

# On the Efficient Implementation of Fair Non-repudiation

Cheng-Hwee You, Jianying Zhou\* and Kwok-Yan Lam  
School of Computing  
National University of Singapore  
10 Kent Ridge Crescent  
Singapore 119260  
email: {youch, zhoujy, lamky}@comp.nus.edu.sg

## Abstract

Due to the explosive growth of electronic businesses carried on the Internet, non-repudiation services turn out to be increasingly important. Non-repudiation services protect the transacting parties against any false denial that a particular event or action has taken place, in which evidence will be generated, collected and maintained to enable the settlement of disputes. Several fair non-repudiation protocols have been proposed, which support non-repudiation of origin and non-repudiation of receipt while neither the originator nor the recipient can gain an advantage by quitting prematurely or otherwise misbehaving during a transaction. However, a critical issue on how to maintain the validity of non-repudiation evidence efficiently during and after a transaction was not considered. This paper uses the idea of evidence chaining to address such a problem.

**Keywords:** fair non-repudiation, validity of evidence, evidence chaining, dispute resolution

## 1 Introduction

Due to the explosive growth of electronic businesses on the Internet, non-repudiation services turn out to be increasingly important. Non-repudiation services protect the transacting parties against any false denial that a particular event or action has taken place, in which evidence will be generated, collected and maintained to enable the settlement of disputes [20].

Typical disputes that may arise in a simple transaction such as transferring a message  $M$  (e.g. electronic cash or electronic contracts) from Alice to Bob could be

- Alice claims that she has sent  $M$  to Bob while Bob denies having received it;
- Bob claims that he received  $M$  from Alice while Alice denies sending it.

The basic non-repudiation services that address the above disputes are

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\*Jianying Zhou's new address: Kent Ridge Digital Labs, 21 Heng Mui Keng Terrace, Singapore 119613. email: jyzhou@krdl.org.sg

- *Non-repudiation of Origin (NRO)* provides the recipient of a message with evidence of origin of the message which will protect against any attempt by the originator to falsely deny having sent the message.
- *Non-repudiation of Receipt (NRR)* provides the originator of a message with evidence of receipt of the message which will protect against any attempt by the recipient to falsely deny having received the message.

One of the critical issues on non-repudiation protocol design is the efficient approach for maintaining the validity of non-repudiation evidence during and after a transaction. Several fair non-repudiation protocols (e.g. [2, 4, 7, 19]) have been proposed, which support non-repudiation of origin and non-repudiation of receipt while neither the originator nor the recipient can gain an advantage by quitting prematurely or otherwise misbehaving during a transaction. However, the above issue has not been considered, which will affect the efficiency of non-repudiation protocols. Non-repudiation evidence is usually generated by means of digital signature [9, 14, 20]. As signature keys may be compromised and the validity of signatures may become questionable, additional security mechanisms need to be imposed on digital signatures [22].

A conventional approach for maintaining the validity of digital signatures requires that either the evidence sender or the evidence receiver interacts with an on-line trusted time-stamping authority to get each newly generated digital signature time-stamped [1, 5, 17] so that there is extra evidence to prove whether the signature was generated before the corresponding public key certificate was revoked and thus is deemed valid. However, such an approach is not cost-effective in ordinary on-line transactions.

This paper proposes the idea of evidence chaining to maintain the validity of non-repudiation evidence efficiently during and after a transaction. We use the fair non-repudiation protocol presented in [19] as an example to show how the problem will be tackled.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. In the next section, we briefly describe the fair non-repudiation protocol presented in [19]. In Section 3, we discuss the existing approaches to maintaining the validity of non-repudiation evidence. In Section 4, we propose an efficient scheme for implementation, analyse the validity of chained evidence and demonstrate the settlement of disputes. Section 5 concludes the paper.

In this paper, we use the following basic notation to represent messages and protocols.

- $X, Y$ : concatenation of two messages  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- $H(X)$ : a one-way hash function of message  $X$ .
- $eK(X)$  and  $dK(X)$ : encryption and decryption of message  $X$  with key  $K$ .
- $V_A$  and  $S_A$ : the public and private key of principal  $A$ .
- $sK(X)$ : digital signature of message  $X$  with the private key  $K$ . The algorithm is assumed to be a ‘signature with appendix’, and the message is not recoverable from the signature.
- $A \rightarrow B : X$ : principal  $A$  dispatches message  $X$  addressed to principal  $B$ .

- $A \leftrightarrow B : X$ : principal  $A$  fetches message  $X$  from principal  $B$  using “*ftp get*” operation [13] or by some analogous means (e.g. using a Web browser).

## 2 A Fair Non-repudiation Protocol

A fair non-repudiation protocol was proposed in [19], where the originator  $A$  and the recipient  $B$  communicate directly with light-weighted involvement of a trusted third party  $TTP$ . The main idea of this protocol is to split the definition of a message  $M$  into two parts, a commitment  $C$  and a key  $K$ . The commitment is sent from the originator  $A$  to the recipient  $B$  and then the key is lodged with the  $TTP$ . Both  $A$  and  $B$  have to retrieve the confirmed key from the  $TTP$  as part of the non-repudiation evidence required in the settlement of a dispute. We assume that even in case of network failures, both parties will eventually be able to retrieve the key from the  $TTP$ . The notation in the protocol description is as follows.

- $M$ : message sent from  $A$  to  $B$ .
- $K$ : message key defined by  $A$ .
- $C = eK(M)$ : commitment (ciphertext) for message  $M$ .
- $L = H(M, K)$ : a unique label linking  $C$  and  $K$ .
- $f_{EOO}, f_{EOR}, f_{SUB}, f_{CON}$ : flags indicating the intended purpose of a (signed) message.
- $EOO = sS_A(f_{EOO}, B, L, C)$ : evidence of origin of  $C$ .
- $EOR = sS_B(f_{EOR}, A, L, C)$ : evidence of receipt of  $C$ .
- $sub\_K = sS_A(f_{SUB}, B, L, K)$ : evidence of submission of  $K$ .
- $con\_K = sS_{TTP}(f_{CON}, A, B, L, K)$ : evidence of confirmation of  $K$  issued by  $TTP$ .

The protocol is as follows:

1.  $A \rightarrow B$  :  $f_{EOO}, B, L, C, EOO$
2.  $B \rightarrow A$  :  $f_{EOR}, A, L, EOR$
3.  $A \rightarrow TTP$  :  $f_{SUB}, B, L, K, sub\_K$
4.  $B \leftrightarrow TTP$  :  $f_{CON}, A, B, L, K, con\_K$
5.  $A \leftrightarrow TTP$  :  $f_{CON}, A, B, L, K, con\_K$

In the above protocol,  $B$  can abort the protocol run without disputes before sending out  $EOR$  to  $A$  at Step 2;  $A$  can abort the protocol run without disputes before submitting  $sub\_K$  and  $K$  to the  $TTP$  at Step 3. After receiving  $sub\_K$  and  $K$  from  $A$ , the  $TTP$  will generate  $con\_K$  and store the tuple

$$(f_{CON}, A, B, L, K, con\_K)$$

in a directory which is accessible (read only) to the public. The second component in the tuple, identifying the key supplier, corresponds to the entity associated with the public verification key  $V_A$ . The link between  $A$  and  $B, L, K$  is authenticated by  $A$ 's signature. The key supplier will be regarded as the originator of this protocol run. Intruders cannot

mount a denial-of-service attack by sending bogus keys to the *TTP* as this will not generate entries for *A* in the directory. As we assume that the communication channels are not permanently broken, the confirmed key will always be available to *A* and *B*. Thus, at the end of a protocol run, the originator *A* will hold non-repudiation evidence *EOR* and *con\_K* which can be used to prove that *B* received message *M*; meanwhile, the recipient *B* will obtain message  $M = dK(C)$  and hold non-repudiation evidence *EOO* and *con\_K* which can be used to prove that message *M* originated from *A*.

This protocol has three features which make it attractive in electronic businesses carried on the Internet.

- The protocol does not depend on the reliability of a communication channel or on the communicating parties playing fair. It only needs a weak assumption that the communication channels are not permanently broken.
- At no point of the protocol run does either participant have an advantage. No party can repudiate the message transfer once the message has been transferred; no party can obtain sufficient evidence to prove the origin and receipt of a message if the message is not transferred.
- The trusted third party's involvement is light-weighted. The *TTP* only needs to notarize message keys by request and provide directory services.

### 3 Approaches for Maintaining the Validity of Evidence

The protocol in Section 2 presents an elegant solution to fair non-repudiation. However, one issue related to the efficient implementation was not taken into consideration. In the protocol, non-repudiation evidence is generated by means of digital signature. In practice, a signature key may be compromised and a signature could be forged by using a compromised key. Therefore, the compromised key needs to be revoked [11, 14, 15] so that all signatures generated after the corresponding public key certificate has been revoked will be regarded as invalid. The remaining question is how to prove that a signature was generated before the corresponding public key certificate had been revoked and thus is deemed valid.

A simple approach for maintaining the validity of digital signatures relies on the existence of an *on-line* time-stamping authority as well as the certificate revocation infrastructure. For example, a user *U*'s signature on a message *X* should be sent to a trusted time-stamping authority *TS* to certify that the signature was generated at the time of  $T_g$ .

1.  $U \rightarrow TS: sS_U(X)$
2.  $TS \rightarrow U: T_g, sS_{TS}(sS_U(X), T_g)$

Thus, even if *U*'s corresponding public key certificate is revoked for any reason after  $T_g$ , *U*'s signature on *X* will be regarded as valid (provided that the time-stamping service is reliable [8]).

If this approach is applied to the protocol in Section 2, 4 extra messages have to be exchanged with *TS* to get 2 digital signatures (*EOO* and *EOR*) time-stamped in a protocol run - a heavy burden to both *A* and *B* as well as *TS*.

An efficient approach to securing digital signatures as non-repudiation evidence was proposed in [22], in which two different types of signature keys are defined.

- *Revocable signature keys* – the corresponding verification key certificates are issued by a *certification authority (CA)*, and can be revoked as usual.
- *Irrevocable signature keys* – the corresponding verification key certificates are issued by users themselves and time-stamped by a *time-stamping authority (TS)*. Such certificates cannot be revoked before their expiry.

The revocable signature key is used as a long-term master key to issue irrevocable verification key certificates while the irrevocable signature key is used as a temporary key to sign electronic documents. The digital signatures generated in such a way will remain valid until the corresponding irrevocable verification key certificates expire, thus can be exempted from being time-stamped by a time-stamping authority during on-line transactions.

The second approach can significantly improve the efficiency of *mass* on-line transactions. However, it does not help much for a *single* run of the protocol in Section 2 since both *A* and *B* still have to contact *TS* to get their own temporary irrevocable verification key certificates time-stamped before they can use the corresponding irrevocable signature keys to generate valid signatures.

The purpose of this paper is to provide an efficient approach to maintain the validity of non-repudiation evidence generated by the originator and the recipient without incurring extra messages in the implementation of a fair non-repudiation protocol.

## 4 An Efficient Scheme for Implementation

From the discussion in Section 3 we found that existing approaches for maintaining the validity of evidence in a fair non-repudiation protocol will result in more or less extra messages to be exchanged between evidence sender/receiver and a time-stamping authority. Obviously, this is less efficient for implementation. The idea of evidence chaining can be used to address such a problem [18].

The evidence chaining mechanism works by linking one piece of evidence to another to form a chain of evidence such that by validating the latest piece of chained evidence, the rest pieces of evidence that are linked together in the chain are also validated. The concept of chaining is not new, which can be found in one-time password authentication [10], time-stamping service [8], and micropayment scheme [12] etc. But the idea of postponing the validation of chained evidence until the end of a protocol run in order to minimize the interaction between the originator/recipient and a trusted third party is novel. Here we use the protocol described in Section 2 as an example to demonstrate how the mechanism works.

### 4.1 The Updated Protocol

With reference to the fair non-repudiation protocol in Section 2, the most critical step of the entire protocol is the submission of message key *K* to the *TTP*. This is because as long

as  $K$  is not published in the  $TTP$ 's read-only directory, the protocol is not considered as a successful completion (with fairness property maintained). Since the outcome of the protocol relies completely on the submission of message key  $K$ , we delay the validation of all evidence created before the key submission until the time when the  $TTP$  receives a request for key publication in the read-only directory. The updated protocol is as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
EOO &= sS_A(f_{EOO}, B, L, C) \\
EOR &= sS_B(f_{EOR}, A, L, C, EOO) \\
sub\_K &= sS_A(f_{SUB}, B, L, K, EOR, Cert_B) \\
con\_K &= sS_{TTP}(f_{CON}, A, B, L, K, EOR, T)
\end{aligned}$$

1.  $A \rightarrow B$  :  $f_{EOO}, B, L, C, EOO$
2.  $B \rightarrow A$  :  $f_{EOR}, A, L, EOR$
3.  $A \rightarrow TTP$  :  $f_{SUB}, B, L, eV_{TTP}(K), EOR, Cert_B, sub\_K$
4.  $B \leftrightarrow TTP$  :  $f_{CON}, A, B, L, K, T, con\_K$
5.  $A \leftrightarrow TTP$  :  $f_{CON}, A, B, L, K, T, con\_K$

In the above protocol,  $Cert_B$  is  $B$ 's public key certificate that is used to generate  $EOR$ .  $T$  is the time that the message key is confirmed by the  $TTP$  and ready for collection from the  $TTP$ 's read-only directory. The time stamp  $T$  plays two important roles in the protocol.

- The time of message transfer is notarised when the confirmed message key is ready for collection from the  $TTP$ 's read-only directory at  $T$ ;
- The chained evidence  $EOR$  and  $EOO$  are validated when  $Cert_B$  is checked valid at  $T$ .

As  $B$  can invalidate  $EOR$  by revoking  $Cert_B$  before the  $TTP$  generates  $con\_K$ , the message key  $K$  should be protected against eavesdropping (e.g. encrypted using the  $TTP$ 's public encryption key  $V_{TTP}$ ) when submitted by  $A$ .

The major improvement to the original protocol is that non-repudiation evidence  $EOO$ ,  $EOR$  and  $con\_K$  are linked one by one and validated when the  $TTP$  generates  $con\_K$ . The chained evidence will remain valid as long as the  $TTP$ 's signature is valid. Hence,  $A$  and  $B$  need not contact the time-stamping authority to get  $EOO$  and  $EOR$  time-stamped during and after a protocol run.

## 4.2 Validity of Chained Evidence

If the above protocol run is complete, message  $M$  will be transferred fairly from  $A$  to  $B$  and both parties will hold the evidence regarding the message transfer. The formal analysis of the original protocol has been carried out in [16, 21] with different approaches. Here we examine the generation of chained evidence in the updated protocol which is a new feature added into the original protocol for the efficient implementation. We assume that each party either holds the public key certificates of other parties, or is able to retrieve them from a X.509 directory service [6].

After receiving  $EOO = sS_A(f_{EOO}, B, L, C)$  from  $A$  at Step 1,  $B$  will use  $A$ 's public key certificate  $Cert_A$  to verify  $A$ 's signature  $EOO$ . If successful,  $B$  will generate  $EOR$  which includes  $EOO$ , then send  $EOR$  to  $A$ . Here  $B$  need not check the validity of  $Cert_A$ .

It will be up to  $A$  whether or not to send chained  $EOO$  and  $EOR$  to the  $TTP$  for validation at Step 3. Once  $EOO$  is validated,  $A$  cannot deny it.

After receiving  $EOR = sS_B(f_{EOR}, A, L, C, EOO)$  from  $B$  at Step 2,  $A$  will use  $B$ 's public key certificate  $Cert_B$  to verify  $B$ 's signature  $EOR$ . If successful,  $A$  will generate  $sub\_K$  which includes  $EOR$  and  $Cert_B$ , then send  $sub\_K$  to the  $TTP$ . Here  $A$  need not check the validity of  $Cert_B$ . If  $B$  generates  $EOR$  with invalid  $Cert_B$ , the  $TTP$  will not confirm  $sub\_K$  thus  $B$  cannot obtain  $M$ .

After receiving  $sub\_K = sS_A(f_{SUB}, B, L, K, EOR, Cert_B)$  from  $A$  at Step 3, the  $TTP$  will perform the following checks:

- checking the validity of  $Cert_A$ ;
- using  $Cert_A$  to verify  $A$ 's signature  $sub\_K$ ;
- checking the validity of  $Cert_B$  which is included in  $sub\_K$ .

Only if all of the above checks are successful, will the  $TTP$  generate

$$con\_K = sS_{TTP}(f_{CON}, A, B, L, K, EOR, T)$$

Here the  $TTP$  need not use  $Cert_B$  to check  $EOR$ . Actually, the  $TTP$  is unable to check  $EOR$  since  $A$  does not supply the contents of  $EOR$ .  $A$  is responsible for providing matched  $EOR$  and  $Cert_B$  in  $sub\_K$  so that  $A$  will not leave itself in a disadvantageous position.

**Claim 1.** *Suppose the  $TTP$  is trusted to generate valid evidence  $con\_K$ , and evidence  $con\_K$ ,  $EOR$ ,  $EOO$  are chained in the above way, then  $EOR$  and  $EOO$  are valid as well.*

**Proof:** Suppose  $Cert_A$  and  $Cert_B$  are valid public key certificates of  $A$  and  $B$  respectively at  $T$ . Suppose  $EOR$  is checked invalid by the use of  $Cert_B$ . We examine the following possibilities.

- $A$  generated  $sub\_K$  by including mismatched  $EOR$  and  $Cert_B$ . However, this is not in favour of  $A$  because  $B$  can get  $K$  and thus  $M = dK(C)$  after the  $TTP$  confirms  $A$ 's key submission but  $A$  will not have valid evidence to prove that  $B$  received  $M$ . Hence,  $A$  should always submit matched  $EOR$  and  $Cert_B$  to the  $TTP$  for confirmation.
- $EOR$  was generated after  $Cert_B$  had been revoked. However, the  $TTP$  will check the validity of  $Cert_B$  before generating  $con\_K$ . Hence  $EOR$  which is confirmed in  $con\_K$  should be generated before  $Cert_B$  is revoked.

Thus,  $EOR$  which is chained to  $con\_K$  should be valid if  $con\_K$  is valid.

Similarly, suppose  $EOO$  is checked invalid by the use of  $Cert_A$ . We examine the following possibilities.

- $B$  generated  $EOR$  by including a bogus  $EOO$ . However, this is not in favour of  $B$  because  $B$  will not have valid evidence to prove that  $M$  is from  $A$ . Hence,  $B$  should always include correct  $EOO$  in  $EOR$ .

- $EOO$  was generated with  $A$ 's revoked key certificate  $Cert'_A$ . However, it is up to  $A$  whether or not to send such  $EOO$  (which is chained to  $EOR$ ) to the  $TTP$  for validation at Step 3. If  $A$  requests the  $TTP$  to validate such  $EOO$ ,  $A$  cannot deny the validity of  $EOO$  since only  $A$  has the right to make such a request. Of course, the  $TTP$  will authenticate  $A$ 's request, i.e. check the validity of  $sub\_K$ , before validating  $EOO$ .

Thus,  $EOO$  which is chained to  $EOR$  should be valid if  $con\_K$  and  $EOR$  are valid.  $\square$

### 4.3 Settlement of Disputes

The goal of our protocol is to enable the settlement of disputes over the origin and receipt of a message  $M$ . When disputes arise, a judge will be invoked who evaluates the evidence held by the participants and determines the origin or receipt of the message.

**Claim 2.** *If the originator  $A$  or the recipient  $B$  can provide  $M, C, K, L, T, Cert_A, Cert_B, EOO, EOR, con\_K$  to the judge, and the following checks are successful, then  $B$  cannot deny the receipt of  $M$ , and  $A$  cannot deny the origin of  $M$ .*

1. The judge checks the  $TTP$ 's signature  $con\_K = s_{TTP}(f_{CON}, A, B, L, K, EOR, T)$ , and the validity of  $Cert_B$  at  $T$ ;
2. The judge uses  $Cert_B$  to check  $B$ 's signature  $EOR = s_B(f_{EOR}, A, L, C, EOO)$ ;
3. The judge uses  $Cert_A$  to check  $A$ 's signature  $EOO = s_A(f_{EOO}, B, L, C)$ ;
4. The judge checks  $L = H(M, K)$ ;
5. The judge checks  $M = dK(C)$ .

**Proof:** We examine what the judge will believe after verifying each item listed above. If the first check is positive, the judge believes that

- (1.a)  $A$  submitted message key  $K$  with label  $L$  to the  $TTP$  for publication;
- (1.b)  $K$  is available to  $B$  from the  $TTP$ ;
- (1.c)  $A$  requested for validating chained evidence  $EOR$  and  $EOO$ , and  $Cert_B$  is  $B$ 's valid public key certificate to be used to check  $EOR$ .

If the second check is positive, the judge believes that

- (2.a)  $EOR$  is valid evidence chained to  $con\_K$ ;
- (2.b)  $B$  received  $C$  with label  $L$  from  $A$  and is committed to retrieving the message key from the  $TTP$ .

If the third check is positive, the judge believes that

- (3.a)  $EOO$  is valid evidence chained to  $EOR$ ;
- (3.b)  $A$  sent  $C$  as its commitment for the message with label  $L$  to  $B$ .

If the fourth check is positive, the judge believes that

- (4.a) Label  $L$  is correctly constructed and random;



(4.b) Message key  $K$  in  $con\_K$  and commitment  $C$  in  $EOR$  and  $EOO$  are uniquely linked by  $L$ .

If the final check is positive, the judge believes that

(5.a)  $M$  is the message represented by  $C$  and  $K$  in transmission.

Thus, with beliefs 4.a, 4.b, 5.a, the judge can conclude that the integrity of messages is satisfied. With beliefs 1.c, 2.a, 3.a, the judge can conclude that  $con\_K$ ,  $EOR$  and  $EOO$  are valid evidence. With beliefs 1.a and 3.b, the judge can conclude that  $A$  sent  $M$  to  $B$ . With beliefs 1.b and 2.b, the judge can conclude that  $B$  received  $M$  from  $A$ .  $\square$

A framework for handling disputes in payment systems was proposed in [3]. The above verification rules may be used to construct a reference engine to facilitate automatic dispute resolution under the framework.

## 5 Conclusion

Non-repudiation is one of the essential security services in electronic businesses on the Internet. There are two critical issues in non-repudiation services.

- How to achieve the fairness between two transacting parties?
- How to maintain the validity of non-repudiation evidence?

Several fair non-repudiation protocols have been proposed, and some approaches for maintaining the validity of non-repudiation evidence exist. However, it is still less efficient for implementation by applying existing approaches to a single run of those non-repudiation protocols. This paper proposed a new approach to improve the efficiency of a single run of fair non-repudiation protocols. We used the fair non-repudiation protocol presented in [19] as an example to show how the above problem can be addressed with negligible increase of workload.

A prototype of the updated fair non-repudiation protocol has been implemented. The experiment result shows that a protocol run takes about 5 seconds on a DEC Alpha Server 4100 under normal circumstances. This speed for a fair business transaction providing both non-repudiation of origin and non-repudiation of receipt is feasible. The result also shows that the protocol is able to function under temporary network failure conditions, which is very important in real applications on the Internet.

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