

Be Selfish and Avoid Dilemmas: Fork After Withholding (FAW) Attacks on Bitcoin

Yujin Kwon
KAIST
dbwls8724@kaist.ac.kr

Dohyun Kim
KAIST
dohyunjk@kaist.ac.kr

Yunmok Son
KAIST
yunmok00@kaist.ac.kr

Eugene Vasserman
Kansas State University
eyv@ksu.edu

Yongdae Kim
KAIST
yongdaek@kaist.ac.kr

ABSTRACT

In the Bitcoin system, participants are rewarded for solving cryptographic puzzles. In order to receive more consistent rewards over time, some participants organize mining pools and split the rewards from the pool in proportion to each participant's contribution. However, several attacks threaten the ability to participate in pools. The *block withholding* (BWH) attack makes the pool reward system unfair by letting malicious participants receive unearned wages while only pretending to contribute work. When two pools launch BWH attacks against each other, they encounter the *miner's dilemma*: in a Nash equilibrium, the revenue of both pools is diminished. In another attack called *selfish mining*, an attacker can unfairly earn extra rewards by deliberately generating forks.

In this paper, we propose a novel attack called a *fork after withholding* (FAW) attack. FAW is not just another attack. The reward for an FAW attacker is *always equal to or greater than that for a BWH attacker*, and it is usable up to four times more often per pool than in BWH attack. When considering multiple pools — the current state of the Bitcoin network — the extra reward for an FAW attack is about 56% more than that for a BWH attack. Furthermore, when two pools execute FAW attacks on each other, the miner's dilemma may not hold: under certain circumstances, the larger pool can consistently win. More importantly, an FAW attack, while using intentional forks, does not suffer from practicality issues, unlike selfish mining. We also discuss partial countermeasures against the FAW attack, but finding a cheap and efficient countermeasure remains an open problem. As a result, we expect to see FAW attacks among mining pools.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Security and privacy** → **Distributed systems security; Economics of security and privacy;**

KEYWORDS

Bitcoin; Mining; Selfish Mining; Block Withholding Attack

1 INTRODUCTION

Bitcoin is the first fully decentralized cryptocurrency [29]. Its value has increased significantly as has its rate of adoption since its deployment in 2009 [7]. The security properties of Bitcoin rely on *blockchain* technology [32], which is an open ledger containing all current and historical transactions in the system. To prevent alterations of previous transactions and maintain the integrity of the ledger, the system requires participants to use their computational power to generate *proofs of work* (PoWs) by solving cryptographic puzzles. A PoW is required to generate a block and add transactions to the blockchain. After someone generates a block by solving the puzzle, and this solution is propagated to the Bitcoin network, a new round starts and all nodes begin solving a new cryptographic puzzle. The process of block generation is called *mining*, and those carrying out this activity are called *miners*.

As of May 2017, a miner who solves a puzzle is rewarded with 12.5 bitcoins (BTC). The average time for each round (time to solve the puzzle) is intended to be constant (10 minutes), so mining difficulty is adjusted automatically about every two weeks. As mining difficulty increases, solo miners may have to wait for a long time, on average, to receive any reward. To prevent this reward "starvation," some miners have organized *mining pools* that engage in profit sharing. Most pools consist of a *pool manager* and *worker* miners. The manager runs the Bitcoin protocol, acting as a single node, but miners join a pool by connecting to the pool's protocol [37] instead of directly joining Bitcoin. A pool manager forwards unsolved work units to miners, who then generate partial proofs of work (PPoWs) and full proofs of work (FPoWs), and submit them to the manager as *shares*. If a miner generates an FPoW and submits it to the manager, the manager broadcasts a block generated from the FPoW to the Bitcoin system, receives the reward, and distributes the reward to participating miners. Each miner is paid based on the fraction of shares contributed relative to the other miners in the pool. Thus, participants are rewarded based on PPoWs, which have absolutely no value in the Bitcoin system. The Bitcoin network currently consists of solo miners, open pools that allow any miner to join, and closed (private) pools that require a private relationship to join.

There are several attacks on Bitcoin [18, 20, 34]; our work focuses on two well-known mining attacks: *selfish mining* and *block*

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions.acm.org.

CCS'17, Oct. 30–Nov. 3, 2017, Dallas, TX, USA.

© 2017 Association for Computing Machinery.

ACM ISBN ISBN 978-1-4503-4946-8/17/10...\$15.00

<https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/3133956.3134019>

withholding. Selfish mining abuses Bitcoin’s *forks* mechanism to derive an unfair reward. A fork can occur when at least two cryptographic solutions (blocks) are propagated in a round. This may occur when solutions are discovered almost simultaneously, and take time to propagate through the Bitcoin network. Only one branch of a fork can be valid (only one solution will be accepted); others are eventually invalidated. In selfish mining, proposed by Eyal et al. in 2014 [18], an attacker does not propagate a block immediately, but generates forks intentionally by propagating a block selectively only when another honest miner generates a block. The attacker can earn a greater reward by invalidating honest miners’ blocks if she has enough computational power.

In a Block Withholding (BWH) attack, a miner in a pool submits only PPoWs, but not FPoWs. When an attacker launches a BWH attack against a single pool and conducts honest mining with the rest of her computational power, she earns an extra reward, while the target pool takes a loss. All pools are still vulnerable to this attack because no efficient and cheap defense has emerged, despite ongoing research. In 2015, Eyal [15] first modeled a game between two BWH attacking pools, and discovered the *miner’s dilemma*: when two pools attack each other, both will take a loss in equilibrium. This is analogous to the classic “prisoners’ dilemma”. Currently, pools implicitly agree not to launch BWH attacks against each other because it would harm everyone. In other words, while BWH attack is always profitable, the BWH attack game is not. We describe these two attacks in more detail in Section 2.

In this paper, we describe a new attack called a *fork after withholding* (FAW) attack, which combines a BWH attack with intentional forks. Like the BWH attack, the FAW attack is always profitable regardless of an attacker’s computational power or network connection state. The FAW attack also provides superior rewards compared to the BWH attack – in fact, the BWH attacker’s reward is the *lower bound* of the FAW attacker’s. We analyze both the single- and multi-pool FAW attack variants in Sections 5 and 6, respectively. Then, in Section 7, we model the *FAW attack game* between two FAW attacking pools and discover that the attack becomes a *size game between the two pools*, breaking the miner’s dilemma stalemate.

Single-pool FAW attack. Like the BWH attacker, an FAW attacker joins the target pool and executes an FAW attack against it. The node submits FPoWs to the pool manager *only when another miner, neither the attacker nor a miner in the target pool, generates a block*. If the pool manager accepts the submitted FPoW, he propagates it, and a fork will be generated. Then, all Bitcoin network participants must select one branch. If the attacker’s block is selected, the target pool receives the reward, and she is also rewarded from the pool. When attacking a single pool, an FAW attacker can earn extra rewards in any case. The lower bound of the extra reward is that for a BWH attacker. In Section 5, we show quantitatively that the FAW attacker can earn extra rewards one to four times more than that for the BWH attacker in a large pool (representing 20% of the computational power of the entire Bitcoin network).

Multi-pool FAW attack. To increase her reward, she can simultaneously attack multiple pools, so we expand our attack to consider the FAW attack against n pools. As in the single pool case, our analysis shows that the FAW attack is always profitable, and that

the FAW attacker earns a greater reward than the BWH attacker. If an attacker executes the FAW attack against four pools that are currently popular [4], her extra reward will be about 56% greater than that for the BWH attacker. Note that the extra reward for attacking multiple pools is more than that for a single pool attack. Details of the multi-pool attack analysis are presented in Section 6.

FAW attack game. Section 7 considers a scenario in which two pools execute FAW attacks against each other. There is a Nash equilibrium in the game; however, unlike in the BWH attack game [15], there exists a condition in which the larger pool always earns the extra reward. That is, the miner’s dilemma may not hold. Therefore, the equilibrium for the FAW attack game in which two pools decide whether to attack may be a Pareto optimal.

FAW attack vs. selfish mining. We also compare the FAW attack to selfish mining [18] in Section 8. Selfish mining is not always profitable, and the attacker is easily detectable. Moreover, selfish mining is known to be impractical [8, 10, 19]. Indeed, previous attacks on mining that generate intentional forks share these properties, making them impractical. However, unlike selfish mining, the FAW attack is always profitable, and detecting FAW attackers is harder than detecting selfish mining attackers even though the FAW attack does utilize intentional forks.

In Section 9, we discuss various parameters used throughout the study, some of which can be computed in advance, making FAW attacks feasible. One specific parameter is hard to compute in advance, but we show that the FAW attack is still profitable even without knowing it. Moreover, it is possible to identify Sybil nodes, but not the attacker. Though we also propose several possible countermeasures, including a method for detecting FAW attacks in Section 10, *we find no practical defense* for FAW attacks.

Contributions. This paper makes the following contributions:

- (1) We propose the FAW attack, which is always profitable (unlike selfish mining) regardless of the attacker’s computational power and network capability. The extra reward for an FAW attack is always at least as high as that for a BWH attack.
- (2) We analyze the FAW attack when the attack target is one pool and generalize to an attack against n pools. Moreover, we consider an FAW attack pool game, in which two pools execute FAW attacks against each other. We prove that it can give rise to a pool size game, deviating from the miner’s dilemma that exists in the BWH attack.
- (3) We discuss and propose partial countermeasures for preventing an FAW attack. However, these defenses are neither perfect nor practical, leaving an open problem.

2 PRELIMINARIES

Although built with security in mind, Bitcoin is vulnerable to several attacks that allow an attacker to unfairly earn additional profits at others’ expense. In this section, we describe Bitcoin and the existing attacks against it that are related to our attack.

2.1 Bitcoin Basics

Mining Process: The header of each block in a blockchain contains a Merkle root [26] of the latest transactions, the hash value of the previous block header, and a nonce. In the Bitcoin system, “mining” is the process of generating nonces, which are PoWs derived from solving cryptographic puzzles. This work is performed by peers, known as “miners”. In short, a miner must find a valid nonce as a PoW satisfying $\text{sha256}(\text{sha256}(\text{blkhdr})) < t$, where *blkhdr* refers to all data in a block header, and t is a 256-bit number specified by the Bitcoin protocol, so it is more difficult to find a valid nonce given a smaller t . The value of t is automatically adjusted by the Bitcoin system to keep the average duration of each round 10 minutes. When a miner finds a valid nonce and generates a new block, this block is broadcast to every node in the Bitcoin network. When another node receives it, the node regards this block as the new head of the blockchain. At the time of writing, a miner receives 12.5 BTC as a reward for solving the puzzle and extending the blockchain at the expense of computational power.

Forks: If two miners independently build and broadcast two different valid blocks, a node may consider the block first received as the new blockchain head. Because of different network latencies [13], more than two heads can exist at the same time. This situation is called a *fork*. By appending a subsequent block to only one branch in the fork, the branch is defined as valid, while all others are invalidated. Moreover, forks can also be intentionally generated. When an attacker generates a block, she can withhold it until another miner generates and propagates another block. Then, the attacker can propagate her block right after she listens to the block propagation, intentionally causing a fork, for double-spending [31] or selfish mining [18, 30, 35] attacks.

Mining Pools: Because successfully generating blocks requires a non-trivial amount of luck, mining pools have been organized to reduce variance in the miners’ rewards as mining difficulty increases. Most mining pools consist of a manager and multiple miners. At the start of every round, the manager distributes work to the miners [37], and every miner uses his computing power to generate either partial (PPoW) or full (FPoW) PoWs. The difficulty of generating a PPoW is lower than that of an FPoW. For example, the hash value of a block header can have a 32-bit and 72-bit zero prefix in a PPoW and in an FPoW, respectively. When a miner generates a PPoW or an FPoW, he submits it as a share. If a miner is lucky enough to generate an FPoW, the manager propagates it and receives a reward, which he shares with the miners in proportion to their submissions.

2.2 Related Work

We review two related attacks on Bitcoin mining and new Bitcoin protocol designs in this section.

Selfish Mining: Selfish mining [3, 18] generates forks intentionally. If an attacker generates an FPoW, she does not propagate it immediately. As soon as another miner propagates a block, the attacker selectively propagates her withheld blocks according to their number to generate a fork. This fork may invalidate honest miners’ blocks, and the attacker can improperly earn an extra reward. However, because the attacker can also lose her block if her

branch is not chosen, she must have greater computational power to make selfish mining profitable, especially if her network connection capability is low [18]. Many researchers have investigated selfish mining. Sapirshstein et al. [35] and Nayak et al. [30] showed that the original selfish mining scheme is not optimal and provided a new algorithm to optimize the selfish mining. The former study [35] modeled an optimal selfish mining strategy using the delay parameter of the Bitcoin network rather than the attacker’s network capability. It also stated that a profitable selfish miner can execute a double spending attack. Nayak et al. [30] extended the parameters used for selfish mining strategy and combined selfish mining with a network-level eclipse attack. Although powerful, selfish mining is widely considered to be impractical [10, 30]. Carlsten et al. studied selfish mining under a transaction fee regime (a Bitcoin reward system for the far future) and improved the attack by considering a variable reward for each block [11]. Selfish mining and FAW attacks are compared in Section 8.

BWH Attack: The BWH attack was introduced by Rosenfeld [34]. An attacker joins a target pool and then submits only PPoWs, but not FPoWs, unlike honest pool miners. Because the attacker pretends to contribute to the target pool and gets paid, the pool suffers a loss. Courtois et al. [12] generalized the concept of the BWH attack, considering an attacker who mines both solo and in pools. They showed that the attacker can unfairly earn a greater reward through a BWH attack. This attack was carried out against the “Eligius” mining pool in 2014, with the pool losing 300 BTC [5]. In this case, the manager found the attacker, who was using only two Bitcoin accounts and did not submit FPoWs for an extended period of time. If the attacker had used many more Bitcoin accounts, distributing computational power across them and masquerading as many workers, each of whom would mine in the pool for only a short time before being replaced with a new account, the manager may not have detected her. Meanwhile, managers can always notice whether a BWH attack has occurred by comparing the number of submitted PPoWs and FPoWs. However, managers *cannot prevent the attack*. In 2015, Luu et al. [24] found the optimal BWH attack strategy against one pool and multiple pools by defining the power splitting game. Eyal [15] modeled the BWH attack game between two mining pools. This study showed that such a game results in the miner’s dilemma, which is analogous to the prisoner’s dilemma, because it creates mutual loss in the Nash equilibrium. We propose the FAW attack, which improves the BWH attack. The FAW attack gives an attacker extra rewards up to four times more than those for a BWH attacker. Moreover, we show that the miner’s dilemma may not hold in the FAW attack game. FAW and BWH attacks can occur against Ethereum [38], Litecoin [22], Dogecoin [14], and Permacoin [27] as well as Bitcoin.

New Bitcoin Protocols: Many papers have proposed new protocols to solve various problems with Bitcoin such as selfish mining, double spending, and scalability [16, 21, 23, 36]. To prevent BWH attacks, several works [17, 34] have proposed new two-phase PoW protocols, dividing work into two smaller cryptographic puzzles. Then, a manager gives one puzzle to miners in his pool and solves the other himself. As a result, miners cannot know whether their solutions are FPoWs and cannot execute BWH attacks. Under these

protocols, an FAW attack also cannot happen. However, Bitcoin participants do not want to adopt them, for reasons described in Section 10.3. Luu et al. [25] proposed a decentralized pool protocol called *SmartPool* that applies *smart contracts*. They argued that attacks on pools would no longer be profitable if SmartPool exists as only one mining pool in the Bitcoin system. However, SmartPool’s full adoption is considered to be a long way off [1]. We discuss other possible defense mechanisms against an FAW attack in Section 10.3.

3 ATTACK MODEL AND ASSUMPTIONS

In this section, we specify our attack model and the assumptions made in the rest of the paper.

3.1 Attack Model

First, an attacker can be a solo miner, or the manager of a closed or open mining pool. Second, the attacker can launch Sybil attacks [2], i.e., the attacker can generate an arbitrary number of identities and join multiple open pools with different IDs and Bitcoin accounts. However, we assume that the attacker cannot join closed pools since those require private information. Third, the computational power of an attacker is finite, and she can distribute it into any fraction for both *innocent mining* (i.e., working as an honest solo miner) and *infiltration mining* (i.e., joining and mining in multiple open pools to gain extra illicit rewards). If an attacker is the manager of an open pool, her infiltration mining power (the computational power used for infiltration mining) should be loyal mining power¹ (the amount of loyal mining power pools possess is generally a trade secret [15]). Finally, the rushing adversary can plant many Sybil nodes in the Bitcoin network, which can simply listen to the propagation of valid blocks and propagate the attacker’s block preferentially when the attacker’s block and another block are released simultaneously. By this means, the attacker can track the propagation of other blocks and propagate her own as fast as possible using Sybil nodes. Note that these nodes require very little computational power because their role is only to listen and propagate a block; thus planting Sybil nodes involves negligible computation cost for the attacker.

3.2 Assumptions

For the sake of simplicity, we make the following assumptions, consistent with other attacks on Bitcoin mining [15, 18, 24]:

- (1) The normalized total computational power of the Bitcoin system is 1. Therefore, any computational power is represented as a fraction of this total. Also, we assume that the computational power of any one miner or mining pool is less than 0.5 to prevent a “51% attack” on the Bitcoin network [9].
- (2) No managers or miners, except FAW attackers, launch attacks. We do not consider other attacks, such as BWH attacks or selfish mining, alongside the FAW attack.
- (3) The reward for each valid block is normalized to 1 BTC instead of the current 12.5 BTC. Moreover, we calculate the reward as a probabilistic expectation for each round.
- (4) We do not consider unintentional forks. This assumption is reasonable because the fork rates are negligible (the recent

stale block rate is about 0.41% [19]). Because of this assumption, the reward for a miner is equal to the probability of finding a block by the miner for one round. A period of finding a block by a miner has an exponential distribution with mean inversely proportional to his computational power. Therefore, the probability of finding a block from a miner for one round is the same as his relative computational power.

- (5) When a miner in a pool generates an FPoW, the manager propagates a block corresponding to the FPoW and earns the reward. Then, the manager distributes the reward to each miner in his pool in proportion to the miners’ submission shares for each round.

4 ATTACK OVERVIEW

We describe a novel attack, called an FAW attack, combining selfish mining and a BWH attack. The core idea is that an attacker can split his computing power between innocent mining and infiltration mining, aiming at a target pool (as with a BWH attack). However, when the attacker finds an FPoW as an infiltration miner, she deviates from the pattern of a BWH attack. In a BWH attack, the attacker drops the FPoW; in an FAW attack, she does not immediately propagate it to the pool manager, waiting instead for an external honest miner to publish theirs, at which point she propagates the FPoW to the manager hoping to cause a fork (similar to selfish mining). We present not only the FAW attack against one target pool but also a generalized FAW attack against multiple pools simultaneously. Finally, we present an *FAW attack game* in which two pools attack each other via infiltration. The following are detailed descriptions of these FAW attack scenarios.

4.1 One Target Pool

Considering an attacker who targets one open pool, the FAW attack proceeds as follows. First, an attacker conducts both innocent and infiltration mining by distributing her computational power to join the target pool. If the attacker finds an FPoW through innocent mining, she propagates it and earns a legitimate profit. However, if the attacker finds an FPoW in the target pool, she does not submit it immediately. After this, there are three possible paths the attacker can take. 1) When she notices that other miners, not participating in the target pool, propagate a valid block, she immediately submits her FPoW to the manager of the target pool, who propagates her FPoW to other Bitcoin nodes, *generating a fork in the Bitcoin network*. 2) When an honest miner in the target pool finds an FPoW, the attacker discards her FPoW. 3) When she finds another FPoW through *innocent mining*, she discards the FPoW generated by infiltration mining. In summary, the FAW attack generates intentional forks propagated by the target pool, while the BWH attack *never* does so. This detailed algorithm is Algorithm 1 in Appendix A.

Based on this simple description, it is easy to see that the FAW attack is at least as profitable as the BWH attack. Note that the profit from the FAW attack is equal to that for the BWH attack in cases 2) and 3). In other words, additional profit comes from case 1). Suppose the attacker submits multiple FPoWs in case 1) over multiple rounds. If none of the FPoWs are chosen as the main chain, the profit from the FAW attack is equal to that from the BWH attack. If any of the attacker’s FPoWs are chosen, the target pool

¹Defined by Eyal as “mining power ... either run directly by the pool owners or sold as a service but run on the pool owners’ hardware” [15].

receives a reward, which is distributed among miners including the infiltration miner. This gives additional profit to the attacker.

Moreover, a manager's behavior can vary. If a manager notices a valid block from outside the pool before the infiltration miner submits her FPoW, an honest manager would discard the FPoW generated by the infiltration miner. However, if accepting the infiltration miner's FPoW is more profitable (or would cause a smaller loss for the manager), a rational manager may discard the FPoW from the outside instead. Otherwise, if an attacker propagates the withheld FPoW to the manager before the manager notices an external block propagation, the manager always selects the FPoW from the attacker regardless of his rational consideration. We discuss this rational behavior in more detail in Section 10.

4.2 Multiple Target Pools

An attacker can target multiple pools to generate a higher reward. For simplicity, we first consider an FAW attack executed against two pools (Pool₁ and Pool₂). After the attacker joins the two target pools, she distributes her computational power for innocent mining and infiltration mining between these pools. As in the single-pool case, when the attacker finds an FPoW in Pool₁ or Pool₂, she withholds it to generate a fork. However, in this case, she may find two different FPoWs, one for each pool, within a single round and withhold both. If another honest miner propagates an FPoW, the attacker submits both FPoWs to both managers simultaneously. This behavior raises the winning probability of the infiltration miners' blocks in the fork by reducing propagation delay. Therefore, the attacker can make a fork that has two branches generated by herself and another found by an external honest miner, by letting two target pools release two different valid blocks to the Bitcoin network at the same time. When the attacker targets n pools, she can execute the FAW attack as above to generate a fork with $n + 1$ branches. The detailed algorithm is Algorithm 2 in Appendix A.

4.3 Pool vs Pool

The activities of mining pools can be interpreted as a game in the Bitcoin system, with each pool choosing its strategy. We consider the FAW attack as a strategy that pools can choose to earn higher rewards, meaning that an *FAW attack game* can occur similarly to a BWH attack case [15]. For simplicity, we assume that two pools, Pool₁ and Pool₂, play the game and all other miners are solo miners.

Pool₁ and Pool₂ first divide their own computational power into two parts for innocent and infiltration mining, and each pool infiltrates the other using its infiltration mining power. While both conduct innocent and infiltration mining, if Pool₁ finds an FPoW in Pool₂ by infiltration mining, it withholds it. After that, if Pool₁ generates an FPoW using innocent mining, it throws away its withheld FPoW generated by infiltration mining, and the Pool₁ manager propagates the FPoW from its innocent mining. The same action can be expected from Pool₂ with regard to Pool₁. Otherwise, if someone from outside both pools broadcasts a valid block, the pools generate a fork using their withheld FPoWs. Therefore, a fork created under these conditions can include two or three branches (three branches might occur if both Pool₁ and Pool₂ have withheld FPoWs obtained from infiltration mining). If both competing pools generate FPoWs through infiltration mining, they select the FPoW generated from the opponent's infiltration mining for the main chain. For example,

the manager of Pool₁ selects the FPoW generated by infiltration mining of Pool₂ in Pool₁.

5 FAW ATTACKS AGAINST ONE POOL

In this section, we analyze the optimal behavior and maximum reward for an attacker theoretically and quantitatively when she targets one pool. Our results show that the extra reward for an FAW attack is always equal to or greater than that for a BWH attack.

5.1 Theoretical Analysis

We mathematically analyze our attack against one pool and derive the optimal behavior of an attacker. The relevant parameters are as follows:

- α : Computational power of the attacker
- β : Computational power of the victim pool
- τ : Attacker's Infiltration mining power as a proportion of α
- c : Probability that an attacker's FPoW through infiltration mining will be selected as the main chain

The attacker uses computational power $(1 - \tau)\alpha$ for innocent mining and $\tau\alpha$ for infiltration mining. Note that β does not include the attacker's infiltration mining power in the victim pool. The parameter c is a coefficient closely related to the topology of the Bitcoin network [28] and the attacker's network capability.² We describe the parameter c in detail in Section 9.

We can divide the attack results in each round into four cases as shown in Fig. 1. In the first case, the attacker earns a reward through innocent mining. Because she as an innocent miner should compete with others who have total computational power $1 - \tau\alpha$, the probability of the first case is $\frac{(1-\tau)\alpha}{1-\tau\alpha}$. In the second case, the pool propagates an FPoW found by an honest miner in the pool, with a probability of $\frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha}$. In the third case, when a valid block is found by an external honest miner (neither the attacker nor someone within the target pool), the attacker can generate a fork through the pool if she found and withheld an FPoW in advance. The probability is $\tau\alpha \cdot \frac{1-\alpha-\beta}{1-\tau\alpha}$. The final case occurs when a valid block is found by an external honest miner, but the attacker has *not* found and withheld an FPoW. The probability of this case is $1 - \alpha - \beta$. As expected, the total probability of these four cases sums to 1. Then, we can derive the FAW attacker's reward as follows.

THEOREM 5.1. *An FAW attacker can earn*

$$R_a(\tau) = \frac{(1-\tau)\alpha}{1-\tau\alpha} + \left(\frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} + c\tau\alpha \cdot \frac{1-\alpha-\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} \right) \cdot \frac{\tau\alpha}{\beta + \tau\alpha}. \quad (1)$$

The reward is maximized when the optimal τ value, $\bar{\tau}$, is

$$\frac{(1-\alpha)(1-c)\beta + \beta^2 c - \beta \sqrt{(1-\alpha-\beta)^2 c^2 + ((1-\alpha-\beta)(\alpha\beta + \alpha - 2))c - \alpha(1+\beta) + 1}}{\alpha(1-\alpha-\beta)(c(1-\beta) - 1)} \quad (2)$$

PROOF SKETCH. Because an attacker works as both an innocent and infiltration miner, she is rewarded in both roles. Her reward from innocent mining is $\frac{(1-\tau)\alpha}{1-\tau\alpha}$ (case ① in Fig. 1). To derive her reward from infiltration mining, we first describe the reward for the pool to which the infiltration miner belongs. The pool can earn

²Network capability has been used in previous work [18, 19], but γ in those works is slightly different from c .

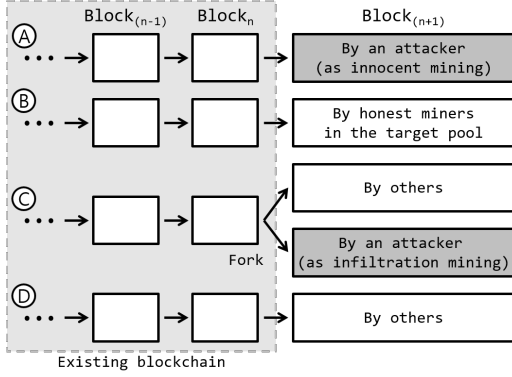


Figure 1: Four cases of FAW attack results against one pool. ① The attacker finds an FPoW through innocent mining, ② a miner other than the attacker in the target pool finds an FPoW, ③ the attacker finds an FPoW in the target pool and generates a fork, and ④ someone else finds an FPoW, but she does not. Blocks found by an attacker are displayed in dark gray. The attacker can earn rewards in cases ①, ②, and ③.

a profit in two cases: when an honest miner in the pool generates an FPoW (case ②), and when the attacker successfully generates a fork and her FPoW is selected as the main chain (case ③). In case ②, the pool earns the reward $\frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha}$. In case ③, the reward for the pool is $c\tau\alpha \cdot \frac{1-\alpha-\beta}{1-\tau\alpha}$ through the fork generated by the attacker.

The pool manager pays a reward proportional to the attacker's submitted (both full and partial) PoWs. As a result, the attacker's reward R_a can be expressed with Eq. (1). The attacker's reward R_a is a function of τ , and we can find the value of τ that maximizes R_a by solving $\frac{\partial R_a(\tau)}{\partial \tau} = 0$. We call this value of τ as $\bar{\tau}$. Finally, $\bar{\tau}$ is expressed in Eq. (2). \square

According to the theorem above, an attacker should distribute her infiltration mining power as an optimal portion $\bar{\tau}$ of her total power to earn the maximum reward. Additionally, an FAW attack with optimal $\bar{\tau}$ satisfies the following theorem.

THEOREM 5.2. *An FAW attack is always more profitable than honest mining, and the reward from an FAW attack has a lower bound defined by the reward from a BWH attack.*

PROOF SKETCH. We show that the attacker's reward, $R_a(\bar{\tau})$, is always greater than the honest miner's reward α . First, the reward R_a when $c = 0$ is equal to the reward from the BWH attack since a case where the FAW attacker receives zero reward due to a fork is equivalent to the BWH attack. Luu et al. [24] proved that the BWH attacker's reward can always be larger than α when a proper value of τ is chosen. Furthermore, R_a is an increasing function of c . As a result, an FAW attack produces an extra reward regardless of the attacker's computational power, as in the BWH attack. \square

Theorem 5.2 states as mentioned intuitively in Section 4.1 that the FAW attack is at least as profitable as the BWH attack. Note that $\bar{\tau}$ depends on a constant c , related to network topology [6, 28]. To maximize reward, an attacker must know the value of c . For now, we assume that c is given to the attacker, but learning c is not easy

in practice. Nevertheless, we show in Section 9 that the FAW attack still improves upon the BWH attack even when c is unknown.

Next, our focus moves to the target pool's loss. Through the following theorem, it is shown that the target pool's reward after the FAW attack is always smaller than that it would be without, though incentives do exist for the target pool manager to propagate the FPoW found by the attacker's infiltration mining even if he notices the FPoW is stale.

THEOREM 5.3. *The reward for the target pool is $R_p = \frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} + c\tau\alpha \frac{1-\alpha-\beta}{1-\tau\alpha}$, and this is always less than $\beta + \tau\alpha$, which is the target pool's reward without the FAW attack. Additionally, reward R_p is an increasing function of c .*

PROOF SKETCH. The target pool earns the reward $\frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha}$ in case ② and $c\tau\alpha \frac{1-\alpha-\beta}{1-\tau\alpha}$ in case ③. R_p is a linear function of c , and the slope is positive. Therefore, R_p is an increasing function of c . Through a simple calculation,

$$\frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} + \tau\alpha \frac{1-\alpha-\beta}{1-\tau\alpha},$$

i.e., the value of R_p when $c = 1$, is always less than $\tau\alpha + \beta$. This means that R_p is less than $\tau\alpha + \beta$ for any c . \square

Note that the target pool's loss decreases as c increases. Therefore, the pool manager should try to increase c to reduce loss. Thus, he should propagate his FPoWs as fast as he can, which incidentally also increases the attacker's extra reward (R_a in Eq. (1)).

5.2 Quantitative Analysis

In this section we consider a specific case: an attacker with computational power 0.2, who executes an FAW attack against one pool. We define the *relative extra reward* (RER) gained with respect to the reward R_h of an honest miner, which is equivalent to his computational power. The RER R'_a of an attacker can be expressed as $R'_a = \frac{R_a - R_h}{R_h}$. In the same manner, the RER of the target pool is $R'_p = \frac{R_p - R_h}{R_h}$. (A negative value indicates a loss.) Figs. 2a and 2b show the RER of the attacker and a victim pool, respectively, given terms c and β when the attacker's computational power α is 0.2.

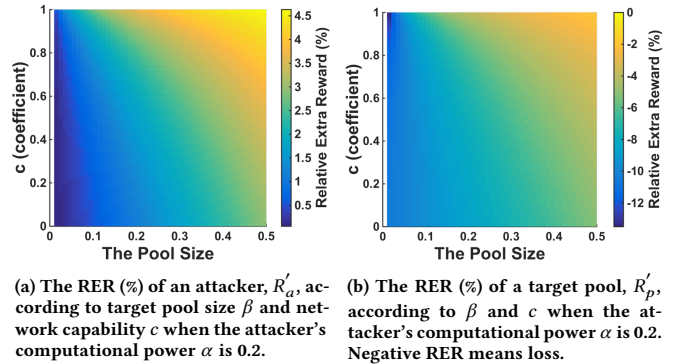


Figure 2: Quantitative analysis results for the FAW attack against one pool. When c increases, attacker's reward increases and the target pool's loss decreases.

Fig. 2a demonstrates that an attacker can earn an extra reward regardless of c or the target pool size β . Therefore, an attacker should always run the FAW attack to increase her own reward. Moreover, increasing c provides an even greater extra reward. As noted previously, when c is zero, the RERs for BWH and FAW attacks are the same. Therefore, the extra reward for the FAW attacker is always lower bounded by that for the BWH attacker. Thus, the FAW attack improves on the BWH attack in all cases.

Conversely, Fig. 2b confirms that a target pool always suffers a loss in the presence of an attacker. (A negative extra reward indicates a loss.) However, the loss of the target pool decreases as the value of c increases because when the FPoW generated by an attacker in the target pool is selected as the main chain, the target pool also earns a reward for the block.

5.3 Simulation Results

To verify the theoretical analysis developed, we simulated an FAW attack against one pool with a computational power of 0.2, using a Monte Carlo method over 10^9 rounds, with an upper bound of 10^{-4} for error. Table 1 shows the attacker's RER (%) according to her computational power α and c when β is 0.2. She can always earn the extra reward by executing the FAW attack, and her extra reward is equal to or greater than that for the BWH attacker.

Table 1: The RER (%) of an attacker when target pool size β is 0.2. The value $a(b)$ gives RERs based on theoretical analysis and simulation, respectively.

$\alpha \backslash c$	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4
0	0.53 (0.53)	1.14 (1.14)	1.85 (1.85)	2.70 (2.70)
0.25	0.65 (0.67)	1.38 (1.38)	2.20 (2.20)	3.1 (3.13)
0.5	0.85 (0.85)	1.74 (1.74)	2.70 (2.70)	3.75 (3.75)
0.75	1.21 (1.22)	2.37 (2.37)	3.52 (3.52)	4.69 (4.70)
1	2.12 (2.12)	3.75 (3.75)	5.13 (5.13)	6.37 (6.36)

6 FAW ATTACK AGAINST MULTIPLE POOLS

An attacker should maximize her reward by targeting n pools simultaneously. She distributes her infiltration power among n pools and can find at most n FPoWs, one for each of n different pools within a given round, so she can generate a fork that has a maximum of $n+1$ branches. In this section, we analyze this scenario theoretically and quantitatively. Unless otherwise stated, we describe the n -pool attack using an example where $n = 2$ for ease of exposition.

6.1 Theoretical Analysis

Let the computational power of an attacker be α and the power of Pool₁ and Pool₂ be β_1 and β_2 , respectively. The attacker distributes her computational power into τ_1 and τ_2 fractions for infiltration mining in Pool₁ and Pool₂, respectively. When an attacker withholds an FPoW in Pool_i only, and an external honest miner releases a valid block (Case © in Fig. 3), the variable $c_i^{(1)}$ represents the probability that the FPoW of the infiltration miner in Pool_i will be selected as the main chain. Variable $c_i^{(2)}$ is the probability that the

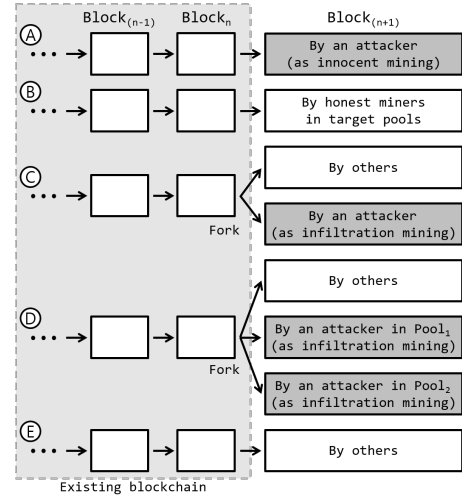


Figure 3: Five cases of FAW attack results against multiple pools. ① An attacker finds an FPoW through innocent mining, ② another miner in the target pool finds an FPoW, ③ the attacker finds an FPoW in one target pool and generates a fork, ④ the attacker finds an FPoW in multiple target pools and generates a fork, and ⑤ someone else finds an FPoW. The attacker can earn rewards in cases ①, ②, ③, and ④.

FPoW found by her infiltration mining in Pool_i will be selected as the main chain among three branches if she withholds FPoWs from both pools when an external honest miner propagates a valid block (Case ④ in Fig. 3). Therefore, the sum of $c_1^{(2)}$ and $c_2^{(2)}$ must be less than or equal to 1. Then we can derive her reward R_a as follows.

THEOREM 6.1. *When the FAW attacker executes the FAW attack against Pool₁ and Pool₂, she can earn reward R_a as*

$$\frac{(1-\tau_1-\tau_2)\alpha}{1-(\tau_1+\tau_2)\alpha} + \sum_{i=1,2} \left\{ \frac{\tau_i\alpha}{\beta_i+\tau_i\alpha} \left(\frac{\beta_i}{1-(\tau_1+\tau_2)\alpha} + c_i^{(1)}\tau_i\alpha \frac{1-\alpha-\beta_1-\beta_2}{1-\tau_i\alpha} + c_i^{(2)} \sum_{j=1,2} \{ \tau_j\alpha \frac{\tau_j\alpha}{1-\tau_j\alpha} \} \frac{1-\alpha-\beta_1-\beta_2}{1-(\tau_1+\tau_2)\alpha} \right) \right\} \quad (3)$$

PROOF SKETCH. The total reward for the attacker is composed of rewards from innocent mining and infiltration mining in Pool₁ and Pool₂. The reward from innocent mining (case ① in Fig. 3) is $\frac{(1-\tau_1-\tau_2)\alpha}{1-(\tau_1+\tau_2)\alpha}$. Prior to deriving the infiltration mining part of the attacker's reward from Pool₁ and Pool₂, we derive the total reward for each target pool. When an FPoW is found by an honest miner in the target pools, (case ② in Fig. 3), target Pool_i can earn $\frac{\beta_i}{1-(\tau_1+\tau_2)\alpha}$. Next, if the attacker generates an intentional fork (cases ③ and ④ in Fig. 3), and the attacker's FPoW is selected as the main chain, Pool_i can earn

$$c_i^{(1)}\tau_i\alpha \frac{1-\alpha-\beta_1-\beta_2}{1-\tau_i\alpha} + c_i^{(2)} \sum_{j=1,2} \tau_j\alpha \frac{\tau_j\alpha}{1-\tau_j\alpha} \frac{1-\alpha-\beta_1-\beta_2}{1-(\tau_1+\tau_2)\alpha}.$$

Finally, the reward for the attacker from Pool_i is a fraction $\frac{\tau_i\alpha}{\beta_i+\tau_i\alpha}$ of the total reward for Pool_i. Therefore, considering all cases, the total reward for the attacker, R_a , can be derived by Eq. (3). \square

Below, we expand to the FAW attack targeting n pools, computing the attacker's reward R_a . Due to space limitation, we omit the proof of the following theorem. The theorem can be proven in a similar way as Theorem 6.1.

THEOREM 6.2. *Generalization for n pools, where the computational power of target Pool $_i$ is β_i and the fraction of the attacker's power devoted to the pool is τ_i . The total reward for the attacker, R_a , is*

$$R_a = \frac{(1-\tau)\alpha}{1-\tau\alpha} + \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{\tau_i \alpha}{\beta_i + \tau_i \alpha} \left(\frac{\beta_i}{1-\tau\alpha} + \sum_{k=1}^n \left\{ (1-\alpha-\beta) \sum_{\mathcal{P}_{k,i} \in \mathcal{P}} c_{\text{Im}(\mathcal{P}_{k,i})}(i) \prod_{t=1}^k \frac{\tau \mathcal{P}_{k,i}(t)\alpha}{1-\sum_{d=1}^t \tau \mathcal{P}_{k,i}(d)\alpha} \right\} \right) \right], \quad (4)$$

when attacking n pools with the following conditions hold: $\tau = \sum_{i=1}^n \tau_i$, $\beta = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i$, $\mathcal{P}_{k,i}$ is a one-to-one function from $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ to $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, where an image of $\mathcal{P}_{k,i}$ (i.e., $\text{Im}(\mathcal{P}_{k,i})$) must include i , and $c_{\text{Im}(\mathcal{P}_{k,i})}(i)$ is the probability that the attacker's FPoW in Pool $_i$ will be selected as the main chain when she finds one FPoW in each of k pools.

Eq. (4) is a function of τ_i ($i = 1, \dots, n$); therefore, an attacker can maximize her RER R_a depending on the value of τ_i ($i = 1, \dots, n$). Moreover, the total reward for each target Pool $_i$ increases as $c_{\text{Im}(\mathcal{P}_{k,i})}(i)$ increases. Therefore, to reduce loss, target pool managers should try to increase $c_{\text{Im}(\mathcal{P}_{k,i})}(i)$, which in turn increases the attacker's extra reward.

6.2 Quantitative Analysis

Seven parameters are used to represent a two-pool attack, which determine the attacker's RER: $\alpha, \beta_i, c_i^{(j)}$ for $i = 1, 2$ and $j = 1, 2$. For simplicity, we make the following assumptions: first, the attacker's computation power, α , is assumed to be 0.2. Three cases for the two pools' power: cases 1, 2, and 3 have (β_1, β_2) equal to (0.1, 0.1), (0.2, 0.1), and (0.3, 0.1), respectively. We also assume $c_{\text{Im}(\mathcal{P}_{k,i})}(i) = \frac{c}{k}$ where c ranges from 0 to 1. Fig. 4 shows the attacker's RERs (%) for various values of c . As expected, as c increases, RER also increases. Furthermore, when the total computational power of the two target pools increases, RER also increases.

As an additional case (case 4), we also analyzed the FAW attacker's RER, taking an approximate computational power distribution from the current Bitcoin network as shown in Table 2, obtained from [4]. Assume that F2Pool executes the FAW attack against four other open pools. In this case, AntPool, BTCC Pool, BW.com, and BitFury correspond to Pool $_1$, Pool $_2$, Pool $_3$, and Pool $_4$, respectively. Because of the symmetry between three pools, optimal values for infiltration mining power as a portion of the attacker's computational power for each target pool (i.e., τ_2, τ_3 , and τ_4) are the same.

The RER for an attacker in case 4 is also shown in Fig. 4. Considering the current pool distribution shown in Table 2, the BWH attack gives the attacker an RER of 2.96%, but she can earn a maximum RER of 4.63% with the FAW attack. Therefore, the FAW attack gives her an extra reward of 56.24% more than that the BWH attack.

6.3 Simulation Results

To verify the accuracy of this analysis, we implemented a Monte Carlo simulator in Python to simulate an FAW attack against the

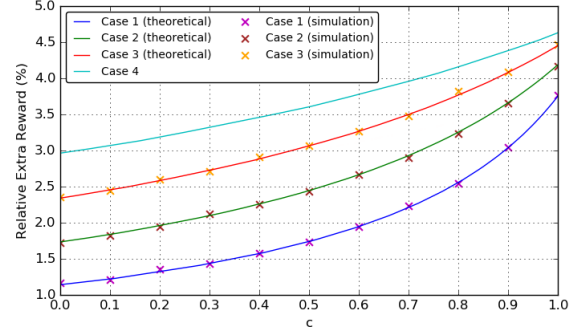


Figure 4: Rewards for an FAW attacker against two pools when her computational power is $\alpha = 0.2$. Cases 1, 2, and 3 represent two target pools with computational power (β_1, β_2) equal to (0.1, 0.1), (0.2, 0.1), and (0.3, 0.1), respectively. Case 4 represents when F2Pool executes the FAW attack against all open pools in Table 2. Theoretical analysis result matches with simulation results approximately.

Table 2: Approximate Bitcoin power distribution [4], including closed pools and solo miners marked as Unknown.

Owner	Computational Power	Owner	Computational Power
Unknown	30%	BTCC Pool	10%
F2Pool	20%	BW.com	10%
AntPool	20%	BitFury	10%

two pools in cases 1, 2, and 3 in Fig. 4. The \times -marks show simulation results for 10^8 rounds, confirming the calculations.

7 TWO-POOL FAW ATTACK GAME

As described in Section 4, pools can execute FAW attacks against each other as well. We model a simultaneous game between two players, Pool $_1$ and Pool $_2$. We know that compliance with Bitcoin protocol by both players is not a Nash equilibrium, because the FAW attacker can earn extra rewards as discussed in Sections 5 and 6. In this section, we prove and derive the following result in the Nash equilibrium. In the case of an FAW attack, 1) the miner's dilemma no longer applies, and 2) the game outcome is based on pool size, where the larger pool wins the game. Note that while the game is generalizable to n pools, we leave an exact analysis for future work. Before analyzing the two-pool FAW attack game, we define the *winning condition* as earning an extra reward. By this definition, the game outcome indicates either a single winner, or no winner (as in the miner's dilemma).

7.1 Theoretical Analysis of the Game

Parameters for the analysis of the FAW attack game are defined as below for $i = 1, 2$.

α_i : Computational power of Pool $_i$

f_i : Infiltration mining power of Pool $_i$, i.e., $f_i = \tau_i \alpha_i$

When both rational players choose the FAW attack as a strategy, the players' rewards are as follows.

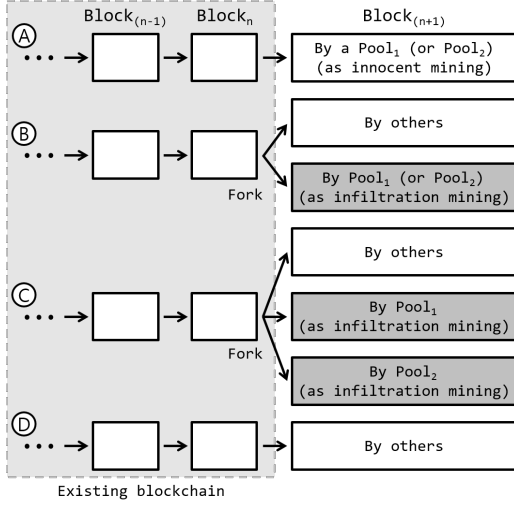


Figure 5: Four cases of the two-pool FAW attack game. ① Pool₁ (or Pool₂) finds an FPoW by innocent mining, ② Pool₁ (or Pool₂) finds an FPoW using infiltration mining and generates a fork, ③ Pool₁ and Pool₂ both find an FPoW in the opponent pool through infiltration mining and generate a fork, and ④ someone else finds an FPoW. Each pool can earn a reward in cases ①, ②, and ③.

THEOREM 7.1. *In the FAW attack game between two pools, the rewards R_1 of Pool₁ and R_2 of Pool₂ are:*

$$R_1 = \frac{\alpha_1 - f_1}{1 - f_1 - f_2} + c_2 f_2 \frac{1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{1 - f_2} + c'_2 f_1 f_2 \left(\frac{1}{1 - f_1} + \frac{1}{1 - f_2} \right) \frac{1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{1 - f_1 - f_2} + R_2 \frac{f_1}{\alpha_2 + f_1} \quad (5)$$

$$R_2 = \frac{\alpha_2 - f_2}{1 - f_1 - f_2} + c_1 f_1 \frac{1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{1 - f_1} + c'_1 f_1 f_2 \left(\frac{1}{1 - f_1} + \frac{1}{1 - f_2} \right) \frac{1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{1 - f_1 - f_2} + R_1 \frac{f_2}{\alpha_1 + f_2} \quad (6)$$

PROOF SKETCH. Pool₁ and Pool₂ can earn rewards in cases ①, ②, and ③ in Figure 5. Case ① represents when an honest miner in one pool finds an FPoW. According to case ①, Pool_i can earn $\frac{\alpha_i - f_i}{1 - f_1 - f_2}$. Case ② represents when only one of the two pools finds an FPoW in the opponent pool using infiltration mining and submits it to the opponent pool when another miner finds another valid block. If the FPoW mined by an infiltration miner of Pool_i in the opponent pool is selected as the main chain (with probability c_i), the opponent pool can earn the reward $c_i f_i \frac{1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{1 - f_1 - f_2}$. The final case shows when infiltration miners of both pools find FPoWs in the opponent pool and someone outside the two pools finds another FPoW. If c'_i is the probability of selecting the FPoW from Pool_i's infiltration mining in the opponent pool as the main chain among three branches, the opponent can earn

$$c'_i f_1 f_2 \left(\frac{1}{1 - f_1} + \frac{1}{1 - f_2} \right) \frac{1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{1 - f_1 - f_2} \quad (c'_1 + c'_2 \leq 1).$$

Based on the above rewards for three cases, the rewards R_1 of Pool₁ and R_2 of Pool₂ can be expressed as Eq. (5) and (6), respectively. \square

Next, we show that the game has a unique Nash equilibrium, and this equilibrium point does not represent honest mining by both players since a pool can always earn the extra reward by executing the FAW attack against a compliant pool.

THEOREM 7.2. *The game has a unique Nash equilibrium (f_1, f_2) , and this is either a point satisfying $\frac{\partial R_1}{\partial f_1} = 0, \frac{\partial R_2}{\partial f_2} = 0$ or a point on a borderline satisfying these restricted conditions.*

PROOF SKETCH. To prove the existence of a Nash equilibrium, it suffices to show that the second partial derivatives of R_1 and R_2 for f_1 and f_2 , respectively, are always negative under the following conditions: $0 \leq f_1 \leq \alpha_1 \leq 1, 0 \leq f_2 \leq \alpha_2 \leq 1, \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \leq 1, 0 \leq c_1, c_2 \leq 1$, and $0 \leq c'_1 + c'_2 \leq 1$. Therefore, a unique Nash equilibrium point exists since the functions are strictly concave under these conditions [33].

Next, we find the equilibrium point by using *Best-response dynamics*. Pool₁ and Pool₂ start with $(f_1, f_2) = (0, 0)$ and alternately update these values to the most profitable infiltration mining power. If we first update Pool₁'s infiltration power $f_1^{(1)}$ to maximize R_1 , then Pool₂'s infiltration power $f_2^{(1)}$ would be adjusted to maximize R_2 according to $f_1^{(1)}$. After that, Pool₁'s infiltration power $f_1^{(2)}$ again is updated for maximizing R_1 based on $f_2^{(1)}$. This process repeats continuously. When we generalize this for the k -th process, $f_1^{(k)}$ and $f_2^{(k)}$ are represented by $f_1^{(k)} = \arg \max_{0 \leq f_1 \leq \alpha_1} R_1(f_1, f_2^{(k-1)})$, $f_2^{(k)} = \arg \max_{0 \leq f_2 \leq \alpha_2} R_2(f_1^{(k)}, f_2)$, respectively. If $f_1^{(k)}$ and $f_2^{(k)}$ converge as k approaches infinity, the values will be in a Nash equilibrium. The Nash equilibrium (f_1, f_2) is either a point satisfying $\frac{\partial R_1}{\partial f_1} = 0, \frac{\partial R_2}{\partial f_2} = 0$ or a point on a borderline of the possible region. \square

7.2 Quantitative Analysis

We quantitatively analyze the results of the game between two pools in the Nash equilibrium point. To reduce the parameter dimensions, we assume that c_i and c'_i are symmetrical for $i = 1, 2$ and can be expressed as c and $c/2$, respectively, while $(0 \leq c \leq 1)$. Fig. 6 represents the results of the FAW attack game in terms of α_2 and c if α_1 is 0.2. Figs. 6a and 6b show infiltration mining power f_1 and f_2 in the equilibrium. Figs. 6c and 6d represent RERs (%) R'_1 and R'_2 of Pool₁ and Pool₂ (these parameters are defined as in Section 5.2) in the equilibrium, respectively, in terms of α_2 and c . The **black lines** in Figs. 6c and 6d are the borderlines at which Pool₁ and Pool₂ earn the same RER as an honest miner, respectively. That is, Pool₁ and Pool₂ can earn the extra reward in the regions above the black lines in the corresponding figure, while taking a loss below the black lines. As a result, Pool₁ and Pool₂ can win the game if (α_2, c) is above the black lines in Figs. 6c and 6d when Pool₁'s size is 0.2. Figs. 6c and 6d also show that the FAW attack game becomes a pool size game, because the region above the black line is the case in which Pool₁'s size is larger than Pool₂'s size (and vice versa).

7.3 Winning Conditions

Eyal discovered that a game between two pools for the BWH attack brings forth the “miner’s dilemma”, because both suffer a loss in the Nash equilibrium when their computational power is less than 0.5 [15]. In the FAW attack game, the miner’s dilemma may not occur, even if the size of each of the pools is less than 0.5. The region to the right side of each line in Fig. 7 represents the winning range of Pool₁ in terms of c . The ten lines represent borderlines at

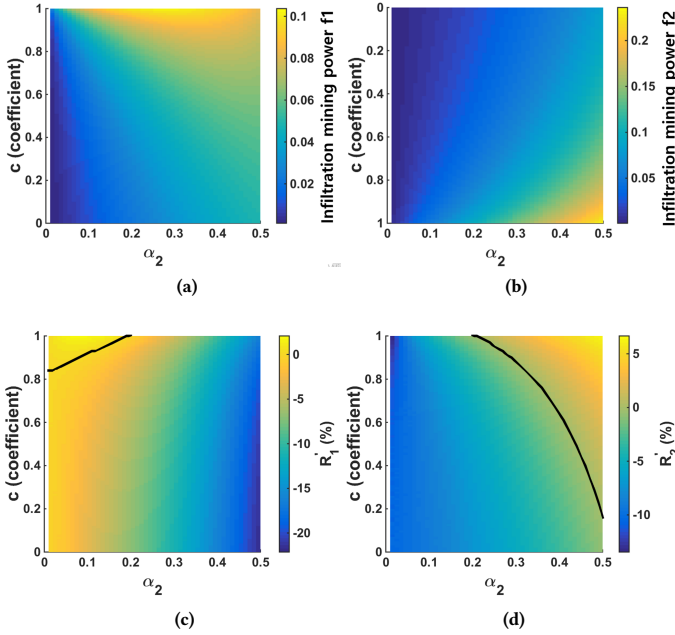


Figure 6: Results of the FAW attack game with varying Pool₂'s size α_2 and network capability c where Pool₁'s size α_1 is 0.2. (a) and (b) show the infiltration mining power of Pool₁ and Pool₂ as f_1 and f_2 in the Nash equilibrium point, respectively. (c) and (d) represent RERs (%) R'_1 and R'_2 for Pool₁ and Pool₂ in the Nash equilibrium point according to α_2 and c , respectively. Also, the black lines in (c) and (d) are the borderlines at which Pool₁ and Pool₂ earn the same RER as an honest miner, respectively. Above the lines, each pool earns the extra reward, so the prisoner's dilemma does not hold.

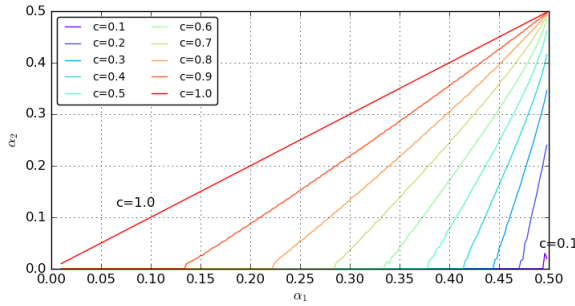


Figure 7: Winning conditions for Pool₁ with respect to c . The ten lines represent borderlines at which Pool₁ can earn the same reward as an honest miner according to c . The region to the right side of each line represents the winning range of Pool₁ in terms of c . Winning conditions for Pool₂ are found by swapping the x - and y -axes.

which Pool₁ can earn the same reward as an honest miner when values of c vary from 1 to 0.1. When c is 1, the borderline is exactly the line $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2$. In other words, the larger pool always earns the extra reward, and the smaller pool takes a loss. Therefore, the result

becomes dependent on pool size, even in the region where the miner's dilemma holds in the BWH attack game. Furthermore, the region in which the miner's dilemma does not hold exists even if c is less than 1. In summary, under reasonable conditions for two pools' computational power and network capabilities, the largest pool earns the extra reward. This makes the FAW attack a dominant strategy for any large pool to launch against smaller pools.

8 FAW ATTACK VS. SELFISH MINING

In this section, we discuss the practicality of the FAW attack in comparison with selfish mining, given that both require intentional forks. Eyal et al. [18] used the term γ to represent the fraction of the honest network that selects an attacker's block as the main chain in a fork in selfish mining. The value of γ cannot be 1 because when the intentional fork occurs, the honest miner who generated a block will select his block, not that of the selfish miner. Therefore, the value of γ is upper bounded as follows if α is the attacker's computational power and o_i is the computational power of the honest node i :

$$\gamma \leq 1 - \sum \frac{o_i^2}{(1-\alpha)^2} < 1 - \sum o_i^2.$$

Note that the total power of honest nodes is $1-\alpha$ (i.e., $\sum_i o_i = 1-\alpha$). Therefore, if a selfish miner belongs to the Unknown group in Table 2 (i.e., is a solo miner or a closed pool), the value of γ is loosely upper bounded by 0.89 according to Table 2. Eyal et al. [18] stated that an attacker needs at least $\frac{1-\gamma}{3-2\gamma}$ computational power for selfish mining to be profitable. As a result, the attacker needs computing power of at least 0.09 even when her network capability is optimal. However, this power is too high for most solo miners or closed pools. For them, selfish mining is not profitable. In contrast, the FAW attack is always profitable regardless of an attacker's computational power (see Sections 5 and 6). This makes the FAW attack more practical for a solo miner or a closed pool.

Next, we consider a case in which a selfish miner is an open pool manager. Here, the cost for selfish mining may not be very high for the attacker. However, the selfish open pool manager must be concerned about whether honest miners will leave her pool by disclosing direct evidence before she earns the extra reward, because honest miners do not want to destabilize Bitcoin. Indeed, honest miners belonging to the attacker's pool can easily detect that their pool manager is a selfish mining attacker in two ways. First, if the manager does not propagate blocks immediately when honest miners generate FPoWs, the honest miners will know that their pool manager is an attacker. Second, the blockchain has an abnormal shape when a selfish miner exists; Bitcoin miners can determine which open pool has caused the abnormal shape because which open pool has found each block is public information. This information is provided by several services [4, 32]. For example, when one branch of a fork contains consecutive blocks generated by the attacker's pool in a short time period, the pool may be suspect. Even if the attacker tweaks her strategy to evade detection by releasing her blocks gradually, one branch of the fork will still contain consecutive blocks generated by the attacker's pool. Therefore, all participants in Bitcoin including honest miners in the pool can detect that the pool is a selfish miner before she earns the extra reward. As a result, open pool managers are unlikely to execute selfish mining.

When the FAW attack occurs and the attacker is an open pool manager, the fork rate may increase; therefore, detecting the existence of the FAW attack may not be difficult. However, identifying the attacker is more challenging than with selfish mining because if an honest miner in her pool generates an FPoW, the FAW attacker propagates the block immediately, which differs from selfish mining. In addition, since the infiltration miner in the target pool generates forks intentionally by propagating FPoWs to the target pool, the identity of the target but not the attacker is disclosed. In other words, the attacker's pool looks innocent, and meanwhile the target pool looks strange due to its high rate of forks.

9 NETWORK CAPABILITY c

For an attacker to execute an FAW attack, she needs to know some information in advance. First, an attacker's optimal $\bar{\tau}$ depends not only on the attacker's computation power, but also on that of the target pool. Therefore, she must know the target pool's computational power. Its approximate value can be obtained from the current computational power distribution [4], which is public information.

However, she also needs to know the value of network capability c in order to adopt an optimal $\bar{\tau}$ in Eq. (2). The term c is the probability that an attacker's FPoW from infiltration mining will be selected as the main chain. In this section, a possible range of c is first given, and then attacker behavior for a constant yet unknown c is discussed. We extend this discussion to the case in which c changes frequently. The results are promising. We show that the FAW attack still improves upon the BWH attack, even if c is unknown. Furthermore, interestingly, the range to which the miner's dilemma applies decreases compared to when c is known in the FAW attack game.

The Possible Range of c : The value of network capability c is greater than or equal to 0 by definition. *In practice, the value of c is positive, because it is possible for an attacker to listen to external block propagation faster than the manager using Sybil nodes.* Moreover, if the target pool's manager behaves rationally, the minimum value of c (in Section 5) is the sum of the computational power of the attacker and the target pool because the attacker and target pool select her FPoW found through infiltration mining. Here, the manager's rational behavior is to select the block found by infiltration miner in his pool as the main chain even if the infiltration miner propagates this FPoW to the manager *right after* he notices that an external miner has found a block. In the same manner, since two players in the FAW attack game are rational, the value of c in the FAW attack game between two pools is lower bounded by $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$. The maximum value of c also depends on computational power distribution in the Bitcoin network because an honest miner (neither belonging to the target pool nor representing the attacker) who generates an FPoW selects his own block, not the block from the attacker's FPoW from infiltration mining. Therefore, even if an attacker has optimal network capability, the maximum value of c in Sections 5 and 6 is upper bounded by

$$c = 1 - \frac{\sum_j o_j^2}{1 - \alpha - \beta}$$

when o_j is the computational power of an external honest miner node j . Note that the total computational power of honest miners $\sum_j o_j$ is $1 - \alpha - \beta$. Also, the value of c in Section 7 is upper bounded

by

$$c = 1 - \frac{\sum_j o_j^2}{1 - \sum_{i=1 \sim n} \alpha_i}$$

when the game participants are n open pools. In this case, this condition $\sum_j o_j = 1 - \sum_{i=1 \sim n} \alpha_i$ is satisfied.

For example, if two pools, F2Pool and BitFury, with computational powers of 20% and 10%, respectively, as in Table 2, participate in the FAW attack game, the maximum value of c is about 0.914. Note that this case does not fall into the miner's dilemma, and, therefore, the game becomes the pool size game. Moreover, when the power of honest miners (o_j) is evenly distributed among many nodes, c may be closer to 1. Thus, if an attacker executes the FAW attack against all open pools, or if all open pools participate in the FAW attack game, the maximum value of c may be close to 1.

In addition, network capability c can be expressed as $\gamma(1 - \alpha - \beta) + \alpha + \beta$ when the target is one pool, and the target manager behaves rationally in order to reduce loss (applying the network capability term γ used in prior research [18, 30]).

Constant c : We first assume that the value of c is constant but unknown to the FAW attacker against one pool. Under such conditions, she cannot apply Eq. (2) directly because optimal $\bar{\tau}$ depends on the value of c . However, she knows that the value of c is greater than or equal to 0 if the target pools' managers are honest. Thus, she can choose $\bar{\tau}_0$, obtained from Eq. (2) substituting c with 0. In such a case, the attacker can still earn a greater reward than the BWH attacker. The FAW attacker's reward $R_a(\bar{\tau}_0)$ is

$$\max_{\tau} (R_{BWH}) + c\bar{\tau}_0\alpha \cdot \frac{1 - \alpha - \beta}{1 - \bar{\tau}_0\alpha} \cdot \frac{\bar{\tau}_0\alpha}{\beta + \bar{\tau}_0\alpha},$$

which is lower bounded by the BWH attacker's reward R_{BWH} .

If the target pool's manager is rational, the attacker repeats the above process, substituting c with $\alpha + \beta$, the minimum value of c in Eq. (2). Thus, she uses $\bar{\tau}_{\alpha+\beta}$ as the value of τ . Then, the FAW attacker earns extra reward that is certainly more than that for the BWH attacker. Note that the attacker can test whether the manager is rational by submitting a stale FPoW. The attacker can also learn about c , investigating the relationship between long-term and theoretical rewards for the minimum value of c , when we assume that c is constant. As a result, she can find an optimal $\bar{\tau}$ (Eq. (2)), and her reward converges to the maximum value of R_a .

Frequently Changing c : The Bitcoin network often changes, with the power distribution and number of nodes shifting as well [4, 6]. Thus, the value of c may also change. When an attacker executes the FAW attack against one pool and the pool manager is honest, as in the above case, she must use $\bar{\tau}_0$ as the value of τ . In fact, the attacker may ignore the fact that c changes. For example, she may assume $c = 0$ and choose an optimal strategy. Applying this strategy to the FAW attack against the four open pools in Table 2, she can earn an RER of up to 3.99%. Therefore, the FAW attack improves her RER by up to 34.62% of that for the BWH attack even if the attacker knows nothing about c . Moreover, in the FAW attack game between two pools, two pools may assume $c = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$, which is the minimum value of c , in practice. Using the FAW game between F2Pool (Pool₁) and BTCC Pool (Pool₂) in Table 2 as an example, both managers may assume $c = 0.3$. Then, the winning conditions for F2Pool (Pool₁) are shown in Fig. 8. Furthermore, compared to Fig. 7, Fig. 8

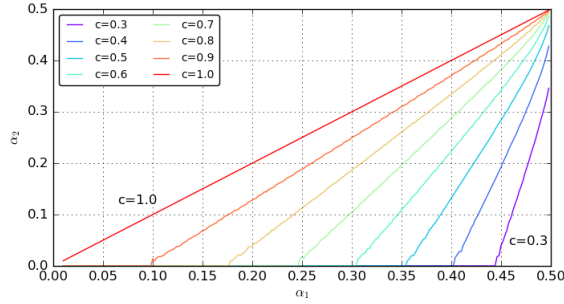


Figure 8: The winning condition of Pool₁ versus c . Ten lines represent borderlines at which Pool₁ can earn the same reward as an honest miner according to c . The region to the right side of each line represents the winning range of Pool₁ in terms of c . Pool₂'s winning conditions are found by swapping the x - and y -axes.

shows how the region affected by the miner's dilemma decreases. Indeed, when the assumed value of c decreases, the region affected by the miner's dilemma decreases as well.

10 DISCUSSION

10.1 Rational Manager

In the FAW attack, an attacker submits an FPoW to a manager to generate a fork when an external miner broadcasts a block. For her block to be selected, she must quickly notice the external block propagation using Sybil nodes. If she detects the propagation before the pool manager, a fork can be caused naturally, from the manager's perspective. When she learns of the propagation from the manager (instead of detecting it first), she submits her FPoW immediately. In this case, an honest manager regards the attacker's FPoW as stale and invalidates it because he knows a new round has already started. However, a rational manager may not act in accordance with the protocol, since *it would always be beneficial for him to submit a local FPoW*. We already proved that the manager's behavior can decrease his pool's loss, as in Section 5. This behavior decreases the manager's loss and increases the attacker's reward as a side-effect. Note that in the FAW attack game in Section 7, since two pools are attacking each other, both managers are rational. Therefore, they always propagate a block found by the opponent's infiltration miner in their own pool, even if they received a block from an external miner first.

10.2 Detecting FAW Attacks and Attackers

We showed that FAW attacks provide greater rewards to attackers than existing BWH attacks. From the target pool's perspective, detecting infiltration mining and identifying the attacker are important. Indeed, the FAW attack is easier to detect than the BWH attack because of the high fork rate. Additionally, the manager should suspect and expel any miner who submits stale FPoWs, rather than paying out the reward for the current round. Note that rewards for previous rounds cannot be returned to the manager because of the properties of Bitcoin. The attacker may easily launch the attack using many Sybil nodes with many churns, replacing the expelled miner. This strategy allows the attacker to receive rewards without

being greatly affected by the manager behavior, even if her FAW attack is detected and her infiltration miner is expelled. For example, assuming that an attacker infiltrates a target pool with L infiltration miners, each with different worker ID and password, if the L -th infiltration miner is detected by the manager, the remaining $L - 1$ miners can still earn rewards. Then, the attacker's reward is lower bounded by

$$\frac{(1-\tau)\alpha}{1-\tau\alpha} + \frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} \cdot \frac{(L-d)\tau\alpha}{L\beta + (L-d)\tau\alpha} + c\tau\alpha \cdot \frac{1-\alpha-\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} \cdot \frac{(L-d-1)\tau\alpha}{L\beta + \tau\alpha(L-d-1)}$$

when $d = \frac{(1-c)\gamma\alpha(1-\alpha-\beta)}{\beta + c\gamma\alpha(1-\alpha-\beta)}$.

Therefore, the more infiltration miners are used (i.e., the more L increases), the less detection affects the attacker. She may continue the FAW attack by substituting the L -th miner with another infiltration miner. Thus, the FAW attacker's reward is still better than the BWH attacker's for a properly chosen L because the minimum value of c is positive in practice. Additionally, an attacker can twist the FAW attack by propagating the withheld FPoW only when she notices external block propagation faster than the manager if the manager is honest. Also, she can hide her IP address by using hidden services such as Tor.

10.3 Countermeasures

Even if we focus on the FAW attack against Bitcoin, other proof-of-work cryptocurrencies such as Ethereum [38], Litecoin [22], Dogecoin [14], and Permacoin [27] are also vulnerable to the FAW attack. Especially, Ethereum adopts a protocol based on GHOST [36] unlike Bitcoin. Therefore, the FAW attacker's reward in the case of Ethereum should be recalculated. Because the FAW attack breaks the dilemma and is more practical than selfish mining, it can be launched from large pools in these cryptocurrencies.

We discuss possible countermeasures against the FAW attack. First, an approach must satisfy *backward compatibility* in order to be a practical defense mechanism. Backward compatibility means miners who have not upgraded their mining hardware can still mine after the measures are implemented [39], retaining miners' current mining hardware investments [17]. This is important because Bitcoin's security is directly related to total mining power. Therefore, it is impractical to make a major change to the Bitcoin protocol for defense. The *two-phase PoW* protocol, called *Oblivious Shares*, presented by Rosenfeld [34] which can defend against both BWH and FAW attacks is on these grounds.

Second, to prevent FAW attacks, it is not sufficient to just detect the infiltration miner. As described in Section 10.2, detection rarely affects the FAW attacker. For detection, one may consider the following mechanism:

"Mining pool managers could provide a beacon value that is updated very frequently (i.e., every couple of seconds) and only give points for PPoWs that include a recent beacon value."

This defense has an effect only when an attacker notices external block propagation faster than the manager, subsequently propagating a withheld FPoW. (If the attacker notices the propagation after the manager, the manager already knows that the FPoW is stale.) In this case, the manager may notice the FPoW is stale because it includes a stale *beacon* value. However, the manager would still propagate a valid block based on the FPoW. Note that this credible

behavior does not deviate from Bitcoin protocol because the manager received the internal FPoW before the external one. Then, as mentioned in Section 10.2, the remaining infiltration miners (e.g., $L - 1$ infiltration miners in Section 10.2) receive a reward even if the infiltration miner (e.g., the L -th infiltration miner), who submitted the FPoW, is expelled. As a result, the attacker still earns a higher reward than the BWH attacker.

Another *two-phase PoW* [17] proposed by Eyal and Sirer can be used to defend against FAW attacks. This defense has better backward compatibility than Rosenfeld's *Oblivious Shares* [34]. In both schemes, a miner does not know whether his PPoW is a valid block because generating a PoW is divided into two steps. However, the Bitcoin community would not like to adopt the two-phase PoW proposed by Eyal and Sirer as well [15]. Such an approach would be inconvenient for closed pools and solo miners who are not concerned about being targets of BWH and FAW attacks. For pool managers, this protocol increases the cost of pool operation. Moreover, pool miners are concerned about *block withholding* by pool managers. A rational manager can waste miners' power by withholding blocks in her pool and then earn higher rewards through solo mining. If the malicious manager throws away all blocks found by miners, miners can detect it in a short time period. However, when the manager throws away just a part of the blocks (e.g., 5%), miners cannot detect it for a long time. Such behavior can be seen as a new variant of the BWH attack. As a result, *two-phase PoW* proposed by Eyal and Sirer is hardly suitable for adoption by the Bitcoin system. Note that *Oblivious Shares* also has drawbacks described above.

Eyal [15] and Luu et al. [24] have introduced several countermeasures against BWH attacks. A joining fee was one such measure, but Eyal concluded that miners prefer flexibility. A honeypot trap was also proposed, but the idea was quickly dropped due to high overhead. Moreover, even if this idea is practical, BWH and FAW attacks can still be profitable if an attacker uses many (L) infiltration miners. As established in Section 10.2, the remaining $L - 1$ miners can still receive rewards even if the L -th miner is detected. Indeed, the reward for a BWH attacker given the honeypot trap is lower bounded by

$$\frac{(1-\tau)\alpha}{1-\tau\alpha} + \frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} \cdot \frac{(L-d)\tau\alpha}{L\beta + (L-d)\tau\alpha} \text{ if } d = \frac{\gamma\alpha(1-\gamma\alpha)}{\beta}.$$

Both studies also proposed new reward systems to incentivize miners to submit FPoWs immediately. To prevent FAW attacks, we may consider a new reward system. A pool miner who finds an FPoW (as opposed to a PPoW) can receive a bonus from the manager. If, for example, the manager receives 1 BTC for each block, the miner who finds an FPoW may receive 0.1 BTC, with 0.9 BTC distributed among all miners in proportion to their work shares. Theorem 10.1 shows this defensive reward scheme against FAW attacks.

THEOREM 10.1. *If a reward fraction t of the total reward (e.g., 1 BTC) for one valid block is given to the miner who finds an FPoW, then the attacker's reward, R_a , is*

$$\frac{(1-\tau)\alpha}{1-\tau\alpha} + \frac{\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} \cdot (1-t) \cdot \frac{\tau\alpha}{\beta+\tau\alpha} + c\tau\alpha \cdot \frac{1-\alpha-\beta}{1-\tau\alpha} \cdot (t + (1-t) \frac{\tau\alpha}{\beta+\tau\alpha}).$$

When the manager chooses $t \geq \frac{1}{2(1-c_{max}(1-P))}$ for the pool's current computational power, P , R_a is always less than α .

This theorem shows that the manager can make honest mining more profitable than the FAW attack by choosing t properly. Unfortunately, miners may hesitate to join pools using this reward system because of the high reward variance. We may also consider a reward system in which pool miners get a wage for multiple rounds once. Damage to the attacker due to detection would be more visible even if the damage decreases as the number of infiltration miners (i.e., L) increases. However, this scheme also causes high reward variance, which might make it difficult for the pool manager to attract more power. Therefore, he should be cautious about adopting this new reward system, even if it can decrease the risk of the FAW attack.

11 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have proposed FAW attacks in which an attacker withholds a block in a target pool and submits it when an external miner propagates a valid block. Such an attack can generate an intentional fork. Our attack not only improves the practicality of selfish mining but also yields rewards equal to or greater than those of BWH attacks. Unlike the "miner's dilemma" that arises in a BWH attack game, an FAW attack game can produce a clear winner in the Nash equilibrium point – the larger mining pool gains while the smaller pool loses. Interestingly, rational behavior of the target pool manager also makes FAW attacks more profitable. Participants in the Bitcoin network want a cheap and efficient defense against attacks, including FAW attacks, without introducing major changes to the Bitcoin protocol or causing side-effects. Unfortunately, we cannot find such a defense, and discovering a solution remains an open problem. Therefore, we leave it as a future work. The irrelevance of the miner's dilemma unlike BWH attacks and practicality unlike selfish mining means that proof-of-work cryptocurrencies are expected to see large miners executing FAW attacks.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research was supported by the MSIT (Ministry of Science and ICT), Korea, under the ITRC (Information Technology Research Center) support program (IITP-2017-2015-0-00403) supervised by the IITP (Institute for Information & communications Technology Promotion).

REFERENCES

- [1] [1500 TH] p2pool: Decentralized, DoS-resistant, Hop-Proof pool. <https://bitcointalk.org/index.php?topic=18313.14900>. (2017). [Online; accessed 3-May-2017].
- [2] Moshe Babaioff, Shahar Dobzinski, Sigal Oren, and Aviv Zohar. 2012. On Bitcoin and Red Balloons. In *Conference on electronic commerce*. ACM.
- [3] Lear Bahack. 2013. Theoretical Bitcoin Attacks with Less than Half of the Computational Power (draft). *arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.7013* (2013).
- [4] Bitcoin Mining Pools. <https://bitcoinchain.com/pools>. (2017). [Online; accessed 03-May-2017].
- [5] Eligius: 0% Fee BTC, 105% PPS NMC, No registration, CPPSRB. (2014). <https://bitcointalk.org/?topic=441465.msg7282674> [Online; accessed 28-Oct-2016].
- [6] BITNODES. <https://bitnodes.21.co/>. (2016). [Online; accessed 30-Sep-2016].
- [7] Blockchain Market Price. <https://blockchain.info/ko/charts/market-price?timespan=all>. (2016). [Online; accessed 30-Sep-2016].
- [8] Joseph Bonneau, Andrew Miller, Jeremy Clark, Arvind Narayanan, Joshua A Kroll, and Edward W Felten. 2015. SoK: Research Perspectives and Challenges for Bitcoin and Cryptocurrencies. In *Symposium on Security and Privacy*. IEEE.
- [9] Danny Bradbury. 2013. The Problem with Bitcoin. *Computer Fraud & Security* 2013, 11 (2013).
- [10] Vitalik Buterin. Selfish Mining: A 25% Attack Against the Bitcoin Network. (2013). <https://bitcoinmagazine.com/articles/selfish-mining-a-25-attack-against-the-bitcoin-network-1383578440/> [Online; accessed 31-Oct-2016].
- [11] Miles Carlsten, Harry Kalodner, S Matthew Weinberg, and Arvind Narayanan. 2016. On the Instability of Bitcoin without the Block Reward. In *Conference on Computer and Communications Security*. ACM.
- [12] Nicolas T Courtois and Lear Bahack. 2014. On Subversive Miner Strategies and Block Withholding Attack in Bitcoin Digital Currency. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1402.1718* (2014).
- [13] Christian Decker and Roger Wattenhofer. 2013. Information Propagation in the Bitcoin Network. In *International Conference on Peer-to-Peer Computing*. IEEE.
- [14] DOGECOIN. <http://dogecoin.com/>. (2016). [Online; accessed 30-Sep-2016].
- [15] Ittay Eyal. 2015. The Miner’s Dilemma. In *Symposium on Security and Privacy*. IEEE.
- [16] Ittay Eyal, Adem Efe Gencer, Emin Gün Sirer, and Robbert Van Renesse. 2016. Bitcoin-NG: A Scalable Blockchain Protocol. In *Symposium on Networked Systems Design and Implementation*. Usenix.
- [17] Ittay Eyal and Emin Gün Sirer. How to Disincentivize Large Bitcoin Mining Pools. (2014). [Online; accessed 1-May-2017].
- [18] Ittay Eyal and Emin Gün Sirer. 2014. Majority Is Not Enough: Bitcoin Mining Is Vulnerable. In *International Conference on Financial Cryptography and Data Security*. Springer.
- [19] Arthur Gervais, Ghassan O Karame, Karl Wüst, Vasileios Glykantzis, Hubert Ritzdorf, and Srdjan Capkun. 2016. On the Security and Performance of Proof of Work Blockchains. In *Conference on Computer and Communications Security*. ACM.
- [20] Ghassan O Karame, Elli Androulaki, and Srdjan Capkun. 2012. Double-spending Fast Payments in Bitcoin. In *Conference on Computer and Communications Security*. ACM.
- [21] Eleftherios Kokoris Kogias, Philipp Jovanovic, Nicolas Gailly, Ismail Khoffi, Linus Gasser, and Bryan Ford. 2016. Enhancing Bitcoin Security and Performance with Strong Consistency via Collective Signing. In *Security Symposium*. Usenix.
- [22] Litecoin. <https://litecoin.info/Litecoin>. (2016). [Online; accessed 30-Sep-2016].
- [23] Loi Luu, Viswesh Narayanan, Chaodong Zheng, Kunal Baweja, Seth Gilbert, and Prateek Saxena. 2016. A Secure Sharding Protocol for Open Blockchains. In *Conference on Computer and Communications Security*. ACM.
- [24] Loi Luu, Ratul Saha, Inian Parameshwaran, Prateek Saxena, and Aquinas Hobor. 2015. On Power Splitting Games in Distributed Computation: The Case of Bitcoin Pooled Mining. In *Computer Security Foundations Symposium (CSF)*. IEEE.
- [25] Loi Luu, Yaron Velner, Jason Teutsch, and Prateek Saxena. SMART POOL: Practical Decentralized Pooled Mining. (2017).
- [26] Ralph C Merkle. 1980. Protocols for Public Key Cryptosystems. In *Symposium on Security and privacy*. IEEE.
- [27] Andrew Miller, Ari Juels, Elaine Shi, Bryan Parno, and Jonathan Katz. 2014. Permacoin: Repurposing bitcoin work for data preservation. In *Symposium on Security and Privacy*. IEEE.
- [28] Andrew Miller, James Litton, Andrew Pachulski, Neal Gupta, Dave Levin, Neil Spring, and Bobby Bhattacharjee. Discovering Bitcoin’s Public Topology and Influential Nodes. (2015).
- [29] Satoshi Nakamoto. Bitcoin: A peer-to-peer electronic cash system. (2008).
- [30] Kartik Nayak, Srikanth Kumar, Andrew Miller, and Elaine Shi. 2016. Stubborn Mining: Generalizing Selfish Mining and Combining with an Eclipse Attack. In *European Symposium on Security and Privacy*. IEEE.
- [31] Double Spending Risk Remains After July 4th Bitcoin Fork. <https://www.coindesk.com/double-spending-risk-bitcoin-network-fork/>. (2016). [Online; accessed 30-Sep-2016].
- [32] Proof of Work. https://en.bitcoin.it/wiki/Proof_of_work. (2016). [Online; accessed 30-Sep-2016].
- [33] J Ben Rosen. 1965. Existence and Uniqueness of Equilibrium Points for Concave n-person Games. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society* (1965).
- [34] Meni Rosenfeld. 2011. Analysis of Bitcoin Pooled Mining Reward Systems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1112.4980* (2011).
- [35] Ayelet Sapirshstein, Yonatan Sompolinsky, and Aviv Zohar. 2015. Optimal Selfish Mining Strategies in Bitcoin. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1507.06183* (2015).
- [36] Yonatan Sompolinsky and Aviv Zohar. 2015. Secure high-rate transaction processing in Bitcoin. In *International Conference on Financial Cryptography and Data Security*. Springer.
- [37] Stratum Mining Protocol. https://en.bitcoin.it/wiki/Stratum_mining_protocol. (2016). [Online; accessed 30-Sep-2016].
- [38] Gavin Wood. 2014. Ethereum: A secure decentralised generalised transaction ledger. *Ethereum Project Yellow Paper* 151 (2014).
- [39] Ren Zhang and Bart Preneel. 2017. Publish or Perish: A Backward-Compatible Defense Against Selfish Mining in Bitcoin. In *Cryptographers’ Track at the RSA Conference*. Springer.

APPENDIX A

Algorithm 1 FAW attack against one pool

```

1:  $A$ : The miner set of an attacker
2:  $P$ : The miner set of a target pool
3:  $F_k$ : The  $k$ -th found FPoW for one round
4:  $X \leftarrow \text{work}(Y)$ : The miner set  $Y$  finds FPoW  $X$ 
5:  $Y \leftarrow \text{submit}(X)$ : FPoW  $X$  is submitted to the manager of  $Y$ 
6:  $\text{publish}(Y, X)$ : The manager of  $Y$  publishes FPoW  $X$ 
7:  $\text{discard}(X)$ : An attacker discards FPoW  $X$ 

8: function ROUND
9:    $k = 1$ 
10: Generate a Fork:
11:   if  $F_k \leftarrow \text{work}(A \cap P^c)$  then
12:      $\text{publish}(A, F_k)$  ▷ Case A
13:   else if  $F_k \leftarrow \text{work}(A^c \cap P)$  then
14:      $P \leftarrow \text{submit}(F_k)$ 
15:      $\text{publish}(P, F_k)$  ▷ Case B
16:   else if  $F_k \leftarrow \text{work}(A^c \cap P^c)$  then
17:     if  $k \neq 1$  then
18:        $\text{publish}(A^c \cap P^c, F_k)$ 
19:        $P \leftarrow \text{submit}(F_1)$ 
20:        $\text{publish}(P, F_1)$  ▷ Fork, Case C
21:     else
22:        $\text{publish}(A^c \cap P^c, F_k)$  ▷ Case D
23:     end if
24:   else
25:      $F_k \leftarrow \text{work}(A \cap P)$ 
26:     if  $k \neq 1$  then
27:        $\text{discard}(F_k)$ 
28:     end if
29:      $k++$ 
30:     goto Generate a Fork
31:   end if
32: end function

```

Algorithm 2 FAW attack against n pools

```
1:  $A$ : The miner set of an attacker
2:  $P_j$ : The miner set of a target pool  $j$ 
3:  $P$ :  $\cup P_j$ 
4:  $F_k$ : The  $k$ -th found FPoW for one round
5:  $F_{wh,i}$ : The FPoW found by  $A$  in the pool  $i$ 
6:  $X \leftarrow \text{work}(Y)$ : The miner set  $Y$  finds FPoW  $X$ 
7:  $Y \leftarrow \text{submit}(X)$ : FPoW  $X$  is submitted to the manager of  $Y$ 
8:  $\text{publish}(Y, X)$ : The manager of  $Y$  publishes FPoW  $X$ 
9:  $\text{discard}(X)$ : An attacker discards FPoW  $X$ 

10: function ROUND
11:    $k = 1$ 
12:   foreach  $P_i \subset P$  do
13:      $F_{wh,i} = \emptyset$ 
14:   Generate a Fork:
15:     if  $F_k \leftarrow \text{work}(A \cap P^c)$  then
16:        $\text{publish}(A, F_k)$  ▷ Case A
17:     else if  $F_k \leftarrow \text{work}(A^c \cap P_i)$  then
18:        $P_i \leftarrow \text{submit}(F_k)$ 
19:        $\text{publish}(P_i, F_k)$  ▷ Case B
20:     else if  $F_k \leftarrow \text{work}(A^c \cap P^c)$  then
21:       if  $F_{wh,i} \neq \emptyset$  then
22:          $\text{publish}(A^c \cap P^c, F_k)$ 
23:          $P_i \leftarrow \text{submit}(F_{wh,i})$ 
24:          $\text{publish}(P_i, F_{wh,i})$  ▷ Fork, Case C, D
25:       else
26:          $\text{publish}(A^c \cap P^c, F_k)$  ▷ Case E
27:       end if
28:     else
29:        $F_k \leftarrow \text{work}(A \cap P_i)$ 
30:       if  $F_{wh,i} = \emptyset$  then
31:          $F_{wh,i} = F_k$ 
32:       else
33:          $\text{discard}(F_k)$ 
34:       end if
35:        $k++$ 
36:       goto Generate a Fork
37:     end if
38:   end foreach
39: end function
```
