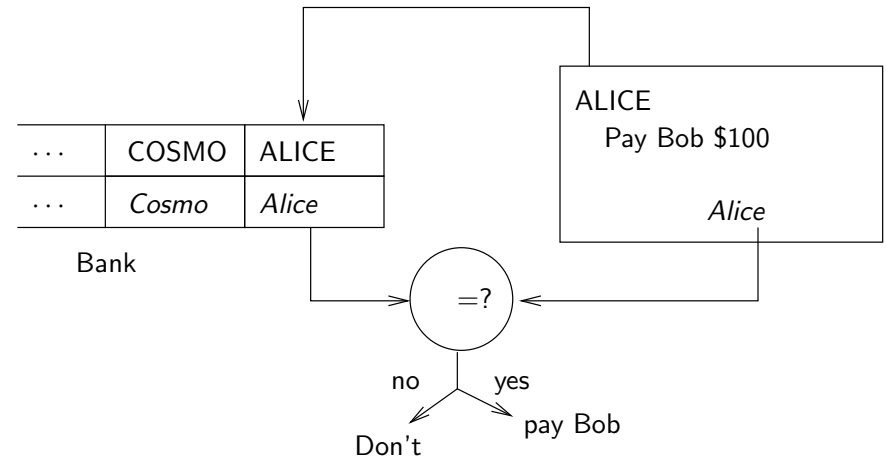
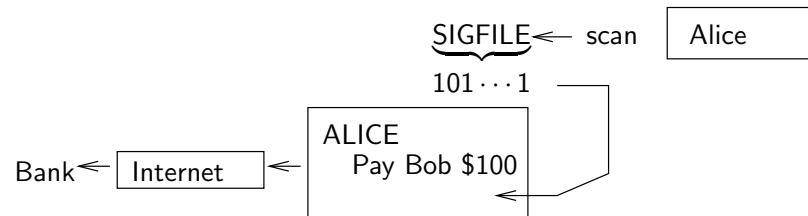


DIGITAL SIGNATURES

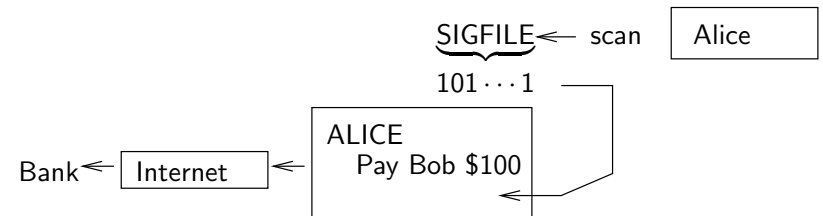
Signing by hand



Signing electronically



Signing electronically

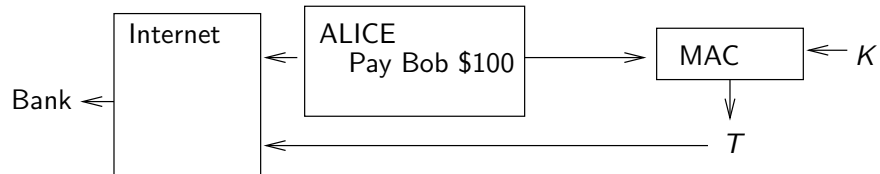


Problem: signature is easily copied

Inference: signature must be a function of the message that only Alice can compute

What about a MAC?

Let Bank and Alice share a key K

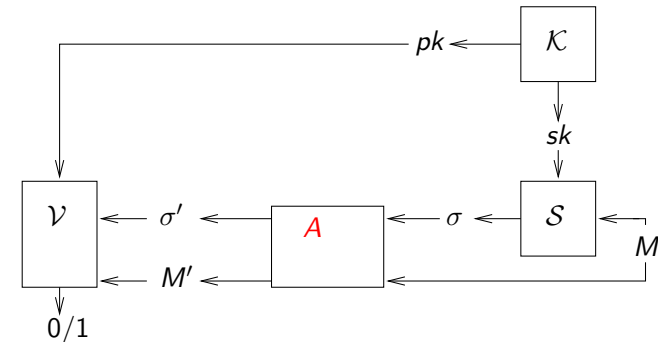


A digital signature will have additional attributes:

- Even the bank cannot forge
- Verifier does not need to share a key with signer or, indeed, have any secrets

Digital signatures

A digital signature scheme $DS = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$ is a triple of algorithms where



Correctness: $\mathcal{V}(pk, M, \mathcal{S}(sk, M)) = 1$ with probability one for all M .

Usage

Step 1: key generation

Alice lets $(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}$ and stores sk (securely).

Step 2: pk dissemination

Alice enables any potential verifier to get pk .

Step 3: sign

Alice can generate a signature σ of a document M using sk .

Step 4: verify

Anyone holding pk can verify that σ is Alice's signature on M .

Step 2: Dissemination of public keys

The public key does not have to be kept secret but a verifier needs to know it is authentic, meaning really Alice's public key and not someone else's.

Alice could put her public key pk on her webpage, her Facebook, a key server or include it as an email attachment.

Common method of dissemination is via certificates as discussed later.

UF-CMA Security of a DS scheme

Intent: adversary cannot get a verifier to accept σ as Alice's signature of M unless Alice has really previously signed M , even if adversary can obtain Alice's signatures on messages of the adversary's choice.

As with MA schemes, the definition does **not** require security against replay. That is handled on top, via counters or time stamps.

UF-CMA Security of a DS scheme

Let $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$ be a signature scheme and A an adversary.

Game $\text{UF-CMA}_{\mathcal{DS}}$

procedure Initialize
 $(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}; S \leftarrow \emptyset$
return pk

procedure Finalize(M, σ)
 $d \leftarrow \mathcal{V}(pk, M, \sigma)$
return $(d = 1 \wedge M \notin S)$

procedure Sign(M)
 $\sigma \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{S}(sk, M)$
 $S \leftarrow S \cup \{M\}$
return σ

The uf-cma advantage of A is

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) = \Pr [\text{UF-CMA}_{\mathcal{DS}}^A \Rightarrow \text{true}]$$

UF-CMA: Explanations

The “return pk ” statement in **Initialize** means the adversary A gets the public key pk as input. It does not get sk .

It can call **Sign** with any message M of its choice to get back a correct signature $\sigma \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{S}(sk, M)$ of M under sk . Notation indicates signing algorithm may be randomized.

To win, it must output a message M and a signature σ that are

- Correct: $\mathcal{V}(pk, M, \sigma) = 1$
- New: $M \notin S$, meaning M was not a query to **Sign**

Interpretation: **Sign** represents the signer and **Finalize** represents the verifier. Security means that the adversary can't get the verifier to accept a message that is not authentic, meaning was not already signed by the sender.

RSA signatures

Fix an RSA generator \mathcal{K}_{rsa} and let the key generation algorithm be

Alg \mathcal{K}

$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}_{\text{rsa}}$
 $pk \leftarrow (N, e); sk \leftarrow (N, d)$
Return (pk, sk)

We will use these keys in all our RSA-based schemes and only describe signing and verifying.

Plain RSA signature scheme

Signer $pk = (N, e)$ and $sk = (N, d)$

Alg $S_{N,d}(y)$

$x \leftarrow y^d \bmod N$

Return x

Alg $V_{N,e}(y, x)$

If $(x^e \bmod N = y)$ then return 1

Else return 0

Here $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ is the message and $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ is the signature.

Security of plain RSA signatures

To forge signature of a message y , the adversary, given N, e but not d , must compute $y^d \bmod N$, meaning invert the RSA function f at y .

But RSA is 1-way so this task should be hard and the scheme should be secure.

Correct?

Security of plain RSA signatures

To forge signature of a message y , the adversary, given N, e but not d , must compute $y^d \bmod N$, meaning invert the RSA function f at y .

But RSA is 1-way so this task should be hard and the scheme should be secure.

Correct?

Of course not...

Attacks on plain RSA

adversary $A(N, e)$

Return $(1, 1)$

$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) = 1$ because $1^d \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$

adversary $A(N, e)$

Pick some distinct $y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_N^* - \{1\}$

$x_1 \leftarrow \text{Sign}(y_1); x_2 \leftarrow \text{Sign}(y_2)$

Return $(y_1 y_2 \bmod N, x_1 x_2 \bmod N)$

$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) = 1$ because $(y_1 y_2)^d \equiv y_1^d y_2^d \pmod{N}$

DH signatures

When Diffie and Hellman introduced public-key cryptography they suggested the DS scheme

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}(sk, M) &= D(sk, M) \\ \mathcal{V}(pk, M, \sigma) &= 1 \text{ iff } E(pk, \sigma) = M \end{aligned}$$

where (E, D) is a public-key encryption scheme. But

- This views public-key encryption as deterministic; they really mean trapdoor permutations in our language
- Plain RSA is an example
- It doesn't work!

Nonetheless, many textbooks still view digital signatures this way.

Other issues

In plain RSA, the message is an element of \mathbb{Z}_N^* . We really want to be able to sign strings of arbitrary length.

Throwing in a hash function

Let $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ be a public hash function and let $pk = (N, e)$ and $sk = (N, d)$ be the signer's keys. The hash-then-decrypt scheme is

Alg $\mathcal{S}_{N,d}(M)$
 $y \leftarrow H(M)$
 $x \leftarrow y^d \bmod N$
Return x

Alg $\mathcal{V}_{N,e}(M, x)$
 $y \leftarrow H(M)$
If $(x^e \bmod N = y)$ then return 1
Else return 0

Succinctly,

$$\mathcal{S}_{N,d}(M) = H(M)^d \bmod N$$

Different choices of H give rise to different schemes.

What we need from H

Suppose we have an adversary C that can find a collision for H . Then we can break DS via

adversary $A(N, e)$
 $(M_1, M_2) \xleftarrow{\$} C$
 $\sigma_1 \leftarrow \mathbf{Sign}(M_1)$
Return (M_2, σ_1)

This works because $H(M_1) = H(M_2)$ implies M_1, M_2 have the same signatures:

$$\sigma_1 = \mathcal{S}_{N,d}(M_1) = H(M_1)^d \bmod N = H(M_2)^d \bmod N = \mathcal{S}_{N,d}(M_2)$$

Conclusion: H needs to be collision-resistant

RSA PKCS#1 signatures

Signer has $pk = (N, e)$ and $sk = (N, d)$ where $|N| = 1024$. Let $h: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{160}$ be a hash function (like SHA1) and let $n = 1024/8 = 128$.

Then

$$H_{PKCS}(M) = 00\|01\|\underbrace{FF\|\dots\|FF}_{n-22}\|\underbrace{h(M)}_{20}$$

And

$$S_{N,d}(M) = H_{PKCS}(M)^d \bmod N$$

RSA PKCS#1 signatures

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Then

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And

$$S_{N,d}(M) = H_{PKCS}(M)^d \bmod N$$

But first $n - 20 = 108$ bytes of $H_{PKCS}(M)$ are fixed, so $H_{PKCS}(M)$ does not look “random.”

Full-Domain-Hash (FDH) [BR96]

Signer public key is $pk = (N, e)$ and secret key is $sk = (N, d)$

Alg $S_{N,d}(M)$

Return $H(M)^d \bmod N$

Alg $\mathcal{V}_{N,e}(M, x)$

If $(x^e \bmod N = H(M))$ then return 1
Else return 0

Public hash function $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ is defined for example by letting $H(M)$ be the first $|N|$ bits of

$$\text{SHA1512}(0^8\|M)\|\text{SHA1512}(0^71\|M)\|\dots$$

Exercise

Let \mathcal{K}_{rsa} be a RSA key generator with security parameter $k \geq 2048$. Let the algorithms of signature scheme $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$ be defined as follows, with notation explained on the next slide:

Alg \mathcal{K}

$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}_{\text{rsa}} ; pk \leftarrow (N, e) ; sk \leftarrow (N, d) ; \text{Return } (pk, sk)$

Alg $S_{N,d}(M)$

If $|M| \neq 4096$ then return \perp
 $M[1]M[2] \leftarrow M$
 $x_1 \leftarrow \langle 1 \rangle \| M[1] ; x_2 \leftarrow \langle 2 \rangle \| M[2]$
 $y \leftarrow H(x_1) \cdot H(x_2) \bmod N$
 $s \leftarrow y^d \bmod N$
 Return s

Alg $\mathcal{V}_{N,e}(M, s)$

If $|M| \neq 4096$ then return 0
 $M[1]M[2] \leftarrow M$
 $x_1 \leftarrow \langle 1 \rangle \| M[1] ; x_2 \leftarrow \langle 2 \rangle \| M[2]$
 If $s^e \equiv H(x_1) \cdot H(x_2) \pmod{N}$
 then return 1 else return 0

Exercise

Above, $H: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_N^*$ is a public, collision resistant hash function. A valid message M is a 4096 bit string and is viewed as a pair of 2048 bit blocks, $M = M[1]M[2]$. By “||” we denote concatenation, and by $\langle i \rangle$ we denote the encoding of integer i as a binary string of exactly two bits.

Present in pseudocode a $\mathcal{O}(k^3)$ -time adversary A making at most three queries to its **Sign** oracle and achieving $\text{Adv}_{DS}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) = 1$.

ElGamal Signatures

Let $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^* = \langle g \rangle$ where p is prime.

Signer keys: $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ and $sk = x \in \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$

Alg $\mathcal{S}_x(m)$

```

 $k \leftarrow \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}^*$ 
 $r \leftarrow g^k \pmod p$ 
 $s \leftarrow (m - xr) \cdot k^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)}$ 
Return  $(r, s)$ 

```

Alg $\mathcal{V}_X(m, (r, s))$

```

If  $(r \notin G \text{ or } s \notin \mathbf{Z}_{p-1})$ 
  then return 0
If  $(X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \pmod p)$ 
  then return 1
else return 0

```

Correctness check: If $(r, s) \leftarrow \mathcal{S}_x(m)$, then, in the group G we have:

$$X^r \cdot r^s = g^{xr} g^{ks} = g^{xr+ks} = g^{xr+k(m-xr)k^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)}} = g^{xr+m-xr} = g^m$$

so $\mathcal{V}_X(m, (r, s)) = 1$.

Security of ElGamal Signatures

Signer keys: $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ and $sk = x \in \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$

Alg $\mathcal{S}_x(m)$

```

 $k \leftarrow \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}^*$ 
 $r \leftarrow g^k \pmod p$ 
 $s \leftarrow (m - xr) \cdot k^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)}$ 
Return  $(r, s)$ 

```

Alg $\mathcal{V}_X(m, (r, s))$

```

If  $(r \notin G \text{ or } s \notin \mathbf{Z}_{p-1})$ 
  then return 0
If  $(X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \pmod p)$ 
  then return 1
else return 0

```

Suppose given $X = g^x$ and m the adversary wants to compute r, s so that $X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \pmod p$. It could:

- Pick r and try to solve for $s = \text{DLog}_{\mathbf{Z}_p^*, r}(g^m X^{-r})$
- Pick s and try to solve for r ...?

Forgery of ElGamal Signatures

Adversary has better luck if it picks m itself:

Adversary $A(X)$

```

 $r \leftarrow gX \pmod p$ ;  $s \leftarrow (-r) \pmod{(p-1)}$ ;  $m \leftarrow s$ 
Return  $(m, (r, s))$ 

```

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 X^r \cdot r^s \pmod p &= X^r (gX)^s \pmod p \\
 &= X^{(r+s)} g^s \pmod p \\
 &= X^{(r+s) \pmod{(p-1)}} g^m \pmod p \\
 &= g^m \pmod p.
 \end{aligned}$$

So (r, s) is a valid forgery on m .

EIGamal with hashing

Let $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^* = \langle g \rangle$ where p is a prime.

Signer keys: $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ and $sk = x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$

$H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$ a hash function.

Alg $S_x(M)$

```

 $m \leftarrow H(M)$ 
 $k \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}^*$ 
 $r \leftarrow g^k \bmod p$ 
 $s \leftarrow (m - xr) \cdot k^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ 
Return  $(r, s)$ 
    
```

Alg $V_X(M, (r, s))$

```

 $m \leftarrow H(M)$ 
If  $(r \notin G \text{ or } s \notin \mathbf{Z}_{p-1})$ 
  then return 0
If  $(X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \bmod p)$ 
  then return 1
else return 0
    
```

EIGamal with hashing

Let $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^* = \langle g \rangle$ where p is a prime.

Signer keys: $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ and $sk = x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$

$H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$ a hash function.

Alg $S_x(M)$

```

 $m \leftarrow H(M)$ 
 $k \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}^*$ 
 $r \leftarrow g^k \bmod p$ 
 $s \leftarrow (m - xr) \cdot k^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ 
Return  $(r, s)$ 
    
```

Alg $V_X(M, (r, s))$

```

 $m \leftarrow H(M)$ 
If  $(r \notin G \text{ or } s \notin \mathbf{Z}_{p-1})$ 
  then return 0
If  $(X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \bmod p)$ 
  then return 1
else return 0
    
```

Requirements on H :

- Collision-resistant
- One-way to prevent previous attack

DSA

Let p be a 1024-bit prime. For DSA, let q be a 160-bit prime dividing $p-1$.

Scheme	signing cost	verification cost	signature size
EIGamal	1 1024-bit exp	1 1024-bit exp	2048 bits
DSA	1 160-bit exp	1 160-bit exp	320 bits

By a “ e -bit exp” we mean an operation $a, n \mapsto a^n \bmod p$ where $a \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ and n is an e -bit integer. A 1024-bit exponentiation is more costly than a 160-bit exponentiation by a factor of $1024/160 \approx 6.4$.

DSA is in FIPS 186.

DSA

- Fix primes p, q such that q divides $p-1$
- Let $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^* = \langle h \rangle$ and $g = h^{(p-1)/q}$ so that $g \in G$ has order q
- $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_q$ a hash function
- Signer keys: $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ and $sk = x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_q$

Alg $S_x(M)$

```

 $m \leftarrow H(M)$ 
 $k \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_q^*$ 
 $r \leftarrow (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$ 
 $s \leftarrow (m + xr) \cdot k^{-1} \bmod q$ 
Return  $(r, s)$ 
    
```

Alg $V_X(M, (r, s))$

```

 $m \leftarrow H(M)$ 
 $w \leftarrow s^{-1} \bmod q$ 
 $u_1 \leftarrow mw \bmod q$ 
 $u_2 \leftarrow rw \bmod q$ 
 $v \leftarrow (g^{u_1} X^{u_2} \bmod p) \bmod q$ 
If  $(v = r)$  then return 1 else return 0
    
```

Details: Signature is regenerated if $s = 0$.

Discussion

DSA as shown works only over the group of integers modulo a prime, but there is also a version ECDSA of it for elliptic curve groups.

In ElGamal and DSA/ECDSA, the expensive part of signing, namely the exponentiation, can be done off-line.

No proof that ElGamal or DSA is UF-CMA under a standard assumption (DL, CDH, ...) is known. Proofs known for variants.

The Schnorr scheme works in an arbitrary (prime-order) group. When implemented in a 160-bit elliptic curve group, it is as efficient as ECDSA. It can be proven UF-CMA in the random oracle model under the discrete log assumption [PS,AABN]. The security reduction, however, is quite loose.

Exercise

Let p be a prime of bit length $k \geq 1024$ such that $(p - 1)/2$ is also prime, and let g be a generator of the group $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^*$. (Here p, g are public quantities.) Let $q = p - 1$ be the order of G . Consider the digital signature scheme $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$ whose component algorithms are depicted below, where the message m is in \mathbf{Z}_q^* :

Alg \mathcal{K}

$x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_q^*$; $X \leftarrow g^x$; $y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_q^*$; $Y \leftarrow g^y$
return $((X, Y), (x, y))$

Alg $\mathcal{S}((x, y), m)$

If $m \notin \mathbf{Z}_q^*$ then return \perp
 $z \leftarrow (y + xm) \bmod q$
return z

Alg $\mathcal{V}((X, Y), m, z)$

if $m \notin \mathbf{Z}_q^*$ then return 0
if $z \notin \mathbf{Z}_q^*$ then return 0
if $(g^z \equiv YX^m \pmod{p})$ then return 1
else return 0

Exercise

1. Prove that $\mathcal{V}((X, Y), m, z) = 1$ for any key-pair $((X, Y), (x, y))$ that might be output by \mathcal{K} , any message $m \in \mathbf{Z}_q^*$, and any z that might be output by $\mathcal{S}((x, y), m)$.
2. Present in pseudocode a $\mathcal{O}(k^2)$ -time adversary A making at most two queries to its **Sign** oracle and achieving $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) = 1$.

Randomization in signatures

We have seen many randomized signature schemes: PSS, ElGamal, DSA/ECDSA, Schnorr, ...

Re-using coins across different signatures is not secure, but there are (other) ways to make these schemes deterministic without loss of security.