### INFORMATION SECURITY (2170709)

# Digital Signature

### Digital Signature

- A Digital Signature is an authentication mechanism that enables the creator of a message to attach a code that acts as a signature.
- Message authentication protects two parties who exchange messages from any third party.
- However, it does not protect the two parties against each other.
  - Receiver B may forge a different message and claim that it came from sender A.
  - Sender A can deny sending the message.

# Requirements for Digital Signature

- The signature must be a bit pattern that depends on the message being signed.
- The signature must use some information unique to the sender, to prevent both forgery and denial.
- It must be relatively easy to produce the digital signature.
- It must be relatively easy to recognize and verify the digital signature.

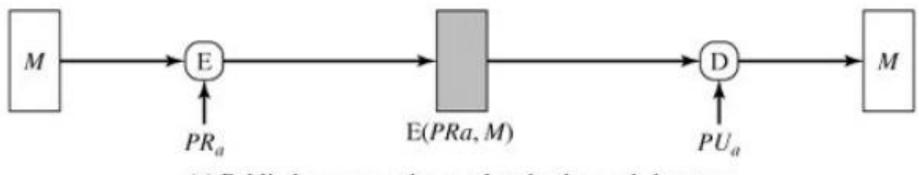
# Requirements for Digital Signature

- It must be computationally infeasible to forge a digital signature, either by constructing a new message for an existing digital signature or by constructing a fraudulent digital signature for a given message.
- It must be practical to retain a copy of the digital signature in storage.

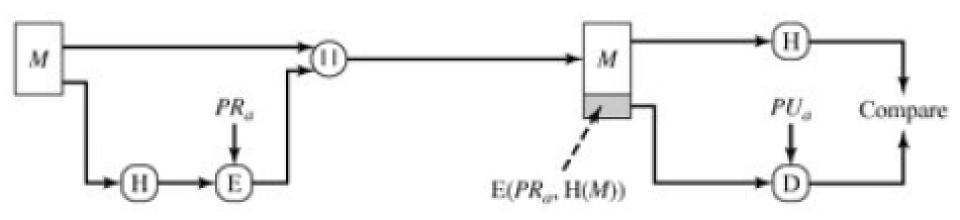
### Digital Signature

- A variety of approaches have been proposed for digital signature.
- These approaches fall into two categories:
  - Direct Digital Signature
  - Arbitrated Digital Signature

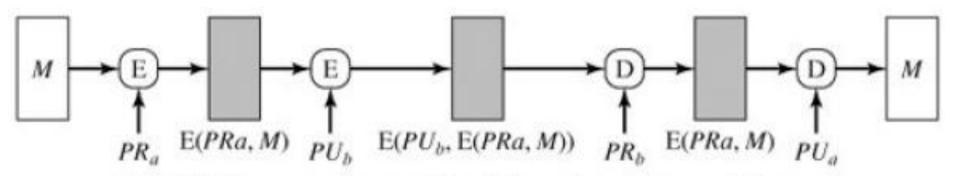
- Involves only the two communicating parties (source and destination)
- A digital signature may be formed by encrypting the entire message with the sender's private key or by encrypting a hash code of the message with the sender's private key.



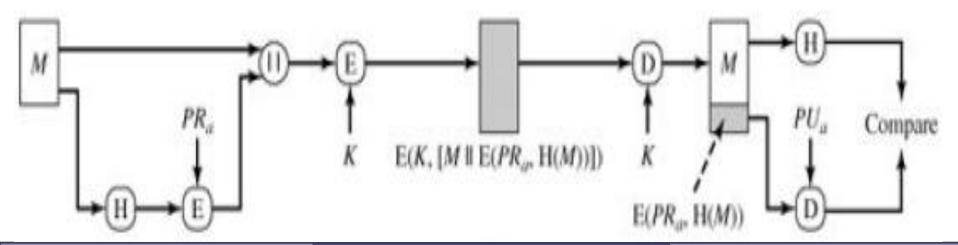
(c) Public-key encryption: authentication and signature



 Confidentiality can be provided by further encrypting the entire message plus signature with either the receiver's public key (public-key encryption) or a shared secret key (symmetric encryption);



(d) Public-key encryption: confidentiality, authentication, and signature

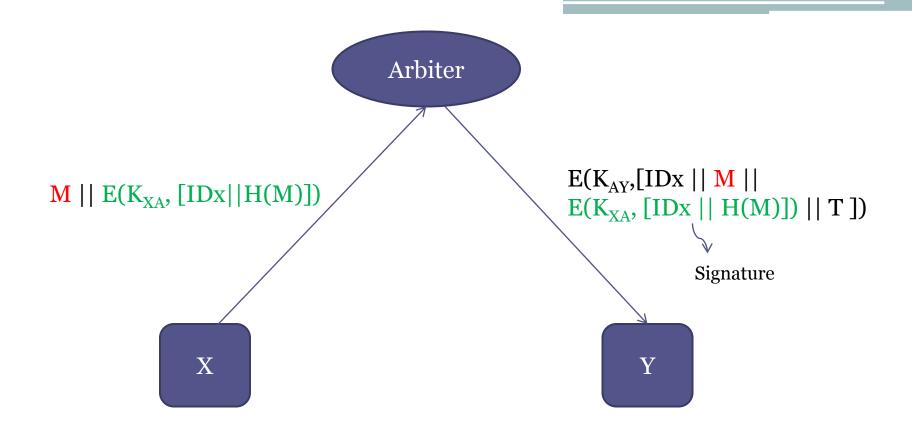


- All direct schemes described so far share a common weakness. The validity of the scheme depends on the security of the sender's private key.
- If a sender later wishes to deny sending a particular message, the sender can claim that the private key was lost or stolen.
- Administrative controls relating to the security of private keys can be employed to thwart or at least weaken this ploy.

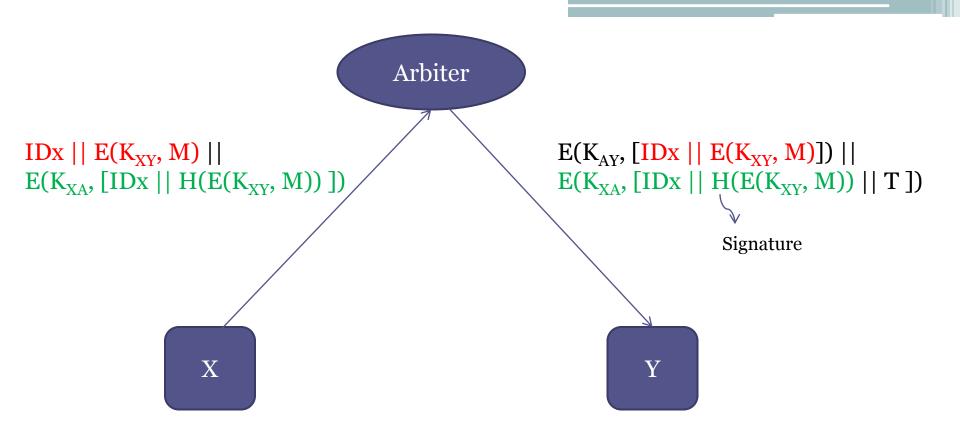
- Every signed message from a sender X to a receiver Y goes first to an arbiter A, who subjects the message and its signature to a number of tests to check its origin and content.
- The message is then dated and sent to Y with an indication that it has been verified to the satisfaction of the arbiter.

### Table 13.1. Arbitrated Digital Signature Techniques

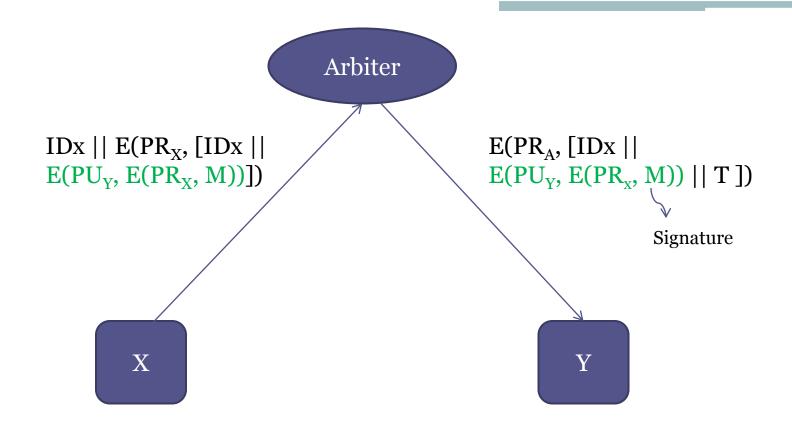
- (1)  $X \longrightarrow A$ :  $M \parallel E(K_{x_0}, [ID_X \parallel H(M)])$
- (2)  $A \longrightarrow Y: E(K_{av}, [ID_X||M||E(K_{xa}, [ID_X||H(M)])||T])$ 
  - (a) Conventional Encryption, Arbiter Sees Message
- (1)  $X \longrightarrow A: ID_X ||E(K_{xv}, M)||E(K_{xa}, [ID_X ||H(E(K_{xv}, M))])$
- (2)  $A \longrightarrow Y: E(K_{av},[ID_X||E(K_{xv},M)])||E(K_{xa},[ID_X||H(E(K_{xv},M))||T])$ 
  - (b) Conventional Encryption, Arbiter Does Not See Message
- (1)  $X \longrightarrow A: ID_X ||E(PR_x, [ID_X ||E(PU_v, E(PR_x, M))])$
- (2) A  $\longrightarrow$  Y: E(PR<sub>a</sub>, [ID<sub>X</sub>||E(PU<sub>v</sub>, E(PR<sub>x</sub>, M))||T])
  - (c) Public-Key Encryption, Arbiter Does Not See Message



Arbitrated Digital Signature: Conventional Encryption: Arbiter sees the Message



Arbitrated Digital Signature: Conventional Encryption: Arbiter does not see the Message



Arbitrated Digital Signature: Public Key Encryption: Arbiter does not see the Message

- In the first scenario, symmetric encryption is used. It is assumed that the sender X and the arbiter A share a secret key  $K_{xa}$  and that A and Y share secret key  $K_{av}$ .
- X constructs a message M and computes its hash value H(M). Then X transmits the message plus a signature to A. The signature consists of an identifier IDx of X plus the hash value, all encrypted using  $K_{xa}$ .
- A decrypts the signature and checks the hash value to validate the message.
- Then A transmits a message to Y, encrypted with  $K_{ay}$ . The message includes IDx, the original message from X, the signature, and a timestamp.
- Y can decrypt this to recover the message and the signature. The timestamp informs Y that this message is timely and not a replay. Y can store M and the signature.

- Second scenario provides the arbitration as before but also assures confidentiality.
- In this case it is assumed that X and Y share the secret key K<sub>xy</sub>.
- Now, X transmits an identifier, a copy of the message encrypted with  $K_{xv}$ , and a signature to A.
- The signature consists of the identifier plus the hash value of the encrypted message, all encrypted using  $K_{xa}$ .
- A decrypts the signature and checks the hash value to validate the message. In this case, A is working only with the encrypted version of the message and is prevented from reading it.
- A then transmits everything that it received from X, plus a timestamp, all encrypted with  $K_{av}$ , to Y.

- Third scenario uses a public-key scheme,
- In this case, X double encrypts a message M first with X's private key, PRx and then with Y's public key, PUy.
- This signed message, together with X's identifier, is encrypted again with PRx and, together with IDX, is sent to A.
- The inner, double-encrypted message is secure from the arbiter (and everyone else except Y). However, A can decrypt the outer encryption to assure that the message must have come from X (because only X has PRx).
- A checks to make sure that X's private/public key pair is still valid and, if so, verifies the message.
- Then A transmits a message to Y, encrypted with PRa. The message includes IDX, the double-encrypted message, and a timestamp.

- This third scheme has a number of advantages over the preceding two schemes.
- First, no information is shared among the parties before communication, preventing alliances to defraud.
- Second, no incorrectly dated message can be sent, even if PRx is compromised, assuming that PRa is not compromised.
- Finally, the content of the message from X to Y is secret from A and anyone else.

## Euclidean/Euclid's Algorithm

- An efficient way to find the Greatest Common Divisor GCD(a, b)
- Theorem:
  - For any non negative integers a and b,  $GCD(a, b) = GCD(b, a \mod b) \quad (a>b)$

• GCD(a, 0) = |a|

## Euclidean/Euclid's Algorithm

```
• Ex: GCD (1970, 1066)
gcd(1066, 904)
                                1970 = 1 \times 1066 + 904
gcd(904, 162)
                                1066 = 1 \times 904 + 162
gcd(162, 94)
                                904 = 5 \times 162 + 94
gcd(94, 68)
                                162 = 1 \times 94 + 68
gcd(68, 26)
                                94 = 1 \times 68 + 26
gcd(26, 16)
                                68 = 2 \times 26 + 16
gcd(16, 10)
                                26 = 1 \times 16 + 10
gcd(10, 6)
                                16 = 1 \times 10 + 6
gcd(6,4)
                                10 = 1 \times 6 + 4
gcd(4, 2)
                                6 = 1 \times 4 + 2
gcd(2,0)
                                4 = 2 \times 2 + 0
= 2
```

### Euclidean/Euclid's Algorithm

```
• Ex: GCD (55, 22)

= GCD(22, 55 mod 22) = GCD (22, 22*2 + 11)

= GCD (22, 11)

= GCD (11, 22 mod 11) = GCD (22, 11*2 + 0)

= GCD (11, 0)

= 11
```

- The extended Euclidean algorithm is an extension to the Euclidean algorithm. Besides finding the greatest common divisor of integers a and b, it also finds integers x and y that satisfy  $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$ .
- The extended Euclidean algorithm is particularly useful when *a* and *b* are coprime, since *x* is the multiplicative inverse of *a mod b*, and *y* is the multiplicative inverse of *b mod a*.

### EXTENDED EUCLID(m, b)

- 1. (A1, A2, A3)=(1, 0, m);(B1, B2, B3)=(0, 1, b)
- 2. if B3 = 0 return A3 = gcd(m, b); no inverse
- 3. if B3 = 1 return B3 = gcd(m, b); B2 =  $b^{-1} \mod m$
- 4. Q = A3 div B3
- 5. (T1, T2, T3) = (A1 QB1, A2 QB2, A3 QB3)
- 6. (A1, A2, A3) = (B1, B2, B3)
- 7. (B1, B2, B3) = (T1, T2, T3)
- 8. goto 2

Extended Euclid(26, 7)

	Q	A1	A2	A3	B1	B2	В3	
270		1	0	26	0	1	7	
	→ 3	<b>0</b> B1	1B2	<b>7</b> B3	<b>1</b> A1-QB	1 —3 A2-	QB2 <b>5</b> A3-QB3	
	1	1	-3	5	-1	4	2	
	2	-1	4	2	3	-11	1 ← GCD(2	26,7)
						y Inv	erse of 7 mod 26	

- x = 3, y = (-11)
- ax+by = (26\*3)+(7\*-11) = 1 = gcd(26, 7) = B3
- Inverse of 7 mod 26:  $7^{-1}$  mod 26  $\equiv$  (-11) mod 26
- -11 is multiplicative inverse of 7 mod 26

Extended Euclid(49, 37)

Q	A1	A2	A3	B1	B2	В3
	1	0	49	0	1	37
1	0	1	37	1	-1	12
3	1	-1	12	-3	4	1

• 
$$x = -3, y=4$$

• 
$$ax+by = (49*-3)+(37*4) = 1 = \gcd(49, 37) = B3$$

- $37^{-1} \equiv 4 \mod 49$  or  $4 \equiv 37^{-1} \mod 49$
- 4 is multiplicative inverse of 37 mod 49

Extended Euclid(1759, 550)

Q	<b>A1</b>	A2	A3	B1	B2	В3
	1	0	1759	0	1	550
3	0	1	550	1	-3	109
5	1	-3	109	-5	16	5
21	-5	16	5	106	-339	4
-1	106	-339	4	-111	355	1

- x = -111, y = 355
- $ax+by = (1759*-111)+(550*355) = 1 = \gcd(1759, 550) = B3$
- $550^{-1} \equiv 355 \mod 1759$  or  $355 \equiv 550^{-1} \mod 1759$
- 355 is multiplicative inverse of 550 mod 1759

### NIST Digital Signature Algorithm

- National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)
- Digital Signature Approaches
  - RSA
  - Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

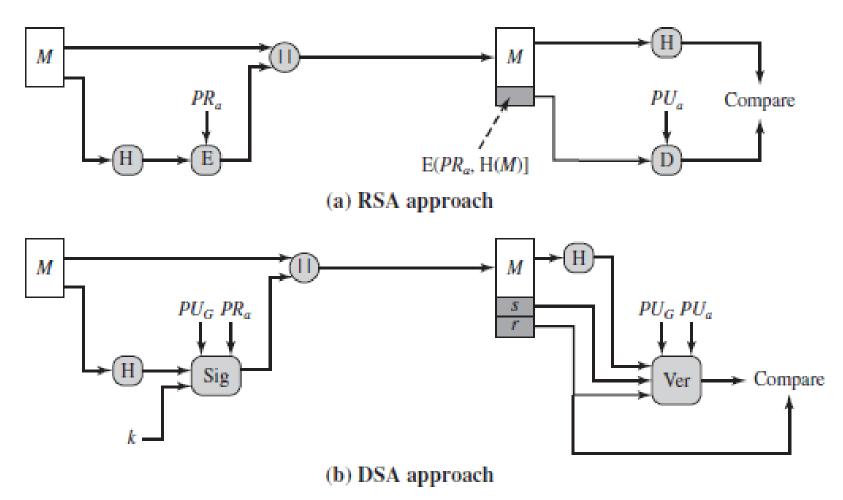


Figure 13.3 Two Approaches to Digital Signatures

- In the RSA approach, the message to be signed is input to a hash function that produces a secure hash code of fixed length.
- This hash code is then encrypted using the sender's private key to form the signature.
- Both the message and the signature are then transmitted.
- The recipient takes the message and produces a hash code. The recipient also decrypts the signature using the sender's public key. If the calculated hash code matches the decrypted signature, the signature is accepted as valid.
- Because only the sender knows the private key, only the sender could have produced a valid signature.

- In DSS (Digital Signature Standard) approach, The hash code is provided as input to a signature function along with a random number k generated for this particular signature.
- The signature function also depends on the sender's private key (PRa) and a global public key ( $PU_G$ ).
- The result is a signature consisting of two components, labeled *s* and *r*.

- At the receiving end, the hash code of the incoming message is generated.
- This plus the signature is input to a verification function. The verification function also depends on the global public key as well as the sender's public key (PUa).
- The output of the verification function is a value that is equal to the signature component *r* if the signature is valid.
- The signature function is such that only the sender, with knowledge of the private key, could have produced the valid signature.

### NIST Digital Signature Algorithm

• The DSA is based on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithms

### Global Public-Key Components

- p prime number where 2<sup>L-1</sup> L</sup> for 512 ≤ L ≤ 1024 and L a multiple of 64; i.e., bit length of between 512 and 1024 bits in increments of 64 bits
- q prime divisor of (p − 1), where 2<sup>N-1</sup> < q < 2<sup>N</sup> i.e., bit length of N bits
- g =  $h(p-1)/q \mod p$ , where h is any integer with 1 < h < (p-1)such that  $h^{(p-1)/q} \mod p > 1$

### User's Private Key

x random or pseudorandom integer with 0 < x < q

#### User's Public Key

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

### User's Per-Message Secret Number

k random or pseudorandom integer with 0 < k < q

### Figure 13.4 The Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

#### Signing

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

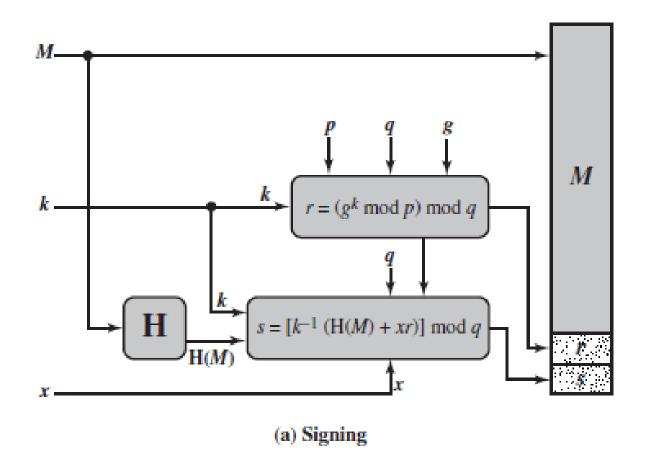
$$s = [k^{-1} (H(M) + xr)] \mod q$$
Signature =  $(r, s)$ 

### Verifying

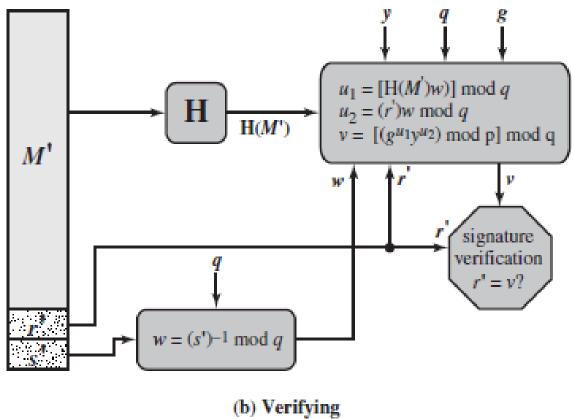
$$w = (s')^{-1} \mod q$$
  
 $u_1 = [H(M')w] \mod q$   
 $u_2 = (r')w \mod q$   
 $v = [(g^{u1} y^{u2}) \mod p] \mod q$   
TEST:  $v = r'$ 

$$M$$
 = message to be signed  
 $H(M)$  = hash of M using SHA-1  
 $M', r', s'$  = received versions of  $M, r, s$ 

# Digital Signature Algorithm



## Digital Signature Algorithm



- There are three parameters that are public and can be common to a group of users.
- A 160-bit prime number q is chosen.
- Next, a prime number p is selected with a length between 512 and 1024 bits such that q divides (p-1).
- Finally, g is chosen to be of the form  $h^{(p-1)/q} \mod p$  where h is an integer between 1 and (p-1) with the restriction that g must be greater than 1.

- With these numbers in hand, each user selects a private key and generates a public key.
- The private key x must be a number from 1 to (q-1) and should be chosen randomly or pseudo randomly.
- The public key is calculated from the private key as  $y = g^x \mod p$ .
- The calculation of y given x is relatively straightforward.
- However, given the public key *y*, it is believed to be computationally infeasible to determine *x*, which is the discrete logarithm of *y* to the base *g*, *mod p*.

- To create a signature, a user calculates two quantities, r and s, that are functions of
  - the public key components (p, q, g),
  - the user's private key (x),
  - the hash code of the message, H(M), and
  - an additional integer *k* that should be generated randomly or pseudo randomly and be unique for each signing.

- At the receiving end, verification is performed using the formulas shown in Figure.
- The receiver generates a quantity *v* that is a function of
  - the public key components,
  - the sender's public key, and
  - the hash code of the incoming message
- If this quantity matches the *r* component of the signature, then the signature is validated.

- The Elgamal signature scheme involves the use of the private key for encryption and the public key for decryption
- For a prime number q, if  $\alpha$  is a primitive root of q, then  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha^2$ , ...,  $\alpha^{q-1}$  are distinct (mod q).
- It can be shown that, if  $\alpha$  is a primitive root of q, then
  - □ 1. For any integer m,  $\alpha^m \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$  if and only if  $m \equiv 0 \pmod{q-1}$ .
  - 2. For any integers,  $i, j, \alpha^i \equiv \alpha^j \pmod{q}$  if and only if  $i \equiv j \pmod{q-1}$ .

- The global elements of **Elgamal digital signature** are a prime number q and  $\alpha$ , which is a primitive root of q.
- User A generates a private/public key pair as follows.
  - 1. Generate a random integer  $X_A$ , such that  $1 < X_A < q 1$ .
  - 2. Compute  $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \mod q$ .
  - □ 3. A's private key is  $X_A$ ; A's pubic key is  $\{q, \alpha, Y_A\}$ .

- To sign a message M, user A first computes the hash m = H(M), such that m is an integer in the range  $0 \le m \le q 1$ .
- A then forms a digital signature as follows.
  - □ 1. Choose a random integer K such that  $1 \le K \le q 1$  and gcd(K, q 1) = 1. That is, K is relatively prime to q 1.
  - 2. Compute  $S_1 = \alpha^K \mod q$ .
  - □ 3. Compute  $K^{-1}$  mod (q 1). That is, compute the inverse of K modulo q 1.
  - 4. Compute  $S_2 = K^{-1}(m X_A S_1) \mod (q 1)$ .
  - 5. The signature consists of the pair  $(S_1, S_2)$ .

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- Any user B can verify the signature as follows.
  - 1. Compute  $V_1 = \alpha^m \mod q$ .
  - 2. Compute  $V_2 = (Y_A)^{S_1}(S_1)^{S_2} \mod q$ .
- The signature is valid if  $V_1 = V_2$ .

#### Public/ Private Keys Generation

- 1. Generate a random integer  $X_A$ , such that  $1 < X_A < q 1$ .
- 2. Compute  $Y_A = \alpha^{XA} \mod q$ .
- 3. A's private key is  $X_A$ ; A's pubic key is  $\{q, \alpha, Y_A\}$ .

#### Digital Signature

- 1. Choose a random integer K such that  $1 \le K \le q 1$  and gcd(K, q 1) = 1.
- 2. Compute  $S_1 = \alpha^K \mod q$ .
- 3. Compute  $K^{-1} \mod (q 1)$ .
- 4. Compute  $S_2 = K^{-1}(m X_A S_1) \mod (q 1)$ .
- 5. The signature consists of the pair  $(S_1, S_2)$ .

#### Verification

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

- Assume that the equality is true. Then we have
- $V_1 = \alpha^m \mod q$
- $V_2 = (Y_A)^{S_1}(S_1)^{S_2} \mod q$
- $V_1 = V_2$
- $\alpha^m \mod q = (Y_A)^{S_1}(S_1)^{S_2} \mod q$
- $\alpha^m \mod q = \alpha^{X_A S_1} \alpha^{K S_2} \mod q$
- $\alpha^{m-X_AS_1} \mod q = \alpha^{KS_2} \mod q$
- $m X_A S_1 \equiv KS_2 \mod (q 1)$
- $m X_A S_1 \equiv KK^{-1} (m X_A S_1) \mod (q 1)$
- $m X_A S_1 \equiv m X_A S_1 \mod (q 1)$

assume  $V_1 = V_2$ substituting for  $Y_A$  and  $S_1$ rearranging terms property of primitive roots

substituting for  $S_2$ 

- For example, let us start with the prime field q = 19. It has primitive roots {2, 3, 10, 13, 14, 15}. We choose  $\alpha = 10$ .
- Alice generates a key pair as follows:
  - 1. Alice chooses  $X_A = 16$ .
  - 2. Then  $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \mod q = \alpha^{16} \mod 19 = 4$ .
  - 3. Alice's private key is 16; Alice's pubic 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.  $S_1 = \alpha^K \mod q = 10^5 \mod 19 = 3$
  - 3.  $K^{-1} \mod (q-1) = 5^{-1} \mod 18 = 11$ .
  - $4. S_2 = K^{-1} (m X_A S_1) \mod (q 1) = 11 (14 (16)(3)) \mod 18 = -374 \mod 18 = 4.$

- Bob can verify the signature as follows.
  - 1.  $V_1 = \alpha^m \mod q = 10^{14} \mod 19 = 16$ .
  - <sup>1</sup> 2.  $V_2 = (Y_A)^{S_1}(S_1)^{S_2} \mod q = (4^3)(3^4) \mod 19 = 5184 \mod 19 = 16.$
- Thus, the signature is valid.

- The Schnorr signature scheme is based on discrete logarithms.
- The main work for signature generation does not depend on the message and can be done during the idle time of the processor.
- The scheme is based on using a prime modulus p, with p-1 having a prime factor q of appropriate size. Typically, we use  $p \approx 2^{1024}$  and  $q \approx 2^{160}$ .
- Thus, p is a 1024-bit number, and q is a 160-bit number, which is also the length of the SHA-1 hash value.

- The first part of this scheme is the generation of a private/public key pair, which consists of the following steps.
  - 1. Choose primes p and q, such that q is a prime factor of p 1.
  - 2. Choose an integer a, such that  $a^q = 1 \mod p$ . 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.</li>
  - 4. Calculate  $\mathbf{v} = a^{-s} \mod p$ . This is the user's public key.

- A user with private key s and public key v 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 pre processing stage independent of the message M to be signed.
  - <sup>9</sup> 2. Concatenate the message with x and hash the result to compute the value e: e = H(M || x)
  - 3. Compute  $y = (r + se) \mod q$ . The signature consists of the pair (e, y).

- Any other user can verify the signature as follows.
  - 1. Compute  $x' = a^y v^e \mod p$ .
  - 2. Verify that e = H(M || x').
- To see that the verification works, observe that

• Hence, H(M || x') = H(M || x).

#### Public/ Private Keys Generation

- 1. Choose primes p and q, such that q is a prime factor of p 1.
- 2. Choose an integer a, such that  $a^q = 1 \mod p$ . 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 o < s < q. This is the user's private key.
- 4. Calculate  $v = a^{-s} \mod p$ . This is the user's public key.

#### Digital Signature

- 1. Choose a random integer r with o < r < q and compute  $x = a^r mod p$ .
- 2. Compute the value  $e: e = H(M \mid\mid x)$
- 3. Compute  $y = (r + se) \mod q$ .

The signature consists of the pair (e, y).

#### Verification

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

# **END**