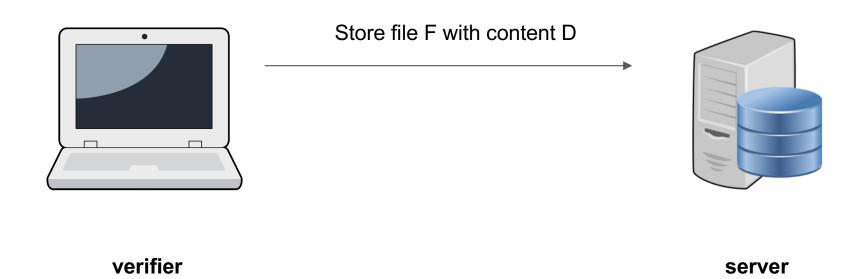
Blockchains & Distributed Ledgers

Lecture 02

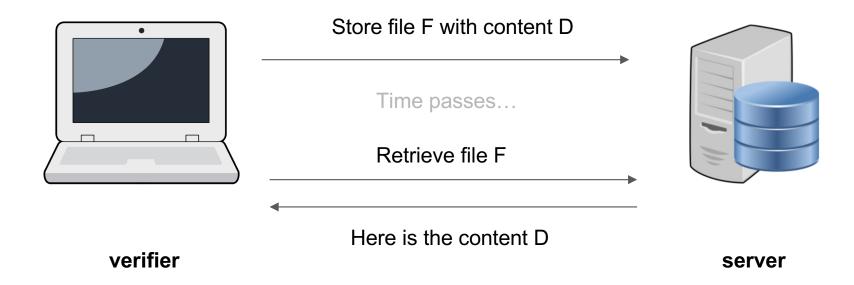
Aggelos Kiayias

Slide credits: AK, Dimitris Karakostas, Michele Ciampi, Dionysis Zindros, Christos Nasikas

The authenticated file storage problem



The authenticated file storage problem



The authenticated file storage problem

The problem

- Client wants to store a file, with identifier F and content D, on a server
- Clients wants to retrieve D later in time

Usecases

- Save storage space (e.g., cloud)
- Redundancy (e.g., backup)

File storage: Basic protocol

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









File storage: Basic protocol

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- Client has recovered D

What if server is corrupted 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?

Authenticated Data Structures

- Like regular data structures, but cryptographically authenticated
- A verifier can store/retrieve/operate on data held by an <u>untrusted</u> prover
 - Client wants to store a file, with identifier F and content D, on a server
 - Client wants to delete D
 - Clients wants to retrieve D later in time
 - o Prover is not trusted it has to prove that the returned data is the correct/original D
 - (Client should not have to store D)
- How can this problem be solved using:
 - a. A hash function H
 - b. A signature scheme Σ = <KeyGen, Sign, Verify>

Hash-based

- Client sends file *F* with data *D* to server
- Server stores (F, D)
- Client computes and stores H(D), deletes D

Time passes...

- Client requests *F* from server
- Server returns *D*'
- Client compares H(D') = H(D)

Digital signature-based

- Client creates and stores key pair (sk, vk)
- Client computes $\sigma = Sign(sk, <F, D>)$
- Client sends (F, D, σ) to server, deletes D, σ
- Server stores (F, D, σ)

Time passes...

- Client requests *F* from server
- Server returns (D', σ')
- Client checks if Verify(vk, <F, D'>, σ') = True

Hash-based

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Digital signature-based

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- Server stores (F, D, σ)

Time passes...

- Client requests F from server
- Server returns (D', σ')
- Client checks if $Verify(vk, <F, D'>, \sigma') = True$

What is the main difference between the two? What are advantages / disadvantages?

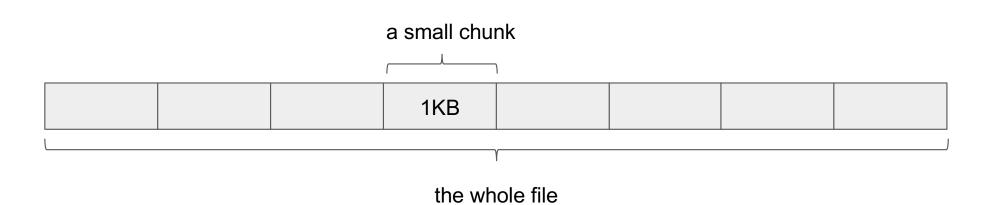
What if client needs only one byte of the file?

Tree definitions

- Binary: every node has at most 2 children
- Binary full: every node has either 0 or 2 children
- Binary **complete**: every node in every level, except possibly the second-to-last, has exactly 2 children, and all nodes in the last level are as far left as possible
- Merkle tree: an authenticated binary tree

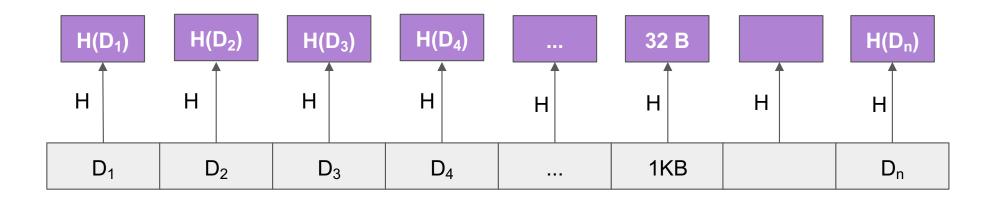


• Split file into *small* **chunks** (e.g., 1KB)

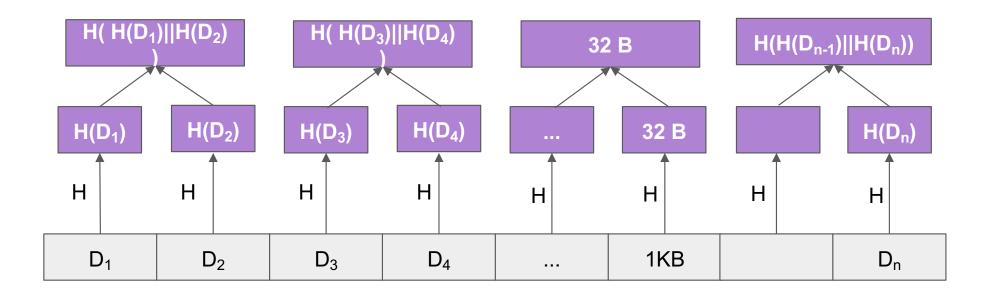


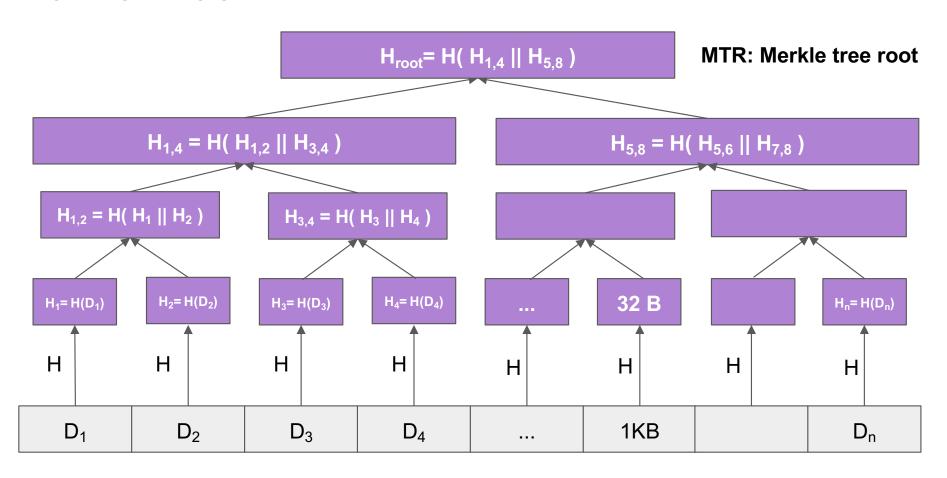
• Hash each chunk using a cryptographic hash function (e.g., SHA256)

*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





File storage: Merkle tree-based protocol

- Client sends file data D to server
- Client creates Merkle Tree root MTR from initial file data D
- Client deletes data D, but stores MTR (32 bytes)

File storage: Merkle tree-based protocol

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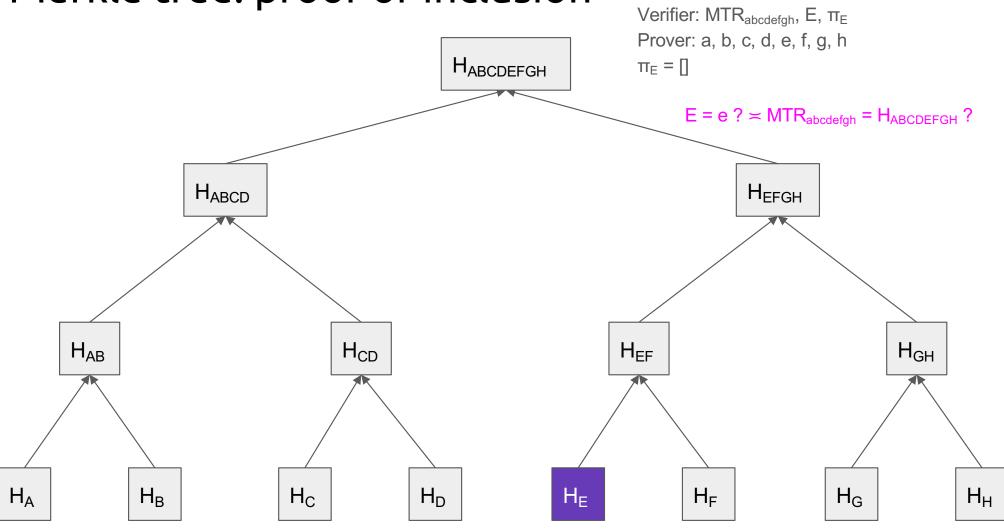
- Client requests chunk x from server
- Server returns chunk x and short proof-of-inclusion π
- Client checks whether proof π of chunk x is correct w.r.t. stored MTR

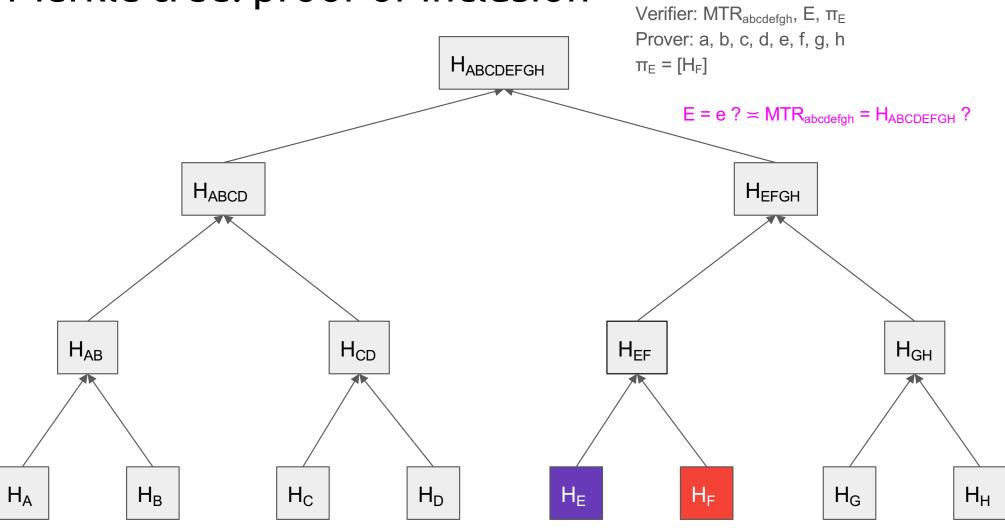
Verifier: MTR_{abcdefgh}

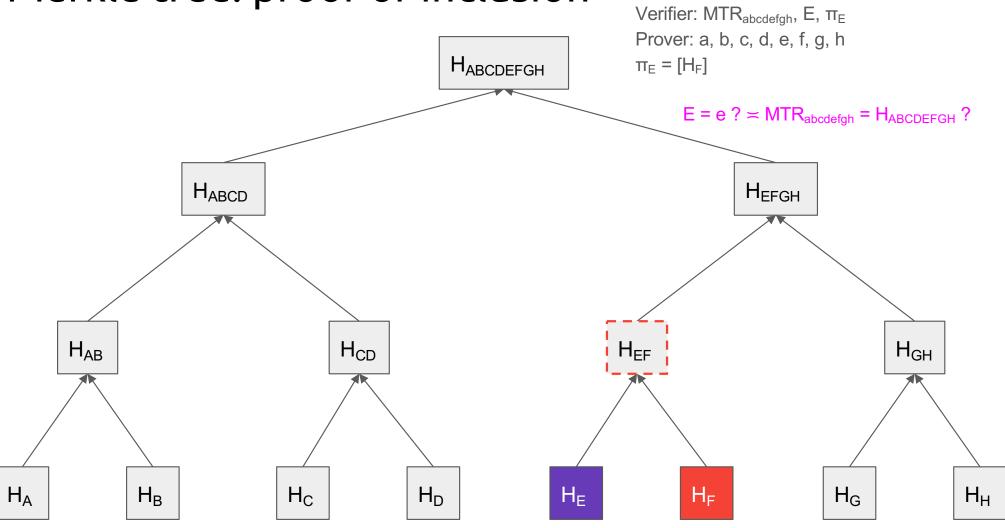
Prover: a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h

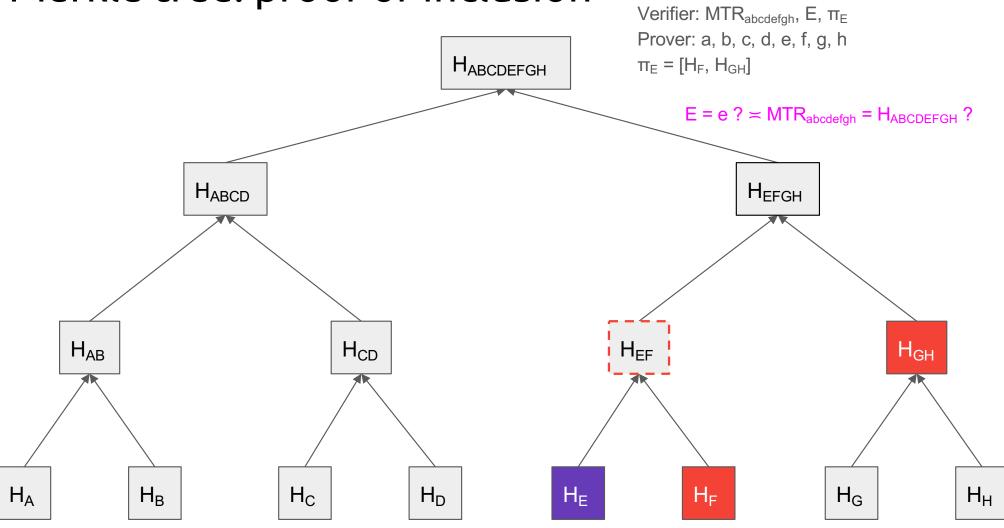
Verifier: MTR_{abcdefgh}, E, π_E Prover: a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h

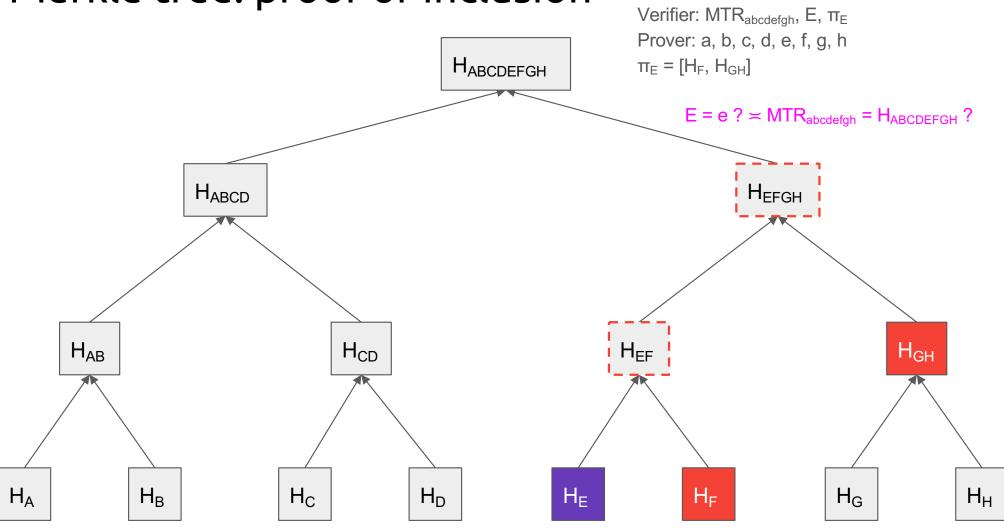
E = e?

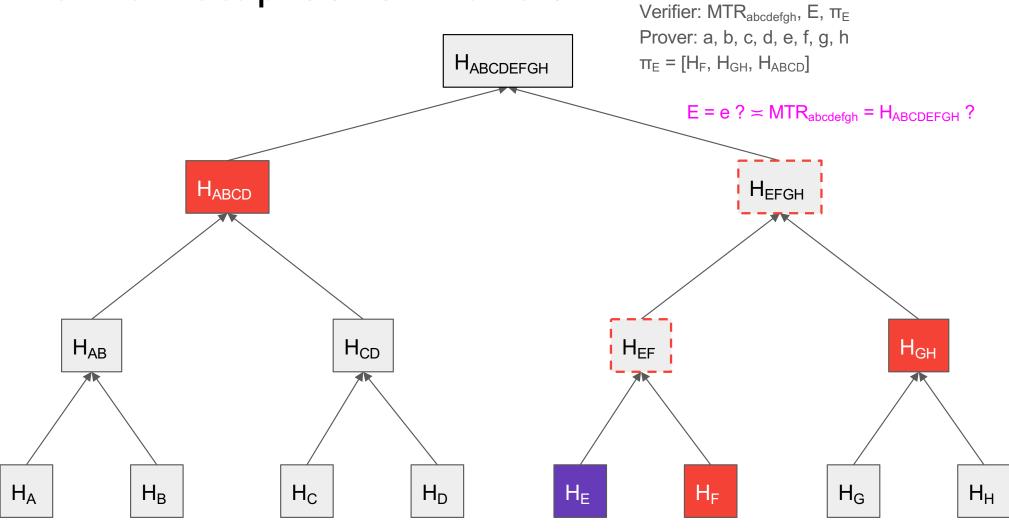


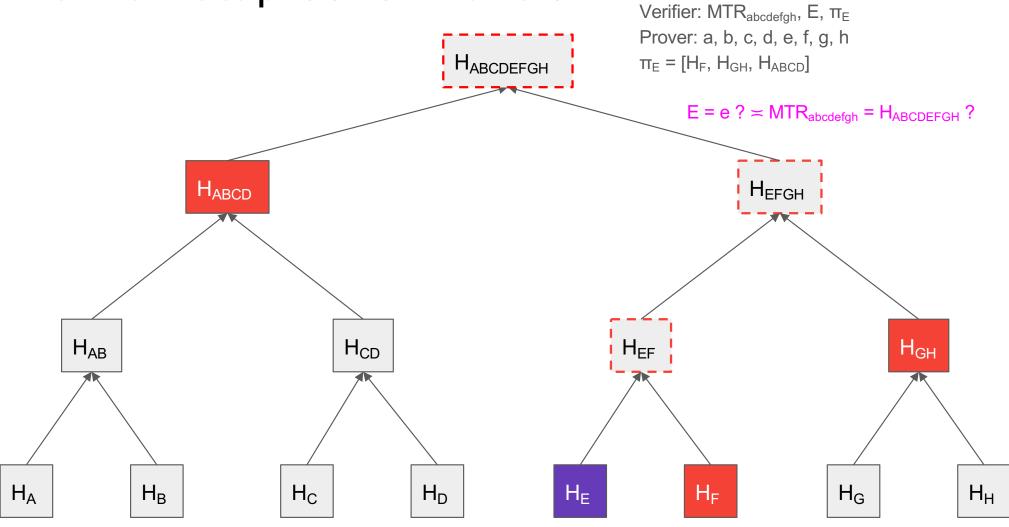












Merkle Tree proof-of-inclusion

- 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 is equal to MTR
- How big is proof-of-inclusion?

Merkle Tree proof-of-inclusion

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- How big is proof-of-inclusion?

$$|\pi| \in \Theta(\log_2|D|)$$

Merkle tree applications

- BitTorrent uses Merkle trees to verify exchanged files
- Bitcoin uses Merkle trees to store transactions
- Ethereum uses Merkle-Patricia tries for storage and transactions

Storing sets instead of files/lists

- Merkle trees can be used to store sets of keys instead of lists
- Verifier asks prover to store a set
- 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

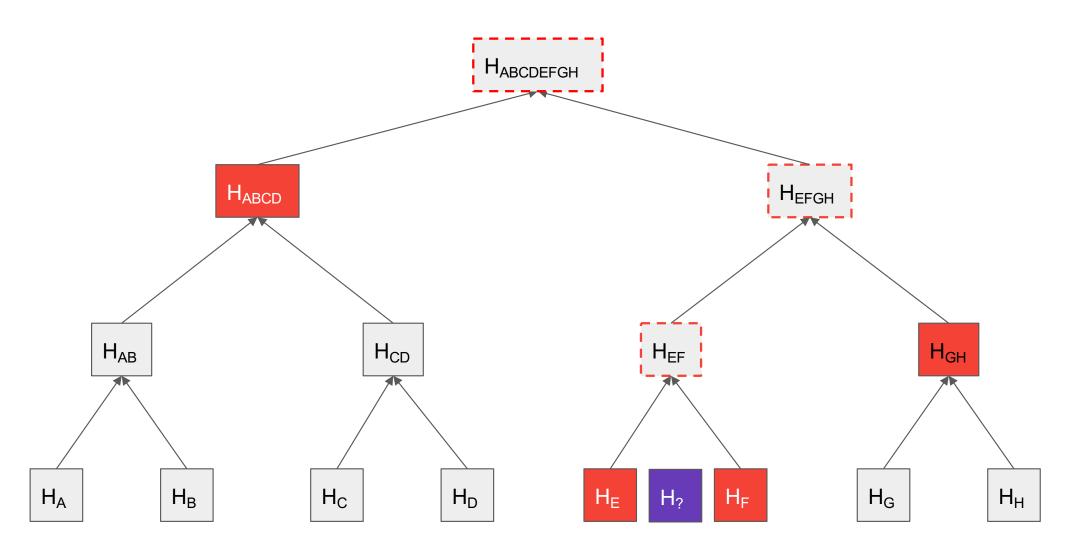
Merkle trees for set storage

- Verifier sorts set elements
- Creates MTR on sorted set
- Proof-of-inclusion as before

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 H_< and next H_> element in set
 - Verifier checks that H_<, H_> proofs-of-inclusion are correct
 - Verifier checks that H_<, H_> are adjacent in tree
 - Verifier checks that H_< < x and H_> > x
 - Question: How to compress the two proofs-of-inclusion into one?

Merkle tree: proof of inclusion / non-inclusion



Tries

Tries

- Also called radix or prefix tree
- Search tree: ordered data structure
- Used to store an associative array (key/value store)
 - <key, value>, <key, value> ...
- Keys are usually strings

Tries

- Initialize: Start with empty root
- Supports two operations: add and query
- add adds a <key,value> pair to the set
- query checks if a key is in the set and returns its value

Tries / Patricia tries as key/value store

- Marking can contain arbitrary value
- This allows to map keys to values
- add(key, value)
- query(key) → value

Tries: add(<key,value>)

- Start at root
- Split key 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 by value

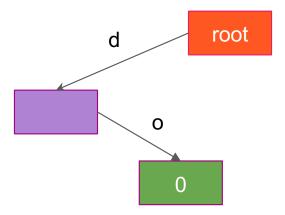
Tries: query(key)

- Start at root
- Split key 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 marked value
 - Otherwise, return false

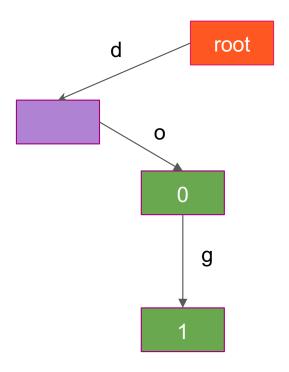


root

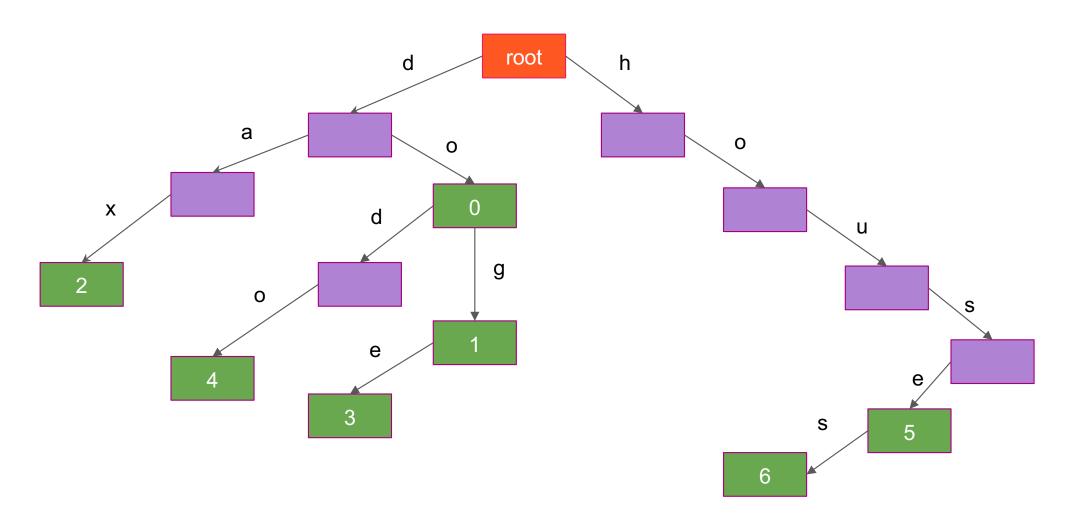
{ **do**: 0 }



{ **do**: 0, **dog**: 1 }



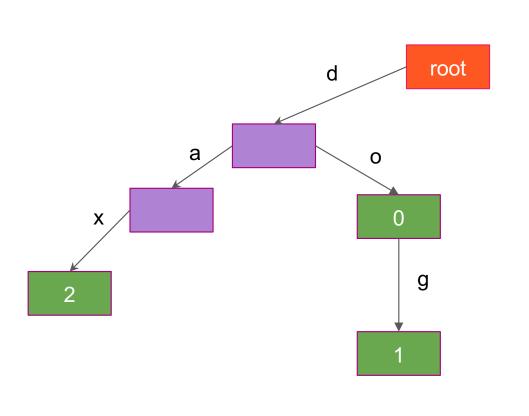
{ do: 0, dog: 1, dax: 2, doge: 3, dodo: 4, house: 5, houses: 6 }

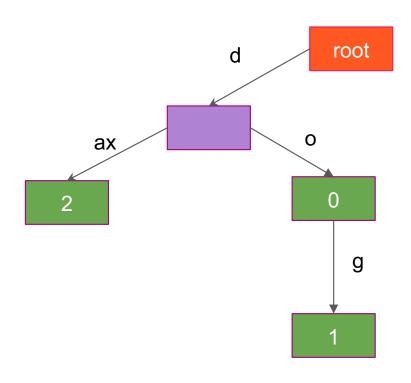


Patricia (or radix) tree

- Space-optimized trie
- An isolated path, with unmarked nodes which are only children, is merged into single edge
- The label of the merged edge is the concatenation of the labels of merged nodes

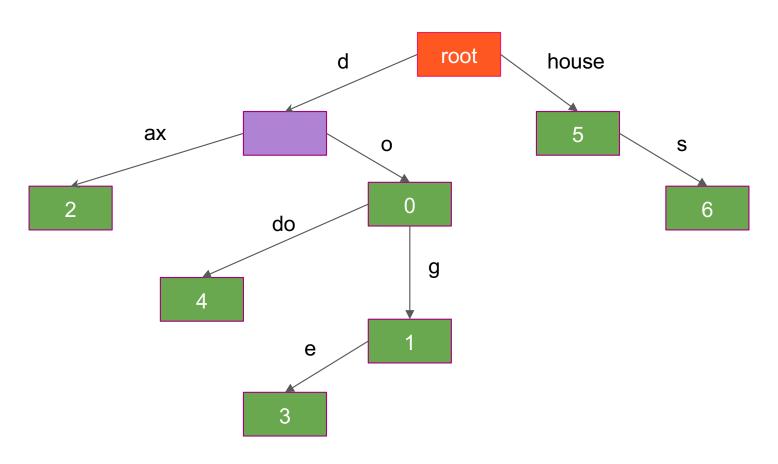
Trie vs. Patricia trie





Patricia trie

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

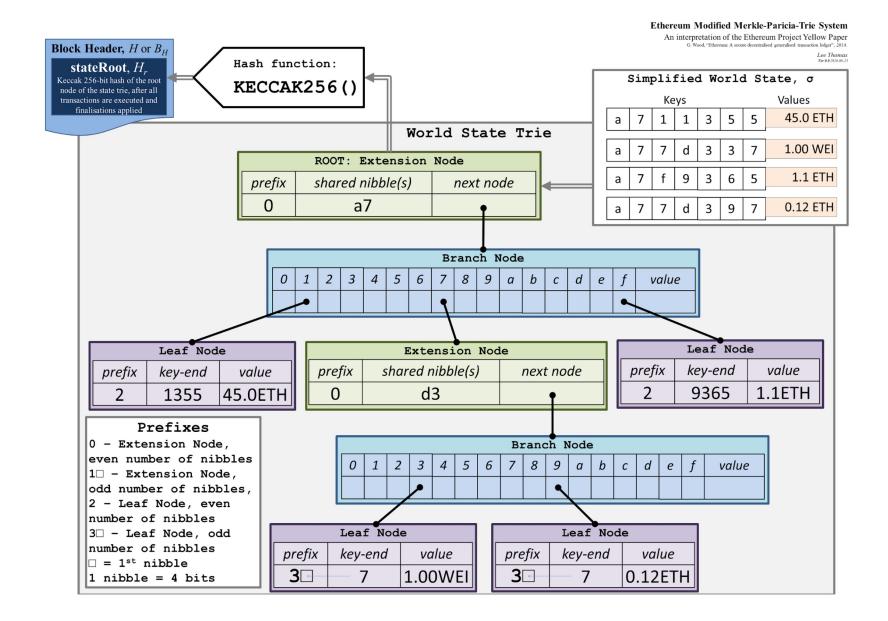


Merkle Patricia trie

- 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

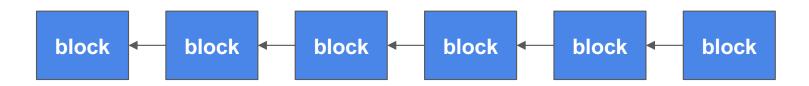
- Split nodes into three types:
 - Leaf: Stores edge string leading to it, and value
 - Extension: Stores string of a single edge, pointer to next node, and value if node marked
 - o **Branch**: Stores one pointer to another node per alphabet symbol, and **value** if node marked
- Encode keys as hex,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



Authenticated data in blockchains

Blockchain

- Each block references a previous block
- This reference is by hash to its previous block
- This linked list is called the blockchain
- Blocks contain list of transactions (more on this later)



*Convention: Arrows show authenticated inclusion

Blocks

ctr x s

- Data structure with three parts:
 - 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)
- Block validity:
 - Data must be valid (application-defined validity)
- s: pointer to the previous block by hash

Proof-of-work in blocks

Blocks must satisfy proof-of-work equation

$$H(ctr || x || s) \leq T$$

for some (protocol-parameter) T

- ctr is the nonce used to solve Proof-of-work
- The value H(ctr || x || s) is known as the blockid

Bitcoin at a high level

- 1. New transactions are broadcast to all nodes.
- 2. Each node collects new transactions into a block.
- 3. Each node works on finding a difficult proof-of-work for its block.
- 4. When a node finds a proof-of-work, it broadcasts the block to all nodes.
- 5. Nodes accept the block only if all transactions in it are valid and not already spent.
- 6. Nodes express their acceptance of the block by working on creating the next block in the chain, using the hash of the accepted block as the previous hash.

Digital Signature Scheme

- Three algorithms: KeyGen, Sign, Verify
- KeyGen
 - Input: security parameter (bits of security)
 - Output: a pair of keys <sk, vk> (sk: signing/private key, vk: verification/ public key)

• Sign

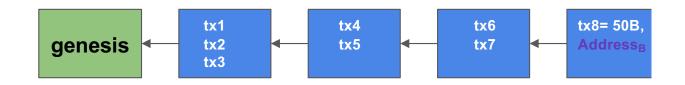
- Input: <sk, m> (m: message)
- Output: σ (σ: signature)

Verify

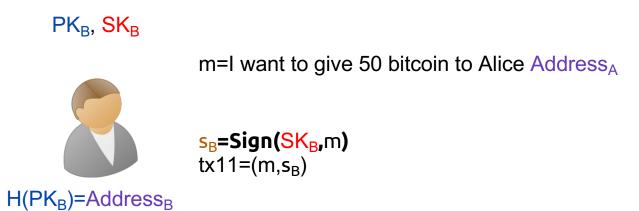
- \circ Input: <vk, m, σ>
- Output: {True, False}

Blockchain

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



High level idea (more details later)







Transactions

A simple transaction for financial data

- Input: contains a proof of spending an existing UTxO*
- Output: contains a verification procedure and a value

*UTxO = "Unspent Transaction Output"

Field	Description
In-counter	positive integer
list of inputs	the first input of the first transaction is also called "coinbase"
Out-counter	positive integer
list of outputs	the outputs of the first transaction spend the mined bitcoins for the block

Transactions

Input

Field	Description
Outpoint hash	The previous transaction that contains the spendable output
Outpoint index	The index within the previous transaction's output array to identify the spendable output
Script signature (ScriptSig)	Information required to spend the output (see below for details)

Output

Field	Description
Value	The monetary value of the output in satoshis
Script (ScriptPubKey)	A calculation which future transactions need to satisfy in order to spend it

Transaction Verification

```
scriptSig (input): <sig> <pubKey>
```

scriptPubKey (output): OP_DUP OP_HASH160 <pubKeyHash> OP_EQUALVERIFY OP_CHECKSIG

Transaction Verification

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The input in this transaction imports 50 BTC from output #0 in transaction f5d8... Then the output sends 50 BTC to a Bitcoin address. When the recipient wants to spend this money, he will reference output #0 of this transaction in an input of his own transaction.

Transaction Verification

```
Input:
...
Output:
Value: 5000000000
scriptPubKey: OP_DUP OP_HASH160
Address
OP_EQUALVERIFY OP_CHECKSIG
```

```
Input:

Previous tx: tx10

Index: 0

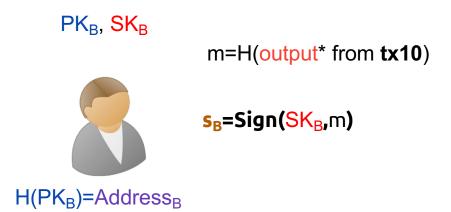
scriptSig: SB PKB

Output:

Value: 4000000000

scriptPubKey: OP_DUP OP_HASH160 AddressA

OP_EQUALVERIFY OP_CHECKSIG
```





PKA, SKA

Data and Transactions

- Financial data is encoded in the form of transactions
- Each block organizes transactions in an authenticated data structure
 - Bitcoin: Merkle Tree
 - Ethereum: Merkle Patricia Trie
- Every transaction is sent on the network to everyone via a gossip protocol

Question: Is it necessary to download the entire block (header + transactions)
 to verify whether a transaction is included in it?

The Bitcoin network

The bitcoin network

- All bitcoin nodes connect to a common p2p network
- Each node runs (code that implements) the Bitcoin protocol
- Open source code
- Each node connects to its (network) neighbours
- They continuously exchange data
- Each node can freely enter the network no permission needed!
 - A "permissionless network"
- The adversarial assumption:

There is no trust placed on any specific node or participant, anyone individually may 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 "pre-installed" with some peers by IP / host
- When running a node, you can specify extra "known peers"

The gossip protocol

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

Eclipse attacks

- Isolate some honest nodes in the network, effectively causing a "network 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
 - Highlight: "liveness favoring operation"

- 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

Summary: what we learned

- Hash functions and signatures: useful primitives, and building blocks for more complex protocols
- Authenticated data structures
 - Merkle trees
 - Tries / Patricia Merkle Trees
- Bitcoin
 - Blockchain Data Structure
 - Transactions
 - Payments
 - Network

Thanks

