# Privacy-Preserving Multi-hop Payments with Constant Collateral

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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 hidered by notable scalability chanllenges. Complex consensus mechanisms, like Bitcoin's Proofof-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 overrall process can be divided into three phases. Firstly, during the channel-openning 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 outpus (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( $U_1, U_2, ..., U_n$ ).

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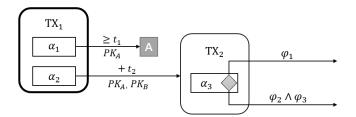


Fig. 1. Left transaction  $TX_1$  is recorded on the blockchain, which has two output. Value  $\alpha_1$  can spent by A, with a transaction signed w.r.t  $PK_A$  after  $t_1$  rounds, and the output of value  $\alpha_2$  can be spent by a transaction signed w.r.t  $PK_A$  and  $PK_B$  but only if at least  $t_2$  rounds has passed through after the transaction being published on the blockchain. The right transaction  $TX_2$  has one input which is the second output of  $TX_1$  with the value  $\alpha_1$ .  $TX_2$  has only one output containing  $\alpha_3$  coins, which can spent by a transaction whose witness satisfies the condition  $\varphi_1 \vee (\varphi_2 \wedge \varphi_3)$ 

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 TX := {id,input,output,timelock,witness},  $TX.id \in \{0,1\}^*$  is the identifier of a transaction and TX.id=  $\mathcal{H}(TX.input,TX.output,TX.timelock)$ ,  $\mathcal{H}$  is a hash function, modeled as a random oracle. TX.input and TX.output denotes the list of the inputs and the list of new outputs respectively. TX.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. TX.witness∈  $\{0,1\}^*$ , 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: For a transaction(1) The sum of the input value cannot be less than the sum of the output value; (1) 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 vaild 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  $\varphi = \varphi_1 \vee ... \vee \varphi_n$ , where  $\varphi$  is the output locking script, written on the arrows of the output. A complete example is given in Fig. 1.

#### B. Payment channels

The payment channel is opened by two users locking some coins on the blockchain, and then the two parties can make as many quick instant confirmation transactions off-chain, that is, without waiting for transmitting the transaction to the blockchain, as long as the total amount of each transaction is less than the locked value. During the lifetime of the channel, only two transactions will be recorded on the blockchain, one is funding transaction  $TX_f$  which used to open the channel, the other is settlement transaction for close the channel. The funding transaction  $TX_f$  determines the balance of this channel, and the channel is open when  $TX_f$  is broadcast to the network and recorded on the blockchain, both parties update the channel balance by exchanging signed transactions offchain, these transactions holding the reassigned balances are called state of the channel. Finally, the channel is closed by posting settlement transaction, which is the final state, on the blockchain. In a more detil, there are three operations of the payment channel: open, update, and close.

1) Open: Suppose that Alice and Bob want to create a payment channel, and to do so, Alice and Bob agree on a funding transaction  $TX_f$ . The output value of  $TX_f$  is  $\alpha_A + \alpha_B$ , which is the total amount of the channel, and there are two inputs to the  $TX_f$  are from Alice and Bob respectively,  $\alpha_A$  represents the initial deposit provided by Alice in the channel, and  $\alpha_B$  represents Bob's. When  $TX_f$  is published on the blockchain, it indicates that the payment channel has been opened.

2) update: After the channel is opened, to update the balance status of both sides of the channel, that is to make a transaction, parties exchange signatures on the commit transaction. Each time a new "commit transaction" is exchanged, the previous state of the channel is overwritten and updated to the newer state, while the old state is saved locally. Therefore, only the most recent commit transaction can be "executed". To ensure the security of payments, payment channel use a penalty mechanism to: 1) prevent malicious user from closing the channel by sending an outdated but self-advantageous state to the chain, and 2) enable honest user to acquire all the coins locked in the channel when dishonest user post outdated promised transactions. We use the recent work *generalized channels* [2] as the basic structure, which split the "committ transaction" into two parts, the commit transaction

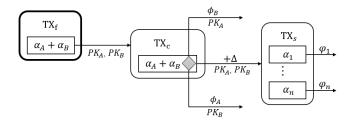


Fig. 2. Details of generalized channel,  $(x_1, \varphi_1)...(x_1, \varphi_1)$  are the states of the channel. The output of  $TX_c$  is three different conditions, two of which are punishment mechanisms used to prevent dishonest users. The condition  $\phi_B$  is punishment for B, represents the verification of B' revocation secret, When A discovers that B submit an old transaction, it can take all the money in the channel by B' revocation secret, which B has exchanged for A when the old transaction is updated, and in the same way,  $\phi_A$  represents the verification of A' revocation secret that can punish A. The value of  $\Delta$  is time upper bound that takes to publish a transaction on a blockchain.

 $TX_c$  responsible for penalizing and the split transaction  $TX_s$  that hold the actual output of the channel. assume that Alice wants to pay  $x_A \leq \alpha_A$  coins to Bob. To do this, they create new commit transaction  $TX_c'$  and split transaction  $TX_s'$ , at the same time, they pick the new secret R' to represent the commitment of the two parties to the new balance of the channel, then they exchange the revocation secret r of the of the previous round of transactions  $TX_c$  and  $TX_s$ , after that they make the new commit transaction  $TX_c'$  and split transaction  $TX_s'$  overwrite previous ones.  $TX_s'$  represents the updated balance of the channel, and both parties save the previous round of transactions  $(TX_c$  and  $TX_s)$  with the revocation secret r of the secret value in local memory.

3) close: Finally, assume both parties agree to close the channel, They can collaboratively submit  $\overline{TX_c}$  and  $\overline{TX_s}$ , which represent the last transaction they agreed, to the blockchain to close the channel. If the dishonest one submit an expired promised transaction, the malicious party can be penalized by closing the channel through the revocation mechanism unilaterally.

## C. Payment channel networks

Suppose that  $U_0$  now wants to transfer some coins to  $U_2$ , but there is no direct payment channel between  $U_0$  and  $U_2$ , and instead, there is an indirect path in which  $U_1$  participates, that is,  $U_0$  has a open payment channel with  $U_1$ ,  $U_1$  has a open payment channel with  $U_2$ , then  $U_0$  can safely transfer coins to  $U_2$  through this path. This way of allowing the atomic transfer of coins from the sender to the receiver through intermediaries atomically called *multi-hop payment* (MHP). A Payment Channel Network (PCN) is a graph consisted of users as the vertices and edges as channels between pairs of users. It can make a large number of single channels connected in series, thus forming an interconnected, vast payment network. Any user on the PCN can pay in MHP through a path of open payment channels.

HTLC. However, in the payment process, there is no way to ensure that each user can perform honestly, and malicious users will cause honest users to lose coins. To guarantee the atomicity of payments, the Lightning Network (LN) [3] is done by using a Hash Time-Lock Contracts (HTLC), which works as follows. In the payment channel of  $u_0$  and  $u_1$ ,  $u_0$ locks her coins in the output, and this output can be spent on two conditions: 1) beyond the predefined time,  $u_0$  will get her money back; 2) once  $u_1$  provides a pre-image  $r_A$  with a hash value  $\mathcal{H}(r_A)$  set by  $u_0$ , then  $u_1$  can take the money. In a nutshell, sender  $u_0$  who wants to pay  $\alpha$  coins to the receiver  $u_n$  through some intermediary  $\{u_i\}_{i\in[1,n-1]}$ , and two users  $u_j$  and  $u_{j+1}$  for  $j \in [0, n-1]$  have an open payment channel. First,  $u_n$  selects a random number r, calculates its hash  $y := \mathcal{H}(r)$  and sends y to  $u_0$ . Second, the  $u_0$  creates a new state with three outputs  $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3)$  and establishes the HTLC with  $u_1$ . The value of  $\theta_1$  is  $\alpha$ ,  $\theta_2$  is the balance of  $u_0$ minus  $\alpha$  and  $\theta_3$  is the balance of  $u_1$ , where  $\theta_1$  is the output used by HTLC. HTLC stipulates that once  $u_1$  provides a preimage of x such that  $y = \mathcal{H}(x)$ , then  $u_1$  can take the coins, or return them to  $u_0$  if the timeout after  $n \cdot T$  has expired. Then  $u_1$  repeats this step for her right neighbor  $u_2$ , again using y but decreasing time, which is (n-1)T. Repeat this step until the receiver  $u_n$  is reached with a timeout of T. This process is called the setup phase.

During the *open phase*, the receiver  $u_n$  can present r (the secret value of giving coins to  $u_n$  requested in HTLC) to her left neighbor  $u_{n-1}$ . After that, both parties agree to update their channel to a new state off-chain, and the balance of  $u_n$ will increased  $\alpha$  coins, or  $u_n$  can publish the state on-chain and a transaction with witness r spending the money from the HTLC to itself. The other intermediate users use r to continue the process,  $u_i$  reveals the secret r to its left neighbor  $u_{i-1}$ and opens the HTLC. But for this process, enough time needs to be reserved for  $u_{i-1}$  to ask her left neighbor for her coins, otherwise,  $u_i$  can claim the money of HTLC by spending the HTLC on-chain at the last possible moment, due to blockchain latency, user  $u_{i-1}$  will notice that too late and will no longer be able to claim HTLC money from  $u_{i-2}$ . This is the reason of time-locks on HTLC are interleaved, i.e. increasing from right to left.

According to the previously mentioned, MHPs done using HTLC requires *setup phase* and *open phase* two rounds of paired sequential communication, and its collateral lock time is linearly with the path length. As mentioned in [4], such a setting may trigger a griefing attack. Secondly, in MHPs, in order to incentivize the intermediary to participate in helping the sender and receiver complete the payment, an additional fee must be given to the intermediary at each payment. A wormhole attack [5] allows two colluding users to steal their fees by skipping honest intermediary in payments.

Blize. Blize [6] improves MHPs with a transaction which acts as a global event and a pay-unless-revoke paradigm. On the basis of ensuring security when malicious intermediaries exist, it only requires one round of communication through the path and constant collateral lock time. Specifically, sender  $u_0$  creates a unique global transaction emphEnableRefund, denoted by  $TX_{er}$ . If all channels from  $u_0$  to receiver  $u_n$  are successfully updated,  $u_n$  will send a confirmation to  $u_0$ ,

and coins will naturally be paid to  $u_n$  through these updated channels. If any channel update fails (e.g. an intermediary offline),  $u_0$  will publish  $TX_{er}$  to the blockchain before the preset time T to trigger all refunds. To achieve this, each party  $u_i$  for  $i \in [0, n-1]$  creates an output of  $\aleph$  that is spendable in two ways: 1) $u_{i+1}$  claim it after time T, or 2) if  $TX_{er}$  is on the blockchain before time T, the coins can be returned to  $u_i$ . Thora. The same idea of global transaction is applied in Thora [7], but it proceeds logic is reversed of Blize, which is considered revoke-unless-pay paradigm. Thora supports multiple senders and receivers that do not need to be connected to each other, breaking the path-based topology, and complete atomic updates of arbitrary channels. In this Protocol, each receiver creates her own  $TX_{ep}$ , the global transaction Enable Payment, each  $TX_{ep}$  has outputs to all receivers. All receivers send their  $TX_{ep}$  to all other parties, and this time each sender creates one  $TX_p$  per  $TX_{ep}$ . Then, if all channels are updated successfully, the senders can transfer coins to the receivers. If some transfer fails, the receivers can post  $TX_{ep}$  on the chain and force all payments. This allows 1) the sender to return her coins if at least one channel fails to execute. All refunds possible only if a timeout T (a preset parameter) expires, so all senders can refund their coins if the coins have not been spent by the receivers after T, and 2) if all payments are successful, the receiver to claim her coins. For each channel, the sender updates the channel and creates a  $TX_p$ , which transaction can transfers coins to the receiver only after  $TX_{ep}$  appeared on the blockchaina before time T. If at least one receiver does not receive the coins(channel fails to execute the paymet),  $TX_{ep}$  will be triggered, and all payment transactions will be enforced before time T.

#### III. SOLUTION OVERVIEW

In this section, we present our key idea.

## A. Security and privacy goals

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.

## 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. CONSTRUTION

#### 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

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.

#### VI. EVALUATION

The implementtion and evaluation.

VII. DISCUSSION

Some arguements

## VIII. CONCLUTION

Conclude the paper.

#### REFERENCES

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