

Blockchain Theory 1

Week 1
Lesson 1

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

○ Decentralized**△ Centralized**

Inefficient

Efficient

Dangerous

Safe

No built-in trust framework

Trust through structure

Anarchy

Absolute Power / Absolute Corruption

Distributed Wealth

Consolidated Wealth

Generalized

Specialized

Flexible

Structured

Resilient

Fragile

Personal Sovereignty

Ceded Authority

Complex to manage

Simple to manage

Difficult to scale

Easy to scale

Local Overheads

Global Overheads

From

[Betakit Blog](#)

Class Exercise

Imagine playing Monopoly over the internet (using the physical game, without a software version)

(Dice , board position, account balance, hotels possessed etc.)

What are the problems ?

How can we solve these ?

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



	Unit	Current Price	Cost	Revenue	Profit	Loss	Net
0	14.90	103.90	131.25	138.15	163.15	168.55	168.55
25	8.58	72.00	147.50	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
50	15.98	115.50	131.25	156.20	180.74	181.94	181.94
75	5.9	75.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
100	2.84	52.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
125	6.11	72.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
150	11.15	105.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
175	6.09	72.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
200	0.04	98.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
225	11.13	105.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
250	6.23	72.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
275	8.54	98.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
300	9.8	105.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
325	9.8	105.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
350	5.61	72.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74
375	7.57	98.00	131.25	95.40	125.20	127.74	127.74

Cryptography



Components of the Blockchain

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

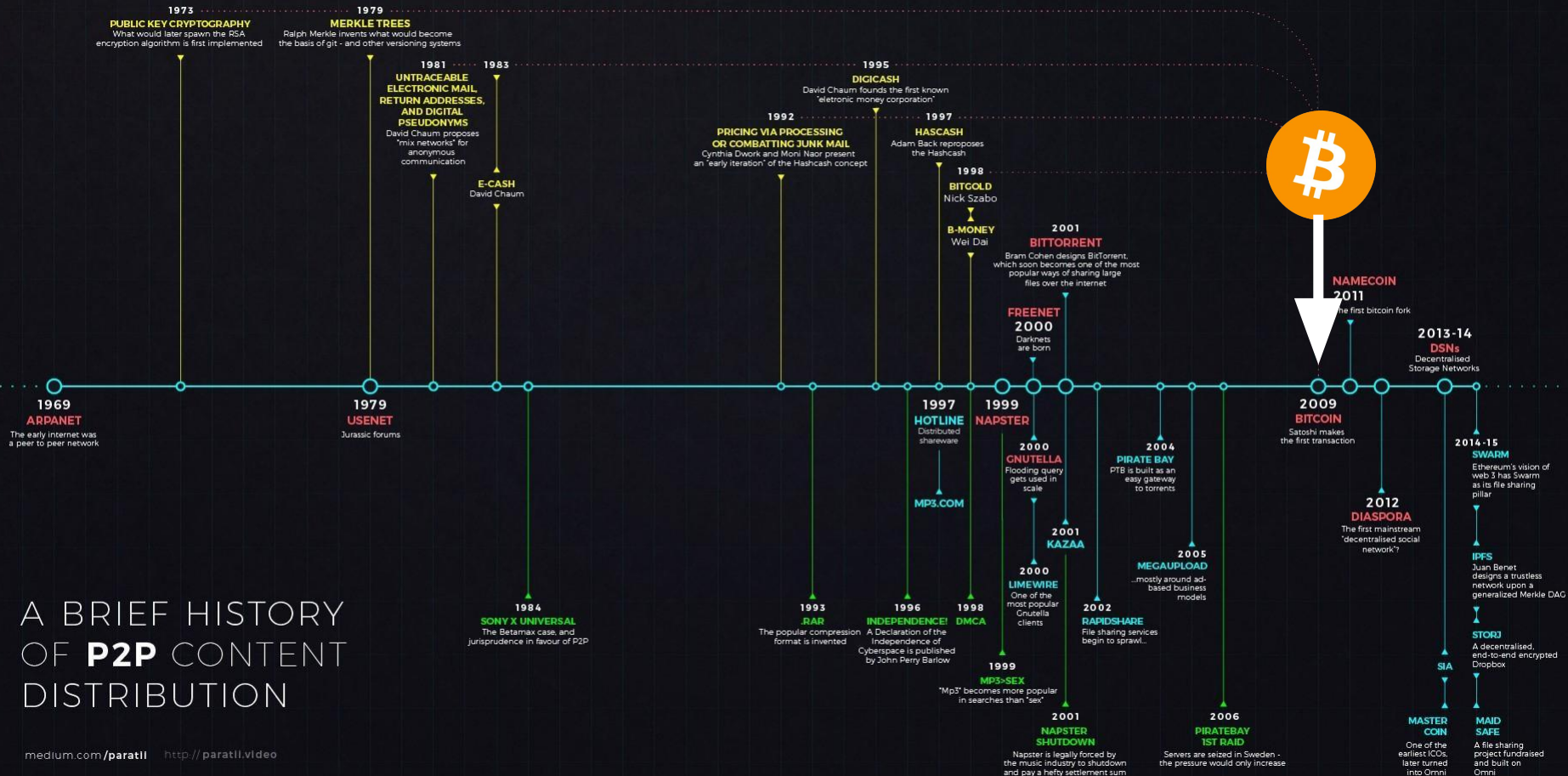
These components give a blockchain system

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

Timeline of cryptographic systems

A BRIEF HISTORY OF P2P CONTENT DISTRIBUTION

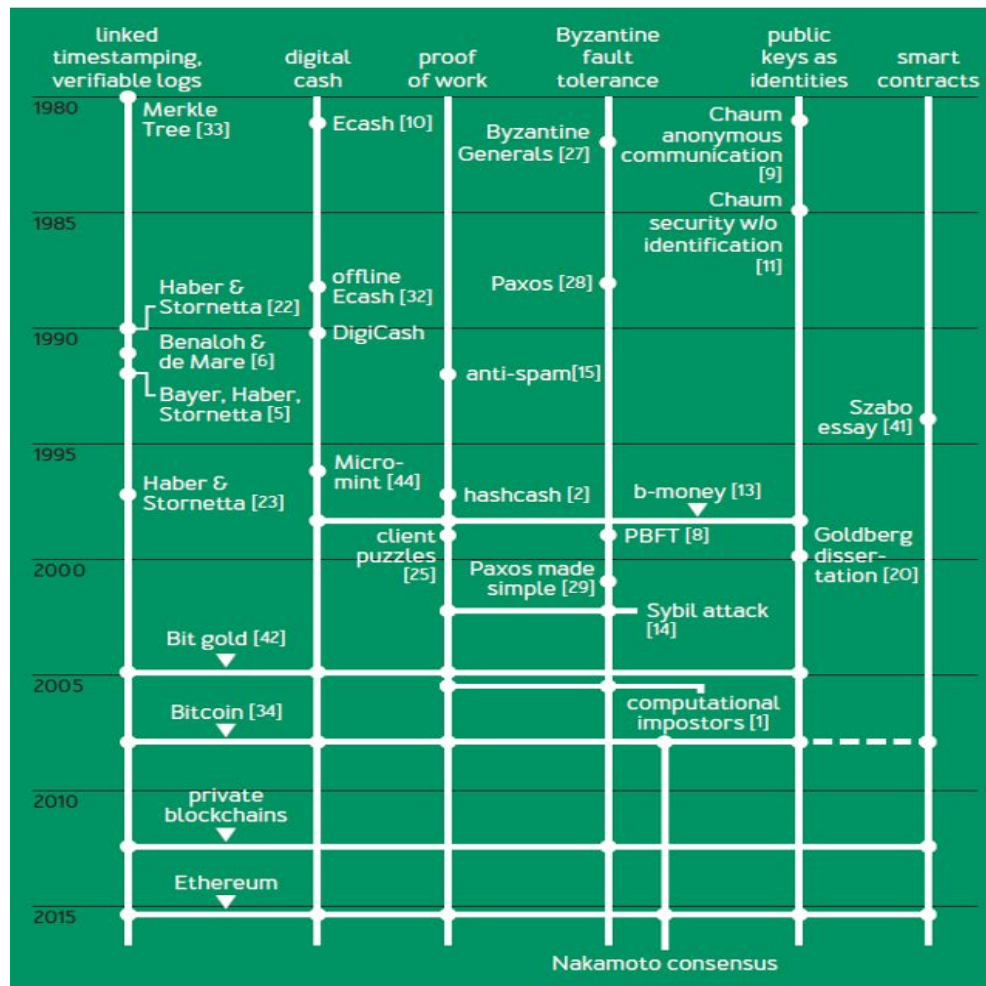
medium.com/paratli http://paratli.video



Working Towards Bitcoin

- Timestamping and verification
- Digital Cash
- Proof of Work (Consensus)
- Byzantine Fault Tolerance (Consensus)
- Public keys as Identities
- Smart Contracts

FIGURE 1: CHRONOLOGY OF KEY IDEAS FOUND IN BITCOIN



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 ?

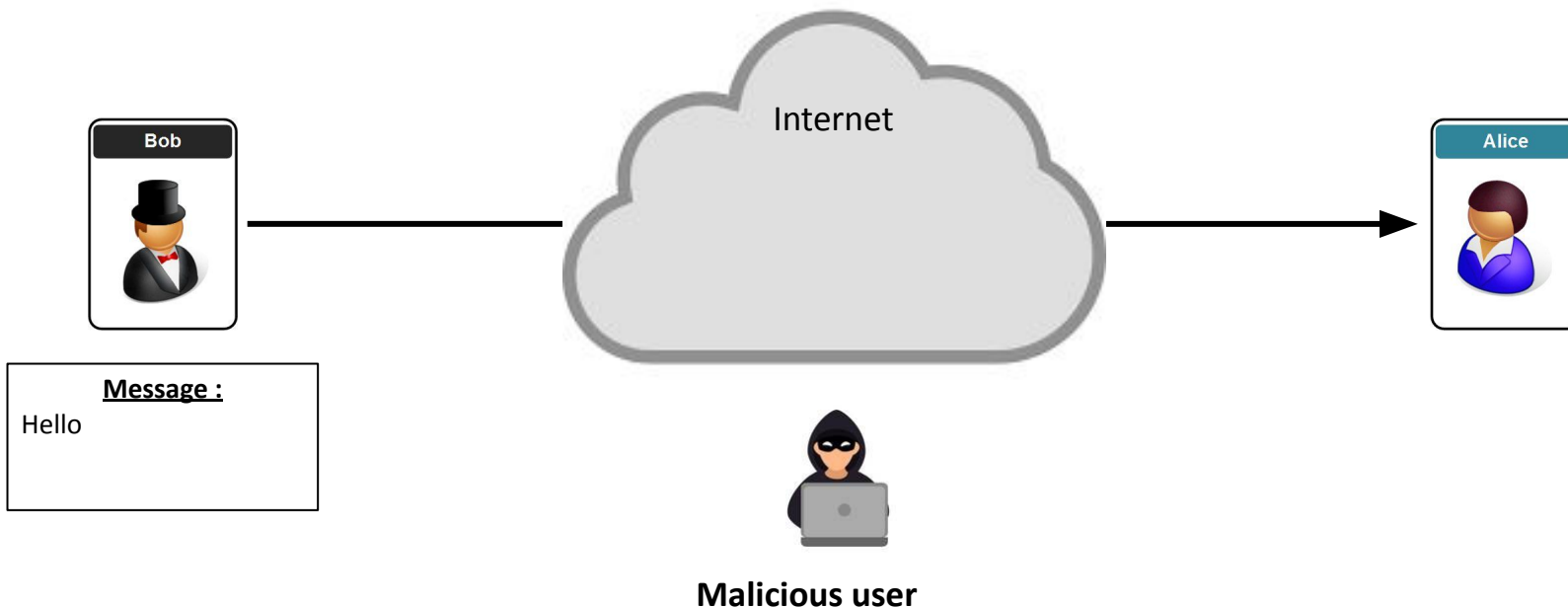
2) Authenticity

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

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

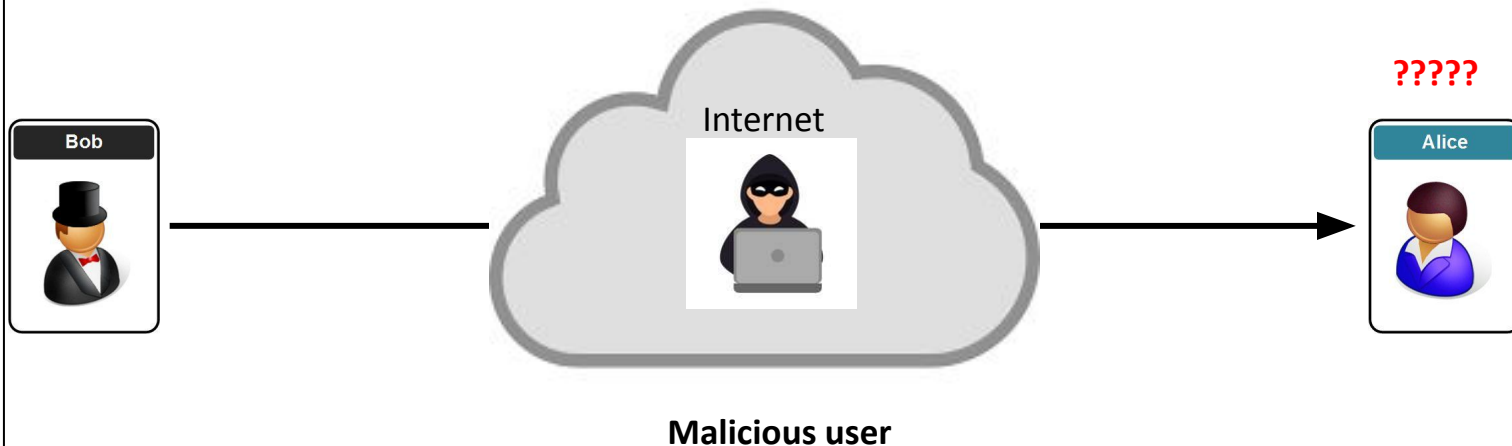
Problem 1 : How do I ensure that my message has not been modified ?



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

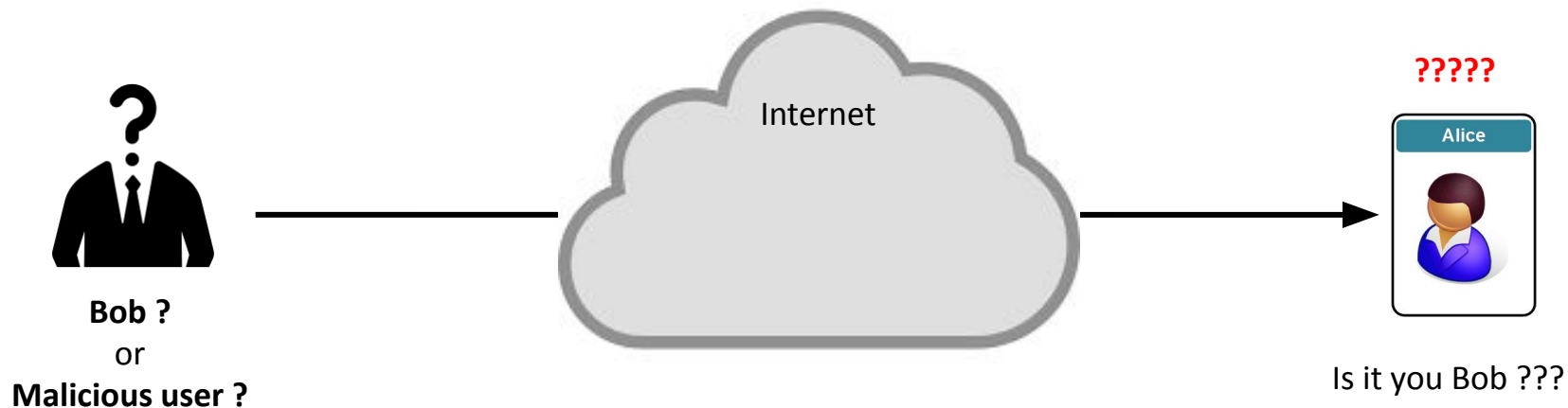
Problem 1 : How do I ensure that my message has not been modified ?



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
(early Internet) was a
p2p network*



1st Solution : Symmetric Cryptography !

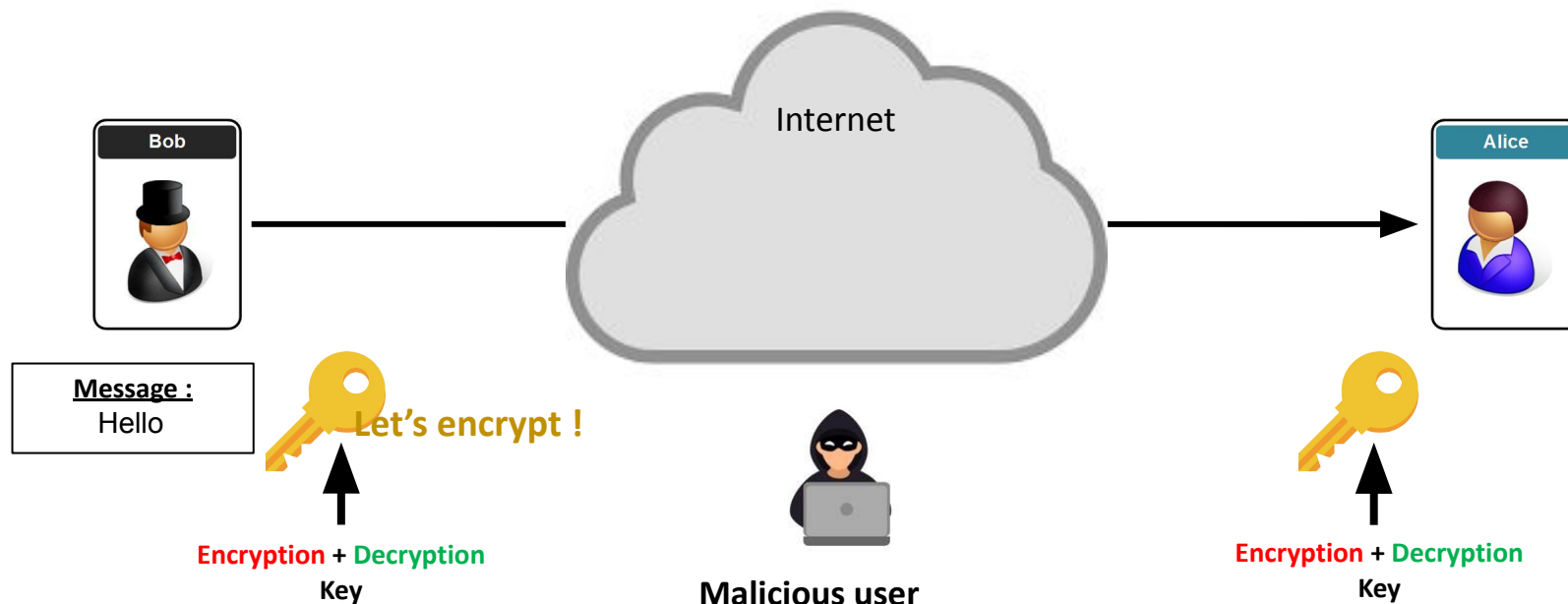


- Alice and Bob **share the same key.**
- One key for **both encryption** and **decryption** of messages

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

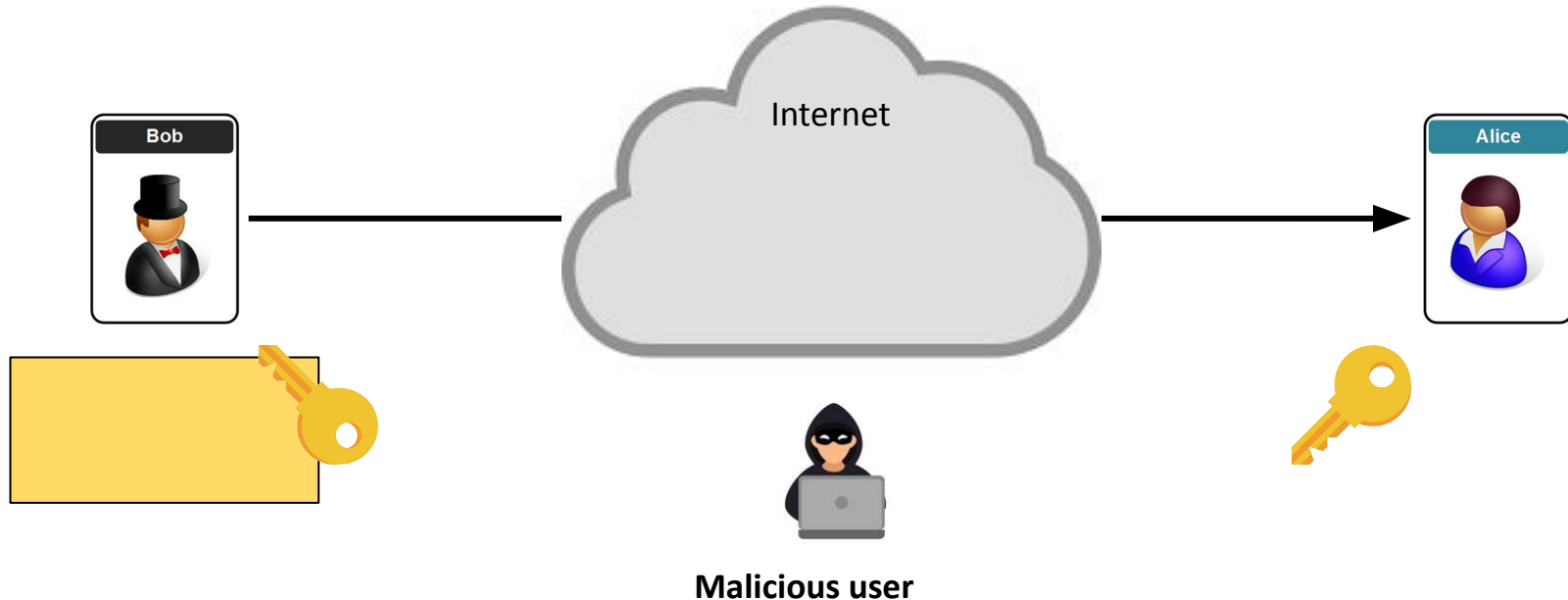
Symmetric Cryptography : encryption and decryption keys are the same



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

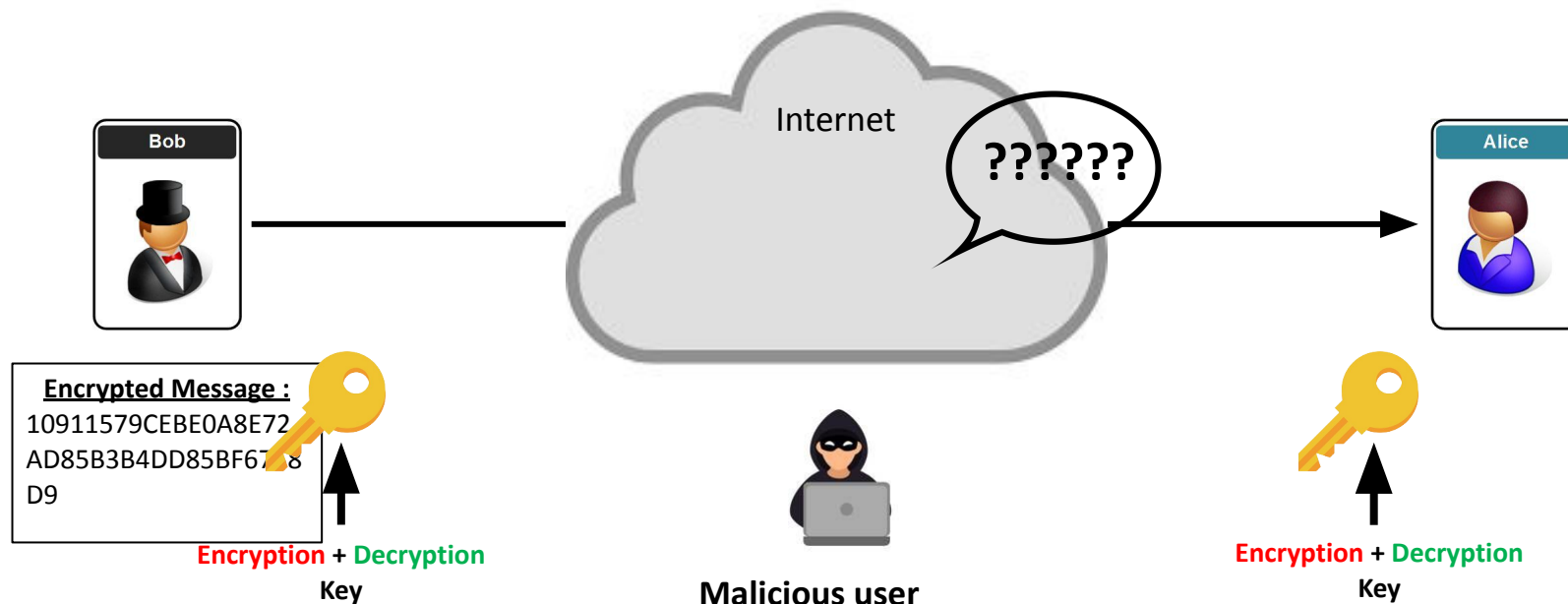
Symmetric Cryptography : **encryption** and **decryption** keys are the same



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

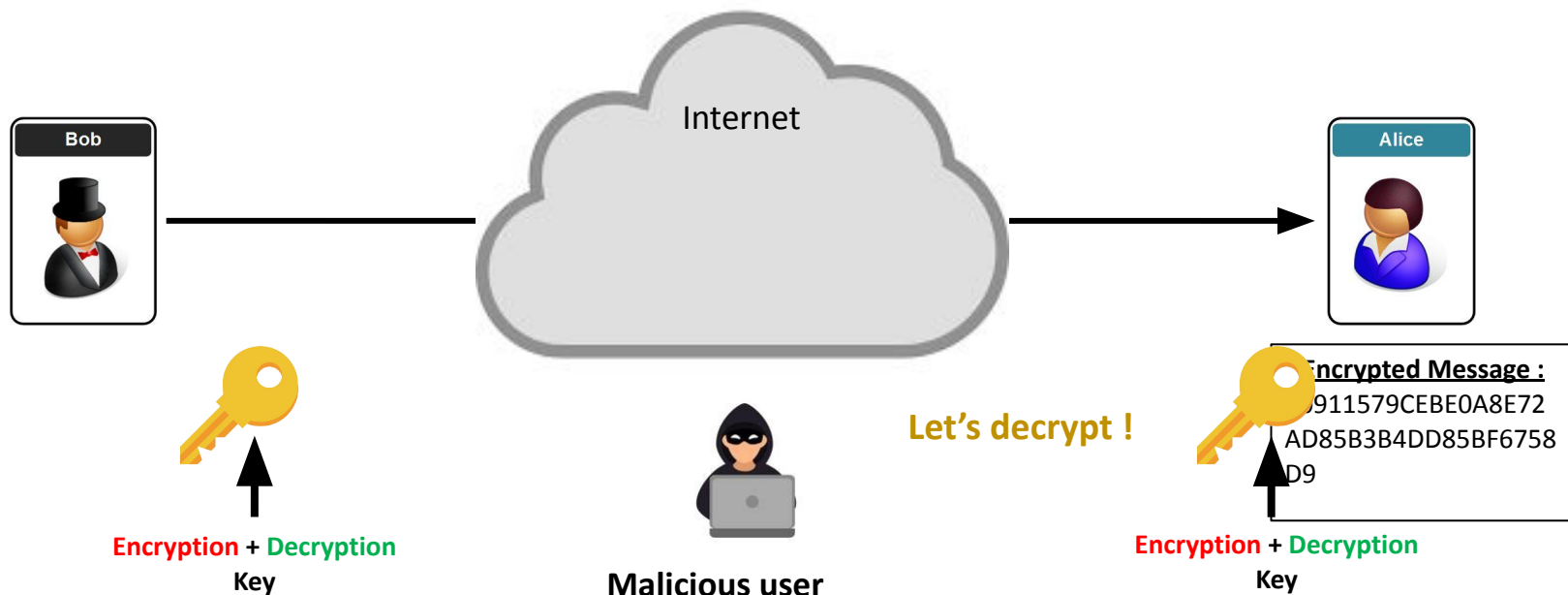
Symmetric Cryptography : encryption and decryption keys are the same



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

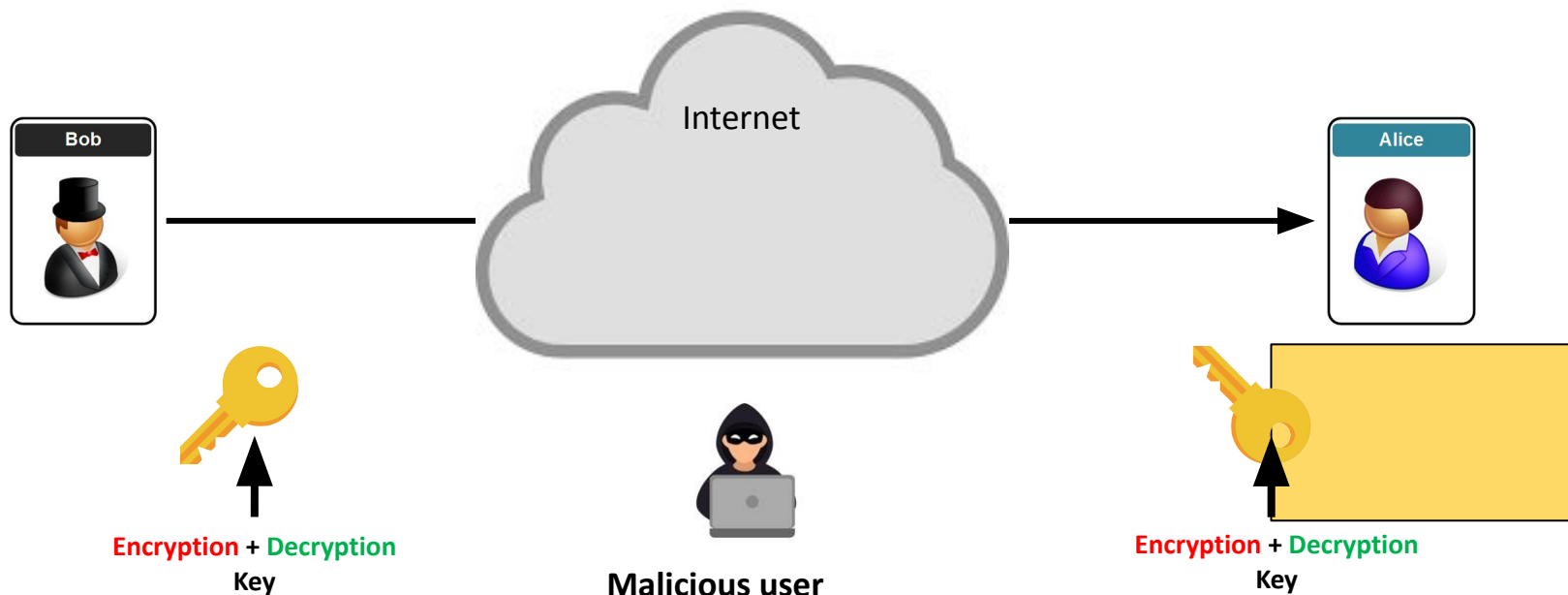
Symmetric Cryptography : encryption and decryption keys are the same



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

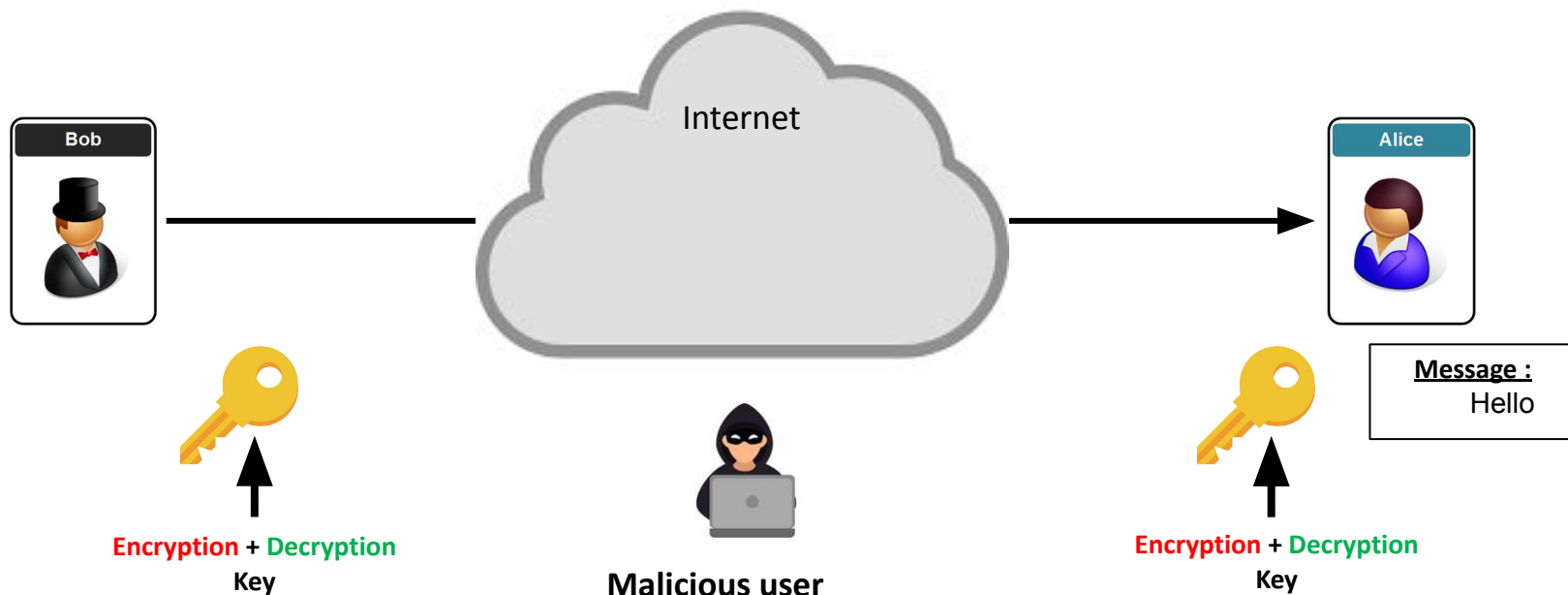
Symmetric Cryptography : **encryption** and **decryption** keys are the same



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

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



But what about key management ?

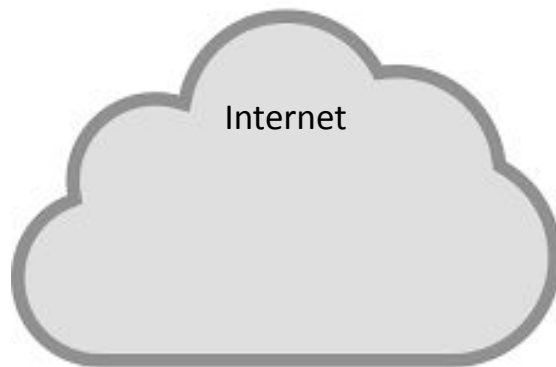
Can Alice and Bob share a key

- Without meeting
- Across a potentially hostile network

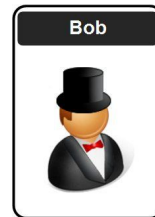
Private



Public



Private



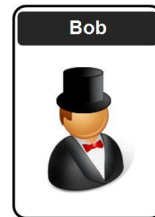
Private



Public



Private



Step 1 :

Alice and Bob :

Select a random secret individually !

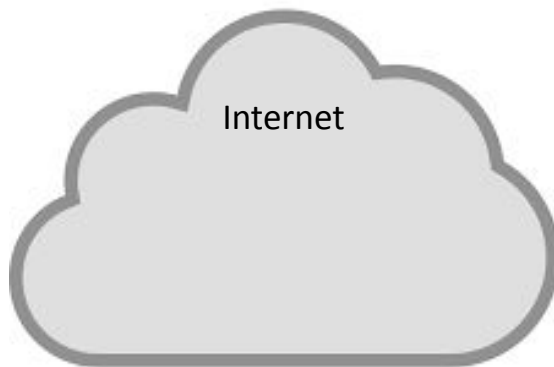
Private



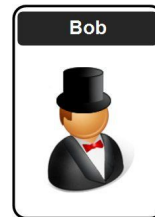
Private Key A



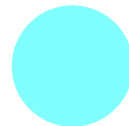
Public



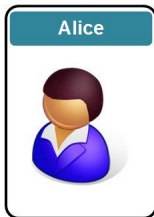
Private



Private Key B



Private



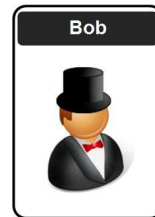
Private Key A



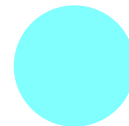
Public



Private



Private Key B



Step 2 :

Alice and Bob :

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

(Insecure network)

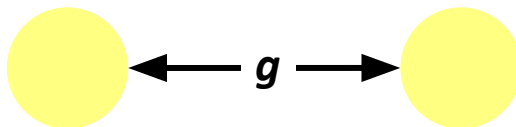
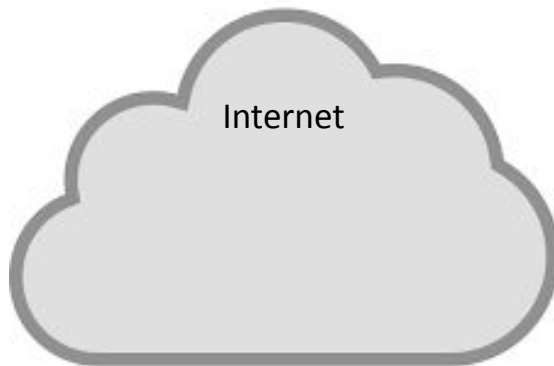
Private



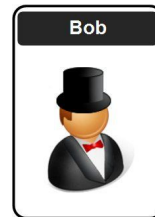
Private Key A



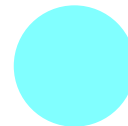
Public



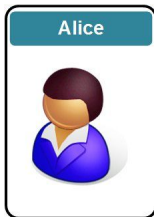
Private



Private Key B



Private



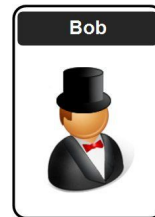
Private Key A



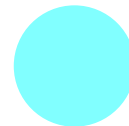
Public



Private



Private Key B



Step 3 :

Alice and Bob

combine their private key with the
common value g !

(in their private network)

Private

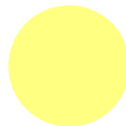
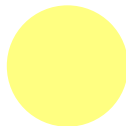
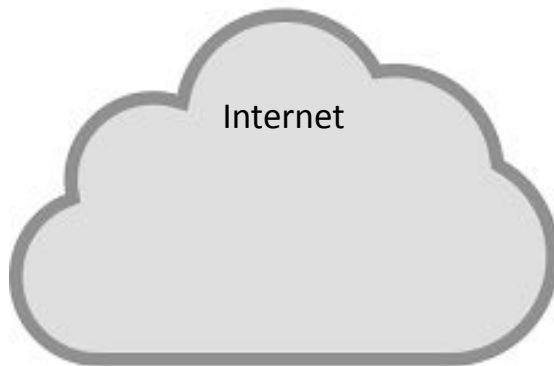


Private Key A

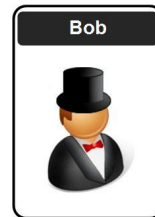


$A(g)$

Public



Private

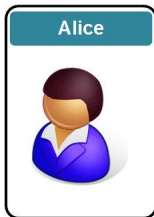


Private Key B



$B(g)$

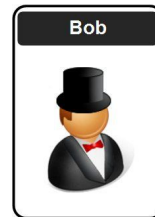
Private



Public



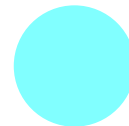
Private



Private Key A



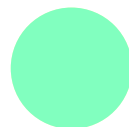
Private Key B



$A(g)$



$B(g)$



Step 4 :

Alice and Bob

Exchange both their combine value

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

(over the internet)

Private



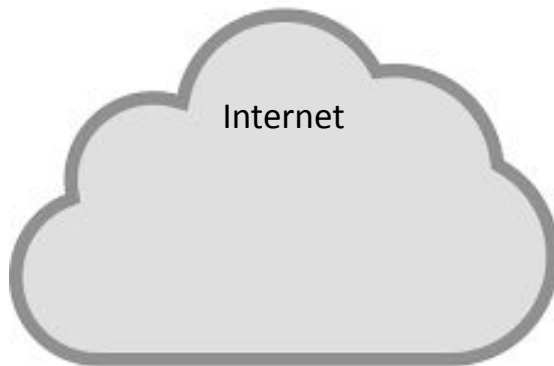
Private Key A



$A(g)$



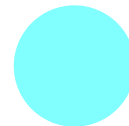
Public



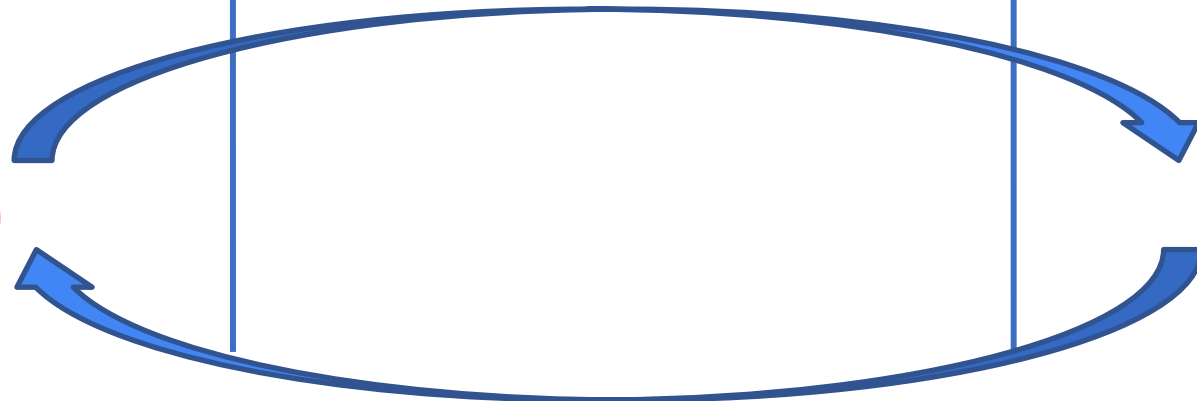
Private



Private Key B



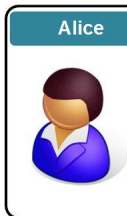
$B(g)$



Private

Public

Private



Final Step !

Alice and Bob

Private Key A

Key B

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

$$PK(A) + B(g)$$

$$PK(B) + A(g)$$

(privately)

B (g)

A (g)

Private



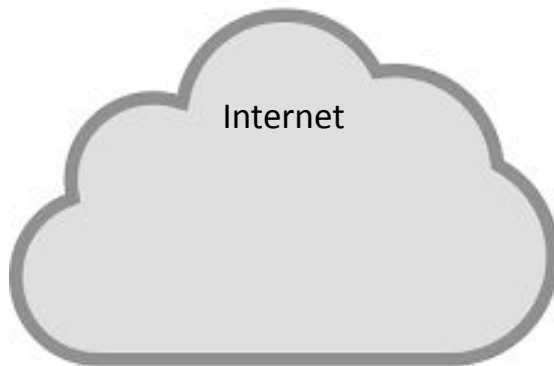
Private Key A



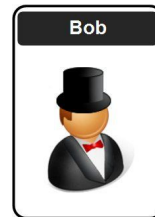
$B(g)$



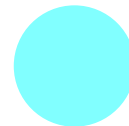
Public



Private



Private Key B



$A(g)$



Private



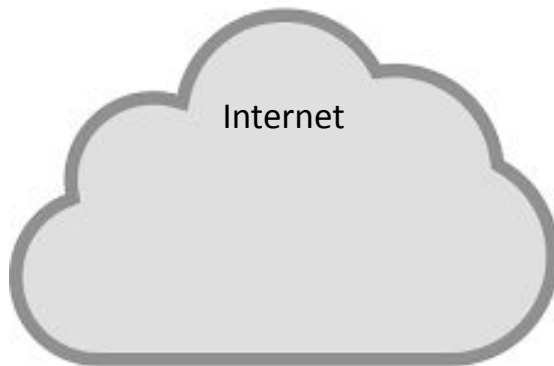
Private Key A



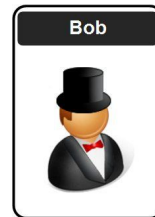
$B(g)$



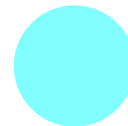
Public



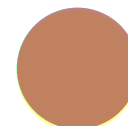
Private



Private Key B



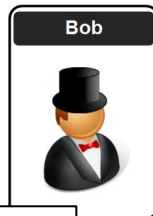
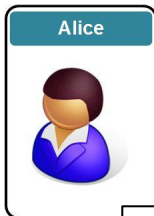
$A(g)$



Private

Public

Private



Result !

Private Key

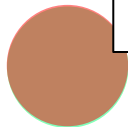


Key B

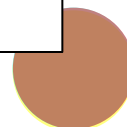


Alice and Bob have created a secret key
together without meeting / knowing each other

$B(g)$

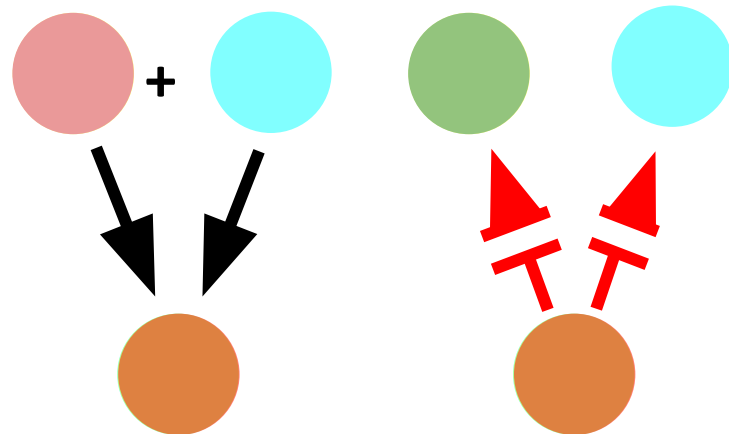


$A(g)$



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*.

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

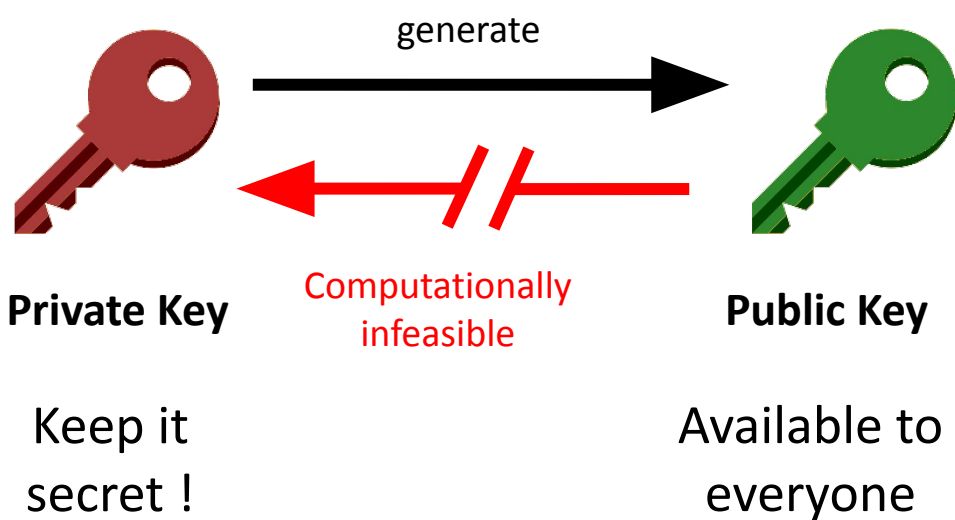
$$A \leftarrow B : \alpha^y \bmod p \quad (2)$$

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*

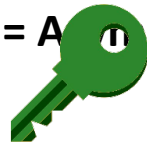


*Diffie – Hellman
Key Exchange*

1976

**Public Key
Cryptography**
is invented !

(= Asymmetric Cryptography)



Public Key



Private Key

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

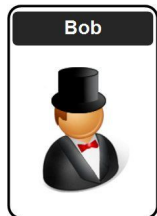
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**

Step 1 :

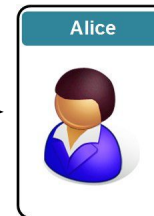
Alice and Bob

Create their own private / secret key

(privately, on their computer)



Private Key



Private Key A

Malicious user

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

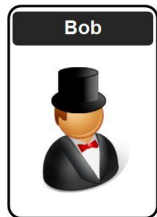
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**

Step 2 :

Alice and Bob

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

(still privately, on their computer)



Private Key



Public Key



Private Key A

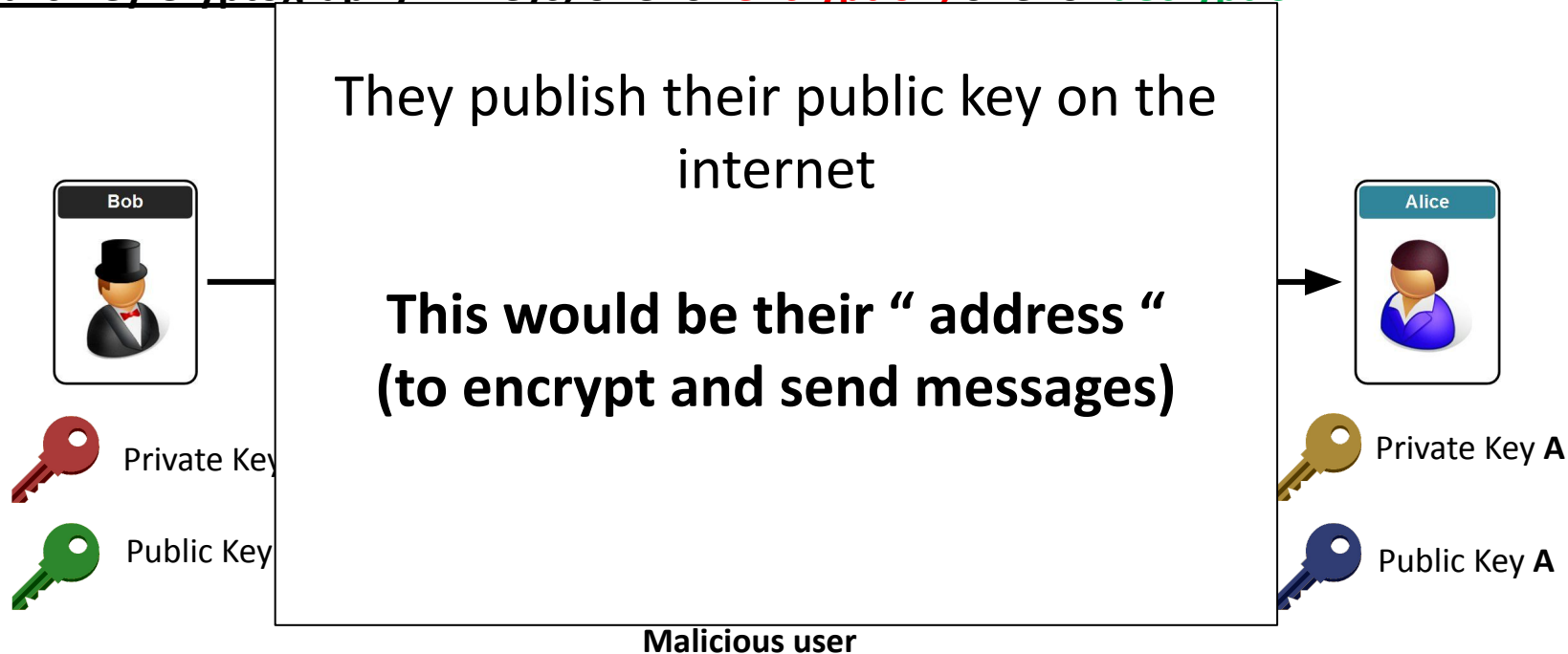


Public Key A

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

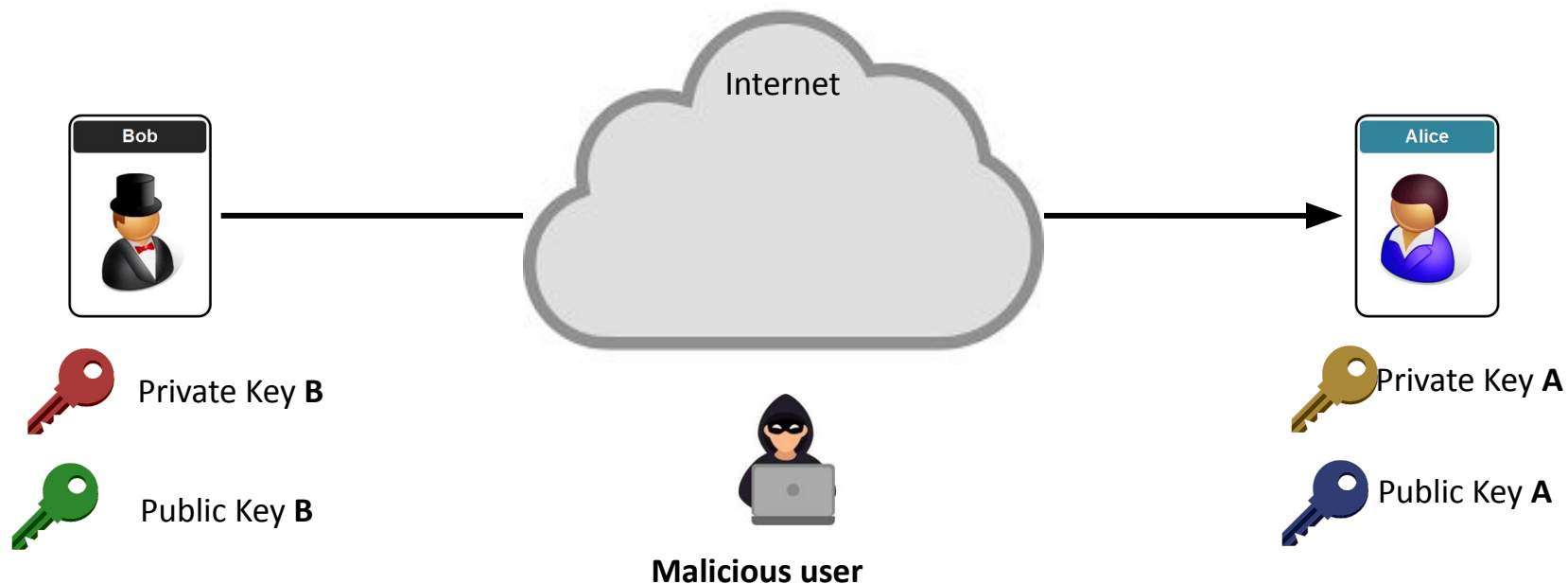
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



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

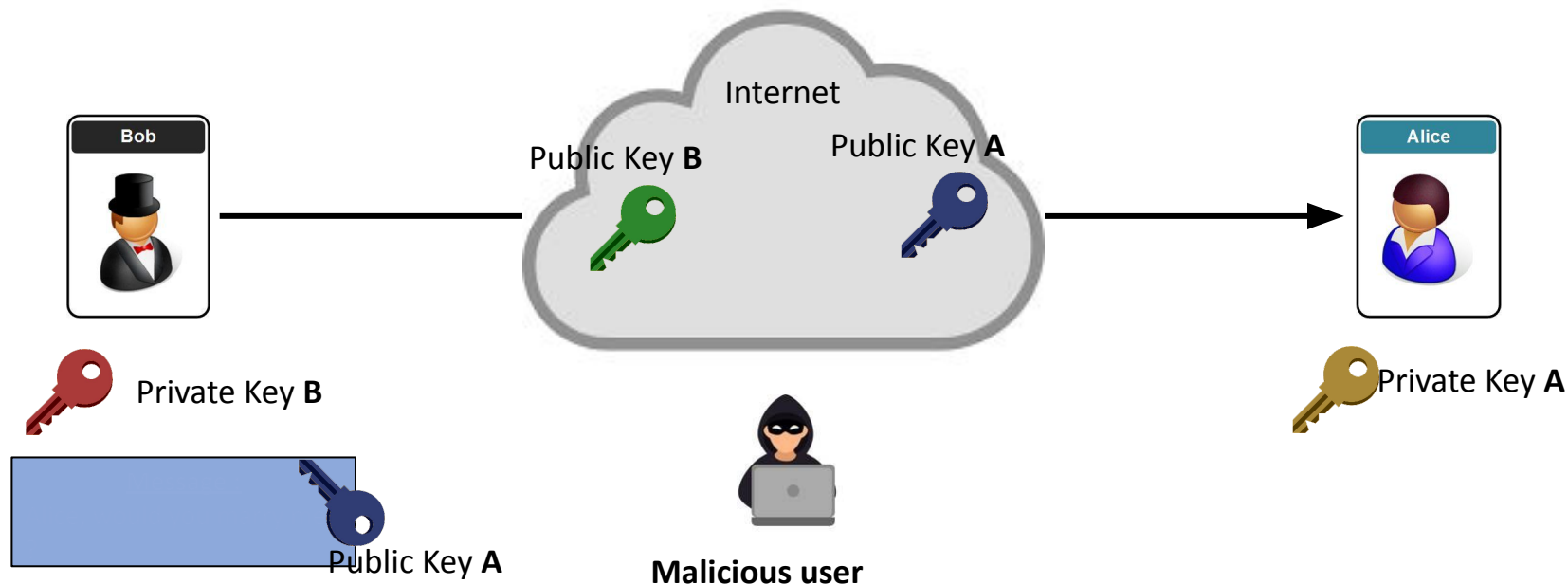
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

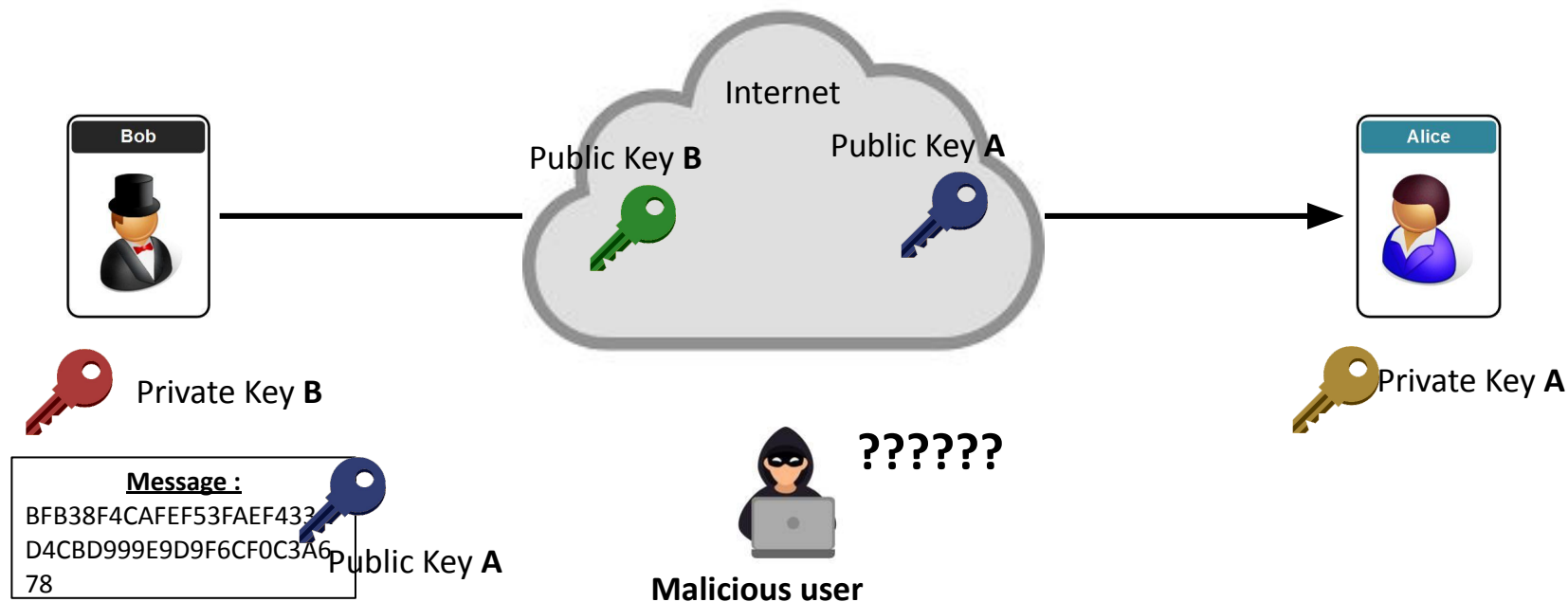
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

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



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

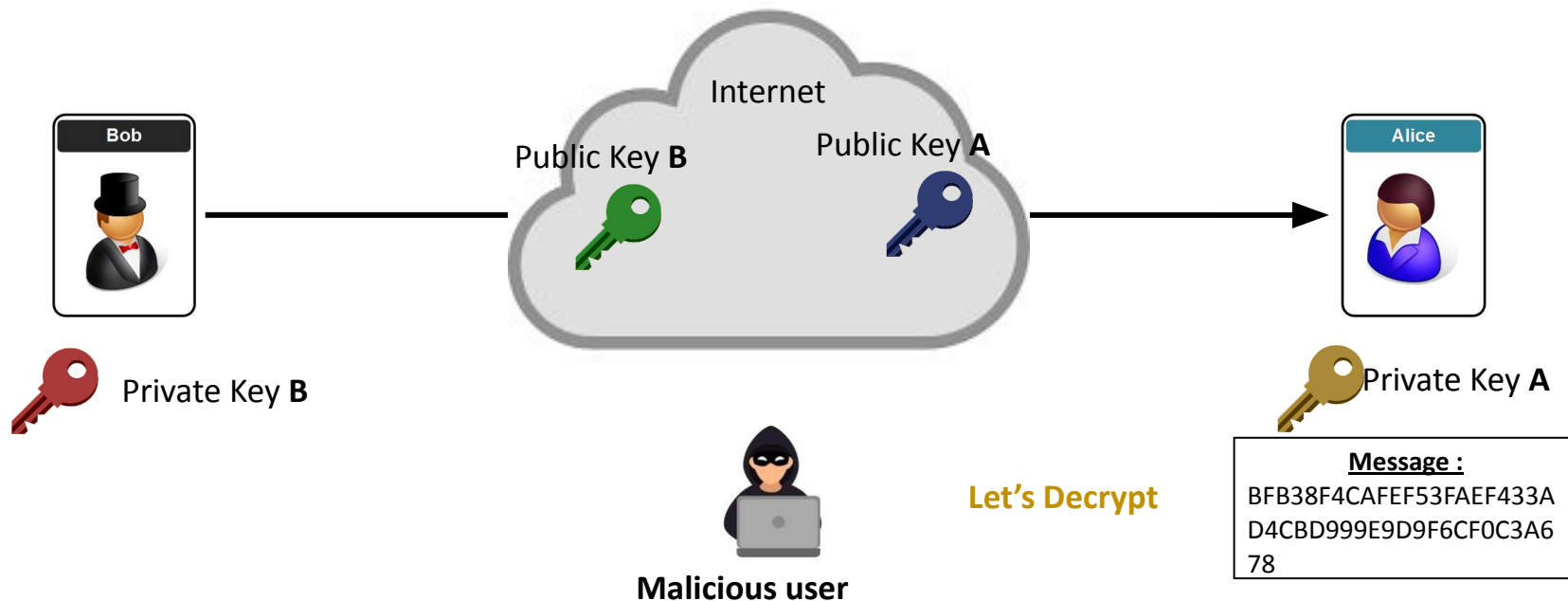
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

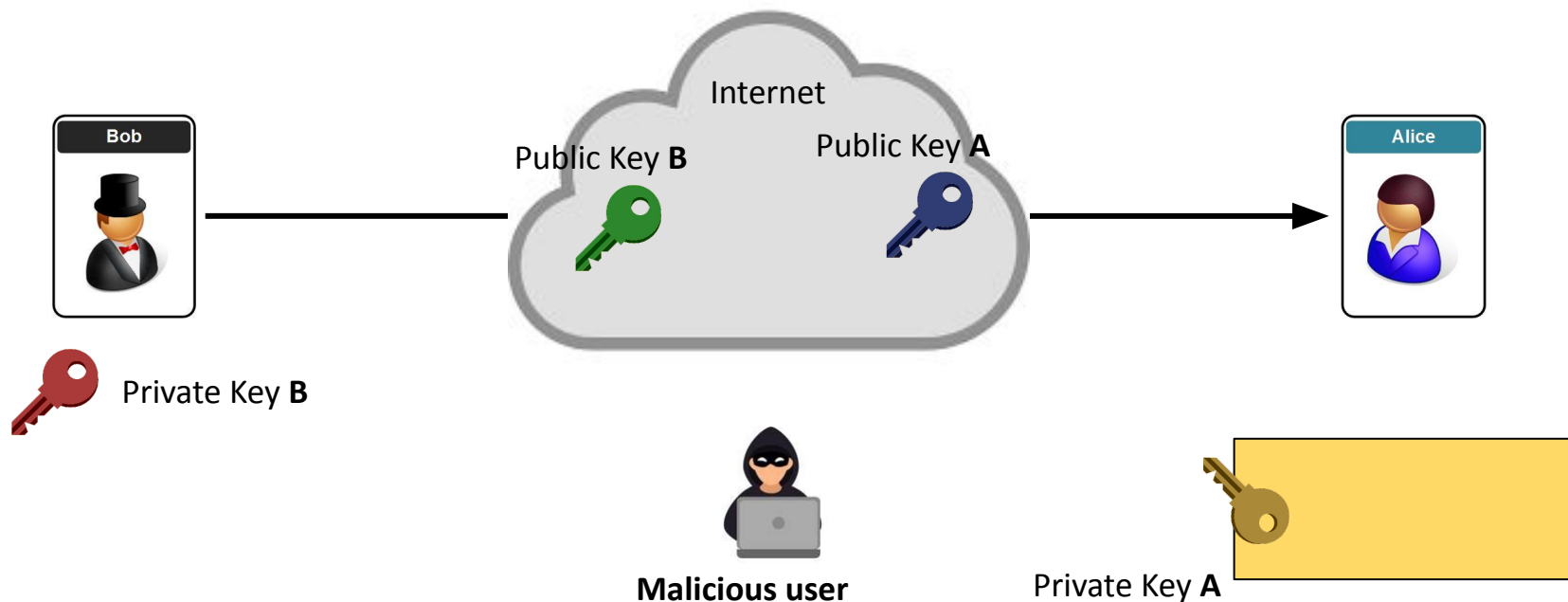
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

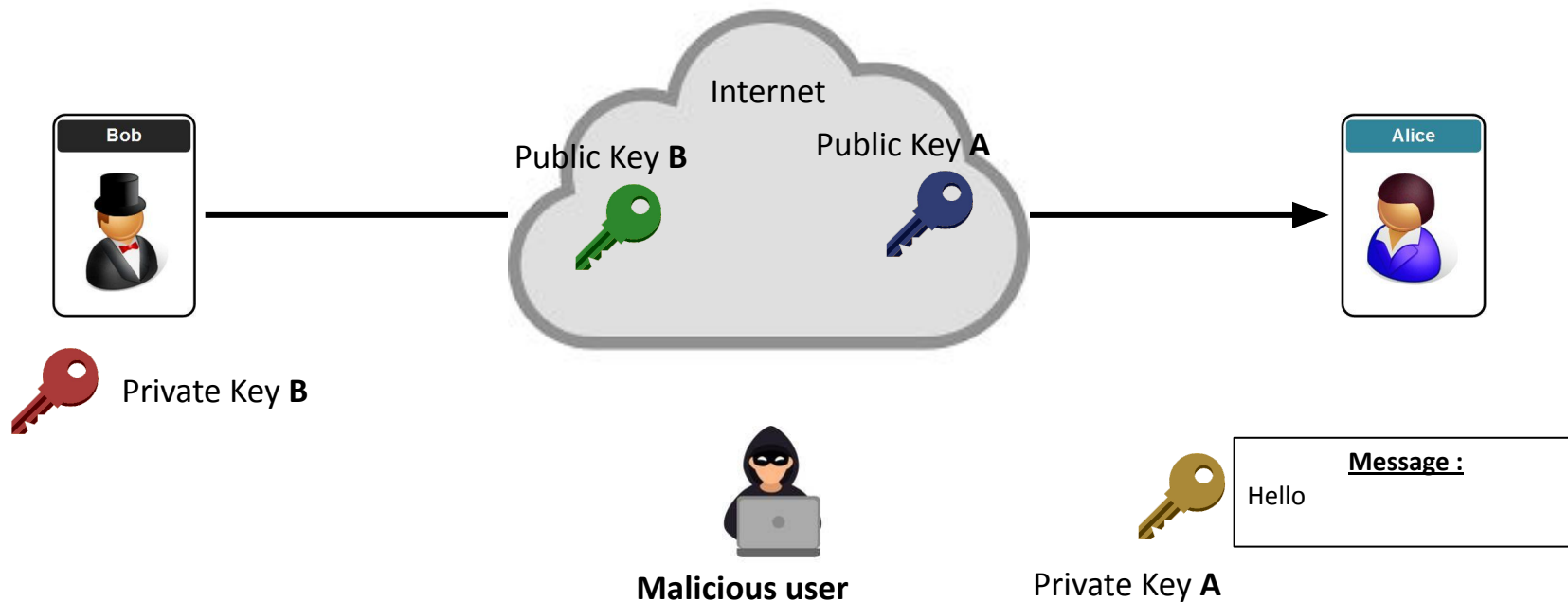
Public-Key Cryptography : 2 keys, one for **encryption**, one for **decryption**



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

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 : Privacy

- 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 ?

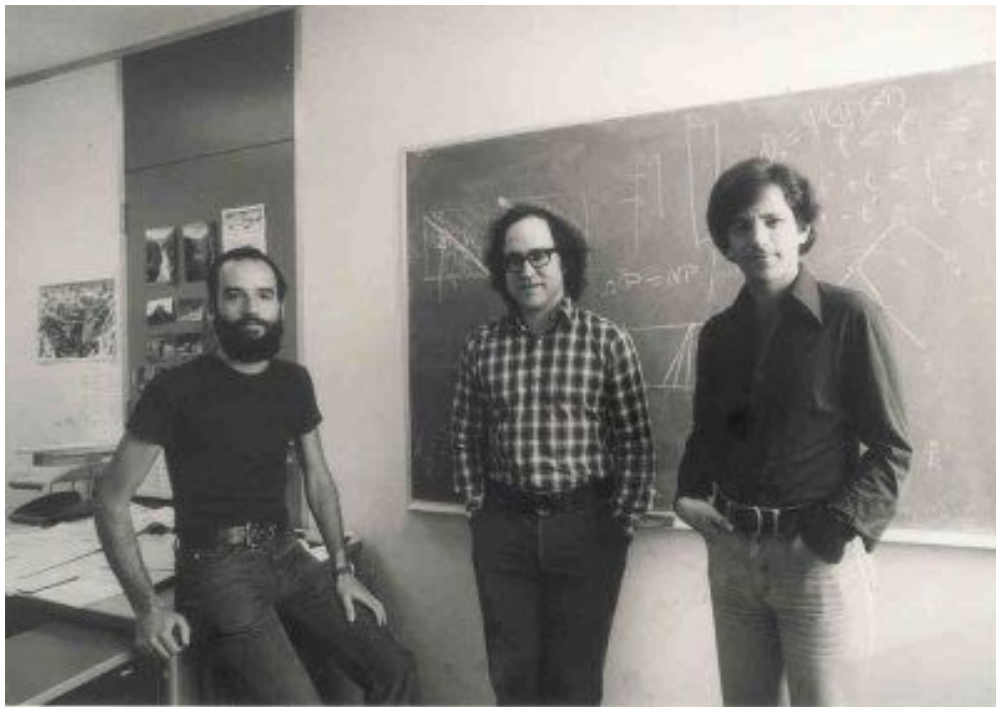
1970's

Ron Rivest

Adi Shamir

Leonard Adleman

→ invent RSA

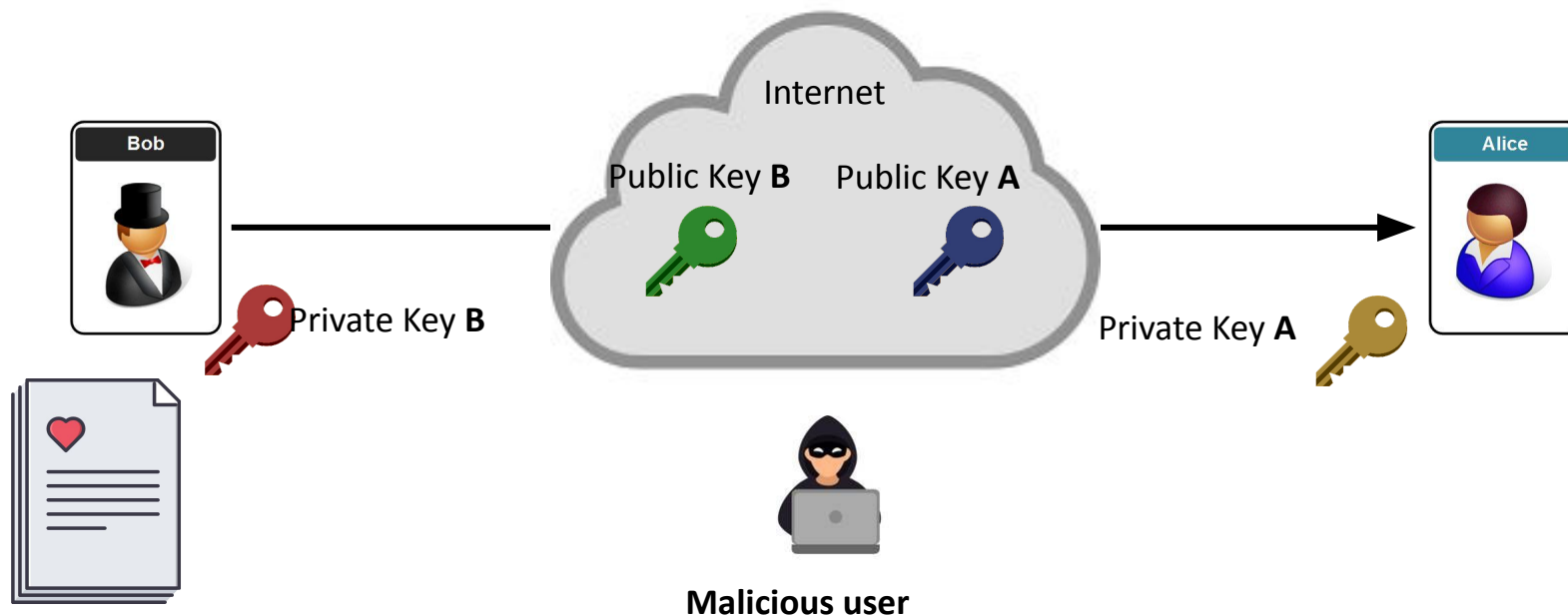


First implementation of
Digital Signature

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

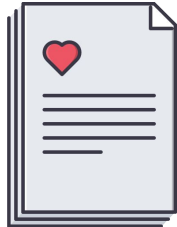
Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify

Step 1 :

Bob encrypts the document with his private key.

Thereby signing the document.

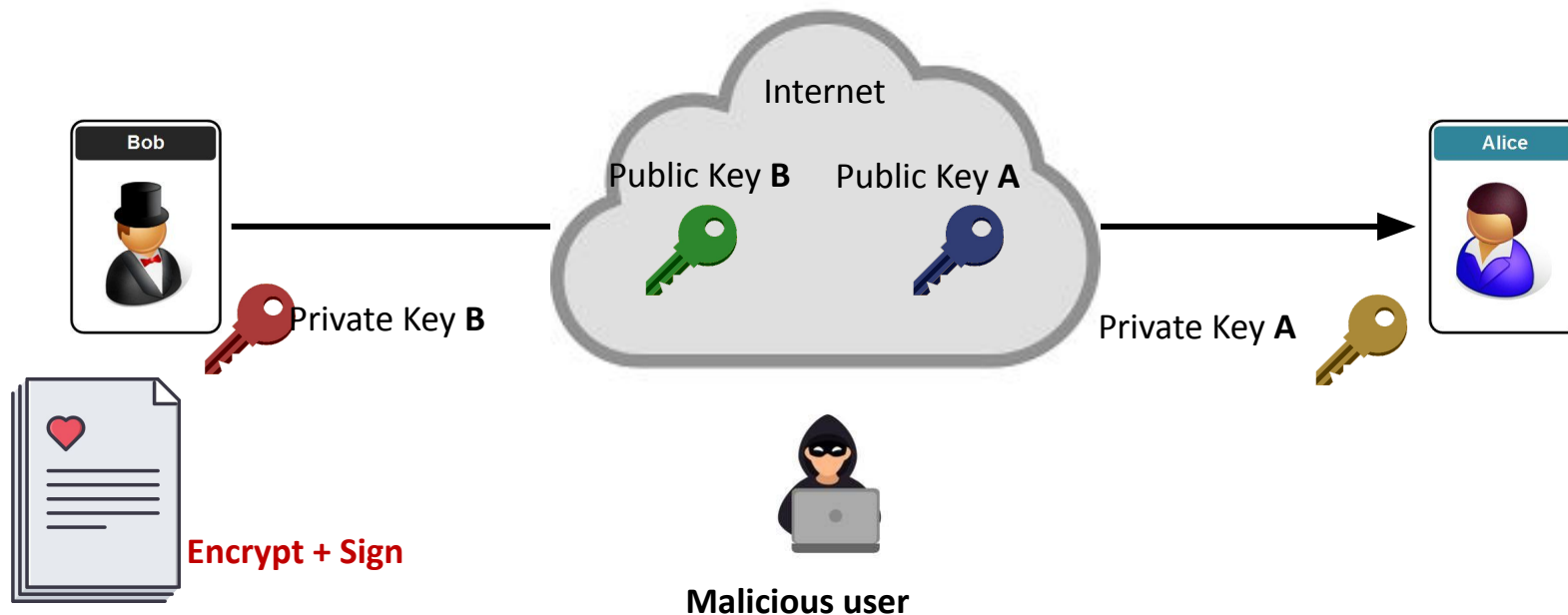


Malicious user

1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

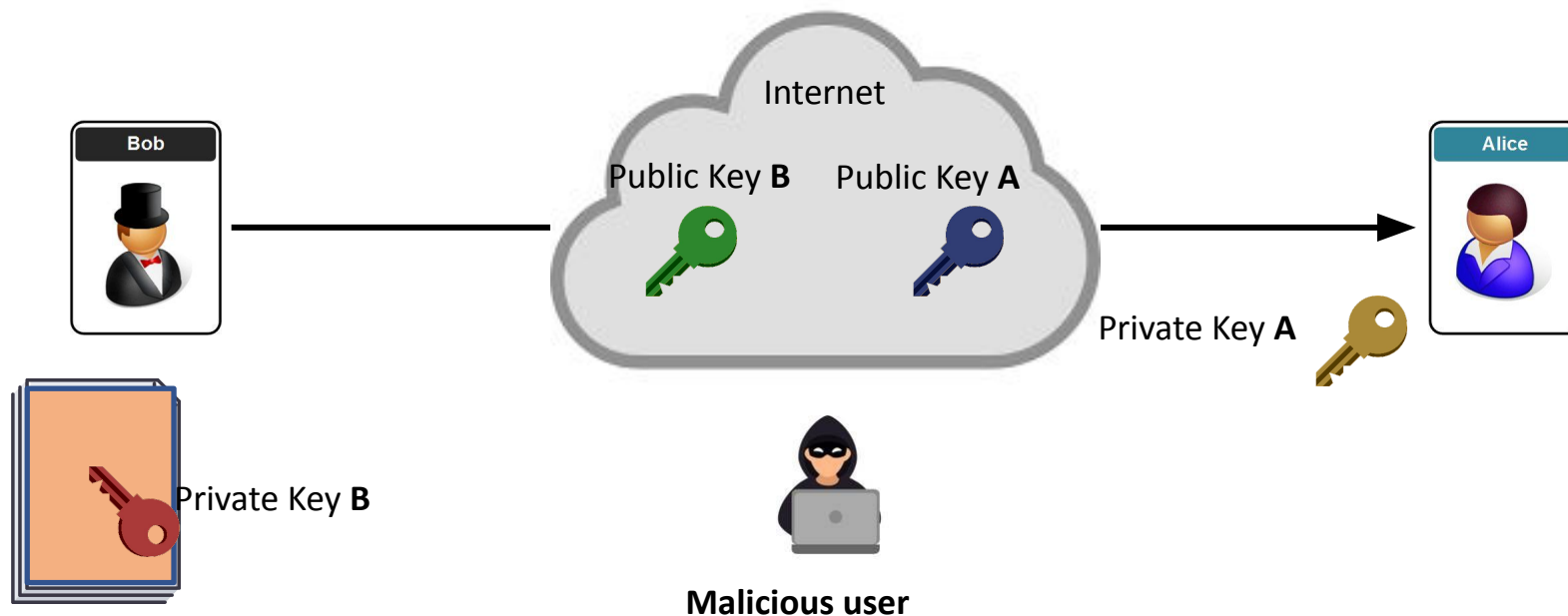
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

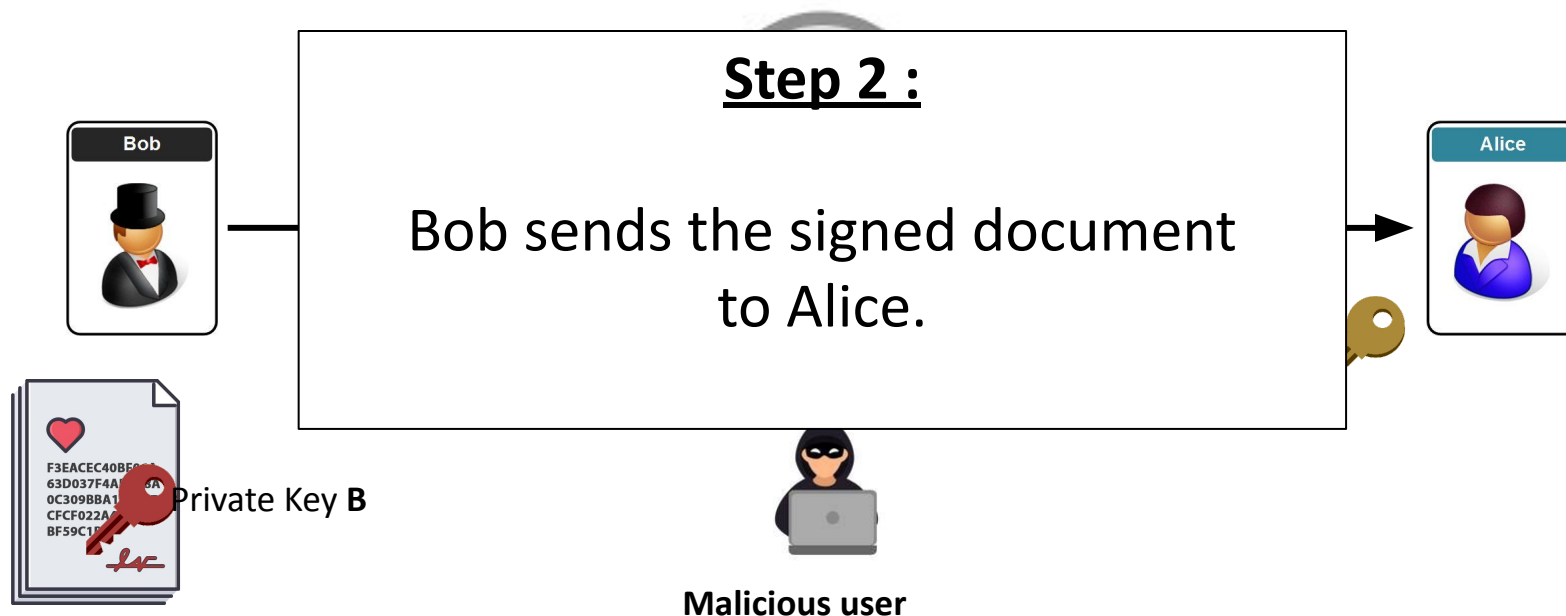
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

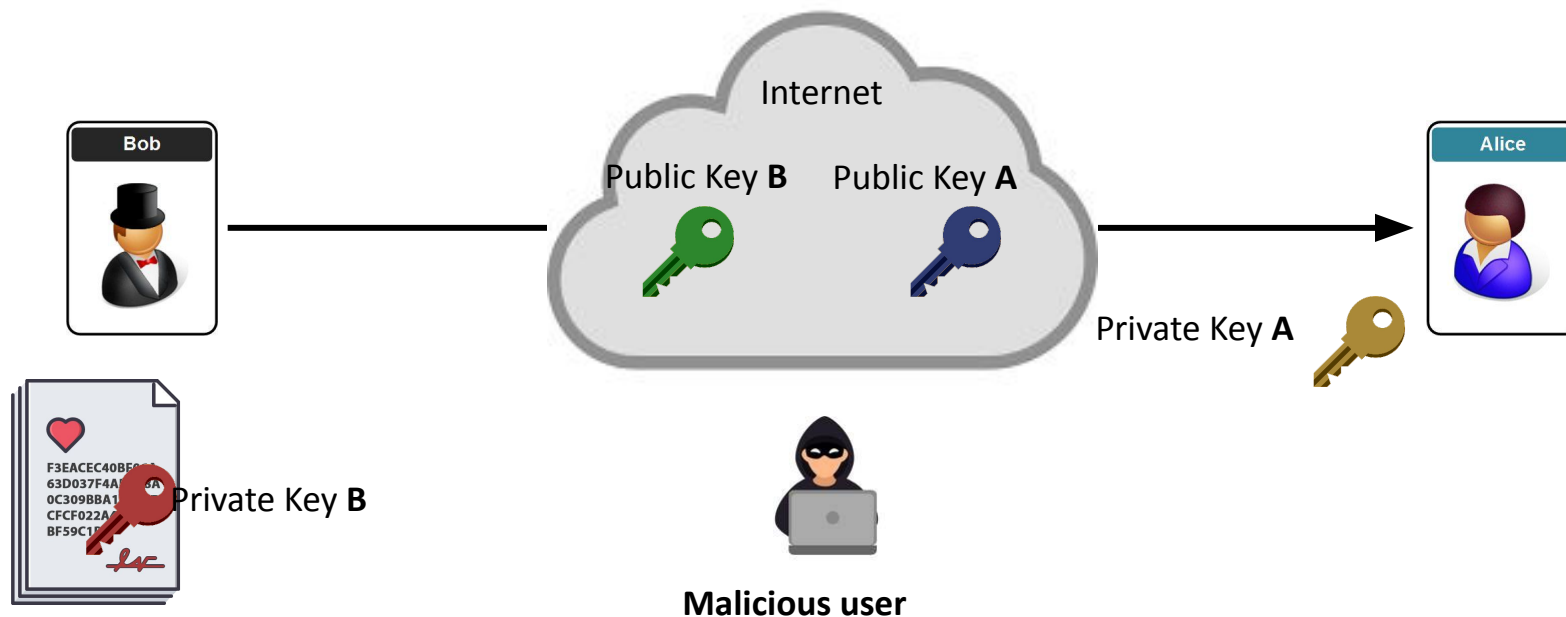
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

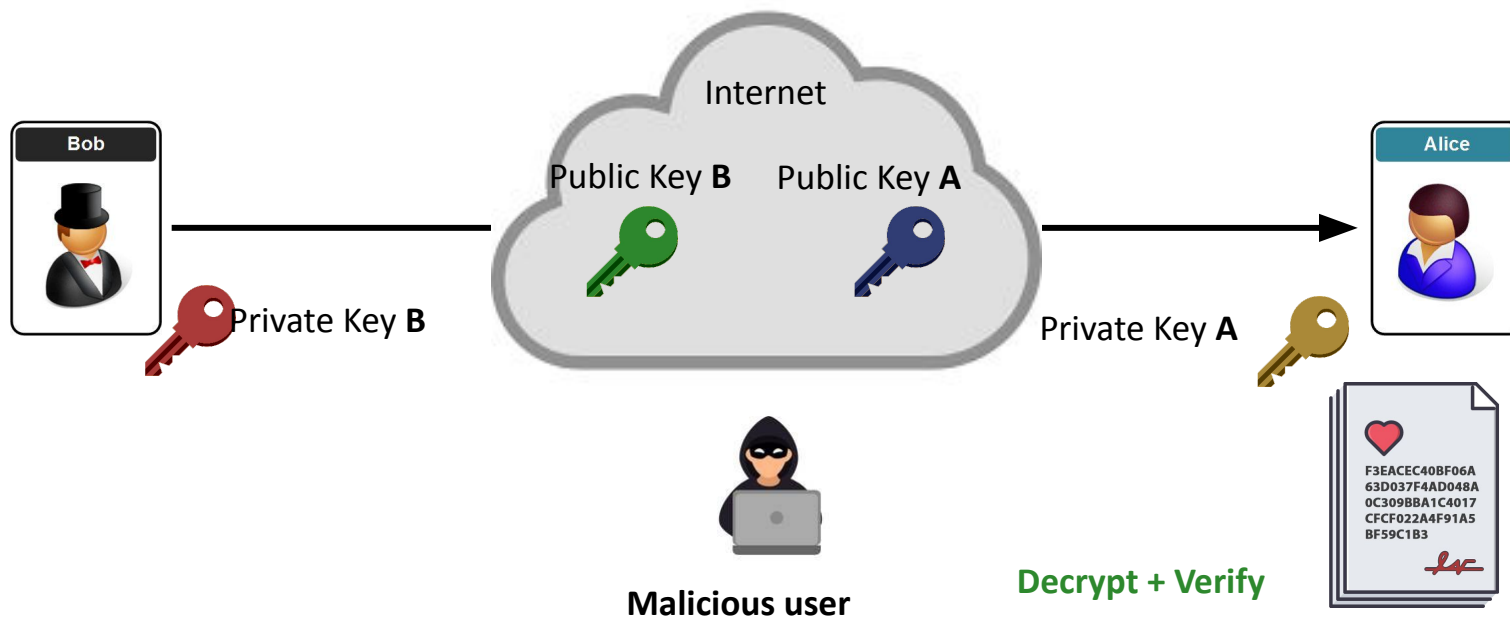
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

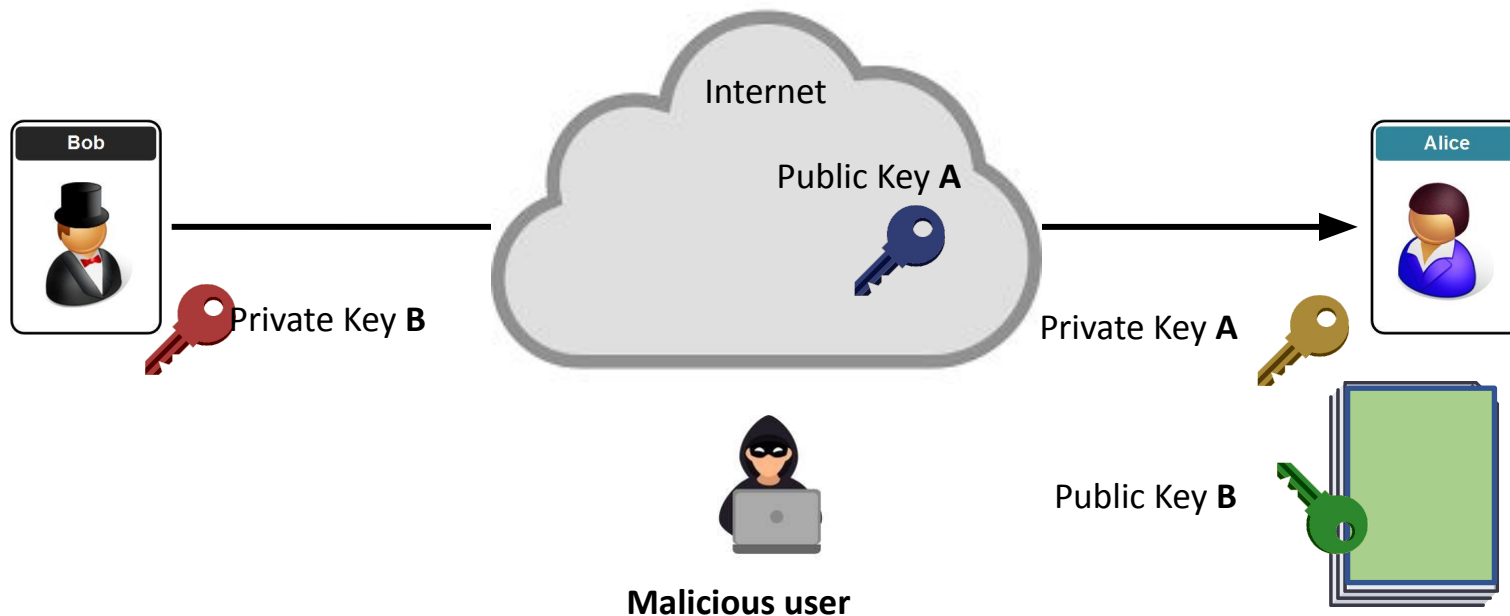
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



1970's

Secure Communication over Insecure Channel

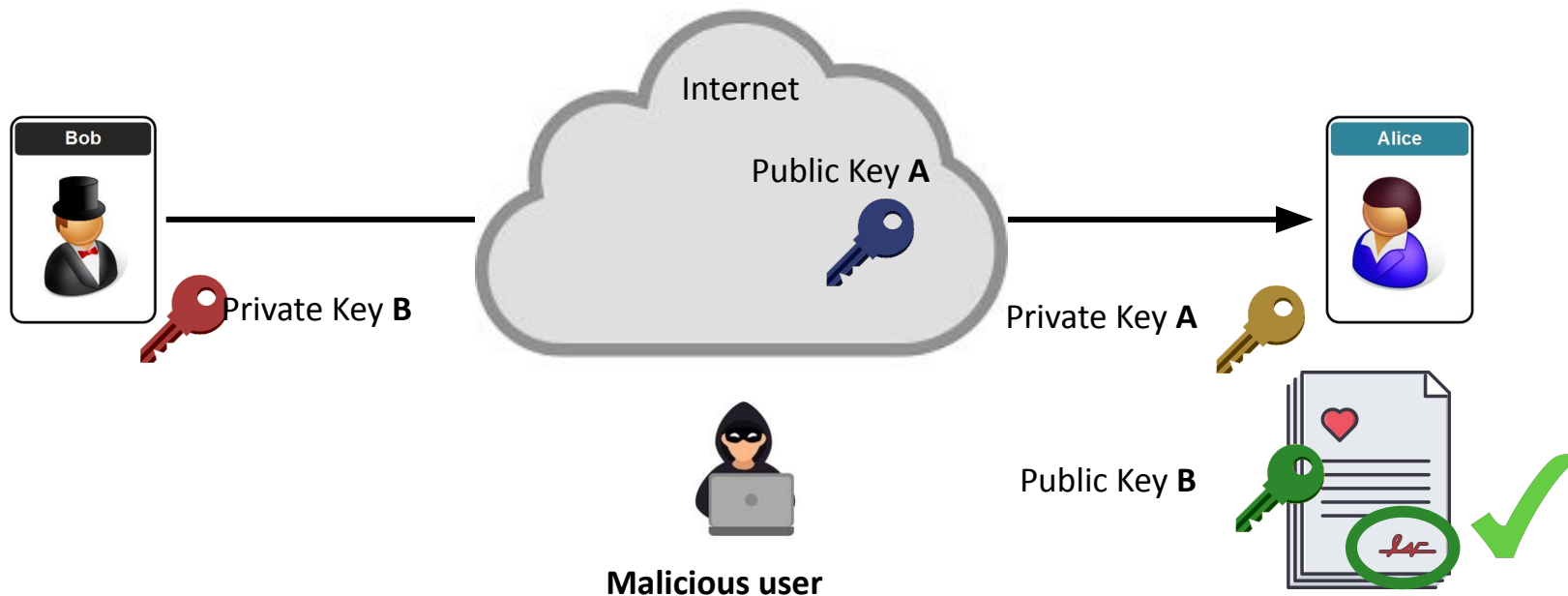
Digital Signature : Encrypt > Sign > Decrypt > Verify



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 messag.
- **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

Digital Signature
Rivest, Shamir and Adelman

1979

*Hash Functions
(Merkle Tree)*
Ralph Merkle



Ralph Merkle

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

<https://www.merkle.com>

1970's

Cryptography

TimeStamping



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

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



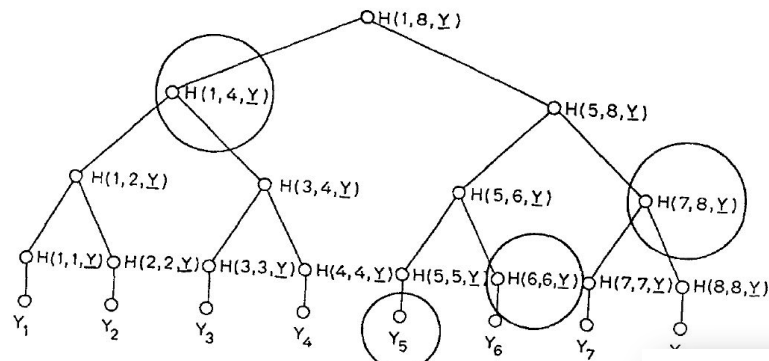
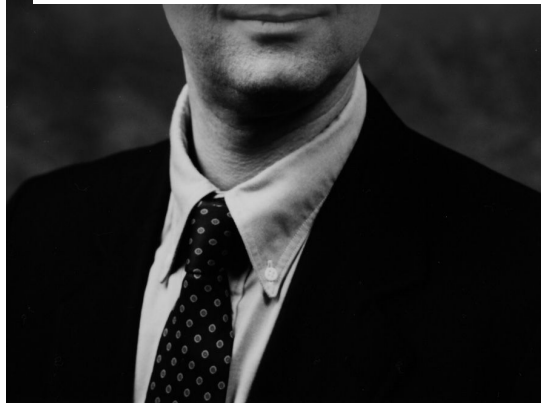


FIG. 1

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.
- [4] D. Bayer, S. Haber, W.S. Stornetta, "Improving the efficiency and reliability of digital time-stamping," In *Sequences II: Methods in Communication, Security and Computer Science*, pages 329-334, 1993.
- [5] S. Haber, W.S. Stornetta, "Secure names for bit-strings," In *Proceedings of the 4th ACM Conference on Computer and Communications Security*, pages 28-35, April 1997.
- [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

Output

Hash(**L**oughborough)

↑
“ | “ **upper** case



acb208d3ac02ab6d5a4...

Hash(**l**oughborough)

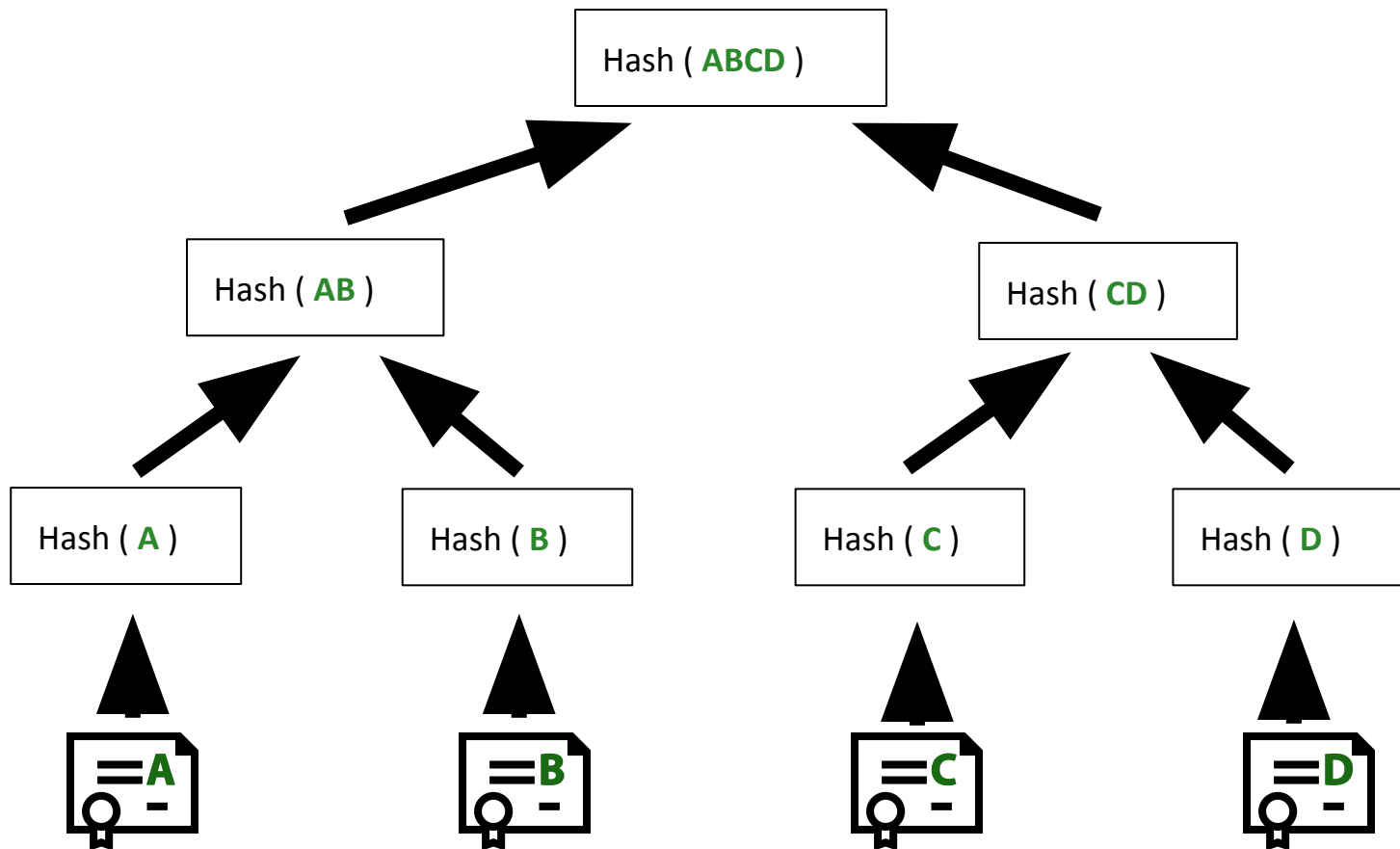
↑
“ | “ **lower** case



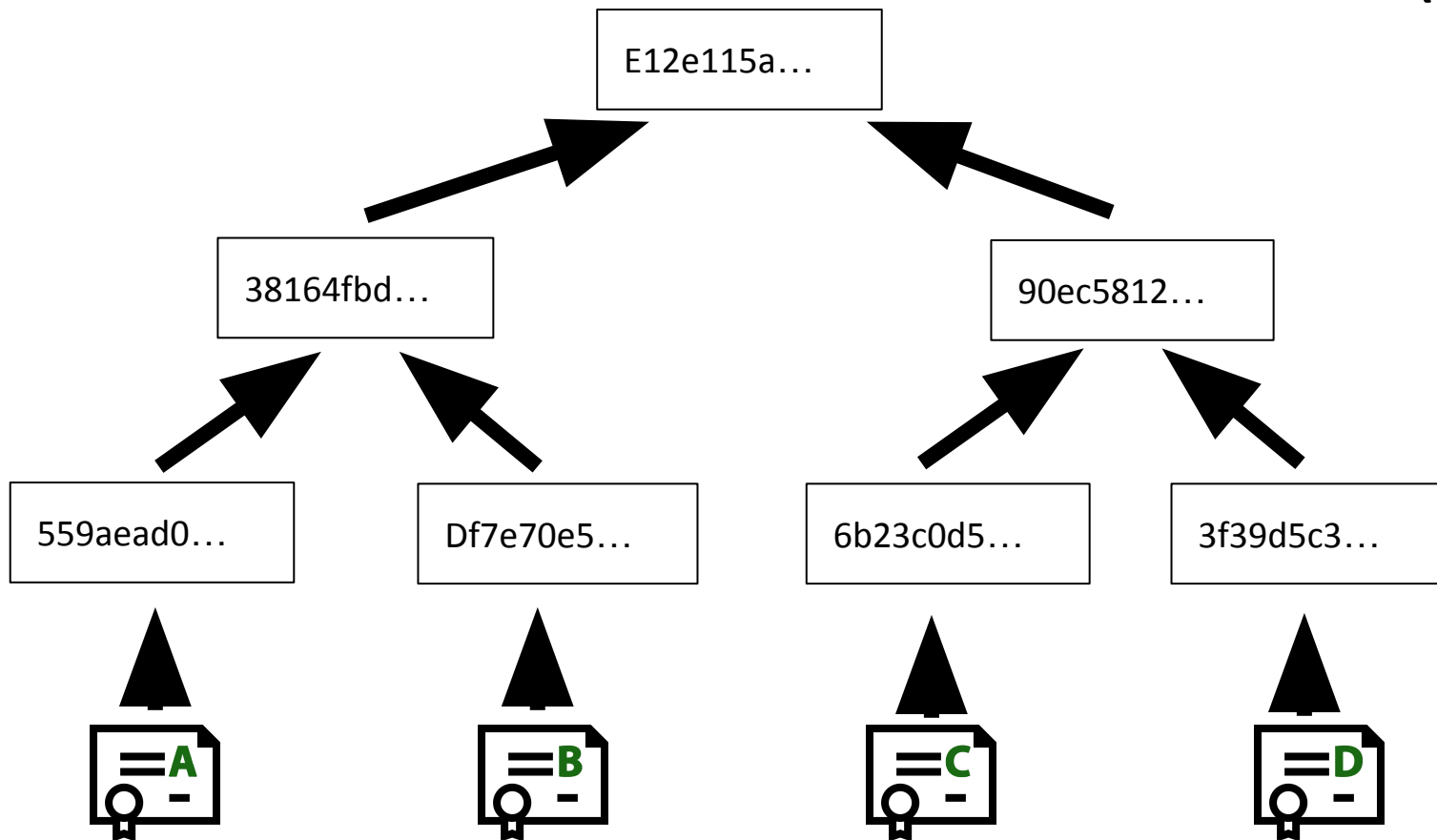
1c2cc85d86f480bca5df0...

A small change changes the whole digital fingerprint

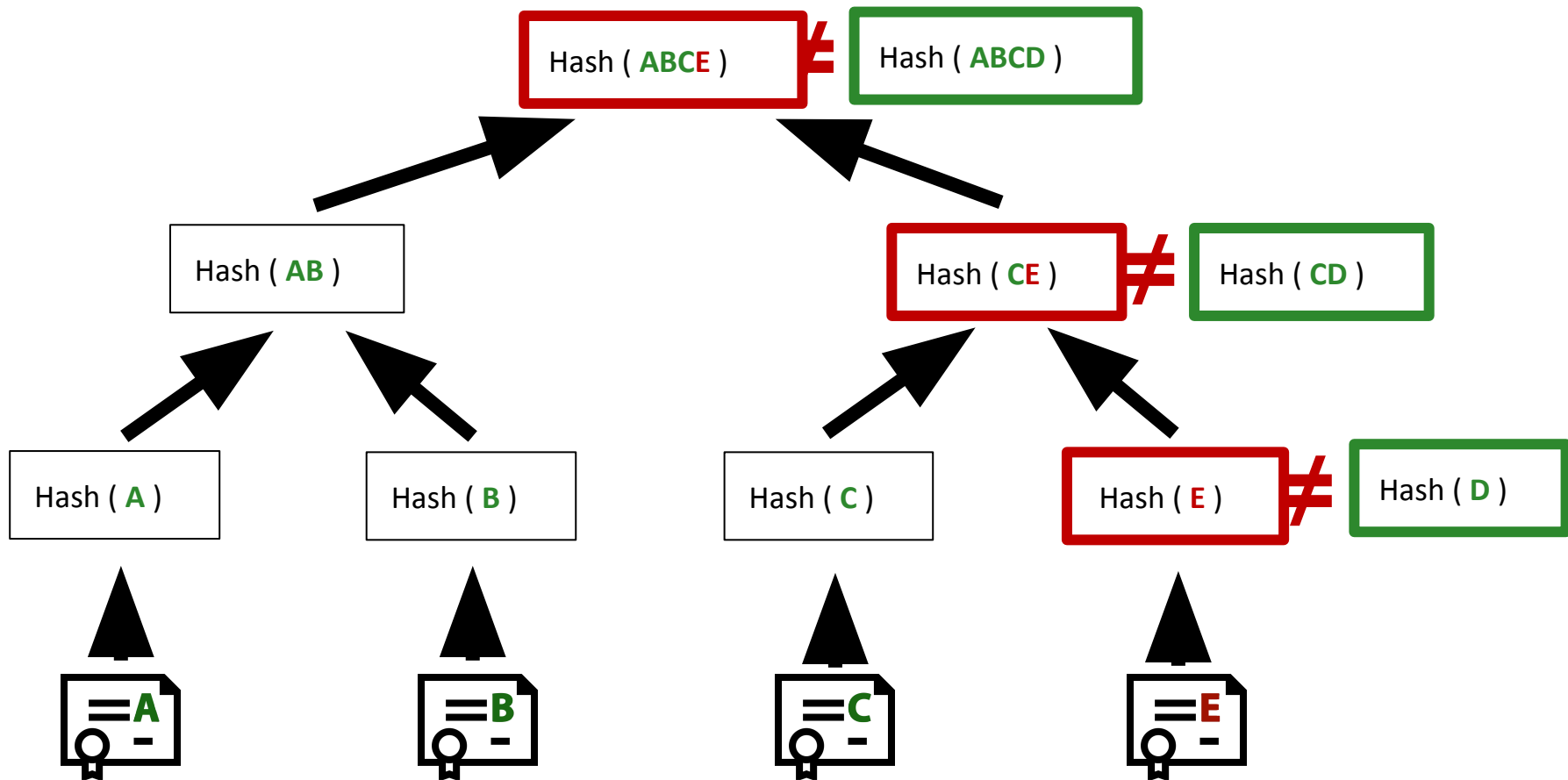
Merkle Tree (the basic)



Merkle Tree (the basic)



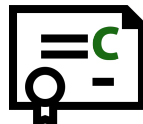
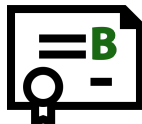
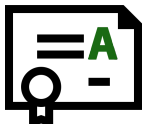
Merkle Tree (the basic)



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...

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

The development of

- Electronic cash
- Timestamping
- P2P Systems
- Consensus systems

1980's



1983

*Blind Signature for
Untraceable
Payments*
David Chaum

E-Cash

BLIND SIGNATURES FOR UNTRACEABLE PAYMENTS

David Chaum

Department of Computer Science
University of California
Santa Barbara, CA

INTRODUCTION

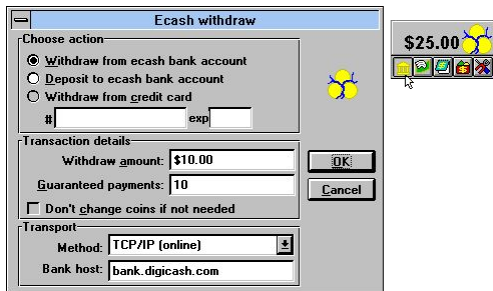
Automation of the way we pay for goods and services is already underway, as can be seen by the variety and growth of electronic banking services available to consumers. The ultimate structure of the new electronic payments system may have a substantial impact on personal privacy as well as on the nature 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:

E-Cash



1983

*Blind Signature for
Untraceable
Payments*
David Chaum



Starts with
online transactions

1980's

Untraceable Electronic Cash
Chaum, Fiat and Naor



Extends to
Offline
payments

1988

David Chaum
founds 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

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

1992

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

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

1991

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

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



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.
- [4] D. Bayer, S. Haber, W.S. Stornetta, "Improving the efficiency and reliability of digital time-stamping," In *Sequences II: Methods in Communication, Security and Computer Science*, pages 329-334, 1993.
- [5] S. Haber, W.S. Stornetta, "Secure names for bit-strings," In *Proceedings of the 4th ACM Conference on Computer and Communications Security*, pages 28-35, April 1997.
- [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.



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

Consensus Algorithm



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

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

1992

1991

1993

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

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

Pricing via Processing or Combatting Junk Mail*

Cynthia Dwork *

Moni Naor †

Abstract

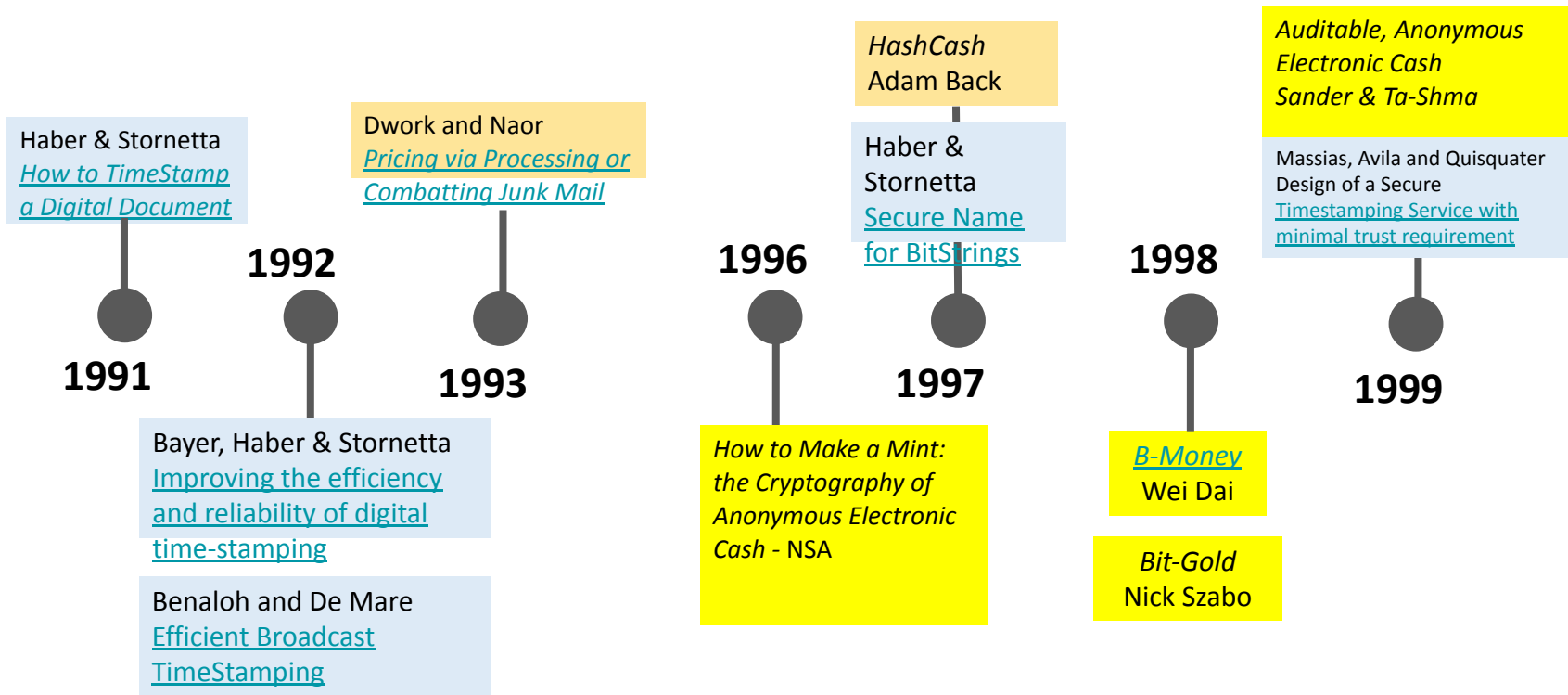
We present a computational technique for combatting junk mail, in particular, and controlling access to a shared resource, in general. The main idea is to require a user to compute a moderately hard, but not intractable, function in order to gain access to the resource, thus preventing frivolous use. 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

Electronic cash

TimeStamping

Consensus Algorithm

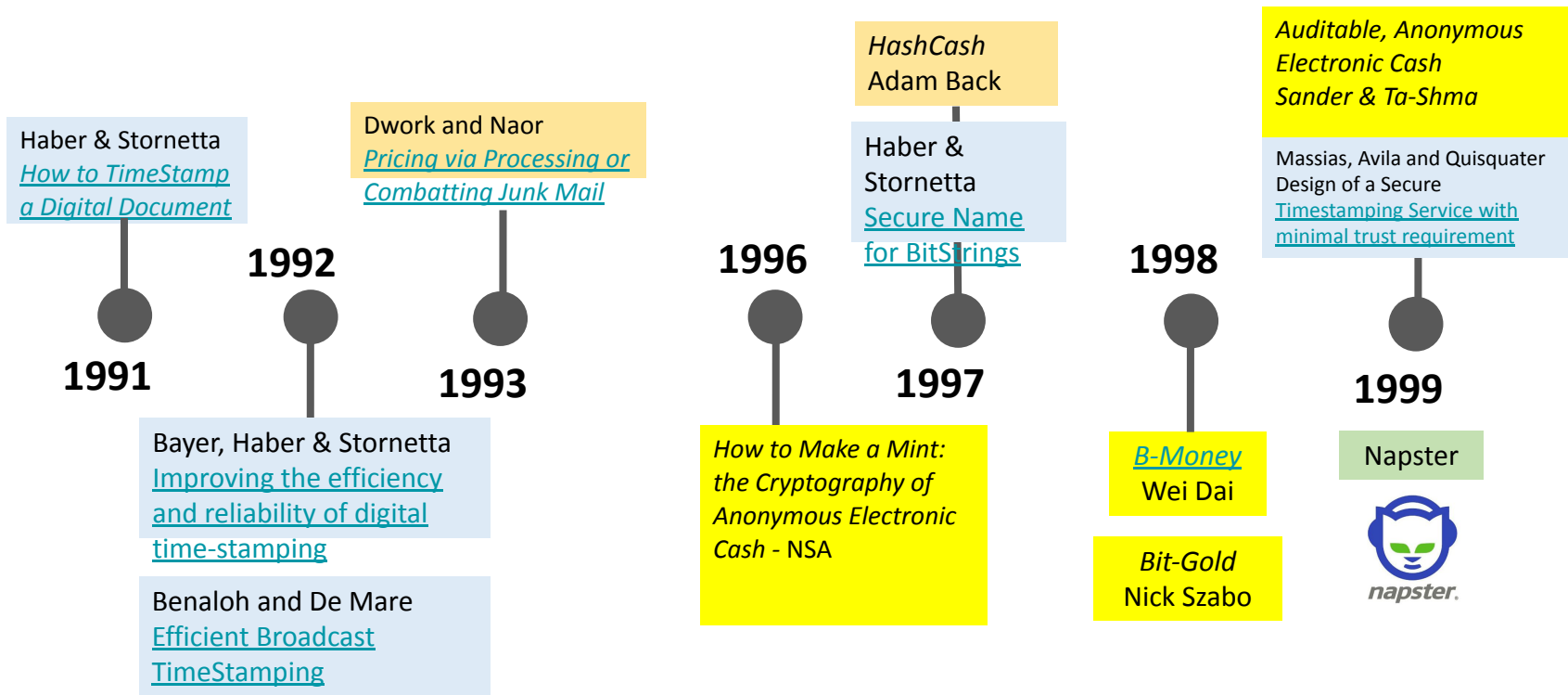


1990's

Electronic cash

TimeStamping

Consensus Algorithm



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

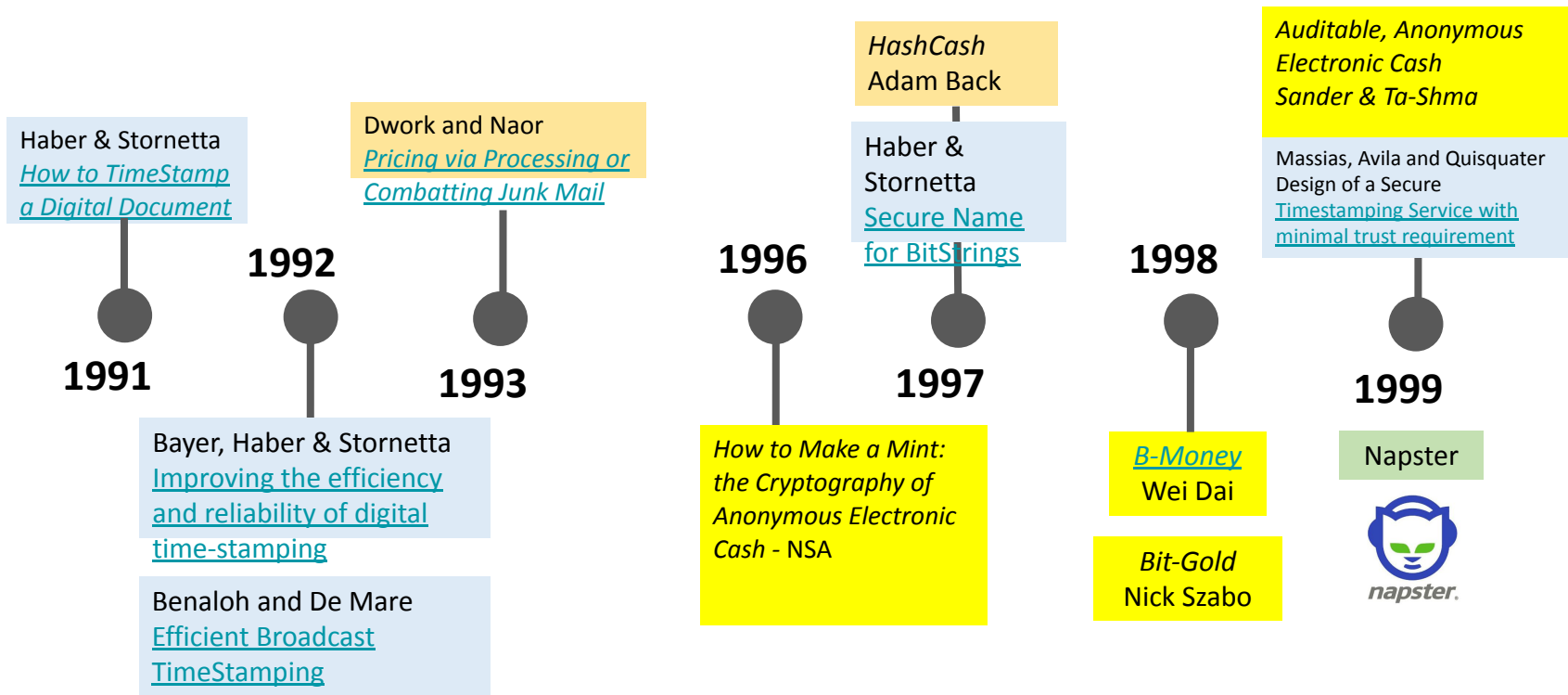


1990's

Electronic cash

TimeStamping

Consensus Algorithm





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/>)



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

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

b-money

"A community is defined by the cooperation of its participants, and efficient cooperation requires a medium of exchange (money) and a way to enforce contracts. Traditionally these services have been provided by the government or government sponsored institutions and only to legal entities. In this article I describe a protocol by which these services can be provided to and by untraceable entities." - Wei Dai 1998

b-money core concepts

- Requires a specified amount of computational work (Hashcash algorithm)
- The work done is verified by the community who update a collective ledger book.
- The worker is awarded funds for their effort.
- Exchange of funds is accomplished by collective book keeping and authenticated with cryptographic hashes.
- Contracts are enforced through the broadcast and signing of transactions with digital signatures (i.e., public key cryptography).

Blockchain key events since 2009

2014 - Ethereum created

2017 - ICO hype

2018 - Crypto winter

2020 - DeFi summer

2021 - NFTs

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

Next lesson

Blockchain Theory 2