

# Cryptographic software engineering, part 1

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This is easy, right?

1. Take general principles of software engineering.
2. Apply principles to crypto.

Let's try some examples . . .

1972 Parnas “On the criteria to be used in decomposing systems into modules” :

“We propose instead that one begins with a list of difficult design decisions or design decisions which are likely to change. Each module is then designed to hide such a decision from the others.”

e.g. If number of cipher rounds is properly modularized as

```
#define ROUNDS 20
```

then it is easy to change.

Another general principle  
of software engineering:

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Do not design APIs like this:

“The sample code used in  
this manual omits the checking  
of status values for clarity, but  
when using cryptlib you should  
check return values, particularly  
for critical functions . . . .”

## Not so easy: Timing attacks

1970s: TENEX operating system compares user-supplied string against secret password one character at a time, stopping at first difference:

- AAAAAA vs. FRIEND: stop at 1.
- FAAAAA vs. FRIEND: stop at 2.
- FRAAAA vs. FRIEND: stop at 3.

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- FRAAAA vs. FRIEND: stop at 3.

Attacker sees comparison time, deduces position of difference.

A few hundred tries reveal secret password.

# How typical software checks

## 16-byte authenticator:

```
for (i = 0; i < 16; ++i)
    if (x[i] != y[i]) return 0;
return 1;
```



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```

Fix, eliminating information flow  
from secrets to timings:

```
diff = 0;
for (i = 0; i < 16; ++i)
    diff |= x[i] ^ y[i];
return 1 & ((diff-1) >> 8);
```

Notice that the language  
makes the wrong thing simple  
and the right thing complex.

Language designer's notion of  
“right” is too weak for security.

So mistakes continue to happen.

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One of many examples, part of the reference software for one of the CAESAR candidates:

```
/* compare the tag */  
int i;  
for(i = 0; i < CRYPTO_ABYTES; i++)  
    if(tag[i] != c[(*mlen) + i]){  
        return RETURN_TAG_NO_MATCH;  
    }  
return RETURN_SUCCESS;
```

# Do timing attacks really work?

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Answer #2: Attacker uses statistics to eliminate noise.

Answer #3, what the 1970s attackers actually did:

Cross page boundary,  
inducing page faults,  
to amplify timing signal.

## Defenders don't learn

Some of the literature:

**1996** Kocher pointed out timing attacks on cryptographic key bits.

Briefly mentioned by

Kocher and by **1998** Kelsey–

Schneier–Wagner–Hall:

secret array indices can

affect timing via cache misses.

**2002** Page, 2003 Tsunoo–Saito–

Suzaki–Shigeri–Miyauchi:

timing attacks on DES.



“Guaranteed” countermeasure:  
load entire table into cache.

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2004.11/2005.04 Bernstein:

Timing attacks on AES.

Countermeasure isn't safe;

e.g., secret array indices can affect  
timing via cache-bank collisions.

What *is* safe: kill all data flow  
from secrets to array indices.

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2005 Tromer–Osvik–Shamir:

65ms to steal Linux AES key  
used for hard-disk encryption.

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OpenSSL integrates, cheaper  
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This countermeasure isn't safe.

Variable-time lab experiment.

Same issues described in 2004.

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**2013** Bernstein–Schwabe

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**2016** Yarom–Genkin–Heninger

“CacheBleed” steals RSA secret  
key via timings of OpenSSL.

2008 RFC 5246 “The Transport Layer Security (TLS) Protocol, Version 1.2”: “This leaves a small timing channel, since MAC performance depends to some extent on the size of the data fragment, but it is **not believed to be large enough to be exploitable**, due to the large block size of existing MACs and the small size of the timing signal.”

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2013 AlFardan–Paterson “Lucky Thirteen: breaking the TLS and DTLS record protocols”: exploit these timings; steal plaintext.



## How to write constant-time code

If possible, write code in asm to control instruction selection.

Look for documentation

identifying variability: e.g.,

“Division operations terminate when the divide operation completes, with the number of cycles required dependent on the values of the input operands.”

Measure cycles rather than trusting CPU documentation.

Cut off all data flow from secrets to branch conditions.

Cut off all data flow from secrets to array indices.

Cut off all data flow from secrets to shift/rotate distances.

Prefer logic instructions.

Prefer vector instructions.

Watch out for CPUs with variable-time multipliers: e.g., [Cortex-M3](#) and most PowerPCs.

Suppose we know (some)  
const-time machine instructions.

Suppose programming language  
has “secret” types.

Easy for compiler to guarantee  
that secret types are used only  
by const-time instructions.

Proofs of concept: Valgrind  
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ctgrind, ct-verif, FlowTracker.

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How can we implement, e.g.,  
sorting of a secret array?

## Eliminating branches

Let's try sorting 2 integers.

Assume `int32` is secret.

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```
void sort2(int32 *x)
{
  int32 x0 = x[0];
  int32 x1 = x[1];
  if (x1 < x0) {
    x[0] = x1;
    x[1] = x0;
  }
}
```

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  }
}
```

Unacceptable: not constant-time.

```
void sort2(int32 *x)
{
    int32 x0 = x[0];
    int32 x1 = x[1];
    if (x1 < x0) {
        x[0] = x1;
        x[1] = x0;
    } else {
        x[0] = x0;
        x[1] = x1;
    }
}
```



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  } else {
    x[0] = x0;
    x[1] = x1;
  }
}
```

Safe compiler won't allow this.  
Branch timing leaks secrets.

```
void sort2(int32 *x)
{
    int32 x0 = x[0];
    int32 x1 = x[1];
    int32 c = (x1 < x0);
    x[0] = (c ? x1 : x0);
    x[1] = (c ? x0 : x1);
}
```

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void sort2(int32 *x)
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    int32 x0 = x[0];
    int32 x1 = x[1];
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    x[0] = (c ? x1 : x0);
    x[1] = (c ? x0 : x1);
}
```

Syntax is different but “?:”  
is a branch by definition:

```
if (x1 < x0) x[0] = x1;
else x[0] = x0;
if (x1 < x0) x[1] = x0;
else x[1] = x1;
```

```
void sort2(int32 *x)
{
    int32 x0 = x[0];
    int32 x1 = x[1];
    int32 c = (x1 < x0);
    x[c] = x0;
    x[1 - c] = x1;
}
```

```
void sort2(int32 *x)
{
  int32 x0 = x[0];
  int32 x1 = x[1];
  int32 c = (x1 < x0);
  x[c] = x0;
  x[1 - c] = x1;
}
```

Safe compiler won't allow this:  
won't allow secret data  
to be used as an array index.

Cache timing is not constant:  
see earlier attack examples.

```
void sort2(int32 *x)
{
    int32 x0 = x[0];
    int32 x1 = x[1];
    int32 c = (x1 < x0);
    c *= x1 - x0;
    x[0] = x0 + c;
    x[1] = x1 - c;
}
```

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void sort2(int32 *x)
{
    int32 x0 = x[0];
    int32 x1 = x[1];
    int32 c = (x1 < x0);
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    x[0] = x0 + c;
    x[1] = x1 - c;
}
```

Does safe compiler allow multiplication of secrets?

Recall that multiplication takes variable time on, e.g., Cortex-M3 and most PowerPCs.

Will want to handle this issue for fast prime-field ECC etc., but let's dodge the issue for this sorting code:

```
void sort2(int32 *x)
{
    int32 x0 = x[0];
    int32 x1 = x[1];
    int32 c = -(x1 < x0);
    c &= x1 ^ x0;
    x[0] = x0 ^ c;
    x[1] = x1 ^ c;
}
```



1. Possible correctness problems  
(also for previous code):

C standard does not define  
`int32` as twos-complement; says  
“undefined” behavior on overflow.  
Real CPU uses twos-complement  
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2. Does safe compiler allow “`x1 < x0`” for secrets?

What do we do if it doesn't?

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C standard does not define `int32` as twos-complement; says “undefined” behavior on overflow. Real CPU uses twos-complement but *C compiler can screw this up.*

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What do we do if it doesn't?

C compilers *sometimes* use constant-time instructions for this.

## Constant-time comparisons

```
int32 isnegative(int32 x)
{ return x >> 31; }
```

Returns  $-1$  if  $x < 0$ , otherwise  $0$ .

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Why this works: the bits

$(b_{31}, b_{30}, \dots, b_2, b_1, b_0)$

represent the integer  $b_0 + 2b_1 + 4b_2 + \dots + 2^{30}b_{30} - 2^{31}b_{31}$ .

“1-bit signed right shift”:

$(b_{31}, b_{31}, \dots, b_3, b_2, b_1)$ .

“31-bit signed right shift”:

$(b_{31}, b_{31}, \dots, b_{31}, b_{31}, b_{31})$ .

```
int32 ispositive(int32 x)
{ return isnegative(-x); }
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This code is incorrect!

Fails for input  $-2^{31}$ ,

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Can catch this bug by testing:

```
int64 x; int32 c;
for (x = INT32_MIN;
     x <= INT32_MAX; ++x) {
    c = ispositive(x);
    assert(c == -(x > 0));
}
```

Side note illustrating `-fwrapv`:

```
int32 ispositive(int32 x)
{ if (x == -x) return 0;
  return isnegative(-x); }
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Even worse: without `-fwrapv`,  
current gcc can remove the  
`x == -x` test, breaking this code.

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current gcc can remove the  
`x == -x` test, breaking this code.

**Incompetent** gcc engineering:  
source of many security holes.  
Incompetent language standard.

```
int32 isnonzero(int32 x)
{ return isnegative(x)
  || isnegative(-x); }
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```
int32 isnonzero(int32 x)
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Not constant-time.

Second part is evaluated  
only if first part is zero.

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```
int32 isnonzero(int32 x)
{ return isnegative(x)
  | isnegative(-x); }
```

Constant-time logic instructions.  
Safe compiler will allow this.



```
int32 issmaller(int32 x,int32 y)
{ return isnegative(x - y); }
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This code is incorrect!

Generalization of `ispositive`.

Wrong for inputs  $(0, -2^{31})$ .

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Generalization of `ispositive`.

Wrong for inputs  $(0, -2^{31})$ .

Wrong for many more inputs.

Caught quickly by random tests:

```
for (j = 0;j < 100000000;++j) {
    x += random(); y += random();
    c = issmaller(x,y);
    assert(c == -(x < y));
}
```

```
int32 issmaller(int32 x,int32 y)
{ int32 xy = x ^ y;
  int32 c = x - y;
  c ^= xy & (c ^ x);
  return isnegative(c);
}
```

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int32 issmaller(int32 x,int32 y)
{ int32 xy = x ^ y;
  int32 c = x - y;
  c ^= xy & (c ^ x);
  return isnegative(c);
}
```

Some verification strategies:

- Think this through.
- Write a proof.
- Formally verify proof.
- Automate proof construction.
- Test many random inputs.
- A bit painful: test all inputs.
- Faster: test int16 version.

```
void minmax(int32 *x,int32 *y)
{ int32 a = *x;
  int32 b = *y;
  int32 ab = b ^ a;
  int32 c = b - a;
  c ^= ab & (c ^ b);
  c >>= 31;
  c &= ab;
  *x = a ^ c;
  *y = b ^ c;
}
```

```
void sort2(int32 *x)
{ minmax(x,x + 1); }
```

```
int32 ispositive(int32 x)
{ int32 c = -x;
  c ^= x & c;
  return isnegative(c);
}
```

```
void sort(int32 *x, long long n)
{ long long i, j;
  for (j = 0; j < n; ++j)
    for (i = j - 1; i >= 0; --i)
      minmax(x + i, x + i + 1);
}
```

Safe compiler will allow this  
if array length  $n$  is not secret.