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About?

Cryptography is the scientific art of concealing data in a manner that makes it impractical or highly time-consuming to reverse engineer the encoded message. In the context of our scenario, where we aim to transmit a confidential message from one party to another, we'll adopt the commonly used actor names Alice and Bob.

Good old Alice and Bob! We'll get used to hearing about their adventures through out the book.

Let's say Alice and Bob are two parties who have never met, but want to communicate securely over the internet. How could they do this? In this thought experiment, we'll assume that any communication sent by Alice will be intercepted and read by unauthorized parties. Perhaps the first idea we might come with is to share some password to encrypt a message, but if the communications are always read in transit, how do we send the password? Perhaps the parties could arrange to meet physically and share some code or password and assumed that they're not being watched, but this of course is pretty impractical.

In 1977 Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, and Leonard Adleman from MIT invented the RSA algorithm that is widely used for secure data transmission.

In this chapter, we will develop a deeper understanding of the RSA algorithm, and other fundamental cryptographic algorithms that are essential to our application.

Randomness

As you are probably aware, computers are deterministic, given a set of inputs they should always return the same outputs. If they didn't, it would be pretty chaotic using a computer! Random Number Generators or RNGs are There are USB hardware devices like the TrueRNG by uBld.it that create randomness for your device or server for around \$100 USD.

Computers and software however, use Pseudo Random Number Generators to create a random output. However, they rely on a "seed" input, often the computer's time stamp. When creating passwords or perhaps more importantly crypto private keys, using a random number is critical. There is a good YouTube video by the former hacker "King Pin" where he cracks a password on a bitcoin wallet to recover a few million dollars (at time of writing) worth of bitcoin. The software used to generate the password took the computer's time as the seed to generate the password. The attackers took a range of dates where they thought the original password was generated and replayed all the milliseconds in that range. The attack was successful and the coins were recovered!

RC4

```
i = (i + 1) mod 256
j = (j + Si) mod 256
swap Si and Sj
t = (Si + Sj) mod 256
K = St
```

[RC4 code todo]

Ciphertext (in base64): wqLCthTDIMKvZR7Dh8Kvf1JZw5s=
Decrypted text: Hello, World!

What is entropy?

Let's explore some Go code to explain the topic further, and how our validators will use a random seed to create a random number.

[TODO GO CODE]

Online randomness as a service...

The Avalanche Effect

The avalanche effect in cryptography refers to a desirable property of cryptographic algorithms, particularly block ciphers and hash functions. This property ensures that a small change in the input (such as flipping a single bit) results in a significant and unpredictable change in the output.

In functions like the hash function, a small change in the input message, even one bit, should result in a hashed value that looks completely different from the original hash. This property is critical for ensuring data integrity and security.

Hash functions

Hash functions are "one way" algorithms that take an input (or 'message') and return a fixed-size string of bytes. The output, typically called the hash value or digest, appears random and unique for each unique input. Reversing the data is not possible. However, as mentioned in the chapter before, changing even one byte or character, results in a completely random output.

Here are some more properties of the hash function;

- 1.Deterministic: The same input will always produce the same output hash value.
- 2.Fixed Output Length: Regardless of the input size, the output hash is of a fixed length (e.g., 256 bits for SHA-256).
- 3.Efficient: Hash functions can process input data quickly.
- 4.It should be infeasible to generate the original input data given only the hash value.
- 5.It should be infeasible to find two different inputs that produce the same hash value.
- 6.A small change in the input should produce a significantly different hash value.

There are different types of Hash algorithms, but we will focus on the Secure Hash Algorithm 2, which includes SHA-256 and KECCAK-256.

Note: The security strengths of the functions are defined as <https://csrc.nist.gov/projects/hash-functions>

[TODO]

```
sha256('Hello, World!') =  
dffd6021bb2bd5b0af676290809ec3a53191dd81c7f70a4b28688a362182986f
```

Note, the output of the function is in hexadecimal (base16) so its case insensitive.

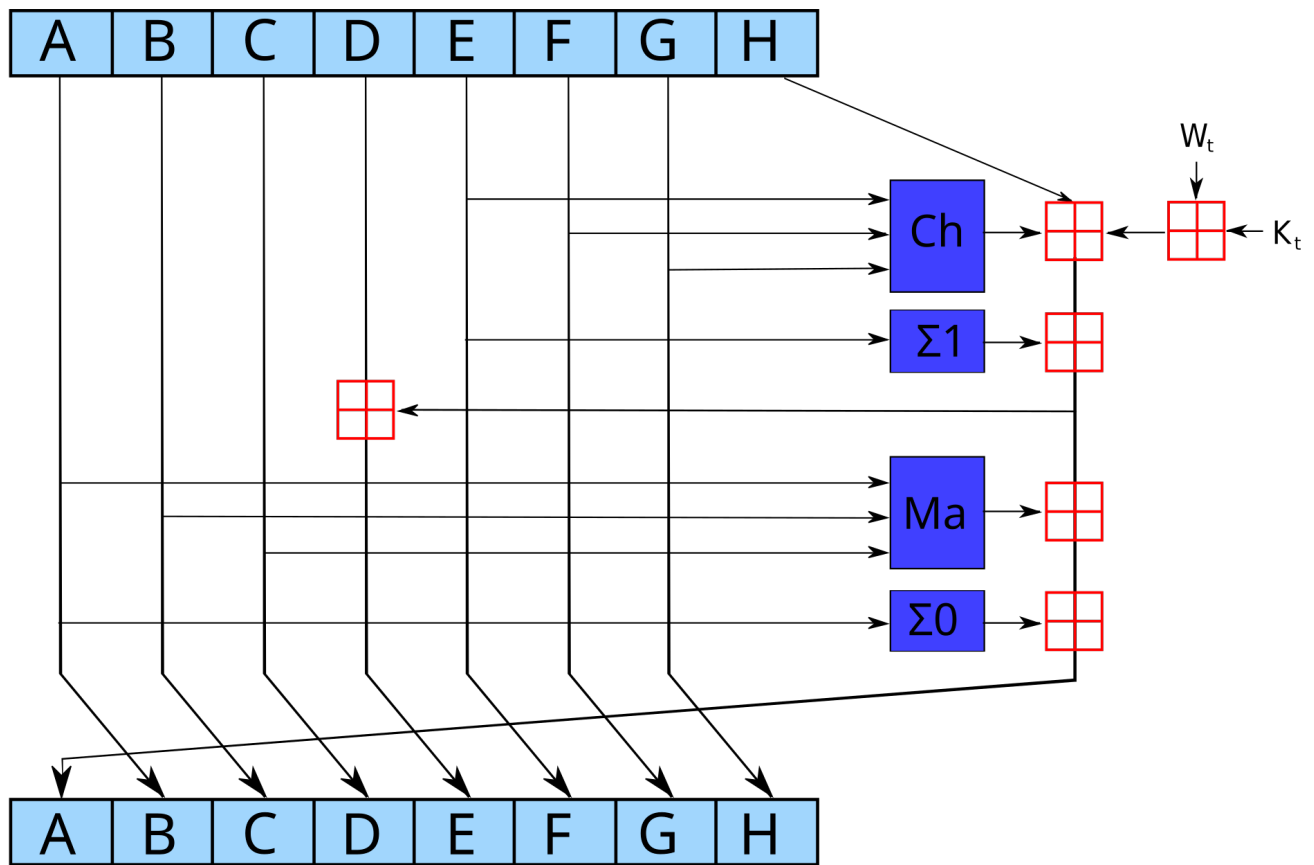
Remove the comma and we get the following output;

```
sha256("Hello World!") =  
7f83b1657ff1fc53b92dc18148a1d65dfc2d4b1fa3d677284addd200126d9069
```

Hash function are used to store passwords in a database, so that they're not stored in plain text. An attacker or even an inside employee, should be able to look up a users password and login to the system. We will discuss Rainbow table attacks later.

[TOOD node js passwod code example]

So, how do hash functions actually work and why cant they be reversed? You'll find many bad examples on the internet of an implmenation of a hash function, or just using libs or native functions in the langaguges. If you're not intersted in the algorithm, feel free to skip this part, but for me I *had* to know. Its critical to bitcoin mining, so I love to understand the algorithm in full.



First we start with two sets of magic numbers. The inital hash values in hexadecimal, we will call H0 to H7 which are derived from the first 32 bytes of the fractional parts of the square roots of the first 8 primes resulting in irrational numbers. 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19

H0 = 0x6a09e667
H1 = 0xbb67ae85
H2 = 0x3c6ef372
H3 = 0xa54ff53a

H4 = 0x510e527f
H5 = 0x9b05688c
H6 = 0x1f83d9ab
H7 = 0x5be0cd19

$\sqrt{2} = 1.4142135623730951$ thus the fractional part to eight decimals is 0.4142135623730951. Now we convert that number to binary.

$\text{bin}(0.4142135623730951) = 01101010000010011110011001100111$ and convert to hexadecimal,

$\text{hex}(01101010000010011110011001100111) = 0x6a09e667$

The next magic numbers are sixty four 32 bit words derived from the fractional parts of the cube roots, of the first 64 prime numbers. 2 ... 311. We will call these K0 ... K64

From the diagram above, we also note in the two blue boxes the functions Ch and Ma. Those are the Choosing function (Ch) and the Majority function (Ma), formally defined as [TODO]

For completeness, lets write these functions in code:

Coinflip over the phone?

Private and public keys

Blockchains use a cryptography method called public key, private key cryptography to mathematically prove that the user or machine interfacing with the blockchain is who they say they are.

A user has a private key, which is a large number, represented as hexadecimal number, base 64 string or sometimes as a decimal. Because of their size, by using a larger base or radix, they're easier to store in our application. Also, we will define memory on a chain as 32 byte works, so a 256 bit number conveniently fits within that memory allocation.

Schnorr signatures are now implemented in the bitcoin protocol as of ...

A relative new algorithm EdDSA known as Edwards-curve digital signature algorithm. It is based on the new (2022) implementation of schnorr signatures.

Now let's discuss some crypto algorithms!

Discuss RSA

There are many algorithms to encrypt data

- bcrypt
- triple des
- pgp / GPG

Asymmetric vs Symmetric

Merkle Trees

Now that we have an understanding about hashing there is one data structure or algorithm we need to understand and why its application and that is merkle trees. Merkle trees are a data structure patented by Ralph Merkle in 1979.

The tree is created by hashing together two values in a binary tree to form a node. That node is then hashed with another node and so on to form the tree.

Let's say we have the value "ACE OF SPADES". We will call this leaf 1 or L1. Our next leaf is "KING OF SPADES", set to L2. Assume the SHA-256 hash function for this example.

```
hash("ACE OF SPADES") =  
6ee0afb99a734986c820025ef6d12812c43c10357779f05613be26cd
```

```
hash("KING OF SPADES") =  
4dd528b068d435b667089e909dea6711531349ad0d96ea7452b60033e75ef48c
```

Now we combine hash(L1) with hash(L2) or hash(L1 + L2),

```
hash(6ee0afb99a734986c820025ef6d12812c43c10357779f05613be26cd4dd528b068d435b667089e909dea6711531349ad0d96ea7452b60033e75ef48c)  
= a19335e738444f879b26e3ca5f01f3a95524cb25676b91a64fd5a74a55a27cca
```

Now, what's so important about this tree? There are a few interesting properties or applications that we can use. Let's say we want to know that our bitcoin exchange we use is solvent, and doesn't rug us like the FTX exchange. We can create a merkle tree of your bitcoin address and the balance that the exchange shows.

The exchange can then publish the proof which is an arbitrary bytes 32 string like a hash. This does not disclose the full liquidity of the exchange or amount of bitcoin in custody, but the user can verify that this is correct.

We can argue that any random user can repeat the same and thus we can assume some certainty that the value held in your custodial bitcoin address is true.

Poker cryptography

In this next section, we will discuss how cryptography can be used in our Poker application.

Let's say you'd like to play a game of flip coin or scissors paper rock over the phone, or probably via text message these days. The game is pretty simple, each player chooses an outcome prior to performing the action, and the winner is determined once the coin lands or the hands are revealed.

This works in a live environment because both parties are witness the event in real time, and should agree or form consensus on the winner. If one of the parties can not witness the event in real time, it would be fairly easy to cheat. So how can we play this game fairly using cryptography?

We can do this by using a one way function, such as the SHA256 function we discussed previous sections. Alice pick either heads or tails called x . We add an arbitrary random number to the value.

$$f(x + r) = y$$

Alice can then send the result as a message to Bob. Bob has no way to know the value Alice chose but has a copy

Mental poker...

Signing

Signing is mathematical function that we use to verify that a message is written by a specific private key, just like putting your physical signature at the end of a letter, but with great certainty. The properties of signing function are similar to the hash function we just learned about. Signing uses a hash function to make sure the length of the message is a constant.

The curve may refer to this as

In our application, signing will be important as well as encryption for obfuscating data in the form of playing cards to the chain.

Websites sign the html of the website..

A key pair, is a pair of numbers that relate to one another. A private key is a secret that only the user should know. Depending on the algorithm, will determine the size of the number. Its often written as a hexadecimal number, base 16 or a base 64 number. The reason for this to make the ..

eg

It is important to note, that message sent over the wire, will be encoded in an array of bytes. What curve should we choose and what encryption algorithm should our project use? One of the layers of the application will include a staking mechanism, where by master nodes deposit a significant amount of tokens in to an Ethereum contract, as a bond that they behavior fairly.

Encryption

It may come as a bit of a surprise to some readers beginning their blockchain journey, that blockchains use little to no encryption. Some will say encrypted data when they mean hash data.

Lets take a look at two types of encryption then explore some algorithms. Asymmetric and symmetric.

Symetric

Symmetric encryption is a type of encryption where the same key is used for both encryption and decryption of data. This means that both the sender and the recipient must have access to the same secret key to encode and decode the information. They are generally faster algorithms than their asymmetric cousins.

This can be useful for encrypting a file on disk, where the user is the person that locks and unlocks the data, or between parties who have shared a secret key beforehand. This often happens when someone sends an encrypted file by email and they will say "I'll send you the password via Signal" or other end to end encrypted services. Good enough for most everyday communications.

TripleDES and BlowFish are two such symmetric encryption algorithms. TripleDES involves three stages of encryption / decryption which can be described as follows:

1. Encrypt the first key (K1)
2. Decrypt the second key (K2)
3. Encrypt the third key (K3)

Each stage operates on a block of plaintext or intermediate cipher text of size 64 bytes.

Here is two NodeJS examples on using TripleDES to encrypt a file.

- touch tripledес.js
- node tripledес.js

```
const crypto = require("crypto");
// Define the key and IV (Initialization Vector)
const key = Buffer.from("0123456789abcdef01234567", "utf8"); // 24
bytes key for 3DES
const iv = Buffer.from("12345678", "utf8"); // 8 bytes IV for DES

// Function to encrypt plaintext using 3DES
function encrypt(text) {
  const cipher = crypto.createCipheriv("des-ede3-cbc", key, iv);
  let encrypted = cipher.update(text, "utf8", "base64");
  encrypted += cipher.final("base64");
  return encrypted;
}
```

```
// Function to decrypt ciphertext using 3DES
function decrypt(encryptedText) {
  const decipher = crypto.createDecipheriv("des-ede3-cbc", key, iv);
  let decrypted = decipher.update(encryptedText, "base64", "utf8");
  decrypted += decipher.final("utf8");
  return decrypted;
}

// Test the encryption and decryption
const plaintext = "Hello, this is a plaintext message!";
console.log("Plaintext:", plaintext);

const encryptedText = encrypt(plaintext);
console.log("Encrypted:", encryptedText);

const decryptedText = decrypt(encryptedText);
console.log("Decrypted:", decryptedText);
```

We can see on line 2 we set the key to a 24 byte array, as that is the key size required for TripleDES. As the functions are deterministic, you should see the outputs as:

```
Plaintext: Hello, this is a plaintext message!
Encrypted: HYtEf/sQLP/Sybp7b+YqI5zQajIKC0oAbN1iWVUykQ1EwbAGZHI8A==
Decrypted: Hello, this is a plaintext message!
```

Let's do the same code snippet using Python, so we're sure the code is language agnostic. After setting up the python virtual environment;

- touch tripledес.py
- pip install pycryptodome
- python tripledес.py

```
Plaintext: Hello, this is a plaintext message!
Encrypted: HYtEf/sQLP/Sybp7b+YqI5zQajIKC0oAbN1iWVUykQ1EwbAGZHI8A==
Decrypted: Hello, this is a plaintext message!
```

We can now be sure if we send the encrypted text HYtEf/sQLP/Sybp7b+YqI5zQajIKC0oAbN1iWVUykQ1EwbAGZHI8A== that we encrypted in NodeJS to our friend who then uses Python to decrypt that they will receive the correct message, and the

authors of the libraries we have used have implemented the algorithm correctly, or both incorrectly which is unlikely.

Asymmetric

In our GPG example in Chapter 1, we encrypted a message to myself using my PGP public key. This is an example of Asymmetric Encryption!

The advantage of using an Asymmetric schema, is that the parties like yourself and myself, never have to meet to send a secure communication. It is considered safe that I can publish my public key to the world + dog.

Replay attacks

To bridge between the ethereum main net contract and our layer 2, we will use signed messages.

In our deposit contract later on we will use a nonce to prevent a replay attack, but first of all let's discuss what that is. As the name suggests, an attacker can try to send the same request or payload and create subsequent requests.

Send a request to bob to transfer \$100

Send the same signed request to alice for the same \$100

Essentially, this is an example of a double spend. An attacker has been able to perform the same action twice. We can solve this by using a nonce. A use once number.

Let's look at a bit of javascript and solidity code to defend against this.

[TODO]

Base64, Hex and other encodings

Other alphabets too, like base 58 for bitcoin.

Zero Knowledge Proof

Now let's discuss zero knowledge proofs. This is the definition from Wikipedia: "In cryptography, a zero-knowledge proof (also known as a ZK proof or ZKP) is a protocol in which one party (the prover) can convince another party (the verifier) that some given statement is true, without conveying to the verifier any information beyond the mere fact of that statement's truth". I like the word convince here, rather than "prove".

There are a few analogies that I like when explaining what Zero Knowledge proofs are.

Imagine you have two balls that appear identical to your colorblind friend - but you can see one is red and one is green. You want to prove to them that the balls are actually different, without revealing anything about how they're different (since you can't explain color to someone who's never seen it).

Here's the proof: Your friend holds both balls behind their back, randomly switches them around (or doesn't), then brings them forward. You tell them whether they switched or not. You repeat this 20 times, and you're correct every single time.

After enough rounds, your friend becomes convinced the balls must be different (the odds of you guessing right 20 times by chance are 1 in a million).

Python code:

```
def probability_of_random_success(n_trials):
    """
    Calculate the probability of randomly guessing correctly n times in
    a row
    when each guess has a 50/50 chance (switched or not switched).

    Args:
    n_trials: Number of consecutive correct guesses

    Returns:
    Dictionary with probability as fraction and decimal, plus "1 in X"
    format
    """
    # Probability of one correct guess is 1/2
    # Probability of n correct guesses is (1/2)^n
    probability = (1/2) ** n_trials
```

```

# Express as "1 in X"
one_in_x = 1 / probability

return {
    'probability': probability,
    'percentage': probability * 100,
    'one_in': one_in_x,
    'formatted': f"1 in {one_in_x:,.0f}"
}

# Test with 20 trials
result = probability_of_random_success(20)
print(f"Probability: {result['probability']}")
print(f"Percentage: {result['percentage']:.6f}%")
print(f"Odds: {result['formatted']}")

```

The outputs are:

```

Probability: 9.5367431640625 * 10 ^ 7
Percentage: 0.000095%
Odds: 1 in 1,048,576

```

Yet they still have zero knowledge about the actual difference - they never learned what "red" and "green" are, or anything about color. They just know the balls are distinguishable to you.

For a less abstract use case, the age verification "problem"

Lets say you want to enter your favourite bar, and the door man (bouncer) needs to check your ID for your age. Your age is actually a function of your birth day. However, by revealing your birthday you're actually giving away more metadata than you may be comfortable

The question is "are you above this age", not what is your birthday.

Now we have a basic understanding of what they are, perhaps you can already guess in how they apply to a card game? Having a shuffle deck that we can prove is shuffled, but not know what the deck state is, is an interesting part of the system and something we can solve with ZK.

Lets write out first Zero Knowledge proof, but first some terminology

The Proover:

Verifier:

Gadget:

Circuit:

Lets try write that proof as a circuit. Theres a language or framework that I use called Circom. Our protocol must do the following:

1. Create the outcome or choices at time t .
- 2.
- 3.

In the section on hashing, we discussed an protocol for playing a coinflip game over the phone. We can also implement this as zero knowledge proof, and the extend that idea to a zero knowledge deck of cards.

As our book is heavily card focused, we will use the Fisher Yates algorithm for shuffling the deck. While naive approaches like repeated random swaps or sorting by random keys can introduce bias or be computationally expensive, the **Fisher-Yates (Knuth) shuffle** stands out as the gold standard for creating uniformly random permutations. Invented by Ronald Fisher and Frank Yates in 1938 and later popularized by Donald Knuth, the algorithm works by iterating through the array from the first element to the second-to-last, and at each position i , selecting a random index j from i to $n-1$ and swapping the elements at positions i and j .

This approach guarantees that every possible permutation of n elements has an equal probability of $1/n!$ of being generated, making it perfectly unbiased. With $O(n)$ time complexity and $O(1)$ space complexity (when shuffling in-place), The algorithm is **deterministic** - given the same sequence of random values, it produces the same shuffle - making it ideal for cryptographic verification. This determinism allows players to prove a shuffle was performed correctly without revealing the random values used, enabling trustless, verifiable card games on-chain.

```
pragma circom 2.0.0;
include "circomlib/circuits/comparators.circom";
include "circomlib/circuits/gates.circom";
```

```

// Fisher-Yates Shuffle Verification Circuit
// Proves that outputDeck is a valid permutation of inputDeck
// using Fisher-Yates algorithm with given random values
template FisherYatesShuffle(n) {
// n = number of cards (52 for standard deck)

signal input inputDeck[n]; // Original ordered deck
signal input outputDeck[n]; // Shuffled deck
signal input randomValues[n]; // Random values used for shuffling
(private)

// Intermediate deck states during shuffling
signal deck[n][n];

// Initialize first row with input deck
for (var i = 0; i < n; i++) {
deck[0][i] <== inputDeck[i];
}

// Perform Fisher-Yates shuffle step by step
for (var i = 0; i < n - 1; i++) {
// Calculate swap index: j = i + (randomValues[i] % (n - i))
signal swapIndex[i];
signal range[i];
range[i] <== n - i;

// Modulo operation: randomValues[i] % range[i]
signal quotient[i];
signal remainder[i];
quotient[i] <-- randomValues[i] \ range[i];
remainder[i] <-- randomValues[i] % range[i];

// Verify: randomValues[i] = quotient[i] * range[i] + remainder[i]
randomValues[i] == quotient[i] * range[i] + remainder[i];

// Verify remainder is in valid range [0, range[i])
component ltCheck = LessThan(32);
ltCheck.in[0] <== remainder[i];
ltCheck.in[1] <== range[i];

```

```

ltCheck.out === 1;

// Calculate actual swap index
swapIndex[i] <= i + remainder[i];

// Perform swap between position i and swapIndex[i]
for (var j = 0; j < n; j++) {
  if (j == i) {
    // Position i gets value from swapIndex[i]
    deck[i+1][j] <= deck[i][swapIndex[i]];
  } else if (j == swapIndex[i]) {
    // Position swapIndex[i] gets value from i
    deck[i+1][j] <= deck[i][i];
  } else {
    // Other positions remain unchanged
    deck[i+1][j] <= deck[i][j];
  }
}

// Verify final output matches the shuffled deck
for (var i = 0; i < n; i++) {
  outputDeck[i] === deck[n-1][i];
}

// Verify that output is a valid permutation (all unique values)
component uniqueCheck[n][n];
signal isEqual[n][n];
signal matchCount[n];

for (var i = 0; i < n; i++) {
  var count = 0;
  for (var j = 0; j < n; j++) {
    uniqueCheck[i][j] = IsEqual();
    uniqueCheck[i][j].in[0] <= outputDeck[i];
    uniqueCheck[i][j].in[1] <= inputDeck[j];
    isEqual[i][j] <= uniqueCheck[i][j].out;
    count += isEqual[i][j];
  }
}

```

```

}
// Each output card must appear exactly once in input
matchCount[i] <-- count;
matchCount[i] === 1;
}
}
// Main component for standard 52-card deck
component main {public [inputDeck, outputDeck]} =
FisherYatesShuffle(52);

```

To compile

```
circom deck_shuffle.circom --r1cs --wasm --sym -o build
```

So what have we built here? And what is wasm? Mozilla "WebAssembly is a type of code that can be run in modern web browsers. It is a low-level assembly-like language with a compact binary format that runs with near-native performance and provides languages such as C/C++, C# and Rust with a compilation target so that they can run on the web. It is also designed to run alongside JavaScript, allowing both to work together."

I'll add both the react / vite version and the pure HTML version to the GitHub repo

```

# Clone the project
git clone /book/chapterx
cd zk-poker-shuffle
# Install dependencies
yarn install
# Install circom globally (if not already installed)
yarn install -g circom snarkjs

```

Project structure

```

zk-poker-shuffle/
├── circuits/
│   ├── deck_shuffle.circom # Basic circuit
│   └── optimized_deck_shuffle.circom # Optimized version
│
├── public/
│   ├── circuits/
│   │   └── deck_shuffle_js/

```

```

| | | └─ deck_shuffle.wasm # ← Used in browser
| | └─ deck_shuffle.zkey # Proving key
| └─ verification_key.json # Verification key
└─ demo.html # Browser demo

└─ src/
  └─ zkProof/
    └─ browserProofGenerator.ts # Browser proof generation
    └─ zkDeckShuffler.ts # Shuffle implementation
    └─ zkShuffleHelpers.ts # Advanced features
  └─ components/
    └─ PokerGame.tsx # React component

└─ scripts/
  └─ test-proof.js # Test script

└─ contracts/
  └─ DeckShuffleVerifier.sol # Solidity verifier

└─ package.json

```

Here is simple HTML, followed by React

```

<script type="module">
import * as snarkjs from 'https://cdn.jsdelivr.net/npm/snarkjs@latest/build/snarkjs.min.js';

const { proof, publicSignals } = await snarkjs.groth16.fullProve(
input,
'/circuits/deck_shuffle.wasm',
'/circuits/deck_shuffle.zkey'
);
</script>

```

Section Notes

Outline Notes

About

Description

A description of who this book is for and what its about.

The idea

Description

What is your original contribution? Why should the examiner care about your research? What is the thesis problem statement? What do you (not) hope to achieve? What are the research questions and hypotheses? What are your epistemological and ontological positions? What is your contribution to the field? How is the thesis laid out?

Architecture

Description

Lets define the layers of our stack, discuss what languages and frameworks that are required.

Crypto cryptography

Description

This chapter we discuss some of the fundamentals behind blockchains and crypto currencies, and some of the maths behind them.

Domain specific language

Description

This will be our attempt at writing our own purpose built language, fit for the job.

Language design is an interesting topic itself. We will discuss lexers, parsers, ASTs and more.

Blockchain email. The anti pattern

Description

In this chapter, we will look at blockchain anti patterns. Some concrete applications as use cases where we don't need a chain or token.

Ethereum smart contracts

Description

This book would not do its readers justice without talking about the granddaddy of smart contracts.

Consensus mechanisms

Description

How does a distributed network stay in sync? What are the ways we can achieve network consensus?

Notes

Carnot

Our blockchain

Description

The Poker Virtual Machine

Description

Our solution involves a purpose built game engine, which we call the poker vm.

Writing a compiler

Description

Coming from a microsoft stack background in the late 90s and early 2000s, MS build was closed source. I didn't really understand how compilers worked, or even considered that there could be different versions of them or even bugs in them. I just hit f5 and out popped an exe.

The desktop client

Description

In this chapter, we will discuss how to build a desktop application, and why we need one rather than a web app.

Packaging and releasing

Description

Now we have finally built the thing, we have to distribute the app to the world. Let's explore some ways we can do this.

Working remotely, distributed teams and governance

Description

Crypto apps are synonymous with working in remote, distributed teams. Due to the complexities and lack of legal guidelines, teams often choose to run anon with shell companies in jurisdictions like Panama and the British Virgin Islands. I'll explore some of the challenges around this and is code truly the law?

References

Description

All references cited in the text must appear in the reference list. Do your references follow your university's house style? Are all references contained in the text listed in the bibliography, and vice versa.

Chapters Notes

About?

Description

Bit of an overview, we discussed some of this stuff before.

Randomness

Description

The Avalanche Effect

Description

Hash functions

Description

Private and public keys

Description

Need to do some research here on different methods.

Merkle Trees

Description

In cryptography and computer science, a hash tree or Merkle tree is a tree in which every "leaf" node is labelled with the cryptographic hash of a data block, and every node that is not a leaf (called a branch, inner node, or inode) is labelled with the cryptographic hash of the labels of its child nodes. A hash tree allows efficient and secure verification of the contents of a large data structure. A hash tree is a generalization of a hash list and a hash chain.

Demonstrating that a leaf node is a part of a given binary hash tree requires computing a number of hashes proportional to the logarithm of the number of leaf nodes in the tree.[1] Conversely, in a hash list, the number is proportional to the number of leaf nodes itself. A Merkle tree is therefore an efficient example of a cryptographic commitment scheme, in which the root of the tree is seen as a commitment and leaf nodes may be revealed and proven to be part of the original commitment.[2]

The concept of a hash tree is named after Ralph Merkle, who patented it in 1979.

Notes

<https://ethereum.stackexchange.com/questions/149500/how-to-implement-poseidon-hash-function-into-a-smart-contract?rq=1>

Poker cryptography

Description

El gamma Others

Signing

Description

Encryption

Description

Symetric

Description

Asymetric

Description

Replay attacks

Description

Base64, Hex and other encodings

Description

Zero Knowledge Proof

Description
