

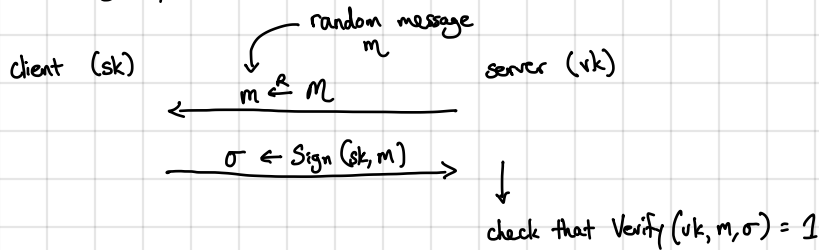
Thus far, only considered passive adversaries, but in reality, adversaries can be malicious

- Adversary can impersonate server (e.g., phishing) and then try to authenticate as client (but cannot interact with client during auth.)
- All protocols thus far are vulnerable  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{all consist of client sending token that server checks, which can be extracted by} \\ \text{active adversary} \end{array} \right.$
- For active security, we use challenge-response

no man-in-the-middle protection

### Signature-based challenge-response

- Server stores a verification key  $vk$  for digital signature scheme
- Client holds signing key  $sk$



Server asks client to sign a random message

- ↳ Client's signature indicates proof of possession of  $sk$  associated with  $vk$
  - ↳ Active adversary that interacts with the client before interacting with the prover cannot forge signatures
- Provides active security but signatures are long ( $\sim 384$  bits)

Signature-based challenge response: client "demonstrates knowledge" of signing key

↳ we will generalize this to "proving" arbitrary statements

Identification protocols such as Schnorr's protocol can be readily compiled into a digital signature scheme

↳ This will give us a signature scheme from the discrete log assumption

Key idea: Replace the verifier's challenge with a hash function  $H: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$  [outputs must be random-looking]

Namely, instead of sampling  $c \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$ , we sample  $c \leftarrow H(g, h, u)$ . ← prover can now compute this quantity on its own!

The signature is then the protocol transcript  $(u, c, z)$  which anyone can check

Issue: Where does the message go? In the hash function!

Signatures from discrete log in random oracle model (Schnorr)

- Setup:  $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$

$vk: (g, h = g^x)$   $sk: x$

- Sign  $(sk, m)$ :  $r \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$

$u \leftarrow g^r$   $c \leftarrow H(g, h, u, m)$   $z \leftarrow r + cx$

$\sigma = (u, z)$

- Verify  $(vk, m, \sigma)$ : write  $\sigma = (u, z)$ , compute  $c \leftarrow H(g, h, u, m)$  and accept if  $g^z = u \cdot h$

as we will see, this is in fact a "zero-knowledge" proof

signature is a proof of knowledge of discrete log of  $h$  (with challenge derived from the message  $m$ )

Security essentially follows from security of Schnorr's identification protocol (together with Fiat-Shamir)

↳ forged signature on a new message  $m$  is a proof of knowledge of the discrete log (can be extracted from adversary)

Length of Schnorr's signature:  $vk: (g, h=g^x)$   $sk: x$   $\sigma: (g^r, \underbrace{c = H(g, h, g^r, m)}_{\text{can be computed given other components, so do not need to include}}, z = r + cx)$  Verification checks that  $g^z = g^r h^c$   
 $\Rightarrow |\sigma| = 2 \cdot |G|$  [512 bits if  $|G| = 2^{256}$ ]

But, can do better... observe that challenge  $c$  only needs to be 128-bits (the knowledge error of Schnorr is  $1/|C|$  where  $C$  is the set of possible challenges), so we can sample a 128-bit challenge rather than 256-bit challenge. Thus, instead of sending  $(g^r, z)$ , instead send  $(c, z)$  and compute  $g^r = g^z / h^c$  and that  $c = H(g, h, g^r, m)$ . Then resulting signatures are 384 bits  
 128 bit challenge + 256 bit group element

Important note: Schnorr signatures are randomized, and security relies on having good randomness

↳ What happens if randomness is reused for two different signatures?

Then, we have

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \sigma_1 &= (g^r, c_1 = H(g, h, g^r, m_1), z_1 = r + c_1 x) \\ \sigma_2 &= (g^r, c_2 = H(g, h, g^r, m_2), z_2 = r + c_2 x) \end{aligned} \right\} z_1 - z_2 = (c_1 - c_2)x \Rightarrow x = (c_1 - c_2)^{-1} (z_1 - z_2)$$

This is precisely the set of relations the knowledge extractor uses to recover the discrete log  $x$  (i.e., the signing key)!

Deterministic Schnorr: We want to replace the random value  $r \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_p$  with one that is deterministic, but which does not compromise security

↳ Derive randomness from message using a PRF. In particular, signing key includes a secret PRF key  $k$ , and signing algorithm computes  $r \leftarrow F(k, m)$  and  $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(sk, m; r)$ .

↳ Avoids randomness reuse/misuse vulnerabilities.

In practice, <sup>← TLS protocol</sup> we use a variant of Schnorr's signature scheme called DSA / ECDSA <sup>digital signature algorithm / elliptic-curve DSA</sup>  
 ↳ larger signatures (2 group elements - 512 bits) and proof only in "generic group" model [but we use it because Schnorr was patented ... until 2008]

ECDSA signatures (over a group  $G$  of prime order  $p$ ):

- Setup:  $x \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_p$

$vk: (g, h = g^x)$   $sk: x$

- Sign( $sk, m$ ):  $\alpha \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_p$

$u \leftarrow g^\alpha$

$r \leftarrow f(u) \in \mathbb{Z}_p$

$s \leftarrow (H(m) + r \cdot x) / \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_p$

$\sigma = (r, s)$

deterministic function specified by ECDSA

[specifically,  $f(u)$  parses  $u = (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) \in \mathbb{F}_q^2$  where  $\mathbb{F}_q$  is the base field over which the elliptic curve is defined, and outputs  $\hat{x} \pmod{p}$ , where  $\hat{x}$  is viewed as a value in  $[0, q)$ ]

- Verify( $vk, m, \sigma$ ): write  $\sigma = (r, s)$ , compute  $u \leftarrow g^{H(m)/s} h^{r/s}$ , accept if  $r = f(u)$   
 $vk = h$

Correctness:  $u = g^{H(m)/s} h^{r/s} = g^{[H(m) + rx]/s} = g^{[H(m) + rx] / [H(m) + rx] \alpha^{-1}} = g^\alpha$  and  $r = f(g^\alpha)$

Security analysis non-trivial: requires either strong assumptions or modeling  $G$  as an "ideal" group

Signature size:  $\sigma = (r, s) \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2$  - for 128-bit security,  $p \sim 2^{256}$  so  $|\sigma| = 512$  bits (can use P-256 or Curve 25519)