

# Digital Signatures

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- The most important development from the work on public-key cryptography is the digital signature.
- Message authentication protects two parties who exchange messages from any third party. However, it does not protect the two parties against each other denying creation of a message.
- A digital signature is similar to the handwritten signature, and provides a set of security capabilities that would be difficult to implement in any other way. It must have the following properties:
  - It must verify the author and the date and time of the signature
  - It must to authenticate the contents
  - It must be verifiable by third parties, to resolve disputes

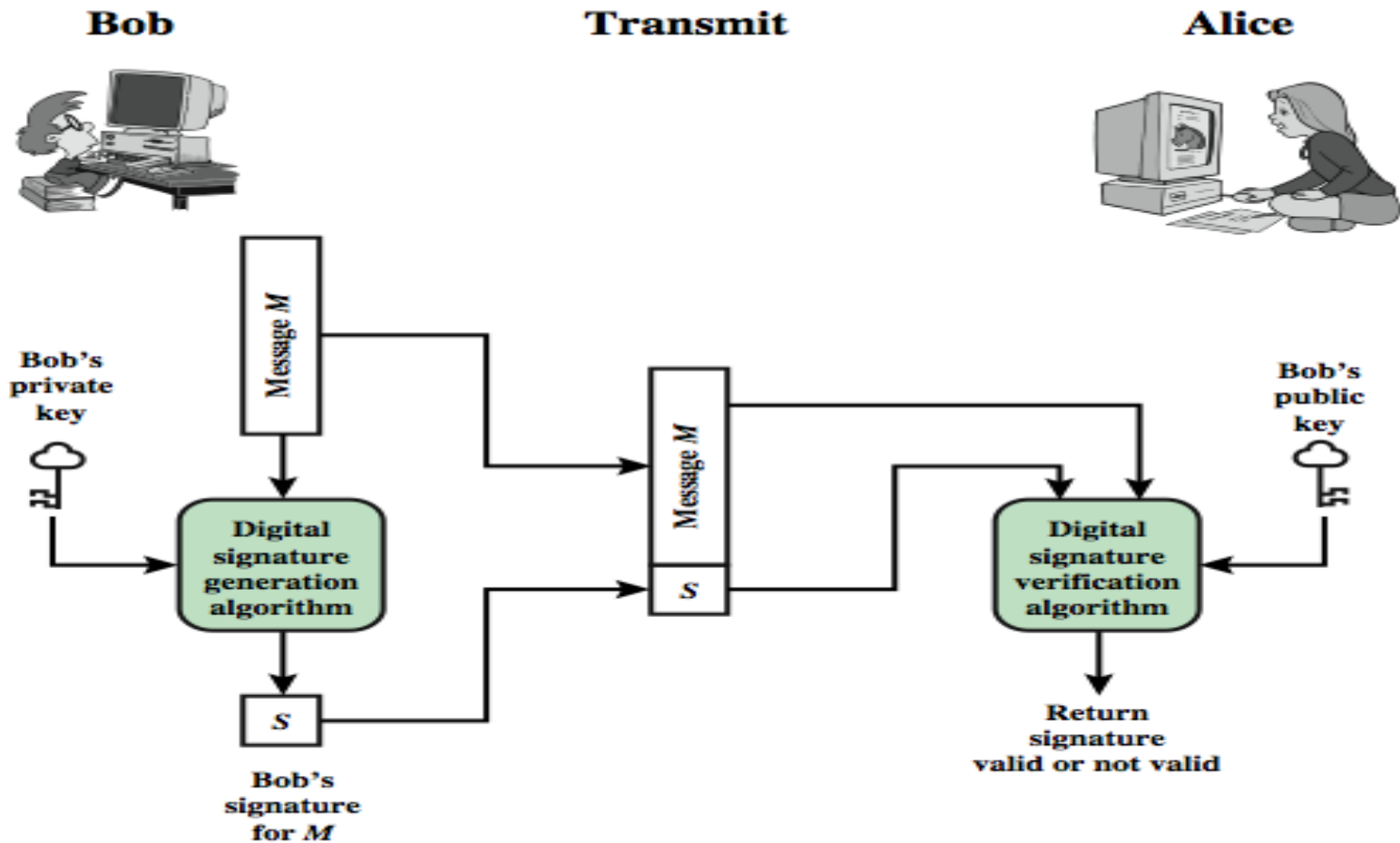
Thus, the digital signature function includes the authentication function.

# Digital Signatures

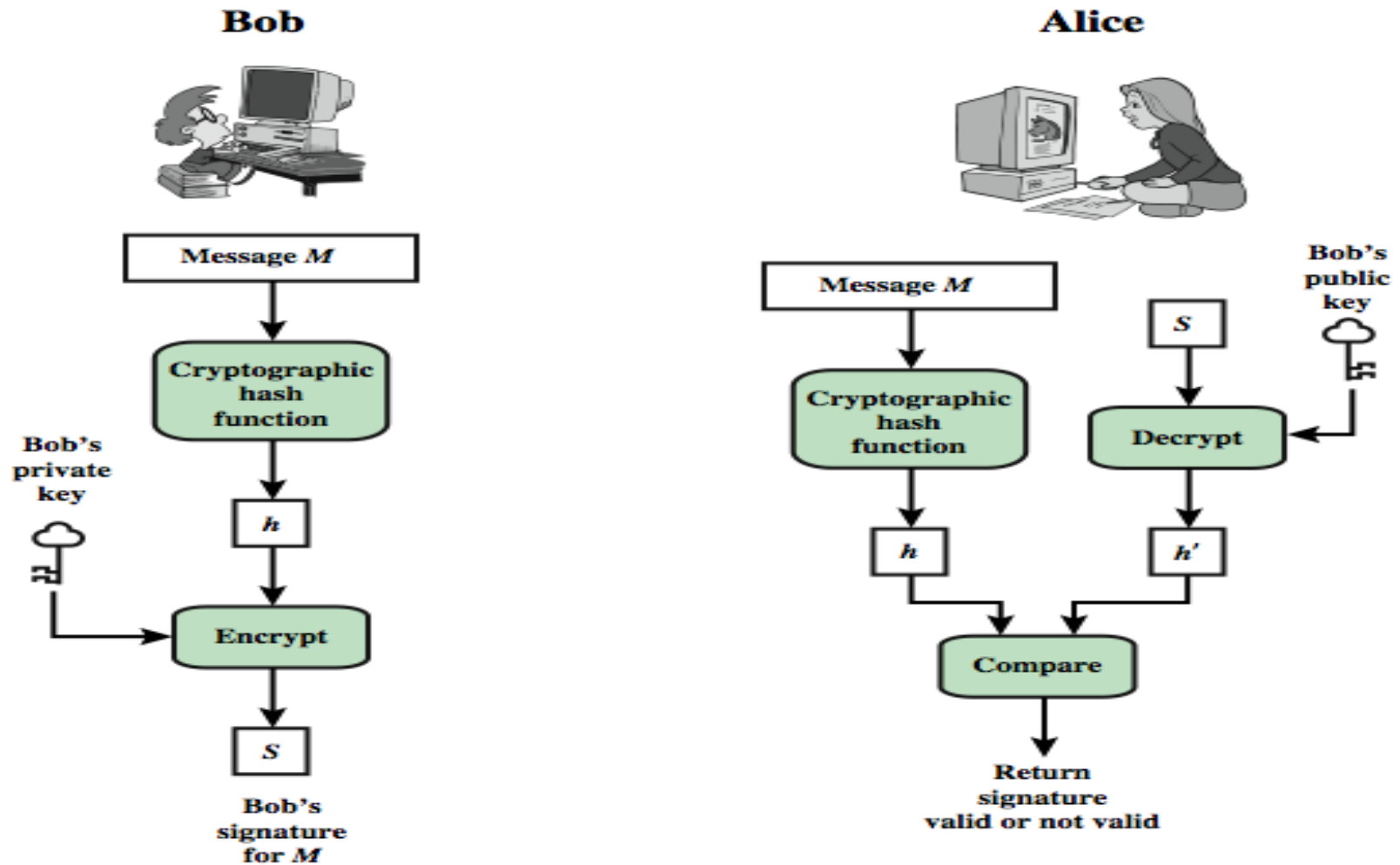
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- digital signatures provide the ability to:
  - verify author, date & time of signature
  - authenticate message contents
  - be verified by third parties to resolve disputes
- hence include authentication function with additional capabilities

# Digital Signature Model



# Digital Signature Model



# Attacks and Forgeries

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- attacks
  - key-only attack
  - known message attack
  - generic chosen message attack
  - directed chosen message attack
  - adaptive chosen message attack
- break success levels
  - total break
  - selective forgery
  - existential forgery

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## Types of attacks:

Note: **A** denotes the user whose signature is being attacked and **C** denotes the attacker.

- **Key-only attack:** **C** only knows **A**'s public key.
- **Known message attack:** **C** is given access to a set of messages and signatures.
- **Generic chosen message attack:** **C** chooses a list of messages before attempting to break **A**'s signature scheme, independent of **A**'s public key. **C** then obtains from **A** valid signatures for the chosen messages. The attack is generic because it does not depend on **A**'s public key.
- **Directed chosen message attack:** Similar to the generic attack, except that the list of messages is chosen after **C** knows **A**'s public key but before signatures are seen.
- **Adaptive chosen message attack:** This means the **C** may request signatures of messages that depend on previously obtained message-signature pairs.

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## Break success levels:

- **Total break:** C determines A's private key.
- **Universal forgery:** C finds an efficient signing algorithm that provides an equivalent way of constructing signatures on arbitrary messages.
- **Selective forgery:** C forges a signature for a particular message chosen by C.
- **Existential forgery:** C forges a signature for at least one message. C has no control over the message. ~~Consequently this forgery may only be a minor nuisance to A.~~

# Digital Signature Requirements

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- must depend on the message signed
- must use information unique to sender
  - to prevent both forgery and denial
- must be relatively easy to produce
- must be relatively easy to recognize & verify
- be computationally infeasible to forge
  - with new message for existing digital signature
  - with fraudulent digital signature for given message
- be practical save digital signature in storage



# Direct Digital Signatures Scheme

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- Direct Digital Signatures involve the direct application of public-key algorithms involving only the communicating parties (sender & receiver)
- assumed receiver has sender's public-key
- A digital signature may be formed by encrypting the entire message with the sender's private key, **or** by encrypting a hash code of the message with the sender's private key.
- Confidentiality can be provided by further encrypting the entire message plus signature using either public or private key schemes.
- can encrypt using receivers public-key
- important that sign first **then** encrypt message & signature
- security depends on sender's private-key

# ElGamal Digital Signatures

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- It's related to D-H
    - so uses exponentiation in a finite (Galois)
    - with security based difficulty of computing discrete logarithms, as in D-H
  - use private key for encryption (signing)
  - uses public key for decryption (verification)
  - The global elements of ElGamal are a prime number  $q$  and  $\alpha$ , which is a primitive root of  $q$ .
  - each user (e.g., A) generates their key
    - chooses a secret key (number):  $1 < x_A < q-1$
    - compute their public key:  $y_A = \alpha^{x_A} \bmod q$
1. Generate a random integer  $X_A$ , such that  $1 < X_A < q - 1$ .
  2. Compute  $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \bmod q$ .
  3. A's private key is  $X_A$ ; A's public key is  $\{q, \alpha, Y_A\}$ .

# ElGamal Digital Signature

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- Alice signs a message  $M$  to Bob by computing
  - the hash  $m = H(M)$ ,  $0 \leq m \leq (q-1)$
  - chose random integer  $K$  with  $1 \leq K \leq (q-1)$  and  $\gcd(K, q-1)=1$
  - compute temporary key:  $S_1 = \alpha^K \bmod q$
  - compute  $K^{-1}$  the inverse of  $K \bmod (q-1)$
  - compute the value:  $S_2 = K^{-1}(m - x_A S_1) \bmod (q-1)$
  - signature is:  $(S_1, S_2)$

To sign a message  $M$ , user  $A$  first computes the hash  $m = H(M)$ , such that  $m$  is an integer in the range  $0 \leq m \leq q - 1$ .  $A$  then forms a digital signature as follows.

1. Choose a random integer  $K$  such that  $1 \leq K \leq q - 1$  and  $\gcd(K, q - 1) = 1$ . That is,  $K$  is relatively prime to  $q - 1$ .
2. Compute  $S_1 = \alpha^K \bmod q$ . Note that this is the same as the computation of  $C_1$  for Elgamal encryption.
3. Compute  $K^{-1} \bmod (q - 1)$ . That is, compute the inverse of  $K$  modulo  $q - 1$ .
4. Compute  $S_2 = K^{-1}(m - X_A S_1) \bmod (q - 1)$ .
5. The signature consists of the pair  $(S_1, S_2)$ .

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- any user B can verify the signature by computing
$$V1 = \alpha^m \bmod q$$
$$V2 = y_A S_1 S_2 \bmod q$$
signature is valid if  $V1 = V2$

Any user B can verify the signature as follows.

1. Compute  $V_1 = \alpha^m \bmod q$ .
2. Compute  $V_2 = (Y_A)^{S_1} (S_2) \bmod q$ .

The signature is valid if  $V_1 = V_2$ . ~~Let us demonstrate that this is so. Assume~~

# ElGamal Signature Example

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- use field  $\text{GF}(19)$   $q=19$  and  $a=10$
- Alice computes her key:
  - A chooses  $x_A=16$  & computes  $y_A=10^{16} \bmod 19 = 4$
- Alice signs message with hash  $m=14$  as  $(3,4)$ :
  - choosing random  $K=5$  which has  $\gcd(18,5)=1$
  - computing  $S_1 = 10^5 \bmod 19 = 3$
  - finding  $K^{-1} \bmod (q-1) = 5^{-1} \bmod 18 = 11$
  - computing  $S_2 = 11(14 - 16 \cdot 3) \bmod 18 = 4$
- any user B can verify the signature by computing
  - $V_1 = 10^{14} \bmod 19 = 16$
  - $V_2 = 4^3 \cdot 3^4 = 5184 = 16 \bmod 19$
  - since  $16 = 16$  signature is valid

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For example, let us start with the prime field  $\text{GF}(19)$ ; that is,  $q = 19$ . It has primitive roots  $\{2, 3, 10, 13, 14, 15\}$ , as shown in Table 2.7. We choose  $\alpha = 10$ .

Alice generates a key pair as follows:

1. Alice chooses  $X_A = 16$ .
2. Then  $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \bmod q = 10^{16} \bmod 19 = 4$ .
3. Alice's private key is 16; Alice's public key is  $\{q, \alpha, Y_A\} = \{19, 10, 4\}$ .

Suppose Alice wants to sign a message with hash value  $m = 14$ .

1. Alice chooses  $K = 5$ , which is relatively prime to  $q - 1 = 18$ .
2.  $S_1 = \alpha^K \bmod q = 10^5 \bmod 19 = 3$  (see Table 2.7).
3.  $K^{-1} \bmod (q - 1) = 5^{-1} \bmod 18 = 11$ .
4.  $S_2 = K^{-1} (m - X_A S_1) \bmod (q - 1) = 11 (14 - (16)(3)) \bmod 18 = -374 \bmod 18 = 4$ .

Bob can verify the signature as follows.

1.  $V_1 = \alpha^m \bmod q = 10^{14} \bmod 19 = 16$ .
2.  $V_2 = (Y_A)^{S_1} (S_2)^{S_2} \bmod q = (4^3)(3^4) \bmod 19 = 5184 \bmod 19 = 16$ .

Thus, the signature is valid because  $V_1 = V_2$ .

# Schnorr Digital Signatures

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- also uses exponentiation in a finite (Galois)
  - security based on discrete logarithms, as in D-H
- minimizes message dependent computation
  - multiplying a  $2n$ -bit integer with an  $n$ -bit integer
- main work can be done in idle time
- have using a prime modulus  $p$ 
  - $p-1$  has a prime factor  $q$  of appropriate size
  - typically  $p$  1024-bit and  $q$  160-bit numbers

# Schnorr Key Setup

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- choose suitable primes  $p, q$
  - choose  $a$  such that  $aq = 1 \pmod p$
  - $(a, p, q)$  are global parameters for all
2. Choose an integer  $a$ , such that  $a^q = 1 \pmod p$ . The values  $a, p$ , and  $q$  comprise a global public key that can be common to a group of users.
- each user (e.g., A) generates a key
    - chooses a secret key (number):  $0 < s < q$
    - compute their public key:  $v = a^{-s} \pmod p$
3. Choose a random integer  $s$  with  $0 < s < q$ . This is the user's private key.
4. Calculate  $v = a^{-s} \pmod p$ . This is the user's public key.



# Schnorr Signature

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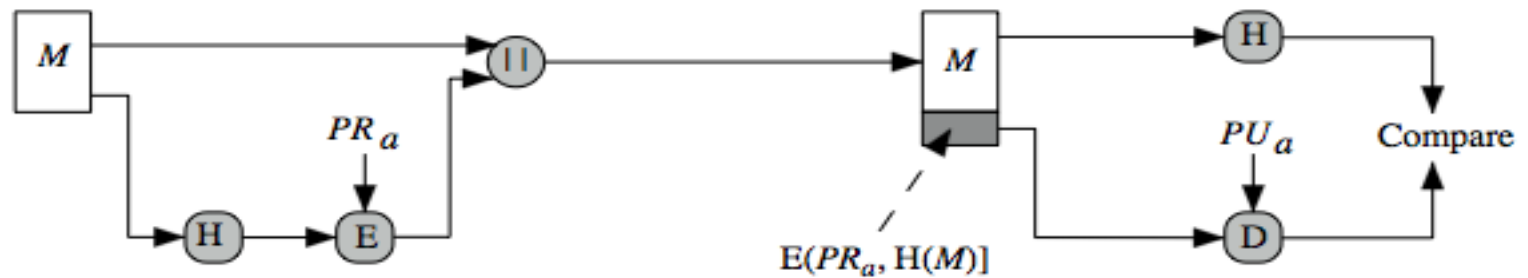
- user signs message by
  - choosing random  $r$  with  $0 < r < q$  and computing  $x = ar \bmod p$
  - concatenate message with  $x$  and hash result to computing:  
 $e = H(M \parallel x)$  *Choose a random integer  $r$  with  $0 < r < q$  and compute  $x = ar \bmod p$*
  - computing:  $y = (r + se) \bmod q$
  - signature is pair  $(e, y)$
- any other user can verify the signature as follows:
  - computing:  $x' \equiv a^y v^e \bmod p$
  - verifying that:  $H(M \parallel x') = H(M \parallel x)$ .

# Digital Signature Standard (DSS)

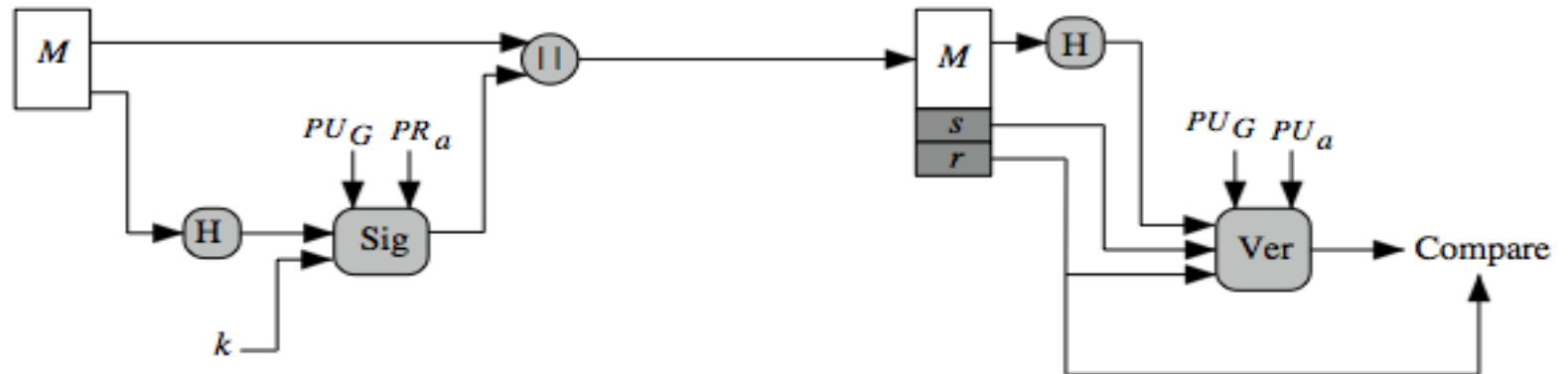
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- US Government approved signature scheme
- designed by NIST & NSA in early 90's
- published as FIPS-186 in 1991
- revised in 1993, 1996 & then 2000
- uses the SHA hash algorithm
- DSS is the standard, DSA is the algorithm
- FIPS 186-2 (2000) includes RSA & elliptic curve signature variants
- DSA is digital signature only unlike RSA
- is a public-key technique

# DSS vs RSA Signatures



(a) RSA Approach



(b) DSS Approach

# Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

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- 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
- variant of ElGamal & Schnorr schemes

# DSA Key Generation

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- have shared global public key values (p,q,g):
  - choose 160-bit prime number q
  - choose a large prime p with  $2^{L-1} < p < 2^L$

p prime number where  $2^{L-1} < p < 2^L$

- choose  $g = h^{(p-1)/q}$   
 $g = h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p$

- users choose private & compute public key:
  - choose random private key:  $x < q$
  - compute public key:  $y = g^x \bmod p$

$$y = g^x \bmod p$$

# DSA Signature Creation

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- to sign a message  $M$  the sender:
  - generates a random signature key  $k$ ,  $k < q$
  - $k$  must be random, be destroyed after use, and never be reused
- then computes signature pair:
  - $r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$
  - $s = [k^{-1}(H(M) + xr)] \bmod q$
- sends signature  $(r,s)$  with message  $M$

## Signing

$$r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$$

$$s = [k^{-1} (H(M) + xr)] \bmod q$$

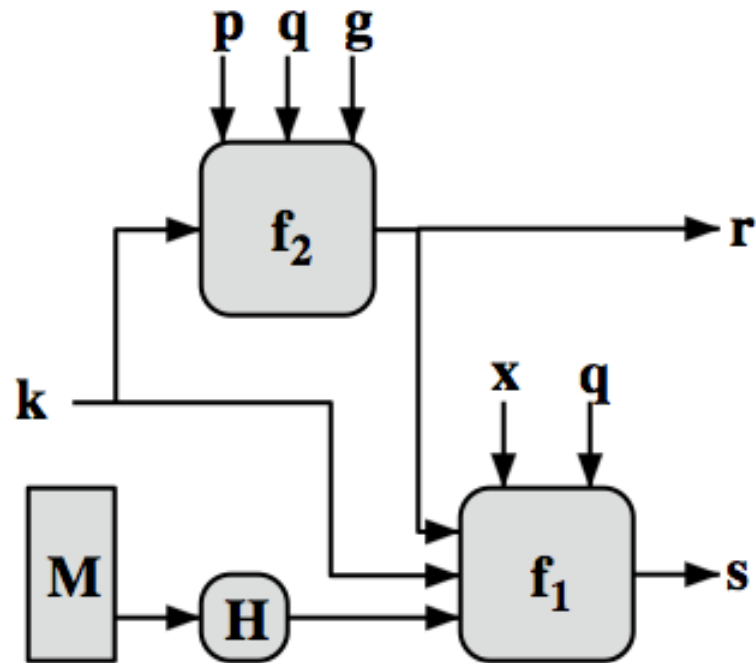
$$\text{Signature} = (r, s)$$

# DSA Signature Verification

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- having received  $M$  & signature  $(r,s)$
- to verify a signature, recipient computes:
  - $w = s^{-1} \bmod q$   $w = (s')^{-1} \bmod q$
  - $u_1 = [H(M)w] \bmod q$   $u_1 = [H(M')w] \bmod q$
  - $u_2 = (rw) \bmod q$   $u_2 = (r')w \bmod q$
  - $v = [(gu_1 yu_2) \bmod p] \bmod q$   $v = [(g^{u_1} y^{u_2}) \bmod p] \bmod q$
- if  $v=r$  then signature is verified
- ~~➤ see Appendix A for details of proof why~~

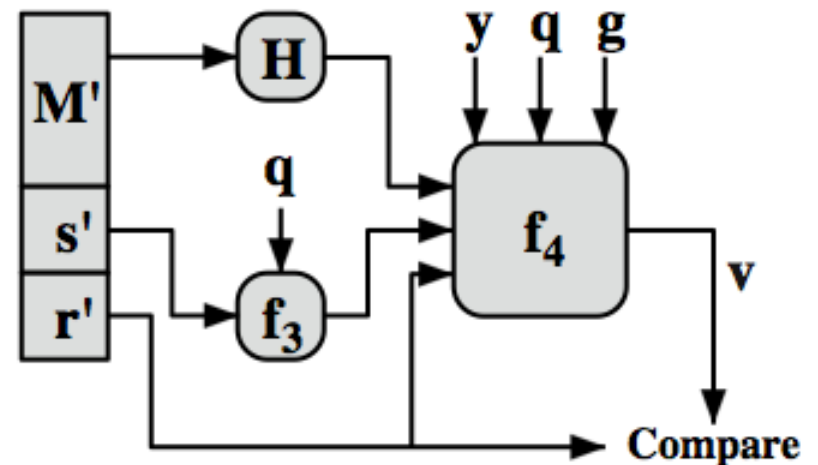
# DSS Overview



$$s = f_1(H(M), k, x, r, q) = (k^{-1} (H(M) + xr)) \bmod q$$

$$r = f_2(k, p, q, g) = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$$

**(a) Signing**



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

$$v = f_4(y, q, g, H(M'), w, r')$$

$$= ((g^{H(M')w} \bmod q) y^{r'w} \bmod q) \bmod p \bmod q$$

**(b) Verifying**