

# Privacy-Preserving Multi-hop Payments with Constant Collateral

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**Abstract**—This document is a model and instructions for L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X. Test for pull. This and the IEEEtran.cls file define the components of your paper [title, text, heads, etc.]. \*CRITICAL: Do Not Use Symbols, Special Characters, Footnotes, or Math in Paper Title or Abstract.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, permissionless cryptocurrencies, have emerged as a novel means to facilitate secure and reliable payments within a decentralized framework, garnering significant attention from both academia and industry. These cryptocurrencies employ a consensus mechanism to verify each transaction, which is then recorded on a publicly distributed ledger known as blockchain. Unfortunately, the widespread adoption of cryptocurrencies is hindered by notable scalability challenges. Complex consensus mechanisms, like Bitcoin’s Proof-of-work(PoW), and the limited block size of the blockchain contribute to the issue. The theoretical throughput of Bitcoin stands at approximately 10 transactions per second(TPS), with a transaction confirmation time of around 1 hour. In contrast, traditional decentralized payment networks, such as Visa, boast the capability up to 47,000 TPS. Furthermore, the presence of high transaction fees renders small-value payments impractical for cryptocurrency users.

One promising solution proposed to tackle the issue of scalability is the implements of payment channels(PCs). PCs are off-chain payment protocols that enable two parties, who have established a channel, to conduct quick and validated transaction off-chain. To elaborate, the overall process can be divided into three phases. Firstly, during the channel-opening phase, both users commit a portion of their coins to a shared

address as initial funds, which is executed on-chain. In the subsequent channel-updating phase, the involved parties have the flexibility to engage in numerous off-chain transactions. They can adjust the allocation of funds between themselves by generating and exchanging signed transaction message. Ultimately, when the participants opt to settle the channel or encounter a dispute, they initiate the closing process by broadcasting the latest signed transaction to the blockchain. This transaction represents the most up-to-date distribution of funds within the channel.

## II. BACKGROUND

In this section, we provide an overview on the background and the notations used throughout the paper.

### A. UTXO model

In this work, we assume the underlying blockchain, like Bitcoin, is based on the UTXO model. Transaction output is the fundamental component of Bitcoin transaction, which is an indivisible Bitcoin currency recorded on the blockchain and recognized as valid by the entire network. The Bitcoin complete nodes tracks all available outputs called *unspent transaction outputs* (UTXO). UTXOs can be any value and once generated are indivisible, a UTXO can only be consumed as a whole in a single transaction. The output consists of two parts, which we represent as a tuple  $\theta := \{cash, \phi\}$ ,  $\theta.cash$  is the output value, and the  $\theta.\phi$  is the condition to spend this output, it also called *locking script*.  $Onesig(U)$  indicates that the condition required to spend this output is a digital signature. We say that a user  $U$  can spend an output only if  $\theta.\phi$  contains only a signature w.r.t verification  $U$ ’s public key, if multiple signatures are required, we use  $MultiSig(U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n)$ .

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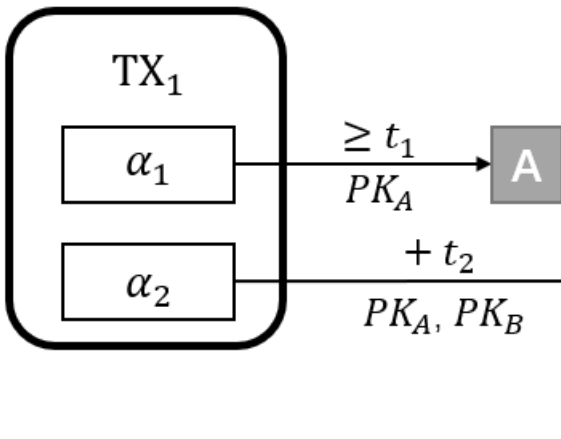


Fig. 1.

Transactions consume previously recorded unused UTXOs and create new UTXOs available for future transaction, in this way, the transaction continues in the form of a chain of owners. on the chain, the input of the transaction corresponds to the output of the previous transaction. We denote a transaction as a tuple  $\mathbf{TX} := \{\text{id}, \text{input}, \text{output}, \text{timelock}, \text{witness}\}$ ,  $\mathbf{TX}.\text{id} \in \{0, 1\}^*$  is the identifier of a transaction and  $\mathbf{TX}.\text{id} = \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{TX}.\text{input}, \mathbf{TX}.\text{output}, \mathbf{TX}.\text{timelock})$ ,  $\mathcal{H}$  is a hash function, modeled as a random oracle.  $\mathbf{TX}.\text{input}$  and  $\mathbf{TX}.\text{output}$  denotes the list of the inputs and the list of new outputs respectively.  $\mathbf{TX}.\text{timelock}$  defined as the earliest time a transaction is valid and can be transmitted on the network or added to the blockchain, it defaults to 0 in most transactions.  $\mathbf{TX}.\text{witness} \in \{0, 1\}^*$ , also called *ScriptSig*, is part of the transaction input to address or satisfy the spending conditions set by the *locking script* on the output. Actually, before being recorded on the blockchain, transactions must go through the consensus mechanism of all nodes. During this period, each node will independently verify the transaction. For specific details please refer to [1], we will only briefly describe the key parts: (1) The sum of the input value cannot be less than the sum of the output value; (2) For each input, the quoted output cannot exist in any other transaction, it must exist and not be spent; (3) The *ScriptSig* for each input must be validated against the *locking script* for the corresponding output. To put it simply, the transaction must provide valid validation that satisfies the spending conditions of each input.

We use charts to visualize the transaction for a clearer illustration. Rounded rectangles represent transactions, thick-edged rectangles represent transactions that have already been published on the blockchain, and thin-edged rectangles for transactions to be published. The transaction contains at least one box to represent the output of the transaction, and the value in the box indicates the number of coins in this output. On the arrows coming from the output, are noted the conditions under which this output is spent. The public key below the arrow indicates who can use this output; Above the arrow is the timelock for the output (in this work only uses timelock

as additional condition, which in practice could be any script supported by the underlying blockchain scripting language). There are two types of timelocks: *relative time lock* and *absolute time lock*, we use “+t” to represent the relative time lock, that is, the transaction only valid at least t blocks has passed through after the transaction being recorded on the blockchain; The absolute time lock “ $\geq t$ ” specifies the absolute time point, indicating that the first transaction has passed through t round after being recorded on the blockchain. Finally, we use a diamond to represent the relationship of “or” that the output conditions are different, expressed in the symbolic form as  $\varphi = \varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2 \wedge \varphi_3$ , where  $\varphi$  is the output locking script, written on the arrows of the output. A complete example is given in Figure 2.

### B. Payment channels

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## III. SOLUTION OVERVIEW

In this section, we present our key idea.

### A. Security and privacy goals

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### B. Key idea

Define abbreviations and acronyms the first time they are used in the text, even after they have been defined in the abstract. Abbreviations such as IEEE, SI, MKS, CGS, ac, dc, and rms do not have to be defined. Do not use abbreviations in the title or heads unless they are unavoidable.

#### IV. CONSTRUCTION

##### A. Building blocks

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##### B. Protocol description

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#### V. ANALYSIS

##### A. Security

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##### B. High level functionality description

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#### VI. EVALUATION

The implementation and evaluation.

#### VII. DISCUSSION

Some arguments

#### VIII. CONCLUSION

Conclude the paper.

#### REFERENCES

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