

Data-Independent Memory Hard Functions: New Attacks and Stronger Constructions

Jeremiah Blocki¹, Ben Harsha¹, Siteng Kang²,
Seunghoon Lee¹, Lu Xing¹, and Samson Zhou³

¹ Purdue University

² Penn State University

³ Indiana University

Abstract. Memory-hard functions (MHFs) are a key cryptographic primitive underlying the design of moderately expensive password hashing algorithms and egalitarian proofs of work. Over the past few years several increasingly stringent goals for an MHF have been proposed including the requirement that the MHF have high sequential space-time (ST) complexity, parallel space-time complexity, amortized area-time (aAT) complexity and sustained space complexity. Data-Independent Memory Hard Functions (iMHFs) are of special interest in the context of password hashing as they naturally resist side-channel attacks. iMHFs can be specified using a directed acyclic graph (DAG) G with $N = 2^n$ nodes and low indegree and the complexity of the iMHF can be analyzed using a pebbling game. Recently, Alwen et al. [ABH17] constructed an DAG called DRSSample which has aAT complexity at least $\Omega(N^2/\log N)$. Asymptotically DRSSample outperformed all prior iMHF constructions including Argon2i, winner of the password hashing competition (aAT cost $\mathcal{O}(N^{1.767})$), though the constants in these bounds are poorly understood. We show that the greedy pebbling strategy of Boneh et al. [BCS16] is particularly effective against DRSSample e.g., the aAT cost is $\mathcal{O}(N^2/\log N)$. In fact, our empirical analysis *reverses* the prior conclusion of Alwen et al. that DRSSample provides stronger resistance to known pebbling attacks for practical values of $N \leq 2^{24}$. We construct a new iMHF candidate (DRSSample+BRG) by using the bit-reversal graph to extend DRSSample. We then prove that the construction is asymptotically optimal under every MHF criteria, and we empirically demonstrate that our iMHF provides the best resistance to *known* pebbling attacks. For example, we show that any parallel pebbling attack either has aAT cost $\omega(N^2)$ or requires at least $\Omega(N)$ steps with $\Omega(N/\log N)$ pebbles on the DAG. This makes our construction the first practical iMHF with a strong sustained space-complexity guarantee and immediately implies that any parallel pebbling has aAT complexity $\Omega(N^2/\log N)$. We also prove that any sequential pebbling (including the greedy pebbling attack) has aAT cost $\Omega(N^2)$ and, if a plausible conjecture holds, any parallel pebbling has aAT cost $\Omega(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$ — the best possible bound for an iMHF. We implement our new iMHF and demonstrate that it is just as fast as Argon2. Along the way we propose a simple modification to the Argon2 round function which increases an attacker’s aAT cost by nearly an order of magnitude without increasing running time on a CPU. Finally, we give a pebbling reduction which proves that in the parallel random oracle model

(PROM) the cost of evaluating an iMHF like Argon2i or DRSample+BRG is given by the pebbling cost of the underlying DAG. Prior pebbling reductions assumed that the iMHF round function concatenates input labels before hashing and did not apply to practical iMHFs such as Argon2i, DRSample or DRSample+BRG where input labels are instead XORed together.

1 Introduction

Memory Hard Functions (MHFs) are a key cryptographic primitive in the design of password hashing algorithms and egalitarian proof of work puzzles [Lee11]. In the context of password hashing we want to ensure that the function can be computed reasonably quickly on standard hardware, but that it is prohibitively expensive to evaluate the function millions or billions of times. The first property ensures that legitimate users can authenticate reasonably quickly, while the purpose of the latter goal is to protect low-entropy secrets (e.g., passwords, PINs, biometrics) against brute-force offline guessing attacks. One of the challenges is that the attacker might attempt to reduce computation costs by employing customized hardware such as a Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) or an Application Specific Integrated Circuit (ASIC). MHFs were of particular interest in the 2015 Password Hashing Competition [Pin14], where the winner, Argon2 [BDK16], and all but one finalists [FLW14,SJAA⁺15,Pes14] claimed some form of memory hardness.

Wiener defined the full cost of an algorithm’s execution to be the number of hardware components multiplied by the duration of their usage e.g., if the algorithm needs to allocate $\Omega(N)$ blocks of memory for $\Omega(N)$ time steps then full evaluation costs would scale quadratically. At an intuitive level a strong MHF $f(\cdot)$ should have the property that the *full cost* [Wie04] of evaluation grows as fast as possible in the running time parameter N . Towards this end a number of increasingly stringent security criteria have been proposed for a MHF including sequential space-time complexity, parallel space-time complexity, amortized area-time complexity (aAT) and sustained space-complexity. The sequential (resp. parallel) space-time complexity of a function $f(\cdot)$ measures the space-time cost of the best sequential (resp. parallel) algorithm evaluating $f(\cdot)$ i.e., if a computation runs in time t and requires space s then the space-time cost is given by the product st . The requirement that a hash function has high space-time complexity rules out traditional hash iteration based key-derivation functions like PBKDF2 and bcrypt as both of these functions be computed in linear time $\mathcal{O}(N)$ and constant space $\mathcal{O}(1)$. Blocki et al. [BHZ18] recently presented an economic argument that algorithms with low space-time complexity such as bcrypt and PBKDF2 are no longer suitable to protect low-entropy secrets like passwords i.e., one cannot provide meaningful protection against a rational attacker with customized hardware (FPGA,ASIC) without introducing an unacceptably long authentication delay. By contrast, they argued that MHFs with true cost $\Omega(N^2)$ can ensure that a rational attacker will quickly give up since marginal guessing costs are substantially higher.

The Catena-Bit Reversal MHF [FLW14] provably optimal sequential space-time complexity $\Omega(N^2)$ — the space-time complexity of any sequential algorithm running in time N is at most $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ since you cannot allocate more than N blocks of

memory in time N . However, Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] showed that the *parallel* of this MHF is just $\mathcal{O}(N^{1.5})$. Even parallel space-time complexity has limitations in that it doesn't amortize nicely. The stronger notion of Amortized Area-Time (aAT) complexity (and the asymptotically equivalent notion of cumulative memory complexity (cmc)) measures the amortized cost of any parallel algorithm evaluating the function $f(\cdot)$ on m distinct inputs. Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] gave a theoretical example of a function $f(\cdot)$ with the property that the amortized space-time cost of evaluating the function on $m = \sqrt{N}$ distinct inputs is approximately m times cheaper than the parallel space-time cost i.e., evaluating the function on the last $m-1$ inputs is essentially free. This is problematic in the context of password hashing where the attacker wants to compute the function $f(\cdot)$ multiple times i.e., on each password in a cracking dictionary. The amortization issue is not merely theoretical. Indeed, the aAT complexity of many MHF candidates is significantly lower than $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ e.g., the aAT complexity of Balloon Hash [BCS16] is just $\mathcal{O}(N^{5/3})$ [AB16, ABP17] and for password hashing competition winner Argon2i [BDK16] the aAT cost is at most $\mathcal{O}(N^{1.767})$ [AB16, AB17, ABP17, BZ17].

The script MHF, introduced by Percival in 2009 [Per09], was proven to have cmc/aAT complexity $\Omega(N^2)$ in the random oracle model [ACP⁺17]. However, it is possible for an script attacker to achieve any space-time trade-off subject to the constraint that $st = \Omega(N^2)$ without penalty e.g., an attacker could evaluate script in time $t = \Omega(N^2)$ with space $s = \mathcal{O}(1)$. Alwen et al. [ABP18] argued that this flexibility potentially makes it easier to develop ASICs for script, and proposed the even stricter MHF requirement of *sustained space complexity* which demands that any (parallel) algorithm evaluating the function $f(\cdot)$ requires at least t time steps in which the space usage is $\geq s$ — this implies that $\text{aAT} \geq st$. Alwen et al. [ABP18] provided a theoretical construction of a MHF with maximal sustained space complexity i.e., evaluation requires space $s = \Omega(N/\log N)$ for time $t = \Omega(N)$. However, there are no practical constructions of MHFs that provide strong guarantees with respect to sustained space complexity.

Data-Independent vs Data-Dependent Memory Hard Functions. Memory Hard Functions can be divided into two categories: Data-Independent Memory Hard Functions (iMHFs) and Data-Dependent Memory Hard Functions (dMHFs). Examples of dMHFs include script [Per09], Argon2d [BDK16] and Boyen's halting puzzles [Boy07]. Examples of iMHFs include Password Hashing Competition (PHC) [PHC16] winner Argon2i [BDK16], Balloon Hashing [BCS16] and DRSample [ABH17]. In this work we primarily focus on the design and analysis of secure iMHFs. iMHFs are designed to resist certain side-channel attacks e.g., cache timing [Ber05] by requiring that the induced memory access pattern does not depend on the (sensitive) input e.g., the user's password. By contrast, the induced memory access for a dMHFs is allowed to depend on the function input.

Alwen and Blocki [AB16] proved that *any* iMHF has aAT complexity at most $\mathcal{O}(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$, while the dMHF script provably has aAT complexity $\Omega(N^2)$ in the random oracle model — a result which cannot be matched by any iMHF. However, the aAT complexity of a dMHF may be greatly reduced after a side-channel attack. If a brute-force attacker is trying to find $x \leq m$ s.t. $f(x) = y$ and the attacker also has learned the correct memory access pattern induced by the real input x^* (e.g.,

via a side-channel attack) then the attacker can quit evaluation $f(x)$ immediately once it is clear that the induced memory access pattern on input $x \neq x^*$ is different. For example, the aAT complexity of scrypt (resp. [Boy07]) after a side-channel attack is just $\mathcal{O}(N)$ (resp. $\mathcal{O}(1)$).

Hybrid Modes. Alwen and Blocki [AB16, AB17] showed that the aAT complexity of most iMHFs was significantly lower than one would hope, but their techniques do not extend to MHFs. In response, the Argon2 spec [KDBJ17] was updated to list Argon2id as the recommended mode of operation for password hashing instead of the purely data-independent mode Argon2i. Hybrid independent-dependent (id) modes, such as Argon2id [KDBJ17], balance side-channel resistance with high aAT complexity by running the MHF in data-independent mode for $N/2$ steps before switching to data-dependent mode for the final $N/2$ steps. If there is a side-channel attack then security reduces to that of the underlying iMHF (e.g., Argon2i), and if there is no side-channel attack then the function is expected to have optimal aAT complexity $\Omega(N^2)$. We remark that, even for a hybrid mode, it is important to ensure that the underlying iMHF is as strong as possible a side-channel attack on a hybrid “id” mode of operation will reduce security to that of the underlying iMHF.

1.1 Related Work

MHF Goals. Dwork et al. and Abadi et al. [DGN03, ABMW05] introduced the notion of a memory-bound function where we require that *any* evaluation algorithm results in a large number of cache-misses. Ren and Devadas recently introduced a refinement to this notion called bandwidth-hardness [RD17]. To the best of our knowledge Percival was the first to propose the goal that a MHF should have high space-time complexity [Per09] though Boyen’s dMHF construction appears to achieve this goal [Boy07] and the notion of space-time complexity is closely related to the notion of “full cost” proposed by Wiener [Wie04]. Metrics like space-time complexity and Amortized Area-Time Complexity [AS15, ABH17] aim to capture the cost of the hardware (e.g., DRAM chips) the attacker must purchase to compute an MHF — amortized by the number of MHF instances computed over the lifetime of the hardware components. By contrast, bandwidth hardness [RD17] aims to capture the *energy cost* of the electricity required to compute the MHF once. If the attacker uses an ASIC to compute the function then the *energy* expended during computation will typically be small in comparison with the *energy* expended during a cache-miss. Thus, a bandwidth hard function aims to ensure that *any* evaluation strategy either results in $\Omega(N)$ cache-misses or $\omega(N)$ evaluations of the hash function.

In Appendix A we argue that, in the context of password hashing, aAT complexity is more relevant than bandwidth hardness because the “full cost” [Wie04] can scale quadratically in the running time parameter N . However, one would ideally want to design a MHF that has high aAT complexity and is also maximally bandwidth hard. Blocki et al. [BRZ18] recently showed that any MHF with high aAT complexity is at least somewhat bandwidth hard. Furthermore, all practical iMHFs (including Catena-Bit Reversal [FLW14], Argon2i and DRSSample) are maximally bandwidth hard [RD17, BRZ18], including our new construction DRS+BRG.

Graph Pebbling and iMHFs. An iMHFs $f_{G,H}$ can be viewed as a mode of operation over a directed acyclic graph (DAG) $G=(V=[N],E)$ which encodes data-dependencies (because the DAG is static the memory access pattern will identical for all inputs) and a compression function $H(\cdot)$. Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] defined $f_{G,H}(x)=\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N)$ to be the label of the last node in the graph G on input x . Here, the label of the first node $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(1)=H(1,x)$ is computed using the input x and for each internal node v with $\text{parents}(v)=v_1,\dots,v_\delta$ we have

$$\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)=H(v,\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1),\dots,\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta)) .$$

In practice, one requires that the maximum indegree is constant $\mathcal{O}(\delta)$ so that the function $f_{G,H}$ can be evaluated in sequential time $\mathcal{O}(N)$. Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] proved that the cmc complexity (asymptotically equivalent to aAT complexity) of the function $f_{G,H}$ can be fully described in terms of the black pebbling game — defined later in Section 2.2. The result is significant in that it reduces the complex task of building an iMHF with high aAT complexity to the (potentially easier) task of constructing a DAG with maximum pebbling cost. In particular, Alwen and Serbinenko showed that any algorithm evaluating the function $f_{G,H}$ in the parallel random oracle model *must* have cumulative memory cost at least $\Omega\left(w \times \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)\right)$, where $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ is the cumulative pebbling cost of G (defined in Section 2.2), $H:\{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^w$ is modeled as a random oracle and $w=|H(z)|$ is the number of output bits in a single hash value. Similar, pebbling reductions have been given for bandwidth hardness [BRZ18] and sustained space complexity [ABP18] using the same labeling rule.

While these pebbling reductions are useful in theory, *practical* iMHF implementations do not use the labeling rule proposed in [AS15]. In particular, Argon2i, DRSample and our own iMHF implementation (DRSample+BRG) all use the following labeling rule

$$\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)=H(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1)\oplus\dots\oplus\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta)) ,$$

where $v_1,\dots,v_\delta=\text{parents}(v)$ and the DAGs have indegree $\delta=2$. The XOR labeling rule allows one to work with a faster round function $H:\{0,1\}^w \rightarrow \{0,1\}^w$ e.g., Argon2i builds $H:\{0,1\}^{8192} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{8192}$ using the Blake2b permutation function and DRSample(+BRG) uses the same labeling rule as Argon2i. When we define $f_{G,H}$ using the above the pebbling reduction of [AS15] no longer applies. Thus, while we know that the pebbling cost of DRSample (resp. Argon2i) is $\Omega(N^2/\log N)$ [ABH17] (resp. $\tilde{\Omega}(N^{1.75})$ [BZ17]). Technically, it had never been proven that DRSample (resp. Argon2i) has aAT complexity $\Omega(wN^2/\log N)$ (resp. $\tilde{\Omega}(wN^{1.75})$) in the parallel random oracle model.

Argon2i and DRSample. Arguably, two of the most significant iMHFs candidates are Argon2i [BDK16] and DRSample [ABH17]. Argon2i was the winner of the recently completed password hashing competition [Pin14] and DRSample [ABH17] was the first *practical* construction of an iMHF with aAT complexity proven to be *at least* $\Omega(N^2/\log N)$ in the random oracle model. In an asymptotic sense this upper bound almost matches the general upper bound $\mathcal{O}(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$ on the aAT cost of any iMHF established by Alwen and Blocki [AB16]. A recent line of research [AB16, AB17, ABP17, BZ17] has developed theoretical depth-reducing

attacks on Argon2i showing that the iMHF has aAT complexity *at most* $\mathcal{O}(N^{1.767})$ ⁴. The DRSample [ABH17] iMHF modifies the edge distribution of the Argon2i graph to ensure that the underlying directed acyclic graph (DAG) satisfies a combinatorial property called depth-robustness which is known to be *necessary* [AB16] and *sufficient* [ABP17] for developing a MHF with high aAT complexity.

While the aAT complexity of DRSample is at least $c_1 N^2 / \log N$ for some constant c_1 , the *constant* c in this lower bound is poorly understood — Alwen et al. [ABH17] only proved the lower bound when $c_1 \approx 7 \times 10^{-6}$. Similarly, Argon2i has aAT complexity at least $c_2 N^{1.75} / \log N$ [BZ17] though the constants from this lower bound are also poorly understood⁵. On the negative side the asymptotic lower bounds do not *absolutely* rule out the possibility of an attack that reduces aAT complexity by several orders of magnitude. Alwen et al. [ABH17] also presented an empirical analysis of the aAT cost of DRSample and Argon2i by measuring the aAT cost of these functions against a wide battery of pebbling attacks [AB16, ABP17, AB17]. The results of this empirical analysis was quite positive for DRSample indicated that DRSample was not only stronger in an asymptotic sense, but that it also provided greater resistance to other pebbling attacks than other iMHF candidates like Argon2i in practice.

Boneh et al. [BCS16] previously presented a greedy pebbling attack which reduced the pebbling cost of Argon2i by a moderate constant factor of 4 to 5. The greedy pebbling attack does not appear to have been included in the empirical analysis of Alwen et al. [ABH17]. In a strict asymptotic sense the depth-reducing attacks of Alwen and Blocki [AB16, AB17] achieved more substantial $\Omega(N^{0.2+})$ -factor reductions in pebbling cost, which may help to explain the omission of the greedy algorithm in [ABH17]. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the greedy pebbling strategy is a simple sequential pebbling strategy which would be easy to implement in practice. By contrast, there has been debate about the *practical feasibility* of implementing the more complicated pebbling attacks of Alwen and Blocki [AB16] (Alwen and Blocki [AB17] argued that the attacks don't require unrealistic parallelism or memory bandwidth, but to the best of our knowledge the attacks have yet to be implemented on an ASIC).

1.2 Contributions

Stronger Attacks We present a theoretical and empirical analysis of the greedy pebbling attack [BCS16] finding that DRSample has aAT complexity at most $\lesssim N^2 / \log N$. The greedy pebbling attack that achieves this bound is *sequential*, easy to implement and achieves high attack quality even for practical values of N . In fact, for *practical* values of $N \leq 2^{24}$ we show that DRSample is *more* vulnerable to *known pebbling attacks* than Argon2i, which *reverses* previous conclusions about the *practical* security of Argon2i and DRSample [ABH17]. We next consider a defense proposed by Biryukov et al. [BDK16] against the greedy pebbling attack which we call the XOR-extension gadget. While this defense defeats the *original* greedy pebbling attack [BCS16], we

⁴ This latest attack almost matches the *lower bound* of $\tilde{\Omega}(N^{1.75})$ on the aAT complexity of Argon2i.

⁵ Blocki and Zhou did not explicitly work out the constants in their lower bound, but it appears that $c_2 \approx 5 \times 10^{-7}$ [ABH17].

found a simple generalization of the greedy pebbling attack that thwarts this defense. We also use the greedy pebbling attack to prove that *any* DAG with indegree two has a sequential pebbling with aAT cost $\lesssim \frac{N^2}{4}$.

We also develop a *novel* greedy algorithm for constructing depth-reducing sets, which is the critical first step in the parallel pebbling attacks of Alwen and Blocki [AB16, AB17]. Empirical analysis demonstrates that this greedy algorithm constructs *significantly smaller* depth-reducing sets than previous state of the art techniques [AB16, AB17, ABH17], which leads to higher quality attacks [AB16] and leaving us in an uncomfortable situation where there high quality pebbling attacks against all iMHF candidates e.g., DRSample is susceptible to the greedy pebbling attack while Argon2i is susceptible to depth-reducing attacks [AB16, AB17, ABH17].

New iMHF Candidate with Optimal Security We next develop a new iMHF candidate DRSample+BRG by overlaying a bit-reversal graph [LT82, FLW14] on top of DRSample, and analyze the new DAG empirically and theoretically. Interestingly, while *neither* DAG (DRSample or BRG) is known to have strong sustained space complexity guarantees we can prove that *any* parallel pebbling either has maximal sustained space complexity (meaning that there are at least $\Omega(N)$ steps with $\Omega(N/\log N)$ pebbles on the DAG) or has aAT cost at least $\omega(N^2)$. This makes our construction the first practical construction with strong guarantees on the sustained space-complexity — prior constructions of Alwen et al. [ABP18] were theoretical. DRSample+BRG is asymptotically optimal with respect to all proposed MHF metrics including bandwidth hardness (*both* BRG and DRSample are bandwidth hard [RD17, BRZ18]) and aAT complexity (inherited from DRSample [ABH17]). We also show that our construction optimally resists the greedy attack and *any* extensions. In particular, we prove sequential pebbling of the bit-reversal graph has cumulative memory cost (cmc) and aAT cost at least $\Omega(N^2)$. This result generalizes a well known result that the bit-reversal graph has sequential space-time cost $\Omega(N^2)$ and may be of independent interest e.g., it demonstrates that Password Hashing Competition Finalist Catena-BRG [FLW14] is secure against *all* sequential attacks.

Our empirical analysis indicates that DRSample+BRG offers strong resistance to *all known* attacks, including the greedy pebbling attack, depth-reducing attacks and several other novel attacks introduced in this paper. In particular, even for very large $N=2^{24}$ (2^{24} 1KB blocks = 16GB) the *best* attack had aAT cost over $\frac{N^2}{11}$ — for comparison *any* DAG with indegree two has aAT cost $\lesssim \frac{N^2}{4}$.

We also show that the aAT/cmc of DRSample+BRG is *at least* $\Omega(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$ under a plausible conjecture about the depth-robustness of DRSample. As evidence for our conjecture we analyze three state-of-the-art approaches for constructing a depth-reducing set, including the layered attack [AB16], Valiant’s Lemma [AB16, Val77] and the reduction of Alwen et al. [ABP17], which can transform any pebbling with low aAT cost (e.g., the Greedy Pebbling Attack) into a depth-reducing set. We show that each attack fails to refute our conjecture. Thus, even if the conjecture is false we would require significant improvements to state-of-the art to refute it.

Black Pebbling Reduction for XOR Labeling Rule While Alwen and Serbinenko showed that any algorithm evaluating the graph labeling function $f_{G,H}$

in the parallel random oracle model *must* have cumulative memory cost at least $\Omega\left(w \times \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)\right)$, their proof made the restrictive assumption that labels are computed using the concatenation rule $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) = H(v, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1), \dots, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta))$. However, most *practical* iMHF implementations (e.g., Argon2i and DRSample(+BRG)) all follow the more efficient XOR labeling rule $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) = H(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1) \oplus \dots \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta))$ where $v_1, \dots, v_\delta = \text{parents}(v)$ and the DAGs have indegree $\delta = O(1)$. The XOR labeling rule allows one to work with a faster round function $H: \{0,1\}^w \rightarrow \{0,1\}^w$, e.g., Argon2i builds $H: \{0,1\}^{8192} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{8192}$, to speed up computation so that we fill more memory.

We extend the results of Alwen and Serbinenko to show that, for suitable DAGs, $f_{G,H}$ has cumulative memory cost at least $\Omega\left(w \times \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)/\delta\right)$ when the XOR labeling rule. The loss of δ is necessarily as the pebbling complexity of the complete DAG K_N is $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(K_N) = \Omega(N^2)$, but $f_{K_N,H}$ has cmc/aAT cost at most $\mathcal{O}(N)$ when defined using the XOR labeling rule. In practice, all of the graphs we consider have $\delta = O(1)$ so this loss is not significant.

One challenge we face in the reduction is that it is more difficult to extract labels from the random oracle query $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1) \oplus \dots \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta)$ than from the query $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1), \dots, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta)$. Another challenge we face is that the labeling function $H'(x,y) = H(x \oplus y)$ is not even collision resistant e.g., $H'(y,x) = H'(x,y)$. In fact, one can exploit this property to find graphs G on N nodes where the function $f_{G,H}$ is a constant function e.g., Suppose we start with a DAG $G' = (V' = [N-3], E')$ on $N-3$ nodes that has high pebbling cost $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G')$ and define $G = (V = [N], E = E' \cup \{(N-3, N-2), (N-3, N-1), (N-4, N-2), (N-4, N-1), (N-2, N), (N-1, N)\})$ by adding directed edges from node $N-3$ and $N-4$ to nodes $N-2, N-1$ and then adding directed edges from $N-2$ and $N-1$ to node N . Note that for any input x we have $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N-2) = H(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N-3) \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N-3)) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N-1)$. It follows that

$$f_{G,H}(x) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N) = H(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N-2) \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N-1)) = H(0^w)$$

is a constant function. Thus, the claim that $f_{G,H}$ has cumulative memory cost at least $\Omega\left(w \times \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)/\delta\right)$ cannot hold for arbitrary graphs.

The above example exploited the absence of the explicit term v in $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)$ to produce two nodes that always have the same label. However, we can prove that if the DAG $G = (V = [N], E)$ contains all edges of the form $(i, i+1)$ for $i < N$ then *any* algorithm evaluating the function $f_{G,H}$ in the parallel random oracle model *must* have cumulative memory cost at least $\Omega\left(w \times \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)/\delta\right)$. Furthermore, the cumulative memory cost of an algorithm computing $f_{G,H}$ on m distinct inputs must be at least $\Omega\left(mw \times \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)\right)$. We stress that all of the practical iMHFs we consider including Argon2i and DRSample(+BRG) satisfy this condition.

Sequential Round Function We show how a parallel attacker could reduce aAT costs by nearly an order of magnitude by computation of the Argon2i round function in parallel. For example, the first step to evaluate the Argon2 round function $H(X,Y)$ is to divide the input $R = X \oplus Y \in \{0,1\}^{8092}$ into 64 groups of 16-byte values $R_0, \dots, R_{63} \in \{0,1\}^{128}$ and then compute $(Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_7) \leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(R_0, \dots, R_7), \dots,$

$(Q_{56}, Q_{56}, \dots, Q_{63}) \leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(R_{56}, \dots, R_{63})$. Each call to the Blake2b permutation \mathcal{BP} can be trivially evaluated in parallel, which means that the attacker can easily reduce the depth of the circuit evaluating Argon2 by a factor of 8 *without* increasing the area of the circuit i.e., memory usage remains constant. The issue affects *all* Argon2 modes of operation (including data-dependent modes like Argon2d and Argon2id) and could potentially be used in combination with other pebbling attacks [AB16, AB17] for an even more dramatic decrease in aAT complexity. We also stress that this gain is independent of any other optimizations that an ASIC attacker might make to speed up computation of \mathcal{BP} e.g., if the attacker can evaluate \mathcal{BP} four-times faster than the honest party then the attacker will be able to evaluate the round function $H \ 8 \times 4 = 32$ -times faster than the honest party. We propose a simple modification to the Argon2 round function by injecting a few additional data-dependencies to ensure that evaluation is inherently sequential. While the modification is simple we show it increases a parallel attacker’s aAT costs by nearly an order of magnitude. Furthermore, empirical analysis indicates that our modifications have *negligible* impact on the running time on a CPU.

Implementation of our iMHF We develop an implementation of our new iMHF candidate DRSSample+BRG, which also uses the improved sequential Argon2 round function. The source code is available on an anonymous Github repository <https://github.com/antiparallel-drsbrg-argon/Antiparallel-DRS-BRG>. Empirical tests indicate that the running time of DRSSample+BRG is equivalent to that of Argon2 for the honest party, while our prior analysis indicates the aAT costs, energy costs and sustained space complexity are all higher for DRSSample+BRG.

2 Preliminaries

In this section we will lay out notation and important definitions required for the following sections.

2.1 Graph Notation and Definitions

We use $G = (V, E)$ to denote a directed acyclic graph and we use $N = 2^n$ to denote the number of nodes in $V = \{1, \dots, N\}$. Given a node $v \in V$, we use $\text{parents}(v) = \{u : (u, v) \in E\}$ to denote the *immediate parents* of node v in G . In general, we use $\text{ancestors}_G(v) = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} \text{parents}_G^i(v)$ to denote the set of all ancestors of v — here, $\text{parents}_G^2(v) = \text{parents}_G(\text{parents}_G(v))$ denotes the grandparents of v and $\text{parents}_G^{i+1}(v) = \text{parents}_G(\text{parents}_G^i(v))$. When G is clear from context we will simply write parents (ancestors). We use $\text{indeg}(G) = \max_v |\text{parents}(v)|$ to denote the maximum indegree of any node in G . All of the practical graphs we consider will contain each of the edges $(i, i+1)$ for $i < N$. Thus, there is a single source node 1 and a single sink node N . Most of the graphs we consider will have $\text{indeg}(G) = 2$ and in this case we will use $r(i) < i$ to denote the *other* parent of node i besides $i-1$. Given a subset of nodes $S \subseteq V$ we use $G-S$ to refer to the graph with all nodes in S deleted and we use $G[S] = G - (V \setminus S)$ to refer to graph obtained by deleting all nodes except S . Finally, we use $G_{\leq k} = G[\{1, \dots, k\}]$ to refer to the graph induced by the first k nodes.

Block depth-robustness: Block depth-robustness is a stronger variant of depth-robustness. First, we define $N(v, b) = \{v-b+1, v-b+2, \dots, v\}$ to be the set of

b contiguous nodes ending at node v . For a set of vertices $S \subseteq V$, we also define $N(S, b) = \bigcup_{v \in S} N(v, b)$. We say that a graph is (e, d, b) block depth robust if, for every set $S \subseteq V$ of size $|S| \leq e$, $\text{depth}(G - N(S, b)) \geq d$. When $b = 1$ we simply say that the graph is (e, d) depth robust. It is known that highly depth robust DAGs G have high pebbling complexity, and can be used to construct strong iMHFs with high aAT complexity in the random oracle model [ABP17]. In certain cases, block depth-robustness can be used to establish even *stronger* lower bounds on the pebbling complexity of a graph [ABH17, BZ17]. Alwen et al. gave an algorithm DRSample which (whp) outputs a DAG G that is (e, d, b) block depth robust with $e = \Omega(N/\log N)$, $d = \Omega(N)$ and $b = \Omega(\log N)$ [ABH17].

Graph labeling functions: As mentioned in the introduction, an iMHF $f_{G,H}$ can be described as a mode of operation over a directed acyclic graph using a round function H . Intuitively, the graph represents data dependencies between the memory blocks that are generated as computation progresses and each vertex represents a value being computed based on some dependencies. The function $f_{G,H}(x)$ can typically be defined as a labeling function i.e., given a set of vertices $V = [N] = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, N\}$, a compression function $H = \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ (often modeled as a Random Oracle in security analysis), and an input x , we “label” the nodes in V as follows. All source vertices (those with no parents) are labeled as $\ell_v(x) = H(v, x)$ and all other nodes with parents $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_\delta$ are labeled $\ell_v(x) = F_{v,H}(\ell_{v_1}(x), \ell_{v_2}(x), \dots, \ell_{v_\delta}(x))$ for a function $F_{v,H}(\cdot)$ that depends on $H(\cdot)$. The output $f_{G,H}(x)$ is then defined to be the label(s) of the sink node(s) in G .

In theoretical constructions (e.g., [AS15]) we often have $F_{v,H}(\ell_{v_1}(x), \ell_{v_2}(x), \dots, \ell_{v_\delta}(x)) = H(v, \ell_{v_1}(x), \ell_{v_2}(x), \dots, \ell_{v_\delta}(x))$ while in most real world constructions (e.g., Argon2i [BDK16]) we have $F_{v,H}(\ell_{v_1}(x), \ell_{v_2}(x), \dots, \ell_{v_\delta}(x)) = H(\ell_{v_1}(x) \oplus \ell_{v_2}(x) \dots \oplus \ell_{v_\delta}(x))$. To ensure that the function $f_{G,H}$ can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(N)$ steps, we require that G is an N -node DAG with constant indegree δ .

2.2 iMHFs and the Parallel Black Pebbling Game

Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] and Alwen and Tackmann [AT17] provided reductions proving that in the parallel random oracle model (PROM) the amortized area time complexity of the function $f_{G,H}$ is completely captured by the (parallel) black pebbling game on the DAG G when we define when we instantiate the round function as $F_{v,H}(\ell_{v_1}(x), \ell_{v_2}(x), \dots, \ell_{v_\delta}(x)) = H(v, \ell_{v_1}(x), \ell_{v_2}(x), \dots, \ell_{v_\delta}(x))$. However, *practical constructions* such as Argon2i use a different round function $F_{v,H}^\oplus(\ell_{v_1}(x), \ell_{v_2}(x), \dots, \ell_{v_\delta}(x)) = H\left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^\delta \ell_{v_j}(x)\right)$. In Section 6 we extend prior pebbling reductions to handle the round function $F_{v,H}^\oplus$, which justifies the use of pebbling games to analyze *practical constructions* of iMHFs such as Argon2i or DRSample.

Intuitively, placing a pebble on a node represents computing the corresponding memory block and storing it in memory. The rules of the black pebbling game state that we cannot place a pebble on a node v until we have pebbles on the parents of node v i.e., we cannot compute a new memory block until we have access to all of the memory blocks on which the computation depends. More formally, in the black pebbling game on a directed graph $G = (V, E)$, we place pebbles on certain vertices of G over a series of t rounds. A valid pebbling P is a sequence P_0, P_1, \dots, P_t of sets of vertices satisfying the following properties: (1) $P_0 = \emptyset$, (2) $\forall v \in P_i \setminus P_{i-1}$ we have $\text{parents}(v) \subseteq P_{i-1}$, and (3) $\forall v \in V, \exists i$ s.t. $v \in P_i$.

Intuitively, P_i denotes the *subset* of data-labels stored in memory at time i and $P_i \setminus P_{i-1}$ denotes the new data-labels that are computed during round i — the second constraint states that we can only compute these new data-labels if all of the necessary dependent data values were already in memory. The final constraint says that we must eventually pebble all nodes (otherwise we would never compute the output labels for $f_{G,H}$). We say that a pebbling is *sequential* if $\forall i > 0$ we have $|P_i \setminus P_{i-1}| \leq 1$ i.e., in every round at most *one* new pebble is placed on the graph. We use $\mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G)$ (resp. $\mathcal{P}(G)$) to denote the set of all valid parallel (resp. sequential) black pebbblings of the DAG G . We define the space-time cost of a pebbling $P = (P_1, \dots, P_t) \in \mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}$ to be $\text{st}(P) = t \times \max_{1 \leq i \leq t} |P_i|$ and the sequential space-time pebbling cost, denoted $\Pi_{st}(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G} \text{st}(P)$, is the space-time cost of the best legal pebbling of G .

There are many other pebbling games one can define on a DAG including the red-blue pebbling game [JWK81] and the black-white pebbling game [Len81]. Red-blue pebbling games can be used to analyze the bandwidth-hardness of an iMHF [RD17, BRZ18]. In this work, we primarily focus on the (parallel) black pebbling game to analyze the amortized Area-Time complexity and the sustained space complexity of a memory-hard function.

Definition 1 (Time/Space/Cumulative Pebbling Complexity). *The time, space, space-time and cumulative complexity of a pebbling $P = \{P_0, \dots, P_t\} \in \mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}$ are defined to be:*

$$\Pi_t(P) = t \quad \Pi_s(P) = \max_{i \in [t]} |P_i| \quad \Pi_{st}(P) = \Pi_t(P) \cdot \Pi_s(P) \quad \Pi_{cc}(P) = \sum_{i \in [t]} |P_i| .$$

For $\alpha \in \{s, t, st, cc\}$ the sequential and parallel pebbling complexities of G are defined as

$$\Pi_{\alpha}(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G} \Pi_{\alpha}(P) \quad \text{and} \quad \Pi_{\alpha}^{\parallel}(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}} \Pi_{\alpha}(P) .$$

It follows from the definition that for $\alpha \in \{s, t, st, cc\}$ and any G , the parallel pebbling complexity is always at most as high as the sequential, i.e., $\Pi_{\alpha}(G) \geq \Pi_{\alpha}^{\parallel}(G)$, and cumulative complexity is at most as high as space-time complexity, i.e., $\Pi_{st}(G) \geq \Pi_{cc}(G)$ and $\Pi_{st}^{\parallel}(G) \geq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$. Thus, we have $\Pi_{st}(G) \geq \Pi_{cc}(G) \geq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ and $\Pi_{st}(G) \geq \Pi_{st}^{\parallel}(G) \geq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$. However, the relationship between $\Pi_{st}^{\parallel}(G)$ and $\Pi_{cc}(G)$ is less clear. It is easy to provide examples of graphs for which $\Pi_{cc}(G) \ll \Pi_{st}^{\parallel}(G)$ ⁶. Alwen and Serbinenko showed that for the bit-reversal graph $G = \text{BRG}_n$ with $\mathcal{O}(N = 2^n)$ nodes we have $\Pi_{st}^{\parallel}(G) = \mathcal{O}(n\sqrt{n})$. In Section 4.2 we show that $\Pi_{cc}(G) = \Omega(N^2)$, thus, for some DAGs we have $\Pi_{cc}(G) \gg \Pi_{st}^{\parallel}(G)$.

⁶ One example of such a graph G would be to start the pyramid graph Δ_k , which has $\mathcal{O}(k^2)$ nodes, a single sink node t and append a path W of length k^3 starting at this sink node t . The pyramid graph requires $\Pi_s^{\parallel}(\Delta_k) = \Theta(k)$ space to pebble and has $\Pi_{cc}(\Delta_k) \leq \Pi_{st}(\Delta_k) \leq k^3$. Similarly, the path W requires at least $\Pi_t^{\parallel}(W) = \Pi_t(W) = k^3$ steps to pebble the path (even in parallel). Thus, $\Pi_{st}^{\parallel}(G) \geq k^4$. By contrast, we have $\Pi_{cc}(G) \leq \Pi_{cc}(\Delta_k) + k^3 \leq k^3 + k^3 \ll k^4$ since we can place a pebble on node t with cost $\Pi_{cc}(\Delta_k)$, discard all other pebbles from the graph and then walk this pebble across the path.

Definition 2 (Sustained Space Complexity [ABP18]). For $s \in \mathbb{N}$ the s -sustained-space (s -ss) complexity of a pebbling $P = \{P_0, \dots, P_t\} \in \mathcal{P}_G^\parallel$ is: $\Pi_{ss}(P, s) = |\{i \in [t] : |P_i| \geq s\}|$. More generally, the sequential and parallel s -sustained space complexities of G are defined as

$$\Pi_{ss}(G, s) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G} \Pi_{ss}(P, s) \quad \text{and} \quad \Pi_{ss}^\parallel(G, s) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G^\parallel} \Pi_{ss}(P, s) .$$

We remark that for any s we have $\Pi_{cc}(G) \geq \Pi_{ss}(G, s) \times s$ and $\Pi_{cc}^\parallel(G) \geq \Pi_{ss}^\parallel(G, s) \times s$.

2.3 Amortized Area-Time Cost (aAT)

Amortized Area-Time (aAT) cost is a way of viewing the cost to compute an iMHF, and it is closely related to the cost of pebbling a graph. Essentially, aAT cost represents the cost to keep pebbles in memory and adds in a factor representing the cost to compute the pebble. Here we require an additional factor, the core-memory ratio R , a multiplicative factor representing the ratio between computation cost vs memory cost. In this paper we are mainly focused on analysis of Argon2, which has previous calculations showing $R = 3000$ [BK15]. It can be assumed that this value is being used for R unless otherwise specified. The formal definition of the aAT complexity of a pebbling $P = (P_0, \dots, P_T)$ of the graph G is as follows:

$$\text{aAT}_R(P) = \sum_{i=1}^T |P_i| + R \sum_{i=1}^T |P_i \setminus P_{i-1}|$$

The (sequential) aAT complexity of a graph G is defined to be the aAT complexity of the optimal (sequential) pebbling strategy. Formally,

$$\text{aAT}_R(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}(G)} \text{aAT}_R(P) , \text{ and } \text{aAT}_R^\parallel(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}^\parallel(G)} \text{aAT}_R(P) .$$

One of the nice properties of aAT and Π_{cc}^\parallel complexity is that both cost metrics amortize nicely i.e., if G^m consists of m independent copies of the DAG G then $\text{aAT}_R^\parallel(G^m) = m \times \text{aAT}_R^\parallel(G)$. We remark that $\text{aAT}_R^\parallel(G) \geq \Pi_{cc}^\parallel(G)$, but that in most cases we will have $\text{aAT}_R^\parallel(G) \approx \Pi_{cc}^\parallel(G)$ since the number of queries to the random oracle is typically $o(\Pi_{cc}^\parallel(G))$. We will work with $\Pi_{cc}^\parallel(G)$ when conducting theoretical analysis and we will use $\text{aAT}_R^\parallel(G)$ when conducting empirical experiments, as the constant factor R is important in practice. This also makes it easier to compare our empirical results with prior work [AB17, ABH17].

2.4 Attack Quality

In many cases we will care about how efficient certain pebbling strategies are compared to others. When we work with an iMHF, we have a naive sequential algorithm \mathcal{N} for evaluation e.g. the algorithm described in the Argon2 specifications [BDK16]. Typically, the naive algorithm \mathcal{N} is relatively expensive e.g., $\text{aAT}_R(\mathcal{N}) = N^2/2 + RN$. We say

that an attacker \mathcal{A} is *successful* at reducing evaluation costs if $\mathbf{aAT}_R(\mathcal{A}) < \mathbf{aAT}_R(\mathcal{N})$. Following [AB16] we define the quality of the attack as

$$\text{AT-quality}(\mathcal{A}) = \frac{\mathbf{aAT}_R(\mathcal{N})}{\mathbf{aAT}_R(\mathcal{A})},$$

which describes how much more efficiently \mathcal{A} is able to evaluate the function compared to \mathcal{N} .

3 Analysis of the Greedy Pebbling Algorithm

In this section we present a theoretical and empirical analysis of the greedy pebbling attack [BCS16] that *reverses* previous conclusions about the *practical* security of Argon2i vs DRSSample [ABH17]. We prove two main results using the greedy algorithm. First, we show that for any N node DAG G with indegree 2 and a unique topological ordering, we have $\mathbf{aAT}_R(G) \leq \frac{N^2+2N}{4} + RN$ — see Theorem 1. Second, we prove that for any constant $\eta > 0$ and a random DRSSample DAG G on N nodes, we have $\Pi_{st}(G) \leq (1+\eta)2N^2/\log N$ with high probability — see Theorem 2. We stress that in both cases the bounds are *explicit* not *asymptotic*, and that the pebbling attacks are simple and sequential.

Alwen and Blocki [AB16] previously had shown that any DAG G with constant indegree has $\mathbf{aAT}_R(G) \in \mathcal{O}(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$, but the constants from this bound were not well understood and did not rule out the existence of an N node DAG G with $\mathbf{aAT}_R(G) \geq N^2/2 + RN$ for *practical* values of N e.g., unless we use more than 16GB of RAM we have $N \leq 2^{24}$ for Argon2i or DRSSample⁷. By contrast, Theorem 1 immediately implies that $\mathbf{aAT}_R(G) \leq \frac{N^2+2N}{4} + RN$. Similarly, Alwen et al. [ABH17] previously showed that with high probability a DRSSample DAG G has $\mathbf{aAT}_R(G) \in \Omega(N^2/\log N)$, but the constants in this lower bound were not well understood. On a theoretical side our analysis shows that this bound is tight i.e., $\mathbf{aAT}_R(G) \in \Theta(N^2/\log N)$. It also proves that DRSSample does not quite match the generic upper bound of Alwen and Blocki [AB16].

Extension of the Greedy Pebbling Attack: Our analysis leaves us in an uncomfortable position where *every practical* iMHF candidate has high quality pebbling attacks i.e., greedy pebble for DRSSample and depth-reducing attacks for Argon2i. We would like to develop a practical iMHF candidate that provides strong resistance against all known pebbling attacks for all practical values of $N \leq 2^{24}$. We first consider a defense proposed by Biryukov et al. [BDK16] against the greedy pebbling attack. While this defense provides optimal protection against the greedy pebbling attack, we introduce an extension of the greedy pebbling attack which we call the *staggered* greedy pebbling attack and show that the trick of Biryukov et al. [BDK16] fails to protect against the extended attack.

⁷ In Argon2, the block-size is 1KB so when we use $N=2^{24}$ nodes the honest party would require 16GB ($= N \times \text{KB}$) of RAM to evaluate the MHF. Thus, we view 2^{24} as a reasonable upper bound on the the number of blocks that would be used in practical applications.

3.1 The Greedy Pebbling Algorithm

We first review the greedy pebbling algorithm, shown here as Algorithm 1. We first introduce some notation

gc(v): For each node $v < N$ we let $\text{gc}(v) = \max\{w \mid (v,w) \in E\}$ denote the maximum child of node v — if $v < N$ then the set $\{w \mid (v,w) \in E\}$ is non-empty as it contains the node $v+1$. If node v has no children then set $\text{gc}(v) := v$.

$\chi(i)$: This represents what we call the crossing set of the i th node. It is defined as $\chi(i) = \{v \mid v \leq i \wedge \text{gc}(v) > i\}$. Intuitively this represents the set of nodes $v \leq i$ incident to a directed edge (v,u) that “crosses over” node i i.e. $u > i$.

Greedy Pebbling Strategy: Set $\text{GP}(G) = P = (P_1, \dots, P_N)$ where $P_i = \chi(i)$ for each $i \leq N$. Intuitively, the pebbling strategy can be described follows: In round i we place a pebble on node i and we then discard *any* pebbles on nodes v that are no longer needed in any future round i.e., for all future nodes $w > i$ we have $v \notin \text{parents}(w)$ (equivalently, the greatest-child of node v is $\text{gc}(v) \leq i$). We refer the reader to Algorithm 1 in the appendix for a formal algorithmic description.

We first prove the following *general* lower bound for *any* N node DAG with $\text{indeg}(G) \leq 2$ that has a unique topological ordering i.e., G contains each of the edges $(i, i+1)$. In particular, Theorem 1 shows that for any such DAG G we have $\Pi_{st}(G) \lesssim \frac{N^2}{2}$ and $\Pi_{cc}(G) \lesssim N^2/4$. We stress that this is *twice* as efficient as the naive pebbling algorithm \mathcal{N} which set $P_i = \{1, \dots, i\}$ for each $i \leq N$ and has cumulative cost $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\mathcal{N}) = \frac{N^2}{2}$. Previously, the gold standard was to find constructions of DAGs G with N nodes such that $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \gtrsim \frac{N^2}{2}$ for *practical* values of N — asymptotic results did not rule out this possibility even for $N \leq 2^{40}$. Theorem 1 demonstrates that the best we could hope for is to ensure $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \gtrsim \frac{N^2}{4}$ for *practical* values of N .

Theorem 1. *Let $r : \mathbb{N}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be any function with the property that $r(i) < i - 1$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$. Then the DAG $G = (V, E)$ with N nodes $V = \{1, \dots, N\}$ and edges $E = \{(i-1, i) : 1 < i \leq N\} \cup \{(r(i), i) : 2 < i \leq N\}$ has $\Pi_{st}(G) \leq \frac{N^2+2N}{2}$ and $\Pi_{cc}(G) \leq \frac{N^2+2N}{4}$ and $\text{aAT}_R(G) \leq \frac{N^2+2N}{4} + RN$.*

The full proof of Theorem 1 is in Appendix C. Intuitively, Theorem 1 follows from the observation that in any pebbling we have $|P_i| \leq i$, and in the greedy pebbling we also have $|P_i| \leq N - i$ since there can be at most $N - i$ nodes w such that $w = r(v)$ for some $v > i$ and other pebbles on any other node would have been discarded by the greedy pebbling algorithm.

3.2 Analysis of the Greedy Pebble Attack on DRSSample

We now turn our attention to the specific case of the iMHF DRSSample. The DRSSample distribution is defined formally in Algorithm 3 in the appendix. A DAG G sampled from this distribution has edges of the form $(i, i+1)$ and $(r(i), i)$ where each $r(i) < i$ is independently selected from some distribution. It is not necessary to understand all of the details of this distribution to follow our analysis in this section as the crucial property that we require is given in Claim 1 which is proved in Appendix C. Intuitively, Claim 1 follows because we have $\Pr[r(j) = i] \sim \frac{1}{\log j} \times \frac{1}{|j-i|}$ for each node $i < j$ in DRSSample.

Claim 1 Let G be a randomly sampled DRSample DAG with N nodes and let $Y_{i,j}$ be an indicator random variable for the event that $r(j) < i$ for nodes $i < j \leq N$ then we have $\mathbf{E}[Y_{i,j}] = \Pr[r(j) < i] \leq 1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j}$.

If $P = (P_1, \dots, P_N) = \mathbf{GP}(G)$, then we remark that $\chi(i)$ can be viewed as an alternate characterization of the set $P_i = \chi(i)$ of pebbles on the graph at time i . Lemma 1 now implies that with high probability, we will have $|P_i| \leq (1+\delta)N/n$ during *all pebbling rounds*.

Lemma 1. Given a DAG G on $N = 2^n$ nodes sampled using the randomized DR-Sample algorithm for any $\eta > 0$ we have

$$\Pr \left[\max_i |\chi(i)| > (1+\eta) \left(\frac{2N}{n} \right) \right] \leq \exp \left(\frac{-2\eta^2 N}{3n} + n \ln 2 \right).$$

Lemma 1, which bounds the size of $\max_i |\chi(i)|$, is proved in Appendix C. Intuitively, the proof uses the observation that $\chi(i) \leq \sum_{j=i+1}^N Y_{i,j}$ where $Y_{i,j}$ is an indicator random variable for the event that $r(j) \leq i$. This is because $\chi(i)$ is upper bounded by the number of edges that “cross” over the node i . We can then use Claim 1 and standard concentration bounds to obtain Lemma 1.

Theorem 2, our main result in this section, now follows immediately from Lemma 1. Theorem 2 states that, except with negligibly small probability, the sequential pebbling cost of a DRSample DAG is at most $(1+\eta) \left(\frac{2N^2}{n} \right) + RN$.

Theorem 2. Let G be a randomly sampled DRSample DAG with $N = 2^n$ nodes then for all $\eta > 0$ we have

$$\Pr \left[\Pi_{st}(GP(G)) > (1+\eta) \left(\frac{2N^2}{n} \right) \right] \leq \exp \left(\frac{-2\eta^2 N}{3n} + n \ln 2 \right).$$

Proof. Fix $\eta > 0$ and consider a randomly sampled N -node DRSample DAG G . We let $P = \mathbf{GP}(G)$. We observe that $|P_i| = \chi(i)$. By Lemma 1, except with probability $\exp \left(\frac{-\eta^2 N/n}{3} \right)$, we have

$$N \times \max_{i \in [N]} \chi(i) \leq (1+\eta) \left(\frac{2N^2}{n} \right). \quad (1)$$

We now obtain the final result by union bounding over $i \leq N$. Assuming that Equation 1 holds for all $i \leq N$, we have $\Pi_{st}(GP(G)) \leq (1+\eta) \left(\frac{2N^2}{n} \right) + RN$ as claimed. \square

Discussion. Theorem 2 implies that the (sequential) aAT complexity of DRSample is $\mathbf{aAT}_R(G) \lesssim 2N^2/\log N \in \mathcal{O}(N^2/\log N)$, which asymptotically matches the lower bound of $\Omega(N^2/\log N)$ [ABH17]. More significant from a practical standpoint is that the constant factors in the upper bound are given explicitly. Theorem 2 implies attack quality at least $\gtrsim \frac{\log N}{4}$ since the cost of the naive pebbling algorithm is $N^2/2$. Thus, for *practical* values of $N \leq 2^{24}$ we will get high quality attacks and our empirical analysis

suggests that attack quality actually scales with $\log N$. On a positive note the pebbling attack is *sequential*, which means that we could adjust the naive (honest) evaluation algorithm to simply use \mathcal{N} to use $\text{GP}(G)$ instead because the greedy pebbling strategy is *sequential*. While this would lead to an *egalitarian* function, the outcome is still undesirable from the standpoint of password hashing where we want to ensure that the attacker’s absolute aAT costs are as high as possible given a fixed running time N .

3.3 Empirical Analysis of the GP Attack

We ran the greedy pebbling attack against several iMHF DAGs including Argon2i, DRSample and our new construction DRSample+BRG (see Section 4) and compare the Attack Quality of greedy pebble with prior depth-reducing attacks. The results, seen in Figure 2 (left), show that the GP attack was especially effective against the DRSample DAG, improving attack quality by a factor of up to 7 (at $n=24$) when compared to previous state-of-the-art depth-reducing attacks (Valiant, Layered, and various hybrid approaches) [Val77, AB16, ABH17].

The most important observation about Figure 2 (left) is simply how effective the greedy pebbling attack is against DRSample. We remark that attack quality for DRSample with $N=2^n$ nodes seems to be approximately n — slightly better than the theoretical guarantees from Theorem 2. While DRSample may have the strongest asymptotic guarantees (i.e. $\text{aAT}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega(N^2/\log N)$ for DRSample vs. $\text{aAT}^{\parallel}(G) = \mathcal{O}(N^{1.767})$ for Argon2i) Argon2i seems to provide better resistance to known pebbling attacks for *practical* parameter ranges.

When testing the GP attack against Argon2i we found that, while the Greedy Pebbling attack does sometimes outperform depth-reducing attacks at smaller values of n , the depth-reducing attacks appear to be superior once we reach graph sizes that would likely be used in practice. As an example, when $n=20$ we find that the attack quality of the greedy pebbling attack is just 2.99, while the best depth-reducing attack achieved attack quality 6.25 [ABH17].

3.4 Defense Against Greedy Pebbling Attack: Attempt 1 XOR extension

Biryukov et al. [BDK16] introduced a simple defense against the greedy pebbling attack of Boneh et al. [BCS16] for iMHFs that make two passes over memory. Normally during computation the block $B_{i+N/2}$ would be stored at memory location i overwriting block B_i . The idea of the defense is to XOR the two blocks $B_{i+N/2}$ and B_i before overwriting block B_i in memory. Biryukov et al. [BDK16] observed that this defense does not *significantly* slow down computation because block B_i would have been loaded into cache before it is overwritten in either case. The effect of performing this extra computation is effectively to add each edge of the form $(i - \frac{N}{2}, i)$ to the DAG G . In particular, this means that the greedy pebbling algorithm will not discard the pebble on node $i - \frac{N}{2}$ until round i , which is when the honest pebbling algorithm would have discarded the pebble anyway. Given a graph $G = (V, E)$ we use $G^{\oplus} = (V, E^{\oplus})$ to denote the XOR-extension graph of G where $E^{\oplus} = E \cup \{(i - \frac{N}{2}, i) \mid i > \frac{N}{2}\}$. It is easy to see that $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{GP}(G^{\oplus})) \geq \frac{N^2 + 2N}{4}$, which would make it tempting to conclude that the XOR-extension defeats the greedy pebbling attack.

Greedy Pebble Extension: Given a graph G on N nodes let $P = (P_1, \dots, P_N) = \text{GP}(G)$ and let $Q = (Q_1, \dots, Q_{N/2}) = \text{GP}(G_{\leq N/2})$. Define $\text{GPE}(G^\oplus) = (P_1^\oplus, \dots, P_N^\oplus)$ where $P_{i+N/2-1}^\oplus = Q_i \cup P_{i+N/2-1}$ and $P_i^\oplus = P_i$ for $i < N/2$. See Algorithm 2 in the appendix for a formal algorithm presentation. Intuitively, the attack exploits the fact that *always* ensure that we have a pebble on the extra node $v \in \text{parents}(N/2+v)$ at time $N/2+v-1$ by using the greedy pebble algorithm to synchronously re-pebble the nodes $1, \dots, N/2$ a second time.

Theorem 3 demonstrates that the new generalized greedy pebble algorithm is effective against the XOR-extension gadget. In particular, Corollary 2 states that we still obtain high quality attacks against DRSample^\oplus so the XOR-gadget does not significantly improve the aAT cost of DRSample .

Theorem 3. *Let $r: \mathbb{N}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be any function with the property that $r(i) < i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ and let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with N nodes $V = \{1, \dots, N\}$ and directed edges $E = \{(i, i+1) \mid i < N\} \cup \{r(i), i \mid 1 < i \leq N\}$. If $P = \text{GP}(G) \in \mathcal{P}(G)$ and $Q \in \mathcal{P}(G_{\leq N/2})$ then the XOR-extension graph G^\oplus of G has amortized Area-Time complexity at most*

$$\text{aAT}^{\parallel}_R(G^\oplus) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N/2} |P_i| + \sum_{i=1}^N |Q_i| + \frac{3RN}{2} .$$

Corollary 1. *Let $r: \mathbb{N}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be any function with the property that $r(i) < i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ and let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with N nodes $V = \{1, \dots, N\}$ and directed edges $E = \{(i, i+1) \mid i < N\} \cup \{r(i), i \mid 1 < i \leq N\}$. Then for the XOR-extension graph G^\oplus we have $\text{aAT}^{\parallel}_R(G^\oplus) \leq \frac{5N^2+12N}{16} + \frac{3RN}{2}$.*

The proof of Theorem 3 can be found in the appendix. One consequence of Theorem 3 is that the XOR-extension gadget does not rescue DRSample from the greedy pebble attack — see Corollary 2.

Corollary 2. *Fix $\eta > 0$ be a fixed constant and let $G = (V, E)$ be randomly sampled DRSample DAG with $N = 2^n$ nodes $V = \{1, \dots, N\}$ and directed edges $E = \{(i, i+1) \mid i < N\} \cup \{r(i), i \mid 1 < i \leq N\}$. Then*

$$\Pr \left[\text{aAT}^{\parallel}_R(G^\oplus) > (1+\eta) \left(\frac{3N^2}{n} - \frac{N^2}{n(n-1)} \right) + \frac{3RN}{2} \right] \leq \exp \left(\frac{-\eta^2 N}{3(n-1)} + 1 + n \ln 2 \right) .$$

Proof. Fix $\eta > 0$ and let $P = \text{GP}(G)$ where G is a randomly sampled DRSample DAG. By Lemma 1, except with probability $\exp \left(\frac{-2\eta^2 N}{3n} + n \ln 2 \right)$, we have $\max_i |P_i| = \max_i \chi(i) \leq (1+\eta) \frac{2N}{n}$ which means that $\sum_{i=1}^N |P_i| \leq (1+\eta) \frac{2N^2}{n}$. Similarly, let $Q = \text{GP}(G_{\leq N/2})$ be a greedy pebbling of the subgraph formed by the first $N/2$ nodes in G . We remark that $G_{\leq N/2}$ can be viewed as a randomly DRSample DAG with $N/2 = 2^{n-1}$ nodes. Thus, except with probability $\exp \left(\frac{-\eta^2 N}{3(n-1)} + (n-1) \ln 2 \right)$ we have $\max_{i \leq N/2} |Q_i| = \max_i \chi(i) \leq (1+\eta) \frac{N}{n-1}$ since the first $N/2$ nodes of G form a random DRSample DAG with $N/2 = 2^{n-1}$ nodes. This would imply that $\sum_{i=1}^{N/2} |Q_i| \leq (1+\eta) \frac{N}{n-1}$. Putting both bounds together Theorem 3 implies that $\text{aAT}^{\parallel}(G^\oplus) \leq (1+\eta) \left(\frac{3N^2}{n} - \frac{N^2}{n(n-1)} \right) + \frac{3RN}{2}$. \square

4 New iMHF Construction with Optimal Security

In this section we introduce a new iMHF construction called DRSample+BRG. The new construction is obtained by overlaying a bit-reversal graph BRG_n [LT82] on top of a random DRSample DAG. If G denotes a random DRSample DAG with $N/2$ nodes then we will use $\text{BRG}(G)$ to denote the bit-reversal overlay with N nodes. Intuitively, the result is a graph that resists both the greedy pebble attack (which is very effective against DRSample alone) and depth-reducing attacks (which DRSample was designed to resist). An even more exciting result is that we can show that DRSample+BRG is the first practical construction to provide strong sustained space complexity guarantees. Interestingly, neither graph (DRSample or BRG) is individually known to provide strong sustained space guarantees. Instead, several of our proof exploits synergic properties of both graphs. We elaborate on the desirable properties of DRSample+BRG below.

First, our new construction inherits desirable properties from *both* the bit-reversal graph and DRSample. For example, $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{BRG}(G)) \geq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega(N^2/\log N)$. Similarly, it immediately follows that $\text{BRG}(G)$ is maximally bandwidth hard. In particular, Ren and Devadas [RD17] showed that BRG_n is maximally bandwidth hard, and Blocki et al. [BRZ18] showed that DRSample is maximally bandwidth hard.

Second, $\text{BRG}(G)$ provides optimal resistance to the greedy pebbling attack — $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{GP}(\text{BRG}(G))) \approx N^2/4$. Furthermore, we can show that *any* c -parallel pebbling attack $P = (P_1, \dots, P_t)$ in which $|P_{i+1} \setminus P_i| \leq c$ has cost $\Pi_{cc}(P) = \Omega(N^2)$. This rules out any *extension* of the greedy pebble attack e.g., GPE (Algorithm 2) is 2-parallel. In fact, we prove that this property already holds for any c -parallel pebbling of the bit reversal graph BRG_n . Our proof that $\Pi_{cc}(\text{BRG}_n) = \Omega(N^2)$ generalizes the well-known result that $\Pi_{st}(\text{BRG}_n) = \Omega(N^2)$ and may be of independent interest.

Third, we can show that *any* parallel pebbling P of $\text{BRG}(G)$ *either* has $\Pi_{cc}(P) = \Omega(N^2)$ or has maximal sustained space complexity $\Pi_{ss}(P, s) = \Omega(N)$ for space $s = \Omega(N/\log N)$ i.e., there are at least $\Omega(N)$ steps with at least $\Omega(N/\log N)$ pebbles on the graph. To prove this last property we must rely on properties of *both* graphs G and BRG_n i.e., the fact that DRSample is highly block-depth robust and the fact that edges BRG_n are evenly distributed over every interval. This makes $\text{BRG}(G)$ the first *practical* construction of a DAG with provably strong sustained space complexity guarantees.

Finally, we can show that $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$, matching the general upper bound of Alwen and Blocki [AB16], under a plausible conjecture about the block-depth-robustness of G . In particular, we conjecture that G is (e, d, b) -block depth robust for $e = \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$, $d = \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ and $b = \Omega\left(\frac{\log N}{\log \log N}\right)$. In the appendix, we also show how to construct a constant indegree DAG G' with $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G') = \Omega(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$ from *any* (e, d) -depth robust graph by overlaying a superconcentrator on top of G [Pip77]. However, the resulting construction is not *practically efficient*. For the bit reversal overlay $G' = \text{BRG}(G)$ we require the slightly stronger assumption that G is *block-depth-robust*. As evidence for the conjecture we show that *known* attacks require the removal of a set S of $e = \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ to

achieve $\text{depth}(G-S) \leq \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$. Thus, we would need to find *substantially* improved depth-reducing attacks to refute the conjectures.

Bit-Reversal Graph Background: The bit reversal graph was originally proposed by Lenguer and Tarjan [LT82] who showed that any sequential pebbling has maximal space-time complexity. Forler et al. [FLW14] previously incorporated this graph into the design of their iMHF candidate Catena which received special recognition at the password hashing competition [PHC16]. While we are not focused on sequential space-time complexity the bit reversal graph has several other useful properties that we exploit in our analysis (see Lemma 2).

Local Samplable. We note that one benefit of DRS+BRG is that it is locally samplable, a notion mentioned as desirable in [ABH17]. Specifically, we want to be able to compute the parent blocks with time and space $\mathcal{O}(\log|V|)$ with small constants. DRS+BRG meets this requirement. Edges sampled from DRSSample were shown to be locally navigable in [ABH17], and each bit-reversal edge a simple operation called requires one bit reversal operation, which can easily be computed in $\mathcal{O}(\log|V|)$. The formal description of the bit-reversal overlay graph $\text{BRG}(G)$ is presented in Definition 4 and is presented in algorithmic form in Algorithm 4 in the appendix.

The Bit-Reversal DAG Given a sequence of bits $X = x_1 \circ x_2 \circ \dots \circ x_n$, let $\text{ReverseBits}(X) = x_n \circ x_{n-1} \circ \dots \circ x_1$. Let $\text{integer}(X)$ be the integer representation of bit-string X starting at 1 so that $\text{integer}(\{0,1\}^n) = [2^n]$ i.e., $\text{integer}(0^n) = 1$ and $\text{integer}(1^n) = 2^n$. Similarly, let $\text{bits}(v,n)$ be the length n binary encoding of $(v-1) \bmod 2^n$ e.g., $\text{bits}(1,n) = 0^n$ and $\text{bits}(2^n,n) = 1^n$ so that for all $v \in [2^n]$ we have $\text{integer}(\text{bits}(v,n)) = v$.

Definition 3. We use the notation BRG_n to denote the bit reversal graph with 2^{n+1} nodes. In particular, $\text{BRG}_n = (V = [2^{n+1}], E = E_1 \cup E_2)$ where $E_1 := \{(i, i+1) : 1 \leq i < 2^{n+1}\}$ and $E_2 := \{(x, 2^n + y) : x = \text{integer}(\text{ReverseBits}(\text{bits}(y,n)))\}$. That is, E_2 contains an edge from node $x \leq 2^n$ to node $2^n + y$ in BRG_n if and only if $x = \text{integer}(\text{ReverseBits}(\text{bits}(y,n)))$.

Claim 2 states that the cumulative memory cost of the greedy pebbling strategy $\text{GP}(\text{BRG}_n)$ is at least $N^2 + N$.

Claim 2 $\Pi_{cc}(\text{GP}(\text{BRG}_n)) \geq N^2 + N$

Proof. Let $P = (P_1, \dots, P_{2N}) = \text{GP}(\text{BRG}_n)$. We first note that for all $i \leq N$ we have $P_i = \{1, \dots, i\}$ since $\text{gc}(i) > N$ — every node on the bottom layer $[N]$ has an edge to some node on the top layer $[N+1, 2N]$. Second, observe that for any round $i > N$ we have $|(P_i \setminus P_{i-1}) \cap [N]| \leq 1$ since the only pebble in $[N]$ that might be discarded is the (unique) parent of node i . Thus,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2N} |P_i| \geq \sum_{i=1}^N i + \sum_{i=1}^N (N-i+1) = N(N+1). \quad \square$$

Thus, we now define the bit-reversal overlay of the bit reversal graph on a graph G_1 . If the graph G_1 has N nodes then $\text{BRG}(G_1)$ has $2N$ nodes, and the subgraph induced by the first N nodes of $\text{BRG}(G_1)$ is simply G_1 .

Definition 4. Let $G_1 = (V_1 = [N], E_1)$ be a fixed DAG with $N = 2^n$ nodes and $\text{BRG}_n = (V = [2N], E)$ denote the bit-reversal graph. Then we use $\text{BRG}(G_1) = (V, E \cup E_1)$ to denote the bit-reversal overlay of G_1 .

In our analysis, we will rely heavily on the following key-property of the bit-reversal graph from Lemma 2.

Lemma 2. Let $G = \text{BRG}_n$ and $N = 2^n$ so that G has $2N$ nodes. For a given b , partition $[N]$ into $\frac{N}{2^{n-b}} = 2^b$ intervals

$$I_k = [(k-1)2^{n-b}, k2^{n-b} - 1],$$

each having length 2^{n-b} , for $1 \leq k \leq 2^b$. Then for any interval I of length 2^{b+1} , with $I \subseteq [N+1, 2N]$, there exists an edge from each I_k to I , for $1 \leq k \leq 2^b$.

Proof of Lemma 2. Let I be any interval of length 2^b , with $I \subseteq [N+1, 2N]$. Note that every 2^b length bitstring appears as a suffix in I . Thus, there exists an edge from each interval containing a unique 2^b length bitstring as a prefix. It follows that there exists an edge from each I_k to I , for $1 \leq k \leq 2^b$. \square

As we will see, the consequences of Lemma 2 will have powerful implications for the pebbling complexity of $G = \text{BRG}(G_1)$ whenever the underlying DAG G_1 is (e, d, b) -block-depth-robust. In particular, Lemma 3 states that if we start with pebbles on a set $|P_i| < e/2$ then for *any initially empty* interval I of $\mathcal{O}(N/b)$ consecutive nodes in the top-half of G we have the property that $H := G - \bigcup_{x \in P_i} [x-b+1, x]$ is an $(e/2, d, b)$ -block-depth-robust graph that will need to be *completely re-pebbled* (at cost at least $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(H) \geq ed/2$) just to advance a pebble across the interval I . See Appendix C for the proof of Lemma 3.

Lemma 3. Let $G_1 = (V_1 = [N], E)$ be a (e, d, b) -block depth-robust graph with $N = 2^n$ nodes and let $G = \text{BRG}(G_1)$ denote the bit-reversal extension of G_1 with $2N$ nodes $V(G) = [2N]$. For any interval $I = [N+i+1, N+i+1 + \frac{4N}{b}] \subseteq [2N]$ and any $S \subseteq [1, N+i]$ with $|S| < \frac{e}{2}$, $\text{ancestors}_{G-S}(I)$ is $(\frac{e}{2}, d, b)$ -block depth-robust.

Lemma 4. Let G be a (e, d, b) -Block Depth Robust DAG with $N = 2^n$ and let $G' = \text{BRG}(G)$ be the bit reversal overlay of G . Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G')$ be a legal pebbling of G' and let t_v be the first time where $v \in P_{t_v}$. Then for all $v \geq 1$ such that $e' := |P_{t_{v+N}}| \leq \frac{e}{4}$ and $v \leq N - \frac{32Ne'}{be}$, we have

$$\sum_{j=t_{v+N}}^{t_{v+N} + \frac{32Ne'}{be} - 1} |P_j| \geq \frac{ed}{2}.$$

Proof of Lemma 4. Let $v \leq N - \frac{32Ne'}{be}$ be given such that the set $S = P_{t_{N+v}}$ has size at most $e' = |S| \leq e/4$ and set $b' = \frac{eb}{4e'}$. Consider the ancestors of the interval $I = [N+v+1, N+v + \frac{8N}{b'}]$ in the graph $G' - S$. Note that $I \cap S = \emptyset$ since v is the maximum node that has been pebbled at time t_{N+v} . We have

$$H := G - \bigcup_{x \in S} [x-b'+1, x] \subseteq \text{ancestor}_{G'-S}(I)$$

because for any node $u \in V(G)$ if $u \notin \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x]$ then $[u, u + b' - 1] \cap S = \emptyset$ which implies that there exists an “ S -free path” from u to I by Lemma 2. Thus, H will have to be repebbled completely at some point during the time interval $\left[t_{v+N}, t_{v+N + \frac{32Ne'}{be} - 1} \right]$ since $\frac{32Ne'}{be} \geq \frac{8N}{b}$.

Since $b' = \frac{eb}{4e'} \geq b$ we note that the e' intervals of length b' we are removing can be covered by at most $\lceil b'/b \rceil e' = \lceil e/(4e') \rceil e' \leq (e/4) + e' \leq e/2$ intervals of length e . Hence, Lemma 3 implies that H is still $(e/2, d, b)$ -Block Depth Robust and, consequently, we have that $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(H) \geq ed/2$ by [ABP17]. We can conclude that

$$\sum_{j=t_{v+N}}^{t_{v+N + \frac{32Ne'}{be} - 1}} |P_j| \geq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(H) \geq ed/2. \quad \square$$

4.1 Sustained Space Complexity (Tradeoff Theorem)

We prove that for any parameter $e = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N}{\log N}\right)$ the cumulative pebbling cost of any parallel (legal) pebbling P is has cost least $\Pi(P) = \Omega(N^3/(e \log N))$, or there are at least $\Omega(N)$ steps with at least e pebbles on the graph i.e., $\Pi_{ss,e}(P) = \Omega(N)$. Note that the cumulative pebbling cost rapidly increases as e decreases e.g., if $e = \sqrt{N}/\log N$ then any pebbling P for which $\Pi_{ss}(P, e) = o(N)$ must have $\Pi(P) = \Omega(N^{2.5})$.

To begin we start with the known result that (with high probability) a randomly sampled DRSample DAG G is (e, d, b) -Block Depth Robust with $e = \Omega(N/\log N)$, $b = \Omega(\log N)$, and $d = \Omega(N)$ [ABH17]. Lemma 5 now implies that the DAG is also (e', d, b') -block-depth robust for any suitable parameters e' and b' . Intuitively, if we delete e' intervals of length $b' > b$ then we can cover these deleted intervals with *at most* $e' \left(\frac{b'}{b} + 1\right)$ intervals of length b , as illustrated in Figure 1. The formal proof of Lemma 5 is in the appendix.

Lemma 5. *Suppose that a DAG G is (e, d, b) -Block Depth Robust and that parameters e' and b' satisfies the condition that $e' \left(\frac{b'}{b}\right) + e' \leq \frac{e}{2}$. Then G is (e', d, b') -Block Depth Robust, and for all S with size $|S| \leq e'$ the graph $H = G - \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x]$ is $(\frac{e}{2}, d, b)$ -Block Depth Robust.*

Together Lemma 4 and Lemma 5 imply that we must incur pebbling cost $\Omega(ed)$ to pebble *any* interval of $\Omega\left(\frac{Ne'}{be}\right)$ consecutive nodes in the top-half of $\text{BRG}(G)$ starting from *any* configuration with at most $e' \leq e/4$ pebbles on the graph.

Theorem 4, our main result in this subsection, now follows because for any pebbling $P \in \Pi^{\parallel}(\text{BRG}(G))$ and any interval I of $\Omega\left(\frac{Ne'}{be}\right)$ nodes in the top-half of G we must either (1) keep at least e' pebbles on the graph while we walk a pebble across the first half of the interval I , or (2) pay cost $\Omega(ed)$ to re-pebble a depth-robust graph. Since there are $\Omega\left(\frac{eb}{e'}\right)$ such disjoint intervals we must either keep $|P_i| \geq e'$ pebbles on the graph for $\Omega(N)$ rounds, or pay cost $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P) \geq \frac{e^2 db}{64e'}$.

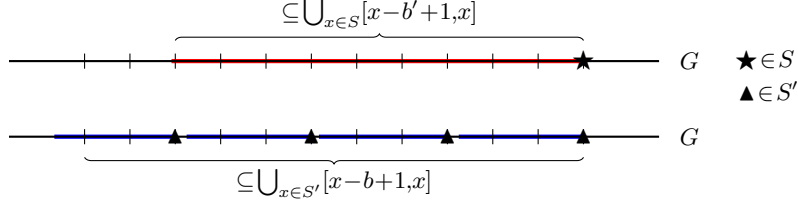


Fig. 1: Intervals $\bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x]$ and $\bigcup_{x \in S'} [x - b + 1, x]$ when $b' = 10$ and $b = 3$. Observe that $\bigcup_{x \in S'} [x - b + 1, x] \supset \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x]$ over the integers.

Theorem 4. *Let G be any (e, d, b) -Block Depth Robust DAG on $N = 2^n$ nodes, and $G' = \text{BRG}(G)$ be the bit reversal overlay of G . Then for any pebbling $P \in \Pi^{\parallel}(G)$ and all $e' \leq \frac{e}{4}$, we have either $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P) \geq \frac{e^2 db}{64e'}$, or $\Pi_{ss}(P, e') \geq \frac{N}{4} - o(N)$ i.e., at least $\frac{N}{4} - o(N)$ rounds i in which $|P_i| \geq e'$.*

Corollary 3 follows immediately from Theorem 4.

Corollary 3. *Let G be any $\left(\frac{c_1 N}{\log N}, c_2 N, c_3 \log N\right)$ -Block Depth Robust DAG on $N = 2^n$ nodes for some constants $c_1, c_2, c_3 > 0$ and let $G' = \text{BRG}(G)$ be the bit reversal overlay of G . Then for any $e' < \frac{c_1 N}{4 \log N}$ and any pebbling $P \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G')$ we have either $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P) \geq \frac{c_1^2 c_2 c_3 N^3}{64e' \log N}$, or $\Pi_{ss}(P, e') \geq \frac{N}{4} - o(N)$ i.e., at least $\frac{N}{4} - o(N)$ rounds j in which $|P_j| \geq e'$.*

Remark 1. Alwen et al. previously proved that for constants $c_1 = 2.4 \times 10^{-4}$, $c_2 = 0.03$ and $c_3 = 160$ a randomly sampled DAG G from DRSample will be $\left(\frac{c_1 N}{\log N}, c_2 N, c_3 \log N\right)$ -Block Depth Robust except with negligible probability [ABH17]. Thus, with high probability Corollary 3 can be applied to the bit reversal overlay $\text{BRG}(G)$. Notice also that as e' decreases, the lower bound on $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P)$ increases rapidly e.g., if a pebbling does not have at least $\Omega(N)$ steps with at least $e' = \Omega(\sqrt{N})$ pebbles on the graph, then $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P) = \tilde{\Omega}(N^{2.5})$.

A Conjectured (tight) Lower Bound on $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{BRG}(G))$. The idea behind the proof of Theorem 5 in the appendix is very similar to the proof of Theorem 4 — an attacker must either keep $e/2$ pebbles on the graph most of the time or the attacker must pay $\Omega(edb)$ to repebble an (e, d) -depth $\Omega(b)$ times. In fact, a slightly weaker version (worse constants) of Theorem 5 follows as a corollary of Theorem 4 since $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P) \geq e' \times \Pi_{ss}(P, e')$. Under our conjecture that DR-Sample DAGs are $(c_1 N \log \log N / \log N, c_2 N \log \log N / \log N, c_3 \log N / \log \log N)$ -block depth-robust graph, Theorem 5 implies that $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{BRG}(G)) = \Omega(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$. In fact, any pebbling must either keep $\Omega(N \log \log N / \log N)$ pebbles on the graph for $\approx N/4$ steps or the pebbling has cost $\Omega(N^2 \log \log N)$.

Theorem 5. *Let G_1 be an (e, d, b) -block depth-robust graph with $N = 2^n$ nodes. Then $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{BRG}(G_1)) \geq \min\left(\frac{eN}{2}, \frac{edb}{32}\right)$.*

Evidence for Conjecture. In Appendix I we present evidence for our conjecture on the (block)-depth robustness of DRSample. We show that *all* known techniques for constructing depth-reducing sets *fail* to refute our conjecture. Along the way we introduce a general technique for bounding the size of a set S produced by Valiant’s Lemma⁸. In this attack we partition the edges into sets E_1, \dots, E_n where E_i contains the set of all edges (u, v) such that the most significant different bit of (the binary encoding of) u and v is i . By deleting j of these edge sets (e.g., by removing one node incident to each edge) we can reduce the depth of the graph to $N/2^j$. In Corollary 7 we show that for any edge distribution function $r(v) < v$ we have

$$\mathbb{E}[|E_i|] = \frac{N}{2^i} + \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i}-1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \Pr[2^{i-1} + m \geq v - r(v) > m]$$

where the value of the random variable $|E_i|$ will be tightly concentrated around its mean since for each node v the edge distribution function $r(v)$ is independent.

4.2 (Nearly) Sequential Pebblings of BRG_n have Maximum Cost

In this section, we show that for *any* constant $c \geq 1$ *any* c -parallel pebbling P of BRG_n must have cost $\Pi_{\text{cc}}(P) = \Omega(N^2)$. A pebbling $P = (P_1, \dots, P_t)$ is said to be c -parallel if we have $|P_{i+1} \setminus P_i| \leq c$ for all round $i < t$. We remark that this rules out *any* natural extension of the greedy pebbling attack e.g., the extension from the previous section which defeated the XOR extension graph G^\oplus was a $c=2$ -parallel pebbling. We also remark that our proof generalizes a well-known result of [LT82] which implied that $\Pi_{\text{st}}(\text{BRG}_n) = \Omega(N^2)$ for *any* sequential pebbling. For parallel pebbings it is known that $\Pi_{\text{st}}^{\parallel} = \mathcal{O}(N^{1.5})$ [AS15] though this pebbling attack requires parallelism $c = \sqrt{N}$.

It is easy to show (e.g., from Lemma 2) that starting from a configuration with $|P_i| \leq e$ pebbles on the graph, it will take $\Omega(N)$ steps to advance a pebble $\mathcal{O}(e)$ steps on the top of the graph. It follows that $\Pi_{\text{st}}(\text{BRG}_n) = \Omega(N^2)$. The challenge in lower bounding $\Pi_{\text{cc}}(G)$ as in Theorem 6 is that space usage might not remain constant throughout the pebbling. Once we have proved that $\Pi_{\text{cc}}(G) = \Omega(N^2)$ we then note that any c -parallel pebbling P can be transformed into a sequential pebbling Q s.t. $\Pi_{\text{cc}}(Q) \leq c \times \Pi_{\text{cc}}(P)$ by dividing each transition $P_i \rightarrow P_{i+1}$ into c transitions to ensure that $|Q_j \setminus Q_{j-1}| \leq 1$. Thus, it follows that $\Pi_{\text{cc}}(P) = \Omega(N^2)$ for any c -parallel pebbling.

⁸ In the appendix we also analyze the performance of Valiant’s Lemma attack against Argon2i. Previously, the best known upper bound was that Valiant’s Lemma yields a depth-reducing set of size $e = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N \log(N/d)}{\log N}\right)$ for any DAG G with constant indegree. For the specific case of Argon2i this upper bound on e was significantly larger than the upper bound $e = \tilde{\mathcal{O}}\left(\frac{N}{d^{1/3}}\right)$ obtained by running the layered attack [AB17, BZ17]. Nevertheless, empirical analysis of both attacks surprisingly indicated that Valiant’s Lemma yields *smaller* depth-reducing sets than the layered attack for Argon2i. We show how to customize the analysis of Valiant’s Lemma attack to a *specific* DAG such as DR-Sample or Argon2i. Our theoretical analysis of Valiant’s Lemma explains these surprising empirical results. By focusing on Argon2i specifically we can show that, for a target depth d , the attacker yields a depth-reducing set of size $e = \tilde{\mathcal{O}}\left(\frac{N}{d^{1/3}}\right) \ll \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N \log(N/d)}{\log N}\right)$, which is optimal and *matches* the performance of the layered attack [BZ17].

Theorem 6. *Let $G = \text{BRG}_n$ and $N = 2^n$. Then $\Pi_{\text{cc}}(G) = \Omega(N^2)$.*

The full proof of Theorem 6 can be found in Appendix G. Briefly, we introduce a potential function Φ and then argue that, beginning with a configuration with at most $\mathcal{O}(e)$ pebbles on the graph, advancing the pebble e steps on the top of the graph either costs $\Omega(Ne)$ (i.e., we keep $\Omega(e)$ pebbles on the graph for the $\Omega(N)$ steps required to advance the pebble e steps) or increases the potential function by $\Omega(Ne)$ i.e., we *significantly* reduce the number of pebbles on the graph during the interval. Note that the cost $\Omega(Ne)$ to advance a pebble e steps on the top of the graph corresponds to an average cost of $\Omega(N)$ per node on the top of the graph. Thus, the total cost is $\Omega(N^2)$. Lemma 6, which states that it is expensive to transition from a configuration with *few* pebbles on the graph to a configuration with *many* well-spread pebbles on the graph, is a core piece of the potential function argument.

Lemma 6. *Let $G = \text{BRG}_n$ for some integer $n > 0$ and $N = 2^n$. Let $P = (P_1, \dots, P_t) \in \mathcal{P}(G)$ be some legal sequential pebbling of G . For a given b , partition $[N]$ into $\frac{N}{2^b} = 2^{n-b}$ intervals $I_x = [(x-1)2^b + 1, x \times 2^b]$, each having length 2^b , for $1 \leq x \leq 2^{n-b}$. Suppose that at time i , at most $\frac{N}{2^{b'+3}}$ of the intervals contain a pebble with $b' \geq b$ and at time j , at least $\frac{N}{2^{b'+1}}$ of the intervals contain a pebble. Then*

$$|P_i| + \dots + |P_j| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b'+5}} \quad \text{and} \quad (j-i) \geq \frac{2^{b-b'} N}{4}.$$

5 Empirical Analysis

We empirically analyze the quality of DRS+BRG by subjecting it to a variety of known depth-reducing pebbling attacks [AB16, AB17] as well as the “new” greedy pebbling attack. We additionally present a *new heuristic* algorithm for constructing *smaller* depth-reducing sets, which we call greedy depth reduce. We extend the pebbling attack library of Alwen et al. [ABH17] to include the greedy pebbling algorithm [BCS16] as well as our new heuristic algorithm. The source code is available on a (currently anonymous) Github repository https://github.com/NewAttacksAndStrongerConstructions/EC2019_submission.

5.1 Greedy Depth Reduce

We introduce a novel greedy algorithm for constructing a depth-reducing set S such that $\text{depth}(G-S) \leq d_{tgt}$. Intuitively, the idea is to repeatedly find the node $v \in V(G) \setminus S$ that is incident to the largest number of paths of length d_{tgt} in $G-S$ and add v to S until $\text{depth}(G-S) \leq d_{tgt}$. While we can compute $\text{incident}(v, d_{tgt})$, the number of length d_{tgt} paths incident to v , in polynomial time using dynamic programming, it will take $\mathcal{O}(Nd_{tgt})$ time and space to fill in the dynamic programming table. Thus, a naive implementation would run in total time $\mathcal{O}(Nd_{tgt}e)$ since we would need to recompute the array after each iteration. This proves not to be feasible in many instances we encountered e.g. $N = 2^{24}$, $d_{tgt} = 2^{16}$ and $e \approx 6.4 \times 10^5$ and we would need to run the

algorithm multiple times in our experiments. Thus, we adopt two key heuristics to reduce the running time. The first heuristic is to fix some parameter $d' \leq d_{tgt}$ (we used $d' = 16$ whenever $d_{tgt} \geq 16$) and repeatedly delete nodes incident to the largest number of paths of length d' until $\text{depth}(G - S) \leq d_{tgt}$. The second heuristic is to select a larger set $T \subseteq V(G) \setminus S$ of k nodes (we set $k = 400 \times 2^{(18-n)/2}$ in our experiments) to delete in each round so that we can reduce the number of times we need to re-compute $\text{incident}(v, d_{tgt})$. We select T in a greedy fashion: repeatedly select a node v (with maximum value $\text{incident}(v, d')$) subject to the constraint $\text{dist}(v, T) \leq r$ for some radius r (we used $r = 8$ in our experiments) until $|T| \geq k$ or there are no nodes left to add — here $\text{dist}(v, T)$ denotes the length of the *shortest directed path* connecting v to T in $G - S$. In our experiments we also minimized the number of times we need to run the greedy heuristic algorithm for each DAG G by *first* identifying the target depth value $d_{tgt}^* = 2^j$ with $j \in [n]$ which resulted in the highest quality attack against G when using *other* algorithms (Valiant’s Lemma/Layered Attack) to build the depth-reducing set S . For each DAG G we then ran our heuristic algorithm with target depths $d_{tgt} = 2^j \times d_{tgt}^*$ for each $j \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$. We refer the reader to Appendix E and Algorithm 5 for a more *detailed* discussion of our *heuristic algorithm*.

Figure 3 explicitly compares the performance of our greedy heuristic algorithm with prior state-of-the art algorithms for constructing depth-reducing sets. Given a DAG G (either Argon2i, DRSSample or DRS+BRG) on $N = 2^n$ nodes and a target depth d_{tgt} we run each algorithm to find a (small) set S such that $\text{depth}(G - S) \leq d_{tgt}$. The figure on the left (resp. right) plots the size of the depth-reducing set $e = |S|$ vs. the size of the graph N (logscale) when the target depth $d_{tgt} = 8$ (resp. $d_{tgt} = 16$). Our analysis indicates that our greedy heuristic algorithm outperforms all prior state-of-the art algorithms for constructing depth-reducing sets including Valiant’s Lemma [Val77] and the layered attack [AB16]. In particular, the greedy algorithm consistently outputs a depth-reducing that is 2.5 to 5 times smaller than the best depth-reducing set found by any other approach — the improvement is strongest for the DRSSample graph.

5.2 Comparing Attack Quality

We ran each DAG G (either Argon2i, DRSSample or DRS+BRG) with $N = 2^n$ nodes against a battery of pebbling attacks including both depth-reducing attacks [AB16, AB17] and the greedy pebble attack. In our analysis we focused on graphs of size $N = 2^n$ with n ranging from $n \in [14, 24]$, representing memory ranging from 16MB to 16GB. Our results are shown in Figure 2. While DRSSample provided strong resistance to depth-reducing attacks (right), the greedy pebbling attack (left) yields a *very* high quality attack (for $n \geq 20$ the attack quality is $\approx n$) against DRSSample. Similarly, as we can see in Figure 2, Argon2i provides reasonably strong resistance to the *greedy pebble* attack (left), but is vulnerable to depth-reducing attacks (right). DRS+BRG strikes a *healthy* middle ground as it provides good resistance to both attacks. In particular, even if we use our new greedy heuristic algorithm to construct the depth-reducing sets (right), the attack quality never exceeds 6 for DRS+BRG. In summary, DRS+BRG provides the strongest resistance to *known* pebbling attacks for *practical* parameter ranges $n \in [14, 24]$.

As Figure 2 (right) demonstrates attack quality almost always improves when we use the new greedy algorithm to construct depth-reducing sets. The one exception was that for larger Argon2i DAGs prior techniques (i.e., Valiant’s Lemma) outperform greedy. We conjecture that this is because we had to select the parameter $d' \ll d_{tgt}^*$ for efficiency reasons. For DRSample and DRS+BRG the value d_{tgt}^* was reasonably small i.e., for DRSample we always had $d_{tgt}^* \leq 16$ allowing us to set $d' = d_{tgt}^*$. We believe that the greedy heuristic algorithm would outperform prior techniques if we were able to set $d' \sim d_{tgt}^*$ and that this would lead to even higher quality attacks against Argon2i. However, the time to pre-compute the depth-reducing set will increase linearly with d' .

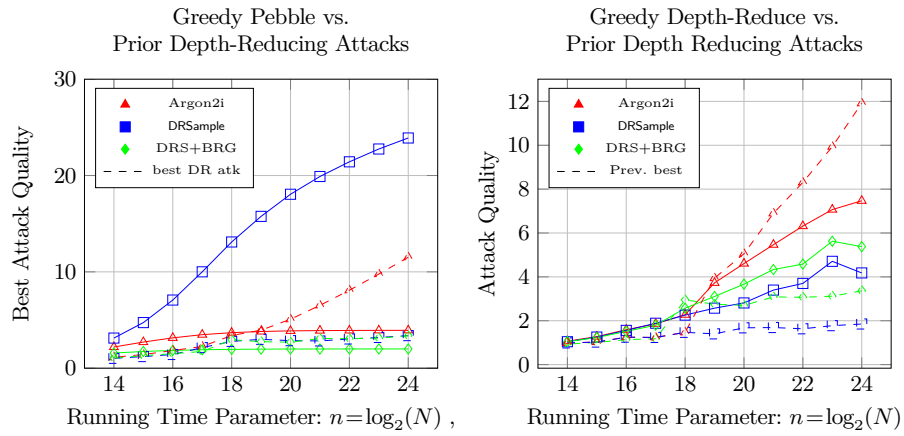


Fig. 2: Attack Quality for Greedy Pebble and Greedy Depth Reduce

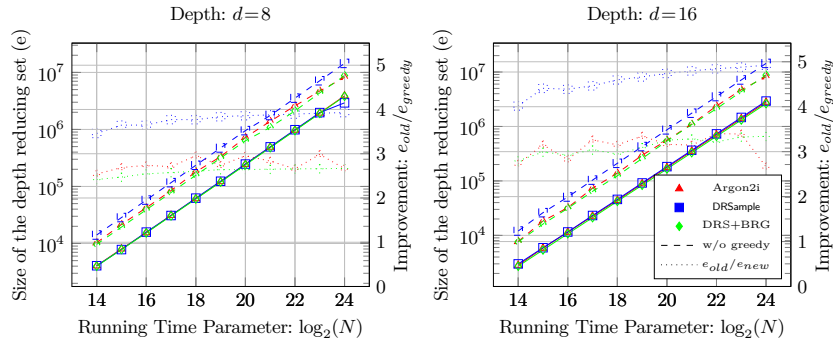


Fig. 3: Greedy Depth-Reduce vs Prior State of the Art

6 Pebbling Reduction

Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] previously showed that, in the parallel random oracle model, the cumulative memory complexity (cmc) of an iMHFs $f_{G,H}$ can be characterized by the black pebbling cost $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ of the underlying DAG. However, their reduction assumed that the output of $f_{G,H}(x) := \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N)$ is the label of the last node N of G where labels are defined recursively using the concatenation rule $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) := H(v, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1), \dots, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta))$ where $v_1, \dots, v_\delta = \text{parents}_G(v)$. To improve performance, real world implementations of iMHFs such as Argon2i, DRSample and our own implementation of BRG(DRSample) use the XOR labeling rule $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) := H(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1) \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_2) \oplus \dots \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta))$ so that we can avoid Merkle-Damgard and work with a *faster* round function $H: \{0,1\}^w \rightarrow \{0,1\}^w$ instead of requiring $H: \{0,1\}^{(\delta+1)w} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^w$.

We prove that in the parallel random oracle model, the cumulative memory complexity of $f_{G,H}$ is still captured by $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ when using the XOR labeling rule (under certain restrictions discussed below that will hold for all of the iMHF constructions we consider in this paper). We postpone a fully formal definition of cumulative memory complexity cmc to Appendix H as it is identical to [AS15]. Intuitively, one can consider the *execution trace* $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x) = \{(\sigma_i, Q_i)\}_{i=1}^t$ of an attacker $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}(x;R)$ on input value x with internal randomness R . Here, Q_i denotes the set of random oracle queries made in *parallel* during round i and σ_i denotes the state of the attacker immediately before the queries Q_i are answered. In this case, $\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)) := \sum_i |\sigma_i|$ sums the memory required during each round in the parallel random oracle model⁹. For a list of distinct inputs $X = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$, let $f_{G,H}^{\times m}(X)$ be the ordered tuple $f_{G,H}^{\times m}(X) = (f_{G,H}(x_1), f_{G,H}(x_2), \dots, f_{G,H}(x_m))$. Then the memory cost of a $f_{G,H}^{\times m}$ is defined by

$$\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{G,H}^{\times m}) = \min_{\mathcal{A},x} \mathbb{E}[\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x))],$$

where the expectation is taken over the selection of the random oracle $H(\cdot)$ as well as the internal randomness R of the algorithm \mathcal{A} . The minimum is taken over all valid inputs $X = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$ with $x_i \neq x_j$ for $i < j$ and all algorithms $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ that compute $f_{G,H}^{\times m}(X)$ correctly with probability at least ϵ and make at most q queries for each computation of $f_{G,H}(x_i)$. Let $G^{\times m}$ be a DAG with mN nodes, including m sources and m sinks.

Theorem 7, our main result, states that $\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{G,H}^{\times m}) \geq \frac{\epsilon w m}{8\delta} \cdot \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$. Thus, the cost of computing $f_{G,H}$ on m distinct inputs and constant indegree graphs G is at least $\Omega\left(m \times w \times \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)\right)$ — here, we assume that $H: \{0,1\}^w \rightarrow \{0,1\}^w$. We remark that for practical iMHF constructions we will have indegree $\delta \in \{2,3\}$ so that $\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{G,H}^{\times m}) = \Omega\left(\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)\right)$. The δ -factor loss is necessary. For example,

⁹ Given a constant R which represents the core/memory area ratio we can define $\text{aAT}_R^{\parallel}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)) = \text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)) + R \sum_i |Q_i|$. We will focus on lower bounds on cmc since the notions are asymptotically equivalent and lower bounds on aAT complexity.

the complete DAG K_N has maximum pebbling cost $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(K_N) \geq N(N-1)/2$, but $\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{K_N,H}^{\times m}) = \mathcal{O}(Nw)$ when we use the XOR labeling rule¹⁰

Theorem 7. *Let G be a DAG with N nodes, indegree $\delta \geq 2$, and $\text{parents}(u) \neq \text{parents}(v)$ for all pairs $u \neq v \in V$, and let $f_{G,H}$ be a function that follows the XOR labeling rule, with label size w . Let \mathcal{H} be a family of random oracle functions with outputs of label length w and $H = (H_1, H_2)$, where $H_1, H_2 \in \mathcal{H}$. Let m be a number of parallel instances such that $mN < 2^{w/32}$, $q < 2^{w/32}$ be the maximum number of queries to a random oracle, and let $\frac{\epsilon}{4} > 2^{-w/2+2} > \frac{qmN+1}{2^w - m^2N^2 - mN} + \frac{2m^2N^2}{2^w - mN}$. Then*

$$\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{G,H}^{\times m}) \geq \frac{\epsilon m w}{8\delta} \cdot \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G).$$

As in [AS15] the pebbling reduction relies on an extractor argument to show that we can find a black pebbling $P = (P_1, \dots, P_\ell)$ s.t. $|P_i| = \mathcal{O}(|\sigma_i|/w)$. The extractor takes a hint h of length $|h| = |\sigma_i| + h_2$ and then extracts ℓ distinct random oracle pairs $(x_1, H(x_1)), \dots, (x_\ell, H(x_\ell))$ by simulating the attacker. Here, one can show that $\ell \geq h_2/w + \Omega(|P_i|)$, which implies that $|\sigma_i| = \Omega(w|P_i|)$ since a random oracle cannot be compressed.

There are several additional challenges we must handle when using the XOR labeling rule. First, in [AS15] we effectively use an *independent* random oracle $H_v(\cdot) = H(v, \cdot)$ to compute the label of each node v — a property that does not hold for the XOR labeling rule we consider. Second, when we use the XOR labeling it is more challenging for the extractor to extract the value of labels from random oracle queries made by the (simulated) attacker. For example, the random oracle query the attacker must submit to compute $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)$ is now $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\delta} \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_i)$ instead of $(v, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1), \dots, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta))$ — in the later case it is trivial to read each of the labels for nodes v_1, \dots, v_δ . Third, even if H is a random oracle the XOR labeling rule uses a round function $F(x,y) = H(x \oplus y)$ that is not even collision resistant e.g., $F(x,y) = F(y,x)$. Because of this, we will not be able to prove a pebbling reduction for *arbitrary* DAGs G .

In fact, one can easily find examples of DAGs G where $\text{cmc}(f_{G,H}) \ll \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ i.e., the cumulative memory complexity is much less than the cumulative pebbling cost by exploiting the fact that $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(u) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)$ whenever $\text{parents}(u) = \text{parents}(v)$. For example, observe that if $\text{parents}(N) = \{u, v\}$ and $\text{parents}(u) = \text{parents}(v)$ then

$$f_{G,H}(x) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N) = H(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(u) \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)) = H(0^w),$$

so that $f_{G,H}(x)$ becomes a constant function and any attempt to extract a pebbling from an execution trace computing $f_{G,H}$ would be a fruitless exercise!

For this reason, we only prove that $\text{cmc}(f_{G,H}) = \Omega(\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \times w)$ when $G = (V = [N], E)$ satisfies the *unique parents* property i.e., for any pair of vertices $u \neq v$ we

¹⁰ In particular, if we let $L_v = \text{lab}_{K_N,H,x}(v) = H(L_{v-1} \oplus \dots \oplus L_1)$ denotes the label of node v given input x then the prelabel of node v is $Y_v = \text{prelab}_{K_N,H,x}(v) = L_{i-1} \oplus \dots \oplus L_1$. Given only Y_v we can obtain $L_v = H(Y_v)$ and $Y_{v+1} = Y_v \oplus L_v$. Thus, $\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{K_N,H}) = \mathcal{O}(Nw)$ since we can compute $f_{K_N,H}(x) = L_N$ in linear time with space $\mathcal{O}(w)$.

have $\text{parents}(v) \neq \text{parents}(u)$. We remark that any DAG which contains all edges of the form $(i, i+1)$ with $i < N$ will satisfy this property since $v-1 \notin \text{parents}(u)$. Thus, Argon2i, DRSample and DRSample+BRG all satisfy the unique parents property.

Extractor: We argue that, except with negligible probability, a successful execution trace must have the property that $|\sigma_i| = \Omega(w|P_i|)$ for each round of some legal pebbling P . Our extractor takes a hint which include σ_i (to simulate the attacker), the set P_i and some (short) additional information e.g., to identify the index of the next random oracle query q_v where the label for node v will appear as input. To address the challenge that the query $q_v = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(u)$ we increase both the size of the hint and the number of labels being extracted e.g., our hint might additionally include the pair $(u, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(u))$ which allows us to extract both $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)$ and $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(u)$ from q_v . Our extractor will attempt to extract labels for each node $v \in P_i$ as well as for a few extra sibling nodes such as u , which means that we must take care to ensure that we never ruin the extracted label $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(u)$ by submitting the random oracle query $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\delta} u_i$ to $H(\cdot)$. If G satisfies the *unique parents* property then we can prove that whp our *extractor* will be successful. It follows that $|\sigma_i| = \Omega(w|P_i|)$ since the hint must be long enough to encode all of the labels that we extract.

7 An Improved Argon2 Round Function

In this section we show how a parallel attacker could reduce aAT costs by nearly an order of magnitude by computing the Argon2i round function in parallel. We then present a tweaked round function to ensure that the function must be computed *sequentially*. Empirical analysis indicates that our modifications have *negligible* impact on the running time performance of Argon2 for the honest party (sequential), while the modifications will *increase* the attackers aAT costs by nearly an order of magnitude.

Review of the Argon2 Compression Function. We begin by briefly reviewing the Argon2 round function $\mathcal{G}: \{0,1\}^{8092} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{8092}$ which takes two 1KB blocks X and Y as input and outputs the next block $\mathcal{G}(X,Y)$. \mathcal{G} builds upon a second function $\mathcal{BP}: \{0,1\}^{128} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{128}$, which is the Blake2b round function [SAA⁺15]. In our analysis we treat \mathcal{BP} as a blackbox. For a more detailed explanation including the specific definition of \mathcal{BP} , we refer the readers to the Argon2 specification [BDK16].

To begin, \mathcal{G} takes the intermediate block $R = X \oplus Y$ (which is being treated as an 8x8 array of 16 byte values R_0, \dots, R_{63}), and runs \mathcal{BP} on each row to create a second intermediate stage Q . We then apply \mathcal{BP} to Q column-wise to obtain one more intermediate value Z : Specifically:

$$\begin{aligned} (Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_7) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(R_0, R_1, \dots, R_7) & (Z_0, Z_8, \dots, Z_{56}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(Q_0, Q_8, \dots, Q_{56}) \\ (Q_8, Q_9, \dots, Q_{15}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(R_8, R_9, \dots, R_{15}) & (Z_1, Z_9, \dots, Z_{57}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(Q_1, Q_9, \dots, Q_{57}) \\ &\dots & & \\ (Q_{56}, Q_{57}, \dots, Q_{63}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(R_{56}, R_{57}, \dots, R_{63}) & (Z_7, Z_{15}, \dots, Z_{63}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(Q_7, Q_{15}, \dots, Q_{63}) \end{aligned}$$

To finish, we have one last XOR, giving the result $\mathcal{G}(X,Y) = R \oplus Z$.

ASIC vs CPU AT cost. From the above description, it is clear that computation of the round function can be parallelized. In particular, the first (resp. last) eight calls to the permutation \mathcal{BP} are all independent and could easily be evaluated in parallel i.e., compute $\mathcal{BP}(R_0, R_1, \dots, R_7), \dots, \mathcal{BP}(R_{56}, R_{57}, \dots, R_{64})$ then compute $\mathcal{BP}(Q_0, Q_8, \dots, Q_{56}), \dots, \mathcal{BP}(Q_7, Q_{15}, \dots, Q_{63})$ in parallel. Similarly, XORing the 1KB blocks in the first ($R = X \oplus Y$) and last ($\mathcal{G}(X, Y) = R \oplus Z$) steps can be done in parallel. This if we let $t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{ASIC}$ (resp. $t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{CPU}$) denote the time to compute \mathcal{BP} on an ASIC (resp. CPU) we have $t_{\mathcal{G}}^{ASIC} \approx 2t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{ASIC}$ whereas $t_{\mathcal{G}}^{CPU} \approx 16 \times t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{CPU}$ since the honest party (CPU) must evaluate each call to \mathcal{BP} sequentially. Suppose that the MHF uses the round function \mathcal{G} to fill N blocks of size 1KB e.g., $N = 2^{20}$ is 1GB. Then the total area-time product on an ASIC (resp. CPU) would approximately be $(A_{mem}^{ASIC} N) \times (t_{\mathcal{G}}^{ASIC} N) \approx 2N^2 \times A_{mem}^{ASIC} t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{ASIC}$ (resp. $(A_{mem}^{CPU} N) \times (16t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{CPU} N)$) where A_{mem}^{ASIC} (resp. A_{mem}^{CPU}) is the area required to store a 1KB block in memory on an ASIC (resp. CPU). Since memory is egalitarian we have $A_{mem}^{ASIC} \approx A_{mem}^{CPU}$ whereas we may have $t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{ASIC} \ll t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{CPU}$. If we can make \mathcal{G} inherently sequential then we have $t_{\mathcal{G}}^{ASIC} \approx 16t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{ASIC}$, which means that the new AT cost on an ASIC is $16N^2 \times A_{mem}^{ASIC} t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{ASIC}$ which is eight times higher than before. We remark that the change would not necessarily increase the running time $N \times t_{\mathcal{G}}^{CPU}$ on a CPU since evaluation is already sequential. We stress that the improvement (resp. attack) applies to *all* modes of Argon2 both data-dependent (Argon2d, Argon2id) and data-independent (Argon2i), and that the attack could potentially be combined with other pebbling attacks [AB16, BCS16].

Remark 2. We remark that the implementation of \mathcal{BP} in Argon2 is heavily optimized using SIMD instructions so that the function \mathcal{BP} would be computed in parallel on *most* computer architectures. Thus, we avoid trying to make \mathcal{BP} sequential as this would slow down *both* the attacker *and* the honest party i.e., both $t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{CPU}$ and $t_{\mathcal{BP}}^{ASIC}$ would increase.

Inherently Sequential Round Function. We present a small modification to the Argon2 compression function which prevents the above attack. The idea is simply to inject extra data-dependencies between calls to \mathcal{BP} to ensure that an attacker must evaluate each call to \mathcal{BP} sequentially just like the honest party would. In short, we require the first output byte from the $i-1^{th}$ call to \mathcal{BP} to be XORed with the i^{th} input byte for the current (i^{th}) call, as shown in Figure 4.

In particular, we now compute $\mathcal{G}(X, Y)$ as:

$$\begin{aligned}
(Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_7) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(R_0, R_1, \dots, R_7) & (Z_0, Z_8, \dots, Z_{56}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(Q_0, Q_8, \dots, Q_{56}) \\
(Q_8, Q_9, \dots, Q_{15}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(R_8, R_9 \oplus Q_0, \dots, R_{15}) & (Z_1, Z_9, \dots, Z_{57}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(Q_1, Q_9 \oplus Z_0, \dots, Q_{57}) \\
&\dots & & \dots \\
(Q_{56}, Q_{57}, \dots, Q_{63}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(R_{56}, R_{57}, \dots, R_{64} \oplus Q_{48}) & (Z_7, Z_{15}, \dots, Z_{63}) &\leftarrow \mathcal{BP}(Q_7, Q_{15}, \dots, Q_{63} \oplus Z_6)
\end{aligned}$$

where, as before, $R = X \oplus Y$ and the output is $\mathcal{G}(X, Y) = Z \oplus R$.

We welcome cryptanalysis of both this round function and the original Argon2 round function. We stress that the primary threat to passwords is brute-force attacks (not hash inversions/collisions etc...) so increasing evaluation costs is arguably the primary goal.

Implementation and Empirical Evaluation To determine the performance impact this would have on Argon2, we modified the publicly available code to include this new compression function. The source code is available on an anonymous Github repository <https://github.com/antiparallel-drsbrg-argon/Antiparallel-DRS-BRG>. We then ran experiments using both the Argon2 and DRS+BRG edge distributions, and further split these groupings to include/exclude the new round function for a total of four conditions. For each condition, we evaluated 1000 instances of the memory hard function in single-pass mode with memory parameter $N = 2^{20}$ blocks (i.e., $1\text{GB} = N \times 1\text{KB}$). In our experiments, we interleave instances from different conditions to ensure that any incidental interference from system processes affects each condition equally. The experiments were run on a desktop with an Intel Core i5-6600K CPU capable of running at 3.5GHz with 4 cores. After 1000 runs of each instance, we observed only small differences in runtimes, (3%) at most. The exact results can be seen in Table 1 along with 99% confidence intervals. The evidence suggests that there is no large difference between any of these versions, and that the anti-parallel modification would not cause a large increase in running time for legitimate users.

Table 1: Anti-parallel runtimes with 99% confidence

	Argon2i	DRS+BRG
Current	1405.541 ± 1.036 ms	1445.275 ± 1.076 ms
Anti-parallel	1405.278 ± 1.121 ms	1445.017 ± 0.895 ms

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Appendix

A Amortized Area-Time Complexity vs. Bandwidth Hardness

The Amortized Area-Time Complexity [AS15, ABH17] metric aims to *capture* the cost of the hardware (e.g., DRAM chips) the attacker must purchase to compute an MHF — amortized by the number of MHF instances computed over the lifetime of

that hardware. By contrast, bandwidth hardness [RD17] aims to capture the *energy cost* of the electricity required to compute the MHF once. If the attacker uses an ASIC to compute the function then the *energy* expended during computation will typically be small in comparison with the *energy* expended during a cache-miss. Thus, a bandwidth hard function aims to ensure that *any* evaluation strategy incurs a large number $\Omega(n)$ of cache-misses during computation.

We argue that, in the context of password hashing, the Amortized Area-Time Complexity metric is more appropriate. In particular, our goal is to *maximize* the attackers cost per password guess given a fixed bound N on the maximum acceptable running time e.g., N might be constrained by user patience since larger values of N correspond to larger authentication delays. Suppose that we fix $N = 2^{20}$ and assume that we operate over 1KB blocks as in Argon2i so that the total memory consumed is 1GB.

1. It cost approximately $0.3nJ$ per Byte transferred on an ASIC so if we optimistically assume that the attacker has to transfer 1GB of data to/from cache then the attacker will consume $0.3J$ (8.33×10^{-8} kWh) per evaluation. If we optimistically assume that the attacker pays \$0.12 per kWh of electricity¹¹ then it will cost $\approx \$1 \times 10^{-8}$ per evaluation (password guess).
2. By contrast if we suppose that the attacker is able to purchase a 1GB DRAM chip for as little as \$5 and that the DRAM chip lasts for up to 2 years under constant utilization then the attacker will be able to compute the MHF approximately 6.3×10^7 times over the lifetime of the DRAM chip — it takes approximately 1 second to evaluate the Argon2i iMHF with $N = 2^{20}$ blocks (1GB of memory) [BDK16]. Thus, if we amortize the cost of the DRAM chip over the total number of guesses then the cost per guess is approximately one order of magnitude higher $\approx 1 \times 10^{-7}$.
3. If we increase memory consumption to $N = 2^{22}$ 1KB blocks (4GB) then the bandwidth costs increases to $\approx \$4 \times 10^{-8}$ (linear scaling), while the capacity costs increase to $\approx 1.26 \times 10^{-6}$ (quadratic scaling). To see this why this occurs we note that the attacker would need to pay $4 \times \$5$ for four 1GB DRAM chips. Thus, the cost of the memory chips *increased*. However, even though the attacker purchased more DRAM the total number of instances we can evaluate in 2 years *still decreases* to 1.58×10^7 because it now takes takes 4 seconds per MHF evaluation. In this case we remark that the cost per evaluation due to hardware costs (aAT complexity) exceeds the energy costs by nearly two orders of magnitude.

Furthermore, Blocki et al. [BRZ18] recently demonstrated that *any* MHF with high Amortized Area-Time complexity *must* have relatively high bandwidth cost as well. Thus, we chose to focus on Amortized Area-Time Complexity in this paper. Ideally, an MHF would have high Amortized Area-Time Complexity and high bandwidth cost. We remark that our construction DRSample+BRG has high bandwidth costs¹² in addition to having high aAT complexity.

¹¹ The figure \$0.12 is based on the average price of electricity in the United States, but the attacker might chose to locate in a state/country where electricity is cheaper.

¹² Blocki et al. proved that DRSample in particular has asymptotically maximum bandwidth cost. Our iMHF construction inherits this property automatically as it contains the graph DRSample.

B The DRSample(+BRG) Algorithm

Algorithm 1: Greedy Pebble.

Input : DAG $G=(V,E)$ of size $|V|=N \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$ with edge set $E = \{(i,i+1) \mid i < N\} \cup \{(r(i),i) \mid i \leq N\}$

Output A legal pebbling P of G

:

Function $\text{GP}(G=(V,E))$:

```

     $P_0 := \{v \mid \text{parents}(v) = \emptyset\}$ 
     $i := 1$ 
    while  $\bigcup P_i \neq V$  do
         $\text{SafeToDiscard} := \{v \mid \text{gc}(v) < i\}$ 
         $P_i := (P_{i-1} \cup \{v \mid \text{parents}(v) \in P_{i-1}\}) \setminus \text{SafeToDiscard}$ 
         $i \leftarrow i+1$ 
    end
return  $P$ 

```

Algorithm 2: Greedy Pebble Extension.

Input : DAG $G=(V,E)$ of size $|V|=N=2^n$ with edge set $E = \{(i,i+1) \mid i < N\} \cup \{(r(i),i) \mid 1 < i \leq N\}$

Output A legal pebbling P^\oplus of G^\oplus

:

Function $\text{GPE}(G=(V,E))$:

```

     $P := \text{GP}(G)$ 
     $Q := \text{GP}(G_{\leq N/2})$ 
     $i := 1$  for  $i=1$  to  $N/2-1$  do
         $P_i^\oplus = P_i$ 
         $P_{i+N/2-1}^\oplus = Q_i \cup P_{i+N/2-1}$ 
    end
     $P_N^\oplus = \{N\}$ 
return  $P$ 

```

Here we provide the original unmodified version of the DRSample algorithm, which is used in the construction of DRS+BRG. It can be seen in Algorithm 3. The algorithm samples a random DAG G which was proven to be $(\Omega(N/\log N), \Omega(N))$ -depth-robust with high probability. The algorithm to sample a random DRS+BRG DAG G is presented in Algorithm 4.

Algorithm 3: An algorithm for sampling depth-robust graphs.

Function $\text{DRSample}(n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2})$:

```

|  $V := [v]$ 
|  $E := \{(1,2)\}$ 
| for  $v \in [3,n]$  and  $i \in [2]$  do                                // Populate edges
| |  $E := E \cup \{(\text{GetParent}(v,i),v)\}$                             // Get  $i^{\text{th}}$  parent
| end
| return  $G := (V,E)$ .
```

Function $\text{GetParent}(v,i)$:

```

| if  $i = 1$  then
| |  $u := i - 1$ 
| else
| |  $g' \leftarrow [1, \lfloor \log_2(v) \rfloor + 1]$                                 // Get random range size.
| |  $g := \min(v, 2^{g'})$                                                 // Don't make edges too long.
| |  $r \leftarrow [\max(g/2, 2), g]$                                        // Get random edge length.
| end
| return  $v - r$ 
```

Algorithm 4: An algorithm for sampling depth-robust graphs.

Input : Size $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$ of graph.
Output A DRS+BRG DAG, the first half sampled
:
from DRSample and the second generated by the Bit Reversal Graph

Function $\text{DRS+BRG}(n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2})$:

```

|  $V = [2^n]$ 
|  $E = \emptyset$ 
|  $\text{DRS} \leftarrow \text{DRSample}(N/2)$ 
|  $E := E \cup \text{DRS}.E$ 
| for  $v \in [N/2 + 1, N]$  do
| |  $b \leftarrow v \bmod N/2$ 
| |  $E := E \cup \{\text{reverse\_bits}(b), v\}$ 
| end
```

C Missing Proofs

Reminder of Theorem 1. Let $r: \mathbb{N}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be any function with the property that $r(i) < i - 1$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$. Then the DAG $G = (V, E)$ with N nodes $V = \{1, \dots, N\}$ and edges $E = \{(i-1, i) : 1 < i \leq N\} \cup \{(r(i), i) : 2 < i \leq N\}$ has $\Pi_{st}(G) \leq \frac{N^2 + 2N}{2}$ and $\Pi_{cc}(G) \leq \frac{N^2 + 2N}{4}$ and $\mathfrak{aAT}_R(G) \leq \frac{N^2 + 2N}{4} + RN$.

Proof of Theorem 1. We consider the greedy pebbling $P = \text{GP}(G) \in \mathcal{P}(G)$. The sequential pebbling finishes in N rounds and so the computation cost incurred is

$$\sum_{i=1}^N |P_i \setminus P_{i-1}| R = RN . \quad (2)$$

Since the pebbling is sequential we observe that $|P_i| \leq i$ for each round i since we can place at most i new pebbles on the graph in i rounds. Thus,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N/2} |P_i| \leq \sum_{i=0}^{N/2} i = \frac{N^2 + 2N}{8} . \quad (3)$$

Similarly, we also note that for each i we have

$$|P_i| \leq |\text{parents}(\{N, \dots, i+1\})| + 1 \leq N - i + 1$$

since $P_i \subseteq \{i\} \cup \text{parents}(\{N, \dots, i+1\})$. Thus, to analyze the last $N/2$ rounds, we look from the opposite direction. $|P_N| = 1, |P_{N-1}| = 2, \dots, |P_{N-i}| \leq i+1$. Thus we have:

$$\sum_{N/2}^N |P_i| = \sum_{i=N/2+1}^N N - i + 1 = \frac{N^2 + 2N}{8} . \quad (4)$$

Combining equations 23 and 4 we have

$$\Pi_{cc}(G) \leq 2 \frac{N^2 + 2N}{8} = \frac{N^2 + 2N}{4} ,$$

and

$$\text{aAT}^{\parallel}(G) \leq 2 \frac{N^2 + 2N}{8} + RN = \frac{N^2 + 2N}{4} + RN .$$

Finally, for the maximum space usage is $\max_i |P_i| \leq \max_i \min\{i, N - i + 1\}$ which is achieved when $i = \lceil \frac{N}{2} \rceil$. Thus, $\Pi_{st}(G) \leq \frac{N^2}{2} + N$. \square

Reminder of Claim 1. Let G be a randomly sampled *DRSample* DAG with N nodes and let $Y_{i,j}$ be an indicator random variable for the event that $r(j) < i$ for nodes $i < j \leq N$ then we have $\mathbf{E}[Y_{i,j}] = \Pr[r(j) < i] \leq 1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j}$.

Proof of Claim 1. Recall that *DRSample* select the parent node $r(j)$ in several stages. First, we partition all nodes $v < j - 1$ into $\log j$ buckets $B_1, \dots, B_{\log j}$ where $B_1 = [j - 2 - 2^0, j - 2), B_2 = [j - 2 - 2^0 - 2^1, j - 2 - 2^0), \dots, B_{k+1} = [j - 2 - 2^0 - 2^1 - \dots - 2^k, j - 2 - 2^0 - 2^1 - \dots - 2^{k-1}), \dots$ and select a bucket B_k uniformly at random from all $\log j$ buckets. Second, we select a node $r(j)$ uniformly at random from the bucket B_k . Note that if $i \leq j - 2 - 2^0 - 2^1 - \dots - 2^{k-1}$ (or equivalently, $\log_2(j-i-1) \geq k$) and we select the bucket B_k in step 1 then we cannot possibly select $r(j) < i$ in step 2. Thus, as long as $k \leq \log(j-i-1)$ we will have $r(j) \geq i$ so

$$\Pr[r(j) \geq i] > \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j}$$

, meaning that $\Pr[r(j) < i] \leq 1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j}$. \square

Reminder of Lemma 1. *Given a DAG G on $N = 2^n$ nodes sampled using the randomized $DRSample$ algorithm for any $\eta > 0$ we have*

$$\Pr \left[\max_i |\chi(i)| > (1+\eta) \left(\frac{2N}{n} \right) \right] \leq \exp \left(\frac{-2\eta^2 N}{3n} + n \ln 2 \right).$$

Proof of Lemma 1. We let $Y_{i,j}$ denote an indicator random variable for the event that $r(j) \leq i$ and observe that $\chi(i) \leq \sum_{j=i+1}^N Y_{i,j}$, since $\chi(i)$ is upper bounded by the number of edges that “cross” over the node i . Therefore, by linearity of expectation and by Claim 1 it follows that

$$\mathbb{E}[|\chi(i)|] \leq \sum_{j=i+1}^N \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j}] \leq 1 + \sum_{j=i+2}^N \left(1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j} \right).$$

We now define \mathbf{Q}_N to be the predicate that for all $i \leq N$ we have that

$$1 + \sum_{j=i+2}^N \left(1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j} \right) \leq \frac{2N}{\log N}.$$

It is straightforward to verify that the predicate \mathbf{Q}_N holds for $N \leq 11$ by direct calculation for all possible cases. Having established our base cases we will argue inductively that $\mathbf{Q}_N \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}_{N+1}$ for all $N \geq 11$ by induction. The following claim will be useful

Claim 3 *If $N \geq 11$ then $\frac{2N}{\log N} + \frac{\log(N+1) - \log(N/2)}{\log(N+1)} \leq \frac{2(N+1)}{\log(N+1)}$.*

Proof. Observe that if $N \geq 11$ then we also have $N \geq e^{\frac{7}{3}}$ and $\log N \leq N/3$. Thus, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{N}{N+1} \right)^{2N+\log N} \cdot N &\geq \left(\frac{N}{N+1} \right)^{\frac{7N}{3}} \cdot N \geq \frac{N}{e^{\frac{7}{3}}} \geq 1 \\ \Leftrightarrow \log \left(\frac{N}{N+1} \right) (2N+\log N) + \log N &\geq 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow \frac{2N}{\log N} + \frac{\log(N+1) - \log(N/2)}{\log(N+1)} &\leq \frac{2(N+1)}{\log(N+1)}. \end{aligned}$$

\square

Supposing that \mathbf{Q}_N holds for $N \geq 11$ we do the following case analysis to show that \mathbf{Q}_{N+1} holds:

– For all $i \leq \frac{N}{2}$ we rely on our inductive hypothesis to see that

$$1 + \sum_{j=i+2}^{N+1} \left(1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j} \right) \leq \frac{2N}{\log N} + \frac{\log(N+1) - \log(N-i)}{\log(N+1)}.$$

Claim 3 now implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
1 + \sum_{j=i+2}^{N+1} \left(1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j}\right) &\leq \frac{2N}{\log N} + \frac{\log(N+1) - \log(N-i)}{\log(N+1)} \\
&\leq \frac{2N}{\log N} + \frac{\log(N+1) - \log(N/2)}{\log(N+1)} \\
&\leq \frac{2(N+1)}{\log(N+1)}.
\end{aligned}$$

– For all $i > \frac{N}{2}$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
1 + \sum_{j=i+2}^{N+1} \left(1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j}\right) &\leq 1 + \sum_{j=i+2}^{N+1} \left(\frac{\log j - \log(j-i-1)}{\log(N/2)}\right) \\
&\leq 1 + \frac{1}{\log(N/2)} \log \left(\prod_{j=i+2}^{N+1} \frac{j}{j-i-1}\right) \\
&= 1 + \frac{1}{\log N - 1} \log \left(\frac{(N+1)!}{(N-i)!(i+1)!}\right) \\
&= 1 + \frac{1}{\log N - 1} \log \binom{N+1}{i+1} \\
&\leq 1 + \frac{N+1}{\log N - 1} \\
&\leq \frac{2(N+1)}{\log(N+1)} \quad (\text{whenever } N \geq 11)
\end{aligned}$$

It follows that $1 + \sum_{j=i+2}^{N+1} \left(1 - \frac{\log(j-i-1)}{\log j}\right) \leq 1 + \frac{N}{\log N - 1} \leq \frac{2(N+1)}{\log(N+1)}$ for all $i \leq N+1$ so the predicate Q_{N+1} holds.

Therefore, we have that $\mathbb{E}[|\chi(i)|] \leq \frac{2N}{\log N}$ for all $i \leq N$. As the expected value is the sum of independent random variables, we can use Chernoff Bounds with $\mu = \frac{2N}{n} \geq \sum_{j=i+1}^N \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j}]$ to show that for any constant η we have

$$\Pr[|\chi(i)| > (1+\eta)\mu] < \exp\left(\frac{-2\eta^2 N}{3n}\right).$$

Now we union bound over all $i \leq N$ to recover the original lemma statement. \square

Reminder of Theorem 3. Let $r: \mathbb{N}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be any function with the property that $r(i) < i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ and let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with N nodes $V = \{1, \dots, N\}$ and directed edges $E = \{(i, i+1) \mid i < N\} \cup \{r(i), i \mid 1 < i \leq N\}$. If $P = \mathbf{GP}(G) \in \mathcal{P}(G)$ and $Q \in \mathcal{P}(G_{\leq N/2})$ then the XOR-extension graph G^\oplus of G has amortized Area-Time complexity at most

$$\text{aAT}_{\mathcal{R}}^{\parallel}(G^\oplus) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N/2} |P_i| + \sum_{i=1}^N |Q_i| + \frac{3RN}{2}.$$

Proof of Theorem 3. We consider the pebbling $P^\oplus = \text{GPE}(G)$ from Algorithm 2. For $i < N/2$ we have $P_i^\oplus = P_i$ where $P = \text{GP}(G)$ is the greedy pebbling. We remark that $P_i^\oplus = P_i$ and $P_{N/2+i-1}^\oplus = Q_i \cup P_{i+N/2-1}$ for $i < N/2$ and $P_N^\oplus = \{N\} = P_N$ where $P = \text{GP}(G)$ and $Q = \text{GP}(G_{\leq N/2})$.

We first argue that the pebbling P^\oplus is legal. Legality of the first $N/2$ moves follows directly from legality of the pebbling P for $\text{GP}(G)$ since $G_{\leq N/2}^\oplus = G_{\leq N/2}$. For later rounds we consider the sets $D_i = P_{i+N/2-1}^\oplus \setminus P_{i+N/2-2}^\oplus$ of new pebbles placed during round $i + N/2 - 1$. To show that the pebbling is legal we want to show that $\text{parents}(D_i) \subseteq P_{i+N/2-2}^\oplus$. We note that the set D_i contains exactly two nodes $D_i = \{i, i + N/2 - 1\}$. First consider the node i . Because $i \in Q_i \setminus Q_{i-1}$ and Q is a legal pebbling of $G_{\leq N/2}$ we know that $\text{parents}(i) \subseteq Q_{i-1} \subseteq P_{i+N/2-2}^\oplus$. Similarly, any parent of node $i + N/2 - 1$ in G (i.e., possibly excluding node $i - 1$) would be contained in $P_{i+N/2-2} \subseteq P_{i+N/2-2}^\oplus$. G^\oplus contains at most one additional parent of node $i + N/2 - 1$ i.e., node $i - 1$. However, we have $i - 1 \in Q_{i-1} \subseteq P_{i+N/2-2}^\oplus$. Thus, $\text{parents}(P_{i+N/2-1}^\oplus \setminus P^\oplus) \subseteq (P_{i+N/2} \setminus P_{i+N/2-1}) \subseteq P_{i+N/2-2}^\oplus$.

As demonstrated in the proof of Theorem 1 for $P = \text{GP}(G)$ we have

$$\text{aAT}^{\parallel}_R(P) \leq \frac{N^2 + 2N}{4} + RN. \quad (5)$$

Similarly, for $Q = \text{GP}(G_{\leq N/2})$ we have

$$\text{aAT}^{\parallel}_R(Q) \leq \frac{N^2 + 4N}{16} + RN/2. \quad (6)$$

By definition of P^\oplus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{aAT}^{\parallel}(P^\oplus) &\leq \text{aAT}^{\parallel}_R(P) + \text{aAT}^{\parallel}_R(Q) \\ &\leq \frac{5N^2 + 12N}{16} + \frac{3RN}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Reminder of Lemma 5. Suppose that a DAG G is (e, d, b) -Block Depth Robust and that parameters e' and b' satisfies the condition that $e' \left(\frac{b'}{b}\right) + e' \leq \frac{e}{2}$. Then G is (e', d, b') -Block Depth Robust, and for all S with size $|S| \leq e'$ the graph $H = G - \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x]$ is $(\frac{e}{2}, d, b)$ -Block Depth Robust.

Proof of Lemma 5. 1. Suppose that G is not (e', d, b') -Block Depth Robust. Then there exists a set S with size $|S| \leq e'$ such that $\text{depth}(G - \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x]) < d$. Now, let S' be the set

$$S' = \left\{ v - b'i \mid v \in S \text{ and } 0 \leq i < \left\lceil \frac{b'}{b} \right\rceil, i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

Then we can claim that $\bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x] \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in S'} [x - b + 1, x]$ since

$$y \in \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x] \implies \exists u \in S \text{ with } u - b' + 1 \leq y \leq u$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\implies u - b \left\lceil \frac{b'}{b} \right\rceil + 1 \leq u - b' + 1 \leq y \leq u \\
&\implies \exists i \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ with } 0 \leq i < \left\lceil \frac{b'}{b} \right\rceil \text{ with} \\
&\quad u - b(i+1) + 1 \leq y \leq u - bi \\
&\implies y \in \bigcup_{x \in S'} [x - b + 1, x].
\end{aligned}$$

But since G is (e, d, b) -Block Depth Robust, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
d &\leq \text{depth} \left(G - \bigcup_{x \in S'} [x - b + 1, x] \right) \\
&\leq \text{depth} \left(G - \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x] \right) < d
\end{aligned}$$

which is a contradiction.

2. By definition of S' , we have

$$|S'| \leq \left\lceil \frac{b'}{b} \right\rceil |S| \leq \left(\frac{b'}{b} + 1 \right) e' \leq \frac{e}{2},$$

and $\text{depth}(G - \bigcup_{x \in S'} [x - b + 1, x]) \leq \text{depth}(G - \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b' + 1, x])$. Since we have only deleted at most $\frac{e}{2}$ intervals of length b and the assumption that G is (e, d, b) -Block Depth Robust, we can conclude that the subgraph H is itself still $(\frac{e}{2}, d, b)$ -Block Depth Robust. \square

Reminder of Lemma 3. Let $G_1 = (V_1 = [N], E)$ be a (e, d, b) -block depth-robust graph with $N = 2^n$ nodes and let $G = \text{BRG}(G_1)$ denote the bit-reversal extension of G_1 with $2N$ nodes $V(G) = [2N]$. For any interval $I = [N + i + 1, N + i + 1 + \frac{4N}{b}] \subseteq [2N]$ and any $S \subseteq [1, N + i]$ with $|S| < \frac{e}{2}$, $\text{ancestors}_{G-S}(I)$ is $(\frac{e}{2}, d, b)$ -block depth-robust.

Proof of Lemma 3. Since, G_1 is (e, d, b) -block depth-robust and $|S| \leq \frac{e}{2}$ it follows that $H = G_1 - \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b + 1, x]$ is $(\frac{e}{2}, d, b)$ block depth-robust. Thus, it is sufficient to argue that $V(H) \subseteq \text{ancestors}_{G-S}(I)$.

Consider any $v \in [1, N]$, either $v \in \bigcup_{x \in S} [x - b + 1, x]$ (i.e., $v \notin V(H)$) or $[v, v + \frac{b}{2}]$ contains no vertices of S (i.e., $v \in V(H)$). In the latter case, the graph G must contain an edge of the form (x, y) with $x \in [v, v + \frac{b}{2}]$ and $y \in I$ because Lemma 2 implies that for any interval $I' \subseteq [N]$ of length $\frac{b}{2}$, there is an edge from I' to I . Thus, $v \in \text{ancestors}_{G-S}(I)$ since there is an S -free path from v to I via the edge (x, y) . \square

Reminder of Theorem 4. Let G be any (e, d, b) -Block Depth Robust DAG on $N = 2^n$ nodes, and $G' = \text{BRG}(G)$ be the bit reversal overlay of G . Then for any pebbling $P \in \Pi^{\parallel}(G)$ and all $e' \leq \frac{e}{4}$, we have either $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P) \geq \frac{e^2 db}{64e'}$, or $\Pi_{ss}(P, e') \geq \frac{N}{4} - o(N)$ i.e., at least $\frac{N}{4} - o(N)$ rounds i in which $|P_i| \geq e'$.

Proof of Theorem 4. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G')$ be a legal pebbling of G' and let t_v be the first time where $v \in P_{t_v}$. Set $b' := \frac{eb}{4e'}$. Partition the nodes (i.e., the top nodes of G')

into $b'/4$ intervals $I_1, \dots, I_{b'/4}$ s.t. for each $j \leq b'/4$ the interval I_j contains each of the nodes $\left[N + \frac{4N(j-1)}{b'} + 1, N + \frac{4Nj}{b'} \right]$. Let $f_j = N + \frac{4N(j-1)}{b'} + 1$ denote the first node in interval I_j and let $t_{j,f} := t_{f_j}$ denote the first time where the node f_j is pebbles. Similarly, let $m_j = N + \frac{4N(j-1)+N}{b'}$ denote a node in the middle of the interval and let $t_{j,m} := t_{m_j}$ denote the first time this node is pebbled. Notice that we must have $t_{j,m} - t_{j,f} \geq f_j - m_j \geq \frac{N}{b'}$ since in any legal pebbling it will take at least $f_j - m_j$ steps to walk a pebble from f_j to m_j .

We remark that P either (1) keeps at least $|P_j| \geq e'$ pebbles during each round $j \in [t_{j,f}, t_{j,m}]$ i.e., at least $\frac{N}{b'}$ rounds, or (2) for some $j \in [t_{j,f}, t_{j,m}]$ we drop below $|P_j| < e'$ pebbles. In the second case Lemma 4 implies that

$$\sum_{j=t_{v+N}}^{t_{v+N+\frac{32Ne'}{be}}-1} |P_j| \geq ed/2.$$

We have at least $\frac{b'}{4} - 1$ disjoint intervals of length $\frac{4N}{b'}$ (possibly excluding the last interval $I_{b'/4}$).

1. If case (1) applies to at least $\frac{b'}{8} - 1$ intervals, then we have $\frac{2N}{b'} \times \left(\frac{b'}{8} - 1 \right) = \frac{N}{4} - \frac{2N}{b'} = \frac{N}{4} - o(N) = \Omega(N)$ steps with at least e pebbles.
2. Otherwise, case (2) applies to at least $\frac{b'}{8}$ intervals and we must pay the cost

$$\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P) \geq \left(\frac{b'}{8} \right) \times \frac{ed}{2} = \frac{e^2 db}{64e'} = \Omega\left(edb \left(\frac{e}{e'} \right) \right). \quad \square$$

D New Argon2 Round Function

Figure 4, shown here, is a visual representation of the Argon2 round function with added dependencies shown as arrows.

E Greedy Algorithm for Constructing Smaller Depth-Reducing Sets

A recent line of work establishes a close connection between the aAT complexity of an iMHF and the depth-robustness of and underlying DAG [AB16, ABP17, ABH17]. In particular, if a DAG G is highly depth-robust then the corresponding iMHF *provably* has high aAT complexity if and only if the underlying DAG G is depth-robust. Thus, an improved algorithm for constructing *smaller* depth-reducing sets S would likely yield improved pebbling attacks against the DAG G . We introduce a new greedy algorithm to construct *small* depth-reducing sets and demonstrate the advantage of our new approach empirically.

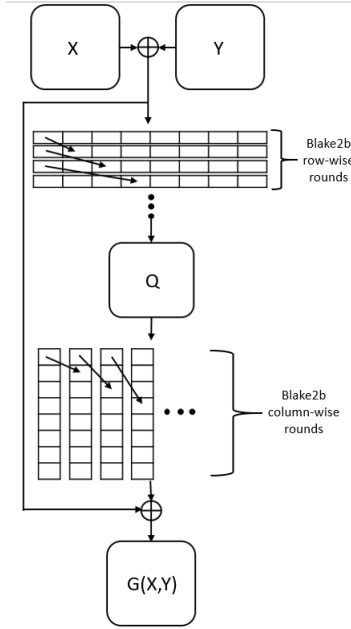


Fig. 4: Dependencies in round function calls with $m=2^{18}$ kB of memory

Intuition Behind Greedy Depth Reduce At a high level the intuition behind Algorithm 5 is simple. Find the node v that is incident to the maximum number of length d paths and delete it. Repeat until no length d paths are left. We use dynamic programming to identify the node v that is incident to the maximum number of length d paths.

A dynamic programming method The subroutine `CountPaths` in Algorithm 5 uses dynamic programming to compute the number of length paths that are incident to each node v . To accomplish this task we fill in *two* dynamic programming tables. Intuitively, $PathsEndingAtNode[v,i]$ (resp. $PathsStartingAtNode[v,i]$) denotes the total number of directed paths of length i (here, length is the total number of directed edges on the path) that *end* (resp. *begin*) at node v . To fill in the dynamic programming table we exploit the fact that

$$PathsEndingAtNode[v,i] = \sum_{(u,v) \in E} PathsEndingAtNode[u,i-1] \quad (7)$$

Intuitively, Equation 7 follows because any path of length i that *ends* at node v has the form $P=P',v$ where P' is a directed path of length $i-1$ ending at some node u and the graph contains the directed edge $(u,v) \in E$ from u to v . Similarly, any path of length i beginning at node v has the form $P=v,P'$ where P' is a directed path of length $i-1$ beginning at node w and the graph contains the directed edge $(v,w) \in E$.

Algorithm 5: An algorithm for a new depth-reducing attack.

Input : DAG $G=(\{N\},E)$ and target depth d

Output A depth-reducing set S

:

Function BuildDepthReducingSet ($n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}, d$):

$S = \emptyset$

$NodesInRadius := \emptyset$

while $depth(G-S) > d$ **do**

$IncidentPathsCount := CountPaths(G, S, d)$

$B := SelectRemovalNodes(G, d, r, k, NodesInRadius)$

$S := S \cup B$

end

return S

Input : DAG $G=(\{N\},E)$ and set S of already deleted nodes and a depth d

Output An array $IncidentPathsCount$, where $IncidentPathsCount[v]$ denotes

:

 the number of paths of length d incident to node v in the graph $G-S$.

 Here, the length of a path is given by the number of edges in the path.

Function CountPaths(G, S, d):

for $v \in [N]$ **do**

$PathsEndingAtNode[v, 0] = 1$

$PathsStartingAtNode[v, 0] = 1$

end

for $i = [1, d]$ **do**

for $v \in [N]$ **do**

$PathsEndingAtNode[v, i] = \sum_{(u,v) \in E} PathsEndingAtNode[u, i-1]$

$PathsStartingAtNode[v, i] = \sum_{(v,w) \in E} PathsStartingAtNode[v, i-1]$

end

end

for $v \in [N]$ **do**

$IncidentPathsCount[v] =$

$\sum_{i=0}^d PathsEndingAtNode[v, i] \times PathsStartingAtNode[v, d-i]$

end

return $IncidentPathsCount$

Thus, we can use Equation 8 to compute the second array $PathsStartingAtNode[v, i]$

$$IncidentPathsStartingAtNode[v, i] = \sum_{(v,w) \in E} IncidentPathsStartingAtNode[w, i-1]. \quad (8)$$

Once we have computed both tables we can compute the total number of length d paths *incident* to each node v as follows

$$IncidentPathsCount[v] = \sum_{i=0}^d PathsEndingAtNode[v, i] \times PathsStartingAtNode[v, d-i] \quad (9)$$

Intuitively, Equation 9 follows because each path of length d that is incident to v has the form $P = P_1, P_2$ where P_1 is a length i path ending at node v , P_2 is a length j path beginning at node v and the total length of both paths is $i + j = d$.

We remark that both of the dynamic programming tables has size $\mathcal{O}(Nd)$ and that it takes time $\mathcal{O}(Nd)$ for the subroutine `CountPaths` to finish. If we want to reduce space usage it is possible to reduce memory consumption to $\mathcal{O}(N \log d)$ if we are willing to increase our running time to $\mathcal{O}(Nd \log d)$. To further increase performance a specific depth can be set i.e. look for the number of nodes with the highest number of incident paths of some length. We use this method in the experiments shown in Figure 2b and Figure 3.¹³

Algorithm 6: A greedy algorithm to select multiple nodes to remove.

Input : DAG $G = ([N], E)$, depth d , radius r , k which denotes the number of nodes that will be removed at one time and set *NodesInRadius* of nodes that are in the radius of all the already deleted nodes.

Output A set of selected nodes to remove

```

Function SelectRemovalNodes( $G, IncidentPathsCount, d, r, k$ ):
  if  $r = 0$  then
    | return  $\{ \text{argmax}_v(IncidentPathsCount[v]) \}$ 
     $SelectedCandidates = \text{SelectTopKNodes}(IncidentPathsCount)$ 
    for  $v \in SelectedCandidates$  do
      | if  $v \notin NodesInRadius$  then
        | |  $B := B \cup \{v\}$ 
        | |  $\text{UpdateNodesInRadius}(G, v, r, NodesInRadius)$ 
    end
  return  $B$ 

```

```

Function UpdateNodesInRadius( $G, v, r, NodesInRadius$ ):
  while  $\text{dist}(u, v) \leq r$  or  $\text{dist}(v, u) \leq r$  do
    | if  $u \notin NodesInRadius$  then
      | |  $NodesInRadius := NodesInRadius \cup \{u\}$ 
    end

```

```

Function SelectTopKNodes( $IncidentPathsCount, k$ ):
  | return Set of  $k$  largest nodes in  $IncidentPathsCount$ 

```

Challenges While the new greedy algorithm for constructing depth-reducing sets yielded superior results (smaller depth-reducing sets for the same target depth d), Algorithm 5 is more expensive computationally than previous approaches. In particular, the algorithm requires $\mathcal{O}(Nde)$ time in the full version to complete where e is the size of the final depth reducing set that is returned. When N, d, e are all

¹³ This can be accomplished by discarding rows of the dynamic programming table from memory and recomputing them later. At each point in time we keep $\log d$ rows of the table in memory to ensure that each row will only need to be re-pebled.

large this approach is not always computationally feasible. Another challenge is that Algorithm 5 requires $\mathcal{O}(Nd)$ space for the dynamic programming tables, which can be problematic for larger target depths d e.g., when $N=2^{24}$ with target depth $d=2^{15}$ we would require terabytes of memory to store the dynamic programming table. We remark that it is possible to reduce space usage to $\mathcal{O}(N\log d)$ while maintaining a running time of $\mathcal{O}(Nde)$ by *strategically* recomputing portions of the dynamic programming table to reduce memory usage.

The result of the `CountPaths` subroutine is `IncidentPathsCount[v]` an array which, for each vertex v , counts the number of paths of length d incident to node v in graph $G-S$. Here we can employ a heuristic to speed up computation. We note that nodes close to nodes selected for removal in each round have a higher chance of being selected in the next round of `CountPaths`. However, when node v has a large number of paths of length d incident to it, the nodes that are close to v may also have a large number of paths of length d which share many of the same paths. Thus, deleting nodes that are close together might not contribute much to a decrease the depth of the remaining graph. To counteract this we eliminate the nodes that are within a certain radius of the deleted nodes as shown in `UpdateNodesInRadius` and `SelectRemovalNodes`. Thus we add multiple nodes per round, yet do so strategically using this heuristic to help increase depth more per node added to the depth reducing set.

E.1 Empirical Analysis

Figure 3 compares the performance of our new method with prior state-of-the art techniques for constructing depth-reducing sets. As the figure shows our algorithm is able to *consistently* construct *significantly* smaller depth-reducing sets. In particular, the size of the depth-reducing sets we obtain are typically 2-3 times smaller than prior approaches [ABH17, AB17]. Figure 2 compares the attack quality of our new method with previous best depth-reducing attack. Our new method not only reduces the size of the depth-reducing set, but also improves state-of-the art pebbling attacks.

F Candidate CMC-Optimal DAGs

In this section we present two candidate DAGs G which achieve the *best* possible lower bound on $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$ for constant indegree graphs under *plausible* conjectures of the (block) depth-robustness of these DAGs. Our first results shows that *any* (e, d) -depth-robust DAG G with $e = d = \Omega(N \log \log N / \log N)$ can be used to construct a new graph $G' = \text{superconc}(G)$ s.t. G' has $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G') = \Omega(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$ by overlaying a superconcentrator on top of G . We first recall the definition of a superconcentrator.

Definition 5. *A graph G with $O(N)$ vertices is a superconcentrator if there exists I, O with $|I| = |O| = N$ such that for all $S_1 \subseteq I, S_2 \subseteq O$ with $|S_1| = |S_2| = k$, there are k vertex disjoint paths from S_1 to S_2 .*

It is well known that there exists superconcentrators with $|I| = |O| = N$, constant indegree and $\mathcal{O}(N)$ nodes total e.g. [LT82, Pip77]. We now define the overlay of a superconcentrator on a graph G_1 .

Definition 6. Let G_1 be a fixed DAG with N nodes and $G_2 = (V, E)$ be a (a priori fixed) super-concentrator with N inputs $I = \{i_1, \dots, i_N\} \subseteq V$ and N outputs $O = \{o_1, \dots, o_N\} \subseteq V$. We use $G = \text{superconc}(G_1)$ to denote the graph $G = (V, E \cup F_1 \cup F_2)$ where $F_1 = \{(o_i, o_{i+1}) : 1 \leq i < N\}$ and $F_2 = \{(i_u, i_v) : (u, v) \in E(G_1)\}$.

Theorem 8 ([ABP17], Theorem 4). If G is (e, d) -depth robust, then $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) > ed$.

Lemma 7. Let G be an (e, d) -depth robust graph. Then for all S with $|S| < \frac{e}{2}$, it follows that $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G - S) \geq \frac{e}{2}d$.

Proof. Observe that if G is (e, d) -depth robust and $|S| < \frac{e}{2}$, then $G - S$ is $(\frac{e}{2}, d)$ -depth robust. Thus, $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G - S) \geq \frac{e}{2}d$ by Theorem 8. \square

Conjecture 1. Let G be a graph with N nodes sampled uniformly at random from the DRSample distribution. Then with high probability, G is (e, d) -depth robust, where $e = \frac{c_1 N \log \log N}{\log N}$ and $d = \frac{c_2 N \log \log N}{\log N}$, for some constants $c_1, c_2 > 0$.

Theorem 9. Let G_1 be an (e, d) -depth robust graph with N nodes. Then for $G = \text{superconc}(G_1)$, $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega\left(\min\left(\frac{Ne - 2e^2}{4}, \frac{Nd - 2ed}{4}\right)\right)$.

Proof. Let $P = (P_1, \dots, P_t) \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G)$ be a legal pebbling of G and let $\{o_1, \dots, o_N\}$ denote the output nodes of the super-concentrator. For each node $v \in V(G)$, let t_v be the first time v is pebbled. Notice that $t_{o_i} < t_{o_{i+1}}$ since G includes the edge (o_i, o_{i+1}) for each $i < N$. Partition L into intervals of $2e$ consecutive output nodes $L_1 = \{o_1, \dots, o_{2e}\}, L_2 = \{o_{2e+1}, \dots, o_{4e}\}, \dots$ and use let $v_{start}^i = o_{2e(i-1)+1}$ denote the first node in interval L_i , $v_{mid}^i = o_{2e(i-1)+e}$ denote the middle node, and $v_{last}^i = o_{2e(i-1)+2e}$ denote the last node in the interval L_i . We also use $L_i^{first} = \{o_{2e(i-1)+1}, \dots, o_{2e(i-1)+e}\}$ to denote the first e nodes on the interval L_i and $L_i^{last} = \{o_{2e(i-1)+e+1}, \dots, o_{2e(i-1)+2e}\}$ to denote the second half of the interval.

We now lower bound $\sum_{i=t_{v_{start}^i}}^{t_{v_{end}^i}} |P_i|$, the cost incurred during pebbling rounds $[t_{v_{start}^i}, t_{v_{end}^i}]$. We consider two cases.

In case 1 we have $|P_j| \geq \frac{e}{2}$ for all $j \in [t_{v_{start}^i}, t_{v_{mid}^i}]$. In this case we have

$$\sum_{j=t_{v_{start}^i}}^{t_{v_{end}^i}} |P_j| \geq \sum_{j=t_{v_{start}^i}}^{t_{v_{mid}^i}} |P_j| \geq (t_{v_{mid}^i} - t_{v_{start}^i}) \frac{e}{2} \geq \frac{e^2}{2},$$

where the last inequality follows from the observation that

$$(t_{v_{mid}^i} + 1 - t_{v_{start}^i}) \geq 2e(i-1) + e + 1 - 2e(i-1) + 1 = e.$$

In case 2 there exists some time $j^* \in [t_{v_{start}^i}, t_{v_{mid}^i}]$ such that $|P_{j^*}| < \frac{e}{2}$. Now we note that we must completely re-pebble all nodes in the set $\text{ancestors}_{G-P_{j^*}}[L_i^{last}]$ before round $t_{v_{last}^i}$. Let $S = \{i_1, \dots, i_N\} \setminus \text{ancestors}_{G-P_{j^*}}[L_i^{last}]$ be the inputs of G that

are not ancestors of L_i^{last} in the graph $G - P_{j^*}$ i.e., the nodes we *don't necessarily* need to re-pegble. We first claim that $|S| \leq |P_{j^*}| < e/2$. Suppose not, then, since G is a super-concentrator, there are $\min(|S|, e) > |P_{j^*}|$ vertex disjoint paths from S to L_i^{last} in G . It follows that there is a path from some node $v \in S$ to L_i^{last} which avoids P_{j^*} , but this implies that $v \in \text{ancestors}_{G - P_{j^*}}[L_i^{last}]$. Contradiction, by construction S is disjoint from $\text{ancestors}_{G - P_{j^*}}[L_i^{last}]$! It follows that $|S| \leq |P_{j^*}|$.

We now let $S_1 = \{v \in V(G_1) : i_v \in S\}$ be the nodes in G_1 corresponding to the inputs $S \subseteq V(G)$. Note that $|S_1| = |S|$. We have

$$\sum_{j=t_{v^i}^{start}}^{t_{v^i}^{end}} |P_j| \geq \sum_{j=j^*}^{t_{v^i}^{end}} |P_j| \geq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G_1 - S_1) \geq \frac{ed}{2}$$

where the second to last inequality follows because we need to re-pegble every input node that is not in S and we G contains a copy of G_1 overlaid on top of the inputs. The last inequality follows from Lemma 7.

We have show that for each interval L_i we have

$$\sum_{j=t_{v^i}^{start}}^{t_{v^i}^{end}} |P_j| \geq \min\left\{\frac{e^2}{2}, \frac{ed}{2}\right\}.$$

Since there are at least $\lfloor \frac{n}{2e} \rfloor$ such intervals, the total cost of pebbling G is at least

$$\sum_{j=1}^t |P_j| \geq \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{N}{2e} \rfloor} \sum_{j=t_{v^i}^{start}}^{t_{v^i}^{end}} |P_j| \geq \left(\frac{N}{2e} - 1\right) \min\left\{\frac{e^2}{2}, \frac{ed}{2}\right\}. \quad \square$$

If Conjecture 1 holds, then we can take $e = \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ and $d = \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ so that $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega\left(\frac{N^2 \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$.

Corollary 4. *Let G_1 be a graph with N nodes sampled uniformly at random from the $DRSample$ distribution. If Conjecture 1 holds, then $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{superconc}(G_1)) = \Omega\left(\frac{N^2 \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ with high probability.*

However, a superconcentrator overlay is not the most practical construction. Before we describe a more practical construction, we first set up some notation.

We now make a conjecture slightly stronger than Conjecture 1 and show it also leads to an asymptotically cmc-optimal DAG may be easier for practical implement.

Conjecture 2. Let G be a graph with N nodes sampled uniformly at random from the $DRSample$ distribution. Then with high probability, G is (e, d, b) -block depth robust, where $e = \frac{c_1 N \log \log N}{\log N}$, $d = \frac{c_2 N \log \log N}{\log N}$, and $b = \frac{c_3 \log N}{\log \log N}$ for some constants $c_1, c_2, c_3 > 0$.

Reminder of Theorem 5. *Let G_1 be an (e, d, b) -block depth-robust graph with $N = 2^n$ nodes. Then $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{BRG}(G_1)) \geq \min\left(\frac{eN}{2}, \frac{edb}{32}\right)$.*

Proof of Theorem 5. Suppose $G_1 = (V_1 = [N], E_1)$ is (e, d, b) -block depth-robust DAG with and let $G = \text{BRG}(G_1)$ be a graph with $V = [2N]$. We partition the nodes $[N+1, 2N]$ from the second half of G into $\lfloor \frac{b}{16} \rfloor$ disjoint intervals of length $\frac{16N}{b}$:

$$J_0 = \left[N+1, N + \frac{16N}{b} \right], J_1 = \left[N + \frac{16N}{b} + 1, N + \frac{32N}{b} \right], \dots$$

and split each interval J_i into $F_i = \left[N + \frac{16iN}{b} + 1, N + \frac{16iN}{b} + \frac{8N}{b} \right]$, the first half of the interval, and $L_i = \left[N + \frac{16iN}{b} + \frac{8N}{b} + 1, N + \frac{16(i+1)N}{b} \right]$, the last half of the interval. Similarly, partition the first half of G into disjoint intervals of length $\frac{b}{4}$: $I_1 = \left[1, \frac{b}{4} \right], I_2 = \left[\frac{b}{4} + 1, \frac{b}{2} \right], \dots$. By Lemma 2, each L_i is connected to all of the intervals $\{I_k\}$. For any fixed i let t_{start} be first time the first node in F_i is pebbled and let t_{last} be the first time the last node in F_i is pebbled. Note that either for all $j \in [t_{start}, t_{last}]$, $|P_j| \geq \frac{e}{2}$, or there exists a $j \in [t_{start}, t_{last}]$ with $|P_j| < \frac{e}{2}$.

In the first case, $|P_j| \geq \frac{e}{2}$ for at least $\frac{b}{8}$ steps, so that the cost of pebbling the interval is at least $\frac{8eN}{b}$. In the second case, there exists a $j \in [t_{start}, t_{last}]$ with $|P_j| < \frac{e}{2}$. Observe that L_i has length $\frac{8N}{b}$. Thus by Lemma 3, $\text{ancestors}_{G-P_j}(L_i)$ is $(\frac{e}{2}, d, b)$ block depth-robust, so by Theorem 8, the cost to repebble $\text{ancestors}_{G-P_j}(L_i)$ is at least $\frac{ed}{2}$.

Hence, the cost to pebble each interval of length $\frac{16N}{b}$ is at least $\min\left(\frac{8eN}{b}, \frac{ed}{2}\right)$. Accounting for each of the $\frac{b}{16}$ intervals, the total pebbling cost is at least $\min\left(\frac{eN}{2}, \frac{edb}{32}\right)$. \square

Corollary 5. *Let G_1 be a graph with N nodes sampled uniformly at random from the $DR\text{Sample}$ distribution. If Conjecture 2 holds, then $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(\text{BRG}(G_1)) = \Omega\left(\frac{N^2 \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ with high probability.*

G Sequential Complexity of the Bit Reversal Graph

In this section, we show that the bit reversal graph has high sequential cumulative memory cost.

Definition 7. *We say an interval $I = [a, b]$ contains a pebble in round j if $I \cap P_j \neq \emptyset$. We also interchangeably say that we place a pebble on I in round j if $I \cap P_j \neq \emptyset$, but $I \cap P_{j-1} = \emptyset$.*

Reminder of Lemma 6. *Let $G = \text{BRG}_n$ for some integer $n > 0$ and $N = 2^n$. Let $P = (P_1, \dots, P_t) \in \mathcal{P}(G)$ be some legal sequential pebbling of G . For a given b , partition $[N]$ into $\frac{N}{2^b} = 2^{n-b}$ intervals $I_x = [(x-1)2^b + 1, x \times 2^b]$, each having length 2^b , for $1 \leq x \leq 2^{n-b}$. Suppose that at time i , at most $\frac{N}{2^{b'+3}}$ of the intervals contain a pebble with $b' \geq b$ and at time j , at least $\frac{N}{2^{b'+1}}$ of the intervals contain a pebble. Then*

$$|P_i| + \dots + |P_j| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b'+5}} \quad \text{and} \quad (j-i) \geq \frac{2^{b-b'} N}{4} .$$

Proof of Lemma 6. We say an interval I_x is *far from being pebbled* at time k if both $I_{x-1} \cap P_k = \emptyset$ and $I_x \cap P_k = \emptyset$. Let z be the last pebbling round $i < z < j$ in which $|P_z| < \frac{N}{2^{b'+3}}$. Since at most $\frac{N}{2^{b'+3}}$ intervals contain pebbles at time z , there are at least $\frac{N}{2^{b'+1}} - \frac{2N}{2^{b'+3}} = \frac{N}{2^{b'+2}}$ intervals I_x that are far from being pebbled at time z , but also contain a pebble at time j . For each such interval I_x , at least 2^b sequential pebbling steps are necessary to place a pebble on I_x , since $I_{x-1} \cap P_z = \emptyset$ and each interval has length 2^b . Thus, at least $j-z \geq \frac{N}{2^{b'+2}} \cdot 2^b = \frac{2^{b-b'}N}{4}$ steps are necessary to reach round j . Hence,

$$|P_i| + \dots + |P_j| \geq |P_{z+1}| + \dots + |P_j| \geq \frac{2^{b-b'}N}{4} \cdot \frac{N}{2^{b+3}} = \frac{N^2}{2^{b'+5}}. \quad \square$$

Reminder of Theorem 6. Let $G = \text{BRG}_n$ and $N = 2^n$. Then $\Pi_{\text{cc}}(G) = \Omega(N^2)$.

Proof of Theorem 6. We first let $P \in \mathcal{P}(G)$ be a legal sequential pebbling of the bit reversal graph G . Let t_i denote the first time a pebble is placed on node i . We first show that we can assume $|P_k| < \frac{N}{32}$ for all pebbling rounds k .

If $|P_k| \geq \frac{N}{32}$, then let $z < k$ be the last time at which $|P_z| < \frac{N}{64}$ and note that $k-z \geq |P_k| - |P_z| \geq \frac{N}{64}$, since at most one pebble can be added in each round in a sequential pebbling. Thus, it follows that $\text{aAT}(P) \geq (k-z) \frac{N}{64} \geq \left(\frac{N}{64}\right)^2$.

In the remainder of the proof we assume that $|P_k| < \frac{N}{32}$ for all k and in particular, $|P_{t_N}| < \frac{N}{32}$. We define a sequence b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{i^*} recursively as follows. Let $b_0 > 0$ be the largest integer such that at most $\frac{N}{2^{b_0+3}}$ of the $\frac{N}{2^{b_0}}$ intervals $I_1^0, \dots, I_{2^n-b_0}^0$ contain pebbles at time $y_0 = t_N$, where $I_x^0 := [(x-1) \cdot 2^{b_0} + 1, x \cdot 2^{b_0}]$ denotes the intervals that partition the nodes $[N]$ in the first layer of the bit reversal graph. Let $b_1 > 0$ be the largest integer so that at most $\frac{N}{2^{b_1+3}}$ of the $\frac{N}{2^{b_1}}$ intervals $I_1^1, \dots, I_{2^n-b_1}^1$ with $I_x^1 := [(x-1) \cdot 2^{b_1} + 1, x \cdot 2^{b_1}]$ contain pebbles at time $y_1 = t_{N+4N/2^{b_0}}$, and in general, once b_0, \dots, b_i have been defined, let b_{i+1} denote the largest integer so that at most $\frac{N}{2^{b_{i+1}+3}}$ of the $\frac{N}{2^{b_{i+1}}}$ intervals $I_1^{i+1}, \dots, I_{2^n-b_{i+1}}^{i+1}$ contain pebbles at time $y_{i+1} = t_{N+4N/2^{b_0} + \dots + 4N/2^{b_i}}$, where $I_x^{i+1} := [(x-1) \cdot 2^{b_{i+1}} + 1, x \cdot 2^{b_{i+1}}]$.

We halt the sequence whenever $\sum_{i=0}^{i^*} 2^{-b_i+2}N \geq 3N/4$. We now prove two useful claims. Claim 4, which follows from Lemma 6, lower bounds the initial pebbling cost. In particular, if $b_0 = O(1)$ is *any* constant then Claim 4 implies that $\text{aAT}(P) = \Omega(N^2)$. Lemma 6 also implies that if *for any* b_i in our sequence we have $b_i = O(1)$ then $\text{aAT}(P) = \Omega(N^2)$. Thus, in the rest of the proof we can safely assume that for each $i \leq i^*$ we have $b_i \geq 4$ so that $N2^{-b_i} < N/4$. In particular, this implies that $y_{i^*} \leq t_{2N}$ and

$$\sum_{i=0}^{i^*-1} 2^{-b_i+2}N \geq N/2 \quad , \text{ and thus } \quad \sum_{i=0}^{i^*-1} 2^{-b_i+2}2^{-b_i} \geq 2^{-3}.$$

Claim 4

$$\sum_{i=1}^{y_0-1} |P_i| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_0+8}}.$$

Proof of Claim 4. The claim follows by setting $b=b_0+1$ and $b'=b+2$ in Lemma 6. In particular, at time $j=y_0$ we must have pebbles on *at least* $\frac{N}{2^{b_0+4}} = \frac{N}{2^{b+3}} = \frac{N}{2^{b'+1}}$ of the intervals $I_x^0 = [(x-1)2^b+1, x \times 2^b]$ — otherwise we could have selected a larger value of b_0 . Similarly, at time $i=0$ we have no pebbles on the graph. Thus, by Lemma 6

$$\sum_{i=1}^{y_0-1} |P_i| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b'+5}} = \frac{N^2}{2^{b_0+8}} . \quad \square$$

Claim 5 lower bounds the *elapsed time* between two phases. In particular, $y_{i+1} - y_i \geq \frac{3N}{4}$.

Claim 5 For all $0 \leq i < i^*$ we have $y_{i+1} - y_i \geq \frac{3N}{4}$.

Proof of Claim 5. Each of the nodes in

$$I := [N+4N(2^{-b_0} + \dots + 2^{-b_{i-1}}), N+4(2^{-b_0} + \dots + 2^{-b_i})]$$

are all pebbled for the first time during the time interval $[y_i, y_{i+1}]$ — if $i=0$ then set $I := [N+1, N+4N2^{-b_0}]$. By Lemma 2, each interval I_k^i of the form $I_k^i = [(k-1)2^{b_i}, k \times 2^{b_i}]$ has an edge to I . Hence, for each interval of the form $I_k^i = [(k-1)2^{b_i}, k \times 2^{b_i}]$ there must be some pebbling round $j \in [y_i, y_{i+1}]$ s.t. I_k^i contains a pebble at time j i.e., $|P_j \cap I_k^i| > 0$.

We have $\frac{N}{2^{b_i}}$ intervals of the form I_k^i and, by definition of b_i , at most $\frac{N}{2^{b_i-3}}$ of these intervals I_k^i contain pebbles at time y_i . Let F denote the set of all such intervals I_k^i s.t. *both* of the intervals I_k^i and I_{k+1}^i contain no pebbles at time y_i . We note that

$$|F| \geq \frac{N}{2^{b_i}} - 2 \times \frac{N}{2^{b_i-3}} \geq \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{N}{2^{b_i}} .$$

Finally, we note that each interval I_k^i in F will require 2^{b_i} steps as it will need to be *completely repebbled* before we can place a pebble on the next interval I_{k+1}^i . Thus, we have

$$y_{i+1} - y_i \geq 2^{b_i} |F| \geq \frac{3N}{4} . \quad \square$$

We now define a potential function Φ to help analyze the amortized cost of pebbling during each interval $[y_i, y_{i+1}]$. In particular, we initially set $\Phi(y_0) = \frac{N^2}{2^{8+b_0}}$ and then prove that for each such interval we have

$$\Phi(y_i) - \Phi(y_{i+1}) + \sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}} .$$

It follows that

$$-\Delta\Phi + \sum_{i=0}^{i^*-1} \sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| = \sum_{i=0}^{i^*-1} \left(\Phi(y_{i+1}) - \Phi(y_i) + \sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\geq \sum_{i=0}^{i^*-1} \frac{N^2}{2^{10+b_i}} \\
&= \frac{N^2}{2^9} \sum_{i=0}^{i^*-1} 2^{-b_i} \\
&\geq \frac{N^2}{2^{13}}.
\end{aligned}$$

We then separately prove that $\Delta\Phi \geq -\Phi(y_o)$ which means that

$$\sum_{t=0}^{y_0-1} |P_t| + \sum_i \sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \sum_{t=0}^{y_0-1} |P_t| + \frac{N^2}{2^{13}} - \Phi(y_o) \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{12}},$$

where the last inequality follows because Claim 4 implies $\sum_{t=0}^{y_0-1} |P_t| \geq \Phi(y_o)$.

We now consider several cases based on the difference $b_{i+1} - b_i$:

Case 1 (small increase): $b_i \leq b_{i+1} \leq b_i + 2$. We consider two sub-cases: either in every round $z \in [y_i, y_{i+1})$ we have $|P_z| > \frac{N}{2^{b_i+8}}$, or at some point $z \in [y_i, y_{i+1})$ we have $|P_z| \leq \frac{N}{2^{b_i+8}}$. In the first sub-case, the cost of pebbling during rounds $[y_i, y_{i+1})$ is at least

$$\sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq (y_{i+1} - y_i) \frac{N}{2^{b_i+8}} \geq \frac{3N}{4} \cdot \frac{N}{2^{b_i+8}} \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+9}}.$$

To obtain a lower bound in the second sub-case we rely on the observation that at time y_{i+1} there must be pebbles on at least $\frac{1}{8}$ -fraction of the intervals of length $2^{b_{i+1}+1}$. Now we set $b = b_{i+1} + 1$ and $b' = b + 2 \leq b_i + 5$ in Lemma 6 to obtain the lower bound

$$\sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b'+5}} \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}}.$$

Note that we can apply Lemma 6 since we end with pebbles on at least $N/2^{b_{i+1}+4} = N/2^{b'+1}$ of the intervals of length 2^b at time y_{i+1} (otherwise, we would have selected $b_{i+1} = b$) and start with pebbles on at most $|P_z| \leq \frac{N}{2^{b_i+8}} \leq \frac{N}{2^{b'+3}}$ such intervals.

Thus, in this sub-case we have cost at least $\sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}}$. In both sub-cases we set $\Phi(y_{i+1}) := \Phi(y_i)$ so that the potential function does not change i.e., $\Phi(y_i) - \Phi(y_{i+1}) = 0$.

Case 2 (decrease): $b_{i+1} = b_i - k$ with $k \geq 1$. In this case the pebbling costs will be quite large which will allow us to “recharge” the potential function using excess costs. We again consider two subcases. In subcase one we assume that $|P_z| \geq \frac{N}{2^{b_{i+1}+6}}$ for all $z \in [y_i, y_{i+1})$ which immediately implies that

$$\sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \frac{3N}{4} \cdot \frac{N}{2^{b_{i+1}+6}} \geq \frac{3N^2}{2^{b_i-k+8}} \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i-k+7}}.$$

In the second case we let $z \in [y_i, y_{i+1})$ be the latest time for which $|P_z| \leq \frac{N}{2^{b_{i+1}+6}}$. By setting $b = b_{i+1} + 1$ and $b' = b + 2 = b_{i+1} + 3$ in Lemma 6 we obtain the lower bound

$$\sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b'+5}} \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_{i+1}+8}} = \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i-k+8}} .$$

Note that we can apply Lemma 6 since at most $|P_z| \leq \frac{N}{2^{b_{i+1}+6}} = \frac{N}{2^{b'+3}}$ of the intervals of size 2^b are pebbled at time z and at least $\frac{N}{2^{b+3}} = \frac{N}{2^{b'+1}}$ of these intervals must be pebbled by time y_{i+1} — otherwise we would have selected a larger b_{i+1} . In both sub-cases we have

$$\sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \frac{2^{k+2}N^2}{2^{b_i+10}} .$$

We will define $\Phi(y_{i+1}) := \Phi(y_i) + (2^{k+2} - 1) \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}}$. Notice that while the potential does increase significantly in this case we still have

$$\Phi(y_i) - \Phi(y_{i+1}) + \sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}} .$$

Case 3 (large increase): $b_{i+1} > b_i + 2$. In this case we will simply define $\Phi(y_{i+1}) = \Phi(y_i) - \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}}$ so that trivially we have

$$\Phi(y_i) - \Phi(y_{i+1}) + \sum_{t=y_i}^{y_{i+1}-1} |P_t| \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}} .$$

In particular, we don't attempt to lower bound the pebbling costs in this case and instead reduce the potential function.

In the final case the potential decreases, but, as we later prove in Lemma 8, we maintain the invariant that $\Phi(y_i) \geq 0$ which means that for any $i > 0$ we have

$$\Phi(y_0) - \Phi(y_i) \leq \Phi(y_0) \leq \sum_{t=1}^{y_0-1} |P_t| .$$

It remains to prove that the potential function never becomes negative. Lemma 8 shows that a stronger invariant holds.

Lemma 8. *For each i we have $\Phi(y_i) \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+8}}$.*

Proof of Lemma 8. Clearly, when $i = 0$ we have $\Phi(y_0) \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+8}}$ by definition. Now suppose that the invariant holds at time i and consider $\Phi(y_{i+1})$. There are three cases. In the first case (small increase) we have $b_i \leq b_{i+1} \leq b_i + 2$. In this case we defined $\Phi(y_{i+1}) = \Phi(y_i)$. It follows that

$$\Phi(y_{i+1}) = \Phi(y_i) \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+8}} \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_{i+1}+8}} .$$

In the second case (decrease) we have $b_{i+1} = b_i - k$ with $k > 0$ where we had set

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(y_{i+1}) &= \Phi(y_i) + (2^{k+2} - 1) \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}} \\ &= \Phi(y_i) + (2^{k+2} - 1) \frac{N^2}{2^{b_{i+1}+k+10}} \\ &\geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_{i+1}+8}} + \left(\Phi(y_i) - \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}} \right) \\ &\geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_{i+1}+8}} . \end{aligned}$$

In the third case (large increase) we have $b_{i+1} > b_i + 2$ and we defined $\Phi(y_{i+1}) = \Phi(y_i) - \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}}$. Thus,

$$\Phi(y_{i+1}) \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+8}} - \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+10}} \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_i+9}} \geq \frac{N^2}{2^{b_{i+1}+6}} . \quad \square$$

This completes the proof of Theorem 6. □

Definition 8. A pebbling $P = P_1, \dots$ is c -parallel if $|P_{i+1} \setminus P_i| \leq c$ for all i . We define $\Pi_{cc}^c(G)$ to be the cumulative pebbling cost by any c -parallel pebbling.

Note that any c -parallel pebbling P places at most c new pebbles in each step, so that $|P_{i+1} \setminus P_i| \leq c$ for all i . Thus, each step P_i in a c -parallel pebbling can be emulated by a sequence of c steps $Q_{c_i+1}, \dots, Q_{c(i+1)}$ in a sequential pebbling where $Q_{c_i} = P_i$ and $Q_{c(i+1)} = P_{i+1}$ so that $|Q_{j+1} \setminus Q_j| \leq 1$ for all j and $|Q_{c_i+j}| \leq |P_{i+1}|$ for all $1 \leq j \leq c$. Thus, for any c -parallel pebbling P there exists a sequential pebbling Q with $\Pi_{cc}(Q) \leq c \times \Pi_{cc}(P)$.

Remark 3. For any graph G and any integer $c \geq 1$,

$$\Pi_{cc}(G) \leq c \times \Pi_{cc}^c(G) .$$

Corollary 6. Let $G = \text{BRG}_n$ and $N = 2^n$ for some integer $n > 0$. In particular, for any constant $c \geq 1$ we have $\Pi_{cc}^c(G) = \Omega(\Pi_{cc}(G)) = \Omega(N^2)$.

H Pebbling Reduction for XOR Labeling Rule

Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] previously showed that, in the parallel random oracle model, cumulative memory complexity of an iMHFs $f_{G,H}$ can be characterized by the black pebbling cost $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ of the underlying DAG. However, their reduction assumed that the output of $f_{G,H}$ is $f_{G,H}(x) := \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N)$ is the label of the last node N of G where labels are defined recursively using the rule $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) = H(v, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1), \dots, \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta))$ where $v_1, \dots, v_\delta = \text{parents}_G(v)$. To improve performance real world implementations of iMHFs such as Argon2i, DRSSample and our own construction BRG(DRSSample) are defined using the XOR labeling rule

$$\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) = H\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\delta} \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_i)\right)$$

$$= H(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_1) \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_2) \oplus \dots \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_\delta)),$$

where v_1, \dots, v_δ are the parents of node v .

In this section we prove that, in the parallel random oracle model, the cumulative memory complexity of $f_{G,H}$ is still captured by $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ when using the XOR labeling rule. There are several additional challenges we must handle when using the XOR labeling rule. First, in [AS15] we effectively use an *independent* random oracle $H_v(x) = H(v,x)$ to compute the label of each node v — a property that does not hold for XOR labels. Second, even if H is a random oracle the hash function $F(x,y) = H(x \oplus y)$ is used to generate the labels.

We remark that G is not even collision resistant e.g., $F(x,y) = F(y,x)$. Because of this we will not be able to prove a pebbling reduction for *arbitrary* DAGs G . In fact, one can easily find examples of DAGs G where $\text{cmc}(f_{G,H}) \ll \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ i.e., the cumulative memory complexity is much less than the cumulative pebbling cost by exploiting the fact that $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(u) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)$ whenever $\text{parents}(u) = \text{parents}(v)$. In such a case if $\text{parents}(N) = \{u,v\}$ we would have

$$f_{G,H}(x) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N) = H(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(u) \oplus \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)) = H(0^w),$$

so that $f_{G,H}(x)$ becomes a constant function!

For this reason we only prove that $\text{cmc}(f_{G,H}) = \Omega\left(\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \times w\right)$ when $G = (V = [N], E)$ contains all of the edges of the form $(i, i+1)$ with $i < N$. This *ensures* that for any $u < v$ we have $\text{parents}(v) \neq \text{parents}(u)$ since $v-1 \notin \text{parents}(u)$. Fortunately, this happens to be true of all of the iMHFs we consider. We can use this to argue that it is not possible for an attacker to find a pair $(x,v) \neq (x',v')$ such that $\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x'}(v')$.

Definition 9 (XOR Labeling). *Suppose $G = (V, E)$ is a directed acyclic graph with indegree δ and a single sink node N . Given a family of random oracle functions $H = \{H_1, H_2\}$ with $H_1, H_2: \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^\ell$ over an alphabet Σ , we define the prelabel of a node $v \in [N]$ as $\text{prelab}_{G,H,x}(i): [N] \rightarrow \Sigma^U$. We omit the subscripts G, H when the dependency on the graph G and hash function H is clear. In particular, given an input x the prelabel of node v is defined by*

$$\text{prelab}_{G,H,x}(v) = \begin{cases} H_1(x), & \text{indeg}(v) = 0 \\ \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v-1), & \text{indeg}(v) = 1 \\ \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\delta} \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_i), & \text{indeg}(v) > 1. \end{cases}$$

where v_1, \dots, v_δ are the parents of node v . The (H,x) XOR labeling of G is then defined recursively by

$$\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) = \begin{cases} H_2(H_1(x)), & \text{indeg}(v) = 0 \\ H_2(\text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v-1)), & \text{indeg}(v) = 1 \\ H_2\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\delta} \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(v_i)\right), & \text{indeg}(v) > 1. \end{cases}$$

We then define $f_{G,H}(x) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N)$.

Lemma 9 states that, except with negligible probability, all nodes will have distinct labels and pre-labels as long as the original DAG satisfies the property that $\text{parents}(u) \neq \text{parents}(v)$ for all pairs $u \neq v \in V$. The assumption that $\text{parents}(u) \neq \text{parents}(v)$ for all $u \neq v \in V$ is necessary so that each node in G has a unique prelabel with high probability. Otherwise, we cannot accurately view the label of each node as an independent strings. See Figure 5 for an example of a DAG whose prelabels are not necessarily different.

Lemma 9. *Suppose $G = (V, E)$ is a DAG with N nodes, such that $\text{parents}(u) \neq \text{parents}(v)$ for all pairs $u \neq v \in V$. Let $\mathcal{H} = (H_1, H_2)$ be a family of random oracle functions with outputs of label length w . Then*

$$\Pr_{H \in \mathcal{H}}[\text{COLLISION}] \leq \frac{2N^2}{2^w - N}.$$

where COLLISION denotes the event $\exists a \neq b \in V, \text{lab}_{G, H, x}(a) = \text{lab}_{G, H, x}(b) \vee \text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(a) = \text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(b)$.

Proof of Lemma 9. Suppose without loss of generality that the nodes $1, \dots, N$ are in topological order and let H be chosen uniformly at random from \mathcal{H} . Let \mathcal{L}_m be the event that $\text{lab}_{G, H, x}(a) = \text{lab}_{G, H, x}(b)$ for some $a \neq b$ with $a, b \leq m$. Let \mathcal{P}_m be the event that $\text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(a) = \text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(b)$ for some $a \neq b$ with $a, b \leq m$.

Consider an induction on m after observing that $\Pr[\mathcal{L}_1] = \Pr[\mathcal{P}_1] = 0$. For any $v \in V$, let $r_1(v), \dots, r_{\delta_v}(v)$ denote the parents of v with $r_1(v) < r_2(v) < \dots < r_{\delta_v}(v)$. For fixed $i \in V$ with $i < m+1$, $\text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(i) = \text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(m+1)$ if and only if

$$\bigoplus_{j=1}^{\delta_i} \text{lab}_{G, H, x}(r_j(i)) = \bigoplus_{j=1}^{\delta_i} \text{lab}_{G, H, x}(r_j(m+1)).$$

Conditioned on $\neg \mathcal{L}_m$, the probability that $\text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(i) = \text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(m+1)$ for a fixed $i < m+1$ is at most $\frac{1}{2^{w-m}}$ since $\text{lab}_{G, H, x}(r_1(i)) = H(\text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(r_1(i)))$ is essentially a uniformly random w bit string — the condition $\neg \mathcal{L}_m$ that the first m pre-labels are pairwise distinct rules out *at most* m possible values of $\text{lab}_{G, H, x}(r_1(i))$. Taking a union bound over all choices of $i \leq m$ we have

$$\Pr[\mathcal{P}_{m+1} | \neg \mathcal{L}_m \wedge \neg \mathcal{P}_m] \leq \frac{m}{2^{w-m}} \leq \frac{N}{2^{w-N}}.$$

Conditioned on $\neg \mathcal{P}_{m+1}$, it follows that for a fixed $i < m+1$, $\text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(i) \neq \text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(m+1)$. Hence, the probability that $\text{lab}_{G, H, x}(i) = \text{lab}_{G, H, x}(m+1)$ for a fixed $i < m+1$ is at most $\frac{1}{2^{w-m}}$ since we can view $\text{lab}_{G, H, x}(m+1)$ as a uniformly random w bit string conditioning on the event that it is not equal to any of the m prior labels $\text{lab}_{G, H, x}(1), \dots, \text{lab}_{G, H, x}(m)$. Taking a union bound over all choices of $i \leq m$,

$$\Pr[\mathcal{L}_{m+1} | \neg \mathcal{L}_m \wedge \neg \mathcal{P}_{m+1}] \leq \frac{m}{2^{w-m}} \leq \frac{N}{2^{w-N}}.$$

Thus, it follows that $\Pr[\neg \mathcal{P}_N \wedge \neg \mathcal{L}_N] \leq \frac{2N^2}{2^w - N}$. \square

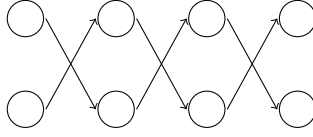


Fig. 5: An example of a DAG without independent prelabels.

Technical Note: Argon2i actually defines the first *two blocks* according to a special rule. Essentially, the labels of the first two nodes will be $H_1(x,0)$ and the label of the second node will be $H_1(x,1)$, while the rest of the nodes will be defined as above. We remark that Lemma 9 will still hold with this modification since the prelabels for the first two nodes are *guaranteed* to be distinct.

H.1 Memory in the Parallel Random Oracle Model

Before describing our reduction, we formally recall the definition of cumulative memory complexity in the pROM model. Let the state of an algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ at time i to be σ_i , which contains the contents of the memory. Let $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ be a pROM attacker $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ who is given oracle access to a random oracle $H: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^w$. An execution of $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ on input x proceeds in rounds as follows. Initially, the state at time 0 is σ_0 , which encodes the initial input x . At the beginning of round i the attacker is given the initial state σ_{i-1} as well as the answers A_{i-1} to any random oracle queries that were asked at the end of the last round. The algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ may then perform arbitrary computation and choose to update the memory, outputting a new state σ_i , along with a batch of queries $Q_i = \{q_1^i, q_2^i, \dots, q_{k_i}^i\}$.

Execution Trace. The execution trace of the algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ is defined by the sequence of memory states and queries made to the random oracle H . Formally, the execution trace is $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x) = \{(\sigma_i, Q_i)\}_{i=1}^t$, where the trace $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)$ is dependent on the algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$, random oracle H , internal randomness R , and input value x . Then the cumulative memory cost of the execution trace is

$$\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)) = \sum_i |\sigma_i|.$$

Note that the attacker is not charged for space used for computation between queries. This is justified since we will *lower bound* the cumulative memory cost. We say that an execution trace $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)$ is *successful* if the final output was correct i.e., $f_{G,H}(x) = \text{lab}_{G,H,x}(N)$.

H.2 Ex-Post-Facto Pebbling

Let $f_{G,H}$ be a function with random oracle H and underlying directed acyclic graph G . We show that computation of $f_{G,H}$ yields a legal black pebbling with high probability. We first define an *ex-post-facto* pebbling for any computation of $f_{G,H}$ using the following terminology.

Definition 10. We say that random oracle query q targets node v if $q = \text{prelab}(v)$. We say that the node v is an input for query q if $q = \text{prelab}(w)$ for some node w such that $v \in \text{parents}(w)$. We use the predicate $\text{targets}(q, v)$ (resp. $\text{input}(q, v)$) to indicate that query q targets node v (resp. node v is an input for query q).

We remark that multiple nodes v could be the *target* of a query q if two pre-labels collide i.e., $\text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(v) = \text{prelab}_{G, H, x}(u)$, though Lemma 9 implies that that this only happens with negligible probability when all nodes in G have a distinct set of parents.

We use $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ to extract a legal $P = (P_1, \dots, P_t) \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G)$ from a *successful* execution trace. Given a *successful* execution trace $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A}, R, H}(x) = \{(\sigma_i, Q_i)\}_{i=1}^t$ we let $T_i = \{v : \exists q \in Q_i \text{ s.t. } \text{targets}(q, v)\}$ be the set of targeted nodes in round i and we let $I_i = \{v : \exists q \in Q_i \text{ s.t. } \text{input}(q, v)\}$ be the set of required input nodes in round i . Given a node v and a round i we define $\text{NextTargetRound}(v, i)$ (resp. $\text{NextRequiredRound}(v, i)$) to be the earliest round $j \geq i$ s.t. $v \in T_j$ (resp. $v \in I_j$). We define $R_i = \{v : \text{NextRequiredRound}(v, i) \leq \text{NextTargetRound}(v, i)\}$ to denote the set of all nodes which are required as inputs for random oracle queries before they are observed as outputs. Now to obtain the corresponding pebbling $\text{BlackPebble}^H(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A}, R, H}(x)) = (P_0, \dots, P_t)$ where $P_0 = \emptyset$ and $P_i = R_i \cap (T_i \cup P_{i-1})$ for each round $0 < i \leq t$.

Intuitively, at each time j , P_j contains all nodes v whose label will appear as input to a future random oracle query *before* the label appears as the output of a random oracle query.

Definition 11. Given an execution trace $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A}, R, H}(x) = \{(\sigma_i, Q_i)\}_{i=1}^t$ we say that a round i query $q \in Q_i$ is lucky if for some nodes x and $v \in \text{parents}(x)$ we have :

- $\text{targets}(q, x)$ (query q targets node x), and
- For all prior queries $q' \in \bigcup_{j=1}^{i-1} Q_j$ we have $\text{targets}(q', v) = 0$ i.e., v has not been the target of any prior query.

We say that the output is lucky if the execution trace is successful, but the final node N was never the target of a query i.e., $\text{targets}(q, N) = 0$ for all $q \in \bigcup_{j=1}^t Q_j$.

Observe that if there are no lucky guesses, then $\text{BlackPebble}^H(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A}, R, H}(x)) = P_0, \dots, P_t$ corresponds to a legal black pebbling.

Theorem 10. Suppose $G = (V, E)$ is a DAG with N nodes, such that $\text{parents}(u) \neq \text{parents}(v)$ for all pairs $u \neq v \in V$. and that \mathcal{A} computes $f_{G, H}$ correctly with probability at least ϵ while making at most q queries to the random oracle. Then with probability at least $\epsilon - \frac{qN+1}{2^w - N - N^2} - \frac{2N^2}{2^w - N}$ the ex-post-facto pebbling extracted from \mathcal{A} is a legal pebbling and the event COLLISION from Lemma 9 does not occur.

Proof. Fix an execution trace $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A}, R, H}(T) = \{(\sigma_i, Q_i)\}_{i=1}^t$. By Lemma 9 we have that the probability of the event COLLISION that two nodes have the same label or pre-label is at most $\frac{N^2}{2^{w-1} - 2N}$. We now upper bound the probability that there is a lucky query conditioning on the event that COLLISION does not occur. Let $NQ_i = \{v : \text{targets}(q', v) = 0 \ \forall q' \in \bigcup_{j=1}^{i-1} Q_j\}$ denote the set of nodes that were never a target of any query q' before round i .

Fixing a query $q' \in Q_i$ along with a node u we have

$$\Pr[\mathbf{targets}(q', u) : \mathbf{parents}(u) \cap NQ_i \neq \emptyset] \leq \frac{1}{2^w - N - N^2} .$$

This follows because, if some $v \in \mathbf{parents}(u)$ has never been the target of a prior random oracle query, then we gave never submitted the query $\mathbf{prelab}(v)$ and we can essentially view the label $\mathbf{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) = H(\mathbf{prelab}(v))$ as a uniformly random w -bit string that is yet to be selected. The only restriction is that $\mathbf{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)$ must be distinct from other known labels and that for any pair of nodes u_1, u_2 we have $\mathbf{prelab}_{G,H,x}(u_1) \neq \mathbf{prelab}_{G,H,x}(u_2)$ since we condition on the event that the event COLLISION does not occur. These restrictions rule out *at most* $N + N^2$ possible values of the label $\mathbf{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)$. Hence, for any constant w -bit string $y \in \{0,1\}^w$, the string $y \oplus \mathbf{lab}_{G,H,x}(v)$ can essentially be viewed as a w -bit string selected uniformly at random. More precisely, we can view the prelabel $\mathbf{prelab}(u) = \mathbf{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbf{parents}(u) \setminus \{v\}} \mathbf{lab}_{G,H,x}(i) \right)$ as a random w -bit string which will be drawn from a set $S \subseteq \{0,1\}^w$ of at least $2^w - N - N^2$ strings.

Thus, $\Pr[\mathbf{prelab}(u) = q' : \mathbf{parents}(u) \cap NQ_i \neq \emptyset] \leq \frac{1}{2^w - N - N^2}$. Union bounding over all nodes u we have

$$\Pr[\exists u : \mathbf{targets}(q', u) \wedge \mathbf{parents}(u) \cap NQ_i \neq \emptyset] \leq \frac{N}{2^w - N - N^2} .$$

Finally, we can union bound over all q queries to see that the probability there exists a lucky query is at most

$$\Pr[\exists u, q' : \mathbf{targets}(q', u) \wedge \mathbf{parents}(u) \cap NQ_i \neq \emptyset] \leq \frac{qN}{2^w - N - N^2} .$$

A similar argument shows that the probability of a *lucky output* on any query $q' \neq \mathbf{prelab}(N)$ is at most 2^{-w} — note that if $q' = \mathbf{prelab}(v)$ for $v < N$ then we already know that q' does not have lucky output since $H(\mathbf{prelab}(v)) = \mathbf{lab}_{G,H,x}(v) \neq \mathbf{lab}_{G,H,x}(N)$ as we assume that the event COLLISION does not occur. Thus, the probability of a lucky query or lucky output is at most $\frac{qN}{2^w - N - N^2} + 2^{-w}$.

If there are no lucky queries, then for each node $u \in V$ and round i such that there exists $q \in Q_i$ with $\mathbf{targets}(q, u)$, then for all nodes $v \in \mathbf{parents}(u)$, there exists a query q' in *some* previous round $j < i$ with $q' \in Q_j$ and $\mathbf{targets}(q', u)$. Notably, let $z < i$ be the last round in which there exists a query $q_0 \in Q_z$ with $\mathbf{targets}(q_0, v)$ — which means that we have $v \in R_y$ for any round $z < y \leq i$. Thus, by definition of $\mathbf{BlackPebble}^H(\text{Trace}_{A,R,H}(T))$ we have $v \in P_y$ for any $z \leq y < i$ because we never discard pebbles $v \in R_y$. It follows that $\mathbf{parents}(P_{i+1} \setminus P_i) \subseteq P_i$.

Furthermore, if the output is not lucky, then there exists a round j and a query $q \in Q_j$ such that $\mathbf{targets}(q, N)$. By definition of $\mathbf{BlackPebble}^H(\text{Trace}_{A,R,H}(T))$ this means that $N \in P_j$. Thus with probability at least $\epsilon - \frac{qN+1}{2^w - N - N^2} - \frac{N^2}{2^w - N}$, $\mathbf{BlackPebble}^H(\text{Trace}_{A,R,H}(T))$ is a legal black pebbling. \square

H.3 Extractor Argument

We now argue that with high probability, the execution cost of an adversary that computes an instance of $f_{G,H}$ corresponds to the cumulative memory cost of its ex-post-facto pebbling.

We now formally define the cost of computing a function based on its execution trace.

Definition 12. *The memory cost cost of a function $f_{G,H}$ is defined by*

$$\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{G,H}) = \min_{\mathcal{A},x} \mathbb{E}[\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x))],$$

where the minimum is taken over all valid inputs x and all algorithms \mathcal{A} making at most q queries that compute $f_{G,H}(x)$ correctly with probability at least ϵ .

We now show that any algorithm $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ that computes a function that follows the XOR labeling rule correctly with probability at least ϵ has cost corresponding to the cumulative cost of the resulting legal black pebbling, $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$. The proof uses that fact that if an attacking strategy does not yield a corresponding legal black pebbling, then the attacking strategy can be modified to form an extractor for the labels of a subset of nodes. Specifically, an extractor with access to the attacking strategy, the state of the memory, and a few select hints can successfully predict a large number of random bits, which cannot happen with high probability. The hints given to the extractor describes the positions of the random bits, and ensure these bits remain “random” (that is, we do not explicitly query these locations later).

In particular, the extractor uses the hints to simulate $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ but the hints do not include the current state of memory σ_i .

Lemma 10. [DKW11] *Let B be a series of random bits and let \mathcal{A} be an algorithm that receives a hint $h \in H$ and can query B at specific indices. If \mathcal{A} outputs a subset of k indices of B that were previously not queried, as well as guesses for each of the bits, the probability there exists some $h \in H$ so that all the k guesses are correct is at most $\frac{|H|}{2^k}$.*

Theorem 11. *Let G be a DAG with N nodes, maximum indegree $\delta \geq 2$, and $\text{parents}(u) \neq \text{parents}(v)$ for all pairs $u \neq v \in V$, and let $f_{G,H}$ be a function that follows the XOR labeling rule, with label size w . Let $q < 2^{w/32}$ be a number of queries to a random oracle, $32 \log N < w$, and $\frac{\epsilon}{4} > 2^{-w/2+2} > \frac{qN+1}{2^w-N-N^2} + \frac{2N^2}{2^w-N}$. Then*

$$\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{G,H}) \geq \frac{\epsilon w}{8\delta} \cdot \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G),$$

where w is the size of each label.

Proof. Suppose by way of contradiction, that $\mathbb{E}[\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x))] \leq \frac{\epsilon w}{8\delta} \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ where $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x) = \{(\sigma_i, Q_i)\}_{i=1}^t$ is a random execution trace of $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$. By assumption we have

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}(x) = f_{G,H}(x)] \geq \epsilon.$$

Similarly, we have $\sum_i |Q_i| \leq q$ since $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ makes at most q random oracle queries.

Consider a random execution trace $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x) = \{(\sigma_i, Q_i)\}_{i=1}^t$ of $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}(x)$. By Markov’s inequality we have $\Pr\left[\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)) \geq \frac{w \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)}{4\delta}\right] \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. By Theorem 10, with probability at least $\epsilon - \frac{qN+1}{2^w-N-N^2} - \frac{2N^2}{2^w-N} - \epsilon/2 \geq \epsilon/4$ we get a *successful*

execution trace with $\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)) \leq \frac{w\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)}{4\delta}$ (i.e., $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ that succeeds in calculating $f_{G,H}(x)$) and we can extract a legal black pebbling $P = (P_1, \dots, P_t) = \text{BlackPebble}^H(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x))$ from this execution trace and the event COLLISION did not occur (i.e., all nodes have distinct labels and pre-labels). Let $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P) \geq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ be the cumulative complexity of this pebbling.

If $\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A},R,H}(x)) \leq \frac{w\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P)}{4\delta}$ then for some step i we must have $|\sigma_i| < \frac{|P_i|w}{4\delta}$. By construction of the pebbling, for each node $v \in P_i$ we have

$$i_v := \text{NextRequiredRound}(v, i) \leq \text{NextTargetRound}(v, i).$$

Let $q_v \in Q_{i_v}$ denote the first query in which $\text{input}(q_v, v) = 1$. Assuming that the event COLLISION did not occur (i.e., all nodes have distinct labels and pre-labels) there is a unique node u_v such that $\text{prelab}(u_v) = q_v$. We will let u_v be the node targeted by the query q_v .

We would like to extract $\text{lab}(v)$ from the query q_v . However, under the XOR labeling rule, the situation is complicated since $\text{lab}(v)$ is not explicitly revealed in the random oracle query q_v , instead $q_v = \text{lab}(v) \left(\bigoplus_{j \in \text{parents}(u_v) \setminus \{v\}} \text{lab}(j) \right)$. Let $A_v = \text{parents}(u_v) \setminus \{v\}$ denote the set of additional nodes whose labels are XORed with $\text{lab}(v)$. To solve the problem we order nodes in $v \in P_i$ in increasing order by $\text{NextRequiredRound}(v, i)$. We then define the sets E_i, C_i by following the following procedure: 1) Initialize $P_i^0 = P_i, E_i, C_i = \emptyset$ and $j = 0$, 2) Select the first element $v \in P_i^j$ 3) Update $E_i \leftarrow E_i \cup \{v\}$, $C_i \leftarrow C_i \cup (A_v \setminus E_i)$, set $P_i^{j+1} = P_i^j \setminus (\{v\} \cup A_v)$ and increment j . 4) repeat steps 2-3 until P_i^j is empty.

We let $S = C_i \cup P_i$ where C_i is the final set output by the procedure above. Note that $|C_i| \leq (\delta - 1)|P_i|$ where δ is the indegree of the graph. This follows because each time step 3 is executed we add *at most* $|A_v| \leq \delta - 1$ new nodes to C_i . Furthermore, we cannot execute step 3 more than $|P_i|$ times since we discard *at least one* node (i.e., v) from P_i^j on each iteration. Similarly, we note that we must execute step 3 at least $\lceil |P_i|/\delta \rceil$ times so we have $|E_i| = |P_i \setminus C_i| \geq \frac{|P_i|}{\delta}$. Thus, $|S| \geq |C_i| + \lceil \frac{|P_i|}{\delta} \rceil$.

We argue that an extractor using $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ can predict $(|S|)w$ random bits using $\frac{|P_i|}{4\delta}w$ bits of information from the state of $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$, along with the following hint, which consists of three parts:

1. The sets $S = C_i \cup E_i$ and $|C_i|$ itself is given as a hint to tell the extractor which labels to extract. The size of this component of the hint is at most $|S|\log N + |C_i|\log N$ bits.
2. For each node $v \in P_i \setminus C_i$ the hint includes the index of the first query $q_v \in Q_{i_v}$ denote the first query in which $\text{input}(q_v, v) = 1$ as well as the target u_v of this query q_v . Since, there are *at most* q queries total it will take at most $\log_2 q$ bits to encode the index of each query and $\log_2 N$ bits to encode the target of each query. Thus, this component of the hint is at most $|P_i \setminus C_i| \log q + |P_i \setminus C_i| \log N$ bits.
3. For each node $v \in C_i$ the hint includes $\text{lab}(v)$. This component of the hint is at most $|C_i|w$ bits.
4. For each $v \in S$, the index of the first query when $\text{lab}(v)$ might be compromised. Observe that if the extractor successfully predicts a random string at a location

v , but then $\mathbf{lab}(v)$ is later queried by the attacker, we cannot distinguish this case at the end from the case that the extractor simply read $\mathbf{lab}(v)$ after making the query. Effectively, the extractor is no longer predicting a random string. To avoid this, the hint given to the extractor details queries that would compromise the randomness of the desired locations. Formally, the hint is the minimal index k such that $q_k^j = \mathbf{prelab}(v)$, which yields returns the query $H(q_k^j) = \mathbf{lab}(v)$. This component of the hint tells the extractor the locations of the random strings to be predicted, and has size at most $|S|\log q$ bits.

We remark that the total length of the hint h is $|S|(2\log q + 2\log N) + |C_i|w + |\sigma_i| \leq \delta(2\log q + 2\log N) + |C_i|w + \frac{|P_i|}{2\delta}$, while the extractor will output $|S|w \geq \left(|C_i| + \left\lceil \frac{|P_i|}{\delta} \right\rceil\right)w$ random bits. Since we assume that $\log N < \frac{w}{32}$ and $q < 2^{w/32}$ we have

$$|S|w - |h| \geq |P_i \setminus C_i|w \left(1 - \frac{1}{2\delta}\right) - w/8 \geq w/2 .$$

The extractor will simulate $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ starting from initial state σ_i . The extractor maintains a list $L = \{(v, \mathbf{lab}(v))\}$ of known labels — initially $L = \{(v, \mathbf{lab}(v)) : v \in C_i\}$ — as well as a list $L_{pre} = \{(v, \mathbf{prelab}(v))\}$ of known pre-labels — initially empty. In each round $j \geq i$ we observe a new batch of random oracle queries Q_j . For each query $y \in Q_j$ we check if the query is of interest.

1. If our hint indicates that y has some node $v \in P_i \setminus C_i$ as input then we will compute $\mathbf{lab}(v) = y \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{j \in \mathbf{parents}(u_v) \setminus \{v\}} \mathbf{lab}(j)\right)$ add $(v, \mathbf{lab}(v))$ to our list — here we rely on the fact that the hint contains the target u_v of the query y to identify $\mathbf{parents}(u_v)$ and, to compute $\bigoplus_{j \in \mathbf{parents}(u_v) \setminus \{v\}} \mathbf{lab}(j)$, we rely on the fact that L must contain each of the pairs $(j, \mathbf{lab}(j))$ since $\mathbf{parents}(u_v) \subseteq C_i \cup \{v\}$. In this case we have $\mathbf{prelab}(u_v) = y$ so we will also add the pair (u_v, y) to L_{pre} in this case. If we happen to have $(u_v, \mathbf{lab}(u_v)) \in L_{pre}$ for some node v then we write $\mathbf{lab}(u_v)$ on \mathcal{A} 's response tape; otherwise we query $H(y)$, add $(u_v, H(y))$ to L and record $H(y)$ on \mathcal{A} 's response tape.
2. If our hint indicates that y targets some node $v \in P_i$ then we will look for the pair $(v, \mathbf{lab}(v))$ in our list L and write this response on \mathcal{A} 's response tape. Note that $(v, \mathbf{lab}(v))$ *must* be in L because for *any* node $v \in P_i$ we have $\mathbf{NextRequiredRound}(v, i) \leq \mathbf{NextTargetRound}(v, i)$. Thus, we will extract $(v, \mathbf{lab}(v))$ before the current round $j \geq \mathbf{NextTargetRound}(v, i)$. In this case we have $\mathbf{prelab}(v) = y$ so we will add (v, y) to the list L_{pre} .
3. If we have $(v, y) \in L_{pre}$ for some node $v \in C_i$ then the extractor looks for a pair $(v, \mathbf{lab}(v)) \in L$ and writes the response $\mathbf{lab}(v)$ on \mathcal{A} 's response tape. Note that we *must* have $(v, \mathbf{lab}(v)) \in L$ in this case. Clearly, if $v \in C_i$ then $(v, \mathbf{lab}(v)) \in L$ since we start with all of these labels in L . If $v \in P_i \setminus C_i$ then y cannot be the first query to target v then we would have already added $(v, \mathbf{lab}(v))$ in the previous case (If y were first query to target v then we would be in case 2 since the hint encodes the index of the first query to target v).
4. Otherwise, we simply query $H(y)$ and write $H(y)$ on \mathcal{A} 's response tape.

After $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ finishes the extractor the list L will contain $(v, \text{lab}(v))$ for each node $v \in C_i \cup P_i$, but we may not have $(v, \text{prelab}(v))$ for each node. Thus, the extractor will begin computing $f_{G,H}$ using the honest evaluation algorithm. As before the extractor will check each random oracle query y to see if $(v, y) \in L_{pre}$ for some node $v \in C_i$. If so then extractor finds $(v, \text{lab}(v)) \in L$ and uses $\text{lab}(v)$ as the output without querying $H(\cdot)$. As we progress the extractor maintains a list $(v, \text{lab}(v))$ for each of the labels computed so far, and the extractor immediately adds $(v, \text{prelab}(v))$ to L_{pre} once all of the labels of the node in $\text{parents}(v)$ are known. Finally, the extractor will output $(\text{prelab}(v), \text{lab}(v))$ for each node $v \in P_i \cup C_i$.

Assuming that we were able to extract a legal pebbling from the execution trace $\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A}, R, H}(x)$ the extractor will always succeed in extracting $|S|$ input/output pairs $(\text{prelab}(v), \text{lab}(v))$ without querying the random oracle at $\text{prelab}(v)$ for each node $v \in P_i \cup C_i$, and if all of the pre-labels are distinct then we have $|S|$ input/output pairs.

In general, the probability that our extractor can extract $|S|$ input/output pairs from our short hint will be *at least*

$$\epsilon - \frac{qN+1}{2^w - N - N^2} - \frac{2N^2}{2^w - N} - \frac{\epsilon}{2} \geq \frac{\epsilon}{4} \geq 2^{-w/2+2},$$

where ϵ is the probability $\mathcal{A}^{H(\cdot)}$ correctly computes $f_{G,H}(x)$, $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ is an upper bound on the probability that $\text{cmc}(\text{Trace}_{\mathcal{A}, R, H}(x)) > \frac{wH_{cc}^{\parallel}(P)}{4\delta}$, and $\frac{qN+1}{2^w - N - N^2} + \frac{2N^2}{2^w - N}$ upper bounds the probability that we fail to extract a black pebbling or two labels/prelabels collide — see Theorem 10.

However, by Lemma 10 the probability the extractor can successfully output $|S|$ input output pairs from a hint of size $|S|$ is at most

$$2^{-|S|w+|h|} \leq 2^{-w/2}.$$

This is a contradiction as it implies that

$$2^{-w/2+2} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{4} \leq 2^{-w/2}. \quad \square$$

See Figure 6 for intuition.

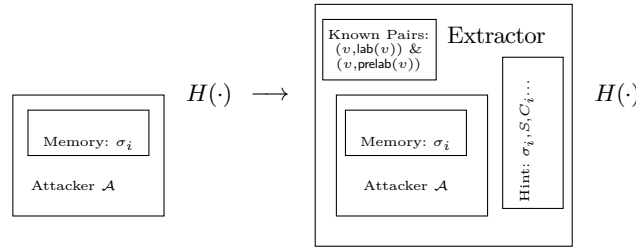


Fig. 6: An extractor that uses the attacker to predict distinct outputs of random oracle $H(\cdot)$.

Reminder of Theorem 7.

Let G be a DAG with N nodes, indegree $\delta \geq 2$, and $\text{parents}(u) \neq \text{parents}(v)$ for all pairs $u \neq v \in V$, and let $f_{G,H}$ be a function that follows the XOR labeling rule, with label size w . Let \mathcal{H} be a family of random oracle functions with outputs of label length w and $H = (H_1, H_2)$, where $H_1, H_2 \in \mathcal{H}$. Let m be a number of parallel instances such that $mN < 2^{w/32}$, $q < 2^{w/32}$ be the maximum number of queries to a random oracle, and let $\frac{\epsilon}{4} > 2^{-w/2+2} > \frac{qmN+1}{2^w - m^2N^2 - mN} + \frac{2m^2N^2}{2^w - mN}$. Then

$$\text{cmc}_{q,\epsilon}(f_{G,H}^{\times m}) \geq \frac{\epsilon m w}{8\delta} \cdot \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G).$$

Proof of Theorem 7. [Sketch] The proof is quite similar to Theorem 11, except that the number of nodes in $G^{\times m}$ is mN . We need to show that the event COLLISION is negligible as in Lemma 9. The proof is *almost* identical except that we need to add a special case for all of the m sink nodes in $G^{\times m}$. We note that all of these source nodes are *guaranteed* to have distinct pre-labels since the *inputs* $X = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$ to each instance of $f_{G,H}$ are distinct. With this observation we can easily adapt the proof of Lemma 9 to conclude that

$$\Pr[\text{COLLISION}] \leq \frac{2m^2N^2}{2^w - mn}$$

and we can adapt the proof of Theorem 10 to show that we extract a legal black pebbling with probability at least

$$\epsilon - \frac{qmN+1}{2^w - m^2N^2 - mN} - \frac{2m^2N^2}{2^w - mn}.$$

At this point the extractor argument follows the proof of Theorem 11 exactly. \square

I Cryptanalysis of DRSample as Evidence for Conjectures

In this section of the appendix we provide strong evidence in support of our conjectures about the depth-robustness of DRSample. The first conjecture states that DRSample is $(e = c_1 N \log \log N / \log N, d = c_2 N \log \log N / \log N)$ -depth robust for suitable constants $c_1, c_2, c_3 > 0$, and the second (stronger) conjecture states that DRSample is $(e = c_1 N \log \log N / \log N, d = c_2 N \log \log N / \log N, b = c_3 \log N / \log \log N)$ -block-depth robust. We consider three different state-of-the-art depth-reducing attacks: the layered attack [AB16], Valiant’s Lemma [Val77, AB16] and the pebbling reduction of Alwen et al. [ABP17] which constructs a depth-reducing set S of size at most $e = |S| \leq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)/d$ — we use the greedy pebble attack [BCS16] as our starting point since this is the best known pebbling attack against DRSample. The layered attack [AB16] was originally used to attack Argon2i and Balloon Hash, while Valiant’s Lemma [Val77, AB16] was originally used to derive the general upper bound that any DAG G with constant indegree is $(e = c_1 N \log \log N / \log N, d = c_2 N / \log^2 N)$ reducible for some constants c_1 and c_2 — hence $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \mathcal{O}(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$ by a result from [AB16].

We show that when we want to reduce the depth to just $d = N/\sqrt{\log N}$ that each of the above attacks *require* the removal of at least $\Omega(N \log \log N / \log N)$ nodes. Along the way we introduce a *general* framework for analyzing Valiant’s Lemma [Val77, AB16] for a specific DAG and use our techniques to analyze the performance of the attack against Argon2iA and Argon2iB. Interestingly, the performance *exactly* matches the performance of the layered attack against these graphs. This provides theoretical justification to a surprising finding of Alwen et al. [AB17, ABH17] that the layered attack seems to perform slightly worse than Valiant’s Lemma despite the fact that (at the time) the best asymptotic upper bounds for the layered attack were much better. Another interesting finding is that the performance of *all three distinct* attacks are asymptotically equivalent despite the fact that the depth-reducing sets are chosen in very different ways.

I.1 Valiant’s Lemma: Basic Setting and Observation

We introduce two variant’s of Valiant’s Lemma attack in Algorithm 7 and Algorithm 8. Both algorithms start by partitioning the edges E into sets E_1, \dots, E_n where $E_i = \{(u, v) \mid \text{MSDB}(\ell_u, \ell_v) = i\}$ (resp. $S_i = \{u : (u, v) \in E_i\}$) is the set of all edges (u, v) with the property that the most-significant different bit between the binary strings ℓ_u and ℓ_v is i . Here, ℓ_u is the n bit binary string corresponding to the integer $u-1$ i.e. $\ell_1 = 0^n$. If the nodes are given in topological order then it is easy to show that for any $X \subseteq [n]$ we have $\text{depth}(G - \bigcup_{i \in X} S_i) \leq N/2^{|X|}$. Algorithm 8 takes as input a target depth d and selects the $\log_2(N/d)$ smallest sets S_i to add to X to ensure the depth of the graph $\text{depth}(G - \bigcup_{i \in X} S_i)$ is at most d . By contrast, Algorithm 7 takes as input a maximum size e and repeatedly finds $i \in [n] \setminus X$ with minimum size $|S_i|$ to add to X until we cannot find any $i \in [n] \setminus X$ such that $|\bigcup_{j \in X \cup \{i\}} S_j| \leq e$. We now introduce a general technique to analyze DAGs $G = (V = [N], E)$ with edge set $E = \{(i, i+1) : 1 \leq i < N\} \cup \{(r(i), i) : 1 < i \leq N\}$ for some predecessor function $r(i) < i$.

Definition 13. Let $G = (V = [N], E)$ be a DAG with $N = 2^n$ nodes. Define E_i as follows:

$$E_i := \{(u, v) \in E : \text{MSDB}(\ell_u, \ell_v) = i\}.$$

Where ℓ_u is the n bit binary string corresponding to the integer $u-1$ i.e. $\ell_1 = 0^n$.

All of the DAGs $G = (V = [N], E)$ we consider in this section have edge set $E = \{(i, i+1) : 1 \leq i < N\} \cup \{(r(i), i) : 1 < i \leq N\}$ where $r(i)$ is a random predecessor of the node i and the selection of the predecessor $r(i)$ can be viewed as an independent choice for each node i . Note that the function $r(i) < i$ varies for different constructions e.g., Argon2iA, Argon2iB and DRSSample. Thus, we can split the set E_i into two sets:

$$\begin{aligned} E_i &= \{(u, v) \in E : \text{MSDB}(\ell_u, \ell_v) = i\} \\ &= \underbrace{\{(v, v+1) : \text{MSDB}(\ell_v, \ell_{v+1}) = i\}}_{=: A_i} \cup \underbrace{\{(r(v), v) : \text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) = i\}}_{=: B_i} \end{aligned}$$

We introduce an indicator random variable which checks whether $\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) = i$ or not.

Definition 14. Let $G=(V,E)$ be a DAG and $v \in V$ be any node in the set V . Then an indicator random variable $X_{v,i}$ to check MSDB is defined by

$$X_{v,i} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) = i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The following fact states that $|A_i| = 2^{-i}N$ for each $i \leq n$. The fact applies to all DAGs we will analyze. Thus, to analyze the size of E_i for a particular DAG it suffices to focus on the set B_i .

Fact 12 Let $i \leq n$ be given and set $A_i =: \{(v, v+1) : \text{MSDB}(\ell_v, \ell_{v+1}) = i\}$ then $|A_i| = 2^{-i}N$.

Proof. It is clear that $\text{MSDB}(\ell_v, \ell_{v+1}) = i$ if and only if $v = 2^{i-1} + 2^i \cdot k$ for any integer $0 \leq k < 2^{-i}N$. Therefore, we have that $|A_i| = |\{k : 0 \leq k < 2^{-i}N, k \in \mathbb{Z}\}| = 2^{-i}N$. \square

Lemma 11 is a general tool which we will use to bound the size of B_i .

Lemma 11. $\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) = i$ if and only if $2^{i-1} + m \geq \ell_v - \ell_{r(v)} > m$ where $\ell_v = j \cdot 2^{i-1} + m$ where $0 \leq m < 2^{i-1}$ and j is a nonnegative odd integer.

Proof. If $\ell_{r(v)} < \ell_v - m$, then clearly $\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v)$ will never be i . And if $\ell_v - \ell_{r(v)} > 2^{i-1} + m$, then we have $\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) \geq i+1$. Finally, if j is even, then the i -th bit should be 0, which means that $\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) \neq i$ because flipping the i -th bit would increase the label which contradicts to the definition of the predecessor $r(v)$. \square

Example 1. Suppose that $i = 3$ and choose $m = 3 < 2^{i-1} = 4$ and $j = 3$. Then $\ell_v = 3 \cdot 2^2 + 3$ and the bit representation for ℓ_v is 1111. Then we observe that if $\ell_{r(v)}$ is greater than or equal to $1100 = 1111 - 11 = \ell_v - m$, then $\text{MSDB}(\ell_v, \ell_{r(v)})$ should be 1 or 2, which is not 3. Moreover, if $\ell_{r(v)}$ is less than $1000 = 1111 - 100 - 11 = \ell_v - 2^{i-1} - m$, then $\text{MSDB}(\ell_v, \ell_{r(v)})$ should be 4, which is not 3. Therefore, we have that to yield $\text{MSDB}(\ell_v, \ell_{r(v)}) = 3$, then we need to pick $r(v)$ which satisfies $2^{i-1} + m \geq \ell_v - \ell_{r(v)} > m$.

When the function $r(v)$ is random we expected size of the set B_i is given in Corollary 7. While $|B_i|$ is a random variable it is easy to show that $|B_i|$ will be close to its expectation because the values $r(v)$ are independently chosen for each vertex v .

Corollary 7. The expected value of the size of the set B_i is given by

$$\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] = \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \Pr[2^{i-1} + m \geq \ell_v - \ell_{r(v)} > m]$$

where $\ell_v = (2j+1) \cdot 2^{i-1} + m$. Furthermore, $|B_i|$ is tightly concentrated around its mean

$$\Pr[|B_i| > 2\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]] < \left(\frac{e}{4}\right)^{\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]}, \text{ and } \Pr\left[|B_i| < \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]\right] < \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{e}}\right)^{\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]}.$$

In particular, if $\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] > \log^2 N$ then, except with negligible probability, we have $\frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] \leq |B_i| \leq 2\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]$. If $\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] < \mu$ for any upper bound $\mu \geq \log^2 N$ then, except with negligible probability $|B_i| \leq 2\mu$.

Proof. Recall an indicator random variable from Definition 14. Clearly, we have $|B_i| = \sum_{v=1}^N X_{v,i}$. Taken together with Lemma 11, we conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|B_i|] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{v=1}^N X_{v,i}\right] = \sum_{v=1}^N \mathbb{E}[X_{v,i}] = \sum_{v=1}^N \Pr[\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) = i] \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \Pr[\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) = i] \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \Pr[2^{i-1} + m \geq \ell_v - \ell_{r(v)} > m] \end{aligned}$$

provided by $\ell_v = (2j+1) \cdot 2^{i-1} + m$. Moreover, one can observe that $X_{1,i}, \dots, X_{N,i}$'s are all independent. Then applying a multiplicative Chernoff bound, we have

$$\Pr[|B_i| > 2\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]] < \left(\frac{e}{4}\right)^{\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]}$$

and

$$\Pr\left[|B_i| < \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]\right] < \left(\frac{e^{-1/2}}{(1/2)^{1/2}}\right)^{\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]} = \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{e}}\right)^{\mathbb{E}[|B_i|]}. \quad \square$$

Now we have the following Lemma from [AB16] which is essentially equivalent to Valiant's Lemma [Val77]:

Lemma 12 ([AB16], Lemma 6.1). *Given a DAG G with m edges and depth $\text{depth}(G) \leq d = 2^i$ there is a set of m/i edges such that by deleting them we obtain a graph of depth at most $d/2$.*

Lemma 13 ([AB16], Lemma 6.2). *Let $G = (V, E)$ be an arbitrary DAG of size $|V| = N = 2^n$ with $\text{indeg}(G) = \delta$. Then for every integer $t \geq 1$ there is a set $S \subseteq V$ of size $|S| \leq \frac{t\delta N}{\log(N) - t}$ such that $\text{depth}(G - S) \leq 2^{n-t}$. Furthermore, there is an efficient algorithm to find such S .*

Applying this lemma to well-known graphs such as Argon2i-A, B, and DRSample, one should be able to get the reducibility of such graphs. We are going to argue that the results by applying Valiant's lemma matches the known results for Argon2i and DRSample, with the interesting observation that layered attack against DRSample is not effective based on the upcoming analysis. To see this, we need the following algorithm (Algorithm 7) from invoking Lemma 12 and Lemma 13:

I.2 Analysis on Argon2i (Improved Results)

Theorem 13. *Let G be Argon2i-A with N nodes and let $S = \text{Valiant}(G, e)$ with $e^2 > N \log N$. Then with high probability, $\text{depth}(G - S) = \mathcal{O}((N/e)^2 \log N)$.*

Algorithm 7: An algorithm to sample a depth-reducing set.

Input : DAG $G=(V(G),E(G))$ with $|V(G)|=N=2^n$, and a target size e .
Output A depth-reducing set S with $|S|\leq e$ to remove
:
Function Valiant(G, e):
 for $i\leq n$ **do**
 $E_i := \{(u,v) | MSDB(u,v)=i\}$
 $S_i := \{u | (u,v) \in E_i\}$
 end
 $S := \emptyset$
 $X := \emptyset$
 while $|S|\leq e$ **do**
 $i = \operatorname{argmin}_{i \notin X} |E_i|$ // Find smallest $|E_i|$ that hasn't been picked yet
 $S = S \cup S_i$
 $X = S$
 end
 return S

Proof. In Argon2i-A, the edge distribution is uniformly random. In particular, for $v > 1$ the predecessor $r(v)$ is chosen uniformly at random from the set $\{1, \dots, v-2\}$. By Corollary 7, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|B_i|] &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i}-1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \Pr[2^{i-1}+m \geq \ell_v - \ell_{r(v)} > m] \quad \text{where } \ell_v = (2j+1) \cdot 2^{i-1} + m \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i}-1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \frac{2^{i-1}}{v} = \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i}-1} \frac{2^{i-1}}{(2j+1) \cdot 2^{i-1} + m} \\ &\leq \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \left[\underbrace{\int_0^{\frac{N}{2^i}-1} \frac{2^{i-1} dj}{2^i \cdot j + 2^{i-1} + m}}_{(1)} + \underbrace{\frac{2^{i-1}}{2^{i-1} + m}}_{\text{when } j=0} \right] \end{aligned}$$

because for a positive decreasing function f , we have $\sum_{k=1}^n f(k) \leq \int_0^n f(t) dt$. Moreover, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (1) &= \left[\frac{\ln(2^i \cdot j + 2^{i-1} + m)}{2} \right]_0^{\frac{N}{2^i}-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \ln \left[\frac{N - 2^{i-1} + m}{2^{i-1} + m} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left[1 + \frac{N - 2^i}{2^{i-1} + m} \right] \end{aligned}$$

which leads to

$$\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] \leq \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \left[1 + \frac{N - 2^i}{2^{i-1} + m} \right] + \frac{2^{i-1}}{2^{i-1} + m} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\leq \int_0^{2^{i-1}-1} \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\ln \left[1 + \frac{N-2^i}{2^{i-1}+m} \right]}_{\leq \ln \left[1 + \frac{N-2^i}{2^{i-1}} \right] \leq \ln \left[\frac{N}{2^{i-1}} \right]} + \frac{2^{i-1}}{2^{i-1}+m} dm + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \ln \left[1 + \frac{N-2^{i-1}}{2^{i-1}} \right]}_{\text{when } m=0} + 1 \\
&\leq 2^{i-1} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \ln \left[\frac{N}{2^{i-1}} \right] + \underbrace{\int_0^{2^{i-1}-1} \frac{2^{i-1}}{2^{i-1}+m} dm}_{\leq [2^{i-1} \ln(2^{i-1}+m)]_0^{2^{i-1}-1} = 2^{i-1} \ln 2} + \frac{1}{2} \ln \left[\frac{N}{2^{i-1}} \right] + 1 \\
&\leq 2^{i-1} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \log_2 \left[\frac{N}{2^{i-1}} \right] + \underbrace{2^{i-1} + \frac{1}{2} \log_2 \left[\frac{N}{2^{i-1}} \right]}_{\leq 2^{i-1} + \frac{1}{2} \log_2 N} + 1 \\
&\leq 2^{i-1} \log_2 N.
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can argue that with high probability, we have $|B_i| \leq 2\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] \leq 2^i \log N$ for each $i \geq 1 + \log \log N$ by Corollary 7 and with high probability $|B_i| \leq 2 \log^2 N$ for each $i \leq \log \log N$. Taken together, for $i \leq \log_2 N$, with high probability we have

$$|E_i| \leq 2^i \log_2 N + \frac{N}{2^i} \quad \text{for } i \geq 1 + \log \log N$$

We also observe that, except with negligible probability, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\log \log N} |B_i| \leq \log^2 N (\log \log N) = n^2 \log n.$$

The algorithm will find the j smallest sets E_{i_1}, \dots, E_{i_j} to delete such that $\sum_{k=1}^j |E_{i_k}| \leq e$ to reduce the depth to $d = N/2^j$. We can achieve this when $i \simeq (n - \log_2 n)/2$. Then we will delete all sets in the interval $[\frac{n - \log_2 n}{2} - \frac{j}{2}, \frac{n - \log_2 n}{2} + \frac{j}{2}]$. Hence, with high probability, the total number of deleting edges is

$$\begin{aligned}
e &= \sum_{k=\frac{n - \log_2 n - j}{2}}^{\frac{n - \log_2 n + j}{2}} |E_k| \leq \sum_{k=\frac{n - \log_2 n - j}{2}}^{\frac{n - \log_2 n + j}{2}} 2^k \log_2 N + \frac{N}{2^k} + \sum_{i=1}^{\log \log N} |B_i| \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^j 2^{\frac{n - \log_2 n - j}{2} + k} \log_2 N + N \cdot 2^{\frac{-n + \log_2 n + j}{2} - k} + n^2 \log n \\
&\leq 2^{\frac{n - \log_2 n - j}{2} + j + 1} \log_2 N + 2^n \cdot 2^{\frac{-n + \log_2 n + j}{2} + 1} + n^2 \log n \\
&= 2^{\frac{n}{2} - \frac{\log_2 n}{2} + \frac{j}{2} + 1} \left(\underbrace{\log_2 N}_{=n} + \underbrace{2^{\log_2 n}}_{=n} \right) + n^2 \log n \\
&= \sqrt{N} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{N}{d}} \cdot 2 \cdot 2n + n^2 \log n \leq \frac{5\sqrt{n}N}{\sqrt{d}}
\end{aligned}$$

which implies that $d = \mathcal{O}\left(\left(\frac{N}{e}\right)^2\right) \ln N$. □

Theorem 14. Let G be Argon2i-B with N nodes and let $S = \text{Valiant}(G, e)$ with $e^3 > N^2$. Then with high probability, $\text{depth}(G-S) = \mathcal{O}((N/e)^3)$.

Proof. In Argon2i-B, we have

$$\Pr[r(i) = j] = \Pr_{x \in [N]} \left[i \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{N^2} \right) \in (j-1, j] \right] = \sqrt{1 - \frac{j-1}{i}} - \sqrt{1 - \frac{j}{i}}$$

since $i \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{N^2} \right) \in (j-1, j]$ is equivalent to $N\sqrt{1 - \frac{j}{i}} \leq x < N\sqrt{1 - \frac{j-1}{i}}$. Similarly, we have

$$\Pr[a \leq r(i) < b] = \Pr_{x \in [N]} \left[i \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{N^2} \right) \in (a-1, b-1] \right] = \sqrt{1 - \frac{a-1}{i}} - \sqrt{1 - \frac{b-1}{i}}.$$

Therefore, in Argon2i-B, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|B_i|] &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \Pr[\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) = i] \quad \text{where } \ell_v = (2j+1) \cdot 2^{i-1} + m \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \Pr[2^{i-1} + m \geq \ell_v - \ell_{r(v)} > m] \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \Pr[2^{i-1} + m \geq v - r(v) > m] \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \Pr[v - 2^{i-1} - m \leq r(v) < v - m] \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \sqrt{\frac{2^{i-1} + m + 1}{v}} - \sqrt{\frac{m + 1}{v}} \\ &= \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1} - 1} \left[\left(\sqrt{2^{i-1} + m + 1} - \sqrt{m + 1} \right) \underbrace{\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{N}{2^i} - 1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^i \cdot j + 2^{i-1} + m}}}_{(2)} \right] \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} (2) &\leq \int_0^{\frac{N}{2^i}} \frac{dj}{\sqrt{2^i \cdot j + 2^{i-1} + m}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{i-1} + m}} \\ &= \left[\frac{\sqrt{2^i \cdot j + 2^{i-1} + m}}{2^{i-1}} \right]_0^{\frac{N}{2^i}} + \frac{\sqrt{2^{i-1} + m}}{2^{i-1} + m} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\leq \frac{\sqrt{N+2^{i-1}+m}-\sqrt{2^{i-1}+m}}{2^{i-1}} + \frac{\sqrt{2^{i-1}+m}}{2^{i-1}} \\
&= \frac{\sqrt{N+2^{i-1}+m}}{2^{i-1}}
\end{aligned}$$

which leads to

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] &\leq \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \left(\sqrt{2^{i-1}+m+1}-\sqrt{m+1} \right) \cdot \frac{\sqrt{N+2^{i-1}+m}}{2^{i-1}} \\
&= \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \frac{2^{i-1}}{\sqrt{2^{i-1}+m+1}+\sqrt{m+1}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{N+2^{i-1}+m}}{2^{i-1}} \\
&\leq \sum_{m=0}^{2^{i-1}-1} \frac{2^{i-1}}{\sqrt{2^{i-1}}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3N}}{2^{i-1}} \\
&\leq \frac{\sqrt{3N}}{\sqrt{2^{i-1}}} \cdot 2^{i-1} = \sqrt{3N} \cdot 2^{i-1}.
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, since $\sqrt{3N} \cdot 2^{i-1} \gg \log^2 N$ for any $i \geq 0$, by Corollary 7 we can argue that with high probability, we have $|B_i| \leq 2\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] \leq 2\sqrt{3N} \cdot 2^{i-1} = \sqrt{6N} \cdot 2^i$ for $i \geq 2+2\log\log N$. Taken together, for $i \leq \log_2 N$, with high probability we have

$$|E_i| \leq \sqrt{6} \left(\sqrt{N \cdot 2^i} + \frac{N}{2^i} \right).$$

Our goal is to find j smallest sets to delete to make smallest E_i when $d = N/2^j$. We can achieve this when $i = n/3$. Then we will delete all sets in the interval $[\frac{n}{3} - \frac{j}{3}, \frac{n}{3} + \frac{2j}{3}]$. Hence, the total number of deleting edges is

$$\begin{aligned}
e &\leq \sum_{k=\frac{n}{3}-\frac{j}{3}}^{\frac{n}{3}+\frac{2j}{3}} |E_k| \leq \sqrt{6} \sum_{k=\frac{n}{3}-\frac{j}{3}}^{\frac{n}{3}+\frac{2j}{3}} \left(\sqrt{N \cdot 2^k} + \frac{N}{2^k} \right) \\
&= \underbrace{\sqrt{6} \sum_{k=0}^j 2^{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot 2^{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{n}{3}-\frac{j}{3}+k)}}_{\leq 2^{\frac{2n}{3}-\frac{j}{6}+\frac{j}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}-1}}} + \underbrace{\sqrt{6} \sum_{k=0}^j 2^{n-(\frac{n}{3}-\frac{j}{3}+k)}}_{\leq 2^{\frac{2n}{3}+\frac{j}{3}+1}} \\
&\leq \sqrt{6} \cdot (\sqrt{2}+3) \cdot 2^{\frac{2n}{3}+\frac{j}{3}} \leq 11 \cdot 2^{\frac{2n}{3}+\frac{j}{3}}
\end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$e^3 \leq 11^3 \cdot 2^{2n+j} = 11^3 \cdot N^2 \cdot \frac{N}{d}.$$

Therefore, we can conclude that $d = \mathcal{O}\left(\left(\frac{N}{e}\right)^3\right)$. \square

I.3 Analysis on DRSample

In DRSample which has been introduced in [ABH17] and is specified in Algorithm 3 in the appendix. To see how the distribution $r(v)$ is defined consider partitioning the set of all potential predecessors u into buckets D_1^v, D_2^v, \dots where $D_i^v := \{u: 2^{i-1} < \mathbf{dist}(u,v) \leq 2^i\}$ where $\mathbf{dist}(u,v) = v - u$. Intuitively, to sample $r(v)$ we first select a bucket D_i^v with $i \leq \log_2 v$ uniformly at random and then select a parent $u = r(v)$ uniformly at random from this bucket D_i^v i.e., $(r(v), v) \in D_i^v$, or equivalently, subject to the constraint that $2^{i-1} < \mathbf{dist}(r(v), v) \leq 2^i$. We remark that the pebbling attacks of Alwen and Blocki [AB16] have cost $\Theta(Ne + N\sqrt{Nd})$. If we wanted to obtain an attack with cumulative cost $o(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$ then we would need a depth-reducing set S of size $e \leq \frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}$ such that $\mathbf{depth}(G - S) \leq \frac{N(\log \log N)^2}{\log^2 N}$. We show that no *known* techniques for producing depth-reducing sets will produce a set S which satisfy both criteria. We first consider an attack based on Valiant's Lemma.

Here, we consider the variant of the attack (Algorithm 8) which is guaranteed to find S s.t. $\mathbf{depth}(G - S) \leq \frac{N}{\log N}$. As Theorem 15 shows that with high probability $|S| = \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ — of course we would need to ensure that $\mathbf{depth}(G - S) \leq \frac{N(\log \log N)^2}{\log^2 N} \ll \frac{N}{\log N}$ is even smaller to obtain an attack with cost $o(N^2 \log \log N / \log N)$.

Algorithm 8: An algorithm to sample a depth-reducing set.

Input : DAG $G = (V(G), E(G))$ with $|V(G)| = N = 2^n$, and a target size e .

Output A depth-reducing set S with $\mathbf{depth}(G - S) > d$ to remove

:

Function Valiant2(G, d):

for $i \leq n$ **do**

$E_i := \{(u, v) \mid MSDB(u, v) = i\}$

$S_i := \{u \mid (u, v) \in E_i\}$

end

$S := \emptyset$

$X := \emptyset$

while $\mathbf{depth}(G - S) > d$ **do**

$i = \operatorname{argmin}_{i \notin X} |E_i|$ // Find smallest $|E_i|$ that hasn't been picked yet

$S = S \cup S_i$

$X = X \cup i$

end

return S

Theorem 15. Let G be a randomly sampled DRSample DAG with N nodes and let $S = \text{Valiant2}\left(G, \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}\right)$ with $e = |S|$. Then there exist constants c_1 and c_2 such that with high probability, $\frac{c_1 N \log \log N}{\log N} \leq e \leq \frac{c_2 N \log \log N}{\log N}$.

Proof. Similar to Argon2i-A and B, we have that $|A_i| = \frac{N}{2^i}$. As stated before, from Lemma 11 we have that

$$\Pr[\text{MSDB}(\ell_{r(v)}, \ell_v) = i] = \Pr[2^{i-1} + m \geq v - r(v) > m].$$

Now observe that if m is large, i.e., $m = 2^{i-1} - 1$, then there is up to only one bucket to select which satisfies the inequality $2^{i-1} + m \geq v - r(v) > m$. Similarly, if $m = 2^{i-j} + 1$, then there are totally up to j buckets to select which satisfies the inequality. Taken together with the assumption that $v \geq \sqrt{N}$, we can compute the expectation

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|B_i|] &\leq \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} 2^{j-i+1} \cdot N \cdot \frac{i-j}{\log v} \leq \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} 2^{j-i+1} \cdot N \cdot \frac{i-j}{\frac{1}{2} \log N} \\ &= \frac{2N}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} (i-j) 2^{j-i+1} = \frac{2N}{n} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{3 \cdot 2^{i-1} - 2i - 2}{2^{i-1}}}_{\leq 3} \leq \frac{6N}{n} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can argue that with high probability, we have $|B_i| \leq \frac{12N}{n}$. Taken together, for $i \leq \log_2 N$, with high probability we have

$$|E_i| \leq \frac{12N}{n} + \frac{N}{2^i}.$$

Our goal is to find j smallest sets to delete to make smallest E_i when $d = N/2^j$. We can achieve this when $i = n$. Then we will delete all sets in the interval $[n-j+1, n]$. Hence, the total number of deleting edges is

$$\begin{aligned} e &\leq \sum_{k=n-j+1}^n |E_k| \leq \sum_{k=n-j+1}^n \left(\frac{12N}{n} + \frac{N}{2^k} \right) \\ &\leq j \cdot \frac{12N}{n} + N \cdot 2^{-n+j} \\ &= \log_2 \left(\frac{N}{d} \right) \cdot \frac{12N}{n} + 2^j \\ &= \log_2 \left(\frac{N}{d} \right) \cdot \frac{12N}{n} + \frac{N}{d}. \end{aligned}$$

Putting $d = \frac{N}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} e &\leq \log_2 \sqrt{n} \cdot \frac{12N}{n} + \sqrt{n} \\ &\leq c \cdot \frac{N \log \log N}{\log N} \end{aligned}$$

for some constant $c > 0$.

Now, in terms of the lower bound, one can observe that the number of bucket in each case is lower bounded by $j-1$ buckets if $m = 2^{i-j} + 1$. Hence, we have that

$$\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] \geq \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} 2^{j-i+1} \cdot N \cdot \frac{i-j-1}{\log v} \geq \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} 2^{j-i+1} \cdot N \cdot \frac{i-j-1}{\log N}$$

$$= \frac{N}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{i-2} (i-j-1)2^{j-i+1} = \frac{N}{n} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{2^i - i - 1}{2^{i-1}}}_{\geq 1/2} \geq \frac{N}{2n}$$

which, by Corollary 7, leads to

$$|E_i| \geq \frac{N}{4n} + \frac{N}{2^i}$$

with high probability since $\mathbb{E}[|B_i|] = \frac{N}{2n} \gg \log^2 N$. Again, our goal is to find j smallest sets to delete to make smallest E_i when $d = N/2^j$. We can achieve this when $i = n$. Then we will delete all sets in the interval $[n-j+1, n]$. Hence, the total number of deleting edges is

$$\begin{aligned} e &\geq \sum_{k=n-j+1}^n |E_k| \geq \sum_{k=n-j+1}^n \left(\frac{N}{4n} + \frac{N}{2^k} \right) \\ &\geq j \cdot \frac{N}{4n} + N \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} 2^{-n+j-1-k} \\ &= \log_2 \left(\frac{N}{d} \right) \cdot \frac{N}{4n} + (2^j - 1) \\ &= \log_2 \left(\frac{N}{d} \right) \cdot \frac{N}{4n} + \frac{N}{d} - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Putting $d = \frac{N}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} e &\geq \log_2 \sqrt{n} \cdot \frac{N}{4n} + \sqrt{n} - 1 \\ &\geq \log_2 \sqrt{n} \cdot \frac{N}{4n} = \frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, one can conclude that Valient's lemma fails to do better than $e = \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ even when the target depth is just $d = \frac{N}{\sqrt{n}}$. \square

Therefore, we can safely conclude that DRSample is optimally resistant to Valient's Lemma.

I.4 Layered Attack against DRSample

Next we consider the layered attack of Alwen and Blocki [AB16] for constructing depth-reducing sets and show that it fails to produce a set S of size $e \leq \frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}$ s.t. $\text{depth}(G-S) \leq \frac{N(\log \log N)^2}{\log^2 N}$ as required to obtain a pebbling attack with cumulative cost at most $eN + N\sqrt{Nd} = o\left(\frac{N^2 \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$. In fact, Lemma 14 and Corollary 8 show that the layered attack fails to produce such an effective depth-reducing set S .

Before introducing Lemma 14, define an algorithm which samples the depth-reducing set from layered attack (Algorithm 9).

Algorithm 9: An algorithm to sample the depth-reducing set from layered attack.

Input : DAG $G = (V(G) = [N], E(G))$ with $|V(G)| = N = 2^n$ and $E(G) = \cup_{i=3}^N \{(i-1, i), (r(i), i)\} \cup \{(1, 2)\}$, the number of layer λ , and a gap g .
Output A depth-reducing set S to remove

Function Layered(G, λ, g):
 $S_1 := \{g, 2g, 3g, \dots\}$ $S := V(G)$
for $i=1$ **to** λ **do**
 $L_i := \{k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid (i-1)\lceil \frac{N}{\lambda} \rceil < k \leq i\lceil \frac{N}{\lambda} \rceil\}$
 $E_i := \{v \in L_i \text{ s.t. } r(v) \in L_i\}$
end
 $S_2 := \cup_{i=1}^{\lambda} E_i$
return $S = S_1 \cup S_2$

Lemma 14. Let G be a randomly sampled DRSample DAG with N nodes, $\lambda, g > 0$ be given such that $\lambda \log \lambda > N$, and $S = \text{Layered}(G, \lambda, g)$. Then with high probability,

$$\frac{N}{g} + \frac{N \log(N/2\lambda)}{4 \log \lambda} \leq |S| \leq \frac{N}{g} + \frac{8N \log(N/\lambda)}{\log \lambda}.$$

Proof. The probability that the predecessor of the node v is in the same layer has the following upper and lower bound. Note that we could get the lower bound by only considering the case that v lies in the second half of the layer.

$$\frac{\log(N/2\lambda)}{\log(iN/\lambda)} \leq \Pr[r(v) \text{ in the same layer}] \leq \frac{\log(N/\lambda)}{\log(iN/\lambda)} \leq \frac{\log(N/\lambda)}{\log i}.$$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{depth}(G-S) &= \lambda \cdot g \quad \text{and} \\ |S| &\leq \frac{N}{g} + \frac{N}{\lambda} \sum_{i=2}^{\lambda} \frac{\log(N/\lambda)}{\log i} \\ &\leq \frac{N}{g} + \frac{N}{\lambda} \cdot 8 \cdot \frac{\lambda}{\log \lambda} \cdot \log\left(\frac{N}{\lambda}\right) \quad \triangleleft \text{Theorem 17} \\ &= \frac{N}{g} + \frac{8N \log(N/\lambda)}{\log \lambda} \end{aligned}$$

Now, when it comes to lower bounds, from the condition $\lambda \log \lambda > N$, we have that $\lambda^2 > N$ which is equivalent to $\lambda > N/\lambda$. Hence, this leads to

$$\begin{aligned} |S| &\geq \frac{N}{g} + \frac{N}{\lambda} \sum_{i=2}^{\lambda} \frac{\log(N/2\lambda)}{\log(iN/\lambda)} \\ &\geq \frac{N}{g} + \frac{N}{\lambda} \sum_{i=2}^{\lambda} \frac{\log(N/2\lambda)}{\log(i\lambda)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{N}{g} + \frac{\lambda-1}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{N \log(N/2\lambda)}{2 \log \lambda} \\
&\geq \frac{N}{g} + \frac{N \log(N/2\lambda)}{4 \log \lambda}
\end{aligned}$$

which proves the lemma. \square

Corollary 8 demonstrates demonstrates that the layered attack fails to produce an effective depth-reducing set to obtain a pebbling with cost $o\left(\frac{N^2 \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ for *any* settings of the parameters λ and g .

Corollary 8. *Let G be a randomly sampled DRSample DAG with N nodes. Then with high probability for all $\lambda, g > 0$ s.t. $\lambda g \leq \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$ we have $|S| \geq \frac{N \log \log N}{8 \log N}$ where S is the depth reducing set generated by the layered attack with parameters λ and g .*

Proof. By Lemma 14, with high probability for any λ, g we have

$$|S| \geq \frac{N}{g} + \frac{N \log(N/2\lambda)}{4 \log \lambda}.$$

If we want $|S| < \frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}$ then we must have $g \geq \frac{\log N}{\log \log N}$ due to the $\frac{N}{g}$ term. To ensure that $\text{depth}(G-S) \leq \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$ we also require that $\lambda g \leq \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$. Thus, we have $\lambda \leq \frac{N \log \log N}{\log^{1.5} N}$. But this implies that

$$|S| \geq \frac{N \log(N/2\lambda)}{4 \log \lambda} \geq \frac{N \log \frac{\log^{1.5} N}{2 \log \log N}}{4 \log \left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log^{1.5} N} \right)} \geq \frac{N \log \log N}{8 \log N}. \quad \square$$

Corollary 9 shows that the layered attack and Valiant's Lemma generate comparable sizes of the depth reducing set when we have target depth $d = \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$ despite generating the depth-reducing sets in very different ways. In fact, for any constant $c > 0$ we could also achieve target depth $N/\log^c N$ with $|S| = \mathcal{O}(N \log \log N / \log N)$.

Corollary 9. *Let G be a randomly sampled DRSample DAG with N nodes. Then there exist $\lambda, g > 0$ such that the layered attack on yields a depth-reducing set S of size $|S| = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ s.t. $\text{depth}(G-S) \leq \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$.*

Proof. Let $g = \log N$ and $\lambda = N/\log^2 N$. Then by Lemma 14 we have $|S| = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ and $\text{depth}(G-S) = \frac{N}{\log N}$. \square

I.5 Analysis of GreedyPebble Attack along with [ABP17]

Alwen et al. [ABP17] proved that any DAG G that is (e, d) -depth robust has cumulative pebbling cost at least $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) > ed$. Their argument was by contradiction. In particular, for any target depth $d > 0$ they show how to transform *any* legal pebbling $P \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G)$

into a depth-reducing set S of size *at most* $|S| \leq \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(P)/d$ s.t. $\text{depth}(G-S) \leq d$. Thus, one natural approach to construct a depth-reducing set would be to find an efficient pebbling $P \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G)$ and this transformation to yield S . We focus on the Greedy Pebbling of DRSample since this is the most-effective pebbling of the DAG that is known. Once again, if we set our target depth $d = \frac{N}{\log N}$ we can show that with high probability the size of our depth-reducing set S is $e = \Theta\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$. Thus, the transformation matches the performance of the layered attack and Valiant's lemma, but does *not* yield a sufficiently small set to obtain a depth-reducing attack [AB16] with cost $o\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$.

Recall that the GreedyPebble configuration is $GP(G) = (P_1, \dots, P_n) \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}(G)$ where $P_i = \{i\} \cup \{j \text{ s.t. } \text{gc}(j) > i\}$. Here $\text{gc}(j) = \max\{v : j \in \text{parents}(v)\}$. Let $S_i = P_i \cup P_{i+d} \cup P_{i+2d} \cup \dots \cup P_{i+kd} \cup \dots$ for $i < d$ and consider the interval $I_k = [i + (k-1)d, i + kd]$. We can observe that if $\text{gc}(v) \in I_k$, then v will be discarded before reaching P_{i+kd} . Therefore, we have that $S_i = \cup_k \{i + kd\} \cup \{v | \text{gc}(v) - v > d - m_v\}$ where m_v denotes the distance between $i + (k-1)d$ and v . We provide such algorithm to sample the minimum depth-reducing set in Algorithm 10.

Algorithm 10: An algorithm to sample the minimum depth-reducing set from greypEBble.

Input : DAG $G = (V(G), E(G))$ with $|V(G)| = N = 2^n$, and a target depth d .

Output A depth-reducing set S to remove

:

Function GPDR(G, d):

```

    P := GP(G) // A legal pebbling P from Algorithm 1.
    S := V(G)
    for i = 0 to d-1 do
        S_i := P_i \cup P_{i+d} \cup P_{i+2d} \cup \dots
        if |S_i| < |S| then
            S = S_i
    end
    return S

```

Theorem 16. *Let G be a randomly sampled DRSample DAG with N nodes and let $S = \text{GPDR}(G, \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}})$. Then there exists a constant $c_1, c_2 > 0$ such that with high probability, $\frac{c_1 N \log \log N}{\log N} \leq |S| \leq \frac{c_2 N \log \log N}{\log N}$.*

Proof. Let Y_v be the random variable representing the event that $v - r(v) > m_v$ where $r(v)$ is the predecessor of v . That is, we have that

$$Y_v = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v - r(v) > m_v \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Similarly, define the random variable Z_v , as follows:

$$Z_v = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y_v = 1 \text{ and } \text{gc}(r(v)) = v \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then we have that the expectation of the size of the set $\{v | \text{gc}(v) - v > d - m_v\}$ equals to the sum of the value $\mathbb{E}[Z_v]$ over the nodes v , which leads to

$$\mathbb{E}[|S_i|] = \frac{N}{d} + \sum_v \mathbb{E}[Z_v].$$

In DRSample, when v lies between the interval $[u - 2^{k+1} + 1, u - 2^k + 1]$, the size of the bucket is 2^k and the probability that $r(u) = v$ is $\frac{1}{\log u} \cdot \frac{1}{2^k}$. Moreover, the fact that $u - 2^{k+1} + 1 \leq v \leq u - 2^k + 1$ implies $\frac{1}{2^k} \leq \frac{2}{u-v}$. Taken together, we have

$$\Pr[r(u) = v] = \frac{1}{\log u} \cdot \frac{1}{2^k} \leq \frac{1}{\log u} \cdot \frac{2}{u-v}.$$

With the choice of $d = \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$, we would get

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr\left[\exists x > u + \frac{d}{2} \text{ s.t. } r(x) = u\right] &\leq \sum_{x > u + \frac{d}{2}} \frac{2}{x-u} \cdot \frac{1}{\log x} \\ &\leq \frac{2}{\log(u + \frac{d}{2})} \sum_{x > u + \frac{d}{2}} \frac{1}{x-u} \\ &\leq \frac{2}{\log(u + \frac{d}{2})} \cdot \ln\left[\frac{2(N-u)}{d}\right] \\ &\leq \frac{2}{\log\left(u + \frac{N}{2\sqrt{\log N}}\right)} \cdot \ln\left[2\sqrt{\log N}\right] \\ &\leq \frac{2}{\log\left(\frac{N}{2\sqrt{\log N}}\right)} \cdot \log\log N \\ &\leq \frac{4}{\log N} \cdot \log\log N = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\log\log N}{\log N}\right) \end{aligned}$$

because $\log N \geq 8\log\log N$ for large N . Therefore, we have

$$\Pr[Z_v | Y_v] \geq 1 - \frac{4}{\log N} \cdot \log\log N \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|S_i|] &= \frac{N}{d} + \sum_v \mathbb{E}[Z_v] \\ &\geq \frac{N}{d} + \left(\frac{N}{4}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \Pr\left[v - r(v) > d \mid v > \frac{N}{2}\right] \\ &\geq \frac{N}{d} + \left(\frac{N}{4}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\log v - \log d}{\log v} \end{aligned}$$

$$\geq \frac{N}{d} + \left(\frac{N}{4}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{\log \log N}{\log(N/2)} \geq \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right).$$

Now, we can simply get the upper bound by replacing Z_v by Y_v if we assume that $\text{gc}(r(v)) = v$ always happens in the best scenario. Assuming that $Y_v = 1$ for every $v \leq \frac{N}{\log N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|S_i|] &\leq \frac{N}{d} + \sum_v \mathbb{E}[Y_v] \\ &\leq \frac{N}{d} + \frac{N}{\log N} + \underbrace{\sum_{v > N/\log N} \mathbb{E}[Y_v]}_{(1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Considering (1), split the interval with length d and consider the case $v \in [x, x+d]$. If $x + \frac{d}{2^i} < v \leq x + \frac{d}{2^{i-1}}$, then at least $\log(d/2^i)$ buckets overlap $[x, x+d]$. If b_v denotes the total number of buckets before v , then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_v] \leq \frac{b_v - \log(d/2^i)}{b_v} = 1 - \frac{\log(d/2^i)}{b_v} \leq 1 - \frac{\log(d/2^i)}{\log N}$$

when $v \in (x + \frac{d}{2^i}, x + \frac{d}{2^{i-1}}]$. Since we have $\frac{d}{2^i}$ such v 's and we have at most $\frac{N}{d}$ such $[x, x+d]$'s, with the choice of $d = \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}}$, we would get

$$\begin{aligned} (1) &= \sum_{v > N/\log N} \mathbb{E}[Y_v] \leq \frac{N}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{d}{2^i} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\log(d/2^i)}{\log N}\right) \\ &= N \left[\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\log N - \frac{1}{2} \log \log N - i}{2^i \log N} \right] \\ &= N \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{\log \log N}{\log N} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} - \frac{1}{\log N} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{2^i} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{N \log \log N}{2 \log N} - \frac{2N}{\log N} = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Taken together, we finally have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|S_i|] &\leq \frac{N}{d} + \frac{N}{\log N} + \sum_{v > N/\log N} \mathbb{E}[Y_v] \\ &= \log N + \frac{N}{\log N} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right) \\ &= \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can conclude that $\mathbb{E}[|S_i|] = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ and the rest follows from the Chernoff bound argument. \square

Remark 4. If $d = \frac{N}{\sqrt{\log N}} \gg \frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}$, we still have that $\mathbb{E}[|S_i|] \geq \Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$, which implies that we cannot remove below $\Omega\left(\frac{N \log \log N}{\log N}\right)$ nodes to achieve that target depth.

I.6 The Summation of $1/\log$

We show that $\sum_{i=2}^t \frac{1}{\log i} \in \Theta(t/\log t)$ a fact that is useful for our analysis of depth-reducing attacks.

Lemma 15. For $s \geq 1$, we have $\sum_{i=1}^s \frac{2^i}{i} \leq 4 \cdot \frac{2^s}{s}$.

Proof. We can prove this by induction:

- **(Base Case)** $\frac{2}{1} \leq 4 \cdot \frac{2}{1}$ when $s=1$ and $\frac{2}{1} + \frac{2^2}{2} = 4 \leq 8 = 4 \cdot \frac{2^2}{2}$ when $s=2$.
- **(Induction Hypothesis)** Suppose that $\sum_{i=1}^t \frac{2^i}{i} \leq 4 \cdot \frac{2^t}{t}$ for $t \geq 2$.
- **(Induction Step)** Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{t+1} \frac{2^i}{i} &= \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{2^i}{i} + \frac{2^{t+1}}{t+1} \\ &\leq 4 \cdot \underbrace{\frac{2^t}{t} + \frac{2^{t+1}}{t+1}}_{(1)} \leq 4 \cdot \frac{2^{t+1}}{t+1} \end{aligned}$$

because we have

$$\begin{aligned} (1) &\iff 4 \cdot \frac{2^t}{t} \leq 3 \cdot \frac{2^{t+1}}{t+1} \\ &\iff 4 \cdot 2^t (t+1) \leq 3t \cdot 2^{t+1} \\ &\iff 4t \cdot 2^t + 4 \cdot 2^t \leq 6t \cdot 2^t \\ &\iff 4 \cdot 2^t \leq 2t \cdot 2^t \\ &\iff 2 \leq t. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 16. For $s \geq 1$, we have $\sum_{i=2}^{2^s} \frac{1}{\log i} \leq 4 \cdot \frac{2^s}{\log 2^s}$.

Proof. By Lemma 15 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=2}^{2^s} \frac{1}{\log i} &= \left[\frac{1}{\log 2} + \frac{1}{\log 3} \right] + \left[\frac{1}{\log 4} + \dots + \frac{1}{\log 7} \right] + \\ &\quad \dots + \left[\frac{1}{\log 2^{s-1}} + \dots + \frac{1}{\log (2^s - 1)} \right] + \frac{1}{\log 2^s} \\ &\leq \frac{2}{\log 2} + \frac{2^2}{\log 2^2} + \dots + \frac{2^{s-1}}{\log 2^{s-1}} + \frac{1}{\log 2^s} \\ &= \frac{1}{\log 2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{s-1} \frac{2^i}{i} + \frac{1}{s} \right] \leq \frac{1}{\log 2} \sum_{i=1}^s \frac{2^i}{i} \leq \frac{1}{\log 2} \cdot 4 \cdot \frac{2^s}{s} = 4 \cdot \frac{2^s}{\log 2^s}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 17. For $t \geq 2$, we have $\sum_{i=2}^t \frac{1}{\log i} \leq 8 \cdot \frac{t}{\log t}$.

Proof. We can write $t = 2^s + k$ where $0 \leq k < 2^s$ and $s \geq 1$. With the similar technique from Lemma 16, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=2}^t \frac{1}{\log i} &= \left[\frac{1}{\log 2} + \frac{1}{\log 3} \right] + \\
&\quad \cdots + \left[\frac{1}{\log 2^{s-1}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{\log(2^s - 1)} \right] + \left[\frac{1}{\log 2^s} + \cdots + \frac{1}{\log(2^s + k)} \right] \\
&\leq \frac{2}{\log 2} + \frac{2^2}{\log 2^2} + \cdots + \frac{2^{s-1}}{\log 2^{s-1}} + \frac{k+1}{\log 2^s} \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\log 2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{s-1} \frac{2^i}{i} + \frac{k+1}{s} \right] \leq \frac{1}{\log 2} \sum_{i=1}^s \frac{2^i}{i} \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\log 2} \cdot 4 \cdot \frac{2^s}{s} = \frac{2^s}{\log 2} \cdot \frac{4}{s} \\
&\leq \frac{2^s}{\log 2} \cdot \frac{8}{s+1} = 8 \cdot \frac{2^s}{\log 2^{s+1}} = 8 \cdot \frac{2^s}{\log(2^s + 2^s)} \leq 8 \cdot \frac{2^s + k}{\log(2^s + k)} \\
&= 8 \cdot \frac{t}{\log t}. \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 17. For $t \geq 2$, we have $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{t}{\log t} \leq \sum_{i=2}^t \frac{1}{\log i} \leq 8 \cdot \frac{t}{\log t}$.

Proof. The second inequality comes directly from Lemma 17. Now we have

$$\sum_{i=2}^t \frac{1}{\log i} \geq \frac{t-1}{\log t} \geq \frac{t/2}{\log t} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{t}{\log t}$$

for $t \geq 2$. □