DeepChain: Auditable and Privacy-Preserving Deep Learning with Blockchain-based Incentive

Jia-Si Weng, Jian Weng, Member, IEEE, Jilian Zhang, Ming Li, Yue Zhang, Weigi Luo,

Abstract—Deep learning technology has achieved the high-accuracy of state-of-the-art algorithms in a variety of AI tasks. Its popularity has drawn security researchers' attention to the topic of privacy-preserving deep learning, in which neither training data nor model is expected to be exposed. Recently, federated learning becomes promising for the development of deep learning where multi-parties upload local gradients and a server updates parameters with collected gradients, the privacy issues of which have been discussed widely. In this paper, we explore additional security issues in this case, not merely the privacy. First, we consider that the general assumption of honest-but-curious server is problematic, and the malicious server may break privacy. Second, the malicious server or participants may damage the correctness of training, such as incorrect gradient collecting or parameter updating. Third, we discover that federated learning lacks an effective incentive mechanism for distrustful participants due to privacy and financial considerations. To address the aforementioned issues, we introduce a value-driven incentive mechanism based on Blockchain. Adapted to this incentive setting, we migrate the malicious threats from server and participants, and guarantee the privacy and auditability. Thus, we propose to present DeepChain which gives mistrustful parties incentives to participate in privacy-preserving learning, share gradients and update parameters correctly, and eventually accomplish iterative learning with a win-win result. At last, we give an implementation prototype by integrating deep learning module with a Blockchain development platform (Corda V3.0). We evaluate it in terms of encryption performance and training accuracy, which demonstrates the feasibility of DeepChain.

Index Terms—Deep learning, Privacy-preserving training, Blockchain, Incentive

1 INTRODUCTION

Recent advances in deep learning based on artificial neural networks have witnessed unprecedented accuracy in various tasks, e.g., speech recognition [1], image recognition [2], drug discovery [3] and gene analysis for cancer research [4], [5]. In order to achieve even higher accuracy, huge amount of data must be fed to deep learning models, incurring excessively high computational overhead [6], [7]. This problem, however, can be solved by employing distributed deep learning technique that has been investigated extensively in recent years. Unfortunately, privacy issue worsens in the context of distributed deep learning, as compared to conventional standalone deep learning scenario.

Privacy-preserving deep learning thus arises to deal with privacy concerns in deep learning, and various models have been around in the past few years [8], [9], [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15], [16]. Among these existing work, *federated learning* is the widely adopted system context. Federated learning, also known as collaborative learning, distributed learning, is essentially the combination of deep learning and distributed computation, where there is a server, called parameter server, maintaining a deep learning model to train and multiple parties that take part in the distributed training process. First, the training data is partitioned and stored at each of the parties. Then, each party trains a deep learning

Jian Weng is the corresponding author.

model (the same one as maintained at the parameter server) on her local data individually, and uploads intermediate gradients to the parameter server. Upon receipt of the gradients from all the parties, the parameter server aggregates those gradients and updates the learning model parameters accordingly, after which each of the parties downloads the updated parameters from the server and continues to train her model on the same local data again with the downloaded parameters. This training process repeats until the training errors are smaller than pre-specified thresholds.

This federated learning framework, however, cannot protect the privacy of the training data, even the training data is divided and stored separately. For example, some researchers show that the intermediate gradients can be used to infer important information about the training data [17], [18]. Shokri et. al [11] applied differential privacy technique by adding noises in the gradients to upload, achieving a trade-off between data privacy and training accuracy. Hitaj et. al [19] pointed out that Shokri's work failed to protect data privacy and demonstrated that a curious parameter server can learn private data through GAN (Generative Adversarial Network) learning.

Phong et. al [16] proposed to use homomorphic encryption technique to protect training data privacy from curious parameter server. The drawback of their scheme is that they assumed the collaborative participants are honest but not curious, hence their scheme may fail in scenario where some participants are curious. To prevent curious participants, Bonawitz et. al [14] employed a secret sharing and symmetric encryption mechanism to ensure confidentiality of the gradients of participants. They assumed that (1) participants and parameter server cannot collude at all, and (2) the aggregated gradients in plain text reveal nothing

J. S. Weng, J. Weng, J. L. Zhang, M. Li, Y. Zhang and W. Q. Luo are with the College of Information Science and Technology in Jinan University, and Guangdong/Guangzhou Key Laboratory of Data Security and Privacy Preserving, Guangzhou 510632, China. E-mail addresses: wengjiasi@gmail.com (J. S. Weng), cryp-tjweng@gmail.com (J. Weng), jilian.z.2007@smu.edu.sg(J. L. Zhang), limjnu@gmail.com (M. Li), zyueinfosec@gmail.com (Y. Zhang), lwq@jnu.edu.cn (W. Q. Luo).

about the participants' local data. The second assumption, unfortunately, is no longer valid since membership inference attack on aggregated location data is now available [21].

Despite extensive research is underway on distributed deep learning, there are two serious problems that receive less attention so far. The first one is that existing work generally considered privacy threats from curious parameter server, neglecting the fact that there exist other security threats from dishonest behaviors in gradient collecting and parameter update that may disrupt the collaborative training process. For example, the parameter server may drop gradients of some parties deliberately, or wrongly update model parameters on purpose. Recently, Bagdasaryan et. al [22] demonstrated the existence of this problem that dishonest parties can poison the collaborative model by replacing the updating model with its exquisitely designed one. Therefore, it is crucial for distributed deep learning framework to guarantee not only confidentiality of gradients, but auditability of the correctness of gradient collecting and parameter update.

The second problem is that in existing schemes those parties are assumed to have enough local data for training and are willing to cooperate in the first place, which are not always true in real applications. For example, in healthcare applications, companies or research institutes are usually facing the difficulty in collecting enough personal medical data, due to privacy regulations such as HIPAA [23] and people's unwillingness to share. As a consequence, lack of training data will result in poor deep learning models in general [24]. On the other hand, in business applications some companies may be reluctant to participate in collaborative training, because they are very concerned about possible disclosure of their valuable data during distributed training [11]. Obviously, it is vital to ensure data privacy and bring in some incentive mechanism for distributed deep learning, so that more parties can actively involved in collaborating training.

In this paper, we propose DeepChain, a secure and decentralized framework based on Blockchain-based incentive mechanism and cryptographic primitives for privacypreserving distributed deep learning, which can provide data confidentiality, computation auditability, and incentives for parties to participate in collaborative training. The system models of traditional distributed deep learning and our DeepChain are given in Fig. 1. Specifically, DeepChain can securely aggregate local intermediate gradients from untrusted parties through launching transactions, while local training and parameter update are performed by workers (an entity in DeepChain that will be defined shortly) who are incented to process the transactions. Through transaction processing and incentive mechanism, DeepChain achieves collaborative training. Meanwhile, by using cryptographic techniques we ensure data confidentiality and auditability of the collaborative training process as well. To summarize, in this paper we made the following contributions:

 We propose DeepChain, a collaborative training framework with an incentive mechanism that encourages parties to jointly participate in deep learning model training and share the obtained local gra-

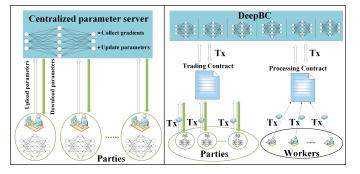


Fig. 1. The left corresponds to traditional distributed deep training framework, while the right is our DeepChain. Here, Trading Contract and Processing Contract are smart contract in DeepChain, together guiding the secure training process, while Tx refers to transaction.

dients.

- DeepChain preserves the privacy of local gradients and guarantees auditability of the training process. By employing incentive mechanism and transactions, participants are pushed to behave honestly, particularly in gradient collecting and parameter update, thus maintaining fairness during collaboration training.
- We implement DeepChain prototype and evaluate its performance in terms of encryption efficiency and training accuracy. We believe that DeepChain can benefit AI and machine learning communities, for example, it can audit collaborative training process and the trained model, which represents the learned knowledge. Making the best use of this learned knowledge by combining transfer learning technique can improve both the learning efficiency and accuracy.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we give a brief introduction of Blockchain and deep learning model training. Then, we describe the threat model and security requirements in Section 3. In Section 4, we present our DeepChain, a framework for auditable and privacy-preserving deep learning, and analyze security properties of DeepChain in Section 5. We give implementation details of DeepChain in Section 6, and conduct extensive experiments to evaluate its performance. Finally, we conclude the paper in Section 7.

2 BACKGROUND

Our work is closely related to Blockchain and deep learning training, and we give background knowledge in this section.

2.1 Blockchain technology

Blockchain was first technology has arisen a surge of interests both in the research community and industry [25]. It becomes an emerging technology as a decentralized, immutable, sharing and time-order ledger. Transactions are stored into blocks containing timestamps and references (i.e., the hash of a previous block) which are maintained as a chain. In Blockchain, transactions are created by pseudonymous participants and competitively collected to build a new block by an entity called *worker*. The worker who builds a new and valid block can gain amount of rewards so that the chain is continuously lengthened by competitive workers. That presents the incentive mechanism in the Blockchain setting. In addition, pro-developing Blockchain technologies introducing smart contract support Turingcomplete programmability, such as Ethereum and Hyperledger. On the other hand, a series of works on transaction privacy are popular by applying cryptographic tools into Blockchain, such as Zerocash [26], Zerocoin [27] and Hawk [28]. Therefore, Blockchain technology's incentive feature and its pro-developing technologies inspire us to solve our scenario issues, such as the absence of incentive function and collaboration fairness.

2.2 Deep learning model and training

A typical deep learning model consists of three layers, namely input layer, hidden layer and output layer. A deep learning model can contain multiple hidden layers, where the number of layers is called *depth* of the model. Each hidden layer can have certain amount of neurons, and neurons at different layers can learn hierarchical features of the input training data, which represent different levels of abstraction. Each neuron has multiple inputs and a single output. Generally, the output of neuron *i* at layer l - 1connects to the input of each neuron at layer *l*. For the connection between two neurons, there is a weight assigned to it. For example, $w_{i,j}$ is the weight associated to the connection between neuron *i* at layer l - 1 and neuron *j* at layer l. Each neuron i also has a bias b_i . Collectively, weights and bias are called model parameters, which need to be learned during the training.

Back-Propagation (BP) [29] is the most popular learning method for deep learning, which consists of feed forward step and back-propagation step. Specifically, in feed forward step, the outputs at each layer are calculated based on parameters at previous layer and current layer, respectively.

A key component in deep network training is called activation, which is the output of each neuron. Activation is used to learn non-linear features of inputs via a function $Act(\cdot)$. For computing the output value of a neuron *i* in layer l, $Act(\cdot)$ takes all inputs n of i from layer l-1as input. Additionally, we assume weights $w_{i,i}$ link to the connections between neurons j in layer l-1 and neurons *i* in layer *l* and b_i links to the bias of neuron i. Then, the value of neuron i in layer l is calculated as $Act_i(l) = Act_i(\sum_{j=1}^n (w_{j,i} * Act_j(l-1)) + b_i)$. On the other hand, the second step is back-propagation algorithm by using gradient descent. It is to shrink the error E_{total} which are the gaps between model output values Voutput and target values V_{target} . Assume that there are n output units in the output layer. Then, $E_{total} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1/2(V_{target_i} - V_{output_i})^2$ is computed. With the error E_{total} , weights $w_{j,i}$ can be updated via $w_{j,i} = w_{j,i} - \eta * \frac{\partial E_{total}}{\partial w_{j,i}}$ so that its gradient decreases. η means the learning rate and $\frac{\partial E_{total}}{\partial m_{s,s}}$ is the partial derivative of E_{total} with respect to $w_{j,i}$. The learning procedure is repeated until the pre-set iteration to train is reached.

When training a rather complex and multi-layer deep learning model, the aforementioned training procedure needs high computation-consuming and time-cost. In order to migrate this problem, distributed deep learning training has been widely discussed, and most of developed excellent systems and architectures exhibit attractive performance, such as DistBelief [30], Torch [31], DeepImage [32] and Purine [33]. There are two approaches for distributed training: model parallelism and data parallelism. The former partitions a total model while the latter partitions the whole training dataset on multiple machines. Our work focuses on the latter one where multiple machines maintain the copy of the training model and process different data subsets being partitioned. These machines share the common parameters of the training model, by uploading and downloading parameters, on a centralized parameter server. Then, multiple machines upload their local training gradients, with which the commonly maintaining model is updated by using SGD. They download updated parameters from the parameter server and continue to train the local model. With iteratively training, those machines at the end together gain the trained model. Recently, a series of works on distributed deep learning training are continue to be proposed [34], [35], [36], [37], [38], which showed us the feasibility to research on collaborative training a deep learning model.

3 THREATS AND SECURITY GOALS

In this section, we discuss threats to collaborative learning, and security goals that DeepChain can achieve to tackle those threats.

Threat 1: Disclosure of local data and model. Although in distributed deep training each party only uploads her local gradients to the parameter server, still adversaries can infer through those gradients important information about the party's local data by initiating an inference attack or membership attack [18]. On the other hand, based on the gradients adversaries may also launch parameter inferring attack to obtain sensitive information of the model [19].

Security Goal: Confidentiality of local gradients. Assume that participants do not expose their own data and at least t participants are honest (i.e., no more than tparticipants colluded to disclose parameters). Then each party's local gradients cannot be exposed to anyone else, unless at least t participants collude. In addition, if in any circumstance participants do not disclose the downloaded parameters from the collaborative model, then adversaries could not gain any information about the parameters. To achieve this goal, in DeepChain each participant individually encrypts and then uploads gradients obtained from her local model. All gradients are used to update parameters of the collaborative model encrypted collaboratively by all participants, who then obtain updated parameters via collaborative decryption in each iteration (collaborative decryption refers to at least t participants provide their secret shares to decrypt a cipher).

Threat 2: Participants with inappropriate behaviors. Consider a situation that participants may have malicious behaviors during collaborative training. They may choose their inputs at will and thus generate incorrect gradients, aiming to mislead the collaborative training process. As a consequence, when updating parameters of collaborative model using the uploaded gradients, it is inevitable that we will get erroneous results. On the other hand, in collaborative decryption phase dishonest participants may give a problematic decryption share and they may be selfish, aborting local training process early to save their cost for training. In addition, dishonest participants may delay trading or terminate a contract for her own benefit, which makes the honest suffer losses. All these malicious behaviors may fail the collaborative training task.

Security Goal 1: Auditability of gradient collecting and parameter update. In DeepChain, assume that majority of the participants and more than $\frac{2}{3}$ of the workers are honest in gradient collecting and parameter update, respectively. During gradient collecting, participants' transactions contain encrypted gradients and correctness proofs, allowing the third party to audit whether a participant gives a correctly encrypted construction of gradients. For parameter update, on the other hand, workers claim computation results through transactions that will be recorded in DeepChain. These transactions are auditable as well, and computation results are guaranteed to be correct only if $\frac{2}{3}$ workers are honest. After parameters are updated, participants download and collaboratively decrypt the parameters by providing their decryption shares and corresponding proofs for correctness verification. Again, anyone third party can audit whether the decryption shares are correct or not.

Security Goal 2: Fairness guarantee of participants. DeepChain provides fairness for participants through timeout-checking and monetary penalty mechanism. Specifically, for each function with smart contracts DeepChain defines a time point for it. At the time point after function execution, results of the function are verified. If the verification failed, it means that (1) there exist participants not being punctual by the time point, and (2) some participants may incorrectly execute the function. For either of the two cases, DeepChain applies the monetary penalty mechanism, revoking the pre-frozen deposit of dishonest participants and re-allocating it to the honest participants. Therefore, fairness can be achieved, because penalty will never be imposed on honest participants behaved punctually and correctly, and they will be compensated if there exist dishonest participants.

4 THE DEEPCHAIN MODEL

In this section, we present DeepChain, a secure and decentralized framework for privacy-preserving deep learning.

4.1 System overview

Before introducing DeepChain, we give definitions of related concepts and terms used in DeepChain.

• **Party:** In DeepChain, a party is the same entity as defined in traditional distributed deep learning model, who has similar needs but unable to perform the whole training task alone due to resource constraints such as insufficient computational power or limited data.

• **Trading:** When a party got her local gradients, she sends out the gradients through a smart contract called *trading contract* to DeepChain. This process is called *trading*. Those contracts can be downloaded to process by *worker* (an entity in DeepChain that will be defined shortly).

• Local model training: Each party trains her local model independently, and at the end of a local iteration the party generates a contract to trade by attaching her local gradients to the contract.

• **Collaborative model training:** Parties of a cooperative group train a deep learning model collaboratively. Specifically, after deciding a same deep learning model and parameter initialization, the model is trained in an iterative manner. In each iteration, all parties trades their gradients, and workers download the contracts to process the gradients. The processed gradients then send out by workers through smart contract called *processing contract*. The correct processed gradients are picked out and used to update parameters of the collaborative model on DeepChain. Parties download the updated parameters from the collaborative model and update their local models accordingly. After that the parties begin next training iteration.

• Worker: Similar to *miners* in BitCoin, workers are incented to process transactions that contain training weights for collaborative model update. Workers compete to work on a block, and the first one finishes the job is a leader. The leader will gain block rewards which can be consumed in the future. Maybe he can exchange them with trained models in DeepChain for accomplishing his AI task.

• **Iteration:** Deep learning model training consists of multiple steps called *iterations*, where at the end of each iteration all the weights of neurons of the model are updated once.

• **Round:** In DeepChain, a *round* refers to the process of the creation of a new block.

• **DeepCoin:** DeepCoin, denoted as \$*Coin*, is a kind of asset on DeepChain. In particular, for each newly generated block DeepChain will generate certain amount of \$Coin as rewards. Participants in DeepChain consist of parties and workers, where the former gain \$Coin for their contributions to local model training, and the latter are rewarded with *Coin* for helping parties update training models. Meanwhile, a well-trained model will cost \$Coin for those who have no capability to train the model by themselves and want to use the model. This setting is reasonable because recent work on model-based pricing for machine learning has found applications in some scenarios [39], [40]. We define a *validity value* for \$*Coin*, which essentially is the time interval of a round. Validity value is related to consensus mechanism in DeepChain, and we will discuss it in detail in 4.2.5.

DeepChain combines together Blockchain techniques and cryptographic primitives to achieve secure, distributed, and privacy-preserving deep learning. Suppose there are Nparties P_j , j = 1, ..., N, and they agree on some pre-defined information such as a concrete collaborative model and initial parameters for the collaborative model. The information is attached to a transaction Tx_{co}^0 (co is the short name for 'collaborative') signed by all parties. Assume an address corresponding to transaction Tx_{co}^0 is pk_{it_0} , where it_0 is the initial iteration. At the end of iteration *i*, the updated model in Tx_{co}^i is attached to a new address pk_{it_i} . All addresses are known to the parties. Intermediate gradients from party P_j are enveloped in transaction $Tx_{P_j}^i$, and all those transactions are collected by a *trading contract* at iteration *i*. Note that intermediate gradients are local weights $C_{P_j}(\Delta \mathbf{W}_{i,j})$, where *C* is a cipher used by party P_j to encrypt the weights. When all transactions $\{Tx_{P_j}^i\}$ at iteration *i* have been collected, trading contract uploads them to DeepChain. After that, workers download those transactions $\{Tx_{P_j}^i\}$ to process via *processing contract*. Specifically, workers update the weights by computing $C(\mathbf{W}_{i+1}) = \frac{1}{N} \cdot C(\mathbf{W}_i) \cdot \prod_{j=1}^N C_{P_j}(\Delta \mathbf{W}_{i,j})$, where $C(\mathbf{W}_i)$ is the weight at iteration *i* in Tx_{co}^i , and $C(\mathbf{W}_{i+1})$ is the updated weights that will be attached to Tx_{co}^{i+1} for updating the local models in next iteration i + 1.

4.2 Components of DeepChain

DeepChain consists of five building blocks that collectively achieve distributed and privacy-preserving deep learning, namely, DeepChain bootstrapping, incentive mechanism, assert statement, cooperative training and consensus protocol.

4.2.1 DeepChain bootstrapping(NOT YET DONE)

DeepChain bootstrapping performs two tasks, i.e., Deep-Coin distribution and genesis block generation that is crucial for running DeepChain. Assume that all parties and workers have registered in DeepChain, where each one uses an address pk that corresponds to a DeepCoin unit for launching a transaction.

DeepCoin distribution realizes DeepCoin allocation for parties and workers, and at initial stage each party and worker are allocated with the same amount of DeepCoins. The genesis block contains initial transactions referring to DeepCoin possession statements after the step of DeepCoin distribution. Assume that the round begins with 0 and generates the genesis block. When the genesis block is generated, a random seed $seed_0$ also is public. $seed_0$ is randomly chosen by initial users via using distributed random number generation. We note that $seed_0$ is the base random seed for DeepChain. Particularly, $seed_0$ is one of components to choose the random seed $seed_1$ in the round with the index 1 and the rest of rounds can be done in the same manner. The seeds are crucial to guarantee the randomness to select a new leader who creates a new block. This follows the idea of cryptographic sortition from Algorand [41], [42]. We will introduce it in section 4.2.5 for the stable running of DeepChain.

4.2.2 Incentive mechanism

An incentive can act as a driving force for participants to actively and honestly take part in a collaborative training task, and the goal of incentive mechanism is to produce and distribute value, so that participant gets rewards or penalties based on her contribution. The introduction of incentive mechanism is crucial for collaborative deep learning, due to the following reasons. First, for those parties who want a deep learning model but have insufficient data to train the model on their own, incentive can motivate them to join the collaborative training with their local data. Second, with reward and penalty, incentive mechanism ensures that (1) parties are honest in local model training and gradient trading, and (2) workers are honest in processing parties' transactions.

For ease of understanding incentive mechanism, we give an example consisting of two parties. These two parties contribute their data to collaborative training via launching transactions. Suppose the data possessed by the two parties is not equal in quantity. Each party can launch transactions and pay transaction fee that is based on the amount of data she owned. Generally, the large amount of data a party has, the less fee she will pay. The two parties agree on the total amount of fees for collaboratively training the model. The worker who successfully creates a new block when processing transactions can be the leader and earns the rewards. Note that transaction issuing and processing are verifiable, meaning that if some party poses an invalid transaction, the party would be punished. On the other hand, if a leader incorrectly processes a transaction, she will be punished. When the collaborative training finished, parties themselves can benefit from the trained model than can bring revenue for them through changed services to those users who want to use the model.

To give a formalized description of the incentive mechanism, we first introduce two properties, i.e., compatibility and liveness of the incentive mechanism for parties and workers. Then, we further explain that parties and workers have incentive to behave honestly. Assume that we guarantee data privacy and the security of the consensus protocol (we will explain it later). We also assume that the value v_c of the trained collaboratively model is higher than the value v_i of trained individual model.

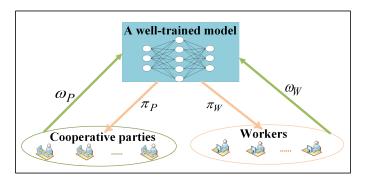


Fig. 2. The incentive mechanism of DeepChain, where ω_P and ω_W represent the contributions of a party and a worker for maintaining v_c , respectively, and π_P and π_W represent their payoffs, respectively.

First, we say the incentive mechanism has compatibility if each participant (including party and worker) can obtain the best result according to their true contributions. Meanwhile, it has liveness only if each party is continuously willing to transform v_i by launching transactions for v_c , and each worker also has incentives at v_c . We next depict the significance of these two properties from the aspects of participants' true contributions and the corresponding payoffs. Suppose that we use ω_P and ω_W to represent the true contributions of party and worker for v_c , respectively; and π_P and π_W represent their corresponding payoffs, respectively. We at first assume participants' contributions originate from their correct behaviors with an overwhelming probability, and then we will explain that is reasonable. In terms of liveness, we say both party and worker have

the same common propensity to gain well-trained models represented as v_c . If party consumes her v_i , which has a lower value, she would gain v_c , which has a higher value. For a worker, she should process transactions for $v_{c_{\ell}}$ to earn rewards with probability. Money she earned enables her to pay AI services on DeepChain. Note that the probability is said that a worker has a probability to gain rewards according to the quantity of money she has earned, i.e., the larger the quantity is, the higher probability would be. As a result, party and worker in order to create value trend to maintain v_c . In terms of compatibility, the more party contributes ω_P , the more he gains π_P and that rule also holds for a worker. Then, within a collaborative training, both sides play incentively to a well-trained model $Max(\omega_P) \wedge Max(\omega_W)$, the total payoff is highest gained by them $Max(\pi_P, \pi_W)$. If any participant can not perform well $(\omega_P = 0) \bigvee (\omega_W = 0)$, nothing would be output that is $(\pi_P = 0) \wedge (\pi_W = 0)$ where \wedge means 'and' and \vee means 'or'.

Payoff=

$$\begin{cases} Max(\pi_P \land \pi_W) & \text{If} \quad Max(\omega_P) \land Max(\omega_W) \\ (\pi_P = 0) \land (\pi_W = 0) & \text{If} \quad (\omega_P = 0) \lor (\omega_W = 0) \end{cases}$$

Second, we explain the aforementioned assumption. We show each party and worker are value-driven to behave correctly in each iteration so that they can obtain the highest payoff, in which the theory derives from the work [43]. We formalize it as $Value(1) = \pi_P - \omega_P(1)$ for party. We say that ω_P is correctly provided with the probability $Pr_c(P)$. Then, $\omega_P(Pr_c(P))$ is used to represent her true performance. Further, $Value(Pr_c(P))$ is related to $Pr_c(P)$ due to $\omega_P(Pr_c(P))$. We set the method which verifies party's malicious behavior is correct with the probability $Pr_v(P)$. We also get the probability $Pr_v(P) * (1 - Pr_c(P))$ that a dishonest party would be caught. Once the dishonest party is caught, she is punished by forfeiting her deposit, the loss of which is defined as f_P . Thus, the returned value according to the party's true behavior can be represented as

$$Value(Pr_c(P)) =$$

$$\pi_P * (1 - Pr_{vc}(P)) - f_P * Pr_{vc}(P) - \omega_P * Pr_c(P)$$
(1)

where $Pr_{vc}(P) = Pr_v(P) * (1 - Pr_c(P))$. We expect that the value is max only when the party behaves honestly $Pr_c(P) = 1$ and then $Value(1) = \pi_P - \omega_P(1)$ can hold. This indicates the significance of the incentive mechanism. We can achieve this expectation by setting the values of $Pr_v(P)$, π_P , and f_P as following.

Theorem 1. If $f_P/\pi_P > (1 - Pr_{vc}(P))/Pr_{vc}(P)$ where $Pr_{vc}(P) = Pr_v(P) * (1 - \theta)$ is set, then a party will be honest at least with the probability θ .

Proof. It can be significant by proving that for any $Pr_{c}'(P) < \theta$, $Value(Pr_{c}'(P))$ is lower than $Value(\theta)$. Without the loss of generality, we prove for any $Pr_{c}'(P) < \theta$, $Value(Pr_{c}'(P))$ is lower than 0. That is $Value(Pr_{c}'(P)) = \pi_{P} * (1 - Pr_{vc}'(P)) - f_{P} * Pr_{vc}'(P) - \omega_{P}(Pr_{c}'(P))$ is lower than 0. When we set $f_{P}/\pi_{P} > 1/Pr_{vc}'(P) - 1$, the result $\pi_{P} * (1 - Pr_{vc}'(P)) - f_{P} * Pr_{vc}'(P)$ is lower than 0. Thus, in this case, $Value(Pr_{c}'(P))$ is lower than 0 that holds.

TABLE 1 Notations and implications

Notations	Implications	
pk_P^{psu}	a pseudo-generated public key of party P	
sk_P	a secret key of the party <i>P</i>	
q	a randomly selected big prime	
G_1	cyclic multiplicative cyclic groups of prime order q	
G_2	cyclic multiplicative cyclic groups of prime order q	
g	a generator of group G_1	
Z_q^*	{1,2,, q-1}	
e	a bilinear map $e: G_1 \times G_1 \to G_2$	
H_1	a collision-resistant hash function mapping	
	any string into an element in Z_q^*	
H_2	a collision-resistant hash function mapping	
	any string into an element in G_1	
C()	a cipher generated by Paillier.Encrypt algorithm	
Enc()	the encryption by individual parties	
$model_{co}$	the collaborative deep learning model	
	(collaborative model for short), on which a group	
	of participants agree to train	

For a worker, the incentive analysis is similar to the analysis for a party, expect that her payoff has probability to gain. We set this probability is Pr_{leader} . Thus, we should set the relationship of four values Pr_{leader} , $Pr_v(W)$, π_W , and f_W to encourage a worker to be honest.

Theorem 2. If $f_W/\pi_W * Pr_{leader} > (1 - Pr_{vc}(W))/Pr_{vc}(W)$ where $Pr_{vc}(W) = Pr_v(W) * (1 - \epsilon)$ is set, then a worker will be honest at least with the probability ϵ .

Proof. The proof is similar to the proof for **Theorem** 2, so it is omitted.

4.2.3 Asset statement

For ease of presentation, we list related cryptographic notations in TABLE 1. Party needs to state her asset, which enables her to find cooperators and accomplish her AI task. Asset statement does not reveal the contents of asset but some description for it, e.g., the asset could be useful for which kinds of AI tasks. Formally, party P states an asset that is to send an asset transaction which will include two parts.

We recall the generation of a transaction. Note that a transaction is launched by a pseudo public key address pk_P^{psu} which can be generated by party P according to her wish as the following forms.

$$pk_P^{psu} \in \{g_1^{sk_P}, g_2^{sk_P}, ..., g_n^{sk_P}\}$$

Here, let *n* be an integer, *P* selects a secret key $sk_P \in Z_q^*$ and generates *n* public keys $g_i^{sk_P} \in G_1, i \in [1, n]$. By setting system parameters *q* and *g*, g_i equals g^{r_i} , where r_i is a random element in Z_q^* .

Suppose that party P_1 sends a transaction with her address $pk_{P_1}^{psu}$ to state her asset $data_P_1$ as following:

$$\begin{aligned} Tran_{P_1} &= pk_{P_1}^{psu} \to \Bigl\{ \Bigl(pk_{data_P_1} = g^{H_1(data_P_1)}, \\ &\sigma_{j_P_1} = (H_2(j) \cdot g^{H_1(data_{j_P_1})})^{H_1(data_P_1)} \Bigr), \\ & \text{``Keywords''} \Bigr\}. \end{aligned}$$

In this transaction, the first part consists of $pk_{data_P_1}$ and $\sigma_{j_P_1}$, which is the statement proof that party P_1 indeed possesses asset $H(data_P_1)$ while not leaking the content of

 $data_P_1$. In detail, $\sigma_{j_P_1}$ contains l components $(j \in [1, l])$, where $data_P_1$ is divided into l blocks represented as $data_{j_P_1}$ $(j \in [1, l])$. The second part "Keywords" gives a description for the asset $data_P_1$. When implemented, "Keywords" is formed using JSON style including four fields, i.e., data size, data format, data topic and data description. With this transaction named $Tran_{P_1}$, P_1 accomplishes her asset statement. We assume that the first stated asset is authentic, which is reasonable in the setting of Blockchain.

4.2.4 Collaborative training

Based on stated asset, parties who have similar deep learning task can constitute a collaborative group, and the collaborative training consists of the following four steps.

• Collaborative group establishment. Note that the keyword descriptions have been given for assets in the asset statement phase. According to similar "Keywords", parties can establish a collaborative group. (Parties may get more information about "Keywords" by off-line interactions and this is not the focus of our paper). Before setting up a group, parties can audit cooperators' asset to ensure authenticity of asset ownership. The auditing process can be referred to the full paper [44]. Suppose N parties P_1 , P_2 , ..., P_N constitute a group with pseudonymity, i.e, pseudo public keys $pk_{P_1}^{psu}, pk_{P_2}^{psu}, ..., pk_{P_N}^{psu}$ and their secret keys $sk_{P_1}, sk_{P_2}, ..., sk_{P_N}$ are privately possessed, respectively. Since a party may launch transactions by using different pseudo public keys, the transactions signed by the same secret key sk_{P_i} can be verified to ensure that those transactions are from the same cooperative party.

• **Collaborative information commitment.** After the collaborative group formed, parties agree on their information for securely training a common deep learning model, as follows. In this step, we assume that a trusted component only takes part in the setup phase in Threshold Paillier algorithm, and it does not involve in other process. If there does not exist such a trusted component, we can accomplish the setup phase by using a distributed method [45].

(1) The number of cooperative parties, N.

(2) The current round index, r.

(3) Parameters of Threshold Paillier algorithm.

We have the following equation

$$PK_{model} = (n_{model}, g_{model}, \theta = as, V = (v, \{v_i\}_{i \in [1, \dots, N]}))$$

, where the modulus n_{model} is the product of two selected safe primes, and $g_{model} \in Z_{n_{mpdel}}^*$, $a, s, \theta, v, v_i \in Z_{n_{model}}^*$. And $SK_{model} = s$ is randomly divided into N parts, where $s = f(s_1 + ... + s_N)$, f means a function of secret sharing protocol. Each party owns a part of secure key s_i . v and $\{v_i\}, i \in [1, ..., N]$ are public verification information, where v_i corresponds to s_i . A threshold $t \in \{\frac{N}{2}, ..., N\}$ is set as such that more than t parties can together decrypt a cipher. Note that training gradients to be encrypted are vectors with multiple elements, i.e., $\Delta \mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{i},\mathbf{j}} = (w_{i,j}^1, ..., w_{i,j}^\omega)$ where the length of $\Delta \mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{i},\mathbf{j}}$ is ω , i represents training iteration index and j = 1, ..., N. Due to the problem of cipher expansion, we encrypt a vector into a cipher instead of multiple ciphers with respect to multiple elements. Suppose that each value $w_{i,j}^1, ..., w_{i,j}^\omega$ is no larger than the value d (d can be an integer and larger than 0). We choose a ω -length super increasing sequence $\vec{\alpha} = (\alpha_1 = 1, ..., \alpha_{\omega})$ that simultaneously meets two conditions, as described below: (1) $\sum_{l=1}^{i-1} \alpha_l \cdot N \cdot d < \alpha_i (i = 2, ..., \omega)$ and (2) $\sum_{i=1}^{\omega} \alpha_i \cdot N \cdot d < n_{model}$. We then compute $(g_{model}^1, ..., g_{model}^{\omega_0}) = (g_{model}^{\alpha_1}, ..., g_{model}^{\alpha_0})$.

(4) A collaborative model $model_{co}$ to be trained.

For $model_{co}$, parties agree on the training network, the training algorithms and the configurations for the network, such as the number of network layer, the number of neuron each layer, the size of mini-batch and the iterations. Beside those information, they also reach a consensus on the initial weights \mathbf{W}_0 of $model_{co}$. Note that the weights \mathbf{W}_0 would turn into \mathbf{W}_1 after the $\mathbf{1}_{st}$ iteration of training. They protect \mathbf{W}_0 by applying **Paillier.Encrypt** algorithm $C(\mathbf{W}_0) = g_{model}^{\mathbf{W}_0} \cdot (k_0)^{n_{model}}$, where k_0 is randomly selected from $Z_{n_{model}}^*$. Note that we compute $g_{model}^{\mathbf{W}_0}$ with the help of the chosen super increasing sequence that $g_{model}^{\mathbf{W}_0} = g_{model}^{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1^* + \mathbf{u}_w \cdot \mathbf{w}_0^{\mathbf{w}}}$ so that we generate a cipher for the vector $\mathbf{W}_0 = (w_0^1, ..., w_0^{\mathbf{w}})$.

(5) A commitment on $SK_{model} = s$ (in respect to PK_{model}).

The commitment is combined with individual parties' commitments on their individual secret shares s_i . Recall that r means the index of the current round.

$$commit_{SK_{model}} = (Enc(s_1||r||Sign(s_1||r)), \\ \dots, Enc(s_N||r||Sign(s_N||r)))$$

(6) The initial weights $\mathbf{W}_{0,j}$ of each local model.

Each party provides individual local model's initial weights which are encrypted by **Paillier.Encrypt** algorithm, i.e, $C(\mathbf{W}_{0,j}) = g_{model}^{\mathbf{W}_{0,j}} \cdot (k_j)^{n_{model}}$, where $k_j \in Z_{n_{model}}^*$, $P_{j \in \{1,...,N\}}$.

(7) A amount of deposits d(\$Coin).

Each cooperative party is required to commit amounts of deposits for secure computation. During the process of collaborative training, if a party behaves badly, her d(\$Coin) would be forfeited and compensated other honest parties. If not, those deposits would be refunded after accomplishing the training.

All aforementioned collaborative information are recorded in a transaction $Tran_{co}$ being uploaded to DeepChain. Attached to a commonly coordinated address pk_{co}^{psu} , it is publicly recorded as the following form:

$$Tran_{co} = pk_{co}^{psu} \rightarrow \left\{ N, r, PK_{model}, d, \vec{\alpha}, model_{co}, commit_{SK_{model}}, C(\mathbf{W}_{0,j}), d(\$Coin) \right\}.$$

In addition, two kinds of roles, called trader and manager, are defined for parties in a *Group*, which will be further discussed.

We next introduce how collaborative training is securely accomplished following the remaining two steps: **Gradient collecting via Trading Contract** and **Parameter updating via Processing Contract**. First of all, parties iteratively trade their gradients to *Trading Contract* executed by the manager who can be selected from cooperative parties. The trading gradients are honestly encrypted by each trader and meanwhile the correct proofs of encryption are attached, which indicates two security requirements (confidentiality and auditability). In terms of confidentiality, only if a trader does not disclose his gradients, no one can gain any information. Traders (at most t parties) in addition need to cooperatively decrypt parameters which have been updated. We constrain the manager cannot disclose what he knows, as the work [28] promised. In terms of auditability, there exist encryption correct proofs to be auditable. When cooperatively decrypting, each trader also presents her decryption proof. Those proofs are non-interactively public on DeepChain and auditable for any party. By utilizing the timeout-checking and monetary penalty mechanisms, the behaviors of traders and the manager also are forced to be authentic and fair. Even if the manager colludes with traders, the outcome of Trading Contract cannot be modified [28]. In addition to Trading Contract, Processing Contract is responsible for parameter updating. Workers process transactions by casting up gradients in respect to a group, and send computation results to Processing Contract. Processing Contract verifies correct computation results and updates model parameters for this group. For finishing the whole training, these two contracts are called for multiple times. Concretely, we give more detail descriptions for these two contracts as below.

• Gradient collecting via Trading Contract. As shown in Algorithm 1, Trading Contract invokes six major functions to collect gradient transactions for training model_{co}. Following each function, there declares six respective time points $T_{t_1}, T_{t_2}, T_{t_3}, T_{t_4}, T_{t_5}, T_{t_6}$ on purpose to check timeout events. We stress that the interval between the two time points T_{t_1} and T_{t_6} are declared according to the interval between the two time points of two adjacent iterations (e.g., from iteration i_{th} to $i + 1_{th}$), i.e., $|T_{t_6} - T_{t_1}| \le |T_{i+1} - T_i|$. Moreover, six time points are set meeting the requirement that $T_{t_1} < T_{t_2} < T_{t_3} < T_{t_4} < T_{t_5} < T_{t_6}$. At a defined time point, function *checkTimeout* is responsible to checking which parties do not abide by the defined time point. Once some party is caught, the monetary penalty mechanism will perform by forfeiting deposits of the party, and the failed step is re-executed. With functions being iteratively invoked for training, time points are updated, e.g., $T_{t_1} = T_{t_1} + |T_{i+1} - T_i|$.

Algorithm 1: Trading($Tran_{P_1}^i,,Tran_{P_N}^i$)				
1 receiveGradientTX()				
2 checkTimeout(T_{t1})				
3 updateTime() $\#T_{t_1} = T_{t_1} + T_{i+1} - T_i $				
4 verifyGradientTX()				
5 checkTimeout(T_{t2})				
6 updateTime() $\#T_{t2} = T_{t2} + T_{i+1} - T_i $				
⁷ uploadGradientTX() #attaching to the address pk_{co}^{psu}				
s checkTimeout(T_{t3})				
9 updateTime() $\#T_{t3} = T_{t3} + T_{i+1} - T_i $				
10 downloadUpdatedParam()#from the address <i>pk</i> ^{psu} _{co}				
11 checkTimeout(T_{t4})				
12 updateTime() $\#T_{t4} = T_{t4} + T_{i+1} - T_i $				
<pre>13 decryptUpdatedParam()</pre>				
14 checkTimeout(T_{t5})				
15 updateTime() $\#T_{t5} = T_{t5} + T_{i+1} - T_i $				
16 return()				
17 checkTimeout(T_{t6})				
18 updateTime() $\#T_{t6} = T_{t6} + T_{i+1} - T_i $				

Suppose that in i_{th} iteration, each party $P_j \in \{1, ..., N\}$ sends an encrypted gradient transaction $Tran_{P_j}^i$ to *receiveGradientTX*(). The transaction additionally attach a publicly auditable proof for encryption correctness $Proof_{PK_{i,j}}$.

$$Tran_{P_j}^i = \{ pk_{P_j}^{psu} : (C(\triangle \mathbf{W}_{i,j}), Proof_{PK_{i,j}}) \to pk_{co}^{psu} \}$$

$$Proof_{PK_{i,j}} = fsprove_1(\Sigma_{PK}; C(\triangle \mathbf{W}_{i,j}); \triangle \mathbf{W}_{i,j}, k_j; pk_{P_j}^{psu})$$

Then, before T_{t_2} , verifyGradientTX() verifies the correctness of the encrypted gradients via $fsver_1(\Sigma_{PK}; C(\triangle \mathbf{W}_{i,j}); Proof_{PK_{i,j}}; pk_{P_i}^{psu})$. It verifies whether $C(\triangle \mathbf{W}_{i,j})$ is really an encryption of $\triangle \mathbf{W}_{i,j}$ with the randomness of k_j or not. Here, $pk_{P_j}^{psu}$ can be regarded as the identity information attached to the proof, which avoids the replayed proof by the malicious party. Before T_{t_3} , uploadGradientTX() uploads the transactions which are verified to be true. When model parameters are updated, downloadUpdatedParam undertakes to pull the latest parameters. Recall that Processing Contract makes gradients $\sum_{j=1}^{N} \triangle \mathbf{W}_{i,j}$ be contributed to the model model_{co}. Suppose that the latest iteration at the current moment is i_{th} , the cipher of the latest parameters is $C(\mathbf{W}_i)$ from $C(model_{com_i})$ (and simply noted as C_i). Then, *decryptUpdatedParam()* collects parties' decryption shares on C_i for collaborative decryption, which generates into $C_{i,j}$ $(j \in 1, ..., N)$. Meanwhile, the corresponding proofs for correct shares $Proof_{CD_{i,j}}$ are also provided.

$$C_{i,j} = C_i^{2\Delta s_j}$$

$$Proof_{CD_{i,j}} = fsprove_2(\Sigma_{CD}; (C_i, C_{i,j}, v, v_j); \Delta s_j; pk_{P_i}^{psu})$$

The proof $Proof_{CD_{i,j}}$ supports to be verified the validity of decryption shares, i.e., $\Delta s_j = log_{C_i^4}(C_{i,j}^2) = log_v(v_j)$ via $fsver_2(\Sigma_{CD}; (C_i, C_{i,j}, v, v_j); Proof_{CD_{i,j}}; pk_{P_j}^{psu})$. If majority of parties |H| >= N/2 are honest, then C_i can be correctly recovered by $((\prod_{j \in H} C_{i,j}^{2\mu_j} - 1)/n_{model})(4\Delta^2\theta)^{-1}mod n_{model}$ where μ_j is Lagrange interpolation coefficient in respect to P_j , and the cleartext is pushed to parties by return.

Algorithm 2: Processing()			
1 updateTX()			
2 checkTimeout(T_{t7})			
3 updateTime() $\#T_{t7} = T_{t7} + T_r$			
4 verifyTX()			
5 checkTimeout(T_{t8})			
6 updateTime() $\#T_{t8} = T_{t8} + T_r$			
7 appendTX()			
8 checkTimeout(T_{t9})			
9 updateTime() # $T_{t9}^{`} = T_{t9} + T_r$			

• Parameter updating via Processing Contract. *Processing Contract* contains three functions shown in Algorithm 2. Suppose that in i_{th} iteration for $model_{co}$, local gradients $C(\Delta \mathbf{W}_{i,j})(j \in \{1, ..., N\})$ have been uploaded. Incentive workers competitively execute update operations by

This is regarded as workers' computation work. Workers then send the newly updated results via transactions to the function updateTX in Processing Contract ahead of T_{t7} . In the meantime, a leader is randomly chosen from those workers via the consensus protocol on DeepChain. Note that at this time the reward given to the leader is frozen at first, before verifying his computation work. By verifyTX, the correctness of the leader's work is verified by the method where the minority is subordinate to the majority. In other words, the leader's computation result $C(\mathbf{W}_i)$ will be compared with the ones of other competitive workers, and finally his result is determined to be correct if the results from the majority of workers are equal to his. Otherwise, the leader would be punished according the monetary penalty mechanism and gain no reward. Moreover, adapted to DeepChain's consensus protocol (introduced by section 4.2.5), the history of his punished behavior influences the probability for him to be a leader on DeepChain. Then, a leader is re-chosen from the remaining workers who have correct computation results ahead of T_{t8} . At the end, before the time point of T_{t9} , the leader's block with correctly updated results is appended to DeepChain. Continuously, the next iteration $(i+1)_{th}$ begins and $model_{i+1}$ is generated based on $model_i$.

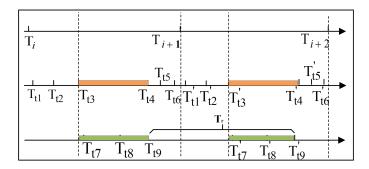


Fig. 3. Configurations on time points. From top to bottom: the timeline of the iterative training, the timeline of trading (in Trading Contract), the timeline of block creation (in Processing Contract).

According to the aforementioned description for *Trad*ing Contract and Processing Contract, the importance of the trusted time lock mechanism is presented. We need to stress that in Processing Contract, time points T_{t7}, T_{t8}, T_{t9} will be updated by $T_{t7}^{i} = T_{t7} + T_r, T_{t8}^{i} = T_{t8} + T_r, T_{t9}^{i} = T_{t9} + T_r$, respectively, where T_r means the interval creating a new block within two rounds on DeepChain. As shown in Fig. 3, it depicts the time point configurations involving two contracts. Suppose that during i_{th} iteration, the time points are configured as $T_{t_1} < T_{t_2} < T_{t_3} <= T_{t_7} < T_{t_8} < T_{t_9} <=$ $T_{t_4} < T_{t_5} < T_{t_6}$. In the meantime, the relationship among three time intervals is $T_r \leq |T_{t_6} - T_{t_1}| \leq |T_{i+1} - T_i|$.

In addition to the trusted time lock mechanism, we employ the secure monetary penalty mechanism to present fairness for the procedures of gradient collecting and collaborative decryption. We introduce the formalized methodology proposed by Bentov *et. al* and Kumaresan *et. al* [46], [47] into the **Algorithm 3** F_{ct}^* based on *Trading Contract*. Particularly, in the process of **Gradient collecting**, fairness is guaranteed twofold: 1) honest collaborative parties must launch gradient transactions which are verified to be correct

ahead of the defined time; 2) dishonest parties who launch incorrect transactions or time-out transactions are to be penalized while the remained honest being compensated. In a similar way, fairness for collaborative decryption are provided in the process of **Collaborative decryption**, which depicts twofold: 1) a party who gives a correct decryption sharing at a defined time point never has to pay any penalty; 2) If the adversary successfully decrypts, but a party cannot,

4.2.5 Consensus protocol

then the party should be compensated.

Consensus protocol is the essential protocol where all parties make consensus on the same and correct events in the decentralized setting. In Blockchain, it enlivens and secures the running of a Blockchain, which makes the Blockchain be a trusted decentralized public leger.

Specifically, we build the promising blockwise-BA protocol on DeepChain stemmed from Algorand [41], [42]. The protocol includes three main steps: (1) A leader who creates a new block is randomly selected by calling cryptographic sortition. (2) A committee verifies and agrees on the new block by executing a Byzantine agreement protocol. The committee is constituted by transaction participants whose transactions are included inside the new block. (3) Each verifier in (2) step tells neighbors the new block based the gossip protocol so that the new block is known by all participants on DeepChain. The consensus protocol has been demonstrated to meet three properties including safety, correctness and liveness, which guarantees the health of DeepChain. In particular, safety means that all honest parties agree on the same transaction history on DeepChain. Correctness represents that any transaction agreed by any honest party comes from a honest party. Last, liveness says that parties and workers are willing to continuously act on DeepChain, thereby keeping DeepChain living. Under these three properties, we assume that message transmission is synchronous, and at most available $\frac{2}{3}$ \$*Coin* are possessed by honest parties. In this setting, all parties agree on a chain with the most assets. Next, three steps are introduced as following. Note that we define that r_i is referred to the round which creates the block $block_i$.

• Leader selection A leader selection means that a new block is selected. At the round r_i , a leader $leader_i$ is randomly chosen from workers who process transactions into the block $block_i$. Before r_i beginning, it is unpredictable and random to choose $leader_i$; and after r_i ending, $leader_i$ is chosen and public. For this, we invoke the sortition method of Algorand which includes two functions, leader selection and leader verification:

$$Algorand.Sortition(sk, seed_i, \tau = 1, role = worker, w, W)$$

$$\longrightarrow < hash, \pi, j > \\ Algorand.VerifySort(pk, hash, \pi, seed_i, \tau, role = worker, w, W) \\ \longrightarrow j.$$

In detail, the pair of sk and pk is owning to a worker. $seed_i$ is a random seed which is selected based on $seed_{i-1}$. They meet $seed_i = H(seed_{i-1}||r_i)$, where H is an hash function. $\tau = 1$ means that only one leader is selected from workers role = worker. Importantly, w is a crucial factor that indicates our former statement that a worker has a probability to gain rewards according to the quantity of money she

Algorithm 3: F_{ct}^* where *ct* means collaborative training.

- 1 Gradient Collecting
- 2 Wait to receive a message (input, $sid, T_t, pk_{P_j}^{psu}, C(\Delta \mathbf{W}), Proof_{PK_j}, d(\$Coin)$) from $pk_{P_j}^{psu}$ for all $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$. Assert time $T_t < T_{t_1}$. Here, sid means session identifier and d(\$Coin) means amount of deposits. Then, wait to receive a message (input, $sid, T_t, pk_{P_i}^{psu} \in \mathbb{C}, C(\Delta \mathbf{W}), Proof_{PK_i}, H', h' \times d(\$Coin)$) from S (adversary). Assert time $T_t < T_{t_1}$. Here, H' means the set of the remaining honest parties and |H'| = h'.
- 3 Compute $fsver_1(C(\Delta \mathbf{W}), Proof_{PK_j})$ for all $pk_{P_j}^{psu}$ where $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$.
- 4 Record the correct parties as $\{1, ..., N\} \setminus \mathbb{C}'$ according to the computation results. 5 Send(return, d(\$Coin)) to $pk_{P_j}^{psu}$ for all $j \in \{1, ..., N\} \setminus \mathbb{C}'$ after T_{t_1} ;
- 6 If S returns (continue, H'') where H'' means $H' \setminus \mathbb{C}'$, then send (output, Yes or No) to all $pk_{P_i}^{psu}$ where
- $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$, and send (payback, (h h'')d(\$Coin)) to S where |H''| = h'', and send (extrapay, d(\$Coin)) to $pk_{P_i}^{psu}$ where $j \in H''$.
- 7 Else if S returns (abort), send (penalty, d(\$Coin)) to $pk_{P_i}^{psu}$ for all $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$.
- 8 Collaborative decryption
- Wait to receive a message (input, $sid, T_t, pk_{P_j}^{psu}, C, C_j, Proof_{CD_j}, d(\$Coin)$) from $pk_{P_j}^{psu}$ for all $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$. Assert time $T_t < T_{t_5}$. Then, wait to receive a message (input, $sid, T_t, pk_{P_j}^{psu} \in \mathbb{C}, C, C_j, Proof_{CD_j}, H', h' * d(\$Coin)$) from \mathcal{S} (adversary). Assert time $T_t < T_{t_5}$.
- Compute $fsver_2(C, C_j, Proof_{CD_j})$ for all $pk_{P_i}^{psu}$ where $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$.
- 11 Record the correct parties as $\{1, ..., N\} \setminus \mathbb{C}'$ according to the computation result.
- 12 Send(return, d(\$Coin)) to $pk_{P_j}^{psu}$ for all $j \in \{1, ..., N\} \setminus \mathbb{C}'$ after T_{t_5} ;
- 13 If S returns (continue, H'') where H'' means $H' \setminus \mathbb{C}'$, then send (output, Yes or No) to all $pk_{P_i}^{psu}$ where $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$, and send (payback, (h - h'')d(\$Coin)) to S where |H''| = h'', and send (extrapay, d(\$Coin)) to pk_{P}^{psu} where $j \in H''$.
- Else if S returns (abort), send (penalty, d(\$Coin)) to $pk_{P_j}^{psu}$ for all $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$.

has earned (in section 4.2.2). w represents the amount of Coins which the participant possesses. w only contains \$Coins which have the available validity value, while those without validity value do not be considered. This definition is different from Alogrand's, which we intend to limit the trend of wealth accumulation. Wealth accumulation may happen that participants become more rich by accumulating more money due to the higher probability being a leader. The last factor is W which presents the total amounts of \$Coins on DeepChain. Via the two functions, we can randomly select a leader and all participants also enable to verify the selected leader $leader_i$.

• Committee agreement After leader verification, the selected block $block_i$ is sent to the committees which consist of a group participants who transactions are inside this block $block_i$. The participants in a committee verify each transaction done by $leader_i$, i.e., to verify whether the update operation is right or not. If the committee recognizes it right according to the majority rule, participants sign the $block_i$ on behalf of the committee. If not, the $block_i$ is rejected. Then, the *block*_{*i*} is valid only if more than 2/3 committees sign and agree on the $block_i$. $leader_i$ gains \$Coins from block rewards and $block_i'$ transaction coins. Otherwise, the $block_i$ is abandoned, and an empty block as the new $block_i$ replacing the old $block_i$ is built on DeepChain. Finally, the committees agree on the new $block_i$.

• Neighbor gossip The *block_i* has been agreed on by the committees. In this step, participants in these committees are responsible to tell their neighbors the $block_i$ via the popular gossip protocol [48], [49]. Eventually, all participants make consensus on DeepChain.

5 SECURITY ANALYSIS

In this section, we recall our security goals in DeepChain which are presented in section 3. We further give our security analyses threefold with respect to three security goals.

 Confidentiality guarantees for training gradients. For this goal, DeepChain employs Threshold Paillier algorithm which has the additive homomorphic property. We assume there exists a trusted setup, and the secret key cannot leak without the collaboration of at least t participants. We also assume at leat t participants are honest. Without loss of generality, both individual gradients and model parameters W are encrypted with the Threshold Paillier.Encrypt algorithm as the form of $C(W) = g_{model}^W(k)_{model}^n$. Based on the following lemma (derived from Theorem 1 in [50]), we state the confidentiality of individual gradients and model parameters is guaranteed.

Lemma 1. With the Decisional Composite Residuosity Assumption (DCRA) [51] and in the random oracle model (served as S), Threshold Paillier algorithm is t-robust semantically secure against active non-adaptive adversaries \mathcal{A} with polynomial time attack power, if

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Pr}[(w_0, w_1) &\leftarrow \mathcal{A}(1^{\lambda}, F^t(\cdot)); b &\leftarrow \{0, 1\}; C &\leftarrow \\ \mathcal{S}(1^{\lambda}, w_b); \mathcal{A}(C, 1^{\lambda}, F^t(\cdot)) &= b] - 1/2| &\leq negl(1^{\lambda}) \end{aligned}$$

that is negligible in λ which is the system security parameter. In the lemma above, $F^t(\cdot)$ is used to represent that \mathcal{A} controls at most t corrupted parties and learns their information including public parameters, the secret shares of the corrupted parties, the public verification keys, all the decryption shares and the validity of those shares. In addition, t-robust means that a Threshold Paillier ciphertext can be correctly decrypted, even if there exists A actively corrupts up to t parties. Semantic security is a general security proof methodology which depicts the security of an encryption algorithm, and in this setting, it depicts the confidentiality of encrypted information by the Threshold **Paillier.Encrypt** algorithm.

• Public auditability for gradient collecting and parameter updating. The security goal is that any party can audit the correctness of encrypted gradients and decryption shares during the processes of gradient collecting and parameter updating, respectively. Recall that we introduce the non-interactive zero-knowledge proof for these two processes in the setting of the Threshold Paillier algorithm, such as $fsprove_1$, $fsver_1$, $fsprove_2$, $fsver_2$, the methodology of which can be referred to the universally verifiable CDN (UVCDN) protocol [52]. Under the defined framework of UVCDN protocol, public auditability can be guaranteed if there exists a simulator that simulates the correctness proofs of honest parties and extracts witnesses of corrupted parties. We next demonstrate this statement with respect to the correctness proof of encrypted gradients by using Lemma 2 and Lemma 3. Similarly, the correctness proof of decryption shares can be discussed under the UVCDN framework, and we omit this part due to the space limitation.

Lemma 2. Given X = C(x), $x = \triangle \mathbf{W}$, and $c \in \mathbb{C}$ where \mathbb{C} is a finite set named the challenge space, Then, $\{d \in_R Z_{n_{model}}; e \in_R Z^*_{n_{model}}; a := g^d_{model} e^{n_{model}} X^{-c}:$ $(a; c; d, e)\}$

 $\approx \{a_1 \in_R Z_{n_{model}}; b_1 \in_R Z^*_{n_{model}}; a := g^{a_1}_{model} b^{n_{model}}_1; t := (a_1 + cx)/n_{model}; d := a_1 + cx; e := b_1 k^c_j g^t_{model}: (a; c; d, e)\}$

where \approx denotes that the distributions are statistical indistinguishable.

Lemma 3. We define $X = C(x) = g_{model}^x r^{n_{model}}$, in which $x = \triangle \mathbf{W}, r = k$. Given (a; s) which is generated by the announcement Σ_{PK} . *ann*, and *c* a challenge in respect to the announcement, there exists an extractor \mathcal{E} can extract the witness of an adversary \mathcal{A} , if \mathcal{A} can present two conversations for (a; s), that is,

$$|1 - \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}(X; x, r; a; s; c) \rightarrow (d, e; d', e'); \mathcal{E}(X; a; d, e; d', e') \rightarrow (x', r') = (x, r)]| \leq negl(1^{\lambda})$$

• Fairness enhancement for collaborative training. Recall that we employ two security mechanisms in the setting of Blockchain to enhance fairness for collaborative training. The two security mechanisms are the trusted time clock mechanism and secure monetary penalty mechanism. With the trusted time clock mechanism, behaviors in a contract are pushed to be accomplish ahead of a defined time point, which is demonstrated by the function *checkTimeout* in the setting of DeepChain. On the other hand, we define two secure monetary penalty functions, one of which is for gradient collecting and another one is for collaborative decryption. To explain these two mechanisms, we introduce a notion, secure computation with coins (SCC security) in a multi-party *N* setting, which is defined and proven by [46], [47] in a hybrid model as following. *Lemma* 4. Defined input *z*, security parameter λ , a distinguisher *Z*, ideal process IDEAL, ideal adversary *S* in IDEAL, and ideal function *f*; and meanwhile defined a protocol π which interact with ideal function *g* in a model with adversary *A*, Then, $\{\text{IDEAL}_{f,S,Z}(\lambda, z)\}_{\lambda} \in \mathbb{N}, z \in 0, 1^*$

$$\equiv_c$$

$$\{ ext{HYBRID}_{g,\pi,A,Z}(\lambda,z)\}_\lambda\in\mathbb{N},z\in0,1^*$$

where \equiv_c denotes that the distributions are computationally indistinguishable.

Lemma 5. Let π is a protocol and f s a multiparty function. We say that π securely computes f with penalties if π SCC-realizes the functionality f^* .

According to *Lemma* 5, we require a protocol π SSC-realizes F as F^* , which means that F^* achieves secure gradient collecting or collaborative decryption with penalties. With F^* and the trusted time clock mechanism, we intent to implement fairness for gradient collecting and collaborative decryption by F_{ct}^* mentioned by **Algorithm 4**.

6 IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

In this section, we present a implementation prototype. We first build the Blockchain setting to simulate DeepChain. With this setting, Blockchain nodes regarded as parties, participate in trading, and interact with two defined crucial smart contracts (i.e., *Trading Contract* and *Processing Contract*), in which generated transactions are serialized on the Blockchain.

First, we choose Corda V3.0 [53] to simulate DeepChain for adaption and simplification. Corda project is created by R3CEV, as well as widely applied in bank, financial institutes and trading areas. It is a decentralized ledger which absorbs the features of Bitcoin and Ethereum [54] while creating its characteristics, such as data sharing based on need-to-know basis, deconflicting transactions with pluggable notaries. A Corda network contains multiple notaries where the consensus protocol introduced in section 4.2.5 can be executed for them. Though we do not implement this in this paper, we make it for our further work. Without the loss of generation, we build nodes and classify them into two kinds, parties and workers. They constitute into the nodes of two CorDapps agreeing on the Blockchain, in which we define different business logic in five components, such as Flows, States, Contracts, Services and Serialisation whitelists

Second, we build the deep learning environment with the libraries: Python in version 3.6.4, numpy in version 1.14.0, and tensorflow in version 1.7.0. We select the popular MINIST dataset which has 55000 training data, 5000 verification data and 10000 testing data. Then, we split this dataset into multiple groups according to the number of parties. Our training model derives from CNN, the structure of which is: Input \rightarrow Conv \rightarrow Maxpool \rightarrow Fully Connected \rightarrow Output. The weights and bias parameter in Conv, Fully Connected and Output layers are $w_1 = (10, 1, 3, 3)$ and $b_1 = (10, 1)$, $w_2 = (1960, 128)$ and $b_2 = (1, 128)$, $w_3 = (128, 10)$ and $b_3 = (1, 10)$, respectively. Additionally, other training parameters are configured as the table 2 shown.

TABLE 2 Training configuration

Parameters	values
iteration	1500
epoch	1
learning rate	0.5
mini batch size	64

Third, recalled that we employ Threshold Paillier encryption combining with the super increasing sequence. We set the number of bits of modulus n_{model} to 1024 bits. It is worth noting that before executing encryption algorithm, the weight matrixes are assembled as a vector, which makes only a cipher be generated corresponding to a party.

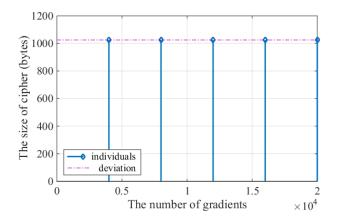


Fig. 4. Evaluation on the cipher size.

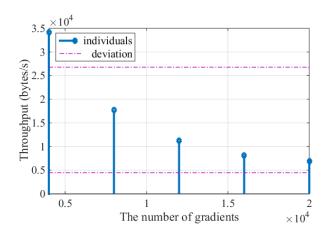


Fig. 5. Evaluation on the encryption throughput.

We implement the aforementioned building blocks with three modules, CordaDeepChain, TrainAlgorithm and CryptoSystem, respectively. We evaluated the feasibility of training on the simulated DeepChain in terms of encryption and training performance in a multi-party setting. First of all, we evaluate encryption performance with the implemented program on a desktop which is an Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU machine with 3.30 GHz cores and 16 GB memory. Fig. 4 shows the size of cipher is a constant when we encrypt various amounts of gradients which means the number of

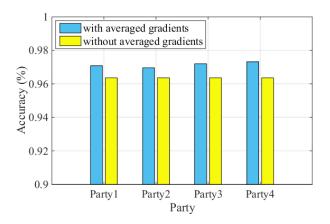


Fig. 6. The comparison on the training accuracy with four parties.

elements in the vector to be encrypted. Then, Fig. 5 shows the throughput when the encrypt algorithm is executed.

On the other hand, we create four parties participating in collaborative training and trading. Each party trains the local model with the training dataset which has the size of 13750 (by 55000/4). Then, single party gains the averaged gradients shared from the other three parties. we also create an external party only training on 13750-size dataset without the sharing averaged gradients, which is regarded as a baseline party. Through making the training accuracy comparison between the results from collaborative parties and the base line party, We demonstrate the accuracy improvement for single collaborative parties. The comparison result is shown in Fig 6.

7 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we present DeepChain, which is a healthy and win-win decentralized platform based on Blockchain for secure deep learning training. In the context of federal learning, we introduce an incentive mechanism and meanwhile focus on three security goals that are confidentiality, auditability as well as fairness. In addition, we claim the value of DeepChain in a long-term way. DeepChain stores training models where not only iterative training parameters but also trained models are recorded. On the one hand, it is obvious that trained models create financial values when the model-based pricing market is promising. This brings the owners of trained models with long-term benefits, since their models can serve for those who have AI tasks by the way of payment. On the other hand, all training processes and well-trained models are recorded, which could advance the development of transfer learning. Andrew Ng, in NIPS 2016 tutorial has said: "Transfer learning will be the next driver of ML success." [55] Thus, we take the first-step consideration that DeepChain can extend the potential value of models to transfer learning. Trained models which have gained knowledge can be applied to a different but related AI task. Then, the security problem should be re-defined, which will be discussed in the future work.

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