#### Lecture 11

Douglas Wikström KTH Stockholm dog@csc.kth.se

April 24, 2015

DD2448 Foundations of Cryptography

April 24, 2015

# **Signature Schemes**

DD2448 Foundations of Cryptography

April 24, 2015

#### Signature Scheme

- ► Gen generates a key pair (pk,sk).
- Sig takes a secret key sk and a message m and computes a signature σ.
- Vf takes a public key pk, a message m, and a candidate signature σ, verifies the candidate signature, and outputs a single-bit verdict.

#### Existential Unforgeability

**Definition.** A signature scheme (Gen, Sig, Vf) is **secure against existential forgeries** if for every polynomial time algorithm and a random key pair  $(pk, sk) \leftarrow Gen(1^n)$ ,

$$\mathsf{Pr}\left[\mathsf{A}^{\mathsf{Sig}_{\mathsf{sk}}(\cdot)}(\mathsf{pk}) = (m,\sigma) \land \mathsf{Vf}_{\mathsf{pk}}(m,\sigma) = 1 \land \forall i : m \neq m_i\right]$$

is negligible where  $m_i$  is the *i*th query to  $Sig_{sk}(\cdot)$ .

In an **identification scheme** one party convinces another that it holds some special token.

In an **identification scheme** one party convinces another that it holds some special token.

• Let  $G_q$  be a group of prime order q with generator g.

In an **identification scheme** one party convinces another that it holds some special token.

• Let  $G_q$  be a group of prime order q with generator g.

• Let 
$$x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$$
 and define  $y = g^x$ .

In an **identification scheme** one party convinces another that it holds some special token.

- Let  $G_q$  be a group of prime order q with generator g.
- Let  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  and define  $y = g^x$ .
- Can we prove knowledge of x without disclosing anything about x?

1. The prover chooses  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands  $\alpha = g^r$  to the verifier.

- 1. The prover chooses  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands  $\alpha = g^r$  to the verifier.
- 2. The verifier chooses  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands it to the prover.

- 1. The prover chooses  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands  $\alpha = g^r$  to the verifier.
- 2. The verifier chooses  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands it to the prover.
- 3. The prover computes  $d = cx + r \mod q$  and hands d to the verifier.

- 1. The prover chooses  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands  $\alpha = g^r$  to the verifier.
- 2. The verifier chooses  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands it to the prover.
- 3. The prover computes  $d = cx + r \mod q$  and hands d to the verifier.
- 4. The verifier accepts if  $y^c \alpha = g^d$ .

- 1. The prover chooses  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands  $\alpha = g^r$  to the verifier.
- 2. The verifier chooses  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and hands it to the prover.
- 3. The prover computes  $d = cx + r \mod q$  and hands d to the verifier.
- 4. The verifier accepts if  $y^c \alpha = g^d$ .

Suppose that a machine convinces us in the protocol with probability  $\delta$ . Does it mean that it knows x such that  $y = g^x$ ?

1. Run the machine to get  $\alpha$ .

- 1. Run the machine to get  $\alpha$ .
- 2. Complete the interaction twice using the same  $\alpha$ , once for a challenge c and once for a challenge c', where  $c, c' \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  are chosen randomly.

- 1. Run the machine to get  $\alpha$ .
- 2. Complete the interaction twice using the same  $\alpha$ , once for a challenge c and once for a challenge c', where  $c, c' \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  are chosen randomly.
- 3. Repeat from (1) until the resulting interactions  $(\alpha, c, d)$  and  $(\alpha, c', d')$  are accepting and  $c \neq c'$ .

- 1. Run the machine to get  $\alpha$ .
- 2. Complete the interaction twice using the same  $\alpha$ , once for a challenge c and once for a challenge c', where  $c, c' \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  are chosen randomly.
- 3. Repeat from (1) until the resulting interactions  $(\alpha, c, d)$  and  $(\alpha, c', d')$  are accepting and  $c \neq c'$ .
- 4. Note that:

$$y^{c-c'} = \frac{y^c}{y^{c'}} = \frac{y^c \alpha}{y^{c'} \alpha} = \frac{g^d}{g^{d'}} = g^{d-d'}$$

which gives the logarithm  $x = (d - d')(c - c')^{-1} \mod q$  such that  $y = g^{x}$ .

- ► Anybody can sample  $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and compute  $\alpha = g^d / y^c$ .
- The resulting tuple (α, c, d) has exactly the same distribution as the transcript of an interaction!

Such protocols are called (honest verifier) **zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge**.

#### Schnorr's Signature Scheme In ROM

Let  $H: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_q$  be a random oracle.

- ▶ Gen chooses  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly, computes  $y = g^x$  and outputs (pk, sk) = (y, x).
- Sig does the following on input x and m:
  - 1. it chooses  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  randomly and computes  $\alpha = g^r$ ,
  - 2. it computes  $c = H(y, \alpha, m)$ ,
  - 3. it computes  $d = cx + r \mod q$  and outputs  $(\alpha, d)$ .
- Vf takes the public key y, a message m, and a candidate signature (α, d), and accepts iff y<sup>H(y,α,m)</sup>α = g<sup>d</sup>.

## Provably Secure Signature Schemes

Provably secure signature schemes exists if one-way functions exist (in plain model without ROM), but the construction is more involved and typically less efficient.

Provably secure signature schemes are rarely used in practice!

Standards used in practice: RSA Full Domain Hash, DSA, EC-DSA. The latter two may be viewed as variants of Schnorr signatures.

#### Problem

- We have constructed public-key cryptosystems and signature schemes.
- Only the holder of the secret key can decrypt ciphertexts and sign messages.
- How do we know who holds the secret key corresponding to a public key?

# Signing Public Keys of Others

- Suppose that Alice computes a signature σ<sub>A,B</sub> = Sig<sub>sk<sub>A</sub></sub>(pk<sub>B</sub>, Bob) of Bob's public key pk<sub>B</sub> and his identity and hands it to Bob.
- Suppose that Eve holds Alice's public key pk<sub>A</sub>.
- Then anybody can hand (pk<sub>B</sub>, σ<sub>A,B</sub>) directly to Eve, and Eve will be convinced that pk<sub>B</sub> is Bob's key (assuming she trusts Alice).

#### Certificate

- A certificate is a signature of a public key along with some information on how the key may be used, e.g., it may allow the holder to issue certificates.
- A certificate is valid for a given setting if the signature is valid and the usage information in the certificate matches that of the setting.
- Some parties must be trusted to issue certificates. These parties are called Certificate Authorities (CA).

#### Certificate Chains

A CA may be "distributed" using in certificate chains.

Suppose that Bob holds valid certificates

 $\sigma_{0,1}, \sigma_{1,2}, \ldots, \sigma_{n-1,n}$ 

where  $\sigma_{i-1,i}$  is a certificate of  $pk_{P_i}$  by  $P_{i-1}$ .

Who does Bob trust?

Randomness

#### Everything we have done so far requires randomness!

#### Randomness

- Everything we have done so far requires randomness!
- Can we "generate" random strings?

# Physical Randomness and Deterministic Algorithms

We could flip actual coins. This would be extremely impractical and slow (and booring unless you are Rain man).

# Physical Randomness and Deterministic Algorithms

- We could flip actual coins. This would be extremely impractical and slow (and booring unless you are Rain man).
- We could generate "physical" randomness using hardware, e.g., measuring radioactive decay
  - Slow or expensive.
  - Hard to verify and trust.
  - Biased output.

# Physical Randomness and Deterministic Algorithms

- We could flip actual coins. This would be extremely impractical and slow (and booring unless you are Rain man).
- We could generate "physical" randomness using hardware, e.g., measuring radioactive decay
  - Slow or expensive.
  - Hard to verify and trust.
  - Biased output.
- We could use a deterministic algorithm that outputs a "random looking string", but would that be secure?

#### Pseudo-Random Generator

A pseudo-random generator requires a **short random string** and deterministically expands this to a **longer "random looking" string**.

#### Pseudo-Random Generator

A pseudo-random generator requires a **short random string** and deterministically expands this to a **longer "random looking" string**.

This looks promising:

- Fast and cheap?
- Practical since it can be implemented in software or hardware?
- What is "random looking"?

## Pseudo-Random Generator

**Definition.** An efficient algorithm PRG is a **pseudo-random generator (PRG)** if there exists a polynomial p(n) > n such that for every polynomial time adversary A, if a seed  $s \in \{0,1\}^n$  and a random string  $u \in \{0,1\}^{p(n)}$  are chosen randomly, then

$$|\Pr[A(\mathsf{PRG}(s)) = 1] - \Pr[A(u) = 1]|$$

is negligible.

Informally, A can not distinguish PRG(s) from a truly random string in  $\{0,1\}^{p(n)}$ .

Before we consider how to construct a PRG we consider what the definition gives us:

Before we consider how to construct a PRG we consider what the definition gives us:

Suppose that there exists a PRG that extends its output by a single bit.

Before we consider how to construct a PRG we consider what the definition gives us:

- Suppose that there exists a PRG that extends its output by a single bit.
- This would not be very useful to us, e.g., to generate a random prime we need many random bits.

Before we consider how to construct a PRG we consider what the definition gives us:

- Suppose that there exists a PRG that extends its output by a single bit.
- This would not be very useful to us, e.g., to generate a random prime we need many random bits.
- Can we use the given PRG to construct another PRG which extends its output more?

**Construction.** Let PRG be a pseudo-random generator. We let PRG<sub>t</sub> be the algorithm that takes  $s_{-1} \in \{0,1\}^n$  as input, computes  $s_0, s_2, \ldots, s_{t-1}$  and  $b_0, \ldots, b_{t-1}$  as

$$(s_i, b_i) = \mathsf{PRG}(s_{i-1})$$

and outputs  $(b_0, \ldots, b_{t-1})$ .

**Construction.** Let PRG be a pseudo-random generator. We let PRG<sub>t</sub> be the algorithm that takes  $s_{-1} \in \{0,1\}^n$  as input, computes  $s_0, s_2, \ldots, s_{t-1}$  and  $b_0, \ldots, b_{t-1}$  as

$$(s_i, b_i) = \mathsf{PRG}(s_{i-1})$$

and outputs  $(b_0, \ldots, b_{t-1})$ .

**Theorem.** Let p(n) be a polynomial and PRG a pseudo-random generator. Then  $PRG_{p(n)}$  is a pseudo-random generator that on input  $s \in \{0,1\}^n$  outputs a string in  $\{0,1\}^{p(n)}$ .

**Construction.** Let PRG be a pseudo-random generator. We let PRG<sub>t</sub> be the algorithm that takes  $s_{-1} \in \{0,1\}^n$  as input, computes  $s_0, s_2, \ldots, s_{t-1}$  and  $b_0, \ldots, b_{t-1}$  as

$$(s_i, b_i) = \mathsf{PRG}(s_{i-1})$$

and outputs  $(b_0, \ldots, b_{t-1})$ .

**Theorem.** Let p(n) be a polynomial and PRG a pseudo-random generator. Then  $PRG_{p(n)}$  is a pseudo-random generator that on input  $s \in \{0,1\}^n$  outputs a string in  $\{0,1\}^{p(n)}$ .

We can go on "forever"!

## Random String From Random Oracle

**Theorem.** If  $F : \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^m$  is a random function, then  $(F(0), F(1), F(2), \dots, F(t-1))$  is a *tm*-bit string.

## Random String From Random Oracle

**Theorem.** If  $F : \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}^m$  is a random function, then  $(F(0), F(1), F(2), \dots, F(t-1))$  is a *tm*-bit string.

Can we do this using a pseudo-random function?

Can we replace the random function by SHA-2?

#### Pseudo-Random Function

Recall the definition of a pseudo-random function.

**Definition.** A family of functions  $F : \{0,1\}^k \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$  is pseudo-random if for all polynomial time oracle adversaries A

$$\left| \Pr_{K} \left[ A^{F_{K}(\cdot)} = 1 \right] - \Pr_{R: \{0,1\}^{n} \to \{0,1\}^{n}} \left[ A^{R(\cdot)} = 1 \right] \right|$$

is negligible.

#### Pseudo-Random Generator From Pseudo-Random Function

**Theorem.** Let  $\{F_K\}_{K \in \{0,1\}^k}$  be a pseudo-random function for a random choice of K. Then the PRG defined by:

$$PRG(s) = (F_s(0), F_s(1), F_s(2), \dots, F_s(t))$$

is a pseudo-random generator.