

Digital Signatures

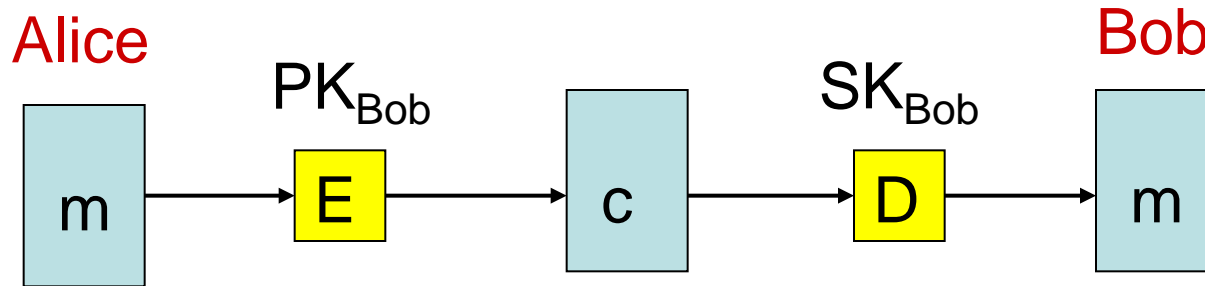
Digital Signatures

- Digital signature is the same as MAC except that the tag (signature) is produced using the secret key of a public-key cryptosystem.

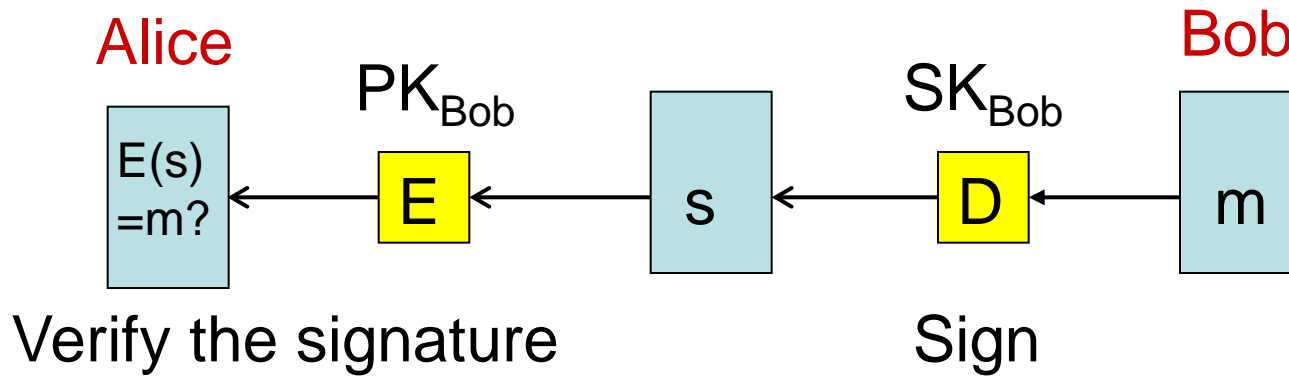


- Digital signature:
 1. Bob has a key pair (sk, pk) .
 2. Bob sends $m \parallel \text{Sign}_{sk}(m)$ to Alice.
 3. Alice verifies the received $m' \parallel s'$ by checking if $\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m', s') = 1$?
- $\text{Sign}_{sk}(m)$ is called a **signature for m** .
- Security requirement: infeasible to produce a valid pair $\langle m, \text{Sign}_{sk}(m) \rangle$ without knowing sk .

Encryption (using RSA):



Signing (using RSA^{-1}):



Basic RSA Signature

- **Keys** are generated as for RSA encryption:

Public key: $pk = (N, e)$. Secret key: $sk = (N, d)$.

- **Signing** a message $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$:

$$\sigma = \text{Sign}_{sk}(m) = m^d \bmod N.$$

That is, $\sigma = \text{RSA}^{-1}(m)$.

- **Verifying** a signature (m, σ) :

$$\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, \sigma) = 1 \text{ if and only if } m = \sigma^e \bmod N$$

$$\text{or } m = \text{RSA}(\sigma).$$

- Correctness:

$$\text{RSA}_{pk} \left(\text{RSA}_{sk}^{-1}(m) \right) = m.$$

A message m signed with sk will be verified and accepted with the corresponding pk .

- Remarks:

- Basic RSA signature is the reverse of basic RSA encryption.
- Because of this, digital signatures are often **mistakenly** viewed as the reverse of public-key encryption.
- As will be seen, secure RSA signature is **not** the reverse of secure RSA encryption. Neither is ElGamal signature.

- Existentially forgeable:

1. Every message m is a valid signature of its ciphertext c , since $\text{RSA}^{-1}(c) = m$.
2. If Bob signed m_1 and m_2 , then the signature for m_1m_2 can be easily forged: $\sigma(m_1m_2) = \sigma(m_1)\sigma(m_2)$.

- Remedy: hash then sign:

$\sigma = \text{Sign}_{sk}(H(m)) = \text{RSA}_{sk}^{-1}(H(m))$, using some hash function H .

- Question:

Does hash-then-sign make RSA signature secure against chosen-message attacks?

- Answer:

Yes, if H is a **full-domain random oracle**, i.e.,

- H is a random oracle mapping $\{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$
- (\mathbb{Z}_N is the full domain of RSA^{-1})

Theorem: Full-domain hash RSA signature is secure against any chosen-message attack under the random oracle model.

- **Problem with full-domain hash:**

In practice, H is **not** full-domain.

For instance, the range of SHA-1 is $\{0,1\}^{160}$,
while $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0,1,\dots,N-1\} \approx \{0,1\}^{1024}$, if $\|N\| = 1024$.

- **Desired:** a secure signature scheme that does not require a full-domain hash.

Probabilistic signature scheme

- Hash function $H : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^l \subset \mathbb{Z}_N$ (not full domain).

$l \ll n = \|N\|$. (E.g., SHA-1, $l = 160$; RSA, $n = 1024$.)

- Idea: $m \xrightarrow{\text{pad}} m \parallel r \in \{0,1\}^*$
 $\xrightarrow{\text{hash}} x = H(m \parallel r) \in \{0,1\}^l$
 $\xrightarrow{\text{expand}} y = x \parallel (r \parallel \mathbf{0}^{n-1-l-k}) \oplus G(x) \in \{0,1\}^{n-1}$
 $\xrightarrow{\text{sign}} \sigma = \text{RSA}^{-1}(y) \in \mathbb{Z}_N$

where $r \in \{0,1\}^k$ for some k

$G : \{0,1\}^l \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{n-1-l}$ (pseudorandom generator)

- **Signing** a message $m \in \{0,1\}^*$:
 1. choose a random $r \in \{0,1\}^k$; compute $x = H(m \parallel r)$;
 2. compute $y = x \parallel r \oplus G_1(x) \parallel G_2(x)$; // $G = G_1 \parallel G_2$ //
 3. The signature is $\sigma = \text{RSA}^{-1}(y)$.
- **Verifying** a signature (m, σ) : compute $\text{RSA}(\sigma) = x \parallel t \parallel u$;
 check if $u = G_2(x)$ and $x = H(m \parallel t \oplus G_1(x))$.

Remarks

- PSS is secure against chosen-message attacks in the random oracle model (i.e., if H and G are random oracles).
- PSS is adopted in PKCS #1 v.2.1.
- Hash functions such as SHA-1 are used for H and G .
- For instance,

let $n = 1024$, and $l = k = 160$

let $H = \text{SHA-1}$

$G(x) = H(x \parallel 0) \parallel H(x \parallel 1) \parallel H(x \parallel 2), \dots$

DLP-based Digital Signatures

Ideas behind DLP-based signature

- $G = \{g^0, g^1, g^2, \dots, g^x, \dots, g^{q-1}\}$, a cyclic group of order q .
 $\mathbb{Z}_q = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, x, \dots, q-1\}$.
 $sk = (G, g, q, x)$, $pk = (G, g, q, h)$ where $h = g^x$.
- To sign a message m , Alice needs to show that she knows the secret key x . Besides, non-deterministic signature is desired. So, the signature should be a function of (m, x, k) , where k is random.
- We have $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$, suggesting that $m, k \in \mathbb{Z}_q$.
- So, let the signature s be a function of (m, x, k) whose validity can be verified using g^m, g^x, g^k .
- The signer needs to send $r := g^k$ along with s .

- The signature s is a function of (m, x, k) .
 - $s = km + k'x \pmod{q}$ where $k, k' \leftarrow_u \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - $s = km + F(r)x \pmod{q}$ where $r = g^k$, $F : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - $s = (m - F(r))k^{-1} \pmod{q}$ // $m = ks + F(r)x \pmod{q}$ //
- ElGamal signature: $(r, s) \in G \times \mathbb{Z}_q$, $s = (m - F(r)x)k^{-1} \pmod{q}$
- To verify a signature (r, s) ,
 the verifier checks if $g^m = r^s h^{F(r)}$ without knowing x and k :
 - $s = (m - F(r)x)k^{-1} \pmod{q}$
 - $\Leftrightarrow m = ks + F(r)x \pmod{q}$
 - $\Leftrightarrow g^m = g^{ks} g^{F(r)x}$ // in G //
 - $\Leftrightarrow g^m = r^s h^{F(r)}$

- Schnorr signature: $(F(r), s) \in \mathbb{Z}_q \times \mathbb{Z}_q$

$$s = (m + F(r))k^{-1} \pmod{q}$$

- To verify a signature $(F(r), s)$,

the verifier checks if $F(r) = F\left(\left(g^m h^{F(r)}\right)^t\right)$:

$$s = (m + F(r)x)k^{-1} \pmod{q}$$

$$\Rightarrow k = (m + F(r)x)t \pmod{q} \quad // t = s^{-1} \pmod{q} //$$

$$\Rightarrow g^k = \left(g^m g^{F(r)x}\right)^t \quad // \text{in } G //$$

$$\Rightarrow r = \left(g^m h^{F(r)}\right)^t \quad // \text{in } G //$$

$$\Rightarrow F(r) = F\left(\left(g^m h^{F(r)}\right)^t\right) \quad // \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_q //$$

ElGamal signature in \mathbb{Z}_p^*

1. Key generation: same as in ElGamal encryption.
 - a large prime p and a generator $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$.
 - a randomly chosen number $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$ and $h = g^x \bmod p$;
 - $sk = (p, g, x)$ and $pk = (p, g, h)$.
2. To sign a message $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$,
 - randomly choose $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}^*$;
 - compute $r = g^k \bmod p$ and $s = (m - rx)k^{-1} \bmod (p - 1)$;
 - the signature is $\text{Sign}_{sk}(m) = (r, s) \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$.
3. Verification: $\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, r, s) = \text{true}$ if and only if
$$(m, r, s) \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \times \mathbb{Z}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \text{ and } g^m \equiv r^s h^r \bmod p.$$

Security of ElGamal signature

- Based on the assumed intractability of discrete logarithm.
- **Should use a new k for each signing**, or the adversary can compute k from two signatures

$$s = (m - rx)k^{-1} \text{ and } s' = (m' - rx)k^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow s - s' \equiv (m - m')k^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow k = (m - m')(s - s')^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$$

- Knowing k , the adversary can compute x with high probability:

$$s = (m - rx)k^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = (m - sk)r^{-1} \pmod{p-1}, \text{ if } r^{-1} \pmod{p-1} \text{ exists.}$$

Security of ElGamal signature (cont'd)

- Existential forgery. Construct a message m and a valid signature (r, s) as follows.
 - a) choose $k, c \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}^*$.
 - b) set $r = g^k h^c \bmod p$, $s = -rc^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$, and $m = -rkc^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$.
- Countermeasure: **hash then sign**.

Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA) - an NIST standard

0. **Shnorr's idea:** working in a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* of prime order $q \ll p$ will shorten the signature, desired for Smart Card applications.

- ElGamal signature scheme uses:

$$\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{\alpha^0, \alpha^1, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{p-2}\}. \quad \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-2\}.$$

A signature is $(r, s) \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \approx \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$.

- DSA uses:

$$\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{q-1}\} \subset \mathbb{Z}_p^*, \text{ where } g = \alpha^b, bq = p-1.$$

A signature is $(\hat{r}, s) \in \mathbb{Z}_q \times \mathbb{Z}_q$

1. Key generation

- choose two primes p and q such that $q \mid (p-1)$.
($q \ll p$, e.g., $\|q\| = 160$, $\|p\| = 1024$.)
- let $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ be an element of order q .
- randomly choose $0 \neq x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and compute $h = g^x \bmod p$;
- system parameters: (p, q, g)
- $sk = (x)$ and $pk = (h)$.

(**Remark:** The DLP will be working in $\langle g \rangle$.)

2. **Signing:** to sign a message m ,

- randomly choose $k \in Z_q^*$; compute $\hat{r} = \underbrace{(g^k \bmod p)}_r \bmod q$.
- compute $s = (H(m) + \hat{r}x)k^{-1} \bmod q$.
// choose a different k if $\hat{r} = 0$ or $s = 0$ //
- (m, \hat{r}, s) is the signed message.

3. **Verification:** accept (m, \hat{r}, s) iff $\hat{r}, s \in Z_q^*$ and

$$\hat{r} = \left((g^{H(m)} h^{\hat{r}})^t \bmod p \right) \bmod q, \text{ where } t = s^{-1} \bmod q.$$

DSA Correctness: if the message is signed correctly, the signature will be verified/accepted.

$$s = (H(m) + \hat{r}x)k^{-1} \bmod q$$

$$\Rightarrow k \equiv (H(m) + \hat{r}x)t \bmod q \quad (t = s^{-1} \bmod q)$$

$$\Rightarrow g^k \equiv \left(g^{H(m)} g^{\hat{r}x} \right)^t \bmod p$$

$$\Rightarrow g^k \equiv \left(g^{H(m)} h^{\hat{r}} \right)^t \bmod p$$

$$\Rightarrow g^k \bmod p = \left(g^{H(m)} h^{\hat{r}} \right)^t \bmod p$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\left(g^k \bmod p \right)}_{\hat{r}} \bmod q = \left(\left(g^{H(m)} h^{\hat{r}} \right)^t \bmod p \right) \bmod q$$

Remarks on DSA

- SHA-1 is suggested for use as the hash function.
- $\|q\| = 160$ bits, $\|p\| = 512 + 64t$, $0 \leq t \leq 8$.
- Because a hash is used, there is no restriction on m .
- Why use $\langle g \rangle$ instead of \mathbb{Z}_p^* ?
- $\langle g \rangle$ is a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* of order q .
- Shorter message length: $|(\hat{r}, s)| = 2\|q\|$ bits, rather than $2\|p\|$.
- Why not work in \mathbb{Z}_q^* ? The message length would be $2\|q\|$, too.
- Reason: The Index Calculus method works for \mathbb{Z}_q^* but not for $\langle g \rangle$.