

# Introduction to Cryptography

## Lecture 8

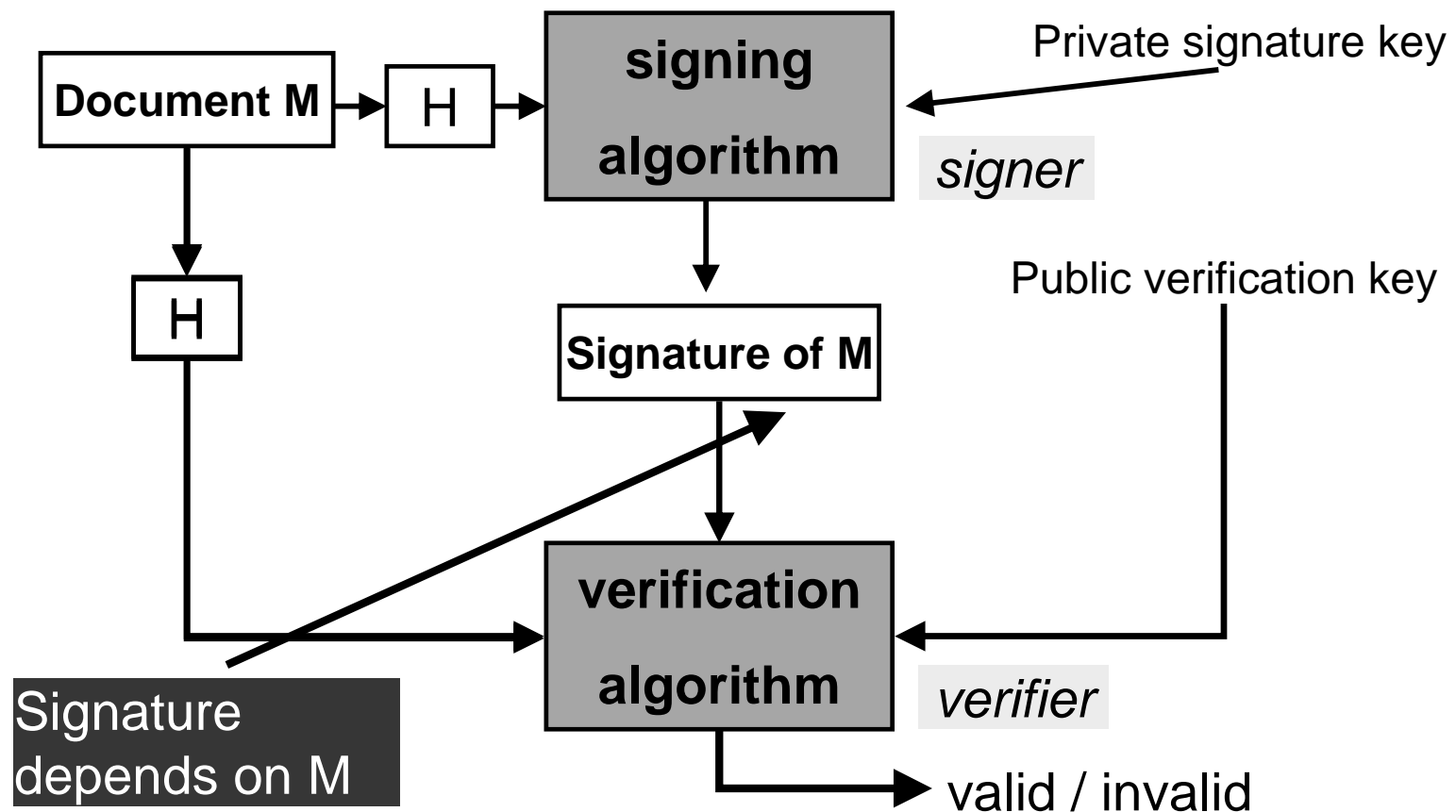
Digital signatures,  
Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

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# Desiderata for digital signatures

- Associate a document to an signer
- A digital signature is attached to a document (*rather than be part of it*)
- The signature is easy to verify but hard to forge
  - Signing is done using knowledge of a private key
  - Verification is done using a public key associated with the signer (*rather than comparing to an original signature*)
  - It is impossible to change even one bit in the signed document
- *A copy of a digitally signed document is as good as the original signed document.*
- Digital signatures could be legally binding...

# Signing/verification process



# Security definitions for digital signatures

- Attacks against digital signatures
  - *Key only attack*: the adversary knows only the verification key
  - *Known signature attack*: in addition, the adversary has some message/signature pairs.
  - *Chosen message attack*: the adversary can ask for signatures of messages of its choice (e.g. attacking a notary system).  
Seems even more reasonable than chosen message attacks against encryption.

# Security definitions for digital signatures

- Several levels of success for the adversary
  - *Existential forgery*: the adversary succeeds in forging the signature of one message.
  - *Selective forgery*: the adversary succeeds in forging the signature of one message of its choice.
  - *Universal forgery*: the adversary can forge the signature of any message.
  - *Total break*: the adversary finds the private signature key.
- Different levels of security, against different attacks, are required for different scenarios.

## Example: simple RSA based signatures

- Key generation: (as in RSA)
  - Alice picks random  $p, q$ . Finds  $e \cdot d = 1 \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$ .
  - Public verification key:  $(N, e)$
  - Private signature key:  $d$
- Signing: Given  $m$ , Alice computes  $s = m^d \bmod N$ .
- Verification: given  $m, s$  and public key  $(N, e)$ .
  - Compute  $m' = s^e \bmod N$ .
  - Output “valid” iff  $m' = m$ .

# Attacks against plain RSA signatures

- Signature of  $m$  is  $s = m^d \bmod N$ .
- Universally forgeable under a chosen message attack:
  - *Universal forgery*: the adversary can forge the signature of any message of its choice.
  - *Chosen message attack*: the adversary can ask for signatures of messages of its choice.
- Existentially forgeable under key only attack.
  - *Existential forgery*: succeeds in forging the signature of at least one message.
  - *Key only attack*: the adversary knows the public verification key but does not ask any queries.

## RSA with a full domain hash function

- Signature is  $\text{sig}(m) = f^{-1}(H(m)) = (H(m))^d \bmod N$ .
  - $H()$  is such that its range is  $[1, N]$
- *The system is no longer homomorphic*
  - $\text{sig}(m) \cdot \text{sig}(m') \neq \text{sig}(m \cdot m')$
- *Seems hard to generate a random signature*
  - Computing  $s^e$  is insufficient, since it is also required to show  $m$  s.t.  $H(m) = s^e$ .
- Proof of security in the random oracle model – where  $H()$  is modeled as a random function



## RSA with full domain hash –proof of security

- Claim: If  $H()$  is a random oracle, then if there is a polynomial-time  $A()$  which forges a signature with non-negligible probability, then it is possible to invert the RSA function, on a random input, with non-neg prob.
- Proof:
  - Our input:  $y$ . Should compute  $y^d \bmod N$ .
  - $A()$  queries  $H()$  and a signature oracle  $sig()$ , and generates a signature  $s$  of a message for which it did not query  $sig()$ .
  - Suppose  $A()$  made at most  $t$  queries to  $H()$ , and always queries  $H(m)$  before querying  $sig(m)$ .
  - We will show how to use  $A()$  to compute  $y^d \bmod N$ .

## RSA with full domain hash –proof of security

- Proof (contd.)
  - We decide how to answer  $A$ 's queries to  $H(), \text{sig}()$ .
  - Choose a random  $i$  in  $[1, t]$ , answer queries to  $H()$  as follows:
    - The answer to the  $i$ th query ( $m_i$ ) is  $y$ .
    - The answer to the  $j$ th query ( $j \neq i$ ) is  $(r_j)^e$ , where  $r_j$  is random.
  - Answer to  $\text{sig}(m)$  queries:
    - If  $m = m_j$ ,  $j \neq i$ , then answer with  $r_j$ . (Indeed  $\text{sig}(m_j) = (H(m_j))^d = r_j$ )
    - If  $m = m_i$  then stop. (we failed)
  - $A$ 's output is  $(m, s)$ .
    - If  $m = m_i$  and  $s$  is the correct signature, then we found  $y^d$ .
    - Otherwise we failed.
  - Success probability is  $1/t$  times success probability of  $A()$ .

# Rabin signatures

- Same paradigm:
  - $f(m) = m^2 \bmod N$ . ( $N=pq$ ).
  - $\text{Sig}(m) = s$ , s.t.  $s^2 = m \bmod N$ . I.e., the square root of  $m$ .
- *Unlike RSA*,
  - Not all  $m$  are QR mod  $N$ .
  - Therefore, only  $\frac{1}{4}$  of messages can be signed.
- *Solutions*:
  - Use random padding. Choose padding until you get a QR.
  - Deterministic padding (Williams system).
- *A total break* given a chosen message attack. (show)
- Must use a hash function  $H$  as in RSA.

## El Gamal signature scheme

- Invented by same person but different than the encryption scheme. (think why)
- A randomized signature: same message can have different signatures.
- Based on the hardness of extracting discrete logs
- The DSS (Digital Signature Standard) that was adopted by NIST in 1994 is a variation of El-Gamal signatures.

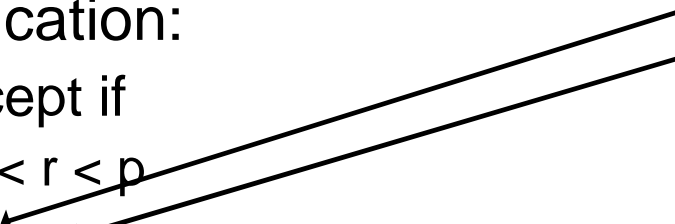
# El Gamal signatures

- Key generation:
  - Work in a group  $Z_p^*$  where discrete log is hard.
  - Let  $g$  be a generator of  $Z_p^*$ .
  - Private key  $1 < a < p-1$ .
  - Public key  $p, g, y=g^a$ .
- Signature: (of  $M$ )
  - Pick random  $1 < k < p-1$ , s.t.  $\gcd(k, p-1)=1$ .
  - Compute  $m=H(M)$ .
    - $r = g^k \bmod p$ .
    - $s = (m - r \cdot a) \cdot k^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$
  - Signature is  $r, s$ .

# El Gamal signatures

- Signature:
  - Pick random  $1 < k < p-1$ , s.t.  $\gcd(k, p-1)=1$ .
  - Compute
    - $r = g^k \bmod p$ .
    - $s = (m - r \cdot a) \cdot k^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$
- Verification:
  - Accept if
    - $0 < r < p$
    - $y^r \cdot r^s \equiv g^m \bmod p$
- It works since  $y^r \cdot r^s = (g^a)^r \cdot (g^k)^s = g^{ar} \cdot g^{m-ra} = g^m$
- Overhead:
  - Signature: one (offline) exp.    Verification: three exps.

same  $r$  in  
both places!



## El Gamal signature: comments

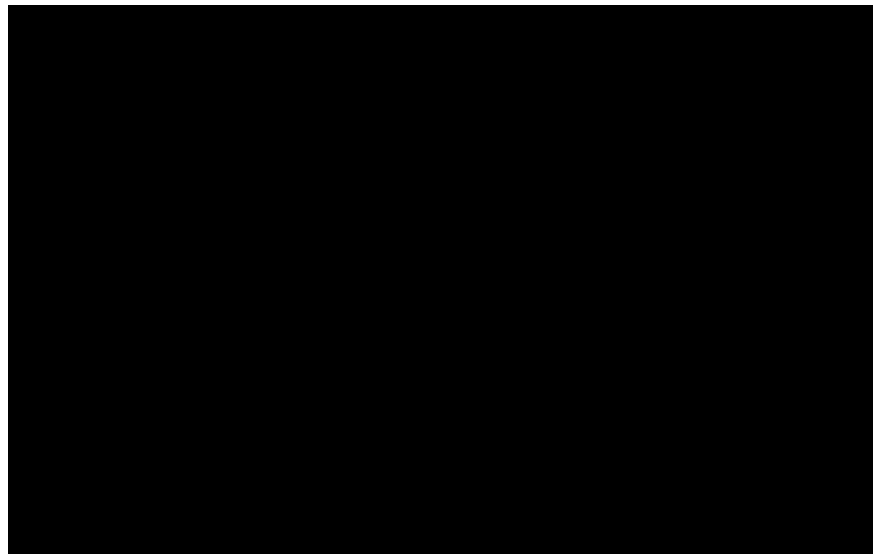
- Can work in any finite Abelian group
  - The discrete log problem appears to be harder in elliptic curves over finite fields than in  $Z_p^*$  of the same size.
  - Therefore can use smaller groups  $\Rightarrow$  shorter signatures.
- Forging: find  $y^r \cdot r^s = g^m \bmod p$ 
  - E.g., choose random  $r = g^k$  and either solve dlog of  $g^m/y^r$  to the base  $r$ , or find  $s=k^{-1}(m - \log_g y \cdot r)$  (????)
- Notes:
  - A different  $k$  must be used for every signature
  - If no hash function is used (i.e. sign  $M$  rather than  $m=H(M)$ ), existential forgery is possible
  - If receiver doesn't check that  $0 < r < p$ , adversary can sign messages of his choice.

# Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)



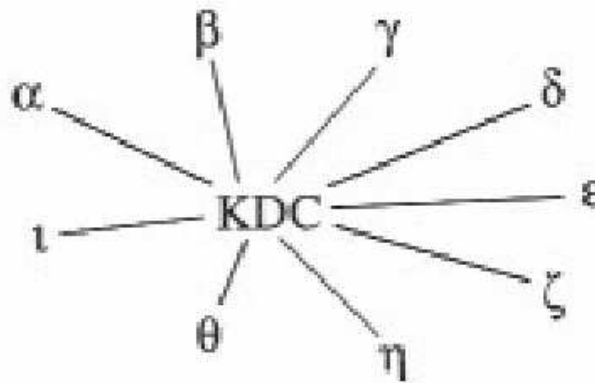
## Key Infrastructure for symmetric key encryption

- Each user has a shared key with each other user
  - A total of  $n(n-1)/2$  keys
  - Each user stores  $n-1$  keys



# Key Distribution Center (KDC)

- The KDC shares a symmetric key  $K_u$  with every user  $u$
- Using this key they can establish a trusted channel
- When  $u$  wants to communicate with  $v$ 
  - $u$  sends a request to the KDC
  - The KDC
    - *authenticates  $u$*
    - generates a key  $K_{uv}$  to be used by  $u$  and  $v$
    - sends  $Enc(K_u, K_{uv})$  to  $u$ , and  $Enc(K_v, K_{uv})$  to  $v$



# Key Distribution Center (KDC)

- Advantages:
  - A total of  $n$  keys, one key per user.
  - easier management of joining and leaving users.
- Disadvantages:
  - The KDC can impersonate anyone
  - The KDC is a single point for failure, for both
    - security,
    - and quality of service
- Multiple copies of the KDC
  - More security risks
  - But better availability

## Certification Authorities (CA)

- Public key technology requires every user to remember its private key, and to have access to other users' public key
- How can the user verify that a public key  $PK_v$  corresponds to user  $v$ ?
  - What can go wrong otherwise?
- A simple solution:
  - A trusted public repository of public keys and corresponding identities
    - Doesn't scale up
    - Requires online access per usage of a new public key

# Certification Authorities (CA)

- The Certificate Authority (CA) is trusted party.
- All users have a copy of the public key of the CA
- The CA signs Alice's digital certificate. A simplified certificate is of the form *(Alice, Alice's public key)*.
- When we get Alice's certificate, we
  - Examine the identity in the certificate
  - Verify the signature
  - Use the public key given in the certificate to
    - Encrypt messages to Alice
    - Or, verify signatures of Alice
- The certificate can be sent by Alice without any interaction with the CA.

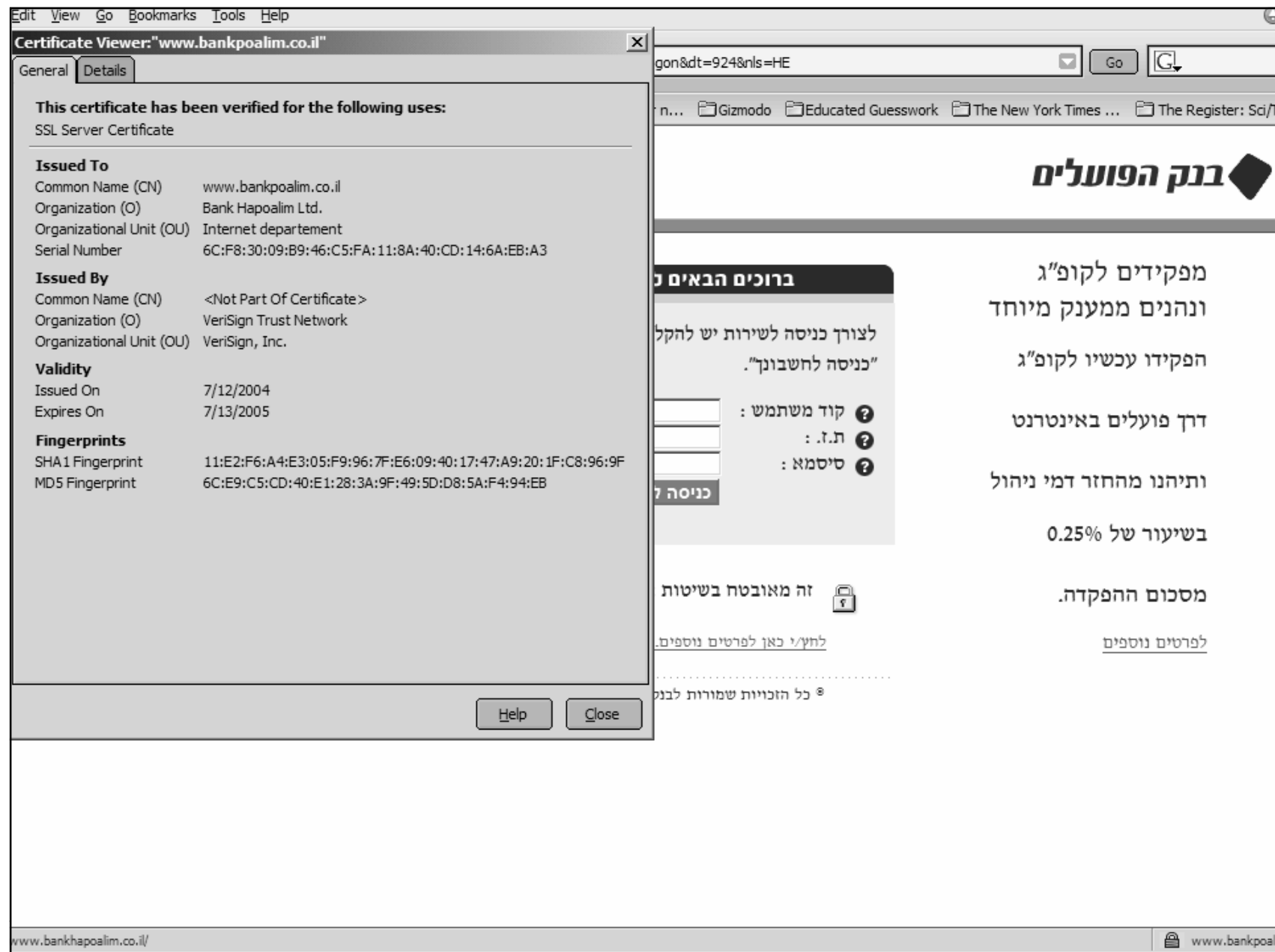
## Certification Authorities (CA)

- Unlike KDCs, the CA does not have to be online to provide keys to users
  - It can therefore be better secured than a KDC
  - The CA does not have to be available all the time
- Users only keep a single public key – of the CA
- The certificates are not secret. They can be stored in a public place.
- When a user wants to communicate with Alice, it can get her certificate from either her, the CA, or a public repository.
- A compromised CA
  - can mount active attacks (certifying keys as being Alice's)
  - but it cannot decrypt conversations.

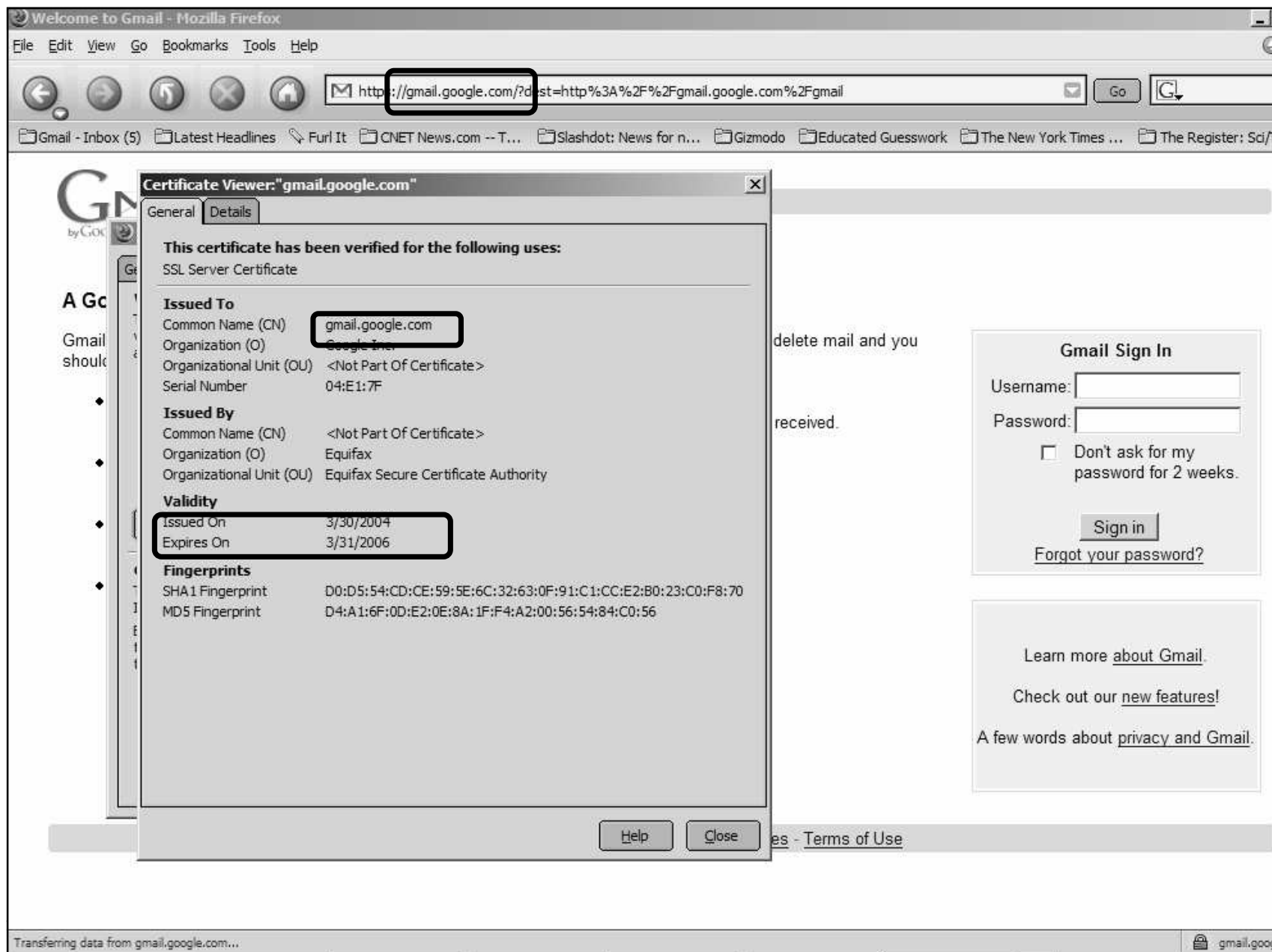
# Certification Authorities (CA)

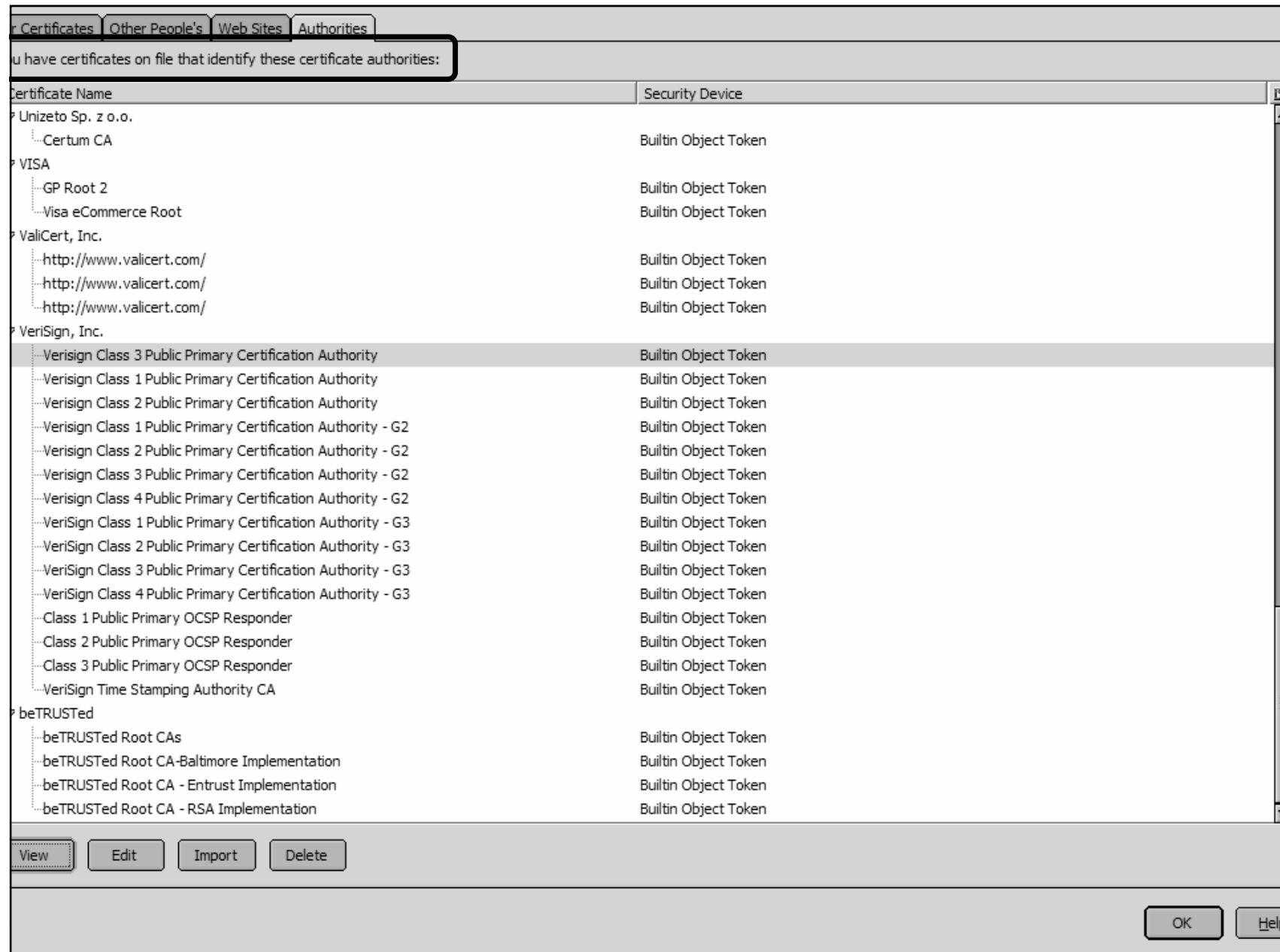
- For example.
  - To connect to a secure web site using SSL or TLS, we send an https:// command
  - The web site sends back a public key<sup>(1)</sup>, and a certificate.
  - Our browser
    - Checks that the certificate belongs to the url we're visiting
    - Checks the expiration date
    - Checks that the certificate is signed by a CA whose public key is known to the browser
    - Checks the signature
    - If everything is fine, it chooses a session key and sends it to the server encrypted with RSA using the server's public key

<sup>(1)</sup> This is a very simplified version of the actual protocol.









# Certificates

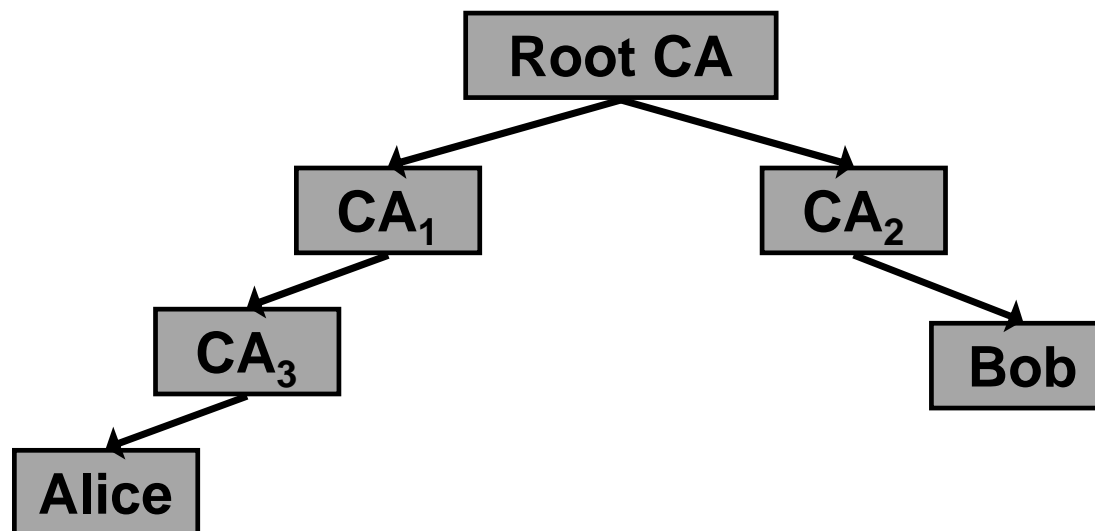
- A certificate usually contains the following information
  - Owner's name
  - Owner's public key
  - Encryption/signature algorithm
  - Name of the CA
  - Serial number of the certificate
  - Expiry date of the certificate
  - ...
- Your web browser contains the public keys of some CAs
- A web site identifies itself by presenting a certificate which is signed by a chain starting at one of these CAs

# Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

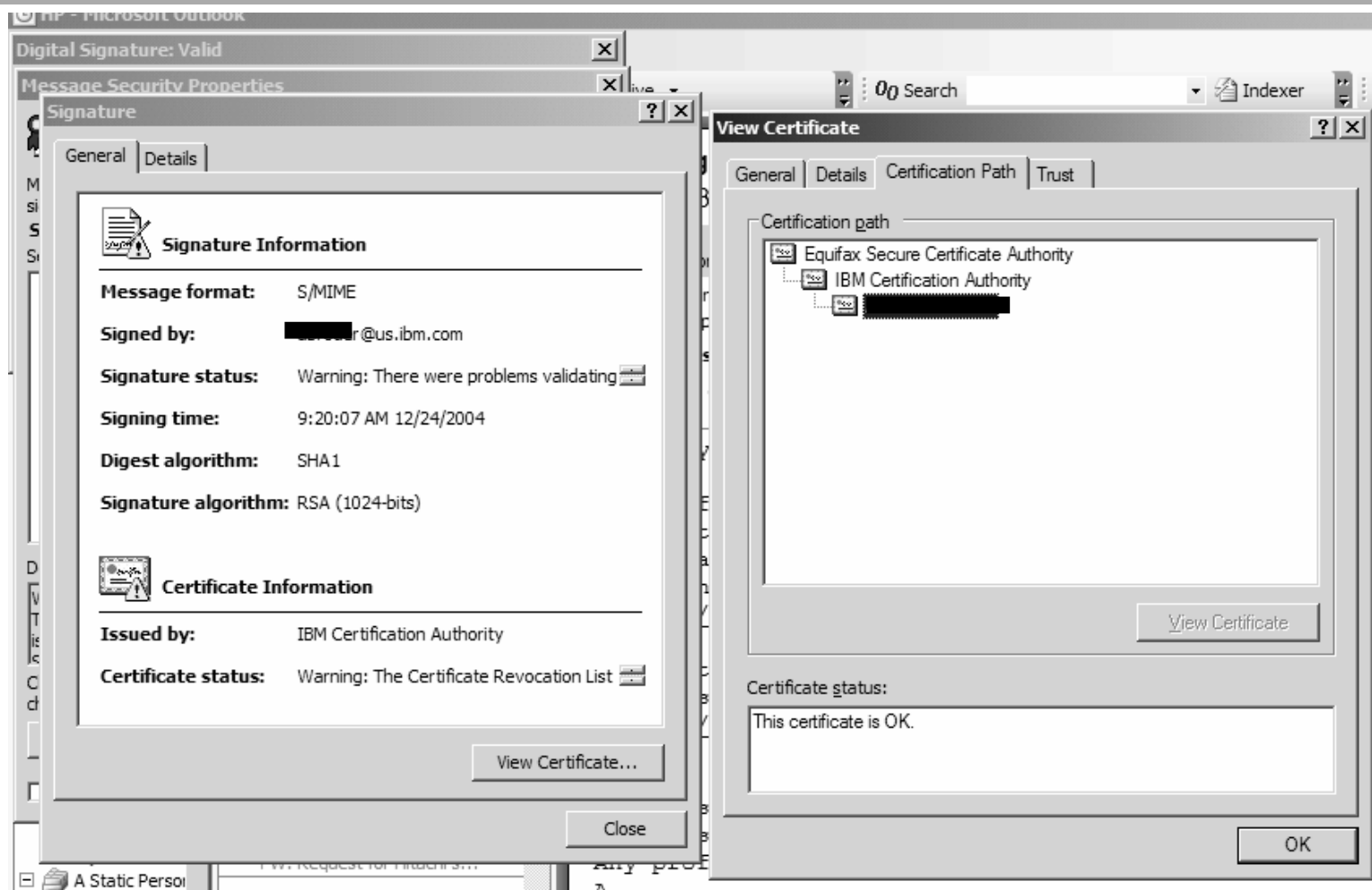
- The goal: build trust on a global level
- Running a CA:
  - If people trust you to vouch for other parties, everyone needs you.
  - A license to print money
  - But,
    - The CA should limit its responsibilities, buy insurance...
    - It should maintain a high level of security
    - Bootstrapping: how would everyone get the CA's public key?

# Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

- Monopoly: a single CA vouches for all public keys
- Monopoly + delegated CAs:
  - top level CA can issue certificates for other CAs
  - Certificates of the form
    - $[ (Alice, PK_A)_{CA_3}, (CA_3, PK_{CA_3})_{CA_1}, (CA_1, PK_{CA_1})_{TOP-CA} ]$



# Certificate chain



# Public Key Infrastructure

- Oligarchy
  - Multiple trust anchors (top level CAs)
    - Pre-configured in software
    - User can add/remove CAs
- Top-down with name constraints
  - Like monopoly + delegated CAs
  - But every delegated CA has a predefined portion of the name space (il, ac.il, haifa.ac.il, cs.haifa.ac.il)
  - More trustworthy