

Attacks against RSA and its Implementations

Arne Ansper, Ahto Buldas

- Invented by Rivest, Shamir and Adleman in 1977
- Secret key: prime numbers p, q; and private exponent d
- O Public key: modulus N=pq and public exponent e
- $\bigcirc ed \mod (p-1)(q-1) = 1$, i.e. ed = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)
- Encryption of a message M: $C = M^e \mod N$
- Decryption (signing) of C: $C^d \mod N = M^{ed} \mod N = M$

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Secure Encryption

- Ciphertext C must not reveal any information about the plaintext M (semantic security)
- The "textbook RSA" is not semantically secure
- Example, encrypting yes/no votes. Given an encrypted vote $C = v^e \mod N$, an attacker can easily encrypt both votes and compare the results to C.

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Random padding has to be applied before encryption

Secure Signatures

O Existential unforgeability: Given message/signature pairs

 $(M_1, S_1), (M_2, S_2), \ldots, (M_m, S_m)$

it must be impossible to create one more signature (M, S)

 "Textbook RSA" is not existentially unforgeable, because of the homomorphic property:

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- $M_1^d M_2^d \mod N = (M_1 M_2)^d \mod N$
- Output Paddings have to be used!



Classification: Targets

- Against RSA itself: factoring large integers, quantum computers and Shor's algorithm
- O Against improper use of RSA in protocols: common modulus, blinding
- Against improper choice of parameters: low private exponent, low public exponent, Hastad broadcast attack, Franklin-Reiter related message attack, Coppershmith's short pad attack, etc.
- Against improper implementations: partial key exposure attacks, improper random numbers, timing-attacks, power-consumption attacks, random faults, Bleichenbacher's attack on PKCS#1 padding

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Classification: Inputs

- Output Public-key only attacks
- Attacks that require physical access to implementation



Classification: Impact

- Output Decrypted ciphertext
- Forged signature
- Factorization of the modulus
- Method of factoring all moduli (e.g. Shor's algorithm)



Partial Key Exposure

- O Given an *n*-bit RSA modulus *N*, and *n*/4 least significant bits of the secret modulus *d*, it is easy to compute *d*
- Given an *n*-bit RSA modulus N=pq, and n/4 least/most significant bits of p, the modulus N can be factored (Coppersmith 1996)

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Timing Attacks

• Let $d_n d_{n-1} \dots d_1 d_0$ be the bit-representation of *d*. The computation of $M^d \mod N$ is performed as follows:

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z := M, C := 1
For every i = 0 \dots N-1 do:
if d_i = 1, then C := C z \mod N
z := z^2 \mod N
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 The attacker asks the smartcard to compute a large number of exponents, measures the times and reconstructs d using statistical analysis.



Random Faults

 Smartcard applications of RSA frequently use CRT (Chinese Reminder Theorem) to speed up M^d mod N where N=pq

 $d' := d \mod p - 1 \qquad d'' := d \mod q - 1$ $C' := M^{d'} \mod p \qquad C'' := M^{d''} \mod q$ $C := c' q C' + c'' p C'' \mod N \text{ where } c' \text{ and } c'' \text{ are constants such that } c'q + c''p = 1$

 \odot Error occurs when computing C" and <u>C</u> is the erroneous version of C. Then

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 $\underline{C}^{e} = M \mod p$ but $\underline{C}^{e} != M \mod q$

• Hence, attacker can compute gcd (N, $\underline{C}^e - M$) = p and to factorize N

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Bleichenbacher's Attack

O The PKCS 1 padding looks like as follows:

02 | Random | 00 | Message

- Say a server receives encrypted messages and returns an "invalid ciphertext" error message if the decrypted message has an incorrect padding
- So, sending a "random" ciphertext C to the server, an attacker will know if the corresponding plaintext has 02 in the beginning
- Bleichenbacher showed in 1998 that if an attacker who has access to such a server, can decrypt any ciphertext

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Weak Random Numbers

- Cryptographically secure random numbers are crucial for generating proper RSA keys
- In 2012: Lenstra et al discovered that many public-key certificates contain the same public keys and many share a common prime
- In 2013: Taiwan's secure digital IDs use weak random
- Out of about 2 million 1024-bit RSA keys,184 keys were generated so poorly they could be broken in a matter of hours. Some pairs of keys shared the same prime number

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Attack against Taiwan digital IDs





Daniel J. Bernstein, Yun-An Chang, Chen-Mou Cheng, Li-Ping Chou, Nadia Heninger, Tanja Lange, and Nicko van Someren. 2013. Factoring RSA Keys from Certified Smart Cards: Coppersmith in the Wild. In *Advances in Cryptology - ASIACRYPT 2013*. Springer-Verlag, 341–360.

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Weak Prime Numbers

- O Even if the random numbers used by a smartcard are ok, the choice of prime numbers may be poor
- O That is the case with the current Estonian ID-card incident
- To search for prime numbers, smart-cards use several (so called) fast-prime methods, that fasten the search, but at the same time, reduce the number of candidate primes
- Each such method characterizes the card and can be identified by running tests on public moduli
- We can check if a key is produced by the particular Infineon chip used by the Estonian ID-card

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The Weakness

Nemec, Sys, Svenda, Klinec, and Matyas discovered that the Infineon chip produces prime numbers of the form:

 $p = 65537^a \mod M + kM$,

where *M* is constant and the same for all chips. For 2048-bit modulus *N*, it is the product of the first 126 primes.

Objective Hence, all public moduli N satisfy (65537^c-N) mod M. This is the test of weak moduli, the authors published.

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- Naive search: try all ord_M(65537) possible *a*-s and try to find *k*
- Naive search does not work: the number of a-s to examine would be 2²⁵⁴

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The Science

- Main idea: Use a divisor M' of M, such that $\operatorname{ord}_{M'}(65537)$ is feasible, but still the number of bits in M' is larger than 2048/4 (necessary for the Coppersmith attack)
- O Then, the prime numbers are still expressible in the form:

 $p = 65537^{a'} \mod M' + k'M'$

Output Authors found optimal M' in terms of the overall attack time by brute force search combined with greedy heuristics

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Matus Nemec and Marek Sys and Petr Svenda and Dusan Klinec and Vashek Matyas. 2017. The Return of Coppersmith's Attack: Practical Factorization of Widely Used RSA Moduli. In 24th ACM Conference on Computer and Communications Security (CCS'2017) ACM, 1631-1648

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The Impact

- Objective By using optimal M', the number of possible a-s is 2³⁴ for 2048-bit RSA modulus
- k is found in 200 ms (on one core of 3GHz Intel Xeon E5-2650 v3) by using the Coppersmith's algorithm (1996)
- The total cost per key is about 140 CPU years





Matus Nemec and Marek Sys and Petr Svenda and Dusan Klinec and Vashek Matyas. 2017. The Return of Coppersmith's Attack: Practical Factorization of Widely Used RSA Moduli. In 24th ACM Conference on Computer and Communications Security (CCS'2017) ACM, 1631-1648

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Certified is not Secure

- O The Infineon chip is Common Criteria certified
- Observation How could such a flaw slip through certification?
- Certifications do not certify that the product is secure against known and unknown threats
- They just certify that certain functions were implemented according to specification
- At the time of certification, the fast prime generation methods were not known to have any weaknesses

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Conclusions

- In spite of having been attacked through 40 years, RSA itself has no known weaknesses
- Only quantum computers can break RSA efficiently
- Vulnerabilities in soft- and hardware are inevitable
- We must have mechanisms in place to mitigate those vulnerabilities
- IT-Systems design/management must take potential unknown vulnerabilities into account

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