

① \* Hash function:

- Hash function is a mathematical function which transforms the input (or "message") into a fixed-sized output string of bytes, typically a value called as hash value.
- A general hash function has the following 3 properties:
  - 1) Input flexibility: Input can be of any size and any string.
  - 2) Fixed-output size: Output has a pre-determined length. For example, a hash function gives a 256-bit output hash value.
  - 3) Computational efficiency: The hash function should find the hash value in a reasonable amount of time, i.e., it should be computationally efficient.

\* Cryptographic hash function:

- To make the hash value cryptographically secure, three additional hash properties have to be followed:
- 1) Collision resistant:  
A hash function is said to be collision resistant if it is infeasible to find two distinct inputs  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $x \neq y$ , but  $H(x) = H(y)$ .
- Since the input is infinite and the output is finite, it is ensured that multiple inputs have the same output.
- For example, for a 256-bit output string, there

are  $2^{256}$  possible outputs. Hence, if we take  $2^{256} + 1$  input strings, it is guaranteed to have a pair of inputs mapping to the same output.

→ It will require a computation of  $2^{256}$  but according to birthday paradox, only the square root of computations, approximately  $2^{130}$  are required and it is guaranteed to have a collision with 99.8% probability.

### 2) Hiding:

- A hash function is hiding for  $y = h(x)$ , if it is infeasible to find the input  $x$ .
- It is required that the  $x$  is spread out, that it is not easily predictable.
- If  $x$  is not spread out, choose a random  $r$  with high min-entropy distribution such that  $h(r||x) = y$ , makes it difficult to predict  $x$ .
- Min-entropy refers to the difficulty in predicting the value & hence makes the hash function secure. Example has  $1/2^{256}$  probability.

### 3) Puzzle friendliness:

- A hash function is said to be puzzle friendly for a  $n$ -bit output  $y$ , and a random variable  $k$  with high min-entropy such that  $h(k||x) = y$  it is infeasible to determine the input  $x$  in significantly less than  $2^n$  times.

- For a search puzzle, there are multiple possible values of  $x$ , which requires exhaustive search.
- Here, the puzzle ID  $id$  is chosen at random.
- min-entropy value and concatenated with  $x$ .
- $H(id || x) = y$  is the hash function value & the target set of outputs.
- If  $y$  is the output set which is small, it determining  $x$  difficult, if  $y$  is large as much as  $n$ , determining  $x$  becomes trivial.

### Example:

SHA-256 combines all these properties to make hash function secure, provide data integrity &

## ② \* Hash pointers:

- Hash pointers combine 2 things: a pointer to previous block and a cryptographic hash of its contents.
- Hash pointer can be used ~~as a~~ instead of regular pointer to detect tamper to data and data integrity.
- There are 2 data structures that can be implemented using hash pointers:
  - I) Blockchain: (linked list with hash pointers)
  - ii) Instead of using a regular pointer, a hash

- For a search puzzle, there are multiple possible values of  $x$ , which requires exhaustive search.
- Here, the puzzle ID  $id$  is chosen at random, min-entropy value and concatenated with  $x$ .
- $H(id || x) \cdot y$  is the hash function value &  $y$  is the target set of outputs.
- If  $y$  is the output set which is small, it makes determining  $x$  difficult, if  $y$  is large as much as  $n$ , determining  $x$  becomes trivial.

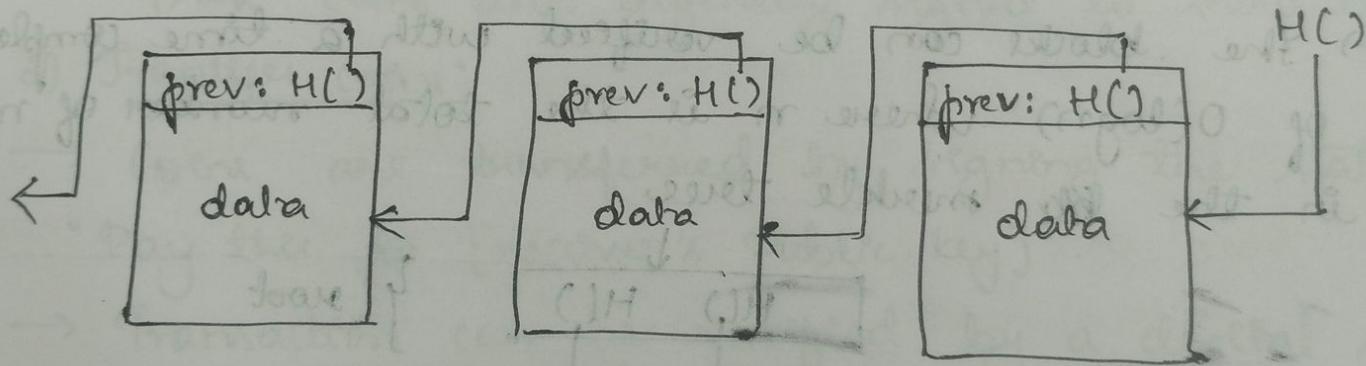
### Example:

SHA-256 combines all these properties to make the hash function secure, provide data integrity & reliability.

## ② \* Hash pointers:

- Hash pointers combine 2 things: a pointer to the previous block and a cryptographic hash of its contents.
- Hash pointers can be used as instead of a regular pointer to detect tamper to data and maintain data integrity.
- There are 2 data structures that can be implemented using hash pointers:
  - I) Blockchain: (linked list with hash pointers)
  - ii) Instead of using a regular pointer, a hash pointer is used in a blockchain.

- It consists of 2 informations:
  - Pointer to previous block.
  - Hash of its content.
- Each block in the blockchain contains data and a hash pointer.
- If an adversary tampers the data in block  $k$ , it will not match with the hash in block  $k+1$ , indicating tampering.
- This tampering will be detected at the head of the list following the chained connections.
- The head of the list points to the most recent block.



### \* Blockchain structure

- 2) Merkle tree: (Binary tree with hash pointers)
  - Here the regular pointers are replaced with hash pointers.
  - The data block forms the leaves.
  - Each parent consists of 2 hash pointers to its child nodes.
  - This pattern continues until a single root node is reached.

→ Proof of membership:

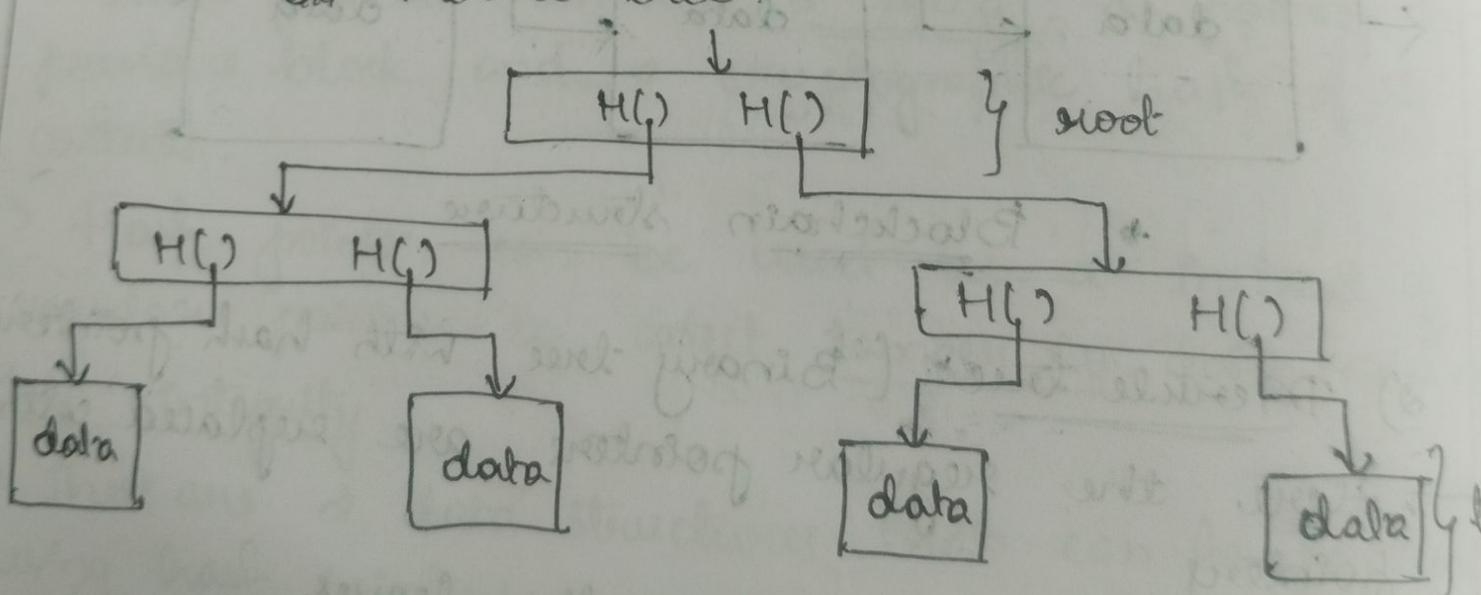
A block can be verified if it is a member of the merkle tree by following the hashes from that block to the root.

→ Proof of non-membership:

Using a sorted merkle tree, we can verify if a block is a part of the tree by verifying the blocks before and after that block.

If both the blocks are continuous, the queried block is not present.

→ The blocks can be verified with a time complexity of  $O(\log n)$  where  $n$  is the total number of nodes in the Merkle tree.



\* Merkle tree structure

### ③ \* Cryptocurrency types:

→ There are 2 types of cryptocurrencies:

- 1) Goofy Coin
- 2) Scrooge Coin

#### \* Goofy coin:

→ It is the simplest cryptocurrency which consists of 2 types of transactions:

##### 1) Create coins:

→ Coins are created by signing the statement `createCoin [uniqueCoinID]`.

→ These coins are digitally signed to show its validity.

##### 2) Transfer coins:

→ Coins are transferred by signing the statement "Pay this to [receiver's Public key]".

→ Transaction can be verified by a digital signature.

#### → Double spending attack:

During the transfer, it is possible to transfer the same coin to more than one recipient.

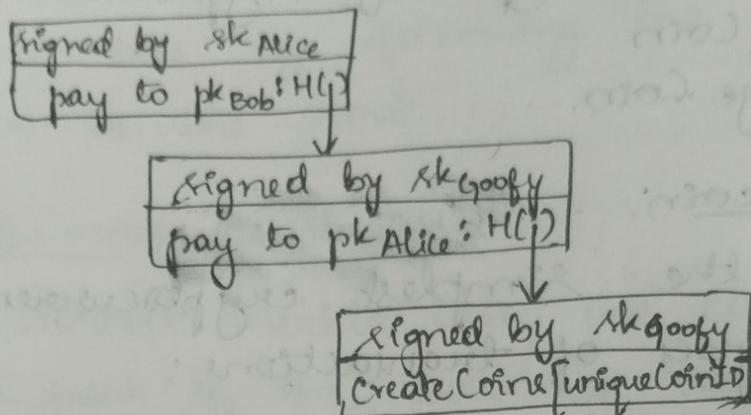
#### For example:

→ If Alice has 25 coins initially.

→ Then, Alice may sign 2 statements transferring the same coin to Bob and Chuck.

→ Now both Bob and Chuck have a valid claim to this coin.

→ This creates distrust and undermines the currency system.



\* Example for Double-spending in Goofy coins

\* Scrooge Coin:

- It is an implementation of Goofy coin with a prevention mechanism for double spending attack.
- These are the features of Scrooge coin that overcome the drawback of goofy coin:

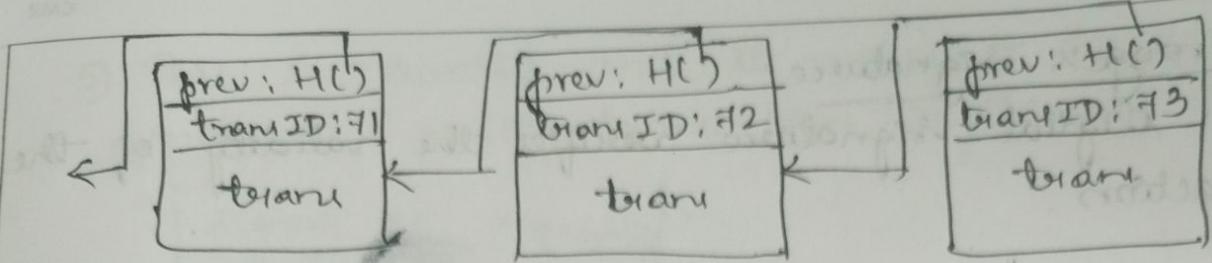
1) Append-only ledger:

→ There is a public ledger which has all transaction records.

→ It is append-only i.e., no modifications are allowed which makes the system transparent & secure.

2) Blockchain structure:

→ It has the blockchain structure where each block points to the previous block with a hash pointer.



\* ScroogeCoin Structure

### 3) Transaction types:

→ Create coins: It can create coin and assign initial owner.

transID: #3 type: CreateCoins		
Coin created		
num	value	recipient
0	3.1	0x...
1	3.6	0x...
2	7.1	0x...

→ #3[0]  
→ #3[1]  
→ #3[2]

→ pay coins: It pays the amount by creating new coins to the receiver and destroying spent coins.

transID: #4 type: payCoins		
consumed coinIDs: 69[0], 80[4], 90[1]		
Coin created		
num	value	recipient
0	3.1	0x...
1	3.6	0x...
2	7.1	0x...

→ #3[0]  
→ #3[1]  
→ #3[2]

Digital signatures.

### 4) Validation rules:

- Coins are created before being consumed.
- Coins are not spent in previous transactions.
- The value of coins created is equal to those coins spent.
- All participants (owners of the coin) sign the

## 5) Scrooge's signature:

The digital signature verifies the validity of the transaction.

→ Some drawbacks of Goofy coin are:

- 1) Distrust: Since coins can be easily duplicated, it is not a secure currency.
- 2) Devalues the currency: Since double spending is possible, the currency loses its value.

→ All the features mentioned above overcome the drawbacks of goofy coin.

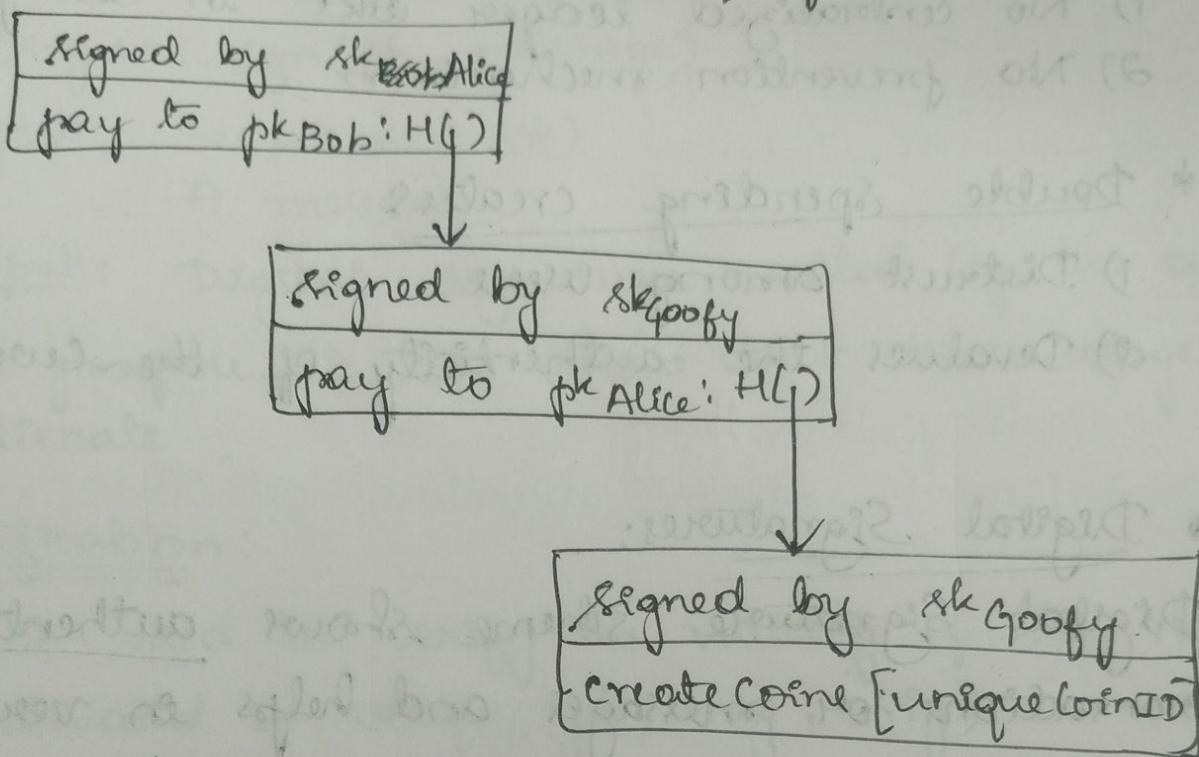
## ④ \* Double spending attack:

- This attack is visible in goofy coin.
- It occurs when the same coin is transferred to multiple recipients.

→ For example:

- 1) Alice has created a coin.
- 2) Transfers the coin to Bob by signing the transaction.
- 3) Now, without notifying anyone, Alice signs another transaction transferring the coin to Chuck.
- 4) This enables both Bob and Chuck to claim that coin.

5) This is invalid and it makes it difficult to find the valid transaction / legitimate transaction.



\* Double spending attack in Gibson Goofy coin

- Here coins are created by Goofy.
- The coin creation requires the signature of Goofy using secret key.
- This is paid to Alice with a valid digital signature of Goofy.
- Now Alice pays this coin to Bob by signing the statement "Pay this to Bob".
- Afterwards, Alice also pays it to Chuck.
- Now both have valid claims to this coin.
- This is called double-spending attack.

- \* Double spending occurs due to:
  - 1) No centralized ledger like in ScroogeCoin.
  - 2) No prevention mechanism.
- \* Double spending creates:
  - 1) Distrust among users.
  - 2) Devalues the authenticity of the currency.

## ⑤ \* Digital Signatures:

- Digital Signature scheme shows authenticity of the transactions or messages and helps in verifying the validity of the message.
- There are 3 key algorithms:
- 1) Key generation:
- It is used to generate a pair of keys:  $(sk, pk)$ := generateKey(key size)
- Input: Key size is given as input.
- Output: Secret key ( $sk$ ): private & used for signing.  
Public key ( $pk$ ): publicly available &
- It is necessary to process further steps.

### a) Signing:

- It is used to authenticate or sign the message.  
 $\text{sig} := \text{sign}(\text{sk}, \text{message})$
- Input: Secret key ( $\text{sk}$ )  
A message.
- Output: Digital signature created by the owner.
- The purpose is the show that the message is legitimate.

### b) Verification:

- It is used to verify the validity of the message.  
 $\text{isValid} := \text{verify}(\text{pk}, \text{msg}, \text{sig})$
- Input: public key ( $\text{pk}$ )  
A message ( $\text{msg}$ ).  
Digital signature ( $\text{sig}$ )
- Output:  $\text{isValid}$  is a boolean value. If it shows that the message is valid otherwise it is invalid.
- The purpose is the verify the security and data integrity & reliability.

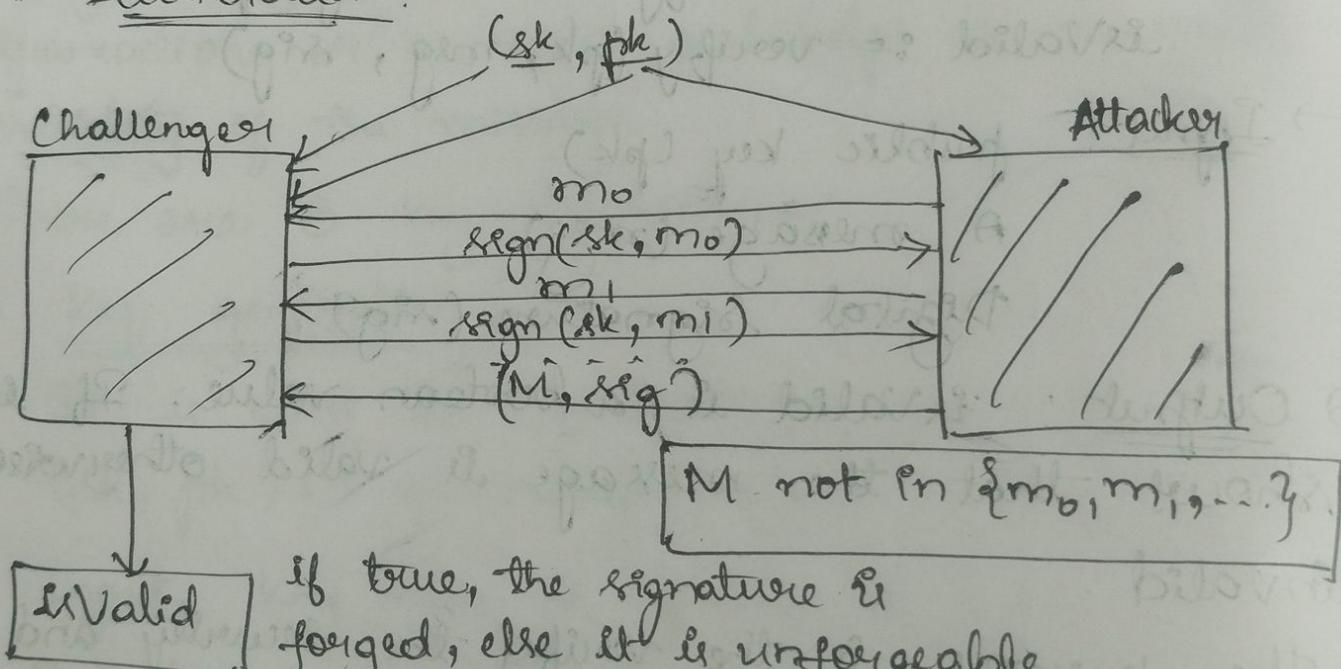
## \* Properties of Digital signatures:

- 1) Validity: It is used to determine if the message is valid and from a legitimate sender.  
 $\text{verify}(\text{pk}, \text{msg}, \text{sign}(\text{sk}, \text{msg})) = \text{true}$ .

d) Unforgeability: If the verification returns true, the message is unforgeable or it is forged. It says, <sup>that</sup> it is impossible to determine the message without the digital signature & secret key. A message can be signed only if the secret key is known.

It is not possible by knowing either:  
 → The public key  
 → Or the digital signatures of other messages.

#### \* Illustration:



#### Setup:

#### \* Digital Signature Scheme

A challenger creates 2 keys: secret and public

The attacker only has access to public key ( $pk$ )

#### Challenge:

The attacker sends a new message M along with its digital signature created by the atta

Outcome:

- If the verification of this signature return true, it implies that the signature can be forged otherwise the signature is unforgeable.
- It is intended that the challenger signs the message sent by the attacker to validate it.

Example: ECDSA (Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm).