On the optionality and fairness of Atomic Swaps

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ABSTRACT

Atomic Swap enables two parties to atomically exchange their own cryptocurrencies without trusted third parties. This paper provides the first quantitative analysis on the fairness of the Atomic Swap protocol, and proposes the first fair Atomic Swap protocol with implementations.

In particular, we model the Atomic Swap as the American Call Option, and prove that an Atomic Swap is equivalent to an American Call Option without the premium. Thus, the Atomic Swap is unfair to the swap participant. Then, we quantify the fairness of the Atomic Swap and compare it with that of conventional financial assets (stocks and fiat currencies). The quantification results show that the the Atomic Swap is much more unfair on cryptocurrencies than on stocks and fiat currencies in the same setting. Moreover, we use the conventional Cox-Ross-Rubinstein option pricing model in Finance to estimate the premium, and show that the estimated premium for cryptocurrencies is 2% ~ 3% of the asset value, while the premium for stocks and fiat currencies is approximately 0.3%. Furthermore, we propose two fair Atomic Swap protocols, of which one is for currency exchange and the other is for American Call Options. Our protocols are based on the original Atomic Swap protocol, but implement the premium mechanism. Blockchains supporting smart contracts such as Ethereum support our protocols directly. Blockchains only supporting scripts such as Bitcoin can support our protocols by adding a simple opcode. Finally, we provide the reference implementation of our protocols in Solidity, and give detailed instructions on implementing our protocols with Bitcoin script.

KEYWORDS

Blockchain; Atomic Swap; Cross-Chain Transactions; American Call Option

1 INTRODUCTION

Atomic Swap allows two parties to exchange their assets "atomically" without trusted third parties. "Atomic" means the swap either succeeds or fails for both parties at any given time. In blockchains, Atomic Swap is usually implemented by using Hashed Time-locked Contracts (HTLCs) [1]. The HTLC is a type of transaction that, the payee should provide the preimage of a hash value before a specified deadline, otherwise the payment fails - the money goes back to the payee. In an Atomic Swap, the swap initiator can decide whether to proceed or abort the swap, and the default maximum time for him to decide is 24 hours [5]. This enables the the swap initiator to speculate without any penalty. More specifically, the swap initiator can keep waiting before the timelock expires. If the price of the swap participant’s asset rises, the swap initiator will proceed the swap so that he will profit. If the price of the swap participant’s asset drops, the swap initiator can abort the swap, so that he won’t lose money.

A user with ID “ZmnSCPxj” initiated a discussion at the Lightning-dev mailing list [6] that, this problem is equivalent to the Optionality in Finance, which has already been studied for decades [7]. In Finance, an investment is said to have Optionality if 1) settling this investment happens in the future rather than instantly; 2) settling this investment is optional rather than mandatory. For an investment with Optionality, the option itself has value besides the underlying asset, which is called the premium. The option buyer should pay for the premium besides the underlying asset, even if he aborts the contract. In this way, he can no longer speculate without penalties.

In the Atomic Swap, the swap initiator has the Optionality, as he can choose whether to proceed or abort the swap. Unfortunately, the swap initiator is not required to pay for the premium - the Atomic Swap does not take the Optionality into account. Furthermore, Atomic Swap should not have Optionality. Atomic Swap is designed for currency exchange, and the currency exchange has no Optionality. Instead, once both parties agree on a currency exchange, it should be settled without any chance to regret.

In this paper, we investigate the unfairness of the Atomic Swap. We start from describing the Atomic Swap and the American Call Option in Finance, then we show how an Atomic Swap is equivalent to a premium-free American Call Option. After that, we then evaluate how unfair the Atomic Swap is from two different perspectives: quantifying the unfairness and estimating the premium. Furthermore, we propose an improvement on the Atomic Swap, which implements the premium mechanism, to make it fair. Our improvement supports blockchains with smart contracts (e.g. Ethereum) directly, and can support blockchains with scripts only (e.g. Bitcoin) by adding a single opcode. We also implement our protocol in Solidity (a smart contract programming language for Ethereum), and give detailed instructions on implementing our protocols on Bitcoin.

1.1 Our contributions

Our contributions are as follows:

- Atomic Swap is much more unfair on cryptocurrencies than on stocks and fiat currencies in the same setting.
- We propose two fair Atomic Swap protocols, one for currency exchange and the other for American Call Options.
- We use the conventional Cox-Ross-Rubinstein option pricing model in Finance to estimate the premium.
- Our protocols are based on the original Atomic Swap protocol, but implement the premium mechanism.
- Blockchains supporting smart contracts such as Ethereum support our protocols directly.
- Blockchains only supporting scripts such as Bitcoin can support our protocols by adding a simple opcode.
- We provide the reference implementation of our protocols in Solidity, and give detailed instructions on implementing our protocols with Bitcoin script.
We show that the Atomic Swap is equivalent to the premium-free American Call Option. We describe the Atomic Swap and the American Call Option, then we point out that an Atomic Swap is equivalent to a premium-free American Call Option, which is a type of Options (in Finance). More specifically: the initiator and the participant in an Atomic Swap are the option buyer and the option seller in an American Call Option, respectively; the initiator asset and the participant asset in an Atomic Swap are the used currency and the underlying asset in an American Call Option, respectively; the participant asset’s timelock in an Atomic Swap is the strike time in an American Call Option; the current price of the participant asset in an Atomic Swap is the strike price in an American Call Option; redeeming cryptocurrencies in an Atomic Swap is equivalent to exercising the contract in an American Call Option.

We show that the Atomic Swap is unfair to the participant. We show that the Atomic Swap - represented as the premium-free American Call Option in Finance - is unfair to the participant, especially in the highly volatile cryptocurrency market. In practice, the initiator can decide whether to proceed the swap while investigating the cryptocurrency market. However, proceeding or aborting the swap does not require the initiator to pay for the premium. This leads to the scenario that, if the participant’s asset price rises before the strike time, he will proceed the swap to profit, otherwise he will abort the swap to avoid losing money. In this way, the swap initiator can speculate without any risk in Atomic Swaps.

We quantify the unfairness of the Atomic Swap, and compare it with that of conventional financial assets. We quantify how unfair the Atomic Swap with mainstream cryptocurrency pairs is, and compare this unfairness with those of conventional financial assets (stocks and fiat currencies). We first classify the unfairness to two parts, namely the profit when the price rises and the mitigated loss when the price drops, then quantify them based on historical exchange rate volatility. Our results show that, in the default timelock setting, the profit and the mitigated loss of our selected cryptocurrency pairs are approximately 1%, while for stocks and fiat currencies the values are approximately 0.3% and 0.15%, respectively.

We use the Cox-Ross-Rubinstein option pricing model to estimate the premium. We use the Cox-Ross-Rubinstein option pricing model to estimate how much the premium should be for Atomic Swaps. In Finance, the Cox-Ross-Rubinstein model [8] is the conventional option pricing model for American-style options. Our results show that, in the default timelock setting, the premium should be approximately 2% for Atomic Swaps with cryptocurrency pairs, while the premium is approximately 0.3% for American Call Options with stocks and fiat currencies. Also, the premium values rise for all assets with the strike time increasing, then start to converge when the strike time reaches 300 days.

We propose an improvement on the Atomic Swap to make it fair. With the observation that the unfairness is from the premium, we propose an improvement on the Atomic Swap, which implements the premium mechanism, to make it fair. It supports both the currency exchange-style Atomic Swap and the American Call Option-style Atomic Swap. In the currency exchange-style Atomic Swap, the premium will go back to the swap initiator if the swap is successful. In the American Call Option-style Atomic Swap, the premium will definitely go to the swap participant if the participant participates in the swap.

We describe how to implement our protocol on existing blockchains. We give instructions to implement our protocols on existing blockchains, including blockchains supporting smart contracts and blockchains supporting scripts only. For blockchains supporting smart contracts (e.g. Ethereum), our protocol can be directly implemented. For blockchains supporting scripts only (e.g. Bitcoin), our protocol can be implemented by adding one more opcode. We call the opcode “OP_LOOKUP_OUTPUT”, which looks up the owner of a specific UTXO output. We give the reference implementation in Solidity as an example of smart contracts. We also give that in Bitcoin script (which assumes “OP_LOOKUP_OUTPUT” exists) as an example of scripts.

1.2 Paper structure

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the background of Atomic Swap and options in Finance. Section 3 describes the Atomic Swap and the American Call Option, and shows how the Atomic Swap is equivalent to the premium-free American Call Option. Section 4 evaluates the fairness of the Atomic Swap by analysing the volatility and pricing the premium of mainstream cryptocurrency pairs. Section 5 describes our proposed fair Atomic Swap protocols. Section 6 describes how to implement our proposed protocols on existing blockchains. Section 7 discusses security issues of the Atomic Swap, other countermeasures for mitigating the unfairness of the Atomic Swap, and limitations of our protocols. Section 9 concludes our paper and outlines the future work.

2 BACKGROUND

In this section, we explain basic concepts of Atomic Swap and the Option (in Finance).

2.1 Atomic Swap

An Atomic Swap [5] is that two parties exchange their assets “atomically”. “Atomic” means the swap is indivisible: it either succeeds or fails for both parties. In Blockchain, the Hashed Time-locked Contract (HTLC) [1] enables the Atomic Swap without trusted third parties. HTLC was originally introduced to secure routing across multiple payment channels [9]. In a HTLC-style transaction, the payee can redeem the payment prior to a deadline only by providing the preimage of a specific hash value, otherwise the payment will expire and the money will go back to the payor. This is achieved by the hashlock - to lock the payment by a hash value, and the timelock - to give the deadline of redeeming. The timelock avoids locking money in a payment forever when the payee cannot provide the preimage.

2.2 Option in Finance

In Finance, an option is a contract which gives the option buyer the right to buy or sell an asset, at a specified price prior to or on a specified date [7]. Here the option buyer can choose whether to fulfill the contract. The specified price is called the strike price; the specified date is called the strike time; the party proposing the option is called the option seller; the other party choosing to fulfill or
3.1.2 Process. The option has two types: the American-style Option and the European-style Option. They differ from the strike time: The European-style Option buyer can only exercise the contract on the strike time, and the American-style Option buyer can exercise the contract no later than the strike time.

Who holds the option is irrelevant with who is buying the underlying asset. More specifically, the option buyer is who can decide to exercise or abort the contract. Whether the option buyer is buying or selling the underlying asset depends on the option contract. In Finance, if the option buyer is the party buying the underlying asset, this option is a "Call Option", otherwise this option is a "Put Option" [10].

Besides the underlying asset, the option contract itself is considered to have value. The value of the contract is called the premium. The option buyer should pay for the premium to the option seller once both parties agree on the option contract.

The premium is priced prior to the contract agreement. As the premium is the only variable within the option contract, pricing the premium is also known as the option pricing problem. Option Pricing is rather a complex task, and is still a hot research topic in Finance and Applied Mathematics.

The Black-Scholes (BS) Model is the first widely used model for option pricing [11]. It can estimate the value of European-style Options. The Cox-Ross-Rubinstein (CRR) model [8], also known as the Binomial Option Pricing model, extends the BS model for pricing American-style Options.

3 ATOMIC SWAP AND AMERICAN CALL OPTION

In this section, we describe the Atomic Swap (the original version on BitcoinTalk [5]) and the American Call Option, then point out that an Atomic Swap is equivalent to an American Call Option without the premium.

3.1 Atomic Swap

3.1.1 Security assumptions. First, we assume blockchains involved in the Atomic Swap are secure, and execute all transactions correctly. The Atomic Swap is based on blockchains. If the blockchains are insecure, the Atomic Swap will also be insecure.

Second, we assume the HTLC mechanism in blockchains is reliable. More specifically, 1) blockchains produce new blocks with stable speeds; 2) the hash algorithms used by HTLCs are secure; 3) blockchains execute HTLCs correctly.

Third, the time for confirming a transaction is negligible compared to timelocks in HTLCs. In practice, the swap initiator’s timelock is 48 hours and the swap participant’s timelock is 24 hours by default [5], while confirming a transaction is less than 1 hour for most blockchains.

3.1.2 Process. Assuming the swap initiator Alice hopes to get x2 Coin2 from the swap participant Bob in exchange of x1 Coin1. Coin1 is the cryptocurrency on the blockchain BC1, and Coin2 is the cryptocurrency on the blockchain BC2. We denote the Atomic Swap as

\[ AS = (x_1, \text{Coin}_1, x_2, \text{Coin}_2) \]

Let Alice be the holder of the address βA,1 on BC1 and the address βA,2 on BC2. Let Bob be the holder of the address βB,1 on BC1 and the address βB,2 on BC2. βA,1 holds Coin1 with the amount no smaller than x1, and βB,2 holds Coin2 with the amount no smaller than x2.

Figure 1 shows the process of \( \text{AS} \). In detail, \( \text{AS} \) consists of four stages: Initialize, Participate, Redeem, and Refund.

**Initialize.** Alice initiates \( \text{AS} \) at this stage. First, Alice picks a random secret s only known to herself, and computes the hash \( h = H(s) \) of s, where H is a secure hash function. Then, Alice creates an HTLC script C1 that “Alice pays x1 Coin1 from βA,1 to βB,1 if Bob can provide x which makes H(s) = h before or on a timelock δ1 (which is a timestamp). After δ1, Alice can refund the money - get x1 Coin1 back.” After creating C1, Alice publishes C1 as a transaction \( tx_{C,1} \) on BC1. Note that h is published when publishing \( tx_{C,1} \). Besides C1, Alice also creates a refund script \( R_1 \) that “Alice pays x1 Coin1 from βA,1 to her another address.” This is to ensure x1 Coin1 can no longer be redeemed by others. Alice can publish \( R_1 \) only after δ1. If Bob does not redeem x1 Coin1 and δ1 expires, Alice can refund x1 Coin1 by publishing \( R_1 \) as a transaction \( tx_{R,1} \) on BC1.

**Participate.** Bob participates in \( \text{AS} \) after Initialize. With the published h in \( tx_{C,1} \), Bob creates another HTLC script C2 that “Bob pays x2 Coin2 from βB,2 to βA,2 if Alice can provide s before or on a timelock δ2 (which is a timestamp). After the time of δ2, Bob can refund the money - get x2 Coin2 back.” Here δ2 should expire before δ1. After creating C2, Bob publishes C2 as a transaction \( tx_{C,2} \) on BC2. Note that Alice knows s so she can redeem x2 Coin2 in \( tx_{C,2} \) anytime before δ2, but Bob cannot redeem x1 Coin1 in \( tx_{C,1} \) because he does not know s. Besides C2, Bob also creates a refund script \( R_2 \) that “Bob pays x2 Coin2 from βB,2 to his another address.” This is to ensure x2 Coin2 can no longer be redeemed by Alice. Bob can do this only after δ2. If Alice does not redeem x2 Coin2 before δ2 expires, Bob can refund x2 Coin2 by publishing \( R_2 \) as a transaction \( tx_{R,2} \) on BC2.
Refund her. Redeem successfully exchanges.

are atomic: if Alice chooses to redeem Coin1 by triggering Redeem. It is Bob to blame in this case, because he should have had enough time - at least \( \delta_2 - \delta_1 \) (48 - 24 = 24 hours by default) - to redeem Coin1. Another example is that Alice broadcasts \( tx_{C_1} \) after \( \delta_2 \), but Bob has already triggered Refund. Therefore, Bob can also redeem Coin1 with \( s \) in \( tx_{C_1} \) before \( \delta_1 \). Similarly, it is Alice to blame in this case, because she should have had enough time - before \( \delta_2 \) (24 hours by default) - to trigger Redeem.

3.2 American Call Option

The American Call Option is a contract that “one can buy an amount of an asset with an agreed price prior to or on an agreed time in the future”. Here, the agreed price is usually called the strike price; and the contract settlement is called exercising; the one who proposes the contract and buys the asset is called the option buyer; the one who sells the asset is called the option seller.

As mentioned in Section 2.2, the option contract itself has value, called the premium. In an American Call Option, the option buyer should pay for the premium when the contract is exercised by both parties, and should pay for the asset when the contract is exercised.

We denote an American Call Option contract \( \Pi \) as

\[
\Pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, K, A, T, C)
\]

where the option buyer Alice with \( \pi_1 \) hopes to buy \( \pi_2 \) from the option seller Bob; \( \pi_1 \) and \( \pi_2 \) are Alice’s currency and Bob’s asset, respectively; \( K \) is the strike price with the unit \( \pi_2 / \pi_1 \) - the price of \( \pi_2 \) measured in \( \pi_1 \); \( A \) is the amount of the asset \( \pi_2 \) that Bob wants to sell; \( T \) is the agreed strike time; \( C \) is the premium with the unit \( \pi_1 \).

The process of an American Call Option is as follows:

1. **Advertise**: Alice creates and advertises an American Call Option contract \( \Pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, K, A, T, C) \).
2. **Contract**: If Bob believes \( \Pi \) is profitable and Alice does not abort \( \Pi \), Bob will participate in \( \Pi \). When Bob participates, Alice should pay \( C \) to Bob first. Note that Alice does not pay for \( A \pi_2 \) at this stage. Also note that Bob cannot abort \( \Pi \) after participating in \( \Pi \).
3. **Exercise or Abort**: Alice exercises \( \Pi \) - pays \( AK \) to Bob - no later than \( T \), and Bob gives \( A \pi_2 \) to Alice. If Alice does not exercise \( \Pi \) no later than \( T \), \( \Pi \) will abort - Alice gets \( \pi_1 \) back and Bob gets \( \pi_2 \) back. In other words, both of them get their underlying asset back, but Alice loses the premium \( C \) to Bob when **Contract**.

3.3 An Atomic Swap is a premium-free American Call Option

We show that an Atomic Swap is equivalent to a premium-free American Call Option. More specifically, \( \mathcal{AS} = (x_1, \text{Coin}_1, x_2, \text{Coin}_2) \) is equivalent to the American Call Option contract

\[
\Pi = (C_1, \text{Coin}_1, x_2, x_1, \pi_2, \delta_2, 0)
\]

where: **Advertise** in the American Call Option is equivalent to **Initiate** in the Atomic Swap; **Contract** in the American Call Option...
is equivalent to Participate in the Atomic Swap; Exercise in the American Call Option is equivalent to Redeem in the Atomic Swap; Abort in the American Call Option is equivalent to Refund in the Atomic Swap.

In the American Call Option context, the option buyer Alice wants to buy \( x_2 \) Coin\(_2\) from the option seller Bob by using \( x_1 \) Coin\(_1\). Coin\(_1\) is the currency Alice uses, Coin\(_2\) is the asset Bob has. This is equivalent to that Alice with \( \pi_1 \) wants to buy \( x_2 \) from Bob. \( \delta_2 \) is the timelock of the contract transaction on BC\(_2\), which is equivalent to the strike time \( T \) in \( AS \). In \( AS \) Bob can refund his asset back after \( \delta_2 \) to abort \( AS \), while \( II \) will be automatically aborted after the strike time \( T \). Establishing \( AS \) does not require Alice to pay anything other than \( x_1 \) Coin\(_1\) to Bob, which is equivalent to \( II \) with \( C = 0 \).

Note that both the Atomic Swap and the American Call Option are "speculative": both the cryptocurrency exchange rates in Atomic Swaps and asset prices in the American Call Options are fluctuating overtime. Therefore, the "premium-free" property enables Alice to speculate without any risk: if Bob’s asset price rises right before the strike time, she will proceed the swap to profit, otherwise she will abort the swap to avoid the loss. Therefore, without the premium, Alice is risk-free towards the market.

### 4 UNFAIRNESS OF ATOMIC SWAPS

In this section, we evaluate the unfairness of the Atomic Swap based on our observation in Section 3. In particular, our evaluations are from two perspectives: quantifying the unfairness and estimating the unpaid premium. Quantifying the unfairness is based on analysing the historical exchange rate volatility. Estimating the unpaid premium is based on the Cox-Ross-Rubinstein model: the conventional option pricing model for pricing American-style options in Finance. Furthermore, we also evaluate conventional financial assets - the stocks and the currency exchanges - and compare their results with cryptocurrencies. The code for the evaluation is available on Github [12].

#### 4.1 Experimental setting

We collected relevant data of mainstream cryptocurrencies for one year, starting from May 3th, 2018 to May 3th, 2019. In particular, the cryptocurrency exchange rate data was retrieved from CoinGecko [2]; the stock index data was retrieved from Yahoo Finance [2]; the currency exchange rate data was retrieved from Investing.com [3].

#### 4.2 Quantifying the unfairness

Assume that Alice initiates the swap by triggering Initiate(\( t \)) at the time \( t \), then by default \( \delta_1 = t + 48(\text{hours}) \). We also assume that Bob participates in the swap by triggering Participate(\( t \)), then by default \( \delta_2 = t + 24(\text{hours}) \).

In this way, Alice can decide whether to proceed the swap within \( \delta_1 - \delta_2 = 24(\text{hours}) \). When Bob’s asset price rises, Alice profits directly. When Bob’s asset price drops, Alice can abort the swap to avoid losing money. Based on this observation, we classify Alice’s advantages to two parts, namely the profit when Bob’s asset price rises and the mitigated loss when Bob’s asset price drops.

We then test the unfairness by using a single Atomic Swap with the value of \( x \) USD, then we show the degree of unfairness in dollars based on the historical data. For each day, Alice may either profit \( \alpha \) percent of \( x \) directly (when Bob’s asset price rises), or mitigate \( \beta \) percent of \( x \) by aborting the swap (when Bob’s asset price drops) on average. Assume the possibility for Bob’s asset price to rise is \( P_a \), and to drop is \( P_b \). Then, the expected profit rate is \( E_a = \alpha P_a \), and the expected mitigated risk rate is \( E_b = \beta P_b \). Therefore, the expected unfairness is that Alice profits \( E_a x \) and mitigates the risk of losing \( E_b x \).

### Experimental methodology

In our scenario, quantifying the unfairness is to calculate \( E_a \) and \( E_b \), so we calculate \( E_a \) and \( E_b \) for each selected cryptocurrency pair. Furthermore, we also quantify the unfairness of stock indices and fiat currencies in the same setting, in order to make comparisons. We use S&P500 and Dow Jones Index (DJI) as examples of stock indices, and USD-EUR and USD-GBP as examples of fiat currencies.

**Results and analysis.** Figure 3 shows the calculated \( E_a \) and \( E_b \), the maximum daily rises \( max_a \) and the maximum daily drops \( max_b \) for 8 mainstream cryptocurrency pairs, stock indices (S&P500 and DJI) and fiat currency exchange rates (USD-EUR and USD-GBP). For each plot, points in the red Profit Area indicate that Alice profits directly at those days, and points in the green Risk Area indicate that Alice can abort the swap to mitigate the risk at those days.

We observe that for all chosen cryptocurrency pairs, \( max_a \) and \( max_b \) are considerably big - ranging from 8% to 25%. Meanwhile, \( max_a \) and \( max_b \) of stock indices are much smaller than all cryptocurrency pairs, and \( max_a \) and \( max_b \) of fiat currencies are even smaller than stock indices. This indicates that in the setting of an 24-hour Atomic Swap, the Atomic Swap with cryptocurrencies is much more unfair than with stocks, and the Atomic Swap with stocks are much more unfair than with fiat currencies.

Figure 4 visualises \( E_a \) and \( E_b \) of all evaluated items in Figure 3. In particular, we classify scatters to 4 groups based on their \( E_a \) and \( E_b \): The first group \((0 < E_a < 0.005 \land 0 < E_b < 0.005)\) consists of all stock indices (S&P500 and DJI) and all fiat currency pairs (USD-GBP and USD-EUR); the second group \((0.005 < E_a < 0.015 \land 0.005 < E_b < 0.015)\) consists of most cryptocurrency pairs; the third group \((0.010 < E_a < 0.015 \land E_b > 0.015)\) only contains one cryptocurrency pair BTC-BNB; the fourth group \((E_a > 0.015 \land 0.010 < E_b < 0.015)\) only contains the last cryptocurrency pair BTC-BCH. Moreover, we draw a line \( E_b = E_a \) to separate two areas: \( E_b > E_a \) and \( E_b < E_a \).

Obviously, the Atomic Swap with first-group items is fairer than with second-group items, and the Atomic Swap with second-group items is fair than with third-group and fourth-group items. More specifically, we can get the following results. First, the Atomic Swap with cryptocurrency pairs is more unfair than with stocks and fiat currency pairs. This result is consistent with results in Figure 3. Second, \( E_b \) and \( E_b - E_a \) of BTC-BNB are bigger than of others. This means the exchange rate of BTC-BNB, and drops generally over the last year. Meanwhile, \( E_a \) and \( E_a - E_b \) of BTC-BCH are bigger than of others. This means the exchange rate of BTC-BCH, and rises
Figure 3: The daily percentage changes for all selected cryptocurrency pairs, stock indices and fiat currency pairs over one year (from 03/05/2018 to 03/05/2019). For each figure, $E_\alpha$, $E_\beta$, max$\alpha$ and max$\beta$ are the expected profit rate, the expected mitigated risk rate, the maximum daily profit and the maximum daily mitigated risk, respectively. The red area is the Profit Area where Alice profit from the rising asset price, and the green area is the Risk Area where Alice mitigates the loss from the dropping asset price.

4.3 Estimating the premium

The unfairness of the Atomic Swap comes from the fact that Alice can abort the contract without punishment. In Finance, the premium mechanism guarantees the good behaviours. Hence, the Atomic Swap with those assets is more unfair than with other assets. Third, all dots are close to the line $E_\beta = E_\alpha$, while the dots of stock indices and fiat currency pairs almost lay on this line. A dot lying on $E_\beta = E_\alpha$ means the exchange rate rises and drops at the same level. Therefore, although more volatile than stocks and fiat currencies, exchange rates of cryptocurrency pairs rise and drop at the same level.

generally over the last year. Both observations indicate that BTC-BNB and BTC-BCH are highly volatile, so the Atomic Swap with those assets is more unfair than with other assets. Third, all dots are close to the line $E_\beta = E_\alpha$, while the dots of stock indices and fiat currency pairs almost lay on this line. A dot lying on $E_\beta = E_\alpha$ means the exchange rate rises and drops at the same level. Therefore, although more volatile than stocks and fiat currencies, exchange rates of cryptocurrency pairs rise and drop at the same level.

Therefore, we can evaluate the unfairness of the Atomic Swap by estimating the premium for American Call Options with cryptocurrencies.

As the premium is the only variable in an option contract, estimating the premium is also called the "Option Pricing" problem. In Finance, the Black-Scholes (BS) Model [11] is utilised to price the European Call Options, while the CRR model is utilised to price the American Call Options.

Therefore, in order to evaluate the unfairness of the Atomic Swap, we use the CRR Model to estimate how much the premium should be in the Atomic Swap.
The Cox-Ross-Rubinstein (CRR) Model [8] - a.k.a. the Binomial Options Pricing Model (BOPM) - is a numerical method for pricing American-style Options. Intuitively, the CRR model enumerates all possible asset prices of the underlying asset price. In the CRR model, the move-up and move-down are symmetric - $u \cdot d = 1$, and the rate of move-up and move-down is positive correlated with $\sigma_a$:

$$u = e^{\sigma_a \sqrt{\frac{T}{n}}}$$  

$$d = e^{-\sigma_a \sqrt{\frac{T}{n}}} = \frac{1}{u}$$  

Here, $T$ is measured in years, and $\sigma_a$ is defined as the standard deviation of the annual price changes in percentage. $\sigma_a$ can be computed from the standard deviation $\sigma_d$ of daily price changes in percentage as below:

$$\sigma_d = \sigma_a \sqrt{\frac{d}{n}}$$

$$\sigma_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{d} (S'_i - \bar{S})^2}{d-1}}$$

where $d$ is the number of trading days within a year. For cryptocurrencies, $d$ equals to the number of a days within a year. Note that $S'_i$ is the percentage change of the price on day $i$, rather than the price itself. $\bar{S}$ is the average value of all $S'_i$s within the $d$ days.

Each asset price $S_{t,i}$ can be calculated directly by $S_{t,i} = S_{0,1}$ · $u^{N_u} \cdot d^{N_d}$, where $S_{0,1}$ is the initial asset price, and $N_u, N_d$ are the times of move-ups and move-downs, respectively.

### Creating the binomial price tree

The binomial price tree $T$ of the height $n$ (as shown in Fig. 5) represents the possible future prices within the time period $T$ discretely. $n$ can be picked arbitrarily: with larger $n$, the result will be more accurate, but the computing overhead will be heavier. Each node $T_{i,j}$ is attached with an asset price $S_{t,i}$ and a premium price $C_{i,j}$, where $t \in \{0, \frac{T}{n}, \frac{2T}{n}, ..., T\}$ is the point of time, and $i$ is the id of this node at its level. The CRR model assumes that the asset price will either move up or down by a specific factor per step in $T$. The move-up factor is $u$, and the move-down factor is $d$. For example, given the initial asset price $S_{0,1}$, the asset price after one move-up $S_{\frac{T}{n},1}$ is $u \cdot S_{0,1}$, and the asset price after one move-down $S_{\frac{T}{n},2}$ is $d \cdot S_{0,1}$.

$u$ and $d$ are calculated using the annualised volatility $\sigma_a$ of the underlying asset price. In the CRR model, the move-up and move-down are symmetric - $u \cdot d = 1$, and the rate of move-up and move-down is positive correlated with $\sigma_a$:

$$u = e^{\sigma_a \sqrt{\frac{T}{n}}}$$  

$$d = e^{-\sigma_a \sqrt{\frac{T}{n}}} = \frac{1}{u}$$  

Here, $T$ is measured in years, and $\sigma_a$ is defined as the standard deviation of the annual price changes in percentage. $\sigma_a$ can be computed from the standard deviation $\sigma_d$ of daily price changes in percentage as below:

$$\sigma_d = \sigma_a \sqrt{\frac{d}{n}}$$

$$\sigma_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{d} (S'_i - \bar{S})^2}{d-1}}$$

where $d$ is the number of trading days within a year. For cryptocurrencies, $d$ equals to the number of a days within a year. Note that $S'_i$ is the percentage change of the price on day $i$, rather than the price itself. $\bar{S}$ is the average value of all $S'_i$s within the $d$ days.

Each asset price $S_{t,i}$ can be calculated directly by $S_{t,i} = S_{0,1}$ · $u^{N_u} \cdot d^{N_d}$, where $S_{0,1}$ is the initial asset price, and $N_u, N_d$ are the times of move-ups and move-downs, respectively.

### Creating the binomial price tree

- **Creating the binomial price tree**
- **Calculating the premiums for leaf nodes**
- **Iteratively reconstructing the premiums for non-leaf nodes**

### Summary of symbols in the Cox-Ross-Rubinstein Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$u, d$</td>
<td>The rising and dropping rates for prices in the binomial tree $T$</td>
<td>$u \cdot d = 1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\sigma_a$</td>
<td>The daily and annualised percentage change rates of asset prices</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T$</td>
<td>The strike time (measured in years)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>The depth of $T$</td>
<td>$n = 36$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta t$</td>
<td>The time period between two adjacent nodes on $T$ (measured in years)</td>
<td>$\Delta t = \frac{T}{n}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{t,i}$</td>
<td>The asset price of the $i$-th node on the $\frac{t}{\Delta t}$-th level of $T$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{i,j}$</td>
<td>The premium of the $i$-th node on the $\frac{j}{\Delta t}$-th level of $T$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p, q$</td>
<td>The probabilities that the asset price rises and drops</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Visualising the expected profit rate $E\alpha$ and the expected mitigated risk rate $E\beta$

**Figure 4** Visualising the expected profit rate $E\alpha$ and the expected mitigated risk rate $E\beta$ for each cryptocurrency pair, stock index and fiat currency pair.

**Figure 5** The binomial price tree $T$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$u, d$</td>
<td>The rising and dropping rates for prices in the binomial tree $T$</td>
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<td>$n = 36$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>The time period between two adjacent nodes on $T$ (measured in years)</td>
<td>$\Delta t = \frac{T}{n}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{t,i}$</td>
<td>The asset price of the $i$-th node on the $\frac{t}{\Delta t}$-th level of $T$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{i,j}$</td>
<td>The premium of the $i$-th node on the $\frac{j}{\Delta t}$-th level of $T$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p, q$</td>
<td>The probabilities that the asset price rises and drops</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Calculating the premiums for leaf nodes. In the first step, only the asset prices are determined rather than the premiums. This step further determines the premiums for leaf nodes. For each leaf node \( T_{n,i} \), the premium is \( C_{n,i} = \max\{(S_{n,i} - K), 0\} \).

Iteratively reconstructing the premiums for earlier nodes. We back-propagate the premiums for leaf nodes to earlier premiums. Each earlier premium is calculated from premiums of the later two nodes weighted by their possibilities. The move-up and move-down possibility are \( p \) and \( q \) where \( p + q = 1 \), and the risk-free rate is \( r = q \). More specifically, each earlier premium \( C_{t-\Delta t,i} \) is calculated from later premiums as:

\[
C_{t-\Delta t,i} = e^{-r\Delta t}(pC_{t,i} + qC_{t,i+1})
\]

where \( \Delta t = \frac{T}{n} \), and \( p, q, r \) are computed as

\[
p = \frac{e^{(r-q)\Delta t} - d}{u - d}
\]
\[
q = 1 - p
\]
\[
r = q
\]

such that the premium distribution simulates the geometric Brownian motion [13] with parameters \( r \) and \( \sigma \).

In this way, the earliest premium \( C_{0,1} \), which is our targeted estimated premium \( C \), can be calculated by iteratively back-propagating the later premiums.

Table 1 summarises all symbols used in the Cox-Ross-Rubinstein model.

4.3.2 Experiments. We use the same data as Section 4.2, and choose \( n = 36 \) for the CRR model. We estimate the premium for the same assets (8 cryptocurrency pairs + 2 stock indices + 2 fiat currency pairs in Section 4.2) with the strike time \( T \) ranging from 1 to 300. Figure 6 shows our pricing results.

First, we observe that the premium of cryptocurrency pairs is much more expensive than of stocks, and the premium of stocks is more expensive than of fiat currencies at any given time. Recall the evaluated unfairness in Section 4.2, its results are consistent with the premium pricing results: the more volatile the market is, the more unfair the Atomic Swap will be, and the higher the premium should be. Second, with the default strike time \( T = 1 \) of the Atomic Swap, the premium for cryptocurrency pairs vary from approximately 1% to 2.3% of the underlying asset value, but the values for stocks and fiat currency pairs are approximately 0.3%. Third, for all evaluated items, the premium values rise monotonically with \( T \) increasing. This is because the longer expiration time lets Alice to have more control on the option - he has more time to predict the price and decide to exercise or abort the option.

5 FAIR ATOMIC SWAPS

In this section, we propose an improvement on the original Atomic Swap to make it fair. It implements the premium mechanism, and supports both the currency exchange-style Atomic Swap and the American Call Option-style Atomic Swap.

5.1 Design

5.1.1 Difference between Currency Exchange and Options. We first summarise the design objectives for Atomic Swap.

To our knowledge, the Atomic Swap protocol is originally designed for the fair exchange between different currencies. However, according to our analysis, the protocol is unfair due to the Optionality and the free premium. Also, for (crypto)currencies exchange, the protocol should have no Optionality. The currency exchange and the American Call Option differ in Finance: the currency exchange is a type of Spots [14], while the American Call Option is a type of Options. The Spot Contract and the Option Contract aim at different application scenarios: the Spot Contract aims at exchanging the ownership of assets, while the Option Contract aims at providing Alice an “option” to trade. More specifically, Spots and Options differ in the following aspects:

- The Spot Contract is exercised immediately, while the Option Contract is exercised on or prior to a specified date in the future.
- The Spot Contract cannot be aborted once signed by both parties, while in the Option Contract Alice can abort the contract with the loss of the premium.
- The Spot Contract itself has no value, while the Option Contract itself has value - the premium.

5.1.2 Premium for Currency Exchange and American Call Options. According to Section 5.1.1, the currency exchange-style Atomic Swaps and the American Call Option-style Atomic Swaps differ in design objectives.
Atomic Swaps for Currency Exchange. For the currency exchange, both parties are not permitted to abort the contract once signed. However, in Atomic Swaps, Alice can abort the swap by not releasing the random secret. Therefore, the protocol should discourage Alice to abort the swap. To achieve this, we can use the premium mechanism as the collateral: Alice should deposit the premium besides her asset when Initiate. The premium should follow that: Alice pays the premium to Bob if Bob refunds his asset after his timelock but before Alice’s timelock. If Alice’s timelock expires, Alice can refund her premium back.

Atomic Swaps for American Call Options. For the American Call Options, Alice should pay for the premium besides the underlying asset, regardless of whether the swap is successful or not. In reality, the option sellers are trustworthy - the option sellers never abort the contract. However, in Atomic Swaps, Bob can abort the contracts like Alice. To keep the Atomic Swap consistent with the American Call Options, the premium should follow that: Alice pays the premium to Bob if 1) Alice redeems Bob’s asset before Bob’s timelock, or 2) Bob refunds his asset after Bob’s timelock but before Alice’s timelock. If Alice’s timelock expires, Alice can refund her premium back.

5.2 Our protocol

![Sequence diagram of our Atomic Swap](image)

Figure 7: Sequence diagram of our Atomic Swap. For currency exchange-style Atomic Swaps, the premium will go back to Alice if the swap is successful (the left dotted line). For American Call Option-style Atomic Swaps, the premium will go to Bob if the swap is successful (the right dotted line).

We propose an improvement on the Atomic Swap, which implements the premium mechanism, to make it fair. It can fulfill design objectives of both the currency exchange and the American Call Option. Figure 7 shows the process of our Atomic Swap.

We denote our Atomic Swap protocol $\mathcal{AS}'$ as $\mathcal{AS}' = (x_1, \text{Coin}_1, x_2, \text{Coin}_2, pr)$

where $pr$ is the amount of the premium measured in $\text{Coin}_2$. In our protocol, besides $x_1 \text{Coin}_1$, Alice should also lock $pr \text{Coin}_2$ on $BC_2$, which will be described later.

Similar to the original Atomic Swap $\mathcal{AS}$, our protocol consists of four stages: Initiate, Participate, Redeem and Refund.

Initiate. Different from $\mathcal{AS}$, Alice also creates Bob’s contract script $C_2$ and its associated transaction $tx_{C2}$ when Initiate in $\mathcal{AS}'$. $C_1$ and $tx_{C1}$ is the same as in $\mathcal{AS}$, while $C_2$ and $tx_{C2}$ are more sophisticated. $C_2$ contains two coherent sub-contracts $C_{\text{asset}}$ and $C_{\text{pr}}$.

In $C_2$, $C_{\text{asset}}$ is the contract for the asset $x_2 \text{Coin}_2$, which is the same as in $\mathcal{AS}$. $C_{\text{pr}}$ is the contract for the premium $pr$, which implements the premium mechanism in the Atomic Swap. It supports both the currency exchange-style Atomic Swap and the American Call Option-style Atomic Swap. In more detail, the rules of $C_{\text{pr}}$ are shown below:

$C_{\text{pr}}$ for currency exchange Alice pays $pr$ to Bob with the condition: Bob refunds $x_2 \text{Coin}_2$ after $\delta_2$ and before $\delta_1$. If $\delta_1$ expires, Alice can refund $pr$ back.

$C_{\text{pr}}$ for American Call Options Alice pays $pr$ to Bob with one of the two conditions: 1) Alice redeems $x_2 \text{Coin}_2$ before $\delta_2$. 2) Bob refunds $x_2 \text{Coin}_2$ after $\delta_2$ but before $\delta_1$ (note that $\delta_2 < \delta_1$). If $\delta_1$ expires, Alice can refund $pr$ back.

Alice published $tx_{C1}$ on $BC_1$ and $tx_{C2}$ on $BC_2$. Note that Alice only triggers $C_1$ and $C_{\text{pr}}$ to execute when Participate.

Participate. Bob decides whether to participate in $\mathcal{AS}'$ by auditing $tx_{C1}$ and $tx_{C2}$. If Bob thinks contracts are fair, he will participate in $\mathcal{AS}'$, otherwise Bob will not participate and look for more profitable contracts from others. To participate in $\mathcal{AS}'$, Bob deposits $x_2 \text{Coin}_2$ in $C_{\text{asset}}$, and triggers $C_{\text{pr}}$ to execute.

Redeem. Alice redeeming $x_2 \text{Coin}_2$ and Bob redeeming $x_1 \text{Coin}_1$ are the same as in $\mathcal{AS}'$ and $\mathcal{AS}$. But in addition, rules in $C_{\text{pr}}$ will work once triggering Redeem for $\mathcal{AS}'$.

Refund. Refunding $x_1 \text{Coin}_1$ for Alice and $x_2 \text{Coin}_2$ for Bob are the same as in $\mathcal{AS}$. But in addition, rules in $C_{\text{pr}}$ will work once triggering Refund for $\mathcal{AS}'$.

6 IMPLEMENTATION

In this section, we describe how to implement our Fair Atomic Swap protocol in Section 5 on different blockchains. In particular, blockchains with smart contracts (such as Ethereum) can support our protocol directly, while blockchains with scripts only (such as Bitcoin) require an extra opcode which we call OP_LOOKUP_OUTPUT. In addition, we provide reference implementations in Bitcoin scripts and Solidity smart contracts, and the Solidity implementation is available on Github [12].

6.1 Requirements

To implement our protocol, the blockchain should support 1) stateful transactions, 2) the timelock and 3) the hashlock.
**Stateful transactions.** Transactions should be stateful: executing a transaction can depend on prior transactions. In our protocol, whether \( pr \) goes to Alice or Bob depends on the status of \( Coin_2 \). Therefore, the transaction of \( pr \) relies on the status of \( Coin_2 \) payment transaction.

**Hashlock.** The transactions should support the hashlock: a payment is proceeded only when the payee provides the preimage of a hash. In our protocol, exchanging \( Coin_1 \) and \( Coin_2 \) atomically is based on the hashlock - Alice redeems \( Coin_1 \) first by releasing the preimage, then Bob can redeem \( Coin_2 \) by using the released preimage.

**Timelock.** The transactions should support the timelock: a payment will expire after a specified time if the payee cannot redeem the payment. In our protocol, the transactions of \( Coin_1 \), \( Coin_2 \) and \( pr \) are all timelocked, in order to avoid locking money in transactions forever.

### 6.2 Smart contracts

Smart contracts support all aforementioned functionalities, so can easily implement our protocol. We use Solidity - one of programming languages for Ethereum smart contracts [15] - as an example. Our implementations are based on the original Atomic Swap Solidity implementation [16], but extend the premium mechanism. Extending the premium mechanism includes:

1. The enumeration `PremiumState` for maintaining the premium payment state
2. The modifiers `isPremiumRedeemable()` and `isPremiumRefundable()` for checking whether the premium can be redeemed or refunded
3. The methods `redeemPremium()` and `refundPremium()` for redeeming and refunding the premium

#### Listing 1: Maintaining the state of the asset and the premium.

The premium payment state `PremiumState`. In the original smart contract, an enumeration `State` maintains the asset state: `empty` means the asset has not been deposited; `filled` means the asset has been deposited; `redeemed` means the asset has been redeemed; `refunded` means the asset has been refunded. In our contract, we decouple `State` to the asset state `AssetState` and the premium state `PremiumState`. Both `AssetState` and `PremiumState` are the same as the original State. The code is shown in Listing 1. `Empty` means Alice has not triggered `Initiate`, and has not deposited the premium yet. `Filled` means Alice has deposited the premium, indicating that Alice has triggered `Initiate`, but neither Alice nor Bob refunds or redeems the premium. `Redeemed` and `refunded` means Bob redeems the premium and Alice refunds the premium, respectively.

`isPremiumRedeemable()` and `isPremiumRefundable()`. Checking whether the premium is redeemable or refundable is the most critical part of our protocol. Because the premium payment relies on

1 // Premium is redeemable when
2 // 1. Alice initiates but Bob does not participate
3 // 2. auto2 is redeemed by Alice
4 modifier isPremiumRedeemable(bytes32 secretHash) {
5 \[...
6 require(swap[secretHash].premiumState == PremiumState.Filled);
7 require(msg.sender == msg.sender);
8 \[...
9 require(block.timestamp > swap[secretHash].premiumRefundTimestamp);}
10
11 // Premium is refundable when
12 // 1. Alice initiates but Bob does not participate
13 // 2. auto2 is refunded by Alice
14 modifier isPremiumRefundable(bytes32 secretHash) {
15 \[...
16 require(swap[secretHash].premiumState == PremiumState.Filled);
17 require(msg.sender == msg.sender);
18 \[...
19 require(block.timestamp > swap[secretHash].premiumRefundTimestamp);}
20
21 enum AssetState { Empty, Filled, Redeemed, Refunded }
22 enum PremiumState { Empty, Filled, Redeemed, Refunded }
23
24 Listing 2: The condition to redeem and refund the premium for currency-exchange-style Atomic Swaps.

25 // Premium is redeemable for Bob when asset2 is redeemed or refunded
26 // which means Alice holds the secret maliciously
27 modifier isPremiumRefundable(bytes32 secretHash) {
28 \[...
29 require(swap[secretHash].assetState == AssetState.Refunded);
30 require(block.timestamp > swap[secretHash].premiumRefundTimestamp);}
31
32 Listing 3: The condition to redeem and refund the premium for American Call Option-style Atomic Swaps.

33 // Premium is redeemable for Bob when asset2 is redeemed or refunded
34 // which means Bob participates
35 modifier isPremiumRefundable(bytes32 secretHash) {
36 \[...
37 require(swap[secretHash].assetState == AssetState.Empty);
38 require(block.timestamp > swap[secretHash].premiumRefundTimestamp);}
39
the \texttt{Coin}_2 payment, checking the premium refundability and redeemability involves checking the \texttt{Coin}_2 status - \texttt{AssetState} in our implementation.

\texttt{isPremiumRefundable()} and \texttt{isPremiumRefundable()} for the currency exchange-style Atomic Swap are shown in Figure 2, and for the American Call Option-style Atomic Swap are shown in Figure 3. The currency exchange-style Atomic Swap and the American Call Option-style Atomic Swap differ when \texttt{AssetState} = \texttt{Re Redeemed}: in the currency exchange-style Atomic Swap the premium belongs to Alice while in the American Call Option-style Atomic Swap the premium belongs to Bob.

\texttt{redeemPremium()} and \texttt{refundPremium()}. \texttt{redeemPremium()} and \texttt{refundPremium()} are similar to \texttt{redeemAsset()} and \texttt{refundAsset()}, and their executions are secured by \texttt{isPremiumRefundable()} and \texttt{isPremiumRefundable()}. The code is shown in Listing 4.

\begin{verbatim}
function redeemPremium(bytes32 secretHash)
public
isPremiumRefundable(secretHash)
{
    // transfer the premium to Bob
    swaps[secretHash].participant.transfer(swaps[secretHash].premiumValue);
    // update the premium state to redeemed
    swaps[secretHash].premiumState = PremiumState.Redeemed;
    // notify the function invoker
    emit PremiumReclaimed(
        block.timestamp,
        swaps[secretHash].secretHash,
        msg.sender,
        swaps[secretHash].premiumValue
   );
}

function refundPremium(bytes32 secretHash)
public
isPremiumRefundable(secretHash)
{
    // transfer the premium to Alice
    swaps[secretHash].initiator.transfer(swaps[secretHash].premiumValue);
    // update the premium state to refunded
    swaps[secretHash].premiumState = PremiumState.Refunded;
    // notify the function invoker
    emit PremiumRefunded(
        block.timestamp,
        swaps[secretHash].secretHash,
        msg.sender,
        swaps[secretHash].premiumValue
   );
}

Listing 4: The functions for redeeming and refunding the premium.
\end{verbatim}

6.3 Bitcoin script

Unfortunately, Bitcoin cannot support our protocol directly, because Bitcoin does not support the stateful transaction functionalities. First, the Bitcoin script is designed to be stateless [17]. Second, there is no such things like the Ethereum’s "world state" [15] in Bitcoin: the only state in Bitcoin is the Unspent Transaction Outputs (UTXOs) [18].

\textit{New Opcode OP\_LOOKUP\_OUTPUT}. In order to make Bitcoin script support our protocol, we use an opcode called \texttt{OP\_LOOKUP\_OUTPUT}. \texttt{OP\_LOOKUP\_OUTPUT} was proposed, but has not implemented in Bitcoin yet [19]. It takes the id of an output, and produces the address of the output’s owner. With \texttt{OP\_LOOKUP\_OUTPUT}, the Bitcoin script can decide whether Alice or Bob should take the premium by \texttt{"asset2\_output\_address\_output" \_\_OP\_EQUALVERIFY"}.

Implementing \texttt{OP\_LOOKUP\_OUTPUT} is easy in Bitcoin - it only queries the ownership of an output from the indexed blockchain database. This neither introduces computation overhead, nor breaks the "stateless" design of the Bitcoin script.

\textit{Decoupling the contract creation and the contract invocation}. For smart contracts, the contract is created and invoked in separate transactions: creating the contract is by publishing a transaction which creates the smart contract, and invoking the contract is by publishing a transaction which invokes a method in the smart contract. However, Bitcoin has no smart contracts, and the "contract" is created and invoked in a single transaction. In this way, the timelock starts right after the contract creation rather than the contract invocation. This is problematic: the premium contract should not be triggered until Bob participates in the swap.

Thanks to the multi-signature transaction functionality in Bitcoin, Alice and Bob can first create the contract off-chain, then invoke the contract on-chain.

\textit{Multi-signature transactions} refer to transactions signed by multiple accounts [17]. A M-of-N (M ≤ N) multi-signature transaction means the transaction requires M out of N accounts to sign it. If less than M accounts sign the transaction, the transaction cannot be verified as valid by the blockchain. In Bitcoin, constructing a multi-signature transaction requires accounts to create a multi-signature address first [17].

With multi-signature transactions, we can decouple the contract creation and invocation as follows: first, Alice and Bob create a 2-of-2 multi-signature address; second, Alice and Bob mutually construct and sign a transaction which includes the premium payment and the \texttt{Coin}_2 payment; finally, they publish the transaction in the name of the 2-2 multi-signature address.

Note that constructing and signing the transaction is done off-chain: first, Bob creates the \texttt{Coin}_2 transaction and sends it to Alice; second, Alice creates the premium transaction which uses \texttt{OP\_LOOKUP\_OUTPUT} to check the ownership of \texttt{Coin}_2 transaction outputs; third, Alice merges the \texttt{Coin}_2 transaction and the premium transaction to a single transaction, signs the transaction, and sends it to Bob; finally, Bob signs the transaction and sends it to Alice. At this stage, both Alice and Bob have obtained the mutually signed transaction, which consists of both the premium transaction and the \texttt{Coin}_2 transaction.

\textit{The premium transaction}. Listing 5 and Listing 6 show the premium transaction in the Bitcoin script, for both the currency-style and the American Call Option-style Atomic Swaps, respectively.

7 DISCUSSION

7.1 Security of the Atomic Swap

Although already widely adopted, the Atomic Swap has security issues.

First, the security of Atomic Swaps relies on the security of blockchains: if the blockchains involved in the swaps are insecure, the Atomic Swaps will also be insecure.

Second, the Atomic Swap contracts are written in high-level languages, so the compiled contracts can be insecure if the contract compilers are flawed.
### Listing 5: The currency exchange-style Atomic Swap contract in Bitcoin script.

```plaintext
ScriptSig:
  Redem: <Bob_sig> <Bob_pubkey> 1
  Refund: <Alice_sig> <Alice_pubkey> 8

ScriptPubKey:
  OP_IF // Normal redeem path
    // the owner of <asset1_output> should be Alice
    // which means Alice has redeemed asset1
    <asset1_output> OP_LOCKINGOUTPUT <Alice_pubkeyhash> OP_EQUALVERIFY
    OP_DUP OP_HASH160 <Bob_pubkeyhash>
  OP_ELSE // Refund path
    // the premium timelock should be expired
    <locktime> OP_CHECKLOCKTIMEVERIFY OP_DROP
    OP_DUP OP_HASH160 <Alice_pubkeyhash>
  OP_ENDIF
  OP_EQUALVERIFY
  OP_EQUALVERIFY
  OP_CHECKSIG
```

### Listing 6: The American Call Option-style Atomic Swap contract in Bitcoin script.

```plaintext
ScriptSig:
  Redem: <Bob_sig> <Bob_pubkey> 1
  Refund: <Alice_sig> <Alice_pubkey> 8

ScriptPubKey:
  OP_IF // Normal redeem path
    // the owner of the asset2 should not be the contract
    // it should be either (redeemed by) Alice or (refunded by) Bob
    // which means Alice has redeemed asset2
    <asset2_output> OP_LOCKINGOUTPUT <Alice_pubkeyhash> OP_NUMEQUAL
    OP_ADD 1 OP_NUMEQUALVERIFY
    <asset2_output> OP_LOCKINGOUTPUT <Bob_pubkeyhash> OP_NUMEQUAL
    OP_DUP OP_HASH160 <Bob_pubkeyhash>
  OP_ELSE // Refund path
    // the premium timelock should be expired
    <locktime> OP_CHECKLOCKTIMEVERIFY OP_DROP
    OP_DUP OP_HASH160 <Alice_pubkeyhash>
  OP_ENDIF
  OP_EQUALVERIFY
  OP_EQUALVERIFY
  OP_CHECKSIG
```

### 7.3 Limitations of our protocols

Still, our solutions are not perfect. The initiators of Atomic Swaps need to hold some participant’s asset to initiate an Atomic Swap, for either collateralising successful swaps or paying for the option itself. Unfortunately, the initiators do not always have participant’s asset: they may just hope to get some participant’s asset with only his asset. Before doing an Atomic Swap, the initiator should get some participant’s asset by arbitrary means. For example, he can buy some participant’s asset from cryptocurrency exchanges, or initiate a smaller Atomic Swap with shorter timelocks and no premium.

### 8 RELATED WORK

The Atomic Swap protocol was first proposed on the BitcoinTalk forum informally in 2013 [5]. Herlihy et al. first formalised the Atomic Swap protocol [21]. Meyden et al. first formally analysed the Atomic Swap smart contracts [22]. Several Atomic Swap variants were proposed for sidechains [23] and solving conflicts from concurrent operations [24].

The optionality of Atomic Swaps was first identified by a user with ID “ZmnSCPxj” in the Lightning-dev mail list in 2018 [6]. BitMEX Research [25] and Dan Robinson [26] further claimed that the optionality cannot be eliminated in HTLC-based Atomic Swaps. However, they do not quantify the unfairness from such optionality.

Eizinger et al. first tried to address the optionality problem by implementing the premium mechanism in Atomic Swap [27]. However, their protocol is flawed: if Bob keeps not participating in the swap, he will get the premium. Liu used the Atomic Swap to construct the option [28], but paying for the premium requires an extra blockchain besides the two blockchains, and they do not justify its fairness. IDEX [29] escrows the premium on an Ethereum smart contract for Atomic Swaps. However, this scheme can only support ERC20 tokens. Furthermore, IDEX fully controls the smart contract, so makes no difference with centralised exchanges except for the audibility. Interledger [30] proposed an Atomic Swap protocol based on payment channels. In Interledger, Alice (holding coin A) creates a payment channel with Bob (holding coin B) on the blockchain of coin A, and Bob creates a payment channel with Alice on the blockchain of coin B. After that, Alice gradually pays coin A to Bob, while Bob gradually pays coin B to Alice. After both payments are finished, they settle both payment channels. However, this scheme suffers from time-consuming interactive operations and poor efficiency.

### 9 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we investigate the fairness of the Atomic Swap. We show that an Atomic Swap is equivalent to a premium-free American Call Option, and the Atomic Swap is unfair to the participant.
We then evaluate the fairness of the Atomic Swap, and compare the fairness between mainstream cryptocurrencies and conventional financial assets. Our evaluation consists of quantifying the fairness and estimating the unpaid premium. The evaluation results show that the Atomic Swap with cryptocurrencies is much more unfair than with stocks and fiat currencies in the same setting, because the cryptocurrency market is highly volatile.

Furthermore, we propose an improvement on the Atomic Swap, which implements the premium mechanism, to make it fair. It supports both the currency exchange-style Atomic Swap, and the American Call Option-style Atomic Swap. We implement our protocol in Solidity as an example of blockchains with smart contracts such as Ethereum. We also give instructions on implementing our protocol using Bitcoin script, which requires adding a single opcode to the Bitcoin script.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
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REFERENCES