

Security and Performance Analysis of Elliptic Curve Crypto System using Bitcoin Curves

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Abstract—This paper analysis an attack on crypto currency signatures generated by Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA). This attack is done on three different dimensions with leakage of nonce weak nonce and by using Lenstra–Lenstra–Lovasz (LLL) by considering various crypto currency curve parameters such as number of private keys, single nonce, multiple nonces, single signature, multiple signatures on varying bit sizes of length 64, 128, 256, 512 and 1024. This work demonstrates demonstrate leak-weak nonce method performs exponentially better over LLL to crack ECDSA. In addition to finding multiple vulnerabilities on ECDSA and to avoid leak-weak nonces we use T-of-N threshold signing algorithm based on GG20 where nonce k is distributed across N parties unlike having with one single party. This technique is implemented and evaluated considering group of N parties. This paper brings out the pitfalls of ECDSA, when it is used to sign crypto currency transactions.

Keywords— Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC), Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), Edwards curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA), Nonce - number only used once.

I. Introduction

Many sensitive and confidential data shared in real-time applications like online banking system includes third-party applications such as UPI payment schemes. Due to abrupt advances in technology, trading centre and data access remotely in healthcare-based applications, IIOT, defence, retail market, and many other industries are at an unacceptably high level [1]. Public-key cryptosystem ensures confidentiality, integrity, authentication and hence used by several internet security protocols.

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Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA) is commonly used public-key protocol over internet communication. Few specific areas of ECDSA are TLS, PGP, Smart card, Digital currencies like Bitcoin, Ripple and Ethereum. The listed areas find wide application of ECDSA. The ECDSA algorithm considered as highly secured due to its strong computing of discrete logarithm problem. Also it generates small key length for signing which is considers as fastest method. Hence it is highly recommended by IEEE and NIST since 2000, ANSI since 1999 and ISO since 1998 [2].

The ECDSA security is based on accurate generation of per-signature nonce which is also known as ephemeral private key. There are many ECDSA flaw's that one could use to uncover the private key, one among them is the use of repeated nonce for generating signatures [3]. In this paper we initially begin by collecting signatures from bitcoins and ethereum, then we use them to efficiently compute their private keys. In addition we find couple of bitcoin and ethereum blockchain private keys that were generated through iterated uses of nonces. We have employed two methods to attack ECDSA signatures downloaded from bitcoin and ethereum block chain. In first technique we try to attack signatures targeting leak-weak and shared nonces and in second method we use LLL algorithm to attack the signatures on NIST and SECP curves. The popular tool used in cryptanalysis is lattice reduction. This tool is used by majority of the cryptosystems like RSA/Knapsack and are broken using lattice reduction. ECDSA also uses this tool combining lattice reduction , discrete algorithm and performing factorization on composite numbers. LLL algorithm introduced by Lenstra, Lenstra and Lovasz is one among the known technique for lattice reductions. Currently, the variants of the lattice algorithms are used for lattice reduction. The main focus in this paper is on applying leak-weak nonces, shared nonces and LLL to find private keys of various length in terms of bits like 64 ,128, 256, 512, and 1024.

The paper is organized as follows into various sections. Section II gives a theoretical proof of Elliptic Curve Digital Signature (ECDSA) and the LLL Algorithm. Section III describes three divisions, firstly- ECDSA: Disclosing the private key, due to leak-weak and shared nonce using NIST and SECP curve, secondly-ECDSA: Disclosing the private key using Lenstra–Lenstra–Lovasz (LLL) method, if nonce

known, Finally-ECDSA-Disclosing the private key using Lenstra–Lenstra–Lovasz (LLL) method, if nonce known with real-world ECDSA bugs, also discusses-ECDSA: T-of-N threshold digital signing algorithm based on GG20 cryptology. Section IV provides complete details of result analysis and section V concludes the work with future enhancement.

II. Theoretical Principle

A. Elliptic curve digital signature (ECDSA):

The Elliptic-Curve Digital Signature (ECDSA) is a public-key used in digital signing algorithm. The keys generated using ECDSA are exponentially smaller in length compared to the keys generated by any other digital signing algorithm. The ECDSA public domain parameters include an elliptic curve E on a field F which is deterministic with a base point G of order N , where N is a very large integer. The signature verification using public key is performed by $Q = dG$ is considered as a point on E , where d is a private key such that $d = d$ modulo N . The elliptic curve public keys are normally manifested in compressed way by just furnishing the x coordinate of intersecting point on elliptic curve and single parity bit of y value. In order to sign a message hash h , the sender selects empirical private key, also known as nonce (k), where $k = k$ modulo N , with this we have publicly verifiable point kG on the curve. Then the sender computes $(x_r, y_r) = kG$ MOD N and outputs the signature (r, s) where $r = x_r$ and $s = k^{-1}(h + dr)$ MOD N . At the other end, receiver checks the authenticity for the message hash using public key Q , by computing $(x'_r, y'_r) = hs^{-1}G + rs^{-1}Q$, this is pictorially shown in fig.1.

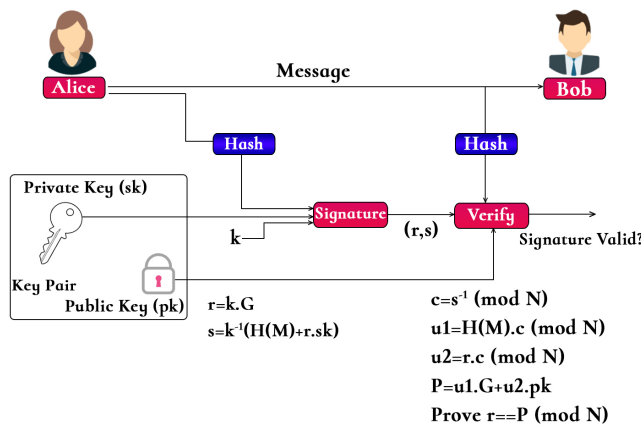


Fig 1. ECDSA

B. The LLL Algorithm :

There are several algorithms to find orthogonal basis. The best and efficient technique is LLL algorithm. This algorithm was invented by great researchers: Lenstra, Lenstra and Lovasz. LLL algorithm mainly consists of

two conceptual parts:

- The working vector can become the successor of basis vector or the working vector as it is replaced as basis vector. This decision can be taken by reducing a non-basis vector/working vector by reducing multiples of the currently used basis vectors.
- The decision is based on satisfying Lovasz condition. Lovasz condition checks the size of the working vector. If it is large in bit size, the subsequent basis vector are generated easily [4], here we maintain track of two sets of vectors:
- \vec{v}_1, \dots , the current set of basis vectors, which we are attempting to minimize to a set that is approximately orthogonal
- $\vec{v}_1^*, \vec{v}_2^*, \dots$, the set of orthogonal basis vector produced by the Gram-Schmidt reduction.

We also need to keep track of k , K is the number of the working basis vectors we are attempting to minimize, is another important parameter to monitor. Suppose our basis vectors are $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_{k-1}, \vec{v}_k, \dots$ and we are working to reduce \vec{v}_k . We do this by subtracting multiples of $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_{k-1}$. Now let us consider the vectors \vec{v}_{k-1} and \vec{v}_k , if these were only two vectors we had we might need to subtract some multiples of new \vec{v}_k from the old \vec{v}_{k-1} . This requires swapping \vec{v}_{k-1} and \vec{v}_k . But since we have a new $k-1$ vector we need to go through the whole process again, this time with \vec{v}_{k-1} as new working vector. The decision of whether to swap \vec{v}_{k-1} with \vec{v}_k and to make \vec{v}_{k-1} the working vector is based on whether the Lovasz condition is satisfied or not. In addition to basis vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_{k-1}, \vec{v}_k$ for the lattice we also have the orthogonal basis $\vec{v}_1^*, \vec{v}_2^*, \vec{v}_3^*, \dots$ found from the Gram-Schmidt reduction. Let \vec{v}_k be the working vector and

$$\mu_{k, k-1} = \frac{\vec{v}_k \cdot \vec{v}_{k-1}^*}{\|\vec{v}_{k-1}^*\| \|\vec{v}_k\|}$$

If $\|\vec{v}_k^*\|^2 \geq (\frac{3}{4} - \mu_{k, k-1}^2)$, then we have completed the comparison with \vec{v}_k and can make \vec{v}_{k+1}^* the next working vector, otherwise, we swap \vec{v}_{k-1}^* and \vec{v}_k^* and make \vec{v}_{k-1}^* as the working vector. A toy example demonstrating above steps in LLL algorithm is shown in appendix.

III. Methodology

C. Using NIST and SECP Curves, Disclosing ECDSA Private Key with Leak, Weak, and Shared Nonce:

In this section we uncover the ECDSA-private keys by applying elementary attacks. Firstly if attacker gets to know the nonce k for every message used to generate ECDSA signature then it is easy to compute the secret key d by having $d = (sk - h) r^{-1} \text{ MOD } N$. Secondly if

two different messages signed by h_1, h_2 with same nonce k and secret key, then it is trivial to compute secret key. For instance let (r_1, s_1) and (r_2, s_2) be the signatures generated on two message hash h_1 and h_2 respectively then one can compute secret key $k = (h_1 - h_2)(s_1 - s_2)^{-1} \text{MOD } N$. In addition to above said attack we apply, two optimizations to LLL algorithm. In first optimization, most significant bits known in which b_i is assumed to be positive value and we gradually raise the bias by centering the b_i by having the equation $x_i t_i y + a_m + B \cong 0 \text{MOD } p$ which the solution $x_i = b_i B$. In second optimization we decrease the lattice dimension by one by eliminating y variable from $x_1 t_1 y + a_1 \cong 0 \text{MOD } p$ so that we have $m - 1$ equations with m unknowns all bounded.

Case 1: Disclosing the private key, due to leak of nonce on NIST curves

As discussed earlier with ECDSA a message hash is signed with its private key and the authenticity of signed message hash is proved with the public key. Each time we sign a message we randomize the nonce value to generate a different verifiable signature each time. Over all the signer has to reveal only the message signature with its public key and not the nonce value. If the signer reveals the nonce then intruder/third party easily finds the private key. Fig.2 demonstrates revealing the private key as a result of a nonce leak. Initially both sender

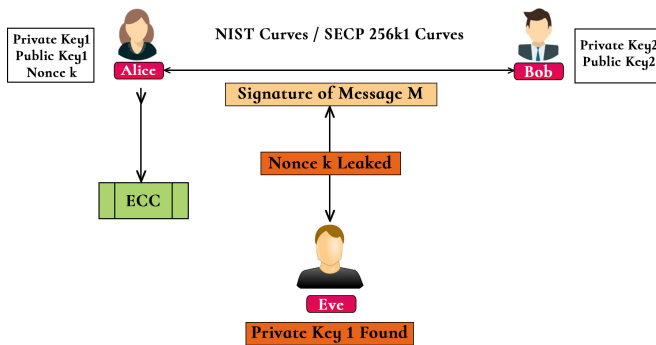


Fig 2. Leaked Nonce

and receiver agree on global parameters for ECDSA message exchanges, steps to disclose the ECDSA private key, due to leak of nonce using NIST curves are as follows:

- Sender selects his private key d and nonce value k to sign the message hash,
- Sender computes his public key $= d * G$, which is a verifiable point on curve by any other parties who mutually commit on ECDSA,
- The intersecting point on elliptic curve E is the signature (r,s) for message hash, where $r = k.G$ and

$$s = k^{-1}(H(M) + r.d).$$

Suppose the sender's announcement of value k has been leaked to intruder, and the steps followed by intruder to recover private key if he has signature (r,s) and nonce k is as follows:

- Intruder uses leaked values $r=k.G$ and

$$s = k^{-1}(H(M) + r.d) \quad (1)$$

- Using equation (1) we get

$$s.k = H(M) + r.d \quad (2)$$

- Using equation (2) we get

$$r.d = s.k - H(M) \quad (3)$$

- Using equation (3) we get

$$d = r^{-1}(s.k - H(M)) \text{MOD } N \quad (4)$$

Table-V and table-VI shows disclosing the ECDSA private key due to leak of nonce over NIST and SECP curves for multiple signatures respectively.

Case 2.1: Disclosing the private key, due to weak nonces using SECP curves on multiple signatures

One of the catastrophic failure of ECDSA is nonce reuse. In simple terms if multiple signatures are signed using same nonce k . Suppose if we use same nonce k , with r and secret key to create two signatures pairing (r, s_1) and (r, s_2) for two unique leaked messages m_1 and m_2 then we have

$$s_1 = k^{-1}(h_1 + r.sk) \text{ and } s_2 = k^{-1}(h_2 + r.sk) \quad (5)$$

Equation 5 enables us to leak the secret key with,

$$= \frac{s_2.h_1 - s_1.h_2}{r(s_1 - s_2)}$$

and so k can be leaked

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{h_1.h_2 + r.h_1.priv - h_1.h_2 - r.h_2.priv}{r.h_1.r.priv - r.h_2 - r.priv} \\ &= \frac{r.h_1.priv - r.h_2.priv}{r.h_1 - r.h_2} = priv \end{aligned}$$

Nonce is also recoverable with

$$= \frac{h_1 - h_2}{s_1 - s_2} = \frac{h_1 - h_2}{k^1(h_1 - h_2 + priv(r - r))} = k$$

Fig.3 demonstrates disclosing the private key, due to weak nonces using SECP curves on multiple signatures.

Case 2.2: Disclosing the private key, due to weak nonces using LLL on NIST curves with multiple signatures

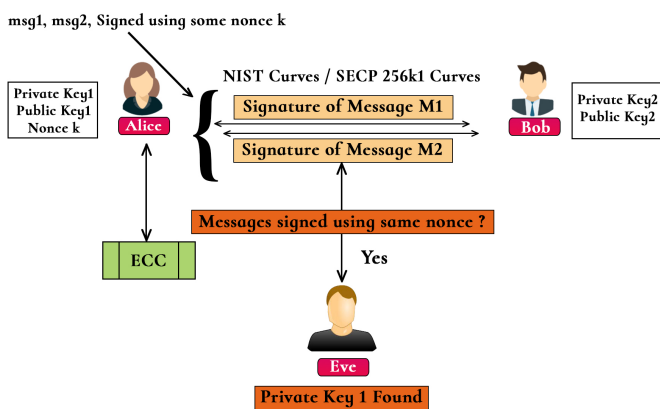


Fig 3. Weak Nonce

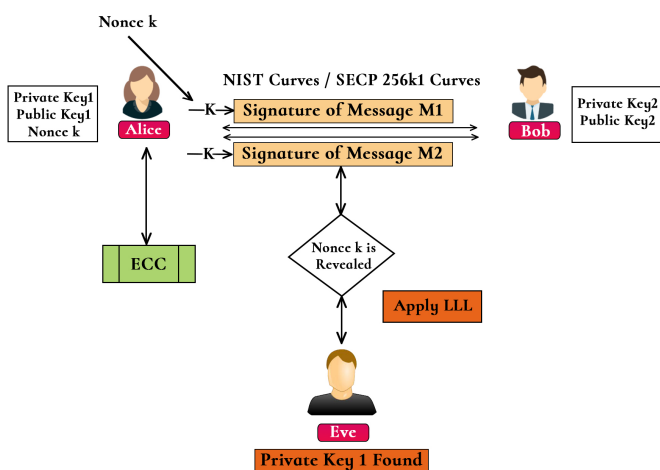


Fig 4. LLL on multiple signatures

Quantum computing is a threat to data security and quantum computers can crack traditional encryption methods. Most of the traditional encryption algorithms strength rely's on modular arithmetic. Shors algorithm works on modular arithmetic to find the prime factors of any integer there by paving a way to crack traditional encryption schemes. Quantum computers with Shors algorithm would thus be more effective in cracking traditional encryption schemes and therefore a method to resist such attacks is to use encryption schemes based on lattices. A lattice based encryption is one that relies on hard math problems involving lattices [5]. A lattice is simple a mathematical structure used to represent an infinite grid of points. Every lattice is formed from basis vector, when multiplied together can form any point in lattice. A lattice can comprise of infinite number of dimensions and infinite number of basis vectors. To use lattices for encryption involve a hard problem called as shortest vector problem. As we add more and more number of dimensions the problem becomes more and

more complicated until you find a solution to break them. Here using LLL algorithm as a black box and we will to attack signatures generated from bad nonce or random number generator. These nonces will have fixed prefix or suffix, where many of the least significant bits or most significant bits are repeated. Even though if least or most significant bits are not equal, this attack works normally. Therefore, the LLL algorithm starts with a matrix input. A collection of ECDSA signatures make up this input matrix. The expected output from this algorithm is a matrix with all nonces. This nonces enables to generate ECDSA private keys described in case 1 and 2.1. Fig. 4 demonstrates application of LLL algorithm on multiple signatures.

A lattice is denoted by λ and it is an additive subgroup of real numbers. Its represented by a basis vector g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n in N-dimensional space. Consider X is a lattice point represented as integral- linear combinations of basis vector such as $X = g_1 b_1 + g_2 b_2 + \dots + g_n b_n$ where the b_i are integers. Fig. 8 illustrates a two-dimensional lattice having two generator vectors i.e g_1 and g_2 . By mapping the generator vectors and columns in a matrix forms a lattice point X is equal to the generator matrix G times B where B is a vector of integers where $b \in z^n$ is a vector or integers. In fig. 6 we choose B as equal to integer vector $[0,0]$, then X is equals to G times B and therefore we get the lattice point as 0. In fig. 7 we consider B is equal to integer vector $[3,-1]$ then X is equals G times B and therefore we get the lattice point as $[3,0.5]$. Basis reduction is a technique of decreasing the basis B of a given lattice L to a new basis B' comparatively smaller without changing the lattice L. Figure 5 represents a lattice having two different basis in two dimensional structure. The determinant of the basis in Figure 5 is shaded and the right basis is reduced and orthogonal. The following procedure changes the basis by retaining the same lattice : 1. Swap the two vectors in the basis 2. b_i used for a vector, $b_i \in B$ 3. Add a linear combination of other basis vectors to $b_i \in B$ vector.

Any vector v in lattice L, is represented as

$$v = \sum_{i=0}^m z_i b_i \tag{6}$$

Once inducted, we obtain new basis vector b_j , where

$$b_j = b_j + \sum_{i \neq j} y_i b_i, y_i \in Z. \tag{7}$$

A lattice L with new basis is represented as,

$$v = \sum_{i \neq j} z_i b_i + z_j (b_j + \sum_{i \neq j} y_i b_i) \tag{8}$$

Thus, despite changing the basis lattice remains same.

$$\begin{pmatrix} [N] & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & [N] & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \vdots \\ [r_1 s_1^{-1} - r_n s_n^{-1}] & [r_2 s_2^{-1} - r_n s_n^{-1}] & \dots & [B/N] & 0 \\ [m_1 s_1^{-1} - m_n s_n^{-1}] & [m_2 s_2^{-1} - m_n s_n^{-1}] & \dots & 0 & [B] \end{pmatrix}$$

Input Matrix To LLL Algorithm: for the Unknown Nonce Bias.

The LLL algorithm is the most effective estimating method for the shortest vector issue. It operates in polynomial time and finds an approximation of the desired result that is within an exponential factor. It is a practical approach with sufficient accuracy for breaking cryptosystems, factoring polynomials over integers, and solving integer linear programming. Let b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n be a basis for a N-dimensional lattice L, and $b_1^*, b_2^*, \dots, b_n^*$ be the orthogonal basis and we have

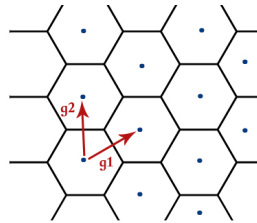
$$u_{i,k} = \frac{b_k^* b_i}{b_i^* b_i} \tag{9}$$

The reduced basis of LLL is b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n if following two conditions are met:

- (1) $\forall i \neq k, u_{i,k} \leq \frac{1}{2}$,
- (2) for each i, $\|b_{i+1}^* + u_{i,i+1} b_i^*\|^2 \geq \frac{3}{4} \|b_i^*\|^2$

The n-by-n matrix G is:

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ g_1 & g_2 & \dots & g_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$



So that

$$x = G \cdot b$$

Where b is vector of integers

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} g_1 & g_2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Fig 5. Lattice: linear code over real numbers with generator matrix NxN

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$x = G \cdot b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Origin is all ways a lattice point

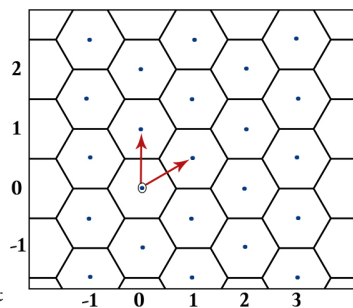


Fig 6. Example 1: Integers to Lattice

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$x = G \cdot b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

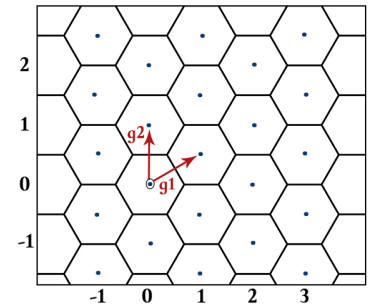


Fig 7. Example 2: Integers to Lattice

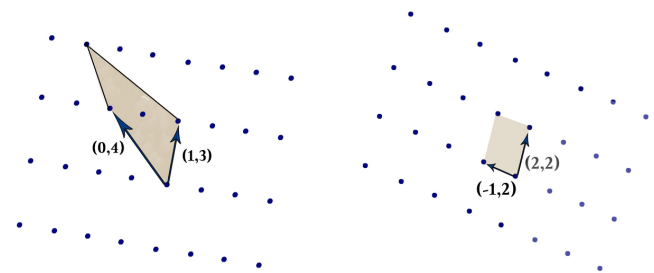


Fig 8. A two dimension lattice with two different basis.

The constant values from $\frac{1}{4}$ and 1 determines the termination of algorithm in polynomial time. The constant chosen in this work is 0.75. Another important condition is the ordering of the basis. Consider a basis b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n in n-dimension space. This LLL algorithm reduces basis as shown below:

Algorithm 1: LLL Algorithm

Input: b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n

Continue both the steps until LLL reduced basis is found

Step 1: Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

for i = 1 to n do
 for k = i+1 to n do
 $m \leftarrow$ closest integer of $u_{k,i}$
 $b_k \leftarrow b_k - m b_i$
 end for
end for

Step 2: Examine the II condition, if true then swap

for i = 1 to n-1 do
 if $\|b_{i+1} + u_{i,i+1} b_i\|^2 \geq \frac{3}{4} \|b_i\|^2$ then
 swap b_{i+1} and b_i
 go to step 1
 end if
end for

To perform this attack on NIST P-256 elliptic curve we use ECDSA and LLL library functions in python, as it allows us to input our own nonces of size 64, 110, 128, 512 and 1024 in bits generated from bad random number generators.

$$\begin{bmatrix} N & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & N & 0 & 0 \\ r_1s_1^{-1} & r_2s_2^{-1} & B/N & 0 \\ m_1s_1^{-1} & m_2s_2^{-1} & 0 & B \end{bmatrix}$$

As infant steps we begin work with two ECDSA signatures and then we increases the lattice dimensions to work with multiple signatures.

The upper bound limit established for our nonce's is B in the aforementioned matrix, where N is the order of NIST P-256 (Nonces used in our research study are of 64,110,128,512 and 1024, m_1 and m_2 are two input messages and (r_1, s_1) and (r_2, s_2) are the generated signatures for the given input message. Once the matrix is obtained it is given as input to black-box i.e LLL algorithm, which will output matrix that contains nonce used multiple times to sign the signatures.

Assume there are two signatures (r, s_1) and (r, s_2) derived on messages msg_1, msg_2 respectively. These messages are from same nonce k then r value will remain same for both messages as the k value is same so one can easily detect the ECDSA private key using below formulations as follows:

- 1) $sig_1 = k^{-1}(Hash(Msg_1) + xr) \text{ and } sig_2 = k^{-1}(Hash(Msg_2) + xr)$
- 2) $sig_1 - sig_2 = k^{-1}(Hash(msg_1) - Hash(msg_2))$
- 3) $k(sig_1 - sig_2) = Hash(msg_1) - Hash(msg_2)$
- 4) $k = (sig_1 - sig_2)^{-1}(Hash(msg_1) - Hash(msg_2))$

The public-key for the produced signature is accessible to the attacker alone. Therefore, one might decide with ease whether to compute the associated ECDSA public-key or to find the matching ECDSA private-key, both of which are easily accessible. This approach has a significant failure rate for this form of attack, which is a big flaw. By conducting the same attack with increasing number of signatures, the failure rate can be reduced. Table-VIII depicts the ECDSA private key using weak nonces on NIST curves. Table-VIII discloses the ECDSA private key using weak nonces on NIST curves. Table-VIII shows disclosing the ECDSA private key using weak nonces on NIST curves and Table- IX shows disclosing the ECDSA private key using weak nonces on SECP curves with LENSTRA-LENSTRA-LOVASZ (LLL) method respectively.

TABLE I
ECDSA: Disclosing the private key, due to weak nonce (NIST521p Recommended Parameters)

CurveFp =68647976601306097149819007990813 932172694353001433054093944634591855431833976560521 225596406614545549772963113914808580371219879997166 43812574028291115057151
a=-3 b =109384903807373427451111239076680556993 62075989516837489945863944959531161507350160137087 37573759623248592132296706313309438452531591012912 142327488478985984
h=1 Order : 686479766013060971498190079908139 3217269435300143305409394463459185543183397655394 2450577463332171975329639963713633211138647686124 40380340372808892707005449
Gx =266174080205021706322876871672336096 072985916875697314770667136841880294499642780849 154508062777190235209424122506555866215711354557 0916814161637315895999846
Gy =37571800257700204635455072244911836 03594455134769762486694567779615544477440556316 6912344050129455395621444453728942852258566672 9196580810124344277578376784
Message 1 : The International Association of Engineers Sig 1(R,S) :1074448169452775448130114 2720965701097421845813271623063358170844267239 8386102723221068918047415751050159644896292707 6872569786061281361855683464475140689649646817 9348089551736026608183790315828300012584224362 2974737750474201050860686613102995026306787155 9410387816209048478131017966476166799364970240 1542492825901
Random value (k) : 41747331298864425333 522831818903323854
Private Key :92521831048352635813262230 46137410501639368969208164087931040880239554854 00645743545584267322802825766995657657180977166 710162793965827688197415351115272467
The private key is found :92521831048 352635813262230461374105016393689692081640879 310408802395548540064574354558426732280282576 699565765718097716671016279396582768819741535 1115272467

Unpredictable damage to a signature might result from leaking fractional parts of nonce. The work carried out by N.A. Howgrave-Graham, N.P.Smart showed the application of lattice attacks to break DSA from partial nonce leakage [6]. Nguyen and Shparlinski extended their work after this to extract a secret key from a 160-bit DSA, and from every 100 signatures in an ECDSA, a secret key was retrieved by only understanding the first three bits of each nonce [7]. Mulder et al. continued their study by performing additional attacks on partial nonce leakage using a Fourier transform-based attack and recovered secret keys from 384-bit ECDSA with only a 5-bit knowledge of each nonce from 4,000 signatures [8]. Most of us are aware of lattice attacks and Minerva attacks, which use a number of temporal side channels to recover partial nonce leaking [9]. Even if the size of the nonce was exposed, they were still able to retrieve the private key by using enough signatures. In the most

recent attack, dubbed the "Ladder Leak Attack," which is considerably worse than the "Fourier Analysis Attack," one might retrieve secret keys only by having a one-bit nonce that has been published [10] [11]. Further, even if one is successful in keeping his nonce a secret, never divulge any information about it and never use the same nonce twice. The contribution of Heninger and Breitner shows the use of lattice attacks has the potential to attack signature schemes that use flawed random numbers [12] [13]. If a bias of 4 bits is applied using 256-bit ECDSA on nonce, even though you are unaware of the biased values, your signature scheme is entirely broken [14].

Case 3: Disclosing private key, from multiple signed messages and shared nonces

In some cases secret keys leak even if same nonces are not reused with secret keys. For instance two private keys x_1, x_2 are used with two nonces k_1, k_2 . Here nonces are not repeated twice with same key, but nonces are reused across the keys k_1, k_2 . The system has four solvable independent linear equations with four unknowns. The problem can be simplified as an attacker extracts a set of signatures from bitcoin block chain to leak as many possible keys or nonces there by solving system of linear equations. In this setup sender has two private keys x_1, x_2 and two nonces k_1, k_2 and four messages m_1, m_2, m_3, m_4 to sent. Message m_1 is signed using x_1 and nonce k_1 , message m_2 is signed using x_2 and nonce k_1 , similarly m_3 is signed using x_1 and nonce k_2 , m_4 is signed x_2 and nonce k_2 as shown in fig.9 The hashes for all the messages are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} h_1 &= \text{Hash}(m_1) \\ h_2 &= \text{Hash}(m_2) \\ h_3 &= \text{Hash}(m_3) \\ h_4 &= \text{Hash}(m_4) \end{aligned}$$

The generated signatures for all the messages are $(s_1, r_1), (s_2, r_1), (s_3, r_2)$ and (s_4, r_2) where

$$\begin{aligned} s_1 &= k_1^{-1}(h_1 + r_1.x_1) \text{MODP} \\ s_2 &= k_1^{-1}(h_2 + r_1.x_2) \text{MODP} \\ s_3 &= k_2^{-1}(h_3 + r_2.x_1) \text{MODP} \\ s_4 &= k_2^{-1}(h_4 + r_2.x_2) \text{MODP} \end{aligned}$$

private keys can be easily recovered using Gaussian eliminations,

$$x_1 = \frac{h_1 r_2 s_2 s_3 - h_2 r_2 s_1 s_3 - h_3 r_1 s_1 s_4 + h_4 r_1 s_1 s_3}{r_1 r_2 (s_1 s_4 - s_2 s_3)} \quad (10)$$

$$x_2 = \frac{h_1 r_2 s_2 s_4 - h_2 r_2 s_1 s_4 - h_3 r_1 s_2 s_4 + h_4 r_1 s_2 s_3}{r_1 r_2 (s_2 s_3 - s_1 s_4)} \quad (11)$$

Table-VII shows disclosing the ECDSA private key due to weak nonces from multiple signed messages and shared nonces using SECP curves on multiple signatures

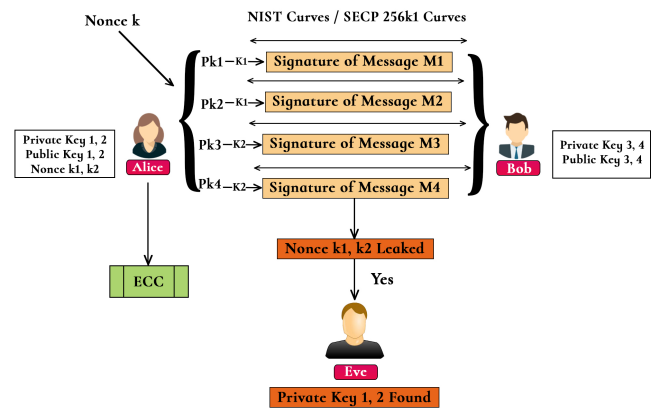


Fig 9. Disclosing private key from multiple signed messages and shared nonces

D. ECDSA-Disclosing the private key using Lenstra–Lenstra–Lov'asz (LLL) method: for nonce known with real-world ECDSA bugs:

If generated signatures are made from nonces upto 82 fixed bits, the secret key can be easily extracted from generating five to six signatures. We constructed the required matrix with $N=6$ to decrease the error rate. The nonce of 82 fixed-bit generation is sparse in the actual world. This kind of attack is far more powerful when employed with 256-bit elliptic curves and remains successful even when the nonce's first four bits are fixed. The attacker only needs to increase the size of the lattice or increase the value of N and repeat the attack; the implementation does not become challenging. The algorithm will take longer to execute using this technique without becoming more difficult. We computed the value of N empirically by trying to carry out an attack using a different number of signatures on a different number of fixed bits. N in our tests stands for the total number of signatures required to obtain the secret key. $N=2$ when the first 128 bits of the nonce were fixed to 0, and $N=3$ when the first 128 bits were fixed but their fixed values were unknown. When the nonce's 80 fixed bits were randomly selected, $N=5$. Using the formulae below, one can discover the secret key:

- 1) $Sig_1 = k_1^{-1}(Msg_1 + xr_1)$ and $Sig_n = k_n^{-1}(Msg_n + xr_n)$
- 2) $Sig_1 k_1 = Msg_1 + xr_1$ and $Sig_n k_n = Msg_n + xr_n$
- 3) $k_1 = Sig_1^{-1}(Msg_1 + xr_1)$ and $k_n = Sig_n^{-1}(Msg_n + xr_n)$
- 4) $k_1 - k_n = Sig_1^{-1}(Msg_1 + xr_1) - Sig_n^{-1}(Msg_n + xr_n)$
- 5) $Sig_1 Sig_n (k_1 - k_n) = Sig_n (Msg_1 + xr_1) - Sig_1 (Msg_n + xr_n)$

- $xr_n)$
- 6)
$$\frac{Sig_1 Sig_n (k_1 - k_n)}{Sig_n Msg_1 - Sig_1 Msg_n} = \frac{x Sig_n r_1 - x Sig_1 r_n}{Sig_n Msg_1 - Sig_1 Msg_n} +$$
- 7)
$$\frac{x(Sig_1 r_n - Sig_n r_1)}{Sig_n Msg_1 - Sig_1 Msg_n - Sig_1 Sig_n (k_1 - k_n)} =$$
- 8) Secret key $x = (r_n Sig_1 - r_1 Sig_n)^{-1} (Sig_n Msg_1 - Sig_1 Msg_n - Sig_1 Sig_n (k_1 - k_n))$

TABLE II

ECDSA: Disclosing the private key using Lenstra–Lenstra–Lovász (LLL) method, with bad nonce

Message 1: The International Association of Engineers
Message 2: IEEE Journal
Sig 1 (R,S):953737520397255304289688404729434050245088 4664592596448810952609652785333256086011033843795976440 015487764496400715937069611525263157420439911334141168816
Sig 2 (R,S):79937594961494168954501398582580902762471405 121278159831627793097261654947217940034597301294531782880 92796796919572417099036596939965605373224753772146104
Random value (k1):544079690520661127105791673855
Random value (k2):51894268455819342715039874460607282054
Private Key:2146392142222987990140946176957556858 3853786173485411408350838442455737947355
The private key is found: 2146392142222987990140946176957556858385378617348541140835 0838442455737947355

E. ECDSA: X-of-Y threshold signing algorithm using GG20 with Kryptology:

Several independent nonce vulnerabilities were computed to find ECDSA private keys in section III-A and III-B. In this section we will discuss ECDSA threshold multiparty case which enables us to have the nonce k distributed across Y parties than having with one single party using coin-base kryptology on SECP256k1 curve and generate the private key. In this method, a minimum of X shares are needed to compute the signature for Y parties. Then a create the private key that helps in signing the message using them. A valid signature requires the participation of X persons or more once the generated private key is divided into multiple shares (Y). In this manner we construct an ECDSA signature using multiple Shamir shares there by not revealing the private but but rather is split over multiple parties. We do not store the private key on parties and is deleted once the shares are distributed. Later stage the public key can be generated and split the key into multiple shares. The signatures created by parties are verified by public key.

Elliptic curves are basically defined as equation of form $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ over prime field P and all points that are generated on elliptic curve are within the prime field P. Each of the selected NIST curves have predefined curve parameters such as generator point G, prime P>3 and

variables a, b where a,b Galois field (p). Elliptic curves can be defined over either NIST or SECP curves. An elliptic curve is a tuple (G, G,q), where G is the generator point for the group, G is order q number of points on the elliptic curve. An ECDSA signature for message M over a secret key SK is composed of a set of integers (SIG, r_x) in Z_q such that

$$SIG = \frac{H(M) + SK * r_x}{k}$$

Here r_x is the x coordinate of the elliptic curve point R=k * G. We use a setup protocol to construct a multiparty computational framework in which participating parties will obtain one time initialization of additive shares of signature by having secret key SK as input. The setup protocol used here is Doerner with small changes to ascertain the security against fraudulent participants. On termination of setup protocol, all the n participating parties will receive a point on a polynomial of degree (t-1). As per Shamir’s scheme the y intercept form of this polynomial is the secret key SK [15] [16]. Therefore a group of X parties will obtain an additive sharing of SK using Lagrange coefficients. The input to our signing protocol generated additive sharing. On the other hand the signing protocol deviates from Doerner. This is explained in below three phases[17].

1. **Multiplication and Inversion:** Initially a group of P parties will agree to sign a message such that $|P = t|$, a inverse sampling protocol is used by them to sample k. From this every participating party will get an additive share of k and value $R=k*G$. Then they use GMW multiplication protocol to compute SK from their additive sharing of 1/k and sk.

2. **Consistency Check:** In order to ensure that correct and consistent inputs were used in previous phase the participating parties will use $PK=SK * G$ and $R=k*G$. The consistency check employed here is similar to Doerner but it works in distributed fashion. All the parties in broadcast use a set of values whose cumulative values is equal to predictable target if all the participating parties have used GMW style input multiplier that are consistent with the outputs of the inverse-sampling protocol.

3. **Signing:** With consistency verification of previous steps each party i in group of participants P is assured that for some value k he holds v_i, w_i, and R.

$$\sum_{i \in P} v_i = \frac{1}{2} \quad \sum_{i \in P} w_i = \frac{SK}{k} \quad \text{and} \quad R=k.G$$

The participating parties locally compute their signature share and broadcast them $SIG_i := v_i * Hash(msg) + w_i * r_x$. Finally signature is reconstructed and verified using the standard verification algorithm $SIG := \sum_{i \in P} SIG_i$.

TABLE III
ECDSA: 5 of 7 threshold signing algorithm

Message: International Association of Engineers
Sharing scheme: Any 5 from 7
Random secret: =(bd1d82a745196ce6ef7c89956b24cd029d624a3f7a53145f3caa7d34e34fbe1c)
Public key: (10809312685691536403559382537383200849113127988492658392211848346931320080821471947931555274177034788032717607127181919203117870754804489898947363599031100)
Share 1: =000000054dfdbefb091a3217d6dd6d7d2b30bec0383df962126b5ebc4e6907b30ec7b3b6
Share 2: =00000001c2deaf8f221d96d1113eaa96b90647524a29a65287667908005acc89417a01f
Share 3: =0000000215aa5a11e2be7cb33b50dc4f419481b76149fc371e387d5be84cfd77ff0a957
Share 4: =0000000382785a618d05299a3993052deb8afd6617e97066ef38faa9a466aed8c0cf9b35
Share 5: =00000004eca789000444b1a8d5a329e8ccf5a23cccc5386eab73ef2bd5cfad5ca199c106
Overall signature: (1140608224060626023939226003241949680428663975637945673753110735032146110514831096267897689837260338869321009873027256289010353747758934566376198446524494)
Signature Verified: True !!!

IV. Performance Analysis

In this section, compute bitcoin and ethereum private keys that were generated due to biased nonces, by applying crypt analytics attack in opposition to digital signatures discovered in public block chains. We apply lattice based algorithms to solve to unhide ECDSA private keys that were generated using biased nonces. Both bitcoin and ethereum use elliptic curve SECP256k1. The elementary attack done on ECDSA crypto currencies are based on following vulnerabilities on already generated cryptocurrencies in wild,

- 1) Leak of nonce used to generate the signature
- 2) Use of same nonce to sign different messages
- 3) Implicit prefixes and implicit suffixes in nonce

Bitcoin data collection:

Bitcoin: The modified official client was used to collect bitcoin signatures and hash values. We used the instance of block chain from april 07 2022. At this instance block chain had 11,795,065,208 signatures from 31,644,506,974 distinct keys. Out of these keys 83,794,257 has been used to generate more than one signature. 27% of signatures in our instance are generated by one of these keys.

Crypt analysis test beds for biased nonces: Public key clusters were formed by eliminating duplicated signatures, i.e., keys that had same signature (r, s) and hash h. Following randomized tests were ran on the signatures for the keys that had $m > 1$ distinct signatures. The selected parameters are chosen so that the computational times for tests are reasonable for most common key.

- Verify if this key has generated a set of distinct signatures that has redundant r values. Then compute the private key and required signature nonces using case

1 and case 2.1.

- Randomly select any two signatures and verify length of nonces less than 128 bits and test is repeated for 2m times for every key.

- Randomly select any four signatures and verify the length of nonces less than 172 bits and test is repeated for 2m times for every key.

- Randomly select any four signatures and verify nonces sharing 172 least significant bits and test is repeated for 2m times for every key.

- Randomly select any two signatures generated from the pair (r,s) and verify nonces sharing 128MSB and test is repeated for 2m times for every key.

Implementing the cryptanalysis: All the test cases stated were implemented on sage using built in BKZ library for lattice based reduction. The computations were for heterogeneous cluster on Raspberry pi. The computations ended by running twice, firstly without signature normalization on a block chain from April 2022 and secondly with signature normalization on a block chain from may 2022. The computational bottleneck we found was intensive elliptic curve multiplications needed to ascertain whether the private key found is correct. The cumulative running time for both jobs was 15 days where a a single key could generate 1,021,572 signatures in April 2022. After applying elementary attacks we could compute 43 private keys were compromised via nonces with shared suffixes / prefix and small nonces. We encountered 132 signatures with these vulnerable nonces block chain. The figure 10 and 11 shows signature from biased and repeated nonces over period of time, large circles denote more signatures over the years. Most of the compromised nonces fell into different classes depending on length of variable portion of nonce. We obtained shorter nonces of length 32 bits, 64 bits, 110 bits, 128 bits and 160 bits and some nonces that shared suffix and prefix of 64 bit variable length.

Ethereum data collection: Querying was done on local Ethereum node via and RPC interface to collect the Ethereum signatures. Analysis is done on ethereum block chain instance on 14 May 2022, it had 143,457,786 distinct public keys that generated 831,811,259 signatures. Totally 31,855,806 keys had generated multiple signature, resulting in 592,229,478 signatures from such keys.

Crypt analysis test beds for biased nonces: Public key signature clusters were formed and verified that the keys had generated more than one signature. Same test applied for bitcoin were applied, computations were done twice, firstly with normalized signatures from April 2022 block chain instance and secondly without the May 2018 block chain instance. The 296 private keys were responsible for generating repeated signatures nonces and they used 0x7fffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff5d576e7357a4501ddfe92f46681b20

a_0 , which is $((n-1)/2)$ where n represents the order of SECP56k1 curve.

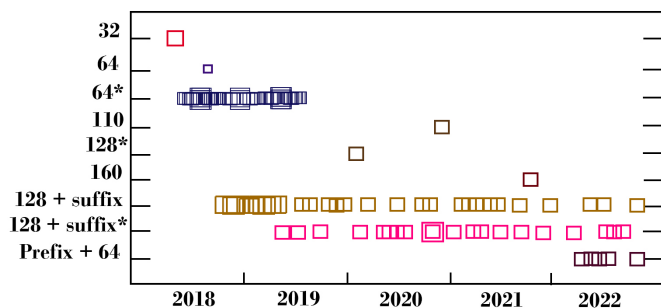


Fig 10. Bit coin signatures with biased and small nonces over the years.

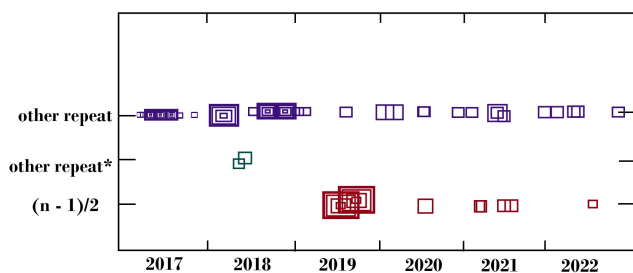


Fig 11. Bitcoin signatures with repeated nonces over time.

We extend our analysis to compute execution time of algorithm to crack ECDSA by using NIST and SECP curves. The reliability of elliptic curve cryptography depends on hardness in computing elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem (ECDLP). Edward Yin claims there are no algorithms to solve ECDLP [17] and if there are large number of ECC keys then a brute force technique is not suitable to the ECC algorithm, our work contradicts his statements. We have examined ECDSA security using NIST and SECP curves. The security of ECDSA was examined on three dimensions the rigidity of curve, safety level curve, and security against multiplicative transfer. If curve succeeds to resist all of the above methods then we consider the curve to be safe else we term it as unsafe curves. With our work we claim bitcoin curve SECP256k1 fails to resist leak-weak nonce attack and LLL attack using private keys, nonces and signatures of varying bit sizes of length 64, 128, 256, 512, and 1024-bits. The results clearly demonstrate time to crack ECDSA grows exponentially as bit sizes grow and cracking ECDSA seems to be more feasible using leak-weak, shared nonces than unlike LLL. Table V, VI, VII, shows average time to crack ECDSA with leak-weak nonce and Table VIII, IX

shows average time to crack ECDSA using LLL algorithm using multiple signatures. Fig. 12 shows security of ECDSA with leak-weak nonces and LLL with NIST and SECP curves.

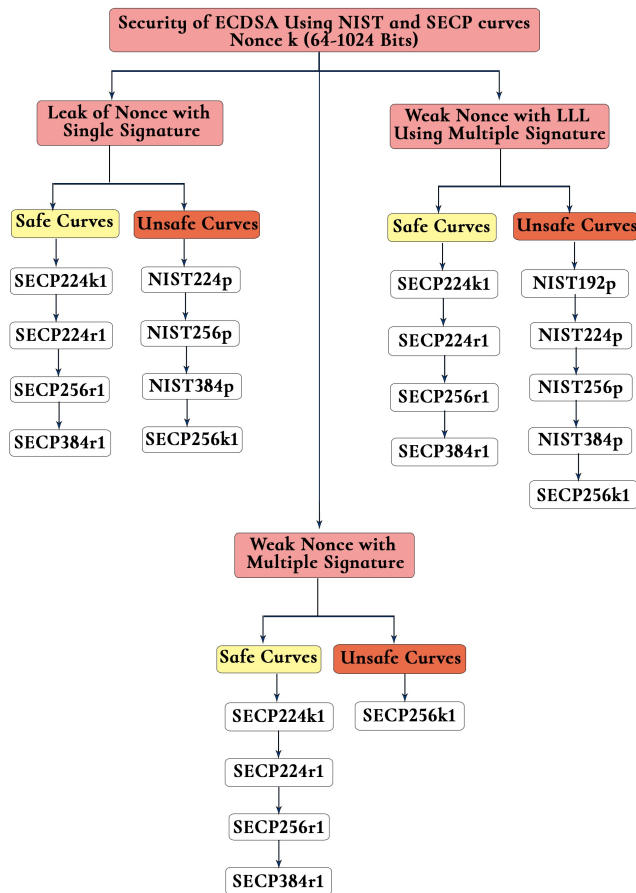


Fig 12. Security of ECDSA with leak-weak nonces and LLL with NIST and SECP curves

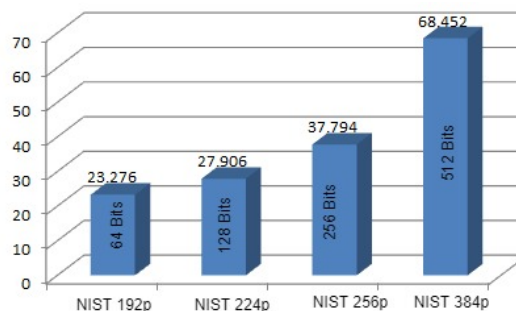


Fig 13. CRACK ECDSA BY WEAK NONCE FROM MULTIPLE SIGNATURES ON NIST CURVES USING LLL

TABLE IV

Compromised signatures and keys are classified based on type of nonce vulnerability that led to compromised private key. Most of the compromised keys were found to be of multi signature address.

Type of Nonce (Bits)	Multi Signature Keys	Single Signature Keys	Unique Keys
≤ 32	0	3	1
64	11	17	23
110	6	18	0
128	1	19	1
160	17	13	2
128 + Suffix	1	5	12
Prefix + 64	0	2	23

TABLE V
NODES FEATURE USED IN IMPLEMENTATION

Type of Node	PROCESSOR	CPU TYPE	CPU SPEED	RAM	OPERATING SYSTEM
Raspberry pi	ARM CPU	64 bits	1.2GHz	1GB	Rasbian 5.10
HP LAPTOP	Intel Core i3	64 bits	1.99 GHz	4GB	Windows 10

TABLE VI
DISCLOSE ECDSA KEY FROM LEAK OF NONCE FOR MULTIPLE SIGNATURE ON NIST CURVES

Private Key	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
Nonce k	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
No of Signatures	100	100	100	100	100	AVG
NIST 192p	9.37	10.01	10.63	11.09	11.32	10.48
NIST 224p	9.49	10.28	10.91	11.66	11.63	10.79
NIST 256p	11.45	10.52	10.96	12.41	13.21	11.71
NIST 384p	11.63	11.51	11.85	13.87	14.49	12.67
NIST 521p	11.81	11.99	13.17	15.68	19.29	14.39

TABLE VII
DISCLOSE ECDSA KEY FROM LEAK OF NONCE FOR MULTIPLE SIGNATURE ON SECP CURVES

Private Key	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
Nonce k	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
No of Signatures	200	200	200	200	200	AVG
SECP224k1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP224r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP256k1	16.62	16.85	17.29	18.31	18.84	17.58
SECP256r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP384r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA

V. Conclusions

In this paper, we compute Bitcoin and Ethereum private keys by performing cryptanalytic attacks on digital signatures available in public block chains and we analyze curves recommended by various standards. Each curve applied on ECDSA algorithm can be cracked in two ways, firstly with leaked nonce and secondly by performing lattice attacks using Lenstra-Lenstra-Lovasz (LLL) algorithm on bad nonces that were generated using faulty random number generator. From comparative table its clear that the computation times taken by each curves for both the cases. From this result analysis, it is deduced that the computation times to crack ECDSA using curves increases as the field size increases. Due to this fragility, we advise using EdDSA, in which nonces are created securely without the need of a random number generator. To combat

side channel attacks, NIST has also standardised the usage of EdDSA with Curve- 25519. Applying ECDSA should be done with care, so that nonces used for ECDSA signatures are not redundant and confidential. Also generated safely. Finally we come to a conclusion that Elliptic Curve Cryptography using the the NIST 192p,NIST 224p,NIST 256p,NIST 384p,NIST 521p and SECP256k1 curves over leak-weak nonce are not safe for the transactions that are confidential and are to be kept secured down the line.

Appendix

Table IX - shows ECDSA: Disclosing the private key if nonce is known using NIST-256P recommended parameters Table X- shows ECDSA: disclosing the private key if nonce is known using NIST-521P recommended parameters.

TABLE VIII
DISCLOSE ECDSA KEY FROM WEAK NONCE (SAME) FROM MULTIPLE SIGNATURES ON SECP CURVES

Private Key	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
Nonce k	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
No of Signatures	200	200	200	200	200	AVG
SECP224k1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP224r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP256k1	12.55	12.58	12.61	12.92	13.66	12.86
SECP256r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP384r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA

TABLE IX
DISCLOSE ECDSA KEY FROM WEAK NONCE WITH MULTIPLE NONCES ON NIST CURVES USING LLL

Private Key	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
Nonce k1	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
Nonce k2	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
No of Signatures	50	50	50	50	50	AVG
NIST 192p	22.93	24.59	22.72	22.98	23.16	23.28
NIST 224p	27.56	29.05	26.24	29.39	27.29	27.91
NIST 256p	37.77	36.91	38.77	35.38	40.14	37.79
NIST 384p	66.14	66.86	68.11	70.91	70.24	68.45

TABLE X
DISCLOSE ECDSA KEY FROM WEAK NONCE WITH SINGLE NONCE ON SECP CURVES USING LLL

Private Key	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
Nonce k	64 Bits	128 Bits	256 Bits	512 Bits	1024 Bits	
No of Signatures	50	50	50	50	50	AVG
SECP224k1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP224r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP256k1	31.42	32.59	33.80	34.84	35.28	33.58
SECP256r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA
SECP384r1	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	NA

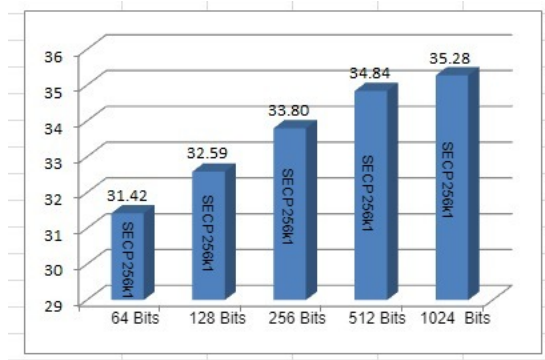


Fig 14. CRACK ECDSA BY WEAK NONCE FROM MULTIPLE SIGNATURES ON SECP 256k1 CURVE USING LLL

LLL Example: Applying LLL to the basis spanned by $(201,37)$ and $(1648,297)$. We begin by choosing one of these as our first basis vector, then using it to reduce the second vector to a candidate basis vector.

Step 1: Let us consider our first lattice basis vector v_1 as first Gram-Schmidt vector v_1^*

$$v_1 = (201, 37), v_2 = (1648, 297) \text{ and } v_1^* = (201, 37)$$

Applying Gram-Schmidt reduction to reduce vector v_2 :

$$v_2^* = (1648, 297) - \frac{(1648, 297) \cdot (201, 37)}{(201, 37) \cdot (201, 37)} (201, 37)$$

$$\approx (1.133, -6.155)$$

We have :

$$v_1^* = (201, 37), v_2^* = (1648, 297) ,$$

$$v_1^* = (201, 37) \text{ and } v_2^* = (1.133, -6.155)$$

Now we use v_1^* to reduce v_2^* :

$$v_2^* = (1648, 297) - \frac{(1648, 297) \cdot (201, 37)}{(201, 37) \cdot (201, 37)} (201, 37)$$

$$v_2^* = (1648, 297) - 8(201, 37)$$

$$v_2^* = (40, 1)$$

We have

$$v_1^* = (201, 37), v_2^* = (40, 1)$$

$$v_1^* = (201, 37) \text{ and } v_2^* = (1.133, -6.155)$$

Next, We find the magnitude of Gram-Schmidt basis vector $\|v_1^*\|^2$ and $\|v_2^*\|^2$ and check the Lavasz condition.

TABLE XI
ECDSA: Disclosing the private key, if nonce known
(SECP256k1 Recommended Parameters)

CurveFp = p=11579208923731619542357098500868 7907853269984665640564039457584007908834671663
a =0
b =7
h =1
Order : 115792089237316195423570985008 687907852837564279074904382605163141518161494337
Gx =55066263022773436695787188951685 3432625060345377594175500187360389116729240
Gy =32670510020758816978083085130507 043184471273380659243275938904335757337482424
Message 1 : The International Association of Engineers (IAENG)
Sig 1(R,S) :1090178978484625472626051 078590318298857972588647162614981421996289387 993138918265459205352446360663392410240856847 177744969239952673627391122796700593599
Random value (k): 485591326115238695376341987 57975587885
Private Key :53144400248017703886830700 5160578004559346968752187515812330620661442985198127
The private key is found :531444002480 1770386830700516057800455934696875218751581233 0620661442985198127

TABLE XII
ECDSA: Disclosing the private key, if nonce known
(NIST-521p Recommended Parameters)

Message 1 :The International Association of Engineers (IAENG)
Sig1(R,S) :21282260673528067679653851489493224238747 7899349499537542138969641573994008752335865373966650 3930184035865240267411738520465568274624818894669233 688372748609
663438386533491789268917133775138412649914951989874 801838592660920313316815480643465176261181068257098 030508137971670535782630373768587344613216642037803918
Random value (k) :8296449137264400342483307 9795788819303
Private Key :5244497444874146855767107190 6136351843786389355050900019426796390883083523326 0069220126970709579569455291147482078753981014349 0829397335285433794739421013412
Private Key :5244497444874146855767107190 6136351843786389355050900019426796390883083523326 0069220126970709579569455291147482078753981014349 0829397335285433794739421013412

$$\|v_1^{*2}\| = 41770, \|v_2^{*2}\| = 39.16$$

$$\mu_{2,1} = \left(\frac{(40, 1) \cdot (201, 37)}{(201, 37) \cdot (201, 37)} = 0.193 \right)$$

$$\left(\frac{3}{4} - \mu_{2,1} \approx 0.713 \right)$$

So, $\|v_2^{*2}\|^2 \not\geq \left(\frac{3}{4} - \mu_{2,1}\right) \|v_1^{*2}\|^2$ and we should swap, making $v_1^* = (40, 1)$ and $v_2^* = (201, 37)$

Step 2:

We have: $v_1^* = (40, 1), v_2^* = (201, 37)$ and $v_1^* = (40, 1),$

TABLE XIII
ECDSA: 2 of 3 threshold signing algorithm

Message :Hello
Sharing scheme : Any 2 from 3
Random secret := (409dad2ef3aa49b1d5c3 52f0bd89e8a48f91f98e5abbab6e711367efdb42b6e9)
Public key : (10675422765967490806456 8671773753589121197269598565196958174158740459 77056690 8396744729915114064113011207640032635 4735315602294989779527406731720970330161)
Share 1 :=00000001b0f8d63a0ee0470a9cf8a4 56edfe4bb2e190be7f19e6a10f847e531accdb7ecc
Share 2 : =000000022153ff452a16446364 2df5bd1e72aec278e0a68929c8f674d816dfb8ee3e056e
Overall signature :(2153789211106830677015 92391463725066318619165236716778604529031621 71928870792 12259516882648318079446047637950 938085779642468911292651091164123787383339954)
Signature Verified : True !!!

Now apply the Gram-Schmidt reduction, using $v_1^* = v_1$

$$v_2^* = (201, 37) - \frac{(201, 37) \cdot (40, 1)}{(40, 1) \cdot (401, 1)} (40, 1) \approx (-0.799, 31.956)$$

We have: $v_1^* = (40, 1), v_2^* = (201, 37), v_1^* = (40, 1)$ and $v_2^* = (-0.799, 31.956)$

Using v_1^* to reduce v_2^*

$$v_2^* = (201, 37) - \left\lfloor \frac{(201, 37) \cdot (40, 1)}{(40, 1) \cdot (401, 1)} \right\rfloor (40, 1) = (1, 32)$$

We have: $v_1^* = (40, 1), v_2^* = (1, 32), v_1^* = (40, 1)$ and $v_2^* = (-0.799, 31.956)$

Next, We find the magnitude of Gram-Schmidt basis vector $\|v_1^{*2}\|$ and $\|v_2^{*2}\|$ and check the Lavasz condition. $\|v_1^{*2}\| = 1601, \|v_2^{*2}\| = 1021.76$

$$\mu_{2,1} = \left(\frac{(1, 32) \cdot (40, 1)}{(40, 1) \cdot (40, 1)} = 0.193 \right)$$

$$\left(\frac{3}{4} - \mu_{2,1} \approx 0.748 \right)$$

So, $\|v_2^{*2}\|^2 \not\geq \left(\frac{3}{4} - \mu_{2,1}\right) \|v_1^{*2}\|^2$ and we should swap, making $v_1^* = (1, 32)$ and $v_2^* = (40, 1)$

Step 3:

We have:

$$v_1^* = (1, 32), v_2^* = (40, 1) \text{ and } v_1^* = (1, 32),$$

Now apply the Gram-Schmidt reduction, using $v_1^* = v_1$

$$v_2^* = (40, 1) - \frac{(40, 1) \cdot (1, 32)}{(1, 32) \cdot (1, 32)} (1, 32) \approx (39.93, -1.25)$$

We have:

$$v_1^* = (1, 32), v_2^* = (40, 1) \quad v_1^* = (1, 32) \text{ and } v_2^* = (39.93, -1.25)$$

Using v_1^* to reduce v_2^*

$$v_2^* = (40, 1) - \left\lfloor \frac{(40, 1) \cdot (1, 32)}{(1, 32) \cdot (1, 32)} \right\rfloor (1, 32)$$

$$\vec{v}_2 = (40, 1) - 0(1, 32)$$

$$\vec{v}_2 = (40, 1)$$

Next, We find the magnitude of Gram-Schmidt basis vector $\|\vec{v}_1^*\|$ and $\|\vec{v}_2^*\|$ and check the Lavasz condition. $\|\vec{v}_1^*\| = 1025$, $\|\vec{v}_2^*\| = 1595.94$

$$\mu_{2,1} = \left(\frac{(40, 1) \cdot (1, 32)}{(1, 32) \cdot (1, 32)} = 0.070 \right)$$

$$\left(\frac{3}{4} - \mu_{2,1}^2 \approx 0.745 \right)$$

So, $\|\vec{v}_2^*\|^2 \geq \left(\frac{3}{4} - \mu_{2,1}^2\right) \|\vec{v}_1^*\|^2$ and we can move on to the next basis vector. $\vec{v}_1 = (1, 32)$ and $\vec{v}_2 = (40, 1)$ correspond to reasonably orthogonal set of basis vectors.

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