

Digital signatures

Using multiplicative groups

Algebraic group

Consists of a set \mathbb{G} and a binary operation \cdot with:

- **Closure:** $\forall A, B \in \mathbb{G}: A \cdot B \in \mathbb{G}$
- **Associativity** (allows omitting parentheses):
 $\forall A, B, C \in \mathbb{G}: (A \cdot B) \cdot C = A \cdot (B \cdot C)$
- **Identity:** $\exists I \in \mathbb{G} \forall A \in \mathbb{G}: I \cdot A = A \cdot I = A$
- **Invertibility:** $\forall A \in \mathbb{G} \exists B \in \mathbb{G}: A \cdot B = I$

Not required but fulfilled by multiplicative groups:

- **Commutativity:** $\forall A, B \in \mathbb{G}: A \cdot B = B \cdot A$

Order of the group and of elements

- **Group order:** number of elements in the set \mathbb{G} .
- **Element order:** how many times the element has to be repeated to get the identity element.
- **Multiplicative notation:** $A^n = I$

If $|A| < |\mathbb{G}|$, then A generates a subgroup.

Lagrange's theorem: $\forall A \in \mathbb{G}: |A|$ divides $|\mathbb{G}|$.

As a consequence, $A^{|\mathbb{G}|} = I$, which is called **Fermat's little theorem** or **Euler's theorem**.

Group generator

$G \in \mathbb{G}$ generates the whole group if $|\langle G \rangle| = |\mathbb{G}|$
and thus $\mathbb{G} = \{G^i \text{ with } i \text{ from } 1 \text{ to } |\mathbb{G}|\}$.

Repeating a generator is linear: $G^{a+b} = G^a \cdot G^b$.

I use lowercase letters for integers and
uppercase letters for elements of the group.

Repetition ring

A **ring** is a **field** in which not all elements have a **multiplicative inverse** (only those which have no factor in common with the ring modulus).

Whether two numbers are coprime can be determined with the **Euclidean algorithm**.

The multiplicative inverse can be determined with the **extended Euclidean algorithm**.

Since $G^{|G|} = I$, the coefficients (or exponents) can be calculated modulo $|G|$.

Discrete logarithm problem (DLP)

Discrete logarithm problem: Given $A = G^a$, no efficient algorithms are known to compute a from A and G in multiplicative groups, which makes it a one-way function.

Note that the “discrete root problem” (solving for the base rather than the exponent) is not always difficult.

Digital signature scheme

Digital signature schemes consist of 3 algorithms:

- **KeyGeneration**(entropy) \rightarrow private k , public K
(called key because you can unlock things like coins; $k \rightarrow K$ typically easy, $K \rightarrow k$ always hard)
- **Signing**(message, k) \rightarrow signature (can only be produced by the person who knows the key k)
- **Verification**(message, K , signature) \rightarrow true/false
(anyone who knows the public key K can verify)

Computations with secret values

The idea behind many signature schemes is to use a linear one-way function to hide the private key while still allowing the verifier to compute with it.

Example: You can compute $f(a \cdot b)$ if you know $f(b)$ without having to know b (see Diffie-Hellman).

For all the signature schemes discussed today, k is the private key and $K = G^k$ the public key.

A signature value s has to depend on the private key k and $h = \text{hash}(\text{message})$.

An unsuccessful first attempt

- **Equation** (to be masked): $h =_{|G|} k \cdot s$
- **Signing**: $s =_{|G|} k^{-1} \cdot h$
- **Verification**: $G^h \stackrel{?}{=} K^s$

Problem: The verifier can compute $k =_{|G|} h \cdot s^{-1}$.

(One equation with one unknown can be solved.)

Solution: Add a second unknown to the equation.

Ephemeral key for hiding static key

- **Ephemeral key:** private r , public $R = G^r$
(public means R is included in the signature)
- **Equation:** $h =_{|G|} k \cdot s + r$
- **Signing:** $s =_{|G|} k^{-1} \cdot (h - r)$
- **Verification:** $G^h \stackrel{?}{=} K^s \cdot R$

Problem: Anyone can forge a valid signature by choosing a random s and computing $R = G^h / K^s$.

Moving s to R ($G^h \stackrel{?}{=} K \cdot R^s$) doesn't work because the “discrete root problem” is not always difficult.

Solution: Make s depend on R

There are two ways to do this:

- Use R as an integer in the equation which is solved for s (see the Elgamal signature scheme).
- Include R in the hash: $h = \text{hash}(\text{message}, R)$ (see the Schnorr signature scheme later on).

Elgamal signature scheme

- **Equation:** $h =_{|G|} k \cdot R + r \cdot s$
- **Signing:** $s =_{|G|} r^{-1} \cdot (h - k \cdot R)$
- **Verification:** $G^h \stackrel{?}{=} K^R \cdot R^s$

Important: The ephemeral key $R = G^r$ has to be different for every signature! Otherwise, the two equations can be solved for the two unknowns.

Described by Elgamal (the father of SSL) in 1985.

Zero-knowledge proofs

Goal: Convince another party of one's knowledge w/o revealing any information or leaving evidence.

Parties: Prover convinces verifier of knowing k .
Trivial by revealing k but not zero-knowledge then.

- **Completeness** (successful proof): An honest verifier will be convinced by an honest prover.
- **Soundness** (proof of knowledge): Prover can fake knowledge only with negligible probability.
- **Zero-knowledge:** Verifier can fake transcript.

Knowledge of discrete logarithm

Prover

knows k so that $K = G^k$

choose random $r < |G|$

compute $R = G^r$

\xrightarrow{R}

choose random $c < |G|$

\xleftarrow{c}

compute $s =_{|G|} r - k \cdot c$

\xrightarrow{s}

verify that $R = G^s \cdot K^c$

Evaluation of criteria

- **Completeness:** $G^r = G^{r - k \cdot c} \cdot (G^k)^c$.
- **Soundness:** By sending distinct challenges c and c' after the same R , the verifier can extract the secret k by computing $(s - s')/(c' - c)$ because $G^s \cdot K^c = R = G^{s'} \cdot K^{c'}$ and thus $G^s / G^{s'} = G^{s - s'} = K^{c'} / K^c = K^{c' - c}$.
- **Zero-Knowledge:** By choosing the random values c and s first, the verifier can compute $R = G^s \cdot K^c$, which results in a valid transcript.

Choice of the challenge

Since the verifier might choose the challenge c non-randomly, this protocol is only so-called **honest-verifier** zero-knowledge. A dishonest verifier can turn this into a signature scheme. (The verifier could commit to c beforehand.)

To be a proof of knowledge, the prover has to learn the challenge c **after** fixing the ephemeral key R . This dependency can be established either by a verifier or by a cryptographic hash function.

Schnorr signature scheme

- **Signer:**

- Knows k so that $K = G^k$.
- Choose random $r < |G|$.
- Compute $R = G^r$, $c = \text{hash}(R, m, K)$, and $s =_{|G|} r - k \cdot c$ for message m .
- Share (c, s) or (R, s) as a signature.

- **Verifier:**

- In the case of (c, s) : $c \stackrel{?}{=} \text{hash}(G^s \cdot K^c, m, K)$.
- In the case of (R, s) : $R \stackrel{?}{=} G^s \cdot K^{\text{hash}(R, m, K)}$.