# TRAIN: A Trustless and Permissionless Intent-Based Bridging Protocol

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we introduce TRAIN (**TR**ustless Atomic **IN**tents), a trustless and permissionless bridging protocol designed to scale securely across an unlimited number of blockchains. TRAIN achieves this with **PreHTLC**, an advanced version of HTLC optimized for intent-based cross-chain bridging, featuring Local Verification and a Reward/Slash mechanism.

### 1 Fundamentals of Atomic Swaps

Atomic swaps rely on two core mechanisms to ensure trustless and secure asset transfers across different blockchains:

**Hashlock.** A hashlock is a cryptographic feature in a smart contract where funds are locked using the hash of a secret value. To unlock the funds, the hash preimage (the original secret value) must be revealed. This ensures that only the holder of the correct secret can unlock the funds, thereby guaranteeing secure operation.

**Timelock.** A timelock is a condition in a smart contract that specifies a fixed time frame within which a particular action must be completed. For example, in an atomic swap, if the party meant to claim the funds fails to do so within the allotted time, the contract treats the action as canceled and returns the locked assets to their original owner. This prevents assets from becoming indefinitely locked and provides a failsafe in case one party becomes unresponsive.

### 2 Classic Atomic Swaps with HTLC

Hashed timelock Contracts (HTLCs) enable peer-to-peer asset exchanges between different blockchains without direct interoperability. The general process is as follows:



Figure 1: HTLC Sequence Flow

#### 1. Party 1 Lock:

- Party 1 generates a secret S.
- Computes the hashlock = HASH(S).
- Creates an HTLC with a timelock to lock funds for Party 2 on the source chain.

#### 2. Party 2 Lock:

- Party 2 detects Party 1's HTLC.
- Party 2 locks funds with timelock for Party 1 on the destination chain using the same hashlock.

#### 3. Party 1 Unlock:

- Party 1 detects Party 2's HTLC.
- Party 1 claims funds on the destination chain by revealing S.

#### 4. Party 2 Unlock:

- Party 2 detects S on-chain.
- Uses  ${\tt S}$  to claim funds on the source chain.

Despite the inherent security of HTLCs, they face three main practical limitations:

- Secret Management: Party 1 must secure and manage the secret S until Party 2 commits.
- Claim Transaction Fees: Party 1 may not have funds on the destination chain to pay transaction fees for claiming assets.
- Liveness Issues: If Party 2 fails to act, the swap stalls; no other entity can step in to complete the transaction.

## 3 Atomic Swaps with PreHTLC

To address these limitations, we propose PreHTLC, which extends the traditional HTLC model. In the PreHTLC model, we assume the exchange takes place between the User and the Solver. The User submits their intent with PreHTLC (without a hashlock), and the Solver is responsible for managing the secret and releasing the funds.



Figure 2: PreHTLC Sequence Flow

#### 1. User Commit:

- The User creates a PreHTLC, committing funds to a chosen Solver (or a set of Solvers) on the source chain.
- This commitment has no hashlock, only a timelock.

- 2. Solver Lock:
  - The Solver detects this PreHTLC.
  - The Solver generates a random secret S.
  - Computes the hashlock = HASH(S).
  - Locks funds (minus the Solver fee) for the User on the destination chain.

#### 3. User AddLock:

- The User observes the Solver's transaction on the destination chain.
- Retrieves the hashlock.
- Converts their PreHTLC into a standard HTLC (using the hashlock) on the source chain and confirms the final Solver if multiple Solvers were specified during the commitment.

#### 4. Unlocks:

- The Solver releases the User's funds on the destination chain by revealing S.
- The Solver then claims its funds on the source chain using S.

The Liveness Issue. PreHTLCs significantly reduce liveness issues by:

- Delegating secret management to the **Solver** makes the entire transaction flow fully recoverable from on-chain data for the **User**.
- Allowing Users to commit to multiple Solvers instead of a single party that may become inactive, enabling any Solver to step in if needed.

However, the User must still be online long enough to transmit the hashlock from the destination network back to the source network.

**Delegating Secret Management.** Delegating secret management to the Solver does not introduce additional trust assumptions. When the Solver reveals the secret to claim funds on the source network, the secret becomes public. As a result, any party can use it to unlock the User's funds on the destination network. To incentivize the release of User funds, the protocol reserves a portion of the total bridging fee as a reward for performing this task.

#### 3.1 Local Verification

During Step 3, the dApp must verify the Solver's transaction on the destination chain. This verification can be done in two ways:

- Light Client (e.g., Helios): If available, the dApp directly validates the transaction via the light client.
- Multiple RPC Endpoints: If a light client is unavailable, the dApp queries multiple RPC providers or a user-specified node. After confirming the state's integrity, it retrieves the hashlock.

#### Security Considerations

Security relies on retrieving the correct hashlock from the destination chain. The worst-case scenario occurs when all of the following are true simultaneously:

- No light client is available for the destination chain.
- Only a single RPC provider is accessible.
- This single RPC provider is operated by the same Solver.

Wallets, dApps, and users have the freedom to verify the hashlock however they choose. The protocol does not enforce any specific verification method. In the worst-case scenario, where a user has to manually verify the state, the trustless nature of the exchange is still preserved. If the user is not convinced, they do not have to confirm the swap—they can simply cancel it.

#### 3.2 Reward/Slash Mechanism

In PreHTLC-based atomic swaps, the Solver is responsible for handling the User's claim transaction. However, a lazy Solver might neglect to release the User's funds even after unlocking their assets. To prevent this:

- The Solver locks an additional reward amount when committing funds to the User.
- If the Solver successfully completes the User's transfer, that reward is returned to the Solver.
- If the Solver fails to act, any party (including the User) can step in, release the User's funds, and claim the Solver's reward as compensation.

This approach creates a strong economic incentive for **Solvers** to remain diligent and active.

#### 3.3 Multi-hop Transactions

TRAIN allows the same hashlock to be reused across multiple networks and Solvers within a single bridging operation. Once S is revealed, all linked HTLCs in all networks can be unlocked.

**Example** The User wants to move assets from Chain A to Chain C, but there is no single Solver covering both chains. Two Solvers are available: Solver(AB) (Chain A-B) and Solver(BC) (Chain B-C).

- 1. User Commit: User locks assets in a PreHTLC with Solver(AB) on Chain A.
- 2. Solver(AB) Commit: Solver(AB) locks assets in a PreHTLC for Solver(BC) on Chain B.
- 3. Solver(BC) Lock: Solver(BC) locks funds for the User on Chain C (standard HTLC).
- 4. User, Solver(AB) AddLock:
  - The User detects the final lock on Chain C, retrieves the hashlock, and upgrades the PreHTLC on Chain A to a full HTLC.

- Solver(AB) upgrades the PreHTLC on Chain B to an HTLC.
- 5. Unlocks:
  - Solver(BC) reveals S on Chain C to release funds to the User.
  - Solver(BC) then claims its funds on Chain B.
  - Solver(AB) claims its funds on Chain A.

This procedure generalizes to any number of hops. Regardless of the hop count, the User needs only two source-chain transactions. In most cases, two Solvers will be sufficient, as popular networks (e.g., Ethereum) can act as an intermediate hub.

### 4 Security

TRAIN enforces strict security properties to ensure trustless, permissionless, and verifiable crosschain transfers:

- Homogeneous Security: Cryptographic security remains uniform for all permissionless participants, even as new networks or Solvers join.
- **Battle-Tested Foundation**: TRAIN's core (atomic swaps with HTLC) has been successfully deployed in the Lightning Network and other production environments.
- **No Centralized Pools**: The protocol avoids large contract-held asset pools, significantly reducing the incentives for attacks.
- Immutable Contracts: Contracts are immutable, mitigating upgrade-related risks and preserving stability over time.
- **Simplicity**: **PreHTLC** contracts are streamlined (typically around 200 lines of code), reducing potential vulnerabilities.

### 5 Scalability

TRAIN's permissionless design allows any blockchain to be added without centralized coordination. The typical steps:

- 1. Contract Implementation: Implement PreHTLC standards on the target network.
- 2. Solver Agent Implementation: If no existing implementation is available (e.g., a generic EVM library), create a Solver Agent Chain Library for the new network to interact with PreHTLC contracts.
- 3. Run a Solver: Operate a Solver that bridges the new chain with at least one widely connected chain.
- 4. **dApp Implementation**: If needed, develop a Client Chain Library that manages wallet interactions and event subscriptions.

5. **dApp Deployment**: Add the new network to an existing popular bridge UI, or fork/build your own.

Once these steps are completed, users can transfer assets to and from the newly added network without gatekeepers.

### 6 Conclusion

By integrating an intent/Solver-based framework with PreHTLCs and local verification, the TRAIN protocol achieves:

- Near-Immediate Settlement: Approximately 30-second completion time for cross-chain transfers, approximated as  $2 \times \text{src\_block\_time} + 2 \times \text{dst\_block\_time}$ .
- Full Control: Users maintain total custody of their assets; neither they nor the Solvers rely on external actors.
- Seamless Onboarding: Any new blockchain network can be integrated permissionlessly, without requiring approval from any party.

This model provides a highly scalable, trustless framework for cross-chain asset transfers, eliminating the need for third-party security mechanisms.

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