

Attacking right-to-left modular exponentiation with timely random faults

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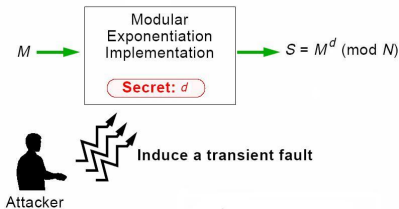
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Smartcards applications and security

- **Applications:** digital signature, pay-TV, credit cards,...
- **Security:**
 - ① user authentication: PIN, biometric techniques
 - ② internal data access control
 - protection of internal data (**tamper-resistance**)
 - some data may not even accessible to the card owner (e.g. private keys in public key cryptography)
- **Fault attacks:** directed against tamper-resistance

Fault-based cryptanalysis

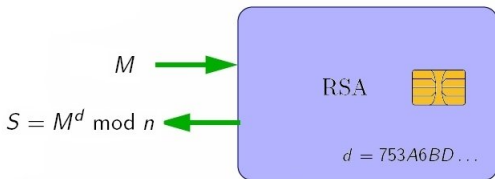
- **Fault analysis:** induce errors during the computation and observe the effect on the result of the computation
- We shall focus on faults attacks against smartcards implementing digital signature schemes based on traditional public key cryptography (e.g. RSA)
- Goal: extract the private signing key



Fault Analysis: classification of faults

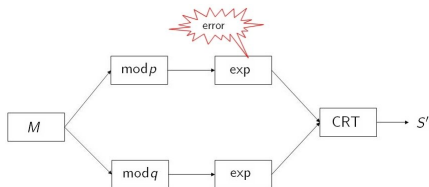
- Permanent
 - e.g. non-reversible modification of memory content
 - may damage smartcard
 - may require sophisticated equipment and expertise
- **Transient**
 - Affect a single computation (e.g.: a single operation yields an incorrect result)
 - difficult to detect
 - (relatively) easy to induce using a **glitch**: an instant variation of voltage and/or clock frequency (see e.g. H. Bar-EI at al. in FDTC 2004)
- We shall focus on transient faults

RSA signature



- Public parameters: modulus $n = p \cdot q$, public exponent e
- Secret parameters: private exponent d , primes p, q (protected inside the smartcard)
- The user transmits the card a document M to be signed (or its digest)
- The smartcard computes the signature as $S = M^d \bmod n$
- The signature can be verified by checking if $M = S^e \bmod n$

The Bellcore attack (D. Boneh et al. 1996)



- Works against RSA implementation based on the CRT
- Exploits a single random fault
- Exponentiation is computed separately mod p and mod q and recombined using CRT
 - $S_p = M^d \text{ mod } p$
 - $S_q = M^d \text{ mod } q$
 - $S = \text{CRT}(S_p, S_q)$
- $\text{GCD}(S'^e - M, n) = q$

Differential Fault Analysis (Feng Bao et al., 1997)

Fault model: a transient fault during computation of S flips a few individual bits of d .

Safe Errors (Yen and Joye, 2000)

Fault model: a transient fault during a modular multiplication alters a selected portion of a data register

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Unlike Bellcore's, these fault models presuppose the ability to modify the content of data registers in a selective manner. This can be regarded as being a bit too idealized.

Q: Is it possible to achieve similar results using truly random, hence practical faults?

A: Yes, under certain assumptions.

Our fault model

Assumptions

- 1 *Right-to-left* Exponentiation
- 2 Multiplication and squaring take constant time δ
- 3 Attacker has tight control on timing (supplies the clock signal!)
- 4 A **glitch**-perturbed squaring $z \leftarrow z^2$ has same effect as $z \leftarrow r$, for a random $r \in \mathbb{Z}_n$

$S = M^d \bmod n$, computed by:

```
w ← 1
z ← M
phase 0 [ if d0 = 1 then w ← w · z mod n
          z ← z2 mod n
phase 1 [ if d1 = 1 then w ← w · z mod n
          z ← z2 mod n
          ⋮
          ⋮
phase l-1 [ if dl-1 = 1 then w ← w · z mod n
            z ← z2 mod n
            return w
```

Correct signature:

$$S =_n M^{d_0} \cdot M^{2d_1} \dots M^{2^{i-1}d_{i-1}} \cdot M^{2^i d_i} \cdot M^{2^{i+1}d_{i+1}} \dots M^{2^{l-1}d_{l-1}}$$

The attack

Let $d = (d_{i-1}, \dots, d_1, d_0)_2$ and assume the least significant $i - 1$ bits d_0, \dots, d_{i-1} have been determined.

The attacker targets bit d_i :

- 1 determines the time T at which phase i starts
- 2 applies a **glitch** at some time in $(T - \delta, T)$: at phase $i - 1$ $z \leftarrow z^2$ is replaced by $z \leftarrow r$, with r random
- 3 obtains a faulty signature S'
- 4 analyzes S'

glitch at phase $i - 1$

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phase i [ if d_i = 1 then w ← w · z mod n
(time T) z ← z^2 mod n
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          :
          :
```

Correct vs. faulty signature:

$$\begin{aligned} S &=_{\mathbf{n}} M^{d_0} \cdot M^{2d_1} \dots M^{2^{i-1}d_{i-1}} \cdot M^{2^i d_i} \cdot M^{2^{i+1}d_{i+1}} \dots M^{2^{l-1}d_{l-1}} \\ S' &=_{\mathbf{n}} M^{d_0} \cdot M^{2d_1} \dots M^{2^{i-1}d_{i-1}} \cdot r^{d_i} \cdot r^{2d_{i+1}} \dots r^{2^{l-i-1}d_{l-1}} \end{aligned}$$

Analysis of S'

The attacker computes the *Jacobi symbol* of the faulty signature.

Assume for simplicity $\left(\frac{M}{n}\right) = 1$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$. Then:

$$S' =_n M^{d_0} \cdot M^{2d_1} \cdots M^{2^{i-1}d_{i-1}} \cdot r^{d_i} \cdot r^{2d_{i+1}} \cdots r^{2^{l-i-1}d_{l-1}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\frac{S'}{n}\right) &= \left(\frac{M^{d_0}}{n}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{M^{2d_1}}{n}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{M^{2^{i-1}d_{i-1}}}{n}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{r^{d_i}}{n}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{r^{2d_{i+1}}}{n}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{r^{2^{l-i-1}d_{l-1}}}{n}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{r}{n}\right)^{d_i}\end{aligned}$$

Thus:

- $\left(\frac{S'}{n}\right) = -1 \Rightarrow d_i = 1$
- $d_i = 0 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{S'}{n}\right) \neq -1$ with “high probability”

A probabilistic decision test for d_i

In other words, the attacker applies the following probabilistic **decision algorithm** for d_i :

- $J = \left(\frac{S'}{n}\right)$;
- $J = -1$: conclude $d_i = 1$ with certainty;
- $J \neq -1$: conclude $d_i = 0$ with an error probability $\leq \epsilon$.

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Error probability ϵ . Under reasonable assumptions, for an RSA modulus n , we have $\epsilon \leq \frac{3}{7}$. By repeating the test m times independently, the error probability can be made lower than $\left(\frac{3}{7}\right)^m$

Software simulations

Several trials have been performed using randomly generated keys of different size

Average numbers of signatures per trial

RSA-256	RSA-384	RSA-512	RSA-768
1389	2110	2816	4227
1532	2285	3065	4206
1670	2502	3321	4970

Rate of unsuccessful trials (%)

RSA-256	RSA-384	RSA-512	RSA-768
19	34	38	57
11	15	25	50
3	6	11	33

For RSA-768, about 5000 faulty signatures would in theory be sufficient to recover a key in about 70% of cases. Estimated time: 25 minutes, assuming a time of 300 μ -s per signature.

- **Extensions.** The attack works well also in the following cases:
 - prime moduli (hence El Gamal decryption and Diffie-Hellman KE can be targeted)
 - multiplications taking non-constant, normally distributed execution times – with moderate variance
 - RSA with message blinding.
- **SW countermeasures.** The following c.m. appear to thwart our attack:
 - Checking before output ($S^e = M?$), efficient if e is small
 - Blinding of the exponent (add $k \cdot \phi(n)$ to d , for k random, before exponentiation)
 - Shamir's method (Shamir, Eurocrypt 1997), in the case of prime moduli

Conclusions and further work

- We have presented a fault analysis technique on non-CRT public key schemes that combines timing control and truly random computational faults
- Albeit not implemented on real devices, the attack points to more subtleties and dangers arising from faulty behaviour
- Directions for **further work**:
 - Left-to-right exponentiation, no obvious modification works!
 - Double-and-add algorithms used in ECC deserve further investigation