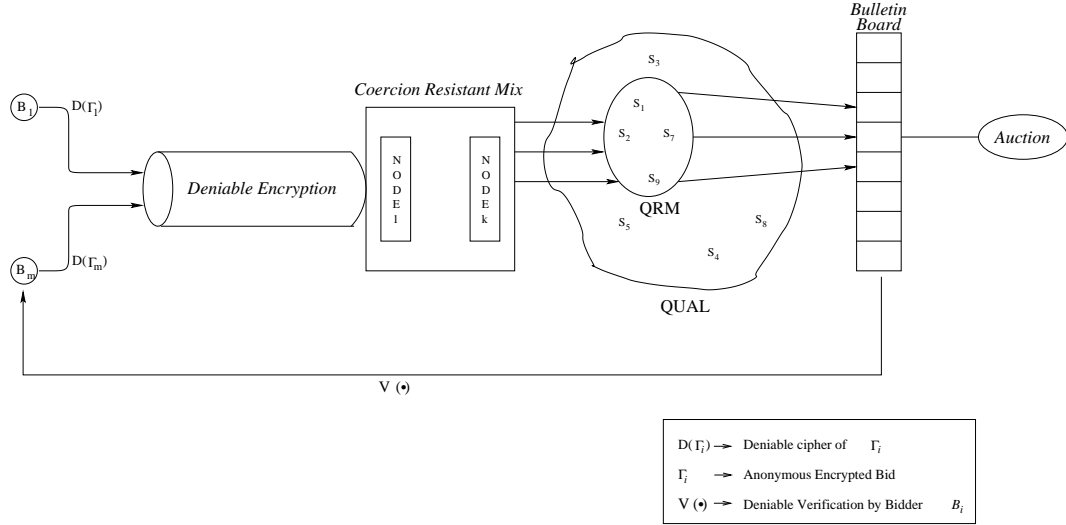


Figure 5.1: Setting of Sealed-Bid Auction

## 5.2 Problem and Parameters

The proposed receipt-free mechanism is based on multi-party computation where the entities are as follows:

**Bidder** who bids. We assume there are  $m$  number of bidders and represent the set of bidders as  $B = B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m$ . We also assume that the bidders bid honestly.

**Sealer** acts as an authority who performs the sealing operation to form receipt-free bid. There finite number of sealers and we assume that as  $n$ . The sealer set is represented as  $S = S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$  There may some colluded sealers.

**Auctioneer** computes and determines the winning price, during opening. The winner proves his winning price to the auctioneer. If the winning bidder not responds, the auctioneer along with the sealers determines the repudiating bidder.

**Coercer** is the powerful entity who indulge bid-rigging. We assume the coerce to be powerful enough to demand all the keys and randomness of the bidders after the bidding phase. Coercers can intercept the communication at any point of time. We also assume the existence of some colluded authorities who may leak some information that yield coercing. However, we assume that coercer does not able to control the bidders at the time of their casting.

We consider the setting as shown in the figure 5.1. The bidder  $B_i$  computes his secret bid vector as  $T_i$  and reencrypts with *Deniable Encryption* to form a deniable cipher. The deniable cipher are communicated to the sealer (*QRM*) *Coercion Resistant Mix* [15]. The deniable encryption followed by anonymity prevent the coercers to coerce the bidder.

If the coercer eavesdrop the channel to capture the secret bid, *Deniable Encryption* allows the bidders to produce a fake bid and get ried of coercing. On the other hand the colluded authorities could convey a secret bid to the coercer, but could not corresponds the bidders with their bids as the *Mix* produces anonymous output.

## 5.3 Protocol

### 5.3.1 System Setting

Let  $p$  and  $q$  denote large primes such that  $q$  divides  $p - 1$ ,  $G_q$  is the unique subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  of order  $q$ , and  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is an element of order  $q$ . Following are the description of the key pairs of different entities.

- Bidder  $B_i$ 's private key is  $x_{B_i}$  and public key is  $h_{B_i} = g^{x_{B_i}}$ .
- Auctioneer  $A$ 's private key is  $x_A$  and public key  $h_A = g^{x_A}$ .
- $k$  Sealers execute the Distributed Key Generation (DKG) 4.4 protocol and output a set of qualifying sealers  $QUAL$  with the public key  $h_S$ . Each member  $S_i \in QUAL$  has his private key as  $x_i$  such that any quorum of  $t > k/2$  sealers  $QRM \subseteq QUAL$  is able to seal the bidder's encrypted bid-vectors. Without loss of generality, we assume that  $QRM = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_t\}$ . Sealer  $S_i \in QRM$  configures his sealing key as  $x_{S_i} = \lambda_{ij}x_i$  where  $\lambda_{ij}$ <sup>1</sup> is the Lagrange interpolation coefficient.
- Sealer  $S_i \in QRM$  publishes his public key for sealing as  $h_{S_i} = g^{x_{S_i}}$ .
- We denote  $h_{S/S_1, S_2, \dots, S_r} = h_S(h_{S_1}h_{S_2} \dots h_{S_r})^{-1}$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Lagrange interpolation coefficient for the  $i^{th}$  point is  $\lambda_{ij} = \prod_{i \neq j} \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}$

- $g_y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a generator indicates ‘*YES Mark*’.
- A price list  $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$  in ascending order is published by the auctioneer.

## 5.4 Receipt-free sealed-bid auction mechanism

The proposed receipt-free mechanism consists of three phase: *Bidding*, *Opening* and *Trading*.

### 5.4.1 Bidding Phase:

*Bidding* operation is performed in three steps:

- Constructing the encrypted bid vector,
- Sealing the bid-vector,
- Bid verification.

#### 5.4.1.1 Constructing the encrypted bid vector

Each bidder  $B_i$  decides his bidding price  $p_j \in P$  and computes the encrypted bid vector as,

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}_i\Gamma_j &= ({}_iX_j, {}_iY_j) \\
 &= \begin{cases} g^{ir_j}, h_A^{ir_j} \cdot h_S^{ir_j} \cdot ({}_iG_y)^{ir_j} & \text{if } p_j = j^{th} \text{ price} \in P \\ g^{ir_j}, h_A^{ir_j} \cdot h_S^{ir_j} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

for every price  $1 \leq j \leq n$ ,  $B_i$  randomly select  ${}_i r_j \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  and computes the bid vector. Bidder  $B_i$  puts his ‘*Signed YES Mark*’ at the  $j^{th}$  price as  $({}_iG_y)^{ir_j}$ , where  ${}_iG_y = g_y^{x_{B_i}}$ . The operator ‘ $\cdot$ ’ is multiplication in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ .  $B_i$  sends the encrypted bid vector to a predefined *QUAL* over a “Coercing Resistant Mix”.



## 5.4.1.2 Sealing the bid-vector

We assumed a *QUAL* is predefined. Sealing would be performed by any  $k/2 < t \leq k$  number of sealers from the *QUAL*. The set of such  $t$  sealers is called quorum *QRM*. Without losing any generality, consider that *QRM* consists of  $t$  sealers  $\{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_t\}$ . It is not mandatory to execute the sealing operation sequentially, but for the simplification we assume that sealing is done sequentially (e.g.  $S_1$  followed by  $S_2$  followed by  $S_3$  etc.)

1. After receiving encrypted bid-vector  $\langle {}_i\Gamma_j \rangle$ , sealer  $S_1$  partially seal the bid-vector as  $\langle {}_i\Gamma_{j,S_1} \rangle$ , where  ${}_i\Gamma_{j,S_1} = \{{}_iX_{j,S_1}, {}_iY_{j,S_1}\}$  and

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}_iX_{j,S_1} &= g^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot {}_iX_j \\
 &= g^{i r_j + i r_{j,S_1}} \\
 {}_iY_{j,S_1} &= {}_i r_{j,S_1} \cdot g^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_A^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_{S/S_1}^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot ({}_iX_j)^{-x_{S_1}} \cdot {}_iY_j \\
 &= {}_i r_{j,S_1} \cdot g^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_A^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_{S/S_1}^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_{S_1}^{-i r_j} \cdot h_S^{i r_j} \cdot h_A^{i r_j} \cdot {}_iG_j \\
 &= {}_i r_{j,S_1} \cdot g^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_A^{i r_j + i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_{S/S_1}^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_{S/S_1}^{i r_j} \cdot {}_iG_j \\
 &= {}_i r_{j,S_1} \cdot g^{i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_A^{i r_j + i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_{S/S_1}^{i r_j + i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot {}_iG_j
 \end{aligned}$$

for every price  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , sealer  $S_1$  randomly selects  ${}_i r_{j,S_1} \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . We denote  ${}_iG_j = \{1, ({}_iG_y)^{i r_j}\}$ . Sealer  $S_1$  forwards the partially sealed bid to the next sealer  $S_2$ .

2. After receiving the partial sealed bid-vector  $\langle {}_i\Gamma_{j,S_1} \rangle$ , sealer  $S_2$  further sealed the bid-vector as  $\langle {}_i\Gamma_{j,S_2} \rangle$ , where  ${}_i\Gamma_{j,S_2} = \{{}_iX_{j,S_2}, {}_iY_{j,S_2}\}$  and

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}_iX_{j,S_2} &= g^{i r_{j,S_2}} \cdot {}_iX_{j,S_1} \\
 &= g^{i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^2 i r_{j,S_l}} \\
 {}_iY_{j,S_2} &= {}_i r_{j,S_2} \cdot g^{i r_{j,S_2}} \cdot h_A^{i r_{j,S_2}} \cdot h_{S/S_1,S_2}^{i r_{j,S_2}} \cdot ({}_iX_{j,S_1})^{-x_{S_2}} \cdot {}_iY_{j,S_1} \\
 &= {}_i r_{j,S_2} \cdot g^{i r_{j,S_2}} \cdot h_A^{i r_{j,S_2}} \cdot h_{S/S_1,S_2}^{i r_{j,S_2}} \cdot h_{S_2}^{-({}_i r_j + i r_{j,S_1})} \cdot {}_i r_{j,S_1} \cdot g^{i r_{j,S_1}} \\
 &\quad \cdot h_A^{i r_j + i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot h_{S/S_1}^{i r_j + i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot {}_iG_j \\
 &= \left( \prod_{l=1}^2 {}_i r_{j,S_l} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{l=1}^2 i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot h_A^{i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^2 i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot h_{S/S_1,S_2}^{i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^2 i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot {}_iG_j
 \end{aligned}$$

## 5.4 Receipt-free sealed-bid auction mechanism

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for every price  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , sealer  $S_2$  randomly selects  ${}^i r_{j,S_2} \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . Sealer  $S_2$  forwards the partially sealed bid to  $S_3$  and so on. In this way the last sealer  $S_t$  receives the partial sealed bid-vector  $\langle {}^i \Gamma_{j,S_{t-1}} \rangle$ .

3. After receiving partial sealed bid-vector  $\langle {}^i \Gamma_{j,S_{t-1}} \rangle$ , sealer  $S_t$  finally sealed the bid-vector as  $\langle {}^i \Gamma_{j,S_t} \rangle$ , where  ${}^i \Gamma_{j,S_t} = \{ {}^i X_{j,S_t}, {}^i Y_{j,S_t} \}$  and

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}^i X_{j,S_t} &= g^{i r_{j,S_t}} \cdot {}^i X_{j,S_{t-1}} \\
 &= g^{i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l}} \\
 {}^i Y_{j,S_t} &= {}^i r_{j,S_t} \cdot g^{i r_{j,S_t}} \cdot h_A^{i r_{j,S_t}} \cdot h_{S/S_1, S_2, \dots, S_t}^{i r_{j,S_t}} \cdot ({}^i X_{j,S_{t-1}})^{-x_{S_t}} \cdot {}^i Y_{j,S_{t-1}} \\
 &= \left( \prod_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot h_A^{i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot h_{S/S_1, S_2, \dots, S_t}^{i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot {}^i G_j \\
 &= \left( \prod_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot h_A^{i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot {}^i G_j
 \end{aligned}$$

for every price  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , sealer  $S_t$  randomly selects  ${}^i r_{j,S_t} \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ .

At least  $k/2 + 1$  sealer have to perform the sealing to form the receipt-free sealed-bid.

### 5.4.2 Bid Verification

After performed the sealing by *QRM*, the sealed bid is published in the public board. Receipt-freeness does not allow the bidders to prove bidding values, but allows the bidders to verify whether their bids have been correctly sealed or not. The verification of bid is done with the response attached by the sealers with the bid vector.

1. The first sealer  $S_1$  computes the response of the bidder  $B_i$ 's sealing as  ${}^i R_{S_1}$ ,

## 5.4 Receipt-free sealed-bid auction mechanism

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where

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}_iR &= {}_iX_1 \cdot {}_iX_2 \cdots {}_iX_n \\
 &= g^{\sum_{j=1}^n i r_j} \\
 {}_iR_{S_1} &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_1} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot {}_iR \\
 &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_1} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_1}} \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n i r_j} \\
 &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_1} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n (i r_j + i r_{j,S_1})}
 \end{aligned}$$

and forwards to the next sealer  $S_2$ .

2. Sealer  $S_2$  computes his response as,

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}_iR_{S_2} &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_2} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_2}} \cdot {}_iR_{S_1} \\
 &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n \prod_{l=1}^2 {}_i r_{j,S_l} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n \left( i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^2 i r_{j,S_l} \right)}
 \end{aligned}$$

and forwards to  $S_3$ .

3. Thus after  $t$  sealing the response is computed as,

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}_iR_{S_t} &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_t} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n {}_i r_{j,S_t}} \cdot {}_iR_{S_{t-1}} \\
 &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n \prod_{l=1}^t {}_i r_{j,S_l} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n \left( i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l} \right)}
 \end{aligned}$$

and published on the public board.

For every bidder  $B_i$ , Auctioneer  $A$  computes  ${}_i\mathbb{X}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$  where,

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}_i\mathbb{X} &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n {}_i X_{j,S_t} \right)^{x_A} \\
 &= h_A^{\sum_{j=1}^n \left( i r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i r_{j,S_l} \right)}
 \end{aligned}$$

and writes on public board.

Bidder  $B_i$  checks, validity of his bid-vector as follows:

1. Bidder  $B_i$  computes  ${}_iC$  where,

$$\begin{aligned} {}_iC &= \prod_{j=1}^n {}_iY_{j,S_t} \cdot {}_iX^{-1} \\ &= \left( \prod_{j=1}^n \prod_{l=1}^t {}_i r_{j,S_l} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^t {}_i r_{j,S_l}} \cdot {}_iG_j \end{aligned}$$

2. Bidder  $B_i$  verifies

$${}_iC \cdot {}_iR \stackrel{?}{=} {}_iR_{S_t} \cdot {}_iG_j$$

If bidder  $B_i$  fails to verify his sealed bid, it raises a complain.

### 5.4.3 Opening Phase

After successfully executing the bidding phase, the bids are opened as per the scheduled time. The bids are opened in descending order (for highest price Auction). That is auctioneer first open the  $n^{th}$  price, if no one bids, then open the  $(n-1)^{th}$  price and so on until there is ‘YES Mark’ for the  $j^{th}$  price. Opening of  $j^{th}$  price is as follows:

1. All sealers  $S_l \in QUAL$  compute  $V_{j,S_l}$ , where,

$$V_{j,S_l} = \prod_{i=1}^m ({}_i r_{j,S_l} \cdot g^{{}_i r_{j,S_l}})$$

and send to auctioneer  $A$  until the winning price is determined.

## 5.4 Receipt-free sealed-bid auction mechanism

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2. (a) Auctioneer  $A$  computes  $\mathbb{V}_j$  and  $\mathbb{Y}_j$  where,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{V}_j &= \prod_{l=1}^t V_{j,S_l} \\
 &= \prod_{l=1}^t \prod_{i=1}^m ({}_i r_{j,S_l} \cdot g^{{}_i r_{j,S_l}}) \\
 &= \left( \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{l=1}^t {}_i r_{j,S_l} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^t {}_i r_{j,S_l}} \\
 \mathbb{Y}_j &= \prod_{i=1}^m \{ {}_i Y_{j,S_t} \cdot ({}_i X_{j,S_t})^{-x_A} \} \\
 &= \left( \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{l=1}^t {}_i r_{j,S_t} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^t {}_i r_{j,S_t}} \cdot \prod_{i=1}^m {}_i G_j
 \end{aligned}$$

- (b) Auctioneer  $A$  compute  $\mathbb{G}_j$  where,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{G}_j &= \mathbb{Y}_j \cdot (\mathbb{V}_j)^{-1} \\
 &= \prod_{i=1}^m {}_i G_j
 \end{aligned}$$

- (c) Auctioneer  $A$  declare  $j^{\text{th}}$  price as the winning price if,

$$\mathbb{G}_j \neq 1$$

### 5.4.4 Trading:

After declaration of winning price, bidder  $B_i$  claims his victory with his ‘*YES Mark*’ ( ${}_i G_y$ ) and ‘*Signed YES Mark*’ ( ${}_i G_w$ ). Let  $w$  is the winning price.

1. In case of single winner auctioneer  $A$  verifies the winner,

$$\mathbb{G}_j \stackrel{?}{=} {}_i G_w$$

If the verification succeed, auctioneer declares  $B_i$  as winner.

2. However for multiple winner, auctioneer  $A$  and bidders  $B_i \in \text{Claimed Winner}$  individually execute two *interactive zero-knowledge proofs* to satisfy,

## 5.4 Receipt-free sealed-bid auction mechanism

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- (a)  ${}_iG_y$  and  $h_{B_i}$  has common exponent,
  - (b)  ${}_iX_w$  and  ${}_iG_w$  has common exponent.
3. After successful executing the *zero-knowledge proof* by multiple bidders, auctioneer  $A$  verifies the following:

$$\prod_{\substack{i=\text{claimed} \\ \text{winners}}} {}_iG_w \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbb{G}_j$$

If the verification succeed, auctioneer declares the claimed bidders as winners.

# Chapter 6

## Analysis of Receipt-Free Sealed-Bid Auction

### 6.1 Receipt-Freeness

The quorum ( $QRM$ ) receives the encrypted bids anonymously. Therefore, even the recipient of any encrypted bids is colluded (i.e. intend to convey the encrypted bids  ${}_i\Gamma_j$  to the coercer), then also the coercing is insignificant as the colluded entity could not resolve “who-encrypts-what”. On the other hand, the sealed-bids are receipt-free as the sealing operation engraves randomness of the sealers  $S_l \in QRM$ . The scheme guarantees receipt-freeness if at least one of the sealer in  $QRM$  is honest.

**Deniable Verifiability:** Bidder has to compute  ${}_iC$  during verification of his sealed bid. In that case bidder need not to disclose the position of the ‘*YES Mark*’. For example, let bidder  $B_i$  has ‘*YES Mark*’ on  $j^{th}$  price but during the verification he can plausibly deny and show that ‘*YES Mark*’ is in some  $i \neq j^{th}$  position.

Bidder can prove to *coerer*, that the ‘*signed YES Mark*’ is at  $i^{th}$  position, as the marks are in product form.

## 6.2 Non-Repudiation

The auction scheme determine the winning price, not the winner. So winning-bidder may keep silent (repudiate). The auction scheme is able to identify the winning-bidder in case of repudiation. The procedure as follows:

Let  $w^{th}$  price is the winning price. Auctioneer asks all sealers (member of  $QRM$ ) to write the initial encrypted bid-vector for  $w^{th}$  price, that is  $\langle {}_i\Gamma_w \rangle$  on the public board. Every sealer  $S_l \in QRM$ , computes  $h_{S_l \in QRM}^{i r_w} = {}_i X_w^{x_{S_l}}$  (where  $x_{S_l}$  is the sealing key of sealer  $S_l$ ) and writes on the public board against  $\langle {}_i\Gamma_w \rangle$ . Auctioneer computes the ‘Mark’ of the bidder  $B_i$  as,

$${}_i G_w = {}_i Y_w \cdot \left\{ {}_i X_w^{x_A} \prod_{l \in QRM} h_{S_l}^{i r_w} \right\}^{-1}$$

The mark would be either ‘No Mark’ = 1 or ‘Signed YES Mark’ =  $({}_i G_y)^{i r_w}$ . The auctioneer asks all bidders to compute ‘Signed YES Mark’ for  $w^{th}$  price, i.e,  $({}_i G_y)^{i r_w}$ , and execute *interactive zero-knowledge proof*, to verify that  $({}_i G_w)^{i r_w}$  and  ${}_i X_w$  has same exponent as  $i r_w$ . If the marking of a bid  $\langle {}_i\Gamma_w \rangle$  is  $X \neq 1$  then there should be at least one bidder  $B_i$  for which the ‘Signed YES Mark’ is also  $X$ . Thus the repudiating bidder could be identified.

## 6.3 Correctness

### 6.3.1 Publicly Verifiable Opening

Let auctioneer executes the opening and declare the  $j^{th}$  price as the winning price. Any one (insider/outsider) will be able to verify the winning price. Let an outsider  $P$  wants to verify the winning price. It will go through the following steps:



1.  $P$  will compute,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{P}\mathbb{Y}_j &= \prod_{i=1}^m iY_{j,S_t} \\
 &= \left( \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{l=1}^t i^{r_{j,S_l}} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^t i^{r_{j,S_l}}} \cdot h_A^{\sum_{i=1}^m \left( i^{r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i^{r_{j,S_l}}} \right)} \cdot \prod_{i=1}^m iG_j \\
 \mathbb{P}\mathbb{X}_j &= \prod_{i=1}^m iX_{j,S_t} \\
 &= g^{\sum_{i=1}^m \left( i^{r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i^{r_{j,S_l}}} \right)}
 \end{aligned}$$

from public board.  $P$  will ask to auctioneer to sign blindly on  $\mathbb{P}\mathbb{X}_j$  and let the value become,

$${}_A\mathbb{P}\mathbb{X}_j = h_A^{\sum_{i=1}^m \left( i^{r_j + \sum_{l=1}^t i^{r_{j,S_l}}} \right)}$$

2. Now  $P$  gets  $V_{j,S_l}$  is the composite randomness for all the  $j^{\text{th}}$  bids by sealer  $S_l$ , on the bulletin board and will compute,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{P}\mathbb{V}_j &= \prod_{l=1}^t V_{j,S_l} \\
 &= \prod_{l=1}^t \prod_{i=1}^m (i^{r_{j,S_l}} \cdot g^{i^{r_{j,S_l}}}) \\
 &= \left( \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{l=1}^t i^{r_{j,S_l}} \right) \cdot g^{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^t i^{r_{j,S_l}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

3. Finally  $P$  will verify,

$$\mathbb{P}\mathbb{Y}_j \cdot ({}_A\mathbb{P}\mathbb{X}_j)^{-1} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbb{P}\mathbb{V}_j$$

### 6.3.2 Adversary

Adversary may corrupt the bid vector. Here we assume that the bidders are honest during bidding. Moreover coercer would not gain any advantage by, corrupting bidder's bid vector due to the benefit collision. So only some insider (i.e.,

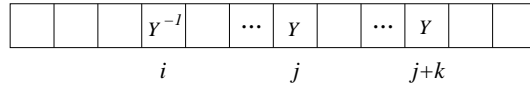


Figure 6.1: Bid Corruption

sealer) may corrupt bidder's bid. For example, let  $B_i$ 's bid vector having the 'YES Mark' at  $j^{th}$  position as shown in figure 6.1. An adversary may corrupt the bid by putting 'YES Mark' at some  $j + k^{th}$  position. At the same time adversary nullify his corruption by putting 'YES<sup>-1</sup> Mark' as some other place.

At the time of verification bidder would not be able to verify that his bid vector has been corrupted. During opening, auctioneer will compute the  $j + k^{th}$  price as the winning price. Auctioneer moves for *repudiation check*. As repudiation check does not able to identify any bidder, therefore *Auctioneer* moves for further opening. Therefore, any corruption only delays the opening, but can not victimize any bidder.

## 6.4 Efficiency

The efficiency of the receipt-free sealed-bid auction scheme depends on the bidding time and the sealing operation of the bidder and sealer respectively . The simulation result in Figure 6.2 shows the bidding time with verifying price range and key size 256, 512, 768 and 1024 bits. In each cases increasing the key size by 256 bits the bidding time increased by approximately three times in order.

The second simulation result Figure 6.3 shows the time required to perform a single sealing operation of a sealer with varying price range and varying key 256, 512, 768 and 1024. Like bidding time, the time for sealing operation is also increased by approximately three times in order.

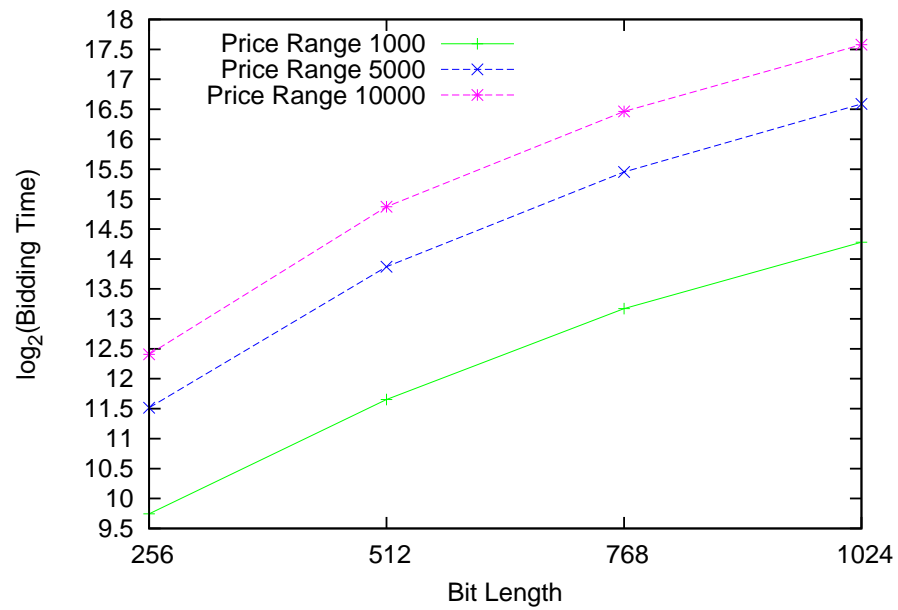


Figure 6.2: Bidding Time

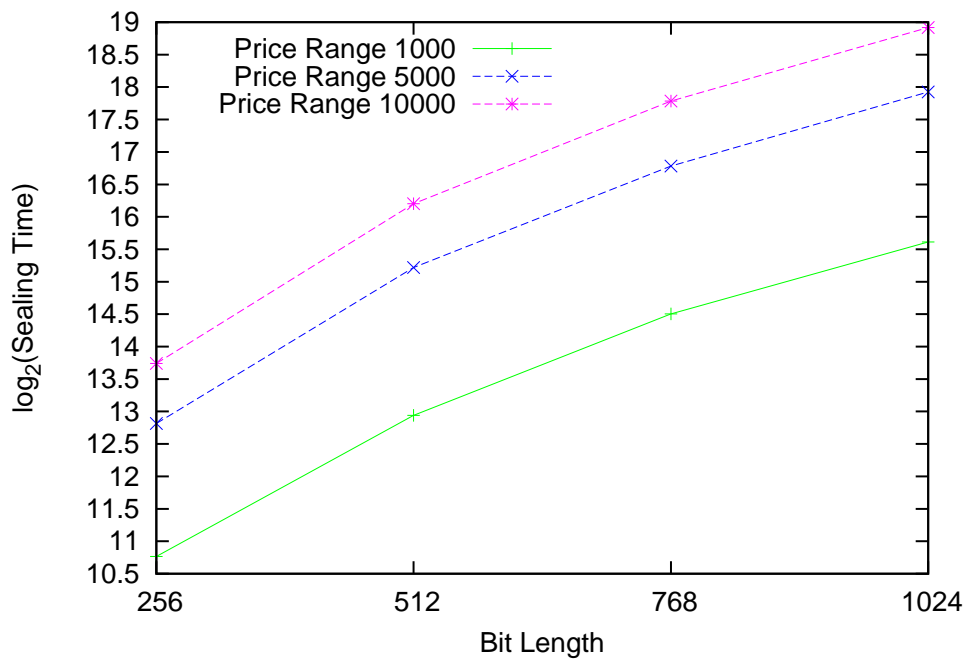


Figure 6.3: Sealing Time

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## 6.5 Overhead of Message Passing for Misbehaviors in Distributed Key Generation

The DKG protocol executes in a broadcast manner. Therefore, there are many message exchange between the players. The number of messages increased as the number of player misbehaves. Here we analyze the overhead of message exchanging in context of misbehaving players. Let there are  $n$  players among them  $k$  players misbehaves. Now,  $k$  misbehaving players each may send false share to  $t$  other players where  $t = 1, 2, \dots, (n - 1)$ . When a player  $P_i$  communicates false share, then  $P_i$  broadcast  $(n - 1)$  complains against  $P_j$ . On the other hand  $P_j$  broadcast  $(n - 1)$  messages with his secrets share. So one misbehavior causes  $2(n - 1)$  message overhead. Therefore  $k$  misbehavior causes  $2(n - 1)k$  message overhead. In this sequel, if there are  $n$  players with  $k$  misbehaving players, where each  $k$  players misbehaves with  $t$  other then the total message overhead is  $2(n - 1)kt$ .

# Chapter 7

## Conclusion

The proposed Receipt-free sealed bid auction scheme is based on multiple entity threshold trust model. The scheme involves multiple sealers and one auctioneer. An *qualifying* set of sealers (*QUAL*) is defined beforehand, by executing the *Distributed Key Generation* protocol within the sealers. A subset of the *QUAL*, called *Quorum QRM*, performs sealing of bids. The bidder uses the public key of the *QUAL* to form his encrypted bid-vector, whereas the decryption key is shared among the members of *QRM*. Our proposed scheme guarantees the,

- Exemption of untappable channel.
- Receipt-freeness.
- Verifiability.
- Non-Repudiation.

### 7.1 Further Work

The proposed scheme defines a price list as a linear array of *Minimum* to *Maximum* price. The computation and space complexity is proportional to the length of the price list. For example if

- Let key size is 512 bit.

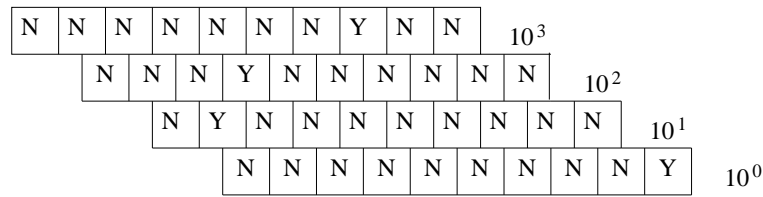


Figure 7.1: Decimal representation of bid vector.

- For price list 1000, bidding time is 3223 milisecond, and sealing time is 7856 milisecond.
- For price list 10000, bidding time is 29995 milisecond, sealing time is 75408 milisecond.
- Let key size is 512 bit.
  - For 512 bit key and 1000 price list, the bit vector would be  $512 \times 1000 \times 2$  bits.
  - For 10000 price list, the bid vector would be  $512 \times 10000 \times 2$  bits.

The scheme may be further improved if the price list is designed as *Multiple Decimal Price Vector (MDPV)*. In *MDPV* each vector represents one decimal position. For example the  $i^{th}$  vector represents  $10^{i-1}$  decimal position. The example in 7.1 ‘Yes Mark’ of 7319 is represented in *MDPV*. The top vector represents the  $10^3$  decimal position. That is the left most cell of the top vector represents  $0 \times 10^3$ , next cell represents  $1 \times 10^3$  and so on. Therefore increase of the price list with a multiple of 10 results an increment of additional 10 entities in *MDPV*. The future work may comprise to modify the scheme to fit the idea in receipt-free sealed-bid auction.

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