

CS251 Fall 2025

<https://cs251.stanford.edu>



Cryptocurrencies and Blockchain Technologies

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[course videos on canvas, discussions on edstem, homework on gradescope]

[first project – Merkle trees – is out on the course web site]

What is a blockchain for?

Abstract answer: a blockchain provides
coordination between many parties,
when there is no single trusted party

if trusted party exists \Rightarrow no need for a blockchain

[financial systems: often no trusted party]

Blockchains: what is the new idea?

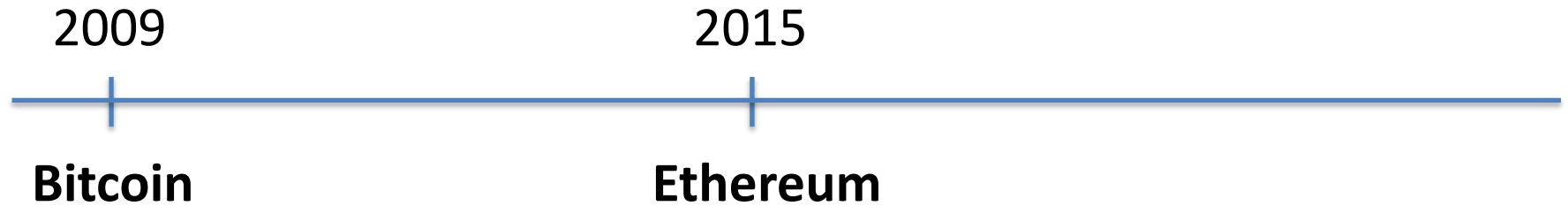
2009

Bitcoin

Several innovations:

- A practical **public append-only data structure**, secured by replication and incentives
- A fixed supply asset (BTC). Digital payments, and more.

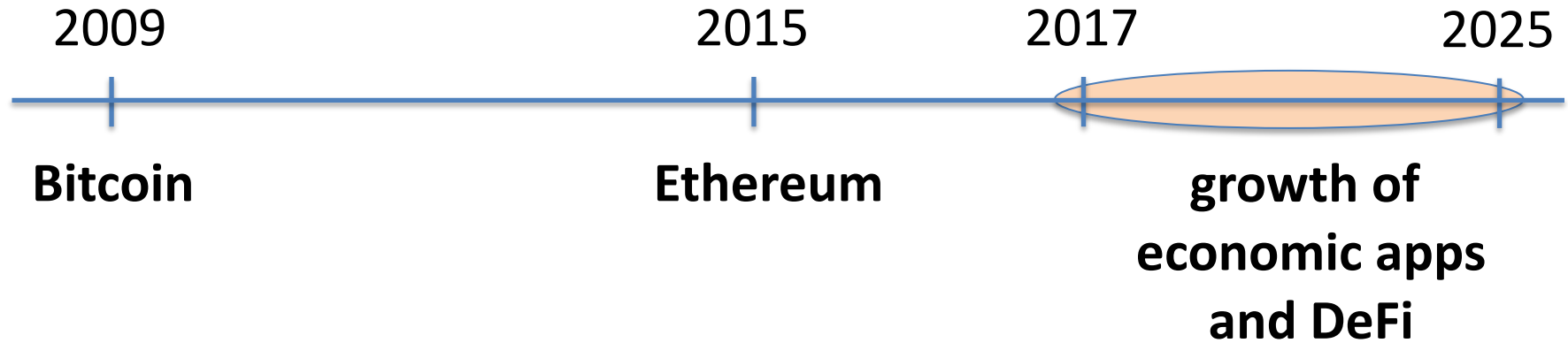
Blockchains: what is the new idea?



Several innovations:

- **Blockchain computer:** a fully programmable environment
⇒ public programs that manage digital and financial assets
- **Composability:** applications running on chain can call each other

Blockchains: what is the new idea?



Permissioned EVM blockchains by Stripe (Tempo) and Circle (Arc)

So what is this good for?

- (1) Basic application: a digital currency (stored value)
- Current largest: Bitcoin (2009), Ethereum (2015), Solana (2020)
 - Global: accessible to anyone with an Internet connection

Opinion

The New York Times

Bitcoin Has Saved My Family

“Borderless money” is more than a buzzword when you live in a collapsing economy and a collapsing dictatorship.

By Carlos Hernández
Mr. Hernández is a Venezuelan economist.

Feb. 23, 2019



What else is it good for?

(2) Decentralized applications (DAPPs)

- **DeFi**: financial instruments managed by public verifiable programs
 - examples: stablecoins, lending, exchanges,
- **Decentralized organizations** (DAOs): (decentralized governance)
 - DAOs for investment, for donations, for collecting art, etc.
- **x402**: AI payments -- agents and crawlers paying for services

(3) New programming model: writing decentralized programs




Assets managed by DAPPs

Aave v3	\$41.8B	lending	multiple chains
LIDO	\$39.5B	staking	Ethereum
WBTC (663 lines of Solidity code)	\$14.7B	bridging	Ethereum
Morpho	\$7.1B	lending	multiple chains
Uniswap v3	\$3B	exchange	multiple chains

Transaction volumes

24h volume

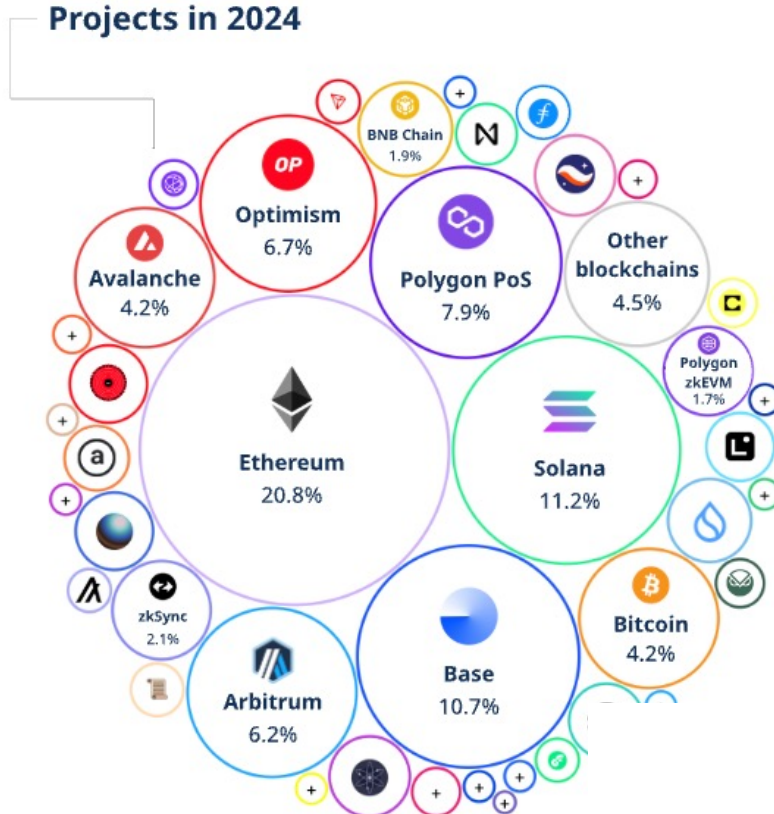
Sep. 2025

	Bitcoin • BTC	\$13.5B
	Ethereum • ETH	\$2.35B
	Solana	\$8.95B

Cost to send USD internationally:

- \$44 via wire transfer
- <\$0.01 via USDC on Base

What chain are builders building on?



source: a16z state of crypto report 2024.

What is a blockchain?

user facing tools (cloud servers)

applications (DAPPs, smart contracts)

Execution engine (blockchain computer)

Sequencer: orders transactions

Data Availability / Consensus Layer

Consensus layer (informal)

A public append-only data structure:

achieved by replication

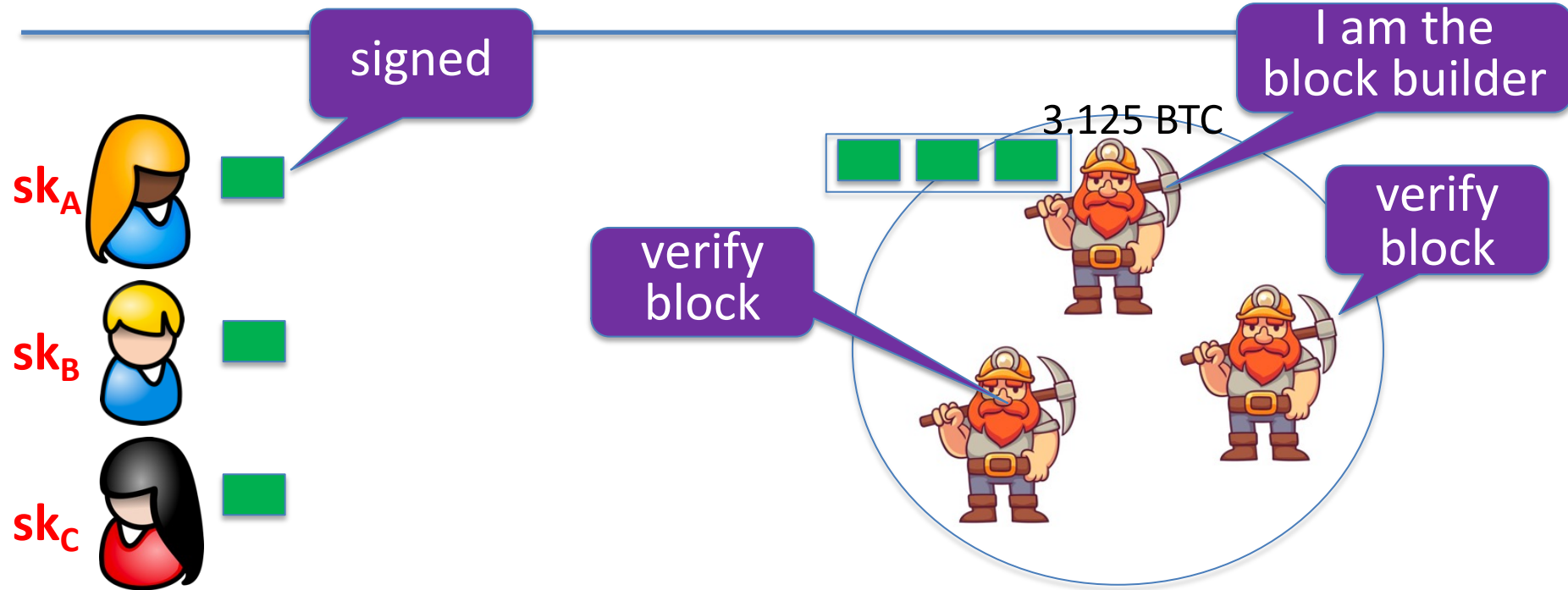


- **Persistence**: once added, data can never be removed*
- **Safety**: all honest participants have the same data**
- **Liveness**: honest participants can add new transactions
- **Permissionless(?)**: anyone can add data (no authentication)

Data Availability / Consensus layer

How are blocks added to chain?

blockchain

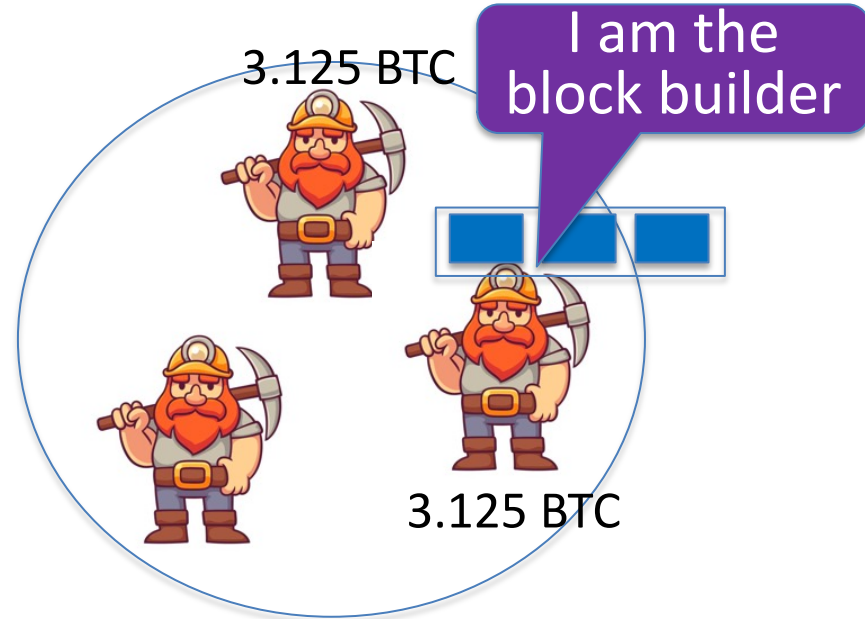
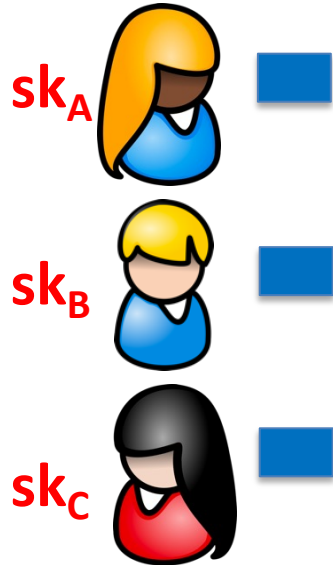


How are blocks added to chain?

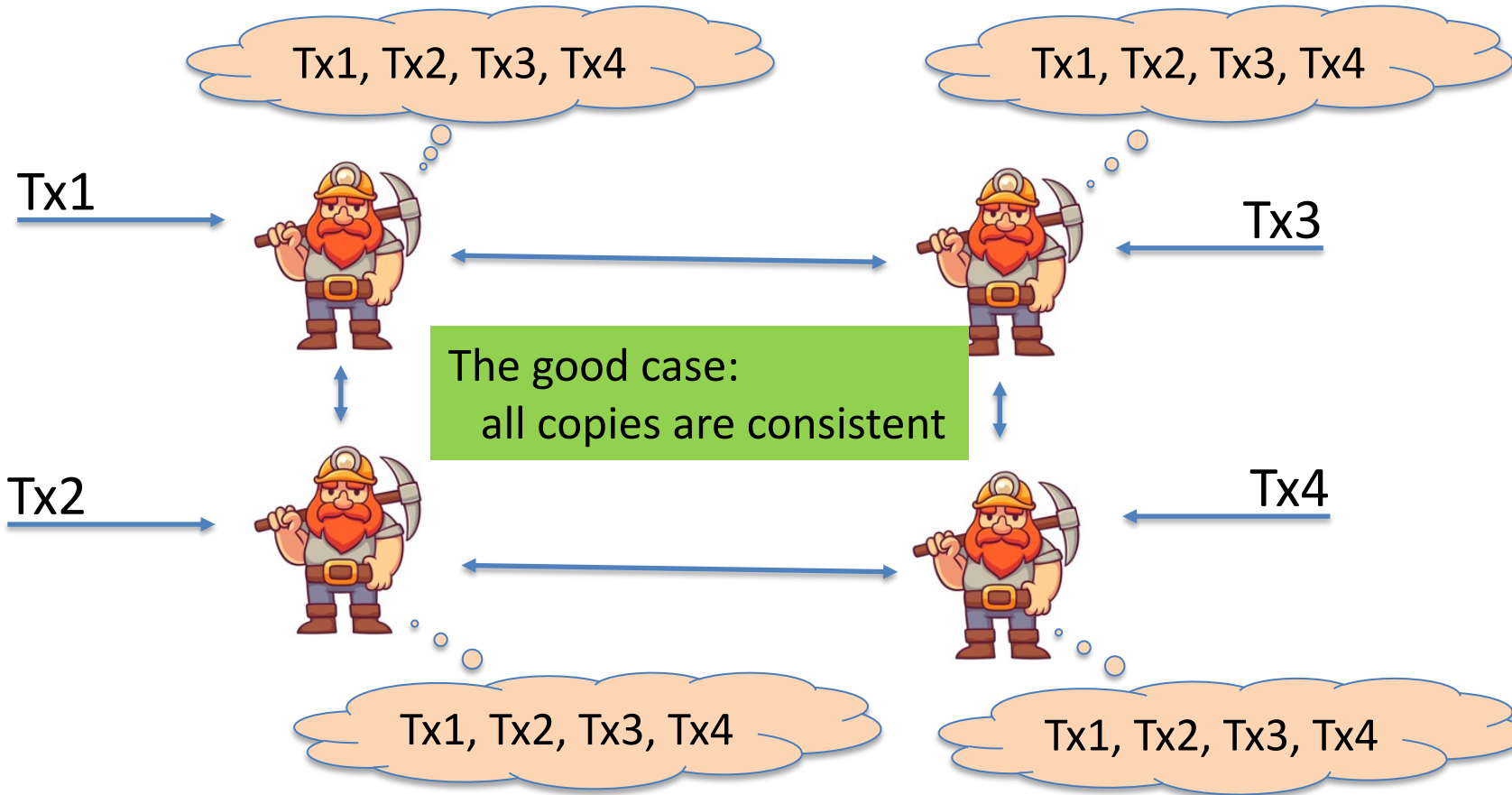
blockchain



...



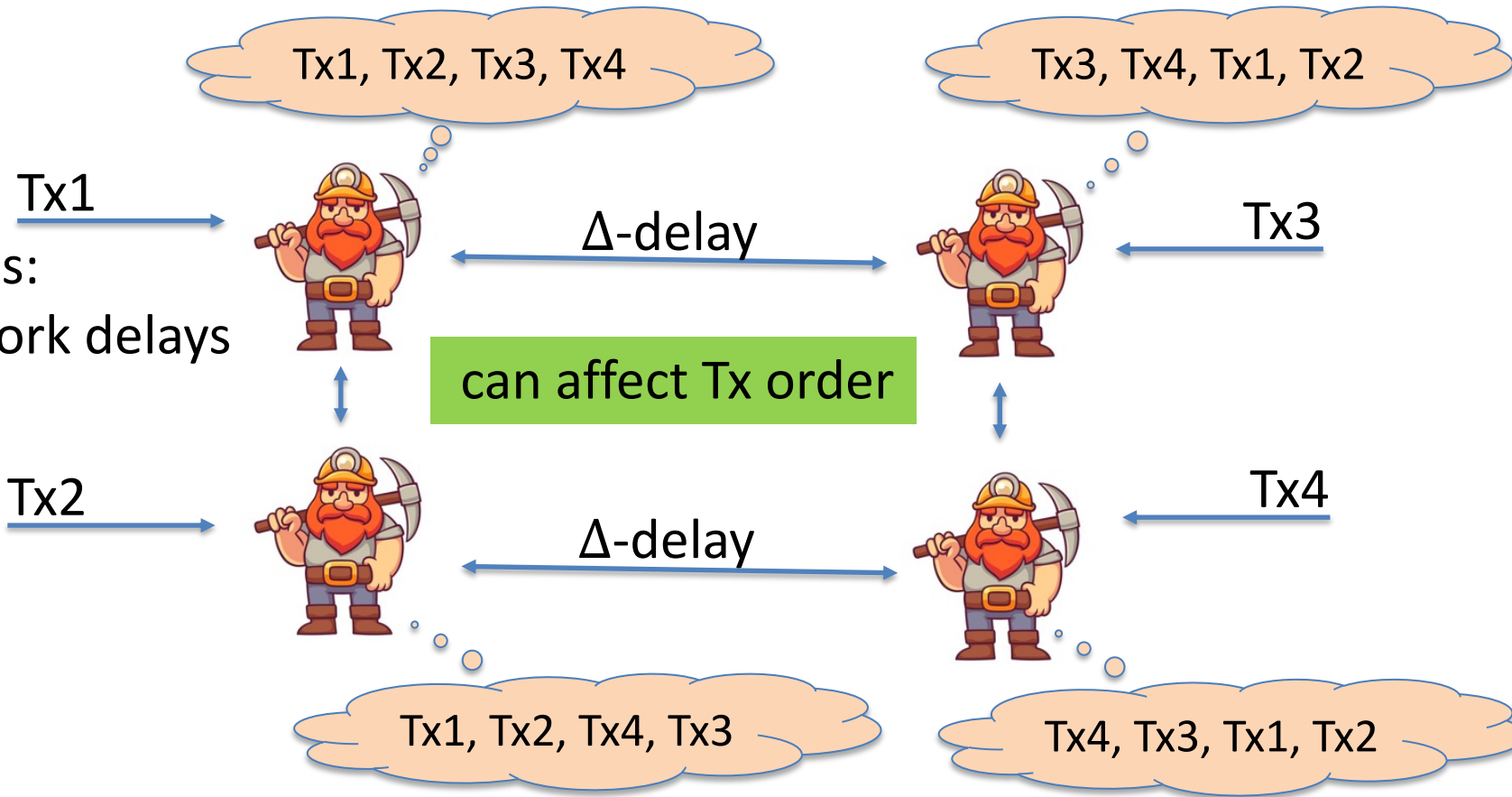
Why is consensus a hard problem?



Why is consensus a hard problem?

Problems:

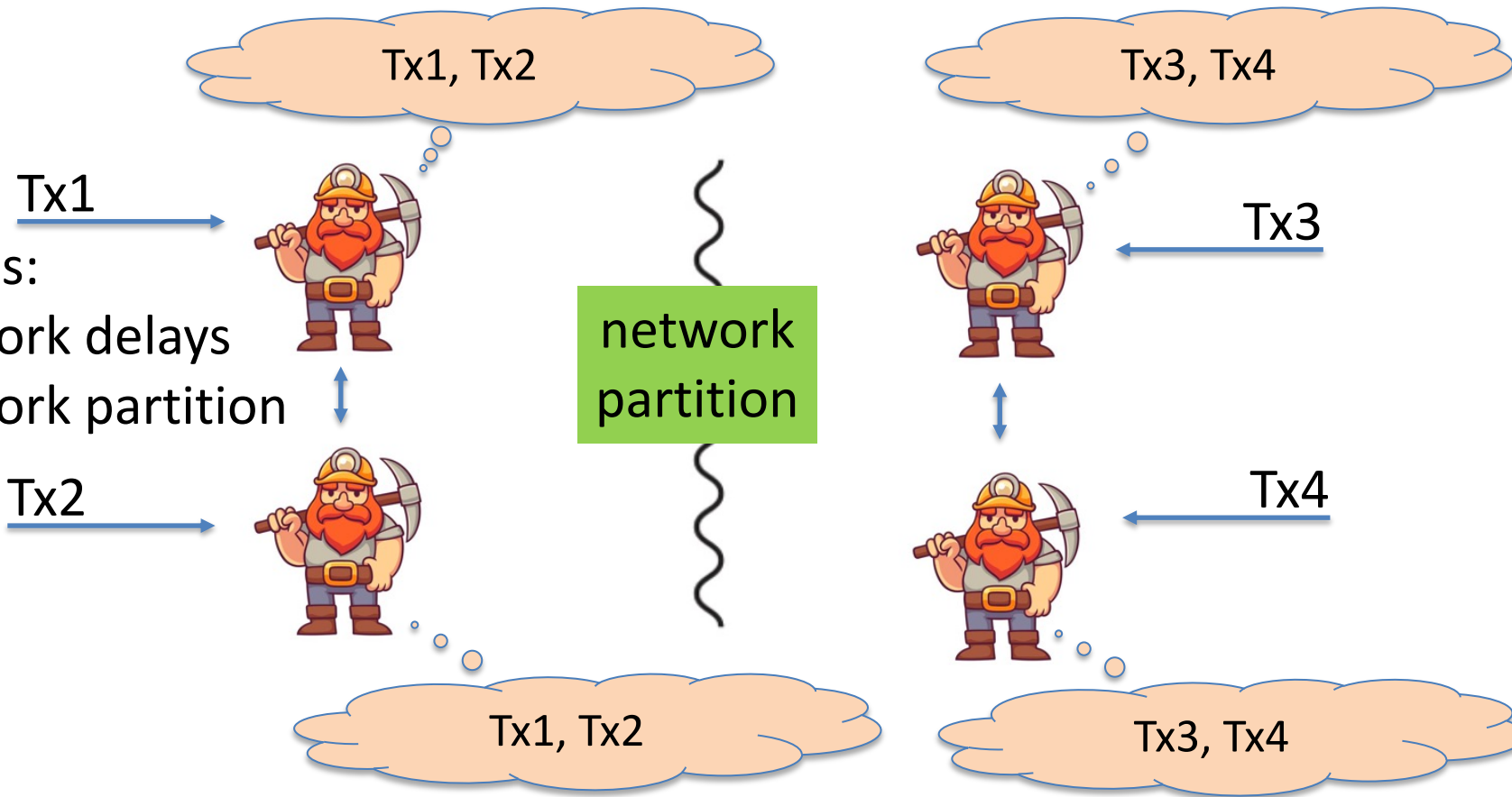
- Network delays



Why is consensus a hard problem?

Problems:

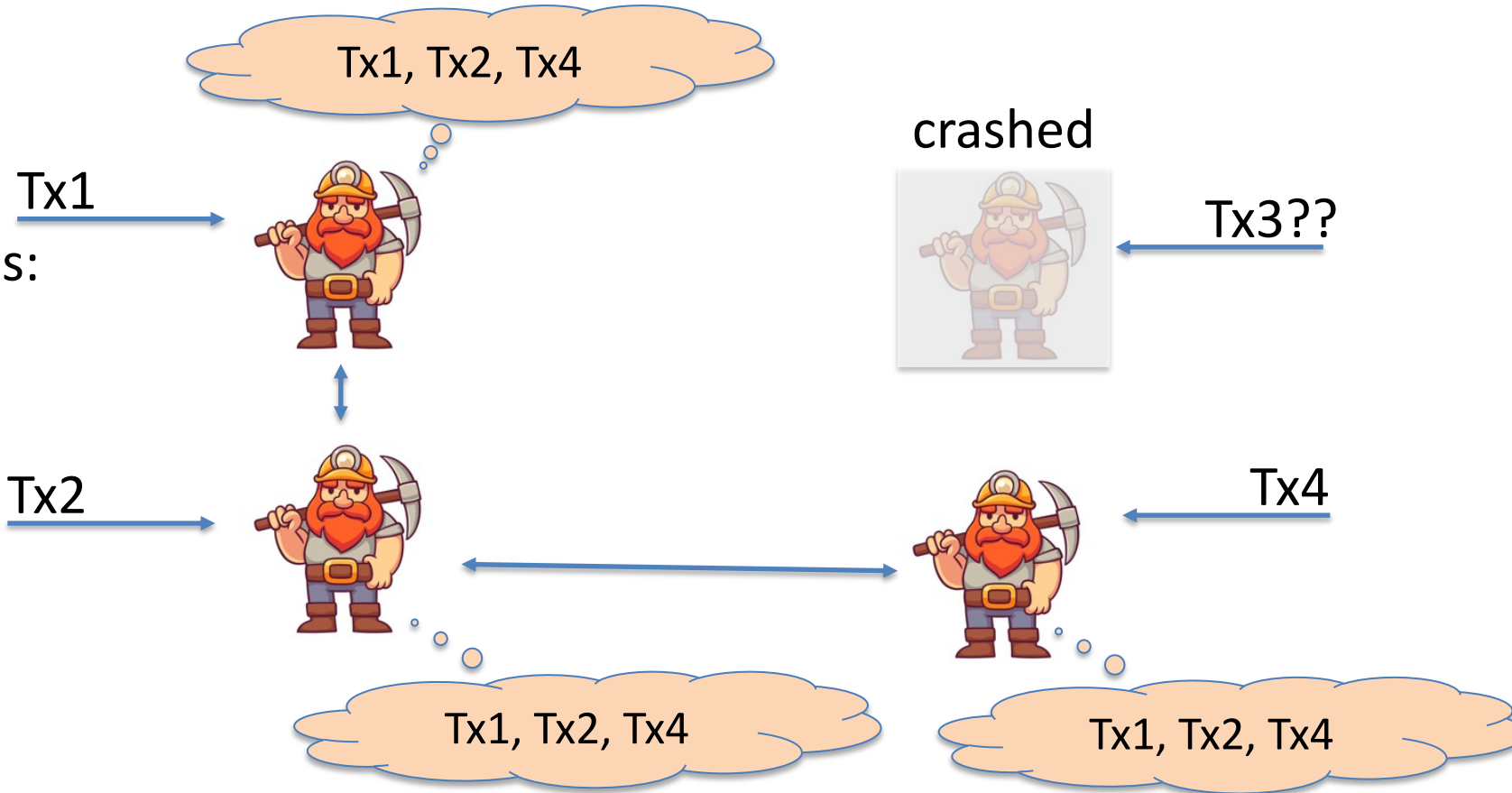
- Network delays
- Network partition



Why is consensus a hard problem?

Problems:

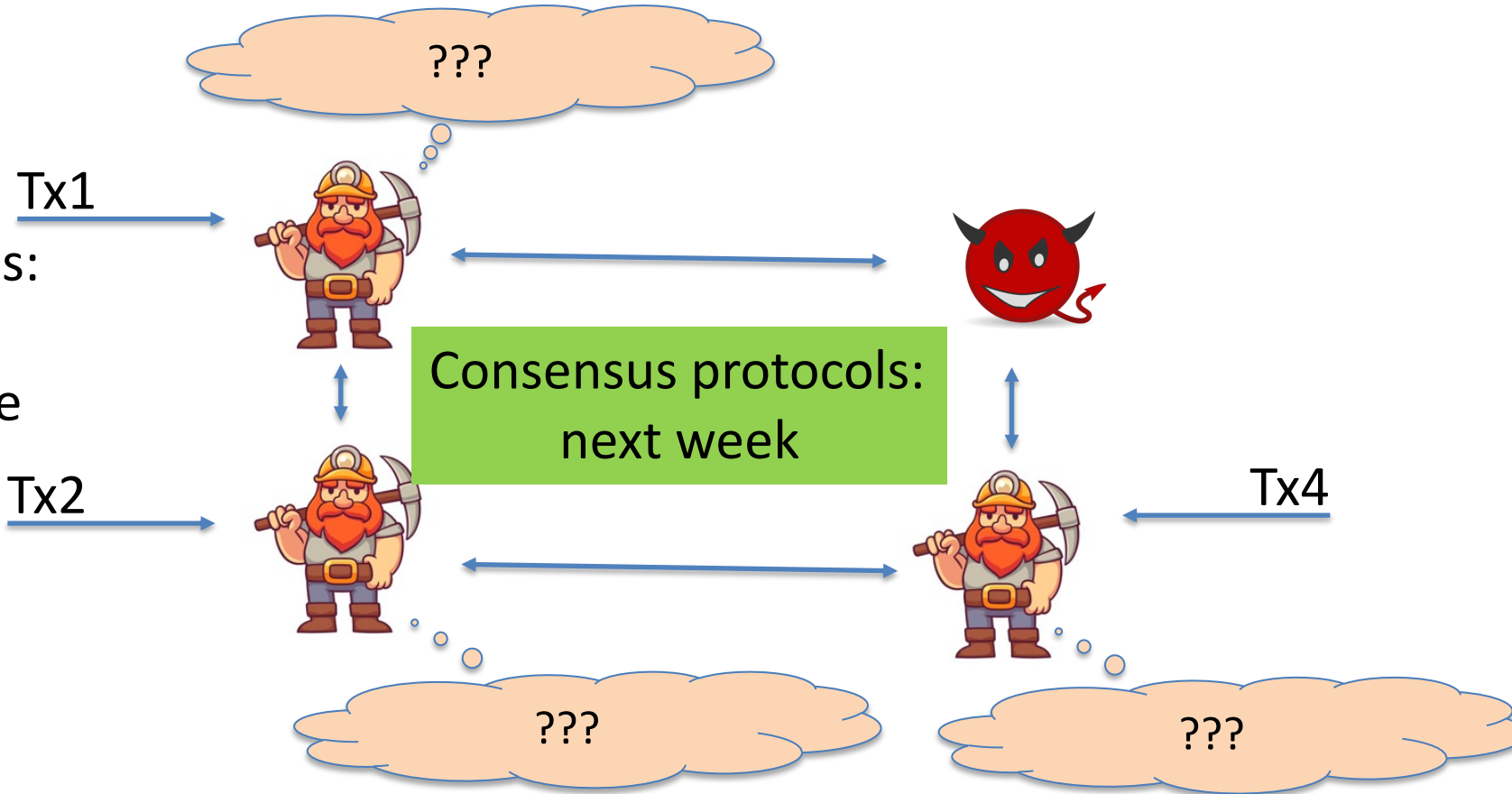
- crash



Why is consensus a hard problem?

Problems:

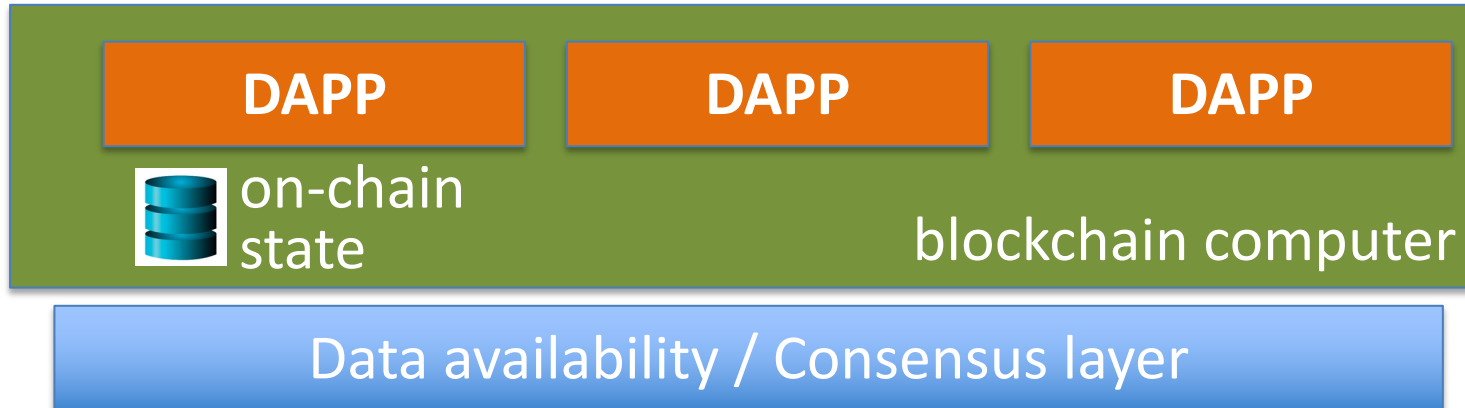
- crash
- malice



Next layer: the blockchain computer

Decentralized applications (DAPPs):

- Run on blockchain: code and state are written on chain
- Accept Tx from users \Rightarrow state transitions are recorded on chain



Next layer: the blockchain computer

Top layer: user facing servers

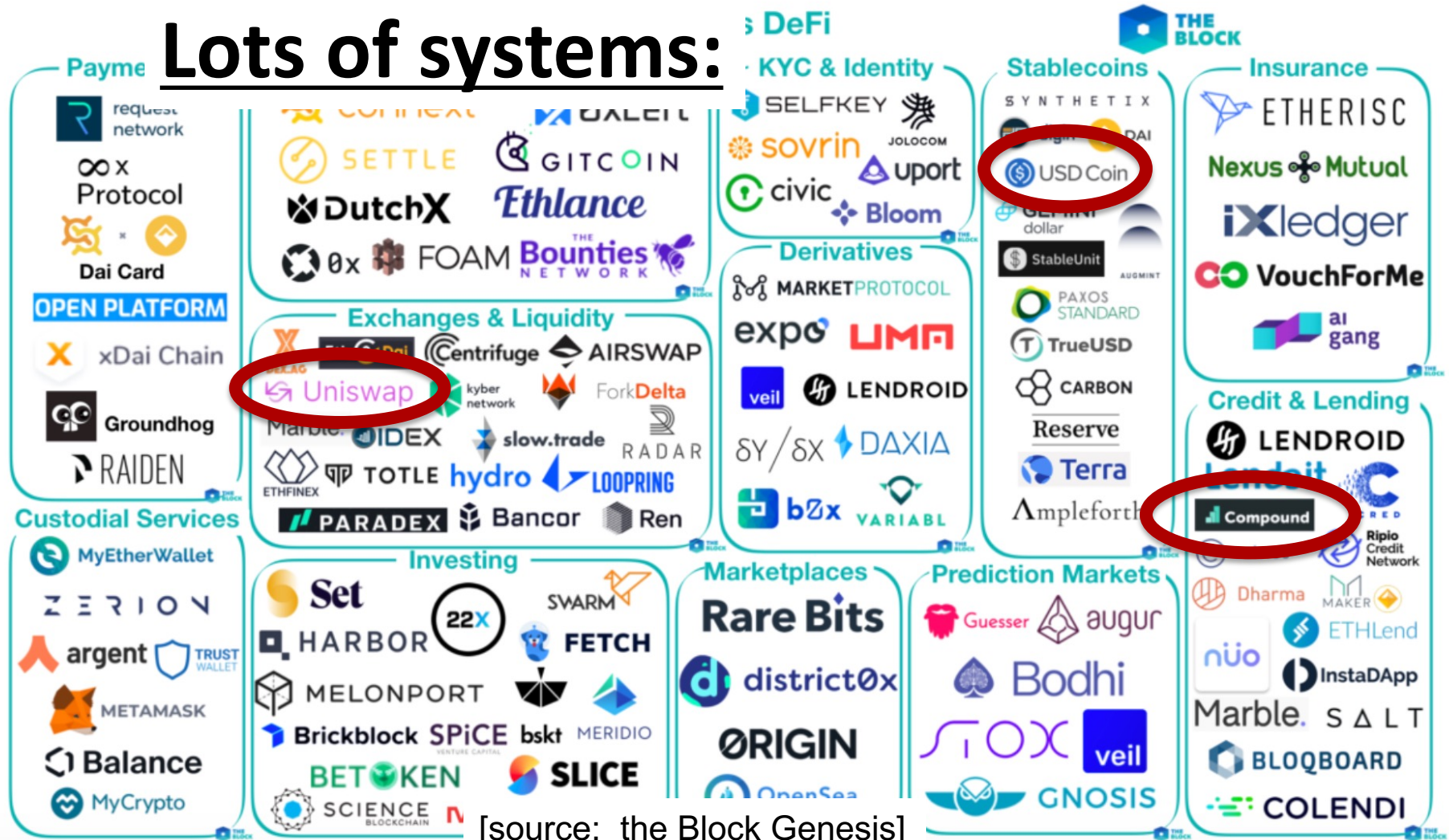


end user

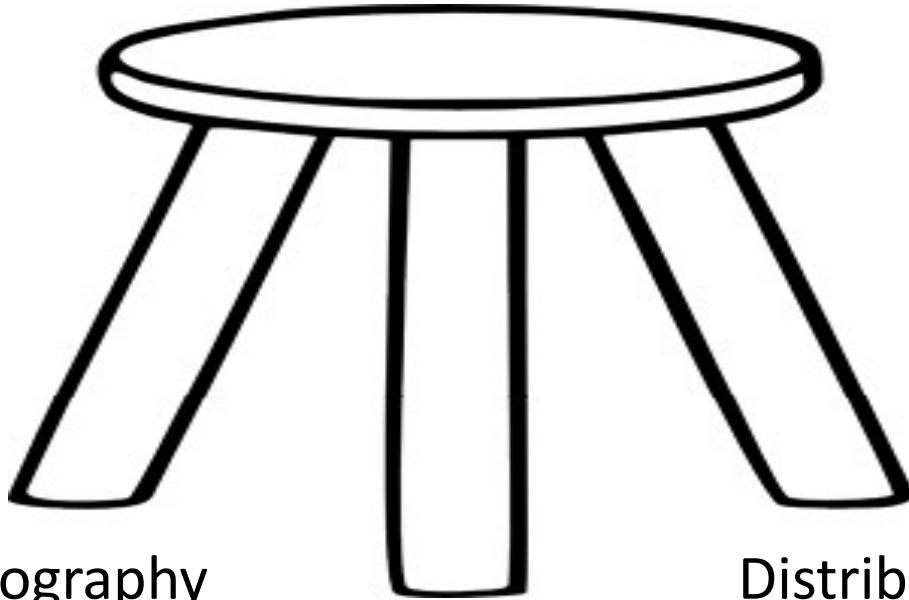


Data availability / Consensus layer

Lots of systems:



This course



Cryptography

Economics

Distributed systems

Course organization

1. The starting point: Bitcoin mechanics
2. Consensus protocols
3. Ethereum and decentralized applications
4. DeFi: decentralized applications in finance
5. Private transactions on a public blockchain
(SNARKs and zero knowledge proofs)
6. Scaling the blockchain: getting to 1M Tx/sec
7. Interoperability among chains: bridges and wrapped coins

Course organization

cs251.stanford.edu

- Homework problems, projects, final exam
- Optional weekly sections on Friday

Please tell us how we can improve ...
Don't wait until the end of the quarter

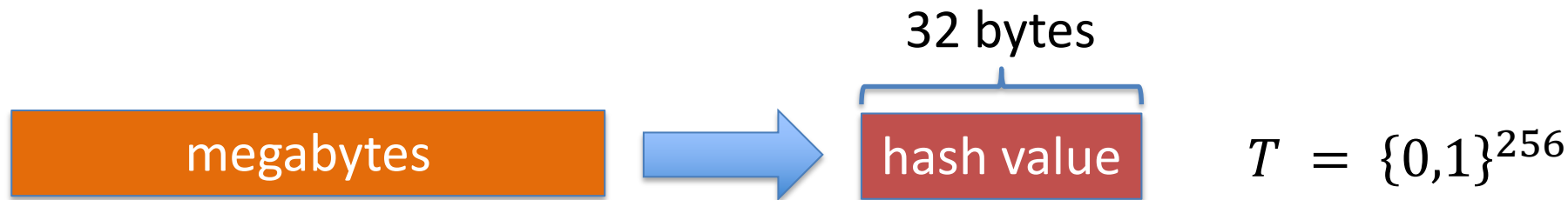
Let's get started ...

Cryptography Background

(1) cryptographic hash functions

An efficiently computable function $H: M \rightarrow T$

where $|M| \gg |T|$



Collision resistance

Def: a collision for $H: M \rightarrow T$ is pair $x \neq y \in M$ s.t. $H(x) = H(y)$

$|M| \gg |T|$ implies that many collisions exist

Def: a function $H: M \rightarrow T$ is collision resistant if it is “hard” to find even a single collision for H (we say H is a CRF)

Example: **SHA256:** $\{x : \text{len}(x) < 2^{64} \text{ bytes}\} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{256}$

(output is 32 bytes)

details in CS255

Application: committing to data on a blockchain

Alice has a large file m . She posts $h = H(m)$ (32 bytes)

Bob reads h . Later he learns m' s.t. $H(m') = h$

H is a CRF \Rightarrow Bob is convinced that $m' = m$
(otherwise, m and m' are a collision for H)

We say that $h = H(m)$ is a **binding commitment** to m

(note: not hiding, h may leak information about m)

Committing to a list (of transactions)

Alice has $S = (m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n)$

32 bytes



Goal:

- Alice posts a short binding commitment to S , $h = \text{commit}(S)$
- Bob reads h . Given $(m_i, \text{proof } \pi_i)$ can check that $S[i] = m_i$

Bob runs $\text{verify}(h, i, m_i, \pi_i) \rightarrow \text{accept/reject}$

security: adv. cannot find (S, i, m, π) s.t. $m \neq S[i]$ and
 $\text{verify}(h, i, m, \pi) = \text{accept}$ where $h = \text{commit}(S)$

Merkle tree

(Merkle 1989)

commitment

h

Merkle tree
commitment

m_1 m_2 m_3 m_4 m_5 m_6 m_7 m_8

list of values S

Goal:

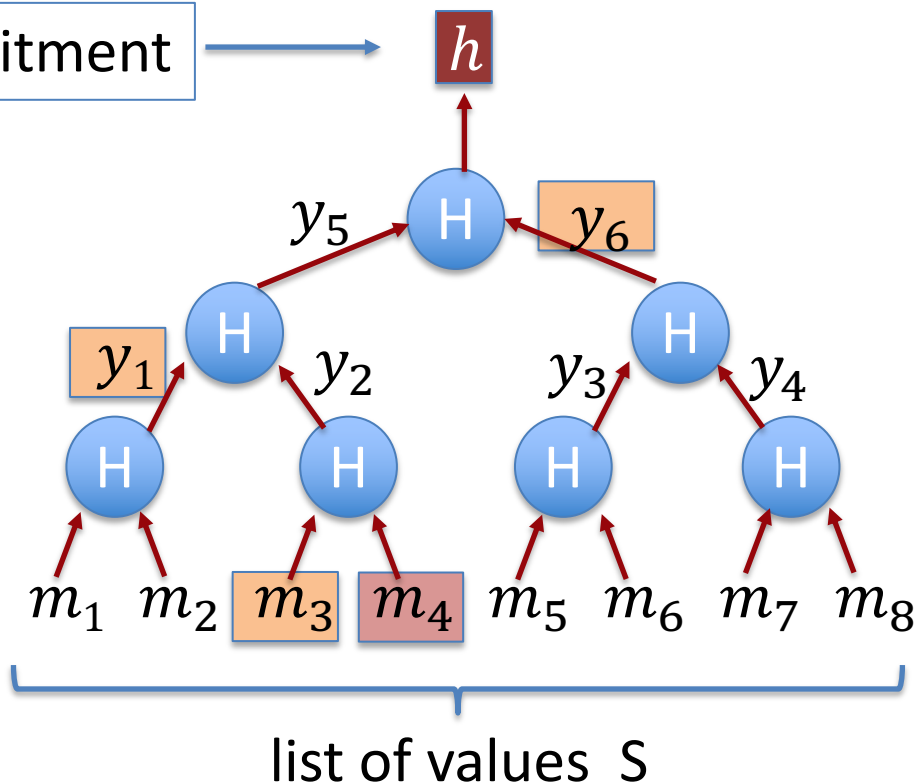
- commit to list S of size n
- Later prove $S[i] = m_i$

Merkle tree

(Merkle 1989)

[simplified]

commitment



Goal:

- commit to list S of size n
- Later prove $S[i] = m_i$

To prove $S[4] = m_4$,
proof $\pi = (m_3, y_1, y_6)$

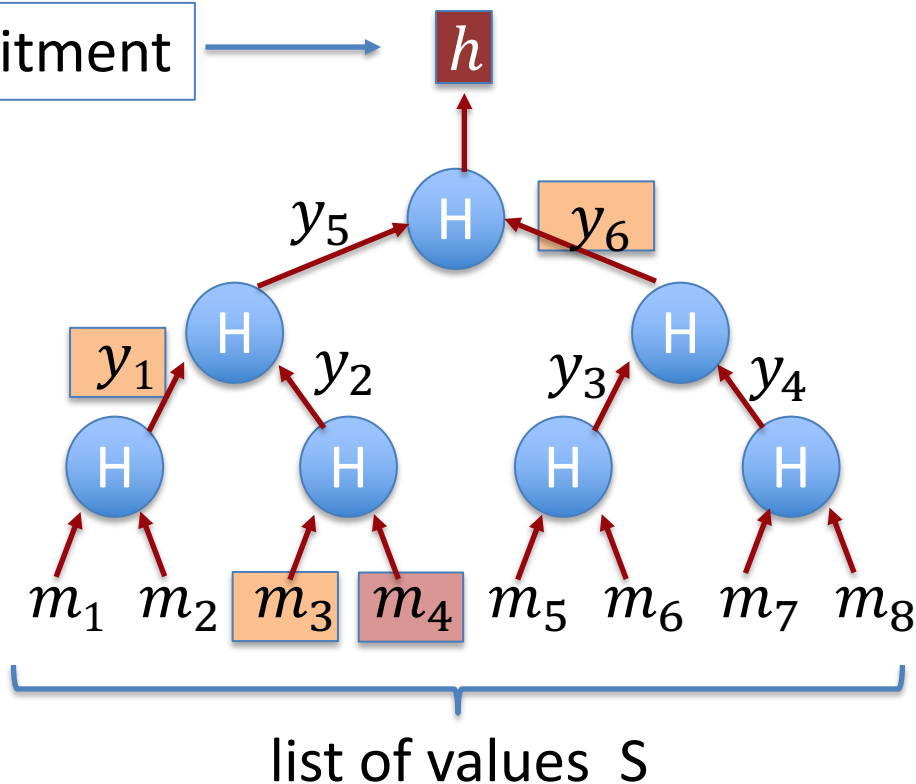
length of proof: $\log_2 n$

Merkle tree

(Merkle 1989)

[simplified]

commitment



To prove $S[4] = m_4$,
proof $\pi = (m_3, y_1, y_6)$

Bob does:

$$y_2 \leftarrow H(m_3, m_4)$$

$$y_5 \leftarrow H(y_1, y_2)$$

$$h' \leftarrow H(y_5, y_6)$$

accept if $h = h'$

Merkle tree

(Merkle 1989)

Thm: For a given n : if H is a CRF then

adv. cannot find (S, i, m, π) s.t. $|S| = n, \quad m \neq S[i],$

$h = \text{commit}(S)$, and $\text{verify}(h, i, m, \pi) = \text{accept}$

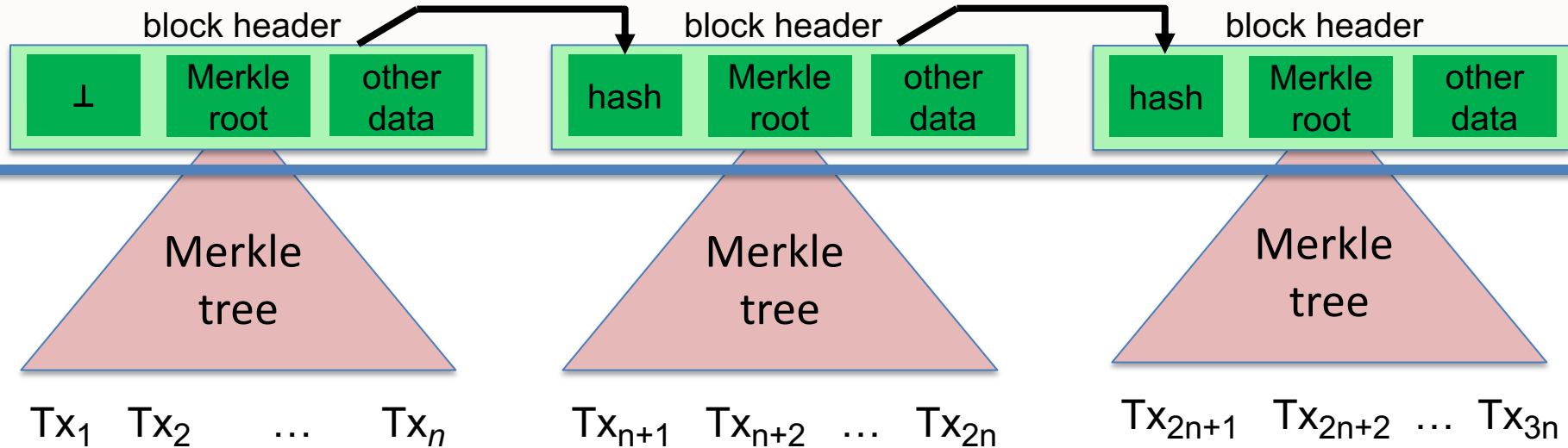
(to prove, prove the contra-positive)

How is this useful? To post a block of transactions S on chain suffices to only write $\text{commit}(S)$ to chain. Keeps chain small.

\Rightarrow Later, can prove contents of every Tx.

Abstract block chain

blockchain



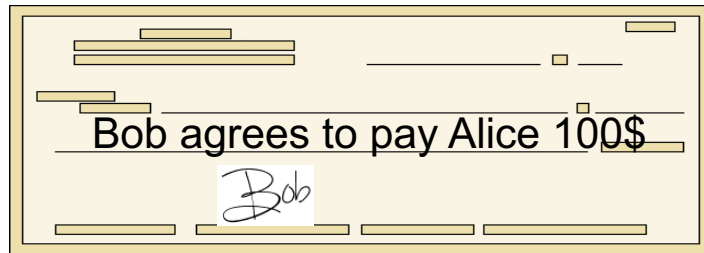
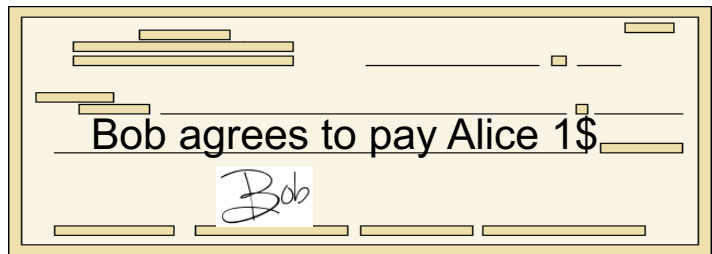
Merkle proofs are used to prove that a Tx is “on the block chain”

Cryptography background: Digital Signatures

How to authorize a transaction

Signatures

Physical signatures: bind transaction to author

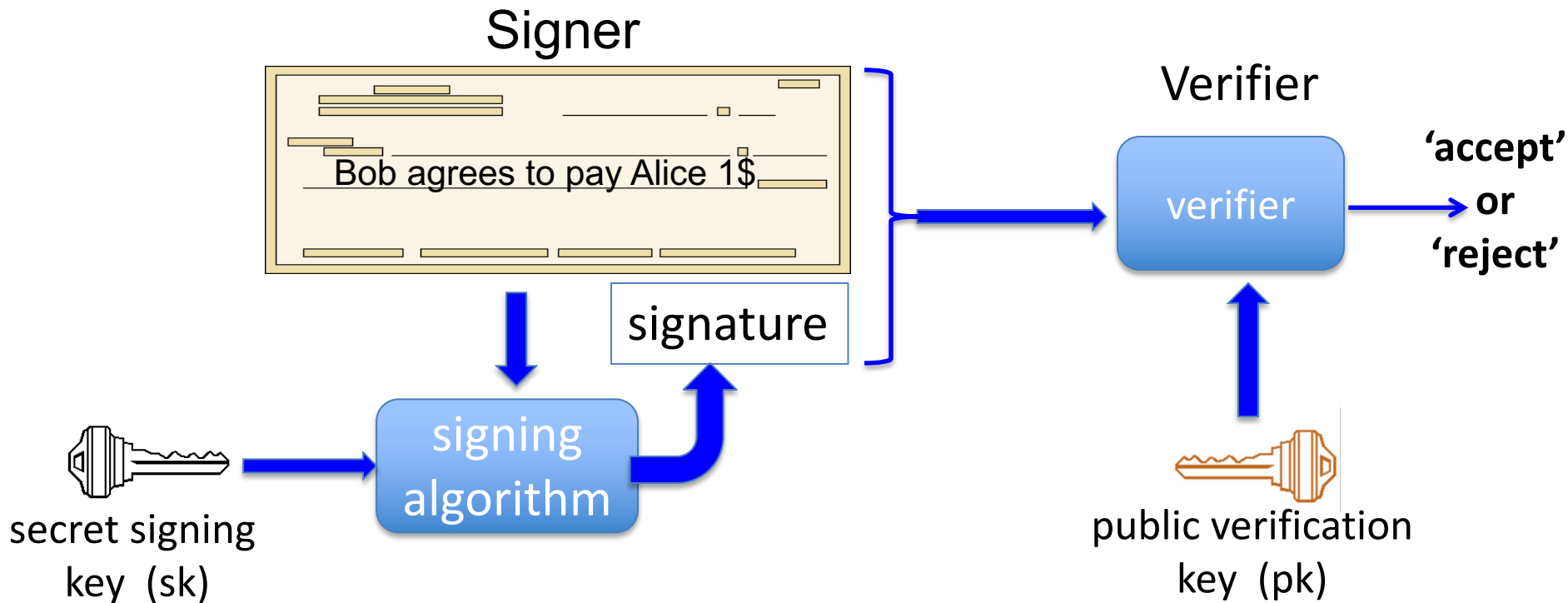


Problem in the digital world:

anyone can copy Bob's signature from one doc to another

Digital signatures

Solution: make signature depend on document



Digital signatures: syntax

Def: a signature scheme is a triple of algorithms:

- **Gen()**: outputs a key pair (pk, sk)
- **Sign**(sk, msg) outputs sig. σ
- **Verify**(pk, msg, σ) outputs 'accept' or 'reject'

Secure signatures: (informal)

Adversary who sees signatures **on many messages** of his choice, cannot forge a signature on a new message.

Families of signature schemes

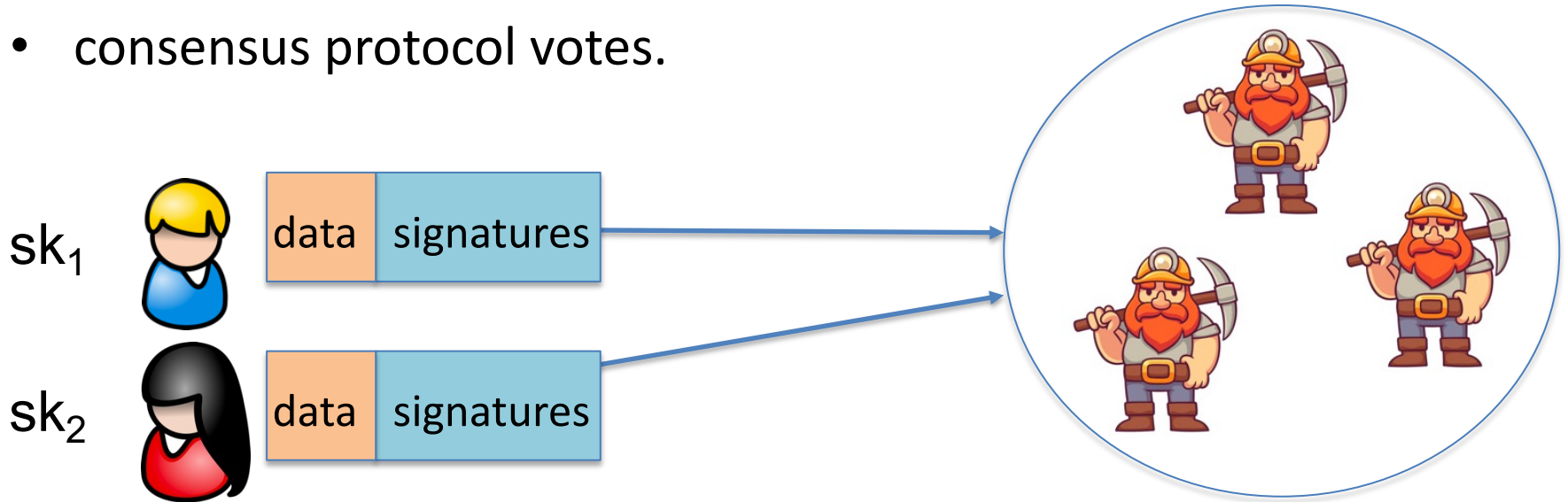
1. RSA signatures (old ... not used in blockchains):
 - long sigs and public keys (≥ 256 bytes), fast to verify
2. Discrete-log signatures: Schnorr and ECDSA (Bitcoin, Ethereum)
 - short sigs (48 or 64 bytes) and public key (32 bytes)
3. BLS signatures: 48 bytes, aggregatable, easy threshold
(Ethereum, Chia, Obol)
4. Post-quantum signatures (ML-DSA): long (≥ 600 bytes)

details in CS255

Signatures on the blockchain

Signatures are used everywhere:

- ensure Tx authorization,
- governance votes,
- consensus protocol votes.



END OF LECTURE

Next lecture: the Bitcoin blockchain