

# A Study of Blockchain Consensus Mechanisms with Emphasis on Proof-of-Reputation

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## Abstract

- The emergence of blockchain technology enables people to build a distributed, decentralized and tamper-proof account book through a trust free P2P network. This technology has broad application prospects in the fields of digital assets, remittances, online payment and other financial services. Systems based on blockchain technologies combined the application of P2P network, public key cryptography, hash pointer and cryptographic hash function to ensure the decentralization, persistence, tamper resistance, forgery resistance and auditability of the system.
- Users, as distrustful parties, can agree on the existence, value and transaction history of each other's accounts by maintaining consistency on the global blockchain network. This feature of blockchain network makes it possible to greatly save transaction costs, especially financial transaction costs, and improve transaction processing efficiency. It also allows financial services without the support of any banks or intermediaries.
- In the area of blockchains, consensus algorithms are the key elements in each blockchain P2P network, because they are responsible for maintaining the integrity and security of these distributed systems and ensuring that the system can operate on a trust-free basis. Consensus algorithms can be defined as a mechanism to achieve agreement in blockchain networks. Blockchain systems have decentralized attributes and are constructed as distributed systems. Since they do not rely on a central authority, decentralized nodes need to agree on the validity of transactions, which is the function of consensus algorithms. Consensus algorithm ensures that all nodes comply with the rules defined by the system designer and that all transactions are conducted in a reliable manner. For example, in the field of cryptocurrency, each token coin used for trading can only be spent once.

1

2

## Abstract

• While trying to balance security with functionality and scalability, each consensus protocol shows its own advantages and disadvantages. In this paper, we will focus on the analysis and comparison of different types of consensus protocols. In the second section, we first present the general design model of the hierarchical block chain system we envisage. We will further reveal the importance of the consensus layer by showing its importance, utility and potential interaction with other layers. Then in sections III and IV, we analyze and compare fourteen different consensus protocols. In the fifth, sixth and seventh sections, we will focus on an innovative concept of consensus protocols: proof-of-reputation protocols (PoR). PoR introduces the concept of reputation into the consensus process. We first introduce the general design model of PoR. Then we enumerate five existing por projects, compare and analyze their ideas, advantages and disadvantages, and try to provide possible trends for the future development of 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”, “Del-

egated 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 permis-  
sioned blockchain”, “Algorand: Scaling byzantine agreements for cryptocurrencies”,  
“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

Y has drafted the work. Y was the major contributor in writing the manuscript  
and also substantively revised it. O and SB have made substantial contributions  
to the conception and the design of the work. O and SB have also substantively  
revised the manuscript. L and H have drafted the work, and have made important  
contributions to the conception of the work. T have made important contributions  
on the substantive amendments. All authors read and approved the final manuscript  
thus the submitted version.

## I Introduction

Blockchain technology was first implemented by Nakamoto with Bitcoin appli-  
cations in 2009[9]. It combines the application of encrypted hash functions, digital  
signature, Merkle tree, consensus protocol and peer-to-peer(P2P) network, so as  
to build a distributed and decentralized system based on trust-free 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. Using blockchain  
technologies, we can build a distributed database system based on distributed P2P  
network. The system could record a public account book, or called a “public ledger”

49 – this ledger sorts groups of transactions in chronological order and uses encrypted  
50 hash function such as SHA256 to encryptedly link each group of transactions. Those  
51 sets of transactions in the record are stored in a specific data structure, which we  
52 call a data block. As new transactions continue to be completed, they are packaged  
53 into data blocks, which are submitted to the end of the list of data blocks on the  
54 public ledger. That’s also why we call this technology blockchain.

55     The information contained in the ledger shows transaction history up to the cur-  
56 rent time through block chains. These transaction records prove the existence and  
57 value of each account. Therefore, in a decentralized block chain system, every up-  
58 date of the ledger must be authenticated by each account holder in the network. Of  
59 course, this means that there is a need for consensus among participants. In the real  
60 world, we may not be able to find application examples with the same limitations.  
61 For example, when an entity (bank or country) decides to issue legitimate digital  
62 currency, it does not need to establish a public ledger that must be confirmed in  
63 real time by each currency holder, because the entity, as the central agency, is re-  
64 sponsible for the verification needed to use such digital currency for transactions  
65 and ensures the security of transactions. In blockchain networks, this is not the  
66 case: nodes operate independently. In order to reach consensus, it is essential and  
67 necessary for nodes to communicate with each other through the network.

68     It can be imagined that in such a distributed system, there will be many kinds of  
69 errors in the process of sending messages between nodes. We can generally divide  
70 them into two types: the first is the error including node crash, data packet loss and  
71 network failure. The characteristics of these errors are that the nodes themselves  
72 are not malicious to the system. We call them “non-Byzantine errors”. The second  
73 type of errors refers to the arbitrary actions of the nodes and deliberate violations  
74 of the rules of action formulated by the system designers. At this point, the wrong  
75 node may itself be malicious. The behaviors include sending messages with different  
76 contents at the same time to different nodes, delaying or rejecting messages in  
77 networks, deliberate attempts to submit illegal transaction records, and so on. Such  
78 errors are called “Byzantine errors”. In serious cases, there may be collaboration  
79 between malicious nodes, making Byzantine errors a serious problem.

80 The consensus protocol is designed to build a distributed blockchain system into  
81 a Byzantine fault-tolerant system. In the face of two mentioned types of errors,  
82 the design of a qualified consensus protocol can keep the consistency and the live-  
83 ness of system. Consistency means that honest and harmless system participants  
84 agree on records in the public ledger. The liveness represents that the ledger can  
85 be updated continuously, efficiently and effectively. There are a lot of practices of  
86 consensus protocols: Bitcoin which made successes on marketing, uses the Proof-of-  
87 Work protocol where users profit from computing proofs. They randomly find the  
88 node determining the next block[9]; or PoS protocol[10], which is used by Peercoin,  
89 where users profit there locked stake within the blockchain system prove that they  
90 are trustworthy, and to compete to win the right of generating subsequent blocks;  
91 or as PBFT protocols, all nodes identity should be known under this configuration.  
92 All nodes have equivalent voting rights, and they consumes numerous rounds of  
93 communications to reach consensus[8].

94 In this paper, we will focus on consensus protocols. First, we will give a general  
95 blockchain model which is widely used in practice. Next, we will introduce four-  
96 teen different consensus protocols that have been applied in practical projects, and  
97 analyze and compare them. Finally, we will mention a new and noteworthy con-  
98 sensus protocol concept, proof-of-reputation. We will focus on its introduction and  
99 analysis, and explain its unique advantages.

100 The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II introduces the general  
101 design model for blockchain system. Section III shows the state-of-art of fourteen  
102 different consensus protocols. Section IV summarizes the precedent ones by giv-  
103 ing tables and explanations showing the analysis results of those protocols, with  
104 a detailed explanation for these table and figures. Section V introduces the idea  
105 of proof-of-reputation, explains its idea, its operation principles, its general model,  
106 advantages and disadvantages. Section VI is an another state-of-art section where  
107 we list and present five different existing por blockchain projects. Section VII con-  
108 cludes.

## 109 II Background

111 In this section, we will introduce a general, layered and modular blockchain sys-  
112 tem model. It can be regarded as a template for blockchain projects that are now  
113 in operation. We will explain its composition, analyze which functional units the  
114 system consists of, which functions and operations the system supports, and which  
115 technologies the system uses to achieve them.

116 The model in this section is inspired by the content of another article [23]. Some  
117 changes have been made in the specific content, then in the layers and modules  
118 division. This basic model will consist of five layers: the data layer, the network  
119 layer, the consensus layer, the incentive schemes and the application layer.

120 The data layer defines the representation of data in the blockchain system. It  
121 encapsulates the underlying data blocks, basic data, data encryption, timestamp  
122 and the related algorithms.

123 The network layer determines the mode of data transmission. It includes dis-  
124 tributed networking mechanism, data propagation mechanism and data validation  
125 mechanism.

126 Consensus layer focuses on reaching consensus of data verification at the sys-  
127 tem level. It mainly encapsulates network nodes and specific consensus algorithms.  
128 Under our assumption, the three levels of network, consensus and incentive are  
129 particularly related to the implementation of consensus protocol.

130 The incentive schemes exist to ensure the honesty and legitimacy of users (net-  
131 work nodes), because data generation, data propagation and data validation depend  
132 on users' behavior and operations. It integrates economic factors into blockchain  
133 technology system. Incentive mechanism mainly includes the issueing mechanism  
134 and distribution mechanism of economic incentives.

135 Finally, the application layer encapsulates various application scenarios and cases  
136 of blockchain.

## 137 11.a Data layer

138 The data layer represents distributed accounts. Its content is shared by all nodes  
139 in the distributed block system. It encapsulates the underlying data blocks, related  
140 data structures, data encryption and timestamp algorithms.

141 Through the presence of data layer, every distributed node can use a specific  
142 hash algorithm(determined within this layer) and the Merkle tree data structure,  
143 to encapsulate the transactional data received in a certain time period into a data  
144 block and with time stamping on it. Nodes can add it to the end of local main  
145 blockchain and broadcast their local main chain to trying to get agreement with  
146 nodes in the network.

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

150

### 151 • Data block

152 Also called as “transaction block” because it stores mostly transactions’ in-  
153 formation. Each data block contains a Header part and a Body part.

154 The block header encapsulates current block index, the address of the pre-  
155 vious block, the hash value of current block, the Merkle-root of current block  
156 and its timestamp.

157 The block body contains the amount of transactions stored in current block,  
158 then the records of all validated transactions encapsulated during the gener-  
159 ation of this block. Those transaction records together generate the Merkle-  
160 root(through the hashing process of a Merkle tree) saved in the block header.

### 161 • Hash pointers

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



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

166 Sometimes, a node may have two or even several valid latest blocks that  
167 it must make choice among them to adding one of them on their local main  
168 blockchain. This is called as “fork selection problem”. This problem needs to  
169 be solved by the consensus layer.

#### 170 • Timestamps

171 The timestamp is encapsulated in the header part of a data block, during the  
172 creation time of the block. It signifies the write-in time of the corresponding  
173 block. The purpose is to enable the confirmation that blocks are arranged in  
174 chronological order within the blockchain.

175 The hash pointers and the timestamps, together they construct the proof of  
176 existence of every data block, thus make the blockchain becoming a tamper-  
177 resistant ledger.

#### 178 • Cryptographic Hash function

179 The raw transactions data are not recorded in the blockchain, but their hash  
180 value. The choice of using cryptographic hash function gives six properties to  
181 the records data:

- 182 1) As input, the raw data can be any string of any size.
- 183 2) The output is a fixed size.
- 184 3) The process to transform raw data to hash value is efficiently computable.  
185 Intuitively it means that for a given input string, we can figure out the  
186 output of the hash function in a reasonable amount of time. More tech-  
187 nically, computing the hash of an  $n$ -bit string should have a running time  
188 that is  $O(n)$ .
- 189 4) Collision-resistant: even if the input differs only by one byte, it will pro-  
190 duce significantly different output values. So it is infeasible to find same  
191 output value with different input.

- 192        5) Hiding: there's no feasible way to reverse the input value through the  
193        hash output.
- 194        6) Puzzle friendliness: if someone wants to target the hash function to come  
195        out to some particular output value  $y$ , but part of the input is decided in  
196        a suitably randomized way, it's very difficult to find an input value that  
197        hits exactly the output target.

198        The use of cryptographic hash functions guarantee the “tamper-resistant”,  
199        “efficiently computable during the creation” and “auditable” properties of  
200        blockchain records. The function that is most generally used is SHA256.

#### 201        ● Merkle Tree

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

#### 204        ● Asymmetric Cryptography

205        Asymmetric encryption usually uses two asymmetric ciphers in the encryp-  
206        tion and decryption process, called public and private keys. This key pair has  
207        two characteristics:

208        The first is when one of the keys is used to encrypt the information, only  
209        the other key can decrypt the data.

210        Secondly, the public key can be disclosed to others, and the private key is  
211        kept secret, and other people cannot calculate the corresponding private key  
212        through the public key.

213        The asymmetric encryption technology is applied in the scenarios of the  
214        blockchain's information encryption, digital signature, and login authentica-  
215        tion. The information encryption scenario that the sender of the information  
216        (denoted as A) uses the public key of receiver (denoted as B) to encrypt the  
217        information then send encrypted data to B. B decrypts the information by  
218        using its own private key.

219       The digital signature scenario is that sender A sent messages with his/her  
220       own private key to B, B uses the public key of A to decrypt. In this way, B  
221       can be ensured that the messages are made by A.

222       As for the login authentication scenario, the client encrypts the login in-  
223       formation with the private key and sends it to the server. The latter takes  
224       client's public key to decrypt and authenticate the login information.

## 225   **II.b Network layer**

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

228       Those mentioned modules of network layer should be defined corresponding to  
229       the need of real applications based on. Through this layer, every node within the  
230       blockchain system can participate to the maintenance(verification of data) and the  
231       updating of data blocks.

232       The function of network layer is basic for a blockchain system since the system is  
233       distributed. We also need that all the nodes could synchronize with each other on  
234       the updating of distributed ledger. This challenge can be resolved by the cooperation  
235       between consensus layer and network layer.

### 236    ● Network Building Mode

237       Existing blockchain systems generally take Peer-to-Peer Network(p2p net-  
238       work) as their networking mode. Nodes within the network are the users who  
239       have the right to participate to do the data verification and ledger's updating.

240       Within a p2p network, all nodes possess the same standing. They connect  
241       and communicate with each other based on a flat topology. There are no  
242       special centralized nodes, neither hierarchical structures. Each node will in-  
243       dependantly take on the network routing, block data verification, block data  
244       propagation and new nodes' discovering tasks.

245       For a blockchain network, nodes are often divided into "full nodes" and  
246       "lightweight nodes". The former stores the total records from the genesis

block(first instantiated block at the creation of the blockchain system) until the latest one, participates on real-time to the data verification and ledger updating. As for the “lightweight nodes”, they record only partially the blockchain, and generally request their required data from connected nodes to accomplish their operation such as data verification.

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

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

#### ● Messaging Protocol

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

For a blockchain system, the messaging protocol generally include five steps as shown below:

- 1) Nodes involved by transactions broadcast their transaction data to the nodes on the global network.
- 2) Every full node collect their received transactions then package them into a data block.
- 3) Through the consensus protocol adopted by current system, some of the full nodes will get the right to sign and publish their block packaged - they broadcast the block to the nodes on the global network.

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

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

#### ● Data verification mechanism

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

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

The validity of transaction data concerns mostly their data structure, their grammatical normative, their data signature, etc.

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

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

### II.c Consensus protocol

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

Existing consensus protocols are various, some of the representative ones are PoW(Proof-of-Work) and its variants such like PoS(Proof-of-Stakes), dPoS(delegated-

304 Proof-of-Stakes); PBFT(pratical-byzantine-fault-tolerance) and its variants such as  
 305 FBA(federate-byzantine-agreement), dBFT(delegated-byzantine-fault-tolerance).

306 The general idea of existing consensus protocol is to - for each round of the sys-  
 307 tem - as much as possible randomly elect a leader(or multiple leaders), so that all  
 308 nodes could have consensus on the updated content of the ledger after locally com-  
 309 pleting data verification, and every node has equivalent opportunities to become a  
 310 leader node. For that purpose, the general design of existing consensus protocols is  
 311 that nodes must show a proof supported by a certain scarce resource(such as hash  
 312 computing power with PoW, cryptocurrencie tokens with PoS and dPoS, nodes'  
 313 votes with dBFT[11], dPOS[17] and FBA, etc) in order to win the right of ledger  
 314 updating. The scarcity of such resource guarantees the fairness of this “leader elec-  
 315 tion” process, and could be considered as a “security deposit” that winner nodes  
 316 will honestly and legitimately operate - if they act maliciously then they will lose  
 317 their invested resource.

318 The existing consensus mechanisms have their own advantages and disadvan-  
 319 tages. The PoW-like consensus mechanism has formed a mature cryptocurrency-  
 320 mining industry based on its first-mover advantage, for example, Bitcoin and Lite-  
 321 coin projects; while emerging mechanisms such as dPoS, FBA have their relative  
 322 advantages on safety, environment friendly and/or efficiency[?????]. The choice of  
 323 consensus protocols has become the most difficult problem to reach a consensus for  
 324 blockchain system researchers[?????].

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

- 326 ● Pormance bottle neck:

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

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

335 ● Energy overhead issue:

336 As of today, 3.5 million US households could be powered with the energy  
337 used to run the Bitcoin network, while Ethereum uses the equivalent power  
338 of 1 million households. This is an unsustainable overhead. To resolve this  
339 problem, there exists 3 convenient ways which are “decreasing the exigency  
340 on local computing ability for the individual node”, “reducing the complexity  
341 of data/messages transmitted on the network”, “reducing the complexity of  
342 number of rounds needed to reach the consensus” - numerous recent protocols  
343 proposed different solution concepts.

344 ● Scalability problem:

345 As for a blockchain system, the scalability represents principally the open-  
346 ness, and the admissible network size of the system. It’s considerable that a lot  
347 of recent protocols – in order to improve the system performance – sacrificed  
348 the scalability, making their system became closed, or the acceptable number  
349 of nodes being limited.

350 ● Security problem:

351 The security notion signifies principally the reliability of results of the pro-  
352 tocol, the security of transaction operation lanced by every individual node,  
353 and the confidentiality of data for every individual node. The classical con-  
354 sensus algorithm of Bitcoin provides – well proved in practice – a very nice  
355 security. Although for some new protocols which direct the performance and  
356 the energy efficiency improvement, a strict proof on their security is lack-  
357 ing. Some of them even have a hard-to-solve security hole, thus can not be  
358 operated independently.

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

362        ● Centralization issue:

363        As for 2017, 80% of all blocks generated in Bitcoin network are mined by  
364        large mining companies in Iceland and in China[23], the system’s decentraliza-  
365        tion has been gradually lost. The degree of decentralization of system rights is  
366        one of the most significant difference among the various protocols. In addition,  
367        some of recent protocols made concessions on the decentralization degree for  
368        the system’s performance and reliability[????].

369        **II.d Incentive schemes**

370        The nature of the consensus layer is to outsource the ledger updating and mainte-  
371        nance tasks to the global nodes. Every rational node is self-interested. The purpose  
372        of having incentive schemes is make the individual rational behavior that maximizes  
373        the benefits of each node being consistent with the overall goal of the security and  
374        effectiveness during the consensus process of the decentralized system.

375        ● Issuing mechanism

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

380        Taking the Bitcoin as example, each block since the genesis block will issue  
381        50 bitcoins to the bookholders of the block, after which the number of bitcoins  
382        issued per block will be reduced by half every 4 years (namely 210,000 blocks in  
383        average). The number of Bitcoins will stabilize at the upper limit of 21 million.  
384        The bitcoin transaction process will also incur a fee, the current default fee is  
385        one ten thousandth of a bitcoin.

386        ● Distribution mechanism



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

## 393 **II.e Application layer**

394       The blockchain system has the characteristics of distributed high-redundancy stor-  
 395       age, time-series data ,tamper-resistant and forge-resistant, decentralized credit, in-  
 396       telligent execution of smart contracts, security and privacy protection, which makes  
 397       blockchain technology not only could be successful in the field of digital cryptocur-  
 398       rency, there are also a wide range of applications in economic, financial and social  
 399       systems.

## 400 **III Related Works – Consensus algorithms**

401       Presentation of 16 consensus protocols

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

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

#### 407 *Definition*

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

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

#### 415 *Consensus process*

416       The detailed mechanism of PoW contains 4 phases:

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

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

423 3. For each round(in Bitcoin, 1 round is 10 minutes, and as in Ethereum, it’s  
424 15 seconds), miners need to compete, trying to – in the fastest way – resolve a  
425 mathematical problem called “hash puzzle”. Only the miners who have found a  
426 solution are able to package their transactions in the pool into a block, and sign,  
427 publish, broadcast this block to the entire p2p network.

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

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

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

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

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

#### 447 *Strengths of PoW:*

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

#### 450 *Weaknesses of PoW:*

451 • The “Resolving hash puzzle” step is very consumable in term of computing  
452 resources and electricity, thus not environment friendly.

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

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

#### 457 *Definition*

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

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

#### 465 *Consensus process*

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

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

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

#### 476 *Strengths of PoS:*

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

#### 484 *Weaknesses of PoS:*

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

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

#### 490 *Definition*

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

#### 496 *Consensus process*

497 Here we take the Komodo as example - the first cryptocurrency where the dPoW  
498 is implemented:

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

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

504 *Strengths of dPoW:*

505 • The dPoW system does not have any necessity on hash computing power, thus  
506 is it environment friendly.

507 • Even without the “hash puzzle resolving” step, the system could also have a  
508 good security guaranteed.

509 • dPoW could give additional value to other system, without need of directly  
510 offering cryptocurrencies, neither making any tradings among them

511 *Weaknesses of dPoW:*

512 • The system must rely on a PoW/PoS system.

513 • With the existing of notaries, the original system must arrange different hash  
514 rates for common nodes and notaries nodes, otherwise, the relied system could not  
515 actually operate, or the original system’s security will be weakened.

516 III.d PoET(Proof-of-Elapsed-Time)

517 *Definition*

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

521 *Consensus process*

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

527 *Strengths of PoET:*

528 • The PoET system gives an equal chance of winning to a large number of network  
529 participants, low resource users are also worthy to join the competition.

530 • For all the participants, it’s very easy to verify that the block generator was  
531 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

563 them into transaction blocks by a polling manner.

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

#### 570 *Strengths of dPoS:*

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

#### 576 *Weaknesses of dPoS:*

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

### 583 III.f Algorand

#### 584 *Definition*

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

### 593 *Consensus process*

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

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

599 The Algorand protocol uses a cryptographic sortition algorithm, such that every  
600 proposer learns in a secret situation that it was selected.

601 Each proposer firstly broadcasts the highest priority block that it considers, af-  
602 terward broadcasts its known highest priority block, these 2 steps are achieving by  
603 using PBFT process.

604 The consensus is firstly made among the proposers, thus would be inserted in local  
605 for all other normal nodes.

### 606 *Strengths of Algorand:*

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

### 610 *Weaknesses of Algorand:*

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

### 614 *III.g PoC(Proof-of-Space)*

615 PoSpace, also called as PoC(Proof-of-capacity), is a variant of PoW protocol,  
616 instead of hash computing power, the tokens that nodes need to invest into the  
617 competition is a certain amount of memory or disk space[16].

618 The concrete process of PoC is very similar to the PoW, only using a different and  
619 special hash function called MHF(Memory Hard Function): the function feature is,  
620 its computing cost depends on the memory size that this function can call.

621 The “hash puzzle” step in PoC could prove that the node - which have found  
622 a solution - saved or say “invested” enough memory space for the competition.



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

626 Advantages of PoC:

- 627 • It is more environment friendly compare to PoW, because the storage space is  
628 a more generic resource than the hash computing power, and occupy also lesser  
629 energy.

630 Defects of PoC:

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

### 634 III.h PoBurn

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

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

643 Advantages of PoBurn:

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

646 Defects of PoBurn:

- 647 • Still wasting resources insignificantly.
- 648 • Nodes that don't care the waste of their coins would have more possibility to  
649 generate blocks, which means, the high resource nodes could still control the system  
650 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

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

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

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

688 Advantages of PoH:

- 689 • High Performance, especially high throughput, because of reduction on message  
690 exchanging complexity.
- 691 • The consensus has high performance.

692 Defects of PoH:

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

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

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

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

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

706 The concrete consensus process of PBFT is:

- 707 1. The client send requests to primary nodes.
- 708 2. The primary nodes broadcast the received requests to backup nodes.
- 709 3. The backup nodes verify the primary identity.
- 710 4. The backup nodes commit the received transaction/request.
- 711 5. The backup nodes reply to the primary one.

712 Advantages of PBFT:

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

717 Defects of PBFT:

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

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

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

724 Advantages of dBFT:

- 725 • High Performance.
- 726 • High scalability for large scale system.

727 Defects of dBFT:

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

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

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

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

737 Advantages of FBA:

- 738 • Tremendous throughput.
- 739 • Low transaction processing delay.
- 740 • Good system scalability.

741 Defects of FBA:

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

### 743 III.o Ripple consensus

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

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

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

756 Advantages of Ripple:

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

761 Defects of Ripple:

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

### 763 III.p Stellar consensus

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

767 Advantages of Stellar:

- 768 • High performance and good scalability.

769 Defects of Stellar:

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

## 772 IV Analysis

### 773 *Consensus algorithms comparison*

774 Various consensus algorithms have different strengths and drawbacks. Table I to  
 775 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

782 systems generally include 3 concepts in terms of type division—  
783 a) the public chain, in which all member nodes can freely join and leave; in  
784 Ethereum, Bitcoin, Peercoin, Bitshares, their purpose for a decentralized network  
785 made them choosing public chain.  
786 b) the private chain, completely private, with strong third party providing node  
787 identity assurance and controlling node permissions distribution; these systems are  
788 often controlled by a single organization or company.  
789 c) the consortium chain, “partially guaranteed decentralization” – also called as  
790 “semi-private chain”. It is generally operated by specific organization groups that  
791 opens the inscription access to qualified users and ensures that the identity of the  
792 nodes is audited and documented. In practice, many financial and commercial in-  
793 stitutions are building their own ”circle of friends” based on block chain technology  
794 with consortium chain, especially like Lawtooth Lake Hyperledger, Hyperledger  
795 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.

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

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

806     3) Energy Saving: As for PoW and some of its variants such like PoBurn[15],  
807     PoHistory, the demand on hash computing power make the system environment  
808     unfriendly; as for PoS and its variants such like dPoS, dPoW, the competition of  
809     hash computing power is removed, but the mining process is stille kept[10],[17],[18];  
810     Regarding PBFT, FBA series protocols, there is no more concept of mining, the  
811     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

819 series algorithms are manufactured to manage up to 33.34 defective nodes; as for  
820 Ripple, it has a more restrict reliability setting[13], which makes it only maintaining  
821 correctness when the proportion of faulty nodes in a unique node list are lower than  
822 20%.

Protocols/E-sample	Adversary ance Ability	Toler- ance	Scalability(Openess and Expandability)	Decentralization
PoET / Sawtooth Lake	potential point failure risk - highly dependent on Intel hardware enclave technologies	single risk - dependent	Restricted open(dependency on Intel hardware with SGX) and Expandable	Decentralization guaranteed
PoHistory/Solana	Unknown		Open and Unknown expandability	Unknown
PoBurn/Slimcoin	<25% power	computing	Open and Lack of expandability due to mining process and “coins burning process”	Relative centralization
PBFT/Hyperledger Fabric	<33.3% faulty replicas	byzantine	Closed	Relative centralization
dBFT/Neo	<51% validators		Open and Expandable	Decentralization guaranteed
FBA/Bravo (BVO)	Unknown		Open and Expandable	Unknown
Ripple/Ripple	<20% UNL nodes	faulty	Closed but expandable	Relative centralization: The company holds a large amount of money and controls many validation servers.
Stellar/Stellar	Unable to conclude(because of the Quorum algorithm and “quorum intersection property”)	conclude	Open and Expandable	the top 100 accounts hold 95% of the total supply

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

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

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

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

Protocols/E-sample	Consensus process	Block generation method	Reward token distribution method
PoW/Ethereum	probabilistic(numerous forks could exist at the same time within the network)	Competitive - a. All nodes have the right to generate 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/Komodo	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 created
PoC/Burstcoin	probabilistic	Open and Expandable	No new tokens created
PoA/Vechain	deterministic	Cooperative	No new tokens created

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

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

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

849 8) Block generation type: The way of block generation is one of the most funda-  
 850 mental difference about how different protocols reach consensus. As for competitive  
 851 consensus: a decentralized competition exists for the generation of block of every  
 852 round, it protects the fairness for all the system users(nodes), but also costly in  
 853 terms of time and energy; a cooperative consensus generally centralizes the block  
 854 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

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

Protocols/E- xample	Algorithm within (incentive)	used consensus protocol	Language	Github release ver- sion & last commit
PoW/Ethe- reum	Ethash		Golang, C++, So- lidity, 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++, So- lidity, Serpent, LLL	Burstcoin Refer- ence Software 2.4.2; 2019-09-04
PoA/Vechain	SHA-256		Golang, Java	v1.1.4; 2019-09-04

870 *Table IV-1. Comparison of mathematical algorithms, coding language and last ver-*  
871 *sion&commit.*

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

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

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

Protocols/E- xample	Algorithm within (incentive) protocol	used consensus	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;

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

## 896 V.2 Principles

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

### 902 *Fork selection*

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

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

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

### 917 *Block generation*

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

921 The Proof-of-Reputation protocols could also treat this problem with two differ-  
922 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

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

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

### 958 *Energy Efficiency*

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

### 963 *Performance*

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

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

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

### 981 *Fairness*

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

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

994 Reputation is non-consumable, non-transportable, individual for each node, only  
995 could be accumulated through node's invested time and completed transactions,  
996 these facts make the reputation not only an attribute bound to the node itself,  
997 but also a resource that can not be obtained by or converted from any type of  
998 out-of-system resources. Rich nodes aren't able to get reputation easier than the  
999 poor ones, and node groups controlling reputation resources are difficult to formed  
1000 because they cannot share their own reputation with other one, neither provide  
1001 (other) resources to help allies gain reputation.

1002 It can be seen that the design of PoR not only guarantees the fairness of the  
1003 reputation model, but also ensures sufficient robust decentralization of the system  
1004 based on this "fairness" feature.

### 1005 *Security*

1006 Reputation is non-consumable, so that we don't have double-spending issue with  
1007 PoR; reputation needs time to be accumulated, so that naturely PoR is resistant to  
1008 Sybil attack.

1009 As for service denied attack and system taken over(by attackers) risk, it depends  
1010 on the concrete implementation of PoR in considered projects.

## 1011 V.4 General Prototype

1012 A blockchain system which applies a PoR protocol would typically contain two  
1013 parts:

1014 A reputation system, which defines how the “reputation value” of each node  
1015 should be quantified - depening on which factors the reputation is calculated, fol-  
1016 lowing which kind of formulations, and how it would change along with nodes  
1017 interaction and/or system operation.

1018 A blockchain based consensus protocol that - through all nodes’ reputation value  
1019 - make them having agreement about block generator nodes’ identity and about the  
1020 latest blockchain status, thus having agreement on records and data verification  
1021 for the ledger.

1022 Based on this design, we could fromalize the problem of designing a prototype  
1023 of a PoR consensus protocol for public or controlled blockchain system as follows.  
1024 Assume  $N_{max}$  the size of maximal possible joiners for the network,  $N$  the current  
1025 number of users - registered or not, depending on whether the blockchain is con-  
1026 trolled. An individual participant could be represented by  $n_i$ ,  $i \in N$ , where  $n$  means  
1027 “node”. Each node stores all other peers’ public key in local, it’s allows every node  
1028 to complete data verification tasks(for transactions and for blocks). Transactions  
1029 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-  
1030 senting considered transaction’s index - signed by  $n_i$ ’s private key.

## 1031 VI State of the Art of the Proof-of-Reputation

1032 As mentioned in the last sectino, the PoR is a new concept of consensus protocol.  
1033 Its idea is to introduce the reputation—or the trustworthiness of a node in the  
1034 network—as the weight that this node influences the consensus. However, how to  
1035 calculate reputation, how to make the reputation of the node affect the consensus  
1036 process - block generation, chain fork selection, choice on incentive mode, and so  
1037 on, different researcher groups have proposed different designs and/or methods. In  
1038 this section, we will highlight 4 different designs of existing PoR based projects.



## 1039 VI.1 PoR p2p

### 1040 *Background*

1041 The first model is from “Proof of Reputation: A Reputation-Based Consensus  
1042 Protocol for Peer-to-Peer Network”, published in 2018 by National University of  
1043 Defense Technology in China.

### 1044 *Design Overview*

1045 The consensus protocol in this paper is designed for the permissioned blockchain:  
1046 before joining the network, the identity of the node needs to be verified and recorded  
1047 by the system.

### 1048 *Design for consensus layer*

1049 The block generation and the fork selection are decisive in this system: nodes can  
1050 collect transactions broadcast on the Internet into their own pool of pre-committed  
1051 transactions. When the number of transactions in the pool exceeds the threshold,  
1052 they can be assembled into one transaction block. However, the node can sign and  
1053 publish this block only if it has the highest reputation value among the nodes  
1054 involved by the transactions within this block.

### 1055 *Design for reputation model*

1056 In the reputation model designed by the research team, the reputation of the node  
1057 cannot be costed and transferred, and it can accumulate as the node participates in  
1058 the network transactions (there may be negative growth). The numerical value of  
1059 reputation is mainly used as an incentive for nodes to maintain and update system  
1060 ledgers.

1061 The change in reputation is mainly due to the system rewards obtained by par-  
1062 ticipating in the ledger update, as well as the rating scores obtained from other  
1063 nodes in ordinary transactions. In order to exclude the influence of human sub-  
1064 jective evaluation, the rating score only includes two cases: positive evaluation or  
1065 negative evaluation. In this case, only 1 bit needs to be used to store the scores that  
1066 affects node’s reputation value. The research team calls it the “single-bit reputation  
1067 system”.

## 1068 VI.2 Aigents

### 1069 *Background*

1070 The second model is from “A Reputation System for Artificial Societies”, pub-  
1071 lished in 2018 by Aigents Group in Russia and SingularityNET Foundation in  
1072 Netherlands.

### 1073 *Design Overview*

1074 The Aigents team wants to - through a reputation value model - introduce the  
1075 concept of ”liquid democracy” into their blockchain network: when a node gets  
1076 good reviews from other nodes, it’s equivalent to the latter giving the former the  
1077 positive impact of their own reputation. Therefore the former gains a higherweight  
1078 in the process of cosensus(and other potential operations). This is like a democratic  
1079 voting process that, in some systems, voters may not vote directly, but delegate  
1080 their voting rights to other delegates, while retaining the right to withdraw their  
1081 authorization.

### 1082 *Design for consensus layer*

1083 The PoR designed by the research team is a variant of PoW. The nodes still com-  
1084 pete with each other to win the opportunity to participate in the ledger maintenance  
1085 and accept the token rewards, the only difference is that tokens placed in the com-  
1086 petition are the reputation value of the node, the rewards are also the reputation  
1087 value.

1088 The research team tried to adopt their protocol for the general public systems, es-  
1089 pecially social networks. For this reason, the storage and confirmation of reputation  
1090 status is very important. They proposed a gossip agreement to solve this problem:  
1091 during the operation of the system, set a special reputation calculation cycle. All  
1092 nodes broadcast the reputation data status of themselves and their own connected  
1093 nodes in the network; for the reputation value of a certain node  $i$ , if node  $j$  receives  
1094 enough consecutive and consistent data states, it regards it as valid. If an inconsis-  
1095 tency (controversy) occurs, node  $j$  needs to warn the system’s monitoring service  
1096 and declare the source of the dispute, and validate the most important consecutive  
1097 status.

### 1098 *Design for reputation model*

1099 The Aigents team considered five factors and four roles to construct a node's  
1100 puretation. These roles are: a. "follower". When node i follow node j, it means that  
1101 ratings from j to its connected nodes directly affect rating from i to the same  
1102 nodes; b. "peer". Two nodes lacking the ability to influence each other's reputation  
1103 and given ratings. c. "Opinion ledaers". Nodes that are followed by a large num-  
1104 ber of nodes. Their ratings affect greatly the reputation of nodes being evaluated.  
1105 d. 'connector'. Nodes that can connect two peer groups that are not connected.

1106 The mentioned roles play an important role in five factors, these factors are:  
1107 a. The direct rating from node i to node j. This will affect the reputation value data  
1108 of j in front of followers of i and i.  
1109 b. The indirect rating from node i to node j. This rating could be viewed publicly. For  
1110 example, after the node generates a block, involved transactions participants could  
1111 give a rating to this block; or the node leaves work like articles on the blockchain,  
1112 nodes could evaluate its work. These ratings affect the reputation value of node j  
1113 in public.  
1114 c. Implicit indirect evaluations. For example, in social networks such as forums,  
1115 nodes' post could receive comments. These comments are not direct ratings, but  
1116 also contain positive or negative emotions.  
1117 d. Implicit direct evaluation. For example, in social networks, node i quotes and/or  
1118 excerpts from the comments or articles of node j.  
1119 e. The financial status of the node itself. Holding stakes, conducting transaction  
1120 activities can be regarded as a positive evaluation, while canceling transactions or  
1121 returning goods can cause a decline in reputation.

## 1122 VI.3 Gochain

### 1123 *Background*

1124 This model is a PoR protocol proposed by its business team in 2018. The Gochain  
1125 blockchain project is developed based on Ethereum platform, dapps and smart con-  
1126 tracts running on Ethreum could be transformed on GoChain without any obstacles.

1127 The Gochain team aims on 1300tps; as for energy saving, their goal is to save 100  
1128 times more energy than Bitcoin or Ethereum. Maintaining decentralized features  
1129 and enabling more flexible intelligent contracts are also part of their work plans.

#### 1130 *Design Overview*

1131 This protocol is based on the Clique algorithm which belongs to the serie of Proof  
1132 of Authority(PoA) algorithms[20], created by the Ethereum community. Its mode  
1133 of operation is that among all nodes within the network, only a selected set called  
1134 authoritative nodes(or super nodes) could play the role of “miners”, they have the  
1135 right to sign and publish - in a polling manner - the transaction blocks.

#### 1136 *Design for consensus layer*

1137 Firstly, the Gochain team noted the fact that corporate reputation and orga-  
1138 nizational resources far exceed personal credit and personal resources, thus they  
1139 decided they not to allow individual users to become authoritative nodes: only 50  
1140 listed companies with sufficient reputation and assets can enter the initial system’s  
1141 authoritative nodes committee. Besides, unlike the blockchain that uses the Clique  
1142 algorithm which is currently a side chain of Ethereum, the Gochain team has built  
1143 its own blockchain system and network.

1144 In Gochain’s PoR protocol, the authoritative nodes are responsible for the as-  
1145 sembly and signing of subsequent blocks in a polling manner, so there is a concept  
1146 of “node on duty”: block published by the “on duty node” enjoys a higher weight,  
1147 thus reducing the risk of chain fork.

1148 The concept of “rounds” is preserved. Which means, any miner nodes can only  
1149 propose one block in the same round, and then they need to wait for an enough  
1150 long interval to propose an another block in a certain subsequent round, this design  
1151 could curb the ability of the malicious miner node to use the authority to destroy  
1152 the system service.

#### 1153 *Design for reputation model*

1154 The renewal of the authoritative node relies on the binary voting from the mem-  
1155 bership of the committee. When a miner receives enough negative votes, it will  
1156 be removed from the committee; when there is a vacancy in the committee seat,

1157 and a normal node receives enough affirmative votes, it can enter the committee.  
1158 The agreement proposes the concept of “epoch” as a cycle of updating the list of  
1159 committee members.

1160 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  
1161 for reputation values.  
1162

## 1163 VI.4 Bitconch

### 1164 *Background*

1165 This model was proposed by a business project “Bitconch”, on October 3, 2018,  
1166 the research team of Bitconch released their newest test results, showing that with  
1167 their public and distributed blockchain network configured in 5 different countries,  
1168 they have achieved a peak speed up to 120,000 TPS, which is one of the fastest  
1169 blockchain under the same operating conditions at present.

### 1170 *Design Overview*

1171 The design of this model consists of 2 parts: a Proof-of-reputation consensus  
1172 protocol and a corresponding reputation system called “Bit-R”. Their PoR protocol  
1173 is a combination of a “dPoS-like or dBFT-like leader election mechanism” and  
1174 “classical PBFT algorithm”. It’s the basic protocol of Bitconch’s blockchain system;  
1175 as for the Bit-R system, it uses the quantified results of users’ trustworthiness,  
1176 activity and contribution, to build the portraits of users’ individual behavior, thus  
1177 provide a reference to the weight of each user for the election phase of their protocol.

### 1178 *Design for consensus layer*

1179 • Here’s a concrete description about how Bitconch’s PoR protocol works:

1180 a. The nodes that have the the 5% highest reputation value form a candidates  
1181 pool, each node among them is possible to be chosen to become the leader node.  
1182 The membership of this pool updates quartly.

1183 The size of the candidates pool varies from 50 to 300, depending on the scale  
1184 of the Bitconch blockchain network.

1185 b. With a priorly determined random number generation algorithm and the  
1186 candidates pool, the system conducts the election phase by selecting 1 node to

1187 become the leader, then (M-1) other candidates - at the same time - to become  
1188 voter nodes.

1189 M is a natural number, the election of the M nodes - the leader and the voters -  
1190 is re-executed for each round within the system.

1191 c. The leader node and the voter nodes make consensus through the PBFT  
1192 algorithm: the leader takes charge of the broadcast of the uncommitted transactions;  
1193 the voters validate these transactions(or the opposite) - in Bitconch system we  
1194 describe this step as a voting action; then the leader synchronizes the voting results  
1195 and the round number with all the nodes in the network.

1196 If more than  $2/3 * m$  nodes returned their voting choice(namely, committed their  
1197 validation), this round is considered as succeed, the leader and the voters gain  
1198 benefits in terms of their contribution in Bit-R system.

1199 During a successful round, a transaction that received enough certification votes  
1200 is validated(confirmed). It will be added into the ledger while the leader synchro-  
1201 nizing all the nodes. The nodes involved by a confirmed transaction gain benefits  
1202 in terms of their activity in Bit-R system.

#### 1203 *Design for reputation model*

1204 • Here is the description of reputation model within the Bitconch system:

1205 a. Activity:  $D(E,t) = \sum_{i=1}^k E_i^{\log(D_r)}$

1206  $E_i$  represents the asset weight of a transaction i,  $D_r$  represents the reputation  
1207 weight of the other party of transaction i.

1208 Thus the “activity” parameter of an user could be quantified by the transactions  
1209 that he/she has participated, and the nodes that he/has has interacted with. The  
1210 logarithm function is used here to avoid potential Sybil attacks - nodes with low  
1211 reputation weight are hard to influence other one’s activity.

1212 b. Coin age:  $T(s,t) = \beta + \alpha \log(S_t)$

1213  $S_t$  represents the length of time that current user keeps the Bitconch system  
1214 tokens. The Bitconch system take the users who hold system rights for long-term  
1215 are more trustworthy.

1216 The logarithm function is used here to limit the potential Matthew effect(first-  
1217 mover advantages).

1218 c. Contribution:  $C(N,t) = \sum N_{file} + \log N_{Rnd}$

1219 The “contribution” parameter reflects the frequency that nodes contribute to  
 1220 the normal operation of the system, especially including files sharing( $\sum N_{file}$ )  
 1221 and ledger updates( $\log N_{Rnd}$ )

1222 d. Summary: Based on 3 above parameters, the Bit-R is able to describe the  
 1223 integrity of each user, thus able to give nodes’ integrity as a proof, to allow them  
 1224 to participate to the consensus, to contribute their network resources, and to gain  
 1225 rewards token.

## 1226 VI.5 Repucoin

### 1227 *Background*

1228 Repucoin was proposed in February 2019 by a research team from the University  
 1229 of Luxembourg. The proudest design objective reached by Repucoin is the resistancy  
 1230 to 51% computing power attack. Repucoin system calculates voting rights based on  
 1231 miners’ reputation. By building a model of reputation with stringent mathematical  
 1232 literacy, the system requires miners to accumulate long-term, continuous and honest  
 1233 mining operations.

1234 A Repucoin blockchain can support more than ten thousands tps, even much  
 1235 higher than Visa which could support around 1700 tps.

### 1236 *Design Overview*

1237 Repucoin blockchain system is deterministic: generally, only one node has the  
 1238 right to package and sign the next block at each round.

1239 The generation of blocks is cooperative: not everyone but only a selected set of  
 1240 nodes could be randomly elected to become block generator. This group takes also  
 1241 the validation of new blocks in charge.

1242 The selected group of nodes is called as the “cosensus group”, it is constituted by  
 1243 nodes who have the highest reputation scores. A randomly chosen leader is elected  
 1244 from the membership at each “epoch” and this leader takes charge of the production  
 1245 of blocks of the whole current “epoch”. Epoch is a period of time determined by a  
 1246 chunk of blocks on blockchain.

1247 Blocks in Repucoin system are divided into two types: keyblocks and microblocks.  
 1248 Miners use PoW protocol rules to compete to become the leader(block generator)  
 1249 for next epoch, by resolving Repucoin's original hash puzzle. Microblocks are signed  
 1250 and proposed by the current leader to record the transactions into the blockchain.

#### 1251 *Design for consensus layer*

1252 The consensus process in Repucoin system could be divided into two parts: a pe-  
 1253 riodical election based on PoW mechanism, then a regular blocks validation process  
 1254 based on PBFT mechanism.

1255 During the election phase - which is also the beginning of each epoch - a consensus  
 1256 group having X members is firstly updated. The size of X is determined by meeting  
 1257 a target percentage in global decision power, and the decision power is directly and  
 1258 only based on nodes' cumulative reputation scores.

#### 1259 *Design for reputation model*

1260 The reputation scores calculation model is designed as a sigmoid function: for  
 1261 beginners and high scores holders, the changing on their scores is slow or even  
 1262 towards stagnation. As for mature participants, users who joined the system for  
 1263 a while and honestly acted so long, they have the opportunity to enjoy potential  
 1264 high-speed returns.

1265 As the calculate method is a sigmoid function, system designers could control  
 1266 the slope and also inflection point of function by two parameters that can be pre-  
 1267 determined. Here's the simplified equation for reputaion score R:

$$1268 \quad R = \min(1, H * (Ext + \frac{1}{2} * (1 + \frac{y1 * y2 * L - a}{\lambda + |y1 * y2 * L - a|}))) \quad (1)$$

1269 where  $\lambda$  and  $a$  are two parameters pre-defined by the designers to adjust the slope  
 1270 and the inflection point.

1271 H is a boolean value, which is set to 1 for every newly joined user, and could be  
 1272 reset to 0 once if a node has misbehaved(especially as a miner).

1273 Ext is a reputation judgement from external resource.

1274 The meaning of  $y1$  and  $y2$  are slightly more complicated:  $y1$  is calculated by the  
 1275 percentage



1276

## 1277 **VII Conclusion**

1278     Blockchains, with their core characteristics of decentralization, anonymity,  
1279     tamper-resistancy, forge-resistancy and auditability, have shown their potential to  
1280     transform the traditional business.

1281     In this article, we provide a complete overview of blockchain models and  
1282     blockchain basic rules(consensus protocols). We first outline blockchain technology,  
1283     giving a general model of the system itself. Then we discuss the standard consen-  
1284     sus protocols used in blockchains. We analyzed and compared these protocols from  
1285     different perspectives.

1286     In addition, we highlight the concept of proof-of-reputation, explaining its po-  
1287     tential advantages to the existing ones by listing the potential solution to some  
1288     challenges and problems by implementing PoR, and summarize some of the exist-  
1289     ing por blockchain projects for indicate their features and for show how the real  
1290     PoR protocols look like. At present, the applications based on blockchain are rising,  
1291     and we plan to do further researches and works on original PoR based blockchain  
1292     system in the future.

## 1293 **Appendix**

### 1294 **List of abbreviations**

1295     The following table describes the significance of various abbreviations and  
1296     acronyms used throughout the thesis. The page on which each one is defined or  
1297     first used is also given. Nonstandard acronyms that are used in some places to  
1298     abbreviate the names of certain white matter structures are not in this list.

	Abbreviation	Meaning	Page
	P2P	Peer to Peer	2
	PoW	Proof of Work	9
	PoS	Proof of Stake	2
	dPoS	delegated Proof of Stake	9
	dPoW	delayed Proof of Work	14
1299	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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