

A scalable and explainable framework for detecting Ponzi schemes in Ethereum smart contracts using a stacking model

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Abstract

Blockchain technology has reshaped digital finance, enabling decentralized applications (DApps) on platforms like Ethereum. However, these innovations have also facilitated fraudulent schemes such as Ponzi schemes, which deceive users with false promises of high returns. These schemes cause financial losses and weaken trust in blockchain systems. Existing detection methods face key challenges, including limited labeled data, over-reliance on transaction history, and failure to identify scams early. To address these issues, we propose a framework that combines static and dynamic features of smart contracts for early Ponzi detection. Our feature set includes opcode patterns, developer behavior, temporal trends, and metadata, crafted to work independently of transaction data. We enhance feature representation using TF-IDF, CountVectorizer, and Word2Vec for deeper semantic understanding. These features are used to train multiple machine learning and deep learning models such as Random Forest, XGBoost, CNNs, and BiGRUs. A stacking ensemble with a neural meta-learner integrates predictions for improved performance. The model achieves 99% accuracy and an AUC of 0.9522 on a curated Ethereum dataset, handling class imbalance through oversampling and synthetic data generation. We also employ SHAP for model explainability, offering insights into feature importance and promoting transparency. Our framework is scalable and supports real-time monitoring of contracts, helping prevent financial damage by detecting fraud at deployment. This solution enhances the security and reliability of decentralized finance platforms.

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1. Introduction

Blockchain technology has emerged as a transformative innovation in the digital economy, enabling decentralized, trustless systems characterized by transparency, security, and immutability [1], [2]. Among its many applications, Ethereum stands out as a leading blockchain platform due to its ability to support smart contracts [3]—self-executing programs that automatically enforce contractual agreements without the need for intermediaries [4, 5]. These contracts have revolutionized industries, particularly in decentralized finance

(DeFi), by enabling activities such as lending, borrowing, and trading without relying on centralized entities [6, 7]. However, the same features that make blockchain systems attractive—transparency, pseudonymity, and immutability—have also been exploited by malicious actors. One of the most alarming threats to the blockchain ecosystem is smart Ponzi schemes [8], which leverage smart contracts to conduct deceptive high-yield investment operations [9-11].

Smart Ponzi schemes operate by redistributing funds from new participants to earlier investors, creating the illusion of profitability and sustainability [12], [13]. Unlike classic Ponzi schemes, which are usually centralized and controlled by the issuer, smart Ponzi schemes take advantage of the pseudonymous and immutable character of the blockchain [14], which makes extremely difficult the identification and prosecution of perpetrators or the cessation of the activity after a contract is deployed [15, 16]. For example, Ethereum's immutability implies that fraudulent contracts are perpetuated regardless of them being identified as malicious [17], [18]. These scams have resulted in significant financial losses, costing millions of dollars each year, and still undermine trust in the decentralized blockchains [19], [20].

However, finding solutions to those schemes is of critical importance, for all those schemes are fraudulent. A major bottleneck is the scarcity of labeled datasets that can provide thorough types of the Ponzi and non-Ponzi contracts on Ethereum. Most of the previous works, e.g., SADPonzi and MuLCas, are constructed upon small datasets with imbalanced class distribution, thus limiting the generalizability of their models [1], [21], [22]. Another issue is the over-emphasis on transaction histories, since models such as Trans2Vec, Node2Vec rely on exploring behavioral sequences in the temporal domain. These methods, however, are limited in that they can only detect established Ponzi schemes and do not have the capability of sending a signal to alert a Ponzi scheme operator that the scheme has been detected prior to a substantial financial loss [23-27]. Moreover, most detection systems find it difficult to detect early due to the fact that available detection mechanisms are based on transaction data, which does not carry real values until some amount of trades are conducted [27], [28].

Moreover, interpretability is still a challenging issue [29]. The developed and deployed end-to-end detection systems, especially those based on deep learning models, tend to have a black-box property that hides their explanation of the decision process. This precludes them from being used in scenarios where explainability is necessary, such as in regulation [30, 31]. The increasing interest in interpretable detection methods stresses the importance of making explainable AI (XAI) methods an integral part of fraud monitoring systems [32, 33].

To cope with these problems, this paper proposes a new scheme to detect smart Ponzi schemes in Ethereum. In our approach, we combine the static, dynamic, and temporal analysis of features, used to devise an all-around fraud detection solution. Static attributes such as opcode sequences, bytecode patterns, and developers' behaviors [34], can be used to detect Ponzi schemes at the contract deployment stage [35, 36]. Dynamic attributes like transaction count, in-degree, out-degree, and fund flow profiles, extract changing dynamics that lead to fallacious behavior [37], [38]. Temporal aspects, like contract lifecycle statistics, introduce a further dimension of resiliency through the study of the life cycle of the schemes [39], [40]. Our approach, combining machine learning (e.g., Random Forest, XGBoost, etc.) and deep learning (e.g., CNN, BiGRU, etc.) models, is able to achieve state-of-the-art performance [41], yielding an accuracy of 99% and an AUC of 0.9522 on a well-curated Ethereum dataset [42, 43]. Moreover, we have incorporated explainable AI methods such as Shapley Additive Explanations (SHAP) so our framework is both transparent and interpretable, enabling its adoption in regulated domains [44, 45].

2. Related work

Extensive research has been conducted on detecting smart Ponzi schemes in Ethereum, employing a range of methodologies including static analysis, dynamic modeling, hybrid approaches, and explainable AI techniques. However, scalability, early detection, and adaptability to obfuscated schemes are common major challenges in existing solutions [46].

Static analysis mainly aims at analyzing the static (i.e., immutable) properties of smart contracts, including bytecode and sequences of opcodes, in order to detect malicious behaviors. Systems such as SADPonzi and MulCas use bytecode patterns, developer metadata, and opcode frequency distribution to differentiate Ponzi and non-Ponzi contracts [1], [5]. Such systems typically use NLP techniques, including TF-IDF and N-gram analysis, to disassemble opcode sequences and extract semantic and structural features [20], [47]. By analyzing static features, these frameworks enable early detection of fraud at the time of contract deployment, reducing reliance on transaction data [48], [49]. However, they struggle to adapt to obfuscated contracts, where fraudsters deliberately alter bytecode to evade detection [26], [50].

Dynamic approaches analyze transactional behaviors to detect fraudulent patterns. Transactional features, such as in-degree, out-degree, transaction frequency, and cumulative Ether flow, provide valuable insights into how funds move within a network [23], [51]. Graph-based methods, such as Trans2Vec and Node2Vec, represent Ethereum accounts as nodes and transactions as edges, uncovering relational dependencies indicative of Ponzi schemes [22], [52]. Temporal modeling frameworks, such as TMFAug, further enhance detection by integrating time-based features, capturing the lifecycle of contracts and their evolving behaviors [5], [53]. While dynamic and temporal approaches are effective, they often require large volumes of transaction data, delaying detection until schemes are well underway [54], [55].

Hybrid models with uplink of static, dynamic, and time-based characteristics for being fully aware framework for EFD. For example, CNN-BiGRU networks have been employed to process opcode sequences, considering both spatial and sequential interdependencies [3], [56]. These deep learning models are generally used in parallel with classic machine learning classifiers like e.g., Random Forest and XGBoost, applied to tabular features such as developer activity and transaction behavior [39], [57]. Stacking classifiers can enhance robustness by combining predictions of multiple models and achieve more accurate results and superior scalability [58]. Nevertheless, the interpretability of hybrid approaches is usually low, which impedes much of their application in regulatory perspectives [18], [44].

Explainable AI (XAI) methods are attracting increasing interest as an effective solution for the transparency gap in blockchain fraud detection. Systems such as IDPonzi use SHAP to gain interpretable insights into feature contributions so the user can understand the reasons for detection decisions [18], [45], [59]. Through quantifying the significance of each feature, XAI improves model trust and supports regulatory compliance by offering actionable insights [60], [61]. Recent progress of XAI indicates that in current detection frameworks, accuracy and interpretability can be balanced, and XAI plays an indispensable role [62], [63].

However, there are still significant challenges in the detection of smart Ponzi schemes. The current approaches often experience problems of scalability when scaling to large datasets or obfuscated contracts [1, 54]. The dependence on transaction data by most models reduces their potential for early warning, and thus exposes investors to the risk. [24], [27]. Furthermore, only a limited number of studies investigated cross-platform generalization, which becomes more and more necessary due to fraudulent activities being spread in other blockchain ecosystems such as Binance Smart Chain and Polygon [63], [64]. Future work needs to center on increasing data sets, better integrating features, and creating dynamic models to respond to changing fraudster behaviors [65, 66].

While prior studies such as SADPonzi, MulCas, and IDPonzi have made significant strides in detecting Ponzi schemes using symbolic execution, ensemble classifiers, or interpretable models, our framework introduces several novel contributions that address critical gaps. First, we present a hybrid stacking model that integrates both classical machine learning and deep learning base learners, specifically Random Forest, XGBoost, CNN, and BiGRU combined under a neural-network-based meta-learner, which has not been explored in this domain. Second, we design a multi-view feature extraction approach that combines static code-based features (e.g., opcode semantics), dynamic behavioral patterns (e.g., temporal fund flows), and developer-related metadata. This comprehensive strategy enhances robustness against obfuscation and early-stage detection. Third, we

incorporate SHAP explainability into the detection pipeline, providing actionable, feature-level insights that can support forensic analysis and regulatory auditing, an area underexplored in existing Ponzi detection works. Collectively, these contributions offer a scalable, explainable, and real-time applicable framework that advances the state of the art in Ethereum fraud detection.

3. The proposed framework

Detection of Ponzi schemes on Ethereum is a multi-level task that can be formulated as a task of creativity, focused on gaps in scalability, early detection, and interpretability. The proposed solution spans over a broad range of feature engineering, models using supervised learning and DL architectures, as well as interpretable AI methodologies. This integrated solution has been built to offer comprehensive, robust, and scalable Ponzi scheme detection as soon as smart contracts go live, ensuring firms are protected from the financial and reputational damage of blockchain fraud.

Our framework is based on a feature extraction phase where static and dynamic properties of smart contracts are captured. These features (e.g., on-code frequency, behavior of the developer, patterns of the bytecode) are associated statically and computed directly after contract deployment. These features are then further treated using NLP methodologies like TF-IDF, Word2Vec, and N-grams. Atomically with the phonetic signatures of opcodes, the semantics and the syntax are preserved, thus allowing for discrimination between subtle anomalies in smart contracts. For example, opcode sequences are parsed for repetitive or abnormal logic in a manner that Ponzi logic is detected. These static features are further enriched by the authors by using developer-oriented metadata, such as the number of contracts deployed by a particular account and its past transaction behavior, to identify potentially malicious users.

Dynamic features are also important for the understanding of smart contracts' behavior over time. Transaction-level metrics, including the transaction volume, frequency, and diversity of transactions of a contract, are incorporated in the framework. We develop graph-based representations of transaction networks to model the relationships and structural dependencies of Ethereum addresses. These features of the graph are important to represent the flow of funds in a Ponzi scheme, as they reveal that the incoming investments are simply redistributed to previous members. At a limited level, temporal aspects, including time of deployment and trends of activities, are used to discover lifestyle behaviors indicative of deception games. For instance, a contract with bursts of large volume followed by short periods of inactivity is identified for deeper inspection.

To handle these various features, we utilize a hybrid modeling strategy by integrating machine learning and deep learning methods. For static and tabular data, the most common machine learning models are Random Forest (RF), XGBoost, and LightGBM, which are very good at interpretability and feature importance. Such models serve as a grounded for relations between patterns in structured data, such as opcode distribution and development activity measurements. Deep learning architectures such as CNNs and BiGRUs are also used for unstructured and sequential data. CNNs are well-suited for recognizing spatial dependencies in the sequences of opcodes, while BiGRUs can exploit temporal and contextual relationships, thus allowing the framework to capture complex patterns of sequential data.

One novelty lies in the use of a stacking classifier as a meta-learner. This ensemble of neural network models combines predictions from numerous machine learning algorithms and deep learning models and benefits from their complementary strengths to enhance detection performance in general. The wASSC weights the predictions of each model by its reliability to ensure that the ensemble generalizes both between types of features and across contracts. The hierarchical view makes the framework stronger and capable of coping with other forms of Ponzi schemes and non-Ponzi contracts. Interpretability is essential in the new framework due to the concerns that black-box models often raise regarding transparency. Based on Shapley Additive Explanations (SHAP) values, the framework offers an in-depth understanding of the contributions of individual factors to model predictions. For example, SHAP values reveal the importance of certain opcode patterns or developer behaviors in determining whether a contract is a Ponzi. Such a level of interpretability builds trust

between users and regulators/auditors who are able to understand the reasons behind the detection decisions. By opening up the detection process, the framework coincides with intimations about broader aims of accountability and observance in the blockchain community. The framework is also designed for scalability and robustness, which guarantees it works well in practical scenarios where abundant Ethereum contracts exist. Feature extraction (FE) methods are not tailored to CR, namely, are optimized for efficiency to make it applicable in CR; deep learning (DL) networks are endowed with these capabilities to work with high-dimensional data without the loss of performance. To deal with the problem of class imbalance, which is a chief characteristic of fraud detection datasets, we use methods such as ADASYN and CTGAN to create artificial samples of minority classes. In this way, the framework preserves high recall rates for Ponzi schemes, with low false negatives, even under imbalanced data. The general workflow of the proposed framework is shown in Figure 1.

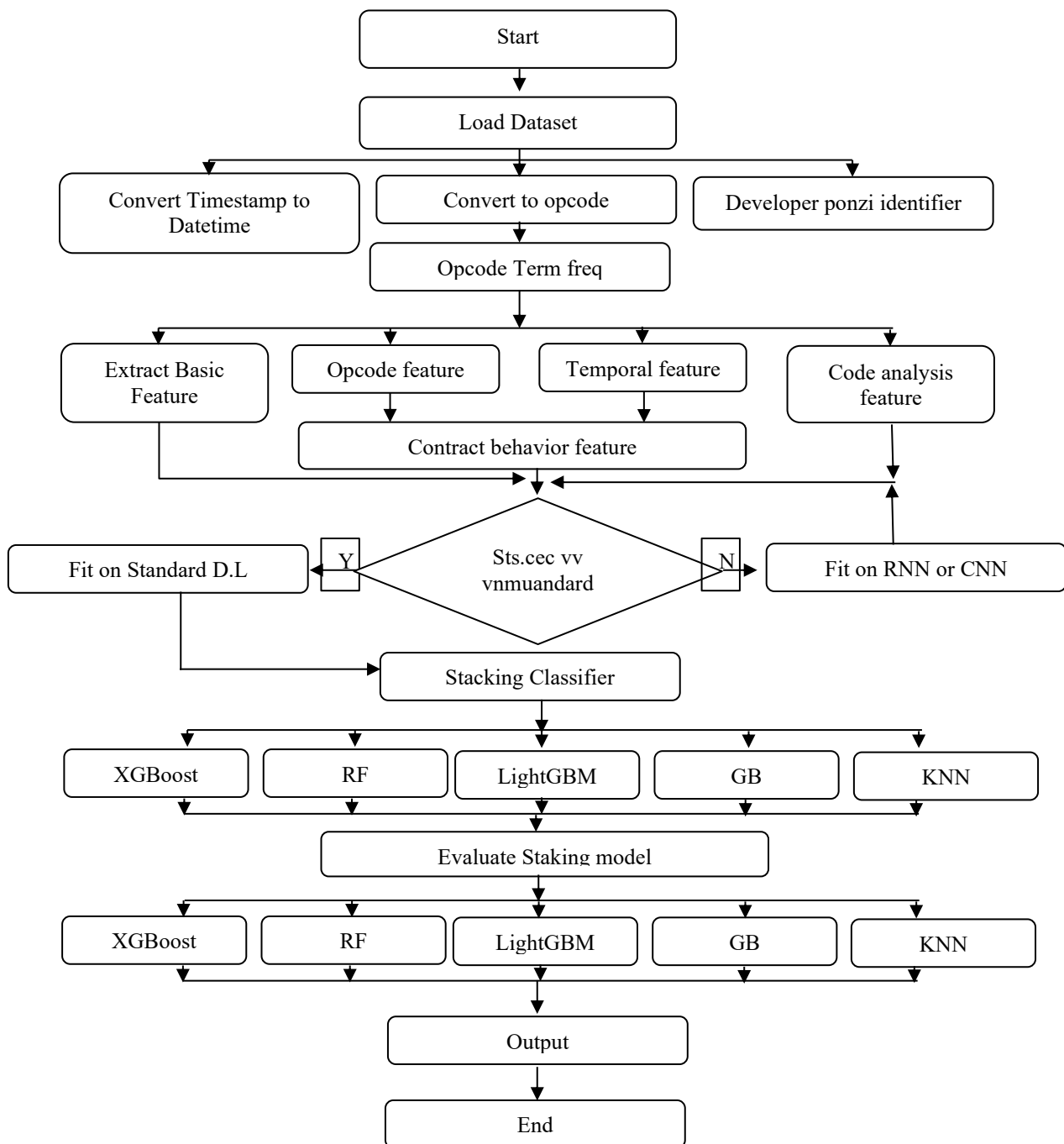


Figure 1. The overall flowchart of the proposed framework

4. Methodology

The initial stage in detecting Ponzi schemes in Ethereum smart contracts involves importing essential libraries that support data processing, machine learning, deep learning, and visualization. Pandas and NumPy are used to handle structured datasets and perform numerical operations. NetworkX helps analyze the transaction network formed by smart contracts interacting with various addresses, allowing detection of suspicious patterns using graph metrics like centrality and clustering. For machine learning, scikit-learn provides tools for preprocessing, classification (e.g., Random Forest, SVM), and evaluation through accuracy metrics and confusion matrices. Deep learning models like CNNs and LSTMs are implemented using TensorFlow and Keras, allowing for pattern recognition in opcode sequences and temporal analysis. Components like dropout, batch normalization, and activation functions help stabilize and improve training. To interpret predictions, SHAP is used to highlight which features—such as opcodes, contract creation behavior, or transaction volumes—influence model decisions the most. Visualization is supported by Matplotlib and Seaborn, which produce heatmaps, bar plots, and activity timelines to better understand data patterns and model output. For NLP-based feature extraction, opcode sequences are treated as text using tools like TF-IDF and CountVectorizer, and Word2Vec from Gensim converts them into meaningful vectors. Utilities like Google Drive integration ensure smooth data access in cloud environments.

This study employs a publicly available and manually curated dataset comprising 6,498 smart contracts deployed on the Ethereum blockchain. Among these, 318 contracts have been positively identified and labeled as Ponzi schemes, while the remaining 6,180 contracts are labeled as non-Ponzi (legitimate) contracts. The dataset was obtained by crawling the verified source code of smart contracts from Etherscan.io, the most widely used Ethereum block explorer. All collected contracts underwent a thorough manual verification and labeling process to ensure data quality and authenticity. The smart contracts in this dataset span a wide chronological range, covering block heights from 0 to 7,500,000. This interval encompasses both early and contemporary periods of Ethereum's development, allowing the dataset to reflect the evolution of smart contract design and fraud strategies over time. Such temporal diversity makes the dataset well-suited for evaluating detection models in terms of generalizability and robustness across different contract generations. The labeling methodology followed a multi-stage process. First, known Ponzi contracts were identified through public scam reports, community blacklists, and prior academic studies. Next, these labels were validated via static code analysis, focusing on characteristic patterns such as fund redistribution logic, payout queues, and conditional withdrawal rules. Finally, behavioral inspection of transaction histories and opcode sequences further reinforced the accuracy of classification. Non-Ponzi contracts were selected from the same block range but excluded any overlap with blacklists or scam-tagged addresses, ensuring a clean baseline for model comparison. This dataset serves as a reliable benchmark for smart contract fraud detection research and is freely accessible to the research community via the XBlock platform, promoting transparency, reproducibility, and future comparative studies.

Encoded as bytecodes, opcode sequences are the low-level set of instructions that the Ethereum Virtual Machine (EVM) is designed to execute when deploying a smart contract. Ponzi schemes typically have code patterns based on opcodes, and examining this pattern can lead to insight into contracts.

Phase 1: Extraction: This step extracts the legitimate opcode fields and their matching contract addresses from the dataset, discarding incomplete input. That is tokenized into sequences of specific opcode instructions, making them amenable to analysis of structure. For instance, we track CALL, SELFDESTRUCT, and DELEGATECALL, which are traced because of their association with high-risk actions, and their frequency is counted for outliers. We also look at opcode diversity and entropy, as Ponzi contracts tend to have simple and repetitive instruction sets. These sequences are then processed to be fed as machine learning input; text-based methods such as n-grams, TF-IDF, and Word2Vec embeddings are used, which means opcode data are treated as natural language. This allows models to discern semantic similarity between known fraudulent contracts and new ones at deployment time. Finally, the tokenized sequences are persisted and joined in other features,

such as contract metadata and transaction behavior, to build an end-to-end fraud detection system. A flowchart of such an extraction procedure is presented in Figure 2.

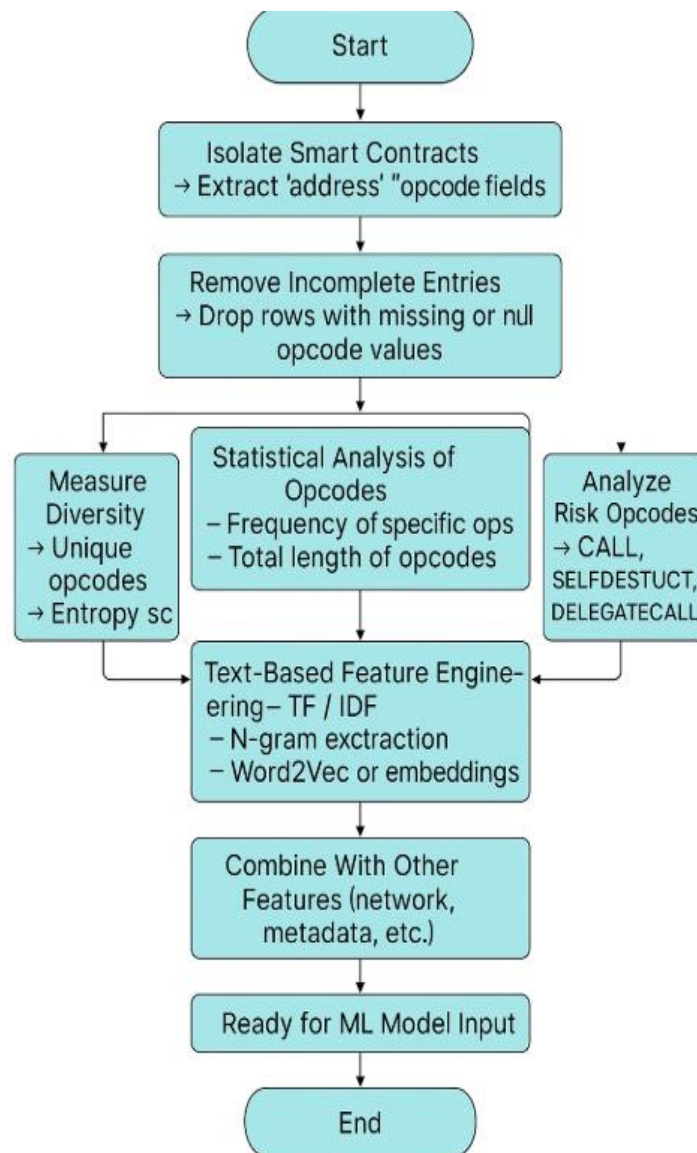
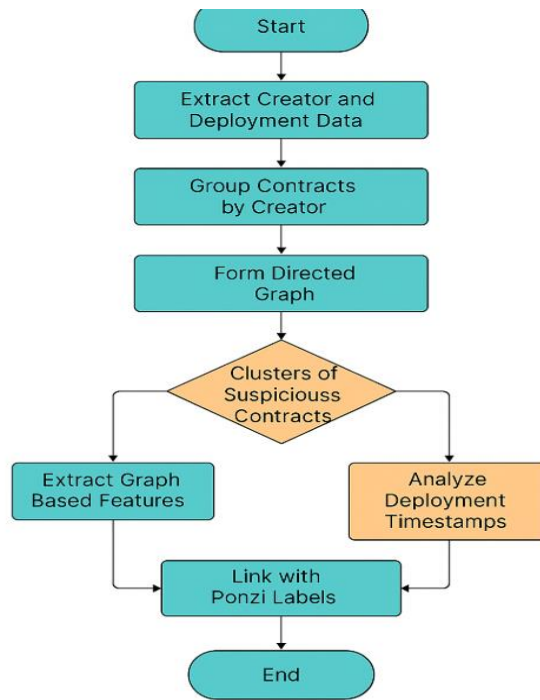


Figure 2. Flowchart for extracting opcode sequences

One type of such tool to analyze creation dependencies shows structural information between the smart contract and the smart contract creator concerning fraud if the same entity deployed fraudulent code multiple times. Each vertex of the graph is a contract or a creator address, and edges are directed and imply deployment. The graph is formed by analyzing creator addresses and deployment block numbers for each contract, enabling us to identify how many contracts each creator has deployed. This clustering lets us pinpoint dubious practices, because swindling creators usually create multiple contracts to avoid barely caught. With the graph structured, we can perform network analysis features such as degree centrality and clustering coefficient, to highlight creators with high deployment activity and well-connected contract groups. Temporal deployment patterns are also investigated to discover synchronized, recurring contract deployments. Those high-risk addresses can also be submitted as the initial layer of Ponzi scam checks. When combined with features such as opcode patterns and transaction data, the creation graph strengthens the fraud detection framework in detecting organized, repeat Ponzi schemes. The construction of the creation graph is shown in Figure 3.



Construction and Analysis of a Creation Graph

Figure 3. Flowchart for constructing a creation graph

Feature extraction is important to convert raw Ethereum smart contracts into structured numerical representations for machine learning models. Because blockchain data is highly complex, this process covers various aspects of smart contracts, including their structural information, the behavior of their opcodes, and the actions of their creator. Simple features like the age of the contract, the size in bytecode, or the number of the block of its deployment provide base information, and counting how many contracts a developer has deployed could stand for a suspect activity. Certainly, the features based on opcodes are relevant in that some instructions, such as CALL, SELFDESTRUCT, and DELEGATECALL, are usually associated with malicious behavior. Metrics like opcode frequency and diversity are used to detect contracts code with repeated or risky patterns. Code-level properties such as the size of a contract, storage usage, and estimated gas consumption can also offer warning signs for attacks—especially if it makes a lot of external calls. There are additional developer-related features that contribute value, where historical deployment [behavior are good predictors of fraud. Being able to combine these diverse characteristics, the detection model has more power in detecting Ponzi schemes. We summarize the clarification of the extracted features in Table 1.

Table 1. The description for the features used in the proposed model

Feature Name	Formula	Description	Purpose
Opcode Term Frequency	$TF(op) = \text{Count of opcode} / \text{Total opcodes}$	Measures the frequency of each opcode in a contract.	Identifies the operational complexity of the contract.
Critical Opcode Count	$\text{Count_critical} = \text{Sum of counts for CALL, DELEGATECALL, SELFDESTRUCT, JUMP, JUMPI}$	Tracks the number of critical opcodes used in the contract.	Detects patterns indicating Ponzi-like behaviors.
Opcode Diversity	$\text{Diversity} = \text{Number of unique opcodes}$	Calculates the variety of unique opcodes in the contract.	Highlights the structural and functional diversity of the contract.
Complexity Measures	$\text{Complexity} = \text{Count(JUMP)} + \text{Count(JUMPI)}$	Summarizes control-flow opcodes to measure logical depth.	Identifies intricate logical structures that may indicate fraudulent logic.

Feature Name	Formula	Description	Purpose
Opcode Term Vectorization	Word2Vec embeddings of opcode sequences	Encodes opcode sequences into dense feature vectors.	Captures the semantic meaning of opcode sequences for better classification.
Contract Deployment Age	Age = Current Date - Deployment Date	Calculates the time since the contract was deployed.	Helps identify recently deployed Ponzi contracts.
Transaction Patterns Over Time	Transactions(t) = Total Transactions in Period t / Length of Period t	Tracks transaction activity across specific time windows.	Captures bursts of activity indicative of fraudulent behavior.
Short-Term and Long-Term Activity	Activity_short = Transactions(ShortTerm), Activity_long = Transactions(LongTerm)	Separates short-term spikes from long-term trends in transaction activity.	Analyzes evolving behavioral patterns over time.
Temporal Feature Engineering	Custom time-derived metrics (e.g., activity spikes, idle periods)	Tracks unusual temporal activity patterns.	Detects fraudulent schemes exploiting temporal activity bursts.
Network Centrality	$C(u) = \text{Degree}(u) / (\text{Total Nodes} - 1)$	Computes centrality metrics for nodes in the transaction graph.	Identifies influential nodes, such as key participants in Ponzi schemes.
Transaction Volume	Volume(u) = Sum of transaction amounts for Node u	Measures the volume of transactions linked to a specific node.	Highlights suspiciously high transaction activity.
Graph Embeddings	Embedding(u) = Node2Vec or Trans2Vec embeddings	Maps nodes to a vector space using embeddings.	Preserves the structure of the transaction network for better pattern recognition.
Edge Features	Aggregated edge attributes (e.g., transaction amount, timestamp)	Encodes edge-specific information such as weights and temporal dynamics.	Adds granularity to graph-based analysis.
Feature Integration	No formula. Combines opcode, temporal, graph, and developer features	Merges multiple feature domains into a single framework.	Enhances robustness by integrating diverse feature types.
Behavioral Patterns	No formula. Derived from payout and redistribution rules	Tracks participant interactions and payout structures.	Captures unique Ponzi-like behaviors for classification.
Creator Activity	Activity_creator = Contracts Deployed / Time Period	Tracks the historical activity of contract creators.	Identifies creators with frequent deployments, potentially indicating malicious intent.
Creator Reputation	Reputation = Fraudulent Contracts / Total Contracts by Creator	Assesses the proportion of fraudulent contracts associated with a creator.	Provides insights into the historical behavior of developers.
Interaction Patterns	Collaborations = Count of repeated collaborations with addresses	Measures repeated transactions between creators and specific addresses.	Identifies potential collusion in fraudulent schemes.
Developer-Based Clustering	Groups developers based on shared behaviors	Clusters developers based on shared behaviors.	Helps uncover fraudulent networks of developers.
Redistribution Logic	No explicit formula. Derived from fund redistribution patterns in contract opcodes	Tracks how funds are distributed among participants in the contract.	Identifies redistribution patterns indicative of Ponzi schemes.

Feature Name	Formula	Description	Purpose
Structural Similarity	Similarity = Matching opcode patterns / Total opcode patterns	Measures the similarity of the contract's structure to known Ponzi templates.	Enhances detection by aligning structural patterns with known fraudulent templates.
Participant Management	No explicit formula. Derived from contract variables and states	Tracks participant records and their interactions for fund distribution.	Identifies hallmark behaviors like participant payout tracking.
SHAP Analysis	SHAP_i = Contribution of feature i using Shapley values	Computes the contribution of each feature to model predictions using Shapley values.	Makes the model's predictions interpretable and understandable to end users.
Feature Importance	No formula. Derived from SHAP or other model importance metrics	Highlights the most impactful features used in Ponzi detection.	Helps prioritize features for refining detection models.
Lightweight Feature Extraction	No explicit formula. Optimized for minimal latency	Optimizes feature computation to enable low-latency processing.	Ensures rapid detection of Ponzi schemes in real-time.
Streaming-Friendly Design	No explicit formula. Streaming architecture	Allows real-time integration with live Ethereum transaction data.	Allows real-time integration with live Ethereum transaction data.

To strengthen detection, behavioral features are extracted to capture how smart contracts operate within the Ethereum ecosystem. Ponzi schemes often involve patterns like required deposits and hierarchical withdrawals, so features such as the number of claims and diversity of interacting addresses help flag contracts designed for fund redistribution. Network-based features are also analyzed by constructing a transaction graph where nodes represent contracts and edges represent financial flows. Metrics like transaction volume, degree centrality, and interaction timing reveal suspicious activity, as Ponzi contracts typically interact with many addresses in short bursts. Temporal features, such as deployment day and transaction frequency over time, help distinguish between legitimate long-term contracts and short-lived schemes. Additionally, treating opcode sequences as text enables the use of NLP techniques like n-gram analysis, TF-IDF, and Word2Vec to detect structural opcode similarities among fraudulent contracts. A feature comparison between this work and previous studies is provided in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparison between the proposed study and related works based on the utilized feature

Feature/Function	[68]	[67]	[66]	[7]	[6]	[5]	[4]	[1]	[8]	[2]
Contract Age	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Creator Activity	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Deployment Block Number	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Contract Size	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Opcode Length	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Opcode Diversity	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Frequency of Critical Opcodes (CALL, DELEGATECALL, SELFDESTRUCT, JUMP, JUMPI)	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes

Feature/Function	[68]	[67]	[66]	[7]	[6]	[5]	[4]	[1]	[8]	[2]
Complexity Measure	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
NGram Features	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
TF-IDF Features	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
Word2Vec Embeddings	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
Number of Functions	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Storage Usage (SSTORE, SLOAD)	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Gas Cost Estimation	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
External Call Frequency	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
Deployment Epoch	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Transaction Patterns	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Transaction Volume	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Network Centrality	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Interaction Patterns	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Unique Opcode Count	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
Average Opcode Length	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Contract Size Ratio	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Creator Reputation	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Top Claimants	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Time of Activity	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Term Count Features	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Transaction Frequency	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Cumulative Ether	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Investor Diversity	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Average Transaction Value	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

The selection of features in our framework was guided by a combination of prior literature and empirical data analysis. Opcode patterns were chosen based on insights from works like SADPonzi and IDPonzi, which demonstrated that specific instruction sequences and their frequency distributions often reveal the transactional logic and payout patterns typical of Ponzi schemes. By encoding opcodes using TF-IDF and Word2Vec, we captured both syntactic frequency and semantic relationships within contract logic. Developer reputation was

included as a behavioral feature, motivated by findings in MulCas showing that repeat deployments from the same address or entity cluster are statistically more likely to involve fraudulent behavior. We quantified this by tracking deployment frequency, contract reuse, and reputation decay over time. Temporal features such as transaction bursts, inter-transaction intervals, and early activity peaks were selected to model the lifecycle of Ponzi schemes, which tend to exhibit short, aggressive accumulation phases followed by inactivity or collapse. The integration of these three feature classes static code, behavioral, and temporal creates a multi-view representation that improves both model precision and resilience to evasion tactics like obfuscation or delayed activation.

By extracting a diverse range of features including basic contract attributes, opcode characteristics, developer activity, contract behavior, network interactions, and temporal patterns—the detection system is equipped with a comprehensive set of indicators to identify Ponzi schemes effectively. This structured feature extraction approach ensures that the machine learning model receives rich, high-quality input data, significantly enhancing its ability to differentiate between fraudulent and legitimate Ethereum smart contracts. The steps for feature extraction can be viewed in Figure 4.

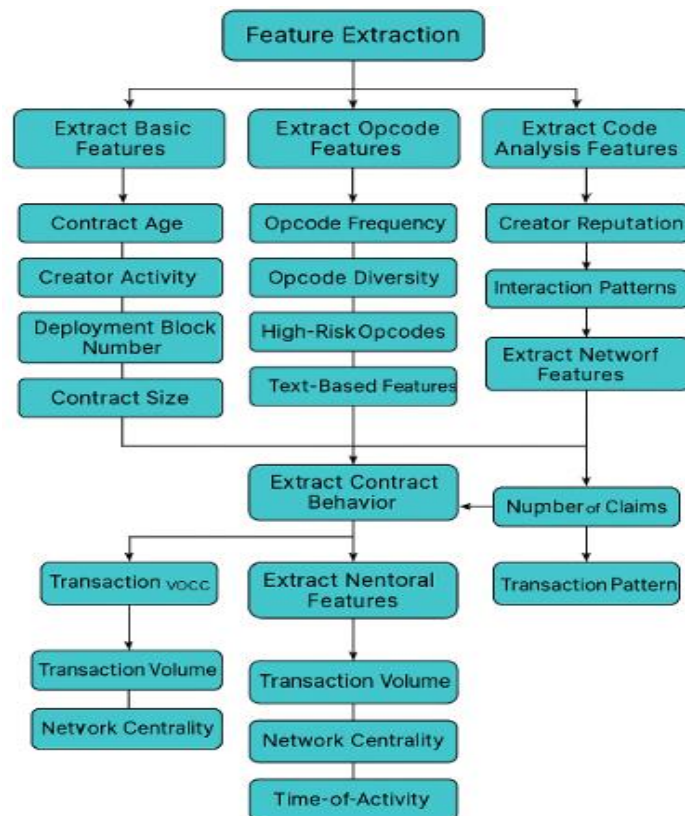


Figure 4. The detailed steps for feature extraction

Stacking ensemble modeling is a machine learning technique that combines multiple classifiers to improve overall prediction accuracy. Instead of relying on a single model, stacking leverages the strengths of multiple base models and a meta-classifier that learns how to best combine their outputs. This approach is particularly useful for Ponzi scheme detection in Ethereum smart contracts, as it allows different models to capture various aspects of fraudulent contract behavior.

The stacking process begins with selecting a diverse set of base classifiers. Each classifier is designed to focus on a different perspective of the dataset. Traditional machine learning models such as Random Forest, XGBoost, Gradient Boosting, and LightGBM are included because they are highly effective in handling structured financial data and identifying non-linear patterns in contract transactions and opcode sequences. Additionally, Support Vector Machine (SVM) and K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) contribute alternative decision-making

strategies—SVM excels in high-dimensional feature spaces, while KNN identifies similar contract behaviors based on proximity in feature space.

To further enhance the model's capability, deep learning models such as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) are incorporated into the stacking ensemble. CNNs are useful for extracting spatial patterns from opcode sequences, while RNNs, particularly long short-term memory (LSTM) networks, are effective in capturing sequential transaction behaviors over time. By combining deep learning models with traditional machine learning classifiers, the stacking ensemble benefits from both feature-driven and learned representations, increasing its ability to detect Ponzi schemes more accurately.

Once the base models are trained independently on the dataset, their predictions are passed to a meta-classifier. The role of the meta-classifier is to learn how to combine the predictions of the base models in a way that improves the overall classification performance. Instead of simply averaging the outputs of individual models, the meta-classifier analyzes the confidence levels of different models and assigns weights accordingly. For example, if the CNN model is particularly good at detecting opcode-based anomalies, while the XGBoost model performs well on transaction-based patterns, the meta-classifier can assign greater importance to the stronger model for a given type of contract.

To ensure optimal performance and generalizability of our stacking ensemble model, we implemented a multi-phase optimization strategy. The base learners Random Forest, XGBoost, CNN, and BiGRU were individually fine-tuned using a combination of grid search and Bayesian optimization. Grid search was used for discrete hyperparameters such as tree depth, number of estimators, and learning rate, while Bayesian optimization was employed for more computationally expensive models like BiGRU and CNN to efficiently explore continuous parameter spaces. The meta-learner, a lightweight fully connected neural network, was selected after comparative testing against logistic regression, SVM, and gradient boosting as alternative meta-classifiers. Empirical results demonstrated that the neural network meta-learner consistently improved ensemble performance by learning non-linear interactions among base model predictions. A 5-fold stratified cross-validation scheme was used throughout to preserve class distribution and mitigate overfitting, especially important due to the inherent class imbalance between Ponzi and non-Ponzi contracts. This layered and adaptive optimization approach contributes significantly to the robustness and accuracy of our framework across varied Ethereum smart contract scenarios.

During training, the stacking ensemble first allows each base model to learn patterns from the dataset independently. Once the base models are trained, they generate probability scores indicating how likely a contract is to be fraudulent. These probability scores are then used as input features for the meta-classifier, which is trained separately. The meta-classifier learns from these predictions, refining the final classification decision. This two-level learning process ensures that stacking benefits from the diversity of the base models while reducing individual model weaknesses.

Once the stacking ensemble is fully trained, it is evaluated on new, unseen Ethereum smart contracts. The goal is to assess whether the combined knowledge of multiple models leads to better precision, recall, and overall accuracy in detecting Ponzi schemes. By integrating probabilistic outputs from different models, stacking provides a more robust and balanced decision-making process, minimizing both false positives (misclassifying legitimate contracts as Ponzi) and false negatives (failing to detect actual Ponzi schemes).

The key advantage of using a stacking ensemble model is its ability to generalize well to different types of Ponzi contracts. Fraudulent schemes often evolve, and no single model can capture all variations of Ponzi behavior. By leveraging multiple classifiers and a learned combination strategy through the meta-classifier, stacking ensures that the detection system is adaptive, resilient, and more accurate than relying on any single machine learning model. This makes stacking an effective methodology for blockchain security analysis and Ethereum fraud detection. As a result, the step for this portion can be viewed in Figure 5.

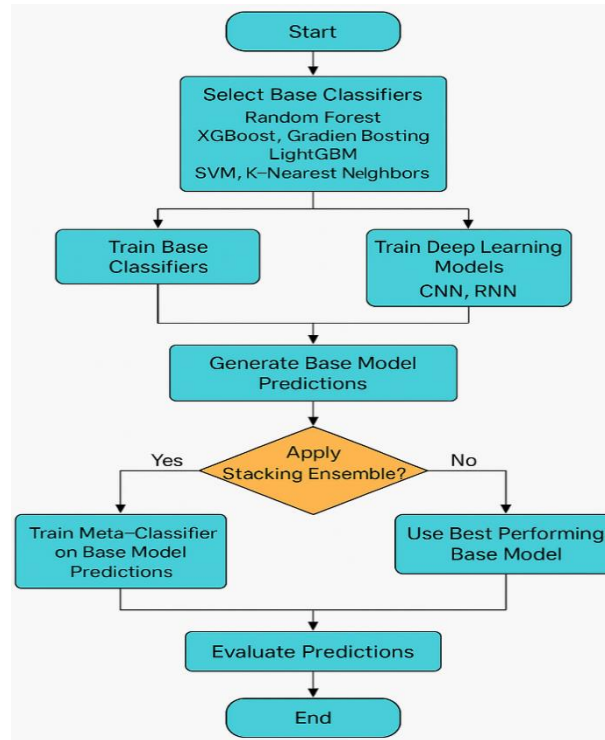


Figure 5. Stack ensemble model-based flow of work

The deep learning framework obtains advantages from both static opcode and dynamic transactional behavior modeling by integrating CNN and RNN models. The CNNs can be used to detect anomalies in contract structures, while the LSTMs can learn the sequential temporal patterns of transactions, leading to a better Ponzi detection system. The CNN part recognizes the opcode trends related to fraudulent contracts, and LSTM learns the flow of funds in the whole blockchain network over time. Table 3 lists the model's used descriptor.

Table 3. Listed models carried in the proposed work

Model Name	Description	Purpose
Random Forest Classifier	An ensemble method using decision trees and averaging to improve prediction accuracy and control overfitting.	Classification of Ponzi schemes based on engineered features.
Gradient Boosting Classifier	Builds an additive model in a forward stage-wise fashion to optimize prediction performance by focusing on errors of prior models.	Handles imbalanced datasets and improves Ponzi scheme classification.
XGBoost Classifier	An optimized implementation of gradient boosting designed to be fast and efficient for large datasets.	Efficiently handles structured data for Ponzi classification tasks.
LightGBM Classifier	A gradient boosting model that splits trees leaf-wise, enabling faster training and better accuracy.	Classification of large-scale features in Ponzi detection datasets.
Support Vector Classifier	Constructs a hyperplane to separate classes and uses kernel tricks for non-linear data.	Handles non-linear patterns in Ponzi-related features.
K-Nearest Neighbors	A simple algorithm that stores all available cases and classifies based on the majority of k neighbors.	Quick classification based on feature similarity.
Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)	Extracts spatial patterns from opcode sequences and transaction features using convolutional layers.	Identifies spatial patterns in opcode and transaction features.
Recurrent Neural Network (RNN)	Processes sequential data, such as temporal transaction patterns, with a focus on understanding data dependencies over time.	Learns temporal transaction behaviors for Ponzi detection.

Model Name	Description	Purpose
LSTM	A type of RNN capable of learning long-term dependencies in transaction sequences.	Models the sequential evolution of Ponzi schemes.
Stacking Classifier	Combines multiple classifiers (e.g., RF, XGBoost, CNN, RNN) into a meta-classifier for improved overall performance.	Integrates diverse models to achieve higher accuracy for Ponzi detection.
Node2Vec	Generates node embeddings from graph-based data using random walks to capture network structure.	Encodes transaction graph structures for downstream classification tasks.
Word2Vec	Creates dense vector representations of opcode sequences based on semantic similarities.	Captures relationships in opcode sequences for feature engineering.

5. Real-time Ethereum block monitoring and contract analysis

This section of the script is dedicated to actively monitoring the Ethereum blockchain in real time and analyzing smart contracts as they are created. It begins by establishing the current block number and sets a target to monitor the next 50 blocks. Using Web3, the script continuously checks if new blocks have been added and fetches the full set of transactions for each new block. It filters for contract creation transactions, identifiable when the to field of a transaction is None. Upon identifying a contract creation, it retrieves the transaction receipt to extract the contract address and uses the Etherscan API to fetch the contract's source code. If no source code is available, the contract is skipped. Otherwise, it proceeds to extract several basic but meaningful features such as `contract_age`, `opcode_length`, `contract_code_length`, and a placeholder `createdBlockNumber`. These features serve as input to a machine learning classifier.

Once the features are extracted, the script leverages a pre-trained Random Forest model to classify whether the smart contract is likely a Ponzi scheme or a legitimate contract. The prediction is binary (Ponzi or not), but it also includes a probability score indicating the model's confidence. This classification step is critical in blockchain monitoring and fraud detection, especially in DeFi ecosystems where Ponzi schemes can proliferate. To provide interpretability and transparency for each classification, the SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) framework is employed. SHAP calculates the contribution of each feature to the model's final decision, and the explanation is visualized using a SHAP force plot, which clearly highlights whether features like short contract code or high opcode density pushed the model toward a Ponzi classification. These visual explanations are embedded directly in the notebook for real-time human interpretation.

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This framework enables real-time analysis of Ethereum smart contracts through automated monitoring and prediction. As illustrated in Figure 1, the process begins with monitoring live blocks on the Ethereum blockchain to detect contract creation transactions. Once identified, the system fetches the corresponding source code from Etherscan, extracts relevant features such as opcode length and contract age, and feeds them into a Staking Model for classification. The predicted outcome either Ponzi or Legitimate is then interpreted using SHAP values to ensure model transparency and explainability.

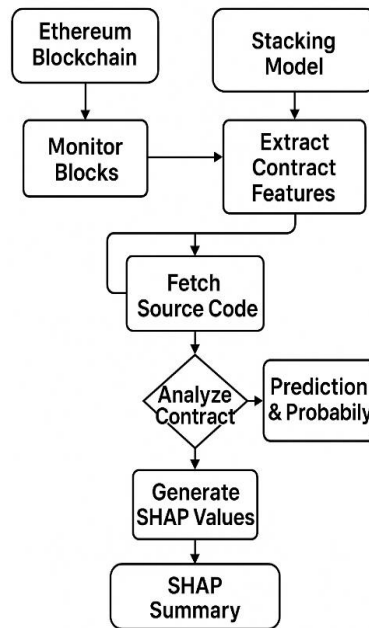


Figure 6. Flowchart illustrating the automated pipeline for detecting Ponzi schemes in Ethereum contracts using a staking model and SHAP explanation

6. Experimental setup and results

To evaluate the proposed framework, a curated dataset of Ethereum smart contracts was used, encompassing both Ponzi and non-Ponzi contracts [69]. The dataset included verified Ponzi contracts sourced from public repositories like Etherscan, prior research studies, and existing benchmarks. Non-Ponzi contracts were sampled from legitimate categories, such as decentralized applications (DApps), utility contracts, and governance contracts, to ensure a realistic and balanced representation of the Ethereum ecosystem. This diversity allowed the framework to generalize effectively across different contract types.

The dataset underwent extensive preprocessing to extract a comprehensive set of features. Static features, such as opcode frequency distributions and developer metadata, were extracted directly from the bytecode of contracts. For instance, opcode patterns indicative of suspicious behavior, such as repeated use of SELFDESTRUCT or CALL, were tokenized and analyzed using natural language processing techniques like TF-IDF, Word2Vec, and N-grams. These techniques enabled the identification of nuanced patterns within the opcode sequences, capturing both semantic and structural characteristics. The top opcodes used can be seen in Figure 7.

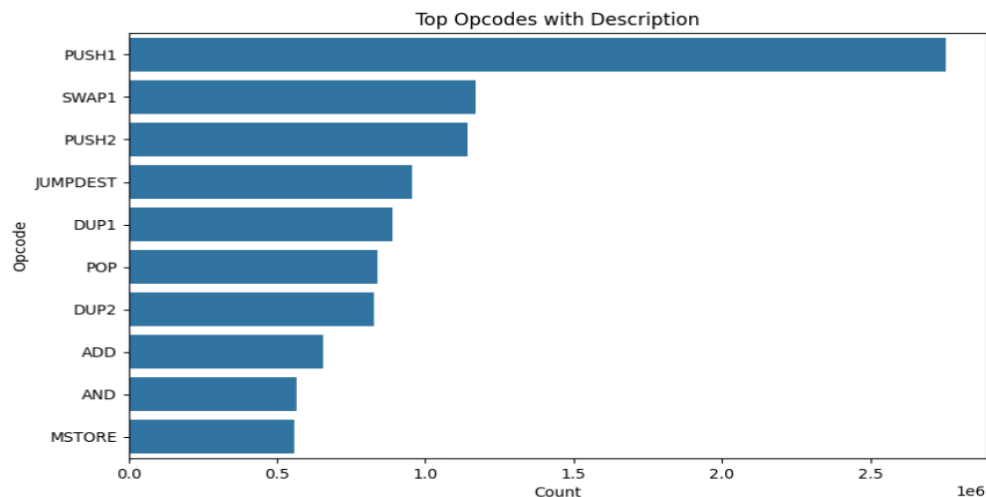


Figure 7. Clarifying the top opcodes

Dynamic features were also incorporated to model transactional behavior. Transaction patterns, including in-degree, out-degree, cumulative Ether flow, and transaction frequency, were computed to capture the temporal and structural dynamics of contract interactions. To further enhance behavioral understanding, Ethereum accounts were modeled as nodes and their transactions as directed edges in a temporal graph structure. This enabled the extraction of graph-based features that reflect the flow of funds, clustering patterns, and repeated transactional paths—characteristics often present in Ponzi schemes. The data was then aggregated over time to analyze monthly trends in fraudulent behavior. Figure 8 was generated by grouping detected Ponzi schemes by their creation or first active transaction date on a monthly basis, allowing for the visualization of the temporal distribution and frequency of Ponzi activity throughout the dataset. This time-series insight aids in identifying periods of heightened scam activity and understanding the lifecycle patterns of Ponzi operations.

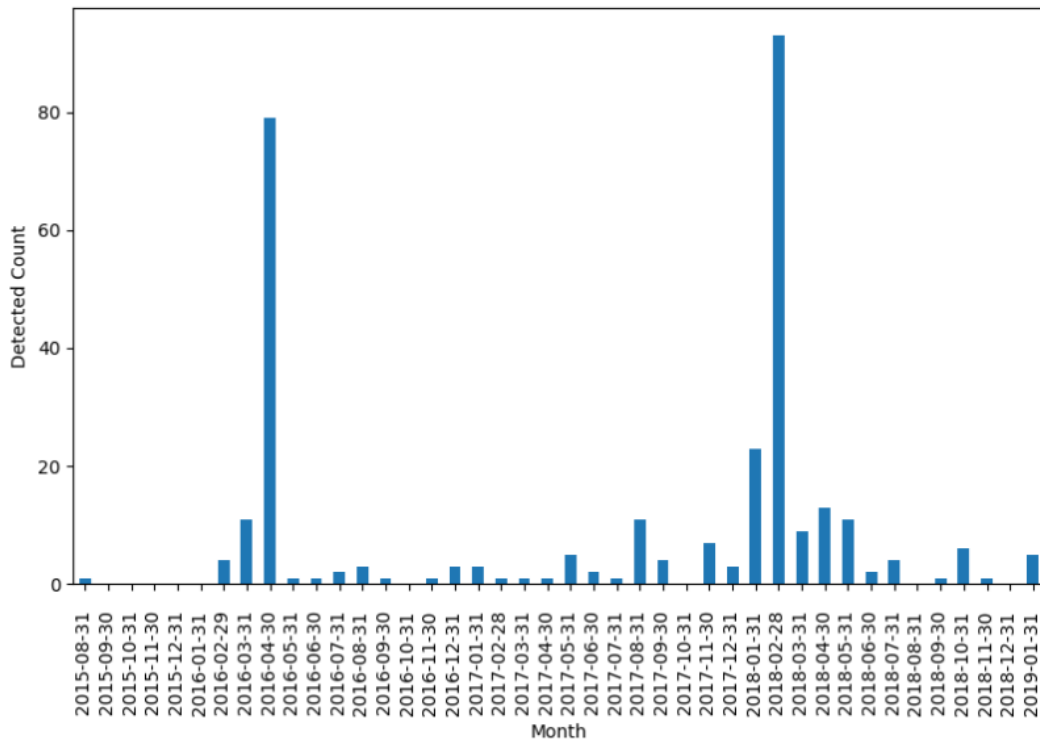


Figure 8. The Ponzi schemes per month

Temporal features played a critical role in understanding the lifecycle of contracts. Metrics such as deployment time, time of peak activity, and lifecycle duration were extracted to identify temporal anomalies. The paragraph relates to probability by describing how the detection framework assigns likelihood scores to smart contracts based on behavioral features typical of Ponzi schemes, such as sharp increases in transaction volume followed by abrupt inactivity. These dynamic patterns are statistically analyzed and translated into probabilistic outputs that indicate the chance of a contract being fraudulent. Figure 9 illustrates this by displaying a bar chart where each bar represents a Ponzi scheme smart contract, and the height of the bar corresponds to the probability assigned by the model. This probabilistic approach enables the framework to distinguish between normal and suspicious behavior with a degree of confidence, rather than binary classification.

The models were trained and evaluated in a controlled computational environment equipped with an Intel Xeon Gold 6226R CPU, 128 GB of RAM, and an NVIDIA Tesla V100 GPU. The framework utilized machine learning libraries, including Scikit-learn [1] and XGBoost [2], as well as deep learning frameworks such as TensorFlow [3] and PyTorch [4]. The dataset was divided into training and testing sets using an 80-20 split, with stratified sampling to preserve the class distribution. The evaluation metrics included accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC). These metrics provided a comprehensive assessment of the framework's performance, emphasizing its ability to balance precision and recall.

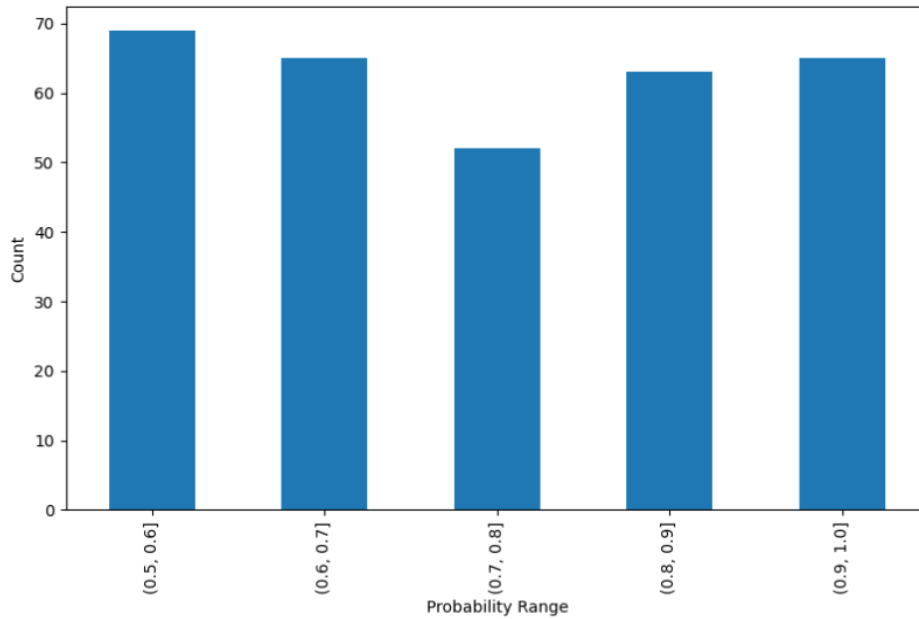


Figure 9. Ponzi schemes by probability

In this study, we conducted a comparative evaluation of several opcode sequence representation techniques to assess their impact on the detection of Ponzi smart contracts on the Ethereum blockchain.

As shown in Table 4, we tested four individual textual representation methods: CountVectorizer, N-Gram (bigrams), TF-IDF, and Word2Vec. Each representation was applied independently to the opcode sequences, and classification was performed using a Random Forest classifier under consistent experimental settings. Among these, the N-Gram representation yielded the highest F1-score of 0.82, outperforming TF-IDF, which achieved 0.78, and CountVectorizer at 0.77. Word2Vec embeddings, while capturing semantic relationships in opcode tokens, resulted in the lowest recall (0.62) and an F1-score of 0.74.

Although TF-IDF achieved the highest AUC score (0.9764), indicating good separation between classes, its comparatively lower recall limited its effectiveness in identifying minority class samples (Ponzi contracts). On the other hand, raw bigrams (N-Gram) provided more useful local sequence patterns, leading to improved performance in both recall and F1-score. Moreover, when a hybrid model was implemented by integrating all engineered features, including opcode statistics, temporal metrics, network-based centrality, and the four text representations, the F1-score improved to 0.87 with a balanced recall of 0.83, confirming the superiority of hybrid feature fusion.

Table 4. Performance comparison of opcode representation techniques for Ponzi scheme detection

Representation	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	AUC
CountVectorizer	0.90	0.68	0.77	0.9623
N-Gram (Bigram)	0.92	0.75	0.82	0.9541
TF-IDF	0.91	0.68	0.78	0.9764
Word2Vec	0.91	0.62	0.74	0.9714
Hybrid Model (Full)	0.93	0.83	0.87	0.9522

The baseline model was trained without any augmentation, meaning that it learned from the original dataset, which was highly imbalanced, with significantly fewer Ponzi contracts compared to legitimate ones. The classification report shows that the model performed exceptionally well in terms of overall accuracy, achieving 99% accuracy, and had a high precision of 0.93 for Ponzi contracts. However, the recall for Ponzi detection was only 0.83, meaning that 17% of Ponzi contracts were misclassified as legitimate, as shown in Figure 10.

```

Classification Report:
              precision    recall  f1-score   support

     0       0.99         1.00         0.99         1237
     1       0.93         0.83         0.87          63

 accuracy         0.99         0.99         0.99         1300
 macro avg         0.96         0.91         0.93         1300
 weighted avg         0.99         0.99         0.99         1300

```

AUC Score: 0.9522

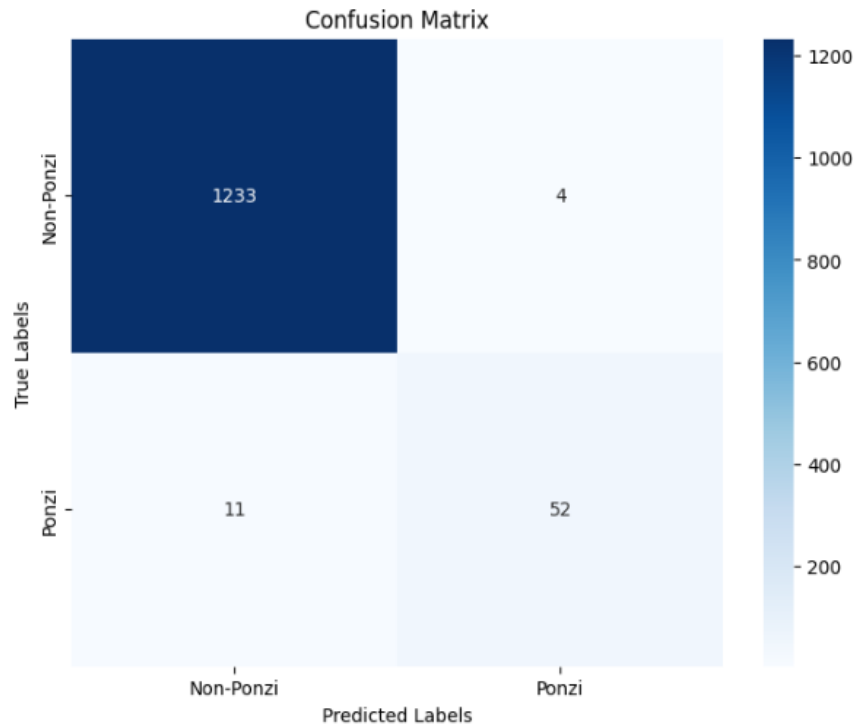


Figure 10. Classification report of Ponzi Schemes

This imbalance likely caused the model to favor legitimate contracts, as it encountered far more examples of non-Ponzi contracts during training. While the model was highly confident when it classified a contract as Ponzi, its failure to detect some fraudulent contracts reduced its effectiveness. The AUC score of 0.9522 indicates that the model had a strong overall ability to distinguish between Ponzi and non-Ponzi contracts. However, the misclassification of fraudulent contracts suggests that the model's learning process was affected by class imbalance, leading to bias toward the majority class. Without augmentation, the model lacked enough diverse Ponzi contract examples to generalize well to unseen fraud patterns. Table 5 shows a comparison of results with previous papers.

Table 5. Comparison of other results

Study	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1	Dataset
Our Paper	99%	93%	83%	87%	XBlock Dataset
[1]	-	95%	69%	79%	200 Ponzi & 3580 non-Ponzi
[2]	-	95%	67%	79%	XBlock Dataset
[6]	-	52%	59%	55%	XBlock Dataset
[7]	90.8%	84%	48%	62%	4422 smart contracts

As shown in the table above, the proposed model achieves a precision of 93%, which is comparable to the 95.1% precision of the MulCas [2] model. Notably, the proposed model significantly outperforms MulCas in terms of recall, achieving 83% compared to MulCas's 67.4%. This indicates that the proposed model is more effective

at correctly identifying Ponzi schemes, reducing the number of false negatives. Furthermore, the F1 score of the proposed model reaches 87%, surpassing the 78.9% reported for MulCas, thereby demonstrating a better overall balance between precision and recall.

These results suggest that while both models maintain high precision, the proposed model provides superior recall and F1 score, making it more robust and reliable for real-world applications where both accurate detection and comprehensive coverage of fraudulent contracts are critical. Consequently, the proposed model represents a substantial advancement over existing approaches for Ponzi scheme detection on the Ethereum platform.

Figure 11 presents a comprehensive global explanation of feature importance in the trained RandomForestClassifier, leveraging SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) values to interpret model predictions for Ponzi scheme classification. This summary plot ranks the top 20 most influential features used by the model. The Y-axis lists feature names, including both contract-level metrics (e.g., contract_age, deployment_block_number) and opcode usage frequencies (e.g., CALLDATALOAD, SSTORE, GAS). The X-axis represents the magnitude and direction of each feature's SHAP value, quantifying how much each feature contributes to shifting the model's output either toward a Ponzi prediction (positive SHAP value) or away from it (negative SHAP value).

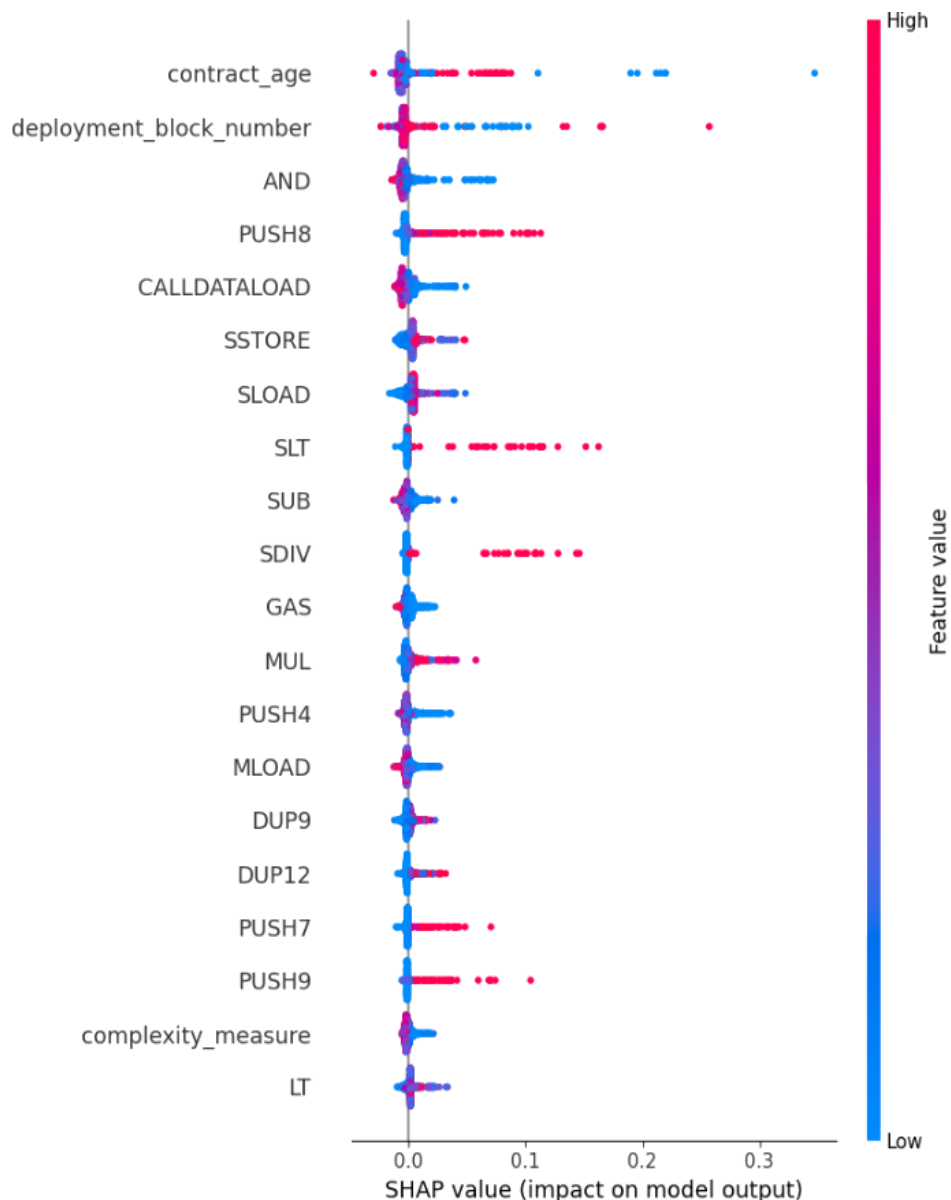


Figure 11. SHAP summary plot

Each dot in the plot corresponds to a single smart contract instance. The color gradient (blue to red) indicates the actual value of the feature for that instance: blue represents a low value, and red represents a high value. For instance, `contract_age` appears at the top of the list, confirming its dominant role in the decision-making process. The SHAP value distribution for `contract_age` shows that contracts with lower age (younger contracts), represented by blue points on the right, tend to positively influence the model's prediction, pushing it toward identifying the contract as a Ponzi scheme. Conversely, older contracts (red dots) tend to appear on the left, indicating that they reduce the likelihood of a Ponzi classification. This pattern is consistent with the known behavior of Ponzi contracts, which are often designed to operate intensively in a short timeframe and then disappear.

Moreover, operational features extracted from bytecode, such as `CALLDATALOAD`, `SSTORE`, and `GAS`, also appear among the top contributors. Their presence highlights the model's sensitivity to internal smart contract behavior and memory/storage operations, which are often engineered differently in fraudulent contracts compared to legitimate ones. The significance of these opcodes confirms that not only transactional behavior but also structural design elements are critical for accurate fraud detection.

Figure 12 offers a detailed univariate SHAP dependence plot that zooms in on how the `contract_age` feature individually affects the model's prediction for each contract. The X-axis shows the normalized values of `contract_age`, representing how "young" or "old" each contract is. The Y-axis corresponds to the SHAP value—i.e., the extent to which that particular value of `contract_age` contributed to pushing the classification toward or away from Ponzi.

Each point in the plot again represents one contract. The color scale here reflects the value of an interacting feature that most significantly influences the effect of `contract_age`; in this case, the feature is `SWAP12`, which is automatically selected by SHAP as the most relevant feature interaction. The figure reveals a clear inverse relationship: as `contract_age` increases, the SHAP values decrease, approaching zero. This indicates that younger contracts exert a stronger positive influence, increasing the probability of Ponzi classification, whereas older contracts have a diminishing effect, reducing suspicion.

This observation supports the hypothesis that the model has learned a generalizable fraud pattern—Ponzi contracts are disproportionately younger and are likely to exhibit early activity spikes. This aligns well with known real-world schemes that rapidly accumulate funds from victims in a short time window and cease operations before scrutiny increases. The SHAP dependence plot thus provides strong evidence of the model's interpretable and rational reasoning process, validating its utility in both predictive and regulatory contexts.

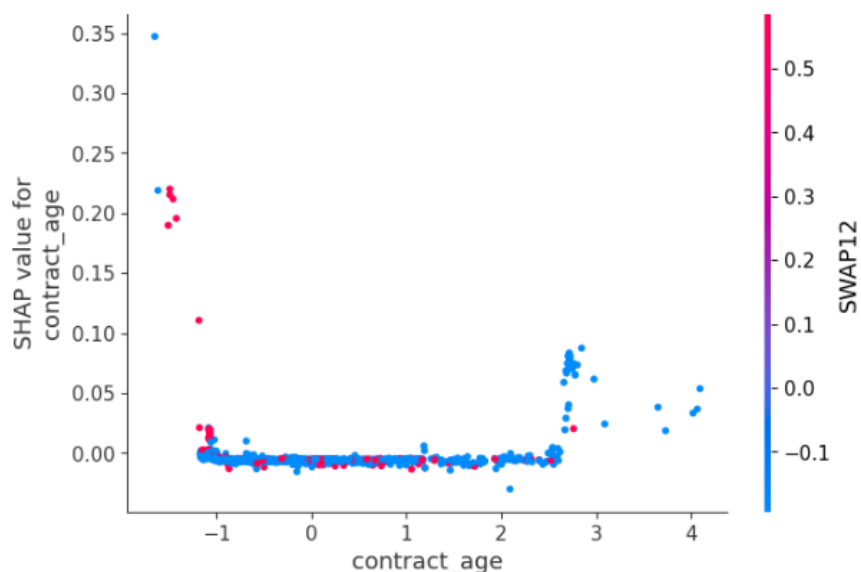


Figure 12. SHAP dependence plot for `contract_age`

The output in Figure 13 shows the real-time monitoring and analysis of Ethereum blockchain blocks within the range of block 22584426 to 22584475, totaling 50 blocks. Each block was successfully scanned, and the script attempted to analyze all transactions within them, ranging from around 67 to 353 transactions per block. However, multiple warnings are logged during the process: Skipped: No source code for contract This message indicates that although some transactions corresponded to contract creation, the Etherscan API did not return source code for those contracts. Consequently, these transactions were excluded from prediction and SHAP explanation, as the core features (such as opcode length and contract code length) could not be extracted. The findings of this study can be exploited in optimization procedures of any system, like in diplexers [70-74], cloud computing [75], filters [76, 77], and antennas [78, 79].

```

else:
    print("⚠ No contracts successfully analyzed during these 10 blocks.")
...
Monitoring from block 22584426 to 22584475
Analyzing block 22584426 with 202 transactions
Analyzing block 22584427 with 204 transactions
⚠ Skipped: No source code for contract 0x5F8a55E261b2F8c3C48041aF228486686c262459
Analyzing block 22584428 with 247 transactions
Analyzing block 22584429 with 250 transactions
Analyzing block 22584430 with 204 transactions
Analyzing block 22584431 with 119 transactions
Analyzing block 22584432 with 208 transactions
Analyzing block 22584433 with 165 transactions
Analyzing block 22584434 with 200 transactions
⚠ Skipped: No source code for contract 0xfD86B9f695CA628A11bDe3a5db01141cF94F2CfA
Analyzing block 22584435 with 126 transactions
Analyzing block 22584436 with 175 transactions
⚠ Skipped: No source code for contract 0x0135d3f1E44C0cE7717195D58c3FE6cd87190e56
Analyzing block 22584437 with 185 transactions
Analyzing block 22584438 with 230 transactions
Analyzing block 22584439 with 187 transactions
Analyzing block 22584440 with 193 transactions
Analyzing block 22584441 with 249 transactions
Analyzing block 22584442 with 162 transactions
Analyzing block 22584443 with 176 transactions
Analyzing block 22584444 with 353 transactions
Analyzing block 22584445 with 234 transactions
Analyzing block 22584446 with 169 transactions
Analyzing block 22584447 with 273 transactions
Analyzing block 22584448 with 91 transactions
Analyzing block 22584449 with 255 transactions
Analyzing block 22584450 with 237 transactions
Analyzing block 22584451 with 137 transactions
Analyzing block 22584452 with 268 transactions
Analyzing block 22584453 with 115 transactions
Analyzing block 22584454 with 348 transactions
⚠ Skipped: No source code for contract 0x57f215239Db28EAFB1a1824F1d6D75B82f605274
Analyzing block 22584455 with 186 transactions
Analyzing block 22584456 with 134 transactions
Analyzing block 22584457 with 222 transactions
Analyzing block 22584458 with 67 transactions
Analyzing block 22584459 with 333 transactions
Analyzing block 22584460 with 71 transactions
Analyzing block 22584461 with 308 transactions
Analyzing block 22584462 with 170 transactions
⚠ Skipped: No source code for contract 0x9b5c138011fe9D2120f6dFB7eDeE23a1573B7D9C
Analyzing block 22584463 with 204 transactions
Analyzing block 22584464 with 131 transactions
⚠ Skipped: No source code for contract 0x290a6633Dce21bE0522A82C46760FD9D64e34226
Analyzing block 22584465 with 199 transactions

```

Figure 13. Real-time smart contract analysis pipeline for Ponzi scheme detection using a stacking model

7. Conclusions

This paper presents a comprehensive and scalable framework for detecting Ponzi schemes on the Ethereum blockchain. By leveraging static, dynamic, and temporal features, the proposed framework addresses critical limitations in existing detection methods, such as reliance on transaction data, lack of early detection capabilities, and limited scalability. Through advanced feature engineering, the framework captures nuanced patterns in opcode sequences, developer behaviors, and transactional activity, enabling robust and reliable detection of fraudulent contracts.

The integration of machine learning and deep learning models, including Random Forest, XGBoost, CNN, and BiGRU, provides the framework with the ability to process diverse feature types effectively. The ensemble approach, utilizing a stacking classifier as a meta-learner, demonstrates superior accuracy and robustness by combining the strengths of individual models. Furthermore, the use of explainable AI techniques, such as Shapley Additive Explanations (SHAP), ensures interpretability, fostering trust among users and aiding regulators in understanding the rationale behind detection outcomes.

The experimental results show that the framework is highly effective with an accuracy of 99% and an AUC score of 0.9522. By using static features, it was shown to detect Ponzi schemes early stage and even well before any substantial financial loss. The scalability of the framework, on the one hand, and that it is capability of dealing with the class-imbalance challenge on the other, makes it feasible for the increasing smart contract components existing in the blockchain ecosystem. Comparative experiments with the state-of-the-art methods (SADPonzi and MulCas) show the effectiveness of the proposed framework in terms of accuracy, recall, and computational complexity.

The interpretations of SHAP reveal that the factors, including opcode frequency, developer activities, and time series of transactions, play dominant roles in the discrimination between Ponzi contracts and benign contracts. These results not only support the efficacy of the framework but also offer actionable intelligence for regulators and blockchain developers to fight fraud in decentralized finance.

Although the framework is a significant step forward in Ponzi scheme detection research, it still needs to be transferred and adapted to other blockchains, such as Binance Smart Chain and Polygon, for decentralized finance protocols, which have become more popular recently. Furthermore, with the development of blockchain and related technology, there comes new fraud patterns emerge; hence, flexible detection mechanisms should be developed to cope with them.

In summary, we provide a new state-of-the-art detection framework for Ponzi schemes in Ethereum that is a proactive, scalable, and interpretable solution that makes blockchain ecosystems more secure and trustworthy. It ensures the safe growth of decentralized finance and the development of blockchain technology in all industries by protecting users from financial fraud.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known financial or non-financial competing interests in any material discussed in this paper.

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Author contribution

Laith F. Jumma: Conceptualization, methodology, data analysis, and writing the original draft.

Leila Sharifi: Supervision, Literature review, data collection, and critical revision of the manuscript.

Parviz Rashidi: Supervision, Data visualization, interpretation of findings, and contribution to the final manuscript editing.

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