Cycling Attacks on GCM, GHASH and Other Polynomial MACs and Hashes

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Galois / Counter Mode

Let C be a concatenation of optional unencrypted authenticated data, CTR-encrypted ciphertext, and padding. This data is split into m 128-bit blocks C_i :

$$C=C_1\mid\mid C_2\mid\mid \cdots\mid\mid C_m.$$

The authentication code GHASH is based on operations in $GF(2^{128})$. Horner's rule is used in this field to evaluate polynomial Y. The authentication key is $H = E_K(0)$.

$$Y_m = \sum_{i=1}^m C_i \otimes H^{m-i+1}.$$

The final authentication tag is $T = Y_m \oplus E_K(IV \mid\mid 0^{31}1)$, assuming a 96-bit IV.

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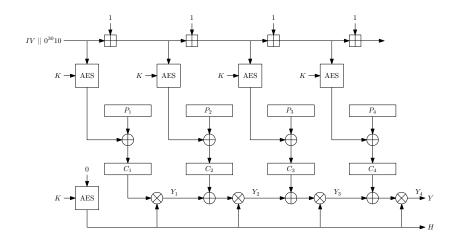
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- ▶ Ferguson (2005) showed that an n-bit tag provides only n k bits of authentication security when messages are 2^k blocks long.
- ► Hence GCM was already known to be significantly weaker than, say, HMAC-MD5 (which still has the expected 2⁻ⁿ security in "unknown-start-value" mode) prior to its standardization in NIST SP 800-38D.
- ► Despite these shortcomings and apparently due to industry endorsement and its excellent hardware performance, AES-GCM was adopted as part of NSA's "Suite B" in 2007 and may still be used to secure classified data.

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Horner's iteration:

$$Y_1 = C_1 \times H$$

 $Y_2 = (Y_1 + C_2) \times H = C_1 \times H^2 + C_2 \times H$
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What if, say, $H = H^4$? Then we may just swap C_1 and C_4 and the Y_4 value will remain unchanged:

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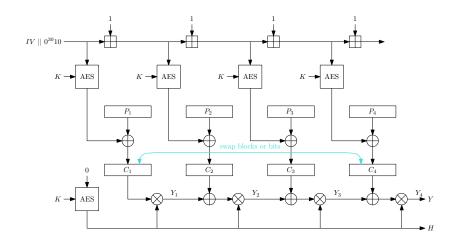
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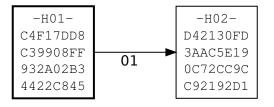
Switching Full Blocks



Start With a $H^1 = AES_k(0)$ for some k.

-H01-C4F17DD8 C39908FF 932A02B3 4422C845

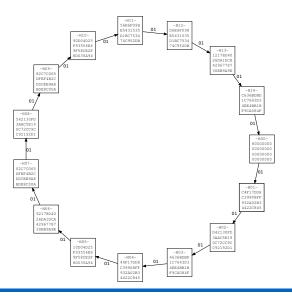
Generate $H^2 = H \times H$ from it



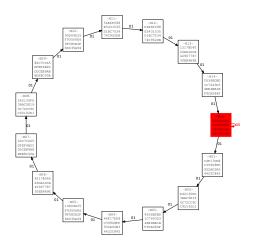
.. and H^3 from $H \times H^2$...



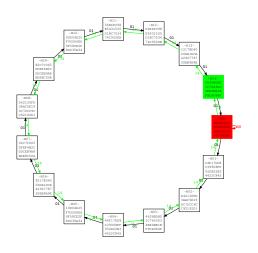
Wow! $H^{16} = h^1$ **again.**



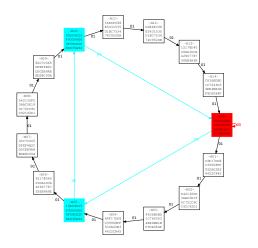
Hence $H^0 = H^{15}$. It's the unique identity element with cycle length 1.



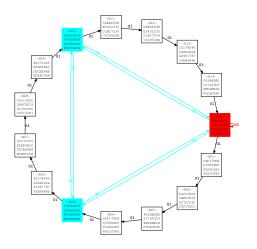
This subgroup is isomorphic to addition in \mathbb{Z}_{15} . $H' = H^{14}$ will generate the same cycle backwards.



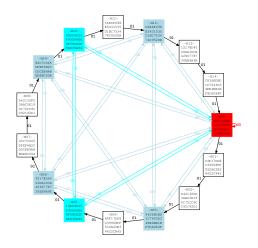
If we skip over 4 (add 5 mod 15), we will get back in 3 steps.



This can also be generated backwards with $H' = H^{10}$.



Since $15 = 3 \times 5$, there's also an unique subgroup of size 5.



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- ▶ There are subgroups of size *n* for any $n \mid 2^{128} 1$.
- ▶ $2^{128} 1 = 3 * 5 * 17 * 257 * 641 * 65537 * 274177 * 6700417 * 67280421310721 nine prime factors.$
- ▶ Hence there are $2^9 = 512$ different-sized subgroups, almost log-uniformly distributed in the range.

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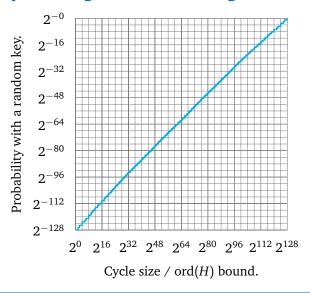
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Probability vs Length is Almost Log-Linear



- ► The *H* value depends solely on the AES key, which may be a fixed key or something from a key exchange algorithm.
- ▶ If a cycle of n is detected, any number of subsequent forgeries can be performed with probability P = 1.
- ► The average complexity of an individual forgery can be made arbitrarily small (compare to multicollision attacks) if we assume an attack model FRK where the advisory can force rekeying until a successful forgery occurs.
- ▶ Note that **FRK** is a reasonably realistic model in real-world VPN protocols which disconnect and rekey immediately on a MAC mismatch. Under this model the security bound of the proof is broken (in the average case).

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Any Number of Targeted Bit Forgeries

Counter mode behaves **like a stream cipher**; flipping a ciphertext bit will result in the corresponding plaintext bit being flipped after decryption.

If $ord(H) \mid (i-j)$ the authentication tag will remain valid as long as the following equation holds (for some c):

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Writing $H^{m-i+1} = H^{m-j+1} = H_c$, this can be simplified to

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- ► For polynomial authentication, use either:
 - 1. *GF*(p) prime fields with (p-1)/2 also a prime. These are called **Sophie Germain** prime fields. If $H \notin \{0, 1, p-1\}$ the cycle is (p-1) or (p-1)/2, depending on the quadratic residuosity (Legendre symbol) of H.

- **2.** $GF(2^p)$ binary fields with $2^p 1$ a prime. These may be called **Mersenne** binary fields. If $H \notin \{0, 1\}$, the cycle is $2^p 1$.
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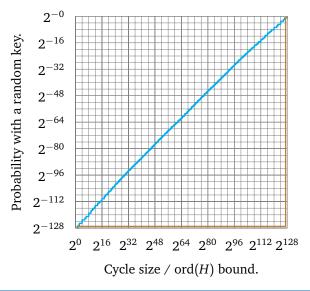
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Some Fields Are Much Better! $GF(2^{128})$ vs $GF(2^{127})$



- ▶ Finding weak *H* values is easy, so a natural question arises on how to determine weak AES keys *K* that produce these weak *H* roots.
- ➤ To determine group order, we use a simple algorithm which is related to the Silver-Pohlig-Hellman algorithm for discrete logarithms [PoHe78].
- ► The algorithm can be made especially fast due to the linear nature of binary field squaring.
- ▶ Raising to "Fermat exponents" $2^n + 1$ (as $2^{128} 1$ factors into Fermat numbers) involves repeated squarings and a single multiplication. The X^{2^n} tables do not depend on the particular H value.

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Experimental Results

Over couple of days I tested 2^{32} AES-128 keys on my laptop and found progressively smaller subgroups:

Here $n = \text{ord}(AES_K(0))$. The groups size shrinks slightly faster than the keyspace is exhausted (as expected).

Concluding

- Since the authenticator H is derived as $H = AES_k(0)$ and there are plenty of low-order roots of unity in $GF(2^{128})$, there are large classes of weak AES-GCM keys.
- ▶ In a forced-rekeying attack model the **average** cost of a single forgery is less than what is indicated by the security proof (the cost can be made arbitrarily low, à la multicollision attacks on hash functions).
- ▶ Don't use GCM with something like **SSH**. However, there may be rational grounds for using it with extremely high-speed VPN (IPSec) links if the risks are understood (and parallelism is required).
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