
Applied Cryptography and Computer Security

CSE 664 Spring 2017

Lecture 16: Digital Signatures

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Lecture Outline

- **Introduction to digital signatures**
 - **definitions**
 - **security goals**
- **Digital signature algorithms**
 - **RSA signatures**
 - **Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)**

Digital Signatures

- A **digital signature scheme** is a method of signing messages stored in electronic form
- Digital signatures can be used in very similar ways conventional signatures are used
 - paying by a credit card and signing the bill
 - signing a contract
 - signing a letter
- **Unlike conventional signatures**, we have that
 - digital signatures are not physically attached to messages
 - we cannot compare a digital signature to the original signature

Digital Signatures

- A **digital signature scheme** consists of the following algorithms
 - **key generation**
 - produces a private signing key sk and a public verification key pk
 - **message signing**
 - given a message m and a private key sk , produces a signature $\sigma(m)$ on m
 - **signature verification**
 - given a message m , a public key pk , and a signature $\sigma(m)$ on m under the corresponding secret key sk
 - the algorithm uses pk to verify whether $\sigma(m)$ is a valid signature on m

Digital Signatures

- **Digital signatures allows us to achieve the following security objectives:**
 - **authentication**
 - **integrity**
 - **non-repudiation**
 - **note that this is the main difference between signatures and MACs**
 - **a MAC cannot be associated with a unique sender since a symmetric shared key is used**
- **Are there other conceptual differences from MACs?**
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Digital Signatures

- **Attack models:**

- **key-only attack:** adversary knows only the verification key
- **known message attack:** adversary has a list of messages and corresponding signatures

$$(m_1, \sigma(m_1)), (m_2, \sigma(m_2)), \dots$$

- **chosen message attack:** adversary can request signatures on messages of its choice m_1, m_2, \dots

Digital Signatures

- **Adversarial goals:**
 - **total break:** adversary is able to obtain the private key and can forge a signature on any message
 - **selective forgery:** adversary is able to create a valid signature on a message chosen by someone else with a significant probability
 - **existential forgery:** adversary is able to create a valid signature on at least one message
- Signature schemes are only **computationally secure**
 - this holds for all public-key cryptosystems
 - remember why?

Digital Signatures Formally

- A **signature scheme** is defined by three PPT algorithms (Gen, Sign, Vrfy) such that:
 1. **key generation algorithm** Gen, on input a security parameter 1^k , outputs a key pair (pk, sk) , where pk is the public key and sk is the private key.
 2. **signing algorithm** Sign, on input a private key sk and message $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$, outputs a signature σ , i.e., $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{sk}(m)$
 3. **verification algorithm** Vrfy, on input a public key pk , a message m , and a signature σ , outputs a bit b , where $b = 1$ means the signature is valid and $b = 0$ means it is invalid, i.e., $b := \text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, \sigma)$

Security of Digital Signatures

- We'll want to achieve the same level of security as in case of MACs: **existential unforgeability under an adaptive chosen-message attack**
- Let $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vrfy})$ be a signature scheme
- **The signature experiment** $\text{Sig-forge}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}(k)$:
 1. generate $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^k)$
 2. adversary \mathcal{A} is given pk and oracle access to $\text{Sign}_{sk}(\cdot)$; let Q denote the set of queries \mathcal{A} makes to the oracle
 3. \mathcal{A} eventually outputs a pair (m, σ)
 4. output 1 (\mathcal{A} wins) iff (a) $\text{Vrfy}_{sk}(m, \sigma) = 1$ and (b) $m \notin Q$

Security of Digital Signatures

- **Definition:** A signature scheme $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vrfy})$ is **existentially unforgeable under an adaptive chosen-message attack** if any PPT adversary \mathcal{A} cannot win the experiment with more than negligible probability

$$\Pr[\text{Sig-forge}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}(k) = 1] \leq \text{negl}(k)$$

- Another essential part of signature schemes is **reliable key distribution**
 - what can happen?
 - what are consequences?
 - is this unique to signature schemes?

Plain RSA Signature Scheme

- **Key generation:**
 - choose large prime p and q , set $n = pq$
 - compute $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$
 - set the public key to (n, e) and the private key to d
- **Signing:**
 - given message m and the key pair $pk = (n, e)$ and $sk = d$, produce the signature $\sigma(m)$ as $\sigma(m) = m^d \pmod{n}$
- **Signature verification:**
 - given message m , a signature on it $\sigma(m)$ and the public key $pk = (n, e)$, verify the signature as $m \stackrel{?}{=} \sigma(m)^e \pmod{n}$

RSA Signature Scheme

- Plain or “textbook” RSA signature scheme is easily **insecure**
 - it is **easy to forge a signature**
 - first choose $\sigma(m)$
 - then compute m as $\sigma^e \bmod n$
 - this is an existential forgery through a **key-only attack**
 - producing a signature on a meaningful message using this attack is **difficult**
 - forgery of meaningful messages is still easy using adversary’s ability to request signatures

RSA Signature Scheme

- **Insecurity of plain RSA signatures**
 - **forging a signature on an arbitrary message**
 - say, adversary has $(m_1, \sigma(m_1))$ and $(m_2, \sigma(m_2))$
 - it forges a signature on $m_3 = m_1 \cdot m_2 \bmod n$ as $\sigma(m_3) = \sigma(m_1) \cdot \sigma(m_2) \bmod n$
 - this is an existential forgery using a known message attack
 - to obtain a signature on a message m of adversary's choice:
 - \mathcal{A} requests a signature on some m_1 and $m_2 = m/m_1 \bmod n$
 - $\sigma(m) = \sigma(m_1) \cdot \sigma(m_2) \bmod n$

Hashing and Signing

- Many modifications to plain RSA exist, but often without security proofs
- One general idea is to **hash messages prior to signing**
 - signing a short digest is faster than long messages
 - usage of proper cryptographic hash functions prevents forgeries
 - now a signature on m is produced as $\sigma(h(m))$
 - for RSA:
 - let $h : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ be a cryptographic hash function
 - given message $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$, sign as $\sigma = (h(m))^d \bmod n$
 - verification checks whether $h(m) = \sigma^e \bmod n$

Hashing and Signing

- It is **crucial to use strong cryptographic hash functions**
 - all security properties of hash functions are required to hold to prevent different types of attacks
 - preimage resistance
 - second preimage resistance
 - collision resistance
- Let's go back to **public-key only attack**
 - choose arbitrary σ and compute $\hat{m} = \sigma^e \bmod n$
 - then $\hat{m} = h(m)$ and σ is a signature on m
 - what property do we need to make this forgery hard?

Hashing and Signing

- **Other attacks against hashed RSA**
 - the need for second **preimage resistance**
 - assume an attacker has a valid signature $\sigma(h(m))$ on message m
 - if the second preimage property of h doesn't hold, the attacker can find $m' \neq m$ with $h(m) = h(m')$
 - now $\sigma(h(m))$ is a valid signature on m'
 - **collision resistance** property is similarly needed
 - recall the contract signing example
 - we construct many versions of a legitimate contract m and a bogus contract m' until a collision $h(m) = h(m')$ is found

Security of RSA Signatures

- **Security of hashed RSA** is proven in an idealized model where h is modeled as a truly random function
 - a hash function is used in practice
 - hashed RSA is widely used
- Both RSA encryption and signatures look similar, but a **signature scheme cannot be built from the “reverse” of an encryption scheme**
 - why?
 - it is true that RSA is both?

Signatures and Encryption

- **How about combining encryption with signing?**
- **To *encrypt* a message m and *produce a signature* on it, we can:**
 1. **sign and encrypt separately: send $E(m), \sigma(m)$**
 2. **sign and then encrypt: transmit $E(m||\sigma(m))$**
 3. **encrypt and then sign: transmit $E(m), \sigma(E(m))$**
- **Which one is the best?**
 - **what do you think about the first type?**

Signatures and Encryption

- **The third type is prone to tampering**
 - **suppose Alice sends a message to Bob using the third type $E_B(m), \sigma_A(E_B(m))$ is used**
 - **Mallory can capture this transmission, substitute her own signature, and resend $E_B(m), \sigma_M(E_B(m))$**
 - **Bob will think that the message came from Mallory even though the message might contain information Mallory did not possess**

Signature Algorithms

- **Other signature algorithms**
 - **ElGamal signature scheme**
 - was published in 1985 and works in groups where the discrete logarithm problem is hard
 - **Schnorr signature scheme**
 - modifies ElGamal signature scheme to sign a digest of a message in a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - **Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)**
 - a signature standard adopted by NIST
 - incorporates ideas from ElGamal and Schnorr signature schemes
- **All of the above schemes are probabilistic**

Design of Digital Signatures

- **Long-term security for an encryption key might not be required**
- **Signatures, however, can be used to sign legal documents and may need to be verified many years later after signing**
 - **security of a signature scheme must be evaluated more carefully**
- **For adequate security ElGamal and RSA signature schemes leads to signatures of a thousand or more bits**
 - **it is possible to construct a scheme that produces shorter signatures**
 - **Schnorr signature scheme has significantly shorter signatures**
 - **this influenced development of the signature standard**

Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- ElGamal and Schnorr signature schemes then led to another scheme called **Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)**
 - the DSA was adopted as a standard in 1994
 - published as FIPS PUB 186
 - current revision is FIPS PUB 186-4 (released July 2013)
- Both Schnorr signature scheme and DSA
 - use a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* of prime order q
 - have a key of the same form
- The DSA is specified to hash the message before signing

Digital Signature Algorithm

- **The original DSA**
 - the modulus p is required to have length $512 \leq |p| \leq 1024$ such that $|p|$ is a multiple of 64
 - the size of q is 160 bits
 - SHA-1 is used as the hash function
 - signature on a 160-bit message digest is 320 bits (2 elements in \mathbb{Z}_q)
- **DSA today**
 - modulus p is 1024, 2048, or 3072 bits long
 - q is 160, 224, or 256 bits long
 - any hash function from FIPS 180 can be used

Digital Signature Algorithm

- **Recall a common setup for groups where discrete logarithm problem is hard**
 - **choose prime p , such that $|p| \geq 1024$**
 - **there is a sufficiently large prime q such that $q|(p - 1)$**
 - **g is a generator of subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* having order q**
 - **we obtain setup for the group (p, q, g)**

Digital Signature Algorithm

- **Key generation**

- **let (p, q, g) be a group setup for the discrete log problem to be hard**
 - **we also want $|p|$ and $|q|$ from one of the predefined size pairs**
- **let $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ be a hash function**
- **choose secret $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$**
- **compute $h \equiv g^x \pmod{p}$**
- **the public key is $pk = (H, p, q, g, h)$**
- **the private key is $sk = x$**

Digital Signature Algorithm

- **Signing**

- **given a message** $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$, **public key** $pk = (H, p, q, g)$, and **secret key** $sk = x$
- **choose** $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ **uniformly at random**
- **compute the signature** $\sigma(m) = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2)$, where

$$\sigma_1 = (g^y \bmod p) \bmod q \text{ and}$$

$$\sigma_2 = (H(m) + x\sigma_1)y^{-1} \bmod q$$

- **if** $\sigma_1 = 0$ **or** $\sigma_2 = 0$, **a new value of** y **should be chosen**

Digital Signature Algorithm

- **Signature verification**

- **given a message** $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$, **signature** $\sigma(m) = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2)$ **and**
 $pk = (H, p, q, g, h)$
- **verification involves computing**
 - $e_1 = H(m)\sigma_2^{-1} \bmod q$
 - $e_2 = \sigma_1\sigma_2^{-1} \bmod q$
- **then test** $(g^{e_1}h^{e_2} \bmod p) \bmod q \stackrel{?}{=} \sigma_1$
- **output 1 (valid) iff verification succeeds**

Digital Signature Algorithm

- **Correctness property**

- **the signature** $\sigma(m) = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2)$ **is**

- $\sigma_1 = (g^y \bmod p) \bmod q$ **and** $\sigma_2 = (H(m) + x\sigma_1)y^{-1} \bmod q$

- **verification involves**

- $e_1 = H(m)\sigma_2^{-1} \bmod q$ **and** $e_2 = \sigma_1\sigma_2^{-1} \bmod q$

- **the test computes**

- $(g^{e_1}h^{e_2} \bmod p) \bmod q =$

Digital Signature Algorithm

- **Security of DSA**
 - no proof of security under the discrete logarithm problem exists
 - no proof of security even in the idealized model when H is completely random
- **No serious attacks have been found**
 - the use of a good hash function is important
- **DSS is rather popular in practice**
- **The standard also specifies elliptic curve version ECDSA**

Beyond the Traditional Signatures

- Besides the traditional signature schemes, **many other types of signature schemes** with special properties exist
- Based on their goals, we divide them into the following categories:
 - **stronger security properties**
 - fail-stop signatures
 - undeniable signatures
 - forward secure signatures
 - key-insulated signatures

Beyond the Traditional Signatures

- **Signature types (cont.)**
 - **achieving anonymity or repudiation**
 - **blind signatures**
 - **ring signatures**
 - **group signatures**
 - **designated verifier signatures**
 - **constrained environments**
 - **aggregate signatures**
 - **delegation of signing rights**
 - **proxy signatures**