# Cryptanalysis Course Part I

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with some slides by Daniel J. Bernstein

Main goal of this course: We are the attackers. We want to break ECC and RSA. First need to understand ECC; this is also needed for Dan's high-speed crypto course.

Main motivation for ECC: Avoid index-calculus attacks that plague finite-field DL. See, e.g., yesterday's talk by P. T. H. Duong.

### Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Pick some generator P, i.e. some group element (using additive notation here). Alice's Bob's secret key b secret key a Bob's Alice's public key public key bPa.P {Alice, Bob}'s {Bob, Alice}'s shared secret shared secret ab Pb a P

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What does *P* look like & how to compute P + Q?

# <u>The clock</u>



This is the curve  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

Warning:

This is *not* an elliptic curve. "Elliptic curve"  $\neq$  "ellipse."

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(1/2, -\sqrt{3/4}) =
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Adding two points corresponds to adding the angles  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ . Angles modulo 360° are a group, so points on clock are a group.

Neutral element: angle  $\alpha = 0$ ; point (0, 1); "12:00". The point with  $lpha=180^\circ$ has order 2 and equals 6:00. 3:00 and 9:00 have order 4. Inverse of point with  $\alpha$ is point with  $-\alpha$ since  $\alpha + (-\alpha) = 0$ . There are many more points where angle  $\alpha$  is not "nice."







k copies

Examples of clock addition: "2:00" + "5:00" $=(\sqrt{3/4}, 1/2) + (1/2, -\sqrt{3/4})$  $=(-1/2,-\sqrt{3/4})=$  "7:00". "5:00" + "9:00" $=(1/2,-\sqrt{3/4})+(-1,0)$  $=(\sqrt{3}/4, 1/2) = 200$  $2\left(\frac{3}{5},\frac{4}{5}\right) = \left(\frac{24}{25},\frac{7}{25}\right).$ 

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#### <u>Clocks over finite fields</u>



Clock( $\mathbf{F}_7$ ) = { $(x, y) \in \mathbf{F}_7 \times \mathbf{F}_7 : x^2 + y^2 = 1$ }. Here  $\mathbf{F}_7 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ = {0, 1, 2, 3, -3, -2, -1} with +, -, × modulo 7. E.g. 2 · 5 = 3 and 3/2 = 5 in  $\mathbf{F}_7$ .

>>>	<pre>for x in range(7):</pre>
• • •	for y in range(7):
• • •	if (x*x+y*y) % 7 == 1:
• • •	print (x,y)
• • •	
(0,	1)
(0,	6)
(1,	0)
(2,	2)
(2,	5)
(5,	2)
(5,	5)
(6,	0)
>>>	

>>> class F7:

• • •	<pre>definit(self,x):</pre>
• • •	self.int = $x \% 7$
• • •	<pre>defstr(self):</pre>
• • •	return str(self.int)
• • •	repr =str
• • •	
>>>	print F7(2)
2	
>>>	print F7(6)
6	
>>>	print F7(7)
0	
>>>	print F7(10)
3	

>>> F7.\_\_eq\_\_ = lambda a,b: \ ... a.int == b.int >>> >>> print F7(7) == F7(0) True >>> print F7(10) == F7(3) True >>> print F7(-3) == F7(4)True >>> print F7(0) == F7(1) False >>> print F7(0) == F7(2) False >>> print F7(0) == F7(3) False

>>>	F7add	= lambda	a,b:	\
•••	F7(a.int	+ b.int)		
>>>	F7sub	= lambda	a,b:	\
• • •	F7(a.int	- b.int)		
>>>	F7mul	= lambda	a,b:	$\setminus$
•••	F7(a.int	* b.int)		
>>>				
>>>	print F7(2)	+ F7(5)		
0				
>>>	print F7(2)	- F7(5)		
4				
>>>	print F7(2)	* F7(5)		
3				
>>>				

Larger example:  $Clock(F_{1000003})$ .

p = 1000003

class Fp:

• • •

def clockadd(P1,P2): x1,y1 = P1 x2,y2 = P2 x3 = x1\*y2+y1\*x2 y3 = y1\*y2-x1\*x2 return x3,y3

>>> P = (Fp(1000),Fp(2))			
>>> P2 = clockadd(P,P)			
>>> print P2			
(4000, 7)			
>>> P3 = clockadd(P2,P)			
>>> print P3			
(15000, 26)			
>>> P4 = clockadd(P3,P)			
>>> P5 = clockadd(P4,P)			
>>> P6 = clockadd(P5,P)			
>>> print P6			
(780000, 1351)			
>>> print clockadd(P3,P3)			
(780000, 1351)			
>>>			

>>> def scalarmult(n,P):

• • •	if n == 0: $\setminus$
•••	return (Fp(0),Fp(1))
• • •	if n == 1: return P
• • •	Q = scalarmult(n//2,P)
•••	Q = clockadd(Q,Q)
•••	if n % 2: Q = clockadd(P,Q)
•••	return Q
•••	
>>> n	<pre>= oursixdigitsecret</pre>
>>> s(	calarmult(n,P)
(94747	72, 736284)
>>>	

Can you figure out our secret n?

# Clock cryptography

The "Clock Diffie–Hellman protocol":

Standardize large prime p & **base point**  $(x, y) \in Clock(\mathbf{F}_p)$ . Alice chooses big secret a, computes her public key a(x, y). Bob chooses big secret b, computes his public key b(x, y). Alice computes a(b(x, y)). Bob computes b(a(x, y)). They use this shared secret to encrypt with AES-GCM etc.





Warning #3: Attacker sees more than public keys a(x, y) and b(x, y). Attacker sees how much time Alice uses to compute a(b(x, y)). Often attacker can see time for *each operation* performed by Alice, not just total time. This reveals secret scalar a.

Break by timing attacks, e.g., 2011 Brumley–Tuveri.

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Break by timing attacks, e.g., 2011 Brumley–Tuveri.

Fix: **constant-time** code, performing same operations no matter what scalar is.

#### <u>Exercise</u>

How many multiplications do you need to compute  $(x_1y_2 + y_1x_2, y_1y_2 - x_1x_2)$ ?

How many multiplications do you need to double a point, i.e. to compute  $(x_1y_1 + y_1x_1, y_1y_1 - x_1x_1)$ ? How can you optimize the computation if squarings are cheaper than multiplications? Assume  $\mathbf{S} < \mathbf{M} < 2\mathbf{S}$ .

## Addition on an Edwards curve

Change the curve on which Alice and Bob work.



 $x^2 + y^2 = 1 - 30x^2y^2.$ Sum of  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  is  $((x_1y_2+y_1x_2)/(1-30x_1x_2y_1y_2),$  $(y_1y_2-x_1x_2)/(1+30x_1x_2y_1y_2)).$ 

#### The clock again, for comparison:



 $egin{aligned} x^2+y^2 &= 1. \ & ext{Sum of } (x_1,y_1) ext{ and } (x_2,y_2) ext{ is } \ & ext{(} x_1y_2+y_1x_2, \ & ext{ } y_1y_2-x_1x_2 ext{)}. \end{aligned}$ 

"Hey, there were divisions in the Edwards addition law! What if the denominators are 0?" Answer: They aren't! If  $x_i = 0$  or  $y_i = 0$  then  $1 \pm 30x_1x_2y_1y_2 = 1 \neq 0.$ If  $x^2 + y^2 = 1 - 30x^2y^2$ then  $30x^2y^2 < 1$ so  $\sqrt{30} |xy| < 1$ .

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If  $x_1^2 + y_1^2 = 1 - 30x_1^2y_1^2$ and  $x_2^2 + y_2^2 = 1 - 30x_2^2y_2^2$ then  $\sqrt{30} |x_1y_1| < 1$ and  $\sqrt{30} |x_2y_2| < 1$ 

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 $\begin{array}{l} x_1 + y_1 = 1 - 30x_1y_1 \\ \text{and } x_2^2 + y_2^2 = 1 - 30x_2^2y_2^2 \\ \text{then } \sqrt{30} \; |x_1y_1| < 1 \\ \text{and } \sqrt{30} \; |x_2y_2| < 1 \\ \text{so } 30 \; |x_1y_1x_2y_2| < 1 \\ \text{so } 1 \pm 30x_1x_2y_1y_2 > 0. \end{array}$ 

The Edwards addition law  $(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) =$   $((x_1y_2+y_1x_2)/(1-30x_1x_2y_1y_2),$   $(y_1y_2-x_1x_2)/(1+30x_1x_2y_1y_2))$ is a group law for the curve  $x^2 + y^2 = 1 - 30x^2y^2.$ 

Some calculation required: addition result is on curve; addition law is associative.

Other parts of proof are easy: addition law is commutative; (0, 1) is neutral element;  $(x_1, y_1) + (-x_1, y_1) = (0, 1).$ 

#### Edwards curves mod p

Choose an odd prime p. Choose a *non-square*  $d \in \mathbf{F}_p$ .  $\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{F}_p \times \mathbf{F}_p :$   $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2\}$ is a "complete Edwards curve". Roughly p + 1 pairs (x, y).

def edwardsadd(P1,P2):

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If we instead choose square *d*: curve is still elliptic, and addition *seems to work*, but there are failure cases, often exploitable by attackers. Safe code is more complicated.

#### Edwards curves are cool



#### <u>ECDSA</u>

Users can sign messages using Edwards curves.

Take a point P on an Edwards curve modulo a prime p > 2.

ECDSA signer needs to know the *order of P*.

There are only finitely many other points; about p in total. Adding P to itself will eventually reach (0, 1); let  $\ell$  be the smallest integer > 0 with  $\ell P = (0, 1)$ . This  $\ell$  is the order of P. The signature scheme has as system parameters a curve E; a base point P; and a hash function h with output length at least  $\lfloor \log_2 \ell \rfloor + 1$ . Alice's secret key is an integer aand her public key is  $P_A = aP$ .

To sign message m, Alice computes h(m); picks random k; computes  $R = kP = (x_1, y_1)$ ; puts  $r \equiv y_1 \mod \ell$ ; computes  $s \equiv k^{-1}(h(m) + r \cdot a) \mod \ell$ . The signature on m is (r, s). Anybody can verify signature given m and (r, s): Compute  $w_1 \equiv s^{-1}h(m) \mod \ell$ and  $w_2 \equiv s^{-1} \cdot r \mod \ell$ . Check whether the y-coordinate of  $w_1P + w_2P_A$  equals r modulo  $\ell$ and if so, accept signature.

Alice's signatures are valid:  $w_1P + w_2P_A = (s^{-1}h(m))P + (s^{-1} \cdot r)P_A = (s^{-1}(h(m) + ra))P = kP$ and so the y-coordinate of this expression equals r, the y-coordinate of kP.

#### Attacker's view on signatures

Anybody can produce an R = kP. Alice's private key is only used in $s \equiv k^{-1}(h(m) + r \cdot a) \mod \ell$ .

Can fake signatures if one can break the DLP, i.e., if one can compute a from  $P_A$ .

Most of this course deals with methods for breaking DLPs.

Sometimes attacks are easier...

If k is known for some m, (r, s)then  $a \equiv (sk - h(m))/r \mod \ell$ . If two signatures  $m_1$ ,  $(r, s_1)$  and  $m_2$ ,  $(r, s_2)$  have the same value for r: assume  $k_1 = k_2$ ; observe  $s_1 - s_2 = k_1^{-1}(h(m_1) + ra (h(m_2) + ra))$ ; compute k = $(s_1 - s_2)/(h(m_1) - h(m_2)).$ Continue as above.

If bits of many k's are known (biased PRNG) can attack  $s \equiv k^{-1}(h(m) + r \cdot a) \mod \ell$ as hidden number problem using lattice basis reduction.

## <u>Malicious signer</u>

Alice can set up her public key so that two messages of her choice share the same signature, i.e., she can claim to have signed  $m_1$  or  $m_2$  at will:  $R = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $-R = (-x_1, y_1)$ have the same y-coordinate. Thus, (r, s) fits R = kP,  $s \equiv k^{-1}(h(m_1) + ra) \mod \ell$  and -R = (-k)P,  $s\equiv -k^{-1}(h(m_2)+ra) mod \ell$  if  $a \equiv -(h(m_1)+h(m_2))/2r \mod \ell$ .

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