
ABChain: A Dynamic Sharding Protocol with Balanced Account Partitioning and Adaptive Brokers for IoT Blockchain

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ABChain: A Dynamic Sharding Protocol with Balanced Account Partitioning and Adaptive Brokers for IoT Blockchain

Tong Li, Yongdong Wu, Jian Weng, Jiao Lu, Shishi Huang, and Weichu Deng

Abstract—Sharding enhances Internet of Things (IoT) blockchain scalability by parallel transaction (TX) processing, yet cross-shard TXs and dynamic workload imbalance persist as key bottlenecks. Existing solutions employ brokers that have segmented accounts across multiple shards to efficiently handle cross-shard TXs. Nevertheless, they rely on pre-set optimal accounts as brokers, which may not be feasible in dynamic IoT blockchains where TX workloads are unpredictable. To this end, this paper proposes ABChain, a blockchain sharding protocol for efficient state synchronization with two key components. One is a balanced account partitioning method which allocates accounts to the shards with the highest degree of correlation, and another is an adaptive broker framework which includes dynamical broker selection from historically active accounts, seamless broker update via account splitting/aggregation, and dual broker queues to minimize crossshard TX overhead. The theoretical analysis shows that the former can reduce the number of cross-shard TXs and mitigate workload imbalance, while the latter can efficiently handle cross-shard TXs and adapt to the dynamic blockchain environment. Experimental evaluations demonstrate that ABChain improves throughput by 33.4%, reduces cross-shard TX rate by 52.3%, and lowers confirmation latency by 67.7% compared to state-of-the-art protocols.

Index Terms—Blockchain scalability, sharding, adaptive broker, low cross-shard.

I. INTRODUCTION

With its core features such as decentralization, immutability, transparency, and distributed consensus, blockchain technology provides a secure and trustworthy data-sharing platform for IoT devices. Against this backdrop, a new paradigm that integrates blockchain with IoT, known as IoT blockchain [1], is being investigated. Specifically, IoT blockchain is widely applied in multiple fields, such as agri-food supply chain management [2], intelligent transportation systems in smart cities [3] and energy trading systems for microgrids [4]. However, when faced with the large-scale access of IoT devices and the processing of massive amounts of data, traditional blockchain technology has performance bottlenecks and insufficient scalability, making it difficult to meet the actual needs of IoT.

Sharding technology is regarded as a promising approach to scaling blockchain. By dividing the blockchain network into multiple smaller shards, each shard validates and stores relevant TX data via a specific group of nodes. Sharding

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technology enables distributed processing of data, significantly enhancing overall processing speed and scalability [5], [6]. However, despite the throughput improvement achieved by sharding, a notable gap remains between the throughput achieved by existing protocols and the potential maximum throughput. A high volume of cross-shard TXs and imbalanced TX loads across shards are key factors contributing to this performance degradation [7]–[9]. To make it even worse, more than 95% of the TXs are cross-shard [10], [11].

One approach to improve the sharding system is to reduce the number of cross-shard TXs by allocating users/accounts with high degrees of association (i.e., those that conduct a large number of TXs) into the same shard. Based on historical TX patterns, BrokerChain [12] and X-Shard [13] partition the account relationship graph with a classical balanced graph edge partitioning algorithm [14]. Community detection algorithms are also employed for partitioning blockchain accounts. A study [15] proposed the Constrained Label Propagation Algorithm (CLPA) for account partitioning. TxAllo [16] leverages the Louvain [17] method to obtain an initial account-shard mapping. In Estuary [18], Community Overlap PRopagation Algorithm (COPRA) [19] is used to partition blockchain users in Unspent TX Output (UTXO)-based system [20]. Some methods focus on the process of account migration. LB-Chain [21] migrates active accounts (i.e., accounts involved in numerous TXs) from heavily loaded shards to lightly loaded shards, thereby achieving workload balancing across each shard. Furthermore, a study [22] proposes a more fine-grained approach that enables the continuous processing of some normal TXs for accounts pending migration during the migration process.

Another approach to improve sharding systems is to handle cross-shard TXs with an “overlapping” structure that facilitates communication across multiple shards. Some approaches, such as Pyramid [23], Saguaro [24] and HieraChain [25], adopt hierarchical architectures. For instance, in Pyramid, high-capability nodes participate in multiple shards, storing their data and enabling cross-shard TX verification without splitting. Some proposals address the issue at the account level by designing cross-shard account entities. BrokerChain executes account partitioning at the protocol layer so that well-partitioned account states can be distributed across multiple shards. These well-partitioned accounts, referred to as brokers, can serve as intermediaries for cross-shard TXs. Following this, BlockEmulator [26] further advances this by open-sourcing a framework that combines CLPA’s partitioning

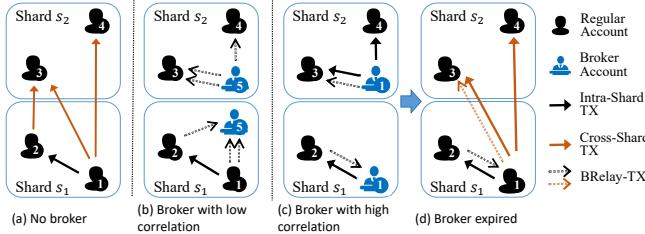


Fig. 1: The effects of different broker accounts on cross-shard TXs. In (b), broker b_5 is split across shard s_1 and s_2 , yet it does not engage in TXs with accounts within either s_1 or s_2 . Consequently, it primarily serves as an intermediary to facilitate cross-shard TXs by being split. In contrast, in (c), selecting active account v_1 as broker, which has a high degree of association with both s_1 and s_2 , can effectively reduce the generation of additional BRelay-TXs. If broker b_1 in (c) expired and BRelay-TX TX_{v_2, v_1} has already been processed, then in (d) BRelay-TX TX_{v_1, v_3} will become a new cross-shard TX.

efficiency with broker-based cross-shard coordination.

As depicted in Fig. 1 (c), since the broker has segment entities (referred to as split-accounts) in multiple shards, the TXs initiated or received by the broker can be processed in the shard where the counter-party account is located. Moreover, the broker can act as an intermediary for cross-shard TXs by splitting a cross-shard TX into two sub-TXs (referred to as BRelay-TXs). This mechanism can reduce the number of cross-shard TXs in IoT blockchains, boost TX throughput, and can be applied to a variety of IoT scenarios, such as edge-computing-based IoT and fog-computing-based IoT scenarios. For instance, in the edge-computing-driven distributed service model, edge servers can serve as host nodes for broker accounts. By leveraging their local computing capabilities, these edge servers can break down cross-shard TXs into intra-shard TXs specific to certain shards.

Motivation: As depicted in Fig. 1, we observe that selecting active accounts as brokers can significantly reduce the generation of additional TXs (compared to Fig. 1 (b) and (c)). Furthermore, in unforeseen IoT blockchain scenarios, IoT devices may join/leave frequently, and broker accounts may become inactive or even invalid. Therefore, it is necessary to update brokers dynamically. Additionally, when brokers update, some inactive broker accounts are converted to regular accounts (marked as expired), and due to TX processing delays, there may still be some BRelay-TXs in the TX pool that potentially become new cross-shard TXs (compared to Fig. 1 (c) and (d)). This calls for a smoother broker update mechanism. Based on the above observations, the pre-set or static brokers [12], [26] cannot meet the complex and dynamic environment in IoT blockchains. Unfortunately, to the best of our knowledge, there are few schemes to select and timely update the broker accounts yet.

This paper presents adaptive brokers to manage broker dynamics and then employs them to build an effective sharding protocol for the IoT blockchain, named ABChain. In ABChain, active accounts are designated as brokers to facilitate TXs across multiple shards. This paper aims to enhance system performance through periodic reconfiguration of accounts and brokers. Firstly, ABChain migrates accounts to their optimal shards based on historical TXs and taking shard workload into

account. In addition, active accounts are selected as brokers on a regular basis according to the distribution of historical TXs, in order to replace the existing expired brokers, which are then downgraded to regular accounts.

The contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- 1) We formulate the problem of how account partitioning in sharding systems impacts cross-shard TXs and workload optimization. To tackle this problem, we devise a community-aware shard-balanced account partitioning algorithm.
- 2) We investigate the impact of broker selection on cross-shard TXs and workload optimization in sharded systems. To address this challenge, we propose an adaptive broker framework comprising three key components: (i) a broker selection algorithm for periodically selecting brokers from the most active accounts; (ii) an account splitting/aggregation mechanism combined with a “dual broker queue” mechanism to enable seamless broker updates; and (iii) a cross-shard consensus protocol to achieve efficient broker state synchronization.
- 3) Building upon existing open-source projects, we develop ABChain and conduct extensive experiments. Experimental results based on tracking real Ethereum TXs demonstrate that, in comparison to existing blockchain sharding solutions, ABChain outperforms the state-of-the-art baselines in terms of throughput, cross-shard TX ratio, and TX confirmation latency.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we present related work and preliminaries of this study. Section III presents an overview of ABChain. Section IV describes the proposed partitioning algorithm. Section V introduces the details of the adaptive brokers. Section VI includes the security analysis. Section VII demonstrates the performance evaluation results. Finally, Section VIII summarizes the paper.

II. RELATED WORK AND PRELIMINARIES

A. Blockchain Sharding in Internet of Things

Sharding technology originated from traditional large-scale databases. It is now generally acknowledged that Elastico [5] was the first to introduce sharding technology into blockchain. However, it only sharded the nodes in the blockchain (network sharding), while each node still needed to store the complete ledger (not state sharding). Subsequent sharding technologies [6], [10], [11] built upon this foundation to realize state sharding.

Currently, an increasing number of researchers are interested in enhancing the scalability and performance of IoT blockchains. HMMDShard [27] achieves the adaptive dynamic incremental update of blockchain shards by integrating the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) [28], effectively reducing the cross-shard TXs of all shards. DYNASHARD [29] combines adaptive sharding management, a hybrid consensus method, and efficient state synchronization and dispute resolution protocols to handle dynamic workloads and ensure secure cross-shard TXs. By formulating the long-term tradeoff of throughput and security as a Markov decision process, SmartChain

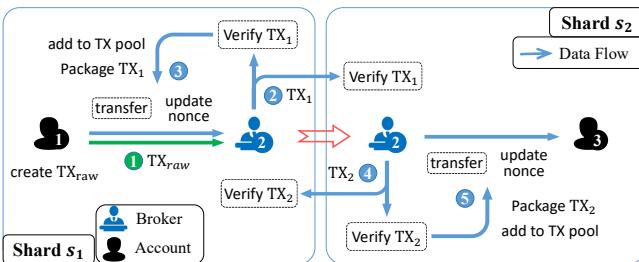


Fig. 2: Account v_1 in shard s_1 transfers funds to v_3 in s_2 through broker b_2 , where b_2 's state is split and stored across s_1 and s_2 .

[30] proposes a dynamic and adaptive sharding framework that aims to make sharding decisions for IoT blockchains with dynamism and heterogeneity. Additionally, blockchain sharding addresses performance bottlenecks in IoT data processing, enabling flexible and efficient device management. Paramart [31] studies the fundamental problem of resource allocation in edge-cloud services by minimizing the system cost of parallel processing mobile services and cost of TXs in sharding blockchain. These solutions enhance the scalability of blockchains in IoT systems, thus ensuring the efficient processing of IoT data and TXs.

B. Cross-Shard Transaction Processing with Broker

BrokerChain achieves atomic execution of cross-shard TXs by introducing the concept of “partial state timelock” within the TX’s data structure. As shown in Fig. 2, assume account v_1 in shard s_1 sends a TX TX_{raw} to account v_3 in shard s_2 (step ①), with account b_2 , whose account is split across shards s_1 and s_2 , serving as a broker. Broker b_2 will encapsulate the original TX_{raw} into the first half BRelay-TX TX_1 and broadcast it to shard s_1 (as shown in step ②). Shard s_1 then executes the operation of “transferring funds from v_1 to b_2 with a timelock” for TX_1 and records it on the blockchain (as illustrated in step ③). Upon observing the successful on-chain recording of TX_1 in shard s_1 within a specified timeframe, broker b_2 will broadcast the second half BRelay-TX TX_2 to shard s_2 (as shown in step ④). Finally, in step ⑤, shard s_2 executes the operation of “transferring funds from b_2 to v_3 ” for TX_2 and records it on the blockchain, thereby completing the execution of a cross-shard TX. If, during the TX process, there is malicious behavior or a timeout from either party, the execution is interrupted: shard s_2 will record TX_1 on the blockchain and send a proof to shard s_1 , thereby terminating the execution of the cross-shard TX.

III. OVERVIEW OF ABCCHAIN

In this section, we provide an overview of ABCChain, including system model, security model, definition of symbols, and workflow.

A. System Model

The blockchain encompasses multiple shards, with all nodes distributed among them, and each shard maintains its own independent ledger. A myriad of accounts exist within the system, enabling TXs among them. TXs initiated by accounts

are dispatched to one or more nodes in the network. Subsequently, nodes follow the gossip protocol to route these TXs to the corresponding shards. Nodes are interconnected through partially synchronous peer-to-peer networks, where messages can reach any other node with optimistic assumptions and exponentially growing timeout periods. Similar to existing blockchain sharding systems, we define an epoch as a fixed length of the system’s running time.

Based on the account/balance TX model, ABCChain contains two types of accounts: regular accounts and intermediary accounts known as brokers. Regular accounts are assigned to a unique shard, whereas brokers are permitted to participate in TXs across multiple shards, with their account states being jointly maintained by these shards. ABCChain consists of two types of shards: Allocation-Shard (A-Shard) and Consensus-Shard (C-Shard). C-Shards are responsible for packaging TXs into TX-blocks and achieving intra-shard consensus at the beginning of each epoch. A-Shard is designed to select new active accounts and partition account states adaptively during each epoch to achieve account state reconfiguration. ABCChain incorporates k C-Shards and one A-Shard, employing the Practical Byzantine Fault Tolerance (PBFT) [32] protocol for intra-shard consensus.

B. Security Model

ABCChain is a sharding-based blockchain system designed to operate under the Byzantine Fault Tolerance (BFT) model, akin to existing frameworks such as [12], [15], [21], [23]. It comprises multiple nodes that collaboratively maintain network integrity and consensus, even when a subset of nodes exhibits malicious behavior. In contrast to honest nodes that adhere strictly to all protocols, malicious nodes may violate protocols in arbitrary manners, such as denying service, tampering, forging, and intercepting messages. These malicious nodes are controlled by a slowly adapting Byzantine adversary, which may initially control or influence a small number of nodes in the network before gradually expanding its reach. The sets of malicious and honest nodes remain fixed within each epoch and can only change between epochs.

C. Formula Definition

Considering an account-TX graph $G(V, E)$, where $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ is a set vertices (account address); and E is a set of edges (TXs). An edge $E_{v_i, v_j} \in E$ connects v_i and v_j with weight $|E_{v_i, v_j}| = w$ means w TXs between those two accounts. We define v_i and v_j to be neighbors of each other if $|E_{v_i, v_j}| > 0$. Neighboring accounts of v_i are denoted as $NB(v_i)$. The set of k Consensus-Shards is $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k\}$, and the Allocation-Shard is s_A . Each account v_i has a state $state_{v_i}$. If v_i is assigned to shard s_i , we denote it as $P_{v_i} = s_i$, and $P_{v_i \rightarrow s_i} = 1$, otherwise $P_{v_i} \neq s_i$, and $P_{v_i \rightarrow s_i} = 0$. A cross-shard edge occurs if $P_{v_i} \neq P_{v_j}$. Newly arrived account v_n are assigned to $P_{v_i} = H(v_i) \bmod k$, where $H(\cdot)$ maps addresses to integers. The partition solution for all accounts is denoted as $\mathbf{P} = \{(v_i, P_{v_i}) | v_i \in \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}\}$, indicating that each regular account is assigned to only one shard.

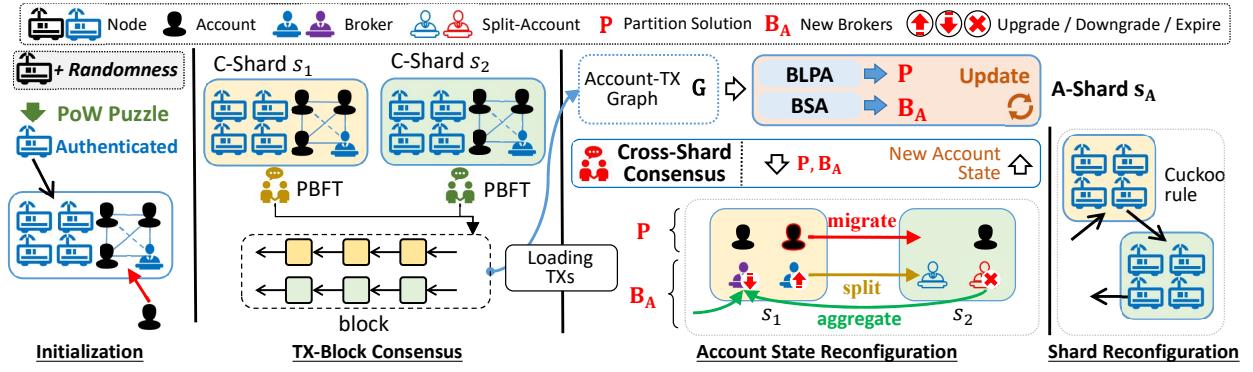


Fig. 3: Workflow of ABChain.

A broker b_i (after account v_i becomes a broker, it is denoted as b_i) has split-states $\{state_{b_i}^{s_1}, \dots, state_{b_i}^{s_k}\}$ across multiple associated shards $GAS(b_i) = \{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$, where $GAS(\cdot)$ is a function for obtaining an account's associated shards. For a regular account, e.g., v_j , $GAS(v_j) = P_{v_j}$. Each broker has a main shard, which represents the shard where all split-states should be aggregated after the broker expires. The main shard of a broker b_i is P_{b_i} .

The system maintains an active broker queue (denoted as ABQ) and an idle broker queue (denoted as IBQ). Meanwhile, new active accounts are periodically selected to serve as new brokers, denoted as B_A , replacing existing idle brokers.

D. Workflow

The workflow of ABChain, as shown in Fig. 3, includes initialization, TX-Block consensus, account state reconfiguration, and shard reconfiguration.

Initialization: At the beginning of each epoch, consensus nodes (i.e., devices participating in the IoT blockchain network) generate unbiased and unpredictable randomness based on Verifiable Random Functions (VRFs) [10], [11]. To defend against the Sybil attack [33], each node needs to solve a Proof-of-Work (PoW) [20] puzzle. By combining the PoW solution with the VRF-generated randomness and other parameters (such as the node's public key and IP address), the node can obtain a valid identity to participate in the consensus of the current epoch. Before the TX-Block Consensus phase begins, ABChain assigns consensus nodes with valid identities to a certain Consensus shard committee based on the last few bits of their PoW solutions.

TX-Block Consensus: C-Shards continuously receive user TXs and add valid TXs into the TX pool. During each epoch, C-Shards engage in an ongoing sharding consensus process. In each consensus round, the C-Shard leader selects TXs from the pool, packages them into a shard block, and achieves intra-shard consensus through the PBFT algorithm. Simultaneously, A-Shards construct an account-TX graph based on historical TXs and pending TXs.

Account State Reconfiguration: This phase includes two components:

1) Account Partition. To avoid shard workload imbalance and update more active brokers, A-Shard periodically executes the Balanced Label Propagation Algorithm (BLPA)

based on the account-TX graph. This algorithm calculates the correlation between each account and each shard and assigns accounts to corresponding shards according to the principle of maximizing correlation, generating an account partition solution. Refer to Section IV.

- Regular accounts are migrated to the destination shard as indicated by the account partition solution. Each C-Shard migrates designated accounts and their pending TXs to target shards.

2) Adaptive Broker. A-Shard executes the Broker Selection Algorithm (BSA) according to the account-TX graph to select accounts with a high number of TXs and involvement in multiple shards, which are designated as the new brokers. A consensus on the account partition solution and new active accounts is reached among shards through a “cross-shard consensus protocol”. Each C-Shard updates its account distribution and reloads pending unconfirmed TXs based on the account partition solution and new active accounts. Refer to Section V.

- For new active accounts selected by the BSA, if they agree to become brokers, they will broadcast a permission message. This message allows the current shard to split its state into multiple split-states and send it to different shards. Afterward, these accounts become brokers that can participate in TXs across multiple shards. This process is termed “upgrade”.
- Based on their activity levels, brokers are classified as active brokers and idle brokers. Active brokers can serve as intermediaries for cross-shard TXs, while idle brokers cannot. As the system operates, new active accounts will transition to become active brokers, while inactive brokers will temporarily become idle brokers and ultimately expire, reverting to regular accounts.
- For expired idle brokers, all their split-states will be aggregated into a single shard to revert to a regular account. This process is termed “downgrade”. During the account splitting and aggregating processes, the corresponding pending TXs will also be sent to the destination shard.

Shard Reconfiguration: At the end of each epoch, ABChain needs to invoke the Cuckoo protocol [34] to update the formation of both A-Shard and C-Shards in order to defend against join-leave attacks [35], [36].

IV. ACCOUNT PARTITION

A. Formulation of the Account Partition Problem

For an account-TX graph, if $GAS(v_i) \cap GAS(v_j) = \emptyset$, then the edge E_{v_i, v_j} is considered to be cross-shard edge. We use $Load_w^{intra}$ and $Load_w^{cross}$ to represent the workloads of intra-shard edges and cross-shard edges with a weight of w , respectively. If, after account partition algorithm, v_i and v_j are assigned to the same shard, then the cross-shard edge is converted into an intra-shard edge, and the workload is reduced by $Load_{|E_{v_i, v_j}|}^{cross} - Load_{|E_{v_i, v_j}|}^{intra}$.

We use $Load_{s_i}(\mathbf{P})$ to denote the workload of shard s_i under partition solution \mathbf{P} , which can be calculated as:

$$\begin{aligned} Load_{s_i}(\mathbf{P}) &= \sum_{v_i \in \mathbf{V}} \sum_{v_j \in \mathbf{V}} P_{v_i \rightarrow s_i} \cdot P_{v_j \rightarrow s_i} \cdot Load_{|E_{v_i, v_j}|}^{intra} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{v_i \in \mathbf{V}} \sum_{v_j \in \mathbf{V}} P_{v_i \rightarrow s_i} \oplus P_{v_j \rightarrow s_i} \cdot Load_{|E_{v_i, v_j}|}^{cross} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The total workload $Load_{Tot}(\mathbf{P})$ under partition solution \mathbf{P} can be calculated by:

$$Load_{Tot}(\mathbf{P}) = \sum_{s_i \in \mathbf{S}} Load_{s_i} \quad (2)$$

To balance the workload among shards, it is necessary to avoid allocating a large number of accounts to the same shard. We define the system workload imbalance index, ImB . A larger ImB indicates a stronger imbalance in the system workload. The formula for calculating ImB is:

$$ImB(\mathbf{P}) = \max_{s_i \in \mathbf{S}} \left| \frac{Load_{Tot}}{k} - Load_{s_i} \right| \quad (3)$$

When an account-TX graph is given, the objective of account partition is to find a well-designed partition solution \mathbf{P} that can minimize the system workload and achieve the lowest workload imbalance index. We now formulate the account partitioning problem as the following optimization:

$$\min F(\mathbf{P}) = \alpha Load_{Tot}(\mathbf{P}) + ImB(\mathbf{P}) \quad (4)$$

where α is a predefined coefficient measuring the weight between the two objective terms $Load_{Tot}$ and ImB .

B. Balanced Label Propagation Algorithm

Referring to the conventional graph-partition problems [14], [37], [38], finding the optimal solution to the formulated problem in Equation 4 is NP-hard [39]. Inspired by existing solutions [15], we found the aforementioned problem bears a resemblance to a community detection problem, which essentially involves allocating appropriate communities (shards) to accounts. The key to the account partitioning problem is to determine the shard to which each account should be assigned, to achieve lower system workload. Based on CLPA and FLPA [40], we propose Balanced Label Propagation Algorithm (BLPA) to solve the account partitioning problem. The pseudocode for the BLPA algorithm is illustrated in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Balanced Label Propagation Algorithm

Input: \mathbf{V} : Account set; \mathbf{E} : Edge set; \mathbf{S} : Shard set.

Output: \mathbf{P} : New account partition solution.

```

1: define AccQueue
2: for iter< $\tau$  do
3:   AccQueue enqueue all account from  $\mathbf{V}$ 
4:   for  $v_i \in \text{AccQueue}$  do
5:     AccQueue.dequeue( $v_i$ )
6:      $s_h = s_1$  // highest scoring shard
7:     for  $s_i \in \mathbf{S}$  do
8:       // Score function in Equation 5
9:       if  $\text{Score}(v_i, s_h) < \text{Score}(v_i, s_i)$  then
10:         $s_h = s_i$  // update highest scoring shard
11:      if  $P_{v_i} \neq s_h$  then
12:         $P_{v_i} = s_h$  //update account partition map
13:        Recalculate the workload on each shard
14:        if  $v_j \in NB(v_i)$  and  $v_j \notin \text{AccQueue}$  then
15:          AccQueue.enqueue( $v_j$ )
16: return  $\mathbf{P}$ 
```

Firstly, we have designed a new scoring function to calculate the correlation between accounts and shards. It considers both the TX volume between accounts and shards and the workload balance across different shards. The correlation score of account v_i with shard s_i is defined as follows:

$$\text{Score}(v_i, s_i) = \frac{\sum_{v_j \in NB(v_i)} P_{v_i \rightarrow s_i} \cdot |E_{v_i, v_j}|}{\sum_{v_j \in NB(v_i)} |E_{v_i, v_j}|} * \left(\frac{Load_{Tot}}{k} \right)^\beta \quad (5)$$

Where k is the number of shards, β is a hyper-parameter that weights the workload balancing of shards. To better balance the workload among shards, in addition to the workload of historical TX (denoted as $Load_{s_i}^{ht}$), $Load_{s_i}$ also includes the workload of pending-TXs in shard s_i (denoted as $Load_{s_i}^{pt}$), $Load_{s_i} = Load_{s_i}^{ht} + Load_{s_i}^{pt}$. Similarly, $Load_{Tot}$ includes both workload of historical TX and pending-TXs of all shards.

Through the scoring function, BLPA partitions accounts to the shard with the highest degree of correlation score. We maintain an explicit queue, *AccQueue*, of accounts that should be considered. If the account label (shard ID P_{v_i}) changes, we add some of its neighbors $v_j \in NB(v_i)$ with $P_{v_j} \neq P_{v_i}$ and $v_j \notin \text{AccQueue}$ to the queue. In each step, we dequeue an account from the front of the queue and continue processing all accounts until the queue is empty. This significantly reduces the number of nodes we need to consider, making the algorithm faster.

V. ADAPTIVE BROKER

In this section, we delve into the core aspects of ABChain, focusing on the critical processes of broker update and consensus, including the formulation of the broker selection problem (Section V-A), the design of adaptive broker (Section V-B), the broker selection algorithm (Section V-C), the account splitting/aggregation mechanism (Section V-D), the broker queue update under the dual-broker queue mechanism (Section V-E), and the cross-shard consensus protocol (Section V-F).

1 A. Formulation of the Broker Selection Problem

2 In an account-TX graph, the more active the account v_i is,
 3 the more likely it is to have a large number of neighboring
 4 accounts, that is, $NB(v_i)$ with a long length. Although v_i is
 5 assigned to a optimal shard through BLPA, it is inevitable
 6 that a portion of $v_j \in NB(v_i)$ with $P_{v_j} \neq P_{v_i}$ will still
 7 be assigned to other shards. If neither v_i nor v_j is a broker
 8 and $P_{v_j} \neq P_{v_i}$, then $GAS(v_i) \cap GAS(v_j) = \emptyset$, and thus
 9 the edge E_{v_i, v_j} is a cross-shard edge. Obviously, generally
 10 speaking, the more active v_i is, the more cross-shard TXs
 11 it sends/receives, i.e. $\sum_{v_j \in NB(v_i) \& P_{v_j} \neq P_{v_i}} |E_{v_i, v_j}|$ is more
 12 likely to be large. If, through a selection method, v_i is selected
 13 as the broker and it creates a split-account in shard P_{v_j} , then
 14 for the original cross-shard edge E_{v_i, v_j} where $P_{v_j} \neq P_{v_i}$,
 15 there is now $GAS(v_i) \cap GAS(v_j) = P_{v_j}$. This indicates that
 16 E_{v_i, v_j} is transformed into intra-shard TXs within shard P_{v_j} .
 17 At this point, the workload will be reduced by $Load_{rd}^{v_i}$:
 18

$$20 Load_{rd}^{v_i} = \sum_{v_j \in NB(v_i) \& P_{v_j} \neq P_{v_i}} (Load_{|E_{v_i, v_j}|}^{cross} - Load_{|E_{v_i, v_j}|}^{intra}) \quad (6)$$

21 Based on the aforementioned, selecting the most active
 22 accounts as brokers can minimize the cross-shard TXs ratio
 23 and reduce the workload significantly.

24 We define the system load for splitting an account as
 25 $Load_{F_s}$, the workload for maintaining a broker as $Load_M$,
 26 and the system load for aggregating an expired broker as
 27 $Load_{F_a}$. In a sharded blockchain system with an adaptive
 28 broker, brokers are updated regularly. We define the system's
 29 broker solution as B , where B_{new} represents the newly added
 30 brokers during the broker update of the current epoch, B_{exp}
 31 represents the brokers that need to expire, and B_{cur} represents
 32 the brokers that remain unchanged from the previous epoch
 33 to the current epoch. We now formulate the broker selection
 34 problem S as the following optimization:
 35

$$36 S(B) = \max \left(\sum_{v_i \in B_{new} \cup B_{cur}} Load_{rd}^{v_i} - \sum_{v_i \in B_{exp}} Load_{rd}^{v_i} \right. \\ 37 \left. - |B_{new}| * Load_{F_s} - |B_{cur}| * Load_M - |B_{exp}| * Load_{F_a} \right) \quad (7)$$

38 where, $|B_{new}|$, $|B_{cur}|$, and $|B_{exp}|$ are the length (i.e.
 39 number of brokers) of B_{new} , B_{cur} , and B_{exp} respectively.

40 B. Design of Adaptive Broker

41 Obviously, operation workloads, $Load_{F_s}$, $Load_M$ and
 42 $Load_{F_a}$, are directly related to the selection of brokers. The
 43 smaller those workloads are, the more accounts the system
 44 would select as brokers and maintain. However, since the
 45 cost of those operations (account splitting/aggregation and
 46 broker maintenance) is difficult to estimate, it is hard to select
 47 the optimal B through a heuristic method using the above
 48 Equation 7. In addition, in IoT blockchains, the computing
 49 power of hardware devices is also an influencing factor.
 50 For example, shards composed of different IoT devices have
 51 different network stabilities, which may result in the response
 52 speed of broker accounts to TXs being slower in some shards
 53 compared to those in other shards. Therefore, we simplify the
 54 above problem: 1) we ignore the workload of $Load_{F_s}$, $Load_M$
 55 and $Load_{F_a}$; 2) we set a fixed number n_b of brokers (ABQ
 56 with length n_b). Meanwhile, to avoid maintaining idle brokers
 57 for an extended period, we set the IBQ to have the same length
 58 as the ABQ (IBQ with length n_b). In each epoch, we select
 59 the top- n_u active accounts (B_A with length n_u) to update the
 60 existing brokers. It is worth noting that here $n_u \geq |B_{new}|$,
 61 because the top- ν active account in the previous epoch may
 62 include some brokers. Therefore, B_A is equal to B_{new} plus
 63 a part of B_{cur} . 3) we only select brokers based on historical
 64 TX data, while ignoring other factors such as response time
 65 and historical reputation (whether they have ever crashed or
 66 acted maliciously). Section V-C details the proposed broker
 67 selection algorithm.

68 Specifically, when an ordinary account is selected and is
 69 willing to become a broker, its state needs to be split into
 70 all of its associated shards to create split-accounts. Correspondingly,
 71 when a broker fails and is ready to become an ordinary account,
 72 the split-accounts distributed across various associated shards
 73 need to be aggregated to form an ordinary account. Inspired by Estuary,
 74 we have designed an account splitting/aggregation mechanism to achieve broker updates,
 75 details in Section V-D.

76 During the process of broker update, some BRelay-TXs that
 77 were split by expired brokers (now regular accounts) may still
 78 exist in the TX pool and become new cross-shard TXs. They
 79 require new brokers for further splitting, as shown in Fig.1
 80 (d), which undoubtedly increases system overhead. To address
 81 this issue, we maintain an additional idle broker queue (IBQ)
 82 that contains brokers dequeuing from the active broker queue
 83 (ABQ). Specifically, the idle broker from IBQ still maintains
 84 sub-states in its associated shard. As a result, its BRelay-TXs
 85 can be processed directly, thereby avoiding further splitting.
 86 It's worth noting that only active brokers can split cross-shard
 87 TXs. Therefore, the number of BRelay-TXs in the TX pool
 88 that were originally split by an idle broker will not increase but
 89 will gradually decrease as TXs are packaged and processed.
 90 The broker update steps under the dual broker queue are
 91 detailed in Section V-E.

92 In each epoch, a consensus needs to be reached among all
 93 shards regarding the new account states, including the states of
 94 the brokers each shard maintains. For security considerations,
 95 authorization from the accounts is required before splitting
 96 their states. Hence, the cross-shard consensus protocol elaborated
 97 in Section V-F is essential to maintain the integrity and
 98 security of the sharding system.

99 C. Broker Selection Algorithm

100 We propose Broker Selection algorithm (BSA), specifically
 101 designed to select most active accounts and their associated
 102 shards. The pseudocode for BSA is illustrated in Algorithm 2.

103 First, based on the account-TX graph G , for each account
 104 $v_i \in V$, the top- n_c neighboring accounts in $NB(v_i)$ with the
 105 most TXs are selected as candidate accounts (line 4). v_i then
 106 casts a vote for these n_c candidate accounts (line 6). After

Algorithm 2 Broker Selection Algorithm

Input: V : Account set; E : Edge set; S : Shard set; n_c : Number of candidate account; n_u : Number of new active account.

Output: B_A : New active accounts.

- 1: define $CandidateMap$, Top_{N_u}
- 2: **for** $v_i \in V$ **do**
- 3: define temporary list $Top_{N_c}^{v_i}$.
- 4: Select the n_c accounts with the largest edge weights from $NB(v_i)$, then add it to $Top_{N_c}^{v_i}$
- 5: **for** $v_j \in NB(v_i)$ and $v_j \in Top_{N_c}^{v_i}$ **do**
- 6: $CandidateMap[v_j] += 1$ // vote for candidate
- 7: **for** $s_i \in S$ **do**
- 8: $TotScore += Score(v_i, s_i)$
- 9: Select the n_u accounts with the highest number of votes from the $CandidateMap$, then add to a temporary list Top_{N_u}
- 10: Calculate $AvgScore$ through $TotScore$
- 11: **for** $v_i \in Top_{N_u}$ **do**
- 12: $s_h = s_1$ // Init highest scoring shard
- 13: // B_A add active accounts and its associated shards
- 14: **for** $s_i \in S$ **do**
- 15: **if** $Score(v_i, s_i) > AvgScore$ **then**
- 16: $B_A[v_i].append(s_i)$
- 17: **return** B_A

traversing all accounts, we then accumulate the votes for all candidate accounts. The top- n_u candidate accounts with the most votes are designated as active accounts (line 9). Next, we calculate the score for each account with each shard, sum them to compute a total score, then derive the average account-shard score (line 10). Then, for all $v_i \in B_A$, we determine whether their scores with shard s_i , $s_i \in S$, exceed the average score. If it does, then we consider s_i as an associated shard of v_i (line 11-16). This method prevents the situation where an active account with low correlation to a shard still needs to create a split-account there.

D. Account Splitting/Aggregation Mechanism

Regular accounts selected by the BSA algorithm are upgraded to brokers through the account splitting operation, while expired brokers are downgraded to regular accounts via the account aggregation operation. We illustrate the proposed account splitting/aggregation mechanism in Fig. 4.

Split F_S : Consider account v_1 with main shard $P_{v_1} = s_1$. It has been selected as an active account with new associated shards $B_A[v_1] = [s_1, s_2, s_3]$, indicating that account v_1 needs to split its state and store the parts in its associated shards s_1 and s_3 . Therefore, after getting permission from v_1 , s_1 executes the operation of $state_{v_1}^{s_1}, state_{v_1}^{s_2}, state_{v_1}^{s_3} = F_S(state_{v_1})$ to divide v_1 's state $state_{v_1}$ into three parts: $state_{v_1}^{s_1}$ sending to shard s_1 , $state_{v_1}^{s_2}$ retaining on shard s_2 , and $state_{v_1}^{s_3}$ sending to shard s_3 . Upon receiving the split-states, the target shards s_1 and s_3 verify the relevant information and create the split-account of v_1 . The details of “get permission from an account” are provided in Section V-F.

Aggregate F_A : Upon receiving the B_A , each shard first collects the permissions of the selected accounts and then constructs an expired broker map B_E , which includes the addresses of expired brokers and their associated shards, details are provided in Section V-F. The split-state of each expired broker is sent to their main shard, which then performs

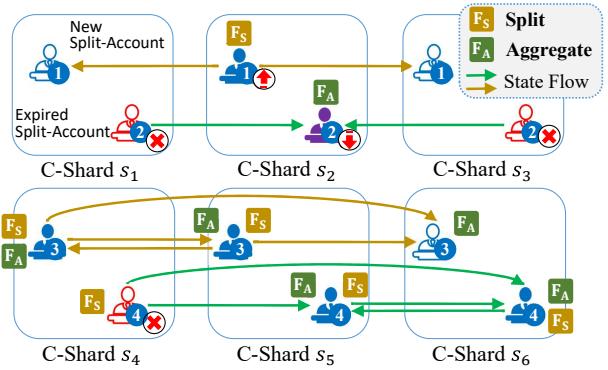


Fig. 4: Example of the account split/aggregate.

account aggregation based on the received split-states. As for b_2 , split-account $b_2^{s_1}$ and $b_2^{s_3}$ sending their respective split-states $state_{v_2}^{s_1}$ and $state_{v_2}^{s_3}$ to main shard s_2 . Then s_2 executes $state_{v_2} = F_A(state_{v_2}^{s_1}, state_{v_2}^{s_2}, state_{v_2}^{s_3})$, ultimately downgrading expired broker b_2 to a complete regular account v_2 .

In complex scenarios, for instance, broker b_3 is split and stored across shards s_4 and s_5 , and needs to be split and stored into shards s_4 , s_5 , and s_6 according to B_A . To ensure an even distribution of each split-state (such as balance), we further split those split-states. Every split-state is required to split and send to other associated shards. Consequently, both $b_3^{s_4}$ and $b_3^{s_5}$ would need to execute F_S and F_A , while in shard s_6 , only by executing F_A can the split-account of b_3 be created as $b_3^{s_6}$.

Similarly, b_4 , which is stored across shards s_4 , s_5 , and s_6 , needs to be aggregated into shards s_4 and s_5 . Both $b_4^{s_4}$ and $b_4^{s_6}$ would need to execute F_S and F_A . In contrast, $b_4^{s_4}$ would only need to execute F_S to send its split-state to shards s_5 and s_6 .

E. Broker Update Under the Dual Broker Queue Mechanism

After acquiring new active accounts B_A through BSA algorithm, it is necessary to update the existing broker queues, active broker queue (ABQ) and idle broker queue (IBQ). As shown in Fig.5, the detailed steps are as follows:

Step ① : Firstly, compare B_A with ABQ and IBQ. If a new active account $v_i \in B_A$ already exist in these queues, $v_i \in ABQ$ or $v_i \in IBQ$, then v_i needs to be removed from their original queue (not dequeued in the traditional sense).

Step ② : New active accounts are enqueued into the ABQ. Their states are then split across all associated shards through an account splitting operation to upgrade them into brokers (such as Fig.4 b_1). The broker removed in **Step ①** is re-enqueued at the end of the ABQ. Brokers located closer to the end of the queue have longer lifecycles, and therefore, re-enqueuing “refreshes” their lifecycles. If the original associated shards of the broker do not match the new associated shards in the B_A , the broker also needs to update its split-account through account splitting/aggregation mechanism (such as Fig.4 b_3 and b_4).

Step ③ : Subsequently, according to the “idle” mechanism settings, dequeue the broker at the head of ABQ and enqueue it into the IBQ queue.

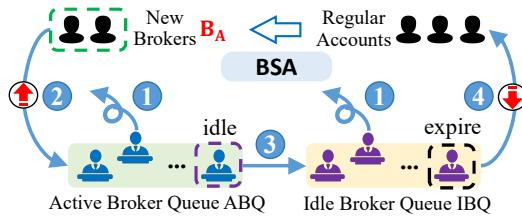


Fig. 5: Update brokers queue according to “dual broker queue” mechanism.

- We set a fixed size n_b for ABQ. When a new broker is enqueued, if the queue size ($|ABQ|$) exceeds the set value n_b , the broker(s) at the head of the queue (number = $|ABQ| - n_b$) will be dequeued and marked as “idle”.

Step ④ : Finally, according to the “expired” mechanism settings, dequeue the broker at the head of IBQ and downgraded it to a regular account through the account aggregation operation (such as Fig.4 b_2).

- We set a fixed size n_b for IBQ. When a new field broker is enqueued, if the queue size ($|IBQ|$) exceeds the set value n_b , the broker(s) at the head of the queue (number = $|IBQ| - n_b$) will be dequeued and marked as “expired”. The information of these brokers will be temporarily stored and denoted as B_E for subsequent account aggregation operations.

F. Cross-Shard Consensus

We have designed a cross-shard consensus protocol with broker update permissions, aimed at achieving global consensus for broker updates. As illustrated in Fig. 6, the specific process is outlined below:

Step ① : Based on the account-TX graph, A-Shard obtains new active account B_A by executing BSA. Nodes within A-Shard will validate B_A , and achieve intra-shard consensus to ensure consistency. Upon reaching consensus, A-Shard generates a proof ($proof_A$), encapsulating key data hashes and node signatures from the algorithm execution process, serving as evidence of computation and result correctness.

Step ② : A-Shard combines B_A and $proof_A$ into a message $msg_1^A = [B_A, proof_A]$ and broadcasts it across the entire network, enabling other C-Shards s_1, \dots, s_k to access and verify this information.

Step ③ : After a period of network latency, upon receiving msg_1^A , C-Shard s_i verifies its authenticity and integrity and generates a proof ($proof_{s_i}$) through intra-shard consensus.

Step ④ : The selected account v_j provides a permission $pm_{v_j}^{F_S} = [msg_1^A, \sigma_{v_j}]$, where $P_{v_j} = s_1$ and $v_j \in B_A$, and σ_{v_j} is v_j 's signature. This indicates that v_j agrees to become a broker and consents to split the state into its associated shards according to B_A .

Step ⑤ : Source C-Shard s_1 initiates account state migration $msg_2^{s_1 \rightarrow s_i}$, where $s_i = s_2, \dots, s_k$, then

- Utilizing the B_A and permission messages from selected accounts, a group of brokers that have just expired B_E is constructed. B_E includes broker's split-account $b_m^{s_1} \in B_E$ that need to be aggregated to their main shard P_{b_m} , for example, $P_{b_m} = s_2$. $b_m^{s_1}$ provides a permission $pm_{b_m^{s_1}}^{F_A} =$

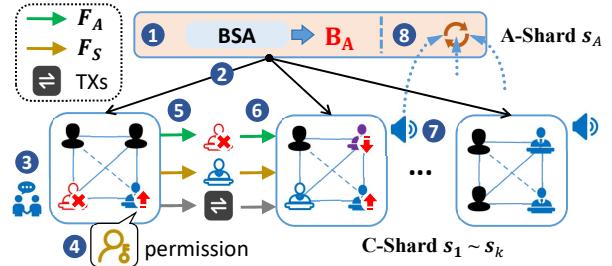


Fig. 6: Basic workflow of the proposed cross-shard consensus protocol.

$[msg_1^A, \sigma_{b_m^{s_1}}]$, and s_1 transmits the state of $b_m^{s_1}$ to shard s_i .

Step ⑥ : Upon receiving the account state migration messages $msg_2^{s_i \rightarrow s_2}$, where $s_i = s_1, s_3, \dots, s_k$, the destination C-Shard s_2 validates their authenticity based on the B_A and P. Taking $msg_2^{s_1 \rightarrow s_2}$ as an example, Subsequently:

- Based on B_A and the received split-state $state_{v_j}^{s_2}$, s_2 creates a split-account instance for v_j .
- Leveraging B_E and the received expired split-state $state_{b_m}^{s_1}, b_m^{s_2}$ executes the aggregation function F_A to downgrade expired split-accounts back to a regular account v_m . The new state of this account is denoted as $state_{v_m}$.

Step ⑦ : s_2 broadcasts a message $msg_3^{s_2}$ to notify other shards of the new broker state in s_2 .

Step ⑧ : A-Shard collects messages $msg_3^{s_i}$ from C-Shards and verifies the correctness of their signatures and contents. Based on the verification results, A-Shard updates the broker queue. At this point, all shards have reached a consensus on the new state of brokers.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Shard Security

We adopt the same settings as related work [10], [11], [12], and [18], which allows us to guarantee an equivalent level of security under identical security settings. Consequently, utilizing the cumulative hypergeometric distribution function, we determine the upper bound of the system failure probability per epoch, denoted as $Pr[Failure]$, as follows:

$$Pr[Failure] \leq (k+1) \sum_{n_m=\lfloor n_s/3 \rfloor}^{n_s} \frac{\binom{f \cdot n_t}{n_M} \binom{(1-f) \cdot n_t}{n_s - n_m}}{\binom{n_t}{n_s}} \quad (8)$$

where $k+1$ represents the number of shards (k C-Shards and 1 A-Shard); n_t represents the total number of consensus nodes with valid identities in each epoch; $n_s = \frac{n_t}{k+1}$ represents the number of consensus nodes per shard; $f \in [0, 1]$ represents the ratio of malicious nodes; n_m represents the number of malicious nodes in one shard.

From this, we can conclude that the sharding system is secure as long as the ratio of malicious nodes in each shard does not exceed $\frac{1}{3}$.

1 B. Account Migrate Security

2 First, ABChain utilizes the BFT-Ledger Partitioning Algorithm (BLPA) to compute the account partition solution for each epoch. BLPA extends the existing CLPA scheme [15], with convergence guarantees provided in [15] and a maximum iteration limit τ to ensure termination.

3 Next, based on the partition solution, ABChain migrates accounts along with their unconfirmed TXs to optimal shards. Following [22], we adopt two security properties:

- 4 • **Migration Liveness** [22]: Every account migration eventually completes via either success or failure.
- 5 • **Eventual Migration Consistency** [22]: All shards eventually agree on the target shard of migrated accounts.

6 **Lemma 1.** *The employed account migration scheme achieves migration liveness and eventual migration consistency as long as the source shard and destination shard are not compromised by malicious nodes.*

7 C. Property Analysis of Broker

8 If a broker is malicious, a potential attack scenario is as follows: When the first half of a BRelay-TX TX_1 is confirmed in shard s_1 , a malicious broker b_2 initiates a double-spend attack by submitting a conflicting TX TX_a in shard s_2 . TX_a carries the same signature as the second half of the BRelay-TX TX_2 , attempting to get both TXs confirmed in s_2 .

9 Our adaptive broker design is identical to that of [12], thus we employ the same cross-shard TX processing method. Each TX includes a globally monotonic *nonce* field tied to the account state. When a TX is confirmed, the account's nonce is incremented atomically. If TX_a is confirmed in s_2 , b_2 's nonce is updated, rendering TX_a invalid in any shard due to a nonce mismatch.

10 D. Broker Update Security

11 In ABChain, each shard maintains its individual split-account, ensuring that split and aggregate operations do not conflict with those of other shards. Sending the split-state to the destination shard and creating a split-account resembles an account migration. According to Lemma 1, we have:

12 **Theorem 1.** *As long as the source shard and the destination shard are not compromised by malicious nodes, the employed account splitting/aggregation achieve migration liveness and eventual migration consistency.*

13 It is noteworthy that whether an account is willing to split or aggregate its state is a matter of individual preference.

14 **Lemma 2.** *As long as the shards are not corrupted by malicious nodes and all accounts promptly and voluntarily provide permission, ABChain can reach consensus on broker updates.*

15 *Proof:* At each epoch, ABChain constructs an account-TX graph based on historical TX data and pending TXs, and selects active accounts, i.e. B_A , using the BSA algorithm. The BSA algorithm is executed by the A-Shard and validated through intra-shard consensus, generating a proof. Therefore,

the B_A output by BSA is trustworthy, and cannot be forged by other parties. The A-Shard sends the B_A and $proof_A$ to each C-Shard. Within the C-Shards, accounts that are not selected cannot forge broker qualifications because they are not included in the B_A . Other nodes can identify forgers by checking the B_A . Subsequently, the selected accounts provide permission to execute the broker queue update. Finally, all C-Shards send the update result ($msg_3^{s_i}, s_i \in S$) of the account status to the A-Shard, which updates its own account status based on $msg_3^{s_i}$. Consequently, the A-Shard and C-Shards maintain identical update results.

Lemma 3. *As long as the shards are not corrupted by malicious nodes, ABChain can still achieve consensus on broker updates even if the selected accounts refuse to provide permissions.*

Proof: If a selected account $v_i \in B_A$ refuses to provide permission during account split, its account state will not be split and will not be included in $msg_2^{s_i \rightarrow s_j}$. For other C-Shards, since they do not receive the split-state of account v_i , they will not create a split-account for v_i . During the broker queue update, v_i will not be promoted to a broker, which can be regarded as the existence of valid new active accounts $B'_A = B_A.remove(v_i)$, where “remove” means remove an element from the map. and B'_A is used to replace B_A to update the broker queue. After the broker queue update, all C-Shards send the update result of the split-state (denoted as $msg_3^{s_i}$) to the A-Shard, which updates its account state based on $msg_3^{s_i}$. Therefore, even if $v_i \in B_A$ refuses to provide permission, the A-Shard and C-Shards can still reach consensus on all account states.

Lemma 4. *As long as the shards are not corrupted by malicious nodes, ABChain can still achieve consensus on broker updates even if the expired brokers refuse to provide permissions.*

Proof: Similarly, for an expired broker $b_j \in B_E$, during account aggregation, if b_j does not provide permission, it indicates that b_j does not want its split-account to be aggregated. For b_j 's main C-Shard, since it does not receive the split-state of account b_j , it will not execute the aggregation operation to downgrade b_j to a regular account. During the broker queue update, b_j will not be downgraded to a regular account, which can be regarded as the existence of actual expired brokers $B'_E = B_E.remove(b_j)$, and B'_E is used to replace B_E to update the broker queue. As mentioned earlier, the A-Shard updates its account state based on $msg_3^{s_i}, s_i = \{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$ sent by all C-Shards. Therefore, even if $b_j \in B_E$ refuses to provide permission, the A-Shard and C-Shards can still reach consensus on all account states. If it is required to solve the problem that expired brokers are reluctant to be downgraded for a long time, a penalty mechanism can be set up to prompt those expired brokers to be downgraded.

In summary, according to Lemma 2, 3, and 4, we have:

Theorem 2. *As long as the shards are not corrupted by malicious nodes, ABChain can reach consensus on broker updates.*

Finally, based on Theorem 1 and Theorem 2, we can conclude that the security performance of the broker update proposed in this scheme is guaranteed.

E. Future Prospects

In cross-shard TX processing, brokers inevitably incur additional workloads. To encourage accounts to actively serve as brokers, it is critical to design an effective incentive mechanism. Current broker selection criteria lack comprehensive consideration of token holdings. Conversely, accounts with frequent TX histories but insufficient balances may introduce liquidity risks; thus, their likelihood of selection should be reduced. Furthermore, IoT Blockchains face unique challenges such as dynamic topology and hardware heterogeneity. Variations in node device capabilities (e.g., computational power, energy constraints) must be addressed in future work. Potential solutions include lightweight consensus protocols and adaptive sharding strategies tailored for resource-constrained environments.

VII. EXPERIMENT EVALUATION

A. Experimental Setup

We have implemented a prototype of ABChain based on BlockEmulator [26]. The system is written in the Go language. The system runs on a hardware configuration of AMD R7 7840hs CPU@3.8Ghz, 32GB RAM. We evaluate the performance of the system by playing back 1 million historical Ethereum TXs sent by over 100,000 accounts. At the beginning of each epoch, TXs are prepared in chronological order and played back into the blockchain sharding system with a certain arrival rate. These TXs are then assigned to different C-Shards based on the state of their sender account. The code of ABChain is available at https://github.com/Gnotil/ABChain_Code.

Baseline and Metrics: The baseline includes Monoxide [6], CLPA [15], BrokerChain [12] and CLPA_Broker [26]. We investigated the impact of several key system parameters on the metrics of blockchain sharding systems under different modes. The key system parameters are shown Table I. We fixed the number of nodes per shard at $n_s = 4$, weight factor $\beta = 4$ and maximum iterations number $\tau = 50$ in all experiments. The system metrics encompass the Average TX Per Second (AvgTPS), TX Confirmation Latency (TxCLatency), and Cross-Shard TX Ratio (CSTxRatio).

TABLE I: System Parameters.

Parameters	Descriptions
$Selc$	the selection method for broker
k	number of C-Shards
n_b	number of broker (length of ABQ)
T_r	account state reconfiguration interval, unit: second (s)
n_u	number of newly selected active account (length of B_A)
$rate_A$	TX arrival rate, The number of TXs arriving per second, written as TX/s
$size_B$	maximum TX-block size

B. Baselines

We compared the proposed scheme with baselines. In addition, to verify the effectiveness of our proposed BLPA, we have set up two control schemes, which are as follows: 1) replace CLPA with our BLPA in scheme CLPA_Broker, denoted as BLPA_Broker; 2) replace BLPA with CLPA in our ABChain, denoted as CLPA_ABChain. The parameters are set as follows: $k=8$, $n_b=90$ (pertaining to BrokerChain, CLPA_Broker, and ABChain, specifically, $n_u=n_b$ for ABChain), $Selc=S500$ (detailed in Sec. VII-C), $rate_A=3000$ TX/s, $size_B=2000$ TX, and $T_r=50$ s.

The experimental results are presented in Table II. By comparing row 4 with row 5, and row 6 with row 7, it can be seen that our BLPA can effectively improve the system performance. Moreover, it is evident that ABChain outperforms the baseline in terms of AvgTPS and CSTxRatio. Compared with CLPA_Broker, the AvgTPS of ABChain has increased by 33.4%, the CSTxRatio and TxCLatency have decreased by 52.3% and 67.7% respectively. The BrokerChain scheme, which does not employ periodic account migration, relies heavily on an appropriate intermediary account to reduce the CSTxRatio. When a poor intermediary account is selected (S500), it leads to significant degradation in scheme performance. Similarly, poor intermediary selection has a substantial impact on the CLPA_Broker scheme. In contrast, our scheme demonstrates superior performance due to its ability to periodically update the broker account.

TABLE II: Comparison between ABChain and baselines.

Method	AvgTPS ↑	CSTxRatio ↓	TxCLatency ↓
Monoxide [6]	886.365	0.875	260.980
CLPA [15]	2033.970	0.315	47.123
BrokerChain [12]	850.573	0.492	227.585
CLPA_Broker [26]	1525.920	0.220	32.430
BLPA_Broker	1678.752	0.204	17.530
CLPA_ABChain	1904.920	0.110	13.658
ABChain	2051.611	0.105	10.488

C. Broker Selection

We investigate the impact of different broker account selections on the existing BrokerChain, CLPA_Broker, and proposed ABChain. We establish 6 distinct sets of brokers, including selecting the most active account from the first 500 TX in the dataset as the broker, denoted as S500, and similarly, we have S1k (first 1,000 TX), S5k, S10k, and S15k. In addition, we also utilize the pre-set broker from the open-source BlockEmulator, denoted as “(Pre)”. Note that since the existing schemes do not have an adaptive active account selection algorithm, the above 6 distinct sets of brokers will be pre-set for each scheme. Additionally, when the account state is reconfigured, our scheme will update the brokers adaptively. We set the other parameters as follows: $k=8$, $n_b=n_u=90$, $rate_A=3000$ TX/s, $size_B=2000$ TX, and $T_r=50$ s.

As shown in Fig. 7, as brokers become increasingly superior, the performance of BrokerChain and CLPA_Broker schemes gradually improves. In contrast, our scheme does not rely

on pre-set excellent brokers and outperforms the comparison schemes under various broker selection scenarios. Notably, our scheme demonstrates a significant advantage in cases involving inferior brokers. This indicates that in the absence of prior knowledge, specifically when the future TX situation is unknown and thus the globally optimal active accounts cannot be preselected, periodic updates of brokers are essential for enhancing sharded blockchain systems based on broker mechanisms. Our scheme dynamically selects active accounts to serve as brokers, efficiently reducing the number of cross-shard TXs and reducing the system's TxCLatency.

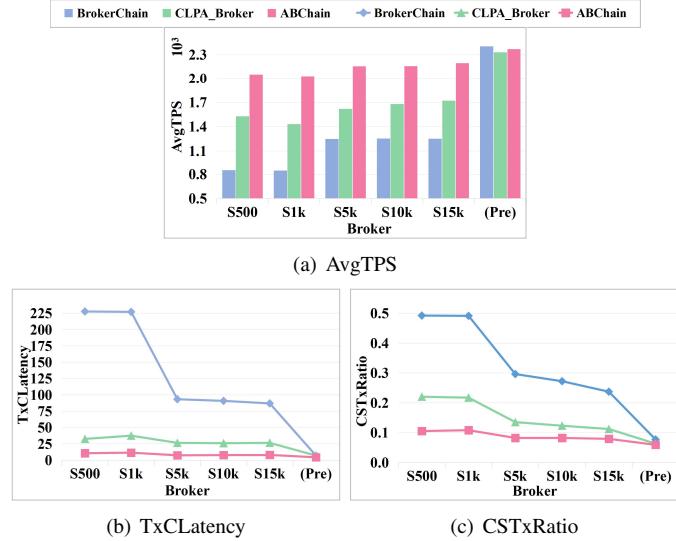


Fig. 7: Comparison of different broker selection methods.

D. Broker Number

In this subsection, we compared the impact of different numbers of brokers on system performance. We vary n_b with $\{10, 30, 50, 70, 90\}$ and set $n_u = n_b$. Other system parameters were configured as follows: $k=8$, $rate_A=3000$ TX/s, $size_B=2000$ TX, and $T_r=50$ s. To provide a fairer assessment of the effects of different schemes, we compared two broker account selection methods, S500 and (Pre), representing poor and optimal broker selections, respectively. Meanwhile, we added Monoxide and CLPA on the right for a more comprehensive comparison.

From Fig. 8 (a), (c), and (e), we can observe that the increase in the number of poor brokers has an insignificant impact on the performance. In contrast, the increase in the number of excellent brokers has a relatively significant impact on the performance, especially for the BrokerChain scheme. The BrokerChain scheme does not periodically conduct account partitioning, so it relies on more excellent brokers to reduce the cross-shard TX rate. As the number of brokers increases to a certain extent, the main active accounts are all selected as brokers, and the performance improvement brought by further increasing the number of brokers will become smaller. In contrast, CLPA_Broker and ABChain are less affected by the increase in the number of brokers due to periodic account

partitioning. Overall, our scheme outperforms the comparison schemes under various settings of the number of brokers.

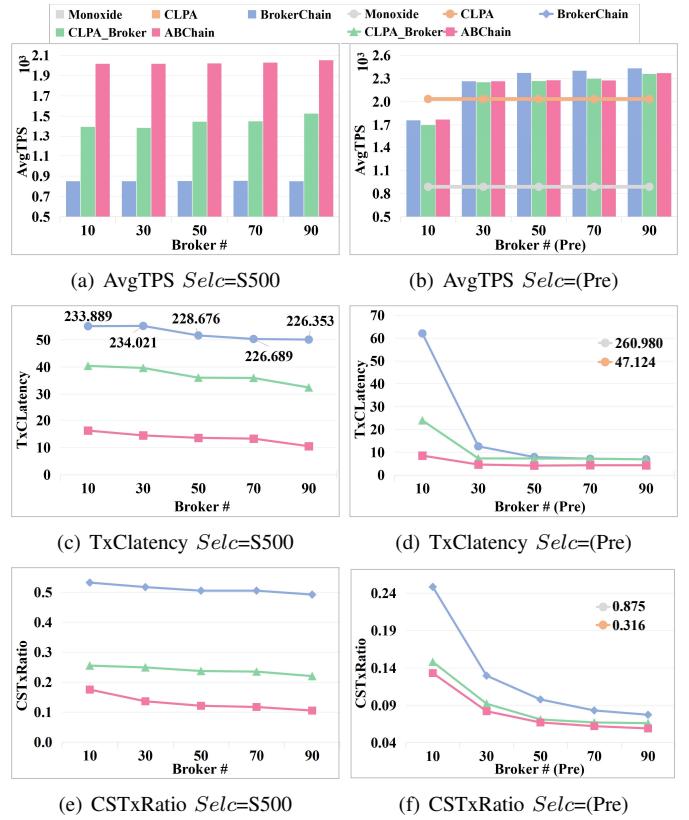


Fig. 8: Comparison of different number of brokers.

E. Shard Number

We evaluate how the number of shards (k) affects the system performance of both the baseline and our ABChain. We vary k within $\{2, 4, 6, 8\}$, and fix $n_b=n_u=90$, $Selc=S500$, $rate_A=3000$ TX/s, $size_B=2000$ TX, and $T_r=50$ s. The experimental results are shown in Fig. 9. It can be seen that as the value of k increases (from 2 to 6), most of the indicators of all the schemes have been improved. However, when $k=8$, Monoxide, BrokerChain and CLPA_Broker all experience a performance decline. We attribute this result to the following insights. Firstly, as k increases, the volume of cross-shard TXs also increases. Secondly, for BrokerChain and CLPA_Broker, poor brokers (S500) make the system unable to effectively optimize the processing of cross-shard TXs, resulting in the degradation of their performance. In contrast, under the same condition of poor brokers, ABChain significantly surpasses BrokerChain and CLPA_Broker in terms of the AvgTPS indicator and slightly surpasses CLPA, and also performs better than the comparison schemes in other indicators. Overall, our scheme demonstrates a better performance than the comparison schemes in the case of multiple shards, which indicates that our scheme ensures good shard scalability.

F. TX Arrival Rate

We investigated the impact of variations in TX arrival rates on the system performance of different schemes. $rate_A$ was

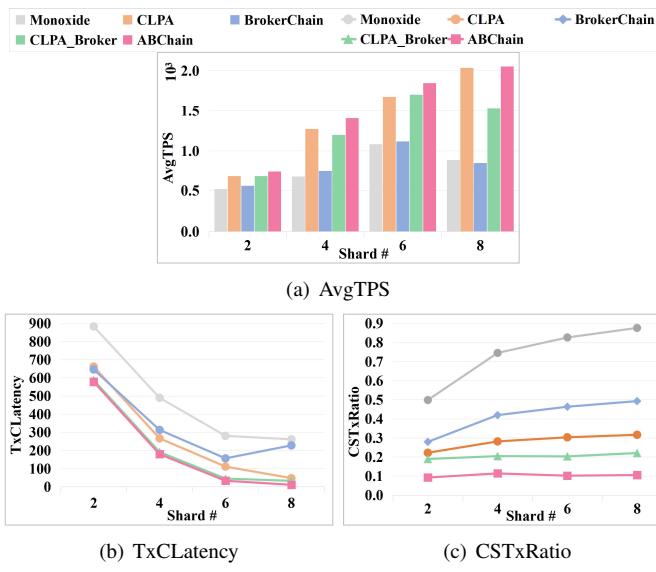


Fig. 9: Comparison of different number of shards.

varied within $\{500, 1000, 1500, 2000, 2500, 3000, 3500\}$ TX/s. Other parameters were set as follows: $k=8$, $n_b=n_u=90$, $Sele=S500$, $size_B=2000$ TX, and $T_r=50$ s. The results are shown in Fig. 10. When $rate_A=500$ TX/s, the performance of all schemes is poor, but the proposed scheme still outperforms the comparison schemes. As the $rate_A$ increases, all sharding schemes observe an improvement in the AvgTPS metric. However, beyond a certain threshold, this improvement becomes insignificant due to constraints from other factors, such as block size. Metrics like TxCLatency and CSTxRatio rise with the increase in $rate_A$, indicating a degradation in performance. Due to the static account allocation employed by Monoxide and BrokerChain, their CSTxRatio is a fixed value. Compared to the baseline, our ABChain exhibits a relatively more gradual and modest improvement in these metrics. Notably, when $rate_A$ is set to 3000 and 3500 TX/s, ABChain surpasses CLPA in the AvgTPS metric and demonstrates a significant advantage over CLPA_Broker, suggesting that the proposed method is capable of effectively handling large-scale TXs.

G. Maximum Block Sizes

We investigated the impact of variations in maximum block size on the system performance of different schemes. Larger block sizes allow for the inclusion of more TXs. We vary $size_B$ within $\{500, 1000, 1500, 2000, 2500, 3000, 3500\}$ TXs, while other parameters were configured as follows: $k=8$, $n_b=n_u=90$, $Sele=S500$, $rate_A=2000$ TX/s, and $T_r=50$ s. The experimental results are presented in Fig. 11. When $size_B=500$ TX, $rate_A=2000$ TX/s is relatively a high value, resulting in a busy system state where a significant portion of time is consumed by block consensus, thereby leading to exceptionally high TxCLatency. It is evident that increasing the maximum block size does indeed improve the performance of the sharding schemes, as larger blocks allow for packing more TXs. However, after reaching a certain threshold, this improvement becomes less significant, because for sufficiently

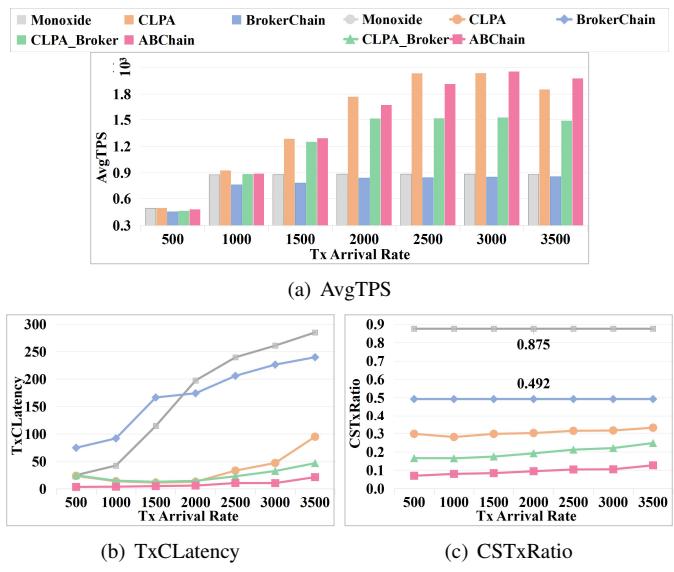


Fig. 10: Comparison of different TX arrival rate.

large blocks, the throughput is limited by factors such as TX arrival rate rather than block size. Overall, the proposed scheme outperforms the comparison schemes in terms of both AvgTPS, TxCLatency and CSTxRatio.

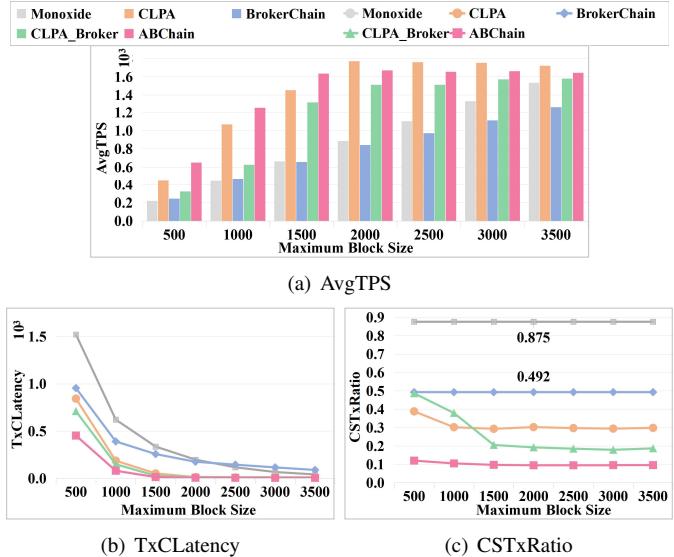


Fig. 11: Comparison of different maximum block size.

H. Account State Reconfiguration Interval

We compared the impact of different account state reconfiguration intervals on the system performance of different schemes, namely account partition interval in CLPA and CLPA_Broker, account partition and broker updates interval in ABChain. We vary T_r within $\{50, 75, 100, 125, 150\}$ s, while fixing $k=8$, $n_b=n_u=90$, $Sele=S500$, $rate_A=3000$ TX/s, and $size_B=2000$ TX. As shown in Fig. 12, with the increase of the T_r , the performance of all the schemes has deteriorated, indicating that account migration to reduce cross-shard TXs

is helpful for improving the performance of the blockchain system. Due to poor broker selection, CLPA_Broker has a very low AvgTPS, its TxCLatency is higher than that of CLPA at $T_r = 125$ s and $T_r = 150$ s. Our scheme avoids the adverse effects brought by poor brokers through the adaptive update of brokers. CLPA has a similar AvgTPS as ABChain since there is no overhead for broker account reconfiguration, but a distinct divergence can be observed between CLPA and ABChain in terms of the TxCLatency and CSTxRatio. Overall, the performance of our scheme under different account state reconfiguration intervals is better than that of the comparison schemes.

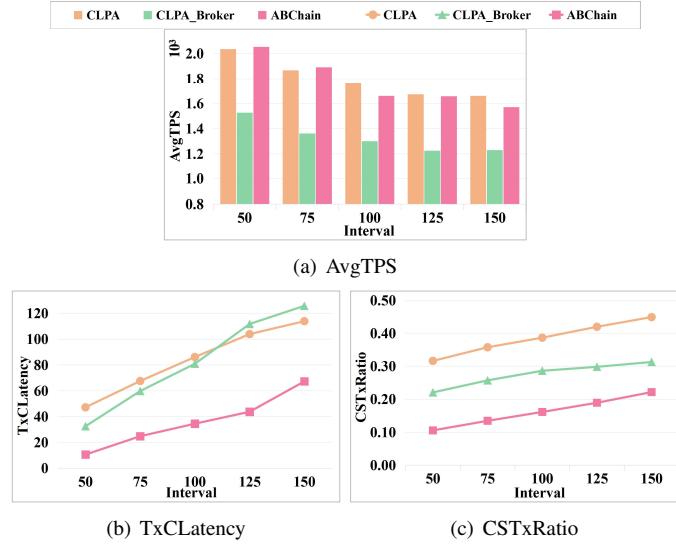


Fig. 12: Comparison of different state reconfiguration interval.

I. Number of Selected Active Accounts and The Presence of Idle Broker Queue

In this subsection, we investigate the impact of different n_u and the influence of configuring the IBQ or not on system performance. We set up two groups of controlled experiments, with IBQ (denoted as “With”) and without IBQ (denoted as “No”). In each group of controlled experiments, we vary n_u within $\{10, 30, 50, 70, 90\}$. The other experimental parameters are set as follows: $k=8$, $n_b=90$, $Selc=S500$, $rate_A=2000$ TX/s. The experimental results are shown in Fig. 13. It can be observed that as n_u increases, the performance of the “No” scenario gradually degrades. This is because when brokers update, some BRelay-TXs split by expired broker inevitably remain unprocessed and become cross-shard TXs, necessitating further re-splitting. As n_u increases, the number of cross-shard BRelay-TXs also rises, hindering the efficient operation of the system. When an IBQ is introduced in the “With” scenario, an increase in n_u enhances system performance. This is because the IBQ functions as a buffer pool, where BRelay-TXs split by idle brokers do not need further re-split, and newly added active brokers can convert more cross-shard TXs into inner-shard TXs. In summary, for a scheme that

supports the updating of mediator accounts, including an IBQ can effectively improve system performance.

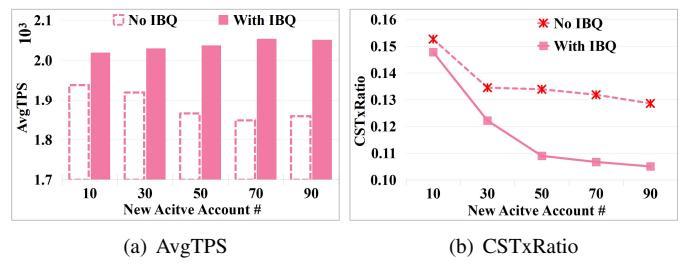


Fig. 13: Comparison of different queue sizes for new brokers and investigating the impact of IBQ on performance.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This paper propose an adaptive broker-based sharding solution, termed ABChain. The core idea of ABChain is to select the most active accounts as brokers that are split and stored in multiple shards in each epoch, thereby minimizing cross-shard TXs. Additionally, through the brokers, cross-shard TXs can be effectively decomposed into several intra-shard TXs, significantly reducing communication and processing costs. To optimize the performance of ABChain and dynamically adjust the brokers, we further design a “dual broker queue” mechanism and devise a cross-shard consensus protocol. Compared to existing sharding schemes, ABChain does not rely on preset optimal brokers; instead, brokers adaptively update based on system operations. Experimental results fully demonstrate the effectiveness of selecting active accounts as brokers in ABChain, and the proposed method can significantly enhance the performance of sharded blockchain systems.

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