Course-Correct to DeFi Lacking Default Deficiency

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Abstract—This paper explores methods of assessing risk on-chain by efficiently integrating off-chain identity- and attribute-verification and on-chain transaction activity. While decentralized finance (DeFi) is a well-suited application of permissionless blockchains, it is severely constrained in its ability to reconcile real-world identities and, as a result, to quantify their associated transaction risk using solely on-chain data, limiting its realistic applications. Opening the ecosystem to a broader range of use cases requires consistent pseudonymity and quantifiable reputation. Traditional finance quantifies risk by collecting and vetting reputation information for an individual, such as credit scores or payment history. We explore a mechanism to incorporate these traditional trust factors into the DeFi ecosystem while both preserving individual privacy within a competitive and fair environment and retaining compatibility with existing platforms such as Ethereum. Even though blockchains are inherently public, our solution gives users control over the release of information that pertains to them. Consequently, our contribution focuses on customized methods that balance the level of disclosure of verifiable, provably-sourced user information against the likelihood of the user successfully gaining access to a desired resource, such as a loan under mutually-agreeable terms. Our solution is consistent with the zero-trust model in that it imports explicit trust from recognized sources through relevant, continuously updated metrics.

Index Terms—Zero Trust, Encryption, Authorization, Smart Contracts, Digital Signatures, Distributed Databases, Blockchains

I. BACKGROUND

A. Centralized vs. Decentralized Finance

Decentralized finance (DeFi) differs in several major ways from centralized finance: transparency in the operation of financial assets and products; user-exerted control over their assets, including the degree to which users release information about them; capability to create and deploy DeFi products is widely accessible, leveraging infrastructure of a blockchain and its distributed network of consensus management [1]. The architecture is non-custodial, thus streamlining the cost structure. The permissionless nature eliminates blocking and censorship. Open auditability ensures checks on collateralization and overall system health. “Lego”-like structure allows for composability of protocols constructed from a modest number of basic well-understood building blocks. This enables rules-compliant handling of capital while providing rich feature sets for rehypothecation, i.e., the reuse of assets posted as collateral [2]. The FLAX system [3] extends ERC-20, the Ethereum standard for fungible tokens, to enable composable usage of anonymous funds by other smart contracts, as instantiated using existing anonymous payment schemes. [4] proposes a model for disentangling DeFi protocols into their component building blocks, motivated, in part, by a perceived ultimate need to utilize the understanding of frequently used substructures to develop solutions for cross-chain composability.

B. Fill a Gap: Consolidate Off- and On-Chain Reputation

Smart contract-enabled blockchain platforms, such as Ethereum, offer the power to bring financial services applications online within a more socially conscious and equitable environment that can balance maintained public visibility and the protection of individual privacy. However, mirroring the decision processes of traditional lending practices requires importing off-chain-established reputational aspects on-chain without violating aspects of users’ choices regarding the extent to which they disclose their personal information and under what circumstances. If multiple users have personal information of a given type of data, i.e., dataType, in common, in traditional systems the secure communications overlay hides correlation even under identical representation of such raw attribute values. That does not apply when addressing conveyance of sensitive information on a blockchain, since smart contract execution cannot use privately held cryptographic keys without calling out to off-chain oracles. This would undermine the desired assurance of availability and auditability of transactions that decentralized ledger technology (DLT) can offer. We opt instead to post attestations to the blockchain that each carry a personalized version of a raw attribute value or of a collection of intervals containing such value. Only the specific user can unlock the information during a user-initiated query designed to provide evidence of meeting requirements set as preconditions to automatically access a resource. Within decentralized finance, an example of such a resource is a loan offered under stated terms upon a successful user transaction as determined by a Money Services Business (MSB) smart contract. MSB smart contracts invoke a Know Your Customer (KYC) smart contract which coordinator-generated transactions call to post attestations to the blockchain. KYC regulations and Anti-Money Laundering (AML) directives constitute essential elements of business conducted by an MSB. KYC is used to verify identity given specific information and credentials as part of an extensive AML process geared towards financial crimes detection/prevention.

Considerable time and effort have gone into establishing an international framework of monetary policies that the
migration to blockchain should take advantage of. This paper focuses on handling migration in a cryptographically sound manner by offering a suite of customized solutions that do not suffer from the complexity and computational burdens of generic solutions. We achieve computational efficiency of the users’ role in proofs about their attributes during query. We do not consider it practical enough to efficiently manage only the size of proofs and their verification for succinctness. This theme is consistent with [5]. Unlike the unlinkable although auditable transaction certificates of [6] and [7], and the zero-knowledge-based proofs of possession of (non-revealed) self-sovereign anonymous credentials of [8], we address attribute management that is consistent with permissionless networks.

Assigning user-unique pseudonyms via multiparty computation of tokenized user-identifying data, and associating updateable secrets that only the intended users can reproduce, together establish a foundation upon which we build out our solutions. We predicate our approach on the realization that there is inefficiency in backtracking from anonymity-based methods to offer consistent pseudonymity that deters reputation laundering. Note that GDPR [9] defines “pseudonymisation.” Applying decentralization only to specific sub-processes can result in overall inconsistency since there is an inherent degree of centralization in off-chain verification of user credentials and import onto the blockchain of metrics such as user credit scores. Only a limited number of services deserve broad recognition as trusted to access the raw information tied directly to users and to make such assessments. Note that in the zero-knowledge context, there are potential vulnerabilities of an untrusted setup of common reference strings (CRS) [10]. We avoid dependency on awareness by the system infrastructure, which includes KYC processors (as issuers) and an attesting coordinator, of MSB-specific application-level considerations. Once a user has registered a blockchain wallet into the system, preparation and posting of attestations bearing on such a wallet occur without user involvement. Only at the point of query does the user retrieve relevant components of attestation, or re-attestation based on updated user-related data.

C. High-Level Workflow

Fig. 1 depicts the user onboarding, attestation, and query workflow. A KYC provider verifies a user’s identity during off-chain user registration, conducts off-chain user data retrieval, and provides an attestation that the KYC provider has stored the material used to perform verification. This attestation is associated with the user’s wallet on-chain but made inaccessible without interaction from the user via the wallet. Auditors can determine from KYC provider logs whether verification had indeed occurred as a prerequisite to attestation. An MSB that wants to verify that the user has gone through KYC acquires permission from the user via its MSB smart contract to access the on-chain data to verify and assess this attestation via a KYC smart contract. User registration and access to code for user-initiated query may be via an MSB, where an independently provisioned root of trust, e.g., public key, assures against undetected MSB-perpetrated malfeasance.

II. System Overview

A glossary of terminology is included as Section II-A. Registration of a user includes verification of user identity through one or more identity verification services. If verification is successful, gathering of information such as KYC/AML status, credit scores and/or other user data follows, for use in attesting to the blockchain. Such an attestation ties to a KYC processor- and wallet- invariant pseudonym, i.e., KYCid, explicitly generated for that user. The coordinator is an entity delegated by the KYC processors to form and submit attestations to the blockchain on their behalf. KYC processors utilize nonces to isolate meaningful information exposure through user-initiated query of attestations, as well as to ensure replay detection against unauthorized reuse without relying on compliance by downstream processes. Upfront and later-repeatable deterministic signing by the user’s wallet of attestation-associated nonces enables controlled information exposure during query without undesirable statefulness. nonces discussed in this context emanate from KYC processors and thus are not to be confused with native blockchain nonces used to detect user wallet address/account-specific transaction submission order and replay attempts. The KYC processor, acting in combination with the tokenization processors, performs a tokenization process described in further detail in Appendix A to generate the KYCid, as well as attributeValueTokens in the method introduced in Section III-B. The off-chain- vetted user data becomes available to an MSB smart contract in some form as attributeValues via user-initiated query. We define three distinct combinable or stand-alone methods to incorporate a representation of such user data into KYC smart contract- held queryable attestations as hash commitments. hash(·) refers to application of a one-way hash function to the parenthetical argument. Due to the blockchain’s sequence-preserving nature and signature-enforced immutability of transaction ownership, the most recent attestation of the given type of data, i.e., dataType, with embedded attributeValue that corresponds to the querying user is unambiguously accessible. This prevails despite any user attempts to query against an attestation that
is earlier and/or of a different user because it includes a preferable embedded attributeValue.

A. Glossary of Terminology

These terms are hyperlinked to defining text using boldface: attestation; attestationNotFound; attestationPointer; attestDn; attestUp; attributeValue; attributeValueToken; blindedPersonalizationInfo; blindedPersonalizedAttributeValueToken; coordinator; dataType; fill; hash(); intervalLength; KYCid; KYC processor; method 1; method 2; method 3; nonce; nonceSig; nonceSigKD; nonceSig\*; personalizationInfo; personalizedAttributeValueToken; preimg; preimgDn; preimgUp; preKYCid; proxy; proxySig; query; sandwich; tokenization processor; uberProxy; uberSig; unterProxy; unterSig; updateIndex; userTxnNonce; walletAddress; walletSig; windowDn; windowing; windowUp.

B. Detailed Workflow

Fig. 2, Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 depict the workflow in greater detail. walletSig is the user wallet- applied signature of walletAddress, as an address derived from the user’s wallet public key. nonceSig is the user wallet- applied signature of nonce. updateIndex is a counter that tracks the updates on the same KYCid, nonce and dataType. The coordinator-submitted collection comprised of dataType, attestation, nonce, and KYCid is retrievable from KYC smart contract stateful storage by using as lookup, where || denotes concatenation:

\[
\text{attestationPointer} = \text{hash} (\text{hash} (\text{walletSig}) || \text{walletAddress}) \tag{1}
\]

The KYC smart contract code includes the coordinator’s whitelisted wallet address used to verify coordinator-submitted transactions that each include attestationPointer, dataType, attestation, nonce, and KYCid. The outer hash in (1) hides walletAddress until the first query against the attestationPointer. hash(walletSig) is a condensed form of walletSig used during query transmission without sacrificing the relationship to its antecedent, walletSig, as verified along with nonceSig upon user registration.

\[
\text{nonceSigKD} = \text{hash}(\text{dataType} || \text{updateIndex} || \text{hash(\text{nonceSig})}) \tag{2}
\]

As a key derived from nonceSig, nonceSigKD is computable by the user during query along with hash(walletSig) used to rederive attestationPointer. (1) is relevant to all three methods presented below, while (2) is relevant only to the first two. Further clarifying Section I-C: a KYC provider is a composite of a KYC processor, identity verification service, third-party data service, tokenization processors and coordinator. attestations include hash commitments of (potentially personalized) attributeValues. To mirror attestations, personalization occurs live during query by a proxy with access to (non-personalized) attributeValueTokens or directly by the user’s client. attestations are retrievable from the blockchain via rederivation of attestationPointers as part of query.

III. INTRODUCTION TO SUITE OF SOLUTIONS

We now introduce our three (user-selectable or system-chosen) customized methods. All three blind access to raw attribute values until user-initiated query, which results in full disclosure, proxy-assisted blinded matching of query against attestation, or user-selectable level of disclosure, respectively.

A. Method 1: Release of Raw Attribute Value

In method 1 and method 2, attributeValue, as received by the coordinator via a KYC processor, is an argument of the resultant hash commitment:

\[
\text{attestation} = \text{hash} (\text{nonceSigKD}||\text{attributeValue}) \tag{3}
\]

A query discloses a raw attribute value as an attributeValue under method 1.
B. Method 2: Release of Personalized Attribute Value Token

Method 2 enables an intermediary, i.e., proxy, to act on behalf of an MSB as initiated by a user’s off-chain request. Such proxy, as authorized by the MSB, assists in determining whether the user has fulfilled the MSB’s policy requirements to gain access via the blockchain to the requested resource. Through the user’s on-chain transaction, the proxy makes information accessible to the corresponding MSB smart contract that holds its “whitelisted” signature verification public key. Potentially dependent on meeting other requirements, such information includes attributeValue as an opaque personalizedAttributeValueToken that cannot be correlated to other users. Its reconstruction by the proxy represents non-vetted user input as well as an attribute threshold set by the MSB. This attributeValue is compared against that within the most recent attestation that was posted to the blockchain for that user wallet and dataType as a hash commitment that lies dormant (i.e., blinded) until activated via user-initiated on-chain query. For additional privacy and security, a proxy may be split into uberProxy and unterProxy components. Users then communicate directly with the whitelisted uberProxy, while the unterProxy has private access to (non-personalized) attributeValueToken values that each represent a specific range of data values of a given dataType. The unterProxy is blinded from the personalization aspects during joint communication and processing with an uberProxy that results in conversion of uberProxy-stipulated choice of an unterProxy-held attributeValueToken to a personalizedAttributeValueToken. For single-issuer, single-proxy, single-attribute use case support, the proxy and issuer can be combined as a whitelisted entity. The response to the user’s live attribute pull request is a signed timestamped message indicating whether the user with that KYCid meets the identified MSB’s threshold. This simplification eliminates advance on-chain posting of MSB-agnostic attestations. Appendix B includes details of method 2.

C. Method 3: Windows Around User’s Raw Attribute Interval

Method 3 balances resource-access success against public disclosure. If armed with awareness of MSB-specific transaction success criteria, the user can selectively release via query the maximally-sized window compatible with a successful outcome if such a window that includes the user’s raw attribute value exists. For example: an MSB may require credit scores to be at or above a specified threshold, or the number of past loan application rejections to be at or below a specified threshold; an MSB may provide service only to users who reside within a specified zip code range. Release of one or more consecutive interval labels occurs, where users may or may not be aware of the mapping of interval labels to raw attribute values bounded by interval endpoints. A user can determine from their blockchain-posted attestations what specific interval label of m possibilities was associated with the user for that dataType. This interval label, denoted by k, is an attributeValue although the user releases a disguised form.

IV. Query: User Invokes MSB Smart Contract

The user accesses their wallet via a client to generate walletSig as the signature of walletAddress, which when hashed and combined with walletAddress produces attestationPointer as in (1). This, along with List(dataType), serves as a reference to attestations on the blockchain. The body of the transaction includes, in part, hash(walletSig) and List(dataType). walletAddress is derivable from the wallet public key, which, in turn, is derivable from the message, signature and a recovery identifier used to disambiguate. In the case of method 1 and method 2, the transaction also includes List(nonceSigKD), where nonceSigKD is expressed in (2) for nonceSig values generated over nonce by the user’s wallet private key for each nonce retrieved from the blockchain as corresponding to an attestation of interest. In method 3, the transaction includes preimgUp and/or preimgDn as subsequently defined in (6) and (8), and (7) and (9), respectively. The user generates these based on recomputation of nonceSig from retrieved nonces, and solving for k of the retrieved attestations. The user may be aware of the expected value of k via a third-party source that monitors user data.

V. Query: KYC Smart Contract Code Execution

The KYC smart contract spans across invocation by all MSB smart contracts. The KYC smart contract attempts retrieval of KYCid and dataType by using rederived attestationPointer in (1) based on MSB smart contract-supplied hash(walletSig) and walletAddress. If the attestationPointer is absent, the KYC smart contract returns an attestationNotFound error. The KYC smart contract chooses the most recently blockchain-posted attestation of each dataType within List(dataType) for recomputation of the attestation to check for a match. If there is no match on a dataType, the KYC smart contract returns an error for that dataType. If an MSB smart contract includes attributeValues or preimgUp|preimgDn values within its invocation of the KYC smart contract, the KYC smart contract forms the attestation using the given values and checks for a match. In method 1, if the MSB smart contract does not supply attributeValues for the given dataType, the KYC smart contract performs exhaustive search over possible attributeValues of dataType until it finds a first match, if any.

VI. Method 3 Constructions

We utilize one-way hash function chains, wherein anyone can iteratively apply a one-way hash function but cannot feasibly reverse the process to find hash preimages of values they were not involved in generating in the forward direction. We denote applying hash() a total of t times by $hash^t$ (bitstring), where $hash^0$(bitstring) = bitstring. An attestation authorizes the user to initiate a query by creating an open or closed “sandwich” to selectively reveal a window around their current raw attribute value of a given dataType. An open sandwich involves the user introducing a single bound (either lower or upper), while a closed sandwich involves the user including both bounds. In the open-on-top sandwich type, the user chooses the disclosed lower bound interval label $i \leq k$, where...
$k$ is the potentially hidden interval label corresponding to the interval in which the user’s raw attribute value lies. The `dataType`-specific value $m$ denotes the number of raw attribute intervals labeled consecutively from 1 to $m$. In the open-on-bottom sandwich type, the user chooses the disclosed upper bound interval label $m + 1 - j \geq k$. A closed sandwich is comprised of the conjunction of open sandwiches of both types. The minimal disclosure open-on-top sandwich sets $i = 1$, and the maximal disclosure open-on-top sandwich sets $i = k$. Analogously, the minimal disclosure open-on-bottom sandwich sets $m + 1 - j = m$, i.e., $j = 1$, and the maximal disclosure open-on-bottom sandwich sets $m + 1 - j = k$, i.e., $j = m + 1 - k$. Regarding minimal disclosure, proving that $k \geq 1$ or $k \leq m$ might appear to be vacuous. But this will not be the case when we subsequently introduce the concept of raw attribute sub-intervals. Fig. 5 depicts both attestation and query processing that we now explain in mathematical detail. An attestation is comprised of an `attestUp` and `attestDn` pair:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{attestUp} &= \text{hash}^k(\text{windowUp}) \\
\text{attestDn} &= \text{hash}^{m+1-k}(\text{windowDn})
\end{align*}
\]  

(4) and (5)

\[
\text{preimgUp} = \text{hash}^{k-1}(\text{windowUp})
\]  

(8)

\[
\text{preimgDn} = \text{hash}^{m+1-k-j}(\text{windowDn})
\]  

(9)

To provably narrow the window around $k$, during query the user transacts via the appropriate MSB smart contract by computing `preimg`, i.e., a `preimgUp` and/or a `preimgDn`, for each targeted attestation. The decision of which to submit and the choice of the values of $i$ and/or $j$ depend on the intended level of windowing. The outer hash function within (6) and (7) avoids disclosure of `hash(nonSig)`, by the user legitimately setting $i$ to $j$ or $j$ to $m + 1 - k$, which would jeopardize its future use. An MSB smart contract provides `List(preimg)` when invoking the KYC smart contract. Note that if we replaced $k$ by $k - 1$ in (4) and (8), or $m + 1 - k$ by $m - k$ in (5) and (9), there would be no way to prove that $k$ is bounded below by 1 or bounded above by $m$, respectively, since setting $i = 0$ in (8) or $j = 0$ in (9) would not prove anything. Heuristically, `attestUp` and `attestDn` provide only the “haystack,” whereas `preimg` values narrow the window where one should look to find the “needle.” Users set values of $i$ and/or $j$ by balancing their tolerance for the level of exposure surrounding their $k$ value for the given `dataType` against prioritizing a successful outcome. Fig. 6 depicts query using a closed sandwich. Fig. 7 exemplifies the attestation-“widening” extension of the basic sandwich method, as explained below.

The MSB smart contract provides the $i$ and/or $j$ values to the KYC smart contract, or the KYC smart contract hashes a received `preimgUp` as in (8) until the result equals `attestUp` as in (4) or the number of hashes performed would exceed an available upper bound. If the result equals `attestUp`, the KYC smart contract determines $i$ such that the user’s raw attribute value occurs within raw attribute interval $i$ or greater:

\[
\text{hash}^i(\text{preimgUp}) = \text{hash}^i(\text{hash}^{k-1}(\text{windowUp})) = \text{attestUp}
\]

Note that there is exposure of only $i$ and not $k$. Similarly, the KYC smart contract hashes a received `preimgDn` as in (9) until the result equals `attestDn` as in (5) or the number of hashes performed would exceed an available upper bound. If the result equals `attestDn`, the KYC smart contract yields $j$ where the user’s raw attribute value is located within raw attribute interval $m + 1 - j$ or lesser (leaving $k$ unexposed):

\[
\text{hash}^j(\text{preimgDn}) = \text{attestDn}
\]

`attestation` transactions can incorporate `dataType`-specific $m$ values to set an upper bound. The MSB smart contract or the KYC smart contract should check that the user-generated received values are of hash-word length or so truncate them to prevent a cheating user from successfully using their knowledge of a hash preimage of `windowUp` to “prove” their raw attribute value is located within raw attribute interval $k + 1$. 

Fig. 5. Sandwich value selection.
Such a check also ensures that the user’s knowledge of a hash preimage of \( \text{windowDn} \) is insufficient to “prove” their raw attribute value is located within raw attribute interval \( k - 1 \). The system assures that an MSB smart contract that invokes the KYC smart contract is authorized to do so if the KYC smart contract includes code that processes an originator signature. The user, as originator of a transaction that results in an MSB smart contract invoking the KYC smart contract, includes within that signed transaction the identifier of the MSB smart contract and the intended epoch. The KYC smart contract verifies the signature using the wallet public key that matches the walletAddress of the \( \text{attestationPointer} \), and checks that msg.sender matches the address of the invoking MSB smart contract. It also checks that the signed “epoch” value is consistent with the current blockchain epoch.

We now extend the capabilities of the \textit{sandwich} method to give the user increased flexibility in their choice of user-selectable \textit{windowing} via \textit{query}. \textit{Windowing} can manage arbitrary \textit{dataType}s with or without implied order of raw attribute values across labeled intervals. However, users cannot prove their raw attribute values lie within intervals more finely granulated than those set up through \textit{KYC processor}-administered assignment of interval labels on an MSB-agnostic basis.

There are two ways to divide raw attribute intervals. Suppose we want to divide the intervals into four equal pieces each. The first way establishes the \textit{attestUp} and/or \textit{attestDn} using a \( k \) value between 1 and 4\( m \). As an example, the first interval originally labeled \( k = 1 \) is attestable using (4) by hashing between one and four times depending on the specific sub-interval the raw attribute value lies in. This is an \textit{attestation-“deepening”} solution, as the size of \textit{attestUp} remains unchanged at the expense of additional consecutive hashing. Under an \textit{attestation-“widening”} solution, \( m \) stays constant throughout potentially iterative subdividing of intervals. This maintains the original amount of hashing, at least during a \textit{query}. This second way to divide raw attribute intervals establishes the \textit{attestation}, i.e., \textit{attestUp} and \textit{attestDn}, by distinguishing four types of raw attribute sub-intervals. If we do not wish to reveal via the \textit{attestation} which sub-interval type the user’s raw attribute value lies in, then we must widen the \textit{attestation} to cover all four types. The inclusion of dummy values as \textit{attestUp} and \textit{attestDn} placeholders corresponding to those quarter-interval types (among 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th) that do not include the user’s raw attribute value would serve the purpose of hiding within the \textit{attestation} identification of the populated quarter-interval type without sacrificing provable conveyance during \textit{query} of the non-dummy quarter-interval type. Under this dummy value paradigm, the user necessarily discloses their populated raw attribute sub-interval type during a successful \textit{query}, and there is a limitation in the user releasing bounded windows using only the non-dummy raw attribute quarter-interval type. We explore next an \textit{attestation-widening} solution that distinguishes raw attribute sub-interval types without causing this unnecessary information leakage.

The goal is to ascertain a security profile that is identical to that of the deepening solution. We exemplify the refined \textit{attestation-widening} method by using raw attribute quarter-intervals, with \textit{fill} as defined for (6) and (7):

\[
\text{windowUp}_0 = \text{hash}(000|\text{fill}); \quad \text{windowUp}_1 = \text{hash}(001|\text{fill}); \\
\text{windowUp}_2 = \text{hash}(010|\text{fill}); \quad \text{windowUp}_3 = \text{hash}(011|\text{fill}); \\
\text{windowDn}_0 = \text{hash}(100|\text{fill}); \quad \text{windowDn}_1 = \text{hash}(101|\text{fill}); \\
\text{windowDn}_2 = \text{hash}(110|\text{fill}); \quad \text{windowDn}_3 = \text{hash}(111|\text{fill})
\]

Suppose a user’s raw attribute value occurs in the 2nd of four raw attribute quarter-intervals of the \textit{k}th raw attribute interval:

\[
\text{attestUp}_{\text{int}} = \text{hash}^{k-1}(\text{windowUp}_{\text{int}}), \text{int} = 2, 3;
\]
\[
\text{attestUp}_{\text{int}} = \text{hash}^k(\text{windowUp}_{\text{int}}), \text{int} = 0, 1;
\]
\[
\text{attestDn}_{\text{int}} = \text{hash}^{m+1-k}(\text{windowDn}_{\text{int}}), \text{int} = 1, 2, 3;
\]
\[
\text{attestDn}_{\text{int}} = \text{hash}^{m+1-(k+1)}(\text{windowDn}_{\text{int}}), \text{int} = 0
\]

The user performs a \textit{query} by using one of the above \textit{attestUp}_{\text{int}} and/or one of the above \textit{attestDn}_{\text{int}}. Using credit score as an example \textit{dataType}, suppose that a user’s actual credit score is 735, thus within the second (i.e., 725-749) raw attribute quarter-interval of the previously configured 700-799 raw attribute interval. For credit scores beginning at 300 and raw attribute intervals of length 100, we would have \( k = 5 \). Further suppose a particular MSB requires a credit score that exceeds 570 to qualify for a loan: The user reveals their credit score is at least as high.
as in the 575-599 raw attribute quarter-interval by utilizing 
attributeUp that (blindly) corresponds to the 675-699 raw 
attribute quarter-interval. The user sets \( i = 3 \), so that 
\( \text{preimgUp}_3 = \text{hash}^{k-1-i}(\text{windowUp}_{k}) = \text{hash}(\text{windowUp}_{i}) \), which the user computes as \( \text{hash}^2(011 || \text{fill}) \). There would be 
greater information leakage in the presence of dummy values 
for \( \text{attributeUp}_0 \), \( \text{attributeUp}_2 \) and \( \text{attributeUp}_3 \), since, to qualify for 
a successful outcome, the user would have to reveal their 
credit score is at least as high as 625 by setting \( i = 4 \) 
and utilizing \( \text{attributeUp}_4 \) blindly corresponding to the 725-749 
raw attribute quarter-interval. If the user chooses to provably 
reveal their credit score is in the 725-749 raw attribute quarter-
interval, they will use both \( \text{attributeUp}_1 \) and \( \text{attributeDn} \), setting 
\( i = 5 = k \) and \( m + 1 - j = 5 = k \) (i.e., \( j = 2 \) where 
\( m = 6 \) to accommodate credit score from 300 through 
850). This would expose both \( \text{windowUp}_1 \) and \( \text{windowDn}_1 \), but not \( \text{hash}(\text{nonceSig}) \). We further note that \text{windowing} is 
configurable to enable the user to provably narrow within the 
actual raw attribute interval in which their raw attribute 
value occurs without the \text{attestation} process enduring the 
communications or computational cost of quantizing to that 
level throughout: exploiting a fractal viewpoint for the specific 
raw attribute interval that contains the user’s raw attribute 
value, we specify generation of an \text{attestation} that is comprised 
of specialized values \( \text{attributeUpFinal} \) and \( \text{attributeDnFinal} \). In this 
case, we replace \( m \) in (5) and (9) by \text{intervalLength} that 
conveys the number of discrete subdivisions of the \( k \)th raw 
attribute interval (or of the raw attribute sub-interval within 
the \( k \)th raw attribute interval). The granularity of subdivision 
can be down to the level of all possible raw attribute values 
within the \( k \)th raw attribute interval (or the appropriate raw 
attribute sub-interval) for discretely populated \text{dataType}s. In our 
equation, we would have (for \text{intervalLength} = 25): 
\( \text{attributeUpFinal} = \text{hash}^{11}(\text{windowUpFinal}) \) (since \( 735 = 725 + 
10 \)) and \( \text{attributeDnFinal} = \text{hash}^{k+1-i}(\text{windowDnFinal}) \) for, 
say differentiated \( \text{windowUpFinal} = \text{hash}(0111 || \text{fill}) \) and 
\( \text{windowDnFinal} = \text{hash}(1111 || \text{fill}) \). Then the user can provably 
farther narrow within the raw attribute quarter-interval 725-
749, potentially down to 735. \text{intervalLength} is not neces-
sarily the same for all raw attribute intervals/sub-intervals of 
a given \text{dataType}. Logically, each MSB smart contract is 
coded to ignore output of KYC smart contract execution of 
inputs purported to be specialized \text{preimg} (i.e., \text{preimgUpFinal} and/or \text{preimgDnFinal}) unless the necessary conditions are met. 
Namely: the \text{query} successfully results in narrowing to a single 
raw attribute interval (or single raw attribute sub-interval), i.e., 
\( i = m + 1 - j \); the raw attribute sub-interval type, if any, of the 
matched \text{attributeUp} is the same as that of the matched \text{attributeDn}.

VII. Related Work

There are alternatives to our contributions that are less 
private or more generic in their approach to the blockchain-
compatible release of user information relevant to successful-
ful access to a resource. Unlike our methods, there is no 
customized splitting of functionality and of access to secrets 
across components per the least privilege principle.

A. NFT-Based Import of KYC/AML Status

import [12] with the limitation that direct on-chain \text{attestations} 
of user attributes are immediately visible without a user-
initiated \text{query}. Without a \text{coordinator}, each issuer’s public 
key is whitelisted within the KYC smart contract that the 
issuer calls to register/update user KYC/AML status as as-
sociated with a user-specific \text{KYCid}. Across issuers, there is 
uniform generation of \text{KYCid} values without outsourcing to 
\text{tokenization processors}. Irrespective of the reliance on (non-
transferable) NFTs as representative of users’ status, only 
authorized issuers can generate function parameters. Relative 
to the pseudonymous but visible form of \text{query}, when a user 
interacts with an MSB smart contract such transaction results 
in a user status check via the wallet address associated with the 
signed transaction. An off-chain issuer-invariant database 
is lacking in this \text{coordinator}-less model. As an alternative to 
our outsourced tokenization and \text{attestation} processing, the key 
management here could potentially use Shamir secret sharing 
and on-premise or cloud-based enclaves hosted by the issuers.

B. Zero Knowledge Meets Smart Contract

Semaphore [13], [14] is “a zero-knowledge signaling frame-
work highly inspired by Zcash, providing a method for users 
who are part of a group to broadcast an arbitrary string 
without exposing their identity.” It is a generic privacy-
reserving base layer on top of which Ethereum applications 
are buildable. It uses zk Succinct Non-Interactive Arguments 
of Knowledge (zk-SNARKs) to prove that the user registered 
via the Semaphore smart contract an identity commitment 
within a Merkle tree as a hash of their public key and 
randomly generated secrets. It also assures that the signal was 
only broadcasted once, and by the user who generated the 
proof. Our reputation visibility and pseudonym consistency 
requirements are inconsistent with Semaphore’s “anonymous 
authentication, where members of a group can login to a 
service without revealing which member of the group they 
are and in the process hide their transaction history.”

As [15] points out, “Intuitively, one can imagine a naive 
implementation of Zcash that copies Bitcoin’s unspent trans-
action output (UTXO) model, but where each UTXO’s data is 
kept off-chain. In its place, a hash is kept on-chain, and a 
zero-knowledge proof is used to prove that some address 
has the right to consume the UTXO.” Cryptocurrency-only 
transactions benefit from zk-based anonymity, such as that 
offered by Zcash. However, for the De-Fi applications on 
which we focus, we want the user to establish a pseudonymous 
(\text{KYCid}-linked) on-chain reputation not subject to disavowal 
except under stipulated authorized circumstances. This should 
hold true even if a user changes their wallet and/or issuer (such 
as a \text{KYC processor}) which they use to onboard or re-onboard.

C. On-Chain Attest via Decentralized Identity Management

[16] is predicated on a premise that centralized ID fed-
eration and management along with services that utilize tra-
ditional verification systems for identity authorization do not
provide sufficient trust for applications dependent on KYC. Although the trust assumptions differ from ours, elements in common include deployment on a permissionless blockchain, and the avoidance of storage of user ID information on the blockchain and thus the inherent complexities of regulatory compliance such storage would imply. [16] is incompatible with Ethereum. Its Delegated Proof of Stake (DPOS) consensus mechanism distributes time slots randomly to active participants to assure against monopolization of block creation. Their blockchain executes two types of non-utility transactions for consensus management (i.e., seed-part and evidence) and three types of utility transactions that result in gain or loss of tokens (i.e., payments, identity verification requests and attestations). Unlike our use of a KYC smart contract, the self-sovereign approach of [17] (which is designed to operate as a parachain of the Polkadot blockchain) conducts claim verification against an attestation off-chain: for each user attribute within a claim, a Merkle proof incorporates either its value and its nonce or the resultant hash of that pairing.

VIII. Conclusions and Future Work

Our contribution to DeFi provides lenders with the capability to make automated decisions on prospective borrower requests that account for users’ choice regarding the degree to which they are willing to disclose provably-sourced relevant data. Users can compare publicly advertised terms across lenders, while lenders benefit from visibility into transactions that users initiate with other lenders and into such lenders’ responses. We achieve these goals using three methods that we customize for maximal efficiency and privacy preservation specific to their operational setting. During query, the user signs using a wallet that earlier submission of the attestation now identified by the query had specified. Our sandwich method enables the desired pseudonymous control by the user over selective release of aspects of their attribute value without encumbrance of a zero-knowledge-based setup procedure. Certain aspects of these techniques have been patented [18].

In contrast to stateless reproducibility of deterministic signatures generated by a single user wallet, one area of future work would extend our model to accommodate: multiple wallets corresponding to a single user pseudonym in a k-out-of-n quorum environment; a business for which different members or groups have (potentially hierarchical) signing authority to ensure resilient and secure operation. This should be achievable through a judiciously chosen combination of multisignature, threshold signature and ring signature techniques. However, the requirement for stateless generation by wallets of a per-message uncorrelated random/pseudorandom component within elliptic curve-/discrete log- based signatures presents security and performance challenges [19].

Ideally, there should be a low probability of false negatives in extracting data from user-presented forms of identification corresponding to the same user as utilized to populate fields used as precursors for identity tokenization. Conversely, identity tokenization should be set up to gather sufficient information to avoid false positives across different users. A construct such as pairwise-pseudonymous decentralized identifiers (DIDs) [20] can run counter to the goals of a reputation-based system, as it would allow an individual to have multiple context-dependent identities. Techniques such as locality-sensitive/fuzzy hashing [21] are applicable, with the caveat that there are constraints in practice based on privacy concerns around retention for secondary screening of raw data/images collected by identity verification services. Preferably, irreversible feature-extraction (deep learning) representations of such raw data are potentially usable instead [22].

APPENDIX A: Tokenization Schema

In this section, we present our multi-party token generation methodology that is designed to address the pseudonymous presence of the user on the blockchain, sanitization and subsequent personalization of raw attribute intervals, respectively.

As mentioned in Section VII-A, issuers as KYC processors could directly tokenize such that the requirement of uniform results across them is met. However, outsourcing to independently operated tokenization processors that act sequentially or in parallel renders the process decentralizable and proactively refreshable without compromising the inputs. Sensitive information is mapped to an elliptic curve point that is transiently blinded via scalar multiplication by a random value. The secret scalars held uniquely by each tokenization processor multiply or add together to a constant, although each scalar can be updated as an element of a resplitting operation to thwart successful overall compromise. This remains true unless compromise is so tightly orchestrated across all participating tokenization processors as to succeed. Because of the commutativity of scalar multiplication, sequential or parallel multiplication by secret scalars does not impair the ability to unblind final or intermediate results via multiplication by the inverse of the random value previously applied as blinding factor. Combinations of the parallel additive and sequential multiplicative application of secret scalars comprehensively retain the resplit capability that safely enables business continuity of tokenized values. This is especially relevant in an immutable blockchain deployment. Following up with the application of HMAC keys that can be differentiated based on token type renders the resultant tokens non-invertible even if these (non-resplittable) keys are later compromised. Beyond the use of multiple tokenization processors, each tokenization processor can be partitioned, as can its partitions (reminiscent of the fractal makeup of Merkle trees). In the case of tokenization of the user’s identifying information, the resultant preKYCid can be used as the ultimate KYCid, or the coordinator can maintain in its database an associated randomly generated value to be used as the on-chain KYCid. The latter approach can be used to address the issue of the associating the association of the user to a past-utilized KYCid, where such association can potentially be reestablished via the user’s redeployment of a wallet that was associated with such previously utilized KYCid. Provided that the wallet has not been compromised, signing of a freshly generated nonce proves the user’s association.
Table I shows the elliptic curve computations used within Appendix B and demonstrates flexibility in varied circumstances, such as tokenization as requested of tokenization processors by a KYC processor vs. personalization overlay by an uberProxy of an unterProxy-held attributeValueToken. The commutative Pohlig-Hellman encryption/decryption operations [23] use the same math as elliptic curve Diffie-Hellman ephemeral key agreement for communications security such as provided by the ECDHE-ECDSA TLS cipher. The Pohlig-Hellman cipher has resurfaced due to its applicability to private set intersection [24], e.g., COVID-19 contact tracing [25]. The process outlined in Table I shows the requestor deriving an elliptic curve point $P$ from data, blinding $P$, and communicating the blinded $P$ to Processor $A_1$ and Processor $A_2$ simultaneously to allow them to apply their respective secrets (i.e., $a_1$ held by Processor $A_1$ and $a_2$ held by Processor $A_2$). These two processors may be consolidated into a single processor, Processor $A$, in which case that processor would apply its single secret $a$. Upon receiving both processors’ results, the requestor adds them together and unblinds it (where if there is a single processor, there is no addition as only one result is received). The requestor then communicates with Processor $B$, enabling Processor $B$ to apply its secret $b$. If there is only a Processor $A$, then the result of step 4 is $baP$. Finally, Processor $B$ applies an HMAC key, the value of which is dependent on the token type. This processing can be utilized to generate preKYCids and attributeValueTokens. In the case of preKYCids, the input $P$ can be derived from the user’s identifying information. In the case of attributeValueTokens, the input $P$ can be derived from the raw attribute interval. The input to derive $P$ for attributeValueTokens may also include the dataType. The requestor is the KYC processor, and the secrets $a_1$, $a_2$ and $b$ are the static secrets securely held by Processors $A_1$, $A_2$ and $B$, respectively (i.e., the tokenization processors). The KYC processor should have no knowledge of the finalized preKYCid or the attributeValueToken. Hence, all five steps should be used, necessitating use of Processor $B$.

APPENDIX B: DETAILS OF METHOD 2

The goal of method 2, as introduced in Section III-B, is to utilize a 3rd-party proxy to minimize the amount of information about the raw attribute value that is publicly disclosed via query. While method 3 grants a greater degree of flexibility in the granularity of user control than does method 2 there may be circumstances in which users do not wish to pursue participation in windowing. It may be essential to allow the capability of method 2 for dynamic and/or private enforcement of MSB-specific requirements levied on users for a successful outcome where the MSB smart contract code does not reflect such details. The use of a proxy does introduce complexity that may not be considered a universally worthwhile tradeoff.

Bulk Attribute Value Tokens Generation and Proxies Setup

The dataType-specific attributeValueTokens (prior to personalization) may be precomputed in bulk by the KYC processor in conjunction with the tokenization processors, stored at the coordinator, and distributed on-demand to authorized proxies during a setup procedure described herein. Efficient operation requires precomputation of sets of [dataType, raw attribute interval, attributeValueToken] tuples for proxies to receive upon setup, for those DataTypes they are authorized to address. An example of such a set is a collection of contiguous non-overlapping credit score intervals that span the set of credit score values. unterProxies that gain such access constitute part of the core infrastructure in that, unlike uberProxies that are denied such access, they are not MSB-specific. In addition to blinding all raw attribute intervals for a given dataType to request tokenization processing of these raw attribute intervals, the KYC processor applies a permutation that is randomly or pseudorandomly generated for each dataType to deny the coordinator the capability to map raw attribute intervals to tokens. These attributeValueTokens are independent of any data/metadata ancillary to the raw attribute intervals (other than dataType, if appended to the raw attribute interval when submitted for tokenization to avoid potential collisions of attributeValueTokens across multiple DataTypes). In particular, the attributeValueTokens are not yet personalized. An authorized proxy receives [dataType, raw attribute interval, attributeValueToken] tuples required to convert raw attribute values/intervals received from users to attributeValues in the form of personalizedAttributeValueTokens. The KYC processor sends to a proxy the dataType-specific permutation for each dataType that the proxy is authorized to process. The coordinator sends to the proxy the set(s) of locally stored attributeValueTokens of the indicated DataTypes. The proxy restores these permuted attributeValueTokens to their proper order of associated raw attribute intervals.

Roles and Access: uberProxy vs. unterProxy

Deployment of proxies (whether of distinguished uberProxy vs. unterProxy nature or as one monolithic proxy) enables a user-specific tokenized form of a raw attribute interval as a personalizedAttributeValueToken, as was introduced in Section III-B. This validates that one or more user-associated raw attribute values satisfy MSB-specific requirements (e.g., pertaining to credit scores or zip codes) without exposing the granular data to the publicly accessible immutable blockchain. It is preferable that the KYC processors, tokenization processors, coordinator, MSB smart contracts and KYC smart contract each be able to operate under the following constraints: no awareness of MSB-specific application-level policies, which can change dynamically; no sacrifice of the capability to validate (or reject) attestations through query usefully; no need to update the code of the KYC smart contract (or even that of the MSB smart contract); no need to modify the construction of raw attribute intervals. It is the responsibility of the proxy (or, more specifically, the uberProxy) to be aware of and enforce aspects of MSB-specific policy. While some such aspects may become publicly discernible based on outcomes, others may remain proprietary to the relationship between MSBs and their delegated uberProxies. Dependent on implementation and regulatory constraints, users may be able
to opt-in or out of such a granular data-suppression system without affecting their ability to meet MSB-specific KYC requirements for service fulfillment at the application level.

Users communicate directly with an *uberProxy* designated by the MSB of interest, such as via whitelisting of the *uberProxy* public key within the corresponding MSB smart contract. The *unterProxies* have the *attributeValueTokens* used to compute the *personalizedAttributeValueTokens*, but are at least transiently blinded by the *uberProxy* from access to user-specific information that could otherwise aid in targeting specific users as victims of false-negative matching results during KYC smart contract execution of queries. Typically, each *unterProxy* possesses the set of *attributeValueTokens* for a given *dataType*, although *dataTypes* may be divisible into granular *dataTypes* with access by *unterProxies* potentially refined accordingly. For example, a *dataType* comprised of zip code information is divisible into subordinate *dataTypes* corresponding to geographical regions. There may be multiple *unterProxies* in charge of the same *dataType* for reasons of load-balancing. In this case, an MSB might be able to provide a preference for which *unterProxies* it would like a designated *uberProxy* to utilize in processing. An *uberProxy* can be split and remain compatible with Ethereum by utilizing ECDSA threshold signatures that are verifiable using an associated public key that is invariant of the split-control specifics [26].

### Proxy-Based Personalization of Attribute Value Tokens

We detail here how a *proxy* system involving an *uberProxy* and *unterProxies* derives a *personalizedAttributeValueToken* to be leveraged by the user. Expounding upon Fig. 3, this process is depicted in Fig. 8 below. To begin utilizing a *proxy*, a user communicates privately, via a client, with an *uberProxy* to perform a *query* against *attestations*. The user accesses their wallet to generate *walletSig* (via application of the wallet private key), which in combination with *walletAddress* produces *attestationPointer* as in (1). The *attestationPointer* and the *dataTypes* in the selected List(*dataType*) serve as a pointer to the *attestations* on the blockchain, which the MSB smart contract is instructed to query against. Using *attestationPointer*, the user retrieves List(*nonce*) and List(*updateIndex*), and signs each *nonce* to form List(*nonceSigKD*) as in (2). The user provides the *uberProxy* with their wallet public key, List(*dataType*), List(*nonceSigKD*), *walletSig*, MSB smart contract ID and raw attribute value or raw attribute interval for those attributes that (based on *dataType*) are expressed in tokenized form. The *uberProxy* begins processing by recomputing *attestationPointer*. The *uberProxy* uses the result to retrieve from the KYC smart contract the *KYCid*, List(*nonce*), List(*updateIndex*) and the latest *userTxnNonce* for each *dataType* in List(*dataType*). The *userTxnNonce* is a native blockchain nonce used within the blockchain infrastructure and incremented with each successive native blockchain signature generated by the user wallet. The *uberProxy* incorporates the derived value, *userTxnNonce + 1*, as an argument of its signature to enable the MSB smart contract to check the freshness of the *proxy* signature as measured against the natively signed transaction received from the user. The *uberProxy* checks the MSB policy for the acceptable threshold(s) for the *dataTypes* sent and any instructions concerning routing to specific *unterProxies*. The *uberProxy* determines which raw attribute interval to convert to an *attributeValueToken* to be used in creating the *personalizedAttributeValueToken*. For clarity in explanation, the description here shows only the decision process for the credit score *dataType*. However, the process will be similar for other *dataTypes* amenable to partial or total ordering. In the description here, *x* represents the MSB-specific policy threshold for acceptable credit scores, where the MSB sets the credit score threshold as the highest value within a raw attribute interval. Upon the input by the user of the credit score (or a raw attribute interval of scores), the *uberProxy* determines if the credit score is greater than or equal to an MSB policy threshold, and then applies the threshold to the raw value to generate the tokenized value.

### Table I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requestor</th>
<th>Processor A1</th>
<th>Processor A2</th>
<th>Processor B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Derives $P$, blinds $P$ with $e \Rightarrow e^P$</td>
<td>(2a) Applies $a_1$ to $eP \Rightarrow a_1 eP$</td>
<td>(2b) Applies $a_2$ to $eP \Rightarrow a_2 eP$</td>
<td>(4) Applies $b \Rightarrow b(a_1 + a_2)^P$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Computes $a_1 eP + a_2 eP$; applies $e^{-1} \Rightarrow (a_1 + a_2)^P$</td>
<td>(5) Applies appropriate HMAC key</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Fig. 8. Personalization of attributeValueTokens.](image-url)
than the necessary threshold \( x \) as determined by the MSB-specific policy. If the credit score does not exceed \( x \), then the first raw attribute interval that would exceed \( x \) is used, i.e., \([x+1, x+n_\text{int}]\) where \( n_\text{int} \) is the size of the raw attribute interval in question. If the credit score is higher than \( x \), then the raw attribute interval of the submitted credit score is used. This description focuses on why the choice of \( \text{attributeValueToken} \) results in a match or not during \( \text{query} \) execution by the KYC smart contract and therefore why the credit score would or would not be approved by the MSB smart contract. Approval of the credit score may be for one of two reasons: the user-provided credit score or raw attribute interval matched the attested raw attribute interval and exceeded the threshold of \( x \); or the attested raw attribute interval exceeded the threshold of \( x \), and this raw attribute interval matched the raw attribute interval selected by the \( \text{uberProxy} \) as higher than that provided by the user. If the credit score was not approved, then it may be for one of three reasons: the incoming raw attribute interval did not match the attested raw attribute interval, although they both exceeded the threshold of \( x \); or the attested raw attribute interval was too low for the MSB policy and therefore did not match the higher raw attribute interval submitted by the \( \text{uberProxy} \); or the attested score was higher than \( x + n_\text{int} \), although the incoming raw attribute interval was lower than \( x \) and the raw attribute interval of \([x+1, x+n_\text{int}]\) was submitted by the \( \text{uberProxy} \). To reduce the possibility of false negatives, a \( \text{proxy} \) could send multiple \( \text{personalizedAttributeValueTokens} \) for a single queried \( \text{attestation} \), where dummy values are added by the \( \text{proxy} \) to provide uniformity as a leakage resistance measure. Note that non-uniformity in the number of \( \text{personalizedAttributeValueTokens} \) corresponding to a single \( \text{attestation} \) that are sent during \( \text{query} \) by a user targeting an MSB smart contract could be a potential source of leakage of information, dependent on the rationale (such as a disparity in credit scores across credit reporting agencies and/or a credit score that is at or near the edge of a raw attribute interval). In lieu of or in addition to a \( \text{query} \) resulting in a \( \text{proxy} \) sending multiple \( \text{personalizedAttributeValueTokens} \) per \( \text{attestation} \), the \( \text{coordinator} \) could send multiple \( \text{attestations} \) to the KYC smart contract. These choices may have bearing on the lengths and number of raw attribute intervals set by the system for each \( \text{dataType} \) supported by the \( \text{proxy} \) method.

Prior to transmission to the \( \text{uberProxy} \) the \( \text{uberProxy} \) blindly converts \( \text{personalizationInfo} \) to an elliptic curve point \( P \) and applies a random scalar, \( e \), to form

\[
\text{blindedPersonalizationInfo} = eP \tag{11}
\]

The \( \text{uberProxy} \) transmits to an \( \text{uberProxy} \) equipped for the relevant \( \text{dataType} \): (a) \( \text{blindedPersonalizationInfo} \); (b) designation of the submitted raw attribute interval(s); (c) \( \text{uberSig} \), as the \( \text{uberProxy} \)’s signature computed over (a) and (b). Upon receiving such a request, the chosen \( \text{uberProxy} \) of the several \( \text{uberProxies} \) utilizes its previously provisioned accessible database of [raw attribute interval, \( \text{attributeValueToken} \) tuples for retrieval of the appropriate \( \text{attributeValueTokens} \) as based on the raw attribute interval(s) designated within the request. The \( \text{uberProxy} \) determines which stored \( \text{attributeValueTokens} \) to use, applies a scalar representation, \( p \), of each such \( \text{attributeValueToken} \) to a provided \( e \) to form a

\[
\text{blindedPersonalizedAttributeValueToken} = peP \tag{12}
\]

and transmits to the \( \text{uberProxy} \): \( \text{blindedPersonalizedAttributeValueTokens} \); \( \text{unterSig} = \text{signed blindedPersonalizedAttributeValueTokens} \). Upon receiving the response from the \( \text{unterProxy} \), after verifying \( \text{unterSig} \), the \( \text{uberProxy} \) unblinds the \( \text{blindedPersonalizedAttributeValueToken} \) by applying the inverse of the previously applied blinding factor, \( e \), to form the

\[
\text{personalizedAttributeValueToken} = \text{hash}(peP) \tag{13}
\]

The \( \text{uberProxy} \) signs MSB smart contract ID, \( \text{hash(walletSig)} \), \( \text{user TxnNonce + 1} \), \( \text{List(dataType)} \), \( \text{List(nonceSigKD)} \), and tokens = \( \text{List(personalizedAttributeValueToken)} \) to produce \( \text{proxySig} \), as transmitted with tokens to the user.

**Partitioning of unterProxy**

Computation is parallelized in the case of a partitioned \( \text{unterProxy} \). The \( \text{uberProxy} \), and \( \text{unterProxy}_1 \) and \( \text{unterProxy}_2 \) comprise the \( \text{proxy} \). Using HMAC key \( K \) chosen for this purpose, provision \( \text{unterProxy}_1 \) for a given \( \text{dataType} \) with

\[
p_1 = \text{HMAC}(K, y) \ || \ \text{HMAC}(K, y + 1) \mod n \tag{14}
\]

and provision \( \text{unterProxy}_2 \) for the same \( \text{dataType} \) with

\[
p_2 = \text{HMAC}(K, y + 2) \ || \ \text{HMAC}(K, y + 3) \mod n \tag{15}
\]

where \( y \) is the result of step (4) in Table I during the tokenization of raw attribute values, and \( n \) is the order of the elliptic curve.

The \( \text{coordinator} \) forms \( p_1 \) and \( p_2 \) where \( (p_1 + p_2) \mod n \) is the \( \text{attributeValueToken} \) it subsequently personalizes. \( \text{unterProxy}_1 \) applies \( p_1 \) to the \( \text{blindedPersonalizationInfo} \) computed by the \( \text{uberProxy} \), as in (11), and sent to \( \text{unterProxy}_1 \). Similarly, \( \text{unterProxy}_2 \) applies \( p_2 \) to the \( \text{blindedPersonalizationInfo} \) computed and sent to it by the \( \text{uberProxy} \). \( \text{unterProxy}_1 \) and \( \text{unterProxy}_2 \) return respectively:

\[
\text{blindedPersonalizedAttributeValueToken}_1 = p_1eP \tag{16}
\]

\[
\text{blindedPersonalizedAttributeValueToken}_2 = p_2eP \tag{17}
\]

The \( \text{uberProxy} \) then sums, unblinds and hashes to produce

\[
\text{personalizedAttributeValueToken}_{1,2} = \text{hash}((p_1 + p_2)P) \tag{18}
\]

Finally, we outline the \( \text{proxy} \) method considerations that arise when relating the material included earlier in Appendix B to Sections III, IV and V and Appendix A. Beyond the user’s wallet public key, \( \text{hash(walletSig)} \), \( \text{List(dataType)} \) and \( \text{List(nonceSigKD)} \), also included in the user’s transaction is \( proxySig \) and \( \text{List(attributeValue)} = \text{List(personalizedAttributeValueToken)} \), where the \( \text{proxy} \) computed each personalizedAttributeValueToken. The token computation processing as presented in Table I is utilized during
the personalizedAttributeValueToken generation as completed in (13) and (18). Only the first three steps should be used here, as the uberProxy (as requestor) is the one that should be in possession of the final value. In the scenario described in Appendix A, Processor $A_1$ and $A_2$ are either combined as a single unterProxy that holds a secret $p$ as used in (12), or the split is retained as unterProxy1 and unterProxy2. unterProxy1 holds the secret $p_1$ as in (14), and unterProxy2 holds the secret $p_2$ as in (15). The input to derive $P$ is the personalizationInfo as in (10). If the unterProxy is split, the uberProxy completes step (3) as in Table I, followed by a hash to form (18). If the unterProxy acts as a single processor, then the uberProxy does the computation resulting in (13) without the addition portion of step (3), as there is only one received value. The exhaustion process discussed in Section V does not apply to attributeValues that are in the form of personalizedAttributeValueTokens. If the KYC smart contract has attributeValueTokens available to construct personalizedAttributeValueTokens, it defeats the purpose of otherwise carefully limiting access. Knowledge of attributeValueTokens (even without their raw attribute intervals) would enable correlation of attributeValues across users if the information required to complete the computation of attributeValues were publicly available via the blockchain.

Achieving greater user privacy entails replacing the nonce argument of (10) by a value that is not derivable from data that surfaces on the blockchain, e.g., $\text{nonceSig}^* = hash(hash(\text{nonceSig}) || \text{updateIndex})$, as provided by the user’s client to an uberProxy trusted to represent the MSB. This defies after-the-fact reconstruction of (13) or (18) by an errant unterProxy or partitioned unterProxy under collusion attack. It prevents correlation against previously exposed personalizedAttributeValueTokens without impeding attestation generation, as the coordinator can compute nonceSig*.

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