ParBFT: Faster Asynchronous BFT Consensus with a Parallel Optimistic Path

Xiaohai Dai†‡, Bolin Zhang†‡, Hai Jin*, and Ling Ren†‡

* Huazhong University of Science and Technology, China
† Zhejiang University, China
‡ University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign, USA

ABSTRACT
To reduce latency and communication overhead of asynchronous Byzantine Fault Tolerance (BFT) consensus, an optimistic path is often added, with Ditto and BDT as state-of-the-art representatives. These protocols first attempt to run an optimistic path that is typically adapted from partially-synchronous BFT and promises good performance in good situations. If the optimistic path fails to make progress, these protocols switch to a pessimistic path after a timeout, to guarantee liveness in an asynchronous network. This design crucially relies on an accurate estimation of the network delay \( \Delta \) to set the timeout parameter correctly. A wrong estimation of \( \Delta \) can lead to either premature or delayed switching to the pessimistic path, hurting the protocol’s efficiency in both cases.

To address the above issue, we propose ParBFT, which employs a parallel optimistic path. As long as the leader of the optimistic path is non-faulty, ParBFT ensures low latency without requiring an accurate estimation of the network delay. We propose two variants of ParBFT, namely ParBFT1 and ParBFT2, with a trade-off between latency and communication. ParBFT1 simultaneously launches the two paths, achieves lower latency under a faulty leader, but has a quadratic message complexity even in good situations. ParBFT2 reduces the message complexity in good situations by delaying the pessimistic path, at the cost of a higher latency under a faulty leader. Experimental results demonstrate that ParBFT outperforms Ditto or BDT. In particular, when the network condition is bad, ParBFT can reach consensus through the optimistic path, while Ditto and BDT suffer from path switching and have to make progress using the pessimistic path.

CCS CONCEPTS
• Blockchain and Distributed Systems → Consensus protocols;

KEYWORDS
Byzantine fault tolerance, Byzantine generals, consensus, blockchain

1 INTRODUCTION
Over the past decade, the increasing popularity of blockchain [6, 50, 57] has brought considerable attention back to the *Byzantine Fault Tolerant* (BFT) consensus protocols [31, 56, 58]. In general, a BFT consensus protocol ensures multiple replicas reach agreement, even if a fraction of them may behave arbitrarily (called Byzantine replicas) [40]. BFT consensus protocols can be roughly divided into three categories based on their timing assumptions: synchronous ones, partially synchronous ones, and asynchronous ones. Among the three categories, asynchronous protocols offer the strongest robustness to unpredictable network conditions [24, 34, 45]. However, asynchronous BFT protocols are rarely deployed in production for performance reasons [42]. More specifically, compared to their synchronous and partially synchronous counterparts, asynchronous BFT protocols have higher latency (larger number of rounds) and higher communication overheads, even when all replicas are non-faulty and the network condition is good.

To address these challenges regarding path switches, we propose ParBFT: running the two paths in parallel. At a high level, by running the two paths in parallel, replicas can reach a decision as soon as
Table 1: Consensus performance comparison. As for the serial-path protocols (i.e., Ditto and BDT), the performance is measured with the protocol starting from the optimistic path, which is the default in these protocols. The number of total replicas is denoted as \( n \), and the actual number of faulty replicas is denoted as \( t \).

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<th>( \Delta ) is needed</th>
<th>Latency</th>
<th>( \delta \leq \Delta )</th>
<th>( \delta &gt; \Delta )</th>
<th>Message complexity</th>
<th>( \delta \leq \Delta )</th>
<th>( \delta &gt; \Delta )</th>
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<td>Dito [30] †</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5( \delta )</td>
<td>2( \delta + 16\delta )</td>
<td>( O(\tau n) )</td>
<td>( O(\tau n^2) )</td>
<td>( O(\tau n^2) )</td>
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<tr>
<td>BDT [42] †</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5( \delta )</td>
<td>2( \delta + 25\delta )</td>
<td>( O(\tau n) )</td>
<td>( O(\tau n^2) )</td>
<td>( O(\tau n^2) )</td>
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<tr>
<td>ParBFT1 ‡</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>5( \delta )</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>( O(\tau n) )</td>
<td>( O(\tau n^2) )</td>
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<tr>
<td>ParBFT2 ‡</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5( \delta )</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>( O(\tau n) )</td>
<td>( O(\tau n^2) )</td>
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† The optimistic path in BDT is implemented by sequential multicast (Bolt:sCAST [42]), while the pessimistic path is implemented by sMVBA [33], which offers the lowest latency in the asynchronous network.
‡ Although \( \Delta \) is needless in ParBFT1, we list the metrics in both cases (i.e., \( \delta \leq \Delta \) and \( \delta > \Delta \)) to make the table more readable.
§ Although Ditto needs lower latency in bad situations, it suffers from a liveness problem [29].
¶ When the optimistic path is implemented through chain structure, the timeout parameter is set as an estimated Round Trip Time, which equals 2\( \Delta \).

We present two variants of ParBFT, which we call ParBFT1 and ParBFT2, that give a trade-off between latency and communication. ParBFT1 launches the two paths simultaneously; this variant offers better latency under a Byzantine leader but suffers from quadratic message complexity even in a good situation. On the contrary, ParBFT2 delays the launch of the pessimistic path, and as a result, reduces the message complexity to linear in a good situation at the cost of higher latency under a Byzantine leader.

As shown in Table 1, prior works Ditto [30] and BDT [42] achieve a low latency of 5\( \delta \) (\( \delta \) represents the actual network delay) only when the leader is non-faulty and the parameter \( \Delta \) is estimated correctly (i.e., \( \delta \leq \Delta \)). In contrast, ParBFT1 and ParBFT2 achieve a good latency of 5\( \delta \) as long as the leader of the optimistic path is non-faulty, regardless of whether \( \delta \) is estimated correctly or not. As mentioned, ParBFT1 makes a sacrifice on the message complexity in the good situation: when the leader is non-faulty and the estimation of \( \Delta \) is correct, ParBFT1 incurs quadratic communication. ParBFT2 avoids this problem by delaying the launch of the pessimistic path by 5\( \Delta \) time: this reduces the communication complexity in the good case back to \( O(\tau n) \) (\( \tau \) and \( n \) represent the number of actual faulty replicas and total replicas, respectively) but increases the latency under a Byzantine leader by that amount.

We also note that while ParBFT1 does not need the parameter \( \Delta \) at all, ParBFT2 brings back the parameter of \( \Delta \). But unlikely prior works, the penalty for an incorrect estimation of \( \Delta \) is much smaller. Concretely, when \( \Delta \) is set too small, i.e., \( \Delta < \delta \), ParBFT2 only incurs an increase in the communication cost, while prior works incur much longer latency, increased communication cost, and the potential problem of back-and-forth switching.

We implement both variants of ParBFT and conduct extensive experiments to evaluate their performance in comparison with prior works. Our implementations use the chain-based paradigm in which different agreement instances are pipelined to improve the throughput. The experiments are divided into three parts, corresponding to three different scenarios. The first part mimics a good situation where the leader is non-faulty and the network is good. In the second part, we simulate a slow network by intentionally delaying messages, while assuming a non-faulty leader. Finally, in the third part, we introduce a faulty leader by delaying proposals from the leader.

The experimental results demonstrate that, under good situations, ParBFT2 performs comparably well to Ditto and BDT, as all three protocols can commit data through the optimistic path. As expected, as the number of replicas increases beyond sixteen, the performance of ParBFT1 deteriorates due to its quadratic message complexity. In the situation of a slow network, where the delay is set larger than \( \Delta \), both ParBFT1 and ParBFT2 exhibit significantly lower latencies compared to Ditto and BDT. ParBFT achieves lower latency because it can commit data through the optimistic path even if the network delay is wrongly estimated, whereas Ditto or BDT must follow the pessimistic path. In the case of a faulty leader, all protocols will commit data through the pessimistic path. However, ParBFT1 offers lower latency than either Ditto, BDT, or ParBFT2, as it launches the pessimistic path immediately without waiting for a timeout event.

To sum up, we make the following contributions in this paper. We first identify major limitations of current serial-path asynchronous protocols: they rely on accurate estimates of network latency to

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A number of prior works [30, 42, 59] claim \( O(\tau n) \) communication in the good case. But upon closer inspection, they ignored the cost of retrieving the committed data. In more detail, a replica that commits on the linear optimistic path has to respond to retrieval requests from other replicas who have not, or claim to have not, received the committed data. This adds a factor of \( t \) to the communication overhead, since each faulty replica can send such a retrieval request to all non-faulty replicas. See [46, 53] for a more thorough discussion on this issue.
appropriately switch between the two paths. We then propose a new paradigm called ParBFT that runs the two paths in parallel to address these limitations. Two variants of ParBFT are presented, offering a trade-off between latency and communication overhead. Finally, we implement our protocols and conduct comprehensive experiments to demonstrate their advantages.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we introduce the model used in our work and present some preliminaries that will serve as building blocks to our protocols. Section 3 outlines the main idea of parallel paths by describing a preliminary version named ParBFT0. In Section 4 and Section 5, we elaborate on the two practical variants of ParBFT that provide a trade-off between latency and communication overhead. To improve throughput, we also devise chain-based versions of ParBFT, which are described in Section 6 along with a detailed evaluation. We discuss related work in Section 7 and conclude the paper in Section 8.

2 MODELS & PRELIMINARIES

2.1 Models & Definitions

We consider a distributed system consisting of \( n = 3f + 1 \) replicas, among which up to \( f \) can misbehave in an arbitrary manner, i.e., they can be Byzantine. Each replica has a unique identity denoted as \( p_i \) (\( 0 \leq i < n \)). All the Byzantine replicas are under the control of an adversary who can coordinate their actions. Each pair of replicas is connected through a reliable link, which will eventually deliver every message, but the network is asynchronous, meaning that any message can be delayed by the adversary arbitrarily. Leaders of the optimistic path are selected by a predetermined order, e.g., simple round-robin.

We assume a public-key infrastructure (PKI), which allows each replica \( p_i \) to be identified by a public key \( pk_i \), and all the public keys are known to all replicas. Corresponding to \( pk_i \), each replica holds its private key \( sk_i \). We also assume a threshold cryptosystem is established among the replicas, possibly via Distributed Key Generation (DKG) protocols [3, 21, 37], to enable threshold signatures. We also assume a collision-resistant hash function is available. Finally, we assume that the adversary has limited computational resources and cannot break the PKI, the threshold cryptosystem, or the hash function.

For performance evaluation, we consider two types of situations: good situations and bad situations. A good situation is when the leader of the optimistic path is non-faulty and (if applicable) the actual network delay \( \delta \) is no greater than the estimated parameter \( \Delta \). On the contrary, a bad situation is when the designated leader is faulty or \( \delta \) is larger than \( \Delta \). It is worth noting that since there is no parameter of \( \Delta \) in ParBFT0 or ParBFT1, the good and bad situations depend solely on whether the designated leader is non-faulty.

A consensus protocol maintains a replicated log among all non-faulty replicas. Each entry in the log corresponds to a request or some submitted data from a client. Henceforth, we use the terms “request”, “data”, and “log entry” interchangeably. A correct consensus protocol must guarantee safety and liveness, which are defined as follows:

- **Safety:** If two non-faulty replicas commit two data \( d \) and \( d' \) at the same log position, then \( d \) must be equal to \( d' \).
- **Liveness:** If a client proposes a data \( d \), \( d \) will eventually be committed.

2.2 Preliminaries

In the design of ParBFT, we make use of Validated Asynchronous Byzantine Agreement (VABA) protocols to implement the pessimistic path and Asynchronous Binary Agreement (ABA) protocol to decide between the outputs from the two paths. We utilize ABA in a black-box manner and slightly modify VABA to enable it to output a proof for the decided value. We call the modified VABA as Provably VABA (PVABA). In this section, we present the interfaces of ABA and PVABA and show how to modify a VABA protocol to a PVABA protocol.

2.2.1 ABA Interface.

An ABA protocol is used to reach consensus on a single bit [51, 55]. In an ABA protocol, each replica inputs a bit value of 0 or 1, and ultimately, each non-faulty replica will decide on the same bit value as the output. To be more precise, an ABA protocol must satisfy the following three properties:

- **Validity:** If a non-faulty replica decides on \( v \), \( v \) must be input by at least one non-faulty replica.
- **Agreement:** If two non-faulty replicas decide on two values \( v \) and \( v' \) respectively, we must have \( v = v' \).
- **Termination:** If all the non-faulty replicas complete inputting values to the protocol, each non-faulty replica will eventually decide on a value.

Over the past few decades, various ABA protocols have been proposed [1, 7, 28, 47]. We leverage ABA as a black box, making it easy to integrate various ABA protocols into our protocol.

2.2.2 VABA & PVABA Interfaces.

First, we describe the original VABA interface. In a VABA protocol, each replica is allowed to input an arbitrary value, and the protocol will eventually decide on a value [13]. To prevent the protocol from deciding on an invalid or trivial value, an external validation predicate \( Q \) is defined, and the output value must satisfy \( Q \). More formally, a correct VABA protocol must satisfy the properties as follows:

- **External-validity:** If a non-faulty replica decides on a value \( v \), \( Q(v) \) must be True.
- **Agreement:** If two non-faulty replicas decide on two values \( v \) and \( v' \) respectively, then \( v = v' \).
- **Termination:** If all non-faulty replicas start the protocol, all non-faulty replicas eventually decide on a value.

Decided values of a VABA protocol will be taken as inputs for the final agreement of ParBFT. To prevent Byzantine replicas from forging decided values, we further require the VABA protocol to output a proof for the decided value. Therefore, the output from the VABA protocol has the format of \( (v, \sigma) \), where \( \sigma \) is the proof for the value \( v \). Each replica can verify the legitimacy of the VABA output through an external validity predicate \( R(v, \sigma) \). The adapted VABA interface is named PVABA, which has an additional property than VABA:

- **Provability:** If a non-faulty replica gets an output \( (v, \sigma) \), then \( R(v, \sigma) = true \). Besides, a Byzantine replica cannot fabricate an output \( (v, \sigma) \) satisfying \( R(v, \sigma) = true \), if it does not get one.

Existing VABA protocols [5, 13, 33, 43] can be easily modified to satisfy the PVABA interface. Taking AMA-VABA [5] or
sMVBA [33] as examples, the proof \( \sigma \) can be set as the \texttt{VIEW-}
\texttt{CHANGE} message (as shown in Line 22 of Algorithm 3 in [5]) or the
\texttt{HALT} message (as shown in Line 16 of Algorithm 5 in [33]), and the
predicate \( R(v, \sigma) \) can be set as the threshold signature verification
function. When there is no ambiguity, we will simply use \texttt{VABA} to
mean \texttt{PVABA} in the remaining parts of this paper.

3 PARA BFT DESIGN

Before delving into the final designs of ParBFT (i.e., ParBFT1 and
ParBFT2), we first introduce a preliminary variant named ParBFT0
in this section. ParBFT0 is meant to illustrate the basic idea of
running two parallel paths and is not designed for efficiency. As
such, ParBFT0 has higher latency and larger communication over-
head even in a good situation. But it demonstrates the feasibility of
removing the parameter \( \Delta \) and the finicky path-switch mechanism.

3.1 Description of ParBFT0

The structure of ParBFT0 is illustrated in Figure 1. The protocol
consists of two stages: parallel paths and final agreement. In the
first stage, an optimistic path and a pessimistic path are launched
simultaneously, and each replica participates in both paths. The opti-
mistic path can be implemented using the normal-case protocol of
many partially synchronous BFT works. To be concrete, we adopt
the normal-case protocol of SBFT [32], as it offers a low communi-
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Figure 1: The structure of ParBFT0.

In the second stage of ParBFT, each replica takes the first candi-
date it obtains from the parallel paths as input for the final agreement.
The final agreement, described in Algorithm 1, is primarily imple-
mented based on a black-box ABA protocol, where 0 represents the
optimistic candidate \((d_0, \sigma_0)\) and 1 represents the pessimistic can-
didate \((d_p, \sigma_p)\). A replica will first broadcast its candidate (Line 2)
and then invoke the ABA protocol with the mapped bit (Lines 3-8).
Once the ABA protocol outputs a decision bit, the replica waits until
the candidate corresponding to the decision bit is received (Lines
9-13) and then outputs the candidate (Lines 14-16).

To reduce the number of communication rounds, the round of
broadcasting the candidate (Line 2 of Algorithm 1) can be merged
with the first round of ABA. Additionally, a replica only accepts the
candidate broadcast by others if it passes the check against a global
predicate function \( ValFn \) (Line 9 of Algorithm 1). If the candidate is
optimistic, \( ValFn \) is simply the verification function of the threshold
signature. If the candidate is pessimistic, \( ValFn \) is precisely the
predicate \( R(v, \sigma) \) mentioned in Section 2.2.2.

Note that a replica that returns from either path can immediately
stop participating in the other path. Besides, it is possible for a
replica to receive valid candidate \((d, \sigma)\) from the final agreement
protocol before it returns from either path in the first stage. In such a
case, the replica can treat \((d, \sigma)\) as its own candidate (as though it
has obtained \((d, \sigma)\) from the first stage on its own), input \((d, \sigma)\) to
the final agreement, and terminate both paths in the first stage.

3.2 Correctness analysis of ParBFT0

The correctness analysis of ParBFT0 includes two parts: safety and
liveness. Notably, each instance of the ParBFT0 protocol described
above is responsible for committing data at one log position. There-
fore, for safety, we only need to show that all non-faulty replicas
commit the same data from a given ParBFT0 instance. For liveness,
since each leader attempts to propose requests from clients, we only
need to show that each non-faulty replica is able to commit data
from the ParBFT0 instance.
Algorithm 1 FINAGRO: Final agreement protocol in ParBFT0 (for replica $p_i$)

Let $v_i$ denote the input (a candidate in the context of ParBFT0) of $p_i$ and $ValFn$ denote a global predicate function.

1: initialize $vals[2] \leftarrow [\perp, \perp]$
2: broadcast $(F_a, v_i)$
3: if $v_i$ is an optimistic candidate then:
4:    $vals[0] \leftarrow v_i$
5: else:
6:    $vals[1] \leftarrow v_i$
7: invoke ABA with 0
8: else:
9: upon receiving $(F_a, v_j)$ from $p_j$ that $ValFn(v_j) = true$ do:
10:   if $v_j$ is an optimistic candidate and $vals[0] = \perp$ then:
11:      $vals[0] \leftarrow v_j$
12: else if $v_j$ is a pessimistic candidate and $vals[1] = \perp$ then:
13:      $vals[1] \leftarrow v_j$
14: upon receiving the output $b$ from ABA do:
15:   wait until $vals[b] \neq \perp$
16: output $vals[b]$

3.2.1 Safety. The safety analysis of ParBFT0 is straightforward and relies on the safety guarantees provided by the SBFT, VABA, and ABA protocols. According to the safety property of SBFT, all optimistic candidates are identical, and according to the safety property of VABA, all pessimistic candidates are also identical. This means that there can only be two distinct candidates taken as inputs into the final agreement protocol, which are mapped to bits 0 and 1. The ABA protocol ensures that all non-faulty replicas will output the same bit. Thus, all non-faulty replicas will output the same candidate from the final agreement protocol corresponding to the ABA’s output bit. This guarantees the safety of ParBFT0.

3.2.2 Liveness. The liveness property of VABA ensures that a non-faulty replica can obtain a candidate from the pessimistic path if it has not obtained an optimistic candidate. As stated at the end of Section 3.1, as long as one non-faulty replica obtains a candidate, every non-faulty replica will eventually obtain a candidate. By combining these two facts, every non-faulty replica will advance to the final agreement protocol and input a valid candidate. Then, the liveness property of the ABA protocol guarantees that every non-faulty replica will eventually output from ABA. Based on the validity property of ABA, at least one non-faulty replica must have input the same bit as the output bit and broadcast the corresponding valid candidate. Therefore, each non-faulty replica will ultimately receive a valid candidate corresponding to the output bit and return the candidate. As a result, the liveness of ParBFT0 is guaranteed.

3.3 Performance analysis of ParBFT0

We analyze the performance of ParBFT0 in terms of consensus latency and communication overhead. To this end, we assume that ABA and VABA are implemented based on the state-of-the-art ABY-ABA [1] and the sMVBA [33], respectively. The expected latency of ABY-ABA is $4\delta$ in a good situation and $9\delta$ in a bad situation. The expected latency of sMVBA is $6\delta$ in a good situation and $12\delta$ in a bad situation.

If the leader is non-faulty, each replica will return from the optimistic path first, which takes $5\delta$. In addition, the ABA protocol has an expected latency of $4\delta$. Therefore, in the case of a non-faulty leader, the expected latency of ParBFT0 is $9\delta$. When the leader is faulty, each replica will return from the pessimistic path first. Consequently, the expected consensus latency of ParBFT0 is $21\delta$ from sMVBA and $9\delta$ from ABA. Regarding communication overhead, since each replica broadcasts data on the pessimistic path, ParBFT0 always has a message complexity of $O(n^2)$.

4 PARBFT1 WITH LOWER LATENCY

To reduce latency under a non-faulty leader, we propose ParBFT1, which allows a replica to commit data directly on the optimistic path without going through the final agreement. This is achieved by adding a shortcut rule on the optimistic path in the first stage and a prepare phase to exchange candidates before ABA in the second stage. We also modify the rule of returning candidates from the optimistic path.

4.1 Description of ParBFT1

Figure 2 illustrates the structure of ParBFT1, where we open the box of $PB2$ to show how a replica outputs a candidate in $PB2$. Comparing it with ParBFT0 in Figure 1 highlights the difference of ParBFT1 from ParBFT0: a replica outputs a candidate from the optimistic path after receiving $(d_o, \sigma_1)$ in $PB2$, without waiting for $(d, \sigma_2)$ as in ParBFT0. Instead, upon receiving $(d_o, \sigma_2)$, a replica can immediately commit the data and exit the current ParBFT1 instance, marked by $[\square]$ in Figure 1. This serves as a shortcut on the optimistic path, eliminating the need to execute the final agreement and resulting in an optimal latency of $5\delta$, which is the same as Ditto or BDT. Algorithm 2 outlines the pseudocode of the optimistic path in ParBFT1. For brevity, we omit the validity check of data in the pseudocode. As shown in Lines 10-11, a replica outputs
the optimistic candidate after receiving data from PB2. To ensure liveness, a replica will broadcast a Halt message before exiting. Any replica that receives a valid Hal t message can take a shortcut to commit the data and exit the current ParBFT1 instance as well. Pseudocode related to the decision and broadcast of Halt messages is shown in Lines 12-15 of Algorithm 2.

The use of a shortcut rule may pose safety risks to the algorithm, as some replicas may commit data through the shortcut while others may commit different data through the final agreement. To mitigate this safety risk, we introduce a prepare phase to exchange candidates before activating the ABA protocol. The prepare phase also provides an additional shortcut for committing data without running an ABA protocol. The final agreement after adding the prepare phase is described by Algorithm 3. Each replica will begin by broadcasting a PREP message, which contains the candidate and a partial threshold signature on the data (Lines 3-4 of Algorithm 3). The threshold is set to $n - f$. Once a replica has received $n - f$ valid PREP messages, it checks whether it can commit the data using another shortcut, marked by $\Box$ in Figure 2. If it cannot, the replica will prepare the input value to the ABA protocol. In more detail, there are three cases:

- **Case 1**: If all the $n - f$ PREP messages contain optimistic candidates (Lines 6-10 of Algorithm 3), the replica can construct a complete threshold signature $\sigma$ for $d_o$ based on the partial signatures in the PREP messages. With a valid $\sigma$, the replica can commit $d_o$ directly without activating the ABA protocol. Also, the replica will broadcast a Halt message containing $(d_o, \sigma)$ to help other replicas commit $d_o$.

- **Case 2**: If all the $n - f$ PREP messages contain pessimistic candidates (Lines 16-20 of Algorithm 3), the replica will broadcast the pessimistic candidate $(d_o, \sigma_0)$ and invoke the ABA protocol with 1.

- **Case 3**: If both optimistic and pessimistic candidates are present in these $n - f$ PREP messages (Lines 11-15 of Algorithm 3), the replica will broadcast the optimistic candidate and invoke the ABA protocol with 0.

Pseudocode of ParBFT1 is given in Algorithm 4. Note that even if a replica has obtained a candidate from the optimistic path, it will continue the remaining parts of the optimistic path. However, like in ParBFT0, a replica that obtains a candidate from either path will terminate its participation in the other path (Lines 8-11 of Algorithm 4). To speed up the progress, a replica can use the candidate from the received PREP message as if it is obtained from the first stage. In other words, the replica can construct and broadcast its PREP message using the candidate received from others. Besides, in Lines 2-5 of Algorithm 4, once a replica receives a valid Halt message, it can commit the data immediately and exit the current ParBFT1 instance. If data is committed at the end of the final agreement (Lines 13-15 of Algorithm 4), a replica is not necessary to broadcast a Halt message. This is because the ABA protocol in the final agreement already includes a broadcast step that assists others in obtaining the output from ABA and committing the data [1].

### 4.2 Correctness analysis

#### 4.2.1 Safety

There are three points at which data can be committed in ParBFT1: the end of the optimistic path, the end of the prepare phase, and the end of the final agreement. For brevity, we
Algorithm 4 ParBFT1 protocol (for replica $p_i$)

Let $q_i$ represent the data proposed by $p_i$.

1: activate OptPath1($q_i$)
2: activate VABA($q_i$)

3: upon receiving (HALT, $d$, $\sigma$) from $p_j$ do:
4: commit $d$
5: broadcast (HALT, $d$, $\sigma$) if has not
6: exit

7: wait for the output ($d$, $\sigma$) from OptPath1 or VABA
8: if the output is an optimistic candidate then:
9: terminate the pessimistic path; $tag \leftarrow$ OPT
10: else:
11: terminate the optimistic path; $tag \leftarrow$ PES
12: activate FINAGR with ($tag$, $d$, $\sigma$) if has not
13: wait for the output $d$ from FINAGR
14: commit $d$
15: exit

refer to these three points as $t_1$, $t_2$, and $t_3$, respectively. Next, we will analyze the safety of ParBFT1 in three situations.

- **Situation 1 (A non-faulty replica commits $d$ at $t_1$):** In this situation, at least $f + 1$ non-faulty replicas has returned from the optimistic path, each of which will broadcast the optimistic candidate in the prepare phase. Therefore, every replica will receive at least one optimistic candidate among the $n - f$ PREP messages, and only Case 1 or Case 3 in Section 4.1 are possible. If a non-faulty replica is in Case 1, it will commit $d$ directly. If it is in Case 3, it will broadcast the optimistic candidate (i.e., $d$) and invoke the ABA protocol with 0. In other words, each non-faulty replica will invoke the ABA protocol with 0, provided that it has not exited at $t_1$ or $t_2$. According to the validity property of ABA, the data output from ABA must be 0, and the data to be committed at $t_3$ must be $d$. Therefore, safety is guaranteed in this situation.

- **Situation 2 (A non-faulty replica commits $d$ at $t_2$):** According to Case 1 in Section 4.1, at least $f + 1$ non-faulty replicas must have broadcast the optimistic candidate in the prepare phase. The analysis of the remaining parts is identical to Situation 1, and ParBFT1 in this situation is safe.

- **Situation 3 (A non-faulty replica commits $d$ at $t_3$):** If there are other non-faulty replicas that commit data at $t_1$ or $t_2$, safety is guaranteed based on the analysis of Situation 1 and Situation 2. Therefore, we only need to consider the remaining situation where all the non-faulty replicas commit data at $t_3$. According to the safety property of ABA, non-faulty replicas will get the same output bit from ABA and thus commit the corresponding candidate. Since all the optimistic (respectively, pessimistic) candidates are identical, safety is guaranteed in this situation.

4.2.2 Liveness. If a non-faulty replica commits data at $t_1$ or $t_2$, it will broadcast a Halt message. Every non-faulty replica will eventually receive this Halt message and commit the data if it has not committed before. Next, we consider the situation where no non-faulty replica commits at $t_1$ or $t_2$.

On the one hand, a replica will keep participating in the pessimistic path if it has not obtained the optimistic candidate. On the other hand, the termination property of the VABA protocol ensures that a replica can obtain a pessimistic candidate from VABA if all the non-faulty replicas keep participating in VABA. Therefore, at least one non-faulty replica can obtain the candidate from the first stage. According to the description in Section 4.1, this replica will then broadcast its candidate in the PREP message. If a replica has not obtained the candidate, it can take the candidate in the PREP message as its own. This allows each replica to advance to the final agreement. The termination property of the ABA protocol guarantees that each non-faulty replica will eventually output from ABA. Besides, according to the validity of ABA, if the ABA protocol outputs a bit $b$, at least one non-faulty replica must have input $b$ to ABA, which will also broadcast the corresponding candidate. Therefore, a replica that obtains the output from ABA will eventually receive the corresponding candidate and commit the data, thereby guaranteeing the liveness of ParBFT1.

4.3 Performance analysis
As long as the leader is non-faulty, a replica in ParBFT1 can commit at the end of the optimistic path, which has a latency of $5\delta$. If the leader is faulty, ParBFT1 takes $22\delta$ to reach consensus, slightly larger than $21\delta$ in ParBFT0, due to the additional prepare phase. Furthermore, since the pessimistic path always results in quadratic communication overhead, the optimistic path in ParBFT1 can be implemented using the normal-case protocol of PBFT [16], where each replica broadcasts the votes instead of sending them to the leader. This allows ParBFT1 to achieve a latency of $3\delta$ under a non-faulty leader.

However, since the pessimistic path is launched at the beginning, ParBFT1 has a message complexity of $O(n^2)$, even when the leader is non-faulty and the network is good, which is larger than the $O(\alpha n)$ complexity of Ditto or BDT where $t$ is the actual number of Byzantine replicas.

5 PARBFT2 WITH LOWER COMMUNICATION
To reduce the message complexity in good situations, we propose ParBFT2, whose key idea is to delay the launch of the pessimistic path by $5\delta$. When it is in a good situation, the consensus can be reached through the optimistic path in $5\delta$, without running the pessimistic path and avoiding the quadratic message complexity. Although ParBFT2 re-introduces the parameter $\Delta$, its negative effects are not as severe as those in prior works. To be more specific, an incorrect estimation of $\Delta$ in Ditto or BDT can lead to premature switching from the optimistic path to the pessimistic path, resulting in both high latency and large communication overhead. In ParBFT2, incorrect estimation of $\Delta$ will only increase communication overhead.
5.1 Description of ParBFT2

Figure 3 illustrates the structure of ParBFT2, which delays launching the pessimistic path by 5Δ. The rationale behind this delay is that, in a good situation, a replica is expected to commit on the optimistic path within 5Δ. To be more specific, a replica that cannot commit within this time period will check whether it has obtained the optimistic candidate. If it has, the replica will activate the final agreement with the optimistic candidate, avoiding the need to launch the pessimistic path. Otherwise, the replica will launch the pessimistic path.

Algorithm 5 describes the ParBFT2 protocol. It differs from ParBFT1 in that replicas do not activate the final agreement immediately after obtaining an optimistic candidate. Instead, the final agreement is activated only after the timer of 5Δ expires (Lines 6-10 of Algorithm 5), similar to the launch of the pessimistic path. Additionally, a replica that commits on the optimistic path or receives a \texttt{Halt} message will not always broadcast a \texttt{Halt} message to avoid introducing quadratic communication overhead. Instead, the replica will check if it has already activated \texttt{FINAGR} or \texttt{VABA} before. Only if this is true will it broadcast \texttt{Halt} messages. Furthermore, to ensure that each non-faulty replica can commit, a replica that has committed must send a \texttt{Halt} message to another replica \( p_j \) if it receives a \texttt{FINAGR} or \texttt{VABA} message from \( p_j \), even though it has exited from the current ParBFT2 instance. It is worth noting that the partially synchronous BFT protocols such as HotStuff also use a similar design to help each non-faulty replica commit, where a non-faulty replica \( p_i \) responds to another replica \( p_j \) with the blocks lacked by \( p_j \).

In fact, ParBFT2 can be viewed as an intermediate protocol between the serial-path protocols (i.e., Ditto/BDT) and ParBFT1. At one end of the spectrum, the serial-path protocols execute the optimistic and pessimistic paths in a serial manner. At the other end of the spectrum, ParBFT1 launches these two paths simultaneously in parallel. As an intermediate design point, ParBFT2 launches the two paths in a partially parallel fashion, with the pessimistic path being activated slightly later than the optimistic path.

5.2 Correctness analysis

It is evident that ParBFT2’s safety is identical to that of ParBFT1, so the analysis is omitted. We focus on liveness. To recap, we refer to three points to commit the data as \( t_1, t_2, \) and \( t_3 \). If a non-faulty replica \( p_i \) commits the data at \( t_1 \) but another replica \( p_2 \) does not, \( p_2 \) will activate either \texttt{VABA} or \texttt{FINAGR}. According to the description in Section 5.1, \( p_1 \) will either broadcast a \texttt{Halt} message or directly send the \texttt{Halt} message to \( p_2 \) after receiving the \texttt{VABA}/\texttt{FINAGR} message. Therefore, \( p_2 \) will eventually receive the \texttt{Halt} message and commit, ensuring liveness.
If no non-faulty replica commits at \( t_1 \), it means that each non-faulty replica will activate the final agreement protocol with an optimistic candidate or launch the pessimistic path. If a non-faulty replica activates the final agreement protocol with an optimistic candidate, each non-faulty replica will receive this candidate in the prepare phase and activate the final agreement protocol. Otherwise (i.e., if all the non-faulty replicas launch the pessimistic path), each non-faulty replica can obtain a candidate from the pessimistic path and activate the final agreement protocol. To sum up, if no non-faulty replica commits at \( t_1 \), each non-faulty replica will smoothly advance to the final agreement. The remaining parts of the liveness analysis are the same as those in ParBFT1 and are therefore omitted.

5.3 Performance analysis

On the one hand, ParBFT2 can achieve the same latency of \( 5\delta \) as ParBFT1, as long as the leader on the optimistic path is non-faulty. On the other hand, if the leader faulty, ParBFT2’s latency is \( 5\Delta \) larger than ParBFT1, at an expected latency of \( 5\Delta + 2\delta \) due to the delay to the pessimistic path. However, by adopting the chain structure and the pipelining technique described in Section 6.1 and Appendix A, ParBFT2 can achieve a latency of \( 2\Delta + 25\delta \) under a faulty leader, which is the same as that of BDT.

Regarding the communication overhead, if it is in a good situation where the leader is non-faulty and \( \delta \leq \Delta \), ParBFT2 can commit without launching the pessimistic path or activating the final agreement protocol. As a result, ParBFT2 has a message complexity of \( O(tn) \), which is better than ParBFT1 and comparable to Ditto or BDT. On the contrary, if it is in a bad situation, the message complexity of ParBFT2 is \( O(n^2) \), the same as ParBFT1, Ditto, and BDT.

As can be seen from Table 1, a wrong estimation of \( \Delta \) in ParBFT2 will only increase the message complexity without affecting the consensus latency. We can think of ParBFT2 as making a trade-off between latency and communication over ParBFT1. To be more specific, ParBFT2 trades the larger latency under a Byzantine leader for a smaller message complexity in a good situation.

6 IMPLEMENTATION & EVALUATION

In this section, we first introduce the chain-based version of ParBFT, which organizes data on the optimistic path into blocks that are chained one by one and processed in a pipelined manner to improve throughput. We then implement the chain-based system prototypes of both variants (i.e., ParBFT1 and ParBFT2) and conduct extensive experiments to evaluate their performance.

6.1 Chain-based ParBFT

In the previous description of ParBFT, we focused on a single instance of consensus to illustrate our main ideas more clearly. We can easily organize the data on the optimistic path across consecutive ParBFT instances into blocks and chain them together. This allows us to pipeline the processing of these blocks to improve throughput, as is commonly done in many partially-synchronous protocols [11, 59].

In general, the chain-based ParBFT proceeds in epochs, with blocks in an epoch indexed by increasing and successive height numbers. On the optimistic path of an epoch, the leader \( L_h \) of height \( h \) will create a Quorum Certificate \( QC_{h-1} \) by combining the partial threshold signatures on the block \( B_{h-1} \) of height \( h-1 \). After embedding \( QC_{h-1} \) in its newly created block \( B_h \), \( L_h \) will broadcast \( B_h \) to other replicas. When a replica receives \( B_h \), it will commit the block \( B_{h-2} \) and vote for \( B_h \) by sending its partial threshold signature on \( B_h \) to the leader \( L_{h+1} \) of height \( h + 1 \). This optimistic path is similar to Tendermint [11] or two-chain HotStuff [59], where block processing is pipelined. The difference is that the chain-based ParBFT also attempts to launch a pessimistic path and then the final agreement protocol for each height, either immediately in ParBFT1 or delayed in ParBFT2. An epoch ends if any candidate from the pessimistic path gets committed, at which point the protocol moves on to the next epoch.

For chain-based ParBFT2, the timing parameter for delaying the pessimistic path can be set to \( 2\Delta \), resulting in a latency of \( 2\Delta + 25\delta \) under a faulty leader, as is shown in Table 1. Due to space constraints, we defer a detailed description of chain-based ParBFT to Appendix A. From now on, we refer to the chain-based ParBFT simply as ParBFT in the remainder of the paper where there is no ambiguity.

6.2 Implementation and setting

We implement the chain-based version of ParBFT in Golang (v1.17). Our implementation leverages several open-source libraries, including kyber\(^2\) for threshold signatures, go-mgrpc\(^3\) for network communication, and gorpc\(^4\) for synchronizing data payloads. We choose the MMR version of the ABA protocol [47] for implementation due to its simplicity. We are aware that the MMR protocol is vulnerable to liveness attacks if the adversary can arbitrarily manipulate message deliveries. This problem has known solutions [1, 44, 48], but it is not central to our paper.

Although there is an open-source implementation of BDT, it is written in Python, which generally has worse performance than Golang implementations. In addition, its pessimistic path uses Dumbo-MVBA [34], which is no longer the state-of-the-art. To ensure fairness, we implement our own version of BDT in Golang and give it a more efficient MVBA subroutine (i.e., sMVBA [33]) as its pessimistic path. For Ditto, we directly adopt its open-source Rust implementation\(^5\). For a lack of better heuristics, we follow the default configuration of BDT and Ditto that switch back to the optimistic path once a single agreement decision is reached on the pessimistic path.

We implement clients to send transactions to replicas at a rate controlled by a tunable configuration parameter. Additionally, we implement a mempool [29] to facilitate replicas to synchronize the data blocks in the background without embedding them into consensus messages. We set the transaction size to 512 bytes, same as the Ditto implementation. The payload size in the mempool is set to 50 KB, and each data block at the consensus layer can reference up to 100 payloads.

Our experiments are conducted in three different environments that attempt to capture the three situations in Table 1: (1) a good situation where the leader of the optimistic path is non-faulty and the network is good; (2) a situation with a non-faulty leader but a slow network; and (3) a situation where the leader is faulty (either

\(^2\)https://github.com/dedio/kyber
\(^3\)https://github.com/hashicorp/go-mgrpc
\(^4\)https://github.com/valyala/gorpc
\(^5\)https://github.com/danielxiang/Ditto
malicious or under a denial-of-service attack). We focus on the performance metrics of latency and throughput. Latency is measured as the time it takes to commit a transaction after it is included in a payload. Throughput is calculated as the average number of committed transactions per second. Each group of experiments is repeated three times to reduce experimental errors, and each data point in the following sections is represented by an error bar. The experiments are conducted on AWS (Amazon Web Service), with each replica equipped with an m5d.xlarge EC2 instance with 4 vCPUs, 16 GB memory, and up to 10Gbps network bandwidth. The replicas are distributed across five regions in a geo-distributed manner.

### 6.3 Performance in a good situation

In this group of experiments, we fix the rate of transactions sent by all clients as 10,000 transactions per second. The parameter Δ in Ditto, BDT, and ParBFT2 is set as 500 ms (milliseconds), resulting in a timer of 1,000 ms (2Δ), which is significantly larger than the actual network delay. We increase the number of replicas from four to forty, with a step size of six. The experimental results are shown in Figure 4.

The results demonstrate that Ditto, BDT, and ParBFT2 all exhibit excellent performance scalability as the number of replicas increases, with a low latency of about 300 ms and a high throughput of over 9K TPS (Transactions Per Second), even with 40 replicas. This is because Ditto or BDT do not switch to the pessimistic path, and ParBFT2 need not launch the pessimistic path.

On the other hand, ParBFT1 demonstrates poor scalability as the number of replicas increases. To be more specific, when there are 40 replicas, ParBFT1 has an average latency of 1.09 seconds and an average throughput of 7.8k TPS. There is a large variation in its performance. ParBFT1’s poor performance is as expected given its quadratic message complexity. It is noteworthy that ParBFT1 does have an advantage in latency over other protocols when the number of replicas is small. The reason is that replicas in ParBFT1 can immediately activate the prepare phase in the final agreement protocol after receiving one subsequent block (or receiving output from PB1 in Figure 2). The prepare phase enables replicas to commit a block within one round of communication rather than two rounds required on the optimistic path.
6.4 Performance in a slow network

In this situation, we simulate a slow network by adding delays to all messages. Specifically, we introduce a new delay parameter \( \zeta \), which ranges from 0 ms to 700 ms in increments of 100 ms. We note that \( \zeta \) represents an artificial delay added to all messages, so the final message delay would be \( \zeta \) plus the original network delay. We fix the number of replicas at sixteen, and keep the rate of transactions from clients and \( \Delta \) the same as Section 6.3. Experimental results are presented in Figure 5.

As shown, the performance of Ditto and BDT deteriorates significantly when \( \zeta \) exceeds 500 ms. This is because the optimistic path in Ditto or BDT fails to commit a block in time, and the timeout event is triggered to switch to the pessimistic path. Although the timer also expires and the pessimistic path is launched in ParBFT2, the optimistic path will still finish faster than the pessimistic path, so ParBFT2 still commits blocks through the optimistic path, even in the presence of artificial delays.

In Figure 5a, we observe that the latency of ParBFT1 is initially higher than that of ParBFT2 as \( \zeta \) increases, but then becomes lower and eventually about the same as ParBFT2. The reason for this trend is that at the start of small \( \zeta \), the quadratic message complexity in ParBFT1 leads to higher latency than ParBFT2. Although we have discussed in Section 6.3 that ParBFT1 can benefit from early decision in the prepare phase, this advantage cannot compensate for the loss from quadratic message complexity. However, as \( \zeta \) increases from 0 ms to 400 ms, the benefit of one-round communication in ParBFT1 becomes more and more significant, enabling it to achieve lower latency than ParBFT2 when \( \zeta \) exceeds 300 ms. When \( \zeta \) reaches 500 ms, the timer in ParBFT2 expires, and both the pessimistic path and prepare phase are activated. In this case, ParBFT2 also benefits from the prepare phase, similar to ParBFT1, and hence achieves comparable performance. It is worth noting that although the activation of prepare phase in ParBFT2 is delayed until the timer expires, this does not add extra latency to the decision in the prepare phase. This is because, given \( \zeta \) reaches 500 ms, when the timer in ParBFT2 expires, the optimistic path has not yet output the candidate. Once the optimistic candidate is output, the prepare phase can be activated immediately, resulting in a total latency that is equal to the sum of the time taken to output the candidate and the time taken by the prepare phase.

6.5 Performance under a faulty leader

In this section, we examine the situation where the leader is faulty. Instead of directly crashing the leader, we delay the block proposals from the leader to simulate a faulty leader. More precisely, we parameterize the delay by \( \psi \) and observe the performance of the protocols under different \( \psi \) values. It is worth noting that if \( \psi \) is set to a sufficiently large value, the leader can be considered as faulty. For this group of experiments, we fix the number of replicas at sixteen and set the rate of transactions sent by clients to 10,000. The parameter \( \Delta \) is set to 250 ms, resulting in a timer of 500 ms. We increase the value of \( \psi \) from 0 ms to 2,800 ms in increments of 400 ms. Figure 6 shows the experimental results.

We can immediately notice that the performance of all protocols deteriorates when the block proposals are delayed. Upon a more careful comparison, we see that Ditto and BDT experience a sharp decline in performance when \( \psi \) reaches 400 ms, because this is when the timer expires and the path switch is triggered. In contrast, the performance of ParBFT1 and ParBFT2 decreases gradually, thanks to the early decision in the prepare phase. Specifically, in the case of ParBFT2, a block can still be submitted at the end of the prepare phase, even after the timer expires and the pessimistic path is launched when \( \psi \) exceeds 400 ms. In terms of the final steady performance, ParBFT1 outperforms the other protocols due to the simultaneous launch of both two paths. In contrast, all of Ditto, BDT, and ParBFT2 launch the pessimistic path only after the timer expires. If the optimistic path cannot make progress, this delays the pessimistic path and the consensus progress. Furthermore, BDT and ParBFT2 exhibit worse performance than Ditto, possibly due to the additional usage of an ABA protocol.

7 RELATED WORK

Based on different timing assumptions, BFT protocols can be classified into three categories: synchronous, partially-synchronous, and asynchronous.
7.1 Synchronous BFT protocols

The pioneering works of Pease et al. [39, 49] introduce the problem of Byzantine agreement, originally in a synchronous network where messages between non-faulty replicas are delivered in a timely manner. Assuming a network delay upper bound (i.e., \( \Delta \)), early synchronous protocols coordinate all the replicas to proceed in a lock-step manner [2, 8, 23, 26, 35]. However, this approach is caught in a delicate dilemma between security and efficiency. If \( \Delta \) is set too small, the synchrony will be violated, and the protocol will lose safety. On the other hand, if \( \Delta \) is set too large, each lock-step round will take a long time, causing unnecessary delays and poor performance. For this reason, synchronous BFT consensus protocols have long been considered impractical. Recent works such as Sync Hot-Stuff [4] alleviated this problem by embracing a non-lockstep model of synchrony, enabling replicas to advance more quickly to the next steps and minimizing the protocol’s performance dependency on \( \Delta \). Despite the improvement, synchronous protocols, including Sync Hotstuff, still have their performance fundamentally dependent on \( \Delta \) and thus still face the dilemma of incorrect estimation of \( \Delta \).

7.2 Partially-synchronous BFT protocols

The partial synchrony model proposed by Dwork et al. [25] opens up a new avenue for BFT consensus protocol design. PBFT [16], based on a partially synchrony model and using the view-based design, becomes the de facto standard for practical BFT consensus for over a decade. To reduce the (already low) latency of PBFT from three rounds to two rounds, a range of works propose adding a fast path. These include Zyzzyva [38], FastBFT [41], SBFT [32], and Trebiz [19]. More recently, the emergence of blockchains inspires further simplification of the view-based partially synchronous BFT paradigm protocol with the new chain-based structures of blocks, as seen in Tendermint [11], Casper FFG [12], HotStuff [59], and Streamlet [17].

Although partially synchronous protocols exhibit decent performance in the good case, they have recently been criticized for being vulnerable to liveness attack [45]. To be more specific, even with a non-faulty leader, the adversary may construct an elaborate network scheduler that blocks messages to and from the leader until the leader is demoted. This results in a loss of liveness.

7.3 Asynchronous BFT protocols

Research on the asynchronous BFT protocols dates back to the 1980s [7, 10, 15, 18]. Asynchronous BFT broadcast protocols enable replicas to deliver the same message from a designated broadcaster, with Bracha’s reliable broadcast [9] and Dolev’s consistent broadcast [22] being notable examples. These protocols are typically used as subroutines in the Byzantine consensus or state machine replication protocols. The famous FLP impossibility states that asynchronous BFT consensus protocols must make use of randomness [27]. Early works in this area include Ben-Or [7], Canetti-Rabin [15], CKPS [13] and SINTRA [14]. Many works focus on the simpler problem of agreeing on a single bit (0 or 1), also known as Asynchronous Binary Agreement (ABA) [1, 7, 28, 47]. Recent practical advances in asynchronous BFT include HoneybadgerBFT [45], the Dumbo family of protocols [33, 34, 43], and Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)-based protocols [20, 36, 52, 54]. Although asynchronous consensus protocols are more robust than partially synchronous ones, they generally have inferior performance. To match the performance of partially synchronous protocols, a number of works propose adding an optimistic path, which is often adapted from a partially synchronous protocol, and use the original asynchronous protocol as a pessimistic fallback [30, 42]. We have discussed the drawbacks of this design extensively, and it is also the motivation of our work.

8 CONCLUSION

The existing serial-path BFT consensus protocols can result in significant latency if the network delay is incorrectly estimated. To deal with this problem, we propose ParBFT, whose intuitive idea is to parallelize the optimistic and pessimistic paths. In general, ParBFT can achieve a low latency of 5 as long as the leader on the optimistic path is non-faulty, without requiring estimation of the network delay. We present two variants of ParBFT (i.e., ParBFT1 and ParBFT2) that offer a trade-off between latency and communication overhead. To enhance system throughput, we also introduce the chain-based version of ParBFT, which incorporates chain structure and pipeline technology into the optimistic path. We prove that ParBFT can guarantee both liveness and safety, and our experimental results demonstrate its feasibility and efficiency.

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A CHAIN-BASED PARBFT

To improve the system throughput, we introduce the chain structures to the optimistic path of ParBFT, which enables the blocks to be processed in a pipelining manner. Corresponding to different variants of ParBFT, we devise the chain-based ParBFT1 and ParBFT2, which are described in Algorithm 7 and Algorithm 8, respectively.

Like other chain-based protocols such as HotStuff [59], all the data in chain-based ParBFT are organized into blocks, with each one indexed by a height number and containing a Quorum Certificate (QC) of the previous one. The QC is a complete threshold signature, which is created by combining partial threshold signatures from $n-f$ replicas. Each block $B_h$ also contains a data bulk $b_h$, consisting of
transactions to be processed. ParBFT operates in successive epochs, and different epochs are independent, which means there is no complex epoch-change mechanism to switch from one epoch to another. When a replica exits the current epoch, it can directly enter the next epoch. Either Algorithm 7 or Algorithm 8 describes the protocol in a single epoch.

A.1 Chain-based ParBFT1

Blocks within each epoch are numbered starting from height 0, and each epoch is initialized with a blank block denoted as $B_0$, which contains an empty data bulk $b_h$ and an empty QC $\bot$. In the chain-based ParBFT1, every replica activates a new epoch by broadcasting its vote for $B_0$, which includes a partial threshold signature on $B_0$. It is important to note that broadcasting votes on the optimistic path ensures that the pessimistic path can be launched simultaneously with the optimistic path, as shown in Lines 14-16 of Algorithm 7. Although the broadcast of votes results in quadratic message complexity, it does not significantly affect ParBFT1, since the pessimistic path already brings quadratic message complexity to the protocol.

Blocks on the optimistic path are committed through the two-chain structure. Upon receiving a block $B_h$, the block $B_{h-2}$ can be committed, and the pessimistic path and the final agreement protocol for the height $h-2$ can be terminated, as shown in Lines 20-21 of Algorithm 7. Additionally, the final agreement protocol for the height $h-1$ can be activated with the optimistic candidate, as shown in Lines 22-23. On the contrary, if the replica obtains the pessimistic candidate for height $h$, it will activate the final agreement protocol $\text{FinAGr}_h$ with the pessimistic candidate and stop voting for the block $B_{h+1}$ on the optimistic path (Lines 24-26).

Once a block is committed through the final agreement protocol $\text{FinAGr}_h$ and the block is a pessimistic candidate, the replica will exit the current epoch. To ensure that all the replicas will exit at the same height and commit identical blocks, a replica will wait to find the final agreement protocol with the smallest height number that commits the pessimistic candidate, denoted by $\text{FinAGr}_h$. The replica then commits the block $B_h$, discards all blocks with heights larger than $h$, and terminates all pessimistic paths and final agreement protocols with heights greater than $h$. After this, the replica exits the current epoch and enters the next.

Moreover, the chain-based ParBFT1 includes a block retrieval mechanism similar to other chain-based protocols such as HotStuff. If a replica $p_i$ receives a new block $B$ from leader $p_L$, but it lacks some ancestor blocks of $B$, $p_i$ will send a request to $p_L$ to retrieve the missing blocks. Only if all ancestor blocks of $B$ are received can $p_i$ accept $B$ as valid. As this block retrieval mechanism is common in many chain-based protocols, detailed descriptions of it are omitted here.

A.2 Chain-based ParBFT2

Unlike chain-based ParBFT1, in chain-based ParBFT2, votes are only sent to the leader, avoiding quadratic message complexity. Additionally, the timeout parameter in chain-based ParBFT2 is set as $2\Delta$ instead of $5\Delta$ in non-chain ParBFT2. At the beginning of each epoch, each replica sets a timer and waits for $B_h$ (Line 3 of Algorithm 8).

When a block $B_h$ is received, the timer for the next height $h + 1$ starts. If $B_{h+1}$ is not received within $2\Delta$, the timeout event is triggered, and the replica activates the pessimistic path at $h$ (Lines 5-6 and 21-23). Moreover, the final agreement protocol at $h-1$ will be activated with an optimistic candidate (Lines 18-19). The remaining parts of chain-based ParBFT2 are the same as chain-based ParBFT1. Since the pessimistic path in chain-based ParBFT2 is delayed by $2\Delta$, it can achieve an expected latency of $2\Delta + 25\delta$ when the leader on the optimistic path is faulty.

Algorithm 7 CHAIN-PARBFT1: Chain-based ParBFT1 protocol (for replica $p_h$)

Let $b_h$ represent a data bulk extracted from the mempool. $\text{SignShare}$ and $\text{Combine}$ denote the threshold signature functions, and $\text{create\_block}$ denotes the function that creates a block based on the data bulk and QC.

1: initialize $S \leftarrow [\bot, \ldots, \bot]$
2: broadcast $(\text{VOTE}, B_0, \text{SignShare}_{n-f}(B_0))$
3: upon receiving $(\text{VOTE}, B_h, \rho_h)$ from replica $p_j$ do:
   4: if has not voted for $B_h$ then:
      5: broadcast $(\text{VOTE}, B_h, \text{SignShare}_{n-f}(B_h))$
      6: if $\text{VABA}_h$ has not been activated then:
         7: extract $\text{QC}_{h-1}$ from $B_h$
         8: $B'_h \leftarrow \text{create\_block}(h, B_h, \text{QC}_{h-1})$
         9: activate $\text{VABA}_h(B'_h)$
      10: if $|S[h]| = n - f$ then:
         11: $\text{QC}_h \leftarrow \text{Combine}_{n-f}(B_h, S[h])$
         12: $B_{h+1} \leftarrow \text{create\_block}(h+1, B_{h+1}, \text{QC}_h)$
      13: if $p_i$ is leader of $h + 1$ then:
         14: broadcast $B_{h+1}$
         15: activate $\text{VABA}_{h+1}(B_{h+1})$
17: upon receiving $B_h$ from the leader of $h$ do:
18: if has not voted for $B_h$ then:
19: broadcast $(\text{VOTE}, B_h, \text{SignShare}_{n-f}(B_h))$
20: terminate $\text{VABA}_{h-2}$ and $\text{FinAGr}_{h-2}$
22: extract $\text{QC}_{h-1}$ from $B_h$
23: activate $\text{FinAGr}_{h-1}$ with $(\text{OPT}, B_{h-1}, \text{QC}_{h-1})$ if has not
24: upon receiving $(B_h, \sigma_p)$ from $\text{VABA}_h$ do:
25: activate $\text{FinAGr}_h$ with $(\text{PES}, B_h, \sigma_p)$ if has not
26: stop voting for the optimistic block $B_{h+1}$
27: upon receiving $B_h$ from $\text{FinAGr}_h$ do:
28: if $B_h$ is a pessimistic candidate, then:
29: wait for each $\text{FinAGr}_k (k < h)$ are terminated or finished
30: $\text{FA}_k \leftarrow$ lowest $\text{FinAGr}_k$ outputting pessimistic candidate
31: extract $B_h$ from $\text{FA}_k$
32: commit $B_h$ if has not
33: discard all the blocks $B_k (k > h)$
34: terminate all the $\text{VABA}_k$ and $\text{FinAGr}_k (k > h)$
35: exit
Algorithm 8 CHAINPARBFT2: Chain-based ParBFT2 protocol (for replica $p_1$)

Let $b_h$ represent a data bulk extracted from the mempool. $\text{SignShare}$ and $\text{Combine}$ denote the threshold signature functions, and $\text{create\_block}$ denotes the function that creates a block based on the data bulk and QC.

1: initialize $S \leftarrow [\bot, \bot, \ldots, \bot]$
2: send $(\text{VOTE}, B_0, \text{SignShare}_{n-f}(B_0))$ to leader of height 1
3: wait until timer of $2\Delta$ expires or $B_1$ is received
4: if $B_1$ is not received then:
5: $B'_0 \leftarrow \text{create\_block}(0, b_0, \bot)$
6: activate $\text{VABA}_0(B'_0)$
7: upon receiving $(\text{VOTE}, B_h, p_h)$ from replica $p_j$ do:
8: $S[h] \leftarrow S[h] \cup p_h$
9: if $|S[h]| = n - f$ and $p_1$ is leader of $h + 1$ then:
10: $\text{QC}_h' \leftarrow \text{Combine}_{n-f}(B_h, S[h])$
11: $B_{h+1} \leftarrow \text{create\_block}(h + 1, b_{h+1}, \text{QC}_h)$
12: broadcast $B_{h+1}$
13: upon receiving $B_h$ from the leader of $h$ do:
14: send $(\text{VOTE}, B_h, \text{SignShare}_{n-f}(B_h))$ to leader of $h + 1$
15: commit $B_{h-2}$
16: terminate $\text{VABA}_{h-2}$ and $\text{FINAGR}_{h-2}$
17: extract $\text{QC}_{h-1}$ from $B_h$
18: if $\text{VABA}_{h-1}$ has been activated then:
19: activate $\text{FINAGR}_{h-1}$ with $(\text{OPT}, B_{h-1}, \text{QC}_{h-1})$ if has not
20: wait until timer of $2\Delta$ expires or $B_{h+1}$ is received
21: if $B_{h+1}$ is not received then:
22: $B'_h \leftarrow \text{create\_block}(h, b_h, \text{QC}_{h-1})$
23: activate $\text{VABA}_h(B'_h)$
24: // Same as lines 24-35 of Algorithm 7

A.3 Safety analysis

For brevity, we use the term “pessimistic decision” to refer to the scenario where the block is committed at the end of the final agreement protocol and the block is a pessimistic candidate. Otherwise, we refer to it as an “optimistic decision”. Concerning the safety analysis, there is no difference between chain-based ParBFT1 and chain-based ParBFT2. Therefore, the following analysis applies to both two variants. Furthermore, as the protocol instances for different epochs are independent, we can limit the safety analysis to a single epoch. The safety property is interpreted as Theorem 3, whose proof relies on two lemmas: Lemma 1 and Lemma 2.

**Lemme 1.** If a non-faulty replica commits $B_h$ through an optimistic decision, then every non-faulty replica will also commit $B_k (k \leq h)$ through an optimistic decision.

**Proof.** We prove this by contradiction. Let us assume that there is a pessimistic decision of block $B_k$ in replica $p_1$. This implies that at least $f + 1$ non-faulty replicas activate $\text{FINAGR}_k$ with pessimistic candidates. These replicas must receive data from $\text{VABA}_k$ before receiving $B_{k+1}$. We consider the following three situations:

- According to Lines 24-26 of Algorithm 7, these replicas will not vote for $B_{k+1}$. As a result, the leader of height $k + 2$ cannot collect $n - f$ votes for $B_{k+1}$ nor create a valid $B_{k+2}$. Furthermore, any block with a height $m (m \geq k + 2)$ cannot be created either, and any block with a height $m (m \geq k)$ cannot be committed on the optimistic path.

- Since any block with a height $m (m \geq k + 2)$ cannot be created, any $\text{FINAGR}_{m}(m \geq k+1)$ instance cannot be activated by an optimistic candidate. Therefore, any optimistic block with a height $m (m \geq k + 1)$ cannot be committed at the end of the prepare phase or the end of the final agreement protocol.

- Regarding a height $m = k$, if it is committed at the end of the prepare phase, the block must be an optimistic candidate, and the final agreement protocol will also commit an optimistic candidate, which leads to a contradiction. If it is also committed at the end of the final agreement protocol, according to the agreement property of ABA, the block will also be a pessimistic candidate.

To sum up, if a non-faulty replica commits a pessimistic block at height $k$, no non-faulty replica can commit an optimistic block at height $m \geq k$. Therefore, Lemma 1 is proven.

**Leme 2.** If a non-faulty replica exists the current epoch at height $h$, then every other non-faulty replica will also exit the current epoch at height $h$.

**Proof.** Assuming a non-faulty replica $p_1$ exits the current epoch at height $h$, as per Lines 29-35 of Algorithm 7, $p_1$ must commit an optimistic block for each height $m (m < h)$ and commit a pessimistic block at height $h$. On one hand, according to Lemma 1, each non-faulty replica will also commit an optimistic block for each height $m (m < h)$. Therefore, each non-faulty replica will exit at a height $k (k \geq h)$. On the other hand, according to the agreement property of ABA, each non-faulty replica will definitely commit a pessimistic block at height $h$. In other words, $h$ is the lowest height where a pessimistic decision occurs, and each non-faulty replica will exit at height $h$.

**Theorem 3 (Safety).** If two non-faulty replicas commit blocks $B$ and $B'$ at height $h$ respectively, then $B = B'$.

**Proof.** Without loss of generality, we assume that a non-faulty replica exits the current epoch at height $h$. As shown in Lemma 2, each non-faulty replica must also exit the current epoch at height $h$. Thus, for each height $k (k < h)$, every non-faulty replica will commit a block through the optimistic decision, and for height $h$, everyone will commit a block through the pessimistic decision. According to the safety property of the quorum mechanisms and the agreement property of ABA, all the blocks committed at the same height must be identical, which concludes the proof.
A.4 Liveness analysis

In contrast to the original definition in Section 2.1, we interpret the liveness property in chain-based ParBFT as Theorem 4. This theorem guarantees that if every non-faulty replica continues to enter the next epoch after exiting the previous epoch, blocks will be continuously committed, and the liveness is promised. The following analysis also applies to both two chain-based variants.

**Theorem 4 (Liveness).** At least one block can be committed in an epoch. Furthermore, for every height $h$ in an epoch, either an optimistic block is committed at $h$ or all non-faulty replicas exit at $k (k \leq h)$.

**Proof.** Lemma 2 implies that all non-faulty replicas will exit an epoch at the same height, denoted as $h_e$ without loss of generality. At every height $h (h \leq h_e)$ in an epoch, either an optimistic block or a pessimistic block is committed, ensuring that at least one block can be committed in an epoch.

For a height $h$, if $h \geq h_e$, all non-faulty replicas exit at $k = h_e (k \leq h)$. On the other hand, if $h < h_e$, according to Lines 27-35 of Algorithm 7, an optimistic candidate block is committed at $h$. Thus, for every height $h$ in an epoch, either an optimistic block is committed at $h$ or all non-faulty replicas exit at $k (k \leq h)$. This concludes the proof.

□