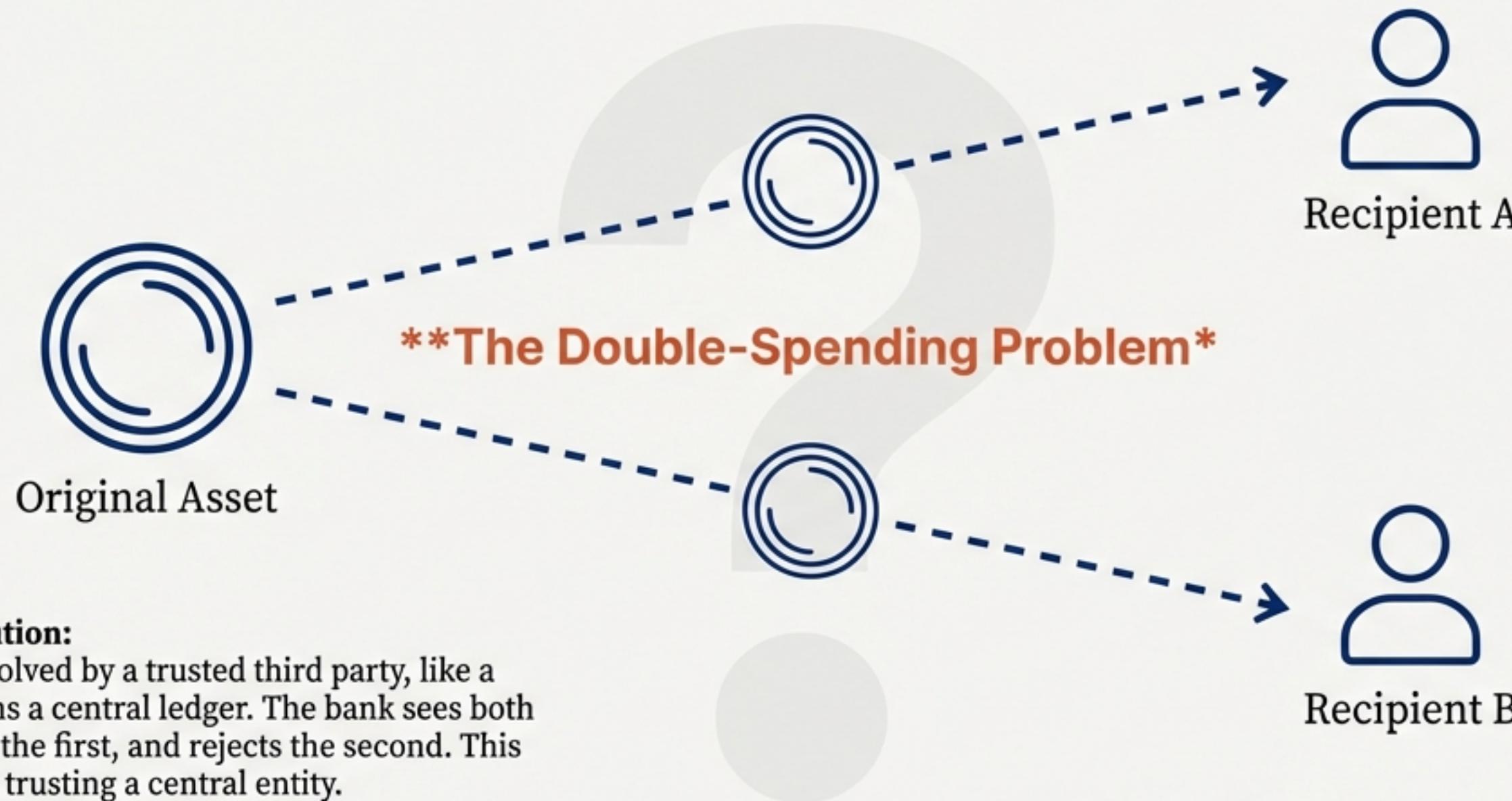


In the digital world, how do you prove something wasn't copied?



The Centralized Solution:

Traditionally, this is solved by a trusted third party, like a bank, which maintains a central ledger. The bank sees both transactions, accepts the first, and rejects the second. This works, but it requires trusting a central entity.

The Decentralized Dilemma:

How can a network of strangers, with no central authority, collectively agree on which transaction is valid and prevent this type of fraud?

The Blockchain Thesis:

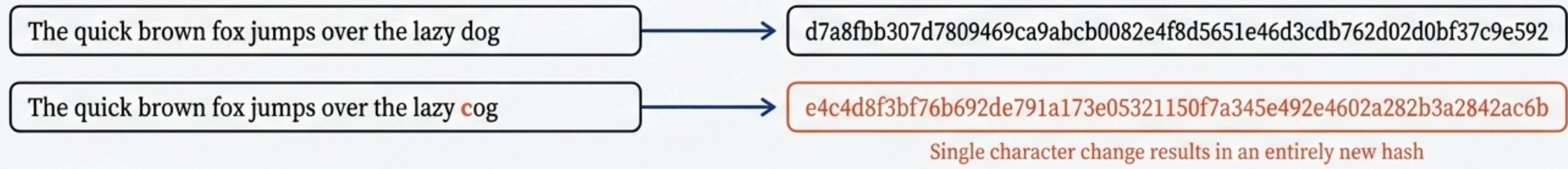
Blockchain replaces institutional trust with a system of verifiable mathematics, decentralized architecture, and economic incentives. This presentation deconstructs how that system is built.

The First Building Block: Creating Tamper-Evident Digital Fingerprints

At the heart of blockchain security is the **cryptographic hash function**, a mathematical process that takes any input and produces a unique, fixed-length output called a hash. Bitcoin and many other networks use **SHA-256**,



The Avalanche Effect: Small Change, Big Impact



Key Properties

Deterministic
The same input will always produce the same output.

Irreversible (Pre-image Resistance)
It is computationally impossible to reverse the function to get the original input from the hash.

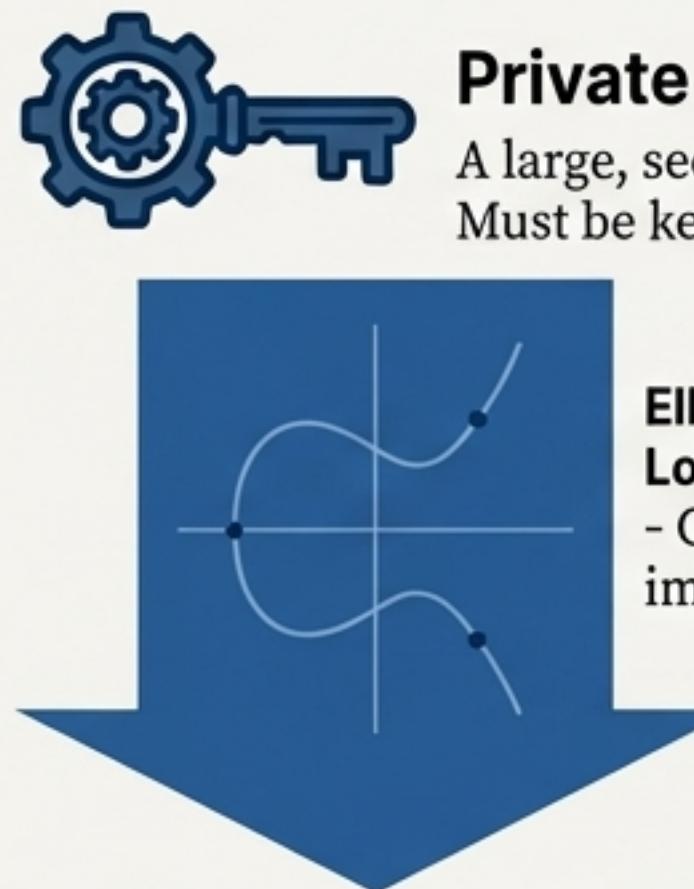
Collision Resistant
It is practically impossible for two different inputs to produce the same hash.

The Avalanche Effect
A tiny change to the input—even a single character—results in a drastically different hash output. This makes any tampering immediately obvious.

Proving Ownership Without Revealing Secrets: The Role of Digital Signatures

Ownership and control of assets are managed through **Public-Key Cryptography**, specifically the **Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)**.

Key Generation



Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP)
- Computationally impossible to reverse.

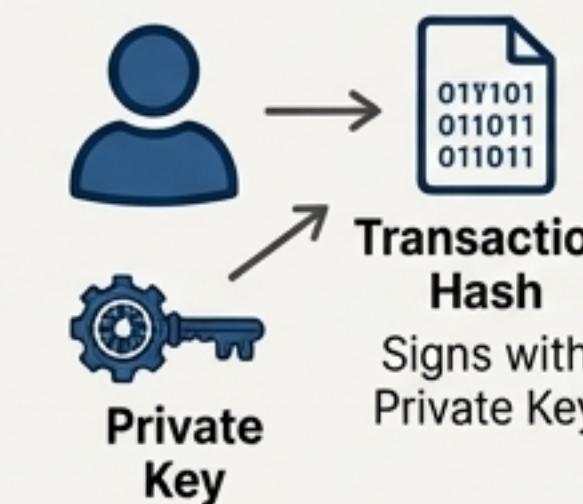


Public Key

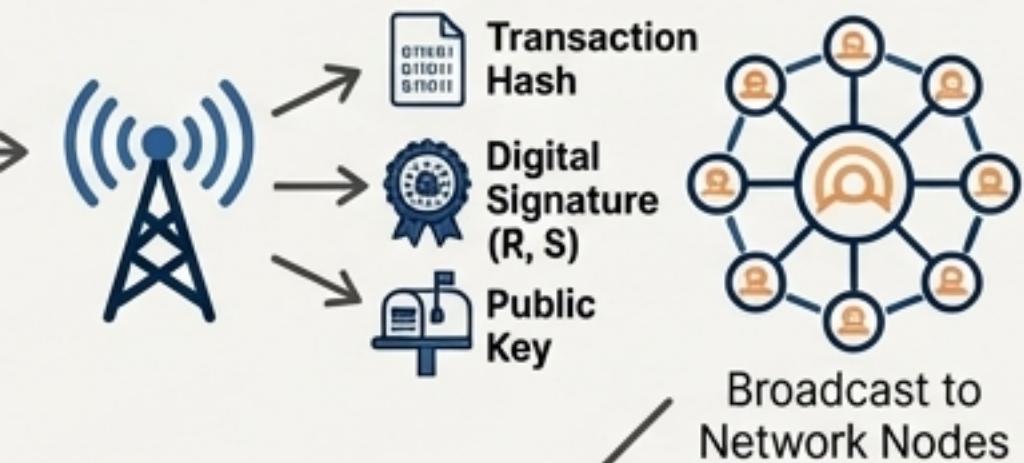
Mathematically derived from the private key. Shared publicly, like an address for receiving funds.

How a Signature Works

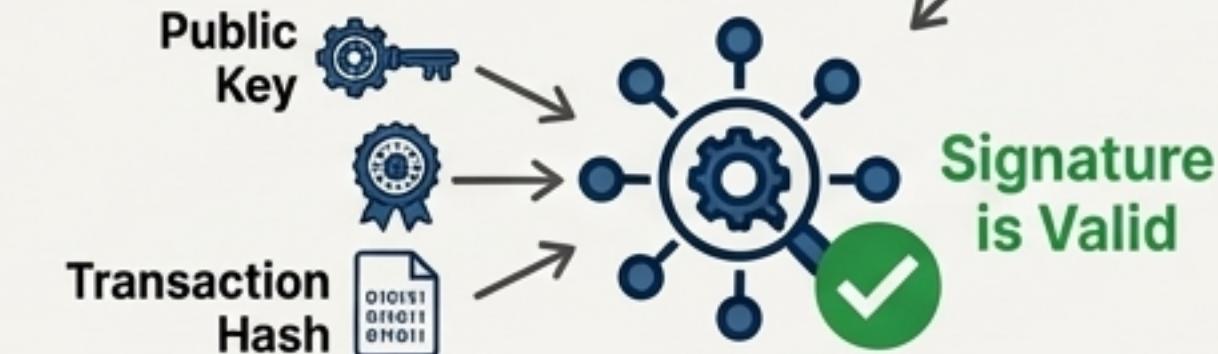
1. SIGN



2. BROADCAST



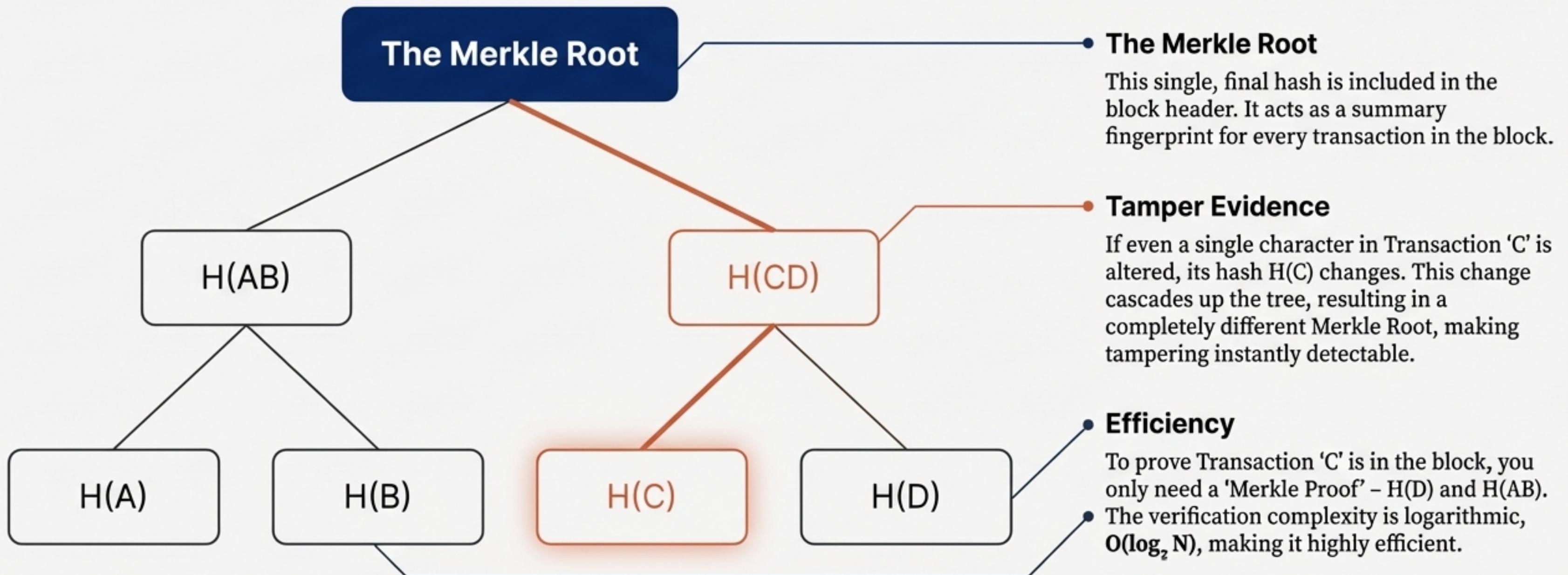
3. VERIFY



The Result: The signature proves the owner of the private key authorized the transaction, without ever revealing the private key itself.

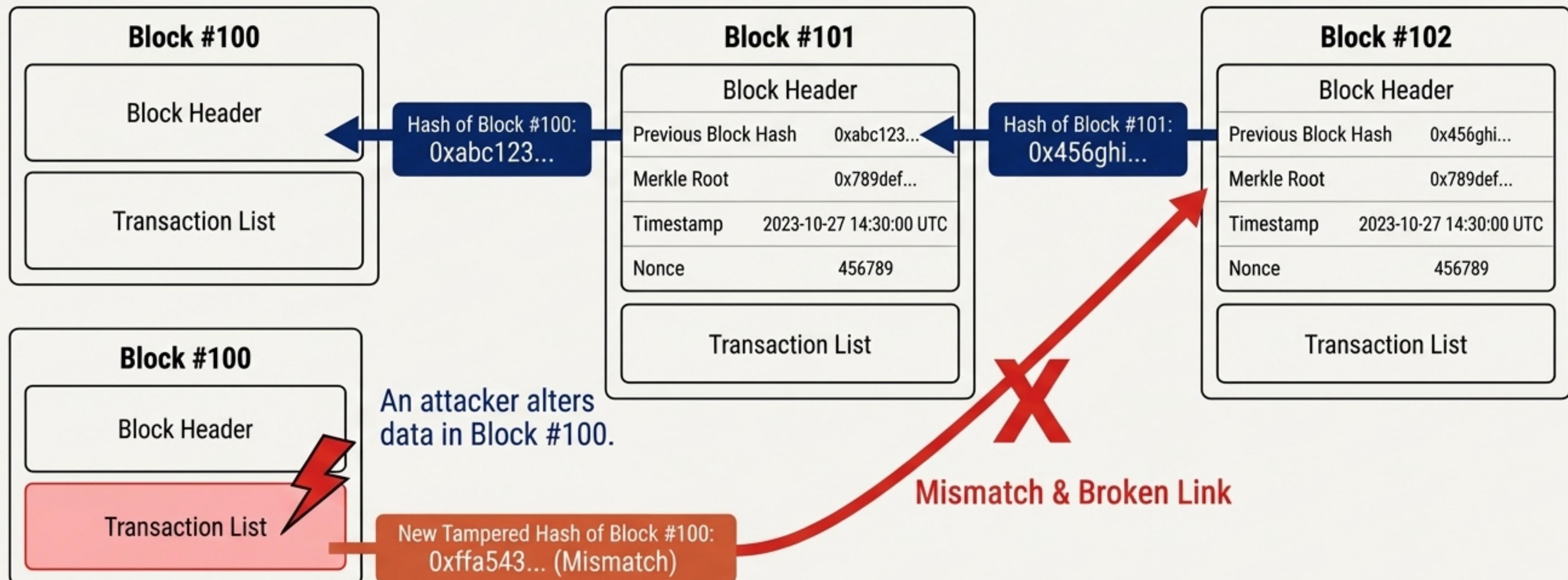
Organizing Transactions for Ultimate Integrity: The Merkle Tree

A **Merkle Tree** (or hash tree) is a data structure used to efficiently and securely verify the contents of a large dataset. It cryptographically summarizes all transactions within a block into a single hash.



Forging the Chain: How Blocks Create an Immutable Ledger

A blockchain is a continuously growing, chronologically ordered list of records called blocks, linked together using cryptography. This structure creates an **append-only ledger** where data can be added but not altered or erased.



Changing data in a past block changes its hash. This invalidates the 'Previous Block Hash' in the next block, breaking the chain. To make the change stick, an attacker would have to recalculate the hash for Block #100 and *every single block that follows it*, which is computationally prohibitive. This is the foundation of **immutability**.

The Rules of the Fortress: Achieving Agreement Without a Ruler

The Problem Revisited

With a distributed ledger copied across thousands of nodes, how does the network agree on which new block of transactions is the valid one? How do we definitively solve the double-spending problem?

The Solution

The solution is a **Consensus Mechanism** (Inter, bold): a set of rules that allows a decentralized network to agree on a single version of history. It ensures all nodes stay in sync and trust the shared ledger without needing a central authority.



Validate Transactions

Ensures only legitimate transactions are included.

- 1 —
- 2 —
- 3 —

Order Transactions

Puts transactions into a chronological, canonical sequence.



Incentivize Honesty

Rewards participants for following the rules and makes attacks economically irrational.

We will now explore the two most prominent consensus mechanisms: **Proof-of-Work (PoW)** and **Proof-of-Stake (PoS)**.

Proof-of-Work: Securing the Network with Computational Power

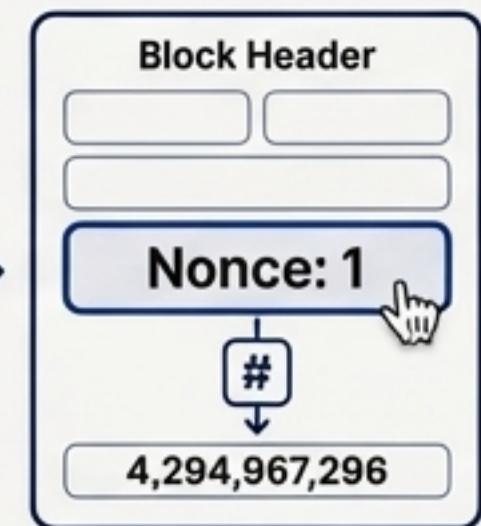
A solution that is **difficult to find** but **easy to verify**.

The Mining Process

1. Competition



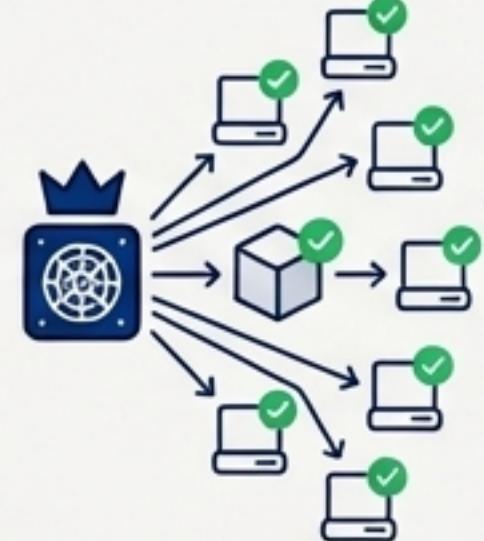
2. The Puzzle



3. The Goal



4. Success



5. The Reward



1. Competition

Participants called "miners" use specialized hardware (ASICs) to compete.

2. The Puzzle

Find a hash that is numerically *less than* the network's current **target hash.** This is a computationally intensive, brute-force process.

The Difficulty Adjustment

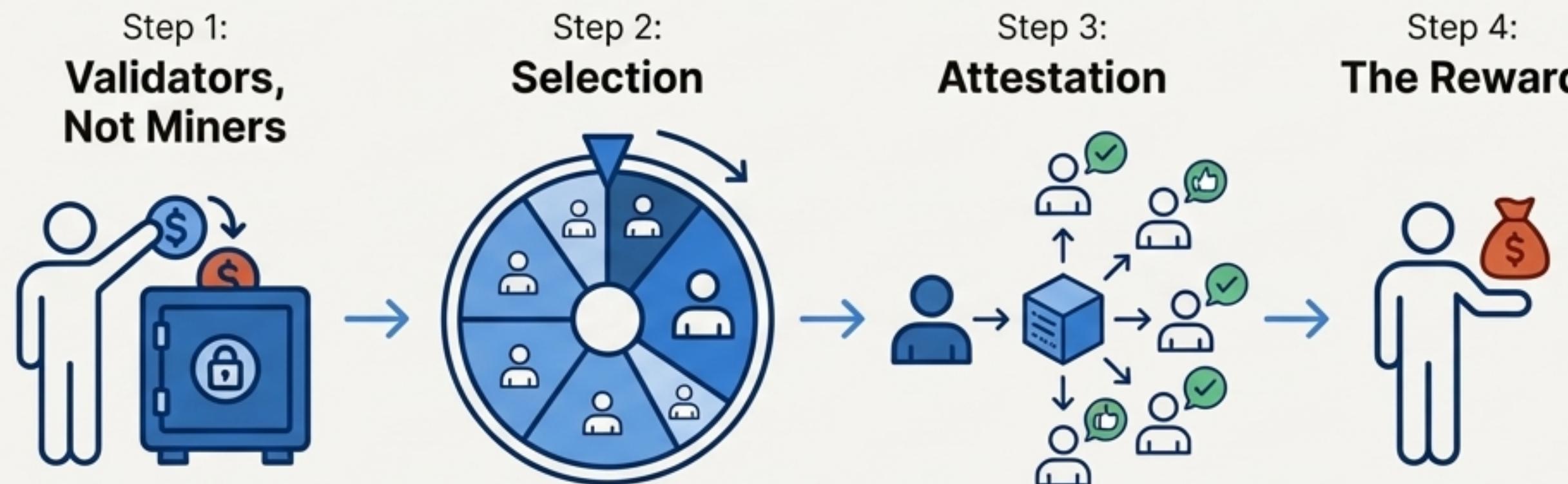


The network automatically adjusts the difficulty of the puzzle every 2,016 blocks (approx. 2 weeks for Bitcoin).

This ensures that, no matter how much computing power joins or leaves the network, a new block is found on average **every 10 minutes**.

Proof-of-Stake: Securing the Network with Economic Collateral

Instead of proving work, participants prove ownership.
Security comes from **having skin in the game**.



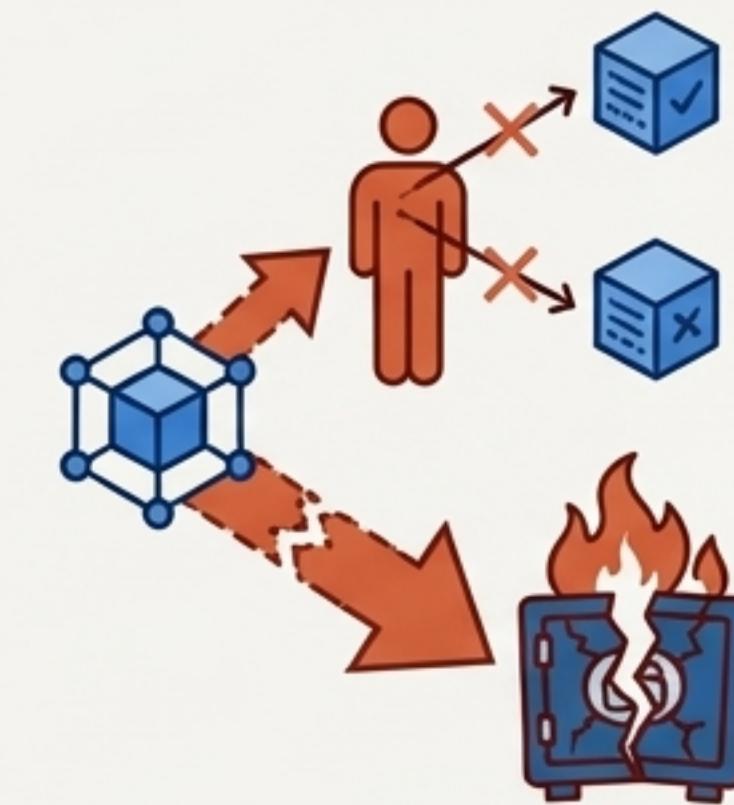
Participants, called "validators," lock up a certain amount of the network's native currency as a "stake".

The protocol randomly selects a validator to propose the next block. The probability of being chosen is often proportional to the size of the stake.

Other validators "attest" that they have seen the block. Once enough attestations are collected, the block is added to the chain.

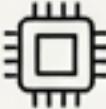
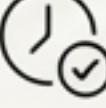
The successful validator receives a small bag of coins representing transaction fees.

The Security Mechanism: Slashing



This is the critical difference. If a validator acts maliciously (e.g., tries to approve fraudulent transactions or goes offline), the protocol can automatically **destroy (slash)** a portion or all of their staked collateral. The threat of losing their capital is the primary disincentive against attacks.

Proof-of-Work vs. Proof-of-Stake: A Head-to-Head Comparison.

Category	Proof-of-Work (PoW)	Proof-of-Stake (PoS)
 Energy Use	Massive energy consumption. Bitcoin's network consumes more energy than many small countries.	Minimal energy usage, estimated to be >99% more efficient than PoW.
 Environmental Impact	High carbon footprint and electronic waste from specialized hardware (ASICs).	Lower emissions, no specialized hardware needed beyond a standard computer.
 Security Model	Cost to Attack: An attacker must control >51% of the network's total computing power (hash rate). Defense is based on the immense real-world cost of energy and hardware.	Cost to Attack: An attacker must control a majority of the total staked currency. Defense is based on the massive capital cost and the risk of being "slashed."
 Hardware	Requires expensive, specialized ASICs. Economies of scale favor large mining operations.	Can run on a standard internet-connected device. Lower barrier to entry for hardware.
 Decentralization	Open to anyone, but high costs lead to centralization in mining pools and regions with cheap electricity. Chip manufacturing is also	Lower technical barrier, allowing more participants. Risks centralization if a few wealthy entities accumulate a majority of the stake.
 Attack Penalty	An attacker expends energy but keeps their hardware. They can attempt another attack.	An attacker's staked capital can be permanently destroyed ("slashed") via a fork, making a follow-up attack impossible with the same capital.
 Finality	Probabilistic. The longest valid chain wins. Transactions require multiple confirmations to be considered final.	Can achieve deterministic finality faster through BFT-based protocols, reducing the risk of rollbacks.

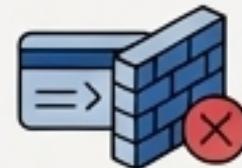
The Anatomy of an Attack (Part 1): The 51% Threat in Proof-of-Work

An attacker who controls more than 50% of the network's total hash power can overpower all other miners.

What an Attacker CAN Do



Reverse recent transactions they themselves made, allowing them to double-spend coins.



Prevent new transactions from gaining confirmations (censorship).



Prevent other miners from finding valid blocks.

What an Attacker CANNOT Do



Change the rules of the protocol (e.g., create new coins out of thin air).



Steal funds from other people's wallets (as they don't have the private keys).

The Primary Defense: Economics and Physics



1. Acquisition Cost

Gaining control of 51% of the hash power of a network like Bitcoin would require an **immense, multi-billion dollar investment** in hardware and facilities.



2. Operational Cost

The attack requires a **continuous, massive expenditure of electricity** to maintain dominance.



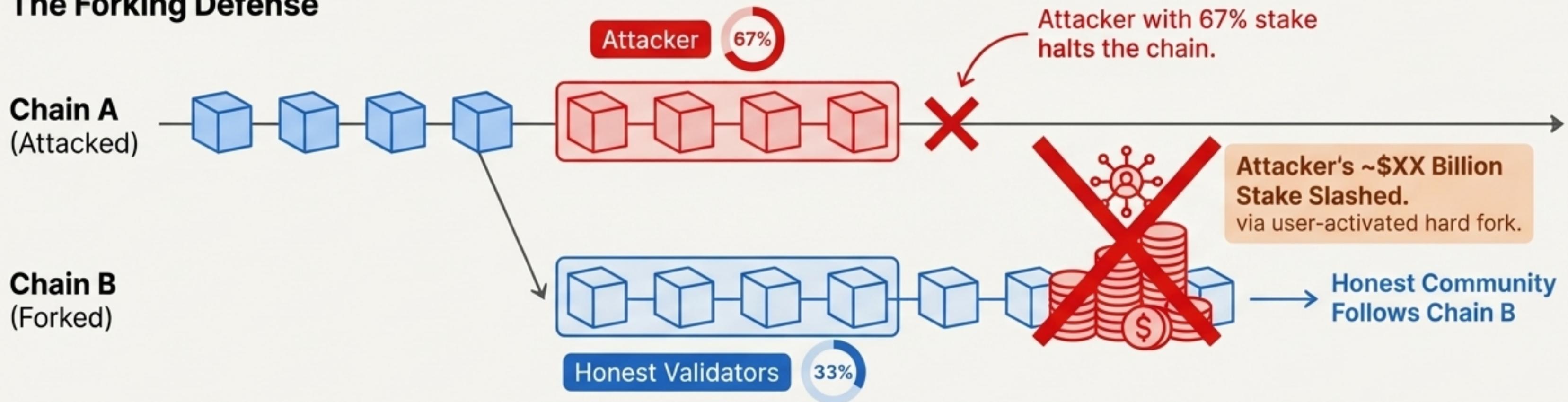
3. Economic Irrationality

A successful attack would likely **crash the value of the very coin** the attacker is mining, destroying the value of their investment and potential rewards.

The Anatomy of an Attack (Part 2): The PoS Counter-Attack and Economic Checkmate

The Threat: An attacker acquires a majority of the total staked cryptocurrency (e.g., 67% on Ethereum for finality attacks). They can now halt the chain or approve their own invalid blocks.

The Forking Defense



The Outcome

- The attacker loses billions in capital instantly and permanently. The attack is a one-shot weapon that destroys itself.
- The honest chain continues, now with a significantly reduced total supply of the coin (as the attacker's coins were burned), potentially increasing the value for honest participants. This makes PoS attacks a fundamentally different and arguably more self-defeating game.

Beyond Work and Stake: The Evolving Landscape of Consensus

The choice is not just between PoW and PoS. The field is constantly experimenting to balance the trade-offs between security, decentralization, and scalability.



Delegated Proof-of-Stake (DPoS)

Token holders vote to elect a small, fixed number of "witnesses" or block producers. This allows for very high throughput and fast transactions but concentrates power. (Used by: EOS, Tron).

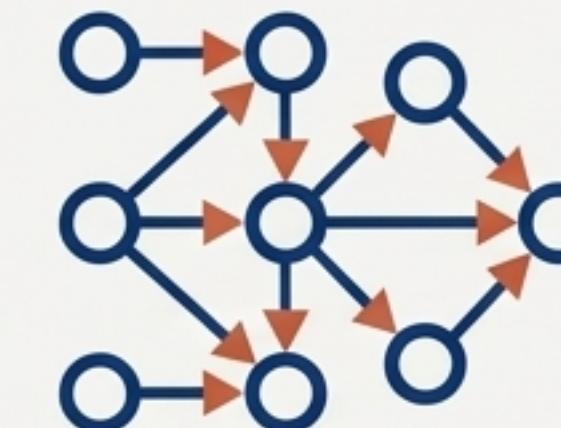


Supermajority Agreement ($>2/3$)



Hybrid PoW/PoS Systems

Combine mining with staking-based governance and block validation to leverage the strengths of both models. (Used by: Decred).



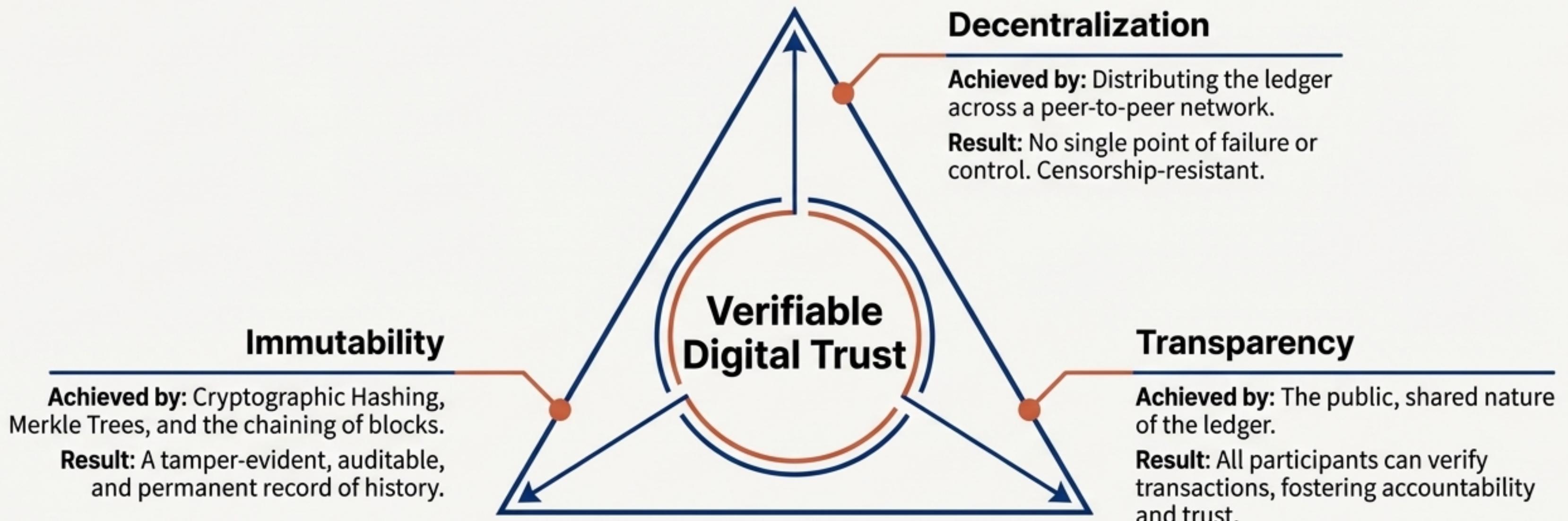
Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs)

Not a linear chain, but a graph structure where transactions can be processed in parallel, offering high throughput and low latency. (Used by: IOTA).

The Fortress of Trust: A Synthesis of Blockchain's Core Principles

Recap: **The Problem:** How to create digital scarcity and trust in a decentralized network.

The Solution: A system built on three interlocking pillars, enabled by the fusion of cryptography and consensus.



The true innovation of blockchain is not just a data structure, but a new model for coordination and agreement, where trust is an emergent property of mathematics and economic incentives.