

Cache-timing attacks

D. J. Bernstein

Thanks to:

University of Illinois at Chicago

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Alfred P. Sloan Foundation

<http://cr.yp.to/papers.html#cachetiming>, 2005:

“This paper reports successful extraction of a complete AES key from a network server on another computer.

The targeted server used its key solely to encrypt data using the OpenSSL AES implementation on a Pentium III.”

All code included in paper.

Easily reproducible.

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1. How to advertise an AES candidate
2. How to leak keys through timings: basic techniques
3. How to break AES remotely by forcing cache misses
4. How to skew a benchmark
5. How to leak keys through timings: advanced techniques
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1. Advertising an AES candidate

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2005, after AES is shown to be vulnerable, amazing change of position: Timing attacks are “**irrelevant for cryptographic design.**” Schneier, 2005:

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2. Leaking keys through timings

Most obvious timing variability: skipping an operation is faster than doing it.

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Solution: Use constant
password comparison

Old:

```
for (i = 0; i < len; i++)  
    if (x[i] != y[i])  
        return 0;  
return 1;
```

New:

```
diff = 0;  
for (i = 0; i < len; i++)  
    diff |= x[i] != y[i];  
return !diff;
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diff = 0;
for (i = 0; i < n; ++i)
    diff |= x[i] ^ y[i];
return !diff;
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Timing variability:

Verification is faster

Operating system

Applied string

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1996: Kocher points out timing attacks on cryptographic key bits. Example: key-dependent branch in modular reduction, performing large-integer subtraction for some inputs and not others, leaking key.

My reaction at the time: Yikes! Eliminate variable-time operations from cryptographic software! Beware microSPARC-IIep data-dependent FPU timings; use Fermat instead of Euclid for inversion in ECC; avoid S-boxes in ciphers; etc.

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for (i = 0; i < n; ++i)
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for (i = 0; i < n; ++i)
    x[i] ^= y[i];
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AES has function S' computed as f bytes to bytes. A

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byte Sprime
```

```
byte c =
```

```
if (c < 128
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```
return (c
```

```
}
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Timing leaks bit $c < 128$.

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AES has functions S, S' mapping bytes to bytes. Attack is against S' computed as follows:

```
byte Sprime(byte b) {  
    byte c = S(b);  
    if (c < 128) return c+c;  
    return (c+c)^283;  
}
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Timing leaks bit of c : faster if $c < 128$.

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Standard solution
replace branch by

```
X = c>>7;  
X |= (X<<1);  
X |= (X<<3);  
return (c<<
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CPUs handle this
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Quisquater publishes work on a “careless” implementation of AES that contains independent branches.

uses S, S' mapping. Attack is against branch prediction. Follows:

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int f(byte b) {  
    return S(b);  
}  
int g(byte c) {  
    return c+c;  
}  
int h(byte c) {  
    return c+c ^ 283;  
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Second most obvious source of variability: L2 cache access time is faster than DRAM. Similar to L1 cache, L2 is faster than L3.

Reading from cache takes less time than reading from uncached memory.

Variability mentioned in Kocher, 2000 Key Recovery from Wagner Hall (“Wagner Hall” is based on cache timing attacks on S-box ciphers like DES and Khufu are possible). Ferguson Schneier

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2002: Page publishes fast algorithm to find DES key from high-bandwidth timing information. DPA-style. Many plaintexts, each starting with empty cache. Algorithm input: for each plaintext, list of S-box lookups that missed the cache.

Avoid empty cache by preloading some S-box entries? “To **guarantee** this as an effective countermeasure we need to warm the cache with the entirety of all the S-boxes.”

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3. Breaking AES

Given 16-byte sequence and 16-byte sequence AES produces 16-byte sequence

Uses table lookup

$e_0 = \text{tab}[k[13]]$

$e_1 =$

$\text{tab}[k[0] \oplus n[0]]$

etc.

$\text{AES}_k(n) = (e_{78})$

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3. Breaking AES

Given 16-byte sequence n and 16-byte sequence k , AES produces 16-byte sequence $AES_k(n)$.

Uses table lookup and \oplus (xor):

$$e0 = \text{tab}[k[13]] \oplus 1$$

$$e1 =$$

$$\text{tab}[k[0] \oplus n[0]] \oplus k[0] \oplus e0$$

etc.

$$AES_k(n) = (e784, \dots, e799).$$

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$$AES_k(n) = (e_{784}, \dots, e_{799}).$$

High-speed AES
registers, several
Operations: byte
bytes to 1 byte),
byte to 4 byte),
Attacker can force
table entries out
observe encryption
Each cache miss
signal, clearly vis
from other AES
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Repeat for many
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AES produces

16-byte sequence $AES_k(n)$.

Uses table lookup and \oplus (xor):

$$e_0 = \text{tab}[k[13]] \oplus 1$$

$$e_1 =$$

$$\text{tab}[k[0] \oplus n[0]] \oplus k[0] \oplus e_0$$

etc.

$$AES_k(n) = (e_{784}, \dots, e_{799}).$$

High-speed AES uses 4-byte registers, several 1024-byte tables. Operations: byte extraction (4 bytes to 1 byte), table lookup (1 byte to 4 byte), \oplus .

Attacker can force selected table entries out of L2 cache, observe encryption time.

Each cache miss creates timing signal, clearly visible despite noise from other AES cache misses, other software, etc.

Repeat for many plaintexts, easily deduce key.

sequence n

key k ,

$e = \text{AES}_k(n)$.

operation \oplus (xor):

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$1 \oplus k[0] \oplus e_0$

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Example: $\text{tab}[k[0] \oplus n[0]]$ costs hundreds of extra cycles if this tab entry is not in L2 cache.

Knock $\text{tab}[13]$ out of cache. See signal when $k[0] \oplus n[0] = 13$.

Deduce $k[0]$ as $n[0] \oplus 13$.

(Complication: cache lines; need more work to find bottom bits of $k[0]$.)

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On (e.g.) Athlon: 65536-byte L1 cache is 2-way associative. If three 64-byte lines with the same address modulo 32768 are read, the first line is forced out of the L1 cache.

Athlon's 524288-byte L2 cache is 16-way associative. If 17 lines with the same address modulo 8192 are read, the first line is forced out of the L2 cache.

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How does attacker do the necessary accesses? Trivial on multiuser computer if attacker has account. Almost as easy without an account: e.g., attacker sends Java applet to user's browser.

What if computer has no browser, no buffer overflows, etc.? Clearly still possible to carry out the attack from another computer by figuring out packets that, when sent to (e.g.) Linux kernel, cause accesses of appropriate memory locations. Nobody has done this! Would make a nice paper!

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4. Skewing benchmarks

Many deceptive techniques
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- Bait-and-switch
- Guesses reported
- My-favorite-CPU
- Long-message
- Timings after padding
- High-variance techniques

Consequence: In
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Another computation, same CPU: 771 768 751 752 751 752 751 752 751 752 751 752 751 752.

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Load-after-store conflicts:

On (e.g.) Pentium III, load from L1 cache is slightly slower if it involves same cache line modulo 4096 as a recent store.

This timing variation happens even if all loads are from L1 cache!

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585.

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Cache-bank throughput limits:

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Exception: Second load
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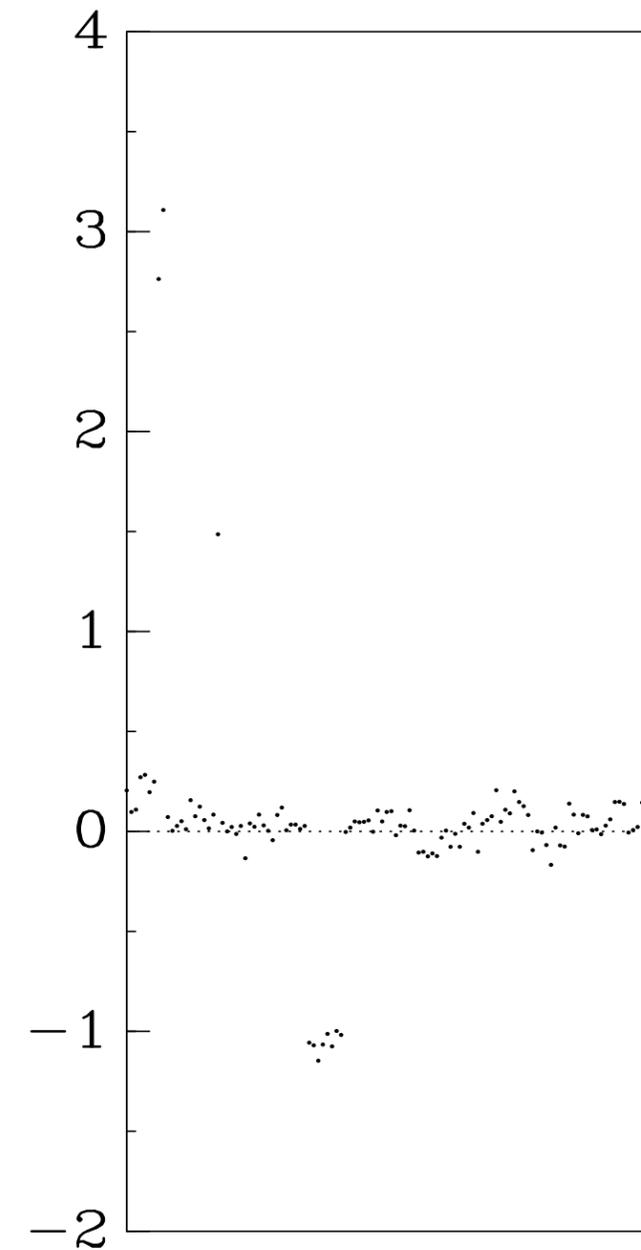
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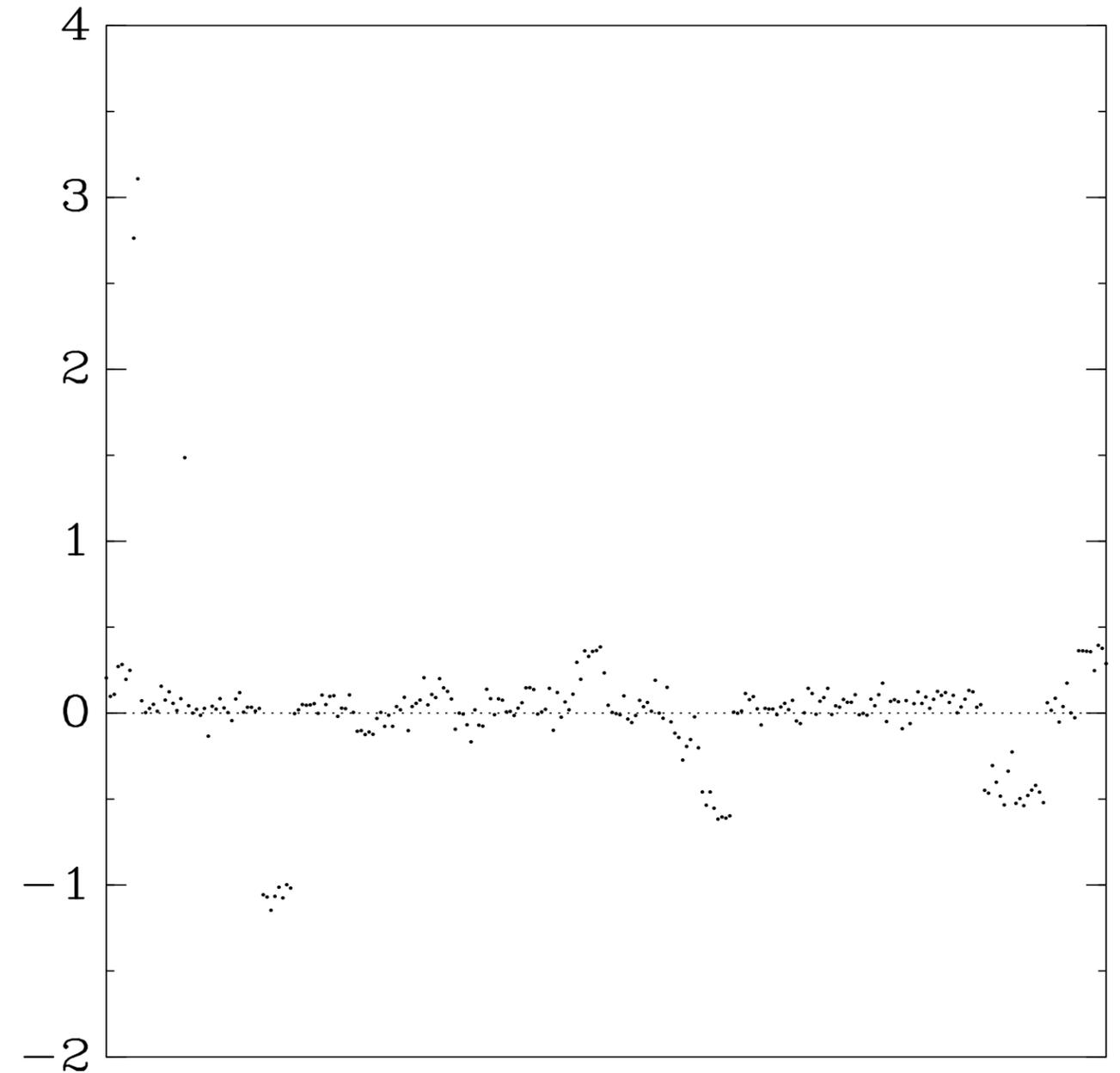
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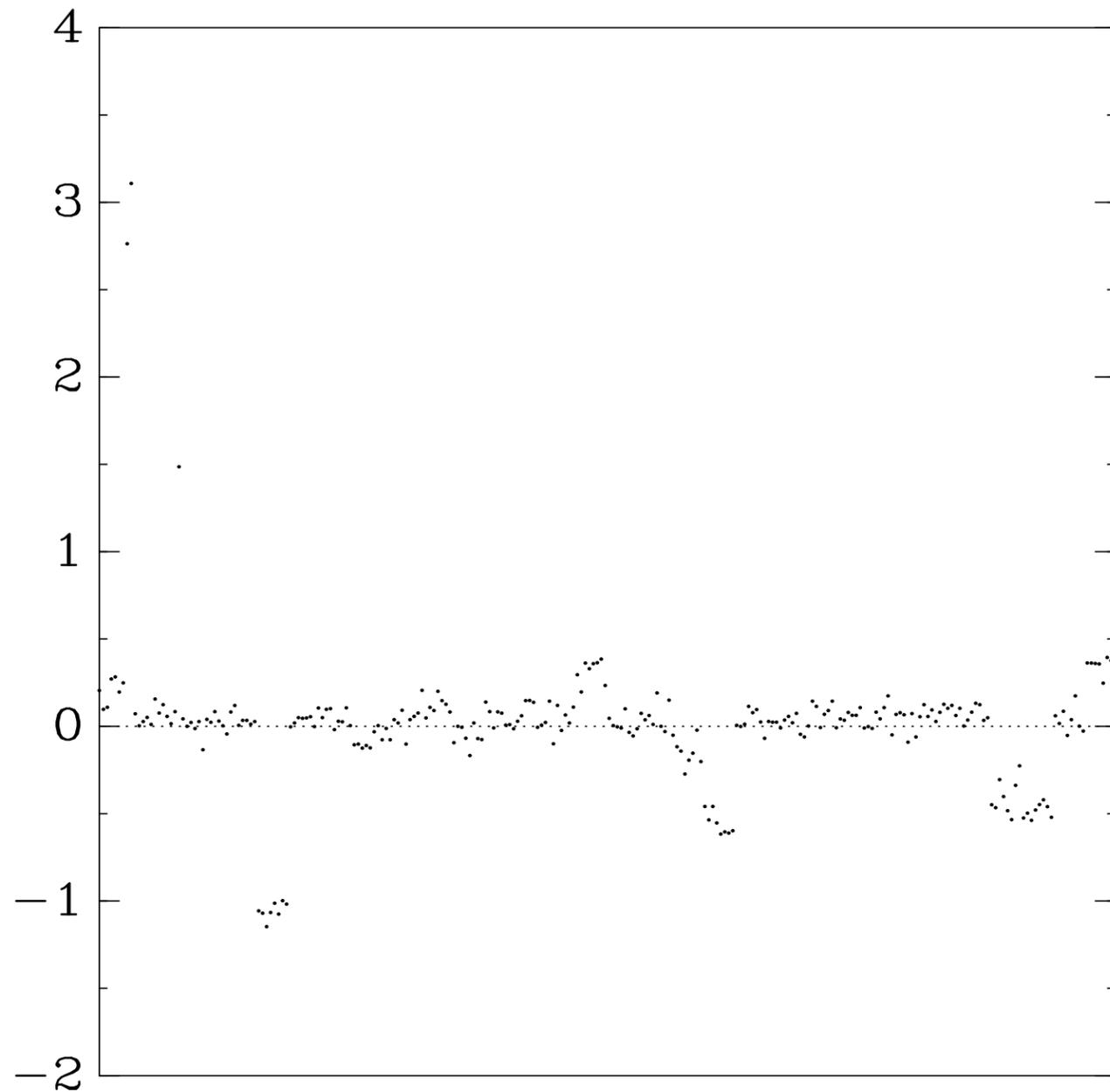


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Graph has x -coordinates
0 through 255.

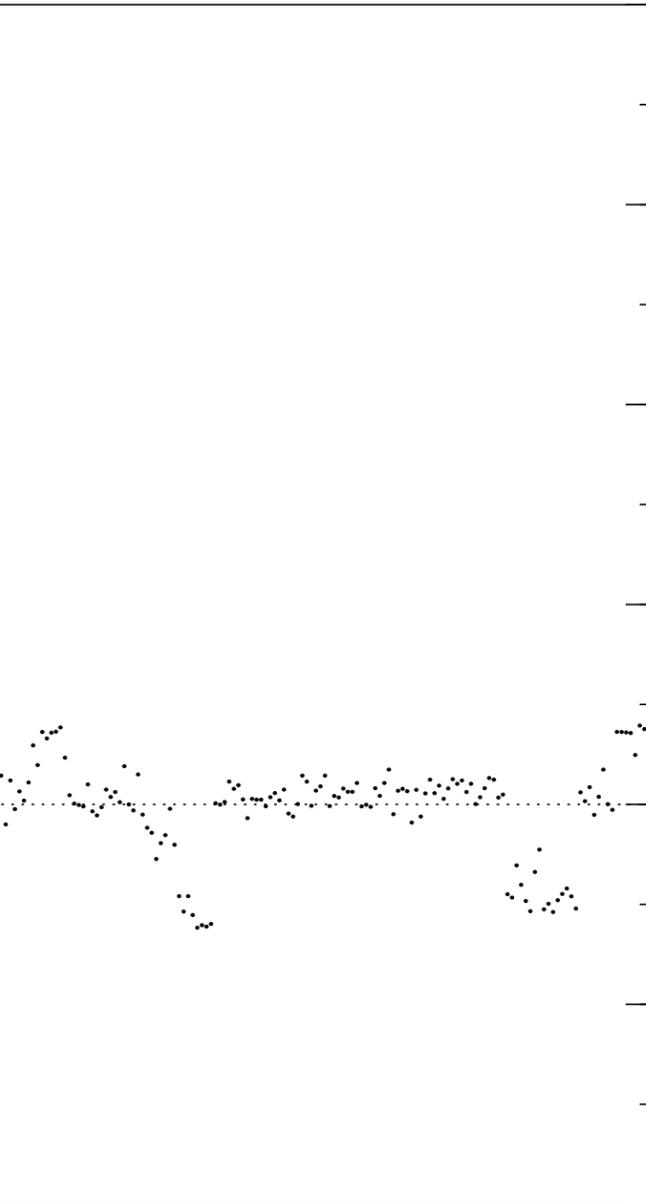
y -coordinate: average cycles
to encrypt random plaintext
with $k[13] \oplus n[13] = x$,
minus average cycles to encrypt
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Encryption time (for this test
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is maximized when

$$k[13] \oplus n[13] = 8.$$

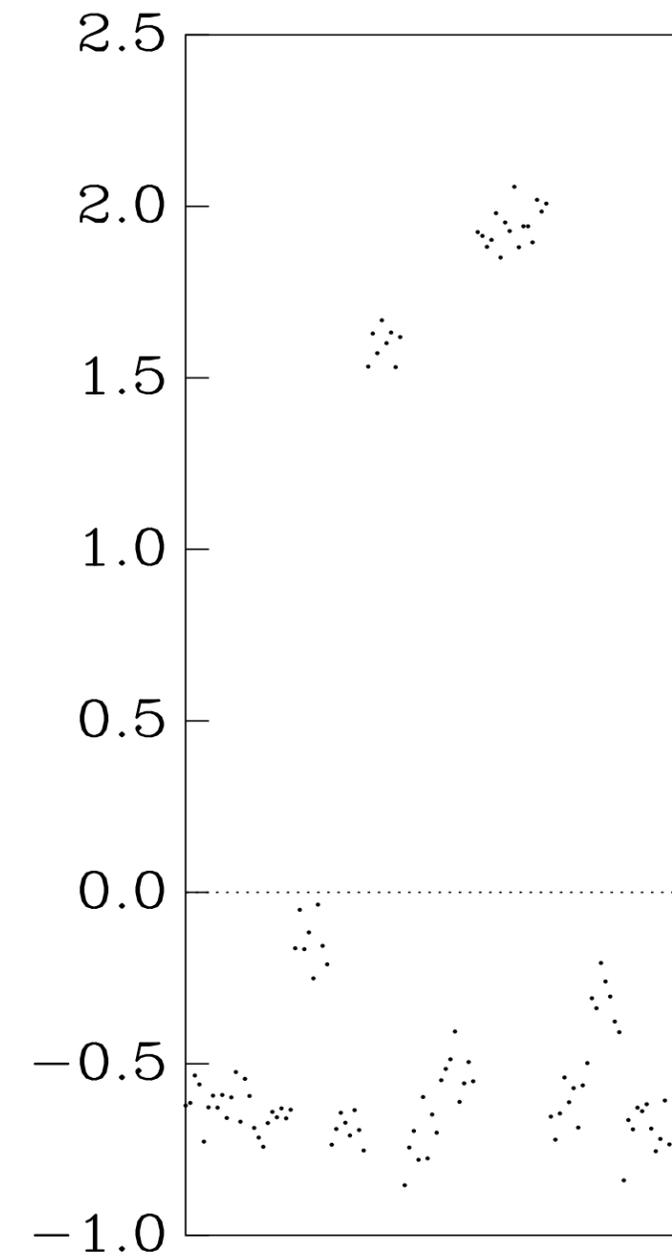
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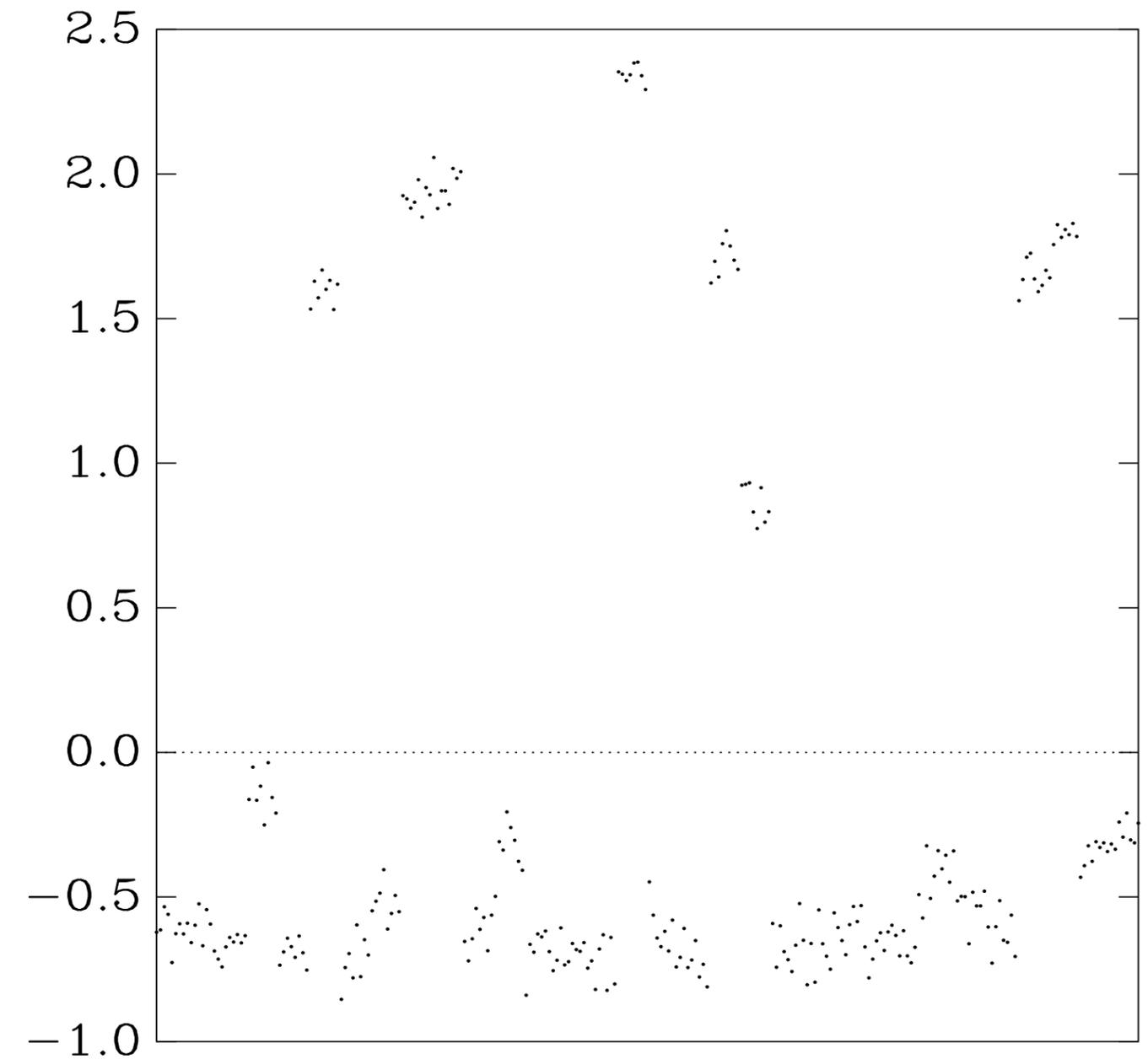


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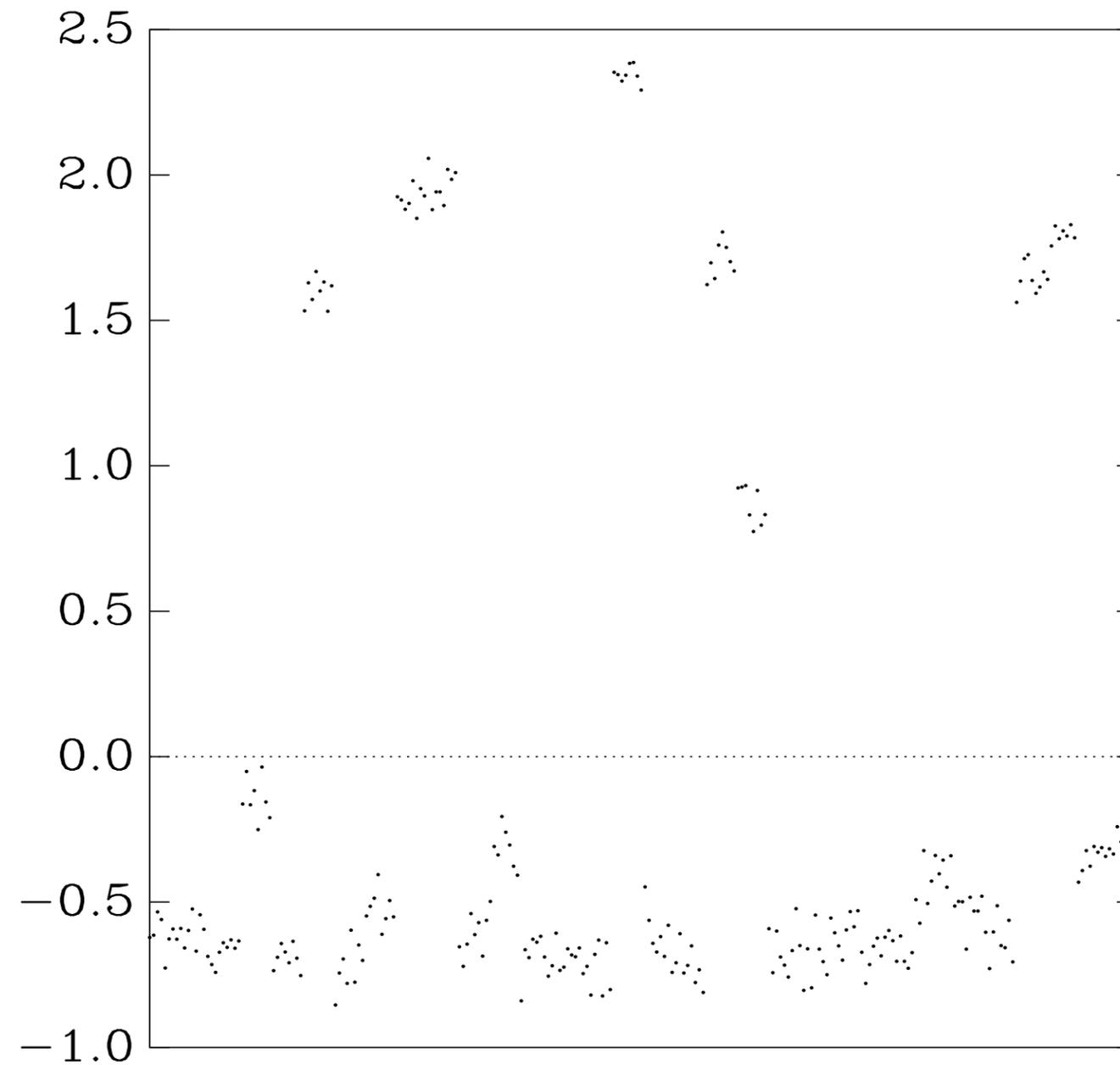
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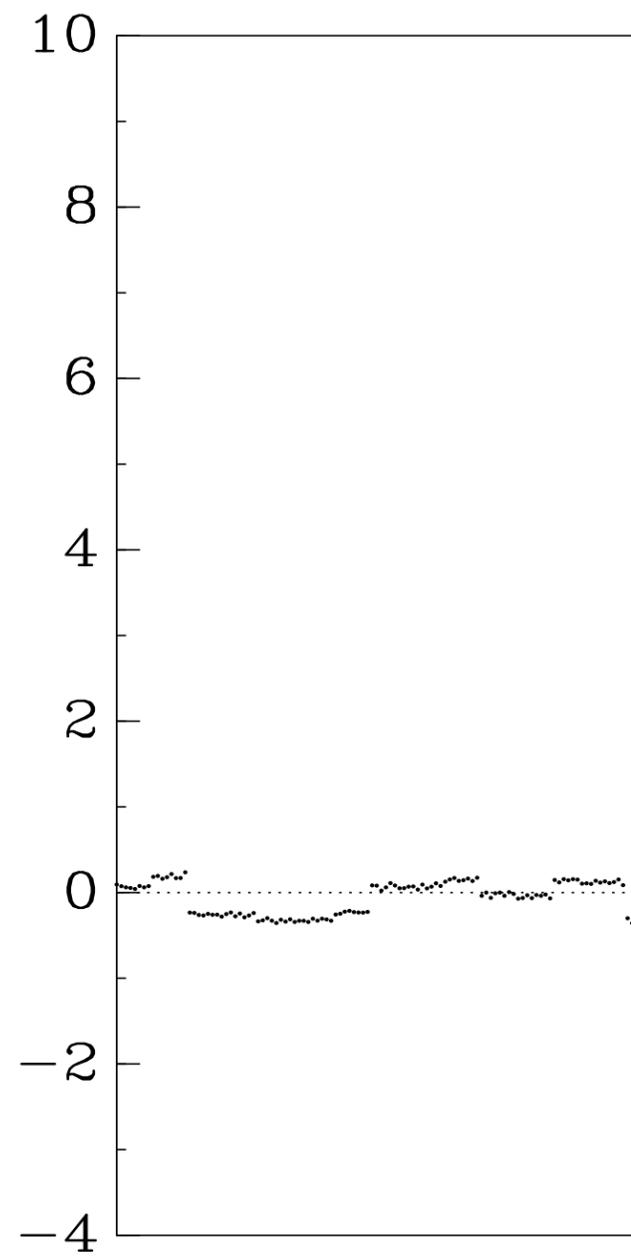
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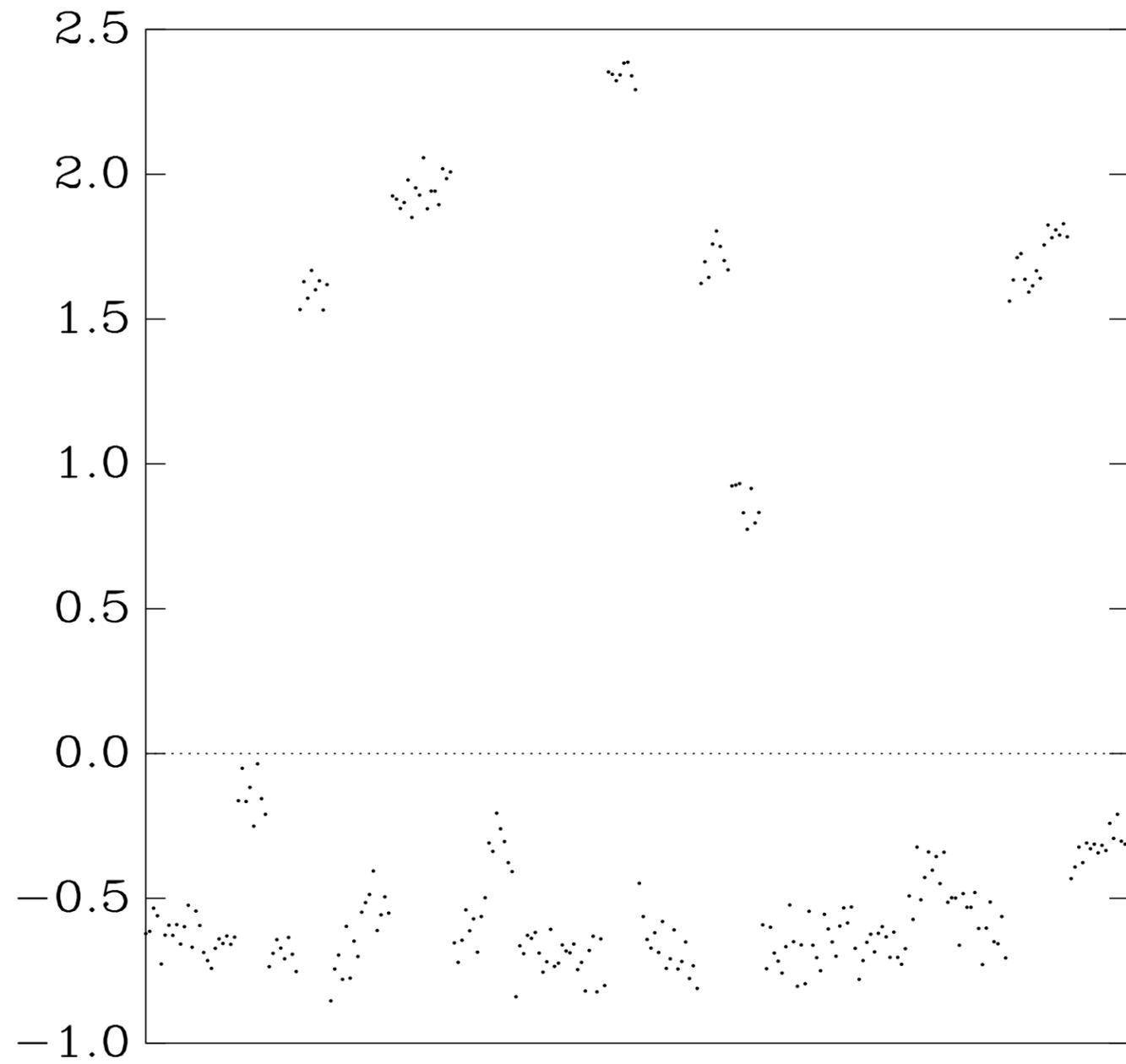
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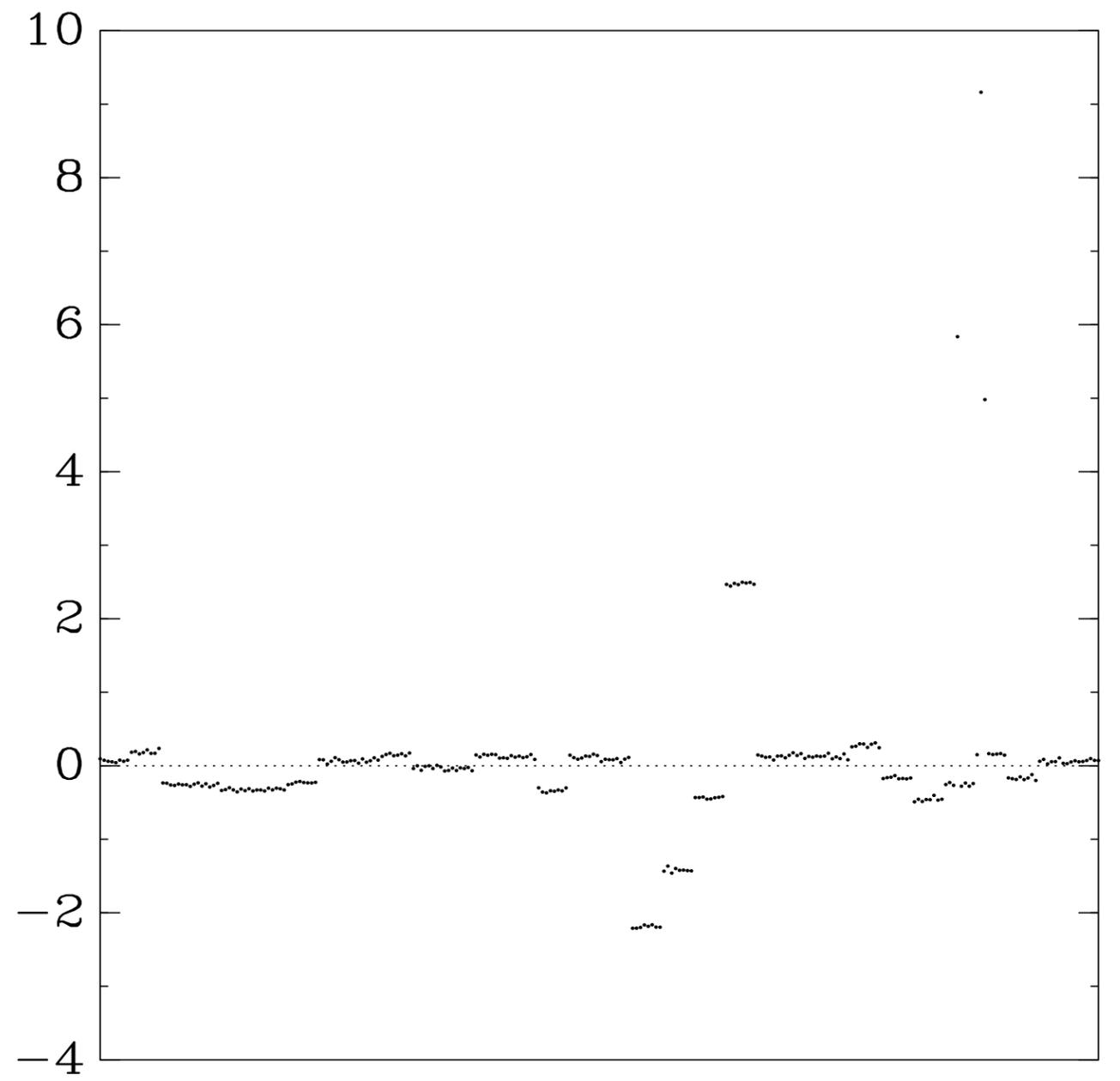
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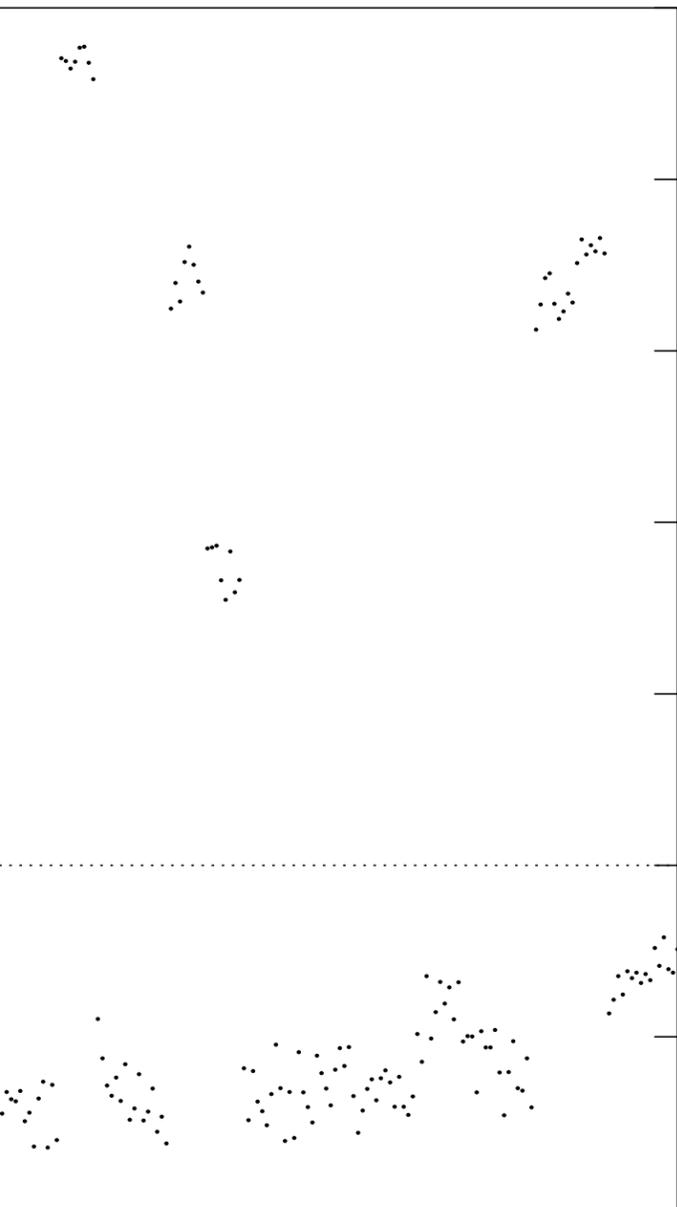
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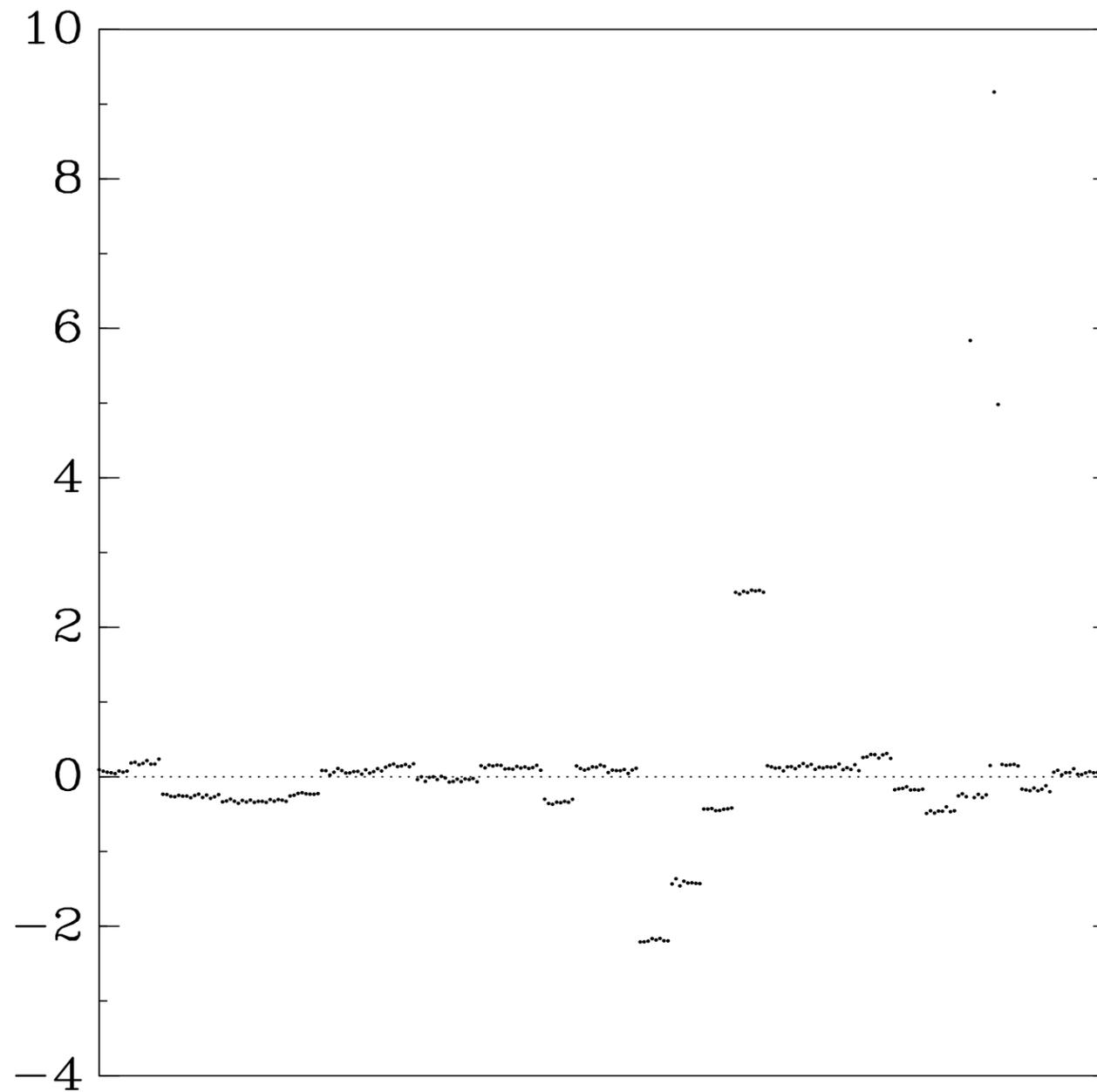
Graph for $k[5] \oplus n[5]$.



This graph has much larger max, presumably L1 cache miss.



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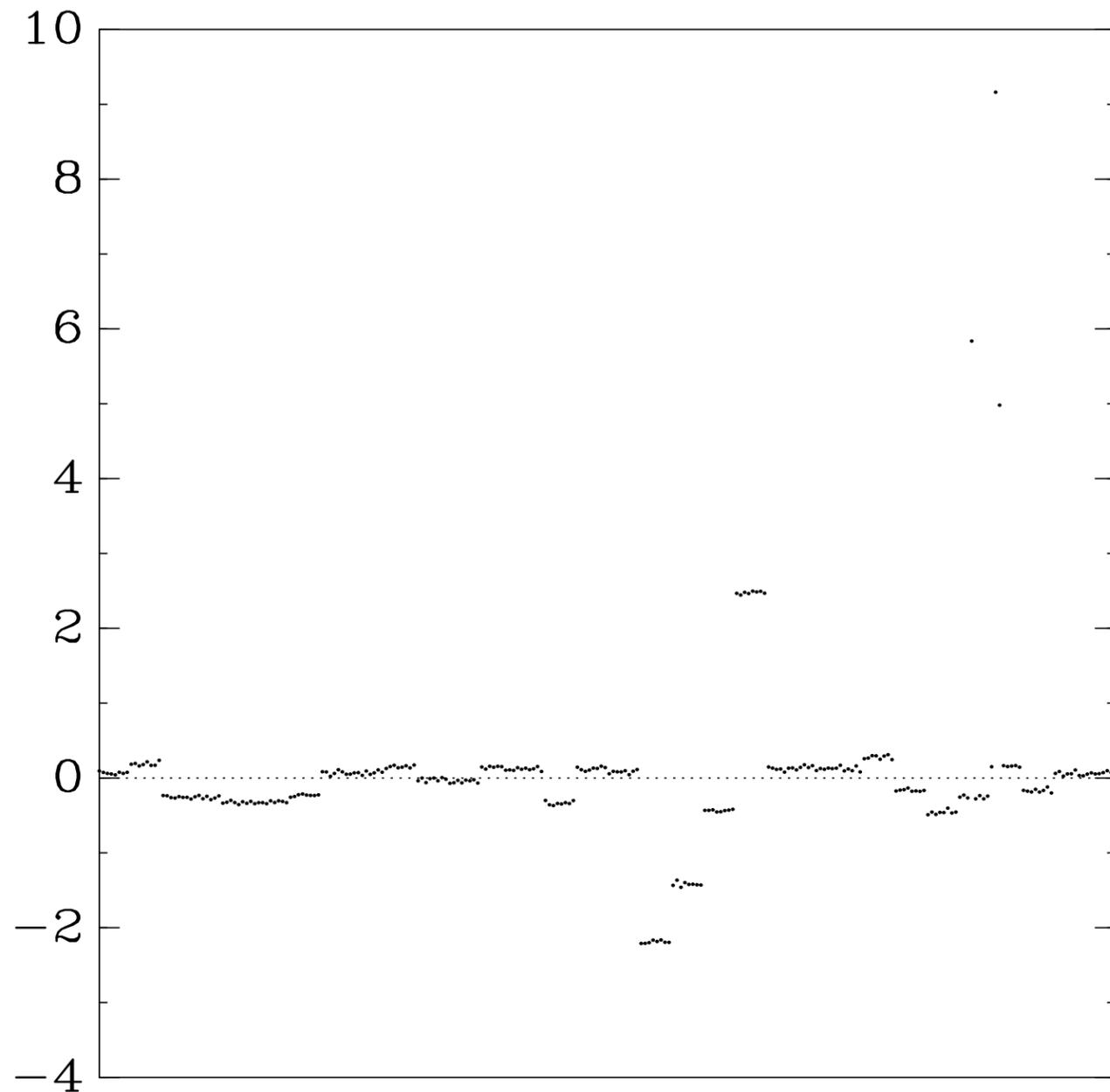


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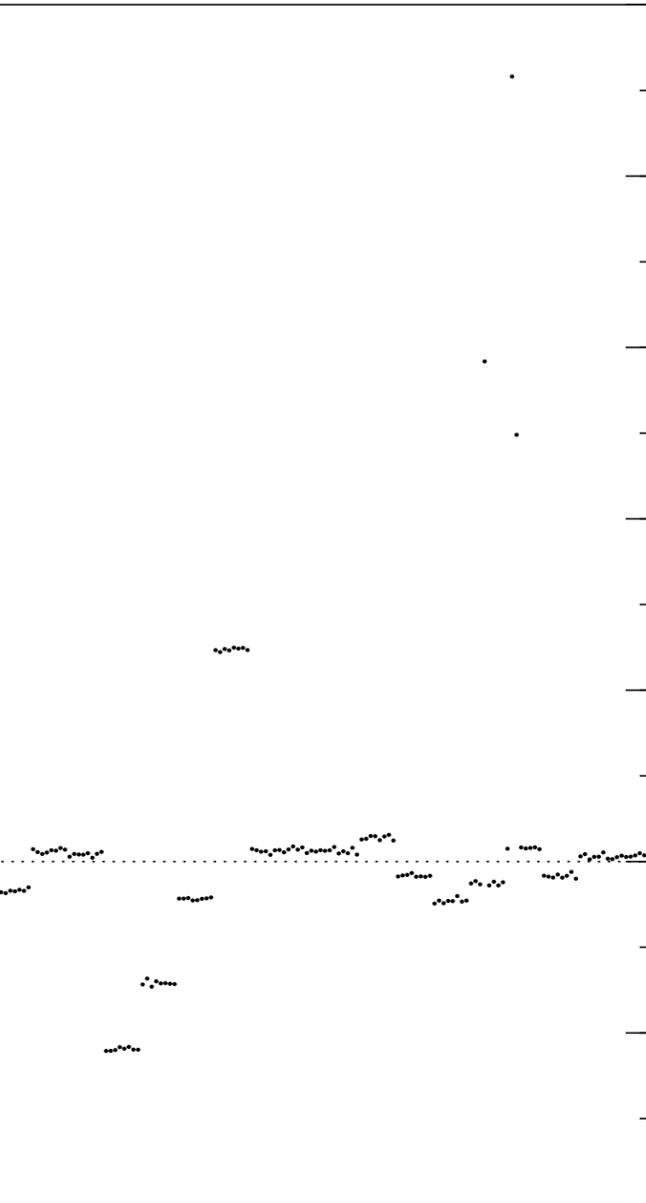
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Don't use cryptographic hardware.

Build complex multi-layer cryptographic systems.

Don't communicate adequately between people designing different layers.

e.g. Most CPU designers fail to thoroughly document CPU speed.

Challenge: Market a CPU with a variable-time adder.