

HyperChain: A Formal Specification for a Heterogeneous, Post-Quantum Framework with Hybrid Consensus and Dynamic Sharding

Author: trvorth | HyperChain Project

Date: June 23, 2025

Version: 1.0

Abstract

The prevailing paradigm of distributed ledger technology (DLT), based on linear-chain blockchain architectures, confronts fundamental impediments to scalability and is subject to existential threats from the development of quantum computers. This research paper presents the formal specification of HyperChain, a novel DLT framework engineered to resolve this dual challenge.

The primary contribution of this work is the rigorous architectural synthesis of several key components, substantiated by a reference implementation. We define a heterogeneous multi-chain architecture that supports two distinct, interoperable ledger models: (1) a set of high-throughput Dynamic DAG Shards based on a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) structure, which we term the HyperDAG, facilitating parallel transaction processing and featuring a novel mechanism for dynamic shard creation based on network load; and (2) a series of independent Execution Chains, designed for specific applications and secured by a unique weighted Proof-of-Work consensus.

Consensus across the framework is achieved via a multi-layered hybrid protocol. Block proposal remains permissionless through Proof-of-Work (PoW), while deterministic finality is provided by a Proof-of-Stake (PoS) based validator overlay that finalizes checkpoints for all constituent chains. Security is further enhanced by an on-chain Intrusion Detection System (IDS) with economic slashing penalties and the native integration of a post-quantum lattice-based signature scheme, modeled after the NIST standard CRYSTALS-Dilithium, for all validator attestations. We also integrate Zero-Knowledge Succinct Non-Interactive Arguments of Knowledge (ZK-SNARKs) for a robust optional privacy layer.

We provide a formal specification of the protocol’s data structures, its unique hashing algorithms, its state transition functions, its comprehensive cryptographic suite, and its incentive-compatible economic model. The resulting framework presents a viable pathway toward a DLT ecosystem that is performant, adaptable, and secure against both classical and quantum threats.

1. Introduction

1.1. The Limitations of the Prevailing Paradigm

The publication of Bitcoin [1] introduced a robust solution to the Byzantine Generals’ Problem [41], enabling decentralized consensus through a chronologically ordered, hash-linked chain of blocks. This linear-chain architecture, while revolutionary, suffers from inherent limitations in transactional throughput due to its sequential nature. This limitation is a central issue in the so-called “blockchain trilemma,” which posits a difficult trade-off between decentralization, security, and scalability [4]. Subsequent protocols, such as that embodied by Ethereum [7], have expanded protocol functionality to include Turing-complete smart contracts [42], yet remain constrained by similar sequential execution models, leading to network congestion, high transaction fees, and significant confirmation latencies.

This performance limitation is compounded by a long-term security vulnerability. The cryptographic primitives securing these networks, principally the Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA), derive their security from the computational intractability of the discrete logarithm and integer factorization problems for classical computers. However, the prospective development of a fault-tolerant quantum computer, capable of executing Shor’s algorithm [2, 3], would render these primitives insecure, jeopardizing the integrity of the entire digital asset landscape [43].

1.2. The HyperChain Solution: A Holistic Synthesis

A substantial body of academic and applied research has sought to address these limitations in isolation. Protocols such as GHOSTDAG [5] and PHANTOM [6] have leveraged a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) structure to improve throughput by allowing parallel block creation. Finality gadgets, notably Ethereum’s Casper FFG [7], have been designed to overlay deterministic finality upon probabilistic PoW chains. Scalability via sharding has been a central research theme [9], though it introduces significant complexity [44]. Concurrently, the NIST PQC standardization process has culminated in the selection of quantum-resistant cryptographic algorithms [10], with lattice-based schemes like CRYSTALS-Dilithium emerging as a prominent candidate [11].

However, few protocols have attempted a holistic synthesis of these solutions from inception. HyperChain is a framework designed to unify these research threads. It specifies a heterogeneous multi-chain architecture, a concept that draws inspiration from interoperability frameworks like Polkadot [25] and Cosmos [26], which acknowledge that no single chain design is optimal for all use cases [45]. HyperChain provides a foundational Layer-0 protocol that supports specialized, interoperable chains within a single secure environment.

This whitepaper outlines the technical innovations that make HyperChain possible:

- A Heterogeneous Architectural Framework: Combining high-throughput HyperDAG shards with specialized Execution Chains.
- A Hybrid Consensus Protocol: Merging permissionless PoW for block proposals with deterministic PoS for finality.
- A Comprehensive Cryptographic Suite: Integrating post-quantum signatures and optional privacy via ZK-SNARKs.
- An Incentive-Compatible Economic Model: Designed for long-term network health and sustainable development.

This paper proceeds by presenting the formal architectural specification of the HyperChain framework (Section 2), its multi-layered hybrid consensus protocol (Section 3), its comprehensive cryptographic suite (Section 4), its economic model (Section 5), its P2P network and governance model (Section 6), a discussion of use cases, implementation, and roadmap (Section 7), and concludes with a summary and directions for future research (Section 8).

2. The HyperChain Architectural Framework

2.1. Design Philosophy: A Heterogeneous Approach

The core design philosophy of HyperChain is that a single, monolithic ledger architecture cannot efficiently serve the diverse needs of a decentralized ecosystem. By supporting a heterogeneous architecture, the framework allows for application-specific optimization, enabling developers to choose the ledger model best suited to their needs—be it high-frequency transactions or complex, stateful computation—without sacrificing shared security and interoperability. This approach is informed by research in modular blockchain design [53].

2.2. The Heterogeneous Ledger Model

The framework supports two primary types of constituent chains, both managed within the unified protocol core:

- Dynamic DAG Shards (HyperDAGs): Structured as Directed Acyclic Graphs to maximize transactional throughput via parallel block processing. They are optimized for high-frequency, simple value transfers. We refer to our specific DAG implementation as the HyperDAG.
- Execution Chains: These are independent, linearly-ordered chains designed to support more complex operations or specific applications, potentially including Turing-complete smart contracts, and are secured by their own unique consensus mechanism.

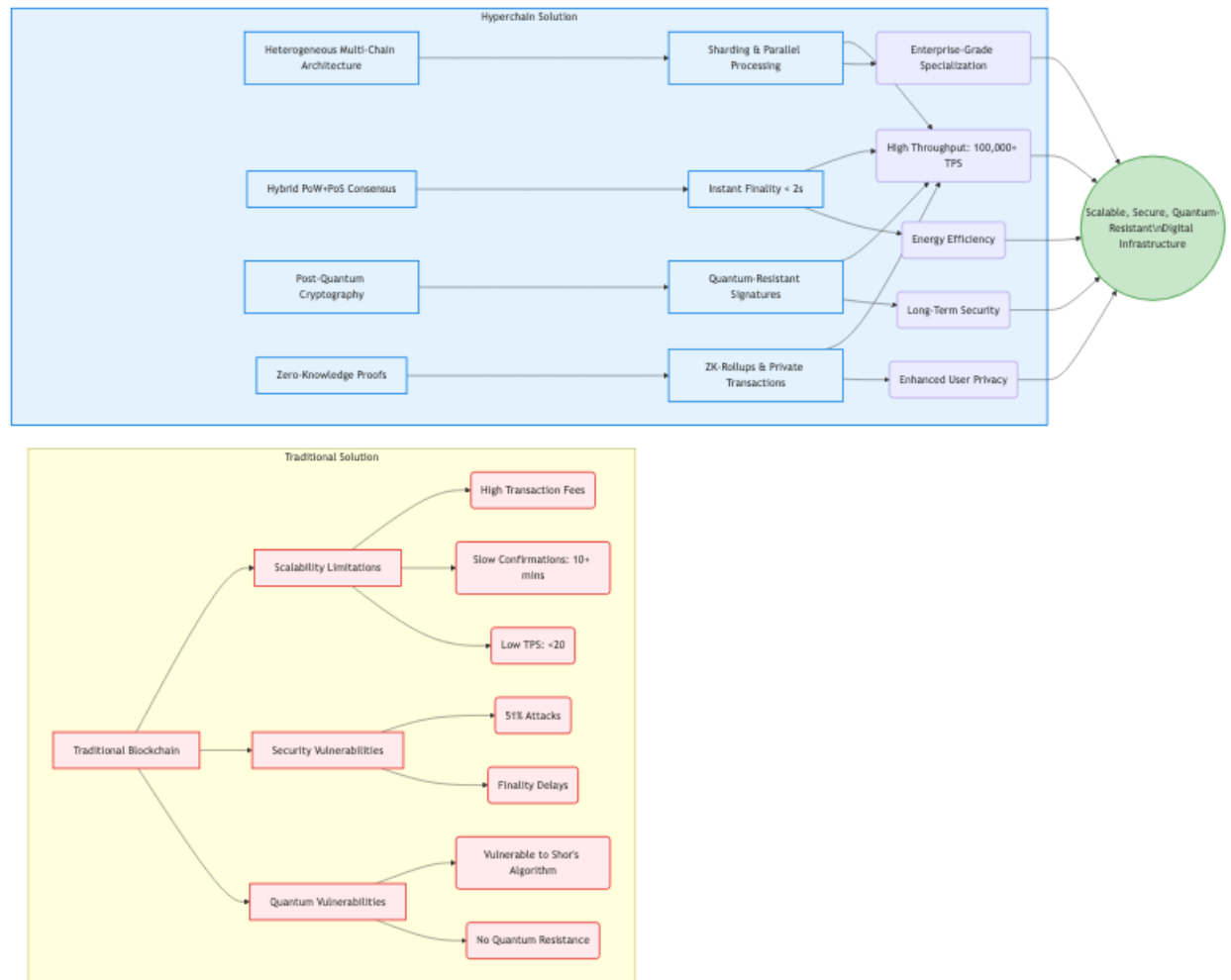


Figure 1: HyperDAG Structure

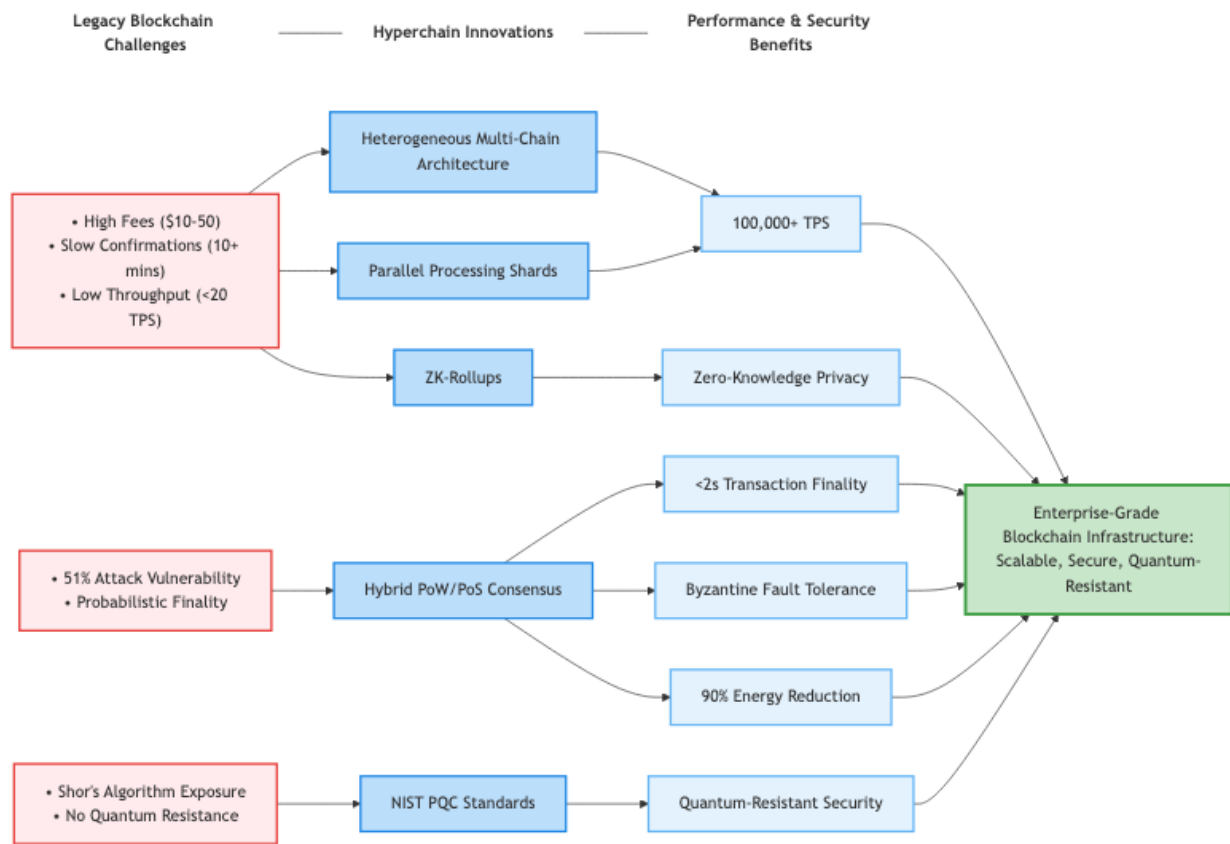


Figure 2: HyperDAG Structure

2.3. Specification: Dynamic DAG Shards (The HyperDAG)

The core innovation for high-throughput transactions in HyperChain is the HyperDAG. Unlike a linear blockchain, a HyperDAG is a directed acyclic graph where each new block (a HyperBlock) can reference and confirm multiple parent blocks. This creates a multi-dimensional, interwoven mesh of transactions, rather than a single file line.

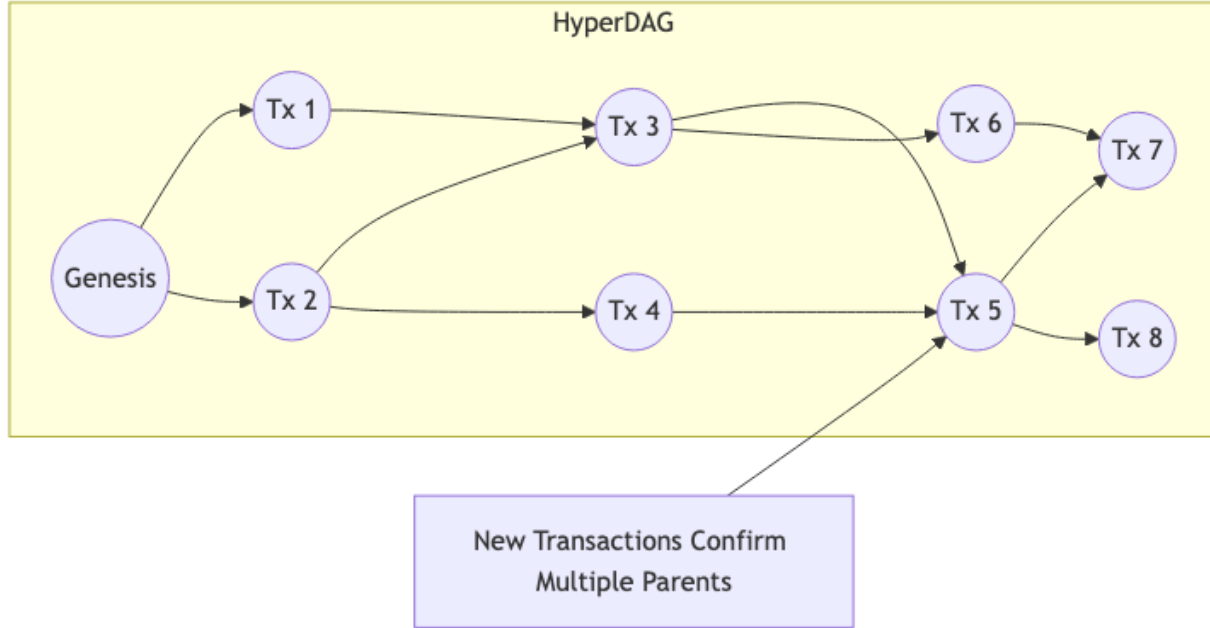


Figure 3: HyperDAG Structure

2.3.1. Key Advantages of the HyperDAG Structure

1. **Massive Scalability:** By allowing blocks to be added in parallel, the network's throughput is not limited by a global block creation rate. The more participants, the more transactions can be processed simultaneously.
2. **Fast Confirmations:** Transactions are confirmed almost instantly upon being referenced by a subsequent transaction. The confidence in a transaction's finality grows rapidly as more blocks are woven into the DAG after it.
3. **Energy Efficiency:** The structure avoids the intense "winner-takes-all" competition for a single block. This distributes the work more evenly and reduces the overall energy expenditure per transaction compared to traditional PoW blockchains.
4. **No Orphaned Blocks:** In a blockchain, when two miners solve a block at the same time, one block is "orphaned" and its work is wasted. In a HyperDAG, both blocks can be incorporated into the ledger, ensuring no work is lost.

2.3.2. Dynamic Sharding Mechanism The DAG shard subsystem is defined as a set of N independent DAGs, G_0, G_1, \dots, G_{N-1} , where each HyperBlock is assigned a `chain_id`. This facilitates native sharding. A primary innovation is the `dynamic_sharding` function, an on-chain mechanism for autonomous load balancing. The protocol monitors the transactional load L_i for each shard. If the load on a shard exceeds a predefined multiple of the network-wide average load, a new shard is created. This trigger can be formalized as:

If $i \in [0, N-1]$ such that $L_i > N \cdot \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} L_j$, then `initiate_shard_creation()`.

Here, τ corresponds to the SHARD_THRESHOLD constant. This contrasts with static sharding models, providing superior adaptability. The challenge of atomic cross-shard state transitions [46] is addressed at a primitive level by the CrossChainSwap protocol, which defines a state machine for two-phase commit-style swaps between shards.

2.4. Specification: Execution Chains

Execution Chains are managed by a separate ShardManager that uses discrete load thresholds (SHARD_SPLIT_THRESHOLD, SHARD_MERGE_THRESHOLD) to adjust the number of active chains. This rule-based scaling model is suited for applications with predictable, bursty performance profiles, such as those requiring Turing-complete smart contract execution. The block structure on these chains, Block, is distinct from HyperBlock and is tailored for its specific consensus mechanism.

2.5. State Transition Model: Unspent Transaction Outputs (UTXO)

The entire HyperChain ecosystem utilizes the UTXO model for state transitions. The UTXO model, first introduced by Bitcoin [1], offers advantages in privacy and scalability over the account-based model by avoiding global state contention issues [27]. A transaction’s validity requires that the sum of its input values is greater than or equal to the sum of its output values: $\sum u_i \text{txvalue}(u) \geq \sum v_j \text{txvalue}(v)$.

3. Hybrid Consensus and Finality Protocol

HyperChain employs a multi-layered hybrid consensus protocol to secure its heterogeneous architecture, separating block proposal from finality.

3.1. Formal Model and Security Assumptions

We assume a partially synchronous network model, where messages are delivered within some unknown but bounded time Δ [47]. The security of the protocol relies on two economic assumptions: that any adversary controls less than 50% of the total PoW hashrate and less than 33% of the total value staked by validators, consistent with standard security models for hybrid protocols [54].

3.2. Consensus on DAG Shards: PoW with Delegated Finality (PoW-DF), aka PoW²

On the DAG shards, any node may act as a Miner to propose a HyperBlock by solving a PoW puzzle. This provides a permissionless and Sybil-resistant mechanism for extending the ledger [1]. A distinct set of Validators is responsible for creating checkpoint blocks that reference a consistent cut of the DAG, thereby finalizing all preceding transactions. This is philosophically similar to the “finality gadget” concept [7]. This two-layered mechanism is also referred to as Proof-of-Work Squared (PoW²). Finality is achieved for any block B at a depth of at least k_f (FINALIZATION_DEPTH) behind a valid checkpoint block C. The finality condition is:

$$\text{is_finalized}(B) \iff \exists C : (\text{is_checkpoint}(C) \wedge B \in \text{history}(C) \wedge (\text{depth}(C) - \text{depth}(B) \geq k_f))$$

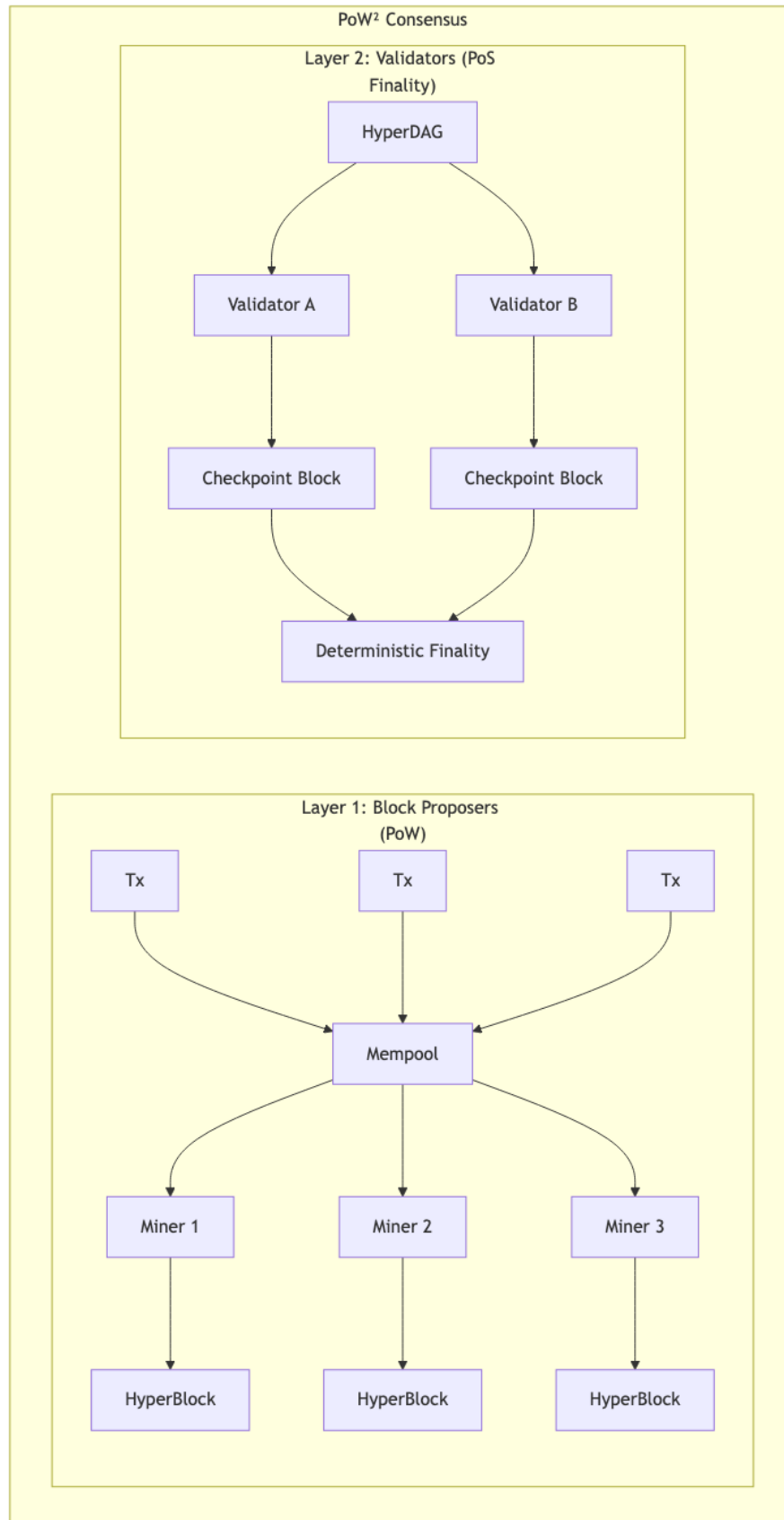
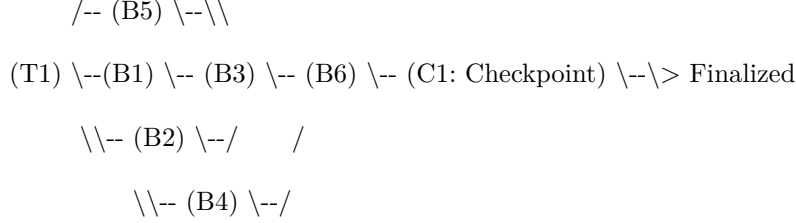


Diagram: DAG Structure with Tip Selection and Finalization



In this graphic, B1-B6 are blocks. (T1) is a transaction. B5, B6 are current “tips” of the DAG. A miner can choose to build upon them. C1 is a checkpoint block created by validators, which finalizes all preceding blocks (B1-B6) once it reaches the required depth.

3.3. Consensus on Execution Chains: Weighted PoW

On the Execution Chains, a different hybrid model is used. Miners perform PoW to create new Blocks. The Block structure contains a `stake_weight` field, calculated from the UTXO value of the block’s proposer. The canonical chain is determined by a fork-choice rule that considers not only the cumulative PoW difficulty but also the cumulative stake-weight, blending the permissionless nature of PoW with the “skin-in-the-game” security of PoS [13], a model analogous to protocols like Peercoin [48].

The fork choice rule F is defined as: $F(\text{chain}) = \Sigma(\text{block.difficulty} * \text{block.stake_weight})$ for all blocks in the chain. The chain with the highest F value is considered canonical.

3.4. Security Analysis: Integrated IDS and Slashing

The protocol’s security is augmented by an on-chain Intrusion Detection System (IDS). The `detect_anomaly` function calculates a score based on a block’s deviation from statistical norms (e.g., transaction count, gas usage). Validators who sign blocks with high anomaly scores are automatically penalized via the `SLASHING_PENALTY` on their stake. This extends the concept of slashing from purely protocol-level faults (e.g., double-signing in PoS protocols [28]) to include a broader class of potentially destabilizing behaviors, creating a powerful economic disincentive against network abuse, a principle from mechanism design [49].

The anomaly score $S(B)$ for a block B is calculated as: $S(B) = |\text{tx_count}(B) - \text{avg_tx_count}| / \max(1, \text{avg_tx_count})$. If $S(B) > T_anomaly$ (a threshold), a slash is triggered.

4. Cryptographic Suite

HyperChain integrates a comprehensive suite of cryptographic primitives chosen for security, performance, and quantum resistance.

4.1. Foundational Hashing Algorithms

The protocol specifies the use of the SHA-3 family of hash functions [29]. Keccak256 is used for block hashing and Merkle tree construction [12], while the wider Keccak512 is used for generating transaction identifiers to reduce the probability of hash collisions.

4.2. The Reliable Hashing Algorithm (RHA)

The Execution Chain implementation introduces a novel, computationally complex hashing function, `reliable_hashing_algorithm`. This function performs a three-stage process: an initial hash using BLAKE3 [30], a non-linear transformation of the output via 4×4 matrix multiplication using the `nalgebra` library, and a final hash using Keccak256. While a formal security analysis is an area for future research, the design motivation is to increase the computational complexity beyond simple hash-preimage resistance, potentially creating a degree of resistance against specialized mining hardware such as ASICs [31].

RHA Formalization: Let H_B3 be BLAKE3, M be the matrix transformation, and H_K be Keccak256. $RHA(\text{input}) = H_K(M(H_B3(\text{input})))$

4.3. Post-Quantum Signatures

The protocol mandates quantum-resistant signatures for all validator attestations. The `LatticeSignature` struct is specified for this purpose. A production implementation will utilize a scheme standardized by NIST, such as CRYSTALS-Dilithium [10, 11]. The security of Dilithium is based on the conjectured hardness of problems such as the Module Learning With Errors (Module-LWE) and Module Shortest Integer Solution (Module-SIS) in mathematical lattices [14, 15], which are believed to be intractable for quantum adversaries [50].

4.4. Privacy-Preserving Technologies

Privacy is not an afterthought in HyperChain; it is a core, optional feature.

4.4.1. Zero-Knowledge Proofs (ZK-SNARKs) We integrate ZK-SNARKs [32] to provide users with the ability to conduct transactions with complete privacy. A ZK-SNARK allows one party (the prover) to prove to another (the verifier) that a statement is true, without revealing any information beyond the validity of the statement itself. In HyperChain, this means a user can prove they own the funds they are sending and have not double-spent them, all without revealing their address, the recipient's address, or the transaction amount.

Users can choose between two types of transactions:

1. **Public Transactions:** Transparent and auditable, similar to Bitcoin.
2. **Private Transactions:** Shielded transactions that leverage ZK-SNARKs to hide all transaction metadata. The protocol specification includes a `UtxoCircuit` defined using the Bellman library for this purpose, enabling confidential transactions based on foundational research in interactive proof systems [33].

4.4.2. Homomorphic Encryption The `HomomorphicEncrypted` struct specification outlines a design for integrating a scheme such as BGV [16] or BFV [17]. This would allow for the validation of transaction sums on-chain without decrypting the constituent amounts, significantly enhancing user privacy in specific applications.

5. Economic Model and Incentive Engineering

The protocol's security is underpinned by a carefully engineered economic model designed to ensure incentive compatibility [18].

5.1. Monetary Policy and Emission

The protocol defines a fixed `TOTAL_SUPPLY` of 10^1 base units (representing 10 billion coins) and an `INITIAL_REWARD` (R) of 500 units per checkpoint. The reward undergoes a gradual reduction every `HALVING_PERIOD` (P), where it is multiplied by a `HALVING_FACTOR` (f) of 0.97. The reward for any given block at time t on one of N chains is defined as:

$$R(t) = (R / N) * f^{\lfloor (t - t_0) / P \rfloor}$$

This ensures a predictable, deflationary monetary policy adapted for a multi-chain environment. The emission can also be visualized as a logarithmic decay curve over time.

Token Emission Model

The HyperCoin emission follows a disinflationary curve:

$$E(t) = 500 \cdot e^{-0.357t} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + 0.018t^{1.5}}$$

Where: - $E_0 = 500$ (initial emission) - $\lambda = 0.357$ (base decay rate) - $\beta = 0.018$ (acceleration factor)

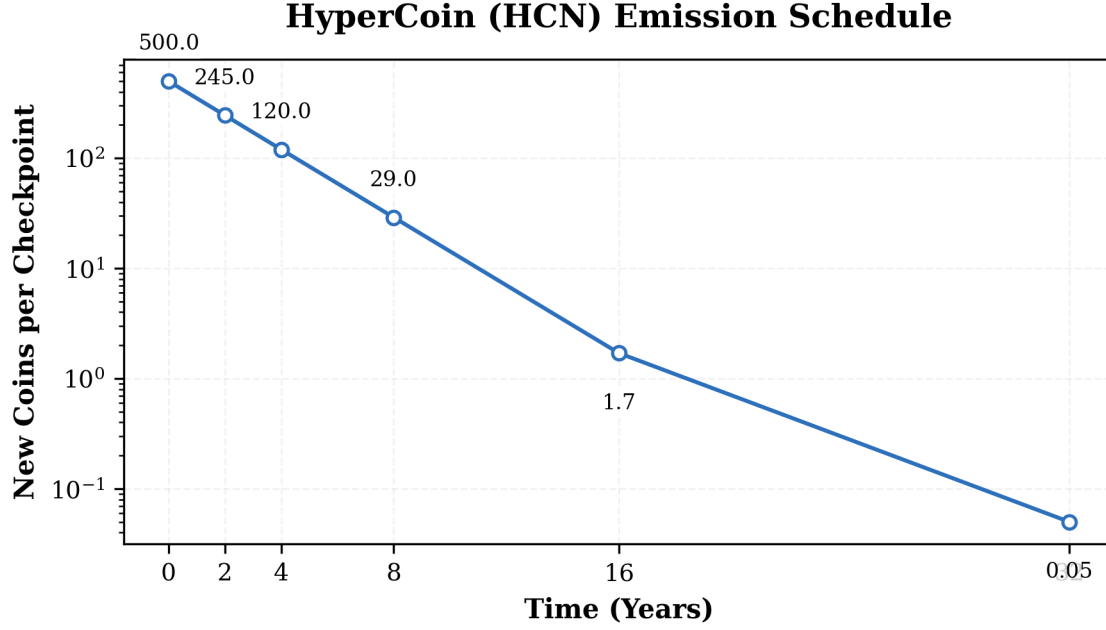


Figure 4: HCN Emission Schedule

Emission Schedule

Year	New Coins	Reduction
0	500	-
2	245	51%
4	120	51%
8	29	76%
16	1.7	94%
32	0.05	97%

Key Properties:

1. Initial Distribution: High emission (500 coins/checkpoint) at launch
2. Progressive Halving: Accelerating emission reductions
3. Asymptotic Scarcity: Approaches near-zero emission by Year 32

Note: Emission checkpoints occur every 2000 blocks (~2 weeks)

5.2. Fee Structure and Staking Model

The system is funded through transaction fees and a protocol-level developer fee (DEV_FEE_RATE of 3.04%). This mechanism provides sustainable funding for public digital infrastructure and open-source development [19].

- Transaction Fees: Awarded to Layer 1 Block Miners for including transactions in blocks.
- Staking Model: The PoS finality layer requires validators to lock a MIN_VALIDATOR_STAKE, which acts as collateral that can be slashed for misbehavior (e.g., double-signing or attesting to anomalous blocks). This creates a direct economic incentive for honest behavior.

6. P2P Network and Governance Framework

6.1. P2P Networking Layer

The peer-to-peer network is built using the modular libp2p framework [20].

- Peer Discovery: Kademlia-based DHTs for robust peer routing [21], with mDNS for local discovery.
- Message Propagation: The Gossipsub protocol provides efficient and scalable data dissemination [22].
- Security: To defend against DoS and Sybil attacks [34], the protocol implements per-peer rate limiting and an automatic blacklisting mechanism for misbehaving nodes.

6.2. On-Chain Governance

HyperChain incorporates an on-chain governance framework to enable decentralized protocol evolution, avoiding the contentious hard forks seen in other projects [23]. The model, specified in `hyperdag.rs`, consists of a `GovernanceProposal` system. Proposals can be submitted by high-stake validators and are voted on by all stakeholders, with voting power proportional to their stake. This mechanism, similar in principle to the governance models of Tezos [24] and Polkadot [25], allows for the orderly, transparent, and decentralized modification of core protocol parameters over time.

7. Use Cases, Implementation, and Roadmap

7.1. Use Cases

The unique architecture of HyperChain opens the door to a wide array of applications that are not feasible on traditional blockchains:

- Micropayments & Streaming: High throughput and low fees make it ideal for content streaming, IoT machine-to-machine payments, and other micro-transaction models.
- Decentralized Finance (DeFi): The speed and efficiency of the HyperDAG can support high-frequency trading, complex financial instruments, and more responsive DeFi protocols.
- Supply Chain & Logistics: The ability to process a massive volume of parallel events makes HyperChain suitable for tracking goods and assets in real-time across global supply chains.
- Digital Identity: Secure, private, and self-sovereign identity solutions can be built on HyperChain’s ZK-SNARK layer.

7.2. Reference Implementation

The specification presented in this paper is substantiated by a reference implementation written in the Rust programming language. The implementation leverages several high-performance, industry-standard libraries, including the `tokio` runtime for asynchronous I/O, `rocksdb` for persistent state storage, `rayon` for parallel computation, and `libp2p` for networking. This provides a concrete foundation for empirical analysis and future development.

7.3. Performance and Bottlenecks

The primary performance goal of HyperChain is to achieve high transactional throughput via its sharded, parallel architecture. The main performance bottlenecks are anticipated to be state contention under high load (mitigated by fine-grained locking with `tokio::sync::RwLock` and `DashMap`), disk I/O for the `rocksdb` state database, and the computational overhead of cryptographic operations, particularly the post-quantum `LatticeSignature` and the novel `reliable_hashing_algorithm`.

7.4. Development Roadmap

Our development roadmap is structured to deliver value incrementally while ensuring the security and stability of the network at each stage.

- Q3 2025:
 - ☒ Whitepaper v1.0 Release
 - ☐ Launch of the initial Testnet (single-node).
 - ☐ Open-sourcing of the core codebase.
- Q4 2025:
 - ☐ Launch of the public, multi-node Testnet.
 - ☐ Development of the HyperWallet and network explorer.
 - ☐ Initiation of the first third-party security audit.
- Q1 2026:
 - ☐ Mainnet Launch Candidate.
 - ☐ Implementation of ZK-SNARKs on the Testnet.
 - ☐ Bug bounty program initiated.
- Q2 2026 & Beyond:
 - ☐ Mainnet Launch.
 - ☐ Development of SDKs for dApp development.
 - ☐ Establishment of a decentralized governance model.
 - ☐ Integration of Execution Chains and the weighted PoW consensus model.

8. Conclusion and Future Work

This paper has provided a formal specification for HyperChain, a DLT protocol architected to holistically address the challenges of scalability, security, and long-term quantum resistance. We have detailed its core innovations: the heterogeneous architecture combining dynamic DAG shards and Execution Chains; the hybrid consensus protocol with its integrated IDS; and the native integration of post-quantum cryptography. This synthesis offers a robust and adaptable framework for next-generation decentralized applications.

Future work will proceed along several research vectors:

- **Cryptography Implementation:** Replacing the placeholder cryptographic stubs with audited, production-grade implementations of CRYSTALS-Dilithium and a selected zero-knowledge proof system like Groth16 [32].
- **Smart Contract Engine:** Developing a secure and efficient WebAssembly (Wasm) based execution engine for the Execution Chains, drawing lessons from existing Wasm-based blockchain VMs [36].
- **Formal Verification:** Applying formal methods and model checking tools like TLA+ or Coq to rigorously prove the safety and liveness properties of the PoW-DF consensus protocol under various adversarial assumptions [37, 38, 52].
- **Economic Modeling:** Developing a comprehensive game-theoretic model [39, 40] of the dynamic sharding mechanism to analyze its strategic stability and resistance to economic attacks.

9. References

- [1] Nakamoto, S. (2008). Bitcoin: A Peer-to-Peer Electronic Cash System.
- [2] Shor, P. W. (1997). Polynomial-Time Algorithms for Prime Factorization and Discrete Logarithms on a Quantum Computer. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 26(5), 1484-1509.
- [3] Bernstein, D. J., & Lange, T. (2017). Post-quantum cryptography. *Nature*, 549(7671), 188-194.
- [4] Buterin, V. (2016). The Ethereum “Trilemma”. Ethereum Foundation.
- [5] Sompolinsky, Y., & Zohar, A. (2015). Secure High-Rate Transaction Processing in Bitcoin. In *Financial Cryptography and Data Security*.
- [6] Sompolinsky, Y., & Zohar, A. (2018). PHANTOM: A Scalable BlockDAG Protocol. In *IACR Cryptology ePrint Archive*.
- [7] Buterin, V., & Griffith, V. (2019). Casper the Friendly Finality Gadget. In *arXiv preprint arXiv:1710.09437*.
- [8] The Zilliqa Team. (2017). The Zilliqa Technical Whitepaper.
- [9] Buterin, V., et al. (2020). Ethereum 2.0 Specifications. Ethereum Foundation.
- [10] National Institute of Standards and Technology. (2022). NIST Announces First Four Quantum-Resistant Cryptographic Algorithms. NIST.
- [11] Ducas, L., Kiltz, E., Lepoint, T., Lyubashevsky, V., Schwabe, P., Seiler, G., & Stehlé, D. (2018). CRYSTALS-Dilithium: A Lattice-Based Digital Signature Scheme. *IACR Transactions on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems*.
- [12] Merkle, R. C. (1988). A digital signature based on a conventional encryption function. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO ’87*.
- [13] Saleh, F. (2021). Blockchain without waste: Proof-of-stake. *XRDS: Crossroads, The ACM Magazine for Students*, 27(3), 40-44.
- [14] Peikert, C. (2016). A Decade of Lattice Cryptography. *Foundations and Trends® in Theoretical Computer Science*, 10(4), 283-424.
- [15] Regev, O. (2005). On lattices, learning with errors, random linear codes, and cryptography. In *Proceedings of the thirty-seventh annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing*.
- [16] Brakerski, Z., Gentry, C., & Vaikuntanathan, V. (2014). (Leveled) fully homomorphic encryption without bootstrapping. *ACM Transactions on Computation Theory*, 6(3), 1-36.
- [17] Fan, J., & Vercauteren, F. (2012). Somewhat practical fully homomorphic encryption. In *IACR Cryptology ePrint Archive*.
- [18] Babaioff, M., Dobzinski, S., Oren, S., & Zohar, A. (2012). On bitcoin and red balloons. In *Proceedings of the 13th ACM conference on electronic commerce*.
- [19] Lerner, J., & Tirole, J. (2002). Some simple economics of open source. *The Journal of Industrial Economics*, 50(2), 197-234.
- [20] Protocol Labs. (2016). libp2p: A modular peer-to-peer networking stack.
- [21] Maymounkov, P., & Mazières, D. (2002). Kademlia: A peer-to-peer information system based on the xor metric. In *Peer-to-Peer Systems*.
- [22] Vyzovitis, D., et al. (2020). Gossipsub: A Secure Pubsub Protocol for Unstructured P2P Overlays. Protocol Labs.
- [23] Walch, A. (2019). Deconstructing ‘Decentralization’: Exploring the Core Claim of Cryptoassets. *C. J. L. & Tech.*, 1, 1.
- [24] Goodman, L. M. (2014). Tezos: A Self-Amending Crypto-Ledger.

- [25] Wood, G. (2016). Polkadot: Vision for a heterogeneous multi-chain framework.
- [26] Kwon, J., & Buchman, E. (2019). Cosmos: A Network of Distributed Ledgers.
- [27] Dryja, T. (2015). Utreexo: A dynamic hash-based accumulator for the Bitcoin UTXO set. MIT Digital Currency Initiative.
- [28] Deirmentzoglou, E., Papakyriakopoulos, G., & Patsakis, C. (2019). A survey on long range attacks for proof of stake protocols. *IEEE Access*, 7, 28712-28725.
- [29] Bertoni, G., Daemen, J., Peeters, M., & Van Assche, G. (2013). Keccak. In *Advances in Cryptology-EUROCRYPT 2013*.
- [30] O'Connor, J., et al. (2020). BLAKE3: one function, fast everywhere. GitHub.
- [31] Taylor, M. B. (2017). The limits of ASIC-resistance. In *2017 IEEE International Symposium on High Performance Computer Architecture (HPCA)*.
- [32] Groth, J. (2016). On the size of pairing-based non-interactive zero-knowledge arguments. In *Advances in Cryptology-EUROCRYPT 2016*.
- [33] Goldwasser, S., Micali, S., & Rackoff, C. (1989). The knowledge complexity of interactive proof systems. *SIAM Journal on computing*, 18(1), 186-208.
- [34] Douceur, J. R. (2002). The Sybil attack. In *Peer-to-Peer Systems*.
- [35] Decred Team. (2017). Decred: A Self-Governing Cryptocurrency.
- [36] W3C Community Group. (2021). eWasm: Ethereum flavored WebAssembly.
- [37] Lamport, L. (2002). *Specifying systems: The TLA+ language and tools for hardware and software engineers*. Addison-Wesley.
- [38] Bhargavan, K., et al. (2016). Formal verification of smart contracts. In *Proceedings of the 2016 ACM Workshop on Programming Languages and Analysis for Security*.
- [39] Fudenberg, D., & Tirole, J. (1991). *Game Theory*. MIT press.
- [40] Kiayias, A., Koutsoupias, E., & Papadimas, G. (2016). A proof-of-stake protocol with optimal selfishness-resistance. In *Advances in Cryptology-CRYPTO 2016*.
- [41] Lamport, L., Shostak, R., & Pease, M. (1982). The Byzantine Generals Problem. *ACM Transactions on Programming Languages and Systems*, 4(3), 382-401.
- [42] Szabo, N. (1997). Formalizing and securing relationships on public networks. *First Monday*, 2(9).
- [43] Aggarwal, D., et al. (2017). Quantum attacks on Bitcoin, and how to protect against them. *Ledger*, 2.
- [44] Wang, J., & Wang, H. (2019). A Survey on Sharding in Blockchains. *Journal of Network and Computer Applications*, 145.
- [45] Bünz, B., et al. (2020). Flyclient: Super-light clients for cryptocurrencies. In *2020 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP)*.
- [46] Zamyatin, A., et al. (2021). XCLAIM: A framework for cross-chain asset swaps. In *2021 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP)*.
- [47] Dwork, C., Lynch, N., & Stockmeyer, L. (1988). Consensus in the presence of partial synchrony. *Journal of the ACM*, 35(2), 288-323.
- [48] King, S., & Nadal, S. (2012). PPCoin: Peer-to-Peer Crypto-Currency with Proof-of-Stake.
- [49] Narayanan, A., & Clark, J. (2017). Bitcoin's academic pedigree. *Communications of the ACM*, 60(12), 36-45.

- [50] Alagic, G., et al. (2020). Status Report on the Second Round of the NIST Post-Quantum Cryptography Standardization Process. NIST.
- [51] Croman, K., et al. (2016). On scaling decentralized blockchains. In Financial Cryptography and Data Security.
- [52] Hawlitschek, F., et al. (2018). The limits of formal verification in the cryptocurrency space. In 2018 Crypto Valley Conference on Blockchain Technology (CVCBT).
- [53] Zamfir, V., et al. (2018). Introducing the Beacon Chain. Ethereum Blog.
- [54] Pass, R., & Shi, E. (2017). Hybrid consensus: Efficient consensus in the permissionless model. In 31st International Symposium on Distributed Computing (DISC 2017).