The AIMer Signature Scheme

Submission to the NIST PQC project Version 1.0

Principal Submitter: Seongkwang Kim

■ Samsung SDS

✓ sk39.kim@samsung.com

**** +82-10-9930-6241

♀ 56, Seongchon-gil, Seocho-gu, Seoul 06765, Republic of Korea

Auxiliary Submitter: Jihoon Cho Jooyoung Lee

Mingyu Cho
Jincheol Ha
Jihoon Kwon

Byeonghak Lee
Joohee Lee

Mincheol Son
Hyojin Yoon

Inventors: Jincheol Ha Jooyoung Lee

Seongkwang Kim
Jihoon Kwon
Byeonghak Lee
Joohee Lee

Sangyub Lee
Dukjae Moon
Mincheol Son

Developers/Owners:All listed submitters

Homepage: https://www.aimer-signature.org

Alternative Point of Contact: Jooyoung Lee

KAIST

➤ hicalf@kaist.ac.kr

**** +82-10-8757-7831

Q 291, Daehak-ro, Yuseong-gu, Daejeon 34141, Republic of Korea

Thursday 1st June, 2023

Seongkwang Kim (Signature)

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1 Introduction

AlMer is a signature scheme which is obtained from a zero-knowledge proof of preimage knowledge for a certain one-way function. AlMer consists of two parts: a non-interactive zero-knowledge proof of knowledge (NIZKPoK) system, and a one-way function. The security of both parts solely depends on the security of the underlying symmetric primitives.

The NIZKPoK system in AlMer can be viewed as a customized version of the BN++ proof system [KZ22]. BN++ is a NIZKPoK system based on the MPC-in-the-Head (MPCitH) paradigm [IKOS07], which efficiently proves large-field arithmetic. The difference between our system and BN++ is as follows.

- Our system integrates Commit and ExpandTape to CommitAndExpand. It reduces significant amount of signing and verification time without loss of security in the random oracle model.
- Hash functions and extendable-output functions used in our system are domain-separated for stronger concrete security.

The one-way function of AIMer is AIM [KHS $^+$ 22], which is a tweakable one-way function dedicated to the BN++ system. AIM has been designed to have strong security against algebraic attacks producing short signatures when combined with BN++. The AIM function fully exploits the optimization techniques of BN++ using *repeated multipliers* for checking multiplication triples and *locally computed output shares* to reduce the overall signature size.

1.1 Overview of the Algorithm

The AlMer signature algorithm consists of key generation, signing, and verification algorithms. To provide an intuitive understanding of the AlMer signature scheme, we will briefly describe the three algorithms below. The detailed specification for mathematical understanding and implementation is given in Section 4 and Section 7, respectively.

KEY GENERATION. The key generation is simply a computation of AIM, which proceeds as follows.

- 1. A tweak iv and a plaintext pt are sampled uniformly at random.
- 2. ct = AIM(iv, pt) is computed.
- 3. The secret key is set to sk = pt, and the corresponding public key is defined as pk = (iv, ct).

SIGNING ALGORITHM. The signing algorithm is a virtual MPC simulation of AIM. The multiple parties involved in the MPC evaluation are not real participants, but a simulation by the signer (MPCitH). As both signing and verification algorithms are non-interactive, random challenges are computed by hash functions (via the Fiat-Shamir transform). The signing algorithm proceeds as follows.

- 1. The signer prepares the MPC simulation; it generates seeds for each party, and shares of the input and intermediate values appearing in the computation of AIM from each seed. The signer commits each seed.
- 2. The signer computes a multiplication-checking protocol from a challenge.
- 3. The signer opens all the views except one determined by another challenge.

VERIFICATION ALGORITHM. The verification algorithm is a recomputation of the signing algorithm to check whether the MPC simulation has been faithfully executed or not. The verification algorithm mainly checks two steps: preparation of the MPC simulation, and the multiplication-checking protocol. The verification algorithm proceeds as follows.

- 1. The verifier recomputes shares of all the parties except the unopened one, and computes the first challenge.
- 2. The verifier recomputes the multiplication-checking protocol, and computes the second challenge.
- 3. The verifier checks whether the opened views of the MPC simulation are consistent or not.

1.2 Notation

Unless stated otherwise, all logarithms are to the base 2. For two vectors a and b over a finite field, their concatenation is denoted by $a\|b$. For a positive integer n, hw(n) denotes the Hamming weight of n in its binary representation, and we write $[n] = \{1, \cdots, n\}$. We will write $a \leftarrow b$ to denote assignment of b to a. For a set S, $a \rightarrow S$ denotes that a is added to S as an element and $a \xleftarrow{\$} S$ denotes that a is chosen uniformly at random from S.

In this document, additions are usually operated on a binary field, in which case additions are exclusive-OR (XOR). Nevertheless, when we want to emphasize that an addition is actually XOR, we denote the addition by \oplus . In the multiparty computation setting, $x^{(i)}$ denotes the i-th party's additive share of x, which implies that $\sum_i x^{(i)} = x$. We summarize some notations of parameters and non-conventional notations in Table 1.

In Section 7, we follow some notations from programming languages. For a vector (array) vec, the notation vec[n] is used in two different meanings according to its context:

- declaration of a length-n array vec,
- the *n*-th element of the array vec.

For a vector vec, vec[a:b] denotes a sub-vector of b - a + 1 elements (vec[a], ..., vec[b]). Similarly for a matrix mat, mat[a:b][i] (resp. mat[i][a:b]) denotes a vector of b - a + 1 elements mat[a][i], ..., mat[b][i] (resp. mat[i][a], ..., mat[i][b]). For a bitstring str, we write $str_{[a:b]}$ to denote a substring from bit-position a to b (both-inclusive). For an integer a and b, we denote $a \ll b$ (resp. $a \gg b$) the left (resp. right) shift of a by b bits.

- λ Security parameter
- n S-box size of AIM
- ℓ Number of S-boxes in front of the linear layer
- au Number of the parallel repetitions
- N Number of the parties
- *H* Hash function
- XOF Extendable-output function

Table 1: The notation used in the document.

2 Background

2.1 MPC-in-the-Head Paradigm

The MPC-in-the-Head (MPCitH) paradigm, proposed by Ishai et al. [IKOS07], allows one to construct a zero-knowledge proof (ZKP) system from a multi-party computation (MPC) protocol. Consider an MPC protocol where N parties collaborate to securely evaluate a function f on an input x with perfect correctness. Suppose that the views of k parties leak no information on x. Then, one can build a ZKP from the MPC protocol as follows.

- 1. The prover generates random secret shares $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(N)}$ such that $x^{(1)} + \cdots + x^{(N)} = x$, and assign them to N parties, say $\mathcal{P}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{P}_N$.
- 2. The prover simulates the MPC protocol "in her head" by simulating each P_i , i = 1, ..., N.
- 3. The prover commits to each party's view which includes its random tape, the secret input share, and the communicated messages from and to the party. She sends the commitments to the verifier.
- 4. The prover possibly gets random challenges for MPC simulation from the verifier when needed, and conducts local computations on each party. She may repeat this step for several times.
- 5. The prover completes the MPC simulation and hands over requested output shares of the MPC protocol to the verifier.

Note that the verifier interactively joins the above procedure to provide random challenges to the prover. After that, the verifier selects k parties and asks the prover to open their views. Once the views are received, the verifier checks

- 1. if the opened views are consistent, i.e., the messages sent from and to a party match and the commitments are correctly evaluated from the resulting views, and
- 2. if the output recovered from the output share is y.

Since only k views are opened, no information on x is leaked from the revealed views. Also, since the verifier opens the random views, any cheating adversary's winning probability is upper bounded by (N-k)/N. We fix k=N-1 throughout this proposal.

The practicality of MPCitH is demonstrated by the ZKBoo scheme, the first efficient MPCitH-based proof scheme proposed by Giacomelli et al. [GMO16]. One of the main applications of the MPCitH paradigm is to construct a post-quantum signature. Picnic [CDG⁺17] is the first and the most famous signature scheme based on the MPCitH paradigm; it combines an MPC-friendly block cipher LowMC [ARS⁺15] and an MPCitH proof system called ZKB++, which is an optimized variant of ZKBoo. Katz et al. [KKW18] proposed a new proof system KKW by further improving the efficiency of ZKB++ with pre-processing, and updated Picnic accordingly. The updated version of Picnic was the only MPCitH-based scheme that advanced to the third round of the NIST PQC competition. BBQ [dSGMOS19] and Banquet [BSGK⁺21] are AES-based signature schemes, where BBQ employs the KKW proof system and Banquet improves BBQ by injecting shares for intermediate states.

To fully exploit efficient multiplication over a large field in the Banquet proof system, Dobraunig et al. [DKR⁺22] proposed MPCitH-friendly ciphers LS-AES and Rain. They are substitution-permutation ciphers based on the inverse S-box over a large field. This design strategy increases the efficiency of the resulting MPCitH-based signature scheme, while the number of rounds should be carefully determined by comprehensive analysis on any possible algebraic attack due to their simple algebraic structures. Kales and Zaverucha [KZ22] proposed several optimization techniques to further improve the efficiency of the Baum and Nof's proof system [BN20], and their variant is called BN++.

2.2 BN++ Proof System

In this section, we briefly review the BN++ proof system [KZ22], one of the state-of-the-art MPCitH zero-knowledge protocols. The BN++ protocol will be combined with our symmetric primitive AIM to construct the AIMer signature scheme. At a high level, BN++ is a variant of the BN protocol [BN20] with several optimization techniques applied to reduce the signature size.

PROTOCOL OVERVIEW. The BN++ protocol follows the MPCitH paradigm [IKOS07]. In order to check C multiplication triples $(x_j,y_j,z_j=x_j\cdot y_j)_{j=1}^C$ over a finite field $\mathbb F$ in the multiparty computation setting with N parties, helping triples $((a_j,b_j)_{j=1}^C,c)$ are required, where $a_j\in\mathbb F,b_j=y_j$, and $c=\sum_{j=1}^Ca_j\cdot b_j$. Each party holds secret shares of the multiplication triples $(x_j,y_j,z_j)_{j=1}^C$ and the helping triples $((a_j,b_j)_{j=1}^C,c)$. Then the protocol proceeds as follows.

- A prover is given random challenges $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_C \in \mathbb{F}$.
- For $i \in [N]$, the i-th party locally sets $\alpha_1^{(i)}, \cdots, \alpha_C^{(i)}$ where $\alpha_j^{(i)} = \epsilon_j \cdot x_j^{(i)} + a_j^{(i)}$.
- The parties open $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_C$ by broadcasting their shares.
- For $i \in [N]$, the *i*-th party locally sets

$$v^{(i)} = \sum_{j=1}^{C} \epsilon_j \cdot z_j^{(i)} - \sum_{j=1}^{C} \alpha_j \cdot b_j^{(i)} + c^{(i)}.$$

• The parties open v by broadcasting their shares and output Accept if v=0.

The probability that there exist incorrect triples and the parties output Accept in a single run of the above steps is upper bounded by $1/|\mathbb{F}|$.

SIGNATURE SIZE. By applying the Fiat-Shamir transform [DFM20], one can obtain a signature scheme from the BN++ proof system. In this signature scheme, the signature size is given as

$$6\lambda + \tau \cdot (3\lambda + \lambda \cdot \lceil \log_2(N) \rceil + \mathcal{M}(C)),$$

where λ is the security parameter, τ is the number of parallel repetitions of the multiplication checking protocol for reducing the soundness error, C is the number of multiplication gates in the underlying symmetric primitive, and $\mathcal{M}(C) = (2C+1) \cdot \log_2(|\mathbb{F}|)$. In particular, $\mathcal{M}(C)$ has been defined so from the observation that sharing the secret share offsets for $(z_j)_{j=1}^C$ and c, and opening shares for $(\alpha_j)_{j=1}^C$ occurs for each repetition, using C, 1, and C elements of \mathbb{F} , respectively. For more details, we refer to [KZ22].

OPTIMIZATION TECHNIQUES. If multiplication triples use an identical multiplier in common, for example, given (x_1,y,z_1) and (x_2,y,z_2) , then the corresponding α values can be batched to reduce the signature size. Instead of computing $\alpha_1 = \epsilon_1 \cdot x_1 + a_1$ and $\alpha_2 = \epsilon_2 \cdot x_2 + a_2$, $\alpha = \epsilon_1 \cdot x_1 + \epsilon_2 \cdot x_2 + a$ is computed, and v is defined as

$$v = \epsilon_1 \cdot z_1 + \epsilon_2 \cdot z_2 - \alpha \cdot y + c,$$

where $c=a\cdot y$. This technique is called *repeated multiplier* technique. Our symmetric primitive design allows us to take full advantage of this technique to reduce the number of α values in each repetition of the protocol.

If the output of the multiplication z_i can be locally generated from each share, then the secret share offset is not necessarily included in the signature.

2.3 Fiat-Shamir Transform

The Fiat-Shamir transform [FS87] is a technique for taking an interactive proof of knowledge and creating a non-interactive counterpart, or a digital signature based on it. The core of the technique is to replace challenges from the verifier by random oracle access which is realized by hashing of the transcript obtained so far.

The Fiat-Shamir transform was originally targeted at a Σ -protocol, a three-round interactive proof of knowledge. Let R be a relation such that, for a given x, it is difficult to find an w such that R(x,w)=1. Given public R and x, the value w such that R(x,w)=1 becomes the secret information that a prover P wants to prove the knowledge of to the verifier V. Then, a Σ -protocol proceeds as follows.

1. **Commitment**: a random number r is generated, committed to by the prover, and sent to the verifier.

$$P \xrightarrow{com} V$$
, where $com = Commit(r)$.

2. Challenge: on receiving the commitment, the verifier sends a random challenge ch the prover.

$$P \stackrel{ch}{\longleftarrow} V$$

3. **Response**: the prover creates an appropriate response corresponding to the challenge.

$$P \xrightarrow{res} V$$
, where $res = Response(w, r, ch)$.

Then, the verifier checks the validity of the response together with com and ch. This Σ -protocol is transformed into a non-interactive version, by replacing the challenge sent by the verifier by a random oracle access, using the previous transcript (x, com). Denoting the random oracle as \mathcal{RO} , the challenge step of the above procedure is replaced by ch $\leftarrow \mathcal{RO}(x, \text{com})$. This approach can be extended to multi-round proofs. The security loss is known to be linear in the number of attacker's queries to the random oracle [AFK22].

3 Symmetric Primitive AIM

3.1 Specification

AIM is designed to be a "tweakable" one-way function so that it offers multi-target one-wayness. Given input/output size n and an $(\ell+1)$ -tuple of exponents $(e_1,\ldots,e_\ell,e_*)\in\mathbb{Z}^{\ell+1}$, AIM : $\{0,1\}^n\times\mathbb{F}_{2^n}\to\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ is defined by

$$\mathsf{AIM}(\mathsf{iv},\mathsf{pt}) = \mathsf{Mer}[e_*] \circ \mathsf{Lin}[\mathsf{iv}] \circ \mathsf{Mer}[e_1,\ldots,e_\ell](\mathsf{pt}) \oplus \mathsf{pt}$$

where each function will be described below. See Figure 1 for the pictorial description of AIM with $\ell=3$.

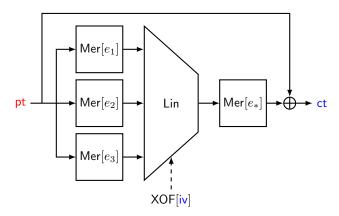


Figure 1: The AIM-V one-way function with $\ell=3$. The input pt (in red) is the secret key of the signature scheme, and (iv, ct) (in blue) is the corresponding public key.

S-BOXES. In AIM, S-boxes are exponentiation by Mersenne numbers over a large field. More precisely, for $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$,

$$\mathsf{Mer}[e](x) = x^{2^e - 1}$$

for some e. Note that this map is a permutation if $\gcd(e,n)=1$. As an extension, $\operatorname{Mer}[e_1,\ldots,e_\ell]:\mathbb{F}_{2^n}\to\mathbb{F}_{2^n}^\ell$ is defined by

$$Mer[e_1, ..., e_{\ell}](x) = Mer[e_1](x) || ... || Mer[e_{\ell}](x).$$

LINEAR COMPONENTS. AIM includes two types of linear components: an affine layer and feed-forward. The affine layer is multiplication by an $n \times \ell n$ random binary matrix A_{iv} and addition by a random constant $b_{iv} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$. The matrix

$$A_{\mathsf{iv}} = \left[A_{\mathsf{iv},1} \middle| \dots \middle| A_{\mathsf{iv},\ell} \right] \in (\mathbb{F}_2^{n \times n})^{\ell}$$

is composed of ℓ random invertible matrices $A_{\text{iv},i}$. The matrix A_{iv} and the vector b_{iv} are generated by an extendable-output function (XOF) with the initial vector iv. Each matrix $A_{\text{iv},i}$ can be equivalently represented by a linearized polynomial $L_{\text{iv},i}$ on \mathbb{F}_{2^n} . For $x = (x_1, \dots, x_\ell) \in (\mathbb{F}_{2^n})^{\ell}$,

$$\mathsf{Lin}[\mathsf{iv}](x) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq \ell} L_{\mathsf{iv},i}(x_i) \oplus b_{\mathsf{iv}}.$$

By abuse of notation, we will denote Ax as the same meaning as $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq \ell} L_{\text{iv},i}(x_i)$. Feed-forward operation, which is addition by the input itself, makes the entire function non-invertible.

RECOMMENDED PARAMETERS. Recommended sets of parameters for $\lambda \in \{128, 192, 256\}$ -bit security are given in Table 2. The number of S-boxes is determined by taking into account the complexity of the XL attack, which is described in Section 6.3.2. Exponents e_1 and e_* are chosen as small numbers to provide smaller differential probability, and exponent e_2 is chosen so that $e_2 \cdot e_* \geq \lambda$, while all the exponents are distinct in the same set of parameters. The irreducible polynomials for extension fields $\mathbb{F}_{2^{128}}$, $\mathbb{F}_{2^{192}}$, and $\mathbb{F}_{2^{256}}$ are the same as those used in Rain [DKR⁺22].

Scheme	λ	n	ℓ	e_1	e_2	e_3	e_*
AIM-I	128	128	2	3	27	-	5
AIM-III	192	192	2	5	29	-	7
AIM-V	256	256	3	3	53	7	5

Table 2: Recommended sets of parameters of AIM.

3.2 Design Rationale

CHOICE OF FIELD. When a symmetric primitive is built upon field operations, the field is typically binary since bitwise operations are cheap in most of modern architectures. However, when the multiplicative complexity of the primitive becomes a more important metric for efficiency, it is hard to generally specify which type of field has merits with respect to security and efficiency.

Focusing on a primitive for MPCitH-style zero-knowledge protocols, a primitive over a large field generally requires a small number of multiplications, leading to shorter signatures. However, any primitive operating on a large field of large prime characteristic might permit algebraic attacks since the number of variables and the algebraic degree will be significantly limited for efficiency reasons. On the other hand, binary extension fields enjoy both advantages from small and large fields. In particular, matrix multiplication is represented by a polynomial of high algebraic degree without increasing the proof size.

ALGEBRAICALLY SOUND S-BOXES. In an MPCitH-style zero-knowledge protocol, the proof size of a circuit is usually proportional to the number of nonlinear operations in the circuit. In order to minimize the number of multiplications, one might introduce intermediate variables for some wires of the circuit. For example, the inverse S-box $(S(x) = x^{-1})$ has high (bitwise) algebraic degree n-1, while it can be simply represented by a quadratic equation xy=1 by letting the output from the S-box be a new variable y. When an S-box is represented by a quadratic equation of its input and output, we will say it is *implicitly quadratic*. In particular, we consider implicitly quadratic S-boxes which are represented by a single multiplication over \mathbb{F}_{2^n} . This feature makes the proof size short and mitigates algebraic attacks at the same time.

The inverse S-box is one of the well-studied implicitly quadratic S-boxes. The inverse S-box has been widely adopted to symmetric ciphers [DR02, AIK+01, SSA+07] due to its nice cryptographic properties. It is invertible, is of high-degree, has good enough differential uniformity and nonlinearity. Recently, it is used in symmetric primitives for advanced cryptographic protocols such as multiparty computation and zero-knowledge proof [GKR+21, GLR+20, DKR+22].

Meanwhile, the inverse S-box has one minor weakness; a single evaluation of the n-bit inverse S-box as a form of xy=1 produces 5n-1 linearly independent quadratic equations over \mathbb{F}_2 [CDG06]. The complexity of an algebraic attack is typically bounded (with heuristics) by the degree and the number of equations, and the number of variables. In particular, an algebraic attack is more efficient with a larger number of equations, while this aspect has not been fully considered in the design of recent symmetric ciphers based on algebraic S-boxes. When the number of rounds is small, this issue might be critical to the overall security of the cipher. For more details, see Section 6.3.2.

With the above observation, we tried to find an invertible S-box of high-degree which is moderately resistant to differential/linear cryptanalysis as well as implicitly quadratic, and producing only a small number of quadratic equations. Since our attack model does not allow multiple queries to a single instance of AIM, we allow a relaxed condition on the DC/LC resistance, not being necessarily maximal. As a family of S-boxes that beautifully fit all the conditions, we choose a family of Mersenne S-boxes; they are exponentiation by Mersenne numbers 2^e-1 such that $\gcd(n,e)=1$, are invertible, are of high-degree, need only one multiplication for its proof, produce only 3n Boolean quadratic equations with its input and output, and provide moderate DC/LC resistance. Furthermore, when the implicit equation $xy=x^{2^e}$ of a Mersenne S-box is computed in the BN++ proof system, it is not required to broadcast the output share since the output of multiplication x^{2^e} can be locally computed from the share of x.

REPETITIVE STRUCTURE. The efficiency of the BN++ proof system partially comes from the optimization technique using *repeated multipliers*. When a multiplier is repeated in multiple equations to prove, the proof can be done in a batched way, reducing the overall signature size. In order to maximize the advantage of repeated multipliers, we put S-boxes in parallel at the first round in order to make the S-box inputs the same. Then, we put only one S-box at the second round with feed-forward. In this way, all the implicit equations have the same multiplier.

Affine Layer Generation. The main advantage of using binary affine layers in large S-box-based constructions is to increase the algebraic degree of equations over the large field. Multiplication by a random $n \times n$ binary matrix can be represented as

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^{2^i} = a_0 x + a_1 x^{2^1} + a_2 x^{2^2} + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{2^{n-1}}$$

where $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$. Similarly, our design uses a random affine map from $\mathbb{F}_2^{\ell n}$ to \mathbb{F}_2^n . In order to mitigate multi-target attacks (in the multi-user setting), the affine map is uniquely generated for each user; each user's iv is fed to an XOF, generating the corresponding linear layer.

4 Mathematical Description of the AIMer Signature Scheme

In this section, we review the mathematical specification of AlMer introduced in [KHS $^+22$]. In order to obtain the AlMer signature scheme, the customized BN++ proof system in Section 2.2 is combined with AlM. The resulting signature scheme $\Pi=(\text{KeyGen},\text{Sign},\text{Verify})$ consists of key generation, signing, and verification algorithms.

- KeyGen $(1^{\lambda}) \to (sk, pk)$: Sample uniform random pt $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$, and iv $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n$. Compute ct \leftarrow AIM(iv, pt) as described in Section 3, and set the public key $pk \leftarrow (\text{iv}, \text{ct}) \in \{0, 1\}^n \times \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ and the private signing key $sk \leftarrow \text{pt} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$.
- Sign $((sk,pk),m) \to \sigma$: Take as input a pair of signing and public keys $(sk=\mathsf{pt},pk=(\mathsf{iv},\mathsf{ct}))$ and a message m, and compute the BN++ ZKP π for the AIM one-way function circuit using m as a part of the input to the challenge hash as described in Algorithm 1. Output the corresponding signature $\sigma \leftarrow \pi$.

Verify(pk, σ) → Accept or Reject: Take as input a public key pk = (iv, ct), a message m and a signature σ and conduct the verification of BN++ ZKP for the AIM one-way function circuit as described in Algorithm 2. Output either Accept or Reject according to the verification result of the ZKP.

The AlMer signing and verification algorithms will be described in detail in the following subsections. The full specification for implementation is given in Section 7.

4.1 Features

The AIM function has been designed to fully exploit the optimization techniques of the BN++ proof system using *repeated multipliers* for checking multiplication triples and *locally computed output shares* to reduce the overall signature size.

EXPLOITING REPEATED MULTIPLIERS. If multiplication triples share the same multiplier, then the α values in the multiplication checking protocol can be batched as mentioned in Section 2.2. The $\ell+1$ S-box evaluations in AIM produce the $\ell+1$ multiplication triples that need to be verified, reformulated as follows.

$$\mathsf{pt} \cdot t_i = \mathsf{pt}^{2^{e_i}}$$

for $i = 1, \dots, \ell$, and

$$\mathsf{pt} \cdot \mathsf{Lin}[\mathsf{iv}](t) = \left(\mathsf{Lin}[\mathsf{iv}](t)\right)^{2^{e_*}} + \mathsf{ct} \cdot \mathsf{Lin}[\mathsf{iv}](t)$$

where t_i , $i=1,2,\ldots,\ell$, is the output of the *i*-th S-box and $t\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}[t_1|\ldots|t_\ell]$. Since every multiplication triple shares the same multiplier pt, a single value of α is included in the signature instead of $\ell+1$ different values.

LOCALLY COMPUTED OUTPUT SHARES. For the above multiplication triples, every multiplication output share on the right-hand side can be locally computed without communication between parties, thanks to the freshman's dream over \mathbb{F}_{2^n} (i.e., the map $x\mapsto x^{2^e}$ is linear over \mathbb{F}_{2^n}). Hence, it is possible to remove the offset Δz of the output share in the multiplication triples in the BN++ proof from the signature of AlMer. For the first ℓ multiplications, each party locally computes the output $(\mathsf{pt}^{(i)})^{2^{e_i}}$ from their input share $\mathsf{pt}^{(i)}$ using linear operations. For the last multiplication output, the output is determined as follows.

$$\begin{cases} (A_{\mathsf{iv}} \cdot t^{(i)} + b_{\mathsf{iv}})^{2^{e_*}} + \mathsf{ct} \cdot (A_{\mathsf{iv}} \cdot t^{(i)} + b_{\mathsf{iv}}) & \text{ for } i = 1, \\ (A_{\mathsf{iv}} \cdot t^{(i)})^{2^{e_*}} + \mathsf{ct} \cdot (A_{\mathsf{iv}} \cdot t^{(i)}) & \text{ for } i \geq 2, \end{cases}$$

where $t^{(i)} \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\ell n}$ is the output shares of the first ℓ S-boxes for the i-th party: $t^{(i)} = [t_1^{(i)}|\dots|t_\ell^{(i)}]$. With the above optimization techniques applied, the signature size is

$$6\lambda + \tau \cdot (\lambda \cdot \lceil \log_2(N) \rceil + 2\lambda + (\ell + 3) \cdot n).$$

Since $n = \lambda$ in our recommended sets of parameters, it can be represented as

$$6\lambda + \tau \cdot (\lambda \cdot \lceil \log_2(N) \rceil + (\ell + 5) \cdot \lambda).$$

OTHER SYMMETRIC PRIMITIVES IN USE. The SHAKE128 (resp. SHAKE256) XOF is used to instantiate hash functions CommitAndExpand, H_1 , H_2 and a pseudorandom generator Expand in the signature scheme for $\lambda=128$ (resp. $\lambda\in\{192,256\}$). Sample(tape) samples an element from a random tape tape, which is a part of the output of CommitAndExpand, tracking the current position of the tape.

4.2 Signature Generation

In this section, we review the signing algorithm of AlMer. The signing algorithm consists of five phases as commented in Algorithm 1.

Phase 1: Committing to the seeds and the execution views of the parties. It samples a random salt salt, and computes an instance of AIM using the initial vector iv. After that, for each parallel execution $k \in [\tau]$, it does the following.

- 1. It samples a root seed seed_k for the k-th execution, and computes the parties' seeds seed_k⁽¹⁾, \cdots , seed_k^(N) as leaves of a binary tree from seed_k.
- 2. It commit to each party's seed and expand random tape as

$$(\mathsf{com}_k^{(i)},\mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}) \leftarrow \mathsf{CommitAndExpand}(\mathsf{salt},k,i,\mathsf{seed}_k^{(i)})$$
 for $i \in [N].$

3. It prepares for the multi-party computation among the N parties using the parties' seeds, by generating secret shares $\left(x_{k,j}^{(i)},\operatorname{pt}_k^{(i)},z_{k,j}^{(i)}\right)$ of the multiplication triples for each S-box with index j, where $z_{k,j}^{(i)}=(\operatorname{pt}_k^{(i)})^{2^{e_j}}$ and $x_{k,j}^{(i)}$ is the secret share of the injected output of the j-th S-box of the secret key pt for $j\in\{1,\cdots,\ell\}$. Also, for the $(\ell+1)$ -th S-box, it formulates the multiplication triple as $\left(x_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)},\operatorname{pt}_k^{(i)},z_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)}\right)$ where $z_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)}=(x_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)})^{2^{e_k}}+\operatorname{ct}\cdot x_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)}$, and $x_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)}=A_{\mathrm{iv}}\cdot[t_{k,1}^{(i)}|\cdots|t_{k,\ell}^{(i)}]+b_{\mathrm{iv}}$ for i=1 and $x_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)}=A_{\mathrm{iv}}\cdot[t_{k,1}^{(i)}|\cdots|t_{k,\ell}^{(i)}]$ otherwise. It samples helping triples $\left(a_k^{(i)},b_k^{(i)},c_k^{(i)}\right)$ as in BN++ and computes the linear operations over the secret shares. 1

Since we use the additive secret sharing, the witness share and the secret share of the multiplication triples and the helping triples can be recomputed from the offsets $\Delta \operatorname{pt}_k$ and $(\Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]})$, respectively, combined with the parties' random seeds. It outputs $\sigma_1 \leftarrow \left(\operatorname{salt}, ((\operatorname{com}_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]}, \Delta \operatorname{pt}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]})_{k \in [\tau]}\right)$.

Phase 2: Challenging the checking protocol. It then computes $h_1 \leftarrow H_1(m, \text{iv}, \text{ct}, \sigma_1)$ and outputs $((\epsilon_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell+1]})_{k \in [\tau]} \leftarrow \text{Expand}(h_1)$ where $\epsilon_{k,j} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ is a challenge value for the multiplication checking protocol in BN++.

Phase 3: Committing to the simulation of the checking protocol. It computes the broadcast values $\alpha_k^{(i)}, v_k^{(i)}$ for the multiplication checking protocol of BN++. It outputs $\sigma_2 \leftarrow \left(\mathsf{salt}, ((\alpha_k^{(i)}, v_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]})_{k \in [\tau]} \right)$.

Phase 4: Challenging the views of the MPC protocol. It computes $h_2 \leftarrow H_2(h_1, \sigma_2)$, and outputs a challenge index $\bar{i}_k \in [N]$ for an unopened view by computing $(\bar{i}_k)_{k \in [T]} \leftarrow \mathsf{Expand}(h_2)$.

Phase 5: Opening the views of the MPC and checking protocols. It collects the seeds to open the views of N-1 parties as $\operatorname{seeds}_k \leftarrow \{\lceil \log_2(N) \rceil \text{ (tree) nodes to compute } \operatorname{seed}_k^{(i)} \text{ for } i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\} \}$ for each repetition k. It then outputs a signature $\sigma \leftarrow (\operatorname{salt}, h_1, h_2, (\operatorname{seeds}_k, \operatorname{com}_k^{(\bar{i}_k)}, \Delta \operatorname{pt}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]}, \alpha_k^{(\bar{i}_k)})_{k \in [\tau]})$.

4.3 Signature Verification

In this section we review the verification algorithm of AlMer. The verification algorithm takes as input $((iv, ct), m, \sigma)$, and outputs Accept or Reject. We refer to Algorithm 2 for the detailed description.

First, given an input iv, it computes an instance of AIM, i.e., computes a binary matrix A_{iv} and a vector b_{iv} . From the signature parsed as $\sigma = \left(\mathsf{salt}, h_1, h_2, \left(\mathsf{seeds}_k, \mathsf{com}_k^{(\bar{i}_k)}, \Delta \mathsf{pt}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]}, \alpha_k^{(\bar{i}_k)} \right)_{k \in [\tau]} \right)$, it expands hash values h_1 and h_2 to obtain the challenges $((\epsilon_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell+1]})_{k \in [\tau]}$ in Phase 2 and $(\bar{i}_k)_{k \in [\tau]}$ in Phase 4 of the signing algorithm.

¹We note that, by exploiting repeated multipliers, we need to verify only one multiplication for each repetition.

```
Algorithm 1: Sign((pt, (iv, ct)), m) - AlMer signature scheme, signing algorithm.
                              Committing to the seeds and the execution views of the parties.
 1 Sample a random salt salt \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^{2\lambda}
 2 Compute the first \ell S-boxes' outputs t_1, \ldots, t_\ell.
 3 Derive the binary matrix A_{iv} \in (\mathbb{F}_2^{n \times n})^{\ell} and the vector b_{iv} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n from the initial vector iv.
 4 for each parallel execution k \in [\tau] do
           Sample a root seed : seed<sub>k</sub> \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^{\lambda}.
 5
          Compute parties' seeds \operatorname{seed}_{k}^{(1)}, \ldots, \operatorname{seed}_{k}^{(N)} as leaves of binary tree from \operatorname{seed}_{k}.
 6
           for each party i \in [N] do
                 Commit to the seed and expand random tape:
 8
                  (\mathsf{com}_k^{(i)}, \mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}) \leftarrow \mathsf{CommitAndExpand}(\mathsf{salt}, k, i, \mathsf{seed}_k^{(i)})
                 Sample witness share: pt_{l}^{(i)} \leftarrow \mathsf{Sample}(\mathsf{tape}_{l}^{(i)}).
 9
          Compute witness offset and adjust first witness: \Delta \mathsf{pt}_k \leftarrow \mathsf{pt} - \sum_i \mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, \mathsf{pt}_k^{(1)} \leftarrow \mathsf{pt}_k^{(1)} + \Delta \mathsf{pt}_k.
10
           for each S-box with index j do
11
                if i < \ell then
12
                      For each party i, sample an S-box output: t_{k,i}^{(i)} \leftarrow \mathsf{Sample}(\mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}).
13
                      Compute output offset and adjust first share: \Delta t_{k,j} = t_j - \sum_i t_{k,j}^{(i)}, t_{k,j}^{(1)} \leftarrow t_{k,j}^{(1)} + \Delta t_{k,j}.
14
                      For each party i, set x_{k,j}^{(i)}=t_{k,j}^{(i)} and z_{k,j}^{(i)}=(\operatorname{pt}_k^{(i)})^{2^{e_j}}
15
                if j = \ell + 1 then
                      For i=1, set x_{k,j}^{(i)}=A_{\mathsf{iv}}\cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)}+b_{\mathsf{iv}} where t_{k,*}^{(i)}=[t_{k,1}^{(i)}|\dots|t_{k,\ell}^{(i)}] is the output shares of the first \ell S-boxes.
16
17
                     For each party i \in [N] \setminus \{1\}, set x_{k,j}^{(i)} = A_{\mathsf{iv}} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)}
For each party i, set z_{k,j}^{(i)} = (x_{k,j}^{(i)})^{2^{e_*}} + \mathsf{ct} \cdot x_{k,j}^{(i)}
18
19
          For each party i, set a_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \mathsf{Sample}(\mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}).
20
          Compute a_k = \sum_{i=1}^N a_k^{(i)}.
Set c_k = a_k \cdot \text{pt.}
21
22
          For each party i, set c_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \mathsf{Sample}(\mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}).
23
          Compute offset and adjust first share : \Delta c_k = c_k - \sum_i c_k^{(i)}, c_k^{(1)} \leftarrow c_k^{(1)} + \Delta c_k.
\textbf{25} \; \operatorname{Set} \, \sigma_1 \leftarrow (\operatorname{salt}, ((\operatorname{com}_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]}, \Delta\operatorname{pt}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]})_{k \in [\tau]}).
     // Phase 2: Challenging the checking protocol.
26 Compute challenge hash: h_1 \leftarrow H_1(m, \text{iv}, \text{ct}, \sigma_1).
27 Expand hash: ((\epsilon_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell+1]})_{k \in [\tau]} \leftarrow \mathsf{Expand}(h_1) where \epsilon_{k,j} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}.
     // Phase 3: Committing to the simulation of the checking protocol.
28 for each repetition k do
           Simulate the triple checking protocol as in Section 2.2 for all parties with challenge \epsilon_{k,j}. The
            inputs are ((x_{k,j}^{(i)},\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)},z_{k,j}^{(i)})_{j\in[\ell+1]},a_k^{(i)},b_k^{(i)},c_k^{(i)}), where b_k^{(i)}=\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, and let \alpha_k^{(i)} and v_k^{(i)} be the broadcast values.
30 Set \sigma_2 \leftarrow (\mathsf{salt}, ((\alpha_k^{(i)}, v_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]})_{k \in [\tau]}).
     // Phase 4: Challenging the views of the MPC protocol.
31 Compute challenge hash: h_2 \leftarrow H_2(h_1, \sigma_2).
32 Expand hash: (\bar{i}_k)_{k \in [\tau]} \leftarrow \mathsf{Expand}(h_2) where \bar{i}_k \in [N].
     // Phase 5: Opening the views of the MPC and checking protocols.
```

34 $\lfloor \operatorname{seeds}_k \leftarrow \{\lceil \log_2(N) \rceil \text{ nodes to compute seed}_k^{(i)} \text{ for } i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\} \}.$ 35 Output $\sigma \leftarrow (\operatorname{salt}, h_1, h_2, (\operatorname{seeds}_k, \operatorname{com}_k^{(\bar{i}_k)}, \Delta \operatorname{pt}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]}, \alpha_k^{(\bar{i}_k)})_{k \in [\tau]}).$

33 **for** each repetition k **do**

Recomputation of Phase 1 and 2. It does the following for each parallel repetition $k \in [\tau]$:

• Recomputes a random seed for each $i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\}$, and

$$(\mathsf{com}_k^{(i)}, \mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}) \leftarrow \mathsf{CommitAndExpand}(\mathsf{salt}, k, i, \mathsf{seed}_k^{(i)}).$$

• Recompute all the secret shares for the multiplication triples from the random seed for each $i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\}$.

Then, it recomputes $\sigma_1 \leftarrow \left(\mathsf{salt}, \left((\mathsf{com}_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]}, \Delta \mathsf{pt}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]} \right)_{k \in [\tau]} \right)$, and the challenge hash $h_1' \leftarrow H_1(m, \mathsf{iv}, \mathsf{ct}, \sigma_1)$.

Recomputation of Phase 3 and 4. For each parallel repetition $k \in [\tau]$, it simulates the multiplication checking protocol in Section 2.2 for each $i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\}$. It recomputes the broadcast values $\alpha_k^{(i)}$ and $v_k^{(i)}$ of the BN++ protocol for each $i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\}$. Also, it computes the remaining share of the output value for the \bar{i}_k -th party as $v_k^{(\bar{i}_k)} = 0 - \sum_{i \neq \bar{i}_k} v_k^{(i)}$. Finally, it recomputes $\sigma_2 \leftarrow \left(\mathsf{salt}, ((\alpha_k^{(i)}, v_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]})_{k \in [\tau]} \right)$, and the challenge hash $h_2' = H_2(h_1, \sigma_2)$.

Comparison of the hash values. It compares the hash values in the input signature and those in the recomputation. It outputs Accept only if both $h_1 = h'_1$ and $h_2 = h'_2$ hold, and outputs Reject, otherwise.

4.4 Recommended Parameters

For security levels L1, L3, and L5, recommended sets of parameters are given in Table 3. For each value of security parameter λ , the corresponding sets of parameters are expected to provide λ -bit security against all classical attacks, and $\lambda/2$ -bit security against quantum attacks.

5 Formal Security Analysis

5.1 EUF-CMA Security of AIMer in the Random Oracle Model

In this section, we prove the EUF-CMA (existential unforgeability under adaptive chosen-message attacks [GMR88]) security of AlMer. To prove the EUF-CMA security, we first show that AlMer is secure against key-only attack (EUF-KO) in Theorem 1, where an adversary is given the public key and no access to the signing oracle. Then, we show that AlMer is EUF-CMA secure by proving that the signing can be simulated without using the secret key in Theorem 2. In our security proof, we followed the same arguments as the security proof of BN++ in [KZ22].

Theorem 1 (EUF-KO Security of AlMer). Assume that CommitAndExpand, H_1 and H_2 be modeled as random oracles, Expand be modeled as a random function, and let (N, τ, λ) be parameters of the AlMer signature scheme. Let A be an arbitrary adversary against the EUF-KO security of AlMer that makes a total of Q random oracle queries. Assuming that KeyGen is an ϵ_{OWF} -hard one-way function, then A's advantage in the EUF-KO game is

$$\epsilon_{\mathrm{KO}} \leq \epsilon_{\mathrm{OWF}} + \frac{(\tau N + 1)Q^2}{2^{2\lambda}} + \Pr[X + Y = \tau],$$

where $Pr[X + Y = \tau]$ is as described in the proof.

```
Algorithm 2: Verify((iv, ct), m, \sigma) - AlMer signature scheme, verification algorithm.
```

```
1 Parse \sigma as \left( \mathsf{salt}, h_1, h_2, \left( \mathsf{seeds}_k, \mathsf{com}_k^{(\overline{i}_k)}, \Delta \mathsf{pt}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]}, \alpha_k^{(\overline{i}_k)} \right)_{k \in [\tau]} \right)
 2 Derive the binary matrix A_{iv} \in (\mathbb{F}_2^{n \times n})^\ell and the vector b_{iv} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n from the initial vector iv.
 3 Expand hashes: ((\epsilon_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell+1]})_{k \in [\tau]} \leftarrow \mathsf{Expand}(h_1) and (\bar{i}_k)_{k \in [\tau]} \leftarrow \mathsf{Expand}(h_2).
    for each parallel repetition k \in [\tau] do
           Uses seed<sub>k</sub> to recompute seed<sub>k</sub><sup>(i)</sup> for i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\}.
 5
           for each party i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\} do
 6
                  Recompute (\mathsf{com}_k^{(i)}, \mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}) \leftarrow \mathsf{CommitAndExpand}(\mathsf{salt}, k, i, \mathsf{seed}_k^{(i)}), \mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \mathsf{Sample}(\mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}).
 7
                 if i = 1 then
 8
                      Adjust first share: \operatorname{pt}_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \operatorname{pt}_k^{(i)} + \Delta \operatorname{pt}_k
  9
                  for each S-box with index j do
10
                       if j \leq \ell then
11
                              Sample an S-box output: t_{k,i}^{(i)} \leftarrow \mathsf{Sample}(\mathsf{tape}_k^{(i)}).
12
                             13
14
15
                       if j = \ell + 1 then
16
                              if i = 1 then
                               17
18
19
                           20
21
                 \begin{array}{l} \text{Set } a_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \text{Sample}(\text{tape}_k^{(i)}) \text{ and } c_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \text{Sample}(\text{tape}_k^{(i)}). \\ \textbf{if } i = 1 \text{ then} \end{array}
22
                   Adjust first share c_k^{(i)} \leftarrow c_k^{(i)} + \Delta c_k.
25 Set \sigma_1 \leftarrow \left( \mathsf{salt}, \left( (\mathsf{com}_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]}, \Delta \mathsf{pt}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]} \right)_{k \in [\tau]} \right).
26 Set h_1' \leftarrow H_1(m, \text{iv}, \text{ct}, \sigma_1).
    for each parallel execution k \in [\tau] do
           for each party i \in [N] \setminus \{\bar{i}_k\} do
28
                  Simulate the triple checking protocol as defined in Section 2.2 for all parties with challenge
                   \epsilon_{k,j}. \text{ The inputs are } ((x_{k,j}^{(i)},\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)},z_{k,j}^{(i)})_{j\in[\ell+1]},a_k^{(i)},b_k^{(i)},c_k^{(i)}), \text{ where } b_k^{(i)}=\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, \text{ and let } \alpha_k^{(i)} \text{ and } b_k^{(i)}=\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, a_k^{(i)},a_k^{(i)}
             v_k^{(i)} be the broadcast values.
        Compute v_k^{(\bar{i}_k)} = 0 - \sum_{i \neq \bar{i}_k} v_k^{(i)}.
31 Set \sigma_2 \leftarrow \left( \mathsf{salt}, ((\alpha_k^{(i)}, v_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]})_{k \in [\tau]} \right)
32 Set h'_2 = H_2(h'_1, \sigma_2).
33 Output Accept if h_1 = h'_1 and h_2 = h'_2.
34 Otherwise, output Reject.
```

Parameters	λ	\overline{n}	ℓ	e_1	e_2	e_3	e_*	Hash	N	au
AIMER_L1_PARAM1	128	128	2	3	27	-	5	SHAKE128	16	33
AIMER_L1_PARAM2	128	128	2	3	27	-	5	SHAKE128	57	23
AIMER_L1_PARAM3	128	128	2	3	27	-	5	SHAKE128	256	17
AIMER_L1_PARAM4	128	128	2	3	27	-	5	SHAKE128	1615	13
AIMER_L3_PARAM1	192	192	2	5	29	-	7	SHAKE256	16	49
AIMER_L3_PARAM2	192	192	2	5	29	-	7	SHAKE256	64	33
AIMER_L3_PARAM3	192	192	2	5	29	-	7	SHAKE256	256	25
AIMER_L3_PARAM4	192	192	2	5	29	-	7	SHAKE256	1621	19
AIMER_L5_PARAM1	256	256	3	3	53	7	5	SHAKE256	16	65
AIMER_L5_PARAM2	256	256	3	3	53	7	5	SHAKE256	62	44
AIMER_L5_PARAM3	256	256	3	3	53	7	5	SHAKE256	256	33
AIMER_L5_PARAM4	256	256	3	3	53	7	5	SHAKE256	1623	25

Table 3: The recommended parameters for AlMer.

Proof. We build an algorithm \mathcal{B} that retrieves a pre-image for the AIM one-way function using the EUF-KO adversary \mathcal{A} as a subroutine. Let H_c denote a random oracle (RO) modelling CommitAndExpand. Suppose that all the queries to H_c , H_1 and H_2 are listed in \mathcal{Q}_c , \mathcal{Q}_1 and \mathcal{Q}_2 , respectively. We extend the output length of random oracles H_1 and H_2 instead of making calls to Expand() in our analysis, since Expand is a random function used to expand outputs from H_1 and H_2 .

Algorithm $\mathcal B$ takes the AIM one-way function value (iv, ct) as an input, and forwards it to $\mathcal A$ as a AIMer public key for the EUF-KO game. $\mathcal B$ manages a set Bad to keep track of all the answers from the three random oracles and two tables $\mathcal T_{sh}$ and $\mathcal T_{in}$ to record the values derived from $\mathcal A$'s RO queries as follows:

- \mathcal{T}_{sh} to store secret shares of the parties, and
- \mathcal{T}_{in} to store inputs to the MPC protocol.

We also program the random oracles for A as follows.

- H_c : When \mathcal{A} queries random oracle for H_c , \mathcal{B} records the query to match the commitments and expanded random tape with its corresponding seeds. See Algorithm 3.
- H_1 : When \mathcal{A} commits to seeds and sends the offsets for the preimage pt which is the secret key and the multiplication triples, \mathcal{B} check the query list \mathcal{Q}_c to see if the commitments were output by its simulation of H_c . If \mathcal{B} finds matching results for all i's in some repetition k, then it can recover pt. See Algorithm 4.
- H_2 : See Algorithm 5.

After \mathcal{A} terminates, \mathcal{B} checks whether there is $\mathsf{pt}_k \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathsf{in}}$ satisfying $\mathsf{AIM}(\mathsf{iv},\mathsf{pt}_k) = \mathsf{ct}$. If \mathcal{B} finds a match pt_k , \mathcal{B} outputs it as a pre-image for the AIM, otherwise \mathcal{B} outputs \bot .

Given the algorithm of \mathcal{B} as above, the probability that \mathcal{A} wins is bounded as below.

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins}] = \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins } \land \mathcal{B} \text{ aborts}] + \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins } \land \mathcal{B} \text{ outputs } \bot] + \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins } \land \mathcal{B} \text{ outputs pt}]$$

$$< \Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ aborts}] + \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins } | \mathcal{B} \text{ outputs } \bot] + \Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ outputs pt}]$$
(1)

We define Q_c , Q_1 and Q_2 as the number of queries made by \mathcal{A} to random oracles H_c , H_1 and H_2 , respectively. Then we can bound the probability that \mathcal{B} aborts (The first term on the RHS of (1)) as follows.

Algorithm 3: $H_c(q_c = (\mathsf{salt}, k, i, \mathsf{seed}))$:

- 1 $r \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^{2\lambda}$.
- 2 if $r \in \mathsf{Bad}$ then
- з abort.
- 4 $r o \mathsf{Bad}$.

$$\mathbf{5} \ \left(\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, a_k^{(i)}, c_k^{(i)}, (t_{k,j}^{(i)})_{j \in [\ell]}\right) \overset{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{F}_{2^n} \times \mathbb{F}_{2^n} \times \mathbb{F}_{2^n} \times (\mathbb{F}_{2^n})^\ell$$

$$\mathbf{6} \left(q_{\mathsf{c}}, r, \mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, a_k^{(i)}, c_k^{(i)}, (t_{k,j}^{(i)})_{j \in [\ell]}\right) \to \mathcal{Q}_{\mathsf{c}}.$$

7 Return
$$(r, \mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, a_k^{(i)}, c_k^{(i)}, (t_{k,j}^{(i)})_{j \in [\ell]}).$$

 $\Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ aborts}] = (\# \text{times an } r \text{ is sampled}) \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ aborts at that sample}]$

$$\leq (Q_{c} + Q_{1} + Q_{2}) \cdot \frac{\max |\mathsf{Bad}|}{2^{2\lambda}} = (Q_{c} + Q_{1} + Q_{2}) \cdot \frac{Q_{c} + (\tau N + 1)Q_{1} + 2Q_{2}}{2^{2\lambda}}
\leq \frac{(\tau N + 1)(Q_{c} + Q_{1} + Q_{2})^{2}}{2^{2\lambda}} = \frac{(\tau N + 1)Q^{2}}{2^{2\lambda}},$$
(2)

where $Q = Q_{c} + Q_{1} + Q_{2}$.

We now analyze $\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins } | \mathcal{B} \text{ outputs } \perp]$ (The second term on the RHS of (1)), which means pt corresponding to (iv, ct) is not found. We parse it into two cases, which correspond to cheating in the first round and the second round.

CHEATING IN THE FIRST ROUND. Let $q_1 \in \mathcal{Q}_1$ be a query to H_1 , and $h_1 = ((\epsilon_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell+1]})_{k \in [\tau]}$ be its corresponding answer. We collect the set of indices $k \in [\tau]$ representing "good executions" such that $\mathcal{T}_{\text{in}}[q_1,k]$ is nonempty and $v_k = 0$, say $G_1(q_1,h_1)$. For $k \in G_1(q_1,h_1)$, the challenges $(\epsilon_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell+1]}$ were sampled such that the multiplication check protocol presented in the Section (2.2) is passed in that repetition. By Lemma (1), since h_1 is sampled uniformly at random, this happens with probability at most $1/2^{\lambda}$.

Lemma 1. If the secret-shared input $(x_j, y, z_j)_{j \in [C]}$ contains an incorrect multiplication triple, or if the shares of $((a_j, y)_{j \in [C]}, c)$ form an incorrect dot product, then the parties output Accept in the sub-protocol with probability at most $1/2^{\lambda}$.

Proof. Let
$$\Delta_{z_j} = z_j - x_j \cdot y$$
 and $\Delta_c = -\sum_{j \in [C]} a_j \cdot y + c$. Then

$$\begin{split} v &= \sum_{j \in [C]} \epsilon_j \cdot z_j - \alpha \cdot y + c \\ &= \sum_{j \in [C]} \epsilon_j \cdot z_j - \sum_{j \in [C]} \epsilon_j \cdot x_j \cdot y - \sum_{j \in [C]} a_j \cdot y + c \\ &= \sum_{j \in [C]} \epsilon_j \cdot (z_j - x_j \cdot y) - \sum_{j \in [C]} a_j \cdot y + c \\ &= \sum_{j \in [C]} \epsilon_j \cdot \Delta_{z_j} + \Delta_c \end{split}$$

Define a multivariate polynomial

$$Q(X_1, \dots, X_C) = X_1 \cdot \Delta_{z_1} + \dots + X_C \cdot \Delta_{z_C} + \Delta_c$$

```
Algorithm 4: H_1(q_1 = \sigma_1):
  1 Parse \sigma_1 as \left(\operatorname{salt}, ((\operatorname{\mathsf{com}}_k^{(i)})_{i \in [N]}, \Delta \operatorname{\mathsf{pt}}_k, \Delta c_k, (\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]})_{k \in [\tau]}\right).
  2 for k \in [\tau], i \in [N] do
  \operatorname{\mathsf{3}} \mid \operatorname{\mathsf{com}}_k^{(i)} 	o \operatorname{\mathsf{Bad}}.
         // If the committed seed is known for some k,i, then {\mathcal B} records the shares of the
                       secret key and the multiplication output values for that party, derived from
                      that seed and the offsets in \sigma_1
  4 for k \in [\tau], i \in [N]: \exists \mathsf{seed}_k^{(i)} : ((\mathsf{salt}, k, i, \mathsf{seed}_k^{(i)}), \mathsf{com}_k^{(i)}, \mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, a_k^{(i)}, c_k^{(i)}, (t_{k,i}^{(i)})_{i \in [\ell]}) \in \mathcal{Q}_{\mathsf{c}} do
                       \mid \mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)} + \Delta \mathsf{pt}_k, c_k^{(i)} \leftarrow c_k^{(i)} + \Delta c_k \text{ and } (t_{k,j}^{(i)} \leftarrow t_{k,j}^{(i)} + \Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]}
            (\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, c_k^{(i)}, (t_{k,j}^{(i)}))_{j \in [\ell]} \to \mathcal{T}_{\mathsf{sh}}[q_1, k, i]
          // If the shares of the various elements are known for every party in that
                      repetition, {\cal B} records the resulting secret key, multiplication inputs and S-box
                      outputs
  8 for each k: \forall i, \mathcal{T}_{\mathsf{sh}}[q_1, k, i] \neq \emptyset do
                     \mathsf{pt}_k \leftarrow \sum_i \mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)}, c_k \leftarrow \sum_i c_k^{(i)}, a_k \leftarrow \sum_i a_k^{(i)}, (t_{k,j} \leftarrow \sum_i t_{k,j}^{(i)})_{j \in [\ell]} \text{ and } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,*}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} = A_\mathsf{iv} \cdot t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)} + b_\mathsf{iv} \text{ where } t_{k,\ell+1}^{(i)
                       t_{k,*}^{(i)} = [t_{k,1}^{(i)}|\dots|t_{k,\ell}^{(i)}] is the output shares of the first \ell S-boxes.
                     Derive the binary matrix A_{iv} \in (\mathbb{F}_2^{n \times n})^{\ell} and the vector b_{iv} \in \mathbb{F}_2^n from the initial vector iv.
10
                     for j \in [\ell] do
11
                      Set x_{k,j} = t_{k,j} and z_{k,j} = (\operatorname{pt}_k)^{2^{e_j}}.
                      for j = \ell + 1 do
                          Set x_{k,j} = A_{iv} \cdot t_{k,*} + b_{iv} where t_{k,*} = [t_{k,1}| \dots | t_{k,\ell}] is the output shares of the first \ell S-boxes
                          and z_{k,j} = (x_{k,j})^{2^{e_*}} + \operatorname{ct} \cdot x_{k,j}.
                (\mathsf{pt}_k) \to \mathcal{T}_{\mathsf{in}}[q_1, k].
16 r \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^{2\lambda}.
17 if r \in \mathsf{Bad} then
18 abort.
19 r 	o \mathsf{Bad}.
20 (q_1,r) \to Q_1.
          // Compute the multiplication check protocol values.
21 (\epsilon_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell+1]} \leftarrow \mathsf{Expand}(r).
22 for each k: \mathcal{T}_{\mathsf{in}}[q_1, k] \neq \emptyset do
                  \alpha_k = \sum_{j \in [\ell+1]} \epsilon_j \cdot x_j + a_k.
               v_k = \sum_{j \in [\ell+1]} \epsilon_j \cdot z_{k,j} - \alpha_k \cdot \mathsf{pt} + c_k.
25 Return r.
```

Algorithm 5: $H_2(q_2 = (h_1, \sigma_2))$:

- 1 $h_1 o \mathsf{Bad}$.
- $r \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^{2\lambda}$.
- $\mathbf{if}\ r\in\mathsf{Bad}$ then
- 4 abort.
- 5 $r o \mathsf{Bad}.$
- 6 $(q_2,r) \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}_2$.
- 7 Return r.

over \mathbb{F}_{2^n} and note that v=0 if and only if $Q(\epsilon_1,\ldots,\epsilon_C)=0$. In the case of a cheating prover, Q is nonzero, and by the multivariate version of the Schwartz-Zippel lemma, the probability that $Q(\epsilon_1,\ldots,\epsilon_C)=0$ is at most $1/2^{\lambda}$, since Q has total degree 1 and $(\epsilon_1,\ldots,\epsilon_C)$ is chosen uniformly at random.

Given \mathcal{B} outputs \bot , the number of elements $\#G_1(q_1,h_1)|_{\bot} \sim X_{q_1}$ where $X_{q_1} = \mathcal{B}(\tau,p_1)$, where $\mathcal{B}(\tau,p_1)$ is the binomial distribution with τ events, each with success probability $p_1 = 1/2^{\lambda}$. We select the query-response pair $(q_{\mathsf{best}_1},h_{\mathsf{best}_1})$ such that $\#G_1(q_1,h_1)$ is the maximum. Then, the following holds.

$$\#G_1(q_{\mathsf{best}_1}, h_{\mathsf{best}_1})|_{\perp} \sim X = \max_{q_1 \in \mathcal{Q}_1} \{X_{q_1}\}.$$

CHEATING IN THE SECOND ROUND. Let $q_2=(h_1,\sigma_2)$ be a query to H_2 . Note that q_2 can only be used in the winning EUF-KO game when the corresponding $(q_1,h_1)\in\mathcal{Q}_1$ exists. For the bad repetition $k\in[\tau]\backslash G_1(q_1,h_1)$, either $\mathcal{T}_{\text{in}}[q_1,k]$ is empty (which means verification fails so that \mathcal{A} loses) or $v_k\neq 0$ but the verification passes. Hence, it should be the case that one of the N parties cheated. Since $h_2=(\bar{i}_k)_{k\in[\tau]}\in[N]^\tau$ is distributed uniformly at random, the probability that one of the N parties have cheated for all bad executions k is

$$\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)^{\tau-\#G_1(q_1,h_1)} \leq \left(\frac{1}{N}\right)^{\tau-\#G_1(q_{\mathsf{best}_1},h_{\mathsf{best}_1})}.$$

To sum up, we can analyze the probability that \mathcal{A} wins conditioning on \mathcal{B} outputting \bot is

$$\Pr[A \text{ wins } | B \text{ outputs } \bot] \le \Pr[X + Y = \tau],$$
 (3)

where X is as before, and $Y = \max_{q_2 \in \mathcal{Q}_2} \{Y_{q_2}\}$ where Y_{q_2} variables are independently and identically distributed as $\mathcal{B}(\tau - X, 1/N)$.

Finally, combining (1), (2) and (3) all together, we obtain the following.

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins}] \leq \frac{(\tau N + 1) \cdot Q^2}{2^{2\lambda}} + \Pr[X + Y = \tau] + \Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ outputs pt}],$$

where $Q = Q_c + Q_1 + Q_2$, X and Y are defined as above. Setting KeyGen as an ϵ_{OWF} -secure OWF, we achieve (1) as desired.

Theorem 2 (EUF-CMA Security of AlMer). Assume that CommitAndExpand, H_1 , H_2 and Expand are modeled as random oracles, the seed tree construction is computationally hiding, the (N, τ, λ) parameters of AlMer are appropriately chosen, and that the key generation is a secure one-way function. Then, the AlMer signature scheme is EUF-CMA-secure.

Proof. Let \mathcal{A} be an EUF-CMA adversary for given (iv, ct). Let G_0 be the original EUF-CMA game and \mathcal{B} be an EUF-KO adversary that simulates the EUF-CMA game to \mathcal{A} . When \mathcal{A} queries one of the random oracles, \mathcal{B} checks if the query has been recorded so that it sends back the recorded answer if so, and otherwise, it records a pair of query and result it retrieves and forwards the answer to \mathcal{A} .

- G_0 : \mathcal{B} knows the secret key pt for the forwarded public key (iv, ct).
- G_1 : \mathcal{B} replaces real signatures with simulated ones no longer using pt. \mathcal{B} uses the EUF-KO challenge $\mathsf{pt}^*(\neq \mathsf{pt})$ in its simulation with \mathcal{A} .

We define $G_0(\text{resp. }G_1)$ as the probability that \mathcal{A} succeeds in Game $G_0(\text{resp. }G_1)$. The advantage of \mathcal{A} is $\epsilon_{\text{CMA}} = \mathsf{G}_0 = (\mathsf{G}_0 - \mathsf{G}_1) + \mathsf{G}_1$.

HYBRID ARGUMENTS. We bound $(G_0 - G_1)$ by defining a sequence of games to connect G_0 and G_1 and constructing hybrid arguments. Upon receiving a signing query from \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{B} simulates a signature using randomly sampled pt*, selects one of the party \mathcal{P}_{i^*} for cheating in the verification and the broadcast of the output shares $v_k^{(i^*)}$ so that it passes multiplication checking protocols. We show that the signature values are sampled from a distribution that is computationally indistinguishable from that of real signatures while it is sampled independently of pt*. \mathcal{B} sets the random oracle H_1 and H_2 to output uniform random challenges $((\epsilon_{k,j})_{j\in[\ell+1]})_{k\in[\tau]}$ and $(\bar{i}_k)_{k\in[\tau]}$, respectively. The definition of subgames and hybrid arguments are the same as in the EUF-CMA proof in [KZ22] (Theorem 7 in Appendix) except that we do not have to cheat on the broadcast of party P_{i_k} 's output share $\operatorname{ct}_i^{(\bar{i}_k)}$, since the output broadcast is implicit in our protocol.

- 1. In G_0 , \mathcal{B} knows pt so that it computes signatures honestly. \mathcal{B} aborts only if the salt that it samples in Phase 1 has already been queried.
- 2. \mathcal{B} randomly chooses h_2 and programs the random oracle H_2 to output h_2 when queried in Phase 4. The unopened parties $(\bar{i}_k)_{k\in[\tau]}$ is derived by expanding h_2 . Simulation is aborted if the queries to H_2 have been made previously.
- 3. \mathcal{B} replaces the seed of the unopened parties $\operatorname{seed}_k^{(\overline{i}_k)}$ in the binary tree by a random element for each $k \in [\tau]$. It is indistinguishable from the previous subgame since the tree structure is computationally hiding.
- 4. \mathcal{B} replaces the outputs of CommitAndExpand(salt, $k, \bar{i}_k, \operatorname{seed}_k^{(\bar{i}_k)}$) by random elements and programs the random oracle H_c to output the same values for the respective queries. \mathcal{B} aborts if the replaced commitment value collides with that in CommitAndExpand(x) where x is queried by \mathcal{A} .
- 5. \mathcal{B} randomly chooses h_1 and programs the random oracle H_1 to output h_1 in Phase 2. The checking values $((\epsilon_{k,j})_{j\in[\ell+1]})_{k\in[\tau]}$ is derived by expanding h_1 . Simulation is aborted if the queries to H_1 have been made previously.
- 6. \mathcal{B} replaces $\alpha_k^{(\bar{i}_k)}$ with a uniformly random value and sets $v_k^{(\bar{i}_k)} \leftarrow -\sum_{i \neq \bar{i}_k} v_k^{(i)}$. Note that if the multiplication triple is wrong, then $v_k^{(\bar{i}_k)} \leftarrow -\sum_{i \neq \bar{i}_k} v_k^{(i)}$ is different from an honest value derived from legitimate calculation. However (\bar{i}_k) is unopened and the multiplication check is still passed.
- 7. \mathcal{B} sets $(\Delta t_{k,j})_{j \in [\ell]}$ and Δc_k to random values in Phase 1.
- 8. \mathcal{B} replaces the real pt by a random key pt* as pt $_k^{(\bar{i}_k)}$ is independent from the seeds \mathcal{A} observes. The distribution of Δ pt $_k$ is not changed and \mathcal{A} has no information about pt*.

If the algorithm is not aborted, above games are all indistinguishable to each other, which results the simulated signatures in G_1 and the real signatures in G_0 are indistinguishable. The abort happens when:

- A_1 : The salt it sampled has been used before.
- A_2 : The committed value it replaces is queried.
- A_3 : Queries to H_1 and H_2 have been made previously.

Let Q_{salt} be the number of different salts queried during the game (by both \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B}), Q_{c} be the number of queries made to Commit by \mathcal{A} including those made during signature queries and $Q_1(\mathsf{resp.}\ Q_2)$ be the number of queries made to $H_1(\mathsf{resp.}\ H_2)$ during the game. Then the probability of each event occurring is bounded by $\Pr[A_1] \leq Q_{\mathsf{salt}}/2^{2\lambda}$, $\Pr[A_2] \leq Q_{\mathsf{c}}/2^{\lambda}$, and $\Pr[A_3] \leq Q_1/2^{2\lambda} + Q_2/2^{2\lambda}$.

Therefore

$$\begin{split} \Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ aborts}] & \leq Q_{\mathsf{salt}}/2^{2\lambda} + Q_{\mathsf{c}}/2^{\lambda} + Q_{1}/2^{2\lambda} + Q_{2}/2^{2\lambda} \\ & = (Q_{\mathsf{salt}} + Q_{1} + Q_{2})/2^{2\lambda} + Q_{\mathsf{c}}/2^{\lambda} \\ & \leq (Q_{1} + Q_{2})/2^{2\lambda - 1} + Q_{\mathsf{c}}/2^{\lambda} \quad (\because Q_{\mathsf{salt}} \leq Q_{1} + Q_{2}) \\ & \leq Q/2^{\lambda} \quad (\mathsf{where} \ Q = Q_{1} + Q_{2} + Q_{\mathsf{c}}) \end{split}$$

and

$$\mathsf{G}_0 - \mathsf{G}_1 \leq Q_s \cdot (\epsilon_{\mathrm{TREE}} + \Pr[\mathcal{B} \; \mathrm{aborts}])$$

 $\leq Q_s \cdot (\epsilon_{\mathrm{TREE}} + Q/2^{\lambda}),$

where Q_s be the total number of signature queries.

BOUNDING G_1 . If A outputs a valid signature in G_1 , then B outputs a valid signature in the EUF-KO game. Finally we have

$$\mathsf{G}_1 \le \epsilon_{\mathsf{KO}} \le \epsilon_{\mathsf{OWF}} + \frac{(\tau N + 1)Q^2}{2^{2\lambda}} + \Pr[X + Y = \tau],$$

where the bound on the advantage ϵ_{KO} of a EUF-KO attacker follows from Theorem 1. We conclude that

$$\epsilon_{\text{CMA}} \leq \epsilon_{\text{OWF}} + \frac{(\tau N + 1)Q^2}{2^{2\lambda}} + \Pr[X + Y = \tau] + Q_s \cdot (\epsilon_{\text{TREE}} + Q/2^{\lambda}).$$

Assuming that the seed tree construction is hiding (so that ϵ_{TREE} is negligible), that key generation is a one-way function and that parameters (N, τ, λ) are appropriately chosen implies that ϵ_{CMA} is negligible in λ .

П

5.2 Information-Theoretic Security of AIM in the Random Permutation Model

In this section, we consider the one-wayness of AIM. More precisely, we will prove the *everywhere preimage resistance* [RS04] of AIM when the underlying S-boxes are modeled as public random permutations and iv is (implicitly) fixed.²

For simplicity, we will assume that $\ell = 2$. The security of AIM with $\ell > 2$ is similarly proved. In the public permutation model and in the single-user setting, AIM is defined as

$$AIM(pt) = S_3(A_1 \cdot S_1(pt) \oplus A_2 \cdot S_2(pt) \oplus b) \oplus pt$$

for pt $\in \{0,1\}^n$, where S_1 , S_2 , S_3 are independent public random permutations, and A_1 and A_2 are fixed $n \times n$ invertible matrices, and b is a fixed $n \times 1$ vector over \mathbb{F}_2 .

In the preimage resistance experiment, a computationally unbounded adversary \mathcal{A} with oracle access to S_i , i = 1, 2, 3, selects and announces a point $\mathsf{ct} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ before making queries to the underlying permutations. After making q forward and backward queries in total, \mathcal{A} obtains a query history

$$Q = \{(i_j, x_j, y_j)\}_{j=1}^q$$

²We do not claim that the algebraic S-boxes of AIM behave like random permutations. The point of the provable security of AIM is that one cannot break the one-wayness of AIM without exploiting any particular properties of the underlying S-boxes.

such that $S_{ij}(x_j) = y_j$ and \mathcal{A} 's j-th query is either $S_{ij}(x_j) = y_j$ or $S_{ij}^{-1}(y_j) = x_j$ for $j = 1, \ldots q$. We say that \mathcal{A} succeeds in finding a preimage of ct if its query history \mathcal{Q} contains three queries $S_1(x_1) = y_1$, $S_2(x_2) = y_2$ and $S_3(x_3) = y_3$ such that $x_1 = x_2$, $x_3 = A_1 \cdot y_1 \oplus A_2 \cdot y_2 \oplus b$ and $\operatorname{ct} = y_3 \oplus \operatorname{pt}$. In this case, we say that \mathcal{A} wins the preimage-finding game, breaking the one-wayness of AIM. Assuming that \mathcal{A} is information-theoretic, we can prove that \mathcal{A} 's winning probability, denoted $\operatorname{Adv}^{\operatorname{epre}}_{\operatorname{AIM}}(q)$, is upper bounded as follows.

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\mathsf{AIM}}^{\mathsf{epre}}(q) \le \frac{2q}{2^n - q}. \tag{4}$$

PROOF OF (4). Since \mathcal{A} is information-theoretic, we can assume that \mathcal{A} is deterministic. Furthermore, we assume that \mathcal{A} does not make any redundant query. We will also slightly modify \mathcal{A} so that whenever \mathcal{A} makes a (forward or backward) query to S_1 (resp. S_2) obtaining $S_1(x) = y$ (resp. $S_2(x) = y$), \mathcal{A} makes an additional forward query to S_2 (resp. S_1) with x for free. This additional query will not degrade \mathcal{A} 's preimage-finding advantage since \mathcal{A} is free to ignore it.

An evaluation AIM(pt) = ct consists of three S-box queries. Among the three S-box queries, the lastly asked one is called the *preimage-finding query*. We distinguish two cases.

Case 1. The preimage-finding query is made to either S_1 or S_2 . Since $\mathcal A$ consecutively obtains a pair of queries of the form $S_1(x)=y_1$ and $S_2(x)=y_2$, any preimage-finding query to either S_1 or S_2 should be forward. If it is $S_1(x)$ (without loss of generality), then there should be queries $S_2(x)=y$ for some y and $S_3(z)=x\oplus ct$ for some z that have already been made by $\mathcal A$. In order for $S_1(x)$ to be the preimage-finding query, it should be the case that

$$S_3(A_1 \cdot S_1(x) \oplus A_2 \cdot S_2(x) \oplus B) = x \oplus \mathsf{ct}$$

or equivalently,

$$S_1(x) = A_1^{-1} \cdot (z \oplus b \oplus A_2 \cdot y)$$

which happens with probability at most $\frac{1}{2^n-q}$. Therefore, the probability of this case is upper bounded by $\frac{q}{2^n-q}$.

Case 2. The preimage-finding query is made to S_3 . In order to address this case, we use the notion of a wish list, which was first introduced in [AFK⁺11]. Namely, whenever A makes a pair of queries $S_1(x) = y_1$ and $S_2(x) = y_2$, the evaluation

$$S_3: A_1 \cdot y_1 \oplus A_2 \cdot y_2 \oplus b \mapsto x \oplus \mathsf{ct}$$

is included in the wish list \mathcal{W} . In order for an S_3 -query to complete an evaluation $\mathsf{AIM}(\mathsf{pt}) = \mathsf{ct}$ for any pt , at least one "wish" in \mathcal{W} should be made come true. Each evaluation in \mathcal{W} is obtained with probability at most $\frac{1}{2^n-q}$, and $|\mathcal{W}| \leq q$. Therefore, the probability of this case is upper bounded by $\frac{q}{2^n-q}$.

Overall, we can conclude that

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\mathsf{AIM}}^{\mathsf{epre}}(q) \leq \frac{2q}{2^n - q}.$$

One-wayness in the multi-user setting. In the multi-user setting with u users, \mathcal{A} is given u different target images, where the adversarial goal is to invert any of the target images. In this setting, the adversarial preimage finding advantage is upper bounded by

$$\frac{2uq}{2^n - q}. (5)$$

The proof of (5) follows the same line of argument as the single-user security proof. The difference is that the probability that each query to either S_1 or S_2 becomes the preimage-finding one is upper bounded by $\frac{uq}{2^n-q}$ and the size of the wish list (in the second case) is upper bounded by uq.

We note that the above bound does not mean that AIM provides only the birthday-bound security in the multi-user setting. The straightforward birthday-bound attack is mitigated since AIM is based on a distinct linear layer for every user.

6 Security Evaluation

6.1 Summary of Expected Security Strength

The AlMer signature scheme provides three levels of security: L1 (AES-128), L3 (AES-192), and L5 (AES-256). Each security level corresponds to the security of AES in the parentheses, and it implies that we expect AlMer with L1, L3, and L5 parameters to be as secure as AES-128, AES-192, AES-256 respectively, against both classical and quantum attacks. In this section, we examine the concrete security of the three components of AlMer: the non-interactive zero-knowledge proof of knowledge (NIZKPoK), the one-way function, and the hash functions.

SECURITY OF THE NIZKPOK SYSTEM. The NIZKPOK system in AlMer is BN++[KZ22] with slight modification on the hash functions in use. We will look into this modification later in this section. The security of BN++ is proved in the random oracle model, and the security of AlMer can be proved similarly in the random oracle model.

In the quantum-accessible random oracle model (QROM), an adversary is allowed to make superposition queries to the random oracle. The NIZKPoK system in AlMer (and BN++) follows the spirit of the Fiat-Shamir transform [FS87], and there has been a significant amount of research on the QROM security of the Fiat-Shamir transform [LZ19, DFMS19, DFM20, DFMS22a, DFMS22b]. The NIZKPoK system of AlMer should be seen as a variant of the original Fiat-Shamir transform, while its security is not immediate from the above results, and we will prove it as a future work.

The parameters N and τ are fixed based on the soundness analysis given in [KZ22]; we see that an attacker should make at least 2^{λ} guesses in order to produce a valid forgery without any knowledge of the secret key. Since a single guess involves at least 3N hash or XOF calls (where a single call of hash is more costly than AES), AlMer with our recommended sets of parameters would provide a sufficient level of security.

SECURITY OF AIM. AIM is a one-way function, which does not follow the traditional design rationale of symmetric primitives. It takes random strings iv and pt as input, and outputs ct = AIM(iv, pt). We expect that finding pt^* for a given pair (iv, ct) such that $ct = AIM(iv, pt^*)$ is as hard as key recovery of AES with the same security level. To support our claim, we not only prove the information-theoretic security of AIM but also investigate its security against brute-force attack, algebraic attacks, statistical attacks, and quantum attacks in Section 6.3.

We prove the everywhere preimage resistance [RS04] of AIM in the random permutation model. The one-wayness is proved assuming that the S-boxes are modeled as public random permutations. Although our choice of S-boxes is far from a random permutation, the proof itself exhibits that AIM is one-way unless any particular properties of the underlying S-boxes are exploited.

For the algebraic attacks, we analyzed the security of AIM against XL, Gröbner basis algorithm, and Dinur's equation solving algorithm [Din21]. We found out that AIM is secure even if the equations generated while running the XL algorithm are all independent. All the algebraic attacks on AIM requires more gate-count complexity than those on AES, or requires more than 2^{λ} memory bits. For the statistical attacks, we bounded the weights of differential/linear trails although statistical attacks are impossible with a single input-output pair. AIM has the minimum differential weight less than λ , while it does not link to any collision. For the quantum attacks, we looked into Grover's algorithm, quantum algebraic attacks, and quantum generic attacks. The most powerful attack among them turns out to be the Grover's algorithm while its complexity against AIM is not lower than applied to AES with the same security level.

In the multi-user setting, we expect that finding one of pt_i given multiple pairs $\{(iv_i, ct_i)\}$ such that $ct_i = AIM(iv_i, pt_i)$ for some i is hard assuming that iv's are randomly chosen. If iv's are arbitrarily chosen,

collision of ct_i can be connected to a forgery. For example, if an IV value iv^* collides q times in a set of public keys, an attacker may compute the function $\mathsf{AIM}(\mathsf{iv}^*,\mathsf{pt})$ for c times with distinct pt 's. Then, the probability of collision is approximately $qc/2^n$, which implies a security degradation.

Except the risk of collision, multiple pairs $\{(iv_i, ct_i)\}$ do not lead to a strengthened attack on AIM to the best of our knowledge. For algebraic attacks, any two sets of equations built for distinct pt's are not compatible. For statistical attacks, any two public-key pairs are not compatible to differential/linear cryptanalysis if corresponding pt's are distinct.

HASH FUNCTION SECURITY. The AlMer signature scheme requires a lot of calls to hash functions and extendable output functions (XOFs). All the hash functions and XOFs are based on NIST-standardized XOF SHAKE [NIS15]. SHAKE-128 is used for the L1 parameters, and SHAKE-256 is used for the L3 and L5 parameters. All the hash functions use 2λ -bit digests of the SHAKE output.

We expect the concrete security provided by SHAKE for collision and preimage resistance as claimed in [NIS15]. For $\lambda=128,256$, the preimage resistance of SHAKE- λ with k-bit digest is claimed to be $\min(2^k,2^{2\lambda})$ in the classical setting, and a cryptographic hash function with k-bit digest is generally believed to have $O(2^{k/2})$ preimage resistance in the quantum setting [Gro96]. In both cases, hash functions with 2λ -bit digests provide λ -bit preimage resistance. For collision resistance, while a generic quantum algorithm of finding a hash collision is of complexity $O(2^{k/3})$ when the output size is k bits [BHT98], Bernstein pointed out that the quantum hash collision algorithm has worse performance compared to classical algorithms in practice [Ber09]. Since it is claimed that k-bit digests of SHAKE- λ has collision resistance of $\min(2^{k/2}, \lambda)$ against classical attacks, the 2λ -bit digest also allows λ -bit collision resistance against classical and quantum attacks.

6.2 Soundness Analysis

In this section, we analyze the soundness error of the AlMer signature scheme to determine the set of parameters (λ, N, τ) . A more formal analysis is given in Section 5.1. Let τ_1 and τ_2 denote the number of repetitions for which the attacker need to make correct guesses on the first challenge $\epsilon_{k,j}$ in Phase 2 and the second challenge \bar{i}_k in Phase 4 in Algorithm 1, respectively. Then, it should be the case that $\tau = \tau_1 + \tau_2$. For i = 1, 2, let P_i be the probability that the attacker makes correct guesses for τ_i challenges in the i-th challenge space.

The first challenge is sampled from the set of size 2^n , so the probability of correctly guessing τ_1 challenges in the first challenge space is given as

$$P_1 = \sum_{k=\tau_1}^{\tau} {\tau \choose k} p^k \cdot (1-p)^{\tau-k}$$

where $p = 2^{-\lambda}$. On the other hand, since the second challenge space is of size N, and the attacker needs to make correct guesses in the remaining repetitions, one has

$$P_2 = 1/N^{\tau_2} = 1/N^{\tau - \tau_1}$$
.

Overall, the attack complexity is given as

$$C = \min_{0 \le \tau_1 \le \tau} (1/P_1 + 1/P_2).$$

Our parameters are set in a way such that $C \geq 2^{\lambda}$.

6.3 Known Attacks to AIM

6.3.1 Brute-force Attack

Although a brute-force attack on a symmetric primitive is rather trivial (compared to public key cryptosystems), we estimate its gate-count complexity to compare the concrete security of AIM and AES.

By using addition chain exponentiation technique [Knu97], the numbers of required finite field multiplications are 11, 14, and 17 for AlM-I, AlM-III, and AlM-V, respectively (see Table 6). Assuming that a single \mathbb{F}_{2^n} -multiplication requires n^2 AND gates and n^2 XOR gates, the gate-count complexity of a brute-force attack is given as $2^{146.4}$, $2^{211.9}$, and 2^{277} for AlM-I, AlM-III, and AlM-V, respectively. It implies that a brute-force attack on AlM is more costly than AES for each category of security strength.

6.3.2 Algebraic Attacks

Since our attack model does not allow multiple evaluations for a single instance of AIM, we do not consider interpolation, higher-order differential, and cube attacks. As discussed in [KHS⁺22], we focus on the Gröbner basis and the XL attacks using a single evaluation of AIM. We also consider algebraic attacks which have been recently studied for MPC/ZK-friendly ciphers such LowMC [ARS⁺15] and large S-box-based ones.

How to Build Boolean Systems of Equations from AlM. There are multiple ways of building a system of equations from an evaluation of AlM. We can categorize them according to the number of (Boolean) variables and find the optimal choice of variables to obtain a system of the lowest degree. Since $\ell \in \{2,3\}$ is recommended, we consider 4 types of systems of equations as follows.

- 1. Systems in n variables.
- 2. Systems in 2n variables.
- 3. Systems in 3n variables.
- 4. Systems in 4n variables (only for AIM-V).

Using the quadratic relation between an input and the output of each Mersenne S-box, we can establish a system of *quadratic* equations in $(\ell+1)n$ variables. With fewer variables, the resulting systems would have higher degrees. The goal of this section is to find a system of equations of the lowest degree for each type, where such systems of equations are denoted $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_{\text{quad}}$, respectively. The optimal systems of equations will be defined using the following variables.

- x: the input of AIM, i.e., pt
- y_i : the output of $Mer[e_i]$ for $i = 1, \dots, \ell$
- *z*: the output of Lin

The underlying $\ell+1$ Mersenne S-boxes determine explicit and implicit relations between these variables. For example, $\text{Mer}[e_i]$ implicitly determines 3n quadratic equations in x and y_i , while y_i (resp. x) can be explicitly represented by a polynomial in x (resp. y_i). We can also explicitly represent y_i using y_j for $j \neq i$ or z as follows.

$$\operatorname{\mathsf{Mer}}[e_i] \circ \operatorname{\mathsf{Mer}}[e_i]^{-1}(y_i) = y_i = \operatorname{\mathsf{Mer}}[e_i](\operatorname{\mathsf{Mer}}[e_*](z) \oplus \operatorname{\mathsf{ct}}).$$

The degree of y_i with respect to z might be greater than the degree of $Mer[e_i] \circ Mer[e_*]$ due to the constant addition, while we will ignore the effect by ct for simplicity. Table 4 shows the degrees of all the possible explicit relations from AIM, and this table can be used to find the optimal systems of equations.

After exhaustive search, we found the optimal systems S_1 , S_2 , S_3 and S_{quad} . First, in order to obtain the S_1 systems, choose z as an n-bit variable. Then x and y_i can be represented as polynomials in z; x is of degree e_* , y_1 is of degree $\deg(\mathsf{Mer}[e_1] \circ \mathsf{Mer}[e_*])$, and y_3 (only for AIM-V) is of degree $\deg(\mathsf{Mer}[e_3] \circ \mathsf{Mer}[e_*])$ with respect to z. Let Lin' denote a linear function such that $y_2 = \mathsf{Lin}'(y_1, y_3, z)$ (which is uniquely determined by Lin). Then we have the following equation.

$$\big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_*](z) \oplus \mathsf{ct}\big)^{2^{e_2}} = \big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_*](z) \oplus \mathsf{ct}\big) \cdot \mathsf{Lin'}\Big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_1]\big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_*](z) \oplus \mathsf{ct}\big), \mathsf{Mer}[e_3]\big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_*](z) \oplus \mathsf{ct}\big), z\Big).$$

Relation	AIM-I	AIM-III	AIM-V
$Mer[e_1]$	3	5	3
$Mer[e_1]^{-1}$	43	77	171
$Mer[e_2]$	27	29	53
$Mer[e_2]^{-1}$	19	53	29
$Mer[e_2] \circ Mer[e_1]^{-1}$	9	121	103
$Mer[e_1] \circ Mer[e_2]^{-1}$	57	73	87
$Mer[e_*]$	5	7	5
$Mer[e_*]^{-1}$	77	55	205
$Mer[e_1] \circ Mer[e_*]$	5	7	5
$Mer[e_2] \circ Mer[e_*]$	27	29	53
$Mer[e_*]^{-1} \circ Mer[e_1]^{-1}$	67	78	171
$Mer[e_*]^{-1} \circ Mer[e_2]^{-1}$	64	100	110
$Mer[e_3]$	-	-	7
$Mer[e_3]^{-1}$	-	-	183
$Mer[e_3] \circ Mer[e_1]^{-1}$	-	-	173
$Mer[e_3] \circ Mer[e_2]^{-1}$	-	-	203
$Mer[e_1] \circ Mer[e_3]^{-1}$	-	-	37
$Mer[e_2] \circ Mer[e_3]^{-1}$	-	-	227
$Mer[e_3] \circ Mer[e_*]$	-	-	7
$Mer[e_*]^{-1} \circ Mer[e_3]^{-1}$	-	-	125

Table 4: Degrees of the compositions and the inverses of the Mersenne S-boxes of AIM.

Since every Mersenne S-box used in AIM is represented by 3n quadratic equations, the above system of equations can be seen as a system of 3n (Boolean) equations of degree

$$e_* + \max (\deg(\mathsf{Mer}[e_1] \circ \mathsf{Mer}[e_*]), \deg(\mathsf{Mer}[e_3] \circ \mathsf{Mer}[e_*])).$$

Second, in order to obtain the S_2 systems, we begin with x and y_2 , and using $y_1 = \text{Mer}[e_1](x)$ and $y_3 = \text{Mer}[e_3](x)$ (only for AIM-V), we establish the following system of equations.

$$x\cdot y_2=x^{2^{e_2}},$$

$$\mathsf{Lin}\big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_1](x),y_2,\mathsf{Mer}[e_3](x)\big)\cdot (x\oplus \mathsf{ct})=\mathsf{Lin}\big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_1](x),y_2,\mathsf{Mer}[e_3](x)\big)^{2^{e_*}}$$

We note that 3n quadratic equations are obtained from the first equation, and 3n equations of degree $\max(e_1, e_3) + 1$ from the second one.

Third, in order to obtain the S_3 system for AIM-V, we begin with x, y_2 and y_3 , and using $y_1 = \text{Mer}[e_1](x)$, we establish the following system of equations.

$$\begin{aligned} x\cdot y_2 &= x^{2^{e_2}}\\ x\cdot y_3 &= x^{2^{e_3}}\\ \mathrm{Lin}\big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_1](x),y_2,y_3\big)\cdot (x\oplus \mathsf{ct}) &= \mathrm{Lin}\big(\mathsf{Mer}[e_1](x),y_2,y_3\big)^{2^{e_*}}. \end{aligned}$$

We note that 6n quadratic equations are obtained from the first and the second equations, and 3n equations of degree $e_1 + 1$ are from the third one.

Finally, the S_{quad} systems are quadratic with x and all the y_i 's being variables. Using the implicit relations

for all $\ell + 1$ S-boxes, we establish the following system of equations.

$$\begin{aligned} x \cdot y_1 &= x^{2^{e_1}} \\ x \cdot y_2 &= x^{2^{e_2}} \\ &\vdots \\ x \cdot y_\ell &= x^{2^{e_\ell}} \\ \operatorname{Lin}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_\ell) \cdot (x \oplus \operatorname{ct}) &= \operatorname{Lin}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_\ell)^{2^{e_*}}, \end{aligned}$$

which can be extended to a system of $3(\ell+1)n$ quadratic equations in $(\ell+1)n$ variables.

Scheme	Name	#Var	Variables	(#Eq, Deg)	Gröbi	Gröbner Basis		XL	Dinur	[Din21]
					$\overline{d_{reg}}$	Time	\overline{D}	Time	Time	Memory
AIM-I	S_1	n	z	(3n, 10)	51	300.8	52	244.8	137.3	138.3
	S_2	2n	x, y_2	(3n,2) + (3n,4)	22	214.9	14	150.4	248.3	253.7
	S_{quad}	3n	x, y_1, y_2	(9n, 2)	20	222.8	12	148.0	330.1	346.3
AIM-III	S_1	n	z	(3n, 14)	82	474.0	84	375.3	202.1	203.3
	S_2	2n	x, y_2	(3n,2) + (3n,6)	31	310.6	18	203.0	377.5	382.9
	S_{quad}	3n	x, y_1, y_2	(9n, 2)	27	310.8	15	194.1	487.7	512.1
AIM-V	S_1	n	z	(3n, 12)	100	601.1	101	489.7	264.1	265.9
	S_2	2n	x, y_2	(3n,2) + (3n,8)	40	406.2	26	289.5	506.3	511.7
	S_3	3n	x, y_2, y_3	(6n,2)+(3n,4)	47	510.4	20	260.6	716.1	732.3
	S_{quad}	4n	x, y_1, y_2, y_3	(12n, 2)	45	530.3	19	266.1	854.4	897.7

Table 5: Optimal systems of equations and their security against algebraic attacks. (#Eq, Deg) = (a, b) means that the system contains a equations of degree b. The degree of regularity (resp. the target degree) of the system is denoted d_{reg} (resp. D). The time and the memory complexities are estimated in bits.

Table 5 summarizes the number of variables, the number of equations, and their degrees for the optimal systems of equations, and their security against the Gröbner basis attack, the XL attack, and Dinur's algorithm based on the polynomial method [Din21].

GRÖBNER BASIS ATTACK. The Gröbner basis attack is to solve a system of equations by computing its Gröbner basis. The complexity of Gröbner basis computation can be estimated using the *degree of regularity* of the system of equations [BFS04]. Consider a system of m equations in n variables $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^m$. Let d_i denote the degree of f_i for $i=1,2,\ldots,m$. If the system of equations is over-defined, i.e., m>n, then the degree of regularity can be estimated by the smallest of the degrees of the terms with non-positive coefficients for the following Hilbert series under the semi-regular assumption [Frö85].

$$HS(z) = \frac{1}{(1-z)^n} \prod_{i=1}^m (1-z^{d_i}).$$

Given the degree of regularity d_{reg} , the complexity of computing a Gröbner basis of the system is known to be

$$O\left(\binom{n+d_{reg}}{d_{reg}}^{\omega}\right)$$

where ω is the linear algebra constant.³ See [KHS⁺22] for the details.

³It means that the complexity matrix multiplication of two $n \times n$ matrices is $O(n^{\omega})$. We will conservatively set this constant to be 2 in this document.

For AIM, the system S_2 turns out to permit the most efficient computation of a Gröbner basis; the corresponding Hilbert series is given as

$$\frac{(1-z^2)^{5n}(1-z^d)^{3n}}{(1-z)^{2n}}$$

including the field equations of degree 2 in all variables in S_2 , where $d = \max(e_1, e_3) + 1$. The estimated degrees of regularity and the corresponding time complexities of computing Gröbner bases are given in Table 5 for AIM-I, III, V.

XL ATTACK. The XL algorithm, proposed by Courtois et al. [CKPS00], can be viewed as a generalization of the relinearization attack [KS99]. For a system of m quadratic equations in n variables over \mathbb{F}_2 , the XL algorithm extends the system of equations by multiplying all the monomials of degree at most D-2 for some D > 2 to obtain a larger number of linearly independent equations than the number of monomials appearing in the system. Since the number of monomials of degree at most D-2 is $\sum_{i=1}^{D-2} \binom{n}{i}$, the resulting system consists of $(\sum_{i=0}^{D-2} \binom{n}{i})m$ equations of degree at most D with at most $\sum_{i=1}^{D} \binom{n}{i}$ monomials of degree at most D. When the number of equations equals the number of monomials as D grows, one can solve the extended system of equations by linearization.

The complexity of the XL attack depends on the number of linearly independent equations obtained from the XL algorithm, while we can loosely upper bound the number of linearly independent equations by $(\sum_{i=0}^{D-2} {n \choose i})m$. Under the assumption that all the equations obtained from the XL algorithm are linearly independent, which is in favor of the attacker, we can search for the (smallest) degree D such that

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^{D-2} \binom{n}{i}\right) m \ge T_D \tag{6}$$

where T_D denotes the exact number of monomials appearing in the extended system of equations, which is upper bounded by $\sum_{i=1}^{D} \binom{n}{i}$. Once D is fixed, the extended system of equations can be solved by trivial linearization whose time complexity is given as $O\left(T_D^{\omega}\right)$.

For AIM-I and III, the system S_{quad} permits the most efficient XL attack. For the system S_{quad} , the target degree D is determined as the smallest one satisfying

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^{D-2} \binom{3n}{i}\right) 9n \ge T_D$$

where the number of monomials T_D is assumed to be $\sum_{i=1}^{D} {3n \choose i}$. On the other hand, the system S_3 is the most efficient system for AIM-V. We note that more careful analysis is required for the other systems of equations of different degrees with a particular structure. For example, the S_2 system of AIM-V consists of two types of equations of different degrees: 3n equations of degree 2, and 3n equations of degree d, all in x and y_2 , where $d = \max(e_1, e_3) + 1$. We observe that each type of equations have 2^n solutions since y_2 is uniquely determined for each x, and this property makes one to compute the target degree in a different way.

With target degree D, the extended system of equations for S_2 is represented as

$$M\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} M_2 \\ \vdots \\ M_* \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{c}$$

where v is a vector of monomials of degree at most D in x and y_2 , M_2 (resp. M_*) is the matrix whose rows are the coefficients of the extended system from $Mer[e_2]$ (resp. $Mer[e_*]$), and c is the corresponding constant vector. The number of rows of M_2 is greater than that of M_* since the original system from Mer[e_2] has a lower degree than $Mer[e_*]$. In order for the XL attack to work with the target degree D, the matrix M

should have full rank and the number of rows should not be smaller than the number of columns, so that v is uniquely determined.

On the other hand, the submatrix M_2 itself cannot have full rank since $M_2\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{c}$ should have 2^n solutions (one for each x) as its original system from $\text{Mer}[e_2]$ does. More precisely, the nullity of M_2 should not be smaller than $\sum_{j=1}^{D} \binom{n}{j}$. Otherwise, it implies that there is a linear relation on the monomials consisting of only x variables, for example,

$$\sum_{\mathbf{a}} c_{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{a}} = 0$$

where $\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{a}} = \prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{a_i}$ for $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \leq D$, and $c_{\mathbf{a}}$ is a Boolean constant. This relation cannot hold for all \mathbf{x} , which is a contradiction. Then, for M to have full rank, the rank of M_* should be at least the nullity of M_2 , yielding a necessary condition that the number of rows of M_* should be at least $\sum_{j=1}^D \binom{n}{j}$ provided that M has no nonzero column. As the number of rows of M_* is the number of equations in the extended system from $\mathrm{Mer}[e_*]$, the target degree D should satisfy the following.

$$3n \cdot \sum_{j=0}^{D-d} \binom{2n}{j} \ge \sum_{j=1}^{D} \binom{n}{j}. \tag{7}$$

For the S_2 system of AIM-III and AIM-V, the target degree is determined by the minimum D satisfying (7), whereas it is not for AIM-I. The difference comes from the small value of d=4 of AIM-I compared to d=6 and d=8 of AIM-III and AIM-V, respectively. A similar argument also holds for the S_3 system of AIM-V, but it does not determine the target degree either due to the small value of d=4 in S_3 .

Table 5 shows the target degree and corresponding attack complexity for each system of AIM. We note that the time complexity of the XL attack has been estimated under the strong assumption that all the equations obtained by the XL algorithm are linearly independent, which might not be the case in general. Even with this strong assumption, we see that AIM is secure against the XL attack for all the parameter sets.

ALGEBRAIC ATTACKS ON SYMMETRIC PRIMITIVES WITH LARGE S-BOX. Several symmetric primitives based on large fields have been proposed with applications to zero-knowledge proof systems such as MiMC [AGR⁺16], Starkad/Poseidon [GKR⁺21], and Jarvis [AD18]. Some of them have been analyzed with algebraic attacks exploiting the property that their linear layers are represented as polynomials of low degrees over large fields [ACG⁺19, EGL⁺20]. However, AIM uses a randomized linear layer which is expected to have degree 2^{n-1} over \mathbb{F}_{2^n} . For this reason, the above attacks would not apply to AIM.

APPLICABILITY OF ALGEBRAIC ATTACKS ON LOWMC. LowMC [ARS+15] is the first FHE/MPC-friendly block cipher, and one of its applications is to the Picnic signature scheme. LowMC has been analyzed in the context of the signature scheme, where an adversary is given only a single plaintext-ciphertext pair. In this setting, a number of algebraic attacks have been proposed [BBDV20, BBVY21, LIM21b, Din21, LMSI22, BBCV22], mainly based on two algebraic techniques: linearization by guessing, and the polynomial method [Bei93].

The main idea of linearization-based algebraic attacks on LowMC, first proposed in [BBDV20], is to linearize the underlying S-boxes by guessing a single output bit for each S-box evaluation. In this way, one obtains a system of low-degree polynomial equations at the cost of guessing a small number of bits, and it can be solved efficiently. This linearization technique has been further extended [BBVY21, LIM21b]. However, this type of attacks work only when the underlying S-boxes are of small size. When it comes to AIM, its large S-boxes yield dense implicit equations over \mathbb{F}_2 , which makes the *guess-and-linearization* infeasible.

The polynomial method [Bei93] has been studied in complexity theory, and later found its application to the design of algorithms for certain problems [Wil14], one of which is to solve a system of polynomial equations over a finite field. The resulting algorithm is known as the first algorithm that achieves exponential speedup over the exhaustive search even in the worst case [LPT+17]. Recently, Dinur [Din21] proposed a generic equation-solving algorithm based on the polynomial method with time complexity $O(n^2 \cdot$

 $^{^4}$ This condition is satisfied by the assumption that all monomials of degrees up to D appear in the extended system, which can be assumed in the case of AIM.

 $2^{(1-1/(2.7d))n})$ where n is the number of variables and d is the degree of the system. One arguable issue of this algorithm is its high memory complexity of $O(n^2 \cdot 2^{(1-1/(1.35d))n})$, making it infeasible in practice. For AIM, the memory complexity required by Dinur's algorithm exceeds the security level, i.e., more than 2^{λ} bits of memory is required for each level of security λ . Table 5 shows the time and the memory complexity of the Dinur's method for each system of AIM. Subsequent works [LMSI22, BBCV22] proposed to reduce the memory complexity of the algorithm at the cost of slightly increased time complexity, while these variants do not apply to AIM since they all follow the guess-and-linearization strategy.

6.3.3 Differential and Linear Cryptanalysis

An adversary is allowed to evaluate AIM with an arbitrary input pair (pt, iv) in an offline manner. However, such an evaluation is independent of the actual secret key pt*, so the adversary is not able to collect a sufficient amount of statistical data which are related to pt*. Furthermore, the linear layer of AIM is generated independently at random for every user. For this reason, we believe that our construction is secure against any type of statistical attacks including (impossible) differential, boomerang, and integral attacks.

In the multi-target scenario, an adversary has no information on which users have the same secret. Even for multiple users with the same iv, statistical attacks would not be feasible since all the inputs and their differences are unknown to the adversary. That said, to prevent any unexpected variant of differential and linear cryptanalysis, we summarize a lower bound of the weight of differential and correlation trails in this section.

DIFFERENTIAL CRYPTANALYSIS. Since AIM is a key-less primitive, we will estimate the security of AIM against differential cryptanalysis by lower bounding the weight of a differential trail (for example, as in [DVA12]).

Given a function $f:\{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^m$, the weight of a differential $(\Delta x, \Delta y) \in \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^m$ is defined by

$$w_d(\Delta x \xrightarrow{f} \Delta y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} n - \log_2 |\{x \in \{0,1\}^n : f(x \oplus \Delta x) \oplus f(x) = \Delta y\}|.$$

The weight is not defined if there is no x such that $f(x \oplus \Delta x) \oplus f(x) = \Delta y$. Otherwise, we say that Δx and Δy are *compatible*.

A differential trail is the composition of compatible differentials. For AIM, a differential trail from an input to the output (ignoring the feed-forward) can be represented as follows.

$$Q = \Delta_0 \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Mer}[e_1, \dots, e_\ell]} \Delta_1 \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Lin}} \Delta_2 \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Mer}[e_*]} \Delta_3.$$

Then the weight of the differential trail Q is defined as

$$w_d(Q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=0}^2 w_d(\Delta_i \to \Delta_{i+1}).$$

The weight of a Mersenne S-box is determined by the number of solutions to $\mathsf{Mer}[e](x \oplus \Delta x) \oplus \mathsf{Mer}[e](x) = \Delta y$, which is a polynomial equation of degree $2^e - 2$. Therefore, there are at most $2^e - 2$ solutions to this equation, which implies for $\Delta x \neq 0$,

$$w_d(\Delta x \xrightarrow{\mathsf{Mer}[e]} \Delta y) \ge n - \log_2(2^e - 2) \ge n - e.$$

Then we have

$$w_d(Q) = \sum_i w_d(\Delta_i \to \Delta_{i+1})$$
$$\geq \max_{1 \le i \le \ell} (n - e_i) = n - e_1.$$

So, for any differential trail Q, $w_d(Q)$ is close to λ with $\lambda=n$. We note that a trail Q such that $w_d(Q)<\lambda$ never incur a collision, and the existence of such trail does not imply the feasibility of differential cryptanalysis since an adversary is not given a large enough number of plaintext-ciphertext pairs to mount the analysis.

DIFFERENCE ENUMERATION ATTACK. Recently, difference enumeration attacks to LowMC have been proposed [RST18, LIM21a, LSW $^+$ 22], which require only a couple of chosen plaintext-ciphertext pairs. In such attacks, an adversary enumerates all possible input and output differences and tries to find a collision and recover the unknown key. This type of attacks work for LowMC since it is based on small S-boxes. So one can easily find all possible differentials in LowMC. On the other hand, AIM is based on n-bit S-boxes, making it infeasible to enumerate all possible differences of each S-box.

LINEAR CRYPTANALYSIS. In contrast to differential cryptanalysis, security against linear cryptanalysis has been rarely evaluated for key-less primitives since its goal is to retrieve the secret key, not finding a collision or a second-preimage. That said, we lower bound the weight of a correlation trail for completeness in a similar way to differential cryptanalysis.

Given a function $f: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^m$, the weight of a correlation $(\alpha,\beta) \in \{0,1\}^n \times \{0,1\}^m$ is defined by

$$w_l(\alpha \xrightarrow{f} \beta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} n - \log_2 \left| 2 \left| \left\{ x \in \{0, 1\}^n : \alpha^\top x = \beta^\top f(x) \right\} \right| - 2^n \right|.$$

The weight is not defined if there are exactly 2^{n-1} values for x such that $\alpha^{\top}x = \beta^{\top}f(x)$. Otherwise, we say that α and β are *compatible*.

A correlation trail is the composition of compatible correlations. For AIM, a correlation trail from an input to the output (ignoring the feed-forward) can be represented as follows.

$$Q = \alpha_0 \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Mer}[e_1, \dots, e_\ell]} \alpha_1 \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Lin}} \alpha_2 \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Mer}[e_*]} \alpha_3.$$

Then the weight of the correlation trail Q is defined as

$$w_l(Q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=0}^2 w_l(\alpha_i \to \alpha_{i+1}).$$

When d is not a power-of-2 and $f(x) = x^d$ is invertible over \mathbb{F}_{2^n} , one has the following generic bound [KSW19].

$$|2|\{x: \alpha^{\top}x = \beta^{\top}f(x)\}| - 2^n| < (d-1)2^{n/2}$$

for any compatible correlation (α, β) . Therefore the weight of a correlation trail of a Mersenne S-box is lower bounded by $w_l(Q) \geq \frac{n}{2} - e$. Then we have

$$w_l(Q) = \sum_i w_l(\alpha_i \to \alpha_{i+1})$$

$$\geq \max_{1 \le i \le \ell} (n/2 - e_i) + w_l(\alpha_2 \to \alpha_3)$$

$$\geq \max_{1 \le i \le \ell} (n/2 - e_i) + (n/2 - e_*)$$

$$= n - e_1 - e_*.$$

As Lin is a (full-rank) compression function, α_2 cannot be the zero mask. Since linear cryptanalysis requires $2^{2w_l(Q)}$ plaintext-ciphertext pairs, AIM would be secure against linear cryptanalysis if

$$2(n - e_1 - e_*) \ge \lambda$$

which is the case for AIM. We emphasize again that linear cryptanalysis is not practically relevant in our setting since AIM does not use any secret key, while all the inputs are kept secret and every user is assigned a distinct linear layer.

6.3.4 Quantum Attacks

Quantum attacks are classified into two types according to the attack model. In the Q1 model, an adversary is allowed to use quantum computation without making any quantum query, while in the Q2 model, both quantum computation and quantum queries are allowed [Zha12].

As a generic algorithm for exhaustive key search, Grover's algorithm has been known to give quadratic speedup compared to the classical brute-force attack [Gro96]. In this section, we investigate if any specialized quantum algorithm targeted at AIM might possibly achieve better efficiency than Grover's algorithm in the O1 model.

COST OF GROVER'S ALGORITHM. We consider the cost metric of NIST [NIS22], which is defined as the product of the quantum circuit size and the quantum circuit depth with respect to Clifford and T gates.

Given a one-way function f taking n bits as input, the circuit size and the depth of the preimage-finding attack on f using Grover's algorithm is estimated as follows [JBK⁺22].

(Grover's circuit size/depth) = (size/depth of
$$f$$
) \times $2 \times \left\lfloor \frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{2^n} \right\rfloor$.

The quantum circuit size and the depth of AIM can be computed in a modular manner. AIM is based on three types of operations: finite field multiplication, finite field squaring, and random matrix multiplication. The cost of finite field multiplication is estimated based on the state-of-the-art result of Toffoli-depth one implementation of finite field multiplication [JKL $^+$ 22], while we ignore the cost of modular reduction in finite field multiplication and finite field squaring since they are far more efficient than other operations [MCT17]. For random matrix multiplication and Toffoli gate decomposition, we refer to the recent implementation of LowMC [JBK $^+$ 22] and the implementation of [AMMR13] (using 8 Clifford gates and 7 T gates with depth 8), respectively.

Table 6 summarizes the total number of operations and the number of operations executed in serial (depth) for each type of operation where all the S-boxes are implemented with addition chain exponentiation by each shortest chain (see Section 8.1 for the detail). Based on these numbers and the above references, the total cost of Grover's algorithm on AIM is also estimated (in log) for each level of security. We see that AIM-I, AIM-III and AIM-V satisfy the security level I, III and V, respectively. Recently, Jang et al. [JKO+23] analyzed the cost of the Grover's algorithm on AIM-I, and the cost is given as $2^{160.11}$ which implies the security level L1.

Scheme	#0	perations, D	Total	Level of	
Scheme	FF Mul	FF Square	Mat Mul	Cost	Security
AIM-I	11, 9	32, 30	1, 1	159.79	I (≥157)
AIM-III	14, 11	38, 34	1, 1	225.22	III (≥221)
AIM-V	17, 11	64, 56	1, 1	291.74	V (≥285)

Table 6: The number of operations and the depth for each type of operation used in AIM, and the total cost of Grover's algorithm on AIM for each level of security.

QUANTUM ALGEBRAIC ATTACK. When an algebraic root-finding algorithm works over a small field, the guess-and-determine strategy might be effectively combined with Grover's algorithm, reducing the overall time complexity.

The GroverXL algorithm [BY18] is a quantum version of the FXL algorithm [CKPS00], which solves a system of multivariate quadratic equations over a finite field. A single evaluation of AIM can be represented by Boolean quadratic equations using intermediate variables. Precisely, we have a system of $4(\ell+1)n$ quadratic equations (including field equations) in $(\ell+1)n$ variables. For this system of equations, the time complexity of GroverXL is given as $2^{(0.3496+o(1))(\ell+1)n}$ when using $\omega=2$, which is worse than Grover's algorithm.

The QuantumBooleanSolve algorithm [FHK+17] is a quantum version of the BooleanSolve algorithm [BFSS13], which solves a system of Boolean quadratic equations. In [FHK+17], its time complexity has been analyzed only for a system of equations with the same number of variables and equations. A single

⁵In the call for proposals by NIST [NIS22], the security level I, III, V are defined as the strength of AES-128, AES-192, AES-256, respectively, against Grover's algorithm.

evaluation of AIM can be represented by $4(\ell+1)n$ quadratic equations in $(\ell+1)n$ variables. In this case, the complexity of QuantumBooleanSolve is given as $O(2^{0.462(\ell+1)n})$, which is worse than Grover's algorithm.

In contrast to the algorithms discussed above, Chen and Gao [CG22] proposed a quantum algorithm to solve a system of multivariate equations using the Harrow-Hassidim-Lloyd (HHL) algorithm [HHL09] that solves a sparse system of linear equations with exponential speedup. In brief, Chen and Gao's algorithm solves a system of linear equations from the Macaulay matrix by the HHL algorithm. It has been claimed that this algorithm enjoys exponential speedup for a certain set of parameters. When applied to AIM, the hamming weight of the secret key should be smaller than $O(\log n)$ to achieve exponential speedup [DGG⁺21]. Otherwise, this algorithm is slower than Grover's algorithm [DGG⁺21].

QUANTUM GENERIC ATTACK. A generic attack does not use any particular property of the underlying components (e.g., S-boxes for AIM). The underlying smaller primitives are typically modeled as public random permutations or functions. The Even-Mansour cipher [EM97], the FX-construction [KR01] and a Feistel cipher [LR86] have been analyzed in the classic and generic attack model. As their quantum analogues, the Even-Mansour cipher [KM12, BHNP+19], the FX-construction [LM17, HS18] and a Feistel cipher [KM10] have been analyzed in the Q1 or Q2 model. Most of these attacks can be seen as a combination of Simon's period finding algorithm [Sim97] (in the Q2 model), and Grover's/offline Simon's algorithms [BHNP+19] (in the Q1 model). Since Simon's period finding algorithm requires multiple queries to a *keyed* construction (which is not the case for AIM), we believe that the above attacks do not apply to AIM in a straightforward manner.

6.4 Attacks in the Multi-User Setting

The analysis of the multi-user security of a cryptographic scheme is crucial, as most cryptographic schemes are used by multiple users in practice. In this setting, an adversary is given multiple users' instances (e.g., public keys and corresponding signatures), and it aims to attack one of them.

MULTI-USER EUF-CMA SECURITY. Since the EUF-CMA security is a fundamental requirement for digital signatures, it is natural to consider Multi-User EUF-CMA (MU-EUF-CMA) security in the multi-user setting. Here, the adversary is given multiple signing oracles (corresponding to distinct public keys), and tries to generate a valid forgery under one of given public keys through a chosen message attack. Thanks to the generic reduction from EUF-CMA security to MU-EUF-CMA security [GMLS02], AlMer provides MU-EUF-CMA security with losses that are (at most) linear in the number of users. In addition, the concrete design of AlMer takes into account multi-user attacks, or more generally, *multi-target attacks*.

MULTI-TARGET ATTACKS. In the multi-target attack, an adversary is given a multiple number of targets, for example, the outputs of a cryptosystem computed with different secret keys. This is inherently possible in the multi-user setting, and even in a single-user setting, when multiple targets are available to the adversary.

There are many examples of successful multi-target attacks. In [DN19], Dinur and Nadler proposed an effective multi-target attack on Picnic version 1.0. The main idea is that an attacker collects multiple outputs generated from unknown seeds of the unopened party in the MPCitH protocol, compares them to the outputs from guessed ones, trying to find a collision using a certain efficient algorithm such as hash tables to recover the seed of the unopened party. Once the seed is revealed, the secret key is also recovered from its additive shares. The above attack is mitigated in the next version of the Picnic signature by using a random salt and domain seperation prefixes as an additional input of underlying hash functions and XOFs.

Multi-target attacks have also been proposed on hash-based signature schemes [BXKSN21, YAG21]. As many hash outputs are used as secret keys of the underlying one-time signature (OTS), the seed guessing technique also works in hash-based signatures, and the recovered seed reveals the corresponding secret keys. It can be mitigated by domain separation of the hash functions according to the position of the OTS instances. Another multi-target attack on SPHINCS⁺ of the L5 parameter set exploits the small state size of SHA-256 [PKC22], but it is not applicable when SHAKE256 is used as the underlying hash function.

When it comes to AlMer, the use of iv mitigates multi-target attacks. AlM generates its linear layer from a random iv, so not only each user has a different secret key (i.e., the input of AlM), but also the functions

themselves are all different. Moreover, similarly to the mitigation techniques described above, a random 2λ -bit salt is used, and domain separation is applied to each hash function and the XOF used in the signature. It would prevent any type of efficient multi-target preimage search attack, such as time/memory/data trade-off attacks [BS00] and parallel quantum multi-target preimage attacks [BB18]. We refer to Section 7.2 for detailed specifications of the hash functions.

KEY SUBSTITUTION ATTACKS. In a key substitution attack (KSA), an adversary is given a signature σ_A under a public key pk_A . Then the adversary tries to produce a fake public key pk_E such that σ_A is also a valid signature under pk_E . This type of attacks were first considered in [BWM99], under the name *unknown key-share attacks*, and later formalized in [MS04]. Although the possibility of KSA does not violate the MU-EUF-CMA security, it may need to be considered in practical applications of digital signatures, in particular, when non-repudation property is required [KM13]. Fortunately, the security against KSAs can be achieved in the generic way using the following theorem.

Theorem 3 (Theorem 6 in [MS04]). Let $\Pi = (Gen, Sign, Verify)$ be an EUF-CMA secure digital signature scheme. Then, $\Pi' = (Gen, Sign', Verify)$ is a secure digital signature scheme against KSAs with

$$\mathsf{Sign}' = \mathsf{Sign}(\mathsf{sk}, \mathsf{Encode}(\mathsf{pk}, m))$$

where Encode is an unambiguous encoding scheme of public keys and messages.

In AlMer, a (fixed length) public key is always appended to the message before hashing, so we believe that AlMer is secure against KSAs.

6.5 Side-Channel Attacks

The key generation of AlMer is executed in constant time. The signing algorithm is not executed in constant time while the timing difference originates only from public information. When N is not a power-of-two, the time that it takes to construct seeds $_k$ in Algorithm 1 (Line 33) depends on the undisclosed index \bar{i}_k which is public information. Therefore, we conclude that the secret information of AlMer does not affect the running time of AlMer.

Many masking techniques to thwart side-channel attacks follow the form of secret-sharing [ISW03, BBP+17, KR19]. As AlMer generates a signature by simulating secret-shared computation of an one-way function, it seemingly provides a natural mitigation to some side-channel attacks. Nevertheless, we expect that AlMer will be vulnerable to power [KJJ99] attacks, electromagnetic radiation (EM) attacks [QS01] and fault-injection attacks [BDL97] without any protection in its implementation. Recently, machine learning has also been combined with a number of existing side-channel attacks on conventional/post-quantum encryption schemes [DGD+19, WD20, DNG22]. We will prepare appropriate countermeasures against these attacks in the future.

7 Specification of the AIMer Signature Scheme

7.1 Field Representation

In AIM, fields $\mathbb{F}_{2^{128}}$, $\mathbb{F}_{2^{192}}$, and $\mathbb{F}_{2^{256}}$ are used for AIM-I, AIM-III, and AIM-V, respectively. Each field is defined by $\mathbb{F}_2[X]/(f(X))$ with a primitive polynomial f(X). The primitive polynomials of low weights have been chosen for efficient implementation as follows.

- AIM-I: $f(X) = X^{128} + X^7 + X^2 + X + 1$,
- AIM-III: $f(X) = X^{192} + X^7 + X^2 + X + 1$,
- AIM-V: $f(X) = X^{256} + X^{10} + X^5 + X^2 + 1$.

Prefix	Description	Functions
0x01	Computing challenge hash in phase 2.	h_1_commitment
0x02	Computing challenge hash in phase 4.	h_2 _commitment
0x03	Computing parties' seeds as binary tree leaves.	expand_seed, expand_seed_x4
0x04	Committing to parties' seeds and generating tapes.	<pre>commit_to_seed_and_expand_tape,</pre>
		${\tt commit_to_seed_and_expand_tape_x4}$
-	Expanding hash in phase 2.	h_1 _expand
-	Expanding hash in phase 4.	h_2 -expand
-	Generating affine layer.	${\tt generate_matrices_L_and_U}$

Table 7: The prefix of each types of input in SHAKE.

Let x[i] denote the i-th coefficient bit of $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ for $i = 0, \ldots, n-1$, where the most (resp. least) significant bit is x[0] (resp. x[n-1]). A field element is also written in hexadecimal format. For example, we will write a hexadecimal number $0xA0\underbrace{0\ldots0}_{2^n}01$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{128}}$ to denote $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{128}}$ such that x[127] = x[125] = x[125]

x[0] = 1 and x[i] = 0 for the other indices i, which corresponds to $X^{127} + X^{125} + 1$ as a polynomial.

7.2 Hash Functions and Extendable-Output Functions

All the hash functions in AlMer are based on SHAKE128 or SHAKE256 [NIS15]. We use SHAKE128 with 256-bit outputs for n=128 and SHAKE256 with 384 and 512-bit outputs for n=192,256, respectively. As SHAKE supports arbitrary length of outputs, the extendable-output functions (XOFs) are also based on SHAKE. We use SHAKE128 for n=128 and SHAKE256 for n=192,256 in a similar manner to hash functions. We summarize all the hash functions and XOFs in Table 7.

As the SHAKE implementation supports parallel execution of four instances, we computed them in batches of four if it is possible to compute the hashes in parallel, such as expanding parties' seeds as binary tree leaves (expand_seed_x4) and committing to parties' seeds and generating tapes (commit_to_seed_and_expand_tape_x4).

When the SHAKE hash functions are used for different types of input, we separated the hash functions by adding 1-byte prefix in each input to prevent hash collisions, except functions h_1_expand, h_2_expand, and generate_matrices_L_and_U.

The function h_1_expand (resp. h_2_expand) is a function expanding hash values in Phase 2 (resp. Phase 4). The domain separation is not applied to h_1_expand (resp. h_2_expand) because the input of the hash function is a hash digest derived from h_1_commitment (resp. h_2_commitment), which is already hashed by a domain-separated function.

In the function generate_matrices_L_and_U, the input to the hash function is an iv of size n. On the other hand, the input to the other hash functions is at least 3n bits or longer. Therefore the input to the hash function in the generate_matrices_L_and_U function would not collide with any input to the hash functions used in the other functions. For this reason, domain separation is not applied to the generate_matrices_L_and_U function.

The functions hash_init and hash_init_x4 are used for hash functions with no prefix, and the functions hash_init_prefix and hash_init_prefix_x4 are used for hash functions with 1-byte prefix.

7.3 Key Generation

Key generation is executed via a function $aimer_keygen$. First, the input of AIM pt, and the initial vector iv are randomly chosen. Then the outputs of AIM ct is determined by ct = AIM(iv, pt). The input pt is the secret key of AIMer and (iv, ct) is the corresponding public key.

The affine layer in AIM consists of an $n \times \ell n$ binary matrix A and a vector b of size n, derived from iv. The matrix $A = [A_1 | \dots | A_\ell]$ is composed of ℓ invertible matrices A_i . Each invertible matrix $A_i = L_i \times U_i$ is obtained

by multiplying an $n \times n$ lower triangular matrix L_i and an $n \times n$ upper triangular matrix U_i where an lower triangular matrix L (resp. upper triangular matrix L) is a square matrix in which all the entries above (resp. below) the main diagonal are zero. In matrix L (resp. L), we say that L[i][j] (resp. L[i][j]) is a *fixed bit* if $i \le j$ (resp. $i \ge j$) and L[i][j] (resp. L[i][j]) is a *free bit* if $i \ge j$ (resp. $i \le j$). In summary, L is of the form

$$L[i][j] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i < j, \\ 0 \text{ or } 1 & \text{if } i > j, \end{cases}$$

and U is of the form

$$\mathtt{U}[\mathtt{i}][\mathtt{j}] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathtt{i} = \mathtt{j}, \\ 0 \text{ or } 1 & \text{if } \mathtt{i} < \mathtt{j}, \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathtt{i} > \mathtt{j}. \end{cases}$$

XOF is initialized with the initial vector iv, and the *free bits* in each matrices and the vector b are determined by the outputs of the XOF. The procedure to generate the lower triangular matrix L and the upper triangular matrix U is described in Algorithm 6 and 7, respectively. In the pseudocodes, XOF.squeeze(t) denotes a t-byte sequence squeezed from the XOF. After generating $L_1, U_1, \ldots, L_\ell, U_\ell$ in the order as presented, b is generated by b \leftarrow XOF.squeeze(t) in little endian order. Note that XOF is stateful, as it is initialized by iv and maintains its state throughout the generation of the matrices and the vector.

The matrices and the vector are generated from the function generate_matrices_L_and_U. In this function, matrix_A corresponds to $L_1, U_1, \ldots, L_\ell, U_\ell$. Since each matrix A_i is multiplied by the vector $Mer[e_i](pt)$ only once during key generation, $A_i \cdot Mer[e_i](pt)$ is computed in the order of $L_i \cdot (U_i \cdot Mer[e_i](pt))$.

Algorithm 6: Algorithm to generate the lower triangular matrix L:

```
1 for each i \in [n] do
      for each j \in [n] do
          if i < j then
           L[i][j] = 0.
          if i = j then
L[i][j] = 1.
5
7 for each j \in [n] do
      for each i \in [n/8] do
          if There is a free bit in L[8i:8i+7][j] then
9
10
               x \leftarrow XOF.squeeze(1).
               for each t \in [8] do
11
                   if L[8i + t][j] is a free bit then
12
                    L[8i+t][j] \leftarrow (t+1)-th least significant bit in x.
```

7.4 Signature Generation

Input: Signer's key pair (pk = (iv, ct), sk = pt), msg as a byte array to be signed.

Output: Signature σ on msg as a byte array.

// Phase 1

Algorithm 7: Algorithm to generate the upper triangular matrix U:

```
1 for each i \in [n] do
        for each j \in [n] do
2
            if i > j then
3
               U[i][j] = 0.
            \quad \text{if } \mathtt{i} = \mathtt{j} \text{ then } \\
5
                 \mathtt{U}[\mathtt{i}][\mathtt{j}] = 1.
7 for each j \in [n] do
        for each i \in [n/8] do
            if There is a free bit in U[8i:8i+7][j] then
                 x \leftarrow XOF.squeeze(1).
10
                 for each t \in [8] do
11
                      if U[8i + t][j] is a free bit then
12
                           U[8i + t][j] \leftarrow (t + 1)-th least significant bit in x.
13
```

- 1. Declare a list of commitments party_seed_commitments[τ][N] (byte arrays, each of length 2n bits), a list of random tapes random_tapes[τ][N] (each of length $n + \ell n + n$ bits), and a 2n-bit value salt.
- 2. Generate the affine layer of AIM; (matrix_A, vector_b) ← generate_matrix_LU(iv).
- 3. Compute outputs of the first ℓ S-boxes of AIM; $sbox_outputs[\ell] \leftarrow compute_sbox_outputs(pt)$.
- 4. Sample a 2*n*-bit random salt salt.
- 5. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) Sample a *n*-bit random master_seed.
 - (b) Generate seeds of the parties from the master seed;

```
\texttt{seed\_trees[k]} \leftarrow \texttt{make\_seed\_tree}(\texttt{master\_seed}, \texttt{salt}, N, \texttt{k})
```

(c) For each party i from 0 to N-1, commit to the party's seed and expand tape after committing;

```
\begin{split} &(\texttt{party\_seed\_commitments}[\texttt{k}][\texttt{i}], \texttt{random\_tapes}[\texttt{k}][\texttt{i}]) \\ &\leftarrow \texttt{commit\_to\_seed\_and\_expand\_tape}(\texttt{get\_leaf}(\texttt{seed\_trees}[\texttt{k}], \texttt{salt}, \texttt{k}, \texttt{i})). \end{split}
```

- 6. Declare lists of finite field elements $\mathtt{shared_x}[\tau][N][\ell+1]$, $\mathtt{shared_z}[\tau][N][\ell+1]$, $\mathtt{shared_dot_a}[\tau][N]$, $\mathtt{shared_dot_a}[\tau][N]$, $\mathtt{shared_dot_a}[\tau][N]$, and a list of byte arrays $\mathtt{shared_pt}[\tau][N]$ (each of length n bits).
- 7. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) Zero-initialize the adjusting value Δpt ; $proof[k].pt_delta \leftarrow 0$.
 - (b) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - $i. \ \ Sample \ the \ tape; \ shared_pt[\mathtt{k}][\mathtt{i}] \leftarrow \mathtt{random_tapes}[\mathtt{k}][\mathtt{i}]_{[0:n-1]}.$
 - ii. $proof[k].pt_delta \leftarrow proof[k].pt_delta \oplus shared_pt[k][i]$.
 - (c) Compute the difference; $proof[k].pt_delta \leftarrow proof[k].pt_delta \oplus pt$.
 - (d) Adjust the first share; first_pt_share \leftarrow shared_pt[k][0] \oplus proof[k].pt_delta.

- (e) Zero-initialize the adjusting values Δz , which are proof [k].z_delta[0],...,proof [k].z_delta[$\ell-1$].
- (f) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - i. For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to $\ell-1$:
 - $A. \ \ Sample \ the \ tape; \ \mathtt{shared_t[k][i][j]} \leftarrow \mathtt{random_tapes[k][i]}_{[jn:(j+1)n-1]}.$
 - $B. \ \texttt{proof}[\texttt{k}]. \texttt{z_delta}[\texttt{j}] \leftarrow \texttt{proof}[\texttt{k}]. \texttt{z_delta}[\texttt{j}] \oplus \texttt{shared_t}[\texttt{k}][\texttt{i}][\texttt{j}].$
- (g) For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to $\ell 1$:
 - $i. \ \texttt{proof[k]}. \texttt{z_delta[j]} \leftarrow \texttt{proof[k]}. \texttt{z_delta[j]} \oplus \texttt{sbox_outputs[j]}.$
 - ii. Adjust the first shares; shared_t[k][0][j] \leftarrow shared_t[k][0][j] \oplus proof[k].z_delta[j].
- (h) Compute MPC multiplication triples described in Section 4.2, Step 3 of Phase 1; $(\mathtt{shared_z}[\mathtt{k}],\mathtt{shared_x}[\mathtt{k}]) \leftarrow \mathtt{aim_mpc}(\mathtt{shared_pt}[\mathtt{k}],\mathtt{ct},\mathtt{matrix_A},\mathtt{vector_b},\mathtt{shared_t}[\mathtt{k}]).$ The details is in Section 7.6.5.
- 8. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) Initialize a field element a as zero.
 - (b) Zero-initialize the adjusting value Δc ; proof[k].c_delta $\leftarrow 0$.
 - (c) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - $i. \ a_share \leftarrow a_share \oplus \texttt{random_tapes}[\mathtt{k}][\mathtt{i}]_{[(\ell+1)n:(\ell+2)n-1]}.$
 - $ii. \ \, \mathtt{shared_dot_c[k][i]} \leftarrow \mathtt{random_tapes[k][i]}_{\lceil (\ell+2)n:(\ell+3)n-1 \rceil}.$
 - iii. $proof[k].c_delta \leftarrow proof[k].c_delta \oplus shared_dot_c[k][i]$.
 - (d) $a \leftarrow a \times pt$.
 - (e) $proof[k].c_delta \leftarrow a \oplus proof[k].c_delta$.
 - $(f) \ \, \mathtt{shared_dot_c[k][0]} \leftarrow \mathtt{shared_dot_c[k][0]} \oplus \mathtt{proof[k]}.c_\mathtt{delta}.$

// Phase 2

- 9. Declare a list of challenge values epsilons[τ][$\ell + 1$].
- 10. Compute the first challenge hash; h_1 ← h_1_commitment() as described in Section 7.6.3 with input 0x01 || msg || pk || salt || party_seed_commitments || proof.pt_delta || proof.z_delta || proof.c_delta.
- 11. Expand the challenge from the hash; epsilons $\leftarrow h_1$ _expand(h_1).
- // Phase 3
- 12. Declare lists of field elements alpha_shares[τ][N] and v_shares[τ][N].
- 13. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) Initialize a field element alpha as zero.
 - (b) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - $i. \ \, alpha_shares[k][i] \leftarrow shared_x[k][i][0] \times epsilons[k][0] \oplus shared_dot_a[k][i] \ \, using \ the \ multiplication \ over \ \mathbb{F}_{2^{\lambda}}.$
 - ii. For each AIM S-Box index j from 1 to ℓ , construct the shares $\alpha_k^{(i)}$:
 - $A. \ alpha_shares[k][i] \leftarrow shared_x[k][i][j] \times epsilons[k][j] \oplus alpha_shares[k][i].$
 - iii. $alpha \leftarrow alpha \oplus alpha_shares[k][i]$.
 - (c) For each party i from 0 to N-1, compute the multiplication-checking protocol:
 - i. $v_shares[k][i] \leftarrow alpha \times shared_pt[k][i] \oplus shared_dot_c[k][i]$.

- ii. For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to ℓ :

 A. v_shares[k][i] \leftarrow epsilons[k][j] \times shared_z[k][i][j] \oplus v_shares[k][i].
- // Phase 4
- 14. Compute the second challenge hash; h_2 ← h_2_commitment() as described in Section 7.6.3 with input

```
0x02 \parallel salt \parallel h_1 \parallel (alpha_shares, v_shares).
```

- 15. Expand the challenge from the hash; missing_parties[τ] \leftarrow h_2_expand(h_2).
- // Phase 5
- 16. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$, reveal the view of the disclosed parties and the commitment of the undisclosed party:
 - (a) $proof[k].reveal_list \leftarrow reveal_all_but(seed_trees[k], missing_parties[k])$.
 - (b) $proof[k].missing_commitment \leftarrow party_seed_commitments[missing_parties[k]].$
 - $(c) \ proof[k].missing_alpha_share \leftarrow alpha_shares[k][missing_parties[k]].$
- 17. Serialize (salt, h_1, h_2, proof) as described in Section 7.6.7 and output it as the signature.

7.5 Signature Verification

Input: Signer's public key pk = (iv, ct), a message msg as a byte array, a signature σ as a byte array.

Output: Accept if σ is a valid signature of msg with respect to (iv, ct) or Reject otherwise.

- 1. Deserialize the signature σ to (salt, h_1, h_2, proof[τ]) and derive the challenge indices missing_parties[τ] as described in Section 7.6.6, where proof consists of (reveal_list, missing_commitment, pt_delta, c_delta, z_delta[0: ℓ 1], missing_alpha_share). If deserialization fails, reject the signature and output Reject.
- 2. Generate the affine layer of AIM; $(matrix_A, vector_b) \leftarrow generate_matrix_LU(iv)$.
- 3. Expand the first challenge epsilons $\leftarrow h_1$ -expand(h_1) as described in Section 7.6.4.
- 4. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) Reconstruct the seed tree as described in Section 7.6.1; seed_trees[k] \leftarrow reconstruct_seed_tree(reveal_list, salt, N, k), where reveal_list is included in the proof[k].
 - (b) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - i. If $i \neq missing_parties[k]$, recompute the commitment and the tapes; (party_seed_commitments[k][i], random_tapes[k][i]) \leftarrow commit_to_seed_and_expand_tape(get_leaf(seed_trees[k], salt, k, i)).
 - ii. If $i = missing_parties[k]$, move the missing commitment to party_seed_commitments; party_seed_commitments[k][i] $\leftarrow missing_commitment$, where missing_commitment is included in the proof[k].
- 5. Declare lists of field elements $\mathtt{shared_x}[\tau][N][\ell+1]$, $\mathtt{shared_z}[\tau][N][\ell+1]$, $\mathtt{shared_t}[\tau][N][\ell]$, $\mathtt{shared_dot_a}[\tau][N]$, $\mathtt{shared_dot_c}[\tau][N]$, a list of byte array $\mathtt{shared_pt}[\tau][N]$.
- 6. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:

- (a) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - i. If $i \neq missing_parties[k]$, sample the tapes; shared_pt[k][i] $\leftarrow random_tapes[k][i]_{[0:n-1]}$.
- (b) Adjust the first share of pt; $shared_pt[k][0] \leftarrow shared_pt[k][0] \oplus pt_delta$, where pt_delta is included in the proof[k].
- (c) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - i. If $i \neq missing_parties[k]$:
 - A. For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to $\ell-1$, Sample the tapes; shared_t[k][i][j] \leftarrow random_tapes[k][i][(j+1)n:(j+2)n-1].
- (d) For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to $\ell 1$:
 - i. Adjust the first share; shared_t[k][0][j] \leftarrow shared_t[k][0][j] \oplus z_delta[j], where z_delta[j] is included in the proof[k].
- (e) Recompute the multiplication triples; $(shared_z[k], shared_x[k]) \leftarrow aim_mpc(shared_pt[k], ct, matrix_A, vector_b, shared_t[k]).$
- 7. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - i. If $i \neq missing_parties[k]$:
 - A. Sample the tapes; $\text{shared_dot_a}[\mathtt{k}][\mathtt{i}] \leftarrow \texttt{random_tapes}[\mathtt{k}][\mathtt{i}]_{[(\ell+1)n:(\ell+2)n-1]}.$
 - $B. \ \ Sample \ the \ tapes; \ shared_dot_c[k][i] \leftarrow random_tapes[k][i]_{[(\ell+2)n:(\ell+3)n-1]}.$
 - (b) If missing_parties[k] \neq 0, adjust the first share; shared_dot_c[k][0] \leftarrow shared_dot_c[k][0] \oplus c_delta, where c_delta is provided in the proof[k].
- 8. Declare lists of field elements $alpha_shares[\tau][N]$ and $v_shares[\tau][N]$.
- 9. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - i. If $i \neq missing_parties[k]$:
 - A. Initialize a field element alpha as zero.
 - $B. \ \ Recompute \ alpha_shares[k][i] \leftarrow shared_x[k][i][0] \times epsilons[k][0] \oplus shared_dot_a[k][i].$
 - C. For each AIM S-Box index j from 1 to ℓ , recompute alpha_shares[k][i] \leftarrow shared_x[k][i][j] \times epsilons[k][j] \oplus alpha_shares[k][i].
 - D. $alpha \leftarrow alpha \oplus alpha_shares[k][i]$.
 - (b) Compute alpha \leftarrow alpha \oplus missing_alpha_share, where missing_alpha_share is included in the proof[k].
 - (c) For each party i from 0 to N-1, recompute the multiplication-checking protocol:
 - i. If $i \neq missing_parties[k]$:
 - $A. \ \ Recompute \ v_shares[k][i] \leftarrow alpha \times shared_pt[k][i] \oplus shared_dot_c[k][i].$
 - B. For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to ℓ , recompute $v_shares[k][i] \leftarrow epsilons[k][j] \times shared_z[k][i][j] \oplus v_shares[k][i]$.
 - (d) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - i. If $i \neq missing_parties[k]$:
 - A. Compute the v-share of the missing party; $v_shares[k][missing_parties[k]] \oplus v_shares[k][i]$.

10. Recompute the first challenge hash; h_1 -prime $\leftarrow h_1$ -commitment() as described in Section 7.6.3 with input

```
\texttt{OxO1} \parallel \texttt{msg} \parallel pk \parallel \texttt{salt} \parallel \texttt{party\_seed\_commitments} \parallel \texttt{proof.pt\_delta} \parallel \texttt{proof.z\_delta} \parallel \texttt{proof.c\_delta}.
```

11. Recompute the second challenge hash; h_2 -prime $\leftarrow h_2$ -commitment() as described in Section 7.6.3 with input

```
0x02 \parallel salt \parallel h_1 \parallel (alpha_shares, v_shares).
```

12. Compare h_1 to h_1_prime and h_2 to h_2_prime, respectively. If they match, σ is a valid signature; return Accept, otherwise return Reject.

7.6 Supporting Functions

7.6.1 Seed Trees: make_seed_tree, reveal_all_but, reconstruct_seed_tree

In this section, we describe some functions to compute or reconstruct the seed tree. The total number of nodes num_nodes is $2^d - 1 + N$, where $d = \lceil \log(N) \rceil$. The seed tree consists of three arrays of num_nodes elements: data with n-bit data, have_value and exists with integers, i.e.,

```
seed_tree = (data, have_value, exists).
```

Integer arrays have_value and exists are all initially set to zero. The root is the node of index 0 (data[0]). When the index of a parent node is i, the index of the left (resp. right) child node is 2i + 1 (resp. 2i + 2).

PROCESS OF make_seed_tree. The function make_seed_tree generates the seed of each party using binary tree structure. Hash function expand_seed outputting a 2n-bit digest is used to make two children nodes from a parent node. The leaf nodes are only used for seeds. The details are described as follows.

Input: master_seed, salt, repetition_index.

Output: a (almost) complete binary tree $seed_tree$ having N leftmost leaves with $master_seed$ as the root node.

- 1. Set elements in exists corresponding to leaf nodes to be 1.
- 2. For each of non-leaf nodes, set elements in exists to be 1 if the corresponding nodes have at least one child.
- 3. Set $data[0] \leftarrow master_seed$, and initialize parent_node $\leftarrow data[0]$.
- 4. For the index parent_node_index from 0 to (num_nodes -N), if exists[parent_node_index] = 1, the data of children nodes are computed by expand_seed with input

```
0x03 || data[parent_node_index] || salt || repetition_index || parent_node_index
```

and the left child gets the first n-bit output then the right child gets the rest of n-bit if it exists (otherwise, the corresponding output is discarded).

PROCESS OF has_sibling.

Input: A tree structure and the index of a node index.

Output: Return 1 if the node of the input index has sibling, otherwise return 0.

1. If exists[index] = 0, return 0.

- 2. If $(index\%2 = 1) \land (exists[index + 1] \neq 1)$, return 0.
- 3. Return 1.

PROCESS OF reveal_all_but. The function reveal_all_but outputs reveal_list, which is the set of intermediate nodes required to rebuild the (punctured) seed tree. Any node on the path from the missing leaf to the root are excluded, and the other siblings of those nodes are recorded in the reveal_list. In our implementation, reveal_list always is an array of the same length $\lceil \log(N) \rceil$ with n-bit elements.

Input: A tree structure tree and the index of the missing leaf missing_index.

Output: An array of n-bit data reveal_list of length $\lceil \log(N) \rceil$.

- 1. Zero-initialize reveal_list.
- 2. $path_index \leftarrow 0$.
- 3. Set the first node index node \leftarrow num_nodes $-N + missing_index$. This index will be updated as the index of the parent nodes in the next loop.
- 4. While node $\neq 0$:
 - (a) If has_sibling(tree, node) = 0:
 - i. increase path_index by 1,
 - ii. set node $\leftarrow \left| \frac{\text{node} 1}{2} \right|$.
 - (b) Else:
 - i. record the data of the sibling node to the reveal_list[path_index],
 - ii. increase path_index by 1,
 - iii. set node $\leftarrow \left| \frac{\text{node}-1}{2} \right|$.
- 5. Return reveal_list.

PROCESS OF reconstruct_seed_tree. The function reconstruct_seed_tree rebuilds the punctured seed tree from reveal_list.

Input: reveal_list, salt, repetition_index, missing_index.

Output: A recovered seed tree structure tree.

- 1. Allocate the tree structure to tree.
- 2. Set exists[node] $\leftarrow 1$ if node indicates leaf nodes or the root node.
- 3. Set exists $[node] \leftarrow 1$ if node indicates a non-leaf node with at least one child.
- 4. Set the first node index node \leftarrow num_nodes $-N + missing_index$. This index will be updated as the index of the parent nodes in the next loop.
- 5. While node $\neq 0$:
 - (a) If $has_sibling(tree, node) = 0$:
 - i. increase path_index by 1,
 - ii. set node $\leftarrow \left| \frac{\text{node}-1}{2} \right|$.
 - (b) Else:

- i. record reveal_list[path_index] to data[sibling_node] where sibling_node is the sibling's index of node.
- ii. set have_value[sibling_node] $\leftarrow 1$,
- iii. increase path_index by 1,
- iv. set node $\leftarrow \lfloor \frac{node-1}{2} \rfloor$.
- 6. For an index node from 0 to (num_nodes -N):
 - (a) If have_value[node] = exists[node] = 1 and node ≤ num_nodes, compute the data of children nodes, similarly as Step 4 of function make_seed_tree.
- 7. Return tree.

7.6.2 Committing to the party's seed and expanding tape: commit_to_seed_and_expand_tape

Input: The salt salt, repetition_index, party_index, the input party's seed seed.

Output: The commitment party_seed_commitments and the random tape random_tapes.

- 1. Absorb the hash prefix 0x04, salt, repetition_index, party_index, and seed to XOF in this order.
- 2. Squeeze 2n/8 bytes from XOF to party_seed_commitments[repetition_index][party_index].
- 3. Squeeze $(\ell+3)n/8$ bytes from XOF to random_tapes[repetition_index][party_index].
- 4. Output party_seed_commitments and random_tapes.

7.6.3 Computing the Challenge: h_1_commitment, h_2_commitment

PROCESS OF h_1_commitment.

 $\label{eq:linear_potential} \textbf{Input: The message msg, the public key } pk = (\texttt{iv}, \texttt{ct}), \text{ the salt salt,} \\ \text{the commitments party_seed_commitments}[\tau][\texttt{N}], \\ \text{the share-adjusting values } \texttt{pt_delta}[\tau], \texttt{c_delta}[\tau], \text{ and } \texttt{z_delta}[\tau][\ell]. \\ \end{cases}$

Output: The challenge hash h_1.

- 1. Absorb the hash prefix 0x01, msg, pk, and salt to XOF in this order.
- 2. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) For each party i from 0 to N-1, absorb party_seed_commitments[k][i] to XOF.
 - (b) Absorb pt_delta[k] to XOF.
 - (c) For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to $\ell-1$, absorb z_delta[k][j] to XOF.
 - (d) Absorb c_delta[k] to XOF.
- 3. Squeeze 2n/8 bytes from XOF to h₋1.
- 4. Output the challenge hash h_1.

PROCESS OF h_2_commitment.

Input: The challenge hash h_1, the salt salt, the broadcast values alpha_shares[τ][N], and v_shares[τ][N].

Output: The challenge hash h_2.

- 1. Absorb the hash prefix 0x02, salt, and h_1 to XOF in this order.
- 2. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$:
 - (a) For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - i. Absorb alpha_shares[k][i] to XOF.
 - ii. Absorb $v_shares[k][i]$ to XOF.
- 3. Squeeze 2n/8 bytes from XOF to h_2.
- 4. Output the challenge hash h_2.

7.6.4 Expanding the Challenge Hash: h_1_expand, h_2_expand

PROCESS OF h_1_expand.

Input: The challenge hash h_−1.

Output: The challenge value epsilons[τ][$\ell + 1$].

- 1. Absorb h_1 to XOF.
- 2. Declare the challenge value epsilons. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to $\tau-1$:
 - (a) For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to ℓ :
 - i. Squeeze n/8 bytes from XOF, and convert to a field element epsilons[k][j].
- 3. Output the challenge value $epsilons[\tau][\ell+1]$.

PROCESS OF h_2_expand.

Input: The challenge hash h_2.

Output: The challenge index missing_parties $[\tau]$.

- 1. Absorb h_2 to XOF.
- 2. Initialize squeeze_bytes $\leftarrow N > 256$? 2:1.
- 3. Initialize mask $\leftarrow (1 \ll \lceil \log(N) \rceil) 1$.
- 4. Declare list of challenge indices missing_parties[au]. For each parallel repetition k from 0 to au-1:
 - (a) Squeeze squeeze_bytes bytes from XOF to party.
 - (b) Compute party \leftarrow party & mask.
 - (c) If party $\geq N$, continue at Step 4.(a), else missing_parties[k] \leftarrow party.
- 5. Output the challenge index missing_parties[τ].

7.6.5 MPC Simulation: aim_mpc

It computes MPC multiplication triples $shared_x[N][\ell+1]$ and $shared_x[N][\ell+1]$ as described in Section 4.2, Step 3 of Phase 1.

Input: The shares of the input pt of the parties $\mathtt{shared_pt}[N]$, the output of AIM ct, the linear components of AIM (matrix_A, vector_b), the number of parties N, and the shares of S-box outputs $\mathtt{shared_t}[N][\ell]$.

Output: The shares of multiplication triples shared_ $z[N][\ell+1]$ and shared_ $x[N][\ell+1]$.

- 1. Convert the output ct to a field element.
- 2. For each party i from 0 to N-1:
 - (a) Convert shared_pt[i] to a field element.
 - (b) For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to $\ell 1$:
 - i. Compute $shared_x[i][j] \leftarrow transposed_matmul(shared_t[i][j], matrix_A[j])$.
 - (c) Compute $\operatorname{shared_x[i]}[\ell] \leftarrow \operatorname{shared_x[i]}[0] \oplus \cdots \oplus \operatorname{shared_x[i]}[\ell-1]$.
 - (d) If i = 0, compute $shared_x[i][\ell] \leftarrow shared_x[i][\ell] \oplus vector_b$.
 - (e) For each AIM S-Box index j from 0 to $\ell 1$:
 - i. Compute $shared_x[i][j] \leftarrow shared_t[i][j]$.
 - $ii. \ \ Compute \ shared_z[i][j] \leftarrow power_of_2_exponentiation_with_e_{j+1}(shared_pt[i]).$
 - $(f) \ \ Compute \\ shared_z[i][\ell] \leftarrow ct \times shared_x[i][\ell] \oplus power_of_2_exponentiation_with_e_*(shared_x[i][\ell]).$
- 3. Output shared_ $z[N][\ell+1]$ and shared_ $x[N][\ell+1]$.

7.6.6 Serialization of Signatures

Input: The signature $\sigma = (\mathtt{salt}, \mathtt{h_1}, \mathtt{h_2}, \mathtt{proof}[\tau])$, where proof consists of (reveal_list, missing_commitment, pt_delta, c_delta, z_delta[ℓ], missing_alpha_share).

Output: A byte array sig, encoding the signature σ .

- 1. Write salt to sig, using 2n/8 bytes.
- 2. Write h_1 to sig, using 2n/8 bytes.
- 3. Write h_2 to sig, using 2n/8 bytes.
- 4. Append tuples of proof of each repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$,
 - (a) Append reveal_list to sig, which is $\lceil \log(N) \rceil n/8$ bytes.
 - (b) Append missing_commitment to sig, which is 2n/8 bytes.
 - (c) Append $\operatorname{pt_delta}$ to sig , which is n/8 bytes.
 - (d) Append c_delta to sig, which is n/8 bytes.
 - (e) Append z_delta[ℓ] to sig, which is $\ell n/8$ bytes.
 - (f) Append missing_alpha_share to sig, which is n/8 bytes.
- 5. Output sig.

7.6.7 Deserialization of Signatures

Input: A byte array sig, encoding the signature σ .

Output: The signature $\sigma = (\mathtt{salt}, \mathtt{h_1}, \mathtt{h_2}, \mathtt{proof}[\tau])$, where proof consists of (reveal_list, missing_commitment, pt_delta, c_delta, z_delta[ℓ], missing_alpha_share), challenge indices missing_parties[τ].

- 1. Read the first 2n/8 bytes from sig, and assign them to salt.
- 2. Read the next 2n/8 bytes from sig, and assign them to h₋1.
- 3. Read the next 2n/8 bytes from sig, and assign them to h_2.
- 4. Expand missing_parties[τ] = h_2_expand(h_2) as described in Section 7.6.4.
- 5. Read tuples from sig, and append them to proof [k] of each repetition k from 0 to $\tau 1$,
 - (a) Read the next $\lceil \log_2(N) \rceil n/8$ bytes from sig, and assign them to reveal_list.
 - (b) Read the next 2n/8 bytes from sig, and assign them to missing_commitment.
 - (c) Read the next n/8 bytes from sig, and assign them to pt_delta.
 - (d) Read the next n/8 bytes from sig, and assign them to c_delta.
 - (e) Read the next $\ell n/8$ bytes from sig, and assign them to z_delta[ℓ].
 - (f) Read the next n/8 bytes from sig, and assign them to missing_alpha_share.
- 6. Output $(\sigma, missing_parties[\tau])$.

8 Implementation and Performance

The implementation is available at https://aimer-signature.org. Our source codes are implemented with the BN++ repository⁶ as a reference.

8.1 Implementation Details

TRANSPOSED MATRIX. In general, if the matrix is given in transposed form, matrix multiplication can be done more efficiently. Therefore, algorithms in AlMer for generating matrices from iv (Algorithm 6 and 7) are already well designed to generate transposed matrices directly, and we recommend performing all matrix multiplications in transposed form. In our implementation, the matrices e2_power_matrix defined in aim.h, and matrix_A generated in the functions generated_matrices_L_and_U and generated_matrices_LU are stored in the transposed form, and the multiplication of transposed matrices is done in GF_transposed_matmul.

MATRIX-BASED POWER-OF-2 EXPONENTIATION. During the MPC process in aim_mpc, for the k-th repetition and the i-th party, $(\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)})^{2^{e_j}}$ is evaluated for $j \in \{1,\dots,\ell\}$. As exponentiation of 2^{e_j} in \mathbb{F}_{2^n} is linear over \mathbb{F}_2 , $(\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)})^{2^{e_j}}$ can be also derived from power_matrix $\cdot (\mathsf{pt}_k^{(i)})$, where power_matrix is an $n \times n$ binary matrix corresponding to the 2^{e_j} -th power. The matrix multiplication can be faster than direct squaring for large exponents. Therefore, matrix-based power-of-2 exponentiation is applied for e_2 since e_2 has been chosen as a large number. The binary matrix corresponding to the 2^{e_2} exponentiation has been named as e2-power_matrix.

ADDITION CHAIN EXPONENTIATION. As described in Section 3.1, the S-boxes in AIM are defined as exponentiation by Mersenne numbers over a large field such as $x^{2^{e_j}-1}$ where $j \in \{1, ..., \ell\}$ and $x^{2^{e_s}-1}$ for $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$.

⁶https://github.com/IAIK/bnpp_helium_signatures/tree/main/bnpp_rain

Addition chain exponentiation [Knu97] by the shortest addition chain requires fewer field multiplications than binary exponentiation. For example, in the case of $x^{2^{27}-1}$ for AIM-I, binary exponentiation requires 26 field squarings and 26 field multiplications but addition chain exponentiation requires 26 field squarings and only 6 field multiplications by an addition chain $x \to x^{2^2-1} \to x^{2^3-1} \to x^{2^6-1} \to x^{2^{12}-1} \to x^{2^{24}-1} \to x^{2^{27}-1}$. All the S-boxes have been implemented using addition chain exponentiation by each shortest chain.

8.2 Performance

8.2.1 Description of the Benchmarking Environments

We describe our two implementations of AlMer signature scheme:

Reference. Our reference implementation was optimized using only C.

Optimized. We also provide an optimized implementation using AVX2 vector instructions.

We measured our reference and optimized implementations in Intel Xeon E5-1650 v3 @ 3.50 GHz with 128 GB of RAM on the Ubuntu 18.04 operating system. We also disabled TurboBoost and Hyper-threading features, and used the taskset command. All implementations used in the benchmarks were compiled using gcc 7.5.0 compiler with the optimization level -03.

8.2.2 Key and Signature Sizes

In Table 8, we provide the size of AlMer public key, secret key, and signature for various parameter sets. These numbers are the same for both reference and optimized implementations.

Parameters	Public key size (bytes)	Secret key size (bytes)	Signature size (bytes)
AIMER_L1_PARAM1	32	16	5,904
AIMER_L1_PARAM2	32	16	4,880
AIMER_L1_PARAM3	32	16	4,176
AIMER_L1_PARAM4	32	16	3,840
AIMER_L3_PARAM1	48	24	13,080
AIMER_L3_PARAM2	48	24	10,440
AIMER_L3_PARAM3	48	24	9,144
AIMER_L3_PARAM4	48	24	8,352
AIMER_L5_PARAM1	64	32	25,152
AIMER_L5_PARAM2	64	32	19,904
AIMER_L5_PARAM3	64	32	17,088
AIMER_L5_PARAM4	64	32	15,392

Table 8: Key and signature sizes for various parameter sets.

8.2.3 Timing Results

In Tables 9 and 10, we provide the timing results as milliseconds and CPU clock cycles of reference and optimized implementations on the benchmark platform. The timing results were measured by the average clock cycles executed 10^4 times.

Parameters	Keygen		Sign		Verify	
	(ms)	(cycles)	(ms)	(cycles)	(ms)	(cycles)
AIMER_L1_PARAM1	0.02	59,483	1.23	4,294,114	1.15	4,011,553
AIMER_L1_PARAM2	0.02	59,654	2.94	10,284,335	2.88	10,077,658
AIMER_L1_PARAM3	0.02	59,593	9.66	33,819,763	9.59	33,555,727
AIMER_L1_PARAM4	0.02	59,582	48.16	168,559,507	47.55	166,436,892
AIMER_L3_PARAM1	0.04	131,234	3.08	10,767,276	2.92	10,222,797
AIMER_L3_PARAM2	0.04	130,656	8.07	28,254,891	7.93	27,738,451
AIMER_L3_PARAM3	0.04	131,852	23.63	82,706,117	23.93	83,765,726
AIMER_L3_PARAM4	0.04	131,911	120.14	420,497,831	114.99	402,461,878
AIMER_L5_PARAM1	0.09	311,887	6.06	21,217,778	5.83	20,395,571
AIMER_L5_PARAM2	0.09	312,090	15.56	54,457,539	15.29	53,516,330
AIMER_L5_PARAM3	0.09	313,543	47.85	167,472,963	46.66	163,325,301
AIMER_L5_PARAM4	0.09	314,257	231.94	811,789,935	227.73	797,067,009

Table 9: Performance of **reference** implementation for various parameter sets.

Parameters	Keygen		Sign		Verify	
Tarameters	(ms) (cycles) (ms) (cycles)		(ms)	(cycles)		
AIMER_L1_PARAM1	0.02	54,552	0.59	2,079,167	0.53	1,840,810
AIMER_L1_PARAM2	0.02	54,143	1.36	4,747,229	1.28	4,474,325
AIMER_L1_PARAM3	0.02	54,178	4.42	15,476,644	4.31	15,075,635
AIMER_L1_PARAM4	0.02	54,435	22.29	78,022,625	21.09	73,813,256
AIMER_L3_PARAM1	0.03	118,533	1.38	4,838,748	1.28	4,494,766
AIMER_L3_PARAM2	0.03	119,231	3.59	12,562,067	3.44	12,048,460
AIMER_L3_PARAM3	0.03	118,816	9.77	34,202,905	9.62	33,670,751
AIMER_L3_PARAM4	0.03	118,691	53.38	186,813,161	50.73	177,567,471
AIMER_L5_PARAM1	0.08	284,746	2.45	8,573,223	2.34	8,181,552
AIMER_L5_PARAM2	0.08	283,908	6.26	21,925,850	6.07	21,245,240
AIMER_L5_PARAM3	0.08	283,931	18.66	65,302,783	17.75	62,135,635
AIMER_L5_PARAM4	0.08	285,114	91.76	321,174,411	88.83	310,906,616

Table 10: Performance of AVX2 **optimized** implementation for various parameter sets.

8.2.4 Memory Usage

In this section, we list the memory usage for our implementations. Since our implementations focus on the timing and signature size, optimization for memory usage are not considered. Memory usage was measured by the Valgrind⁷-3.13.0 with the subtool Massif. We utilized Massif using the following command:

Then, for profiling output file, we utilized the tool ms_print using the following command:

ms_print massif.out.pid

The peak memory usage of reference and optimized implementations was described in Table 11.

	Refe	rence	Optimized		
Parameters	Sign	Verify	Sign	Verify	
	(KB)	(KB)	(KB)	(KB)	
AIMER_L1_PARAM1	195.6	193.1	195.8	192.9	
AIMER_L1_PARAM2	439.7	440.6	439.7	440.6	
AIMER_L1_PARAM3	1,395.5	1,397.6	1,395.5	1,397.6	
AIMER_L1_PARAM4	6,759.1	6,761.3	6,759.1	6,761.2	
AIMER_L3_PARAM1	426.6	421.3	492.7	487.8	
AIMER_L3_PARAM2	1,039.8	1,042.1	1,212.7	1,211.6	
AIMER_L3_PARAM3	3,060.8	3,065.4	3,564.9	3,569.6	
AIMER_L3_PARAM4	14,797.0	14,802.4	17,206.9	17,211.8	
AIMER_L5_PARAM1	854.9	846.7	855.0	846.7	
AIMER_L5_PARAM2	2,066.1	2,058.4	2,068.4	2,058.3	
AIMER_L5_PARAM3	6,174.7	6,183.0	6,174.6	6,182.9	
AIMER_L5_PARAM4	29.740.7	29,749.2	29,740.6	29,749.2	

Table 11: Peak memory usage of **reference** and **optimized** implementations

9 Advantages and Limitations

9.1 General

AlMer shares similar advantages with other MPCitH-based signature schemes as follows.

- The security of AlMer depends only on the security of the underlying symmetric primitives. In particular, the security of AlMer is reduced to the one-wayness of AlM in the random oracle model.
- Among the signature schemes whose security depends only on symmetric primitives, AlMer enjoys the smallest signature size.
- AlMer enjoys the small secret and public key size; the small key size makes it easier to apply to many PKI applications based on multi-chain certificates or frequent certificate transmission.
- Key generation is simple and fast.
- AlMer provides a granular trade-off between the execution time and the signature size. This feature makes it possible to adjust the performance based on the user's requirements.

⁷https://valgrind.org/docs/manual/ms-manual.html

 AlMer is resistant to the reuse of the public randomnesses such as iv and salt. To the best of our knowledge, multiple uses of an identical value of iv or salt linearly increase the probability of a *pk*collision or a multi-target hash collision, respectively.

AlMer also has similar limitations to other MPCitH-based signature schemes as follows.

- The signature size is relatively large compared to standardized lattice-based schemes.
- Signing and verification is slower compared to standardized lattice-based schemes.

9.2 Compatibility with Existing Protocols

The signature size of AlMer is larger than NIST selected algorithms such as CRYSTALS-Dilithium [LDK⁺22] and Falcon [PFH⁺22] except SPHINCS⁺ [HBD⁺22], while the bandwidth of AlMer is sufficiently small so that it is still compatible with many existing protocols. We experimentally checked the compatibility of the optimized implementation of AlMer at all security levels with the Open Quantum Safe (OQS) project.⁸ After creating X.509 certificates signed with AlMer, we were able to establish TLS 1.3 connections without message fragmentation, where the key exchange algorithm was the hybrid protocol with ECDH (p256/p384/p521) [BCR⁺18] and CRYSTALS-Kyber [SAB⁺22] (512/768/1024) algorithms in OQS.

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⁸http://github.com/open-quantum-safe/liboqs

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