Practical Blockchain

Module 4: Consensus Algorithms

Scope

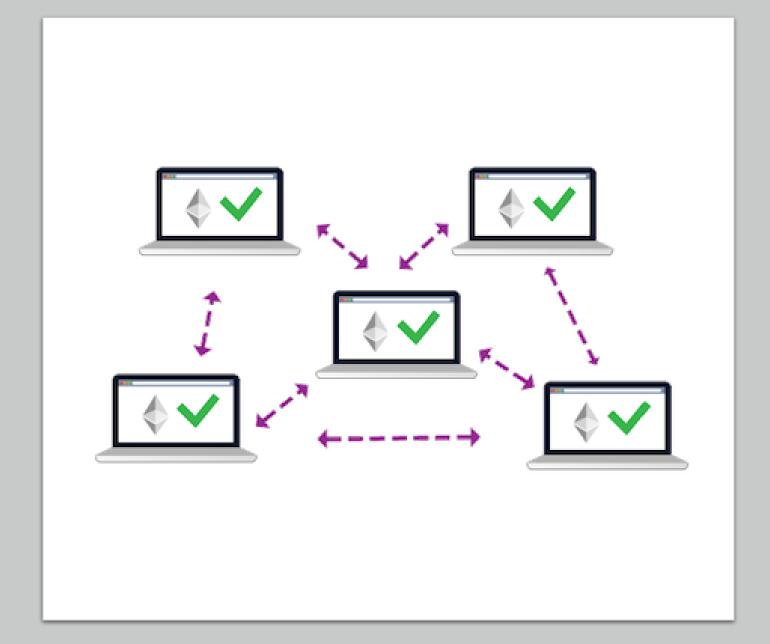
- Overview
- Byzantine Fault
- Common Consensus Protocols
- ❖ Hands-on: Setting up a blockchain with a different consensus mechanism

Overview

One of blockchain's most important features is the consistency and security it provides to stored data.

In blockchain, consistency refers to an agreement among the various network nodes as to the state of the stored data.

A consensus mechanism refers to an algorithm that assist nodes to reach such an agreement on the status of a network.

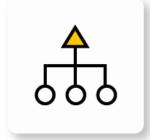


Objectives

Unified agreement: The primary goal of any consensus mechanism is to solve the core problem that underlies distributed ledger systems, that is, to reach a unified agreement regarding the state of the network.

Prevent double-spending: Chapter 2 introduced double-spending as one of the main problems faced by digital currencies.

Self-regulation: The consensus mechanism supports the self-regulating aspects of a trustless system, which requires aligning the interests of all network participants.



Unified Agreement



Align Economic Incentive



Fair and Equitable



Prevent Double-Spending

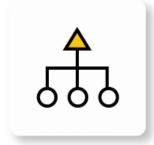


Fault-Tolerant

Objectives

Fair participation: Blockchain is a peer-to-peer network with a low barrier to setting up new nodes and becoming a participant.

Provide fault-tolerance: In the computing space, fault tolerance describes a computer system whose design provides immediate and uninterrupted replacement



Unified Agreement



Align Economic Incentive



Fair and Equitable



Prevent Double-Spending

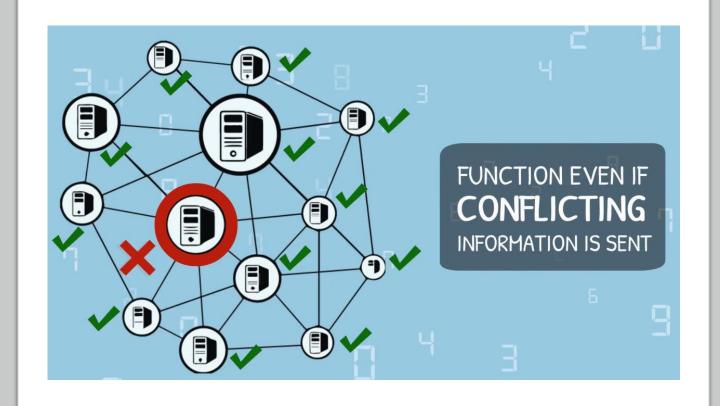


Fault-Tolerant

Byzantine Fault Tolerance

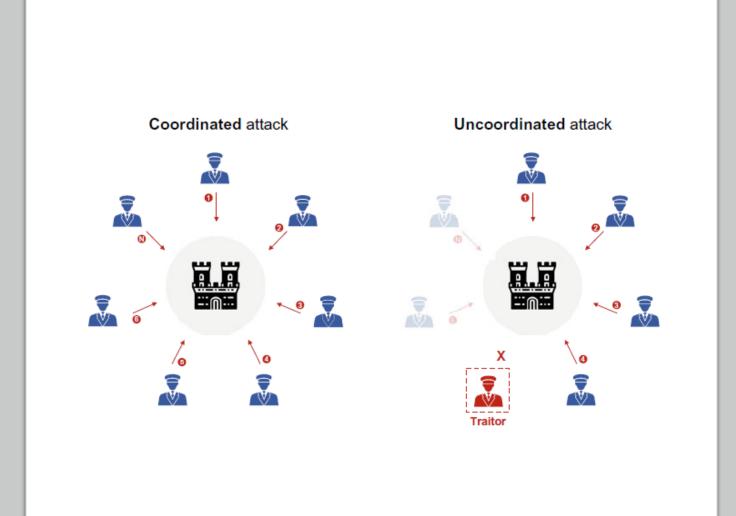
Byzantine fault describes the condition of a distributed computer system in which components can fail, and information regarding component failure is not guaranteed.

Byzantine fault tolerance (BFT) is the property of a system that is able to continue operating even if some of the nodes fail or act maliciously.



Byzantine Generals' Problem

"Byzantine generals' problem," is a scenario wherein actors must agree on a concerted strategy to avoid catastrophic failure, but some of the actors are inherently unreliable



Byzantine Generals' Problem

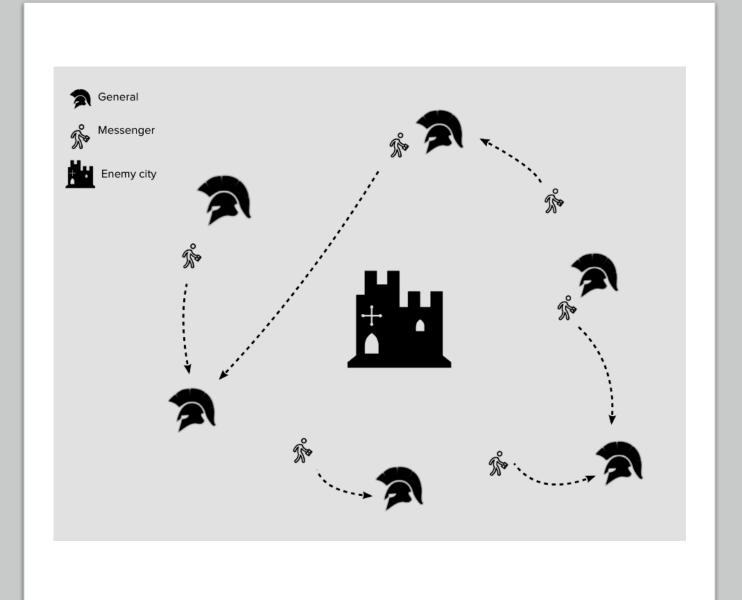
One general sends a message to other Generals: Lets attack at 11:00 today

Failure scenarios

One of the generals can be a traitor and purposely pass a wrong message to mislead other generals

The message can be lost on the way

The message can arrive late



Byzantine Generals' Problem

In computer science Byzantine Generals' Problem is used as a thought experiment to explore the underlying challenge of how to reach consensus among parties in an imperfect environment where there are failures, fraud etc

This dilemma can be applied to the context of blockchains with each general representing a network node.

The majority of nodes have to agree and execute the same action in order to avoid complete failure.

Consensus algorithm is the mechanism through which a blockchain network reach consensus

Common Consensus Protocols

Proof of Work

Proof of Stake

Proof of Capacity/Space

Delegated Proof of Stake

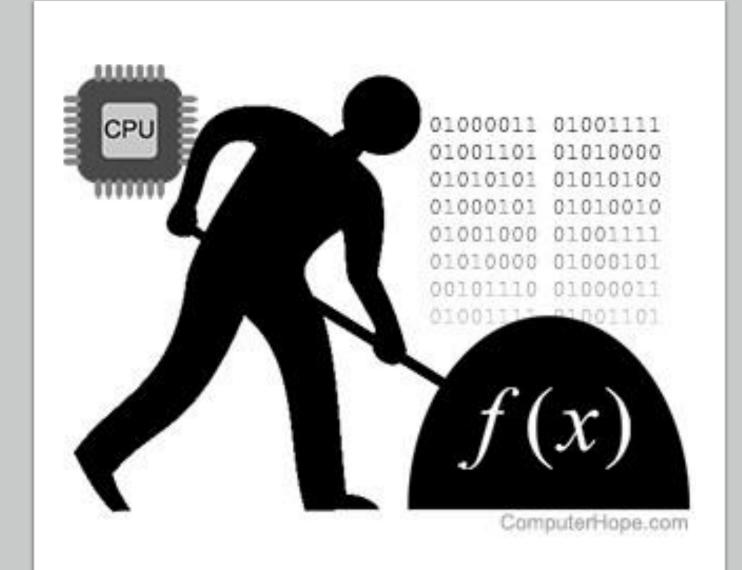
Proof of Authority

Practical Byzantine Fault Tolerance

Proof of Elapsed Time

Principle: the more computing effort a node expends, the higher the chances that it will generate blocks.

The PoW consensus algorithm involves solving a computationally expensive calculation to add new blocks to the blockchain.



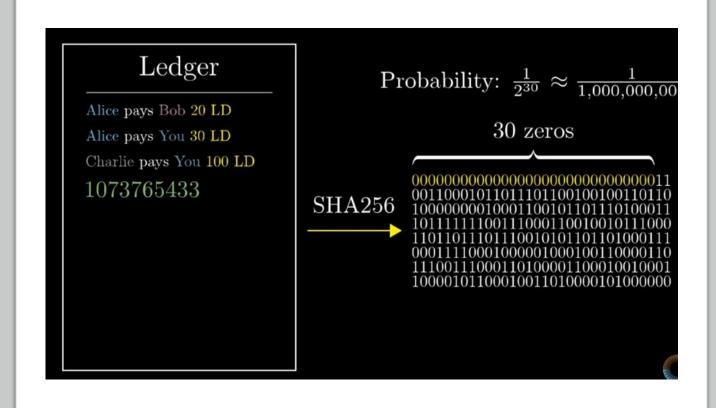
This process is also known as mining, and the nodes in the network that engage in mining are known as miners.

The incentive for mining transactions lies in economic payoffs, since competing miners are rewarded with coins as well as transaction fees



To attach new blocks to the blockchain, a node must solve a math problem using trial and error.

The first participant to find a solution can distribute that solution and the block's entries to the network so other participants can build on the block

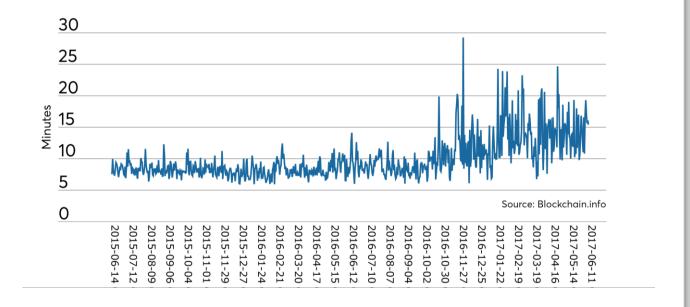


The PoW consensus mechanism requires significant energy to run, as a result, mining power is concentrated in countries where electricity is relatively cheap.

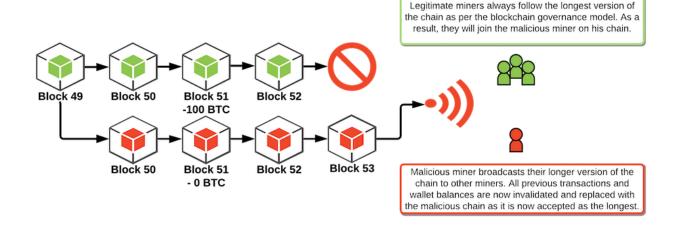


PoW has a high level of latency when it comes to transaction validation: it takes approximately 30 minutes from the time a payment instruction is sent to the time the payment originator can be sure that the transaction has been irreversibly made

This amount of time is long, especially compared to regular credit card transactions



PoW is susceptible to the 51% attack by a group of miners that control more than half of the network's computing power



Principle: The higher the stakes of a node in the network, the greater the chances and the legitimacy of validating blocks.

With PoS, the nodes act as validators that confirm the transactions to earn a transaction fee

No traditional computing-based mining is required as inPoW; .



The probability of validating a new block is determined by how large of a stake a person hold.



The validators do not receive a block reward, instead they collect network fees as their reward.



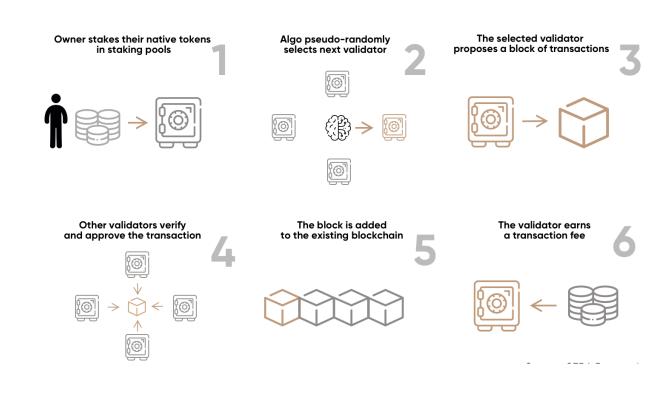
Proof of stake systems can be much more cost and energy efficient than proof of work, but are less proven.

Nodes are randomly selected to validate blocks.

The probability that a node will be selected depends on the number of coins that it currently holds (stake): If node A stakes two coins and node B stakes one coin, node A is twice as likely to validate the next block of transactions

After the selection and validation process, the other node votes on whether to add the block

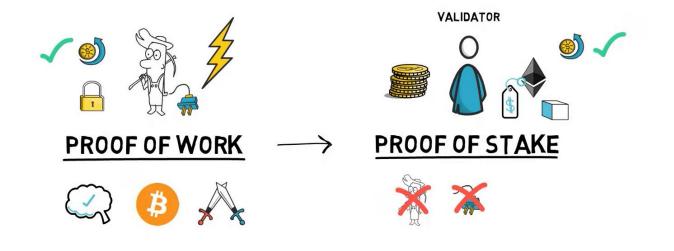
Note: The diagram shows Ethereum 2.0 implementation



Advantages

PoS reduces the amount of electricity needed to validate transactions as for the case of PoW

PoS is less susceptible to 51% attack as the attackers already have more stake in the network

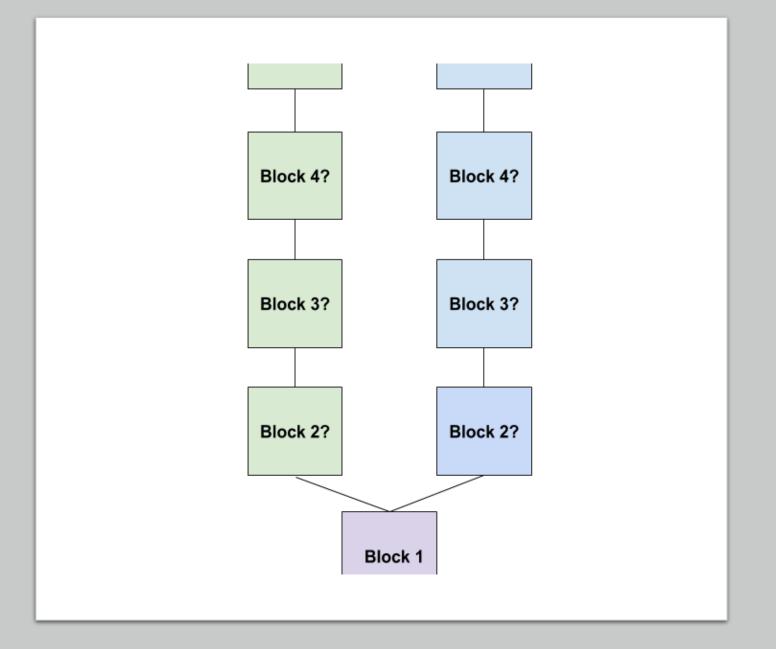


Downside

1. Nothing-at-Stake

Basic PoS algorithms face the Nothing-at-Stake problem, which arises because there are no direct costs for participating in the mining process

Validators mine on both chains to collect transaction fees on whichever fork ends up winning.



2. Attacks

Another dimension to this problem is a malicious actor who may not care about the economic costs but motivated to corrupt the network, such as may be the case with statesponsored interference.



Principle: The more storage capacity a node expends, the greater the chance it will have to generate new blocks and be rewarded.

PoC is a resource-friendly alternative to PoW because it require miners to prove their commitment by staking storage space (i.e., disk capacity), rather than computing capacity



Instead of repeatedly guessing for the solution value as in a PoW system, PoC works by storing a list of possible solutions on the mining device's hard drive even before the mining activity commences.

The larger the hard drive, the more possible solution values one can store on the hard drive, the more chances a miner has to match the required hash value from his list, resulting in more chances to win the mining reward.



Step 1: Plotting

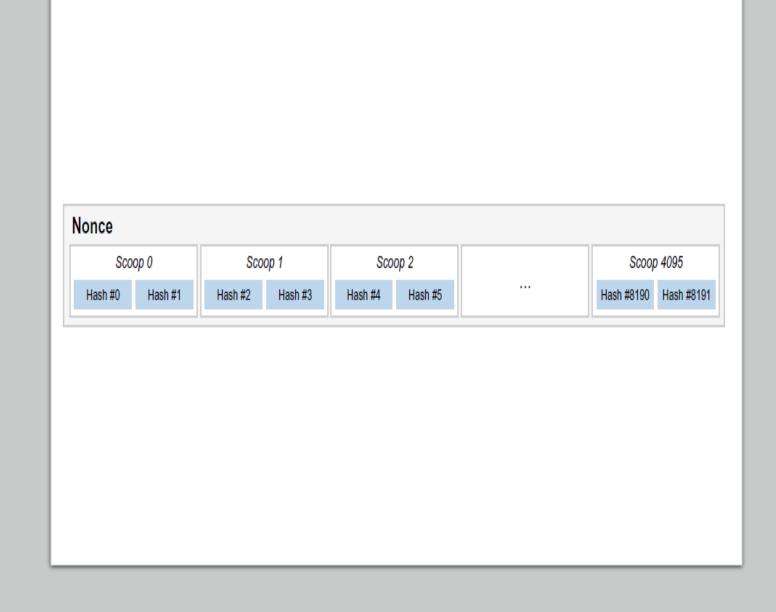
Plotting is the pre-computing and storing of hashes (solutions) by nodes before the actual mining process starts.

The solutions are hashes of random data including and includes miner Id.

The hashes are grouped into a scoop of 2 hashes

The scoops are grouped into nonces of 4096 scoops

Plotting is based on Shabal 256 hashing algorithm



Step 2: Mining

A miner node calculates/select a scoop number between 0 and 4095, say 50

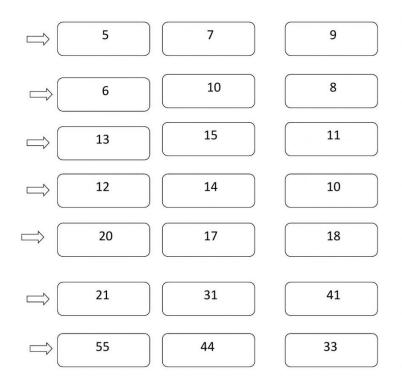
Once the number is determined, the node will go to nonce 1 scoop 50 and utilize the data from that scoop to compute a number called deadline

The node then repeats this process for all the nonces in the plot file.

After calculating all the deadlines, the node chooses the shortest deadline, which is the number of seconds that elapsed between the forging of blocks.

If no one else has forged a block after this time has passed, the miner can forge a block and claim the block reward.

Find the smallest number:



Blockchains that run on proof of capacity include Storj, Burst and Chia

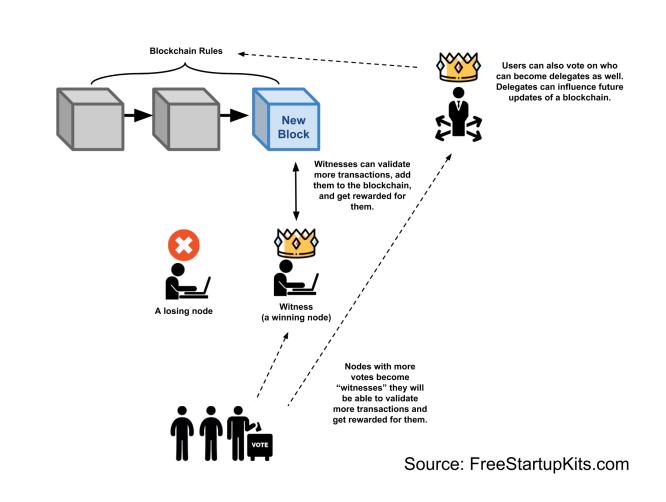


Delegated Proof of Stake(DPoS)

Principle: The higher the stake of a validating node in the network, the more votes it can delegate to another trusted node to perform the validation.

DPoS is based on the concept of the "proof of stake." The more the, the more voting rights. Network protection relies on a voting and election process

The actors in a DPoS system are called participants/voters, witnesses, and delegates.

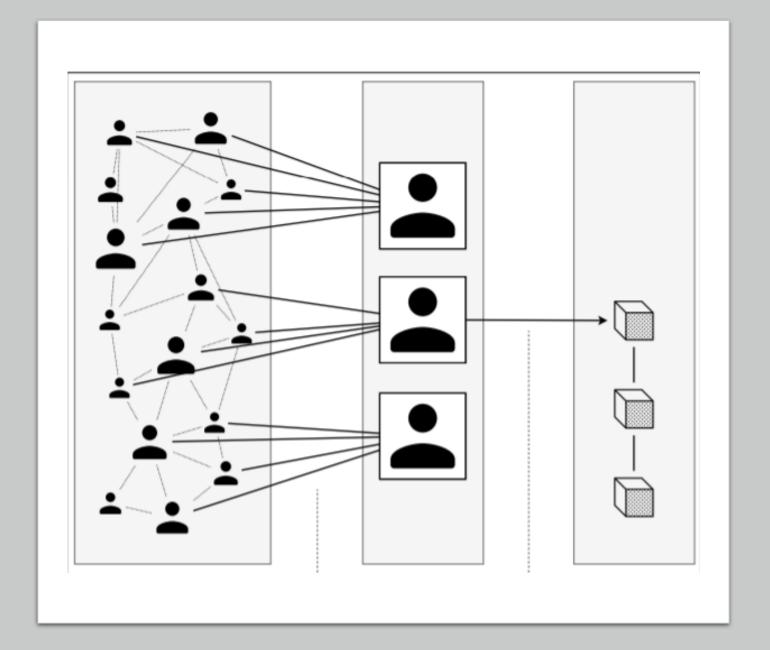


Delegated Proof of Stake(DPoS)

Witnesses are responsible for validating new blocks.

Witness receives rewards in terms of transaction fees and monthly payments.

Witness which underperforms are act unethically can be voted off during voting rounds.



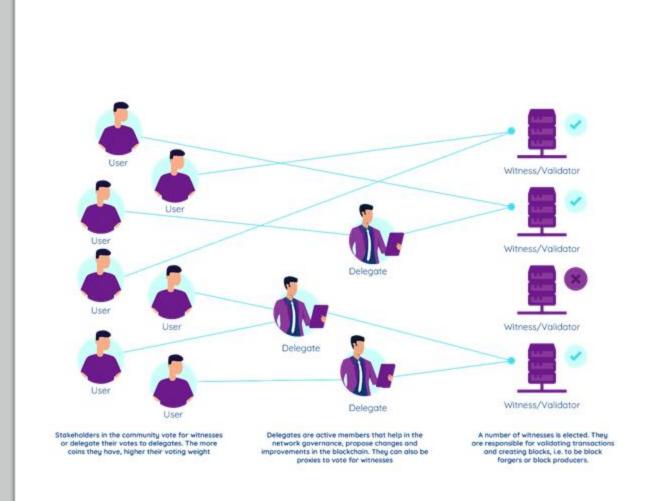
Delegated Proof of Stake(DPoS)

Delegates governs and regulate systems operations example submit proposals to change block size or witness fees.

The proposals are again voted by participants

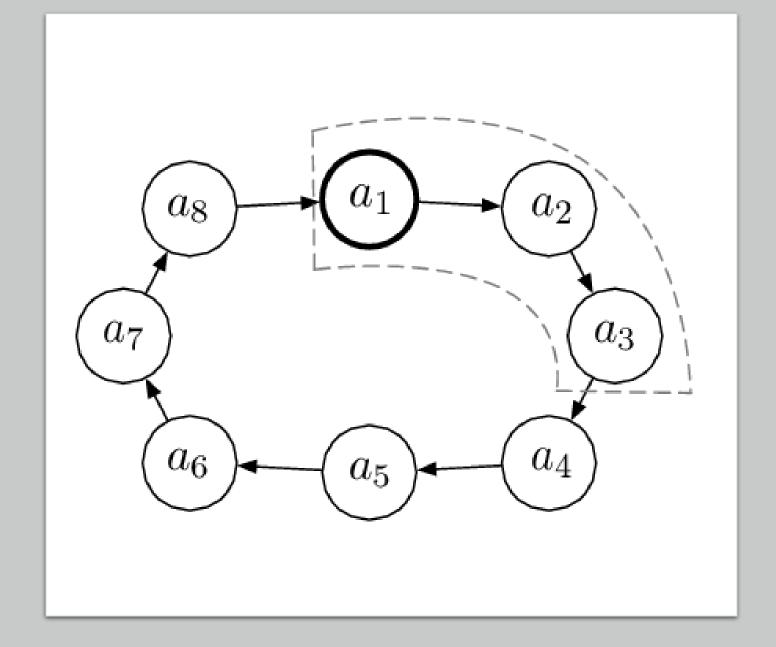
Delegates do not validate transactions

Examples of cryptocurrencies that use DPoS include Lisk, EOS, and BitShares.



Proof of Authority

- Principle: A select set of N established participants hold elevated authority in the network.
- Any participant with such authority can propose the next block, and if a subset of participants signs the block, it is added to the blockchain.
- Unlike all the other consensus mechanisms, PoA is considered to be nondemocratic and can be used for permissioned ledgers



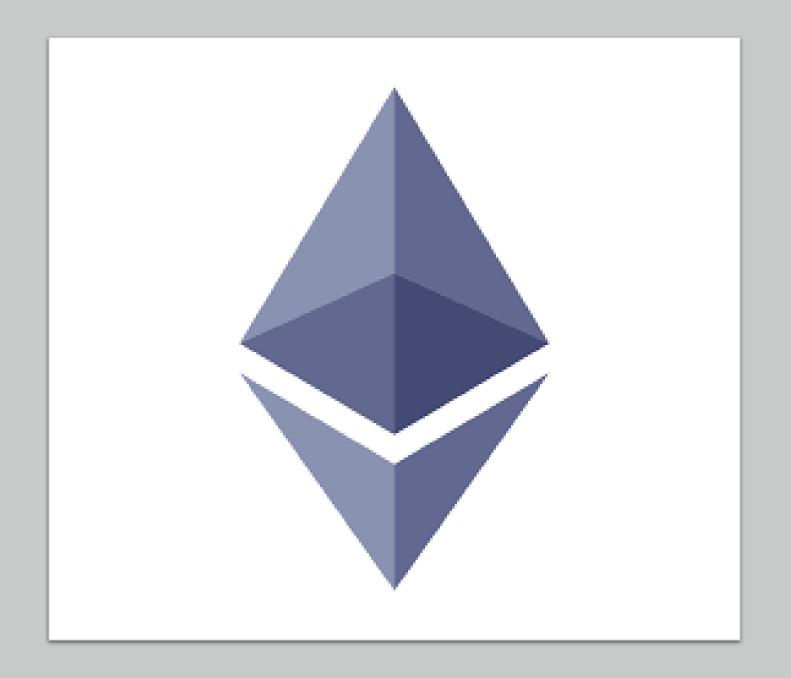
Proof of Authority

- The mechanism centers on the use of "authorities," which are designated nodes that can create new blocks and secure the ledger.
- Each authoritative node must provide its public key so their activities can be tracked in the network

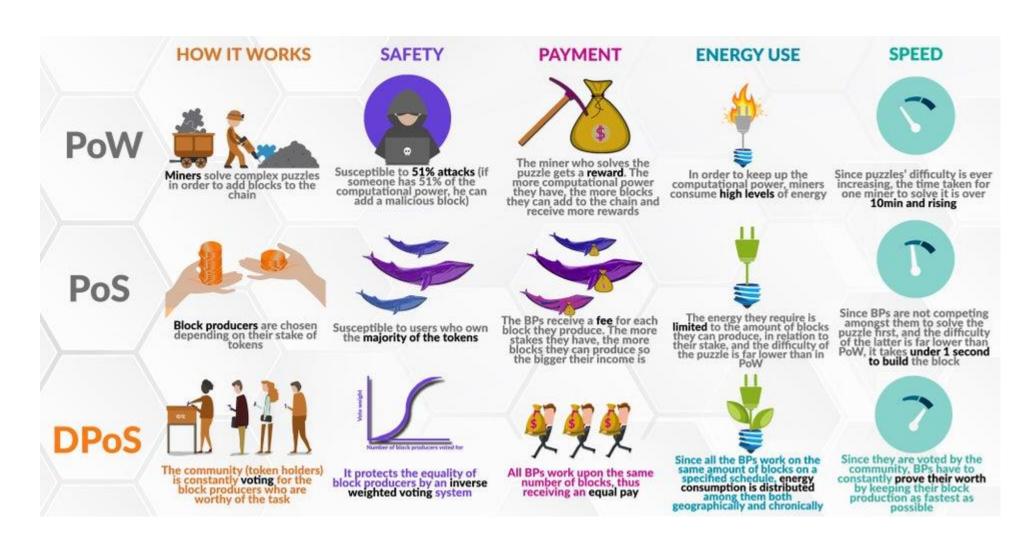


Proof of Authority

The best-known examples of the use of a PoA consensus mechanism today are the two Ethereum test-nets, Kovan and Rinkeby.



Summary



Activity: Set up PoA Blockchain