

ARA — Global Decentralized Infrastructure for Payments, User Identity, Hosting, Streaming, and Ownership of Digital Files and Content (Draft)

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Abstract

The internet has become a shadow of its former self, dominated by a few large companies that exercise total authority over all the information by controlling how it flows around the world, how much it costs, and how and when it can be consumed. ARA is a decentralized platform and suite of protocols designed to fix that. Through licensing and selling digital files and content using a novel Proof-of-Ownership system, ARA handles global data delivery and supports purchasing of those assets with the native ARA token. In doing all this, the ARA platform also utilizes a ubiquitous and distributed user ID and wallet system which allows users to retain ownership of their personal information. In effect, ARA is a new modern mental model around how information on the internet is hosted and delivered and how consumers use and pay for it; it brings about a new paradigm not only for businesses but also for consumers in that they can contribute in the system to earn rewards by hosting and participating in the network. Peer-to-peer (P2P) file sharing, blockchain technology for ownership and licensing, and distributed computing are all combined into a single efficient and decentralized system.

Numerous constituents benefit from ARA. Consumers can use their idle storage, bandwidth, and processing power to earn ARA tokens—akin to Airbnb for computing—and they can use those tokens to purchase content and access sites and information they wish to support. Businesses save on delivering this information to people through P2P technology, which in turn lowers costs to consumers and other businesses, and they can also participate as data centers in the network to earn rewards by staking ARA tokens. Digital creators, game and software developers, movie and TV studios, and publishers use ARA tokens to publish licensed content into the network, earning more on their work by generating larger revenue shares and giving the rest to their fans for the hosting costs. It's a win-win-win. Consumers are rewarded, publishers earn more, and businesses improve the bottom line. This is all done in a decentralized and net neutral way, such that no intermediary companies can throttle a single business delivering information and content to you.

Note: ARA is under active research and development. This paper is subject to change. The latest version will be available at <https://arablocks.io>. Please direct any comments and suggestions to hello@arablocks.io.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

The hypermedia landscape today is outdated. Aggregators and app stores are strengthening their grip on content creators; traditional content delivery networks are inefficient and expensive; cloud compute is centralized to a select few gatekeepers; and data is stored not by those who own it, but by those who profit from it. Content publishers and creators are forced to inflate prices, offloading the costs for this slow and expensive system to consumers and resulting in lost value for publishers, consumers, and creators alike.

With video poised to comprise over 80% of all internet traffic by 2021 [3], the cost of content has continued to rise as file sizes and costs of delivering that content go up. 4K, VR, and AAA games are all contributors to this trend. Consumers are not only paying more for transactional content and subscriptions, but they have to deal with a complex and abusive system of advertising to view free content. These factors exacerbate the problem of piracy, leading to billions of dollars in losses to content owners [16][11][4], and they result in the introduction of tools to skip or remove advertising such as ad-blockers. This in turn creates ad-blocker-blockers and more expensive subscription services as consumers avoid ads and content owners try to recapture lost revenue. It's a vicious cycle.

Peer-to-peer (P2P) file distribution architecture emerged as a response to these inefficiencies, evolving from hybrid solutions that incorporated centralized servers such as Napster to completely decentralized solutions such as Gnutella and eventually BitTorrent. Today, P2P file delivery is so cost-efficient that companies such as Microsoft use it—not their own Azure infrastructure—to save on Windows 10 distribution costs.

However, while cost-efficient, P2P file sharing networks have been historically rife with free-riding, piracy, hacking, and black markets when used in public environments. There was no trust that the individual uploading content had the right to do so, and no way to verify that the content seeded was delivered as the content owner intended. There was also no reward for storing and sharing the content, so users were not incentivized to remain seeds in the system of delivery. Peers would leech content for themselves and not continue to participate in seeding that content out to other peers. To combat this, P2P architectures began to incorporate incentive mechanisms, such as barter strategies, reputation systems, and proprietary currencies. However, even these mechanisms have their share of problems and are subject to Sybil and whitewashing attacks.

1.2 Overview

In this white paper, we present ARA: a community-driven decentralized and distributed compute and content delivery platform. ARA enables any device in the world to become part of a global supercomputer, database, and delivery network all at once by utilizing its unused processing, storage, and bandwidth capacity.

Together, these devices form the ARA network, an ecosystem in which anyone can participate and benefit.

Fundamentally, the network is comprised of an overlapping community of consumers, service requesters, service fulfillers, and software developers, each with their own incentives for adoption. With ARA, service requesters can have at their fingertips a vast reserve of compute resources along with an ever-expanding library of distributed services. Service fulfillers, who have already paid for their devices—be it a smartphone, laptop, or gaming console—can begin making a return renting out unused resources. Software developers can leverage the unparalleled scale of ARA’s ecosystem to accomplish hefty compute tasks and create novel distributed services, for requesters and fulfillers to participate in. Meanwhile, consumers can go about their daily lives as they would all while being rewarded for watching the shows and listening to the music they love.

Thus, a savvy movie collector can purchase the latest blockbuster and act as a service fulfiller to earn rewards for sharing it, while a content publisher can act as a service requester and enjoy enhanced security, file availability, and delivery speeds for a fraction of the cost compared to traditional cloud compute service providers. Because ARA removes the burden of purchasing and managing infrastructure, content creators of all kinds stand to benefit—from the indie artist who is now free to self-publish his new album without going through a record label, to the large media conglomerate who no longer needs to go through aggregators to reach its audience. ARA relies on the resources provided by members of the network; the larger the network grows, the more robust and efficient it becomes.

1.3 Platform Services

The ARA platform is comprised of three (3) core services and systems:

1. **ARAid:** ARAid establishes secure, decentralized, and verifiable global identities for all agents and content on the ARA platform, giving control of data back to their rightful owners.
2. **Decentralized Content Delivery Network (DCDN):** DCDN serves as ARA’s underlying peer-to-peer, secure distributed file system and storage network which supports content integrity, incentives, versioning, and decentralized identities.
3. **Protocol Suite:** ARA is connected through a secure suite of protocols which enable trustless interoperability between DCDN, ARAid, and the Ethereum Blockchain.

2. Platform Overview

The Conflict-Free File System Network (CFSNet) is the backbone of ARA’s peer-to-peer distributed file system, ARAid, and Decentralized Content Delivery Network (DCDN). Leveraging an underlying merkle tree structure and the Syncable Ledger of Exact Events Protocol (SLEEP) [1] file format, CFSNet addresses many concerns with traditional file transport—both client-server and P2P—and improves upon existing technologies such as IPFS by providing cryptographically-ensured content integrity as well as versioning and revision history [15]. Furthermore, CFSNet implements a subset of the Filesystem Hierarchy Standard (FHS) [7], supporting partitions and allowing each directory to exist as a self-contained CFS archive with its own access levels.

2.1 ARAid

ARAid is responsible for creating and resolving secure and verifiable decentralized representations for all participants and content on the ARA Platform. Fully compliant with the W3C Decentralized Identifier (DID) spec [14], ARAid represents participants and content as DID Descriptor Objects, or DDOs for short (see *Figure 1*). DDOs are simple JSON-LD documents which define methods for authentication and authorization as well as other identity attributes, including service endpoints and private communication channels controlled by the owner [14]. Because DDOs never store Personally-Identifiable Information (PII) [14], these service endpoints and communication channels identify secure means of obtaining it and thus allow entities self-sovereignty over their private data and online identities.

2.1.1 Decentralized Identity

For all participants and content on the ARA platform, an ARAid is generated in the form of:

- `did:ara:abc123`

ARAid implements a Universal Resolver `method`, denoted by the second component of the DID (`ara` above) as part of the Decentralized Identity Foundation system [10]. The `method`, also known as a driver, defines how DIDs and DDOs are resolved within the ARA platform. Unlike internet URIs, DIDs do not require a central authority for registration or control and form a bijective correspondence with DDOs rather than the non-injective, non-surjective relationship found in TCP/IP and DNS.

The crux of ARAid security is maintained cryptographically using Decentralized Public Key Infrastructure (DPKI)[12], wherein `Ed25519` public keys are used as both the `id` portion of the DID (`abc123` above) and the public key of the CFS in which the corresponding DDO is stored. The public key is stored in the `authentication` property of the respective DDO and the mnemonic phrase used to seed the keypair is returned to the owner for safekeeping and for ease of maintaining the private key. This process occurs whenever a new identity is generated. Such a paradigm allows entities to easily validate ownership of DIDs without ever revealing sensitive or compromising data over the network using just their mnemonic phrase.

```
{
  'ddo': {
    '@context': 'https://w3id.org/did/v1',
    'id': 'did:ara:abc123',
    'authentication': [{
      'type': 'Ed25519SignatureAuthentication2018',
      'publicKey': 'did:ara:abc123#keys-1'
    }],
    'publicKey': [{
      'id': 'did:ara:abc123#keys-1',
      'type': 'Ed25519VerificationKey2018',
      'owner': 'did:ara:abc123',
      'publicKeyBase58': 'H3C2AVvLMv6gmMnam ...'
    }],
    'service': {
      'ens': 'https://etherscan.io/enslookup',
    }
  }
}
```

Figure 1: *Example DDO*

Identity Archiving and Resolution

When an identity is created, it is initially written locally so that any resolution can check the

cache prior to going out to the network. Before an identity can be resolved remotely though, it must first be archived. ARA runs archival nodes whose job it is to store these identities for future resolution.

Similarly to the archiver nodes, ARA also runs resolver nodes to query archivers for the requested identity DDO. Any resolver request will first look for any local identities that may be stored on disk before going out to the network to look for any node who can respond to the request. Once the identity is obtained, it is returned to the callee for future processing.

Ethereum Account

Each identity is created with an Ethereum account and an associated Ethereum wallet. This account is recoverable through a generated random mnemonic during identity creation. Since the Ethereum account and the identity itself are deterministically created using this mnemonic, a user can recover their identity, Ethereum account and wallet all using this mnemonic.

ARAid is architected in such a way to be agnostic to the type of wallets it supports, meaning that it can be easily extended to associate identities with a Bitcoin wallet, for example.

2.2 Decentralized Content Delivery Network (DCDN)

DCDN is ARA's solution to scalable, decentralized hypermedia and digital asset distribution. At its core, DCDN is a network of ARA File Systems (AFSs), CFS implementations which house content and their associated metadata.

2.2.1 ARA File System (AFS)

AFS is a flavor of CFS tailored to meet the specific needs and goals of ARA. AFS expands further upon the native directory structure of CFS with the addition of unique access schemes, allowing content metadata to be accessed without simultaneously exposing the content itself

which may have more stringent access requirements. There are two partitions that make up AFS, which are themselves CFS implementations. The first is the `/content` partition which holds the binary data that makes up the actual content. The second is the `/metadata` partition which contains the associated metadata for the content. The AFS owner may define a schema for the metadata so that it can be parsed by other parties.

When an AFS is initially created, a new identity is created based on a random 12-word mnemonic. This generated DID is used as the public key of the AFS. The corresponding DDO is amended to include the owner's DID as part of the `authentication` property within the DDO. By doing so, we can determine ownership of the AFS at the identity level.

An AFS is created for each piece of content introduced into the system. This can be a single file such a movie, or a collection of files such as a game. This introduction of content into the system is solidified by appending a digital signature of byte buffers from the `/metadata` partition onto the Ethereum blockchain (see Proof-of-Ownership). These signatures are signed using the secret key of the AFS owner.

While both partitions may be accessible by non-owner entities, the `/metadata` partition is publicly available, whereas the `/content` partition is only accessible to parties who have either purchased access or been granted access privileges.

2.2.2 Token Usage

Initially owning ARA tokens with respect to DCDN grants the following abilities:

1. The ability to publish new content to the network
2. The ability to purchase and download content on the network
3. The ability to participate in P2P file delivery for any downloaded content
4. The opportunity to run a DCDN supernode

2.3 ARA Protocol Suite

The following subsections define the core protocols of the platform, describing each part of the system in detail and the interoperability between them.

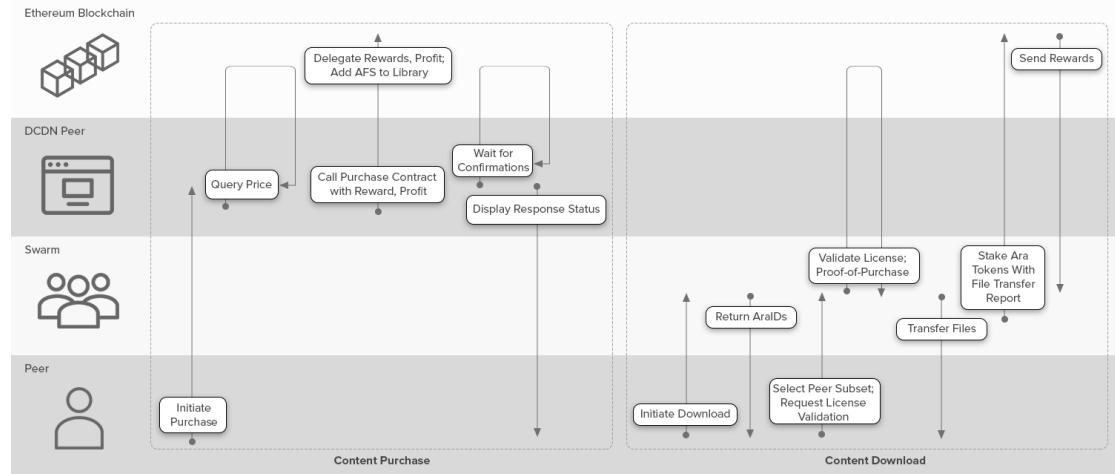


Figure 2: Illustration of the ARA Protocol³

2.3.1 Rewards and Incentives

Traditional peer-to-peer file sharing systems, such as BitTorrent, rely on altruistic behavior and lack effective incentives [6] for peers to upload as much to the network as they download, creating an imbalance where *leechers* (users downloading a distributed file) can easily dominate a *swarm* (all peers downloading or uploading a distributed file). This imbalance, a form of The Free Rider Problem [5], is undesirable in a healthy network since leechers often benefit from the network at the expense of others without offering anything in return. ARA implements a reward system as an incentive mechanism to mitigate this network inefficiency and increase file availability by applying a cost to each download and distributing that cost as a reward to every peer who aids in the upload. Depending on the payment model, this cost could be baked into the total cost of the content as a reward allocation; for "free" content, this cost can replace traditional ads or data collection (how users pay for "free" content today). Over

time, network participants stand to earn from rewards much more than they pay up front for the download since each download becomes a source of rewards.

2.3.2 File Delivery

File Delivery is the main mechanism for upholding ARA's content delivery network and for participants to earn rewards. ARA's file delivery protocol begins with a four-step handshake.

1. Alice, the content requester, broadcasts a download request for a piece of content over some network discovery protocol (CF-SNet implements several strategies, including mDNS and BitTorrent).
2. Bob, a license validator and content deliverer, receives the broadcast and responds with his file availability.
3. Alice selects peers from the pool (the swarm) of responses and sends a message with her intermediate public key along

³Blockchain by Pablo Rozenberg from the Noun Project, application by Gregor Cresnar from the Noun Project, person by Rockicon from the Noun Project, group by Rockicon from the Noun Project

with her DID.

4. Bob cryptographically verifies Alice's message and that she has purchased a license to the underlying AFS. Bob can then stake a number of tokens as a promise to deliver at least a portion of the requested file(s).

Several things can go wrong during and after this handshake.

1. Bob incorrectly validates a license (reaches a minority conclusion) - he loses his stake
2. Bob disconnects or fails to complete a file transfer - he loses his stake
3. Alice disconnects during the file transfer - Bob's stake is returned to him

The protocol uses lost stake as a reward to peers who end up picking up the slack from incorrect license validation or incomplete file transfer. Partial transfers are resumable upon retrying, meaning the user won't have to redownload the content they've already downloaded.

2.3.3 Cross-Layer Bridge (CLB)

As a core component of ARA's protocol suite, the Cross-Layer Bridge (CLB) consists of a set of protocols that mediate and facilitate interoperability between DCDN, ARAid, and the blockchain. CLB is responsible for:

1. Ensuring that all non-transient properties and entities on the platform are registered on the blockchain
 - Published Content
 - Purchases
2. Reporting rewardable activity to the appropriate smart contracts

Purchases

CLB handles routing rewardable activity to the appropriate smart contracts. For each piece of content, the price is split into proceeds for the content distributor and allocation for rewards. CLB reports the total price and the size of the purchased content as a transaction to ARA's **purchase contract**. The **purchase contract** immediately sends the proceeds to

the appropriate user and sends the rest to the **rewards contract**, where all undistributed ARA rewards are stored until further notice from CLB.

2.3.4 Smart Contracts

Price Contract

The **Price Contract** has the responsibility of managing content, jobs, and other monetizable items accurately with a price that can be based on the amount in ARA tokens. The **Price Contract** features a mapping that resolves AFS identities to the total cost. When a user first deploys something new to the network, they will also need to provide the price (even if it's free), along with the content, jobs etc. that they wish to publish. The transactional fee for these operations are incurred by the AFS owner. AFS provides the ability to update the price at any time, independent of content updates. The logic around resolving the associated price and costs with an AFS is provided as part of the core protocol.

Purchase Contract

The **Purchase Contract** has several responsibilities and is the first invocation during a purchase. It receives both the price of the content (retrieved in a previous query), as well as the reward amount for that purchase. The owner of the AFS that was purchased immediately gets paid out, whereas the reward amount is sent to the **Rewards Contract** until the initial download has been completed. The contract is also responsible for adding this item to the user's library, which is handled directly by the **Library Contract**.

Rewards Contract

The **Rewards Contract** is responsible for delegating rewards for file transfer participation to the appropriate parties. As input, the contract takes the transfer distribution during file delivery along with the wallet addresses of the

users who participated in the delivery. It also requires a user license as a key to resolve the total amount of rewards to be paid out for the transaction. It is the contract's responsibility based on the reward allocation and the distribution to calculate and send each user's payout.

Storage Contract (Proof-of-Ownership)

Within SLEEP there are two registers that get created for every AFS, content and metadata. The metadata register stores metadata about the content within the AFS, including filenames, sizes, and permissions. Within this register, the Storage Contract cares about two files, the tree and signature files. The tree file representing the serialized merkle tree that makes up the data in the content register, where the signatures file stores the signed roots of the serialized tree.

The buffers that get appended to both of these files are never stored on disc, and instead are stored within this contract. That means that every time an AFS read or write operation occurs with respect to these files, they are read from and written to on the Ethereum blockchain. The initial publisher of the AFS is the sole identity with the ability to publish changes to the AFS. This ensures Proof-of-Ownership using the public-verifiability of the blockchain.

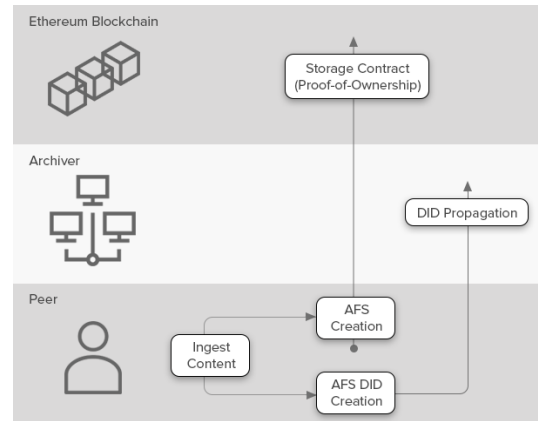


Figure 3: *The Upload Process and Proof-of-Ownership*⁴

Library Contract

The network leverages the **Library Contract** to create a canonical source of truth for AFSs that a user has access to, whether purchased or otherwise. For example, when a user purchases any piece of content, the **Purchase Contract** adds an entry into the identity's library based on their hashed DID that maps to the non-hashed DID representing that AFS. This allows any service that requires information about a user's library to query the contract for that information. The AFS DID that is stored on the blockchain will allow any service to resolve to the underlying content.

⁴Blockchain by Pablo Rozenberg from the Noun Project, Computer by Daily icons from the Noun Project, person by Rockicon from the Noun Project

3. Future Development

3.1 Modules

The ARA platform is fundamentally agnostic to the types of distributed services that can run on top of it. Modules are distributed and/or decentralized services which implement the Modules APIs and can be used interchangeably within the platform. Similar to the way the ERC-20 Token Standard allows any token on Ethereum to be re-used by other applications [13], the Modules APIs allow all distributed services implementing the interface to be re-used on the platform. This facilitates the formation of a developer community dedicated to building an ecosystem of distributed services that each have the ability to utilize ARA’s rewards, purchases, and payments systems, in essence forming a distributed services and rewards economy. Modules that seek to utilize the rewards system are expected to implement an additional common smart contract API in which they define their own rewarding mechanism and methodology. Each Module smart contract stores its own respective reward allocation accumulated through use of the distributed service and distributes it accordingly.

3.2 ARA Name System (ANS)

ANS, much like the Domain Name System (DNS) [8], is a decentralized way to register, query, invoke, or revoke certificates within the ARA network. While DNS sits as part of the application layer of the internet—resolving human-readable URIs to underlying IP addresses so that a user agent (e.g., web browser) can obtain and render the requested content—ANS resolves human-readable names to DIDs for ultimate resolution to DDOs. ANS uses the identity archiver and resolver under the hood for the second phase of resolution to provide DDOs from

DIDs. ANS essentially is both an archiver and resolver for human-readable URIs. An example application of ANS could be providing DDOs from hostnames, in the context of a web browser built on top of ARA.

To discern between the various record types, each record stores a **TYPE** resource record, similar to how DNS classifies its own records [17]. The **TYPE** field is represented by a numeric value, which allows other types of records to be stored in ANS in the future. The following table describes the record **TYPE**:

TYPE	Value	Description
USR	00	User
PCT	01	Published Content

Each supernode hub that comprises ANS runs a HyperDB instance [2]. A distributed, highly-scalable database like HyperDB provides several features that make it suitable for a system like ANS. The first is HyperDB’s use of tries: search trees where each node is a prefix to its child nodes. By storing names with tries, we can guarantee that even with thousands of entries in the database, lookups are inexpensive and quick. Lookups in tries are $O(n)$ where n is the length of the key being searched. HyperDB also makes use of vector clocks, which track the causality of events within a distributed system to prevent cases where nodes become desynchronized [9].

4. Acknowledgements

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Acronyms

AFS ARA File System. 7

ANS ARA Name System. 11

CFS Conflict-Free File System. 6, 7

CFSNet Conflict-Free File System Network. 6

CLB Cross-Layer Bridge. 9

DCDN Decentralized Content Delivery Network. 5–7

DDO DID Descriptor Object. 6, 7, 11

DID Decentralized Identifier. 6, 7, 11

DNS Domain Name System. 6, 11

DPKI Decentralized Public Key Infrastructure. 6

FHS Filesystem Hierarchy Standard. 6

PII Personally-Identifiable Information. 6

SLEEP Syncable Ledger of Exact Events Protocol. 6

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Appendices

I. Mature Ara Platform Token Economics (Draft)

Overview

Traditional cloud services have risen to prominence due to the flexibility, agility, and cost savings they afford over purchasing and managing in-house infrastructure. Many cloud services use notoriously complex and obscure pricing models that involve long-term commitments and contracts—often individually negotiated per customer—directly undermining the flexibility and agility they were meant to provide in the first place [1]. In recent years, P2P CDNs have begun to gain traction, with emerging SaaS’s touting hybrid solutions for video delivery. While these SaaS’s established a highly scalable solution with a simpler pricing model by leveraging the machines of video viewers, they maintain several sources of centralization, namely through their business model and their attribution of users as “second class citizens”, wherein the utilization of their machines occurs without their consent or financial compensation. ARA brings it one step further by rewarding network participants for the utilization of their machines.

In order to supplant existing classical cloud infrastructure costs, the ARA platform implements a native protocol utility token: the ARA token. This token can be used on the ARA platform to create cryptoeconomic incentives for healthy and honest network behavior, to enable more direct engagement between content consumers and creators, as well as to encourage adoption of the platform. The ARA token can be seen as an encapsulation of the value members of the network provide, with each token rewarded representing a marginal increase in network utility.

The ARA Token

Distributed services built using ARA’s SDKs, known as Modules, can be bought, sold, requested, and fulfilled all on the ARA network. Module tasks are outsourced to peers in the network who, upon successfully completing them, can be compensated with ARA tokens. In order to promote an open and competitive market, ARA allows service requesters to define reward allocations, or bounties, for services they request and service providers to define a minimum bounty to accept. Similar to Amazon Mechanical Turk, a marketplace for crowdsourcing tasks that require human intelligence, ARA creates a marketplace for outsourcing distributed compute or networking tasks. Modules can be one-off on-demand tasks, such as distributed transcoding, or they can be continuously recurring services, such as a P2P multiplayer game server.

Function

The ARA token can be used throughout the network in a variety of ways.

- For consumers, ARA tokens can be used to make any sort of purchase, ranging from digital content for enjoyment to new Modules to participate in
- Service requesters can use ARA tokens to initiate job requests and to set bounties for the successful completion of those jobs
- Service providers can stake ARA tokens as a commitment to fulfill a task in return for rewards
- Developers can use ARA tokens to deploy new Modules into the network

Since each of these roles heavily overlap, a service provider can use the same ARA tokens earned as rewards through fulfilling a task to purchase a new piece of content, just as a developer can use ARA tokens earned through Module purchases to initiate a new job request.

Market Dynamics

Because members of the network have full agency in deciding which tasks or services they participate in, the network forms a free-market in which economic equilibriums emerge. Each Module will likely have its own economics governed by the behavior of the requesters and providers for that specific Module's jobs. For example, distributed video transcodes might be a characteristically urgent job for video producers, resulting in price inelasticity of demand for distributed video transcodes (i.e., video producers are relatively indifferent to how much they might need to reward the service providers). Thus, a seller's market forms in which distributed transcode service providers have the advantage in determining reward allocation, driving the bounty up. Similarly, a P2P game server Module may be highly requested but have relatively few service providers. Again, a seller's market forms and the bounty is driven up. On the other hand, a distributed machine learning Module might be requested by few people but have many eligible service providers. Due to the relatively low demand, many providers will miss out on opportunities if they set their minimum bounty requirement too high. A buyer's market forms, and the bounty is driven down.

It is important to note that it is not a requirement for Modules to set bounties, and there is no standardized model for how bounties should be setup. The goals are to align the incentives of service requesters and service providers, to support all types of incentive models, as well as to accommodate the varying fixed costs for infrastructure and networking capabilities across the world.

Incentive Structure

To better understand how this model supports an alignment of incentives between service requesters and service providers, we derive a general description of the economic interests of both parties. Service requesters want their requests to be fulfilled for the lowest cost, while service providers want to optimize for the greatest number of highest paying services. In other words, it is in the best interest of both requesters and providers to maximize network utility as long as both agree on a

price. Thus, the services that best balance bounty and work are most likely to be fulfilled, creating market pressure that promotes both competitive bounties and innovation in distributed service design to improve efficiency.

The variety of distributed services that can run on the platform necessitates flexibility in determining unit-of-work-rewarded (*UWR*, the base unit of provable work by which bounties are split up and rewarded) and bounty model (the conditions that govern how bounty is paid). A P2P multiplayer game server might use number of requests served as its *UWR*, and a game developer invoking that server Module might decide that a subscription-based, recurring bounty model makes the most sense. On the other hand, a distributed transcoding service might use number of bytes transcoded per minute as its *UWR*, and a video producer might payout a bounty per transcode.

Service providers can stake ARA tokens in order to participate and earn rewards. Like with bounties, service requesters can determine a minimum stake, if any, that providers must deposit in order to engage in the service. The minimum stake value should be indicative of the level of commitment the service requires and is returned, along with the bounty, once the service is successfully completed. As part of determining a *UWR*, services must also define a proof for verifying its fulfillment.

Alternatively, service providers can set a subscription fee for dedicating their resources to a service. These dedicated providers are known as *supernodes* and their stakes are escrowed in a smart contract until the subscription ends. Because supernodes tend to be more reliable than their non-dedicated counterparts, they can control market dynamics based on how they set their subscription fees. Supernodes in Bogotá might charge more than supernodes in Los Angeles due to higher hardware and internet costs.

Network Effects

Introduction of new content to the network involves the invocation of DCDN supernodes—ARA nodes dedicated to content redundancy and availability. Assuming the bounty for a single file is constant, the effect of the marginal increase in file availability from a single peer sharing that file on the potential reward earnings from that file for any peer in DCDN (and all currency-based P2P file-sharing systems with fixed incentives [2]) can be modeled using a submodular set function, which can be intuitively thought of as a function describing diminishing returns. Due to this property, DCDN supernodes can employ a subscription bounty model to counteract the increasing opportunity cost of hosting content as its availability increases.

Content publishers can invoke and subscribe to as many or as few supernodes in geographic locations of their choosing on a per content basis. Publishers, then, have full freedom in deciding the extent to which they want their content to be readily available globally. This enables support for the large media distributor who wants to invoke all available supernodes worldwide to support a global audience, while also enabling support for the indie content creator who identifies their primary audience as predominantly European and decides to prioritize European supernodes. Content publishers also determine the reward allocation for each content download. Thus, there exists an optimal reward allocation and supernode distribution to achieve the

desired level of participation (i.e., file availability).

Any agent—supernode or not—must stake tokens on each file delivery. The stake serves to ensure that the content requester has the rights to access and that the file transfer report submitted by each peer is honest. Because not all content on ARA is created equal—some content may require purchase to view while other content may be free—the stake serves to ensure all agents are economically incentivized to act honestly.

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II. DCDN Cost Analysis by Lester Kim

Introduction

In order to calculate the streaming costs for a potential partner, we need to know how much data B (in bytes) they need to deliver to consumers per unit of time T (in seconds). Let us have N groups of uploader nodes where $N \in \mathbb{N}$. $\forall n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$, the average bandwidth of group n is b_n (in bytes/second per node). Let q_n be the quantity of group n nodes. Let $\mathbf{b} = [b_1 \dots b_N]^\top$ and $\mathbf{q} = [q_1 \dots q_N]^\top$. Thus, the amount of bytes delivered per second constrained by $\frac{B}{T}$ is

$$g(\mathbf{q}) = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{q} = \frac{B}{T}. \quad (1)$$

We want to find the optimal \mathbf{q}^* to minimize the cost of distribution $C(\mathbf{q})$. If $\mathbf{p} = [p_1 \dots p_N]^\top$ where p_n is the price per node for group n , we have

$$C(\mathbf{q}) = \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{q}. \quad (2)$$

Uploader's Profit Maximization

To determine \mathbf{p} , let us visit the behavior of a profit maximizing firm. Let f be the production function with energy input E (in kWh) and output q (in nodes). We model this production function as

$$f(E) = AE^\alpha \quad (3)$$

where A is the factor of production (nodes/kWh $^\alpha$) and $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ is the elasticity of production (percent increase in output over percent increase in input) [1].

Let P (in kWh/s) be the power increase when a node starts uploading data. This includes sending data with its network interface controller (NIC) but can also include the machine turning on (from either being off or in standby mode). If each node has power P , then for some E , a single node can run for $\frac{E}{P}$ seconds. However, given a time constraint T to complete the work, there must be $\frac{E}{PT}$ nodes. Thus,

$$A = \frac{D}{(PT)^\alpha} \quad (4)$$

where D is the total factor productivity [2] (in nodes).

Let p be the price of a node and p_E the price of energy (per kWh). The firm's profit function π is

$$\pi(q, E) = pq - p_E E. \quad (5)$$

Bandwidth cost is ignored because it is a fixed cost in the short-term when looking at seconds as opposed to months⁵.

We want to maximize the firm's profit given an output requirement at least q ;

$$\max_{q,E} \pi(q, E) \quad \text{s.t. } f(E) \geq q. \quad (6)$$

To solve this, we take our Lagrangian to be

$$\mathcal{L}(q, E, \lambda) = pq - p_E E - \lambda(AE^\alpha - q). \quad (7)$$

Taking partial derivatives and setting them to zero give

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q} = p + \lambda = 0 \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial E} = -p_E - \lambda A \alpha E^{\alpha-1} = 0 \quad (9)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = q - AE^\alpha = 0. \quad (10)$$

Solving these first-order conditions gives

$$q^* = \left(\frac{\alpha A^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} p}{p_E} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}}. \quad (11)$$

Rewriting this (dropping the asterisk from q) gives

$$p = \frac{p_E}{\alpha} \left(\frac{q^{1-\alpha}}{A} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}. \quad (12)$$

This formula lets the creator know what p should be to get the desired number of nodes.

From (12), we find that the optimal revenue in terms of q is

$$pq = \frac{p_E}{\alpha} \left(\frac{q}{A} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}. \quad (13)$$

⁵Even with bandwidth included, its cost per second has the same order of magnitude as that of energy. In NYC, 50 MBps costs $\$3 \times 10^{-5}$ /second [3].

Distributor's Cost Minimization

Since the revenue for the firm is spending for the consumer (the creator), we can write (2) as

$$C(\mathbf{q}) = \frac{p_E}{\alpha} \sum_{n=1}^N \left(\frac{q_n}{A_n} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}. \quad (14)$$

The creator's cost minimization problem is

$$\min_{\mathbf{q}} C(\mathbf{q}) \quad \text{s.t. } g(\mathbf{q}) \geq \frac{B}{T}. \quad (15)$$

The Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{q}, \lambda) = C(\mathbf{q}) - \lambda(g(\mathbf{q}) - \frac{B}{T}). \quad (16)$$

The first-order conditions are

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{q}} = \frac{\partial C}{\partial \mathbf{q}} - \lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{q}} = 0 \quad (17)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{B}{T} - g(\mathbf{q}) = 0. \quad (18)$$

From (14), (4), and (1),

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial \mathbf{q}} = \frac{p_E T \mathbf{P}}{\alpha^2} \circ (\mathbf{q}^{\circ(1-\alpha)} \oslash \mathbf{D})^{\circ \frac{1}{\alpha}} \quad (19)$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{b} \quad (20)$$

where $(\mathbf{D}, \mathbf{P}) = ([D_1 \dots D_N]^\top, [P_1 \dots P_N]^\top)$. " \circ ", " \oslash ", " \oslash " are the Hadamard (entrywise) product, power, and division, respectively [4]. So $\forall m, n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$,

$$\frac{P_m^\alpha q_m^{1-\alpha}}{b_m^\alpha D_m} = \frac{P_n^\alpha q_n^{1-\alpha}}{b_n^\alpha D_n}. \quad (21)$$

Thus,

$$b_m q_m = \left(\frac{b_m D_m P_n^\alpha}{P_m^\alpha b_n D_n} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} b_n q_n. \quad (22)$$

Combining (22) with (18) gives

$$\mathbf{q}^* = \frac{B\mathbf{b}^{\circ-1}}{T\kappa} \circ (\mathbf{b} \circ \mathbf{D} \oslash \mathbf{P}^{\circ\alpha})^{\circ\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \quad (23)$$

$$C^* = \frac{p_ET}{\alpha} \left(\frac{B}{T\kappa^{1-\alpha}} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} \quad (24)$$

where

$$\kappa \equiv \sum_{m=1}^N \left(\frac{b_mD_m}{P_m^\alpha} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}. \quad (25)$$

Case: $\alpha = 1$

When $\alpha = 1$, (23) and (24) become

$$q_n^* = \begin{cases} \frac{B}{|\Upsilon|Tb_n} & n \in \Upsilon \\ 0 & n \notin \Upsilon \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

$$C^* = \frac{p_E B P_n}{b_n D_n} \quad \text{any } n \in \Upsilon \quad (27)$$

where

$$\Upsilon \equiv \left\{ n \in \{1, \dots, N\} \mid n = \arg \max_{1 \leq m \leq N} \frac{b_mD_m}{P_m} \right\}. \quad (28)$$

$\forall n \in \Upsilon$, each node in group n would deliver $\frac{B}{|\Upsilon|q_n^*} (= b_n T)$ of data and receive at least $\frac{p_E P_n T}{D_n}$ in compensation. However, there are multiple solutions to \mathbf{q}^* . For example, for any $n \in \Upsilon$, group n can take on all the work by employing $\frac{B}{Tb_n}$ nodes.

Example

Let's work out an example in NYC where

$$\alpha = 1 \quad (29)$$

$$B = 1 \text{ GB} \quad (30)$$

$$N = 2 \quad (31)$$

$$p_E = \$0.2321/\text{kWh} \text{ [5]} \quad (32)$$

$$T = 1 \text{ s} \quad (33)$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 \text{ MB/s} \\ 1 \text{ MB/s} \end{bmatrix} \text{ [6]} \quad (34)$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \text{ node} \\ 1 \text{ node} \end{bmatrix} \quad (35)$$

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 200 \text{ W} \\ 2 \text{ W} \end{bmatrix} \text{ [7][8]} \quad (36)$$

to find examples of \mathbf{q}^* and C^* for a creator. Then,

$$\mathbf{q}^* = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \text{ nodes} \\ 500 \text{ nodes} \end{bmatrix} \quad (37)$$

$$C^* \approx \$1.29 \times 10^{-4}. \quad (38)$$

This is 155 to 659 times (99.35% - 99.85%) cheaper than AWS Cloudfront's on-demand pricing (\$0.020/GB - \$0.085/GB) [9]. Each group 1 node would handle 100 MB whereas each group 2 node would handle 1 MB. Each node in group 1 and 2 would need more than $\$1.29 \times 10^{-5}$ and $\$1.29 \times 10^{-7}$, respectively.

To put this in perspective, assume Netflix is a potential partner. In 2017, Netflix averaged more than 140 million hours of content watched per day [10]. On average, a Netflix video is one GB/hour [11]. On the Ara platform, the 51.1-exabyte [12] annual spend would only be \$6.6 million/year (\$0.2106/second). If we estimate Netflix's streaming cost to be \$0.03/GB [13], we get \$1.5 billion/year (\$46.61/second). Using the Ara network would nearly quadruple Netflix's 2017 net income of \$558.9 million [14]. (Manhattan has 1.66 million people [15] with 287,008 Netflix users⁶ streaming 321.45 TB/day, 3.72 GB/s. That requires 3,721 group 2 nodes at a rate of \$41.47/day).

⁶At the end of 2018 Q1, Netflix had 56.71 million U.S. subscribers and 125 million worldwide [16]. There are 328 million people in the U.S. [17], so proportionally, there are 287,008 Netflix subscribers in Manhattan.

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III. Expected Ara Rewards Analysis by Lester Kim

Network Model

Let us represent the Ara network of nodes as a complete graph [1] $G = (V, E)$ where V contains N vertices with each vertex representing a node and E containing $\frac{N(N-1)}{2}$ edges with each edge representing a communication channel between two nodes. Let C be some collection of content (in our case, a set of digital entertainment files) that all the nodes want to have, and let the subset $S \subseteq V$ contain all the nodes that have C (i.e. $S = \{v \in V : C \in v\}$).

Let time $t \in \mathbb{N}$. At $t = 0$, $|S| = 1$, so there is only one $v_0 \in V$ that has content C ; thus, there is only one vertex that can deliver a copy of C to other nodes in the network. Assume that all other $N - 1$ nodes want C , and v_0 has enough bandwidth to deliver C to only one node. From $t = 0$ to $t = 1$, $|S|$ increases from 1 to 2. In general, at time t ,

$$|S| = \begin{cases} 2^t & 0 \leq t < \log_2 N \\ N & t \geq \log_2 N. \end{cases} \quad (39)$$

Note that $|S| = N$ starting at $t = \lceil \log_2 N \rceil$.

$\forall s \in S$, s will deliver C to some $v \in V \setminus S$ only if v pays s an amount p . Let M be the network's total budget for entertainment delivery. Dividing this evenly by N nodes gives $p = M/N$.

At $t = 0$, the sole $v_0 \in S$ receives p from some $v_1 \in V \setminus S$. Then, at $t = 1$, $v_0, v_1 \in S$ each receives p from some $v_2, v_3 \in V \setminus S$. At any $t < \lfloor \log_2 N \rfloor$, each of the $|S| = 2^t$ nodes in S receives p from 2^t nodes in $V \setminus S$. At $t = \lfloor \log_2 N \rfloor$, $|S| > \frac{N}{2}$, so there are more suppliers than demanders of C . When that occurs, $N - 2^t$ nodes from S are randomly selected to deliver C . At $t = \lceil \log_2 N \rceil$, $S = V$.

In this model, v_0 earns at least

$$\frac{M \lfloor \log_2 N \rfloor}{N}, \quad (40)$$

v_1 earns at least $\frac{M(\lfloor \log_2 N \rfloor - 1)}{N}$; v_k earns at least

$$\frac{M(\lfloor \log_2 N \rfloor - \lceil \log_2 (k+1) \rceil)}{N}. \quad (41)$$

The greatest k such that v_k earns at least $\frac{M}{N}$ is when

$$\lfloor \log_2 N \rfloor - \lceil \log_2 (k+1) \rceil \geq 1 \quad (42)$$

which implies

$$\log_2 (k+1) \leq \log_2 \frac{N}{2}. \quad (43)$$

Thus, the maximum value of k to earn at least $\frac{M}{N}$ is $k = \lfloor \frac{N}{2} \rfloor - 1$. On average, each earns

$$\frac{M - \frac{M}{N}}{2^{\lceil \log_2 N \rceil - 1}} = \frac{M(1 - \frac{1}{N})}{2^{\lceil \log_2 N \rceil - 1}}. \quad (44)$$

The numerator is $M - \frac{M}{N}$ to exclude v_0 's entertainment budget since it had C at $t = 0$. The denominator is $2^{\lceil \log_2 N \rceil - 1}$ because at $t = \lceil \log_2 N \rceil - 1$, $|S| = 2^{\lceil \log_2 N \rceil - 1}$, and at that point, S consists of all the nodes that have the possibility of earning rewards throughout this process. This means that there are $N - 2^{\lceil \log_2 N \rceil - 1}$ nodes that will not be able to earn rewards.

Example

Approximately 80% of Americans have computers with Internet access [2]. Since there are 327M Americans living in the US [3], there are $(0.8)(327\text{M}) = 261.6\text{M}$ Americans with devices connected to the Internet. Assuming each has one device, let $N = 261.6\text{M}$. The annual US entertainment consumption is \$734B [4] [5]. Let's assume most of this expenditure for future years will be digital, but let's only include the budget of the 80% of Americans who have Internet access such that the spending among them is $(0.8)(734\text{B}) = \$587\text{B}$. Let 10% of the spending be for covering distribution costs. Then, $M = (0.1)(\$587\text{B}) = \58.7B . Then, $p = M/N = \$58.7\text{B}/261.6\text{M} = \224.39 . By (44), the average annual earnings is \$437.35 per node. By (40), the most v_0 can earn is \$6282.87. Thus, this example illustrates that the initial peers who share content will earn the most rewards.

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