DATA PRIVACY AND SECURITY

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CHAPTER 7: Alternative Currencies

Alternative Currencies





Drawbacks of Bitcoin

- PoW perspective
 - High energy consumption
 - Advantage for people with dedicated hardware
- Transactions perspective
 - Scripts are not Turing complete
 - Lack of real anonymity



Natural Questions

- PoW without mining in hardware?
- Energy-efficient PoW?
- PoW doing something **useful**?
- PoW without mining pools?
- Cryptocurrency with real anonymity?
- Cryptocurrency with **Turing-complete** scripts?
- Other uses of blockchain technologies?



Ethereum

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How to Order a Murder?



A Bad Solution



Idea: What if we use some smart technology?



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Murder Contract



1000 BTC if Bob **provides a proof** that Alice is killed within the next hour



E.g., a signed article from some press agency or an authenticated data feed Maybe Bob just gets lucky. So add more details, like "using a .44 Magnum Remington gun."

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Two Technical Problems

- Such conditions are impossible to express using Bitcoin syntax
- A separate contract is needed for every potential hitman
- Solution: Use Ethereum
 - A currency designed for doing smart contracts
 - Contracts can be **posted on the blockchain** and give money to anyone who provides a solution
 - Allows to create **arbitrarily complicated contracts**



Promises of Ethereum

- The world computer
- Build decentralized applications (DAPPs)
- Trustless & secure smart contracts



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Problems with Bitcoin





Ethereum: Some History



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Ethereum Virtual Machine (EVM)

- Contracts are written in higher-level languages
 - Solidity (Javascipt)
 - Serpent (Python)
 - LLL (Lisp)
- EVM: Low-level, stack-based bytecode language
 - Run by every Ethereum node
 - Contracts need to be compiled before deployment
 - Turing complete



Gas

- Users/contracts can run arbitrary EVM code
- Every EVM operation has a certain cost (gas)

	OP Code	Gas	Description
	0x01 ADD	3	Add two values
	0x06 MOD	5	Modulo Operation
	0x20 SHA3	30	Calculate Keccak-256 of a value
	Oxf0 CREATE	40	Create a new EOA/ contract address

- If execution requires more gas than the user sent, all changes are reverted but fee goes to the miner
- The gas price is determined by free market



Accounts

- Basic building block of the Ethereum blockchain
- An account can either be externally owned (EOA) or a contract account









State

 Additionally to the blockchain Ethereum has a concept of state



- State can be computed from the blockchain
- Transactions change the state





Ethereum Blockchain

- Block creation in Ethereum is approx. 15 sec – Problem: Orphan blocks
- An orphan, or stale block:
 - Happens if 2 blocks are found at the same time
 - In Bitcoin: Only one block is accepted into the blockchain
 - In Ethereum: Orphans can be included in the blockchain as uncles
- Ethereum uses a modification of the GHOST protocol



GHOST Protocol

- Goal: Neutralize network lag/centralization
 - A miner gets 12.5% of block reward for every orphan
 - Uncles cannot be older than 7 blocks
 - Max. 2 uncles allowed per block



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Ethash

- Ethereum's PoW Algorithm (Ethash) is believed to be memory hard
- Generate a Directed Acylic Graph every 30000 blocks (approx. 5.2 days)
 - Needs to be precomputed
 - Computing PoW requires lookups in the DAG
 - Not needed for verification





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Comparison with Bitcoin

- Language
 - Script vs **EVM**
- Data
 - Blockchain vs blockchain + state
 - Unspent transactions vs accounts
- Unit
 - Bitcoin vs Ether
 - Transaction fees vs gas



Litecoin

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Litecoin

- Released in October 2011 by Charles Lee
- Replaces SHA256 with scrypt hash function
 - C. Percival. "Strong key derivation in sequential memory-hard functions." 2009
- Main idea: Make a function whose computation requires a lot of memory
 - So it's hard to implement in hardware
 - Proposed to counter offline password guessing
 - Market Cap \approx 2 billion EUR (1 LTC \approx 30 EUR)

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The scrypt function

• Initialization phase:

$$V_0 = X \longrightarrow V_1 = \mathbf{H}(X) \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow V_{N-1} = \mathbf{H}(V_{N-2})$$

$$V_0 \quad V_1 \quad V_2 \quad V_3 \quad V_4 \quad V_5 \quad V_6 \quad V_7 \quad V_8 \quad V_9$$

• Second phase:

$$Y = \mathbf{H}(V_{N-1})$$

For $i = 0, ..., N - 1$
 $j := Y \mod N$
 $Y := \mathbf{H}(Y \bigoplus V_j)$
Output Y

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The Result of Percival

- It can be **computed** in time O(N)
- To compute it one needs time T and maximum space S such that $S \cdot T \in \Omega(N^2)$
 - Even on a parallel machines





Observation by Alwen-Serbinenko

- Not a very strong bound
- Adversary computing scrypt in parallel can amortize space



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Cumulative Memory Complexity

 The right definition: Sum of memory actually used at each point in time



 Alwen et al. (2016): scrypt is maximally memory hard

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Proofs of Stake

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Proofs of Stake (1/2)

- Bitcoin can be seen as running a lottery
 - Probability of winning proportional to fraction of computing power
 - The winner is in charge of proposing the next block
- Main idea: Make the probability of winning proportional to the money (or stake) associated to each public key
 - I.e., shares of coins \approx voting power



Proofs of Stake (2/2)

- People who have the money are naturally interested in the **stability** of the currency
- Assumption: Honest Majority of Money
 - Money can be used in particular to buy computational power!

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Challenges

- How to prevent mining on many chains?
 - Since little computational effort is required, stakeholders might work simultaneously on different chains ("There is nothing at stake!")
- How to prevent grinding?
 - The attacker can try to influence the lottery to improve its chance of being the leader
- How to distribute initial money?
- How to incentivize coin owners to extend the chain?



Grinding

- Running the lottery requires randomness
- Simple idea: Hash the blockchain and use the outcome to select a random coin which corresponds to the winner
 - Assume for simplicity each public key owns 1 coin



Rejection Sampling

 Assume that at some point the attacker is elected as the leader



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RESEARCH

PoS Blockchains with Provable Guarantees

• Ouroboros (Kiayias et al., 2017)

- Generate clean randomness using cryptography

 Snow White (Bentov et al., 2019) and Ouroboros Praos (David et al., 2018)

– Use hashing in a careful manner

- Algorand (Chen and Micali, 2017)
 - Also based on hashing but follows a completely different approach



Ouroboros: Synchronous Setting

- Time is divided in rounds (also called slots)
 - Messages sent to honest parties are delivered by the end of the slot
- Messages sent through a diffusion mechanism
- The attacker is rushing and may — Spoof/Inject/Re-order messages
- Assumptions
 - Adversary controls minority of stake and subject to corruption delay
 - Stake shifts at bounded rate



Ouroboros: Static Stake



Example Dynamics



- Attacker's advantages (w.r.t. PoW)
 - Sees leaders scheduling ahead of time
 - It can generate multiple different blocks for the same slot at any time and without any cost


Forkable Strings (1/2)

- Extreme case: Two disjoint paths with the same maximum length
 - Call **forkable** a characteristic string where this happens

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Forkable Strings (2/2)

• Theorem: No string of density $\leq 1/3$ is forkable and all strings of density $\geq 1/2$ are forkable

– But we want resilience against $1/2 - \varepsilon$ corruptions

• Theorem: Draw $w = (w_1, ..., w_n)$ from the Binomial distribution with parameter $1/2 - \varepsilon$. Then $\mathbb{P}[w \text{ is forkable}] \leq e^{-\Omega(n)}$



Ouroboros: Dynamic Stake



The Final Result



• Incentives:

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- A reward mechanism is introduced for which
 Ouroboros can be proven to yield an approximate
 Nash equilibrium
- In contrast Bitcoin is not incentive compatible!



Algorand

- Developed by a team led by Silvio Micali
- Main goals:
 - Truly distributed and no concentration of power (all users are equal)
 - Green (no waste of computation)
 - No forks (except with probability, say, 10^{-18})
 - Scalability (bottleneck is network latency)



Adversarial Model

- The adversary can immediately corrupt any honest user he wants
 - Perfect coordination among corrupted users
- Communication model
 - Message gossipping over complete, asynchronous network (attacker sees all good-to-bad messages)
 - Message sent by honest user reaches 95% of honest users (with some latency)
- Assumptions

- Honest majority of stake and bounded stake shifts





Sortition

- In each round different users are selected
 - <u>Leader</u>: Assembles and propagates the next block
 - <u>Set of verifiers</u>: Need to reach agreement on the block proposed by the (possibly dishonest) leader



Secret Cryptographic Sortition (1/4)

- Sortition needs to be automatic and random
 - Main idea: Use a special quantity Q_r associated to the last block B_{r-1}
 - Hard for the adversary to **predict** who the leader is
- Problem: If the outcome L_r , SV_r is **publicly** verifiable, the adversary can corrupt all users
 - Make the outcome secret
 - Each user obtains a **credential** allowing him to prove he was selected as part of L_r , SV_r

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Secret Cryptographic Sortition (2/4)

- Unique signatures: Every message has **only one** valid signature (even under malicious *pk*)
 - Let $\mathbf{sig}_i(m) = \mathbf{S}(sk_i, \mathbf{H}(m))$ for hash function \mathbf{H} and auxiliary signature algorithm \mathbf{S} , and $\mathbf{SIG}_i(m) = (i, m, \mathbf{sig}_i(m))$
- Both the set of verifiers and the leader are selected randomly between the users already in the system k rounds before r



Secret Cryptographic Sortition (3/4)

• The leader of round *r* is the user *i* for which

$$. \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{SIG}_i(r, 1, Q_{r-1})) \le p$$

- The quantity $H(SIG_i(r, 1, Q_{r-1}))$ is uniquely associated to (i, r)
- Only user *i* can verify that he is the leader, but given credentials $\sigma_i^r = \mathbf{SIG}_i(r, i, Q_{r-1}))$ everybody can check *i* is the leader
- Probability p so that **at least one** potential leader is honest



Secret Cryptographic Sortition (1/3)

• Set of verifiers for step *s* of round *r*:

$$. \mathbf{H} \big(\mathbf{SIG}_i(r, s, Q_{r-1}) \big) \le p'$$

- Only user *i* can check he is elected but given $\sigma_i^{r,s} = (\mathbf{SIG}_i(r, s, Q_{r-1}))$ everybody can check that
- Verifier $i \in SV_{r,s}$ sends message $m_i^{r,s}$ including $\sigma_i^{r,s}$
- Probability p' chosen so that **at least** 2/3 of the verifiers are honest (proportional to the stake)



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Byzantine Agreement

- After the leader is selected it propagates the proposed block to the verifiers in SV_i
 - The verifiers need to agree on the proposed block
 - This is achieved via a protocol for so-called
 Byzantine Agreement (BA)
 - M. Pease, R. Shostak, L. Lamport. "Reaching agreement in the presence of faults." 1980
- The agreed upon block is then certified via digital signatures and propagated to the network



The Byzantine Generals Problem

- Generals need to decide to attack/retreat
- If some attack and some not they lose (and get killed by the Sultan)
- Main problem: Cheaters
 - Can trick honest generals
- <u>Classical setting</u>: Number of parties is fixed, and parties are connected by point-wise bidirectional channels



Problem Statement

- Total of *n* parties connected by p2p network
- Maximum t < n parties are malicious
- Input: Each party P_i inputs bit b_i
- **<u>Output</u>**: Each party P_i outputs bit \tilde{b}_i





- <u>Termination</u>: Protocol terminates after finitely many rounds
 - Typically poly(n) (optimal is constant)
- <u>Agreement</u>: All honest parties agree on the same output

– I.e., if P_i , P_j are both honest we have $\tilde{b}_i = \tilde{b}_j$

 <u>Consistency</u>: If initial values of honest players are identical, they decide on that value

– I.e., if
$$b_i = b$$
 for all honest P_i , each of them outputs $\tilde{b}_i = b$



Observations

- Trivial to achieve consistency or agreement in isolation
 - <u>Agreement:</u> 0 0 Output 0 Output 0 Output 0 - Consistency: 0 Output b_3 Output b_1 Output b_2





Facts on Byzantine Agreement (1/3)

- At least t rounds are necessary to deterministically tolerate t corruptions
- Can tolerate $O(\sqrt{n})$ corruptions in O(1) rounds, via **probabilism**
 - M. Rabin. "Randomized Byzantine generals." 1983



Facts on Byzantine Agreement (2/3)

- And in fact even n/4 corruptions in expected
 O(1) rounds (via complex protocol)
 - P. Feldman and S. Micali. "An optimal probabilistic algorithm for synchronous byzantine agreement." 1988
- Without assuming a PKI Byzantine agreement is impossible iff t < n/3
 - D. Dolev and H.R. Strong. "Authenticated algorithms for Byzantine agreement." 1983



Facts on Byzantine Agreement (3/3)

- <u>Domain Extension</u>: Given BA protocol for bits, can costruct BA protocol for arbitrary values (with overhead of 2 rounds)
 - R. Turpin and B. Coan. "Extending binary Byzantine agreement to multivalued Byzantine agreement." 1984



Broadcast versus Byzantine Agreement

- Theorem: If t < n/2 broadcast implies Byzantine agreement
- Design protocol for Byzantine agreement
 - All parties send input b_i
 - Each party outputs majority of received values
 - <u>Agreement</u>: All P_i receive same message via broadcast channel (majority uniquely defined)
 - <u>Consistency</u>: If all honest parties start with same input b than all honest parties output b



Let's Focus on Broadcast!

- Setup: Total of n parties with sender P_s for some $s \in [n]$, out of which t < n malicious
 - Only sender has input
 - Honest players decide on output \tilde{b}_i
- <u>Termination</u>: Protocol terminates after finite number of rounds
- Agreement: For all honest P_i , P_j , then $\tilde{b}_i = \tilde{b}_j$
- Consistency: If P_s is honest, all honest parties P_i output $\tilde{b}_i = b_s$



Dolev-Strong Protocol

- Goal: Implement broadcast using PKI
- Building block: Digital signatures
- Variables maintained by each P_i
 - $-ACC_i$: set of accepted values
 - $-SET_{i,0}$: set of signatures received from other parties on message 0
 - $-SET_{i,1}$: set of signatures received from other parties on message 1
- Protocol proceeds in 3 stages

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Stage 1 (Round r = 0)

- Only the sender *P_s* is active
- All parties initialize

$$ACC_i = SET_{i,0} = SET_{i,1} = \emptyset$$

- P_s sends $(v, \sigma = \mathbf{S}(sk_s, v))$ to everybody
- Finally P_s terminates and outputs v



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Stage 2 (Round r = 1, 2, 3, ...)

• If P_i receives (v', SET) from P_j with $v' \in \{0,1\}$ and where SET contains **valid** signatures on v'from at least r parties (including P_s), then

$$-ACC_{i} = ACC_{i} \cup \{v'\}$$

$$-SET_{i,v'} = SET_{i,v'} \cup SET$$

$$(v', SET)$$

$$ACC_{2} = ACC_{2} \cup \{v'\}$$

$$SET_{2,v'} = SET_{2,v'} \cup SET$$

$$ACC_{3} = ACC_{3} \cup \{v'\}$$

$$SET_{3,v'} = SET_{3,v'} \cup SET$$





Stage 2 (Round r = 1, 2, 3, ...)

- Each P_i checks if v' was newly added to ACC_i during round r
- In that case, it computes $\sigma' = \mathbf{S}(sk_i, v')$ and sends $(v', SET_{i,v'} \cup \{\sigma'\})$ to everybody



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Stage 3 (Final Round)

- Each P_i proceeds as follows
 - $If ACC_i = 1$ return 1
 - Else, return 0







Consistency

- Assume P_s is honest
- Stage 1: P_s sends $v, \sigma = \mathbf{S}(sk_s, v)$
- Stage 2:
 - All honest P_i add v to ACC_i in round r = 1 (as σ is accepting) and afterwards resend signatures
 - Malicious parties in round r = 1 might send $v', \sigma = \mathbf{S}(sk_i, v')$ for $v' \neq v$ (but **never accepted** in future rounds since it does not cointain signature from P_s)
- Stage 3: All parties output v



Agreement (1/3)

- Assume P_s is malicious (honest case is as before)
- Situation after round r = 1



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Agreement (2/3)

• Round r = 2

$$ACC_{3} = \{0,1\} \qquad (1, \mathbf{S}(sk_{s}, 1), \mathbf{S}(sk_{2}, 1)) \qquad ACC_{2} = \{0,1\}$$

• Both honest parties output 0 as $ACC_2, ACC_3 \neq \{1\}$

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Agreement (3/3)

• What if *P_s* sends message **only to one party**?







Byzantine Agreement Made Simple

- New protocol tolerating n/3 corruptions in expected 6 trivial rounds (using a PKI)
 - S. Micali. "Fast and furious Byzantine agreement."
 2017
- Assumptions

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- Every player has a public key pk_i
- A random string R independent of the pk_i 's

<u>Unique Signatures</u>: $\forall pk_i, m \text{ at most one SIG}(sk_i, m) = SIG_i(m)$ <u>Random oracle</u>: $H(SIG_i(m))$ unique, random string $\forall i, m$



Generic Round

- Instructions for
 - Reaching agreement at the end of the round w.p.
 1/3 (if not already in agreement)
 - Remaining in agreement, if already in agreement
 - Let γ be a counter (initially set to 0)





Analysis (1/2)

- If agreement on 0 exists, then agreement on 0
 is kept (similarly for agreement on 1)
- Assume somebody sees more than 2n/3 0's
 - The others can't see more than 2n/3 1's and thus will follow the "coin rule"
 - The bit b_i^r is 0 w.p. 1/2 and moreover it comes from an honest player w.p. 2/3
 - Thus, w.p. 1/3 they also decide on 0, and we get agreement



Analysis (2/2)

- Agreement is reached w.p. 1/3 in every round
- But players do not know when this happens and thus cannot terminate
 - Simple but inefficient solution: Repeat for sufficiently large k (say, k = 300)
- Run 3 correlated executions
 - One with "coin fixed to 0", one with "coin fixed to 1", and one with the "magic coin"
 - The first 2 executions allow players to understand when agreement is reached





Adaptations for Algorand (1/2)

- Gossiping (instead of multicast)
- Honest majority of money (instead of honest majority of users)
- Value R replaced by $Q_r = \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{SIG}_{L_r}(Q_{r-1}, r))$
 - Probabilistic analysis to ensure that the attacker cannot influence Q_r



Adaptations for Algorand (2/2)

• Player replaceability

- BA still takes more than one round
- The adversary can still corrupt the entire set of verifiers before the second round starts
- Special property: The protocol works even if each round is executed by different sets of players


Another Potential Attack

 N. Houy. "It Will Cost You Nothing to Kill a Proof-of-Stake Cryptocurrency." 2014 Should I

> I am going to destroy this currency by buying > 51% coins and gaining voting majority

ing voting majority

If everybody thinks like this the coin price goes to zero and he buys cheaply

If I think he succeeds I should sell at any non-zero price

0

sell him

my coin?



SpaceMint

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SpaceMint

- Based on the following papers:
 - Dziembowski et al., "Proofs of Space", 2015
 - Park et al., "A Cryptocurrency Based on Proofs of Space", 2015
- Main idea: Replace work by disk space
- Advantages:
 - No dedicated hardware
 - Less energy waste ("greener")

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Application beyond Cryptocurrencies

- Goal: Prevent malicious users from opening lots of fake accounts
 - E.g. cloud computing services (as gmail)
- Method: Force each account owner to waste large part of his local space
 - Space remains allocated as long as the user uses the service
 - Periodically the server needs to verify the space is still allocated



Advantages

- To prove one wasted n bytes one does not need to touch all of them
 - As opposed to CPU cycles in PoW
- More energy efficient
- No hardware acceleration
- Cheaper
 - Users can devote their unused disk space



The General Picture



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Security Properties

<u>Completeness:</u>

- Honest interaction always successful

Soundness:

- Cheating prover always wastes lots of memory
- Time measured in terms of # of calls to random oracle H
- Space measured in terms of # of blocks of length L (output length of H)

• Efficiency:

To rule out secure but non-efficient solutions



Trivial PoS





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Efficiency

- We require the following bounds for computing times
 - And thus also for communication complexities

	Verifier	Prover
<u>Init</u>	poly(log N, k)	poly(N)
<u>Proof</u>	poly(log N, k)	poly(log N, k)

• Example: $poly(log N, k) = k \cdot log N$



Goal of a Cheating Prover



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Inefficient Attack



The Definition

- We restrict a cheating prover's operating time

 P̃ is an (*N*, *T*)-cheating prover if his storage has
 size *N* and his running time during the proof is *T*
 No restriction on running time during lnit phase
- Definition of ε-soundness



Time-Memory Tradeoffs

- Hardness of constructing PoS is due to socalled time-memory tradeoffs
- Example: Instead of storing N blocks, the adversary stores \sqrt{N} blocks
 - Then before each Proof phase can **compute** *R* in time \sqrt{N}





Main Technique

- Let G = (V, E) be a DAG with |V| = N
- Let \mathbf{H}_{id} be a hash function depending on id- E.g., $\mathbf{H}_{id}(\cdot) = \mathbf{H}'(id||\cdot)$ for auxiliary \mathbf{H}'
- Define $R = (R_1, ..., R_N)$ by labelling vertices:



Bad and Good Graphs

- A graph that is bad is one that can be quickly labelled by storing a small number of labels
- Example of bad graph:



- Adversary storing labels in position $1, \sqrt{N}, 2\sqrt{N}, ...$ can compute all labels in \sqrt{N} steps
- A graph that is not bad is called good

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Simple PoS from any Good Graph



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Solution: Use Merkle Trees



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New Init Phase



New Proof Phase



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id,N

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Final Result

- Some nodes might still be inconsistent
 - Adversary not storing x inconsistent nodes with memory N_0 can be simulated with memory $N_0 + x$
- Theorem: There exists a (O(N), O(N))-PoS
 - Proof constructs good graphs using techniques from graph pebbling

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Replacing PoW with PoS

- Not immediate how to base a cryptocurrency on a PoS (instead of PoW)
- Some difficulties:
 - PoS runs in 2 stages (Init + Proof) whereas PoW runs in 1 stage
 - How to make reward proportional to the invested resources
 - Where does **the challenge** come from?



Joining SpaceMint

 Every user who wants to join the system declares how much space he can devote



 Broadcast special "commit" transaction including (pk, C)



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Reward in SpaceMint

 Let N₁, ..., N_k be the memory size of each miner and assume N₁ = ··· = N_k



P_i is the winner if $\mathbf{G}(s_i)$ is larger than all other $\mathbf{G}(s_j)$

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Reward Calculation (1/2)

- Each player is the winner with probability 1/k
- This is because for a given commitment *C* and challenge *x* the answer *s* is unique
 - As long as one cannot change C (which is why the miners post C on the blockchain)
- Important that miners can't try different solutions s
 - Otherwise we would be back to PoWs



Reward Calculation (2/2)

- What if the N_i's are **not equal**?
- We need a function D_{N_i} such that the following condition yields a winner w.p. $\frac{N_i}{N_1 + \dots + N_k}$

 P_i is the winner if $D_{N_i}(s_i)$ is **larger** than all other $D_{N_i}(s_j)$

• The following function works $D_{N_i}(s) = (\mathbf{G}(s)/W)^{1/N_i}$

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Challenge Generation

- Where does the challenge x come from?
 In Bitcoin it was the hash of the last block
- Use a NIST beacon?

Not good for a fully distributed currency

- Ask some other miner?
 What if he is not online?
- Use previous block (alà Bitcoin)?

- Not so easy as in Bitcoin



Grinding

 Problem with using previous block: By manipulating the transaction list the miner can produce different x_i's



• Similar to the case of PoSs



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Transactions Syntax

The challenge does not depend on the transactions



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Forks

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- In Bitcoin it made no sense
 - Solution: Look deeper in the past (i.e., challenge from block i generated from block i 120)



A Subtle Problem

- In PoW mining costs, while in PoS it is for free
- Miners seeing forks could decide to grow both chains (so they win in both cases)
- Solution: Penalize such behaviour



Discovers that both blocks were signed by same party

 Post a transaction with a "proof" of this and get a reward (the party signing 2 blocks loses her reward)



Permacoin and Primecoin

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Permacoin

- Main idea: Parametrize PoW with a large file (too large to be stored by individuals)
 – Possibly useful data (e.g., the library of congress)
- To solve a PoW need to store parts of the file
 The more you store the more likely it is to win
- Differences with SpaceMint
 - Still a PoW
 - The data is not random
 - Scales less well



A Nice Feature

- The puzzles are **non-outsourceable**
 - A miner in a mining pool could always steal the PoW solution
- Thus, it makes **no** sense to create **mining pools**!
- See also:
 - A. Miller, A. E. Kosba, J. Katz, E. Shi.
 "Nonoutsourceable scratch-off puzzles to discourage Bitcoin mining coalitions." 2014



Finding Chains of Primes

- Cunningham chain of the first kind:
 - p₀
 - $p_1 = 2p_0 + 1$
 - $p_2 = 2p_1 + 1$
 - $p_3 = 2p_2 + 1$
 - •

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• Example: 2, 5, 11, 23,

- Cunningham chain of the second kind:
 - p₀

•
$$p_1 = 2p_0 - 1$$

•
$$p_2 = 2p_1 - 1$$

•
$$p_3 = 2p_2 - 1$$

• ..

Example: 151, 301, 601, 1201,...

Bi-twin chain: $p_0, q_0, p_1, q_1, p_2, q_2, \dots$ such that

- p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots are a Cunningham chain of the first kind
- q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots are a Cunningham chain of the second kind
- (p_i, q_i) are a prime twin pair (i.e., $q_i = p_i + 2$)

Conjecture: For any k there are infinitely many chains as above of length k



Primecoin

- Main idea: For solving PoW need to find longest possible chain of primes
- Verification of a PoW should be fast
 - Limit the size of primes
 - Allow pseudoprimes
- Quality measure
 - Accept chains $p_1, \ldots, p_{k-1}, p_k$ where all p_i 's but p_k are primes
 - Quality is k + r where r measures how close p_k is to be a prime (in terms of Fermat's test)

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Fermat Test:

 2^{n-1}

 $\equiv 1 \mod n$

Linking the Blocks

- How to link the current solution to the hash of the previous block *B_i*?
- Require that $p_1 + 1$ is a **multiple** of $\mathbf{H}(B_i)$
- For more details see:
 - S. King. "Primecoin: Cryptocurrency with prime number proof of work." 2013


ZCash

Alternative Currencies

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Bitcoin's Privacy Problem

 Bitcoin prevents doublespending via keeping a consistent public ledger storing all transactions



- The cost: **Privacy**!
 - Consumer purchases (timing, amounts, merchant) seen by friends, neighbors, and co-workers
 - Account balance revealed in every transaction
 - Merchant's cash flow exposed to competitors

Alternative Currencies

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Those Are Just Addresses!



Time

- Transaction graph + side info
 - Addresses becomes names of people
- Not just theoretical

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- FBI Silk Road Investigations, ...



Possible Mitigations



- Use new address for each payment
- Launder money with others

Alternative

Currencies

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Harder to analyze, but tracks remain
 Blockchain is public forever!



Money Fungibility

- "A dollar is a dollar, regardless of its history"
 - Recognized as a crucial property of money more than 350 years ago
- Bitcoin not fungible, as coins' pedigree is public
 - Ill-defined value (different people value the same coin differently, new coins more valuable than old coins,...)
 - Price discrimination (salary rise yields rent hike)
 - Censorship (miners filter transactions)





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Privacy vs Accountability



Alternative Currencies

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Data Privacy and Security

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ZCash: Divisible Anonymous Payments

• A privacy-preserving cryptocurrency

- Can sit on top of Bitcoin or similar systems

Main feature: Transactions reveal neither the origin, destination, or amount





Basic Intuition for ZCash

From	Enc(A)	From	$\mathbf{Enc}(\mathcal{C})$		From	<i>C</i> ₁
То	$\mathbf{Enc}(B)$	То	Enc(D)	•••	То	C ₂
Amount	Enc (1)	Amount	Enc (2)		Amount	Cz
Proof	π	Proof	π'		Proof	$\pi^{\prime\prime}$

COLO

I am publishing ciphertexts c_1 , c_2 , c_3 which contain a **sender address**, a **receiver address**, and a transfer amount. Moreover the amount transferred has not been double spent. Here is a cryptographic **proof** π'' of this fact!

<u>Q1: What kind of proof?</u> <u>Q2: What is the statement being proven?</u>

Alternative Currencies

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In SNARKs We Trust



- What type of proof?
 - Argument (true statements have proofs, false statements have not)
 - Non-interactive (need to write it down)
 - Zero-knowledge (reveals nothing beyond validity)
 - Of knowledge (technical)
 - Succinct (short proofs, cheap to verify)



Attempt #1: Plain Serial Numbers





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Attempt #1: Plain Serial Numbers

- Good
 - Cannot double spend
- Bad
 - Anyone can spend my coins
 - Spend linkable to its mint
 - Fixed denomination
 - Does not hide the sender and the receiver



Attempt #2: Committed Serial Numbers





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Attempt #2: Committed Serial Numbers

- Good
 - Cannot double spend
 - Others cannot spend my coins
- Bad
 - Spend linkable to its mint
 - Fixed denomination
 - Does not hide the sender and the receiver



Attempt #3: ZK-PoK of Commitment



Transaction types:

Currencies

Mint	Consume 1 BTC to create a value-1 coin w/ comm. cm			
	Consume the coin w/ serial number sn			
ст	Here is a proof π that I know secret r :			
Spend	 (exists) cm ∈ "list of previous commitments" (well-formed) cm = Com(sn; r) 			
sn,π				





Attempt #3: ZK-PoK of Commitment

- Good
 - Cannot double spend
 - Others cannot spend my coins
 - Spend and mint unlinkable
- Bad
 - Fixed denomination
 - Hides only the sender



Attempt #4: Variable Denomination



Transaction types:

Mint cm, v, k, rSpend sn, v, π Consume v BTC to create a value-v coin w/ comm. cmConsume the value-v coin w/ serial number snHere is a proof π that I know secret (cm, k, r, s): • (exists) $cm \in$ "list of previous commitments" • (well-formed) cm = Com(v, k; r); k = Com(sn; s)





Attempt #4: Variable Denomination

- Good
 - Cannot double spend
 - Others cannot spend my coins
 - Spend and mint unlinkable
 - Variable denomination
- Bad

- Hides only the sender



Attempt #5: Payment Addresses



Transaction types:







Attempt #5: Payment Address

- Good
 - Cannot double spend
 - Others cannot spend my coins
 - Spend and mint unlinkable
 - Variable denomination
- Bad
 - Still hides only the sender



Attempt #6: Direct Payments



Transaction types:



Attempt #6: Direct Payments

- Good
 - Cannot double spend
 - Others cannot spend my coins
 - Spend and mint unlinkable
 - Variable denomination
 - Hides sender, receiver, and amount



Additional Features

- POUR transactions
 - Single type of transaction for sending payments, making change, exchanging into bitcoins,...



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Decentralized Anonymous Payments

- A standalone cryptographic primitive
- Security
 - Ledger indistinguishability: Nothing revealed besides public information, even by chosentransaction adversary
 - Balance: Can't own more money than received or minted
 - Transactions non-malleability: Cannot manipulate transactions en-route to the ledger



ZCash Performances

- Efficiency
 - Size of proofs 288 bytes (at 128 bits of security)
 - Proof verification/creation is < 6 ms/1min</p>
 - System parameters size 869 MB (once and for all)
- Parameter generation must be trusted
- Crypto assumptions

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- Elliptic curves with pairings
- Knowledge of exponent assumptions
- SHA256, encryption, and signatures



Other Applications to Bitcoin

Lightweight clients

- Proof of transaction validity (verification only w.r.t. blockchain head)
- Compressing the blockchain (e.g., only keeping unspent transactions)
- Turing-complete scripts/contracts with cheap verification
- ... and much more (see Bitcoin forum)

