#### ON THE IMPORTANCE OF CONSIDERING PHYSICAL ATTACKS WHEN IMPLEMENTING LIGHTWEIGHT CRYPTOGRAPHY

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Costs analysis

**Conclusions & Perspectives** 

### **About Trusted Objects**

- Trusted Objects is an independent company founded by experienced managers and backed up by a network of industry experts and private investors.
- Trusted Objects' mission is to deliver
  - Products: Embedded secure firmware IPs for IoT applications.
  - **Solutions**: Secure Element solution, in partnership with secure hardware provider.
  - **Services**: Security assessment & recommendations, life cycle management, **personalization**, ...



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## **TO136 Secure Element**

- A secure element (SE) is a tamper-resistant hardware platform, capable of securely hosting applications and storing confidential and cryptographic data.
- ▷ A SE can be used in addition of a host micro-controller ( $\mu$ C), *i.e.* the cryptographic computations are delagated to the SE via a bus, but can be also used as a main secure  $\mu$ C to handle both application and communication.
- ▷ The TO136 secure element build from our firmware and a secure hardware, communicates through I2C bus.
- To date, our solution is made from 'traditionnal cryptography' such as
  - o Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECDSA, ECDH, ECIES, ...)
  - AES, SHA2, HMAC, ...



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▷ PRIDE is an interative 64-bit block cipher composed of 20 rounds and introduced at CRYPTO 2014 by Albretch & al [1].

We focused on PRIDE because nowadays, it is one of the most efficient lightweight block ciphers when looking at software implementations [2].

▷ As PRIDE is a simple **FX-construction** [4], it uses a 128-bit key  $k = k_0 ||k_1|$  where  $k_0$  is used for pre and post-whitening while  $k_1$  is used to produce subkeys  $f_r(k_1)$  where

$$f_r(k_1) = k_{1_0} ||g_r^{(0)}(k_{1_1})||k_{1_2}||g_r^{(1)}(k_{1_3})||k_{1_4}||g_r^{(2)}(k_{1_5})||k_{1_6}||g_r^{(3)}(k_{1_7})$$

for each round r with

 $g_r^{(i)}(x) = (x + C_i r) \mod 256$  and  $C_i$  are constants.

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#### PRIDE block cipher 2/2

Our implementation can be outlined as follows



with  $\mathcal{R} = \mathcal{L} - \text{layer} \circ \mathcal{S} - \text{layer}$  and  $\mathcal{R}' = \mathcal{S} - \text{layer}$  where  $\mathcal{S} - \text{layer} = \mathcal{P} \circ \mathcal{S} \circ \mathcal{P}^{-1}$ .

▷ The design of PRIDE is close to LS-design ciphers. Each round consists in a round key addition, a S-box layer and a L-box one (except for the final round which omits the last operation). Hence, a round  $\mathcal{R}$  can be schematized as follows

Apply S-box 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & s_{1,1} & \cdots & s_{1,16} \\ 1 & s_{1,1} & \cdots & s_{1,16} \\ 1 & s_{1,1} & \cdots & s_{4,16} \end{pmatrix}$$
 Apply L-box

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## Simple Electromagnetic Analysis 1/2

- $\triangleright$  We have implemented PRIDE in C language on a chip embedding an Cortex-M3  $\mu$ C.
- ▷ Our attacks were performed using a fixed key  $k = k_0 ||k_1|$  where  $k_0 = 0 \times a371b246f90cf582$  and  $k_1 = 0 \times e417d148e239ca5d$ .
- ▷ A simple electromagnetic analysis (SEMA) on the whole execution of PRIDE was first performed in order to identify our attack targets.





Figure: Electromagnetic emanations during a PRIDE execution





- ▷ At first, it was not obvious to distinguish each operation within a round.
- $\triangleright$  Then, we took a look at the last round, which allowed us to determine the different paterns due to the absence of the  $\mathcal{L}$ -layer.



Figure: Electromagnetic emanations of the first two rounds of PRIDE block cipher

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## **Correlation Electromagnetic Analysis**

General principle

> The principle is to make the attack in two stages

- recovering  $\mathcal{P}(k_0)$
- recovering f<sub>20</sub>(k<sub>1</sub>)
- ▷ We chose to focus on the **last round** because in the first one,  $\mathcal{P}(k_0)$  and  $f_{20}(k_1)$  are added **successively** to the state.
- ▷ The leakage model was based on the Hamming weight (HW) of the manipulated data.
- ▷ In the case of PRIDE, contrary to some other block ciphers such as AES where each byte passes through the S-box independently, each byte depends on several others during the S-layer operation.
- ▷ We chose to attack the key adition layer where each byte could be treated independently.

 $A = c \oplus (a\&b)$  $B = d \oplus (b\&c)$  $C = a \oplus (A\&B)$  $D = b \oplus (B\&C)$ 

PRIDE S-Box formulation on a nibble a||b||c||d

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## **Correlation Electromagnetic Analysis**

#### Experimentation

▷ PRIDE was executed for 1000 random plaintexts. The traces matrix is denoted

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} T_0 \\ \vdots \\ T_{6499} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t_{0,0} & \cdots & t_{0,999} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ t_{6499,1} & \cdots & t_{6499,999} \end{bmatrix}$$

▷ Then, we computed the estimation matrices in order to recover each byte  $\mathcal{P}(k_0)_i$  for  $0 \le i \le 7$ 

$$E^{i} = \begin{bmatrix} E_{0}^{i} \\ \vdots \\ E_{255}^{i} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_{0,0}^{i} & \cdots & e_{0,999}^{i} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ e_{255,0}^{i} & \cdots & e_{255,999}^{i} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $e_{H_K,j}^i = HW(C_{j,i} \oplus H_K)$ .

▷ Finally, we computed the correlation coefficients matrices  $P^i$  from  $E^i$  and T' where  $T' \subset T$  denotes the traces points corresponding to the last S-layer.

$$P^{i} = \begin{bmatrix} P_{0}^{i} \\ \vdots \\ P_{n-1}^{i} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{0,0}^{i} & \cdots & \rho_{0,255}^{i} \\ = \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho_{n-1,0}^{i} & \cdots & \rho_{n-1,255}^{i} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\rho_{t,H_K}^i = \operatorname{Corr}(T_t', E_{H_K}^i)$ .

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## **Correlation Electromagnetic Analysis**

#### Experimentation

- A symmetry about the x-axis appears because the key hypotheses are simply XORed with the ciphertexts.
- ▷ The two's complement  $\overline{H_K}$  of each key byte hypothesis  $H_K$  leads to a symmetric relation regarding the estimation matrix (*i.e.*  $\forall i \forall j$ ,  $E_{H_K,j}^i = 8 E_{H_K,j}^i$ ).
- ▷ We can differentiate 8 correlation classes where each one corresponds to a set of key byte hypotheses  $S_d$  where the Hamming distance between the real key byte and each element equals d (*i.e.*  $\forall H_K \in S_d$ ,  $HD(H_K, K) = d$ ).



Figure: Key recovery of  $\mathcal{P}(k_0)_0$  with 256-bit key hypotheses





- ▷ We deduced that it was sufficient to make key byte hypotheses on 7 bits instead of 8.
- ▷ If  $\max(|P^i|) = \max(P^i)$  then the correct key byte is the matching  $H_K$ , otherwise it is  $\overline{H_K}$ .
- ▷ In the same way, we were able to recover all the other bytes of  $\mathcal{P}(k_0)$ .
- ▷ After that, we were able to compute S-layer  $(C \oplus \mathcal{P}(k_0))$  for each ciphertext C and to repeat the same reasoning to recover  $f_{20}(k_1)$ .



Figure: Key recovery of  $\mathcal{P}(k_0)_0$  with 128-bit keyFigure: Key recovery of  $\mathcal{P}(k_0)_1$  with 128-bit keyhypotheseshypothesesTRUSTED

## **Differential fault analysis**

General principle

- ▷ We applied the attack presented in [5] on our 8-bit implementation.
- ▷ As CEMA, the DFA consists in two steps.
- ▷ To recover  $k_0$ , we injected faults on some rows of the inner state (independently) between the last two *S*-layer.
- ▷ A bit flip on the row  $1 \le \beta \le 4$  just before the *r*-th *S*-layer gives a S-box input difference  $\Delta ln_r = 2^{4-\beta}$ .
- ▷ The S-box output difference can be easily recovered from the correct ciphertext *C* and the faulty one *C*<sup>\*</sup> by computing  $\Delta Out_{20} = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(C \oplus C^*)$ .
- ▷ We then exploited the couples ( $\Delta In_{20}$ ,  $\Delta Out_{20}$ ) by using the following proposition introduced in [5]

#### Proposition

Let S be an n-bit S-box with differential uniformity 4. Let  $(a_1, b_1)$  and  $(a_2, b_2)$  be two differentials with  $a_1 \neq a_2$  such that the system of two equations

$$S(x \oplus a_1) \oplus S(x) = b_1 \tag{1}$$

$$\mathcal{S}(x \oplus a_2) \oplus \mathcal{S}(x) = b_2 \tag{2}$$

has at least two solutions. Then, each of the three equations (1), (2) and

$$S(x \oplus a_1 \oplus a_2) \oplus S(x) = b_1 \oplus b_2$$
 (3)

has at least four solutions.

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## **Differential Fault Analysis**

Fault injection example



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## **Differential Fault Analysis**

Fault injection example



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## **Differential Fault Analysis**

Fault injection example



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### **Differential fault analysis**

Experimentation

Table: Sets of candidates obtained from faults injected between the last two substitution layers

Value of $(\Delta O_{20}, \Delta I_{20})$	Nib <sub>0</sub>	Nib <sub>1</sub>	Nib <sub>2</sub>	Nib <sub>3</sub>	Nib <sub>4</sub>	Nib <sub>5</sub>	Nib <sub>6</sub>	Nib <sub>7</sub>	Nib <sub>8</sub>	Nib <sub>9</sub>	Nib <sub>10</sub>	Nib <sub>11</sub>	Nib <sub>12</sub>	Nib <sub>13</sub>	Nib <sub>14</sub>	Nib <sub>15</sub>
(0×a000800000002000, 0×8000800000008000)	0x1 0x3 0x9 0xb	ø	ø	ø	0x5 0x6 0xd 0xe	ø	ø	ø	ø	ø	ø	Ø	0x0 0x2 0x8 0xa	ø	ø	ø
(0xcc00df8800000000, 0x2200222200000000)	0x5 0x9	0x5 0x9	ø	Ø	0x6 0xb	0x1 0xe	0x0 0x2 0x8 0xa	0x0 0x2 0x8 0xa	ø	Ø	ø	Ø	ø	ø	ø	ø
(0xcc0000000f000008, 0x2200000002000002)	0x5 0x9	0x5 0x9	ø	ø	ø	ø	ø	ø	ø	0x1 0xe	ø	Ø	ø	ø	ø	0x0 0x2 0x8 0xa
(0xc0b00f8080f00bb0, 0x2020022020200220)	0x5 0x9	ø	0x4 0x7 0xc 0xf	Ø	ø	0x1 0xe	0x0 0x2 0x8 0xa	ø	0x0 0x2 0x8 0xa	Ø	0x1 0xe	Ø	ø	0x4 0x7 0xc 0xf	0x4 0x7 0xc 0xf	ø
(0x0405040664707056, 0x0101010111101011)	ø	0x0 0x1 0x4 0x5	ø	0x2 0x3 0x6 0x7	ø	0x0 0x1 0x4 0x5	ø	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd	0x0 0x1 0x4 0x5	0x8 0x9 0xe 0xf	Ø	0x8 0x9 0xe 0xf	ø	0x2 0x3 0x6 0x7	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd
(0x7005500660057006, 0x1001100110011001)	0x8 0x9 0xe 0xf	ø	ø	0x2 0x3 0x6 0x7	0x2 0x3 0x6 0x7	ø	ø	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd	ø	ø	0x2 0x3 0x6 0x7	0x8 0x9 0xe 0xf	ø	ø	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd
(0x7445546660700406, 0x111111110100101)	0x8 0x9 0xe 0xf	0x0 0x1 0x4 0x5	0x0 0x1 0x4 0x5	0x2 0x3 0x6 0x7	0x2 0x3 0x6 0x7	0x0 0x1 0x4 0x5	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd	ø	0x8 0x9 0xe 0xf	Ø	ø	0x0 0x1 0x4 0x5	ø	0xa 0xb 0xc 0xd

Because the faults did not provide enough information for the 3-rd and the 11-th nibble, 16 candidates remained for P(k<sub>0</sub>).
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Faulty ciphertexts obtained from fault injection between the penultimate two substitution layers allowed us to exclude the bad assumptions by computing

$$\Delta Out_{19} = \Big(\mathcal{P}^{-1} \circ \mathcal{L} - \mathsf{layer}^{-1}\Big) \Big(\mathcal{S} - \mathsf{layer}\big(\mathcal{C} \oplus \mathcal{P}(k_0)\big) \oplus \mathcal{S} - \mathsf{layer}\big(\mathcal{C}^* \oplus \mathcal{P}(k_0)\big)\Big)$$

from all the 16 remaining candidates.

- ▷ We observed that some differentials (△Out<sub>19</sub>, △In<sub>19</sub>) were not possible: each input difference implies a specific output difference set.
- ▷ The last remaining value was  $k_0 = 0 \times a 371 b 246 f 90 c f 582$ .
- ▷ Finally, we did the intersection between the sets for each nibble as we did for  $k_0$  and we directly recovered  $k_1$ .







#### ▶ Practical feasibility

- A CEMA can be easily set up as it does not necessarily require much equipment. The involved tools mainly depends on the targeted platform.
- Fault attacks are very powerful but a little more complicated to set up. For our attack, we did not need to decapsulate the chip and an electromagnetic pulse generator and a picoscope did the job, but on secured platforms...

#### ▷ Attack paths

On one hand, the S-layer design makes CEMA more tricky

- To make a hypothesis on a 8-bit value at the S-layer output, one should make a hypothesis on 24-bit input value.
- Bit-per-bit SCAs would be more efficient but are more appropriate to hardware implementation. Such an attack has already been performed on PRINCE [6] which has a similar structure to PRIDE

On the other hand, it makes DFA much easier

- Flipping the 16 bits of any row at its input activates all S-boxes in the next round.
- The number of remaining candidates for  $k_0$  is upper-bounded by  $4^{16}$ .

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- ▷ For a nibble denoted n = a || b || c || d, a mask of first order  $m = m_a || m_b || m_c || m_d$  and  $\tilde{n} = n \oplus m = \tilde{a} || \tilde{b} || \tilde{c} || \tilde{d}$ , the S-Box returns the output nibble  $\tilde{N} = \tilde{A} || \tilde{B} || \tilde{C} || \tilde{D}$  where
  - $$\begin{split} \widetilde{A} &= \widetilde{c} \oplus (\widetilde{a} \cdot \widetilde{b}) \\ \widetilde{B} &= \widetilde{d} \oplus (\widetilde{b} \cdot \widetilde{c}) \\ \widetilde{C} &= \widetilde{a} \oplus (\widetilde{A} \cdot \widetilde{B}) \\ \widetilde{D} &= \widetilde{b} \oplus (\widetilde{B} \cdot \widetilde{C}) \end{split}$$
- ▷ The secure AND gate construction proposed in [7] consists in introducing a random bit *r* and computing

$$m_{z} = r \qquad (4)$$

$$\widetilde{z} = (\widetilde{a} \cdot \widetilde{b}) \oplus (m_{a} \cdot m_{b}) \oplus (m_{a} \cdot \widetilde{b}) \oplus (m_{b} \cdot \widetilde{a}) \oplus r$$

▷ In the particular case of PRIDE, we will need to generate 4 random bits  $(r_A, r_B, r_C, r_D)$  for each secure AND gate.

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- ▷ **Duplicating** the last rounds computations is a simple countermeasure against fault attacks.
- If computations return different results, it means that a fault has been injected and that the device must react to it.
- We can also apply a majority vote by duplicating the computations twice and give as output the one that appears most.



Figure: Majority vote using duplication

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- ▷ A countermeasure proposed in [3] consists in adding a random mask to the message in order to prevent consecutive executions of the same plaintext.
- The mask can be sent with the ciphertext but does not protect against an attack on decryption: an attacker can choose the same mask.
- ▷ Another option is to synchronize PRNGs.



Figure: Masking based on the Guilley countermeasure

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#### **Conclusion & Perspectives**

We showed that PRIDE is vulnerable to CEMA as well as DFA and compared the attacks to the S-layer design.

- A cryptographic algorithm can be intrinsically more resistant to physical attacks thanks to its design.
- Now, the next step shall be to analyse the countermeasures' effects in terms of security and performance.



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# Thank you for your time and attention!



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