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9 — Abstract -

Authenticated data structures allow several systems to convince each other that they are referring to the same data structure, even if each of them knows only a part of the data structure. Using inclusion proofs, knowledgeable systems can selectively share their knowledge with other systems and the latter can verify the authenticity of what is being shared.

In this paper, we show how to modularly define authenticated data structures, their inclusion proofs, and operations thereon as datatypes in Isabelle/HOL, using a shallow embedding. Modularity allows us to construct complicated trees from reusable building blocks, which we call Merkle functors. Merkle functors include sums, products, and function spaces and are closed under composition and least fixpoints.

¹⁹ As a practical application, we model the hierarchical transactions of Canton, a practical inter-

²⁰ operability protocol for distributed ledgers, as authenticated data structures. This is a first step

²¹ towards formalizing the Canton protocol and verifying its integrity and security guarantees.

²² 2012 ACM Subject Classification Theory of computation \rightarrow Logic and verification; Theory of ²³ computation \rightarrow Higher order logic; Theory of computation \rightarrow Cryptographic primitives

24 Keywords and phrases Merkle tree, functor, distributed ledger, datatypes, higher-order logic

²⁵ Supplement Material The formalization is available in the Archive of Formal Proofs [15].

²⁶ 1 Introduction

An authenticated data structure (ADS) allows several systems to use succinct digests to 27 convince each other that they are referring to the same data structure, even if each of 28 them knows only a part of the data structure. This has two main benefits. First, it saves 29 storage and bandwidth, as the systems only have to store parts of the entire structure that 30 they are interested in, and exchange just digests instead of the whole structure. This has 31 been exploited for a wide range of applications, e.g., logs in Certificate Transparency and 32 the blockchain structure and lightweight clients in Bitcoin. Second, ADSs allow parts of 33 the structure to be kept confidential to a subset of the systems involved in processing the 34 structure. For example, distributed ledger technology (DLT) promises to keep multiple 35 organizations synchronized about the state of their joint business workflows. Synchronization 36 requires transactions, i.e., atomic changes to the shared state. Yet organizations often do 37 not want to share all the changes with all involved parties. Some DLT protocols such 38 as the Canton interoperability protocol [6] and Corda [7] leverage ADSs to provide both 39 transactionality and varying levels of confidentiality. The formalization of Canton was the 40 starting point for this work. 41

⁴² Merkle trees [17] are the prime example of an ADS. The original Merkle tree is a binary ⁴³ tree with data at the leaves, where every node is assigned a hash (serving as the digest) ⁴⁴ using a cryptographic hash function h: a leaf with data d has hash h d and an inner node

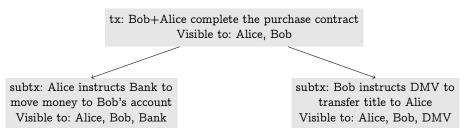


Figure 1 A hierarchical Canton transaction. DMV is the department of motor vehicles.

has the hash $h(h_1, h_r)$ where h_1 and h_r denote the hashes of the two children. If the hash 45 of the root is known to all systems, then one system can convince another that a certain 46 leaf stores data d. If π is the path from the root to the leaf, the inclusion proof consists 47 of the sibling hashes of the nodes on the path. Given such an inclusion proof, the other 48 system can recompute the hashes of the nodes on the path and check that the result matches 49 the common root hash. This shows that the leaf indeed stores the given data if the hash 50 function is collision-resistant. Moreover, the other system learns only hashes (of hashes) of 51 the other data in the tree. So if h is preimage-resistant, then the inclusion proof does not 52 leak information about the rest of the tree, provided that the hashed data contains sufficient 53 entropy. This idea generalizes to finite tree data structures in general [18]. 54

In this work, we consider authenticated data structures, which generalize Merkle trees to 55 arbitrary shape, and we show how to modularly define them as datatypes in Isabelle/HOL. 56 Modularity allows us to construct complicated trees from small reusable building blocks, for 57 which properties are easy to prove. To that end, we consider authenticated data structures 58 as functors and equip them with appropriate operations and their specifications. We show 59 that this class of functors includes sums, products, and function spaces, and is closed under 60 composition and least fixpoints. Concrete functors are defined as algebraic datatypes using 61 Isabelle/HOL's datatype package [1]. This shallow embedding makes it possible to use 62 Isabelle's rich infrastructure for datatypes. 63

As a practical application, we define ADSs over the hierarchical transactions [3] in the 64 Canton protocol. To see an example of such a transaction, suppose that Alice wants to sell a 65 car title to Bob. Transactionality allows Alice and Bob to exchange the title and the money 66 atomically, which reduces their counterparty risks. Figure 1 shows the corresponding Canton 67 transaction¹ for exchanging the money and the title. The transaction is generated from 68 a smart contract that implements the purchase agreement. Such smart contracts can be 69 conveniently written in the functional programming language DAML [8], which is built on 70 the same hierarchical transactions as Canton. 71

Canton's hierarchical transactions offer three advantages over conventional flat trans-72 actions found in other DLT solutions. First, complex transactions can be composed from 73 smaller building blocks. In the example above, the atomic swap transaction composes two 74 transactions: the money transfer and the title transfer. Second, if a participant is involved 75 only in a subtransaction, then the participant learns the contents of just this subtransaction, 76 but not of other parts. In the example, the Bank only sees the money transfer, but not 77 what Alice bought; similarly, the department of motor vehicles (DMV) does not see the 78 amount the car was sold for. This also improves scalability as everyone must process only 79

 $^{^{1}}$ Here and elsewhere in the paper, we take significant liberties in the presentation of Canton and focus on parts relevant for the construction of ADSs and for reasoning about them.

⁸⁰ the data they are involved in. Third, they include mandatory authorization checks, which

are enforced even in the presence of Byzantine parties. Authorization flows from top to bottom to enable delegation.

This hierarchy, enriched with some additional data, is encoded in ADSs and the protocol exchanges inclusion proofs for such trees. More details will be given throughout the paper. For now, it suffices to summarize the resulting requirements on the formalization:

Hashes allow for checking whether two inclusion proofs refer to the same ADS. This
 allows Canton to commit the example transaction atomically at all participants, even if
 the Bank and the DMV see only a part of it.

Inclusion proofs allow us to prove inclusion for multiple leaves at the same time. Canton
 sends such inclusion proofs to save bandwidth. Note that conventional inclusion proofs
 are only for a single leaf.

⁹² 3. Multiple inclusion proofs can be merged into one if they refer to the same ADS. This is because Canton merges inclusion proofs only if they have the same set of recipients. This reduces the load on the sender because it can multi-cast the same inclusion proof to all recipients. Merging also simplifies the recipients' job: for example, Alice will receive inclusion proofs for the entire transaction as well as both sub-transactions in Figure 1. Merging them leaves her with just a single data structure representing the entire transaction.

Our main contribution is a modular construction principle for ADSs as HOL datatypes, 99 i.e., functors. We also derive a variant of the ADSs that models inclusion proofs. To that end, 100 we introduce the class of Merkle functors, which are equipped with operations for hashing and 101 merging as required above. Our construction is modular in the sense that the class of Merkle 102 functors includes sums, products, and function spaces, and is closed under composition and 103 least fixpoints. Accordingly, the construction works for any inductive datatype (sums of 104 products and exponentials). Moreover, we show that the theory is suitable for constructing 105 concrete real-world instances such as Canton's transaction trees. The construction lives 106 in the symbolic models, i.e., we assume that no hash collisions occur. Our Isabelle/HOL 107 formalization is available in the Archive of Formal Proofs [15]. 108

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we describe our abstract interface for ADSs. Section 3 shows how to construct such interfaces for tree-like structures in a modular fashion. Section 4 demonstrates how to create inclusion proofs for general rose trees and Canton transactions in particular. We discuss the related work in Section 5 and conclude in Section 6.

114 2

Inclusion Proofs for Authenticated Data Structures

We now present the operations and abstract interfaces for ADSs, motivated by their appli-115 cation to Canton. Figure 2 shows a suitable a Canton-based deployment, where the Bank 116 and the DMV handle payments and car titles. The participants communicate with each 117 other using the Canton protocol. Unlike in most other DLT solutions, business data resides 118 with Canton primarily at the participants' nodes that share the data only on a need-to-know 119 basis [5]. Canton participants run a two-phase commit protocol to atomically update the 120 system state using transactions. The protocol is run over a Canton domain, which is operated 121 by a third party. The domain acts as the commit coordinator. While the participants may 122 be Byzantine, the domain is assumed to be honest-but-curious. That is, it is trusted to 123 correctly execute the protocol, but it should not learn the contents of a transaction (e.g., 124

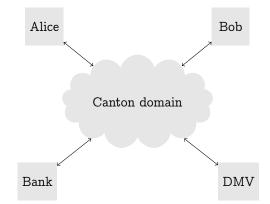


Figure 2 Example topology of a Canton-based distributed ledger

how much Alice pays to Bob). Instead, it should only learn the minimal metadata that
allows the protocol to tolerate Byzantine participants. Consequently, Canton sends business
data through the domain only in encrypted or hashed form.

This motivates the transaction tree structure that Canton uses. The structure for the 128 example transaction from Figure 1 is shown in Figure 3. Each (sub)-transaction of Figure 1 129 is turned into a view in Figure 3, which consists of the view data and view metadata. 130 For example, the node labeled by 1 in Figure 3 is the view corresponding to the top-level 131 transaction in Figure 1. Its two children that are leaves contain the view's data and metadata. 132 The metadata contains the information about who is affected by the view (here, Alice and 133 Bob) and should therefore participate in the two-phase commit. The metadata is shared with 134 Alice, Bob and the domain. The view data contains the confidential data with the actual 135 state updates, and is shared only with Alice and Bob. This view also has two subviews, which 136 correspond to the sub-transactions in Figure 1 as expected. A view can have an arbitrary 137 number of subviews; the views labeled by 1.1 and 1.2 have no subviews, for example. 138

Additionally, the entire transaction is also equipped with metadata describing transactionwide parameters, common to all views. Some of it is visible to all the involved participants, but not the domain, and some of it is visible to both the dmain and the participants. The leaf children of the tree's root node store this metadata. Formally, the transaction tree can be modelled by the following datatypes, for some types *common-metadata*, *participant-metadata*, *view-metadata*, and *view-data* whose contents are not relevant for this paper.

145 datatype view =

 $_{146}$ View (view-metadata) (view-data) (subviews: (view list))

 $_{^{147}}$ datatype transaction =

 $_{148}$ Transaction (common-metadata) (participant-metadata) (views: (view list))

¹⁴⁹ In Figure 3, the *Transaction* and *View* constructors become the inner nodes (black circles) ¹⁵⁰ and the data sits at the leaves (grey rectangles).

An ADS over this structure allows the participants and the domain use the root hash to refer to a transaction, and be sure that they are all referring to the same transaction tree. When constructing root hashes, it is useful to think of ADSs with multiple roots (i.e., forests) rather than just a single root like in a Merkle tree. For example, consider how the root node of a binary Merkle tree is constructed from two children. The two children themselves are Merkle trees, so we already have a forest of Merkle trees. More precisely, this forest has the shape of a pair. By adding the root node, we combine the whole forest into a larger Merkle

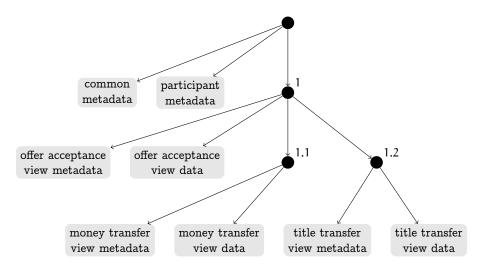


Figure 3 Simplified Canton transaction tree for car title sale of Figure 1

tree. By the construction of Merkle trees, the new root hash is computed solely from the root
hashes of the two child trees. Note that the concrete hash operation depends on the shape
of the forest (a pair in this case). The new root is again a degenerate forest of a single tree
with a single root hash. This view underlies our modular construction principle in Section 3.
In our construction, we will use the following conventions.

1. Raw data to be arranged in an ADSs is written as usual, e.g., 'a, 'a list.

¹⁶⁴ 2. Hashes and forests of hashes carry a subscript $_{h}$ as in $'a_{h}$. We leave hashes for now ¹⁶⁵ abstract as type variables and define them only in Section 3. Since the root hash identifies ¹⁶⁶ an ADS, we represent ADSs by their hashes.

Taking a root hash can make communication more efficient, but it is not enough for our 167 purposes. For example, Bank does not know the contents of view 1.2 or even who is involved 168 in view 1.2; the domain hides the latter. The views that are visible to a participant are 169 called the participant's projection of the transaction. Canton aims to achieve the following 170 integrity guarantee [3]: There exists a shared ledger that adheres to the underlying DAML 171 smart contracts such that its projection to each honest participant consists exactly of the 172 updates that have passed the participant's local checks. Achieving this guarantee for the 173 Bank hinges on the Bank's ability to ensure that the view 1.1 is really included in the 174 transaction tree. Thus, we also have to be able to prove that a substructure is included in a 175 root hash. 176

Inclusion proofs are therefore the main workhorse in our formalization and the focus of this paper. We will denote the type of inclusion proofs over the source type with a subscript $m_{,e.g., 'a_{m}, ('a_{m}, 'a_{h})}$ tree m. We need two operations on inclusion proofs:

Computing the (forest of) root hashes (which identifies the ADS to which the inclusion proof corresponds).

¹⁸² 2. Merging two inclusion proof with the same root hash.

¹⁸³ Accordingly, we introduce two type synonyms for these operations:

184 type_synonym (' $a_{\mathfrak{m}}$, ' $a_{\mathfrak{h}}$) hash = (' $a_{\mathfrak{m}} \Rightarrow 'a_{\mathfrak{h}}$)

185 type_synonym ' $a_{\mathfrak{m}}$ merge = $\langle a_{\mathfrak{m}} \Rightarrow a_{\mathfrak{m}} \Rightarrow a_{\mathfrak{m}}$ option

The merge operation returns *None* iff the inclusion proofs have different (forests of) root hashes. We require that merging is idempotent, commutative, and associative. The

locale merkle-interface below captures these properties. Associativity is expressed using the monadic (\gg) on the option type. The merge operation makes inclusion proofs with the same hash into a semi-lattice. We fix the induced order as another parameter bo of the locale, where an inclusion proof is smaller than another if it reveals less. In that case, we say that the smaller is a *blinding* of the larger inclusion proof.

```
type_synonym 'a_m blinding-of = \langle a_m \Rightarrow a_m \Rightarrow bool \rangle
193
      locale merkle-interface =
194
        fixes h :: \langle (a_m, a_h) hash \rangle
195
           and bo :: \langle a_m \ blinding-of \rangle
196
           and m :: \langle a_m \text{ merge} \rangle
197
        assumes merge-respects-hashes: (h \ a = h \ b \leftrightarrow (\exists ab. \ m \ a \ b = Some \ ab))
198
           and idem: \langle m \ a \ a = Some \ a \rangle
199
           and commute: \langle m \ a \ b = m \ b \ a \rangle
200
           and assoc: \langle m \ a \ b \gg m \ c = m \ b \ c \gg m \ a \rangle
201
```

and bo-def: (bo a $b \leftrightarrow m$ a b = Some b)

As expected for a semi-lattice, merging computes the least upper bound in the blinding relation:

$$(m \ a \ b = Some \ ab) = (bo \ a \ ab \land bo \ b \ ab \land (\forall u. \ bo \ a \ u \longrightarrow bo \ b \ ab \ u))$$

Also, the equivalence closure of the blinding relation gives the equivalence classes of the inclusion proofs under the hash function: equivclp $bo = vimage2p \ h \ h \ (=)$ where equivclp R denotes the equivalence closure of R and $vimage2p \ f \ g \ R = (\lambda x \ y. \ R \ (f \ x) \ (g \ y))$ the preimage of a relation under a pair of functions.

Our interface does not provide generic operations to build inclusion proofs for subtrees of tree-shaped data. This is because the construction depends on the exact shape of the tree. In Section 4, we will show how to create such proofs for the general shape of rose trees and Canton transactions in particular, using standard functional programming techniques.

²¹⁴ **3** Modularly Constructing Forests of Authenticated Data Structures

In this section, we develop the theory to modularly construct ADSs and their inclusion proofs as HOL datatypes, including the operations for *merkle-interface*. We first introduce the concept of a blindable position (Section 3.1), which models a node in an ADS, and show how we obtain ADSs for Canton's transaction trees by introducing blindable positions in the right spots of the datatype definitions (Section 3.2).

The specification *merkle-interface* is not inductive and therefore not preserved by datatype constructions. We therefore generalize the specification and show that the generalization is preserved under composition of functors and least fixpoints (Section 3.4). Finally, we show that sums, products and function spaces preserve the generalization (Section 3.5).

224 3.1 Blindable position

A blindable position represents a node (inner node or leaf) in an ADS. Every node in an ADS comes with its root hash. In this work, we model such hashes symbolically. That is, we assume that no hash collisions occur, i.e., the hash function from values to the type of hashes is injective. We do not assume surjectivity though: some hashes do not correspond to any value. We model such values as garbage coming from a countable set (the naturals). A

countable set is large enough given that ADS are always finite in practice (since one cannot
 compute a hash of infinite amounts of data).

232 type_synonym $garbage = \langle nat \rangle$

233 datatype ' a_h blindable_h = Content (' a_h) | Garbage (garbage)

Since the hash function is injective, we can identify the values 'a with a subset of the hashes, namely those of form *Content* _. Accordingly, we could also have written 'a blindable_h instead of 'a_h blindable_h. However, as an ADS contains hashes of hashes, it is more accurate to use 'a_h here.

For example, a degenerate Merkle tree with a single leaf, which stores some data x, has the root hash *Content* x. What does an inclusion proof for this tree look like? It can take two forms:

1. The inclusion proof proves inclusion of x, i.e., the leaf is not blinded. The inclusion proof thus contains x.

243 2. The inclusion proof does not prove inclusion of x, i.e., the leaf is blinded. So the inclusion 244 proof contains only the hash of x.

In the second case, the recipients of such an inclusion proof cannot verify that the hash is meaningful (unless they already know the contents). So the hash could also be garbage. The following datatype formalizes these cases.

²⁴⁸ datatype (a_m, a_h) blindable_m = Unblinded (a_m) | Blinded $(a_h$ blindable_h)

In general, inclusion proofs are nested, e.g., if a Merkle tree leaf contains another Merkle tree as data. We therefore use the inclusion proof type variable a_m instead of a for values, similar to a_h in *blindable*,

Note that our hashes are typed. Accordingly, the formalization cannot confuse hashes of 252 ADSs that store *ints* in their leaves with hashes of ADSs that store some other data, say 253 string. In the real world, this could happen as hashes are usually just bitstrings. However, 254 for reasoning about inclusion proofs, the garbage hashes adequately model such confusion 255 possibilities: If security best practices are followed, type flaw attacks lead to different hashes 256 unless a hash collision occurs. So the hash of the *int* Leaf would be interpreted as garbage in 257 the type of hashes for the ADS of *strings*. This is adequate for inclusion proofs because we 258 care about the contents of a hash only if the position is unblinded, i.e., of shape Content. 259

Having introduced the types for blindable positions, we now define the corresponding operations and show that they satisfy the specification *merkle-interface*. The hash operation converts an inclusion proof into the root hash of the tree. We define it in two steps:

(i) hash-blindable' assumes that there are no nested inclusion proofs, i.e., $a_{\rm m} = a_{\rm h}$.

(ii) hash-blindable generalizes hash-blindable ' to nested inclusion proofs. It first converting nested inclusion proofs to their root hashes using the hash function that is given as a parameter. Here, map-blinddable_m is the mapper generated by the datatype command.

```
primrec hash-blindable ' ::: \langle ((a_h, a_h) blindable_m, a_h blindable_h) hash \rangle where

\langle hash-blindable' (Unblinded x) = Content x \rangle

\langle hash-blindable' (Blinded x) = x \rangle
```

270

271 **definition** *hash-blindable*

 $\begin{array}{ll} {}_{272} & :: \langle (\,'a_{\mathfrak{m}},\,\,'a_{\mathfrak{h}}) \,\,hash \Rightarrow ((\,\,'a_{\mathfrak{m}},\,\,'a_{\mathfrak{h}}) \,\,blindable_{\mathfrak{m}},\,\,'a_{\mathfrak{h}} \,\,blindable_{\mathfrak{h}}) \,\,hash \rangle \,\, \text{where} \\ {}_{273} & \langle hash-blindable \,\,h \,\,= \,hash-blindable\,\,' \circ \,\,map-blindable_{\mathfrak{m}} \,\,h \,\,id \rangle \end{array}$

Next, we define the blinding order *blinding-of-blindable*. Like *hash-blindable*, it is parametrized by the hash function and the blinding order for the nested inclusion proofs.

The first clause lifts the blinding order in case the inclusion proof unblinds the contents. The second clause, when the position on the left is blinded, checks that both positions have the same hash.

```
context fixes h :: \langle (a_m, a_h) hash \rangle and bo :: \langle a_m blinding-of \rangle begin
279
    inductive blinding-of-blindable :: \langle (a_m, a_h) blindable_m blinding-of \rangle where
280
      \langle blinding-of-blindable (Unblinded x) (Unblinded y) \rangle if \langle bo x y \rangle
281
    | (blinding-of-blindable (Blinded x) t) if (hash-blindable h t = x)
282
    end
283
        Merging of blindable positions works similarly. If both positions are unblinded, merge-blindable
284
    tries to merge the contents. If both are blinded, it succeeds iff the hashes are the same.
285
    Otherwise, it checks that the hashes are the same and, if so, returns the unblinded version.
286
    context fixes h :: \langle (a_m, a_h) hash \rangle and m :: \langle a_m merge \rangle begin
287
    fun merge-blindable :: \langle (a_m, a_h) blindable_m merge \rangle where
288
      (merge-blindable (Unblinded x) (Unblinded y) = map-option Unblinded (m x y))
280
    | (merge-blindable (Blinded t) (Blinded u) =
290
       (if t = u then Some (Blinded u) else None)
291
    | (merge-blindable (Blinded x) (Unblinded y) =
292
       (if x = Content (h y) then Some (Unblinded y) else None)
293
    | (merge-blindable (Unblinded y) (Blinded x) =
294
       (if x = Content (h y) then Some (Unblinded y) else None)
295
    end
296
```

```
    It is straightforward to show that these definitions preserve the specification merkle-interface.
    That is, if the operations for nested inclusion proofs satisfy merkle-interface, then so do the
    operations for blindable<sub>m</sub>.
```

```
<sup>300</sup> lemma merkle-blindable:
```

```
301 (merkle-interface
```

```
_{302} (hash-blindable h)
```

```
303 (blinding-of-blindable h bo)
```

```
(merge-blindable \ h \ m)
```

```
_{305} if (merkle-interface h bo m)
```

306 3.2 Example: Canton transaction trees

We now illustrate how to use $blindable_h$ and $blindable_m$ to define the ADSs and inclusion proofs for the Canton transaction trees from Section 2. As shown in Figure 3, the transaction tree contains a node for the transaction tree as a whole, every view, and every leaf (*common-metadata*, *participant-metadata view-metadata*, and *view-data*). Yet, the datatype declarations do not contain the information what should become a separate node in the ADS. To make the construction systematic, we consider the blindable positions to be marked in the datatype with the type constructor blindable.

```
<sup>314</sup> type_synonym 'a blindable = \langle 'a \rangle
```

³¹⁵ So we pretend in this section as if *views* and *transactions* were defined as follows:

- $_{316}$ datatype view = View
- $_{317}$ ((view-metadata blindable \times view-data blindable) \times view list) blindable
- $_{318}$ datatype transaction = Transaction

```
\langle ((common-metadata blindable \times participant-metadata blindable) \times view list )
319
        blindable)
320
         To define the hashes and inclusion proofs, we simply replace each type constructor \tau with
321
     its counterparts \tau_h and \tau_m. For views, this looks as follows. Here \times_h, \times_m, list<sub>h</sub>, and list<sub>m</sub>
322
     are type synonyms for \times and list; Section 3.5 introduces them formally. We abuse notation
323
     by writing view-metadata<sub>h</sub> view-metadata<sub>m</sub> for the blindable position of view-metadata.
324
     type_synonym view-metadata<sub>h</sub> = \langle view-metadata \ blindable_h \rangle
325
     type_synonym view-data<sub>h</sub> = \langle view-data \ blindable_h \rangle
326
     datatype view_{h} = View_{h} \langle ((view-metadata_{h} \times_{h} view-data_{h}) \times_{h} view_{h} list_{h}) blindable_{h} \rangle
327
     type_synonym view-metadata<sub>m</sub> = \langle (view-metadata, view-metadata) blindable_m \rangle
328
     type_synonym view-data<sub>m</sub> = \langle (view-data, view-data) blindable_m \rangle
329
     datatype view_m = View_m
330
       \langle ((view-metadata_{m} \times_{m} view-data_{m}) \times_{m} view_{m} list_{m}, \rangle
331
         (view-metadata_h \times_h view-data_h) \times_h view_h list_h) blindable_m
332
     These types nest hashes and inclusion proofs: A view node, e.g., nests hashes and inclusion
333
     proofs for the metadata, the data, and all the subviews. In particular, the view_{\rm h} and view_{\rm m}
334
     datatypes recurse through the blindable_h and blindable_m type constructors. This works
335
     because blindable_{\rm h} and blindable_{\rm m} are bounded natural functors (BNFs) [21]. In fact, this
336
     transformation works for any datatype declaration thanks to the compositionality of BNFs.
337
     The construction for transaction trees is accordingly:
338
     type_synonym common-metadata<sub>h</sub> = \langle common-metadata \ blindable_h \rangle
339
     type_synonym common-metadata_m =
340
       \langle (common-metadata, common-metadata) blindable_m \rangle
341
     type_synonym participant-metadata<sub>h</sub> = \langle participant-metadata \ blindable_h \rangle
342
     type_synonym participant-metadata<sub>m</sub> =
343
       \langle (participant-metadata, participant-metadata) blindable_m \rangle
344
     datatype transaction_{h} = Transaction_{h}
345
       \langle ((common-metadata_h \times_h participant-metadata_h) \times_h view_h list_h) blindable_h \rangle
346
     datatype transaction_m = Transaction_m
347
       \langle ((common-metadata_{\mathfrak{m}} \times_{\mathfrak{m}} participant-metadata_{\mathfrak{m}}) \times_{\mathfrak{m}} view_{\mathfrak{m}} list_{\mathfrak{m}},
348
         (common-metadata_h \times_h participant-metadata_h) \times_h view_h list_h) blindable_m
349
```

350 3.3 Composition

Having defined the types of ADSs, we next must define the operations on ADSs and prove that
they satisfy *merkle-interface*. Doing so directly is possible, but prohibitively cumbersome.
Instead, we modularize the proofs following the structure of the types. We can derive
preservation lemmas for all involved type constructors analogous to *merkle-blindable*.

The preservation lemmas are compositional by construction: if $a_{\rm h} \tau_{\rm h}/a_{\rm m} \tau_{\rm m}$ and $b_{\rm h} \sigma_{\rm h}/b_{\rm m} \sigma_{\rm m}$ preserve *merkle-interface*, then so does their composition $a_{\rm h} \tau_{\rm h} \sigma_{\rm h}/a_{\rm m}$ $\tau_{\rm m} \sigma_{\rm m}$. Moreover, every nullary functor also satisfies *merkle-interface* with the discrete ordering (=).

```
definition merge-discrete :: \langle a \text{ merge} \rangle where
```

```
\langle merge-discrete \ x \ y = (if \ x = y \ then \ Some \ y \ else \ None) \rangle
360
    lemma merkle-discrete: (merkle-interface id (=) merge-discrete)
361
    For view-data, for example, we compose the corresponding discrete functor with a blindable
362
    position.
363
    abbreviation hash-view-data :: \langle (view-data_m, view-data_h) hash \rangle where
364
       \langle hash-view-data \equiv hash-blindable id \rangle
365
    abbreviation blinding-of-view-data :: \langle view-data<sub>m</sub> blinding-of \rangle where
366
       \langle blinding-of-view-data \equiv blinding-of-blindable id (=) \rangle
367
    abbreviation merge-view-data :: \langle view-data_m merge \rangle where
368
      \langle merge-view-data \equiv merge-blindable id merge-discrete \rangle
369
370
    lemma merkle-view-data:
371
       (merkle-interface hash-view-data blinding-of-view-data merge-view-data)
372
      by(rule merkle-blindable)(rule merkle-discrete)
373
```

If we do the same for *view-metadata* and consider the pair *view-metadata* × *view-data*, composition immediately gives us the following (the operations for products will be introduced in Section 3.5).

```
377 lemma (merkle-interface
```

```
378 (hash-prod hash-view-metadata hash-view-data)
```

379 (blinding-of-prod blinding-of-view-metadata blinding-of-view-data)

380 (merge-prod merge-view-metadata merge-view-data))

381 3.4 Inductive generalization for least fixpoints

382 The *view* datatype is the least fixpoint of the functor

 $_{_{383}}$ 'a $F = ((view-metadata blindable \times view-data blindable) \times 'a list) blindable$

and so are $view_h$ and $view_m$ of analogous functors F_h and F_m . Composition gives us a preservation theorem for F, but we need more for least fixpoints.

In fact, *merkle-interface* is not inductive, so least fixpoints need not preserve it. The problem is the following: In the inductive preservation proof, we get the induction hypothesis only for smaller values. We therefore cannot use F's preservation theorem because *merkle-interface* requires the conditions to hold on *all* values, not just the smaller ones. So we must generalize *merkle-interface* to make it inductive.

In our first attempt with a direct generalization, the proofs about the merge operation turned out to be rather cumbersome. The associativity law in particular required many case distinctions due to the *options*. We therefore present a different approach where the focus is on the blinding relation and merge is merely characterized as the join. We abstractly derive commutativity, idempotence, and associativity for merge once and for all from the ordering properties and merge's characterization. This leads to simpler proofs where all case distinctions dealt with by Isabelle's proof automation.

```
<sup>398</sup> Our generalization splits merkle-interface into three locales (Figure 4):
```

The locale *blinding-respects-hashes* splits off the first assumption of *merkle-interface*.
 No relativization is needed here because the (inductive) blinding order *bo* occurs only
 once and in a negative position. The preservation proof can therefore use rule induction
 rather than structural induction.

```
locale blinding-respects-hashes =
fixes h :: ⟨('a<sub>m</sub>, 'a<sub>h</sub>) hash⟩
and bo :: ⟨'a<sub>m</sub> blinding-of⟩
assumes hash: ⟨bo ≤ vimage2p h h (=)⟩
locale blinding-of-on = blinding-respects-hashes ⟨h⟩ ⟨bo⟩ for A h bo +
assumes refl: ⟨x ∈ A ⇒ bo x x⟩
and trans: ⟨[ bo x y; bo y z; x ∈ A ]] ⇒ bo x z⟩
and antisym: ⟨[ bo x y; bo y z; x ∈ A ]] ⇒ x = y⟩
locale merge-on = blinding-of-on ⟨UNIV⟩ ⟨h⟩ ⟨bo⟩ for A h bo m +
assumes join: ⟨[ h x = h y; x ∈ A ]]
⇒ ∃z. m x y = Some z ∧ bo x z ∧ bo y z ∧ (∀u. bo x u → bo y u → bo z u)⟩
and undefined: ⟨[ h x ≠ h y; x ∈ A ]] ⇒ m x y = None⟩
Figure 4 Inductive generalization of merkle-interface
```

2. The locale *blinding-of-on* formalizes the order properties of the blinding relation bo 403 (reflexivity, transitivity, antisymmetry). It fixes a set A in addition to the Merkle 404 operations; the inductive proof for fixpoints instantiates A with the set of smaller terms 405 for which the properties hold by the induction hypothesis. Accordingly, one of the variables in the properties is restricted to A. (Since the induction proof will be structural, 407 it suffices to restrict one variable instead of all.) Unlike hash for blinding-respects-hashes, 408 transitivity and antisymmetry cannot be shown by rule induction even though bo occurs as an assumption, because bo occurs multiple times, but rule induction acts only on 410 one. Accordingly, F's preservation theorem does not apply to the induction hypothesis 411 because it assumes that all occurrences are the same.² 412

```
    3. The locale merge-on augments blinding-of-on with the characterization for merge as the
    join. While merge-on's assumptions are again restricted by A, the restriction is removed
    on the assumptions of the parent locale blinding-of-on by setting A to the type universe
    UNIV.
```

This change is crucial and the reason for introducing three locales: When we prove *join* for the least fixpoint, we can (and must) use that *bo* is an order *everywhere*. This is because *join* uses *bo* with many different arguments, in particular the result *z* of the merge. In a unified locale, we would have to prove that *z* stays within the set *A*, which incurred a lot more proof effort.

- ⁴²² In the unrestricted case, *merge-on* is equivalent to *merkle-interface*:
- 423 lemma (merkle-interface h bo $m \leftrightarrow$ merge-on UNIV h bo m)

We are now ready to define the class of Merkle functors. For readability, we only spell out the case of unary functors. The generalization to n-ary functors is as expected.

▶ Definition 1 (Merkle functor). A unary BNF F_h and binary BNF F_m constitute a unary Merkle functor if there exist operations hash-F' :: $(('a_h, 'a_h) F_m, 'a_h F_h)$ hash

²Alternatively, we could have generalized the property such that different blinding relations are allowed. Preservation of transitivity becomes preservation of relation composition and antisymmetry transforms into preservation of intersections. For reflexivity, we would still have needed to the set A however.

and blinding-of- $F :: ('a_{\mathfrak{m}}, 'a_{\mathfrak{h}}) hash \Rightarrow 'a_{\mathfrak{m}} blinding-of \Rightarrow ('a_{\mathfrak{m}}, 'a_{\mathfrak{h}}) F_{\mathfrak{m}} blinding-of$ and merge- $F :: ('a_{\mathfrak{m}}, 'a_{\mathfrak{h}}) hash \Rightarrow 'a_{\mathfrak{m}} merge \Rightarrow ('a_{\mathfrak{m}}, 'a_{\mathfrak{h}}) F_{\mathfrak{m}} merge with the$ following properties

	Monotonicity	$bo \leq bo'$
31		blinding-of-F h bo \leqslant blinding-of-F h bo'
	Congruence	$orall a{\in}A. \; orall b. \; m \; a \; b = m ' \; a \; b$
		$\forall x \in \{y. \; set_1 ext{-}F_{\mathfrak{m}} \; y \subseteq A\}$. $\forall b. \; merge ext{-}F \; h \; m \; x \; y = merge ext{-}F \; h \; m' \; x \; y$
	Hashes	blinding-respects-hashes h bo
		$\overline{blinding}$ -respects-hashes (hash-F h) (blinding-of-F h bo)
	Blinding order	blinding-of-on A h bo
		$\overline{\textit{blinding-of-on } \{x. \textit{ set}_1\text{-}F_{\mathfrak{m}} x \subseteq A\} \; (\textit{hash-}F \; h) \; (\textit{blinding-of-}F \; h \; bo)}$
	Merge	merge-on A h bo m
		$\hline merge-on \; \{x. \; set_1 \text{-} F_{\; \mathfrak{m}} \; x \subseteq A \} \; (\textit{hash-F } h) \; (\textit{blinding-of-F } h \; \textit{bo}) \; (\textit{merge-F } h \; m) \\$

432 where hash- $F h = hash-F' \circ map-F_m h id$.

431

447

450

Every Merkle functor preserves *merkle-interface*: set A = UNIV in the merge property and use the above equivalence between *merkle-interface* and *merge-on*.

435 We are now ready to state and prove the main theoretical contribution of this paper.

⁴³⁶ ► Theorem 2. Merkle functors of arbitrary arity are closed under composition and
 ⁴³⁷ least fixpoints.

438 Proof. Closure under composition is obvious from the shape of the properties and the fact
 439 that BNFs are closed under composition.

For closure under least fixpoints, we consider a functor F and its least fixpoint T through one of F's arguments. say datatype T = T "T F", and similarly for $T_{\rm h}$ and $T_{\rm m}$. The operations are defined as follows, where we omit all Merkle operation parameters for type parameters that are not affected.

The hash operation hash-T' is defined by primitive recursion:

hash-
$$T'(T_{\mathfrak{m}} x) = T_{\mathfrak{h}} (hash-F'(map-F_{\mathfrak{m}} hash-T'x)).$$

446 The blinding order *blinding-of-T* is defined inductively by the following rule:

$$\frac{\textit{blinding-of-F hash-T blinding-of-T x y}}{\textit{blinding-of-T (T_m x) (T_m y)}}$$

448 Monotonicity ensures that blinding-of-T is well-defined.

Merge merge-T is defined by well-founded recursion (over the subterm relation on $T_{\rm m}$):

merge-T
$$(T_{\mathfrak{m}} x) (T_{\mathfrak{m}} y) = map$$
-option $T_{\mathfrak{m}} (merge$ -F hash-T merge-T $x y)$

⁴⁵¹ Congruence ensures that *merge-F* calls *merge-T* recursively only on smaller arguments. ⁴⁵² We have not been able to define *merge-T* with primitive recursion, which allows pattern ⁴⁵³ matches only on one argument, not two. Our attempts with **primrec** failed because the ⁴⁵⁴ recursive call occurs under *merge-F*, which is not $F_{\rm m}$'s mapper. The usual trick of using ⁴⁵⁵ parametricity theorems to extract the recursive calls into *map-F*_m did not work because ⁴⁵⁶ the parametricity theorem for *merge-F* is too weak. It is also not clear how it could be ⁴⁵⁷ strengthened without excluding important examples of Merkle functors such as *blindable*.

Well-founded recursion works well, except that Isabelle has no automatic parametricity
 inference for well-founded recursion. We therefore manually proved the parametricity
 theorems that the transfer package needs.

⁴⁶¹ Monotonicity and preservation of *blinding-respects-hashes* are proven by rule induction on ⁴⁶² *blinding-of-T*. Congruence, *blinding-of-on*, and *merge-on* are shown by structural induction ⁴⁶³ on the argument that is constrained by A.

It is not possible to formalize this theorem abstractly in Isabelle/HOL because it is not 464 possible to abstract over type constructors. Instead, we have axiomatized a binary Merkle 465 functor using the bnf_axiomatization command and carried out the construction and proofs 466 for least fixpoints and composition. This approach is similar to how Blanchette et al. have 467 formalized the theory of bounded natural functors [2]. The axiomatization also illustrates 468 how the definition and proofs generalize to several functors with type arguments. Moreover, 469 all the example ADS constructions in Section 3.6 merely adapt these proofs to the concrete 470 functors at hand. 471

472 3.5 Concrete Merkle functors

We now present concrete Merkle functors. They show that the class of Merkle functors is sufficiently large to be of interest. In particular, it contains all inductive datatypes (least fixpoints of sums of products). We have formalized all of the following.

The discrete functor from Section 3.3 with hash operation id and the discrete blinding order (=) is a nullary Merkle functor.

⁴⁷⁸ Blindable positions $blindable_h$ and $blindable_m$ are a unary Merkle functor.³

Sums and products are binary Merkle functors. We set $a_h \times_h b_h = a_h \times b_h$ and $a_m \times_m b_m = a_m \times b_m$ and similarly for $+_h$ and $+_m$. Formally, \times_m and $+_m$ should take four type arguments. However, as sums and products do not themselves contain blindable positions, the type arguments a_h and b_h are ignored and we therefore omit them. The hash operations hash-prod and hash-sum are the mappers map-prod and map-sum, respectively. The blinding orders blinding-of-prod and blinding-of-sum are the relators rel-prod and rel-sum. The merge operations are defined as follows:

```
486 merge-prod ma mb (x, y) (x', y') =
487 ma x x' \gg (\lambda x''. map-option (Pair x'') (mb y y'))
```

```
488 merge-sum ma mb (Inl x) (Inl y) = map-option Inl (ma x y)
```

489 merge-sum ma mb (Inr x) (Inr y) = map-option Inr (mb x y)

- 490 merge-sum ma mb (Inr v) (Inl va) = None
- 491 merge-sum ma mb (Inl va) (Inr v) = None

⁴⁹² The function space $a \Rightarrow b$ is a unary Merkle functor in the codomain. (Like for sums ⁴⁹³ and products, $a \Rightarrow_h b_h = a \Rightarrow b_h$ and $a \Rightarrow_m b_m = a \Rightarrow b_m$ and we omit the ⁴⁹⁴ ignored b_h .) Hashing is function composition and the blinding order is pointwise. Merge ⁴⁹⁵ is defined by

³The proof of transitivity preservation requires that the blinding order bo on a_m respects hashes everywhere, not only on A. This is the reason why we have split the locale blinding-respects-hashes from blinding-of-on.

496 $merge-fun \ m \ f \ g =$

497 (if $\forall x. m (f x) (g x) \neq N$ one then Some $(\lambda x. the (m (f x) (g x)))$ else None)

⁴⁹⁸ Proving the Merkle properties requires choice.

⁴⁹⁹ 3.6 Case study: Merkle rose trees and Canton's transactions

Thanks to Theorem 2, all datatypes built from the Merkle functors in the previous section are also Merkle functors. We now show the elegance and expressiveness of Merkle functors using three datatypes: lists, rose trees and Canton transaction, where each builds on the previous ones.

504 Lists are isomorphic to the datatype

505 datatype 'a list' = List' (unit + 'a × 'a list')

and therefore also a Merkle functor. We have carried out this construction as *list* occurs in Canton transaction trees. Like sums, products, and function spaces, *lists* do not contain blindable positions directly, so $list_{\rm h} = list_{\rm m} = list$. Hashing and the blinding order are the mapper and the relator. Initially, we tried to prove *merkle-interface* for *lists* directly, but the proofs about merge quickly got out of control. We therefore carried out the fixpoint construction of Theorem 2 for *list* ' and transferred the definitions and theorems to *list* using the transfer package [13].

⁵¹³ Rose trees are then given by the datatype

 $_{514}$ datatype 'a rose-tree = Tree (('a × 'a rose-tree list) blindable)

515 Applying our constrution, we obtain Merkle rose trees as

 $_{516}$ datatype a_h rose-tree_h = Tree_h $\langle (a_h \times_h a_h rose-tree_h list_h) blindable_h \rangle$

 $_{517}$ datatype ($'a_{m}$, $'a_{h}$) rose-tree_m = Tree_m

 $('a_{\mathfrak{m}} \times_{\mathfrak{m}} ('a_{\mathfrak{m}}, 'a_{\mathfrak{h}}) \text{ rose-tree}_{\mathfrak{m}} \text{ list}_{\mathfrak{m}}, 'a_{\mathfrak{h}} \times_{\mathfrak{h}} 'a_{\mathfrak{h}} \text{ rose-tree}_{\mathfrak{h}} \text{ list}_{\mathfrak{h}}) \text{ blindable}_{\mathfrak{m}})$

⁵¹⁹ with the corresponding operations and their properties.

From here, it is only a small step to transactions in Canton. Views are Merkle rose trees where the data at the nodes is instantiated with the Merkle functor corresponding to *view-metadata blindable* \times *view-data blindable*. Then, transactions compose the Merkle functor for *common-metadata blindable* \times *participant-metadata blindable* \times *- list* with views. We have lifted our machinery from these raw Merkle functors to the datatypes view_m and transaction_m using the lifting and transfer packages [13].

526 **4** Creating Inclusion Proofs

So far, given a tree-like data type 't, we showed how to systematically construct the corresponding type of ADSs ' t_h and their inclusion proofs, ' t_m . To make use of this construction in practice, we must also be able to create values of type ' t_m from values of type 't. As in the case of our composition and fixpoint theorem, HOL's lack of abstraction over type constructors makes it impossible to express this process in HOL in its full generality. Instead, we show how it works on rose trees, as these are the most general type of tree in terms of branching. The construction can be easily adapted for other kinds of trees.

⁵³⁴ There are three basic operations:

⁵³⁵ Hashing *hash-source-tree* returns the root hash for a source tree.

⁵³⁶ Embedding *embed-source-tree* returns the inclusion proof that proves inclusion of the ⁵³⁷ whole tree.

Fully blinding *blind-source-tree* returns the inclusion proof that proves no inclusion at all.

⁵⁴⁰ Hashing and fully blinding conceptually do the same thing, but their return types ($'a_h$ ⁵⁴¹ rose-tree_h and ($'a_m$, $'a_h$) rose-tree_m) differ. As rose trees are parameterized by their node ⁵⁴² label type, hashing, embedding and fully blinding take parameters which hash or embed the ⁵⁴³ node labels. The expected properties hold: the embedded and fully blinded versions of the ⁵⁴⁴ same source tree have the same hash, namely the hashing of the source tree, and the former ⁵⁴⁵ is a blinding of the latter.

The more interesting operations concern creating an inclusion proof for a subtree of a tree. For example, with Canton's hierarchical transactions, we would like to prove that a subtransaction is really part of the entire transaction. Such a proof consists of the subtree itself, together with a path connecting the tree's root to the subtree's root. As noticed by Seefried [20], this corresponds to a zipper [12] focused on the subtree. This enables simple manipulation of such proofs in a functional programming style, well-suited to HOL. The zippers for rose trees are captured by the following types.

type_synonym 'a path-elem = $\langle a \times a rose-tree list \times a rose-tree list \rangle$

554 type_synonym 'a path = $\langle a \text{ path-elem } list \rangle$

555 type_synonym 'a zipper = $\langle a \text{ path } \times a \text{ rose-tree} \rangle$

Given a zipper that focuses on a node, we define the operations that turn rose trees into zippers and vice-versa

558 tree-of-zipper([], t) = t

tree-of-zipper
$$((a, l, r) \cdot z, t) = tree-of-zipper (z, Tree (a, l @ t \cdot r))$$

so zipper-of-tree $t \equiv ([], t)$

The zippers for inclusion proofs have the exact same shape, except that all the type 561 constructors are subscripted by $_{m}$ and have another type parameter capturing the type of 562 hashes (e.g., (a, a_h) zipper_m). Like for source trees, we define operations that blind and 563 embed a path respectively, and define operations that convert between Merkle rose trees 564 and their zippers. As expected, given the same source zipper, blinded and embedding its 565 path yield a Merkle rose tree with the same hash. Furthermore, reconstructing a Merkle rose 566 tree constructed by embedding a source zipper gives the same result as first reconstructing 567 the source zipper, and then embedding it into a Merkle rose tree. Finally, we show that 568 reconstruction of trees from zippers respects the blinding relation if the Merkle operations 569 on the labels satisfy *merkle-interface*: 570

```
<sup>571</sup> blinding-of-tree h bo (tree-of-zipper<sub>m</sub> (p, t)) (tree-of-zipper<sub>m</sub> (p, t')) =
<sup>572</sup> blinding-of-tree h bo t t'
```

Inclusion proofs derived from zippers prove inclusion of a single subtree of the rose tree. When we want to create an inclusion proof for several subtrees, we create an inclusion proof for each individual subtree and then merge them into one. To that end, we have defined the function *zippers-rose-tree* that enumerates the inclusion proof zippers for all nodes of a rose tree.

For Canton's transactions, we have lifted the zippers and their theorems from rose trees to *views*. We define the projection of the inclusion-proof embedded view for one participant P as follows:

- Enumerate all zippers for the views in the transaction using the lifted version of
 zippers-rose-tree.
- Each such zipper gives us direct access to the view's metadata. Use the metadata to
 determine whether P is a recipient of the view. If not, filter out the zipper.
- 3. Convert the zippers into inclusion proofs for the view and compose each of them with
 the transaction metadata inclusion proof.
- ⁵⁸⁷ **4.** Merge all these inclusion proofs into one.

This gives an inclusion proof for the recipient's projection of the transaction. At the end of the two-phase commit protocol, the domains's commit message contains an inclusion proof of the view common data for all the views that the participant should have received. By comparing this inclusion proof against the projection using *blinding-of-transaction*, the participant can decide whether it has received all views it was supposed to receive. (Conversely, checking that it does not receive extraneous views is simple as it can be read from the view metadata.)

595 **5** Related Work

Miller et al. developed a lambda calculus with authentication primitives for generic tree 596 structures [18]. The calculus was formalized in Isabelle/HOL by Brun and Traytel [4]. In the 597 calculus, the programmer annotates the structures with authentication tags. Given a value 598 of such a structure, and a function operating on it, their presented method automatically 599 creates a correctness proof accompanying a result. The proof allows a verifier that holds 600 only a digest of values with authentication tags (but not the values themselves) to check 601 the function's result for correctness. The proof is a stream of inclusion proofs, one for each 602 tagged value that the function operates on. Merging of inclusion proofs is not considered, 603 although the streams can be optimized by sharing. Unlike Brun and Traytel [4] who use 604 a deep embedding with the Nominal library, our embedding is shallow. Furthermore, our 605 ADSs can provide inclusion proofs for multiple sub-structures simultaneously. However, we 606 do not aim to derive correctness proofs for functions on the data structures. 607

White [22] designed a cryptographic ledger with lightweight proofs of transaction validity 608 and formalized the design in Coq. The ledger is a function from assets to addresses. 609 Transactions move assets between addresses and transform one ledger into another. The 610 transactions' plausibility can be proved by checking that the assets existed in the old ledger 611 and that the assets in the new ledger were moved to the correct place. Ledgers are represented 612 by a tree, where leaves list assets and a tree path encodes an address. A Merkle structure 613 over the tree and Merkle inclusion proofs of the assets' movement relieve the verifiers from 614 having to know the entire ledger. A merge operation allows a single Merkle tree to provide 615 several inclusion proofs. The Coq development is tailored to the use case: the Merkle trees 616 are binary and the leaves are restricted to fixed single type (either asset lists or sentinels that 617 mark empty subtrees). Our generic development can be instantiated to cover this structure. 618

Yu et al. [23] use Merkle constructions on different binary trees to implement logs with inclusion and exclusion proofs. The constructions are proved correct using a pen-and-paper approach. The proved properties are then used in the Tamarin verification tool to analyze a security protocol.

Ogawa et al [19] formalize binary Merkle trees as used in a timestamping protocol. They automatically verify parts of the protocol using the Mona theorem prover.

⁶²⁵ Seefried [20] observed that inclusion proofs in a Merkle tree correspond to the derivative ⁶²⁶ of the type, i.e., a Huet-style zipper [12], where the subtrees in zipper context have been

replaced by the Merkle root hashes. McBride showed that zippers represent one-hole contexts [16]. In this analogy, our inclusion proofs correspond to contexts with arbitrarily many holes where the subtrees without holes have been replaced by the corresponding hashes. These many-hole zippers must not be confused with Kiselyov's zippers [14] and Hinze and Jeuring's webs [11], which are derived from the traversal operation rather than the data structure .

We have presented a modular construction principle for authenticated data structures over HOL datatypes (i.e., functors) that have a tree-like shape, and basic operations over these structures. The class of supported functors includes sums, products, and functions, and is closed under composition and least fixpoints. The supported operations are root hash computations and merging of inclusion proofs. We showed how to instantiate the construction to rose trees, as well as to a real-world structure used in Canton, a Byzantine fault tolerant atomic commit protocol.

The ongoing formalization of the Canton protocol will continue to test our abstractions 640 and trigger further improvements. As noted earlier, ADSs cannot only improve storage 641 efficiency, but also provide confidentiality. For example, Canton uses them to keep parts of a 642 transaction confidential to a subset of the transaction's participants. However, reasoning 643 about confidentiality is not straightforward. As hashing is injective, we can simply write 644 inv h x in HOL to obtain the pre-image of a hash x. In fact, our current model does not 645 even distinguish between the authenticated data structure and its root hash because of this. 646 A sound confidentiality analysis must therefore restrict the adversary using an appropriate 647 calculus, e.g., a Dolev-Yao style deduction relation [9]. 648

In a system, if a source substructure S is unblinded somewhere in an inclusion proof ip, 649 then the confidentiality analysis of the structure should unblind all occurrences of Blinded 650 (Content S), in ip, regardless of the position where they occur. Our blinding orders and 651 the merge operation do not do this. For example, consider a binary Merkle tree of two 652 leaves that both store a value x. So both leaves have the same hash, and the recipient of 653 an inclusion proof for one leaf detects that the other leaf has the same hash. So they can 654 deduce that the other leaf also contains the value x. Yet, in our blinding order, the inclusion 655 proof for one leaf is strictly smaller than an inclusion proof for both leafs. For proving 656 Canton's integrity guarantees, this is not a problem because confidentiality is not a concern. 657 Moreover, all leaves in the transaction tree contain nonces and the domain checks that all 658 hashes in its inclusion proof are distinct. So the lack of unblinding might not be a problem 659 for reasoning about confidentiality in Canton, even though a proper treatment would simplify 660 the soundness argument. 661

A related issue is that our modular approach does not apply to commutative structures, 662 such as multisets. The conceptual problem is that the issue with substructures and confiden-663 tiality also appears when merging inclusion proofs for commutative structures. One option is 664 consider Merkle functors as quotients with respect to a normalization function that collects 665 all unblinding information and propagates the unblinding across the whole inclusion proof. 666 The normalized inclusion proofs then serve as the canonical representatives. We have not 667 yet worked out whether such a construction can still be modular and whether the quotients 668 are still BNFs [10]. 669

Moreover, our representation of hashes as terms makes hashing injective. While this is "morally equivalent" to standard cryptographic assumptions, an alternative (followed by [4]) would be to prove results about authentication as a disjunction: either the result holds, or a hash collision was found. The advantage of such a statement would be that hash

⁶⁷⁴ collisions become explicit, which simplifies the soundness argument for the formalization. As
⁶⁷⁵ is, nothing that prevents us from conceptually "evaluating" the hash function on arbitrarily
⁶⁷⁶ many inputs, which would not be cryptographically sound. To make hash collisions explicit,
⁶⁷⁷ we must make hashes explicit, i.e., use a type like *bitstrings* instead of terms. This can be
⁶⁷⁸ done as additional step.

- 679 typedecl bitstring
- $_{680}$ class encode =
- 681 fixes encode :: $\langle a \Rightarrow bitstring \rangle$
- 682 assumes enj-encode: (inj encode)

Encoding functions must be defined for all types used as arguments to *blindable*. For *blindable* itself, we then define the actual hash operation as follows.

primrec root-hash :: ((' a_h :: encode) blindable_h \Rightarrow bitstring) where

(root-hash (Garbage garbage) = encode-garbage garbage)

687 | (root-hash (Content x) = encode x)

This can be lifted to forests using the functorial structure of Merkle functors, similar to how hash- $F h = hash-F' \circ map-F_m h id$ first hashes the elements of F using h and then applies the actual function hash-F'. We do not expect problems with extending our constructions to such a model, but it is unclear how severely the indirection through *bitstrings* impacts our proofs, in particular the Canton formalization.

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