Cryptography V: Digital Signatures Computer Security Lecture 12

Mike Just¹

School of Informatics University of Edinburgh

22nd February 2010

¹Based on original lecture notes by David Aspinall

Outline

Basics

Constructing signature schemes

Security of signature schemes

ElGamal

DSA

Summary

Outline

Basics

Constructing signature schemes

Security of signature schemes

ElGamal

DSA

Summary

Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.

- Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.
- Signatures can help establish security properties such as:

- Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.
- Signatures can help establish security properties such as:
 - authentication

- Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.
- Signatures can help establish security properties such as:
 - authentication
 - accountability/non-repudiation

- Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.
- Signatures can help establish security properties such as:
 - authentication
 - accountability/non-repudiation
 - unforgeability

- Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.
- Signatures can help establish security properties such as:
 - authentication
 - accountability/non-repudiation
 - unforgeability
 - integrity

- Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.
- Signatures can help establish security properties such as:
 - authentication
 - accountability/non-repudiation
 - unforgeability
 - integrity
 - verifiability by independent, public or 3rd party

- Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.
- Signatures can help establish security properties such as:
 - authentication
 - accountability/non-repudiation
 - unforgeability
 - integrity
 - verifiability by independent, public or 3rd party
- Digital signatures are the asymmetric analogue of MACs, with a crucial difference. MACs don't allow us to disinguish which of A or B provided integrity to a message (so no non-repudiation or independent verifiability).

- Digital signatures allow a principal to cryptographically bind (a representation of) its identity to a piece of information.
- Signatures can help establish security properties such as:
 - authentication
 - accountability/non-repudiation
 - unforgeability
 - integrity
 - verifiability by independent, public or 3rd party
- ▶ Digital signatures are the asymmetric analogue of MACs, with a crucial difference. MACs don't allow us to disinguish which of A or B provided integrity to a message (so no non-repudiation or independent verifiability).
- Note: electronic signatures are a more general notion.





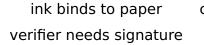




ink binds to paper

cryptographically bound to data

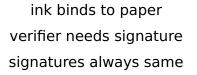






cryptographically bound to data verifier needs public key







cryptographically bound to data verifier needs public key depends on document



ink binds to paper verifier needs signature signatures always same copies apparent



cryptographically bound to data verifier needs public key depends on document copies indistinguishable



ink binds to paper
verifier needs signature
signatures always same
copies apparent
signer saw document



cryptographically bound to data
verifier needs public key
depends on document
copies indistinguishable
computer added signature



ink binds to paper
verifier needs signature
signatures always same
copies apparent
signer saw document
have legal impact



cryptographically bound to data
verifier needs public key
depends on document
copies indistinguishable
computer added signature
may have legal impact

A signature mechanism for principal A is given by:

- lacktriangle A message space ${\mathcal M}$ of messages for signing
- ▶ A set S of *signatures* (e.g. strings $\{0,1\}^n$)
- ▶ A secret signing function $S_A : \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{S}$
- ▶ A public **verification function** V_A : $M \times S \rightarrow Bool$

A signature mechanism for principal A is given by:

- lacktriangle A message space ${\mathcal M}$ of messages for signing
- ▶ A set S of *signatures* (e.g. strings $\{0,1\}^n$)
- ▶ A secret signing function $S_A : \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{S}$
- ▶ A public **verification function** $V_A : \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ satisfying the correctness and security properties:
 - 1. $V_A(m, s) = \text{true if and only if } S_A(m) = s$.
 - 2. For any principal other than A, it is computationally infeasible to find for any $m \in \mathcal{M}$, an $s \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $V_A(m, s) = \text{true}$.

A signature mechanism for principal A is given by:

- ightharpoonup A message space ${\mathcal M}$ of messages for signing
- ▶ A set S of signatures (e.g. strings $\{0,1\}^n$)
- ▶ A secret signing function $S_A : M \to S$
- ▶ A public **verification function** $V_A : \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ satisfying the correctness and security properties:
 - 1. $V_A(m, s) = \text{true if and only if } S_A(m) = s$.
 - 2. For any principal other than A, it is computationally infeasible to find for any $m \in \mathcal{M}$, an $s \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $V_A(m, s) = \text{true}$.

Usually use a public algorithm yielding key-indexed families $\{S_s \mid s \in \mathcal{K}\}$ of signing and verification functions $\{V_v \mid v \in \mathcal{K}\}$. Principal advertises v.

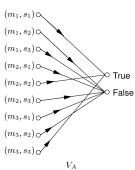
A signature mechanism for principal A is given by:

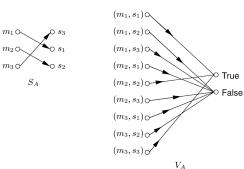
- ightharpoonup A message space ${\mathcal M}$ of messages for signing
- \triangleright A set S of signatures (e.g. strings $\{0,1\}^n$)
- ▶ A secret signing function $S_A : \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{S}$
- ▶ A public **verification function** $V_A : \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ satisfying the correctness and security properties:
 - 1. $V_A(m, s)$ = true if and only if $S_A(m) = s$.
 - 2. For any principal other than A, it is computationally infeasible to find for any $m \in \mathcal{M}$, an $s \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $V_A(m, s) = \text{true}$.

Usually use a public algorithm yielding key-indexed families $\{S_s \mid s \in \mathcal{K}\}$ of signing and verification functions $\{V_v \mid v \in \mathcal{K}\}$. Principal advertises v.

Remark: nobody has proved a signature mechanism satisfying 2 exists, although there are good candidates.

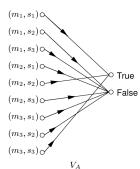




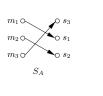


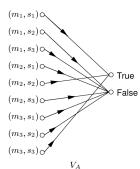
To sign a message the signer A





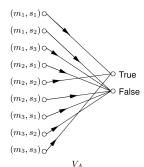
- ► To sign a message the *signer A*
 - 1. Computes $s = S_A(m)$.





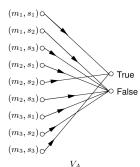
- ▶ To sign a message the signer A
 - 1. Computes $s = S_A(m)$.
 - 2. Sends the pair (m, s).





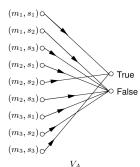
- ▶ To sign a message the signer A
 - 1. Computes $s = S_A(m)$.
 - 2. Sends the pair (m, s).
- ► To verify that a signature s on a message m was created by A, another principal, the verifier:





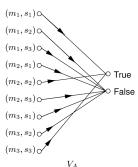
- ▶ To sign a message the signer A
 - 1. Computes $s = S_A(m)$.
 - 2. Sends the pair (m, s).
- ► To verify that a signature s on a message m was created by A, another principal, the verifier:
 - 1. Obtains the verification function V_A for A.





- ▶ To sign a message the signer A
 - 1. Computes $s = S_A(m)$.
 - 2. Sends the pair (m, s).
- ► To verify that a signature s on a message m was created by A, another principal, the verifier:
 - 1. Obtains the verification function V_A for A.
 - 2. Computes $u = V_A(m, s)$





- ▶ To sign a message the signer A
 - 1. Computes $s = S_A(m)$.
 - 2. Sends the pair (m, s).
- ► To verify that a signature *s* on a message *m* was created by *A*, another principal, the *verifier*:
 - 1. Obtains the verification function V_A for A.
 - 2. Computes $u = V_A(m, s)$
 - Accepts the signature if u = true, rejects it if u = false.

Outline

Basics

Constructing signature schemes

Security of signature schemes

ElGamal

DSA

Summary

Given a trusted third party, it is possible to use symmetric cryptography techniques.

- Given a trusted third party, it is possible to use symmetric cryptography techniques.
- ▶ Let secure Sam S be the TTP, who shares a key with each principal.

- Given a trusted third party, it is possible to use symmetric cryptography techniques.
- ▶ Let secure Sam S be the TTP, who shares a key with each principal.
- ► For A to send a signed contract M to B, S acts as an intermediary.

```
Message 1. A \rightarrow S: \{M\}_{K_{as}}
Message 2. S \rightarrow B: \{M\}_{K_{bs}}
```

(like Wide Mouthed Frog key exchange protocol, *M* should include time-stamps and names).

- Given a trusted third party, it is possible to use symmetric cryptography techniques.
- ▶ Let secure Sam S be the TTP, who shares a key with each principal.
- ► For A to send a signed contract M to B, S acts as an intermediary.

```
Message 1. A \rightarrow S: \{M\}_{K_{as}}
Message 2. S \rightarrow B: \{M\}_{K_{bs}}
```

(like Wide Mouthed Frog key exchange protocol, *M* should include time-stamps and names).

▶ If A and B disagree about a signature, a judge Judy can verify the contracts also using S:

```
Message 1. J \rightarrow S: \{M\}_{K_{as}}, \{M\}_{K_{bs}}
Message 2. S \rightarrow J: \{yes\ or\ no\}_{K_{is}}
```

▶ Suppose we have a public-key encryption scheme with $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C}$, and (d, e) a key-pair. Then because E_e and D_d are both permutations on \mathcal{M} , we have that:

$$D_d(E_e(m)) = E_e(D_d(m)) = m$$
 for all $m \in \mathcal{M}$

▶ Suppose we have a public-key encryption scheme with $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C}$, and (d, e) a key-pair. Then because E_e and D_d are both permutations on \mathcal{M} , we have that:

$$D_d(E_e(m)) = E_e(D_d(m)) = m$$
 for all $m \in \mathcal{M}$

A public-key scheme of this type is called *reversible*.

RSA is reversible, but not every PK scheme is.

▶ Suppose we have a public-key encryption scheme with $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C}$, and (d, e) a key-pair. Then because E_e and D_d are both permutations on \mathcal{M} , we have that:

$$D_d(E_e(m)) = E_e(D_d(m)) = m$$
 for all $m \in \mathcal{M}$

- RSA is reversible, but not every PK scheme is.
- We can define a digital signature scheme by reversing encryption and decryption:

▶ Suppose we have a public-key encryption scheme with $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C}$, and (d, e) a key-pair. Then because E_e and D_d are both permutations on \mathcal{M} , we have that:

$$D_d(E_e(m)) = E_e(D_d(m)) = m$$
 for all $m \in \mathcal{M}$

- RSA is reversible, but not every PK scheme is.
- We can define a digital signature scheme by reversing encryption and decryption:
 - ▶ Message space \mathcal{M} , signature space \mathcal{C} (= \mathcal{M}).

▶ Suppose we have a public-key encryption scheme with $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C}$, and (d, e) a key-pair. Then because E_e and D_d are both permutations on \mathcal{M} , we have that:

$$D_d(E_e(m)) = E_e(D_d(m)) = m$$
 for all $m \in \mathcal{M}$

- RSA is reversible, but not every PK scheme is.
- We can define a digital signature scheme by reversing encryption and decryption:
 - ▶ Message space \mathcal{M} , signature space \mathcal{C} (= \mathcal{M}).
 - the signing function $S_A = D_d$

▶ Suppose we have a public-key encryption scheme with $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C}$, and (d, e) a key-pair. Then because E_e and D_d are both permutations on \mathcal{M} , we have that:

$$D_d(E_e(m)) = E_e(D_d(m)) = m$$
 for all $m \in \mathcal{M}$

- RSA is reversible, but not every PK scheme is.
- We can define a digital signature scheme by reversing encryption and decryption:
 - ▶ Message space \mathcal{M} , signature space \mathcal{C} (= \mathcal{M}).
 - the signing function $S_A = D_d$
 - the verification function V_A is defined by

$$V_A(m,s) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } E_e(s) = m, \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Outline

Basics

Constructing signature schemes

Security of signature schemes

ElGamal

DSA

Summary

An adversary seeks to forge signatures. Possibilities:

- An adversary seeks to forge signatures. Possibilities:
 - 1. **Total break**. Adversary can compute the private key or find an equivalent signing function.

- An adversary seeks to forge signatures. Possibilities:
 - 1. **Total break**. Adversary can compute the private key or find an equivalent signing function.
 - 2. **Selective forgery**. Adversary can create a valid signature for some chosen message, without using the signer.

- An adversary seeks to forge signatures. Possibilities:
 - 1. **Total break**. Adversary can compute the private key or find an equivalent signing function.
 - 2. **Selective forgery**. Adversary can create a valid signature for some chosen message, without using the signer.
 - Existential forgery. Adversary can create a valid signature for at least one message, without explicit choice of the message. May involve signer.

- An adversary seeks to forge signatures. Possibilities:
 - 1. **Total break**. Adversary can compute the private key or find an equivalent signing function.
 - Selective forgery. Adversary can create a valid signature for some chosen message, without using the signer.
 - 3. **Existential forgery**. Adversary can create a valid signature for at least one message, without explicit choice of the message. May involve signer.
- ► The adversary may have different knowledge levels. For PK schemes:

- An adversary seeks to forge signatures. Possibilities:
 - 1. **Total break**. Adversary can compute the private key or find an equivalent signing function.
 - Selective forgery. Adversary can create a valid signature for some chosen message, without using the signer.
 - Existential forgery. Adversary can create a valid signature for at least one message, without explicit choice of the message. May involve signer.
- The adversary may have different knowledge levels. For PK schemes:
 - 1. **Key-only attack**: adversary only knows PK.

- An adversary seeks to forge signatures. Possibilities:
 - 1. **Total break**. Adversary can compute the private key or find an equivalent signing function.
 - Selective forgery. Adversary can create a valid signature for some chosen message, without using the signer.
 - 3. **Existential forgery**. Adversary can create a valid signature for at least one message, without explicit choice of the message. May involve signer.
- ► The adversary may have different knowledge levels. For PK schemes:
 - 1. **Key-only attack**: adversary only knows PK.
 - Known-message attack: adversary has signatures for a known (not chosen) set of messages.

- An adversary seeks to forge signatures. Possibilities:
 - 1. **Total break**. Adversary can compute the private key or find an equivalent signing function.
 - 2. **Selective forgery**. Adversary can create a valid signature for some chosen message, without using the signer.
 - 3. **Existential forgery**. Adversary can create a valid signature for at least one message, without explicit choice of the message. May involve signer.
 - ► The adversary may have different knowledge levels. For PK schemes:
 - 1. **Key-only attack**: adversary only knows PK.
 - Known-message attack: adversary has signatures for a known (not chosen) set of messages.
 - Chosen-message attack: adversary can obtain signatures for messages of his choosing. Messages may be determined in advance or in adaptive way, using signer as oracle.

▶ The previous scheme is too simple because signatures are forgeable: a principal B can generate a random $s \in S$ as a signature, apply the public encryption function to get a message $m = E_e(s)$, and transmit (m, s).

- ▶ The previous scheme is too simple because signatures are forgeable: a principal B can generate a random $s \in S$ as a signature, apply the public encryption function to get a message $m = E_e(s)$, and transmit (m, s).
- Obviously this verifies! It is an example of existential forgery.

- ▶ The previous scheme is too simple because signatures are forgeable: a principal B can generate a random $s \in S$ as a signature, apply the public encryption function to get a message $m = E_e(s)$, and transmit (m, s).
- Obviously this verifies! It is an example of existential forgery.
- ► The message m is not likely to be of B's choosing (and probably garbage).

- ▶ The previous scheme is too simple because signatures are forgeable: a principal B can generate a random $s \in S$ as a signature, apply the public encryption function to get a message $m = E_e(s)$, and transmit (m, s).
- Obviously this verifies! It is an example of existential forgery.
- ► The message m is not likely to be of B's choosing (and probably garbage).
- But this ability violates property 2 given earlier.

▶ A fix to reduce likelihood of existential forgery is to take $\mathcal{M}' \subset \mathcal{M}$ to be messages with a special redundant structure, which is publicly known e.g., messages padded to an even length, surrounded with a fixed bit pattern.

- A fix to reduce likelihood of existential forgery is to take M' ⊂ M to be messages with a special redundant structure, which is publicly known e.g., messages padded to an even length, surrounded with a fixed bit pattern.
- This format is easily recognized by the verifier:

$$V_A(s) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } E_e(s) \in \mathcal{M}', \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- A fix to reduce likelihood of existential forgery is to take M' ⊂ M to be messages with a special redundant structure, which is publicly known e.g., messages padded to an even length, surrounded with a fixed bit pattern.
- This format is easily recognized by the verifier:

$$V_A(s) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } E_e(s) \in \mathcal{M}', \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Now A only transmits the signature s, since the message $m = E_e(s)$ can be recovered by the verification function.

- A fix to reduce likelihood of existential forgery is to take M' ⊂ M to be messages with a special redundant structure, which is publicly known e.g., messages padded to an even length, surrounded with a fixed bit pattern.
- This format is easily recognized by the verifier:

$$V_A(s) = \begin{cases} \text{ true } & \text{if } E_e(s) \in \mathcal{M}', \\ \text{false } & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Now A only transmits the signature s, since the message $m = E_e(s)$ can be recovered by the verification function.
- ► This property is **message recovery**, the scheme is called a **signature scheme with recovery**.

- A fix to reduce likelihood of existential forgery is to take M' ⊂ M to be messages with a special redundant structure, which is publicly known e.g., messages padded to an even length, surrounded with a fixed bit pattern.
- This format is easily recognized by the verifier:

$$V_A(s) = \begin{cases} \text{ true } & \text{if } E_e(s) \in \mathcal{M}', \\ \text{false } & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Now A only transmits the signature s, since the message $m = E_e(s)$ can be recovered by the verification function.
- ► This property is **message recovery**, the scheme is called a **signature scheme with recovery**.
- Existential forgery is now less likely.

In practice, usually the signing function is constructed by first making a hash of the input document, and signing that. Reasons:

- In practice, usually the signing function is constructed by first making a hash of the input document, and signing that. Reasons:
 - 1. efficiency: signature is on smaller text

- In practice, usually the signing function is constructed by first making a hash of the input document, and signing that. Reasons:
 - 1. efficiency: signature is on smaller text
 - 2. avoid attacks on cipher system

- In practice, usually the signing function is constructed by first making a hash of the input document, and signing that. Reasons:
 - 1. efficiency: signature is on smaller text
 - avoid attacks on cipher system
- Signer: computes and transmits (m, s) where $s = S_A(h(m))$.

- In practice, usually the signing function is constructed by first making a hash of the input document, and signing that. Reasons:
 - 1. efficiency: signature is on smaller text
 - avoid attacks on cipher system
- Signer: computes and transmits (m, s) where $s = S_A(h(m))$.
- ▶ Verifier: computes h(m) and verifies $V_A(h(m), s)$.

- In practice, usually the signing function is constructed by first making a hash of the input document, and signing that. Reasons:
 - 1. efficiency: signature is on smaller text
 - avoid attacks on cipher system
- Signer: computes and transmits (m, s) where $s = S_A(h(m))$.
- ▶ Verifier: computes h(m) and verifies $V_A(h(m), s)$.
- The hash function must satisfy appropriate properties (see Hash Functions lecture).

- In practice, usually the signing function is constructed by first making a hash of the input document, and signing that. Reasons:
 - 1. efficiency: signature is on smaller text
 - avoid attacks on cipher system
- Signer: computes and transmits (m, s) where $s = S_A(h(m))$.
- ▶ Verifier: computes h(m) and verifies $V_A(h(m), s)$.
- ► The hash function must satisfy appropriate properties (see *Hash Functions* lecture).
- This scheme is called a signature scheme with appendix.

RSA Signatures

► Setup: n = pq computed as product of two primes. $ed \equiv 1 \mod \phi(n)$. (e, n) is the public key.

RSA Signatures

- Setup: n = pq computed as product of two primes. $ed \equiv 1 \mod \phi(n)$. (e, n) is the public key.
- To sign a message m, compute the signature s = h(m)^d mod n. Only the owner of the private key d is able to compute the signature.

RSA Signatures

- Setup: n = pq computed as product of two primes. $ed \equiv 1 \mod \phi(n)$. (e, n) is the public key.
- ► To sign a message m, compute the signature $s = h(m)^d \mod n$. Only the owner of the private key d is able to compute the signature.
- ► To verify the signature, upon receipt of (m, s), compute s^e mod n and verify whether it equals h(m)

Distributed RSA Signatures

 Signatures can optionally be distributed so that each of t users contributes to the signature. A trusted party T computes t shares such that

$$d \equiv \sum_{i=1}^t d_i \bmod \phi(n)$$

and securely distributes d_i to each user i.

Distributed RSA Signatures

 Signatures can optionally be distributed so that each of t users contributes to the signature. A trusted party T computes t shares such that

$$d \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{l} d_i \bmod \phi(n)$$

and securely distributes d_i to each user i.

▶ To compute a signature on a message m, each user i computes $o_i = h(m)^{d_i} \mod n$.

Distributed RSA Signatures

Signatures can optionally be distributed so that each of t users contributes to the signature. A trusted party T computes t shares such that

$$d \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{\tau} d_i \bmod \phi(n)$$

and securely distributes d_i to each user i.

- ► To compute a signature on a message m, each user i computes $o_i = h(m)^{d_i} \mod n$.
- A signer can compute the resultant signature as

$$s \equiv \prod_{i=1}^{t} o_i \bmod n$$

Distributed RSA Signatures

Signatures can optionally be distributed so that each of t users contributes to the signature. A trusted party T computes t shares such that

$$d \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{l} d_i \bmod \phi(n)$$

and securely distributes d_i to each user i.

- ► To compute a signature on a message m, each user i computes $o_i = h(m)^{d_i} \mod n$.
- A signer can compute the resultant signature as

$$s \equiv \prod_{i=1}^{t} o_i \bmod n$$

➤ Secret sharing can also be used so that *l* < *t* users could be used to construct a signature.

Outline

Basics

Constructing signature schemes

Security of signature schemes

ElGamal

DSA

Summary

▶ Setup as encryption: p an appropriate prime, g a generator of \mathbf{Z}_p^* , and the private signing key, d a random integer with $1 \le d \le p - 2$.

- ▶ Setup as encryption: p an appropriate prime, g a generator of \mathbf{Z}_p^* , and the private signing key, d a random integer with $1 \le d \le p 2$.
- ▶ The public verification key is $(p, g, g^d \mod p)$.

- ▶ Setup as encryption: p an appropriate prime, g a generator of \mathbf{Z}_p^* , and the private signing key, d a random integer with $1 \le d \le p 2$.
- ▶ The public verification key is $(p, g, g^d \mod p)$.
- ▶ To sign a message m, $0 \le m \le p$, the signer picks a random secret number r with $1 \le r \le p 2$ and gcd(r, p 1) = 1, and computes:

$$\mathbf{S}_d(m) = (e, s)$$
 where $e = g^r \mod p$
 $de + rs \equiv m \pmod{p-1}$.

- ▶ Setup as encryption: p an appropriate prime, g a generator of \mathbf{Z}_p^* , and the private signing key, d a random integer with $1 \le d \le p 2$.
- ▶ The public verification key is $(p, g, g^d \mod p)$.
- ▶ To sign a message m, $0 \le m \le p$, the signer picks a random secret number r with $1 \le r \le p 2$ and gcd(r, p 1) = 1, and computes:

$$\mathbf{S}_d(m) = (e, s)$$
 where $e = g^r \mod p$
 $de + rs \equiv m \pmod{p-1}$.

► The verification function checks that $1 \le e \le p-1$, and an equation:

$$\mathbf{V}_{(p,g,g^d)}(m,(e,s)) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } (g^d)^e e^s \equiv g^m \pmod{p}, \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Setup as encryption: p an appropriate prime, g a generator of \mathbf{Z}_p^* , and the private signing key, d a random integer with $1 \le d \le p 2$.
- ▶ The public verification key is $(p, g, g^d \mod p)$.
- ▶ To sign a message m, $0 \le m \le p$, the signer picks a random secret number r with $1 \le r \le p 2$ and gcd(r, p 1) = 1, and computes:

$$\mathbf{S}_d(m) = (e, s)$$
 where $e = g^r \mod p$
 $de + rs \equiv m \pmod{p-1}$.

► The verification function checks that $1 \le e \le p - 1$, and an equation:

$$\mathbf{V}_{(p,g,g^d)}(m,(e,s)) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } (g^d)^e e^s \equiv g^m \pmod{p}, \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Verification works because for a correct signature, $(a^d)^e e^s \equiv q^{de+rs} \equiv q^m \pmod{p}$.

Outline

Basics

Constructing signature schemes

Security of signature schemes

ElGamal

DSA

Summary

► The Digital Signature Algorithm is part of the NIST Digitial Signature Standard [FIPS-186].

- The Digital Signature Algorithm is part of the NIST Digitial Signature Standard [FIPS-186].
- Based on ElGamal, but with improved efficiency.

- The Digital Signature Algorithm is part of the NIST Digitial Signature Standard [FIPS-186].
- Based on ElGamal, but with improved efficiency.
- The first digital signature scheme to be recognized by any government.

- The Digital Signature Algorithm is part of the NIST Digitial Signature Standard [FIPS-186].
- Based on ElGamal, but with improved efficiency.
- ► The first digital signature scheme to be recognized by any government.
- ▶ Based on two primes: p, which is 512–1024 bits long, and q, which is a 160-bit prime factor of p − 1. A signature signs a SHA-1 hash value of a message. (In fact, ElGamal signing should be used with a hash function to prevent existential forgery)

- The Digital Signature Algorithm is part of the NIST Digitial Signature Standard [FIPS-186].
- Based on ElGamal, but with improved efficiency.
- The first digital signature scheme to be recognized by any government.
- ▶ Based on two primes: p, which is 512–1024 bits long, and q, which is a 160-bit prime factor of p − 1. A signature signs a SHA-1 hash value of a message. (In fact, ElGamal signing should be used with a hash function to prevent existential forgery)
- Security of both ElGamal and DSA schemes relies on the intractability of the DLP.

- The Digital Signature Algorithm is part of the NIST Digitial Signature Standard [FIPS-186].
- Based on ElGamal, but with improved efficiency.
- The first digital signature scheme to be recognized by any government.
- ▶ Based on two primes: p, which is 512–1024 bits long, and q, which is a 160-bit prime factor of p − 1. A signature signs a SHA-1 hash value of a message. (In fact, ElGamal signing should be used with a hash function to prevent existential forgery)
- ➤ **Security** of both ElGamal and DSA schemes relies on the intractability of the DLP.
- Comparison with RSA signature scheme: key generation is faster; signature generation is about the same; DSA verification is slower. Verification is the most common operation in general.

Outline

Basics

Constructing signature schemes

Security of signature schemes

ElGamal

DSA

Summary

Summary: Digital Signature Schemes

- RSA, ElGamal, DSA already described. There are several variants of ElGamal, including schemes with message recovery.
- Notice difference between randomized and deterministic schemes.
- Schemes for one-time signatures (e.g., Rabin, Merkle), require a fresh public key for each use.
 - Typically more efficient than RSA/ElGamal methods.
 - But tedious for multiple documents
- E-cash protocols use **blind signature** schemes that prevent the signer (e.g., a bank) linking a signed message (e.g., the cash) with the user.
- For real world security guarantees:
 - obtaining correct public key is vital;
 - non-repudiation supposes that private key has not been stolen;
 - we may require secure time stamps.

References

Alfred J. Menezes, Paul C. Van Oorschot, and Scott A. Vanstone, editors. Handbook of Applied Cryptography.

CRC Press Series on Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications. CRC Press, 1997.

Online version at http://www.cacr.math.uwaterloo.ca/hac.
Digital signatures covered in Section 1.6 and Chapter 11.

Nigel Smart. Cryptography: An Introduction.
McGraw-Hill, 2003. Third edition online:
http://www.cs.bris.ac.uk/~nigel/Crypto_Book/

Recommended Reading

Chapter 14 (14.2–14.4, 14.7) of Smart (3rd Ed).