

NIPoPoWs under Velvet Fork

1 Introduction

Since the release of Bitcoin about a decade ago, the interest in cryptocurrencies has increased tremendously, while a number of other “altcoins” have been constructed in the meantime. Given that cryptocurrencies are starting to be considered a generally accepted means of payment and are used for everyday transactions, the issue of efficiently handling cryptocurrencies by light clients, such as smartphones, has become of great importance.

In this work, we consider the problem of optimizing light clients, or “SPV clients” as described in the original Bitcoin paper[5]. As blockchains are ever growing, the main setback for efficient light client applications is the processing of data amount linear to the size of the blockchain, e.g. for synchronization purposes.

Our work is based on the construction of Non-Interactive Proofs of Proof of Work[1] that achieves SPV proofs of polylogarithmic portion of the blockchain size. The NIPoPoWs construction suggests a protocol update, that could be possibly implemented by a soft or a hard fork. Given the reluctancy of the Bitcoin community to proceed to such forks, we consider the case of a velvet fork[1][2], where it suffices only a portion of the total players to be updated.

Under this scope, our contributions come as follows:

- We revise the security proof for NIPoPoWs suffix proof protocol and compute a concrete value for the security parameter m
- We describe an attack, that we name *Chainsewing Attack*, against NIPoPoWs suffix proof construction, which is used for the light client’s synchronization
- We suggest a patch to the NIPoPoWs protocol that eliminates the *Chainsewing Attack* and prove its security

2 Model Definition and Notation

Our analysis concerns proof-of-work cryptocurrencies and is based on the standard Backbone model[4].

2.1 Blockchain Preliminaries

A blockchain, or simply chain, is a timely ordered sequence of blocks. In a cryptocurrency blockchain, like Bitcoin, a block is a proof-of-work verified set of information about a number of transactions, the previous block in the block sequence and a nonce. The proof-of-work involves a computation over a cryptographic puzzle. More specifically, it involves scanning for a value called nonce, that when included in the block the total hash of the block results to a value lower than a certain threshold.

More formally, let $G(\cdot)$, $H(\cdot)$ be cryptographic hash functions. A *block* is a triple of the form $B = \langle s, x, ctr \rangle$, where s is the previous block *id*, x is the transactions information and $ctr \in \mathbb{N}$, such that satisfy the predicate $validBlock^T(B)$ defined as

$$H(ctr, G(s, x)) < T \quad (1)$$

The threshold parameter $T \in \mathbb{N}$ is called the block’s *difficulty level*. Throughout this work we consider a constant value for the threshold T , although this is not the case in a real proof-of-work blockchain.

The rightmost block is the *head* the chain and is called the *Genesis* block often denoted G , while the whole chain is denoted C . So a chain C with $G = \langle s, x, ctr \rangle$ can be extended by appending a block $B = \langle s', x', ctr' \rangle$ as long as it holds that $s' = H(ctr, G(s, x))$. In effect every block is connected to the previous block in the chain by containing its hash. This is called the *prevId* relationship.

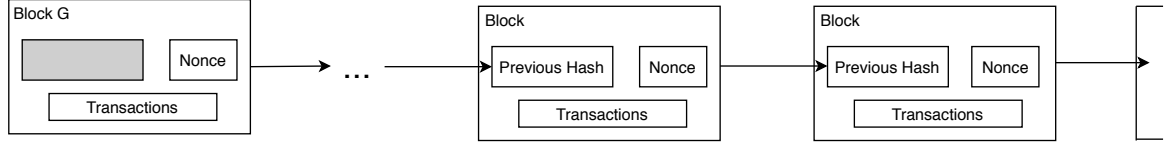


Figure 1: *A high-level representation of a blockchain.*

Figure 1 provides a high level representation of a blockchain including the bootstrap step of the very first block in the chain, where instead of the *prevId*, arbitrary data may be included in *s*.

Consider a peer-to-peer network where each party may have one of the following three roles: lightweight *clients*, full *nodes* and *miners*. Miners maintain an updated copy of the chain locally, while providing computational power, also called hashpower, to extend it. In order to extend the chain by one block, the miner has to perform a proof-of-work as already described. Full nodes can be thought of as miners with zero hashpower. Full nodes are also called *provers*, since they provide proofs answering the queries for specific chain information made by lightweight clients, according to Simplified Payment Verification (SPV) described by Nakamoto[5].

According to SPV scheme lightweight clients only need to store the block headers of the longest valid chain. A block header includes only a Merkle Tree Root of the Merkle Tree comprised by the transactions included in that specific block. In order to validate that a transaction is finalized, a client needs to query the nodes until he is convinced that he has the longest valid chain, search for the block containing that transaction and finally verify an inclusion proof of the transaction in the block of interest.

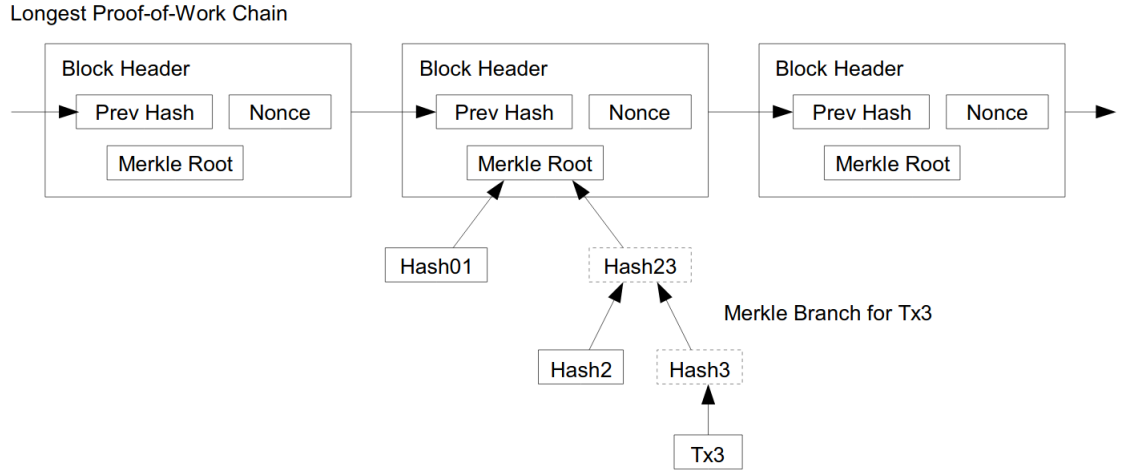


Figure 2: *High level representation of blockchain data kept by a lightweight client and an inclusion proof for a transaction Tx3.*[5]

In the SPV scheme a client needs to store blockchain data of linear size to the whole chain. By the time of writing Bitcoin's blockchain counts to almost 264GB and is estimated to grow more than 50GB per year. Since the growth rate of the chain is rather linear and constant, we need to construct more efficient protocols serving the needs of lightweight clients. To this end, the interaction between lightweight clients and full nodes is in our case supported by the NIPoPoWs[1] primitive which allows polylogarithmic proofs to the size of the chain.

2.2 The Backbone Model

The Backbone protocol is executed by an arbitrary number of parties over an unauthenticated network. We consider n parties in total, t of which may be controlled by an adversary.

Table 1 contains all the parameters of the Backbone protocol and will be a point of reference throughout this work.

η : security parameter
κ : length of the hash function output
n : number of parties mining, t of which are controlled by the adversary
T : the target hash value used by parties for solving POW
t : number of parties controlled by the adversary
δ : advantage of honest parties, $\frac{t}{n-t} \leq 1 - \delta$
f : probability at least one honest party succeeds in finding a POW in a round
ϵ : random variables' quality of concentration in typical executions
k : number of (suffix) blocks for the common prefix property
l : number of blocks for the chain quality property
μ_Q : chain quality parameter
s : number of rounds for the chain growth property
τ : chain growth parameter
L : the total run-time of the system

Table 1: The parameters of backbone model analysis. Positive integers $n, t, L, s, l, T, k, \kappa$, positive reals $f, \epsilon, \delta, \mu_Q, \tau, \lambda$ where $f, \epsilon, \delta, \mu_Q \in (0, 1)$.

We will now give a high-level description of the Backbone Protocol and its fundamental components, namely the three supporting algorithms for *chain validation*, *chain comparison* and *proof of work*. We will also define and discuss the three properties of the protocol, namely *Common Prefix*, *Chain Quality* and *Chain Growth*. For a more formal and detailed presentation refer to the Backbone paper[4].

Consider that the protocol has already run for some rounds and a chain C has been formed. Consider also an honest party that wishes to connect to the network, obtain the up-to-date version of the chain and try to extend it. The honest party connects to the network and first tries to synchronize to the current chain. The chain synchronization takes two steps to conclude. First, the newly connected peer receives a number of candidate chains by other peers in the network and validates them one by one as for the structural properties of each block (*Chain Validation*). In particular, for each block the chain validation algorithm checks that the proof-of-work is properly solved, that the hash of the previous block is properly included in the block and that the rest of the information included satisfies a certain validity predicate $V(\cdot)$ depending on the application. For example, in Bitcoin application it is checked that all the included transactions are valid according to the UTXO set.

Afterwards, the *Chain Comparison* algorithm is applied, where all the valid chains are compared to each other and the longest one, as for total number of blocks or total hashing power included, is considered the current active chain.

At last, in order to expand the chain by appending one more block to it, the *Proof Of Work* algorithm is applied, where the miner attempts to solve a proof of work as follows. The miner constructs the contents of the block, including the hash of the previous block and a number of new transactions published to the network. Consider that he can calculate the value $h = G(s, x)$ up to this point. Finally it remains to compute the ctr value so that $H(ctr, h) < T$. The protocol is running in rounds and each party can make at most q queries to function $H(\cdot)$ within a single round. If a suitable ctr is found, an honest party quits any queries remaining and announces the new born block to the network.

We can now define the three desired properties of the backbone protocol.

Definition (Common Prefix Property). The common prefix property Q_{cp} with parameter

$k \in \mathbb{N}$ states that for any pair of honest players P_1, P_2 adopting the chains C_1, C_2 at rounds $r_1 \leq r_2$ respectively, it holds that $C_1^{[k]} \preceq C_2$.

Definition (Chain Quality Property). The chain quality property Q_{cq} with parameters $\mu_{cq} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $l \in \mathbb{N}$ states that for any honest party P with chain C , it holds that for any l consecutive blocks of C the ratio of honest blocks is at least μ_{cq} .

Definition (Chain Growth Property). The chain growth property Q_{cg} with parameters $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$ and $s \in \mathbb{N}$ states that for any honest party P with chain C , it holds that for any s rounds there are at least $\tau \cdot s$ blocks added to the chain of P .

2.3 NIPoPoWs Preliminaries

2.4 Hard, Soft and Velvet Forks

We typically describe the two common types of a blockchain permanent fork as follows.

A *soft fork* is a consensus protocol upgrade which is backwards compatible. This means that non-upgraded nodes are able to process transactions and append a new block to the chain.

A *hard fork* is a consensus protocol upgrade which is not backwards compatible. This means that the changes in the protocol make a subset of the old rules invalid, so blocks generated by non-upgraded players are not accepted by the upgraded ones. In order the protocol update to be well established, the majority of the players must be upgraded or else the non-upgraded players will maintain the longest chain under the old rules. Players are incentivized to upgrade in order their blocks to be accepted in the chain as valid.

The goal of this work is to provide a slightly modified NIPoPoWs protocol so that it can be securely deployed under a velvet fork.

3 NIPoPoWs under Soft or Hard Fork

3.1 Suffix Proofs

NIPoPoWs suffix proofs are used to prove predicates that pertain to the suffix of the blockchain. For example, this is the case of light client synchronization to the longest valid chain. [...]

3.1.1 Security of Suffix Proofs

In this section we provide the full security proof for the NIPoPoWs suffix proof protocol[1]. Apart from the proof itself (Theorem 2), we describe the definitions and lemmas being used. We try to give intuition for arguments and conclusions in each step.

Assume t adversarial out of n total parties, each with q PoW random oracle queries per round. We define $p = \frac{T}{2^r}$ the probability of a successful Random Oracle query. We will call a query to the RO μ -successful if the RO returns a value h such that $h \leq 2^{-\mu T}$.

We define the boolean random variables $X_r^\mu, Y_r^\mu, Z_r^\mu$. Fix some round r , query index j and adversarial party index k (out of t). If at round r an honest party obtains a PoW with $id < 2^{-\mu T}$, set $X_r^\mu = 1$, otherwise $X_r^\mu = 0$. If at round r exactly one honest party obtains $id < 2^{-\mu T}$, set $Y_r^\mu = 1$, otherwise $Y_r^\mu = 0$. If at round r the j -th query of the k -th corrupted party is μ -successful, set $Z_{rjk}^\mu = 1$, otherwise $Z_{rjk}^\mu = 0$. Let $Z_r^\mu = \sum_{k=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^q Z_{rjk}^\mu$. For a set of rounds S , let $X^\mu(S) = \sum_{r \in S} X_r^\mu$ and similarly define Y_S^μ, Z_S^μ .

Definition 1 (Typical Execution). An execution of the protocol is (ϵ, η) -typical if:

Block counts don't deviate. For all $\mu \geq 0$ and any set S of consecutive rounds with $|S| \geq 2^\mu \eta k$, we have:

- $(1 - \epsilon)E[X^\mu(S)] < X^\mu(S) < (1 + \epsilon)E[X^\mu(S)]$ and $(1 - \epsilon)E[Y^\mu(S)] < Y^\mu(S)$
- $Z^\mu(S) < (1 + \epsilon)E[Z^\mu(S)]$

Round count doesn't deviate. Let S be a set of consecutive rounds such that $Z^\mu(S) \geq k$ for some security parameter k . Then $|S| \geq (1 - \epsilon)2^\mu \frac{k}{pqt}$ with overwhelming probability.

Chain regularity. No insertions, no copies and no predictions [4] have occurred.

Theorem 1 (Typicality). Executions are (ϵ, η) -typical with overwhelming probability in k .

Proof. Block counts and regularity. We refer to [4] for the full proof.

Round count. First, observe that for a specific round r we have $Z_{rjk} \sim \text{Bern}(p)$, so for the μ -level superblocks $Z_{rjk}^\mu \sim \text{Bern}(2^{-\mu}p)$ and these are jointly independent. Therefore, since for $|S|$ rounds we have $tq|S|$ adversarial RO queries, we have that $Z_S^\mu \sim \text{Bin}(tq|S|, 2^{-\mu}p)$. So $tq|S| \sim \text{NB}(Z_S^\mu, 2^{-\mu}p)$. Negative Binomial distribution is defined as $\text{NB}(r, p')$ and expresses the number of trials in a sequence of independent and identically distributed Bernoulli trials before a specified (r) number of successes occurs. The expected total number of trials of a negative binomial distribution with parameters (r, p') is r/p' . To see this, imagine an experiment simulating the negative binomial performed many times, that is a set of trials is performed until r successes occur. Consider you perform n experiments of total N trials. Now we would expect $Np' = nr$, so $N/n = r/p'$. See that N/n is just the average number of trials per experiment. So we have $E[tq|S|] = \frac{Z_S^\mu}{2^{-\mu}p} \Rightarrow E[|S|] = 2^\mu \frac{Z_S^\mu}{tqp}$. So if $Z^\mu(S) \geq k$ then $E[|S|] \geq 2^\mu \frac{k}{tqp}$. Applying a tail bound to the negative binomial distribution, we obtain that $\Pr[|S| < (1 - \epsilon)E(|S|)] \in \Omega(\epsilon^2 m)$.

Lemma 1. Suppose S is a set of consecutive rounds $r_1 \dots r_2$ and C_B is a chain adopted by an honest party at round r_2 of a typical execution. Let $C_S^B = \{ b \in C_B : b \text{ was generated during } S \}$. Let $\mu_A, \mu_B \in \mathbb{N}$. Suppose $C_S^B \uparrow^{\mu_B}$ is good. Suppose C'_A is a μ_A -superchain containing only adversarially generated blocks generated during S and suppose that $|C'_A| \geq k$. Then $2^{\mu_A}|C'_A| < 2^{\mu_B}|C_S^B \uparrow^{\mu_B}|$.

Proof. From $|C'_A| \geq k$ we have that $|Z_S^{\mu_A}| \geq k$. Applying Theorem 1, we conclude that $|S| \geq (1 - \epsilon')2^{\mu_A} \frac{|C'_A|}{pqt}$. Applying the Chain Growth theorem [4] we obtain $|C_B^S| \geq (1 - \epsilon)f|S|$. But from the goodness of $C_S^B \uparrow^{\mu_B}$, we know that $|C_B^S \uparrow^{\mu_B}| \geq (1 - \delta)2^{-\mu_B}|C_B^S|$. So we have $|C_B^S \uparrow^{\mu_B}| \geq (1 - \delta)2^{-\mu_B}(1 - \epsilon)f|S|$ and follows that $|C_B^S \uparrow^{\mu_B}| \geq (1 - \delta)2^{-\mu_B}(1 - \epsilon)f(1 - \epsilon')2^{\mu_A} \frac{|C'_A|}{pqt}$. Consequently we have that $2^{\mu_A}|C'_A| \leq \frac{pqt}{(1 - \delta)(1 - \epsilon)(1 - \epsilon')f} 2^{\mu_B}|C_B^S \uparrow^{\mu_B}|$.

So, according to the above equation we have that $2^{\mu_A}|C'_A| < 2^{\mu_B}|C_B^S \uparrow^{\mu_B}|$ considering that honest majority assumption holds, specifically considering that $\frac{pqt}{f} \approx \frac{t}{n-t} \leq 1$.

Definition 2 (Adequate level of honest proof). Let π be an honestly generated proof constructed upon some adopted chain C and let $b \in \pi$. Then μ' is defined as $\mu' = \max\{\mu : |\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu}| \geq \max(m + 1, (1 - \delta)2^{-\mu}|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu} \downarrow|)\}$. We call μ' the adequate level of proof π with respect to block b with security parameters δ and m . Note that the adequate level of a proof is a function of both the proof π and the chosen block b .

Intuitively, adequate is the level μ' of a proof π for a block b if there are at least m blocks after b in π under the condition that there is good chain quality for this level, meaning that there are at least so many blocks at this level as expected considering the number of 0-level blocks.

NOTE: adequate level is mostly useful for Claim 1a of the Security Proof (Theorem 2).

Lemma 2. Let π be some honest proof generated with security parameters δ, m . Let C be the underlying chain, $b \in C$ be any block and μ' be the adequate level of the proof with respect to b and the same security parameters.

Then $C\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'} = \pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'}$.

Proof. $\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'} \subseteq C\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'}$ is trivial. For the converse, we have that in the iteration of the Prove for loop[1] with $\mu = \mu^*$, the block stored in variable B precedes b in C .

Note that the Prover's for loop iterates over all levels in the interlink structure, and places in the proof all of the blocks that are of the corresponding level and succeed B in C .

Suppose $\mu = \mu^*$ is the first *for* iteration during which the property is violated. This cannot be the first iteration since $B = C[0]$ and Genesis precedes all blocks. By induction hypothesis we see that during the iteration $\mu = \mu^* + 1$, B preceded b . From the definition of μ' we know that μ' is the highest level for which $|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^\mu| \geq \max(m, (1 - \delta)2^{-\mu}|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^\mu \downarrow|)$.

Hence, this property cannot hold for $\mu^* > \mu$ and therefore $|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^\mu| < m$ or $\neg \text{local-good}_\delta(\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu^*}[1 :], C, \mu^*)$.

In case *local-good* is violated, variable B remains unmodified and the induction step holds. If *local-good* is not violated, then $|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu^*}[1 :]| < m$ and so $\pi \uparrow^{\mu^*}[-m]$, which is the updated value of B at the end of μ^* iteration, precedes b .

Lemma 3. *Suppose the verifier evaluates $\pi_A \geq \pi_B$ in a protocol interaction where B is honest and assume during the comparison that the compared level of the honest party is μ_B . Let $b = LCA(\pi_A, \pi_B)$ and let μ'_B be the adequate level of π_B with respect to b . Then $\mu'_B \geq \mu_B$.*

Proof. Because μ_B is the compared level of the honest party, from the definition of the \geq_m operator, we have $2^{\mu_B}|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu_B}| > 2^{\mu'_B}|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'_B}|$. This is true, otherwise the Verifier would have chosen level μ'_B as level of comparison. The proof is by contradiction. Suppose $\mu'_B < \mu_B$. By definition, μ'_B is the maximum level such that $|\pi_B\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'_B}[1 :]| \geq \max(m, (1 - \delta)2^{-\mu'_B}|\pi_B\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'_B}[1 :] \downarrow|)$, therefore μ_B does not satisfy this condition. But we know that $|\pi_B\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu_B}[1 :]| > m$ because μ_B was selected by the Verifier. Therefore $2^{\mu_B}|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu_B}| < (1 - \delta)|C\{b : \}|$. But also μ'_B satisfies goodness, so $2^{\mu'_B}|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'_B}| > (1 - \delta)|C\{b : \}|$. From the last two equations we obtain $2^{\mu_B}|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu_B}| < 2^{\mu'_B}|\pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'_B}|$ which contradicts the initial equation.

@To Be Discussed: would the verifier ever choose a non-adequate level for proof comparison? Intuitively the above Lemma says: the comparison level chosen by the Verifier can be no other than the adequate level in respect to block b ($LCA(\pi_A, \pi_B)$), since any other choice would be a level of non-good quality, because of the definition of the adequate level. A level of non-good quality would contain less PoW than that of the adequate level for the range of interest $C\{b : \}$.

Theorem 2. (Security) *Assuming honest majority, the non-interactive proofs-of-proof-of-work construction for computable κ -stable monotonic suffix-sensitive predicates is secure with overwhelming probability in κ .*

Proof. By contradiction. Let Q be a κ -stable monotonic suffix-sensitive chain predicate. Assume NIPoPoWs on Q is insecure. Then, during an execution at some round r_3 , $Q(C)$ is defined and the verifier V disagrees with some honest participant. Assume the execution is typical. V communicates with adversary A and honest prover B . The verifier receives proofs π_A, π_B . Because B is honest, π_B is a proof constructed based on underlying blockchain C_B (with $\pi_B \subseteq C_B$), which B has adopted during round r_3 at which π_B was generated. Furthermore, π_A was generated at round $r'_3 \leq r_3$.

The verifier outputs $\neg Q(C_B)$. Thus it is necessary that $\pi_A \geq \pi_B$. We will show that this is a negligible event.

Let $b = LCA(\pi_A, \pi_B)$. Let b^* be the most recently honestly generated block in C_B preceding b . Note that b^* necessarily exists because Genesis is honestly generated. Let the levels of comparison decided by the verifier be μ_A and μ_B respectively. Let μ'_B be the adequate level of proof π_B with respect to block b . Call $\alpha_A = \pi_A \uparrow^{\mu_A} \{b : \}$, $\alpha'_B = \pi_B \uparrow^{\mu'_B} \{b : \}$.

Note that we consider the parts of the proofs succeeding block b the decisive ones for the verifier's choice. This is to adversary's advantage, since the parts preceding this block demonstrate the proof-of-work contained in the common (sub)chain, thus the adversary could only include equal or less proof-of-work in her proof for this part of the chain.

We will now show three successive claims: First, α_A and $\alpha'_B \downarrow$ are mostly disjoint. Second, α_A contains mostly adversarially generated blocks. And third, the adversary is able to produce this α_A

with negligible probability.

Let $\alpha_A = k_1 + k_2 + k_3$ and let k_1, k_2, k_3 be as defined in the following Claims.

Claim 1: $\alpha_A, \alpha'_B \downarrow$ are mostly disjoint. We show this by taking the two possible cases for the relation of μ_A, μ'_B .

Claim 1a: If $\mu'_B \leq \mu_A$ then they are completely disjoint. In such a case of inequality, every block in α_A would also be of lower level μ'_B . Applying Lemma 2 to $C\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'_B}$ we see that $C\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'_B} = \pi\{b : \} \uparrow^{\mu'_B}$. Subsequently, any block in $\pi_A \uparrow^{\mu_A} \{b : \}[1 :]$ would also be included in proof α'_B , but $b = LCA(\pi_A, \pi_B)$ so there can be no succeeding block common in α_A, α'_B .

Claim 1b: If $\mu'_B > \mu_A$ then $|\alpha_A[1 :] \cap \alpha'_B \downarrow [1 :]| = k_1 \leq 2^{\mu'_B - \mu_A}$.

First observe that because the adversary is winning $2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A| > 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'_B| \geq 2^{\mu'_B} m \Rightarrow |\alpha_A| > 2^{\mu'_B - \mu_A} m$. Let's call b_1 the first block in α'_B after block b . Suppose for contradiction that $k_1 > 2^{\mu'_B - \mu_A}$. Since $C_B^{\mu'_B}$ is of good chain quality, this would mean that block b_1 , of level μ'_B is also of level μ_A . Since it is of level μ_A the adversary could include it in the proof but b_1 cannot exist in both α_A, α'_B since $\alpha_A \cap \alpha'_B = \emptyset$ by definition. In case that the adversary chooses not to include b_1 in the proof than she can include no other blocks of C_B in her proof, since it would not consist a valid chain.

From Claim 1a and Claim 1b, we conclude that there are $|\alpha_A| - k_1$ blocks after block b in α_A which do not exist in $\alpha_B \downarrow$. We now set $b_2 = LCA(C_B, \alpha_A)$. This makes b_2 the last block before the fork point at the 0-level chain included in the adversary's proof.

Intuition: in this case the common blocks of $\alpha_A, \alpha'_B \downarrow$ may only be blocks of level μ_A which precede the first μ'_B block appearing in α'_B . If this block of level μ'_B was common, it could also be included in α_A . If it is included this would be the LCA of α_A, α'_B . If it is not, then the adversary could no more include blocks from the common part of chain C_B in her proof since they no longer form a valid chain in α_A . The quantity $2^{\mu'_B - \mu_A}$ means: in the range between two consequent μ'_B -level blocks, we have $n = 2^{\mu'_B}$ 0-level blocks and, thus, $2^{-\mu_A} n = 2^{\mu'_B - \mu_A}$ blocks of μ_A -level.

Claim 2: At least k_3 superblocks of α_A are adversarially generated. We show this by showing that $\alpha_A[k_1 + k_2 + 1 :]$ contains no honestly generated blocks. Suppose for contradiction that the block $\alpha_A[i]$ for some $i \geq k_1 + k_2 + 1$ was honestly generated. This means that an honest party adopted the chain $\alpha_A[: i - 1] \downarrow$ at some round $r_2 \leq r_3$. Because of the way honest parties adopt chains, the superchain $\alpha_A[: i - 1]$ has an underlying properly constructed 0-level anchored chain C_A such that $\alpha_A[: i - 1] \subseteq C_A$. Let j be the index of block b_2 within α_A , j_\downarrow be the index of block b_2 within C_A and $k_{2\downarrow} = |\alpha_A[j : j + k_2] \downarrow|$. See Figure 3 for a demonstration. Observe that $|C_A[: \{\alpha_A[i - 1]\}]| \geq |C_A[: j_\downarrow + k_{2\downarrow}]|$, while $C_A[j_\downarrow : j_\downarrow + k_{2\downarrow}] \not\subseteq C_B$ as proved in Claim 1. But C_A was adopted by an honest party at round r_2 , which is prior to round r_3 during which C_B was adopted by an honest party B. This contradicts the Common Prefix[4] with parameter $k_{2\downarrow}$. It follows that with overwhelming probability in $k_{2\downarrow}$, the $k_3 = |\alpha_A| - k_2 - k_1$ last blocks of the adversarial proof have been adversarially generated.

Intuition: Because of Common Prefix on $k_{2\downarrow}$ parameter, where $k_{2\downarrow} = |\alpha_A[j : j + k_2] \downarrow|$, where $E[k_{2\downarrow}] = 2^{\mu_A} k_2$, there can be no honest party adopting C_A at any round $i \geq k_1 + k_2 + 1$.

From these two Claims we have that k_1 blocks in α_A are blocks of the common zero-level chain, while k_2 blocks are blocks after the fork point at the zero-level chain. Subsequently, k_2 is subject to the Common Prefix κ -parameter limitations as described in the Backbone paper[4].

Claim 3: Adversary A is able to produce α_A that wins against α_B with negligible probability.

Let b' be the latest honestly generated block in a_A , or $b' = b^*$ if no such block exists in a_A . Let r_1 be the round when b' was generated. Consider the set S of consecutive rounds $r_1..r_3$. Every block in $\alpha_A[-k_3 :]$ has been adversarially generated during S and $|\alpha_A[-k_3 :]| = |\alpha_A\{b' : \}| = k_3$. C_B is a chain adopted by an honest party at round r_3 and filtering the blocks by the rounds during which

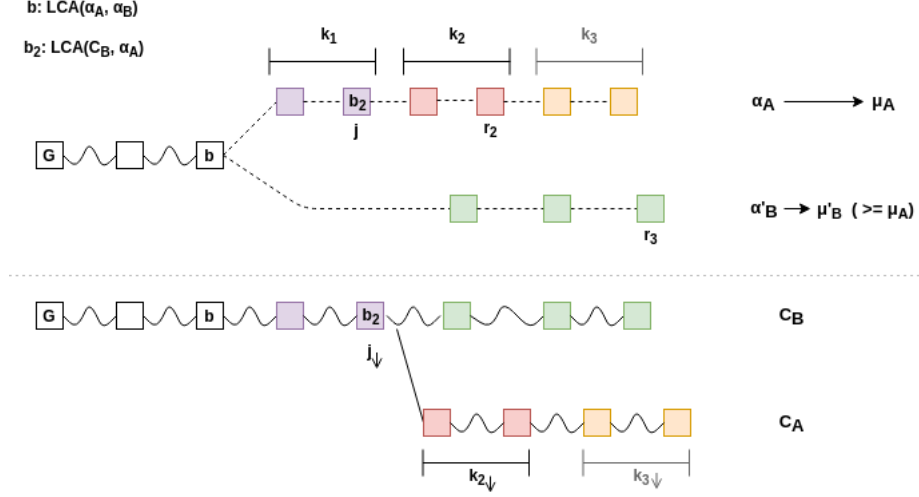


Figure 3: *Two competing proofs at different levels. At the bottom the corresponding 0-level chains are represented.*

they were generated to obtain C_B^S , we see that if b'' is the most recently generated block in α_B in a round $r \leq r_1$, then $C_B^S = C_B\{b'' : \}$. But $C_B^S \uparrow^{\mu'_B}$ is good with respect to C_B^S . Applying Lemma 1, we obtain that with overwhelming probability $2^{\mu_A}|\alpha_A\{b' : \}| < 2^{\mu'_B}|C_B^S \uparrow^{\mu'_B}|$, which is equal to

$$2^{\mu_A}|\alpha_A\{b' : \}| < 2^{\mu'_B}|\alpha'_B\{b'' : \}| \quad (2)$$

since α'_B contains all the μ'_B -level blocks in C_B^S .

In order to complete the proof, let us now consider $\alpha_A^{k_1}, \alpha_A^{k_2}, \alpha_A^{k_3}$ the parts of α_A where the k_1, k_2, k_3 blocks reside and $\alpha_B^{k_1}, \alpha_B^{k_2}, \alpha_B^{k_3}$ the parts of α_B containing blocks generated in the corresponding round sets as illustrated in Figure 4.

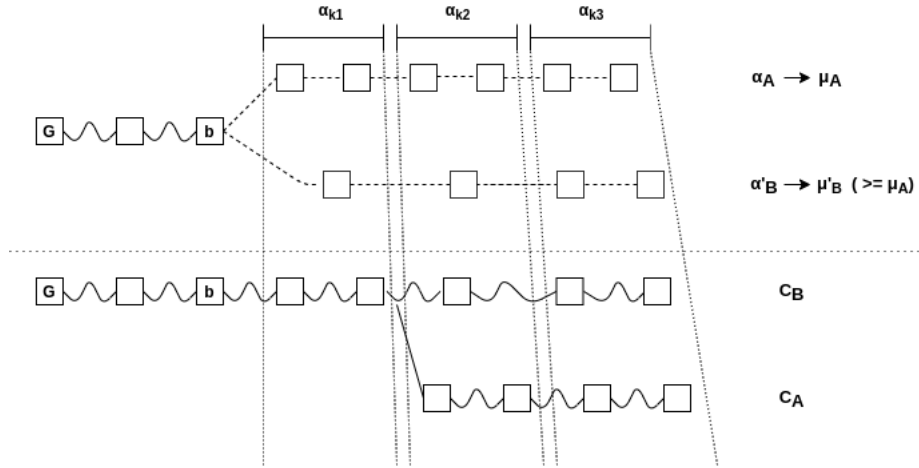


Figure 4: *The three round sets in two competing proofs at different levels. The vertical dashed lines denote the area of interest, across proofs and chains, corresponding to each round set. At the bottom the corresponding 0-level chains are represented.*

Subsequently to the above Claims we have that:

Because of the common underlying chain in the first round set:

$$2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A^{k_1}| \leq 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'^{k_1}_B| \quad (3)$$

Because of the adoption by an honest party of chain C_B at a later round r_3 , we have for the second round set:

$$2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A^{k_2}| \leq 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'^{k_2}_B| \quad (4)$$

Because of Equation (1), we have for the third round set:

$$2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A^{k_3}| < 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'^{k_3}_B| \quad (5)$$

So we have

$$2^{\mu_A} (|\alpha_A^{k_1}| + |\alpha_A^{k_2}| + |\alpha_A^{k_3}|) < 2^{\mu'_B} (|\alpha'^{k_1}_B| + |\alpha'^{k_2}_B| + |\alpha'^{k_3}_B|)$$

and finally

$$2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A| < 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'_B| \quad (6)$$

Therefore we have proven that $2^{\mu'_B} |\pi_B \uparrow^{\mu'_B}| > 2^{\mu_A} |\pi_A^{\mu_A}|$. From the definition of μ_B , we know that $2^{\mu_B} |\pi_B \uparrow^{\mu_B}| > 2^{\mu'_B} |\pi_B \uparrow^{\mu'_B}|$ because it was chosen μ_B as level of comparison by the Verifier. So we conclude that $2^{\mu_B} |\pi_B \uparrow^{\mu_B}| > 2^{\mu_A} |\pi_A \uparrow^{\mu_A}|$.

□

It remains to compute the security parameter m that guarantee that all the above hold true in every implementation. It suffices to compute a security parameter value for each set of rounds k_1, k_2, k_3 , so that the proof equations 3, 4, 5 hold and then sum these values to obtain parameter m .

In the first set of rounds, for the first k_1 blocks in α_A , we only need one block included in α_B for the part of the proof described in Equation 3. In the second set of rounds we need $2^{-\mu_B} \kappa$ blocks for the part of the proof described in Equation 4, just as it directly results from the Common Prefix property. In order to make m independent of any specific level it suffices to consider the upper bound of κ blocks for this set of rounds. In the last set of rounds we need at least κ adversarially generated blocks in $\alpha_A^{k_3}$ so that Lemma 1 is applicable. Since we assume honest majority, obliging to at least κ blocks for this set of rounds suffices to guarantee for Equation 5.

So, we finally conclude to the following upper bound for the value of the security parameter:

$$m = 2\kappa + 1 \quad (7)$$

3.2 Infix Proofs

3.3 Succinctness

4 NIPoPoWs under Velvet Fork

4.1 Suffix Proofs

4.1.1 The Chainsewing Attack

We will now describe an explicit attack against the NIPoPoW suffix proof construction under a velvet fork. Note that since the protocol is implemented under a velvet fork, any adversarial block that is mined in the proper way except containing false interlink data structure will be accepted as valid. A false interlink may contain invalid pointers, for example pointers to superblocks of a fork chain, as shown in Figure 5. Taking advantage of this fact, an adversary maintaining a fork chain could produce suffix proofs that claim blocks of the chain adopted by an honest player as her own. The attack is described in detail in the following.

Assume that chain C_B was adopted by an honest player B and chain C_A , a fork of C_B at some block, maintained by an adversary A. Assume the adversary wants to produce a suffix proof in order

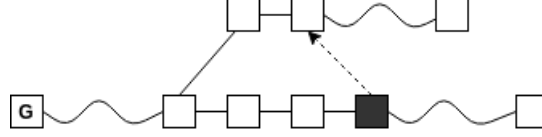


Figure 5: *Example of false interlink structure of an adversarial block, coloured black, in an honest player's chain. The dashed arrow is a pointer to a fork chain superblock included in the interlink.*

to attack an honest light client to have him adopt chain C_A . In order to achieve this, the adversary needs to include a greater amount of PoW in her suffix proof, π_A , in comparison to the honest player's proof, π_B , so as to achieve $\pi_A \geq_m \pi_B$. For this she produces some blocks in chains C_A and C_B containing false interlink pointers which will allow claiming blocks of chain C_B as of chain C_A in her suffix proof.

The general setting of this attack is represented in Figure 6. The dashed arrows represent interlink pointers of some level μ_A . Starting from the most recently mined block in the adversary's fork chain and following the interlink pointers a chain is formed which consists the adversary's suffix proof. Blocks of both chains are included in this proof and a verifier could not distinguish the false interlink pointers forming this chain proof and, as a result, would consider it a valid proof.

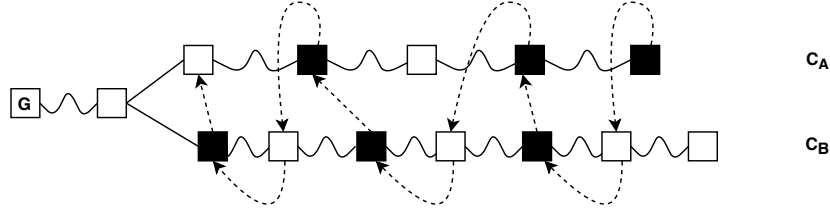


Figure 6: *Generic Chainsewing Attack. C_B is the chain of an honest player and C_A the adversary's chain. Blocks generated by the adversary are colored black. Dashed arrows represent interlink pointers included in the adversary's suffix proof. Wavy lines imply one or more blocks.*

As the generic attack scheme may seem a bit complicated we will now describe a more specific attack case. Consider that the adversary acts as described below. Assume that the adversary chooses to attack at some level μ_A . As shown in Figure 7 she first generates a superblock b' in her fork chain C_A and a superblock a' in the honest chain C_B which are connected via an invalid interlink pointer from a' to b' . As argued earlier, block a' will be accepted as valid in the honest chain C_B despite the false pointers in the interlink data structure. After that the adversary may mine on chain C_A or C_B , or not mine at all. At some point she produces a block a in C_A containing an interlink pointer to a block b of the honest player's chain C_B . Because of the way blocks are generated by updated honest miners there will be successive interlink pointers leading from block b to block a' . Thus following the interlink pointers a chain is formulated which connects C_A blocks a and b' and contains an arbitrarily large part of the honest player's chain C_B .

At this point the adversary will produce a suffix proof for chain C_A containing the subchain $C\{ab\} \cup C\{b : a'\} \cup C\{a' : b'\}$. Notice that following the interlink pointers constructed in such a way, a light client perceives $C\{ab\} \cup C\{b : a'\} \cup C\{a' : b'\}$ as a valid chain.

In this attack the adversary uses false interlink pointers to “sew” portions of the chain adopted by an honest player to her own fork. This remark justifies the name given.

Note that in order to make this attack successful, the adversary has to produce only a few superblocks which let her arrogate an arbitrary large number of blocks of an honest player's chain,

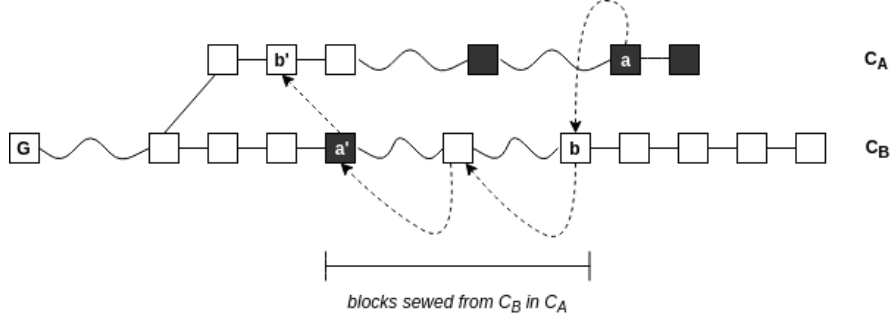


Figure 7: *Chainsewing Attack.* The chain at the bottom represents the chain of an honest player, C_B , while the above one is the adversarial fork, C_A . Blocks generated by the adversary are colored black. Dashed arrows represent interlink pointers included in the suffix proof by the adversary. Wavy lines imply one or more blocks. Firm lines imply the previousId relationship between two sequential blocks.

while she can mine for her own fork chain. Thus intuitively we expect this attack to succeed with overwhelming probability.

@TODO

Needs to be proven. It is not obvious that the attacker will succeed in high probability, since the most important adversarially generated blocks, a and a' , set a limit to the adversarial blocks produced in parallel to the honest blocks of subchain $C\{ab\} \cup C\{b : a'\} \cup C\{a' : b'\}$ and can take part in the suffix proof.

4.2 Protocol Update

In order to eliminate the Chainsewing Attack we propose an update to the NIPoPoWs protocol under velvet fork. The core problem is that in her suffix proof the adversary is able to claim not only blocks of the fork chain, which are in majority adversarially generated due to the Common Prefix property, but also an arbitrarily long part of the chain adopted by an honest player. Since blocks containing false interlink pointers are accepted as valid, the verifier cannot distinguish blocks that actually belong in a chain from blocks that only seem to belong in the same chain because they are pointed to via a false interlink pointer.

These facts make it possible to provide a secure solution for the velvet fork conditions only under the assumption of adversary of $1/3$ of the total hashing power. This claim is described and discussed in the following.

Impossibility of a secure protocol for $(1/2)$ -bounded adversary

During our study on the problem we failed to prove the security of several protocol constructions under $(\frac{1}{2})$ -bounded adversary. We finally concluded that such a secure NIPoPoWs construction is impossible under velvet fork conditions. Though it is hard to provide a typical proof for this claim, as one should consider any possible construction, in this section we will try to argue for it.

Claim: Assume t adversarial out of total n parties. There is no construction for NIPoPoWs suffix proofs under velvet fork conditions, which is secure for every adversary, such that $\frac{t}{n-t} < 1-\delta$.

Discussion. As explained earlier, since the adversary may use the interlink structure so as to include pointers to arbitrary blocks, she may construct her own chain history utilizing the false pointers included in the blocks she herself generates. Such an example is given in Figure 6.

Let us consider a construction p which allows for NIPoPoWs suffix proofs under velvet fork and is secure for the underlined conditions. In order p to have a chance for being secure, it should be possible to challenge the submitted proofs, so that an honest player can contest against an inconsistent proof. Note that the same power to challenge any submitted proof is also provided to the adversary.

Now assume an adversary of $\frac{n}{3} < t < \frac{n}{2}$. Then, as explained in the Backbone and Selfish Mining papers [4][3] it is possible for the adversary to maintain the longest valid chain being of less than 50% chain quality in favor of adversarially generated blocks. This is illustrated in Figure 8.

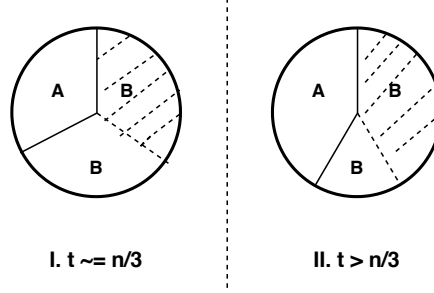


Figure 8: *Pie chart of adversarially and honestly generated blocks distribution during a round set S . Part **A** stands for blocks mined by the adversary while **B** for blocks mined by honest parties. Lined out parts denote honestly mined blocks that were defeated by adversarially mined ones in the same round due to selfish mining. The rest denote blocks placed in the chain adopted by honest parties. **I.** With $t = n/3$, 50% of the total blocks are adversarially generated in the worst case scenario. **II.** With $t > n/3$, more than half of the total blocks are adversarially generated in the worst case scenario.*

Observe that the property violated in the described attack is the *prevId* relation between sequential blocks. However since the main purpose of our work is to achieve succinctness, the *prevId* relations could not be utilized in a viable manner in order to contest adversarial proofs, as it would require proofs of linear length to that of the whole chain. We thus conclude that we should mostly rely on the information given by the interlink data structure as far as the validity of any proof is concerned so as to keep our protocol construction efficient.

Now assume, to honest parties' favor, that it is both possible and efficient to inspect the whole chain history that each block is committed to via its interlink pointers. Keep in mind that an adversary can keep a consistent chain considering the interlink pointers by using only her own mined blocks and, at the same time, these blocks may overwhelm the honestly generated ones. In our protocol p it should be decided under what policy an honest party generates blocks and constructs suffix proofs. A decision should be made for block generation:

1. interlink data are neutral as for adversarially and honestly generated blocks
2. interlink data point out inconsistent blocks, meaning blocks with incorrect interlinks
3. interlink data exclude inconsistent blocks from being part of the valid chain formed by the super-pointers

Now let's examine the above choices.

In the first case the arguments that an honest player could provide against an inconsistent proof could only be based on the 0-level pointers. Such a contesting proof should at least provide the 0-level subchain of length equal to the following: starting from a block included in the suffix proof and is not a block of the chain until the closest block included in the suffix proof and is a valid block of the chain. This means that contesting proofs are expected to be of length 2^μ where $\mu = \log(|C|)$, and subsequently are of complexity $\mathcal{O}(|C|)$ which ruins the succinctness of our protocol.

In the second case an honest party could utilize this extra information provided in the interlink to prove an inconsistent proof wrong. However, keep in mind that the adversary could make such claims too. So, a claim of inconsistency for a specific block included should be followed by a proof of its inconsistency. Whatever the information considering the incorrect blocks in the interlink may be, the adversary could make some of it in her own generated blocks in order to contest an honest proof too. So we fall to the previous case turning to *prevId* pointers in order to prove the true chain history, where the contesting proofs are unacceptable efficiency-wise.

In the third case we demand from the honest players to validate the interlink structures of the blocks in the chain and exclude the inconsistent ones from the chain history that the interlinks provide. In this way we could possibly provide contesting proofs using information only from the interlinks thus keeping our proofs succinct. This solution would result to two different chain histories considering the interlink pointers: the one of the honest parties that includes only blocks with valid interlinks, and the one of the adversary which may form her own history of invalid blocks probably belonging to many different underlying chains but could not include honest blocks if at least one invalid block participates in the proof. This solution seems to bring us to a notable trade-off point. On the one hand we manage to uncouple from the 0-level blocks. On the other hand, we compromise that honest players cannot use valid adversarially generated blocks in their proof, while the adversary cannot include honestly generated blocks in her proofs if inconsistent blocks are also included. This solution could not work properly for $(\frac{1}{2})$ -bounded adversary though. The reason lies in the bad chain quality as pointed out earlier and shown in Figure 8. If the adversary could create his own chain history including inconsistent blocks from two different chains, then she could easily construct a suffix proof that wins over an honest one because the majority of the blocks included in the chain could be adversarial with high probability.

We conclude that such a protocol could not exist for $(\frac{1}{2})$ -bounded adversary.

Solution for $(1/3)$ -bounded adversary

The vulnerability that makes this attack possible is the acceptance of blocks containing false interlink pointers. Since we operate under a velvet fork we cannot eliminate such blocks, but we need, however, to restrict the adversary from being able to claim portion of another chain as part of her own fork chain. The key observation on the Chainsewing Attack is that the adversary needs at least one adversarially generated block in an honest player's chain (block a'), in order to create a path of superpointers connecting blocks of two, or more, diverse chains. The final proof chain will make use of this crossing point and may contain both honest or adversarial blocks. In case the proof contains only adversarial blocks, the attack cannot harm security for an adversary of less than $1/3$ hashing power. This fact will be clear in the security proof section. In short, as argued in the previous section an adversary of $1/3$ of the total hashing power may contribute at most 50% of the total blocks in the longest valid chain. An attacker of more than $1/3$ hashing power could dominate as of total hashing power expressed in mined blocks in the chain, while the inverse would be true for an attacker of less hashing power than this threshold.

So in order to be successful, the attacker needs to also “sew” honestly generated blocks. Thus there will be at least one honest block in the superblock path connecting blocks a and a' , which points to an adversarial block containing false interlink or, by induction, pointing to a block containing false interlink.

The idea is to ban all blocks generated by honest players from participating in this superblock path. In this way the adversary could not misuse hashing power of the honest players and the sewed blocks could only be adversarially generated, thus the attack would never succeed for an adversary of less than $1/3$ of the total hashing power.

We describe a protocol patch that operates as follows. The NIPoPoW protocol under velvet fork works as usual but each miner constructs a block's interlink excluding the blocks with false interlink (except the pointers of level 0). In this way, blocks containing false interlink pointers are integrated in the chain but are not taken into consideration when updating the interlink structure for the next block to be mined. No honest block could now point to an adversarial superblock that may act as the passing point to the fork chain in an adversarial suffix proof. Thus, after this protocol update

the adversary is only able to inject adversarially generated blocks from the chain adopted by an honest party to her own fork. At the same time, adversarially generated blocks cannot participate in an honestly generated suffix proof, as these blocks do not form a valid chain along with honestly mined blocks. Consequently, as far as the hashing power included in a suffix proof is concerned, these blocks can be conceived as belonging in the adversary's fork chain. Figure 9 illustrates this remark.



Figure 9: *The adversarial fork chain C_A and chain C_B of an honest player. Blocks generated by the adversary are colored black. Dashed arrows represent interlink pointers. Wavy lines imply one or more blocks. When an adversarially generated block is sewed from C_B into the adversary's suffix proof the verifier conceives C_A as longer and C_B as shorter. **I**: the real picture of the chains. **II**: Equivalent picture from the verifier's perspective considering the hashing power included in the corresponding suffix proof of each chain.*

The protocol patch we suggest can be summarized as follows:

Protocol Patch for NIPoPows suffix proofs under velvet fork.

In order to make NIPoPoWs safe under velvet fork conditions we suggest:

1. Strengthen the Honest Majority Assumption so that $\frac{t}{n-t} \leq \frac{1-\delta}{2}$
2. The NIPoPoW protocol under velvet fork works as usual but a miner constructs a block's interlink without pointers to blocks with false interlink except for pointers of level $\mu = 0$.

Algorithm 1 describes the interlink update procedure after the suggested protocol patch. An honest miner has to first find the most recent *smooth velvet* and then add pointers so as to consider this block in the interlink as well. Function *has-correct-interlink*(B) checks whether a block B is a smooth velvet by calling *valid-interlink-pointer*(B, p) for every pointer in B 's interlink. Function *valid-interlink-pointer*(B, p) returns *true* if p is a valid pointer, in essence a pointer to the most recent *smooth velvet* for the level denoted by the pointer itself.

Algorithm 1: velvet updateInterlink

```
1 function updateInterlinkVelvet( $C$ ):
2    $k \leftarrow 1$ 
3    $B \leftarrow C[-k]$ 
4   while has-correct-interlink( $B$ ) = false do
5      $k \leftarrow k + 1$ 
6      $B \leftarrow C[-k]$ 
7   end
8    $B \leftarrow C[-k]$ 
9   interlink  $\leftarrow$  B.interlink
10  for  $\mu = 0$  to level( $B$ ) do
11    interlink[ $\mu$ ]  $\leftarrow$  id( $B$ )
12  end
13  return interlink
14 end function

15 function has-correct-interlink( $B$ ):
16  if  $B.id = \text{Genesis.id}$  then
17    return true
18  end
19  for  $p \in B.interlink$  do
20    if valid-interlink-pointer( $B, p$ ) = false then
21      return false
22    end
23  end
24  return true
25 end function

26 function valid-interlink-pointer( $B, p$ ):
27   $b \leftarrow \text{Block}(B.prevId)$ 
28  while  $b.id \neq p.id$  do
29    if level( $b$ )  $\geq$  level( $p$ )  $\wedge$  has-correct-interlink( $b$ ) then
30      return false
31    end
32    if  $b.id = \text{Genesis.id}$  then
33      return false
34    end
35     $b \leftarrow \text{Block}(b.prevId)$ 
36  end
37  if has-correct-interlink( $b$ ) then
38    return true
39  end
40  return false
41 end function
```

The following two Lemmas come as immediate results from the suggested protocol update.

Lemma 4. Consider a velvet suffix proof (π, χ) constructed by an honest player. The proof subchain π cannot contain any block with incorrect interlink.

Lemma 5. Consider C_B, C_A the 0-level chains adopted respectively by an honest player and the adversary at some round r' . Let π_A be a velvet suffix proof constructed by the adversary. If there exist blocks with incorrect interlinks in π_A , consider block b_A which was produced at some round r_A

and is the first block in π_A that has incorrect interlink. Then $\forall r : r \geq r_A$ no honest blocks generated at round r can be included in π_A .

In conclusion the Prove and Verify algorithm for the NIPoPoW suffix protocol remain the same.

4.2.1 Security of Suffix Proofs

Our security proof is based on the security proof of NIPoPoWs Suffix Security Proof under a soft or hard fork. Keep in mind that we operate under the condition of $(1/3)$ -bounded adversary.

The notion of Chain Quality is decisive for the operation of NIPoPoWs under a velvet fork. Before stepping into the security proof we provide the formal definition of this notion and the basic Theorem where its basic metric is computed.

Definition 3 (Chain Quality Property)[4]. The chain quality property Q_{cq} with parameters $\mu_{cq} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $l \in \mathbb{N}$ states that for any honest party P with chain C it holds that for any l consecutive blocks of C the ratio of honest blocks is at least μ_{cq} .

Theorem 3 (Chain Quality)[4]. In a typical execution the chain quality property holds with parameter $\mu_{cq} > 1 - (1 + \frac{\delta}{2}) \cdot \frac{t}{n-t} - \frac{\delta}{2}$.

Proof. See [4].

Our interest lies in keeping $\mu_{cq} \geq \frac{1}{2}$. From Theorem 3 we have:

$$1 - (1 + \frac{\delta}{2}) \cdot \frac{t}{n-t} - \frac{\delta}{2} \geq \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{\delta}{2} \cdot \frac{t}{n-t} \leq \frac{1-\delta}{2}$$

Thus we have:

$$\frac{t}{n-t} \leq \frac{1-\delta}{2} \quad (8)$$

Theorem 4. (Suffix Proofs Security under velvet fork) Assuming honest majority under velvet fork conditions such that $\frac{t}{n-t} \leq \frac{1-\delta}{2}$, the non-interactive proofs-of-proof-of-work construction for computable κ -stable monotonic suffix-sensitive predicates under velvet fork conditions is secure with overwhelming probability in κ .

Proof. By contradiction. We follow the proof construction of Theorem 2 and extend it. Let Q be a κ -stable monotonic suffix-sensitive chain predicate. Assume NIPoPoWs under velvet fork on Q is insecure. Then, during an execution at some round r_3 , $Q(C)$ is defined and the verifier V disagrees with some honest participant. Assume the execution is typical. V communicates with adversary A and honest prover B . The verifier receives proofs π_A, π_B . Because B is honest, π_B is a proof constructed based on underlying blockchain C_B (with $\pi_B \subseteq C_B$), which B has adopted during round r_3 at which π_B was generated. Consider C_A the chain containing at least some of the blocks in π_A , while the remaining blocks π_A must belong in C_B . The verifier outputs $\neg Q(C_B)$. Thus it is necessary that $\pi_A \geq \pi_B$. We show that $\pi_A \geq \pi_B$ is a negligible event. Let $b = LCA(\pi_A, \pi_B)$. Let the levels of comparison decided by the verifier be μ_A and μ_B respectively. Let μ'_B be the adequate level of proof π_B with respect to block b . Call $\alpha_A = \pi_A \uparrow^{\mu_A} \{b : \}$, $\alpha'_B = \pi_B \uparrow^{\mu'_B} \{b : \}$.

Our proof construction is based on the following scheme: we show that the competing suffix proofs can be conceived as consisting of three distinct parts. Each part denotes a specific round set and is called after the number of blocks existing in π_A for that round set. Part k_1 lies for the first part of the proofs between blocks $b = LCA(\pi_A, \pi_B)$ and $b_2 = LCA(C_A, C_B)$ meaning for the common 0-level part of α_A, α_B . Part k_2 lies for the second part of the proofs considering the rounds

generated blocks existing in $\alpha'_B \downarrow$. In other words, there are $|\alpha_A| - k_1$ blocks after block b in α_A , which are either adversarially generated existing in $\alpha_B \downarrow$ either don't belong in $\alpha_B \downarrow$. This makes b_2 the last block before the 0-level fork point included in the adversary's proof.

Claim 2. At least k_3 superblocks of α_A are adversarially generated. Just as the proof of Theorem 2 and using a similar notation, because of the Common Prefix property on parameter $k_{2\downarrow}$, $\alpha_A[k_1 + k_2 :]$ could contain no honestly generated blocks. In order to see this for the velvet fork conditions let's again consider the case that the adversary behaves honestly for the first $(k_1 + k_2)$ blocks of her proof in which case Claim 2 of Theorem 2 is immediately applied. In the opposite case, consider that the adversary includes in her proof a block with invalid interlink at some earlier point. Again, because of Lemma 5 no more honestly generated blocks can be included in α_A and we can proceed to Claim 3 of this proof.

Claim 3. Adversary can submit a suffix proof such that $\alpha_A \geq \alpha_B$ with negligible probability. The last k_3 blocks included in α_A may belong either in C_A either in C_B but are all adversarially generated. In the worst case all k_3 blocks are sewed from C_B . This is the worst case scenario since each adversarially generated block in C_B may have dropped one honest block out of the chain because of selfish mining. Considering this scenario, because of the strengthened Honest Majority Assumption for $(1/3)$ -bounded adversary, Theorem 3 for Chain Quality guarantees that the majority of the blocks in C_B was computed by honest parties, thus the honestly generated blocks in C_B for the same round set sum to more amount of hashing power.

From all the above Claims we have that:

In the first round set, because of the common underlying chain:

$$2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A^{k_1}| \leq 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'^{k_1}_B| \quad (9)$$

Because of the adoption by an honest party of chain C_B at a later round r_3 , we have for the second round set:

$$2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A^{k_2}| \leq 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'^{k_2}_B| \quad (10)$$

In the third round set, because of good Chain Quality under the strengthened Honest Majority Assumption and Theorem 3 we have:

$$2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A^{k_3}| < 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'^{k_3}_B| \quad (11)$$

Consequently we have:

$$2^{\mu_A} |\alpha_A| < 2^{\mu'_B} |\alpha'_B| \quad (12)$$

4.3 Infix Proofs

The security of the original NIPoPoWs protocol suffers under velvet fork conditions for the case of infix proofs as well. Again, since blocks containing incorrect interlink pointers are accepted in the chain, the adversary may create an infix proof for a transaction included in a block mined on a different chain. This attack is presented in detail in the following.

An infix proof attack when applying the original protocol under a velvet fork should be obvious after our previous discussion. So consider the updated protocol for secure suffix proofs as described in the previous section. A problem here is that in the updated protocol some blocks are excluded from the interlink, while we should still be able to provide proofs for transactions included in any block of the chain.

For this reason, let us initially consider an additional protocol patch suggesting to include a second interlink data structure in each block, which will be updated without any block exclusion, just as described in the original protocol and will be used for constructing infix proofs only. In order to be secure we could think of allowing using pointers of the second interlink only for the *followDown*

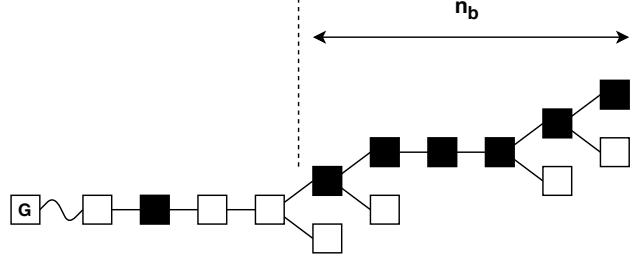


Figure 12: Wavy lines imply one or more blocks. Blocks generated by the adversary are colored black. n_b implies the number of consecutive adversarially generated blocks in the chain.

either by following the selfish mining strategy or not. The state of the chain we examine looks like in Figure 12.

Let p_H the probability that a block is generated by an honest party during a round. Then considering that collisions in RO model is a negligible event we have $p_H = (n - t)qp$. Let p_A be the probability that a block is generated by the adversary during a round, then $p_A = tqp$. Consider N_{bA} the random variable for the number of consecutive blocks generated by the adversary in a total of r rounds. Also let N_{bH} the random variable for the number of blocks generated by honest parties in total of r rounds. Then we have that N_{bA} , N_{bH} follow the Binomial Distribution with probability p_A , p_H respectively.

Because we require consecutive successful rounds for the adversary, we have:

$$Pr[N_{bA} = n_b] = (r - n_b - 1)p_A^{n_b}(1 - p_A)^{r-n_b} \quad (13)$$

while for the honest players we have

$$Pr[N_{bH} \leq n_b] = \sum_{i=0}^{n_b} \binom{n}{i} p_H^i (1 - p_H)^{r-i} \quad (14)$$

If N_b is the random variable denoting the number of consecutive rounds that adversarially generated blocks are appended to the chain, we have:

$$Pr[N_b = n_b] = Pr[N_{bA} = n_b] \cdot Pr[N_{bH} \leq n_b] \quad (15)$$

since the two events are independent.

The velvet infix prover

The construction of an infix proof is described in Algorithm 2. In order to keep the algorithm generic enough for any infix-sensitive predicate, we provide the steps needed until the verification of the block of interest and consider the specific predicate answer as trivial to calculate given the block of interest. The infix prover accepts as input the full chain C and a block of interest b' and returns a proof consisting of the Merkle Tree proof of inclusion for b' and a suffix proof.

Algorithm 2: Velvet Infix Prover

```

1 function ProveInfixVelvet( $C$ ,  $b'$ ):
2    $(\pi, \chi) \leftarrow Prove_{m,k}(C)$ 
3    $tip = \pi[-1]$ 
4    $\pi_{b'} \leftarrow ConstrMTInclProof(tip, b'.id)$ 
5   return  $(\pi_{b'}, (\pi, \chi))$ 
6 end function

```

The velvet infix verifier

The infix proof verification algorithm is described in Algorithm 3. Supposing that the verifier has already concluded to the longest valid chain C after accepting and comparing constesting suffix proofs, the infix verification algorithm only has to confirm the Merkle-Tree inclusion proof for the block of interest b' .

Algorithm 3: Velvet Infix Verifier

```
1 function VerifyInfixVelvet( $\pi'_b, (\pi, \chi)$ ):  
2    $(\pi, \chi) \leftarrow \text{Prove}_{m,k}(C)$   
3    $tip = \pi[-1]$   
4   return  $\text{VerMTInclProof}(tip.MTR_{blocks}, \pi_{b'}, b'.id)$   
5 end function
```

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