# How microprobing can attack encrypted memory

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## Introduction

- Hardware Security research since 1995
	- testing microcontrollers and smartcards for security
	- research on semi-invasive attacks (PhD, 2005, Cambridge UK)
	- backdoors in semiconductors (2012)
	- iPhone 5C NAND mirroring (2016)
	- "impossible" solutions for challenges in real-world devices
- Hardware Security is about finding flaws and fixing them
	- preventing attacks on service, data and IP theft
	- what security features are implemented and how secure they are
- Hardware Security challenges
	- data, keys and passwords storage
	- new attack technologies
	- modern fabrication processes (10nm, 14nm, 28nm, 45nm, 65nm)
	- developing countermeasures through understanding of flaws
	- prediction of new attack methods

#### Introduction

- Secure devices
	- smartcards and microcontrollers
	- FPGAs and ASICs
	- secure memory
- Embedded memory
	- Mask ROM: bootloader, firmware, algorithms
	- EEPROM: variables, keys, passwords
	- Flash: bootloader, firmware, algorithms, keys, passwords
- Memory extraction is the crucial step in attacks
	- access to firmware for reverse engineering
	- extraction of crucial algorithms
	- access to sensitive data, keys and passwords

## Secure memory extraction methods

- Mask ROM
	- deprocessing and imaging
	- deprocessing, staining and imaging
	- scanning probe microscopy (SPM): slow hours per kB of data
	- microprobing
- Flash and EEPROM
	- using standard interface after defeating the security (JTAG, ISP...)
	- microprobing (undocumented and custom devices)
	- scanning probe microscopy (SPM): slow hours per kB of data
	- scanning electron microscopy (SEM): limited down to 130–180nm
- What if the memory is scrambled or encrypted?
	- reverse engineering of the decryption logic (slow)
	- microprobing inside the CPU bus (reverse engineering of logic)
	- software attacks on bootloader/firmware flaws
	- brute forcing the scrambling/encryption

#### Invasive attacks

- Mask ROM is challenging to attack
	- high density of cells
	- impossible to load with test pattern for cryptanalysis
	- could be ion-implanted for doped encoding
- How strong is the data bus encryption for low-end CPU?
	- $-$  8-bit bus: 2 $^{8}$ ! ≈ 8.58  $\cdot10^{506}$
	- impossible to brute force
- How strong is the address bus encryption for 32kB ROM?
	- $-$  15-bit bus: 2<sup>15</sup>! ≈ 9.09  $\cdot$ 10<sup>133733</sup>
	- impossible to brute force

## Attack implementation

- CPU executes code from Mask ROM and operates with plaintext data
	- observe the activity on the data bus (encrypted data)
	- inject arbitrary data into the data bus
	- observe response on both data and address buses
- Defeating data bus encryption
	- inject arbitrary data and observe response from the CPU
- Defeating address bus encryption
	- 90% of commands do not affect the program counter (PC), hence, sequential real addresses

## Challenging target

- Undocumented secure microcontroller used in car security – NEC78K/0 CPU core with encrypted Mask ROM, 0.35µm process
- Mask ROM deprocessing does not reveal any data only structure of the transistors
	- 0s and 1s are encoded with different doping concentration of cells transistors – not visible under optical microscope



#### Data extraction

- Mask ROM deprocessing followed by scanning capacitance microscopy (SCM)
	- slow: hours per kB of data
- Mask ROM deprocessing followed by selective etching
	- chemical etching of silicon with speed of reaction dependent on the doping type and concentration: different trench depth for 0s and 1s





## Experimental setup

- Microprobing station for signal injection into the data bus – from \$1,000 second hand on Ebay plus from \$200 per probe
- Test board to control the device and the data bus
	- PIC24HJ128 microcontroller to drive RST, CLK and data bus



### Experimental setup

- Passivation layer was removed with laser cutter – from \$3,000 on Ebay or use chemical methods
- GGB Picoprobe needles to establish contact with data bus
- Power analysis setup with 10 $\Omega$  resistor for synchronisation
	- CPU runs from internal clock





- Power trace immediately after Reset
	- internal unstable clock from on-chip RC oscillator
- Power trace 1ms after Reset
	- external clock, but hard to establish the moment of switching



- First fetch from the data bus is the Reset vector (low 8-bit)
	- by injecting all values from 00h to FFh the correspondence table for address 0000h was built
	- for strong encryption that would be S-Box, but for this chip it was a simple scrambling such as XOR with constant
- Mind the address bus encryption
	- the first address is not 0000h because of the encrypted address bus
	- we have to let the CPU to run random code to build correspondence table for the address bus (90% of instructions do not affect PC)
	- the address bus encryption turned out to be XOR with constant 1Ch
- Now the correct correspondence table can be built
	- for the data bus at address 0000h it was a simple XOR with constant B6h

- Second fetch is the high 8-bit of the Reset vector
	- in order to avoid microprobing of the full address bus we have to find the encrypted value that corresponds to 00h plaintext
	- that way we will force the CPU to start code execution from the address 0000h
	- that value turned out to be 3Dh
- The next fetch is instruction we make it a branch
	- we force the CPU to execute **BR !addr16** (9Bh, low, high)
	- actual data injected into the data bus are: 2Dh, test, 00h
	- the second byte of the branch instruction is fetched from 0001h and is low 8-bit of the address
	- testing from 00h to FFh allows us building the correspondence table
	- for this chip it was a simple XOR scrambling with constant 3Dh

- The process was repeated to fetch NOP followed by branch instruction
	- the correspondence table for address 0002h was built
- Finally we need to find the encrypted value for addresses 0003h/0004h that would be decrypted as **BR AX** command (31h, 98h)
- Then we can execute a simple program
	- **MOV A,!addr16**; load A with memory address specified in 0001/0002
	- **BR AX**; place plain text value of the memory on the address bus
	- appears on the data bus because of multiplexed A0-A7 with D0-D7
	- Reset CPU and repeat the process
- By executing the code for each memory address the contents of the whole memory space (64kB) can be extracted in less than an hour time

## Implications and improvements

- Speed up the process by loading code into RAM and executing it
- The results were achieved on relatively old chip (0.35µm)
	- still serves well as proof-of-concept
	- demonstrates vulnerabilities of the CPU design that allow the secret information to be leaked on encrypted bus
- Microprobing of chips fabricated with 0.25µm and smaller process will require focused ion beam (FIB) machine
	- available from many universities at a cost of \$50 \$100 per hour
- 16-bit CPU will require at least 16 probing points
	- more expensive probing station or custom test pad
- 32-bit CPU will require 2<sup>32</sup> correspondence table
	- time consuming process 5 days with 100µs per cycle time

#### **Countermeasures**

- Randomly delayed execution after Reset
- Dummy CPU cycles
- Limiting the number of Hardware Resets before Power-on Reset
- Prevent the CPU from executing an arbitrary code
- Use wider bus for embedded memory it is impossible to build correspondence table for 64-bit bus

## Conclusion

- Even the strongest encryption does not guarantee ultimate data protection because the information can be leaked by the party that has access to unencrypted data (e.g. CPU)
- Smaller fabrication process does not help on its own due to availability of sophisticated tools (e.g. FIB machine)
- Wider CPU data bus will make the attack harder with large number of test points and infeasible correspondence table
- The CPU must be designed with the hardware security in mind to prevent it from leaking sensitive information