

A New Leakage Exploitation Framework and Its Application to Authenticated Encryption

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- Building a new differential power analysis (DPA) framework.
- Applying this framework to NIST LWC (2018-2023) finalists.
- Showing how mode and primitive design impact leakage mitigation.

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Deploying:

• Using this framework, we study the SC properties of the finalists.

Main SC observation. If \mathbf{T}_i and $f(p_i \oplus k)$ are dependent, and f is "sufficiently" non-linear, then with enough $\{p_i, \mathbf{T}_i\}_{i=1}^N$, an attacker can recover k.

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- Usually, f is an S-box function.
- w is bit-width of the implementation, usually $w \in \{8, 32, 64\}$.
- Chunks of the target secret are processed similarly through *f*. This divide-and-conquer property is required for DPA attacks.

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Relaxing the requirements. What happens if f is linear or identity function? Can we still recover k given enough $\{p_i, \mathbf{T}_i\}_{i=1}^N$?

Experimenting with XOR

Assembly code snippet to test XOR leakage.

```
... : r3 = k r9 = p
8000aa8: bf00 nop
8000aaa: ea89 0903 eor.w r9, r9, r3 ; r9 = r9 \oplus r3
8000aae: bf00 nop
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Processing tools:

• Correlation power analysis (CPA), linear regression (LR), combined with deep learning (DL) techniques.

Results:

• Attacks work with around 10K traces using 100K for profiling.

Leakage model. For some noise n and constant a, the leakage buried in the traces is described as $l = a HW(k \oplus p) + n$.

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Byte by Byte CPA. To estimate byte j of the key, the attacker computes empirical correlation cor(HW($k^* \oplus p[j]$), T) for all values $0 \le k^* \le 255$, and sorts the key hypothesis based on the results.

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Drawback. In targeting each byte, the value of the other bytes is considered as noise. This increases the number of required traces for a successful attack.

Using LR for adjusting weights. Using the traces, leakage l of a variable v in terms of its bits can be estimated with LR as $l = \sum_{j=1}^{w} a_j v[j] + n$.

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Using LR for the attack. If v is $k \oplus p$, output leakage of the XOR can be expressed in basis of bits of p as:

$$l = \sum_{j=1}^{w} a_j(k[j] \oplus p[j]) + n = \sum_{k[j]=0}^{w} a_j p[j] + \sum_{k[j]=1}^{w} a_j(1 - p[j]) + n$$
$$= \sum_{k[j]=0}^{w} a_j p[j] - \sum_{k[j]=1}^{w} a_j p[j] + b,$$

for some key-independent value b. The sign of coefficient of p[j] reveals k[j].

Combining CPA/LR with DL. To decrease the number of required traces, $HW(k \oplus p_i)$ can be estimated from $\{p_i, \mathbf{T}_i\}$ with DL. j in $T_i[j]$ and $p_i[j]$ denotes samples and bits, respectively.



More on the attack tools

Attack Results



Figure: (Left) CPA with and without DL. The CPA attack for the 2nd byte produces slightly better results. DL+CPA in the used model worked better for the 1st byte. Results for other bytes are also shown. (Right) LR with and without DL.

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Application. We investigate the running assembly to find enough XOR instructions that are merging random (and known) operands with secret parameters.



Figure: ASCON-Encryption. a and b denote the number of permutation rounds.



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- *K* is used both in the initialization and finalization phases.
- State recovery in middle phases will not lead to key recovery or tag forgery.
- So, only the initialization and finalization need protection.
- This property is referred to as leveled masking.

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Initialization

...; r0 contains address of parameters 10b60: e9d0 1205 **ldrd r1**, **r2**, **[r0**, #20]; r1 = K2, r2 = N1 10b84: f8d0 8000 **ldr.w r8**. [r0] : r8 = IV110b88: f084 04f0 eor.w r4. r4. #240 : $K3 = K3 \oplus 0 \times f0$ 10b8c; ea86 0904 eor.w r9, r6, r4 : $r9 = K1 \oplus K3$ 10b90: ea88 0a0e eor.w sl. r8. lr : $sl = IV1 \oplus N3$ 10b94: ea82 0b0e eor.w fp, r2, lr ; $fp = N1 \oplus N3$ 10b98: ea62 0e0e orn lr, r2, lr ; $lr = N1 | (\sim N3)$ 10b9c: ea8e 0e09 eor.w lr. lr. r9: $lr = r9 \oplus lr = K1 \oplus K3 \oplus N1 | (\sim N3)$ 10ba0: ea82 0206 eor.w r2, r2, r6 ; $r2 = N1 \oplus K1$

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A profiling phase is required to identify the sample index of target instructions.





Finalization



K is also XORed with the state before the final permutation. However, there is no known data associated with this instruction. These operations can be targeted with a second-order DPA.



Figure: CPA results for attacking the initialization phase of ASCON.



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- Peaks should be compared only in their target interval.
- The attack at the finalization works, but peaks are negative.

DPA for plaintext recovery. To decrypt C_1^* (without knowing a valid tag), an attacker can ask for decryption of random C_1 using the same (N^*, A^*) and perform DPA over the XOR defined by $M_1^* = C_1^* \oplus \operatorname{Trunc}(S^*, r)$.



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Figure: ASCON-Decryption

Encrypt-then-MAC construction can prevent plaintext recovery attacks.



Figure: Xoodyak-Encryption, with $P(K, N) = K ||N|| 0 \times 80 ||0 \times 01||0^{\dagger}|| 0 \times 02$.



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- Associated data is absorbed with rate $r = 44 \cdot 8$ and state size is $48 \cdot 8$.



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- The permutation chain upgrades a state recovery attack to a key recovery attack.

Application to the other finalists

Cipher	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)
ASCON	\checkmark			32 bit	\checkmark	×	
Elephant	\checkmark			8 bit	\times	\checkmark	
GIFT-COFB	\checkmark			32 bit	\times	\times	
Grain128-AEAD	×	\times	\checkmark	1 bit	\checkmark	\times	
ISAP	×	×	\times	32 bit	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
TinyJambu	\checkmark			32 bit	×	\times	
Xoodyak	×	\checkmark		8 bit	\times	\times	×

- (A) is checked if there is a first-order DPA key recovery attack.
- (B) is checked if there is a first-order DPA key recovery attack in the fixed nonce setting.
- (C) is checked if there is only a second-order DPA key recovery attack.
- (D) shows the bit-width of the studied assembly implementation.
- (E) is checked if leveled masking is possible.
- (F) is checked if DPA for plaintext recovery is not possible.
- $\bullet~$ (G) is checked if there is an SCA-aware version that is not computationally heavier.

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Thank you for your attention!