# On the Computational Complexity of Minimal Cumulative Cost Graph Pebbling

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**Abstract.** We consider the computational complexity of finding a legal black pebbling of a DAG G = (V, E) with minimum cumulative cost. A black pebbling is a sequence  $P_0, \ldots, P_t \subseteq V$  of sets of nodes which must satisfy the following properties:  $P_0 = \emptyset$  (we start off with no pebbles on G),  $sinks(G) \subseteq \bigcup_{j \le t} P_j$  (every sink node was pebbled at some point) and  $\mathsf{parents}(P_{i+1} \backslash P_i) \subseteq P_i$  (we can only place a new pebble on a node v if all of v's parents had a pebble during the last round). The cumulative cost of a pebbling  $P_0, P_1, \ldots, P_t \subseteq V$  is  $cc(P) = |P_1| + \ldots + |P_t|$ . The cumulative pebbling cost is an especially important security metric for data-independent memory hard functions, an important primitive for password hashing. Thus, an efficient (approximation) algorithm would be an invaluable tool for the cryptanalysis of password hash functions as it would provide an automated tool to establish tight bounds on the amortized space-time cost of computing the function. We show that such a tool is unlikely to exist in the most general case. In particular, we prove the following results.

- It is NP-Hard to find a pebbling minimizing cumulative cost.
- The natural linear program relaxation for the problem has integrality gap  $\tilde{O}(n)$ , where n is the number of nodes in G. We conjecture that the problem is hard to approximate.
- We show that a related problem, find the minimum size subset  $S \subseteq V$  such that  $\operatorname{depth}(G-S) \leq d$ , is also NP-Hard. In fact, under the Unique Games Conjecture there is no  $(2-\epsilon)$ -approximation algorithm.

#### 1 Introduction

Given a directed acyclic graph (DAG) G=(V,E) the goal of the (parallel) black pebbling game is to start with pebbles on some source nodes of G and ultimately place pebbles on all sink nodes (not necessarily simultaneously). The game is played in rounds and we use  $P_i \subseteq V$  to denote the set of currently pebbled nodes on round i. Initially all nodes are unpebbled,  $P_0 = \emptyset$ , and in each round  $i \ge 1$  we may only include  $v \in P_i$  if all of v's parents were pebbled in the previous configuration (parents(v)  $\subseteq P_{i-1}$ ) or if v was already pebbled in the last round ( $v \in P_{i-1}$ ). In the sequential pebbling game we can place at most one new pebble

on the graph in any round (i.e.,  $|P_i \setminus P_{i-1}| \le 1$ ), but in the parallel pebbling game no such restriction applies.

Let  $\mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}$  (resp.  $\mathcal{P}_G$ ) denote the set of all valid parallel (resp. sequential) pebblings of G. We define the cumulative cost (respectively space-time cost) of a pebbling  $P = (P_1, \ldots, P_t) \in \mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}$  to be  $\mathsf{cc}(P) = |P_1| + \ldots + |P_t|$  (resp.  $\mathsf{st}(P) = t \times \max_{1 \leq i \leq t} |P_i|$ ), that is, the sum of the number of pebbles on the graph during every round. The parallel cumulative pebbling cost of G, denoted  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  (resp.  $\Pi_{st}(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G} \mathsf{st}(G)$ ), is the cumulative cost of the best legal pebbling of G. Formally,

$$\varPi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}} \mathsf{cc}(P) \ , \ \text{and} \qquad \qquad \varPi_{st}(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G} \mathsf{st}(P) \ .$$

In this paper, we consider the computational complexity of  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ , showing that the value is NP-Hard to compute. We also demonstrate in the full version of the paper that the natural linear programming relaxation for approximating  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  has a large integrality gap and therefore any approximation algorithm likely requires more powerful techniques.

#### 1.1 Motivation

The pebbling cost of a DAG G is closely related to the cryptanalysis of data-independent memory hard functions (iMHF) [AS15], a particularly useful primitive for password hashing [PHC,BDK16]. In particular, an efficient algorithm for (approximately) computing  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  would enable us to automate the cryptanalysis of candidate iMHFs. The question is particularly timely as the Internet Research Task Force considers standardizing Argon2i [BDK16], the winner of the password hashing competition [PHC], despite recent attacks [CGBS16,AB16,ABP17] on the construction. Despite recent progress [AB17,ABP17,BZ17] the precise security of Argon2i and alternative constructions is poorly understood.

An iMHF is defined by a DAG G (modeling data-dependencies) on n nodes  $V = \{1, \ldots, n\}$  and a compression function H (usually modeled as a random oracle in theoretical analysis)<sup>3</sup>. The label  $\ell_1$  of the first node in the graph G is simply the hash H(x) of the input x. A vertex i > 1 with parents  $i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_{\delta}$  has label  $\ell_i(x) = H(i, \ell_{i_1}(x), \ldots, \ell_{i_{\delta}}(x))$ . The output value is the label  $\ell_n$  of the last node in G. It is easy to see that any legal pebbling of G corresponds to an algorithm computing the corresponding iMHF. Placing a new pebble on node i corresponds to computing the label  $\ell_i$  and keeping (resp. discarding) a pebble on node i corresponds to storing the label in memory (resp. freeing memory). Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] proved that in the parallel random oracle model (pROM)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Because the data-dependencies in an iMHF are specified by a static graph, the induced memory access pattern does not depend on the secret input (e.g., password). This makes iMHFs resistant to side-channel attacks. Data-dependent memory hard functions (MHFs) like scrypt [Per09] are potentially easier to construct, but they are potentially vulnerable to cache-timing attacks.

of computation, *any* algorithm evaluating such an iMHF could be reduced to a pebbling strategy with (approximately) the same cumulative memory cost.

It should be noted that any graph G on n nodes has a sequential pebbling strategy  $P \in \mathcal{P}_G$  that finishes in n rounds and has cost  $\operatorname{cc}(P) \leq \operatorname{st}(P) \leq n^2$ . Ideally, a good iMHF construction provides the guarantee that the amortized cost of computing the iMHF remains high (i.e.,  $\tilde{\Omega}(n^2)$ ) even if the adversary evaluates many instances (e.g.,different password guesses) of the iMHF. Unfortunately, neither large  $\Pi_{st}(G)$  nor large  $\min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}} \operatorname{st}(P)$ , are sufficient to guarantee that  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  is large [AS15]. More recently Alwen and Blocki [AB16] showed that Argon2i [BDK16], the winner of the recently completed password hashing competition [PHC], has much lower than desired amortized space-time complexity. In particular,  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \leq \tilde{O}(n^{1.75})$ .

In the context of iMHFs, it is important to study  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$ , the cumulative pebbling cost of a graph G, in addition to  $\Pi_{st}(G)$ . Traditionally, pebbling strategies have been analyzed using space-time complexity or simply space complexity. While sequential space-time complexity may be a good model for the cost of computing a single-instance of an iMHF on a standard single-core machine (i.e., the costs incurred by the honest party during password authentication), it does not model the amortized costs of a (parallel) offline adversary who obtains a password hash value and would like to evaluate the hash function on many different inputs (e.g., password guesses) to crack the user's password [AS15,AB16]. Unlike  $\Pi_{st}(G)$ ,  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  models the amortized cost of evaluating a data-independent memory hard function on many instances [AS15,AB16].

An efficient algorithm to (approximately) compute  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  would be an incredible asset when developing and evaluating iMHFs. For example, the Argon2i designers argued that the Alwen-Blocki attack [AB16] was not particularly effective for practical values of n (e.g.,  $n \leq 2^{20}$ ) because the constant overhead was too high [BDK16]. However, they could not rule out the possibility that more efficient attacks might exist<sup>4</sup>. As it stands, there is a huge gap between the best known upper/lower bounds on  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  for Argon2i and for the new DRSample graph [ABH17], since in all practical cases the ratio between the upper bound and the lower bound is at least  $10^5$ . An efficient algorithm to (approximately) compute  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  would allow us to immediately resolve such debates by automatically generating upper/lower bounds on the cost of computing the iMHF for each running time parameters (n) that one might select in practice. Alwen  $et \ al.$  [ABP17] showed how to construct graphs G with  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega\left(\frac{n^2}{\log n}\right)$ . This construction is essentially optimal in theory as results of Alwen and Blocki [AB16] imply that any constant indegree graph has  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = O\left(\frac{n^2 \log \log n}{\log n}\right)$ . However, the exact constants one could obtain through a theoretical analysis are most-likely small. A proof that  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \geq \frac{10^{-6} \times n^2}{\log n}$  would be an underwhelming security

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Indeed, Alwen and Blocki [AB17] subsequently introduced heuristics to improve their attack and demonstrated that their attacks were effective even for smaller (practical) values of n by simulating their attack against real Argon2i instances.

guarantee in practice, where we may have  $n \approx 10^6$ . An efficient algorithm to compute  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  would allow us to immediately determine whether these new constructions provide meaningful security guarantees in practice.

#### 1.2 Results

We provide a number of computational complexity results. Our primary contribution is a proof that the decision problem "is  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \leq k$  for a positive integer  $k \leq \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ " is NP-Complete.<sup>5</sup> In fact, our result holds even if the DAG G has constant indeg.<sup>6</sup> We also provide evidence that  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  is hard to approximate. Thus, it is unlikely that it will be possible to automate the cryptanalysis process for iMHF candidates. In particular, we define a natural integer program to compute  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  and consider its linear programming relaxation. We then show in the full version of the paper that the integrality gap is at least  $\Omega\left(\frac{n}{\log n}\right)$  leading us to conjecture that it is hard to approximate  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  within constant factors. We also give an example of a DAG G on n nodes with the property that any optimal pebbling (minimizing  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}$ ) requires more than n pebbling rounds.

The computational complexity of several graph pebbling problems has been explored previously in various settings [GLT80,HP10]. However, minimizing cumulative cost of a pebbling is a very different objective than minimizing the space-time cost or space. For example, consider a pebbling where the maximum number of pebbles used is significantly greater than the average number of pebbles used. Thus, we need fundamentally new ideas to construct appropriate gadgets for our reduction. We first introduce a natural problem that arises from solving systems of linear equations, which we call Bounded 2-Linear Covering (B2LC) and show that it is NP-Complete. We then show that we can encode a B2LC instance as a graph pebbling problem thus proving that the decision version of cummulative graph pebbling is NP-Hard.

In Section 5 we also investigate the computational complexity of determining how "depth-reducible" a DAG G is showing that the problem is NP-Complete even if G has constant indegree. A DAG G is (e,d)-reducible if there exists a subset  $S \subseteq V$  of size  $|S| \le e$  such that  $\operatorname{depth}(G-S) < d$ . That is, after removing nodes in the set S from G, any remaining directed path has length less than d. If G is not (e,d)-reducible, we say that it is (e,d)-depth robust. It is known that a graph has high cumulative cost  $(e.g., \tilde{\Omega}(n^2))$  if and only if the graph is highly depth robust  $(e.g., e, d = \tilde{\Omega}(n))$  [AB16,ABP17]. Our reduction from

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Note that for any G with n nodes we have  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \leq 1 + 2 + \ldots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  since we can always pebble G in topological order in n steps if we never remove pebbles.

 $<sup>^{6}</sup>$  For practical reasons most iMHF candidates are based on a DAG  ${\cal G}$  with constant indegree.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> See additional discussion in Section 3.2.

Vertex Cover preserves approximation hardness.<sup>8</sup> Thus, assuming that  $P \neq NP$  it is hard to 1.3-approximate e, the minimum size of a set  $S \subseteq V$  such that  $\operatorname{depth}(G-S) < d$  [DS05]. Under the Unique Games Conjecture [Kho02], it is hard to  $(2-\epsilon)$ -approximate e for any fixed  $\epsilon > 0$  [KR08]. In fact, we show in the full version of the paper that the linear programming relaxation to the natural integer program to compute e has an integrality gap of  $\Omega(n/\log n)$  leading us to conjecture that it is hard to approximate e.

# 2 Preliminaries

Given a directed acyclic graph (DAG) G = (V, E) and a node  $v \in V$  we use  $\mathsf{parents}(v) = \{u : (u, v) \in E\}$  to denote the set of nodes u with directed edges into node v and we use  $\mathsf{indeg}(v) = |\mathsf{parents}(v)|$  to denote the number of directed edges into node v. We use  $\mathsf{indeg}(G) = \max_{v \in V} \mathsf{indeg}(v)$  to denote the maximum indegree of any node in G. For convenience, we use  $\mathsf{indeg}(v)$  to denote the maximum indegree of any node in G. For convenience, we use  $\mathsf{indeg}(v)$  to denote  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  when  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  is a source node and a node with no outgoing edges is a sink node. We use  $\mathsf{sinks}(G)$  (resp.  $\mathsf{sources}(G)$ ) to denote the set of all sink nodes (resp.  $\mathsf{sourcendeg}(G)$ ) in  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  we will use  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  to denote the number of nodes in a graph, and for convenience we will assume that the nodes  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  are given in topological order (i.e.,  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$ ) to denote the length of the longest directed path in  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  to denote the length of the longest directed path in  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  to denote the length of the longest directed path in  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  to denote the length of the longest directed path in  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  to denote the length of the longest directed path in  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$  to denote the set of all integers 1 to  $\mathsf{convenience}(G)$ 

**Definition 1.** Given a DAG G = (V, E) on n nodes a legal pebbling of G is a sequence of sets  $P = (P_0, \ldots, P_t)$  such that:

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1. P_0 = \emptyset
2. \forall i > 0, v \in P_i \backslash P_{i-1} we have parents(v) \subseteq P_{i-1}
3. \forall v \in sinks(G) \exists 0 < j \leq t \ such \ that \ v \in P_j
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The cumulative cost of the pebbling P is  $cc(P) = \sum_{i=1}^{t} |P_i|$ , and the space-time cost is  $st(P) = t \times \max_{0 \le i \le t} |P_i|$ .

The first condition states that we start with no pebbles on the graph. The second condition states that we can only add a new pebble on node v during round i if we already had pebbles on all of v's parents during round i-1. Finally, the last condition states that every sink node must have been pebbled during some round.

We use  $\mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}$  to denote the set of all legal pebblings, and we use  $\mathcal{P}_G \subset \mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}$  to denote the set of all sequential pebblings with the additional requirement that  $|P_i \backslash P_{i-1}| \leq 1$  (i.e., we place at most one new pebble on the graph during ever round i). We use  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}_G^{\parallel}} \mathsf{cc}(P)$  to denote the cumulative cost of the best legal pebbling.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Note that when d=0 testing whether a graph G is (e,d) reducible is *equivalent* to asking whether G has a vertex cover of size e. Our reduction establishes hardness for  $d \gg 1$ .

**Definition 2.** We say that a directed acyclic graph (DAG) G = (V, E) is (e, d)-depth robust if  $\forall S \subseteq V$  of size  $|S| \leq e$  we have  $\operatorname{depth}(G - S) \geq d$ . If G contains a set  $S \subseteq V$  of size  $|S| \leq e$  such that  $\operatorname{depth}(G - S) \leq d$  then we say that G is (e, d)-reducible.

#### **Decision Problems**

The decision problem minCC is defined as follows:

**Input:** a DAG G on n nodes and an integer k < n(n+1)/2.

**Output:** Yes, if  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \leq k$ ; otherwise No.

Given a constant  $\delta \geq 1$  we use  $\mathtt{minCC}_{\delta}$  to denote the above decision problem with the additional constraint that  $\mathtt{indeg}(G) \leq \delta$ . It is clear that  $\mathtt{minCC} \in \mathtt{NP}$  and  $\mathtt{minCC}_{\delta} \in \mathtt{NP}$  since it is easy to verify that a candidate pebbling P is legal and that  $\mathtt{cc}(P) \leq k$ . One of our primary results is to show that the decision problems  $\mathtt{minCC}$  and  $\mathtt{minCC}_2$  are  $\mathtt{NP-Complete}$ . In fact, these results hold even if we require that the DAG G has a single sink node.

The decision problem  $\mathtt{REDUCIBLE}_d$  is defined as follows:

**Input:** a DAG G on n nodes and positive integers  $e, d \le n$ .

**Output:** Yes, if G is (e, d)-reducible; otherwise No.

We show that the decision problem REDUCIBLE<sub>d</sub> is NP-Complete for all d > 0 by a reduction from Cubic Vertex Cover, defined below. Note that when d = 0 REDUCIBLE<sub>d</sub> is Vertex Cover. We use REDUCIBLE<sub>d</sub>,  $\delta$  to denote the decision problem with the additional constraint that  $indeg(G) \leq \delta$ .

The decision problem VC (resp. CubicVC) is defined as follows:

**Input:** a graph G on n vertices (CubicVC: each with degree 3) and a positive integer  $k \leq \frac{n}{2}$ .

**Output:** Yes, if G has a vertex cover of size at most k; otherwise No.

To show that minCC is NP-Complete we introduce a new decision problem B2LC. We will show that the decision problem B2LC is NP-Complete and we will give a reduction from B2LC to minCC.

The decision problem Bounded 2-Linear Covering (B2LC) is defined as follows: **Input:** an integer n, k positive integers  $0 \le c_1, \ldots, c_k$ , an integer  $m \le k$  and k equations of the form  $x_{\alpha_i} + c_i = x_{\beta_i}$ , where  $\alpha_i, \beta_i \in [n]$  and  $i \in [k]$ . We require that  $\sum_{i=1}^k c_i \le p(n)$  for some fixed polynomial n.

**Output:** Yes, if we can find mn integers  $x_{y,z} \ge 0$  (for each  $1 \le y \le m$  and  $1 \le z \le n$ ) such that for each  $i \in [k]$  there exists  $1 \le y \le m$  such that  $x_{y,\alpha_i} + c_i = x_{y,\beta_i}$  (that is the assignment  $x_1, \ldots, x_n = x_{y,1}, \ldots, x_{y,n}$  satisfies the  $i^{th}$  equation); otherwise No.

## 3 Related Work

The sequential black pebbling game was introduced by Hewitt and Paterson [HP70], and by Cook [Coo73]. It has been particularly useful in exploring

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> See footnote 5.

space/time trade-offs for various problems like matrix multiplication [Tom78], fast fourier transformations [SS78,Tom78], integer multiplication [SS79b] and many others [Cha73,SS79a]. In cryptography it has been used to construct/analyze proofs of space [DFKP15,RD16], proofs of work [DNW05,MMV13] and memory-bound functions [DGN03] (functions that incur many expensive cache-misses [ABW03]). More recently, the black pebbling game has been used to analyze memory hard functions e.g., [AS15,AB16,ABP17,AT17].

## 3.1 Password Hashing and Memory Hard Functions

Users often select low-entropy passwords which are vulnerable to offline attacks if an adversary obtains the cryptographic hash of the user's password. Thus, it is desirable for a password hashing algorithm to involve a function f(.) which is moderately expensive to compute. The goal is to ensure that, even if an adversary obtains the value (username, f(pwd, salt), salt) (where salt is some randomly chosen value), it is prohibitively expensive to evaluate f(., salt) for millions (billions) of different password guesses. PBKDF2 (Password Based Key Derivation Function 2) [Kal00] is a popular moderately hard function which iterates the underlying cryptographic hash function many times (e.g.,  $2^{10}$ ). Unfortunately, PBKDF2 is insufficient to protect against an adversary who can build customized hardware to evaluate the underlying hash function. The cost computing a hash function H like SHA256 or MD5 on an Application Specific Integrated Circuit (ASIC) is dramatically smaller than the cost of computing H on traditional hardware [NBF+15].

[ABW03], observing that cache-misses are more egalitarian than computation, proposed the use of "memory-bound" functions for password hashing — a function which maximizes the number of expensive cache-misses. Percival [Per09] observed that memory costs tend to be stable across different architectures and proposed the use of memory-hard functions (MHFs) for password hashing. Presently, there seems to be a consensus that memory hard functions are the 'right tool' for constructing moderately expensive functions. Indeed, all entrants in the password hashing competition claimed some form of memory hardness [PHC]. As the name suggests, the cost of computing a memory hard function is primarily memory related (storing/retrieving data values). Thus, the cost of computing the function cannot be significantly reduced by constructing an ASIC. Percival [Per09] introduced a candidate memory hard function called scrypt, but scrypt is potentially vulnerable to side-channel attacks as its computation yields a memory access pattern that is data-dependent (i.e., depends on the secret input/password). Due to the recently completed password hashing competition [PHC] we have many candidate data-independent memory hard functions such as Catena [FLW13] and the winning contestant Argon2i-A [BDK15].<sup>10</sup>

The specification of Argon2i has changed several times. We use Argon2i-A to refer to the version of Argon2i from the password hashing competition, and we use Argon2i-B to refer to the version that is currently being considered for standardization by the Cryptography Form Research Group (CFRG) of the IRTF[BDKJ16].

**iMHFs and Graph Pebbling** All known candidate iMHFs can be described using a DAG G and a hash function H. Graph pebbling is a particularly useful as a tool to analyze the security of an iMHF [AS15,CGBS16,FLW13]. A pebbling of G naturally corresponds to an algorithm to compute the iMHF. Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] showed that in the pROM model of computation, any algorithm to compute the iMHF corresponds to a pebbling of G.

Measuring Pebbling Costs In the past, MHF analysis has focused on space-time complexity [Per09,FLW13,BCS16]. For example, the designers of Catena [FLW13] showed that their DAG G had high sequential space-time pebbling cost  $\Pi_{st}(G)$  and Boneh et~al. [BCS16] showed that Argon2i-A and their own iMHF candidate iBH ("balloon hash") have (sequential) space-time cost  $\Omega(n^2)$ . Alwen and Serbinenko [AS15] observed that these guarantees are insufficient for two reasons: (1) the adversary may be parallel, and (2) the adversary might amortize his costs over multiple iMHF instances (e.g., multiple password guesses). Indeed, there are now multiple known attacks on Catena [BK15,AS15,AB16]. Alwen and Blocki [AB16,AB17] gave attacks on Argon2i-A, Argon2i-B, iBH, and Catena with lower than desired amortized space-time cost —  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \leq O(n^{1.8})$  for Argon2i-B,  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \leq \tilde{O}(n^{1.75})$  for Argon2i-A and iBH and  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) \leq O(n^{5/3})$  for Catena. This motivates the need to study cumulative cost  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}$  instead of space-time cost since amortized space-time complexity approaches  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}$  as the number of iMHF instances being computed increases.

Alwen et al. [ABP17] recently constructed a constant indegree graph G with  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega(\frac{n^2}{\log n})$ . From a theoretical standpoint, this is essentially optimal as any constant indeg DAG has  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel} = O(\frac{n^2 \log \log n}{\log n})$  [AB16], but from a practical standpoint the critically important constants terms in the lower bound are not well understood.

Ren and Devedas [RD17] recently proposed an alternative metric MHFs called bandwidth hardness. The key distinction between bandwidth hardness and cumulative pebbling cost is that bandwidth hardness attempts to approximate energy costs, while cumulative pebbling cost attempts to approximate amortized capital costs (i.e., the cost of all of the DRAM chips divided by the number of MHF instances that can be computed before the DRAM chip fails). In this paper we focus on the cumulative pebbling cost metric as we expect amortized capital costs to dominate for sufficiently large n. In particular, bandwidth costs scale linearly with the running time n (at best), while cumulative pebbling costs can scale quadratically with n.

#### 3.2 Computational Complexity of Pebbling

The computational complexity of various graph pebbling has been explored previously in different settings [GLT80,HP10]. Gilbert *et al.* [GLT80] focused on space-complexity of the black-pebbling game. Here, the goal is to find a pebbling which minimizes the total number of pebbles on the graph at any point in time

(intuitively this corresponds to minimizing the maximum space required during computation of the associated function). Gilbert *et al.* [GLT80] showed that this problem is PSPACE complete by reducing from the truly quantified boolean formula (TQBF) problem.

The optimal (space-minimizing) pebbling of the graphs from the reduction of Gilbert et~al. [GLT80] often require exponential time. By contrast, observe that  $\mathtt{minCC} \in NP$  because any DAG G with n nodes this algorithm has a pebbling P with  $\mathsf{cc}(P) \leq \mathsf{st}(P) \leq n^2$ . Thus, if we are minimizing  $\mathsf{cc}$  or  $\mathsf{st}$  cost, the optimal pebbling of G will trivially never require more than  $n^2$  steps. Thus, we need different tools to analyze the computational complexity of the problem of finding a pebbling with low cumulative cost.

In the full version, we show that the optimal pebbling from [GLT80] does take polynomial time if the TQBF formula only uses existential quantifiers (i.e., if we reduce from 3SAT). Thus, the reduction of Gilbert et~al. [GLT80] can also be extended to show that it is NP-Complete to check whether a DAG G admits a pebbling P with  $\operatorname{st}(P) \leq k$  for some parameter k. The reduction, which simply appends a long chain to the original graph, exploits the fact that if we increase space-usage even temporarily we will dramatically increase st cost. However, this reduction does not extend to cumulative cost because the penalty for temporarily placing large number of pebbles can be quite small as we do not keep these pebbles on the graph for a long time.

## 4 NP-Hardness of minCC

In this section we prove that minCC is NP-Complete by reduction from B2LC. Showing that  $minCC \in NP$  is straightforward so we will focus on proving that the decision problem is NP-Hard. We first provide some intuition about the reduction.

Recall that a B2LC instance consists of n variables  $x_1,\ldots,x_n$ , and k equations of the form  $x_{\alpha_i}+c_i=x_{\beta_i}$ , where  $\alpha_i,\beta_i\in[n],\ i\in[k]$ , and each  $c_i\leq p(n)$  is a positive integer bounded by some polynomial in n. The goal is to determine whether there exist m different variable assignments such that each equation is satisfied by  $at\ least\ one$  of the m assignments. Formally, the goal is to decide if there exists a set of m< k variable assignments:  $x_{y,z}\geq 0$  for each  $1\leq y\leq m$  and  $1\leq z\leq n$  so that for each  $i\in[k]$  there exists  $y\in[m]$  such that  $x_{y,\alpha_i}+c_i=x_{y,\beta_i}$ —that is the  $i^{th}$  equation  $x_{\alpha_i}+c_i=x_{\beta_i}$  is satisfied by the  $y^{th}$  variable assignment  $x_{y,1},\ldots,x_{y,n}$ . For example, if k=2 and the equations are  $x_1+1=x_2$  and  $x_2+2=x_3$ , then m=1 suffices to satisfy all the equations. On the other hand, if  $x_1+1=x_2$  and  $x_1+2=x_2$ , then we require  $m\geq 2$  since the equations are no longer independent. Observe that for m=1, B2LC seeks a single satisfying assignment, whereas for  $m\geq k$ , each equation can be satisfied by a separate assignment of the variables (specifically, the  $i^{th}$  assignment is all zeroes except  $x_{\beta_i}=c_i$ ).

Suppose we are given an instance of B2LC. We shall construct a minCC instance  $G_{B2LC}$  in such a way that the optimal pebbling of  $G_{B2LC}$  has "low" cost if the instance of B2LC is satisfiable and otherwise, has "high" cost. The graph B2LC

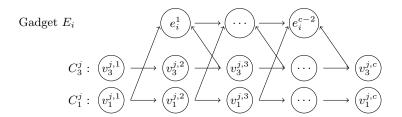
will be constructed from three different types of gadgets:  $\tau$  gadgets  $C_i^1, \ldots, C_i^{\tau}$  for each variable  $x_i$ , a gadget  $E_i$  for each equation and a "m-assignments" gadget  $M_i$  for each variable  $x_i$ . Here  $\tau$  is a parameter we shall set to create a gap between the pebbling costs of satisfiable and unsatisfiable instances of B2LC. Each gadget is described in more detail below.

Variable Gadgets Our first gadget is a chain of length  $c = \sum c_i$  so that each node is connected to the previous node, and can only be pebbled if there exists a pebble on the previous node in the previous step, such as in Figure 1. For each variable  $x_i$  in our B2LC instance we will add  $\tau$  copies of our chain gadget  $C_i^1, \ldots, C_i^{\tau}$ . Formally, for each  $j \in [\tau]$  the chain gadget  $C_i^j$  consists of c vertices  $v_i^{j,1}, \ldots, v_i^{j,c}$  with directed edges  $\left(v_i^{j,z}, v_i^{j,z+1}\right)$  for each z < c. We will later add a gadget to ensure that we must walk a pebble down each of these chains m different times and that in any optimal pebbling  $P \in \mathcal{P}_{G_{\text{B2LC}}}^{\parallel}$  (with  $\operatorname{cc}(P) = \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G_{\text{B2LC}})$ ) the walks on each chain gadget  $C_i^1, \ldots, C_i^{\tau}$  are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p0 and for each p1 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p2 and for each p3 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p4 and for each p5 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p6 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p6 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p6 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p7 and for each p8 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p9 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p8 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p8 are synchronized e.g., for each pebbling round p9 are synchronized e.g., for each p9 are synchro

$$C_i^j: \left( \overrightarrow{v_i^{j,1}} \right) \longrightarrow \left( \overrightarrow{v_i^{j,2}} \right) \longrightarrow \left( \overrightarrow{v_i^{j,3}} \right) \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow \left( \overrightarrow{v_i^{j,c}} \right)$$

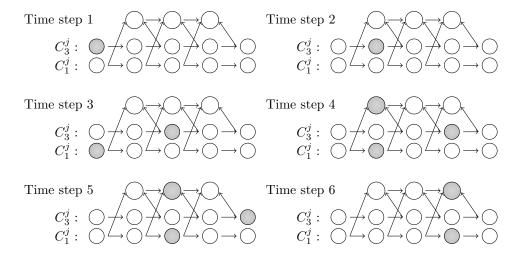
**Fig. 1.** Example variable gadget  $C_i^j$  of length  $c = \sum c_i$ .  $G_{\text{B2LC}}$  replicates this gadget  $\tau$  times:  $C_i^1, \ldots, C_i^{\tau}$ . Each of the  $\tau$  copies behaves the same.

Equation Gadget For the  $i^{th}$  equation  $x_{\alpha_i} + c_i = x_{\beta_i}$ , the gadget  $E_i$  is a chain of length  $c - c_i$ . For each  $j \in [\tau]$  we connect the equation gadget  $E_i$  to each of the variable gadgets  $C^j_{\alpha_i}$  and  $C^j_{\beta_i}$  as follows: the  $a^{th}$  node  $e^a_j$  in chain  $E_j$  has incoming edges from vertices  $v^{l,a}_{\alpha_i}$  and  $v^{l,a+c_i}_{\beta_i}$  for all  $1 \le l \le \tau$ , as demonstrated in Figure 2. To pebble the equation gadget, the corresponding variable gadgets must be pebbled synchronously, distance  $c_i$  apart.



**Fig. 2.** The gadget  $E_i$  for equation  $x_3 + 2 = x_1$ . The example shows how  $E_i$  is connected to the variable gadgets  $C_j^j$  and  $C_j^3$  for each  $j \in [\tau]$ .

Intuitively, if the equation  $x_{\alpha} + c_i = x_{\beta}$  is satisfied by the  $j^{th}$  assignment, then on the  $j^{th}$  time we walk pebbles down the chain  $x_{\alpha}$  and  $x_{\beta}$ , the pebbles on each chain will be synchronized (i.e., when we have a pebble on  $v_{\alpha}^{l,a}$ , the  $a^{th}$  link in the chain representing  $x_{\alpha}$  we will have a pebble on the node  $v_{\beta}^{l,a+c_i}$  during the same round) so that we can pebble all of the nodes in the equation gadget, such as in Figure 3. On the other hand, if the pebbles on each chain are not synchronized appropriately, we cannot pebble the equation gadget. Finally, we create a single sink node linked from each of the k equation chains, which can only be pebbled if all equation nodes are pebbled.



**Fig. 3.** A pebbling of the equation gadget  $x_3 + 2 = x_1$  (at the top) using the satisfying assignment  $x_3 = 1$  and  $x_1 = 3$ .

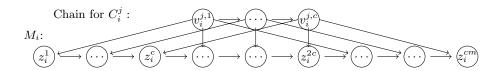
We will use another gadget, the assignment gadget, to ensure that in any legal pebbling, we need to "walk" a pebble down each chain  $C_i^j$  on m different times. Each node  $v_i^{j,z}$  of a variable gadget in a satisfiable B2LC instance has a pebble on it during exactly m rounds. On the other hand, the assignment gadget ensures that for any unsatisfiable B2LC instance, there exists some  $i \leq n$  and  $z \leq c$  such that each of the nodes  $v_i^{1,z}, \ldots, v_i^{\tau,z}$  are pebbled during at least m+1 rounds. We will tune the parameter  $\tau$  to ensure that any such pebbling is more

We will tune the parameter  $\tau$  to ensure that any such pebbling is more expensive, formalized in the full version of the paper.

m assignments gadget Our final gadget is a path of length cm so that each node is connected to the previous node. We create a path gadget  $M_i$  of length cm for each variable  $x_i$  and connect  $M_i$  to each the variable gadgets  $C_i^1, \ldots C_i^\tau$  as follows: for every node  $z_i^{p+qc}$  in the path with position p+qc>1, where  $1 \leq p \leq c$  and  $0 \leq q < m-1$ , we add an edge to  $z_i^{p+qc}$  from each of the nodes  $v_i^{j,p}$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq \tau$ 

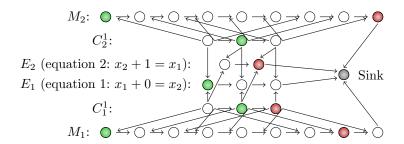
(that is, the  $p^{th}$  node in all  $\tau$  chains  $C_i^1, \ldots C_i^{\tau}$  representing the variable  $x_i$ ). We connect the final node in each of the n paths to the final sink node  $v_{sink}$  in our graph  $G_{\texttt{B2LC}}$ .

Intuitively, to pebble  $v_{sink}$  we must walk a pebble down each of the gadgets  $M_i$  which in turn requires us to walk a pebble along each chain  $C_i^j$ ,  $1 \le j \le \tau$ , at least m times. For example, see Figure 4.



**Fig. 4.** The gadget  $M_i$  for variable  $x_i$  is a path of length cm. The example shows how  $M_i$  is connected to  $C_i^j$  for each  $j \in [\tau]$ . The example shows m = 3 passes and c = 3.

Figure 5 shows an example of a reduction in its entirety when  $\tau = 1$ .



**Fig. 5.** An example of a complete reduction  $G_{\mathtt{B2LC}}$ , again m=3 and c=3. The green nodes represent the pebbled vertices at time step 2 while the red nodes represent the pebbled vertices at time step 10.

**Lemma 1.** If the B2LC instance has a valid solution, then  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G_{\text{B2LC}}) \leq \tau cmn + 2cmn + 2ckm + 1$ .

**Lemma 2.** If the B2LC instance does not have a valid solution, then  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G_{\text{B2LC}}) \geq \tau cmn + \tau$ .

We outline the key intuition behind Lemma 1 and Lemma 2 and refer to the full version of the paper for the formal proofs. Intuitively, any solution to B2LC corresponds to m walks across the  $\tau n$  chains  $C_i^j$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ ,  $1 \le j \le \tau$  of length c. If the B2LC instance is satisfiable then we can synchronize each of these walks so that we can pebble every equation chain  $E_j$  and path  $M_j$  along the way.

Thus, the total cost is  $\tau cmn$  plus the cost to pebble the k equation chains  $E_j$  ( $\leq 2ckm$ ), the cost to pebble the n paths  $M_j$  ( $\leq 2cmn$ ) plus the cost to pebble the sink node 1.

We then prove a structural property about the optimal pebbling  $P = (P_0, \ldots, P_t) \in \mathcal{P}_{G_{\mathtt{B2LC}}}^{\parallel}$ . In particular, we formally claim in the full version of the paper that if  $P = (P_0, \ldots, P_t)$  is optimal (i.e.,  $\mathsf{cc}(P) = \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G_{\mathtt{B2LC}})$ ) then during each pebbling round  $y \leq t$  the pebbles on each of the chains  $C_i^1, \ldots, C_i^\tau$  are synchronized. Formally, for every  $y \leq t, i \leq n$  and  $z \leq c$  we either have (1)  $\left\{v_i^{1,z}, \ldots, v_i^{\tau,z}\right\} \subseteq P_y$ , or (2)  $\left\{v_i^{1,z}, \ldots, v_i^{\tau,z}\right\} \cap P_y = \emptyset$  — otherwise we could reduce our pebbling cost by discarding these unnecessary pebbles.

If the B2LC instance is not satisfied then we must adopt a "cheating" pebbling strategy P, which does not correspond to a B2LC solution. We say that P is a "cheating" pebbling if some node  $v_i^{j,z} \in C_i^j$  is pebbled during at least m+1 rounds. We can use Claim  $\ref{Claim}$  to show that the cost of any "cheating" pebbling is at least  $\operatorname{cc}(P) \geq \tau \ (mc+1)$ . In particular, P must incur cost at least  $\tau mc(n-1)$  to walk a pebble down each of the chains  $C_{i'}^j$  with  $i' \neq i$  and  $1 \leq j \leq \tau$ . By Claim  $\ref{Claim}$ , any cheating pebbling P incurs costs at least  $\tau (mc+1)$  on each of the chains  $C_i^j, \ldots, C_i^\tau$ . Thus, the cumulative cost is at least  $\tau cmn + \tau$ .

# Theorem 1. minCC is NP-Complete.

Proof. It suffices to show that there is a polynomial time reduction from B2LC to minCC since B2LC is NP-Complete (see Theorem 3). Given an instance  $\mathcal{P}$  of B2LC, we create the corresponding graph G as described above. This is clearly achieved in polynomial time. By Lemma 1, if  $\mathcal{P}$  has a valid solution, then  $\Pi^{\parallel}_{cc}(G) \leq \tau cmn + 2cmn + 2ckm + 1$ . On the other hand, by Lemma 2, if  $\mathcal{P}$  does not have a valid solution, then  $\Pi^{\parallel}_{cc}(G) \geq \tau cmn + \tau$ . Therefore, setting  $\tau > 2cmn + 2ckm + 1$  (such as  $\tau = 2cmn + 2ckm + 2$ ) allows one to solve B2LC given an algorithm which outputs  $\Pi^{\parallel}_{cc}(G)$ .

# **Theorem 2.** minCC<sub> $\delta$ </sub> is NP-Complete for each $\delta \geq 2$ .

Note that the only possible nodes in  $G_{\mathtt{B2LC}}$  with indegree greater than two are the nodes in the equation gadgets  $E_1,\ldots,E_m$ , and the final sink node. The equation gadgets can have indegree up to  $2\tau+1$ , while the final sink node has indegree n+m. To show that  $\mathtt{minCC}_{\delta}$  is NP-Complete when  $\delta=2$  we can replace the incoming edges to each of these nodes with a binary tree, so that all vertices have indegree at most two. By changing  $\tau$  appropriately, we can still distinguish between instances of B2LC using the output of  $\mathtt{minCC}_{\delta}$ . We refer to the full version of the paper for a sketch of the proof of Theorem 2.

## Theorem 3. B2LC is NP-Complete.

To show that B2LC is NP-Complete we will reduce from the problem 3-PARTITION, which is known to be NP-Complete. The decision problem 3-PARTITION is defined as follows:

**Input:** A multi-set S of m=3n positive integers  $x_1,\ldots,x_m\geq 1$  such that (1) we have  $\frac{T}{4n}< x_i<\frac{T}{2n}$  for each  $1\leq i\leq m$ , where  $T=x_1+\ldots+x_m$ , and (2) we require that  $T\leq p(n)$  for a fixed polynomial p.

**Output:** Yes, if there is a partition of [m] into n subsets  $S_1, \ldots, S_n$  such that  $\sum_{j \in S_i} x_j = \frac{T}{n}$  for each  $1 \le i \le n$ ; otherwise No.

Fact 4 [GJ75, Dem14] 3-PARTITION is NP-Complete.  $^{12}$ 

We refer to the full version of the paper for the proof of Theorem 3, where we show that there is a polynomial time reduction from 3-PARTITION to B2LC.

# 5 NP-Hardness of REDUCIBLE<sub>d</sub>

The attacks of Alwen and Blocki [AB16,AB17] exploited the fact that the Argon2i-A, Argon2i-B, iBH and Catena DAGs are not depth-robust. In general, Alwen and Blocki [AB16] showed that any (e,d)-reducible DAG G can be pebbled with cumulative cost  $O(ne+n\sqrt{nd})$ . Thus, depth-robustness is a necessary condition for a secure iMHF. Recently, Alwen  $et\ al.$  [ABP17] showed that depth-robustness is sufficient for a secure iMHF. In particular, they showed that an (e,d)-depth reducible graph has  $\Pi^{\parallel}_{cc}(G) \geq ed.^{13}$  Thus, to cryptanalyze a candidate iMHF it would be useful to have an algorithm to test for depth-robustness of an input graph G. However, we stress that (constant-factor) hardness of REDUCIBLE $_d$  does not directly imply that minCC is NP-Hard. To the best of our knowledge no one has explored the computational complexity of testing whether a given DAG G is (e,d)-depth robust.

We have many constructions of depth-robust graphs [EGS75,PR80,Sch82,Sch83,MMV13], but the constant terms in these constructions are typically not well understood. For example, Erdös, Graham and Szemerédi [EGS75] constructed an  $(\Omega(n),\Omega(n))$ -depth robust graph with indeg  $=O(\log n)$ . Alwen et al. [ABP17] showed how to transform an n node (e,d)-depth robust graph with maximum indegree indeg to a  $(e,d\times indeg)$ -depth robust graph with maximum indeg =2 on  $n\times indeg$  nodes. Applying this transform to the Erdös, Graham and Szemerédi [EGS75] construction yields a constant-indegree graph on n nodes such that G is  $(\Omega(n/\log(n)),\Omega(n))$ -depth robust — implying that  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)=\Omega(\frac{n^2}{\log n})$ . From a theoretical standpoint, this is essentially optimal as any constant indeg DAG has  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}=O(\frac{n^2\log\log n}{\log n})$  [AB16]. From a practical standpoint it is important to understand the exact values of e and d for specific parameters n in each construction.

We may assume  $\frac{T}{4n} < x_i < \frac{T}{2n}$  by taking any set of positive integers and adding a large fixed constant to all terms, as described in [Dem14].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> The 3PARTITION problem is called P[3,1] in [GJ75].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Alwen *et al.* [ABP17] also gave tighter upper and lower bounds on  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  for the Argon2i-A, iBH and Catena iMHFs. For example,  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \Omega\left(n^{1.66}\right)$  and  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = O\left(n^{1.71}\right)$  for a random Argon2i-A DAG G (with high probability). Blocki and Zhou [BZ17] recently tightened the upper and lower bounds on Argon2i-B showing that  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = O\left(n^{1.767}\right)$  and  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G) = \tilde{\Omega}\left(n^{1.75}\right)$ .

#### 5.1 Results

We first produce a reduction from Vertex Cover which preserves approximation hardness. Let  $\min \mathtt{REDUCIBLE}_d$  denote the problem of finding a minimum size  $S \subseteq V$  such that  $\mathsf{depth}(G-S) \leq d$ . Our reduction shows that, for each  $0 \leq d \leq n^{1-\epsilon}$ , it is NP-Hard to 1.3-approximate  $\min \mathtt{REDUCIBLE}_d$  since it is NP-Hard 1.3-approximate Vertex Cover [DS05]. Similarly, it is hard to  $(2-\epsilon)$ -approximate  $\min \mathtt{REDUCIBLE}_d$  for any fixed  $\epsilon > 0$  [KR08], under the Unique Games Conjecture [Kh002]. We also produce a reduction from Cubic Vertex Cover to show  $\mathtt{REDUCIBLE}_d$  is NP-Complete even when the input graph has bounded indegree.

The techniques we use are similar to those of Bresar et al. [BKKS11] who considered the problem of finding a minimum size d-path cover in undirected graphs (i.e., find a small set  $S \subseteq V$  of nodes such that every undirected path in G-S has size at most d). However, we stress that if G is a DAG,  $\hat{G}$  is the corresponding undirected graph and  $S \subseteq V$  is given such that  $\operatorname{depth}(G-S) \leq d$  that this does not ensure that  $\hat{G}-S$  contains no undirected path of length d. Thus, our reduction specifically address the needs for directed graphs and bounded indegree.

**Theorem 5.** REDUCIBLE<sub>d</sub> is NP-Complete and it is NP-Hard to 1.3-approximate minREDUCIBLE<sub>d</sub>. Under the Unique Games Conjecture, it is hard to  $(2-\epsilon)$ -approximate minREDUCIBLE<sub>d</sub>.

**Theorem 6.** Even for  $\delta = O(1)$ , REDUCIBLE<sub>d, $\delta$ </sub> is NP-Complete.

We defer the proofs of Theorem 5 and Theorem 6 to the full version of the paper. We leave open the question of efficient approximation algorithms for  $\mathtt{minREDUCIBLE}_d$ . Lee [Lee17] recently proposed a FPT O (log d)-approximation algorithm for the related problem d-path cover problem running in time  $2^{O(d^3\log d)}n^{O(1)}$ . However, it is not clear whether the techniques could be adapted to handle directed graphs and in most interesting cryptographic applications we have  $d=\Omega\left(\sqrt{n}\right)$  so the algorithm would not be tractable.

## 6 Conclusions

We initiate the study of the computational complexity of cumulative cost minimizing pebbling in the parallel black pebbling model. This problem is motivated by the urgent need to develop and analyze secure data-independent memory hard functions for password hashing. We show that it is NP-Hard to find a parallel black pebbling minimizing cumulative cost, and we provide evidence that the problem is hard to approximate. Thus, it seems unlikely that we will be able to develop tools to automate the task of a cryptanalyst to obtain strong upper/lower bounds on the security of a candidate iMHF. However, we cannot absolutely rule out the possibility that an efficient approximation algorithm exists. In fact, our results only establish worst case hardness of graph pebbling. We cannot rule out the existance of efficient algorithms to find optimal pebblings for practical iMHF proposals such as Argon2i [BDK16] and DRSample [ABH17].

The primary remaining challenge is to either give an efficient  $\alpha$ -approximation algorithm to find a pebbling  $P \in \mathcal{P}^{\parallel}$  with  $\mathrm{cc}(P) \leq \alpha \Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  or show that  $\Pi_{cc}^{\parallel}(G)$  is hard to approximate. We believe that the problem offers many interesting theoretical challenges and a solution could have very practical consequences for secure password hashing. It is our hope that this work encourages others in the TCS community to explore these questions.

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