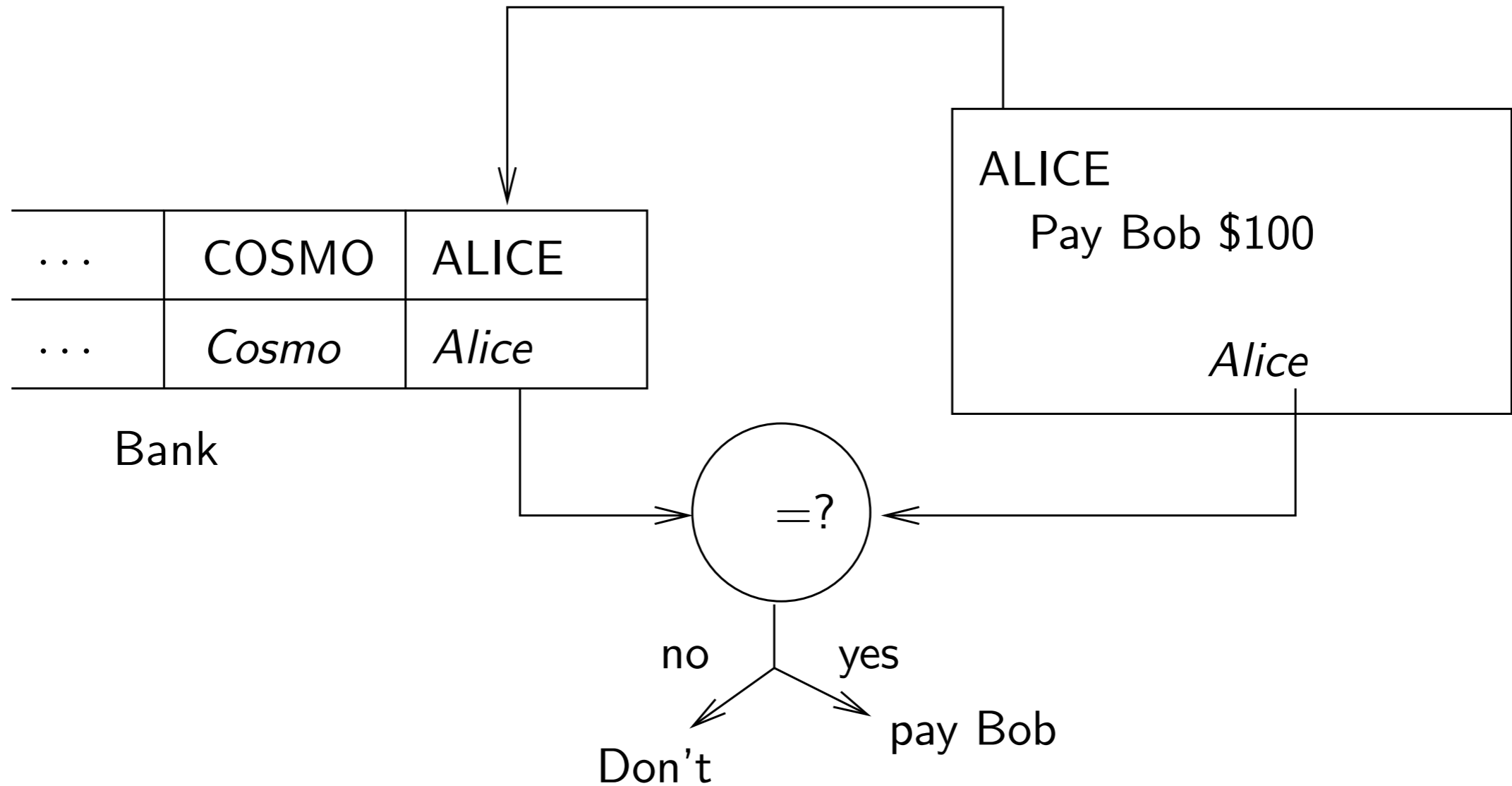


# Digital Signatures

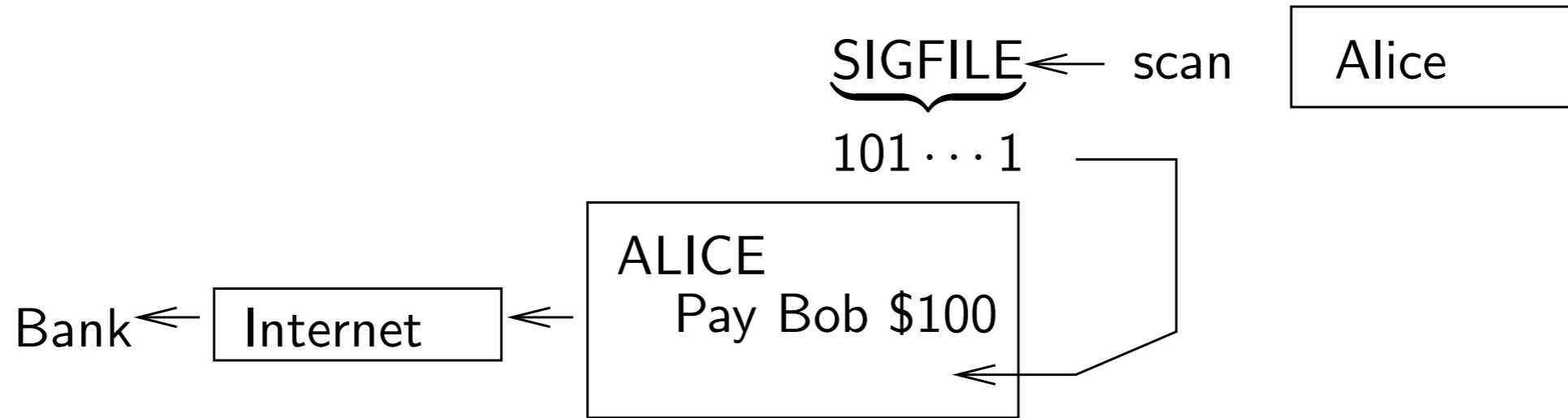
Adam O'Neill

based on <http://cseweb.ucsd.edu/~mihir/cse207/>

# Signing by hand



# Signing electronically



**Problem:** signature is easily copied

**Inference:** signature must be a function of the message that only Alice can compute

# Digital signatures

- A digital signature will have the following attributes:

# Digital signatures

- A digital signature will have the following attributes:
  - Even the bank cannot forge

# Digital signatures

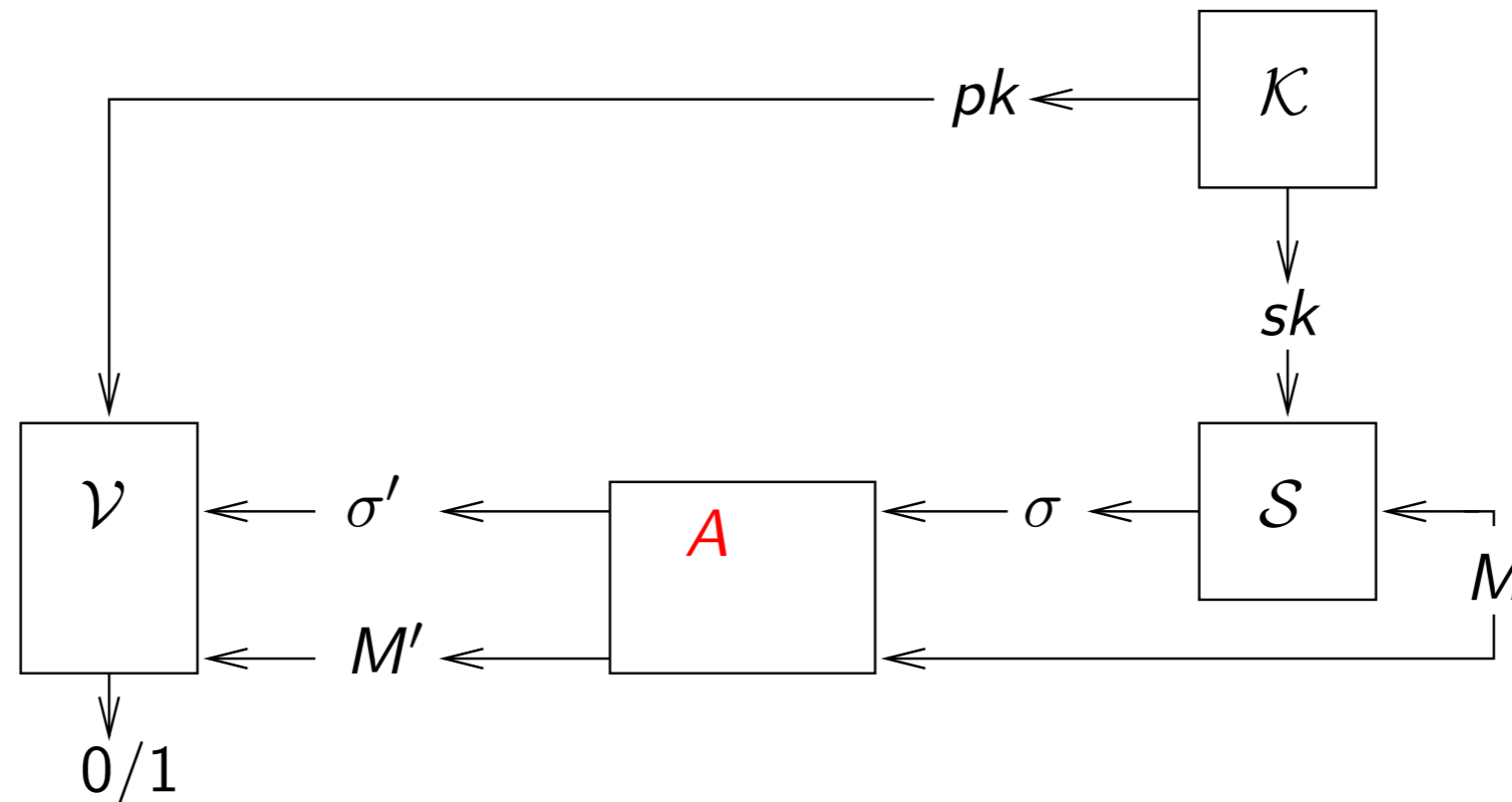
- A digital signature will have the following attributes:
  - Even the bank cannot forge
  - Verifier does not need to share a key with signer or have any secrets at all

# Digital signatures

- A digital signature will have the following attributes:
  - Even the bank cannot forge
  - Verifier does not need to share a key with signer or have any secrets at all
  - Public keys of signers distributed as for encryption

# Digital signatures

A digital signature scheme  $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$  is a triple of algorithms where



Correctness:  $\mathcal{V}(pk, M, \mathcal{S}(sk, M)) = 1$  with probability one for all  $M$ .



# Usage

## Step 1: key generation

Alice lets  $(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}$  and stores  $sk$  (securely).

## Step 2: $pk$ dissemination

Alice enables any potential verifier to get  $pk$ .

## Step 3: sign

Alice can generate a signature  $\sigma$  of a document  $M$  using  $sk$ .

## Step 4: verify

Anyone holding  $pk$  can verify that  $\sigma$  is Alice's signature on  $M$ .

# Security of a DS Scheme

## Possible adversary goals

- find  $sk$
- Forge

## Possible adversary abilities

- can get  $pk$
- known message attack
- chosen message attack

# Security of a DS Scheme

**Interpretation:** adversary cannot get a verifier to accept  $\sigma$  as Alice's signature of  $M$  unless Alice has really previously signed  $M$ , even if adversary can obtain Alice's signatures on messages of the adversary's choice.

As with MA schemes, the definition does **not** require security against replay. That is handled on top, via counters or time stamps.

# UF-CMA

Let  $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$  be a signature scheme and  $A$  an adversary.

Game  $\text{UF-CMA}_{\mathcal{DS}}$

**procedure Initialize**

$(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}; S \leftarrow \emptyset$

return  $pk$

**procedure Finalize**( $M, \sigma$ )

$d \leftarrow \mathcal{V}(pk, M, \sigma)$

return  $(d = 1 \wedge M \notin S)$

**procedure Sign**( $M$ ):

$\sigma \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{S}(sk, M)$

$S \leftarrow S \cup \{M\}$

return  $\sigma$

The uf-cma advantage of  $A$  is

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) = \Pr [\text{UF-CMA}_{\mathcal{DS}}^A \Rightarrow \text{true}]$$

# Strong unforgeability

Adversary can't get receiver to accept  $\sigma$  as Alice's signature on  $M$  unless

- UF: Alice previously signed  $M$
- SUF: Alice previously signed  $M$  and produced signature  $\sigma$

Adversary wins if it gets receiver to accept  $\sigma$  as Alice's signature on  $M$  and

- UF: Alice did not previously sign  $M$
- SUF: Alice may have previously signed  $M$  but the signature(s) produced were different from  $\sigma$

# SUF-CMA

Let  $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$  be a signature scheme and  $A$  an adversary.

Game  $\text{SUF-CMA}_{\mathcal{DS}}$

**procedure Initialize:**

$(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}; S \leftarrow \emptyset$

**return**  $pk$

**procedure Finalize**( $M, \sigma$ ):

**return**  $\mathcal{V}(pk, M, \sigma) = 1$  and  $(M, \sigma) \notin S$

**procedure Sign**( $M$ ):

$\sigma \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{S}(sk, M)$

$S \leftarrow S \cup \{(M, \sigma)\}$

**return**  $\sigma$

The suf-cma advantage of  $A$  is

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{suf-cma}}(A) = \Pr [\text{SUF-CMA}_{\mathcal{DS}}^A \Rightarrow \text{true}]$$

# RSA signatures

Fix an RSA generator  $\mathcal{K}_{rsa}$  and let the key generation algorithm be

**Alg**  $\mathcal{K}$

$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}_{rsa}$

$pk \leftarrow (N, e); sk \leftarrow (N, d)$

**return**  $pk, sk$

We will use these keys in all our RSA-based schemes and only describe signing and verifying.

# Idea

Signer  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $sk = (N, d)$

Let  $f, f^{-1}: \mathbb{Z}_N^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  be the RSA function (encryption) and inverse (decryption) defined by

$$f(x) = x^e \bmod N \quad \text{and} \quad f^{-1}(y) = y^d \bmod N.$$

Sign by “decrypting” the message  $y$ :

$$x = \mathcal{S}_{N,d}(y) = f^{-1}(y) = y^d \bmod N$$

Verify by “encrypting” signature  $x$ :

$$\mathcal{V}_{N,e}(x) = 1 \text{ iff } f(x) = y \text{ iff } x^e \equiv y \bmod N.$$



# Plain RSA signatures

Signer  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $sk = (N, d)$

**Alg**  $S_{N,d}(y)$ :

$x \leftarrow y^d \pmod N$

**return**  $x$

**Alg**  $V_{N,e}(y, x)$ :

**if**  $x^e \equiv y \pmod N$  **then return** 1

**return** 0

Here  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  is the message and  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  is the signature.

# Attacks



# Historical perspective

When Diffie and Hellman introduced public-key cryptography they suggested the DS scheme

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}(sk, M) &= D(sk, M) \\ \mathcal{V}(pk, M, \sigma) &= 1 \text{ iff } E(pk, \sigma) = M \end{aligned}$$

where  $(E, D)$  is a public-key encryption scheme.

But

- This views public-key encryption as deterministic; they really mean trapdoor permutations in our language
- Plain RSA is an example
- It doesn't work!

Nonetheless, many textbooks still view digital signatures this way.

# Another issue

In plain RSA, the message is an element of  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ . We really want to be able to sign strings of arbitrary length.

# Hash-based RSA sigs

Let  $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  be a public hash function and let  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $sk = (N, d)$  be the signer's keys. The hash-then-decrypt scheme is

**Alg**  $\mathcal{S}_{N,d}(M)$ :

$y \leftarrow H(M)$

$x \leftarrow y^d \pmod N$

**return**  $x$

**Alg**  $\mathcal{V}_{N,e}(M, x)$ :

$y \leftarrow H(M)$

**if**  $x^e \equiv y \pmod N$  **then return** 1

**return** 0

Succinctly,

$$\mathcal{S}_{N,d}(M) = H(M)^d \pmod N$$

Different choices of  $H$  give rise to different schemes.

# Hash function requirements

Suppose an adversary can find a collision for  $H$ , meaning distinct  $M_1, M_2$  with  $H(M_1) = H(M_2)$ .

Then

$$H(M_1)^d \equiv H(M_2)^d \pmod{N}$$

meaning  $M_1, M_2$  have the same signature.

So forgery is easy:

- Obtain from signing oracle the signature  $x_1 = H(M_1)^d \pmod{N}$  of  $M_1$
- Output  $M_2$  and its signature  $x_1$

**Conclusion:**  $H$  needs to be collision-resistant

# Preventing previous attacks

For plain RSA

- 1 is a signature of 1
- $\mathcal{S}_{N,d}(y_1y_2) = \mathcal{S}_{N,d}(y_1) \cdot \mathcal{S}_{N,d}(y_2)$

But with hash-then-decrypt RSA

- $H(1)^d \not\equiv 1$  so 1 is not a signature of 1
- $\mathcal{S}_{N,d}(M_1M_2) = H(M_1M_2)^d \not\equiv H(M_1)^d \cdot H(M_2)^d \pmod{N}$

A “good” choice of  $H$  prevents known attacks.



# RSA PKCS #1 sigs

Signer has  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $sk = (N, d)$  where  $|N| = 1024$ . Let  $h: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{160}$  be a hash function (like SHA-1) and let  $n = |N|_8 = 1024/8 = 128$ .

Then

$$H_{PKCS}(M) = 00||01|| \underbrace{FF|| \dots || FF}_{n-22} || \underbrace{h(M)}_{20}$$

And

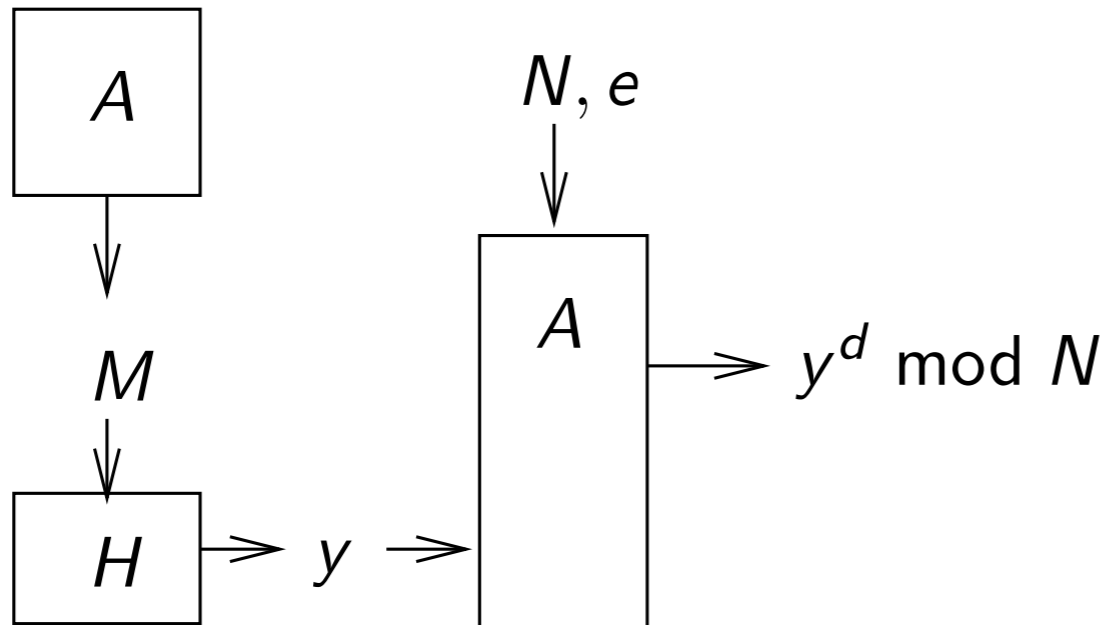
$$S_{N,d}(M) = H_{PKCS}(M)^d \pmod N$$

Then

- $H_{PKCS}$  is CR as long as  $h$  is CR
- $H_{PKCS}(1) \not\equiv 1 \pmod N$
- $H_{PKCS}(y_1 y_2) \not\equiv H_{PKCS}(y_1) \cdot H_{PKCS}(y_2) \pmod N$

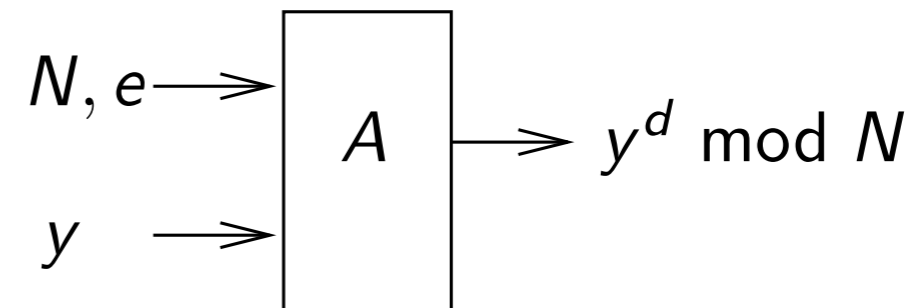
# Security

Forger's goal



$y$  here need not be random

Inverter's goal



$y$  here is **random**

# The Problem

Recall

$$H_{PKCS}(M) = 00||01||FF|| \dots ||FF||h(M)$$

But first  $n - 20 = 108$  bytes out of  $n$  are fixed so  $H_{PKCS}(M)$  does not look “random” **even if  $h$  is a RO or perfect.**

We cannot hope to show RSA PKCS#1 signatures are secure assuming (only) that RSA is 1-way **no matter what we assume about  $h$**  and even if  $h$  is a random oracle.

# Goal

We will validate the hash-then-decrypt paradigm

$$\mathcal{S}_{N,d}(M) = H(M)^d \bmod N$$

by showing the signature scheme is provably UF-CMA assuming RSA is 1-way as long as  $H$  is a RO.

This says the paradigm has no “structural weaknesses” and we should be able to get security with “good” choices of  $H$ .

# Choice of hash

A “good” choice of  $H$  might be something like

$$H(M) = \text{first } n \text{ bytes of} \\ \text{SHA1}(1 \parallel M) \parallel \text{SHA1}(2 \parallel M) \parallel \dots \parallel \text{SHA1}(11 \parallel M)$$

# Full-Domain Hash

Signer  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $sk = (N, d)$

algorithm  $\mathcal{S}_{N,d}^H(M)$   
**return**  $H(M)^d \bmod N$

algorithm  $\mathcal{V}_{N,e}^H(M, x)$   
**if**  $x^e \equiv H(M) \pmod{N}$  **then return** 1  
**else return** 0

Here  $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  is a random oracle.

# UF-CMA in the RO Model

Let  $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$  be a signature scheme and  $A$  an adversary.

Game  $\text{UF-CMA}_{\mathcal{DS}}$

**procedure Initialize:**

$(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}; S \leftarrow \emptyset$

**return**  $pk$

**procedure Finalize** $(M, \sigma)$ :

**return**  $\mathcal{V}^H(pk, M, \sigma) = 1$  and  $M \notin S$

**procedure Sign** $(M)$ :

$\sigma \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{S}^H(sk, M)$

$S \leftarrow S \cup \{M\}$

**return**  $\sigma$

**procedure**  $H(M)$ :

**if**  $H[M] = \perp$  **then**  $H[M] \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{R}$

**return**  $H[M]$

Here  $\mathcal{R}$  is the range of  $H$ .

# Security of FDH

**Theorem:** [BR96] Let  $\mathcal{K}_{rsa}$  be a RSA generator and  $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$  the associated FDH RO-model signature scheme. Let  $A$  be a uf-cma adversary making  $q_s$  signing queries and  $q_H$  queries to the RO  $H$  and having running time at most  $t$ . Then there is an inverter  $I$  such that

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) \leq (q_s + q_H + 1) \cdot \mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{K}_{rsa}}^{\text{owf}}(I).$$

Furthermore the running time of  $I$  is that of  $A$  plus the time for  $\mathcal{O}(q_s + q_H + 1)$  computations of the RSA function.



# RO proofs for encryption

There is a “crucial” hash query  $Q$  such that

- If  $A$  does not query  $Q$  it has 0 advantage
- If  $A$  queries  $Q$  an overlying algorithm can “see” it and solve some presumed hard computational problem

**Example:** In the RO EG KEM,  $Q = g^{xy}$  where  $pk = g^x$  and  $g^y$  is in challenge ciphertext.

# Programming the RO

For signatures we exploit the RO model in a new way by replying to RO queries with carefully constructed objects. In particular the inverter  $I$  that on input  $y$  aims to compute  $y^d \bmod N$  might reply to a RO query  $M$  made by  $A$  via

- $y$  or some function thereof
- $x^e \bmod N$  for  $x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  chosen by  $I$

Thus  $I$  is “programming”  $H(M)$  to equal values of  $I$ 's choice.

# Inverter

adversary  $I(N, e, y)$

$g \xleftarrow{\$} \{1, \dots, q_H\}; j \leftarrow 0$   
 $(M, \sigma) \xleftarrow{\$} A^{\text{HSim, SignSim}}(N, e)$   
Return  $\sigma$

**subroutine**  $\text{SignSim}(M)$

$j \leftarrow \text{Ind}(M)$   
Return  $x_j$

**subroutine**  $\text{HSim}(M)$

$j \leftarrow j + 1; M_j \leftarrow M; \text{Ind}(M) \leftarrow j$   
If  $j = g$  then  $H[M] \leftarrow y; x_j \leftarrow \perp$   
else  $x_j \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*; H[M] \leftarrow x_j^e \bmod N$   
Return  $H[M]$

Games  $G_0, \boxed{G_1}$

**procedure Initialize**

$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}_{rsa}$   
 $g \xleftarrow{\$} \{1, \dots, q_H\}; j \leftarrow 0; y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*$   
**return**  $(N, e)$

**procedure Sign** $(M)$

$j \leftarrow \text{Ind}(M)$   
**if**  $j = g$  **then**  $x_j \leftarrow y^d \bmod N$   
**return**  $x_j$

**procedure**  $H(M)$

$j \leftarrow j + 1; M_j \leftarrow M; \text{Ind}(M) \leftarrow j$   
**if**  $j = g$  **then**  $H[M] \leftarrow y; x_j \leftarrow \perp$   
**else**  $x_j \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*; H[M] \leftarrow x_j^e \bmod N$   
**return**  $H[M]$

**procedure Finalize** $(M, \sigma)$

$j \leftarrow \text{Ind}(M)$   
**if**  $j \neq g$  **then**  $\text{bad} \leftarrow \text{true}$   
**return**  $(\sigma^e \equiv H[M] \pmod{N})$

Let  $\text{Bad}_i$  be the event that  $G_i$  sets bad. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{K}_{rsa}}^{\text{owf}}(I) &\geq \Pr \left[ G_0^A \Rightarrow \text{true} \wedge \overline{\text{Bad}_0} \right] \\ &= \Pr \left[ G_1^A \Rightarrow \text{true} \wedge \overline{\text{Bad}_1} \right] \end{aligned}$$

where last line is due to Fundamental Lemma variant. But the events “ $G_1^A \Rightarrow \text{true}$ ” and “ $\overline{\text{Bad}_1}$ ” are independent so

$$\begin{aligned} &= \Pr \left[ G_1^A \Rightarrow \text{true} \right] \cdot \Pr \left[ \overline{\text{Bad}_1} \right] \\ &= \mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) \cdot \frac{1}{q} \end{aligned}$$

# Choosing a modulus size

Say we want 80-bits of security, meaning a time  $t$  attacker should have advantage at most  $t \cdot 2^{-80}$ . The following shows modulus size  $k$  and cost  $c$  of one exponentiation, with  $q_H = 2^{60}$  and  $q_s = 2^{45}$  in the FDH case:

Task	$k$	$c$
Inverting RSA	1024	1
Breaking FDH as per [BR96] reduction	3700	47

This (for simplicity) neglects the running time difference between  $A, I$ .

This motivates getting tighter reductions for FDH, or alternative schemes with tighter reductions.

# Better analysis

**Theorem:** [Co00] Let  $\mathcal{K}_{rsa}$  be a RSA generator and  $\mathcal{DS} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$  the associated FDH RO-model signature scheme. Let  $A$  be a uf-cma adversary making  $q_s$  signing queries and  $q_H$  queries to the RO  $H$  and having running time at most  $t$ . Then there is an inverter  $I$  such that

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{DS}}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) \leq \mathcal{O}(q_s) \cdot \mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{K}_{rsa}}^{\text{owf}}(I).$$

Furthermore the running time of  $I$  is that of  $A$  plus the time for  $\mathcal{O}(q_s + q_H + 1)$  computations of the RSA function.

# Proof Idea



# Choosing a modulus size

Say we want 80-bits of security, meaning a time  $t$  attacker should have advantage at most  $t \cdot 2^{-80}$ . The following shows modulus size  $k$  and cost  $c$  of one exponentiation, with  $q_H = 2^{60}$  and  $q_S = 2^{45}$  in the FDH case:

Task	$k$	$c$
Inverting RSA	1024	1
Breaking FDH as per [BR96] reduction	3700	47
Breaking FDH as per [Co00] reduction	2800	21

# RSA-PSS

Signer  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $sk = (N, d)$

algorithm $\mathcal{S}_{N,d}^{h,g_1,g_2}(M)$ $r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{160}$ $w \leftarrow h(M \parallel r)$ $r^* \leftarrow g_1(w) \oplus r$ $y \leftarrow 0 \parallel w \parallel r^* \parallel g_2(w)$ return $y^d \bmod N$	algorithm $\mathcal{V}_{N,e}^{h,g_1,g_2}(M, x)$ $y \leftarrow x^e \bmod N$ $b \parallel w \parallel r^* \parallel P \leftarrow y$ $r \leftarrow r^* \oplus g_1(w)$ if $(g_2(w) \neq P)$ then return 0 if $(b = 1)$ then return 0 if $(h(M \parallel r) \neq w)$ then return 0 return 1
--	---

Here  $h, g_1: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{160}$  and  $g_2: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{k-321}$  are random oracles where  $k = |N|$ .

# Choosing a modulus size

Say we want 80-bits of security, meaning a time  $t$  attacker should have advantage at most  $t \cdot 2^{-80}$ . The following shows modulus size  $k$  and cost  $c$  of one exponentiation, with  $q_H = 2^{60}$  and  $q_S = 2^{45}$  in the FDH and PSS cases:

Task	$k$	$c$
Inverting RSA	1024	1
Breaking FDH as per [BR96] reduction	3700	47
Breaking FDH as per [Co00] reduction	2800	21
Breaking PSS as per [BR96] reduction	1024	1

# Choosing a modulus size

There are no attacks showing that FDH is less secure than RSA, meaning there are no attacks indicating FDH with a 1024 bit modulus has less than 80 bits of security. But to get the provable guarantees we must use larger moduli as shown, or use PSS.

# ElGamal sigs

Let  $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^* = \langle g \rangle$  where  $p$  is prime.

Signer keys:  $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  and  $sk = x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$

**Algorithm  $\mathcal{S}_x(m)$**

$k \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}^*$

$r \leftarrow g^k \pmod p$

$s \leftarrow (m - xr) \cdot k^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)}$

**return  $(r, s)$**

**Algorithm  $\mathcal{V}_X(m, (r, s))$**

**if  $(r \notin G \text{ or } s \notin \mathbf{Z}_{p-1})$**

**then return 0**

**if  $(X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \pmod p)$**

**then return 1**

**else return 0**

Correctness check: If  $(r, s) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{S}_x(m)$  then

$$X^r \cdot r^s = g^{xr} g^{ks} = g^{xr+ks} = g^{xr+k(m-xr)k^{-1}} \pmod{(p-1)} = g^{xr+m-xr} = g^m$$

so  $\mathcal{V}_X(m, (r, s)) = 1$ .

# Security

Signer keys:  $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  and  $sk = x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$

**Algorithm**  $\mathcal{S}_x(m)$

$k \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}^*$

$r \leftarrow g^k \pmod p$

$s \leftarrow (m - xr) \cdot k^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)}$

**return**  $(r, s)$

**Algorithm**  $\mathcal{V}_X(m, (r, s))$

**if**  $(r \notin G \text{ or } s \notin \mathbf{Z}_{p-1})$

**then return** 0

**if**  $(X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \pmod p)$

**then return** 1

**else return** 0

Suppose given  $X = g^x$  and  $m$  the adversary wants to compute  $r, s$  so that  $X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \pmod p$ . It could:

- Pick  $r$  and try to solve for  $s = \text{DLog}_{\mathbf{Z}_{p,r}^*}(g^m X^{-r})$
- Pick  $s$  and try to solve for  $r \dots?$

# Forgery!

Adversary has better luck if it picks  $m$  itself:

**Adversary**  $A(X)$

$r \leftarrow gX \pmod p; s \leftarrow (-r) \pmod{(p-1)}; m \leftarrow s$

**return**  $(m, (r, s))$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} X^r \cdot r^s &= X^{gX} (gX)^{-gX} = X^{gX} g^{-gX} X^{-gX} = g^{-gX} \\ &= g^{-r} = g^m \end{aligned}$$

so  $(r, s)$  is a valid forgery on  $m$ .

# ElGamal with hashing

Let  $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^* = \langle g \rangle$  where  $p$  is a prime.

Signer keys:  $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  and  $sk = x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$

$H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$  a hash function.

**Algorithm**  $\mathcal{S}_x(M)$

$m \leftarrow H(M)$

$k \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}^*$

$r \leftarrow g^k \pmod p$

$s \leftarrow (m - xr) \cdot k^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)}$

**return**  $(r, s)$

**Algorithm**  $\mathcal{V}_X(M, (r, s))$

$m \leftarrow H(M)$

**if**  $(r \notin G \text{ or } s \notin \mathbf{Z}_{p-1})$

**then return** 0

**if**  $(X^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \pmod p)$

**then return** 1

**else return** 0



# DSA

- Fix primes  $p, q$  such that  $q$  divides  $p - 1$
- Let  $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^* = \langle h \rangle$  and  $g = h^{(p-1)/q}$  so that  $g \in G$  has order  $q$
- $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_q$  a hash function
- Signer keys:  $pk = X = g^x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  and  $sk = x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_q$

## Algorithm $\mathcal{S}_x(M)$

$m \leftarrow H(M)$

$k \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_q^*$

$r \leftarrow (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$

$s \leftarrow (m + xr) \cdot k^{-1} \bmod q$

**return**  $(r, s)$

## Algorithm $\mathcal{V}_X(M, (r, s))$

$m \leftarrow H(M)$

$w \leftarrow s^{-1} \bmod q$

$u_1 \leftarrow mw \bmod q$

$u_2 \leftarrow rw \bmod q$

$v \leftarrow (g^{u_1} X^{u_2} \bmod p) \bmod q$

**if**  $(v = r)$  **then return** 1

**else return** 0

# Discussion

DSA as shown works only over the group of integers modulo a prime, but there is also a version ECDSA of it for elliptic curve groups.

In ElGamal and DSA/ECDSA, the expensive part of signing, namely the exponentiation, can be done off-line.

No proof that ElGamal or DSA is UF-CMA under a standard assumption (DL, CDH, ...) is known, even if  $H$  is a RO. Proofs are known for variants.

# Schnorr Signatures

- Let  $G = \langle g \rangle$  be a cyclic group of prime order  $p$
- $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_p$  a hash function
- Signer keys:  $pk = X = g^x \in G$  and  $sk = x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_p$

**Algorithm**  $\mathcal{S}_x(M)$

$r \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_p$

$R \leftarrow g^r$

$c \leftarrow H(R||M)$

$a \leftarrow xc + r \bmod p$

**return**  $(R, a)$

**Algorithm**  $\mathcal{V}_X(M, (R, a))$

if  $R \notin G$  then return 0

$c \leftarrow H(R||M)$

if  $g^a = RX^c$  then return 1

else return 0

# Discussion

The Schnorr scheme works in an arbitrary (prime-order) group. When implemented in a 160-bit elliptic curve group, it is as efficient as ECDSA. It can be proven UF-CMA in the random oracle model under the discrete log assumption [PS,AABN]. The security reduction, however, is quite loose.