

# Improved Key Recovery Attacks on Reduced-Round AES in the Single-Key Setting

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**Abstract.** In this paper, we revisit meet-in-the-middle attacks on AES in the single-key model and improve on Dunkelman, Keller and Shamir attacks at ASIACRYPT 2010. We present the best attack on 7 rounds of AES-128 where data/time/memory complexities are below  $2^{100}$ . Moreover, we are able to extend the number of rounds to reach attacks on 8 rounds for both AES-192 and AES-256. This gives the best attacks on those two versions with a data complexity of  $2^{107}$  chosen-plaintexts, a memory complexity of  $2^{96}$  and a time complexity of  $2^{172}$  for AES-192 and  $2^{196}$  for AES-256. Finally, we also describe the best attack on 9 rounds of AES-256 with  $2^{120}$  chosen plaintexts and time and memory complexities of  $2^{203}$ . All these attacks have been found by carefully studying the number of reachable multisets in Dunkelman et al. attacks.

## 1 Introduction

The Rijndael block cipher has been designed by Daemen and Rijmen in 1997 and accepted as the AES (Advanced Encryption Standard) standard since October 2000 by the NIST. Nowadays, it is probably the most used block cipher. It has very good performances in both software and hardware on various platforms and it is provably resistant against differential and linear attacks.

However, new attacks have been recently developed using many ideas from the cryptanalysis of hash functions. The first analysis studies AES in the strong adversarial model where the adversary can ask the encryption of a message under a related-key by specifying the relation. Biryukov, Khovratovich and Nikolic show some drawbacks of the key-schedule algorithms and how to exploit it to mount an attack on the full versions of AES-192 and AES-256 in [4, 5, 6]. In a second analysis, Dunkelman, Keller and Shamir show in [15] more efficient meet-in-the-middle attacks using ideas from rebound attacks on hash functions [22]. Finally, the biclique attack [8] also uses meet-in-the-middle ideas for preimage attacks on hash functions by Sasaki et al. [1]. It has been developed by Bogdanov, Khovratovich and Rechberger in [8] and allows to mount an attack on the full AES for all versions with a marginal time complexity over exhaustive search.

**Overview of the attacks on AES.** The first attack on AES is the SQUARE attack, proposed by Daemen, Knudsen and Rijmen on the SQUARE block cipher [10]. In [11], Daemen and Rijmen remark that if we encrypt a  $\delta$ -set, i.e. a

set of 256 plaintexts where a byte (called *active* byte) can take all values and the 15 other bytes are constant, after 3 rounds of `Rijndael`, the sum of each byte of the 256 ciphertexts equals zero. This distinguishing property can be used to mount efficient attacks up to 6 rounds. The first attack has a time complexity of  $2^{72}$  encryptions and requires  $2^{32}$  messages, and it has been improved by Ferguson et al. to  $2^{46}$  operations in [16].

Then, Gilbert and Minier show in [18] that this property can be made more precise using functions of the active byte, which allows to build a distinguisher on 3 rounds. The main idea is to consider the set of functions mapping one active byte to one byte after 3 rounds. This set depends on 9 one-byte parameters so that the whole set can be described using a table of  $2^{72}$  entries of a 256-byte sequence  $(f(0), \dots, f(255))$ . Their attack allows to break 7 rounds of AES with a marginal time complexity over exhaustive search. This idea has been generalized at FSE 2008 by Demirci and Selçuk in [12] using meet-in-the-middle techniques, whereas Gilbert and Minier used collision between the functions. More specifically, they show that on 4 rounds, the value of each byte of the ciphertext can be described by a function of the active byte parameterized by 25 in [12] and 24 8-bit parameters in [13]. The last improvement is due to the observation that the 25th parameter is a key byte which is constant for all functions. Consequently, by considering  $(f(0) - f(0), f(1) - f(0), \dots, f(255) - f(0))$  we can use only 24 parameters. The main drawback of the meet-in-the-middle attack is the memory requirement. Indeed, the basic attack only works for the 256-bit version and then Demirci and Selçuk have to use a time/memory tradeoff to extend the attack for the 192-bit AES version.

Another idea has been developed by Biham and Keller [3] and is based on a 4-round impossible differential, as well as the work of Bahrak and Aref in [2]. Later, this idea has been refined by Lu, Dunkelman, Keller and Kim in [20]. At the present time, it is the most efficient attack on 7-round AES-128.

At ASIACRYPT 2010, Dunkelman, Keller and Shamir develop many new ideas to solve the memory problems of the Demirci and Selçuk attacks. First of all, they show that instead of storing the whole sequence, we can only store the associated multiset, i.e. the unordered sequence with multiplicity rather than the ordered sequence. This reduces the table by a factor 4 and avoids the need to guess one key byte during the attack. The second and main idea is the differential enumeration which allows to reduce the number of parameters that describes the set of functions from 24 to 16. However, to reduce this number, they rely on a special property on a truncated differential characteristic. The idea consists in using a differential truncated characteristic whose probability is not too small. The property of this characteristic is that the set of functions from one state to the state after 4 rounds can only take a restricted number of values, which is much smaller than the number of all functions. The direct consequence is an increase of the amount of needed data, but the memory requirement is reduced to  $2^{128}$  and the same analysis also applies to the 128-bit version. However, this attack is not better than the impossible differential attack even though many tradeoffs could be used.

Finally, at CRYPTO 2011, Bouillaguet, Derbez and Fouque describe in [9] new meet-in-the-middle attacks that allow to efficiently break a small number of rounds of AES using a very small amount of data. These attacks have been found automatically. Similar attacks have been developed against other symmetric schemes that reuse AES component such as the Pelican-MAC message authentication code or the LEX stream cipher. However, the complexity of the algorithm that looks for the best attack is exponential in the number of variables and if we try to take into account more rounds or more plaintext/ciphertext pairs, then the program does not find anything of interest. This tool looks promising since improvements on existing attacks usually consider a small number of rounds. For instance, if we want to improve on Dunkelman et al. attacks, we need to study 4 rounds of AES.

**Dunkelman, Keller and Shamir’s Attack.** In [15], a new attack is developed using ideas from differential and meet-in-the-middle attacks. In the first stage, differential attacks find a differential characteristic with high or low probability covering many rounds. Then, in the online stage, the adversary asks for the encryption of many pairs: for each pair, the adversary tries to decrypt by guessing the last subkey and if the differential characteristic is followed, then the adversary increases the counter of the associated subkey. If the probability of the characteristic is high enough, then the counter corresponding to the right secret-key would be among the higher counters. In some case, it is also possible to add some rounds at the beginning by guessing part of the first subkeys.

Here, Dunkelman et al. propose a novel differential attack. Instead of increasing a counter once a pair is found, the adversary uses another test to eliminate the wrong guesses of the first or last subkeys. This test decides with probability one whether the middle rounds are covered with the differential. The idea is that the middle rounds follow a part of the differential and the function  $f$  that associates each byte of the input state to one byte of the output state can be stored efficiently. Demirci and Selçuk propose to store in a table the function with no differential characteristic, which turns out to be much larger than this one. Consequently, in Dunkelman et al.’s attack, the adversary guesses the first and last subkeys and looks for a pair that follows the beginning and last rounds of the differential characteristic. Once such a pair is found, the adversary takes one of the messages that follows the characteristic and constructs a structure to encrypt which is related to a  $\delta$ -set for the intermediate rounds. From the encryption of this set, the adversary can decrypt the last rounds and check whether the encryption of this  $\delta$ -set belongs to the table. If this is the case, then the part of the first and last subkeys are correct and an exhaustive search on the other parts of the key allows to find the whole key.

To construct the table, the idea is similar to the attack. We need to find a pair of messages that satisfies the truncated differential characteristic. Then, we take one message in the pair and we compute the function  $f$ . Dunkelman et al. use a rebound technique to find the pair that follows the characteristic.

**Our Results.** Dunkelman et al. show that by using a particular 4-round differential characteristic with a not too small probability, the active states in the

middle of the characteristic can only take  $2^{64}$  values. In their characteristic, they also need to consider the same 8 key bytes as Demirci and Selçuk. They claim that *"In order to reduce the size of the precomputed table, we would like to choose the  $\delta$ -set such that several of these parameters will equal to predetermined constants. Of course, the key bytes are not known to the adversary and thus cannot be "replaced" by such constants"*. Here, we show that it is possible to enumerate the whole set of solutions more efficiently than by taking all the values for the key bytes such that every value of these bytes are possible. We show that the whole set can take only  $2^{80}$  values with this efficient enumeration technique. Of course, it might be possible to improve this result to  $2^{64}$  but not any further since the key bytes may take all the  $2^{64}$  possible values. Using the same ideas, we show that it is possible to have an efficient enumeration for a 5-round differential characteristic which allows us to mount an attack on 9 rounds for AES-256. The bottleneck of the attack is no longer the memory, but the time and data complexities.

In this paper, we show that the number of parameters describing the functions can be further reduced to 10 and that this attack is now more efficient than the impossible differential attack [20]. We describe the best key-recovery attacks on 7 rounds of all versions of AES with all complexities below  $2^{100}$ , as the related-key attack of Biryukov and Nikolić in [7]. We also show improved key-recovery attacks on 8 rounds of AES-192 and on 8 and 9 rounds of AES-256. Additionally, we show that all our attacks are optimal in the class of attacks from [15] that we revisit. We also show that it allows us to attack one more round on AES-256, and for the AES-192 the attack is comparable even though some improvements can be made. To this end, we use several tradeoffs proposed by Dunkelman et al. and we use a more careful analysis of the enumeration technique.

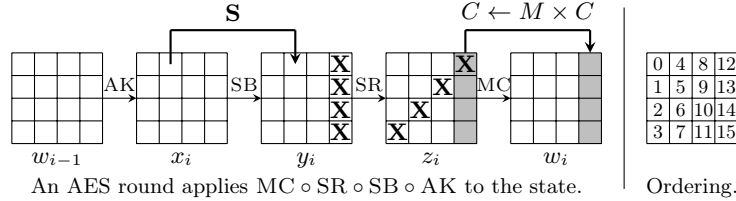
**Organization of the paper.** In [Section 2](#), we describe the AES and some properties used by the previous attacks on this block cipher. In [Section 3](#), we present our basic attack on 7 rounds for all AES versions. Then, in [Section 4](#), we show that we can also attack 8 rounds for AES-192 and AES-256 and 9 rounds for AES-256.

## 2 AES and Previous Work

### 2.1 Description of the AES

The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) [23] is a Substitution-Permutation Network that can be instantiated using three different key bit-lengths: 128, 192, and 256. The 128-bit plaintext initializes the internal state viewed as a  $4 \times 4$  matrix of bytes as values in the finite field  $GF(2^8)$ , which is defined via the irreducible polynomial  $x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$  over  $GF(2)$ . Depending on the version of the AES,  $N_r$  rounds are applied to that state:  $N_r = 10$  for AES-128,  $N_r = 12$  for AES-192 and  $N_r = 14$  for AES-256. Each of the  $N_r$  AES round ([Figure 1](#)) applies four operations to the state matrix (except the last one where we omit the **MixColumns**):

- **AddRoundKey** (AK) adds a 128-bit subkey to the state.
- **SubBytes** (SB) applies the same 8-bit to 8-bit invertible S-Box  $S$  16 times in parallel on each byte of the state,
- **ShiftRows** (SR) shifts the  $i$ -th row left by  $i$  positions,
- **MixColumns** (MC) replaces each of the four column  $C$  of the state by  $M \times C$  where  $M$  is a constant  $4 \times 4$  maximum distance separable matrix over  $GF(2^8)$ ,



**Figure 1:** Description of one AES round and the ordering of bytes in an internal state.

After the  $N_r$ -th round has been applied, a final subkey is added to the internal state to produce the ciphertext. We refer to official specification document [23] for the key expansion algorithms to produce the  $N_r + 1$  subkeys.

**Proposition 1 (Differential Property of  $S$ ).** *Given  $\Delta_i$  and  $\Delta_o$  two non-zero differences in  $\mathbb{F}_{256}$ , the equation  $S(x) + S(x + \Delta_i) = \Delta_o$ , has one solution in average. This property also applies to  $S^{-1}$ .*

**Notations and units.** In this paper, we count the AES rounds from 0 and we refer to a particular byte of an internal state  $x$  by  $x[i]$ , as depicted in Figure 1, or  $x[i, \dots, j]$  for bytes as positions between  $i$  and  $j$ . Moreover, in the  $i$ th round, we denote the internal state after **AddRoundKey** by  $x_i$ , after **SubBytes** by  $y_i$ , after **ShiftRows** by  $z_i$  and after **MixColumns** by  $w_i$ . To refer to the difference in a state  $x$ , we use the notation  $\Delta x$ . The first added subkey is the master key  $k_{-1}$ , and the one added after round  $i$  is denoted by  $k_i$ . In some cases, we are interested in swapping the order of the **MixColumns** and **AddRoundKey** operations. As these operations are linear they can be interchanged, by first XORing the data with an equivalent key and applying the **MixColumns** operation afterwards. We denote the equivalent subkey for this new round-function description by:  $u_i = MC^{-1}(k_i)$ . We measure memory complexities of our attacks in number of 128-bit AES blocks and time complexities in terms of AES encryptions.

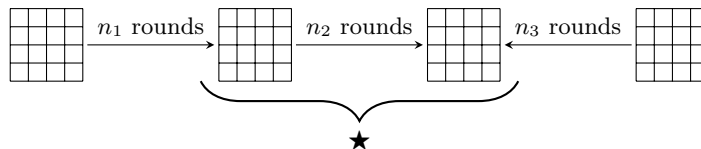
In the following sections, we use particular structures of messages captured by Definition 1 and Definition 2.

**Definition 1 ( $\delta$ -set, [11]).** *Let a  $\delta$ -set be a set of 256 AES-states that are all different in one state bytes (the active byte) and all equal in the other state bytes (the inactive bytes).*

**Definition 2 (Multisets of bytes).** *A multiset generalizes the set concept by allowing elements to appear more than once. Here, a multiset of 256 bytes can take as many as  $\binom{2^8+2^8-1}{2^8} \approx 2^{506.17}$  different values. From the point of view of information theory, we can represent such a multiset on 512 bits.*

## 2.2 Attack Scheme

In this section, we present a unified view of the previously known meet-in-the-middle (MITM) attacks on AES [12, 15, 18], where  $n$  rounds of the block cipher can be split into three consecutive parts of  $n_1$ ,  $n_2$  and  $n_3$  rounds,  $n = n_1 + n_2 + n_3$ , such that a particular set of messages may verify a certain property that we denote  $\star$  in the sequel in the middle  $n_2$  rounds (Figure 2).



**Figure 2:** General scheme of the meet-in-the-middle attack on AES, where some messages in the middle rounds may verify a certain  $\star$  property used to perform the meet-in-the-middle.

The general attack uses three successive steps:

### Precomputation phase

1. In this phase, we build a lookup table  $T$  containing all the possible sequences constructed from a  $\delta$ -set such that one message verifies the  $\star$  property.

### Online phase

2. Then, in the online phase, we need to identify a  $\delta$ -set containing a message  $m$  verifying the desired property.
3. Finally, we partially decrypt the associated  $\delta$ -set through the last  $n_3$  rounds and check whether it belongs to  $T$ .

The two steps of the online phase require to guess some key bytes while the goal of this attack is to filter some of their values. In the best case, only the right ones should pass the test.

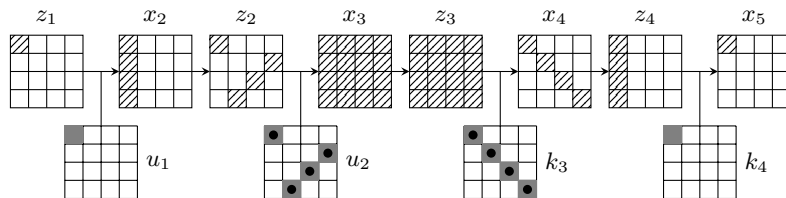
**Demirci and Selçuk Attack.** The starting point is to consider the set of functions  $f : \{0, 1\}^8 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^8$  that maps a byte of a  $\delta$ -set to another byte of the state after four AES rounds. A convenient way is to view  $f$  as an ordered byte sequence  $(f(0), \dots, f(255))$  so that it can be represented by 256 bytes. The crucial observation made by the generalizing Gilbert and Minier attack is that this set is tiny since it can be described using 25 byte-parameters ( $2^{25 \cdot 8} = 2^{200}$ ) compared with the set of all functions of this type which counts as many as  $2^{8 \cdot 2^8} = 2^{2048}$  elements. Considering the differences  $(f(0) - f(0), f(1) - f(0), \dots, f(255) - f(0))$  rather than values, the set of functions can be described by 24 parameters. Dunkelman et al. identify these parameters as: the full state  $x_3$  of message 0, four bytes of state  $x_2$  of message 0, four bytes of subkey  $k_3$ . The four bytes of the state  $x_2$  only depend on the column of  $z_1$  where the active byte of the  $\delta$ -set is located; for instance, if it is column 0, then those bytes are  $x_2[0, 1, 2, 3]$ .

Similarly, the four bytes of  $k_3$  depend on the column of  $x_5$  where the byte we want to determine is located; as an example, if it is column 0, then those bytes are  $k_3[0, 5, 10, 15]$ .

In their attacks [12], Demirci and Selçuk use the  $\star$  property that does not filter any message. Consequently, they do not require to identify a particular message  $m$ . The data complexity of their basic attack is very small and around  $2^{32}$ . However, since there is no particular property, the size of the table  $T$  is very large and the basic attack only works for the AES-256. To mount an attack on the AES-192, they consider some time/memory tradeoff. More precisely, the table  $T$  does not contain all the possible states, but only a fraction  $\alpha$ . Consequently, a specific  $\delta$ -set may not be in the table  $T$ , so that we have to wait for this event and redo the attack  $O(1/\alpha)$  times on average. The attack becomes probabilistic and the memory requirement makes the attack possible for AES-192. The consequence of this advanced version of the attack, which also works for AES-256, is that the amount of data increases a lot. The time and memory requirement of the precomputation phase is due to the construction of table  $T$  that contains messages for the  $n_2 = 4$  middle rounds, which counts as many as  $2^{8 \cdot 24} = 2^{192}$  ordered sequences of 256 bytes.

Finally, it is possible to remove from each function some output values. Since we know that these functions can be described by the key of 24 or 32 bytes, one can reduce  $T$  by a factor 10 or 8 by storing only the first differences. Such an observation has been used by Wei et al. in [24].

**Dunkelman et al. Attack.** In [15], Dunkelman, Keller and Shamir introduced two new improvements to further reduce the memory complexity of [12]. The first one uses multisets, behaving as unordered sequences, and the authors show that there is still enough information so that the attack succeeds. The second improvement uses a particular 4-round differential characteristic (Figure 3) to reduce the size of the precomputed lookup table  $T$ , at the expense of trying more pairs of messages to expect at least one to conform to the truncated characteristic. The main idea of the differential characteristic is to fix the values of as many state-bytes as possible to a constant. Assume now we have a message  $m$  such that we have a pair  $(m, m')$  that satisfies the whole 7-round differential characteristic and our goal is to recover the key. Contrary to classical differential attacks, where the adversary guesses some bytes of the last subkey and eliminates the wrong guess, the smart idea of Dunkelman et al. is to use a table to recover the right key more efficiently. Usually, differential attacks do



**Figure 3:** Truncated differential characteristic used in the middle of the 7-round attacks on AES. A hatched byte denotes a non-zero difference, whereas a white cell has no difference.

not use memory to recover the key or to find the right pair. The attack principle consists in constructing the  $\delta$ -set from  $m$  which can be made since we already have to guess some key bytes to check if the pair  $(m, m')$  has followed the right differential characteristic. Then, the table allows to identify the right key from the encryption of the  $\delta$ -set.

It is now easy to see that the differential characteristic can be described using only 16 bytes. The states  $x_3$  and  $y_3$  can only take  $2^{32}$  possible differences each, so that the number of solutions for these two states is  $2^{64}$ . We also have the 4 key-bytes of  $u_2$  and the 4 key-bytes of  $k_3$  corresponding to the active bytes of [Figure 3](#) in states  $z_2$  and  $x_4$ .

The following [Table 1](#) shows the best cryptanalysis of AES variants, including our new results detailed in this article.

**Table 1:** Current cryptanalysis of reduced AES variants in the secret-key model.

Version	Rounds	Data (CP)	Time	Memory	Technique	Reference
128	7	$2^{112.2}$	$2^{117.2}$	$2^{112.2}$	ID	[20]
	7	$2^{106.2}$	$2^{110.2}$	$2^{90.2}$	ID	[21]
	7	$2^{116}$	$2^{116}$	$2^{116}$	MITM	[15]
	<b>7</b>	<b><math>2^{105}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{99}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{90}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 3</b>
	<b>7</b>	<b><math>2^{97}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{99}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{98}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 3</b>
	8	$2^{88}$	$2^{125.3}$	$2^8$	Bicliques	[8]
	10 (full)	$2^{88}$	$2^{126.2}$	$2^8$	Bicliques	[8]
192	7	$2^{116}$	$2^{116}$	$2^{116}$	MITM	[15]
	<b>7</b>	<b><math>2^{99}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{99}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{96}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 3</b>
	8	$2^{113}$	$2^{172}$	$2^{129}$	MITM	[15]
	<b>8</b>	<b><math>2^{113}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{172}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{82}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 4.1</b>
	<b>8</b>	<b><math>2^{107}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{172}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{96}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 4.1</b>
	9	$2^{80}$	$2^{188.8}$	$2^8$	Bicliques	[8]
	12 (full)	$2^{80}$	$2^{189.4}$	$2^8$	Bicliques	[8]
256	7	$2^{116}$	$2^{116}$	$2^{116}$	MITM	[15]
	<b>7</b>	<b><math>2^{99}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{98}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{96}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 3</b>
	8	$2^{113}$	$2^{196}$	$2^{129}$	MITM	[15]
	<b>8</b>	<b><math>2^{113}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{196}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{82}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 4.1</b>
	<b>8</b>	<b><math>2^{107}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{196}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{96}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 4.1</b>
	9	$2^{120}$	$2^{251.9}$	$2^8$	Bicliques	[8]
	<b>9</b>	<b><math>2^{120}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{203}</math></b>	<b><math>2^{203}</math></b>	<b>MITM</b>	<b>Section 4.2</b>
	14 (full)	$2^{40}$	$2^{254.4}$	$2^8$	Bicliques	[8]

CP: Chosen-plaintext. ID: Impossible Differential. MITM: Meet-in-the-Middle.

### 3 New Attack on AES

In this section, we describe our basic attack on AES, which is independent of the key schedule algorithms. We begin in [Section 3.1](#) by describing an efficient way to enumerate and store all the possible multisets in the middle that are used to mount the meet-in-the-middle attack. We continue in [Section 3.2](#) by applying the general scheme previously described to construct a key-recovery attack on all AES versions reduced to 7 rounds. Finally, in [Section 3.3](#), we show



that modifying slightly the property for the middle rounds allows to trade some memory for data and time.

### 3.1 Efficient Tabulation

As in the previous results, our attack also uses a large memory lookup table constructed in the precomputation phase, and used in the online phase. Dunkelman, Keller and Shamir showed that if a message  $m$  belongs to a pair of states conforming to the truncated differential characteristic of [Figure 3](#), then the multiset of differences  $\Delta x_5[0]$  obtained from the  $\delta$ -set constructed from  $m$  in  $x_1$  can only take  $2^{128}$  values, because 16 of the 24 parameters used to build the multisets can take only  $2^{64}$  values instead of  $2^{128}$ . We make the following proposition that reduces the size of the table by a factor  $2^{48}$ .

**Proposition 2.** *If a message  $m$  belongs to a pair of states conforming to the truncated differential characteristic of [Figure 3](#), then the multiset of differences  $\Delta x_5[0]$  obtained from the  $\delta$ -set constructed from  $m$  in  $x_1$  can only take  $2^{80}$  values. More precisely, the 24 parameters (which are state bytes of  $m$ ) can take only  $2^{80}$  values in that case. Conversely, for each of these  $2^{80}$  values there exists a tuple  $(m, m', k)$  such that  $m$  is set to the chosen value and, the pair  $(m, m')$  follows the truncated characteristic.*

*Proof.* The proof uses rebound-like arguments borrowed from the hash function cryptanalysis domain [22]. Let  $(m, m')$  be a right pair. We show in the following how the knowledge of 10 particular bytes restricts the values of the 24 parameters used to construct the multisets, namely:

$$x_2[0, 1, 2, 3], x_3[0, \dots, 15], x_4[0, 5, 10, 15]. \quad (1)$$

In the sequel, we use the state names mentioned in [Figure 1](#). The 10 bytes

$$\Delta z_1[0], x_2[0, 1, 2, 3], \Delta w_4[0], z_4[0, 1, 2, 3]. \quad (2)$$

can take as many as  $2^{80}$  possible values, and for each of them, we can determine the values of all the differences shown on [Figure 3](#): linearly in  $x_2$ , applying the SBox to reach  $y_2$ , linearly for  $x_3$  and similarly in the other direction starting from  $z_4$ .

By the differential property of the AES SBox ([Proposition 1](#)), we get on average one value for each of the 16 bytes of state  $x_3$ <sup>3</sup>. From the known values around the two **AddRoundKey** layers of rounds 3 and 4, this suggests four bytes of the equivalent subkey  $u_2 = MC^{-1}(k_2)$  and four others in subkey  $k_3$ : those are  $u_2[0], u_2[7], u_2[10], u_2[13]$  and  $k_3[0], k_3[5], k_3[10], k_3[15]$ ; they are marked by a bullet ( $\bullet$ ) in [Figure 3](#).

The converse is now trivial: the only difficulty is to prove that for each value of the 8 key bytes, there exists a corresponding master key. This actually gives a chosen-key distinguisher for 7 rounds of AES, as it has been done in [14].

<sup>3</sup>In fact, only  $2^{64}$  values of the 10 bytes lead to a solution for  $x_3$  but for each value, there are  $2^{16}$  solutions for  $x_3$ .

To construct the multiset for each of the  $2^{80}$  possible choice for the 10 bytes from (2), we consider all the  $2^8 - 1$  possible values for the difference  $\Delta y_1[0]$ , and propagate them until  $x_5$ . This leads to a multiset of  $2^8 - 1$  differences in  $\Delta x_5[0]$ . Finally, as the AES SBox behaves as a permutation over  $\mathbb{F}_{256}$ , the sequence in  $\Delta y_1[0]$  allows to derive the sequence in  $\Delta x_1[0]$ . Note that in the present case where there is a single byte of difference between  $m$  and  $m'$  in the state  $x_1$ , both messages belongs to the same  $\delta$ -set. This does not hold if we consider more active bytes as we will see in Section 4.  $\square$

### 3.2 Simple Attack

**Precomputation phase.** In the precomputation phase of the attack, we build the lookup table that contains the  $2^{80}$  multisets for difference  $\Delta x_5$  by following the proof of Proposition 2. This step is performed by first iterating on the  $2^{80}$  possible values for the 10 bytes of (2) and for each of them, we deduce the possible values of the 24 original parameters. Then, for each of them, we construct the multiset of  $2^8 - 1$  differences. Using the differential property of the AES SBox (Proposition 1), we can count exactly the number of multisets that are computed:

$$2^{80} \times \left( 4 \times \frac{2^8 - 1}{(2^8 - 1)^2} + 2 \times \frac{(2^8 - 1)(2^7 - 1 - 1)}{(2^8 - 1)^2} \right)^{16} \approx 2^{80.09}. \quad (3)$$

Finally, the lookup table of the  $2^{80.09}$  possible multisets that we simplify to  $2^{80}$  requires about  $2^{82}$  128-bit blocks to be stored. To construct the table, we have to perform  $2^{80}$  partial encryptions on 256 messages, which we estimate to be equivalent to  $2^{84}$  encryptions.

**Online phase.** The online phase splits into three parts: the first one finds pairs of messages that conform to the truncated differential characteristic of Figure 3, which embeds the previous 4-round characteristic in the middle rounds. The second step uses the found pairs to create a  $\delta$ -set and test them against the precomputed table and retrieve the secret key in a final phase.

To generate one pair of messages conforming to the 7-full-round characteristic where there are only four active bytes in both the plaintext and the ciphertext differences, we prepare a structure of  $2^{32}$  plaintexts where the diagonal takes all the possible  $2^{32}$  values, and the remaining 12 bytes are fixed to some constants. Hence, each of the  $2^{32} \times (2^{32} - 1)/2 \approx 2^{63}$  pairs we can generate satisfies the plaintext difference. Among the  $2^{63}$  corresponding ciphertext pairs, we expect  $2^{63} \cdot 2^{-96} = 2^{-33}$  to verify the truncated difference pattern. Finding *one* such pair then requires  $2^{33}$  structures of  $2^{32}$  messages and  $2^{32+33} = 2^{65}$  encryptions under the secret key. Using this secret key, the probability that the whole truncated characteristic of Figure 3 is verified is  $2^{-2 \times 3 \times 8} = 2^{-48}$  because of the two  $4 \rightarrow 1$  transitions in the **MixColumns** of rounds 0 and 5. By repeating the previous procedure to find  $2^{48}$  pairs, one is expected to verify the full 7-round characteristic. All in all, we ask the encryptions of  $2^{48+65} = 2^{113}$  messages to find

$2^{48}$  pairs of messages. Note that we do not have to examine each pair in order to find the right one. Indeed, if a pair verifies the full 7-round characteristic, then the ciphertext difference has only four active bytes. Thus, we can store the structures in a hash table indexed by the 12 inactive bytes to get the right pairs in average time of one.

For each of the  $2^{48}$  pairs, we get  $2^{8 \times (8-2 \times 3)} \cdot 2^8 = 2^{24}$  suggestions for the 9 key bytes:  $k_{-1}[0, 5, 10, 15]$ ,  $u_5[0]$  and  $u_6[0, 7, 10, 13]$ . Indeed, there are  $2^8$  possibilities for the bytes from  $k_{-1}$  since the pair of diagonals in  $x_0$  need to be active only in  $w_0$  after the **MixColumns** operation. Among the  $2^{32}$  possible values for those bytes, only  $2^{32} \times 2^{-24} = 2^8$  verifies the truncated pattern. The same reasoning applies for  $u_6[0, 7, 10, 13]$ , and the last byte  $u_5[0]$  can take all the  $2^8$  values.

For all  $2^{24}$  possibilities, we construct a  $\delta$ -set to use the precomputed table. To do so, we partially decrypt the diagonal of one message, using the four known bytes from  $k_{-1}$  and consider the  $2^8 - 1$  possible non-zero differences for  $\Delta x_1[0]$ . This gives one set of  $2^8$  plaintexts, whose corresponding ciphertexts may be partially decrypted using the four known bytes from  $u_6$  and the one from  $u_5$ . Once decrypted, we can construct the multiset of differences for  $\Delta x_5$  and check if it lies in the precomputed lookup table. If not, we can discard the subkey with certainty. On the other hand, the probability for a wrong guess to pass this test is smaller than  $2^{80} \cdot 2^{-467.6} = 2^{-387.6}$  so, as we try  $2^{48} \cdot 2^{24} = 2^{72}$  multisets, only the right subkey should verify the test. Note that the probability is  $2^{-467.6}$  (and not  $2^{-506.17}$ ) because the number of ordered sequences associated to a multiset is not constant.

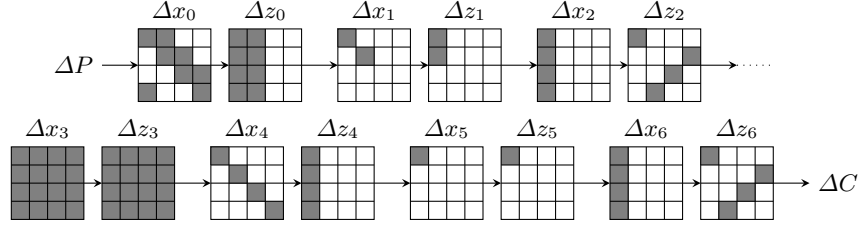
To evaluate the complexity of the online phase of the simple attack, we count the number of AES encryptions. First, we ask the encryption of  $2^{113}$  chosen-plaintexts, so that the time complexity for that step is already  $2^{113}$  encryptions. Then, for each of the  $2^{48}$  found pairs, we perform  $2^{24}$  partial encryptions/decryptions of a  $\delta$ -set. We evaluate the time complexity of this part to  $2^{48+24+8} \cdot 2^{-5} = 2^{75}$  encryptions since we can do the computations in a good ordering. All in all, the time complexity is dominated by  $2^{113}$  encryptions, the data complexity is  $2^{113}$  chosen-plaintexts, and the memory complexity is  $2^{82}$  since it requires to store  $2^{80}$  multisets.

### 3.3 Efficient Attack: New Property ★

Unlike the previous attacks where the bottleneck complexity is the memory, our attack uses a smaller table which makes the time complexity to find the pairs the dominating one. Therefore, we would like to decrease the time spent in that phase. The natural idea is to find a new property ★ for the four middle rounds that can be checked more efficiently. To do so, we reuse the idea of Dunkelman et al. from [15], which adds an active byte in the second round of the differential characteristic. The sequence of active bytes becomes:

$$8 \xrightarrow{R_0} 2 \xrightarrow{R_1} 4 \xrightarrow{R_2} 16 \xrightarrow{R_3} 4 \xrightarrow{R_4} 1 \xrightarrow{R_5} 4 \xrightarrow{R_6} 16, \quad (4)$$

with the constraint that the two active bytes of the second round belong to the same diagonal to be transformed in a column in the next round.



**Figure 4:** Example of a truncated differential characteristic used in the efficient attack on 7 rounds.

As a consequence, it is now easier to find pairs conforming to that truncated differential characteristic. Indeed, the size of the structures of plaintexts may take as many as  $2^{64}$  different values, so that we can construct at most  $2^{64} \cdot (2^{64} - 1) / 2 = 2^{127}$  pairs from each structure. Therefore, it is enough to ask the encryption of  $2^{8 \cdot 3 \cdot 3} / 2^{127 - 8 \cdot 12} = 2^{41}$  structures to get  $2^{72}$  pairs with the desired output difference pattern, and expect one to conform to the 7-round characteristic of [Figure 4](#). Consequently in this new setting, we only need  $2^{105}$  chosen plaintexts. In return, the number of pairs that the adversary has to consider is increased by a factor  $2^{24}$  and so is the time complexity. Furthermore, we now need 11 parameters to generate the 24 parameters of the precomputed table, increasing the memory requirement by a factor  $2^8$ . These parameters are the previous 10 ones and the difference in the second active byte of  $z_2$ . All in all, the time complexity of this attack is  $2^{75+24} = 2^{99}$  encryptions, the data complexity is  $2^{105}$  chosen plaintexts and the memory requirement is  $2^{82+8} = 2^{90}$  128-bit blocks.

Note that the time spent on one pair is the same for both the simple attack and the new one. Indeed, let  $K$  be the key bytes needed to construct the multiset. We suppose that we have a set of pairs such that one follows the differential. To find it, and incidentally some key-byte values, we proceed as follows: for each pair  $(m, m')$ , enumerate all possible values of  $K$  such that  $(m, m', K)$  have a non-zero probability to follow the differential. For each of them, construct the corresponding multiset from  $m$  or  $m'$ . If it belongs to the table, then we expect that it follows the differential characteristic since the table has been constructed that way. Otherwise, we know with probability 1 that either the pair  $(m, m')$  does not satisfy the characteristic, or the guessed value from  $K$  is wrong.

Assuming that the bytes of diagonals 0 and 2 of the structure of plaintexts takes all the values<sup>4</sup>, the two differences in the first state of the second round can take four different positions: (0, 10), (1, 11), (2, 8) and (3, 9). Similarly, the position of the active byte in the penultimate round is not constrained; it can be placed anywhere on the 16 positions. We can also consider the opposite: one active byte at the beginning, and two active bytes in the end. These possibilities actually define tweaked versions of the property  $\star$  and allows to trade some time for memory: with less data, we can check more tables for the same final probability of success. Namely, by storing  $4 \times 16 + \binom{4}{2} \times 4 = 2^8$  tables to cover all the cases by adapting the proof of [Proposition 2](#), the encryption of  $2^{41} / 2^8 = 2^{33}$  structures of  $2^{64}$  plaintexts suffices to expect a hit in one of the  $2^8$  tables. There-

<sup>4</sup>Those are bytes 0, 2, 5, 7, 8, 10, 13 and 15.

fore, the memory complexity reaches  $2^{98}$  AES blocks and the time complexity remains unchanged since we analyze  $2^8$  times less pairs, but the quantity of work to check *one* pair is multiplied by the same factor.

### 3.4 Turning the distinguisher into a key recovery attack

In this section, we present an efficient way to turn this distinguisher into a key recovery attack. First, let us summarize what the adversary has in his possession at the end of the efficient attack: a pair  $(m, m')$  following the truncated differential characteristic, a  $\delta$ -set containing  $m$ , the knowledge of 9 key bytes and the corresponding multiset for which we found a match in the precomputed table. Thus, there are still  $2^{56}$ ,  $2^{120}$  or  $2^{184}$  possible keys, if we consider AES-128, AES-192 or AES-256 respectively. As a consequence, performing an exhaustive search to find the missing key bytes would drastically increase the complexity of the whole attack, except for the 128-bit version. Even in that case, it seems nontrivial to recover the  $2^{56}$  possible keys in less than  $2^{96}$ , as the 9 key bytes do not belong to the same subkey.

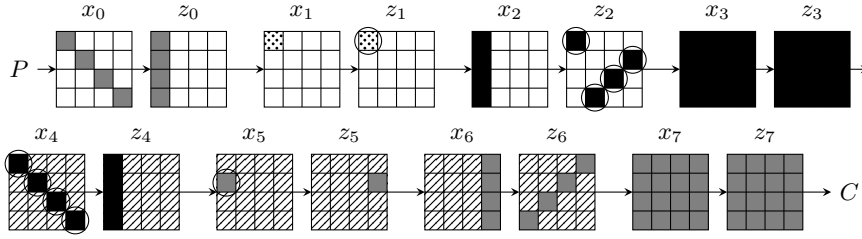
A natural way to recover the missing bytes would be to replay the efficient attack by using different positions for the input and output differences. Unfortunately, this increases the complexity, and it would also interfere with the trade-off since we could not look for several positions of the differences anymore.

We propose a method that recovers the two last subkeys in a negligible time compared to the  $2^{99}$  encryptions of the efficient attack. First the adversary guesses the 11 parameters used to build the table of multisets, computes the value the corresponding 24 parameters and keeps the only one used to build the checked multiset. In particular, he obtains the value of the all intermediate state  $x_3$  and one column of  $x_2$ . As a consequence, and for any position of the active byte of  $x_5$ , the Demerci and Selçuk original attack may be performed really quickly. Indeed, among the 9 (resp. 24) bytes to guess to perform the online (resp. offline) phase, at least 4 (resp. 20) are already known and the data needed is also in his possession. Finally, the adversary do this attack for each position of the active byte of  $x_5$  and thus retrieves the two last subkeys.

## 4 Extension to more rounds

### 4.1 8-round attacks on AES-192 and AES-256

We can extend the simple attack on the AES presented [Section 3.2](#) to an 8-round attack for both 192- and 256-bit versions by adding one additional round at the end. This attack is schematized on [Figure 5](#). The main difficulty compared to the previous attack is that we cannot apply a first step to the structure to filter the wrong pairs. Indeed, now for each pair from the structure, there exists at least one key such that the pair follows the differential characteristic. Then our goal is to enumerate, for each pair and as fast as possible, the key bytes needed to identify a  $\delta$ -set and construct the associated multiset assuming that the pair is a right one.



**Figure 5:** Scheme of the attack on 8 rounds. Gray bytes are needed to identify a  $\delta$ -set and to build the multiset. Black bytes are needed to construct the table. White bytes are constant for a  $\delta$ -set. If differences in hashed bytes are null then black bytes can be derived from the difference in circled bytes.

The main idea to do so is the following: if there is a single non-zero difference in a column of a state before (resp. after) the **MixColumns** operation, then the difference on same column in the state after (resp. before) can only assume  $2^8 - 1$  values among all the  $(2^8 - 1)^4$  possible ones. Combining this with the key schedule equations and to the differential property of the AES SBox (**Proposition 1**), this leads to an attack requiring  $2^{113}$  chosen plaintexts,  $2^{82}$  128-bit blocks of storage and a time complexity equivalent to  $2^{172}$  (resp.  $2^{196}$ ) encryptions on AES-192 (resp. AES-256).

To reach this time complexity, the position of the output active byte must be chosen carefully. The position of the input active byte for both the pair and the  $\delta$ -set must be identical, as well as the output active byte of the pair and the byte that is to be checked. Then, the output difference must be located at position 1, 6, 11 or 12 in the case of AES-192. As for the AES-256, it can be located anywhere, except on bytes 0, 5, 10 and 15. Finally, in both cases, the position of the input difference does not matter.

Assume that the positions of the input and output active bytes are respectively 0 and 1. In the first stage of the attack, we ask for the encryption of  $2^{81}$  structures of  $2^{32}$  plaintexts. Then, the following procedure applied on each of the  $2^{81} \cdot 2^{32+31} = 2^{144}$  pairs allows to enumerate the  $2^{24}$  possible values for the needed key bytes in about  $2^{24}$  simple operations for the 192-bit version:

1. (a) Guess the difference in  $x_1[0]$  then deduce bytes 0, 5, 10 and 15 of  $k_{-1}$ .  
 (b) Store all these values in a hash table  $T_{-1}$  indexed by  $k_{-1}[15]$ .
2. Guess the difference in  $z_5[13]$ .
3. (a) Guess the difference in  $z_6[3]$  and  $z_6[6]$ , and deduce the actual values of the two first columns of  $x_7$  and bytes  $x_6[14]$  and  $x_6[15]$ .  
 (b) Deduce  $u_6[3]$ ,  $u_6[6]$  and bytes 0, 1, 4, 7, 10, 11, 13 and 14 of  $k_7$  (or  $u_7$  if we do not omit the last **MixColumns**) and store all these values in a hash table  $T_7$ .
4. (a) Similarly, guess the difference in the two other active bytes of  $z_6$  and deduce  $u_6[9]$ ,  $u_6[12]$  and the 8 others bytes of the last subkey.  
 (b) Retrieve  $u_6[3]$ ,  $u_6[6]$  and bytes 0, 1, 4, 7, 10, 11, 13 and 14 of  $k_7$  (resp.  $u_7$ ) using  $T_7$  since  $u_6[3]$  and  $u_6[6]$  are linearly dependent of  $k_7$  (and also of  $u_7$ ).

- (c) Deduce  $u_5[13]$  and  $k_{-1}[15]$  from  $k_7$ .
- (d) Get bytes 0, 5 and 10 of  $k_{-1}$  using  $T_{-1}$ .

The fact we can deduce  $u_5[13]$ ,  $u_6[3]$ ,  $u_6[6]$  comes from the following observation.

**Proposition 3.** *By the key schedule of AES-192, knowledge of the subkey  $k_7$  allows to linearly deduce columns 0 and 1 of  $k_6$  and column 3 of  $k_5$ .*

In contrast, to deduce  $k_{-1}[15]$  from  $k_7$ , we need a more complicated observation made by Dunkelman et al. in [15].

**Proposition 4 (Key bridging, [15]).** *By the key schedule of AES-192, the knowledge of columns 0, 1, 3 of the subkey  $k_7$  allows to deduce column 3 of the whitening key  $k_{-1}$ .*

Note that it is now easy to see why the choice of the input active byte does not affect the complexity and why only four positions for the output active byte lead to the minimal complexity.

Finally, for each of the  $2^{144}$  pairs and for each of the  $2^{24}$  subkeys corresponding to one pair, the adversary identifies the  $\delta$ -set and verifies whether the corresponding multiset belongs to the precomputed table. Thus, the time complexity of this part is equivalent to  $2^{144} \cdot 2^{24} \cdot 2^8 \cdot 2^{-4} = 2^{172}$  encryptions.

In the case of the 256-bit version,  $k_6$  and  $k_7$  are independent and the only key schedule property we can use is the following one.

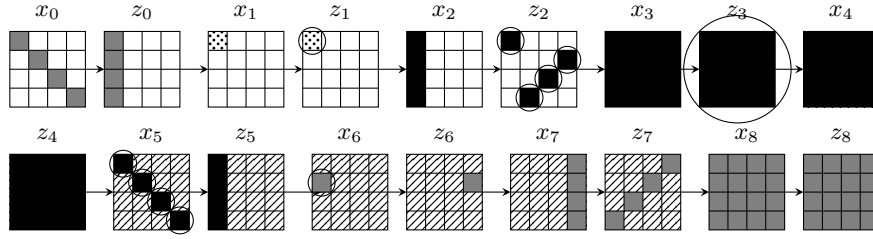
**Proposition 5.** *By the key schedule of AES-256, knowledge of the subkey  $k_7$  allows to linearly deduce columns 1, 2 and 3 of  $k_5$ .*

Then, there are  $2^{48}$  possible values for the required key bytes and a procedure like the previous one enumerates them in  $2^{48}$  simple operations.

It is possible to save some data in exchange for memory by considering several differentials in parallel. We can bypass the fact that all the positions for the output active byte does not lead in the same complexity by performing the check on  $y_5$  instead of  $x_5$ . This is done by just adding one parameter to the precomputed table and increases its size by a factor  $2^8$ . Then, we can look for all the  $4 \cdot 16 = 2^6$  differentials in parallel on the same structure. All in all, the data complexity and the memory requirement become respectively  $2^{107}$  chosen plaintexts and  $2^{96}$  128-bit blocks.

## 4.2 9-round attack on AES-256

The 8-round attack on AES-256 can be extended to an attack on 9-round by adding one round right in the middle. This only increases the memory requirements: the time and data complexities remain unchanged. More precisely, the number of parameters needed to construct the precomputed table turns out to be  $24 + 16 = 40$ , but they can only assume  $2^{8 \times (10+16)} = 2^{208}$  different values. All in all, the data complexity of the attack stays at  $2^{113}$  chosen-plaintexts, the time complexity remains  $2^{196}$  encryptions and the memory requirement reaches



**Figure 6:** Scheme of the attack on 9 rounds. Gray bytes are needed to identify a  $\delta$ -set and to build the multiset. Black bytes are needed to construct the table. White bytes are constant for a  $\delta$ -set. If differences in hashed bytes are null then black bytes can be derived from the difference in circled bytes.

about  $2^{210}$  128-bit blocks. To reduce its complexity, we can cover only a fraction  $2^{-7}$  of the possible multisets stored in the precomputed table. In return, the data and time complexities are increased by a factor  $2^7$  by replaying the attack several times. This way, we reach the complexities mentioned in [Table 1](#). This attack is schematized on [Figure 6](#).

## 5 Conclusion

In this article, we have provided improved cryptanalysis of reduced round variants of all the AES versions in the standard single-key model, where the adversary wants to recover the secret key. In particular, we present the best attack on 7 rounds of all AES versions that runs in less than  $2^{100}$  encryptions of chosen-plaintexts, and an attack on 9 rounds of AES-256 in about  $2^{203}$  encryptions.

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