

# Keyshuffling Attack for Persistent Early Code Execution in the Nintendo 3DS Secure Bootchain

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**Abstract**—We demonstrate an attack on the secure bootchain of the Nintendo 3DS in order to gain early code execution. The attack utilizes the block shuffling vulnerability of the ECB cipher mode to rearrange keys in the Nintendo 3DS’s encrypted keystore. Because the shuffled keys will deterministically decrypt the encrypted firmware binary to incorrect plaintext data and execute it, and because the device’s memory contents are kept between hard reboots, it is possible to reliably reach a branching instruction to a payload in memory. This payload, due to its execution by a privileged processor and its early execution, is able to extract the hash of hardware secrets necessary to decrypt the device’s encrypted keystore and set up a persistent exploit of the system.

**Index Terms**—Advanced Encryption Standard, keyshuffling, bootchain, cryptography, block ciphers, software security.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The Nintendo 3DS, like all entertainment consoles, is in a difficult position when it comes to designing a secure system. The device must easily accommodate legitimate users while at the same time preventing cheating, protecting intellectual property, and enforcing system integrity. To accomplish this, the 3DS has a chain of trust based on two separate processors: an ARM9 and an ARM11. The ARM9 processor is a security processor that runs a single process (“Process9”) whose sole responsibility is to handle secure functions such as cryptography, filesystem access, and permissions. The ARM11 processor is an application processor that which is responsible for all OS and userspace-level tasks [1].

As with most embedded systems, the root of trust for the 3DS is the boot ROM burned into the System-on-Chip (“SoC”) at the factory. The code in this Read Only Memory cannot be changed and contains a public key to which only Nintendo has the matching private key. When the device is powered on, each CPU’s boot ROM loads their respective firmware binary from NAND flash storage to memory, checks the firmware binary for a valid RSA signature that matches the burned in public key, then jumps to the firmware binary entrypoint [1]. This is a simple, robust chain of trust that seems fairly secure upon initial inspection.

In 2014, Nintendo released the “New 3DS” which this paper will focus on. This updated 3DS features a faster CPU, more RAM, and (most importantly) an extra encryption layer on the ARM9 firmware binary known in the 3DS community as “ARM9Loader”. This encryption layer loads new keys from NAND sector 0x96 (the plaintext of which is the same for all New 3DS devices), which are encrypted with AES-128-ECB by a key calculated from a SHA-256 hash of the the console-unique (different for every console) one-time programmable (“OTP”) memory region of the device. Keys on the 3DS are loaded into write-only “keyslots”, which are secure memory

areas readable only by the hardware AES implementation. This means that it should not be possible to recover these keys after they have been written to the AES module [2].

After ARM9Loader decrypts the NAND “keysector”, access to the OTP memory region is disabled until next boot via the hardware register CFG\_SYSPROT9. Once the OTP region has been secured, ARM9Loader then decrypts the ARM9 firmware binary using a key from the decrypted keysector. Additionally, the hash of the OTP memory region is outputted to the SHA\_HASH hardware register after the hardware SHA implementation calculates it [3]. Importantly, This register is not cleared until the ARM9 firmware binary clears it after ARM9Loader jumps to its entrypoint.

## II. SECURE BOOTCHAIN IMPLEMENTATIONS

### A. Implementation (v1.0)

The New 3DS shipped with version 8.1.0 of the system software, which contains the following implementation of ARM9Loader in the boot process [4]:

- 1) Calculate SHA-256 hash of the OTP memory region and output the hash to the SHA\_HASH register
- 2) Calculate AES write-only keyslot 0x11 from the OTP hash
- 3) Read the keysector from NAND to memory
- 4) Decrypt the keysector using keyslot 0x11
- 5) Clear AES write-only keyslot 0x11 to zero
- 6) Disable access to the OTP memory region by setting CFG\_SYSPROT9
- 7) Write Key #1 from the keysector to AES write-only keyslot 0x11
- 8) Instruct the AES module to calculate sub-keys 0x18 through 0x1F based on keyslot 0x11
- 9) Verify keyslot 0x11 by encrypting a fixed test vector and checking the result
- 10) Instruct the AES module to decrypt the ARM9 firmware binary
- 11) Jump to the ARM9 firmware binary entrypoint

The problem with this implementation of ARM9Loader is that keyslot 0x11 was not cleared after decrypting the ARM9 firmware binary (before jumping to the entrypoint), and thus it was possible to gain ARM9 code execution at a later point and instruct the AES module to regenerate all of the secret sub-keys without having access to the decrypted keysector. This was partially fixed with the update 9.5.0 by clearing keyslot 0x11 after ARM9Loader decrypts the ARM9 firmware binary, but keyslot 0x11 was still set with keysector Key #1 [5].

### B. Implementation (v2.0)

The system software update 9.6.0 fixed the shortcomings of the first ARM9Loader implementation by using a different keysector key and clearing it properly this time. It contains the following implementation of ARM9Loader in the boot process [4]:

- 1) Calculate SHA-256 hash of the OTP memory region and output the hash to the SHA\_HASH register
- 2) Calculate AES write-only keyslot 0x11 from the OTP hash
- 3) Read the keysector from NAND to memory
- 4) Decrypt the keysector using keyslot 0x11
- 5) Clear AES write-only keyslot 0x11 to zero
- 6) Disable access to the OTP memory region by setting CFG\_SYSPROT9
- 7) Decrypt a key from within ARM9Loader's read-only data and set that key to keyslot 0x18
- 8) Write Key #1 from the keysector to AES write-only keyslot 0x11
- 9) Instruct the AES module to calculate sub-keys 0x19 through 0x1F based on keyslot 0x11
- 10) Verify keyslot 0x11 by encrypting a fixed test vector and checking the result
- 11) Write Key #2 from the keysector to AES write-only keyslot 0x11
- 12) Instruct the AES module to decrypt the ARM9 firmware binary
- 13) Disable access to the OTP memory region by setting CFG\_SYSPROT9
- 14) Clear AES write-only keyslot 0x11 to zero
- 15) Jump to the ARM9 firmware binary entrypoint

The problem with this implementation of ARM9Loader is that Key #2 is never verified by encrypting a fixed test vector and checking the result, meaning that Key #2 can be altered and the ARM9 firmware binary will be deterministically decrypted to incorrect plaintext data and executed. Unfortunately, because the keysector is encrypted with the console unique OTP hash (which we cannot access post-ARM9Loader), it is not possible to arbitrarily write any key to it and get a predictable decryption result [5].

### III. KEYSHUFFLING

The keysector is encrypted with AES-128-ECB, where AES is the encryption standard, 128 is the number of bits in a block, and ECB is the cipher mode. The two parts of this specific encryption method that interest us are the block size and the cipher mode. The keys in the keysector are all 16 bytes (128 bits) long, and there is no message authentication code of any kind to increase the size or validate the key positions. This is a crucial fact because of the cipher mode used. In Electronic Codebook (ECB), each block in the message (the keysector in this case) is divided into blocks of the given size and encrypted separately. This means that each key in the keysector aligns with a block that is encrypted completely separately from all of the other aligned keys, allowing us to move the keys into any position we want while still decrypting properly.

Another critical aspect of this attack is that each version of the ARM9 firmware binary is encrypted with a different counter in AES-128-CTR mode, meaning that even code that is the same between versions will decrypt to something completely different for each key that we try. A NAND sector on the device is 0x200 bytes and each key is 0x10 bytes. When we do not count the Key #2 that properly decrypts the ARM9 firmware binary, that means we have 31 different keys for each ARM9 firmware binary version that will all decrypt the binary to a different incorrect plaintext which will then be executed.

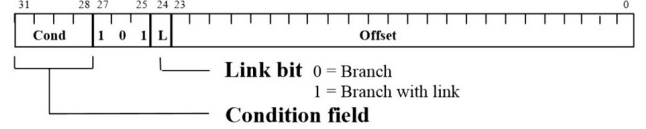


Fig. 1. Encoding of an ARM branch instruction [6]

If we try enough keys and ARM9 firmware binary versions, there is a high probability that we will eventually find one that decrypts the ARM9 firmware binary deterministically such that the entrypoint is a branch instruction to another memory address where a payload can be placed. We found, by trying all possible keys and ARM9 firmware binary versions, that there is one combination that causes a jump to a usable memory location. By installing the 10.0.0 update of the ARM9 firmware binary and using the keyshuffling attack to replace keysector Key #2 with a copy of keysector Key #1, the resulting incorrect plaintext from the deterministic decryption will have a jump to memory address 0x80FD0F8 at the ARM9 firmware binary entrypoint. This redirects the code flow outside of the secure bootchain and into manipulatable memory.

To exploit this vulnerable redirection of code flow, we took advantage of another major oversight in the device's design: when the device reboots, all memory keeps its contents. This makes it possible for us to gain ARM9 code execution at a point after the system boot completes, install the 10.0.0 update of the ARM9 firmware binary, use keyshuffling to replace keysector Key #2 with keysector Key #1, insert a series of NOP instructions ("NOP sled") at memory address 0x80FD0F8 followed by a payload that dumps the SHA\_HASH register, then reboot.

When the device comes back up, the ARM9 boot ROM will read ARM9Loader and the encrypted ARM9 firmware binary to memory, then jump to ARM9Loader which will perform the implementation v2.0 steps described previously. ARM9Loader will then (incorrectly) attempt to decrypt the ARM9 firmware with Key #2 (which is now identical to Key #1), disable access to the OTP memory region by setting CFG\_SYSPROT9, and jump to the ARM9 firmware binary entrypoint. When it does, it will immediately jump to memory address 0x80FD0F8, execute the series of NOP instructions and "slide" to the payload. The payload then copies the hash of the OTP memory region from the uncleared SHA\_HASH output register for the purpose of decrypting the keysector at a later point.

#### IV. PERSISTENCE

With the SHA-256 hash of the OTP memory region, we are now able to decrypt or re-encrypt the keysector. This means that we now completely control what key will be used for decrypting the ARM9 firmware binary, rather than being limited to one of the other 31 keys in the keysector. To understand how controlling the location of memory jumped to by ARM9Loader is useful in the context of persistence, we must look at how the boot ROM loads ARM9Loader and the firmware binary from NAND to memory.

On the 3DS, ARM9Loader and the ARM9 Firmware binary, known collectively as “FIRM”, are stored twice on NAND in two partitions known as “FIRM0” and “FIRM1” for redundancy purposes. This means that if one firmware partition becomes corrupted, the device will still boot. Note that the FIRM partitions, as with most partitions on the device, are encrypted using console unique keys derived from the OTP and set by the boot ROM. The boot ROM uses the following implementation to load FIRM0 and FIRM1 from NAND [7] [8] [9]:

- 1) Decrypt the OTP memory region and store the first 0x90 bytes in Instruction Tightly-Coupled Memory (“ITCM”)
- 2) Calculate AES write-only keyslot 0x06 from decrypted OTP memory region in ITCM
- 3) Read FIRM0 NAND partition to memory
- 4) Decrypt FIRM0 partition in memory using keyslot 0x06
- 5) Check the RSA signature of decrypted FIRM0 against burned in public key
  - a) If the RSA signature is valid, jump to FIRM0 ARM9Loader entrypoint
  - b) If the RSA signature is invalid, continue
- 6) Read FIRM1 NAND partition to memory on top of FIRM0
- 7) Decrypt FIRM1 partition in memory using keyslot 0x06
- 8) Check the RSA signature of decrypted FIRM1 against burned in public key
  - a) If the RSA signature is valid, jump to FIRM1 ARM9Loader entrypoint
  - b) If the RSA signature is invalid, panic

The problem with this implementation is that, in the case of a FIRM0 partition with an invalid signature, FIRM1 is loaded on top of it without FIRM0’s memory being cleared [6]. This allows for an attack in which we install the largest legitimately signed ARM9 firmware binary available to us (8.1.0) into FIRM0, then install the smallest legitimately signed ARM9 firmware binary available to us (10.2.0) into FIRM1. We could then place a payload of our choosing on top of FIRM0 at a point after FIRM1’s size and find a key whose deterministic decryption of the 10.2.0 ARM9 firmware binary to a resulting incorrect plaintext will have a branch instruction to memory address after the end of the 10.2.0 ARM9 firmware binary but within the size of the 8.1.0 ARM9 firmware binary [6].

We ran a bruteforce of all possible Key #2 values until we found the key whose deterministic decryption of the 8.1.0 FIRM0 ARM9 firmware binary to a resulting incorrect plaintext has a branch instruction to 0x190

bytes after the end of the 8.1.0 ARM9 firmware binary (0x0824D3CB4AE94D624DAA526047C59394). We use 0x190 bytes after the end of the 8.1.0 ARM9 firmware binary because empirical tests determined that placing the payload any sooner caused the payload to be overwritten by an unknown factor in the boot process (likely the stack or bss segment). After finding this key, we encrypt it with the OTP memory region hash obtained through the keyshuffling exploit and install the encrypted key into keysector Key #2. We then add 0x190 to the size of the 8.1.0 ARM9 firmware binary and write a payload of our choosing to that position relative to the 10.2.0 ARM9 firmware binary [6].

When the device is rebooted, the boot ROM loads FIRM0 into memory and decrypts it with AES write-only keyslot 0x06. It then checks the RSA signature of decrypted FIRM0, which fails because our payload at the end of the 8.1.0 ARM9 firmware binary has modified the hash. The boot ROM then, without clearing the memory now containing our payload, loads FIRM1 into memory on top of FIRM0 and decrypts it with AES write-only keyslot 0x06 [7]. The boot ROM checks the RSA signature of FIRM1, which passes because the payload comes after the 10.2.0 ARM9 firmware binary. The boot ROM then jumps to the FIRM1 ARM9Loader in memory which uses our crafted Key #2 to deterministically decrypt the 8.1.0 ARM9 firmware binary to an incorrect plaintext and jumps to its entrypoint. When it does, it will immediately jump to the memory address of the payload of our choosing, giving us ARM9 code execution on every successive boot before the ARM9 firmware binary runs [6] [7].

#### V. CONCLUSION

We have demonstrated a keyshuffling attack on the secure bootchain of the Nintendo 3DS in order to redirect code flow into insecure memory. This allowed us to gain code execution early enough to extract hardware secrets for the purpose of setting up persistent early code execution that survives reboots. This attack was made possible through a hardware revision that included the addition of a new encryption layer that not only failed to provide extra security, but additionally compromised a bootchain which had previously been considered secure. This shows the danger of including new security measures in an existing chain of trust without properly vetting them.

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