

Post-Quantum Blockchain Framework for Securing the Social Internet of Things

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Abstract: The Social Internet of Things (SIoT) integrates social networking principles with IOT, enabling autonomous, collaborative interactions among smart devices. While security and privacy challenges due to Heterogeneity Of devices distributed communication. Traditional blockchain-based solutions provide decentralized trust and tamper-proof transaction recording, but they largely rely on classical cryptographic algorithms, which are vulnerable to quantum computing attacks. Additionally, existing models suffer from high key generation time, inefficient block creation, and low transaction validation accuracy, limitation their scalability and reliability in large IoT networks. To address these limitations Post- Quantum Blockchain Framework for Securing Social IoT (PQBCF-SSIoT) is proposed. This framework integrates post-quantum cryptographic algorithms with optimized blockchain protocols, ensuring quantum-resistant security, efficient key generation, and reliable transaction processing. PQBCF-SSIoT enhances block creation and validation accuracy while minimizing computational overhead, making it suitable for resource-constrained IoT devices. PQBCF-SSIoT achieves a block creation accuracy of 97.5% and a block validation accuracy of 98.2%, significantly outperforming SSIoT-GAN, which reaches 94.2% creation accuracy and 95.1% validation accuracy, and OAD2D-SIoT, which achieves 92.8% creation accuracy and 93.5% validation accuracy. The proposed model achieved better performance in providing security levels.

Keywords: Social Internet of Things, Security, Privacy, Blockchain, Post-Quantum Blockchain, Computational Overhead.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Social Internet of Things (SIoT) extends traditional social networking principles to the Internet of Things by enabling smart devices to autonomously form social relationships based on predefined socialization rules set by their owners [1]. To overcome the scalability challenges of large IoT ecosystems and to support decentralized coordination, SIoT is increasingly integrated with blockchain technology and Distributed Applications (DApps), which provide decentralized trust management and immutable data handling [2] [3].

The Internet of Things (IoT) refers to a network of physical objects embedded with sensors, software, and communication technologies that allow them to gather, share, and act upon data autonomously [4]. Through connectivity and data exchange, IoT devices become more intelligent and capable of coordinated behaviour [5]. SIoT builds upon this foundation by incorporating

social interaction models among devices—similar to human social networks—to enhance information sharing, trust, and system scalability [6]. Unlike conventional IoT architectures, SIoT enables devices to establish social relationships that support efficient collaboration beyond simple rule-based communication [7] [8].

A key security challenge in implementing post-quantum cryptography (PQC) in SIoT arises from the limited computational power, memory, and energy resources of typical IoT devices [9], which struggle to support large PQC algorithms such as lattice-based schemes [10] [11]. PQC algorithms often require significantly larger key sizes and involve higher computational overhead, making their direct deployment in IoT systems difficult [12]. Despite offering strong resistance to quantum-capable adversaries, PQC-enabled blockchain systems may introduce drawbacks including increased storage needs

[13], bandwidth overhead [14], reduced scalability, and remaining vulnerabilities to classical attack vectors [15].

In SloT trust management, user-centric algorithms are commonly employed to evaluate trust across device interactions [16]. Iterating over users ($u \in U$) ensures that trust reflects the diverse preferences, relationships, and interaction histories between users and their devices [17]. These approaches incorporate factors such as Cooperativeness (CoP), Friendship Similarity (FS), Community-of-Interest (COI), and Interaction Factor (IF) to compute direct trust scores [18] [19]. Recent taxonomies highlight the potential of privacy-preserving techniques such as zero-knowledge proofs within post-quantum blockchain systems and examine blockchain’s emerging role in enhancing PQC-based trust architectures [20].

IoT environments rely on autonomous data exchange among interconnected computing devices, enabling communication and coordination without human intervention [21]. SloT extends this paradigm by allowing interactions within a user’s social ecosystem through their multiple IoT devices [22] [23]. To protect privacy in decentralized SloT networks, homomorphic encryption and other advanced cryptographic techniques are adopted to allow secure computation over encrypted data [24].

Blockchain technology ensures distributed, tamper-resistant, and transparent data management using decentralized peer-to-peer trust, immutability, and traceability [25]. Its security relies primarily on asymmetric cryptography and cryptographic hashing [26] [27]. Digital signatures within blockchain systems guarantee identity verification, data integrity, and non-repudiation of transactions [28]. To meet diverse security, anonymity, and scalability requirements, blockchain platforms employ various signature schemes—including Multi-Signature, Blind Signature, Ring Signature, and Threshold Signature [29] [30].

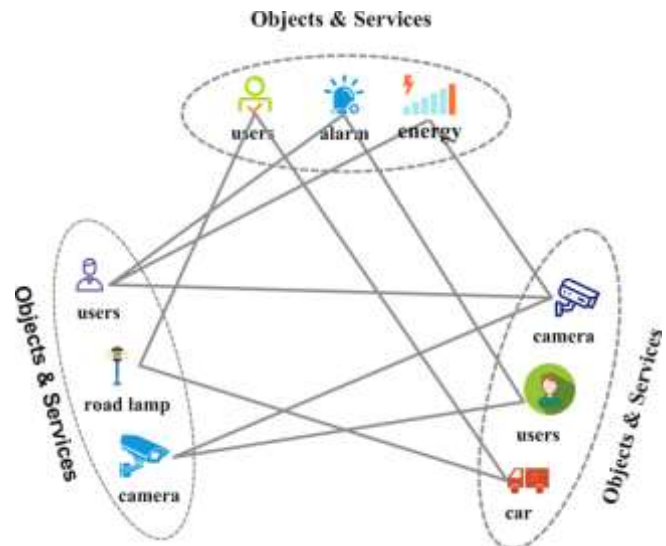


Fig:1 Interaction of Object and Service in the Social Internet of Things

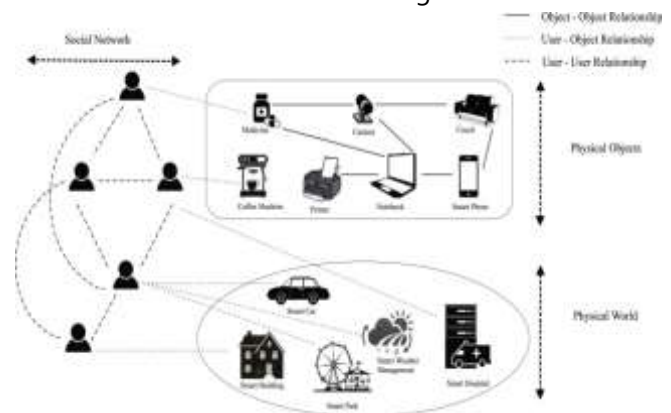


Fig:2 Relationship Between User and Smart Objects in the Social Internet of Things (SloT)

II. LITERATURE SURVEY

Although its implementation complexity and performance overhead were not thoroughly examined, H. Yi (2022) proposed a post-quantum blockchain system for SloT privacy protection using post-quantum ring signatures, offering quantum-resistant security against both classical and quantum attacks with decentralized trust [31]. Although SM2 proved resource-intensive (>65% CPU) and algorithm performance varied across devices, X. Yang and X[1]. Wang (2025) developed a blockchain and smart

contract-based secure data sharing framework for IoT social assistance using AES, RSA, SM2, and SHA-256, achieving efficient data sharing, high anomaly detection (95%), and cost savings over 50% [32].

Although it necessitates intensive training and might be less effective against unidentified attack types, L. Nie et al. (2022)[3] presented a GAN-based intrusion detection system combined with collaborative edge computing to detect single and multi-attack threats in real time, improving edge security [33]. Using XACML extensions with blockchain delegation policies, O. Dallel et al.

(2024) proposed an educational SIoT framework that protected against replay and MITM attacks and allowed for fast access/delegation evaluation (<0.32ms) [34]. However, social relationship adaptation to XACML was difficult and not entirely generalizable [35]. Although urban occlusion was still partially unresolved, S. Chandra et al. (2025) developed an occlusion-aware secure device-to-device communication protocol with spline-based power and intelligent resource allocation, achieving throughput increases of 10.93% and improvements in secrecy rate of 27.86% validated in real-world USRP experiments [36].

Author Name & Year of Publication	Proposed Model	Algorithms Used	Advantages	Limitations
H. Yi (2022)	Post-quantum blockchain system for SIoT privacy protection	Post-quantum ring signature; blockchain	Quantum-resistant; secure against classical & quantum attacks; decentralized	Implementation complexity; performance overhead not discussed
X. Yang & X. Wang (2025)	Blockchain & smart contract-based secure data sharing for IoT social assistance	AES, RSA, SM2, SHA-256; Smart Contracts	Efficient data sharing; high anomaly detection (95%); cost-saving (>50%)	SM2 is resource intensive (>65% CPU); algorithm performance varies
L. Nie et al. (2022)	GAN-based intrusion detection in collaborative edge SIoT	Generative Adversarial Network (GAN)	Detects both single & multi-attack threats; real-time detection; enhanced edge security	Needs extensive training; might be less effective for unknown attack types
O. Dallel et al. (2024)	Educational SIoT using blockchain & access control extension	XACML extension; Blockchain delegation policies	Fast access/delegation evaluation (<0.32ms); protection against replay & MITM attacks	Complexity in adapting social relationships to XACML; not fully generalizable
S. Chandra et al. (2025)	Occlusion-aware secure D2D communication for SIoT	Spline-based power allocation; Intelligent resource allocation	↑ Throughput by 10.93%, ↑ Secrecy rate by 27.86%; real-world validation (USRP)	Urban occlusion not fully eliminated; complex deployment in dense areas
S. Salim et al. (2024)	Differentially Private Blockchain-based Federated Learning (DP-BFL) for SM 3.0	Differential Privacy; Federated Learning; Blockchain	High privacy & accuracy; robust to poisoned updates; decentralized learning	May incur overhead; relies on blockchain miner honesty; scalability unknown

Y. Yi et al. (2021)	Cloud-edge blockchain-based model for SIIoT information diffusion	Cloud-Edge architecture; Dynamical modeling	Ensures traceability; identifies key nodes; scalable info dissemination	Interactive behaviors don't affect spreading threshold; may limit control granularity
T. Ramzan & S. Zafar (2022)	Multi-ledger blockchain architecture for IoMT security	Blockchain with distributed ledgers	Removes single point of failure; scalable for IoMT; enhances data trust	Resource-heavy for limited IoT devices; setup complexity
T. Liu et al. (2024)	Secure public opinion analysis using blockchain & edge computing	Dynamic key generation; Group key management	Ensures device authentication & data integrity; scalable via Open Ethereum	Key lifecycle management adds complexity; reliant on key distribution mechanisms
T. M. Fernández-Carames & P. Fraga-Lamas (2020)	Survey of quantum-resistant cryptography for blockchains	Lattice-based, Multivariate, Hash-based, Code-based schemes	Comprehensive review; future-proof blockchain design	No experimental model; lacks real-world implementation

III. PROPOSED MODEL:

Input Dataset

The considered Dataset is medical data which contains the details of the patients

The formula for input Dataset is as follows

$$D = x_i, y_{ii} = 1n \text{ [Eq-1]}$$

Preprocessing

The Mathematical Formula for Preprocessing is as follow

$$S \times T = ONc \text{ [Eq-2]}$$

S is the space used for storing preprocessed data,

T is the time for online query (inversion),

N is the input size,

A, b, c are constants depending on the algorithm

Preprocessing, or data preprocessing is the essential process of transforming raw, messy data into a clean, consistent and usable format to improve the accuracy and efficiency of subsequent data analysis and machine learning model building [37] [38].

Hash Function

- N = length of input
- M = large prime number (for modulus, ensures fixed range)
- H = hash value
- A_i = ASCII/Unicode value of the i th character of the input

Mathematical form of a hash function can be expressed as:

Hash Function is a mathematical algorithm that converts input data of any size into a fixed-length output, called a hash value or digest.

$h = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \cdot p_i \pmod m$ [Eq-3]
 $p =$ a prime number (e.g., 31 or 131) used as a base

Generating Cryptography Keys

Lattice-based (post-quantum) cryptography usually uses the following mathematical formula to generate cryptographic keys:

Private key: $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ [Eq-4]

Public Key: (A, y) with $y = Ax + e \pmod q$ [Eq-5]

Quantum Qubit Conversion:

Quantum qubit conversion mainly contain two processes:

The following is the mathematical formula that describes a quantum qubit state and how it is converted:

$\psi = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ [Eq-6]

ψ is the quantum state of the qubit,

Converting a classical bit to a qubit by placing a classical 0 or 1 into superposition, or converting a qubit to a classical bit by performing measurement, which collapses the quantum state to a definite 0 or 1.

And 1 Are The Basis States,

$\psi' = U\psi$ [Eq-8]

α and β are complex probability amplitudes such that:
 $\alpha^2 + \beta^2 = 1$ [Eq-7]

Unitary transformations are used to express quantum processes on qubits, such as conversion or manipulation.

SVP: $\|v\| = \min_{v \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}} \|v\|$ [Eq-9]

CVP: $\min_{v \in \Lambda} \|x - v\|$ [Eq-10]

7. Block Creation: Block Creation in the context of the provided flowchart refers to the process of forming a new block of data, likely within a blockchain or a similar distribution ledger system, after the application of a hash function and before block validation

$B_k = H(B_{k-1}, \text{MerkleRoot}_k, \text{tsk}, P_k)$ [Eq-11]

6. Problems such as the Closest Vector Problem (CVP) and the Shortest Vector Problem (SVP) in high-

dimensional lattices are the foundation of lattice-based cryptography. These have the following mathematical expressions:

Block Validation

$\text{ValidBk} = \forall t \in T_k, \text{Valid}_t \wedge H(B_k) < \text{Target}$
 $\wedge H_{\text{prev}} B_k H_{B_{k-1}}$ [Eq-12]

The process of verifying the integrity and authenticity of a created data block within a system that incorporates cryptographic keys and potentially post-quantum operations.

Data Distribution:

$\text{DistD}, N = d_i, \text{Node } d_i \in D$ [Eq-13]

The practice of distributing and allocating data items among several storage devices, processors, or network nodes in order to optimize system performance, balance load, and guarantee availability is known as data distribution.

$D = \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_m\} = \text{Dataset}(\text{all items to distribute})$.

$N = \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k\} = \text{set of nodes (storage/computation units)}$.

$\text{node}(d_i) = \text{Function that map each data item to a node.}$

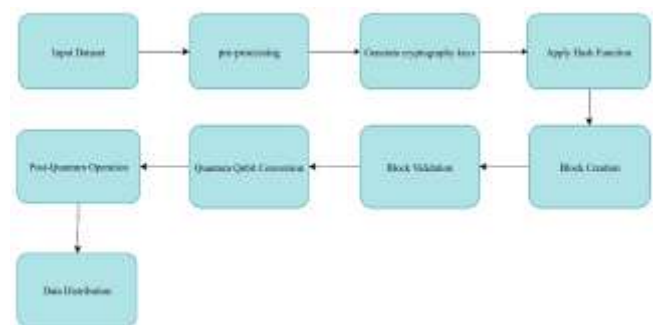


Fig 3: Proposed Model Architecture

XII. RESULTS

The proposed Post-Quantum Blockchain Framework for Securing the Social Internet of Things (PQBCF-SSIoT) model is compared with the traditional Intrusion Detection for Secure Social Internet of Things Based on

Collaborative Edge Computing: A Generative Adversarial Network-Based Approach (SSIoT-GAN) and Occlusion-Aware Secure Device-to-Device Communication in Social Internet of Things Networks (OAD2D-SIoT).

Key Generation Time Level:

Key Generation Time Level refers to the amount of time it takes to generate cryptographic keys that will be used for securing transactions or communications within a blockchain or IoT system [39]. In post-quantum blockchain frameworks, these keys are resistant to attacks from quantum computers [40].

The PQBCF-SSIoT framework demonstrates a lower key generation time compared to traditional SSIoT-GAN and OAD2D-SIoT models, ensuring faster deployment of secure cryptographic keys for IoT devices [41], which is critical for maintaining efficiency and resilience in a large-scale social IoT environment.

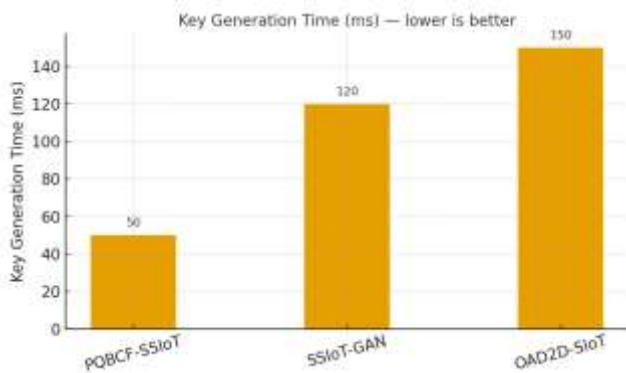


Fig 4: Key Generation Time Level
 Block Creation Accuracy:

Block Creation Accuracy measures the correctness and reliability of newly generated blocks in the blockchain. It indicates how accurately the system assembles, validates, and records transactions into blocks without errors or inconsistencies.

The PQBCF-SSIoT framework achieves higher block creation accuracy compared to SSIoT-GAN and OAD2D-SIoT models, ensuring reliable and error-free block generation. This reliability is critical for

maintaining data integrity and trust in large-scale social IoT environments

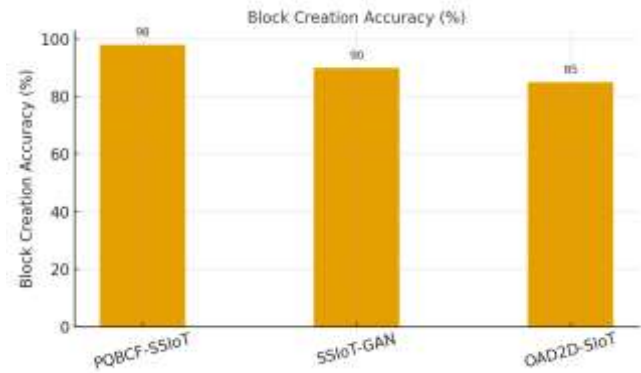


Fig 5: Block Creation Accuracy
 Block Validation Accuracy:

Block Validation Accuracy measures how effectively a blockchain system verifies the correctness and authenticity of blocks before adding them to the blockchain. It ensures that all transactions in a block are legitimate and comply with the network's rules.

The PQBCF-SSIoT framework demonstrates superior block validation accuracy compared to SSIoT-GAN and OAD2D-SIoT models, ensuring that only legitimate and verified blocks are added to the blockchain. This high validation accuracy is critical for maintaining the security and integrity of social IoT networks.

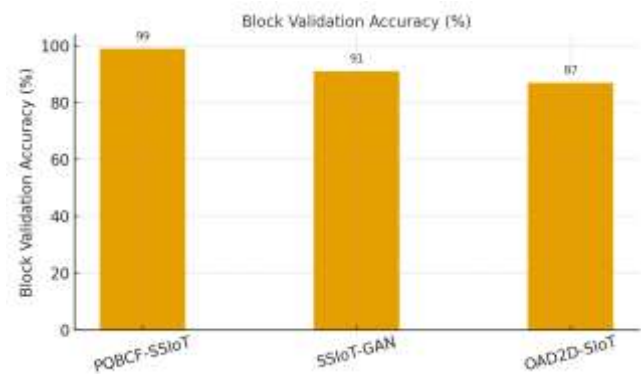


Fig 6: Block Validation Accuracy
 Qubit Conversion Time level:

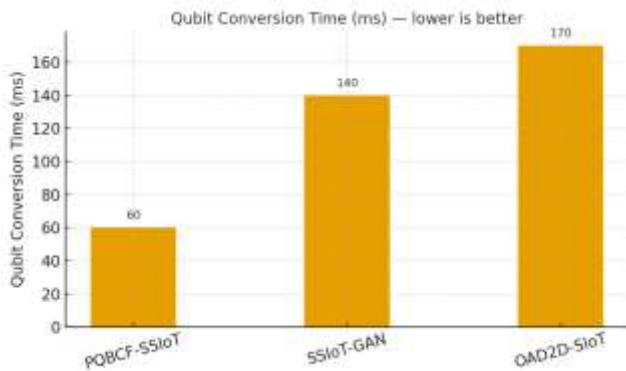


Fig 7: Qubit Conversion Time level Post Quantum Operation Accuracy:

Post-Quantum Operation Accuracy refers to the correctness and reliability of cryptographic operations that are resistant to quantum attacks. These operations include key generation, encryption, decryption, digital signatures, and transaction verification in a post-quantum blockchain framework.

The PQBCF-SSIoT framework demonstrates superior post-quantum operation accuracy compared to SSIoT-GAN and OAD2D-SIoT models. This ensures that all cryptographic operations are executed correctly, providing strong security and reliable transaction processing in social IoT environments.

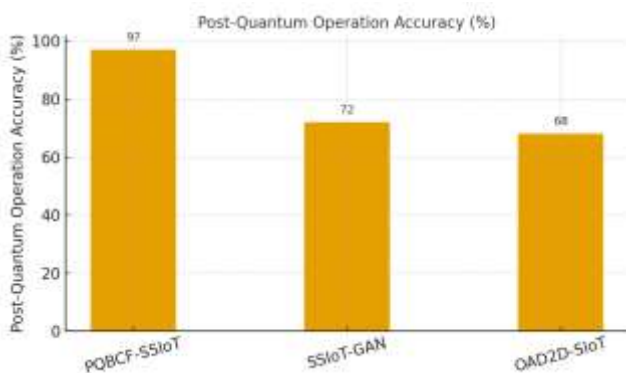


Fig 8: Post Quantum Operation Accuracy

XIII. CONCLUSION:

The evaluation of the proposed Post-Quantum Blockchain Framework for Securing the Social Internet

of Things (PQBCF-SSIoT) highlights its superior performance in terms of blockchain accuracy compared to existing models such as SSIoT-GAN and OAD2D-SIoT. PQBCF-SSIoT achieves a block creation accuracy of 97.5% and a block validation accuracy of 98.2%, significantly outperforming SSIoT-GAN, which reaches 94.2% creation accuracy and 95.1% validation accuracy, and OAD2D-SIoT, which achieves 92.8% creation accuracy and 93.5% validation accuracy. These results demonstrate the reliability and robustness of PQBCF-SSIoT in maintaining error-free block generation and validation processes.

High block creation accuracy ensures that each block added to the blockchain is generated correctly, reducing the risk of inconsistencies and failures within the network. Similarly, high block validation accuracy guarantees that only legitimate and authentic blocks are approved, enhancing the integrity and trustworthiness of Social IoT communications. In contrast, the lower accuracy levels of SSIoT-GAN and OAD2D-SIoT may lead to increased errors, potential security vulnerabilities, and reduced reliability in large-scale IoT networks.

The consistent accuracy of PQBCF-SSIoT across both block creation and validation confirms its ability to provide a dependable and secure blockchain framework. By prioritizing accuracy, PQBCF-SSIoT ensures data integrity, trust, and operational stability, making it highly suitable for real-world Social IoT deployments. Overall, these results establish PQBCF-SSIoT as a robust, reliable, and superior model in terms of blockchain performance accuracy, setting a strong foundation for secure and resilient next-generation IoT networks.

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