

Lesson 3.2 Quiz: Consensus Mechanisms and Blockchain Architecture

Module 3: The Trust Problem

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Digital Finance — BSc Course (v2026.05)

Question 1

A junior developer asks: “Why can’t blockchain nodes simply vote on which transactions to include, with the majority winning?” Which answer **best** explains the fundamental problem with naive majority voting in an open network?

- A Voting is too slow because nodes are geographically distributed
- B An attacker can create millions of fake identities (nodes) to win any vote — this is the Sybil attack
- C Voting requires all nodes to be online simultaneously, which is impractical
- D Majority voting does not work if the number of nodes is even

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Question 2

The Byzantine Generals Problem requires that $n > 3f$ for agreement, where f is the number of faulty nodes. A blockchain network has 12 validator nodes. What is the **maximum** number of Byzantine (malicious) nodes the network can tolerate while still reaching consensus?

- A 4
- B 2
- C 6
- D 3

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A blockchain uses Proof of Work. A financial analyst claims: “PoW is secure because solving the puzzle requires enormous computation, but verifying the solution is trivial.” Which cryptographic property makes this asymmetry possible?

- A The fixed output size of hash functions
- B The one-way nature (pre-image resistance) of hash functions
- C The deterministic output of hash functions
- D The collision resistance of hash functions

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Question 4

An investor reads that Ethereum “achieved finality after The Merge” and interprets this as “transactions can never be reversed on Ethereum.” Which clarification is **most accurate**?

- A Finality simply means that Ethereum no longer uses Proof of Work
- B Finality on Ethereum is deterministic after two epochs (≈ 12.8 minutes): reversal would require $\frac{1}{3}$ of all staked ETH to be slashed
- C Finality means that Ethereum transactions are confirmed in under one second
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Question 5

A Bitcoin miner constructs a candidate block with 2,000 transactions. The current difficulty target requires the block hash to start with 19 leading zeros (in binary). The miner starts with nonce = 0 and increments by 1. After 500 million attempts, no valid hash has been found. What should the miner do?

- A Increase the difficulty target to make the puzzle easier
- B Switch to a different hash algorithm that is more likely to produce leading zeros
- C Continue incrementing the nonce — finding a valid hash is statistically expected to take billions of attempts
- D Restart from nonce = 0 with the same block, since the random process resets

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Question 6

Bitcoin's difficulty adjusts every 2,016 blocks to target a 10-minute average block time. Over the last 2,016 blocks, the average block time was 8 minutes (total: 11.2 days instead of 14 days). How will the difficulty change?

- A Difficulty increases by 20% because $\frac{10-8}{10} = 20\%$
- B Difficulty remains unchanged until the next halving event
- C Difficulty decreases by 20% to slow block production
- D Difficulty increases by 25% because blocks were produced 25% faster than target

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Question 7

An Ethereum validator stakes 32 ETH (worth \$64,000 at current prices). The validator's software has a bug that causes it to sign two conflicting blocks at the same slot height. What is the **immediate** consequence under Ethereum's PoS protocol?

- A The validator receives a warning and must restart their node
- B The validator loses their next block proposal opportunity but keeps their stake
- C The validator is slashed: a minimum of $\frac{1}{32}$ of their stake (1 ETH, \approx \$2,000) is burned and they are queued for ejection
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Two Bitcoin miners, Miner A and Miner B, simultaneously find valid blocks at height 700,001. Miner A's block is received by 60% of the network first; Miner B's block reaches the other 40%. What determines which block becomes part of the permanent chain?

- A Whichever chain gets the next block (700,002) built on top of it first becomes the longest chain, and the other is orphaned
- B The network holds a vote among all nodes to decide
- C The block that was timestamped first wins
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Question 9

A consortium of banks wants to build a private blockchain for interbank settlements. They need instant finality (no probabilistic waiting) and have exactly 10 pre-approved validator nodes. Which consensus mechanism is **most appropriate**?

- Ⓐ PBFT (Practical Byzantine Fault Tolerance) — deterministic finality with a known validator set
- Ⓑ Proof of Stake — energy efficient and modern
- Ⓒ Proof of Work — proven security from Bitcoin
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After Bitcoin's 2024 halving, the block reward dropped from 6.25 BTC to 3.125 BTC. A mining company's revenue falls accordingly. Assuming transaction fees remain constant, how must the company adapt to remain profitable?

- A Increase the difficulty target to mine blocks faster
- B Switch to mining Ethereum instead (higher rewards)
- C Invest in more energy-efficient mining hardware and/or relocate to regions with cheaper electricity
- D Wait for the next halving, which will restore the previous reward

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A blockchain startup claims their new “Proof of Reputation” mechanism selects block producers based on their social media following. An advisor warns this is vulnerable to Sybil attacks. Why?

- A Social media APIs are too slow for real-time consensus
- B Social media followers can be purchased cheaply, making the “scarce resource” easy to fake
- C Proof of Reputation has already been patented by another company
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A payment company considers using blockchain and compares finality times. Their requirement is that transactions must be irrevocable within 10 seconds. Which consensus mechanism(s) can meet this requirement?

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Consider the blockchain trilemma. Solana achieves high throughput (65,000 TPS) by requiring validators to run on high-specification hardware (128 GB RAM, high-bandwidth connections). Which trilemma trade-off does this represent?

- A Sacrificing security for scalability
- B Sacrificing decentralization for scalability — high hardware requirements reduce the number of entities that can run validators
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Question 14

In Proof of Stake, wealthy validators have a higher probability of being selected to propose blocks and earn rewards. A critic argues this creates a “rich get richer” dynamic. Compare this to Proof of Work. Is the same dynamic present in PoW?

- A Yes — but only because electricity costs are higher for small miners
- B No — in PoW, anyone with a laptop can mine profitably, so wealth does not concentrate
- C No — PoW is purely random, so hash power does not correlate with wealth
- D Yes — in PoW, wealthier miners buy more hardware, earning more blocks and more revenue, creating the same concentration dynamic

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An attacker controls 40% of a PoW network's hash power. They attempt to execute a double-spend by mining a private chain. Analyze the probability of success. Is this attack likely to succeed?

- A No — with 40% hash power, the attacker's chain grows slower on average and falls further behind with each block; success probability decreases exponentially with depth
- B Yes — the attacker only needs to get lucky once
- C Yes — 40% is close enough to 50% that the attacker will occasionally outpace the honest chain
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Ethereum's Proof of Stake uses “inactivity leaks” that gradually drain the stake of validators who go offline during a finality crisis. Why is this mechanism necessary?

- A To ensure the network can recover finality even if a large fraction of validators go offline — by reducing their stake, the remaining online validators eventually constitute the required $\frac{2}{3}$ supermajority
- B To reduce the total supply of ETH and increase its price
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A financial regulator examines two blockchain networks: Network A uses PoW with 10,000 anonymous miners worldwide; Network B uses PBFT with 20 identified bank validators. Which network is **more censorship-resistant**, and why?

- A Neither — both networks process all valid transactions equally
- B Network B — fewer validators means faster processing, leaving less time for censorship
- C Network B — the banks are regulated and audited, so they cannot censor
- D Network A — with 10,000 anonymous miners across jurisdictions, no single authority can compel all miners to exclude specific transactions

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- A Layer 2 replaces Bitcoin's consensus mechanism with a faster one
- B Layer 2 increases Bitcoin's block size to fit more transactions
- C Layer 2 processes transactions off the main chain and periodically settles aggregated results on Layer 1, inheriting its security while avoiding its throughput limits
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A government proposes banning Proof of Work mining within its borders due to environmental concerns (as the EU considered in 2022). Evaluate the **most likely** impact on the Bitcoin network.

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- B Bitcoin's price permanently crashes because the network is perceived as insecure
- C Mining moves to other jurisdictions; after the next difficulty adjustment, the network continues operating normally at a slightly lower hash rate
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Question 20

A startup asks you to recommend a consensus mechanism for a decentralized stock exchange processing 1,000 trades per second with full public auditability. Trades must be irrevocable within 3 seconds. The exchange should be permissionless (anyone can run a node). Evaluate the options and identify the **best fit**.

- Ⓐ Avalanche consensus — sub-second finality, permissionless, high throughput with probabilistic sampling
- Ⓑ Bitcoin-style PoW — proven security track record
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