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 $P$,
ie. some group element (using additive notation here).
Alice's
Bob's
secret key $a$
secret key 6

$\downarrow$
Bob's
public key
b $P$
\{Alice, Bob\}'s \{Bob, Alice\}'s
shared secret $a b P$
shared secret baP

## Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Pick some generator $P$,
ie. some group element
(using additive notation here).
Alice's
Bob's
secret key $a$ secret key $b$


# public key 

 b $P$\{Alice, Bob\}'s $\quad$ Bob, Alice\}'s shared secret $=$ shared secret $a b P$ $b a P$

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

## The clock

$y$


This is the curve $x^{2}+y^{2}=1$.
Warning:
This is not an elliptic curve.
"Elliptic curve" $=$ "ellipse."

## Examples of points on this curve:

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$(1 / 2,-\sqrt{3 / 4})=" 5: 00 "$.
$(-1 / 2,-\sqrt{3 / 4})=" 7: 00$ ".
$(\sqrt{1 / 2}, \sqrt{1 / 2})=" 1: 30$ ".
$(3 / 5,4 / 5) .(-3 / 5,4 / 5)$.

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$(\sqrt{1 / 2}, \sqrt{1 / 2})=" 1: 30$ ".
$(3 / 5,4 / 5)$. $(-3 / 5,4 / 5)$.
$(3 / 5,-4 / 5) .(-3 / 5,-4 / 5)$.
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$(4 / 5,-3 / 5)$. $(-4 / 5,-3 / 5)$.
Many more.

## Addition on the clock:



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Addition on the clock:

$x^{2}+y^{2}=1$, parametrized by
$x=\sin \alpha, \quad y=\cos \alpha$. Recall
$\left(\sin \left(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}\right), \cos \left(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}\right)\right)=$ $\left(\sin \alpha_{1} \cos \alpha_{2}+\cos \alpha_{1} \sin \alpha_{2}\right.$,

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$\left.\cos \alpha_{1} \cos \alpha_{2}-\sin \alpha_{1} \sin \alpha_{2}\right)$.

Adding two points corresponds to adding the angles $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$.
Angles modulo $360^{\circ}$ are a group, so points on clock are a group.

Neutral element: angle $\alpha=0$; point $(0,1)$; "12:00".
The point with $\alpha=180^{\circ}$
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."

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Clock addition without sin, cos:


Use Cartesian coordinates for
addition. Addition formula
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$\operatorname{sum}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)=\left(x_{3}, y_{3}\right)$

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$\operatorname{sum}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)=\left(x_{3}, y_{3}\right)$
$=\left(x_{1} y_{2}+y_{1} x_{2}, y_{1} y_{2}-x_{1} x_{2}\right)$.
Note $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+\left(-x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=(0,1)$.
$k P=\underbrace{P+P+\cdots+P}$ for $k \geq 0$. $k$ copies

## Examples of clock addition:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& " 2: 00 "+" 5: 00 " \\
& =(\sqrt{3 / 4}, 1 / 2)+(1 / 2,-\sqrt{3 / 4}) \\
& =(-1 / 2,-\sqrt{3 / 4})=" 7: 00 "
\end{aligned}
$$

"5:00" + "9:00"

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=(1 / 2,-\sqrt{3 / 4})+(-1,0)
$$

$$
=(\sqrt{3 / 4}, 1 / 2)=" 2: 00 "
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## Clocks over finite fields

$\operatorname{Clock}\left(\mathbf{F}_{7}\right)=$
$\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{F}_{7} \times \mathbf{F}_{7}: x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$.
Here $\mathbf{F}_{7}=\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
$=\{0,1,2,3,-3,-2,-1\}$
with,,$+- \times$ modulo 7 .
E.g. $2 \cdot 5=3$ and $3 / 2=5$ in $\mathbf{F}_{7}$.
>>> for $x$ in range(7): for $y$ in range(7): if ( $x * x+y * y$ ) \% 7 == 1 : print ( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}$ )
$(0,1)$
$(0,6)$
$(1,0)$
$(2,2)$
$(2,5)$
$(5,2)$
$(5,5)$
$(6,0)$
>>>
>>> class F7:
def __init__(self,x):
.. self.int $=x \% 7$
def __str__(self):
... 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 $\mathrm{F} 7(7)==\mathrm{F} 7(0)$
True
>>> print F 7 (10) == F7(3)
True
>>> print F7(-3) == F7(4)
True
>>> print F 7 (0) == F7(1)
False
>>> print F7(0) == F7(2)
False
>>> print $F 7(0)==F 7(3)$
False
>>> F7.__add__ = lambda a,b: \} F7(a.int + b.int)
>>> F7.__sub__ = lambda a,b: \}
F7(a.int - b.int)
>>> F7.__mul__ = lambda a,b: \}
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: $\operatorname{Clock}\left(\mathbf{F}_{1000003}\right)$. 

$p=1000003$
class Fp:
def clockadd(P1,P2):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{x} 1, \mathrm{y} 1=\mathrm{P} 1 \\
& \mathrm{x} 2, \mathrm{y} 2=\mathrm{P} 2 \\
& \mathrm{x} 3=\mathrm{x} 1 * \mathrm{y} 2+\mathrm{y} 1 * \mathrm{x} 2 \\
& \mathrm{y} 3=\mathrm{y} 1 * \mathrm{y} 2-\mathrm{x} 1 * \mathrm{x} 2
\end{aligned}
$$

return $x 3, y 3$
>> $P=(F p(1000), F p(2))$
>>> P 2 = clockadd $(\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{P})$
>>> 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 ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{P}$ ) :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\cdots & \text { if } \mathrm{n}==0: \backslash \\
\ldots & \text { return }(\operatorname{Fp}(0), \operatorname{Fp}(1)) \\
\cdots & \text { if } \mathrm{n}==1: \text { return } P \\
\ldots & \mathrm{Q}=\operatorname{scalarmult}(\mathrm{n} / / 2, \mathrm{P}) \\
\ldots & \mathrm{Q}=\operatorname{clockadd}(\mathrm{Q}, \mathrm{Q}) \\
\ldots & \text { if } \mathrm{n} \% 2: \mathrm{Q}=\operatorname{clockadd}(\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{Q}) \\
\ldots & \text { return } \mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

>>> n = oursixdigitsecret
>>> scalarmult ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{P}$ )
(947472, 736284)
>>>
Can you figure out our secret $n$ ?

## Clock cryptography

The "Clock Diffie-Hellman protocol":

Standardize large prime $p \&$ base point $(x, y) \in \operatorname{Clock}\left(\mathbf{F}_{p}\right)$.

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.
Alice's
Bob's
secret key $a$ secret key 6

\{Bob, Alice\}'s
shared secret
ba (X,Y)
Alice's
Bob's
secret key $a$

secret key $b$
$a(X, Y)$

public key $b(X, Y)$


に
\{Alice, Bob\}'s $\quad$ Bob, Alice\}'s
shared secret $=$ shared secret $a b(X, Y)$
ba (X,Y)

Warning \#1:
Many $p$ are unsafe!
Warning \#2:
Clocks aren't elliptic!
To match RSA-3072 security
need $p \approx 2^{1536}$.

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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Alice, not just total time.
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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.

## Exercise

## How many multiplications

 do you need to compute $\left(x_{1} y_{2}+y_{1} x_{2}, y_{1} y_{2}-x_{1} x_{2}\right) ?$How many multiplications do you need to double a point, i.e. to compute $\left(x_{1} y_{1}+y_{1} x_{1}, y_{1} y_{1}-x_{1} x_{1}\right) ?$ 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.
$y$

$x^{2}+y^{2}=1-30 x^{2} y^{2}$.
Sum of $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and $\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$ is
$\left(\left(x_{1} y_{2}+y_{1} x_{2}\right) /\left(1-30 x_{1} x_{2} y_{1} y_{2}\right)\right.$,
$\left.\left(y_{1} y_{2}-x_{1} x_{2}\right) /\left(1+30 x_{1} x_{2} y_{1} y_{2}\right)\right)$.

## The clock again, for comparison:

$y$

$x^{2}+y^{2}=1$.
Sum of $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and $\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$ is $\left(x_{1} y_{2}+y_{1} x_{2}\right.$,
$\left.y_{1} y_{2}-x_{1} x_{2}\right)$.
"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
$1 \pm 30 x_{1} x_{2} y_{1} y_{2}=1 \neq 0$.
If $x^{2}+y^{2}=1-30 x^{2} y^{2}$
then $30 x^{2} y^{2}<1$
so $\sqrt{30}|x y|<1$.
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then $30 x^{2} y^{2}<1$
so $\sqrt{30}|x y|<1$.
If $x_{1}^{2}+y_{1}^{2}=1-30 x_{1}^{2} y_{1}^{2}$
and $x_{2}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}=1-30 x_{2}^{2} y_{2}^{2}$
then $\sqrt{30}\left|x_{1} y_{1}\right|<1$
and $\sqrt{30}\left|x_{2} y_{2}\right|<1$

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then $30 x^{2} y^{2}<1$
so $\sqrt{30}|x y|<1$.
If $x_{1}^{2}+y_{1}^{2}=1-30 x_{1}^{2} y_{1}^{2}$
and $x_{2}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}=1-30 x_{2}^{2} y_{2}^{2}$
then $\sqrt{30}\left|x_{1} y_{1}\right|<1$
and $\sqrt{30}\left|x_{2} y_{2}\right|<1$
so $30\left|x_{1} y_{1} x_{2} y_{2}\right|<1$
so $1 \pm 30 x_{1} x_{2} y_{1} y_{2}>0$.

The Edwards addition law
$\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)=$
$\left(\left(x_{1} y_{2}+y_{1} x_{2}\right) /\left(1-30 x_{1} x_{2} y_{1} y_{2}\right)\right.$,
$\left.\left(y_{1} y_{2}-x_{1} x_{2}\right) /\left(1+30 x_{1} x_{2} y_{1} y_{2}\right)\right)$
is a group law for the curve
$x^{2}+y^{2}=1-30 x^{2} y^{2}$.
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;
$\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+\left(-x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=(0,1)$

## Edwards curves $\bmod p$

Choose an odd prime $p$.
Choose a non-square $d \in \mathbf{F}_{p}$.
$\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbf{F}_{p} \times \mathbf{F}_{p}\right.$ :

$$
\left.x^{2}+y^{2}=1+d x^{2} y^{2}\right\}
$$

is a "complete Edwards curve".
Roughly $p+1$ pairs $(x, y)$.
def edwardsadd(P1,P2):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{x} 1, \mathrm{y} 1=\mathrm{P} 1 \\
& \mathrm{x} 2, \mathrm{y} 2=\mathrm{P} 2 \\
& \mathrm{x} 3=(\mathrm{x} 1 * \mathrm{y} 2+\mathrm{y} 1 * \mathrm{x} 2) / \\
& (1+\mathrm{d} * \mathrm{x} 1 * \mathrm{x} 2 * \mathrm{y} 1 * \mathrm{y} 2) \\
& \mathrm{y} 3=(\mathrm{y} 1 * \mathrm{y} 2-\mathrm{x} 1 * \mathrm{x} 2) / \\
& (1-\mathrm{d} * \mathrm{x} 1 * \mathrm{x} 2 * \mathrm{y} 1 * \mathrm{y} 2)
\end{aligned}
$$

return $x 3, y 3$

Denominators are never 0 . But need different proof; " $x^{2}+y^{2}>0$ " doesn't work.

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This proof relies on choosing non-square $d$.

## Denominators are never 0 .

But need different proof; " $x^{2}+y^{2}>0$ " doesn't work.

Answer: Can prove that the denominators are never 0 . Addition law is complete.

This proof relies on choosing non-square $d$.

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



## ECDSA

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 $\left\lfloor\log _{2} \ell\right\rfloor+1$.
Alice's secret key is an integer a and her public key is $P_{A}=a P$.

To sign message $m$,
Alice computes $h(m)$;
picks random $k$;
computes $R=k P=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$;
puts $r \equiv y_{1} \bmod \ell$; computes $s \equiv k^{-1}(h(m)+r \cdot a) \bmod \ell$.

The signature on $m$ is $(r, s)$.

Anybody can verify signature
given $m$ and $(r, s)$ :
Compute $w_{1} \equiv s^{-1} h(m) \bmod \ell$ and $w_{2} \equiv s^{-1} \cdot r \bmod \ell$.
Check whether the $y$-coordinate of $w_{1} P+w_{2} P_{A}$ equals $r$ modulo $\ell$ and if so, accept signature.

Alice's signatures are valid:
$w_{1} P+w_{2} P_{A}=$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(s^{-1} h(m)\right) P+\left(s^{-1} \cdot r\right) P_{A}= \\
& \left(s^{-1}(h(m)+r a)\right) P=k P
\end{aligned}
$$

and so the $y$-coordinate of this expression equals $r$, the $y$-coordinate of $k P$.

## Attacker's view on signatures

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

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 $a \equiv(s k-h(m)) / r \bmod \ell$.

If two signatures $m_{1},\left(r, s_{1}\right)$ and $m_{2},\left(r, s_{2}\right)$ have the same value for $r$ : assume $k_{1}=k_{2}$; observe $s_{1}-s_{2}=k_{1}^{-1}\left(h\left(m_{1}\right)+r a-\right.$ $\left.\left(h\left(m_{2}\right)+r a\right)\right)$; compute $k=$ $\left(s_{1}-s_{2}\right) /\left(h\left(m_{1}\right)-h\left(m_{2}\right)\right)$. Continue as above.

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

## Malicious signer

Alice can set up her public key so that two messages of her choice share the same signature,
ie., she can claim to have
signed $m_{1}$ or $m_{2}$ at will:
$R=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ and $-R=\left(-x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$
have the same $y$-coordinate.
Thus, $(r, s)$ fits $R=k P$,
$s \equiv k^{-1}\left(h\left(m_{1}\right)+r a\right) \bmod \ell$ and
$-R=(-k) P$,
$s \equiv-k^{-1}\left(h\left(m_{2}\right)+r a\right) \bmod \ell$ if
$a \equiv-\left(h\left(m_{1}\right)+h\left(m_{2}\right)\right) / 2 r \bmod \ell$.

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$a \equiv-\left(h\left(m_{1}\right)+h\left(m_{2}\right)\right) / 2 r \bmod \ell$.
(Easy tweak: include bit of $x_{1}$.)

