Applied Cryptology

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Keep in mind there are *two* PDFs available (of which this is the latter):

- 1. a PDF of examinable material used as lecture slides, and
- 2. a PDF of non-examinable, extra material:
 - the associated notes page may be pre-populated with extra, written explaination of material covered in lecture(s), plus
 - anything with a "grey'ed out" header/footer represents extra material which is useful and/or interesting but out of scope (and hence not covered).





• Agenda: explore **implementation attacks** via

- 1. an "in theory", i.e., concept-oriented perspective,
- 1.1 explanation, 1.2 justification,
- 1.3 formalisation.

- and
- 2. an "in practice", i.e., example-oriented perspective,
- 2.1 attacks,
- 2.2 countermeasures.

Caveat!

~ 2 hours \Rightarrow introductory, and (very) selective (versus definitive) coverage.

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Part 1.1: in theory (1) Explanation

► Scenario:

• given the following interaction between an **attacker** \mathcal{E} and a **target** \mathcal{T}



- and noting that

 - the password *P* has |*P*| characters in it,
 each character in *G* and *P* is assumed to be from a known alphabet

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \{\text{`a', 'b', \dots, 'z'}\}$$

such that |A| = 26,

▶ how can *E* mount a successful attack, i.e., input a guess *G* matching *P*?





► Idea: brute-force attack (i.e., try every *G*).





Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

► Idea: brute-force attack (i.e., try every *G*).





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Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

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Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

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Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

► Idea: brute-force attack (i.e., try every *G*).





► Idea: brute-force attack (i.e., try every *G*).



- \therefore if we play by the rules then
- +ve: we always guess a G = P
- -ve: we need quite a lot of guesses, e.g., for a 6-character lower-case password we'd make

 $26^6 = 308915776$

in the worst-case



Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

► Idea: dictionary attack (i.e., try common *G*).



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► Idea: dictionary attack (i.e., try common G).





Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

► Idea: dictionary attack (i.e., try common G).







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Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

▶ Idea: dictionary attack (i.e., try common G).







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Idea: dictionary attack (i.e., try common G).



- \therefore if we play by the rules then
- −ve: if $P \notin D$, we won't guess a G = P
- +ve: we need fewer guesses, i.e., |D| in the worst-case

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Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

► Idea: side-channel attack.



► Idea: side-channel attack.





Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

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Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

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Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

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Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

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Idea: side-channel attack.





Part 1.1: in theory (2) Explanation

► Idea: side-channel attack.



- \therefore if we *bend* the rules a little then
- +ve: we always guess a G = P

+ve: we don't need too many guesses, e.g., for a 6-character lower-case password we'd make

 $26 \cdot 6 = 156$

in the worst-case (plus the few extra to recover |P|)

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► Scenario:

• given the following interaction between an **attacker** \mathcal{E} and a **target** \mathcal{T}



- and noting that
 - the Personal Identification Number (PIN) P has |P| = 4 digits in it,
 - each digit in *G* and *P* is assumed to be from a known alphabet

 $A = \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$

- such that |A| = 10, the counter *c* is incremented after each (successive) incorrect guess; when *c* exceeds a limit l = 3, the target becomes "locked",
- ▶ how can *E* mount a successful attack, i.e., input a guess *G* matching *P*?

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Part 1.1: in theory (4) Explanation

► Idea:



Notes:



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► Idea:

Attack ($P = 1234$)
$\mathcal{E} \xrightarrow{G} \mathcal{T}$ $r \in \{ \text{false, true} \} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} [P, c, l]$

: similar attacks as before apply, namely

1. brute-force attack:

- +ve: 10⁴ = 10000 possible PINs is not many -ve: the counter limits how viable this approach is

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Part 1.1: in theory (4) Explanation

► Idea:



- : similar attacks as before apply, namely
- 2. dictionary attack:
 - +ve: reasoning re. common passwords still applies to PINs (e.g., a birthday) -ve: the counter limits how viable this approach is





► Idea:



∴ similar attacks as before apply, namely

3. side-channel attack:

+ve: we can still measure execution time of Check

-ve: comparison of *P* and *G* no longer has data-dependent execution time



Part 1.1: in theory (4) Explanation

► Idea:



but consider some more implementation detail:

- 1. we might consider *different* indirect inputs and outputs,
- 2. use of an external, non-volatile storage (e.g., SIM card) implies that for $x \leftarrow y$ we have

 $\left. \begin{array}{ll} x \text{ on LHS} & \rightarrow & \text{store operation} \\ y \text{ on RHS} & \rightarrow & \text{load operation} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{Store}(x, \text{LOAD}(y))$

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► Idea: fault injection attack.



- ∴ we could consider
- 1. disrupting *state*, e.g.
 - corrupt (or randomise) content stored by S,
 - if *l* is an *n*-bit integer, all $2^n l$ values of a random *l'* mean more guesses.

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Part 1.1: in theory (4) Explanation

► Idea: fault injection attack.



- ∴ we could consider
- 2. disrupting execution, e.g.
 - control the power supply and probe the command bus,
 - when a command of the form $S_{TORE}(x, y)$ is detected, we know it relates to either

Line #6 : we know $P \neq G \rightarrow$ disconnect the power, and prevent update to *c* Line #9 : we know $P = G \rightarrow$ do nothing

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Part 1.2: in theory (1) Justification: Λ = power consumption

Example: consider a scenario



whereby

- Ohm's Law tells us that, i.e., V = IR, so
 we can acquire a power consumption trace

$\Lambda = \langle \Lambda_0, \Lambda_1, \dots, \Lambda_{l-1} \rangle$

i.e., an *l*-element sequence of instantaneous samples during execution of *f*.

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Part 1.2: in theory (1) Justification: Λ = power consumption

- ► Claim: Λ may be
 - *computation*-dependent, i.e., depends on definition and implementation of *f*, and/or
 - *data*-dependent, i.e., depends on x.

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Notes:

Part 1.2: in theory (1) Justification: Λ = power consumption

► Why?

From a hardware perspective



power consumption will stem from

- 1. static consumption, and
- 2. dynamic consumption.
- ► Therefore, different switching behaviour ⇒ different power consumption, i.e.,

if x = 0, setting $x \leftarrow 0 \Rightarrow$ static only \Rightarrow low(er) power consumption if x = 0, setting $x \leftarrow 1 \Rightarrow$ static plus dynamic \Rightarrow high(er) power consumption if x = 1, setting $x \leftarrow 0 \Rightarrow$ static plus dynamic \Rightarrow high(er) power consumption if x = 1, setting $x \leftarrow 1 \Rightarrow$ static only \Rightarrow low(er) power consumption

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which is data-dependent, and not necessarily in a symmetric manner.

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Part 1.2: in theory (1) Justification: Λ = power consumption

► Why?

From a software perspective



power consumption will stem from

- 1. computation,
- 2. communication (i.e., use of buses), and
- 3. storage (e.g., registers, memory),
- 4. ...
- all of which are data-dependent.

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Part 1.2: in theory (2) Justification: Λ = execution latency

Example: consider a scenario



whereby

we measure

 Λ_x = time when *x* is transmitted Λ_r = time when *r* is received

so that

• $\Lambda = \Lambda_r - \Lambda_x$ approximates the execution latency of *f*.

Part 1.2: in theory (2) Justification: Λ = execution latency

- **Claim**: Λ may be
 - *computation*-dependent, i.e., depends on definition and implementation of *f*, and/or
 - *data*-dependent, i.e., depends on x.

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Part 1.2: in theory (2) Justification: Λ = execution latency

► Why? for example, in each of



it *could* be the case that

low(er) execution latency a. ~→ b. \rightarrow high(er) execution latency



Example: consider a scenario



whereby a controlled "glitch", i.e.,



such that

- \triangleright ρ is the clock period,
- Δ_ρ is the period of the glitch,
 Δ_δ is the offset of the glitch.

can be caused in the clock signal *clk*.

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Part 1.2: in theory (3) Justification: $\Delta = \text{clock glitch}$

Claim: given

```
\begin{array}{l} \mbox{if GPR}[x] = 0 \mbox{ then PC} \leftarrow \textit{done} \\ \mbox{stmt} \\ \textit{done} \ : \ \cdots \end{array}
```

 Δ might allow one to skip the branch instruction, i.e., always execute stmt.

. . .



clk critical path

where, if ρ is close to the critical path, the glitch is likely shorter,

therefore, it is plausible such a glitch can prevent complete execution of an instruction, e.g.,

- ► GPR[x] = 0 is not computed in time,
- PC is not updated in time,
- ► ...

meaning that instruction is skipped.

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Part 1.2: in theory (4) Justification: $\Delta = laser pulse$

Example: consider a scenario



whereby a focused laser pulse can be aimed at the target device.



Part 1.2: in theory (4) Justification: $\Delta = laser pulse$

• Claim: Δ might allow one to toggle the state of



i.e., an SRAM-based memory cell (within some larger device).



Part 1.2: in theory (4) Justification: $\Delta = \text{laser pulse}$

► Why?

after decapsulation





at least the top layer of the device is exposed,

- the laser pulse can ionise regions of semi-conductor material,
 doing so can be used to activate a transistor,
- if the bottom-left transistor can be activated (for some short period), this will toggle Q.

https://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/~sps32/ches02-optofault.pdf

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Part 1.3: in theory (1) Formalisation: attacks

Definition

A **cryptanalytic attack** focuses on exploiting a vulnerability in the abstract, on-paper specification of a target. In contrast, an **implementation attack** focuses on exploiting a vulnerability in the concrete, in-practice implementation of a target by 1) actively influencing and/or 2) passively observing behaviour by it.



Notes:



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Part 1.3: in theory (1) Formalisation: attacks





Part 1.3: in theory (2) Formalisation: attacks

Definition

 $\mathcal E$ wants to realise some sort of **attack goal**, e.g.,

1.	recovery of state	from	the target
2.	manipulation of state	in	the target
3.	manipulation of behaviour	by	the target

measured relative to both efficacy and efficiency.

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Part 1.3: in theory (2) Formalisation: attacks

Definition

 ${\mathcal E}$ employs an **attack strategy**, which might be (generically) characterised as, e.g.,

- 1. profiled versus non-profiled
- 2. adaptive versus non-adaptive
- 3. differential versus non-differential

which also captures features of standard cryptanalysis, including known plaintext, chosen plaintext, etc.

Definition

 \mathcal{E} operates an **attack process**: *typically* this involves

- an offline pre-interaction phase : 1.
- 2. an online interaction phase : 3.
- characterise, calibrate, pre-compute, etc.
- an offline post-interaction phase :
- use input to acquire output use input and output to realise goal



Part 1.3: in theory (2) Formalisation: attacks

Definition				
${\cal E}$ employs an attack mechanism , which can be (generically) characterised as, e.g.,				
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8.	software versus hardware generic versus specific local versus remote contact-based versus contact-less invasive versus non-invasive destructive versus non-destructive synchronous versus non-synchronous deterministic versus non-deterministic			

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Part 1.3: in theory (3) Formalisation: attacks

Note that:

a differential cryptanalytic attack [5]



(roughly) analyses how an input difference affects the output difference.

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Part 1.3: in theory (3) Formalisation: attacks

▶ Note that:

a differential fault induction attack



(typically) analyses how a fault affects the output difference.



Part 1.3: in theory (3) Formalisation: attacks

► Note that:

a differential side-channel attack



is (typically) such that

- *M* is a model (or simulation) of *T*, *k* is a hypothesis about (part of) *k*,
- $\tilde{\Lambda}$ is the **hypothetical leakage** (cf. the *actual* leakage Λ),

and so

non-differential	\Rightarrow	1 interaction	\simeq	analysis within	single Λ
differential	\Rightarrow	<i>n</i> interactions	\simeq	analysis between	many Λ

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Part 1.3: in theory (4) Formalisation: attacks

Definition

The information leaked via some side-channel is modelled as $\mathcal{M}(\cdot) = \mathcal{M}_d(\cdot) + \mathcal{M}_n$, i.e., as the sum of 1) data-dependent **signal** (of interest) and 2) **noise** components.

Definition

Let V denote a set of values some (intermediate) variable can take, and L denote a set of leakage values.

- A value-based leakage model is such that $\mathcal{M}_d : V \to L$, meaning the leakage value depends on the current value of some variable.
- A transition-based leakage model is such that $M_d : V \times V \rightarrow L$, meaning the leakage value depends on the previous and current value of some variable (i.e., the transition from the former to the latter).

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Part 1.3: in theory (4) Formalisation: attacks

Definition

The information leaked via some side-channel is modelled as $\mathcal{M}(\cdot) = \mathcal{M}_d(\cdot) + \mathcal{M}_n$, i.e., as the sum of 1) data-dependent **signal** (of interest) and 2) **noise** components.

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- A transition-based leakage model is such that $M_d : V \times V \rightarrow L$, meaning the leakage value depends on the previous and current value of some variable (i.e., the transition from the former to the latter).

Example:

- 1. Hamming weight \Rightarrow
- value-based leakage model
- 2. Hamming distance \Rightarrow transition-based leakage model

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Part 1.3: in theory (5) Formalisation: attacks

De	finitio	n		
A fa capt	ult mod ures feat	el is an abstract tures such as	ion of	the fault injection mechanism, i.e., it separates fault <i>injection</i> from fault <i>exploitation</i> . it
	1.	timing	\Rightarrow	precise control, imprecise control, no control
	2.	location	\Rightarrow	precise control, imprecise control, no control
	3.	duration	\Rightarrow	transient, permanent, destructive
	4.	plurality	\Rightarrow	single fault; multiple, i.e., <i>n</i> faults
	5.	granularity	\Rightarrow	1 bit, <i>n</i> bits, variable
	6.	effect	\Rightarrow	set-to-0/1, stuck-at-0/1, flip, randomise, variable
	7.	implication	\Rightarrow	input data, computation on data, storage of data, execution of instructions

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Part 1.3: in theory (6) Formalisation: countermeasures

Definition

 ${\mathcal T}$ might employ a **countermeasure strategy**, which can be (generically) characterised as, e.g.,

- implicit versus explicit detection versus prevention 1.
- 2.

and typically forms a layered approach, i.e., a suite of countermeasures versus a single "silver-bullet" or panacea.

Part 1.3: in theory (6) Formalisation: countermeasures

Definition

 ${\mathcal T}$ might design an *abstract* countermeasure mechanism, within (at least) the following *levels*

- 1. protocol,
- 2. specification,
- 3. implementation, i.e.,
- software, and/or
- hardware.

Definition

 \mathcal{T} might implement a *concrete* **countermeasure mechanism**, which can be (generically) characterised as, e.g.,

- 1. software versus hardware
- 2. generic versus specific
- 3. selective versus non-selective
- 4. proactive versus reactive

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Part 1.3: in theory (7) Formalisation: countermeasures

Definition

Countermeasures against implementation attacks based on information leakage often fall into the following *classes*:

1. hiding \simeq decrease SNR, or

2. **masking** \simeq randomised redundant representation.

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Part 1.3: in theory (8) Formalisation: countermeasures

Definition

Among a large design space of countermeasures, instances that focus on hiding (typically) fall into the following subclasses:

- 1. increase noise, e.g., make Λ random:
- a. spatial displacement, i.e., where the operation is computed,
- b. **temporal displacement**, i.e., *when* the operation is computed, which can be further divided into
 - padding (or skewing), and
 reordering (or shuffling),
- c. diversified computation, i.e., *how* the operation is computed,
 d. obfuscated computation, e.g., *whether* the operation computed is real or fake (or a dummy).
- 2. decrease signal, e.g., make Λ constant:
 - a. data-oblivious (or "constant-time") computation of the operation.

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Part 1.3: in theory (9) Formalisation: countermeasures

Among a large design spa sub-classes:	ce of countermeasures, instances that focus on masking (typically) fall into the following
1. Boolean masking (or ac	lditive masking):
	$x \mapsto \hat{x} = \langle \hat{x}[0], \hat{x}[1], \dots, \hat{x}[d] \rangle$
such that	$x = \hat{x}[0] \oplus \hat{x}[1] \oplus \cdots \oplus \hat{x}[d],$
and	
2. arithmetic masking (or	multiplicative masking):
	$x \mapsto \hat{x} = \langle \hat{x}[0], \hat{x}[1], \dots, \hat{x}[d] \rangle$
such that	$x = \hat{x}[0] + \hat{x}[1] + \dots + \hat{x}[d] \pmod{2^w}.$



Part 1.3: in theory (10) Formalisation: countermeasures

Definition

Countermeasures against implementation attacks based on fault injection often fall into the following classes:

1. injection-oriented, e.g.,

- shielding,
- sensing,
- hiding,

and

2. exploitation-oriented, e.g.,

- duplication,
- infection,
- checksum.

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Part 1.3: in theory (11)

Formalisation: countermeasures

Definition

Among a large design space of countermeasures, instances that focus on exploitation are (typically) parameterised by

1. type of duplication, e.g.,

- temporal duplication: *n* computations of *f*(*x*) in 1 location,
 spatial duplication: 1 computation of *f*(*x*) in *n* locations,
- 2. degree of duplication,
- 3. type of check, e.g.,
- direct check: $f(x) \stackrel{?}{=} f(x)$,
- linearity check: $f(-x) \stackrel{?}{=} -f(x)$,
- inversion check: $f^{-1}(f(x)) \stackrel{?}{=} x$,
- 4. frequency of check, and
- 5. type of action, e.g.,
 - Preventative action: $f(x) \neq f(x) \rightsquigarrow \bot$,
- infective action: $f(x) \neq f(x) \rightsquigarrow$ \$,

and yield an outcome with an associated detection probability.

Take away points: implementation attacks

- 1. are a potent threat, forming part of a complex attack landscape,
- 2. extend well beyond cryptographic targets, posing a more general (cyber-)security challenge,
- 3. present significant challenges, e.g., per
- "attacks only get better" principle,
- "no free lunch" principle,
- need to consider multiple layers of abstraction,
- such that "raising the bar" is of use if not ideal,
- 4. demand care re. evaluation and/or certification (e.g., FIPS 140-2 [9]) requirements.

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Additional Reading

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