Research Prospective

Consensus Protocols

- Permissionless Blockchain
 - PoW
 - PoS
 - PoET
 - PoB

.

•

•

- Permissioned Blockchain
 - RAFT
 - PAXOS
 - BFT
 - PBFT
 - RBFT (Redundant Byzantine Fault Tolerence)

PoW Vs PBFT

PoW

- Open environment
- Works over a large number of nodes
- Scalable in terms of number of nodes (+ve)
- Transaction throughput is low:
 - Very less no. of transactions per block (-Ve)
 - No. of transactions per unit time

PBFT

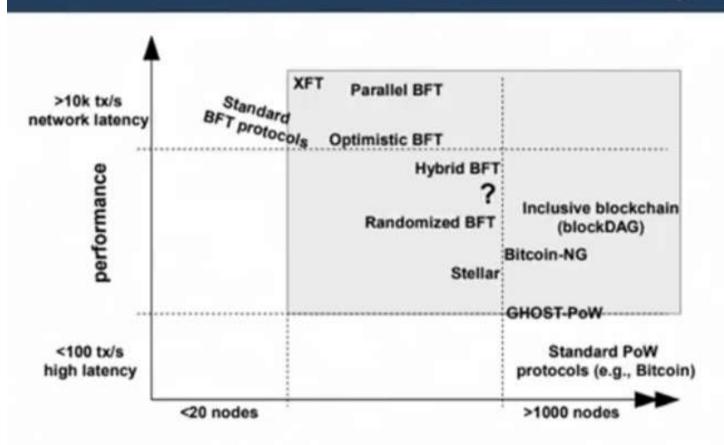
- Closed
- Not scalable in terms of number of nodes
- High transaction throughput (+ve)
- High message complexity (-ve)

PoW Scalability

- Two magic numbers in PoW
 - Block frequency 10 minutes
 - Block size 1 MB
 In 2008, but later it increased upto 8 MB
- Transaction throughput 7 transactions per second (with 200-250 bytes transactions)

VISA or Master card transactions: About 40-45 million per second

Performance vs Scalability for PoW and BFT



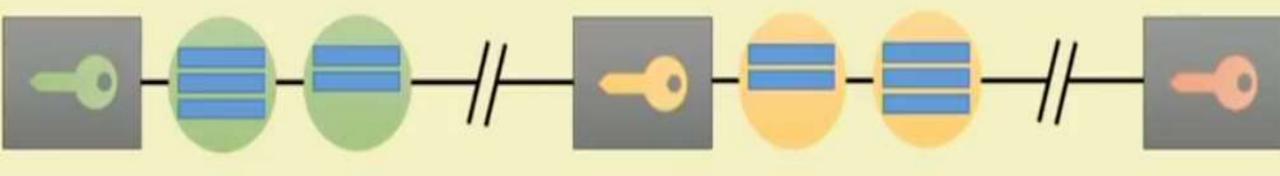
Vukolić, Marko. "The quest for scalable blockchain fabric: Proof-of-work vs. BFT replication." International Workshop on Open Problems in Network Security. Springer, Cham, 2015.

PoW vs PBFT - Consensus Finality

- If a correct node p appends block b to its copy of blockchain before appending block b', then no correct node q appends block b' before b to its copy of the blockchain (Vukolic, 2015)
- PoW is a randomized protocol does not ensure consensus finality
 - Remember the forks in Bitcoin blockchain
- BFT protocols ensure total ordering of transactions ensures consensus finality

	PoW consensus	BFT consensus
Node identity management	open, entirely decentralized	permissioned, nodes need to know IDs of all other nodes
Consensus finality	no	yes
Scalability (no. of nodes)	excellent (thousands of nodes)	limited, not well explored (tested only up to $n \le 20$ nodes)
Scalability (no. of clients)	excellent (thousands of clients)	excellent (thousands of clients)
Performance (throughput)	limited (due to possible of chain forks)	excellent (tens of thousands tx/sec)
Performance (latency)	high latency (due to multi-block confirmations)	excellent (matches network latency)
Power consumption	very poor (PoW wastes energy)	good
Tolerated power of an adversary	≤ 25% computing power	≤ 33% voting power
Network synchrony assumptions	physical clock timestamps (e.g., for block validity)	none for consensus safety (synchrony needed for liveness)
Correctness proofs	no	yes

Bitcoin-NG



Eyal, I., Gencer, A. E., Sirer, E. G., & Van Renesse, R. (2016, March). **Bitcoin-NG: A Scalable Blockchain Protocol**. In *NSDI 2016*

Bitcoin-NG

Issues with Nakamoto Consensus (PoW)

Transaction scalability

 Block frequency of 10 minutes and block size of 1 MB during mining reduces the transactions supported per second

Issues with Forks

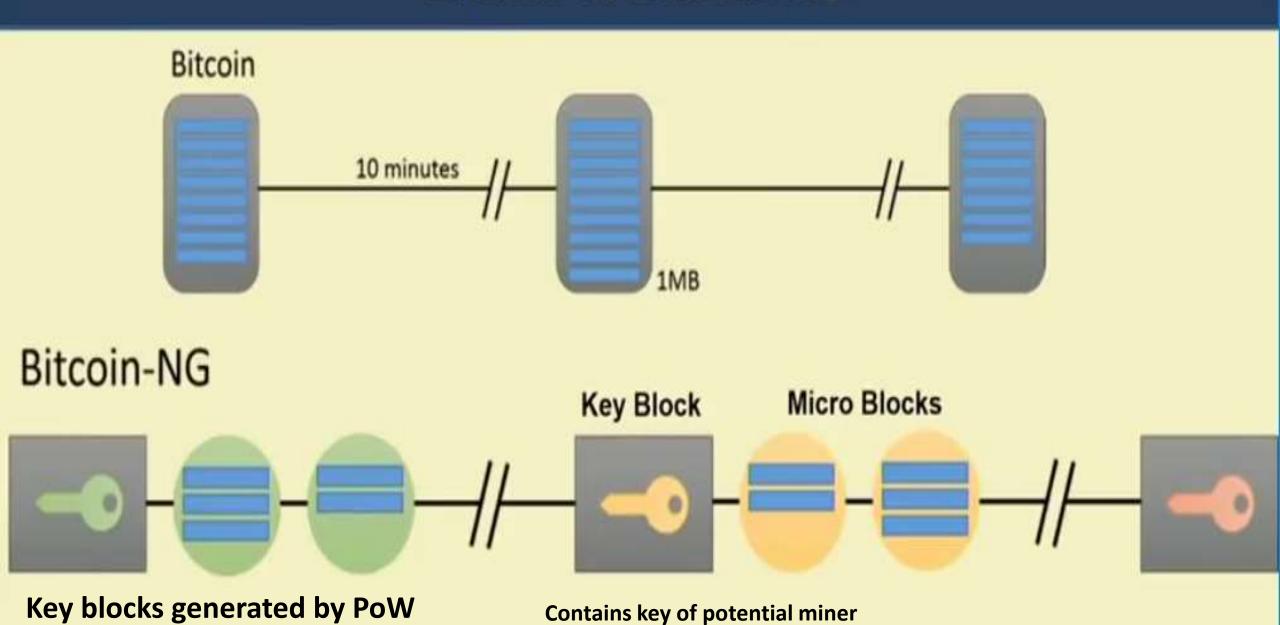
- Prevents consensus finality
- Makes the system unfair a miner with poor connectivity has always in a disadvantageous position

Bitcoin-NG: A Scalable PoW Protocol

 Bitcoin - think of the winning miner as the leader - the leader serializes the transactions and include a new block in the blockchain

- Decouple Bitcoin's blockchain operations into two planes
 - Leader election: Use PoW to randomly select a leader (an infrequent operation)
 - Transaction Serialization: The leader serializes the transaction until a new leader is elected

Bitcoin vs Bitcoin-NG



Bitcoin-NG: Key Blocks

Key blocks are used to choose a leader (similar to Bitcoin)

- A key block contains
 - The reference to the previous block
 - The current Unix time
 - A coinbase transaction to pay of the reward
 - A target hash value
 - A nonce field

Bitcoin-NG: Key Blocks

 For a key block to be valid, the cryptographic hash of its header must be smaller than the target value.

- The key block also contains a public key (so the name, key block)
 - Used in subsequent microblocks

Bitcoin-NG: Key Blocks

- Key blocks are generated based on regular Bitcoin mining procedure
 - Find out the nonce such that the block hash is less than the target value

 Key blocks are generated infrequently - the intervals between two key blocks is exponentially distributed

Bitcoin-NG: Microblocks

Once a node generates a key block, it becomes the leader

- As a leader, the node is allowed to generate microblocks
 - Microblocks are generates at a set rate smaller than a predefined maximum
 - The rate is much higher than the key block generation rate

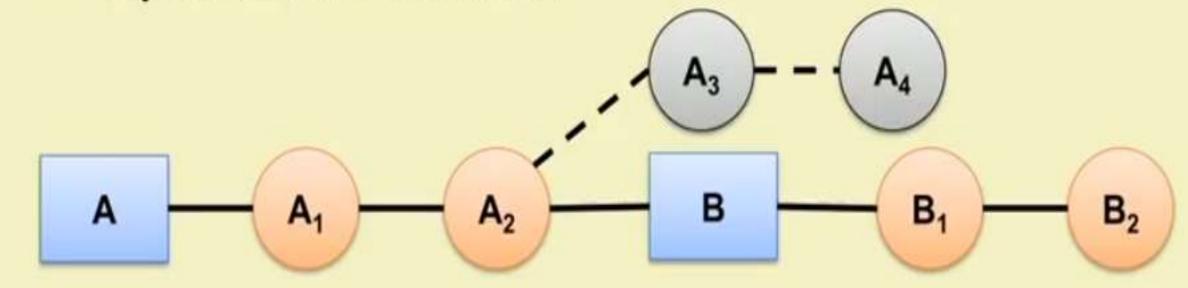
Bitcoin-NG: Microblocks

- A microblock contains
 - Ledger entries
 - Header
 - Reference to the previous block
 - The current Unix time
 - A cryptographic hash of the ledger entries (Markle root)
 - A cryptographic signature of the header

The signature uses private key corresponding to the key block public key

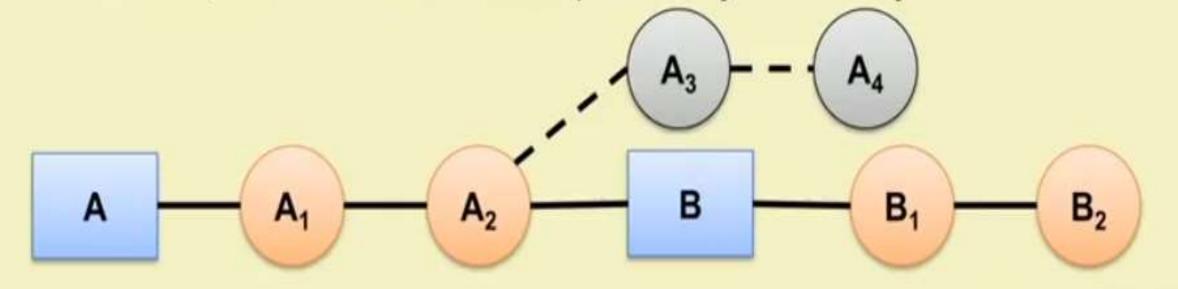
Bitcoin-NG: Confirmation Time

- When a miner generates a key block, he may not have heard of all microblocks generated by the previous leader
 - Common if microblock generation is frequent
 - May result in microblock fork

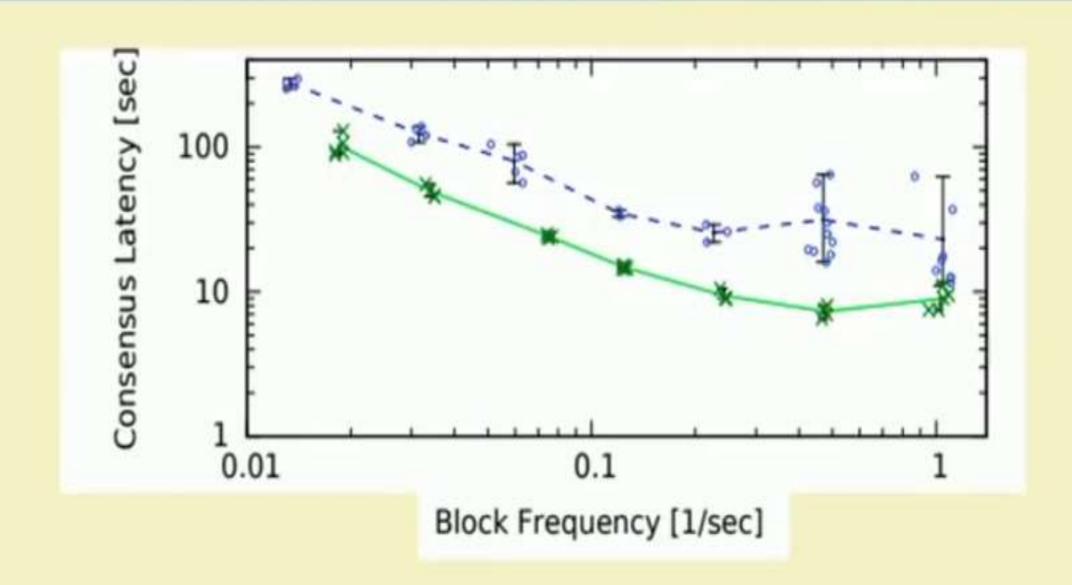


Bitcoin-NG: Confirmation Time

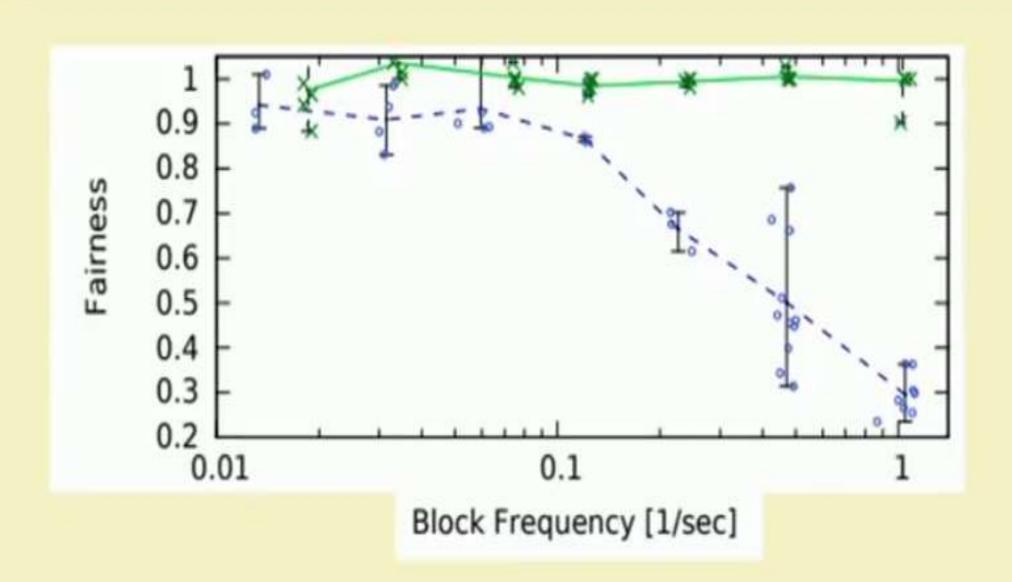
- A node may hear a forked microblock (A₃) but not the new key block (B)
 - This can be prevented by ensuring the reception of the key block
 - When a node sees a microblock, it waits for propagation time of the network, to make sure it is not pruned by a new key block



Bitcoin vs Bitcoin-NG



Bitcoin vs Bitcoin-NG



Requirements for Blockchain Consensus

 Byzantine fault tolerant – the system should work even in the presence of malicious users while operating across multiple administrative domains

Should provide strong consistency guarantee across replicas

 Should scale well to increasing workloads in terms of transactions processed per unit time

Should scale well to increasing network size

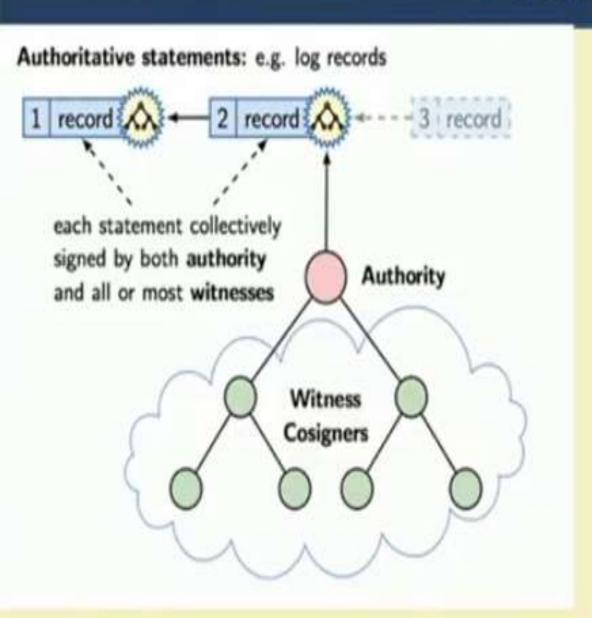
Collective Signing (CoSi)

 Method to protect "authorities and their clients" from undetected misuse or exploits

 A scalable witness cosigning protocol ensuring that every authoritative statement is validated and publicly logged by a diverse group of witnesses before any client accepts it

 A statement S collectively signed by W witnesses assures clients that S has been seen, and not immediately found erroneous, by those W observers.

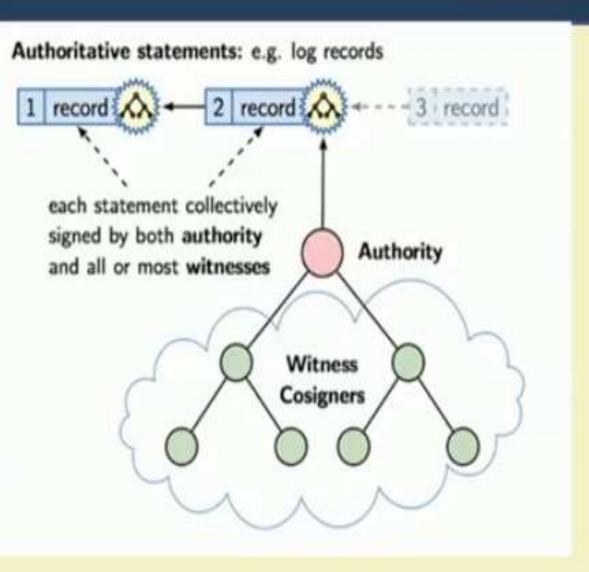
CoSi Architecture



 The leader organizes the witnesses in a tree structure – a scalable way of aggregating signatures coming from the children

 Three rounds of PBFT (pre-prepare, prepare and commit) can be simulated using two rounds of CoSi

CoSi Architecture



- The basic CoSi protocol uses
 Schnorr signatures, that rely on a group G of prime order
 - Discrete logarithmic problem is believed to be hard

Key Generation:

- Let G be a group of prime order r. Let g be a generator of G.
- Select a random integer x in the interval [0, r 1]. x is the private key and g^x is the public key.
- N signers with individual private keys x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N , and the corresponding public keys $g^{x_1}, g^{x_2}, \dots, g^{x_N}$

Signing:

- Each signer picks up the random secret v_i , generates $V_i = g^{v_i}$
- The leader collects all such V_i , aggregates them $V = \prod V_i$, and uses a hash function to compute a collective challenge c = H(V||S). This challenge is forwarded to all the signers.
- The signers send the response $r_i = v_i cx_i$. The leader computes the aggregated as $r = \sum r_i$. The signature is (c, r).

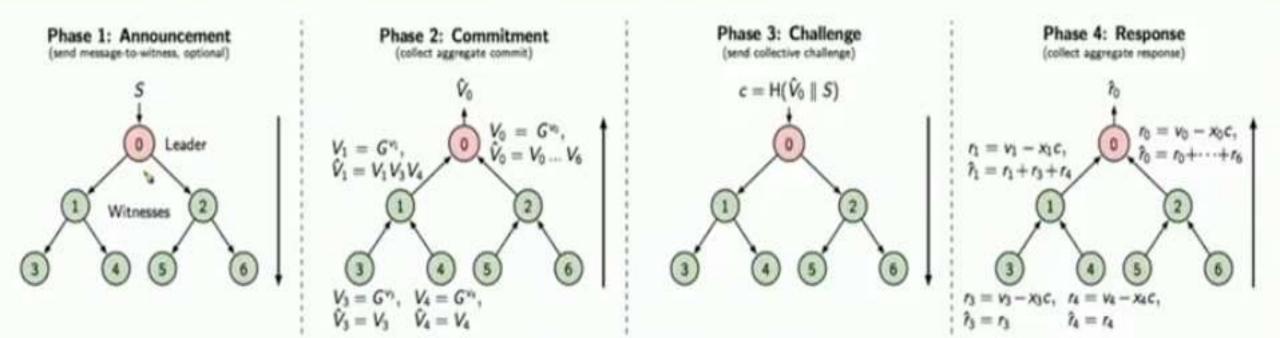
Verification:

- The verification key is $y = \prod g^{x_i}$ Gxi is the public key. We verify using public key.
- The signature is (c, r), where c = H(V||S) and $r = \sum r_i$
- Let $V_v = g^r y^c$
- Let $r_v = H(V_v||S)$
- If $r_v = r$, then the signature is verified

Proof:

- The verification key is $y = \prod g^{x_i}$
- The signature is (c,r), where c=H(V||S) and $r=\sum r_i$
- $-V_v = g^r y^c = g^{\sum(v_i cx_i)} \prod g^{cx_i} = g^{\sum(v_i cx_i)} g^{\sum cx_i} = g^{\sum v_i} = \prod g^{v_i} = \prod V_i = V$
- So, $r_v = H(V_v||S) = H(V||S) = r$

CoSi Protocol

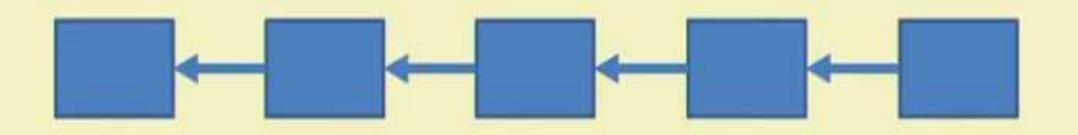


One CoSi round to implement PBFT's pre-prepare and prepare phases

Second CoSi round to implement PBFT's commit phase

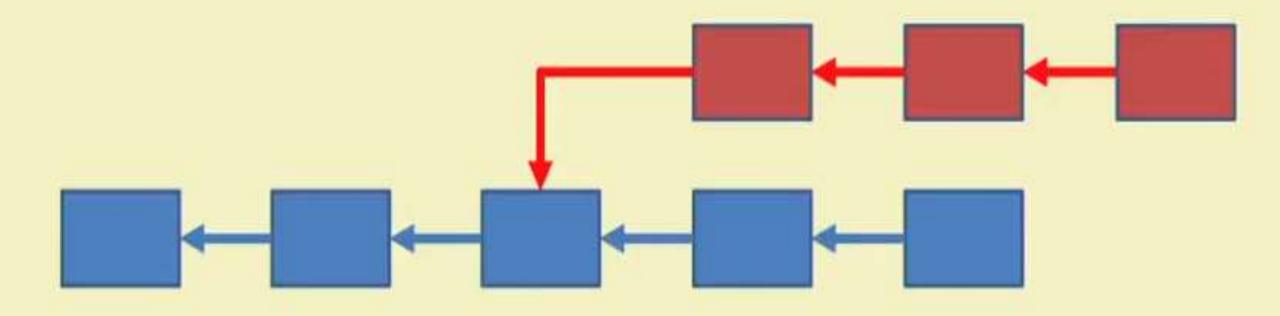
Problems with Bitcoin

- There is no verifiable commitment of the system that a block would exist
 - Probability of successful fork attack decreases as the size of the Blockchain increases



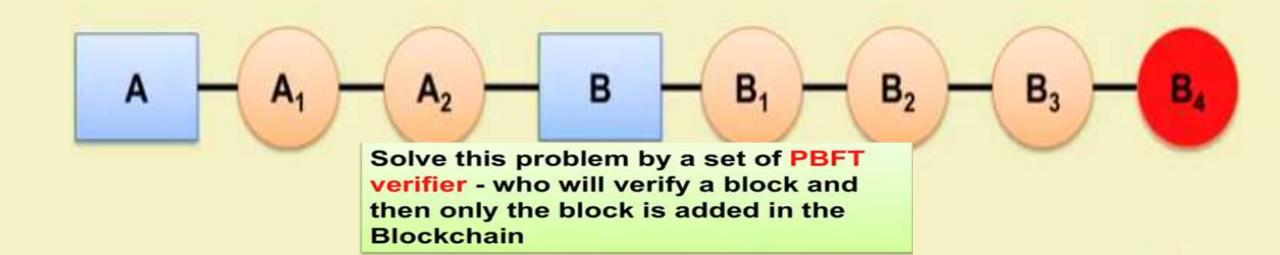
Problems with Bitcoin

There is no verifiable commitment of the system that a block would exist



Problems with Bitcoin-NG

- A faulty key block is verified only after end of the round
 - A faulty miner can introduce a number of correct microblocks
 following a faulty microblock in the system certainly a overhead for
 the application a fork alleviates the problem further



PBFTCoin - A Strawman Design

- Assumption: 3f+1 fixed "trustees" are there, who will run the PBFT to withstand f failures
 - Avoid the probabilistic strong consistency introduces low latency in the system
 - No forks in the system Blocks are added only after verification from the trustees

Problems of PBFT

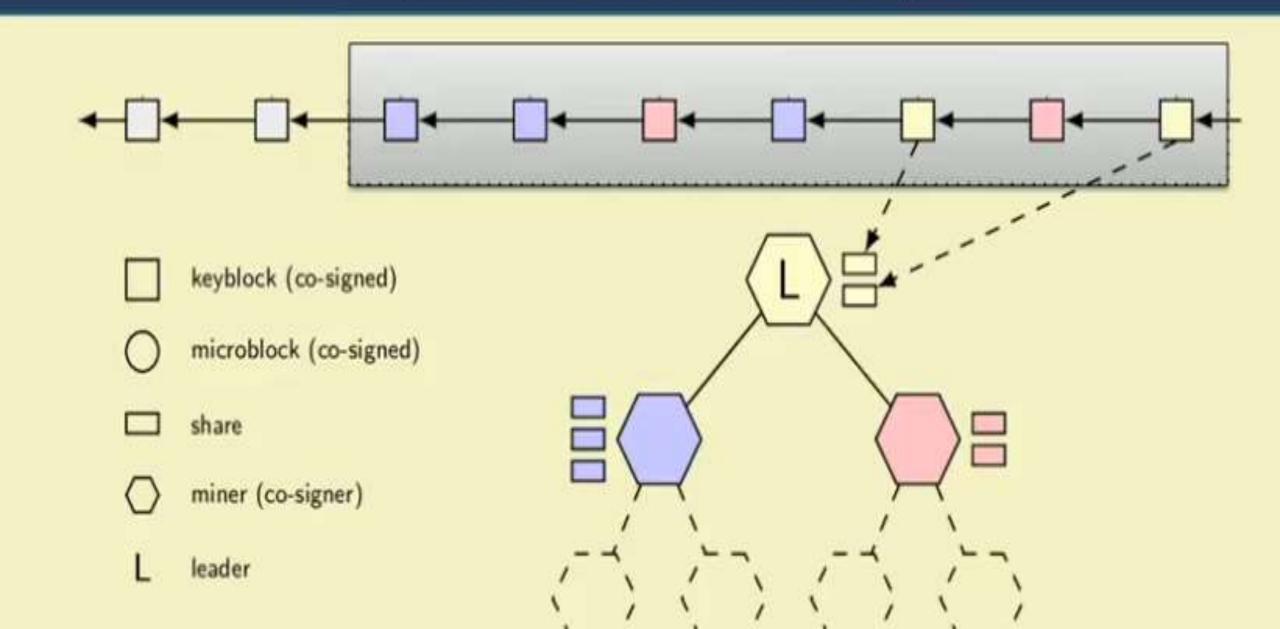
- PBFT requires a static consensus group (because of message passing)
- Scalability (in terms of nodes) is a problem for PBFT
 - O(n²) communication complexity
 - O(n) verification complexity
 - Absence of third-party verifiable proofs (PBFT uses MAC need to share the keys among the miners)
- Sybil attack create multiple pseudonymous identities to subvert the 3f+1 requirements of PBFT

Open the Consensus Group

 Use PoW based system to give a proof of membership of a miner as a part of the trustees

- Maintains a "balance of power" within the BFT consensus group
 - Use a fixed-size sliding window
 - Each time a miner finds a new block, it receives a consensus group share
 - The share proves the miner's membership in the trustee group

Open the Consensus Group



Improve Efficiency

- Improve O(n) communication complexity
 - Use tree based multicast protocol share information with O(log n)

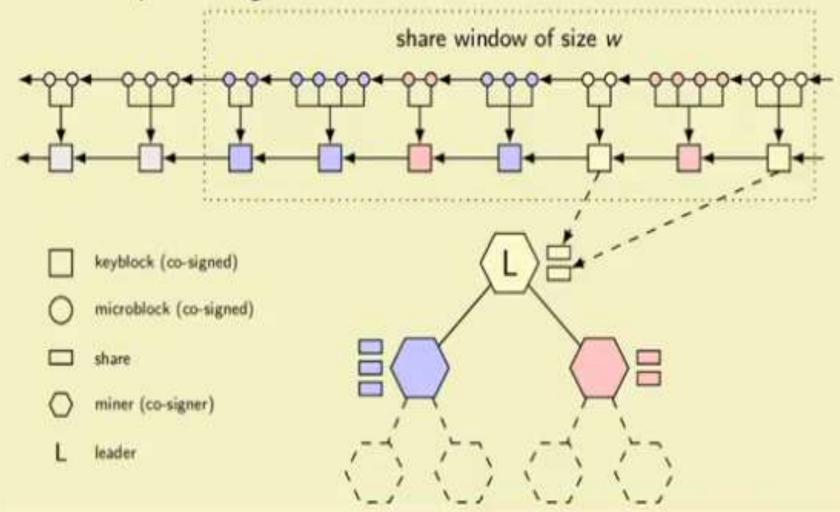
- Improve O(n) complexity for verification
 - Use Schnorr multisignatures or BLS for verification
 - Verification can be done in O(1) through signature aggregation

Multisignatures + Communication trees - CoSi

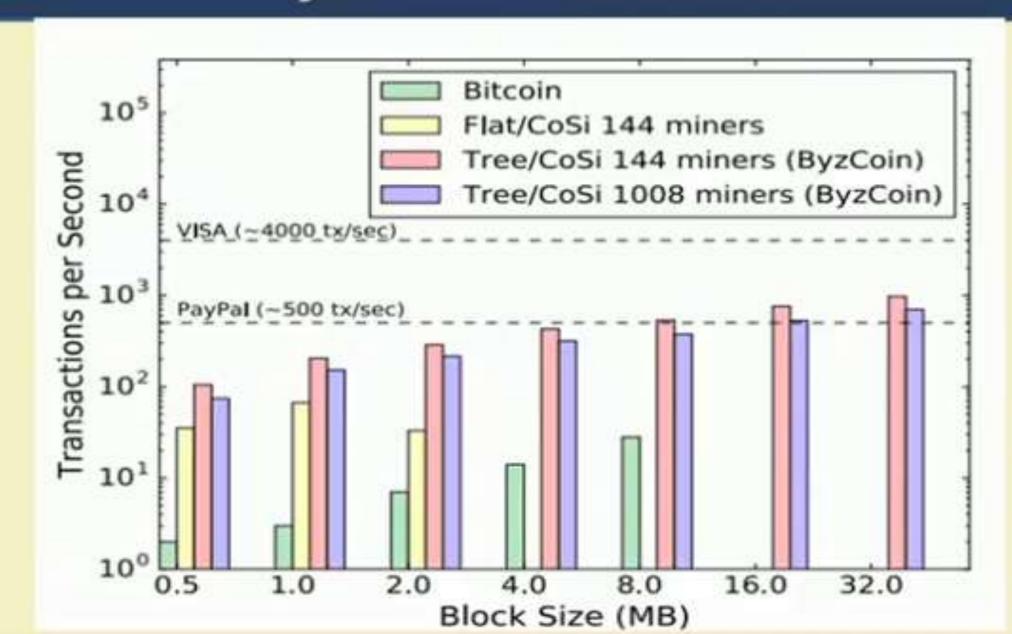
Further Improvement

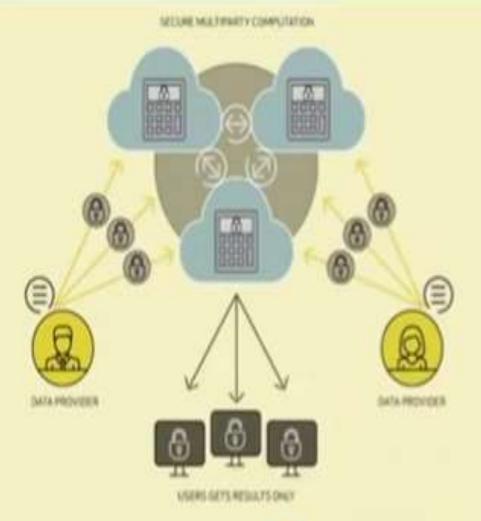
Inherit Bitcoin NG's idea of separating out transaction verification and

leader election



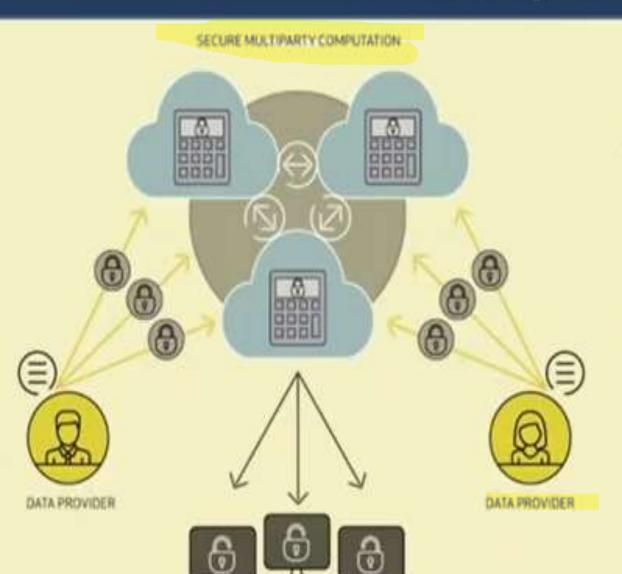
ByzCoin Performance





Secured Multiparty Computation over Blockchain

Multiparty Computation (MPC)



- Information/data is distributed among multiple authorities with different data share or data distribution policies
- Users want to run a computation however, the computation involves access to data from multiple sources

User doesn't want to reveal the private data, but wants to result of certain computation on the data

Image source: https://thehub.dk/jobs/company/partisia

Dining Cryptographer Problem

 Three cryptographers are sitting down to dinner at their favorite restaurant

 Any of the cryptographer can pay the bill, or the bill can be directly paid by the National Security Council (NSC)



Dining Cryptographer Problem

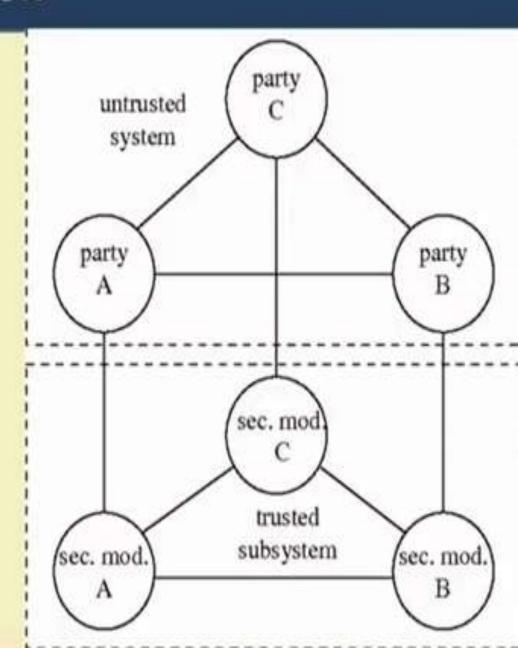
- The three cryptographers respect each other's right to make an anonymous payment
 - But they wonder if NSA is paying

 This payment protocol can be designed using secured



Formal Definition

- There are *n* players $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$
- They wish to evaluate a function f(x₁,x₂,...,x_n)
- x_i is a secret value provided by p_i
- Goal:
 - Preserve the privacy of the player's input
 - Guarantee the correctness of the computation



Decentralized Solution

 The problem is trivial if we assume the pretense of a trusted third party but we do not want to have one

- Two types of faulty behaviors in a decentralized system
 - Players may try to learn additional information (private computation)
 - Faulty players may try to disrupt the computation (secure computation)

Yao's Millionaire Problem

Two millionaires wish to find out who is wealthier

 They do not want to reveal any other information



Preconditions

We know the range of the inputs: (0,N)

- A: Public key e, Private key d
- B: Can access e, not d

- $D_d(E_e(X)) = X$
- $D_d(E_e(X)+Y)$ = some random looking thing if you do not know d

Protocol Step 1

- A has i and B has j
- B generates a random x of m bits
- $C=E_e(X)$
- u=C-(j-1)
- Send u to A

Protocol Step 2

• A Computes: for $(t = 1 \text{ to } N) y_m = D_d(u+t)$

- A takes a prime p of size sqrt(m) and computes
 - $-z_i = y_i \mod p$ for i = 1 to N

• p is chosen such that $|z_m-z_n| >= 2$ for any m,n in [1 to N]

Protocol Step 3

A sends B the following list

-
$$p, z_1, z_2, ..., z_i, (z_{i+1}+1), (z_{i+2}+1), ..., (z_N+1)$$

B compares the jth entry of this list excluding prime p with (x mod p)

• If $(x \mod p) = j^{th}$ entry of the list, then $i \ge j$

Problems with MPC

- MPC has poor scaling properties
 - Performance in the malicious setting is worse than the semi-honest case
- Depends on the assumption that majority of the parties are always honest and share the correct information
 - How will you ensure that the parties have shared the correct information?
 - The parties can deny the sharing of information as well

Fair MPC

- Either all parties receive the protocol output or no party does
 - Extremely important for applications like auctions or contract signing

- Example:
 - Alice participates in an auction
 - She learns first that she did not win the auction
 - She aborts and claims a network failure tries again with a new bid

Fair MPC

- [Cleve '86] Fair MPC is impossible to realize for general functions when a majority of the parties are dishonest.
 - Also holds when the parties have access to a trusted setup, such as a common reference string

Richard Cleve. Limits on the security of coin flips when half the processors are faulty (extended abstract). In STOC, pages 364–369, 1986

Solve Fair MPC - Use a Public Bulletin Board

- Parties have access to a public ledger
 - Allows anyone to publish arbitrary strings used for MPC protocol
 - The strings contain proof about who has published the string anyone can verify

 Run an unfair MPC protocol to compute an encryption of the function output - design a fair decryption protocol using the public ledger - either everyone can decrypt or no one can