

Fast Parallelizable Misuse-Resistant Authenticated Encryption Low Latency (Decryption-Fast) SIV

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Abstract. In this paper, we present two new provable nonce-misuse-resistant AEAD modes based on tweakable block ciphers and universal hash functions. These new modes target equipping high-speed applications with nonce-misuse-resistant AEAD (MRAE). The first mode, Low Latency Synthetic IV (LLSIV), targets similar performance on single-core platforms to SCT-2, while eliminating the bottlenecks that make SCT-2 not fully parallelizable. The enhanced parallelism allows LLSIV to encrypt significantly more blocks on parallel platforms, compared to SCT-2, in the same amount of time. It is based on the NaT MAC. The second mode is Low Latency Decryption-Fast SIV (LLDFV) which offers rate-1 decryption along side parallelizable low-latency encryption. It is faster than decryption-fast SIV (DFV) on all platforms. We also propose LLSIV with a reduced-round TBC in an adhoc mode of operation that we label as pruned LLSIV (pLLSIV). This leads to a significant performance improvement, making pLLSIV even faster than online TBC-based schemes that are not MRAE-secure. We evaluate the performance of LLSIV and pLLSIV using a pipelined FPGA architecture.

LLSIV can also be instantiated based on AES and PolyVal. This instantiation uses straightforward composition, so we present it in Appendix F for completeness comparing its performance to AES-GCM-SIV.

Keywords: AEAD · MRAE · TBC · SIV · SKINNY.

1 Introduction

In 2006, Rogaway and Shrimpton [33] presented the Deterministic Authenticated Encryption (DAE) security notion to address the problems of nonce-based Authenticated Encryption with Associated Data (AEAD). They also introduced a construction known as the Synthetic Initial Vector (SIV) construction. Ever since, it has become one of two blueprints for building DAE and nonce-Misuse-Resistant AE (MRAE), the other blueprint being the Encode-then-Encipher (EtE) framework [9]. The SIV construction works as follows: First, the plaintext and associated data (AD) are absorbed by a variable-input-length Pseudo-Random Function (PRF) to generate a block T of fixed length. Then, T is used both as an authentication tag and an IV for an IV-based encryption scheme.

This process is depicted in Figure 1(a). Typically, the security of the encryption layer breaks down if the IV is repeated. Thus, the scheme can only offer up to Birthday Bound (upBB) security with respect to the tag size.

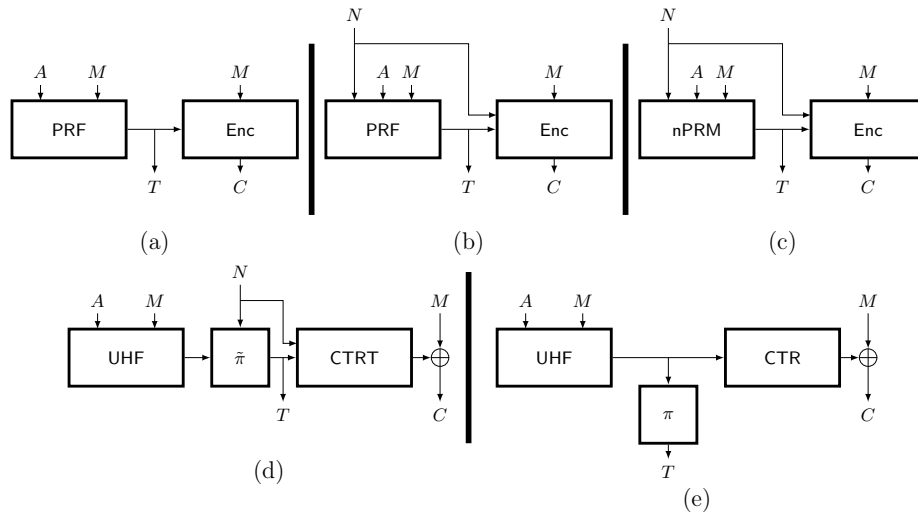


Fig. 1. The evolution of SIV-like constructions. (a) The original SIV construction. (b) The nSIV construction. (c) The nSIV construction using nonce-based Pseudo-Random MAC. (d) The SCT-2k mode. (e) Conceptualization of the HBS mode.

This limitation has motivated a line of research into combining the concepts DAE and NAE into MRAE. The idea is to build a scheme that acts as an NAE scheme when the nonce uniqueness is ensured, and the security does not drop drastically when the nonce is repeated a small number of times. This has been exemplified by the line of research surrounding the Deoxys-II AEAD scheme [26, 30, 27, 12], which is the winner of the defence-in-depth track of the CAESAR competition.¹ In [30], Peyrin and Seurin proposed the Synthetic Counter-in-Tweak (SCT) mode. Later, the designers of Deoxys modified it to SCT-2 [26] which uses the Nonce-as-Tweak (NaT) MAC [13] as the PRF and the CounTeR-in-Tweak (CTRt) IV-and-nonce-based encryption mode. The SCT-2 mode is depicted in Figure 1(d). A security proof for a two-key version of SCT-2 was given in [12] under the name GNSIV-N and we shall be using this version in our discussion. We shall be referring to this version as SCT-2k. The goal of these constructions is to use the properties of the Tweakable Block Cipher (TBC) to achieve what is known as *graceful degradation*: If the nonce is unique, the scheme has almost full Beyond Birthday Bound (BBB) security, while the security drops linearly with the maximum number of nonce repetitions, reaching upBB security

¹ <https://competitions.cr.yp.to/caesar.html>

if the nonce becomes a constant. In [27], the authors extended this concept to define the nonce-based SIV (nSIV) construction, depicted in Figures 1(b) and (c). They also generalized the security analysis of NaT to define the nonce-based Pseudo-Random MAC (nPRM) security notion, which is quite different from, and more flexible than, simple PRFs. These concepts were also used to design other nSIV-based schemes such as Romulus-M [22].

One of the main features of Deoxys-II that makes it appealing for high speed applications is its internal parallelism. The NaT scheme uses a Universal Hash Function (UHF) followed by a TBC. The UHF is implemented using the sum of TBCs construction used in PMAC-1 [32]. On the other hand, the CTRT mode process the counters and plaintext blocks completely in parallel. It was shown in several works that by exploiting the internal parallelism, the performance of Deoxys-II can be improved drastically [26–28]. In particular, the advantage of pipelined hardware accelerators of block ciphers have been demonstrated in multiple recent works, with sometimes upward of $50\times$ speed-up compared to sequential implementations [21, 34, 36, 38, 40].

Related Work on Hash Stealing: One of the ideas we propose in this paper is using what can be viewed as “hash stealing”. A similar idea was proposed by Iwata and Yasuda in 2009 in the Hash-Block-Stealing (HBS) mode [25] but does not seem to have received a lot of attention. We represent this idea in Figure 1(e). Their scheme is based on block ciphers and does not achieve graceful MRAE security. In fact, the security bound in [25] is even *lower* than the birthday bound, as it is $O(q^2l^2/2^n)$, where l is the maximum length of the queries. If the scheme is used in an application where only a few queries are very long and the rest are reasonably short, then the total complexity allowed is $\sigma \ll ql$. Thus, when $q^2l^2 \approx 2^n$, $\sigma \ll 2^{n/2}$, and the scheme maybe difficult to use when the input space mixes long and short messages.

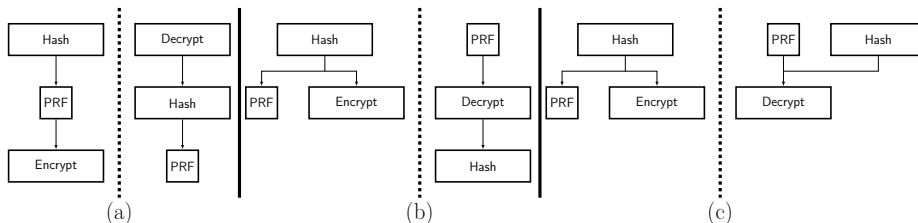


Fig. 2. Data flow (a) without hash stealing, (b) with hash stealing, (c) with both hash stealing and decryption-fast techniques.

Contribution: In this paper, we propose three new TBC-based MRAE modes: LLSIV, pLLSIV and LLDFV. LLSIV revisits the idea of hash stealing, briefly introduced in [25] in the context of DAE. We show that using TBC, we can get

very good security bounds while maintaining a 2-step encryption flow, shown in Figure 2(b). Next, we show two more improvements. LLDFV combines the design principle of LLSIV with the decryption-fast SIV (DFV) [29] to achieve a 2-step data flow for both encryption and decryption, shown in Figure 2(c). Note that this provides a significant improvement over both LLSIV and DFV, where the latter requires 4 sequential steps for encryption and 3 sequential steps for decryption. We also propose an adhoc mode called pLLSIV (pruned LLSIV), where we exploit the limitations of the adversaries against LLSIV and the cryptanalytic results on the SKINNY-128-384 TBC to give an MRAE design that is faster than even online SKINNY-based AEAD. These results are summed up in Table 1. We compare SCT-2k, LLSIV and pLLSIV using pipelined implementations of SKINNY-128-384. LLSIV can also be instantiated using PolyVal and AES (in the ideal cipher model) and is quite competitive compared to AES-GCM-SIV [17], but we leave this instantiation to Appendix F.

Outline The preliminaries are provided in Section 2. A summary of the approach is given in Section 3. The analysis of LLSIV is given in Section 4 and the analysis of LLDFV is given in Section 5. The performance comparison of LLSIV, security arguments of pLLSIV and FPGA-based comparisons are given in Section 6.

Scheme	Security Argument	Security Claim	Speed Up
LLSIV	Provable	$q_e, q_d \leq 2^{128}/\mu,$ $\sigma_e \leq 2^{128}/\mu, t \ll 2^{128}$	Parallel Encryption
LLDFV	Provable	$q_e, q_d \leq 2^{64}$	Both directions, all platforms
pLLSIV	Adhoc	$l \leq 2^{16}, q_d, \sigma_e \leq 2^{46}, t \ll 2^{112}$	Both directions, all platforms

Table 1. Proposed modes and their security when instantiated with a n -bit TBC and a ϵ_1 -AU and ϵ_2 -AXU hash functions ($\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 = O(l/2^k + 1/2^n)$). q_e and q_d are the number of encryption and decryption queries, respectively. σ_e is the overall encryption data complexity. t is the maximum time elapsed by the adversary, counted in primitive (offline) calls to the underlying TBC. μ is the maximum number of nonce repetitions in encryption queries. l is the maximum length of any query, measure in n -bit blocks. The security of LLDFV is reduced to the underlying AEAD scheme, thus we omit the time complexity from the summary. Speed-up is in comparison to a non-hash stealing variant, *e.g.*, SCT-2k or DFV. The data complexity is measured in n -bit blocks. Note that for all schemes $n = 128$ bits, while the key size k of the TBCs and hash functions shall be specified for each instantiation.

2 Preliminaries

Let $\{0, 1\}^*$ be the set of all finite bit strings including the empty string ε . For $X \in \{0, 1\}^*$, $|X|$ is its bit length. For an integer $i \geq 0$, $\{0, 1\}^i$ is the set of all bit strings of length i bits and $\{0, 1\}^{\leq i}$ is the set of all bit strings of length at most i bits. For an integer $l \leq 1$, $|X|_l$ is the length of $X \in \{0, 1\}^*$ in l -bit blocks, *i.e.*, $|X|_l = \lceil |X|/l \rceil$ if $X \neq \varepsilon$ and $|X|_l = 1$ if $X = \varepsilon$. For two bit strings X and Y , $X\|Y$ is the concatenation of the two strings. 0^i is the string consisting of i zero bits and $1\|0^i$ is written as 10^i . For $X \in \{0, 1\}^*$ with $|X| \geq i$, $\text{msb}_i(X)$ is the leftmost i bits of X and $\text{lsb}_i(X)$ is the rightmost i bits of X . Let X be a uniformly sampled bit string from the set \mathcal{X} , we write $X \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{X}$. For $X \in \{0, 1\}^*$, $\text{pad}_n(X)$ is the de-facto one-zero padding: Let $|X| \bmod n = i$. Then, $\text{pad}_n(X) = 10^{n-1}$ if $X = \varepsilon$, $\text{pad}_n(X) = X$ if $i = 0$, and $\text{pad}_n(X) = X\|10^{n-i-1}$, otherwise. Let $0 \leq i < 2^b$ be an integer, then \bar{i}_b be the b -bit binary representation of i , such that if $i \neq j$, $\bar{i}_b \neq \bar{j}_b$. If b is understood from context, we write \bar{i} .

Authenticated Encryption with Associated Data (AEAD). We define the syntax of AEAD using nonce and AD, then we describe the special cases where either of these inputs are not available/not used. Let $\text{NAE} = (\text{NAE.Enc}, \text{NAE.Dec})$ be an NAE scheme. NAE.Enc takes as input a key $K \in \mathcal{K}$ and a tuple $(N, A, M) \in \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{M}$, and returns a ciphertext $C \in \mathcal{M}$ and a tag $T \in \mathcal{T}$, such that $|M| = |C|$. We shall define $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^*$ and $\mathcal{T} = \{0, 1\}^\tau$ for a fixed small τ . NAE.Dec takes as input a key $K \in \mathcal{K}$ and a tuple $(N, A, C, T) \in \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{T}$, and returns either an invalid symbol \perp or a plaintext $M \in \mathcal{M}$.

If $\mathcal{A} = \phi$, we shall follow the notation of [29] and refer to the scheme as pNAE . If $\mathcal{N} = \phi$, then we refer to the scheme as DAE . If $\mathcal{N} \neq \phi$ but the nonce can be repeated, then we refer to the scheme as MRAE .

MRAE Security. Let MRAE be an AEAD scheme. We define two security notions. The privacy notion is the indistinguishability of ciphertexts from random string. Let \mathbf{A} be a nonce-repeating adversary against MRAE . \mathbf{A} has access to one oracle and makes unique queries of the form (N, A, M) . \mathbf{A} makes q_e queries. Given $N \in \mathcal{N}$, N appears in at most μ queries. If $\mathcal{N} = \phi$, then $\mu = q_e$. Let \mathcal{O} be the oracle that takes as input the tuple (N, A, M) and returns $C \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{|M|}$ and $T \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^\tau$. Then, the advantage of \mathbf{A} against the nonce-misuse privacy of MRAE is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{MRAE}}^{\text{nm-priv}}(\mathbf{A}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\Pr[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K} : \mathbf{A}^{\text{MRAE.Enc}} \rightarrow 1] - \Pr[\mathbf{A}^{\mathcal{O}} \rightarrow 1]|$$

Let \mathbf{B} be a nonce-repeating adversary against MRAE . \mathbf{B} has access to two oracles. It makes q_e queries of the form (N, A, M) to its first oracle and q_d queries the form of (N, A, C, T) to its second oracle. \mathbf{B} does not repeat queries and does not request queries from its second oracles that have been previously generated by the first oracle. Then, the advantage of \mathbf{B} against the nonce-misuse authenticity of MRAE is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{MRAE}}^{\text{nm-auth}}(\mathbf{B}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Pr[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K} : \mathbf{B}^{\text{MRAE.Enc}, \text{MRAE.Dec}} \text{ forges MRAE}]$$

where \mathbf{B} forges MRAE means that for any query \mathbf{B} makes to its second oracle, it receives a plaintext $M^* \neq \perp$.

When understood in context, we will use $\mathbf{nr-}$ to refer to the same security notions when the adversary is nonce respecting and $\mathbf{d-}$ when the scheme is deterministic, *i.e.*, $\mathcal{N} = \phi$.

Tweakable Block Cipher (TBC) A TBC is a mapping $\tilde{E} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{T} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ such that for any choice of $K \in \mathcal{K}$, and any choice of $T_w \in \mathcal{T}$, $Y \leftarrow \tilde{E}(K, T_w, X)$ is a permutation of $\{0, 1\}^n$. Let $\text{perm}_{t,n}$ be the set of all tweakable permutations of $\{0, 1\}^n$ with tweak space \mathcal{T} . We say $\tilde{\pi} : \mathcal{T} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ is a tweakable permutation if for every choice of $T \in \mathcal{T}$, $Y \leftarrow \tilde{\pi}(T, X)$ is a permutation of $\{0, 1\}^n$, and $\tilde{\omega} : \mathcal{T} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ is the inverse tweakable permutation such that $\tilde{\omega}^T(\tilde{\pi}^T(M)) = M$. We write $\tilde{E}_K^T(X)$ to indicate $\tilde{E}(K, T, X)$. A (q_e, q_d, t) -adversary \mathbf{A} against the strong Tweakable Pseudo-Random Permutation (sTPRP) security of \tilde{E} is an algorithm that has oracle access to a tweakable permutation of $\{0, 1\}^n$ as well as its inverse, makes q_e queries to the first oracle, q_d queries to the second oracle and runs in time at most t . It outputs a single bit. The advantage of \mathbf{A} against the sTPRP security of \tilde{E} is given by

$$\text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{stprp}}(\mathbf{A}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\Pr[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K} : \mathbf{A}^{\tilde{E}_K, (\tilde{E}_K)^{-1}} \rightarrow 1] - \Pr[\tilde{\pi} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{perm}_{t,b} : \mathbf{A}^{\tilde{\pi}, \tilde{\omega}} \rightarrow 1]|,$$

where $\tilde{\pi}$ is sampled uniformly from the set of all tweakable permutations, *i.e.*, for each choice of tweak $T \in \mathcal{T}$, $\tilde{\pi}(T, \cdot)$ is a uniformly random permutation. We call $\tilde{\pi}$ a Tweakable Uniformly Random Permutation (TURP). Let \mathbf{B} be an adversary that has only access to the first oracle and makes q_e queries, then

$$\text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{tprp}}(\mathbf{B}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\Pr[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K} : \mathbf{A}^{\tilde{E}_K} \rightarrow 1] - \Pr[\tilde{\pi} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{perm}_{t,n} : \mathbf{A}^{\tilde{\pi}} \rightarrow 1]|.$$

Universal Hash Function (UHF) Let $H : \mathcal{K}_h \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ be a keyed hash function with key space \mathcal{K}_h , input space \mathcal{X} and output space \mathcal{Y} . Let $\epsilon > 0$. We say H is ϵ_1 -Almost Universal (ϵ_1 -AU) if for any distinct X_1 and $X_2 \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\Pr[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}_h : H_K(X_1) = H_K(X_2)] \leq \epsilon_1.$$

Beside, We say H is ϵ_2 -Almost XOR Universal (ϵ_2 -AXU) if for any distinct X_1 and $X_2 \in \mathcal{X}$ and for any $Y \in \mathcal{Y}$,

$$\Pr[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}_h : H_K(X_1) \oplus H_K(X_2) = Y] \leq \epsilon_2.$$

Nonce-as-Tweak (NaT) [13] Let $\tilde{E} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{N} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ be a TBC and $H : \mathcal{K}_h \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ be an ϵ -AU hash function. Then, the NaT MAC is given by

$$\text{NaT}[\tilde{E}, H]_{K, K_h}(N, M) = \tilde{E}_K^N(H_{K_h}(M)). \quad (1)$$

Besides, let Ver be the oracle that takes as input $M \in \mathcal{M}$ and $T \in \{0, 1\}^n$, and returns \top if $\text{NaT}[\tilde{E}, H]_{K, K_h}(N, M) = T$ and \perp , otherwise. Let $\$$ be the

oracle that returns a uniformly random n -bit block for each plaintext-nonce pair $(N, M) \in \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{M}$ and Rej is the oracle that outputs \perp for all queries. Then, Cogliati *et al.* [13] show that for any adversary \mathbf{A} that makes q_m queries to the first oracle and q_v queries to the second oracle and runs in time t , there exists an adversary \mathbf{A}' that runs in time $O(t + (q_m + q_v)t_H)$ and makes $q_m + q_v$ queries to \tilde{E} , such that,

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{NaT}}^{\text{mac}}(\mathbf{A}) \leq |\Pr[K \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}, K_h \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}_h : \mathcal{A}^{\text{NaT}, \text{Ver}} \Rightarrow 1] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}^{\$, \text{Rej}} \Rightarrow 1]| \leq$$

$$\text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{tprp}}(\mathbf{A}') + 2(\mu - 1)q_m\epsilon + \frac{q_v}{2^n - \mu} + \mu q_v\epsilon. \quad (2)$$

where t_H is the upper bound on the time needed to compute H and μ is the maximum number of times a given $N \in \mathcal{N}$ is repeated in different queries to the first oracle.

The XOR-Hash Let $\tilde{E} : \mathcal{K} \times (\mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{I} \times \{0, 1\}^n) \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ be a TBC, where $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and \mathcal{I} be the set of non-negative integers $\leq l_{\max}$ for a constant $l_{\max} \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, the TBC-based version of XOR-Hash $\text{XH} : \mathcal{K} \times (\{0, 1\}^{\leq 2nl_{\max}} \times \{0, 1\}^{\leq 2nl_{\max}}) \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ is given by Algorithm 1. The XOR-Hash is a known construction and was used in other designs [12, 23]. However, it requires careful assignment of message blocks, padding and domain separators. We describe it in this section for the sake of completeness. We shall also discuss it in Section 6. Otherwise, we will refer to it as a black-box construction.

Algorithm 1 The XOR-Hash Function

1: $\text{XH}(K, A, M)$ 2: return $\text{XH}_1(K, A) \oplus \text{XH}_2(K, M)$ 3: $\text{XH}_i(K, X)$ 4: $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_x \xleftarrow{n} \text{pad}_{2n}(X)$ 5: if $X = \epsilon \vee X \bmod 2n \neq 0$ then 6: $d_i \leftarrow 3 + 3(i - 1)$ 7: else	8: $d_i \leftarrow 2 + 3(i - 1)$ 9: end if 10: $X_h \leftarrow 0^n$ 11: $d \leftarrow 1 + 3(i - 1)$ 12: for $i \in \{0, \dots, x/2 - 2\}$ do 13: $X_h \leftarrow X \oplus \tilde{E}_K^{d, i, X_{2i+2}}(X_{2i+1})$ 14: end for 15: $X_h \leftarrow X \oplus \tilde{E}_K^{d_i, x/2-1, X_x}(X_{x-1})$ 16: return X_h
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Cogliati *et al.* [12] proved that if the underlying TBC is unpredictable against any adversary running in time $O(t + l)$ and making queries of at most $2l$ queries to the TBC, with advantage at most ϵ , then the described hash function is ϵ -AU against all adversaries making queries of length at most l blocks and running in time t . They also conjectured that for a standard selection of the TBC, $\epsilon = O(l/2^k + 1/2^n)$

3 Hash stealing, the bottlenecks of nSIV and new modes

Our goal is to take advantage of the possible internal parallelism the underlying encryption and hashing modes, and eliminate the bottlenecks of SIV/SCT-2k. Simultaneously, we want to take advantage of the recently popularized *prove-then-prune* methodology. The first bottleneck comes from the requirement of SIV/SCT-2k that the IV/tag T be indistinguishable from a random block. This requires transforming the hashed (A, M) pair using a PRF, as exemplified by the application of $\tilde{\pi}$ in Figure 1(d). This call to a fixed length PRF (in this case implemented using a TBC) cannot be done in parallel to either parts of the construction, and represents a significant bottleneck to speeding up instantiations of SIV/SCT-2k on parallel platforms, especially for short messages. This leads to the 3-step data flow depicted in Figure 2(a). Our goal is to find 2-step data flows, where the encryption and decryption algorithms are implemented using two parallelizable steps. First, we propose a new TBC-based mode called LLSIV which manages to use hash stealing to have a 2-step encryption, while maintaining 3-step decryption. Then, we propose another new mode called LLDFV which achieves 2-step encryption and decryption, as we explain later in the paper.

The other technique that cannot be fully used in SIV-based schemes (including SCT-2k) is the *prove-then-prune* framework. This framework has become popular in the recent years with designs/constructions such as the Orthros PRF [7], the ForkCipher [3], the Masked Iterate-Fork-Iterate (mifi) framework [2], and other forked constructions [16]. The basic idea of this framework is to design constructions that are proven secure when the underlying primitive is an idealized primitive, then argue that the way the primitive is used inside the construction limits the adversary’s capability, so the number of rounds inside the primitive can be reduced. In the context of SIV, this can be done to the primitive calls inside the UHF, since the adversary does not observe their outputs and usually the outputs are XORed together. It was indeed done in one instance of the Estate family of AEAD algorithms [11]. However, this cannot be done to the calls that are part of the encryption phase of the algorithm without further studies and without increasing the overhead, since for these calls, the adversary can see, and choose, their inputs and outputs, with almost no restrictions.

To resolve both these bottlenecks, we propose the LLSIV mode of operation, depicted in Figure 3. Rather than using the output of a PRF as the IV for the CTRT encryption mode, we show that it is sufficient to use the outcome of a UHF as an IV for a CTRT-like mode. The first block of the CTRT mode is used as the tag. One could see that each output block is an instance of the NaT MAC. Without pruning, the construction has the same speed as SCT-2k on single-core platforms, but has faster encryption performance on parallel platforms. This comes at the cost of using the inverse function (decryption) to be able to compute the IV during decryption. Moreover, by using the mifi mindset, we can prune not only the UHF, but also the TBC calls. We can speed up the TBC calls by about 35%. We give instantiations based on the SKINNY-128-384 TBC and a pruned version of it. We also give an instantiation based on PolyVal and AES for comparison with AES-GCM-SIV.

Next we propose the LLDFV mode, depicted in Figure 4. It uses the same technique used to optimize SCT-2k, which can be also applied to optimize the DFV technique recently proposed by Minematsu [29], reducing the number of TBC calls in a TBC-based instantiation of DFV by one call, and allowing using the fast decryption speed up with the encryption speed up from reducing the number of calls and parallelism.

4 Low Latency SIV and its security

The LLSIV AEAD scheme is described in details in Algorithm 2. A diagram for the case of 3 full blocks is depicted in Figure 3. In this section, we study the security of the LLSIV construction.

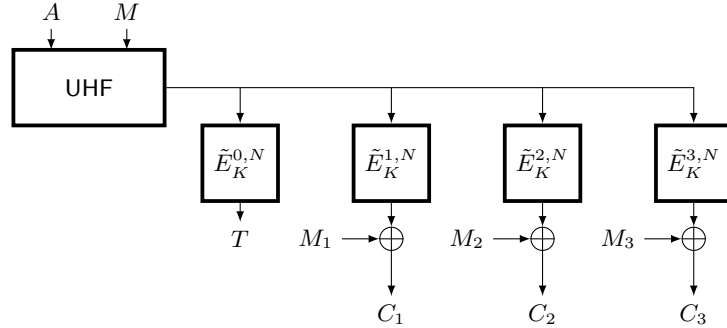


Fig. 3. The LLSIV with 3 plaintext block: $M = M_1 || M_2 || M_3$

Algorithm 2 The LLSIV Scheme.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1: $\text{Enc}_{K, K_h}(N, A, M)$
2: $IV \leftarrow \text{UHF}(K_h, A, M)$
3: $M_1, \dots, M_m \xleftarrow{r} M$
4: $T \leftarrow \tilde{E}_K^{0,N}(IV)$
5: for $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ do
6: $C_i \leftarrow M_i \oplus_{ M_i } \tilde{E}_K^{i,N}(IV)$
7: end for
8: $C \leftarrow C_1 \dots C_m$
9: return (C, T) | 10: $\text{Dec}_{K, K_h}(N, A, C, T)$
11: $C_1, \dots, C_c \xleftarrow{r} C$
12: $IV \leftarrow (\tilde{E}_K^{0,N})^{-1}(T)$
13: for $i \in \{1, \dots, c\}$ do
14: $M_i \leftarrow C_i \oplus_{ C_i } \tilde{E}_K^{i,N}(IV)$
15: end for
16: $M \leftarrow M_1 \dots M_m$
17: $IV^* \leftarrow \text{UHF}(K_h, A, M)$
18: if $IV = IV^*$ then
19: return M
20: else
21: return \perp
22: end if |
|---|---|
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The scheme closely resembles the NaT MAC introduced in [13], where instead of generating one nonce-based block, we generate $m + 1$ blocks with the nonce and a counter as a tweak. However, the analysis differs in two main ways:

1. The decryption function uses one call to the TBC in the inverse direction to decrypt the tag. Hence, the forgery analysis relies on the strong TPRP (sTPRP) security of the TBC.
2. The authors of [13] used the H-Coefficient technique for proving that their construction is a secure PRF-MAC when the number of nonce repetitions is small. In the proof, the challenger reveals K_h at the end of the game. The adversary can then link each message with its hash value in both verification and MAC queries. This is not directly possible here, since the adversary does not know the message during decryption/verification queries. The security proof of Romulus-M [22] overcomes this challenge by modifying the authenticity game to give the adversary oracle access to the encryption and MAC parts, separately, giving the adversary more power to choose the forgeries, then reduces the authenticity to the security of the MAC. Using a sequence of hybrid arguments, we are able to employ the same trick.

Our goal in the security proof of authenticity is to construct an appropriate auxiliary oracle that allows us to:

- prevent the adversary from inferring any information on the decryption of T .
- be able to reduce the security to the security bound of NaT.

First, we address the `nm – priv` security. We will replace all the TBC calls in encryption queries with random functions, using [22, Lemma (6)]. Then, we will bound the probability that two pairs $(A_1, M_1) \neq (A_2, M_2)$ have the same hash. If the hash value never repeat, then all the function calls have unique inputs. We refer to Appendices A and B for the proofs of Lemma 1 and Theorem 1, as the former is an adaptation from [22] and the latter is a standard hybrid games proof. For `nm – auth`, we will define a sequence of hybrid games that will be used to reduce the authenticity of LLSIV to the integrity of the NaT MAC [13]. We note that whether the security bounds of LLSIV achieve BBB security depends on the selection of the UHF. However, there are several selections of the hash function with security bounds of the form $1/2^n, l/2^k, l/2^n$. In our proposals, we use the XOR-Hash, presented in Section 2.

Lemma 1. *(Adapted from [22, Lemma (6)]) Consider a PRF-adversary \mathbf{A} against the TURP $\tilde{\pi} : \mathcal{I} \times \{0, 1\}^t \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$. \mathbf{A} makes q_i queries with the first input $i \in \mathcal{I}$, such that $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} q_i = \sigma$. Any pair $(i, N) \in \mathcal{I} \times \{0, 1\}^t$ appears in at most μ queries. Then, the advantage of \mathbf{A} against the PRF security of $\tilde{\pi}$ is bounded by*

$$\text{Adv}_{\tilde{\pi}}^{\text{prf}}(\mathbf{A}) \leq \frac{(\mu - 1)\sigma}{2^n}.$$

Theorem 1. *Let \mathbf{A} be an NM privacy adversary against LLSIV that can repeat a nonce at most μ times in encryption queries. \mathbf{A} makes q_e queries of total ciphertext size σ_e blocks. Let \mathbf{A} run in time at most t . Then, there exists a $(q_e + \sigma_e, t + O(q_e t_H + \sigma_e))$ -TPRP adversary \mathbf{A}' against the underlying TBC such that*

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{LLSIV}}^{\text{nm-priv}}(\mathbf{A}) \leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{tprp}}(\mathbf{A}') + (\mu - 1)q_e\epsilon + \frac{(\mu - 1)(q_e + \sigma_e)}{2^n}.$$

Here, the hash function $\text{UHF} : \mathcal{K}_h \times \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ is an ϵ -AU hash function and runs in time at most t_H .

Lemma 2. *Consider a TBC $\tilde{E} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{I} \times \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$. Consider the construction Γ :*

$$\tilde{E}(K, i, N, (\tilde{E})^{-1}(K, 0, N, X))$$

where $i \in \mathcal{I} \setminus \{0\}$. Then, for any adversary \mathbf{G} that runs in times t and makes q queries to Γ , there exists an adversary \mathbf{G}' against the strong TPRP security of \tilde{E} that makes q encryption queries, q decryption queries and runs in time $t' = O(t + q)$, such that

$$\text{Adv}_{\Gamma}^{\text{tprp}}(\mathbf{G}) \leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{stprp}}(\mathbf{G}').$$

Proof. First, we replace all the calls of \tilde{E} with a TURP $\tilde{\pi}$. Let $\tilde{P}_0 : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ be the tweakable permutation corresponding to $\tilde{\omega}(0, \cdot, \cdot)$. For a given $N \in \{0, 1\}^n$, \tilde{P}_0 is a one-to-one mapping from $\{0, 1\}^n$ to $\{0, 1\}^n$. Consider a different family of random permutations $\tilde{\sigma}$. We define the game $\mathbf{G1}$ as the game where the oracle performs the queries $\tilde{\pi}(i, N, \tilde{P}_0(N, X))$ and the game $\mathbf{G2}$ as the game where the oracle performs the queries $\tilde{\sigma}(i, N, X)$. We recall that the adversary's goal is to distinguish between its oracle and a TURP. Since both $\tilde{\pi}$ and $\tilde{\sigma}$ are TURPs and \tilde{P}_0 is a one-to-one mapping, then the probability distribution of the responses in both games is identical and the distinguishing advantage is 0. This concludes the proof.

Note that the different tweaks play an important role. \tilde{P}_0 is indeed part of the same TURP family as the other calls. However, the TURP assumption ensures that since the tweak 0 never appears in any calls other than \tilde{P}_0 , the outputs of these calls are sampled uniformly and independently of the input-output pairs of \tilde{P}_0 . Note also that in $\mathbf{G1}$, we do not rely on the randomness of \tilde{P}_0 , but only on its bijectivity for a given nonce.

Theorem 2. *Let \mathbf{B} be an NM authenticity adversary against LLSIV that can repeat a nonce at most μ times in encryption queries. \mathbf{B} makes q_e queries of total ciphertext size σ_e blocks and q_d decryption/verification queries of total ciphertext size σ_d . Let \mathbf{B} run in time at most t_b . Then, there exists a $(q_e + q_d + \sigma_e + \sigma_d, t_b + O((q_e + q_d)t_H + \sigma_e + \sigma_d))$ -sTPRP adversary \mathbf{B}' against the underlying TBC and a $(q_e, q_d, t_b + O((q_e + q_d)t_H + \sigma_e + \sigma_d))$ -nPRM adversary \mathbf{B}'' against the NaT MAC, such that*

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{LLSIV}}^{\text{nm-auth}}(\mathbf{B}) \leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{stprp}}(\mathbf{B}') + \text{Adv}_{\text{NaT}}^{\text{mac}}(\mathbf{B}'')$$

$$\leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{stprp}}(\mathbf{B}') + 2(\mu - 1)q_e\epsilon + \frac{q_d}{2^n - \mu} + \mu q_d\epsilon.$$

The hash function $\text{UHF} : \mathcal{K}_h \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ is an ϵ -AU hash function and runs in time at most t_H . $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{M}$ is the product of the associated data and plaintext domains.

Proof. We will define a sequence of hybrid games and bound the transition probability between these games. Let E_i be the event that the adversary wins in game **G** i .

G0: The oracle implements the real-world construction. in Algorithm 2.

G1: We replace the TBC with a TURP $\tilde{\pi}$. Let $(\tilde{\pi})^{-1} \equiv \tilde{\omega}$.

$$|\Pr[E_0] - \Pr[E_1]| \leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{stprp}}(\mathbf{B}').$$

G2: We modify the calls during the encryption/decryption phase to be a function of T without first calculating IV , as indicated in lines 6 and 14 of Algorithm 3. This change does not affect the security of the scheme. Thus,

$$|\Pr[E_1] - \Pr[E_2]| = 0.$$

Algorithm 3 The oracles of game **G2** in the proof of Theorem 2.

1: $\text{Enc}_{K, K_h}(N, A, M)$ 2: $IV \leftarrow \text{UHF}(K_h, A, M)$ 3: $M_1, \dots, M_m \xleftarrow{r} M$ 4: $T \leftarrow \tilde{\pi}^{0, N}(IV)$ 5: for $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ do 6: $C_i \leftarrow M_i \oplus_{ M_i } \tilde{\pi}^{i, N}(\tilde{\omega}^{0, N}(T))$ 7: end for 8: $C \leftarrow C_1 \parallel \dots \parallel C_m$ 9: return (C, T)	10: $\text{Dec}_{K, K_h}(N, A, C, T)$ 11: $C_1, \dots, C_c \xleftarrow{r} C$ 12: $IV \leftarrow \tilde{\omega}^{0, N}(T)$ 13: for $i \in \{1, \dots, c\}$ do 14: $M_i \leftarrow C_i \oplus_{ C_i } \tilde{\pi}^{i, N}(\tilde{\omega}^{0, N}(T))$ 15: end for 16: $M \leftarrow M_1 \parallel \dots \parallel M_m$ 17: $IV^* \leftarrow \text{UHF}(K_h, A, M)$ 18: if $IV = IV^*$ then 19: return M 20: else 21: return \perp 22: end if
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G3: We change the oracles by applying the transformation in Lemma 2 to lines 6 and 14 of Algorithm 3. Since $\tilde{\pi}$ is a TURP, then Lemma 2 implies

$$|\Pr[E_2] - \Pr[E_3]| = 0.$$

G4: As shown in Algorithm 4, we change the equality check during verification to check the equality of the tag T instead of IV . Note that the tweakable

permutation $\tilde{\pi}$ ensures that

$$(N, T) = (N^*, T^*) \Leftrightarrow (N, IV) = (N^*, IV^*).$$

Thus, changing which variable to check has no implication on the security, *i.e.*,

$$|\Pr[E_3] - \Pr[E_4]| = 0.$$

In the rest of the proof, we need to show that for any adversary \mathbf{B} against $\mathbf{G4}$, there exists an adversary \mathbf{B}'' against the NaT MAC with the same number of MAC and verification queries such that

$$\Pr[E_4] \leq \text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G4}}^{\text{nmauth}}(\mathbf{B}) \leq \text{Adv}_{\text{NaT}}^{\text{mac}}(\mathbf{B}'').$$

In order to do so, we follow the strategy proposed in the security proof of Romulus-M [22].

Algorithm 4 The oracles of game $\mathbf{G4}$ in the proof of Theorem 2.

1: $\text{Enc}_{K, K_h}(N, A, M)$ 2: $IV \leftarrow \text{UHF}(K_h, A, M)$ 3: $M_1, \dots, M_m \xleftarrow{n} M$ 4: $T \leftarrow \tilde{\pi}^{0, N}(IV)$ 5: for $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ do 6: $C_i \leftarrow M_i \oplus_{ M_i } \tilde{\sigma}^{i, N}(T)$ 7: end for 8: $C \leftarrow T \ C_1 \ \dots \ C_m$ 9: return C	10: $\text{Dec}_{K, K_h}(N, A, C, T)$ 11: $C_1, \dots, C_c \xleftarrow{n} C$ 12: for $i \in \{1, \dots, c\}$ do 13: $M_i \leftarrow C_i \oplus_{ C_i } \tilde{\sigma}^{i, N}(T)$ 14: end for 15: $M \leftarrow M_1 \ \dots \ M_m$ 16: $IV^* \leftarrow \text{UHF}(K_h, A, M)$ 17: $T^* \leftarrow \tilde{\pi}^{0, N}(IV^*)$ 18: if $T = T^*$ then 19: return M 20: else 21: return \perp 22: end if
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G5: We give the adversary oracle access to $\tilde{\sigma}$, and the adversary makes verification queries on the form (N, A, M, T) , rather than (N, A, C, T) . The encryption and decryption oracles in this case are depicted in Algorithm 5, where the adversary uses the $\tilde{\sigma}$ oracle to perform the omitted parts. We say \mathbf{B} breaks the authenticity of $\mathbf{G5}$ if the second oracle returns \perp . This change can only increase the adversary's advantage. Note that the permutations of $\tilde{\sigma}$ and $\tilde{\pi}$ are sampled independently, which was ensured in $\mathbf{G3}$. We can see that the oracles in Algorithm 5 are equivalent to the NaT construction. Thus,

$$\Pr[E_4] \leq \Pr[E_5] \leq 2(\mu - 1)q_e\epsilon + \frac{q_d}{2^n - \mu} + \mu q_d\epsilon$$

which follows from Equation 2 [13, Theorem 1].

Algorithm 5 The oracles of game **G5** in the proof of Theorem 2.

1: $\text{Enc}_{K, K_h}(N, A, M)$ 2: $IV \leftarrow \text{UHF}(K_h, A, M)$ 3: $T \leftarrow \tilde{\pi}^{0, N}(IV)$ 4: return T	5: $\text{Dec}_{K, K_h}(N, A, M, T)$ 6: $IV^* \leftarrow \text{UHF}(K_h, A, M)$ 7: $T^* \leftarrow \tilde{\pi}^{0, N}(IV^*)$ 8: if $T = T^*$ then 9: return \top 10: else 11: return \perp 12: end if
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The overall bound is reached by combing the different transition probabilities as follows:

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{LLSIV}}^{\text{nm-auth}}(\mathbf{B}) \leq \Pr[E_4] + \sum_{g=0}^3 |\Pr[E_g] - \Pr[E_{g+1}]| \leq \Pr[E_5] + \sum_{g=0}^3 |\Pr[E_g] - \Pr[E_{g+1}]|.$$

5 Low Latency DFV and its security

Minematsu [29] proposed the decryption fast SIV (DFV) framework as a way to optimize the speed of DAE, where the decryption function can be done as a rate-1 function, using an auxiliary tag, and the encryption part of SIV is replaced by a pNAE scheme. Then, he proposed two generic constructions and two dedicated designs. Minematsu [29] discussed several potential methods to optimize his proposed framework to improve its efficiency, and demonstrated that all the considered ideas lead to either insecure constructions or intractable security proofs. However, Minematsu focused mainly on black-box construction where a PRF/MAC is used and its output is used as part of the nonce for the pNAE scheme, and did not study hash stealing. Naturally, our proposed technique to construct LLSIV is not part of the ideas considered by Minematsu. In this section, we consider an optimization of the DFV3 scheme by Minematsu that requires one less primitive call. The proposed construction is depicted in Figure 4 and Algorithm 6.

Instead of using the output of two PRFs as the nonce for a pNAE scheme, we use the output of two universal hash functions. Consider the hash function XH in Algorithm 1, which can be rewritten as

$$\text{XH}(A, M) \equiv \text{XH}_1(A) \oplus \text{XH}_2(M)$$

which is assumed to be ϵ -AU hash function. We need an assumption on $\text{XH}_1(A)$ on its own and how it interacts with $\text{XH}(A, M)$ when the outputs of both functions are concatenated. An obvious approach is to assume the hash function defined by

$$\text{XH}'(X, i) \equiv \text{XH}_i(X)$$

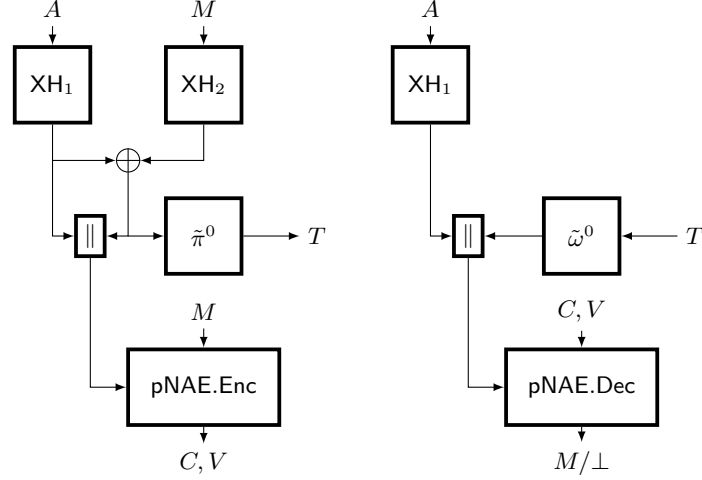


Fig. 4. The proposed LLDFV encryption (left) and decryption (right).

Algorithm 6 The LLDFV Scheme.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1: $\text{Enc}_{K_p, K, K_h}(A, M)$ | 8: $\text{Dec}_{K_p, K, K_h}(A, C, T')$ |
| 2: $IV_a \leftarrow \text{XH}_1(K_h, A)$ | 9: $T, V \xleftarrow{r} T'$ |
| 3: $IV_m \leftarrow \text{XH}_2(K_h, M)$ | 10: $IV_d \leftarrow (\tilde{E}_K^0)^{-1}(T)$ |
| 4: $IV_e \leftarrow IV_a \oplus IV_m$ | 11: $IV_a \leftarrow \text{XH}_1(K_h, A)$ |
| 5: $T \leftarrow \tilde{E}_K^0(IV_e)$ | 12: $M \leftarrow \text{pNAE.Dec}_{K_p}(IV_a IV_d, C, V)$ |
| 6: $(C, V) \leftarrow \text{pNAE.Enc}_{K_p}(IV_a IV_e, M)$ | 13: return M |
| 7: return $(C, T V)$ | |
-

where the *type* (associated data (1) or plaintext (2)) is part of the input. We assume that $\text{XH}'(X, i)$ is both ϵ -AU and ϵ -AXU. Next, we define the overall UHF:

$$\text{ConcatXH}(A, M) \leftarrow \text{XH}_1(A) || \text{XH}(A, M).$$

We can show that this function is a (2ϵ) -AU hash function. Similarly to Section 4, we defer the proofs of privacy to Appendices C and D and focus on the proofs of authenticity. We note that if a different UHF is used, the claims below do not necessarily hold, and the two hash functions should use different keys.

Lemma 3. *Given $\text{XH}'(X, i)$ is ϵ -AU and ϵ -AXU, then $\text{ConcatXH}(A, M)$ is (2ϵ) -AU.*

Using Lemma 3, we can then show the d-priv security of LLDFV.

Theorem 3. *Let \mathbf{A} be a (q_e, t) -adversary against the NM privacy of LLDFV as a deterministic AE scheme ($\mu = q_e$). Then, there exists a (q_e, t') -adversary \mathbf{A}'*

and a (q_e, t') -adversary \mathbf{A}'' for $t' = O(q_e + t)$ and $t'' = O(q_e + t)$, such that

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{LLDFV}}^{\text{d-priv}}(\mathbf{A}) \leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{tprp}}(\mathbf{A}') + \text{Adv}_{\text{pNAE}}^{\text{nr-priv}}(\mathbf{A}'') + \frac{0.5q_e^2}{2^n} + 3 \binom{q_e}{2} \epsilon$$

where $\text{XH}_i(X)$ is an ϵ -AU and ϵ -AXU hash function.

Theorem 4. Let \mathbf{B} be a (q_e, q_d, t) -adversary against the authenticity of LLDFV as a deterministic AE scheme ($\mu = q_e$). Then, there exists a $(q_e + q_d, t')$ -adversary \mathbf{B}' and a (q_e, q_d, t') -adversary \mathbf{B}'' for $t' = O(q_e + q_d + t)$ and $t'' = O(q_e + q_d + t)$, such that

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{LLDFV}}^{\text{d-auth}}(\mathbf{B}) \leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{stprp}}(\mathbf{B}') + \text{Adv}_{\text{pNAE}}^{\text{nr-auth}}(\mathbf{B}'') + 2 \binom{q_e}{2} \epsilon + q_e q_d \epsilon$$

where $\text{XH}_i(X)$ is an ϵ -AU and ϵ -AXU hash function.

Proof. In order to proof this theorem, we construct a series of a hybrid games. Let E_i be the event that the adversary wins in game \mathbf{G}_i . **G0:** The oracles are the real world oracles. **G1:** First, \tilde{E} is replaced with a TURP.

$$|\Pr[E_0] - \Pr[E_1]| \leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{stprp}}(\mathbf{B}').$$

G2: The game terminates if during any two encryption queries $(A_i, M_i) \neq (A_j, M_j)$, $\text{ConcatXH}(A_i, M_i) = \text{ConcatXH}(A_j, M_j)$.

$$|\Pr[E_1] - \Pr[E_2]| \leq 2 \binom{q_e}{2} \epsilon.$$

G3: The game terminates if there exists a decryption query (A^*, C^*, T^*) and an encryption query (A_i, M_i) such that

$$(A^*, T^*) \neq (A_i, \tilde{\pi}(\text{XH}(A_i, M_i)))$$

and

$$\text{ConcatXH}(A_i, M_i) = \text{XH}_1(A^*) \parallel \tilde{\omega}(T^*).$$

Since $\tilde{\pi}$ is bijective, $T^* \neq T_i$ implies this condition cannot happen. Thus, we only need to look at when $T^* = T_i$, in which case the condition can only be satisfied if $A^* \neq A_i$ and $\text{XH}_1(A^*) = \text{XH}_1(A_i)$. Since there are at most $q_e q_d$ such pairs, then

$$|\Pr[E_2] - \Pr[E_3]| \leq q_e q_d \epsilon.$$

G4: We now consider an adversary \mathbf{B}'' that has oracle access to the underlying pNAE scheme, $\tilde{\pi}$, XH_1 and XH_2 . \mathbf{B}'' simulates the oracles of **G3**. From \mathbf{B} point of view, games **G3** and **G4** are indistinguishable.

$$|\Pr[E_3] - \Pr[E_4]| = 0.$$

Besides, if **G4** does not terminate, then all the queries made to `pNAE.Enc` use unique nonces, and all the queries made to `pNAE.Dec` are non-trivial: non-repeating and were not generated by queries to `pNAE.Enc`.

G5: We replace the `pNAE` decryption oracle with an ideal NAE rejection oracle: all calls to `pNAE.Dec` return \perp . Thus,

$$|\Pr[E_4] - \Pr[E_5]| \leq \text{Adv}_{\text{pNAE}}^{\text{nr-auth}}(\mathbf{B}').$$

Besides, if **G5** does not terminate, **B** cannot distinguish the oracles from ideal oracles. Thus,

$$\Pr[E_5] = 0.$$

6 Skinny-based Instantiations and pLLSIV

In this section, we describe a simple instantiation of the LLSIV mode based on the SKINNY-128-384 [8] TBC. We also describe the hardware architecture and implementation of a fully pipelined accelerator for FPGAs and compare the cost and performance of the proposed designs to the generalized version of SCT-2k described in [12] under the name GNSIV-N, when both use the same TBC. We also propose exploiting the adversary’s limitation against LLSIV and using a reduced-round SKINNY-128-384.

The UHF. The topic of designing an ϵ -AU hash function is a rich topic in symmetric key cryptography. UHF can be designed in a variety of ways that are outside the scope of our work. Since our goal is to design a TBC based scheme to be compared with SCT-2k in terms of performance, we shall rely on the same UHF used in SCT-2k: the XOR-hash defined in Algorithm 1. We will use the same hash function for all our instantiations. We will use $n = 128$ bits and $|K_h| = 192$ bits for LLSIV and SCT-2k, and the maximum length of AD or plaintext is 2^{64} blocks. We refer to [12] for a detailed discussion of this hash function.

Tweakable Block Cipher. Choosing the TBC for a practical instantiation is not an easy task. Several TBCs with large tweak sizes have been proposed in the past decade, including Deoxys-TBC [26, 12], SKINNY [8] and QARMA [5, 6]. Any of these TBCs can be used in LLSIV. We choose SKINNY for its hardware-optimized round function and its maturity, with plenty of literature discussing its security.

Pruned LLSIV. When SKINNY-128-384 was first proposed in 2016 [8], it consisted on 56 iterative rounds. Later, Guo *et. al.* [18] conjectured that 56 rounds is an overkill, and proposed reducing the number of rounds to 40 rounds. Henceforth, we shall refer to the 40-round version as the fully secure version and use it as the underlying TBC for any unpruned instantiation. Table 2 includes a list of the most recent cryptanalytic results on SKINNY-128-384. The models that are relevant for both SCT-2k and pLLSIV are the single key and chosen tweak models. We note that the best attacks in these models are those from [10] and [20], respectively. However, these attacks are significantly beyond the security bounds

of pLLSIV, where the time complexity is limited to $2^{128}/l\mu$ for $k = 128$. For example, even for only 23 rounds, [10] requires time complexity of more than 2^{362} . The attacks from [20] against SKINNY-128-256 can only reach up to 22 rounds.

Model	Technique	Ref.	Number of Rounds	Data	Time
Single Key	ID	[39]	22	$2^{92.22}$	$2^{373.48}$
	MitM	[14]	23	2^{120}	2^{368}
	DS-MitM	[35]	23	2^{96}	2^{372}
	Diff-MitM	[10]	25	$2^{122.3}$	$2^{372.5}$
Chosen Tweak	Int	[20]	26	2^{121}	2^{344}
	DS-MitM	[35]	25	2^{96}	$2^{363.83}$
Related Key	Rectangle	[19]	30	2^{125}	2^{361}
		[31]	30	2^{122}	2^{341}
		[15]	32	2^{123}	2^{355}
		[37]	32	2^{123}	2^{345}

Table 2. A summary of the most recent notable cryptanalytic results on SKINNY-128-384. ID: Impossible Differential. MitM: Meet in the Middle. DS-MitM: Demirci-Selçuk MitM. Diff-MitM: Differential MitM.

The situation in pLLSIV loosely resembles the situation of ForkSkinny [4]. The designers have discussed the applicability of different type of attacks to this forked structure. We shall consider the pruned version pLLSIV to use 25 rounds of SKINNY-128-384 for the TBC calls in both the UHF and the rest of the LLSIV mode. Figure 5 depicts conceptual cryptanalysis targets. Table 2 shows that there are no distinguishers for any of the top or the bottom parts with time complexity 2^{128} . Besides, even if attacks improve, most attacks are not applicable to this setup. For instance, if an adversary wants to attack the bottom permutations alone, they would need either a chosen tweak known ciphertext attack (the plaintext is unknown), which is a very restricted model, or an attack on the inverse permutation cascaded with the forward permutation with a different tweak, which can occur during decryption. However, while this is not exactly the SKINNY TBC, it requires a distinguisher on 50 rounds of SKINNY with dependent, but different, tweakeys. On the other hand, breaking the universality of the UHF requires finding a distinguisher for the top permutations, while observing the effect through the bottom permutations, each including 25 rounds of SKINNY with two different keys. It also requires at least a distinguisher for 25 rounds of SKINNY-128-384 within our security claims in Table 3. Meet-in-the-Middle (MitM) attacks and other attacks that require both chosen plaintext and chosen ciphertext queries, simultaneously, are not applicable to any of the individual TBC calls in pLLSIV. MitM attacks can be applied on P_t and P_b , which generically has complexity of $O(2^{128})$. To beat the generic attack, the adversary needs a distinguisher on 25 rounds of SKINNY-128-384 within our security claims.

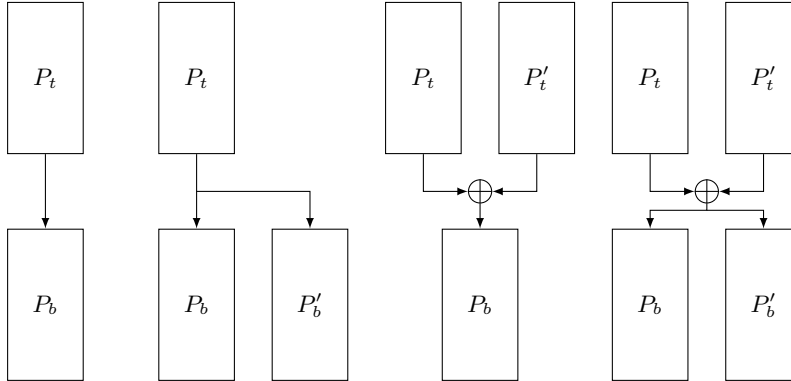


Fig. 5. Conceptual minimalist cryptanalysis targets in pLLSIV.

Last but not least, from the theoretical security bounds of LLSIV and the cryptanalysis of SKINNY-128-384, the security claims are pLLSIV should be limited to the parameters in Table 3. The security claims of pLLSIV are significantly conservative compared to what the attacks allow and are based on the requirements of the recently concluded NIST lightweight cryptography project [1].

Scheme	Max. Length	Data	Time	Key Size
pLLSIV	2^{16}	2^{46}	2^{112}	2×128
LLSIV	2^{64}	$2^{128}/\mu$	2^{128}	$192 + 128$

Table 3. Security claims for pLLSIV and LLSIV. μ is the number of nonce repetitions.

We note that given our parameters, pLLSIV requires 37.5 rounds per plaintext block of 128-bits, which is less than one call of SKINNY (equivalent to 40 rounds). This makes it not only faster than LLSIV and unpruned MRAE-secure TBC-based schemes, but also faster than unpruned online AE schemes such as Deoxys-AE-I or Romulus-N, even using single core implementations.

Domain Separation and Keys. In the spirit of being conservative, and given MRAE security requires extra memory overhead anyway, we restrict our self to the case where the UHF uses a different key from other TBC calls. We also use a different domain separator for the TBC calls used to generate the tag and ciphertext blocks compared to the ones used in the UHF. We use 192 bits and 128 bits for the UHF key for LLSIV and pLLSIV, respectively. We use 128 bits for the key of the other calls.

FPGA Pipelined Implementation of pLLSIV, LLSIV and SCT-2. In order to demonstrate the differences between LLSIV, pLLSIV and SCT-2k on par-

allel platforms, we have implemented all three algorithms using a fully pipelined SKINNY implementation that computes one round per pipeline stage. We have synthesized the implementations for Xilinx Kintex-7 FPGA using Vivado². The architecture of the hardware accelerator of LLSIV and pLLSIV is depicted in Figure 6. The two algorithms differ in the number of rounds, which affects the number of pipeline stages for the encryption core and the number of cycles for the decryption circuit. The decryption circuit is a round-based implementation of the SKINNY decryption algorithm. The implementation of SCT-2k differs from that of LLSIV in that it does not need the decryption circuit but the tag is always generated using the encryption pipeline, where only one stage is active at a time. While the architecture requires to call the decryption circuit during verification calls to process the tag, this circuit is not the full SKINNY-128-384 decryption circuit, even for LLSIV. We note that this call to the decryption circuit only uses 0 values for both the domain separator and the counter. Thus, 128 bits of the TBC tweak are fixed to 0 and can be ignored during the implementation, which is a property of SKINNY. This gives us a little cost reduction in practice.

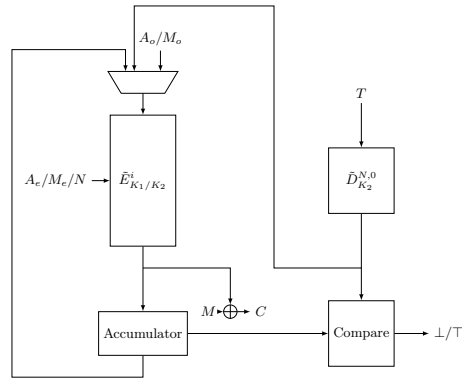


Fig. 6. Simplified architecture of a fully pipelined hardware accelerator for LLSIV and pLLSIV.

Table 4 shows the resource utilization of the FPGA implementations of different schemes. The LLSIV implementation almost the same number of flip flops and 12.3% more Look Up Tables (LUTs), mainly due to the iterative decryption circuit. However, it needs 39 less cycles for encryption. Note that in this implementation, 1 block needs 1.5 cycles. Thus, the LLSIV implementation can encrypt 26 more blocks (416 bytes) in the same amount of time. pLLSIV is even faster, being able to encrypt 69 more blocks (736 bytes) compared to SCT-2k.

In order to demonstrate the performance gain, Figure 7(Left) shows the number of cycles needed to encrypt different numbers of plaintext blocks. Fig-

² The choice of FPGA is arbitrary since the speed up is from the primitive and mode design.

Table 4. Synthesis results of the pipelined implementations of SCT-2k, LLSIV and pLLSIV on the Xilinx Kintex-7 FPGA. a and m are the number of 128-bit blocks of associated data and plaintext, respectively. The number of cycles is for the encryption algorithm.

Scheme	LUTs	Flip Flops	# of Cycles
SCT-2k	8230	20581	$118 + a/2 + 3m/2$
LLSIV	9243	20587	$79 + a/2 + 3m/2$
pLLSIV	5392	12907	$49 + a/2 + 3m/2$

ure 7(Right) shows the ratio between the number of cycles needed by SCT-2k vs the proposed schemes. It can be seen that when the number of blocks is less than 20, pLLSIV is more than twice faster than SCT-2k, while LLSIV is more than 40% faster.

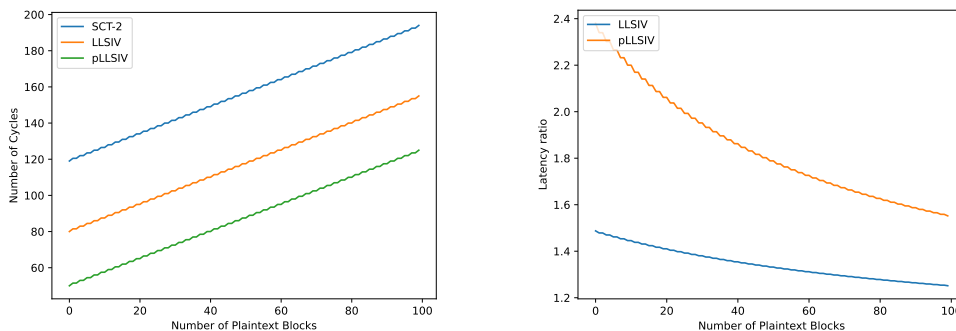


Fig. 7. (Left) The number of cycles needed to encrypt different amounts of plaintext blocks, with at most 2 associated data blocks. (Right) The ratio between the number of cycles needed by SCT-2k and our proposed schemes.

We note that these implementations are intended to show the performance gain for short messages. The performance gain as a percentage of the number of cycles of SCT-2k decreases for long messages on these implementations. For 64 KB plaintexts, SCT-2k needs 6262 cycles, while LLSIV and pLLSIV require 6223 and 6193 cycles, respectively. On the other hand, pLLSIV is 35% smaller in terms of area, so this still represents a significant gain. On iterative platform, this gain is translated to speed gain rather than area reduction.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we present two new provably MRAE-secure modes based on TBCs and hash stealing. The first mode is LLSIV and targets similar performance

to the state of the art on single core platforms but lower latency on parallel platforms. The second mode LLDFV uses similar ideas with rate-1 decryption and is faster than comparable modes on all platforms. We also propose the pruning of LLSIV into pLLSIV providing a high speed adhoc mode that is faster than even online AEAD schemes on all platforms. We give performance comparison using pipelined hardware implementations.

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A Proof of Lemma 1

Consider $\tilde{\pi}$ is implemented using lazy-sampling. Fix an index $i \in \mathcal{I}$. For a query $j \in \{1, \dots, q_i\}$ with input (i, N_j, P_j) , it always returns a random block unless that block has appeared in a previous query (i, N_j, P') . For each new call, there are at most $(\mu - 1)$ previous calls on the form (i, N_j, P') . Thus, the probability of this collision is at most $(\mu - 1)/2^n$. Since the adversary makes at most q_i queries

with first input i , the advantage is bounded by $(\mu - 1)q_i/2^n$. Using the standard hybrid argument, we apply this sequentially to each input $i \in \mathcal{I}$, getting

$$\text{Adv}(\mathbf{A}) \leq \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \frac{(\mu - 1)q_i}{2^n} = \frac{(\mu - 1)\sigma}{2^n}.$$

B Proof of Theorem 1

We will define a sequence of hybrid games and bound the transition probability between these games. Let E_i be the event that the adversary wins in game \mathbf{G}_i .

G0: The oracle implements the real-world construction.

G1: We replace the TBC with a TURP.

$$|\Pr[E_0] - \Pr[E_1]| \leq \text{Adv}_{\tilde{E}}^{\text{turp}}(\mathbf{A}').$$

G2: We replace the TURP with a random function $R : \mathbb{N} \times \{0, 1\}^t \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$. In order to bound the transition probability, we need to bound how many permutations are sampled from the TURP and the number of queries made to each permutation. In order to do so, we will define a series of hybrid sub-games, where $\mathbf{G2}^i$ is the where the all the TURP calls with index $i \in \mathbb{N}$ are replaced with a random function $R(i, \cdot, \cdot)$. Let q_i be the number of queries of plaintext length $\geq i$ (partial) blocks. Let l_{\max} be the maximum number of plaintext blocks in one query. Then, applying Lemma 1 [22, Lemma (6)];

$$|\Pr[E_1] - \Pr[E_2^0]| \leq \frac{(\mu - 1)q_e}{2^n},$$

$$|\Pr[E_2^{i-1}] - \Pr[E_2^i]| \leq \frac{(\mu - 1)q_i}{2^n}$$

and $\mathbf{G2}^{l_{\max}} \equiv \mathbf{G2}$

$$|\Pr[E_1] - \Pr[E_2]| \leq \frac{(\mu - 1)q_e}{2^n} + \sum_{i=1}^{l_{\max}} \frac{(\mu - 1)q_i}{2^n} =$$

$$\frac{(\mu - 1)q_e}{2^n} + \frac{\mu - 1}{2^n} \sum_{i=1}^{l_{\max}} q_i = \frac{(\mu - 1)(q_e + \sigma_e)}{2^n},$$

where $\sigma_e = \sum_{i=1}^{l_{\max}} q_i$ holds from counting the number of calls made in all queries.

G3: All the calls R are removed and replaced by a random function $R' : \mathbb{N} \times \{0, 1\}^t \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$, which takes a nonce, a hash value, and a natural number $l \in \mathbb{N}$ and returns a random string of length $l + n$. **G2** and **G3** are indistinguishable unless the second and third inputs repeat, *i.e.*, if for any query i , there exists a query $j < i$ such that $N_i = N_j$ and $\text{UHF}_{K_h}(A_i, M_i) = \text{UHF}_{K_h}(A_j, M_j)$. In case of repetition, the oracle of **G2** will return two ciphertexts encrypted with a common prefix, while **G3** will return two independent ciphertexts. Otherwise, all the ciphertexts are indistinguishable. We further define **G3** such that

it terminates if such event happens. Since for any query, there are at most $\mu - 1$ queries with the same nonce, the probability of such collision is bounded by

$$|\Pr[E_2] - \Pr[E_3]| = (\mu - 1)q_e\epsilon$$

Besides, **G3** and the ideal world can only be distinguished if R' is called with the same input twice, which is impossible without **G3** terminating. Thus,

$$\Pr[E_3] = 0.$$

Combining all transitions,

$$\Pr[E_0] \leq \Pr[E_3] + \sum_{i=0}^2 |\Pr[E_i] - \Pr[E_{i+1}]| \leq$$

$$\text{Adv}_E^{\text{tprp}}(\mathbf{A}') + (\mu - 1)q_e\epsilon + \frac{(\mu - 1)(q_e + \sigma_e)}{2^n}.$$

C Proof of Lemma 3

Given two pairs $(A_1, M_1) \neq (A_2, M_2)$, the proof uses the conditional probability on whether $A_1 = A_2$

$$\Pr[\text{ConcatXH}(A_1, M_1) = \text{ConcatXH}(A_2, M_2) | (A_1, M_1) \neq (A_2, M_2)] \leq$$

$$\Pr[\text{XH}_1(A_1) = \text{XH}_1(A_2) | A_1 \neq A_2] + \Pr[\text{XH}_2(M_1) = \text{XH}_2(M_2) | A_1 = A_2] \leq 2\epsilon.$$

D Proof of Theorem 4

First, \tilde{E} is replaced with a TURP. Then, using the PRP-PRF switching lemma, it is replaced with a uniformly random function R . Next, we observe that as long as the nonce of the underlying pNAE scheme and the input to R are never repeated, then T is uniformly sampled and all the queries to the pNAE scheme are nonce respecting. Finally, the pNAE scheme is replaced with an ideal NAE scheme that outputs random strings of length $|M| + n$.

E Other Useful Constructions

PolyVal [17] Let $\text{GF}(2^{128})$ be the binary field of size 2^{128} defined by the irreducible polynomial $x^{128} + x^{127} + x^{126} + x^{121} + 1$. Let M be a message that is divided into a sequence of m 128-bit blocks. Then, *PolyVal* is the keyed universal hash function defined by

$$\text{PolyVal}_{K_h}(M) = S_m$$

where $S_0 = 0^n$, and

$$S_i = (S_{i-1} \oplus M_i) \times K_h \times (x^{127} + x^{124} + x^{121} + x^{114} + 1).$$

Guéron *et al.* [17] show that PolyVal is ϵ -AU, such that

$$\epsilon \leq \frac{l_{\max}}{2^{128}},$$

where l_{\max} is the maximum number of blocks in any input message.

ICE2 Iwata *et al.* [22] proposed a TBC construction that transforms an ideal cipher into a TBC using three calls to the ideal cipher. However, it is optimized particularly for counter-in-tweak style of processing. Given a tweak space $\{0, 1\}^n \times \mathcal{I}$, where $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathbb{N}$, and an ideal cipher $E : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$, then ICE2 $(K, (N, i), M)$ is given by

$$2^i V \oplus E(2^i L, 2^i V \oplus M), \quad (3)$$

where $L = E(K, N)$ and $V = E(K \oplus 1, L)$. The multiplication and exponentiation are done in $\text{GF}(2^n)$, and we will use $n = 128$ and the same field representation used in PolyVal. ICE2 is very efficient in applications where one part of the tweak is not updated in every TBC call while another part is a sequential counter. Consider a long message that consists of multiple blocks, then the two calls used to generate L and V are only called once, while Equation 3 is evaluated many times, leading to an asymptotic performance of one ideal cipher call per message block. Iwata *et al.* [22] showed that for any unbounded adversary \mathbf{A} that makes q_c queries to ICE2 and q_p chosen-key queries to the underlying ideal cipher,

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{ICE2}[E]}^{\text{stprp}}(\mathbf{A}) \leq \frac{9q_c^2 + 4q_c q_p}{2^{2n}} + \frac{2q_p}{2^n}. \quad (4)$$

F AES-based Instantiation: LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2

In this section, we describe an instantiation of LLSIV based on the PolyVal hash function and the ICE2 TBC with the ideal cipher replaced with AES.

The encryption function of LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 is depicted in Figure 8. The instance uses two 128-bit uniformly random keys, one for PolyVal and one for ICE2. During encryption, the PolyVal hash function is used to absorb A and M , while in parallel the nonce-based portion of ICE2 (we can refer to it as the KDF) is executed to calculate L and V . Next, the tag and ciphertext are generated in parallel as the calls to AES all encrypt the same hash value and differ only in the exponent i of $2^i L$ and $2^i V$. Thus, similar to the SKINNY based instantiation, the encryption consists of two phases that are fully parallelizable. During decryption, the KDF and tag decryption are executed in parallel to part of PolyVal that absorbs A . Then, the message is encrypted followed by the remainder of PolyVal. This is again similar to the execution profile of SKINNY based instantiations. This is faster than AES-GCM-SIV on parallel platforms, since the encryption of AES-GCM-SIV require four unparallelizable phases instead of two. First, we have to run the KDF which consists of 4 parallelizable AES calls. Then, PolyVal is evaluated followed by tag generation, followed by encryption.

Besides, the KDF of AES-GCM-SIV requires 4 calls, while ours requires only two. Thus, LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 is faster than AES-GCM-SIV even on single cores. Note that while AES-GCM-SIV uses a single-key to generate both the hash and encryption subkeys, while LLSIV needs two keys, this is a minor issue, since we can use a separate single-use KDF to extend the master key to two keys. This auxiliary KDF is called only once per key and not for each query, and similar technique is used in AES-GCM. However, we leave the design of such KDF out of scope.

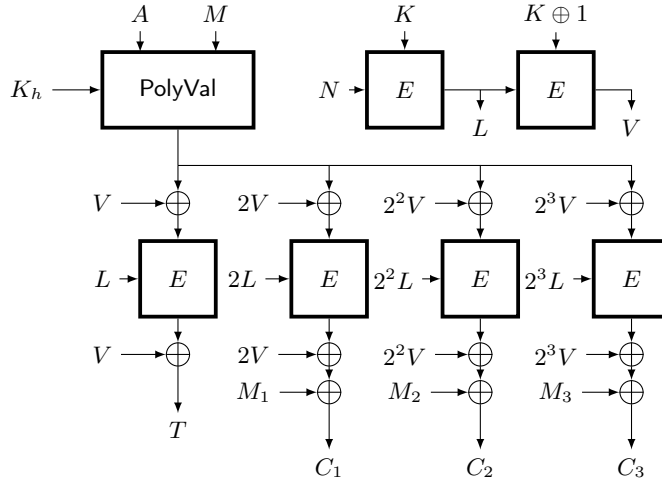


Fig. 8. The encryption function of LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 with 3 blocks of plaintext.

We implemented an iterative implementation of PolyVal on Kintex-7 FPGA, and our implementation runs at 75 MHz, taking 4 clock cycles per block. Thus, to hash a blocks of A and m blocks of M we need around $4(a + m)$ cycles. In parallel, we need to execute two unparallelizable calls to AES, assuming AES is implemented in a pipelined fashion with one round per stage, and 10 rounds in total. Thus, the first phase of encryption requires $\max(4(a + m), 20)$ cycles. The next phase is a simple pipeline implementation of AES that requires $m + 9$ cycles. Thus, in total, one query requires $\max(4(a + m), 20) + m + 9$ cycles.

On the other hand, AES-GCM-SIV encryption consists of 4 phases, as described earlier. The first phase is the KDF which is 4 parallelizable calls to AES, taking 14 cycles. Next, PolyVal takes $4(a + m)$ cycles, followed by once unparallelizable call to AES (11 cycles) and finally the parallelizable encryption ($m + 10$). In total, it needs $4(a + m) + m + 35$ cycles for long messages. If $4(a + m) \geq 20$, then LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 takes 25 cycles less than AES-GCM-SIV. 25 cycles are enough to encrypt 5 extra blocks of plaintext ($5 \times 4 + 5$ cycles). While the gain is not as large as the case of SKINNY-based instantiations, it is still significant for latency-critical applications. Besides, the fact that LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 is faster

than AES-GCM-SIV even on single cores is a big plus: on single cores that process one round of AES per cycle, LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 takes 22 cycles less.

The security of LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 follows for the straightforward application of Theorems 3 and 4. It is secure as long as the number of queries is less than $2^{96}/\mu$ when the maximum message length is limited to $2^{38} - 1$ bytes. Iwata and Seurin [24] show that AES-GCM-SIV is only secure up to total complexity of 2^{64} in this case. Thus, we consider LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 to have similar, but better, numerical security bounds compared to AES-GCM-SIV.

When it comes to the underlying security assumptions of both constructions, we note that LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 relies on the single-key security of PolyVal and the ideal cipher model. The latter requires related key security of AES to be sound. AES-GCM-SIV on the other hand relies on the multi-key security of both AES and PolyVal. Thus, AES-GCM-SIV relies on a weaker assumption when it comes to AES, but both schemes cannot rely on the single-key security assumption. However, the ideal cipher model has been established and we believe the trade-off for the improved performance and better bounds is worth it. Due to the ideal cipher assumption, we find it inappropriate to instantiate pLLSIV from LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2, as reduced-round related key attacks on AES maybe problematic.

FPGA Comparison The synthesis results of AES-GCM-SIV and LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 are given in Table 5. AES-GCM-SIV is 25 cycles slower than LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 but also about 1200 LUTs smaller. This mainly due to the iterative AES decryption round function used in decryption and the masks used in ICE2.

Table 5. Synthesis results of the pipelined implementations of AES-GCM-SIV and LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2 on the Xilinx Kintex-7 FPGA. a and m are the number of 128-bit blocks of associated data and plaintext, respectively. The number of cycles is for the encryption algorithm.

Scheme	LUTs	Flip Flops	# of Cycles
AES-GCM-SIV	12780	3017	$4(a + m) + 35 + m$
LLSIV-PolyVal-ICE2	13965	3401	$4(a + m) + 10 + m$