

Digital signatures

Introduction to cryptology

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Introduction

Goal: authenticity of a message, in the context of public key cryptography

- ▶ The sender *signs* a message m with a private key $sk \rightarrow$ *signature* σ
- ▶ Anyone, with the sender's public key pk , can *verify* the signature σ

Compare with MACs

- ▶ Public key/private key instead of a single key
- ▶ *tag* \rightarrow *signature*

Advantages compared to MAC

Public verification: using the signer's public key

Transfer: a signed message can be forwarded with its signature

Non-repudiation: the signer cannot deny having signed

Examples of use

Vaccine pass

- ▶ Vaccination → signature (QR code) with the authorities' private key
- ▶ Verification → anyone can verify, with the authorities' public key

Authenticated email

- ▶ Alice publishes her public key pk_A
- ▶ When Alice sends an email, she sends it together with the corresponding signature
- ▶ The recipient can verify that the sender is Alice or... knows Alice's secret key!

Software distribution

- ▶ A software company distributes softwares with a signature
- ▶ Users (customers) download a software and check the signature before installing it

Certificates

- ▶ How can one be sure that pk_A really is Alice's public key?
- ▶ A *certificate authority* signs pk_A using its own secret key
- ▶ Web or tree of certificates

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1. Definitions and security

2. Schnorr identification protocol and signature scheme

3. Additional concepts

Digital signature scheme

Definition

A **signature scheme** is given by three algorithms:

$\text{Gen}_n()$ generates a pair of keys (pk, sk)

n usually implicit

$\text{Sign}_{sk}(m)$ computes a *signature* σ for m

$\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, \sigma)$ returns 1 if the signature is *valid*, and 0 otherwise

Correction

The scheme is *correct* if for all $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}()$ and $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{sk}(m)$, $\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, \sigma) = 1$

Compare (again) with MACs

- ▶ Public key/private key instead of a single key
- ▶ $tag \rightarrow signature$
- ▶ $Mac \rightarrow Sign$

Security notions for digital signatures

Goals: unforgeability

Should be hard for an adversary to produce a valid signature without knowing the secret key

- ▶ Existential forgery: produce any pair (m, σ) such that $\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, \sigma) = 1$
- ▶ Universal forgery: given m , produce σ such that $\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, \sigma) = 1$

Means

- ▶ Key-Only Attack: the adversary only knows the public key
- ▶ Known Message Attack: the adversary knows some valid pairs (m_i, σ_i)
- ▶ Chosen Message Attacks: the adversary can query signatures for messages m_i
 - ▶ Generic: queries must be sent before knowing the public key
 - ▶ Non-adaptative: all queries must be sent before receiving any signature
 - ▶ Adaptative: queries can be made adaptively after receiving some signatures

Strongness

- ▶ Standard: Adversary must sign a message for which it does not know any signature
- ▶ Strong: Adversary must produce a new signature

A formal definition of security

Existential Unforgeability Game

Challenger $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}()$

Adversary queries messages m_i and gets valid signatures $\sigma_i \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{sk}(m_i), 1 \leq i \leq q$

Adversary outputs a candidate pair (m, σ) where $m \notin \{m_1, \dots, m_q\}$

Advantage

▶ Advantage of A : $\text{Adv}_{\text{Sign/Vrfy}}^{\text{EUF-CMA}}(A) = \Pr [\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, \sigma) = 1]$

▶ Advantage function:

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{Sign/Vrfy}}^{\text{EUF-CMA}}(q, t) = \max_{A_{q,t}} \text{Adv}_{\text{Sign/Vrfy}}^{\text{EUF-CMA}}(A_{q,t})$$

where $A_{q,t}$ denotes an algorithm making $\leq q$ queries with running time $\leq t$

Note

▶ Exactly identical to the definition for a MAC!

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General principle

Identification protocol: prove one's identity to an interlocutor

Players: A *prover*: owns a secret key sk

A *verifier*: knows the corresponding public key pk

Goals for the prover:

- ▶ convince the verifier that they knows the secret key sk
- ▶ without revealing *anything* about sk to the verifier

Fiat-Shamir construction

- ▶ Given an identification protocol, we can build a signature scheme

Schnorr's protocols

- ▶ Identification protocol
- ▶ Signature scheme *via* the Fiat-Shamir construction
- ▶ Example: DSA & ECDSA are variants of Schnorr's scheme

Schnorr identification protocol (1989)

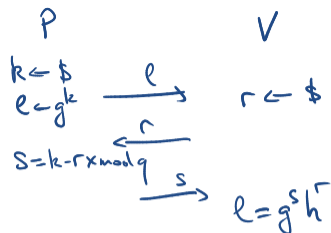
Protocol definition ^{cyclic}

Public: a group G of prime order q , with generator g

Keys: $sk = x \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}$ and $pk = h = g^x$ (public)

Protocol:

1. Prover: $k \leftarrow \{0, \dots, q-1\}$; $\ell \leftarrow g^k$; Send ℓ
2. Verifier: $r \leftarrow \{0, \dots, q-1\}$; Send r
3. Prover: $s \leftarrow (k - r \cdot x) \bmod q$; Send s
4. Verifier: accept iff $\ell = g^s \cdot h^r$



r : the challenge
using $sk = x$
using $pk = h$

Correction

$$\ell = g^k \quad g^s h^r = g^s g^{xr} = g^{s+xr \bmod q} = g^k = \ell$$

Security definition

Game: an adversary observes several *transcripts*, and tries to impersonate a Prover

Advantage: probability for the adversary to convince a verifier

Schnorr identification security: proof sketch

Theorem

If the discrete logarithm problem is hard in G , Schnorr identification protocol is secure:

If an adversary is able to convince a verifier, it can compute discrete logarithms in G

Hyp: A_0 is able to convince the verifier

→ A_0 runs the protocol twice, with the same value of k and gets two challenges r_1 and r_2 from the verifier and answers with s_1 and s_2

→ the verifier accepts both s_1 and s_2

$$\Rightarrow g^k = g^{s_1} h^{r_1} = g^{s_2} h^{r_2} \Rightarrow g^{s_1 + r_1 x} = g^{s_2 + r_2 x} \Rightarrow s_1 - s_2 = x(r_2 - r_1) \pmod{q}$$
$$\Rightarrow x = (s_1 - s_2)(r_2 - r_1)^{-1} \pmod{q}$$

Thissing in the proof: technically involved argument to show that if A_0 has prob. ϵ to convince the verifier, then A_0 has prob. $\geq \epsilon^2 - \epsilon/q$ to compute x .

Fiat-Shamir construction (1986)

Build a signature scheme from an identification protocol

Requires: an identification protocol and a hash function

Builds: a signature scheme

$\text{Sign}_{sk}(m)$: simulation of the identification protocol where the challenge is produced by the hash function; the signature is the challenge and the answer

$\text{Vrfy}_{pk}(\sigma)$: check that the answer is consistent with the challenge

Theorem (admitted)

Pointcheval, Stern (1996)

If the identification protocol is secure and H is random, the resulting signature scheme is EUF-CMA secure

Remarks

- ▶ An identification protocol is an interactive *zero-knowledge proof* ZKP
- ▶ Fiat-Shamir construction turns any ZKP into a *non-interactive* one NIZKP

Schnorr signature scheme (1989)

Protocol description

Public: A cyclic group G of order $q \simeq 2^n$ and generator g , $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow G$

Keys: $sk = x \leftarrow \{0, \dots, q-1\}$ and $pk = h \leftarrow g^x$

Sign_{sk}(m): Simulation of the identification protocol:

$m \in \{0, 1\}^*$

- X**
1. $k \leftarrow \{0, \dots, q-1\}$; $\ell \leftarrow g^k$
 2. $r \leftarrow H(\ell \| m)$; $s \leftarrow k - rx \pmod q$
 3. Return the signature (r, s)

challenge and answer

Vrfy_{pk}(m, r, s):

1. $\ell \leftarrow g^s \cdot h^r$
2. Accept iff $H(\ell \| m) = r$

h

Correction

$\ell = g^s h^r$ as before + " $H(\ell \| m) = H(\ell \| m)$ "

Theorem

Pointcheval, Stern (1996)

If the DLP is hard in G and H is random, Schnorr signature is EUF-CMA secure

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Hash-and-sign

Rationale

- ▶ Signature schemes are less efficient than MACs
- ▶ Some signature schemes are designed for fixed-length messages only

Obvious idea

- ▶ Compute the signature of a hash of the message, rather than the message
- ▶ Remark: used in Schnorr's signature scheme

Construction

Given a signature scheme $(\text{Sign}, \text{Vrfy})$ for fixed-length messages $m \in \mathcal{M}$
a hash function $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$

Build a signature scheme $(\text{Sign}', \text{Vrfy}')$ for messages in $\{0, 1\}^*$:

$\text{Sign}'_{sk}(m): \text{Sign}_{sk}(H(m))$

$\text{Vrfy}'_{pk}(m, \sigma): \text{Vrfy}_{pk}(H(m), \sigma)$

Hash-and-sign security

Theorem

If $(\text{Sign}, \text{Vrfy})$ is EUF-CMA secure and H is collision resistant, then $(\text{Sign}', \text{Vrfy}')$ is EUF-CMA secure

Hyp: \mathcal{A} an adversary against $(\text{Sign}', \text{Vrfy}')$

- Queries $m_i \rightsquigarrow$ signatures $\sigma_i = \text{Sign}'_{\text{sk}}(m_i) = \text{Sign}_{\text{sk}}(H(m_i))$
- Produces a valid pair (m, σ)

Case 1 : there exists m_i such that $H(m) = H(m_i) \rightsquigarrow H$ is not collision resistant

Case 2 : for all m_i , $H(m) \neq H(m_i)$.

Let $h = H(m)$ and $h_i = H(m_i)$ for all i .

\mathcal{A} knows (h_i, σ_i) and computes (h, σ) such that $\text{Vrfy}_{\text{pk}}(h, \sigma) = 1$
 $\Rightarrow (\text{Sign}, \text{Vrfy})$ is not EUF-CMA secure

Remark: Add probabilities for a real proof

Signcryption

Combine signature and public-key encryption

A problem with *Encrypt-then-sign*

Keys: (pk_S, sk_S) for the **Sender** and (pk_R, sk_R) for the **Recipient**

Sender computes $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{pk_R}(m)$ and $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{sk_S}(c)$

Recipient decrypts c using $\text{Dec}_{sk_R}(c)$ and verifies it with $\text{Vrfy}_{pk_S}(\sigma)$

Adversary intercepts c and computes $\sigma_A \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{sk_A}(c)$

→ the adversary can pretend to be the sender

Workaround

- ▶ Each user X has a unique *identity* id_X
- ▶ Each participant can obtain the public-key pk_X associated to id_X
- ▶ Signature of the message or ciphertext *and the identity*

Secure *signcryption*

Two examples

Encrypt-then-sign: $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{pk_R}(m); \sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{sk_S}(c || id_S)$

Sign-then-encrypt: $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{sk_S}(m); c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{pk_R}(m || \sigma || id_S)$

Security definition

IND-CCA: standard game/advantage, but including the signature

INT-CTXT: game of *ciphertext forgery*

ciphertext integrity

Result (informally)

Both *Encrypt-then-Sign* and *Sign-then-Encrypt* are secure if the encryption scheme and the signature schemes are (sufficiently) secure

Public-Key Infrastructures

Where do I find public-keys? How to be sure of the real owner of a key?

Certificates

- ▶ $\text{cert}_{B \rightarrow C} = \text{Sign}_{sk_B}(id_C || pk_C)$: B certifies that C 's public-key is pk_C
- ▶ If A trusts B :
 - ▶ C can send pk_C together with $\text{cert}_{B \rightarrow C}$
 - ▶ A can verify $\text{cert}_{B \rightarrow C}$ and accept pk_C as the public-key of C

Certificate authorities and chains

Certificate authority: trusted entities, used as roots in certificate chains e.g DigiCert

Certificate chains: trees of certifications, from authorities to end users

Certificate revocation

- ▶ Short-lived certificates: add an expiration date $\text{cert}_{B \rightarrow C} = \text{Sign}_{sk_B}(id_C || pk_C || T)$
- ▶ Certification revocation lists, using a serial number for each certificate

Conclusion

Signature scheme

- ▶ Goals:
 - ▶ Authenticity: *identity of the sender*
 - ▶ Non-repudiation: *commitment of the sender*
- ▶ Asymmetric (and more powerful!) version of MACs

Constructions

- ▶ Based on the same problems as asymmetric encryption (discrete log., RSA, LWE, ...)
- ▶ Combination with hashing for efficiency
- ▶ Links with zero-knowledge proofs
- ▶ Public-key infrastructures: a whole subject!

Authentication without encryption can be useful...

... encryption without authentication is useless!