Root-cause Analysis of the Side Channel Leakage from ASCON Implementations

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Abstract. Root-Cause Analysis of Side Channel Leakage (SCL) aims to identify the components of observed SCL. We analyze ASCON’s SCL for two variants implemented on a RISC-V SoC: a hardware coprocessor with an iterated implementation of ASCON-128, and a software implementation of ASCON-128 on RISC-V (RV32IMC). We use gate-level power simulation to find the power traces, and to identify which portions of the hardware/software implementation show most leakage of the secret key. Our analysis breaks out the leakage according to the major processing phases of ASCON and according to their implementation. We also compare the simulated traces with measurements collected from a 180nm ASIC implementation of the same design.

Keywords: Power-based Side-channel Leakage · Gate-level Simulation · Pre-silicon Side-channel Leakage Analysis

1 Introduction

The implementation of a new cryptographic design mandates side-channel leakage assessment \[PGA^+22\] to evaluate the extent of side-channel vulnerability, typically by means of a standard testing mechanism \[ISO16\]. Side-channel leakage assessment also helps to identify and develop leakage models for side-channel analysis, and to test the quality of countermeasures used in the implementation. In this paper, we specifically discuss power-based side-channel leakage. We use the abbreviation SCL to mean power-based side-channel leakage.

In contrast to side-channel leakage assessment, root-cause analysis of SCL aims to explain how and where the leakage occurs in a design. Root-case analysis demonstrates a property of the implementation, rather than a property of the SCL. This type of analysis helps the designer to understand what parts of the implementation cause side-channel leakage, which is a starting point for the development of countermeasures, or for debugging of side-channel leakage related defects.

Root-cause analysis uses simulated or measured SCL, as long as one can establish a connection between side-channel characteristics and the components

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of the implementation [BBYS21]. The terms pre-silicon and post-silicon evaluation have been used to distinguish simulation-based methods from measurement-based methods. For example, ABBY builds a micro-architectural leakage model from measurements taken from an ARM M0 core [BBBB21], while MAPS builds such micro-architectural model from simulated register values for an ARM M3 [LCGD18]. A comprehensive list of recently proposed pre- and post-silicon tools for side-channel leakage assessment as well as for root-cause analysis may be found on [https://ileanabuhan.github.io/Tools/](https://ileanabuhan.github.io/Tools/). While side-channel leakage assessment only aims to show a dependency between secret data and observed SCL, root-cause analysis must also attribute the observed SCL to a specific component. The granularity of these components is determined by the power modeling abstraction level, and varies from a software instruction down to a logic gate.

In traditional CMOS technology, power is directly related to the logic transitions in the design, and side-channel leakage is the result of the dependency between a secret value and these transitions. The root-cause analysis then becomes a matter of tracking the component that has directly caused a given data transition, for example tracking logic gate that flips a given wire in a netlist. However, not every data transition may be available in the power model at the selected abstraction level. At register-transfer level or at instruction-set level, for example, only transitions in select registers are visible, while those in the datapath remain invisible [LCGD18,HPN+19]. The SCL of such abstracted models will not cover every possible source, and this will also limit the accuracy of the root-cause analysis. Research has also pointed out that data transitions are not the only source of SCL. Other circuit-level effects such as glitches, static power dissipation [MMR20], coupling [PRP+19], and signal integrity on the power delivery [GS20] all have been identified as contributing to power-based side-channel leakage. Furthermore, even a highly accurate power model of on-chip power dissipation may still be insufficient to fully explain the root cause, as it has been shown that the off-chip components such as decoupling capacitors can affect the SCL [GGB+23]. Hence, the present state of knowledge in SCL simulation does not provide sufficiently accurate power models that guarantee the absence of false negatives: the absence of side-channel leakage in simulation does not imply the absence of side-channel leakage in the implementation. However, we do have power models that ensure, with high confidence, the absence of false positives: the presence of side-channel leakage in the simulation will also lead to side-channel leakage in the implementation. In this paper, we use gate-level power estimation because it provides a decent trade-off between power model detail and simulation performance [YSW+20].

**Architecture Correlation Analysis** Our root-cause analysis method is called **Architecture Correlation Analysis (ACA)** [KYL+22]. The basic flow of ACA is shown in [Figure 1](#). For a given set of test vectors, the ACA flow will perform logic simulation followed by high-resolution power simulation. Each test vector yields a trace reflecting the power consumption of the design while processing the test vector. ACA will then compute a leakage time interval (LTI) over the traces,
which corresponds to the time windows within the ensemble of side-channel leakage traces that are considered leaky, i.e. at what times the ensemble of traces would be identified as SCL by a side-channel leakage assessment method. The LTI is computed through a global (overall) side-channel leakage assessment. Because traces are in sampled form, the time windows of the LTI are captured as a collection of leaky points. For each leaky point, ACA will then rank the logic gates of the design according to the amount of contributed leakage per gate by computing a leakage impact factor (LIF) for each gate. The LIF represents the similarity of an individual gate’s activity to the overall SCL metric. A higher LIF indicates a gate that has a stronger similarity and thus is more likely to contribute to the overall side-channel leakage of the design. The collection of gates with a LIF higher than a predefined threshold is the root-cause set $S$ of SCL. The $S$ set depends on the specific activity of a design, and thus can change per leaky point. Hence, a complete root-cause description of SCL over $N$ leaky points is list of sets $\{S_0, S_1, ..., S_{N-1}\}$. For a detailed discussion on ACA we refer to Kiaei et al. [KYL$^+$22].

Related work in ASCON SCL assessment In this paper, we perform the SCL root-cause analysis of ASCON implementations. Compared to substitution permutation network (SPN) algorithms such as AES, the side-channel leakage from sponge constructions is less well investigated. A few authors have presented side-channel leakage assessment for hardware implementations of ASCON $\text{SD17 RAD20 DCBG}^+$17 $\text{GWDE17}$, and for software implementations $\text{AFM18 SS23}$. These attacks target S-box output in the ASCON initialization phase and they require several thousand traces (ASCON iterations) for success. In the context of the NIST Light Weight Cryptography competition, GMU has organized a comprehensive benchmarking effort for the side-channel leakage assessment of the finalists including a protected hardware implementation of ASCON $\text{MBA}^+$23. To our knowledge, no earlier work has presented a root-cause analysis of ASCON, i.e. explains how side-channel leakage is distributed over individual gates (for hardware implementations) or over individual software instructions (for software implementations).
Contributions and Outline  The contributions of our work are as follows.

1. We present a RISC-V based system-on-chip (SoC) architecture with a hardware and a software implementation of ASCON128, and use a design flow that enables simulation as well as measurement of side-channel leakage.
2. We use a non-specific root-cause analysis over specific regions of ASCON AEAD processing that directly manipulate the key. We do this for both the hardware implementation as well as for the software implementation. Selected regions of interest include the coprocessor key-loading process, the ASCON first-round initialization phase (for hardware and software), and the ASCON finalization phase (for software).
3. For each region of interest we determine the root-cause set of leaky gates as a function of the processing stage of ASCON (initialization, associated-data processing, plaintext encryption, and finalization). When analyzing ASCON software, we express the leakage pattern as a root-cause set of leaky instructions by back-annotating leaky gates and cycles to software [KS22].

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. We first describe the main properties of our implementation in Section 2. Next, we perform root-cause analysis on the ASCON hardware coprocessor in Section 3, as well as root-cause analysis on the ASCON RiscV software implementation in Section 4. Finally, in Section 5 we validate our simulation results by comparing a side-channel leakage assessment on the gate-level simulation with a side-channel leakage assessment of the ASIC implementation. We conclude in Section 6.

2 ASCON Coprocessor and ASCON Software

We analyze two different implementations of ASCON, a first one running as a hardware coprocessor and a second one executing as software. Both ASCON implementations are implemented on a small RISC-V SoC in 180nm standard cells (Figure 2, top). The chip executes bare-metal software from on-chip RAM. The complexity of the chip design is captured in Table 1.

– The software implementation of ASCON is based on the reference implementation for ASCON128v12 by the ASCON Designers [asc23], compiled with O2 optimization level. We refer to this target as SWASCON-128.
– The hardware implementation of ASCON is an iterated design based on M. Fivez’s open-source implementation [Fiv16]. This kernel is encapsulated in a memory-mapped interface and integrated in a PicoRV32 RISC-V based SoC (Figure 2, bottom). We refer to this target as HWASCON-128. The fundamental characteristic of a memory-mapped interface is that all communication to the coprocessor hardware – data as well as control signals – are expressed as memory writes/reads in a shared address space between the software and the hardware. HWASCON uses 18 shared addresses to communicate the secret key value, the associate data, the public nonce, the plaintext, the ciphertext and the tag. The coprocessor maintains a memory-mapped status register that is used by the software to determine if a given
coprocessor transfer (such as a block of Associated Data) has been fully processed.

Trace Collection To collect power traces from the simulation of the chip, we use gate-level simulation and Cadence Joules to capture both static and dynamic power consumption. Cadence Joules is limited to traces of 1,000 frames, where frame captures the average power over a small time window in the simulation. To limit the overhead of data collection, we use a software trigger that marks the beginning and end of the region of interest for analysis. The software trigger toggles a GPIO pin, which can be detected in the simulation testbench to enable the event collection process. To collect power traces from the chip measurement, we use Chipwhisperer Husky which synchronously clocks the chip while recording the power trace. Chipwhisperer Husky enables traces of up to 131,072 points. The same software trigger is used to start and stop recording of a trace.

Non-specific Leakage Test An important design choice in our root-cause analysis, is the selection of a leakage metric. We are using a non-specific leakage test, which measures the statistical difference between two groups of traces. Group 0 are traces generated for a random secret key, while group 1 are traces generated for a constant secret key. The test statistic for leakage is either the Welch-t t-value between group 0 and group 1, or Pearson’s correlation with the group
Table 1. Chip Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technology</th>
<th>TSMC 180nm (tcb018gbwp7t_270a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comb. Cells</td>
<td>43,724 cells</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seq. Cells</td>
<td>13,947 cells</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core Area</td>
<td>10.69 sq mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chip Area</td>
<td>13.35 sq mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAM</td>
<td>64 KByte (8 x 8K macro)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

identifier (+1 for group 0 and -1 for group 1). The ranking process of ACA will attribute a higher LIF (Leakage Impact Factor) to gates with a higher t-value or with a higher correlation value $[KYL^{+}22]$.

3 Root-cause Analysis of ASCON Hardware SCL

In this experiment, our objective is to present the root-cause analysis of key-dependent SCL in ASCON Coprocessor on RISC-V Soc. We narrow down to two regions that has direct interaction with the 128-bit key as our analysis targets:

1. ASCON Coprocessor Key-Load.
2. ASCON Coprocessor Initialization.

To maximize the proportion of key-dependent SCL in the overall power consumption of ASCON Coprocessor on RISC-V Soc, we apply 2000 test vectors consisting of random vs. fixed key (1000 test vectors each group) with constant nonce, associated data, and plaintext. The clock frequency is 4MHz, and the power simulation is oversampled at 4 samples per clock cycle.

For root-cause analysis, we present ACA LTI to identify the leaky clock cycles over simulation time. To quantify the key-dependent leaky gates over clock cycles, we rank the logic gates of the design per clock cycle according to the amount of contributed leakage per gate by computing LIF. Moreover, we express the leakage pattern as a root-cause set of leaky instructions by back-annotating leaky gates and cycles to software.

ASCON Coprocessor Key-Load The operation of the ASCON Coprocessor involves software as well as hardware. To initialize the coprocessor, the software will load the key, associated data and plaintext from RAM to the hardware coprocessor. While this operation strictly does not involve ASCON computation, it is included in every execution of the ASCON coprocessor; the key can be reused over multiple operations but must be loaded at least once. For this reason, we also investigate the key loading process.

Listing 1 summarizes the software operations involves in a key load. It takes four instructions (lw, lw, addi, sw) to load a 32-bit key[0] from RAM to coprocessor (Instr. 70e, 712, 716, 718). This is repeated four times to complete a 128-bit key load using a 32-bit bus interface. After a 128-bit key is loaded, the software writes a key update control signal to the coprocessor (Instr. 744), and
wait for the coprocessor to send back a key ready signal (Instr. 754). Finally, the software sends a key valid signal to complete the sequence (Instr. 75c).

Listing 1. Coprocessor Key-Load Sequence. Marked addresses refer to Fig. 3’s X-axis

```assembly
70e lw a4, -228(s0) # load key[0] from RAM
712: lw a5, -20(s0)
716: addi a5, a5, 4
718 sw a4, 0(a5) # store key[0] to coproc
71a lw a4, -224(s0) # load key[1] from RAM
71e: lw a5, -20(s0)
722: addi a5, a5, 8
724 sw a4, 0(a5) # store key[1] to coproc
726 lw a4, -220(s0) # load key[2] from RAM
72a: lw a5, -20(s0)
72e: addi a5, a5, 12
730 sw a4, 0(a5) # store key[2] to coproc
732 lw a4, -216(s0) # load key[3] from RAM
736: lw a5, -20(s0)
73a: addi a5, a5, 16
73c sw a4, 0(a5) # store key[3] to coproc
73e: lw a5, -20(s0)
742: li a4, 4
744: sw a4, 0(a5) # coproc control: key update
746: nop
748: lw a5, -20(s0)
74c: addi a5, a5, 68
750: lw a5, 0(a5)
752: andi a5, a5, 1
754: beqz a5, 748 # wait for key update ready
756: lw a5, -20(s0)
75a: li a4, 8
75c sw a4, 0(a5) # coproc control: key valid
```

The entire ASCON Coprocessor Key-Load process requires 214 clock cycles to complete. We identify the LTI with a $\rho_{\text{threshold}}$ of 0.2, which flags 198 clock cycles out of these 214 clock cycles as containing potentially leaky samples. Figure 3 shows the root-cause analysis results from ACA. The top figure shows the correlation of the trace partitions with the group identifier. The bottom figure shows the number of leaky gates over time, indicating each gate’s source code (RTL module) in color (red indicates a leaky gate from the PicoRV, blue indicates a leaky gate from the ASCON coprocessor, and black indicates the rest of the modules from Figure 2 (top)). We observe a clear leaky-gate transiting pattern over time for each load key: flagging 750 leaky gates from the PicoRV at the beginning, and 100 leaky gates from the coprocessor at the end. This pattern validates the correctness of our software Key-Load from the RTL-level as well as shows how detailed that ACA can perform in terms of the root-cause analysis on SCL.

We also observe that a high correlation value (Figure 3 (top)) does not imply a high number of leaky gates (Figure 3 (bottom)). This is caused by the noiseless simulation: even when there are almost no activities in the design (such as in the waiting loop at Instr. 754), a high correlation can still exist. For this reason, it is important to simultaneously consider Figure 3 top and bottom. A high correlation value will only have impact on the overall side-channel leakage when
a high number of leaky gates are involved. Furthermore, we note that 750 gates are still a tiny fraction of the overall 57,671 cells in the chip.

By annotating the time instant of the peaks in the leaky gates to the program counter of the PC, we can back-annotate the leakage to activities in the software. This way, we can find 9 instructions (highlighted in red in listing 1 and figure 3’s PC Counter) that are responsible for a significant amount of leaky gates (key-dependent SCL). These instructions copy the key value from RAM to a coprocessor register. There is another peak in figure 3, which maps to instruction 75c in listing 1. Even though this instruction is a control instruction for the coprocessor, its effect is to move the key value from the register in the memory-mapped interface to a register in the ASCON hardware core. This creates additional side-channel leakage, and the source of the side-channel leakage comes from the ASCON coprocessor.

**ASCON Coprocessor Initialization** Moving on to the root-cause analysis inside of the ASCON coprocessor, this selected region covers the entire ASCON Coprocessor Initialization phase and software control writes. listing 2 summaries its software instructions. 12-round of coprocessor initialization happens between sends nonce valid (inst. 7a6) and loads AD[0] from RAM (inst. 7b0). The entire ASCON Coprocessor INIT simulation takes 198 clock cycles to complete. We identify the LTI with a $\rho_{\text{threshold}}$ of 0.2, which flags 185 clock cycles out of the 198 clock cycles as containing potentially leaky samples. Figure 4 shows the root-
cause analysis results from ACA. We observe that there is no significant amount of key-dependent SCL showing in software instructions, nor from the PicoRV module. This is expected because during software load/store nonce and associate data, there is no sensitive data (key) being processed, and the computations are happening inside of the ASCON coprocessor. For this reason, we see significant amount of key-dependent leaky gates during the coprocessor initialization stage from Figure 4 (bottom). There are 12 clock cycles being flagged over 2000 leaky gates per clock cycle. These 12 clock cycles consist of 12-round of permutation, and the key is directly feed into the initialization, therefore, shows significant amount of key-dependent SCL. Furthermore, we note that 2000 gates are still a tiny fraction of the overall 57,671 cells in the chip.

Listing 2. Coprocessor INIT sequence. Refer to Fig. 4

792: lw a5,-20(s0) # load ascon coprocessor base address
796: addi a5,a5,68
79a: lw a5,0(a5)
79c: andi a5,a5,2
79e: beqz a5,792 # loop wait for coproc nonce ready
7a0: lw a5,-20(s0)
7a4: li a4,16
7a6: sw a4,0(a5) # send nonce valid
7a8: lw a5,-20(s0)
7ac: addi a5,a5,36
7b0: lw a4,-136(s0) # load AD[0] from RAM
7b4: sw a4,0(a5) # store AD[0] to coproc

Fig. 4. ACA LTI Results (top) and Num of Leaky Gates over Simulation Time (bottom) on HWASCON-128 Co-Processor Initialization Phase with PC counter values in Red and ASCON Program Status in Green
In this experiment, our objective is to present the root-cause analysis of key-dependent SCL in SWASCON SCL on RISC-V (RC32IMC). Figure 5 shows SWASCON encryption details from Initialization, Associated Data, Plaintext, to Finalization. To select our analysis regions, we narrow down to four regions that has direct interaction with the 128-bit key in SWASCON as our targets:

1. SWASCON Nonce-Load, Key-Load, and 1st Round of Initialization.
2. SWASCON 12th Round of Initialization and Key-XOR.
3. SWASCON Key-XOR and 1st Round of Finalization.
4. SWASCON 12th Round of Finalization and Key-XOR.

To maximize the proportion of key-dependent SCL in the overall power consumption of SWASCON on RISC-V (RC32IMC), we apply 1000 test vectors consisting of random vs. fixed key (500 test vectors each group) with random nonce, constant associated data, and constant plaintext. The clock frequency is 4MHz, and the power simulation is sampled at 1 sample per clock cycle.

For root-cause analysis, we use the same method as in section 3. We present ACA LTI to identify the leaky clock cycles over simulation time. To quantify...
the key-dependent leaky gates over clock cycles, we rank the logic gates of the design per clock cycle according to the amount of contributed leakage per gate by computing LIF. Moreover, we express the leakage pattern as a root-cause set of leaky instructions by back-annotating leaky gates and cycles to software.

**SWASCON Nonce-Load, Key-Load, and 1st Round of Initialization**

Comparing to ASCON Coprocessor, all the SWASCON computations happen in side of the PicoRV. From section 3, we observe that the coprocessor takes one clock cycle on one round of permutation, however, this is not the case in SWASCON. In this selected region, SWASCON takes around 900 clock cycles to complete one round of permutation. Together with Nonce-Load and Key-Load, the entire simulation takes 957 clock cycles to finish. The corresponding software instructions are showing in [Listing 3](#), including load/store nonce and key, and part of the 1st round of permutation (Round Constant, KECCAK SBOX and Linear Diffusion Layer).

**Listing 3.** Software ASCON Nonce-Load, Key-Load, and 1st Round of INIT. Refer to [Fig. 6](#)’s X-axis

```assembly
2a68: addi a0, sp, 88
2a6a: sw s7, 112(sp) # store nonce[0]
2a6c: sw s3, 116(sp) # store nonce[1]
2a6e: sw s11, 124(sp) # store nonce[2]
2a70: sw a1, 120(sp) # store nonce[3]
2a72: sw s4, 96(sp) # store key[0]
2a74: sw s6, 100(sp) # store key[1]
2a76: sw s10, 104(sp) # store key[2]
2a78: sw s0, 108(sp) # store key[3]
2a7a: jal ra, fe4 <P12>

00000 fe4 <P12>:
```

We identify the LTI with a $\rho_{\text{threshold}}$ of 0.2, which flags 239 clock cycles out of the 957 clock cycles as containing potentially leaky samples. [Figure 6](#) shows the root-cause analysis results from ACA. By annotating the time instant of the peaks in the leaky gates to the program counter of the PC, we find 11 instructions (highlighted in red in [Listing 3](#) and [Figure 6](#)’s PC Counter) that are responsible for a significant amount of leaky gates (key-dependent SCL). These instructions show direct interaction with the sensitive data (key), including four
load/store key instructions, Round Constant (Instr. 1026), and more for the rest of the permutation.

We observe that the key is being used multiple times in the software instructions causing large amount of leaky gates being flagged in Figure 6, and majority of these leaky gates come from the PicoRV module, but still a tiny fraction of the overall 57,671 cells in the chip. Moreover, we notice that there is a differences between SWASCON and ASCON coprocessor during the initialization phase. In ASCON coprocessor, each round of permutation finishes within one clock cycle, therefore, we see 12 clock cycles with significant amount of leaky gates being flagged in Figure 4 (bottom). On the other hand, SWASCON takes around 900 clock cycles to complete one round of permutation, so when there are no key-dependent instructions executing, the number of leaky gates being flagged in that clock cycle is close to zero. We also observe that half passed the Linear Diffusion Layer from the 1st round of permutation, the number of leaky gates (key-dependent SCL) significantly reduces in SWASCON, which is not very obvious from the coprocessor experiment results (Figure 4 (bottom)). This shows that in SWASCON, the sensitive data (key) is gradually being consumed over clock cycles, flagging less key-dependent leaky gates towards the end of the 1st round of permutation.
SWASCON 12th Round of INIT and Key-XOR Moving on to the root-cause analysis at the end of the SWASCON initialization phase. During the 12th round of initialization and Key-XOR, the entire simulation takes 973 clock cycles to complete. We identify the LTI with a $\rho_{\text{threshold}}$ of 0.2, which only flags 30 clock cycles out of the 973 clock cycles as containing potentially leaky samples.

Figure 7 shows the root-cause analysis results from ACA. We find 8 instructions (highlighted in red in Listing 4 and Figure 7’s PC Counter) that are responsible for a significant amount of leaky gates (key-dependent SCL), but still a tiny fraction of the overall 57,671 cells in the chip. We only see a few clock cycles marked as leaky at the end of permutation and this is expected. Because at the end of the 12th round permutation, it loads the final state registers values (Instr. 27d8, 27e8, 27ec, 27f4) and a 128-bit key (Instr. 29e0), and perform the Key-XOR operation (Instr. 29c8, 29d0, 29d4). Only one out of four key load instruction, and three out of four xor instructions are flagged with significant amount of leaky gates. This shows us that the post-permutation Key-XOR during the initialization phase contains less key-dependent SCL even though the key is directly being used in the computation.

Listing 4. Software ASCON 12th Round of INIT and Key-XOR. Refer to Fig. 7’s X-axis

00000fe4 <P12>: 
...

Fig. 7. ACA LTI Results (top) and Num of Leaky Gates over Simulation Time (bottom) on SWASCON-128 12th Round of Initialization and Key-XOR Phase with PC counter values in Red and ASCON Program Status in Green
SWASCON Key-XOR and 1st round of FINAL

Moving on to the root-cause analysis in the finalization phase. During the Key-XOR and 1st round of finalization, the entire simulation takes 941 clock cycles to finish. We identify the LTI with a $\rho_{\text{threshold}}$ of 0.2, which only flags 48 clock cycles out of the 941 clock cycles as containing potentially leaky samples. Figure 8 shows the root-cause analysis results from ACA. We find 14 instructions (highlighted in red in Listing 5 and Figure 8’s PC Counter) that are responsible for a significant amount of leaky gates (key-dependent SCL), but still a tiny fraction of the overall 57,671 cells in the chip. We observe that at the beginning of this region, there are significant amount of leaky gates flagged. This is where the Key-XOR happens. Leaky instructions are Key-XOR (Instr. 452e, 4532, 4538, 453c) and store the XORed values (Instr. 4540, 4542, 4544, 4546). We only see few clock cycles marked as leaky during the 1st round of finalization, these are store instructions which store the key-dependent intermediate values when executing KECCAK SBOX and Linear Diffusion layer. Comparing to the 1st round of initialization, the 1st round of finalization flagged way less leaky cycles and gates.

Listing 5. Software ASCON Key-XOR and 1st Round of FINAL. Refer to Fig. 8's X-axis

```
452e xor a5,s5,s0 # key xor
4532 xor t5,s10,s2 # key xor
...
4538 xor t2,s6,s1 # key xor
453c xor ra,s7,s8 #key xor
4540 sw a5,96(sp) # store xored value
4542 sw t5,104(sp) # store xored value
4544 sw t2,100(sp) # store xored value
4546 sw ra,108(sp) # store xored value
4548 jal ra,fe4 <P12>
```

00000fe4 <P12>:
Finally, we present the root-cause analysis during the 12th round of finalization phase and Key-XOR. In this selected region, the entire simulation takes 922 clock cycles to complete. We identify the LTI with a $\rho_{\text{threshold}}$ of 0.2, which only flags 26 clock cycles out of the 922 clock cycles as containing potentially leaky samples. Figure 9 shows the root-cause analysis results from ACA. We find 14 instructions (highlighted in red in Listing 6 and Figure 9’s PC Counter) that are responsible for a significant amount of leaky gates (key-dependent SCL), but still a tiny fraction of the overall 57,671 cells in the chip. We only see a few clock cycles marked as leaky at the end of finalization and this is expected. Leaky instructions include loading the final state registers values (Instr. 285a ... 28ac), loading a 128-bit key (Instr. 4558,
455a, 455c, 455e), and performing the Key-XOR operation (Instr. 4560, 4562). We see significant amount of leaky gates being flagged during the Key-XOR, and majority of the leaky gates are originated from the PicoRV.

![ACA Leakage Time Interval](image-url)

**Fig. 9.** ACA LTI Results (top) and Num of Leaky Gates over Simulation Time (bottom) on SWASCON-128 12th round of Finalization and Key-XOR Phase with PC counter values in Red and ASCON Program Status in Green

**Listing 6.** Software ASCON 12th Round of FINAL and Key-XOR. Refer to Fig. 9's X-axis

```assembly
285a lw s0,88(sp) # load state_reg
2876 lw s5,68(sp) # load state_reg
2878 lw s6,64(sp) # load state_reg
287a lw s7,60(sp) # load state_reg
2888 lw s4,72(sp) # load state_reg
288a lw s3,76(sp) # load state_reg
28aa lw s10,48(sp) # load state_reg
28ac lw s11,44(sp) # load state_reg
...
28b0: ret
4554: jal ra, fe4 <P12>
4558 lw s5,124(sp) # load key
455a lw s5,116(sp) # load key
```
Validating Simulation against Measurement

In our final experiment, we compared the simulation results that drive the root-cause analysis with measurements taken from a prototype implementation from the same design \cite{KLE}. To take the higher noise levels of the physical measurement into account, we increased the number of traces used in the measurement campaign to 50,000 (a 50x increase). The number of traces was chosen such that we identified clear positive peaks in the t-test results. The board is running at 4MHz, the sampling rate for HWASCON-128 and SWASCON-128 are 64Mhz (16 samples per clock cycle) and 16Mhz (4 samples per clock cycle).

We concluded that our t-test results for the implementation are a subset of the t-test results for the simulation. When the simulation model identifies an ACA t-test peak that corresponds to a large number of leaky gates (500 or more), then that peak is also present in the t-test on the measurements. However, the converse is not true: a t-test peak in the simulation may remain undetectable in the measurement. This happens when only very few leaky gates are involved in the t-test peak, which corresponds to minuscule power variations that remain invisible in the measurements.

Figure 10 compares the t-values for measured HWASCON-128 traces with the t-values for simulated HWASCON-128 traces. The presence of the key is clearly picked up in the simulation at KeyLoad and during the Initialization phase after KeyLoad. The t-test on the simulated traces show a similar peak pattern. Because simulated traces contain only 1000 samples, each simulated t-score graph only covers a small portion of the overall measured t-score graph.

Figure 11 compares the t-values from measured and simulated SWASCON-128 traces during the ASCON Initialization phase. The key dependence is identified in the measurements as well as in the simulation during KeyLoad, KeyXOR, first-round processing, and 12th-round processing.

Figure 12 compares the t-values from measured and simulated SWASCON-128 traces during the ASCON Finalization phase. The key dependence is identified in the measurements as well as in the simulation during KeyXOR processing before the first-round and after the 12th-round processing.

These three examples illustrate that a meaningful connection can be made, between simulation traces and root-cause analysis (ACA) on the one hand, and between leakage patterns on simulated traces and measured traces on the other hand.
HWASCON Measurement NonceLoad + KeyLoad + INIT + AD + FINAL t-score

Fig. 10. Measurement and Simulation T-Test Results on HWASCON-128 KeyLoad and Initialization

SWASCON Measurement NonceLoad + KeyLoad + 1stR_INIT t-score

Fig. 11. Measurement and Simulation T-Test Results on SWASCON-128 Initialization

SWASCON Measurement KeyXor + 12RoundsFINAL + KeyXor t-score

Fig. 12. Measurement and Simulation T-Test Results on SWASCON-128 Finalization
6 Conclusions

Root-Cause Analysis of Side-Channel Leakage constitutes a vital component of Pre-Silicon security analysis. It explains where and how the leakage comes from a implementation, thereby enabling designers to develop effective countermeasures or diagnose Side-Channel Leakage related defects. In this context, we present a comprehensive Root-Cause Analysis using Architecture Correlation Analysis on two ASCON implementations, a ASCON Coprocessor on a RISC-V SoC and a SWASCON on RISC-V (RV32IMC). These implementations have received limited attention from the research community in terms of side-channel analysis, and our study aims to address this gap by expressing the leakage pattern as a root-cause set of leaky instructions by back-annotating leaky gates and cycles to software instructions. Moreover, we validate our analysis by seeing a meaningful connection between Pre-Silicon simulation and Post-Silicon measurement traces.

References


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