# Introduction to Cryptography Part IV: Digital Signatures

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#### 1 Hash Functions

**2** Digital signatures



## Hash Functions

A hash function is a public function that takes a variable-length message and outputs a fixed-length digest:  $H : \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^n$ .

"General" hash functions are used whenever you need a random-looking function:

- Hash tables;
- Randomized algorithms (e.g., Pollard's rho method).

They are **not enough** for cryptography: we need **cryptographic** hash functions.

## Hash functions (ctd.)

In the context of symmetric cryptography, a hash function is **secure** if it offers a **generic** security level against:

- Preimage attacks;
- Second preimage attacks;
- Collision attacks.

 $\ensuremath{\textbf{Generic}}$  = there should be no better attack than those we have against a truly random function.

In other words we want the behavior to be ideal (typical requirement in symmetric crypto).

#### Preimage resistance

Fix  $H : \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^n$ .

#### Preimage resistance

For  $t \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n$ , it should be difficult to find *m* such that t = H(m).

- By brute force, this takes time O(2<sup>n</sup>) (to succeed with constant probability)
- So it should take time  $\mathcal{O}(2^n)$

**Example:** password authentication.

- One stores only *H*(password).
- An attacker having access to the database cannot find the passwords.

### Second preimage resistance

Fix  $H : \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^n$ .

For  $x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^m$ , it should be difficult to find  $y \neq x$  such that H(y) = H(x).

• By brute force, this takes time  $\mathcal{O}(2^n)$  (to succeed with constant probability)

**Example:** signatures (this lecture).

### **Collision resistance**

#### **Collision resistance**

Producing a collision (pair x ≠ y such that H(x) = H(y)) should take time O(2<sup>n/2</sup>) (birthday paradox!)

This is the same as long as the input size is  $\geq n$  bits.

# On the existence of collisions / preimages

**There exists** collisions & preimages (the message space is much bigger than the hash space).

There **exists** an algorithm that returns in **constant time** a collision for **any** hash function.

 $\implies$  however, we don't know how to write it down.

#### Some examples

#### MD5 (broken)

- 128-bit hash (RFC 1321, Rivest, 1992)
- Collisions found (Wang, Yu, 2005)
- Forgery of certificates (Stevens et al., 2009)

#### SHA-0 (broken)

- 160-bit hash (NSA, 1993)
- Collisions (theoretical) in 1998 (Joux, Chabaud)

#### SHA-1 (broken)

- 160-bit hash
- Theoretical collisions in 2005 (Wang et al.)
- Practical collisions in 2017 (Stevens et al., 2009)
- Chosen-prefix collisions (Leurent, Peyrin, 2020)
- Still used a lot ...

#### Current standards

#### SHA-2

- Published by NSA in 2001
- Family of hash functions of 224, 256, 384, 512 bits

#### SHA-3

- a.k.a. Keccak, winner of an open competition organized by NIST
- Sponge function, published in 2015
- Outputs of 224, 256, 384, 512 bits

# **Digital signatures**

### Motivation

IND-CCA2 asymmetric encryption offers only **confidentiality** of messages.

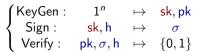
Digital signatures (DS) offer:

- authenticity
- integrity

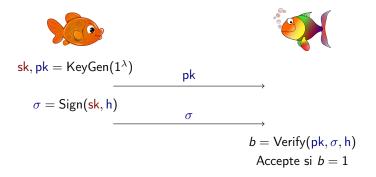
What are some constraints associated to a digital signature?

- It should depend on the signed message (otherwise you can copy it)
- It should depend on some secret
- Everybody should be able to verify it

### Definition



**Correctness:**  $\forall m$ , Verify(pk, m, Sign(m, sk)) = 1.



### Breaking authenticity

An attacker's power: chosen message attack.

 The attacker can obtain signatures σ<sub>i</sub> = Sign(sk, h<sub>i</sub>) for chosen messages h<sub>i</sub>

An attacker's goal: existential forgery.

Produce some new valid message / signature pair (h, σ):
 h ∉ {h<sub>1</sub>,..., h<sub>q</sub>}

The new message does not need to have any meaning, for it to be a meaningful forgery.

### **EUF-CMA**

Existential unforgeability against chosen-message attacks (EUF-CMA) is defined by a security game played by  $\mathcal C$  and  $\mathcal A.$ 

- Initialization:  $\mathcal C$  generates a pair pk, sk  $\leftarrow \mathsf{KeyGen}(1^n)$  and gives pk to  $\mathcal A$
- Queries: at any point, A can choose  $h_i$  and obtain the signature  $\sigma_i = \text{Sign}(\text{sk}, h_i)$
- Forgery:  $\mathcal{A}$  sends a pair  $h^*, \sigma^*$  to  $\mathcal{C}$  and wins if:

$$egin{aligned} & extsf{Verify(sk, h^*, \sigma^*) = 1} \ & extsf{h}^* 
otin \{h_1, \dots, h_q\} \end{aligned}$$

The EUF-CMA advantage of  ${\mathcal A}$  is defined as:

$$\mathrm{Adv}^{\mathit{EUF}-\mathit{CMA}}(\mathcal{A}) = |\Pr\left[\mathcal{A} \; \mathsf{wins}
ight]| \; \; .$$

The DS scheme is EUF-CA secure iff any PPT adversary has a negligible advantage.

### Theorem: domain extension with hash-and-sign

#### Theorem

Let S := (KeyGen, Sign, Verify) is a secure signature for short messages in  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . Let H be a collision-resistant hash. Define S':

$$\begin{cases} \mathsf{KeyGen}' = \mathsf{KeyGen} \\ \mathsf{Sign}'(\mathsf{sk}, m) = \mathsf{Sign}(\mathsf{sk}, H(m)) \\ \mathsf{Verify}'(\mathsf{pk}, m, \sigma) = \mathsf{Verify}(\mathsf{pk}, H(m), \sigma) \end{cases}$$

### Hash-and-sign security

What happens if:

- The adversary can find second preimages in the hash function?
- $\implies$  Choose a message *m*. Ask for  $\sigma = \text{Sign}(\text{sk}, H(m))$ ; find second preimage *m'* such that H(m') = H(m); now  $(m', \sigma)$  is a forgery.
  - The adversary can find preimages?
- $\implies\,$  it's stronger than second preimages anyway
  - The adversary can find collisions?
- $\implies$  find (m, m') such that H(m) = H(m') = t. Ask for
  - $\sigma = \text{Sign}(\text{sk}, H(m))$ . Now  $(m', \sigma)$  is a forgery. impersonate

**Example** The Flame malware (2012) used a chosen-prefix collision on MD5 to sign some of its components by impersonating a Microsoft certificate.

### **Constructing signatures**

Contrary to PKE, a one-way function is enough to construct signatures.

• Hash-based signatures: SPHINCS+ (post-quantum)

More practical: all standard public-key assumptions like RSA? DLOG and also the post-quantum ones.

# **RSA Signatures**

#### **Basic RSA signature**

#### KeyGen:

- Choose primes P, Q, N = PQ, choose e, d with ed = 1 (mod φ(N)).
- sk = (N, d)
- pk = (N, e)

Sign  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ 

• Return  $\sigma = m^d \pmod{N}$ 

Verify  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*, \sigma$ 

• Check that  $\sigma^e = m \pmod{N}$ 

#### This is not secure.

#### Attacks on basic RSA signature

**Attack 1** Take any value t, then  $(t^e, t)$  is a valid message-signature pair  $\implies$  a "no-message" attack.

**Attack 2** For any  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ , we can forge a signature of m.

- Ask to sign  $m_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$
- Ask to sign  $m_2 = m(m_1)^{-1} \mod N$
- Compute  $\sigma = \sigma_1 \sigma_2$

### RSA-FDH

#### KeyGen:

- Generate N = PQ, and e, d
- Construct a CRHF  $H : \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_N$
- sk = (N, d), pk = (N, e)

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

• Return  $\sigma = H(m)^d \mod N$ 

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

• Check that  $\sigma^e = H(m) \mod N$ 

Previous attacks do not apply:

- Signatures are not malleable anymore
- If we take t and compute  $t^e$ , we would need to find m such that  $H(m) = t^e$ : a preimage problem.