

# A study of Consensus Mechanisms in blockchains with an Emphasis on PoR(Proof-of-Reputation)

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## Abstract

• The appearance of blockchain technology enables people to build a distributed, decentralized and tamper-resistant ledger through a trust-free P2P network. It has broad application prospect in the field of financial services like digital assets, remittance and online payment. With the combination of p2p network, public key cryptography technologies, hash pointers and cryptographic hash functions, blockchain system can guarantee decentralization, persistency, tamper-resistance, forge-resistance and auditability. The ledgers - while having a global consistency over the network - enable parties who do not trust each other to maintain states, to agree on the existence, values and histories of the states. With these characteristics blockchain can greatly save the cost, improve the transaction processing efficiency, and allow to support financial services without any bank or any intermediary.

• In this article, we firstly provide a general design model of blockchain system we envision. We will highlight the consensus layer by showing its importance, its utility, its potential interactions with other layers. We analyze and compare secondly fourteen different consensus protocols. In the third and last part, we focus on an innovative consensus protocol concept: the proof-of-reputation protocol, in which introduce the notion of reputation into the consensus process. We present por protocol by listing four existing por projects, comparing and analyzing their ideas, their pros and cons, and trying to lay out possible future trends for proof-of-reputation protocols.

**Keywords:** blockchain; consensus protocol; proof-of-reputation; decentralization

## Declaration

### Availability of data and materials

The blockchain systems data that support the findings of this study are available from “bitcointalk.org”, “www.coingecko.com/fr/pièces/”, “www.feixiaohao.com”, “coincheckup.com”, “blocktivity.info”, “bitinfocharts.com”, “www.reedit.com/r/Vechain/comments/97zmoy”.

Also, the next reported blockchain systems data were used to support this study and are available at “Practical Byzantine fault tolerance”, “Bitcoin: A peer-to-peer electronic cash system”, “<https://blackcoin.co/blackcoin-pos-protocol-v2-whitepaper.pdf>”, “DBFT: Efficient byzantine consensus with a weak coordinator and its application to consortium blockchains”, “The ripple protocol consensus algorithm”, “On security analysis of proof-of-elapsed-time (poet)”, “Slimcoin: A peer-to-peer crypto-currency with proof-of-burn”, “Proofs of space”, “Delegated proof-of-stake (dpos)”, “Komodo: An Advanced Blockchain Technology, Focused on Freedom”, “Komodo: An Advanced Blockchain Technology, Focused on Freedom”, “Solana: A new architecture for a high performance blockchain v0.8.13”, “Pbft vs proof-of-authority: applying the cap theorem to permissioned blockchain”, “Algorand: Scaling byzantine agreements for cryptocurrencies”, “[gochain.io/assets/gochain-whitepaper-v2.1.2.pdf](https://gochain.io/assets/gochain-whitepaper-v2.1.2.pdf)”, “Blockchain: The State of the Art and Future Trends”. These prior studies (and datasets) are cited at relevant places within the text as references [8-11, 13-23].

#### Competing interests statement

The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

#### Fundings

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#### Authors' contributions

## 1 Introduction

Blockchain technology was first implemented by Nakamoto with Bitcoin applications in 2009[9]. It combines the application of encrypted hash functions, digital signature, Merkle tree, consensus protocol and P2P network. It could be used not only for financial trading systems[1],[2], but also Scientific research, resource management[3],[4], political domain[6],[7], etc. Blockchain system is a distributed database system based on decentralized P2P network, it could record public ledger – sorting group of transactions in chronological order and encryptedly linking trans-

39 action blocks, thus enable trust-less based distributed applications to be operated  
40 in the system.

41 The information contained in the ledger shows the transaction history up to  
42 the current time through blockchains. Each participant should agree to update the  
43 ledger. Naturally, there is the need for consensus among participants. The situations  
44 may not be found in real-world applications, such like a statutory digital currency  
45 through which a single entity (a bank or country) decides to update. The importance  
46 of the blockchain protocols is actually to be able to handle the collaborative work of  
47 untrustworthy nodes, indicating which variables might respond in Byzantine form.  
48 Consensus protocols therefore need to endure Byzantine problems.

49 Consensus protocols are thus a critical part of the blockchain system. There are a  
50 lot of practices: Bitcoin which made a great success on marketing, uses this Proof-  
51 of-Work protocol where users profit from computing proofs to randomly find the  
52 node determining the next block[9]; or PoS protocol[10], which is used by Peercoin,  
53 where users profit there locked stake within the blockchain system prove that they  
54 are trustworthy, and to compete to win the right of generating subsequent blocks;  
55 or as PBFT protocols, all nodes identity should be known under this configuration,  
56 all nodes have equivalent voting rights, and they consumes numerous rounds of  
57 communications to reach consensus[8].

58 The existing consensus protocols mainly face 4 serious challenges: system perfor-  
59 mance, energy efficiency, security and decentralization feature[22].

60 The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II introduces the general  
61 design model for blockchain system. Section III shows the state-of-art of fourteen  
62 different consensus protocols. Section IV summarizes the precedent one by giving ta-  
63 bles and explanations showing the analysis results of those protocols, with a detailed  
64 explanation for these table and figures. Section V introduces the idea of proof-of-  
65 reputation, explains its idea, its operation principles, its general model, advantages  
66 and disadvantages. Section VI is an another state-of-art section where we list and  
67 present four different existing por blockchain projects. Section VII concludes.

## 68 II Background

69 In this section, we will introduce the theoretical background of our research. We  
70 are gonna explain a blockchain system under our envisionment, through a basic  
71 model constructed by 5 layers: a data layer, a network layer, a consensus layer, an  
72 incentive layer, a contract layer and an application layer[23].

73 The data layer defines the representation of data within a blockchain system, then  
74 the network layer determines the data transmission method. The consensus layer  
75 focuses on reaching a consensus at the systemic level, namely a consensus of data  
76 verification. The existence of incentive scheme is to guarantee honest and legitimate  
77 behaviors of users(network nodes), since the data generation, data propagation and  
78 data verification depend on their actions and operations.

79 The data layer, the network layer, the consensus layer and the incentive schemes  
80 aer mostly related to the implementation of consensus protocol, they construct the  
81 underlying architecture that support various contracts and general applications for  
82 a blockchain system.

83 The network, consensus and incentive - those three layers, which especially get  
84 involved in the implementation of consensus protocol of the system, under our  
85 envisioning.

86 In general, a blockchain system consists of a data layer, a network layer, a con-  
87 sensus layer, an incentive layer, a contract layer, and an application layer. The data  
88 layer encapsulates the underlying data block and related data encryption and time  
89 stamping and other basic data and basic algorithms; the network layer includes a  
90 distributed networking mechanism, a data propagation mechanism, and a data veri-  
91 fication mechanism; the consensus layer mainly encapsulates the network node. Var-  
92 ious types of consensus algorithms; the incentive layer integrates economic factors  
93 into the blockchain technology system, mainly including the issuance mechanism  
94 and distribution mechanism of economic incentives; the contract layer mainly en-  
95 capsulates various scripts, algorithms and smart contracts, and is a blockchain. The  
96 basis of the programmable features; the application layer encapsulates various appli-  
97 cation scenarios and cases of the blockchain. In this model, time-stamp-based chain  
98 block structure, distributed node consensus mechanism, consensus-based economic

99 incentives, and flexible programmable smart contracts are the most representative  
100 innovations of blockchain technology.

## 101 II.a Blockchain data

102 The data layer represents the distributed ledger, which is shared by all the nodes  
103 within the decentralized blockchain system, it encapsulates the underlying data  
104 block, then the related data structure and algorithms of data encryption and time  
105 stamping, etc.

106 Through the existing of data layer, every distributed node could use a specific hash  
107 algorithm(determined within the data layer) and the Merkle tree data structure,  
108 to encapsulate the transactional data received in a certain time period into a data  
109 block and with time stamping on it, then add it to the end of local main blockchain,  
110 thus became it the latest block on the blockchain.

111 In order to achieve the functions described above, the data layer mainly relies on  
112 six technologies: the data block, the hash pointers, the cryptographic hash function,  
113 the Merkle tree, the timestamps and the asymmetric cryptography.

### 114 *Data block*

115 Also called as “transaction block” because it stores mostly transactions’ informa-  
116 tion. Each data block contains a Header part and a Body part.

117 The block header encapsulates current block index, the address of the previous  
118 block, the hash value of current block, the Merkle-root of current block and its  
119 timestamp.

120 The block body contains the amount of transactions stored in current block,  
121 then the records of all validated transactions encapsulated during the generation of  
122 current block. Those transaction records together generate the Merkle root(through  
123 the hashing process of a Merkle tree) saved in the block header.

### 124 *Hash pointers*

125 The data structure which allows the node to link the latest block to the previous  
126 one, thus constructing the chain of data blocks.

127 Through this technology, all history of data appeared in the blockchain system is  
128 locatable and auditable.

129 Sometimes, a node may have two or even several valid latest blocks that it must  
130 make choice among them to adding one of them on their local main blockchain.  
131 This is called as “fork selection” as a problem to deal with.

### 132 *Timestamps*

133 The timestamp is encapsulated in the header part of a data block, during the cre-  
134 ation time of the block. It signifies the write-in time of the corresponding block, the  
135 purpose is to make it possible to confirm that blocks are arranged in chronological  
136 order within the blockchain.

137 The hash pointers and the timestamps, together they construct the Proof of  
138 existence of every data block, thus make the blockchain becoming a tamper-resistant  
139 ledger.

### 140 *Cryptographic Hash function*

141 The raw data of transactions are not recorded in the blockchain, but their hash  
142 value. The use of cryptographic hash function gives six properties to the records  
143 data:

- 144 1. As input, the raw data can be any string of any size.
- 145 2. The output is a fixed size.
- 146 3. The process to transform raw data to hash value is efficiently computable. Intu-  
147 itively this means that for a given input string, we can figure out what the output  
148 of the hash function is in a reasonable amount of time. More technically, computing  
149 the hash of an  $n$ -bit string should have a running time that is  $O(n)$ .
- 150 4. Collision-resistant: even if the input differs by only one byte, it will produce  
151 significantly different output values. It is infeasible to find same output value with  
152 different input.
- 153 5. Hiding: there's no feasible way to reverse the input value through the hash  
154 output.

155 6. Puzzle friendliness: if someone wants to target the hash function to come out  
156 to some particular output value  $y$ , and if there's part of the input that is chosen in  
157 a suitably randomized way, it's very difficult to find another value that hits exactly  
158 that target.

159 The use of cryptographic hash functions guarantee the “tamper-resistant”, “ef-  
160 ficiently computable during the creation” and “auditable” properties of blockchain  
161 records. The function that is most generally used is SHA256.

### 162 *Merkle Tree*

163 The Merkle tree's function is to allow to the efficient summarization and validation  
164 of the existence and integrity of the block data.

### 165 *Asymmetric Cryptography*

166 Asymmetric encryption usually uses two asymmetric ciphers in the encryption  
167 and decryption process, called public and private keys. This key pair has two char-  
168 acteristics:

169 The first is to use one of the keys (public or private). After encrypting the infor-  
170 mation, only another corresponding key can decrypt it;

171 Secondly, the public key can be disclosed to others, and the private key is kept  
172 secret, and other people cannot calculate the corresponding private key through the  
173 public key.

174 The asymmetric encryption technology is applied in the scenarios of the  
175 blockchain's information encryption, digital signature, and login authentication.  
176 The information encryption scenario is mainly performed by the sender of the in-  
177 formation (denoted as A) using the public key of the receiver (denoted as B) to  
178 encrypt the information and then send it to B, B then decrypt the information by  
179 using its own private key.

180 The digital signature scenario is that sender A sent messages with his/her own  
181 private key to B, B uses the public key of A to decrypt, and to ensure that the  
182 messages are made by A.



183 As for the login authentication scenario, the client encrypts the login information  
184 with the private key and sends it to the server. The latter takes client's public key  
185 to decrypt and authenticate the login information.

## 186 II.b Blockchain network

187 The network layer encapsulates the network building mode, the messaging proto-  
188 col, the data verification mechanism, etc.

189 Those mentioned factors of network layer should be defined corresponding to the  
190 need of real applications based on. Through the network layer, it is possible for every  
191 node within the blockchain system to participate to the maintenance(verification of  
192 data) and updating of data blocks.

193 This function is basic for a blockchain system since the system is distributed,  
194 we need that all the nodes could synchronize with each other on the updating of  
195 distributed ledger.

### 196 *Network Building Mode*

197 Existing blockchain systems generally take Peer-to-Peer Network(p2p network) as  
198 their networking mode, nodes within the network are the users who have the right  
199 to participate to do the data verification and ledger's updating.

200 Within a p2p network, all the nodes possess a equivalent class, they connect  
201 and communicate with each other based on a flat topology. There are no special  
202 centralized nodes, neither hierarchical structures. Each node will individually take  
203 on the network routing, block data verification, block data propagation and new  
204 nodes' discovering tasks.

205 For a blockchain network, nodes are often divided into "full nodes" and  
206 "lightweight nodes". The former stores the total records from the genesis block(first  
207 instantiated block at the creation of the blockchain system) until the latest one,  
208 participates on real-time to the data verification and ledger updating. As for the  
209 "lightweight nodes", they record only partially the blockchain, and generally re-  
210 quest their required data from connected nodes to accomplish their operation such  
211 as data verification,

212 A general reason that not every user could support a full node is the high space  
213 cost of it, as for Bitcoin, a full node means a data set more than 60GB after 2016[23];  
214 Different existing blockchain projects offer their own strategy for their “lightweight  
215 nodes”, again as for Bitcoin, they have designed a Simplified Payment Verification  
216 method to support.

217 For a blockchain network, the entire network data is stored on all nodes of the  
218 decentralized system. Even if some nodes fail, as long as there is still a function-  
219 ing node, the blockchain main chain data can be completely recovered without  
220 affecting the recording and update for subsequent block data. This decentralization-  
221 based concept brings a better data security compare to other centralized or multi-  
222 centralized data storage mode such as Cloud.

### 223 *Messaging Protocol*

224 Since the network is distributed, once upon the generation of a data block, the  
225 generator node needs to broadcast its result to other nodes on the global network  
226 in order to get their verification for this block.

227 For a blockchain system, its messaging protocol generally include five steps as  
228 shown below:

229 1. Nodes involved by transactions broadcast their transaction data to the nodes  
230 on the global network.

231 2. Every full node collect their received transactions then package them into a  
232 data block.

233 3. Through the consensus protocol adopted by current system, some of the full  
234 nodes will get the right to sign and publish their block packaged - they broadcast  
235 the block to the nodes on the global network.

236 4. Data verification: other nodes only validate the block when all transactions  
237 within are legitimate and not stored in the ledger yet.

238 5. Block acceptance: once the data verification has done, nodes could accept this  
239 received block and add it in the ledger(on the end of their local blockchain).

#### 240 *Data verification mechanism*

241 This mechanism mainly handles two operations: verification for transaction data,  
242 and verification for data blocks.

243 For the transactions' data received from connected nodes, their validity would be  
244 firstly verified. If they are validate data, they will be put into a local transaction  
245 pool by chronological order, and be broadcasted at the same time to the subsequent  
246 connected nodes; if they are illegitimate transactions, these data will be rejected  
247 thus banned from the blockchain network.

248 The validity of transaction data concerns mostly their data structure, their gram-  
249 matical normative, their data signature, etc.

250 As for the data blocks, their validity is also firstly verified. If they are validate,  
251 they will be locally accepted into a main chain by current node, and be broadcasted  
252 to the subsequent connected nodes; if not, they will be rejected and thus banned  
253 from the network.

254 The validity of data blocks concerns their hash value, their timestamp, their  
255 content transactions' validity, etc.

#### 256 **II.c Consensus protocol**

257 How to achieve consensus efficiently in distributed systems is an important re-  
258 search issue in distributed computing field, the utility and the importance of consen-  
259 sus layer is to - in a decentralized system with highly decentralized decision-making  
260 power - make each node highly efficiently achieve agreement on block data validity.

261 Existing consensus protocols are various, some of the representative ones are  
262 PoW(Proof-of-Work) and its variants such like PoS(Proof-of-Stakes), dPoS(delegated-  
263 Proof-of-Stakes); PBFT(pratical-byzantine-fault-tolerance) and its variants such as  
264 FBA(federate-byzantine-agreement), dBFT(delegated-byzantine-fault-tolerance).

265 The general idea of existing consensus protocol is to - for each round of the sys-  
266 tem - as much as possible randomly elect a leader(or multiple leaders), so that all  
267 nodes could have consensus on the updated content of the ledger after locally com-  
268 pleting data verification, and every node has equivalent opportunities to become a

leader node. For that purpose, the general design of existing consensus protocols is that nodes must show a proof supported by a certain scarce resource (such as hash computing power with PoW, cryptocurrency tokens with PoS and dPoS, nodes' votes with dBFT[11], dPOS[17] and FBA, etc) in order to win the right of ledger updating. The scarcity of such resource guarantees the fairness of this "leader election" process, and could be considered as a "security deposit" that winner nodes will honestly and legitimately operate - if they act maliciously then they will lose their invested resource.

The existing consensus mechanisms have their own advantages and disadvantages. The PoW-like consensus mechanism has formed a mature cryptocurrency-mining industry based on its first-mover advantage, for example, Bitcoin and Litecoin projects; while emerging mechanisms such as dPoS, FBA have their relative advantages on safety, environment friendly and/or efficiency. The choice of consensus protocols has become the most difficult problem to reach a consensus for blockchain system researchers.

#### *II.c.1 Main challenges faced by the consensus protocols nowadays*

##### *Performance bottle neck:*

Taking Bitcoin and Ethereum – the most successful blockchain projects – as examples: in Bitcoin, the system could process 7 transactions per second in average, and with Ethereum, this number is currently 20, which is much lower than centralized online payment system such like Paypal and Visa, which – in practice - process separately 115 and 2000 transactions per second[9],[23].

Most of the recent consensus protocols aim on the improvement on performance with, however, a trade off between the performance and the scalability, the security and/or the decentralization.

##### *Energy overhead issue:*

As of today, 3.5 million US households could be powered with the energy used to run the Bitcoin network, while Ethereum uses the equivalent power of 1 million households. This is an unsustainable overhead. To resolve this problem, there exists 3 convenient ways which are "decreasing the exigency on local computing ability

299 for the individual node”, “reducing the complexity of data/messages transmitted  
300 on the network”, “reducing the complexity of number of rounds needed to reach  
301 the consensus” - numerous recent protocols proposed different solution concepts.

302 *Scalability problem:*

303 As for a blockchain system, the scalability represents principally the openness,  
304 and the admissible network size of the system. It’s considerable that a lot of recent  
305 protocols – in order to improve the system performance – sacrificed the scalabil-  
306 ity, making their system became closed, or the acceptable number of nodes being  
307 limited.

308 *Security problem:*

309 The security notion signifies principally the reliability of results of the protocol,  
310 the security of transaction operation lanced by every individual node, and the con-  
311 fidentiality of data for every individual node. The classical consensus algorithm of  
312 Bitcoin provides – well proved in practice – a very nice security, although for some  
313 new protocols which direct the performance and the energy efficiency improvement,  
314 a strict proof on their security is lacking, some of them even have a hard-to-solve  
315 security hole, thus can not be operated independently.

316 In fact, even for the Bitcoin algorithm, the recent research on “selfish mining  
317 strategy/attack” also pointed that, the Bitcoin’s security mechanism could only  
318 tolerate half of the malicious nodes compare to its intended design.

319 *Centralization issue:*

320 As for 2017, 80% of all blocks generated in Bitcoin network are mined by large  
321 mining companies in Iceland and in China[23], the system’s decentralization has  
322 been gradually lost. The ensuring of the system decentralization is, in general,  
323 the most different part of diverse protocols. In addition, some of recent protocols  
324 made concessions on the decentralization degree for the system’s performance and  
325 reliability.

326 **II.d Incentive schemes**

327 The nature of the consensus layer is to outsource the ledger updating and mainte-  
328 nance tasks to the glboal nodes. Every rational node is self-interested. The purpose

of having incentive schemes is make the individual rational behavior that maximizes the benefits of each node being consistent with the overall goal of the security and effectiveness during the consensus process of the decentralized system.

#### *Issuing mechanism*

Currently, the issuing of incentive tokens is mostly based on the augmentation of new data blocks and new transactions, the reason of this situation is that the practical effect of incentive mechanism is to make the use of system services by nodes always profitable for the users.

Taking the Bitcoin as example, each block since the genesis block will issue 50 bitcoins to the bookholders of the block, after which the number of bitcoins issued per block will be reduced by half every 4 years (namely 210,000 blocks in average). The number of Bitcoins will stabilize at the upper limit of 21 million. The bitcoin transaction process will also incur a fee, the current default fee is one ten thousandth of a bitcoin.

#### *Distribution mechanism*

The general distribution approach of incentive tokens could be divided into two parts: one part is for the ledger updater nodes, they have contribution for the maintenance and updating of the distributed ledger, so they should be rewarded because of their contribution; the another part is for the transaction proposer nodes within the system, their action animates the system, increases system network traffic and creates needs of system service.

### II.e Contract layer

The contract layer encapsulates various script codes and algorithms of the blockchain system and the more complex smart contracts generated therefrom. If we take the three levels of data, network and consensus as the data modeling, data propagation and data verification functions for the base system, then the contract layer signifies the business logic and algorithm built on this blockchain virtual machine, which is the basis for flexible programming and operation of the system.

Digital cryptocurrency including Bitcoin mostly use non-turing complete simple script code to program and control the trading process, which is the prototype of

smart contract. With the development of technology, other Turing-completed smart contracts can be realized to achieve more complex and flexible smart contracts such like with Ethereum. Those newly created scripting language enables blockchains to support many applications of macrofinancial and social systems.

## II.f Application layer

The blockchain system has the characteristics of distributed high-redundancy storage, time-series data ,tamper-resistant and forge-resistant, decentralized credit, intelligent execution of smart contracts, security and privacy protection, which makes blockchain technology not only could be successful in the field of digital cryptocurrency, there are also a wide range of applications in economic, financial and social systems.

## III Related Works – Consensus algorithms

Presentation of 16 consensus protocols

In order to let the reader get a better understanding about the evolution and the state of the art of the blockchain consensus protocols, we list and explain sixteen different protocols below. The content of the explanation includes a summary introduction, their mechanism, and an analysis about their strengths and weaknesses.

### III.a Proof-of-Work(PoW)

#### *Definition*

PoW is the first consensus protocol applied to the blockchain system. As a protocol, it mainly answered to four questions below:

1. Who package transaction blocks and then update the ledger(maintain the system operation)?
2. Why users would have the motivation to take care of the update of the ledger?
3. How the rewards of maintaining the system operation are distributed?
4. How do we locally determine the main chain while forking occurs?

#### *Consensus process*

The detailed mechanism of PoW contains 4 phases:

387 1. In order to commit the transactions(such as, online payment, data/file trans-  
388 mission, etc) to the ledger, the nodes need to broadcast their own transactions in  
389 the p2p network.

390 2. The nodes that are willing to participate in the update of the ledger are called  
391 as “miners”, they firstly verify the received transactions, then store the validate  
392 ones in local, thus form a pre-committed transactions pool.

393 3. For each round(in Bitcoin, 1 round is 10 minutes, and as in Ethereum, it’s  
394 15 seconds), miners need to compete, trying to – in the fastest way – resolve a  
395 mathematical problem called “hash puzzle”. Only the miners who have found a  
396 solution are able to package their transactions in the pool into a block, and sign,  
397 publish, broadcast this block to the entire p2p network.

398 When a block is accepted into the main chain, then the signer could get rewards  
399 for it - it could be an amount of cryptocurrencies, or in form of other tokens.

400 4. The block signer needs to put their solution founded into their block’s header,  
401 “hash puzzle”’s verification is very simple, so the common nodes can easily check if  
402 this signer has the right to publish its own block.

403 On the other hand, because of the fact that, the earlier a miner publishes its  
404 block, the higher probability it will win for this round’s competition, whenever a  
405 node received blocks signed by the other miners, it will have the tendency to verify  
406 it, accept it then continue to find new solutions. Now it has more chance to be the  
407 winner for the next round, but not the other way around; at the same time, the  
408 miner nodes have also the tendency to accept a new block preceded by a longer  
409 chain, because that means more computing power are invested on this fork, and  
410 miners have a higher probability to gain benefits from mining on this fork.

411 Through the incentive mechanism which allows the mining being a profitable  
412 thing, the PoW protocol guaranteed that the selection of forks by the miners is  
413 converge. As for the common users, in order to use the various services provided by  
414 the system, they will follow the majority of the miners to choose their main chain



415 in local. In this way, a global consensus of the network on the main chain can be  
416 achieved.

#### 417 *Strengths of PoW:*

418 • Since 2009 it has been widely tested, and still generally used nowadays, its  
419 reliability and security are well known.

#### 420 *Weaknesses of PoW:*

421 • The “Resolving hash puzzle” step is very consummable in term of computing  
422 resources and electricity, thus not environment friendly.

423 • The amount of real money invested can directly affect the nodes’ computing  
424 ability: the system decentralization and security mechanism are easy to be harmed  
425 in front of the “scale economy”.

### 426 III.b Proof-of-Stake(PoS)

#### 427 *Definition*

428 Proof-of-Stake is a variant of PoW[10]. Its idea is to replace the notion of “work(or,  
429 computing power)” by the notion of “interests(or assets, stakes)”. Stakes, or cryp-  
430 tocurrency tokens, are themselves a proof of scarce resources, a proof of work, thus  
431 it is not necessary to specifically invest hash computing power to make a “proof-of-  
432 work”.

433 On the other hand, this design allows us to skip the “hash puzzle resolving” step  
434 as in PoW, that means a significant drop in energy overhead.

#### 435 *Consensus process*

436 The process mechanism of PoS is basically the same as PoW, only differs at the  
437 method of block generation method:

438 The “resolving hash puzzle” step is canceled, instead of that, in order to update  
439 the ledger then gain the reward tokens, nodes need to firstly lock a portion of  
440 the assets held in their own accounts. These locked assets are called “stakes”. At  
441 each round, the system chooses randomly a stake holder, and attribute the right of  
442 signing the next block to it.

443 The weight of each stake holder is directly associated with their amount of stakes  
444 held, for example, if a node possesses 10% of equity(cryptocurrency) in the system,  
445 then the probability that it wins is 10%.

#### 446 *Strengths of PoS:*

- 447 • Attacking a PoS system is very harmful for the attackers, because they are  
448 themselves stake holders of the system.
- 449 • PoS is resistant to the “scale economy”: in PoW, for ten thousands miners  
450 that each pays one euro electricity fee per minute, they hold actually a pretty low  
451 computing power, although for one miner who pays ten thousands euros electricity  
452 fee per minute, it gets a very high computing power. While in PoS, we can guarantee  
453 that the interest brought by one euro is constant.

#### 454 *Weaknesses of PoS:*

- 455 • “Nothing-at-the-stake attack”: seeing the fact that mining is barely free for every  
456 participant in a PoS system, the rational users will have the tendency to generate  
457 blocks on as many as possible forks, in order to gain a maximal benefit. But this  
458 behavior can lead to a system inflation, then a serious depreciation of system assets.

### 459 III.c delayed-Proof-of-Work(dPoW)

#### 460 *Definition*

461 The idea of dPoW is – based on an existing blockchain which uses PoW or PoS  
462 protocol – constructing a new blockchain system[18]. Its mechanism relies on a  
463 serie of notarized nodes selected by prior voting. These nodes import the dPoW  
464 blockchain into an existent blockchain such as Bitcoin, making the consensus pro-  
465 tocol be benefited from the security of the existing powerful blockchain.

#### 466 *Consensus process*

467 Here we take the Komodo as example - the first cryptocurrency where the dPoW  
468 is implemented:

469 By select a group of nodes called “notaries” in the network of the original system,  
470 the new one transmits firstly all its pre-committed transactions to these notaries; the  
471 selected nodes submit those transactions to the safe and existing PoW blockchain,

472 then return the results of transactions processing back to the new system - here  
473 comes the notion “delay” in the title of this protocol.

#### 474 *Strengths of dPoW:*

- 475 • The dPoW system does not have any necessity on hash computing power, thus  
476 is it environment friendly.
- 477 • Even without the “hash puzzle resolving” step, the system could also have a  
478 good security guaranteed.
- 479 • dPoW could give additional value to other system, without need of directly  
480 offering cryptocurrencies, neither making any tradings among them

#### 481 *Weaknesses of dPoW:*

- 482 • The system must rely on a PoW/PoS system.
- 483 • With the existing of notaries, the original system must arrange different hash  
484 rates for common nodes and notaries nodes, otherwise, the relied system could not  
485 actually operate, or the original system’s security will be weakened.

### 486 III.d PoET(Proof-of-Elapsed-Time)

#### 487 *Definition*

488 The PoET protocol was introduced by Intel research team[14], it’s also a variant  
489 of PoW. Its idea is to replace the notion of “work(or computing power)” by the  
490 notion of “time cost”.

#### 491 *Consensus process*

492 The process of PoET is also basically the same to PoW, only differs at the block  
493 generation method: in PoET, in order to generate new blocks and get rewards, nodes  
494 need to firstly sleep for a randomly generate length of time. Once it’s awoken, it  
495 could send the awoken time to a pre-committed block for current round. Among all  
496 the nodes competing for a same block, the first of them to wake up wins.

#### 497 *Strengths of PoET:*

- 498 • The PoET system gives an equal chance of winning to a large number of network  
499 participants, low resource users are also worthy to join the competition.
- 500 • For all the participants, it’s very easy to verify that the block generator was  
501 delegated in a legal way.

- The cost that every node needs to pay for being delegated, is proportional to the benefit obtained from it.

#### *Weaknesses of PoET:*

- Hardware dependencies & Single point of failure: The PoET mechanism has 2 critical exigencies: the waiting(sleeping) time of each node is randomly choosed, and the winner participant has really accomplished the wating. This internal mechanism demands that this part of trusted codes need to be operated in a trusted environment, as for PoET, it relies on some specific Intel hardwares. It also could cause a single point of failure issue, whenever someone hack the Intel hardware, the corresponding node could generate as much blocks as it wants.

### III.e dPoS(delegated-Proof-of-Stake)

#### *Definition*

dPoS is a variant of the PoS protocol. With dPoS, it's still important for the nodes to hold an amount of equity within the system, but they no more need to partially block their assets as tokens, and they do not compete to gain a "stake holder" identity[17]: different from PoS, the nodes do not compete to win the right of block generation, their right is to elect leaders(called as "witness"). The witnesses form a committee, then take charge of the generation of blocks in a cooperative way. In dPoS, the system actually centralized the block generation step.

#### *Consensus process*

Here's a concrete process of dPoS protocol:

1. During each period of "ledger maintaining", nodes could vote for other nodes as "witnesses of current period". Most of the dPoS systems use "affirmative votes" mechanism, which means they could only vote in favor, thus the nodes who get the highest accumulated weight can be elected: the weight of votes of every node depends directly on their holding stakes, more specifically, it depends on the proportion of their holding stakes to the total stake of the system.
2. Once the election completed - some of the dPoS systems will also elect a list of alternative witnesses, who will replace some of the actual witnesses if they acted maliciously or if they couldnt't work normally - a committee of witnesses is actually established, the witnesses collect the pre-submitted transactions, then package

533 them into transaction blocks by a polling manner.

534 Without changing the solutions proposed in PoW of “why the nodes have the moti-  
 535 vation to maintain the ledger” and “the distribution of incentive tokens”, the dPoS  
 536 made innovations on the solutions of “the generation of new blocks” and “the se-  
 537 lection of blockchain forks”: the former is taken over by a delegated committee, the  
 538 latter’s answer is that every on duty witness signs and publishes deterministically  
 539 their block.

#### 540 *Strengths of dPoS:*

- 541 • High energy efficiency compare to PoW and PoS. The existing of the elected  
 542 committe reduces the complexity of messages and rounds needed to reach the con-  
 543 sensus, the skip of “hash puzzle” step saves also a lot of computing power.
- 544 • High performance. The reduced messages and rounds complexity also improve  
 545 the protocol performance.

#### 546 *Weaknesses of dPoS:*

- 547 • The centralization in “blocks generation” step make the system being possibly  
 548 controlled by a group of high equity nodes.
- 549 • As a supplement to the above point: in order to get the incentive tokens, high  
 550 stake holder nodes will always have a tendency to vote for themselves - and they  
 551 have high voting weight by themselves - which make the elect process also becoming  
 552 centralized.

### 553 III.f Algorand

#### 554 *Definition*

555 The algorand protocol was proposed by MIT’s research team in 2017[21]. It’s a  
 556 protocol based on PoS, PBFT[8] and elect mechanism, the research team focused  
 557 on the “random leader election problem”, or in other words, “the distribution of  
 558 the right of blocks generation”. For that purpose, the Algorand protocol mainly  
 559 answered to 3 questions: “how to build a randomness generator”, “how to guarantee  
 560 that elected leaders could prove themselves without revealing their identity(avoiding  
 561 leader-targeted attack)”, and finally, “how to deal with off-line nodes(appeared in  
 562 the election process)”.

### 563 *Consensus process*

564 The concrete process of Algorand consists of 2 basic phases:

- 565 1. Proposer election. The proposers have the right to generate blocks in the current
- 566 period. The election process is an imitation to PoS, the weight of being selected of
- 567 a node depends on its holding equity.
- 568 2. Using BA\*(Byzantine Agreement\*) algorithm to reach the consensus.

569 The Algorand protocol uses a cryptographic sortition algorithm, such that every

570 proposer learns in a secret situation that it was selected.

571 Each proposer firstly broadcasts the highest priority block that it considers, af-

572 terward broadcasts its known highest priority block, these 2 steps are achieving by

573 using PBFT process.

574 The consensus is firstly made among the proposers, thus would be inserted in local

575 for all other normal nodes.

### 576 *Strengths of Algorand:*

- 577 • It combines the using of PBFT algorithm and the idea of public blockchain:
- 578 the Algorand system is freely for nodes to join or leave, and benefits from the fault
- 579 tolerance feature of PBFT consensus protocol.

### 580 *Weaknesses of Algorand:*

- 581 • Despite its complex process, there is no direct results showing that Algorand
- 582 has a better performance than other election mechanism based protocol such as
- 583 dPoS.

## 584 III.g PoC(Proof-of-Space)

585 PoSpace, also called as PoC(Proof-of-capacity), is a variant of PoW protocol,

586 instead of hash computing power, the tokens that nodes need to invest into the

587 competition is a certain amount of memory or disk space[16].

588 The concrete process of PoC is very similar to the PoW, only using a different and

589 special hash function called MHF(Memory Hard Function): the function feature is,

590 its computing cost depends on the memory size that this function can call.

591 The “hash puzzle” step in PoC could prove that the node - which have found

592 a solution - saved or say “invested” enough memory space for the competition.

593 The verification step should stay efficient, one possible solution is by asking the  
594 competitors to generate Pebbling figures, and verifiers just simply needs to check  
595 several random spaces in the figure.

596 Advantages of PoC:

597 • It is more environment friendly compare to PoW, because the storage space is  
598 a more generic resource than the hash computing power, and occupy also lesser  
599 energy.

600 Defects of PoC:

601 • The capacity based competition could lead to an another centralization situation.  
602 • The fact that hard disk space become valuable could encourage hackers to develop  
603 malicious software, and attack people's hard disk.

### 604 III.h PoBurn

605 The PoBurn protocol is a variant of PoW[15], instead of investing on hash com-  
606 puting power, the miners need to send their cryptocurrencies(tokens) to a unre-  
607 trievable address and thus "burn" their tokens, in order to win the right of mining  
608 new blocks.

609 Basically the same as PoW, the only change that PoBurn has made in its con-  
610 sensus process is that the protocol will randomly generate some addresses which do  
611 not have a private key, thus the coins stored in there could not be spent, and the  
612 protocol also creates a book to track these coins.

613 Advantages of PoBurn:

614 • Users who tend to hold cryptocurrencies for long-term gains would have more  
615 chance to be benefited from a such system.

616 Defects of PoBurn:

617 • Still wasting resources insignificantly.  
618 • Nodes that don't care the waste of their coins would have more possibility to  
619 generate blocks, which means, the high resource nodes could still control the system  
620 service, just like in PoW now.

- The fact that “coins have been burnt” is not easy to be verified, this could either cause security issue, either lead to delay in transaction processing.

### III.i PoA(Proof-of-Authority)

PoA protocol runs based on a pre-determined committee of nodes called signers[20]; the signers take charge of blocks generation; signers could vote for invite new members; signers work in a polling manner, and each signer must wait for a fixed period to have the chance to generate a block again.

Here's the concrete process of PoA Protocol:

1. A list of initiate signers are determined in the genesis block.
2. The signers take charge of the blocks generation in a polling manner, which means, the “IN-TURN” signer could publish its block with a higher priority, and the other “OFF-TURN” could also propose their own block - but with an inferior priority - in order to deal with the situation that the “IN-TURN” one was offline.
3. The signers could potentially make a proposal of “invite new signer join in the list” or “exile an original signer” by broadcast it as a transaction.

Advantages of PoA:

- The consensus has high energy efficiency compare to PoW.
- The consensus has high performance.

Defects of PoA:

- The system is actually centralized, or more specifically, “multi-center”, thus more adoptable for a system where all the nodes identity are verified before joining.

### III.j PoHistory

PoH protocol aims on making transactions processing independent from the consensus process. This protocol is a variant based PoS algorithm[19].

With PoH, we form a “hash chain” by continuously running the hash function. This chain includes the number of times the function runs, the function state, the output value, and the block index. Each record on this hash chain is stored inside a transaction block, which is equivalent to, coding a trusted clock into the



649 blockchain—the research team’s assumption here is that the timestamps of trans-  
650 actions received by the system are not necessarily trusted.

651 The significance of PoH is that the nodes do not need to witness, neither to  
652 communicate with each other, every node can verify locally the time and sequence  
653 of event occurrences. Thus the PoH system does not demand to all the nodes to  
654 achieve a consensus, but only asks everyone to agree that event A occurred before  
655 event B.

656 The hash chain generated by PoH is a part of blockchain, as for the generation  
657 of blocks, the PoH protocol relies on PoS algorithm.

658 Advantages of PoH:

- 659 • High Performance, especially high throughput, because of reduction on message  
660 exchanging complexity.
- 661 • The consensus has high performance.

662 Defects of PoH:

- 663 • The PoH project in the real world is still in early days, lack of information.
- 664 • Experiments about the system’s reliability are not begun yet.

### 665 III.k BFT(Byzantine Fault Tolerance)

666 The BFT is the description of the reliability of a fault-tolerant computer system  
667 facing Byzantine failures: the Byzantine failure is a crash(or fail-stop) where the  
668 failure nodes could have any arbitrary behaviors. While happening Byzantine fail-  
669 ures, if the node behaviors include malicious responses and information forged, we  
670 call this situation as “Byzantine faults”, and these nodes as “Byzantine nodes”.

### 671 III.l PBFT (Practical Byzantine Fault Tolerance)

672 PBFT is a state machine replication algorithm[8]. The service is modeled as the  
673 state machines, the state is replicated in different nodes of the distributed system.  
674 PBFT is adopted for closed system and demands communications among every pair  
675 of 2 nodes.

676 The concrete consensus process of PBFT is:

- 677 1. The client send requests to primary nodes.
- 678 2. The primary nodes broadcast the received requests to backup nodes.
- 679 3. The backup nodes verify the primary identity.
- 680 4. The backup nodes commit the received transaction/request.
- 681 5. The backup nodes reply to the primary one.

682 Advantages of PBFT:

- 683 • High Performance: high throughput and high bandwidth.
- 684 • High Security: It has a relative security since all members joining the network are  
685 being validated. However, this situation could be considered as “insecure” for small  
686 users who don’t belong to any of those center organizations.

687 Defects of PBFT:

- 688 • Only adopted for closed and non-large scale system.
- 689 • The system is centralized, or at least “multi-center”.

### 690 III.m dBFT(delegated Byzantine Fault Tolerance)

691 With dBFT protocol, the global nodes select some agents nodes by voting; then  
692 those agents run the PBFT algorithm[8] between them to decisively complete the  
693 block generation mission. Voting in the network is real-time and asynchronous[11].

694 Advantages of dBFT:

- 695 • High Performance.
- 696 • High scalability for large scale system.

697 Defects of dBFT:

- 698 • The system is centralized, or at least “multi-center”.

### 699 III.n FBA(Federated Byzantine Agreement)

700 The main difference between FBA and PBFT is that, the nodes no more need to  
701 get consensus with other nodes on the entire network, but with “a certain quorum  
702 of nodes”, or with a “subnet representing a sufficient number of nodes”.

703 As for the concrete process, FBA works basically the same as PBFT, the only  
704 difference is that the system could have - at the same moment - a list of primary  
705 nodes, each primary node takes care of its own main chain, then in chronological order  
706 make consensus among them to get an agreement of the global view.

707 Advantages of FBA:

- 708 • Tremendous throughput.
- 709 • Low transaction processing delay.
- 710 • Good system scalability.

711 Defects of FBA:

- 712 • It relies on the trustworthiness of the subnetwork chosen by each node.

### 713 III.o Ripple consensus

714 Ripple protocol is a variant of FBA protocol. It's nowadays an opensource online  
715 payment protocol[13].

716 In Ripple's network, the transactions are initiated by the clients (applications).  
717 Then the transactions are broadcasted to the entire network via the tracking nodes  
718 or the validating node.

719 Ripple's consensus is achieved between the validating nodes. Each validating node  
720 is pre-configured with a list of trusted nodes called UNL (Unique Node List). The  
721 nodes on the list should vote on the transaction deal. Once the approved votes reach  
722 a threshold, the current validating node will send these deals to other validating  
723 nodes: this transmission will continue, until the transaction reaches the fourth time  
724 the threshold - which is, 80% of approved vote. Afterward this deal/transaction  
725 could be recorded in the ledger.

726 Advantages of Ripple:

- 727 • High performance, low transaction processing delay.
- 728 • High Security: It has a relative security since all members joining the network are  
729 being validated. However, this situation could be considered as "insecure" for small  
730 users who don't belong to any of those center organizations.

731 Defects of Ripple:

- 732 • The fault tolerance percentage is only 20% for Ripple system.

### 733 III.p Stellar consensus

734 The Stellar is also a variant of FBA protocol[12]. Unlike in Ripple, the Stellar  
 735 system does not pre-set trusted nodes, or in other words, there is no UNL for the  
 736 validating nodes[13]. In Stellar, the nodes themselves decide the subnet they trust.

737 Advantages of Stellar:

- 738 • High performance and good scalability.

739 Defects of Stellar:

- 740 • Configure a list of trustble nodes is costly for every user; and a bad configuration  
 741 could cause forks or other Byzantine faults.

## 742 IV Analysis

### 743 *Consensus algorithms comparison*

744 Various consensus algorithms have different strengths and drawbacks. Table I to  
 745 Table IV bring an assessment around various consensus algorithms, and we use the

properties considering following[24],[26],[27],[28],[29],[30].

Protocols/E- xample	Blockchain Type /Node Identity	Perfomance	Energy Efficiency
PoW/Ethereum	public (public blockchain protocols are also suitable for con- sortium and pri- vate blockchain sys- tems)/public	15tps(transactions per second)	no
PoS/Peercoin	public/public	97tps	partial - Hash com- puting(mining pro- cess) still exists
dPoW/Komodop	public/public	100tps, potential 45.000 tps	partial - Hash com- puting(mining pro- cess) still exists
dPoS/ Bitshares	public/public	100.000tps claimed, daily proven 3400tps	partial - Hash com- puting(mining pro- cess) still exists
Algorand / Algorand	public/public	>1000tps claimed	partial
PoC/Burstcoin	public/public	80tps	partial-using hard- ware memory instead of hash computing power, however the energy- consuming mining process still exists

Table I-1. Comparison of consensus protocols for blockchain type, performance and energy saving level.

1) Blockchain type and Node identity: it's useful to understand if a protocol could serve for a public system, or only for a closed system. Nowadays, the blockchain

752 systems generally include 3 concepts in terms of type division—  
753 a) the public chain, in which all member nodes can freely join and leave; in  
754 Ethereum, Bitcoin, Peercoin, Bitshares, their purpose for a decentralized network  
755 made them choosing public chain.  
756 b) the private chain, completely private, with strong third party providing node  
757 identity assurance and controlling node permissions distribution; these systems are  
758 often controlled by a single organization or company.  
759 c) the consortium chain, “partially guaranteed decentralization” – also called as  
760 “semi-private chain”. It is generally operated by specific organization groups that  
761 opens the inscription access to qualified users and ensures that the identity of the  
762 nodes is audited and documented. In practice, many financial and commercial in-  
763 stitutions are building their own ”circle of friends” based on block chain technology  
764 with consortium chain, especially like Lawtooth Lake Hyperledger, Hyperledger  
765 Fabric, etc.

Protocols/E- xample	Blockchain Type /Node Identity	Perfomance	Energy Efficiency
PoA/Vechain	consortium (consortium blockchain pro- tocols are also suitable for private blockchain)/permi- ssioned	10,000tps claimed, 500tps proven in history[25]	yes
PoET / Saw- tooth Lake	consortium/public	1300tps claimed	yes - timer certifi- cate instead of con- sumption of elec- tricity
PoHistory/ Solana	public/public	50.000tps claimed	yes
PoBurn/ Slimcoin	public/public	up to 1000tps claimed	partial - Hash com- puting(mining pro- cess) still exists
PBFT/Hyp- erledger	consortium/permi- ssioned	1000tps	yes - pbft process excluded hashing procedure. So do the following four pbft-like algorithms
dBFT/Neo	public/public	1000tps, potential 100.000 tps	yes
FBA/Bravo (BVO)	public/public	1500tps claimed	yes
Ripple/Ripple	consortium/public	1500tps	yes
Stellar/Stellar	public/public	1000tps	yes

Table I-2. Comparison of consensus protocols for blockchain type, performance and energy saving level.

770     2) Performance: Blockchain performance is generally measured by transactino  
771     processing delay and network throughput. These two factors could be indicated by  
772     “transactions (processed) by second”.

773     We could see that dpos and Ripple have most extraordinary performance. We  
774     could also notice that it’s hard to prove the maximum performance claimed by a  
775     lot of protocols.

776     3) Energy Saving: As for PoW and some of its variants such like PoBurn[15],  
777     PoHistory, the demand on hash computing power make the system environment  
778     unfriendly; as for PoS and its variants such like dPoS, dPoW, the competition of  
779     hash computing power is removed, but the mining process is stille kept[10],[17],[18];  
780     Regarding PBFT, FBA series protocols, there is no more concept of mining, the  
781     block generation phase is somehow centralized and thus saved power tremendously.



Protocols/E-sample	Adversary ance Ability	Toler- ance	Scalability(Openess and Expandability)	Decentralization
PoW/Ethereum	<25% power	computing	Open  Lack of expandability due to low performance	Relative centralization: decentralization gradually lost with pow
PoS/Peercoin	<51% stake		Open and Expandable	Relative centralization: first mover advantage with pos
dPoW/Komodo	<25% power	computing	Open  Lack of expandability due to dependence on pow protocols	Relative centralization: dependency on pow and pos protocols
dPoS/Bitshares	<51% validators		Open and Expandable	Relative centralization: voting results can be highly involved by top users
Algorand / Algorand	<33.3% voting power	byzantine	Open and Expandable	Decentralization guaranteed
PoC/Burstcoin	<25% power	computing	Open and Expandable	Decentralization guaranteed
PoA/Vechain	<51% validators		Open and Expandable	Relative centralization: authority validators mechanism is too centralized

Table II-1. Comparison of consensus protocols for attacker tolerance, scalability and decentralization level.

4) Adversary tolerance ability: Considering the recent research on “selfish mining strategy”, once the controlled hash computing power of one miner party exceed 25%, the PoW security guarantee ,thus influence dPoW[18]; the PoS security threshold is commonly known as 50%, same limitation for the variants of PoS; PBFT and FBA

series algorithms are manufactured to manage up to 33.34 defective nodes; as for  
Ripple, it has a more restrict reliability setting[13], which makes it only maintaining  
correctness when the proportion of faulty nodes in a unique node list are lower than  
20%.

Protocols/E-sample	Adversary ance Ability	Toler- ance	Scalability(Openess and Expandability)	Decentralization
PoET / Saw- tooth Lake	potential point failure highly dependent on Intel hardware enclave technolo- gies	single risk - dependent	Restricted open(dependency on Intel hardware with SGX) and Expandable	Decentralization guaranteed
PoHistory/So- lana	Unknown		Open and Unknown expand- ability	Unknown
PoBurn/ Slimcoin	<25% power	computing	Open and Lack of expandabil- ity due to mining process and “coins burning process”	Relative centraliza- tion
PBFT/Hyp- erledger Fabric	<33.3% faulty replicas	byzantine	Closed	Relative centraliza- tion
dBFT/Neo	<51% validators		Open and Expand- able	Decentralization guaranteed
FBA/Bravo (BVO)	Unknown		Open and Expand- able	Unknown
Ripple/Ripple	<20% UNL nodes	faulty	Closed but expand- able	Relative centraliza- tion: The company holds a large amount of money and controls many validation servers.
Stellar/Stellar	Unable to con- clude(because of the Quorum algo- rithm and “quom intersection prop- erty”)		Open and Expand- able	the top 100 ac- counts hold 95% of the total supply

794 *Table II-2. Comparison of consensus protocols for attacker tolerance, scalability and*  
795 *decentralization level.*

796 5) Scalability: This factor involves two factors: the openness, whether nodes could  
797 freely join and leave the system; and the expandability, when tens of thousands,  
798 hundreds of thousands of users are online, whether the system could support with  
799 its performance.

800 Consortium chains are generally closed system; however, PoET(Sawtooth Lake)  
801 and Ripple are expandable because of its nice performance, where Fabric and Ripple  
802 is not. PBFT is not scalable with large scale network.

803 6) Decentralization: PoW will gradually losing its decentralization because of  
804 the fact that hash computing power could easily be centralized, so do dPoW, PoB,  
805 etc. As for PoS, “The poorer the poor, the richer the rich” is predictable, because  
806 the protocol supports “First Mover advantage”, so does dPoS. Consortium chains  
807 generally operate under a “multi-center mechanism”: they are also relatively cen-  
808 tralized.

Protocols/E- xample	Consensus process	Block generation method	Reward token dis- tribution method
PoW/Ethe- reum	probabilistic( nume- rous forks could exist at the same time within the network)	Competitive - a. All nodes have the right to gener- ate blocks b. Nodes compete to win the insertion on the blockchain	Coins - Emitted in proportion to amount of network activity
PoS/Peercoin	probabilistic	Competitive	Coins - Emitted in proportion to amount of network activity
dPoW/Komo- do	probabilistic	Competitive	Coins - Emitted in proportion to amount of network activity
dPoS/ Bitshares	deterministic(Only one or a very few forks could exist at the same time within the network)	Cooperative - a. Only a selected nodes have blocks generation right b. Selected nodes principally take turns in blocks generation	Coins - Emitted in proportion to amount of network activity
Algorand / Algorand	deterministic	Cooperative	No new tokens cre- ated
PoC/Burst- coin	probabilistic	Open and Expand- able	No new tokens cre- ated
PoA/Vechain	deterministic	Cooperative	No new tokens cre- ated

810 *Table III-1. Comparison of consensus process, block generation method and reward*  
 811 *token distribution method.*

812 7) Consensus process: This column describes in which way corresponding pro-  
 813 tocol reaches the global consensus view. With deterministic process, normal nodes  
 814 almost don't need to update local chain because of fork problem. As for probabilis-  
 815 tic process, forking occurs quite frequently. Naturally, deterministic process could  
 816 save a lot of communication messages and communications rounds.

817 However, to make a reliable deterministic consensus protocol, the messages for  
 818 communicating before the block generation are often heavy. So there's this trade-off.

819 8) Block generation type: The way of block generation is one of the most funda-  
 820 mental difference about how different protocols reach consensus. As for competitive  
 821 consensus: a decentralized competition exists for the generation of block of every  
 822 round, it protects the fairness for all the system users(nodes), but also costly in  
 823 terms of time and energy; a cooperative consensus generally centralizes the block  
 824 generation phase, in order to have a better performance and energy efficiency.

Protocols/E-sample	Consensus process	Block generation method	Reward token distribution method
PoET / Sawtooth Lake	probabilistic	Competitive	No new tokens created
PoHistory / Solana	probabilistic	Competitive	Unknown
PoBurn / Slimcoin	probabilistic	Competitive	Unknown
PBFT/Hyperledger Fabric	deterministic	Cooperative	No new tokens created
dBFT/Neo	deterministic	Cooperative	No new tokens created
FBA/Bravo (BVO)	probabilistic	Cooperative	No new tokens created
Ripple/Ripple	probabilistic	Cooperative	No new tokens created
Stellar/Stellar	probabilistic	Cooperative	No new tokens created

Table III-2. Comparison of consensus process, block generation method and reward token distribution method.

9) Reward token distribution method: there are two series of protocols in general: in pow-like protocols such as pos, dpos, we distribute incentive tokens(such as cryptocurrencies) to block generator nodes[10],[17]. This method serves mostly for public systems.

In PBFT-like protocols such as Algorand[21], Ripple[13], dBFT, we do not give incentive tokens to encourage block generators, but to network managers. Which means, by cancelling block reward, these protocols keep the transactions fees as the reward of collecting and validating transactions. This method serves mostly for consortium blockchains, as for these systems, in most of the time only a selected

nodes have the right to generate block. But these super nodes are still worthy being rewarded because of maintain the network.

Protocols/E- xample	Algorithm within (incentive)	used consensus protocol	Language	Github release ver- sion & last commit
PoW/Ethereum	Ethash		Golang, C++, Solidity, Serpent, LLL	v1.9.3 (2019-09-03); 2019-09-03
PoS/Peercoin	SHA-256		Michaleson	v0.8.3ppc (2019-08-27); 2019-07-30
dPoW / Ko- modo	Equihash		C++, Golang, Python	2019-8-30
dPoS/ Bitshares	DPoS		Python, C++	BitShares Core 3.3.0; 2019-09-02
Algorand / Algorand	Algorand(VRF & BA*)		Golang, Java, Python, Javascript	Unknown
PoC / Burst- coin	Shabal256		Golang, C++, Solidity, Serpent, LLL	Burstcoin Reference Software 2.4.2; 2019-09-04
PoA/Vechain	SHA-256		Golang, Java	v1.1.4; 2019-09-04

Table IV-1. Comparison of mathematical algorithms, coding language and last version&commit.

10)Algorithm used within consensus protocol: these are the encryption algorithms, or some more complicated and original algorithms, operating within the protocol on mathematical layer.

11)Language: The coding language for these fourteen representative projects. We could notice that C++, Python and Golang are the most usefule and also most used languages to developing blockchain projects.

12)Github release version & last commit: This columns records the version of the data of each project that we've listed here.



Protocols/E- xample	Algorithm within (incentive) protocol	used consensus protocol	Language	Github release ver- sion & last commit
PoET / Saw- tooth Lake	cannot summarize		Python	v1.2.2; 2019-9-04
PoHistory / Solana	Unknown		Rust, C++	Mavericks v0.18.0; 2019-9-04
PoBurn/ Slimcoin	Dcrypt		Python, C++, Shell	Slimcoin 0.6; 2019- 5-26
PBFT/Hyp- erledger	cannot summarize		Golang, Java	v1.4.3; 2019-08-30
dBFT/Neo	SHA-256		C#	v2.10.3; 2019-9-02
FBA/Bravo (BVO)	Unknown		Javascript, C++	Bravo 0.23.0 Re- lease; 2019-5-28
Ripple/Ripple	Opencoin		Java, Go, C++	rippled Version 1.3.1; 2019-8-23
Stellar/Stellar	Opencoin		Java, Go, C++	v11.4.0; 2019-9-04

Table IV-2. Comparison of mathematical algorithms, coding language and last version&commit.

## V Proof-of-Reputation

### V.1 Design Overview

The PoR is a new concept about consensus protocol in p2p network environment for blockchain system. Its core idea is to introduce the notion of reputation of each node - which represents their individual trustworthiness within the system - into the consensus process. By considering the reputation as an overall state of node after multiple transactions, the system will assign a different weight to every node in consensus process depending on their own “reputation value”.

The weight represents the capacity that nodes could influence the consensus decision making process, especially 1) the leader election process. At each round, we determine the nodes that have right to update the ledger by generating new blocks;

864 2) the block acceptance phase. At each round, nodes need to get synchronization  
865 about their choice on local main chain if they have multiple forks as choices.

## 866 V.2 Principles

867 A consensus protocol generally deals with 3 problems: 1) the block acceptance,  
868 namely the fork selection problem; 2) the block generation, namely a random leader  
869 election problem; 3) the problem of the issue and distribution of incentive tokens.  
870 Facing these issues, the PoR brings improvements based on existing consensus pro-  
871 tocols such as PoW, PoS, PBFT, dBFT, etc.

### 872 *Fork selection*

873 While nodes received multiple new blocks propagated from block generator nodes,  
874 they need to choose one of them to add to the end of their ledger in local, or even  
875 modify some previous blocks. This is what we call the “fork selection” problem.

876 As the latest consensus protocol, the PoR could treat this problem with two  
877 different design models: the first, is to imitate PoW-like protocols, that nodes accept  
878 the longest chain(or the “most weighted” chain) and every block generator could  
879 propagate their prepared block of current round. In the global view, the convergence  
880 of fork selection of all nodes is probabilistic; the second way is, all nodes know that  
881 there is one and only one block generated and propagated for current round, so  
882 that the convergence of fork selection is deterministic: no more forking problem if  
883 all nodes act honestly.

884 The influence of the choice among these two methods on system security and  
885 performance depends on the concrete implementation, in the existing PoR projects,  
886 both options have been selected.

### 887 *Block generation*

888 Within a blockchain system, we update the ledger through generate new data  
889 blocks, so it’s critical that all nodes should have agreement about the identity of  
890 block generator nodes for each round.

891 The Proof-of-Reputation protocols could also treat this problem with two differ-  
892 ent design models: the first, is to imitate PoW-like and PoS-like protocols, that every

node could compete for the right of generate current round's block by investing a certain scarce token(such as hash computing power for PoW, cryptocurrency shares in PoS), the block generation is competitive seen that the generation and propagation is a competition under this mechanism; the second way is that the system builds a committee among all nodes for each round's block generation, the member nodes of the committee takes charge of block generation in a polling manner generally. The block generation is then cooperative seen that we centralize the block generation right to a limited group of qualified nodes, the generation and propagation of new blocks don't process in the form of a competition, but the members of the committee take turns in charge of cooperation.

The influence of the choice among these two methods on system security and performance depends on the concrete implementation, in the existing PoR projects, both options have been selected.

#### *Incentive tokens' issue and distribution*

The incentive schemes is a strategy largely accepted by existing consensus protocols, of which the purpose is to make the nodes' self-interested behavior consistent with the maintenance of the system. All rational nodes would act honestly and legitimately while participating to the update and the maintenance of the ledger, because they could get reward for it from the system.

With PoR, a common choice as reward token is nodes' reputation value. And, like in almost all other kinds of protocols, the issue and distribution of reward tokens of PoR are through new block generation("block reward") and new transaction completion("transaction fee").

### V.3 Advantages Analysis

As mentioned above, while operating a consensus protocol, it's necessary that the participant nodes could prove for themselves that they will obey the protocol rules, be reliable(no malicious acts).

A common practice for consensus protocols is that, the participant nodes need to invest in some certain scarce resources as a "security deposit": in PoW, we take the hash computing power invested as the "deposit", in PoS, the stakes held by the

923 nodes become an alternative solution. While in PoR, we talk about the reputation  
924 of a node.

925 This design model can bring advantages to a blockchain system on numerous as-  
926 pects: the performance, the energy efficiency, the decentralization level, the fairness  
927 and the security.

### 928 *Energy Efficiency*

929 Since the “security deposit” used in PoR is - instead of the hash computing power  
930 - the nodes reputation, PoR could save a lot of electricity power and comput-  
931 ers computing power compare to the PoW-like protocols(PoW in Bitcoin, PoW in  
932 Ethereum, dPoW, etc), thus the PoR is more environment-friendly.

### 933 *Performance*

934 The PoR protocol can improve the efficiency of consensus achievement in 2 ways:

935 Firstly, using the hash computing power as “security deposit” is not only costly  
936 in terms of energy consumption, but also in terms of time overhead. PoR brings im-  
937 provements on the system performance by skipping the “hash puzzle resolving” step  
938 just like in PoS(using stakes as tokens for security deposits[10]), or in PoBurn(using  
939 “burned” cryptocurrency as tokens for deposits), etc.

940 Secondly, the nodes reputations are quantified and could be consulted within  
941 the system - which is not the case in Pow, the system couldn’t offer any informa-  
942 tion about the hash computing power held by any nodes. This advantage allows  
943 the “temporal centralization during block generation phase” being realizable, which  
944 means during the step of generation of subsequent blocks, the system can - based on  
945 the ranking of nodes reputation - to distribute at each time the participation rights  
946 to a limited number of nodes. This brings advantages in terms of the complexity of  
947 number of messages transmitted, and the complexity of number of rounds needed  
948 to achieve consensus during block generation step, just like in dPoS(using the rank-  
949 ing of stakes to form the temporal centralized committee) and in dBFT(using the  
950 ranking of votes from all the nodes[11]).

951 *Fairness*

952 In the case when we define the reputation as an non-consumable and non-  
953 transportable attribute, the Proof-of-reputation could offer a better environment  
954 in terms of fairness:

955 Node's reputation should only be accumulated through every completed trans-  
956 actions of it, thus its reputation takes time to augment, it makes reputation being  
957 equivalent to the time and activity that nodes have contributed or invested into the  
958 system; time and activities are the fairest investment, because users with high or  
959 low resources(in terms of assets, etc) in the real world are all equivalent in term of  
960 their input capacity on time and activities. There could a difference in the size of  
961 the business for high and low resource nodes, although as long as the influence of the  
962 size of the transaction is controlled about the change in reputation value by protocol  
963 design, the fairness of the reputation model for all nodes can be guaranteed.

964 Reputation is non-consumable, non-transportable, individual for each node, only  
965 could be accumulated through node's invested time and completed transactions,  
966 these facts make the reputation not only an attribute bound to the node itself,  
967 but also a resource that can not be obtained by or converted from any type of  
968 out-of-system resources. Rich nodes aren't able to get reputation easier than the  
969 poor ones, and node groups controlling reputation resources are difficult to formed  
970 because they cannot share their own reputation with other one, neither provide  
971 (other) resources to help allies gain reputation.

972 It can be seen that the design of PoR not only guarantees the fairness of the  
973 reputation model, but also ensures sufficient robust decentralization of the system  
974 based on this "fairness" feature.

975 *Security*

976 Reputation is non-consumable, so that we don't have double-spending issue with  
977 PoR; reputation needs time to be accumulated, so that naturely PoR is resistant to  
978 Sybil attack.

979 As for service denied attack and system taken over(by attackers) risk, it depends  
980 on the concrete implementation of PoR in considered projects.

## 981 V.4 General Prototype

982 A blockchain system which applies a PoR protocol would typically contain two  
983 parts:

984 A reputation system, which defines how the “reputation value” of each node  
985 should be quantified - depening on which factors the reputation is calculated, fol-  
986 lowing which kind of formulations, and how it would change along with nodes  
987 interaction and/or system operation.

988 A blockchain based consensus protocol that - through all nodes’ reputation value  
989 - make them having agreement about block generator nodes’ identity and about the  
990 latest blockchain status, thus having agreement on records and data verification  
991 for the ledger.

992 Based on this design, we could fromalize the problem of designing a prototype  
993 of a PoR consensus protocol for public or controlled blockchain system as follows.  
994 Assume  $N_{max}$  the size of maximal possible joiners for the network,  $N$  the current  
995 number of users - registered or not, depending on whether the blockchain is con-  
996 trolled. An individual participant could be represented by  $n_i$ ,  $i \in N$ , where  $n$  means  
997 “node”. Each node stores all other peers’ public key in local, it’s allows every node  
998 to complete data verification tasks(for transactions and for blocks). Transactions  
999 proposed from  $n_i$  to  $n_j$  is denoted as  $\text{Sig}(x_i^j)$ : where  $x_i^j \in \mathbb{R}$  - a real number repre-  
1000 senting considered transaction’s index - signed by  $n_i$ ’s private key.

## 1001 VI State of the Art of the Proof-of-Reputation

1002 As mentioned in the last sectino, the PoR is a new concept of consensus protocol.  
1003 Its idea is to introduce the reputation—or the trustworthiness of a node in the  
1004 network—as the weight that this node influences the consensus. However, how to  
1005 calculate reputation, how to make the reputation of the node affect the consensus  
1006 process - block generation, chain fork selection, choice on incentive mode, and so  
1007 on, different researcher groups have proposed different designs and/or methods. In  
1008 this section, we will highlight 4 different designs of existing PoR based projects.

## 1009 VI.1 PoR p2p

### 1010 *Background*

1011 The first model is from “Proof of Reputation: A Reputation-Based Consensus  
1012 Protocol for Peer-to-Peer Network”, published in 2018 by National University of  
1013 Defense Technology in China.

### 1014 *Design Overview*

1015 The consensus protocol in this paper is designed for the permissioned blockchain:  
1016 before joining the network, the identity of the node needs to be verified and recorded  
1017 by the system.

### 1018 *Design for consensus layer*

1019 The block generation and the fork selection are decisive in this system: nodes can  
1020 collect transactions broadcast on the Internet into their own pool of pre-committed  
1021 transactions. When the number of transactions in the pool exceeds the threshold,  
1022 they can be assembled into one transaction block. However, the node can sign and  
1023 publish this block only if it has the highest reputation value among the nodes  
1024 involved by the transactions within this block.

### 1025 *Design for reputation model*

1026 In the reputation model designed by the research team, the reputation of the node  
1027 cannot be costed and transferred, and it can accumulate as the node participates in  
1028 the network transactions (there may be negative growth). The numerical value of  
1029 reputation is mainly used as an incentive for nodes to maintain and update system  
1030 ledgers.

1031 The change in reputation is mainly due to the system rewards obtained by par-  
1032 ticipating in the ledger update, as well as the rating scores obtained from other  
1033 nodes in ordinary transactions. In order to exclude the influence of human sub-  
1034 jective evaluation, the rating score only includes two cases: positive evaluation or  
1035 negative evaluation. In this case, only 1 bit needs to be used to store the scores that  
1036 affects node’s reputation value. The research team calls it the “single-bit reputation  
1037 system”.

## 1038 VI.2 Aigents

### 1039 *Background*

1040 The second model is from “A Reputation System for Artificial Societies”, pub-  
1041 lished in 2018 by Aigents Group in Russia and SingularityNET Foundation in  
1042 Netherlands.

### 1043 *Design Overview*

1044 The Aigents team wants to - through a reputation value model - introduce the  
1045 concept of ”liquid democracy” into their blockchain network: when a node gets  
1046 good reviews from other nodes, it’s equivalent to the latter giving the former the  
1047 positive impact of their own reputation. Therefore the former gains a higherweight  
1048 in the process of cosensus(and other potential operations). This is like a democratic  
1049 voting process that, in some systems, voters may not vote directly, but delegate  
1050 their voting rights to other delegates, while retaining the right to withdraw their  
1051 authorization.

### 1052 *Design for consensus layer*

1053 The PoR designed by the research team is a variant of PoW. The nodes still com-  
1054 pete with each other to win the opportunity to participate in the ledger maintenance  
1055 and accept the token rewards, the only difference is that tokens placed in the com-  
1056 petition are the reputation value of the node, the rewards are also the reputation  
1057 value.

1058 The research team tried to adopt their protocol for the general public systems, es-  
1059 pecially social networks. For this reason, the storage and confirmation of reputation  
1060 status is very important. They proposed a gossip agreement to solve this problem:  
1061 during the operation of the system, set a special reputation calculation cycle. All  
1062 nodes broadcast the reputation data status of themselves and their own connected  
1063 nodes in the network; for the reputation value of a certain node  $i$ , if node  $j$  receives  
1064 enough consecutive and consistent data states, it regards it as valid. If an inconsis-  
1065 tency (controversy) occurs, node  $j$  needs to warn the system’s monitoring service  
1066 and declare the source of the dispute, and validate the most important consecutive  
1067 status.



### 1068 *Design for reputation model*

1069 The Aigents team considered five factors and four roles to construct a node's  
1070 puretation. These roles are: a. "follower". When node i follow node j, it means that  
1071 ratings from j to its connected nodes directly affect rating from i to the same  
1072 nodes; b. "peer". Two nodes lacking the ability to influence each other's reputation  
1073 and given ratings. c. "Opinion ledaers". Nodes that are followed by a large num-  
1074 ber of nodes. Their ratings affect greatly the reputation of nodes being evaluated.  
1075 d. 'connector'. Nodes that can connect two peer groups that are not connected.

1076 The mentioned roles play an important role in five factors, these factors are:  
1077 a. The direct rating from node i to node j. This will affect the reputation value data  
1078 of j in front of followers of i and i.  
1079 b. The indirect rating from node i to node j. This rating could be viewed publicly. For  
1080 example, after the node generates a block, involved transactions participants could  
1081 give a rating to this block; or the node leaves work like articles on the blockchain,  
1082 nodes could evaluate its work. These ratings affect the reputation value of node j  
1083 in public.  
1084 c. Implicit indirect evaluations. For example, in social networks such as forums,  
1085 nodes' post could receive comments. These comments are not direct ratings, but  
1086 also contain positive or negative emotions.  
1087 d. Implicit direct evaluation. For example, in social networks, node i quotes and/or  
1088 excerpts from the comments or articles of node j.  
1089 e. The financial status of the node itself. Holding stakes, conducting transaction  
1090 activities can be regarded as a positive evaluation, while canceling transactions or  
1091 returning goods can cause a decline in reputation.

## 1092 VI.3 Gochain

### 1093 *Background*

1094 This model is a PoR protocol proposed by its business team in 2018. The Gochain  
1095 blockchain project is developed based on Ethereum platform, dapps and smart con-  
1096 tracts running on Ethreum could be transformed on GoChain without any obstacles.

1097 The Gochain team aims on 1300tps; as for energy saving, their goal is to save 100  
1098 times more energy than Bitcoin or Ethereum. Maintaining decentralized features  
1099 and enabling more flexible intelligent contracts are also part of their work plans.

#### 1100 *Design Overview*

1101 This protocol is based on the Clique algorithm which belongs to the serie of Proof  
1102 of Authority(PoA) algorithms[20], created by the Ethereum community. Its mode  
1103 of operation is that among all nodes within the network, only a selected set called  
1104 authoritative nodes(or super nodes) could play the role of “miners”, they have the  
1105 right to sign and publish - in a polling manner - the transaction blocks.

#### 1106 *Design for consensus layer*

1107 Firstly, the Gochain team noted the fact that corporate reputation and orga-  
1108 nizational resources far exceed personal credit and personal resources, thus they  
1109 decided they not to allow individual users to become authoritative nodes: only 50  
1110 listed companies with sufficient reputation and assets can enter the initial system’s  
1111 authoritative nodes committee. Besides, unlike the blockchain that uses the Clique  
1112 algorithm which is currently a side chain of Ethereum, the Gochain team has built  
1113 its own blockchain system and network.

1114 In Gochain’s PoR protocol, the authoritative nodes are responsible for the as-  
1115 sembly and signing of subsequent blocks in a polling manner, so there is a concept  
1116 of “node on duty”: block published by the “on duty node” enjoys a higher weight,  
1117 thus reducing the risk of chain fork.

1118 The concept of “rounds” is preserved. Which means, any miner nodes can only  
1119 propose one block in the same round, and then they need to wait for an enough  
1120 long interval to propose an another block in a certain subsequent round, this design  
1121 could curb the ability of the malicious miner node to use the authority to destroy  
1122 the system service.

#### 1123 *Design for reputation model*

1124 The renewal of the authoritative node relies on the binary voting from the mem-  
1125 bership of the committee. When a miner receives enough negative votes, it will  
1126 be removed from the committee; when there is a vacancy in the committee seat,

1127 and a normal node receives enough affirmative votes, it can enter the committee.  
1128 The agreement proposes the concept of “epoch” as a cycle of updating the list of  
1129 committee members.

1130 Since the concept of reputation is only once used to determine the initial authoritative nodes list, in Gochain protocol, we didn’t implement any mathematical models  
1131 for reputation values.  
1132

## 1133 VI.4 Bitconch

### 1134 *Background*

1135 This model was proposed by a business project “Bitconch”, on October 3, 2018,  
1136 the research team of Bitconch released their newest test results, showing that with  
1137 their public and distributed blockchain network configured in 5 different countries,  
1138 they have achieved a peak speed up to 120,000 TPS, which is one of the fastest  
1139 blockchain under the same operating conditions at present.

### 1140 *Design Overview*

1141 The design of this model consists of 2 parts: a Proof-of-reputation consensus  
1142 protocol and a corresponding reputation system called “Bit-R”. Their PoR protocol  
1143 is a combination of a “dPoS-like or dBFT-like leader election mechanism” and  
1144 “classical PBFT algorithm”. It’s the basic protocol of Bitconch’s blockchain system;  
1145 as for the Bit-R system, it uses the quantified results of users’ trustworthiness,  
1146 activity and contribution, to build the portraits of users’ individual behavior, thus  
1147 provide a reference to the weight of each user for the election phase of their protocol.

### 1148 *Design for consensus layer*

1149 • Here’s a concrete description about how Bitconch’s PoR protocol works:

1150 a. The nodes that have the the 5% highest reputation value form a candidates  
1151 pool, each node among them is possible to be chosen to become the leader node.  
1152 The membership of this pool updates quartly.

1153 The size of the candidates pool varies from 50 to 300, depending on the scale  
1154 of the Bitconch blockchain network.

1155 b. With a priorly determined random number generation algorithm and the  
1156 candidates pool, the system conducts the election phase by selecting 1 node to

1157 become the leader, then (M-1) other candidates - at the same time - to become  
1158 voter nodes.

1159 M is a natural number, the election of the M nodes - the leader and the voters -  
1160 is re-executed for each round within the system.

1161 c. The leader node and the voter nodes make consensus through the PBFT  
1162 algorithm: the leader takes charge of the broadcast of the uncommitted transactions;  
1163 the voters validate these transactions(or the opposite) - in Bitconch system we  
1164 describe this step as a voting action; then the leader synchronizes the voting results  
1165 and the round number with all the nodes in the network.

1166 If more than  $2/3 * m$  nodes returned their voting choice(namely, committed their  
1167 validation), this round is considered as succeed, the leader and the voters gain  
1168 benefits in terms of their contribution in Bit-R system.

1169 During a successful round, a transaction that received enough certification votes  
1170 is validated(confirmed). It will be added into the ledger while the leader synchro-  
1171 nizing all the nodes. The nodes involved by a confirmed transaction gain benefits  
1172 in terms of their activity in Bit-R system.

### 1173 *Design for reputation model*

1174 • Here is the description of reputation model within the Bitconch system:

1175 a. Activity:  $D(E,t) = \sum_{i=1}^k E_i^{\log(D_r)}$

1176  $E_i$  represents the asset weight of a transaction i,  $D_r$  represents the reputation  
1177 weight of the other party of transaction i.

1178 Thus the “activity” parameter of an user could be quantified by the transactions  
1179 that he/she has participated, and the nodes that he/has has interacted with. The  
1180 logarithm function is used here to avoid potential Sybil attacks - nodes with low  
1181 reputation weight are hard to influence other one’s activity.

1182 b. Coin age:  $T(s,t) = \beta + \alpha \log(S_t)$

1183  $S_t$  represents the length of time that current user keeps the Bitconch system  
1184 tokens. The Bitconch system take the users who hold system rights for long-term  
1185 are more trustworthy.

1186 The logarithm function is used here to limit the potential Matthew effect(first-  
1187 mover advantages).

1188 c. Contribution:  $C(N,t) = \sum N_{file} + \log N_{Rnd}$

1189 The “contribution” parameter reflects the frequency that nodes contribute to  
1190 the normal operation of the system, especially including files sharing( $\sum N_{file}$ )  
1191 and ledger updates( $\log N_{Rnd}$ )

1192 d. Summary: Based on 3 above parameters, the Bit-R is able to describe the  
1193 integrity of each user, thus able to give nodes’ integrity as a proof, to allow them  
1194 to participate to the consensus, to contribute their network resources, and to gain  
1195 rewards token.

## 1196 VI.5 Repucoin

### 1197 *Background*

1198 Repucoin was proposed in February 2019 by a research team from the University  
1199 of Luxembourg. The proudest design objective reached by Repucoin is the resistancy  
1200 to 51% computing power attack. Repucoin system calculates voting rights based on  
1201 miners’ reputation. By builing a model of reputation with stringent mathematcial  
1202 literacy, the system requires miners to accumulate long-term, continuous and honest  
1203 mining operations.

1204 A Repucoin blockchain can support more than ten thousands tps, even much  
1205 higher than Visa which could support around 1700 tps.

### 1206 *Design Overview*

1207 Repucoin blockchain system is deterministic: generally, only one node has the  
1208 right to package and sign the next block at each round.

1209 The generation of blocks is cooperative: not everyone but only a selected set of  
1210 nodes could be randomly elected to become block generator. This group takes also  
1211 the validation of new blocks in charge.

1212 The selected group of nodes is called as the “cosensus group”, it is constituted by  
1213 nodes who have the highest reputation scores. A ramdonly chosen leader is elected  
1214 from the membership at each “epoch” and this leader takes charge of the production  
1215 of blocks of the whole current “epoch”. Epoch is a period of time determined by a  
1216 chunk of blocks on blockchain.

1217 Blocks in Repucoin system are divided into two types: keyblocks and microblocks.  
 1218 Miners use PoW protocol rules to compete to become the leader(block generator)  
 1219 for next epoch, by resolving Repucoin's original hash puzzle. Microblocks are signed  
 1220 and proposed by the current leader to record the transactions into the blockchain.

#### 1221 *Design for consensus layer*

1222 The consensus process in Repucoin system could be divided into two parts: a pe-  
 1223 riodical election based on PoW mechanism, then a regular blocks validation process  
 1224 based on PBFT mechanism.

1225 During the election phase - which is also the beginning of each epoch - a consensus  
 1226 group having X members is firstly updated. The size of X is determined by meeting  
 1227 a target percentage in global decision power, and the decision power is directly and  
 1228 only based on nodes' cumulative reputation scores.

#### 1229 *Design for reputation model*

1230 The reputation scores calculation model is designed as a sigmoid function: for  
 1231 beginners and high scores holders, the changing on their scores is slow or even  
 1232 towards stagnation. As for mature participants, users who joined the system for  
 1233 a while and honestly acted so long, they have the opportunity to enjoy potential  
 1234 high-speed returns.

1235 As the calculate method is a sigmoid function, system designers could control  
 1236 the slope and also inflection point of function by two parameters that can be pre-  
 1237 determined. Here's the simplified equation for reputaion score R:

$$1238 \quad R = \min(1, H * (Ext + \frac{1}{2} * (1 + \frac{y1 * y2 * L - a}{\lambda + |y1 * y2 * L - a|}))) \quad (1)$$

1239 where  $\lambda$  and  $a$  are two parameters pre-defined by the designers to adjust the slope  
 1240 and the inflection point.

1241 H is a boolean value, which is set to 1 for every newly joined user, and could be  
 1242 reset to 0 once if a node has misbehaved(especially as a miner).

1243 Ext is a reputation judgement from external resource.

1244 The meaning of  $y1$  and  $y2$  are slightly more complicated:  $y1$  is calculated by the  
 1245 percentage

1246

## 1247 **VII Conclusion**

1248     Blockchains, with their core characteristics of decentralization, anonymity,  
 1249     tamper-resistancy, forge-resistancy and auditability, have shown their potential to  
 1250     transform the traditional business.

1251     In this article, we provide a complete overview of blockchain models and  
 1252     blockchain basic rules(consensus protocols). We first outline blockchain technology,  
 1253     giving a general model of the system itself. Then we discuss the standard consen-  
 1254     sus protocols used in blockchains. We analyzed and compared these protocols from  
 1255     different perspectives.

1256     In addition, we highlight the concept of proof-of-reputation, explaining its po-  
 1257     tential advantages to the existing ones by listing the potential solution to some  
 1258     challenges and problems by implementing PoR, and summarize some of the exist-  
 1259     ing por blockchain projects for indicate their features and for show how the real  
 1260     PoR protocols look like. At present, the applications based on blockchain are rising,  
 1261     and we plan to do further researches and works on original PoR based blockchain  
 1262     system in the future.

## 1263 **Appendix**

### 1264 **List of abbreviations**

1265     The following table describes the significance of various abbreviations and  
 1266     acronyms used throughout the thesis. The page on which each one is defined or  
 1267     first used is also given. Nonstandard acronyms that are used in some places to  
 1268     abbreviate the names of certain white matter structures are not in this list.

Abbreviation	Meaning	Page
PoW	Proof of Work	9
PoS	Proof of Stake	2
dPoS	delegated Proof of Stake	9
dPoW	delayed Proof of Work	14
PoET	Proof of Elapsed Time	15
PoC	Proof of Capacity	18
PoB	Proof of Burn	18
PBFT	Practical Byzantine Fault Tolerance	2
dBFT	delegated	9
FBA	Federated Byzantine Agreement	9

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