Applications of LLL: Breaking RSA

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Summary

oRSA o Lattice Attacks on RSA o « Linear » Attacks o Wiener's Attack Bleichenbacher's Attack Small-Root Attacks





The RSA Cryptosystem

Remember RSA

- N=pq product of two large random primes. $\circ ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$ where $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$. o e is the public exponent od is the secret exponent \circ Then m \rightarrow m^e is a trapdoor one-way permutation over Z/NZ, whose inverse is
 - $c \rightarrow c^d$.



Wiener's Attack (1989)

Short-Secret RSA

- To speed-up RSA secret operations, we may want to select a short d.
 - Assume that d « N, can we recover d from (e,N)?
 - $\circ ed = 1+k\phi(N)$

where $\phi(N)=(p-1)(q-1)=N+O(\sqrt{N})$

 So k=O(d) and ed≈kN, namely edkN=O(d√N).

Lattices and Short-Secret RSA

Consider the 2-dim lattice L spanned by:



 It contains the vector t=dx(1st row)kx(2nd row).

Lattices and Short-Secret RSA

How short is t=dx(1st row)-kx(2nd row)?
Its 1st coordinate is ed-kN=O(d/N).
Its 2nd coordinate is d/N.
So ||t||=O(d/N).

This is unusually short if ||t||≤vol(L)^{1/2}=N^{3/4}
 i.e. d≤O(N^{1/4}), then t is ``likely" to be a shortest vector of L.

Lattice Attack on Short-Secret RSA

Compute a shortest vector of the 2-dim lattice L: this only takes polynomial-time, less than 1s for 2048-bit RSA.
If it is ±t, recover (k,d): how?
Check that (k,d) is correct: how?

Lattice Attack on Short-Secret RSA

o If it is ±t, recover (k,d): how? o Divide the 2nd coordinate by \sqrt{N} . • Check that (k,d) is correct: how? $\circ ed-kN=1-k(p+q-1).$ \circ Derive p+q. • Recover p and q by solving $X^2 - (p+q)X$ +N=0.

Wiener's Attack (1989)

- Using continued fractions instead of lattices, Wiener showed:
 - Th: If q<p<2q and 1≤d≤N^{1/4}/3, one can recover p and q in polynomial time from (N,e).
- [BonehDurfee1999]: There is a heuristic (lattice) attack recovering p and q in polynomial time from (N,e) if d≤N^{0.292...}



Bleichenbacher's Attack (1998)

Security of RSA

 It is well-known that recovering the secret key d is as hard as factoring N=pq.

• But inverting the permutation $m \rightarrow m^e$ might be easier than

factoring: how hard is it to compute $c \rightarrow c^d$ without knowing d?

Textbook RSA Encryption

o Just use the RSA permutation m→m^e over Z/NZ directly to encrypt and decrypt.
o But this is insecure in theory and in many practical settings.

Short-Message Attack

- Assume that e=3, N is 2048-bit, and that we encrypt a 128-bit AES key m.
 - * $c=m^e \pmod{N}$.
 - * What is the problem?

Securing RSA Encryption

 Encryption needs to be randomized.
 Concretely, one (randomly) transforms the plaintext, before applying the RSA permutation.

 To decrypt, the formatting must be checked and inverted.

Bleichenbacher's Attack (1998)

The PKCS standard used by SSLv3.0 preprocessed
 messages as follows: Size of the RSA Modulus N



- The server checked if decrypted messages had this shape: if not, an error message was sent.
- * Thus, one could know if the decryption of a ciphertext started with 00 02.

Bleichenbacher's Attack (1998)

- * Given a public key (N,e) and a ciphertext c=m^e (mod N).
 - * Choose a random r mod N and let $c' = c r^e \pmod{N}$.
 - * Ask the server if c' is a valid ciphertext.
 - * If not, pick another r.
 - * If yes, we know that $c'^{d}=mr \pmod{N}$ starts with 00 02.
 - * Repeat until enough r's have been collected: recover **m** using a special algorithm.

 \circ Recall that c=m^e (mod N). o We know many integers ri s.t. (mri) mod N starts with 0002. o Let s=00020...0 with the same bitlength as N. • Then $O \leq ((mr_i) \mod N) - s < N/2^{16}$

• Let L be the lattice spanned by: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2^{16}r_1 & 2^{16}r_2 & \dots & 2^{16}r_n \\ 0 & 2^{16}N & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & 0 & 2^{16}N & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 2^{16}N \end{pmatrix}$

◦ Then u=(m,2¹⁶(mr₁ mod N),...,2¹⁶(mr_n mod N))∈L

o Let L be the lattice spanned by: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2^{16}r_1 & 2^{16}r_2 & \dots & 2^{16}r_n \\ 0 & 2^{16}N & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $2^{16}N$ 0 $0 \quad 2^{16}N$ ◦ Let $u=(m,2^{16}(mr_1 \mod N),...,2^{16}(mr_n \mod N)) \in L$ and t=(0,s,s...s), then ||u-t||≈N√n.

• Let L be the lattice spanned by: $\begin{array}{cccc} 2^{16}r_1 & 2^{16}r_2 \\ 2^{16}N & 0 \end{array}$ $... 2^{16} r_n$ $2^{16}N$ 0 $0 \quad 2^{16}N$ o This distance ||u-t||≈N√n is much smaller than $\sqrt{nvol(L)^{1/(n+1)}} \approx 2^{16}N\sqrt{n}$ so u is heuristically the closest lattice vector to t.

Recap

Build the lattice L.
Compute the closest lattice vector to the target vector t.
Derive the plaintext m as the 1st coordinate.

 If N is 1024-bit, n=80 works in practice.



Small-Roots Attacks



Breaking RSA without Factoring

 In 1996, Coppersmith showed how to solve two problems in polynomial time using lattices:

 Given a monic polynomial P in Z[X] and an integer N, find all "small" integers × s.t. P(×)=0 (mod N).

Given an irreducible polynomial P in
 Z[X,Y], find all "small" integers x and y
 s.t. P(x,y) = 0.

Applications to RSA

- This and generalizations lead to breaking many special cases of RSA
 - When the secret exponent d is too small.
 - When half of the bits of p are known.
 - When the public exponent e is small, and only a fraction of the plaintext is unknown.

Stereotyped Attack

- Assume that e=3, N is 2048-bit, and that we encrypt a 128-bit AES key m by padding a known constant like « Today's key is ».
 - * $c=(m+b)^e \pmod{N}$.
 - * What is the problem?

Factoring with a hint [Cop96]

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- $\circ N = pq$ where $p = p_0 + \varepsilon$ for some small ε .
- Let $f(x)=p_0+x$.
- Then $gcd(f(\varepsilon),N)=p$ is large.
- Can recover ε and p if $|\varepsilon| \le N^{1/4}$

Another Real-World Attack

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• Attack on Infineon RSA keys.



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 See ACM CCS '17: The Return of Coppersmith's Attack: Practical Factorization of Widely Used RSA Moduli by Matus Nemec, Marek Sys, Petr Svenda, Dusan Klinec, Vashek Matyas (Masaryk University).

Impact



Ex: Estonia's 750,000 ID cards.



 Svenda et al. analyzed 60 millions fresh keys produced by 22 libraries and 16 smartcards from 6 manufacturers.

 Most distributions of N=pq and/or p were different and could be identified!

Why?

- If p and q are random primes, then (p-1)(q-1) may not be coprime with e, and N=pq will not have a fixed bit-length.
- Each manufacturer/library typically has their own distribution. Library: Microsoft CryptoAPI Card: Infineon JTOP 80K





Ex: Infineon

Infineon primes are « not random »



What is going on?

If p_i is a small prime then p mod p_i is not uniform over {1,..., p_i-1}.
It seems to be uniform over some small subgroup of (Z/p_iZ)*.

Why?

- Typically, one generates primes as: Repeat o Generate a large random number p o Until p is prime • In practice, primality testing is a few modular exponentiations. One can increase
 - the probability by making p not divisible by all small p_i .



Generation

• The subgroup of $(Z/p_iZ)^*$ is the one generated by 65537. op and q are of the form: $\circ p=kM+(65537^{a} \mod M)$, where M is the product of the first n primes: 2x3x5x... on depends on the size of N. • Hence, N mod M is a power of 65537, which can easily be checked.



Breaking Infineon-RSA

o p=kM+(65537^a mod M)

If one can guess the exponent a, then p mod M is known.

○ From Coppersmith's 1996 work: if M≥N^{0.25}, lattice attacks recover p in poly-time from N.

N	512-bit	1024-bit	2048-bit	3072-bit	4096-bit
$(\log_2 M)/(\log_2 N)$	0.43	0.46	0.47	0.32	0.48

Lattice Attacks

If p mod M is known, one knows a linear polynomial f(X)∈Z[X] s.t. gcd(f(x₀),N)=p is large, where x₀ is a small integer: it is small if M is large.
This can be solved by lattice techniques [Cop1996].

The Trick

Guessing a depends on the order of 65537
 in (Z/MZ)*, which might be as big as
 M≥N^{0.4}: exhaustive search too expensive!

However, no need to take M: take any divisor M' of M s.t. M'≥N^{1/4} and the order of 65537 in (Z/M'Z)* is small.

 Ex: 20-bit order for 512-bit N, 30-bit order for 1024-bit.

Implementation

