

BLOCKCHAINAPPLICATIONFOR MEDICALDOMAIN

Projectreportsubmittedinfulfillmentoftherequirementforthedegreeof
BachelorofTechnology
in

ComputerScienceEngineering

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to



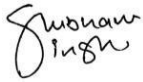
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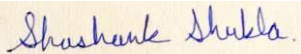
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Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that the work presented in this report entitled "**BLOCKCHAIN TECHNOLOGY APPLICATION FOR MEDICAL DOMAIN**" in fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of **Bachelor of Technology in Computer Science and Engineering** submitted in the department of Computer Science & Engineering and Information Technology, Jaypee University of Information Technology, Waknaghat is an authentic record of my own work carried out over a period from February 2021 to May 2021 under the supervision of **Dr. Aman Sharma** (Assistant Professor (SG) Computer Science and Engineering and Information Technology). The matter embodied in the report has not been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma.



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This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is true to the best of my knowledge.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to express our special thanks of gratitude to our teacher and mentor **Dr. AmanSharma** who gave us the golden opportunity to do this project on the topic **BLOCKCHAINTECHNOLGY APPLICATION FOR MEDICAL DOMAIN**, which also helped us in doing alot of research and we came to know about so many new things. And also thankful of taking ourweeklyreport on ourproject progress and helpedwith doubts.

Secondly, we would also like to thank Lab assistants who helped us a lot in finalizing this projectwithinthe limited time frame.

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ABSTRACT

As the Block chain Technology is around for long time now and it has provided us a way to shift the tide of traditional centralized system to the new better version of decentralization. And the most popular version of that we have seen is the cryptocurrency the Bitcoin and the Ethereum platform for the D apps. But now we are way past that now more research on the enterprise application or the business related solution using the block chain technology.

So for the healthcare system data management we have many frameworks but this project is approach to design a methodology to bring out the theoretical model that we have come up with all the research and qualitative analysis on the hyper ledger and block chain application for the enterprise solution. As the traditional system exists and works well but it could be better with the upgraded one with which we try to achieve transparency but also privacy at the same time, by keeping all functional and non-functional properties and maintaining the authentication, authorization and the integrity at the same time.

Data and the consensus-based method of capturing and updating it across distributed nodes are critical in allowing trustless multi-party transactions in a blockchain-based environment. As a result, correctly knowing whether and how data is stored and exploited essentially decides the utility, efficiency, and cost of a blockchain-based application. Although blockchain improved data consistency by offering an open, persistent, and consistent data base, the platform also introduces new problems in data management.

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Overview of the Block-chain

Blockchain technology has recently emerged as a core technology in the digital transformation of the healthcare industry, and many academic studies have established blockchain opportunities for the healthcare ecosystem. It is poised to disrupt the way existing medical services and companies have operated in the healthcare industry for decades. ICTs and blockchain are important

enabling technologies for the decentralisation and digitalization of healthcare institutions, providing patients and service providers with a new and digitized healthcare environment. Blockchain solutions for healthcare data management include services to patients, physicians, and healthcare institutions

in the areas of patient information access and monitoring, claims and payments management, medical IoT protection management, and research data authentication and sharing for financial auditing and accountability. Real-time modifications to an encrypted, anonymous blockchain database are performed in these applications to understand, track, and manage medical data. Which also makes it easier for healthcare institutions to prevent unauthorised individuals from accessing classified information.

A year after the popular white paper on Bitcoin was published, the Bitcoin cryptocurrency was introduced, with the technology released as open source, allowing others to adapt and build on it and construct various generations of blockchain based innovations. The initial versions of blockchain based cryptocurrency, such as Bitcoin, include the first wave of blockchain technologies, often known as blockchain 1.0. Such blockchain 1.0 applications include, to name a few, Monero, Dash, and Litecoin. The implementation of smart assets and digital contracts is aligned with the second wave of blockchain technology. Smart properties are intangible properties or objects whose ownership can be governed by a blockchain based network, while smart contracts are software applications that encode the rules for controlling and managing smart properties. Ethereum, Ethereum Classic, NEO, and QTUM are examples of blockchain 2.0 cryptocurrencies.

Ethereum, Ethereum Classic, NEO, and QTUM are examples of cryptocurrencies. Building on the above, the third wave of blockchain technologies is now focused on non-financial blockchain applications. To that end, attempts have been made to adapt the technology outside of banking, so that other markets and use cases will benefit from the intriguing features of blockchain. As a result, blockchain is now regarded as a general purpose platform with implementations in a variety of markets and use cases, including identity protection, conflict settlement, contract management, supply chain management, banking, and healthcare, to name a few. With the increasing interest in blockchain and its implementation in various companies and sectors, healthcare has emerged as a significant field where a variety of use cases for blockchain application have been established. However, since blockchain is a relatively young technology, and there has been a lot of excitement in the press as well as in grey media in the form of opinion pieces, commentaries, blog posts, interviews, and so on, there is a lot of misleading facts, speculations, and uncertainties about its possible utility in the healthcare industry.

Members of the research community and clinicians like to learn the particular fields of use or usage cases of blockchain in the healthcare sector, as well as what blockchain based healthcare solutions have been created in response to these described use cases. What are the problems and drawbacks of blockchain based healthcare systems, how are these challenges being solved now, and where will they be improved.

Many procedures are included in healthcare administration, such as overseeing budgets, personnel, patients, regulatory disputes, logistics, inventory, and so on. Medical workflows also include routine processes relating to patient care that can be diagrammed as a sequence of conditional steps. These are intended to increase internal controls and quality, enforcement, and competitiveness, as well as to minimize risk, task times, and overhead in hospitals and other healthcare service providers. Multiple patient workflows are built in this paper for various healthcare technology framework domains.

This paper describes a healthcare smart contract structure for managing patient details and streamlining complicated medical procedures. We addressed cutting-edge blockchain analysis in the healthcare industry and introduced an ethereum-based healthcare management approach. The aim of this paper is also to demonstrate the practical application of blockchain in healthcare, as

well as the obstacles and potential directions of blockchain science. Only analysis that incorporates a new healthcare approach, algorithm, process, technique, or design is included in this systematic study. Review analysis, discussions of possible uses and implementations, and other irrelevant publications are not permitted. Using practical clinical databases, the paper then investigates the blockchain's applicability to these healthcare workflows as well as the viability of existing blockchain implementation in various use cases. The following is how this article is structured: explains the history definition of blockchain technologies and analyses related job explains the possible advantages of blockchain technologies System architecture and implementation was presented. In, the cost assessment process and experiment outcomes are presented. The validation of the workflows with actual healthcare datasets is outlined in the highlights of the paper's several topic and overview. Finally, the document comes to a close.

Decentralization

Definition and Definition Decentralization is sought for a number of purposes, including technological, political, and financial considerations. On the technical hand, it is often suggested as a way of improving managerial and service delivery effectiveness. Decentralization is typically used in politics to expand municipal representation and sovereignty, redistribute authority, and reduce political tensions. Decentralization is used in finance to increase cost effectiveness, give municipal units more leverage over services and taxes, and sharpen transparency. Mills, Vaughan, Smith, and Tabibzadeh outline the main structural distinctions between four types of decentralisation.

Decentralization in the Healthcare sector

Decentralization has been a significant component of performance enhancement efforts as undertaken for strategic purposes. Decentralization, along with health finance restructuring, has been a part of framework improvements in many countries for at least a decade. In countries where the primary goal of decentralisation has been political and financial gain, the health system has had to devise coping mechanisms in order to sustain access and advance against health goals. The benefits of decentralisation include the development of leadership, the promotion of efficient oversight, management, and regulation, the generation of interest among workers, the promotion of rapid disposal of jobs, and the lightening of the upper echelons' workload.

1.1.2 Blockchain Applications in healthcare

Legacy programmes usually only share healthcare services within the medical and healthcare fields and are incompatible with external systems. Nonetheless, data suggests that combining these networks for integrated and improved healthcare has multiple advantages, necessitating interconnection between diverse institutions for health informatics researchers. One of the most pressing problems is multi-organizational data sharing, which requires patient data collected from a healthcare provider to be readily accessible to other institutions such as a practitioner or research institute. Blockchain technology is redefining data management and governance in many healthcare applications. With advancements in electronic health records, cloud data storage, and patient data security laws, new opportunities for health data processing are opening up, as well as the ease for patients to view and share their health data. Ensuring data protection, storage, transfers, and seamless integration is extremely important to any data-driven enterprise, particularly in healthcare, where blockchain technology has the ability to solve these critical issues in a rigorous and efficient manner. This section delves into blockchain-based technologies such as data transfer, data management, data storage, and EHR.

1.1.3 Dataset

Using actual healthcare datasets, we estimated the implementation cost using our existing smart contract workflows. Figure 10 depicts Ethereum blockchain transaction information. Section A contains a summary of the datasets. The deployment cost is calculated and plotted for different variables in section B using actual datasets.

HSE datasets are culled from the various libraries. The Health Service Executive is in charge of delivering health and personal support care for all Irish citizens using public funds. Both outpatient and inpatient waiting lists from various departments/hospitals in Ireland is considered for use in this work. The National Treatment Purchase Fund manages the outpatient, inpatient, and day case waiting lists from data collection to validation. The OP Waiting List survey shows the average number of patients who are waiting for a first appointment at a consultant-led Outpatient

clinic across all time bands. Each individual report consists of Each individual report includes the number of people waiting in each specialty at each hospital. To maintain individual anonymity, if there are 5 patients waiting in a certain specialty/hospital, the figures have been aggregated under the heading 'Small Volume.' The entire study is made up of data collected on a monthly basis over the course of a year.

When it comes to deploying healthcare blockchain, the cost of incorporating smart contracts for healthcare must be measured. The end aim is to put in place a framework that will provide all of the benefits of blockchain to a viable medical health system. To prevent network manipulation and to address other computational problems, all programmable calculations on the Ethereum blockchain incur a tax. As a result, all processes, computations, message calls, smart contract creation/deployment, and storage on EVM necessitate the use of gas.

The cost of deploying smart contracts for healthcare management systems has been calculated. The cost of running an operation on the Ethereum network is known as Gas. To run the service, all transactions need 21,000 gallons of petrol. When a user interacts with an Ethereum smart contract, it requires 21,000 electricity, with extra gas required for the smart contract to operate. The gas has been compiled for medical smart contracts for contract deployment and cooperation with other contracts. The more complicated the functions/operations involved in smart contracts, the more gas is used, resulting in a higher fee. From the standpoint of viability, it is obvious from the more complicated the functions/operations involved in smart contracts, the more gas is used, resulting in a higher fee. In terms of viability, the findings show that the cost of deploying a smart contract for a healthcare management system is very limited. In terms of the medical system, this payment is very low, and everyone will be willing to pay this small amount in order to have leverage over their EHR and keep their medical records for the rest of their lives. plays the cost of smart contract implementation for each pharmacy as measured by your framework.

1.2 Problem Statement

Given these difficulties, we think it is necessary to investigate the use of a blockchain as a datastore in the field of data management. A thorough understanding of blockchains in terms of how data is processed and handled can help programmed developers and database managers properly

plan and maintain a complex computing infrastructure that could have a blockchain and an auxiliary database. It can also prevent suboptimal architectures, glitches, and vulnerabilities as a result of unreasonable expectations about how blockchains will behave.

In other works, blockchain has been briefly compared to databases in terms of features and special properties. Our analysis complements these activities by better conceptualising the differences. In other works, blockchain has been briefly compared to databases in terms of features and special properties. Our analysis supplements these activities by further conceptualising the discrepancies based on how programmed developers will normally view the information framework layers.

1.3 Objectives

- To investigate the various facets of Blockchain.
- To investigate the effect of Blockchain on various industries.
- To investigate the impact of Blockchain on various industries.
- To study the effects of Blockchain on various industries.
- To investigate the long-term impact of demonetization on an economy.
- To investigate how the Blockchain definition can benefit a government.

1.3.1 Existing system

Centralized system:

Rather than you might think, centralization circles around us. When you use social media sites like Facebook, you are using a centralised structure. Other popular online channels, such as YouTube, are centralised as well.

Trust

While centralised institutions are safe and trustworthy, they are not fully secure or trustworthy. The trust is a contract between the service provider and the customer. However, it is a deal, and that is quickly broken. From time to time, large companies face confidence problems with their customers. When there is a security breach in the system, customers choose to neglect the service for a period of time until the service provider restores faith by providing remedies and remuneration to those affected. Much of which occurs as a result of centralization and the fact that all data is stored in a single archive.

Single point of failure

Centralization also implies that the whole network is vulnerable to a single point of failure. Organizations are aware of the downside and have taken steps to mitigate it. However, the possibility of loss is a significant drawback for mission-critical services.

Scalability Limitation

Since a single server is used in most situations, scalability is limited. Unquestionably, centralization is an efficient method of managing organisations or networks. It has been successfully used by large corporations such as Microsoft, Facebook, and Yahoo. In reality, our governments depend on a centralised approach as well.

Security

The elected executives coordinate authority in the case of a centralised government. You can also use the power in different situations. Centralization guarantees the security of a large corporation's records. This is needed to ensure that their trade secrets are not leaked. However, there is a modified method of managing data that includes the possibility of using decentralised networks such as blockchain. We can quickly conclude that centralization is still very dominant in today's economy. Furthermore, not all companies would accept decentralisation just for the sake of it. Different market models succeed in centralised networks, and it will take some time before more businesses move to decentralised models.

1.3.2 Proposed System:

De-centralized system

Decentralization is a novel concept. It became public after the release of bitcoin in 2009. It also launched a new cool idea that allows for decentralisation, namely blockchain technology. When one person transfers bitcoin to another, the transaction is not routed through a centralised authority. This does not, however, imply that the transaction has not been checked. Consensus algorithms are used to validate the transactions. Anyone will connect to the network used for bitcoin. That means it's accessible. It also demonstrated other important characteristics, such as openness, which allows

everyone to check transactions if necessary. An entity or computer that connects to the network is referred to as a "node" in such a network. Eventually, there will be a network of thousands of nodes capable of transferring and collecting funds from one another.

Let's look at a real-world situation to better appreciate the definition. A decentralised energy network is a network through which individuals can link and purchase energy from other independent entries. They don't have to pay the intermediaries to gain electricity in the first place this way. The distributed energy network is based on blockchain technologies and does not require a centralised authority. The nodes that generate the energy will distribute it to the network and be compensated for it.

Complete Command

One of the most important benefits of decentralisation is that consumers have complete autonomy over their transactions. This means they can initiate a contract wherever they choose, rather than waiting for authorization from a centralised authority. In layman's terms, the authentication mechanism is not reliant on outside actors, and a decentralised network uses consensus mechanisms to validate data.

Immutability of the data

Blockchain technology's data structure is append only. This means that there is no chance for anyone to modify or alter the data once it is stored. There is another blockchain technology that utilizes different data models such as Corda, but they also follow the immutability property.

Ensure

Because of how they process data and transfers, decentralised networks are safe. They use cryptography to maintain the security of the data ledgers. Furthermore, the data in the current block requires data from the neighbouring block in order to verify the data using cryptography.

Censorship

Censorship is often reduced as a result of decentralisation. In a bureaucratic structure, there is a greater possibility that transparency may be censored. However, since there is no single authority

controlling the data, the decentralised network is less susceptible to censorship. Let's look at a case to better explain the situation. Twitter, for example, is known to delete accounts as it detects inappropriate tweets or when the government attempts to censor accounts if it contradicts their policy. In the case of decentralisation, peers may communicate directly, resulting in little or minimal censorship.

1.4 Methodology

The general approach for the creation of a system involves multiple steps that define the life cycle representation of the proposed for the development of a software project. Not only does the theory involve forward momentum, but it should also return to an operation that is cycled over to a previously performed activity. This return or input loop may arise as a result of a failure to reach a success goal for the system or as a result of improvements in the redefinition of system operations. The development process of the computer-based system often experiences distinct stages, as with most systems.

1. Research design:

My research design will be informative followed by partly exploratory and the whole project will be based on data gathered from the internet, publications, articles, and analysis, so the project will have a thorough and concise overview, so there is a combination of interpretation and description design. It will include all of the main aspects of Blockchain and will provide the reader with a better understanding of how it works.

2. Source of data:

The primary source of information in my project would be secondary data from the internet, such as facts, statistics, and diagrams, which will be analysed and compiled in the form of this project paper.

3. Scope of research:

My project topic is primarily related to industry, banking, and finance. The research's key goal is to raise public awareness about blockchain and its applications in various industries.

Limitations of the Study:

- The secondary data gathered may have been manipulated, resulting in a biased outcome.
- Inexperience in drafting the project study.
- Inadequate time to complete the job.
- The process is not adaptable. The outcome can deviate if there is insufficient or incomplete knowledge.
- It is extremely difficult to verify the authenticity of the data presented.
- Documents may lack authenticity; for example, portions of the document may be absent, and we may not even be able to validate the document, which means we cannot determine if it is skewed or not.
- Since the way items are measured can vary over time, statistical measurements can be complicated.
- As a project report, the scope of study is broad and might not be sufficient to impose any limitations.

4. Coding Phase:

The coding phase is for translating the design of the system produced during the design phase into code in a given programming language, which can be executed by a computer and which performs the computations specified by the design.

5. Testing Phase:

Testing is conducted in different forms, such as algorithm testing, computer code; sample data analysis is also one of the tests above.

1.5 Organization

Various medical workflows involving various medical treatments have been developed and applied using the blockchain smart contract technology. This involves issuing simple medical prescriptions for the treatment of complex illnesses and their procedures, such as treatment procedures for

surgical patients. The aim of developing these medical smart contracts is to help patients, physicians, and healthcare organisations solve logistical inefficiencies. This method would aid in the retrieval, examination, and maintenance of complex medical data and procedures.

1.5.1 Description:

The Medical Prescription Issuance and Fulfillment Procedure The primary aim is to streamline the medical drug handling process by minimising lengthy wait times, eliminating bribery from the system, and lowering the error rate caused by doctor misinterpretations. A doctor signs a prescription for a patient and adds it to the patient's medical history using a smart contract. The pharmacy then gains access to this medication through the Ethereum blockchain smart contract, thanks to approval given by the primary doctor and the customer. After accessing the drug, the pharmacy issues the medication with the expiry date and dose usage posted to the patient's healthcare records through smart contracts, and the medicine is then available for the patient to receive. In general, smart contract features coordinate medication satisfaction among doctors and drug stores. Following a patient's appointment, doctors devote little time explaining medication orders or speaking with pharmacy shops in general. The patient, primary doctor (GP), and pharmacy are all included in the data flow for administering a medical prescription. It also includes prescription information such as medicine ID, expiry date, patient ID, and so on.

1.5.2 Feasibility Study:

An significant step in the process of application development is the feasibility analysis. It helps the manufacturer to provide an evaluation of the software being produced. Refers to the product's feasibility analysis in terms of the product's results, the practical use and the technological assistance needed for its implementation.

This segment contains the findings of our survey on the viability of using blockchain technologies in voting applications. When we talk about viability, we mean a device that is cost-effective, flexible, stable, and simple to implement (or subsystem). Though determining global measurements of these properties is difficult, we have found certain thresholds or variables to decide if it is feasible to substitute current (and prospective) systems with blockchain-based equivalents. Any blockchain-based approach should be (noticeably) less expensive than the alternatives. Long-term

conventional campaigns, say over a three-year cycle of at least one referendum each year. It could not be done. neither more costly nor less expensive than non-blockchain implementations. Based on the size of the device, it should be able to accommodate millions of individuals. state, company size, or demographic focus group The standard of protection should not be smaller than that of non-blockchain solutions. Information on protection specifications are included later in the document.

Blockchain Fundamentals

By definition, blockchain cannot be extended to all applications as a modular off-the-shelf solution. The flowchart of viability that explains why a blockchain database is useful. This diagram is a condensed version of the flowchart. If blockchain isn't effective or appropriate for a project, it won't be feasible. Where the following characteristics are present in legacy topics schemes, blockchain solutions are appropriate.

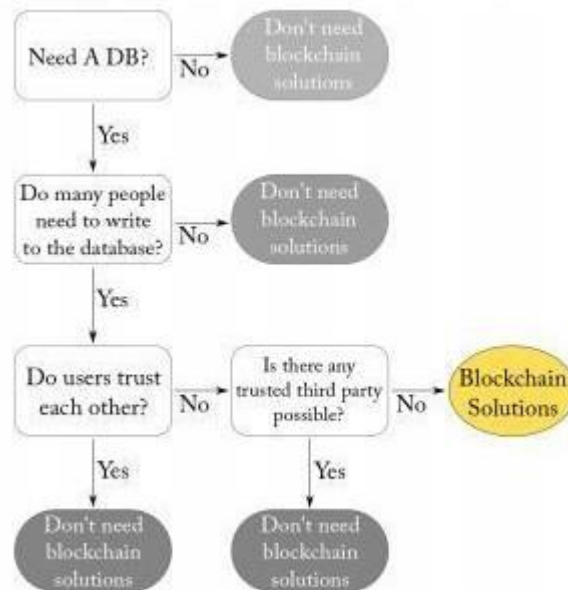


Fig1-1 Feasibility flowchart

- Where there is coded information that can be exchanged between people, this is referred to as shared data.
- Multiple parties: Where more than one person is required to read or write data,
- Low trust: When there is no assumed complete trust between system members,

- There is no trusted third party: If it is unavailable or unfavourable due to deployment challenges or prices,
- Auditability: If we wish the data to be unchangeable, we must ensure that they are auditable (not to be changed or deleted after recording).

1- Blockchain offerings

- Disintermediation: Transactions are not checked by a centralised central gatekeeper, which may minimise the costs of constructing and maintaining networks and may result in certain efficiency benefits.
- Transaction interaction: Smart contracts can be used to execute complex and intertwined transactions. The blockchain framework offers a simple and scalable foundation for public key infrastructures and blind signatures.
- Auditability: Any record in blockchain keeps track of who is participating in transactions, as well as the form, number, and value of the material.
- Complete confidence, so that the elections should not be under anyone's influence. It should be ensured that the election results cannot be distorted and that there would be no inconsistency between the documents of various intermediate structures, if any exist.
- Transparency greater than legacy internet networks (as well as traditional elections). Most blockchain applications provide for the listing of all transactions, with a substance and a timestamp, but without exposing the parties concerned. It is also possible to temporarily mask the content. As a result, all casted ballots can be listed in real time, and all votes can be tallied by each of the observers while preserving the voters' privacy. Additionally, after casting their ballots, electors have the right to validate their votes.
- Cost cuts as a result of less demands for costly servers or computers, as well as open source applications.
- Remote elections, also known as remote absentee voting. If required, it would aid in the turnout rates and make voting more affordable for voters. This is preferable, especially for companies and non-profit organisations.
- Vote histories that are immutable and unchangeable. After the voting is over, no one, not even machine technicians or operators, should be able to control the votes. During the

voting, the ability to update votes could be offered. This can be done in conjunction with a consensus protocol.

2- Social Aspects

Applications surrounding e-

voting and Blockchain technologies have significant societal implications. These effects can be further classified as the meaning derived

from the given ease of use and people's perceptions of confidence in these so-

called "hitech" systems. In general, eGovernment services provided people with broader, quicker, and faster access to government services, especially those living in rural settlements and those who are very busy and/or mobile.

As a result, it can be seen as a strong instrument that strengthens government citizen partnerships. While the Government itself is not directly related to the democracy, the concept of e-voting extends the Government to provide means of democracy, called eDemocracy. The ease of use and financial advantages of such e services are no longer in question, but the sense of confidence, a newer problem brought on by e democracy services, could be overshadowing these benefits when it comes to e voting. Independent of the subject and theme, if the majority of electors do not trust the current e voting scheme, it should not be approved as the sole method of voting. This is so even though the concerns are completely false and unfounded, or if they are the result of a plot.

The use of blockchain technology, which is used in the famous cryptocurrency Bitcoin (and many others), can reinforce the perception of trust, since Bitcoin and other cryptocurrency transactions are commonly considered to provide trust to transactions, including between untrustworthy parties, as long as users are aware of certain security countermeasures.

If the software is open source (and better if it is licensed under a free software licence), public opinion and confidence would be even stronger. Since open source code may be examined by anyone who wishes to contribute to the project (like in Estonia). In such a scenario, even malicious individuals unwittingly aided in the development of the framework.

3- Financial Aspects

Using digital electronic services, such as online portals and smartphone apps, would undoubtedly reduce operating costs in the long run, considering their higher initial investment costs. A previous report comparing the technology and maintenance costs of conventional and electronic elections was recently released. According to the report, the benefits of converting to an online voting scheme could result in savings of up to many times a year. The disparity becomes more pronounced, particularly if there are two or more elections in a given year.

Another study in Estonia examines the expense from the perspective of the electorate. This research shows that voters who live at least 30 minutes away from their polling places face higher (time and money) costs and are therefore more likely to choose voting online. However, as they pointed out, elderly people's aversion of using machines remains underappreciated.

Standard system expenses are mostly comprised of content, staff, and logistical costs. However, the expense of health-care systems covers the costs of software production, hardware resources, and associated maintenance. Since several blockchain packages are open-source initiatives with customised APIs, using blockchain-based technologies can also reduce these software costs. Furthermore, combining a blockchain-based health-care system with a cryptocurrency-payment system can provide different setups and opportunities.

4- Security and Reliability

compares the authentication features provided by blockchain to those provided by other database solutions. The system's availability and fault tolerance are high because all nodes hold a copy of the records and search each other to provide a reliable system. The blockchain allows for both transparency and secrecy. Privacy is not intended, but it can be applied.

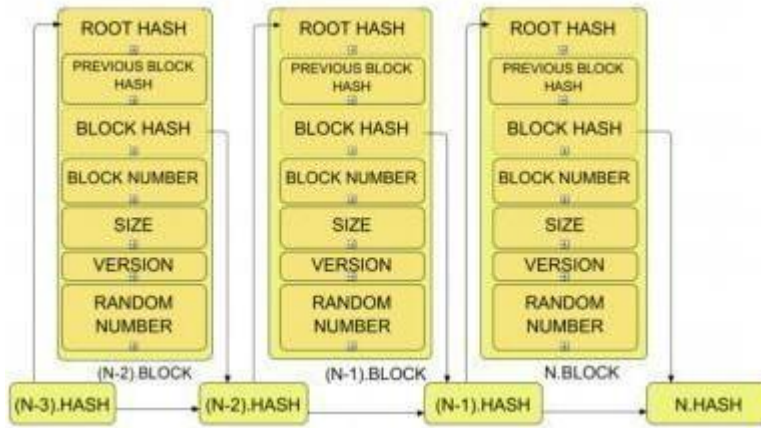


Fig1-2StructureofBlock-chain

The Merkle tree is used to ensure the accuracy of the documents. Figure 3 depicts its composition. Each block contains several transactions. To begin, the hash values of each transaction are extracted and compared to the hash of the other transaction. Pairs of hashes are then merged until a single root hash is obtained. This arrangement makes it simple to verify transactions.

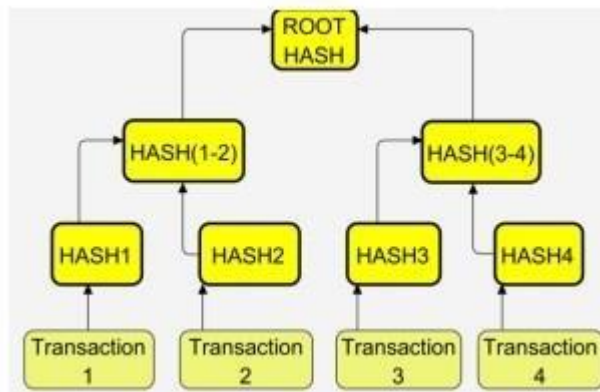


Fig1-3MerkleTree

While block chain-

based networks are said to hold permanent records, there is a complicated way to change the records (blocks) that is handled by the consensus protocols. As a result, the system's dependability is determined by the consensus protocol used. The consensus protocols (PoW, PoS, and so on) are the laws that govern which node has the authority to write to the blockchain. Bitcoin and mining-driven blockchain applications mostly use the PoW (Proof of Work) algorithm, which is based on computational capacity. Anyone who wishes to change a block should change it as well as the subsequent (next) blocks in the blockchain. For example, in a 1000-block chain

,If a user (or attacker) wishes to change (only) the 100th block, he or she must change all blocks beginning with the 100th. until the 1000th For any block, the attacker (node/computer) should get the writing turn, and in PoW, this requires that It should have at least 51% of the total processing power given by (the number of) all the nodes belonging to the cluster. This attack is technically feasible, particularly in small networks, but since all transaction information are registered in all copies of the blockchain, any malicious behaviour would be very easy to detect ; additionally, this negative effect can be mitigated quickly because it is not difficult to exclude a node from the network. a chain.

1.5.3 Implementation plan:

The primary approach for system improvement is to migrate from the existing system to the proposed system. The new system has been largely revised to four proposed approaches.

- Phase-in Method
- Direct Cut-Over System
- Parallel Run System
- Pilot System

Parallel Run System: That is the simplest method of converting an old unit to a new one. In this approach, all devices run simultaneously for a set period of time. If major problems are discovered when using the current system, the new system is scrapped and the older system is restarted from the beginning.

Direct Cut-Over Method: In one area of the enterprise, a working implementation of the system, such as a single work environment or a single department, is implemented. When the installation is deemed complete, it is installed either all at once (direct cutting) or gradually in the organisation (phase-in).

Phase-

in Method: This strategy begins by implementing a portion of the architecture and gradually adds other components.

Implementation plan used: The process management architecture is based around the "Concurrent Run Method," and we have revised the structure to meet the customer's needs. The operational system is referred to as the old system, and the new system is based on the old system,

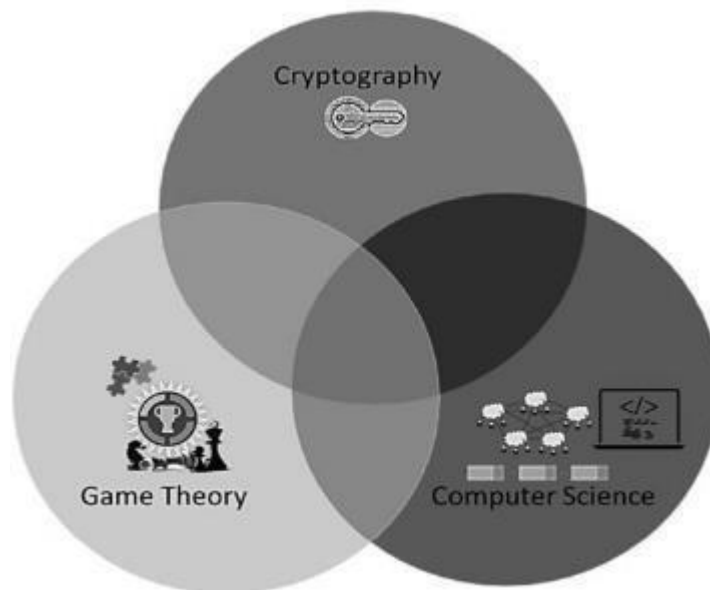
with the principles processed by the olders system retained. The improved method works well and is effectively implemented on the customer. For the applicant's recruitment.

2 LITERATURE SURVEY

Composition of Blockchain

Creating a Blockchain Foundation Blockchain is more than just a technology; it is also linked to enterprise functions and use cases. It is also intertwined with economic values through its blockchain implementations. This segment would mostly concentrate on the scientific aspects. Blockchain is a genius synthesis of ideas from cryptography, game theory, and computer science engineering.

Fig2-1 Block-chain and its mix



Let's take a high-level look at the roles these elements perform in the blockchain structure before delving further into the basics. Before we get there, let's take a brief look at how conventional unified systems worked. The standard approach called for a single organisation to keep only one transaction/modification history. The goal was to exert concurrency control over the entire database and instil confidence in the system through intermediaries. So, what was the issue with such a secure system? A unified structure must be trusted, regardless of whether those concerned are truthful or not! Often, for obvious reasons, the cost of intermediaries and transaction time can be higher. Consider power centralization; gaining complete oversight of the whole structure allows the centralised authorities to do about whatever they wish.

Let us now examine how blockchain tackle these problems caused by centralised intermediaries by the use of cryptography, game theory, and computer science principles. Regardless of the use case, cryptography is used to encrypt the transactions. Cryptography ensures that a legitimate person initiates the transaction and that no one can counterfeit a fake transaction. This ensures that Alice cannot, cryptographically, make a transaction on behalf of Bobby forging his signature. What if a node or a user tries to launch a double spend attack? Keep in mind that even if one does not have enough funds, one can still initiate a double spend attack, which is cryptographically correct. The only way to avoid double spend is for each node to be aware of all transactions. This raises another intriguing problem. How will they all converge on a shared database state if each node is responsible for maintaining the transaction database? Again, how can the system remain resilient to circumstances in which one or more computing nodes actively threaten to subvert the system and insert a bogus database state? The majority of such issues fall under the purview of the Byzantine Generals' Dilemma (described later). It has grown in popularity as a result of blockchain, but it has been around for a long time. As it comes to data centre or distributed database solutions, the Byzantine Generals' Dilemma is an obvious and widespread one that they must contend with in order to stay fault tolerant. Such conditions and their resolutions are derived from game theory. Game theory offers a fundamentally different approach to determining how a mechanism can behave. Game theory approaches are arguably the most sophisticated and practical. They normally may not consider whether a node is trustworthy, dishonest, ethical, or has any other such characteristics, and they conclude that participants behave based on the benefit they get, not on moral principles. The prime goal of game theory in blockchain is to ensure that the mechanism is stable (i.e., in Nash Equilibrium) and that the players are in agreement.

There are many types of market challenges and circumstances, each of differing degrees of complication. As a result, the underlying crypto and game theoretic consensus protocols can vary depending on the use case. The basic concept of keeping a reliable record or ledger of checked transactions, though, remains the same. Though the principles of cryptography and game theory have been around for a long time, it is computer science that connects the dots through data

as structures and peer-to-peer network networking techniques. Clearly, “smart software engineering” is needed to understand certain conceptual or mathematical principles in the modern world. The computer science engineering techniques that embed cryptography and game theoretic principles into an application, allowing decentralised and distributed computation among nodes with data structure and network communication components, are then used.

Cryptography

The most critical aspect of blockchain is cryptography. It is unquestionably a scientific area in and of itself, focusing on sophisticated mathematical methods that are very difficult to comprehend. In this section, we will try to establish a solid understanding of some of the cryptographic principles, since different problems can necessitate different cryptographic solutions; one size never fits all. You may miss any of the information or refer to them as appropriate, but it is the most critical component for ensuring system security. Many attacks on wallets and exchanges have been identified as a result of bad architecture or cryptographic implementation.

Cryptography has existed for over two thousand years. It is the science of keeping information private with the use of encryption techniques. However, secrecy isn't the only goal. There are a variety of other applications for cryptography, which are mentioned below and will be discussed further:

- **Confidentiality:** The message should only be understood by the intended or approved receiver. That is also known as confidentiality or anonymity.
- **Data Integrity:** Data cannot be forged or changed knowingly or unintentionally by an attacker or by unintended/accidental mistakes. Though data integrity cannot preclude data from being altered, it can provide a way of determining if the data has been altered.
- **Authentication:** The sender's legitimacy is guaranteed and verifiable by the recipient.
- **Non-repudiation:** After receiving a letter, the sender cannot later dispute that they received the message. This ensures that an individual (a person or a system) cannot continue to accept responsibility for a prior promise or action.

Plaintext refers to any material in the form of a text message, numerical statistics, or a computer programme. The idea is to encrypt the plaintext using an encryption algorithm and a key, resulting in the ciphertext. The ciphertext is then sent to the intended receiver, who decrypts it with the decryption algorithm and key to obtain the plaintext.

Symmetric Key Cryptography

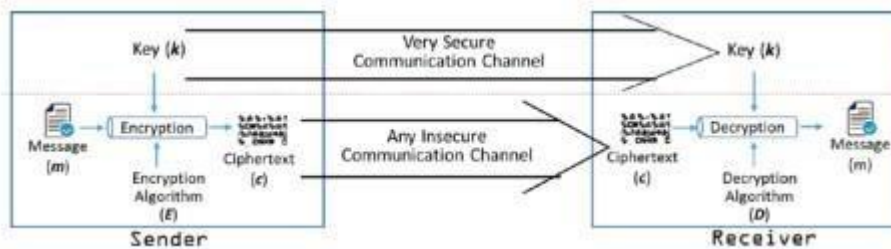


Fig2-2 Symmetric Cryptography

Symmetric key cryptography is commonly used; the most popular applications are secure file transfer protocols like HTTPS, SFTP, and WebDAVS. Where the data size is large, symmetric cryptosystems are typically faster and more useful. Please keep in mind that symmetric key cryptography comes in two flavours: stream ciphers and block ciphers. We will address this in the following pages, but first we will look at Kerckhoff's theorem and the XOR function to explain how cryptosystems operate.

XOR Function

Kerckhoff's theorem states that a cryptosystem should be stable even though anything about the scheme except the key is widely available. Furthermore, the general belief is that the message transmitting medium is never stable and that messages can be quickly intercepted during transmission. This means that even though the encryption algorithm E and decryption algorithm D are still public, and there is a possibility that the message will be intercepted during transmission, the message will still be secured due to a shared secret. As a result, in a symmetric cryptosystem, the keys must be kept hidden. The XOR function is the foundation of many encryption and decryption algorithms. Let's take a look at it and see if it facilitates cryptography. The XOR, also known as "Exclusive OR," is represented by the symbol.

A	B	$A \oplus B$
0	0	0
1	0	1
0	1	1
1	1	0

Fig2-3 Truth Table of XOR

Stream Ciphers vs. Block Cipher

The way plaintext is encoded and decoded differs between stream cipher and block cipher algorithms. Stream ciphers translate one plaintext symbol to one ciphertext symbol. This ensures that encryption is performed one bit or byte of plaintext at a time. In a bit-by-bit encryption situation, a separate key is created and used to encrypt each bit of plaintext. As a result, it employs an infinite stream of pseudorandom bits as the key and employs the XOR operation with plaintext input bits to produce ciphertext. To keep such a device stable, the pseudorandom keystream generator must be both secure and unpredictable. Stream ciphers are a close approximation to an established complete cipher known as "the one-time pad," which we will explore in a moment.

Block cipher, on the other hand, is based on the concept of dividing the plaintext into comparatively larger blocks of fixed length groups of bits and encoding each of the blocks independently using the same key. It is a deterministic algorithm with a constant transformation that employs the symmetric key. This implies that encrypting the same plaintext block with the same key would yield the same result.

Each block is usually 64 bits, 128 bits, or 256 bits in length, and the corresponding ciphertext blocks are all of the same block length. We choose, say, an r -bit key k to encrypt any block of length n , and note that the permutations of the key k are limited to a very small subset of 2^r . This suggests that the concept of a "perfect cipher" does not exist in this case. Nonetheless, random selection of the bits secret key is significant, since more randomness implies greater confidentiality.

Advanced Encryption Standard

The AES algorithm, like DES, is a symmetric block cypher that does not use a Feistel network. In a broader context, the AES employs a substitution-permutation network. It not only provides increased protection, but it also provides increased speed! According to AES specifications, the block size is set at 128 bits, and there are three main sizes available: 128 bits, 192 bits, and 256 bits. AES is known by various names depending on the key used: AES-128, AES-192, and AES-256.

The number of encryption rounds in AES is determined by the key length. There are ten rounds in AES-128, twelve rounds in AES-192, and fourteen rounds in AES-256. Our discussion in this section is restricted to a key length of 128 (i.e., AES-128) since the mechanism is almost identical for other AES variants. The only difference is the "main key schedule," which we will discuss later in this segment. Unlike DES, AES encryption rounds are iterative, with each round encrypting an entire 128-bit data cube. In addition, unlike DES, the decryption process in AES is not very close to the encryption process.

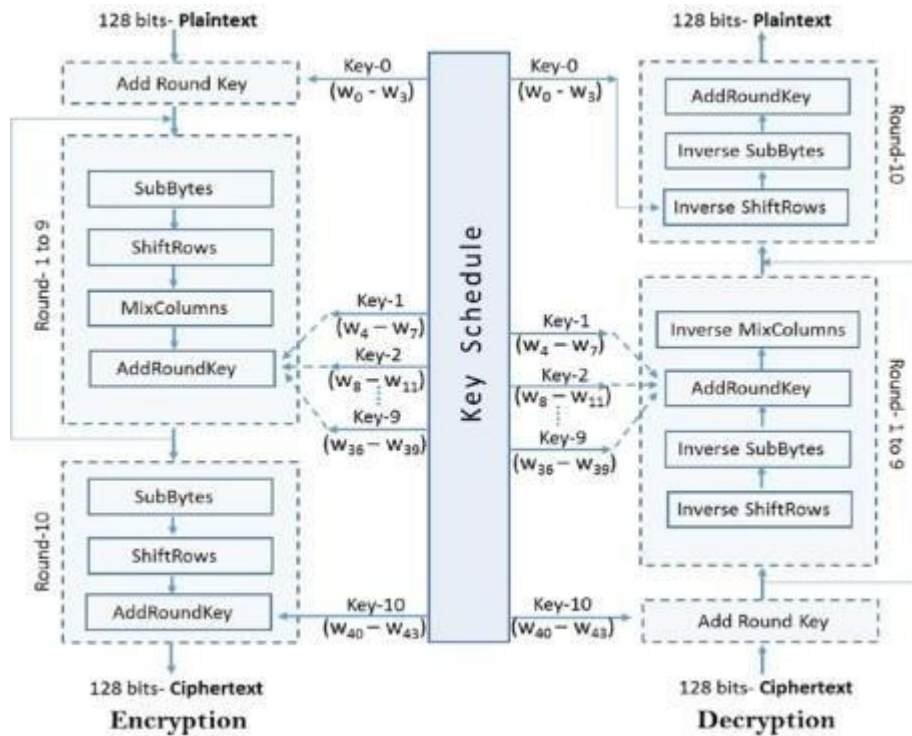


Fig2-4 AES Algorithm

You've already found that the decryption mechanism isn't just the inverse of encryption. The procedures in the rounds are carried out in a random order!

SubBytes, ShiftRows, MixColumns, and AddRoundKey

are all invertible measures in the round feature. It's also worth noting that the rounds are iterative in nature.

Rounds 1 through 9 have all four processes, with the final round excluding only

the "MixColumns" operation. Let us now construct a high-

level understanding of each process that occurs in a round feature.

Challenges in Symmetric Key Cryptography

Symmetric key cryptography has several drawbacks. Among them are the following:

- Before any contact can take place, the sender and recipient must exchange the key. It necessitates the use of a safe key establishment mechanism.
- Since they use the same symmetric key, the sender and recipient must trust each other. The device is corrupted if a receiver is hacked by an attacker or if the receiver intentionally shares the key with someone else.
- A vast network of, say, n nodes necessitates the management of $n(n-1)/2$ keypairs.
- It is best to change the key for each contact session.
- Successful key management also necessitates the use of a trusted third party, which is a significant concern in and of itself.

Cryptographic Hash Functions

Hash functions are the most important cryptographic primitives and are an essential component of the blockchain data structure. They are commonly used in a variety of cryptographic protocols and computer security implementations such as digital signatures and message authentication codes (MACs). Since it is used in asymmetric key cryptography, we will cover it here before moving on to asymmetric cryptography. Please keep in mind that the topics discussed in this segment may differ from those used in university textbooks and may be skewed against the blockchain ecosystem.

Cryptographic hash functions are a subset of hash functions that are suitable for cryptography, and we will confine our discussion to them. As a result, a cryptographic hash function is a one-way

function that transforms arbitrary-length input data to a fixed-length output. The output is commonly referred to as a "hash value" or "message digest."

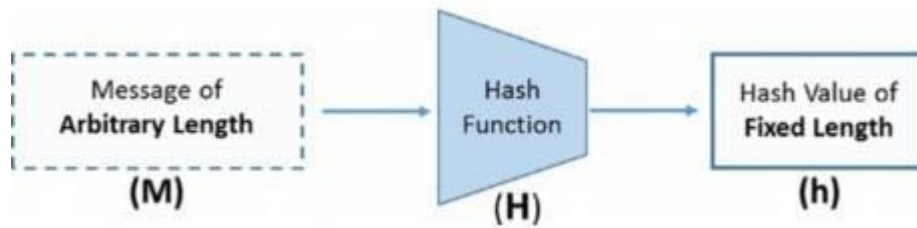


Fig2-5 Hashfunction

SHA-256 and SHA-512

As previously said, SHA-256 is a member of the SHA-2 family of hash functions, which is the one used in Bitcoins! The name comes from the fact that it generates a 256-bit hash value. As a result of the birthday paradox, it can have 2¹²⁸-bit authentication.

Remember that hash functions accept variable length input and return a fixed size output. The random length input is not fed directly to the compression function; instead, it is divided into fixed length blocks before being fed to the compression function. This necessitates the development of a mechanism for iterating via the compression function by constructing fixed sized input blocks from arbitrary length input data and producing a fixed length output. Merkle-Damgård building, tree construction, and sponge construction are examples of construction techniques. It has been shown that if the underlying compression mechanism is collision resistant, then the final hash function, regardless of construction type, should also be collision resistant.

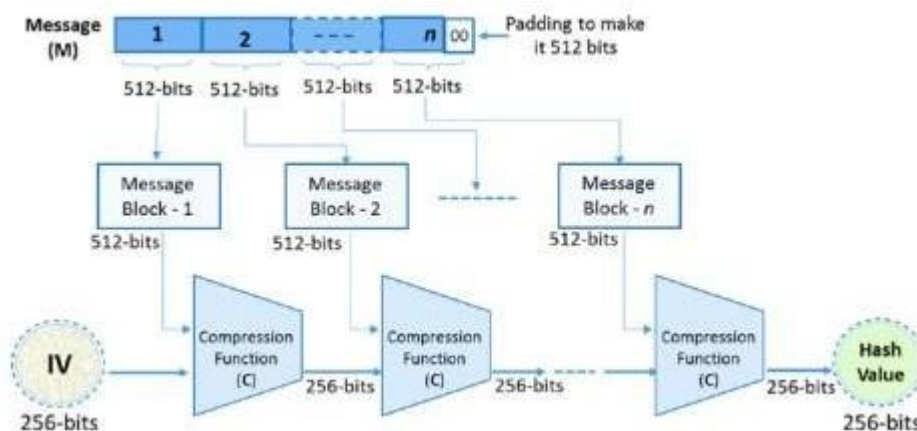


Fig2-6SHA-256 construction

According to the diagram, the following (high-level) steps are carried out in the order defined to compute the final hash value:

- The message is first separated into 512-bit blocks, as seen in the diagram. When the message is not an exact multiple of 512 bits (which is normally the case), the final block is padded to make it 512 bits.
- The 512-bit blocks are further subdivided into 16 32-bit word blocks.
- Each block undergoes 64 rounds of roundwork, with each 32-bit word undergoing a sequence of operations. The round functions are a mixture of several typical functions.

Peer-to-Peer Network

On the Internet, Block Chain employs a P2P network layer. Each node communicates with a group of neighbour nodes, which in turn communicate with their neighbours, and so on. Every node in the network has the ability to access and exit the network at any time. The transfers and blocks are broadcast over the peer-to-peer network, and each receiving node forwards them to other neighbour nodes. Full nodes are those that keep a copy of the whole Block Chain. Two Simple Payment Verification nodes use only block headers to validate payment. Mining nodes are responsible for the generation of blocks.

Timestamping

When the transfers are chronologically arranged and the majority of nodes agree on a single history, the double-spending problem can be overcome by only treating the first transaction from the sender as true for the same funds. Timestamping is accomplished by grouping pending transactions into a block and computing the block hash. Since the transaction is hashed into the block, it can be shown that it happened. The granularity of this is the time it takes to create a new block, which in Bitcoin is 10 minutes.

Consensus

One explanation for this lack of identities is that there is no central authority in a peer-to-peer scheme to delegate identities to participants to ensure that they are not generating new nodes at will. A

Sybil assault is the scientific term for this. Sybils are simply copies of nodes that a malicious adversary may generate to make it seem as if there are several different participants when, in reality, all of those pseudoparticipants are managed by the same adversary. Another justification is that anonymity is an intrinsic objective of Bitcoin. Even if establishing identities for all nodes or participants were feasible or easy, we would not actually want to do so. Although Bitcoin can not have strong confidentiality guarantees and separate transactions may also be tied together, it does provide the property that no one is required to disclose their real life identity, such as their name or IP address, in order to join. And this is a crucial property and a key function in Bitcoin's architecture.

The architecture would be simpler if nodes had identities. For instance, identities will allow us to provide protocol instructions such as "Now the node with the lowest numerical ID should take some action." These to be feasible instructions is more limited in the absence of identities. However, there is a much more serious explanation for nodes to have identities: stability. If nodes were known and it was not easy to construct new node identities, we might make predictions about the number of malicious nodes and draw protection properties from that. On all of these causes, the absence of identity complicates Bitcoin's consensus protocol.

There is an unspoken agreement. This expectation of random node collection allows for something known as a tacit consensus. Our protocol has several rounds, each of which correspond to a different block in the block chain.

Bitcoin consensus algorithm (simplified)

This algorithm is simplified in that it assumes the ability to select a random node in a manner that is not vulnerable to Sybil attacks.

1. New transactions are broadcast to all nodes
2. Each node collects new transactions into a block
3. In each round a random node gets to broadcast its block
4. Other nodes accept the block only if all transactions in it are valid (unspent, valid signatures)
5. Nodes express their acceptance of the block by including its hash in the next block they create

Fig2-7 Bitcoin consensus algorithm points

MerkleTree

In the previous chapter, we discussed the definition of Merkle trees. In this part, we will just look at how Bitcoin employs Merkle trees. Each block in a Bitcoin block chain contains the hash of all transactions, as well as the Merkle root of all these transactions, which is included in the block's header. When we state that each block header contains the hash of the entire previous block, we mean it in the literal sense that it only contains the hash of the previous block's header.

Nonetheless, it suffices that the Merkle root is already present in the header. If a transaction in the block is changed, the Merkle root will no longer fit, and such a configuration also maintains the block chain's legitimacy. The Merkle tree is a data structure that is a tree representation of the hash of the transactions. The Merkle tree's "Leaf Nodes" simply form the hash of the transactions, while the Merkle root is the tree's root.

Related works

A Block Chain may be permission-less or permissioned, depending on how the nodes in the network join and the constraints imposed on the functions. A public Block Chain is also a permissionless Block Chain. By simply running the node programme, any node will join and exit at any time. Transactions can be submitted by signing them with a private key that peer nodes can verify. Block Chains such as Bitcoin and Ethereum are examples of public permission-less Block Chains.

Bitcoin

Blockchain technology provides cryptocurrency: digital assets. Bitcoin is intended to allow P2P money transfers without the use of trustworthy intermediaries, just like we can transact with actual currencies without the use of banks or other centralised institutions. Bitcoin is a decentralised cryptocurrency that is not restricted to any one country and is a global currency. It is autonomous in all aspects—technical, conceptual, and political. New Bitcoins are mined as transactions are validated, with a limit of 21 million Bitcoins ever generated. Anyone with a powerful computer can engage in mining and create new Bitcoins.

Since all Bitcoins have been created, no new coins can be minted, and only those in circulation can be used. Bitcoins, unlike national fiat currencies, do not have set denominations. Bitcoins, by definition, can have any value with eight decimal places of precision. As a result, the smallest value of Bitcoin is 0.00000001 BTC, also known as 1 Satoshi.

1- Block Structure: A Bitcoin blockchain's block structure is set for all blocks and has unique fields with their corresponding necessary details.

- Bytes from Version 4 It denotes the Bitcoin protocol's version number. Each node running the Bitcoin protocol should ideally have the same version number.
- The previous block hash was 32 bytes. It holds the hash of the previous block's header in the row. When all of the fields in the previous block header are combined and hashed with the SHA256 algorithm, a 256-bit result (32 bytes) is generated.
- Merkle Root (32 bits) By default, the hashes of the transactions in a block form a Merkle tree, and Merkle root is the Merkle tree's root hash. When the Merkle root is computed, a transaction that has been updated in the block would not fit. This means that retaining the hash of the previous block's header is sufficient to keep the blockchain stable. Merkle trees also aid in determining whether a transaction was part of the block in $O(n)$ time and are very easy.
- 4 bytes for the timestamp In the Bitcoin network, there is no concept of global time. As a result, in Unix time format, this field indicates the approximate time of block formation.
- Target Difficulty 4 bytes When this block was mined, the proof-of-work (PoW) complexity level was set.
- a single time four bytes This is the random number generated during mining to solve the PoW puzzle.

2- The Bitcoin Network: As previously said, the Bitcoin network is a peer-to-peer network. In such a scheme, there is no centralised server, and each node is handled equally. In such a structure, there is no master-slave relationship and no hierarchy. Since it operates on the Internet, it employs the same TCP/IP protocol stack.

The Bitcoin network is a decentralised network with no single point of failure or jurisdiction. How can you estimate the size of the Bitcoin network for such a design? There is no accurate way to estimate, this is because nodes will join and exit at any time.

However, some attempts have been made to study the Bitcoin network, and some say that there are close to 10,000 nodes that are mainly connected to the network all the time, and that there can be millions of nodes at any given time.

Ethereum

By architecture, Ethereum is stateful and keeps track of account states, in contrast to Bitcoin, where everything is a transaction and there is no internal permanent memory for scripts. The underlying complexities are shielded from developers thanks to an abstract base layer, and developers also have the freedom to create their own state transformation functions for direct transfer of value and information, as well as transaction formats. In order to achieve this goal, Ethereum's central breakthrough was the Ethereum Virtual Machine (EVM). The EVM's support for Turing-complete languages makes it simple for developers to build blockchain applications. EVM is needed to run smart contracts in the same manner as a Java Virtual Machine (JVM), is required to run Java code. For them to be being, just remember that smart contracts are Ethereum scripts written in a Turing complete language that are immediately executed when a predefined event happens. In Bitcoin, the "ScriptSig" and "ScriptPubKey" functions are the basic implementations of smart contracts. We discovered in the previous chapter that the instruction set in Bitcoin was extremely small. In Ethereum, however, almost every application may be written to run on the EVM on each and every node in the Ethereum blockchain network.

DApps are the name given to Ethereum's decentralised applications. Ethereum is a worldwide autonomous operating structure. With no centralised server, DApps are programmes that run without downtime, fraud, or any kind of control. A peer-to-peer electronic cash system, such as Bitcoin, is very simple to create as a DApp on Ethereum. Similarly, any other commodity with inherent value, such as property, vehicles, homes, ballots, and so on, may be easily transacted in the form of tokens from their respective DApps on Ethereum.

DApps, unlike conventional applications creation and distribution, do not require hosting on a back-end server. The "text" is inserted as a payload in transactions, which are then sent to the Ethereum network's mining nodes. Because of the ETH charged as a gas price, certain purchases will be regarded by the mining ecosystem. In Bitcoin, these transfers are broadcast to all those miners in the network that have access to them. When an agreement is reached, the transaction is added to a

block and becomes an everlasting component of the blockchain. Developers are free to create any solution and install it on the Ethereum network. That is carried out and validated by the network. It also generates the outputs. Well, if there had been no fee, the network would not have been viable. Each blockchain transaction has a gas price associated with it, and writing any garbage code and installing it into the Ethereum network might be a costly endeavour.

1- Ethereum Accounts

Unlike Bitcoins, Ethereum accounts do not consist of unspent transaction outputs (UTXOs). We discovered in the Bitcoin chapter that Bitcoin exists in the form of transactions with an owner (owner's public key, 20-byte address) and a value. The owner will invest the transaction provided they have the correct private key for the transaction. As a result, Bitcoin is a state transfer system, where "state" corresponds to the set of all UTXOs.

- Externally Controlled Accounts (EOAs): Also known as "easy accounts," these accounts are typically held by individuals or computers that manage them with Private Keys. By signing with a private key, EOAs may transfer to other EOAs or Contract Accounts. A contract between two EOAs is typically used to move some kind of value. When an EOA makes a deposit to a Contract Account, the aim is to unlock the "code" inside the Contract Account.
- Contract Accounts: They are only managed by the code that is stored inside them. This technology inside the Contract Accounts is known as "smart contracts." They are normally allowed when an EOA or another Contract Account sends a transaction to the Contract Account. Despite the fact that the Contract Accounts can execute complicated business logics through the code they contain, they cannot perform new transactions on their own and must still depend on the EOAs. They can only respond to other transactions (obviously by making transactions) according to the logic coded in their "code."

2- Ethereum Smart Contracts

Because of smart contracts, Ethereum is so much more. In the previous pages, when talking about Contract Accounts, we got a snapshot of what a smart contract could be. Although we will get into the implementation aspects of smart contracts in the following pages, this section will go into depth on what they are. Let's begin with why it's called that. Please keep in mind

ndthatanout-of-the-boxsmartcontractcontainsnothing"smart."Itbecomes

intelligent when smart logic is programmed into it, and the magic of Ethereum allows you to do so. Let us recap what we have learned so far about Ethereum smart contracts:

- The Ethereum block chain is home to smart contracts.
- They have their own account, but they have their own address and balance.
- They have the ability to transmit messages and receive transfers.
- They are enabled when they receive a transaction and can also be deactivated.
- They are subject to the same execution and storage fees as other transactions.

Decentralized Ledger

Bitcoin is an example of the traditional Block Chain protocol. As the first public ledger, it has drawn over 10,000 nodes, establishing the highest market capitalization of all cryptocurrencies. In an ideal world, a deployed Dapp would not need any maintenance or governance from the original developers. In other words, an optimal Block Chain framework or operations should be capable of functioning without the need for human interaction, forming a Decentralized Autonomous Organization (DAO).

A DAO is an organisation that operates according to laws encoded as smart contracts that run on the Block Chain. Because of its independent and automated existence, the cost and benefit of a DAO are shared by all players by merely logging all tasks into blocks. Bitcoin, the most traditional Block Chain protocol, is an example of a DAO. According to the description of Dapps, Dapps are distinguished by four characteristics, which are as follows:

- **Open Source:** Due to the trustworthy nature of Block Chain, Dapps must make their code open source in order for third-party audits to be feasible.
- **Internal Cryptocurrency Support,** internal currency is the vehicle that powers a specific Dapp's ecosystem. A Dapp may use tokens to measure all credits and transactions among device users, including service providers and customers.
- **The basis of transparency is Decentralized Consensus,** or agreement among decentralised nodes.
- **There is no single point of failure.** Since all elements of the applications will be hosted and implemented in the Block Chain, a completely decentralised infrastructure can have no single point of failure.

A Review on Blockchain Healthcare Applications

Legacy programmes usually only share healthcare services within the medical and healthcare fields and are incompatible with external systems. Nonetheless, data suggests that combining these networks for integrated and improved healthcare has multiple advantages, necessitating interconnection between diverse institutions for health informatics researchers. One of the most pressing problems is multi-organizational data sharing, which requires patient data collected from a healthcare provider to be readily accessible to other institutions such as a practitioner or research institute. Blockchain technology is redefining data management and governance in many healthcare applications. This is due to its adaptability and unparalleled segmentation, as well as the safe exchange of patient data and resources. Blockchain technology is at the forefront of numerous current trends in the healthcare sector.

With advancements in electronic health records, cloud data storage, and patient data security laws, new opportunities for health data processing are opening up, as well as the ease for patients to view and share their health data. Ensuring data protection, storage, transfers, and seamless integration is extremely important to any data-driven enterprise, particularly in healthcare, where blockchain technology has the ability to solve the most critical issues in a rigorous and efficient manner. This section delves into blockchain-based technologies such as data transfer, data management, data storage, and EHR.

Emerging blockchain-based healthcare technologies are conceptually separated into multiple levels, which include data repositories, blockchain infrastructure, healthcare implementations, and stakeholders. Catalini and Gordon concluded their discussion about how blockchain technologies would allow patient-centric control of healthcare data sharing over institution-centric control in a study on healthcare blockchain. They investigated how blockchain technology changes the healthcare industry by allowing digital access privileges, patient identity across the network, processing a vast amount of healthcare data, and data immutability in their report.

Daisuke focused on medical information for the Hyperledger Fabric blockchain platform, sending medical data to the Hyperledger blockchain network. They gathered such medical records with the aid of smartphones. They were attempting to ensure that the healthcare data are registered to the Blockchain as part of their work.

Anuraag investigated blockchain as a means of effectively managing healthcare records. They included different forms of trials in their research, and the majority of the analysis in this study was addressing the possible advantages and disadvantages of blockchain technology for healthcare without including any evidence or framework assessment. They also reached an agreement on how blockchain could be a perfect match for storing healthcare information on the cloud infrastructure while protecting data protection and privacy.

3 SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Analysis and Design

3.1.1 System Analysis

The research is a systematic examination of the system's different processes and their interactions inside and outside of the system. A critical concern is what has to be done to fix the crisis. One part of the study is identifying the system's boundaries and deciding whether or not the applicant's system can take into account other similar structures. During the research, information is gathered about the available files, decision points, and transactions managed by the current system.

SRS:

The Software Requirement Specification (SRS) is the starting point for developing software. Throughout the scheme, it got more difficult to the point that the overall meaning of the system could not be easily grasped. The process of defining requirements was then required. The software project is built on the desires of customers. The SRS is a method for converting customer thoughts into a formal document (the input) (the output of the requirement phase).

The SRS phase consists of two basic activities:

- Dilemma/Requirement Analysis: A hazy and ordered method of comprehending the problem, the target, and the constraints.
- Requirement Specification: The aim here is to define the findings, conduct research on representation, languages, and equipment, and develop test specifications.

The requirement process concludes until all validated SRS documents have been produced. The primary goal of this procedure is to produce the SRS paper.

Role of SRS:

The Software Requirement Specification is a formalised formalised formalised formalised formalized. Aim to bridge the gap between customers and developers through collaboration. The medium used to properly define the customer and user requirements is application specification. It serves as the basis for app growth. Both participating scheme members should be pleased with a good SRS.

3.1.2 System Design

The architecture will be implemented as a decentralised application (DApp) that will support a private blockchain network with a distributed file system on the backend (DFS). The Ethereum blockchain smart contract protocol was used in the design of the healthcare blockchain smart contract system. This is an open source network that is now one of the biggest distributed blockchain networks, with a thriving ecosystem and a sizable public DApp repository. The network currently employs a proof_of_work (PoW) consensus algorithm known as Ethash, but developers are working to move to a proof-of-stake (PoS) scalability algorithm in the near future.

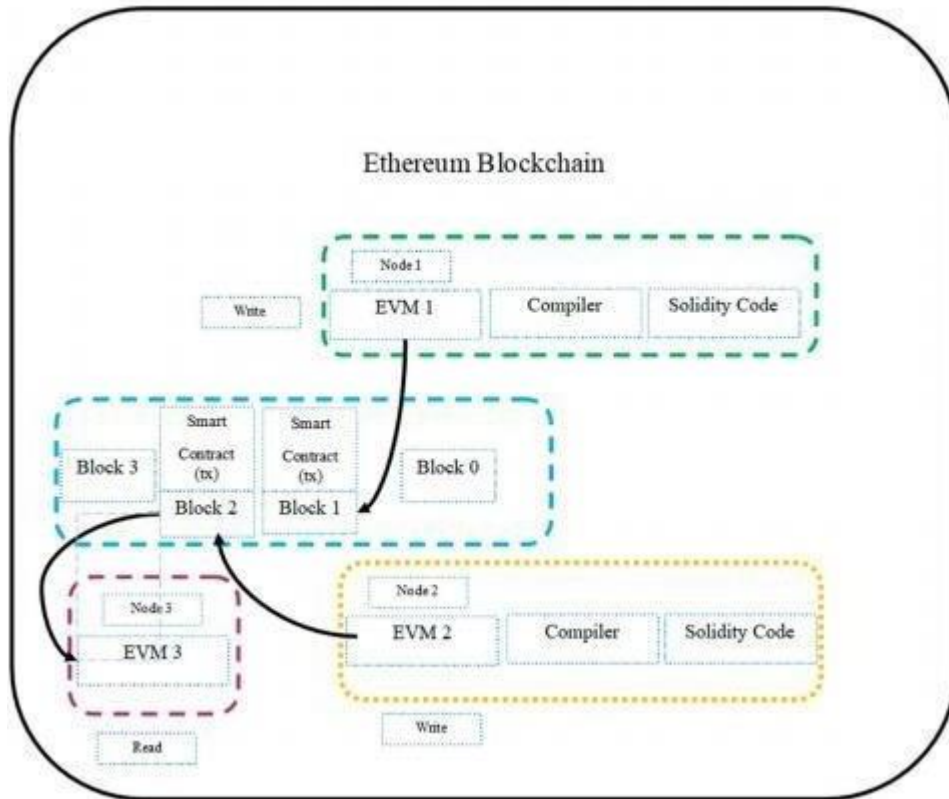


Fig3-1 SmartContractMechanism

A consensus algorithm such as Delegated Proof-of-Stake Practical Byzantine Fault Tolerance (PBFT) is ideal for the architecture of distributed applications. The DApp will be able to spot irregularities, unwanted data insertions, and missing persons by matching DFS content with ledger documents. Each phase is labelled with an auditing timeline. The smart contracts' key components are functions, events, state variables, and modifiers, which are written in the high-level programming language Solidity. The Remix and Kovan test networks were used to deploy smart contracts on the testnet and testnet ethers for transaction fee payment. Three phases are involved in the development of a smart contract using Solidity programming: composing, compiling, and announcing. Solidity's real-time compiler generates the bytecode. Ethereum Wallet was used to publish smart contracts to the blockchain. Figure 1 depicts the execution of smart contracts with Ethereum, without the mining method for simplicity. This smart contract is compiled at the computer level into byte code, with each byte representing an operation, and then uploaded to the blockchain as an EVM-1 transaction. A miner picks it up and confirms Block-

1. When a user submits a request through the web interface, the EVM-2 queries the web-based data, embeds it in Transaction tx, and deploys it to the blockchain. In Block, the state of tr ansaction tx is changed. If node 3 later needs to search the states stored in the contract, it must synchronize up to at least Block-2 to see the changes caused by tx.

3.2 Model Development

3.2.1 Analytical

Blockchain Based Smart Contracts for Healthcare

We use Ethereum smart contracts to construct smart representations of current medical records, which are then stored on the network within individual nodes. We create contracts that provide meta data about record possession, permissions, and data integrity. The blockchain transactions in our system contain cryptographically signed instructions for handling these properties.

Only legal transactions implementing data alternation allow the contract's state transition functions carry out policies. This law can be designed to implement any set of guidelines governing a single medical record, as long as it can be interpreted computationally. A protocol, for example, can require separate approval transactions from patients and healthcare providers before giving third-

party viewing permission. For dynamic healthcare workflows, we created a framework focused on blockchain smart contracts. Smart contracts have been developed to manage data access permissions between various institutions in the healthcare environment and for different medical workflows.

a smart contract stored on blockchain technologies may be designed that will have all of the requirements from handling various permissions to data access, and it can be shown that a variety of parties are engaged in this scheme carrying out different tasks. This would aid in improving interactions between physicians and patients. Smart contracts have data authorization laws. It will also assist in monitoring all operations with a special id from their inception to their surrender. Different scenarios have been planned and outlined, and all of the features and processes contained in the smart contracts are well defined. There will be no need for a centralized agency to oversee and sanction the operation because it will be handled directly by the smart contract, dramatically lowering the administration expense of handling the process.

To ensure performance and economic stability, all medical record data is maintained in local database storage, and the hash of the data is the data part of the block dedicated to the chain.

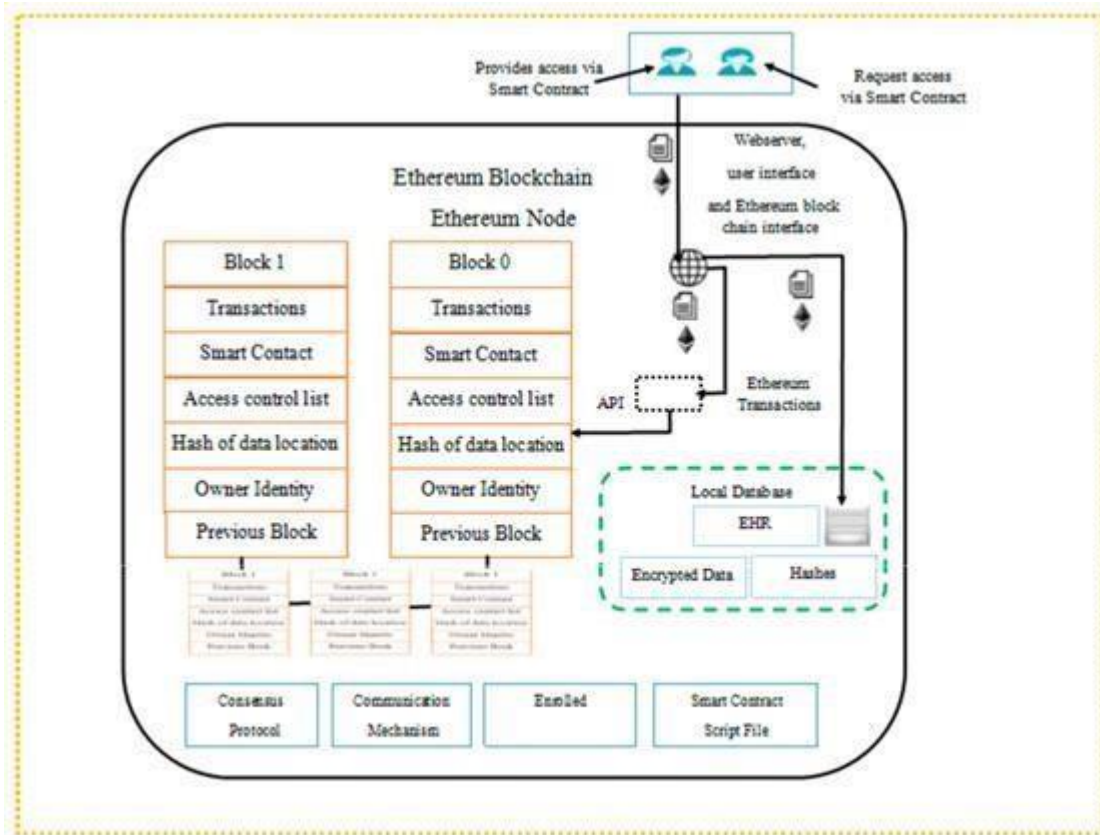


Fig3-2 Workflow with smart contract

The owner's private key is used to sign the data transfers (patient or doctor). The system's block material reflects data ownership and viewing permission exchanged by users of a peer-to-peer private network. Smart contracts, which enable users to automate and monitor those state changes, are supported by blockchain technologies. We log patient-provider relationships using Ethereum smart contracts that link a medical record with viewing rights and data collection instructions for external server execution. To prevent tampering, we add a cryptographic hash of the record on the blockchain, preserving data confidentiality.

Providers can create a new record for a single patient, and patients can consent to record sharing between providers. In all scenarios, the individual processing new material gets an electronic message and can check the proposed record until it is approved or refused. This

enable those who are involved in the evolution of their documents to be aware and committed. This framework prioritises usability by including a designated contract that aggregates connections to all of a user's patient-provider interactions, including a central point of reference to scan any medical background and changes. To manage identity verification, we use public key cryptography and a DNS-like implementation that maps an already existing and widely accepted form of ID, such as a user's name or social security number, to the user's Ethereum address. A syncing algorithm manages "off-chain" data sharing between a patient database and a provider database after returning to the blockchain to validate permissions through our database authentication server.

Implementation Details

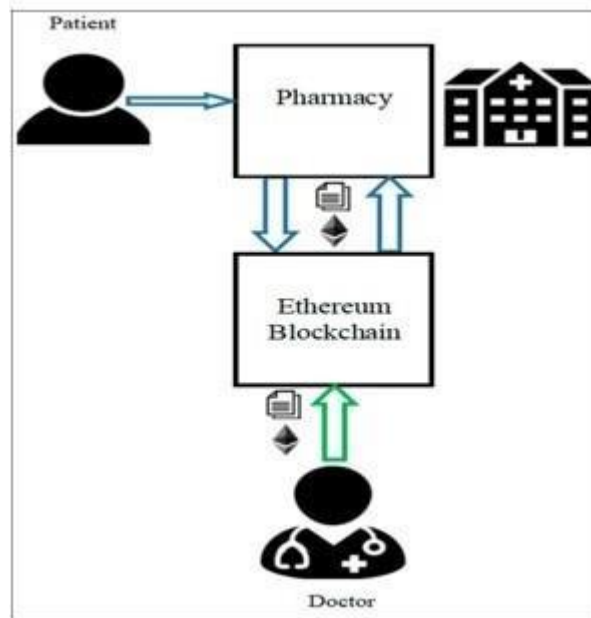
Various medical workflows involving various medical treatments have been developed and applied using the blockchain smart contract technology. This covers everything from issuing simple medical prescriptions to treating complicated illnesses and their procedures, such as surgical procedures for operation patients. The aim of developing these medical smart contracts is to help patients, physicians, and healthcare organisations solve logistical inefficiencies. This method would aid in the retrieval, examination, and maintenance of complex medical data and procedures.

Filling of Prescriptions

The primary aim is to streamline the medical drug handling process by minimising lengthy wait times, eliminating bribery from the system, and lowering the error rate caused by doctor misinterpretations. A doctor signs a prescription for a patient and adds it to the patient's medical history using a smart contract. The pharmacy then gains access to this medication through the Ethereum blockchain smart contract, thanks to approval given by the primary doctor and the customer. After accessing the drug, the pharmacy issues the medication with the expiry date and dose usage posted on to the patient's healthcare records through smart contracts, and the medicine is then available for the patient to receive. In general, smart contract features coordinate medication

satisfaction among doctors and drug stores. Following a patient's appointment, doctors devote little time explaining medication orders or speaking with pharmacy shops in general.

The patient, primary doctor (GP), and pharmacy are all included in the data flow for administering a medical prescription. It also includes prescription information such as medicine id, expiry date, patient id, and so on.



Fig

3-3 Smart contract for medical domain

Results Data

The main goal is to exchange information through blockchain smart contracts by allowing laboratories, physicians, emergency clinics, and other collaborators to effectively access and share a patient's therapeutic information among various stakeholders. Consider the following scenario: a patient enters a lab for a blood examination. After being processed, the lab will enter the data into the patient's records, and the patient will receive updates via Ethereum blockchain, including a note that the processed results of the test are accessible, as well as the option to allow the lab to encrypt the information and store it on the Ethereum blockchain. The patient grants permission for the information to be posted on the blockchain. If there is an emergency with the patient and he is unresponsive, the emergency room will be able to easily access patient records from the Ethereum network to have personalized care.

Allowing patients' medical history to be shared on healthcare blockchain saves patients from having to transport laboratory samples or arrange for records to be faxed to separate treatment facilities.

ies. Healsomaintainsthatallof hishealthcareprofessionalsprovidetheknowledgetheyneedto deliver the best care possible. Laboratories save money on regulatory costs by printing and mailing or faxing each test result to a single supplier. In addition, laboratories and patients have accesstothehealthcareblockchain.

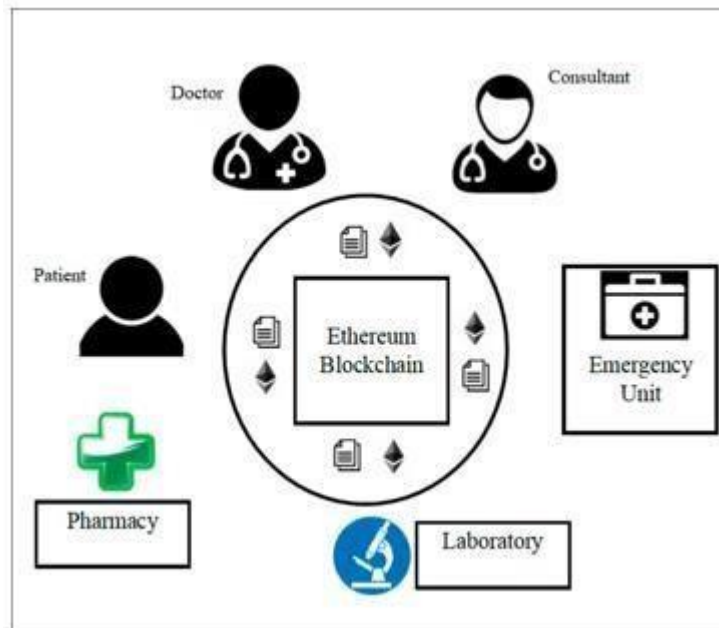


Fig3-4labresultsharing

CommunicationbetweenProviders

In this case, the patient requests treatment for a medical condition. It sends this request to the primary doctor automatically via the smart contract system. A doctor must assess the referral and respond with a prescription, as well as refer the patients to a physician for further treatment if necessary. Any patient information about treatment history should be documented in the EHR. Please keep in mind that the medical record is held in a local archive where there are strict rules governing who has access to the record and to what degree, and these rules are governed by smart contracts on the Ethereum blockchain.

Another instance in which the patient requests a particular medical procedure. As a result, it sends this proposal to the relevant professional through the agreement's strict structure. A doctor recognises the demand and answers with a prescription, and patients are simply exchanged for additional treatment with the expert. Any health records pertaining to treatment status must be documented in the EHR. It is worth noting that an neighbouring archive holds patient

records where there are clear instructions that should approach the record to what extent, and these guidelines are managed by the competent contracts on the Ethereum blockchain.

Patients requesting clinical advice about a particular topic get much more personalised recommendations than those given by a web search. Senior physicians benefit from a creative way to monetize their experience without overbooking their schedules, while junior physicians gain access to a new potential patient base and develop their reputation within their specialisation. Payments allow patients to seek advice from junior physicians.

Data Flow

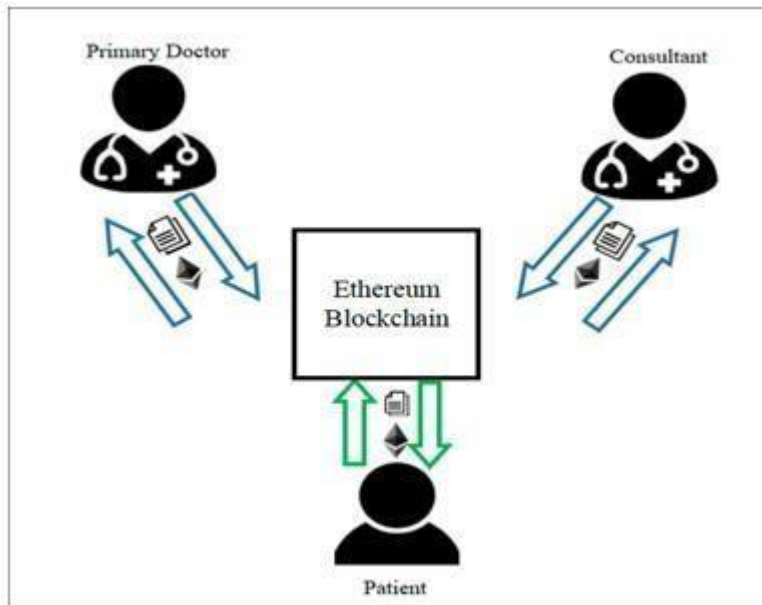


Fig3-5 communication link between users

The primary goal is to expedite the payment process for the health-care system. Physicians will be able to continue with treatments more easily as a result of this, rather than trying to place their patient's condition on hold while waiting for the payer to respond. The execution of digital smart contracts will keep a close eye on the whole operation. Reducing, and eventually removing, the error-prone human activity required to manually evaluate and respond to prior authorization requests, as well as reducing appeals caused by inaccurate reading of manually written prior authorization forms.

Health Insurance Company publishes their policies through blockchain smart contracts that include the policies that are used to decide authorization. The provider then submits an application to the blockchain for advance permission for a doctor consultation, medication, or prescription. The payer's, smart_contract_based on the patient's medical records recorded on the Ethereum blockchain and the information in the proposal. The authorization data would then be automatically returned to the supplier. In addition, the patient, as well as any laboratories, clinics, physicians, or other parties to which the patient is granted access, may check their insurance authorization in real time.

The electronic prior authorization process will result in considerable cost savings for payers, who now waste significant sums of time actively monitoring and responding to demands. Doctors would be able to continue with treatment more efficiently rather than trying to postpone caring for their patients while waiting for the payer's response. Furthermore, patients will not have to worry about whether their insurers will cover the care that their doctor has prescribed. Doctors and patients can effectively collaborate on a treatment package customized uniquely to the patient's needs and the necessary health plans if prior consent information is readily accessible.

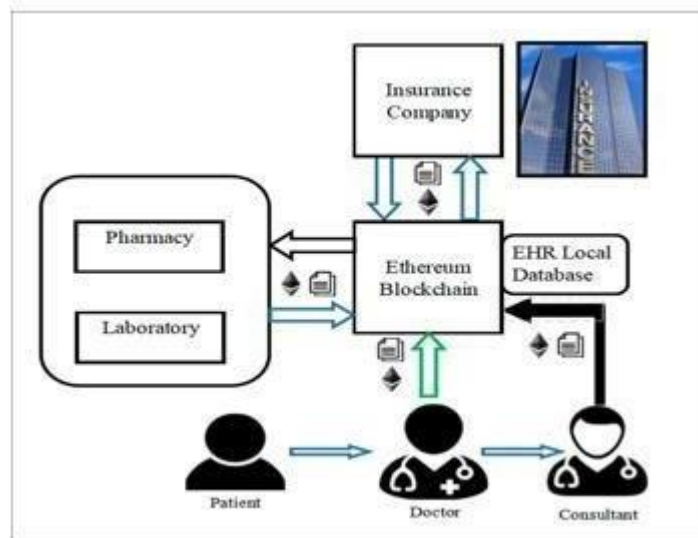


Fig3-6Healthcareframework

SmartContracts

Providing medication and medical products suppliers with a quicker and more cost-effective solution to the existing clinical trial procurement process, which often necessitates significant expenditure to purchase patient contact information from separated data sources and conduct extensive pull-marketing strategies. The key aim is for consumers to be able to run clinical trial-related smart contracts on an Ethereum network, resulting in safer drugs and greater public interest in medical science. We can manage metadata, such as protocol registration, predefined research information, screening and enrollment records, using smart contracts in this phase. To classify prospective candidates for clinical trials, a pharmaceutical corporation searches for metadata contained on the Ethereum blockchain. The company then sends a letter to chosen patients, along with an application that allows them to read their medical history, and any related laboratory research findings. If the patient agrees, a pharmacy industry payment will be collected via smart contracts, with a portion of the revenue going to the patient and another portion going to the laboratories that reported the required test findings for the patient.

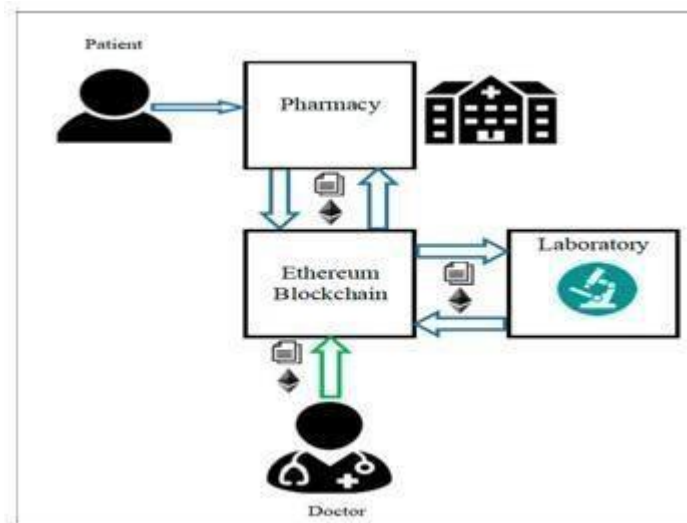


Fig3-7 Working of data framework

Drug and medical device suppliers can greatly minimize spending on data sales and marketing campaigns by specifically contacting qualifying consumers. Patients, on the other hand, will have access to alternative care options in addition to providing credit for participation in trials. Laboratories interested in posting reports will be able to monetize their findings in a new way.

4 PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

In this segment, we evaluate blockchain platform efficiency in terms of average execution time, average latency, and average throughput. It is clear that Hyperledger Fabric outperforms Ethereum in all situations. Execution Time Comparison we investigate the variations in execution time of varying numbers of transactions for different platforms and functions. When the number of transactions in the data collection grows, so do the execution times.

In all datasets, Hyperledger's execution time is consistently smaller than Ethereum's. If the number of transactions increases, so does the time difference between Hyperledger and Ethereum. We should remember that `CreateAccount` makes use of a native feature of both systems so constructing an identity is a native function given, while `IssueMoney` and `TransferMoney` are custom functions written. Execution time for `CreateAccount` (133.55 seconds) is significantly faster than `IssueMoney`, (477.71 seconds)

and `TransferMoney` subtracts money from one account and transfers the same sum to another, while `IssueMoney` adds money to one account and subtracts money from another. The workload for `IssueMoney` is about half of the workload for `TransferMoney`. `IssueMoney` and `TransferMoney` take 41.16 and 62.59 seconds for a batch of 10,000 transactions, respectively, for Hyperledger, and 477.71 and 485.41 seconds for Ethereum. The findings indicate a significant gap in data control and maintenance between the two platforms. Average Latency Comparison The log plot of average latency experienced by `TransferMoney` transactions in five sets of experiments for each network is shown in Fig. 5. The average latency of Hyperledger is 0.09 seconds and the average latency of Ethereum is 0.21 seconds for the data collection of one transaction. At low transaction volumes, Ethereum's latency is roughly double that of Hyperledger. The latency of Ethereum increases much faster than that of Hyperledger as the number of transactions in the data collection grows. The log-log plot of average latency is analogous.

Average latency was measured in five sets of experiments for each platform. It can be shown that as the number of transactions in the dataset rises, so does the average latency of both platforms. As the number of transactions is increased from 1000 to 10,000, the average latency of Ethereum and Hyperledger increases to 18.67x and 17.09x, respectively. The log-log plot of average throughput experienced by `TransferMoney` transactions in five sets of experiments for each network. In all data sets, Hyperledger outperforms Ethereum in terms of throughput. When the number of transactions

in the datasets is 100, the total throughput of both networks maximise. The log-log map of average throughput is analogous to the log-log plot of average throughput. Average throughput in five sets of experiments for each platform is compared. It can be seen that when the number of transactions is changed, the shift in average throughput of Hyperledger is greater than that of Ethereum. Latency and Throughput in a Large Workload Trial investigate how individual transactions in a dataset face latency and throughput when 10,000 transactions are implemented. Both transactions in Ethereum have a long delay, with the first transaction confirmed after 361.36 seconds and eventually confirmed after that.

all subsequent purchases The first transaction is confirmed by Hyperledger after 3.57 seconds, and subsequent transactions are confirmed in batches of 500. The high latency experienced by Ethereum transaction prompts an inquiry into the minimum latency. It can be shown that when the number of transactions is high, excessive latency occurs.

Maximum concurrent transactions

We implemented concurrent transactions to assess the capability and limitations of each platform and report the maximum number of concurrent transactions that each platform can accommodate. This exercise would use the Transfer Money transaction. Starting with 10,000, the number of concurrent transactions is multiplied by 10,000 before we reach the limit of what the network can accommodate. If the platform reports failure or fails to answer within 10 minutes, this is referred to as failure. According to the findings, Hyperledger Fabric can support 20,000 concurrent transactions, while Ethereum can handle 50,000 concurrent transactions. Furthermore, as the number of concurrent transactions grows, all CPUs are completely used, according to resource consumption.

Implications

The research in this paper demonstrates that Hyperledger Fabric reliably outperforms Ethereum in terms of throughput and latency. The results of this paper suggest that as the number of transactions increases, the disparity between Ethereum and Hyperledger Fabric becomes much more pronounced.

A direct implication is that, for a given blockchain application, estimating expected number of transactions will be very crucial in selecting suitable platforms as they can alter subsequent throughput, execution time, and latency. Particularly, latency can play a crucial role in applications involving money transfers as well as other forms of trading. We note also that the latencies presented in this paper should be considered the minimum possible latency that can occur when adopting these two private blockchain platforms. At the application level, more calculation/logical processes may be introduced which can induce even larger latencies. Lastly, even though Hyperledger Fabric outperforms Ethereum in all aspects, our findings also show that Ethereum is able to handle more concurrent transactions for similar computational resources.

Limitation of the study Analysis

This setup for this evaluation intentionally analyses the execution layer of the target blockchain platforms. Consensus layers are excluded from the analysis by configuration. While the distributed aspect is a crucial part of blockchain platforms, the reason behind this deliberate choice is because the two target platforms utilised different consensus protocols, which then nature of the protocols directly impact the performance. The nature of Proof of Work mechanism of Ethereum's consensus mechanism is much slower than the nature of PBFT mechanism that is deployed in Hyperledger Fabric. The test setup in this paper tests the capability and limitations of both platforms' implementation layer (smart contract infrastructure). The existence of consensus offers protection but decreases system efficiency; hence, the findings provided in this paper represent the best case scenario of performance. In the future, we will investigate the implications of consensus protocols. An examination of the platforms' latest versions This paper tests and contrasts two blockchain platforms using the most recent implementation at the time of the review. While this does not reflect what blockchain solutions would be in the future due to ongoing improvements, it does bridge an information void regarding the capacity and limitations of state.

5 CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Conclusions

Since its introduction to the world by Bitcoin, blockchain technology has developed into a general, purpose technology with applications in a variety of fields, like healthcare. To explain the current state of the use of blockchain technologies in healthcare, we conducted a comprehensive analysis in which we used the systematic mapping study method to build a map of all related studies. The study's aims were to define blockchain technology use cases in healthcare, example apps designed for these use cases, problems and disadvantages of blockchain. Based on healthcare applications, emerging methods used in designing these applications, and areas for potential studies. Our paper collection and search procedure yielded 65 articles, which were reviewed to answer the study questions. According to our findings, blockchain has a wider range of healthcare applications, including the administration of electronic medical records, medication and pharmacy supply chain management, scientific research and education, online patient control, and health data analytics. A variety of blockchain-based healthcare prototypes have been created based on new blockchain paradigms such as smart contracts, permissioned blockchain, off-chain storage, and so on. More analysis, however, is needed to better understand, define, and assess the usefulness of blockchain technology in healthcare. Further study is also needed to complement ongoing efforts to overcome the challenges of scalability, latency, interoperability, stability, and safety in the use of blockchain technology in healthcare.

5.2 Future Scope

As a result of the technology's rapid adoption, a blockchain is often used as an architectural feature of a large-scale distributed software system to store data that not only varies greatly in format and content, but also expresses a variety of diverse application domain requirements. So there is still space for new consensus algorithms that do not need a miner, computing resources, or any other resources as offering only to prove the credibility of the job. Then we design a single portal where we can allow users a window to use the built framework from any device. Finally, a comparison of the existing system with a cloud-based system to determine the pros and cons of that system and, if applicable, how we can turn it into our own to make it more cost-effective in the long run. As we phase out new modified models, we will also be introducing more pipelines to the grid to include new functional and non-functional functionalities.

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