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Human-based Consensus for Trust Installation in Ontologies

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Abstract. Blockchain technologies enable a decentralized peer-to-peer network to reach distributed consensus on transaction data that is written into a blockchain. This data is then considered to be a single source of truth, trusted by the entire network. Many approaches focus on writing financial transaction data into the blockchain, which can be easily verified and validated by machines to reach distributed consensus. However, there exist also other types of data which requires human thinking and collaboration for validating and finding consensus. This is the case for ontologies, which are important building blocks for Semantic Web content but are currently difficult to validate and maintain and would therefore benefit from the guarantees provided by blockchain.

In this paper, we propose a novel protocol to represent the human factor on a blockchain environment. Our approach allows single or groups of humans to propose data in blocks which are verified and validated by other humans. Only if human-based consensus on the correctness and trustworthiness of the data is reached, the new block is appended to the blockchain.

Our experimental results show that this human approach is an alternative to conventional approaches but significantly extends the possibilities of blockchain applications on data that cannot be verified and validated automatically but requires human knowledge and collaboration.

Keywords: Blockchain, Consensus, Semantic Web, Ontologies, Trust

1. Introduction

The blockchain technology allows a decentralized network to agree on one global state and accept it as a trusted single source of truth. For this, (financial) transaction data is written into blocks, which are con-nected to each other and, by this, build a chain. Each new block secures the order and integrity of the previ-ous blocks. The use of cryptography and hashing en-sures immutability of data and, in addition, offers a high degree of transparency and traceability. Those charac-teristics make the blockchain technology a big "trust machine" [1]. While crypto-currencies such as Bitcoin [2] or Ethereum [3] focus on storing transactions of financial assets in the blockchain, in general this is also possible for other data types that should be immutably

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and transparently stored in a distributed ledger in order to exploit the blockchain characteristics, i.e. to provide a single source of truth, agreed on and trusted by an entire decentralized peer-to-peer network. However, depending on the type of content, it can often not be verified and validated automatically but requires human thinking and collaboration. This human factor not only influences the way of applying blockchain technologies for such content that cannot easily be classified as wrong or right, but also the way of reaching distributed consensus on it. For that reason, it is necessary to extend conventional blockchain and consensus processes to that human factor.

Blockchain and Semantic WebOne example for this46is the use of blockchain technologies to exploit their47properties for the trust installation in Semantic Web48content, so-called ontologies. These represent linked49

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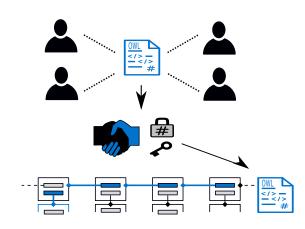


Figure 1. Concept of our human-based consensus approach: one or more human experts collaborate on an ontology file (OWL-file) and send it for verification and validation to a private blockchain network consisting of other human experts. If those agree with the proposed version of the ontology, it is appended to the blockchain where it is considered as a trusted single source of truth.

data that can be read and understood by both, humans 24 25 and machines. Since there are currently only a few stan-2.6 dards available, these ontologies are under constant de-27 velopment and there is no standardized way to install 28 trust into them yet. In order to install trust into an ontology, it is desirable to track all changes applied to such 29 an ontology on a blockchain and make use of the im-30 31 mutability and traceability properties of this technology. 32 To ensure that those changes are really correct, which is 33 a prerequisite for trust installation, the content has to be 34 verified and validated before it can be written into the blockchain. Then, the last block in the chain represents 35 the latest accepted and trusted version of the ontology. 36

However, these ontologies can only be verified and 37 38 validated by human experts and there is currently no 39 mechanism to integrate human verification and valida-40 tion into a blockchain architecture. As a result, it is not 41 possible to use human verification and validation of data and blockchain security together, which could lead 42 to a chaotic and inconsistent Semantic Web develop-43 44 ment where companies or individuals only trust their own ontologies and there exist many quasi-standards at 45 the same time. To prevent this, we developed a first ap-46 47 proach that aligns the processes on a blockchain to this 48 human factor in order to harmonize ontology creation across several domains and stakeholders. 49

1.1. Contributions

We propose the combination of blockchain technologies with human verification, validation, and confirmation of data. We investigate this topic as changes applied to an ontology, to reach distributed consensus. This way, only data that has been considered to be correct and trustworthy by a majority of human experts is written into the blockchain. In particular, we enable

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- the single and joint proposal-making of changes applied to an ontology,
- the stake adjustment towards the size and impact of proposed changes in an ontology,
- and the human verification, validation, and consensusfinding on changes in an ontology that eventually results in a final block representing the latest trusted single source of truth.

Our approach, illustrated in Figure 1, maps the human factor to a blockchain environment, enabling human collaboration and consensus-finding on proposals regarding changes applied to an ontology. This human verification, validation, and confirmation of data enables the use of blockchain technologies in areas apart from financial transaction data.

1.2. Blockchain, Consensus, and Semantic Web

Blockchain Formally, the blockchain C is a distributed database that stores data in blocks \mathcal{B}_i ordered over time. The length of C is n and i represents the index of block \mathcal{B}_i [4].

$$\mathbf{C} = \{\mathcal{B}_i | i \in 1, \dots, n\}$$
(1)

Before a new block can be added to the blockchain, we consider it as a block proposal \mathcal{P}_i . We define a set of validators V that verify the block proposals for correctness and reach consensus on this.

After verification, each new block that is appended 40 to the blockchain reconfirms the data of the preced-41 ing block(s) by including the cryptographic hash of 42 the previous block in its own block data. Therefore, a 43 hash function hash(m) is applied that maps arbitrary 44 input data *m* to a bit-string of fixed size *h*. This process is one-directional and considered as unique as every 46 change in the input results in a different output hash. 47 The only way to recreate the input data is by trial and 48 error. This secures the integrity and ordering of the 49

blocks in the chain as any change to the data of an
existing block would result in different hashes of the
consecutive blocks. In addition to hashing, asymmetric
encryption in form of public-private-keys and digital
signatures ensure a high level of security.

6 *Consensus* Instead of relying on a central authority 7 to coordinate processes, distributed consensus methods 8 are applied to ensure agreement within a decentralized 9 peer-to-peer network. This network can be either ac-10 cessible by everyone (public) or restricted to a certain 11 amount of participants (private). Distributed consen-12 sus protocols then ensure that everyone in the network 13 agrees that the information in the blockchain is true. For 14 this, it is necessary that the actors reach consensus on 15 what is to be written in which order into the blockchain. 16 This makes sure that all nodes hold the same global 17 state of the blockchain that is considered as a trusted 18 single source of truth. Depending on the field of appli-19 cation and the composition of the network, there are 20 different ways to achieve this distributed consensus. 21 In general, a protocol is said to solve the consensus 22 problem if three properties hold [5], [6]: 23

- Agreement: All correct nodes decide the same value.
- Integrity: All correct nodes decide only once.

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 Termination: All correct nodes decide before timeout.

29 Agreement and integrity are safety properties, whereas 30 termination is a liveness property, as defined by [7]. 31 In addition to safety and liveness, byzantine fault-32 tolerance as introduced in [8] also plays an important 33 role in many protocols, i.e. the possibility of achieving 34 distributed consensus despite faulty components in the 35 network. However, a study, known as the FLP Impos-36 sibility Result, states that no deterministic consensus 37 protocol can guarantee all three properties in a fully 38 asynchronous system [9]. 39

40 Semantic Web The consensus problem, however, 41 brings some challenges if it is to be applied to Semantic Web content, which is defined by ontologies in the Web 42 Ontology Language (OWL). Those ontologies repre-43 44 sent linked subject-predicate-object relationships, so-45 called Resource Description Framework (RDF) triples, which are not only readable and understandable for 46 47 humans but also for machines [10]. There are very little 48 standardized ontologies at the moment, which results in a dynamic further development of existing ones. To 49

determine whether ontologies and changes applied to them are correct or not, it requires human knowledge to verify, validate, and confirm that. Conventional consensus protocols do not consider this human impact as they are designed to automatically verify and validate rather simple (financial) transaction data, for example by solving a cryptographic puzzle as in Proof of Work (PoW), the consensus protocol used by Bitcoin [2]. In order to achieve distributed consensus on the correctness and trustworthiness of ontologies, to write them into a blockchain and by this exploit the confidencebuilding characteristics of such, an approach must be developed that maps this human factor to a blockchain environment.

2. Our Human-based Consensus Approach

For that reason, we propose the combination of blockchain technologies with human verification, validation, and confirmation of ontology data to reach distributed human-based consensus on such and thereby install trust into the content.

For this, we build a private blockchain network consisting of human experts that are familiar with the domain of the considered ontology and build the validator set V. Each participant or even a group of participants in the network can propose changes or improvements in the ontology by including them into a block proposal \mathcal{P}_i , which are then submitted to the other participants (V) for verification and validation. For this purpose, a distributed consensus method is extended by the human factor.

Consensus Algorithm We propose to base this humanbased consensus on Practical Byzantine Fault Tolerance (PBFT) [11], which ensures that proposals arrive and are processed in the correct order by all human peers in the network, as shown in Figure 2. This PBFT consen-

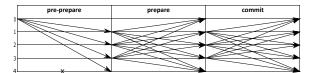


Figure 2. PBFT Consensus Algorithm. Figure inspired by [11].

sus is then extended by a voting mechanism that allows the human validators V in the network to give feedback on the proposals. After controlling the proposal \mathcal{P}_i , they 1

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collect votes on P

reate final block B

valid

nd final block B

human-based

consensus reached

token system **T**, based on stake S and reward \mathcal{R} .

$$\mathbf{T} = \{\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{R}\}\tag{2}$$

We distinguish between reward tokens for the proposer of proposal $\mathcal{P}_i, \mathcal{R}_P$, and reward tokens for the validators in V, \mathcal{R}_V .

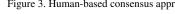
$$\mathcal{R}_V = 1 \cdot \mathcal{S} \tag{3}$$

$$\mathcal{R}_P = 3 \cdot \mathcal{S}$$

For each proposal, a certain number of tokens has to be deposited as a stake S. This number of tokens is adjusted to the size and impact of the proposal as larger changes in the data require on the one hand more effort in the creation, and on the other hand also more effort for their verification and validation. If the proposal is rejected, this stake gets lost. This prevents the network from being flooded with too many proposals. In contrast, if the proposal is accepted by a two-thirds majority, the proposer gets rewarded by a multiple of the deposited stake \mathcal{R}_P and also the validators get a reward in form of tokens \mathcal{R}_V .

In the case of joint proposals, i.e. proposals made by a group of peers, the stake and the reward is equally distributed among the involved peers. By this, a human peer that actively participates in the network by making high-quality proposals and validating such, results to have a higher token balance than another peer that makes low-quality proposals and spends no effort in verification and validation of proposed data. Therefore, the token balance of each peer can be also considered as a kind of reputation value. This token system T, based on stake S and reward \mathcal{R} , allows only peers with a certain amount of tokens, gained by honest and active participation in the network, to make new proposals \mathcal{P}_i . Malicious participants will be denied this opportunity due to the lack of tokens to be deposited as a stake. In addition, those peers can be removed from the network by a two-thirds majority decision. New peers can also be added in the same way. Our approach creates a network that manages itself dynamically and whose expertise guarantees the correctness of the data in the blockchain by means of human-based consensus.

Metrics To make the human-based decisions more transparent and traceable, we introduce to measure some processes and include the results directly in the block data. By this, the last block in the chain does not



20 can either agree or disagree with it by casting a positive 21 or negative vote. Should a two-thirds majority of human 22 experts in the network consider the proposed changes 23 in the ontology to be correct within a given time, dis-24 tributed human-based consensus is reached and the pro-25 posed version of the ontology is integrated into a new 2.6 final block \mathcal{B}_i , which is then appended to the blockchain 27 **C**. The last block \mathcal{P}_n in **C** then represents and contains 28 the latest accepted and trusted version of this ontology. 29 This procedure is shown in Figure 3. Thereby, the prop-30 erties of the blockchain technology are profitably used 31 for the creation of trust into an ontology. Any change 32 in an ontology that was validated and accepted by a ma-33 jority of human experts (V) is transparently, immutably, 34 and verifiable stored in a block \mathcal{B}_i in the blockchain 35 C. A user can trace the entire change history of the 36 ontology transparently. The human-based consensus 37 ensures that only content that has been confirmed by at 38 least a two-thirds majority of human experts is written 39 into the blockchain. Thereby, the content is not limited 40 to Semantic Web content, i.e. ontologies. Our human-41 based consensus could be applied for any kind of data 42 that needs to be verified, validated and confirmed by 43 humans before it can be written into a blockchain.

Token System To handle the process flow as shown 45 in Figure 3 and provide a compensation and incentive 46 47 for the human effort and time that is necessary to cre-48 ate, verify, and validate data or content that should be written into the blockchain, we propose a non-monetary 49

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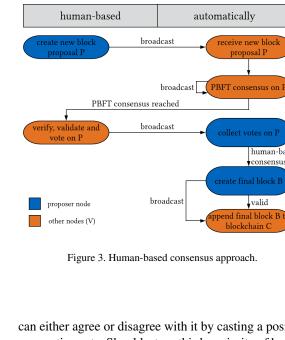
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only represent the latest accepted and trusted version 1 2 of human-confirmed data, but also metrics that give 3 information about how this was achieved. For this pur-4 pose, we propose to add information about the proposer and information about the proposal itself. Thereby, also 5 external consumers of data can understand who made 6 7 which proposal \mathcal{P}_i at which time and by how many other humans in V it was validated and considered to be 8 correct and trustworthy. We further measure how much 9 time Δt it took to reach a majority for each proposal \mathcal{P}_i 10 11 to result in a final new block \mathcal{B}_i and how many tokens T were involved in the processes as stake S and reward 12 13 \mathcal{R} . This is to further increase trust in the data, since it has not only been verified and validated by humans 14 but is also traceable as to how exactly the human-based 15 consensus came about. 16

2.1. Implementation

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20 For the implementation of our approach, conven-21 tional blockchain technologies and distributed consen-22 sus methods could not be applied as they do not offer any mechanism to integrate human verification and val-23 24 idation of data which is necessary to ensure the cor-25 rectness and, therefore, trustworthiness of the content that should be written in the blockchain. Hence, we im-2.6 27 plemented a prototype of our human-based consensus 28 approach by ourselves, using the Go programming language, which offers advantages in terms of speed, plat-29 30 form interoperability, multi-threading, safety and user-31 friendliness. The code of our implementation is pub-32 licly available at [12] for review and further research. 33 We also made use of go-libp2p, a modular network 34 stack that allows different transport protocols, multi-35 plexing and sockets, encrypted connections and com-36 munications, publish-subscribe, runtime freedom, and peer discovery and routing. Packages for cryptogra-37 38 phy and other blockchain-related features complete the 39 tool list. Furthermore, we based our implementation 40 on the Inter Planetary File System (IPFS), a distributed 41 file system that allows to store and share data within a decentralized peer-to-peer network. This allows us to 42 make use of the unique peerID provided by the IPFS 43 44 to unambiguously identify the peers in the network. In addition, we can store the ontology data off-chain 45 by putting only its unique hash hash(m) in the block 46 47 data of \mathcal{P}_i and \mathcal{B}_i to keep the message exchange data 48 low and save storage space for the blockchain. By this, we implemented a private blockchain network where 49

1	<pre>// Definition of type "</pre>	Blo	ock"			
2	type Block struct {	11	block B			
3	Index int	11	index i			
4	Timestamp string	11	time of final			
	↔ block B creation					
5	File string	11	IPFS hash			
6	Proposer string	11	IPFS peerID			
7	AuthorMetrics string	11	token balance,			
	\hookrightarrow number of P, etc	с.				
8	ProposalMetrics string	11	delta t, stake,			
	\hookrightarrow number of V					
9	NetworkMetrics string	11	number of peers in			
	\hookrightarrow the network					
10	PrevHash string	11	hash(B), i-1			
11	}					
12						
13	// Blockchain: a slice	of	type "Block"			
14	var Blockchain []Block	11	blockchain C			

Figure 4. Pseudo-code of the block structure used in our implementation.

22 peer connections are based on Transmission Control 23 Protocol (TCP) streams. Peers are uniquely identified 24 by their IPFS peerID. The network can be dynamically 25 reduced or extended by peers if a two-thirds majority 26 of existing peers in V agrees. Each peer or even a group 27 of them can propose new blocks \mathcal{P}_i as long as the token 28 balance allows to deposit the necessary stake S. The 29 message-exchange for the human-based consensus is 30 realized by go-libp2p's decentralized publish-subscribe 31 solution, called gossipsub. Messages can also be di-32 rectly addressed to single peers via their unique IPFS 33 peerIDs. The message flow as shown in Figure 3 is real-34 ized by two concurrent functions, so-called goroutines. 35 One function handles the human input while the other 36 function handles the underlying processes. Messages 37 are always encrypted and provided with information 38 about sender and subject to identify and process them 39 correctly. If human-based consensus is reached, the 40 blockchain C contains blocks \mathcal{B}_i where the last block 41 \mathcal{B}_n represents the latest trusted and agreed on version 42 of the ontology. Furthermore, we provide metrics about 43 the proposer and the consensus-finding process itself to 44 increase the transparency. Figure 4 shows the pseudo-45 code of our block structure. 46 47

The analytical and experimental results of our implementation are evaluated and discussed in Section 4. 1

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3. Related Work

3 Consensus-based Ontologies The need for consensus 4 as a necessary prerequisite for trust installation into 5 ontologies was already recognized by Nagy and Vargas-6 Vera in [13] and [14] before the blockchain technology 7 became popular. The authors come to the conclusion 8 that contradictory interpretations of Semantic Web con-9 tent (ontologies) are counterproductive for the installa-10 tion of trust and propose a fuzzy voting model in order 11 to achieve a coherent state that represents the demo-12 cratic majority opinion about the Semantic Web content 13 in question. They rely on the assumption that a majority 14 of a group of voters is more likely to make the right 15 decision than a random single voter is. In [15], Duong 16 et al. take up this approach but focus not only on finding 17 consensus on ontologies, but also on considering the 18 consensus quality. From an original version of an ontol-19 ogy, branches are created and edited by individual ex-20 perts. These are then to be merged into a new, improved 21 version of the ontology. Reaching consensus within the 22 group of editors is decisive for this. Therefore, distance 23 values between the different branches are measured and 24 used as an indicator for consensus quality before a new 25 version of the ontology is merged. This approach fo-2.6 cuses on the collaborative processing of ontologies but 27 does not consider any incentives for the experts being 28 involved in the process. Furthermore, there is no mecha-29 nism that prevents the network from being flooded with 30 too many branches. In addition, neither the approach 31 of Nagy and Vargas-Vera nor the one of Duong et al. is 32 intended to be applied on a blockchain environment. 33

34 Blockchain-Secured Ontologies Iancu and Sandu pro-35 pose to apply blockchain technologies to implement the trust layer of the Semantic Web [16]. Following their 36 idea, the blockchain's immutability and transparency 37 38 properties enable to certify and track every change in 39 an ontology or single ontology statements, i.e. RDF 40 triples. For domain-specific ontologies, they suggest 41 permissioned blockchains, otherwise unpermissioned ones were the better choice. However, there is no con-42 sensus part in their approach. Everybody with access to 43 44 the respective blockchain network can make changes in 45 an ontology and write them into the blockchain. Whoever wants to use the ontology then, be it a human or a 46 47 computer, must decide for oneself whether the author 48 of the changes is trustworthy and whether the changes he or she made are really correct. There is no decision-49

making aid for contradictory information. In that approach, the blockchain is more used as a distributed logbook rather than acting as a trust machine providing a single source of truth.

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To reduce this weakness, Fill and Haerer propose the concept of Knowledge Blockchains in [17] to track who added what change at what time. In order to guarantee the correctness of the changes, access rights are assigned to people who can only modify certain parts in an ontology for which they have a permission. In addition, automatic checks should be carried out to identify inconsistencies in applied modifications in order to ensure a high quality of the blockchain entries. To show the practical application of their concept, they created a prototypical implementation based on the ADOxx library that, however, does not cover all proposed functionalities. An extension and full evaluation of their concept and the corresponding implementation was envisaged for future work. Nevertheless, also in this work no distributed consensus is used to create a fair ordering and agreement on the applied modifications.

23 Blockchain-Consensus Combination Using blockchain and consensus in combination is roughly suggested 24 by Hoffman et al. in [18], however not for Semantic 25 Web content but for academic publications. The authors 26 propose that blockchain technologies could track the 27 interactions of scientific publishers and contributors for 28 academic publications with the help of a smart contract 29 that replaces a trusted third party. This would result 30 in a platform for decentralized collaboration between 31 humans that returns a single version of truth without 32 relying on the power of a centralized unit like a journal 33 or conference. That approach suggests many interesting 34 points on how blockchain technologies can be linked 35 to non-financial (transaction) data. This includes the 36 off-chain storage of data as well as (financial) incen-37 tives for active and honest participation and collabora-38 tion of humans in the network. In that approach, every-39 body with access to the network can write data into the 40 blockchain. In contrast to other approaches, however, 41 the signatures of the involved actors, i.e. the authors 42 and reviewers, are collected to express a kind of agree-43 ment, and therefore confirmation of data. By this, only 44 content signed by a sufficient amount of actors will be 45 considered to be correct and trustworthy. The practical 46 applicability of this approach was demonstrated in an 47 implementation based on Ethereum smart contracts. 48 Nevertheless, also in that approach, no distributed con-49

sensus is found within an entire network but rather 1 signed agreements are reached. In addition, the case of 2 scholastic publications cannot be fully transferred to 3 4 Semantic Web content (ontologies) as the engineering process of collaboratively developing an ontology is 5 different from authors creating a scientific paper and 6 7 passing the reviews before publication. The smart contract that replaces a trusted third party in [18] relies on 8 a role model, distinguishing between authors, reviewers 9 and annotators. Scientific papers are always created 10 11 initially by the authors. They are also responsible for the further development of their work, taking into ac-12 13 count the feedback from reviewers and annotators. This process cannot be compared with the joint development 14 of an ontology in which the author of the ontology is 15 not so important and accordingly an ontology can be 16 further developed on the basis of the preliminary work 17 of another author. The implementation of the approach 18 by Hoffman et al. based on Ethereum smart contracts 19 also has the disadvantage that this is associated with 20 fluctuating costs, which are based on the dynamic gas 21 price. This favors that new papers are proposed pri-22 marily when the costs are lowest and are processed 23 primarily when the incentive is highest, which leads to 24 an unbalanced environment. 25

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4. Evaluation and Discussion

30 Our approach combines the benefits of human 31 collaboration, enabled by joint proposals, and dis-32 tributed human-based consensus-finding with typical blockchain advantages such as traceability and im-33 34 mutability of data. In contrast to many other state-of-35 the-art cryptocurrencies, however, we do not aim for storing transactions of financial assets in the blockchain. 36 Instead, we focus on any type of data that needs to 37 38 be verified, validated and confirmed by humans. This 39 was tested on the example of Semantic Web content, 40 i.e. ontologies. However, we are not restricted to that, 41 which on the one side makes our human-based consensus approach flexible to be applied for many different 42 fields of application. On the other side, exactly this 43 44 human factor makes it difficult to evaluate our approach. 45 The human behavior is very difficult to simulate and can vary from domain to domain. For this reason, we 46 47 decided to focus on an analytical comparison of our 48 approach with others and added a short experimental validation to prove its practical functionality. 49

4.1. Analytical Comparison

Table 1 compares our human-based consensus approach with other related approaches that were presented in Section 3.

Table 1
Comparison of our approach with related work.

	Consensus	Blockchain	Joint proposals
[15]	1	X	1
[16]	X	1	×
[17]	X	1	×
[18]	(✔)	1	×
Our Work	1	1	1

Following the work presented in section 3, especially human-based consensus on the correctness and trustworthiness of data has been identified as a prerequisite for trust installation in ontologies. Our approach is the only one that combines this human-based consensus with blockchain benefits. Furthermore, we mapped human collaboration, represented by the possibility of joint block proposals with shared risk and reward, to a blockchain environment.

Implementation The implementation of our approach 25 uses conventional techniques and tools and is written in 2.6 the Go programming language, which is also supported 27 by Hyperledger Fabric, amongst others, to ensure inter-28 operability with other (blockchain) technologies. Our 29 implementation furthermore enables to dynamically 30 adjust our network of human experts by removing or 31 adding peers during runtime. Therefore, in comparison 32 to other technologies, no member list has to be created 33 in advance and maintained. Since a non-monetary token 34 system **T** is used for the human-based consensus, the 35 overall costs are rather low. These costs only consist 36 of operating costs and costs for the invested working 37 time of human experts participating in the consensus-38 finding process, but there are no fees or other payments 39 involved. In addition, we do not have to struggle with 40 exchange rate fluctuations of other crypto-currencies 41 that are bound to real money. Also here it is hard to 42 state concrete numbers of how much the cost is to op-43 erate the environment. In general, following [19], the 44 operating costs are a bit higher for private blockchains 45 than for public ones. However, since our approach con-46 siders human-based data, in comparison with (financial) 47 transaction data it will not achieve a too high number 48 of transactions. Furthermore, the network size will also 49

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be limited to a small number of experts, and therefore the costs will also remain manageable and will at best pay for themselves quickly when the real benefit of trust installation enabled by human-based consensus is achieved.

6 Liveness Guarantees Since our human-based consen-7 sus is based on a PBFT consensus method that ensures 8 that proposals are processed in the correct order, its 9 properties in terms of safety, liveness, fault-tolerance 10 and transaction finality can also be used for the exten-11 sion by the human factor. By this, our approach offers 12 a high level of safety as well as immediate transac-13 tion finality. When choosing between liveness and fault-14 tolerance, we decided on liveness because malicious 15 peers can be removed from the network or get punished 16 automatically by the token system. In case of conflicts, 17 i.e. that no majority can be reached for a new proposal, 18 there is a timeout included to ensure that a new round 19 will start even though the current round has not yet been 20 finished. In that case, the current round is stopped and 21 deposited stake is paid back to the proposer(s). How-22 ever, this means that we have to rely on synchronous 23 clocks in our network. By this, even in case of conflicts, 24 our human-based consensus guarantees liveness. 25

Communication Overhead However, limitations re-2.6 sult in terms of scalability of our approach. The PBFT 27 consensus requires already a high message exchange 28 which is intensified by the human factor, as proposals, 29 votes and decisions have to be exchanged and processed 30 in the entire decentralized peer-to-peer network. This 31 32 message exchange rises with increasing the network size. Especially joint proposals cause a communication 33 overhead as there are even more messages needed than 34 for a single block proposal. This message exchange 35 limits the scalability of our approach. 36

4.2. Experimental Validation

40 We tested the implementation of our approach on 41 the example of the Digital Reference, an ontology developed at Infineon Technologies AG representing the 42 semiconductor supply chain and supply chains con-43 44 taining semiconductors. Real measurements on the TCP ports of connected peers in our simulated private 45 blockchain network consisting of up to ten human par-46 47 ticipants showed that the number of received and sent 48 bytes of messages containing block proposals, votes and final blocks, increases linearly with the number of 49

connected and involved peers in the network. This is especially an issue for the peer proposing a new block since this one has to process most of the related message data in the implementation of our approach, which can be seen in Figure 5. At a certain network size, this could become a problem, limiting the scalability of our approach. 1

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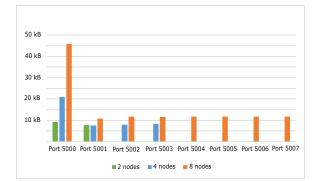


Figure 5. Measured TCP bytes for a single proposal at ports of peers in different network sizes.

The human factor in the consensus process has also an impact on the performance. The human verification, validation, and confirmation of data requires not only a high number of messages as discussed in the analytical section, but also far more time compared with the automatically checked (financial) transaction data considered in other approaches. Our experiments have shown that, depending on network size and composition as well as proposal and data type, the time between proposal-making and consensus-finding can vary between seconds and minutes or even hours and days. This can be limited by setting a timeout, assuming we are in a synchronous network. However, if the timeout is set to a shorter time frame, the experts may not have enough time to verify and validate the proposals correctly. In contrast, setting the timeout to a higher time frame means also delaying the entire consensus-finding process, especially in case of conflicts. In addition, data can only be verified and validated if there is any proposal. This means that no fixed transaction rate or latency can be calculated or specified.

To sum up, our approach strongly depends on the behavior of the human experts in the network. This behavior is hardly predictable, which is why no fixed information on performance, transaction rate etc. can be given. The human factor of this approach in combi-

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nation with the used PBFT consensus method can cause 1 larger amounts of messages to be exchanged and pro-2 cessed, depending on the number of peers, the structure 3 4 of the network and the number of (parallel) proposals in it. Especially the proposing peer, which in our imple-5 mentation processes the majority of related messages, 6 7 has to deal with the increasing message exchange that results from scaling the network size. The number of 8 messages to be exchanged may therefore tend to be 9 slightly higher than with other blockchain technologies. 10 11 However, we are currently, to the best of our knowledge, the only approach that combines the benefits of human 12 13 collaboration, human-based consensus and blockchain technologies at the same time. 14

5. Conclusion

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We proposed the use of blockchain technologies 19 in combination with human verification, validation, 20 and confirmation of data to reach distributed consen-21 sus on such and thereby install trust into ontologies. 22 Our human-based consensus method to ensure cor-23 rectness and trustworthiness of data in combination 24 with the exploitation of blockchain characteristics is 25 a powerful combination to create confidence in non-2.6 financial transaction data. Our token system T and the 27 on-chain provided metrics ensure that processes run 28 even though humans are involved, and make them more 29 transparent. The human-based consensus ensures that 30 the last block \mathcal{B}_n in the blockchain C contains the lat-31 est trusted version of an ontology, a single source of 32 truth. Our approach is, to the best of our knowledge, the 33 only one combining human collaboration, human-based 34 consensus-finding on ontologies and blockchain tech-35 nologies at the same time. The implementation of our 36 approach has shown that it can be practically applied. 37 However, the human factor restricts its performance and 38 scalability. Nevertheless, our approach represents an in-39 novative way to install trust in data by reaching human-40 based consensus on its correctness and exploiting the 41 benefits of blockchain technologies. 42

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