

Revisiting AES Related-Key Differential Attacks with Constraint Programming

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Abstract. The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) is one of the most studied symmetric encryption schemes. During the last years, several attacks have been discovered in different adversary models. In this paper, we focus on related-key differential attacks, where the adversary may introduce differences in plaintext pairs and also in keys. We show that Constraint Programming (CP) can be used to model these attacks, and that it allows us to efficiently find all optimal related-key differential characteristics for AES-128, AES-192 and AES-256. In particular, we improve the best related-key differential for the whole AES-256 and give the best related-key differential on 10 rounds of AES-192, which is the differential trail with the longest path. Those results allow us to improve existing related-key distinguishers, basic related-key attacks and q -multicollisions on AES-256.

Introduction

As attacking the Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) in the unknown key model seems to be out of reach at this time, many recent results focus on the so-called *related-key*, *known-key* or *chosen-key* models. During the last decade, many results bring some grist to this research direction. In particular, the notion of *differential q -multicollisions* has been introduced in [BKN09]. A differential q -multicollision for a cipher $E_K(\cdot)$ is defined by a non zero key difference δK , a non zero plaintext difference δX and a set of q distinct pairs (X^i, K^i) with $i \in [1, q]$ such that all $E_{K^i}(X^i) \oplus E_{K^i \oplus \delta K}(X^i \oplus \delta X)$ are equal (where \oplus is the XOR operator). Constructing such a q -multicollision for an ideal n -bit block cipher has a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(q \cdot 2^{\frac{q-2}{q+2}n})$. However, for AES-256 the number of required AES encryptions has been shown to be equal to $q \cdot 2^{67}$ in [BKN09].

Building such q -multicollisions requires finding optimal (in terms of probability) related-key differential characteristics. This challenging task was tackled for AES-128 with a graph traversal approach in [FJP13], and for AES-128, AES-192, and AES-256 with a depth-first search approach in [BKN09]. However, the 4-round solution for AES-128 claimed to be optimal in [BKN09,FJP13] has been

shown to be sub-optimal in [GMS16]. In this article, the authors used Constraint Programming (CP) to efficiently enumerate related-key differential characteristics on AES-128.

When using CP to solve a problem, one simply has to model the problem using a high-level declarative language: This model may be viewed as a mathematical definition of the problem by means of constraints. Then, this model is solved by generic solvers which are usually based on a *Branch & Propagate* approach: The search space is explored by building a search tree, and constraints are propagated at each node of the tree in order to prune branches.

Finding AES related-key differentials is a highly combinatorial problem that hardly scales. For example, the approach of [FJP13] requires about 60 GB of memory for 5 rounds of AES-128 and has not been extended to AES-192 nor AES-256. The approach of [BN10] only takes several megabytes of memory, but it requires several days of computation for AES-128, and several weeks for AES-192. Of course, each of these problems must be solved only once, and CPU time is not the main issue provided that it is “reasonable”. However, during the process of designing new ciphers, this evaluation sometimes needs to be repeated several times. Hence, even though not crucial, a good CPU time is a desirable feature. Another point that should not be neglected is the time needed to design and implement these approaches: To ensure that the computation is completed within a “reasonable” amount of time, it is necessary to reduce branching by introducing clever reasoning. Of course, this hard task is also likely to introduce bugs, and checking the correctness or the optimality of the computed solutions may not be so easy. Finally, reproducibility may also be an issue. Other researchers may want to adapt these algorithms to other problems, with some common features but also some differences, and this may again be very difficult and time-consuming.

The CP approach introduced in [GMS16] opens new perspectives with respect to these points: A CP model is a mathematical model which is usually rather short compared to a full implementation. For example, the CP model of [GMS16] for AES-128 contains less than 200 lines⁴. This model mainly describes the problem to be solved, by means of variables and constraints, and we argue that it is easier to check or re-use than a full program that not only describes the problem to solve, but also how to solve it. The CP approach of [GMS16] is also competitive with existing approaches for AES-128: CP solvers such as Gecode [Gec06], Choco [PFL16], or Chuffed [CS14] are able to give optimal solutions for AES-128 up to 5 rounds in less than two hours and to show that the optimal solution for 4 rounds of AES-128 has only 12 active S-boxes instead of 13 as claimed in [FJP13, BN10].

Our goal is to further investigate the interest of using CP for finding optimal related-key differential characteristics for AES-192 and AES-256. We more particularly address the following questions:

- Can CP find optimal solutions for AES-192 and AES-256 in a reasonable amount of time?

⁴ This model is available at http://gerault.net/resources/CP_AES.tar.gz.

- Can CP check the consistency of characteristics previously published for AES, and explain inconsistencies if any?
- Can we use these optimal solutions to improve existing related-key differential attacks?

Contributions. A first contribution of this paper is the extension of the CP model proposed for AES-128 in [GMS16] to analyze AES-192 and AES-256. We also improve this model by introducing a new way of modeling equivalence classes at the byte level, in order to speed-up the solution process of generic CP solvers. These models are defined with the MiniZinc language [NSB⁺07] and with the Choco library [PFL16]⁵. We show that these models may be used by generic CP solvers to find the best related-key differential paths for all possible instances of AES-128, AES-192, and AES-256 in less than 35 hours for the first step (which involves finding difference positions), and in less than 6 minutes for the second step (which involves finding actual byte values given difference positions).

A second contribution is the use of CP to prove the inconsistency of the 11-round solution proposed in [BN10] for AES-192, and to extract an explanation of this inconsistency.

Finally, our main contribution consists in new optimal solutions found with our CP approach. More precisely we obtain the following results:

AES-192: We give the optimal related-key differential characteristic probabilities for all rounds up to 10, and we show that there is no related-key differential characteristic with a probability higher than 2^{-192} when the number of rounds is at least 11. Finally, we give the actual optimal related-key differential characteristic for AES-192: It is on 10 rounds, and it has 29 active S-Boxes and a probability of 2^{-176} .

AES-256: Using our CP model, we rediscover the full-round related-key distinguisher on AES-256 given in [BKN09], which has a probability of 2^{-154} . In addition, we provide a solution with a higher probability, *i.e.*, 2^{-146} , and prove its optimality. Using this trail, we improve the related-key distinguisher and the basic related-key differential attack on the full AES-256 by a factor at least 2^6 and the q -multicollisions by a factor 2.

All these results demonstrate that CP provides a convenient declarative scheme to model cryptanalysis problems, along with powerful generic tools to efficiently solve them and to check the consistency of existing solutions.

Positioning with respect to existing related-key attacks against the AES. From the related-key differentials found using CP, we are able to derive basic related-key attacks, related-key distinguishers and q -multicollisions against AES-192 or AES-256. For the last decade, several attacks in different attacker models against the different AES versions have been proposed: related-key differential distinguishers against AES-192 and AES-256 in [BKN09, BK09, BN10], known-key distinguishers in [KR07] [GP10, Gil14] and chosen-key distinguishers

⁵ These models are available as auxiliary supporting material, joined to the submission.

in [FJP13,BKN09]. Table 1 summarizes existing attacks against AES-192 and AES-256 along with our own results in the related-key and chosen-key models.

AES-192						
Attack	Nb rounds	Nb keys	Data	Time	Memory	Source
RK rectangle	10	64	2^{124}	2^{183}	N/A	[KHP07]
RK amplified boomerang	12	4	2^{123}	2^{176}	2^{152}	[BK09]
RK distinguisher	10	2^{37}	2^{176}	2^{176}	-	Section 5.2
basic RK differential	10	2^{37}	2^{151}	2^{151}	2^{33}	Section 5.2
AES-256						
Attack	Nb rounds	Nb keys	Data	Time	Memory	Source
RK boomerang	14	4	$2^{99.5}$	$2^{99.5}$	2^{77}	[BK09]
RK distinguisher	14	2^{35}	2^{154}	2^{154}	-	[BKN09]
basic RK differential	14	2^{35}	2^{131}	2^{131}	2^{65}	[BKN09]
q -multicollisions	14	$2q$	$2q$	$q2^{67}$	-	[BKN09]
RK distinguisher	14	2^{32}	2^{146}	2^{146}	-	Section 5.3
basic RK differential	14	2^{32}	2^{125}	2^{125}	2^{65}	Section 5.3
q -multicollisions	14	$2q$	$2q$	$q2^{66}$	-	Section 5.3

Table 1: Summary of existing attacks against AES-192 and AES-256 in the related-key and chosen-key models. RK stands for Related-Key and N/A means Not Available.

Related Work. Since the Matsui’s fundamental work [Mat94] for automatically finding linear relations in DES, many algorithms have been proposed to automate the search for longest paths in different attack models [BN10,BN11]. However, using approaches that allow one to easily model problems which are then solved by generic solvers is more recent. Mixed Integer Linear Programming (MILP) was used in [SHW⁺14] to find optimal (related key) differential characteristics against bit-oriented block ciphers such as SIMON, PRESENT or LBlock or, in [ST16], to search for impossible differential paths. In [GL16], CP was used to find related-key differentials against Midori. And for the first time (up to our knowledge), in [BJK⁺16], MILP was used to provide security bounds in the design of the new lightweight block cipher SKINNY. Recently, in [SGL⁺17], CP was also used to efficiently analyze several symmetric encryptions including AES-128, PRESENT, SKINNY, and HIGHT.

Outline of the paper. In Section 1, we introduce the notations used in the paper. In Section 2, we describe the considered CP models. In Section 3, we evaluate the scale-up properties of these CP models. In Section 4, we show how to use our CP models not only to check the consistency of existing solutions, but also to explain inconsistencies if any. In Section 5, we show how to use the solutions

found by our CP models to improve existing related-key differential attacks for AES-192 and AES-256. Finally, in Section 6, we conclude this paper.

1 Notations

We denote by r the number of rounds and by l the key length in bits. Given an $n \times m$ matrix M , we denote by $M[j][k]$ the byte at row $j \in [0, n - 1]$ and column $k \in [0, m - 1]$. We use the following notations to denote plaintext and key matrix states:

- X and X' denote the initial plaintext pair;
- X_i and X'_i denote the plaintext pair at the beginning of round i , starting at round 0;
- Y_i and Y'_i denote the plaintext pair at the end of round i but before the subkey addition;
- K and K' denote the master key pair. K and K' generate through the key schedule the subkeys K_i and K'_i which correspond to the subkey added at round $i - 1$. The initial subkey addition is done with subkey K_0 .

All matrices but K and K' are 4×4 byte matrices, and K and K' are $4 \times Nk$ byte matrices, where $Nk = l/32$. Given a pair of bytes $A[j][k]$ and $A'[j][k]$, where $A \in \{X, X_i, Y_i, K_i\}$, we denote by $\delta A[j][k] = A[j][k] \oplus A'[j][k]$ the XOR difference between $A[j][k]$ and $A'[j][k]$.

As in [BN10] and [FJP13], we use a two-step solving process. Step 1 works with a boolean representation of differences: We note $\Delta A[j][k]$ the boolean representation of $\delta A[j][k]$ such that $\Delta A[j][k] = 0 \Leftrightarrow \delta A[j][k] = 0$ and $\Delta A[j][k] = 1 \Leftrightarrow \delta A[j][k] \in [1, 255]$. These boolean variables give difference positions, as presented in Fig. 1. Then, Step 2 uses these positions to determine difference values at the byte level, *i.e.*, to find the actual value $\delta A[j][k] \in [1, 255]$ for each boolean variable $\Delta A[j][k]$ which is equal to 1. Note that some solutions at the boolean level (found during Step 1) cannot be transformed into solutions at the byte level during Step 2. These solutions are said to be *byte inconsistent*.

Bytes that pass through the AES S-box play a particular role: Basically, we aim at minimizing the number of differences that pass through them. All the bytes of the X_i matrices pass through S-boxes. Some bytes of the K_i subkey matrices also pass through S-Boxes, and the exact definition of these bytes depends on the key length. We note $Sboxes_l$ (with $l \in \{128, 192, 256\}$) the set of bytes that pass through an S-Box for the three AES versions:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Sboxes_{128} &= \{X_i[j][k] \mid i \in [0, r - 1], j, k \in [0, 3]\} \\
 &\quad \cup \{K_i[j][3] \mid i \in [0, r - 1], j \in [0, 3]\}, \\
 Sboxes_{192} &= \{X_i[j][k] \mid i \in [0, r - 1], j, k \in [0, 3]\} \\
 &\quad \cup \{K_{3m+1}[j][1] \mid m \in [0, \lfloor r/3 \rfloor - 1], j \in [0, 3]\} \\
 &\quad \cup \{K_{3m+2}[j][3] \mid m \in [0, \lfloor r/3 \rfloor - 1], j \in [0, 3]\}, \text{ and} \\
 Sboxes_{256} &= \{X_i[j][k] \mid i \in [0, r - 1], j, k \in [0, 3]\} \\
 &\quad \cup \{K_i[j][3] \mid i \in [1, r - 1], j \in [0, 3]\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

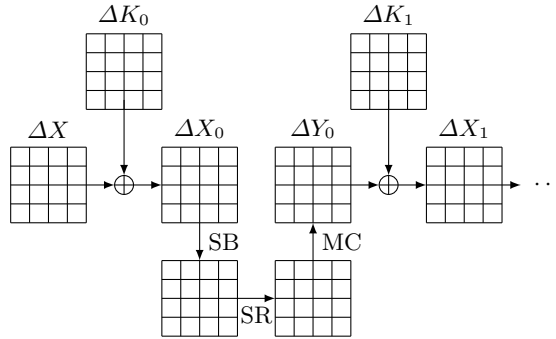


Fig. 1: Notations used in the paper, where SB stands for the AES SubBytes operation, SR for ShiftRows, MC for MixColumns, and where AddRoundKey (ARK for short) is represented by the XOR operator with the key ΔK_i .

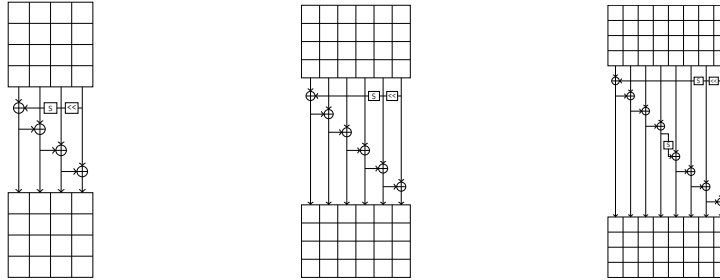


Fig. 2: Key shedule for AES-128, AES-192, and AES-256. Note that the bytes passing through the S-boxes in the AES key schedule are the four bytes of the last column along with, for AES-256 only, the four bytes of the middle column.

Finally, in Fig. 2, we recall one round of the key schedule algorithms for the three AES key lengths.

2 CP models for AES related-key differential attacks

When using CP to solve a problem, one “only” has to define a CP model that describes the problem by means of constraints, thanks to a declarative language. Then, this model may be solved by generic solvers such as, for example, Choco [PFL16], Chuffed [CS14], Gecode [Gec06], or Picat [ZKF15]. A same problem may be defined by different CP models, and the time needed to solve the problem both depends on the model and on the solver that are used.

In this section, we describe and compare different CP models to search for related-key differential paths on the AES. We first recall basic principles of problem modeling and solving with CP in Section 2.1. As proposed in both [BN10]

and [FJP13], the solving process is decomposed into two steps (recalled in Section 1). In Sections 2.2, 2.3, and 2.4, we describe three CP models for Step 1 (at the boolean level).

- The first model, called CP_{Basic} , basically encodes AES transformation rules by means of constraints and was first described in [MSJ14] for AES-128. We show how to extend it to AES-192 and AES-256.
- The second model, called CP_{EQ} , improves CP_{Basic} by adding constraints that remove many boolean solutions which are byte-inconsistent. It was first described in [GMS16] for AES-128, and we show how to extend it to AES-192 and AES-256.
- The third model, called CP_{Class} , is a new model that improves CP_{EQ} by using a new way for modeling equality relations at the byte level.

In Section 2.5, we describe the CP model used to solve Step 2 (at the byte level), which is the same as the one introduced in [GMS16] for AES-128, simply extended to AES-192 and AES-256.

2.1 Reminders on Constraint Programming

CP is used to solve Constraint Satisfaction Problems (CSPs). A CSP is defined by a triple (X, D, C) such that

- X is a finite set of variables;
- D is a function that maps every variable $x_i \in X$ to its domain $D(x_i)$, that is, the finite set of values that may be assigned to x_i ;
- C is a set of constraints, that is, relations between some variables which restrict the set of values that may be assigned simultaneously to these variables.

Constraints may be defined by using tables or mathematical operators. Let us consider for example a CSP with 3 variables $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ such that $D(x_1) = D(x_2) = D(x_3) = \{0, 1\}$, and let us consider a constraint that ensures that the sum of the variables in X is different from 1. This constraint may be defined by a table constraint that enumerates all allowed tuples:

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \{(0, 0, 0), (0, 1, 1), (1, 0, 1), (1, 1, 0), (1, 1, 1)\}.$$

Conversely, it may be defined by enumerating all forbidden tuples:

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \notin \{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}.$$

Finally, it may be defined by using an algebraic equation with the $+$ and \neq operators:

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \neq 1.$$

Solving a CSP involves assigning values to variables such that constraints are satisfied. More formally, an *assignment* \mathcal{A} is a function which maps each variable $x_i \in X$ to a value $\mathcal{A}(x_i) \in D(x_i)$. An assignment \mathcal{A} *satisfies* (resp. *violates*) a

constraint $c \in C$ if the tuple defined by the values assigned to the variables of c in \mathcal{A} belongs (resp. does not belong) to the relation defined by c . An assignment is *consistent* (resp. *inconsistent*) if it satisfies all the constraints (resp. violates some constraints) of the CSP. A *solution of a CSP* is a consistent assignment.

An objective function may be added to a CSP, thus defining a Constrained Optimization Problem (COP). This objective function is defined on some variables of X and the goal is to find the solution that optimizes (minimizes or maximizes) the objective function. This solution is said to be optimal.

Constraint Programming (CP) languages provide high-level features to define CSPs and COPs in a declarative way. Then, these problems are solved by generic constraint solvers which are usually based on a systematic exploration of the search space: Starting from an empty assignment, they incrementally extend a partial consistent assignment by choosing a non-assigned variable and a consistent value for it until either the current assignment is complete (a solution has been found) or the current assignment cannot be extended without violating constraints (the search must backtrack to a previous choice point and try another extension). To reduce the search space, this exhaustive exploration of the search space is combined with constraint propagation techniques: Each time a variable is assigned to a value, constraints are propagated to filter the domains of the variables that are not yet assigned, *i.e.*, to remove values that are not consistent with respect to the current assignment. Let us consider for example the constraint that ensures that the sum of three variables is different from 1. Whenever two of these variables are assigned and their sum is equal to 1 (resp. 0), the propagation mechanism removes the value 0 (resp. 1) from the domain of the third variable. When constraint propagation removes all values from a domain, the search must backtrack.

2.2 CP_{Basic} : Basic CP model for Step 1

This model associates one boolean variable to each differential byte, and relates these variables with constraints derived from AES operations. The only AES operation that does not imply constraints for Step 1 is `SubBytes`, which applies to a byte b an S-box transformation $S(b)$. As the S-box is bijective, an input difference produces an output difference (*i.e.*, $(b \oplus b' \neq 0) \Leftrightarrow (S(b) \oplus S(b') \neq 0)$). As a consequence, the `SubBytes` transformation has no effect on the presence/absence of differences during Step 1.

Let us now describe the variables, the constraints, the objective function and ordering heuristics of the CP_{Basic} model for Step 1.

Variables. We consider the boolean variables introduced in Section 1: $\Delta X[j][k]$, $\Delta X_i[j][k]$, $\Delta Y_i[j][k]$, and $\Delta K_i[j][k]$ with $i \in [0, r]$, and $j, k \in [0, 3]$. The domain of each of these variables is the set $\{0, 1\}$: A variable is assigned to 0 if there is no difference at the byte level, and to 1 otherwise.

XOR. As many AES transformations use the XOR operator, we define a constraint to model it. Suppose that, at byte level, we have $\delta A \oplus \delta B = \delta C$. Then, we have

the following relation between the three boolean values ΔA , ΔB and ΔC :

ΔA	ΔB	ΔC
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0 if $\delta A = \delta B$ 1 if $\delta A \neq \delta B$

This table corresponds to the following constraint:

$$\text{XOR}(\Delta A, \Delta B, \Delta C) \Leftrightarrow \Delta A + \Delta B + \Delta C \neq 1.$$

where $+$ stands for the integer addition. Note that the last line of the table creates the branches in the Branch & Bound approach proposed in [BN10].

AddRoundKey. At the beginning of the encryption process, ARK performs XOR operations on ΔX and ΔK_0 to obtain ΔX_0 . This is modeled by the following constraint:

$$\forall (j, k) \in [0, 3]^2 : \text{XOR}(\Delta X[j][k], \Delta K_0[j][k], \Delta X_0[j][k]).$$

Then, for each round $i \in [1, r]$, ARK performs XOR operations on ΔY_{i-1} and ΔK_i to obtain ΔX_i . This is modeled by the following constraint:

$$\forall i \in [1, r], \forall (j, k) \in [0, 3]^2 : \text{XOR}(\Delta Y_{i-1}[j][k], \Delta K_i[j][k], \Delta X_i[j][k]).$$

ShiftRows and MixColumns. For each round $i \in [0, r - 1]$, SB, SR and MC are successively applied on δX_i to obtain δY_i . Recall that the **SubBytes** operation SB does not modify boolean values. SR rotates on the left by one byte position (resp. 2 and 3 byte positions) the second row (resp. third and fourth rows) of the current matrix. Hence, for each $j, k \in [0, 3]$, we have to model the fact that $\Delta X_i[j][k]$ is moved to column $(k - j) \bmod 4$ after the application of SR. Then, MC is a linear mapping that ensures the *Maximum Distance Separable* (MDS) property, such that for each column the total number of differential bytes for which there is a difference, before and after the application of SR, is either equal to 0 or strictly greater than 4. Hence, SR and MC are modeled by the following constraint:

$$\forall i \in [0, r - 1], \forall k \in [0, 3] : \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 \Delta X_i[j][(k + j) \bmod 4] + \Delta Y_i[j][k] \right) \in \{0, 5, 6, 7, 8\}.$$

KeySchedule. The subkey at round 0, K_0 , is the first four columns of the initial key K . Then, for each round i , the subkey K_i is generated from K_{i-1} and/or K_{i-2} by applying the **KeySchedule** transformations recalled in Fig. 2. The exact definition of this transformation depends on the key length l and the value

$Nk = \frac{l}{32}$. In [GMS16], the constraints related to KS are described for AES-128 only. Let us recall them before extending them to AES-192 and AES-256.

For AES-128, the first column is obtained by performing **XOR** operations between bytes at the first and the last column of the previous round (combined with a **SubBytes** operation on bytes of the last column and a word rotation done at byte level). The last three columns are obtained by performing **XOR** operations between bytes at the previous column in the same round, and bytes at the same column in the previous round. Hence, KS for AES-128 is modeled by the following constraint:

$$\forall i \in [1, r], \forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-1}[j][0], \Delta K_{i-1}[(j+1) \bmod 4][3], \Delta K_i[j][0]) \\ \wedge \forall k \in [1, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-1}[j][k], \Delta K_i[j][k-1], \Delta K_i[j][k]).$$

For AES-192, the initial key K has $Nk = 6$ columns. The first four columns of K are used to initialize the four columns of K_0 , and the last two columns of K are used to initialize the first two columns of K_1 . The last two columns of K_1 are defined by the constraint:

$$\forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_0[j][0], \Delta K_1[(j+1) \bmod 4][1], \Delta K_1[j][2]) \\ \wedge \text{XOR}(\Delta K_0[j][1], \Delta K_1[j][2], \Delta K_1[j][3]).$$

Then, each following column is obtained by performing a **XOR** between bytes of the previous and the 6th previous column, sometimes combined with a **SubBytes** operation on some of them and a word rotation performed at byte level, depending on the value of $(4i \bmod 6)$ (that may be equal to 0, 2, or 4). For columns 1 and 3, this corresponds to the constraint:

$$\forall i \in [2, r], \forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-2}[j][3], \Delta K_i[j][0], \Delta K_i[j][1]) \\ \wedge \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-1}[j][1], \Delta K_i[j][2], \Delta K_i[j][3]).$$

For column 0, this corresponds to the constraint: For each round $i \in [2, r]$, if $(4i \bmod 6) = 0$, then

$$\forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-2}[j][2], \Delta K_{i-1}[(j+1) \bmod 4][3], \Delta K_i[j][0])$$

else

$$\forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-2}[j][2], \Delta K_{i-1}[j][3], \Delta K_i[j][0]).$$

For column 2, this corresponds to the constraint: For each round $i \in [2, r]$, if $(4i \bmod 6) = 2$, then

$$\forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-1}[j][0], \Delta K_i[(j+1) \bmod 4][1], \Delta K_i[j][2])$$

else

$$\forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-1}[j][0], \Delta K_i[j][1], \Delta K_i[j][2]).$$

For AES-256, the initial key K has $Nk = 8$ columns. The first four columns of K are used to initialize the four columns of K_0 , and the last four columns of K

are used to initialize the four columns of K_1 . Then, for each round $i \in [2, r]$, the first column is obtained by performing a XOR between bytes of the last column of the previous round (after passing them through a `SubBytes` operation), and bytes at column 0 in round $i - 2$. Furthermore, a word rotation is applied if $(4i \bmod 8) = 0$. This corresponds to the constraint: For each round $i \in [2, r]$, if $(4i \bmod 8) = 0$, then

$$\forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-2}[j][0], \Delta K_{i-1}[(j+1) \bmod 4][3], \Delta K_i[j][0])$$

else

$$\forall j \in [0, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-2}[j][0], \Delta K_{i-1}[j][3], \Delta K_i[j][0]).$$

The last three columns are obtained by performing a XOR between bytes of the previous column in the same round, and bytes at the same position in round $i - 2$, thus leading to the constraint:

$$\forall i \in [2, r], \forall j \in [0, 3], \forall k \in [1, 3] : \text{XOR}(\Delta K_{i-2}[j][k], \Delta K_i[j][k-1], \Delta K_i[j][k]).$$

Objective function. The goal is to find boolean values that minimize the number of differences passing through S-boxes, *i.e.*, the number of 1 in all ΔA variables such that $A \in Sboxes_l$ (where $Sboxes_l$ is defined in Section 1). Thus, we define an integer variable obj_{Step1} which is constrained to be equal to the number of differences passing through S-boxes:

$$obj_{Step1} = \sum_{A \in Sboxes_l} \Delta A$$

and we define the objective function as the minimization of obj_{Step1} . The domain of this variable is $D(obj_{Step1}) = [1, \frac{1}{6}]$. Indeed, the smallest possible value is 1 because we need to have at least one active S-box to have a differential trail. The largest possible value is $\frac{1}{6}$ because the highest probability to pass through the AES S-box is 2^{-6} [DR13], and because we want a differential trail which is more efficient than the key exhaustive search.

Note that some solutions of Step 1 may not be byte-consistent (*i.e.*, they do not have solutions at Step 2). In particular, it may happen that none of the optimal boolean solutions is byte-consistent. In this case, we need to search for new boolean solutions, such that obj_{Step1} is minimal while being strictly greater than its previous optimal value v . This is done by adding the following constraint

$$obj_{Step1} > v.$$

Ordering heuristics. A key point to speed up the solving process of CSPs is to define the order in which variables are assigned, and the order in which values are assigned to these variables, when building the search tree. CP languages allow the user to specify this order through variable and value ordering heuristics. As the goal is to minimize the number of active S-boxes, we define these ordering heuristics as follows: first assign variables associated with bytes of $Sboxes_l$, and first try to assign them to 0.

2.3 CP_{EQ} : Improved CP model for Step 1

The CP_{Basic} model is complete in the sense that for any solution at the byte level (on δ variables), there exists a solution of CP_{Basic} at the boolean level (on Δ variables). However, some solutions of CP_{Basic} may not correspond to a solution at the byte level. Preliminary experiments have shown us that there is a huge number of solutions of CP_{Basic} which are byte inconsistent. For example, for AES-128, when the number of rounds is $r = 3$, the optimal solution of CP_{Basic} has $obj_{Step1} = 3$ active S-boxes, and there are more than five hundred different solutions of CP_{Basic} with this number of active S-boxes. However, none of these boolean solutions is byte-consistent. Actually, the optimal byte-consistent boolean solution has $obj_{Step1} = 5$ active S-boxes.

In this case, most of the Step 1 solving time is spent at generating useless boolean solutions which are discarded in Step 2. CP_{Basic} has been refined in [GMS16], by introducing new constraints that drastically reduce the number of byte inconsistent solutions for AES-128. These new constraints exploit equality relations at the byte level and the MDS property. In this section, we describe these constraints extended to AES-192 and AES-256.

Propagation of MDS at the byte level. Due to the linearity of the `MixColumns` transformation and to its MDS nature, at byte level, the MDS property also holds for XOR of differences. In other words and including the `ShiftRows` operation, for all i_1, i_2 in $[0, r - 1]$, and for all k_1, k_2 in $[0, 3]$, we have:

$$\sum_{j=0}^3 w_H(\delta X_{i_1}[j][(j+k_1) \bmod 4] \oplus \delta X_{i_2}[j][(j+k_2) \bmod 4]) \\ + w_H(\delta Y_{i_1}[j][k_1] \oplus \delta Y_{i_2}[j][k_2]) \in \{0, 5, 6, 7, 8\}.$$

where $w_H(\delta A)$ is the Hamming weight of byte δA , *i.e.*, $w_H(\delta A) = 0$ if $\delta A = 0$, and $w_H(\delta A) = 1$ if $\delta A \in [1, 255]$.

To ensure this property (that removes many byte-inconsistent boolean solutions), we introduce new boolean variables, called equality variables: For each pair of differential bytes δA and δB (in δX_i , δY_i , and δK_i matrices), we introduce the boolean equality variable $EQ_{\delta A, \delta B}$ which is equal to 1 if $\delta A = \delta B$, and to 0 otherwise. Using these equality variables, the MDS property between different columns is ensured by the following constraint: $\forall i_1, i_2 \in [0, r - 1], \forall k_1, k_2 \in [0, 3]$,

$$\sum_{j=0}^3 EQ_{\delta X_{i_1}[j][(j+k_1) \bmod 4], \delta X_{i_2}[j][(j+k_2) \bmod 4]} + EQ_{\delta Y_{i_1}[j][k_1], \delta Y_{i_2}[j][k_2]} \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 8\}.$$

Constraints derived from XOR constraints. As pointed out in Section 2.2 when defining the constraint $XOR(\Delta A, \Delta B, \Delta C)$ (where ΔA , ΔB and ΔC are boolean variables associated with differential bytes δA , δB and δC , respectively), if $\Delta A = \Delta B = 1$, then we cannot know if ΔC is equal to 0 or 1. However, whenever $\Delta C = 0$ (resp. $\Delta C = 1$), we know for sure that the corresponding byte δC is

equal to 0 (resp. different from 0), meaning that the two bytes δA and δB are equal (resp. different), *i.e.*, that $EQ_{\delta A, \delta B} = 1$ (resp. $EQ_{\delta A, \delta B} = 0$). The same reasoning may be done for ΔA and ΔB because $(\delta A \oplus \delta B = \delta C) \Leftrightarrow (\delta B \oplus \delta C = \delta A) \Leftrightarrow (\delta A \oplus \delta C = \delta B)$. Therefore, we redefine the XOR constraint as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{XOR}(\Delta A, \Delta B, \Delta C) &\Leftrightarrow ((\Delta A + \Delta B + \Delta C \neq 1) \\ &\quad \wedge (EQ_{\delta A, \delta B} = 1 - \Delta C) \\ &\quad \wedge (EQ_{\delta A, \delta C} = 1 - \Delta B) \\ &\quad \wedge (EQ_{\delta B, \delta C} = 1 - \Delta A)). \end{aligned}$$

Constraints to ensure that equality variables define an equivalence relation. Symmetry and transitivity are ensured by:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall \delta A, \delta B : EQ_{\delta A, \delta B} &= EQ_{\delta B, \delta A} \\ \forall \delta A, \delta B, \delta C : (EQ_{\delta A, \delta B} &= EQ_{\delta B, \delta C} = 1) \Rightarrow (EQ_{\delta A, \delta C} = 1). \end{aligned}$$

Constraints that relate equality variables with boolean differential variables. For each pair of differential bytes $\delta A, \delta B$ such that the corresponding boolean variables are ΔA and ΔB , respectively, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} (EQ_{\delta A, \delta B} = 1) &\Rightarrow (\Delta A = \Delta B) \\ EQ_{\delta A, \delta B} + \Delta A + \Delta B &\neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Constraints derived from KeySchedule. In the AES `KeySchedule`, each byte of each subkey K_i may be expressed as a combination of XOR operations between bytes of the master key K and bytes obtained by applying the AES S-box to some particular columns (depending on l). For example, with $l = 128$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} K_2[1][1] &= K_2[1][0] \oplus K_1[1][1] \\ &= K_1[1][0] \oplus S(K_1[2][3]) \oplus K_1[1][0] \oplus K_0[1][1] \\ &= S(K_1[2][3]) \oplus K_0[1][1]. \end{aligned}$$

When reasoning at the differential byte level, we have

$$\delta K_2[1][1] = \delta S_1[2][3] \oplus \delta K_0[1][1].$$

where $\delta S_1[2][3]$ is a new differential byte which is equal to $S(K_1[2][3]) \oplus S(K_1'[2][3])$. There is a finite set $KSBytes$ of such new differential bytes, corresponding to differences of bytes that have passed through S-boxes:

$$KSBytes = \{\delta S_i[j][k] \mid K_i[j][k] \in Sboxes_l\}.$$

For each new differential byte $\delta S_i[j][k] \in KSBytes$, we define a new boolean variable $\Delta S_i[j][k]$ which is equal to 0 if $\delta S_i[j][k] = 0$, and to 1 otherwise. Note that $\Delta S_i[j][k]$ is a redundant variable which is equal to $\Delta K_i[j][k]$. So, we add the following constraint:

$$\forall \delta S_i[j][k] \in KSBytes, \Delta K_i[j][k] = \Delta S_i[j][k].$$

We introduce this redundant variable because at the byte level this equality no longer holds, *i.e.*, $\delta K_i[j][k] = A \not\Rightarrow \delta S_i[j][k] = S(A)$, and for the V sets defined below we reason at the byte level.

We exploit the fact that each differential byte of K_i is the result of a **XOR** between a finite set of bytes. We first build, for each $i \in [1, r]$, and $j, k \in [0, 3]$, the set $V(i, j, k)$ of all differential bytes (coming either from δK_0 or from $KSBytes$), such that:

$$\delta K_i[j][k] = \bigoplus_{\delta A \in V(i, j, k)} \delta A.$$

For example, for AES-128, $V(1, 0, 0) = \{\delta K_0[0][0], \delta S_0[1][3]\}$.

Note that these sets are computed before the search and do not depend on the initial values of plaintexts and keys.

For each of these sets, we introduce a set variable which contains the corresponding boolean variables which are equal to 1:

$$V_1(i, j, k) = \{\Delta A \mid \delta A \in V(i, j, k) \wedge \Delta A = 1\}.$$

For example, if $\Delta K_0[1][1] = 1$ and $\Delta S_1[3][2] = 0$, then $V_1(2, 1, 1) = \{\Delta K_0[1][1]\}$.

Whenever two differential key bytes $\delta K_{i_1}[j_1][k_1]$ and $\delta K_{i_2}[j_2][k_2]$ have the same V_1 sets, then we may infer that $\delta K_{i_1}[j_1][k_1] = \delta K_{i_2}[j_2][k_2]$. More precisely, we define the constraint:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall i_1, i_2 \in [1, r], \forall j_1, j_2, k_1, k_2 \in [0, 3] : (V_1(i_1, j_1, k_1) = V_1(i_2, j_2, k_2)) \\ \Rightarrow (EQ_{\delta K_{i_1}[j_1][k_1], \delta K_{i_2}[j_2][k_2]} = 1). \end{aligned}$$

Also, if $V_1(i, j, k)$ is empty (resp. contains one or two elements), we infer that $\Delta K_i[j][k]$ is equal to 0 (resp. a variable, or a **XOR** between 2 variables). More precisely, we define the constraints: $\forall i \in [1, r], \forall j, k \in [0, 3]$,

$$\begin{aligned} V_1(i, j, k) = \emptyset &\Rightarrow \Delta K_i[j][k] = 0 \\ V_1(i, j, k) = \{\Delta A\} &\Rightarrow \Delta K_i[j][k] = 1 \wedge EQ_{\delta K_i[j][k], \delta A} = 1 \\ V_1(i, j, k) = \{\Delta A, \Delta B\} &\Rightarrow \text{XOR}(\Delta A, \Delta B, \Delta K_i[j][k]). \end{aligned}$$

2.4 CP_{Class} : New CP model for Step 1

CP_{EQ} has much less byte-inconsistent solutions than CP_{Basic} and, therefore, it is much more efficient. However, for large numbers of rounds r and/or key length l , the solution process may become too time-consuming. In this section, we describe a new CP model which is more efficient, *i.e.*, it allows CP solvers to find solutions quicker.

Variables. In this new model, we keep all boolean variables ΔA associated with differential bytes (as defined in Section 2.2). However, we do not use equality variables $EQ_{\delta A, \delta B}$ (as defined in Section 2.3). Instead, we introduce an integer variable $Class_{\delta A}$ for each boolean variable ΔA : $Class_{\delta A}$ represents the equivalence class of all boolean variables whose associated differential bytes are equal

to δA . In other words, given two boolean variables ΔA and ΔB associated with two differential bytes δA and δB , respectively, the two integer variables $Class_{\delta A}$ and $Class_{\delta B}$ are equal if and only if $\delta A = \delta B$. The domain of each integer variable $Class_{\delta A}$ is $D(Class_{\delta A}) = [0, 255]$, as there are 256 equivalence classes at the byte level.

Constraints. We keep all constraints of CP_{Basic} : They ensure that the boolean variables satisfy the AES transformation rules.

We enforce the equivalence class 0 to correspond to all boolean variables assigned to 0: For each boolean variable ΔA , we add the constraint

$$(\Delta A = 0) \Leftrightarrow (Class_{\delta A} = 0).$$

We redefine the XOR constraint to propagate the fact that, whenever one of the three boolean variables is equal to 0, then the differential bytes associated with the two other boolean variables belong to the same equivalence class:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{XOR}(\Delta A, \Delta B, \Delta C) \Leftrightarrow & ((\Delta A + \Delta B + \Delta C \neq 1) \\ & \wedge ((Class_{\delta A} = Class_{\delta B}) \Leftrightarrow (\Delta C = 0)) \\ & \wedge ((Class_{\delta A} = Class_{\delta C}) \Leftrightarrow (\Delta B = 0)) \\ & \wedge ((Class_{\delta B} = Class_{\delta C}) \Leftrightarrow (\Delta A = 0))). \end{aligned}$$

We add a constraint to break symmetries due to the fact that equivalence classes may be swapped. For example, if we have two equivalence classes such that, for each differential byte δA in the first (resp. second) class, the variable $Class_{\delta A}$ is assigned to 1 (resp. 2), then we may obtain a symmetric solution (which models the same equivalence classes) by exchanging 1 and 2. To break these symmetries (that slow down the solution process), we use a *precede* constraint that enforces an order on the equivalence classes (see [LL04] for more details).

Finally, all constraints of CP_{EQ} that have been introduced in Section 2.3 to remove byte-inconsistent solutions are modified to handle equivalence class variables instead of equality variables: Each time a constraint uses an equality variable $EQ_{\delta A, \delta B}$, we replace it by a comparison of $Class_{\delta A}$ and $Class_{\delta B}$ (as $EQ_{\delta A, \delta B}$ is equivalent to $Class_{\delta A} = Class_{\delta B}$).

2.5 CP model for Step 2

Given a boolean solution for Step 1 (computed with CP_{Class} , for example), Step 2 aims at searching for the byte-consistent solution with the highest differential probability (or proving that there is no byte-consistent solution). In this section, we describe the CP model introduced in [GMS16] for AES-128, extended to AES-192 and AES-256 in a rather straightforward way.

Variables. For each boolean variable ΔA of Step 1, we define an integer variable δA . The domain of this integer variable depends on the value of the boolean

variable in the Step 1 solution: If $\Delta A = 0$, then the domain is $D(\delta A) = \{0\}$ (*i.e.*, δA is also assigned to 0); otherwise, the domain is $D(\delta A) = [1, 255]$.

For each byte that passes through an S-Box, *i.e.*, $\forall A \in Sboxes_l$, we define an integer variable δS_A which corresponds to the difference after the S-box. Its domain is $D(\delta S_A) = \{0\}$ if ΔA is assigned to 0 in the Step 1 solution; Otherwise, it is $D(\delta S_A) = [1, 255]$.

Finally, as we look for a byte-consistent solution with maximal probability, we also add an integer variable P_A for each byte $A \in Sboxes_l$: This variable corresponds to the base 2 logarithm of the probability $\Pr(\delta A \rightarrow \delta S_A)$ of obtaining the S-box output difference δS_A when the S-box input difference is δA . The domain of these variables depends on the value of the boolean variable in the Step 1 solution: If $\Delta A = 0$, then $\Pr(0 \rightarrow 0) = 1$ and therefore $D(P_A) = \{0\}$; otherwise, $\Pr(\delta A \rightarrow \delta S_A) \in \{\frac{2}{256}, \frac{4}{256}\}$ and $D(P_A) = \{-7, -6\}$ (we forbid couples $(\delta A, \delta S_A)$ such that $\Pr(\delta A \rightarrow \delta S_A) = 0$).

Constraints. The constraints basically follow the AES operations to relate variables, as described in Section 2.2 for Step 1, but consider the definition of the operations at the byte level, instead of the boolean level.

A main difference is that the **SubBytes** operation, which has no effect at the boolean level, must be modeled at the byte level. This is done thanks to a ternary table constraint which extensively lists all triples (X, Y, P) such that there exists two bytes B_1 and B_2 whose difference before and after passing through S-Boxes is equal to X and Y , respectively, and such that P is the probability of this transformation: For all $A \in Sboxes_l$, we add the constraint

$$(\delta A, \delta S_A, P_A) \in \{(X, Y, P) \mid \exists (B_1, B_2) \in [0, 255] \times [0, 255], X = B_1 \oplus B_2, \\ Y = S(B_1) \oplus S(B_2), P = \log_2(\Pr(X \rightarrow Y))\}.$$

All other constraints are defined in a rather straightforward way, using table constraints.

Objective function. The goal is to find a byte-consistent solution with maximal differential probability. As we consider logarithms, this amount to searching for a solution that maximizes the sum of all P_A variables. Hence, we introduce an integer variable obj_{Step2} which is constrained to be equal to the sum of all P_A variables:

$$obj_{Step2} = \sum_{A \in Sboxes_l} P_A$$

and we define the objective function as the maximization of obj_{Step2} . The domain of obj_{Step2} is derived from the solution of Step 1, *i.e.*, the value of obj_{Step1} : $D(obj_{Step2}) = [-7 \cdot obj_{Step1}, -6 \cdot obj_{Step1}]$

Ordering heuristics. We have used the following heuristic to define the order for assigning variables during the search: We first assign $\delta X_i[j][k]$ variables such that the total number of active S-boxes in the ΔX matrix at round i is minimal, *i.e.*, such that $\sum_{j,k \in [0,3]} \Delta X_i[j][k]$ is minimal.

3 Experimental results

In Section 3.1, we describe the CP solvers used to solve our CP models. In Section 3.2, we evaluate scale-up properties of these solvers on our models, and show that CP is able to solve many instances in less than 24 hours. However, some instances are more challenging and cannot be solved in less than 24 hours. In Section 3.3, we show how to decompose these instances into independent subproblems, in such a way that they may be solved within a reasonable amount of time using several computers.

3.1 CP solvers

The CP models for Step 1 (described in Sections 2.2, 2.3, and 2.4) have been implemented with MiniZinc [NSB⁺07], a high-level modeling language. Many CP solvers accept MiniZinc models, such as Gecode [Gec06], Choco [PFL16], Chuffed [CS14], or Picat [ZKF15]. In Section 3.2, we report experimental results obtained with Chuffed, which has been shown to have better scale-up properties than Gecode and Choco in [GMS16].

The CP model for Step 2 (described in Section 2.5) has been implemented using the Java CP library Choco 3. As this implementation is able to solve all instances within a reasonable amount of time, we have not tried to solve it with other solvers.

Finally, in Section 3.3, we have used Picat and Chuffed to solve the subproblems (obtained after decomposition of the hard instances).

The MiniZinc implementation of CP_{Class} for Step 1 and the Choco 3 implementation of Step 2 are available as auxiliary supporting material, joined to the submission. If the paper is accepted, they will be publicly available on a website. All the solvers we have used (*i.e.*, Choco, Chuffed, and Picat) are open-source softwares and are publicly available.

3.2 Evaluation of scale-up properties

In this section, we evaluate scale-up properties of the CP_{EQ} and CP_{Class} models for Step 1, and the CP model for Step 2. All runs have been done on a 3.5 GHz i7-4710MQ processor with 8 gigabytes of memory, and CPU times are reported in seconds. We report CPU times only if the instance has been solved in less than 24 hours: Instances that are not solved within this time limit have been decomposed into independent subproblems that have been solved in parallel, as explained in Section 3.3.

We do not report experimental results obtained with CP_{Basic} as it does not scale at all, due to the fact that it has too many solutions which are not byte-consistent. For example, for AES-128 with $r = 4$ rounds, we find more than 90 millions of boolean solutions with CP_{Basic} when setting the number of active S-boxes to $obj_{Step1} = 11$. However, none of these solutions is byte-consistent. When using CP_{EQ} or CP_{Class} , all these solutions are discarded thanks to the new constraints: With these models, the smallest number of active S-boxes is

$obj_{Step1} = 12$, and there are 8 different boolean solutions with 12 active S-boxes, among which 2 are byte-consistent.

Table 2 reports results for a number of rounds ranging from 3 to 5, 11, and 14, for AES-128, AES-192, and AES-256, respectively. Beyond those round numbers, the number of active S-boxes becomes too large implying that the search complexity linked with the associated probability is greater than the key exhaustive search.

For each number of rounds r , we search for the optimal boolean solution, and obj_{Step1} gives the number of active S-boxes in this optimal solution. We report the CPU time needed to enumerate all boolean solutions with this number of active S-boxes (if it is smaller than 24 hours). If none of these boolean solutions is byte-consistent, we search for the optimal boolean solution with a higher number of active S-boxes (as explained in paragraph *Objective function* of Section 2.2). For example, for AES-192 with $r = 7$ rounds, the optimal boolean solution has $obj_{Step1} = 11$ active S-boxes, and there are 2 solutions with 11 active S-boxes. However, none of these 2 solutions is byte-consistent. When adding the constraint $obj_{Step1} > 11$, the optimal boolean solution has $obj_{Step1} = 13$ active S-boxes, and there are 7 solutions with 13 active S-boxes, among which 4 are byte-consistent. Finally, the optimal byte-consistent solution has a probability equal to 2^{-78} .

Table 2 shows us that, for Step 1, CP_{Class} is more quickly solved by Chuffed than CP_{EQ} . This comes from the fact that CP_{EQ} introduces a quadratic number of boolean EQ variables (one for each couple of differential bytes), whereas CP_{Class} only introduces a linear number of integer variables (one for each differential byte). However, the largest instances (when the number of rounds is greater than 8 for AES-192 and greater than 9 for AES-256) cannot be solved within a CPU time limit of 24 hours.

For Step 2, Table 2 shows us that the CP solver Choco is always able to quickly find the optimal byte-consistent solution for a given boolean solution. The largest time is 326 seconds (*i.e.*, less than 6 minutes), for AES-256 with $r = 13$ and $obj_{Step1} = 24$. However, this must be done for each boolean solution. Therefore, when the number of boolean solutions is large, the total time spent to find the optimal probability may become rather important. This is the case for AES-192 with $r = 10$ and $obj_{Step1} = 29$: As there are 29678 boolean solutions, and the average time to find the optimal byte-consistent solution for a boolean solution is 180 seconds, the total time for finding the optimal probability is 60 days. Of course, this may be done in parallel for each boolean solution.

3.3 Decomposition of large instances into independent subproblems

For the largest instances of AES-192 and AES-256, the CPU time of Chuffed with CP_{Class} exceeds the limit of 24 hours. In this case, we have sped-up the solving process by decomposing each instance into independent subproblems that have been solved on different computers in parallel. The decomposition of an instance into independent subproblems has been done with respect to the positions of the differences in the ciphering part (*i.e.*, ΔX_i matrices) in the r rounds. To this

AES-128

r	obj_{Step1}	Step 1			Step 2		
		time		# boolean	# byte	time	Pr
		CP_{EQ}	CP_{Class}				
3	5	1	1	4	2	3	2^{-31}
4	12	114	81	8	2	5	2^{-79}
5	17	2799	2049	1236	97	248	2^{-105}

AES-192

r	obj_{Step1}	Step 1			Step 2		
		time		# boolean	# byte	time	Pr
		CP_{EQ}	CP_{Class}				
3	1	0	0	15	15	1	2^{-6}
4	4	2	1	4	4	2	2^{-24}
5	5	12	6	2	2	4	2^{-30}
6	10	573	298	6	6	4	2^{-60}
7	11	2108	988	2	0	8	
7	13	5833	2999	7	4	8	2^{-78}
8	16	44436	24619	4	0	19	
8	18	-	81073	19	9	19	2^{-108}
9	24	-	-	240	13	36	2^{-146}
10	29	-	-	29678	34	180	2^{-176}
11	30	-	-	92	0	93	
11	31	-	-	2436	0	110	

AES-256

r	obj_{Step1}	Step 1			Step 2		
		time		# boolean	# byte	time	Pr
		CP_{EQ}	CP_{Class}				
3	1	0	0	33	33	1	2^{-6}
4	3	0	0	14	14	3	2^{-18}
5	3	2	1	4	4	4	2^{-18}
6	5	30	16	3	3	10	2^{-30}
7	5	58	34	1	1	14	2^{-30}
8	10	2894	1722	3	1	25	2^{-60}
9	14	40064	21972	2	0	12	
9	15	85465	49138	16	16	60	2^{-92}
10	16	-	-	4	4	106	2^{-98}
11	20	-	-	4	4	115	2^{-122}
12	20	-	-	4	4	238	2^{-122}
13	24	-	-	4	4	326	2^{-146}
14	24	-	-	4	4	150	2^{-146}

Table 2: Experimental results for AES-128, AES-192, and AES-256. Each line successively displays the number of rounds r , the results of Step 1 (number of active S-boxes in boolean solutions obj_{Step1} , CPU time in seconds to enumerate all boolean solutions with this number of active S-boxes with CP_{EQ} and CP_{Class} , respectively, and number of boolean solutions # boolean), and the results of Step 2 (number of byte-consistent solutions # byte, average CPU time in seconds to find the optimal byte-consistent solution for one boolean solution, and probability of the optimal byte-consistent solution). '-' means that the CPU time is greater than 24 hours (see Section 3.3).

aim, we introduce r new integer variables, called $SumX_i$ with $i \in [0, r - 1]$, and we add the constraint:

$$\forall i \in [0, r - 1] : SumX_i = \sum_{j,k \in [0,3]} \Delta X_i[j][k]$$

thus ensuring that $SumX_i$ is equal to the number of differences in the ciphering part at round i . The domain of these new variables is $D(SumX_i) = [0, 16]$.

Then, given the CP model M of an instance of AES-192 or AES-256 with r rounds (including the $SumX_i$ variables), we create $r + 2$ subproblems as follows:

- We create a first subproblem M_0 by adding to M the following constraint:

$$\forall i \in [0, r - 1] : SumX_i > 0.$$

This constraint ensures that, for each round $i \in [0, r - 1]$, there is at least one active S-box in ΔX_i .

- We create r subproblems, called $M_{1:i}$ with $i \in [0, r - 1]$, where each subproblem $M_{1:i}$ is obtained by adding to M the following constraint:

$$(SumX_i = 0) \wedge (\forall i' \in [0, r - 1] : i \neq i' \Rightarrow SumX_{i'} > 0).$$

This constraint ensures that there is no active S-box in ΔX_i , whereas there is at least one active S-box in every other $\Delta X_{i'}$ with $i' \neq i$.

- We create a last subproblem, called $M_{\geq 2}$ by adding to M the following constraint:

$$|\{i \in [0, r - 1] : SumX_i = 0\}| \geq 2.$$

This constraint ensures that there exist as least two different rounds with no active S-boxes in the ciphering part.

Obviously, each solution sol of the initial problem M is a solution of exactly one of these $r + 2$ subproblems: sol satisfies the constraints of exactly one subproblem as the number of rounds with no active S-box in the ciphering part of sol is either 0 (*i.e.*, sol is a solution of M_0), 1 (*i.e.*, sol is a solution of $M_{1:i}$ where i is the round of sol such that $SumX_i = 0$), or 2 or more (*i.e.*, sol is a solution of $M_{\geq 2}$). Furthermore, a solution of any subproblem of M is necessarily a solution of M as each subproblem is obtained by adding a constraint to M .

Therefore, we may compute the set of solutions of M by solving each subproblem independently. Also, the optimal solution of M may be obtained by selecting the best solution, among the optimal solutions of each subproblem.

We have decomposed each instance of AES-192 and AES-256 which has not been solved within the CPU time limit of 24 hours. For each subproblem, we have first used the Picat solver [ZKF15] to decide whether the subproblem contains solutions or not (and, if the problem has solutions, to enumerate the values of the $SumX_i$ variables for which there are solutions). Then, if the subproblem contains solutions, we have used the Chuffed solver [CS14] to enumerate all these solutions, given the values of the $SumX_i$ variables computed by Picat. Indeed,

	M_0	$M_{1:0}$	$M_{1:1}$	$M_{1:2}$	$M_{1:3}$	$M_{1:4}$	$M_{1:5}$	$M_{1:6}$	$M_{1:7}$	$M_{1:8}$	$M_{1:9}$	$M_{\geq 2}$	Total
Time Picat	10850	3795	5072	4889	1193	917	741	3787	2716	736	5326	83580	123602
Time Chuffed	-	-	-	-	-	16	-	-	395	30	-	12	453
# boolean	0	0	0	0	0	112	0	0	29538	2	0	26	29678

Table 3: Results of the decomposition of the hardest instance (AES-192 with $r = 10$ and $obj_{Step1} = 29$) in 12 subproblems: CPU time (in seconds) spent by Picat to decide whether the subproblem contains solutions or not, CPU time (in seconds) spent by Chuffed to enumerate all solutions for the subproblems that have solutions, and number of boolean solutions for each subproblem.

on these more challenging instances, we have noticed that Picat is more efficient than Chuffed to decide if a subproblem has solutions or not, whereas Chuffed is more efficient than Picat to enumerate all the solutions of the subproblems which have solutions.

Each subproblem has been solved independently, on different computers, and we do not report detailed CPU times for each of these subproblems. Table 3 only reports results for AES-192 with $r = 10$ rounds and $obj_{Step1} = 29$ active S-boxes. Indeed, this instance revealed to be the hardest one, among all instances of AES-192 and AES-256. This may come from the fact that it has many boolean solutions (29678). For each subproblem, Table 3 reports the CPU time spent by Picat to decide whether it has solutions or not, the CPU time spent by Chuffed to enumerate all solutions (if the subproblem has solutions), and the number of solutions. The total CPU time to solve this instance, obtained by adding the solving time of all subproblems by Picat and Chuffed, is 124,055 seconds, *i.e.*, less than 35 hours (and this is the largest CPU time needed to solve an instance, for all AES-192 and AES-256 instances).

4 Using CP to check the consistency of existing solutions

CP may be used to compute solutions, as shown in Section 3. In this Section, we show that it may also be used to check that existing solutions (computed with other approaches, for example) are consistent, *i.e.*, they actually satisfy all the constraints. Using CP to achieve this task is very easy: We simply have to reduce the domain of each variable that occurs in the solution to a singleton $\{v\}$, where v is the value assigned to the variable in the solution.

When a solution is not consistent with the model (*i.e.*, some constraints are violated), the CP solver detects the inconsistency. In this case, it may be useful to have an explanation of the inconsistency, that allows the user to understand why the solution is not consistent. Many CP solvers (such as Choco [PFL16]) are able to provide this kind of explanations: An explanation is a subset of decisions applied during the search which justifies an inference made by the solver. They are often used to improve the solution process by learning from failures. In our

case, they may be used to understand why a solution is inconsistent, *i.e.*, identify a subset of constraints which are in contradiction with the solution.

Using these principles, we analyze the related-key differential trail for AES-192 with 11 rounds and 31 active S-boxes given on page 20 (Fig. 2, right part) of [BDK⁺10]. We first notice that the solution satisfies the constraints of CP_{Basic} , *i.e.*, it satisfies the basic AES transformation rules. However, some constraints of CP_{EQ} (or CP_{Class} , equivalently) are not satisfied by this solution: The violated constraints are those that exploit the key schedule to define equalities between some differential bytes of the subkeys (see the paragraph *Constraints derived from KeySchedule* in Section 2.3).

More precisely, for $K_3[0][3]$, we have:

$$V(3, 0, 3) = \{\delta K_0[0][1], \delta K_0[0][3], \delta S_2[1][3]\}.$$

In other words, $\delta K_3[0][3] = \delta K_0[0][1] \oplus \delta K_0[0][3] \oplus (S(K_2[1][3]) \oplus S(K'_2[1][3]))$, by definition of the KS. Also, for $K_4[0][1]$, we have:

$$V(4, 0, 1) = \{\delta K_0[0][1], \delta K_0[0][3], \delta K_1[0][1], \delta S_2[1][3]\}.$$

In other words, $\delta K_4[0][1] = \delta K_0[0][1] \oplus \delta K_0[0][3] \oplus \delta K_1[0][1] \oplus (S(K_2[1][3]) \oplus S(K'_2[1][3]))$, by definition of the KS.

In the solution of [BDK⁺10], the variable $\delta K_1[0][1]$ is set to 0, whereas all other variables of $V(3, 0, 3)$ and $V(4, 0, 1)$ are set to 1. As a consequence, the set variables $V_1(3, 0, 3)$ and $V_1(4, 0, 1)$ are both assigned to

$$V_1(3, 0, 3) = V_1(4, 0, 1) = \{\Delta K_0[0][1], \Delta K_0[0][3], \Delta S_2[1][3]\}.$$

This equality is propagated by the constraint

$$\begin{aligned} \forall i_1, i_2 \in [1, r], \forall j_1, j_2, k_1, k_2 \in [0, 3] : & (V_1(i_1, j_1, k_1) = V_1(i_2, j_2, k_2)) \\ & \Rightarrow (EQ_{\delta K_{i_1}[j_1][k_1], \delta K_{i_2}[j_2][k_2]} = 1), \end{aligned}$$

to infer that $EQ_{\delta K_3[0][3], \delta K_4[0][1]} = 1$, *i.e.*, that $\delta K_3[0][3] = \delta K_4[0][1]$.

However, in the solution of [BDK⁺10], we have $\delta K_3[0][3] = 0$ and $\delta K_4[0][1] \neq 0$. This contradiction is detected by the CP solver.

Note that this contradiction holds for the whole column, *i.e.*, $\forall j \in [0, 3]$, $\delta K_3[j][3] = 0$ and $\delta K_4[j][1] \neq 0$ in the solution whereas the set variables $V_1(3, j, 3)$ and $V_1(4, j, 1)$ are equal, thus entailing a contradiction.

5 From related-key differentials to related-key attacks

In this Section, we summarize the new AES related-key differential paths that we have computed with CP, and describe new basic related-key attacks, related-key distinguishers and q -multicollisions that we are able to mount by using them for AES-192 and AES-256.

5.1 AES-128

Using CP, we retrieve all the results provided in [BN10,FJP13,GMS16] for 3, 4, and 5 rounds of AES-128. As already pointed out in the introduction and as shown in Table 2, for four rounds, the minimum number of active S-boxes is 12 (instead of 13 as claimed in [BN10,FJP13]) leading to a probability equal, at the best, to 2^{-79} (instead of 2^{-81}).

Unfortunately, even if we improve the best solution on 4 rounds, we cannot use this related-key differential trail to improve previous attacks as the best attacks in the related-key and chosen-key models exploit the optimal 5 rounds related-key differential trail.

5.2 AES-192

Summary of related-key differential paths computed with CP. As pointed out in Table 2 for 11 rounds, even if there exist boolean solutions with $obj_{Step1} = 30$ or 31, none of these solutions is byte consistent. The best related-key differential trail is on 10 rounds with 29 active S-boxes and a highest probability equal to 2^{-176} : 2^{-37} coming from the keys and 2^{-139} from the ciphering part. This trail is given in Table 9 of Appendix D. This differential allows us to mount a related-key distinguisher and a basic related-key differential attack as done in [BKN09].

Related-key distinguisher on 10 rounds. Considering the related-key distinguisher model, the probability that the differences correctly propagate through the internal states is $2^{-139} = 2^{-7} \cdot 2^{-22 \cdot 6}$ as we have 23 active S-boxes in the internal states: 22 with probability 2^{-6} and 1 with probability 2^{-7} . It works for 1 out of $2^{37} = 2^{6 \cdot 5} \cdot 2^7$ keys as we have 6 additional active S-boxes in the key schedule: 1 with probability 2^{-7} and the 5 others with probability 2^{-6} . Therefore, the related-key distinguisher has a data/time complexity equal to $2^{176} = 2^{139} \cdot 2^{37}$.

Basic related-key differential attack on 10 rounds. We first change the trail given in Table 9 of Appendix D to get more active S-boxes in the two first rounds to recover the key bytes implied at the input of those S-boxes. The new trail has four active S-boxes in the first round and one in the second round.

Thus, we must find the 5 key bytes $K_0[0][2]$, $K_0[1][3]$, $K_0[2][0]$, $K_0[3][1]$, and $K_1[0][2]$. We use the following procedure for each of the 2^{37} key pairs:

1. Repeat 2^{81} times:
 - (a) Compose two structures of 2^{32} plaintexts with all possible values for the second diagonal. Encrypt the first structure with K and the second one with K' .
 - (b) Sort the ciphertexts and check for a pair with the correct output difference. Save these valid pairs if any.
2. For each of these pairs, derive 2^8 variants for the 5 key bytes. There are 5 S-boxes in the two first rounds for which we know the input and output differences. Therefore, there are $2^5 \cdot 8 = 2^8$ possibilities for the 40 key bits per candidate pair without false alarms.

3. Pick the key candidate with the best occurrence.

The overall complexity of the whole procedure, which is repeated 2^{37} times, is $2^{81+33} = 2^{114}$ in data and time and 2^{33} in memory. We need to repeat 2^{81} times step 1.(a) and 1.(b) to keep on average $2^{81} \cdot 2^{32-109} = 2^4 = 16$ right pairs and 2^{77} wrong pairs and to completely discard false alarms. This gives us 40 key bits. We may also, in a second step, by relaxing the condition of the S-box of the third round gain more information on key bytes in K_1 at a lower cost.

5.3 AES-256

Summary of related-key differentials computed with CP. As reported in Table 2 for 14 rounds, there exist 4 boolean solutions, and each of these boolean solutions is byte-consistent. For each of the first 2 boolean solutions, there are 826 byte solutions (computed in Step 2) among which 3 have a maximal probability of 2^{-154} . For the last 2 boolean solutions, the number of byte solutions is huge (several millions) and represent about 35 GB of data.

The optimal byte solution has a probability of 2^{-146} , and it is given in Table 5 of Appendix B. Note that the one given in [BKN09] has a probability of 2^{-154} to happen and is recalled in Table 4 of Appendix A. We also obtain 43 solutions with a probability of 2^{-147} .

We experimentally checked that the 7 bottom rounds of the AES conform to the expected probability by producing the wanted difference after 2^{30} pairs on average, as predicted by the trail. We also provide in Tables 6, 7 and 8 in Appendix C a pair of keys and two pairs of partial messages that verify the trail.

q-multicollisions. Using this optimized byte consistent differential solution, we are able to improve the attacks proposed in [BKN09]. More precisely, the cost to compute a q -multicollision given in [BKN09] depends on 11 active S-boxes with probability 2^{-67} . With the new trail, we gain a factor 2 on this complexity leading to a time complexity equal to $q \cdot 2^{66}$ encryptions. In the same way, the time complexity to find partial q -multicollisions becomes $q \cdot 2^{36}$ instead of $q \cdot 2^{37}$.

Related-key distinguisher. Considering the related-key distinguisher, the probability that the differences correctly propagate through the internal states is $2^{-19 \cdot 6} = 2^{-114}$ and it works for 1 out of $2^{32} = 2^{14} \cdot 2^{18}$ keys as we have 5 additional active S-boxes: 2 with probability 2^{-7} and 3 with probability 2^{-6} . Hence, the related-key distinguisher has a data/time complexity equal to $2^{146} = 2^{114} \cdot 2^{32}$.

Related-key attack. The related-key attack described in [BKN09] may be directly applied using our new trail. The procedure is about to be the same as the one described for the basic related-key attack given for 10 AES-192 rounds except that the number of key bits tested in the two first rounds is equal to 80 and that for each of the 2^{32} possible key pairs, we need to repeat 2^{28} times the process with two structures of 2^{64} plaintexts. Thus after Step 1, we have on average 4 right pairs, and for each pair we derive 2^{16} possible values for the ten key bytes without false alarms. Thus, the overall complexity of this attack becomes 2^{125} in data and time while testing 2^{32} keys. The required memory is 2^{65} .

6 Conclusion

We have described three CP models for finding difference positions in AES related-key differential characteristics (Step 1). The first two models, CP_{Basic} and CP_{EQ} , are extensions to AES-192 and AES-256 of models initially defined for AES-128 in [MSJ14] and [GMS16], respectively. The third model is new and improves CP_{EQ} by using a more efficient encoding of equality relations at the byte level. We have shown that this new model is twice as fast as CP_{EQ} and allows Chuffed to solve all instances of AES-192 and AES-256 up to 8 and 9 rounds, respectively, in less than 24 hours. For harder instances, we have shown how to decompose them into independent subproblems, thus allowing us to solve Step 1 for all instances of AES-192 and AES-256 in less than 35 hours.

We have also described a CP model for finding the actual values of the differential bytes, given their positions (Step 2). This model is a simple extension to AES-192 and AES-256 of the CP model initially defined for AES-128 in [GMS16].

These CP models are declarative, *i.e.*, they define the problem to solve by means of constraints, but do not specify how to solve it (except from ordering heuristics that give some indications to the solver). As a consequence, they are easier to implement, understand and check than a full program. Actually, these models allowed us to find better related-key differential characteristics than the approaches of [BKN09,FJP13].

These CP models are implemented with the MiniZinc language, and most CP solvers accept MiniZinc models. Also, most of these solvers are open-source and publicly available. The CP community is in permanent search for improving the efficiency of these generic solvers. An obvious advantage of separating the model (that describes the problem to solve) from the solver (that actually solves the problem) is that each time a solver is improved, cryptanalysts may try to model and solve harder problems. This is also a step forward for a more automatic verification of the security of symmetric encryption schemes against this kind of attacks, which might be a clear and practical criteria for determining the future symmetric encryption standard.

Finally, a last question could also be asked: Is there a way to improve the best attacks against AES-256 in the different attacker models merging the big amount of found related-key differential solutions (more than 25 GB!) even if those solutions have lower probabilities than the optimal one?

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A The Related-Key Differential used in [BKN09] against 14 rounds of AES-256

Round	$\delta X_i = X_i \oplus X'_i$				$\delta K_i = K_i \oplus K'_i$				Pr(States)	Pr(Key)
init.	0e070709	0e070709	0e070709	0e070709	0f070709	0e070709	0f070709	0e070709	$2^{-6.2}$	—
$i = 0$	01000000	00000000	01000000	00000000	371f1f21	00000000	371f1f21	00000000	$2^{-7.2}$	—
1	09000000	00000000	09000000	00000000	0f070709	01000000	0e070709	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
2	01000000	01000000	00000000	00000000	371f1f21	371f1f21	00000000	00000000	$2^{-7.2}$	—
3	09000000	09000000	00000000	00000000	0f070709	0e070709	00000000	00000000	2^{-6}	—
4	01000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	371f1f21	00000000	00000000	00000000	2^{-7}	—
5	09000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	0f070709	01000000	01000000	01000000	$2^{-6.4}$	2^{-7}
6	01000000	01000000	01000000	01000000	3e1f1f21	3e1f1f21	3e1f1f21	3e1f1f21	—	$2^{-7.4}$
7	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	01000000	00000000	01000000	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
8	01000000	00000000	01000000	00000000	3e1f1f21	00000000	3e1f1f21	00000000	—	—
9	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	01000000	01000000	00000000	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
10	01000000	01000000	00000000	00000000	3e1f1f21	3e1f1f21	00000000	00000000	—	—
11	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	01000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	2^{-6}	—
12	01000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	3e1f1f21	00000000	00000000	00000000	—	—
13	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	01000000	01000000	01000000	01000000	—	—
End/14	01000000	01000000	01000000	01000000	01000000	01000000	01000000	01000000	—	—

Table 4: The related-key differential described in Appendix A of [BKN09] that happens with a probability 2^{-154} . The four words represent the four columns and are given in hexadecimal notation. We have the relation: $\delta X \oplus \delta K_0 = \delta X_0$.

B Our own Related-Key Differential on 14 Rounds of AES-256

Round	$\delta X_i = X_i \oplus X'_i$				$\delta K_i = K_i \oplus K'_i$				Pr(States)	Pr(Key)
init.	addbdb76	addbdb76	addbdb76	addbdb76	c4dbdb76	addbdb76	c4dbdb76	addbdb76	$2^{-6.2}$	—
$i = 0$	69000000	00000000	69000000	00000000	b59a9ab5	00000000	b59a9ab5	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
1	9a000000	00000000	9a000000	00000000	c4dbdb76	69000000	addbdb76	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
2	69000000	69000000	00000000	00000000	b59a9ab5	b59a9ab5	00000000	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
3	9a000000	9a000000	00000000	00000000	c4dbdb76	addbdb76	00000000	00000000	2^{-6}	—
4	69000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	b59a9ab5	00000000	00000000	00000000	2^{-6}	—
5	9a000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	c4dbdb76	69000000	69000000	69000000	$2^{-6.4}$	2^{-6}
6	69000000	69000000	69000000	69000000	2f9a9ab5	2f9a9ab5	2f9a9ab5	2f9a9ab5	—	$2^{-7.2} \times 2^{-6.2}$
7	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	69000000	00000000	69000000	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
8	69000000	00000000	69000000	00000000	2f9a9ab5	00000000	2f9a9ab5	00000000	—	—
9	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	69000000	69000000	00000000	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
10	69000000	69000000	00000000	00000000	2f9a9ab5	2f9a9ab5	00000000	00000000	—	—
11	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	69000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	2^{-6}	—
12	69000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	2f9a9ab5	00000000	00000000	00000000	—	—
13	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	69000000	69000000	69000000	69000000	—	—
End/14	69000000	69000000	69000000	69000000	69000000	69000000	69000000	69000000	—	—

Table 5: Our own related-key differential that happens with a probability 2^{-146} . The four words represent the four columns and are given in hexadecimal notation. We have the relation: $\delta X \oplus \delta K_0 = \delta X_0$.

C Verification of our own solution

We derive two pairs of messages/keys that verify our trail in the following way. After having chosen the pair of keys, the first pair of messages verifies the differential trail between the round 6 and the end starting numbering the round by 0 and the second pair of messages verifies the differential trail between the round 6 and the end of round 2.

Let us first specify the key pair:

K	f763a263 f263a263 f463a263 00000000 63636363 63636363 63636363 0017001a
K'	33b87915 5fb87915 30b87915 addbdb76 d6f9f9d6 63636363 63636363 0017001a
$\delta K = K \oplus K'$	c4dbdb76 addbdb76 c4dbdb76 addbdb76 b59a9ab5 00000000 b59a9ab5 00000000

Table 6: The used key pair. The eight words represent the eight columns of the keys.

X_6	00020202 00d70202 00c56902 0002022d
X'_6	69020202 69d70202 69c56902 6902022d
$\delta X_6 = X_6 \oplus X'_6$	69000000 69000000 69000000 69000000

Table 7: The pair of messages verifying the path between rounds numbered 6 to the end. The four words represent the four columns.

X_6	00100202 00020902 00a20c02 000202c4
X'_6	69100202 69020902 69a20c02 690202c4
$\delta X_6 = X_6 \oplus X'_6$	69000000 69000000 69000000 69000000

Table 8: The pair of messages verifying in the backward direction the path between rounds numbered 6 to the end of round 2. The four words represent the four columns.

D Our own Related-Key Differential on 10 Rounds of AES-192

Round	$\delta X_i = X_i \oplus X'_i$				$\delta K_i = K_i \oplus K'_i$				Pr(States)	Pr(Key)
init.	c816ad91	dc02027a	d8000000	00000000	10160e91	04020200	d8000000	00000000	$2^{-6.4}$	—
$i = 0$	d800a300	d800007a	00000000	00000000	04020206	04020206	04020200	00000000	2^{-7}	$2^{-7} \times 2^{-6.3}$
1	00000000	00000000	d4000000	00000000	d8000000	d8000000	dc020206	d8000000	$2^{-6.4}$	2^{-6}
2	d8000000	d8000000	d8000000	d8000000	04020206	04020206	dc020206	04020206	2^{-6}	—
3	00000000	00000000	d8000000	00000000	d8000000	00000000	04020206	00000000	2^{-6}	—
4	d8000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	dc020206	d8000000	00000000	00000000	$2^{-6.2}$	—
5	d8000000	d8000000	00000000	00000000	04020206	04020206	d8000000	00000000	2^{-6}	—
6	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	04020206	00000000	—	—
7	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000	d8000000	d8000000	d8000000	d8000000	$2^{-6.4}$	2^{-6}
8	d8000000	d8000000	d8000000	d8000000	04020204	04020204	dc020204	04020204	$2^{-6.5}$	—
9	00000002	00000002	d8000002	00000002	d8000000	d8000000	d8000000	d8000000	—	—
End/10	d8000400	06000400	????????	????????	dc020204	04020204	????????	????????	—	—

Table 9: Our related-key differential on 10 rounds of AES-192 that happens with a probability 2^{-176} . The four words represent the four columns and are given in hexadecimal notation. We have the relation: $\delta X \oplus \delta K_0 = \delta X_0$.