

BlockPKI: An Automated, Resilient, and Transparent Public-Key Infrastructure

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Abstract—This paper describes BlockPKI, a blockchain-based public-key infrastructure that enables an automated, resilient, and transparent issuance of digital certificates. Our goal is to address several shortcomings of the current TLS infrastructure and its proposed extensions. In particular, we aim at reducing the power of individual certification authorities and make their actions publicly visible and accountable, without introducing yet another trusted third party. To demonstrate the benefits and practicality of our system, we present evaluation results and describe our prototype implementation.

I. INTRODUCTION

Now more than ever, the use of secure communication protocols is encouraged and promoted. Browser vendors (e.g., Google with Chrome [34], or Mozilla with Firefox [42]) have started changing the appearance of security indicators in the address bar: regular HTTP connections, which used to look neutral [14], are now described as “not secure”, whereas HTTPS connections are clearly labeled as “secure”. As more and more administrators and developers are becoming aware of the risks associated with using unsecure protocols, and as vulnerable means of communication are being deprecated [15], cryptographically protected protocols (such as TLS) are becoming the norm.

Unfortunately, the TLS public-key infrastructure (PKI) suffers from a weakest-link security problem: any trusted certification authority (CA) can on its own produce a valid certificate for any domain name. A certification authority is considered trusted by a client if its certificate is present in the client’s list of root CAs or signed by another trusted CA. By compromising any root or intermediate CA, an attacker can compromise the security of the entire system. For this reason, Google developed the Certificate Transparency (CT) framework [23], which relies on append-only logs to make certificates publicly available. Unfortunately, that approach comes with a few drawbacks: CT enables the detection of CA misbehavior but does not prevent it. Moreover, the list of log servers is maintained by a single entity. Although the log’s contents can be consulted and proved to be consistent, log servers can choose to ignore queries. Finally, to avoid a split-world attack, in which a malicious log server would show inconsistent versions of the log to different clients, a gossip protocol is needed [10]. Consequently, in order to tolerate a malicious or compromised CA, every certificate issuance should involve multiple CAs and all operations should be logged securely and in a fully distributed way.

For TLS to become truly ubiquitous on the web, the issuance of digital certificates must be frictionless. In this spirit, the “Let’s Encrypt” CA offers free, widely-accepted

certificates as well as tools for automating their issuance, re-issuance, and revocation. These unique characteristics have made it incredibly successful, with over 50 million active certificates as of March 2018 [24]. Let’s Encrypt has managed to offer free services only thanks to a multitude of sponsors, though; automation helps reducing costs, but it does not eliminate them [1]. Therefore, an ideal PKI (which involves multiple CAs for each certificate issuance) should also include a payment framework, so that non-subsidized CAs can be remunerated efficiently and conveniently.

In this paper, we present BlockPKI, a public-key infrastructure that employs smart contracts to provide the following features:

- **Automation:** The certificate issuance process—including the transmission of a request to selected CAs, proving control over the domain name, making the newly created certificate publicly visible, and paying the signing CAs—necessitates minimal human involvement.
- **Resilience:** No single entity has the ability to issue an illegitimate certificate or disrupt normal operations. BlockPKI relies on a blockchain, which prevents the situation where a single entity (such as a log server) can ignore requests and block the issuance or verification process. Moreover, several CAs must be involved to produce a valid certificate, which greatly improves the system’s tolerance to compromise.
- **Transparency:** All operations relative to certificate management are logged in the blockchain, which allows monitoring of all operations and detection of anomalies.

To achieve similar objectives, many existing schemes introduce various trusted parties (such as log servers) with different roles, scopes, and responsibilities [4, 22, 29, 37]. A blockchain, as a distributed append-only ledger, can support a certificate log without introducing any trusted third party. Using a PKI-dedicated gossip protocol becomes unnecessary; exchanging and storing block headers is sufficient for clients to verify that all relevant operations are logged consistently.

II. BACKGROUND

BlockPKI makes use of several existing data structures and schemes that we briefly describe in this section.

A. Schnorr Multi-Signatures

The Schnorr algorithm [35] is a digital signature scheme that can be extended [32] to a multi-signature scheme, enabling several independent entities to produce a concise signature. Creating a multi-signature involves two rounds. Consider n

entities signing a statement m . Each entity is characterized by its public key Q_i and private key x_i , where $Q_i = g^{x_i}$ and g is a publicly known group generator. In the first round, each entity generates a pair of private/public nonces (k_i, N_i) , such that $N_i = g^{k_i}$, and communicates the public nonce N_i to all other participants. In the second round, each entity combines all public nonces and gets $\bar{N} = \prod_i^n N_i$. With \bar{N} and its private nonce k_i , the entity computes its partial signature $s_i = k_i - ex_i$, where $e = h(\bar{N} \| m)$ and h is a hash function, and broadcasts it. Now anyone can combine all partial signatures $\bar{s} = \sum_i^n s_i$ to form a merged signature (e, \bar{s}) , which can be verified with a combined public key $\bar{Q} = \prod_i^n Q_i$, similarly to a single Schnorr signature, i.e., by calculating $\bar{N}' = g^{\bar{s}\bar{Q}^e}$ and checking whether $e = h(\bar{N}' \| m)$. Combining public keys or partial signatures does not require knowledge of any signer's private key. The private nonce must be kept private and destroyed after creating the partial signature as disclosing it may leak the long-term private key x_i .

B. Blockchains and Smart Contracts

A smart contract is a computer program executed in a trusted, impartial environment. In contrast to real-life agreements, no third parties are needed to enforce the rules written in the contract. Currently, the most common way of ensuring an impartial execution environment for smart contracts is to use a blockchain. A blockchain is a data structure where each block header contains a cryptographic hash of the previous block. Each block also contains a list of transactions.

Blockchains typically rely on *Merkle trees* to efficiently and securely include transactions in block headers. In a Merkle tree, each non-leaf node is labeled with the hash of all its child nodes. Such a data structure allows anyone to produce concise, unique, and easy-to-verify *inclusion proofs*. The size of such a proof grows logarithmically with the number of leaves in the tree. The advantage of this approach is that even a so-called *light client* (i.e., clients holding only block headers, rather than the entire blockchain) can verify that a given transaction is included in the blockchain.

Typically, new blocks (with new transactions) are appended to the blockchain in a stochastic process called *mining*; every block must be backed up by sufficient *proof of work*, i.e., finding a new block requires solving a computationally intensive problem. It may happen that two miners produce a proof of work for the next block simultaneously, then two versions of the blockchain may coexist. This problem is resolved by the rule that the longest chain is accepted as the valid one. Having these properties, one can treat the blockchain as a distributed database in which every block is immutable and creating an alternative version of the entire database is computationally infeasible due to the above-mentioned proof-of-work mechanism.

With smart contracts running on a blockchain, censorship and manipulations become highly impractical. Every machine that participates in the blockchain system by checking the validity of new blocks is called a *node*, some nodes are also miners. Machines that download and verify block headers only and acquire information about transactions on an as-needed basis are called *light clients*. Blockchain users have accounts identified by unique addresses. Accounts can be used

to publish new contracts or interact with existing ones. Each contract running on the blockchain is also identified by a unique address. To call a method in a contract, the user needs to know the method's name and arguments.

Usually, blockchain systems are open and prevent spamming by charging a small fee for each action. In order to be included in the blockchain each transaction must be accompanied by a fee. The fee is then transferred to the miner of the block with this transaction. Fees are expressed using a cryptocurrency, a digital token with a monetary value. Cryptocurrency can be mined, received from another user, or bought with fiat money on specialized exchange platforms.

C. Automatic Certificate Management

The Automatic Certificate Management Environment or ACME [3] is a proposed standard used by Let's Encrypt to automate the issuance of domain-validated (DV) certificates. The domain validation process of ACME involves three major steps: (a) Upon request, the CA sends a set of challenges to the purported domain owner. These challenges can consist in setting up a special DNS record or making a file with a specified content available at a given path under the requested domain name. (b) A script completes the challenges and sends to the CA a set of responses specifying which challenges have been completed. (c) The CA checks whether the challenges have been correctly executed and issues the certificate. Note that being able to control the domain name or the web server's root directory suffices to obtain a DV certificate.

III. SYSTEM MODEL

We distinguish four main roles in BlockPKI:

- **Requesters** control domain names and want to obtain certificates by proving ownership of these domain names to CAs.
- **Certification authorities (CAs)** in BlockPKI are similar to today's root certification authorities. They are trusted entities (i.e., their public keys are axiomatically trusted by the clients' software) able to accept requests, verify the identity of the requester, and produce a signature.
- **Clients** want to establish secure TLS connections to web servers. They check the validity of the delivered certificate using a list of self-signed root CA certificates, which usually comes with the client's browser or OS. There are three types of clients, with varying security guarantees (from the weakest to the strongest):
 - **Blockchain-unaware:** This type of client does not interact with the blockchain whatsoever, and thus cannot verify that a received certificate is visible to everyone (so that a potential anomaly can be detected), but still benefits from the security advantage of multi-signatures.
 - **Lightweight:** Such a client fetches, validates, and stores block headers to verify that a received certificate corresponds to a transaction that is included in a block.
 - **Full node:** Clients that maintain the complete blockchain are called *full nodes*. Doing so requires substantially more resources than only fetching block headers but provides the maximum level of security.
- **Web servers** are controlled by requesters and can be used to prove ownership of a domain name, i.e., if a

domain name resolves to the address of a web server that the requester controls, then the requester can make it serve any content from any given path as evidence of ownership. The goal of the requester is to obtain a certificate to secure connections from clients to its web server.

Throughout the paper, we assume the following: (a) The public keys and blockchain account addresses of root CAs are publicly known. (b) The code of BlockPKI contracts is publicly known, thus everyone can verify and audit the code and everyone knows how to interact with these contracts. (c) The blockchain addresses of permanent contract instances are known to all requesters and CAs.

For the sake of simplicity, we also assume that CAs and requesters are locally maintaining the blockchain. However, requesters could use a proxy to interact with the blockchain.

A parameter T specifies the number of CAs signing the certificate. The adversary’s goal is to create a fraudulent certificate for a domain. To this end, the adversary can compromise CAs and conduct impersonation attacks, but cannot compromise the targeted domain. Specifically, we assume that the adversary can corrupt i CAs and mount a domain-impersonation attack on j other CAs, as long as $i + j < T$. If $i + j \geq T$ the adversary can create a fraudulent certificate that will be accepted by clients. Even in such a case, however, BlockPKI’s objective is to provide a high probability of attack detection.

Furthermore, we assume that the attacker does not control the majority of the blockchain computational power. This means that she cannot launch a so-called *51% attack* on the underlying blockchain, thus she cannot roll back changes in the blockchain and cannot censor transactions from entering the blockchain.

IV. BLOCKPKI OVERVIEW

In BlockPKI, CAs conduct automated domain validation. Moreover, in order to address the weakest-link problem of the current infrastructure, BlockPKI mandates multi-path probing (i.e., each domain name must be validated by several CAs). One of our goals is to automate not only the domain-validation process, but also the certificate creation process. To this end, BlockPKI relies on smart contracts, which allow automated interactions between requesters and CAs.

BlockPKI requires that each certificate be signed by T CAs, so that one careless or compromised CA cannot create client-accepted certificates by itself. Requesters can choose the value of T they want to use, but browser vendors will effectively dictate a lower bound on this value, as browsers may refuse a certificate signed by an insufficient number of CAs. We envision that T will initially be very small (perhaps even just one during early stages of deployment) and then increase over time.

In this section, we provide a brief overview of how BlockPKI deals with two main aspects of public-key infrastructures: certificate issuance and certificate verification.

The certificate issuance process is illustrated in Figure 1 and summarized below:

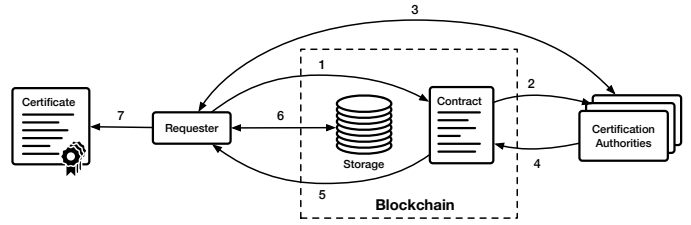


Fig. 1: Overview of the certificate issuance process.

- 1) The requester creates a contract on the blockchain that will gather signatures from CAs. In the contract, the requester specifies certificate parameters, the blockchain addresses of T CAs authorized to sign the certificate, and the amount of financial compensation for each signature.
- 2) The CAs detect the new contract and check whether they are authorized to validate the public key of the requester.
- 3) The authorized CAs perform the public-key verification. To pass the verification, the requester must prove control of the domain to the CAs.
- 4) If the verification is successful, each authorized CA sends its partial signature to the contract and receives the financial compensation.
- 5) The requester gathers signatures from the blockchain, combines them into a single multi-signature and appends it to the certificate data.
- 6) The requester puts the multi-signature and certificate data as a payload in a transaction and publishes it in the blockchain.
- 7) The transaction together with the proof of its inclusion in a mined block forms a BlockPKI certificate.

Certificates are used for establishing TLS connections. When a client connects to a server, the client obtains the domain’s certificate during the TLS handshake. In BlockPKI, to validate the certificate’s authenticity the client verifies (a) that the domain name is correct and that the certificate is not expired, (b) whether the certificate is signed by the threshold number T of CAs (trusted by the client), and (c) whether the locally maintained block headers or blockchain match the inclusion proof of the transaction containing the certificate data (if the client is either a lightweight or full blockchain node).

V. BLOCKPKI IN DETAIL

A. Contracts

Smart contracts are used for the automation of most interactions: certificate request, payment handling, and certificate issuance. BlockPKI uses three types of contracts:

- **The central contract** receives certificate requests, verifies them, and maintains a list of accepted requests. There is a single instance of the central contract on the blockchain, and all requesters and CAs know its blockchain address.
- **Domain contracts** are created by the central contract and serve certificate requests (i.e., they receive signatures and issue compensation). A new domain contract is created for every certificate request.
- **The storage contract** is used as a recipient of transactions containing certificate data and a Schnorr signature.

Central Contract. To obtain a certificate, the requester must create a new domain contract using the central contract,

which works as a contract factory. The pseudocode of the central contract is presented in Listing 2 in the appendix. The central contract ensures that all certificate requests are stored in one place in the blockchain and that each domain contract has the same, publicly known code, so that protocol parties have a uniform way to interact with each other. Furthermore, the central contract guarantees that all domain contracts are accompanied with sufficient funds to pay all CAs, and that provided parameters are valid. The central contract implements a method called `createDomainContract` that requesters use to create a domain contract with their parameters. The requester specifies the following parameters: certificate data, the list of authorized CAs (identified by blockchain addresses), and the amount of financial compensation for each signature. If the amount of cryptocurrency supplied when creating a new domain contract is insufficient to cover all compensations, then the contract cannot be created. For flexibility, a domain contract can handle any value of T . However, we assume that T is a global system parameter (i.e., browser and requester software should all use the same value), but it may be increased in the long-run for improved security. A requester may also list more CAs than T for increased resilience, as we discuss in Section IX, but we ignore this possibility for the time being for the sake of simplicity.

Domain Contract. The domain contract is created for every certificate request and is a crucial element in automating certificate issuance. It enables CAs to create a multi-signature by providing a platform for exchanging public nonces. In particular, the domain contract handles the following operations required to issue a certificate: (a) receiving T CA signatures over the certificate, and (b) paying the CAs for submitting their signatures. Additionally, the contract implements the logic ensuring that the protocol is executed in the correct order (e.g., it receives signatures after all nonces are present). The code of the domain contract is presented in Listing 4. A new domain contract is constructed with the parameters provided when calling the `createDomainContract` method. The contract contains all the information necessary for obtaining a certificate: the domain name, the public key, and the validity period. Additionally, the requester specifies the CAs allowed to participate in the issuance of the certificate and sets a compensation for each of the CAs.

Storage Contract. The contract serves as a recipient of transactions containing signed certificate data. Upon reception of the transaction, the contract stores its content in an internal storage. Pseudocode of the contract is provided in Listing 3.

B. Certificate Issuance

CAs observe the blockchain for new domain contracts. Once a new contract is detected, each CA checks if it is specified as authorized to validate the domain’s public key.

Domain Validation. If the CA is requested to issue the certificate, it performs an ACME domain validation. In this process, the owner of the public key proves ownership of the domain, hence the association between the public key and the domain can be established. The requester’s server runs a program that waits for and completes all verification challenges sent from CAs. The challenges, for example, may require to add a file with a specified content at a specified path on the web

Certificate data (similar to X.509), logged in the blockchain:

```
{ subjectName: "www.example.com",
  issuers: ["CA1", "CA2", "CA3", "CA4"],
  notBefore: 1 January 2018, 01:00:00 CEST,
  notAfter: 1 February 2018, 01:00:00 CEST,
  publicKey: B1:E1:37...,
  schnorrSignature: 4A:BD:FF...,
  ... }
```

Domain certificate with inclusion proof:

```
{ transaction: C5:93:83..., // contains certificate data
  blockNo: 123456,
  inclusionProof: [AB:99:7F..., 63:D5:F7...,
    AB:D6:9A..., F4:23:89..., A7:45:63..., ...] }
```

Listing 1: Example of BlockPKI certificate.

server. If verification confirms the validity of the information in the domain contract, the CA proceeds to signing the certificate.

Signing the Certificate. To keep certificates compact, we use the Schnorr algorithm in the multi-signature setting (see Section II-A). The signing process begins with generating a private-public nonce pair (k_i, N_i) and sending the public nonce N_i in a transaction to the domain contract (see `sendCertPubNonce` in Listing 4). After all T nonces are put in the domain contract, an authorized CA can send its signature s_i by calling `sendCertSignature`. To issue the signature, nonces of all other CAs involved in creating the Schnorr multi-signature are needed. The CA extracts them from the domain contract and combines them. Then, the CA sends its partial signature of the certificate to receive its compensation. All partial signatures are permanently stored in the domain contract, they can be read by any blockchain user and combined together into a single, compact Schnorr signature.

Creating the Final Certificate. Gathering signatures is one of the main goals of the domain contract. The requester observes her domain contract and waits until all signatures are gathered. Then, the requester combines all partial signatures into a compact Schnorr multi-signature. If the signature is correct, the requester creates a list of IDs of CAs that took part in signing the certificate; the IDs will enable clients to verify the signature. Then, the requester sends a transaction with the certificate data, the list of IDs, and the multi-signature to the storage contract and waits for the inclusion of his transaction in a block in the blockchain. Once a block with the transaction is mined, the requester reads the inclusion proof of the transaction in the Merkle tree encompassing all transactions included in the block. The root of this tree is contained in the block header. The transaction together with its inclusion in a particular block creates a certificate as presented in Listing 1. To make sure that the transaction is included in the blockchain and that the chain will not be re-written, the requester should wait until a number of blocks are mined. With each block mined on top of the one with the considered transaction, chances of the transaction being removed from the blockchain exponentially decrease to 0 [9]. After the certificate is created, the requester can upload it to the domain’s servers, so that it can be used to establish TLS connections with clients.

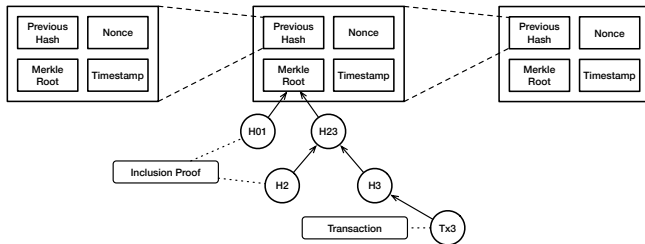


Fig. 2: Transactions are included into block headers using Merkle trees. In this simplified example, one can prove to someone who holds the root of the Merkle tree that $Tx3$ is included in the corresponding block by showing hashes $H2$ and $H01$. In BlockPKI, this mechanism is used to prove to clients that certificates are logged in the blockchain.

C. Certificate Verification

The certificate verification process is presented in Listing 5 (see Appendix). Certificate data, a Schnorr multi-signature, and the list of CAs that contributed to the multi-signature are contained in the payload of the transaction delivered as a part of the certificate (see Listing 1). First, the client reads data from the transaction and combines public keys of the CAs that are listed in the transaction (i.e., in the certificate). The clients also make sure that signing CAs are trusted. Then, the client ensures that (a) the domain name from the certificate matches the visited website’s address, (b) the certificate is not expired, (c) the multi-signature over the certificate is correct (i.e., signed by the listed CAs), and (d) the transaction corresponding to the certificate is present in the blockchain. We note, however, that this last operation can be performed asynchronously and only by clients who maintain either a lightweight or full version of the blockchain.

As described in Section II-B, light clients keep all block headers, and each header contains, among other information, the root of the Merkle tree containing all transactions of the block. To check whether the transaction is present in a block, the client reads the Merkle root from the block and checks whether the inclusion proof delivered with the certificate is correct. Figure 2 illustrates block headers with the inclusion proof of a transaction. Light clients could get the inclusion proof from peers using a dedicated protocol, but asking for such a proof would leak information about visited domains. Consequently, to preserve user privacy, the inclusion proof must be delivered by the domain.

If all verifications are successful, the client accepts the certificate and establishes a secure communication channel with the domain. Otherwise, the connection is dropped and the fraudulent certificate constitutes evidence of CA misbehavior.

D. Certificate Renewal

To update a BlockPKI certificate, a requester could create a new domain contract every time, but she would be charged for each contract creation. BlockPKI allows requesters to renew a certificate using the same domain contract that was used to create it. The requester just transfers funds to the domain contract. The certificate validity period is automatically updated and the contract is ready to receive new signatures. In this way, not only the number of contracts with expired certificates running on the blockchain is minimized, but the cost of renewing a certificate is also reduced.

VI. SECURITY ANALYSIS

The adversary can create a fraudulent certificate if and only if (a) it can compromise i CAs, (b) it can conduct a successful domain validation with j honest CAs (e.g., by attacking the CA’s DNS resolution process, or by launching a MITM attack on a link between the CA and the domain server), and (c) $i + j \geq T$. We consider that such an attack requires a tremendous effort from the attacker and goes beyond the scope of our adversary model. Nevertheless, even if the adversary succeeds, BlockPKI allows detection of such an attack with high probability. Clients, while verifying the certificate, have an inclusion proof of the corresponding transaction in a block. Clients keeping block headers locally can directly check the proof.

We tested our three Ethereum contracts for security vulnerabilities using the *Securify* scanner by Tsankov et al. [41]. This allowed us to verify that an attacker cannot freeze or steal Ether, as it happened in July 2017 with Parity’s multi-signature wallet, for example.

BlockPKI does not have any single point of failure. Undermining the availability of BlockPKI to a requester or a CA running a blockchain node requires an adversary to block all connections to other peer nodes. To block BlockPKI globally, one needs to launch a 51% attack. If the adversary controls a significant portion of the network’s computational power but not the majority of it, she can delay the issuance of certificates, but eventually all blockchain transactions important for BlockPKI operation will be included in the blockchain by honest miners.

An authorized CA could misbehave by sending some meaningless data as a signature and receiving a payment. However, such a strategy would not pay off in the long term. First, each contract specifies which entities are allowed to send a signature and obtain money in return. If a CA issues invalid signatures, it will earn a bad reputation and will be avoided in subsequent certificate issuances. Note that each interaction with the contract will be committed to the blockchain so any dishonest behavior of a CA becomes permanently visible. Second, it is possible to prevent such misbehavior by checking the validity of the signature in the domain contract itself. However, this option is not the default approach in our system, since performing computationally intensive computations, such as public-key cryptography, in a smart contract running on a blockchain entails higher usage of nodes’ computational power and consequently higher costs for the domain owner to obtain the certificate.

An authorized CA could also simply ignore a certificate issuance request in which it is listed. This situation is easily mitigated either by listing a number of authorized CAs greater than T in the domain contract, as we discuss in Section IX, or by canceling the unsuccessful request and creating a new one that does not list the blocking CA. Again, a misbehaving CA would earn a bad reputation by remaining unresponsive to issuance requests.

Schnorr multi-signatures are known to be vulnerable to rogue-key attacks [5]. A malicious CA could choose a key as a function of that of other CAs in such a way that it can then forge a multi-signature. This attack is prevented by requiring signers to prove knowledge of their own secret key.

That property is respected in BlockPKI as CA certificates are self-signed and known in advance by clients.

VII. REALIZATION IN PRACTICE

Although our implementation of BlockPKI is based on the Ethereum blockchain, most of the concepts we have presented so far are blockchain agnostic and could be implemented on any other decentralized platform that supports sufficiently expressive smart contracts. Ethereum [45] is a blockchain-based platform mainly aimed towards running smart contracts. Since its launch in July 2015, it became the second most popular cryptocurrency with a total market capitalization of more than \$20B, as of September 2018 [11]. Transaction cost in Ethereum depends on the amount of computation performed by the smart contract (triggered by a transaction). Each operation (e.g., addition or storing a byte in a contract) has a constant cost expressed in *gas* units [45]. However, the gas cost expressed in the Ethereum’s currency (i.e., *ether*) varies. A transaction sender specifies how much she is willing to pay for the gas used. The price implicitly determines the priority of the transaction, as miners are compensated with the cost of used gas in a block they have mined.

We implemented all contracts (i.e., the central, domain, and storage contracts) in *Solidity* (version 0.4.7), a Turing-complete programming language whose syntax is similar to that of JavaScript. Certificates are encoded in JSON format (an example is presented in Listing 1). To implement the Schnorr signature scheme, we used Bitcoin’s C elliptic curve library [18] together with its Python bindings [19]. We used *secp256k1* as the default elliptic curve for our implementation. As a hash function for Schnorr signatures we used SHA256; the Ethereum blockchain uses Keccak-256. Nonces required by the Schnorr algorithm were generated deterministically as described in RFC 6979 [33].

The requester implementation consists of two modules: (a) a Go implementation of an Ethereum full node (*Geth*, version 1.5.5 [12]), and (b) a Python application that communicates with the local node (using the *Web3.py* library [20]). The latter module is used to automate the process of requesting and creating certificates. The application takes certificate parameters and creates the transaction calling the `createDomainContract` method of the central contract (see Listing 2). After the domain contract is created, the application observes it and listens for the `allCertSignaturesGathered` event, which informs that co-signing of the certificate is finished (see Listing 4). When a block with this event appears, the application reads all partial signatures from the contract and merges them. Then, the transaction with certificate data is sent to the storage contract. To ensure that the transaction is not overridden, the requester waits for a few confirmation blocks before obtaining the proof of inclusion. In the current deployment of Ethereum, 12 confirmation blocks is a commonly accepted standard [9].

CAs, similarly to requesters, run Ethereum nodes using *Geth*, and implement a Python application to communicate with it. CAs observe the central contract and wait for the `newDomainContract` event. When the event is triggered, each CA checks whether it is listed as an authorized CA. If so, the CA performs domain validation, as specified by

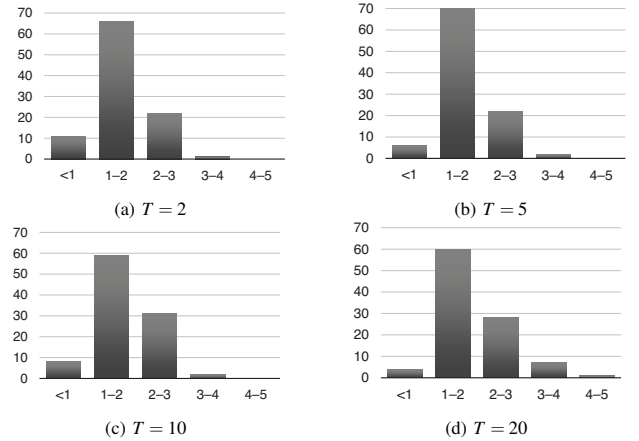


Fig. 3: Certificate issuance time distribution (minutes on the x-axis, % on the y-axis), for different thresholds.

the ACME specification (see Section II-C). If the verification succeeds, the CA deterministically generates a private-public nonce pair from certificate data encoded in the JSON format with alphabetically sorted keys. Then, it submits the public nonce to the domain contract and waits for the `allCertNoncesGathered` event. Once the event is received, the CA reads the nonces of the other authorized CAs and sends its partial Schnorr signature to the domain contract.

VIII. EVALUATION

We evaluated BlockPKI on the *Ropsten* test network, which is the default Ethereum development environment. This test network provides the same functionalities and characteristics as the main network, but the ether on Ropsten has no monetary value. To conduct experiments, we created a setting with up to 20 CAs, a requester (and its servers), and a client. CAs and the requester are running the scripts described in Section VII. The client software was run on a commodity machine with an Intel Core i5-2410M 2.30GHz processor, 4GB of RAM, and Ubuntu 16.04.

A. Time Required for Issuing a Certificate

First, we examine the time needed to obtain the certificate using BlockPKI, and how the threshold number T of the required CAs affects certificate creation time. To highlight the actual effect of parameter T , we conducted measurements in a setting where the requester obtains the inclusion proof just after a block with his transaction is mined (without waiting for any block confirmations). The obtained results are presented in Figure 3. The duration, in most cases, is less than two minutes and varies only slightly with the number of required CAs. When taking into account the delay caused by waiting for 12 blocks, the average issuance duration would increase by three minutes, since block creation in Ethereum takes around 15 seconds on average [13].

The required time is greatly influenced by the frequency of blockchain updates. The process of gathering signatures requires at least four blocks. In the best-case scenario, the first block already contains the transaction that creates a new domain contract, so that all CAs can notice a pending certificate request. Gathering signatures involves two rounds, one for gathering nonces and one for obtaining partial signatures.

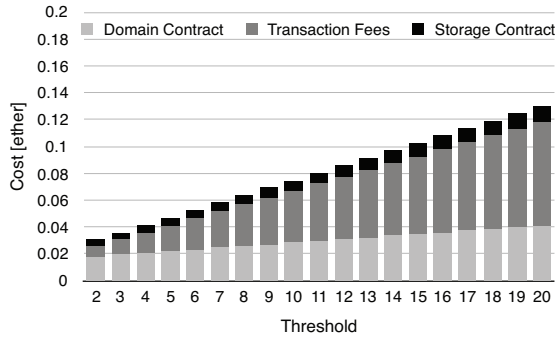


Fig. 4: Certificate creation cost, in function of the threshold T , including the creation of the domain contract, the cumulated fees of all transactions sent from CAs and the transaction to the storage contract.

Each round can start only when the previous round is over. Assuming that domain verification is performed before the next block is found, CAs may broadcast their transactions with the public nonces and have the transactions included in the second block. Once all nonces are embedded in the blockchain, CAs may put their partial signatures in the third block. Then, one additional block is needed to put the requester’s transaction with certificate data into the blockchain.

As our results show, the broadcast transaction is rarely put in the very next block. Usually, it is included in the second or the third one, because network latency plays an important role in blockchains with small block times. For comparison, Bitcoin blocks are mined every 10 minutes [36].

B. Cost of Issuing a Certificate

We now investigate the cost of using BlockPKI in Ethereum. For the evaluation, we set the cost of gas to 20 Gwei, which is above the average price for gas in Ethereum [13]. Figure 4 shows the linear increase of cost in function of the number of CAs involved in creating a certificate. The cost we measure is the total fee of all transactions sent during creation of the certificate (without compensations). The first—and most expensive—transaction is initiated by the requester and results in the creation of a domain contract. The contract code remains the same for each request, but the content of its variables may differ. For the evaluation we used a 32-byte domain public key and 14-byte domain name. The next transactions are sent by CAs; each CA sends two transactions, so in total $2T$ transactions are broadcast by the CAs. The last transaction is sent by the requester to the storage contract.

As domain contracts are reused for certificate renewal, requesters do not pay again for the creation of the domain contract, but only for transaction fees (see Figure 4). Apart from domain contracts created for each certificate request, the central contract and the storage contract are also present in the blockchain. The one-time cost of creating the central contract and the storage contract is negligible. Their creators do not have any privileges in BlockPKI.

We conduct our cost evaluation in a conservative setting, but some modifications could lower the costs. For example, we could move the system to Ethereum Classic, an alternative version of the Ethereum blockchain. At the time of writing, the price of ether on Ethereum Classic oscillates around 11 USD, which is roughly 20 times lower than the price on

	2 CAs		5 CAs		10 CAs		20 CAs	
	[ms]	%	[ms]	%	[ms]	%	[ms]	%
key combination	0.036	17	0.042	19	0.046	20	0.052	24
block inclusion	0.073	34	0.069	32	0.078	33	0.067	30
signature verif.	0.105	49	0.108	49	0.109	47	0.102	46

TABLE I: Duration of certificate verification steps.

Ethereum. The price of gas in ether is roughly equal on both blockchains, thus we could decrease the costs by a factor of 20. However, Ethereum Classic has a slower hash rate than that of Ethereum [17], which means that launching a 51% attack is proportionally easier.

C. Time Required for Verifying a Certificate

Another aspect we investigate is the computation overhead on the client side. We again examine this factor with respect to the threshold number T of CAs. The measurements were performed on the commodity computer described earlier. Each measurement was repeated 100 times and the average value of all 100 samples was taken as a result.

As Table I shows, the signature verification time is little influenced by T . Thanks to the Schnorr multi-signature, the signature verification with a combined key does not differ from the standard verification of a single Schnorr signature. The time needed to combine the keys increases as the number of keys increases. Nevertheless, key combination accounts for 17% of the total time when $T = 2$, and for 24% when $T = 20$, so the difference is unnoticeable from the user’s perspective. Verifying the inclusion proof takes about one third of the total time. Ethereum uses Patricia trees [8] (a variant of Merkle trees) for including transactions in blocks. For the evaluation we used a block containing 10 other transactions, a commonly observed number of transactions in a block on the Ethereum main network [13]. Finally, the verification of the merged signature proceeds in constant time and takes about 0.1 ms.

IX. DISCUSSION

For the sake of simplicity, we assumed that certificates are always signed by T CAs. However, it would be possible for a requester to list in his domain contract a number of authorized CAs greater than T . The contract would ensure that only T CAs contribute to the multi-signature by accepting the first T nonces and disallowing CAs that did not include a nonce to send signatures. More authorized CAs implies a possibly faster issuance of signatures as only the first T CAs would be able to co-sign the certificate and receive financial compensations, thus CAs would have a strong incentive to conduct the domain verification process as fast as possible. On the other hand, if the requester includes many CAs, then the cost of creating such a contract becomes higher (as the requester must pay for the additional storage needed to hold the CAs’ blockchain addresses and the table with their compensations). As we expect BlockPKI-compatible CAs to respond to valid certificate issuance requests in a large majority of cases (since they are financially rewarded for doing so), it is probably best for requesters to list exactly T accepted CAs, unless experience proves it is desirable to do otherwise. It is also possible for a requester to use a value of T greater than the value commonly used by browsers. Such a change would

make a certificate more resilient, as revoking one CA would not invalidate all the certificates it has issued. Such a high-resilience, high-security certificate would naturally be more expensive, however.

Root CAs, which are directly trusted by the browser or OS, rarely sign domain certificates directly. Instead, they sign intermediate CAs, which in turn issue domain certificates. Although, for presentation purposes, we simplified the usual CA hierarchy, BlockPKI supports longer certificate chains (i.e., with intermediate CAs). To request a certificate, the requester does not have to specify a particular intermediate CA. It is sufficient to include the blockchain address of a root CA in the domain contract. Thereafter, all intermediate CAs can use the same blockchain account to send their partial signatures. If a certificate in BlockPKI is signed by intermediate CAs, then the domain owner must provide its clients with the chain of trust up to the root CAs, as well as proofs of key possession (to prevent rogue-key attacks). Browsers first verify whether the intermediate CAs are trusted and then verify the certificate (as described in Section V-C) using the public keys of the intermediate CAs that signed the certificate.

By automating all operations, we facilitate the usage of short-lived certificates, which reduce the attack window in the event where a certificate would be illegitimately issued. Although it is hard to determine what the optimal certificate validity period would be in practice, we envision BlockPKI certificates to have a lifetime of around 90 days initially, as is currently the case with Let’s Encrypt. Short-lived, multi-signed certificates greatly reduce the need for a revocation system, but do not completely suppress it. Given that designing a satisfactory revocation system has proven to be an extremely challenging task [25, 38, 39], we consider it to go beyond the scope of this paper. Nevertheless, the security of BlockPKI can be further improved by combining it with any existing revocation scheme.

X. RELATED WORK

Several existing systems rely on blockchains to provide PKI functionalities. For instance, Namecoin [30] allows users to register a name and attach data, such as a public-key fingerprint, to that name. Namecoin has its own dedicated namespace (.bit top-level domain), which is resolved using the Namecoin infrastructure (without involving DNS). CertCoin [16] is an improvement over Namecoin, which reduces the amount of storage necessary to use the system, and introduces key revocation and recovery functionalities. In Ethereum, the resolution of human-readable names into identifiers of digital resources (for example blockchain addresses of smart contracts) is provided by the Ethereum Name Service [21]. In contrast to previous systems, such as Namecoin or CertCoin, BlockPKI allows domain owners to obtain certificates for standard DNS names.

BKI [43] is a blockchain-based PKI that involves an adjustable number of CAs to issue certificates, but it does not make use of multi-signatures to make certificate verification more scalable (as BlockPKI does). Moreover, BKI requires that all clients contact a third party (a “blockchain-based log maintainer”) during certificate verification, which is problematic for latency and privacy reasons. BlockPKI also improves

upon BKI by allowing CAs to get remunerated automatically through smart contracts. SCPKI [2] is another blockchain-based PKI, but it departs from the CA model used by TLS and relies instead on a web-of-trust model to solve a range of identity-related problems. Doing away with CAs entirely to instead rely upon individuals to certify the authenticity of public keys is a model that may be appropriate for user-to-user interactions, but it is not adapted to today’s web. Therefore, the assumptions and objectives underlying SCPKI are vastly different from those of BlockPKI.

As an enhancement to the standard web PKI, Google developed Certificate Transparency (CT) [23] to detect targeted attacks by making all the certificates submitted to their log servers publicly visible. To work effectively, CT requires that every certificate is accompanied by a signed statement that a log has received the certificate (and will add it to its store). Logs in CT must be highly available as they are necessary for issuing certificates. Moreover, CT does not provide any attack prevention as it is designed exclusively for attack detection. AKI [22] and its successor ARPKI [4] rely on certificate logs similar to CT’s, but provide additional security guarantees: they employ multi-signature certificates signed by n CAs, and aim at protecting users from an adversary who would be able to compromise up to $n - 1$ CAs. These systems rely on log servers whose availability is crucial for standard operations. Moreover, AKI and ARPKI lack an automated framework for requests and payment.

The monitoring of log systems is another important aspect investigated by previous work. Chuat et al. [10] and Nordberg et al. [31] have proposed systems for TLS clients to gossip about certificate logs (using regular web traffic). Leveraging a blockchain to monitor public logs was proposed by Bonneau in EthIKS [7]. The system’s objective is to enhance auditability of the CONIKS system [28], which is a log-based end-user key verification service. In CONIKS, users are required to monitor the correctness of their own data in the repository or trust a third party to perform the audit on their behalf. EthIKS, by incorporating CONIKS data structures in a smart contract and relying on the Ethereum network to enforce honest handling of the repository, reduces the trust put on other users or third-party auditors. IKP [27] introduces a blockchain-based system that provides financial incentives for detecting fraudulent certificates. The system leverages smart contracts, allows domain owners to specify their trusted CAs, and allows CAs to create an escrowed insurance fund to protect against CA misbehavior. Anyone who can find a certificate non-compliant with a domain policy can be compensated by the CA’s insurance.

Catena [40] proposes a blockchain implementation of a log system that is accessible to lightweight blockchain clients. It leverages Bitcoin’s double-spending prevention mechanism. Each Catena log statement is put into a Bitcoin transaction. Clients verify the existence of transactions using a light client protocol in Bitcoin (called Simplified Payment Verification). Consequently, the equivocation of the log is equivalent to double-spending, which in turn is as hard as forking the Bitcoin blockchain.

Notaries [26, 44] can help detecting MITM attacks with multi-path probing. By contacting notary servers, clients can verify whether a domain’s certificate is also observed from a

set of vantage points. The notary server contacts the domain and forwards its view of the domain's certificate to the client. Unfortunately, contacting a notary service introduces significant latency, and the achieved level of security is hard to assess without any mechanism for detecting malicious notary servers.

CoSi [37] proposes an efficient way of using multi-signatures to co-sign statements issued by CAs. Each statement needs to be co-signed by a threshold number of witnesses in order to be accepted by clients. Consequently, even if an attacker compromises an authority, all malicious statements need to be publicly exposed before they can be used for an attack. However, CoSi requires coordination in the co-signing protocol and relies on direct communication between witnesses. BlockPKI does not rely on those assumptions, as it still works effectively when signers do not communicate directly with each other. Furthermore, CoSi's security is still only as strong as the weakest link, as witnesses only approve the statements issued by CAs [37] and do not conduct a full domain validation themselves. An attacker could still exploit vulnerabilities, in BGP for example, to hijack traffic destined to a victim's domain [6].

In opposition to existing approaches, BlockPKI is, to the best of our knowledge, the first PKI to (a) require that multiple CAs perform a complete domain validation from different vantage points for an increased resilience to compromise and hijacking, (b) scale to a high number of CAs by using an efficient multi-signature scheme, and (c) provide a framework for paying multiple CAs automatically.

XI. CONCLUSION

We observed that blockchains and smart contracts lend themselves to a novel PKI design that does not rely on any globally trusted entities. Our implementation in Ethereum demonstrates the viability of the approach. Our system is conceptually simple, yet achieves several surprising and desirable properties: fully autonomous operation, the creation of a malicious certificate requires compromising a large number of trusted entities and still becomes globally visible, and CAs have a viable business model where they are compensated for their validations and signatures. We hope that BlockPKI constitutes a worthwhile contribution in the quest towards a highly secure and usable PKI.

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APPENDIX

```

contract CentralContract :
  address [] public createdDomainContracts;
  event newDomainContract(address contractAddr);

  function createDomainContract(
    _certData,
    _authorizedCAs,
    _compensations) :
    if suppliedFunds >= sum(_compensations):
      uint thresholdT = _authorizedCAs.length
      address contractAddr = new DomainContract(
        thresholdT,
        _certData,
        _authorizedCAs,
        _compensations)
      createdDomainContracts.push(contractAddr);
      newDomainContract(contractAddr);
  ...

```

Listing 2: Pseudocode of the central contract.

```

contract StorageContract :
  certificate [] public storedCertificates;

  function storeCertificate(
    _certData,
    _CAs,
    _signature) :
    storedCertificates.push(
      _certData,
      _CAs,
      _signature)
  ...

```

Listing 3: Pseudocode of the storage contract.

```

contract DomainContract :
  uint public thresholdT;
  certificate public certData;
  mapping(address => bool) public authorizedCAs;
  mapping(address => uint) public compensations;
  mapping(address => bytes) public certPubNonces;
  uint public certPubNoncesCount = 0;
  bool public allCertNonces = false;
  event allCertNoncesGathered();
  ...

  function DomainContract(params) :
    thresholdT = params._thresholdT
    certData = params._certData
    authorizedCAs = params._authorizedCAs
    compensations = params._compensations

  function sendCertPubNonce(certPubNonce) :
    if sender ∈ authorizedCAs :
      certPubNonces.push(certPubNonce)
      certPubNoncesCount++
      if certPubNonces == thresholdT :
        new event(allCertNoncesGathered)
        allCertNonces = TRUE

  function sendCertSignature(certSignature) :
    if sender ∈ authorizedCAs & allCertNonces :
      certSigs.push(certSignature)
      certSigsCount++
      pay(sender, compensations[sender])
      if certSigsCount == thresholdT :
        new event(allCertSignaturesGathered)
  ...

```

Listing 4: Pseudocode of the domain contract.

```

struct certificate = {
  subjectName,
  issuers[],
  notBefore,
  notAfter,
  publicKey,
  signature,
  ...
}

function verify(domainCert) :

  cert = new certificate(domainCert.transaction)
  block = findBlock(domainCert.blockNo)
  root = block.getTransactionRoot()
  incl = domainCert.inclusionProof

  combinedKey = 1

  for CA in cert.issuers :
    if CA in trustedCAs :
      combinedKey *= CA.pubKey

  if (website.domainName == cert.subjectName &&
    time.now >= cert.notBefore &&
    time.now <= cert.notAfter &&
    sigVer(cert, combinedKey) &&
    proofMerkle(root, incl)) :
    output : "accept certificate"
  else :
    output : "reject certificate"

```

Listing 5: Pseudocode of the certificate verification process.