



Commitment schemes, Identification Protocols and Fiat-Shamir Signatures

Applied Cryptography – Spring 2024

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Last time:

- Public key encryption
- Key Encapsulation Mechanisms
- Digital Signatures from trapdoor permutations

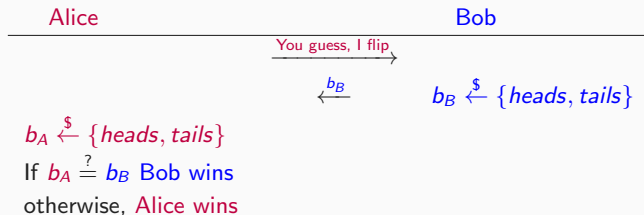
Today:

- Commitment schemes
- Zero-Knowledge protocols
- Identification Protocols
- Fiat-Shamir Signatures
- DSA and ECDSA

Commitment schemes

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

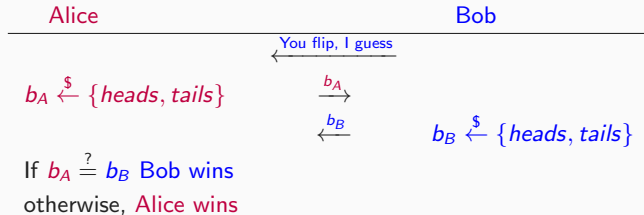
- Alice and Bob are getting a divorce!
- They are at the point where they cannot even stand facing each other, so they have to discuss over the phone how to split the furniture, the kids, etc.
- But one problem remains: **who gets the car?**
- They decide to flip a coin over the phone. . .
- **First attempt:**



- **Wait a minute, Alice can cheat!**

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

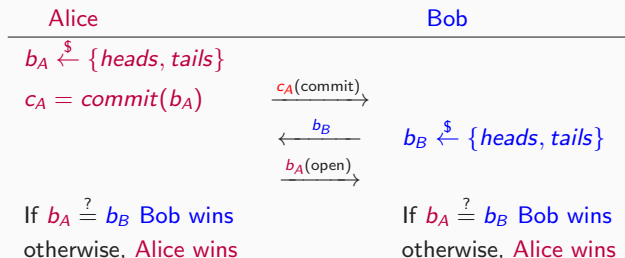
- Second attempt:



- Wait a minute, Bob can cheat!
- A deadlock! Any ideas?

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- **Third attempt: Use a commitment** (a locked box):
 - Commit to value $c = \text{commit}(b)$
 - Reveal (open) value $b = \text{open}(c)$



- When does this protocol work?
 - If Alice can find another b'_A such that $\text{commit}(b'_A) = \text{commit}(b_A)$, then **Alice can cheat!** (*commit should be binding!*)
 - If Bob can find b_A given $\text{commit}(b_A)$, then **Bob can cheat!** (*commit should be hiding!*)

Commitment scheme – formally

Given security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ and two finite sets $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{R} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$, a commitment scheme $\text{Comm} = (\text{Setup}, \text{Comm}, \text{Open})$ consists of three algorithms:

- **Setup** $\text{pk} \leftarrow \text{Setup}(1^\lambda)$
- **Commitment algorithm**: Takes random $r \in \mathcal{R}$, the message $M \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs $(C, D) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, r)$. C is said to be the commitment of M , and D is the opening (decommitment).
- **Opening (verification) algorithm**: Takes as input the commitment of M , the opening D , and outputs $M' = \text{Open}(\text{pk}, C, D) \in \mathcal{M}$ or $\perp \notin \mathcal{M}$ to indicate an invalid commitment.

Correctness: For all $M \in \mathcal{M}$

$$\text{Open}(\text{pk}, (\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, r))) = M$$

Note:

- Often the opening simply contains the message M and the random coins r used in the commitment generation,
- Now, the verification consists of running again the Comm algorithm and checking whether it matches

Binding property: The sender can not change their mind after committing

- **Unconditional/statistical binding:** Even with an infinite computational power, it is not possible to change mind! In this case b is uniquely determined/is determined with overwhelming probability by $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, b, r)$
- **Computational binding:** (Limited to computationally bounded senders.) For every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} the probability of finding two different valid openings of a commitment is negligible.

Hiding property: a commitment to b reveals (almost) no information about b

- **Unconditional/statistical hiding:** for every $M_0, M_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ the two distribution ensembles

$$\{C_0 | (C_0, D_0) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_0, R_0)\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{C_1 | (C_1, D_1) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_1, R_1)\}$$

are identical/statistically indistinguishable, i.e. the statistical distance between the two is zero/negligible.

- **Computational hiding:** (Limited to computationally bounded receivers.) For every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} and every $M_0, M_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ the two distribution ensembles above are computationally indistinguishable.

Perfectly binding and perfectly hiding commitment:

- perfectly binding \Rightarrow there exist no different R_0, R_1, M_0, M_1 s.t.
 $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_0, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_1, R_1)$
- \Rightarrow An unbounded adversary can always find M given $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, R)$ (by brute-forcing all M and R)
- \Rightarrow Such commitment scheme **does not exist!**

Hash based commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, R) = H(R||M) \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{t\lambda}$$

- Computationally binding if H - collision resistant
- Computationally hiding if H - preimage resistant

In the ROM:

- If message length is bounded - statistical binding can be achieved
- Statistical hiding can be achieved for $t \geq 5$

Pedersen bit-commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R) = g^R \cdot h^B \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } h \in \langle g \rangle, |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

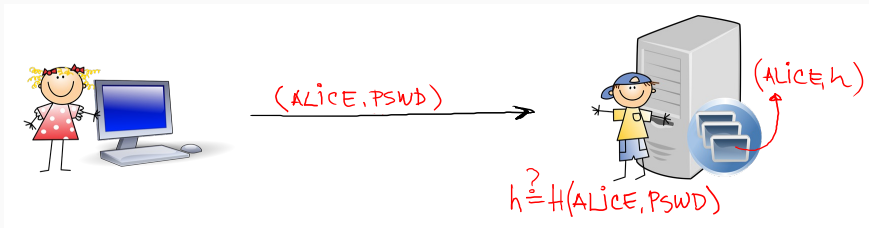
h is such that $\log_g h$ is unknown to the parties

- Computationally binding under DL assumption
 - $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, 1 - B, R_1) \Rightarrow g^{R_0} \cdot h^B = g^{R_1} \cdot h^{1-B}$
 - $\Rightarrow \log_g h = (R_0 - R_1)/(1 - 2B)$
 - \Rightarrow DL broken!
- Perfectly hiding - g^R and $g^R h$ are perfectly indistinguishable

Zero Knowledge Protocols

In practice ...

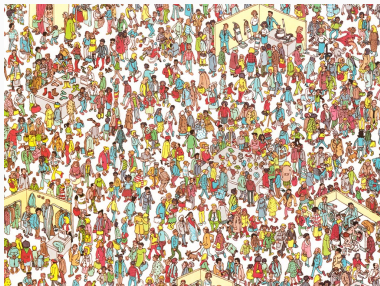
- Most common type of authentication - using passwords
- Typical flow:



- Many things can go wrong when password is sent to server and hash stored at server
 - insecure communication
 - insecure storage
- Alice would rather not send her password... but still be able to prove she knows it
- Solution?

Zero Knowledge Identification Protocols

- Alice (the prover \mathcal{P}) wants to prove the knowledge of a secret to Bob (the verifier \mathcal{V})
- They engage in an **interactive proof** protocol
- Important:
 - Alice should (almost) always be able to convince Bob if she knows the secret (completeness)
 - Alice should (almost) never be able to convince Bob if she doesn't know the secret, even if she cheats (soundness)
 - The interaction should leak the secret as little as possible even if Bob cheats
 - Ideally, not at all - **Zero-Knowledge (ZK) property**



Let L be a language. The pair $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is an interactive proof system for L (proving membership of statement) if it satisfies the following two conditions:

- **Completeness:** If $x \in L$, then the probability that $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ rejects x is negligible in the length of x .
- **Soundness:** If $x \notin L$ then for any prover \mathcal{P}^* , the probability that $(\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V})$ accepts x is negligible in the length of x . This probability is called **soundness error**.

Some terminology:

- **Cheating parties** will be denoted by $\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V}^*$ - they don't follow the protocol (may use a cheating strategy)
- **Transcript** - a record of the entire conversation between the parties
- The verifier is always polynomial time bounded
- The prover may be unbounded (proof systems) or polynomial time bounded (argument systems)
- In practice we will be always interested in **arguments**

What does Zero Knowledge mean?

- Whatever strategy the verifier follows, and whatever a priori knowledge he may have, he learns nothing except for the truth of the prover's claim
- if nothing is leaked, this means that the verifier can **simulate** the conversation with the prover without even interacting with him!

An interactive proof system or argument $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ for language L is **zero-knowledge** if for every PPT verifier \mathcal{V}^* , there is a simulator $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{V}^*}$ running in expected probabilistic polynomial time, such that:

For $x \in L$ the distribution of transcripts output by $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{V}^*}$ on input x is

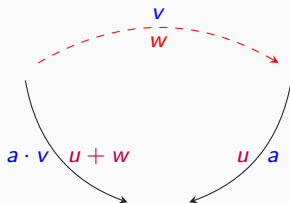
- perfectly (perfect ZK)
- statistically (statistical ZK)
- computationally (computational ZK)

indistinguishable from the distribution of transcripts produced by $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V}^*)$ on input x (given to \mathcal{V}^*).

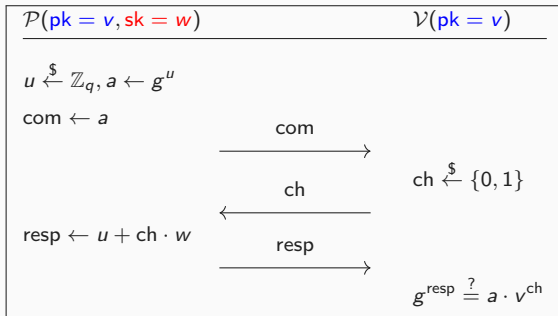
- the simulator can generate messages of a transcript **in any order it wants**

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it



- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**



An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $resp \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{resp} / v^{ch^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $ch = ch^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ convinces the verifier with probability $1/2$ - soundness error.

Can \mathcal{P} successfully answer both challenges?

- Suppose they can. Let $resp_0$ and $resp_1$ be the two correct answers to the challenges 0 and 1.
- Then we get $w = resp_1 - resp_0$, which is a contradiction – the prover can easily calculate w .

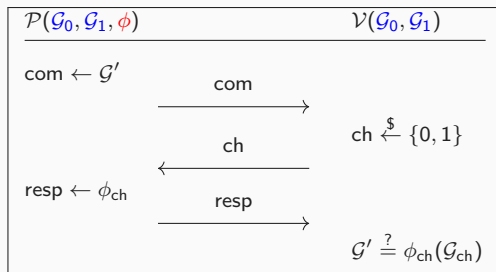
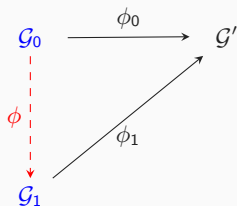
To reduce the error to negligible in a security parameter λ , the protocol needs to be repeated λ times. The soundness error becomes $1/2^\lambda$.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{resp} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $resp \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $com = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs $(a, ch^*, resp)$. If $ch \neq ch^*$, \mathcal{S} **rewinds the verifier** \mathcal{V}^* to the point before it receives com , and goes to step 2.
- **Rewinding of adversaries/cheating parties:** We always consider these to be probabilistic Turing machines, so rewinding is possible, until a desired output is produced
- **\mathcal{S} is expected probabilistic polynomial time:** One round is expected to be repeated 2 times, hence whole simulation takes expected 2λ time.
- **Distributions of simulated and real protocol are exactly the same:** The candidate commitments a are uniform over the group $\langle g \rangle$, as well as the responses, just as in the real protocol. The challenge is produced just as in the real protocol (it is produced by \mathcal{V}^*). Hence the distributions are identical (we say the protocol is perfect zero-knowledge.)

Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



Note:

- No probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms are known for the GI problem
- This generalizes to other isomorphisms on different objects
- **Homework: Show in detail that the above protocol is Zero-Knowledge!**

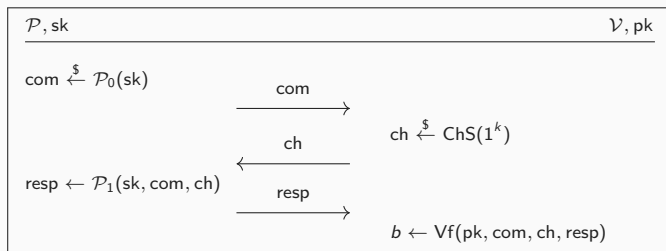
Applications of ZK proofs

- Whenever we need to prove knowledge of secrets without revealing them
- Hence, for protecting confidentiality, privacy, anonymity
- Indispensible tool in Privacy-enhancing technologies (PETs)

Concrete applications:

- For anonymous, verifiable voting
 - voters can be sure their vote is anonymous (their identity is not connected to the cast vote) and that their vote is included in the tally.
- For user authentication
 - as identification schemes without revealing or exchanging the passwords
- In multi-party computation
 - to make sure parties don't cheat and follow the protocol specs
- For preserving privacy of data
 - for example, to show to the bank you have enough income to repay a loan, without revealing the actual income
- In Blockchain technologies
 - for privacy and anonymity

Sigma protocols

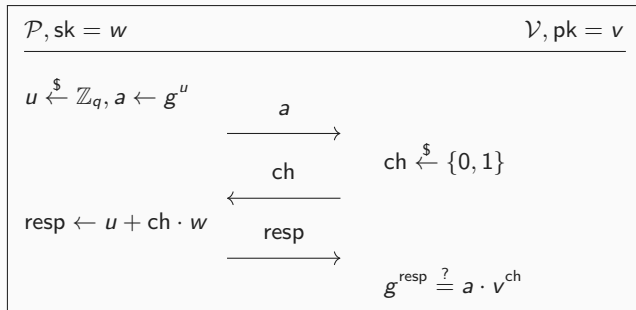


Given a relation $R = V \times W$, where $sk \in W$ is called **witness** and language $L_R = \{v \in V \mid \exists w \in W, (v, w) \in R\}$ for the relation, a Σ protocol is a three move protocol as above satisfying:

- **Completeness:** (as before)
- **Special soundness:** There exists a PPT algorithm \mathcal{K} - knowledge extractor, that given two valid transcripts $trans = (com, ch, resp)$, $trans' = (com, ch', resp')$, $ch \neq ch'$, extracts the witness sk with non-negligible probability
- **Special Honest Verifier ZK:** Same as before, except, the verifier is honest (follows the protocol), and the simulator \mathcal{S} needs to output a valid transcript for a given challenge ch .

Recall Schnorr's protocol

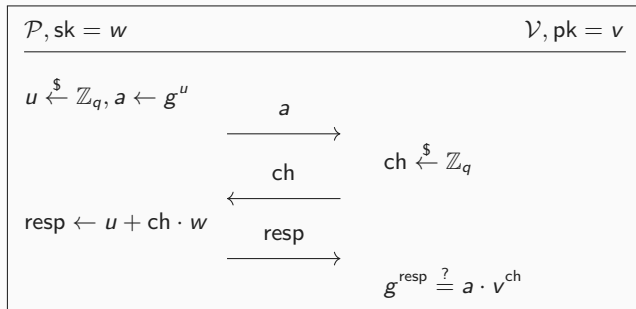
p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q . $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$



- **Soundness error** - $1/2$, so needs many rounds to achieve negligible soundness error
- Each round performs expensive exponentiations in a group of order q
- Can we do better?

Schnorr identification protocol

A more efficient **single round variant** - Schnorr identification protocol



- We show Schnorr identification protocol is Σ -protocol
- **Completeness:** Prover that knows w always succeeds

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

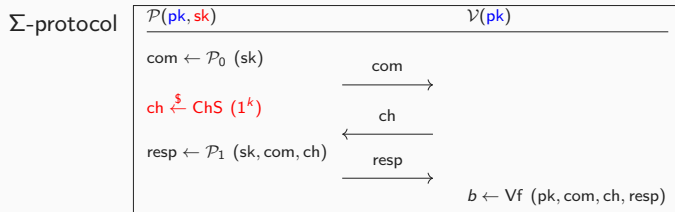
- **Special soundness:** Given two accepting transcripts for the same commitment
 $\text{trans} = (\text{com}, \text{ch}, \text{resp}) = (a, \text{ch}, u + \text{ch} \cdot w)$, and
 $\text{trans}' = (\text{com}, \text{ch}', \text{resp}') = (a, \text{ch}', u + \text{ch}' \cdot w)$, we have

$$w = \frac{\text{resp} - \text{resp}'}{(\text{ch} - \text{ch}')} \Rightarrow \text{the witness can be extracted with probability 1.}$$

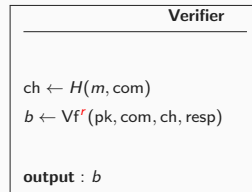
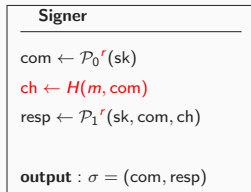
- **Not known to be ZK:** (but no known attacks)
 - One round implies that the challenge space must be exponentially large
 - This implies “rewinding until challenge is guessed” requires exponential time
 - This implies PPT simulator as previously will fail!
- **Special HVZK:** For given $\text{ch} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - Choose $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and calculate $a \leftarrow g^{\text{resp}} v^{-\text{ch}}$
 - The distributions of the real transcripts and the simulated transcripts are the same – in both a given valid transcript occurs with prob. $1/q$ (in one first u is chosen a random, in the other first resp is chosen at random.)

Fiat-Shamir signatures

The Fiat-Shamir transform



FS signature



The Fiat-Shamir transform

Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ the security parameter, $\text{IDS} = (\text{KGen}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ an identification scheme that is a Σ -protocol (special sound with knowledge error κ and HVZK).

Let $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^r$ be modelled as a random oracle. The **Fiat-Shamir signature scheme** derived from IDS is the triplet of algorithms $(\text{KGen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vf})$ s.t.:

- $(\text{sk}, \text{pk}) \leftarrow \text{KGen}(1^k)$,
 - $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp}) \leftarrow \text{Sign}(\text{sk}, m)$ where $\text{com} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_0^r(\text{sk})$, $h = H(m, \text{com})$, $\text{resp} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_1^r(\text{sk}, \text{com}, h)$.
 - $\text{Vf}(\text{pk}, m, \sigma)$ parses $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp})$, computes $h = H(m, \text{com})$, and outputs $\mathcal{V}^r(\text{pk}, \text{com}, h, \text{resp})$.
-
- The number of rounds r is chosen such that $\kappa^r < \frac{1}{2^\lambda}$.
 - Note that the “full” signature is $(\text{com}, h, \text{resp})$, but h can be omitted, since it can be recreated from m and com .

Security of FS signatures [Pointcheval & Stern '96]

Structure of proof:



Proof in ROM (see additional literature if interested!)

KeyGen:

- 1 Choose two primes p, q s.t. $q|p-1$, and $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q .
- 2 Choose a random $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and compute $v = g^w \pmod{p}$
- 3 Output public key $\text{pk} = v$ and private key $\text{sk} = w$

Sign: Given message M ,

- 1 $u \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q, \text{com} \leftarrow g^u$,
- 2 Set $\text{ch} = H(M, \text{com})$ and calculate $\text{resp} \leftarrow u + \text{ch} \cdot w$
- 3 Set $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp})$
- 4 Output message - signature pair (M, σ)

Verify: To verify the message - signature pair (M, σ)

- 1 Parse $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp})$ and calculate $\text{ch} = H(M, \text{com})$
- 2 Check $g^{\text{resp}} \stackrel{?}{=} a \cdot v^{\text{ch}}$ and output Accept if check succeeds, otherwise Fail

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)
- In 1990's RSA signature also patented
- NIST proposes in 1991 the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
 - NIST standard from 1994 - Federal standard (FIPS 186) and ANSI X9.30 Part 1
 - Very similar to Schnorr, but initially no proof!!!
 - Modified versions under suitable models later shown to be provably secure ...
 - In ISO/IEC 14888, $h = H(M)$ replaced by $h = H(M, r)$
 - ECDSA - elliptic curve version over the elliptic curve group $E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$
 - additive notation, otherwise same as DSA (see assignment)
 - ECDSA is widely used today in blockchain, iOS, secure messaging apps, in TLS (but not even close to RSA signatures)!
 - Faster signing, slower verification than RSA, significantly smaller keys

Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

KeyGen: Same as for Schnorr with private key $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and public key $y = g^x \pmod{p}$

- 1 Choose two primes p, q s.t. $q|p-1$, and $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q .
- 2 Choose a random $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and compute $y = g^x \pmod{p}$
- 3 Output public key $\text{pk} = y$ and private key $\text{sk} = x$

Sign: Given message M ,

- 1 $k \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q, r \leftarrow (g^k \pmod{p}) \pmod{q}$,
- 2 Set $h = H(M)$ and calculate $s \leftarrow (h + xr)k^{-1}$ (In Schnorr: $h = H(M, r)$ and $s \leftarrow k + h \cdot x$)
- 3 Set $\sigma = (r, s)$ and output message - signature pair (M, σ)

Verify: To verify the message - signature pair (M, σ)

- 1 Parse $\sigma = (r, s)$, verify $0 < r, s < q$ and calculate $h = H(M)$
- 2 Compute $u_1 = H(m)s^{-1} \pmod{q}$ and $u_2 = rs^{-1} \pmod{q}$
- 3 Check $(g^{u_1}g^{u_2} \pmod{p}) \pmod{q} \stackrel{?}{=} r$ and output Accept if check succeeds, otherwise Fail

Sensitive security of DSA and ECDSA

- DSA and ECDSA are very sensitive regarding the ephemeral key k
- Must not be reused, and should be unpredictable for attackers
- In December 2010, a group calling itself fail0verflow announced recovery of ECDSA private key used by Sony to sign software for PlayStation 3
 - Sony's "epic fail": k was static instead of random!
- Suppose $s_1 = (H(M_1) + xr)k^{-1}$ and $s_2 \leftarrow (H(M_2) + xr)k^{-1}$
use same k for two messages M_1 and M_2
- Now: $s_1 - s_2 = (H(M_1) - H(M_2))k^{-1}$
- I.e., $k = (H(M_1) - H(M_2))(s_1 - s_2)^{-1}$
- Once k is known, the secret key can be easily derived:
 $x = (s_1 k - H(M_1))(r)^{-1}$

Sony's ECDSA code

```
int getRandomNumber()
{
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.
              // guaranteed to be random.
}
```

Recommendations for key sizes and usage by NIST, ECRYPT

| Algorithm | Param. | Key length | Classical security | Usage |
|---------------------|--------|------------|--------------------|---|
| RSA-1024 | N | 1024 | 80 bits | disallowed for key transport |
| RSA-1024/DSA-1024 | N/q | 1024 | 80 bits | disallowed signature key gen./legacy signature verification |
| RSA-2048/DSA-2048 | N/q | 2048 | 112 bits | acceptable |
| RSA-3072/DSA-3072 | N/q | 3072 | 128 bits | recommended |
| RSA-7680/DSA-7680 | N/q | 7680 | 192 bits | long term |
| RSA-15360/DLP-15360 | N/q | 15360 | 256 bits | long term |
| ECDSA-160 | p | 80 | 80 bits | disallowed signature key gen./legacy signature verification |
| ECDSA-224 | p | 224 | 112 bits | acceptable |
| ECDSA-256 | p | 256 | 128 bits | recommended |
| ECDSA-384 | p | 384 | 192 bits | long term |
| ECDSA-512 | p | 512 | 256 bits | long term |

Today:

- Commitments
- Zero-Knowledge protocols
- Identification Protocols
- Fiat-Shamir Signatures
- DSA and ECDSA

Next time:

- Post-Quantum Cryptography
- Hash-Based signatures