

Closing the Efficiency Gap Between Synchronous and Network-Agnostic Consensus

Giovanni Deligios $^{(\boxtimes)}$ and Mose Mizrahi $\mathrm{Erbes}^{(\boxtimes)}$

ETH Zurich, Zürich, Switzerland {gdeligios,mmizrahi}@ethz.ch

Abstract. In the consensus problem, n parties want to agree on a common value, even if some of them are corrupt and arbitrarily misbehave. If the parties have a common input m, then they must agree on m.

Protocols solving consensus assume either a synchronous communication network, where messages are delivered within a known time, or an asynchronous network with arbitrary delays. Asynchronous protocols only tolerate $t_a < n/3$ corrupt parties. Synchronous ones can tolerate $t_s < n/2$ corruptions with setup, but their security completely breaks down if the synchrony assumptions are violated.

Network-agnostic consensus protocols, as introduced by Blum, Katz, and Loss [TCC'19], are secure regardless of network conditions, tolerating up to t_s corruptions with synchrony and t_a without, under provably optimal assumptions $t_a \leq t_s$ and $2t_s + t_a < n$. Despite efforts to improve their efficiency, all known network-agnostic protocols fall short of the asymptotic complexity of state-of-the-art purely synchronous protocols.

In this work, we introduce a novel technique to compile *any* synchronous and *any* asynchronous consensus protocols into a networkagnostic one. This process only incurs a small constant number of overhead rounds, so that the compiled protocol matches the optimal round complexity for synchronous protocols. Our compiler also preserves under a variety of assumptions the asymptotic communication complexity of state-of-the-art synchronous and asynchronous protocols. Hence, it closes the current efficiency gap between synchronous and network-agnostic consensus.

As a plus, our protocols support ℓ -bit inputs, and can be extended to achieve communication complexity $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa + \ell n)$ under the assumptions for which this is known to be possible for purely synchronous protocols.

1 Introduction

1.1 Motivation

Consensus, or byzantine agreement, is a fundamental problem in distributed computing and cryptography. A consensus protocol enables n parties with inputs

A full version of this paper is available at https://eprint.iacr.org/2024/317.

[©] International Association for Cryptologic Research 2024

M. Joye and G. Leander (Eds.): EUROCRYPT 2024, LNCS 14655, pp. 432–461, 2024. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-58740-5_15

to agree on a common output by communicating via bilateral channels, even when some parties maliciously deviate from the protocol. Pre-agreement among honest parties on a common input must be preserved by a consensus protocol.

The problem has a decades-long research history [7,9,12,26] and consensus protocols serve as building blocks for more complex tasks, such as distributed key generation and multi-party computation. In the last decade, the emergence of blockchain applications [25,31] sparked renewed interest in the problem, and the number of consensus protocols implemented and deployed is now higher than ever. Interestingly, the security of deployed protocols relies on assumptions on the underlying communication network which are, in practice, not always satisfied, leading to serious security failures [22].

The two dominant communication abstractions are known as the *synchronous* model and the *asynchronous* model. In the synchronous model, messages are delivered within some publicly known time Δ after being sent, and parties have access to a global clock. This is in contrast to the asynchronous setting, where messages are delivered with arbitrary (finite) delays decided by an adversary, and parties' local clocks need not be synchronized.

Protocol design is significantly simpler in the synchronous model: communication can proceed in rounds where each party waits for messages from *all* other parties before computing their next message. Consensus protocols in this model can with setup achieve statistical or cryptographic security against less than $\frac{n}{2}$ malicious parties, but their security completely breaks down if even a *single* message is dropped or delayed.

The unpredictability of the asynchronous model requires a more involved protocol design, as one cannot differentiate between a corrupt party not sending a message and an honest party whose message is delayed. Given the minimal assumptions of this model, the achievable security guarantees are unsurprisingly weaker: asynchronous consensus protocols can tolerate less than $\frac{n}{3}$ malicious parties. On the positive side, in the real world, asynchronous protocols are resilient to very adverse network conditions.

Starting with [5], a recent line of works tries to marry the better resiliency of synchronous protocols with the tolerance of asynchronous protocols to adverse network conditions. The goal is to design *network-agnostic* protocols in which parties are unaware of the network conditions at execution time. If synchrony is satisfied throughout the execution, then the protocol should be secure if up to a threshold t_s of parties misbehave. However, even if some of the synchrony assumptions are violated during the execution, the protocol should still tolerate a lower threshold t_a of corruptions.

In this setting, consensus (with setup) is possible if and only if $t_a \leq t_s$ and $2t_s + t_a < n$ [5]. Observe that if the threshold t_a is set to 0, one has the optimal resilience of synchronous consensus protocols. Furthermore, even if the network is asynchronous, the protocol still achieves security when all parties honestly follow it. This is not true for purely synchronous protocols, where an adversary who controls the network can typically disrupt the execution of a protocol by simply delaying a *single* message.

Currently, known network-agnostic protocols for consensus and multi-party computation mostly follow some variation of the following approach: 1) Identify a synchronous and an asynchronous protocol for the task at hand, 2) Enhance both so that the synchronous protocol provides *some* weak guarantees even when the network is not synchronous and the asynchronous protocol provides *some* stronger guarantees (than it normally would) if synchrony holds, and finally 3) Run some clever combination of the two enhanced protocols to obtain a networkagnostic protocol with full security.

Despite proving quite effective, this design approach has two major downsides. First, if one wishes to replace the synchronous or asynchronous components with different protocols (because more efficient constructions are discovered, or because for a specific application the cryptographic primitives or setup assumptions required are not available), then the enhancement step 2) above must be carried out from scratch. This step is typically the most technically involved, and even if successful, new security proofs are required. Second, solving the design challenges of step 2) typically incurs a large complexity overhead.

These observations naturally lead to the following question:

Is there a complexity-preserving way to combine in a black-box fashion synchronous and asynchronous consensus protocols into a network-agnostic protocol?

For round complexity, we answer this question affirmatively with a compiler for network-agnostic consensus which makes only a single *black-box* use of *any* synchronous and asynchronous consensus protocols. The compiler only incurs a *constant* overhead in the number of rounds, and it does *not* run the asynchronous protocol if the network happens to be synchronous. Hence, we close up to a constant number of rounds any round complexity gap between purely synchronous and network-agnostic consensus protocols, including the asymptotic gap that remained open between [10, 19].

Our construction is the most efficient known, and it preserves the asymptomatic communication complexity of the best-known synchronous and asynchronous protocols when they are used in the compiler. As a plus, it supports long inputs natively and more efficiently than previous network-agnostic protocols, despite only invoking consensus protocols for single-bit inputs. For security we rely on the (provably necessary) trade-off $2t_s + t_a < n$ and the existence of unforgeable signatures, which can be instantiated from any setup necessary for honest majority synchronous consensus.

There is no known result or heuristic evidence implying that network-agnostic protocols should be inherently less efficient than purely synchronous protocols for the same task, assuming network synchrony holds. Recent work [3] shows that network-agnostic distributed key generation incurs no such loss. Our work goes in the same direction, and shows that no inherent efficiency loss is incurred for the network-agnostic security of consensus.

1.2 Technical Overview

Starting Point. A consensus protocol is run among n parties: each party holds an input m in some alphabet \mathcal{M} . A consensus protocol achieves *consistency* if all honest parties (parties following the prescribed protocol) output the same value. It achieves *validity* if whenever all honest parties have the same input m, they all output m (informally, we say that pre-agreement is preserved).

If a protocol achieves a property, for example consistency, only if the assumptions of the synchronous model are satisfied, we say that it achieves *synchronous* consistency. We say it simply achieves consistency if it achieves consistency regardless of the assumptions on the network (in particular, in the weakest model possible, the asynchronous model). Similarly, we say it achieves t-consistency if consistency holds only if at most t parties deviate from the protocol.

Protocols with synchronous t_s -validity and synchronous t_s -consistency (that we denote by SBA) exist for all $t_s < \frac{n}{2}$ assuming setup [12], while consensus protocols with t_a -validity and t_a -consistency even in asynchronous networks (which we denote by ABA) only exist for $t_a < \frac{n}{3}$, even with setup [9].

Blum, Katz, and Loss [5] first proposed a way to adapt such SBA and ABA protocols to obtain a network-agnostic protocol. Assuming $2t_s + t_a < n$ (which they prove to be necessary) they obtain a protocol HBA with the following properties 1) synchronous t_s -validity 2) t_a -validity 3) synchronous t_s -consistency, and 4) t_a -consistency.

The paradigm they use has been adopted in later works [3,10]. The idea is to run SBA and ABA in succession. First, the input to HBA is used as input to SBA, and then the output from SBA as input to ABA. Finally, the output from ABA is taken to be the output from HBA. However, without modifications, this simple procedure does not provide the wanted guarantees. The first problem is that SBA provides no security guarantees whatsoever if the network is not synchronous. In particular, it does not preserve pre-agreement between honest parties; so, t_a -validity does not hold in the overall protocol HBA. The second problem is that when the network is synchronous but $t_s > t_a$, protocol ABA provides no security guarantees. This means that synchronous t_s -validity and synchronous t_s -consistency do not hold for HBA.

Their solution is clever. Consider the following weaker notion of validity, which we call *fallback validity*: if all honest parties have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$, then they all output m or abort the protocol. Assume the existence of a protocol SBA^{*} which, in addition to the properties of SBA, achieves t_a -fallback validity.

Now, run in succession SBA^{*} and ABA, but any party who aborts in SBA^{*} uses their original input as input to ABA. Now, even if the network is asynchronous, pre-agreement on an input m among honest parties is preserved: thanks to t_a fallback validity, all parties output m from SBA^{*} or abort. Either way, they all input m to ABA, and pre-agreement is preserved by the t_a -validity of ABA. To fix the second problem, assume the existence of a protocol ABA^{*} which, in addition to the properties of ABA achieves synchronous t_s -validity,¹ and replace ABA with ABA^{*} in HBA. Observe that, if the network is synchronous, by the synchronous t_s -consistency of SBA^{*}, honest parties are always in pre-agreement before executing ABA^{*} (either on the pre-agreed upon input, or on some arbitrary value if no pre-agreement was present before executing SBA^{*}). Therefore, the synchronous t_s -validity of ABA^{*} suffices for the security of HBA.

Constructing protocols SBA^{*} and ABA^{*} with the required properties is a significant design challenge which fundamentally exploits the assumption $2t_s + t_a < n$. In [5], Dolev-Strong broadcast [12] and the asynchronous consensus protocol from [28] are used as starting points. The resulting network-agnostic protocol requires setup for unique threshold signatures and runs in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ rounds when the network is synchronous. In [10], Deligios and Hirt design a new SBA^{*} by modifying the synchronous protocol from [14]. Again, unique threshold signatures are needed, but the new protocol runs in a constant (in n) number of rounds when the network is synchronous, with an error probability $\mathcal{O}(c^{-r})$ in r rounds for some constant c > 1. At the time, this matched the asymptotic round complexity of the most efficient purely-synchronous protocols known. However, more recently, [19] showed an SBA protocol which under appropriate assumptions can achieve an error probability of $\mathcal{O}((c \cdot r)^{-r})$ in r ounds for some constant c > 0, which has long been known to be optimal [23], thus reopening the gap between synchronous and network-agnostic protocols. This gap remained, until now, open.

Closing the Round-Efficiency Gap. Design-wise, it is clearly sub-optimal to repeat the process of enhancing SBA with t_a -validity and rewriting security proofs to obtain a corresponding SBA^{*} whenever any new synchronous protocol is published. To make matters worse, certain SBA protocols (including [19]) seem to be inherently less friendly to such adaptations.

For this reason, we propose a new enhancing technique to obtain a protocol with the properties required from SBA^{*} that invokes any SBA protocol in a black-box fashion, and only introduces a constant overhead in the number of rounds required. We stress that this construction can be instantiated with any SBA protocol, including [19]. We begin by adding t_a -fallback validity to a weaker agreement primitive (a flavor of graded consensus), whose security only relies on an abstract form of digital signatures (which can also be instantiated with information theoretic security [34]). Our graded-consensus intuitively provides the validity guarantees required from SBA^{*} when synchrony does not hold, so that the role of the underlying SBA is reduced to providing full agreement when the network is synchronous. This allows us to use SBA in a black-box way.

However, plugging the SBA from [19] into our construction for SBA^{*} does not suffice: to achieve network-agnostic security, protocol HBA requires running both the SBA^{*} and the ABA^{*} sub-protocols regardless of the network conditions. Unfortunately, a classical lower bound shows that in r rounds, an asynchronous

¹ The protocol ABA^{*} should also have certain termination properties if the network is synchronous, but such details are not needed to appreciate this technical overview.

consensus protocol can only achieve consistency and validity with error probability $\mathcal{O}(c^{-r})$ for some constant c > 1 [2]. This means that even running an *optimal* ABA^{*} protocol when the network is synchronous would increase the error of the overall protocol from $\mathcal{O}((c \cdot r)^{-r})$ to $\mathcal{O}(c^{-r})$ in r rounds.

To fix this, we propose a new way to enhance *any* ABA protocol to fulfill the properties of ABA^{*} that only requires black-box access to the underlying ABA protocol. We observe that when the network is synchronous, the SBA^{*} protocol guarantees that honest parties are always in pre-agreement upon entering the protocol ABA^{*}. We exploit this by designing a termination procedure that, when the network is synchronous, is triggered within a small constant number of rounds, causing ABA^{*} to terminate *without* running the underlying ABA. This means that the underlying ABA protocol is only run when the network is asynchronous, which in turn allows us to use it in a black-box way.

Multi-valued Inputs. Our protocols actually support inputs from any alphabet \mathcal{M} . When $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}$, validity guarantees that the common output of honest parties is the input of at least one honest party. For large input spaces, this desirable property is unattainable unless $t \cdot |\mathcal{M}| < n$. Instead, it is common to only require that the common output is either the input of some honest party or a special symbol \perp : this property is called intrusion tolerance. Since it requires no extra work, our consensus protocols guarantee that the common output is the input of at least δn honest parties whenever $2t_s + t_a \leq (1 - \delta)n$ and δn is a positive integer. This is without loss of generality, as the requirement that t_a, t_s and n are integers allows us to simply take δn to be $n - 2t_s - t_a$.

Overview of our Construction. Our novel SBA^{*} construction has two components: the first is *any* SBA protocol, and the second is a weaker agreement primitive we call SGC² (2-graded consensus), which provides the network-agnostic security guarantees. We build increasingly strong agreement primitives towards SGC². All these primitives achieve the validity and fallback validity properties, but provide increasingly strong consistency guarantees. SGC² is sufficiently strong so that combining it with SBA one finally obtains full security. We then mimic this approach for our ABA^{*} protocol.

Protocol SWC. We begin with SWC (synchronous weak consensus). The protocol is simple: in the first round parties sends their signed inputs (with some signature scheme) to everyone. Any party receiving less than $n - t_s$ messages is sure that the network is asynchronous (or they would have received messages from all honest parties) and it simply aborts the protocol. Otherwise, in the second round, if a party has received at least $t_s + \delta n$ copies of the same validly signed value m from different parties, it sets its tentative output to m, combines the signatures on m into a *certificate*, and sends the certificate to everyone in an effort to prevent inconsistencies. Upon seeing a certificate on a value different from its tentative output, a party changes its output to \bot . In a synchronous network the protocol achieves t_s -validity and a weaker notion of t_s -consistency: there is some $m \in \mathcal{M}$ such that each honest party outputs either m or \bot , because before outputting some $m \in \mathcal{M}$, a party sends a certificate on m to everyone, preventing other parties from outputting any $m' \in \mathcal{M} \setminus \{m\}$. Notice that the protocol also achieves t_a -fallback validity: informally, if the network is asynchronous but honest parties have pre-agreement on m, an honest party who does not abort in the first round has received at least $n - t_s$ validly signed messages, and of these, at most t_a come from corrupted parties. Therefore, the assumption $2t_s + t_a \leq (1 - \delta)n$ guarantees that at least $n - t_s - t_a \geq t_s + \delta n$ of the signed inputs hail from honest parties, who all sign the input m.

Protocol SProp. The next building block for SGC^2 is the protocol SProp (synchronous proposal). In a proposal protocol, honest parties have inputs in some common set $S = \{x, \bot\} \subseteq \mathcal{M}^{\bot} = \mathcal{M} \cup \{\bot\}$, and they output either x, \bot , or the set $\{x, \bot\}$. The protocol description and the security properties achieved are similar to SWC: pre-agreement on an input should be preserved, and it should not happen that an honest party outputs x while another outputs \bot . However, it is allowed that an honest party outputs x or \bot while another outputs $\{x, \bot\}$. Indeed, the mapping $(x, \{x, \bot\}, \bot) \longrightarrow (0, \bot, 1)$ actually yields a weak-consensus protocol for binary inputs. The crucial difference which we exploit is that for proposal, the set $S = \{x, \bot\}$ doesn't have to be known a priori: honest parties with the input \bot do not need to know what x is.

Protocols SGC¹ and SGC². Protocols SGC¹ and SGC² are different flavors of a primitive called graded consensus. They invoke SWC and SProp as sub-protocols. In graded consensus, each party has an input $x \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$ and outputs a value $y \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$, together with a grade $g \in [0, k]$. Intuitively, the grade measures "how certain" a party is of its output. The grades of honest parties must differ by at most 1, and if an honest party has a non-zero grade, then all honest parties must have the same value y (graded consistency). In addition, if the honest parties are in pre-agreement on a value y, then all honest parties must output y with the maximum grade g = k (graded validity). The higher k is, the harder it is to achieve these properties.

Protocol SGC¹ has a maximum grade k = 1. First, the parties run an instance of SWC on their inputs. If their outputs here matches their inputs, they repeat their inputs to an instance of SProp. Otherwise, they input \perp to SProp. Finally, the mapping $(m, \{m, \bot\}, \bot) \longrightarrow ((m, 1), (m, 0), (\bot, 0))$ is applied to the SProp outputs. Protocol SWC guarantees that the inputs of honest parties are valid inputs for SProp, and then SProp provides graded consistency. Indeed, if a party outputs a value x with grade 1, this means that it output x from SProp, and no honest party has output \bot from SProp. This shows all honest parties output x with grade 1 or 0. Other properties, including t_a -fallback validity, are inherited from the sub-protocols in a straightforward way.

Protocol SGC^2 has a maximum grade k = 2. The protocol is similar to SGC^1 , but invokes SGC^1 instead of SWC and SWC instead of SProp. The output *value* of SGC^2 is simply taken to be the output value from SGC^1 , but an instance of SWC is run on the output grades from SGC^1 in order to increase k from 1 to 2 via the mapping $(0, \bot, 1) \longrightarrow (0, 1, 2)$ on the outputs of SWC. The weak consistency of SWC guarantees that the grades of honest parties differ by at most by 1, and the validity of SWC guarantees that non-zero SGC^2 grades only occur if some honest parties obtained the grade 1 from $\mathsf{SGC}^1,$ implying agreement on the output values.²

Protocol SBA*. We combine SGC² together with any fixed-round synchronous binary consensus protocol SBA to obtain our enhanced synchronous consensus protocol SBA*. The construction is simple. First, the parties run SGC² on their inputs, and then they run SBA to decide whether agreement has been reached, inputting 1 to SBA if they have non-zero grades. The parties with the grade 2 just ignore SBA and output their SGC² output values. From this follows validity and fallback validity. The remaining parties use SBA for consistency. If SBA outputs 1, then they output their SGC² output values; otherwise, they output ⊥. For synchronous consistency, there are three scenarios to consider. If some party has the grade 2, then by graded consistency, every party has the grades 2 or 1, and therefore, by validity, SBA outputs 1, leading to everyone outputting the common SGC² output value. If every party has the grade 0, then by validity SBA outputs 0, and so everyone outputs ⊥. Finally, if some parties have the grade 1 while others the grade 0, then either SBA outputs 1 and everyone outputs the common SGC² output value, or SBA outputs 0 and everyone outputs ⊥.

Protocol AProp. Our AProp (asynchronous proposal) protocol is an adaption of $\Pi_{\text{prop}}^{t_s}$ from [5]. For simplicity, here we only consider the case $\delta n = 1$; if $\delta n > 1$, some care must be taken to achieve $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance. As in SProp, the honest parties have inputs in a set $S = \{x, \bot\} \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$. They start by simply sending their inputs to everyone (AProp does not need signatures). If a party receives an input v from $t_s + 1$ parties, then it learns that v is the input of an honest party, and therefore sends the input v to everyone, even if v is not its own input. If a party P_i receives an input v from $n - t_s$ parties, then it adds v to a set V_i . Upon adding a first value v to V_i , party P_i proposes to everyone that they should output v, and upon adding a second value to V_i , party P_i outputs $V_i = S$. Alternatively, a party will output v upon receiving from $n - t_s$ parties proposals to output v. If everyone has a common input v, then v will be the unique value everyone will add to V_i ; therefore, everyone will propose and output v. A standard quorum-intersection argument on proposals shows t_a consistency. The trickiest property is t_a -liveness, meaning that all parties obtain output. Since $n - t_a > 2t_s$, there exists an input held by at least $t_s + 1$ parties. Furthermore, if $t_s + 1$ parties send everyone an input v, then every party P_i sends everyone the input v and adds v to V_i ; thus, there exists an input that every party P_i adds to V_i . Finally, if some P_i adds v to V_i , then at least $n - t_s - t_a \ge t_s + 1$ parties must have sent everyone the input v, meaning that every P_i adds v to V_i . Therefore, either every party P_i adds both x and \perp to V_i and can output $\{x, \perp\}$, or there is a unique v which every party P_i adds to V_i , proposes, and outputs. Protocol AProp is non-terminating; it is designed to be run forever. Termination is guaranteed by the outer protocol ABA^{*}.

² Grades 0 and 1 suffice for SBA* with binary inputs. Expanding the grade range is only necessary for multi-valued inputs, but incurs no asymptotic round or communication complexity overhead, which is why we do not consider the cases separately.

Protocol AWC. The asynchronous weak consensus protocol AWC is the counterpart of SWC. In theory, AProp can be used as a weak-consensus protocol for binary inputs via the mapping $(x, \{x, \bot\}, \bot) \longrightarrow (0, \bot, 1)$. This provides a simple way to obtain weak consensus on ℓ -bit messages by simply running ℓ parallel instances of AProp, one instance per bit. Then, any honest party that obtained \bot from any instance would output \bot , and any honest party that obtained bits from all instances would output the concatenation of the bits. This design would increase message complexity by a multiplicative ℓ -factor, and the messages would need (log ℓ)-bit tags that indicate which AProp instance they belong to. To keep the complexity low, we parallelize the AProp instances in a more refined way, by batching/combining messages of different instances.

Protocols AGC^1 and AGC^2 . These graded consensus protocols are simple message-driven adaptations of their synchronous counterparts SGC^1 and SGC^2 . They invoke AWC and AProp as sub-protocols rather than SWC and SProp.

Protocol ABA^{*}. Our asynchronous consensus protocol with t_s -validity ABA^{*} combines AGC^2 and *any* asynchronous binary consensus protocol ABA secure against t_a corruptions. The composition is similar to that in SBA^{*}, but since we can no longer rely on having a fixed running time, we need to rethink termination. We avoid the termination technique of sending certificates on tentative outputs (as done in some previous work [3, 5, 10]), and instead opt for an approach similar to Bracha's classical protocol from [7]. This keeps the communication complexity quadratic rather than cubic, and makes ABA^{*} a signature-free reduction of asynchronous multi-valued consensus to binary consensus [30]. To keep the communication complexity low, we ensure that the honest parties do not send ABA messages when the network is synchronous. We do so by requiring that when the network is synchronous, the honest parties know a common input $m \in \mathcal{M}$ by some publicly known time $r_s \cdot \Delta$, which triggers the termination rules and guarantees the termination of ABA* within a few additional rounds, by some publicly known time T. Before local time T, honest parties do not send ABA messages. Hence they terminate without ever sending ABA messages if the network is synchronous.

Protocol HBA. We obtain HBA by composing SBA^{*} and ABA^{*} as described previously. The t_a -fallback validity of SBA^{*} and the synchronous t_s -validity (with termination) of ABA^{*} make the composition sound.

1.3 Contributions

Theorem 1. Let SBA be any synchronous consensus protocol for binary inputs achieving error probability ϵ in k rounds, and ABA be any asynchronous consensus protocol for binary inputs. Under the provably optimal assumptions $2t_s + t_a < n$ and $t_a \leq t_s$, there exists a network-agnostic consensus protocol HBA for any inputs which invokes SBA and ABA in a black-box way and that, when the network is synchronous, achieves error probability ϵ in k + 13 rounds.



Fig. 1. An overview of how sub-protocols are composed for HBA.

Theorem 1 reduces the synchronous round complexity of network-agnostic consensus protocols to the round complexity of purely synchronous consensus protocols, up to a small additive constant. Concretely, HBA can take full advantage of a round-optimal λ -round SBA with an error probability decreasing superexponentially with λ [19], improving over the state-of-the-art [10] (in which the error decreases exponentially) and finally matching the known lower bound for purely synchronous protocols [23]. Note that to achieve consensus for honestmajority when the network is synchronous, some sort of setup is *provably* necessary [26]. Our protocol also needs setup. Concretely, it can be instantiated from a variety of setup assumptions such as threshold signatures, bulletin-PKI or even correlated randomness for information theoretic pseudo-signatures.

Below, we compare the communication complexity (in terms of bits) of our construction with that of previous network-agnostic protocols, when we use the most efficient SBA and ABA protocols at hand. We denote with κ a computational security parameter and with ε a positive constant. Since [3] only has an ABA^{*} component, we pair it with our SBA^{*}. For fairness, we consider variants of previous protocols optimized to take full advantage of threshold signatures.

Assumptions Protocols	Bulletin-PKI	Bulletin-PKI & $2t_s \leq (1-\varepsilon)n$	Threshold Signatures
Blum, Katz, Loss [5]			$\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{O}(n^4\kappa)\\ \text{(Bit Consensus)} \end{array}$
Deligios, Hirt, Liu-Zhang [10]			$\frac{\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)}{\text{(Bit Consensus)}}$
Bacho, Collins, Liu-Zhang, Loss [3]	$\mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa + \ell n^3)$	$\mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa + \ell n^3)$	$\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa + \ell n^3)$
Our Work	$\mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa + \ell n^2)$	$ \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa + \ell n^2) \text{ if} \\ \text{network synchronous,} \\ \text{else } \mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa + \ell n^2) \end{array} $	$\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa + \ell n^2)$

 Table 1. Communication complexities of previous network-agnostic consensus protocols and ours, under assumptions that have been considered for network-agnostic consensus.

As a starting point, our protocol HBA has the communication complexity $\mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa + \ell n^2 + \mathsf{CC}_{\mathsf{SBA}} + \mathsf{CC}_{\mathsf{ABA}})$, where $\mathsf{CC}_{\mathsf{SBA}}$ and $\mathsf{CC}_{\mathsf{ABA}}$ are the communication complexities of SBA and ABA respectively. The $\mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa)$ overhead term can be reduced to $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$ by assuming a trusted setup for threshold signatures, or by slightly lowering the allowed corruptions to $2t_s \leq (1-\varepsilon)n$ for a positive constant ε . Furthermore, if the network is synchronous, then ABA messages are not sent and the term $\mathsf{CC}_{\mathsf{ABA}}$ is eliminated.

To minimize communication, we instantiate SBA with the protocol from [27] which in its base form achieves the communication complexity $\mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa)$, but can achieve the complexity $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$ with threshold signatures if they are available, or with expander graphs if $2t_s \leq (1 - \varepsilon)n$. As for ABA, we instantiate it with the state-of-the-art cubic protocol from [18],³ or, if setup for unique threshold signatures is available, with [28] using the coin protocol⁴ from [8] to achieve quadratic complexity. When these instantiations are used, the asymptotic communication complexity of HBA for binary inputs matches that the complexity of its state-of-the-art⁵ SBA component if the network is synchronous, and the complexity of its its state-of-the-art ABA component otherwise.

If bulletin-PKI is available and $2t_s \leq (1-\varepsilon)n$, then we achieve the complexity $O(n^2\kappa + \ell n^2)$ with expander graphs. We do so with 3-round variants of SWC and SProp, inspired by the graded consensus protocol in [27]. Due to a lack of space, we only present these variants in the full version.

When considering ℓ -bit inputs, the $\mathcal{O}(\ell n^2)$ term is already a strict improvement over the $\mathcal{O}(\ell n^3)$ term from [3] and over any straightforward adaptation of known protocols. Using techniques from the literature on extension protocols together with some novel ideas, it is possible to bring this all the way down to $\mathcal{O}(\ell n)$, which is the best possible even for purely synchronous protocols [17]. We discuss network-agnostic consensus extension protocols later in more detail, and we present such extension protocols in the full version.

The efficiency improvements are facilitated by our new black-box construction of HBA which allows us to instantiate the sub-protocols SBA and ABA with the most efficient known protocols from the literature. We consider this new approach to be a contribution of independent interest, and hope that analogous constructions will unlock similar efficiency gains for other network-agnostic distributed tasks.

1.4 Related Work

Network-agnostic protocols were first considered by Blum, Katz and Loss [5]; in this work, the authors showed the first network-agnostic consensus protocol. The first network-agnostic full multi-party computation protocol (MPC)

 $^{^{3}}$ The ABA in [18] is secure statically, or adaptively with a one-time CRS.

⁴ This coin protocol is secure in the random oracle model.

⁵ An SBA protocol concurrent with our work uses threshold signatures to achieve $\mathcal{O}(nf\kappa)$ complexity, where $f \leq t_s \leq \frac{(1-\varepsilon)n}{2}$ is the actual number of malicious parties [13]. Our work only considers the worst case $f = t_s$.

was shown in [6]. There has since been a significant interest in the field. Other network-agnostic MPC protocols include [1,11]. Network-agnostic approximate agreement has been investigated in [20,21]. Most related to our work are [10], which contains an efficient network-agnostic consensus protocol which at the time matched the round complexity of the best known synchronous protocols, and [3], that deals with distributed-key-generation but also constructs an ABA^{*} counterpart.

The round complexity of consensus protocols has a long research history. Without setup, consensus among n parties is possible (both in synchronous and asynchronous networks) if less than n/3 parties are corrupted [7,26]. In this setting, the first synchronous consensus protocol with a number of rounds independent from n was [14], and the first asynchronous one was [9]. Constantround protocols, regardless of the network assumptions, cannot be deterministic [12,15], and they fail with negligible probability. Assuming setup (like a PKI, or correlated randomness) consensus tolerating up to n/2 corruptions is possible [12]. One can also obtain constant round constructions in this setting [24]. Until recently, constant-round consensus protocols in any corruption setting failed with probability at least c^{-r} in r rounds for some constant c > 1. A long standing lower bound from [23] shows that, even in synchronous networks and assuming setup, one cannot hope to reduce the failure probability to less than $(c \cdot r)^{-r}$ in r rounds. The first synchronous protocol matching this lower bound is [19]. and in this work we match its optimal round complexity when synchrony holds, while also ensuring consensus if the network is asynchronous. Our construction must not (and does not) run an asynchronous consensus protocol if the network is asynchronous, in order to circumvent another lower bound [2] which shows that error c^{-r} in r rounds is actually optimal for asynchronous protocols.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Model

Adversary. We consider n parties P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n who communicate over a complete network of point-to-point authenticated channels. We consider an active threshold adversary bound by the integer thresholds t_s and t_a such that $t_a \leq t_s$ and $2t_a + t_s \leq (1 - \delta)n$, where δn is a positive integer.⁶ The adversary may corrupt up to t_s parties in an adaptive fashion (depending on information learned during the execution) if the network is synchronous and t_a parties if the network is asynchronous, making them deviate arbitrarily from the prescribed protocol in a coordinated and malicious manner. We call a party who is never corrupted throughout the execution of a protocol honest.

Network. We consider different network models. If the network is *synchronous*, then all messages sent by honest parties must be delivered within a fixed time

⁶ Since $2t_s + t_a < n$ is required, this assumption is without loss of generality. One can simply consider $\delta = (n - 2t_s - t_a)/n$.

bound Δ , known to all honest parties. Subject to this rule, the adversary can arbitrarily schedule the delivery of messages. Furthermore, we assume that the honest parties have synchronized local clocks, which means that they can start a protocol simultaneously and that their local clocks progress at the same rate. In this setting, the adversary is allowed to corrupt up to t_s parties for a fixed threshold t_s known to all parties. If the network is *asynchronous*, then the adversary can arbitrarily schedule the delivery of messages, with the restriction that messages sent by honest parties must eventually be delivered. Additionally, honest parties need not have synchronized local clocks. In this setting, the adversary is allowed to corrupt up to t_a parties for a fixed threshold t_a known to all parties. Finally, in the network-agnostic setting, the network may be synchronous or asynchronous. Honest parties do not know the network condition. Depending on the network type, the rules for the synchronous setting or the asynchronous setting are in effect, and the parameters Δ , t_s and t_a are all known to all parties. This is the setting in which we analyze our protocols.

Some of our protocols are round-based. The round r should be understood to be the local time interval between $(r-1)\Delta$ and $r\Delta$. In round r, each honest party sends messages at time $(r-1)\Delta$, listens to messages throughout the round, and makes decisions depending on received messages at time $r\Delta$. The scheduling powers of the adversary make it *rushing*, which means that it can choose its round r messages depending on the honest parties' round r messages.

In our protocols, something we very commonly direct parties to do is to send a message m to all parties. We call this "multicasting the message m."

2.2 Building Blocks

Security Parameter. We denote by κ a security parameter.

Signatures and Bulletin-PKI. For a bulletin-PKI setup, before the execution of the protocol, each party P_i generates a key pair $(\mathsf{sk}_i, \mathsf{vk}_i)$, where sk_i is for signing messages and vk_i is for verifying them. Party P_i keeps sk_i private, and posts vk_i on a public board. If P_i is corrupted before the execution of a protocol, then it can freely choose its public vk_i ; e.g. it can duplicate the key vk_j of an honest party P_j . We denote with $\sigma = \mathsf{Sgn}_{\mathsf{sk}_i}(m)$ that σ is a signature of length $\mathcal{O}(\kappa)$ obtained by signing m with sk_i , and say $\mathsf{Vfy}_{\mathsf{vk}_i}(m,\sigma) = 1$ if σ is a valid signature on m with respect to vk_i . We idealize the signature scheme (consisting of efficient key generation, signing and verification algorithms) to have perfect existential unforgeability, so that for any honestly generated key pair $(\mathsf{sk}_i, \mathsf{vk}_i)$, an adversary can't forge a signature σ such that $\mathsf{Vfy}_{\mathsf{vk}_i}(m,\sigma) = 1$ without sk_i .

Certificates. A certificate is a collection of valid signatures on a message. We formally define a certificate on a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ to be a pair (m, L), where L is a list (l_1, \ldots, l_n) such that either $l_i = \sigma_i$ and $\mathsf{Vfy}_{\mathsf{vk}_i}(m, \sigma_i) = 1$ for some signature σ_i , or $l_i = \bot$, where \bot is a special value which indicates the absence of a signature. A k-certificate on m contains at least k signatures on m.

Common Coins. Given an instance number k and a corruption threshold t, an idealized common coin protocol emulates a trusted entity which, upon receiving the message (**coin request**, k) from t + 1 distinct parties, samples the bit **coin**_k uniformly at random and sends the message (k, **coin**_k) to all parties.

Unique Threshold Signatures. Appropriate trusted setup makes it possible for a party to compress any f-certificate (where e.g. $f = t_s + 1$) into a single threshold signature of length $\mathcal{O}(\kappa)$. This provides complexity savings whenever the party needs to send a certificate. Uniqueness is the desirable property that all f-certificates on a message m compress into the same threshold signature. While not needed for certificate compression, it is essential for the construction of a common coin protocol against up to $t < \frac{n}{2}$ corruptions with $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ messages of length $\mathcal{O}(\kappa)$ in the random oracle model (wherein one models a cryptographic hash function as a random function from its domain to its range) [8].

2.3 Definitions of Primitives and Security Properties

Notions of Validity. For multi-valued consensus, one can consider different notions of validity.

Validity: The most typical notion is that if all honest parties have the same input m, then all honest parties must output m.

Strong Validity: A stronger notion of validity is that the common output m must be the input of some honest party. While this is equivalent to regular validity for binary inputs, it is indeed stronger for multi-valued consensus: if two honest parties run consensus with the distinct inputs m_1 and m_2 , then only regular validity permits the common output to be $m_3 \notin \{m_1, m_2\}$. Unfortunately, to achieve strong validity, even in the synchronous setting and for computational security, one needs $t < \frac{n}{2^{\ell}}$ [16]. Intuitively, the problem is that if all honest parties have different inputs, there is no secure way to choose the input of an honest party against even a single corruption.

Intrusion Tolerance: An alternative weakening of strong validity is that the common output should either be the input of some honest party, or a special output \perp outside the domain of inputs. This property has been considered both explicitly [3,29] and implicitly [4,17,32], and it can be achieved together with optimal resilience for consensus. One can obtain it trivially by having all parties output \perp , but not when (regular) validity is also required.

Protocol Syntax. We primarily concern ourselves with protocols to reach consensus on ℓ -bit inputs, where ℓ is a publicly known length parameter. Hence, we define $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ to be the input space, and $\mathcal{M}^{\perp} = \mathcal{M} \cup \{\perp\}$ to be the input space with a special value \perp added to it.

Security Properties. We consider property-based security for our protocols. Recall that we use the prefix "t-" to mean that a property only holds if at most t parties can be corrupted, and the prefix "synchronous" to mean that a property only holds if the network is synchronous. For round complexity, we sometimes also use the prefix "r-round". With it, we mean that if the network

is synchronous and all honest parties know their inputs by some time $k\Delta$, then the guarantees of the prefixed property are achieved by time $(k+r)\Delta$.

With notational conventions out of the way, let us first define some properties shared by many primitives.

- t-termination: If all honest parties participate in the protocol with input, and they don't stop participating until termination, then all honest parties terminate the protocol with output.
- t-liveness: If all honest parties participate in the protocol with input without ever stopping, then all honest parties obtain output from the protocol.
- t-robustness: No honest party aborts the protocol.

Our round-based protocols all have fixed numbers of rounds, so that honest parties who do not abort trivially terminate. Because in this case termination follows from robustness, we only consider robustness for these protocols. Also, we do not consider robustness for protocols where honest parties cannot abort.

We define some agreement primitives together with relevant security properties below. The "fallback validity" properties refer to honest parties who provide input. This is because our round-based protocols permit honest parties to not have any input and abort immediately if the network is asynchronous.

Note that our parameterized notion of intrusion tolerance is related to the differential validity studied in [16]. Against t corruptions, a consensus protocol with (t, q)-intrusion tolerance automatically has (n - 2q)-differential validity.

Weak Consensus. In a weak consensus protocol, each honest party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs some $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$. Below are the relevant properties:

- (\mathbf{t},\mathbf{q}) -intrusion tolerance: Suppose less than q honest parties have the input m for some $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then no honest party outputs m.
- t-validity: Suppose all honest parties have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then honest parties can only output m.
- **t-weak consistency:** If some honest party outputs some $m \in \mathcal{M}$, then honest parties can only output m or \perp .
- t-fallback validity: Suppose all honest parties who provide input have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then honest parties either abort or output m.
- t-validity with liveness: Suppose all honest parties participate in the protocol with a common input $m \in \mathcal{M}$, and they never stop participating. Then all honest parties output m.

Proposal. In a proposal protocol, there exists some set $S = \{x, \bot\} \subseteq \mathcal{M}^{\bot}$ such that each honest party P_i has an input $v_i \in S$, and each honest party P_i outputs some $y_i \in \{x, \{x, \bot\}, \bot\}$. The relevant properties are the following:

- (\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{q}) -intrusion tolerance: Suppose less than q honest parties have the input m for some $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then no honest party outputs m or $\{m, \bot\}$. Note that for any proposal protocol, this property with $q \ge 1$ implies that honest parties can only obtain outputs in $\{x, \{x, \bot\}, \bot\}$, as required above.

- **t-validity:** Suppose all honest parties have the same input $v \in S$. Then honest parties can only output v.
- **t-weak consistency:** If some honest party outputs x, then no honest party outputs \perp .
- t-fallback validity: Suppose all honest parties who provide input have the same input $v \in S$. Then honest parties either abort or output v.
- t-validity with liveness: Suppose all honest parties participate in the protocol with a common input $v \in S$, and they never stop participating. Then all honest parties output v.

k-Graded Consensus. In a k-graded consensus protocol, each honest party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs a tuple (y_i, g_i) , where $g_i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, k\}$. The relevant properties are the following:

- (t,q)-intrusion tolerance: Suppose less than q honest parties have the input m for some $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then no honest party P_i obtains $y_i = m$.
- **t-graded validity:** Suppose all honest parties have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then honest parties can only output (m, k).
- **t-graded consistency:** Suppose honest parties P_i and P_j output (y_i, g_i) and (y_j, g_j) . Then, $|g_i g_j| \le 1$, and if $g_i \ge 1$, then $y_j = y_i$.
- t-fallback graded validity: If all honest parties who provide input have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$, then honest parties either abort or output (m, k).
- **t-graded validity with liveness:** Suppose all honest parties participate in the protocol with a common input $m \in \mathcal{M}$, and they never stop participating. Then all honest parties output (m, k).

Consensus. In a consensus protocol, each honest party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs some $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$. The relevant properties are the following:

- (t,q)-intrusion tolerance: Suppose less than q honest parties have the input m for some $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then no honest party outputs m.
- **t-validity:** Suppose all honest parties have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then honest parties can only output m.
- **t-consistency:** Honest parties do not obtain different outputs in $v \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$.
- t-fallback validity: Suppose all honest parties who provide input have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then honest parties either abort or output m.
- t-validity with termination: Suppose all honest parties participate in the protocol with a common input $m \in \mathcal{M}$, and they never stop participating until termination. Then all honest parties terminate with the output m.

3 Synchronous Consensus with Fallback Validity

In this section, we show how to compile any fixed-round consensus protocol SBA for binary inputs with synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity and synchronous t_s -consistency, into a fixed-round multi-valued consensus protocol SBA^{*} with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity, synchronous t_s -consistency and t_a -fallback validity.

3.1 Synchronous Weak Consensus (SWC)

We begin with SWC: an adaptation of a protocol from [10], modified to support multi-valued inputs and have increased intrusion tolerance. The security of the protocol is captured by the lemma below it. All missing proofs can be found in the full version of this paper.

Protocol SWC

Input: Party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ which it knows at the beginning, or it may have no input if the network is asynchronous.

Output: Party P_i either aborts or outputs $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$.

Initialization: If P_i has input, then P_i sets $y_i = \bot$. Else, P_i aborts.

Round 1: P_i computes $\sigma_i = \text{Sgn}_{sk_i}(m_i)$ and multicasts (m_i, σ_i) . At the end of the round,

- If P_i hasn't received validly signed messages from $n - t_s$ parties, P_i aborts.

- Else, if the messages P_i received are so that P_i can form a $(t_s + \delta n)$ -certificate on a unique $m \in \mathcal{M}$, then P_i sets $y_i = m$.

Round 2: If P_i possesses a $(t_s + \delta n)$ -certificate on a unique $m \in \mathcal{M}$, then P_i multicasts a $(t_s + \delta n)$ -certificate on m. At the end of the round, if P_i has seen a $(t_s + \delta n)$ -certificate on some $m \neq y_i$, then P_i sets $y_i = \bot$.

Lemma 1 (Security of SWC). If $t_a \leq t_s$ and $2t_s + t_a \leq (1 - \delta)n$, then SWC is a weak consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity, synchronous t_s -weak consistency and t_a fallback validity.

Complexity of SWC: The message complexity is $MC_{SWC} = O(n^2)$, and the communication complexity is $CC_{SWC} = O(n^3 \kappa + \ell n^2)$.

3.2 Synchronous Proposal (SProp)

We continue with SProp, which we obtain by modifying SWC to fit the mold of a proposal protocol. Proposal protocols require there to exist some set $S = \{x, \bot\} \subseteq \mathcal{M}^{\bot}$ such that honest parties can only have inputs in S. We assume such a set $S = \{x, \bot\}$ exists, and use it in our description of SProp below.

Protocol SProp

Input: Party P_i has an input $v_i \in S$ which it knows at the beginning, or it may have no input if the network is asynchronous

Output: Party P_i either aborts or outputs $y_i \in \{x, \{x, \bot\}, \bot\}$.

Initialization: If P_i has input, then P_i sets $y_i = \bot$. Else, P_i aborts.

Round 1: If $v_i = \bot$, then P_i multicasts \bot . Else, P_i computes $\sigma_i = \text{Sgn}_{sk_i}(v_i)$ and multicasts (v_i, σ_i) . At the end of the round,

- If P_i hasn't received valid messages from $n t_s$ parties, then P_i aborts.
- Else, if the messages P_i received are so that P_i can form a $(t_s + \delta n)$ -certificate on a unique $m \in \mathcal{M}$, then P_i sets $y_i = m$.

Round 2: If P_i possesses a $(t_s + \delta n)$ -certificate on a unique $m \in \mathcal{M}$, then P_i multicasts it. At the end of the round, if P_i had $v_i = \bot$ but received a $(t_s + \delta n)$ -certificate on some $m \in \mathcal{M}$, then P_i sets $y_i = \{m, \bot\}$.

Lemma 2 (Security of SProp). If $t_a \leq t_s$ and $2t_s + t_a \leq (1 - \delta)n$, then SProp is a proposal protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity, synchronous t_s -weak consistency and t_a -fallback validity.

Complexity of SProp: The message and communication complexities of SProp are also respectively $MC_{SProp} = O(n^2)$ and $CC_{SProp} = O(n^3\kappa + \ell n^2)$.

3.3 Synchronous 1-Graded Consensus (SGC¹)

Now that we have SWC and SProp, we compose them into SGC^1 . When instantiated with the protocols SWC and SProp above, SGC^1 runs in 4 rounds.

Protocol SGC¹

Input: Party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ which it knows at the beginning, or it may have no input if the network is asynchronous.

Output: Party P_i either aborts or outputs (y_i, g_i) , where $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$ is the output value and $g_i \in \{0, 1\}$ is the output grade.

Phase 1: P_i participates in a common SWC instance with the input m_i . If P_i aborts SWC, P_i aborts the protocol. Else, let v_i be P_i 's output.

Phase 2: P_i participates in a common SProp instance with the input v_i if $v_i = m_i$, and the input \perp otherwise. If P_i aborts SProp, P_i aborts the protocol. Else, let z_i be P_i 's output.

- If $z_i = m$, then P_i outputs (m, 1).

- If $z_i = \{m, \bot\}$, then P_i outputs (m, 0).
- If $z_i = \bot$, then P_i outputs $(\bot, 0)$.

Lemma 3 (Security of SGC¹). Let SWC and SProp respectively be a weak consensus protocol and a proposal protocol, both with fixed numbers of rounds, such that they both have synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity, synchronous t_s -weak consistency and t_a -fallback validity. Furthermore, suppose SProp has $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance. Then, SGC¹ is a 1-graded consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s graded validity, synchronous t_s -graded consistency and t_a -fallback graded validity.

Complexity of SGC¹: We have $MC_{SGC^1} = MC_{SWC} + MC_{SProp} = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$ and $CC_{SGC^1} = CC_{SWC} + CC_{SProp} = \mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa + \ell n^2)$.

3.4 Synchronous 2-Graded Consensus (SGC²)

Using SGC^1 as a basis and SWC as a weak consensus protocol for binary inputs, we construct SGC^2 . When instantiated with sub-protocols from previous sections, the protocol runs in 6 rounds when the network is synchronous.

Protocol SGC^2

Input: Party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ which it knows at the beginning, or it may have no input if the network is asynchronous.

Output: Party P_i either aborts or outputs (y_i, g_i) , where $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$ is the output value and $g_i \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ is the output grade.

Phase 1: P_i participates in a common SGC¹ instance with the input m_i . If P_i aborts SGC¹, P_i aborts the protocol. Else, let (z_i, h_i) be P_i 's output. P_i sets $y_i = z_i$.

Phase 2: P_i participates in a common SWC instance with the input h_i . If P_i aborts SWC, then P_i aborts the protocol. Else, let v_i be P_i 's output.

- If $v_i = 0$, then P_i sets $g_i = 0$. - If $v_i = \bot$, then P_i sets $g_i = 1$.

- If $v_i = 1$, then P_i sets $g_i = 2$.

Lemma 4 (Security of SGC²). Let SGC¹ and SWC respectively be a 1-graded consensus protocol and a weak binary consensus protocol, both with fixed numbers of rounds, such that SGC¹ has $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s robustness, synchronous t_s -graded validity, synchronous t_s -graded consistency and t_a -fallback graded validity, and SWC has synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity, synchronous t_s -weak consistency and t_a -fallback validity. Then, SGC² is a 2-graded consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -graded validity, synchronous t_s -graded consistency and t_a -fallback graded validity.

Complexity of SGC²: We have $MC_{SGC^2} = MC_{SGC^1} + MC_{SWC} = O(n^2)$ and $CC_{SGC^2} = CC_{SGC^1} + CC_{SWC} = O(n^3\kappa + \ell n^2)$.

3.5 Synchronous Consensus (SBA*)

Finally, we take *any* fixed-round binary consensus protocol SBA and combine it with SGC^2 to obtain SBA^{*}: the synchronous component of HBA. Again, SBA^{*} is a two-phase protocol. The first phase lasts sufficiently long for SGC^2 (6 rounds with our constructions). The number of rounds for the second phase depends on the specific SBA protocol chosen.

${\rm Protocol}~{\sf SBA}^*$

Input: Party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ which it knows at the beginning, or it may have no input if the network is asynchronous.

Output: Party P_i either aborts or outputs $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$.

Phase 1: P_i participates in a common SGC² instance with the input m_i . If P_i aborts SGC², P_i aborts the protocol. Else, let (z_i, g_i) be P_i 's output.

Phase 2: P_i participates in a common SBA instance with the input 1 if $g_i \in \{1, 2\}$ and 0 otherwise. If P_i fails to obtain output from SBA for any reason, then P_i outputs z_i and terminates. Else, let h_i be P_i 's output.

- If $g_i = 2$ or $h_i = 1$, then P_i outputs z_i .

– Otherwise, P_i outputs \perp .

Theorem 2 (Security of SBA^{*}). Let SGC^2 and SBA respectively be 2-graded consensus protocol and a binary consensus protocol, both with fixed numbers of rounds, such that SGC^2 has $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s robustness, synchronous t_s -graded validity, synchronous t_s -graded consistency and t_a -fallback graded validity, and SBA has synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity and synchronous t_s -consistency. Then, SBA^{*} is a consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity, synchronous t_s -consistency and t_a -fallback validity.

Complexity of SBA^{*}: We have $MC_{SBA^*} = MC_{SGC^2} + MC_{SBA} = \mathcal{O}(MC_{SBA} + n^2)$ and $CC_{SBA^*} = CC_{SGC^2} + CC_{SBA^*} = \mathcal{O}(CC_{SBA} + n^3\kappa + \ell n^2)$. Note that if SBA is designed to be run synchronously, then it might suffer from increased complexity when run asynchronously. This is not an issue for any protocol that we cite.

The $\mathcal{O}(n^3\kappa)$ term in the complexity is the consequence of certificate multicasting in SWC and SProp. One straightforward option to reduce this term by a factor of *n* is to assume a $(t_s + \delta n - 1)$ -threshold signature setup. Then, individual parties' signatures are replaced by signature shares, and $(t_s + \delta n)$ -certificates by signatures of size $\mathcal{O}(\kappa)$. Another option, only assuming a bulletin-PKI setup, is to use expander graph based techniques [27]. One imposes an *n*-vertex expander graph on the parties, with each party corresponding to a vertex. In SWC and SProp parties just send the $\mathcal{O}(n)$ sized certificates to their (constant sized) set of neighbors in the graph. This modification breaks weak consistency, which can be regained with the introduction of an additional round. However, with expander graphs, security requires the slightly stronger assumption $2t_s \leq (1-\varepsilon)n$ for a constant $\varepsilon > 0$. In the full version, we present 3-round expander-based variants of SWC and SProp with which the communication complexity of SBA^{*} can be reduced to $\mathcal{O}(\mathsf{CC}_{\mathsf{SBA}} + n^2\kappa + \ell n^2)$ when $2t_s \leq (1-\varepsilon)n$ for a constant $\varepsilon > 0$.

4 Asynchronous Consensus with High Validity

We now leave round-based protocols behind, and switch to message-driven protocols. In this section we take a (possibly non-terminating) consensus protocol ABA with t_a -validity, t_a -consistency and t_a -liveness, and combine it with our AGC² protocol to obtain a protocol ABA^{*} with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, t_s -validity⁷, synchronous t_s -validity with termination, t_a -consistency and t_a -termination.

4.1 Asynchronous Proposal (AProp)

We begin with AProp. The "Conflict Echoing" rule is asymmetrically biased to make the output \perp more likely than x or $\{x, \perp\}$. This lets us obtain $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance rather than $(t_s, \lceil \frac{\delta n}{2} \rceil)$ -intrusion tolerance.

As AProp is a proposal protocol, we assume there exists some set $S = \{x, \bot\} \in \mathcal{M}^{\bot}$ such that honest parties have inputs in S.

Protocol AProp

Input: Party P_i has an input $v_i \in S$ which it can eventually learn.

Output: Party P_i outputs $y_i \in \{x, \{x, \bot\}, \bot\}$. P_i only outputs once, so P_i only takes into account its first outputting directive.

Initialization: P_i lets $V_i = \emptyset$.

Input Acquisition: When P_i knows v_i , P_i multicasts (input, v_i).

Conflict Echoing: Upon receiving the message (**input**, v) for some $v \neq v_i$ for the first time from some party,

- If $v = \bot$ and P_i has received the message (**input**, v) from exactly $t_s + 1$ parties, P_i multicasts (**input**, \bot).
- If $v \in \mathcal{M}$ and P_i has received the message (**input**, v) from exactly $t_s + \delta n$ parties, P_i multicasts (**input**, v).

Value Rule: Upon receiving the message (input, v) for some v from exactly $n - t_s$ parties, P_i adds v to V_i . Then,

- If this rule has been activated for the first time, P_i multicasts (**propose**, v).

- If this rule has been activated for the second time, P_i outputs V_i .

Certify Rule: Upon receiving the message (**propose**, v) for some v from exactly $n - t_s$ parties, P_i outputs v.

⁷ Actually, t_a -validity from ABA^{*} suffices for HBA.

Lemma 5 (Security of AProp). If $t_a \leq t_s$ and $2t_s + t_a \leq (1-\delta)n$, then AProp is a proposal protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, 2-round t_s -validity with liveness, t_a -weak consistency and t_a -liveness.

Complexity of AProp: AProp is designed so that honest parties only send input messages on inputs held by honest parties. As the honest parties have inputs in $S = \{x, \bot\}$, they multicast at most two input messages. Furthermore, by the design of AProp, honest parties may only multicast a single **propose** message. So, honest parties multicast at most three messages (two input messages and one **propose** message), and all of these messages are of size $O(\ell)$. Therefore, the message complexity is $MC_{AProp} = O(n^2)$ and the communication complexity is $CC_{AProp} = O(\ell n^2)$.

4.2 Asynchronous Weak Consensus (AWC)

Now, we present our weak consensus protocol AWC. To improve efficiency, we parallelize ℓ instances of AProp in a refined way. We batch together **input** messages from the "Input Acquisition" rule and **propose** messages from the "Value Rule." The "Conflict Echoing" rule is not amenable to such batching; therefore, any message sent as a result of the rule affects all instances. Although this introduces dependency among instances, we still get security for AWC *without* intrusion tolerance, which we do not need in any case.

Protocol AWC

Input: Party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ which it can eventually learn.

Output: Party P_i outputs $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$. P_i only outputs once, so P_i only takes into account its first outputting directive.

Initialization: P_i lets $V_i^1, V_i^2, \ldots, V_i^{\ell} = \emptyset, \emptyset, \ldots, \emptyset$.

Input Acquisition: When P_i knows m_i , P_i multicasts (**input**, m_i).

Conflict Echoing: Upon receiving from exactly $t_s + 1$ parties inputs with the k^{th} bit $1 - b_i^k$ or the message **conflict**, P_i multicasts **conflict**.

Value Rule: For each k, upon receiving from exactly $n-t_s$ parties inputs with the k^{th} bit b or the message **conflict**, P_i adds b to V_i^k . Then,

- If each of the sets $V_i^1, V_i^2, \ldots, V_i^{\ell}$ contain exactly one bit, then P_i crafts the ℓ -bit message m which as its k^{th} bit has the unique bit in V_i^k , and P_i multicasts (**propose**, m).
- If $V_i^k = \{0, 1\}$, then P_i outputs \perp .

Certify Rule: Upon receiving the message (**propose**, m) for some $m \in \mathcal{M}$ from exactly $n - t_s$ parties, P_i outputs m.

Theorem 3 (Security of AWC). If $t_a \leq t_s$ and $2t_s + t_a < n$, then AWC is a weak consensus protocol with 2-round t_s -validity with liveness, t_a -weak consistency and t_a -liveness.

Complexity of AWC: Honest parties multicast at most three messages (one input message, one conflict message and one propose message), and all of these messages are of size $\mathcal{O}(\ell)$. Therefore, the message complexity is $\mathsf{MC}_{\mathsf{AWC}} = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$ and the communication complexity is $\mathsf{CC}_{\mathsf{AWC}} = \mathcal{O}(\ell n^2)$.

4.3 Asynchronous Graded Consensus

Recall that in the previous section, we obtained SGC^1 by composing SWC and SProp, and then obtained SGC^2 by composing SGC^1 and SWC. These compositions translate very well to the asynchronous setting: we can easily compose AWC and AProp to obtain the 1-graded consensus protocol AGC^1 , and then compose AGC^1 and AWC to obtain the 2-graded consensus protocol AGC^1 .

Since AGC^1 and AGC^2 are almost identical (although message-driven) copies of SGC^1 and SGC^2 , here we only state the security guarantees they achieve. The full protocols AGC^1 and AGC^2 can be found in the full version.

Lemma 6 (Security of AGC¹). Let AProp and AWC respectively be a proposal protocol and a weak consensus protocol such that AProp has $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, r_p -round t_s -validity with liveness, t_a -weak consistency and t_a -liveness, and AWC has r_w -round t_s -validity with liveness, t_a -weak consistency and t_a -liveness. Then, AGC¹ is a 1-graded consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, $(r_w + r_p)$ -round t_s -graded validity with liveness, t_a -graded consistency and t_a -liveness.

Lemma 7 (Security of AGC^2). Let AGC^1 and AWC respectively be a 1-graded consensus protocol and a weak binary consensus protocol such that AGC^1 has $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, r_g -round t_s -graded validity with liveness, t_a -graded consistency and t_a -liveness, and AWC has r_w -round t_s -graded validity with liveness, t_a -weak consistency and t_a -liveness. Then, AGC^2 is a 2-graded consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, $(r_g + r_w)$ -round t_s -graded validity with liveness, t_a -graded consistency and t_a -liveness.

Complexity of AGC¹ and AGC²: Both composed protocols involve no messages other than those of their sub-protocols. Thus, we have $MC_{AGC^1} = MC_{AWC} + MC_{AProp} = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$, $CC_{AGC^1} = CC_{AWC} + CC_{AProp} = \mathcal{O}(\ell n^2)$, $MC_{AGC^2} = MC_{AGC^1} + MC_{AWC} = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$, and $CC_{AGC^2} = CC_{AGC^1} + CC_{AWC} = \mathcal{O}(\ell n^2)$.

4.4 Asynchronous Consensus (ABA*)

To conclude this section, we construct ABA^* by composing AGC^2 and a binary consensus protocol ABA with just t_a -validity, t_a -consistency and t_a -liveness. The protocol ABA actually does not even need to provide termination, as this is

guaranteed by a separate termination procedure in ABA^{*}. For maximum generality, we let r_g be the number of rounds in which AGC² achieves t_s -validity with liveness; the r_g -round t_s -graded validity with liveness of AGC² lets us prove synchronous ($r_g + 1$)-round t_s -validity with termination for ABA^{*}. Note that if AGC² is based on our AProp and AWC protocols, then $r_g = 6$.

Protocol ABA*

Start Round: The parties have an agreed upon "start round" r_s .

Input: Party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ which it can eventually learn.

Output: Party P_i outputs $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$.

Initialization: Party P_i starts participating in a common instance of AGC² and a common instance of ABA. Before time $(r_s + r_g + 1)\Delta$, P_i runs ABA passively, not processing the messages it receives.

Input Acquisition: When P_i knows m_i , P_i sets it as its input for AGC².

Graded Output: Upon outputting (z_i, g_i) from AGC²,

- If $g_i = 2$, then P_i multicasts (**commit**, z_i) if it hasn't done so previously.

- If $g_i \in \{2, 1\}$, P_i sets its ABA input to 1. Else, P_i sets its ABA input to 0.

Late Output: Upon outputting (z_i, g_i) from AGC^2 where $g_i \neq 2$ and outputting h_i from ABA, P_i sets x_i to z_i if $h_i = 1$, and to \perp otherwise. Then, P_i multicasts (**commit**, x_i) if it hasn't done so previously.

Commit Processing: Upon receiving (commit, x) for some $x \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$,

- If P_i has received (**commit**, x) from exactly $t_s + 1$ parties, then P_i multicasts (**commit**, x) if it hasn't done so previously.
- If P_i has received (commit, x) from exactly $n t_s$ parties, then P_i terminates with the output x if $(r_s + r_g)\Delta$ time has passed, and sets itself up to terminate with the output x at time $(r_s + r_g)\Delta$ otherwise.

Theorem 4 (Security of ABA*). Let $t_a \leq t_s$ and $2t_s + t_a \leq (1 - \delta)n$, and suppose honest parties must know their inputs by time $r_s\Delta$ when the network is synchronous. Let AGC^2 and ABA respectively be a 2-graded consensus protocol and a binary consensus protocol such that AGC^2 has $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolernace, r_g -round t_s -graded validity with liveness, t_a -graded consistency and t_a -liveness, and ABA has t_a -validity, t_a -consistency and t_a -liveness. Then, ABA* is a consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, t_s -validity, t_a -consistency, t_a termination and synchronous $(r_a + 1)$ -round t_s -validity with termination.

Complexity of ABA^{*}: One can prove that honest parties commit at most once. With that in mind, the complexity depends on the network type.

- If the network is asynchronous, then we sum up the complexities of AGC^2 and ABA together with the complexities arising from the **commit** messages. Hence, we get $MC_{ABA^*}^{Async} = MC_{ABA} + MC_{AGC^2} + O(n^2) = O(MC_{ABA} + n^2)$ and $CC_{ABA^*}^{Async} = CC_{ABA} + CC_{AGC^2} + O(\ell n^2) = O(CC_{ABA} + \ell n^2)$.
- If the network is synchronous, then the synchronous $(r_g + 1)$ -round t_s -validity of ABA^{*} ensures that all honest terminate by time $(r_s + r_g + 1)\Delta$ without ever sending ABA messages. Thus, we get the reduced $MC_{ABA^*}^{Sync} = MC_{AGC^2} + O(n^2) = O(n^2)$ and $CC_{ABA^*}^{Sync} = CC_{AGC^2} + O(\ell n^2) = O(\ell n^2)$.

5 The Network-Agnostic Protocol (HBA)

Finally, in this section we compose SBA^{*} and ABA^{*} to construct our networkagnostic consensus protocol HBA. Intrusion tolerance here is a challenge: SBA^{*} allows honest parties to output \bot , but ABA^{*} doesn't allow them to input \bot . Thus, we extend inputs for ABA^{*}, making them $(\ell + 1)$ bits long rather than ℓ bits long; the first bit is reserved to indicate whether the SBA^{*} output is \bot or not. Notationally, we write $b \parallel m$ to represent $m \in \mathcal{M}$ with the bit b prepended.

We present HBA as a two-phase protocol. The first phase begins at time 0 and lasts sufficiently long for SBA^{*}; the second phase begins after the first and lasts indefinitely.

Protocol HBA

Input: Party P_i has an input $m_i \in \mathcal{M}$ which it must know at the beginning of the protocol if the network is synchronous.

Output: Party P_i outputs $y_i \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$.

Initialization: P_i starts participating in a common instance of ABA^{*}, set to achieve consensus on $(\ell + 1)$ -bit inputs. Also, P_i sets $v_i = \bot$.

Phase 1: If P_i knows its input m_i , then P_i participates in a common instance of SBA^{*} with the input m_i . If P_i doesn't abort it, let z_i be the output P_i obtains from it. If $z_i = \bot$, then P_i sets $v_i = (0, 0, ..., 0) \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell+1}$. Otherwise, P_i sets $v_i = 1 \parallel z_i$.

Phase 2: If $v_i \neq \bot$, then P_i sets v_i as its input for ABA^{*}. Else, P_i sets $1 \parallel m_i$ as its ABA^{*} input once P_i knows m_i . Upon terminating ABA^{*} with the output $x_i = (x_i^1, x_i^2, \ldots, x_i^{\ell+1})$,

- If $x_i^1 = 0$, then P_i outputs \perp and terminates.

- If $x_i^1 = 1$, then P_i outputs $(x_i^2, \ldots, x_i^{\ell+1}) \in \mathcal{M}$ and terminates.

Note that to use the particular ABA^* protocol presented in Sect. 4.4, we would need to set its "start round r_s " to be the round count of SBA^* .

Theorem 5 (Security of HBA). Let SBA^* be an r_s -round consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s -robustness, synchronous t_s -validity, synchronous t_s -consistency and t_a -fallback validity, and let ABA^* be a consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, t_a -validity, synchronous r_a -round t_s -validity with termination, t_a -consistency and t_a -termination. Then, HBA is a consensus protocol with $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance, synchronous t_s validity, synchronous t_s -consistency, synchronous (r_s+r_a) -round t_s -termination, t_a -validity, t_a -consistency and t_a -termination.

Proof. We use the synchronous t_s -robustness of SBA^{*} implicitly.

- $(\mathbf{t_s}, \delta \mathbf{n})$ -intrusion tolerance: Suppose less than δn honest parties have some $m \in \mathcal{M}$ as input. By the $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance of SBA*, honest parties do not output m from SBA*. This ensures that only honest parties who abort SBA* and have the input m may provide the input $1 \parallel m$ to ABA*. As there can only be less than δn such honest parties, by the $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance of ABA*, honest parties do not output $1 \parallel m$ from ABA*. This implies that honest parties do not output m.
- synchronous properties: Suppose the network is synchronous, and suppose the adversary can corrupt at most t_s parties. Since the network is synchronous, all honest participate in SBA^{*} with input. They all terminate it by time r_s , with some common output $z \in \mathcal{M}^{\perp}$ by the synchronous t_s -consistency of SBA^{*}. Afterwards, all honest participate in ABA^{*} with the common input z', where $z' = (0, 0, \ldots, 0) \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell+1}$ if $z = \bot$, and $z' = 1 \parallel z$ otherwise. By time $(r_s + r_a)\Delta$, the synchronous r_a -round t_s -validity with termination of ABA^{*} guarantees that they terminate ABA^{*} with the common output z' and hence terminate HBA with a common output. This gives us synchronous t_s -consistency and synchronous $(r_s + r_a)$ -round t_s -termination. Additionally, suppose all honest parties have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$. Then, the synchronous t_s -validity of SBA^{*} implies that z = m and hence that $z' = 1 \parallel m$, which means that the honest parties all terminate with the output m. Thus, we also obtain synchronous t_s -validity.
- $\mathbf{t_a}$ -termination and $\mathbf{t_a}$ -consistency: All honest parties eventually provide ABA* input, and run it until they terminate it with consistent outputs. Thus, HBA inherits the t_a -termination and the t_a -consistency of ABA*.
- $\mathbf{t_a}$ -validity: Suppose all honest parties have the same input $m \in \mathcal{M}$. By the t_a -fallback validity of SBA^{*}, any honest party that doesn't abort SBA^{*} outputs m from it. This ensures that all honest parties participate in ABA^{*} with the input 1 || m. Finally, by the t_a -validity and the t_a -termination of ABA^{*}, all honest parties terminate ABA^{*} with the output 1 || m and therefore terminate HBA with the output m.

Complexity of HBA: Note that the extension of ABA^{*} inputs to $\ell + 1$ bits doesn't affect asymptotic complexity.

- If the network is synchronous, then the message complexity is $MC_{HBA}^{Sync} = MC_{SBA^*} + MC_{ABA^*}^{Sync} = \mathcal{O}(MC_{SBA} + n^2)$, and if the network is asynchronous, then it is $MC_{HBA}^{Async} = MC_{SBA^*} + MC_{ABA^*}^{Async} = \mathcal{O}(MC_{SBA} + MC_{ABA} + n^2)$.

- As discussed in the technical overview, if threshold signatures are available or if $2t_s < (1 - \varepsilon)n$ for a constant $\varepsilon > 0$, then we get $CC_{HBA} = \mathcal{O}(CC_{SBA} + CC_{ABA} + n^2\kappa + \ell n^2)$. Else, we get $CC_{HBA} = \mathcal{O}(CC_{SBA} + CC_{ABA} + n^3\kappa + \ell n^2)$. Finally, if the network is synchronous, then the term CC_{ABA} is eliminated.
- We also concretely state the synchronous round complexity of HBA. Recall that we build SBA^{*} by composing SGC² (6 rounds) and a fixed-round synchronous consensus protocol SBA (k rounds), so that SBA^{*} requires k + 6 rounds. Protocol AGC² achieves 6-round t_s -validity with liveness, and hence ABA^{*} attains synchronous 7-round t_s -validity with termination. Combining the round complexities of SBA^{*} and ABA^{*}, we conclude that HBA terminates in at most k + 13 rounds when the network is synchronous.

Reducing $\mathcal{O}(\ell n^2)$ to $\mathcal{O}(\ell n)$. For ℓ -bit consensus, the optimal communication complexity is $\mathcal{O}(\ell n + ...)$ [17]. There is a rich literature *extending* consensus protocols to handle ℓ -bit inputs in clever ways to meet this bar [4,17,32,33].

To the best of our knowledge, [32] presents the state-of-the-art adaptively secure consensus extension protocol.⁸ The protocol requires the parties to agree on κ -bit values in an intrusion-tolerant manner. Intrusion tolerance is achieved via two instances of consensus (one to decide the a κ -bit value, the other to decide if this value was the input of some honest party), but we observe that this is superfluous if the underlying consensus protocol is already intrusion-tolerant. In the full version, we present an adaptation of the protocol which makes only one black-box invocation of HBA on κ -bit inputs, and has an overhead of two rounds when the network is synchronous, $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ messages, and $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa + \ell n)$ or $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa \log n + \ell n)$ bits of communication depending on the availability of trusted setup. We follow it with a novel setup-free expander-based extension protocol which makes full use of $(t_s, \delta n)$ -intrusion tolerance to reduce the overhead $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa \log n + \ell n)$ to $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa + \ell n)$ when $\delta = \Theta(1)$.

Note that the $\mathcal{O}(\ell n^2)$ term in the communication complexity of HBA (as opposed to the $\mathcal{O}(\ell n^3)$ in [3]) permits extensions for long inputs with the total complexity $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa + \ell n)$ whenever HBA achieves the complexity $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa + \ell n^2)$. Thus, with HBA, one can match the complexity of state-of-the-art synchronous protocols.

References

- Appan, A., Chandramouli, A., Choudhury, A.: Perfectly-secure synchronous mpc with asynchronous fallback guarantees. In: Proceedings of the 2022 ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing, pp. 92–102 (2022)
- Attiya, H., Censor, K.: Lower bounds for randomized consensus under a weak adversary. In: Bazzi, R.A., Patt-Shamir, B. (eds.) 27th ACM Symposium Annual on Principles of Distributed Computing, pp. 315–324. Association for Computing Machinery (Aug 2008). https://doi.org/10.1145/1400751.1400793

⁸ Adaptively secure sub-quadratic extension is possible in the atomic-send model [4].

- Bacho, R., Collins, D., Liu-Zhang, C.D., Loss, J.: Network-agnostic security comes (almost) for free in DKG and MPC. In: Handschuh, H., Lysyanskaya, A. (eds.) Advances in Cryptology – CRYPTO 2023, Part I. LNCS, vol. 14081, pp. 71–106. Springer, Heidelberg (Aug 2023). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-38557-5_3
- Bhangale, A., Liu-Zhang, C.D., Loss, J., Nayak, K.: Efficient adaptively-secure byzantine agreement for long messages. In: Agrawal, S., Lin, D. (eds.) Advances in Cryptology – ASIACRYPT 2022, Part I. LNCS, vol. 13791, pp. 504–525. Springer, Heidelberg (Dec 2022). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-22963-3_17
- Blum, E., Katz, J., Loss, J.: Synchronous consensus with optimal asynchronous fallback guarantees. In: Hofheinz, D., Rosen, A. (eds.) TCC 2019. LNCS, vol. 11891, pp. 131–150. Springer, Cham (2019). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36030-6_6
- Blum, E., Liu-Zhang, C.-D., Loss, J.: Always have a backup plan: fully secure synchronous MPC with asynchronous fallback. In: Micciancio, D., Ristenpart, T. (eds.) CRYPTO 2020. LNCS, vol. 12171, pp. 707–731. Springer, Cham (2020). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56880-1_25
- Bracha, G.: Asynchronous byzantine agreement protocols. Inf. Comput. 75(2), 130–143 (1987). https://doi.org/10.1016/0890-5401(87)90054-X
- Cachin, C., Kursawe, K., Shoup, V.: Random oracles in constantipole: Practical asynchronous byzantine agreement using cryptography (extended abstract). In: Proceedings of the Nineteenth Annual ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing, p. 123–132. PODC '00, Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA (2000). https://doi.org/10.1145/343477.343531
- Canetti, R., Rabin, T.: Fast asynchronous byzantine agreement with optimal resilience. In: 25th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing, pp. 42– 51. ACM Press (May 1993). https://doi.org/10.1145/167088.167105
- Deligios, G., Hirt, M., Liu-Zhang, C.-D.: Round-efficient byzantine agreement and multi-party computation with asynchronous fallback. In: Nissim, K., Waters, B. (eds.) TCC 2021. LNCS, vol. 13042, pp. 623–653. Springer, Cham (2021). https:// doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-90459-3_21
- Deligios, G., Liu-Zhang, C.D.: Synchronous perfectly secure message transmission with optimal asynchronous fallback guarantees. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Report 2022/1397 (2022). https://eprint.iacr.org/2022/1397
- Dolev, D., Strong, H.R.: Authenticated algorithms for byzantine agreement. SIAM J. Comput. 12(4), 656–666 (1983). https://doi.org/10.1137/0212045
- 13. Elsheimy, F., Tsimos, G., Papamanthou, C.: Deterministic byzantine agreement with adaptive $o(n \cdot f)$ communication. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Paper 2023/1723 (2023). https://eprint.iacr.org/2023/1723
- Feldman, P., Micali, S.: Optimal algorithms for byzantine agreement. In: 20th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing, pp. 148–161. ACM Press (May 1988). https://doi.org/10.1145/62212.62225
- Fischer, M.J., Lynch, N.A., Paterson, M.S.: Impossibility of distributed consensus with one faulty process. J. ACM (JACM) 32(2), 374–382 (1985)
- Fitzi, M., Garay, J.A.: Efficient player-optimal protocols for strong and differential consensus. In: Borowsky, E., Rajsbaum, S. (eds.) 22nd ACM Symposium Annual on Principles of Distributed Computing, pp. 211–220. Association for Computing Machinery (Jul 2003). https://doi.org/10.1145/872035.872066
- Fitzi, M., Hirt, M.: Optimally efficient multi-valued Byzantine agreement. In: Ruppert, E., Malkhi, D. (eds.) 25th ACM Symposium Annual on Principles of Distributed Computing, pp. 163–168. Association for Computing Machinery (Jul 2006). https://doi.org/10.1145/1146381.1146407

- Gao, Y., Lu, Y., Lu, Z., Tang, Q., Xu, J., Zhang, Z.: Efficient asynchronous byzantine agreement without private setups. In: 2022 IEEE 42nd International Conference on Distributed Computing Systems (ICDCS), pp. 246–257 (2022). https:// doi.org/10.1109/ICDCS54860.2022.00032
- Ghinea, D., Goyal, V., Liu-Zhang, C.D.: Round-optimal byzantine agreement. In: Dunkelman, O., Dziembowski, S. (eds.) Advances in Cryptology – EURO-CRYPT 2022, Part I. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 13275, pp. 96–119. Springer, Heidelberg (May / Jun 2022). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-06944-4_4
- Ghinea, D., Liu-Zhang, C.D., Wattenhofer, R.: Optimal synchronous approximate agreement with asynchronous fallback. In: Proceedings of the 2022 ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing, pp. 70–80 (2022)
- 21. Ghinea, D., Liu-Zhang, C.D., Wattenhofer, R.: Multidimensional approximate agreement with asynchronous fallback. Cryptology ePrint Archive (2023)
- Heilman, E., Kendler, A., Zohar, A., Goldberg, S.: Eclipse attacks on bitcoin's peer-to-peer network. In: Jung, J., Holz, T. (eds.) USENIX Security 2015: 24th USENIX Security Symposium, pp. 129–144. USENIX Association (Aug 2015)
- 23. Karlin, A., Yao, A.: Probabilistic lower bounds for byzantine agreement. Unpublished document (1986)
- Katz, J., Koo, C.Y.: On expected constant-round protocols for byzantine agreement. In: Dwork, C. (ed.) Advances in Cryptology – CRYPTO 2006. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 4117, pp. 445–462. Springer, Heidelberg (Aug 2006). https://doi.org/10.1007/11818175_27
- King, S., Nadal, S.: Ppcoin: Peer-to-peer crypto-currency with proof-of-stake. selfpublished paper, August 19(1) (2012)
- Lamport, L., Shostak, R., Pease, M.: Concurrency: The Works of Leslie Lamport. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA (2019), edited by Dahlia Malkhi
- Momose, A., Ren, L.: Optimal communication complexity of authenticated byzantine agreement. In: Gilbert, S. (ed.) 35th International Symposium on Distributed Computing (DISC 2021). Leibniz International Proceedings in Informatics (LIPIcs), vol. 209, pp. 32:1–32:16. Schloss Dagstuhl – Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, Dagstuhl, Germany (2021). https://doi.org/10.4230/LIPIcs.DISC.2021.32
- 28. Mostéfaoui, A., Moumen, H., Raynal, M.: Signature-free asynchronous binary byzantine consensus with t < n/3, $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ messages, and $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected time. J. ACM **62**(4) (2015). https://doi.org/10.1145/2785953
- Mostéfaoui, A., Raynal, M.: Signature-free broadcast-based intrusion tolerance: Never decide a byzantine value. In: Lu, C., Masuzawa, T., Mosbah, M. (eds.) Principles of Distributed Systems, pp. 143–158. Springer, Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg (2010)
- Mostéfaoui, A., Raynal, M.: Signature-free asynchronous byzantine systems: From multivalued to binary consensus with t<n/3, O(n²) messages, and constant time. Acta Inf. 54(5), 501–520 (2017). https://doi.org/10.1007/s00236-016-0269-y
- 31. Nakamoto, S.: Bitcoin: A peer-to-peer electronic cash system. Decentralized business review (2008)
- 32. Nayak, K., Ren, L., Shi, E., Vaidya, N.H., Xiang, Z.: Improved extension protocols for byzantine broadcast and agreement. In: Attiya, H. (ed.) 34th International Symposium on Distributed Computing (DISC 2020). Leibniz International Proceedings in Informatics (LIPIcs), vol. 179, pp. 28:1–28:17. Schloss Dagstuhl– Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, Dagstuhl, Germany (2020). https://doi.org/10. 4230/LIPIcs.DISC.2020.28

- 33. Patra, A., Rangan, C.P.: Communication optimal multi-valued asynchronous byzantine agreement with optimal resilience. In: Fehr, S. (ed.) ICITS 11: 5th International Conference on Information Theoretic Security. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 6673, pp. 206–226. Springer, Heidelberg (May 2011). https://doi.org/ 10.1007/978-3-642-20728-0_19
- 34. Pfitzmann, B., Waidner, M.: Information-theoretic pseudosignatures and byzantine agreement for $t \ge n/3$. IBM Research, Armonk, NY, USA (1996)