

Signature Schemes

CSG 252 Lecture 6

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Signatures

- Signatures in “real life” have a number of properties
 - They specify the person “responsible” for a document
 - E.g. that it has been produced by the person, or that the person agrees with the document
 - Physically attached to a particular document
 - Easily verifiable by third parties
- We want a similar mechanism for digital documents
- Some difficulties:
 - Need to bind signature to document
 - Need to ensure verifiability (and avoid forgeries)

Formal Definition

A signature scheme is a tuple (P,A,K,S,V) where:

- P is a finite set of possible messages
- A is a finite set of possible signatures
- K (the key space) is a finite set of possible keys
- For all k , there is a signature algorithm sig_k in S and a verification algorithm ver_k in V such that
 - $\text{sig}_k : P \rightarrow A$
 - $\text{ver}_k : P \times A \rightarrow \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$
 - $\text{ver}_k(x,y) = \text{true}$ iff $y = \text{sig}_k(x)$
- A pair $(x,y) \in P \times A$ is called a signed message

Example: RSA Signatures

- The RSA cryptosystem (in fact, most public key cryptosystems) can be used as a signature scheme
- Take:
 - $\text{sig}_k(x) = d_k(x)$
 - $\text{ver}_k(x,y) = (x \stackrel{?}{=} e_k(y))$
 - Only user can sign (because decryption is private)
 - Anyone can verify (because encryption is public)

Signing and Encrypting

- Suppose you want to sign and encrypt a piece of data
 - Where encryption is public key (why is this important?)
 - Public key cryptography does not say anything about the sender
- Two possibilities:
 - First encrypt, then sign: $x \rightarrow (e_{ke}(x), \text{sig}_{ks}(e_{ke}(x)))$
 - But adversary could replace by $\text{sig}_{ke'}(e_{ke}(x))$ making it seem the message came from someone else
 - First sign, then encrypt: $x \rightarrow (e_{ke}(x), \text{sig}_{ks}(x))$
 - Better make sure signature does not leak info!

Possible Attacks

- (Alice is the signer, Oscar the attacker)
- Key-only attack
 - Oscar possesses Alice's public verification algorithm
- Known message attack
 - Oscar possesses a list of signed messages (x_i, y_i)
- Chosen message attack
 - Oscar queries Alice for the signatures of a list of messages x_i

Possible Adversarial Goals

- Total break
 - Oscar can derive Alice's private signing algorithm
- Selective forgery
 - Oscar can create a valid signature on a message chosen by someone else, with some non-negligible probability
- Existential forgery
 - Oscar can create a valid signature for at least one message

Some Comments

- Cannot have unconditional security, only computational or provable security
- Attacks above are similar to those against MACs
 - For MACs, we mostly concentrated on existential forgeries against chosen message attacks
- Existential forgeries against chosen message attacks:
 - Least damage against worst attacker
 - The minimum you should ask for

Security of RSA Signatures

- Existential forgery using a key-only attack:
 - Choose a random y
 - Compute $x = e_k(y)$
 - We have $y = \text{sig}_k(x)$, a valid signature of x
- Existential forgery using a known-message attack:
 - Suppose $y = \text{sig}_k(x)$ and $y' = \text{sig}_k(x')$
 - Can check $e_k(y y' \bmod n) = x x' \bmod n$
 - So $y y' \bmod n = \text{sig}_k(x x' \bmod n)$
- Existential forgery using a chosen message attack:
 - To get a signature for x , find $x_1 x_2 = x \bmod n$
 - Query for signatures of x_1 and x_2
 - Apply previous attack

Signatures and Hashing

- The easiest way to get around the above problems is to use a cryptographic hash function
 - Given message x
 - Produce digest $h(x)$
 - Sign digest $h(x)$ to create $(x, \text{sig}_k(h(x)))$
- To verify:
 - Get (x, y)
 - Compute $h(x)$
 - Check $\text{ver}_k(h(x), y)$

Use of Hashing for Signatures

- Existential forgery using a chosen message attack
 - Oscar finds x, x' s.t. $h(x)=h(x')$
 - He gives x to Alice and gets her to sign $h(x)$
 - Then $(x', \text{sig}_k(h(x)))$ is a valid signed message
 - Prevented by having h collision resistant
- Existential forgery using a known message attack
 - Oscar starts with (x, y) , where $y = \text{sig}_k(h(x))$
 - He computes $h(x)$ and tries to find x' s.t. $h(x') = h(x)$
 - Prevented by having h second preimage resistant
- Existential forgery using a key-only attack
 - (If signature scheme has existential forgery using a key-only attack)
 - Oscar chooses message digest and finds a forgery z for it
 - Then tries to find x s.t. $h(x)=z$
 - Prevented by having h preimage resistant

Example: ElGamal Signature Scheme

- Let p be a prime s.t. discrete log in Z_p is hard
- Let a be a primitive element in Z_p^*
- $P = Z_p^*$, $A = Z_p^* \times Z_{p-1}$
- $K = \{(p, \alpha, a, \beta) \mid \beta = \alpha^a \pmod{p}\}$

- For $k = (p, \alpha, a, \beta)$ and $t \in Z_{p-1}^*$
 - $\gamma = \alpha^t \pmod{p}$
 - $\text{sig}_k(x, t) = (\gamma, (x - a\gamma)t^{-1} \pmod{p-1})$

 - $\text{ver}_k(x, (\gamma, \delta)) = (\beta^\gamma \gamma^\delta \stackrel{?}{=} \alpha^x \pmod{p})$

- Exercise: check that $\text{ver}_k(x, \text{sig}_k(x, t)) = \text{true}$

Security of ElGamal Scheme

- Forging a signature (γ, δ) without knowing a
 - Choosing γ and finding corresponding δ amounts to finding discrete log
 - Choosing δ and finding corresponding γ amounts to solving $\beta^\gamma \gamma^\delta = \alpha^x \pmod{p}$
 - No one knows the difficulty of this problem (believed to be hard)
 - Choosing γ and δ and solving for the message amounts to finding discrete log
- Existential forgery with a key-only attack:
 - Sign a random message by choosing γ , δ and message simultaneously (p.289)

Variant 1: Schnorr Signature Scheme

- ElGamal requires a large modulus p to be secure
- A 1024 bit modulus leads to a 2048 bit signature
 - Too large for some uses of signatures (smartcards)
- Idea: use a subgroup of Z_p of size q ($q \ll p$)
- Let p be a prime s.t. discrete log is hard in Z_p^*
- Let q be a prime that divides $p-1$
- Let α in Z_p^* be a q -th root of 1 mod p
- Let $h : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow Z_q$ be a secure hash function
- $P = \{0,1\}^*$, $A = Z_q \times Z_q$
- $K = \{(p,q,\alpha,a,\beta) \mid \beta = \alpha^a \pmod{p}\}$
- For $k=(p,q,\alpha,a,\beta)$ and $1 \leq t \leq q-1$:
 - $\gamma = h(x \parallel \alpha^t \pmod{p})$
 - $\text{sig}_k(x,t) = (\gamma, t+a\gamma \pmod{q})$
 - $\text{ver}_k(x,(\gamma,\delta)) = (h(x \parallel \alpha^\gamma \beta^{-\delta} \pmod{p}) =? \gamma$

Variant 2: DSA

- DSA = Digital Signature Algorithm
- Let p be a prime s.t. discrete log is hard in Z_p
 - bitlength of $p = 0 \pmod{64}$, $512 \leq \text{bitlength} \leq 1024$
- Let q be a 160 bit prime that divides $p-1$
- Let α in Z_p^* be a q -th root of 1 mod p
- Let $h : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow Z_q$ be a secure hash function
- $P = \{0,1\}^*$, $A = Z_q^* \times Z_q^*$
- $K = \{(p,q,\alpha,a,\beta) \mid \beta = \alpha^a \pmod{p}\}$
- For $k=(p,q,\alpha,a,\beta)$ and $1 \leq t \leq q-1$:
 - $\gamma = (\alpha^t \pmod{p}) \pmod{q}$
 - $\text{sig}_k(x,t) = (\gamma, (\text{SHA1}(x)+a\gamma)t^{-1} \pmod{q})$
 - $\text{ver}_k(x,(\gamma,\delta)) = (\alpha^{e1}\beta^{e2} \pmod{p}) \pmod{q} \stackrel{?}{=} \gamma$
 - $e1 = \text{SHA1}(x)\delta^{-1} \pmod{q}$
 - $e2 = \gamma\delta^{-1} \pmod{q}$

Variant 3: Elliptic Curve DSA

- Modification of the DSA to use elliptic curves
- Instead of choosing α, β , use A and B two points on an elliptic curve over Z_p
- Roughly speaking, instead of: $(\alpha^t \bmod p) \bmod q$ use the x coordinate of the point $tA, \bmod q$
- The rest of the computation is as before

Provably Secure Signature Schemes

- The previous examples were (to the best of our knowledge) computationally secure signature scheme
- Here is a provably secure signature scheme
 - As long as only one message is signed
- Let m be a positive integer
- Let $f : Y \rightarrow Z$ be a one-way function
- $P = \{0,1\}^m$, $A = Y^m$
- Choose $y_{i,j}$ in Y at random for $1 \leq i \leq m$, $j=0,1$
- Let $z_{i,j} = f(y_{i,j})$
- A key = $2m$ y 's and $2m$ z 's (y 's private, z 's public)
 - $\text{sig}_k(x_1, \dots, x_m) = (y_{1,x_1}, \dots, y_{m,x_m})$
 - $\text{ver}_k((x_1, \dots, x_m), (a_1, \dots, a_m)) = (f(a_i) \stackrel{?}{=} z_{i,x_i})$ for all i

Argument for Security

- Argument for provable security:
 - Existential forgeries using a key-only attack
 - Assume that f is a one-way function
 - Show that if there is an existential forgery using a key-only attack, then there is an algorithm that finds preimage of random elements in the image of f with probability at least $1/2$
- We need the restriction to one signature only
 - If the attacker gets two messages signed with the same key, then can easily construct signatures for other messages
 - $(0,1,1)$ and $(1,0,1)$ can give signatures for $(0,0,1)$, $(1,1,1)$

Undeniable Signature Schemes

- Introduced by Chaum and van Antwerpen in 1989
 - A signature cannot be verified without the signer
 - Prevent signer from disavowing signature
- Let p, q primes, $p = 2q+1$, and discrete log hard in Z_p^*
- Let α in Z_p^* be an element of order q
- $G =$ multiplicative subgroup of Z_p^* of order q
- $P = A = G$
- $K = \{(p, \alpha, a, \beta) \mid \beta = \alpha^a \text{ mod } p\}$
- For key $k=(p, \alpha, a, \beta)$ and x in G :
 - $\text{sig}_k(x) = x^a \text{ mod } p$
- To verify (x, y) : pick e_1, e_2 at random in Z_q
 - Compute $c = y^{e_1} \beta^{e_2}$
 - Signer computes $d = c^{\text{inv}(a) \text{ mod } q} \text{ mod } p$ (where $\text{inv}(a) = a^{-1}$)
 - y is a valid signature iff $d = x^{e_1} \alpha^{e_2} \text{ mod } p$

Disavowal Protocol

- Can prove that Alice cannot fool Bob into accepting a fraudulent signature (except with very small probability = $1/q$)
- What if Bob wants to make sure that a claimed forgery is one?
 1. Bob chooses e_1, e_2 at random in Z_q^*
 2. Bob computes $c = y^{e_1} \beta^{e_2} \pmod p$; sends it to Alice
 3. Alice computes $d = c^{\text{inv}(a) \pmod q} \pmod p$; sends it to Bob
 4. Bob verifies $d \neq x^{e_1} \alpha^{e_2} \pmod p$
 5. Bob chooses f_1, f_2 at random, in Z_q^*
 6. Bob computes $C = y^{f_1} \beta^{f_2} \pmod p$; sends it to Alice
 7. Alice computes $D = C^{\text{inv}(a) \pmod q} \pmod p$; sends it to Bob
 8. Bob verifies $D \neq x^{f_1} \alpha^{f_2} \pmod p$
 9. Bob concludes y is a forgery iff $(d\alpha^{-e_2})^{f_1} = (D\alpha^{-f_2})^{e_1} \pmod p$

Why Does This Work?

- Alice can convince Bob that an invalid signature is a forgery
 - If $y \neq x^a \pmod p$ and Alice and Bob follow the protocol, then the check in last step succeeds
- Alice cannot make Bob believe that a valid signature is a forgery except with a very small probability
 - Intuition: since she cannot recover e_1, e_2, f_1, f_2 , she will have difficulty coming up with d and D that fail steps 4 and 8, but still pass step 9
 - See Stinson for details