

Topic 7:
Digital signature

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- ☐ Introduction
- ☐ RSA signature
- ☐ DSA signature
- ☐ One-time signature (Rabin method)



□ Goals of digital signature:

- User authentication
- Data integrity
- Non-repudiation

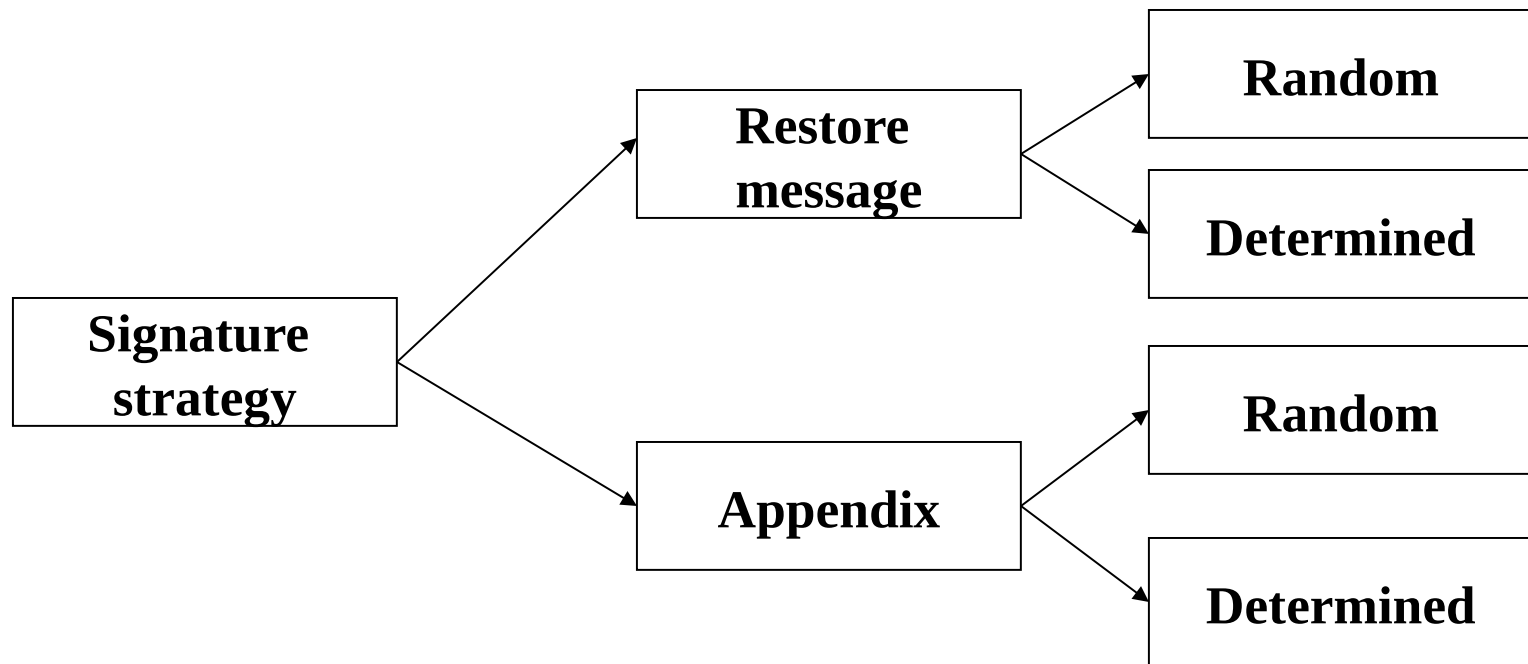
□ Basic concepts:

- Digital signature: data string that allows to identify the origin/entity that generated a message.
- Algorithm for generating digital signatures: methods for generating digital signatures
- Digital signature strategy includes *algorithm generating digital signature* and *algorithm verifying digital signature*.
- **Digital signature scheme = Digital signature generation algorithm + Digital signature verification algorithm**

□ Notations:

- M Message-space
- M_s Signed-message space
- S Signature-space
- R Map 1-1 from M to M_s (redundancy function)
- M_R Image of R
- R^{-1} Inverse function of R
- h One-way function with a source set M
- M_h Hash-value space ($h: M \rightarrow M_h$)

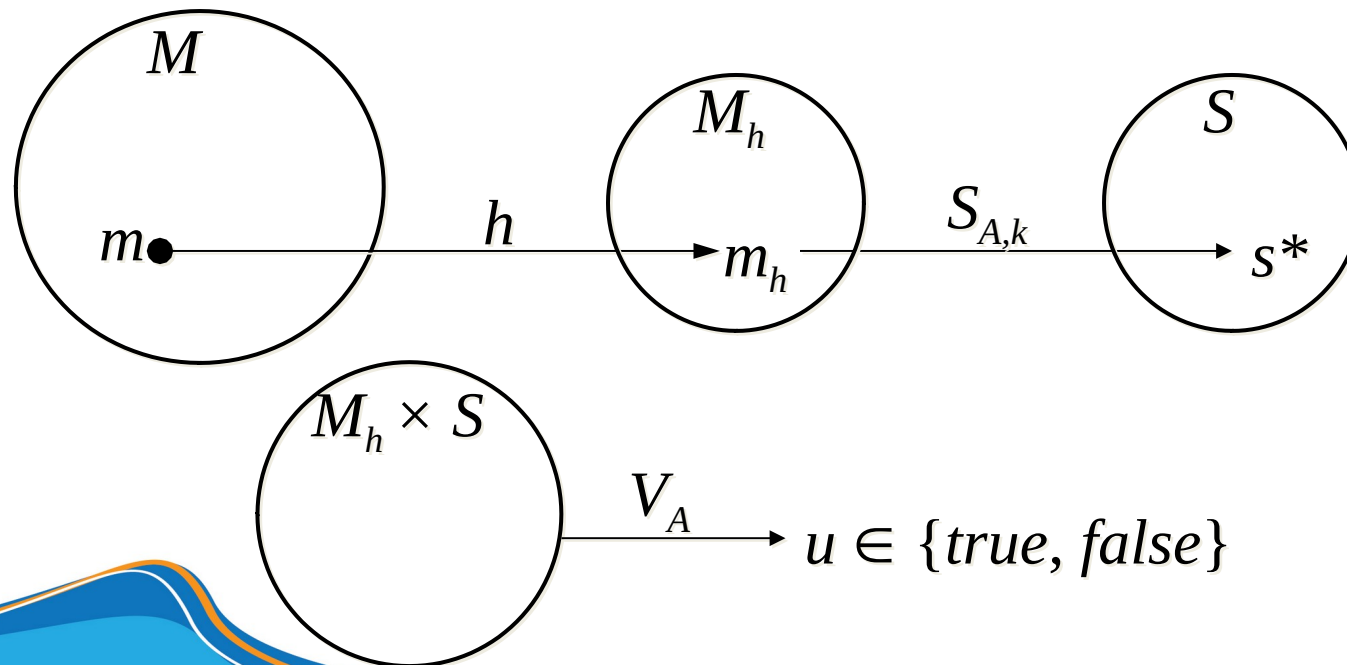
□ Classification of digital signatures



$$s^* = S_{A,k}(m_h)$$

$$u = V_A(m_h, s^*)$$

- Signature strategies with appendix
 - Signature accompanies original message (Ex: DSA, ElGamal, Schnorr...)
 - Message (original) required for digital signature verification
 - Use a cryptographic hash function (instead of a redundancy function)

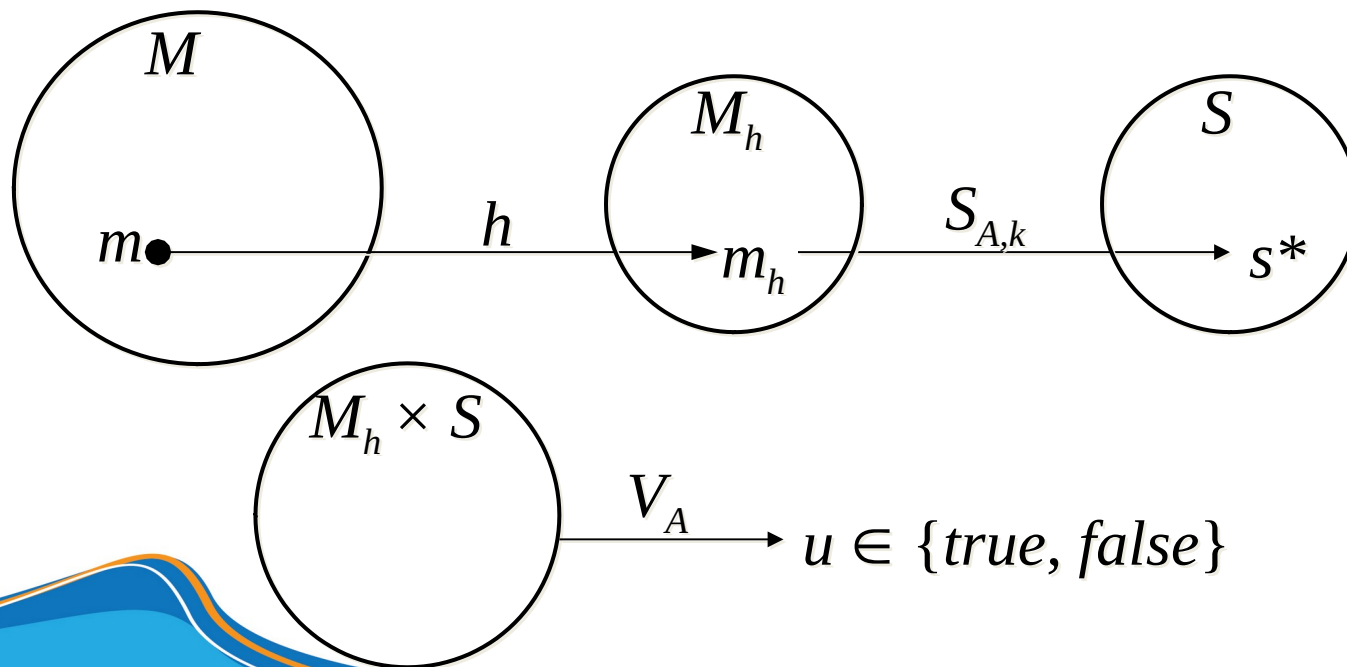


$$s^* = S_{A,k}(m_h)$$

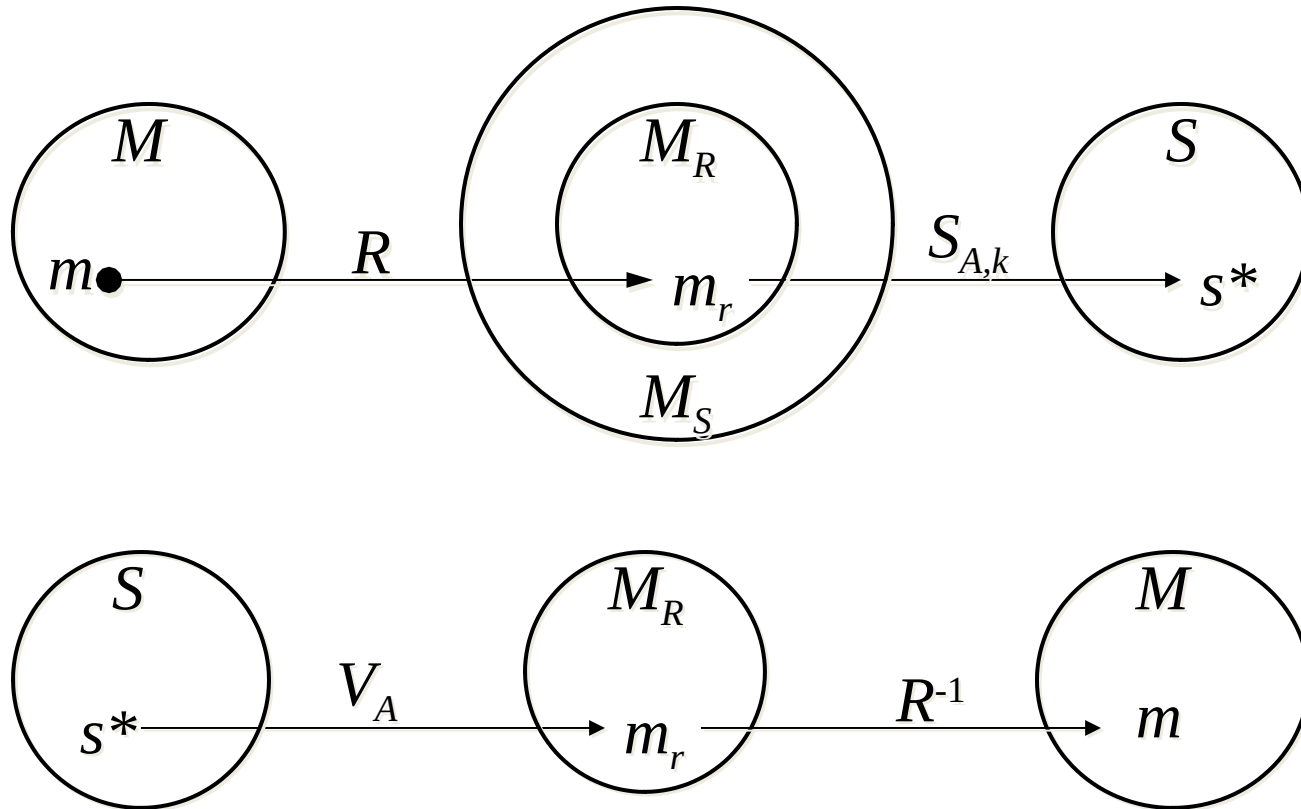
$$u = V_A(m_h, s^*)$$

Requirements:

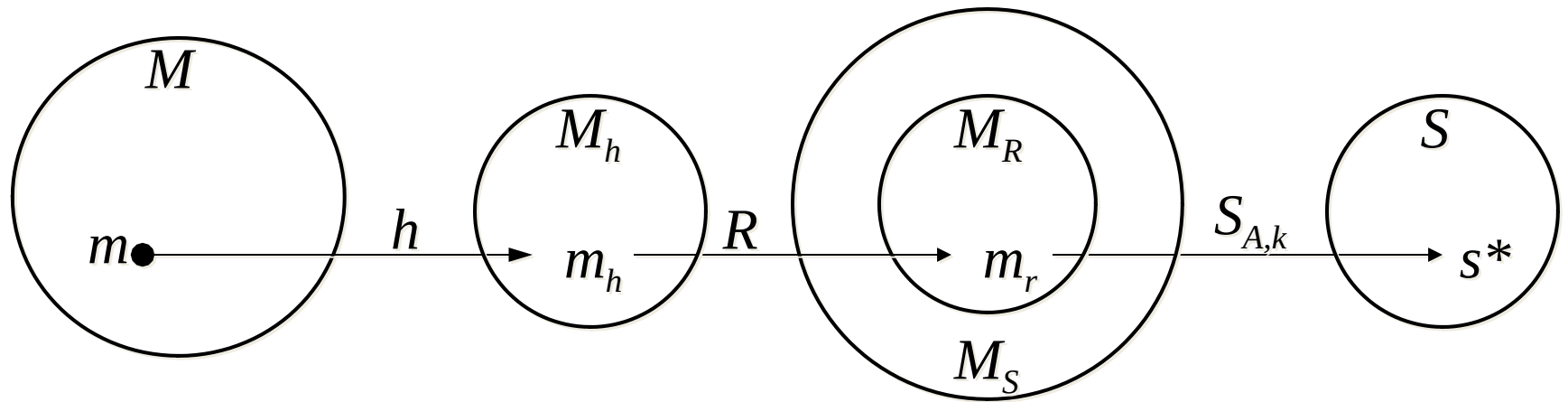
- For each $k \in \mathbb{R}$, easy to compute $S_{A,k}$
- Easy to compute V_A
- Hard for those are not *signer* to find $m \in M$ and $s^* \in S$ such that $V_A(m', s^*) = \text{true}$, for $m' = h(m)$



- A digital signature can allow the message to be recovered



- Requirements:
 - For each $k \in R$, easy to compute $S_{A,k}$
 - easy to compute V_A
 - Hard for (computationally infeasible) those are not A to find $s^* \in S$ such that $V_A(s^*) \in M_R$



- Levels of “Breaking” the e-signature strategy:
 - **Total Break:** find an efficient way to “fake” a valid signature.
 - Know private key?
 - Do not know private-key but find an efficient way to create a valid signature.
 - **Selective forgery:** Given a message, attacker can create a valid signature for this message.
 - **Existential forgery:** can find and point to a message (maybe nonsense) but easy for attacker to create valid signature for this message.
- Classification of attacks
 - **Key-only:** attacker only know public-key
 - Message attack
 - **Known-message attack:** attacker has the signatures of a set of messages. Attacker knows contents of these messages but is not allowed to pre-choose these messages.
 - **Chosen-message attack:** attacker has valid signatures of a set of selective messages (non-adaptive)
 - **Adaptive chosen-message attack:** attacker can use signer as a “oracle”

RSA signature

- Generate key n, p, q, e, d
- Create signature
 - Compute $m_r = R(m)$
 - Compute $s = m_r^d \bmod n$
 - Signature of m is s
- Verify signature
 - Receive public-key (n, e)
 - Compute $m_r = s^e \bmod n$
 - Verify $m_r \in M_r$
 - Recover $m = R^{-1}(m_r)$



- Attack
 - Factorize a large integer
 - Possibility of multiple key pairs yielding the same signature
 - Homomorphic property:
$$E(x_1) \times E(x_2) = x_1^e \times x_2^e \bmod n = (x_1 \times x_2)^e \bmod n = E(x_1 \times x_2 \bmod n)$$
- Re-blocking problem
- Importance of redundancy function: ISO/IEC 9796
- Efficiency (p, q are k -bit prime-numbers): cost of generating signature $O(k^3)$ and verifying signature $O(k^2)$
- Bandwidth
 - Bandwidth depends on R .
 - Example: ISO/IEC 9796 maps a k -bit message to a $2k$ -bit string in M_s with $2k$ -bit signature.

□ Generating key:

- Choose 1 prime number q 160 bits
- Choose $0 \leq t \leq 8$, choose $2^{511 + 64t} < p < 2^{512 + 64t}$ for $q \mid p - 1$
- Choose g in Z_p^* , and $\alpha = g^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p$, $\alpha \neq 1$ (α is a primitive of sub-group with order q of Z_p^*)
- Choose $1 \leq a \leq q - 1$, compute $y = \alpha^a \bmod p$
- Public-key (p, q, α, y) and private-key a

□ Create signature:

- Randomly choose an integer k , $0 < k < q$
- Compute $r = (\alpha^k \bmod p) \bmod q$ and $k^{-1} \bmod q$
- Compute $s = k^{-1} \times (h(m) + a \times r) \bmod q$
- Signature = (r, s)

Verifying signature

Check $0 < r < q$ and $0 < s < q$, if this doesn't hold, signature isn't valid

Compute $w = s^{-1} \pmod q$ and $h(m)$

Compute $u_1 = w \times h(m) \pmod q$, $u_2 = r \times w \pmod q$

Compute $w = ((a^{u_1} \times y^{u_2} \pmod p) \pmod q$

Signature is valid $\Leftrightarrow w = r$

Explain:

$$h(m) \equiv -a \times r + k \times s \pmod q$$

$$\Leftrightarrow w \times h(m) \equiv -a \times r \times w + k \times s \pmod q$$

$$\Leftrightarrow u_1 + a \times u_2 \equiv k \pmod q$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pmod p \pmod q \pmod p \pmod q \pmod p \pmod q \pmod p \pmod q$$

DSA signature

- Safety issues of DSA: discrete logarithm in \mathbb{Z}_p^* and cyclic subgroup with order q
- Parameters: $q \approx 160$ bits, $p \approx 768$ bits $\approx 1\text{Kb}$
- Failure probability: During verification, necessary to calculate the inverse of s . If $s = 0$ there doesn't exist inverse $\Pr[s=0] = (\frac{1}{2})^{160}$
- Efficiency
 - Create signature
 - A modulo exponentiation operation and several operations 160 bit (if $p \sim 768$ bit)
 - The exponentiation can be calculated in advance
 - The exponentiation can be calculated in advance
 - Faster than RSA
 - Check signature
 - Check signature of exponentiation modulo
 - Slower than RSA

ElGamal signature

- Generate key: $p, q, \alpha, a, y = \alpha^a \bmod p$
 - α is a primitive of \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - Public-key (p, α) , private-key (a)
- Create signature
 - Randomly choose $k, 1 \leq k \leq p - 1, \gcd(k, p - 1) = 1$
 - Compute $r = \alpha^k \bmod p, k^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ and $s = k^{-1} \times (h(m) - a \times r) \bmod (p-1)$
 - Signature (r, s)
- Check signature
 - Check $1 \leq r \leq p - 1$
 - Compute $v_1 = y^r \times r^s \bmod p, h(m)$ and $v_2 = \alpha^{h(m)} \bmod p$
 - Signature is valid $\Leftrightarrow v_1 = v_2$

Explain

$$\begin{aligned}
 s &\equiv k^{-1} \times (h(m) - a \times r) \bmod (p-1) \\
 \Leftrightarrow k \times s &\equiv h(m) - a \times r \bmod (p-1) \\
 \Leftrightarrow (\alpha^a)^r \times r^s &\equiv (\alpha^a)^r \times r^s \bmod p
 \end{aligned}$$

□ Problems

- Value k must be distinguished for each signed message

- $(s_1 - s_2) \times k = (h(m_1) - h(m_2)) \bmod (p - 1)$

- If $\gcd((s_1 - s_2), p - 1) = 1$ then can determine the value k , and have private-key a

- If you don't use the hash function, you may get an existential forgery

□ Efficiency

- Create signature

- An exponentiation operation modulo

- An operation that uses the Euclidean algorithm to compute the inverse

- Two multiplication operations modulo

- Check signature: three exponentiation operations modulo

- Read more: Generalized ElGamal Signature

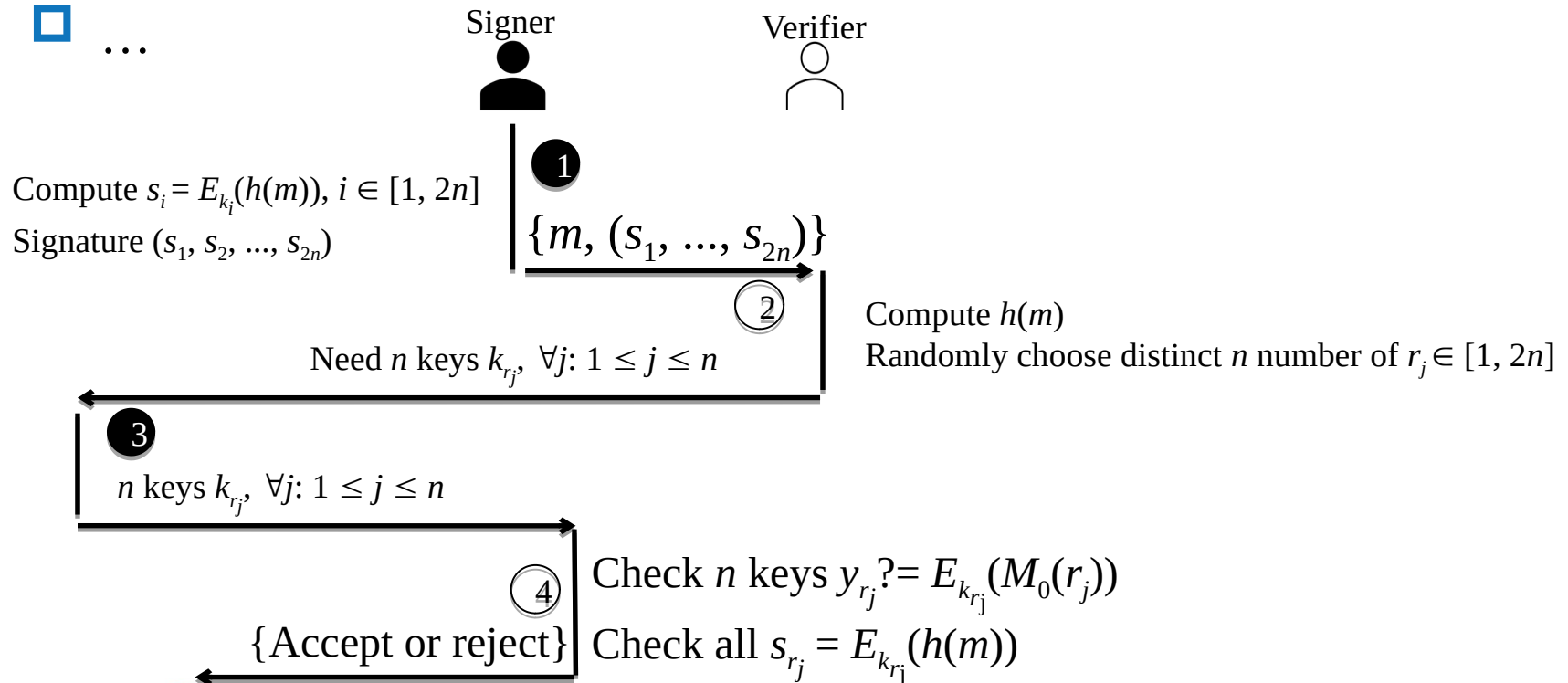


One-time signature (Rabin method)

- Definition: the signature strategy is used to **sign up to one message**
 - If reused, can be hacked to create fake signatures.
 - A new public key is required for each message to be signed
- Most one-time signature strategies are characterized by very fast signature generation and verification
- Create key: choose symmetric encryption algorithm E (ex: DES)
 - Generating $2n$ random string $k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{2n} \in K$, each has length of l
 - Compute $y_i = E_{k_i}(M_0(i))$, $i \in [1, 2n]$
 - $M_0(i)$ is the binary representation of i filled with more bits 0 at the beginning to get the sequence l -bit
 - Public key is $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{2n})$ and private key is $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{2n})$

One-time signature (Rabin method)

- If there is a conflict, there is a need Trusted Third Party (*TTP*)
 - Signer may deliberately deny having created the signature
 - Verifier may deliberately not accept the signature
 - ...



One-time signature (Rabin method)

□ Context: Signer refuse to generate signature provided by Verifier

