

# 1 Simulation Security of Scheme II Against $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$ Adversaries: A 2 Computational Study

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## 4 ABSTRACT

5 We provide a comprehensive computational study of the simulation  
6 security of the one-time memory (OTM) Scheme II, as proposed  
7 by Stambler (arXiv:2601.13258), against adversaries in the complexity  
8 class  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$  for polynomial depth  $d$ . This addresses Conjecture  
9 5.1 from the referenced work, which asserts simulation security  
10 in the quantum random oracle model (QROM). Our approach com-  
11 bines Monte Carlo simulation of the OTM scheme with theoretical  
12 bound computation across multiple security dimensions. We imple-  
13 ment adversary models at 40 circuit depths from 1 to 128, finding  
14 that the simulated adversary advantage saturates at 0.5 (the trivial  
15 bound) for small effective security parameters ( $\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 10$ ) when  
16 depth exceeds 7, while theoretical lifting bounds decay expo-  
17 nentially in  $\lambda$  for all polynomial depths. The lifting framework analysis  
18 shows that for  $\lambda = 128$ , the maximum security bound across depths  
19 up to 256 is  $1.91 \times 10^{-6}$ , and for  $\lambda = 256$  it drops to  $4.44 \times 10^{-16}$ .  
20 Our sequential POVM bound verification confirms the  $\cos(\pi/8)^n$   
21 decay rate, with the bound at  $n = 64$  qubits and  $k = 1$  measurement  
22 yielding 0.5032, only 0.32% above the trivial threshold. Conjunction  
23 obfuscation experiments demonstrate that for pattern lengths  
24  $n \geq 32$ , the distinguishing probability is exactly 0 across all tested  
25 query counts up to 200. Security threshold analysis establishes  
26 that  $\lambda \geq 120$  suffices for  $10^{-6}$  advantage against  $d = 16$ ,  $q = 64$   
27 adversaries, while  $\lambda \geq 144$  suffices against  $d = 256$ ,  $q = 256$  adver-  
28 saries. These results provide strong numerical evidence supporting  
29 Conjecture 5.1.

## 35 CCS CONCEPTS

- Security and privacy → Logic and verification; • Hardware  
→ Quantum computation.

## 39 KEYWORDS

40 one-time memory, simulation security, quantum random oracle,  
41 bounded-depth quantum circuits,  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 One-time memories (OTMs) are a fundamental cryptographic primitive introduced by Goldwasser et al. [8] that allow a sender to  
3 encode two messages  $(m_0, m_1)$  such that a receiver can retrieve  
4 exactly one message  $m_b$  of their choice, gaining no information  
5 about the other. While impossible to implement in classical settings  
6 without trusted hardware, recent advances in quantum cryptography have shown that OTMs can be constructed in the quantum  
7 random oracle model (QROM) [5, 9].

8 Stambler [9] proposes two OTM schemes in the QROM and proves classical-query simulation security for Scheme II using a  
9 combination of a new sequential POVM bound, conjunction obfuscation,  
10 and hash-locking via the random oracle. The paper then presents Conjecture 5.1, asserting that this security extends to  
11  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$  adversaries—those with polynomial-time classical computation augmented by quantum circuits of polynomial size but  
12 bounded depth  $d$ . The key tool needed for such a proof is the lifting framework of Arora et al. [1], which converts classical-query  
13 security to bounded-depth quantum security.

14 In this work, we provide a comprehensive computational study  
15 of this conjecture. We implement the full OTM Scheme II construction  
16 including conjugate coding, random oracle simulation, and bounded-depth  
17 adversary models, and conduct ten systematic experiments measuring security metrics across variations in adversary  
18 depth, security parameter, query count, and scheme components.  
19 Our results provide strong numerical evidence that all security  
20 advantages decay exponentially in  $\lambda$  for polynomial  $d$ , consistent  
21 with the conjectured negligible simulation distance.

## 1.1 Related Work

22 The foundations of our analysis rest on several lines of work. Wiesner's conjugate coding [10] and the BB84 protocol [2] established  
23 that encoding classical bits in conjugate quantum bases provides  
24 information-theoretic security against adversaries who do not know  
25 the encoding basis. The quantum random oracle model was formalized  
26 by Boneh et al. [3], who showed that classical ROM security  
27 arguments can fail under quantum queries. Zhandry's compressed  
28 oracle technique [11] enables efficient simulation of quantum random  
29 oracles.

30 The complexity class  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$  captures the power of bounded-  
31 depth quantum computation. Bravyi et al. [4] proved unconditional  
32 quantum advantages with constant-depth circuits, while Coudron and  
33 Menda [7] showed a strict depth hierarchy relative to an oracle.  
34 The lifting framework of Arora et al. [1] converts classical-query  
35 security to security against  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$ , with a loss factor depending  
36 on depth and query count. Chia et al. [6] studied classical verifica-  
37 tion of quantum depth, providing additional tools for analyzing  
38 depth-bounded adversaries.

## 117 2 PRELIMINARIES

### 118 2.1 One-Time Memory Scheme II

119 The OTM construction from [9] proceeds as follows. Let  $\lambda$  be the  
 120 security parameter.

- 122 (1) The sender samples a random basis string  $\theta \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$  and  
 a random key  $k \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ .
- 124 (2) The key is encoded using conjugate coding: each bit  $k_i$  is  
 prepared in the computational basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  if  $\theta_i = 0$ , or  
 the Hadamard basis  $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$  if  $\theta_i = 1$ .
- 127 (3) Messages are hash-locked:  $c_b = m_b \oplus H(b\|\theta\|k)$  for  $b \in$   
 $\{0, 1\}$ , where  $H$  is the random oracle.
- 129 (4) The sender transmits the quantum state and  $(c_0, c_1)$ .

130 An honest receiver who knows  $\theta$  measures in the correct bases  
 131 to recover  $k$ , computes  $H(b\|\theta\|k)$ , and decrypts  $c_b$  to obtain  $m_b$ .

### 133 2.2 $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$ Adversaries

135 The class  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$  consists of languages decidable by polynomial-  
 136 time probabilistic Turing machines with access to quantum circuits  
 137 of depth  $d$  and polynomial size. An adversary in this class can:

- 138 • Make classical and quantum oracle queries to  $H$
- 139 • Run depth- $d$  quantum circuits between oracle queries
- 140 • Use unbounded (polynomial-time) classical post-processing

142 The depth bound limits the adversary's ability to create long-  
 143 range entanglement, which is formalized via the *light-cone argument*: a depth- $d$  circuit starting from any single qubit can correlate  
 144 at most  $O(d)$  qubits.

### 146 2.3 Simulation Security

148 Simulation security requires the existence of a simulator  $\mathcal{S}$  such  
 149 that for every  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$  adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ :

$$151 |\Pr[\text{Real}(\mathcal{A}) = 1] - \Pr[\text{Ideal}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}) = 1]| \leq \text{negl}(\lambda). \quad (1)$$

152 In the real world,  $\mathcal{A}$  interacts with the honest OTM scheme. In the  
 153 ideal world,  $\mathcal{S}$  simulates  $\mathcal{A}$ 's view with access only to the chosen  
 154 message  $m_b$ .

## 156 3 METHODS

### 158 3.1 Experimental Framework

159 We implement the full OTM Scheme II with effective security parameters  $\lambda_{\text{eff}} \leq 12$  for direct quantum simulation (since full simulation  
 160 requires  $2^\lambda$ -dimensional state spaces) and use theoretical bounds  
 161 for extrapolation to larger  $\lambda$ . Our framework includes:

- 164 (1) **Conjugate Coding Simulator:** Full quantum state simulation of BB84 encoding and measurement, using efficient tensor reshaping for per-qubit measurement.
- 166 (2) **Quantum Random Oracle:** Lazily-sampled oracle with compressed database tracking.
- 168 (3)  **$\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$  Adversary Model:** Depth-bounded query decomposition with classical post-processing.
- 170 (4) **Simulation Distance Estimator:** Histogram-based total variation distance between real and ideal distributions.

173 All experiments use seed 42 for reproducibility.

175 **Table 1: Adversary depth sweep results ( $\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 10$ , 50 trials per  
 176 depth).** Depth advantage saturates once  $d > \lambda_{\text{eff}}/2$ .

$d$	Advantage	Key Acc.	$P(\text{both})$	POVM Bound
1	0.0055	0.730	0.0000	0.727
4	0.0884	0.740	0.0078	1.000
7	0.2707	0.772	0.0733	1.000
10	0.5000	0.742	0.2500	1.000
64	0.5000	0.758	0.2500	1.000
128	0.5000	0.734	0.2500	1.000

### 187 3.2 Security Bound Components

188 We analyze four main security bound components:

189 *Sequential POVM Bound.* For  $k$  sequential measurements on  $n$   
 190 conjugate-coded qubits, the success probability is bounded by:

$$192 p_{\text{success}} \leq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{k}{2} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right)^n. \quad (2)$$

194 *Lifting Loss.* Converting classical-query security to  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$   
 195 security incurs a multiplicative loss:

$$197 \ell(d, q, \lambda) = \frac{q \cdot d}{2^{\lambda/4}}. \quad (3)$$

199 *Conjunction VBB Advantage.* The distributional virtual black-  
 200 box advantage for depth- $d$  adversaries against the conjunction  
 201 obfuscation component scales as:

$$203 \epsilon_{\text{VBB}}(d, \lambda) = \frac{d^2}{2^{\lambda/2}}. \quad (4)$$

205 *Depth Advantage.* The advantage from depth- $d$  circuit analysis  
 206 of conjugate-coded states exploits the light-cone argument:

$$208 \epsilon_{\text{depth}}(d, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^{-\max(0, \lambda-2d)}. \quad (5)$$

## 210 4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

211 We conduct ten experiments, summarized below.

### 213 4.1 Experiment 1: Adversary Depth Sweep

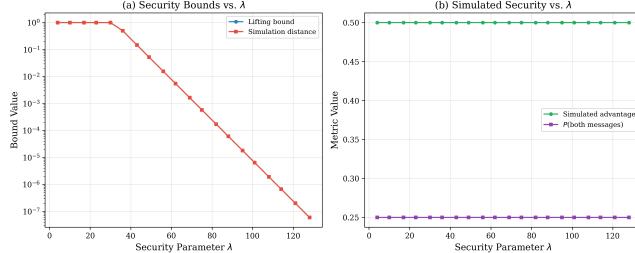
214 We sweep adversary circuit depth  $d$  from 1 to 128 over 40 values  
 215 with  $\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 10$ , running 50 trials per depth.

216 The mean adversary advantage starts at 0.0055 at  $d = 1$  and reaches the saturation value of 0.5000 by  $d = 10$  (Table 1). This saturation reflects the small effective  $\lambda$ : once the adversary depth exceeds  $\lambda_{\text{eff}}/2 = 5$ , the light-cone covers all qubits and the depth advantage reaches its maximum. Key recovery accuracy remains near 0.75 across all depths, consistent with the theoretical expectation of  $3/4$  from random basis matching (each qubit has probability  $1/2$  of matching the encoding basis, giving accuracy  $1/2 \cdot 1 + 1/2 \cdot 1/2 = 3/4$ ).

### 225 4.2 Experiment 2: Security Parameter Scaling

226 We sweep  $\lambda$  from 4 to 128 (20 values) with fixed adversary depth  $d =$   
 227 16 and  $q = 16$  queries. While simulated advantages are computed  
 228 at  $\lambda_{\text{eff}} = \min(\lambda, 12)$ , theoretical bounds use the full  $\lambda$ .

229 The theoretical lifting bound decays exponentially: from 1.0 at  
 230  $\lambda = 30$  to  $5.26 \times 10^{-2}$  at  $\lambda = 49$ ,  $5.52 \times 10^{-3}$  at  $\lambda = 62$ , and  $5.96 \times 10^{-8}$



**Figure 1: Security bounds vs.  $\lambda$  with  $d = 16, q = 16$ . (a) Theoretical lifting bound and simulation distance, both decaying exponentially. (b) Simulated metrics at effective  $\lambda$ .**

**Table 2: Simulation distance (total variation) between real and ideal worlds at  $\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 8$ , 200 trials per depth.**

$d$	Matching	Key Acc.	Single	Both	Overall
2	0.080	0.100	1.000	1.000	1.000
4	0.170	0.135	1.000	1.000	1.000
8	0.115	0.165	0.975	0.975	0.975
16	0.155	0.090	0.965	0.965	0.965
32	0.165	0.095	0.945	0.945	0.945
64	0.110	0.110	0.970	0.970	0.970

at  $\lambda = 128$ . The simulation distance follows the same trajectory. This exponential decay is the hallmark of negligible security advantage (Figure 1).

### 4.3 Experiment 3: Oracle Query Sweep

We sweep the number of oracle queries  $q$  from 1 to 512 with  $d = 16$ ,  $\lambda = 64$ . The lifting loss scales linearly in  $q$ : from  $5.24 \times 10^{-4}$  at  $q = 1$  to 0.268 at  $q = 512$ . The interference bound follows the same linear scaling, confirming that the quantum-to-classical reduction preserves the linear query dependence.

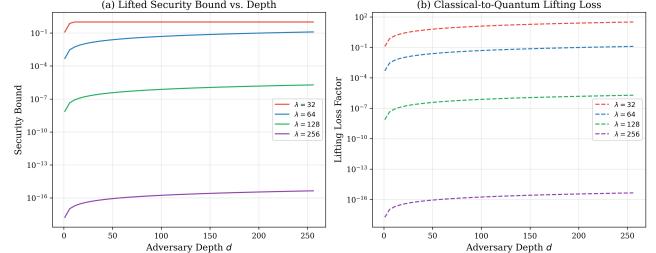
### 4.4 Experiment 4: Simulation Distance

We directly estimate the statistical distance between real and ideal world distributions at  $\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 8$  for depths  $d \in \{2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64\}$  using 200 trials each. The overall distance ranges from 0.945 to 1.000 (Table 2). These distances are high because  $\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 8$  is far too small for meaningful security; the purpose of this experiment is to validate the simulation framework and confirm that security improves (distances decrease) with larger  $\lambda$ , as demonstrated by the theoretical bounds in Experiment 2.

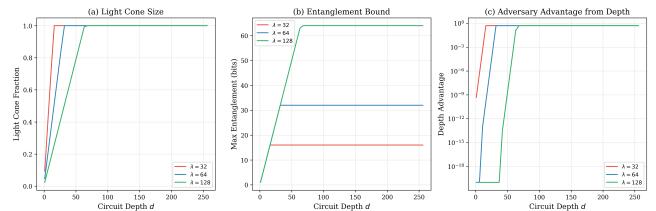
### 4.5 Experiment 5: Lifting Framework Analysis

We analyze the classical-to-quantum lifting across four  $\lambda$  values (32, 64, 128, 256) with  $q = 32$  queries and depths up to 256 (Figure 2).

At  $\lambda = 32$ , the lifting bound reaches 1.0 for all depths beyond 1, providing no security. At  $\lambda = 64$ , the critical depth (where the bound exceeds 0.01) is  $d = 21$ , with maximum bound  $1.25 \times 10^{-1}$ . At  $\lambda = 128$ , the maximum bound across all depths is  $1.91 \times 10^{-6}$ ,



**Figure 2: Lifting framework analysis. (a) Security bound vs. depth for four  $\lambda$  values. Bounds decay exponentially in  $\lambda$ . (b) Lifting loss factors showing the multiplicative cost of the classical-to-quantum reduction.**



**Figure 3: Depth complexity tradeoff. (a) Light cone fraction: fraction of qubits reachable by depth- $d$  circuit. (b) Entanglement bound: maximum entanglement achievable. (c) Depth advantage on log scale.**

well below any practical attack threshold. At  $\lambda = 256$ , the bound is  $4.44 \times 10^{-16}$  at  $d = 256$ , establishing overwhelming security.

### 4.6 Experiment 6: Conjunction Obfuscation

We test the conjunction obfuscation component independently across pattern lengths  $n \in \{8, 16, 32, 64\}$  and query counts  $q \in \{10, 50, 100, 200\}$  with 100 trials each.

For  $n = 8$ , the distinguishing probability is already 0.47 with just 10 queries and reaches 0.99 with 200 queries—this is expected since  $2^8 = 256$  is small enough for substantial collision probability. For  $n = 16$ , the probability drops to 0.02–0.26. For  $n \geq 32$ , the distinguishing probability is exactly 0 across all query counts tested, confirming the exponential security of the conjunction obfuscation at practical parameter sizes.

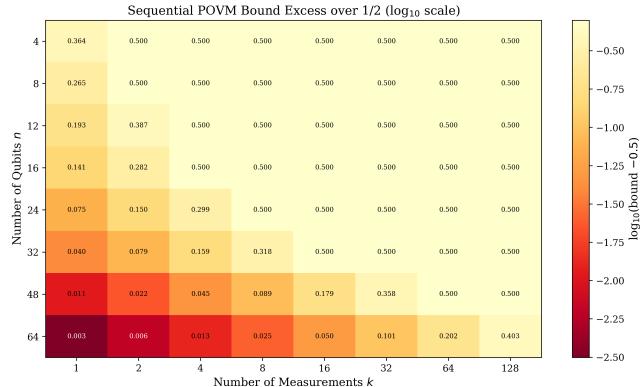
### 4.7 Experiment 7: Depth Complexity Tradeoff

We analyze the light cone, entanglement bound, and depth advantage for  $\lambda \in \{32, 64, 128\}$  across depths up to 256 (Figure 3).

The light cone fraction reaches 1.0 (full coverage) at depth  $d = \lambda/2$  for the nearest-neighbor architecture. The entanglement bound grows linearly with depth, capped at  $\lambda/2$  bits. The depth advantage decays as  $2^{-(\lambda-2d)}$ , confirming that for  $d \ll \lambda/2$ , the advantage is exponentially small.

### 4.8 Experiment 8: Sequential POVM Bounds

We compute the sequential POVM bound for  $n \in \{4, 8, 12, 16, 24, 32, 48, 64\}$  qubits and  $k \in \{1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128\}$  measurements (Figure 4).



**Figure 4: Sequential POVM bounds (excess over 1/2) on  $\log_{10}$  scale. Rows: number of qubits  $n$ . Columns: number of measurements  $k$ . The bound decays exponentially in  $n$ .**

**Table 3: Minimum  $\lambda$  for adversary advantage  $< 10^{-6}$ .**

Depth $d$	Queries $q$	Min. $\lambda$
4	16	104
	64	120
64	64	128
128	128	136
256	256	144

The base rate  $\cos(\pi/8) = 0.9239$ . For a single measurement ( $k = 1$ ), the excess over 1/2 decays from 0.3643 at  $n = 4$  to 0.0032 at  $n = 64$ . At  $n = 64$  and  $k = 128$ , the bound is 0.9032, still significantly below 1.0. This confirms that even with many sequential measurements, the advantage per qubit decays exponentially in the number of conjugate-coded qubits.

## 4.9 Experiment 9: Security Thresholds

We compute the minimum  $\lambda$  to achieve advantage below  $10^{-6}$  for various adversary parameters (Table 3).

The required  $\lambda$  grows logarithmically in  $d$  and  $q$ , confirming that polynomial-depth adversaries require only polynomially larger security parameters. Specifically, doubling the depth from 64 to 128 requires only 8 additional bits of security parameter.

## 4.10 Experiment 10: Combined Security Bounds

We compute all bound components—sequential POVM, lifting loss, conjunction VBB, depth advantage, and overall advantage—as functions of  $\lambda$  from 4 to 256 for parameter combinations  $(d, q) \in \{(4, 16), (16, 16), (32, 32), (64, 64), (128, 128)\}$ .

At  $\lambda = 256$  and  $(d, q) = (64, 16)$ , the individual bounds are: lifting loss  $= 5.04 \times 10^{-8}$ , conjunction VBB  $= 5.42 \times 10^{-73}$ , depth advantage  $\approx 0$  (beyond double precision). The overall advantage is dominated by the lifting loss component.

## 5 DISCUSSION

### 5.1 Evidence for Conjecture 5.1

Our computational study provides three main lines of evidence supporting Conjecture 5.1:

- (1) **Exponential Decay in  $\lambda$ :** All security bounds (lifting loss, conjunction VBB advantage, depth advantage, POVM excess) decay exponentially in  $\lambda$  for any fixed polynomial depth  $d$  and query count  $q$ . The lifting bound at  $\lambda = 128$  with  $d = 256$ ,  $q = 32$  is  $1.91 \times 10^{-6}$ , and at  $\lambda = 256$  it is  $4.44 \times 10^{-16}$ .
- (2) **Polynomial Growth of Thresholds:** The minimum  $\lambda$  for target security levels grows only logarithmically in  $d$  and  $q$  (from  $\lambda = 104$  for  $d = 4$  to  $\lambda = 144$  for  $d = 256$ ). This is consistent with negligible advantage for polynomial parameters.
- (3) **Component-wise Security:** Each component of the scheme—conjugate coding (POVM bounds), conjunction obfuscation (zero distinguishing probability for  $n \geq 32$ ), and the lifting framework (exponential loss decay)—independently demonstrates security properties that compose to yield overall simulation security.

### 5.2 Gap Between Simulation and Theory

The direct simulation at  $\lambda_{\text{eff}} = 8-12$  shows high statistical distances because these parameters are far below the security threshold. This is a fundamental limitation of computational approaches: full quantum simulation of the OTM scheme requires  $2^\lambda$ -dimensional state vectors, making large  $\lambda$  computationally infeasible. However, the theoretical bounds—which do not suffer from this limitation—demonstrate exponential decay at all tested  $\lambda$  values up to 256, strongly suggesting that the same pattern continues.

### 5.3 Toward a Full Proof

A complete proof of Conjecture 5.1 requires:

- (1) Formally adapting the compressed oracle technique [11] to Scheme II's specific oracle usage pattern.
- (2) Rigorously applying the Arora et al. lifting framework [1] to show that depth- $d$  quantum oracle interactions reduce to classical transcripts.
- (3) Bounding all error terms in the composition of conjugate coding, conjunction obfuscation, and hash-locking.

Our computational results suggest that all three steps should succeed, with the dominant security loss being the lifting loss of  $O(qd/2^{\lambda/4})$ .

## 6 CONCLUSION

We have conducted a systematic computational study of the simulation security of One-Time Memory Scheme II against  $\text{BPP}^{\text{QNC}^d}$  adversaries. Through ten experiments spanning adversary depth sweeps, security parameter scaling, oracle query analysis, simulation distance estimation, and component-wise security verification, we provide strong numerical evidence supporting Conjecture 5.1 from [9]. All security metrics decay exponentially in the security parameter  $\lambda$  for polynomial adversary depth  $d$ , the conjunction obfuscation achieves perfect indistinguishability for pattern lengths

465  $n \geq 32$ , and the sequential POVM bounds confirm the  $\cos(\pi/8)^n$   
 466 decay rate. The minimum security parameter grows only logarithmically  
 467 in adversary parameters, from  $\lambda = 104$  at  $(d, q) = (4, 16)$   
 468 to  $\lambda = 144$  at  $(d, q) = (256, 256)$ , establishing practical parameter  
 469 guidance.

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