# **Wallet Security**

 $35 th\ Chaos\ Communication\ Congreß,\ Leipzig,\ Germany$ 

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# My Background

### Professional Background

- Diplominformatiker (eq. master's degree in CS)
- Security Analyst (cnlab security ag, Switzerland)

#### Blockchain-related work

- Research on zero-knowledge proofs and Zerocoin (predecessor of predecessor of Zcash)
- Research on ECDSA attacks in the context of Bitcoin
- Blockchain protocol architect (Trestor, Canada/India)
- Blockchain security review (Æternity, Liechtenstein)
- Wallet security review (several)

# Agenda

- Recap of Bitcoin and ECDSA
- Wallets
- Common attacks
- Kleptographic attack
- Conclusions

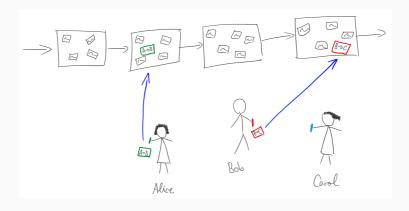
# **Bitcoin**

#### **Bitcoin**

Public ledger for transactions.

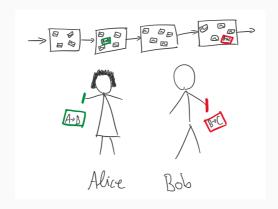
- Users have public-private key pairs.
- Transactions are signed with private keys.
- Transactions are published on the blockchain.

#### The Network



- Alice creates a transaction to Bob and broadcasts it
- Miners collect transactions and include them
- Eventually one miner mines a block with the transaction
- Bob waits for a few blocks to confirm

### **Transactions**



#### Alice creates the transaction as follows:

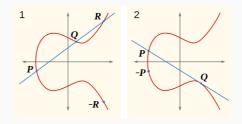
- Alice selects a coin that she owns
- She writes a transaction to Bob's address
- She signs the transaction with her private key

# **ECDSA**

#### **ECDSA**

- Elliptic-Curve Digital Signature Algorithm
- Evolution of related algorithms:
  - Diffie-Hellman (discrete logarithm modulo *p*)
  - ElGamal signature
  - Schnorr signature
  - Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
- Why elliptic curves?
  - RSA and DH have no future
  - 4096-bit keys are not significantly stronger than 2048-bit keys

# **Elliptic Curves**



Point  $P = (p_1, p_2)$  on a curve  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ 

- 1. Addition:
  - P + Q + R := 0
  - P+Q=-R
- 2. Scalar multiplication:
  - P + Q + Q := 0
  - 2Q := Q + Q = -P

Easy to compute: Q = dG. Hard to compute the reverse.

# **Signatures**

Point G (order n), hash function  $\mathcal{H}$ .

Private key d, public key Q = dG.

# sign(m)

- 1. Pick random nonce k < n.
- 2. Compute  $R = (r_1, r_2) = kG$ .
- 3. Compute  $r = r_1 \mod n$ .
- 4. Compute  $s = k^{-1}(\mathcal{H}(m) + dr) \mod n$ .
- 5. Return (r,s).

# $\operatorname{verify}(m,(r,s))$

- 1. Compute  $R' = (r'_1, r'_2) = s^{-1}\mathcal{H}(m)G + s^{-1}rQ$ .
- 2. Compute  $r' = r'_1 \mod n$ .
- 3. Test whether r = r'.

# **Properties**

```
Point G (order n), hash function \mathcal{H}.
Private key d, public key Q = dG.
```

- sign(m)
  - 1. Pick random nonce k < n.
  - 2. Compute  $R = (r_1, r_2) = kG$ .
  - 3. Compute  $r = r_1 \mod n$ .
  - 4. Compute  $s = k^{-1}(\mathcal{H}(m) + dr) \mod n$ .
  - 5. Return (r,s).

#### Observation:

- With k you can compute  $d = (\mathcal{H}(m) sk)r^{-1} \mod n$ .
- This means that *k* has to be kept secret.

# Wallets

#### **Wallets**

- Secure storage of secret keys
- Signing of transactions
- Backup plans

#### Sofware Wallets vs. Hardware Tokens

# Types of wallets

- Software
  - Can be used on desktop, laptop, phone, server
  - Flexible, full user control
  - Keys might be exposed through attacks on the host
- Hardware
  - Dedicated hardware tokens
  - Keys cannot be accessed from the host
  - How does the token know what it is signing?
- Paper
  - Backup only

# Hardware Key Storage

#### Properties

- Keys are imported or generated in hardware
- Keys can be flagged non-exportable
- Signatures are performed inside the hardware module
- But note: Privileged access enables to *use* the keys.

#### Downsides

- Bugs cannot be easily fixed
- Implementation cannot be validated by the user

# Examples

- Server HSM (hardware security module)
- TPM in business laptops
- Smartphone

#### **Common Problems and Attacks**

- Secrets leaked via network
  - Backdoors
  - Malware
- Secrets stored insecurely
  - Hardware theft
  - Malware
- Predictable random numbers
  - Attacker guesses private keys
  - Collision (re-use) of nonce *k*

# **Cryptographic Backdoors**

Backdoor'd random number generators

• Famous example: Dual\_EC\_DRBG

Malicious wallet with cryptographic backdoor

- The nonce k is generated by a backdoor'd RNG.
- Attacker scans all transactions on the blockchain
- ... and uses his backdoor to compute the secret key d.

Kleptograms

# Kleptograms

• Term first coined by Adam Young and Moti Yung in 1997.

#### Notation

- Lower-case letters  $(a, t, k_1, ...)$  for numbers
- Capital letters (G, A, ...) for points on the curve
- Greek letters  $(\alpha, \beta, \omega, ...)$  for constants
- $\Re(\cdot)$  is a random-number generator

#### **Predictable** *R*

RNG  $\Re$ . Generating two subsequent choices  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ :

#### First round.

- 1. Pick random  $k_1 < n$ .
- 2. Store  $k_1$ .
- 3. Output  $k_1$  and  $R_1 = k_1G$ .

Note that  $R_1$  will be part of the signature.

#### Second round.

- 1. Compute  $k_2 = \Re(R_1)$ .
- 2. Output  $k_2$  and  $R_2 = k_2G$ .

# Extraction of k2

#### Second round.

- 1. Compute  $k_2 = \Re(R_1)$ .
- 2. Output  $k_2$  and  $R_2 = k_2G$ .

# **Extraction** of the (secret) value $k_2$ :

1. Compute  $k_2 = \Re(R_1)$ 

#### Observation:

- Anyone can compute  $k_2 = \Re(R_1)$ .
- Can we hide it?

# **Kleptogram in** R<sub>2</sub>

Attacker's key pair a and A = aG. RNG  $\Re$ . Generating two subsequent choices  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ :

#### First round.

- 1. Pick random  $k_1 < n$ .
- 2. Store  $k_1$ .
- 3. Output  $k_1$  and  $R_1 = k_1G$ .

#### Second round.

- 1. Pick random bit  $t \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- 2. Compute  $Z = (\mathbf{k_1} \omega t)G + (-\alpha \mathbf{k_1} \beta)A$ .
- 3. Compute  $k_2 = \Re(Z)$ .
- 4. Output  $k_2$  and  $R_2 = k_2G$ .

### Extraction of **k**<sub>2</sub>

#### Second round.

- 1. Pick random bit  $t \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- 2. Compute  $Z = (\mathbf{k_1} \omega t)G + (-\alpha \mathbf{k_1} \beta)A$ .
- 3. Compute  $k_2 = \Re(Z)$ .
- 4. Output  $k_2$  and  $R_2 = k_2G$ .

# **Extraction** of the (secret) value $k_2$ :

- 1. Compute  $T = \alpha R_1 + \beta G$ .
- 2. Compute  $Z_1 = R_1 aT$ .
- 3. If  $R_2 = \Re(Z_1)G$  then output  $k_2 = \Re(Z_1)$ .
- 4. Compute  $Z_2 = Z_1 \omega G$ .
- 5. If  $R_2 = \Re(Z_2)G$  then output  $k_2 = \Re(Z_2)$ .

**Attack on Wallets** 

#### **Attack Scenario**

# Preparation

• The attacker backdoors a popular wallet.

#### Patience

- Victims create transactions with the wallet.
- Following the Bitcoin protocol, transactions are published on the blockchain.

#### Harvest

- The attacker scans the blockchain for signatures generated by the same key.
- The attacker uses his secret to derive private keys.

# **Attack Properties**

- Only reused keys are vulnerable.
  - Using the same key multiple times is common in Bitcoin.
  - The same key might be used in one transaction.
- But note, that some applications require key reuse.
- Also note that in deterministic wallets, the attacker might derive further keys.

#### Notes

- The attack is independent from the consensus in Bitcoin.
- It applies to other blockchains with similar signatures.
- The backdoor also applies to other protocols using ECDSA.

**Conclusions** 

#### **Conclusions**

#### What does this mean for users?

- Keys can be leaked through transactions.
- No side channel required.
- Cannot be detected by traffic analysis.

#### What to do now?

- Be very careful choosing your wallet.
- Even in an isolated environment.
- For some applications, transparency might be more important than tampering resistance.

#### **Contact and References**

Contact: verbuecheln@posteo.de

PGP fingerprint: 41D6 B8D2 A422 5DF1 AEE1 EA63 6035 4259 0A3C 7C62

#### References

- IETF, RFC 6979: Deterministic Usage of the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA) and Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA), 2013
- Adam Young, Moti Yung, The Prevalence of Kleptographic Attacks on Discrete-Log based Cryptosystems, CRYPTO '97
- Stephan Verbücheln, How Perfect Offline Wallets Can Still Leak Bitcoin Private Keys, MCIS 2015

#### **Pictures**

• Curve diagram based on work by Wikipedia/SuperManu (GNU FDL)