# Ulster University



# The Financial Auditing of Distributed Ledgers, Blockchain and Cryptocurrencies

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#### Introduction



- The Internet and digital money transfers are reshaping financial audits.
- This presentation critically evaluates the auditing of assets in distributed ledgers, blockchain technology, and cryptocurrencies.
- It explores the self-verifying nature of financial data in these systems, challenging traditional audit methods.
- It highlights areas where audit has to change to accommodate blockchain based assets.

## The Promise of Self-Verification



- Distributed ledgers and blockchain offer self-verification mechanisms.
- Reduction in reliance on traditional auditing procedures.
- Potential for greater efficiency and transparency.
- Despite self-verification, blockchain has inherent weaknesses:
- Vulnerabilities in smart contracts.
- Lack of standardization.
- Regulatory and compliance challenges.

### The role of Al



- Auditing blockchain is a complex task due to its unique features and challenges.
- Al technology provides powerful solutions to enhance the auditing process.
- Al can analyse vast amounts of blockchain data efficiently.
- Detect patterns, anomalies, and potential fraud in real-time.
- Identify suspicious transactions and activities.
- Mitigate risks in real-time.

# Need for Audit Adaptation



- Traditional auditing examines financial accounts and records.
- Principles include responsibilities, knowledge, standards, and code of conduct.
- Current auditing norms face disruption from blockchain, cryptocurrencies, and distributed ledgers.
- The audit must evolve to accommodate the distributed nature of digital financial information.
- Current international auditing standards do not fully address these new digital assets.
- Technological complexity intensifies audit risk, with field auditors challenged to detect material misrepresentations.

### Blockchain



- A blockchain consists of blocks with multiple transactions and references to the previous block.
- Immutability and verification are key blockchain properties.
- It serves as a distributed ledger, continuously validated by participants.
- Every blockchain transaction is a form of self-audit.
- Participants ensure credits result from permitted debits.





- Financial reporting's core functions: Revenue recognition, cash safeguarding, expense recognition, and procurement control (Rogers, Marsh, & Ethridge, 2004).
- Transaction malleability allows post-transaction alterations.
- Addressed by Andrychowicz, Dziembowski, Malinowski, & Mazurek (2015) in the context of Bitcoin's transaction ID algorithm.
- A relay party can modify a transaction without changing its contents, making it hard to detect changes.
- Blockchain auditors face two primary impacts due to malleability:
  - Unique Identifier Challenge: Malleability can lead to transactions being broadcast with a different transaction ID than initially generated.
  - Double-Payment Fraud: Auditors must be vigilant about potential double-payment fraud.

# Challenges of Auditing DAOs (Digital Autonomous Organizations)



- DAO-type structures pose various audit challenges, especially concerning entity jurisdiction.
- DAO's legal position is unclear since it lacks legal entity status.
- Enforcing judgments against a DAO is complex; funds cannot be taken without majority shareholder agreement or compliance with smart contract rules.
- Auditors dealing with DAOs should recommend:
  - Clear definition of asset access and spending requirements.
  - Legal and jurisdictional clarification for DAO entities.
  - Enforcement mechanisms in case of disputes or judgments.

### Blockchain forks



- A blockchain fork occurs when there is a fundamental disagreement within a blockchain network about the rules governing the creation and validation of new blocks.
- In the case of a contentious hard fork, it can take time for the network to resolve the situation.
- This disagreement can lead to the blockchain splitting into two or more separate chains, each with its own set of transactions and history.
  - Long-term blockchain forks pose a significant challenge to auditing.
  - Short term forks are common, but long-term forks are of concern.





- August 2021. Ethereum network was upgrades to make transactions more predictable, and ensure the network's long-term sustainability.
- The London Hard Fork introduced several significant changes to the Ethereum network, with the primary goal of improving the network's security, scalability, and user experience.
  - EIP-1559 changed the fee mechanism for Ethereum transactions. Previously, users would manually set gas prices for their transactions, leading to congestion and unpredictable fees.
  - EIP-3554 moved Ethereum transitions from a Proof of Work (PoW) to a Proof of Stake (PoS) consensus mechanism.

# Forks: The challenge for auditors



- Blockchain forks challenge the stability of financial audits.
- Auditors need to adapt to the dynamic nature of blockchain communities and rule changes.
- A deep understanding of blockchain forks is essential for accurate and reliable auditing.
- Auditors dealing with blockchain audits should:
  - Stay informed about blockchain communities' consensus and rule changes.
  - Understand the implications of long-term forks on transaction histories.
  - Develop audit procedures to address the complexities of auditing across forked chains.

### Short term forks



- When two miners simultaneously discover valid solutions for the next block, one becomes the successor, and the other becomes an orphan.
- Short-term blockchain forks are a regular occurrence, especially in networks like Bitcoin.
  - Blockchain PoW accepts longer chain at any point in the future if it exists, with no guaranteed time period for the finality of transactions.
- Auditors face more frequent challenges due to these short-term forks.
- Auditors must ensure that the audit only covers blocks with sufficient proof of work, making future re-arrangement of those blocks infeasible.
- Introduction of longer chains can result in double-spending potential and transaction reorganization.

# Auditor's Role in Blockchain Custody



- Auditors play a crucial role in ensuring the reliability of central asset ledgers in distributed ledgers.
- Verification of distributed ledgers is essential to bridge the gap between the digital and real world.
- Auditors can adapt blockchain explorers to facilitate this verification process.
- Auditing distributed ledgers involves timestamping, validity, and robustness.
- Multiple blockchains exist in the distributed world, challenging the perception of a single immutable record.

# Navigating Multi-Location Audit Risks



- The internet operates across multiple jurisdictions, posing audit challenges.
- SAS No. 107 outlines factors to consider when addressing jurisdiction issues in multi-location audits.
- Auditors must consider the nature of assets and transactions, centralization of records, control environment, monitoring frequency, and materiality of location.
  - Real-time auditing is possible, but context is crucial.
  - Ownership and transaction coding in a digital context may not align with the physical world.





- In July 2017, a French court granted Alphabet Inc (Google's parent company) a tax reprieve.
- The court ruled that Google's subsidiary, Google Ireland Limited, did not have a "permanent establishment" in France.
  - The term "permanent establishment" typically refers to a fixed place of business where a company carries out its business activities. In the context of multinational corporations like Google, it's crucial to determine whether their activities in a particular country go beyond mere sales and marketing, reaching the threshold of having a permanent establishment that is subject to taxation.
- The audit trail played a crucial role in determining jurisdiction.

## Self-Verification in Blockchain



- Blockchains are designed with properties like immutability and self-verification, which can benefit auditing.
- However, auditors must explore the robustness and reality of self-verification processes.
  - Blockchain technology employs cryptographic hashes within decentralized networks. Typically, 6 confirmations are considered sufficient for most large transactions, resulting in approximately a 60-minute delay after a transaction is featured in a block. During adverse blockchain conditions, such as mining nodes not validating blocks properly, users are advised to wait for a higher number of confirmations. In some cases, this wait could be as long as 36 confirmations, corresponding to a 6-hour delay.
- Al can play a vital role in automating the confirmation process.
- Al algorithms can analyse blockchain data, monitor network health, and assess the risk of blockchain forks.

#### Silent transactions



- Blockchain-based cryptocurrencies allow for silent transactions.
- Parties can create and generate transactions from any location with access to the required keys.
- Malicious parties with private key access can silently generate valid transactions, even remotely.
- Transactions can be broadcast from any node on the network without physical presence.
- Traditional bank accounts often require transactions to be initiated from specific terminals or with approved signatories physically present.
- In blockchain, possession of private keys or knowledge of the appropriate hashlock condition is sufficient to initiate transactions from anywhere.
- Al can be used to continuously monitor transactions and look for unusual or suspicious activity.

# Effective Auditing Requires Defined Periods



- Auditing must be bounded within a finite time period, ensuring no transactions fall between audits.
- Blockchain, with discrete time intervals, simplifies this process using block generation time.
- Transaction presence in a block doesn't guarantee the exact time of creation and broadcast.
- Complexities arise in auditing internal controls for transaction initiation, as pre-authorized transactions can be broadcast later.
- Auditors should include the movement of all blockchain-based funds between wallets (public keys) in the audit process.
  - Verification of fund control by the organization.
  - Prevention of historical fraudulent transactions from being re-broadcast in the future.





- Rapid price volatility of cryptocurrencies poses a significant challenge for audit.
- The overall number of coins held may remain constant, but their value can fluctuate drastically.
- Limited liquidity and market manipulation possibilities make price and market stability uncertain.
- Auditors must identify how funds held within exchanges are stored and assess their vulnerability to market fluctuations and trading orders.





- Auditors face challenges when funds are held by third parties in a distributed online environment.
- Funds may be deposited with exchanges or online wallet services where private keys are accessible to third parties.
- Security concerns arise as third-party holding may lead to discrepancies and potential deficits due to cyber-attacks or insider theft.
- Funds within online exchanges and wallets often lack a blockchainbased audit trail. Eg FTX





- The audit process needs to ensure the correct recipient was specified and that the receiving address can be substantiated based on documentation.
- Blockchain transactions involve public key hashes (addresses) corresponding to cryptographic identities.
- Private keys used to access a wallet can be transferred between parties, complicating the verification of the party operating an address.
- Best practice advises using each public key (address) only twice: once to receive funds and once to transfer funds out.
  - This security measure protects the user's public key until a spend transaction is created.





- Smart contracts with timelocks can be part of blockchain transactions.
  Auditors may find time-locked transactions signed by parties,
  promising funds based on a time condition.
- These transactions should not be considered valid, as the initiating party can reverse the payments by moving funds from the sending address before the time condition is satisfied.
- Once the transaction is invalidated due to a double-spend, the recipient will not receive the funds.
- These transactions should be treated as non-binding IOUs in the audit process.

# Multi-Signature Transactions



- Auditors traditionally verify authorized signatories in the physical world.
- Auditors play a crucial role in verifying the integrity of multi-signature setups and ensuring that only authorized parties have control over funds.
- In blockchain, funds received, known as Unspent Transaction Outputs (UTXOs), can have restrictions on spending, often involving multi-signature requirements.
- Multi-signature schemes require multiple private keys to spend funds, enhancing security. The solution we propose for audit is "Arbitration-style contracts", an approach not dissimilar to that proposed by (Treleaven & Batrinca, 2017).
- Auditors must ensure that keys for multi-signature wallets are in place and that funds can be accessed.
  - Verify that no keys from individuals who have left the organization or should no longer control the funds are present.
  - Check N-of-M signature schemes (e.g., 2-of-6 managers), audit key-holders to prevent collusion by departing members before key rotation.





- Auditors must adapt to micropayments in blockchain for small fund transfers.
  - Sender holds a dual-signed "refund" transaction with a time-lock.
  - A "bond" transaction is formed, requiring both parties to sign for fund release.
  - The "bond" transaction is sent to the blockchain.
  - Parties keep updating the "refund" transaction outside the blockchain.
  - The recipient can broadcast their "refund" transaction to claim funds before the time-lock expires.
- Micropayment channels permit repeated transactions within larger ones, updated dynamically.
- Use of a time-locked transaction combined with a 2-from-2 multi-signature contract.
- Micropayment funds should be audited with caution.
- Contract completion depends on broadcast and inclusion of the release transaction in a blockchain block.

#### Hashlock Contracts



- Hashlock contracts restrict the spending of received transactions until a specific pre-image is provided.
- To spend the locked funds, the transaction must include the input to a one-way function, yielding a predetermined output.
- Auditors must closely review UTXOs (Unspent Transaction Outputs) protected by hashlocks.
- Funds in hashlocked transactions are inert until the corresponding pre-image is revealed.
- Auditors should confirm the organization's control and access to hashlocked funds.





- During an audit, the use of transactions for obfuscation or coin mixing can pose challenges.
- CoinJoin and coin mixing are techniques used to obscure the origin and destination of cryptocurrency transactions.
- Techniques for obfuscating transaction origins and destinations can hinder audits.
- Auditors may face challenges in verifying the true destination of funds.





- Audits become more complex when involving multiple cryptocurrencies and indeed future retail CBDCs.
- Different cryptocurrencies have independent blockchains.
- Cross-chain transactions occur during exchanges between two different cryptocurrencies, adding audit challenges.
- Auditing cross-chain transactions requires considering both blockchains.
- The scope of the audit may significantly increase when multiple cryptocurrencies are involved.

#### Conclusion



- Traditional audit processes are insufficient to address the complexities of digital money transfer and storage in blockchain and cryptocurrency environments.
- Auditing is transitioning from a traditional double-entry bookkeeping approach to a more versatile triple-entry bookkeeping model.
- Auditors must adapt to the distributed and multijurisdictional nature of blockchain assets, redefining rules and procedures to accommodate the intricacies of these systems.
- Challenges, including transaction malleability, blockchain forks, and the emergence of Digital Autonomous Organizations (DAOs), necessitate dedicated audit professionals to address these issues.
- All is pivotal to addressing these challenges.

