

# Timing Side Channel Attack Report

This report shows the steps we have been through before getting to the final result. According to the actual chronological order those steps have been performed, the main sections are:

- Theoretical references
- Side channel attack
- Montgomery based RSA encryption
- Code development
- Big integer library
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  - Operations
- RSA encryption
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Before starting, clone the git repository and get into it:

```
$ git config --global user.name "John Doe"
$ git config --global user.email johndoe@example.com
$ cd some-where
$ git clone git@gitlab.eurecom.fr:roggero/tsca.git
$ cd tsca
```

## Theoretical references

### Side channel attack

The name side channel attack refers to any attack based on a certain amount of information obtained from a computer system on which statistics could be

computed. Relating those probabilistic statistics to the actual knowledge of the internal operation of the system, secrets related to the internal operations themselves could be disclosed.

In our case, the attack will be a timing attack on an RSA crypto-computation (Montgomery modular algorithm based). This means that, basing on the knowledge of the actual algorithm used by the encryption and exploiting its timing weaknesses, the attacker could obtain timing measurements on a series of encryptions and could analyze them, disclosing the secret key. More on the Montgomery based RSA encryption is explained in the section Montgomery based RSA encryption, while for the attack algorithm employed refer to Attack algorithm.

### Montgomery based RSA encryption

The RSA encryption algorithm involves two steps:

- key pair generation
- modular exponentiation and multiplication based encryption

For the key pair generation, first two distinct large prime numbers ( $p, q$ ) have to be found. Then, the modulus  $n$  is computed as the product of the two prime numbers. The Euler's totient  $t$  is successively computed as the product

$$t = (p - 1) \cdot (q - 1)$$

and the public exponent  $e$  is chosen such that

$$1 < e < t$$

and

$$\gcd(e, t) = 1.$$

Finally, the secret exponent  $d$  is chosen such that

$$d \cdot e = 1 \bmod t.$$

The pair  $(n, e)$  constitutes the public key, while the pair  $(n, d)$  the secret one.

To perform the encryption of a message  $m$  to obtain the ciphertext  $c$ , the following operation is performed:

$$c = m^e \bmod n.$$

This computation consists of two main operations: modular multiplication and exponentiation. The implementation we adopted takes advantage instead of the Montgomery multiplication: the multiplier digits are consumed in the reverse order and no full length comparisons are required for the modular reductions (refer to Colin D. Walter paper on the topic). The basic pseudo-code it defines for the Montgomery modular multiplication is:

```

S = 0;
for i = 0 to nb-1 do
    qi = (s0 + aib0) x (-m^-1) mod r;
    S = (S + ai x b + qi x n) div r;
end for;
return S;

```

where **nb** is the total number of bits of the secret key, **a** and **b** are the first two operands which are determined according to the Montgomery exponentiation function:

```

c = MM(k0,1,n);
s = MM(k0,1,n);
for i = 0 to nb-1 do
    if (ei = 1) then
        c = MM(c,s,n);
    end if;
    s = MM(s,s,n);
end if;
c = MM(c,1,n);
return c;

```

where **MM()** is the Montgomery multiplication defined by the previous algorithm and **k0** is

$$k_0 = 2^n$$

where **n** is the modulus computed before.

## Code development

The starting point to get a working implementation for the Montgomery based RSA encryption is having a library capable of managing integers on a large number of bits (such as 1024 or 2048), since this will be most likely the size that will be used by most of the main core variables (private and public key, for instance). Usually, standard C libraries support numbers up to 128 bits (long double), which is the minimum key size for an admissible time side channel attack on RSA encryption. Thus, an extra library is needed.

After such library is obtained, the pseudo-code presented above (Theoretical references) has to be ported into a real C implementation through the primary functions `Montgomery multiplication` and `Montgomery exponentiation`.

Finally, both the library and the RSA encryption have to be checked against a reference and reliable implementation; in our case, it will be a Python one, since this programming language doesn't force any explicitly defined limit to a number object, which makes it an ideal candidate.

## Big integer library

There are two main possibilities to manage large integer numbers: rely on an available library (such as **GMP** (GNU Multiple Precision Arithmetic Library) or **OpenSSL**) or create one from scratch.

The former implies to understand how it works and to deal with an optimized version of all the main operations. This code optimizations could lead to a significant reduction of the execution time related to data dependencies, making the final attack more complicated.

The latter, on the other side, requires more time to be implemented and tested, but theoretically should guarantee a higher data dependency. Thus, this option is the one used.

The custom library is implemented through the files `bigint.h` and `bigint.c`, which define: \* the data type we will use to work on large integers \* all the main operation needed to perform the Montgomery multiplication and exponentiation.

## Data type

In the file `bigint.h` the following parameter are free to be set:

- **VAR\_SIZE**: it determines the basic unit to build the larger integer among 8 (`uint8_t`), 16 (`uint16_t`), 32 (`uint32_t`) and 64 (`uint64_t`) bits. Recommended size is 32.
- **INT\_SIZE**: it determines the actual length of the data the system is working on (for instance, public and private key dimensions). Possible sizes are 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024 and 2048 bits.

As a consequence of these two parameter, the code defines the `bigint_t` data type as a struct containing a vector of **NUMB\_SIZE** elements of size **VAR\_SIZE**, where **NUMB\_SIZE** is equal to

$$NUMB\_SIZE = \frac{INT\_SIZE}{VAR\_SIZE} + 1.$$

Thus, the vector will always have an extra element, used to store possible carries due to intermediate operations. Instead of an extra element **VAR\_SIZE** long, a couple of bits would have been enough but, to keep the operations implementation simpler and straightforward, the choice fell back on the first solution.

Data are saved in little endian format, i.e. the lowest address in the array contains the lowest chunk of data, and so on.

## Operations

All the operations use parameter passed by value (no pointer usage). The library contains the following operations:

- Comparisons (if **first** is **eq/df/gt/ge/lt/le** to/than **second**, then the comparison returns 1 (true), otherwise returns 0 (false)):
  - Equality:
    - `int eq(bigint_t first, bigint_t second);`
  - Diversity:
    - `int df(bigint_t first, bigint_t second);`
  - Greater than:
    - `int gt(bigint_t first, bigint_t second);`
  - Greater or equal:
    - `int ge(bigint_t first, bigint_t second);`
  - Lower than:
    - `int lt(bigint_t first, bigint_t second);`
  - Lower or equal:
    - `int le(bigint_t first, bigint_t second);`
- Logicals (bitwise operation between **a** and **b**, except the **not**, which reverts **a**):
  - Bitwise and:
    - `bigint_t and(bigint_t a, bigint_t b);`
  - Bitwise or:
    - `bigint_t or(bigint_t a, bigint_t b);`
  - Not:
    - `bigint_t not(bigint_t a);`
  - Bitwise xor:
    - `bigint_t xor(bigint_t a, bigint_t b);`
- Shifts (**bigint\_t a** is shifted of **pl** positions (logical shift semantic)):
  - Logical shift right:
    - `bigint_t lsr(bigint_t a, int pl);`
  - Logical shift left:
    - `bigint_t lsl(bigint_t a, int pl);`
- Arithmetics (**a** is **sum/sub/mul** with **b**):
  - Sum:
    - `bigint_t sum(bigint_t a, bigint_t b);`
  - Subtraction:
    - `bigint_t sub(bigint_t a, bigint_t b);`
  - Multiplication (the result is casted to the **bigint\_t** size):
    - `bigint_t mul(bigint_t a, bigint_t b);`
- Utility:
  - Init: initialize a variable into the **bigint\_t** structure passed a pointer, except the extra element (element **NUMB\\_SIZE**):
    - `bigint_t init(const char *s);`
  - Init\_full: as **init**, but initialize also the extra element:
    - `bigint_t init_full(const char *s);`
  - Sum\_4\_mul: special sum for the **mul** operation:
    - `var_t sum_4_mul(var_t *a, var_t b, var_t *carry, int act);`
  - print\_to\_stdout: print the **bigint\_t** number in hexadecimal format (0x.):
    - `void print_to_stdout(bigint_t *a);`

- `rand_b`: return a random `bigint_t` number:  
     – `bigint_t rand_b( void );`

To check the actual implemetations of those functions, refer to the file `bigint.c`.

## RSA ecryption

The Montgomery multiplication and exponentiation pseudo-codes (section Montgomery based RSA encryption) are ported instruction by instruction in C with the implemetations reported in the files pair `mm.h`, `mm.c` and `me.h`, `me.c`. More specifically, refer to the functions `MM_big` and `ME_big`.

During the implementation, one main flaw was discovered in the Montgomery exponentiation function: calling a Montgomery multiplication multiple times may generate results which doesn't fit in the same number of bits of the operands (i.e. a Montgomery multiplication on 128 bits doesn't necessary produce a result on 128 bits). This is due to the implementation of the multiplication itself. As a countermeasure, since we have the possibility to add, as explained in the section Data type, one additional chunk of data (i.e 8, 16, etc.. bits), every time a `MM_big` or a `ME_big` is referenced, it is forced to work on `INT_SIZE` bits plus 2. Those 2 bits are the first taken from the extra data chunk. In this way, the critical overflow flaw should be prevented.

In the acquisition file `helloworld.c` (mentioned and explained later in Data acquisition), you can find an example of `ME_big` functions which receive, as one of the parameters, `INT_SIZE + 2`. As a consequence, also the internal `MM_big` multiplication used to complete the exponentiation receive as number of bits `INT_SIZE + 2`.

## Code validation

The `bigint` library and the Montgomery exponentiation are now ready to be tested. As previously mentioned, Python is the programming language chosen both to launch several times the test operation and to provided the reference implementation. To compile the code, issue the following commands:

```
$ cd tsca
$ make test
```

It will generate a file called `main` in the same folder. Enter then the folder `test`:

```
$ cd test
```

It contains a set of python test programs which implement reliable versions of the very same C functions listed in C (section Operations). To run the tests on the `bigint` library, type:

```

# Comparisons:
$ python3 comp.py <operation> <numberoftests> <bit>
# Logicals:
$ python3 logic.py <operation> <numberoftests> <bit>
# Shifts:
$ python3 shift.py <operation> <numberoftests> <bit>
# Arithmetics:
$ python3 arith.py <operation> <numberoftests> <bit>

```

The chosen python script will check the custom implementation launching the executable `main` against its internal implementation. If `<numberoftest>` and `<bit>` are not defined, the program will automatically test for 10000 tests on 128 bits.

To run instead the test on the Montgomery operations type:

```

# Multiplication
$ python3 modular.py mm <numberoftests> <bit>
# Exponentiation
$ python3 modular.py me <numberoftests> <bit>

```

All the functions have been tested with the approach just shown for a number of tests between 10 millions and 100 millions each. Each iteration of any of the Python scripts uses random numbers generated runtime. Since at the time this report is written no error is detected, the library are supposed to be reliable from now on.

## Data acquisition

It's time now to intensively run many Montgomery exponentiation encryption on a bunch of messages using different sets of private exponent `e`, modulus `m` and `k0` and obtain the timing measurements associated to each set, to be able afterwards to mount an attack on them.

The different predefined sets are declared in the file `cipher.c`: the values for `VERSION` in `cipher.h` and having a predefined value for the key width (set in `big-int.h` with the parameter `INT_SIZE`) picks up a different set. The number of sets is limited since we don't have a code capable of generating them autonomously. Have a look at them and select one.

Two different codes are available to obtain timing measurements:

- 
-

## Bare metal Zybo Board acquisition

The folder `zybo` contains all the necessary files to define an hardware platform which is capable of running a custom code. Inside, the folder `ZC010_wrapper_hw_platform_0` specifies a set of information useful to the first stage boot loader to initialize the hardware platform on which our code will run. The folder `Test_sd_bsp` contains the Xilinx libraries with a set of built-in functions for the board. Finally, the folder `Test_sd` contains the actual acquisition code (`helloworld.c`), together with the `boot.bin` and a set of other configuration files.

To run acquisitions on a OS-less system, in our case the Zybo board, two preliminary steps are necessary: \* set the `VERSION` parameter in `cipher.h`; \* set the `INT_SIZE` parameter in `zybo bigint.h` (the make-able version in the `zybo` folder, not the original one); \* set the `TESTNUM` parameter in `helloworld.c` (number of total acquisitions).

As just mentioned, the actual acquisition code is contained in the file `helloworld.c`. Have a look at it:

```
$ cd ..
$ vim ./zybo/Test_sd/src/helloworld.c
```

The `main()` function performs the following: \* Creates two data file (`PLAIN.BIN` and `TIME.BIN`) that will be written on the same SD card we will plug in the zybo; the first contains the actual value of the message it has been encrypted, the second one the timing measurement related to that encryption; \* Initializes the data structure `pair`, which contains the set of private key, public key and modulus; \* Initialize the configuration of one led (`MI07` on the zybo board) that will be turned on when the acquisition is concluded; \* Starts the acquisition loop a number of times equal to `TESTNUM`: the message to be encrypted is randomly generated run-time and feeds one Montgomery exponentiation, whose execution time in terms of clock cycles is recorded thanks to the Xilinx built in function `XTime_GetTime`, included in the library `xtime_1.h`; finally, write the two data files; \* When the acquisition loop is over, the led is turned on and the `main()` returns.

To run an acquisition campaign, plug and SD card in the laptop/pc and type the following commands:

```
$ export PATH=/path-to-/Xilinx/SDK/2018.3/gnu/aarch32/lin/gcc-arm-none-eabi/bin/:$PATH
$ export PATH=/path-to-/Xilinx/SDK/2018.3/bin/:$PATH
$ cd ./zybo/Test_sd/Debug/
$ source set.sh <path-to-SD>
```

This will compile the whole bunch of files, create the `boot.bin` file, copy it to the SD card and unmount it. At this point, plug the SD card in the zybo board and power it on. When the `MI07` led will turn on, the acquisition will be completed and the files ready to be read. Be careful, the zybo board is way less powerful



than a PC microprocessor, setting a higher number of bits for the secret key and a higher number of acquisitions may need up to days! Setting 128 bits (`INT_SIZE`) and 10000 acquisitions (`TESTNUM`), the board should take around 3 minutes to generate the two files.

To visualize the results, copy the files `PLAIN.BIN` and `TIME.BIN` in the folder `data` and give them a new name. Then, type:

```
$ cd data
$ ./graph.py newname_TIME.BIN
```

It will appear the resulting distribution of samples versus the number of clock cycles. The following figure is most likely what you should obtain:

and is generated from 100000 samples on a 128 bits key. It is a Gaussian distribution, which shows clearly that, even without the intervention of an operating system, on average the computations take a different time. If we don't consider the uncertainty related to the time measuring functions, this behavior is clearly due to algorithm data dependencies.

## OS acquisition

In the folder `source` we made also available a version capable of obtaining the very same measurements but on a system running an operating system. The file is `timing.c`, but before obtaining the acquisitions, the following parameters have to be set: \* set the `VERSION` parameter in `cipher.h`; \* set the `INT_SIZE` parameter in `bigint.h`; \* set the `TESTNUM` parameter in `timing.c`; \* set the `MODE` parameter in `timing.c` to decide if the timing measurements will be done on the whole modular exponentiation (`MODE = 0`) or only on the modulus squaring (`MODE = 1`).

Have a look at the file:

```
$ vim ./source/timing.c
```

The `main()` function performs the following: \* Initialize the data structure `pair`; \* Creates/opens two data files (`PLAIN.BIN` and `TIME.BIN`) in the folder `data`, which will be populated with a number of samples (plaintext encrypted) according to `TESTNUM`; \* For each plaintext, the timing measurements are taken `REPETITIONS` times (set to 10) and the minimum timing is chosen. In this way we try to reduce possible weird measurements due to OS scheduling policies, which may lead to clearly out-of-bound results. The functions on which the timings are taken (`ME_big()` and `MM_big()`) are the very same used in the `zybo` case. \* The functions used for timing measurements are reported in `time_meas.h`; \* A live progress status is printed to screen (it doesn't influence the timing measurements): when the execution is done, the two files are ready to be attacked.

To run the acquisition, type:

```
$ cd ..
$ make timing
$ ./timing
```

As for the zybo case, the time taken by this operation strongly depends on the width of the key chosen and the number of samples required. As a reference, on a single core running at 3.1 GHz, the time needed for 10000 measurements on a 128 bit key is around 4 minutes. The overhead with respect to the zybo is due to the factor 10 added when we look for the minimum.

As before, visualize the results:

```
$ cd data
$ ./graph.py newname_TIME.BIN
```

The following figure was obtained for 20000 samples on a 128 bits key.

As before, a Gaussian distribution is obtained, plus some spare samples with really high execution time, probably related to time windows in which the operating system preempted the script execution. Those will be filtered away during the attack phase, in order to rely only on significant data.

## Attack

The basic starting point for a time side channel attack is to create statistics on a set of acquired data. At this stage, we have both bare-metal data and OS-dependent data, on which we can statistically work. Now we need an algorithm able to guess bit-a-bit the secret key exploiting the timing dependencies between the total time we measured and the single RSA stage operation time, which we don't know but we have to estimate in some way. The hypothesis to carry on such an attack are: \* timing for a sufficiently large number of plaintexts is known: we have an almost infinite number of samples we can obtain on our local software implementations; in the folder data we collected a set of file pairs PLAIN.BIN and TIME.BIN in the format:

```
P<NumberOfSamples>_<OptimizationFlag>_<Key>_<NumberOfBits>.BIN
T<NumberOfSamples>_<OptimizationFlag>_<Key>_<NumberOfBits>.BIN  *
```

plaintexts used for measurements are known: the set of files pairs just shown includes a timing file and a plain text file, containing all the plaintext provided to the alorithm;

- the secret key is always the same for all the encryptions under the same acquisition campaign: each files pair in data is obtained for one and the very same key;
- the time taken by the operations in the algorithm is data-depended (i.e. we have a way to correlate the total time and the time taken by each iteration): since our library is optimization-free, data dependencies should be ensured;

- knowledge of the algorithm to be able to emulate it: since we are attacking a working RSA implementation customized by ourselves, we have access to the implementation.

Since all the main hypothesis are fulfilled, we can go on and start the attack.

## **Attack algorithm**

The attack algorithm went under different stages of implementation ideas and improvements, to get to the Final implementation. In the following we reported the two main ideas we found, around which we worked on some enhancements; the first solution was dropped halfway to make room to the final, more reliable and powerful one. They are described in the following sections.

In any case, the main ideas around which the algorithm wraps around are: \* work guessing one or more bit looping on each bit in the key length; \* for each plain text (and thus total time sample) get a time estimate through the function `MM_big_estimate()` (refer to Final implementation for details); \* correlate through the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (called PCC from now on) the total execution time for an encryption to the estimate itself; \* choose the best correlating guess and move to the following bit(s);

Accurate details are given in the following sections.

The attack algorithm was first implemented in Python to have an initial flexibility and finally (only for the Final implementation) ported in C to allow faster execution time.

## **First implementation attempt**

## **Final implementation**

## **Codes**

## **Python**

## **C**

## **Attack results**

## **Launch the attack**

We highly suggest to run the attack Using the C file, since it provides the same accuracy as the Python code but with at least a time reduction factor of 10. Before running the attack:

- choose the number of bits `INT_SIZE` in `bigint.h`;
- choose the number of sample `N_SAMPLES` in `panda4x4.h`;
- choose the plain text file name `MSG_FILE` and the time file `TIME_FILE` in `panda4x4.h`;
- select the corresponding key setting `VERSION` in `cipher.h`;

Then type:

```
$ cd ..  
$ make attack  
$ ./panda4x4
```

The attack will start and will stop only at the end of the full key. Even if an error is encountered, the code keeps going till the end, printing finally an error message.

At each stage, the output printed to screen will look like:

```
00 :0.379561  
01 :0.380113  
10 :0.384785  
11 :0.388451  
Guess: 1 PCC: 0.773236  
Step: 30  
101010111110101101110011010001  
101010111110101101110011010001
```

This is obtained for `B_CONSIDERED` = 2 and `B_GUESSED` = 1. On the right the working bits are printed, with the respective correlation. The lines will be grouped according to the algorithm previously explained and the chosen bit(s) is(are) printed as **Guess:**. The value **PCC** is the cumulative Pearson correlation coefficient for the guessed bit(s). The current step is **Step:**, while the live update of the guessed key is printed in the first line and the correct expected bit of the secret key in the second one.

If the attack has to be run on the samples acquired on the OS, it is very important to filter all the sample far from the mean value, since they correspond to situations in which most likely the operating system preempted the executable. Thus, go into the file `panda4x4.h` and set `FILTERING` to 1. It will filter all the sample whose time value is far from the mean value of a value greater than the standard deviation multiplied for a coefficient `COEFF`. It can be set in `panda4x4.h`; a suggested value is 3: in this way, only the samples really far will be removed.

If the filtering is active, the program will print, at the beginning, the number of samples maintained for the attack:

```
Prefilter 13000 messages, post-filter 12906 messages
```

## Results

Nominally, attacking 10000 samples is more than sufficient to successfully retrieve keys both on 128 and 256 bits. If attacking samples from the OS, 15000 samples could be needed (before filtering). We don't have samples for 512 or more bits, since a reasonable number of samples, i.e. 20000 or more (for more bits we need more samples to find the key), may take days. Theoretically, with the right number of samples, it should work also for larger keys.

Talking about pure performances, the following results have been obtained (single core, 3.1 GHz):

Number of bits	Time [mm:ss]
128	4:05
256	24:10

The time is not simply doubled because, when switching from 128 to 256 bits, we have to take into account the following factors:

- The attack estimates the internal Montgomery multiplication (the one executed when  $e_i = 1$ ), which is executed, on average, one every two iterations (assuming the hamming weight of the key around half of its digits). Thus, time is increased by 50%;
- The attack always estimates the squaring Montgomery multiplication, which doubles the total time;
- Finally, the previous number of computation is again doubled since the code has to loop over twice as much bits.

Thus, the total time is increased by  $(1 + 2) * 3 = 6$  times. Following the same reasoning, every time we swap to the next highest number of key bits, the times is increased by a factor 6.

## Countermeasures

One of the possible countermeasures applicable on the RSA algorithm is **blinding**. We implemented the very same one proposed by Paul Cocher in his paper: the main purpose is to remove the data dependencies of the algorithm modifying the input plain text, such that the data used by the RSA algorithm are different than the one expected by the attacker. Thus, the timing measurements on the exponentiation will be completely uncorrelated with respect to the real data used in the algorithm as well as with respect to the timing estimates performed by the attacker. The mathematical footprint of the RSA makes easy to modify the input data, perform the exponentiation and re-modify the output cipher text to obtain the real expected cipher text, using

just a couple of Montgomery multiplication at the beginning and at the end of the algorithm.

The proposed blinding technique works in the following way: \* Before computing the modular exponentiation operation choose a random pair

$(v_i, v_f)$

such that

$(v_f)^{-1} = v_i^x \bmod n$ .

Cocher suggests that “for RSA it is faster to choose a random  $v_f$  relatively prime to  $n$  then compute  $v_i = (v_f^{-1})^e \bmod n$  where  $e$  is the public exponent”.

- Before the modular exponentiation, the input message is multiplied by

$v_i \bmod n$

- After the modular multiplication, the result is corrected multiplying it by:

$v_f \bmod n$

Moreover Cocher suggested that “computing inverses  $\bmod n$  is slow, so it is often not practical to generate a new random  $(v_i; v_f)$  pair for each new exponentiation. The  $v_f = (v_i^{-1})^x \bmod n$  calculation itself might even be subject to timing attacks. However  $(v_i; v_f)$  pairs should not be reused, since they themselves might be compromised by timing attacks, leaving the secret exponent vulnerable. An efficient solution to this problem is update  $v_i$  and  $v_f$  before each modular exponentiation step by computing  $v_i^1 = v_i^2$  and  $v_f^1 = v_f^2$ .”

This is exactly the approach we used. More specifically ..

ADD ALBI PART FROM SLIDES... say what we added in the code.

Practically, to run an acquisition campaign with blinding activated, modify:

- for the zybo samples

## Improvements

## Conclusions