

Digital Signature Schemes

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Introduction

• Digital signature schemes allow a signer S who has a public key *pk* to "sign" a message such that any other party who knows *pk* can verify the signature.



Services of digital signature

- I. Authentication: verify that the message originated from S.
- 2. Integrity: ensure message has not been modified in any way.
- Signature schemes can be viewed as the public-key counterpart of message authentication codes.

Advantages of digital signature over MAC

- The sender sign message once for all recipients.
- Third party can verify the legitimate signature on m with respect to S's public key.
- Non-repudiation: a valid signature on a message is enough to convince the judge that S indeed signed this message.
- Message authentication codes have the advantage of being roughly 2-3 orders of magnitude more efficient than digital signatures.

Adversary Goal

Existential forgery

"Given a public key *pk* generated by a signer S, we say an adversary outputs a forgery if it outputs a message *m* along with a valid signature on *m*, such that *m* was not previously signed by S"

RSA Signatures

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 $M' \equiv M \pmod{n} \rightarrow S^e \equiv M \pmod{n} \rightarrow M^{d \times e} \equiv M \pmod{n}$

Attacks of RSA-signature

- The attack works as follows: given public key $pk = \langle N, e \rangle$, choose arbitrary $\sigma \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and compute $m = \sigma^e \mod N$; then output the forgery (m, σ) .
- The adversary can chooses a random $m1 \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, sets $m2 := [m/m \mod N]$, and then obtains signatures $\sigma1, \sigma2$ on m and m_2 , respectively.
- We claim that $\sigma := \sigma 1. \sigma 2 \mod N$ is a valid signature on *m*.
- This is because:

$$\sigma^e = (\sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2)^e = (m_1^d \cdot m_2^d)^e = m_1^{ed} \cdot m_2^{ed} = m_1 m_2 = m \mod N,$$

Hashed-RSA

The basic idea is to take modify the textbook RSA signature scheme by applying some function H to the message before signing it.



Discrete Logarithm(s) (DLs)

- Fix a prime p.
- Let a, b be nonzero integers (mod p).
- The problem of finding x such that a^x ≡ b (mod p) is called the discrete logarithm problem.
- Suppose that n is the smallest integer such that aⁿ ≡ I (mod p), i.e., n=ord(a).
- By assuming 0≤x<n, we denote x=L_a(b), and call it the discrete log of b w.r.t. a (mod p)
- Ex: p=11, a=2, b=9, then x=L₂(9)=6

Schnorr's Signature

- Schnorr assumes the discrete log problem is difficult in prime order groups.
- Key generation
- **1.** Choose primes p and q, such that q is a prime factor of p 1.
- 2. Choose an integer *a*, such that $\alpha^q = 1 \mod p$. The values *a*, *p*, and *q* comprise a global public key that can be common to a group of users.
- 3. Choose a random integer s with 0 < s < q. This is the user's private key.
- 4. Calculate $v = a^{-s} \mod p$. This is the user's public key.

Schnorr's Signature

Signing

A user with private key and public key generates a signature as follows.

- 1. Choose a random integer r with 0 < r < q and compute $x = a^r \mod p$. This computation is a preprocessing stage independent of the message M to be signed.
- 2. Concatenate the message with *x* and hash the result to compute the value *e*:

 $e = \mathrm{H}(M \parallel x)$

3. Compute $y = (r + se) \mod q$. The signature consists of the pair (e, y).

Schnorr's Signature

Verification

- 1. Compute $x' = a^y v^e \mod p$.
- 2. Verify that $e = H(M \parallel x')$.

To see that the verification works, observe that

 $x' \equiv a^{y}v^{e} \equiv a^{y}a^{-se} \equiv a^{y-se} \equiv a^{r} \equiv x \pmod{p}$ Hence, H(M || x') = H(M || x).

Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- > creates a 320 bit signature
- > with 512-1024 bit security
- > smaller and faster than RSA
- > a digital signature scheme only
- > security depends on difficulty of computing discrete logarithms

DSA Key Generation

- have shared global public key values (p, q, g):
 - choose I60-bit prime number q
 - \blacktriangleright choose a large prime p with $2^{{\tt L}-1}$
 - where L= 512 to 1024 bits and is a multiple of 64
 - such that q is a 160-bit prime divisor of (p-1)
 - choose $g = h^{(p-1)/q}$
 - where $1 \le p-1$ and $h^{(p-1)/q} \mod p > 1$
- users choose private & compute public key:
 - choose random private key: x<q</p>
 - compute public key: y = g^x mod p

DSA Signature Creation

 \succ to **sign** a message M the sender:

- generates a random signature key k , $\ k{<}q$
- $\bullet\,$ nb. k must be random, be destroyed after use, and never be reused
- > then computes signature pair:
 - $r = (q^k \mod p) \mod q$
 - $s = [k^{-1}(H(M) + xr)] \mod q$

 \succ sends signature (r,s) with message M

DSA Signature Verification

- having received M & signature (r,s)
- to **verify** a signature, recipient computes:
 - $w = s^{-1} \mod q$
 - ul= [H(M)w]mod q
 - u2= (rw)mod q
 - $v = [(g^{u1} y^{u2}) \mod p] \mod q$
- \blacktriangleright if v=r then signature is verified

DSS Overview





$$\begin{split} s \ &=\ f_1(H(M), k, x, r, q) \ &=\ (k^{-1}\ (H(M) + xr))\ mod\ q \\ \\ r \ &=\ f_2(k, p, q, g) \ &=\ (g^k\ mod\ p)\ mod\ q \end{split}$$

(a) Signing



 $w = f_3(s', q) = (s')^{-1} \mod q$

(b) Verifying

Correctness of DSA

$$s=k^{-1}(H(m)+xr) mod q$$

Thus

$$egin{aligned} &k\equiv H(m)s^{-1}+xrs^{-1}\ &\equiv H(m)w+xrw\pmod{q} \end{aligned}$$

Since g has order $q \pmod{p}$ we have

$$egin{aligned} g^k &\equiv g^{H(m)w}g^{xrw} \ &\equiv g^{H(m)w}y^{rw} \ &\equiv g^{u_1}y^{u_2} \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

Finally, the correctness of DSA follows from

$$egin{aligned} r &= (g^k egin{aligned} & ext{mod} & p \end{pmatrix} egin{aligned} & ext{mod} & q \ &= (g^{u_1}y^{u_2} egin{aligned} & ext{mod} & p \end{pmatrix} egin{aligned} & ext{mod} & q \ &= v \end{aligned}$$

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Thanks for listening