MantaPay Protocol Specification

v1.0.0

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Abstract

MantaPay is an implementation of a decentralized anonymous payment scheme based on the Mantapap protocol outlined in the original Manta whitepaper.

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1 Introduction

MantaPay aims to solve the long-standing privacy problems facing cryptocurrencies in the Web3 age. At its heart, it uses various cryptographic constructions including NIZK (non-interactive zero knowledge proof) systems to ensure user privacy from first principles.

Protocol	Cryptographic Primitives	Consensus	Layer	Multi-Asset
ZCash (Sapling)	NIZK	PoW	1	X
Monero	RingCT/NIZK	PoW	1	Х
Tornado Cash (Nova)	NIZK	Х	2	✓
MantaPay 1.0.0	NIZK	PoS	1	✓

Table 1: Comparison of MantaPay with previous constructions

2 Notation

The following notation is used throughout this specification:

- Type is the type of types¹.
- If x:T then x is a value and T is a type, denoted T: Type, and we say that x has type T.
- Bool is the type of booleans with values True and False.
- For any types $A: \mathsf{Type}$ and $B: \mathsf{Type}$ we denote the type of functions from A to B as $A \to B: \mathsf{Type}$.
- For any types A: Type and B: Type we denote the *product type* over A and B as $A \times B$: Type with constructor $(-,-):A \to (B \to A \times B)$. Depending on context, we may omit the constructor and inline the pair into another constructor/destructor. For example, if $f:A \times B \to C$ we can denote f((a,b)) as f(a,b) to reduce the number of parentheses.
- For any type T: Type, we define $\mathsf{Option}(T)$: Type as the inductive type with constructors:

 $\begin{aligned} &\mathsf{None}:\mathsf{Option}\langle T\rangle\\ &\mathsf{Some}:T\to\mathsf{Option}\langle T\rangle \end{aligned}$

- We denote the type of finite sets over a type $T: \mathsf{Type}$ as $\mathsf{FinSet}\langle T \rangle : \mathsf{Type}$. The membership predicate for a value x:T in a finite set $S: \mathsf{FinSet}(T)$ is denoted $x \in S$.
- We denote the type of finite ordered sets over a type T: Type as List $\langle T \rangle$: Type. This can either be defined by an inductive type or as a $\mathsf{FinSet}(T)$ with a fixed ordering. We denote the constructor for a list as $[\dots]$ for an arbitrary set of elements.
- We denote the type of distributions over a type T: Type as $\mathfrak{D}\langle T \rangle$: Type. A value x sampled from $\mathfrak{D}\langle T \rangle$ is denoted $x \sim \mathfrak{D}\langle T \rangle$ and the fact that the value x belongs to the range of $\mathfrak{D}\langle T \rangle$ is denoted $x \in \mathfrak{D}\langle T \rangle$. So namely, $y \in \{x \mid x \sim \mathfrak{D}\langle T \rangle\} \leftrightarrow y \in \mathfrak{D}\langle T \rangle$.
- We denote the equality predicate as $(-=-): T \times T \to \mathsf{Type}$ and the equality function as $\mathsf{eq}: T \times T \to \mathsf{Bool}$ whenever they exist.
- Depending on the context, the notation $|\cdot|$ denotes either the absolute value of a quantity, the length of a list, the number of characters in a string, or the cardinality of a set.

3 Concepts

3.1 Assets

The Asset is the fundamental currency object in the MantaPay protocol. An asset a: Asset is a tuple

$$a = (a.\mathsf{id}, a.\mathsf{value}) : \mathsf{AssetId} \times \mathsf{AssetValue}$$

¹By type of types, we mean the type of first-level types in some family of type universes. Discussion of the type theory necessary to make these notions rigorous is beyond the scope of this paper.

where the AssetId encodes the type of currency stored in a and the AssetValue encodes how many units of that currency are stored in a. MantaPay is a decentralized anonymous payment protocol which facilitiates the private ownership and private transfer of Asset objects.

Whenever an Asset is being used in a public setting, we simply refer to it as an Asset, but when the AssetId and/or AssetValue of a particular Asset is meant to be hidden from public view, we refer to the Asset as either secret, private, hidden, or shielded.

Assets are the basic building-blocks of transactions which consume a set of input Assets and produce a set of transformed output Assets. To preserve the economic value stored in Assets, the sum of the input AssetValues must balance the sum of the output AssetValues, and all assets in a single transaction must have the same AssetId². This is called a balanced transfer: no AssetValue is created or destroyed in the process. The MantaPay protocol uses a distributed algorithm called Transfer to perform balanced transfers and ensure that they are valid.

3.2 Addresses

In order for MantaPay participants to receive Assets via the Transfer protocol, they create a *shielded addresses* which they use as identifiers to represent them on the ledger.

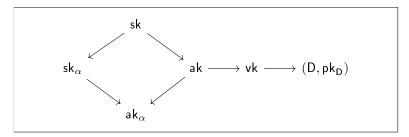


Figure 1: Key Schedule for MantaPay.

MantaPay uses four kinds of keys all derived from a base secret, spending key sk, which give the following kinds of privileged access in the protocol:

- Shielded Address (send): Access to the shielded address (D, pkD) gives the user the right to send Assets to the owner of the associated sk. The diversifier D allows the owner of a given sk key to generate many shielded addresses with the same backing spend authority.
- Viewing Key (view): Access to the viewing key vk gives the user the right to view all transactions for the owner of the associated sk.
- Proof Authorization Key (prove): Proof authorization key ak gives the user the right to build the transaction proof on behalf of the owner of sk. In the cases of delegating proof generation, i.e. using hardware wallet to control the sk or signing associated data in transparent UTXOs, the owner of the secret key generates a randomizer α and sends it to the prover which generates the proof. The owner then signs the transaction against ak_{α} with their randomized key sk_{α} which proves that they have knowledge of sk.
- **Spending Key** (spend): Access to the spending key sk gives total control over the assets owned by this secret, including spending, proof generation, and viewing.

Participants in MantaPay are represented by their addresses, but they are not unique representations, since one participant may have access to more than one secret key. See § 4.2 for more information on how these keys are constructed and used for spending, proving, viewing, and receiving.

3.3 Ledger

We model a blockchain as a byzantine fault tolerance replicated state machine with append only state, a.k.a ledger. When interacting with the blockchain, we call the entity who initiates the interaction (e.g., sending a transfer request) the user; the entity who verifies the interaction and logs it into the blockchain the validator (also known as miner in other contents). Users interact with the blockchain by sending amendment requests to the ledger. The amendment is appended to the database once validators approve the request. For simplicity, we assume 1) the ledger is synchronized, and the block finality is instant; 2) the validators are trusted for

²It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss transactions with inputs and outputs that feature different Assetlds, like those that would be featured in a decentralized anonymous exchange.

liveness and completeness. The underlying consensus protocol that validators employ is indeed orthogonal to this paper. What is also of out the scope of this paper is the governance token for the underlying blockchain. We nonetheless assume that the senders of our protocol holds enough governance tokens to send the transactions.

More specifically, MantaPay's ledger state Ledger consists of two parts: the public ledger as PublicAssetLedger, and the shielded asset pool as ShieldedAssetPool.

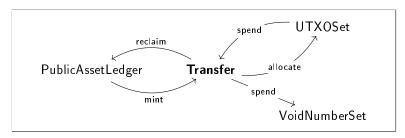


Figure 2: Life cycle of an Asset.

The Shielded Asset Pool is made up of three parts that are used to enforce the balanced transfer of Private Assets among anonymous participants:

- 1. § 3.3.1 UTXOSet: The UTXOSet is a collection of ownership claims to subsets of the ShieldedAssetPool (called UTXOs), each one referring to an allocated Private Asset transferred to a participant of the protocol.
- 2. § 3.3.2 EncryptedNotes: For every UTXO there is a matching EncryptedNote which contains information necessary to spend the Private Asset, which can be used to provably reconstruct the UTXO convincing the Ledger of unique ownership. The EncryptedNote can only be decrypted by the recipient of the Private Asset or the designated viewer of the UTXO, specifically, the correct viewing key vk. See § 3.2 for more.
- 3. § 3.3.3 VoidNumberSet: The VoidNumberSet is a collection of commitments, like UTXOs, but which track the *spent state* of a Private Asset and are used to prove to the Ledger that a Private Asset is spent *exactly one time*.

The operation of these different parts of the ShieldedAssetPool is elaborated in the following subsections.

3.3.1 UTXOs and the UTXOSet

An unspent transaction output, or UTXO for short, represents a claim to the output of a balanced transfer which has otherwise not yet been spent. Every balanced transfer can produce some number of public outputs, represented by Assets, and/or private outputs, represented by UTXOs, and these UTXOs are stored in the UTXOSet of the ShieldedAssetPool. A UTXO can only be claimed by the participant who owns the underlying Private Asset, where ownership means knowledge of the correct spending key and the Transfer protocol requires that all inputs to a balanced transfer prove that they own a UTXO which the ShieldedAssetPool has already seen in the past. The UTXOSet is append-only since it represents the past state of unspent Private Assets. UTXOs can only be added to the UTXOSet as outputs in the execution of a Transfer which the Ledger checks for correctness.

3.3.2 EncryptedNotes

In order to find out what Private Asset a UTXO is connected to, every UTXO comes with an associated EncryptedNote which stores two pieces of information, the underlying (AssetId, AssetValue), and an ephemeral public key, a value which allows the new owner of the Private Asset to reconstruct the UTXO. Being able to provably reconstruct a correct UTXO is a prerequisite to ownership and the ability to spend the Private Asset in the future. Once a participant spends a Private Asset that they can decrypt, they build a new EncryptedNote for the next participant that they sent their Private Assets to, so that they can then spend it, and so on. This is called the in-band secret distribution.

3.3.3 VoidNumbers and the VoidNumberSet

Once the ability to spend a Private Asset is extracted from a (UTXO, EncryptedNote) pair, the ShieldedAssetPool requires another commitment in order to spend the Private Asset, transfering it to another participant. This commitment, called the VoidNumber, represents the revocation of the right to spend the Private Asset in the future, and ensures that the same Private Asset cannot be spent twice. Like the UTXOSet, the VoidNumberSet is append-only since it represents the past state of spent Private Assets. VoidNumbers can only be added to the VoidNumberSet as inputs in the execution of a Transfer which the Ledger checks for correctness.

4 Abstract Protocol

4.1 Abstract Cryptographic Schemes

In the following section, we outline the formal specifications for all of the *cryptographic schemes* used in the MantaPay protocol.

Definition 4.1.1 (Hash Function). A hash function HASH is defined by the schema:

Input : Type Output : Type

 $\mathsf{hash}:\mathsf{Input}\to\mathsf{Output}$

with the following properties:

- Collision Resistance: It is infeasible to find a, b: Input such that $a \neq b$ and $\mathsf{hash}(a) = \mathsf{hash}(b)$.
- Pre-Image Resistance: Given y: Output, it is infeasible to find an x: Input such that hash(x) = y.
- Second Pre-Image Resistance: Given a: Input, it is infeasible to find another b: Input such that $a \neq b$ and $\mathsf{hash}(a) = \mathsf{hash}(b)$.

We can also ask that a hash function be *binding* or *hiding* as in the below *Commitment Scheme* definition if we partition the Input space into a separate Randomness and Input space.

Notation: For convenience, we may refer to $\mathsf{HASH}.\mathsf{hash}(x)$ by $\mathsf{HASH}(x)$.

Definition 4.1.2 (Commitment Scheme). A commitment scheme COM is defined by the schema:

Input : Type
Output : Type

Randomness: Type

 $RandomnessDistribution : \mathfrak{D}\langle Randomness\rangle$

 $commit : Randomness \times Input \rightarrow Output$

with the following properties:

- **Binding**: It is infeasible to find an x, y: Input and r, s: Randomness such that $x \neq y$ and commit(r, x) = commit(s, y).
- **Hiding**: For all x, y: Input, the distributions $\{\mathsf{commit}(r, x) | r \sim \mathsf{RandomnessDistribution}\}$ and $\{\mathsf{commit}(r, y) | r \sim \mathsf{RandomnessDistribution}\}$ are $\mathit{computationally indistinguishable}$.

Notation: For convenience, we may refer to COM.commit(r, x) by COM $_r(x)$.

Definition 4.1.3 (Key-Derivation Function). A key-derivation function KDF is defined by the schema:

Input : Type Output : Type

 $\mathsf{derive}:\mathsf{Input}\to\mathsf{Output}$

Notation: For convenience, we may refer to KDF.derive(x) by KDF(x).

Note: This abstract definition covers many different cases of key related functions. The security properties of a specific KDF are outlined wherever it's used.

Definition 4.1.4 (Randomizable Key-Derivation Function). A randomizable key derivation function rKDF extends a KDF scheme by adding the following randomization:

Randomness: Type

 $Randomness Distribution: \mathfrak{D}\langle Randomness\rangle$

 $\mathsf{rand}^I : \mathsf{Randomness} \times \mathsf{Input} \to \mathsf{Input}$

 $\mathsf{rand}^O : \mathsf{Randomness} \times \mathsf{Output} \to \mathsf{Output}$

where rand can be denoted without the type marker if the context is clear. The scheme has the following properties:

• Random Derivation: For all x: Input and α : Randomness, we have $\operatorname{rand}(\alpha, \operatorname{derive}(x)) = \operatorname{derive}(\operatorname{rand}(\alpha, x))$.

Notation: For convenience, we may refer to $rand(\alpha, x)$ by $rand_{\alpha}(x)$ and refer to $rand_{\alpha}(derive(x))$ by $derive_{\alpha}(x)$.

Definition 4.1.5 (Key-Agreement Scheme). A key-agreement scheme KA is defined by the schema:

SecretKey : Type PublicKey : Type SharedSecret : Type

 $SecretKeyDistribution : \mathfrak{D}\langle SecretKey\rangle$

 $\mathsf{derive}:\mathsf{SecretKey}\to\mathsf{PublicKey}$

 $agree : SecretKey \times PublicKey \rightarrow SharedSecret$

with the following properties:

• Agreement: For all sk_1, sk_2 : SecretKey, $agree(sk_1, derive(sk_2)) = agree(sk_2, derive(sk_1))$

- Passive Security: Even if an adversary eavedrops on the network communication, she cannot forge the agreed secret unless she knows how to find a preimage for derive which should be as hard as a known hard cryptography problem like the Diffie-Hellman Problem.
- Known-key Security: Suppose an adversary learned a shared secret from a past session, then, the adversary does not gain any additional information by combining the past key and public visible data for the purpose of deducing future shared secrets.
- No Key Control: The shared secrets are determined by both parties, neither party can control the outcome of the shared secret by restricting it to lie in some predetermined small set.

Notation: For convenience, we may refer to KA.agree(sk, D) as $KA.agree_D(sk)$ for all sk: SecretKey and D: PublicKey.

Definition 4.1.6 (Message Authentication Code). A message authentication code MAC is given by the schema:

 $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{SecretKey} : \mathsf{Type} \\ \mathsf{Message} : \mathsf{Type} \\ \mathsf{Tag} : \mathsf{Type} \\ \mathsf{sign} : \mathsf{SecretKey} \times \mathsf{Message} &\to \mathsf{Tag} \\ \mathsf{verify} : \mathsf{SecretKey} \times \mathsf{Message} \times \mathsf{Tag} &\to \mathsf{Bool} \end{aligned}$

with the following properties:

- Completeness: For all sk : SecretKey, m : Message, we have that <math>verify(sk, m, sign(sk, m)) = True.
- Unforgeability: For any key sk: SecretKey and efficient adversary A_{sk} with oracle access to sign(sk, -) the following probability is negligible:

$$\Pr\bigg[\mathsf{verify}(\mathsf{sk}, m, t) = \mathsf{True} \; \left| \begin{array}{l} (m, t) \sim \mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{sk}} \\ m \not\in \mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{A}_{\mathsf{sk}}) \end{array} \right]$$

where $\mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{A}_{sk})$ denotes the set of queries that \mathcal{A}_{sk} makes to the oracle during its strategy.

Note: In the case that the secret key should not be known by the verifier, one can use a signature scheme instead.

Definition 4.1.7 (Signature Scheme). A signature scheme SIG is defined by the schema:

 $\label{eq:SecretKey:Type} SecretKey: Type \\ Message: Type \\ Signature: Type \\ derive: SecretKey \rightarrow PublicKey \\ sign: SecretKey \times Message \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}\langle Signature \rangle \\ verify: PublicKey \times Message \times Signature \rightarrow Bool \\ \end{tabular}$

with the following properties:

• Completeness: For all sk : SecretKey, m : Message, and any signature $\sigma \sim \text{sign}(\text{sk}, m)$, we have that verify(derive(sk), m, σ) = True.

Definition 4.1.8 (Symmetric-Key Encryption Scheme). An authenticated one-time symmetric-key encryption scheme SYM is defined by the schema:

Key : Type Plaintext : Type Ciphertext : Type

 $\mathsf{encrypt} : \mathsf{Key} \times \mathsf{Plaintext} \to \mathsf{Ciphertext}$

 $\mathsf{decrypt} : \mathsf{Key} \times \mathsf{Ciphertext} \to \mathsf{Option} \langle \mathsf{Plaintext} \rangle$

with the following properties:

• Soundness: For all keys k: Key and plaintexts p: Plaintext, we have that

$$decrypt(k, encrypt(k, p)) = Some(p)$$

• Security Requirement: The symmetric-key encryption scheme must be one-time (INT-CTXT ∧ IND-CPA)-secure [3]. "One-time" means that an honest protocol participant will almost surely encrypt only one message with a given key; however, the adversary could make many adaptive chosen ciphertext queries for a given key.

Definition 4.1.9 (Message Digest Cipher). A message digest cipher MDC is the following scheme:

 $\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{SecretKey} : \mathsf{Type} \\ \mathbb{F} : \mathsf{Type} \\ H : \mathsf{SecretKey} \times \mathbb{F} \to \mathbb{F} \\ (- \oplus -) : \mathbb{F}^2 \to \mathbb{F} \\ (- \ominus -) : \mathbb{F}^2 \to \mathbb{F} \end{array}$

where H is a suitable Hash Function and \oplus and \ominus fulfill the following right-invertibility constraint for all $x, y : \mathbb{F}$

$$(x \oplus y) \ominus y = x$$

From these primitives we build a block-based encryption scheme. Given a plaintext $P = [P_0, P_1, \cdots, P_{k-1}] : \mathbb{F}^k$ and a key schedule $K = [K_0, K_1, \cdots, K_{k-1}] : \mathsf{SecretKey}^k$ we can encrypt to a ciphertext $C = [C_0, C_1, \cdots, C_{k-1}] : \mathbb{F}^k$ by sequentially applying the following for each round:

$$C_i := P_i \oplus H(K_i, C_{i-1}), i \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}$$

where C_{-1} : \mathbb{F} is some secret initialization value. For decryption we use the reverse operation

$$P_i := C_i \ominus H(K_i, C_{i-1})$$

Note: This encryption scheme is not *authenticating* in-and-of-itself and requires some strategy like Encrypt-then-MAC for authentication.

Definition 4.1.10 (Hybrid Public Key Encryption Scheme). A hybrid public key encryption scheme [1] HPKE is an encryption scheme made up of a symmetric-key encryption scheme SYM, a key-agreement scheme KA, and a key-derivation function KDF to convert from KA.SharedSecret to SYM.Key. We can define the following encryption and decryption algorithms:

• Encryption: Given an ephemeral secret key esk : KA.SecretKey, a public key pk : KA.PublicKey, and plaintext p: SYM.Plaintext, we produce the pair

```
m: \mathsf{KA.PublicKey} \times \mathsf{SYM.Ciphertext} := (\mathsf{KA.derive(esk)}, \mathsf{SYM.encrypt}(\mathsf{KDF}(\mathsf{KA.agree(esk,pk)}), p))
```

• Decryption: Given a secret key sk : KA.Secret Key, and an encrypted message, as above, m := (epk, c), we can decrypt m, producing the plaintext,

$$p: \mathsf{Option} \langle \mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Plaintext} \rangle := \mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{decrypt} \big(\mathsf{KDF} (\mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{agree}(\mathsf{sk},\mathsf{epk})), c \big)$$

which should decrypt successfully if the $\mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{PublicKey}$ that m was encrypted with is the derived key of $\mathsf{sk}:\mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{SecretKey}.$

Notation: We denote the above *encrypted message* type as $Encrypted (SYM.Plaintext) := KA.PublicKey \times SYM.Ciphertext, and the above two algorithms by$

```
\label{eq:constraint} \begin{split} &\mathsf{encrypt}: \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{SecretKey} \times \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{PublicKey} \times \mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Plaintext} \to \mathsf{Encrypted} \langle \mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Plaintext} \rangle \\ &\mathsf{decrypt}: \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{SecretKey} \times \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{PublicKey} \times \mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Ciphertext} \to \mathsf{Option} \langle \mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Plaintext} \rangle \end{split}
```

Security Properties: The HPKE constructed from KA, KDF, and SYM is required to be CCA2-secure and key-private [2].

Definition 4.1.11 (Authenticated Hybrid Public Key Encryption Scheme). An authenticated hybrid public encryption scheme aHPKE is an authenticated encryption scheme built off of an HPKE and a MAC used in the following way:

```
a \mathsf{HPKE}.\mathsf{encrypt} : \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{SecretKey} \times \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{PublicKey} \times \mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Plaintext} \to \mathsf{AuthEncrypted} \langle \mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Plaintext} \rangle where \mathsf{AuthEncrypted} \text{ is the encrypted note type:}
```

$$\mathsf{AuthEncrypted}\langle\mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Plaintext}\rangle := \mathsf{MAC}.\mathsf{Tag} \times \mathsf{Encrypted}\langle\mathsf{SYM}.\mathsf{Plaintext}\rangle$$

and the tag is computed by applying the MAC onto the encrypted note:

$$tag := MAC(sk, HPKE.encrypt(esk, pk))$$

Definition 4.1.12 (Dynamic Cryptographic Accumulator). A dynamic cryptographic accumulator DCA is defined by the schema:

```
\begin{array}{c} \text{Item}: \mathsf{Type} \\ \\ \mathsf{Output}: \mathsf{Type} \\ \\ \mathsf{Witness}: \mathsf{Type} \\ \\ \mathsf{State}: \mathsf{Type} \\ \\ \mathsf{current}: \mathsf{State} \to \mathsf{Output} \\ \\ \mathsf{insert}: \mathsf{Item} \times \mathsf{State} \to \mathsf{State} \\ \\ \mathsf{prove}: \mathsf{Item} \times \mathsf{State} \to \mathsf{Option} \langle \mathsf{Output} \times \mathsf{Witness} \rangle \\ \\ \mathsf{verify}: \mathsf{Item} \times \mathsf{Output} \times \mathsf{Witness} \to \mathsf{Bool} \\ \end{array}
```

with the following properties:

• Unique Accumulated Values: For any initial state s: State and any list of items I: List(Item) we can generate the sequence of states:

$$s_0 \vcentcolon= s, \quad s_{i+1} \vcentcolon= \mathsf{insert}(I_i, s_i)$$

Then, if we collect the accumulated values for these states, $z_i := \mathsf{current}(s_i)$, there should be exactly |I|-many unique values, one for each state update.

• **Provable Membership**: For any initial state s: State and any list of items I: List(Item) we can generate the sequences of states:

$$s_0 := s, \quad s_{i+1} := \mathsf{insert}(I_i, s_i)$$

Then, if we collect the states s_i into a set S, we have the following property for all $s \in S$ and $t \in I$,

$$Some(z, w) := prove(t, s), verify(t, z, w) = True$$

Definition 4.1.13 (Non-Interactive Zero-Knowledge Proving System). A non-interactive zero-knowledge proving system NIZK is defined by the schema:

Notation: We use the following notation for a NIZK:

• We write the Statement and ProvingKey arguments of prove in the superscript and subscript respectively,

$$\mathsf{prove}_{\mathsf{pk}}^P(x,w) := \mathsf{prove}(P,\mathsf{pk},x,w)$$

• We write the VerifyingKey argument of verify in the subscript,

$$\mathsf{verify}_{\mathsf{vk}}(x,\pi) := \mathsf{verify}(\mathsf{vk},x,\pi)$$

• We say that (x, w): PublicInput \times SecretInput has the property of being a satisfying input whenever

$$\mathsf{satisfying}_{\mathsf{pk}}^P(x,w) := \exists \pi : \mathsf{Proof}, \, \mathsf{Some}(\pi) \in \mathsf{prove}_{\mathsf{pk}}^P(x,w)$$

Every NIZK has the following properties for a fixed statement P: Statement and keys $(pk, vk) \sim keys(P)$:

- Completeness: For all (x, w): PublicInput × SecretInput, if satisfying $_{pk}^P(x, w) = \text{True}$ with proof witness π , then $\text{verify}_{vk}(x, \pi) = \text{True}$.
- Knowledge Soundness: For any polynomial-size adversary A,

$$\mathcal{A}: \mathsf{ProvingKey} \times \mathsf{VerifyingKey} \to \mathfrak{D} \langle \mathsf{PublicInput} \times \mathsf{Proof} \rangle$$

there exists a polynomial-size extractor $\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{A}}$

$$\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{A}}: \mathsf{ProvingKey} \times \mathsf{VerifyingKey} \to \mathfrak{D} \langle \mathsf{SecretInput} \rangle$$

such that the following probability is negligible:

$$\Pr\left[\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{satisfying}_{\mathsf{pk}}^P(x,w) = \mathsf{False} \\ \mathsf{verify}_{\mathsf{vk}}(x,w) = \mathsf{True} \end{array} \right. \left. \begin{array}{l} (\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk}) \sim \mathsf{keys}(P) \\ (x,\pi) \sim \mathcal{A}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk}) \\ w \sim \mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk}) \end{array} \right]$$

• Statistical Zero-Knowledge: There exists a stateful simulator S, such that for all stateful distinguishers D, the difference between the following two probabilities is negligible:

$$\Pr\left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathsf{satisfying}_{\mathsf{pk}}^P(x,w) = \mathsf{True} & \begin{pmatrix} (\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk}) \sim \mathsf{keys}(P) \\ (x,w) \sim \mathcal{D}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk}) \\ \mathsf{Some}(\pi) \sim \mathsf{prove}_{\mathsf{pk}}^P(x,w) \\ \end{array}\right] \text{ and } \Pr\left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathsf{satisfying}_{\mathsf{pk}}^P(x,w) = \mathsf{True} \\ \mathcal{D}(\pi) = \mathsf{True} \\ \mathcal{D}(\pi) = \mathsf{True} \\ \end{array}\right. \\ \left. \begin{array}{c} (\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk}) \sim \mathcal{S}(P) \\ (x,w) \sim \mathcal{D}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk}) \\ \pi \sim \mathcal{S}(x) \\ \end{array}\right]$$

• Succinctness: For all (x, w): PublicInput \times SecretInput, if $\mathsf{Some}(\pi) \sim \mathsf{prove}(P, \mathsf{pk}, x, w)$, then $|\pi| = \mathcal{O}(1)$, and $\mathsf{verify}(\mathsf{vk}, x, \pi)$ runs in time $\mathcal{O}(|x|)$.

4.2 Addresses and Key Components

For the Transfer protocol we use a multi-layered system of keys:

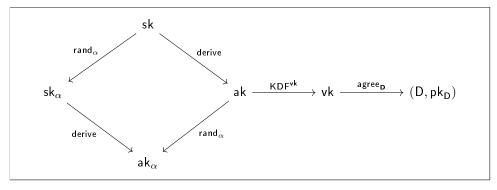


Figure 3: Detailed Key Schedule for MantaPay.

Here we define each key and its function in the Transfer protocol.

Definition 4.2.1 (Spending Key). Given a key-agreement scheme KA with compatible randomized key-derivation function rKDF we have:

$$SpendingKey := KA.SecretKey$$

which can be randomized by rKDF.Randomness. The spending key must also be compatible with a signature scheme SIG who's underlying key derivation matches KA and rKDF.

Definition 4.2.2 (Proof Authorizing Key). Given a key-agreement scheme KA with compatible randomized key-derivation function rKDF and with a signature scheme SIG we have:

$$ProofAuthorizingKey := KA.PublicKey$$

where a given sk: SpendingKey derives the proof-authorizing key by

$$ak := KA.derive(sk)$$

This key can be randomized by α : rKDF.Randomness to get

$$\mathsf{ak}_\alpha := \mathsf{rKDF}.\mathsf{rand}_\alpha(\mathsf{ak})$$

which is also equal to the key-agreement derivation of the randomized secret key

$$\mathsf{ak}_{\alpha} = \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{derive}(\mathsf{rKDF}.\mathsf{rand}_{\alpha}(\mathsf{sk}))$$

To authorize a message m, the owner of sk can perform the following signature algorithm:

$$\sigma \sim \mathsf{SIG.sign}(\mathsf{rKDF.rand}_{\alpha}(\mathsf{sk}), m)$$

which can then be verified against ak_{α} with

$$SIG.verify(ak_{\alpha}, m, \sigma)$$

Note: For the Transfer protocol, the message will be the zero-knowlege proof of a valid transfer and any additional associated data and Ledger payload.

Definition 4.2.3 (Viewing Key). Given a proof-authorizing key, we require a KDF^vk of type

$$KDF^{vk}$$
: ProofAuthorizingKey \rightarrow ViewingKey

where ViewingKey is of type KA.SecretKey so that it can be available for the KA key-agreement scheme so that we have

$$vk := KDF^{vk}(ak)$$

Definition 4.2.4 (Shielded Address). Given a viewing key which is the secret key for the key-agreement scheme KA, the shielded address is given by randomly selecting a public key D: KA.PublicKey and then performing KA.agree against it:

$$pk_D := KA.agree_D(vk)$$

We return the pair as the shielded address: $addr := (D, pk_D)$. We call the random element D the Diversifier for the shielded address addr.

Definition 4.2.5 (Key Schedule). A KeySchedule is a collection of implementations of the following abstract cryptographic primitives as described in the above definitions:

- Key-Agreement Scheme: KA
- Randomized Key-Derivation Scheme: rKDF
- Viewing Key Derivation Function: KDF^{vk}
- Proof Authorization Signature: SIG

with the following notational conventions:

$$SpendingKey := KA.SecretKey$$

$$\mathsf{ProofAuthorizingKey} := \mathsf{KA.PublicKey}$$

$$ViewingKey := KA.SecretKey$$

$$Diversifier := KA.PublicKey$$

$$ShieldedAddress := KA.Diversifier \times KA.PublicKey$$

with the following constraints:

```
rKDF.Input = KA.SecretKey
rKDF.Output = KA.PublicKey
SIG.SecretKey = KA.SecretKey
SIG.PublicKey = KA.PublicKey
SIG.derive = KA.derive
```

4.3 Transfer Protocol

The Transfer protocol is the fundamental abstraction in MantaPay and facilitiates the valid transfer of Assets among participants while preserving their privacy. The Transfer is made up of sub-components called Senders and Receivers which represent the private input and the private output of a transaction. To perform a Transfer, a protocol participant gathers the SpendingKeys they own, selects a subset of the UTXOs they have still not spent (with a fixed AssetId), collects ShieldedAddresses from other participants for the outputs of the Transfer, assigning each key a subset of the input Assets, and then builds a Transfer object representing that transaction. From this Transfer object, they construct a TransferPost which they then send to the Ledger to be validated, representing a completed state transition in the Ledger, updating the UTXOSet and VoidNumberSet. The transformation from Transfer to TransferPost involves keeping the parts of the Transfer that must be known to the Ledger and for the parts that should not be known, substituting them for a zero-knowledge proof representing the validity of the secret information known to the participant, and the Transfer as a whole.

We begin by defining the cryptographic primitives involved in the Transfer protocol:

Definition 4.3.1 (Transfer Configuration). A TransferConfiguration is a collection of implementations of the following abstract cryptographic primitives:

• Key Schedule: KeySchedule

• Incoming Authenticated Hybrid Public Key Encryption: aHPKEin

• Outgoing Authenticated Hybrid Public Key Encryption: aHPKE^{out}

• UTXO Commitment Scheme: COMUTXO

• Void Number Commitment Scheme: COM^{VN}

• Dynamic Cryptographic Accumulator: DCA

• Zero-Knowledge Proving System: NIZK

with the following notational conventions:

```
\label{eq:UTXO} \begin{split} \mathsf{UTXO} &:= \mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{UTXO}}.\mathsf{Output} \\ \mathsf{VoidNumber} &:= \mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{VN}}.\mathsf{Output} \\ \mathsf{IncomingNote} &:= \mathsf{KeySchedule}.\mathsf{ShieldedAddress} \times \mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{UTXO}}.\mathsf{Randomness} \times \mathsf{Asset} \\ \mathsf{OutgoingNote} &:= \mathsf{Asset} \\ \mathsf{UTXOSet} &:= \mathsf{DCA} \end{split}
```

and the following constraints:

```
\mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{UTXO}}.\mathsf{Input} = \mathsf{KeySchedule}.\mathsf{ShieldedAddress} 	imes \mathsf{Asset} \mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{VN}}.\mathsf{Randomness} = \mathsf{KeySchedule}.\mathsf{ProofAuthorizingKey} \mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{VN}}.\mathsf{Input} = \mathsf{UTXO} \mathsf{UTXOSet}.\mathsf{Item} = \mathsf{UTXO} \mathsf{aHPKE}^{\mathsf{in}}.\mathsf{KA} = \mathsf{KeySchedule}.\mathsf{KA} \mathsf{aHPKE}^{\mathsf{out}}.\mathsf{KA} = \mathsf{KeySchedule}.\mathsf{KA} \mathsf{ValidTransfer}: \mathsf{NIZK}.\mathsf{Statement}
```

where ValidTransfer is defined below.

³Note that they do not represent actual individual participants in a transaction, but instead just the data involved in the transaction.

For the rest of this section, we assume the existence of a TransferConfiguration and use the primitives outlined above explicitly. We also implicitly use the KeySchedule and drop its prefix when refering to its members. We continue by defining the Sender and Receiver constructions as well as their public counterparts, the SenderPost and ReceiverPost.

Definition 4.3.2 (Transfer Sender). A Sender is the following tuple:

 $ak: ProofAuthorizingKey $$ lpha: rKDF.Randomness $$ ak_{lpha}: KA.PublicKey $$ D: Diversifier $$$

 $r:\mathsf{COM}^\mathsf{UTXO}.\mathsf{Randomness}$

asset : Asset

 $pk_D : KA.PublicKey$ $esk_{out} : KA.SecretKey$

 $(\mathsf{tag}_\mathsf{out}, \mathsf{epk}_\mathsf{out}, \mathsf{Cout}) : \mathsf{AuthEncrypted} \langle \mathsf{OutgoingNote} \rangle$

cm:UTXO

 $(z_{\sf cm},\pi_{\sf cm}): {\sf UTXOSet.MembershipProof}$

vn: Void Number

A Sender, S, is constructed from a proof authorizing key ak: ProofAuthorizingKey, a randomizer α : rKDF.Randomness and an encrypted message (tag_{in}, epk_{in}, C_{in}): AuthEncrypted(IncomingNote) with the following algorithm:

```
\begin{aligned} \mathsf{ak}_\alpha &:= \mathsf{rKDF}.\mathsf{rand}_\alpha(\mathsf{ak}) \\ \mathsf{vk} &:= \mathsf{KDF}^\mathsf{vk}(\mathsf{ak}) \\ \mathsf{Some}(\mathsf{D}, r, \mathsf{asset}) &:= \mathsf{aHPKE}^\mathsf{in}.\mathsf{decrypt}(\mathsf{vk}, \mathsf{tag}_\mathsf{in}, \mathsf{epk}_\mathsf{in}, \mathsf{C}_\mathsf{in}) \\ \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D} &:= \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{agree}_\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{vk}) \\ \mathsf{esk}_\mathsf{out} &:\sim \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{SecretKeyDistribution} \\ (\mathsf{tag}_\mathsf{out}, \mathsf{epk}_\mathsf{out}, \mathsf{C}_\mathsf{out}) &:= \mathsf{aHPKE}^\mathsf{out}.\mathsf{encrypt}_\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{esk}_\mathsf{out}, \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{asset}) \\ \mathsf{cm} &:= \mathsf{COM}_r^\mathsf{UTXO}(\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{asset}) \\ \mathsf{Some}(z_\mathsf{cm}, \pi_\mathsf{cm}) &:= \mathsf{UTXOSet.prove}(\mathsf{cm}) \\ \mathsf{vn} &:= \mathsf{COM}_\mathsf{ak}^\mathsf{VN}(\mathsf{cm}) \end{aligned}
```

Note: Whenever we want to create a Sender that has an asset with AssetValue of zero, then to ensure that we don't have to pay a cost to create its UTXO we can directly create it and skip the UTXOSet membership proof (which won't return a valid proof since no proof exists). This is safe because we are not creating any economic value by inlining the creation of the zero asset on the Sender side of the Transfer. See 4.3.8 for more details on this special case.

Definition 4.3.3 (Transfer Sender Post). A SenderPost is the following tuple extracted from a Sender:

 $\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{ak}_\alpha : \mathsf{KA.PublicKey} \\ & (\mathsf{tag_{out}}, \mathsf{epk_{out}}, \mathsf{C_{out}}) : \mathsf{AuthEncrypted} \langle \mathsf{OutgoingNote} \rangle \\ & z_{\mathsf{cm}} : \mathsf{UTXOSet.Output} \\ & \mathsf{vn} : \mathsf{VoidNumber} \end{aligned}$

which are the parts of a Sender which should be posted to the Ledger.

Definition 4.3.4 (Transfer Receiver). A Receiver is the following tuple:

 $(\mathsf{D},\mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}):\mathsf{ShieldedAddress}$

 $r:\mathsf{COM}^\mathsf{UTXO}.\mathsf{Randomness}$

asset : Asset cm : UTXO

 $esk_{in}: KA.Secret Key$

 $(\mathsf{tag}_{\mathsf{in}}, \mathsf{epk}_{\mathsf{in}}, \mathsf{C}_{\mathsf{in}}) : \mathsf{AuthEncrypted} \langle \mathsf{IncomingNote} \rangle$

A Receiver, R, is constructed from a shielded address $(\mathsf{D},\mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D})$: ShieldedAddress, an asset asset: Asset, and a UTXO-commitment randomness $r:\mathsf{COM}^\mathsf{UTXO}$. Randomness with the following algorithm:

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{cm} &:= \mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{UTXO}}_r(\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{asset}) \\ &\mathsf{esk}_\mathsf{in} :\sim \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{SecretKeyDistribution} \\ &(\mathsf{tag}_\mathsf{in}, \mathsf{epk}_\mathsf{in}, \mathsf{C}_\mathsf{in}) := \mathsf{aHPKE}^\mathsf{in}.\mathsf{encrypt}_\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{esk}_\mathsf{in}, \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}, (\mathsf{D}, \mathit{r}, \mathsf{asset})) \end{split}$$

Definition 4.3.5 (Transfer Receiver Post). A ReceiverPost is the following tuple extracted from a Receiver:

$$cm: UTXO \\ (tag_{in}, epk_{in}, C_{in}): AuthEncrypted \langle IncomingNote \rangle$$

which are the parts of a Receiver which should be posted to the Ledger.

Definition 4.3.6 (Transfer Sources and Sinks). A Source (or a Sink) is an Asset representing a public input (or output) of a Transfer.

Definition 4.3.7 (Transfer Object). A Transfer is the following tuple:

sources : List \langle Asset \rangle
senders : List \langle Sender \rangle
receivers : List \langle Receiver \rangle
sinks : List \langle Asset \rangle

The shape of a Transfer is the following 4-tuple of cardinalities of those sets

$$(|T.sources|, |T.senders|, |T.receivers|, |T.sinks|)$$

In order for a Transfer to be considered valid, it must adhere to the following constraints:

- Same Id: All the AssetIds in the Transfer must be equal.
- Balanced: The sum of input AssetValues must be equal to the sum of output AssetValues.
- Well-formed Senders: All of the Senders in the Transfer must be constructed according to the above Sender definition.
- Well-formed Receivers: All of the Receivers in the Transfer must be constructed according to the above Receiver definition.

In order to prove that these constraints are satisfied for a given Transfer, we build a zero-knowledge proof which will witness that the Transfer is valid and should be accepted by the Ledger.

Definition 4.3.8 (Transfer Validity Statement). A transfer T: Transfer is considered valid if and only if

1. All the AssetIds in T are equal:

$$\left| \left(\bigcup_{a \in T. \mathsf{sources}} a. \mathsf{id} \right) \cup \left(\bigcup_{S \in T. \mathsf{senders}} S. \mathsf{asset.id} \right) \cup \left(\bigcup_{R \in T. \mathsf{receivers}} R. \mathsf{asset.id} \right) \cup \left(\bigcup_{a \in T. \mathsf{sinks}} a. \mathsf{id} \right) \right| = 1$$

2. The sum of input AssetValues is equal to the sum of output AssetValues:

$$\left(\sum_{a \in T.\mathsf{sources}} a.\mathsf{value}\right) + \left(\sum_{S \in T.\mathsf{senders}} S.\mathsf{asset.value}\right) = \left(\sum_{R \in T.\mathsf{receivers}} R.\mathsf{asset.value}\right) + \left(\sum_{a \in T.\mathsf{sinks}} a.\mathsf{value}\right)$$

3. For all $S \in T$.senders, the Sender S is well-formed:

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{ak}_\alpha &= \mathsf{rKDF}.\mathsf{rand}_\alpha(\mathsf{ak}) \\ \mathsf{vk} &= \mathsf{KDF}^{\mathsf{vk}}(\mathsf{ak}) \\ \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D} &= \mathsf{KA}.\mathsf{derive}_\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{vk}) \\ (\mathsf{tag}_\mathsf{out}, \mathsf{epk}_\mathsf{out}, \mathsf{C}_\mathsf{out}) &= \mathsf{aHPKE}^\mathsf{out}.\mathsf{encrypt}_\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{esk}_\mathsf{out}, \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{asset}) \\ \mathsf{cm} &= \mathsf{COM}_r^\mathsf{UTXO}(\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{asset}) \\ (\mathsf{asset}.\mathsf{value} &= 0) \lor \big(\mathsf{UTXOSet}.\mathsf{verify}(\mathsf{cm}, z_\mathsf{cm}, \pi_\mathsf{cm}) = \mathsf{True} \big) \\ \mathsf{vn} &= \mathsf{COM}_\mathsf{ak}^\mathsf{VN}(\mathsf{cm}) \end{split}$$

4. For all $R \in T$ receivers, the Receiver R is well-formed:

$$\label{eq:complex} \begin{aligned} \mathsf{cm} &= \mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{UTXO}}_r(\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}, \mathsf{asset}) \\ (\mathsf{tag}_\mathsf{in}, \mathsf{epk}_\mathsf{in}, \mathsf{C}_\mathsf{in}) &= \mathsf{aHPKE^{in}}.\mathsf{encrypt}_\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{esk}_\mathsf{in}, (\mathsf{D}, r, \mathsf{asset})) \end{aligned}$$

Notation: This statement is denoted ValidTransfer and is assumed to be expressible as a Statement of NIZK.

Definition 4.3.9 (Transfer Post). A TransferPost is the following tuple:

 $sources: List\langle Source\rangle \\ senders: List\langle SenderPost\rangle \\ receivers: List\langle ReceiverPost\rangle \\ sinks: List\langle Sink\rangle \\ \pi: NIZK.Proof$

A TransferPost, P, is constructed by assembling the zero-knowledge proof of Transfer validity from a known proving key pk: NIZK.ProvingKey and a given T: Transfer:

 $x := \mathsf{Transfer.public}(T)$ $w := \mathsf{Transfer.secret}(T)$ $\mathsf{Some}(\pi) \sim \mathsf{NIZK.prove}^{\mathsf{ValidTransfer}}_{\mathsf{pk}}(x, w)$ $P.\mathsf{sources} := x.\mathsf{sources}$ $P.\mathsf{senders} := x.\mathsf{senders}$ $P.\mathsf{receivers} := x.\mathsf{receivers}$ $P.\mathsf{sinks} := x.\mathsf{sinks}$ $P.\pi := \pi$

where Transfer.public returns SenderPosts for each Sender in T and ReceiverPosts for each Receiver in T, keeping Sources and Sinks as they are, and Transfer.secret returns all the rest of T which is not part of the output of Transfer.public.

Now that the prover has constructed the proof, the underlying spending keys need to authorize the transaction before it can be sent to the Ledger.

Definition 4.3.10 (Proof Authorization). Given a transfer post T: TransferPost and a set of spending keys $S = \{(\mathsf{sk}_i, \alpha_i)\}$ where $(\mathsf{sk}_i, \alpha_i)$ come from the ith spender associated to the T-senders, we have the following signature:

$$\Sigma \coloneqq \big\{\mathsf{SIG}.\mathsf{sign}(\mathsf{rKDF}.\mathsf{rand}_\alpha(\mathsf{sk}),T) | (\mathsf{sk},\alpha) \in S \big\}$$

which can be verified by the ledger with

$$\forall_i \mathsf{SIG}.\mathsf{verify}(T.\mathsf{senders}_i.\mathsf{ak}_\alpha,T,\Sigma_i) = \mathsf{True}$$

Now that the transfer post has been signed by the owners of the spending keys, it can be sent up to the Ledger.

Definition 4.3.11 (Ledger-side Transfer Validity). To check that P represents a valid Transfer, the ledger checks the following:

- Signature Check: All the signatures associated to the transactions are valid.
- **Public Withdraw**: All the public addresses corresponding to the Assets in *P*.sources have enough public balance (i.e. in the PublicAssetLedger) to withdraw the given Asset.
- Public Deposit: All the public addresses corresponding to the Assets in P.sinks exist.
- Current Accumulated State: The UTXOSet.Output stored in each P.senders is equal to current accumulated value, UTXOSet.current(Ledger.utxos()), for the current state of the Ledger.
- New VoidNumbers: All the VoidNumbers in P.senders are unique, and no VoidNumber in P.senders has already been stored in the Ledger.VoidNumberSet.
- New UTXOs: All the UTXOs in P.receivers are unique, and no UTXO in P.receivers has already been stored on the ledger.

• Verify Transfer: Check that NIZK.verify_{vk}(P.sources || P.senders || P.receivers || P.sinks, P. π) = True. Here, vk : NIZK.Verifying Key is a known verifying key.

Definition 4.3.12 (Ledger Transfer Update). After checking that a given TransferPost P is valid, the Ledger updates its state by performing the following changes:

- Public Updates: All the relevant public accounts on the PublicAssetLedger are updated to reflect their new balances using the Sources and Sinks present in P.
- UTXOSet Update: The new UTXOs are appended to the UTXOSet.
- VoidNumberSet Update: The new VoidNumbers are appended to the VoidNumberSet.

4.4 Batched Transactions

For MantaPay participants to use the Transfer protocol, they will need to keep track of the current state of their shielded assets and use them to build TransferPosts to send to the Ledger. The *shielded balance* of any participant is the sum of the balances of their shielded assets, but this balance may be fragmented into arbitrarily many pieces, as each piece represents an independent asset that the participant received as the output of some Transfer. To then spend a subset of their shielded balance, the participant would need to accumulate all of the relevant fragments into a large enough *shielded asset* to spend all at once, building a collection of TransferPosts to send to the Ledger.

Algorithm 1 Batch Transaction Algorithm

```
procedure BUILDTRANSACTION(sk, \mathcal{B}, total, addr)
    B \leftarrow \mathsf{Sample}(\mathsf{total}, \mathcal{B})
                                                           \triangleright Samples key-asset pairs from \mathcal{B} whose asset total at least total
    if len(B) = 0 then
         return []
                                                                                                                       ▷ Insufficient Balance
    end if
    P \leftarrow []
                                                                                                ▷ Allocate a new list for TransferPosts
    while len(B) > N do
                                                                      ▶ While there are enough pairs to make another Transfer
         A \leftarrow []
         for b \in (B, N) do
                                                                                                         \triangleright Get the next N pairs from B
              S \leftarrow \mathsf{BuildSenders}_{\mathsf{sk}}(b)
              [acc, zs...] \leftarrow \mathsf{BuildAccumulatorAndZeroes_{sk}}(S)
                                                                                                ▶ Build a new accumulator and zeroes
              P \leftarrow P + \mathsf{TransferPost}(\mathsf{Transfer}([], S, [acc, zs...], []))
              (A, Z) \leftarrow (A + (acc.d, acc.asset.value), Z + zs)
                                                                                        \triangleright Save acc for the next loop, zs for the end
         end for
         B \leftarrow A + \mathsf{remainder}(B, N)
    end while
    S \leftarrow \mathsf{PrepareZeroes}_{\mathsf{sk}}(N, B, Z, P)
                                                                               \triangleright Use Z and Mints to make B go up to N in size.
    R \leftarrow \mathsf{BuildReceiver}_{\mathsf{sk}}(\mathsf{addr}, S)
    [c, zs...] \leftarrow \mathsf{BuildAccumulatorAndZeroes_{sk}}(S)
    return P + \mathsf{TransferPost}(\mathsf{Transfer}([], S, [R, c, zs...], []))
end procedure
```

Any wallet implementation should see that their users need not keep track of this complexity themselves. Instead, like a public ledger, the notion of a transaction between one participant and another should be viewed as a single (atomic) action that the user can take, performing a withdrawl from their shielded balance. To describe such a semantic transaction, we assume the existence of two transfer shapes⁴: Mint with shape (1,0,1,0) and PrivateTransfer with shape (0,N,N,0) for some natural number N>1.

For a fixed spending key, sk: SpendingKey, and asset id, id: AssetId, we are given a balance state, $\mathcal{B}: FinSet(KA.PublicKey \times AssetValue)$, a set of key-asset pairs for unspent assets, a total balance to withdraw, total: AssetValue, and a shielded key addr: ShieldedAddress. We can then compute

```
\texttt{BuildTransaction}(\mathsf{sk}, \mathcal{B}, \mathsf{total}, \mathsf{addr})
```

to receive a List(TransferPost) to send to the ledger, representing the transfer of total to addr.

If all of the Transfers are accepted by the ledger, the balance state \mathcal{B} should be updated accordingly, removing all of the pairs which were used in the Transfer. Wallets should also handle the more complex case when only

⁴Other Transfer accumulation algorithms are possible with different starting shapes.

some of the Transfers succeed in which case they need to be able to continue retrying the transaction until they are finally resolved. Since the only Transfer which sends Assets out of the control of the user is the last one (and it recursively depends on the previous Transfers), then it is safe to continue from a partially resolved state with a simple retry of the BUILDTRANSACTION algorithm.

5 Concrete Protocol

We define the instantiation of the abstract protocol in this section, but first some preliminary notes.

5.1 Poseidon Permutation

The **Poseidon** Permutation [5] is a finite field cryptographic primitive that can be used in lots of different contexts, like hash functions, commitment schemes, and symmetric encryption. **Poseidon** plays a fundamental role in simplifying the **Transfer** protocol and reducing the overall cost of the Zero-Knowledge circuits. **Poseidon** (without sponges) is a family of hash functions with the following signature:

$$\mathbf{Poseidon}_k: \mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F}^k \to \mathbb{F}$$

over some sufficiently large finite field \mathbb{F} . The first distinguished field element is used as a domain separation element. For this purpose, we use the following hashing function to generate domain strings:

$$\mathsf{HashToScalar}(m) := \mathbb{F}.\mathsf{truncate}(\mathsf{Blake2s}(m))$$

We make use of **Poseidon** for a few values of k in the concrete protocol below.

5.2 Elliptic Curve Cryptography

Because we use a Zero-Knowledge Proving System, we want the cryptographic constructions that feature in our protocol to be ZKP-friendly. For a ZKP system defined over a field \mathbb{F} we can look for elliptic curves that have a base field of the same order as \mathbb{F} . These such curves are said to be "embeddable" or "embedded in" \mathbb{F} . For the constructions below, we use \mathbb{F} as the proof system field and \mathbb{G} as an embedded curve with scalar field \mathbb{S} . We also assume that $|\mathbb{S}| < |\mathbb{F}|$ so we can use the injection lift: $\mathbb{S} \to \mathbb{F}$ to lift scalars to the proof system field.

To use group elements in affine form we also define the projections:

$$\mathcal{X}: \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{F}$$
 and $\mathcal{Y}: \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{F}$

which we use below to insert group elements into field-only hash functions.

For this protocol, we use BLS12-381 as our outer (pairing-friendly) curve with scalar field \mathbb{F} and JubJub as our inner curve with scalar field \mathbb{S} .

5.3 Concrete Cryptographic Schemes

Definition 5.3.1 (Commitment Schemes). The protocol features two different commitment schemes: COM^{UTXO} the UTXO Commitment Scheme and COM^{VN} the Void Number Commitment Scheme. Both commitment schemes use **Poseidon** as the underlying cryptographic primitive. The UTXO uses an arity-8 **Poseidon** with the following mapping:

$$\mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{UTXO}}_r(\mathsf{D},\mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D},\mathsf{asset}) \coloneqq \mathbf{Poseidon}_8(d,0,r,\mathcal{X}(\mathsf{D}),\mathcal{Y}(\mathsf{D}),\mathcal{X}(\mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}),\mathcal{Y}(\mathsf{pk}_\mathsf{D}),\mathsf{asset.id},\mathsf{asset.value})$$

where $d = \mathsf{HashToScalar}(\text{``manta-pay}/1.0.0/\text{com-utxo''})$. For the Void Number Commitment Scheme we use an arity-4 **Poseidon** with the following mapping:

$$\mathsf{COM}^{\mathsf{VN}}_{\mathsf{ak}}(\mathsf{cm}) := \mathbf{Poseidon}_4(\mathsf{HashToScalar}(\texttt{``manta-pay}/\texttt{1.0.0}/\mathsf{com-vn"}), 0, \mathcal{X}(\mathsf{ak}), \mathcal{Y}(\mathsf{ak}), \mathsf{cm})$$

Definition 5.3.2 (Key-Derivation Functions). For the encryption scheme KDFs, we use the following which maps a group element $G : \mathbb{G}$ to a scalar:

$$\mathsf{KDF}(G) := \mathbf{Poseidon}_2(\mathsf{HashToScalar}("\mathtt{manta-pay}/1.0.0/\mathtt{encryption-kdf}"), x(G), y(G))$$

Definition 5.3.3 (Randomizable Key-Derivation Function). For rKDF, we use the following which uses a scalar $r : \mathbb{S}$ to randomize a scalar $x : \mathbb{S}$ to a scalar and a group element $G : \mathbb{G}$ to a group element:

$$\mathsf{rKDF.rand}^I(r,x): \mathbb{S} \times \mathbb{S} \to \mathbb{S} := r * x$$

$$\mathsf{rKDF.rand}^O(r,G): \mathbb{S} \times \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{G} := r \cdot G$$

Definition 5.3.4 (Key-Agreement Scheme). For KA, we use a Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange over (\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{S}) :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{KA.derive}(x):\mathbb{S}\to\mathbb{G} &:= x\cdot G\\ \mathsf{KA.agree}(x,Y):\mathbb{S}\times\mathbb{G}\to\mathbb{G} &:= x\cdot Y \end{aligned}$$

where G is a fixed public point.

Definition 5.3.5 (Message Authentication Code). For message authentication codes we use the following instantiation of **Poseidon**:

$$\mathsf{MAC}(\mathsf{sk}, m) := \mathbf{Poseidon}_{|m|+1}(\mathsf{HashToScalar}(\texttt{``manta-pay}/\texttt{1.0.0}/\texttt{mac"}), \mathsf{sk}, m)$$

In this protocol, we use $|m| \in \{2,6\}$ for OutgoingNote and IncomingNote respectively.

Definition 5.3.6 (Signature Scheme). For the signature scheme we use standard ECDSA over G.

Definition 5.3.7 (Symmetric-Key Encryption Scheme). For SYM we use **Poseidon**₂ as the hash function in a message digest cipher with key-schedule given by the following:

$$K_i := \mathbf{Poseidon}_2(\mathsf{HashToScalar}("\mathtt{manta-pay}/1.0.0/\mathtt{mdc-key-schedule}"), K_0, K_{i-1})$$

Definition 5.3.8 (Message Digest Cipher). TODO: Brandon

Definition 5.3.9 (Dynamic Cryptographic Accumulator). For DCA, we use a Merkle Tree with **Poseidon**₂ as the inner node combining hash function and no leaf hash function. It is safe to omit the leaf hash function in this case because the leaf values are already the outputs of a hash function and cannot be directly controlled.

Definition 5.3.10 (Non-Interactive Zero-Knowledge Proving System). For NIZK, the protocol can use any non-interactive zero-knowledge proving system like Groth16 [5] and/or PLONK/PLONKUP [4, 6].

5.4 AssetValue Bounds Check

In order to implement the balanced transfer relation one needs to ensure that the amount of input value is equal to the amount of output value. However, since we're working over finite fields, the naïve arithmetic wraps past zero and is vulnerable to range-based attacks. Instead we constrain every AssetValue to be less than some bound \mathcal{V} and that every sum over those values is also less than \mathcal{V} . Since we're using BLS12-381 we are safe to use $\mathcal{V}=2^{128}$.

6 Acknowledgements

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