

# CS61065: Theory and Applications of Blockchain

## Basic Crypto Primitives

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# What You'll Learn

- Basic cryptographic primitives behind the blockchain technology
  - **Cryptographically Secure Hash Function**
  - **Digital Signature**
- **Hash Function:** Used to connect the “blocks” in a “chain” in a tamper-proof way
- **Digital Signature:** Digitally sign the data so that no one can “deny” about their own activities. Also, others can check whether it is authentic.

# Cryptographic Hash Functions

- Takes any arbitrarily sized string as input
  - Input  $M$ : The message
- Fixed size output (We use 256 bits in Blockchain)
  - Output  $H(M)$ : We call this as the message digest
- Efficiently computable

# Cryptographic Hash Function: Properties

- **Deterministic**

- Always yield identical hash value for identical input data

- **Collision-Free**

- If two messages are different, then their digests also differ

- **Hiding**

- Hide the original message; remember about the **avalanche effect**

- **Puzzle-friendly**

- Given  $X$  and  $Y$ , find out  $k$  such that  $Y = H(X||k)$  - used to solve the mining puzzle in Bitcoin Proof of Work

# Collision Free

- Hash functions are one-way; Given an  $x$ , it is easy to find  $H(x)$ . However, given an  $H(x)$ , **no deterministic algorithm** can find  $x$
- It is **difficult to find**  $x$  and  $y$ , where  $x \neq y$ , but  $H(x) = H(y)$
- Note the phrase **difficult to find**, collision is **not impossible**
- Try with randomly chosen inputs to find out a collision – but it takes too long

# Collision Free – How Do We Guarantee

- It may be relatively easy to find collision for some hash functions
- **Birthday Paradox:** Find the probability that in a set of  $n$  **randomly chosen persons**, some of them will have the same birthday
  - By *Pigeonhole Principle*, the probability reaches 1 when number of people reaches 366 (not a leap year) or 367 (a leap year)
  - 0.999 probability is reached with just  $\sim 70$  people, and 0.5 probability is reached with only  $\sim 23$  people

# Collision Free – How Do We Guarantee

- Birthday paradox places an upper bound on collision resistance
- If a hash function produces  $N$  bits of output, an attacker needs to compute only  $2^{\frac{N}{2}}$  hash operations on a random input to find two matching outputs with probability  $> 0.98$
- For a 256 bit hash function, the attacker needs to compute  $2^{128}$  hash operations – this is significantly time consuming
  - If every hash computation takes only 1 microsecond, it will need  $\sim 10^{25}$  years

# Hash as A Message Digest

- If we observe  $H(x) = H(y)$ , it is safe to assume  $x = y$
- We need to remember just the hash value rather than the entire message – we call this as the **message digest**
- To check if two messages  $x$  and  $y$  are same, i. e., whether  $x = y$ , simply check if  $H(x) = H(y)$ 
  - This is efficient because the size of the digest is significantly less than the size of the original messages



# Hashing - Illustration

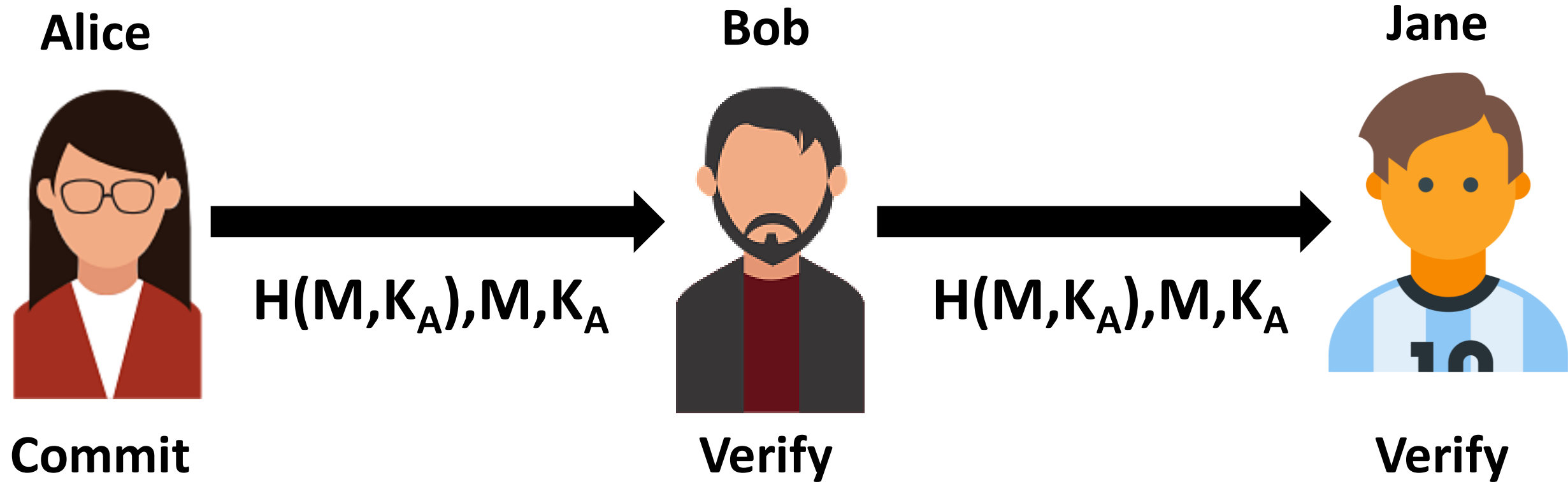
- <http://www.blockchain-basics.com/HashFunctions.html>

Courtesy: Blockchain Basics: A Non-Technical Introduction in 25 Steps by Daniel Drescher

# Information Hiding through Hash

- Given an  $H(x)$ , it is “computationally difficult” to find  $x$
- The difficulty depends on the size of the message digests
- Hiding helps to commit a value and then check it later
  - Compute the message digest and store it in a digest store – commit
  - To check whether a message has been committed, match the message digest at the digest store

# Message Commitment through Multiple Parties



$K_A$  is the public key of Alice – A public identity that only Alice can have

# Puzzle Friendly

- Say  $M$  is chosen from a widely spread distribution; it is computationally difficult to compute  $k$ , such that  $Z = H(M||k)$ , where  $M$  and  $Z$  are known a priori.
- **A Search Puzzle** (Used in Bitcoin Mining)
  - $M$  and  $Z$  are given,  $k$  is the search solution
  - Note: It might be not exactly a particular value  $Z$ , but some properties that  $Z$  satisfies, i.e.,  $Z$  could be a set of possible values
- Puzzle friendly property implies that random searching is the best strategy to solve the above puzzle

# Hash Function – SHA256

- SHA256 is used in Bitcoin mining – to construct the Bitcoin blockchain
- Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA) that generates 256 bit message digest
- A part of SHA-2, a set of cryptographic hash functions designed by United States National Security Agency (NSA)

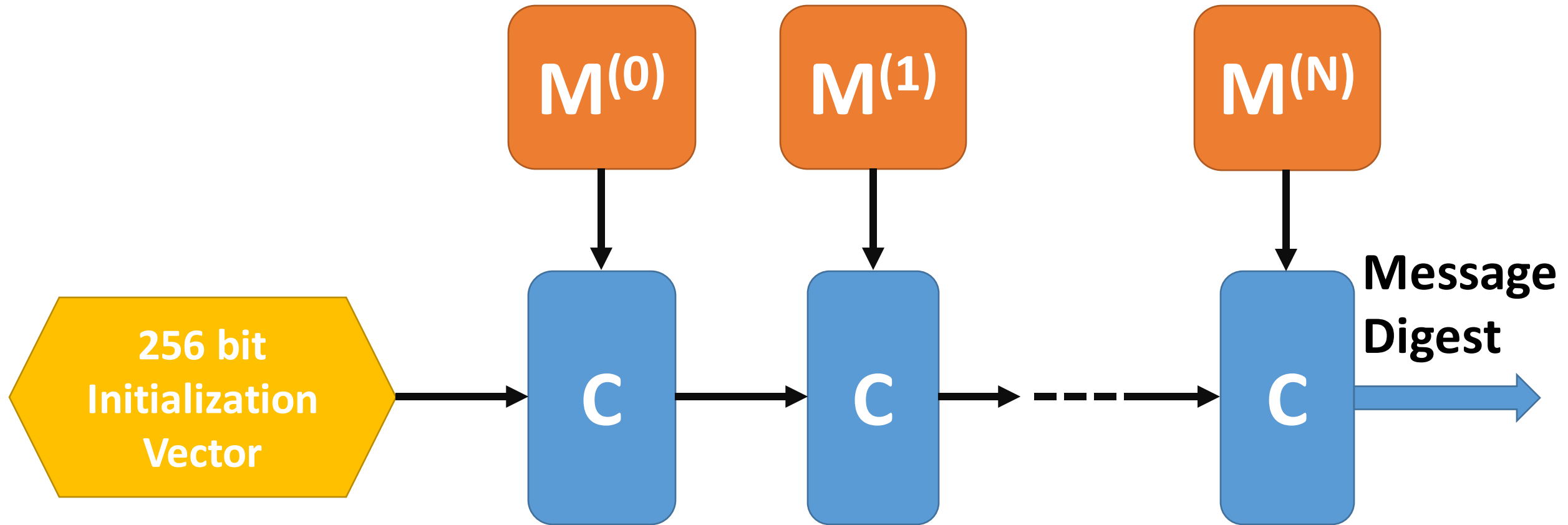
# SHA256 Algorithm - Preprocessing

- **Pad the message such that the message size is a multiple of 512**
  - Suppose that the length of the message  $M$  is  $l$ ; and  $l \bmod 512 \neq 0$
  - Append the bit “1” at the end of the message
  - Append  $k$  zero bits, where  $k$  is the smallest non-negative solution to the equation  $l + 1 + k \equiv 448 \bmod 512$
  - Append the 64-bit block which is equal to the number  $l$  written in binary
  - The total length gets divisible by 512
- **Partition the message into  $N$  512-bit blocks  $M^{(1)}, M^{(2)}, \dots, M^{(N)}$**
- **Every 512 bit block is further divided into 32 bit sub-blocks  $M_0^{(i)}, M_1^{(i)}, \dots, M_{15}^{(i)}$**

# SHA-256 Algorithm

- The message blocks are processed one at a time
- Start with a fix initial hash value  $H^{(0)}$
- Sequentially compute  $H^{(i)} = H^{(i-1)} + C_{M^{(i)}}(H^{(i-1)})$ ;  $C$  is the SHA-256 *compression function* and  $+$  means mod  $2^{32}$  addition.  $H^{(N)}$  is the hash of  $M$ .

# SHA-256 Algorithm





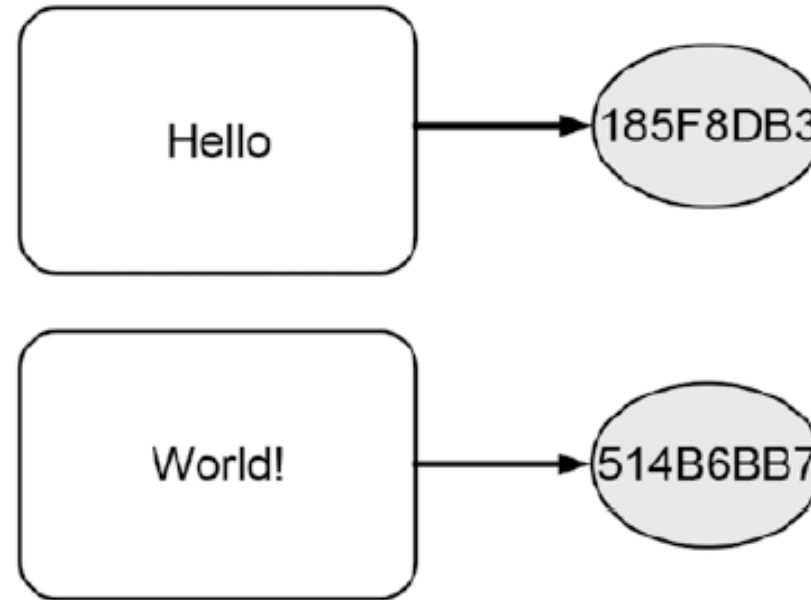
# Patterns of Hashing Data

- Independent hashing
- Repeated hashing
- Combined hashing
- Sequential hashing
- Hierarchical hashing

Courtesy: Blockchain Basics: A Non-Technical Introduction in 25 Steps by Daniel Drescher

# Types of Hashing

- Independent hashing

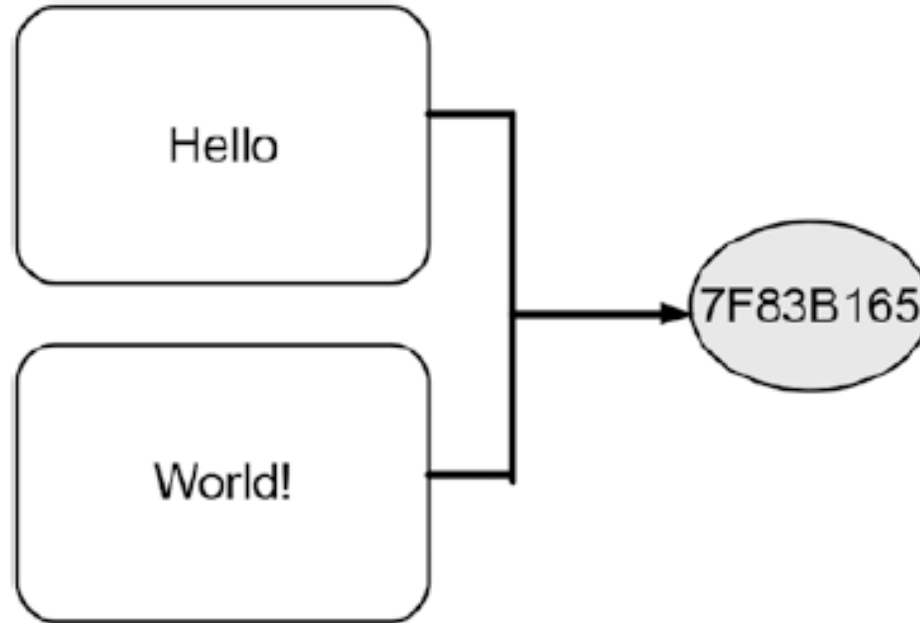


- Repeated hashing

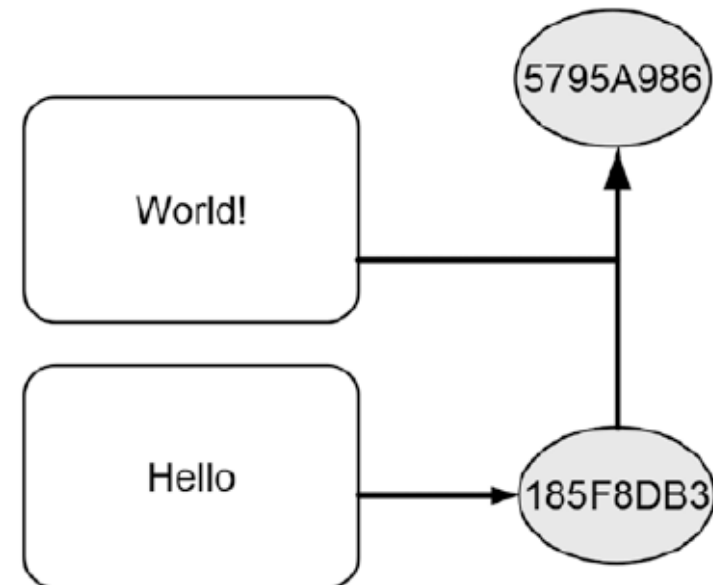


# Types of Hashing

- Combined hashing

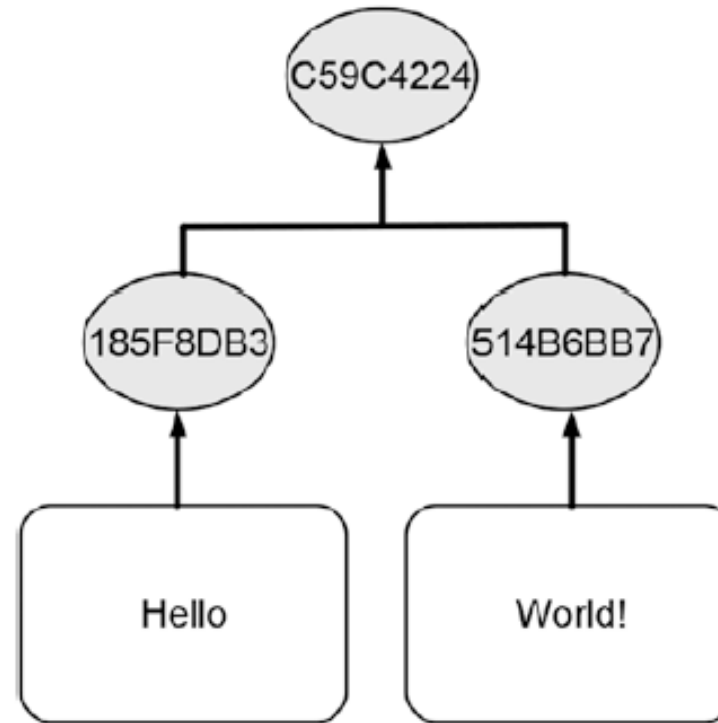


- Sequential hashing



# Types of Hashing

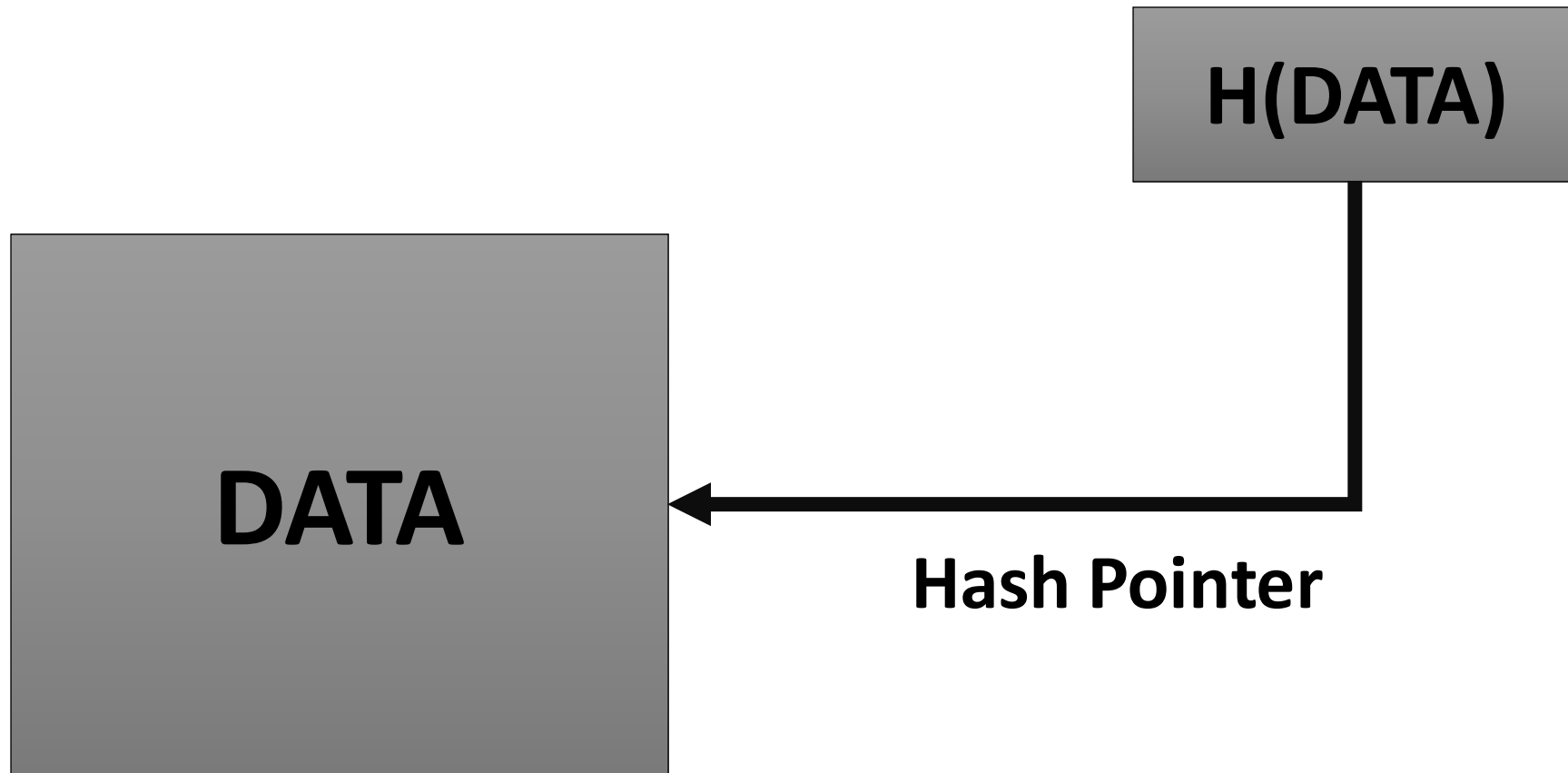
- Hierarchical hashing



# Hash Pointer

- A **Cryptographic Hash Pointer** (Often called Hash Reference) is a pointer to a location where
  - Some information is stored
  - Hash of the information is stored
- With the hash pointer, we can
  - Retrieve the information
  - Check that the information has not been modified (by computing the message digest and then matching the digest with the stored hash value)

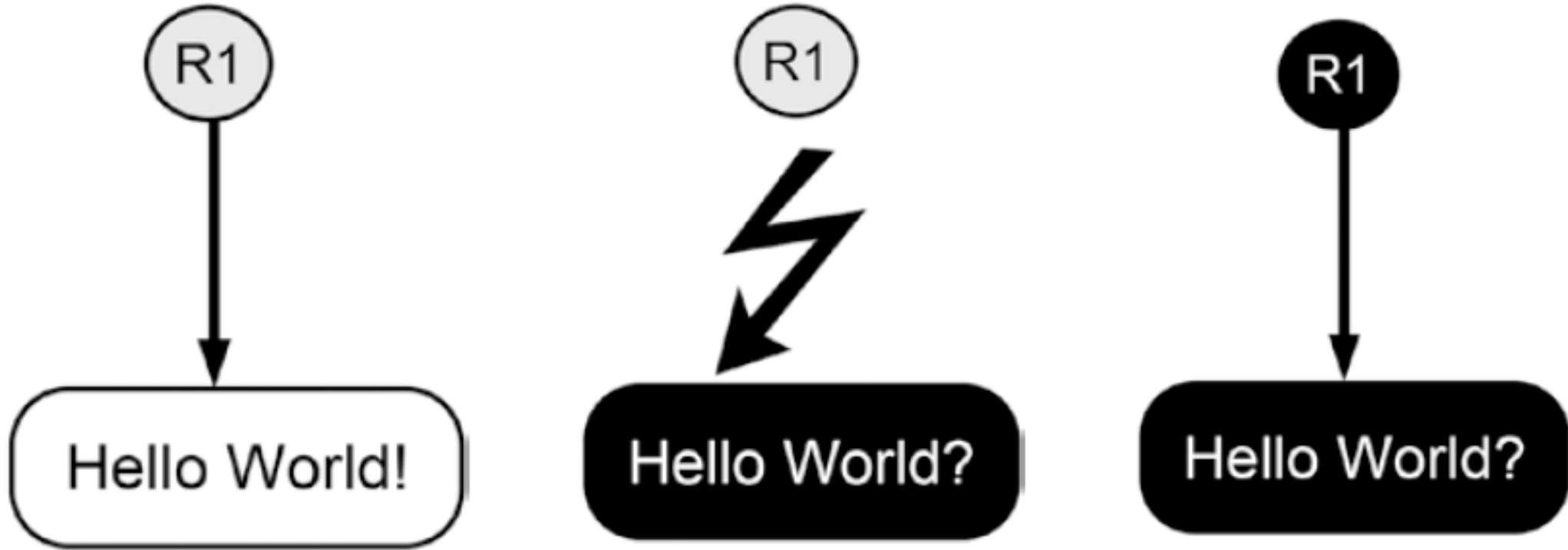
# Hash Pointer



Reminds you of a linked list??

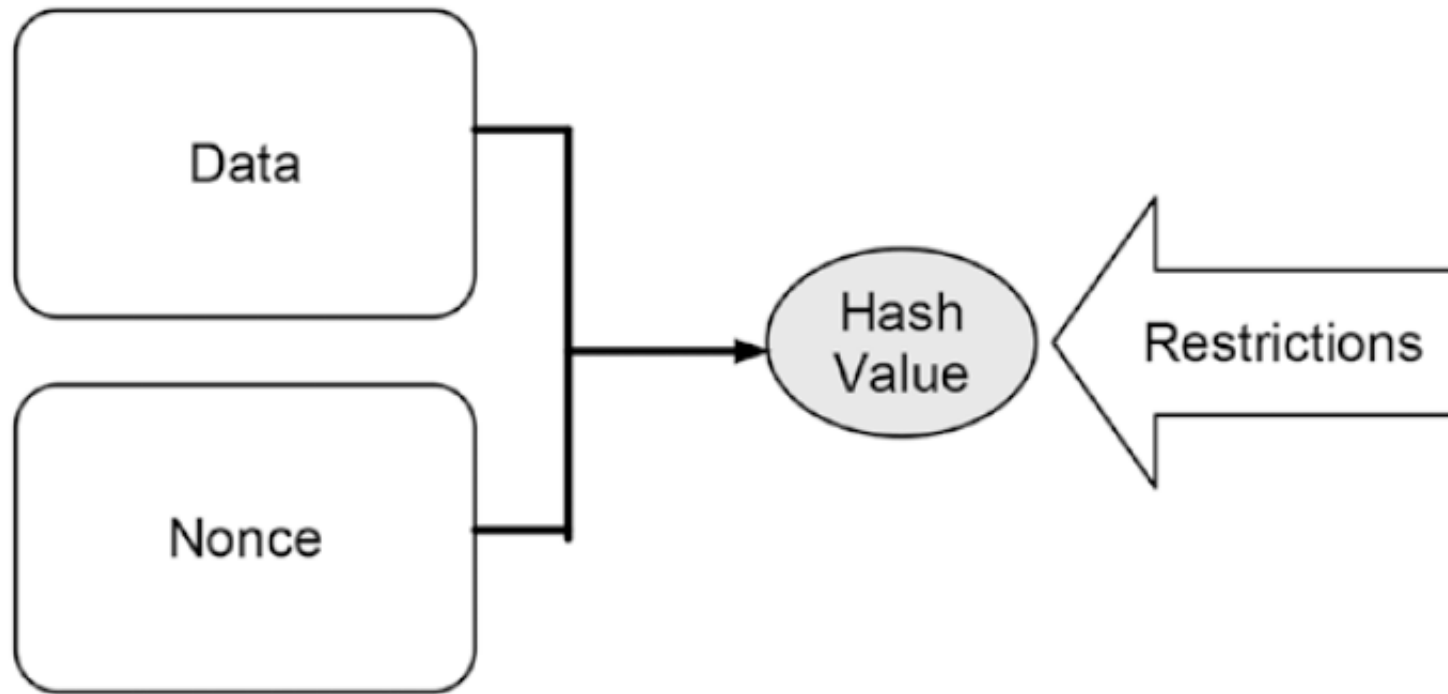
Reference: Coursera course on Bitcoin and Cryptocurrency Technologies

# Tamper Detection using Hash Pointer



Courtesy: Blockchain Basics: A Non-Technical Introduction in 25 Steps by Daniel Drescher

# Making Tampering a Hash Chain Computationally Challenging



Nonces for Solving a Hash Puzzle

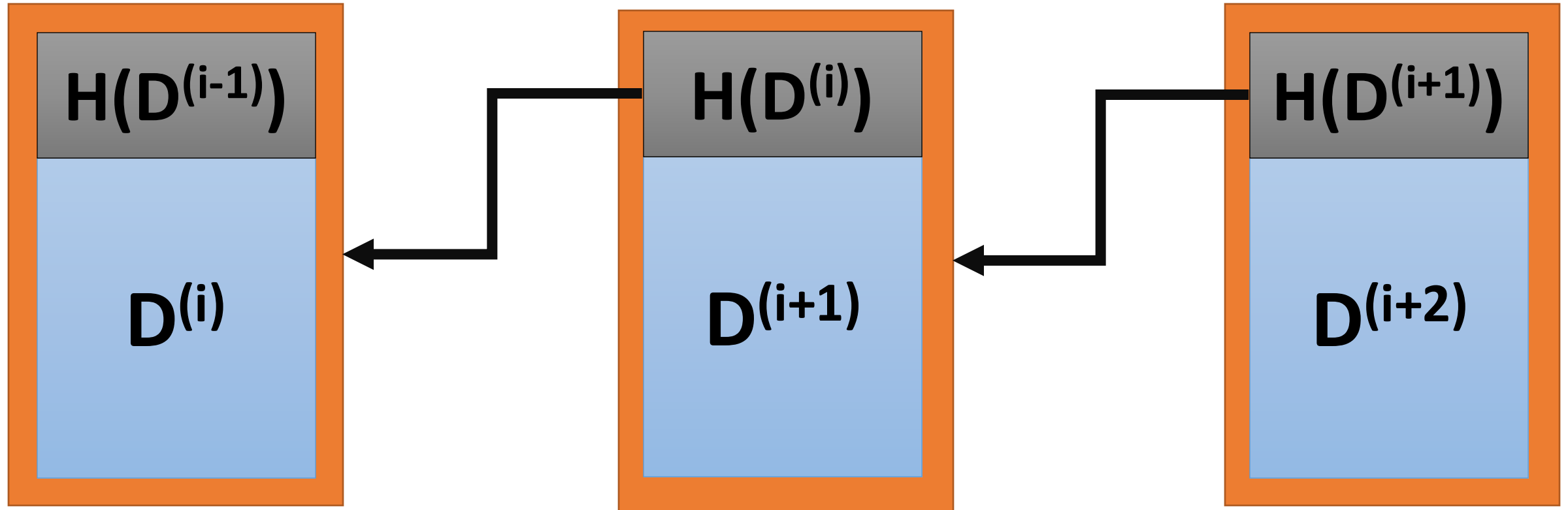
Nonce	Text to Be Hashed	Output
0	Hello World! 0	4EE4B774
1	Hello World! 1	3345B9A3
2	Hello World! 2	72040842
3	Hello World! 3	02307D5F
...		
613	Hello World! 613	E861901E
614	Hello World! 614	<b>00068A3C</b>
615	Hello World! 615	5EB7483F

<http://www.blockchain-basics.com/HashFunctions.html>

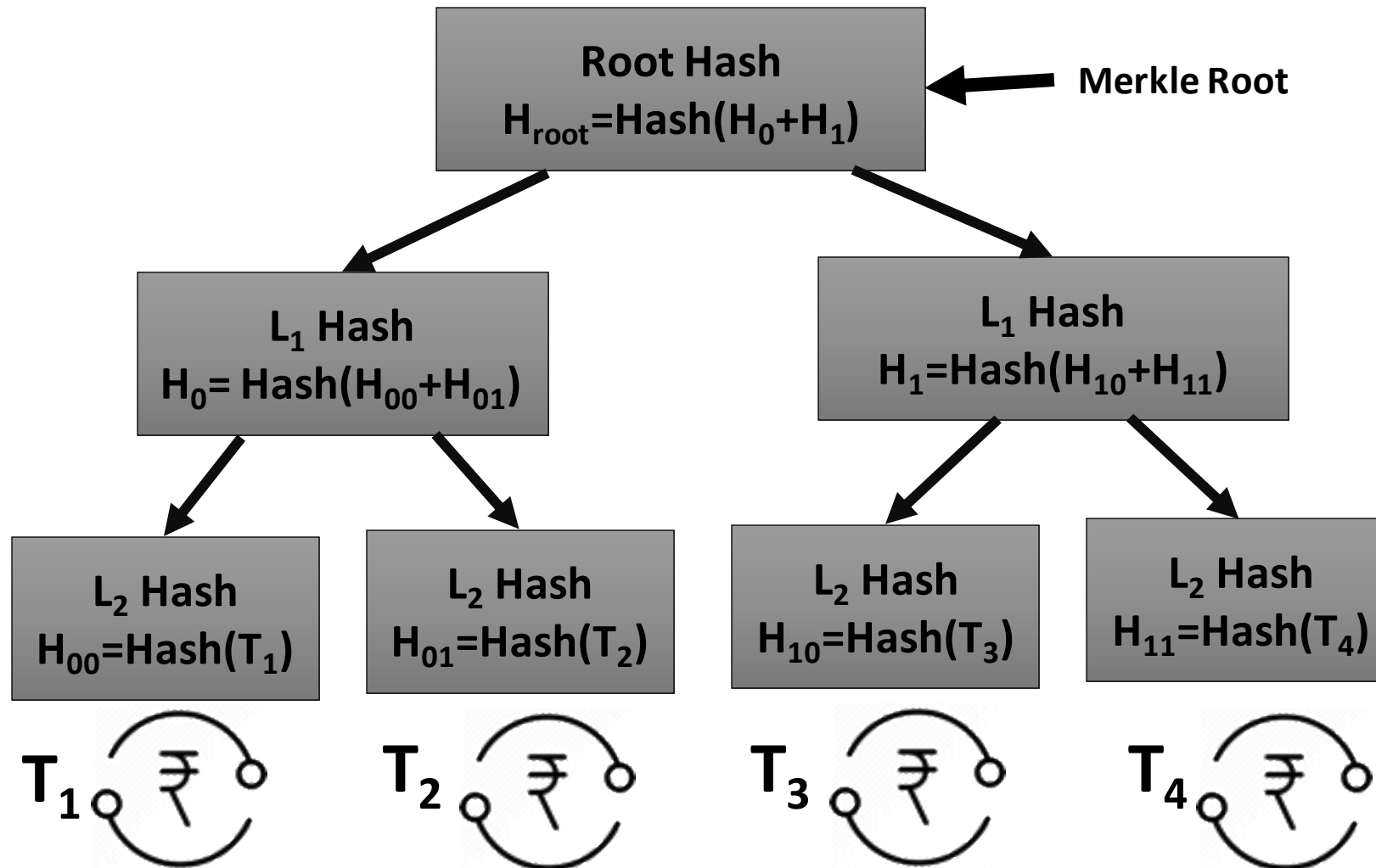
Courtesy: Blockchain Basics: A Non-Technical Introduction in 25 Steps by Daniel Drescher



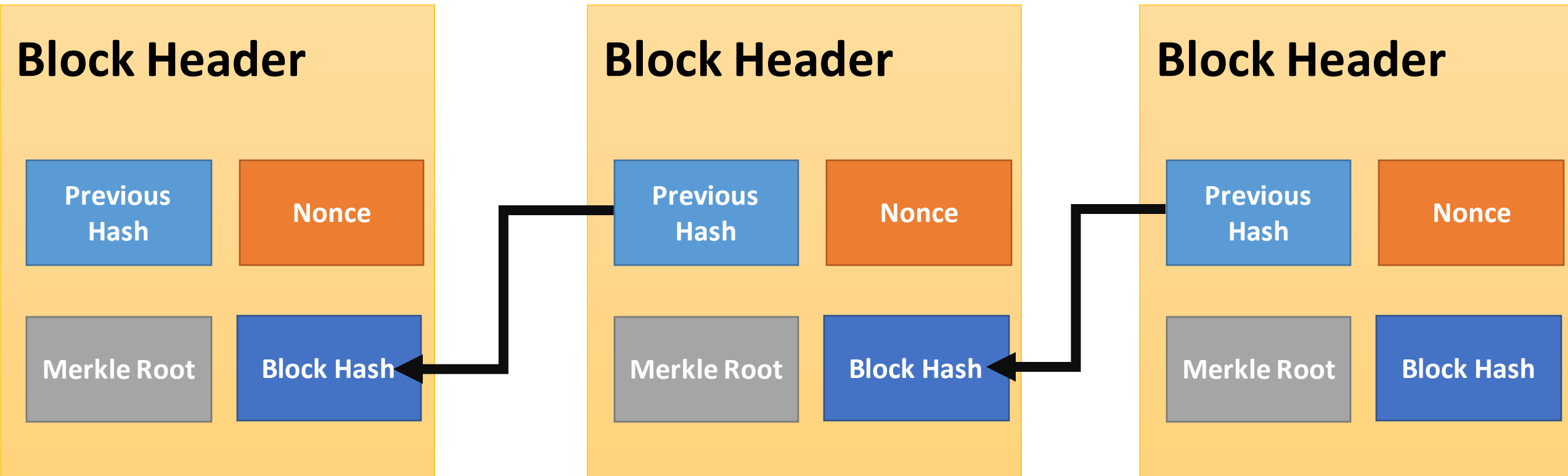
# Detect Tampering from Hash Pointers - Hashchain



# Merkle Tree – Organization of Hash Pointers in a Tree



# Blockchain as a Hashchain



# Digital Signature

- A **digital code**, which can be included with an electronically transmitted document to verify
  - The content of the document is authenticated
  - The identity of the sender
  - Prevent *non-repudiation* – sender will not be able to deny about the origin of the document

# Purpose of Digital Signature

- Only the **signing authority** can sign a document, but everyone can verify the signature
- Signature is **associated with** the particular document
  - Signature of one document cannot be transferred to another document



# Public Key Cryptography

- Also known as **asymmetrical cryptography** or **asymmetric key cryptography**
- **Key:** A parameter that determines the functional output of a cryptography algorithm
  - **Encryption:** The key is used to convert a plain-text to a cypher-text;  $M' = E(M, k)$
  - **Decryption:** The key is used to convert the cypher-text to the original plain text;  $M = D(M', k)$

# Public Key Cryptography

- Properties of a cryptographic key (you need to prevent it from being guessed)
  - Generate the key truly randomly so that the attacker cannot guess it
  - The key should be of sufficient length – increasing the length makes the key difficult to guess
  - The key should contain sufficient entropy, all the bits in the key should be equally random

# Public Key Cryptography

- Two keys are used
  - **Private key:** Only Alice has her private key
  - **Public key:** “Public” to everyone – everyone knows Alice’s public key



Encrypt the  
message with  
Bob's public key

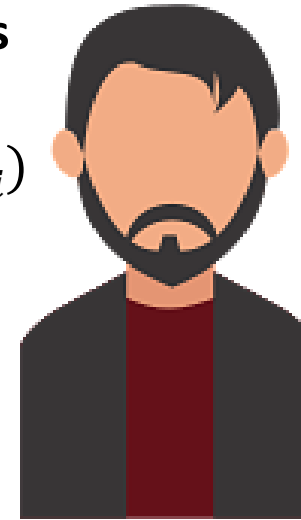
$$M' = E(M, K_{pub}^B)$$



$M'$

Decrypt the  
message with his  
private key

$$M = E(M', K_{pri}^B)$$





# Public Key Encryption - RSA

- Named over (Ron) Rivest – (Adi) Shamir – (Leonard) Adleman – inventors of the public key cryptosystem
- The encryption key is public and decryption key is kept secret (private key)
  - Anyone can encrypt the data
  - Only the intended receiver can decrypt the data

# RSA Algorithm

- Four phases
  - Key generation
  - Key distribution
  - Encryption
  - Decryption

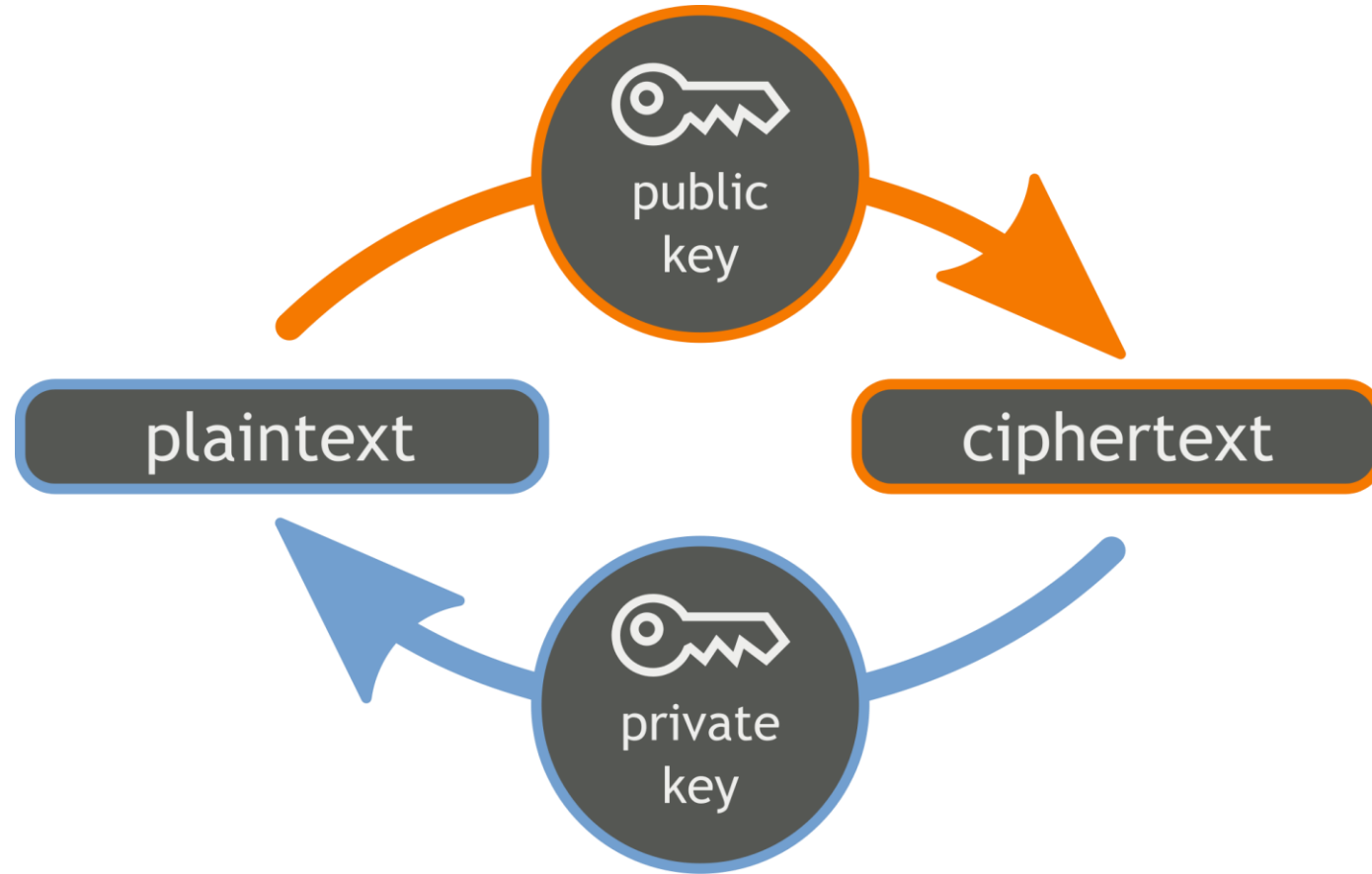


Image source:

<https://commons.wikimedia.org/>

# Public and Private Keys in RSA

- It is feasible to find **three very large positive integers**  $e$ ,  $d$  and  $n$ ; such that *modular exponentiation* for integers  $m$  ( $0 \leq m < n$ ):

$$(m^e)^d \equiv m \pmod{n}$$

- Even if you know  $e$ ,  $n$  and  $m$ ; it is extremely difficult to find  $d$
- Note that

$$(m^e)^d \equiv m \pmod{n} = (m^d)^e \equiv m \pmod{n}$$

- $(e, n)$  is used as the public key and  $(d, n)$  is used as the private key.  $m$  is the message that needs to be encrypted.

# RSA Key Generation and Distribution

- Chose two distinct prime integer numbers  $p$  and  $q$ 
  - $p$  and  $q$  should be chosen at random to ensure tight security
- Compute  $n = pq$ ;  $n$  is used as the modulus, the length of  $n$  is called the key length
- Compute  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$  – *Euler totient function*
- Choose an integer  $e$  such that  $1 < e < \phi(n)$  and  $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$ ;  $e$  and  $\phi(n)$  are co-prime
- Determine  $d = e^{-1}(\text{mod } \phi(n))$  :  $d$  is the *modular multiplicative inverse* of  $e(\text{mod } \phi(n))$  [Note  $d \cdot e = 1(\text{mod } \phi(n))$ ]

# RSA Encryption and Decryption

- Let  $m$  be the integer representation of a message  $M$ .
- **Encryption with public key  $(e, n)$**   
$$c \equiv m^e \pmod{n}$$
- **Decryption with private key  $(d, n)$**   
$$m \equiv c^d \pmod{n} \equiv (m^e)^d \pmod{n}$$

# RSA Encryption and Decryption - Example

## Key Selection

- Select 2 prime numbers:  $p=17$ ,  $q=11$
- Calculate  $n=pq=17\times 11=187$
- Calculate  $\phi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)=16\times 10=160$
- Select  $e$  such that  $e$  is relatively prime to  $\phi(n)=160$  and less than  $\phi(n)$ ; Let  $e=7$
- Determine  $d$  such that  $d.e \equiv 1 \pmod{160}$  and  $d < 160$ ; Can determine  $d = 23$  since  $23 \times 7 = 161 = 1 \times 160 + 1$

## Encryption of Plaintext $M = 88$

- $C = 88^7 \pmod{187}$
- $= [(88^4 \pmod{187}) \times (88^2 \pmod{187}) \times (88^1 \pmod{187})] \pmod{187} = (88 \times 77 \times 132) \pmod{187} = 11$

## Decryption of Ciphertext $C = 11$

- $M = 11^{23} \pmod{187}$
- $= [(11^1 \pmod{187}) \times (11^2 \pmod{187}) \times (11^4 \pmod{187}) \times (11^8 \pmod{187}) \times (11^8 \pmod{187})] \pmod{187}$
- $= (11 \times 121 \times 55 \times 33 \times 33) \pmod{187} = (79720245) \pmod{187} = 88$

# RSA Encryption and Decryption - Demo

- <https://www.devglan.com/online-tools/rsa-encryption-decryption>

# Digital Signature using Public Key Cryptography

- **Sign the message using the Private key**
  - Only Alice can know her private key
- **Verify the signature using the Public key**
  - Everyone has Alice's public key and they can verify the signature



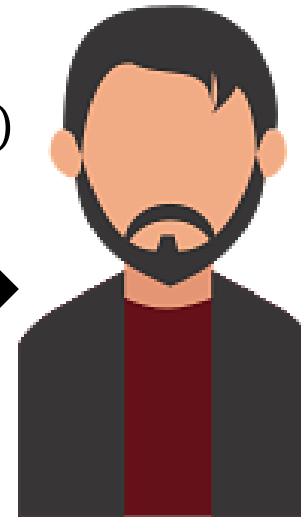
Sign the message  
with her private  
key

$$M' = E(M, K_{pri}^A)$$



$M, M'$

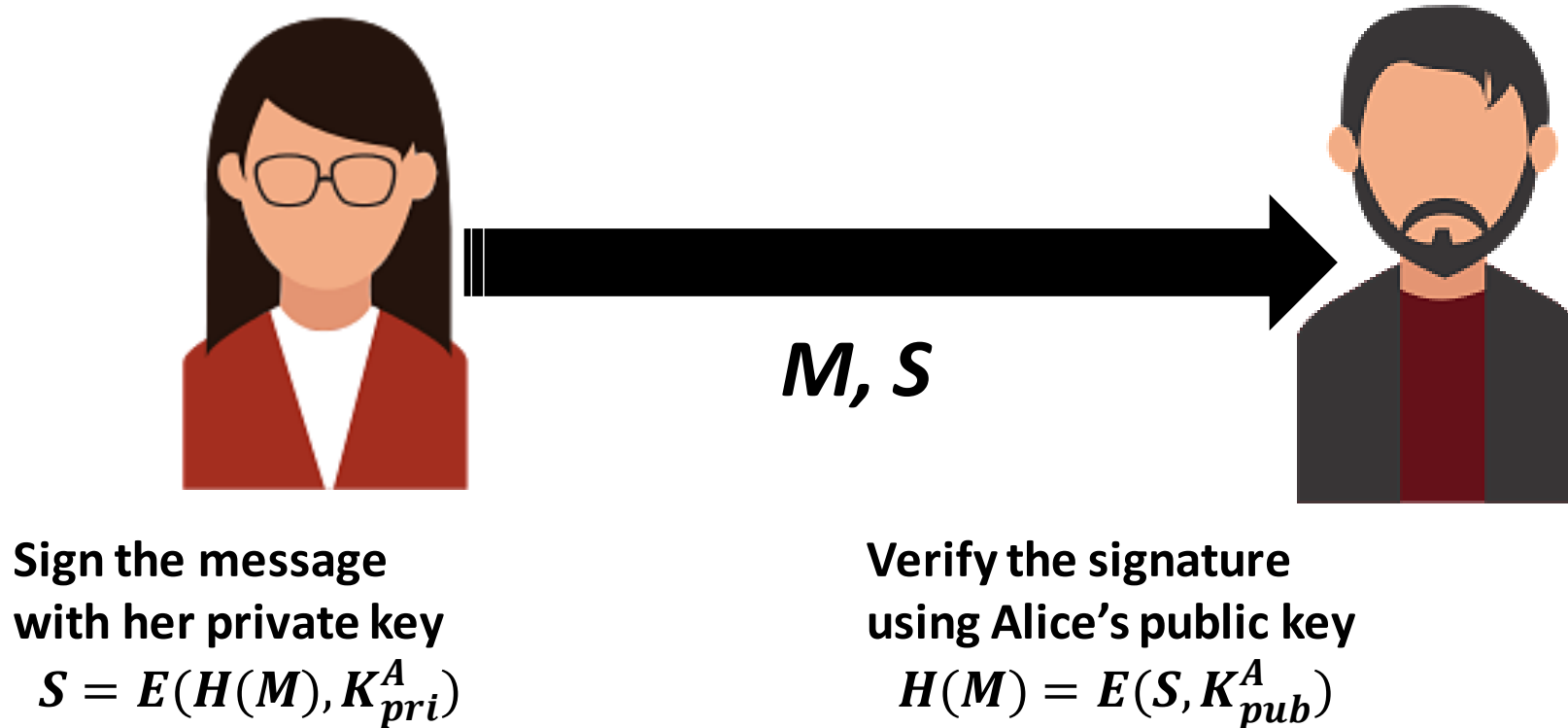
Verify the  
signature using  
Alice's public key  
 $M = E(M', K_{pub}^A)$





# Reduce the Signature Size

- Use the message digest to sign, instead of the original message



# Digital Signature in Blockchain

- Used to validate the origin of a transaction
  - Prevent non-repudiation
    - Alice cannot deny her own transactions
    - No one else can claim Alice's transaction as his/her own transaction
- Bitcoin uses *Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)*
  - Based on elliptic curve cryptography
  - Supports good randomness in key generation

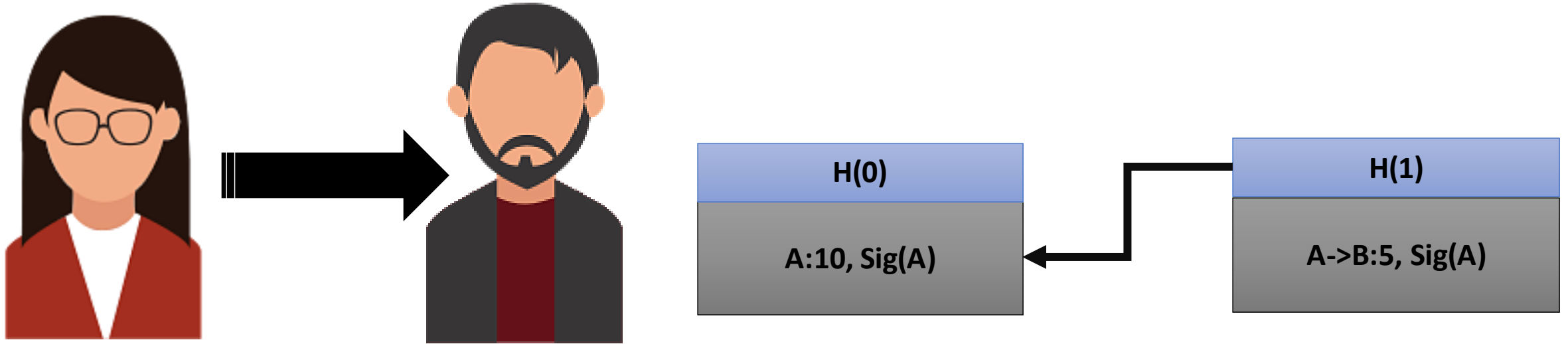
# A Cryptocurrency using Hashchain and Digital Signatures



A:10, Sig(A)

- Alice generates 10 coins
- Sign the transaction A:10 using Alice's private key and put that in the blockchain

# A Cryptocurrency using Hashchain and Digital Signatures



- Alice transfers 5 coins to Bob
- Sign the transaction A-B:5 using Alice's private key and put that in the blockchain

# A Cryptocurrency using Hashchain and Digital Signatures

- Maintain the economy
  - Generate new coins with time
  - Delete old coins with time
- A central authority like bank can create and destroy coins based on economic policies
- **Crucial Question:** How can we distribute coin management (creation and destroy)

thank you!