

On the Simplicity of Converting Leakages from Multivariate to Univariate (Case Study of a Glitch-Resistant Masking Scheme)

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Abstract. Several masking schemes to protect cryptographic implementations against side-channel attacks have been proposed. A few considered the glitches, and provided security proofs in presence of such inherent phenomena happening in logic circuits. One which is based on multi-party computation protocols and utilizes Shamir's secret sharing scheme was presented at CHES 2011. It aims at providing security for hardware implementations – mainly of AES – against those sophisticated side-channel attacks that also take glitches into account. One part of this article deals with the practical issues and relevance of the aforementioned masking scheme. Following the recommendations given in the extended version of the mentioned article, we first provide a guideline on how to implement the scheme for the simplest settings. Constructing an exemplary design of the scheme, we provide practical side-channel evaluations based on a Virtex-5 FPGA. Our results demonstrate that the implemented scheme is indeed secure against univariate power analysis attacks given a basic measurement setup. In the second part of this paper we show how using very simple changes in the measurement setup opens the possibility to exploit multivariate leakages while still performing a univariate attack. Using these techniques the scheme under evaluation can be defeated using only a moderate number of measurements. This is applicable not only to the scheme showcased here, but also to most other known masking schemes where the shares of sensitive values are processed in adjacent clock cycles.

1 Introduction

With the increasing widespread of security-enabled embedded devices their protection against malicious users became of a greater concern. Even if these devices are protected by cryptographic algorithms which are very secure considering a black box scenario, with the discovery of side-channel attacks and especially power analysis in the late 90s [9], algorithms which are implemented without countermeasures can nowadays easily be broken. One of the reasons for this is that power analysis equipment is relatively cheap and already published attacks can be utilized by a moderately skilled attacker. This is especially bothersome

since most of these devices must be considered as working in a hostile environment with easy access of an attacker, lowering the inhibition threshold to perform such an attack.

Different masking schemes, like boolean and multiplicative have been proposed in order to randomize the intermediate computations and hence provide security against power analysis attacks. They indeed have been presented to the community in an arms race to counteract the also evolving new side-channel attacks. Implementations of most of these earlier masking schemes while considered secure under the used security model at that time, still exhibit a detectable univariate first-order leakage which is caused by glitches in the combinational circuits of hardware. For instance, we can mention the schemes presented in [19] and [6] which have later been shown to be vulnerable in [11] and [14] respectively. Taking these occurring glitches into account new masking schemes have been developed claiming glitch resistance. Threshold Implementation (TI) [16–18] is one of the more studied ones. It is based on a specific type of multi-party computation and applies boolean masking. However, making a correct implementation which fulfills all the requirements of TI is very challenging, and so far only up to 4×4 S-boxes could be successfully realized under its definitions [4, 18, 20]. TI is supposed to be secure only against 1st-order attacks, and accordingly it has been shown that it can be broken by a univariate mutual information analysis (MIA) [3, 18] or a 2nd-order univariate collision attack [12].

Another scheme [21], also based on multi-party computation protocols, utilizes the Shamir’s secret sharing scheme [24] and claims security not only against 1st-order attacks but also depending on the number of shares against higher-order multivariate ones.¹ One of our contributions in this paper is to give guidelines on how to implement the scheme, thereby allowing its practical realization on a hardware platform although more details on its practicability as well as its ambiguous points is given by the original authors in [23]. In order to make an exemplary architecture of this scheme we have chosen a parameter set based on the minimum number of shares to supposedly provide protection against any univariate attack.

We address a couple of challenges on the way of its practical realization because of the very high time and area overheads. More importantly we conduct practical side-channel experiments which support the security claims given a basic measurement setup. With basic measurement setup we mean that, as recommended in [10], the target core is clocked at a low operating frequency so that the dynamic power consumptions of different clock cycles do not overlap. This way we make sure that the computations on different shares which are performed in adjacent clock cycles do not create a joint leakage. One can therefore better analyze univariate leakages.

We implemented the scheme under evaluation on a SASEBO G-II containing a Xilinx Virtex-5 FPGA. Using the aforementioned basic measurement setup we demonstrate information theoretic based evaluations as well as the resistance

¹ A similar masking scheme using Shamir’s secret sharing with a software platform as target has also been presented at CHES 2011 [8].

of the scheme against univariate first- and second-order attacks. In addition, we show two options on how to convert the existing multivariate leakages to univariate ones which are exploitable by the same simple univariate attack flow used in the initial evaluation. The reason behind this is that the computations of different shares of sensitive values are usually performed in subsequent clock cycles. This makes the scheme vulnerable using certain measurement setups where the leakage of an individual clock cycle is smeared over time. It is worth to mention that available-in-the-market DPA workstations equipped with SASEBO-GII are shipped with such a non-basic setup. It means that the security engineers who are not aware of such an effect do actually analyze multivariate leakages which are combined to univariate.

The application of this effect is not limited to the scheme at hand. The sequential order of operations in most cryptographic schemes cannot be broken up without high performance penalty. Therefore, it gives attackers a basically free way to perform multivariate attacks on every masking scheme where the shares of a secret are processed in closeby clock cycles.

2 Preliminaries

Before focusing on our target masking scheme, we specify the definition of different side-channel attacks w.r.t. their variate and the statistical moment applied. In the literature there exist two distinct definitions for what is the order of an attack. Some previous work define the order via the number of different leakage points considered simultaneously mainly because of the sequential processing in software. Others define the order via the statistical moment applied. Here we stay with the definition given in [13]. An attack which combines v different time instances – usually in v different clock cycles – of each power trace is called v -variate attack. Regardless of v the order of an attack is defined by the order of statistical moments which are considered in the attack. For instance, a CPA [5] which combines two points of each power trace by summing them up is a bivariate 1st-order attack, and a CPA which applies the squared values of each trace is a univariate 2nd-order attack. Those attacks where no specific statistical moment is applied, e.g., MIA [3], are distinguished only by v like univariate or bivariate MIA.

2.1 Target Scheme

Although the scheme presented in [21] is general, we rewrite its basics for minimum settings and by considering the AES Rijndael as the target algorithm. By \otimes we denote the multiplication in $\text{GF}(2^8)$ using the Rijndael irreducible polynomial and by \oplus the finite-field addition. The number of shares (and accordingly the number of Players) is fixed to 3 (i.e., degree of the underlying polynomial is 1, the most simplified setting in [21]). Regardless of the settings the scheme is expected to provide security against any univariate attacks.

Before starting the shared operations, one needs to select 3 distinct non-zero elements, so-called *public points*, $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ in $\text{GF}(2^8)$. Moreover, it is required to precompute the first row $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3)$ of the inverse of the Vandermonde (3×3) -matrix $(\alpha_i^j)_{1 \leq i, j \leq 3}$ as

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_1 &= \alpha_2 \otimes \alpha_3 \otimes (\alpha_1 \oplus \alpha_2)^{-1} \otimes (\alpha_1 \oplus \alpha_3)^{-1} \\ \lambda_2 &= \alpha_1 \otimes \alpha_3 \otimes (\alpha_1 \oplus \alpha_2)^{-1} \otimes (\alpha_2 \oplus \alpha_3)^{-1} \\ \lambda_3 &= \alpha_1 \otimes \alpha_2 \otimes (\alpha_1 \oplus \alpha_3)^{-1} \otimes (\alpha_2 \oplus \alpha_3)^{-1},\end{aligned}$$

where x^{-1} denotes the multiplicative inverse of x in $\text{GF}(2^8)$ using again the Rijndael irreducible polynomial. These elements, $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$, are publicly available to all 3 Players.

Sharing a secret x is done by randomly selecting a secret coefficient a and computing 3 shares x_1, x_2, x_3 as

$$x_1 = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_1), \quad x_2 = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_2), \quad x_3 = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_3).$$

Each Player i gets only one share x_i without having any information about the other shares.

Reconstructing the secret x from the 3 shares x_1, x_2, x_3 can be done as

$$x = (x_1 \otimes \lambda_1) \oplus (x_2 \otimes \lambda_2) \oplus (x_3 \otimes \lambda_3).$$

Let us suppose a constant c and two secrets x and y which are represented each by 3 shares x_1, x_2, x_3 and y_1, y_2, y_3 constructed using the same public points $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ and by secret coefficients a and b respectively. In the following we consider the essential operations required for an AES S-box computation, and discuss about the role of each Player.

Addition with a constant, i.e., $z = c \oplus x$, in the shared mode can be done by each Player performing the addition as

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Player 1 : } z_1 &= x_1 \oplus c = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_1) \oplus c = (x \oplus c) \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_1) \\ \text{Player 2 : } z_2 &= x_2 \oplus c = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_2) \oplus c = (x \oplus c) \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_2) \\ \text{Player 3 : } z_3 &= x_3 \oplus c = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_3) \oplus c = (x \oplus c) \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_3).\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, z_1, z_2, z_3 correctly provide the shared representation of z .

Multiplication with a constant, i.e., $z = c \otimes x$, $c \neq 0$, also can be performed in a similar way as

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Player 1 : } z_1 &= x_1 \otimes c = (x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_1)) \otimes c = (x \otimes c) \oplus (a \otimes c \otimes \alpha_1) \\ \text{Player 2 : } z_2 &= x_2 \otimes c = (x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_2)) \otimes c = (x \otimes c) \oplus (a \otimes c \otimes \alpha_2) \\ \text{Player 3 : } z_3 &= x_3 \otimes c = (x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_3)) \otimes c = (x \otimes c) \oplus (a \otimes c \otimes \alpha_3),\end{aligned}$$

and z_1, z_2, z_3 also provide the shared representation of z considering $a \otimes c$ as the secret coefficient.

Addition of two shared secrets, i.e., $z = x \oplus y$, is easily performed by

$$\text{Player 1 : } z_1 = x_1 \oplus y_1 = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_1) \oplus y \oplus (b \otimes \alpha_1) = (x \oplus y) \oplus ((a \oplus b) \otimes \alpha_1)$$

$$\text{Player 2 : } z_2 = x_2 \oplus y_2 = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_2) \oplus y \oplus (b \otimes \alpha_2) = (x \oplus y) \oplus ((a \oplus b) \otimes \alpha_2)$$

$$\text{Player 3 : } z_3 = x_3 \oplus y_3 = x \oplus (a \otimes \alpha_3) \oplus y \oplus (b \otimes \alpha_3) = (x \oplus y) \oplus ((a \oplus b) \otimes \alpha_3).$$

z_1, z_2, z_3 provide the shared representation of z as well considering $a \oplus b$ as the secret coefficient.

Multiplication of two shared secrets, i.e., $z = x \otimes y$, is the challenging part. If each Player computes the multiplication of two shares as

$$\text{Player 1 : } t_1 = x_1 \otimes y_1 = (x \otimes y) \oplus (((a \otimes y) \oplus (b \otimes x)) \otimes \alpha_1) \oplus (a \otimes b \otimes \alpha_1^2)$$

$$\text{Player 2 : } t_2 = x_2 \otimes y_2 = (x \otimes y) \oplus (((a \otimes y) \oplus (b \otimes x)) \otimes \alpha_2) \oplus (a \otimes b \otimes \alpha_2^2)$$

$$\text{Player 3 : } t_3 = x_3 \otimes y_3 = (x \otimes y) \oplus (((a \otimes y) \oplus (b \otimes x)) \otimes \alpha_3) \oplus (a \otimes b \otimes \alpha_3^2),$$

t_1, t_2, t_3 are not a correct shared representation of z because according to [21] the underlying polynomial is of a higher degree and does not have a uniform distribution. The solution given in [21] is as follows:

1. Each Player i after computing t_i , randomly selects a coefficient a_i , remarks t_i as

$$q_{i,1} = t_i \oplus (a_i \otimes \alpha_1), \quad q_{i,2} = t_i \oplus (a_i \otimes \alpha_2), \quad q_{i,3} = t_i \oplus (a_i \otimes \alpha_3),$$

and sends each $q_{i,\forall j \neq i}$ to the corresponding Player j .

2. Now each Player i has three elements $q_{1,i}, q_{2,i}, q_{3,i}$, and reconstructs z_i as

$$z_i = (q_{1,i} \otimes \lambda_1) \oplus (q_{2,i} \otimes \lambda_2) \oplus (q_{3,i} \otimes \lambda_3).$$

Indeed, z_1, z_2, z_3 provide a correct shared representation of z considering $(a_1 \otimes \lambda_1) \oplus (a_2 \otimes \lambda_2) \oplus (a_3 \otimes \lambda_3)$ as the secret coefficient.

Square of a shared secret, i.e., $z = x^2$, cannot be computed in a straightforward way in contrast to what is stated in [21]. If each Player i squares its share x_i as

$$\text{Player 1 : } \quad z_1 = x_1^2 \quad = \quad x^2 \oplus (a^2 \otimes \alpha_1^2)$$

$$\text{Player 2 : } \quad z_2 = x_2^2 \quad = \quad x^2 \oplus (a^2 \otimes \alpha_2^2)$$

$$\text{Player 3 : } \quad z_3 = x_3^2 \quad = \quad x^2 \oplus (a^2 \otimes \alpha_3^2),$$

z_1, z_2, z_3 do not provide a correct shared representation of z unless – as also stated in [8] – the public points $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ as well as $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ are squared. If the result of squaring z_1, z_2, z_3 need to contribute in later computations where other secrets shared by original public points $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ are involved, z_1, z_2, z_3

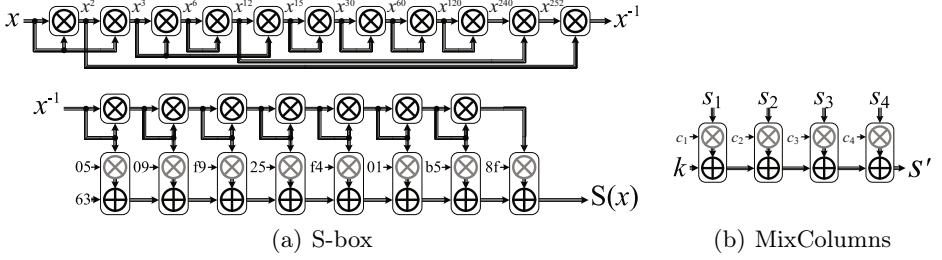


Fig. 1. Block diagram of sequential operations necessary for an AES S-box and a fourth of MixColumns

must be remarked to provide a correct shared representation of z using the original public points. To do so a *FreshMasks* scheme is proposed in [8]. Moreover, in [23], the extended version of the original scheme, a specific condition is defined for the public points to simplify the square operation. In the simplest settings $\alpha_1 = 1$ and the other public points are selected w.r.t. satisfying the conditions: $(\alpha_2)^2 = \alpha_3$, $(\alpha_3)^2 = \alpha_2$. Therefore, after each Player squared its share, two Players must exchange their secrets that is called *reordering* in [23].

However, we consider the realization of squaring by giving the above mentioned shared multiplication algorithm the same shared secrets, i.e., $z = x \otimes x$. This, in fact, makes a correct representation of z using the desired unchanged public points and no reordering is required. Indeed, following the conditions for the public points given in [23] leads to less computation overhead and higher performance compared to our considered solution. But since our target is a hardware platform, their solution increases the area requirement while in our case the same multiplication module can be reused for squaring.

In order to compute the inversion part of the AES S-box one can use the scheme presented in [22] as

$$x^{-1} = x^{254} = \left((x^2 \otimes x)^4 \otimes (x^2 \otimes x) \right)^{16} \otimes (x^2 \otimes x)^4 \otimes x^2.$$

Since this scheme contains only a couple of square and multiply operations, using only the aforementioned shared multiplication algorithm the inversion part can be realized under our defined sharing settings. In contrast to what is stated in both [21] and [8], the remaining part, i.e., the affine transformation, cannot be performed in a straightforward way. That is because – as also addressed in [2] – the linear part of the affine transformation of the AES is a linear function over $\text{GF}(2)$, not over $\text{GF}(2^8)$. The solution for this problem, as also stated in [23], is to represent the affine transformation over $\text{GF}(2^8)$ and using the Rijndael irreducible polynomial. This actually has been presented before in [15] and [7] as

$$\text{Affine}(x) = 63 \oplus (05 \otimes x) \oplus (09 \otimes x^2) \oplus (f9 \otimes x^4) \oplus (25 \otimes x^8) \oplus (f4 \otimes x^{16}) \oplus (01 \otimes x^{32}) \oplus (b5 \otimes x^{64}) \oplus (8f \otimes x^{128}) \quad .$$

Therefore, by the diagram given in Fig. 1(a) we define the sequence of operations of a complete S-box computation considering the secret sharing restated above. Note that the modules denoted by black \otimes indicate the shared multiplication, and those by gray \otimes the multiplication with a constant.

3 Our Design

In order to implement the aforementioned scheme one needs to follow the requirements addressed in [21]. The goal of the scheme is to separate the side-channel leakage of the computations done by each Player in order to prevent any univariate leakage. As stated in [21] there are two possible ways to separate the leakage. Either the circuit of each Player is realized by dedicated hardware, e.g., one FPGA per Player, which does not seem to be practical, or the operations of each Player are separated in time. We follow the second option and have tried to mount the whole of the scheme in one FPGA – with the goal of a global minimum area-overhead – by the design shown in Fig. 2.

By means of a dedicated and carefully designed control unit we made sure that the Players sequentially get active. In other words, no computation or activity is done by the other Players when one Player is active. The design of the shared multiplication module is slightly different to the other modules. In contrast to the others, where the computation on each share by the corresponding Player is independent of that of the other shares, the Players in the shared multiplication module need to communicate with each other. Therefore, we had to divide the computations of each share in this module into two parts by inserting a register between the two steps as explained in Section 2.1 (see registers marked by $q_{i,j}$ in Fig. 2).

Another important issue regarding our design is the way that the multiplexers are controlled. Since the shared multiplication module needs to get different inputs in order to realize a multiplication or a square, there should be a multiplexer to switch between different inputs. That is because – considering Fig. 1(a) – the shared multiplication module performs always squaring except in steps 2, 5, 10, and 11. Control signals which select the appropriate multiplexer input must be *hazardless*². Otherwise, as an example, glitches on select signals of Player 1 while Player 2 is active will lead to concurrent side-channel leakage of two shares. Therefore, as a solution we provided some registers to control which input to be given to the target module.

For simplicity, we first explain how the shared multiplication module works:

- In the first clock cycle by activating enable signal em_1 the first share of both appropriate inputs are saved into their corresponding registers, get selected by select signal $selm_1$, and therefore are multiplied. At the same time the remasking process using a new random a_1 and public points $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ is performed. Note that the result of these computations are not saved in this clock cycle.

² In the areas of digital logic a *dynamic hazard* means undesirable transient changes in the output as a result of a single input change.

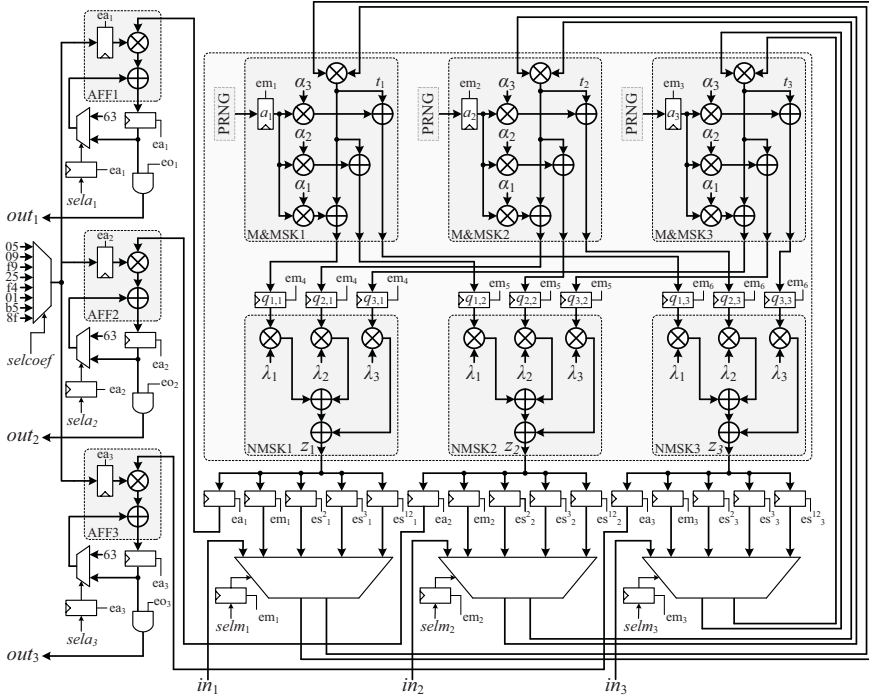


Fig. 2. Our design of the shared multiplication and addition to realize the AES S-box

- The same procedure as in the first clock cycles is done on the second and the third shares one after each other in the second and the third clock cycles by activating enable signals em_2 and em_3 respectively.
- The results of the remasking for Player 1 (indeed provided by all 3 Players) which are available at the input of registers $q_{1,1}, q_{2,1}, q_{3,1}$ are stored at the fourth clock cycle by enabling signal em_4 . Therefore, the second step of the module gets active and performs the unmasking using $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ to provide the first share of the multiplication output. Note that again the result is not saved in this clock cycle.
- In the next two clock cycles (fifth and sixth) the same operation as the previous clock cycle is performed for Player 2 and Player 3 consecutively by enable signals em_5 and em_6 .

Note that to save $x^2, x^3,$ and x^{12} (see Fig. 1(a)) in the appropriate step, one of the signals $es_{i \in \{1,2,3\}}^2, es_i^3,$ and es_i^{12} gets enabled at the same time with the corresponding em_i signal. In fact, we need six clock cycles to completely perform a shared multiplication or a square. It means that since we use only one shared multiplication module in our design, in $6 \times 11 = 66$ clock cycles the inverse of the given shared input is computed.

Afterwards, in order to realize the affine transformation the multiplication-addition module (modules AFF1, AFF2, and AFF3 in Fig. 2) must also

contribute into the computations. The Players in this module do not need to establish any communication and their computation is restricted to their own shares. Therefore, by appropriately selecting $sel_{a_{i \in \{1,2,3\}}}$ and enabling the ea_i signal the multiplication with constant and the shared addition both can be done in one clock cycle per share, i.e., three clock cycles in sum. Note that the same techniques as before to make hazardless control signals are used in the design of the multiplication-addition module. Also, the sequence of operations is similar to what is expressed for the first three clock cycles of the shared multiplication module. According to Fig. 1(a), during the affine transformation a multiplication-addition operation must be performed prior to each and after the last square. Therefore, after $3 \times 8 + 6 \times 7 = 66$ clock cycles the operations of an affine transformation is completed resulting in 132 clock cycles in sum to compute an S-box shared output.

One optimization option is to perform the multiplication-addition and the first three clock cycles of the squaring at the same time to save 24 clock cycles per S-box computation. According to the definition and the requirements of the scheme, it should not provide any security loss. However, since our main goal is to practically examine the side-channel leakage of this scheme, we ignored this optimization to be able to separately localize the side-channel leakage of each operation.

Though an optimized scenario to perform MixColumns is proposed in [21], by adding more multiplexer (and select register) to the multiplication-addition module our presented design can also realize MixColumns and AddRoundKey. This can be done according to the diagram given by Fig. 1(b) and selecting the appropriate coefficients c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 corresponding to the rows of the matrix representation of MixColumns. After finishing all SubBytes transformations of one encryption round, i.e., $132 \times 16 = 2112$ clock cycles, every output byte of the MixColumns transformation in addition to the corresponding AddRoundKey can be computed in $3 \times 4 = 12$ clock cycles. That is, $12 \times 16 = 192$ clock cycles for whole of the MixColumns and AddRoundKey transformations. In sum, ignoring the required time for initial masking of the input and the key and for (pre)computing the round keys a whole encryption process takes $2112 \times 10 + 192 \times 9 + 3 \times 16 = 22\,896$ clock cycles.³

We should stress that – except the mentioned one – no time-optimization option exists for our single-S-box design since no more than one share is allowed to be processed at the same time. It is possible to reach a higher throughput by making multiple, e.g., 16, instances of our design inside the target FPGA and process all SubBytes and later all MixColumns in parallel. This, in fact, leads to a very high area-overhead (addressed by Table 1) that even cannot fit into the slices available in our target FPGA which is of the medium-size modern series. We should emphasize that the $\text{GF}(2^8)$ multiplier we employed here is a highly optimized and pure combinational circuit, and the design is made for any arbitrary public values $\alpha_{i \in \{1,2,3\}}$ and λ_i .

³ In the last round MixColumns is ignored and each separate AddRoundKey on one shared state value takes 3 clock cycles.

Table 1. Area and Time overhead of our design based on XC5VLX50 Virtex-5 FPGA (excluding state register, KeySchedule, PRNGs, initial masking, and final unmasking)

Design	FF		LUT		Slice		SB	MC+ARK	Encryption
	#	%	#	%	#	%	CLK	CLK	CLK
1 SB MC	315	1%	1387	5%	859	12%	2112	192	22 896
16 SB MC	4275	15%	21 328	74%	no fit		132	12	1431

4 Practical Evaluations

We used a SASEBO-GII [1] board as the evaluation platform. In order to realize the scheme we implemented our design on the Virtex-5 (XC5VLX50) FPGA embedded on the target board, and measured power consumption traces using a LeCroy HRO66Zi 600MHz digital oscilloscope at the sampling rate of 1GS/s. A 1Ω resistor in the VDD path and restricting the bandwidth of the oscilloscope to 20MHz helped to obtain clear and low-noise measurements. Unless otherwise stated, our target designs run by a stable 3MHz oscillator during the measurements. We refer to this setting as *standard setup*. In Section 5 we give detailed information about our different measurement setups.

We made an exemplary design which performs only the initial AddRoundKey and SubBytes transformations on two given input bytes subsequently. We omitted the rest of the circuit in this design to focus only on the side-channel leakage caused during the S-box computation. The design gets two plaintext bytes $p^{(1)}$ and $p^{(2)}$, and makes three shares of each by means of the public points $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ and two separate random bytes. Two secret key bytes $k^{(1)}$ and $k^{(2)}$, which are fix inside the design, are similarly shared using two other separate random bytes. After XORing the corresponding shares of the plaintext and key bytes (AddRoundKey transformation) as $pk_i^{(j)} = p_i^{(j)} \oplus k_i^{(j)}$, $j \in \{1, 2\}$, $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, the first three shares $pk_1^{(1)}, pk_2^{(1)}, pk_3^{(1)}$ are given to the S-box module. After 132 clock cycles – when the S-box shared output is ready – the second three shares $pk_1^{(2)}, pk_2^{(2)}, pk_3^{(2)}$ are provided as input of the same module. Finishing the second S-box computation, by means of $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ the results are unmasked for result validation.

We provided a clear trigger signal for the oscilloscope which indicates the start of the first and the end of the second S-box computation, thereby perfectly aligning the measured power traces. We also restricted the measurements to cover only the two S-box computations. In order to have the side-channel leakage of a similar but non-resistant design as a reference, we made another variant of our design. It is made by removing the intermediate $q_{i,j}$ registers of the shared multiplication module (see Fig. 2) and modifying the control unit; therefore, all three Players are active and perform the computation at the same time. Comparing the side-channel leakage of this variant to that of our original design can show the effectiveness of separating the computation of the Players.

In the experiments shown below we selected the public points as $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) = (02, 03, 04)$ and accordingly $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3) = (02, d2, d1)$. We also kept the two

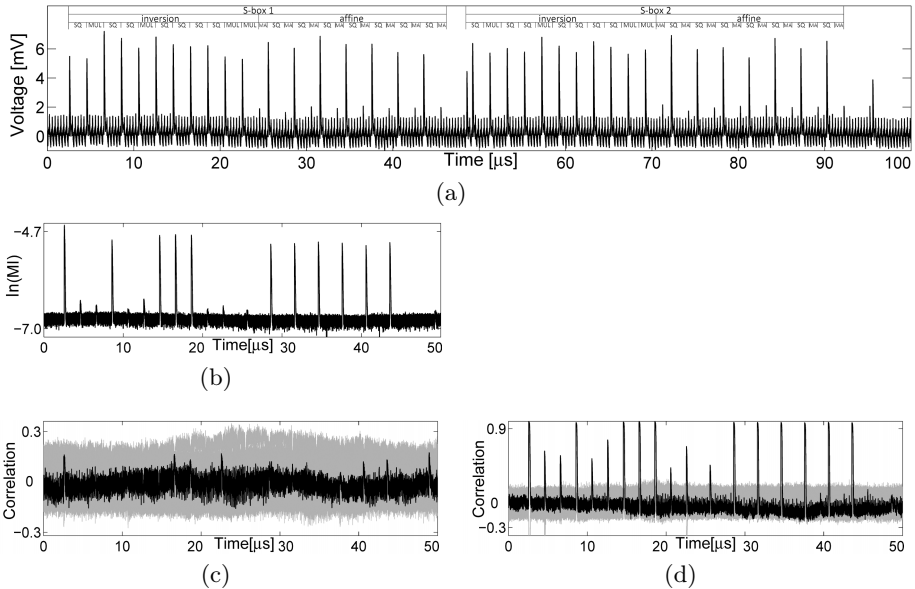


Fig. 3. Variant design, 3MHz, standard setup: (a) a sample power trace, (b) mutual information, (c) first-order, and (d) second-order univariate attack result using 1 000 000 traces

secret key bytes fix, and randomly selected the two input plaintext bytes. We start our evaluation by examining the variant design. Note that we modified the control unit in this version while still keeping it synchronized with the one of the original design. In other words, each shared multiplication is done in a single clock cycle and afterwards the circuit is idle for the next five clock cycles. The same holds for the multiplication-addition operation, i.e., all Players are active in one clock cycle and all off in the next two. In sum, it finishes one S-box computation in still 132 clock cycles. This is the reason for having low power consumption in a couple of adjacent clock cycles in an exemplary power trace of this variant shown by Fig. 3(a) where the sequence of operations are marked.

We used the *Information Theoretic Metric* of [25] to examine and compare the side-channel leakage of our designs. This part of our evaluations considers only the leakage caused by the first S-box computation, and considers the S-box input as the base to which the dependency of the leakages are examined. This evaluation helps comparing the leakage of the variant design with that of the original one allowing us to investigate the efficiency of the scheme to prevent any univariate leakage, i.e., the goal of the scheme with minimum settings.

Moreover, we applied a *correlation-collision attack* [14] to check the possibility of running an attack successfully. Since it examines the leakage of one circuit instance that is used in different time instances, it perfectly fits to our targeted designs where a single module is shared for both two S-box computations. This attack originally examines only the first-order leakage, but according to [12] it

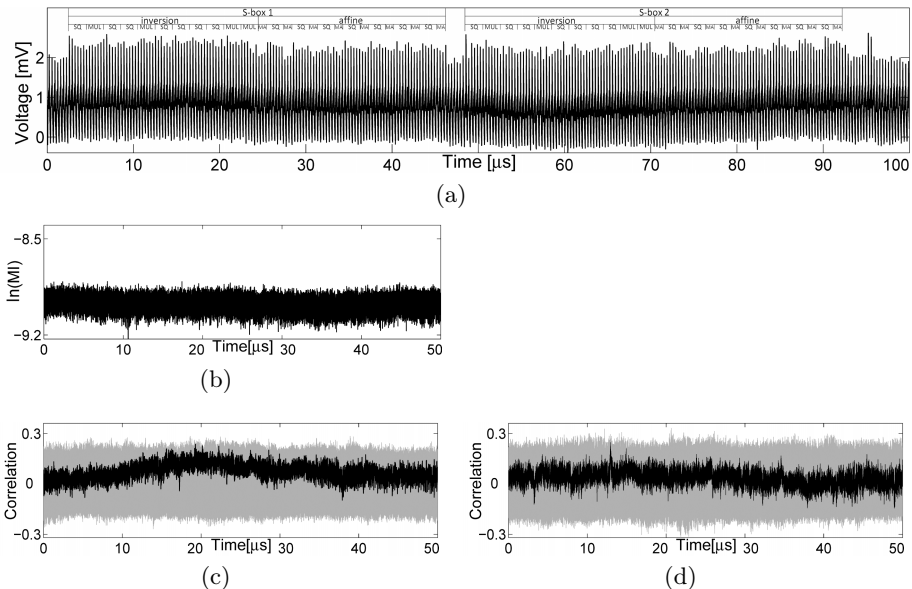


Fig. 4. Original design, 3MHz, standard setup: (a) a sample power trace, (b) mutual information, (c) first-order, and (d) second-order univariate attack result using 10 000 000 traces

can be adopted to use higher-order moments and examine higher-order leakage. Unless otherwise stated, we concentrate on first- and second-order univariate leakages of our targets.

We collected 1 000 000 traces of the variant design and according to [25] computed the *Mutual Information* based on the first S-box input. The result which is shown in Fig. 3(b) clearly indicates existence of a univariate leakage as expected. Performing the aforementioned attack using the first- and second-order moments (averages and variances) targeting the linear difference between two used key bytes, i.e., $k^{(1)} \oplus k^{(2)}$, confirms the information theoretic evaluation. The results shown in Fig. 3(c) and Fig. 3(d) denote no first-order but obvious second-order univariate leakage. Also, Figure 9(j) (in Appendix) shows the simplicity of recovering the second-order leakage requiring approximately 10 000 traces.

Coming back to our original design, it has lower power consumption compared to the variant design since the activity of each Player is restricted to one clock cycle and the glitches are controlled between the two steps of the shared multiplication module. A sample power trace of this variant is shown in Fig. 4(a). Having 10 000 000 measurements of the design we performed the same evaluations as before whose results are shown in Fig. 4. The mutual information significantly decreased compared to that of the variant design, and the attacks (using the first- and second-order moments) led to unsuccessful results. Indeed we practically confirm the efficiency of the scheme to counteract univariate attacks using a standard measurement setup.

5 Discussions

We should stress that hardware platforms are mainly used because of performance reasons. In other words, high throughput of hardware architectures is amongst the motivations to make use of such platforms in high-performance applications. This high throughput is obtained by low latency of the design which allows high clock frequencies. However, as mentioned before, we run our designs with a very low frequency of 3MHz in order to clearly separate the power consumption peak of different clock cycles. Reducing the clock frequency of the device under attack is one of those techniques suggested (see [10], chapter 3.5.1, page 58) to reduce the switching noise especially for evaluation purposes. Of course, this is only possible if the device allows such a low clock frequency.

If the device under attack runs with a higher frequency, it can happen that the power consumption peaks of consecutive clock cycles interfere with each other. If so, in the case of our design the power consumption peaks corresponding to different shares of e.g., a shared multiplication overlap. It means that during short time periods between two adjacent clock cycles the power consumption of two shares are inherently summed up (probably by different weights). This, in fact, is comparable to when one attempts to mount a bivariate attack and combine the leakage of two shares by e.g., summation [12, 26].

We repeated our experiments when the design runs with a frequency of 24MHz. That is the nominal frequency of our evaluation platform SASEBO-GII and is still much lower than the frequency with which the design in a real-world scenario, e.g., a crypto co-processor, may operate. A sample power trace of such situation is shown by Fig. 5(a). Collecting the same number of traces as the variant design, i.e., 1 000 000, and performing the same evaluations led to the results presented in Fig. 5. Mutual information result points out the existence of a univariate leakage, which is confirmed by the result of the attack using the second-order moments (see Fig. 5(d)).

Our practical experiments indeed verify the statement that by using a slightly higher clock frequency the leakage of different shares processed in adjacent clock cycles interfere with each other enabling a successful univariate attack. Please note that the method we considered in our evaluations is not the sole successful attack; a univariate MIA [3] with a suitable model can also be successful. It is worth to mention that we examined the design and observed the same recoverable univariate leakage for higher clock frequencies (up to 96MHz).

In order to overcome this issue and prevent such destructive overlaps the designer needs to restrict the clock source to low frequencies. However, its performance (throughput) is bounded which contradicts with the main purpose of hardware designs. Even if we suppose that the design does not operate with high clock frequencies, e.g., higher than 3MHz, we have still another option to sum the multivariate leakages and make a univariate attack possible. This option is enabled by the measurement setup. In addition to the standard setup, explained in Section 4, we used an amplifier and a DC blocker to diminish the electrical noise as well as the quantization noise due to the very small peak-to-peak power

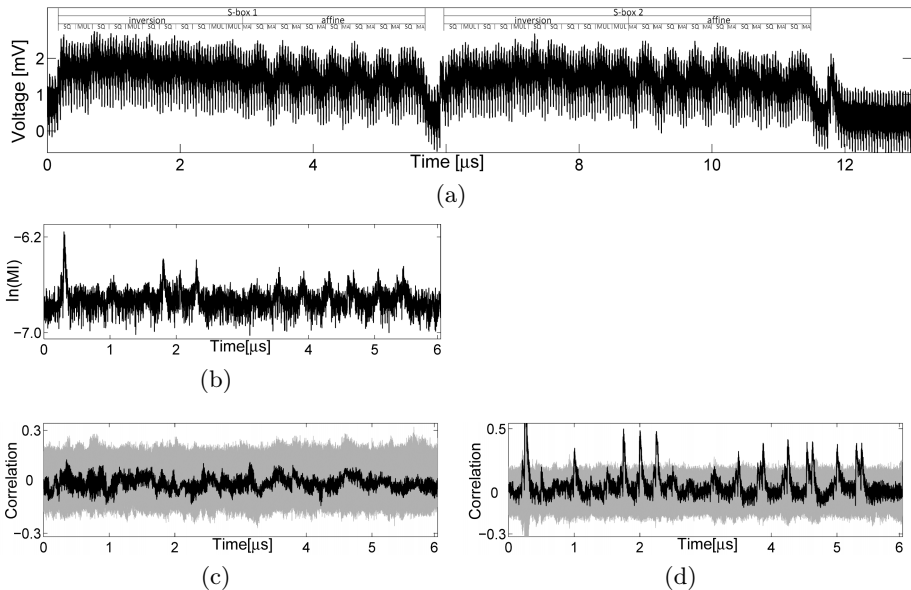


Fig. 5. Original design, 24MHz, standard setup: (a) a sample power trace, (b) mutual information, (c) first-order, and (d) second-order univariate attack result using 1 000 000 traces

consumption of 2mV (see Fig. 4(a)). Figure 7 (in Appendix) shows details of the standard setup as well as the enhanced one which we call *amplified setup*.

By our amplified setup we observed an interesting influence which is called *memory effect*. It means that the power consumption peak (leakage) due to an operation at a specific clock cycle is still observable at the next few clock cycles. The duration of the memory effect is not depending on the used operation frequency but mostly influenced by the measurement setup and the amplitude of the leakage. In our case the effect vanishes after around $4\mu\text{s}$. That is even if the crypto device operates at a low clock frequency, e.g., 3MHz, the leakage observed at a power consumption peak is a sum of leakages (each lowered) of a couple of previous clock cycles. In order to clearly show this effect we made an exemplary design and provided the results in the Appendix. It should be noted that the amplified setup is a usual and common configuration with which the DPA workstations are equipped. Initially we have not used it in our setup to gain the memory effect, and later realized its side effect which was unknown to the community.

Therefore, similar to the case where the target device operates at a high frequency, the leakage of adjacent clock cycles interfere with each other. This means that in our target design, where the shares are processed consecutively, the leakage appearing at a power consumption peak depends on a few shares. This issue also causes a univariate attack, which considers the leakages at only one time instance, to be successful. In order to verify our claim we measured the power consumption

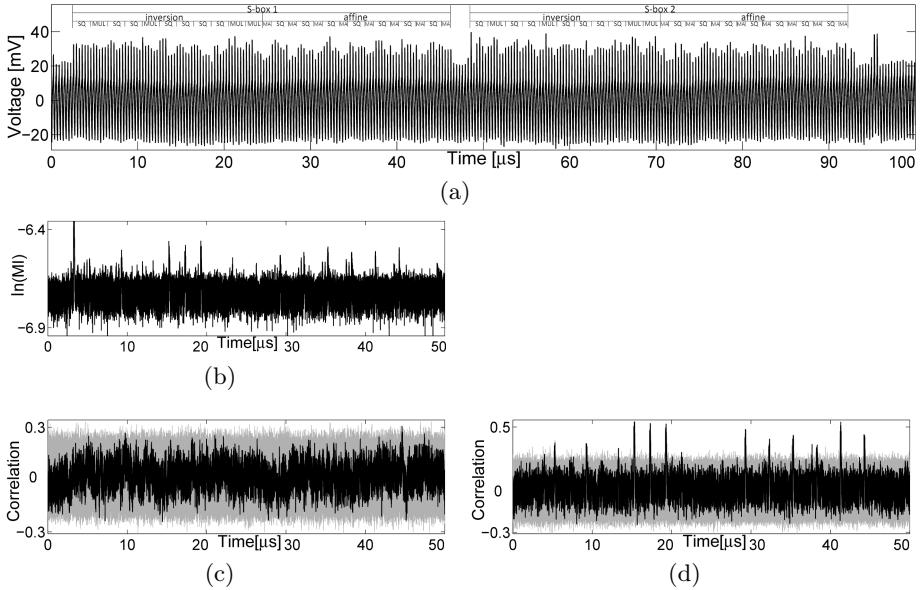


Fig. 6. Original design, 3MHz, amplified setup: (a) a sample power trace, (b) mutual information, (c) first-order, and (d) second-order univariate attack result using 1 000 000 traces

of our design using the amplified setup when it operates at the frequency of 3MHz. The evaluation results showing its vulnerability through second-order moments is presented by Fig. 6. Moreover, Fig. 9 (in Appendix) shows that in both scenarios around 400 000 traces are required to reveal the secret.

In fact, we show that by simply adding a DC blocker and/or an amplifier to the measurement setup one can overcome the provided protection by making use of univariate leakages which are indeed a mixture of multivariate leakages combined by the measurement setup. Of course, the adversary has an option to combine the multivariate leakages (when measured using the standard setup) and perform a multivariate attack. Here there is an interesting question: which of these methods, i.e., combining the leakages of different points, the amplified setup, or a high clock frequency, is more efficient? We deal with this issue in Appendix. In short, our experimental results show that the use of amplified setup significantly improves the attack efficiency. It can halve the number of required traces compared to the best combining method we could apply.

We showed that temporal separation of computations of e.g., a shared multiplication is not a suitable decision to counteract univariate attacks. A solution which we suggest is to make sure that there is a considerable timing gap between the processes of different shares of a secret. In order to realize such a scenario one needs to use more instances of e.g., the S-box module and interleave their process in time domain. This indeed does not increase the throughput while using more area, but it can provide more robustness against our considered attacks and scenarios.

6 Conclusions

In this work we have demonstrated how to correctly implement a provably-secure glitch-resistant masking scheme of [21]. By making certain that in each point in time only operations on a single share are performed, there should in theory exist no exploitable univariate leakage. It is also confirmed by our practical evaluations when using a low operation frequency and a basic measurement setup.

However, we provided practical evidences that a simple separation of the operations in the time domain in itself is not sufficient if different shares of a sensitive value are processed in consecutive clock cycles. Because of the high frequencies usually used in hardware designs, the dynamic power consumption of different clock cycles overlap and are inherently summed up by the device itself. Even if a low clock frequency is forced by the design, we demonstrated how a measurement setup configuration, which is common for low-power platforms like SASEBO-GII, enables successful exploitation of multivariate leakages using a simple univariate attack flow. This is especially bothersome since commercially available DPA-workstations are also equipped with the discussed enhanced measurement setup. Its memory effect can cause a univariate-resistant design to fail the evaluation procedure. On the other hand, the enhanced measurement setup may have adverse effects when evaluating a univariate-vulnerable target. Because of the overlap of adjacent power peaks, in this case it mainly increases the noise and thereby lowers the detection probability of the leakages.

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Appendix A – Measurement Setups

The details of our two different measurement setups are depicted by Fig. 7. We should emphasize that one can use a differential probe to measure the voltage drop of the 1Ω resistor. However, it usually leads to higher electrical noise because the probe contains several active components that can add noise to power traces. We have indeed examined such a setup using a LeCroy AP 033 differential probe in our platform, and it led to much higher noise compared to the standard setup. The DC blocker we used is a BLK-89-S+ from Mini-Circuits and indeed is a high-pass filter which stops frequencies below 100kHz. We also used two different amplifiers, ZFL-1000LN+ from Mini-Circuits and PA303 from Langer EMV-Technik.

We made an exemplary design containing only an 8-bit key XOR followed by an unprotected AES S-box. Sequentially we gave two plaintext bytes to this module while after the computation of the XOR and the S-box (in one clock cycle) the circuit is kept idle for 16 clock cycles. This scenario can be clearly seen in the sample power trace shown by Fig. 8(a). While giving random plaintext bytes to the design running at 3MHz we collected 100 000 traces in both settings, i.e., standard and amplified setups. Performing the same attack as before, i.e., correlation collision attack using the first-order moments, led to the results shown by Fig. 8(b) and Fig. 8(c). The memory effect as discussed in Section 5 is clearly visible when the amplified setup is used. The leakage due to the S-box computation is visible during the next 10 clock cycles.

We should stress that this effect is visible when each of the aforementioned amplifiers is used. Existence of each of the DC blocker and the amplifier in the measurement setup leads to the same effect. However, having only the DC blocker without the amplifier the effect is less visible and requires slightly more traces. In fact, it is related to the high-pass filter available at the input of the DC blocker and the amplifier. The successful attack on our original target design (shown in Fig. 6) can be repeated using either the DC blocker or solely the amplifier.

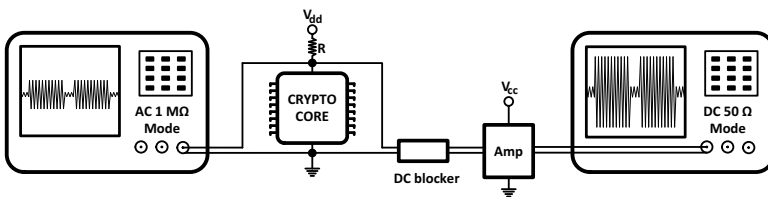


Fig. 7. Measurement setups: (left) standard and (right) amplified

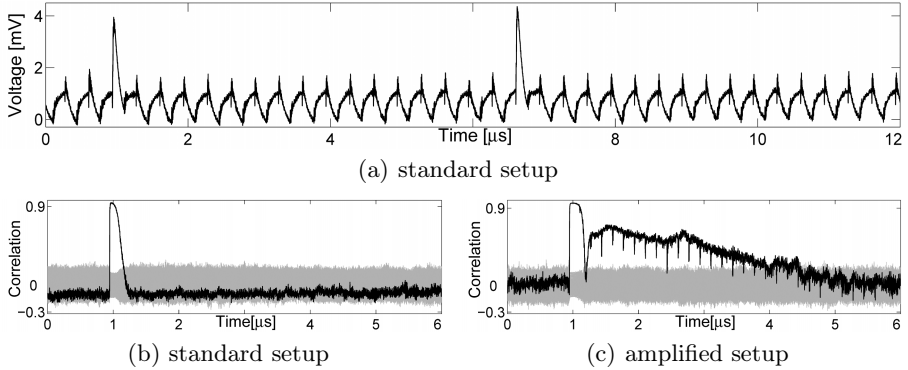


Fig. 8. Exemplary design, 3MHz: (a) a sample power trace, (b) and (c) first-order univariate attack result using 100 000 traces

Appendix B – Comparison with Leakage Combining

In order to answer whether our solutions to convert multivariate leakages to univariate are more efficient than combining the leakage points of traces manually, i.e., a classical scenario, we considered the following cases:

- [SUM2] combining two power consumption points of each trace with a distance of one clock cycle by means of addition.
- [MUL2] combining two power consumption points of each trace with a distance of one clock cycle by means of multiplication.
- [SUM3] combining three power consumption points of each trace with a distance of one clock cycle per each two consecutive ones by means of addition.

The mutual information curves as well as the attack results when each of these preprocessing scenarios is taken are shown in Fig. 9. We have used those 10 000 000 traces measured using the standard setup from the original design when it operated at the frequency of 3MHz. Note that we omitted to show the unsuccessful attack results, e.g., those which are based on the first-order moments in the case of SUM2 and SUM3. The results shown in Fig. 9 indicate that all these three combining scenarios – as expected – are effective, and one can perform a successful attack. The results also show that with none of these preprocessing methods one can run a successful attack using less than 1 000 000 traces. However, both an amplified setup or a higher frequency can cause this number to decrease to less than 400 000. We have also compared all the combining methods as well as the measurement setups by means of their corresponding mutual information in presence of virtually added Gaussian noise. The result is shown by Fig. 10.

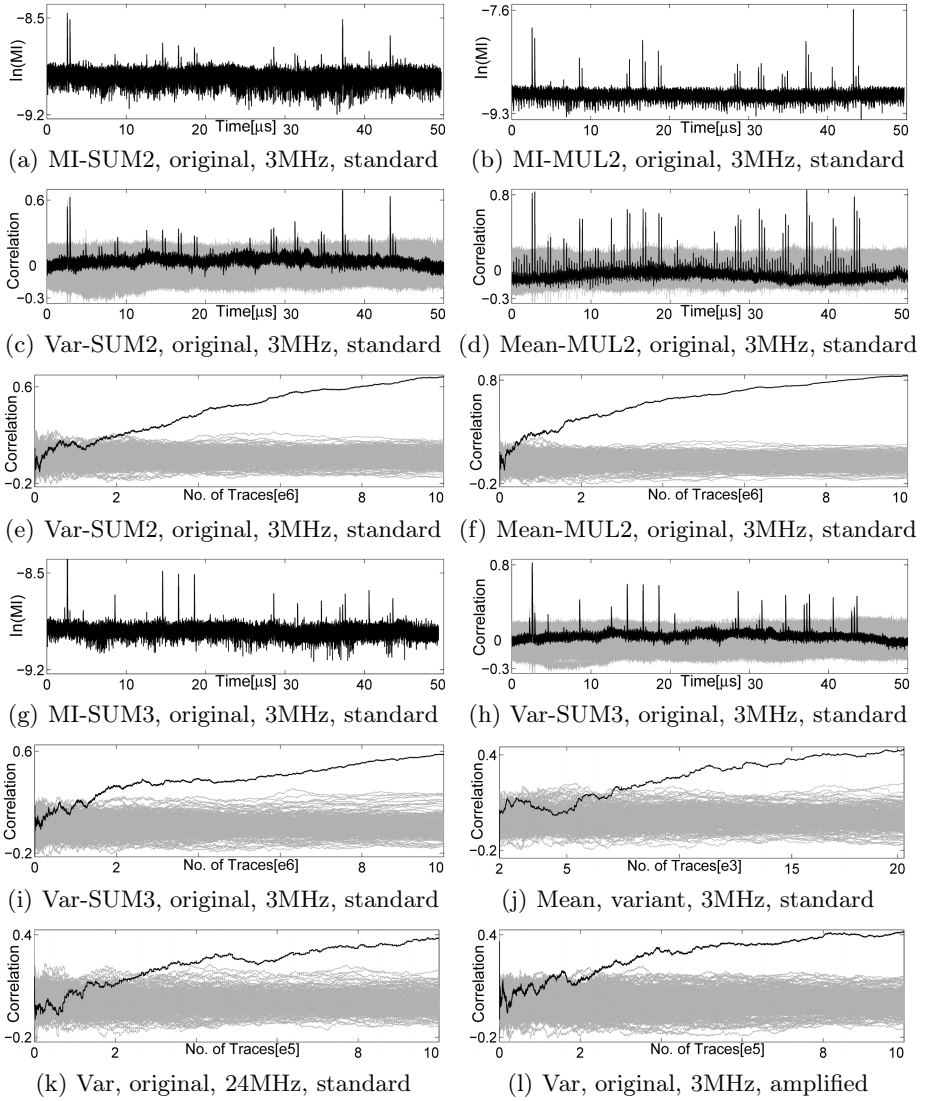


Fig. 9. Evaluation results, combining methods vs. measurement setups

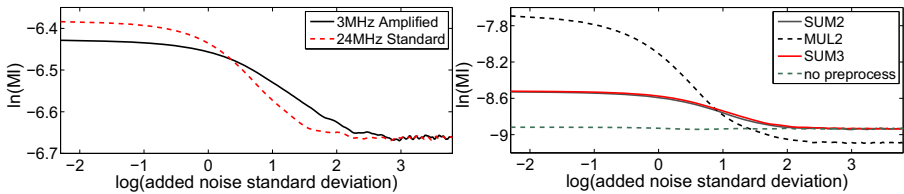


Fig. 10. Mutual information over noise standard deviation