

# Privacy-Preserving Energy Trade using Double Auction in Blockchain Offline Channels

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**Abstract.** Blockchain is a promising tool to implement peer-to-peer energy trade algorithms because it lowers the cost of electricity by eliminating 3rd parties such as the utility companies from energy trade and by creating a secure trade platform. However, the state of the art blockchain-based peer to peer energy trade solutions have privacy and scalability problems. In this paper, we proposed a novel method to execute double auction-based peer to peer energy trade in blockchain offline channels to enhance security, privacy and scalability of peer to peer energy trade. We prove that the proposed decentralised double auction is secure, privacy-preserving and more efficient as McAfee’s double auction.

**Keywords:** Peer to peer energy trade · Blockchains · Blockchain Offline Channels · Bitcoin Lightning network · Double Auction

## 1 Introduction

Blockchains are recently used to implement peer to peer energy trade algorithms. Blockchain can reduce the cost of electricity by removing utility companies from the local electricity trade. Also, it provides a secure trade platform where parties who do not trust each other can trade electricity. There are many game-theoretic formulations of electricity trade, such as trade models based on cooperative games[10], non-cooperative games, and auctions[12]. Double auction is a popular trade model that allows the sellers and the buyers to choose their desired cost and price for electricity trade. McAfee’s double auction[6] is widely used in the energy trade. In this trade model, the seller sets its asking price (minimum price at which it will sell), and the buyer sets its reservation price (maximum price that it will pay). The auction mechanism finds a price that satisfies both the seller and the buyer. The auction mechanism also needs to satisfy few economic properties such as individual rationality, budget-balancing, truth-fullness, and economic efficiency. McAfee’s double auction is known to be individually rational and truthful. But it is not budget-balanced and economically efficient.

Double auction-based electricity trade algorithms implement with blockchains [12] have privacy and scalability problems. In such an auction procedure, the producers (who may produce and consume electricity) have to inform the auctioneer about its asking price and reservation price. It may reveal private information

about the prosumers. For example, if a prosumer wants to sell electricity from 6 PM to 8 PM then, it may indicate that the prosumer may not be in his/her house during this time. Besides the physical security problem from such information, an adversary may use such information to alter electricity prices. For example, if the adversary is a utility company and it finds that its several customers who want to use electricity from peer to peer energy trade for a specific time during a day, i.e., they will not buy electricity from the grid at the price offered by the utility company at these times, then the adversary may alter price of electricity from the grid to make peer to peer energy trade economically insignificant. Hence, in this privacy-preservation problem, an adversary is the entity who wants to reveal such trade patterns of the prosumers. An adversary may control (via cyberattack) a centralised auctioneer to execute such a privacy disruption attack.

Additionally, the current blockchain implementation of double auction-based energy trade may have a scalability problem. Public blockchains have scalability problems. There are double auction-based energy trade solutions that use public blockchains. Scalability problems may prevent real-time execution of energy trade operations. For example, in the Bitcoin network it may take 10 minutes to find a new block, this means it may take up to 10 minutes to record a transaction in the blockchain. However, electricity trade windows may be as short as 5 minutes. Thus short trade operations may not be executed via public blockchains.

Further, the short window electricity trade has a very low monetary value. If blockchain transactions are created for such trade decisions, transaction fees may be too low to attract miners. Increasing the fees may increase the price for electricity in peer to peer energy trade and may defeat the purpose of the local electricity trade.

Also, blockchains (public blockchains) have a high environmental impact. It is estimated that Bitcoin has annual electricity consumption adds up to 45.8 TWh and produces 36.95 megatons of  $CO_2$  annually. Thus the creation of blockchain transactions may increase the carbon footprint of the blockchain-based electricity trade. Hence environment-friendly energy trade should minimise the number of transactions to be created to execute the trade operation.

In this paper, we mitigate these problems with public blockchain-based electricity trade using double auction. We proposed to use blockchain-offline channels to execute the double auction procedure. Offline channels allow secure transactions without immediately updating the blockchains. It significantly reduces the number of transactions needed to execute energy trade operations. Our main contributions are as follows: (1) We present a double auction-based energy trade algorithm using offline channels. (2) We prove that the proposed auction mechanism is privacy-preserving. (3) We prove that the proposed double auction is secure as it prevents double spending of units of electricity to be sold. (3) We show that the proposed double auction is more efficient than McAfee's double auction[6].

The paper is organised as follows: in section 2 we discuss related literature, in section 3 we define the auction problem, in section 4 we discuss the offline

channel-based double auction for energy trade, in section 5 we discuss economic properties of the auction, in section 6 we present experimental evaluation on efficiency of the proposed energy trade, and we conclude the paper in section 7.

## 2 Related Literature

Blockchains are recently used to implement trade algorithms for peer to peer energy trade. In [10] authors have used coalitional game theory in peer to peer energy trade which also includes electric vehicles. In [11, 14] the authors used coalitional game theory to model blockchain-based energy trade. Double auction is a popular trade mechanism for peer to peer energy trade. In [12] the authors used double auction for peer to peer energy trade using blockchains. In [2] the authors used continuous double auction for peer to peer energy trade. In this paper, we investigated double auction-based energy trade. The Bitcoin lightning network was proposed in [8] which allows peers to create and transfer funds among them without frequently updating the blockchain. Similar networks are proposed for Ethereum [1] and credit networks [4]. Blockchain is a suitable platform for peer to peer energy trade. In [3] authors have analysed the suitability of blockchain network in terms of network size, communication delay, etc on recording transactions for the energy trade. In [13], the authors used blockchain offline channels to implement a cooperative game-based peer to peer energy trade.

In this paper we used proof of work-based blockchains. Proof of work-based blockchains was proposed in [7]. There are several variations of blockchains in terms of consensus protocols. Offline channels for Bitcoin, i.e., Bitcoin Lightning network was proposed in [8] which allows peers to create and transfer funds among them without frequently updating the blockchain. Similar networks were proposed for Ethereum [1] and credit networks [5]. [5, 9] proposed a landmark-based routing protocol for fund transfer in a credit network. We advance the state of the art in double auction-based energy trade as follows: (1) We proposed a privacy-preserving double auction which prevents an adversary from identifying the trading parties. (2) We proposed to use blockchain offline channels which allows us to build a high scale double auction protocol.

## 3 Energy trade problem

A double auction for peer to peer energy trade can be described as follows:

**Definition 1.** *The double auction for the trade window  $t_i$  to  $t_{i+1}$  is as follows:*

- *A be a distinguished entity acting as the auctioneer. All prosumers know A and have a secure communication method with A.*
- *Asking prices:  $\{P_{i-\epsilon}^x\}$  be the set of asking prices of the sellers received by the auctioneer A at most  $\epsilon$  time before time instance  $t_i$  and not after  $t_i$ .  $\{p_{i-\epsilon}^x\}$  be amount of electricity a prosumer wants to sell for the time duration  $t_i$  to  $t_{i+1}$ .*

Table 1: Notations used to model the energy trade problem.

$\{p_i\}$	A set of $n$ prosumers(who may buy and (or) sell electricity from each other.) A prosumer may be a house with renewable energy generator such as asolar panel.
$\{t_i\}$	discrete time instances $dt$ time apart.
$D_i^j$ and $S_i^j$	Energy demand and energy supply (through its own energy generators, i.e., solar panels) of the prosumer $p_i$ at time $t_j$ until time $t_{j+1}$ or for time duration $dt$ . The energy requirement at $p_i$ at time $t_j$ is $E_i^j = D_i^j - S_i^j$ . A positive value of $E_i^j$ means prosumer $p_i$ has surplus energy (i.e., it is generating more than its own consumption) and a negative value of $E_i^j$ will mean the prosumer has an energy deficiency for next $dt$ time duration.
$d^{i,j}$	the distance between prosumer $p_i$ and $p_j$ w.r.t the distribution lines.

- *Bids*:  $\{Q_{i-\epsilon}^x\}$  be the set of bids of the sellers received by the auctioneer  $A$  at most  $\epsilon$  time before time instance  $t_i$  and not after  $t_i$ .  $\{q_{i-\epsilon}^x\}$  be amount of electricity a prosumer wants to buy for the time duration  $t_i$  to  $t_{i+1}$ .
- *Outcomes*: A set of messages to the prosumers  $(W_i^x, C_i^x)$  such that  $W_i^x$  is the amount of electricity  $x$  will buy or sell (i.e., they will be paid or receive fund for only this amount of electricity) at the price or cost  $C_i^x$ .  $W_i^x$  is positive means  $p_x$  will sell  $W_i^x$  electricity (in kWh) and it will receive fund  $C_i^x$  per unit of electricity (kWh).  $W_i^x$  is negative means  $p_x$  will buy  $W_i^x$  electricity (in kWh) and it will lose fund  $C_i^x$  per unit of electricity (kWh).

The economic characterisation of a double auction are as follows:

- *Individual rationality*: No prosumer should pay more than its bid, no prosumer should get less than its asking price, no prosumer will trade without participating in the auction.
- *Balanced Budget*: The auctioneer  $A$  will collect fund from prosumers who wants to buy and it will pay the prosumers who wants to sell. Using the outcome  $(W_i^x, C_i^x)$ , we can calculate the fund at the auctioneer as  $B^i = \sum_{x \in n: W_i^x > 0} W_i^x \times C_i^x + \sum_{x \in n: W_i^x < 0} W_i^x \times C_i^x$ . We will say the double auction is strong budget-balanced if  $B^i = 0$  and we will say the double auction weak budget-balanced if  $B^i > 0$ .
- *Truthfulness*: We will say a double auction is Nash equilibrium incentive compatible if it is a Nash equilibrium for the prosumers to report true bid or asking price.
- *Economic efficiency*: We will define economic efficiency in terms of amount of electricity can be traded using the auction. It can be defined as:

$$EE^i = \left( \sum_{x \in N} p_i^x - \sum_{x \in N: W_i^x > 0} W_i^x \right) + \left( \sum_{x \in N} q_i^x + \sum_{x \in N: W_i^x < 0} W_i^x \right) \quad (1)$$

$EE^i$  is the amount summation of the electricity which could not be sold by the auction and the amount of electricity that can not be bought from the double auction.

Further, we can characterise the double auction with privacy-preservation properties. An adversary in a double auction wants to know the asking price, bids, and outcome of a double auction. We assume that the adversary can control a fraction of nodes of the blockchain network which is computing the double auction procedure.

## 4 Energy Trade with Decentralised Double Auction

Briefly, the auction procedure is as follows: (1) There are two types of nodes in the offline channel network, one is the set prosumers, and another is the set of nodes controlled by the DSOs (any of these nodes can be the auctioneer). (2) Each prosumer randomly chooses an auctioneer node to buy or sell electricity on its behalf. (3) The chosen auctioneer can either find a matching prosumer who also wants to buy or sell via it. If there is no such prosumer, then another auctioneer may buy or sell electricity from it. (4) We designed a protocol that allows each auctioneer to buy electricity from other prosumers with the assurance that if it cannot sell the electricity then it can sell it to either another auctioneer or the first prosumer.

### 4.1 Unidirectional Offline Channel

Blockchain offline channels [8] uses multi-signature addresses to open an offline channel among peers of the blockchain. This offline channel[8] is bidirectional and potentially infinite, i.e., it can execute the infinite number of transfers between two peers provided they do not close the channel and each of them has sufficient funds. We construct an offline channel for proof of work-based public blockchain with the following properties: (1) We construct a uni-directional channel between two peers, i.e., only one peer can send funds to another peer of this channel. (2) We construct a uni-directional channel which can be used for a finite number of transfers from a designated peer to another peer.

The procedure for creating the uni-directional channel from  $A$  to  $B$  ( $A$  transfers token to  $B$ ) is as follows: Let  $A$  and  $B$  are two peers of the channel network  $H$ .  $M_{A,B}$  is a multi-signature address between  $A$  and  $B$ . This is a unidirectional channel from  $A$  to  $B$ .

1.  $A$  creates a set of  $k$  ( $k$  is a positive even integer) random strings  $S_A^1, \dots, S_A^k$ . Using these random strings  $A$  creates a set of Hashes  $H_H^1 = H(S_B^1), H_B^2 = H(S_B^1) \dots, H_B^k = H(S_B^k)$  where  $H$  is Hash function (using SHA256).  $A$  creates a Merkle tree order  $\lambda$  using these Hashes. Thus there are  $k$  leaf nodes and  $k - 1$  non-leaf nodes of this Merkle tree. We denote the non-leaf nodes as  $H_A^1, \dots, H^{(k-1)}_A$ .
2.  $B$  creates a set of  $k$  random strings  $S^1, \dots, S^k$  and corresponding Hashes  $H_B^1, \dots, H_B^k$ .
3.  $A$  sends the Merkle tree to  $B$  and  $B$  sends the set of Hashes  $H_B^1, \dots, H_B^k$  to  $A$ .

4.  $A$  sends a Hashed time-locked contract  $HTLC_A^1$  to  $B$  as follows:
  - (a) From the multi-signature address  $M_{A,B}$ , 1 token will be given to  $A$  after time  $T$  if  $B$  does not claim these tokens before time  $T$  by producing the key to  $H_A^1$  and 0 token will be given to  $A$  if it can produce the key to  $H_B^1$ .
  - (b)  $A$  sends  $HTLC_A^1$  to  $B$ .
5. Now,  $A$  sends 1 token to  $M_{A,B}$ .  $A$  includes the Merkle tree and  $H_B^1, \dots, H_B^k$  in this transaction. This records the Merkle tree and  $H_B^1, \dots, H_B^k$  in the blockchain and any other peer can verify the existence of these Hashes by checking transactions of the public blockchain. Also, at this stage,  $A$ 's funds are safe as it can get the tokens from  $M_{A,B}$  after time  $T$  as  $B$  does not know  $H_A^1$ .
6. Next to send another  $(1/k)$  tokens to  $B$ ,  $A$  sends  $S_A^1$  to  $B$  and  $B$  sends  $H_B^1$  to  $A$ . Then  $A$  forms the following HTLC:
  - (a) From the multi-signature address  $M_{A,B}$ ,  $1 - 1/k$  token will be given to  $A$  after time  $T$  if  $B$  does not claim these tokens before time  $T$  by producing the key to  $H_A^2$  and  $1/k$  token will be given to  $A$  if it can produce the key to  $H_B^2$ .
  - (b)  $A$  sends  $HTLC_A^2$  to  $B$ .
7. This process continues until all keys of the Hashes of non-leaf nodes are revealed by  $A$ .

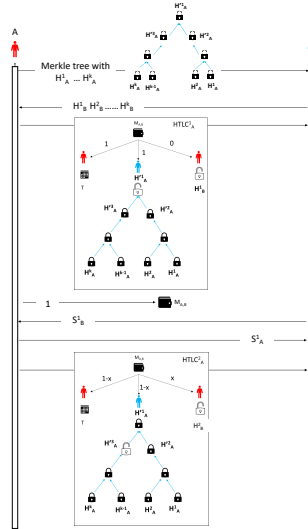


Fig. 1: Procedure of creating unidirectional offline channels.

In this model of the unidirectional channel,  $A$  is sequentially releasing the keys of the Merkle tree of the HTLCs. Its fund in this channel is decreasing with

time. It can not prevent  $B$  from obtaining the tokens as only  $B$  can publish the HTLCs.  $B$  will publish the HTLC where it gets the maximum value. A path-based fund transfer (PBT) is possible in this uni-directional channel network along paths in the channel network. For example, three nodes  $p_x, p_y, p_z$  can facilitate token transfer from  $p_x$  to  $p_z$  as follows:

1.  $p_z$  will create a lock  $H_z$  and inform  $p_x$  about  $H_z$ .
2. A sequence of two HTLCs will be created. The first HTLC will transfer fund of 1 token from  $p_x$  to  $p_y$  if  $p_y$  can present the key to  $H_z$  before time 10 seconds. The second HTLC will transfer fund of 1 token from  $p_y$  to  $p_z$  if  $p_z$  can present the key to  $H_z$  before time 8 seconds.
3.  $p_z$  will initiate the execution of these HTLCs by revealing key to  $H_z$  to  $p_y$ . And,  $p_y$  will use the same key to take 1 token from  $p_x$ .

#### 4.2 Double auction using offline channels

We will a blockchain network with  $m > n$  peers consisting of prosumers, DSOs, and miners. We assume that the blockchain network uses Bitcoin-like proof of work-based blockchains and there is an offline channel network using a uni-directional network as described in the previous section. The blockchain network will consist of a set of distinguished and recognised (possibly the miners of the blockchain network) as the auctioneers. We denote these peers as the set  $\{d_i\}$ . A prosumer may establish a uni-directional channel with a subset of auctioneers. Auctioneers may establish a uni-directional channel among themselves. We will denote the channel network as a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$  where  $V$  is the peers of the channel network and  $E$  is the channels.  $W(E)$  will denote channel balances, i.e.,  $W(p_i, p_j)$  is the amount of fund  $p_i$  can send to  $p_j$  using the channel  $p_i \rightarrow p_j$ . The blockchain network will also consist of a set of nodes  $\{D_i\}$  representing the DSOs of the electricity management networks. They are regulators and their objective is to ensure the integrity of the energy trade and security of the electricity grid. They need to ensure that one unit of electricity to be sold to only one prosumer asking for one unit of electricity.

**Asking Price and Bids:** The channel from the prosumer  $p_i$  to the auctioneer node  $d_j$  will be used for payment for electricity to be used by  $p_i$ . The channel to the prosumer  $p_i$  from the auctioneer node  $d_j$  will be used to pay  $p_i$  for its surplus electricity to be sold to other prosumers. The bid and asking price announcement process is shown in Fig. 2(a) and it is as follows:

1. A prosumer can submit its bid to any auctioneer node (with whom it has a offline channel) by creating a HTLC as follows:
  - (a) Let  $p_a$  wants to submit a bid to  $d_1$ . The HTLC will state that  $p_a$  will pay  $d_1$  if  $d_1$  can prove that the offered electricity is unique as it will not be sold to another prosumer.
2. Let  $p_x$  wants to sell electricity it can submit its asking price as follows:

- (a)  $p_x$  contacts a DSO node  $D_1$  for a token to be used as a unique identity to its offer to sell electricity for the next trade window (if  $p_x$  asks it at time  $t_i$  then its trade window is from  $t_i$  to  $t_i + dt$ ).  $D_1$  will inform  $p_x$  about a set of the locks  $H_{D1}, H_{D2}, H_{D3}, H_{D4}$  (number of such locks is equal to the total number of auctioneer + 1) to be used to uniquely identify  $p_x$ 's asking price for the trade window from  $t_i$  to  $t_i + dt$ .
- (b)  $D_1$  will check with all DSO nodes if  $p_x$  has applied for another such identifier at the same or overlapping trade window. In such a case  $D_1$  will not issue the unique offer identifier to  $p_x$ .
- (c) We assume that all prosumers are permission-ed, as their identity, location, smart-meter identification numbers are verified by the DSO nodes. This means prosumers can not create a false identity to participate in this trade with multiple identities.
- (d) Next,  $p_x$  will create a random path among all auctioneer nodes and inform all of them about  $H_{D1}$ .
- (e) All auctioneer node will inform  $p_x$  about the Hash in the Merkle tree for the unidirectional channel between pairs of auctioneer nodes according to the path among the auctioneer node created by  $p_x$  which can transfer fund equal to the asking price of  $p_x$ . As shown in Fig. 2(a) such Hashes are  $H_1, H_2, H_3$ , and  $H_4$ .
- (f) Now,  $p_x$  will facilitate the creation of sequence HTLCs from itself to the auctioneer nodes and finally to itself using the Hashes of the Merkle tree of the channel among the auctioneers. As shown in Fig. 2(a), first HTLC states that  $d_1$  will give  $p_x$  .1 token if  $p_x$  can produce key to  $H_1$ . The second HTLC states that  $d_2$  will given  $d_1$  .1 token if  $d_1$  can reveal  $H_2$  and  $H_{D1}, H_{D2}$  before time 8. And so on until  $p_x$  gives  $d_3$  .1 tokens before time 10 for keys to all hashes  $H_4$ , and  $H_{D1}, H_{D1}, H_{D2}, H_{D3}, H_{D4}$ . The time mentioned in these HTLCs are just examples, in practice, these times will be few seconds but constantly increasing.
- (g) After creating these HTLCs,  $d_2$  will reveal key to  $H_2$  to  $p_x$ , and  $d_3$  will reveal key to  $H_3$  to  $p_x$ .
- (h) Next,  $p_x$  will reveal key to  $H_2$  to  $d_1$ , key to  $H_3$  to  $d_2$ , and key to  $H_4$  to  $d_3$ .
- (i) Now, the auctioneer  $d_1$  will buy the electricity from  $p_x$  as follows:  $d_1$  reveals the key of  $H_1$  to  $p_x$  as it purchases the surplus electricity from  $p_x$ .  $d_1$  can either sell the electricity to any other prosumer who has submitted a bid to  $d_1$  or sell to  $d_2$  if there is no such prosumer.
- (j) Similarly,  $d_2$  can purchase the electricity it from  $d_1$  and may sell it to any prosumer who had submitted a bid to  $d_2$  or sell it to  $d_3$  otherwise. This process can continue to  $p_x$ . This means an auctioneer node can always purchase electricity from another auctioneer or a prosumer as it can always resale it.
- (k) Thus, using the above protocol  $p_x$  can submit asking prices to the auctioneer. Its asking price will be evaluated by the auctioneer in a random sequence chosen by  $p_x$ . Any rational auctioneer, say  $d_1$  may be able to sell this electricity from  $p_x$  to another prosumer such as  $p_a$  if bid of  $p_a$



is more or equal to the asking price of  $p_x$ . Otherwise it will resale the electricity to another auctioneer  $d_2$ .

- (1) It is possible that the asking price  $p_x$  is more than any other bid submitted by other prosumers. In this case, no rational auctioneer will be able to sell electricity from  $p_x$  and initial fund given to  $p_x$  will be taken from  $p_x$  by  $d_3$ . Thus if it is not possible to sell electricity from  $p_x$  then  $p_x$  does not get paid.

**Trade uniqueness:** However, in the given protocol it may be possible to double-spend the electricity as follows:

1. It is possible that  $d_1$  finds a prosumer  $p_a$  whose bid is more than the asking price of  $p_x$ .
2.  $d_1$  will sell electricity from  $p_x$  to  $p_a$  and also, resale the electricity to the next auctioneer  $d_2$ . Thus  $d_1$  will be able to sell the electricity at least twice.
3. All such auctioneer may do the same and resale the electricity multiple times.

Thus it is necessary to maintain uniqueness of the electricity trade. We allow the prosumer to trade a uniform amount of electricity per its asking price and bid. We solve the uniqueness problem of electricity trade as follows:

1. As shown in Fig. 2(b), before submitting the bid,  $p_x$  needs to collect a unique offer identifier from a DSO node  $D_1$ . Let  $D_1$  inform  $p_x$  about the unique offer identifiers  $H_{D1}, H_{D2}, H_{D3}, H_{D4}$ .
2.  $p_x$  will inform all auctioneer about this unique offer identifier.
3. After forming the HTLCs for asking prices, an auctioneer  $d_1$  may find a prosumer  $p_a$  whose bid is more than the asking price of  $d_1$ .
4.  $p_a$  will pay  $d_1$  if  $d_1$  can prove uniqueness of the trade offer.
5.  $d_1$  will inform  $p_a$  that unique offer identifier is  $H_{D1}$  and it is issued by the DSO node  $D_1$ .
6.  $p_a$  can create and execute a PBT from  $p_a$  to  $D_1$  via  $d_1$  with lock  $H_{D1}$ . In such a transfer  $D_1$  will execute the PBT by revealing the key to  $H_D$ . Key to  $H_{D1}$  will eventually reach  $p_a$  and  $d_1$  after successful execution of the PBT.
7. If such PBT is unsuccessful then it will prove that the proposed trade is not unique and  $p_a$  will not  $d_1$ .
8. Hence if  $d_1$  will not be able to sell electricity from  $p_x$  multiple times.

## 5 Analysis

**Theorem 1.** *If a prosumer  $p_x$  trades electricity with another prosumer  $p_a$  then an adversary may not know the trade between  $p_x$  and  $p_a$  unless the adversary controls all parties in the path from  $p_x$  to  $p_a$ . For example, such a path will include  $p_x \rightarrow d_1 \rightarrow p_a$ .*

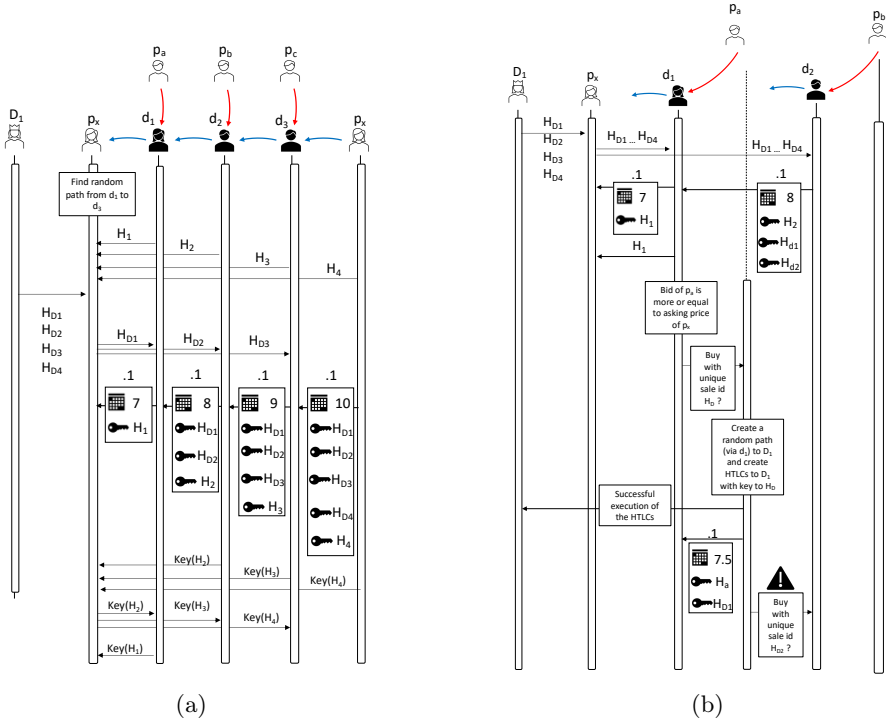


Fig. 2: (a) Double auction procedure: Sequence of key distribution and HTLC formation, (b) Double auction procedure: Procedure to ensure uniqueness of a trade.

*Proof.* Note that, submission of bids and asking prices are executed via exchange of HTLCs. For example, as shown in Fig. 2(a),  $p_x$  will receive an updated HTLC from  $d_1$  as it submits its asking price to  $d_1$ . Similarly,  $d_1$  will receive an updated HTLC from  $p_a$  as  $p_a$  submits a bid to  $d_1$ . The updated HTLCs are not visible by other parties and hence the adversary needs to control all entities in a path between two parties who are trading electricity.

**Theorem 2.** *It is not possible to double-spend the electricity in the proposed double auction protocol.*

*Proof.* As discussed in the previous section, a prosumer has to collect a unique offer identifier from a DSO node before it can submit its asking price. DSO nodes want to secure the electricity grid, and hence they will not allow multiple offer identifiers to the same prosumer for overlapping trade window. This is because multiple prosumers may consume electricity simultaneously if there is a double-spending of electricity offered by a prosumer. This will imbalance the electricity grid. Further, as mentioned before, prosumers are permission-ed nodes, i.e., DSO will check their location and identity to ensure that each prosumer has only one node in the blockchain. Thus a prosumer can't use multiple identities to sell the same unit of electricity. Further, before buying electricity a prosumer will seek proof of uniqueness from the DSO using the offer identifier provided by the auctioneer. The DSO node will reveal the key to such an offer identifier. For example, (Fig. 2(b))  $p_a$  may verify offer identifier  $H_{D_1}$  by creating a PBT from  $p_a$  to the DSO node  $D_1$  with the lock  $H_{D_1}$ .  $D_1$  will reveal the key to this Hash to  $p_a$  and  $p_a$  will use it to execute a PBT to  $D_1$ . If  $D_1$  has already revealed the key to  $H_{D_1}$  then it will not participate in such a PBT, and failure of this PBT will cause  $p_a$  not to buy electricity from  $d_1$ . Further, if  $d_1$  tries to resale electricity to another auctioneer  $d_2$  then  $p_b$  (who had submitted the bid to  $d_2$ ) will check if the trade offer is unique by creating a PBT to the DSO node  $D_1$ . Again  $D_1$  can ensure offer uniqueness. And,  $p_b$  will not buy if the offer is not unique. Hence  $D_2$  will not buy the electricity from  $D_1$  as it can not resale the electricity.

**Theorem 3.** *The proposed auction is individually rational, weakly budget balanced, and have the same economic efficiency compared with McAfee's double auction[6].*

*Proof.* The proposed auction is individually rational because

1. a prosumer does not pay more than its bid,
2. a prosumer does not receive less than its asking price,
3. and, if the surplus electricity of a prosumer can not be sold by the auction then the prosumer does not get paid.

(1) and (2) hold because a rational auctioneer  $d_1$  will only buy electricity from  $p_x$  if it can sell it to another prosumer  $p_a$  whose bid is higher than the asking price of  $p_x$ . Otherwise, the auctioneer will lose funds. (3) holds because using the set of HTLCs as shown in Fig. 2(a), if electricity from  $p_x$  can not be sold then although  $p_x$  initially gets paid by  $d_1$  but  $p_x$  pays back the fund to  $d_3$ .

The proposed double auction is weakly budget-balanced as the auctioneer will only pay the prosumer such as  $p_x$  if it can sell electricity from  $p_x$  at the price at least equal to the asking price of  $p_x$ .

The proposed double auction has at least the same economic efficiency as McAfee’s double auction because the asking price of  $p_x$  is sequentially compared with all bids and it is matched (i.e., corresponding electricity is sold) as soon as there is a bid more than asking price of  $p_x$ . Any asking price which is matched with a bid (i.e., the bid is more than the asking price) by McAfee’s algorithm will also be matched in the proposed double auction method.

The proposed auction can significantly reduce the number of transactions needed to be recorded in the blockchain. A unidirectional channel can be used a finite number of times without updating the blockchain. If such a number of channel updates is  $k$  then it can reduce  $k - 1$  transactions needed to be recorded in the blockchain (one transaction is needed to open then offline channel). Auctioneers will have a non-negative revenue from the proposed auction. This will attract investment in building the blockchain network to execute the energy trade.

## 6 Experimental Evaluation

We used prosumer energy demand and PV generation data from [12] to evaluate proposed decentralised double auction. The data contains energy demand and PV generation data of 100 prosumers for 24 hours (data recorded in every 5 minutes). We used the blockchain simulator developed in [3] to simulate a proof-of-work-based blockchain network and offline channels. First, we used agent-based modelling to implement a centralised double auction and then we implemented the decentralised double auction in the blockchain simulator. In each set of experiments, we executed simulated peer to peer energy trade among these prosumers. We execute four sets of simulations. In each set, first we execute the energy trade simulation for centralised auction, and then, we execute the the energy trade simulation for the decentralised auction with identical asking price and bid data(in the range  $[0, 1]$ ). In these experiments we measured the amount of electricity traded as an indicator of energy trade efficiency. Fig. 3 show that the decentralised auction is more efficient than centralised double auction as more electricity is traded with decentralised double auction.

## 7 Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed a secure and privacy-preserving decentralised double auction using blockchain offline channels. The proposed method will be useful if energy trade is executed in public blockchains. Public blockchains have scalability problems, and there is a significant carbon footprint for creating a transaction in public blockchains such as Bitcoin or Ethereum. However, these public blockchains can be valuable platform to implement decentralised energy

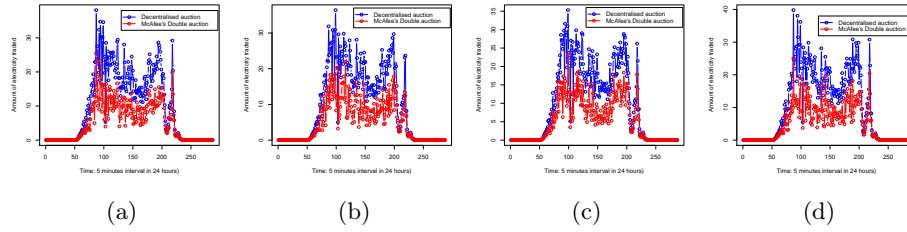


Fig. 3: (a) It shows the performance of the proposed decentralised double auction and centralised McAfee's double auction, (b) It shows the performance of the proposed decentralised double auction and centralised McAfee's double auction, (c) It shows the performance of the proposed decentralised double auction and centralised McAfee's double auction, (d) It shows the performance of the proposed decentralised double auction and centralised McAfee's double auction.

trade due their easy access and high token valuation. Our solution implements decentralised energy trade with a minimum number of transactions. Hence it is not only a highly scalable solution but also reduces the carbon footprint of using public blockchains.

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