Blockchain-based Software Engineering

Moritz Beller

Delft University of Technology

The Netherlands

m.m.beller@tudelft.nl

Joseph Hejderup

Delft University of Technology

The Netherlands
j.i.hejderup@tudelft.nl

Abstract—Blockchain technology has found a great number of applications, from banking to the Internet of Things (IoT). However, it has not yet been envisioned whether and which problems in Software Engineering (SE) Blockchain technology could solve. In this paper, we coin this field "Blockchain-based Software Engineering" and exemplify how Blockchain technology could solve two core SE problems: Continuous Integration (CI) Services such as Travis CI and Package Managers such as apt-get. We believe that Blockchain technology could help (1) democratize and professionalize Software Engineering infrastructure that currently relies on free work done by few volunteers, (2) improve the quality of artifacts and services, and (3) increase trust in ubiquitously used systems like GitHub or Travis CI.

Index Terms—Blockchain, Distributed System

I. Introduction

The advent of Blockchain technology, i.e., systems that rely on a distributed, tamper-proof ledger shared among multiple parties, is said to revolutionize industries across the boardand has partly done so already [1]: Bitcoin [2], the world's first cryptocurrency, allows one to send money on a peerto-peer basis without a central intermediary, disrupting the banking sector [3]. Ethereum [4], a Blockchain protocol often referred to as "Blockchain 2.0," allows parties to engage in smart contracts, a way of codifying the exchange of goods or the execution of other, predefined behavior in a transaction. The content of smart contracts can be of great flexibility because they are written in a programming language. A smart contract can be seen as the automated execution of a contract between parties [5]. All contracts and transactions are stored for everyone to inspect on the Blockchain, serving both as a historical archive as well as a protection mechanism against fraudulent behavior. Despite the public visibility, both the sender and the receiver of a transaction on the Blockchain can remain pseudonymous.

Blockchain technology, however, has more applications than these two widely known examples of permissionless Blockchains, i.e., Blockchain protocols in which any party without prior trust can simply partake. Companies are exploring permissioned Blockchains as a way to do mutual business more securely, which should not be visible to outsiders. For example, the startup Provenance offers supply-chain auditing of consumer goods ("is my fish harvested sustainably?") [6], [7]. Governments are looking to formalize transactions with their citizens; even IoT devices could make use of it [8].

Given that large Software companies such as IBM have started to heavily invest in Blockchain technology, it is somewhat surprising that application possibilities of Blockchain-technology have not yet been extended to how we make software itself. In this visionary paper, we want to explore how Blockchain technology could revolutionize Software Engineering (SE) under the term Blockchain-based Software Engineering (BBSE): We first describe the core principles and guarantees Blockchain technology provides and which of them would be useful for SE. We then explore a handful of existing SE problems and sketch how we might use Blockchain technology to solve them. While this paper cannot (and does not aim to) provide a complete list of SE problems that would benefit from Blockchain support, we sketch how BBSE promises to solve fundamental issues plaguing SE as a craft: Professionalization, quality, and trust.

II. RELATED WORK

To the best of our knowledge, this vision paper is completely different from most existing works in that it introduces and applies the ideas behind Blockchain to the practice of SE itself.

Perhaps most closely following this principle is Nikitin et al.'s work on Chainiac [9], a proactive software-update system. Their practical implementation shows among others the feasibility of verified builds, which we rely on as part of a Blockchain-based CI system. The majority of existing work, however, addresses SE challenges within Blockchain, such as smart contract verification [10], [11], vulnerability detection [12], and interoperability [13]. Bell et al. [14] propose a data management system with Blockchain guarantees to ensure researchers publish tamper-proof and reproducible data sets.

III. A BLOCKCHAIN PRIMER

In this section, we present some of the core ideas behind Blockchain technology. We mean to equip readers unfamiliar with the technology with its basic ideas and focus on concepts we consider relevant for SE.

A. Terminology

Formally, by Blockchain, we mean a single file that represents an interlinked set of blocks, each daisy-chained to its parent.¹ The Blockchain protocol ("specification") governs what constitutes a valid block. Implementations of the protocol manifest themselves as a client.² Therefore, most colloquial

¹In Bitcoin's case, this file was 161GB large on 2018-6-15, per https://charts.bitcoin.com/chart/Blockchain-size.

²The Ethereum project, for example, maintains three such equitable clients.

references to "Blockchain" refer to the protocol behind it, rather than the file itself. The current state of a Blockchain is implicit and can be verified by every client through executing all of its blocks in order (or, to abbreviate the process, by relying on a Merkle tree). Every block contains a finite number of transactions (e.g., "Send money from A to B"). The low number of transactions that can be included in a block³ and its slow growth—a new block is found only every 10 minutes—are the prime reasons for Bitcoin's low throughput [15]. Other Blockchains perform much better.

B. Types of Blockchains

In principle, we distinguish two forms of Blockchain protocol: permissioned and permissionless Blockchains. Permissioned Blockchains are restricted to a set of known actors, implying the need to identify and authenticate themselves (examples are most business-to-business applications). Permissionless or open Blockchains allow anyone to participate, either as a miner or as a regular node.

Miners bring order to the Blockchain by picking a set of waiting-to-be-included transactions from the so-called mempool. They typically choose the most lucrative ones (i.e., willing to pay the highest fee for their inclusion in the chain, called gas limit in Ethereum) and generate a suitable block with them that they can append to the chain. In the case of Bitcoin, this means solving a hash puzzle, an otherwise pointless operation of trying to find a hash h for the current block of transactions such that h begins with an ever-growing number of 0s. This proof-of-work algorithm made Bitcoin consume more power than the Czech Republic in June 2018 [16]. Permissioned Blockchains typically do not require proof-ofwork, and newer open Blockchain protocols try to employ a concept called proof-of-stake to fix the power consumption. The incentive to create, i.e., "mine," new blocks B_{n+1} comes from the rewards: once a block has been found and appended to the chain, the miner receives a bounty in addition to the transaction fees contained in the block. Thus, reward $(B_{n+1}) =$ block_bounty $(B_{n+1}) + \sum transaction_f ees(B_{n+1})$. Regular full nodes are nodes which do not mine, but pertain full copies of the Blockchain. Participants specify the transaction they want to commit, as well as the maximum fee they are willing to pay for the transaction to be included in the Blockchain. Full nodes can accept these requests from users and put them into the mempool.

Several Blockchains, most prominently Ethereum, allow the execution of smart contracts. A smart contract is a program, i.e., a set of functions, which are stored on the Blockchain and executed by the nodes. In Ethereum's case, since space on the Blockchain is expensive, contracts are practically confined to about 600 lines of code. Its contracts are compiled to opcodes and executed by the EVM, the Ethereum Virtual Machine. In our vision, the ability to execute code has the strongest implications for Blockchain-based SE.

³Defined by the block size ranging on average below 900kB, see https://bitinfocharts.com/comparison/bitcoin-size.html

Because there is no central authority to trust, Blockchain-based solutions offer absence of single-point-of-failure type scenarios. However, when presented with two different, valid Blockchains, how would a client know which one to trust? This has been the question of consensus protocols such as Paxos, which have existed long before the idea of Blockchains came up [17]. In Bitcoin's case, its Nakamoto consensus is achieved by selecting the longest chain, i.e., the one which most computational work has gone into. Achieving consensus is a hard problem, especially in the presence of adversarial nodes (so-called byzantine behavior), but practical solutions such as Bitcoin or Ethereum show that it is feasible.

We can summarize that Blockchain-based technology allows us to build robust, distributed systems including a paymechanism (the currency, e.g., Bitcoins), the execution of predefined behavior (via smart contracts), a consensus protocol, and a tamper-proof history of every transaction. The actors in such a system can be anonymous, pseudo-anonymous, or known. We argue that these characteristics are of high significance for certain SE problems. Core among them stand the promises of *decentralized trust* and *verifiability*.

C. Security

While the applications for Blockchain-based software are seemingly countless, so are possible attack vectors. Several attacks have been tried on both Bitcoin and Ethereum. For example, so-called 51%-attacks, in which a malicious attacker controls the majority of the network, pose a large threat.⁴

However, in practice, it seems that successful attacks have been confined largely to exploiting user- rather than protocolinduced bugs. For example, the DAO, an investor-backed venture capital fund implemented on Ethereum, lost 55 million US-\$ because of a relatively trivial bug in its smart contract [19]. Nevertheless, Blockchain-based technology is just in its infancy.

IV. BLOCKCHAIN-BASED CONTINUOUS INTEGRATION

If Continuous Integration is a success story in SE, then Travis CI is the epitome of a success story: More than half of all projects doing CI on GitHub, do it with Travis CI. Travis CI provides a build environment for developers to test and deploy their code changes. Travis CI internally does this by renting computing power from AWS. Moreover, Travis provides a historic view of previously executed builds, a log that lends itself to a Blockchain application.

In Figure 1, we propose a Blockchain-based CI system called BCI. After a developer enters a build and its reward price (similar to Etherum's gas limit) in the mempool (1), it is then broadcast to the BCI network (2). Interested workers execute the build (3) and report the outcome to each other (4). If they find consensus (e.g., "pass"), they add the build to the Blockchain (5). Inspired by Ethereum's ability to execute functions, our nodes perform build tasks in a shielded environment similar to the EVM (e.g., Docker images to isolate the builds

⁴Eyal and Sirer have shown that in the case of Bitcoin, even controlling less than 50% might suffice. [18]

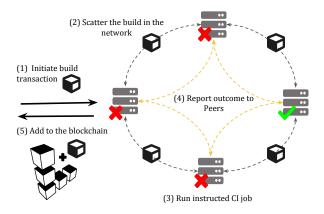


Fig. 1. Example of a BCI.

from the host system). The execution of build tasks could serve as a viable proof-of-work by hashing and signing the build log output, more useful than the wasteful proof-of-work Bitcoin currently employs. Moreover, the highly parallel nature of CI with its many build and test execution environments lends itself toward expediting via a large set of worker nodes.

This design alleviates a number of problems of traditional CI (TCI) services. First, as monolithic systems, every TCI outage disrupts the workflow of its users. Implemented as a distributed system running on the Blockchain, there would no longer be a single point of failure. Second, as a quasimonopoly, a TCI dictates private hosting prices. A BCI opens a market for computing power in which everyone can partake and earn money with otherwise idling resources. This in turn also means that the economic rules of demand and supply regulate build prices, not a single company. Most TCI providers only give their users a fixed number of n ($n \le 4$) build workers. There is no flexibility to upscale this to test and release an urgent bug fix. A Blockchain-based CI would allow developers to specify a high transaction cost on this one build. Nodes would prioritize the execution of this build job because of its high profit margin. Developers would be more flexible, but only pay for what they need at the moment.

If Travis CI or another TCI goes bankrupt, we might lose access to its history of builds. A Blockchain of CI builds on the other hand would self-serve as a distributed archive.

Several challenges to implement a BCI remain:

- 1) How to store build logs? Should build logs be part of the Blockchain, this leads to a file that might soon outgrow Bitcoin's 150 GB ledger. Possible solutions could be the light clients of Ethereum, where nodes do not need to know the full ledger, thanks to Merkle trees. Other solutions could be heavy compression, storing information off-the-chain, or relying on existing Blockchain-based file share solutions.
- 2) How to resolve non-deterministic builds? For others to verify a build, builds themselves need to be reproducible. An obvious solution is to execute builds in encapsulated containers. But how can we combine this with the advantages of having a multitude of different build environments at hand, which containers would diminish?
- 3) How to guarantee the proof-of-work? The hashing of build

log files is not enough proof of the execution of the actual build work, as a build log could be estimated from previous builds. Hardware like Intel's SGX, which was thought to provide trusted execution enclaves, might help solve this.

4) How to enable secrets? Travis CI allows the definition of private environment variables containing, e.g., deployment keys. How can we support them in a transparent BCI?

V. BLOCKCHAIN-BASED PACKAGE MANAGER

Reuse is a central element in SE. We not only use package repositories such as Debian's apt-get to manage binaries, but also to drive software development itself, with library repositories such as Java's Maven Central or JavaScript's npm. npm used to do essentially no vetting of the quality of new releases. This was painstakingly obvious in the left-pad incident, in which an Open-Source Software (OSS) developer who turned malicious caused great disturbance among the community by removing a trivial package on which thousands of other npm packages relied [20].

Limited measures to avoid such ripple effects of breaking releases already exist. For example, Debian uses a trust network that relies on personal connections. With their signature, Debian maintainers verify that they have done proper integration testing of a package.⁵ Even so, this 1) cannot prevent random malicious actions, 2) puts a lot of work on few shoulders, 3) does not prevent package breakages,⁶ and, 4) implies that testing is limited to what a package maintainer can do.

To remedy these problems, we propose BAPT, a Blockchain-based package repository. BAPT encapsulates a verifiable community-driven regression test framework for package repositories. Similar to BCI, every participant in BAPT can pick a new release candidate from the mempool, verifies that the release works as intended and does not break compatibility with downstream clients.

Important questions on how to implement BAPT remain: 1) How do we find consensus on what is a "good release?" Traditional majority-based consensus voting means that it would be enough if 51% of integrators verify the package works for them. This is clearly not suitable for bugs that only appear in some environments. On the other hand, a veto-based consensus would mean that one malicious attacker could prevent a release. We need to find the right middle ground, perhaps by replicating integrations in the same environment and comparing their outcome. This might require fundamental research on new consensus protocols.

2) How do we test packages? Should we rely on manual testing like Debian does? What is the proof-of-work then? For semantic versioning, we could make downstream clients of a library run their tests to verify that a proclaimed non-breaking change is indeed non-breaking. This adds a layer of trust by third parties, democratizing the decision to formally release a new package version (i.e., putting it on the Blockchain). While it empowers the clients of a library, it does not take

⁵https://debian-handbook.info/browse/stable/sect.becoming-package-maintainer.html

⁶https://lists.debian.org/debian-devel/2002/09/msg00066.html

power from the creator, as they can still release software as they wish—they just have to adhere to semantic versioning. 3) How do we ensure all packages are included? In the case of Bitcoin, it is natural that miners want to work on the most lucrative transactions first. However, in BAPT, we want to ensure that eventually all packages are included and no work is wasted (i.e., miners work on different packages).

VI. DISCUSSION

In the following, we discuss the larger implications that BBSE could bring with it to the SE landscape.

Professionalization. In SE, there exist many micro-to-small tasks. These are not per se difficult to execute, but require human diligence, e.g., to maintain packages, or CPU power, e.g., to execute builds. Like other distributions, Debian uses a fixed pool of mostly voluntary maintainers to manage packages. This noble principle of OSS, unfortunately, leads to a significant amount of peripheral packages being outdated because of inactive maintainers. Instead, in BAPT, an open package marketplace could flourish in which everyone could participate, propose that new packages be included, and verify the work of others. The reward for taking part in this transparent and open process comes in the form of a small payment, both as a transaction fee and bounty. The market could reward urgent updates or builds in BCI with a higher bounty.

Improved Quality. In addition to being out of date, packages often break in different integration environments than what the maintainer has available to them. In a distributed system where a transaction gets verified by others, such as BAPT or BCI, the quality of releases or builds could improve due to a greater diversity in testers and equipment available to them. Moreover, it is of vital importance then that these results be reproducible, a requirement the Debian community strives toward, but that is still often violated.⁷

Trust. Whenever there is a monopoly, trust becomes an issue—be it for pricing or other reasons. Debian's maintainer system as a meritocrazy is inherently susceptible to left-padlike incidents. With Blockchain technology, we can replace a centralized system—be it a personal trust network or a technical system such as Travis CI or GitHub—with a decentralized system verifiable by everyone. Moreover, a distributed system promises higher availability and resilience to partial outages.

Scalability. Orchestrating systems at scale might become problematic, perhaps only a challenge for BCI with hundreds of builds waiting to be executed. A solution might be to dynamically partition the system into disparate groups or topics. This might also solve the problem of some tasks—builds in BCI or packages in BAPT—not being picked up.

VII. CONCLUSION

While a lot of hype surrounds Blockchains, behind the noise is a possibly breakthrough-enabling technology. This paper can merely scratch the tip of the iceberg of the opportunities Blockchain-based SE (BBSE) can enable. We have exemplified that we can use BBSE to solve elementary problems in SE. In particular, we have sketched designs for

- a distributed, democratized build service, called BCI,
- a user-run package management system, called BAPT.

As these examples show, Blockchains seem particularly promising to problems that deal with centralization and trust. Many examples include a monetary component, a question often raised in SE ("but how to make money with this?"). We believe that paying small amounts, instead of relying on free work by few volunteers in the OSS community for micro tasks such as verifying a new release, has far-reaching consequences in the professionalization of SE infrastructure. While we outlined ideas for how to tackle SE challenges using Blockchain technology, many research opportunities and their implementation remain for future work, e.g., a truly distributed version of Git on the Blockchain or, abstracting from BCI, a decentralized computing platform.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Stefanie Roos for a fantastic review of this paper.

REFERENCES

- M. Swan. Blockchain: Blueprint for a new economy. "O'Reilly Media, Inc.", 2015.
- [2] S. Nakamoto. Bitcoin: A peer-to-peer electronic cash system. 2008.
- [3] A. Scott. 10 reasons why bitcoin is better than paypal, 2018. https://cointelegraph.com/news/10-reasons-why-bitcoin-is-better-than-paypal.
- [4] Wikipedia. Ethereum, 2018. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ethereum.
- [5] P. De Filippi. Blockchain and the Law: The Rule of Code. Harvard University Press, 2018.
- [6] Project Provenance Ltd. Blockchain: the solution for transparency in product supply chains, 2015. https://www.provenance.org/whitepaper.
- [7] H. Kim and M. Laskowski. Toward an ontology-driven blockchain design for supply-chain provenance. *Intelligent Systems in Accounting, Finance and Management*, 25(1):18–27, 2018.
- [8] M Walport. Distributed ledger technology: Beyond blockchain. uk government office for science. Technical report, Tech. Rep, 2016.
- K. Nikitin et al. Chainiac: Proactive software-update transparency via collectively signed skipchains and verified builds. In 26th USENIX Security Symposium (USENIX Security 17), pages 1271–1287, 2017.
- [10] Q. Xu et al. Blockchain-based decentralized content trust for docker images. Multimedia Tools and Applications, pages 1–26, 2017.
- [11] S. Porru et al. Blockchain-oriented software engineering: challenges and new directions. In *Proceedings of the 39th International Conference on Software Engineering Companion*, pages 169–171. IEEE Press, 2017.
- [12] G. Destefanis et al. Smart contracts vulnerabilities: a call for blockchain software engineering? In Blockchain Oriented Software Engineering (IWBOSE), 2018 International Workshop on, pages 19–25. IEEE, 2018.
- [13] P. Zhang et al. Applying software patterns to address interoperability in blockchain-based healthcare apps. arXiv preprint 1706.03700, 2017.
- [14] J. Bell et al. Advancing open science with version control and blockchains. In Software Engineering for Science, 2017 IEEE/ACM 12th International Workshop on, pages 13–14. IEEE, 2017.
- [15] Wikipedia. Bitcoin scalability problem, 2018. https://en.wikipedia.org/ wiki/Bitcoin_scalability_problem.
- [16] Digiconomist. Bitcoin energy consumption index, 2018. https://digiconomist.net/bitcoin-energy-consumption.
- [17] L. Lamport et al. Paxos made simple. ACM Sigact News, 32(4), 2001.
- [18] I. Eyal and E. Sirer. Majority is not enough: Bitcoin mining is vulnerable. In *International conference on financial cryptography and* data security, pages 436–454. Springer, 2014.
- [19] M. Leising. The ether thief, 2017. https://www.bloomberg.com/features/ 2017-the-ether-thief.
- [20] R. Abdalkareem et al. Why do developers use trivial packages? an empirical case study on npm. In 11th Joint Meeting on Foundations of Software Engineering, pages 385–395. ACM, 2017.

⁷https://wiki.debian.org/ReproducibleBuilds