# Stochastic Models for blockchain analysis Simple models for blockchain performance analysis

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## The three dimensions of blockchain analysis

1 Security of PoW blockchain

2 Decentralization in PoS blockchain

3 Blockchain eficiency

## Double spending attack

Security of PoW blockchain

- 1 Mary transfers 10 BTCs to John
- 2 The honest transaction is recorded in the honest chain and John ships the good.
- 3 Mary transfers to herself the exact same BTCs
- 4 The malicious transaction is recorded into a hidden, dark, secret chain
  - Mary has friends among the miners to help her out
  - The two chains are copycat up to the one transaction

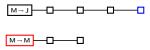
Fact (Bitcoin has only one rule)

The longest chain is to be trusted

## Double spending in practice

Security of PoW blockchain

Vendor are advised to wait for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$  of confirmations so that the honest chain is ahead of the dishonest one.



In the example, vendor awaits  $\alpha = 4$  confirmations, the honest chain is ahead of the dishonest one by z = 2 blocks.

## Fact (PoW is resistant to double spending)

- Attacker does not own the majority of computing power
- Suitable α

Double spending is unlikely to succeed.



S. Nakamoto, "Bitcoin : A peer-to-peer electronic cash system." Available at https://bitcoin.org/bitcoin.pdf, 2008.

## Mathematical set up

Security of PoW blockchain

#### Assume that

- $R_0 = z \ge 1$  (the honest chain is z blocks ahead)
- at each time unit a block is created
  - $\hookrightarrow$  in the honest chain with probability p
  - $\rightarrow$  in the dishonest chain with probability q = 1 p

The process  $(R_n)_{n\geq 0}$  is a random walk on  $\mathbb{Z}$  with

$$R_n=z+Y_1+\ldots+Y_n,$$

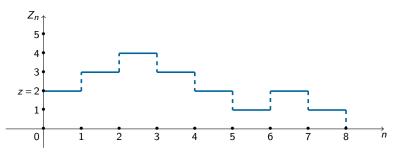
where  $Y_1, ..., Y_n$  are the **i.i.d.** steps of the random walk.

## Double spending rate of success

Security of PoW blockchain

Double spending occurs at time

$$\tau_z=\inf\{n\in\mathbb{N}\;;\;R_n=0\}.$$



### Double spending theorem

If p > q then the double-spending probability is given by

$$\phi(z) = \mathbb{P}(\tau_z < \infty) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^z.$$

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## Proof of the double spending theorem I

Security of PoW blockchain

Analogy with the gambler's ruin problem. Using a first step analysis, we have

$$\phi(z) = p\phi(z+1) + (1-p)\phi(z-1), \ z \ge 1. \tag{1}$$

We also have the boundary conditions

$$\phi(0) = 1 \text{ and } \lim_{z \to +\infty} \phi(z) = 0$$
 (2)

Equation (1) is a linear difference equation of order 2 associated to the following characteristic equation

$$px^2 - x + 1 - p = 0$$

which has two roots on the real line with

$$r_1 = 1$$
, and  $r_2 = \frac{1-p}{p}$ .

The solution of (1) is given by

$$\phi(z) = A + B\left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^{z},$$

## Proof of the double spending theorem II

Security of PoW blockchain

where A and B are constant. Using the bouldary conditions (2), we deduce that

$$\phi(z) = \left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^z$$

as announced.

## Refinements of the double spending problem

Security of PoW blockchain

The number of blocks M found by the attacker until the honest miners find  $\alpha$  blocks is a negative binomial random variable with  $\mathbf{pmf}$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(M=m) = \binom{\alpha+m-1}{m} p^{\alpha} q^{m}, \ m \ge 0.$$

The number of block that the honest chain is ahead of the dishonest one is given by

$$Z = (\alpha - M)_+$$
.

Applying the law of total probability yields the probability of successful double spending with

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{Double Spending}) = \mathbb{P}(M \ge \alpha) + \sum_{m=0}^{\alpha-1} \binom{\alpha+m-1}{m} q^{\alpha} p^{m}.$$



M. Rosenfeld, "Analysis of hashrate-based double spending," arXiv preprint arXiv:1402.2009, 2014.



C. Grunspan and R. Perez-Marco, "Double spend race," *International Journal of Theoretical and Applied Finance*, vol. 21, p. 1850053, dec 2018.

## Refinements of the double spending problem

Security of PoW blockchain

Let the length of honest and dishonest chain be driven by counting processes

- Honest chain  $\Rightarrow z + N_t$ .  $t \ge 0$ . where  $z \ge 1$ .
- Malicious chain  $\Rightarrow M_t$ ,  $t \ge 0$
- Study the distribution of the first-rendez-vous time

$$\tau_Z = \inf\{t \ge 0 , M(t) = z + N(t)\}.$$

If  $N_t \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda t)$  and  $M_t \sim \text{Pois}(\mu t)$  such that  $\lambda > \mu$  then

$$\phi(z) = \left(\frac{\mu}{\lambda}\right)^z, \ z \ge 0.$$



P.-O. Goffard, "Fraud risk assessment within blockchain transactions," *Advances in Applied Probability*, vol. 51, pp. 443-467, jun 2019. https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-01716687v2.



R. Bowden, H. P. Keeler, A. E. Krzesinski, and P. G. Taylor, "Modeling and analysis of block arrival times in the bitcoin blockchain," *Stochastic Models*, vol. 36, pp. 602–637, jul 2020.

## **Perspectives**

Security of PoW blockchain

- Distribution of  $\tau_z$ ? (To be discussed later)
- Distribution of Z
  - → Negative binomial when the length of the blockchain are driven by Poisson processes
  - $\hookrightarrow$  if not?

## Proof of Stake protocol

Decentralization in PoS blockchain

PoS is the most popular alternative to PoW.

- A block validator is selected according to the number of native coins she owns
- Update the blockchain and receive a reward or do nothing

Two problems

∧ Nothing at stake ⇒ Consensus postponed

♠ Rich gets richer ⇒ Risk of centralization

## Nothing-at-Stake

Decentralization in PoS blockchain

If given the opportunity a node will always append a new block

Everlasting fork if any

Perpetuating disagreement prevent users to exchange which lower the coin value.

### Theorem

To get consensus faster and almost surely

- Set a minimum stake to outweight the benefit of the reward
- Set up a modest reward schedule  $\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} r_t < \infty$



F. Saleh, "Blockchain without waste: Proof-of-stake," *The Review of Financial Studies*, vol. 34, pp. 1156–1190, jul 2020.

## Risk of centralization?

Decentralization in PoS blockchain

### Block appending process

- Draw a coin at random
- The owner of the coin append a block and collect the reward
- The block appender is more likely to get sleected during the next round

# Similar to Polya's urn



- Consider an urn of N balls of color in  $E = \{1, \dots, p\}$
- Draw a ball of color  $x \in E$
- Replace the ball together with r balls of color x

p is the number of peers and r is the size of the block reward.

### Theorem

The proportion of coins owned by each peer is stable on average over the long run



I. Roşu and F. Saleh, "Evolution of shares in a proof-of-stake cryptocurrency," *Management Science*, vol. 67, pp. 661–672, feb 2021.

## **Proof**

Decentralization in PoS blockchain

Consider the balls of some color  $x \in E$ , and denote by

- $\blacksquare$   $N_X$  the number of balls of color X initially in the urn
- $\blacksquare$   $Y_n$  the number of balls of color x in the urn initially after n draws
- $\blacksquare$   $Z_n$  the corresponding proportion balls of color x.

We show that  $(Z_n)_{n\geq 0}$  is a  $\mathscr{F}_n$ -Martingale where  $\mathscr{F}_n = \sigma(Y_1, ..., Y_n)$ . We have

$$\mathbb{E}\big(Z_{n+1}|\mathcal{F}_n\big) = Z_n \frac{Y_n + r}{N + r(n+1)} + \big(1 - Z_n\big) \frac{Y_n}{N + r(n+1)} = Z_n$$

It follows that

$$\mathbb{E}(Z_n) = \mathbb{E}(Z_0) = \frac{N_X}{N}$$
, for  $n \ge 0$ .

hence the stability. Furthermore, because  $|Z_n| < 1$ , then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} Z_n = Z_{\infty}$  exists and it holds that  $\mathbb{E}(Z_{\infty}) = \mathbb{E}(Z_0)$ .

# What is the limiting distributions of the shares?

Decentralization in PoS blockchain

### Dirichlet distribution

A random vector  $(Z_1,...,Z_p)$  has a Dirichlet distribution  $Dir(\alpha_1,...,\alpha_p)$  with **pdf** 

$$f(z_1,\ldots,z_p;\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_p)=\frac{1}{B(\alpha)}\prod_{i=1}^p z_i^{\alpha_i-1},$$

for  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_p$ ) > 0,  $0 < z_1, \ldots, z_p < 1$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^p z_i = 1$ , where

$$B(\alpha) = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{p} \Gamma(\alpha_i)}{\Gamma(\sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i)}.$$

### Theorem (Convergence toward a Dirichlet distribution)

Suppose that r = 1 and let  $X_n$  be the color of the ball drawn at the  $n^{th}$  round then

$$X_{\infty} \sim \text{Dir}(\{N_X, x \in E\}).$$

## Proof I

Decentralization in PoS blockchain

We have that

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = x) = \frac{N_x}{N} \tag{3}$$

and

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = x) = \frac{N_x + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{X_i}(x)}{N + n} = m_n(x)$$
 (4)

where  $\delta_{X_i}$  denotes the Dirac measure at  $X_i$ .

A sequence that satisfies (3) and (4) is said to be a Polya sequence with parameter  $N_x$ ,  $x \in E$ .

### Lemma

There is an equivalence between the two following statements

- (i)  $X_1, X_2, ...,$  is a Polya sequence
- (ii)  $\mu^* \sim Dir(N_X, x \in E)$  and  $X_1, X_2, ...$  given  $\mu^*$  are **iid** as  $\mu^*$

Consider the event  $A = \{X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n\}$ . Induction on n allows us to show that (i) is equivalent to

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \prod_{x \in E} \frac{N_x^{[n(x)]}}{N^{[n]}},\tag{5}$$

## **Proof II**

#### Decentralization in PoS blockchain

where n(x) is the number of i's for which  $x_i = x$  and  $a^{[k]} = a(a+1)...(a+k-1)$ . (5) is easily shown by induction on  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Now assume that (ii) holds true, then

$$\mathbb{P}(A|\mu^*) = \prod_{x \in E} \mu^*(x)^{n(x)},$$

recall that  $\mu^*$  is a random vector, indexed on E, We denote by  $\mu^*(x)$  the component associated with  $x \in E$ . The law of total probability then yields

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{E}\left[\prod_{x \in E} \mu^*(x)^{n(x)}\right],\tag{6}$$

which is the same as (5). Applying the lemma together with the law of large number yield

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{X_i}(x) \to \mu^*(x) \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

and then  $m_n(x) \to \mu^*(x)$ .



D. Blackwell and J. B. MacQueen, "Ferguson distributions via polya urn schemes," *The Annals of Statistics*, vol. 1, mar 1973.

## Measuring decentrality

Decentralization in PoS blockchain

### Fact

The most desirable situation corresponds to all the peers being equally likely to be selected.

Decentrality maybe measure by Shannon's entropy

$$H(\mu^*) = -\mathbb{E}\left\{\sum_{X} \mu^*(X) \ln[\mu^*(X)]\right\} = -\sum_{X} \frac{N}{N_X} \left[\psi(N_X + 1) - \psi(N + 1)\right],$$

where  $\psi(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \ln[\Gamma(x)]$  is the digamma function, to be compared to  $\ln(p)$ 



S. P. Gochhayat, S. Shetty, R. Mukkamala, P. Foytik, G. A. Kamhoua, and L. Njilla, "Measuring decentrality in blockchain based systems," *IEEE Access*, vol. 8, pp. 178372–178390, 2020.

## **Extensions and perspectives**

Decentralization in PoS blockchain

- How to include more peers along the way?
- What if the peers are not simply buy and hold investors?



I. Roşu and F. Saleh, "Evolution of shares in a proof-of-stake cryptocurrency," *Management Science*, vol. 67, pp. 661–672, feb 2021.

## **Efficiency**

Blockchain eficiency

Efficiency is characterized by

- Throughputs : Number of transaction being processed per time unit
- Latency : Average transaction confirmation time

We focus on a PoW equipped blockchain and and study the above quantities using a queueing model.

# Queueing model settings

Blockchain eficiency

- Poisson arrival with rate  $\lambda > 0$  for the transactions
- Poisson arrival with rate  $\mu > 0$  for the blocks
- Block size  $b \in \mathbb{N}^*$  Batch service

This is a  $M/M^b/1$  queue [2] [3]



Y. Kawase and S. Kasahara, "Transaction-confirmation time for bitcoin: A queueing analytical approach to blockchain mechanism," in *Queueing Theory and Network Applications*, pp. 75–88, Springer International Publishing, 2017.



N. T. J. Bailey, "On queueing processes with bulk service," *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society : Series B* (Methodological), vol. 16, pp. 80–87, jan 1954.



D. R. Cox, "The analysis of non-markovian stochastic processes by the inclusion of supplementary variables," Mathematical Proceedings of the Cambridge Philosophical Society, vol. 51, pp. 433–441, jul 1955.

## Queue length distribution

Blockchain eficiency

The queueuing process eventually reaches stationarity if

$$\mu \cdot b > \lambda. \tag{7}$$

We denote by N the length of the queue upon stationarity.

### The blockchain efficiency theorem

Assume that (7) holds then N is geometrically distributed

$$\mathbb{P}(N=n)=(1-p)\cdot p^n,$$

where  $p = 1/z^*$  and  $z^*$  is the only root of

$$-\frac{\lambda}{\mu}z^{b+1}+z^{b}\left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}+1\right)-1,$$

such that  $|z^*| > 1$ .

## Proof of the efficiency theorem I

Blockchain eficiency

Let  $N_t^q$  be the number of transactions in the queue at time  $t \ge 0$  and  $X_t$  the time elapsed since the last block was found. Further define

$$P_n(x,t)dx = \mathbb{P}[N_t^q = n, X_t \in (x, x + dx)]$$

If  $\lambda < \mu \cdot b$  holds then the process admits a limiting distribution given by

$$\lim_{t\to\infty} P_n(x,t) = P_n(x).$$

We aim at finding the distribution of the queue length upon stationarity

$$\mathbb{P}(N^q = n) := \alpha_n = \int_0^\infty P_n(x) dx. \tag{8}$$

Consider the possible transitions over a small time lapse h during which no block is being generated. Over this time interval, either

- no transactions arrives
- one transaction arrives

## Proof of the efficiency theorem II

Blockchain eficiency

We have for  $n \ge 1$ 

$$P_n(x+h) = e^{-\mu h} \left[ e^{-\lambda h} P_n(x) + \lambda h e^{-\lambda h} P_{n-1}(x) \right]$$

Differentiating with respect to h and letting  $h \rightarrow 0$  leads to

$$P'_{n}(x) = -(\lambda + \mu)P_{n}(x) + \lambda P_{n-1}(x), \ n \ge 1.$$
(9)

Similarly for n = 0, we have

$$P_0'(x) = -(\lambda + \mu)P_0(x). \tag{10}$$

We denote by  $\xi(x) = \mu$  the hazard function of the block arrival time (constant as it is exponentially distributed). The system of differential equations (9), (10) admits boundary conditions at x = 0 with

$$\begin{cases} P_n(0) = \int_0^{+\infty} P_{n+b}(x)\xi(x)dx = \mu \sum_{m=0}^b \alpha_{n+b}, & n \ge 1, \\ P_0(0) = \mu \sum_{n=0}^b \alpha_n, & n = 0, \dots, b \end{cases}$$
 (11)

Define the probability generating function of N at some elapsed service time  $x \ge 0$  as

$$G(z;x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(x)z^n.$$

## Proof of the efficiency theorem III

Blockchain eficiency

By differentiating with respect to x, we get (using (9) and (10))

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}G(z;x) = -\left[\lambda(1-z) + \mu\right]G(z;x)$$

and therefore

$$G(z;x) = G(z;0) \exp \left\{-\left[\lambda(1-z) + \mu\right]x\right\}$$

We get the probability generating function of N by integrating over x as

$$G(z) = \frac{G(z;0)}{\lambda(1-z) + \mu}$$
 (12)

## Proof of the efficiency theorem IV

Blockchain eficiency

Using the boundary conditions (11), we write

$$G(z;0) = \mu \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(0) z^n$$

$$= P_0(0) + \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} P_n(0) z^n$$

$$= \mu \sum_{n=0}^{b} \alpha_n + \mu \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \alpha_{n+b} z^n$$

$$= \mu \sum_{n=0}^{b} \alpha_n + \mu z^{-b} \left[ G(z) - \sum_{n=0}^{b} \alpha_n z^n \right]$$
(13)

Replacing the left hand side of (13) by (12), multiplying on both side by  $z^b$  and rearranging yields

$$\frac{G(z)}{M(z)}[z^b - M(z)] = \sum_{n=0}^{b-1} \alpha_n(z^b - z^n),$$
(14)

where  $M(z) = \mu/(\lambda(1-z) + \mu)$ . Using Rouche's theorem, we find that both side of the equation shares b zeros inside the circle  $\mathscr{C} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \; | \; |z| < 1 + \epsilon\}$  for some epsilon. One of them is 1, and we denote by  $z_k$ ,  $k = 1, \ldots, b-1$  the remaining b-1 zeros. Given the polynomial form of the right

# Proof of the efficiency theorem V

Blockchain eficiency

hand side of (14), the fundamental theorem of algebra indicates that the number of zeros is b. The left hand side can be rewritten as

$$G(z)\left[-\frac{\lambda}{\mu}z^{b+1}+\left(1+\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)z^{b}-1\right],$$

we deduce that there is one zeros outside  $\mathscr{C}$ , we can further show that it is a real number  $z^*$ . Multiplying both side of (14) by  $(z-1)\prod_{k=1}^{b-1}(z-z_k)$ , and using G(1)=1 yields

$$G(z)=\frac{1-z^*}{z-z^*}.$$

N is then a geometric random variable with parameter  $p = \frac{1}{z^*}$ .

## Latency and throughputs

Blockchain eficiency

### Little's law

Consider a stationary queueing system and denote by

- $1/\lambda$  the mean of the unit inter-arrival times
- L be the mean number of units in the system
- W be the mean time spent by units in the system

We have

$$L = \lambda \cdot W$$



J. D. C. Little, "A proof for the queuing formula :L=  $\lambda$ W," *Operations Research*, vol. 9, pp. 383–387, jun 1961.

Latency is the confirmation time of a transaction

$$Latency = \frac{p}{(1-p)\lambda} + \frac{1}{\mu}$$

■ Throughput is the number of transaction confirmed per time unit

Throughput = 
$$\mathbb{E}(N\mathbb{I}_{N \le b} + b\mathbb{I}_{N > b}) = \sum_{n=0}^{b} n(1-p)p^n + bp^{b+1}$$
.

## Perspective

Blockchain eficiency

1 Include some priority consideration to account for the transaction fees



Y. Kawase, , and S. Kasahara, "Priority queueing analysis of transaction-confirmation time for bitcoin," *Journal of Industrial & Management Optimization*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 1077–1098, 2020.

2 Go beyond the Poisson process framework



Q.-L. Li, J.-Y. Ma, and Y.-X. Chang, "Blockchain queue theory," in *Computational Data and Social Networks*, pp. 25–40, Springer International Publishing, 2018.



Q.-L. Li, J.-Y. Ma, Y.-X. Chang, F.-Q. Ma, and H.-B. Yu, "Markov processes in blockchain systems," Computational Social Networks, vol. 6, jul 2019.

# A fourth dimension to analyse

Blockchain eficiency

## The energy consumption dimension







https://cbeci.org/