COMS30048 lecture: week #16

Agenda: explore implementation attacks via

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

and

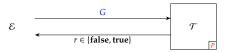
- 2. an "in practice", i.e., example-oriented perspective,
 - 2.1 attacks,
 - 2.2 countermeasures.

Caveat!

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



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



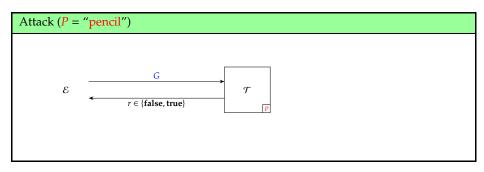
- and noting that
 - the password P has |P| characters in it,
 - each character in *G* and *P* is assumed to be from a known alphabet

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

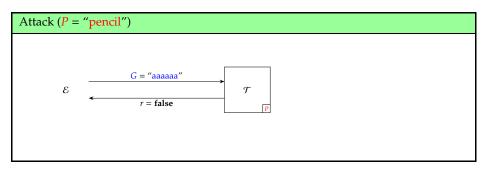
such that |A| = 26,

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

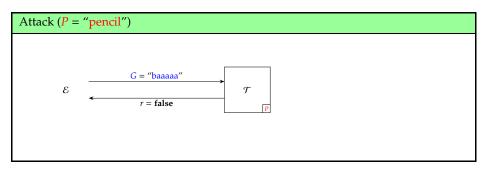




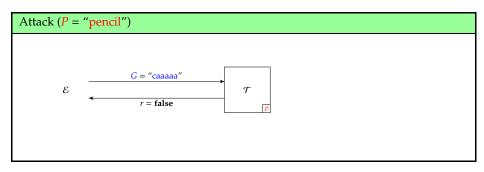




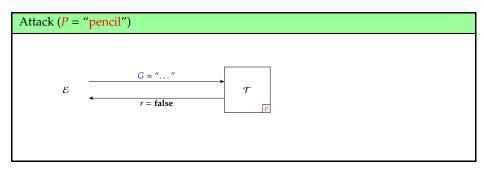




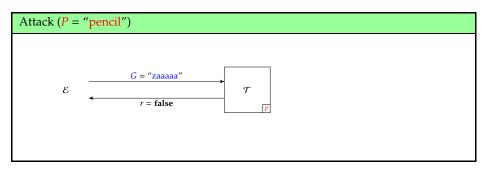




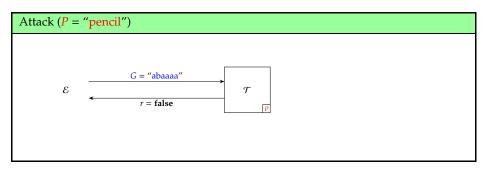




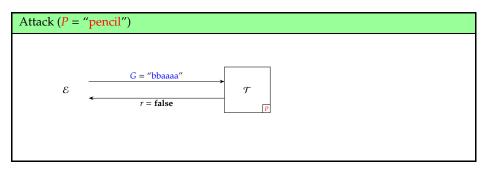




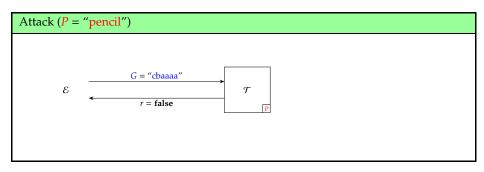




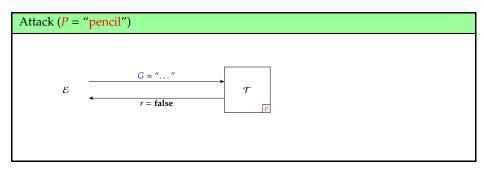






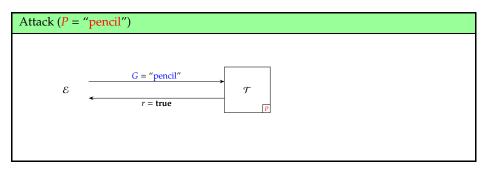








▶ Idea: brute-force attack (i.e., try every G).



 \therefore if we play by the rules then

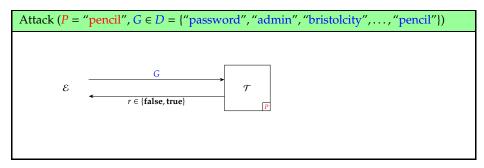
+ve: we always guess a G = P

-ve: we need quite a lot of guesses, e.g., for a 6-character lower-case password we'd make

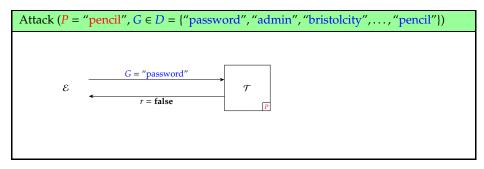
$$26^6 = 308915776$$

in the worst-case

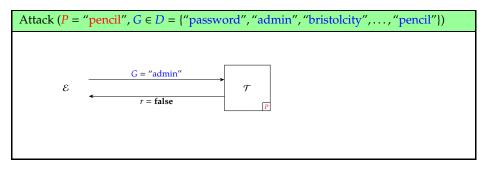




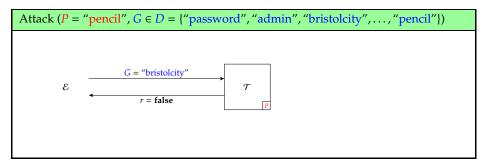




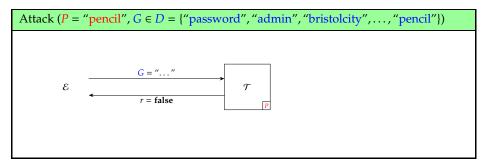






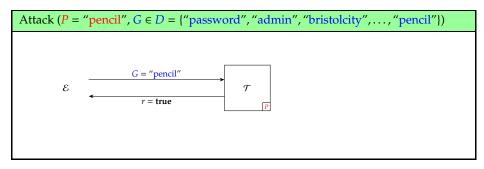






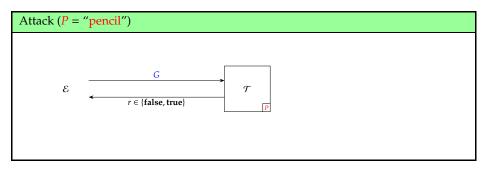


Idea: dictionary attack (i.e., try common G).

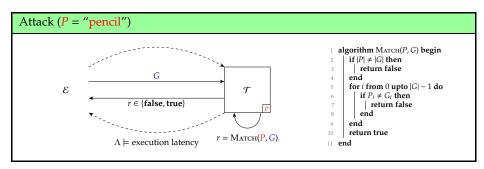


... if we play by the rules then -ve: if $P \notin D$, we won't guess a G = P+ve: we need fewer guesses, i.e., |D| in the worst-case

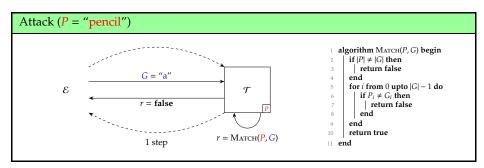




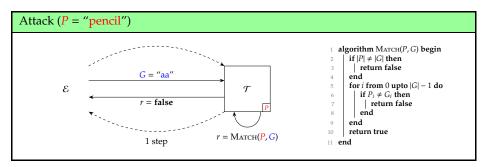




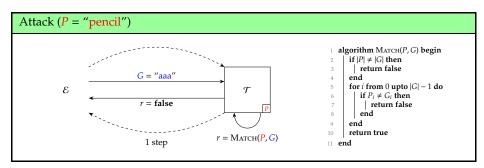




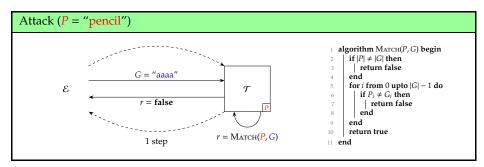




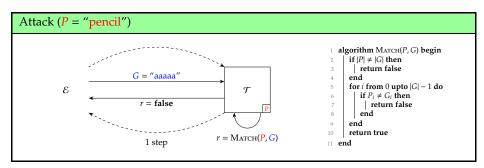




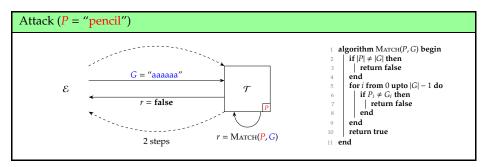




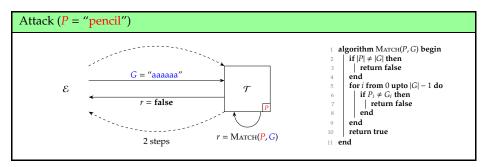




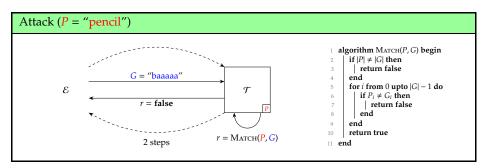




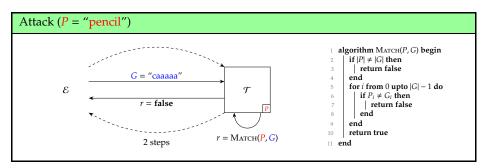




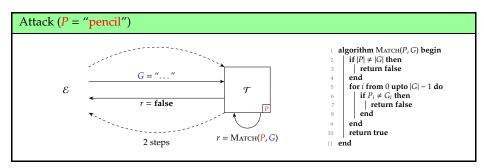




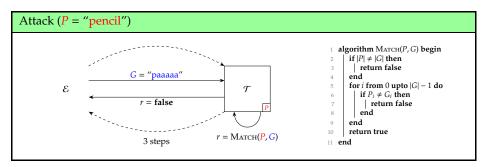




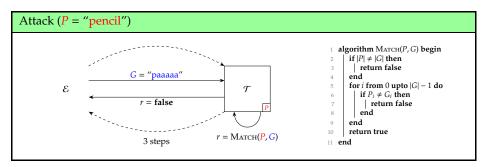




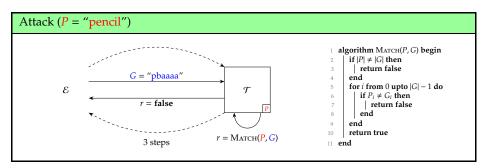




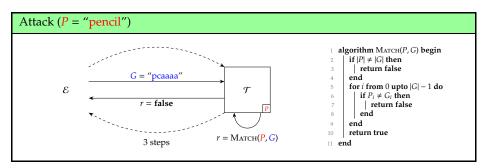




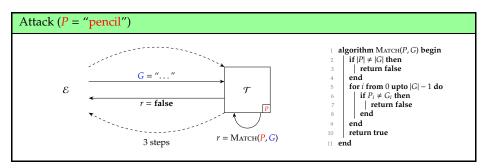




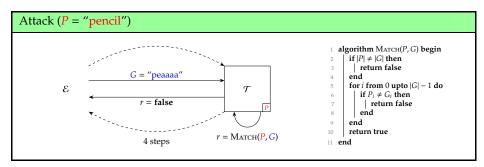




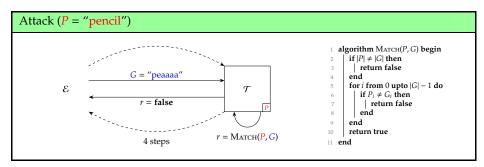




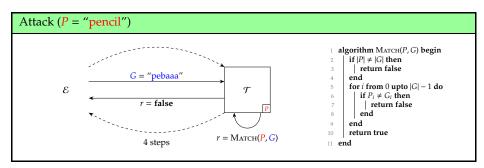




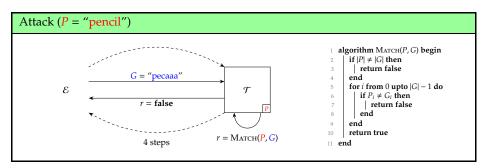




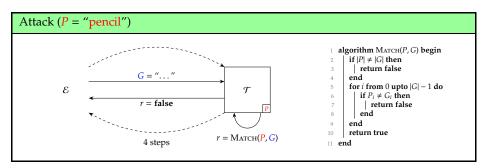




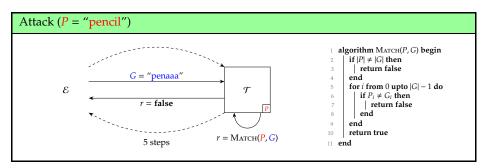




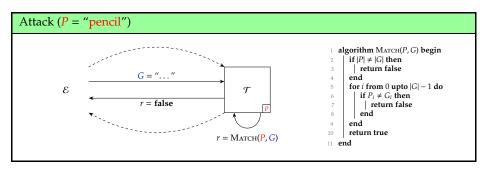






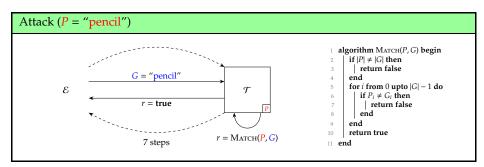








Idea: side-channel attack.



 \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|)



- 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

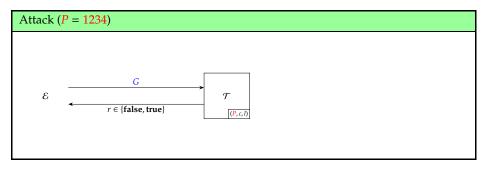
$$A = \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$$

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 & mount a successful attack, i.e., input a guess G matching P?

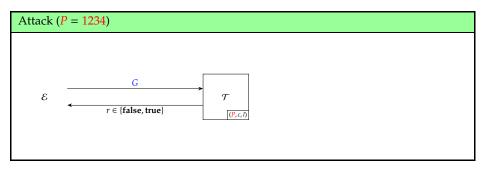


► Idea:





► Idea:



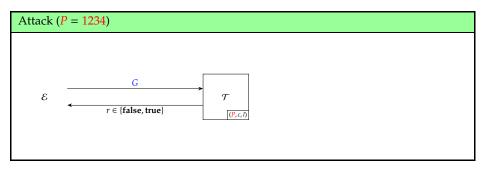
 \therefore similar attacks as before apply, namely

1. brute-force attack:

- +ve: $10^4 = 10000$ possible PINs is not many
- -ve: the counter limits how viable this approach is



► Idea:



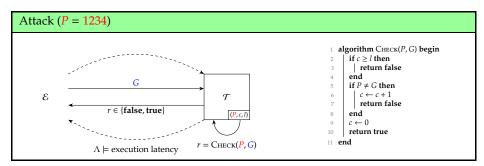
∴ similar attacks as before apply, namely

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:



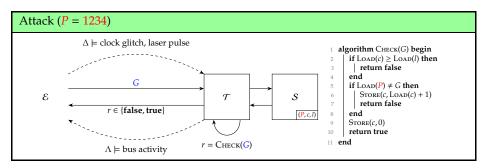
∴ similar attacks as before apply, namely

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



► Idea:

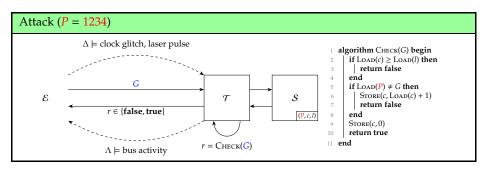


but consider some more implementation detail:

- 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



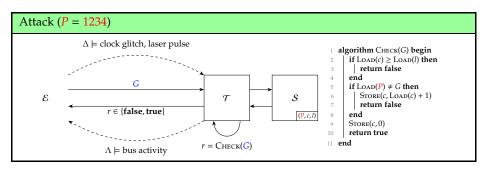
► Idea: fault injection attack.



- \therefore 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.



► Idea: fault injection attack.



- \therefore we could consider
- 2. disrupting execution, e.g.
 - control the power supply and probe the command bus,
 - when a command of the form STORE(x, y) is detected, we know it relates to either

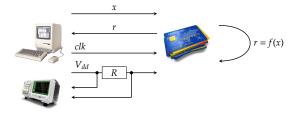
Line #6 : we know $P \neq G \rightarrow$ disconnect the power, and prevent update to *c*

Line #9 : we know $P = G \rightarrow$ do nothing



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*.



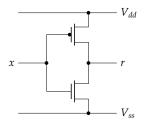
Part 1.2: in theory (1) Justification: Λ = power consumption

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



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.,

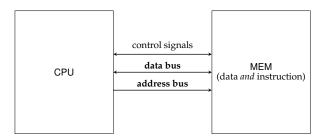
```
if x = 0, setting x \leftarrow 0 \Rightarrow static only\Rightarrowlow(er) power consumptionif x = 0, setting x \leftarrow 1 \Rightarrowstatic plus dynamic \Rightarrowhigh(er) power consumptionif x = 1, setting x \leftarrow 0 \Rightarrowstatic plus dynamic \Rightarrowhigh(er) power consumptionif x = 1, setting x \leftarrow 1 \Rightarrowstatic only\Rightarrowlow(er) power consumptionhigh(er) power consumption
```

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



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.



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.



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

• Why? for example, in each of

```
1. \begin{array}{c} & \cdots \\ \text{if } \text{GPR}[x] = 0 \text{ then } \text{PC} \leftarrow done \\ \text{stmt} \\ done : & \cdots \end{array} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} \text{a. } \text{GPR}[x] = 0 \text{ so stmt is not executed} \\ \text{b. } \text{GPR}[x] = 1 \text{ so stmt is} \\ \text{executed} \\ \text{b. } \text{GPR}[x] = 1 \text{ so stmt is} \\ \text{executed} \\ \text{composition} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} \text{a. } \text{MEM}[\text{GPR}[x]] \text{ is resident in cache} \\ \text{b. } \text{MEM}[\text{GPR}[x]] \text{ is not resident in cache} \\ \text{b. } \text{MEM}[\text{GPR}[x]] \text{ is not resident in cache} \\ \text{or } \text{GPR}[r] \leftarrow \text{GPR}[x] \times \text{GPR}[y] \\ \text{composition} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} \text{a. } \text{GPR}[x] \text{ has small magnitude} \\ \text{b. } \text{GPR}[x] \text{ has large magnitude} \\ \text{or } \text{COM}[x] \text{ has large magnitude} \end{array} \right\}
```

it *could* be the case that

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

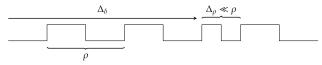


Part 1.2: in theory (3) Justification: $\Delta = clock glitch$

Example: consider a scenario



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



such that

- $\triangleright \rho$ 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*.





Claim: given

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

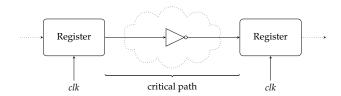
 Δ might allow one to skip the branch instruction, i.e., always execute stmt.

. . .



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

Why?recall that



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

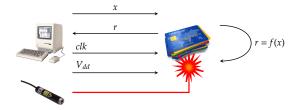
- therefore, it is plausible such a glitch can prevent complete execution of an instruction, e.g.,
 - GPR[x] = 0 is not computed in time,
 - PC is not updated in time,

meaning that instruction is skipped.



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

Example: consider a scenario

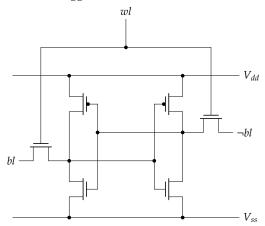


whereby a focused laser pulse can be aimed at the target device.



Part 1.2: in theory (4) Justification: Δ = 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,

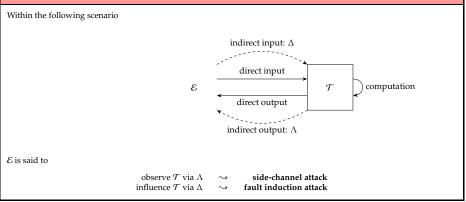
- the laser pulse can ionise regions of semi-conductor material,
- doing so can be used to activate a transistor,
- ▶ if the bottom-left transistor can be activated (for some short period), this will toggle Q.

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



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.

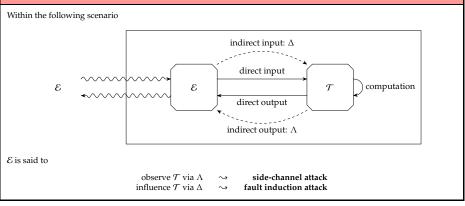




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Part 1.3: in theory (2) Formalisation: attacks

Definition

& 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.



 \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

& operates an attack process: typically this involves

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



Part 1.3: in theory (2) Formalisation: attacks

Definition

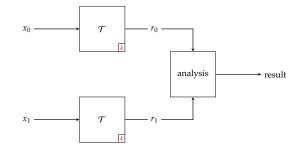
 \mathcal{E} employs an **attack mechanism**, which can be (generically) characterised as, e.g.,

1.	software versus hardware
2.	generic versus specific
3.	local versus remote
4.	contact-based versus contact-less
5.	invasive versus non-invasive
6.	destructive versus non-destructive
7.	synchronous versus non-synchronous
8.	deterministic versus non-deterministic



Part 1.3: in theory (3) Formalisation: attacks

- Note that:
 - a differential cryptanalytic attack [5]

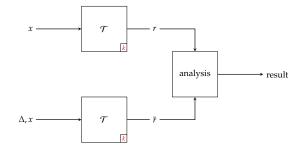


(roughly) analyses how an input difference affects the output difference.



Part 1.3: in theory (3) Formalisation: attacks

- Note that:
 - a differential fault induction attack

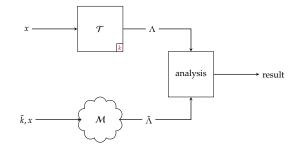


(typically) analyses how a fault affects the output difference.



Part 1.3: in theory (3) Formalisation: attacks

- Note that:
 - a differential side-channel attack



is (typically) such that

- \mathcal{M} is a **model** (or simulation) of \mathcal{T} ,
- \tilde{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 *n* interactions \simeq analysis between many Λ



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 M_d : V → 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).



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 M_d : V → 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).

• Example:

- 1. Hamming weight \Rightarrow
- 2. Hamming distance \Rightarrow

value-based leakage model transition-based leakage model



Part 1.3: in theory (5) Formalisation: attacks

Definition

A **fault model** is an abstraction of the fault injection mechanism, i.e., it separates fault *injection* from fault *exploitation*. it captures features such as

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., n 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



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

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

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



 $\mathcal T$ 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



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.



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.



Among a large design space of countermeasures, instances that focus on masking (typically) fall into the following sub-classes:

1. Boolean masking (or additive 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.



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.



Conclusions

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.



Additional Reading

- S. Mangard, E. Oswald, and T. Popp. Power Analysis Attacks: Revealing the Secrets of Smart Cards. Springer, 2007.
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- B. Yuce, P. Schaumont, and M. Witteman. "Fault Attacks on Secure Embedded Software: Threats, Design, and Evaluation". In: Journal of Hardware and Systems Security 2.2 (2018), pp. 111–130.



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- Security Requirements For Cryptographic Modules. National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) Federal Information Processing Standard (FIPS) 140-2. 2001. URL: http://csrc.nist.gov (see p. 85).

