Key Committing Attacks against AES-based AEAD Schemes

Patrick Derbez¹, Pierre-Alain Fouque¹, Takanori Isobe², Mostafizar Rahman² and André Schrottenloher¹

¹ Univ Rennes, Inria, Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS), Institut de Recherche en Informatique et Systèmes Aléatoires (IRISA), Rennes, France patrick.derbez@irisa.fr, pierre-alain.fouque@irisa.fr, andre.schrottenloher@inria.fr

² University of Hyogo, Kobe, Japan takanori.isobe@ai.u-hyogo.ac.jp, mrahman454@gmail.com

Abstract. Recently, there has been a surge of interest in the security of authenticated encryption with associated data (AEAD) within the context of key commitment frameworks. Security within this framework ensures that a ciphertext chosen by an adversary does not decrypt to two different sets of key, nonce, and associated data. Despite this increasing interest, the security of several widely deployed AEAD schemes has not been thoroughly examined within this framework. In this work, we assess the key committing security of several AEAD schemes. First, the AEGIS family, which emerged as a winner in the Competition for Authenticated Encryption: Security, Applicability, and Robustness (CAESAR), and has been proposed to standardization at the IETF. A now outdated version of the draft standard suggested that AEGIS could qualify as a fully committing AEAD scheme; we prove that it is not the case by proposing a novel attack applicable to all variants, which has been experimentally verified. We also exhibit a key committing attack on Rocca-S. Our attacks are executed within the FROB game setting, which is known to be one of the most stringent key committing frameworks. This implies that they remain valid in other, more relaxed frameworks, such as CMT-1, CMT-4, and so forth. Finally, we show that applying the same attack techniques to Rocca and Tiaoxin-346 does not compromise their key-committing security. This observation provides valuable insights into the design of such secure round update functions for AES-based AEAD schemes.

Keywords: AEGIS · Key Commitment · Rocca-S · Rocca · Tiaoxin-346 · AEAD

1 Introduction

Authenticated Encryption (AE) is a cryptographic technique that combines encryption and message authentication codes (MACs) to provide both confidentiality and integrity for data. It ensures that not only is the information kept secret from unauthorized parties, but also that it has not been tampered with during transit. AEGIS, proposed by Wu and Preneel [\[WP13a\]](#page-19-0), is one such scheme and its variant AEGIS-128 emerged as one of the winning candidates of the Competition for Authenticated Encryption: Security, Applicability, and Robustness (CAESAR) [\[Cae19\]](#page-17-0) for high performance computing applications.

The traditional focus of designers in authenticated encryption with associated data (AEAD) has been on ensuring the security aspects of confidentiality and ciphertext integrity. However, it has been observed in recent years that the previously established notions of confidentiality and integrity may not suffice in various contexts. Among the additional

properties explored is the concept of *key commitment*, an area that has received relatively less attention.

Key commitment assures that a ciphertext *C* can only be decrypted using the same key that was originally used to derive *C* from some plaintext. Schemes that allow finding a ciphertext that decrypts to valid plaintexts under two different keys do not adhere to the principle of key commitment. The issue of non-key-committing AEAD was initially highlighted in scenarios such as moderation within encrypted messaging [\[DGRW18,](#page-18-0) [GLR17\]](#page-18-1). Subsequently, it surfaced in various applications including password-based encryption [\[LGR21\]](#page-18-2), password-based key exchange [\[LGR21\]](#page-18-2), key rotation schemes $[ADG^+22]$ $[ADG^+22]$, and envelope encryption [\[ADG](#page-17-1)⁺22].

In even more recent times, there have been new propositions [\[CR22,](#page-17-2) [BH22\]](#page-17-3) introducing definitions that focus on committing to not only the key, but also the associated data and nonce. Although there have been suggestions for novel schemes $[CR22, ADG^+22]$ $[CR22, ADG^+22]$ $[CR22, ADG^+22]$ $[CR22, ADG^+22]$ that align with these diverse definitions, uncertainties persist regarding which existing AEAD schemes actually implement this commitment, and in what manner. Furthermore, several crucial and widely-used AEAD schemes lack demonstrated commitment results. Recently, commitment attacks have been mounted on several widely deployed AEAD schemes, like CCM, GCM, OCB3, etc. [\[MLGR23\]](#page-18-3).

Contributions. In this work, we assess the key committing security of AEGIS (all its variants) and the other similar AEAD scheme Rocca-S.

A recent assertion has been made suggesting that there are no known attacks on AEGIS in the key committing settings [\[DL\]](#page-18-4) and AEGIS qualifies as a fully committing AEAD scheme [\[MST23a,](#page-18-5) [MST23b\]](#page-19-1). The challenge of attacking the key committing security of AEGIS is also acknowledged as an open problem in [\[Kö22\]](#page-18-6). In [\[DL\]](#page-18-4), it is claimed that finding a collision on a 128-bit tag for variants of AEGIS requires about 2^{64} computations, while for a 256-bit tag, it requires 2^{128} computations. These claims are made under the assumption that AEGIS is fully committing. However, contrary to all these claims, we demonstrate the ability to execute a key committing attack within the FROB game setting [\[FOR17\]](#page-18-7), which is known to be one of the most stringent key committing frameworks. Thus, we are able to find collisions on tags with a complexity of $O(1)$. This implies that our attacks are also valid in other, more relaxed frameworks, such as CMT-1, CMT-4, and so forth. We also demonstrate a key committing attack against Rocca-S with a complexity of 2^{64} . Note that the previous IETF version of Rocca-S claimed key committing security [\[NFI23a\]](#page-19-2) while the current IETF version [\[NFI23b\]](#page-19-3) and conference version of Rocca-S [\[ABC](#page-17-4)⁺23] do not claim any such security. The attacks presented in this work, along with their respective complexities, are summarized in Table [1.](#page-2-0)

All our attacks exploit the processing of the associated data (AD) as follows. We choose a nonce and key K, N . After the initialization phase of the mode, the internal state becomes a known but uncontrolled value *S*. We show that, by choosing an appropriate sequence of AD blocks, we can bring the internal state to a fixed value; or at least, a partially fixed value, therefore making collisions immediate or more probable. Once such a collision for a pair $((K_1, N_1, AD_1), (K_2, N_2, AD_2))$ is obtained, we can encrypt any message *M* and the corresponding ciphertext and tag will have a valid decryption both by K_1 and K_2 . Note that the pairs (K_1, N_1) , (K_2, N_2) can be arbitrary, and in particular we can have $N_1 \neq N_2$.

Additionally, we show that our techniques applied to Rocca and Tiaoxin-346 do not lead to an attack compromising their key-commitment security. Note that the key committing security of these two schemes still remains an open question. However, the robustness of these schemes against these attacks provides valuable insights into the design considerations for the round update function in such AES-based AEAD schemes.

AEAD	Tag Size	Generic	Attack	Reference
Scheme	(bits)	Attack Complexity	Complexity	
AEGIS-128	128	2064		
$AEGIS-256$				Sec. 3.2
AEGIS-128L	128/256	$2^{64}/2^{128}$		
Rocca-S	256	2^{128}	2^{64}	Sec. 3.3

Table 1: Comparisons of the proposed attack complexities with their generic complexities

Structure of the Paper. Rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section [2,](#page-2-1) we introduce the notions of AEAD and key committing security, and describe the essential features of the schemes that will be attacked. In Section [3,](#page-5-0) we describe the attacks on AEGIS and Rocca-S. Section [4](#page-12-0) illustrates the resistance of Rocca and Tiaoxin-346 against these attacks and provides insights regarding the secure design of such schemes. Since the attacks on AEGIS are easy to verify experimentally, we provide attack vectors in Section [A.](#page-20-0)

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Committing Authenticated Encryption (AE) Frameworks

Consider a symmetric encryption scheme Σ consisting of encryption and decryption algorithms denoted by Σ_{Enc} and Σ_{Dec} , respectively where

$$
\Sigma_{Enc} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{AD} \times \mathcal{P} \to \mathcal{C},
$$

and

$$
\Sigma_{Dec}: \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{AD} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{P} \cup \{\perp\}.
$$

Here, K, N, AD, P and C refer to the key, nonce, associated data, plaintext/message and ciphertext spaces, respectively. Formally, the above scheme is called as a *nonce based authenticated encryption scheme supporting associated data*, or an nAE scheme.

A committing authenticated encryption (cAE) scheme guarantees the definitive determination of the values of its constituent elements, including the key, nonce, associated data, or message, which are utilized to produce the ciphertext. In the committing AE framework, the adversary tries to construct a ciphertext which can be obtained from two different sets of keys, nonces, associated data and messages. Let, $C_i \leftarrow \Sigma_{Enc}(K_i, N_i, AD_i, P_i)$ where $K_i \in \mathcal{K}, N_i \in \mathcal{N}, AD_i \in AD, P_i \in \mathcal{P}$ and $C_i \in \mathcal{C}$ for $i \in \{1,2\}$. The adversary aims to find C_1 , C_2 such that $C_1 = C_2$ and $(K_1, N_1, AD_1, P_1) \neq (K_2, N_2, AD_2, P_2)$.

Various notions of committing security framework have been introduced [\[FOR17,](#page-18-7) [CR22,](#page-17-2) [BH22\]](#page-17-3). We discuss here some of them. In CMT-1, the ciphertext commits exclusively to the key. In the attack, the adversary must produce $((K_1, N_1, AD_1, P_1), (K_2, N_2, AD_2, P_2))$ such that $K_1 \neq K_2$ and $\Sigma_{Enc}(K_1, N_1, AD_1, P_1) = \Sigma_{Enc}(K_2, N_2, AD_2, P_2)$. CMT-4 relaxes the constraints and allows that the commitment can encompass to any of the inputs of Σ_{Enc} , not just the key. The adversary can breach CMT-4 security by constructing a set $((K_1, N_1, AD_1, P_1), (K_2, N_2, AD_2, P_2))$ such that, $(K_1, N_1, AD_1, P_1) \neq (K_2, N_2, AD_2, P_2)$ and $\Sigma_{Enc}(K_1, N_1, AD_1, P_1) = \Sigma_{Enc}(K_2, N_2, AD_2, P_2)$. Bellare and Hoang introduced CMT-3, which is slightly more restrictive than CMT-4. They replaced the constraint $(K_1, N_1, AD_1, P_1) \neq (K_2, N_2, AD_2, P_2)$ with $(K_1, N_1, AD_1) \neq (K_2, N_2, AD_2)$. The FROB game, initially proposed by Farshim, Orlandi, and Rosie [\[FOR17\]](#page-18-7) and later adapted to the AEAD setting by Grubbs, Lu, and Ristenpart [\[GLR17\]](#page-18-1), is even more restrictive. It requires the condition $N_1 = N_2$ in addition to $K_1 \neq K_2$. It has been demonstrated that

FROB (A)

- 1. $(C, (K_1, N_1, AD_1), (K_2, N_2, AD_2)) \overset{\$}{\leftarrow} A$
- 2. $P_1 \leftarrow \Sigma_{Dec}(K_1, N_1, AD_1, C)$
- 3. $P_2 \leftarrow \Sigma_{Dec}(K_2, N_2, AD_2, C)$
- 4. If $P_1 = \perp$ or $P_2 = \perp$ then Return false
- 5. **If** $K_1 = K_2$ or $N_1 \neq N_2$ **then** Return false
- 6. Return true

(a) FROB Game

$CMT-1(\mathcal{A})$

1. $(C, (K_1, N_1, AD_1), (K_2, N_2, AD_2)) \overset{\$}{\leftarrow} A$

2. $P_1 \leftarrow \Sigma_{Dec}(K_1, N_1, AD_1, C)$

- 3. $P_2 \leftarrow \Sigma_{Dec}(K_2, N_2, AD_2, C)$
- 4. If $P_1 = \perp$ or $P_2 = \perp$ then Return false
- 5. **If** $|K_1 = K_2|$ **then** Return false
- 6. Return true

CMT-4(A**)**

(b) CMT-1 Game

1. $(C, (K_1, N_1, AD_1), (K_2, N_2, AD_2)) \overset{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}$

2. $P_1 \leftarrow \Sigma_{Dec}(K_1, N_1, AD_1, C)$

3. $P_2 \leftarrow \Sigma_{Dec}(K_2, N_2, AD_2, C)$

4. If $P_1 = \perp$ or $P_2 = \perp$ then

Return false

6. Return true

then Return false

$CMT-3(\mathcal{A})$

- 1. $(C, (K_1, N_1, AD_1), (K_2, N_2, AD_2)) \overset{\$}{\leftarrow} A$
- 2. $P_1 \leftarrow \Sigma_{Dec}(K_1, N_1, AD_1, C)$
- 3. $P_2 \leftarrow \Sigma_{Dec}(K_2, N_2, AD_2, C)$
- 4. If $P_1 = \perp$ or $P_2 = \perp$ then Return false
- 5. **If** $(K_1, N_1, AD_1) = (K_2, N_2, AD_2)$ **then** Return false
- 6. Return true

(c) CMT-3 Game

(d) CMT-4 Game

5. **If** $(K_1, N_1, AD_1, P_1) = (K_2, N_2, AD_2, P_2)$

Figure 1: Different Frameworks for Committing Security.

CMT-3 security implies CMT-1, which in turn implies the FROB game [\[BH22,](#page-17-3) [MLGR23\]](#page-18-3). In essence, the FROB game presents the most formidable challenge for an adversary to overcome. All the related games are outlined in Fig. [1.](#page-3-0)

In [\[CR22\]](#page-17-2), several notions based on the assumptions considered on the key are introduced. Specifically, the authors define the terms *honest*, *revealed*, and *corrupted* keys. A key is deemed *honest* when the adversary possesses no knowledge of it. If the adversary gains knowledge of the key or independently selects a key (i.e., corrupts the key), it is categorized as *revealed* or *corrupted*. Applying this conceptual framework, the attacks discussed in the paper can be contextualized within a *revealed-revealed* scenario, wherein the adversary needs knowledge of both the keys.

2.2 Description of AEGIS

The authenticated encryption scheme with associated data (AEAD) AEGIS was introduced in SAC 2013 [\[WP13a\]](#page-19-0). It encompasses three variants: AEGIS-128, AEGIS-256, and AEGIS-128L. In the CAESAR competition [\[Cae19\]](#page-17-0), AEGIS-128 was selected in the final portfolio for use case 2 (high-performance applications) and AEGIS-128L was a finalist for the same

use case.

Across all these variants, the state update function is based on a single round of AES (excluding the key addition operation) denoted as *A*(*X*), where *X* represent a 16-byte state. Specifically, $A(X) = MC \circ SR \circ SB(X)$, where MC , SR , and SB denote the Mixcolumns, Shiftrows, and Subbytes operations, respectively. For more details on these operations refer to [\[DR00,](#page-18-8) [DR02\]](#page-18-9). Note that we use the function $AR(X, Y)$ which represents $A(X) \oplus Y$

that is depicted as $\frac{1}{40}$ in the figures.

State Update. The internal state of AEGIS-128 (resp. AEGIS-256) is made of five (resp. six) 16-byte registers, and the state update function UPDATE_{*A*-128}(S_r , m_r) (resp. UPDATE_{*A*-256} (S_r, m_r) transforms the internal state S_r to yield the state S_{r+1} and is expressed as:

$$
S_{r+1,0} = AR(S_{r,b-1}, S_{r,0} \oplus m_r)
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,1} = AR(S_{r,0}, S_{r,1})
$$

\n
$$
\vdots
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,b-1} = AR(S_{r,b-2}, S_{r,b-1}),
$$

where $b = 5$ (for AEGIS-128) or 6 (for AEGIS-256), resulting in state sizes of 80 bytes and 96 bytes, respectively. The state update function of AEGIS-128L, denoted as UPDATE_{*A*-128*L*}(S_r , $m_{r,0}$, $m_{r,1}$), differs slightly from the other two. Let $S_r := S_{r,0}$ || \cdots || $S_{r,7}$ be the state after the *r*-th update, where each $S_{r,i}$ (for $0 \le i \le 7$) is a 16-byte block. The function UPDATE_{*A*-128*L*}(S_r *, m_r*,0*, m_r*,1</sub>) yields the state S_{r+1} where S_{r+1} is defined as follows:

$$
S_{r+1,0} = AR(S_{r,7}, S_{r,0} \oplus m_{r,0})
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,1} = AR(S_{r,0}, S_{r,1})
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,2} = AR(S_{r,1}, S_{r,2})
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,3} = AR(S_{r,2}, S_{r,3})
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,4} = AR(S_{r,3}, S_{r,4} \oplus m_{r,1})
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,5} = AR(S_{r,4}, S_{r,5})
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,6} = AR(S_{r,5}, S_{r,6})
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,7} = AR(S_{r,6}, S_{r,7}).
$$

Algorithm. AEGIS starts with an *initialization phase* where the initial state is loaded with a key K , an initialization vector (IV) *IV*, and some constants. For AEGIS-128 and AEGIS-128L, the sizes of *K* and *IV* are 128 bits, while for AEGIS-256, they are 256 bits. For AEGIS-128, the state is updated using UPDATE_{*A*-128}(S_r , m_r) (for $0 \le r \le 9$) where each m_r is formed using either *K* or $K \oplus IV$. Similarly, for AEGIS-256 the state is updated using UPDATE_{*A*-256}(S_r , m_r)</sub> (for $0 \leq r \leq 15$) where each m_r is derived from *K* and *IV*. In the case of AEGIS-128L, the state is updated using UPDATE_{*A*-128*L*}(S_r , IV , K) (for $0 \le r \le 9$). In all of these state update functions, S_0 is the initial state.

Following this, based on the lengths of the associated data and plaintext, the states undergo further updates. The associated data and plaintext are separated in 128-bit blocks and processed using the state update function. After each step of the state update function, a 128-bit block of associated data/plaintext is processed for AEGIS-128 and AEGIS-256 (for AEGIS-128L, two 128-bit blocks are encrypted at each step). During the processing of the plaintext, ciphertext blocks are also generated. However, the details are omitted as those are not relevant to the current work.

A *finalization phase* follows in which the state update function will be iterated for seven rounds, before generating the tag. These last updates depend on the lengths of the plaintext and associated data, encoded as 64-bit strings, along with a portion of the previous state. All the 128-bit substates of the final state are XOR-ed to obtain the 128-bit tag. For more comprehensive details on AEGIS, please refer to [\[WP13a,](#page-19-0) [WP13b,](#page-19-4) [WP16\]](#page-19-5).

2.3 Rocca-S

Rocca-S $[ABC+23]$ $[ABC+23]$ is an updated version of Rocca $[SLN+21]$ $[SLN+21]$ which has been proposed to standardization at the IETF. We refer here to the latest version of the draft standard document [\[NFI23a\]](#page-19-2).

Rocca-S employs a 256-bit key and a 256-bit nonce. Its internal state is reduced to seven 16-byte blocks, and its tag length is 256 bits. Much like AEGIS and Rocca, it undergoes phases of initialization, associated data processing, encryption, and finalization, all subject to similar operational constraints. The main difference lies in the round update function, denoted as $\text{UPDATE}_{RS}(S_r, X_0, X_1)$, responsible for generating S_{r+1} , where S_r represents the output of the *r*-th round. If $S_r = S_{r,0}||\cdots||S_{r,6}$, where each $S_{r,i}$ (for $0 \le i \le 6$) is a 16-byte block, then S_{r+1} is defined as follows:

$$
S_{r+1,0} = S_{r,6} \oplus S_{r,1}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,1} = A(S_{r,0}) \oplus X_0
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,2} = A(S_{r,1}) \oplus S_{r,0}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,3} = A(S_{r,2}) \oplus S_{r,6}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,4} = A(S_{r,3}) \oplus X_1
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,5} = A(S_{r,4}) \oplus S_{r,3}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,6} = A(S_{r,5}) \oplus S_{r,4}
$$

Likewise, the generation of the ciphertexts, as well as the details of initialization and finalization phases, are irrelevant to our attack, and we need only to focus on the AD processing phase.

3 Attacks

In this section, we present a broad overview of the state update mechanism employed in constructions such as AEGIS and Rocca-S. Subsequently, we demonstrate attacks that break the key commitment security of both AEGIS and Rocca-S, leveraging insights derived from this generalized perspective.

3.1 Attack Overview

As outlined in Section [2,](#page-2-1) AEAD schemes like AEGIS and Rocca undergo four phases: initialization, associated data processing, encryption, and finalization, culminating in the generation of the ciphertext-tag as the output. Throughout these phases, the state updating process is influenced by various parameters: key, initialization vector (IV) or *nonce*, associated data (AD) and plaintext. Considering various parameters, the state updating process can be conceptualized as transitions through different internal states, illustrated in Fig. [2.](#page-6-0)

Let us denote the initial state as IS_0 . The initialization phase is dependent on the key *K* and the initialization vector *IV* . Hence, the entire state update process during this phase can be represented as a function $U_{K,IV}$ which transforms the initial state IS_0 into *IS*₁. Subsequently, U_{AD} and U_P modify the internal states IS_1 and IS_2 to IS_2 and IS_3 respectively, based on the associated data *AD* and plaintext *P*. Finally, contingent on the lengths of *AD* and *P*, $\mathcal{U}_{|P|,|AD|}$ transforms *IS*₃ into *IS*₄. The tag is then generated based on *IS*4.

Figure 2: State update as a function of key, initialization vector, associated data and plaintext.

We are specifically interested in analyzing the FROB security. As outlined in Section [2.1,](#page-2-2) the adversary is required to generate a ciphertext (ciphertext and tag pair) which decrypts to valid plaintexts using two different sets of keys and same IV. Let us consider a set of key, IV, AD, and plaintext, denoted as (*K*1*, IV*1*, AD*1*, P*1) which generates a ciphertext-tag pair $C_1||\tau_1$. Consider another key K_2 and an IV IV_2 . Note that $K_1 \neq K_2$ and $IV_1 = IV_2$.

Figure 3: Overview of the attack in FROB framework.

As depicted in Fig. [3,](#page-6-1) we need to find a AD^* such that U_{AD^*} transforms IS_1^2 to IS_2^1 . If $|AD^*| = |AD_1|$ (the plaintext is P_1), the final state IS_4^1 can be obtained which results in generating the ciphertext-tag pair $C_1||\tau_1$. Consequently, the tuples (K_1, IV_1, AD_1, P_1) and (K_2, IV_2, AD^*, P_1) yield the same ciphertext-tag pair, thereby compromising the FROB security of AEGIS. Hence, the adversary is required to find an *AD*[∗] such that $|AD^*| = |AD_1|$. An attack is deemed valid if its complexity is lower than the generic attack complexity. The generic attack for these schemes depends only on the tag length. Indeed, forging a valid tag is sufficient to break the key committing security. Specifically, if tag check is valid, detecting an incorrect key becomes impossible. Thus, for an AEAD

scheme with a *t*-bit tag, the data complexity of a generic attack is $2^{t/2}$. Therefore, any attack that successfully recovers a valid AD^* with a data complexity lower than $2^{t/2}$ can be considered valid.

It is important to note that, following the framework introduced in [\[CR22\]](#page-17-2), the envisaged attack aligns with the *revealed-revealed* scenario. In this context, the adversary leverages its knowledge of both keys, K_1 and K_2 , to uncover the internal states IS_2^1 and IS_1^2 , respectively. Subsequently, the adversary identifies an appropriate *AD*[∗] which, in turn, breaks the FROB security.

Our attacks are reminiscent of previous works regarding the nonce-misuse (in)security of AEGIS and related AEAD modes (see e.g. [\[KEM17\]](#page-18-10)). In both cases, the adversary uses successive AD or message words to control different state words. The novelty in our case is that we want to fix the internal state instead of recovering it.

3.2 Attacks on AEGIS

Here, we analyze the FROB security of AEGIS. We show how to find a ciphertext-tag pair which can be decrypted using two different sets of key and nonce. In particular, our focus is on finding (K_1, IV) and (K_2, IV) pairs that produce identical ciphertexttags when employed with some associated data and plaintexts. AEGIS also follows the generalized state updating process described using Fig. [2.](#page-6-0) Initially, two keys K_1 , K_2 and an initialization vector *IV* are chosen. Consider that encryption of associated data *AD*¹ and plaintext P_1 using K_1 , *IV* yields ciphertext-tag $C||\tau$. Let $T = T_0||T_1||T_2||T_3||T_4$ be the internal state after the processing of the AD. Let $S_0 = S_{0,0}||S_{0,1}||S_{0,2}||S_{0,3}||S_{0,4}$ be the internal state after processing of K_2 and IV , and before the AD. We are interested in finding a suitable AD AD^* such that U_{AD^*} transforms S_0 to T .

Recovering the AD^* **for AEGIS-128.** With reference to the discussion in Section [3.1](#page-5-1) and Fig. [3,](#page-6-1) the states $S_{0,0}||S_{0,1}||S_{0,2}||S_{0,3}||S_{0,4}$ and $T = T_0||T_1||T_2||T_3||T_4$ take the roles of IS_1^2 and IS_2^1 , respectively.

Let $AD^* = AD_0^* || AD_1^* || AD_2^* || AD_3^* || AD_4^*$, where each AD_j^* (for $0 \le j \le 4$) is a 16-byte block. It is quite evident that each T_i can be expressed in terms of AD_i^* and $S_{0,i}$ (for $i \in \{0, 4\}$ as shown below.

$$
T_0 = A(A(A(A(A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}) \oplus A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}) \oplus A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}) \oplus A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus AD_4^* \oplus A(A(A(A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}) \oplus A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus AD_3^* \oplus A(A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus AD_2^* \oplus A(A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}
$$

Figure 4: Attack on AEGIS-128

$$
T_1 = A(A(A(A(A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}) \oplus A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus AD_3^* \oplus A(A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus AD_2^* \oplus A(A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus AD_2^* \oplus A(A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}) \oplus A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}
$$

$$
T_2 = A(A(A(A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus AD_2^* \oplus A(A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}) \oplus A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}) \oplus A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}) \oplus A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}) \oplus A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}
$$

$$
T_3 = A(A(A(A(A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}) \oplus A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}) \oplus A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}) \oplus A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}) \oplus A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}) \oplus A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}) \oplus A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}) \oplus A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4}
$$

$$
T_4 = A(A(A(A(A(S_{0,4}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{0,0}) \oplus A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}) \oplus A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}) \oplus A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}) \oplus A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(A(S_{0,0}) \oplus S_{0,1}) \oplus A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}) \oplus A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(A(S_{0,1}) \oplus S_{0,2}) \oplus A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3})
$$

\n
$$
\oplus A(A(S_{0,2}) \oplus S_{0,3}) \oplus A(S_{0,3}) \oplus S_{0,4})
$$

In these equations, the only unknowns are AD_0^*, \dots, AD_4^* . Notably, from the expression for T_4 , AD_0^* can be directly recovered. Subsequently, the expression for T_3 involves only AD_0^* and AD_1^* as unknowns. Consequently, after determining AD_0^* , AD_1^* can be deduced from this expression. Following this pattern, the remaining AD_i^* 's can be successively recovered from the corresponding equations, ultimately determining *AD*[∗] in constant time.

Refer to Fig. [4](#page-8-0) for the overview of the attack. Based on the values of the substates $S_{0,0},\dots, S_{0,4}$, some of the internal substates values can be fixed (indicated by the red rectangles in Fig. [4\)](#page-8-0). Notably, when the value of T_4 is set, it deterministically establishes the internal substates $S_{1,0}$ (illustrated by the blue rectangles in Fig. [4\)](#page-8-0). Following a similar approach, the remaining substates of *AD*[∗] can be deduced based on the values of the substates of *T*, as depicted in the figure using various colors.

Recovering *AD***[∗] for AEGIS-256/AEGIS-128L.** To recover *AD*[∗] for both AEGIS-256 and AEGIS-128L, a strategy analogous to the one employed for AEGIS-128 can be applied.

Figure 5: Attack on AEGIS-256

While we omit the detailed equations here (similar to those presented for AEGIS-128), the same technique enables the deterministic recovery of all 128-bit substates of *AD*[∗] . The attack strategies for AEGIS-256 and AEGIS-128L are outlined in Fig. [5](#page-10-1) and Fig. [6,](#page-11-0) respectively.

Experimental Verification. In order to verify the validity of our proposed strategy, we have implemented the attacks that break the FROB security. We have provided examples of attack vectors corresponding to the attack on AEGIS-128, AEGIS-256 and AEGIS-128L in Appendix [A.1,](#page-20-1) [A.2](#page-21-0) and [A.3,](#page-22-0) respectively.

3.3 Attack on Rocca-S

The primary attacking strategy on Rocca-S aligns with the generalized approach outlined in Section [3.1.](#page-5-1) However, we are not able to control all the internal state blocks, so the complexity is higher and the attack is non-deterministic. For Rocca-S, consider the scenario where a 256-bit key K_1 , a 256-bit nonce N , a 6×128 -bit = 768-bit associated data AD_1 , and a plaintext P_1 (of arbitrary length) produce a ciphertext-tag pair $C_1||\tau_1$.

Figure 6: Attack on AEGIS-128L

Assuming an initial state IS_0^1 is established through the initialization process using K_1 and *N*, applying UPDATE_{*RS*}(IS_0^1 , Z_0 , Z_1) for 20 iterations transforms the internal state to IS_1^1 . Subsequently, the state undergoes further transformation to IS_2^1 and IS_3^1 after incorporating AD_1 and P_1 . Similarly, for another key K_2 and same nonce N , an initial state IS_0^2 is transformed into IS_1^2 . The objective is now to identify associated data AD^* that, when applied, can transition the internal state from IS_1^2 to IS_2^1 . It is worth to note that the length of AD^* , denoted as $|AD^*|$, must match that of AD_1 . This constraint ensures the ability to generate IS_4^1 using a different set of K_2 and N .

Recovering *AD***[∗] for Rocca-S.** In recovering *AD*[∗] , we follow a strategy similar to the one used for attacks on AEGIS. The procedure for recovering *AD*[∗] is depicted in Fig. [7.](#page-12-1) Note that in the figure, the states S_0 and T corresponds to IS_1^2 and IS_2^1 , respectively. It is quite evident that the substates of T can be expressed in terms of substates of S_0 and *AD*[∗] as follows:

$$
T_0 = AD_2^* \oplus A(S_{i,1} \oplus S_{i,6}) \oplus A(A(S_{i,4}) \oplus S_{i,3}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{i,3})
$$

\n
$$
T_1 = AD_4^* \oplus A(AD_0^* \oplus A(S_{i,0}) \oplus A(S_{i,5}) \oplus S_{i,4})
$$

\n
$$
T_2 = A(AD_2^* \oplus A(S_{i,1} \oplus S_{i,6})) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus A(S_{i,0}) \oplus A(S_{i,5}) \oplus S_{i,4}
$$

\n
$$
T_3 = A(A(AD_0^* \oplus A(S_{i,0})) \oplus S_{i,1} \oplus S_{i,6}) \oplus A(A(S_{i,4}) \oplus S_{i,3}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{i,3})
$$

\n
$$
T_4 = AD_5^* \oplus A(A(A(S_{i,1}) \oplus S_{i,0}) \oplus A(S_{i,5}) \oplus S_{i,4})
$$

\n
$$
T_5 = A(AD_3^* \oplus A(A(S_{i,2}) \oplus S_{i,6})) \oplus A(A(S_{i,1}) \oplus S_{i,0}) \oplus A(S_{i,5}) \oplus S_{i,4}
$$

\n
$$
T_6 = A(A(AD_1^* \oplus A(S_{i,3})) \oplus A(S_{i,2}) \oplus S_{i,6}) \oplus AD_3^* \oplus A(A(S_{i,2}) \oplus S_{i,6})
$$

The values of AD_5^* , AD_3^* , AD_1^* , AD_2^* , AD_0^* and AD_4^* can be recovered successively from the equations pertaining to T_4 , T_5 , T_6 , T_0 , T_3 and T_1 , respectively. The recovery process is also illustrated in Fig. [7.](#page-12-1) It should be noted that the substate T_2 cannot be controlled. Therefore, the actual attack on Rocca-S will use 2^{64} values for AD_1 and compute 2^{64} values for *AD*[∗] so that with high probability, a collision can be found between them.

Figure 7: Recovery of *AD*[∗] for Rocca-S.

4 Ineffectiveness and Insights: Attacks on Tiaoxin-346 and Rocca

Here, first of all, we discuss about the effect of our attack technique on Tiaoxin-346 and Rocca. Then we discuss about possible countermeasures that arise from some distinction between the round functions of several designs.

4.1 Application on Tiaoxin-346

First, we give a brief overview of Tiaoxin-346. Then, we show that using the proposed technique, the key committing security of Tiaoxin-346 cannot be broken. The fundamental issue is that we lack freedom to control the blocks of internal state. Since too many blocks remain uncontrolled the complexity will remain above the generic attack.

Brief description on Tiaoxin-346. Tiaoxin-346 [\[Nik16\]](#page-19-7), introduced in the CAESAR competition [\[Cae19\]](#page-17-0), is a stream cipher based design and composed of four phases- initialization, associated data processing, encryption and finalization.

The Tiaoxin-346 state is composed of thirteen 128-bit words divided in three separate registers. If the state after *r*-th round S_r is denoted using 128-bit substates as

$$
(U_{r,0}, U_{r,1}, U_{r,2}, V_{r,0}, V_{r,1}, V_{r,2}, V_{r,3}, W_{r,0}, W_{r,1}, W_{r,2}, W_{r,3}, W_{r,4}, W_{r,5}),
$$

then the round update function UPDATE_{*T*}(S_r , X_0 , X_1 , X_2) that is used to generate S_{r+1} can be formalized as follows:

$$
U_{r+1,0} = U_{r,0} \oplus X_0 \oplus A(U_{r,2})
$$

\n
$$
U_{r+1,1} = A(U_{r,0})
$$

\n
$$
U_{r+1,2} = U_{r,1}
$$

\n
$$
V_{r+1,0} = V_{r,0} \oplus X_1 \oplus A(V_{r,3})
$$

\n
$$
V_{r+1,1} = A(V_{r,0})
$$

\n
$$
V_{r+1,i} = V_{r,i-1} \text{ (for } i \in \{2,3\})
$$

\n
$$
W_{r+1,0} = W_{r,0} \oplus X_2 \oplus A(W_{r,5})
$$

\n
$$
W_{r+1,1} = A(W_{r,0})
$$

\n
$$
W_{r+1,i} = W_{r,i-1} \text{ (for } i \in \{2,3,4,5\})
$$

In the initialization phase, the state S_0 is initialized using a nonce, a secret key and some constants Z_0 and Z_1 . Then, S_0 is updated using UPDATE_{*T*}(S_0 , Z_0 , Z_1 , Z_0) to obtain the state S_{15} . The associated data *AD* is divided into 128-bit words $AD_0||AD_1|| \cdots ||AD_{2d+1}$ (padding bits are added to make the *AD* length a multiple of 256). Then the function UPDATE_{*T*}(S_{15+i} , AD_{2i} , AD_{2i+1} , $AD_i \oplus AD_{2i+1}$) is called for $0 \le i \le d$ to obtain the final state S_{r+d+1} . Similarly, in the encryption phase, two 128-bit words from the plaintext *P* is used to update the state in each round. In the finalization phase, the length of *AD* and *P* in terms of number of bits is used to update the state. For details on the Tiaoxin-346, refer to [\[Nik16\]](#page-19-7).

Attack Idea. Refer to Fig. [8](#page-14-0) for the proposed attack technique on Tiaoxin-346. Note that, following Section [3.1,](#page-5-1) the states $U_{0,0}|| \cdots ||U_{0,2}||V_{0,0}|| \cdots ||V_{0,3}||W_{0,0}|| \cdots ||W_{0,5}$ and $T_{u,0}||\cdots||T_{u,2}||T_{v,0}||\cdots||T_{v,3}||T_{w,0}||\cdots||T_{w,5}$ corresponds to IS_1^2 and IS_2^1 , respectively. We are interested in recovering an associated data AD^* such that U_{AD^*} transforms IS_1^2 to IS_2^1 .

As shown in the figure, each $T_{u,i}$ controls the value of c_{5-i} for $0 \le i \le 5$. Hence, the values of c_i 's can be determined in a constant time. In the second register, the values of b_5 and b_4 can be controlled freely. The remaining b_i 's $(i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\})$ are determined by the $T_{u,i}$, b_4 and b_5 . Similarly, for the first register, the values for a_3 , a_4 and a_5 can be freely chosen.

In the processing of associated data in Tiaoxin-346, each c_i should be equal to $a_i \oplus b_i$. For $i \in \{3, 4, 5\}$, a_i 's are chosen such that $a_i = b_i \oplus c_i$. However, a_0 , a_1 and a_2 cannot be controlled freely and thus the condition $c_i = a_i \oplus b_i$ is satisfied for $0 \leq i \leq 2$ with regards to three 128-bit collisions. Hence, it is expected to find a valid AD^* using $2^{64} \times 2^{64} \times 2^{64} = 2^{192}$ different iterations of AD_1 . This attack complexity is worse than the generic attack on Tiaoxin-346 as it uses a 128-bit tag, i.e., the generic collision probability is 2^{64} .

4.2 Application on Rocca

Here, we make a similar observation on Rocca. We provide a brief description of the scheme and illustrate how our technique can (not) be employed.

Brief description on Rocca. Rocca [\[SLN](#page-19-6)⁺21, [SLN](#page-19-8)⁺22] is an AES-based AEAD scheme specifically designed for 6G applications. Its internal state contains eight 16-byte blocks and its state update function $\text{UPDATE}_R()$ relies also on the AES round function *A*. More precisely, it accepts two additional 16-byte blocks X_0, X_1 which can be constants or message / AD blocks, and modifies the state accordingly. Let $S_r := S_{r,0}|| \cdots ||S_{r,7}$ be the state after the *r*-th update, where $S_{r,i}$ ($0 \le i \le 7$) are the 128-bit substates. Then

Figure 8: Attack Overview on Tiaoxin-346

 S_{r+1} = UPDATE_{*R*}(*S_r*, *X*₀, *X*₁) is defined as follows:

$$
S_{r+1,0} = S_{r,7} \oplus X_0
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,1} = A(S_{r,7}) \oplus S_{r,0}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,2} = S_{r,1} \oplus S_{r,6}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,3} = A(S_{r,1}) \oplus S_{r,2}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,4} = S_{r,3} \oplus X_1
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,5} = A(S_{r,3}) \oplus S_{r,4}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,6} = A(S_{r,4}) \oplus S_{r,5}
$$

\n
$$
S_{r+1,7} = S_{r,6} \oplus S_{r,0}
$$

Algorithm. Like for AEGIS, we omit details which are irrelevant to our attack, as we mostly need to focus on the absorption of the AD blocks during the AD processing phase.

Rocca starts with an initialization phase where the state S_0 is initialized by loading a 256bit key $K_0||K_1$, a 128-bit nonce N, and two 128-bit constants Z_0 , Z_1 , along with additional constants. The operation UPDATE_R(S_i , Z_0 , Z_1) is iteratively executed for $0 \leq i \leq 19$ to compute the state S_{20} . When processing the associated data AD, padding bits are appended to form AD^* in such a way that its length, measured in bits, is a multiple

Figure 9: Recovering AD^* for Rocca. Note that $AD^* = AD_0^* || \cdots ||AD_5^*$.

of 256. The operation UPDATE_R(S_{20+i} , AD_{2i}^* , AD_{2i+1}^*) is executed for $0 \le i \le d$, where $AD^* = AD_0^*||AD_1^*|| \cdots ||AD_{2d+1}^*$. The plaintext *P* is processed similarly, except that it also intervenes in the computation of (pairs of) ciphertext blocks which are returned. In the finalization step, the state update is called with the binary-encoded lengths of *AD* and *P* are used, and the 128-bit tag is computed as the XOR of all state blocks.

Attack Idea. With reference to Section [3.1,](#page-5-1) we discuss here the process of recovering *AD*[∗] for Rocca. Refer to Fig. [9](#page-15-0) for the overview of the attack technique. Strategy similar to the one employed for Rocca-S is applied for Rocca. Like Rocca-S, we consider that the states S_0 and *T* corresponds to IS_1^2 and IS_2^1 , respectively and the 128-bit substates of *T* are expressed in terms of 128-bit substates of *S*⁰ and *AD*[∗] .

$$
T_0 = AD_4^* \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{i,7} \oplus A(S_{i,5}) \oplus S_{i,4}
$$

\n
$$
T_1 = A(AD_2^* \oplus S_{i,0} \oplus S_{i,6}) \oplus AD_0^* \oplus S_{i,7} \oplus A(S_{i,5}) \oplus S_{i,4}
$$

\n
$$
T_2 = A(AD_0^* \oplus S_{i,7}) \oplus S_{i,0} \oplus S_{i,6} \oplus A(A(S_{i,4}) \oplus S_{i,3}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus S_{i,3}
$$

\n
$$
T_3 = A(A(S_{i,0}) \oplus S_{i,7} \oplus A(S_{i,5}) \oplus S_{i,4}) \oplus A(AD_0^* \oplus S_{i,7}) \oplus S_{i,0} \oplus S_{i,6}
$$

\n
$$
T_4 = AD_5^* \oplus A(S_{i,1} \oplus S_{i,6}) \oplus A(S_{i,0}) \oplus S_{i,7}
$$

\n
$$
T_5 = A(AD_3^* \oplus A(S_{i,2}) \oplus S_{i,1}) \oplus A(S_{i,1} \oplus S_{i,6}) \oplus A(S_{i,0}) \oplus S_{i,7}
$$

\n
$$
T_6 = A(AAD_1^* \oplus S_{i,3}) \oplus A(S_{i,2}) \oplus S_{i,1}) \oplus AD_3^* \oplus A(S_{i,2}) \oplus S_{i,1}
$$

\n
$$
T_7 = AD_2^* \oplus S_{i,0} \oplus S_{i,6} \oplus A(A(S_{i,4}) \oplus S_{i,3}) \oplus AD_1^* \oplus S_{i,3}
$$

Note that successively processing the equations for T_3 , T_4 , T_5 , T_6 , T_7 and T_0 , the values of AD_0^* , AD_5^* , AD_3^* , AD_1^* , AD_2^* and AD_4^* can be determined. As illustrated in the figure, the six distinct 128-bit blocks of *AD*[∗] exert control over six out of the eight blocks in *T*. However, the remaining two blocks remain beyond control, and a valid solution of *AD*[∗] requires collisions on two 128-bit blocks T_1 and T_2 . From the arguments pertaining to birthday-bound problem, it is expected that iterating through $2^{64} \times 2^{64} = 2^{128}$ different values of AD_1 , a valid AD^* can be recovered. However Rocca has a 128-bit tag and thus the generic attack has a complexity of 2^{64} . Note that similar observation (corresponding to the recovery of *AD*[∗]) is also made by Takeuchi and Iwata while mounting a key recovery attack on Rocca [\[TI\]](#page-19-9).

4.3 Insights into Round Update Function: Resistance against Key Committing Attacks

Here, we delve into the differences among round update functions that resist the attack strategy proposed in this work. Unlike solutions proposed in $[ADG^+22, BH22, CR22]$ $[ADG^+22, BH22, CR22]$ $[ADG^+22, BH22, CR22]$ $[ADG^+22, BH22, CR22]$ $[ADG^+22, BH22, CR22]$, which employ pseudo-random functions or hash-based approaches to transform a generic AEAD scheme into a key committing one, our discussion focuses on insights into selecting a round function to enhance resistance against key committing attacks.

First, let's look into the design of Tiaoxin-346. The resilience of Tiaoxin-346 is primarily derived from the utilization of three blocks of messages/associated data in each round, with the third block being the XOR sum of the first two blocks. Notably, if the third block of the message is not the XOR of the first two blocks, a deterministic attack becomes feasible. The length of the tag and the size of each register also significantly influence the attack's effectiveness. As discussed in Section [4.1,](#page-12-2) finding a valid *AD*[∗] requires collision on three 128-bit blocks. The size of the register plays a crucial role in determining the overall data complexity of the attack. If the smallest register has *m^s* 128-bit blocks, then during the AD absorption in the smallest register, *m^s* blocks of AD cannot be controlled freely. The success of the attack depends on the collision in these *m^s* blocks, resulting in a complexity of 2 ⁶⁴*ms*. The resistance against key committing attacks is achieved if the length of the tag is less than $2^{128}m_s$.

Now, we discuss about the resistance of Rocca against these attacks. Similar to AEGIS-128L, the state update function of Rocca employs a 1024-bit state, and in each round, two 128-bit blocks of messages/associated data are absorbed. However, the application of our technique results in a deterministic attack against AEGIS, whereas for Rocca, it requires a data complexity of 2^{128} . Notably, Rocca achieves full diffusion after 7 rounds, whereas AEGIS-128L requires 10 rounds for full diffusion.

For AEGIS, the messages absorbed in the *i*-th round have effects on at most four state blocks after the $(i + 4)$ -th round. Referring to Fig. [6,](#page-11-0) consider AD_0^* and AD_1^* . After four rounds, AD_0^* affects blocks T_0 , T_1 , T_2 , and T_3 , while AD_1^* affects the remaining blocks. These affected blocks are disjoint, facilitating the discovery of a valid *AD*[∗] in constant time. In contrast, for Rocca, AD_0^* and AD_1^* affect blocks (T_0, T_1, T_2, T_3) and (T_2, T_6, T_7) , respectively (refer to Fig[.9\)](#page-15-0). After three rounds of Rocca, due to faster diffusion, at most six out of eight substate blocks can be independently controlled. Increasing the round number does not improve the attack, as two or more AD blocks control the output substates, and recovering a valid *AD*[∗] depends on the collision in these blocks. This fast diffusion property of Rocca enhance the security as compared to AEGIS-128.

5 Conclusion

The issue of key commitment security in AEGIS has been a significant and persisting question. This work addresses this gap by conducting a thorough analysis of AEGIS. Our analysis, considering various existing frameworks, culminated in the development of a practical attack applicable to all variants of AEGIS. However, in frameworks where an additional constraint of identical associated data is imposed, the proposed attacks will

not be effective. We have also demonstrated that the key committing security of Rocca-S can be compromised by the proposed attacks. These findings emphasize the ongoing importance of research and evaluation in AEAD security, especially within the framework of key commitment. Nevertheless, AEAD schemes such as Rocca and Tiaoxin-346 have proven resistant to the presented attacks. Their immunity to key committing attacks offers valuable insights into the design of these ciphers, which we believe will be instrumental in shaping future AES-based AEAD schemes.

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A Attack Vectors

Note that, in the attack vectors, we have provided a ciphertext/tag pair. However, the tuple $((K_1, IV_1, AD_1), (K_2, IV_2, AD^*))$ (here $IV_1 = IV_2$) works with any plaintext, i.e., if we encrypt a plaintext with both (K_1, IV_1, AD_1) and (K_2, IV_2, AD^*) , it generates same ciphertext/tag pair. In this way, numerous ciphertext/tag pair can be generated which can be decrypted to valid plaintexts.

In the vectors provided, the leftmost bit is the least significant bit (LSB). Consider a 16-bit string $b_0 \cdots b_{15}$ where b_0 is the LSB and b_{15} is the most significant bit (MSB). Using the vectors, the above string is denoted as $[b_0 \cdots b_7 \quad b_8 \cdots b_{15}].$

A.1 Attack Vector for AEGIS-128

A.2 Attack Vector for AEGIS-256

A.3 Attack Vector for AEGIS-128L

