

AN5156

Application note

Introduction to STM32 microcontrollers security

Introduction

This application note presents the basics of security in STM32 microcontrollers.

Security in microcontrollers encompass several aspects including protection of firmware intellectual property, protection of private data in the device and guarantee of a service execution.

The context of IoT has made security even more important. The huge number of connected devices makes them an attractive target for attackers and several remote attacks have shown the vulnerabilities of device communication channels. With IoT, the security extends the requirements for confidentiality and authentication to communication channels which often require encryption.

This document is intended to help building a secure system by applying countermeasures to different types of attacks.

In a first part, after a quick overview of different types of threats, examples of typical attacks are presented to show how attackers exploit the different vulnerabilities in an embedded system.

The next sections focus on the set of hardware and software protections that defend the system from these attacks.

The last sections list all security features available in STM32 series and guidelines are given to build a secure system.

Table 1. Applicable products

1 General information

The table below presents a non-exhaustive list of the acronyms used in this document and their definitions.

Table 2. Glossary

Documentation references

The **reference manual** of each device gives details on availability of security features and on memory protections implementation.

A **programming manual** is also available for each Arm® Cortex® version and can be used for MPU (memory protection unit) description:

- *STM32L5 Series Cortex®-M33 programming manual* (PM0264)
- *STM32F7 Series and STM32H7 Series Cortex®-M7 processor programming manual* (PM0253)
- *STM32F3 Series, STM32F4 Series, STM32L4 Series and STM32L4+ Series Cortex®-M4 programming manual* (PM0214)
- *STM32F10xxx/20xxx/21xxx/L1xxxx Cortex®-M3 programming manual* (PM0056)
- *STM32L0 Series and STM32G0 Series Cortex®-M0+ programming manual* (PM0223)

Refer to the following set of **user manuals** and **application notes** (available on *www.st.com*) for detailed description of security features:

- user manual *STM32 crypto library* (UM1924): describes the API of the STM32 crypto library; provided with the X‑CUBE‑CRYPTOLIB Expansion Package.
- user manual *Getting started with the X-CUBE-SBSFU STM32Cube Expansion Package* (UM2262): presents the SB (secure boot) and SFU (secure firmware update) ST solutions; provided with the X‑CUBE‑SBSFU Expansion Package.
- application notes *Proprietary Code Read Out Protection on STM32xx microcontrollers* (AN4246, AN4701, AN4758, AN4968): explain how to set up and work with PCROP firmware for the respective STM32L1, F4, L4 and F7 Series; provided with the X-CUBE-PCROP Expansion Package.
- application note *Managing memory protection unit (MPU) in STM32 MCUs* (AN4838): describes how to manage the MPU in the STM32 products.
- application note *STM32WB ST firmware upgrade services* (AN5185)

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2 Overview

2.1 Security purpose

Why protection is needed

Security in microcontrollers means protecting embedded firmware, data and the system functionality. The need for data protection is the most important in case of cryptographic keys or personal data.

The firmware code is also an important asset. If an attacker gains access to the binary, he can reverse-engineer the program in an attempt to find further vulnerabilities, bypass licensing and software restrictions. The attacker can copy any custom algorithms or even use it to flash a clone of the hardware. Even in case of an open source software, it makes sense to attest that the code is authentic and not replaced by malicious firmware..

Denial-of-service attack (DoS attack) is another major threat when considering protection systems (such as environment: gas, fire or intrusion), detection alarms or surveillance cameras. The system functionality must be robust and reliable.

The requirement for security must not be underestimated even if it adds more complexity to the system. Today, the systems built around microcontrollers become potential targets for more and more skilled attackers, that expect financial gains. These gains can be very high, especially if the attack can be propagated to a large scale like in the context of the IoT. Even if no system is completely secure, it is possible to make the attack more expensive.

Indeed the IoT, or smart devices, have raised the requirement for security. Connected devices are very attractive for hackers because they are remotely accessible. The connectivity offers an angle of attack through protocol vulnerabilities. In case of a successful attack, a single compromised device can jeopardize the integrity of an entire network (see the figure below).

Figure 1. Corrupted connected device threat

What should be protected

Security cannot be limited to a certain target or asset. It is difficult to protect data if the code binary is exposed and both the attacks and the protection mechanisms often do not make difference. However it is still useful to summarize the assets and risks.

The table below presents a non-exhaustive list of assets targeted by attackers.

Table 3. Assets to be protected

Vulnerability, threat and attack

Protection mechanisms have to deal with different threats. The objective is to remove vulnerabilities that could be exploited in an attack. An overview of main attack types are presented in [Section 3 Attack types](#page-5-0), from the basic ones to the most advanced ones.

The following specific wording is used around security:

- **Asset**: what needs to be protected
- **Threat**: what the device/user need to be protected against
- **Vulnerability**: weakness or gap in a protection mechanism

In summary, an attack is the realization of a threat that exploits a system vulnerability in order to access an asset.

3 Attack types

This section presents the different types of attack that a microcontroller may have to face, from the most basic ones to very sophisticated and expensive ones. The last part presents typical examples of attacks targeting an IoT system.

Attacks on microcontroller are classified in one of the following types:

- **Software** attack: exploits software vulnerabilities (such as bug or protocol weaknesses).
- **Hardware non-invasive** attack: focuses on MCU interfaces and environment information.
- **Hardware invasive** attack: destructive attack with direct access to silicon

3.1 Introduction

A key rule in security is that a successful attack is always possible.

First, there is no absolute protection against unexpected attack. Whatever the security measures taken to protect a system, it is possible that a security breach is found and exploited during the device lifetime. This last point makes necessary to consider how the device firmware is updated to increase its security (see [Section](#page-21-0) [5.2.2 Secure firmware update \(SFU\)\)](#page-21-0).

Secondly, in laboratory conditions with proper equipment, it is possible to retrieve microcontroller content or even design architecture details. These techniques are briefly presented in [Section 3.3 Hardware attacks.](#page-8-0)

From an attacker point of view, an attack is profitable if the ratio expected revenue/attack cost is as high as possible. The revenue depends on the stolen asset value and on the repeatability of the attack. The cost depends on time and money (equipment) spent to succeed.

Attack types

While there are more detailed groups and categories of attack, the basic categories are the following ones:

- **Software attacks** are carried by exploiting bugs, protocol weaknesses or untrusted pieces of code for example. Attacks on communication channels (interception or usurpation) are part of this category. The software attacks represent the vast majority of cases. Their cost may be very low. They can be widely spread and repeated with huge damage. It is not necessary to have a physical access to the device, the attack can be executed remotely.
- **Hardware attacks** need physical access to the device. The most obvious one exploits the debug port, if it is not protected. But in general, hardware attacks are sophisticated and can be very expensive. They are carried out with specific materials and require electronics engineering skills. A distinction is made between non-invasive attacks, carried out at board level or chip level without device destruction, and invasive attacks, carried out at device silicon level with package destruction. In most cases, such an attack is only profitable if it reveals information that leads to new and widely applicable remote attack.

The table below gives an overview of the cost and techniques used for each types of attack.

Table 4. Attacks types and costs

3.2 Software attacks

Software attacks are carried out on the system by executing a piece of code, named a malware, by the CPU. The malware is intended to take control of the device in order to get access to any resources of the system (such as ID, RAM and Flash memory content or peripheral registers) or to modify its functionality.

This type of attack represents most of device threats for the following reasons:

- The attack cost is low since it does not need specific equipment but a personal computer.
- Many hackers can put their effort together, sharing their expertise and tricks, so that a successful attack is likely to happen if a security breach exists. Furthermore, in case of success, the attack protocol may spread very quickly through the web

The malware can be injected into the device or can already be present (insider threat) in main application firmware through a non-verified or untrustworthy library for example.

Malwares are of many types and they can be very small and easy to hide.

Here are examples of what a malware can do:

- Modify device configuration (such as option bytes or memory attributes).
- Disable protections.
- Read memory and dump its content for firmware and data cloning.
- Trace or log device data.
- Access to cryptographic items.
- Open communication channel/interface.
- Modify or block the device functionality.

Unless user application is fully trusted, bug-free and isolated, without any means to communicate with external world, software attacks must be considered.

Malware injection

There are various methods to inject a piece of code inside the system. The size of the malware depends on the target but may be very small (few tens of bytes). To be executed, the malware must be injected in the device memory (RAM or Flash memory). Once injected, the challenge is to have it executed by the CPU, which means that the PC (program counter) must branch to it.

Methods of injecting malware can be categorized as follows:

- Basics device access/"open doors":
	- Debug port: JTAG or SWD interface
	- Bootloader: if accessible, can be used to read/write memory content through any available interface.
	- Execution from external memory

These malware injections are easy to counter with simple hardware mechanisms that are described in Section 4 Device protections.

- Application download:
	- Firmware update procedure: a malware can be transferred instead of a new FW.
	- OS with capability to download new applications.

This category countermeasure is based on authentication between the device and the server or directly with code authentication. Authentication relies on cryptography algorithms.

- Weaknesses of communication ports and bugs exploitation:
	- Execution of data. Sometimes it is possible to sneak the malware in as data and exploit incorrect boundary check to execute it.
	- Stack-based buffer overflows, heap-based buffer overflows, jump-to-libc attacks and data-only attacks

This third category is by definition difficult to avoid. Most embedded system applications are coded using low-level languages such as C/C++. These languages are considered unsafe because they can lead to memory management errors leveraged by attackers (such as stack, heap or buffers overflow). The general idea is to reduce as much as possible what is called the attack surface, by minimizing the untrusted or unverified part of firmware. One solution consists in isolating the execution and the resources of the different processes. For example, the TF-M includes such a mechanism.

Use of untrusted libraries with device back door

This last category is an intentional malware introduction that facilitates device corruption. Today, lot of firmware developments rely on software shared on the web and complex ones can hide Trojan horses. As in previous category, the way to countermeasure this threat is to reduce the surface attack by isolating as much as possible the process execution and protecting the critical code and data.

Brute forcing

This type of attack targets the authentication based on a shared secret. A secure device may require a session authentication before accessing services (in the cloud for example) and a human-machine interface (HMI) can be exploited with an automatic process in order to try successive passwords exhaustively.

Interesting countermeasures are listed below:

- Limit the number of login trials with a monotonic counter (implemented with a timer, or if possible, with a backup domain).
- Increase the delay between two login attempts.
- Add a challenge-response mechanism to break automatic trials.

3.3 Hardware attacks

Hardware attacks require a physical access to the device or, often, to several devices in parallel. A distinction is made between two types of attacks, that differ in cost, time and necessary expertise:

- Non-invasive attacks have only external access to the device (board-level attack) and are moderately expensive (thousands to tens of thousands US dollars in equipment).
- Invasive attacks have direct access to device silicon (after de-packing). They are carried out with advanced equipment often found in specialized laboratories. They are very expensive (more than 100k dollars, and often in the range of millions) and target very valuable data (Keys or IDs) or even technological patents.

General-purpose microcontrollers are not the best candidates to counter the most advanced physical attacks. If highest protection level is required, it is advised to consider pairing a secure element with the general-purpose microcontroller. Secure elements are dedicated microcontrollers certified as per the latest security standards with specific hardware.

Refer to ST secure microcontrollers web page (www.st.com/en/secure-mcus.html).

3.3.1 Non-invasive attacks

Non-invasive, or board-level attacks try to bypass the protection without physical damage (device kept functional). Only accessible interfaces and device environment are used. These attacks require moderately sophisticated equipment and engineering skills (such as signal processing).

Debug port access

This is the most basic attack that can be carried out on a device. Disabling debug capability must be the first protection level to consider. Indeed, accessing to debug port or scan chain through JTAG or SWD protocol allows accessing the full internal resources of the device: CPU registers, embedded Flash memory, RAM and peripheral registers.

Countermeasure:

• Debug port deactivation or fuse through [Readout protection \(RDP\)](#page-26-0)

Serial ports access

Access to communication ports (such as I2C or SPI) may hide a weakness that can be exploited. Communication ports can be spied or used as a device entry point. Depending on how the associated protocol are implemented (such as memory address access range, targeted peripherals or read/write operations), an attacker can potentially gain access to the device resources.

Countermeasures:

- Software:
	- Associated protocol operations must be limited by the firmware level, so that no sensitive resources can be read or written.
	- Isolate communication stack from sensitive data.
	- Length of data transfer must be checked to avoid buffer overflows.
	- Communication can be encrypted with a shared key between the device and the target.
- Hardware:
	- Physical communication port can be buried in multi-layer boards to make it more difficult to access.
	- Unused interface port must be deactivated.

Fault injection: clock and power disturbance/glitch attacks

Fault injection consists in using the device outside the parameters defined in the datasheet to generate malfunctions in the system. A successful attack can modify the program behavior in different ways such as corrupting program state, corrupting memory content, stopping process execution ("stuck-at fault"), skipping instruction, modifying conditional jump or providing unauthorized access.

The typical threats involve tampering with clock (freezing or glitch) and power (under/over voltage or glitch). Since fault may be non-intentional, countermeasures are the same as the one used for safety: redundancy, error detection and monitoring.

Countermeasures:

- Software:
	- Check function return values
	- Use strict comparisons when branching.
	- Make sure that no code was skipped in critical parts by incrementing a dedicated variable in each branch with prime number and check for the expected value.
	- Use non-trivial values as true and false (avoid comparing to 0 or -1, try values such as 0x9F)
- Hardware:

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- Use [Clock security system \(CSS\)](#page-34-0) if available.
- Use internal clock sources.
- Use internal voltage regulators.
- Use memory error detection (ECC and parity).

Side-channel attacks (SCA)

When a firmware is executed, an attacker can observe the device running characteristics (such as power consumption, electromagnetic radiations, temperature or activity time). This observation can bring enough information to retrieve secret assets such as data values and/or algorithms implementation. Side-channel based attacks are powerful against cryptographic devices in order to reveal the keys used by the system. SPA (simple power analysis) and DPA (differential power analysis) are typical example of side-channel attack exploiting power consumption.

Countermeasures:

- Software:
	- Limit key usage: use session random keys when possible.
	- Use protected cryptographic libraries with behavioral randomization (such as delays or fake instructions).
- Hardware:
	- Shields against monitoring can be found in secure elements (STSAFE), but there is no efficient hardware countermeasure embedded in general-purpose microcontrollers.

3.3.2 Silicon invasive attacks

The cost of such attacks is very high; all means are considered to extract information of the device that is destroyed during the process. The attacker needs to obtain a substantial quantity of devices to be successful. Carried out with expensive equipments often found in specialized laboratories, they require a high level of skills and knowledge, as well as time.

Invasive attacks start with the removal of the device package. An initial analysis can be done without eliminating the passivation layer, however investigations with device interaction (probing) require its removal. De-packing can be done by chemical etching, drilling or by a laser cutter. Once the device is opened, it is possible to perform probing or modification attacks.

Several ST microcontrollers dedicated to security offer robustness against such kind of treatments. These are not part of the STM32 family and are out of scope of this document. Refer to ST secure hardware platforms (www.st.com/en/secure-mcus.html).

Reverse engineering

The goal is to understand the inner structure of the device and analyze its functionality. This is quite a challenging task with modern devices featuring millions of gates.

The first step is to create a map of the microcontroller. It can be done by using an optical microscope to produce a high-resolution photograph of the device surface. Deeper layers can then be analyzed in a second step, after the metal layers have been stripped off by etching the device.

Reading the data

Using the electron microscope, the data, represented by an electric charge, becomes visible. It is possible to read the whole device memory.

Micro probing and internal fault injection

Micro probing consists in interacting with the device at metal layer level. Thin electrodes are used to establish an electrical contact directly with the surface of the device so that the attacker can observe, manipulate, and interfere with it while the device is running.

Device modification

More sophisticated tools can be used to perform attacks. FIB (focused ion beam) workstations, for example, simplify the manual probing of deep metal and polysilicon lines They also can be used to modify the device structure by creating new interconnection lines and even new transistors.

3.4 IoT system attack examples

This section presents typical examples of attacks on an IoT system. Fortunately, most of these attacks can be countered by enabling security feature (hardware countermeasures) and secure application architecture (software countermeasures). The countermeasures are detailed in the next sections.

An IoT system is built around a STM32 microcontroller with connectivity systems (such as Ethernet, Wi-Fi®, Bluetooth[®] Low Energy or LoRa[®]) and sensors and/or actuators (see the figure below). The microcontroller handles the application, data acquisition and communications with a cloud service. The microcontroller may also be responsible for the system maintenance through firmware update and integrity check.

Figure 2. IoT system

3.5 List of attack targets

The following sections list the possible attack targets

1. Initial provisioning

The cryptographic data for root of trust for the chain of security must be injected to the SoC in a controlled trusted way. Whether it is a key, a certificate or a hash initial value, it must remain immutable and/or secret. Once programmed inside the device, the data protection mechanism must be enabled and only authorized process must have access to it.

- *Risks*: firmware corruption or usurpation
- *Countermeasures*:
	- Trusted manufacturer environment
	- Use of secure data provisioning services (SFI)
	- Data protection mechanisms
	- Secure application isolation
	- Use of OTP memory

2. Boot modification

The purpose of this attack is to use the bootloader to access to device content. The attack aims at modifying the boot mode and/or the boot address to preempt the user application and to take control of the CPU through the bootloader (via USB DFU, I2C or SPI), the debug port or through a firmware injected in RAM. The boot mode and the address are controlled by device configuration and/or input pin and must be protected.

- *Risks*: full access of the microcontroller content
- *Countermeasures*:
	- Unique boot entry
	- Bootloader and debug disabled (see [Readout protection \(RDP\)](#page-26-0))

3. Secure boot (SB) or Trusted Firmware-M (TF-M)

Robust systems rely on initial firmware integrity and authenticity check before starting the main application. As the root of trust of a device, this part of user firmware must be immutable and impossible to bypass.

A successful attack consists in executing a non-trusted application by bypassing the verification and by jumping directly to the malware. It can be done by hardware techniques such as fault-injection. It can also be done by replacing the expected hash value by the hash value of the malware (see **1. Initial provisioning**).

- *Risks*: device spoofing or application modification
- *Countermeasures*:
	- Unique boot entry point to avoid verification bypass
	- "Immutable code" to avoid SB code modification
	- Secure storage of firmware signature and/or tag value
	- Environment event detection (such as power supply glitch, temperature or clock speed)

4. Firmware update

The firmware update procedure allows a product owner to propose corrected version of the firmware to ensure the best user experience during device lifetime. However, a firmware update gives an attacker an opportunity to enter the device with its own firmware or a corrupted version of the existing firmware.

The process must be secured with firmware authentication and integrity verification. A successful attack requires an access to the cryptographic procedure and keys (see **1. Initial provisioning**).

- *Risk*: device firmware corruption
- *Countermeasure*: SFU application with authentication and integrity checks. Confidentiality can also be added by encrypting the firmware in addition to signature.

5. Communication interfaces

Serial interfaces (such as SPI, I2C or USART) are used either by the bootloader or by applications to exchange data and/or commands with the device. The interception of a communication allows an attacker to use the interface as a device entry point. The firmware protocol can also be prone for bugs (like overflow).

- *Risk*: Access to device content
- *Countermeasures*:
	- Make physical bus hard to reach on board.
	- Isolate software communication stacks to prevent them from accessing critical data and operations.
	- Use cryptography for data exchange.
	- Disable I/F ports when not needed.
	- Check inputs carefully

6. Debug port

The debug port provides access to the full content of the device: core and peripherals registers, Flash memory and SRAM content. Used for application development, it may be tempting to keep it alive for investigating future bugs. This is the first breach tried by an attacker with physical access to the device.

- *Risk*: full access to the device
- *Countermeasure*: Disable device debug capabilities (see [Readout protection \(RDP\)](#page-26-0) feature).

7. External peripheral access

An IoT device controls sensors and actuators depending on the global application. An attacker can divert the system by modifying data coming from sensors or by shunting output data going to actuators.

- *Risk*: incorrect system behavior.
- *Countermeasure*: anti-tamper to detect system intrusion at board level

8. Sensitive firmware and data

Some parts of the firmware need special protection: for example the cryptographic algorithm or a third-party library. In addition, selected data may need enhanced protection if they are considered as valuable assets (cryptographic keys).

The internal memory content must be protected against external accesses (such as communication interfaces) and internal accesses (other software processes). The memory attributes and the firewall are the main protections for process and data isolation.

- *Risks*: sensitive firmware copy or data theft
- *Countermeasures*:
	- Execute-only access right (XO).
	- **Firewall**
	- Memory protection unit
	- Secure area
	- Encryption of external memory

9. SRAM

The SRAM is the device running memory. It embeds runtime buffers and variables (such as stack or heap) and can embed firmware and keys. While in the non-volatile memory, the secrets may be stored as encrypted, when loaded to the SRAM, they need to be present in plain view to be used. In the same time, the SRAM usually holds communication buffers. For these two reasons, an attacker may be tempted to focus his effort on the SRAM. At least three types of attack can be raised against this memory: code (malware) injection, memory corruption through buffer overflow and retrieval of secrets through temporary stored variables.

- *Risks*: buffer overflow, data theft or device control
- *Countermeasures*:
	- **Firewall**
	- Memory protection unit
	- Secure area

10. Random number generation

Random numbers are often used in cryptography for session key, cryptographic nonce or initialization vector (IV) generation. Weak random generator may make any secure protocol vulnerable.

A software attack tries to exploit an hidden periodicity or structures of a random sequence to guess the secret key and break into communication confidentiality. An hardware attack attempts to disable the RNG, or weaken the statistic randomness of the output.

A robust random generator depends on the quality of the entropy source (analog).

- *Risk*: reduced security of cryptographic protocols
- *Countermeasure*:
	- use true hardware entropy generator
	- use tests on the RNG output, verify statistic properties of produced random numbers.

11. Communication stack

Connectivity protocols (such as Bluetooth, Ethernet, Wi-Fi or LoRa) have complex communication firmware stacks. These stacks, often available in open source, must not always be considered as trusted. A potential weakness can be massively exploited.

- *Risk*: device access (content, control) through network
- *Countermeasures*:
	- Communication process isolation
	- Server authentication
	- Secure firmware update to patch bugs

12. Communication eavesdrop

Data exchanges between a device and an IoT service can be eavesdropped, either directly by a compatible RF device or through the network. An hacker may seek for retrieving data, getting device IDs or accessing services. Cryptography can be adopted by all communication protocols. Several encryption steps are often considered to protect the communication between all the different layers (device, gateway, applications).

- *Risk*: observation and spoofing of network traffic.
- *Countermeasure*: use cryptography version of communication stack (like TLS for Ethernet)

4 Device protections

Security protections described in this section are controlled by hardware mechanisms. They are set either by configuring the device through option bytes, or dynamically by hardware component settings:

- **Memory protection**: main security feature as it is used to protect code and data from internal (software) and external attacks
- **Software isolation**: inter-processes protection to avoid internal attacks
- **Interface protection**: allows to protect device entry points like serial or debug ports
- **System monitoring**: detects device external tampering attempts or abnormal behaviors

4.1 TrustZone® for ARMv8-M architecture

Microcontrollers based on ARMv6 or ARMv7 architecture (Cortex-M0, M3, M4 and M7) rely mostly on software implementations for firmware and resources isolation. These mechanisms, described later in the document, are robust but not that flexible to allow the concurrent execution of secure firmware together with non-secure firmware.

The ARMv8-M architecture brings a new security paradigm in Arm microcontrollers. It implements the TrustZone technology at microcontroller system level, allowing the development of trusted firmware through a robust isolation at runtime.

The TrustZone technology relies on a processor (Cortex-M23 or Cortex-M33) with dual registers banks for secure and non-secure domains and on a bus infrastructure (AHB5) propagating secure attribute throughout the whole system (peripherals and memories).

The TrustZone is made for robust and flexible security control at runtime. Switching from secure to non-secure domain and vice-versa is straightforward with few cycle penalty. No need for an hypervisor as in TrustZone for application processors Cortex‑A.

Secure modes are orthogonal to the existing modes, Thread and Handler. Thus, there can be a Thread or Handler mode in each secure mode (see the figure below).

Figure 3. ARMv8-M TrustZone execution modes

On typical firmware architecture running on ARMv8 TrustZone, the non-secure domain executes the application and the OS tasks, while the secure domain executes the secure application and the system root-of-trust mechanisms.

4.2 Memory protections

Memory protections are of the highest importance when considering systems security. Storage containing sensitive code and data must not be accessible from any unexpected interface (debugging port) or an unauthorized process (internal threat).

Depending on the asset to be protected (code or data), various mechanisms can be set to establish protections at the source of the unauthorized access (external port, internal process) or on the memory type to be protected (Flash, SRAM or external memory).

Part of the access filtering can be performed by the memory interfaces (like Flash controller), the bus controller IP (firewall) or through the core MPU if it is available. Details on proprietary protections (secure hide protection, PCROP, WRP, RDP) can be found in [Section 6 STM32 security features](#page-24-0).

Embedded Flash memory, embedded SRAM and external memories are designed for different purposes. Their respective protections mechanisms reflect these differences.

The figure below provides a simple view of memories access architecture in a microcontroller.

Figure 4. Memory types

The table below summarizes the particularities of each type of memories and typical protection features.

Table 5. Memory types and associated protection

4.2.1 System Flash memory

In STM32 MCUs, the system memory is a read-only part (ROM) of the embedded Flash memory. It is dedicated to the ST bootloader. Some devices may include additional secure services (RSS) in this area. This part cannot be modified to guarantee its authenticity and integrity. The bootloader is readable since it does not contain any sensitive algorithm. Some parts of the RSS are hidden and cannot be read by the user.

Protection attribute on the system Flash memory cannot be modified.

4.2.2 User Flash memory

This is the main user memory, used to store firmware and non-volatile data. It is part of the embedded Flash memory and can be protected by a set of memory protection features available on all STM32 MCUs.

External attacks

The embedded Flash memory is easy to protect against external attacks, unlike external Flash memories. Disabling the debugging port access with RDP and the controlled access of connectivity interface provide sufficient isolation from outside.

Associated protection: RDP to disable debug access

Internal attacks

An internal read or write access to the memory can come from a malware injected either in the device SRAM or inside an untrusted library, so that the critical code and data must only be accessible by authorized processes.

Associated protections: PCROP, MPU, firewall, secure hide protection or TrustZone

Protecting unused memory

Write protection must always be set by default on the Flash memory, even on unused area, to prevent either code modification or injection. A good practice also is to fill unused memory with known values such as software interrupt (SWI) op-codes, illegal op-codes, or NOPs.

Associated protections: MPU or WRP

Error code correction (ECC)

The Flash memory may feature ECC that allows error detection and correction (up to 2-bits error detection and 1 bit error correction). More considered as a safety feature, it also works as a complementary protection against fault injection.

4.2.3 Embedded SRAM

The embedded SRAM is the device working memory. It is used for stack, heap, global buffers and variables at runtime. The SRAM can be accessed as bytes, half-words (16 bits) or full words (32 bits), at maximum system clock frequency without wait state.

Code execution

The part of the firmware that requires faster performances can be downloaded from the user or the external Flash memory and executed from the SRAM. Another reason to execute code from SRAM is when using encrypted external Flash memory on devices without on the fly decryption: the code is decrypted inside the SRAM before its execution. Appropriate memory protections should then be enabled on the SRAM address range containing the code. When no code must be executed in the SRAM, it is advised to prevent any malware execution by setting the appropriate attribute (execute never) with the MPU.

Associated protections: MPU or firewall

SRAM cleaning

The SRAM may contain sensitive data or temporary values allowing some secrets retrieving. A typical example is the transfer of a secret cryptographic key from protected Flash memory area in clear text, inside the SRAM. It is highly recommended to clean explicitly the working buffers and variables immeditately after the processing of functions manipulating sensitive data.

Note: In case of reset, the STM32 MCUs allow the automatic erase of the SRAM (refer to each device reference manual). For some products, part of the SRAM is protected against external access or untrusted boot (SRAM boot) when the RDP is set.

Write protection

The write protection can be used to isolate part of the area from being corrupted by another process or by preventing an overflow attack. An overflow attack consists in writing more data than the targeted buffer size (during a data transfer through interface ports for example). If no boundary checks are performed, the memory address above the buffer is corrupted and a malware can be injected this way. The SRAM write protection is available on some STM32 series only (see the reference manual).

Associated protections: MPU, TrustZone or SRAM write protection (available on some STM32 series only)

Parity check and ECC

The parity check on the SRAM allows the control of potential errors word-by-word (32 bits). One extra bit per byte is added to the memory content (data bus width is 36 bits) to increase its robustness, as required for instance by Class B or SIL norms. ECC is more sophisticated, with SECDED functionality, but only available for SRAM on certain MCU lines. They cannot be disabled and by default improve fault protection.

4.2.4 External Flash memories

The external Flash memories are connected to the microcontroller through dedicated interfaces (NAND, NOR, Octo- or Quad-SPI). As the embedded Flash memory, the external ones contain code and data, but the external storage raises the problem of confidentiality (content protection) and authentication (device protection). The hardware protection is limited to a write lock, to avoid content erasing or modification. Further protection is brought by cryptography algorithms. The content must be at least signed to avoid execution of unauthenticated firmware. Encryption is required only if the content is confidential.

The embedded code can be either executed in-place or loaded into the SRAM before execution. Execution inplace of encrypted firmware is possible only if the device has on-the-fly decryption capabilities. In the other case, the firmware must be decrypted when loaded into SRAM.

Associated protection: OTFDEC

4.2.5 STM32 memory protections overview

Several STM32 features are available to cover the various cases considered. They are listed in the table below with their respective scope and described in [Section 6 STM32 security features.](#page-24-0)

Table 6. Scope of STM32 embedded memories protection features

1. Write protection can be unset when RDP level ≠ 2.

2. the SRAM is protected by a secure area only at secure code execution. It must be cleaned before leaving the secure area.

4.3 Software isolation

The software isolation refers to a runtime mechanism protecting different processes from each other (interprocess protection). These processes can be executed sequentially or concurrently (for example tasks of operating system). The software isolation in SRAM ensures that respective stack and working data of each process cannot be accessed by the other processes. This inter-process protection can be extended to the code in the Flash memory and non-volatile data as well.

Goals of the software isolation:

- Prevent a process to spy the execution of another sensitive process.
- Protect a process execution against a stack corruption due to memory leaks or overflow (incorrect memory management implementation).

This memory protection may be achieved through different mechanisms listed in the table below and detailed in Section 6 STM32 security features.

Table 7. Software isolation mechanism

1. The attribute protection is only for CPU access and is not taken into account for other bus master (such as DMA).

4.4 Debug port and other interfaces protection

The debug ports provide access to the internal resources (core, memories and registers) and must be disabled in the final product. It is the most basic external attack that is easily avoided by deactivating JTAG (or SWD) ports by a secure and immutable firmware (refer to [Section 5.2.1 Secure boot \(SB\)](#page-20-0)), or preferably by permanently disabling the functionality (JTAG fuse in RDP2).

Other serial interfaces can also be used. If the bootloader is available, the device content can be accessed through I2C, SPI, USART or USB‑DFU. If the interface is open during the runtime, the application transfer protocol must limit its access capabilities (such as operation mode or address access range). *Associated STM32 features*:

- Read protection (RDP)
- Disable of unused ports.
- Forbid bootloader access (configured by RDP in STM32 devices).

4.5 Boot protection

The boot protection secures the very first software instructions in a system. If an attacker succeeds in modifying the device boot address, he may be able to execute his own code, to bypass initial dynamic protections configuration or to access unsecured bootloader applications that give access to the device memory.

A microcontroller usually allows the boot configuration in order to choose between starting at user application, at bootloader application or at the SRAM located firmware. The boot protection relies on a single entry point to a trusted code that can be the user application or a secure service area if available (RSS).

Associated STM32 features:

- Read protection (RDP)
- Unique boot entry
- Secure hide protection (HDP)
- **TrustZone**

4.6 System monitoring

The monitoring of the device power supply and environment can be set to avoid malfunction and to take corresponding countermeasures. Some mechanisms, like tamper detection, are dedicated to security. Other mechanisms are primarily used for safety reason but can serve security as well. For example, the detection of a power down or external clock disconnection may be unintentional (safety) but may also reveal an attack (security).

Tamper detection is used to detect system/board level intrusions. The opening of a consumer product enclosure can be detected on an MCU pin and trigger appropriate actions. Internal tamper sensors are capable of detecting irregular voltage, temperature, or other parameters.

Clock security system is used to protect against external oscillator failures. If a failure is detected on the external clock, the microcontroller switches to the internal clock in order to safely execute. The interrupt signal allows the firmware to react to the clock failure event.

Power supply and voltage level can be monitored to detect abnormally-low voltage level. Below a certain voltage value, the normal behavior cannot be guaranteed and it may be the sign of a fault injection attack.

Device temperature can be measured with an internal sensor. The information is feedbacked to the device through an internal ADC channel. A monitoring application can take appropriate actions according to the temperature range. Increased temperature may be part of a fault injection attack scheme.

Associated STM32 features:

- Tamper protection (with RTC component)
- Clock security system
- Power supply supervision
- Temperature sensor

5 Secure applications

In order to create a secure system, the hardware features must be used in a secure firmware architecture implementation. An industry standard solution is the PSA, proposed by Arm for the IoT ecosystem. The ST proprietary solution is Secure boot (SB) and Secure firmware update (SFU).

This section defines the **root and chain of trust** concept before presenting the following typical secure applications implementing the features listed below:

- **Secure boot** .
- **Secure firmware update (SFU)**
- **Secure storage**
- **Cryptographic services**

These applications have a close link with cryptography. All cryptographic schemes are based on the three concepts of secret key, public key and hashing. Basics of cryptography are explained in [Appendix A](#page-41-0). [Cryptography - Main concepts](#page-41-0).

- *Note: The user manual Getting started with the X-CUBE-SBSFU STM32Cube Expansion Package (UM2262) provides an implementation example of SB and SFU (www.st.com/en/product/x-cube-sbsfu).*
- *Note: The user manual Getting started with STM32CubeL5 TF-M application (UM2671) describes an example of TF-M implementation with the STM32L5 Series MCU.*

5.1 Root and chain of trust

The principle of root and chain of trust is common to many, if not almost all, secure systems. It is obviously scalable ad libitum, inherently efficient and also flexible.

A chain of trust is built as a set of applicative components in which the security of each component is guaranteed by another component. The root of trust is the anchor at the beginning of the chain on which the overall security depends.

The secure boot implementation must be the single entry point to the device, start after reset with immutable code in secure mode. It then authenticates a subsequent functionality and executes the next part of the firmware that enables the additional functionality required to securely attest the following chain link. For example, it configures volatile memory protection so that a secure storage service may use it.

5.2 ST proprietary SBSFU solution

5.2.1 Secure boot (SB)

The SB application is executed at reset before the user application. It provides first stages of security and is then responsible for ensuring the global chain of trust of the system.

SB main functionalities:

- Check the STM32 security configuration and set up runtime protections.
- Assert the integrity and authenticity of the user application images that are executed (see the figure below).

Figure 5. Secure boot FSM

Checking device security

This part of the SB application checks if static configurations are correct and sets the dynamic ones. Static secure configurations are defined by option bytes (RDP, PCROP, WRP and secure hide protection). Dynamic protections must be programmed (firewall, MPU, tamper detection and IWDG).

Integrity and authenticity check

The firmware integrity is performed by hashing the application image (with MD5, SHA1 or SHA256 hash algorithms) and comparing the digest with the expected one. This way, the application firmware is considered error-free.

An authenticity check is added if the expected tag is encrypted with a key shared between the firmware owner and the device. This key is stored in a protected area of the device.

Protection attributes

The SB firmware must have the following attributes to fulfill its role:

- It must be the device-unique entry point (no bypass).
- Its code must be immutable.
- It must have access to sensitive data (such as certificates or application signatures).

The most sensitive SB part takes benefit from process and data isolation features, like firewall, MPU or secure hide protection. the implementation depends on STM32 series available features.

5.2.2 Secure firmware update (SFU)

The SFU provides a secure implementation of in-field firmware updates, enabling the download of new firmware images to a device.

The firmware update is a sensitive operation that must protect two parties:

- the device owner: the goal is to avoid loading a corrupted firmware (intentionally or not) that may damage the device.
- the application owner (OEM): needs to protect his firmware from being cloned or loaded into an unauthorized device.

Architecture

An SFU transfer involves two entities: the firmware owner (OEM) and the device to be updated (see the figure below). As the communication channel is generally considered as non-secure since it is subject to eavesdropping, the overall security responsibility is shared between the sender (firmware owner server) and the receiver (the device).

Figure 6. Secure server/device SFU architecture

Application

From OEM side, a secure server is maintained that is responsible for sending the encrypted (if confidentiality is required) and signed firmware to an authenticated device.

The SFU application running on device is in charge of the following:

- authentication and integrity checking of the loaded image before installing it
- decrypting the new firmware if confidentiality is required
- checking the new firmware version (anti-rollback mechanism)

5.3 Arm TF-M solution

ARM trusted firmware was around for some time, when the secure Cortex M-33 core was introduced with Armv8- M architecture. A more compact TF-M open source implementation of PSA standard was provided as a reference secure firmware framework.

For ST MCUs that take advantage of the TrustZone architecture, such as the STM32L5 device, the SBSFU is replaced with the TF-M solution.

For a documentation on TF-M itself, use Arm resources as well as the code comments.

For guidance on TF-M integration on the STM32L5 Series MCU, refer to the firmware example user manual.

Users migrating from SBSFU to TF-M may find a useful quick comparison table, comparing some of the differences in basic features:

Table 8. Basic feature differences

Obviously, both solutions had different requirements and differ in architectures. They are not meant to be interchangeable, or compete.

More details about building on TF-M on STM32 devices is available in the *STM32 TF-M User Manual* (UM2671). A detailed comparison is available in the AN5447 application note (section *X-CUBE-SBSFU vs. TF*‑*M comparison*).

6 STM32 security features

This section presents all the STM32 features that can be gathered to meet the different security concepts presented in previous sections and to achieve a high level of security.

6.1 Overview

Static and dynamic protections

A distinction can be made depending on whether protection features are static or dynamic:

- **Static** protections refer to features that are set with option bytes. Their configuration is retained at power off. Static protections are RDP, PCROP, WRP, BOR and secure hide protection (when available).
- **Dynamic** (or run time) protections do not retain their status at reset. They have to be configured at each boot (for example during [Secure boot \(SB\)](#page-20-0)).

Dynamic protections provided by STM32 are MPU, tamper detection and firewall.

Other dynamic protections are related to both security and safety. An abnormal environment behavior may be accidental (safety) or intentional, in order to carry out an attack. These protections include clock and power monitoring systems, memory integrity bits and independent watchdog (IWDG).

Security features by STM32 series

The tables below list the available features according to STM32 series.

Table 9. Security features for STM32Fx Series

1. The RDP in STM32F1 Series is only for Flash memory protection. RDP is set (RDP1) or unset (RDP0). RDP Level 2 is not implemented.

Table 10. Security features for STM32Lx Series

1. HDP is known as secure user memory, sticky area or securable memory depending on the product.

Table 11. Security features for STM32H7, STM32G0, STM32G4 and STM32WB Series

1. Depends on device part number.

2. The number of area depends on device category and dual/single bank configuration.

3. HDP is know as secure user memory, sticky area or securable memory depending on the product.

6.2 Readout protection (RDP)

Readout protection is a global Flash memory protection allowing the embedded firmware code to be protected against copy, reverse engineering, dumping, using debug tools or code injection in SRAM. The user must set this protection after the binary code is loaded to the embedded Flash memory.

Readout protection applies to all STM32 series for:

- the main Flash memory
- the option bytes (level 2 only)

Depending on the STM32 series, additional protections may be available including:

- backup registers for real-time clock (RTC)
- backup SRAM
- EEPROM

Figure 7. Example of RDP protections (STM32L4 Series)

The RDP levels (0, 1 and 2) are defined as follows:

- **Level 0**: this is the default RDP level. The Flash memory is fully open and all memory operations are possible in all boot configurations (debug features, boot from RAM, boot from system memory bootloader, boot from Flash memory). There is no protection in this configuration mode that is appropriate only for development and debug.
- **Level 1**: Flash memory accesses (read, erase, program) or SRAM2 accesses via debug features (such as serial-wire or JTAG) are forbidden, even while booting from SRAM or system memory bootloader. In these cases, any read request to the protected region generates a bus error.

However, when booting from Flash memory, accesses to both Flash memory and to SRAM2 (from user code) are allowed.

Level 2: When RDP Level 2 is activated, all protections provided in Level 1 are active and the MCU is fully protected. The RDP option byte and all other option bytes are frozen and can no longer be modified. The JTAG, SWV (single-wire viewer), ETM, and boundary scan are all disabled.

On devices built on TrustZone architecture, a fourth RDP level is available:

Level 0.5: non-secure debug only. All read and write operations (if no write protection is set) from/to the nonsecure Flash memory are possible. The debug access to secure area is prohibited. Debug access to nonsecure area remains possible.

RDP level regression

RDP can always be leveled up. A level regression is possible with the following consequences:

- Regression from RDP Level 1 to RDP Level 0 leads to a Flash memory mass erase and the erase of SRAM2 and backup registers.
- Regression from RDP Level 1 to RDP Level 0.5 leads to a partial Flash memory erase: only the non-secure part is erased.
- Regression form RDP Level 0.5 to RDP Level 0 leads to a Flash memory mass erase and the erase of SRAM2 and backup registers.

In RDP level 2, no regression is possible.

Internal Flash memory content updating on an RDP protected STM32 microcontroller

In RDP Level 1 or 2, the Flash memory content can no longer be modified with an external access (bootloader or booting from SRAM). However, modifications by an internal application are always possible. This can be performed through a SFU application or (even if it is not advised from a security point of view) from a simple inapplication-programming process (IAP).

The table below summarizes the RDP protections.

Table 12. RDP protections

1. Backup registers/SRAM

When should RDP be used

On a consumer product, RDP must always be set at least at Level 1. This prevents basic attacks through the debug port or through the bootloader. However, in RDP Level 1, there is a risk of service denial caused by a Flash memory mass erase, following a return to RDP Level 0.

The RDP Level 2 is mandatory to implement an application with higher security level (such as immutable code). The disadvantage is that the RDP Level 2 can prevent a device configuration update, for instance after a customer return.

A new RDP level 0.5 is available on products enabling TrustZone. It is used to debug a non-secure application while protecting contents within secure area boundaries from debug access. More information about this protection is available in the application note AN5347 (*section 10 Development recommendations using TrustZone®*).

Note: RDP is available on all STM32 series.

6.3 TrustZone

The following section describes the main features of the TrustZone architecture. For further information, refer to the application note *STM32L5 Series TrustZone® features* (AN5347) and to the reference manual *STM32L552xx and STM32L562xx advanced Arm®-based 32-bit MCUs* (RM0438).

The ARMV8-M TrustZone architecture defines two domains at system level: secure and non-secure. The full memory-map space is split into secure and non-secure areas. This includes all memory types (Flash, SRAM and external memories), as well as all peripherals that can be shared (with specific context for each domain) or dedicated to one domain or the other.

At system level, the isolation between secure and non-secure domains relies on the following hardware mechanisms (see the figure below).

- specific core architecture (ARMV8-M Cortex-M33) with a dual-bank register for secure and non-secure domains, and a secure attribution unit (SAU) to assert address range security status.
- implementation defined attribution unit (IDAU) which is complementary to the SAU.
- bus infrastructure that propagates the secure and privilege attributes of any transaction (AHB5)
- dedicated hardware blocks managing the split between the two domains (GTZC to define security attribute for internal SRAMs and external FSMC/OCTOSPI memories, and peripherals)

TrustZone specific implementation

6.3.1 Core state

The core state depends on the region of the current running code. When the code runs from a secure region, the core is in secure state. Otherwise, the core is in non-secure state.

6.3.2 Secure attribution unit (SAU)

The SAU is a hardware unit coupled to the core (as the MPU). The SAU is responsible for setting the security attribute of the AHB5 transaction. The security attribute of a transaction is fixed by the targeted address of a memory-mapped resource (memory areas or peripherals). Depending on the SAU configuration, an address is tagged as secure, non-secure callable (NSC), or non-secure. The NSC is a sub-domain of the secure domain, that allows a gateway to be defined for non-secure code to access the secure domain at a specific entry point. The SAU is configurable by secure firmware. It can be configured at boot for a fixed configuration or can be dynamically modified by a secure firmware.

Note: A security attribute cannot be modified to be less secure (by security order: secure > NSC > non-secure) than a default attribute set by hardware through an IDAU (implementation defined secure attribute). Refer to implementation details of each device in reference manual.

Address aliasing

The security attribute is set depending on the fixed resource address. However, a memory-mapped resource can be set either as secure or non-secure, depending on the application. To overcome this apparent contradiction, two addresses are assigned to each memory-mapped resources: one used when the resource must be accessed in secure mode, one used in non-secure mode. This mechanism is called address aliasing.

The address aliasing allows also all peripherals access to be grouped in only two regions instead of multiple scattered regions. Finally, the IDAU splits the memory-mapped resources in the following regions:

- Peripherals secure/non-secure regions
- Flash memory secure/non-secure regions
- SRAM secure/non-secure regions

Refer to device reference manual for the detailed configuration.

6.3.3 Memories and peripherals protections

The SAU defines the transaction security attribute and the bus infrastructure propagates this attribute towards the targets. The targets (memories and peripherals) are protected by hardware mechanisms that filter the access depending on the secure and privilege attributes.

- **TrustZone-aware** peripherals: connected directly to the AHB or APB bus, with a specific TrustZone behavior such as a subset of secure registers. The access filtering control is included in these peripherals
- **Securable** peripherals: protected by an AHB/APB firewall gate controlled by the GTZC to define security properties

TrustZone-aware peripherals are the ones with a bus master role (DMAs), the GTZC, the Flash memory controller and others peripherals with a fundamental role within the system: PWR, RTC and system configuration block. The remaining system peripherals are securable.

GTZC

The GTZC defines the access state of securable peripherals, embedded SRAM and external memories:

- Peripherals can be set as secure or non-secure (exclusively), privileged or non-privileged using TZSC.
- Embedded SRAM is protected by blocks of 256 bytes through the MPCBB block.
- External memories are protected by regions (watermark: start and length). The number of protected regions depends on the memory types (NAND, NOR or OCTOSPI).
- Illegal access events lead to secure interrupts generated by TZIC.

Note: The Flash memory security attribute is defined through secure watermark option bytes and/or Flash interface block-based registers.

6.4 Flash memory write protection (WRP)

The write protection feature is used to protect the content of specified memory area against erase or update. For Flash memory technology, an update must be considered as filling with zeros.

For instance, the write protection can be set on a page or a sector of a Flash memory to prevent its alteration during a firmware or data update. It can also be set by default on the unused memory area to prevent any malware injection. Its granularity is linked to the page or sector size.

When should WRP be used

This protection must be used, in particular when write operations are foreseen within the application. This is the case if data storage or code update operations are expected. WRP prevents wrong accesses due to unsafe functions causing unexpected overflows.

Note: Write protection is available on all STM32 series.

6.5 Execute-only firmware (PCROP)

Part of the STM32 Flash memory can be configured with an 'execute-only' attribute. The firmware stored in such configured area can only be fetched by the CPU instruction bus. Any attempt to read or write this area is forbidden. The protection applies against both internal (firmware) accesses as well as external (debug port) accesses. In STM32, this feature is named proprietary code readout protection (PCROP).

The PCROP is a static protection set by option bytes. The number of protected areas and their granularity depends on the STM32 series (see [Table 9,](#page-24-0) [Table 10](#page-25-0) and [Table 11](#page-26-0)). When PCROP is in use, care must be taken to compile the firmware with the execute-only attribute (refer to user compiler options).

When should PCROP be used

PCROP is used to protect third-party firmware (intellectual property) as well as the most sensitive parts of the user firmware.

Note: PCROP is available on all STM32 Series listed in [Table 1](#page-0-0), except on STM32L5 Series, where it is superseded by another protection mechanism.

6.6 Secure hide protection (HDP)

Some STM32 devices supports the HDP memory concept. The HDP, named secure hide protection on STM32L5 Series, is also known as secure user memory on STM32H7 Series, or securable memory on STM32G0 Series.

An HDP area is a part of the Flash memory that can be accessed only once, just after a device reset. The HDP targets sensitive applications that embed or manipulate confidential data and that must be securely executed at boot. Once the application is executed, the HDP area is closed and cannot be accessed anymore by any mean (see the figure below).

Figure 9. HDP protected firmware access

The HDP is a static protection configured by option bytes. Once set, the CPU boots on the firmware embedded in this area, whatever the boot configuration set by boot pin or boot address.

When should HDP be used

The HDP is suited for a code that must only be executed after reset, like secure boot for root of trust. This protection is available in STM32H7, STM32G0, STM32G4 and STM32L5 Series with slights differences in its implementation and name (refer to dedicated reference manuals for details).

6.7 Firewall

The firewall is a hardware protection peripheral controlling the bus transactions and filtering accesses to three particular area: a code area (Flash memory), a volatile data area (SRAM) and a non-volatile data area (Flash memory). The protected code is accessible through a single entry point (the call-gate mechanism explained below). Any attempt to jump and try to execute any of the functions included in the code section without passing through the entry point, generates a system reset.

The firewall is part of the dynamic protections. It must be set at startup (for example by a SB application).

Call gate mechanism

The firewall is opened by calling a 'call-gate' mechanism: a single entry point that must be used to open the gate and to execute the code protected by the firewall. If the protected code is accessed without passing through the call gate mechanism, then a system reset is generated. If any instruction is fetched outside the protected area, the firewall is closed (see the figure below).

Figure 10. Firewall FSM

Since the only way to respect the call gate sequence is to pass through the single call gate entry point, a mechanism must be provided in order to support application calling multiple firewall-protected functions from unprotected code area (such as encrypt and decrypt functions). A parameter can be used to specify which function to execute (such as CallGate (F1_ID) or CallGate (F2_ID)). According to the parameter, the right function is internally called.

This mechanism is represented in the figure below.

Figure 11. Firewall application example

When should firewall be used

The firewall protects both code and data. The protected code can always be called as long as a call-gate mechanism is respected.

Note: A firewall is available on STM32L0 and STM32L4 Series only.

6.8 Memory protection unit (MPU)

The MPU is a memory protection mechanism that allows specific access rights to be defined for any memorymapped resource of the device: Flash memory, SRAM and peripheral registers. This protection is dynamically managed at runtime.

Note: MPU attributes are only set for CPU access. Other bus masters requests (such as DMA) are not filtered by the MPU and must be deactivated if they are not needed.

Region access attributes

The MPU splits the memory map into several regions, each having its own access attribute. Access right can be set as *Executable*, *Not executable(XN)*, *Read-Write (RW)*, *Read Only (RO)* or *No Access*.

Note: There are other attributes set by the MPU for each region: shareable, cacheable and bufferable. These are not linked to security and are not considered here. Refer to applicable device programming manual or to the application note Managing memory protection unit (MPU) in STM32 MCUs (AN4838).

Privileged and unprivileged modes

On top of the access attribute, the Arm Cortex-M architecture defines two execution modes, allowing a process to run in either privileged or unprivileged mode. For each region, the access attribute can be set independently for each mode.

The table below shows the different cases supported by mixing modes and access attributes.

Table 13. Attributes and access permission managed by MPU

1. Execute Never (XN) attribute is set by region and is valid for both modes. It can be used to avoid SRAM code injection for example.

The code executed in privileged mode can access additional specific instructions (MRS) and can also access Arm core peripheral registers (such as NVIC, DWT or SBC). This is useful for OS kernels or pieces of secure code that require access to sensitive resources that are otherwise inaccessible to unprivileged firmware.

Secure process isolation strategy

At reset, the privilege mode is the default one for any process. Therefore the SB application is executed in privileged mode. Then the idea is to isolate secure processes (such as SB, OS kernel, Key manager or SFU) from unsecured or untrusted processes (user applications).

Table 14. Process isolation

An OS kernel can manipulate MPU attributes dynamically to grant access to specific resources depending on the currently running task. Access right may be updated each time the OS switches from one task to another.

When should MPU be used

The MPU is used at runtime to isolate sensitive code and/or to manage access to resources depending on the process currently executed by the device. This feature is useful especially for advanced embedded operating systems that incorporate security in their design.

Note: The MPU is available on all STM32 series, except the STM32F0 Series (see the various programming manuals for more details).

6.9 Customer key storage (CKS)

The STM32WB Series are dual-core devices with one core (CPU1) for user application and another core (CPU2) dedicated to the wireless real-time aspect execution (either Bluetooth Low Energy or thread protocols). The Flash memory used by CPU2 is secured from CPU1 or external access. Communication between the two cores is ensured by a mailbox and an inter-process channel control hardware block (IPCC).

In addition to the wireless stack execution, CPU2 offers a secure storage service for cryptographic keys used with a dedicated AES hardware block (refer to the figure below). The key register of this block is accessible only to CPU2, preventing access to the key by an untrusted process running on CPU1 or by the debug port.

After keys have been provisioned inside the secure area, the user application can use them by calling a secure load service with an index referencing the key and no more the key itself.

When should CKS be used

CKS must be used when a user application relies on AES encryption or decryption. Provisioned keys can be stored in a secure area, so that no other internal process or external access can read their value.

Note: CKS is available on STM32WB Series only.

6.10 Anti-tamper (TAMP)/Backup registers (BKP)

The anti-tamper is a system level protection, used to detect physical tampering attempts on the system. An external tamper event is detected by a level transition on dedicated device pins. Internal tamper sensors can check voltage, temperature or clock. This event can be used to wake up the core in order to take appropriate actions (such as memory erase or alarm).

This peripheral includes backup registers with contents preserved by VBAT, along with the real-time clock (RTC). These registers may be reset if a tamper attempt is detected.

On less recent devices, this peripheral is known as Backup registers (BKP). On recent devices, it has evolved with additional features, such as monotonic counter or secure section for TrustZone secure area.

When should anti-tamper be used

It must be used for system intrusion detection (in consumer products sealed enclosures for example). The monotonic counter is a countermeasure against tampering with RTC.

Note: The external tamper detection is available on all STM32 series.

6.11 Clock security system (CSS)

The CSS is designed to detect a failure of an external clock source (a crystal for example). A loss of clock source may or may not be intentional. In any case, the device must take an appropriate actions to recover. The CSS triggers an interrupt to the core in such event.

In case the external clock source drives the main system clock, the CSS switches the system to an internal clock source.

When should CSS be used:

The CSS must be used when an external clock is used.

Note: The CSS is available on all STM32 series.

6.12 Power monitoring

Some attacks may target the microcontroller power supply in order to cause errors that may lead to a failure of security countermeasures. A loss of power supply may also denote an attempt to freeze the device state in order to access the internal memory content.

The STM32 devices embed a programmable voltage detector (PVD) that can detect a drop of power. The PVD allows the configuration of a minimum voltage threshold, below which an interrupt is generated so that the appropriate actions may be implemented.

When should PVD be used

the PVD must be used as soon as a sensitive application is running and is likely to leave some confidential data in the working memory (SRAM). A memory cleaning can be launched in case of power down detection.

Note: The PVD is available on all STM32 series.

6.13 Memory integrity hardware check

The error code correction (ECC) and parity checks are safety bits associated to the memory content. The ECC is associated to the memory words and allows recovering from a single bit error or detecting up to two erroneous bits on each Flash or SRAM memory word which may be a 32-bit to 256-bit word depending on the memory type. A simple parity check allows the detection of a single error bit on the SRAM words where ECC is not implemented. Further details on ECC are available for example in the AN5342 application note.

When should ECC and parity bits be used

ECC and parity checks are mostly used for safety reasons. The ECC can also be used to prevent some invasive hardware attacks.

6.14 Independent watchdog (IWDG)

The IDWG is a free running down counter that can be used to trigger a system reset when the counter reaches a given timeout value. The IDWG can be used to provide a solution in case of malfunctions or deadlock in the running code. the IDWG is clocked by its own independent low-speed clock (LSI), so that it stays active even in the event of a main clock failure.

When should IWDG be used

IWDG can be used in order to break deadlocks. It can also be used to control execution time of critical code (such as decryption or Flash programming).

Note: The IDWG is available on all STM32 series.

6.15 Device ID

Each STM32 device has a unique 96-bit identifier providing an individual reference for any device in any context. These bits can never be altered by the user.

The unique device identifier can be used for direct device authentication or used, for instance, to derive a unique key from a master OEM key.

6.16 Cryptography

As described in [Section 5](#page-20-0) , cryptography algorithms are essential to secure an embedded system. The cryptography ensures confidentiality, integrity and authentication of data or code. For efficiently supporting these functions, most STM32 series offer microcontroller options with embedded hardware cryptography peripherals. These hardware blocks allow the cryptographic computations (such as hashing or symmetric algorithms) to be accelerated. For devices with no such specific hardware acceleration, the STM32 cryptographic firmware library provides a software implementation of a large set of cryptographic algorithms.

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The following cryptographic hardware peripherals are available in STM32 devices:

• **True random generator**

– Hardware-based peripheral providing a physical noise source. Used to generate strong session keys.

• **AES accelerator**

- Encryption/decryption
- 128- or 256‑bit keys
- Several chaining modes (such as ECB, CBC, CTR or GCM)
- DMA support

• **PKA accelerator**

- Acceleration of RSA, DH and ECC over GF(p) operations, based on the Montgomery method for fast modular multiplications
- Built-in Montgomery domain inward and outward transformation

• **HASH accelerator**

- MD5, SHA1, SHA224, SHA256
- FIPS compliant (FIPS Pub 180-2)
- DMA support

Note: In case the AES block is used for encryption or decryption, the access to its registers containing the key must be protected and cleaned after usage (MPU).

6.16.2 Software library

The STM32 X-CUBE-CRYPTOLIB is the software library running on STM32 devices. It is available for free download at www.st.com/en/product/x-cube-cryptolib. The STM32 X-CUBE-CRYPTOLIB V3.1.0 is available with full firmware implementation, compiled for Cortex-M0, M0+, M3, M4, and M7 cores.

The X-CUBE-CRYPTOLIB supports the following algorithms:

- DES, 3DES with ECB and CBC
- AES with ECB, CBC, OFB, CCM, GCM, CMAC, KEY wrap, XTS
- Hash functions: MD5, SHA-1, SHA-224, SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512
- Other: ARC4, ChaCha20, Poly1305, Chacha20-Poly1305
- RSA signature with PKCS#1v1.5
- ECC with Key generation, Scalar multiplication (basis of ECDH) & ECDSA + ED25519 and Curve 25519

Note: The X-CUBE-CRYPTOLIB V3.1.0 is supported by all STM32 series with hardware acceleration (AES and/or HASH).

6.17 On-the-fly decryption engine (OTFDEC)

The external memory content (code and data) cannot be protected with traditional read/write protections. The way to protect the content is to encrypt it and to decrypt it inside the device before its usage.

One way consists in downloading the external memory content inside the SRAM, decrypting it and executing the code and/or using the data. There are two drawbacks with this method: it introduces a delay that may not be acceptable, and it may use a large amount of SRAM, depending on the content.

The OTFDEC offers the possibility to decrypt the content directly with a low latency penalty and without the need for SRAM allocation. The OTFDEC is a hardware block that decrypt on-the-fly bus (AHB) traffic based on the read-request address information. It is used with Octo-SPI interface (see the figure below).

Figure 13. Typical OTFDEC usage in a SoC

The OTFDEC uses the AES-128 in counter mode, with a 128-bit key to achieve a latency below 12 AHB cycles. Up to four independent and non-overlapping, encrypted regions can be defined (4-Kbyte granularity), each with its own key.

When OTFDEC should be used

The OTFDEC is used when an external memory is used by the system. In the case of a TrustZone capable MCU, the decryption keys can only be made accessible through the secure mode. See AN5281 for more details.

Note: The OTFDEC is available on STM32L5 Series and STM32H7 Series only.

7 Guidelines

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Secure systems may take advantage of many security supporting hardware feature. Some are useful for any system, and need little change in the application code to be activated and fully functional. It is the case of the RDP feature, that prevents basic access to the Flash memory by disabling the debug port. Other features must be selected depending on user application and the required security level.

This section helps defining the adapted set of security features, depending on the system use-cases. Use-cases are gathered in four main groups: protection against external (1) and internal (2) threats, security maintenance (3) and other use-cases related to cryptography (4) (see the table below).

Table 15. Security use cases

8 Conclusion

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No system can be made secure by simply enabling security features in the hardware. Security must be rooted in the architecture of the complete solution.

The threats must be identified, the countermeasures correctly designed and implemented in synergy with other security features.

As security demands considerable resources, it is important to correctly evaluate the risks and spend the resources efficiently, keeping in mind the cost of attack and the value of the protected asset.

The idea of root of trust is very helpful because it uses a more analytical approach, as opposed to a holistic approach for which everything depends on everything else.

With the STM32 Series microcontrollers, the embedded and IoT security can be very cost-effective and efficient.

Appendix A Cryptography - Main concepts

Integrity, authentication and confidentiality

The objectives of cryptography are threefold:

- Confidentiality: protection of sensitive data against unauthorized read accesses
- Authentication: guarantee of the message sender identity
- Integrity: detection of any message corruption during transmission

To meet these objectives, all secure data flows rely on more or less complex combinations of the below algorithms:

- Secret key/symmetric cryptography
- Public key/asymmetric cryptography
- Hashing

These algorithms are described in the below sections.

A.1 Secret key algorithms

This family of algorithms ensures confidentiality by ciphering a clear plain text with a secret key shared between the transmitter and the receiver. This technique is referred to as symmetric cryptography because the same key is used for ciphering and deciphering.

Figure 14. Symmetric cryptography

The inherent weakness of these algorithms is the key sharing between both parties. It may not be an issue in secure environments (such as manufacturing plants) but when both parties are distant, the key transfer becomes a challenge.

Among all secret key algorithms, block-based algorithms are very common since they can be efficiently accelerated by hardware or software parallel implementations. Typical AES (advanced encryption standard) algorithms operate on clear blocks of 128 bits. They produce ciphered blocks of the same length using keys of 128, 192 or 256 bits. The different ways to chain consecutive blocks are called "mode of operations". They include cipher block chaining (CBC), counter mode (CTR) and Galois counter mode (GCM).

Since these algorithms are deterministic, they always mix input data with a random value, known as nonce, used only for one session as initialization vector.

A.2 Public key algorithms (PKA)

This class of algorithms is based on a pair of keys. One key, the private one, is never exchanged with any remote system, while the other key, the public one, can be shared with any party. The relationship between both keys is asymmetric (asymmetric cryptography):

• A message encrypted by the private key can be read by any party with the public key. This mechanism ensures a strong authentication of the sender since the private key has never been shared. Digital signatures are based on this mechanism.

Figure 15. Signature

• A message encrypted by the public key can only be read by the private key owner.

Figure 16. PKA encryption

Public key A John Doe3

The main use of public key algorithms is authentication.

It is also used to resolve the "key sharing" issue of symmetric cryptography. However, this comes at the cost of more complex operations, increased computation time and bigger memory footprint.

RSA and elliptic curve cryptography (ECC) are the most common asymmetric algorithms.

Hybrid cryptography

Common secure transfer protocols (such as Bluetooth and TLS) rely on both algorithm types. This scheme is known as hybrid cryptography:

- Asymmetric cryptography is used first, in order to solve the symmetric key-sharing problem. A session key is exchanged by the public key owner to the private key owner.
- Transfer confidentiality is then provided by a symmetric algorithm using the session key.

A.3 Hash algorithms

Hash algorithms guarantee the message integrity. They generate a unique fixed-length bitstream from a message called the digest. Any difference in the input message produces a totally different digest. The digest cannot be reversed to retrieve the input message.

Hashing can be used independently from message encryption.

The difference with classic CRC is the robustness due to operations that are more complex and a much higher digest length: up to 512 bits instead of 16 or 32 bits. As an example, CRC are reserved for fast integrity checks during data transfers. Digest length makes them virtually unique and ensures that no collision occurs. Typical algorithms are the MD5 (128-bit digest), SHA-1 (160-bit digest), SHA-2 (224-, 256-,384-, or 512-bit digest)

A.4 MAC or signature and certificate

and SHA-3 (224-, 256-, 384-, or 512-bit digest).

MAC and signature

The message authentication code (MAC) and signature add authentication to integrity by encrypting the message hash. The difference between MAC and signature is that MAC generation uses a symmetric key algorithm (Figure 18) while signature uses the message sender private key (Figure 19).

The signature adds non-repudiation dimension to authentication:

- A private key is not supposed to be revoked (its lifetime goes beyond the transfer operation.) while a secret key may have a limited lifetime (limited to this transfer).
- The private key used for signature is never shared, its security is higher than a secrete key.

Figure 18. MAC generation with secrete key algorithm

Certificate

A certificate is related to public key algorithms. It authenticates the public key in an asymmetric transfer. It is used to counteract usurpation by an attacker that could substitute the right public key by his own key. A certificate consists in the public key signed by a certificate authority (CA) private key. This CA is considered as fully trusted. In addition to the public key, the certificate also contains version numbers, validity period and some IDs.

Revision history

Table 16. Document revision history

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