



## Digital Signature

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# Digital signatures

- Developed to verify that a message comes from the claimed sender
- Opposite of public key encryption
  - Private key used to **sign** message
  - Public key used to **verify** signature

# Encryption and Digital signature

- Encryption
  - Suppose we **encrypt** M with Bob's public key
  - Bob's private key can **decrypt** to recover M
- Digital Signature
  - **Sign** by “encrypting” with your private key
  - Anyone can **verify** signature by “decrypting” with public key
  - But only you could have signed
  - Like a handwritten signature, but way better...

# “Plain” RSA signatures

- Public key  $(N, e)$ ; private key  $(N, d)$
- To sign message  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ , compute  $\sigma = m^d \bmod N$
- To verify signature  $\sigma$  on message  $m$ , check whether  $\sigma^e = m \bmod N$
- Correctness holds...
- What about security?

# Security of “plain” RSA signature?

- Attacker can sign specific messages
  - E.g., easy to compute the  $e^{\text{th}}$  root of  $m = 1$
- Attacker can sign “random” messages
  - Choose arbitrary  $\sigma$ ; set  $m = [\sigma^e \bmod N]$
- Attacker can combine two signatures to obtain a third
  - Say  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are valid signatures on  $m_1, m_2$  with respect to public key  $N, e$
  - Then  $\sigma' = [\sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 \bmod N]$  is a valid signature on the message  $m' = [m_1 \cdot m_2 \bmod N]$
  - $(\sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2)^e = \sigma_1^e \cdot \sigma_2^e = m_1 \cdot m_2 \bmod N$

# RSA-FDH (Full Domain Hash)

- Apply a “cryptographic transformation” to messages before signing
- Public key:  $(N, e)$       Private key:  $d$
- $\text{Sign}_{sk}(m) = H(m)^d \bmod N$
- $\text{Verify}_{pk}(m, \sigma)$ : output 1 iff  $\sigma^e = H(m) \bmod N$
- This also handles long messages

# Security of RSA-FDH

- Not easy to compute the  $e^{\text{th}}$  root of  $H(1)$ , ...
- Choose  $\sigma$  ... , but how do you find an  $m$  such that  $H(m) = [\sigma^e \bmod N]$ ?
  - Computing inverses of  $H$  should be hard
- $H(m_1) \cdot H(m_2) = \sigma_1^e \cdot \sigma_2^e = (\sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2)^e \neq H(m_1 \cdot m_2)$

# DSA/DSS signatures

- Another popular signature scheme, based on the hardness of the discrete logarithm problem
  - Introduced by NIST in 1992
  - US government standard
- ECDSA (based on ECDLP)
  - Used for Bitcoin



# Discrete-logarithm problem

- Fix cyclic group  $G$  of order  $m$ , and generator  $g$
- We know that  $\{g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{m-1}\} = G$ 
  - For every  $h \in G$ , there is a unique  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_m$  s.t.  $g^x = h$
  - Define  $\log_g h$  to be this  $x$  – *the discrete logarithm of  $h$  with respect to  $g$*  (in the group  $G$ )
- Dlog problem in  $G$ : Given  $g, h$ , compute  $\log_g h$
- Dlog assumption in  $G$ : Solving the discrete log problem in  $G$  is hard

# Diffie-Hellman problems

- Fix group  $G$  with generator  $g$
- Define  $\text{DH}_g(h_1, h_2) = \text{DH}_g(g^x, g^y) = g^{xy}$
- *Computational* Diffie-Hellman (CDH) problem:
  - Given  $g, h_1, h_2$ , compute  $\text{DH}_g(h_1, h_2)$
- *Decisional* Diffie-Hellman (DDH) problem:
  - Given  $g, h_1, h_2$ , distinguish the correct  $\text{DH}_g(h_1, h_2)$  from a uniform element of  $G$

# Relating the Diffie-Hellman problems

- If the discrete-logarithm problem is easy, so is the CDH problem
- If the CDH problem is easy, so is the DDH problem

# Group selection

- For cryptographic applications, best to use *prime-order* groups
  - The dlog problem is “easier” if the order of the group has small prime factors
- Two common choices of groups
  - Prime-order subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ ,  $p$  prime
    - E.g.,  $p = tq + 1$  where  $q$  is also a prime
    - Take the subgroup of  $t^{\text{th}}$  powers, i.e.,  
 $G = \{ [x^t \bmod p] \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* \}$
  - Prime-order subgroup of an *elliptic curve* group

# Questions?

