

Breaking Randomized Mixed-Radix Scalar Multiplication Algorithms

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Context

Side-channel attacks and countermeasures for elliptic curve scalar multiplication: $k, P \mapsto [k]P = P + P + \dots + P$

Randomization strategies

- ▶ scalar blinding, point/cordinates randomization

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Idea: use a different, randomly selected addition chain for each scalar multiplication.

- ▶ Ex: binary signed digits failures [Oswald, Aigner'01], [Ha, Moon'02].
- ▶ Covering Systems of Congruences [Guerrini, I., Winterhalter'17]

Today's talk

Covering systems of congruences

Full key recovery

A regular and constant-time generalization

A (virtual) template attack

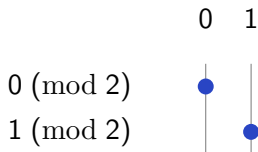
Covering Systems of Congruences

A **covering system of congruence (CSC)** is a finite set of congruences $\mathcal{S} = \{r_i \bmod m_i\}_i$, s.t. every integer satisfies at least one of them.

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Example 1: binary decomposition



Binary aka double-and-add algorithm

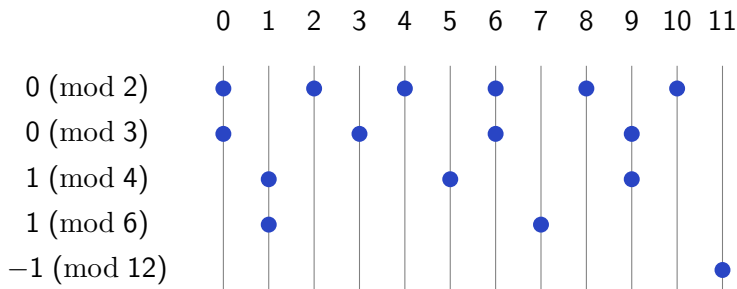
$$k \equiv r \pmod{2} \Rightarrow [k]P = [2]Q + [r]P, \text{ where } Q = [(k - r)/2]P$$

Not redundant \Rightarrow non randomizable

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Example 2: multiple moduli



$$k \equiv r \pmod{m} \Rightarrow [k]P = [m]Q + [r]P, \text{ where } Q = [(k - r)/m]P$$

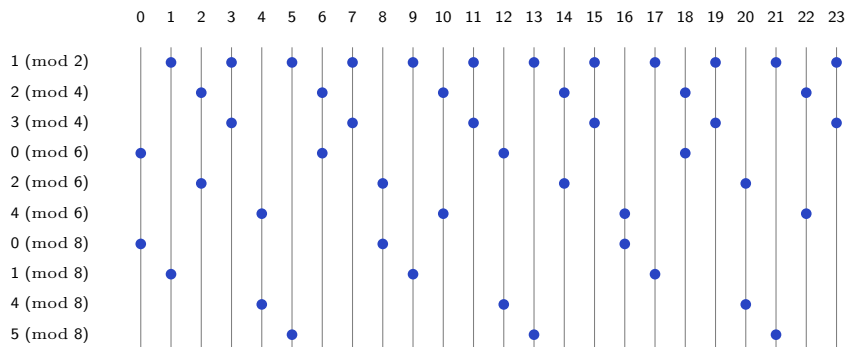
Redundant but not uniform

Exact Coverings

A CSC is an n -cover if every integer is covered at least n times.

It is an exact n -cover if every integer is covered exactly n times.

Example: an exact 2-cover



Redundant and uniform

A CSC-based Randomized Algorithm

Input: \mathcal{S} an exact n -cover, $\ell = \text{lcm}(m_1, \dots, m_{|\mathcal{S}|})$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $P \in \mathcal{G}$

Output: $Q = [k]P \in \mathcal{G}$

1: **if** $k = 0$ **then**

2: **return** \mathcal{O}

3: **else if** $k = 1$ **then**

4: **return** P

5: **Select** $r \pmod{m}$ uniformly at random
 among the n classes that cover integers in $\ell\mathbb{Z} + k$

6: **compute** $Q \leftarrow [(k - r)/m]P$ recursively

7: **return** $[m]Q + [r]P$ # note: $[r]P$ may be precomputed

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Threat model

The attacker can differentiate D from A.

Execution trace: concatenation of subtraces given by $[m]Q + [r]P$.

$$-1 \pmod{6} \longrightarrow [6]Q - P \longrightarrow \text{DADA}$$

$$2 \pmod{12} \longrightarrow [12]Q + [2]P \longrightarrow \text{DADDA} \quad ([2]P \text{ precomp.})$$

$$2 \pmod{12} \longrightarrow [2]([6]Q + P) \longrightarrow \text{DADAD}$$

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$k = 0\text{xfa}72\text{c}39\text{b}25\text{ecc}4164\text{d}4\text{c}5\text{dde}506299\text{c}0941863\text{eeee}13\text{f}6\text{d}4\text{d}73\text{fe}32\text{bf}c\text{eec}1\text{f}$

D D A D D D D D A D D D A D A D D A D A D D D A D D A D D A D D A D D A D A D
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Randomization provides a huge number of traces for a given k .

(Weak) security assumption

The mapping Tr from \mathbb{Z} to $(D|A)^*$ is not injective.

$$10273 = 1 + 12(0 + 4(10 + 12(5 + 12(1 + 12.0))))$$

$$Tr(10273) = DADDADADDADADDADDDADDA$$

$$43455 = 3 + 4(7 + 8(1 + 12(5 + 12(9 + 12.0))))$$

$$Tr(43455) = DADDADADDADADDADDDADDA$$

$$14649 = 9 + 12(0 + 4(5 + 12(1 + 12(2 + 12.0))))$$

$$Tr(14649) = DADDADADDADADDADDDADDA$$

Empirical estimate: #integers that maps to a given trace(*) $> 2^{116}$

(*) of length equal to the average length of a trace produced by 256-bit integers

The mapping Tr^{-1}

Example for u3c-48-24

D	{ (0, 2) }
DD	{ (0, 4) }
DDA	{ (-1, 4) }
DDD	{ (0, 8) }
DADA	{ (3, 6), (-1, 6), (1, 6) }
DDAD	{ (-2, 8) }
DDDA	{ (-1, 8), (1, 8) }
DADAD	{ (-2, 12), (2, 12), (6, 12) }
DADDA	{ (1, 12), (5, 12) }
DDADA	{ (-3, 12) }
DDADD	{ (4, 16), (-4, 16) }
DDDAD	{ (2, 16), (-6, 16) }
DDDDA	{ (5, 16), (-3, 16), (-5, 16), (3, 16) }

Full key recovery algorithm (on a toy example)

T1: DDADD D DDA D DD (split up for simplification)

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$$\text{DDADD D DDA D --} \quad 0 \pmod{4} \quad \Rightarrow \quad k \in 4\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\text{DDADD D DDA - --} \quad 0 \pmod{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad k \in 8\mathbb{Z}$$

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T2: DDDAD D D DDAD DD

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Mixed-radix number system

Write k in base (b_1, \dots, b_n) s.t.: (b_i need not be distincts)

$$k = k_1 + b_1 (k_2 + b_2 (k_3 + \dots + b_n (k_{n+1}) \dots))$$

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Randomized MRS-based scalar multiplication

Input: A family \mathcal{F} of “good” MRS bases, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $P \in E$.

Output: $Q = [k]P \in E$

$$\mathcal{B} = (b_1, \dots, b_n) \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{F}$$

compute the MRS representation of k in \mathcal{B}

$$Q \leftarrow [k_{n+1}]P \quad \# \text{ Montgomery ladder}$$

for $j = n$ **downto** 1 **do**

$$Q \leftarrow [b_j]Q + [k_j]P$$

return Q

Generalizes covering systems of congruences

Loading the bases

Requirements for suitable families of MRS bases:

1. the range $\{X_{\mathcal{F}}^{\min}, \dots, X_{\mathcal{F}}^{\max}\}$ can accommodate any scalar k of relevance for the cryptosystem at hand
2. \mathcal{F} is large enough to ensure a sufficient amount of randomization
3. one can securely compute the MRS representation of k in base \mathcal{B}
4. one can securely compute the scalar multiplication $[k]P$

The family $\mathcal{F}_{s,n,m}$

The set of all n -tuples exclusively composed of s -bit moduli taken from a predefined set of size m

Provides $\rho = \lfloor \log_2(m^n) \rfloor$ bits of randomization

Among all possible sets of size m , those composed of the m largest s -bit integers provide shorter MRS representations.

$$\mathcal{F}_{s,n,m} = \{(b_1, \dots, b_n) : 2^s - m \leq b_i \leq 2^s - 1 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n\}.$$

Example:

$$s = 5 \text{ bits, } m = 7$$

$$\hookrightarrow b_i \in \{25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31\}$$

$$n = 53$$

$$\hookrightarrow m^n > 2^{128}$$

Computing $[k]P$ securely

- ▶ Compute $[b_i]Q + [k_i]P$ in constant time for all (b_i, k_i)
- ▶ Compute the MRS representation of k in constant time
- ▶ Ensure a constant number of iterations
- ▶ No secret-dependent branching nor memory access

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 - ▶ Euclidean **division by constants** through multiplication by precomputed inverses [Grandlund, Montgomery'94]
- ▶ Ensure a constant number of iterations
 - ▶ $\hat{k} = k + \alpha \times \#E$ for a computable value α (independent of k) s.t. \hat{k} can be written in any base $\mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{F}$ using exactly $n + 1$ digits
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Public information: $P \in E$ of order $\#E$.

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Invariant: $[b]R_{b,i} + [i]P = R$

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- ▶ Reprogram the training device to evaluate $[b]R_{b,i} + [i]P$ for all b and i and store the $m \times 2^s$ corresponding traces.

Sequences of operations are identical but bit-flips differ.

Deep-learning or other advanced techniques may allow to differentiate these traces.

The attack

- ▶ Observe that the algorithm always ends after computing $[b]R_{b,i} + [i]P = [k]P$, for one of the precomputed point $R_{b,i}$ and $i = k \bmod b$.
- ▶ On the attacked device, record traces for $[k]P$.
Running the algorithm sufficiently many times provides m different traces, one for each b -value.
- ▶ Apply the template to recover $k \bmod b$ for all $b \in [2^s - m, 2^s - 1]$.
- ▶ Finally, use the CRT to get $k \bmod \text{lcm}(2^s - m, \dots, 2^s - 1)$.

Example: $s = 8$, $m = 16$, $3960 < 2^{12}$ traces, $\text{lcm}(240, \dots, 255) > 2^{92}$.

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It exploits an inherent weakness of MRS representation. Namely, the fact that $k_1 (= k \bmod b_1)$ solely depends on b_1 .

Although b_1 is an s -bit integer, randomization implies that b_1 takes many different values, allowing the attacker to recover much more than s bits of k thanks to the CRT.

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- ▶ Can we effectively create the template?
Can we recover the whole key using Coppersmith-like techniques?
- ▶ Yet, we do not recommend the use of MRS as a randomization setting.