

SCAR: Smart Contract Academic Registry

A Blockchain approach for Academic Registry

Diogo Rodrigues Gonçalo Frutuoso 49513@alunos.isel.pt 49495@alunos.isel.pt

Supervisors

Cátia Vaz, ISEL Alexandre Francisco, IST cvaz@cc.isel.ipl.pt aplf@tecnico.pt

Final Report written for Project and Seminary Licenciatura em Engenharia Informática e de Computadores

Abstract

This is the abstract.

Resumo

Aqui fica o resumo.

Acknowledgments

Here goes the acknowledgments.

Index

1	Introduction	xii
	1.1 Outline	xii
2	— -	iv
	2.1 Introduction to the Problem	iv
	2.2 Alternative Approaches	iv
	2.3 Distributed System	ΧV
	2.4 Differente Approaches to Blockchain	vi
3	Requirements	iii
	3.0.1 Stakeholders	vii
	3.0.2 Mandatory Requirements:	vii
	3.0.3 Optional Requirements:	ix
	3.1 Use Cases	ix
4	Solution Architecture x	xi
	4.1 Multiplatform Application	xi
5	Implementation	iii
6	Work Plan	χV

List of Figures

2.1	Blockchain structure adapted from	[8]																											XV
-----	-----------------------------------	-----	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	----

List of Tables

Introduction

This is where the introduction goes to.

1.1 Outline

This is where the outline goes to. The outline is a guide for the reader to understand the structure of the document.

Background

2.1 Introduction to the Problem

In today's fast paced world, the authenticity and accessibility of academic certificates play a crucial role in ensuring trust and credibility in various domains, ranging from education to employment and beyond. The current and traditional *paper-based* system of issuing and verifying academic certificates is not only time consuming but also prone to a lot of fraud and manipulation. The rampant proliferation of counterfeit certificates, inefficient verification processes and the risk of loss or damage highlight the need for a more reliable, robust and secure academic certificate registry system.

The current system of academic certificate registry is plagued by numerous challenges. Firstly, the reliance and trust on paper-based certificates is a major issue making them susceptible to forgery and tampering undermining the cridibility and integrity of academic qualifications. Secondly, the manual verification process is time-consuming and prone to errors, leading to delays in credential validation, possible fraudulent activities and also potential loss of revenue for institutions due to errors in the manual release. Thirdly, the centralized nature of certificate issuance by educational intituitions exacerbates the difficulty of maintaining a unified and updated registry, hampering efficient verification mechanisms.

2.2 Alternative Approaches

Several attemps have been made to address the imperfections of the traditional academic certificate registry system. One such solution is the implementation of *centralized databases* [9] managed by government or regulatory authorities, where educational institutions are required to submit digital copies of certificates for verification purposes. Additionally this approach aims to centralize certificate records and simplify the verification process, it still faces challenges such as the risk and concerns of data privacy and security, interoperability issues between different databases and the need of a trusted third party to manage the database. This centralized mechanism of keeping record is also devoted to have a single point of failure.

Another solution that is gaining traction is the adoption of blockchain technology for academic certificate registry. Blockchain offers a decentralized, secure and tamper-proof ledger where certificates can be stored and verified. The use of blockchain technology ensures that certificates are immutable, transparent and accessible to all stakeholders. Moreover, this technology enables the instant verification trough cryptographic methods, eliminating the need for a central authority to manage the registry, thereby reducing the risk of fraud and manipulation. This approach eliminates the need for a central authority to manage the registry, thereby reducing the risk of fraud and manipulation.

In contrast to the traditional centralized databased system, in our opinion, blockchain emerges as a disruptive force capable of revolutionizing academic certificate registry systems by providing in a decentralized and secure manner, an immutable and tamper-proof ledger where certificates will be stored and verified. The decision to embrace blockchain technology as the foundation of our solution is based on what we sad above as well as the fact that blockchain technology is a key enabler of the Web3 vision, which aims to create decentralized applications (dApps) that are secure, transparent and trustless where users have full control over their data and digital assets without having a **single point of failure**.

2.3 Distributed System

As we transition to a blockchain-based solution for our problem it is crucial to understand the foundational concepts that make this technology both revolutionary and reliable. Central to blockchain's efficacy is the principle of *distributed consensus*, which ensures the integrity, security and transparency of the ledger. This next sections explore into the mechanics of distributed consensus, the broader vision of *Web3* and other key concepts integral to understanding how blockchain can transform academic certificate registry systems.

Blockchain Technology

Blockchain is a technology behind the cryptocurrency Bitcoin initially described by Satoshi Nakamoto in a 2008 white paper titled 'Bitcoin: A Peer-to-Peer Electronic Cash System' [8]. Although the term blockchain gained popularity in that year, with the introduction of Bitcoin cryptocurrency by Nakamoto, its underlying concepts have been used since the 1980s. Later in 2004, Harold Thomas Finney II (Hal Finney) introduced the Reusable Proof of Work (RPOW) system [3]. The RPOW system was a digital currency system that used a proof-of-work limit the amount of work done by the server and to limit the amount of work done by the client. The RPOW system was the first system to use a blockchain-like structure to store and verify transactions. After sometime, in 2009 the first bitcoin transaction was made by Nakamoto to his friend Hal Finney [11] where was transered 10 BTC (bitcoin). This marked the beginning of the blockchain technology era. In 2013, Vitalik Buterin proposed the concept of smart contracts in his white paper 'Ethereum: The Ultimate Smart Contract and Decentralized Application Platform' [1]. Uppon this publication, Ethereum has launched his own blockchain in 2015. [12].

All of the above information is to show how blockchain has evolved over the past few years and is presented in [13].

What is Blockchain?

A blockchain is a time-ordered set of blocks where each block is cryptographically linked to the previous one forming a chain. All blocks are stored in a decentralized and distributed ledger and become thrustworthy digital records whar are unmodifiable in practice but very easy to verify. Like mencioned in the previous section 2.2 there is no centralized or hierarchical structure in the blockchain network and the information is shared by a network of *peers*.

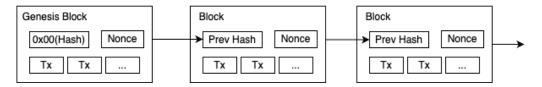


Figure 2.1: Blockchain structure adapted from [8]

Each block contains a reliable register of one or more actually executed transactions that are created and exchanged by the network participants (peers) which eventually must modify its state. To add new information to the chain, a **consensus** about its truthfulness must be reached among the peers in the network.

The content of each transaction that is stored in a single block depends on the specific type of blockchain and its prupose. In our case and very succinctly, the transaction has an 'item' that contains information about the academic certificate; we will discuss this in more detail in the next chapters. Other example used for the time being is the Bitcoin, where the main information registered are exchanges of bitcoins between accounts.

Other important aspect of a chain node and the major reason for its security is the **hash**. The hash is a mathematical function that takes an input (or 'message') and returns a fixed-size string of bytes. This function is used to verify whether or not the data contained in the block has been tampered with. It is created when a new block is added or updated onto the chain. In the blockchain, the hash of a block contains the information of the previous block's hash and any minimal change in the block's content will result in a completely different hash. This is the reason why the blockchain is considered tamper-proof and secure.

Some blockchains support the use of *Smart Contracts* [7] which are a modern version of the tradition paper-based agreements mencioned before. These Smart Contracts are a critical component of several applications and platforms using a distributed ledger technology that we will be using in out solution and for better understading we will explain with more detail in the next sections.

There are three main types of blockchain [10]:

- Public: is called public if each participants can read and use it to carry out transactions but also if everyone can participate in the process of creating the **consensus** which can be *Proof-of-Work* or *Proof-of-Stake*. In this type of blockchain there is no central authority nor a trusted third party to control the network. Examples of this type of blockchain are **Bitcoin** [8] and **Ethereum** [14]. The main advantages of this type of blockchain are:
 - High security and privacy,
 - Open and Flexible Environment,
 - No regulations,
 - Full Transparency and Systems,
 - Distributed, etc.
- Private: these are restricted and not open, such kind of blockchain also haas features of access. This type of blockchains works mostly on closed systems and networks and are usually useful in organizations and companies which only selected members can join and access the data. Private blockchains have running only authorized nodes and that means that no one from the outside of the private network is able to access the information and data exchanged between two nodes. In this type there is no mining, no proof of work, and no remuneration [5]. Examples of this type of blockchain are **Hyperledger Fabric** [4] and **R3 Corda** [2]. The main advantages of this type of blockchain are:
 - Full of privacy,
 - High Efficiency,
 - Faster Transaction,
 - Better Scability,
- Consortium [6]: a combination of both public and private blockchains. As in a private blockchain, participants may join the network only by invitation and must be approved by the network owner, however, there is not a single organization that has control over the network. Instead, the control is distributed among a group of participants.
 - High Security,
 - High Scalability,
 - High Efficiency,
 - High Privacy,
 - High Flexibility,

Distributed Consensus Mechanisms

Distributed consensus feature allows a blockchain-based system

2.4 Differente Approaches to Blockchain

Requirements

With the purpose of fulfilling all the objectives of the project SCAR, we have developed DiGo Certify mobile application. Our mobile application, allows different interveners to access, share and emit certificates to the Ethereum blockchain, from anywhere in the world, offering a futuristic solution for the problems described in section (...).

The SCAR project proposal aims to meet the needs of different stakeholders in the educational ecosystem. Mandatory and optional requirements have been defined based on essential functionalities and additional enhancements desired for the application.

TODO(FINISH REQUIRMENTS INTRO)

3.0.1 Stakeholders

The SCAR solution involves three main stakeholders: students or alumni, employers or third-party entities, and college administrators. Each plays a crucial role in the application's ecosystem.

Role of Each Stakeholder and Actions They Can Perform:

- Students or Alumni: Students or alumni are the essence of the SCAR platform. They will have the ability to register on the mobile application, where they can securely upload and store their academic certificates on the blockchain. Additionally, students or alumni can view and share their certificates with employers or third-party entities during recruitment processes, providing a transparent and efficient experience.
- College Administrators: College administrators are responsible for providing and validating the academic certificates issued by the educational institution. They will have the ability to access the application to issue and authenticate students' or alumni's certificates, thus ensuring the integrity and validity of the documents.
- Employers or External Entities: Employers play a crucial role in requesting the verification of academic certificates during job interviews. By accessing the SCAR platform, employers or external entities can instantly verify the authenticity of the certificates presented by students or alumni, without the need of possessing a wallet and with this ensuring a more reliable and transparent recruitment process.

3.0.2 Mandatory Requirements:

- Implementation of the mobile application using React Native with Expo platform: The choice of React Native along with the Expo platform provides an effective approach for developing multiplatform mobile applications. This ensures a consistent experience for users, regardless of the device used, and facilitates the development process for the development team.
- Utilization of smart contracts in Solidity to store and validate academic certificates on the Ethereum blockchain: The use of smart contracts in Solidity offers a secure and reliable solution for storing and validating academic certificates on the Ethereum blockchain. This approach ensures data integrity and immutability, making the SCAR platform highly reliable and resistant to fraud.
- Development of features for registration, authentication, and secure storage of certificates on the blockchain: Developing robust features for registering, authenticating, and securely storing certificates on the blockchain is essential to ensure the security and reliability of the SCAR platform. These features should be designed with a focus on usability and security, providing an intuitive and transparent experience for users.

3.0.3 Optional Requirements:

• Integration of additional features, such as real-time notifications and sharing of certificates through digital channels: Incorporating extra functionalities like real-time notifications and certificate sharing through digital channels, such as social media platforms, can further enhance the user experience on the SCAR platform. This enhancement can boost usability and attract new users to the platform.

3.1 Use Cases

Solution Architecture

This is where the architecture goes to.

4.1 Multiplatform Application

This is where the multiplatform application goes to. Some description what it is, how it works, which solutions are available and detailed talk about the chosen one.

Implementation

This is where the implementation goes to.

Work Plan

This chapter describes the work plan for the project.

Bibliography

- [1] V. Buterin. Ethereum: the ultimate smart contract and decentralized application platform. Libro blanco de Ethereum. Available at: http://web.archive.org/web/20131228111141/http://vbuterin.com/ethereum.html, 8, 2013.
- [2] M. Farina. Corda distributed ledger platform. Available at: https://r3.com/, 2017.
- [3] H. Finney. Rpow-reusable proofs of work. Available at: https://nakamotoinstitute.org/finney/rpow/index.html, 2004.
- [4] H. Foundation. Hyper ledger fabric. Available at: https://www.hyperledger.org/projects/fabric, 2016.
- [5] D. Guegan. Public Blockchain versus Private blockhain, Apr. 2017. Documents de travail du Centre d'Economie de la Sorbonne 2017.20 - ISSN: 1955-611X.
- [6] N. R. Kasi, R. S, and M. Karuppiah. Chapter 1 blockchain architecture, taxonomy, challenges, and applications. In S. H. Islam, A. K. Pal, D. Samanta, and S. Bhattacharyya, editors, *Blockchain Technology for Emerging Applications*, Hybrid Computational Intelligence for Pattern Analysis, pages 1–31. Academic Press, 2022.
- [7] G. Kaur, A. Habibi Lashkari, I. Sharafaldin, and Z. Habibi Lashkari. Introduction to smart contracts and defi. In *Understanding Cybersecurity Management in Decentralized Finance: Challenges, Strategies, and Trends*, pages 29–56. Springer, 2023.
- [8] S. Nakamoto. Bitcoin: A peer-to-peer electronic cash system. Available at SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=3440802 or http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3440802, August 2008.
- [9] J. E. Olson. Chapter 5 origins of a database archiving application. In J. E. Olson, editor, *Database Archiving*, The MK/OMG Press, pages 71–84. Morgan Kaufmann, Boston, 2009.
- [10] P. Paul, P. Aithal, R. Saavedra, and S. Ghosh. Blockchain technology and its types—a short review. *International Journal of Applied Science and Engineering (IJASE)*, 9(2):189–200, 2021.
- [11] A. Peterson. Hal finney received the first bitcoin transaction. here's how he describes it. Washington Post, available at: https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/the-switch/wp/2014/01/03/hal-finney-received-the-first-bitcoin-transaction-heres-how-he-describes-it/, 3, 2014.
- [12] N. Reiff. Bitcoin vs. ethereum: what's the difference. Investopedia, available at: https://www.investopedia.com/articles/investing/031416/bitcoin-vs-ethereum-driven-different-purposes.asp, 2020.
- [13] G. Tripathi, M. A. Ahad, and G. Casalino. A comprehensive review of blockchain technology: Underlying principles and historical background with future challenges. *Decision Analytics Journal*, 9:100344, 2023.
- [14] S. Tual. Ethereum launches. Ethereum Foundation Blog, 30, 2015.