Bitcoin, a decentralized and trustless protocol

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1 Motivation
- Introduction
- Questions

2 Some Required Basics

3 Transactions

4 The Bitcoin Protocol

5 Alternatives to proof-of-work

6 Even cooler stuff

Motivation

In 2008, an anonymous programmer going by the pseudonym of Satoshi Nakamoto invented Bitcoin, a decentralized digital payment protocol without third party which is also a currency.

Bitcoin: A Peer-to-Peer Electronic Cash System

Satoshi Nakamoto
satoshin@gmx.com
www.bitcoin.org

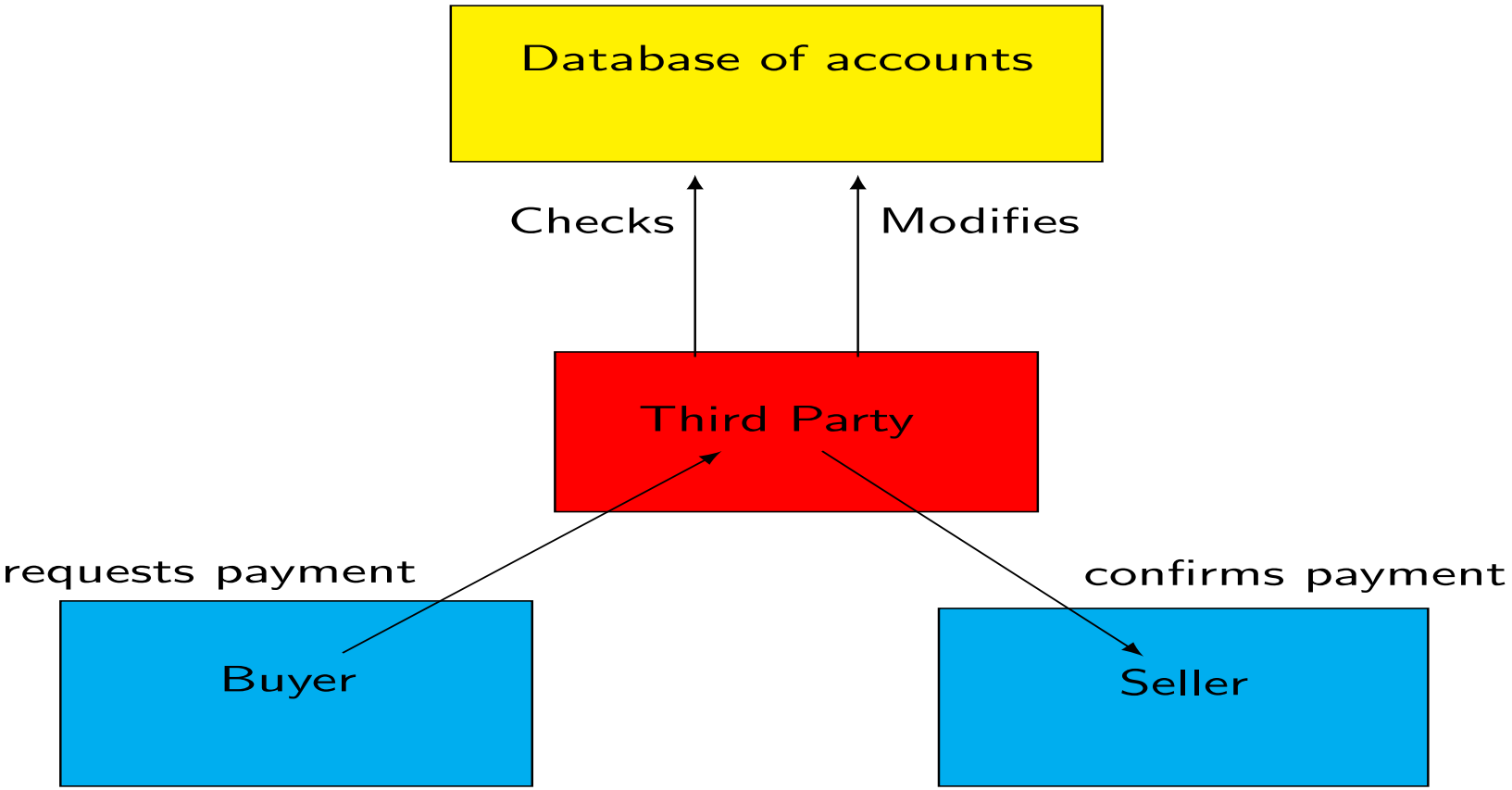
Abstract. A purely peer-to-peer version of electronic cash would allow online payments to be sent directly from one party to another without going through a financial institution. Digital signatures provide part of the solution, but the main benefits are lost if a trusted third party is still required to prevent double-spending. We propose a solution to the double-spending problem using a peer-to-peer network. The network timestamps transactions by hashing them into an ongoing chain of hash-based proof-of-work, forming a record that cannot be changed without redoing the proof-of-work. The longest chain not only serves as proof of the sequence of events witnessed, but proof that it came from the largest pool of CPU power. As long as a majority of CPU power is controlled by nodes that are not cooperating to attack the network, they'll generate the longest chain and outpace attackers. The network itself requires minimal structure. Messages are broadcast on a best effort basis, and nodes can leave and rejoin the network at will, accepting the longest proof-of-work chain as proof of what happened while they were gone.

1. Introduction

Commerce on the Internet has come to rely almost exclusively on financial institutions serving as trusted third parties to process electronic payments. While the system works well enough for most transactions, it still suffers from the inherent weaknesses of the trust based model. Completely non-reversible transactions are not really possible, since financial institutions cannot

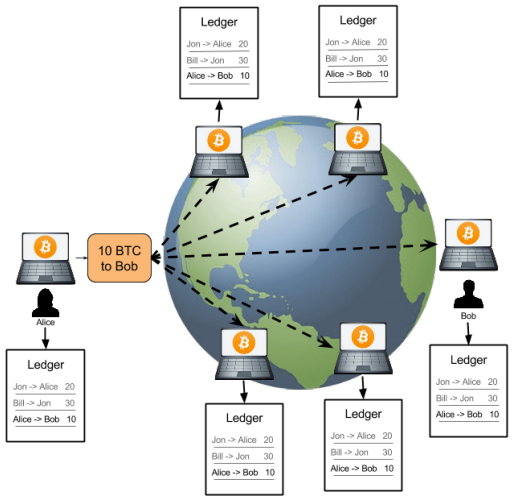
Why decentralized?

How do other digital payment networks work?



What does Bitcoin do differently?

- Bitcoin uses peer-to-peer technology to operate with no central authority or banks;
- Managing transactions and the issuing of bitcoins is carried out collectively by the network;
- It is open-source; its design is public, nobody owns or controls Bitcoin and everyone can take part.



Potential advantages

- An open protocol allows for innovation
- No censorship (example: Wikileaks)
- Instantaneous transactions across the globe
- Transactions are cheap
- Robust against attacks
- With unique properties, Bitcoin allows for exciting uses that could not be covered by any previous payment system.

Some of the questions we have to address

Let's put ourselves in Satoshi's shoes for a moment when designing Bitcoin:

- How do we get consensus between all the peers?
- How does the protocol prevent someone from spending someone else's bitcoins?
- How does the protocol prevent 'double spend'?
- How are bitcoins created?

1 Motivation

2 Some Required Basics
- Cryptographic Hashing Functions
- Some uses of hash functions
- Dual Key Cryptography

3 Transactions

4 The Bitcoin Protocol

5 Alternatives to proof-of-work

6 Even cooler stuff

Hashing functions

Let U be a universe of keys and n be an integer. A hashing function is a function

$$h : U \to \{0, \cdots, n-1\}$$

Another way to say it:
It maps digital data of possibly arbitrary size to digital data of fixed size.

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It maps digital data of possibly arbitrary size to digital data of fixed size.

Example: $SHA256 : \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1,\cdots,2^{256}-1\}$ maps any sequence of bits to a binary integer of size 256.
SHA256("bitcoin")=
6b88c087247aa2f07ee1c5956b8e1a9f4c7f892a70e324f1bb3d161e05ca107b
(hex)

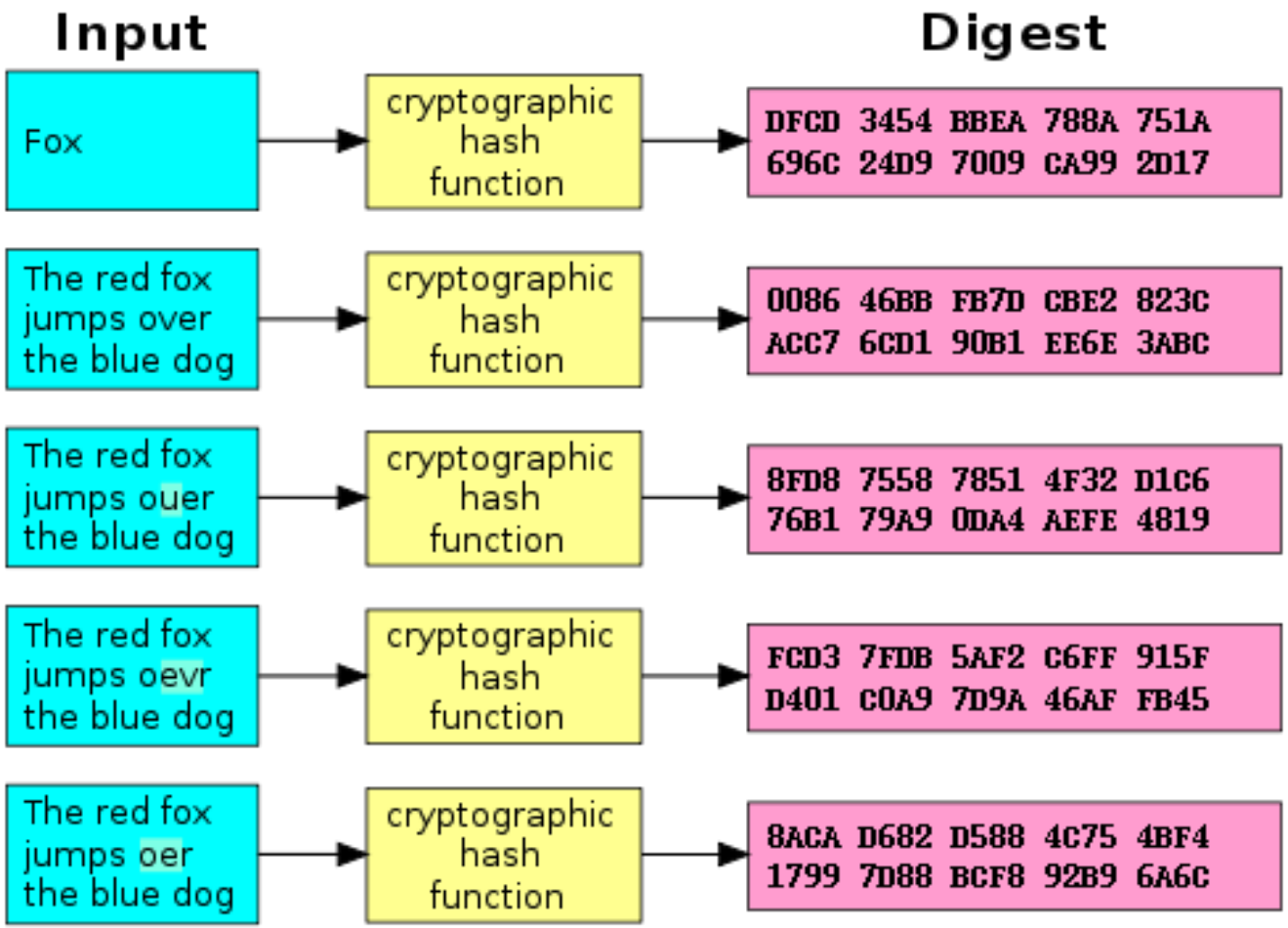
Cryptographic Hashing Functions

Cryptographic Hashing Functions are hashing functions with the following informal properties:

- h is "easy" to compute.
- h^{-1} is "hard" to compute in the sense that there is no better way to find an antecedent to $y \in \{0,1\}^n$ than to try all inputs;
- It is infeasible to modify an x without dramatically changing $h(x)$;
- It is infeasible to find $x \neq y$ such that $h(x) = h(y)$.

From now on, by "hash" we mean "cryptographic hash".

Illustration (SHA1)



Unique identifier

For all intents and purposes, a hash of a file can be thought of as a unique digital identifier of this file, i.e morally 'if two files have the same hash, they are identical'.[1]

[1] An analogy to explain this to non computer scientists could be a fingerprint: it does not describe a human being, but it only matches a specific person.

Some uses

Here we think of h as

$$h : \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^n$$

Some uses of cryptographic hash functions are:

- Checking that a file has not been tampered with or corrupted during a transfer. *Hash of torbrowser : a06ad5dbbfe4f53e49edb4064cfbe275727b1e98*
- Keeping someone busy for a certain amount of time (see next slide)
- Proving knowledge of information without disclosing it (application of Bitcoin). *I know the answer to the math homework but I won't tell you, here is the proof: 3d902580c053c4edb2ccdc3edb7c70806ed03bb4*

Proof of work

Application of CHF to limit spam: make someone work *at least a certain amount of time* (on average)[2].

Suppose x, d are integers.

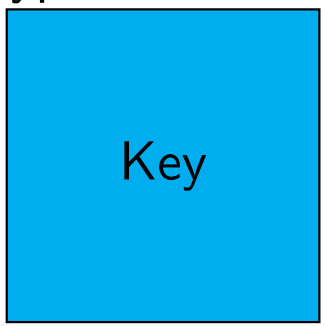
How much time does it take to find a y such that $h(x, y) \leq d$ (easier to reason with: starts with at least z zeroes)?.
Answer: exponential time in z (or in $256 - \log_2(d)$ if the output size is 256).

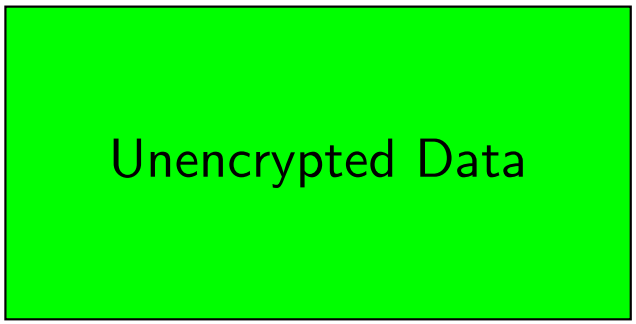
If you know someone's number of hashes per second, you can make them work for an amount of time of your choice!

[2] if it takes 1 second to send an email, it's fine; if you want to send a billion emails, not so fine, even with several cores..

Single Key Encryption

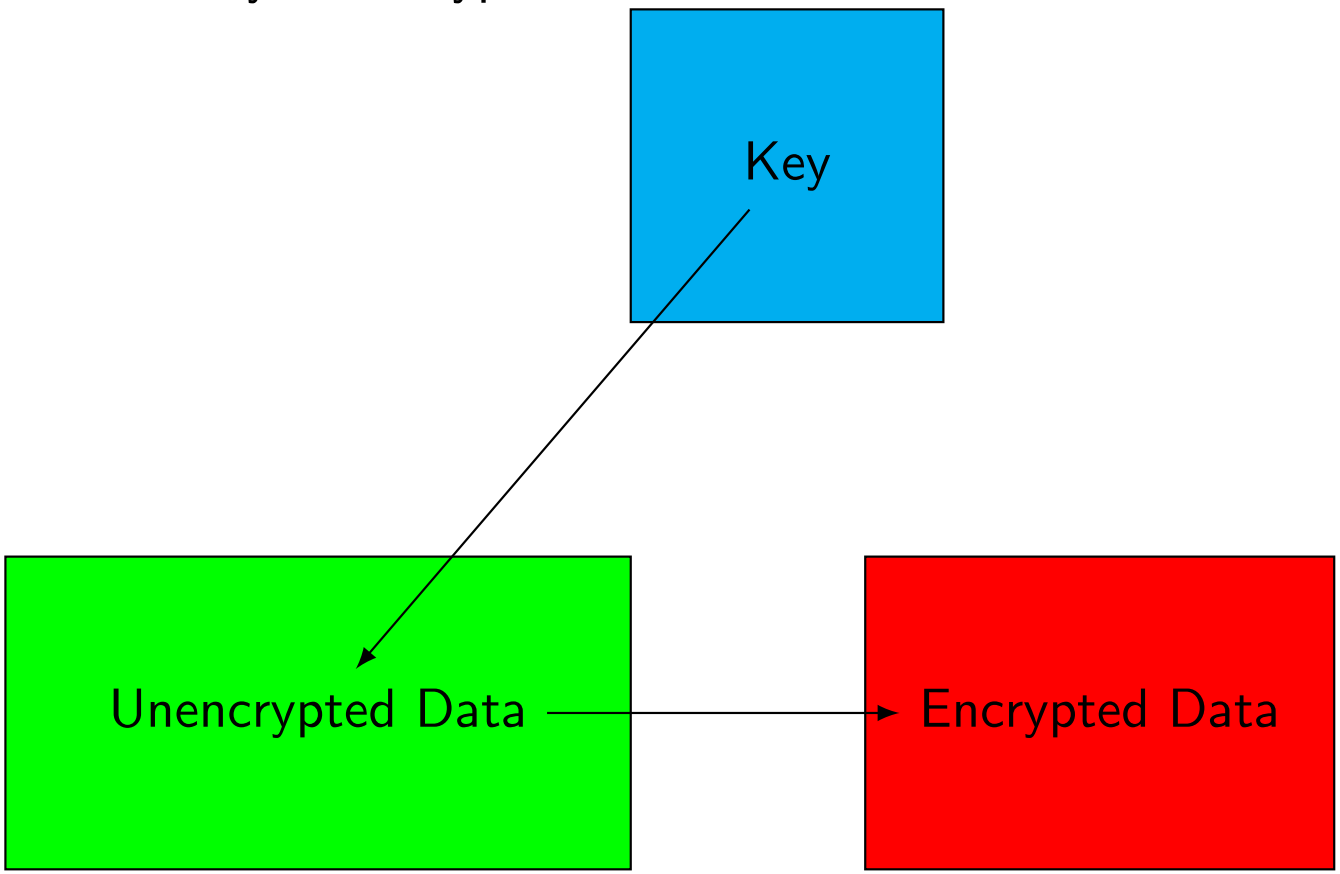
Principle: use a key to encrypt data.





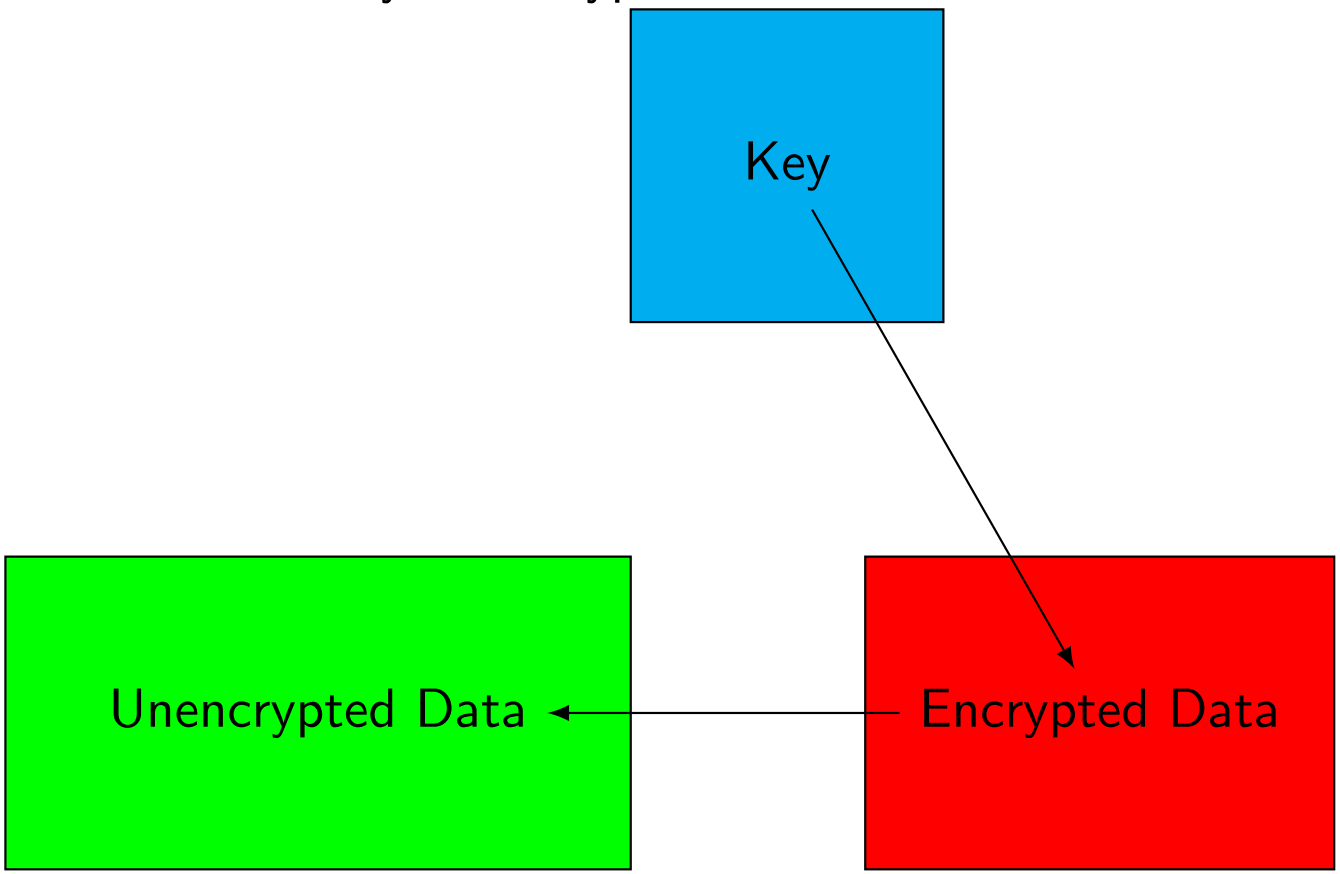
Single Key Encryption

Use the key to encrypt.



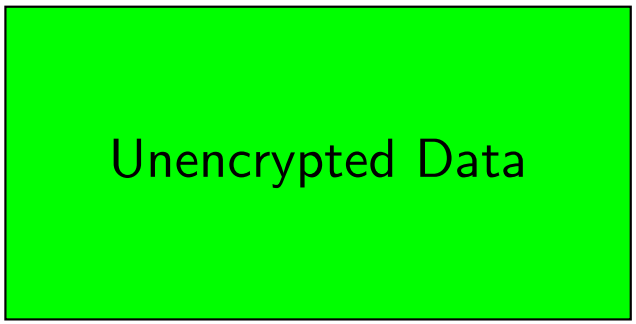
Single Key Encryption

Use the same key to decrypt.



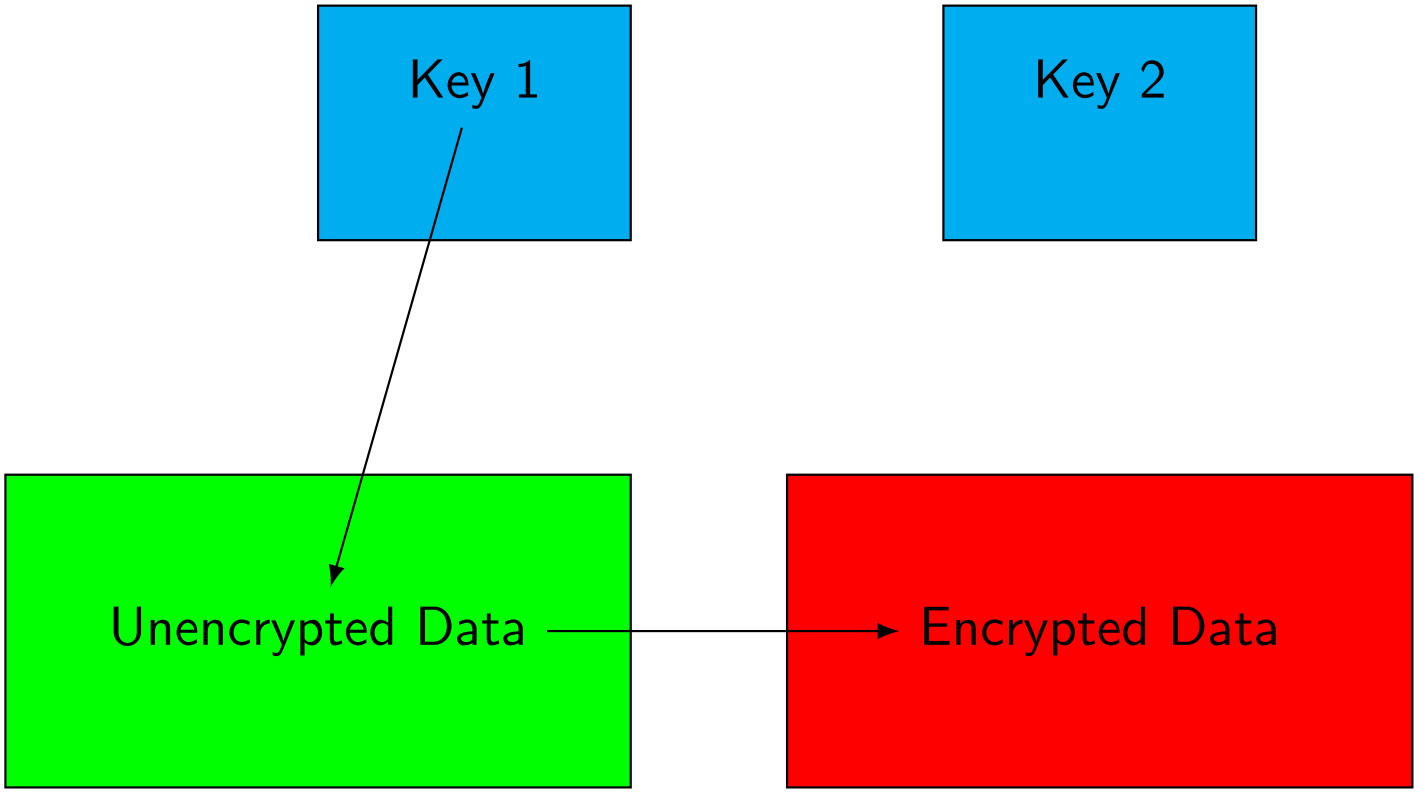
Dual Key Encryption

Now we have two keys, generated together.



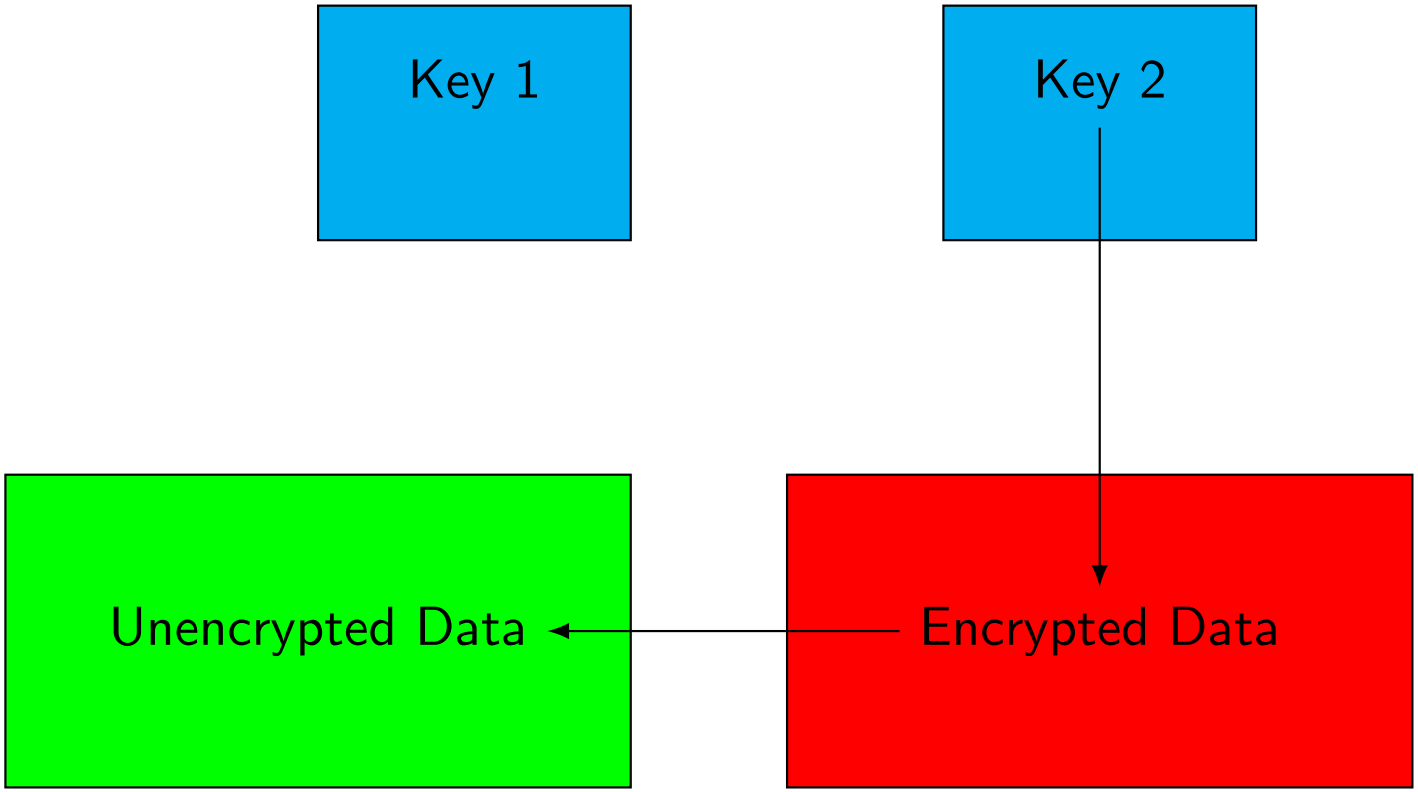
Dual Key Encryption

Encrypt with key 1.



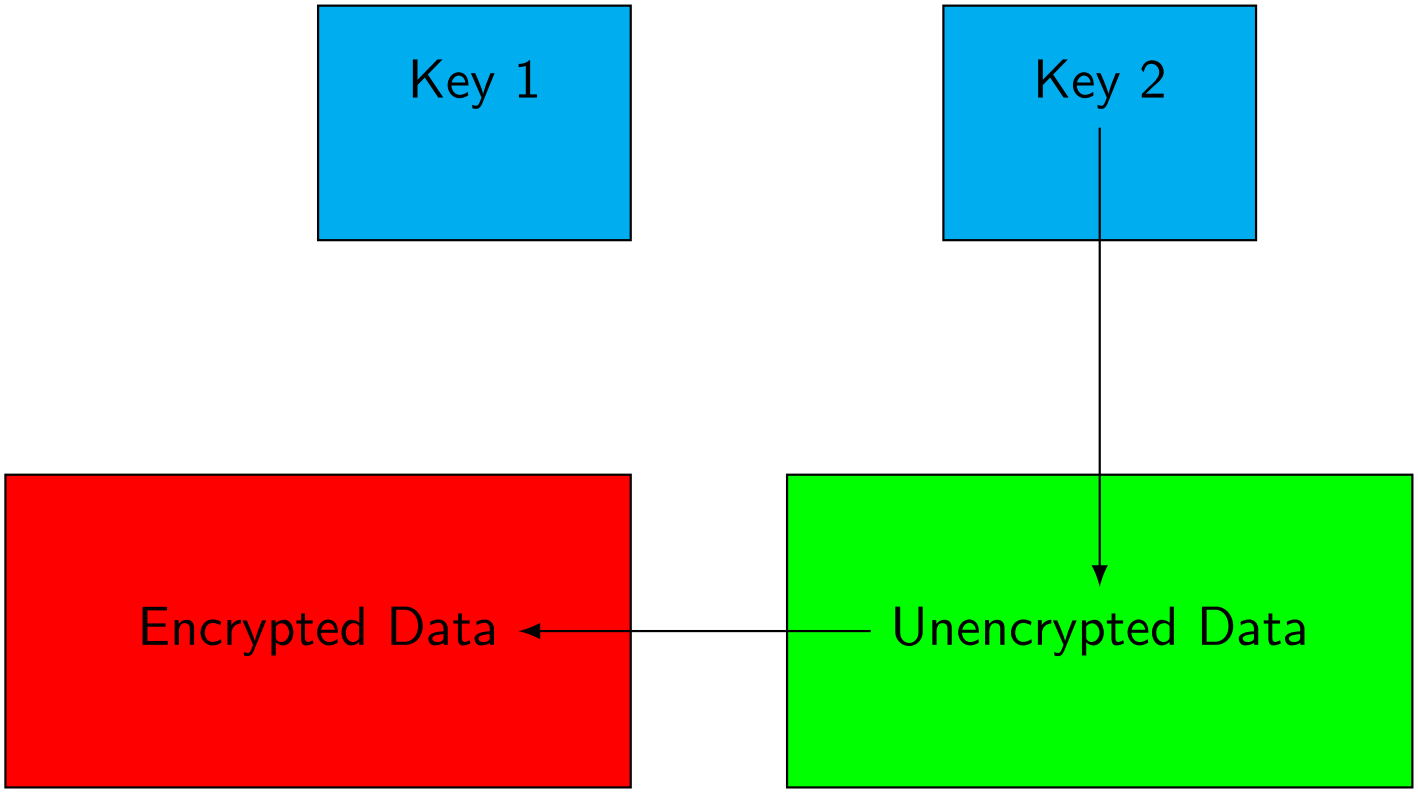
Dual Key Encryption

Decrypt with key 2.



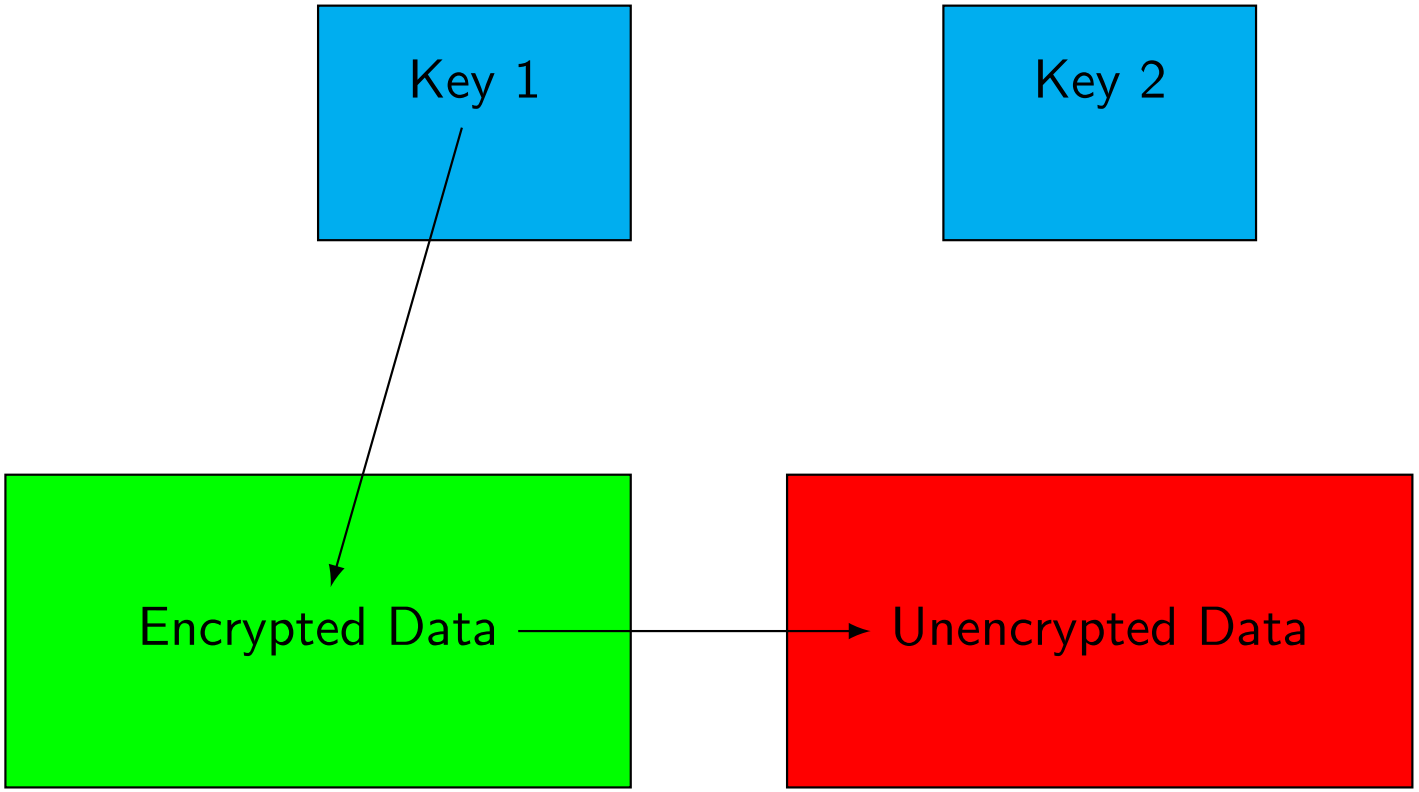
Dual Key Encryption

Or symmetrically, encrypt with key 2.



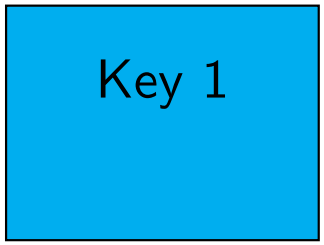
Dual Key Encryption

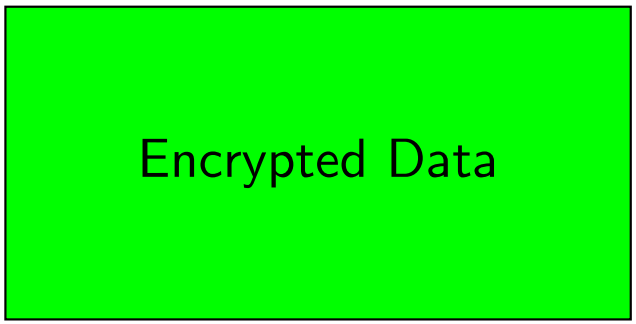
.. and then decrypt with key 1.

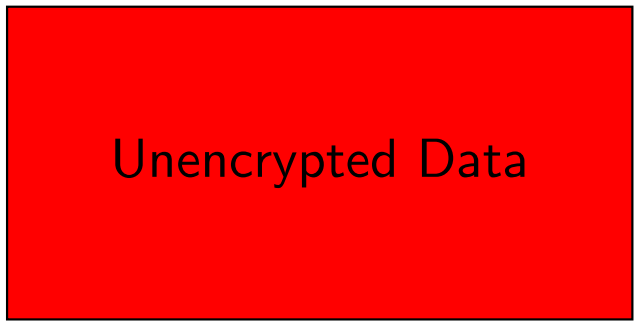


Dual Key Encryption

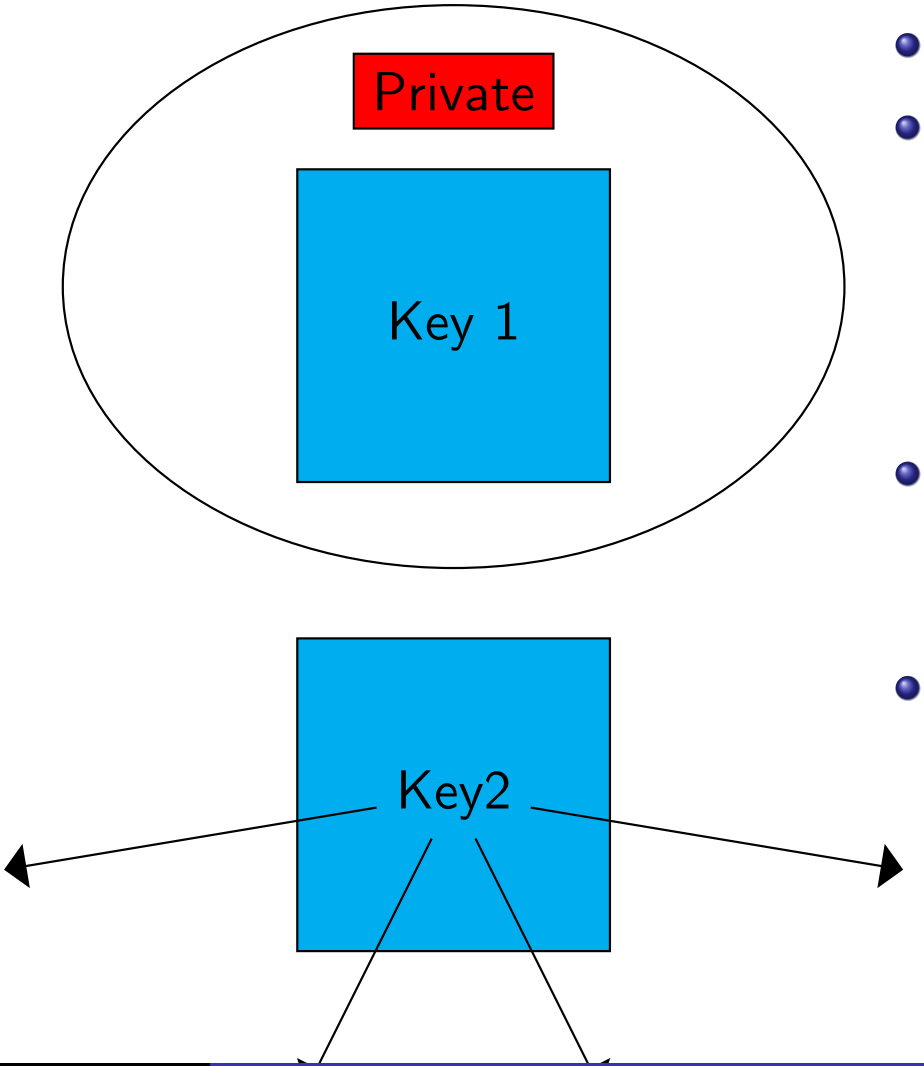
With only one key, you can't unencrypt your own data.







Public/Private Key



- Keys are still symmetrical;
- A private key is kept secret so that only you can read the messages you receive; even the person who wrote them cannot decrypt them later!
- Your public key is given out publicly so people can write to you.
- Encrypting with Key 1 is called **signing**: it certifies your **identity**.

1 Motivation

2 Some Required Basics

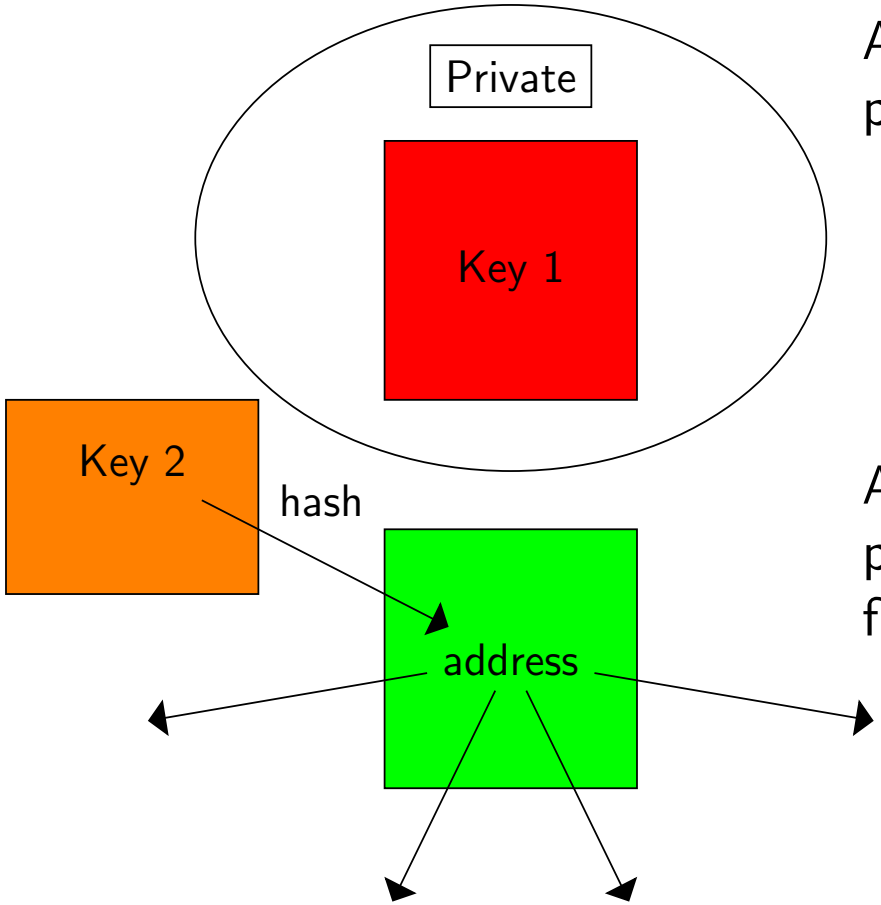
3 Transactions
- Application to transactions
- Creating and propagating transactions
- Structure of a transaction

4 The Bitcoin Protocol

5 Alternatives to proof-of-work

6 Even cooler stuff

Accounts and addresses



A Bitcoin account is a (private key, public key) pair.

A Bitcoin address is a hash of a public key, and is used to receive funds.

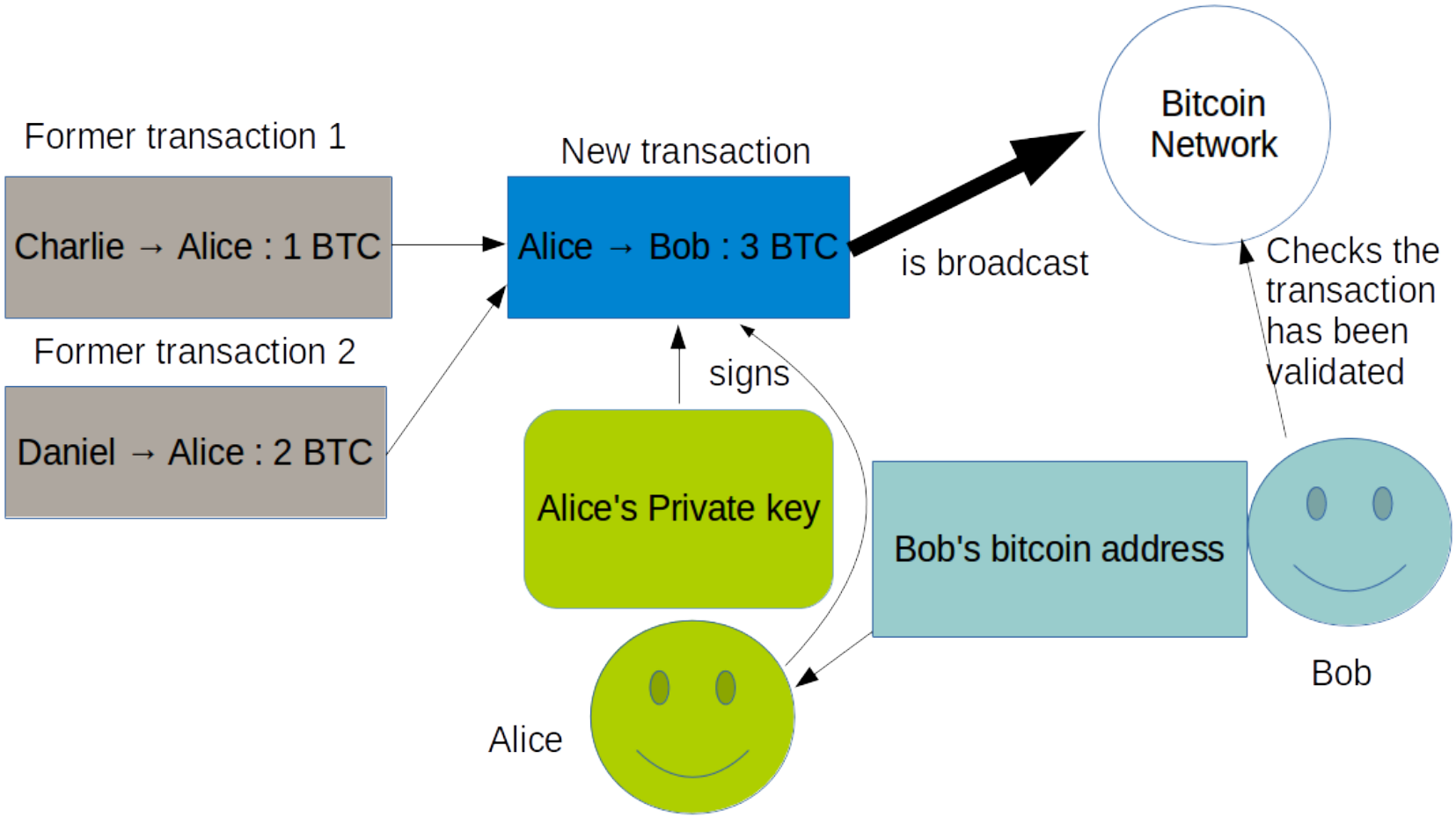
Creating transactions

A transaction is like a paper check:

- an instrument that expresses the intent to transfer money
- not visible to the financial system until it is submitted for execution
- The originator of the transaction does not have to be the one signing it.

Once a transaction has been created, it is signed by the owner (or owners) of the source funds. A valid transaction has to reach the bitcoin network in order to be integrated to the blockchain.

Principle of a transaction



Transaction inputs and ouptputs

The elementary building block of a bitcoin transaction is an *unspent transaction output*, or UTXO. An UTXO is composed of

- An amount of bitcoins
- A *locking script*: written in a non Turing-complete, stack-based programming language, expecting arguments, returning a boolean.
- To spend an UTXO, one must provide arguments which make this program return *true*.

More formally, what is a transaction?

- An input is a pointer to a UTXO. There are usually multiple inputs;
- Each output is a newly created UTXO;
- The sum of the outputs must be $\leq$ the sum of the inputs;
- The (positive) difference between the inputs and the outputs is a fee for the miners (incentive to process your transaction).

What is the expressiveness of transactions?

Transactions can express complex conditions.
They are not Turing-complete, but for example they can:

- talk about the time: 'this transaction is not redeemable until May 1^{st} 2017'
- use basic cryptographic primitives, basic math primitives 'this transaction is redeemable if you can decrypt this message'
- use hashing functions, among which SHA-256 : 'this transaction is redeemable to anyone producing an x such that $h(x) = y$'

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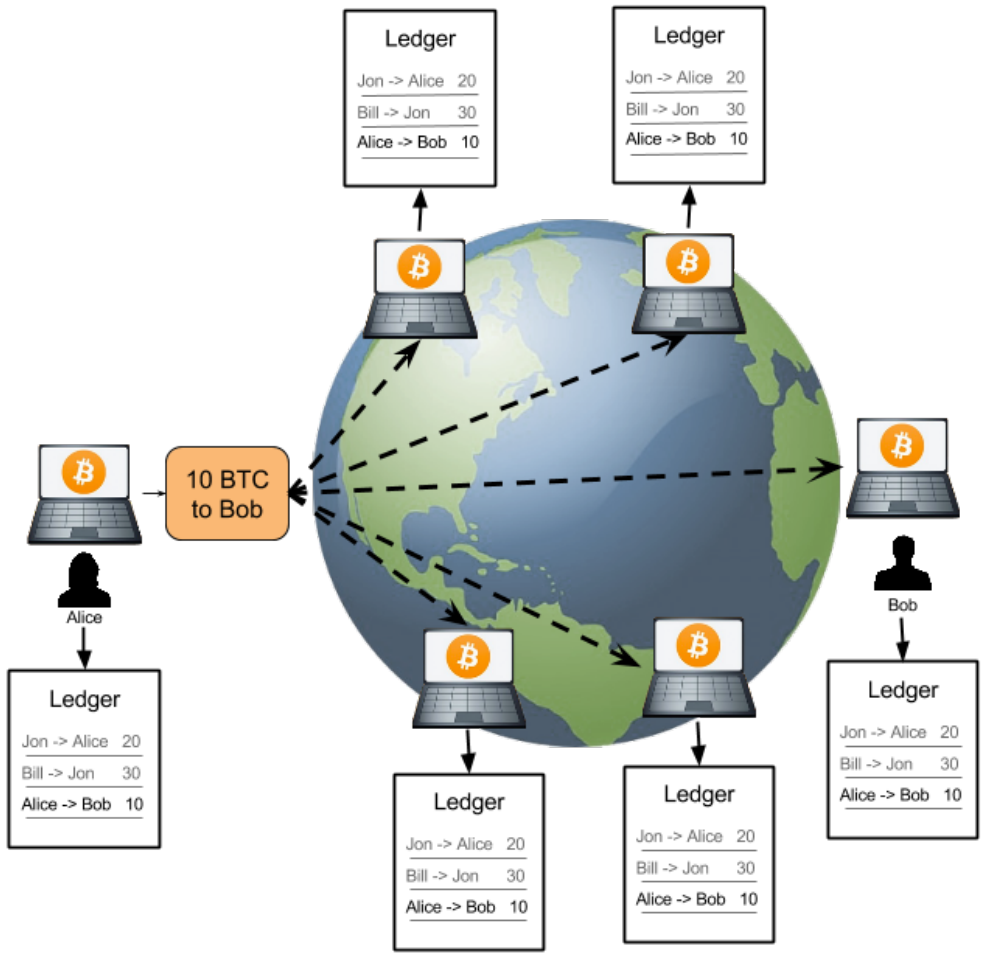
4 The Bitcoin Protocol
- The Bitcoin Network
- The blockchain, a shared ledger of transactions
- How new blocks are added
- Why does it work?
- The 51% attack

5 Alternatives to proof-of-work

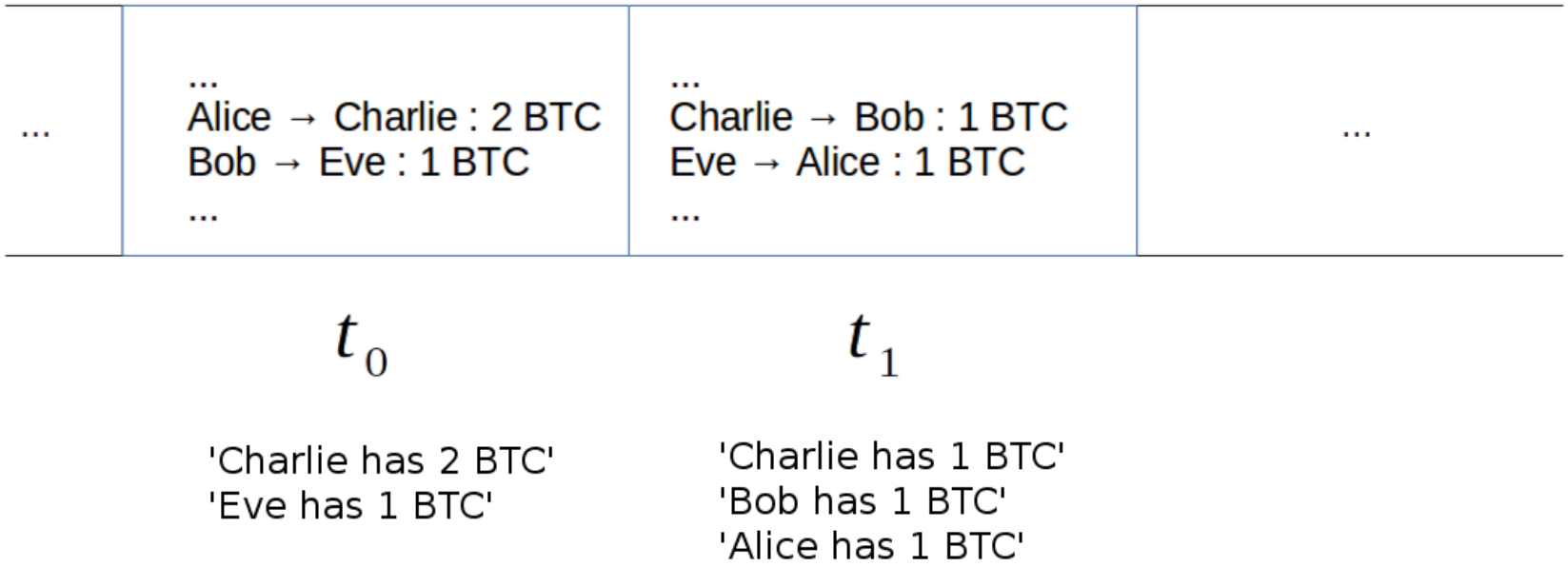
6 Even cooler stuff

Now that we've seen the idea of how Alice can create a transaction to Bob, we need to look at the global picture.



Bitcoins do not exist; transactions do.

The Bitcoin network of peers (or nodes) cooperate to establish a consensus on a set of transactions ordered in time called the blockchain. This set is constantly being built.



Those transactions **track the ownership of bitcoins**.

Consensus

- The blockchain is a chain of blocks of transactions which is shared across all members of the Bitcoin network.
- The blockchain is the result of a *consensus* among the peers and *nothing else*. There is no central authority approving or discarding anything.

How does one add a new block?

- In theory, anyone can try to add a block: those who do are called miners
- They receive transactions which are broadcast across the network and aggregate them into a new block
- Now, they need to play a kind of lottery to earn the right for their block to be on the blockchain: they have to build a **proof of work**, which essentially consists in making some heavy computations that take time. **The more computing power they have, the higher their probability of winning is.**

But why?

Why is proof of work necessary?

- It maintains a constant rate of emission of new bitcoins: difficulty is adjusted every two weeks so that a block is added on average every ten minutes;
- It makes it easy to spot the 'right' blockchain: it is the longest one **because more computation power must have been devoted to building it**;
- Each new block on top of a given block is often called a *confirmation*. As blocks get more confirmations, they become increasingly future-proof (metaphor: wall of bricks).

Proof of work under the hood

Suppose that

- k_n is the hash of the previous block on the current blockchain;
- th is the hash of all the transactions in the block being built;
- d is an integer called the *difficulty*.

Finding a valid proof of work is finding a y such that $h(k_n, th, y) \leq d$.
The properties of CHF make this a kind of *lottery*.

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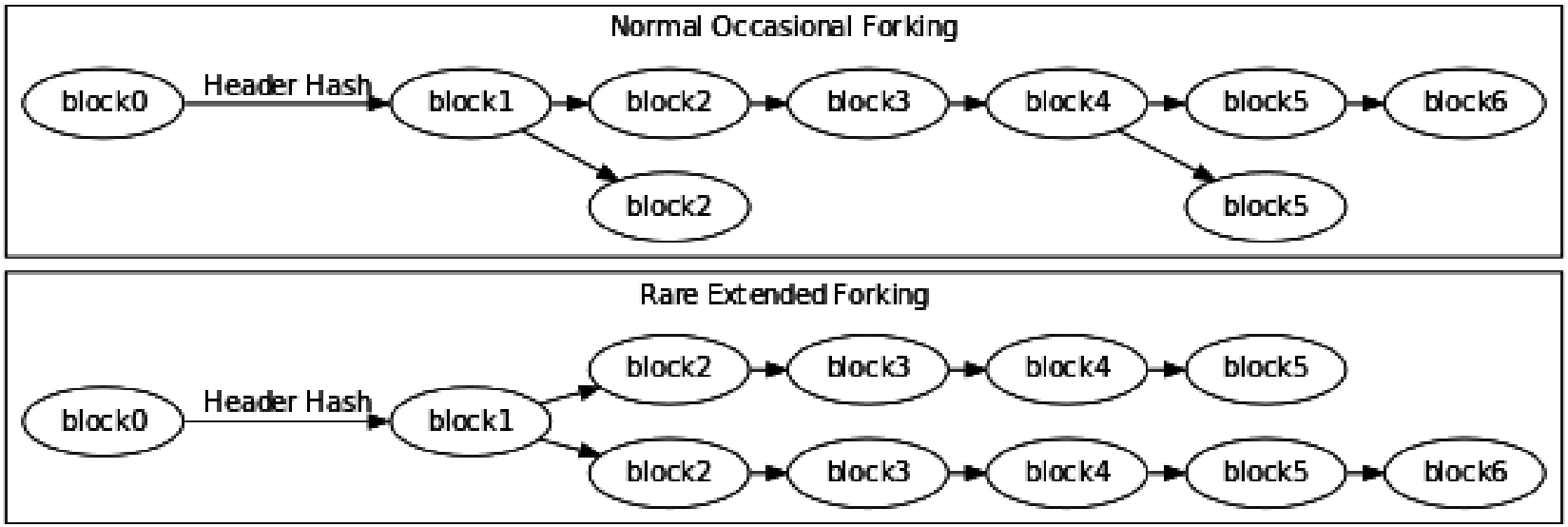
The first miner to find a block with a valid proof of work gets a reward of 25 bitcoins as the block is added to the blockchain. **This is how bitcoins are created!**

Couldn't there be two longest blockchains?

For a short period of time, there could be *two or more* 'longest blockchains' for example if two miners mine a block at the same time. This is called a 'fork'.



but this situation has an exponentially decreasing probability of persisting through time.

The 51 % attack

If someone comes to possess more than 50 % of the total computing power of the network, they can

- reject blocks from other miners and still mine every single block with probability 1 in the long run;
- reject specific transactions or transaction types or senders to receivers permanently;
- rewrite history as far as they want in theory, in the close past in practice.

If they have slightly less (30 %, 40 %) they can also do those things with a little help from chance but not with probability 1.
However, no one can:

- Steal bitcoins from someone (unless they rewrite history before those bitcoins were mined);
- Create bitcoins out of thin air or at a higher asymptotic rate than planned by the protocol.

The cost of proof-of-work

Hash rate of the Bitcoin network as of August 21, 2015: 353,662,655 GHashes/s, that is $3 * 10^{14}$ hashes per second.
This consumes a massive amount of electricity.

Some ideas

- Use that electricty to compute something useful: Primecoin;
- Use another system like Proof-of-stake.

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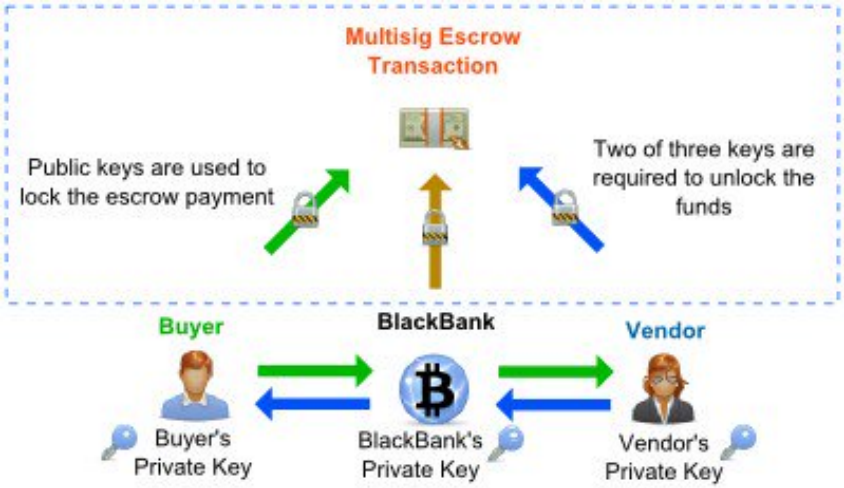
6 Even cooler stuff
- Multisig and escrow
- Namecoin
- Beyond

Multisig and escrow

- A transaction can provide *m*-of-*n* checking: 'to spend this transaction, you must have at least *m* signatures from these *n* public keys'
- This provides the possibility of escrow (unfortunate homonym with French)



Namecoin

Namecoin is a decentralized open source information registration and transfer system based on the Bitcoin cryptocurrency.

- Securely record and transfer arbitrary names (keys).
- Attach a value (data) to the names (up to 520 bytes, more in the future).
- Transact namecoins, the digital currency ($\mathbb{N}$, NMC).

What's the point?

- It can be used as a decentralized, independent DNS
- It could be used to store identity information such as email, GPG key, BTC address, TLS fingerprints..
- It can be used (and Bitcoin too) to timestamp events: if the hash of a document was put on the blockchain in April 2014, then surely someone had that document at that time.

And many other things

- Bitshares $\rightarrow$ BITUSD, BITEUR
- Ethereum: Turing-complete transactions
- Alternatives to POW: Proof-of-Stake
- Counterparty: creating tokens on top of the blockchain (example: LTBcoin)

Thanks!

Credits

Some of the contents of this presentation are inspired from the book "Mastering Bitcoin", by Andreas Antonopoulos.