

Attacks to deployed threshold signatures

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See results' details in <https://eprint.iacr.org/2020/1052>

Agenda

- Threshold signing theory and practice
- New attacks on threshold ECDSA production code
 - Forget-and-Forgive: Reshare protocol sabotage
 - Golden Shoe: Leaky share conversion
- Q&A

Threshold signature schemes (TSS)

Probably already clear thanks to previous speakers :)

(t, n) threshold signing, $t < n$

- Signing key represented as n shares
- Distributed key generation (DKG)
- $t+1$ shares necessary and sufficient to sign
- t or fewer shares “useless”

Components

- **Homomorphic** encryption (often Paillier)
- Verifiable **threshold secret-sharing** (often Shamir/Feldman)
- **Zero-knowledge** proofs (discrete log, range, etc.)
- Multiplicative-to-additive **share conversion** (“MtA”)

Among “real-world” crypto protocols, TSS are some of the most complex and with the **widest attack surface** wrt failures in subcomponents, their code, and in security proofs.

TSS security 🤝

- Standard **EUF-CMA** signature security
- Standard corrupted parties model (**static, malicious, rushing**)
 - Adaptive security usually doable with some overhead
 - Generally captures "real-world" risks
- Pure "network attacker" *mostly* captured by corruption model
- **Majority**: honest vs. dishonest one (security with $n-1$ corruptions)
- **Proofs**: different approaches; UC provides higher guarantees

TSS research 🔥

Tons of papers after Lindell 2017 and GG 2018 ECDSA protocols

Research challenges addressed so far:

- Deal with **ECDSA's k** sharing/operation (compared to Schnorr case)
- Minimise **rounds number** and **proofs computations**
- Detect **errors and imposters** ("identifiable aborts")
- Maximise **offline computations** (presigning)

Research driven by applications, mainly blockchain wallet/custody...

In practice

Shared control implementation, as an alternative and complement to TEE-based solutions; a critical part of secure custody solutions

Multiple use cases with different requirements:

- 2-sharing between a service **provider and a client**
- (t, n) **cold wallet** within an exchange, with heterogenous systems, possibly number of shares per party depending on the system's trust
- (t, n) **Hot/warm wallet** within a single organisation

In practice ₿ ☰

Notes on real-world TSS:

- Safe **reshare** protocols needed for shares update
- **Performance** mainly driven by network latency and processing
- Offline **presigning** not always applicable, but a nice-to-have
- Not a replacement for reliable back-up and recovery processes :)

TSS-friendly signatures gaining adoption: Schnorr signatures now in Bitcoin (BIP 340), BLS signatures in Ethereum 2.0, Celo, etc.

Real-world security



Implementation structures and language features can amplify a protocol's complexity

Security proofs are perhaps ~20% of what makes a TSS deployment secure

Examples of non-crypto issues observed:

- Crashes due to unsafe decoding
- Known vulnerabilities in dependencies
- Leverage of lower-level vulnerabilities (OS, runtime, etc.)
- Failures of "trusted" hardware

Real-world security

Implementing papers can be risky, when

- Developers are not used to the terminology and notations
- Encodings, primitives, etc. are not defined
- Papers sometimes hide/obfuscate critical requirements

Theorem 1 *The non-interactive proof system defined by*

- COMMON INPUT: N
- RANDOM INPUT: $x \in Z_N^*$
- PROVER: compute $M = N^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)$ and output $y = x^M \bmod N$
- VERIFIER: accept iff $y^N = x \bmod N$.

is one-sided error perfect zero-knowledge with soundness error at most $1/d$ for the language SF' , where d is the smallest factor of N .

Typical errors: Non-safe primes, commitment hash not covering all values, missing range validation mod q , lack of public keys validation, etc.

👉 Broken ZK factorisation proof because “common input” was not defined in the paper [_\(ツ\)_/](#)

The attacks

Among our **most impactful** attacks (responsible disclosed and fixed):

- Target TSS software used by major organisations' wallets
- Arguably exploitable under realistic conditions

On an **implementation** of GG18's threshold ECDSA, but our attacks do not invalidate the security claims of the paper

Stress the important of **input validation**, and more generally of **correctness verification** in a protocol's execution

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Where is the problem ?

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For simplicity, wlog, assume the new committee is the same as the old committee

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- A party receiving an invalid share \rightarrow will abort the protocol, keeping its old share
- A party receiving valid shares \rightarrow will finish the protocol, overwriting the old share

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From the security release:

It allows for a malicious actor to cause a new committee member to abort the protocol, unable to write a valid share to disk. The other participants would continue as normal and overwrite their share data

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- In some cases, even a **network adversary** that corrupts selected messages can mount such attack
- Example exploitation scenarios:
 - Money lock
 - Money loss (in case the key is not backed up)
 - Money extortion (if attacker gets enough reshare iterations)

Forget & Forgive Mitigation

From the security release:

a final round has been added to the re-sharing protocol where the new committee members send ACK messages to members of both the old and new committees. Each participant must receive ACK messages from n members of the new committee (excluding themselves) before they save any data to disk.

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- The requirement of a “**Blame phase**” was observed in classical works on DKG
- The [GG18] protocol assumes a dishonest majority, therefore, a single party can abort the resharing protocol (no robustness)

Golden Shoe

Golden Shoe Setup

- [GG18] MtA 2-party share conversion

Fast Multiparty Threshold ECDSA with Fast Trustless Setup

Rosario Gennaro¹ and Steven Goldfeder²

3 A share conversion protocol

Golden Shoe Setup

- [GG18] MtA 2-party share conversion

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- **Output:** additive secret shares α, β such that $\alpha + \beta \equiv a \cdot b \pmod{q}$

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Protocol:

- Paillier cryptosystem
- For security against malicious adversaries, need for ZK proofs.
- In all zk proofs, the prover must use an RSA group (modulus N), not knowing the group order, as well as two group elements, h_1, h_2 , not knowing the relation between them

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- Classical case of missing input sanitisation, as in web applications

Golden Shoe Exploit

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- During KeyGen, a malicious verifier can pick ANY N, h_1, h_2 and send them to all $n - 1$ parties.

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- During KeyGen, a malicious verifier can pick ANY N, h_1, h_2 and send them to all $n - 1$ parties.
- We focus on a **range proof** (due to its relative simplicity). Proving that a Paillier ciphertext encrypts a bound secret $x_i < B$.

Golden Shoe Exploit

- In the first step the prover uses the parameters N, h_1, h_2 to produce a Pedersen commitment in a group of unknown order : $z = h_1^{x_i} h_2^{\rho} \text{ mod } N$ and send z to the verifier.

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- Assume the verifier picks $h_2 = 1$: we are left with $z = h_1^{x_i} \text{ mod } N$
 - {Option 1}: pick $h_1 = 2$ and pick very large N such that $h_1^{x_i}$ is computed over the integers => solve for x_i by trial and error
 - {Option 2}: Choose N to be a composite with small prime factors => use Polling Hellman and field seive on each factor

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Wait, there's more!

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- ***Lather, Rinse, Repeat*** - in the paper
- ***Baby Shark*** - threshold EdDSA, currently in responsible disclosure

Thank you! Questions?

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