Foundations of Blockchain

Scaling Blockchains: the Lightning Network

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Scaling Blockchains

On-chain versus Off-chain

- A payment is on-chain if it is recorded as a transaction on the blockchain;
- Off-chain payments are not visible in the underlying blockchain. Usually, these payments are privately exchanged between the involved parties.

Exchanging payments on-chain requires submitting a transaction and waiting its inclusion in a block. However, blockchains have limited throughput performance:

- Bitcoin: 7 transactions per second (TPS), a block every 10 min;
- Ethereum: 12–15 TPS, a block every 12 s;
- Algorand: 8–12 TPS (but theoretically, up to 7500 TPS), a new block every 3.9 s;
- Different factors can affect these numbers (e.g., block size, fees, consensus).

To mitigate the performance bottleneck, many approaches have been proposed:

- **DAG**-based blockchains;
- **Sharding technique**: splits transactions into shards, which are processed in parallel; however, it is hard to achieve consensus across shards;
- Layer-2 protocols: process certain transactions outside of the main chain, but the consensus of theses transactions relies on a parent chain;
- **Sidechain** technique: separate (auxiliary) blockchain that processes transactions individually. It has its own consensus algorithm. It interacts with the main chain.

Scaling Blockchains (2)

- Heterogeneous structure: uses different types of block (e.g., *keyblocks* to conduct consensus; *microblocks* to vote for leaders and carry transactions).
- **Hybrid consensus**: 2+ consensus protocols, e.g., to smoothly switch between optimistic conditions (PBFT) and the worst-case conditions (PoW).

Wang et al, "SoK: DAG-based Blockchain Systems". ACM Comput. Surv. 55(12), art. 261 (2023).

Scaling Blockchains

DAG-based Blockchains

Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)-based Blockchains:

- Blockchains maintain transactions/blocks in one single chain.
 - · Concurrent transactions/blocks compete for one valid position each round.
 - Leading to slow confirmation.
- DAG-based blockchains structure transactions/blocks in the form of graph;
- They can improve **performance** by requiring less communication, computation, and storage overhead.



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Rough classifications of DAG-based Blockchains:

- Unit Representation:
 - 1. Requests are immediately handled whenever received;
 - 2. Requests packaged by powerful parties (e.g., miner, validator) and then disseminated;

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- Unit Representation:
 - 1. Requests are immediately handled whenever received;
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- Graph Topology:
 - 1. Divergence: units sparsely spread in unpredictable directions without predetermined orders;
 - 2. Parallel: units are maintained in the form of multiple (parallel) chains;
 - 3. Convergence: units are organized in a determined sequence or tend to converge in a determined sequence.

Wang et al., "SoK: DAG-based Blockchain Systems", ACM Comput Surv 55, 12, Art. 261, 2023.

	Divergence	Parallel	Convergence
	IOTA [21],	Nano [36], Caper [37], Vite [38], Chainweb [39],	Byteball [22],
1^{od}	Graphchain [40],	Hashgraph [41], DLattice [42], Aleph [43],	Haootia [44]
	Avalanche [45]	Jointgraph [46], Lachesis [47–51]	JHdag [26]
	(Type I)	(Type III)	(Type V)
	Spectre [23],	Prism [52], Blockmania [53], Blockclique [54],	GHOST [35], Inclusive [55],
ood	Phantom [56],	OHIE [57], Sphinx [58, 59], Eunomia [60],	CDAG [61], Conflux [62],
2	Meshcash [63]	DEXON [64], PARSEC [65]	StreamNet [66]
	(Type II)	(Type IV)	(Type VI)

DAG-based blockchain systems cannot improve the **performance**, **scalability**, **security**, **decentralization**, and **(strict) consistency** at the same time.



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- Bitcoin publicly records every transaction in a globally replicated ledger. Every transaction is seen, validated, and stored by every participating node;
- Once blocks are full, excess transactions are left to wait in a queue;
- Competition for fees can increase the cost of each transaction;
- Increase the block size limit implies utilization of more resources and may not completely solve the problem;
- Visa network processes (at peak) 40,000 TPS: Unlikely to scale a blockchain to validate the entire world's transactions in a decentralized way.

- Several efforts proposed to build payment channels aiming at processing the majority of transactions off-chain (e.g., [M+16][M+19][S+22]);
 - HTLC and multi-signatures used to bound layer-2 to layer-1;
 - Different approaches: payment channels, (optimistic and zero-knowledge) rollups;
 - Different abstractions: state channel, payment channel, payment channel hubs;
 - A survey on layer-2 protocols [G⁺23];
- The Lightning Network (LN) represents the most prominent solution for managing Payment Channel Networks (PCNs) [PD16]:
 - Several alternatives leverage the LN key ideas (e.g., Eclair¹, Raiden², Thunder³).

¹https://github.com/ACINQ/eclair ²http://raiden.network/ ³https://github.com/hlockchain/thu

³https://github.com/blockchain/thunder

- The Lightning Network (LN) is a second layer technology on top of Bitcoin.
- A matter of trust:
 - Cryptographic systems (like LN) allow to transact with people we do not trust;
 - This is not a trustless operation;
 - We still need trust in the used protocol (and its software implementation) that will result in fair outcomes;
 - Differently from traditional financial systems, cryptographic systems make trusted third parties unnecessary to ensure fair outcomes;

- The LN enables fast, secure, private, trustless, and permissionless payments:
 - Fast: Users can route payments to each other for low cost and in real time;
 - **Trustless:** Users who exchange value do not need to wait for block confirmations for payments;
 - Secure: Once a payment has completed, it is final and cannot be reversed.
 - **Privacy:** Payments are transmitted between pairs of nodes and are not visible to everyone, resulting in much greater privacy;
 - **Onion routing:** even the nodes involved in routing a payment are only directly aware of their predecessor and successor in the payment route;
 - **Resource-friendly:** Payments do not need to be stored permanently (fewer resources needed; hence, LN is cheaper);
 - **Safety:** LN uses real bitcoin, which is always in the possession and full control of the user.

Payment Channels

Payment Channel

- A payment channel is a financial relationship between two nodes;
- It allocates a **balance** of funds and is managed by a cryptographic protocol;
- The cryptographic protocol consists in a 2-of-2 multisignature address:
 - 2-of-2 multisignature address: both parties hold a share to spend funds;
 - The protocol prevents either channel partner from spending the funds unilaterally (i.e., to cheat);
- The channel partners negotiate a sequence of transactions that spend from this multisignature address;
 - Instead of recording these transactions on the blockchain, *parties hold these transactions unspent*;
 - The latest transaction defines how that balance is divided between the parties;
 - As a new transaction is negotiated, the previous ones are revoked (neither party can regress to a previous state).

- A payment on a payment channel is almost instant;
- If the channel is open, making a payment does not require the confirmation of Bitcoin blocks;
- · Payments made in a payment channel are only known to the involved parties;
- Opening and closing channels requires an on-chain transaction:
 - This incurs transaction fees;
 - It is more convenient to keep channels open as long as possible.

Funding Transaction

- One of the two channel partners will fund the payment channel by **sending bitcoin** to the 2-of-2 multisignature address;
- This transaction recorded on the Bitcoin blockchain;
 - The locking script (includes): 2 <PubKey1> <PubKey2> 2 CHECKMULTISIG;
 - Later, we will detail the content of the funding transaction;
- The funding transaction is public, but it is not obvious that it is a Lightning payment channel;
 - It is a **P2SH** (Pay-to-Script-Hash), whose address always starts with *3*;
- Channels are typically publicly announced by routing nodes that wish to forward payments (and earn from fees);
- Private channels (non-advertised) also exist;
 - e.g., by mobile nodes not participate in routing;

Funding Transaction



- open_channel and accept_channel exchange configuration values;
- funding_create creates the funding transaction, which is the signed by B; A requires B to sign also the refund transaction;



• When the funding transaction is confirmed on the blockchain, the parties exchange *funding_lock*

After the funding transaction, commitment transactions are created each time the channel balance changes;

With a signed commitment transaction, each partner gives the other the ability to get his funds back;





How to prevent publishing a previous commitment transaction?

- Commitment transactions are constructed so that if an old one is transmitted, the cheater can be punished.
- The penalty consists in giving the cheated party an opportunity to claim the balance of the cheater.

- The commitment transaction includes:
 - a timelock delay: which prevents the owner from spending it immediately;
 - a revocation secret: which allows the other party to by-passing the timelock.
- The two channel partners hold two different variations of this transaction:



- With a new commitment transaction, the previous revocation secret is revealed;
- If a party cheats, the other can immediately publish a penalty transaction to get its funds as well as the cheater's funds;



Closing a Channel

- Channel partners prefer not to close a channel (e.g., future use, avoid fees);
- However, sometimes it is necessary:
 - To reduce the balance held on Lightning channels (e.g., for security reasons);
 - The channel partner becomes unresponsive or not well-connected;
 - The channel partner has breached the protocol (i.e., closing is needed to protect funds);
- A mutual closing occurs by publishing a (co-signed) closing transaction with the last balance of the channel (it has no timelock);
 - Fees are paid by who opened the channel;



- A forced closing occurs by publishing the last commitment transaction;
- Forced closing is not recommended unless strictly necessary;
- Forced closing has higher fees:
 - The commitment transaction includes (up to five times) higher fee than the fee estimators suggest at the time the commitment transaction is negotiated;
 - The transaction includes additional outputs (e.g., time-lock, revocation hash);
 - Any pending routing attempts will have to be resolved on-chain;

Routing

- The LN uses a gossip protocol to distribute public information about channels;
 - Not all information about a channel is propagated, to preserve privacy and scalability;
 - Propagated: capacity, channels partners;
 - Not propagated: balance, precise topology, single payments;
- When several participants have channels, payments can also be **forwarded** from channel to channel;
- The cryptographic protocol protects the entire network of participants:
 - They can forward payments without trusting any of the other participants;



- LN defines a fairness protocol, with the following properties:
 - Trustless operation: participants do not need to trust each other;
 - Atomicity: Either the payment is fully executed or it fails (everyone is refunded);
 - **Multihop:** The security extends end to end for payments routed through multiple payment channels.
 - (Optional) **Multipart Payments:** ability to split payments into multiple parts while maintaining atomicity
- Hash time-locked contract (HTLC):
 - Uses a cryptographic hash algorithm to commit to a randomly generated secret;
 - · Conditions a payments to the knowledge of a value;
 - Uses a hash preimage as the secret that unlocks a payment;
 - Returns funds on timelock expiration;
- Alternative: Point Time-Locked Contract (PTLC):
 - Leverages properties of elliptic curves.



















- As HTLCs are extended from payer to payee, the time-locked refund clause in each HTLC has a **different time-lock value**;
- To ensure an orderly unwinding of a payment that fails, each hop needs to wait a bit less for their refund.
- For example, Alice sets the refund timelock to a block height of +500 blocks; Bob would then set the timelock to current + 450 blocks; Chan to current + 400 blocks.
- The decrementing timelock prevents race conditions and ensures the HTLC chain is unwound backward, from the destination toward the origin.

HTLC and Commitment Transaction

When B receives an HTLC from A, he creates a new commitment transaction with the same two outputs as before and a **new** one representing the HTLC;



Multiple HTLCs in a Commitment Transaction

- A and B can have many HTLCs across a single channel;
- Each HTLC is added to the transaction as an **additional output**;
- At most 483 (pending) HTLCs are allowed on a channel;
 - This limit is imposed by the maximum Bitcoin transaction size;
- When the HTLC **preimage** is revealed and the payment is executed correctly, both A and B can remove the HTLC from the commitment transactions and update their channel balances.

Multiple HTLCs in a Commitment Transaction



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Routing

Source-based Path Finding

- The exact channel balances of every channel is unknown;
- Multiple path-finding and routing algorithms can coexist on the LN;
 - Path Finding: the process of finding and choosing a contiguous path made of payment channels that connects sender A to recipient B.
 - Routing: the active process of sending a payment on a path, which involves the cooperation of all the intermediary nodes along that path.
- Source-based path-finding is successful at the current scale of LN;
 - The path-finding strategy currently implemented is to **iteratively try** paths until one is found that has enough liquidity to forward the payment.
 - This does not necessarily result in the path with the lowest fees;
 - The probing is done by the Lightning node or wallet (hence, it is *not directly seen* by the user).

Path Finding

LN implementations use a very simple path-finding mechanism:

- 1. Create a **channel graph** from announcements and updates containing the capacity of each channel;
- 2. Filter the graph, ignoring any channels with insufficient capacity for the amount we want to send;
 - · Channels capacity can only be estimated (probabilistic approach);
- 3. Find paths connecting the sender to the recipient;
- 4. Order the paths by some weight;
- 5. Trial-and-error loop: Try each path in order until payment succeeds;
- 6. Optionally use the HTLC failure returns to update the channel graph, reducing uncertainty;

Path Finding: Definition of Best Path

- Different criteria for defining the *best* path:
 - e.g., with enough liquidity, with low fees, with short timelocks, compliant to specific policies.
- A payment channel is characterized by:
 - **Capacity**: the aggregate amount of satoshis funded with the funding transaction (max amount of value held in the channel). Announced by the gossip protocol.
 - **Balance**: amount of satoshis held by each channel partner that can be sent to the other channel partner;
 - Liquidity: portion of the balance that can actually be sent across the channel in one direction (i.e., balance minus reserve and pending HTLCs);
- Uncertainty of balances: We can use failed HTLCs returned from our payment attempts to update our liquidity estimate and reduce uncertainty.

Path Finding and Payment Delivery

- Well-known problem: computing the shortest path!
 - Fee and timelock information are important for successfully routing the payment;
 - The process of calculating fees happens from the recipient to the sender backward;
 - Dijkstra or A* can be used to search for a path, using fees, estimated liquidity, and timelock delta as a cost function for each hop.
- The sender's node starts the trial-and-error loop by constructing the HTLCs, building the onion, and attempting delivery of the payment.
 - A successful result;
 - An error: the payment can be retried via a different path by updating the graph;
 - No response: no retry possible to avoid a double payment.

Onion Routing

- LN uses an onion routing protocol (SPHINX Mix Format);
- An intermediary node can **only** see on which channel it received an onion and on which channel to forward the onion.
 - Onions can have up to around 26 hops;
 - The onions are small enough to fit into a single TCP/IP packet;
 - The onions are constructed such that they will always have the same length independent of the position of the processing node along the path.
- Onions have an HMAC at each layer so that manipulations of onions are prevented;
 - Onion encrypted using different ephemeral encryption keys for every hop;
- Errors can be sent back to the original sender (using onion routing).

	IP Routing	Onion Routing
Туре	Best effort	Source based
Data format	Open headers	Encrypted headers
Sender / Recipient	Known to routing nodes	Unknow to routing nodes
Address Space	logical-hierarchical overlay net-	fully decentralized p2p network
	work	
Edge weights	Mostly static (bandwidth)	Highly dynamic (fees, balances)
Topology info propagation	Network can react to change (e.g.,	Gossip is slow / noisy to propagate
	BGP)	all relevant information
DoS Attacks	Via spoofing can be mitigated by	Anyone can send/delay onions. Im-
	ISPs	possible to mitigate!
Path finding	Collaboratively by the network	Achieved by sender or 3rd party
		service

Concluding Remarks

Main Differences between LN and Bitcoin

- In LN, the recipient of a payment creates an invoice (address is not enough):
 - An invoice is a payment instruction with a payment hash (hash of a random number), a recipient, an amount, and an optional text description;
 - An invoice can **only be used once**;
- A payment results in a **channel balance update** (no UTXOs consumption);
 - Portions of balance can be sent back and forth within the channel;
 - · Payments are immediate and almost completely private;
 - A user can only send as much bitcoin as currently exists on his side of a channel;
- The payment recipient needs to be **online** (synchronous payment).
- Blockchain **confirmations** only matter for opening and closing channels;
- Users pay **fees** for routing payments through channels: a minimum base fee plus a fee rate proportional to the payment value;

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