Blockchains & Distributed Ledgers

Lecture 02

Aggelos Kiayias

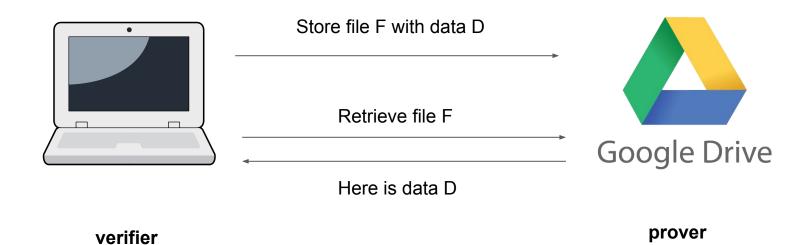
Overview

- Motivation: Server file storage
- Merkle trees to store lists
- Proofs-of-inclusion
- Merkle trees to store sets
- Proofs-of-non-inclusion
- Merkle–Patricia tries to store key:value pairs
- Blocks and blockchains

Authenticated Data Structures

- Like regular data structures, but cryptographically authenticated
- Allows a verifier to store, retrieve and operate on data with an untrusted prover

The file storage problem



The file storage problem

- Client wants to store a file on a server
- File has a name F and data D
- Clients wants to retrieve file F later

File storage: Basic protocol

- Client sends file F with data D to server
- Server stores (F, D)
- Client deletes D
- Client requests F from server
- Server returns D
- Client has recovered D

File storage: Protocol against adversaries

• What if **server is adversarial** and returns D' != D?

File storage: Protocol against adversaries

Trivial solution:

- Client does not delete D
- When server returns D', client compares D and D'

...what if client doesn't have enough memory to store D for a long time?

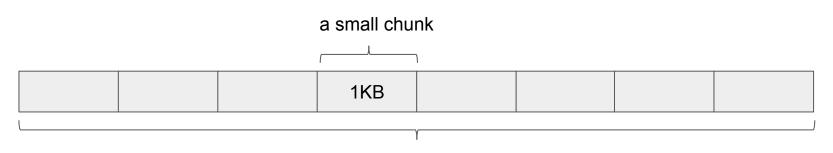
File storage: Hash-based protocol

- Client sends file F with data D to server
- Server stores (F, D)
- Client stores H(D), deletes D
- Client requests F from server
- Server returns D'
- Client compares H(D') = H(D)

File storage: File chunks

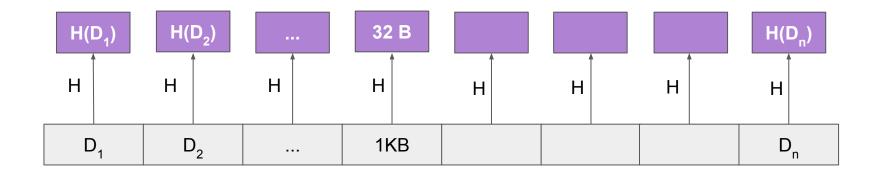
- What if client wants to retrieve the 200,019th byte of the file?
- Must download the whole file...
- Merkle trees to the rescue!

- An authenticated binary tree
- Split file into chunks of, say, 1KB

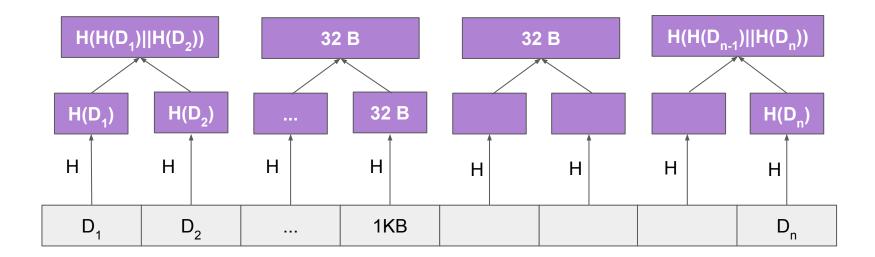


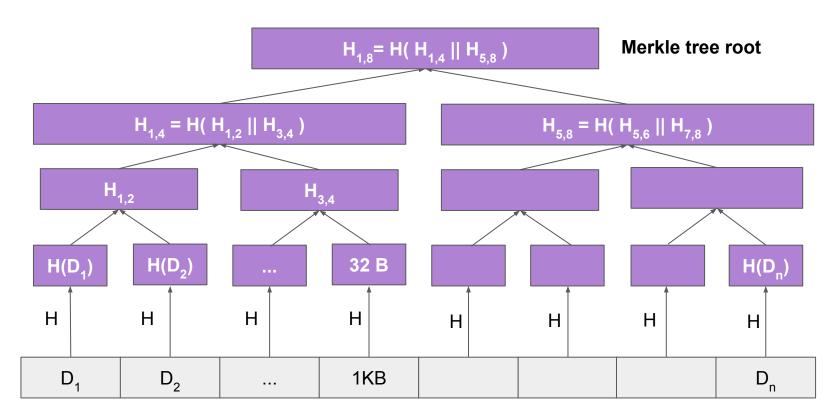
the whole file

- Hash each chunk using a cryptographic hash function (SHA256)
- Convention: Arrows show direction of hash function application



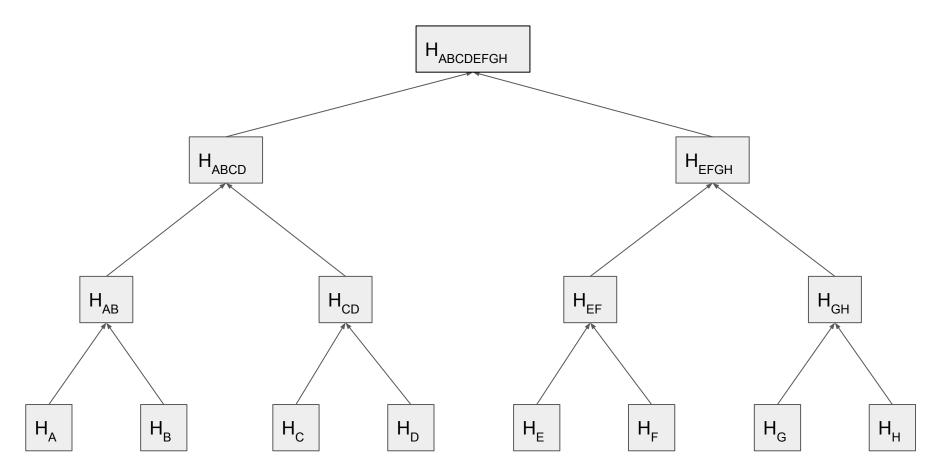
- Combine them by two to create a binary tree
- Each node stores the hash of the concat of its children.

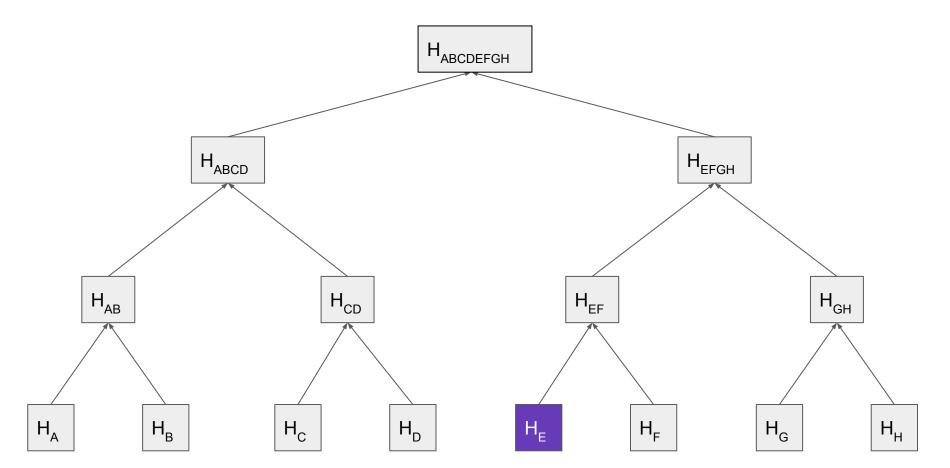


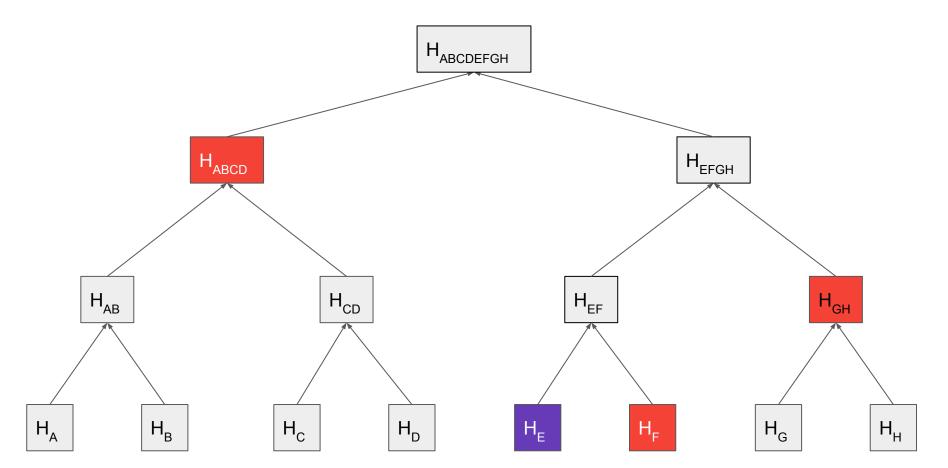


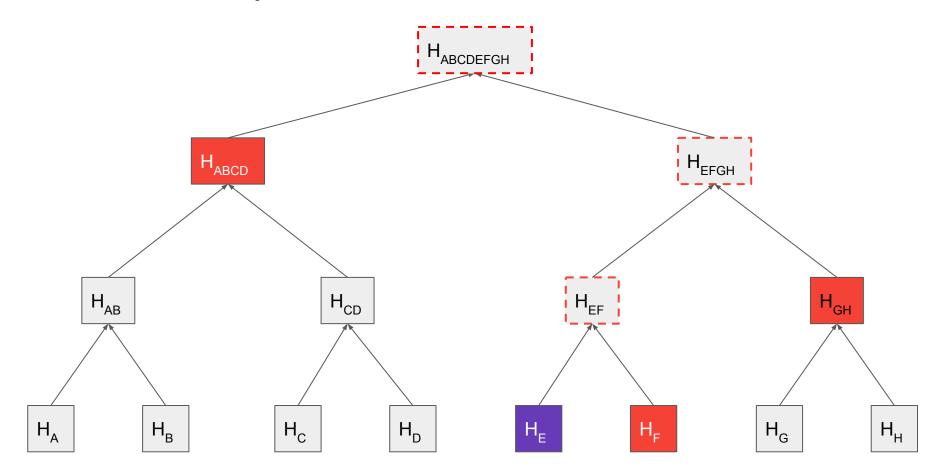
Proofs-of-inclusion

- Client creates Merkle Tree root MTR from initial file data D
- Client sends file data D to server
- Client deletes data D, but stores MTR (32 bytes)
- Client requests chunk x from server
- Server returns chunk x and short proof-of-inclusion π
- Client checks that chunk x is included in MTR using proof π









Merkle Tree proof-of-inclusion

- Prover sends chunk
- Prover sends siblings along path connecting leaf to MTR
- Verifier computes hashes along the path connecting leaf to MTR
- Verifier checks that computed root = MTR
- How big is proof-of-inclusion?

Proof-of-inclusion succinctness

$$|\pi| \in \Theta(|g|D|)$$

Merkle Tree proof-of-inclusion security

- If adversary can present proof-of-inclusion for incorrect leaf, then we can break the hash function
- Proof is by computational reduction (whiteboard)

Merkle Tree protocol

```
MT-construct(D)
```

- Construct a Merkle Tree with given data D
- Returns the Merkle Tree root
- If |D| = chunk size, then: MT-construct(D) = H(D)
- Otherwise:

Merkle Tree protocol

```
MT-prove(D, x)
```

- Given data D and element x in D, construct proof-of-inclusion
- Returns the proof-of-inclusion π to be used with MT-construct(D)
- Proof contains:
 - Siblings on path connecting x to root
 - A bit for each sibling indicating whether the path we are taking is left or right

Merkle Tree protocol

```
MT-verify(r, \pi, x)
```

- Given Merkle Tree root r, element x, and proof-of-inclusion π
- Outputs true/false based on whether verification was successful

Correctness

```
For all D, x:
```

MT-verify(MT-construct(D), MT-prove(D, x), x) = True

(Proof by direct application of hashes on path)

Proof-of-inclusion security

- Assume the hash function is collision-resistant
- Collision resistance formal definition:

```
○ \forall PPT A: \exists negl: Pr[coll-find_{A,H}(\lambda)] \leq negl(\lambda)
```

Where coll-find is the collision finding game:

```
def coll-find<sub>A,H</sub>(\lambda):

x_1, x_2 \leftarrow A(1^{\lambda})

if x_1 \neq x_2 \wedge H(x_1) = H(x_2):

return 1

return 0
```

Threat modelling with bad events

- When defining a security property precisely, specify what bad event we are trying to avoid
- In this case, the construction of a proof about a non-existent element
- It is important to allow the adversary to **choose** which Merkle Tree to attack
- It is possible that the vast majority of trees are not attackable...
- Hence, we define a **game** where the adversary chooses a data set D to construct the tree from, an element x, and a proof of π
- The adversary can construct these arbitrarily. π does not need to be produced out of a tree!

The Merkle Tree forgery game

```
def MT-forgery<sub>A,\Pi(H)</sub>(\lambda):

(D, x, \pi) \leftarrow A(1^{\lambda})

if MT-verify(MT-construct(D), \pi, x) \wedge x \notin D:

return 1

return 0
```

The Merkle Tree security

```
\forall PPT A: \exists negl: Pr[MT-forgery_{A,\Pi(H)}(\lambda)] \leq negl(\lambda)
```

The theorem: Assumption → Desirable

Theorem: If H is collision-resistant, then the MT constructed from H is secure:

```
\forall PPT A: \exists negl: Pr[coll-find<sub>A,H</sub>(\lambda)] \leq negl(\lambda) \rightarrow
```

 \forall PPT A: \exists negl: Pr[MT-forgery_{A,\Pi(H)}(λ)] \leq negl(λ)

Proof strategy: Contraposition

By reductio ad absurdum using contraposition:

- Suppose for contradiction that
 not ∀ PPT A: ∃ negl: Pr[MT-forgery_{A,Π(H)}(λ)] ≤ negl(λ)
 i.e., the Merkle Tree construction is not secure
- It suffices to show that
 not ∀ PPT A: ∃ negl: Pr[coll-find_{A,H}(λ)] ≤ negl(λ)
 i.e., the hash function is not collision-resistant

Proof strategy: Contraposition

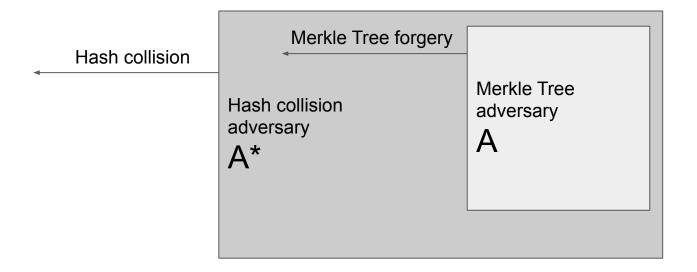
- Suppose for contradiction that
 - \exists PPT A: Pr[MT-forgery_{A,\Pi(H)}(λ)] is non-negl
- It suffices to show that
 - \exists PPT A*: Pr[coll-find_{A,H}(λ)] is non-negl

The PPT A is arbitrary, so we must use it as black box.

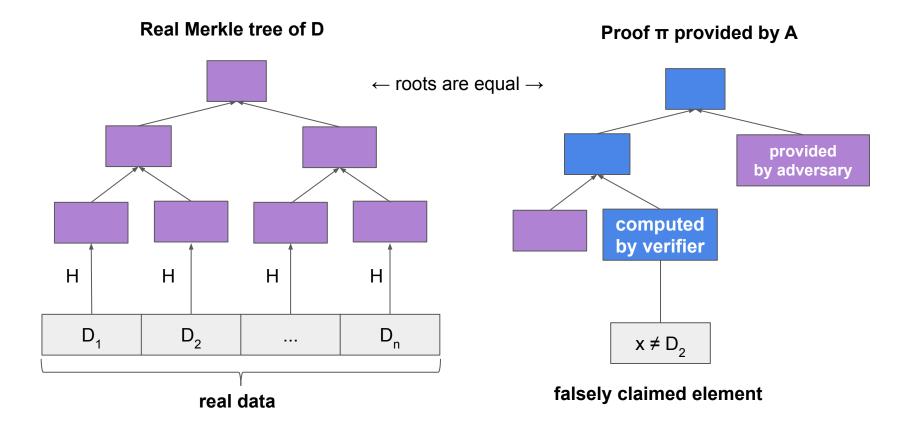
We show the existence of A* by construction.

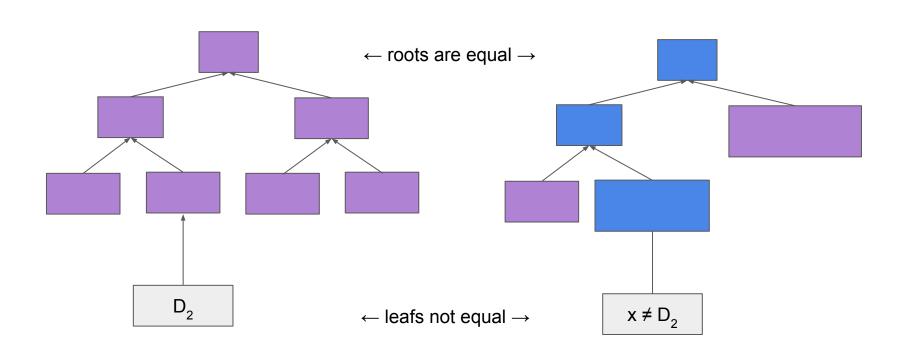
Since A is a machine, we can have A* call A in its code.

Proof strategy: Computational reduction



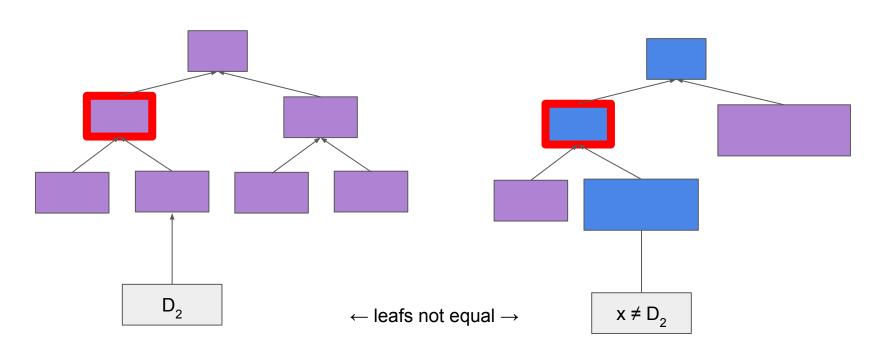
Situation if adversary A wins





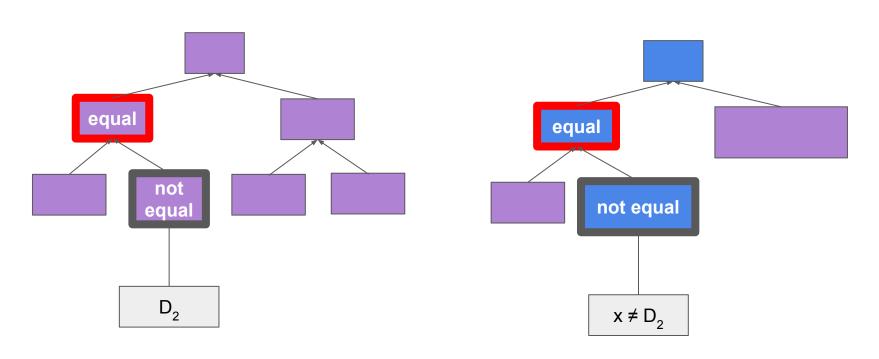
Induction:

Take **lowest** tree level where nodes are **equal**That level must exist, as roots are equal
That level cannot be a leaf, as leafs are not equal



$$H(L^a || R^a) = H(L^b || R^b)$$
 but $R^a \neq R^b$

We can extract a hash collision!



Proof conclusion

A* works as follows:

- Checks if A has found forgery
- If not, aborts
- If yes, finds minimum level where hashes are equal
- This gives a hash collision

If A finds a MT forgery, then A* finds a hash collision

equal by computational reduction

$$\Pr[\mathsf{MT-forgery}_{\mathsf{A},\Pi(\mathsf{H})}(\lambda)] = \Pr[\mathsf{coll-find}_{\mathsf{A}^*,\mathsf{H}}(\lambda)]$$

non-negligible by for-contradiction assumption

non-negligible, therefore contradiction

Proof of security is nuanced

Don't roll your own crypto.

Use standard code by others which you know is secure.

Merkle tree applications

- Bitcoin uses Merkle trees to store transaction
- BitTorrent uses Merkle Tree to exchange files
- Ethereum uses Merkle–Patricia tries for storage and transactions

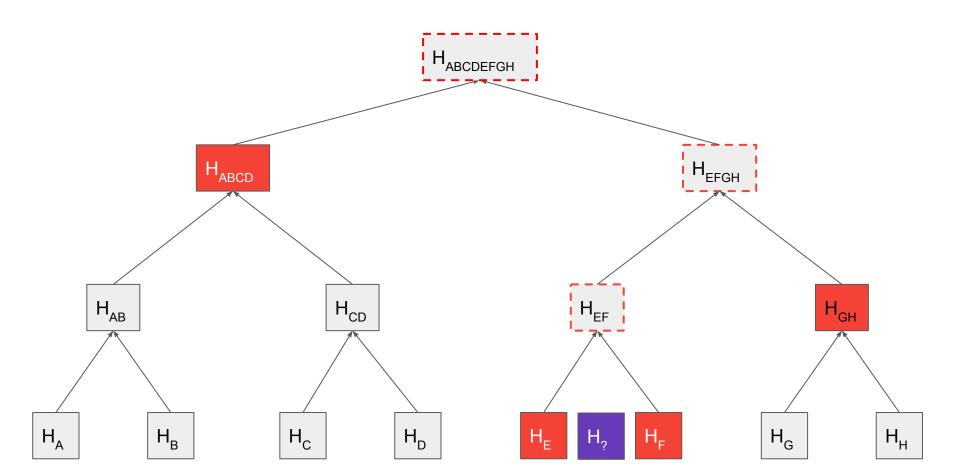
Storing sets instead of lists

- Merkle Trees can be used to store sets of keys instead of lists
- Verifier asks prover to store a set of keys
- Verifier deletes set
- Verifier later asks prover if key belongs to set
- Prover provides proof-of-inclusion or proof-of-non-inclusion
- Prover can be adversarial

Merkle trees for set storage

- Verifier sorts set elements
- Creates MTR on sorted set
- Proof-of-inclusion as before
- Proof-of-non-inclusion for x
 Show proof-of-inclusion for previous H₂ and next H₃ element in set
- Verifier checks that H_z, H_z proofs-of-inclusion are correct
- Verifier checks that H_<, H_s are adjacent in tree
- Verifier checks that H_z < x and H_s > x
- The two proofs-of-inclusion can be compressed into one

Merkle tree: proof of inclusion



Tries

- Called also radix tree or prefix tree
- Search tree: ordered tree data structure
- Used to store a set or an associative array (key/value store)
- Keys usually are strings

Tries

- Supports two operations: add and query
- add adds a string to the set
- query checks if a string is in the set (true/false)
- Initialize: Start with empty root

Tries: add(string)

- Start at root
- Split string into characters
- For every character, follow an edge labelled by that character
- If edge does not exist, create it
- Mark the node you arrive at

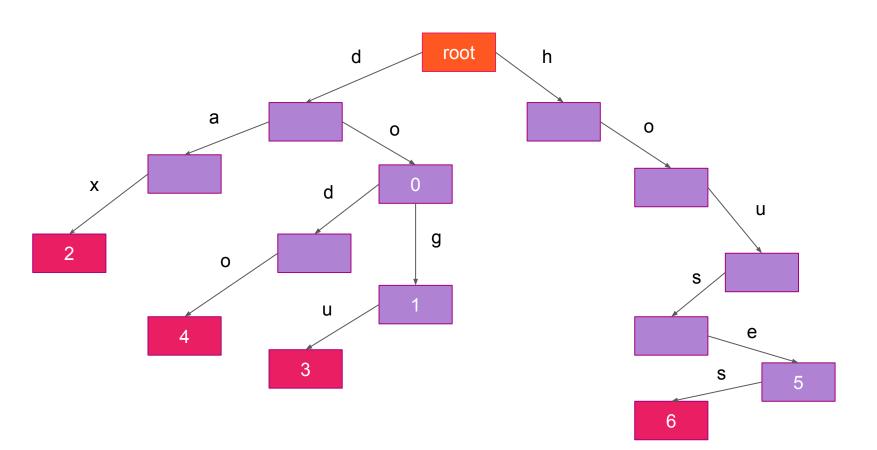
Tries: query(string)

- Start at root
- Split string into characters
- For every character, follow an edge labelled by that character
- If edge does not exist, return false
- When you arrive at a node and your string is consumed, check if node is marked
- If it is marked, return yes
- Otherwise, return no

Tries: example

{ do: 0, dog: 1, dax: 2, dogu: 3, dodo: 4, house: 5, houses: 6 }

Tries



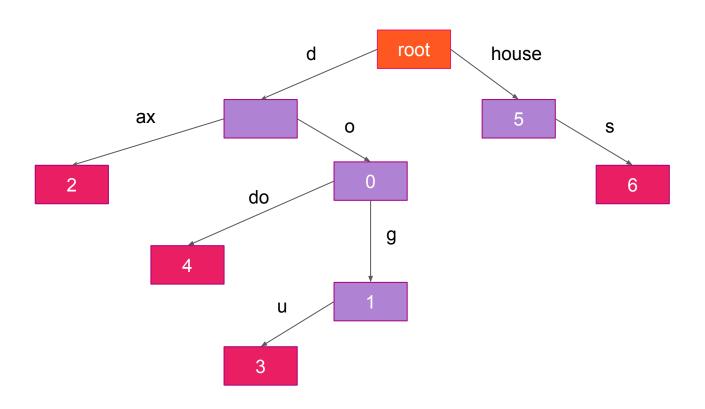
Patricia (or radix) trie

- Space-optimized trie
- An isolated path (with nodes which are only children)
 with unmarked nodes is merged into one edge
- The label of the merged edge is the concatenation of the merged symbols

Tries / Patricia tries as key/value store

- Marking does not need to be yes/no
- Can contain arbitrary value
- This allows us to map keys to values
- add(key, value)
- query(key) → value

Patricia trie



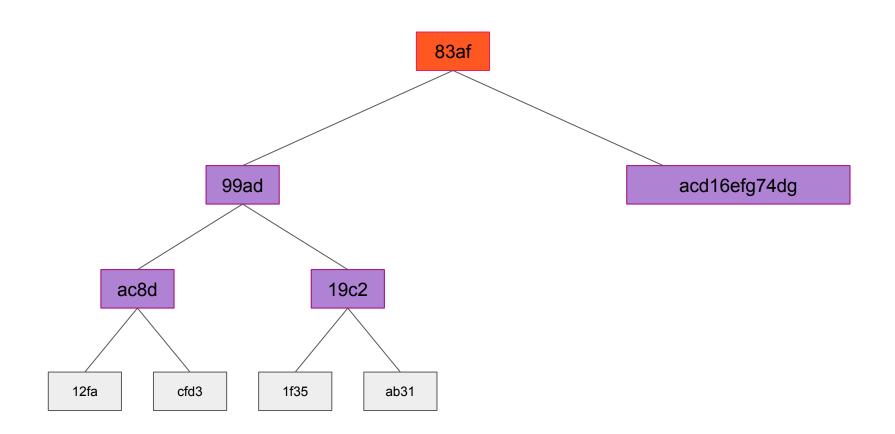
Merkle Patricia trie

- An authenticated Patricia Trie
- First implemented in Ethereum
- Allows proof-of-inclusion (of key, with particular value)
- Allows proof-of-non-inclusion (by showing key does not exist in trie)

Merkle Patricia Trie

- Split nodes into three types:
 - Leaf: Stores edge string leading to it, and value
 - Extension: Stores string of a single edge, pointer to next node, and value if node marked
 - o **Branch**: Stores one pointer to another node per alphabet symbol, and **value** if node marked
- We encode keys as hex, so alphabet size is 16
- We encode all child edges in every node with some encoding (e.g. JSON)
- Pointers are by hash application
- Arguments for correctness and security are same as for Merkle Trees

Merkle Patricia trie

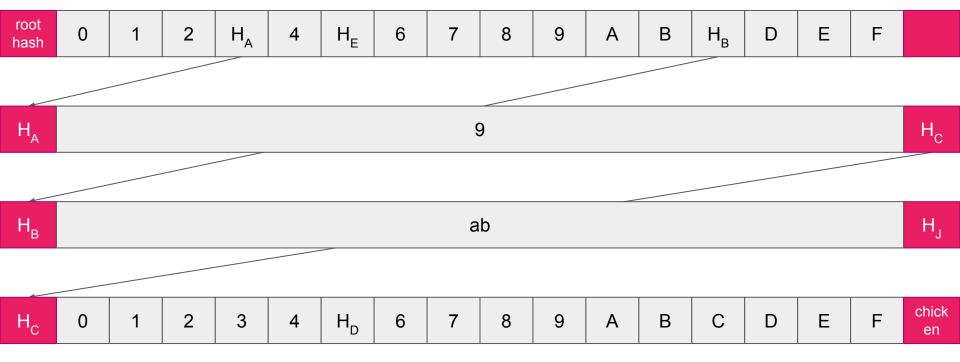


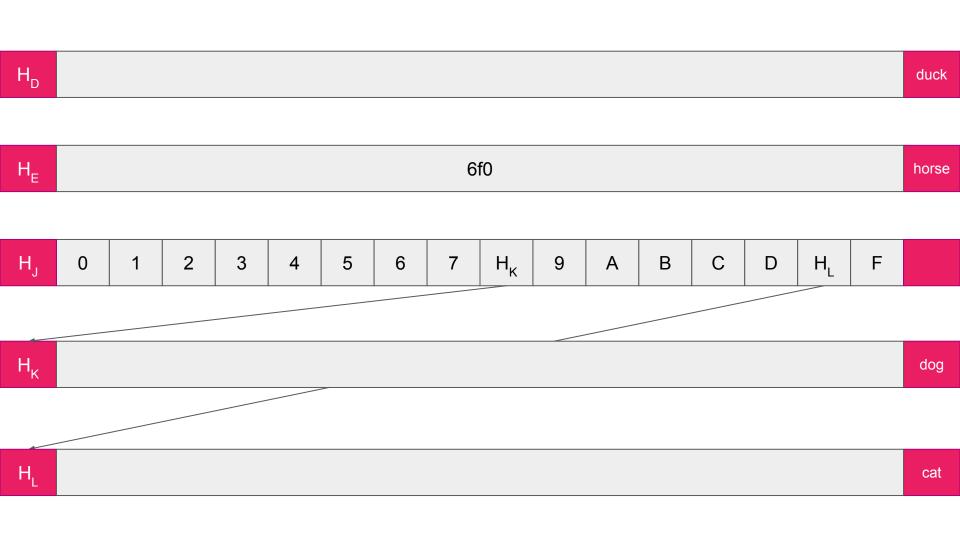
Merkle patricia trie: node

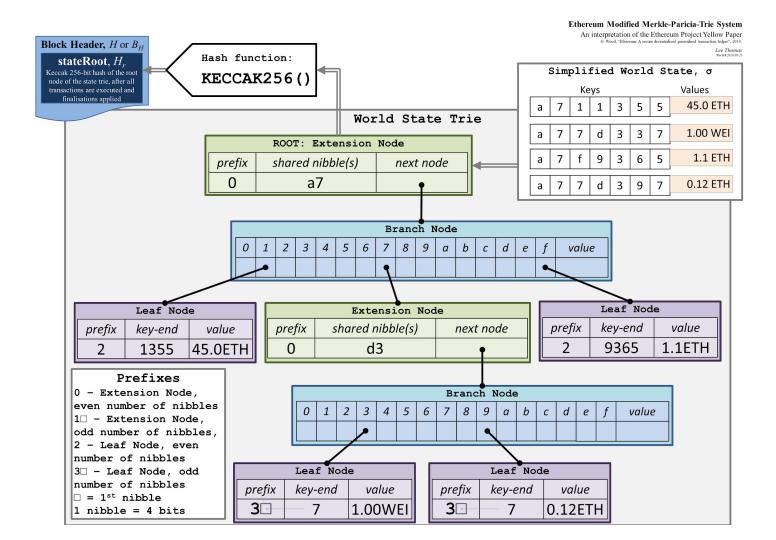
key	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Α	В	С	D	E	F	value
,	_	-	_		_	_	-	_	-			_		_	_	_	

Merkle patricia trie: example

{ 'cab8': 'dog', 'cabe': 'cat', '39': 'chicken', '395': 'duck', '56f0': 'horse' }







Blocks



- Data structure with three parts:
 - o nonce (ctr), data (x), reference (s)
 - Typically called the block header
- data (x) is application-dependent
 - In Bitcoin it stores financial data (UTXO-based)
 - In Ethereum it stores contract data (account-based)
 - In Namecoin it stores name data
 - We leave this undefined for now -- we will come back to this in future lectures
- Block validity:
 - Data must be valid (application-defined validity)

Proof-of-work in blocks

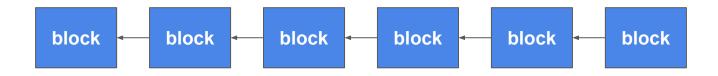
Blocks must satisfy proof-of-work equation

$$H(ctr || \mathbf{x} || s) \leq T$$

- for some constant T
- ctr is the nonce used to solve proof-of-work
- The value H(ctr || x || s) is known as the **blockid**

Blockchain

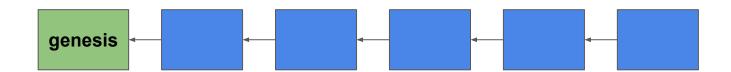
- Each block references a **previous** block
- This reference is by hash to its previous block, similar to Merkle Trees
- This linked list is called the blockchain
- Convention: Arrows show authenticated inclusion



Blocks use the s value to point to the previous block by hash

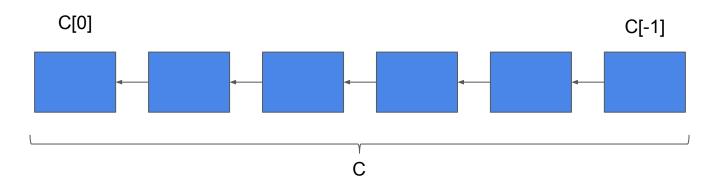
Blockchain

• The **first** block of a blockchain is called the Genesis Block



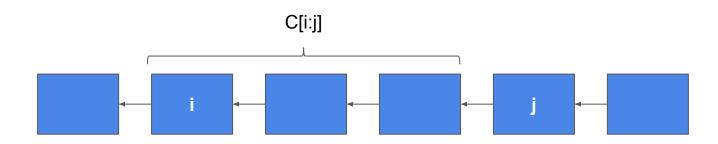
Notation conventions

- We use the symbol C to denote a blockchain
- C is a **sequence** of blocks
- We use C[i] to denote the ith block (0-based)
- C[0] denotes genesis
- We use C[-i] to denote the ith block from the end
- Chain property: For each i > 0: C[i].s = H(C[i 1])



Notation conventions

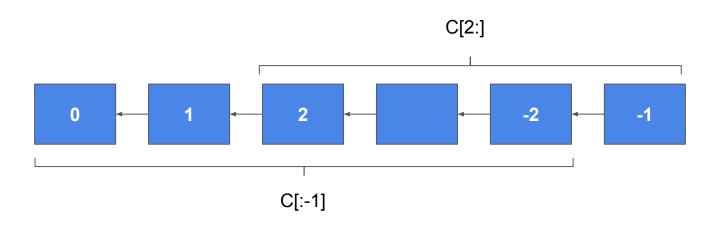
- Range notation: C[i:j] denotes a subsequence from i (inclusive) to j (exclusive)
- Similarly C[-i:j], C[i:-j], C[-i:-j]



Notation conventions

Range notation:

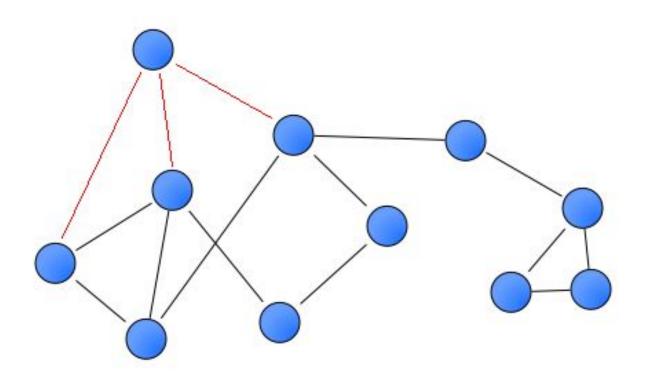
C[i:], C[-i:] denotes chain from i (or -i) inclusive to end inclusive C[:i], C[-i:] denotes chain from beginning inclusive to i (or -i) exclusive

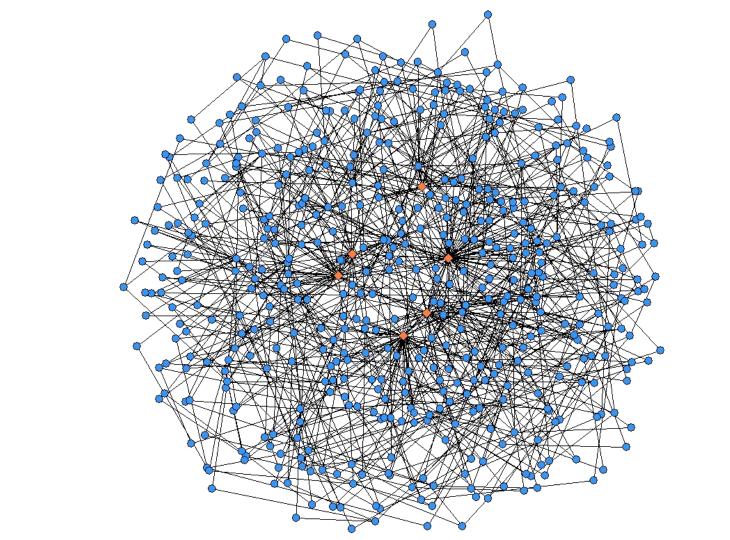


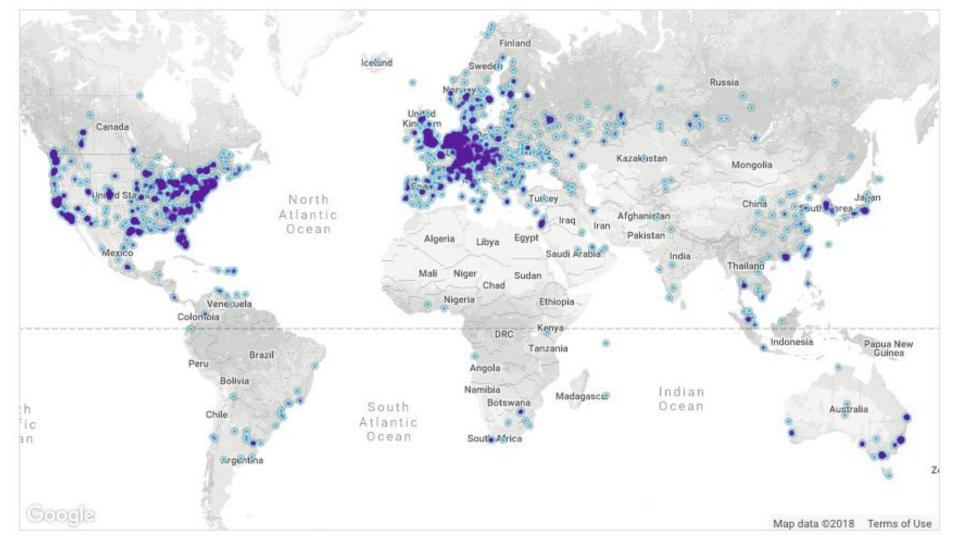
The bitcoin network

- All bitcoin nodes connect to a common p2p network
- Each node runs the code of bitcoin
- A node can run on a phone, computer, etc.
- Open source code
- Each node connects to its neighbours
- They continuously exchange financial data
- Each node can freely enter the network -- no permission needed! A "permissionless network".
- The adversarial assumption:

There is no trust on the network! Each neighbour can lie.







Peer discovery

- Each node stores a list of peers (by IP address)
- When Alice connects to Bob, Bob sends Alice his own known peers
- That way, Alice can learn about new peers

Bootstrapping the p2p network

- Peer-to-peer nodes come "preinstalled" with some peers by IP / host
- When running a node, you can specify extra "known peers"

The *gossip* protocol

- When a node Alice generates some new data...
- Alice broadcasts data to its peers
- Each peer broadcasts this data to *its* peers
- If a peer has seen this data before, it ignores it
- If this data is new, it broadcasts it to its peers
- That way, the data spreads like an epidemic, until the whole network learns it
- This process is called diffuse

Financial data

- Financial data is encoded in the form of *transactions*
- Every transaction is broadcast on the network to everyone using the gossip protocol
- Financial data on cryptocurrencies are common knowledge among all participants

Transactions on blockchain.info

Eclipse attacks

- Isolate the some honest nodes in the network effectively causing a "net split" in two partitions A and B
- If peers in A and peers in B are disjoint and don't know about each other, the networks will remain isolated
 - More recent attack: Erebus

The connectivity assumption:
 There is a path between two nodes on the network
 If a node broadcasts a message, every other node will learn it

