



Solana Bootcamp

Lesson 1

ABOUT US

Extropy.io was founded 2015 by Laurence Kirk in Oxford to provide consultancy services in Distributed Ledger Technology. Laurence is also the founder of the Oxford Blockchain Society.

**INNOVATE.
QUALITY.
CUTTING EDGE.**



CONTACT US

Oxford Centre for Innovation, New
Road, Oxford, OX1 1BY, UK
www.extropy.io
+44 (0)1865 261 424



Providing Blockchain solutions
DApp development and customised
blockchains
Security Audits

EXTROPY.IO

CONSULTANCY IN DISTRIBUTED
LEDGER TECHNOLOGY

Free Developer Workshops

- Basic
- Enterprise
- Advanced EVM
- Zero Knowledge Proofs

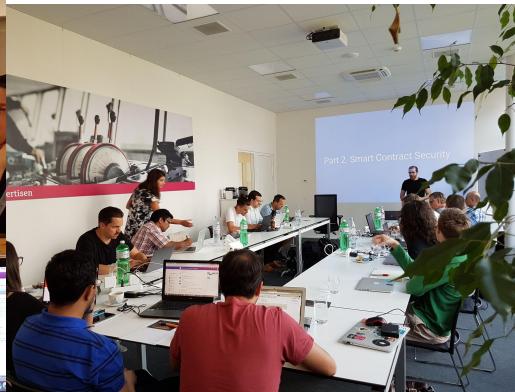
Business Workshops

Website :
<https://extropy.io>

Email : info@extropy.io

Twitter : [@extropy](https://twitter.com/@extropy)

Running workshops and hackathons since 2017





Course Outline

Week 1 - Introduction to Blockchain, Solana and Rust

Week 2 - Rust / dev tools / token program

Week 3 - Anchor framework

Week 4 - Solana Program Library

Week 5 - Security, advanced features and review

We are aiming for a very practical course, our philosophy is that the best way to learn is to do
We encourage you to experiment, we are on hand to answer questions and support you.

We will provide homeworks after most lessons

During the final week we can review any material you would like to revisit



Week 1

Today : Course Introduction and Blockchain theory

Tues : Blockchain and Solana theory

Weds : Introduction to Rust

Thurs : Rust

We assume development experience, but no blockchain experience

How to ask questions ?

We have channels for questions

- Sli.do : <https://app.sli.do/event/gPdZ6z6VF6FhjixUazsS5>
- Discord technical questions

How do practicals work ?

Most lessons will typically be split 50/50 into theory and practical

During the practical half of the lesson you can work on exercises and ask questions in the support channel

The tools we will be using are

- VSCode (in Gitpod)



Lesson Plan

Decentralised Systems

Blockchain Components (simplified)

Cryptography and blockchain history



Decentralised Systems

Problems with centralised systems

Monetary System

- Bank closure / insufficient capital reserves
 - greek debt crisis in 2015 ? banks closed and people lost savings, insurance schemes meant nothing, lead to an increase in Bitcoin use in Greece
- Availability of banks
- Inflation - money supply controlled by central authority
- Merchant accounts may be shut down
- Control of money for political reasons - wikileaks funding shutdown

There are layers of access control built into our banking systems to prevent fraudulent transactions, effectively security is achieved by closing the network.

See The Internet of Money - Andreas M. Antonopoulos

Goals of decentralisation

- Participation
- Diversity
- Conflict resolution
- Flexibility
- Moving power to the edge (user)

○ Decentralized

Inefficient

Dangerous

No built-in trust framework

Anarchy

Distributed Wealth

Generalized

Flexible

Resilient

Personal Sovereignty

Complex to manage

Difficult to scale

Local Overheads

△ Centralized

Efficient

Safe

Trust through structure

Absolute Power / Absolute Corruption

Consolidated Wealth

Specialized

Structured

Fragile

Ceded Authority

Simple to manage

Easy to scale

Global Overheads

From

[Betakit Blog](#)



A prototype cryptocurrency ?



Rai Stones

The monetary system of Yap relies on an oral history of ownership. In the case of stones that are too large to move, buying an item with one simply involves agreeing that the ownership has changed. As long as the transaction is recorded in the oral history, it will now be owned by the person to whom it is passed and no physical movement of the stone is required.

Components of a blockchain

Gossip Network



Shared Public Ledger



Cryptography



"On the Internet, nobody knows you're a dog."

Components of the Blockchain

- Shared public ledger
updated by consensus
- P2P Network
- Cryptography

These components give a blockchain system

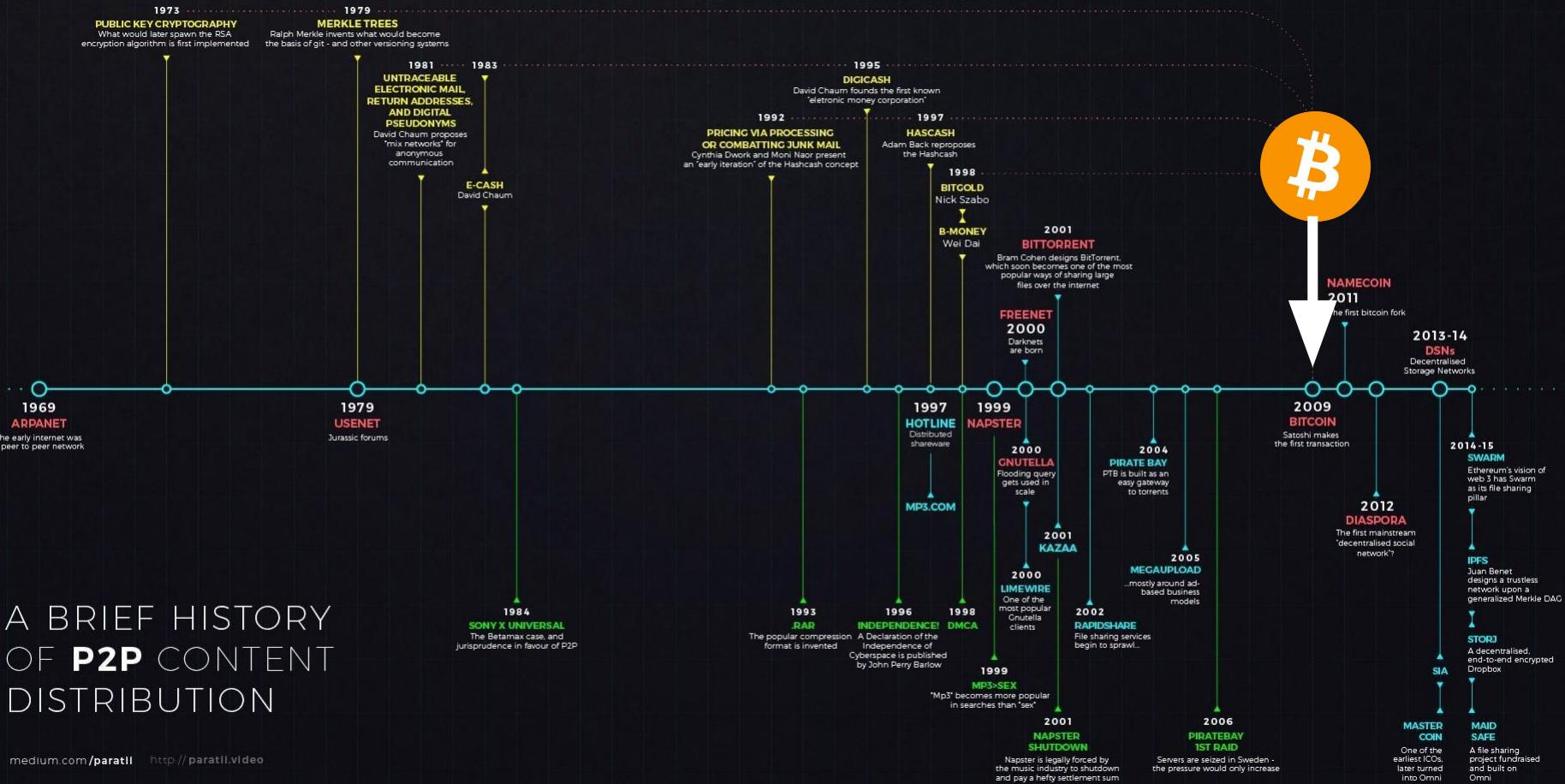
- Transparency and verifiable state based on consensus
- Resilience
- Censorship resistance
- Tamper proof interactions



Timeline of cryptographic systems

A BRIEF HISTORY OF P2P CONTENT DISTRIBUTION

medium.com/parati <http://parati.video>



1970s

The Early days of internet

(1969)

*The ARPANET
(early Internet) was a
p2p network*



Problem = Security !

1) Privacy

- How do I ensure that my message has not been modified ?

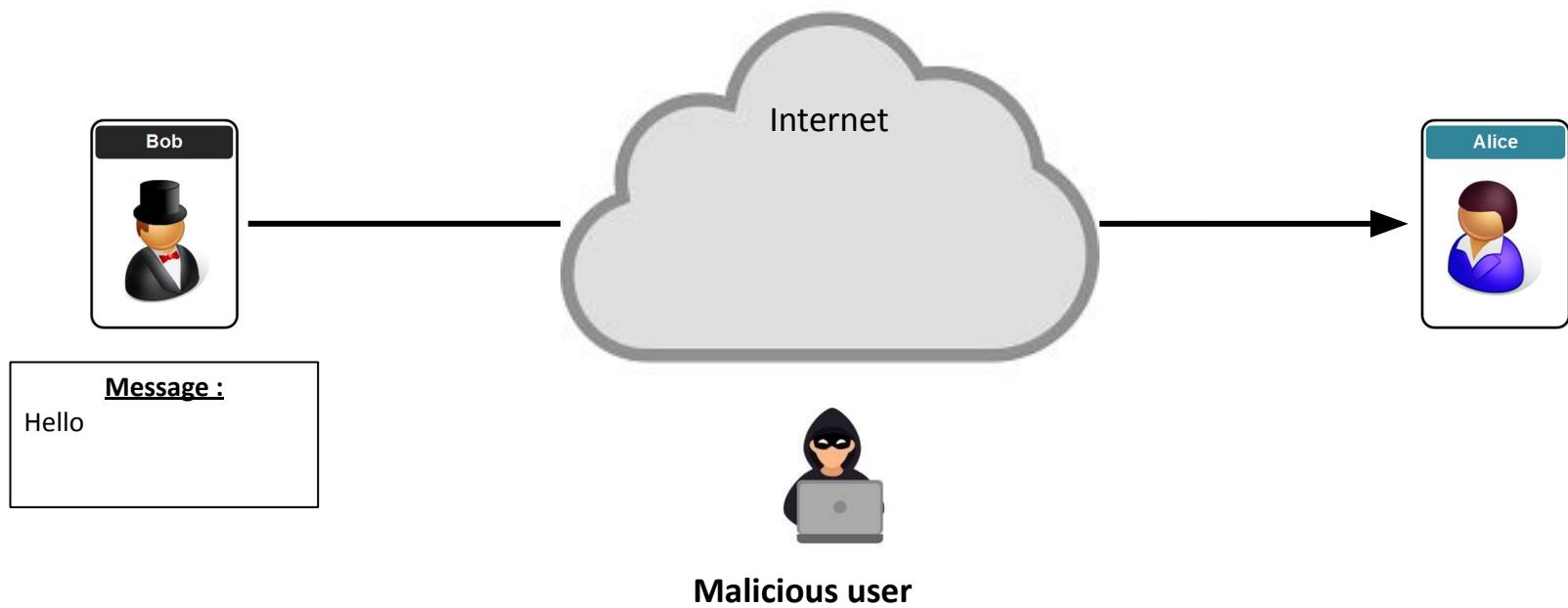
2) Authenticity

- How do I ensure that the message comes from a legitimate person ?

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

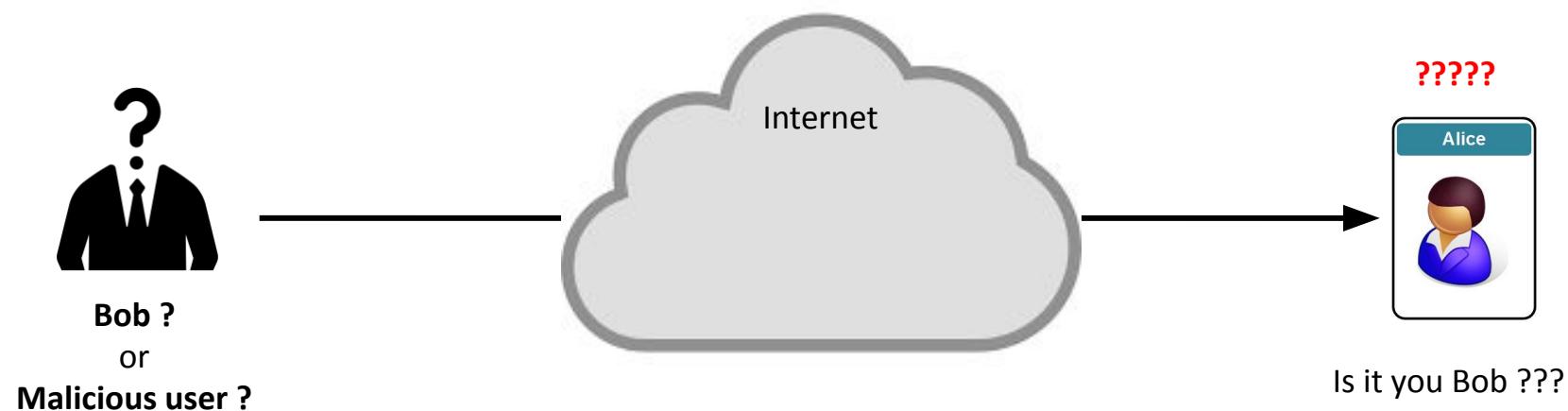
Problem 1 : How do I ensure that my message has not been modified ?



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Problem 2 : How do I ensure that the message comes from a legitimate person ?



1970's

(1969)
*The ARPANET
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1st Solution : Symmetric Cryptography !

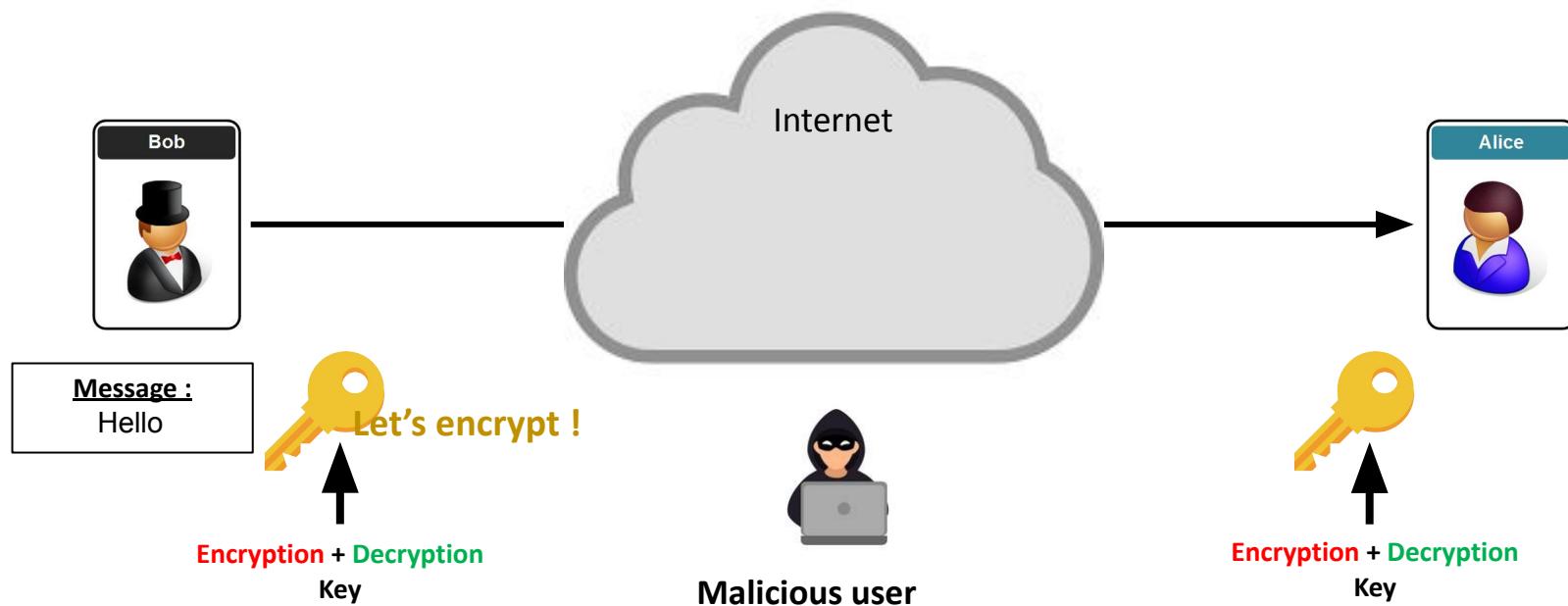


- Alice and Bob **share the same key.**
- One key for **both encryption and decryption** of messages

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

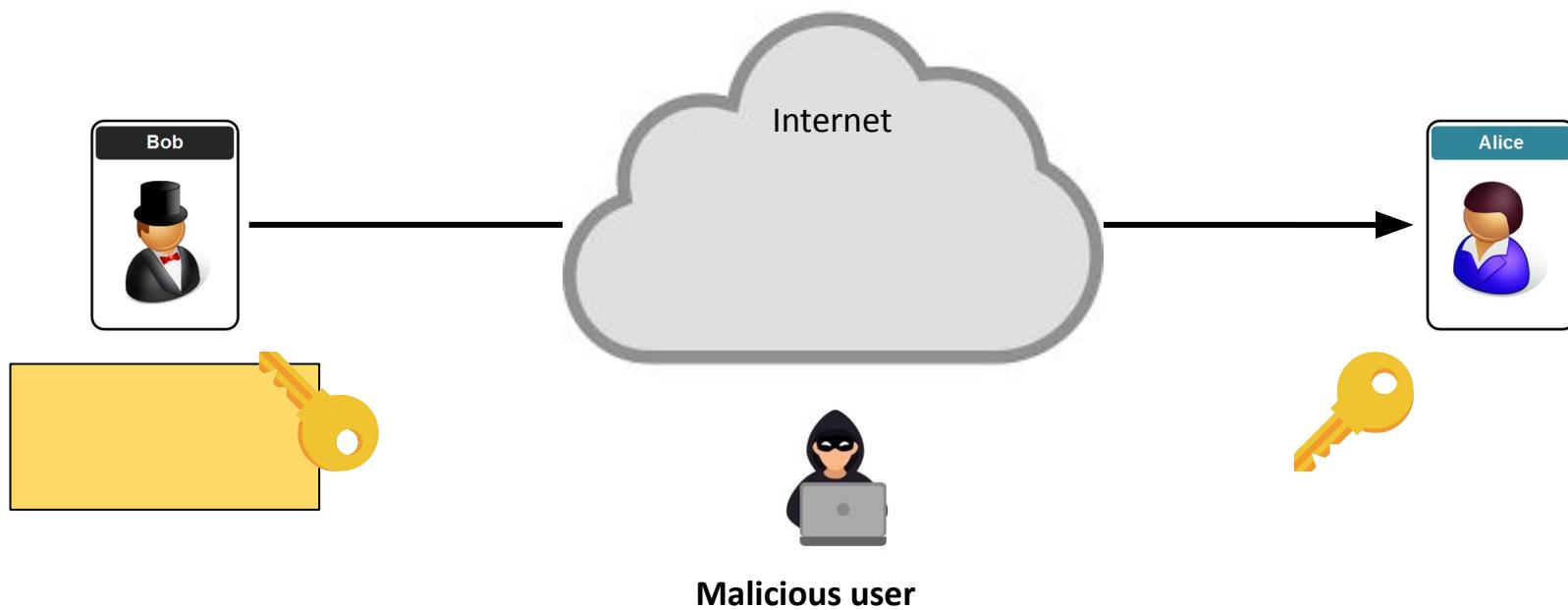
Symmetric Cryptography : **encryption** and **decryption** keys are the same



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

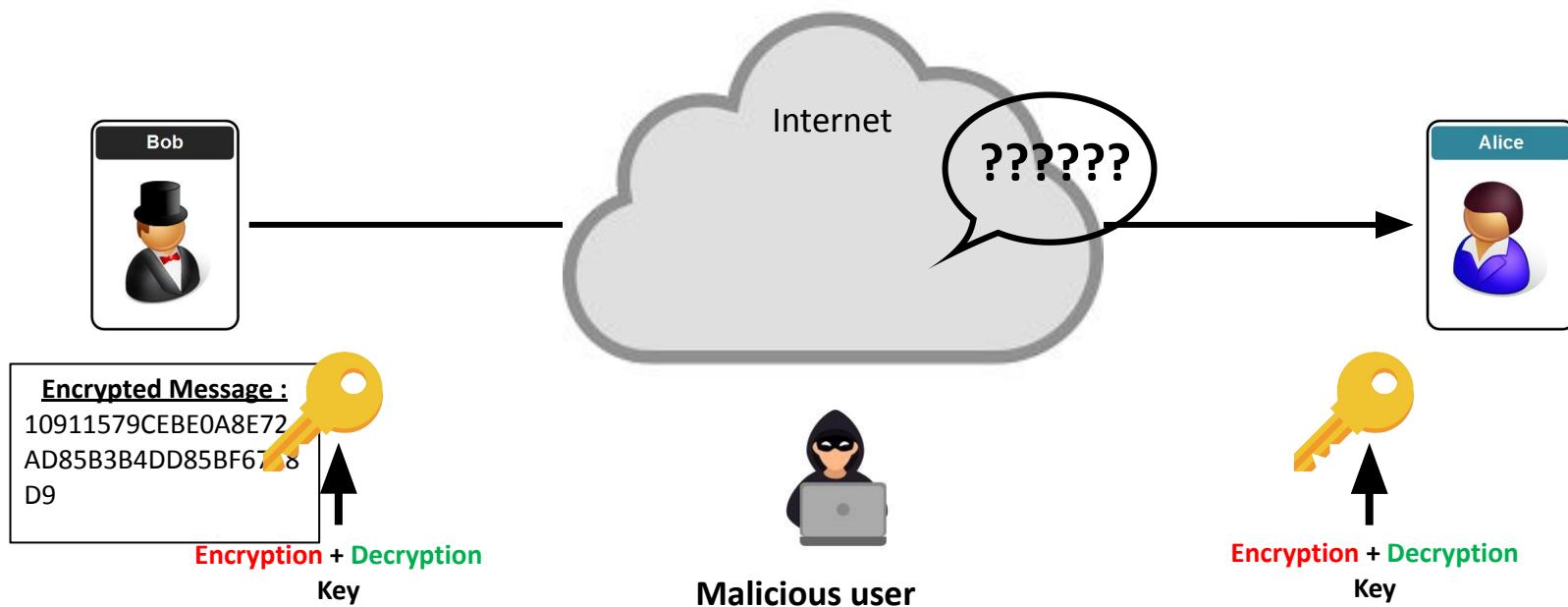
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Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

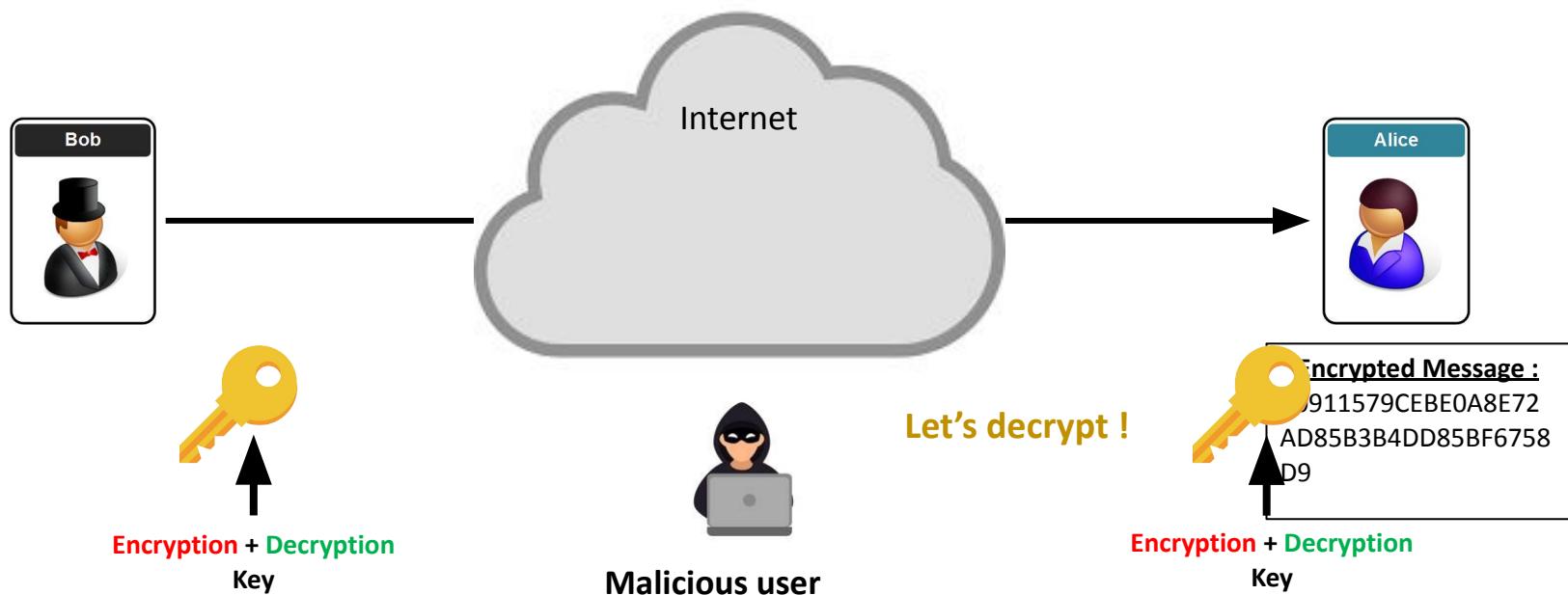
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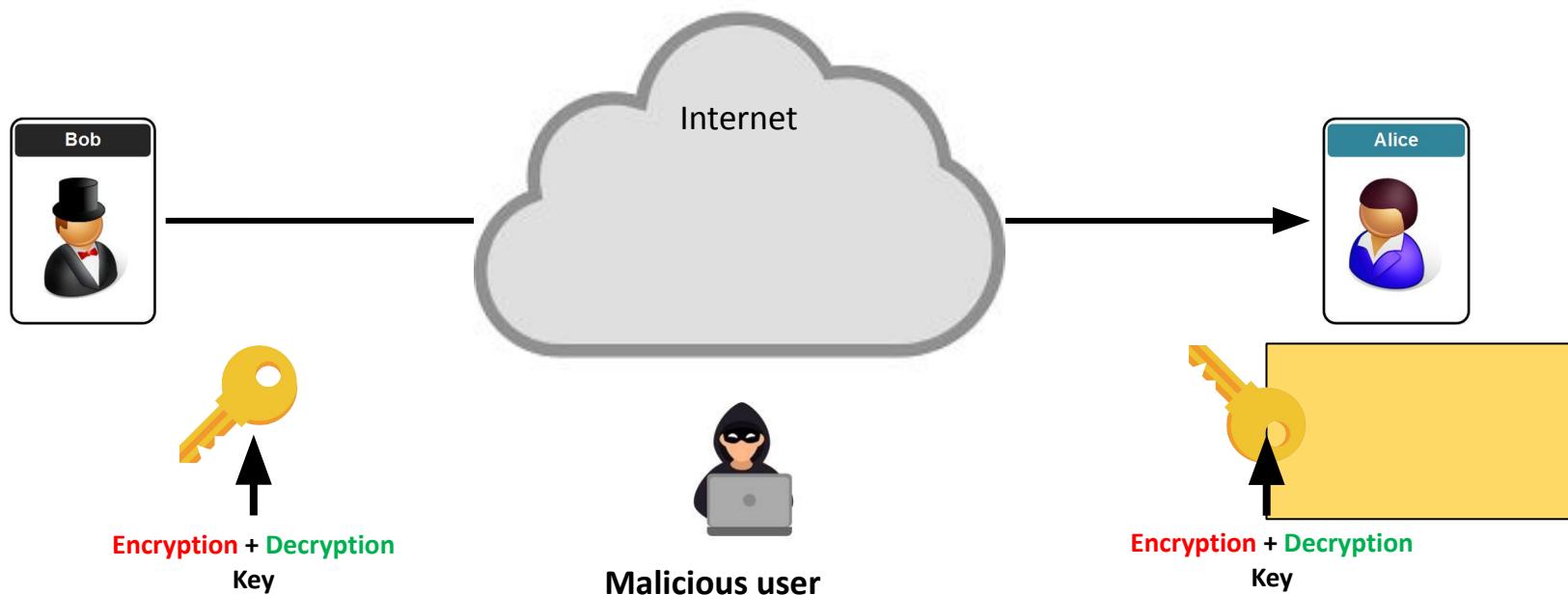
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Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

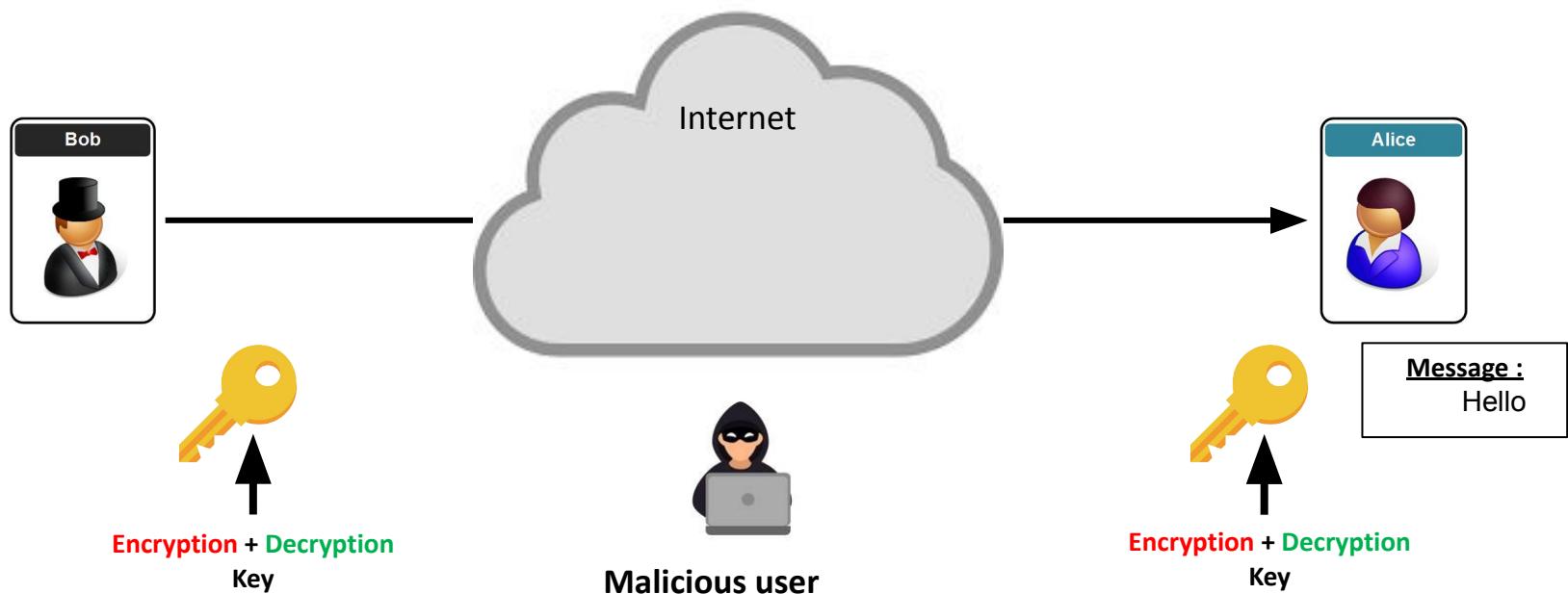
Symmetric Cryptography: **encryption** and **decryption** keys are the same



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Symmetric Cryptography : **encryption** and **decryption** keys are the same



But what about key management ?

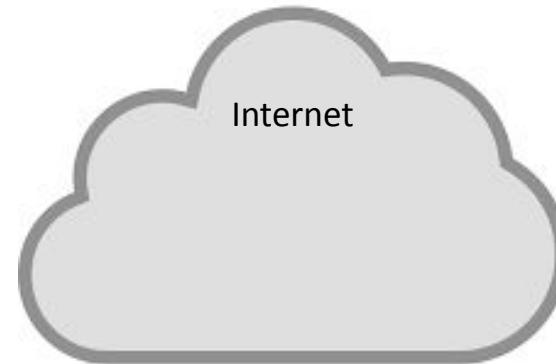
Can Alice and Bob share a key ?

- Without meeting
- Across a potentially hostile network

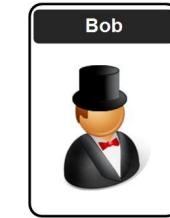
Private



Public



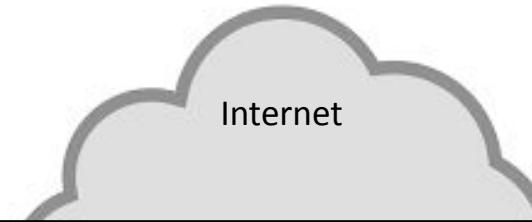
Private



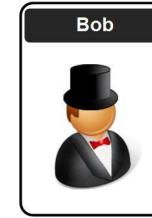
Private



Public



Private



Step 1 :

Alice and Bob :

Select a random secret individually !

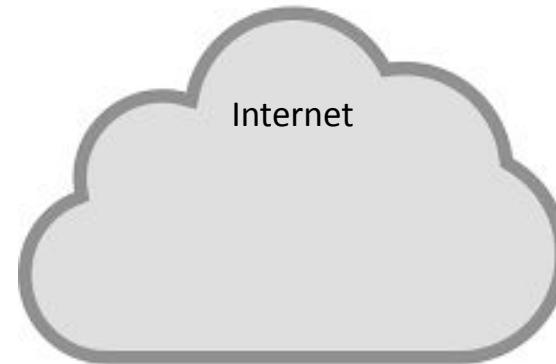
Private



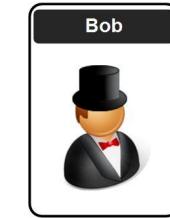
Private Key A



Public



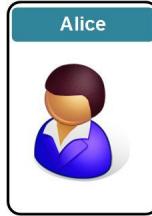
Private



Private Key B



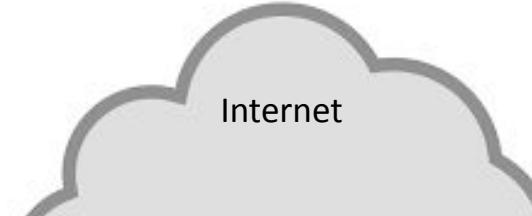
Private



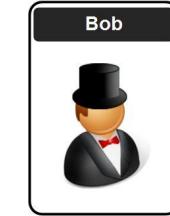
Private Key A



Public



Private



Private Key B



Step 2 :

Alice and Bob :

exchange a **common value (g)** on the
internet !

(Insecure network)

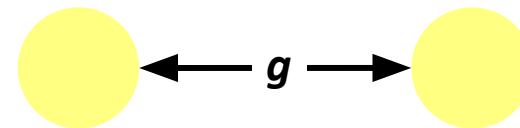
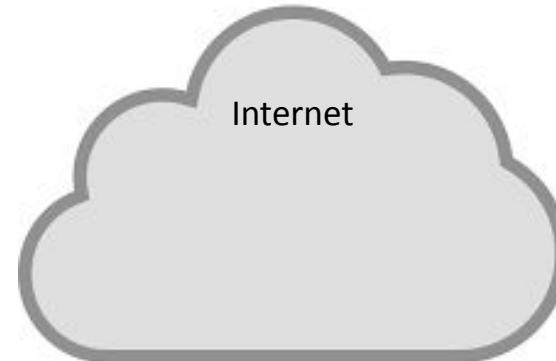
Private



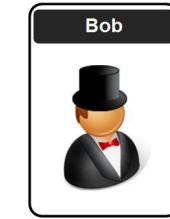
Private Key A



Public



Private



Private Key B



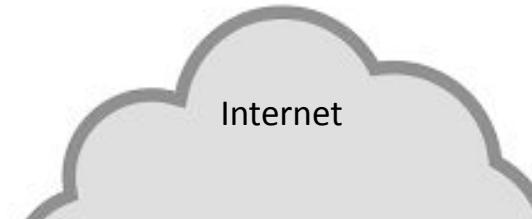
Private



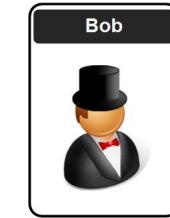
Private Key A



Public



Private



Private Key B



Step 3 :

Alice and Bob

combine their private key with
the common value g !

(in their private network)

Private

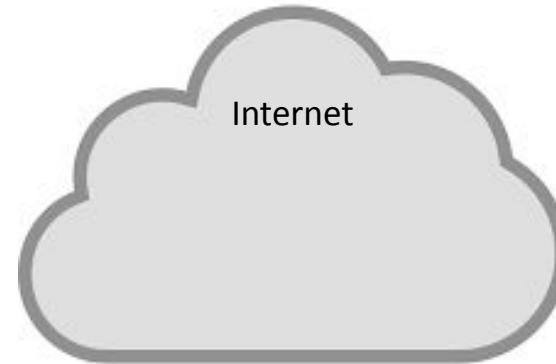


Private Key A

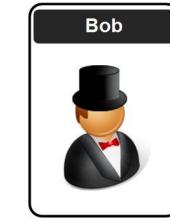


A (g)

Public



Private



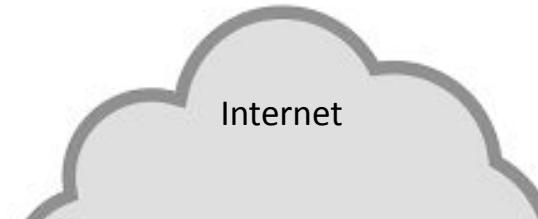
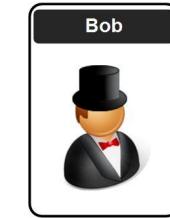
Private Key B



B (g)

Private

Private Key A

 $A(g)$ **Public****Private**

Private Key B

 $B(g)$ **Step 4 :**

Alice and Bob

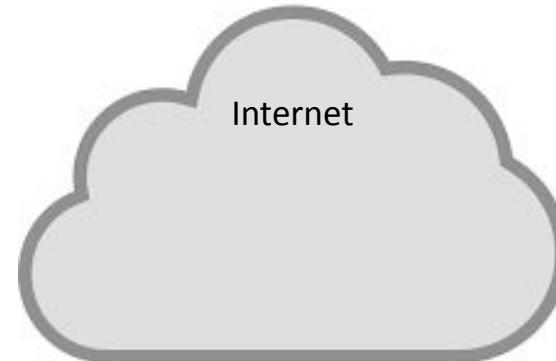
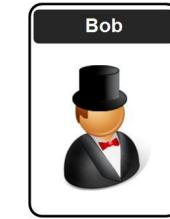
Exchange both their combine value

 $A(g)$ and $B(g)$

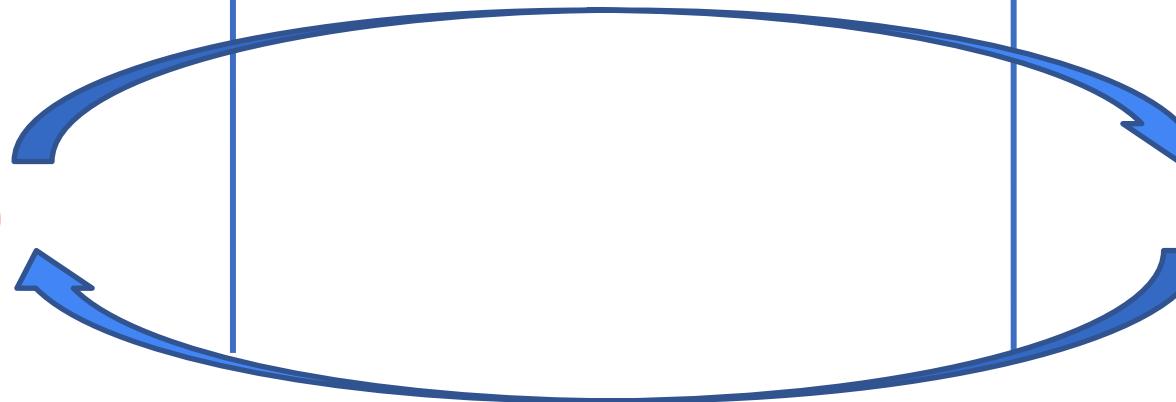
(over the internet)

Private

Private Key A

 $A(g)$ **Public****Private**

Private Key B

 $B(g)$ 

Private

Public

Private

Final Step !

Alice and Bob

Private Key A



B (g)



Combine their private key with the combine key
of the other to obtain a shared secret key

$$\text{PK(A)} + \text{B (g)}$$

$$\text{PK(B)} + \text{A (g)}$$

(privately)

Key B



A (g)



Private



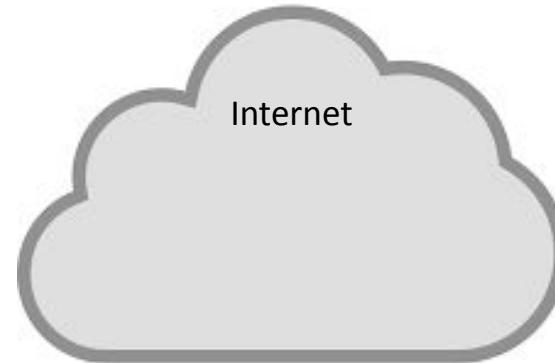
Private Key A



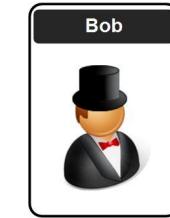
B (g)



Public



Private



Private Key B



A (g)



Private



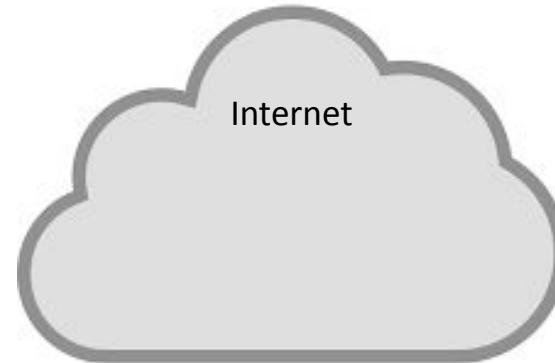
Private Key A



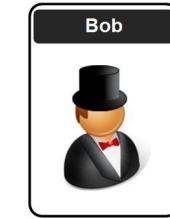
B (g)



Public



Private

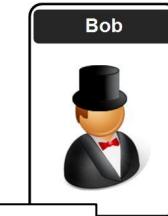


Private Key B



A (g)

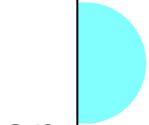


Private**Public****Private****Result !**

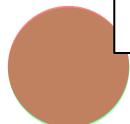
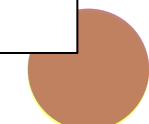
Private Key



Key B

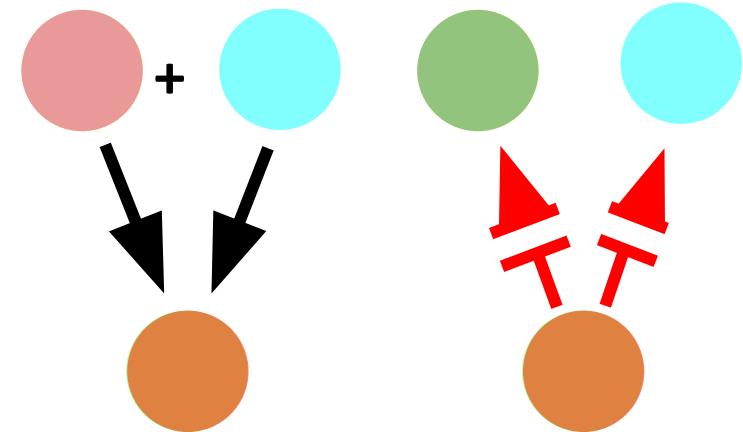


Alice and Bob have created a secret key
together without meeting / knowing each other

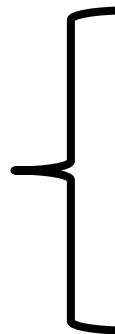
B (g)A (g)

But what is even more interesting ?

- You can mix two colors to obtain one
- But **you can't unmix** to find out the colors you used !



Diffie and Hellman (1976, p1, para. 6)



Public key distribution systems offer a different approach to eliminating the need for a secure key distribution channel. In such a system, two users who wish to exchange a key communicate back and forth until they arrive at a key in common. A third party eavesdropping on this exchange must find it computationally infeasible to compute the key from the information overheard. A possible solu-

Menezes, Van Oorstone, Van Stone (1996) – *Handbook of Applied Cryptography*

12.47 Protocol Diffie-Hellman key agreement (basic version)

SUMMARY: A and B each send the other one message over an open channel.

RESULT: shared secret K known to both parties A and B .

1. *One-time setup.* An appropriate prime p and generator α of \mathbb{Z}_p^* ($2 \leq \alpha \leq p - 2$) are selected and published.
2. *Protocol messages.*

$$A \rightarrow B : \alpha^x \bmod p \quad (1)$$

$$A \leftarrow B : \alpha^y \bmod p \quad (2)$$

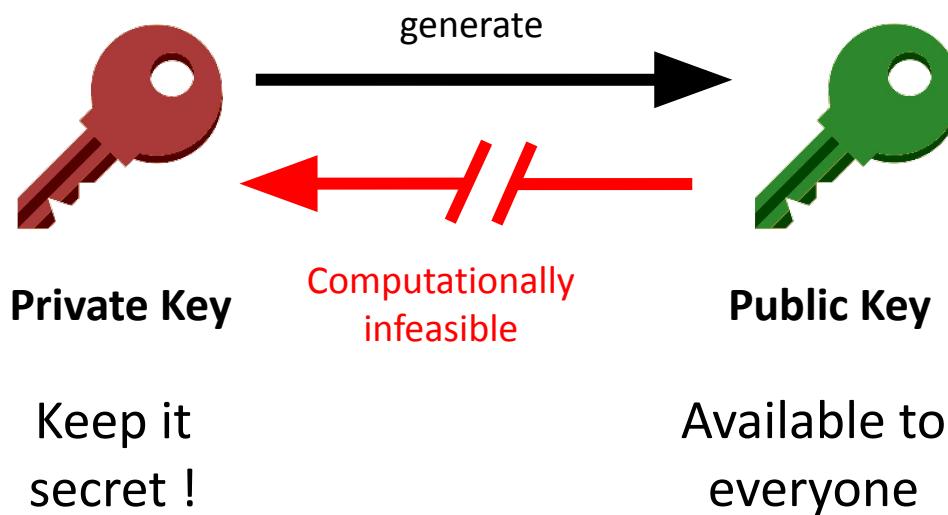
3. *Protocol actions.* Perform the following steps each time a shared key is required.

- (a) A chooses a random secret x , $1 \leq x \leq p - 2$, and sends B message (1).
 - (b) B chooses a random secret y , $1 \leq y \leq p - 2$, and sends A message (2).
 - (c) B receives α^x and computes the shared key as $K = (\alpha^x)^y \bmod p$.
 - (d) A receives α^y and computes the shared key as $K = (\alpha^y)^x \bmod p$.
-

The Basics of Public Key Cryptography

Given a **Private Key**, you can derive a **Public Key**

But you can't do the process in reverse (derive the Private Key from Public Key)



Diffie and Hellman (1976, p1, para. 4)

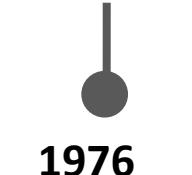
without compromising the security of the system. In a *public key cryptosystem* enciphering and deciphering are governed by distinct keys, E and D , such that computing D from E is computationally infeasible (e.g., requiring 10^{100} instructions). The enciphering key E can thus be publicly disclosed without compromising the deciphering key D . Each user of the network can, therefore, place his enciphering key in a public directory. This enables any user of the system to send a message to any other user enciphered in such a way that only the intended receiver is able to decipher it. As such, a public key cryptosystem is a

1970's

(1969)
The ARPANET
(early Internet) was a
p2p network



Diffie – Hellman
Key Exchange



**Public Key
Cryptography
is invented !**



Public Key

Private Key

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for encryption, one for decryption

Step 1 :

Alice and Bob

Create their own private / secret key

(privately, on their computer)



Private Key



Private Key A

Malicious user

1970's

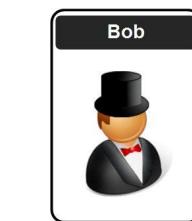
Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for encryption, one for decryption

Step 2 :

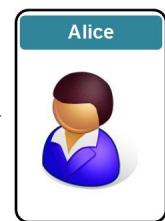
Alice and Bob

derive their public key based on their
own private / secret key



Private Key

Public Key



Private Key A

Public Key A

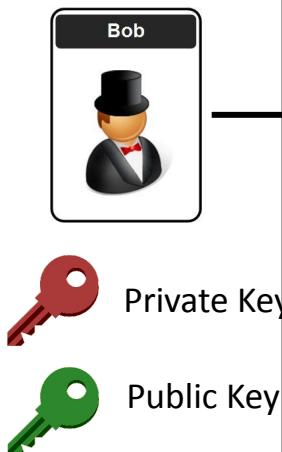
(still privately, on their computer)

1970's

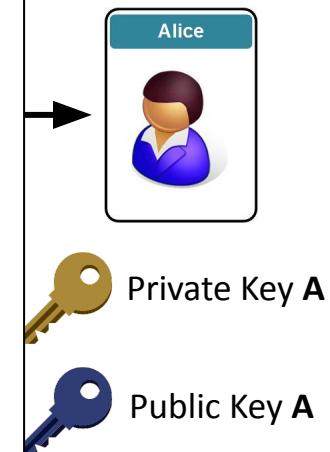
Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for encryption, one for decryption

They publish their public key on the internet



This would be their “ address ”
(to encrypt and send messages)

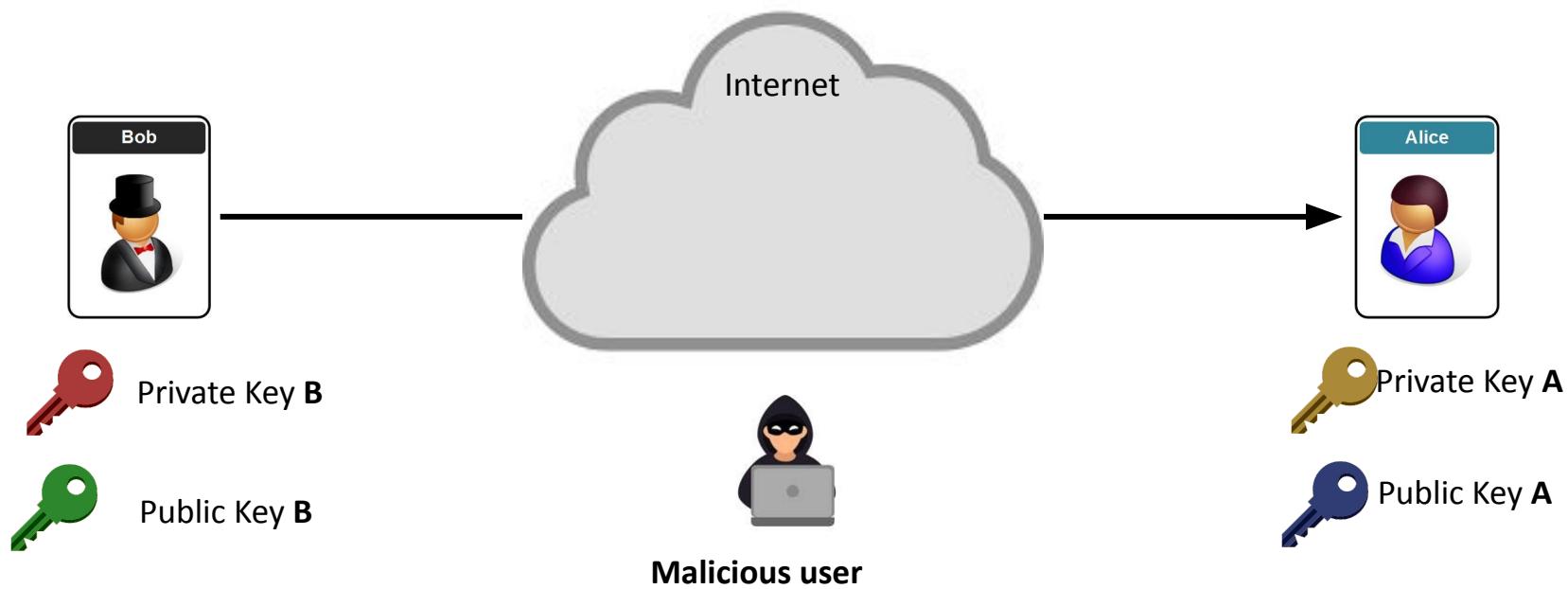


Malicious user

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

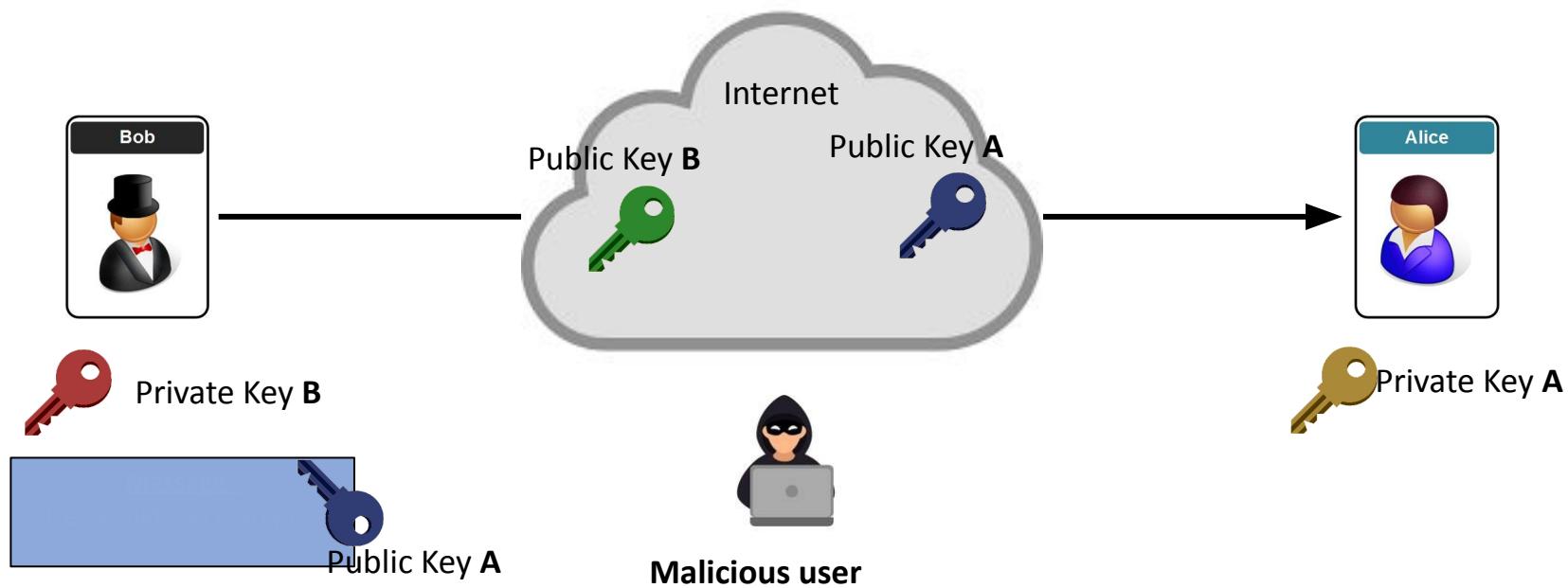
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1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

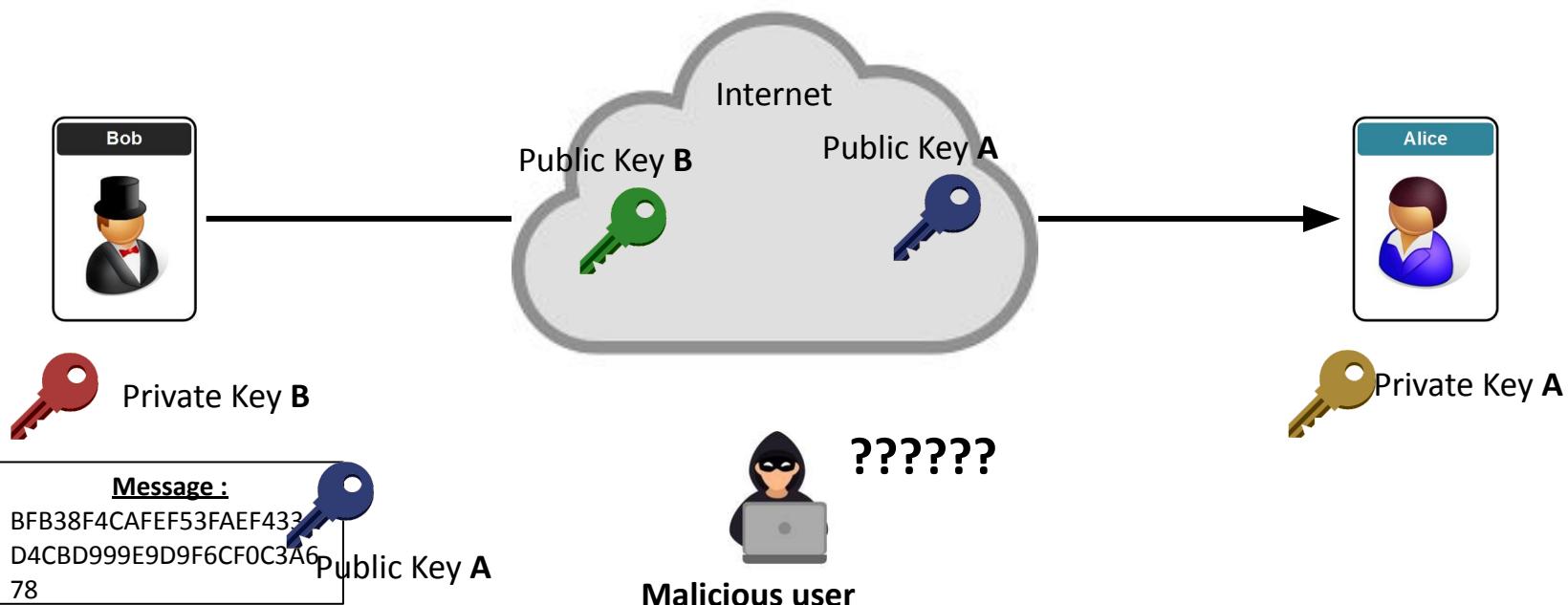
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

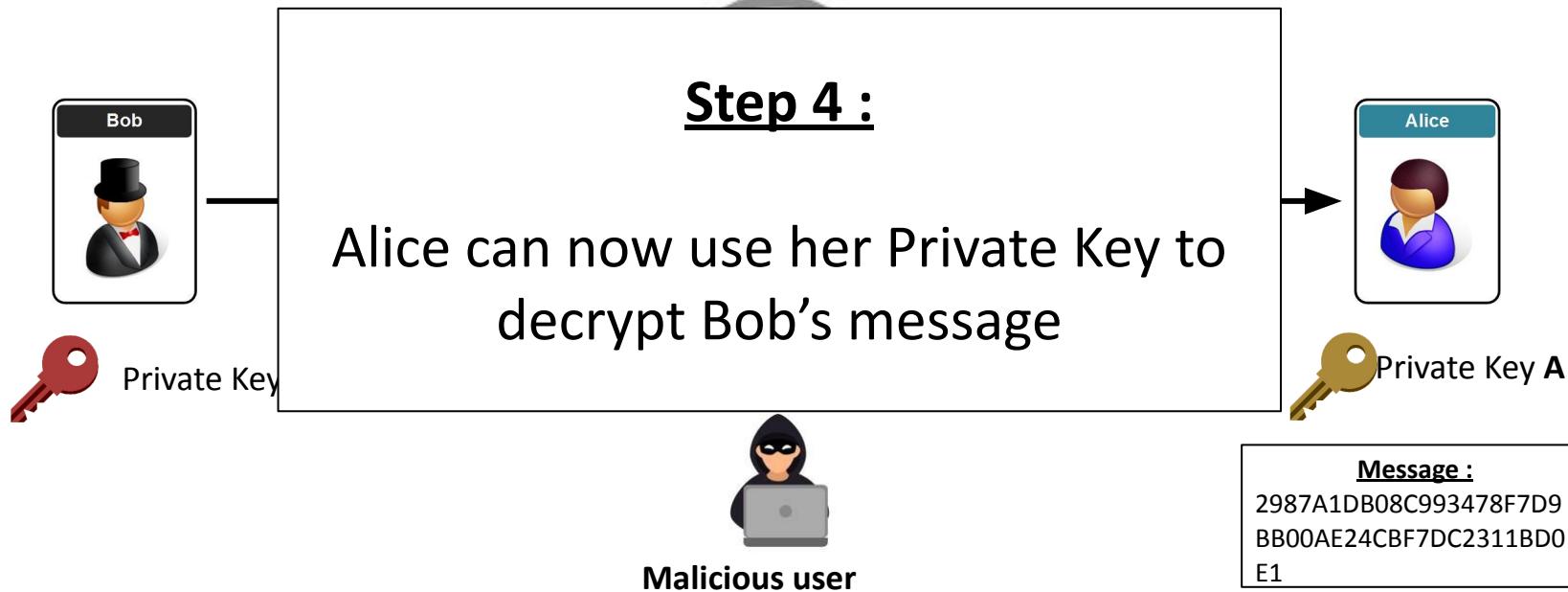
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1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

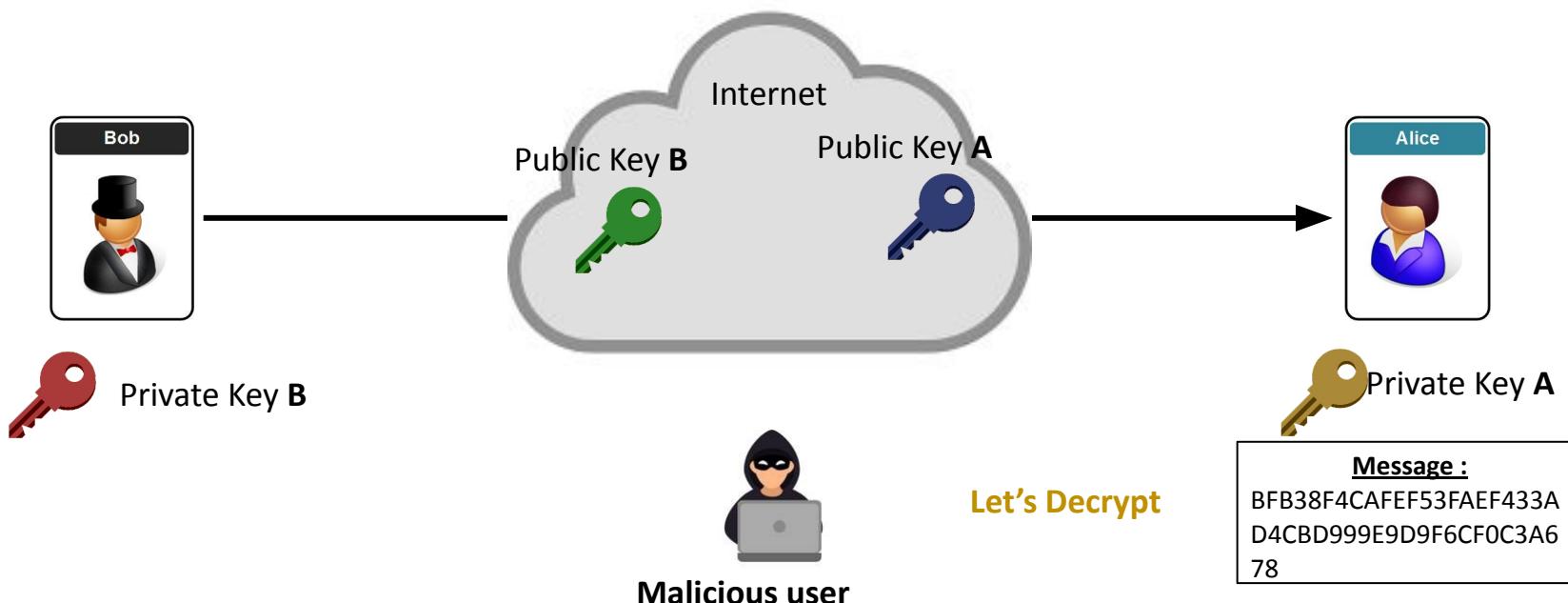
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1970's

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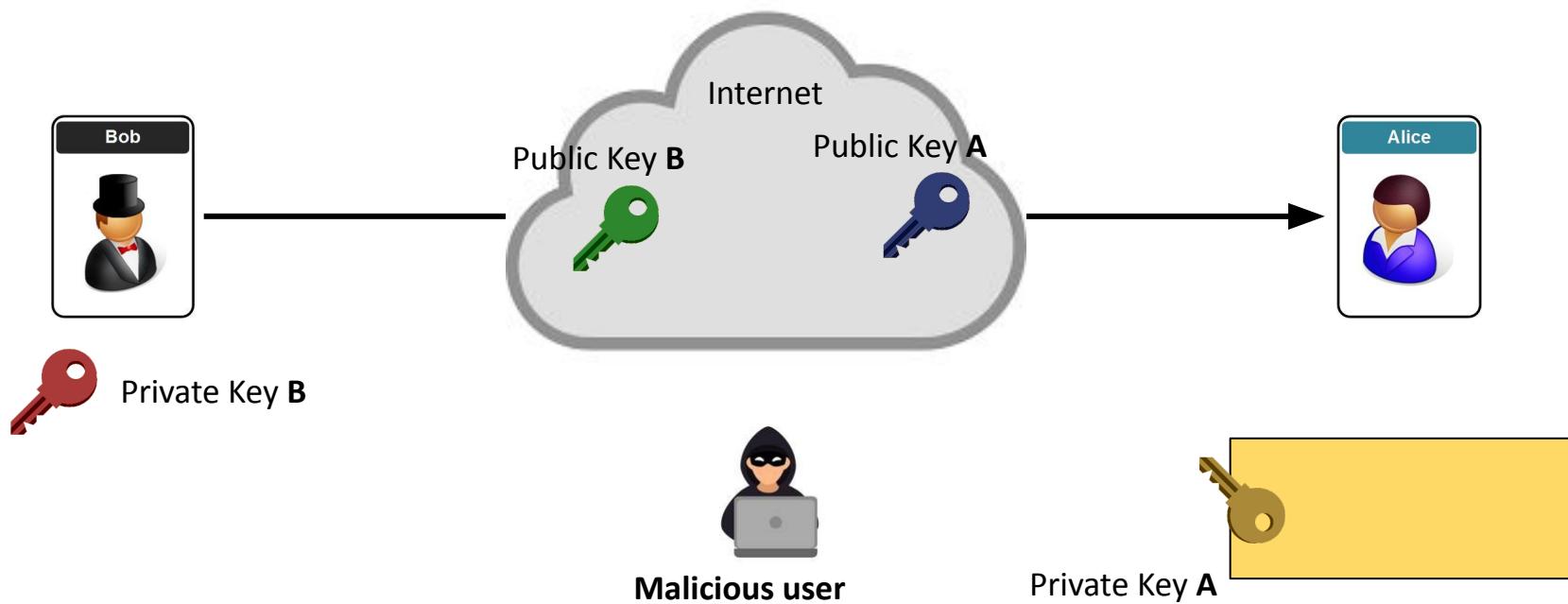
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1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

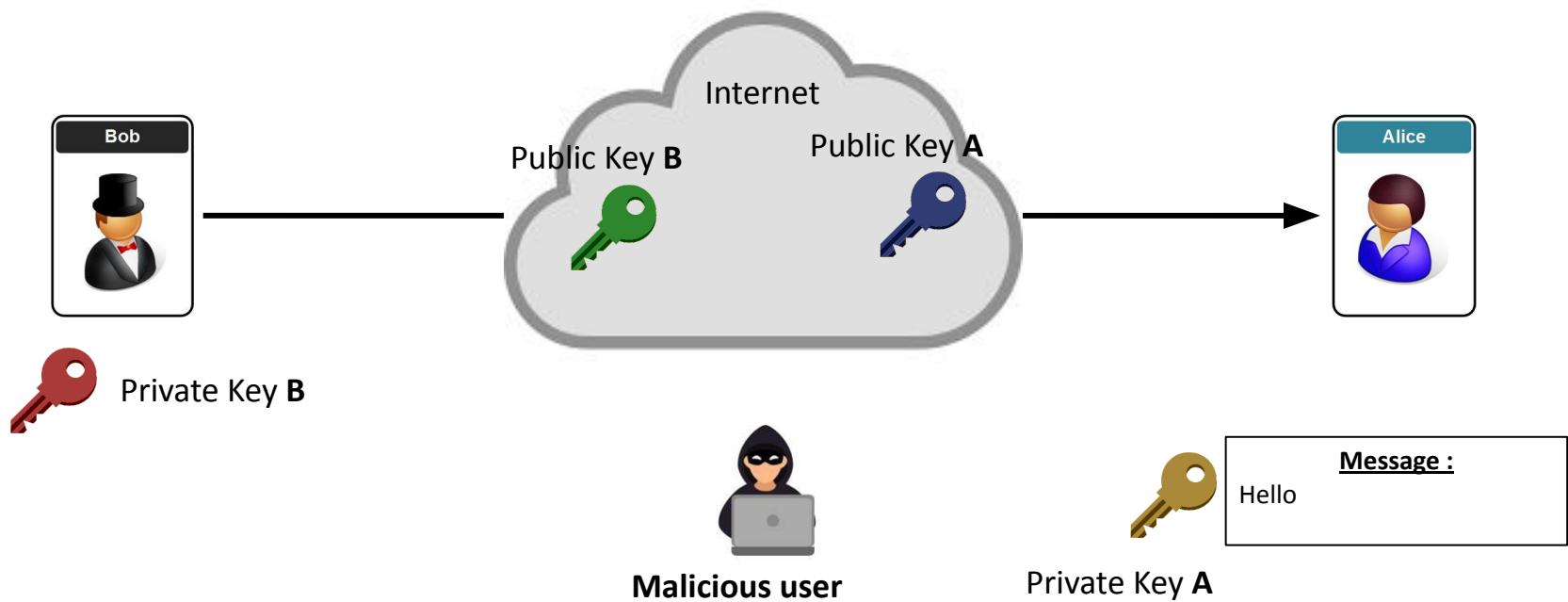
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Asymm



We still have a problem here !

ey A

Ye

Private Key B

Malicious user

1970's

(1969)
*The ARPANET
(early Internet) was a
p2p network*



1976

Public Key Encryption solves :

Problem 1 : Key Management

- If I use a 3rd party to share my key, do I trust him ?

Problem 2 : Integrity

- How do I ensure that my message has not been modified ?

Problem 3 : Authenticity

- How do I ensure that the message comes from a legitimate person ?

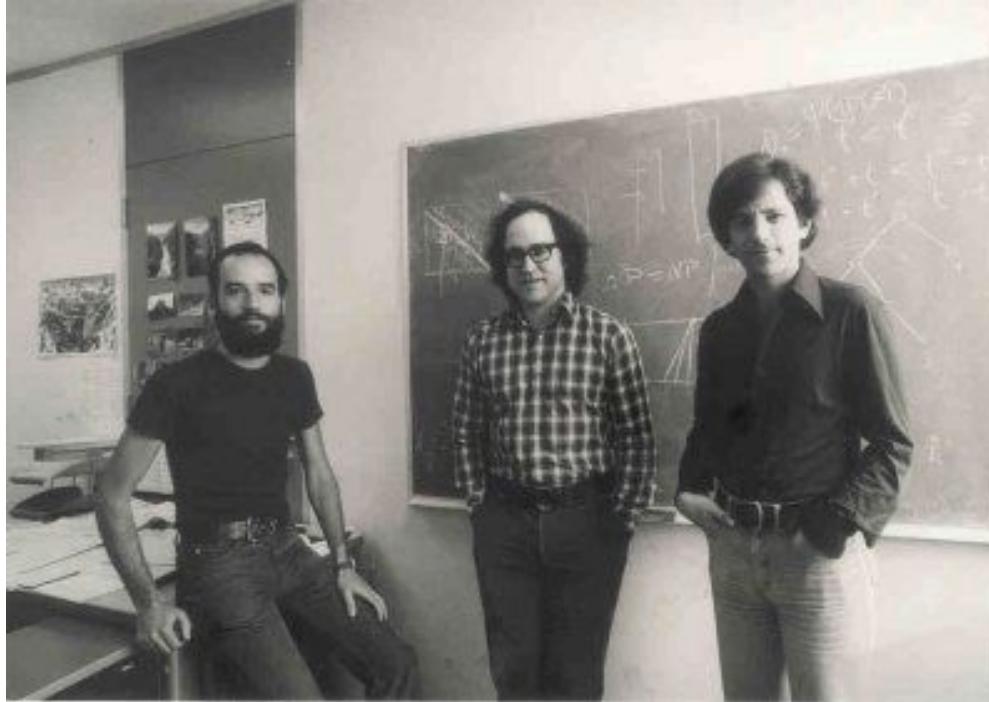
1970's

Ron **R**ivest

Adi **S**hamir

Leonard **A**dleman

invent **RSA**

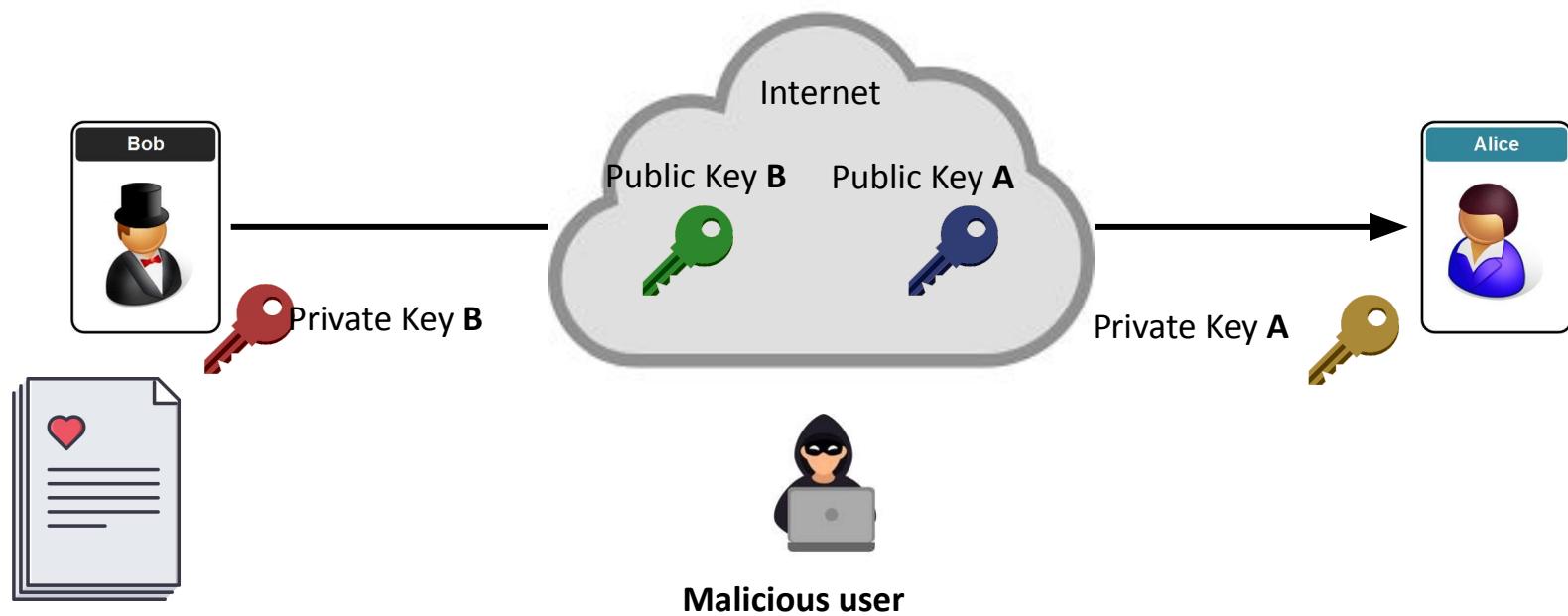


First implementation of
Digital Signature

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

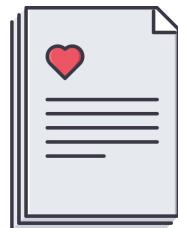
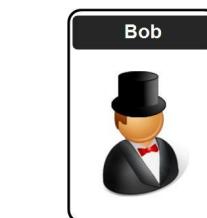
Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify

Step 1 :

Bob encrypts the document with his private key.

Thereby signing the document.

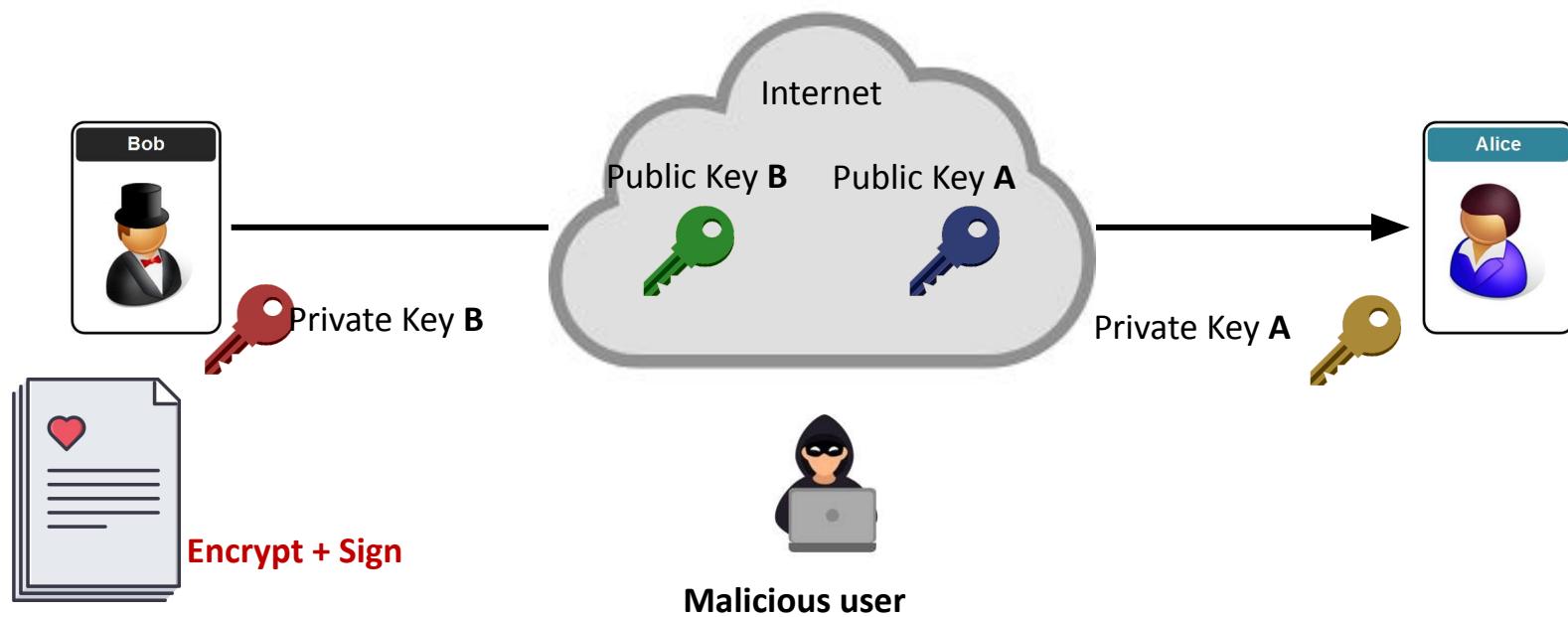


Malicious user

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

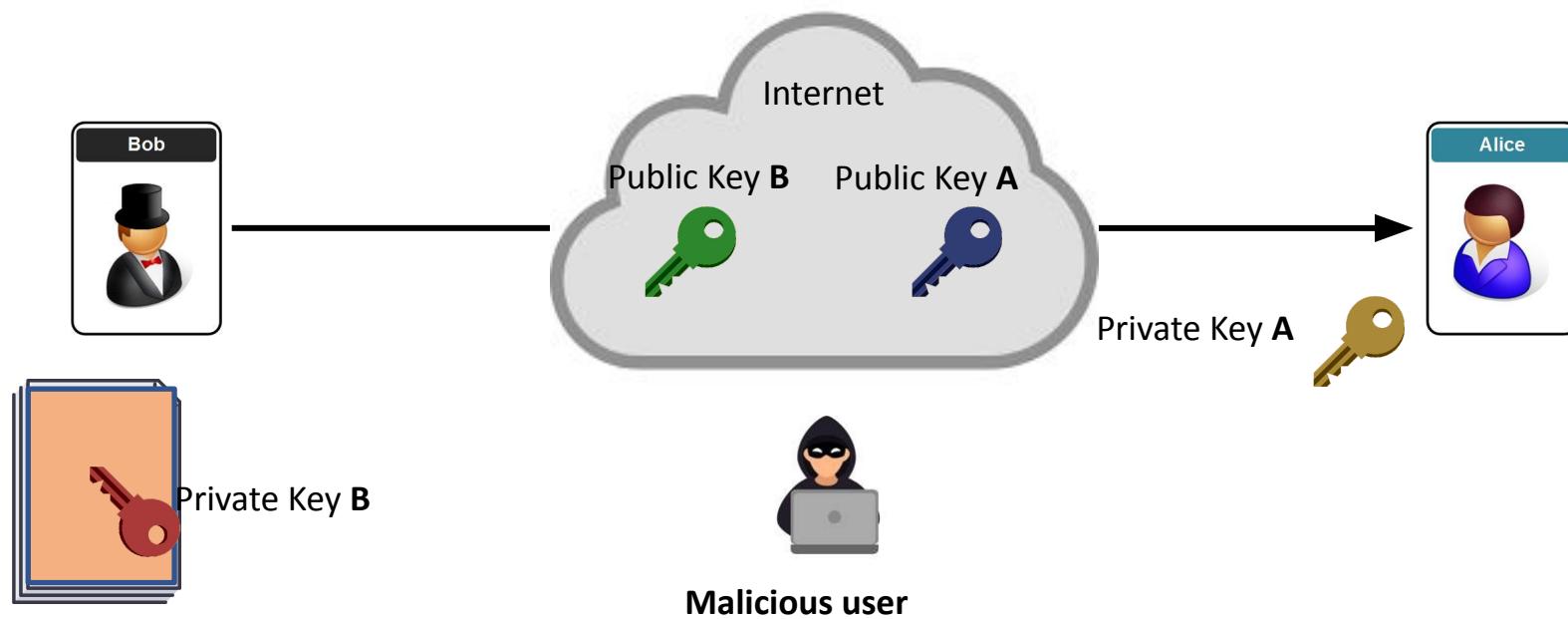
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



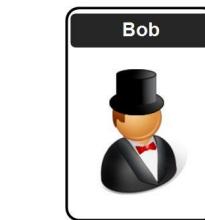
1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify

Step 2 :

Bob sends the signed document to Alice.



Private Key B

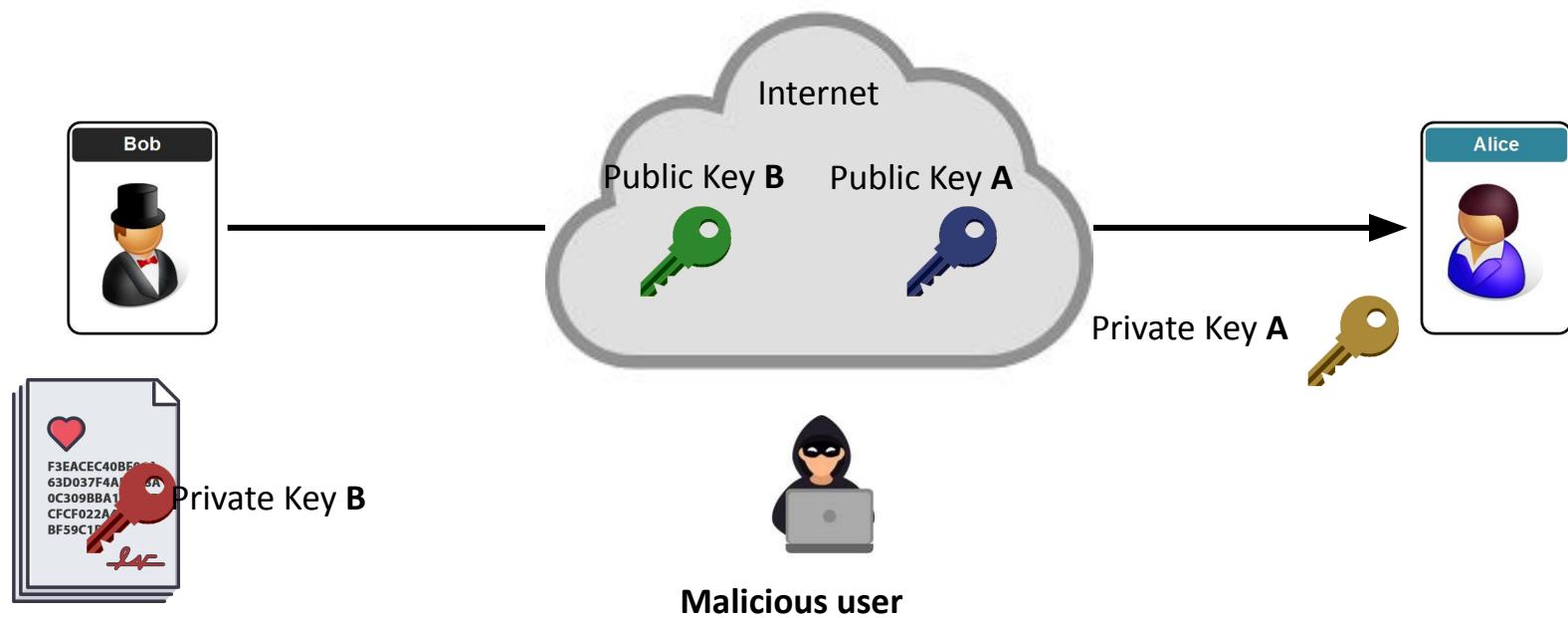


Malicious user

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



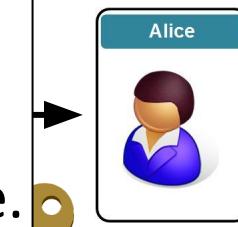
1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify

Step 3 :

Alice decrypts the document with Bob's public key, thereby verifying the signature.



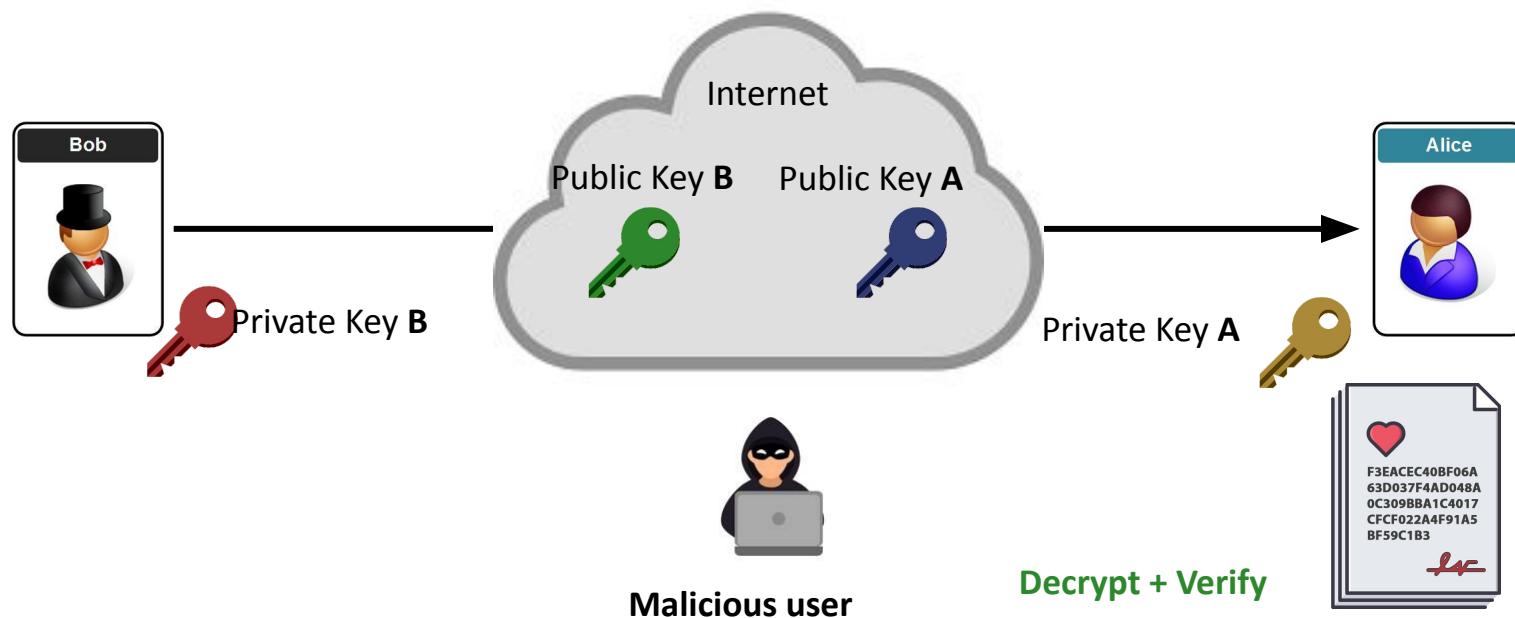
Malicious user



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

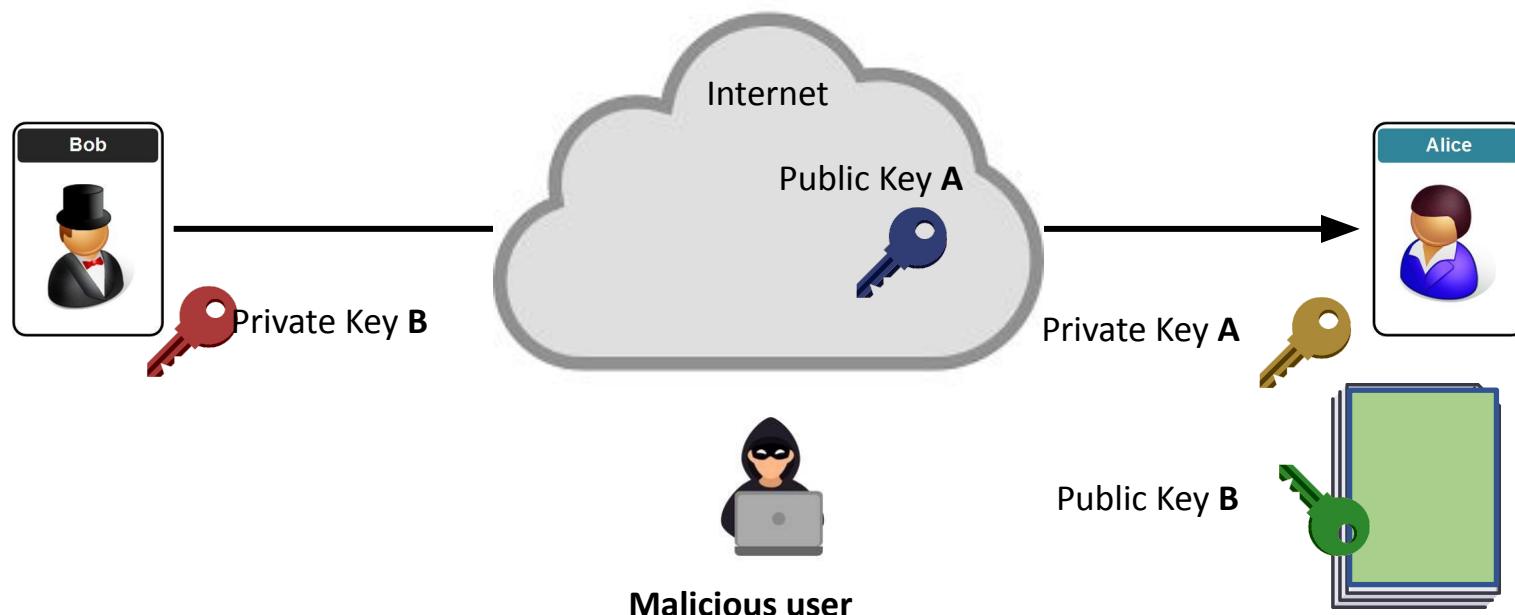
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

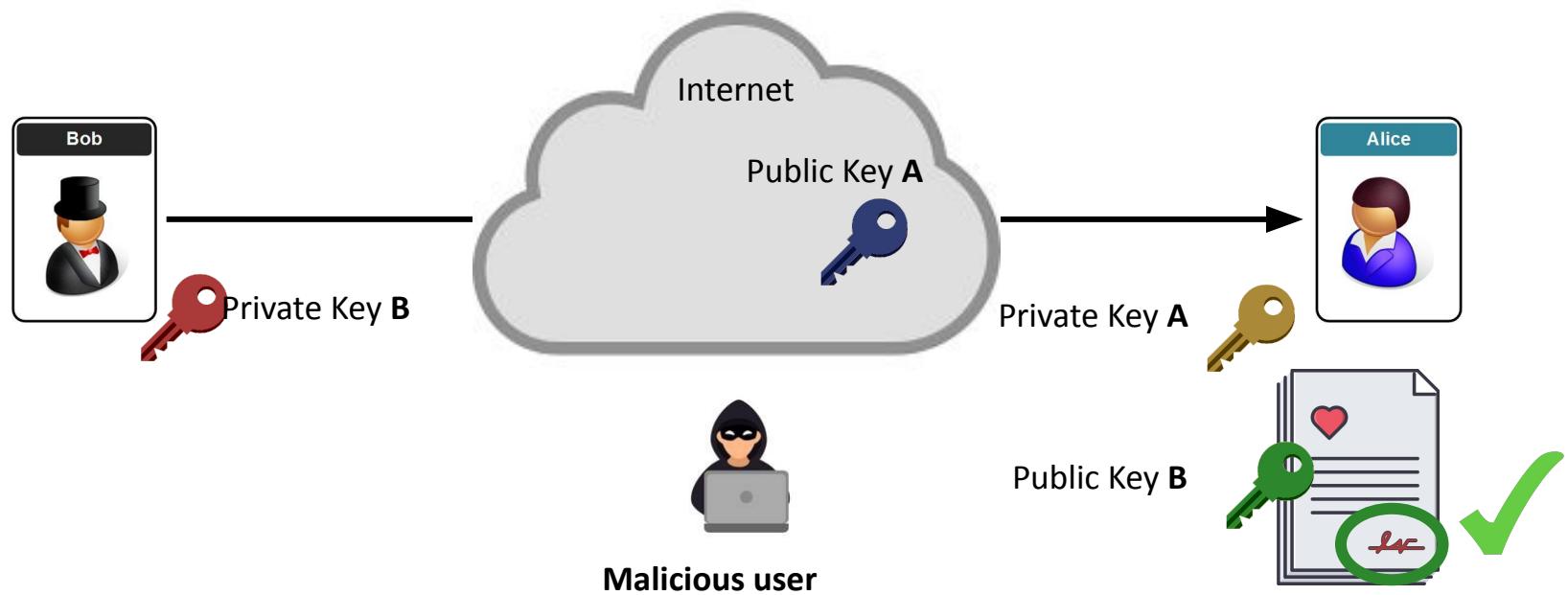
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



Digital Signature : 4 properties

- **Authentic** : when Alice verifies the message with Bob's public key, she know that he signed the message.
- **Unforgeable** : only Bob knows his private key.
- **Not Reusable** : the signature is a function of the document. It can't be transferred to any other document.
- **Unalterable** : if there is any alteration to the document, the signature can no longer be verified with Bob's public key.

1970's

(1969)
The ARPANET (early Internet) was a p2p network



Public Key Cryptography
Diffie and Helman

1976

Distributed Consensus
Leslie Lamport

1978

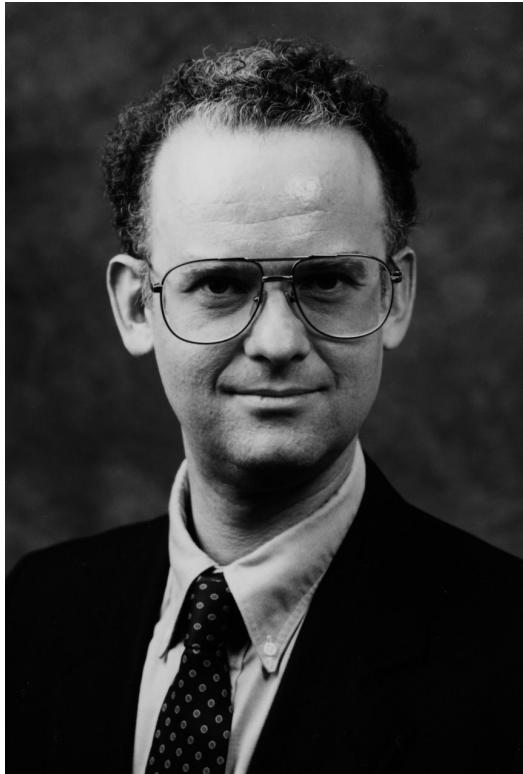
Digital Signature
Rivest, Shamir and Adelman

1979

Hash Functions (Merkle Tree)
Ralph Merkle



1970's



Ralph Merkle

- Stanford University
- One of Larry Hellman's doctoral student.
- Invents :
 - Hashing Function
 - Merkle Tree

<https://www.merkle.com>

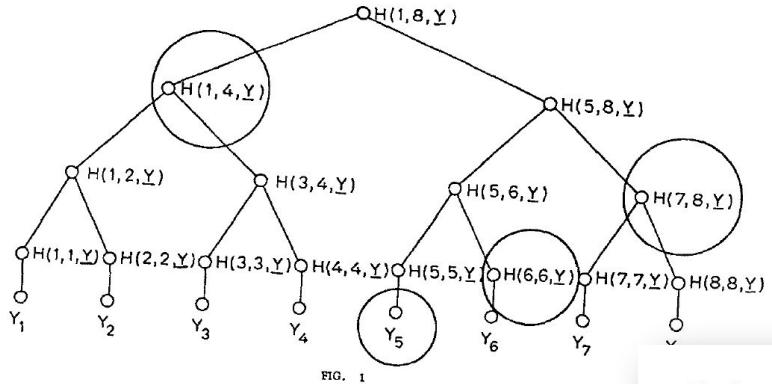
1970's



**Objective : verify the presence of a document
in a public directory**

- Initially for digital certificates
- Undamaged and unaltered
- Securely and Efficiently





0's

raphy

*Hash Functions
(Merkle Tree)
Ralph Merkle*

References

- [1] W. Dai, "b-money," <http://www.weidai.com/bmoney.txt>, 1998.
- [2] H. Massias, X.S. Avila, and J.-J. Quisquater, "Design of a secure timestamping service with minimal trust requirements," In *20th Symposium on Information Theory in the Benelux*, May 1999.
- [3] S. Haber, W.S. Stornetta, "How to time-stamp a digital document," In *Journal of Cryptology*, vol 3, no 2, pages 99-111, 1991.
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- [6] A. Back, "Hashcash - a denial of service counter-measure," <http://www.hashcash.org/papers/hashcash.pdf>, 2002.
- [7] R.C. Merkle, "Protocols for public key cryptosystems," In *Proc. 1980 Symposium on Security and Privacy*, IEEE Computer Society, pages 122-133, April 1980.
- [8] W. Feller, "An introduction to probability theory and its applications," 1957.



Hash Function = Digital Fingerprint

Example :

*(the example uses SHA256, try here >
<https://bit.ly/2YYMbF8>*

Input

Hash(Loughborough)

↑
“L” **upper** case

Output

acb208d3ac02ab6d5a4...

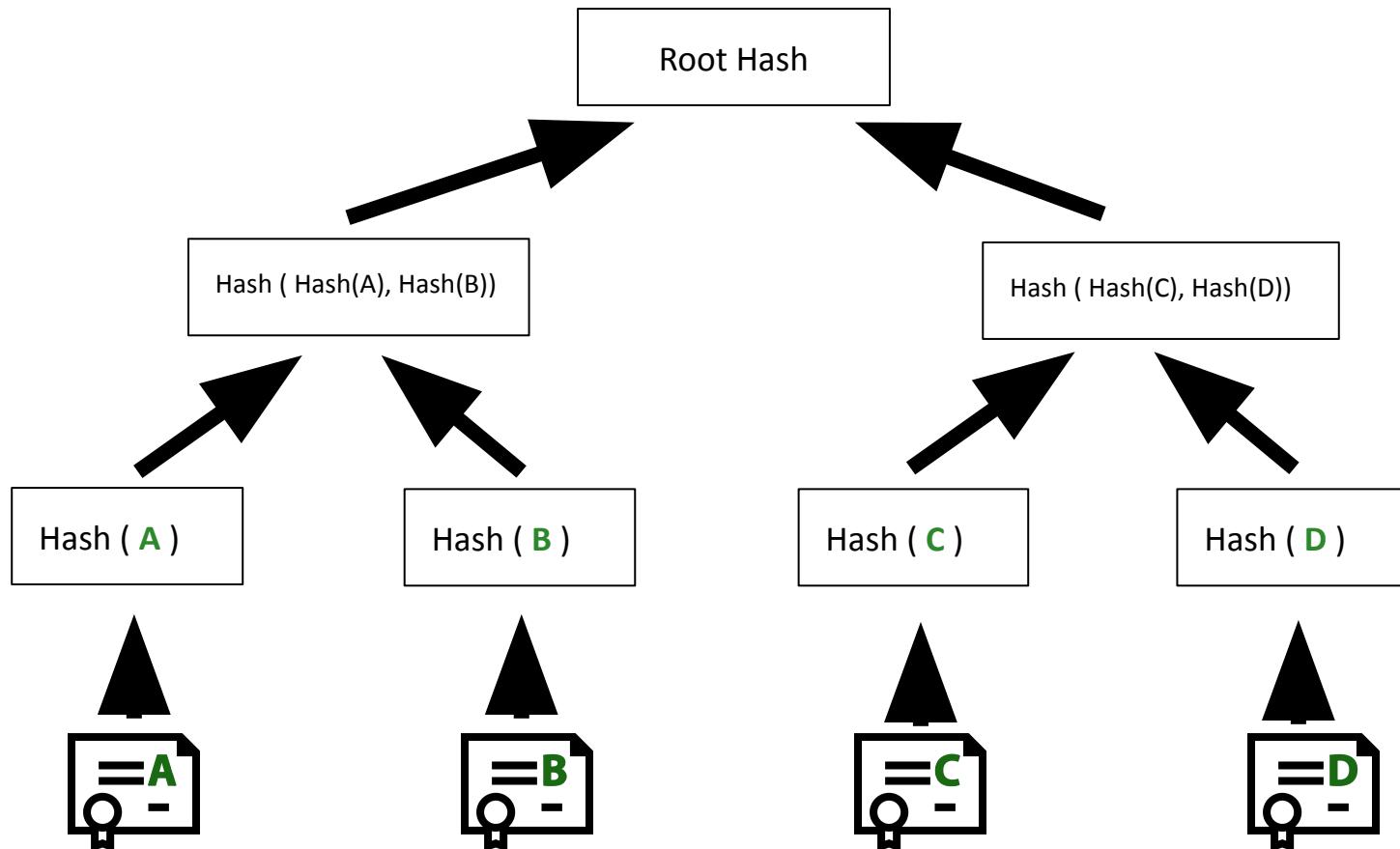
Hash(loughborough)

↑
“l” **lower** case

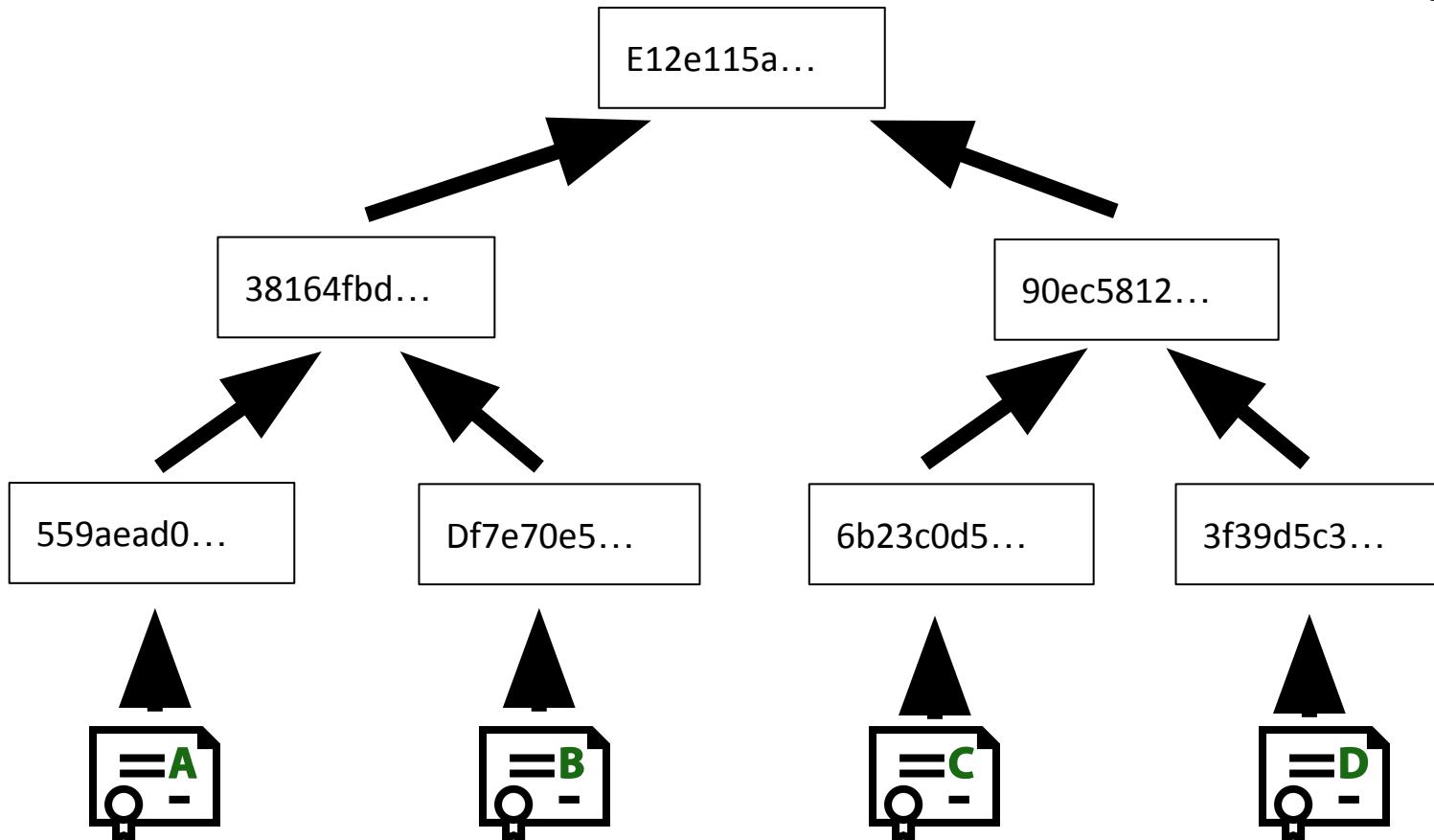
1c2cc85d86f480bca5df0...

A small change changes the whole digital fingerprint

Merkle Tree (the basic)



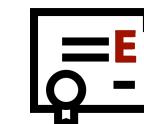
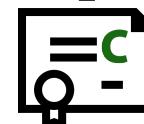
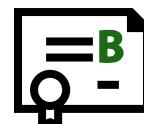
Merkle Tree (the basic)



Merkle Tree (the basic)

Ralph Merkle (1980, p126, para. 4)

ed. Fortunately, it is possible to selectively authenticate individual entries in the public file without having to know the whole public file by using Merkle's "tree authentication," [13].



7ff1c830...

E12e115a...

D68956cd...

90ec5812...

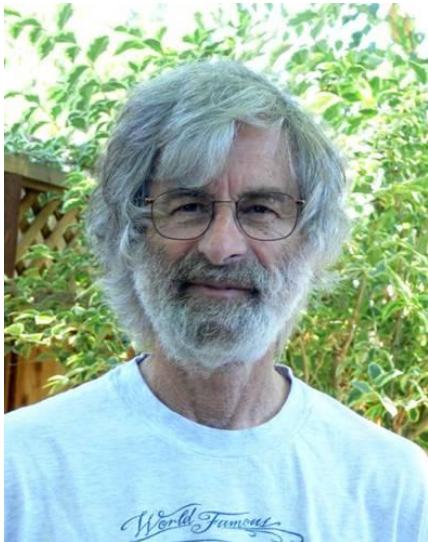
6b23c0d5...

A9f51566...

3f39d5c3...



Consensus in Distributed Systems



Operating
Systems

R. Stockton Gaines
Editor

Time, Clocks, and the Ordering of Events in a Distributed System

Leslie Lamport
Massachusetts Computer Associates, Inc.

The concept of one event happening before another in a distributed system is examined, and is shown to define a partial ordering of the events. A distributed algorithm is given for synchronizing a system of logical clocks which can be used to totally order the events. The use of the total ordering is illustrated with a method for solving synchronization problems. The algorithm is then specialized for synchronizing physical clocks, and a bound is derived on how far out of synchrony the clocks can become.

Leslie Lamport

[Paper](#)

1980's

The Byzantine Generals Problem

LESLIE LAMPORT, ROBERT SHOSTAK, and MARSHALL PEASE
SRI International

Reliable computer systems must handle malfunctioning components that give conflicting information to different parts of the system. This situation can be expressed abstractly in terms of a group of generals of the Byzantine army camped with their troops around an enemy city. Communicating only by messenger, the generals must agree upon a common battle plan. However, one or more of them may be traitors who will try to confuse the others. The problem is to find an algorithm to ensure that the loyal generals will reach agreement. It is shown that, using only oral messages, this problem is solvable if and only if more than two-thirds of the generals are loyal; so a single traitor can confound two loyal generals. With unforgeable written messages, the problem is solvable for any number of generals and possible traitors. Applications of the solutions to reliable computer systems are then discussed.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: C.2.4. [Computer-Communication Networks]: Distributed Systems—*network operating systems*; D.4.4 [Operating Systems]: Communications Management—*network communication*; D.4.5 [Operating Systems]: Reliability—*fault tolerance*

General Terms: Algorithms, Reliability

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Interactive consistency



1982

*Byzantine Generals
Problem*

[Paper](#)

That is the cryptographic background, how did people try to use this technology ?

The development of

- Electronic cash
- Timestamping
- P2P Systems
- Consensus systems



1983

*Blind Signature for
Untraceable
Payments*
David Chaum

E-Cash

1980's

BLIND SIGNATURES FOR UNTRACEABLE PAYMENTS

David Chaum

Department of Computer Science
University of California
Santa Barbara, CA

INTRODUCTION

Automation of the way we pay for goods and services is already underway, as can be seen by the variety and growth of electronic banking services available to consumers. The ultimate structure of the new electronic payments system may have a substantial impact on personal privacy as well as on the nature and extent of criminal use of payments. Ideally a new payments system should address both of these seemingly conflicting sets of concerns.

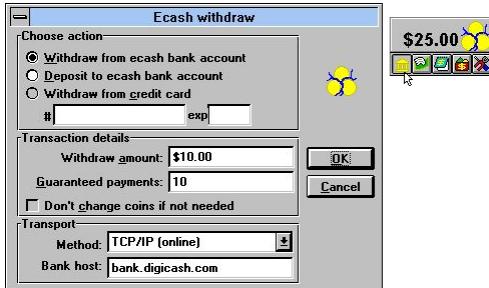
On the one hand, knowledge by a third party of the payee, amount, and time of payment for every transaction made by an individual can reveal a great deal about the individual's whereabouts, associations and lifestyle. For example, consider payments for such things as transportation, hotels, restaurants, movies, theater, lectures, food, pharmaceuticals, alcohol, books, periodicals, dues, religious and political contributions.

On the other hand, an anonymous payments systems like bank notes and coins suffers from lack of controls and security. For example, consider problems such as lack of proof of payment, theft of payments media, and black payments for bribes, tax evasion, and black markets.

A fundamentally new kind of cryptography is proposed here, which allows an automated payments system with the following properties:

1980's

E-Cash



1983

*Blind Signature for
Untraceable
Payments*
David Chaum



Starts with
online transactions

Untraceable Electronic Cash
Chaum, Fiat and Naor



Extends to
Offline
payments

1988

David Chaum
finds the
company

Digicash

1990





1990's

TimeStamping

Haber & Stornetta
How to TimeStamp
a Digital Document

1991

1992

Bayer, Haber & Stornetta
Improving the efficiency
and reliability of digital
time-stamping

Benaloh and De Mare
Efficient Broadcast
TimeStamping

Haber &
Stornetta
Secure Name
for BitStrings

1997

Massias, Avila and Quisquater
Design of a Secure
TimeStamping Service with
minimal trust requirement

1999



1990's

TimeStamping

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[How to TimeStamp
a Digital Document](#)

1992

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Bayer, Haber & Stornetta
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time-stamping](#)

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TimeStamping](#)

Haber &
Stornetta
[Secure Name
for BitStrings](#)

Massias, Avila and Quisquater
[Design of a Secure
TimeStamping Service with
minimal trust requirement](#)

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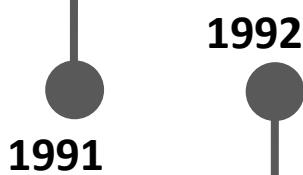


1990's

TimeStamping

Consensus Algorithm

Haber & Stornetta
[How to TimeStamp
a Digital Document](#)



Bayer, Haber & Stornetta
[Improving the efficiency
and reliability of digital
time-stamping](#)

Benaloh and De Mare
[Efficient Broadcast
TimeStamping](#)

Dwork and Naor
[Pricing via Processing or
Combatting Junk Mail](#)

Pricing via Processing or Combatting Junk Mail*

Cynthia Dwork * Moni Naor †

Abstract

We present a computational technique for combatting junk mail, in particular, and controlling access to a shared resource, in general. The main idea is to require a user to compute a moderately hard, but not intractable, function in order to gain access to the resource, thus preventing frivolous use. To this end we suggest several *pricing functions*, based on, respectively, extracting square roots modulo a prime, the Fiat-Shamir signature scheme, and the Ong-Schnorr-Shamir (cracked) signature scheme.

1990's

Haber & Stornetta
[How to TimeStamp a Digital Document](#)

1991

1992

Bayer, Haber & Stornetta
[Improving the efficiency and reliability of digital time-stamping](#)

Benaloh and De Mare
[Efficient Broadcast TimeStamping](#)

Dwork and Naor
[Pricing via Processing or Combatting Junk Mail](#)

1993

1996

How to Make a Mint: the Cryptography of Anonymous Electronic Cash - NSA

HashCash
Adam Back

Haber & Stornetta
[Secure Name for BitStrings](#)

1997

1998

[B-Money](#)
Wei Dai

[Bit-Gold](#)
Nick Szabo

Auditable, Anonymous Electronic Cash
Sander & Ta-Shma

Massias, Avila and Quisquater
Design of a Secure
[Timestamping Service with minimal trust requirement](#)

1990's

Napster revolutionizes the music Industry

- Napster (1999) : peer-to-peer platform for sharing music
- Biggest Copyright Infringement
 - \$26 million penalty fee to copyright owners
 - \$10 million for future licensing royalties
- Shut Down on July 11, 2001



21st Century



Peer-to-Peer networks emerge

SoulSeek

Freenet

Gnutella



2000



2001



2004

BitTorrent

eDonkey

FastTrack / KaZaa



Early Attempts at Electronic Cash

“the one thing that’s missing is a reliable e-cash, whereby on the internet you can transfer funds from A to B without A knowing B or B knowing A” - Milton Friedman 1999

1998 - b-money - Wei Dai (<http://www.weidai.com/bmoney.txt>)

1998 - Bit Gold - Nick Szabo (<https://nakamotoinstitute.org/bit-gold/>)

Differences between Bit Gold and Bitcoin

- PoW : Szabo's concept of Bit Gold requires the amount of work required to create each piece to be quantifiable so that the market can price it.
- Szabo conceived Bit Gold as a reserve currency and not as a form of electronic money in itself.
- He thought his benchmark function impractical
- Double spending prevented by using a registry (distributed maintainers who vote)
- Nakamoto integrated the timechain and the registry
- Bitcoins are produced at a predictable rate and there is a finite supply



Bitcoin QR Code



Satoshi Nakamoto is the name used by the presumed pseudonymous person or persons who developed [bitcoin](#), authored the bitcoin [white paper](#), and created and deployed bitcoin's original [reference implementation](#)



Early Bitcoin History

August 2008 - domain name bitcoin.org registered

October 2008 - A Peer-to-Peer Electronic Cash System posted to a cryptography mailing list

January 2009 - Software implementation released as open source

2010, the first known commercial transaction using bitcoin occurred when programmer Laszlo Hanyecz bought two Papa John's pizzas for 10,000 BTC

Blockchain events since 2009

2014 - Ethereum created

2017 - ICO Boom / Alternatives to Ethereum emerge

2017 - Proof of History paper

2018 - Loomprotocol -> Solana - > testnet launched

2018 - Crypto winter

2020 - DeFi summer

2021 - Rise of NFTs / Gaming

Verifiable Random Functions

From [Algorand VRFs](#)

A Verifiable Random Function (VRF) is a cryptographic primitive that maps inputs to verifiable pseudorandom outputs. VRFs were introduced by Micali, Rabin, and Vadhan in '99.

The owner of a secret key can compute the function value as well as an associated proof for any input value. Everyone else, using the proof and the associated public key or verification key can check that this value was indeed calculated correctly, yet this information cannot be used to find the secret key.

Verifiable Delay Functions

See [paper](#)

A VDF requires a specified number of sequential steps to evaluate, yet produces a unique output that can be efficiently and publicly verified.

From [Introduction to VDFs](#)

Think of VDF's as a time delay imposed on the output of some pseudorandom generator. This delay prevents malicious actors from influencing the output of the pseudorandom generator, since all inputs will be finalized before anyone can finish computing the VDF.

A VDF must be

- **Sequential:** anyone can compute $f(x)$ in t sequential steps, but no adversary with a large number of processors can distinguish the output of $f(x)$ from random in significantly fewer steps
- **Efficiently verifiable:** Given the output y , any observer can verify that $y = f(x)$ in a short amount of time.

SUMMARY

Blockchains should be seen in the context of decentralisation

Cryptographic techniques have been crucial for solving the problems in implementing decentralised systems

Early electronic cash systems came part way to a practical implementation that could solve the double spend problem and achieve consensus across an open network.

Bitcoin solved these problems in 2009

After 2014 smart contract systems became the focus