HyperService: Interoperability and Programmability Across Heterogeneous Blockchains

Zhuotao Liu, Yangxi Xiang, Jian Shi, Peng Gao, Haoyu Wang, Xusheng Xiao, and Yih-Chun Hu

ABSTRACT
Blockchain interoperability, which allows state transitions across different blockchain networks, is critical functionality to facilitate major blockchain adoption. Existing interoperability protocols mostly focus on atomic token exchanges between blockchains. However, as blockchains have been upgraded from passive distributed ledgers into programmable state machines (thanks to smart contracts), the scope of blockchain interoperability goes beyond just token exchanges. In this paper, we present HyperService, the first platform that delivers interoperability and programmability across heterogeneous blockchains. HyperService is powered by two innovative designs: (i) a developer-facing programming framework that allows developers to build cross-chain applications in a unified programming model; and (ii) a secure blockchain-facing cryptography protocol that provably realizes those applications on blockchains. We implement a prototype of HyperService in approximately 35,000 lines of code to demonstrate its practicality. Our experiments show that (i) HyperService imposes reasonable latency, in order of seconds, on the end-to-end execution of cross-chain applications; (ii) the HyperService platform is scalable to continuously incorporate new large-scale production blockchains.

CCS CONCEPTS
• Security and privacy → Distributed systems security; Security protocols.

KEYWORDS
Blockchain Interoperability; Smart Contract; Cross-chain dApps

1 INTRODUCTION
Over the last few years, we have witnessed rapid growth of several flagship blockchain applications, such as the payment system Bitcoin [53] and the smart contract platform Ethereum [27]. Since then, considerable effort has been made to improve the performance and security of individual blockchains, such as more efficient consensus algorithms [3, 8, 32, 43], improving transaction rate by sharding [20, 44, 51, 60] and payment channels [37, 40, 52], enhancing the privacy for smart contracts [29, 39, 45], and reducing their vulnerabilities via program analysis [24, 46, 50].

As a result, in today’s blockchain ecosystem, we see many distinct blockchains, falling roughly into the categories of public, private, and consortium blockchains [6]. In a world deluged with isolated blockchains, interoperability is power. Blockchain interoperability enables secure state transitions across different blockchains, which is invaluable for connecting the decentralized Web 3.0 [26]. Existing interoperability proposals [21, 36, 38, 61] mostly center around atomic token exchange between two blockchains, aiming to eliminate the requirement of centralized exchanges. However, since smart contracts executing on blockchains have transformed blockchains from append-only distributed ledgers into programmable state machines, we argue that token exchange is not the complete scope of blockchain interoperability. Instead, blockchain interoperability is complete only with programmability, allowing developers to write decentralized applications executable across disconnected state machines.

We recognize at least two categories of challenges for simultaneously delivering programmability and interoperability. First, the programming model of cross-chain decentralized applications (or dApps) is unclear. In general, from developers’ perspective, it is desirable that cross-chain dApps could preserve the same state-machine-based programming abstraction as single-chain contracts [59]. This, however, raises a virtualization challenge to abstract away the heterogeneity of smart contracts and accounts on different blockchains so that the interactions and operations among those contracts and accounts can be uniformly specified when writing cross-chain dApps.

Second, existing token-exchange oriented interoperability protocols, such as atomic cross-chain swaps (ACCS) [5], are not general enough to realize cross-chain dApps. This is because the “executeables” of those dApps could contain more complex operations than token transfers. For instance, our example dApp in § 2.3 invokes a smart contract using parameters obtained from smart contracts.
deployed on different blockchains. The complexity of this operation is far beyond mere token transfers. In addition, the executables of cross-chain dApps often contain transactions on different blockchains, and the correctness of dApps requires those transactions to be executed with certain preconditions and deadline constraints. Another technical challenge is to securely coordinate those transactions to enforce dApp correctness in a fully decentralized manner with zero trust assumptions.

To meet these challenges, we propose HyperService, the first platform for building and executing dApps across heterogeneous blockchains. At a very high level, HyperService is powered by two innovative designs: a developer-facing programming framework for writing cross-chain dApps, and a blockchain-facing cryptography protocol to securely realize those dApps on blockchains. Within this programming framework, we propose Unified State Model (USM), a blockchain-neutral and extensible model to describe cross-chain dApps, and the HSL, a high-level programming language to write cross-chain dApps under the USM programming model. dApps written in HSL are further compiled into HyperService executables which shall be executed by the underlying cryptography protocol.

UIP (short for universal inter-blockchain protocol) is the cryptography protocol that handles the complexity of cross-chain execution. UIP is (i) generic, operating on any blockchain with a public transaction ledger, (ii) secure, the executions of dApps either finish with verifiable correctness or abort due to security violations, where misbehaving parties are held accountable, and (iii) financially atomic, meaning all involved parties experience almost zero financial losses, regardless of the execution status of dApps. UIP is fully trust-free, assuming no trusted entities.

**Contributions.** To the best of our knowledge, HyperService is the first platform that simultaneously offers interoperability and programmability across heterogeneous blockchains. Specifically, we make the following major contributions in this paper:

(i) We propose the first programming framework for developing cross-chain dApps. The framework greatly facilitates dApp development by providing a virtualization layer on top of the underlying heterogeneous blockchains, yielding a unified model and a high-level language to describe and program dApps. Using our framework, a developer can easily write cross-chain dApps without implementing any cryptography.

(ii) We propose UIP, the first generic blockchain interoperability protocol whose design scope goes beyond cross-chain token exchanges. Rather, UIP is capable of securely realizing complex cross-chain operations that involve smart contracts deployed on heterogeneous blockchains. We express the security properties of UIP via an ideal functionality $F_{UIP}$ and rigorously prove that UIP realizes $F_{UIP}$ in the Universal Composability (UC) framework [28].

(iii) We implement a prototype of HyperService in approximately 35,000 lines of code, and evaluate the prototype with three categories of cross-chain dApps. Our experiments show that the end-to-end dApp execution latency imposed by HyperService is in the order of seconds, and the HyperService platform has sufficient capacity to continuously incorporate new production blockchains.

2 HYPERSERVICE OVERVIEW

2.1 Architecture

As depicted in Figure 1, architecturally, HyperService consists of four components. (i) dApp Clients are the gateways for dApps to interact with the HyperService platform. When designing HyperService, we intentionally make clients to be lightweight, allowing both mobile and web applications to interact with HyperService. (ii) Verifiable Execution Systems (VESes) conceptually work as blockchain drivers that compile the high-level dApp programs given by the dApp clients into blockchain-executable transactions, which are the runtime executables on HyperService. VESes and dApp clients employ the underlying UIP cryptography protocol to securely execute those transactions across different blockchains. UIP itself has two building blocks: (iii) the Network Status Blockchain (NSB) and (iv) the Insurance Smart Contracts (ISCs). The NSB, conceptually, is a blockchain of blockchains designed by HyperService to provide an objective and unified view of the dApps’ execution status, based on which the ISC arbitrate the correctness or violation of dApp executions in a trust-free manner. In case of exceptions, the ISC financially revert all executed transactions to guarantee financial atomicity and hold misbehaved entities accountable.

2.2 Universal State Model

A blockchain, together with smart contracts (or dApps) executed on the blockchain, is often perceived as a state machine [59]. We desire to preserve the similar abstraction for developers when writing cross-chain dApps. Towards this end, we propose Unified State Model (USM), a blockchain-neutral and extensible model for describing state transitions across different blockchains, which in essential defines cross-chain dApps. USM realizes a virtualization layer to unify the underlying heterogeneous blockchains. Such virtualization includes: (i) blockchains, regardless of their implementations (e.g., consensus mechanisms, smart contract execution

Figure 1: The architecture of HyperService.
environment, programming languages, and so on), are abstracted as objects with public state variables and functions; (ii) developers program dApps by specifying desired operations over those objects, along with the relative ordering among those operations, as if all the objects were local to a single machine.

Formally, USM is defined as $M = (\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{P}, C)$ where $\mathcal{E}$ is a set of entities, $\mathcal{P}$ is a set of operations performed over those entities, and $C$ is a set of constraints defining the dependencies of those operations. Entities are to describe the objects abstracted from blockchains. All entities are conceptually local to $M$, regardless of which blockchains they are obtained from. Entities come with kinds, and each entity kind has different attributes. The current version of USM defines two concrete kinds of entities, accounts and contracts, as tabulated in Table 1 (we discuss the extensions of USM in § 6.1). Specifically, an account entity is associated with a uniquely identifiable address, as well as its balance in certain units. A contract entity, besides its address, is further associated with a source

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity Kind</th>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th>Operation Kind</th>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th>Dependency Kind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>account</td>
<td>address, balance, unit</td>
<td>payment</td>
<td>from, to, value, exchange rate</td>
<td>precondition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contract</td>
<td>address, state variables[], interfaces[], source</td>
<td>invocation</td>
<td>interface, parameters[]const, Contract, SV, ...</td>
<td>invoker, deadline</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Import the source code of contracts written in different languages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><code>import(&quot;broker.sol&quot;, &quot;option.vy&quot;, &quot;option.go&quot;)</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td># Entity definition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td># Attributes of a contract entity are implicit from its source code.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td><code>account a1 = ChainX::Account(0x7019..., 100, xcoin)</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td><code>account a2 = ChainY::Account(0x47a1...0, ycoin)</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td><code>account a3 = ChainZ::Account(0x61a2...50, zcoin)</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td><code>contract c1 = ChainX::Broker(0xbba7...)</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td><code>contract c2 = ChainY::Option(0x917...)</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td><code>contract c3 = ChainZ::Option(0xef06...)</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td># Operation definition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td><code>op op1 invocation c1.GetstrikePrice() using a1</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td><code>op op2 payment 50 xcoin from a1 to a2 with 1 xcoin as 0.5 ycoin</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td><code>op op3 invocation c2.CashSettle(10, c1.StrikePrice) using a2</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td><code>op op4 invocation c3.CashSettle(5, c1.StrikePrice) using a3</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td># Dependency definition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td><code>op1 before op2, op4; op3 after op2</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td><code>op1 deadline 10 blocks; op2, op3 deadline default; op4 deadline 20 mins</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: A cross-chain Option dApp written in HSL.

needs a genuine strike price. Existing oracles [13, 62] require a smart contract on the blockchain to serve as the front-end to interact with other client smart contracts. As a result, it is difficult to build a dependable and unbiased oracle that is simultaneously accessible to multiple blockchains, because we cannot simply deploy an oracle smart contract on each individual blockchain since synchronizing the execution of those oracle contracts requires blockchain interoperability, i.e., we see a chicken-and-egg problem. This limitation, in turn, prevents dApps from spreading their business across multiple blockchains. For instance, a call-option contract deployed on Ethereum forces investors to exercise the option using Ether, but not in other cryptocurrencies.

As an introductory example, we shall see how conceptually simple, yet elegant, it is, from developers’ perspective, to build a universal call-option dApp that allows investors to natively exercise options with the cryptocurrencies they prefer. The code snippet shown in Figure 2 is the HSL implementation for the referred dApp. In this dApp, both Option contracts deployed on blockchains $\text{ChainY}$ and $\text{ChainZ}$ rely on the same Broker contract on $\text{ChainX}$ to provide the genuine strike price (lines 14 and 15 in Figure 2). Detailed HSL grammar is given in Grammar 1.

### 2.3.2 HSL Program Compilation

The core of HyperService programming framework is the HSL compiler. The compiler performs two major tasks: (i) enforcing security and correctness checks on HSL programs and (ii) compiling HSL programs into blockchain-executable transactions.

One of the key differentiations of HyperService is that it allows dApps to natively define interactions and operations among smart contracts deployed on heterogeneous blockchains. Since these smart contracts could be written in different languages, HSL provides a multi-language front end to analyze the source code...
of those smart contracts. It extracts the type information of their public state variables and functions, and then converts them into the unified types defined by HSL (§ 3.1). This enables effective correctness checks on the HSL programs (§ 3.3). For instance, it ensures that all the parameters used in a contract invocation operation are compatible and verifiable, even if these arguments are extracted from remote contracts written in languages different from that of the invoking contract.

Once a HSL program passes the syntax and correctness checks, the compiler will generate an executable for the program. The executable is structured in the form of a Transaction Dependency Graph, which contains (i) the complete information for computing a set of blockchain-executable transactions, (ii) the metadata of each transaction needed for correct execution, and (iii) the preconditions and deadlines of those transactions that honor the dependency constraints specified in the HSL program (§ 3.4).

In HyperService, the Verifiable Execution Systems (VESes) are the actual entities that own the HSL compiler and therefore resume the aforementioned compiler responsibilities. Because of this, VESes work as blockchain drivers that bridge our high-level programming framework with the underlying blockchains. Each VES is a distributed system providing trust-free service to compile and execute HSL programs given by dApp clients. VESes are trust-free because their actions taken during dApp executions are verifiable. Each VES defines its own service model, including its reachability (i.e., the set of blockchains that the VES supports), service fees charged for correct executions, and insurance plans (i.e., the expected compensation to dApps if the VES’s execution is proven to be incorrect). dApps have full autonomy to select VESes that satisfy their requirements. In § 6.3, we lay out our visions for VESes.

Besides owning the HSL compiler, VESes also participate in the actual executions of HSL executables, as discussed below.

2.4 Universal Inter-Blockchain Protocol (UIP)

To correctly execute a dApp, all the transactions in its executable must be posted on blockchains for execution, and meanwhile their preconditions and deadlines are honored. Although this executing procedure is conceptually simple (thanks to the HSL abstraction), it is very challenging to ensure correct executions in a fully trust-free manner where (i) no trusted authority is allowed to coordinate the executions on different blockchains and (ii) no mutual trust between VESes and dApp clients are established.

To address this challenge, HyperService designs UIP, a cryptography protocol between VESes and dApp clients to securely execute HSL executables on blockchains. UIP can work on any blockchain with public ledgers, imposing no additional requirements such as their consensus protocols and contract execution environment. UIP provides strong security guarantees for executing dApps such that dApps are correctly executed only if the correctness is publicly verifiable by all stakeholders; otherwise, UIP holds the misbehaving parties accountable, and financially reverts all committed transactions to achieve financial atomicity.

UIP is powered by two innovative designs: the Network Status Blockchain (NSB) and the Insurance Smart Contract (ISC). The NSB is a blockchain designed by HyperService to provide objective and unified views on the status of dApp executions. On the one hand, the NSB consolidates the finalized transactions of all underlying blockchains into Merkle trees, providing unified representations for transaction status in form of verifiable Merkle proofs. On the other hand, the NSB supports Proofs of Actions (PoAs), allowing both dApp clients and VESes to construct proofs to certify their actions taken during cross-chain executions. The ISC is a code-arbitrator. It takes transaction-status proofs constructed from the NSB as input to determine the correctness or violation of dApp executions, and meanwhile uses action proofs to determine the accountable parities in case of exceptions.

In § 4.6, we define the security properties of UIP via an ideal functionality and then rigorously prove that UIP realizes the ideal functionality in UC-framework [28].

2.5 Assumptions and Threat Model

We assume that the cryptographic primitives and the consensus protocol of all underlying blockchains are secure so that each of them can have the concept of transaction finality. On Nakamoto consensus-based blockchains (typically permissionless), this is achieved by assuming that the probability of blockchain reorganizations drops exponentially as new blocks are appended (common-prefix property) [35]. On Byzantine tolerance based blockchains (usually permissioned), finality is guaranteed by signatures from a quorum of permissioned voting nodes. For a blockchain, if the NSB-proposed definition of transaction finality for the blockchain is accepted by users and dApps on HyperService, the operation (or trust) model (e.g., permissionless or permissioned) and consensus efficiency (i.e., the latency for a transaction to become final) of the blockchain have provably no impact on the security guarantees of our UIP protocol. We also assume that each underlying blockchain has a public ledger that allows external parties to examine and prove transaction finality and the public state of smart contracts.

The correctness of UIP relies on the correctness of the NSB. An example implementation of NSB is a permissioned blockchain, where any information on NSB becomes legitimate only if a quorum of consensus nodes that maintain the NSB have approved the information. We thus assume that at least $K$ consensus nodes of the NSB are honest, where $K$ is the quorum threshold (e.g., the majority). In this design, an NSB node is not required to become either a full or light node for any of the underlying blockchains.

We consider a Byzantine adversary that interferes with our UIP protocol arbitrarily, including delaying and reordering network messages indefinitely, and compromising protocol participants. As long as at least one protocol participant is not compromised by the adversary, the security properties of UIP are guaranteed.

3 PROGRAMMING FRAMEWORK

The design of the HyperService programming framework centers around the HSL compiler. Figure 3 depicts the compilation workflow. The HSL compiler has two front-ends: one for extracting entities, operations, and dependencies from a HSL program and one for extracting public state variables and methods from smart contracts deployed on blockchains. A unified type system is designed to ensure that smart contracts written in different languages can be abstracted as interoperable entities defined in the HSL program. Afterwards, the compiler performs semantic validations on
all entities, operations and dependencies to ensure the security and correctness of the HSL program. Finally, the compiler produces an executable for the HSL program, which is structured in the form of a transaction dependency graph. We next describe the details of each component.

3.1 Unified Type System

The USM is designed to provide a unified virtualization layer for developers to define invocation operations in their HSL programs, without handling the heterogeneity of contract entities. Towards this end, the programming framework internally defines a Unified Type System so that state variables and methods of all contract entities can be abstracted using the unified types when writing HSL programs. This enables the HSL compiler to ensure that all arguments specified in an invocation operation are compatible (§3.3).

Specifically, the unified type system defines nine elementary types, as shown in Table 2. Data types that are commonly used in smart contract programming languages will be mapped to these unified types during compilation. For example, Solidity does not fully support fixed-point number, but Vyper (decimal) and Go (float) do. Also, Vyper’s string is fixed-sized (declared via string[Integer]), but Solidity’s string is dynamically-sized (declared as string). Our multi-lang front-end recognizes these differences and performs type conversion to map all the numeric literals including integers and decimals to the Numeric type, and the strings to the String type. For types that are similar in Solidity, Vyper, and Go, such as Boolean, Map, and Struct, we simply map them to the corresponding types in our unified type system. Finally, Solidity and Vyper provide special types for representing contract addresses, which are mapped to the Address type. But Go does not provide a type for contract addresses, and thus Go’s String type is mapped to the Address type. The mapping of language-specific types to the unified type system is tabulated in Table 2. Our unified type system is horizontally scalable to support additional strong-typed programming languages. Note that the use of complex data types as contract function parameters has not been fully supported yet in production. We thus leave complex types in HSL to future work.

3.2 HSL Language Design

The language constructs provided by HSL are coherent with USM, allowing developers to straightforwardly specify entities, operations, and dependencies in HSL programs. One additional construct, import, is added to import the source code of contract entities, as discussed below. Grammar 1 shows the representative rules of HSL. We omit the terminal symbols such as (id) and (address).

Contract Importing. Developers use the (import) rule to include the source code of contract entities. Depending on the programming language of an imported contract, HSL’s multi-lang front end uses the corresponding parser to parse the source code, based on which it performs semantic validation (§3.3). For security purpose, the compiler should verify that the imported source code is consistent with the actual deployed code on blockchain, for instance, by comparing their compiled byte code.

Entity Definition. The (entity_def) rule specifies the definition of an account or a contract entity. An entity is defined via constructor, where the on-chain (address) of the entity is a required parameter. An account entity can be initialized with an optional unit (unit) to specify the cryptocurrency held by the account. All contract entities must have the corresponding contract objects/classes in one of the imported source code files. Each entity is assigned with a name ((entity_name)) that can be used for defining operations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Solidity</th>
<th>Vyper</th>
<th>Go</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boolean</td>
<td>bool</td>
<td>bool</td>
<td>bool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numeric</td>
<td>int, unit</td>
<td>int128, unit256, decimal, unit type</td>
<td>int, unit, uint, float</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Address</td>
<td>address</td>
<td>address</td>
<td>string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>String</td>
<td>string</td>
<td>string</td>
<td>string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Array</td>
<td>array, bytes</td>
<td>array, bytes</td>
<td>array, slice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map</td>
<td>mapping</td>
<td>map</td>
<td>map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Struct</td>
<td>struct</td>
<td>struct</td>
<td>struct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>function, enum</td>
<td>function, enum</td>
<td>def, func</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>file</td>
<td>type</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: Workflow of HSL compilation.

Table 2: Unified type mapping for Solidity, Vyper, and Go
Operation Definition. The \((\text{op, def})\) rule specifies the definition of a payment or an invocation operation. A payment operation \((\text{(op, payment)})\) specifies the transfer of a certain amount of coins \((\text{(coin)})\) between two accounts that may live on different blockchains \((\text{(accts)})\). Note that no new coins on any blockchains are ever created during the operation. The \((\text{exchange})\) rule is used to specify the exchange rate between the coins held by the two accounts. An invocation operation \((\text{(op, invocation)})\) specifies calling one contract entity’s public method with certain arguments \((\text{(call)})\). The arguments passed to a method invocation can be literals \((\text{((int), (float), (string))})\), and state variables \((\text{(state_var)})\) of other contract entities.

Dependency Definition. The \((\text{(dep, def)})\) specifies the rule of defining preconditions and deadlines for operations. A precondition \((\text{(temp_deps)})\) specifies the temporal constraints for the execution order of operations. A deadline \((\text{(del_deps)})\) specifies the deadline constraints of each operation. The deadline dependency may be given either using the number of blocks on NSB \((\text{((int) blocks})\) or in absolute time \((\text{((int) time_unit)})\), as explained in § 3.4.

3.3 Semantic Validation

The compiler performs two types of semantic validation to ensure the security and correctness of HSL programs. First, the compiler guarantees the compatibility and verifiability of the arguments used in invocation operations, especially when those arguments are obtained from other contract entities. For compatibility check, the compiler performs type checking to ensure the types of arguments and the types of method parameters are mapped to the same unified type. For verifiability check, the compiler ensures that only literals and state variables that are publicly stored on blockchains are eligible to be used as arguments in invocation operations. For example, the return values of method calls to a contract entity are not eligible if these results are not persistent on blockchains. This requirement is necessary for the UIP protocol to construct publicly verifiable attestations to prove that correct values are used to invoking contracts during actual on-chain execution. Second, the compiler performs dependency validation to make sure that the dependency constraints defined in a HSL program uniquely specify a directed acyclic graph connecting all operations. This ensures that no conflicting temporal constraints are specified.

3.4 HSL Program Executables

Once a HSL program passes all validations, the HSL compiler generates executables for the program in form of a transaction dependency graph \(G_T\). Each vertex of \(G_T\), referred to as a transaction wrapper, contains the complete information to compute an on-chain transaction executable on a specific blockchain, as well as additional metadata for the transaction. The edges in \(G_T\) define the preconditioning requirements among transactions, which are consistent with the dependency constraints specified by the HSL program. Figure 4 show the \(G_T\) generated for the HSL program in Figure 2.

A transaction wrapper is in form of \(T := [\text{from}, \text{to}, \text{seq}, \text{meta}]\), where the pair \(<\text{from}, \text{to}>\) decides the sending and receiving addresses of the on-chain transaction, \text{seq} (omitted in Figure 4) represents the sequence number of \(T\) in \(G_T\), and \text{meta} stores the structured and customizable metadata for \(T\). Below we explain the fields of \text{meta}. First, to achieve financial atomicity, \text{meta} must populate a tuple \((\text{amt, dst})\) for fund reversion. In particular, \text{amt} specifies the total value that the \text{from} address has to spend when \(T\) is committed on its destination blockchain, which includes both the explicitly paid value in \(T\), as well as any gas fee. If the entire execution fails with exceptions whereas \(T\) is committed, the \text{dst} account is guaranteed to receive the amount of fund specified in \text{amt}. As we shall see in § 4.4, the fund reversion is handled by the Insurance Smart Contract (ISC). Therefore, the unit of \text{amt} (represented as \text{ncoin} in Figure 4) is given based on the cryptocurrency used by the blockchain where the ISC is deployed, and the \text{dst} should live on the hosting blockchain as well.

Second, for a transaction (such as \(T1\)) whose resulting state is subsequently used by other downstream transactions (such as \(T4\)), its \text{meta} needs to be populated with a corresponding state proof. This proof should be collected from the transaction’s destination blockchain after the transaction is finalized (c.f., § 4.2.3). Third, a cross-chain payment operation in the HSL program results in multiple transactions in \(G_T\). For instance, to realize the \text{op1} in Figure 2, two individual transactions, involving the \text{relay accounts} owned by the VES, are generated. As blockchain drivers, each VES is supposed to own some accounts on all blockchains that it has visibility so that the VES is able to send and receive transactions on those blockchains. For instance, in Figure 4, the \text{relayX} and \text{relayY} are two accounts used by the VES to bridge the balance updates between \text{ChainX:a1} and \text{ChainY:a2}. Because of those VES-owned accounts, \(G_T\) is in general VES-specific.

Finally, the deadlines of transactions could be specified using the number of blocks on the NSB. This is because the NSB constructs a unified view of the status of all underlying blockchains and therefore can measure the execution time of each transaction. Specifically, the deadline of a transaction \(T\) is measured as the number of blocks between two NSB blocks \(B_1\) and \(B_2\) (including \(B_2\)), where \(B_1\) proves the finalization of \(T\)’s last preconditioned transaction and \(B_2\) proves the finalization of \(T\) itself. We explain in detail how the finality proof is constructed based on NSB blocks in § 4.2.2. Transaction deadlines are indeed enforced by the ISC using the number of NSB blocks. Note that to improve expressiveness, the HSL language also allows developers to define deadlines in time intervals (e.g., minutes). The compiler will then convert those time intervals into numbers of NSB blocks.
In summary, the executable produced by the HSL compiler defines the blueprint of cross-blockchain execution to realize the HSL program. It is the input instructions that direct the underlying cryptography protocol UIP, as detailed below.

4 UIP DESIGN DETAIL

UIP is the cryptography protocol that executes HSL program executables. The main protocol ProtUIP is divided into five preliminary protocols. In particular, ProtVES and ProtCLI define the execution protocols implemented by VESes and dApp clients, respectively. ProtNSB and ProtSC are the protocol realization of the NSB and ISC, respectively. Lastly, ProtUIP includes ProtBC, the protocol realization of a general-purposed blockchain. Overall, ProtUIP has two phases: the execution phase where the transactions specified in the HSL executables are posted on blockchains and the insurance claim phase where the execution correctness or violation is arbitrated.

4.1 Protocol Preliminaries

4.1.1 Runtime Transaction State

During the execution phase, a transaction may be in any of the following state {unknown, init, inited, open, opened, closed}, where a latter state is considered more advanced than a former one. The state of each transaction must be gradually promoted following the above sequence. For each state (except for the unknown), ProtUIP produces a corresponding attestation to prove the state. When the execution phase terminates, the final execution status of the HSL program is collectively decided by the state of all transactions, based on which ProtSC arbitrates its correctness or violation.

4.1.2 Off-Chain State Channels

The protocol exchange between ProtVES and ProtCLI can be conducted via off-chain state channels for low latency. One challenge, however, is that it is difficult to enforce accountability for non-closed transactions without preserving the execution steps by both parties. To address this issue, ProtUIP proposes Proof of Actions (PoAs), allowing ProtVES and ProtCLI to stake their execution steps on NSB. As a result, the NSB is treated as a publicly-observable fallback communication medium for the off-chain channel. The benefit of this dual-medium design is that the protocol exchange between ProtVES and ProtCLI can still proceed agilely via off-chain channels in typical scenarios, whereas the full granularity of their protocol exchange is preserved on the NSB in case of exceptions, eliminating the ambiguity for accountability enforcement.

As mentioned in § 4.1.1, ProtUIP produces security attestations to prove the runtime state of transactions. As we shall see below, an attestation may come in two forms: a certificate, denoted by Cert, signed by ProtVES or/and ProtCLI during their off-chain exchange, or an on-chain Merkle proof, denoted by Merk, constructed using the NSB and underlying blockchains. An Cert and its corresponding Merk are treated equivalently by the ProtSC in code arbitration.

4.1.3 Architecture of the NSB

The NSB is a blockchain designed to provide an objective view on the execution status of dApps. Figure 5 depicts the architecture of NSB blocks. Similar to typical blockchain blocks, an NSB block contains several common fields, such as the hash fields to link blocks together and the Merkle trees to store transactions and state. To support the extra functionality of the NSB, an NSB block contains two additional Merkle tree roots: StatusRoot and ActionRoot. StatusRoot is the root of a Merkle tree (referred as StatusMT) that stores transaction status of underlying blockchains. The NSB represents the transaction status of a blockchain based on the TxRoots and StateRoots retrieved from the blockchain’s public ledger. Although the exact namings may vary on different blockchains, in general, the TxRoot and StateRoot in a blockchain block represent the root of a Merkle tree storing transactions and storage state (e.g., account balance, contract state), respectively. Note that the NSB only stores relevant blockchain state, where a blockchain block is considered to be relevant if the block packages at least one transaction that is part of any dApp executables.

ActionRoot is the root of a Merkle tree (referred as ActionMT) whose leaf nodes store certificates computed by VESes and dApp clients. Each certificate represents a certain step taken by either the VES or the dApp client during the execution phase. To prove such an action, a party needs to construct a Merkle proof to demonstrate that the certificate mapped to the action can be linked to a committed block on the NSB. These PoAs are crucial for the ISC to enforce accountability if the execution fails. Since the information of each ActionMT is static, we lexicographically sort the ActionMT to achieve fast search and convenient proof of non-membership.

Note that the construction of StatusMT ensures that each underlying blockchain can have a dedicated subtree for storing its transaction status. This makes the NSB sharable on the granularity of individual blockchains, ensuring that the NSB is horizontally scalable as HyperService continuously incorporates additional blockchains. ProtNSB, discussed in § 4.5, is the protocol that specifies the detailed construction of both roots and guarantees their correctness.

4.2 Execution Protocol by VESes

The full protocol of ProtVES is detailed in Figure 6. Below we clarify some technical subtleties.

4.2.1 Post Compilation and Session Setup

After GT is generated, ProtVES initiates an execution session for GT in the PostCompilation daemon. The primary goal of the initialization is to create and deploy an insurance contract to protect the execution of GT. Towards this end, ProtVES interacts with the protocol ProtSC to create the insurance contract for GT, and further deploys the contract on NSB after the dApp client D agrees on the contract. Throughout the paper, Cert([*], Sig) represents a signed certificate proving that the signing party agrees on the value enclosed in the certificate. We use SigD and SigB to represent the signature by ProtVES and ProtCLI, respectively.
Init: Data := ∅

1. Daemon PostCompilation():
2. generate session ID sid ← (0, 1)^4
3. call [cid, contract] := ProtIns.CreateContract(τ)
4. send Cert(sid, Gτ, contract, Signature); to ProtClique for approval
5. halt until Cert(sid, Gτ, contract, Signature); to ProtClique is received
6. package contract as a valid transaction
7. call ProtNSB.Exec(contract) to deploy the contract
8. halt until contract is initialized on ProtNSB
9. call ProtNSB.StakeFund to raise the required funds in ProtNSC
10. call ProtNSB.Halt until ProtNSC has its required funds in ProtNSC
11. initialize Data[sid] := (Gτ, cid, S_cert = ∅, S_Merk = ∅)

Daemon Watching(sid, ProtNSB) private:
1. (Gτ, _, S_cert, S_Merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
2. for each τ ∈ Gτ:
3. if τ.state is not open
4. identify τ’s on-chain counterpart T
5. continue if ProtNSB.Status(τ) is not committed
6. get tclosed := ProtNSB.BlockHeight()
7. compute C_T = Cert(τ_tclosed, sid, T, tclosed, Signature)
8. call ProtClique.CloseTrans(C_T) to negotiate the closed attestation
9. call ProtNSB.AddLife(τ_T) to obtain a finalization proof for τ
10. denote the finalization proof as Merk breaches (Figure 7)
11. update S_Cert.Add(C_T), and S_Merk.Add(Merk breach)

Daemon Watching(sid, ProtNSC) private:
1. (G_T, _, S_cert, S_merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
2. watch four types of attestations {Cert^i, Cert^c, S_cert, Cert^c}
3. process fresh attestations via corresponding handlers (see below)
4. # Retrieve alternative attestations if necessary.
5. for each τ ∈ G_T:
6. if τ.state is open and Merk breach ∈ S_Merk
7. retrieve the roots [K, ...] of the proof Merk breach
8. call ProtNSB.AddLife(τ_T) to request initialization
9. continue if Merk breach is not available yet on ProtNSB
10. compute the complete proof Merk breach = [Merk breach_i, Merk breach_c]
11. update τ.state := closed and S_Merk.Add(Merk breach)
12. compute eligible transaction set S using the current state of G_T
13. for each τ ∈ S:
14. if τ.state is not known
15. continue if τ.state is not unknown
16. if τ.from = ProtNSC:
17. compute Cert^c = Cert(τ_T, init, sid, Signature)
18. call ProtClique.InitTrans(Cert^c) to request initialization
19. call ProtNSB.AddLife(τ_T) to prove Cert^c is sent
20. update S_Cert.Add(Cert^c) and τ.state := init
21. non-blocking wait until ProtNSB.MerkleProof(Cert^c) returns Merk breach
22. update S_Merk.Add(Merk breach)
23. call ProtNSB.AddAction(Cert^c) to prove Cert^c is sent
24. update S_Cert.Add(Cert^c) and τ.state := init
25. non-blocking wait until ProtNSB.MerkleProof(Cert^c) returns Merk breach
26. update S_Merk.Add(Merk breach)

Upon Receive RInitedTrans(Cert^c) public:
1. assert Cert^c has the valid form of Cert(τ_T, init, sid, T; Signature)
2. (_, _ S_Cert, S_Merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
3. abort if the Cert^c corresponding to Cert^c is not in S_Cert
4. assert τ is correctly associated with the wrapper τ
5. get topens := ProtNSB.BlockHeight()
6. compute Cert^c := Cert(τ_T, open, sid, T, topens, Signature)
7. call ProtClique.OpenTrans(Cert^c) to request opening for τ
8. call ProtNSB.AddAction(Cert^c) to prove Cert^c is sent
9. update S_Cert.Add(Cert^c) and τ.state := opened
10. non-blocking wait until ProtNSB.MerkleProof(Cert^c) returns Merk breach
11. update S_Merk.Add(Merk breach)

Upon Receive OpenTrans(Cert^c) public:
1. assert Cert^c has the valid form of Cert(τ_T, open, sid, T, topens; Signature)
2. (_, _ S_Cert, S_Merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
3. abort if the Cert^c corresponding to Cert^c is not in S_Cert
4. assert topens is within a bounded range with ProtNSB.BlockHeight()
5. compute Cert^c := Cert(τ_T, open, sid, T, topens; Signature)
6. call ProtClique.Exec(τ_T) to trigger on-chain execution
7. call ProtClique.OpenedTrans(Cert^c) to acknowledge request
8. call ProtNSB.AddAction(Cert^c) to prove Cert^c is sent
9. update S_Cert.Add(Cert^c) and τ.state := opened
10. non-blocking wait until ProtNSB.MerkleProof(Cert^c) returns Merk breach
11. update S_Merk.Add(Merk breach)

Upon Receive OpenedTrans(Cert^c) public:
1. assert Cert^c has the valid form of Cert(τ_T, open, sid, T, topens; Signature)
2. (_, _ S_Cert, S_Merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
3. abort if the Cert^c corresponding to Cert^c is not in S_Cert
4. update S_Cert.Add(Cert^c) and τ.state := opened

Upon Receive CloseTrans(C_T, closed) public:
1. assert C_T has the valid form of Cert(τ_T, closed, sid, T, tclosed, Signature)
2. (_, _ S_Cert, S_Merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
3. abort if the Cert^c corresponding to Cert^c is not in S_Cert
4. update S_Cert.Add(Cert^c) and τ.state := closed

Upon Receive ClosedTrans(C_T, closed) public:
1. assert C_T has the valid form of Cert(τ_T, closed, sid, T, tclosed, Signature)
2. assert τ is finalized on its destination blockchain and obtain Merk breach
3. assert tclosed is within a bounded margin with ProtNSB.BlockHeight()
4. (_, _ S_Cert, S_Merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
5. compute Cert^c := Cert(τ_T, closed, sid, T, tclosed; Signature)
6. call ProtClique.ClosedTrans(Cert^c) to acknowledge request
7. update S_Cert.Add(Cert^c), S_Merk.Add(Merk breach) and τ.state := closed

Upon Receive ClosedTrans(Cert^c) public:
1. assert Cert^c has the valid form of Cert(τ_T, closed, sid, T, tclosed; Signature)
2. (_, _ S_Cert, S_Merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
3. abort if Cert^c is not in S_Cert
4. update S_Cert.Add(Cert^c) and τ.state := closed

Daemon Redeem(sid) private:
1. # Invoke the insurance contract periodically
2. (G_T, cid, S_Cert, S_Merk) := Data[sid]; abort if not found
3. for each unclaimed T ∈ G_T:
4. get the Cert^c from S_Cert ∪ S_Merk with the most advanced state
5. call ProtNSB.InsuranceClaim(cid, Cert^c) to claim insurance

Figure 6: Protocol description of ProtYes. Gray background denotes non-blocking operations triggered by status updates on ProtNSB. Handlers annotated with northbound and southbound process transactions originated from ProtYes and ProtClique, respectively. Handlers annotated with bidirectional are shared by all transactions.
Additionally, both ProtVES and ProtCLI are required to deposit sufficient funds to ProtSC to ensure that ProtSC holds sufficient funds to financially revert all committed transactions regardless of the step at which the execution aborts prematurely. Intuitively, each party would need to stake at least the total amount of incoming funds to the party without deducing the outgoing funds. This strawman design, however, requires high stakes. More desirably, considering the dependency requirements in $G_T$, any party $X$ (ProtVES or ProtCLI) only needs to stake

$$\max_{s \in G_S} \sum_{T \in S} T.meta.amt - \sum_{T \in X} T.meta.amt$$

where $G_S$ is the set of all committable subsets in $G_T$, where a subset $s \subseteq G_T$ is committable if, whenever $T \in s$, all preconditions of $T$ are also in $s$. For clarity of notation, throughout the paper, when saying $T.from = \text{ProtVES}$ or $T$ is originated from ProtVES, we mean that $T$ is sent and signed by an account owned by ProtVES. Likewise, $T.from = \text{ProtCLI}$ indicates that $T$ is sent from an account entity defined in the HSL program. ProtISC refunds any remaining funds after the contract is terminated.

After the contract is instantiated and sufficiently staked, ProtVES initializes its internal bookkeeping for the session. The two notations $SCert$ and $SMerk$ represent two sets that store the signed certificates received via off-chain channels and on-chain Merkle proofs constructed using ProtNSB and ProtBC.

### 4.2.2 Protocol Exchange for Transaction Handling

In ProtVES, SInitiatedTrans and OpenTrans are two handlers processing *northbound* transactions which originates from ProtVES. The SInitiatedTrans handling for $T$ is invoked when all its preconditions are finalized, which is detected by the watching service of ProtVES (c.f., § 4.2.3). The SInitiatedTrans computes Certid to prove $T$ is in the initiated state, and then passes it to the corresponding handler of ProtCLI for subsequent processing. Meanwhile, SInitiatedTrans stakes Certid on ProtNSB, and later it retrieves a Merkle proof $\text{Merkle}_{T'}$ from the NSB to prove that Certid has been sent. $\text{Merkle}_{T'}$ is essentially a hash chain linking Certid back to an ActionRoot on a committed block of the NSB. The proof retrieval is a non-blocking operation triggered by the consensus update on the NSB.

The OpenTrans handler pairs with SInitiatedTrans. It listens for a timestamped Certid, which is supposed to be generated by ProtCLI after it processes Certid from ProtVES. OpenTrans performs a special correctness check on the $t_{open}$ enclosed in Certid. In particular, ProtVES and ProtCLI use the block height of the NSB as a calibrated clock. By checking that $t_{open}$ is within a bounded range of the NSB height, ProtVES ensures that the $t_{open}$ added by ProtCLI is fresh. After all correctness checks on Certid are passed, the state of $T$ is promoted from open to open. OpenTrans then computes certificate to prove the updated state and posts $T$ on its destination blockchain for on-chain execution. Throughout the paper, $T'$ denotes the on-chain executable transaction computed and signed using the information contained in $T$. Note that the difference between the Certid received from ProtCLI and a post-open (i.e., opened) certificate Certid computed by ProtVES is that latter one is signed by both parties. Only the $t_{open}$ specified in Certid is used by Prot ISC when evaluating the deadline constraint of $T$.

![Figure 7: The complete on-chain proof (denoted by Merkle_T)](image)

**Figure 7:** The complete on-chain proof (denoted by Merkle_T) to prove that the state of a transaction is eligible to be promoted as closed. The left-side part is the finalization proof (denoted by Merkle_T) for the transaction collected from its destination blockchain; the right-side part is the blockchain status proof (denoted by Merkle_T) collected from the NSB.

Southbound transactions originating from ProtCLI are processed by ProtVES in a similar manner as the northbound transactions, via the RInitiatedTrans and OpenedTrans handlers. We clarify a subtlety in the RInitiatedTrans handler when verifying the *association* between $T$ and $T'$ (line 4). If $T'$ depends on the resulting state from its upstream transactions (for instance, $T_4$ depends on the resulting state of $T_1$ in Figure 4), ProtVES needs to verify that the state used by $T'$ is consistent with the state enclosed in the finalization proofs of those upstream transactions.

### 4.2.3 Proactive Watching Services

Cross-chain execution makes forward progress when all session-relevant blockchains and the NSB make progress on transactions. As the driver of execution, ProtVES internally creates two watching services to *proactively* read the status of those blockchains.

In the watching daemon to one blockchain, ProtVES mainly reads the public ledger of ProtBC to monitor the status of transactions that have been posted for on-chain execution. If ProtVES notices that an on-chain transaction $T$ is recently finalized, it requests the closing process for $T'$ by sending ProtCLI a timestamped certificate $C_{closed}$. The pair of handlers, CloseTrans and ClosedTrans, are used by both ProtVES and ProtCLI in this exchange. Both handlers can be used for handling northbound and southbound transactions, depending on which party sends the closing request. In general, a transaction’s originator has a stronger motivation to initiate the closing process because the originator would be held accountable if the transaction were not timely closed by its deadline.

In addition, ProtVES needs to retrieve a Merkle Proof from ProtBC to prove the finalization of $T$. This proof, denoted by Merkle_T, serves two purposes: (i) it is the first part of a complete on-chain proof to prove that the state $T$ can be promoted to closed, as shown in Figure 7; (ii) if the resulting state of $T'$ is used by its downstream transactions, Merkle_T is necessary to ensure that those downstream transactions indeed use genuine state.

In the watching service to ProtNSB, ProtVES performs following tasks. First, as described in § 4.1.2, NSB is treated as a fallback communication medium for the off-chain channel. Thus, ProtVES searches the sorted ActionMT to look for any session-relevant certificates that have not been received via the off-chain channel. Second, if the first opened $T$ whose closed attestation is still missing after ProtVES has sent $C_{closed}$ (indicating slow or no reaction from
4.3 Execution Protocol by dApp Clients

ProtCLI defines the following set of fields to match ProtVES. In particular, the InitTrans and OpenTrans match the SInitiatedTrans and OpenTrans of ProtVES, respectively, to process Cert\text{\textsuperscript{old}} and Cert\text{\textsuperscript{new}} sent by ProtVES. The InitTrans and OpenTrans process Cert\text{\textsuperscript{t}} and Cert\text{\textsuperscript{o}} sent by ProtVES when executing transactions originated from ProtCLI.

The CloseTrans and ClosedTrans of ProtCLI match their counterparts in ProtVES to negotiate closing attestations.

For usability, HyperService imposes smaller requirements on the watching daemons implemented by ProtCLI. Specially, ProtCLI still proactively watches ProtNSB to have a fallback communication medium with ProtVES. However, ProtCLI is not required to proactively watch the status of underlying blockchains or dynamically compute eligible transactions whenever the execution status changes. We intentionally offload such complexity on ProtVES to enable lightweight dApp clients. ProtCLI, though, should (and is motivated to) check the status of self-originated transactions in order to request transaction closing.

4.4 Protocol Realization of the ISC

Figure 8 specifies the protocol realization of the ISC. The CreateContract handler is the entry point of requesting insurance contract creation using ProtISC. It generates the arbitration code, denoted as contract, based on the given dApp executable \(G_T\). The contract internally uses \(T_{state}\) to track the state of each transaction in \(G_T\), which is updated when processing security attestations in the InsuranceClaim handler. For clear presentation, Figure 8 extracts the state proof and fund reversion tuple from \(T\) as dedicated variables \(s_{\text{proof}}\) and \(A_{\text{revs}}\). When the ProtISC times out, it executes the contract terms based on its internal state, after which its funds are depleted and the contract never runs again. Below we explain several technical subtleties.

\begin{figure*}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{fig8.png}
\caption{ProtISC: the protocol realization of the ISC arbitrator.}
\end{figure*}
4.4.1 Insurance Claim

The InsuranceClaim handler processes security attestations from ProtVES and ProtCLI. Only dual-signed certificates (i.e., Cert<sup>id</sup> and Cert<sup>e</sup>) or complete Merkle proofs are acceptable. Processing dual-signed certificates is straightforward as they are explicitly agreed by both parties. However, processing Merkle proof requires additional correctness checks. First, when validating a Merkle proof Merk<sub>T</sub>, Merk<sub>T</sub>, or Merk<sub>T</sub>, ProtISC retrieves the single-party signed certificate Cert<sub>T</sub> or Cert<sub>T</sub> or Cert<sub>T</sub> enclosed in the proof and performs the following correctness check against the certificate. (i) The certificate must be signed by the correct party, i.e., Cert<sub>T</sub> is signed by ProtVES, Cert<sub>T</sub> is signed by T’s originator and Cert<sub>T</sub> is signed by the destination of T. (ii) The enclosed on-chain transaction T in Cert<sub>T</sub> and Cert<sub>T</sub> is correctly associated with T. The checking logic is the same as the one used by ProtVES. (iii) The enclosed tsopen in Cert<sub>T</sub> is genuine, where the genuineness is defined as a bounded difference between tsopen and the height of the NSB block that attaches Merk<sub>T</sub>.

4.4.2 Contract Term Settlement

ProtISC registers a callback SettleContract to execute contract terms automatically upon timeout. ProtSC internally defines an additional transaction state, called correct. The state of a closed transaction is promoted to correct if its deadline constraint is satisfied. Then, ProtISC compiles the possible dirty transactions in G<sub>T</sub>, which are the transactions that are eligible to be opened, but with non-correct state. Thus, the execution succeeds only if G<sub>T</sub> has no dirty transactions. Otherwise, ProtISC employs a decision tree, shown in Figure 9, to decide the responsible party for each dirty transaction. The decision tree is derived from the execution steps taken by ProtVES and ProtCLI. In particular, if a transaction T’s state is closed, opened or open, then it is T’s originator to blame for either failing to fulfill the deadline constraint or failing to dispatch T for on-chain execution. If a transaction T’s state is initiated, then it is T’s destination party’s responsibility for not proceeding with T even though Cert<sub>T</sub> has been provably sent. If a transaction T’s state is init (only transactions originated from dApp D can have init status), then D (the originator) is the party to blame for not reacting on the Cert<sub>T</sub> sent by T. Finally, if transaction T’s state is unknown, then T is held accountable for not proactively driving the initialization of T, no matter which party originates T.

4.5 Specification of ProtNSB and ProtBC

ProtBC specifies the protocol realization of a general-purpose blockchain where a set of consensus nodes run a secure protocol to agree upon the public global state. In this paper, we regard ProtBC as a conceptual party trusted for correctness and availability, i.e., ProtBC guarantees to correctly perform any predefined computation (e.g., Turing-complete smart contract programs) and is always available to handle user requests despite unbounded response latency. ProtNSB specifies the protocol realization of the NSB. ProtNSB is an extended version of ProtBC with additional capabilities. Due to space constraint, we move the detailed protocol description of ProtBC and ProtNSB to our technical report that is available on both our source code repository [4] and arXiv.

4.6 Security Theorems

To rigorously prove the security properties of UIP, we first present the cryptography abstraction of the UIP in form of an ideal functionality F<sub>UIP</sub>. The ideal functionality articulates the correctness and security properties that UIP wishes to attain by assuming a trusted entity. Then we prove that ProtUIP, our the decentralized real-world protocol containing the aforementioned preliminary protocols, securely realizes F<sub>UIP</sub> using the UC framework [28], i.e., ProtUIP achieves the same functionality and security properties as F<sub>UIP</sub> without assuming any trusted authorities. Since the rigorous proof requires non-trivial simulator construction within the UC framework, we defer detailed proof to a dedicated section § 8.

5 IMPLEMENTATION AND EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we present the implementation of a HyperService prototype and report experiment results on the prototype. At the time of writing, the total development effort includes (i) ~1,500 lines of Java code and ~3,100 lines of ANTLR [54] grammar code for building the HSL programming framework, (ii) ~21,000 lines of code, mainly in Go and Python, for implementing the UIP protocol, and ~8,000 lines of code, mainly in Go, for implementing the NSB; and (iii) ~1,000 lines of code, in Solidity, Vyper, and Go, for writing cross-chain dApps running on HyperService. The released source code is available at [4]. The HyperService Consortium is under active development for HyperService.

5.1 Platform Implementation

To demonstrate the interoperability and programmability across heterogeneous blockchains on HyperService, our current prototype incorporates Ethereum, the flagship public blockchain, and a permissioned blockchain built atop the Tendermint [17] consensus engine, a commonly cited cornerstone for building enterprise blockchains. We implement the necessary accounts (wallets), the smart contract environment, and the on-chain storage to deliver the permissioned blockchain with full programmability. The NSB is also built atop Tendermint with full support for its claimed capabilities, such as action staking and Merkle proof retrieval.

For the programming framework, we implement the HSL compiler that takes HSL programs and contracts written in Solidity, Vyper, and Go as input, and produces transaction dependency graphs. We implement the multi-lang front end and the HSL front end using ANTLR [54], which parses the input HSL program and contracts, builds an intermediate representation of the HSL program, and convert the types of contract entities into our unified types. We also implement the validation component that analyzes the
intermediate representation to validate the entities, operations, and dependencies specified in the HSL program.

Our experience with the prototype implementation is that the effort for horizontally scaling HyperService to incorporate a new blockchain is lightweight: it requires no protocol change to both UIP and the blockchain itself. We simply need to add an extra parser to the multi-lang front end to support the programming language used by the blockchain (if this language is new to HyperService), and meanwhile VESes extend their visibility to this blockchain. The HyperService consortium is continuously working on on-boarding additional blockchains, both permissioned and permissionless.

5.2 Application Implementation

Besides the platform implementation, we further implement and deploy three categories of cross-chain dApps on HyperService. **Financial Derivatives.** Financial derivatives are among the mostly cited blockchain applications. However, external data feed, i.e., an oracle, is often required for financial instructions. Currently, oracles are either built atop trusted third-party providers (e.g., Oraclez [11]), or using trusted hardware enclaves [62]. HyperService, for the first time, realizes the possibility of using blockchains themselves as oracles. With the built-in decentralization and correctness guarantees of blockchains, HyperService fully avoids trusted parties while delivering genuine data feed to smart contracts. In this application sector, we implement a cross-chain cash-settled Option dApp in which options can be natively traded on different blockchains (a scaled-up version of the introductory example in § 2.3).

**Cross-Chain Asset Movement.** HyperService natively enables cross-chain asset transfers without relying on any trusted entities, such as exchanges. This primitive could power a wide range of applications, such as a global payment network that interconnects geographically distributed bank-backed consortium blockchains [9], an initial coin offering in which tokens can be sold in various cryptocurrencies, and a gaming platform where players can freely trade and redeem their valuables (in form of non-fungible tokens) across different games. In this category, we implement an asset movement dApp with hybrid operations where assets are moved among accounts and smart contracts across different blockchains.

**Federated Computing.** In a federated computing model, all participants collectively work on an umbrella task by submitting their local computation results. In the scenario where transparency and accountability are desired, blockchains are perfect platforms for persisting both the results submitted by each participant and the logic for aggregating those results. In this application category, we implement a federated voting system where delegates in different regions can submit their votes to their regional blockchains, and the logic for computing the final votes based on the regional votes is publicly visible on another blockchain.

5.3 Experiments

We ran experiments with three blockchain testnets: one private Ethereum testnet, one Tendermint-based blockchain, and the NSB. Each of those testnets is deployed on a VM instance of a public cloud on different continents. For experiment purposes, dApp clients and VES nodes can be deployed either locally or on cloud.

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<th>Financial Derivatives</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSL Compilation</td>
<td>1.1769</td>
<td>~16</td>
<td>0.2598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session Creation</td>
<td>4.2399</td>
<td>~58</td>
<td>4.1529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action/Status Staking</td>
<td>0.6754</td>
<td>~10</td>
<td>0.7295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proof Retrieval</td>
<td>1.0472</td>
<td>~15</td>
<td>1.0511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7.1104</td>
<td>6.1933</td>
<td>7.0475</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: End-to-end dApp execution latency on HyperService, with profiling breakdown. All times are in seconds.

Figure 10: The throughput of the NSB, measured as the total size of committed certificates on the NSB per second.

5.3.1 End-to-End Latency

We evaluated all three applications mentioned in § 5.2 and reported their end-to-end execution latency introduced by HyperService in Table 3. The reported latency includes HSL program compiling, dApp-VES session creation, and (batched) NSB action staking and proof retrieval during the UIP protocol exchange. All reported times include the networking latency across the global Internet. Each datapoint is the average of more than one hundred runs. We do not include the latency for actual on-chain execution since the consensus efficiency of different blockchains varies and is not controlled by HyperService. We also do not include the time for ISC insurance claims in the end-to-end latency because they can be done offline anytime before the ISC expires.

These dApps show similar latency profiling breakdown, where the session creation is the most time consuming phase because it requires handshakes between the dApp client and VES, and also includes the time for ISC deployment and initialization. The CryptoAsset dApp has a much lower HSL compilation latency since its operation only involves one smart contract, whereas the rest two dApps import three contracts written in Go, Vyper, and Solidity. In each dApp, all its NSB-related operations (e.g., action/status staking and proof retrievals) are bundled and performed in a batch for experiment purpose, even though all certificates required for ISC arbitration have been received via off-chain channels. The sizes of actions and proofs for three dApps are different since their executables contain different number of transactions.

5.3.2 NSB Throughput and HyperService Capacity

The throughput of the NSB affects aggregated dApp capacity on HyperService. In this section, we report the peak throughput of the currently implemented NSB. We stress tested the NSB by initiating up to one thousand dApp clients and VES nodes, which concurrently dispatched action and status staking to the NSB. We batched multiple certificate stakings by different clients into a single
work on HyperService whereas the failure rate of certificate staking increases, indicating these design choices are consistent with the recent blockchain verification to ensure the correctness of flow operations into operations. With those extensions, we are able to implement control-times based on the values of state variables computed from previous operations. This capacity and the TPS of most certificate and batch sizes. The results show that as the batch size increases, regardless of the certificate sizes, the NSB throughput converged to about 1000 kilobytes per second. Given any certificate size, further enlarging the batch size cannot boost the throughput, whereas the failure rate of certificate staking increases, indicating that the NSB is fully loaded.

Given the above NSB throughput, the actual dApp capacity of the HyperService platform further depends on how often the communication between dApp clients and VESes falls back to the NSB. In particular, each dApp-transaction spawns at most six NSB-transactions (five action stakings and one status staking), assuming that the off-chain channel is fully nonfunctional (zero NSB transaction if otherwise). Thus, the lower bound of the aggregate dApp capacity on HyperService, which would be reached only if all off-chain channels among dApp clients and VESes were simultaneously broken, is about \( \frac{170000}{s} \) transactions per second (TPS), where \( s \) is the (average) size (in bytes) of a certificate. This capacity and the TPS of most PoS production blockchains are of the same magnitude.

Further, considering (i) the NSB is horizontally shardable at the granularity of each underlying blockchain (§ 4.1.3) and (ii) not all transactions on an underlying blockchain are cross-chain related, we anticipate that the NSB will not become the bottleneck as HyperService scales to support more blockchains in the future.

6 DISCUSSION
In this section, we discuss several aspects that have not been thoroughly addressed in this paper, and present our vision for future work on HyperService and its impact.

6.1 Programming Framework Extension
HSL is a high-level programming language designed to write cross-chain dApps under the USM programming model. The language constructs provided by HSL allow developers to directly specify entities, operations, and dependencies in HSL programs. To ensure the determinism of operations, which is an important property for the NSB and the ISC to determine the correctness or violation of dApp executions, the language constructs do not include control-flow operations such as conditional branching, looping, and calling/returning from a procedure. Additionally, dynamic transaction generation is also not supported by HSL, since it has led to a new class of bugs known as re-entry vulnerabilities [55]. These design choices are consistent with the recent blockchain programming languages that emphasize on safety guarantees, such as Move [22] for Facebook’s Libra blockchain.

In future work, we plan to extend the design of the UIP protocol to support dynamic transaction graphs, which allows conditional execution of operations and certain degree of indeterminism of operation executions, such as repeating an operation for a specific times based on the values of state variables computed from previous operations. With those extensions, we are able to implement control-flow operations into HSL and provide both static and dynamic verification to ensure the correctness of dApps.

6.2 Cross-Shards and Cross-Worlds
HyperService is motivated by heterogeneous blockchain interoperability. Thanks to its generic design, HyperService can also enable cross-shard smart contracting and transactions for sharded blockchain platforms (e.g., OmniLedger [44] and RapidChain [60]). On the one hand, the HSL programming framework is blockchain-neutral and extensible. Thus, writing dApps that involve smart contracts and accounts on different blockchains is conceptually identical to writing dApps that operate contracts and accounts on different blockchains. In fact, given that most of those sharded blockchains are homogeneously sharded (i.e., all shards have the same format of contracts and accounts), developing and compiling cross-shard dApps using HSL are even simpler than cross-chain dApps. On the other hand, realizing UIP on sharded blockchains also requires less overhead since maintaining an NSB for all (homogeneous) shards is more lightweight than maintaining an NSB supporting heterogeneous blockchains. In fact, many sharded blockchain platforms already maintain a dedicated global blockchain as their trust anchor (e.g., the identity chain of OmniLedger [44] and the beacon chain of Harmony [2]), to which the NSB functionality can be ported.

Additionally, we envision that the fully connected Web 3.0 should also include centralized platforms (i.e., Cloud) to compensate for functionality (e.g., performing computationally intensive tasks) that is difficult to execute on-chain. We recognize that two additional capabilities, with minimal distribution of their operation models, are required from those centralized platforms to make them compatible with HyperService: (i) any public state they publish should be coupled with verifiable proofs to certify the correctness of the state (where the definition of correctness could be application-specific), and (ii) all published state should have the concept of finality. With such capabilities, dApps on HyperService can trustlessly incorporate the state published by those centralized platforms.

6.3 Interoperability Service Providers
VESes play vital roles on HyperService platform. We envision that VESes would enter the HyperService ecosystem as Cross-chain Interoperability Service Providers (CSPs) by providing required services to support cross-chain dApps, such as compiling HSL programs into transaction dependency graphs and speaking the UIP protocol. This vision is indeed strengthened by the practical architectures of production blockchains, where all peer-to-peer nodes evolve into a hierarchy of stakeholders and a number of organizations operate (without necessarily owning) most of the mining power for Proof-of-Work blockchains or and stakes for Proof-of-Stake blockchains (whether such a hierarchical architecture undermines decentralization is debatable, and beyond the scope of HyperService). Those organizations are perfectly qualified to operate as CSPs since they have good connectivity to multiple blockchains and maintain sufficient token liquidity to support insurance staking, contract invocation, and token transfers that are required in a wide range of cross-chain dApps.

CSPs (VESes) could be found via a community-driven directory (similar to Tor’s relay directories [18, 31]), which we envision to be an informal list of CSPs. Each CSP has its own operation models, including the set of reachable blockchains, service fees charged for correct dApp executions, and insurance plans to compensate
for CSP-induced dApp failures. Developers have full autonomy to select CSPs based on their dApp requirements. Since all dApp execution results are publicly verifiable, it is possible to build a CSP reputation system to provide a valuable metric for CSP selection. CSPs thus misbehave at their own risk.

Because a CSP may wish to limit its staked funds at risk in the ISC, a dApp may be too large for any single CSP. Alternatively, a dApp may span a set of blockchains such that no single CSP has reachability to all of them. In such cases, a cross-chain dApp could be co-executed by a collection of VESes. By design, HyperService allows multi-VES executions since the UIP protocol does not restrict the number of VESes or dApp clients.

We envision the industrial impact of HyperService to be the birth of a CSP-formed liquidity network interconnected by the UIP protocol, powering a wide range of cross-chain dApps.

6.4 Complete Atomicity for dApps

In the context of cross-chain applications, dApps should be treated as first-class citizens because the success or failure of any individual transaction cannot fully decide the state of a dApp. HyperService follows this design philosophy by providing security guarantees at the granularity of dApps. However, the current version of HyperService is not fully dApp-atomic since UIP is unable to revert any state update to smart contracts when a dApp terminates prematurely. We recognize this as a fundamental challenge due to the finality guarantee of blockchains.

To deliver full dApp-atomicity on HyperService, we propose the concept of stateless smart contracts where contracts are able to their load state from the blockchain before execution. As a result, even if the state persistent on block \( B_n \) for a smart contract \( C \) eventually becomes dirty due to dApp failure, subsequent dApps can still load clean state for the contract \( C \) from a block (prior to \( B_n \)) agreed by all parties. Although this design imposes additional requirements on underlying blockchains, it is practical and deliverable using “layer-two” protocols where smart contract executions could be decoupled from the consensus layer, for instance, via the usage of Trusted Execution Environment (e.g., Intel SGX [30] and Keystone [48]).

6.5 Privacy-Preserving Blockchains

The primary challenge of supporting privacy-preserving blockchains on HyperService is the lack of a generic abstraction for those systems. In particular, various designs have been proposed to enhance blockchain privacy, such as encrypting blockchain state [29], obfuscating and mixing transactions via cryptography signature [58]. As a result, none of those blockchains can be abstracted as generic programmable state machines. Therefore, our approach towards interoperating privacy-preserving blockchains will be dApp-specific, such as relying on fast zero-knowledge proofs [25] to allow dApps to certify the state extracted from those blockchains.

7 RELATED WORK

Blockchain interoperability is often considered as one of the prerequisites for the massive adoption of blockchains. The recent academic proposals have mostly focused on moving tokens between two blockchains via trustless exchange protocol, including side-chains [21, 36, 41], atomic cross-chain swaps [5, 38], and cryptocurrency-backed assets [61]. However, programmability, i.e., smart contracting across heterogeneous blockchains, is largely ignored in those protocols.

In industry, Cosmos [7] and Polkadot [12] are two notable projects that advocate blockchain interoperability. They share the similar spirit: each of them has a consensus engine to build blockchains (i.e., Tendermint [17] for Cosmos and Substrate [16] for Polkadot), and a mainchain (i.e., the Hub in Cosmos and RelayChain for Polkadot) to bridge individual blockchains. Although we do share the similar vision of “an Internet of blockchains”, we also notice two notable differences between them and HyperService. First and foremost, the cross-chain layer of Cosmos, powered by its Inter-blockchain Communication Protocol (IBC) [15], mainly focuses on preliminary network-level communications. In contrast, HyperService proposes a complete stack of designs with a unified programming framework for writing cross-chain dApps and a provably secure cryptography protocol to execute dApps. Further, at the time of writing, the most recent development of Cosmos and industry adoption are heading towards homogeneity where only Tendermint-powered blockchains are interoperable [1]. This is in fundamental contrast with HyperService where the blockchain heterogeneity is a first-class design requirement. Polkadot proceeds relatively slower than Cosmos: Substrate is still in early stage [16].

Existing blockchain platforms such as Ethereum [59] and Nebulas [10] allow developers to write contracts using new languages such as Solidity [14] and Vyper [19] or a tailored version of the existing languages such as Go, Javascript, and C++. Facebook recently released Move [22], a programming language in their blockchain platform Libra, which adopts the move semantics of Rust and C++ to prohibit copying and implicitly discarding coins and allow only move of the coins. To unify these heterogeneous programming languages, we propose HSL that has a multi-lang front end to parse those contracts and convert their types to unified types. Although there exist domain-specific languages in a variety of security-related fields that have a well-established corpus of low level algorithms, such as secure overlay networks [42, 49], network intrusions [23, 56, 57], and enterprise systems [33, 34], these languages are explicitly designed to solve their domain-specific problems, and cannot meet the needs of the unified programming framework for writing cross-chain dApps.

8 SECURITY THEOREMS

In this section, we present the main security theorems for UIP, and rigorously prove them using the UC-framework [28].

8.1 Ideal Functionality \( \mathcal{F}_{UIP} \)

We first present the cryptography abstraction of the UIP in form of an ideal functionality \( \mathcal{F}_{UIP} \). The ideal functionality articulates the correctness and security properties that HyperService wishes to attain by assuming a trusted entity. The detailed description of \( \mathcal{F}_{UIP} \) is given in Figure 11. Below we provide additional explanations.

Session Setup. Through this interface, a pair of parties \( (P_a, P_z) \) (e.g., a dApp client and a VES) requests \( \mathcal{F}_{UIP} \) to securely execute a dApp executable. They provide the executable in form of a transaction dependency graph \( G_T \), as well as the correctness arbitration code contract. As a trusted entity, \( \mathcal{F}_{UIP} \) generates keys for both
![Figure 11: The ideal functionality \( F_{\text{UIP}} \).](image)

parties, allowing \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) to sign transactions and compute certificates on their behalf. Both parties are required to stake sufficient funds, derived from the contract, into \( F_{\text{UIP}} \). \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) annotates each transaction wrapper \( T \) in \( G_T \) with its status (initialized to be unknown), its open/close timestamps (initialized to 0s), and its on-chain counterpart \( \bar{T} \) (initialized to be empty). To accurately match \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) with the real-world protocol \( \text{Prot}_{\text{UIP}} \), in Figure 11, we assume that \( P_a \) is the dApp client and \( P_z \) is the VES.

Since \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) does not impose any special requirements on the underlying blockchains, we model the ideal-world blockchain as an ideal functionality \( F_{\text{blockchain}} \) that supports two simple interfaces: (i) public ledger query and (ii) state transition triggered by transactions (where \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) imposes no constraint on both the ledger format and the consensus logic of state transitions).

**Transaction State Updates.** \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) defines a set of interfaces to accept external calls for updating transaction state. In each interface, \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) performs necessary correctness check to guarantee that the state promotion is legitimate. In all interfaces, \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) computes an annotation for the corresponding transaction state, and sends it to both parties to formally notify the actions taken by \( F_{\text{UIP}} \).

**Financial Term Execution.** Upon the expiration of \( \text{timer} \), both parties can invoke the TermExecution interface to trigger the contract code execution. The arbitration logic is also derived from decision tree mentioned in Figure 9. However, \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) decides the final state of each transaction merely using its internal state due to the assumed trustiness.

**Verbose Definition of \( F_{\text{UIP}} \).** We intentionally define \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) verbose (that is, sending many signed messages) in order to accurately match \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) to the real world protocol \( \text{Prot}_{\text{UIP}} \). For instance, in the SessionCreate interface, \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) certifies (\( G_T \), contract, sid) on behalf of both parties to simulate the result of a successful handshake between two parties in the real world. Another example is that the attestations generated in those state update interfaces are not essential to ensure correctness due to the assumed trustiness of \( F_{\text{UIP}} \). However, \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) still publishes attestations to emulate the side effects of \( \text{Prot}_{\text{UIP}} \) in the real world. As we shall see below, such emulations are crucial to prove that \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) UC-realizes \( \text{Prot}_{\text{UIP}} \).

**Correctness and Security Properties of \( F_{\text{UIP}} \).** With the assumed trustiness, it is not hard to see that \( F_{\text{UIP}} \) offers the following correctness and security properties. First, after the pre-agreed timeout, the execution either finishes correctly with all precondition and
deadline rules satisfied, or the execution fails and is financially
reverted. Second, regardless of the stage at which the execution
fails, \( F \) holds the misbehaved parties accountable for the failure.
Third, if \( F \) is modeled with bounded transaction finality
latency, \( Op \) is guaranteed to finish correctly if both parties are
honest. Finally, \( F \), by design, makes the contract public. This is
because in the real world protocol \( Prot \), the status of execution is
public both on the ISC and the NSB. We leave the support for
privacy-preserving blockchains on HyperService to future work.

8.2 Main Security Theorems

In this section, we claim the main security theorem of HyperService.
The correctness of Theorem 8.1 guarantees that \( Prot \) achieves
same security properties as \( F \).

**Theorem 8.1.** Assuming that the distributed consensus algorithms
used by relevant BNS are provably secure, the hash function is pre-
image resistant, and the digital signature is EU-CMA secure (i.e.,
existentially unforgeable under a chosen message attack), our de-
centralized protocol \( Prot \) securely UC-realizes the ideal functionality \( F \)
against a malicious adversary in the passive corruption model.

We further consider a variant of \( Prot \), referred to as \( H-Prot \),
that requires \( P_{VES} \) and \( P_{CLI} \) to only use \( P_{NSB} \) as their communica-
tion medium.

**Theorem 8.2.** With the same assumption of Theorem 8.1, the UIP
protocol variant \( H-Prot \) securely UC-realizes the ideal functionality \( F \)
against a malicious adversary in the Byzantine corruption model.

8.3 Proof Overview

We now prove our main theorems. We start with Theorem 8.1. In
the UC framework [28], the model of \( Prot \) execution is defined as
a system of machines \( \langle E, A, \pi_1, \ldots, \pi_n \rangle \) where \( E \) is called the
environment, \( A \) is the (real-world) adversary, and \( \pi_1, \ldots, \pi_n \) are
participants (referred to as parties) of \( Prot \), where each party may
execute different parts of \( Prot \). Intuitively, the environment \( E \)
represents the external system that contains other protocols, includ-
ing ones that provide inputs to, and obtain outputs from, \( Prot \).

The adversary \( A \) represents adversarial activity against the pro-
col execution, such as controlling communication channels and
sending corruption messages to parties. \( E \) and \( A \) can communi-
cate freely. The passive corruption model (used by Theorem 8.1)
enables the adversary to observe the complete internal state of
the corrupted party whereas the corrupted party is still protocol
compliant, i.e., the party executes instruction as desired. § 8.6 dis-
cusses the Byzantine corruption model, where the adversary takes
complete control of the corrupted party.

To prove that \( Prot \) UC-realizes the ideal functionality \( F \),
we need to prove that \( Prot \) UC-emulates \( F \), which is the ideal
protocol (defined below) of our ideal functionality \( F \). That is, for
any adversary \( A \), there exists an adversary (often called simulator)
\( S \) such that \( E \) cannot distinguish between the ideal world, featured
by \( (F, S) \), and the real world, featured by \( (Prot, A) \). Mathema-
tically, on any input, the probability that \( E \) outputs \( T \) after
interacting with \( (Prot, A) \) in the real world differs by at most
a negligible amount from the probability that \( E \) outputs \( T \) after
interacting with \( (F, S) \) in the ideal world.

The ideal protocol \( I_{F} \) is a wrapper around \( F \) by a set of
dummy parties that have the same interfaces as the parties of
\( Prot \) in the real world. As a result, \( E \) is able to interact with
\( I_{F} \) in the ideal world the same way it interacts with \( Prot \) in
the real world. These dummy parties simply pass received input
from \( E \) to \( F \) and relay output of \( F \) to \( E \), without implementing
any additional logic. \( F \) controls all keys of these dummy parties.
For the sake of clear presentation, we abstract the real-world par-
ticipants of \( Prot \) as five parties \( \{P_{VES}, P_{CLI}, P_{SC}, P_{NSB}, P_{BC}\} \).
The corresponding dummy party of \( P_{VES} \) in the ideal world is
denoted as \( P_{I_{VES}} \). This annotation applies for other parties.

Based on [28], to prove that \( Prot \) UC-emulates \( I_{F} \) for any
adversaries, it is sufficient to construct a simulator \( S \) just for the
dummy adversary \( A \) that simply relays messages between \( E \)
and the parties running \( Prot \). The high-level process of the proof
is that the simulator \( S \) observes the side effects of \( Prot \) in
the real world, such as attestation publication on the NSB and contract
invocation of the ISC, and then accurately emulates these effects
in the ideal world, with the help from \( F \). As a result, \( E \) cannot
distinguish the ideal and real worlds.

8.4 Construction of the Ideal Simulator \( S \)

Next, we detail the construction of \( S \) by specifying what actions \( S \)
should take upon observing instructions from \( E \). As a distinguisher,
\( E \) sends the same instructions to the ideal world dummy parities
as those sent to the real world parties.

- Upon \( E \) gives an instruction to start an inter-BN session between
  \( P_{VES} \) and \( P_{CLI} \), \( S \) emulates the \( G_T \) and contract setup (c.f., § 8.5) and
  constructs a SessionCreate call to \( F \) with parameter \( (G_T, \text{contract}, P_{CLI}^{I_{VES}}, P_{VES}^{I_{VES}}) \).
- Upon \( E \) instructs \( P_{VES}^{I_{VES}} \) to send an initialization request for a
  transaction intent \( T \), \( S \) extracts \( T \) and \( sid \) from the instruction of \( E \), and
  constructs a ReqTransInit call to \( F \) with parameter \( (T, sid, P_{VES}^{I_{VES}}) \). Other instructions in the same category are han-
dled similarly by \( S \). In particular, for instruction to InitiTrans, \( S \) calls
  ReqTransInit of \( F \); for instructions to InitiClosedTrans, \( S \) calls
  ReqTransOpen of \( F \); for instructions to OpenTrans, \( S \) calls
  ReqTransOpen of \( F \); for instructions to CloseTrans, \( S \) calls
  ReqTransClose of \( F \). \( S \) ignores instructions to Opened-
  Trans and ClosedTrans. \( S \) may also extract the \( T \) from the
  instruction, which is used by some interfaces of \( F \) to ensure the
  association between \( T \) and \( \tilde{T} \).
- Due to the asymmetry of interfaces defined by \( P_{CLI}^{I_{VES}} \) and \( P_{VES}^{I_{VES}} \), \( S \) acts slightly differently when observing instructions sent to \( P_{VES}^{I_{VES}} \).
  In particular, for instructions to InitiTrans, \( S \) calls ReqTransInit of
  \( F \); for instructions to InitiClosedTrans, \( S \) calls ReqTransOpen of
  \( F \); for instructions to OpenTrans, \( S \) calls ReqTransOpen of
  \( F \). The rest handlings are the same as those of \( P_{VES}^{I_{VES}} \).
- Upon \( E \) instructs \( P_{VES}^{I_{VES}} \) to invoke the smart contract, \( S \) locally
evaluates the contract and the instruction \( F \) published to the updated
  contract to \( F^{I_{ISC}} \).

8.5 Indistinguishability of Real and Ideal Worlds

To prove indistinguishability of the real and ideal worlds from
the perspective of \( E \), we will go through a sequence of hybrid
arguments, where each argument is a hybrid construction of $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$, a subset of dummy parties of $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$, and a subset of real-world parties of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$, except that the first argument that is $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$ without any ideal parties and the last argument is $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ without any real-world parties. We prove that $E$ cannot distinguish any two consecutive hybrid arguments. Then based on the transitivity of protocol emulation [28], we prove that the first argument (i.e., $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$) UC-emulates the last argument (i.e., $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$).

Real World. We start with the real world $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$ with a dummy adversary that simply sends messages to and from $E$.

**Hybrid A1.** Hybrid A1 is the same as the real world, except that the $(\mathcal{P}_{\text{VES}}, \mathcal{P}_{\text{CLI}})$ pair is replaced by the dummy $(\mathcal{P}^{I}_{\text{VES}}, \mathcal{T}^{I}_{\text{CLI}})$ pair. Upon observing an instruction from $E$ to execute some dApp executables $g_T$, $S$ calls the CreateContract interface of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{ISC}}$ (living in the Hybrid A1) to obtain the contract code $\mathcal{G}_{\text{contract}}$. Upon contract is received, $S$ calls the SessionCreate interface of $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ with parameter $(g_T, \mathcal{G}_{\text{contract}}, \mathcal{P}^{I}_{\text{VES}}, \mathcal{T}^{I}_{\text{CLI}})$, which will output a certificate to both dummy parties to emulate the handshake result between $\mathcal{P}_{\text{VES}}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{CLI}}$ in the real world. $S$ also deploys contract on $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$ or $\mathcal{P}_{\text{BC}}$ in the Hybrid A1. Finally, $S$ stakes required funds into $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ to unlock its execution.

Upon observing an instruction from $E$ (sent to either dummy party) to execute a transaction in $g_T$, based on its construction in § 8.4, $S$ has enough information to construct a call to $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ with a proper interface and parameters. If the call generates a certificate Cert, $S$ retrieves Cert to emulate the PoA staking in the real world. In particular, if in the real world, $\mathcal{P}_{\text{VES}}$ (and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{CLI}}$) publishes a certificate on $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$ after receiving the same instruction from $E$, then $S$ publishes the corresponding certificate on $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$ in the Hybrid A1 as well. Otherwise, $S$ skips the publishing. Later, $S$ retrieves (and stores) the Merkle proof from $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$, and then instructs $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ to output the proof to the dummy party which, from the point view of $E$, should be the publisher of Cert.

Upon observing an instruction from $E$ (to either dummy party) to invoke the smart contract, $S$ uses its saved certificates or Merkle proofs to invoke $\mathcal{P}_{\text{ISC}}$ in the Hybrid A1 accordingly.

Note that in the real world, the execution of $g_T$ is automatic in the sense that $g_T$ can continuously proceed even without additional instructions from $E$ after successful setup. In the Hybrid A1, although $\mathcal{P}_{\text{VES}}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{CLI}}$ are replaced by dummy parties, $S$, with fully knowledge of $g_T$ is still able to drive the execution of $g_T$ so that from $E$’s perspective, $g_T$ is executed automatically. Further, since $\mathcal{P}_{\text{ISC}}$ still lives in the Hybrid A1, $S$ should not trigger the TermExecution interface of $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ to avoid double execution on the same contract terms. $S$ can still reclaim its funds staked in $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ via “backdoor” channels since $S$ and $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ are allowed to communicate freely under the UC framework.

**Fact 1.** With the aforementioned construction of $S$ and $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$, it is immediately clear that the outputs of both dummy parties in the Hybrid A1 are exactly the same as the outputs of the corresponding actual parties in the real world, and all side effects in the real world are accurately emulated by $S$ in the Hybrid A1. Thus, $E$ cannot distinguish with the real world and the Hybrid A1.

**Hybrid A2.** Hybrid A2 is the same as the Hybrid A1, expect that $\mathcal{P}_{\text{ISC}}$ is further replaced by the dummy $\mathcal{P}^{I}_{\text{ISC}}$. As a result, $S$ is required to resume the responsibility of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{ISC}}$ in the Hybrid A2.

In particular, when observing an instruction to execute a $g_T$, $S$ computes the arbitration code contract, and then instructs $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ to publish the contract on $\mathcal{P}_{\text{ISC}}$, which is observable by $E$. For any instruction to invoke contract, $S$ locally executes contract with the input and then publishes the updated contract to $\mathcal{P}^{I}_{\text{ISC}}$ via $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$. Finally, upon the predefined contract timeout, $S$ calls the TermExecution interface of $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ with parameter (sid, $\mathcal{P}^{I}_{\text{VES}}$) or (sid, $\mathcal{T}^{I}_{\text{CLI}}$) to execute the contract, which emulates the arbitration performed by $\mathcal{P}_{\text{ISC}}$ in the Hybrid A1.

It is immediately clear that with the help of $S$ and $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$, the output of the dummy $\mathcal{P}^{I}_{\text{ISC}}$ and all effects in the Hybrid A2 are exactly the same as those in the Hybrid A1. Thus, $E$ cannot distinguish these two worlds.

**Hybrid A3.** Hybrid A3 is the same as the Hybrid A2, expect that $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$ is further replaced by the dummy $\mathcal{P}^{I}_{\text{NSB}}$. Since the structure of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$ and messages sent to $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$ are public, simulating its functionality by $S$ is trivial. Therefore, Hybrid A3 is identically distributed as Hybrid A2 from the view of $E$.

**Hybrid A4, i.e., the ideal world.** Hybrid A4 is the same as the Hybrid A3, expect that $\mathcal{P}_{\text{BC}}$ (the last real-world party) is further replaced by the dummy $\mathcal{P}^{I}_{\text{BC}}$. Thus, the Hybrid A4 is essentially $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$. Since the functionality of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{BC}}$ is a strict subset of that of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$, simulating $\mathcal{P}_{\text{BC}}$ by $S$ is straightforward. Therefore, $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ is indistinguishable with the Hybrid A3 from $E$’s perspective.

Then given the transitivity of protocol emulation, we show that $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$ UC-emulates $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$, and therefore prove that $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$ UC-emulates $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$. Throughout the simulation, we maintain a key invariant: $S$ and $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ together can always accurately simulate the desired outputs and side effects on all (dummy and real) parties in all Hybrid worlds. Thus, from $E$’s view, the indistinguishability between the real and ideal worlds naturally follows.

### 8.6 Byzantine Corruption Model

Theorem 8.1 considers the passive corruption model. In this section, we discuss the more general Byzantine corruption model for $\mathcal{P}_{\text{VES}}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{CLI}}$ (by assumption of this paper, blockchains and smart contracts are trusted for correctness). Previously, we construct $S$ and $\mathcal{T}_{\text{UIP}}$ accurately to match the desired execution of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$. However, if one party is Byzantine corrupted, the party behaves arbitrarily. As a result, a Byzantine-corrupted party may send conflicting messages to off-chain channels and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$. Note that for any transaction state, $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$ always processes the first received attestation (either a certificate from channels or Merkle proof from the $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$) and effectively ignores the other one. The adversary could then inject message inconsistency to make the protocol execution favors one type of attestations over the other. This makes it impossible for $S$ to always accurately emulate its behaviors, resulting in difference between the ideal world and the real world from $E$’s view.

To incorporate the Byzantine corruption model into our security analysis, we consider a variant of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}$, referred to as $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{P}_{\text{UIP}}}$, that requires $\mathcal{P}_{\text{VES}}$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{CLI}}$ to only use $\mathcal{P}_{\text{NSB}}$ as the communication medium. Thus, the full granularity of protocol execution is guaranteed to be public and unique, allowing $S$ to emulate whatever actions a (corrupted) part may take in the real world. Therefore, it is not hard to conclude the Theorem 8.2.
9 CONCLUSION
In this paper, we presented HyperService, the first platform that offers interoperability and programmability across heterogeneous blockchains. HyperService is powered by two innovative designs: HSL, a programming framework for writing cross-chain dApps by unifying smart contracts written in different languages, and UIP, the universal blockchain interoperability protocol designed to securely realize the complex operations defined in these dApps on blockchains. We implemented a HyperService prototype in approximately 35,000 lines of code to demonstrate its practicality, and ran experiments on the prototype to report the end-to-end execution latency for dApps, as well as the aggregate platform throughput.

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