

A state-of-the-art
public-key signature system

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Handwritten signatures

Want to transmit message:

“Pay \$1000.”

Sender attaches his signature:

“Pay \$1000. ”

Recipient checks sender's signature:

“”

Recipient accepts message:

“Pay \$1000.”

Forging signed messages

Attacker intercepts
the signed message:

“Pay \$1000. ”

Attacker modifies the message:

“Pay \$3000. ”

Recipient checks sender's signature:

“  ”

Recipient accepts message:

“Pay \$3000.”

How do we stop forgeries?

The signature has to depend on the message. Define set V of valid signed-message pairs (m, s) .

Sender, given m , must be able to generate s such that $(m, s) \in V$.

Recipient must be able to check whether $(m, s) \in V$.

Attacker, given $(m, s) \in V$, must not be able to find $(m', s') \in V$ with $m' \neq m$.

Public-key signature systems

Sender has a **secret key**
and a **public key**.

Recipient knows the public key.

Sender uses secret key to
find $(m, s) \in V$, given m .

Recipient uses public key
to check whether $(m, s) \in V$.

Hopefully attacker can't
figure out secret key,
and can't figure out (m', s')
without secret key.

A state-of-the-art signature system

Sender's public key is an integer k with $2^{1536} < k < 2^{1537}$.

More restrictions on k ,
discussed later.

$(m, e, f, r, s) \in V$ iff $e \in \{-1, 1\}$,
 $f \in \{1, 2\}$, $r \in \{0, 1, \dots, 15\}$,
 $s \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{1536} - 1\}$,
and $ef s^2 - H_0(r, m) \in k\mathbf{Z}$.

$H_0 : \{\text{strings}\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, 2^{1536}\}$
is a complicated public function,
discussed later.

Given m, e, f, r, s , recipient computes $ef s^2 - H_0(r, m)$, divides by k , checks that remainder is 0.

Attacker might select e', f', s' , compute remainder $e' f' (s')^2 \bmod k$, hope to invert H_0 to find (r', m') ; but we conjecture that inverting H_0 is difficult.

Attacker might select r', m' , compute $H_0(r', m')$, hope to find square root modulo k ; but we conjecture that finding square roots is difficult.

Square roots modulo *primes*
are easy to compute—
but k will never be prime.

Particularly easy

for primes $p \in 3 + 4\mathbf{Z}$:

Given $i^2 \bmod p$, compute

$$i^4 \bmod p = (i^2 \bmod p)^2 \bmod p,$$

$$i^6 \bmod p = (i^4 \bmod p)(i^2 \bmod p) \bmod p,$$

$$i^{12} \bmod p = (i^6 \bmod p)^2 \bmod p,$$

$$\dots, i^{(p+1)/2} \bmod p.$$

By Fermat's little theorem, this is
a square root of i^2 modulo p .

About $\lg p$ multiplications.

Sender's secret key is (p, q, z)

where z is a 256-bit string,

p is prime, q is prime,

$p \in 3 + 8\mathbf{Z}$, $q \in 7 + 8\mathbf{Z}$,

$2^{767} < p < 2^{768} < q < 2^{769}$,

and $pq = k$.

Sender finds square roots mod k
using factorization of k .

Attacker isn't given factorization,
and conjecturally can't do this.

Given m , sender computes

- $r = H_1(z, m)$;
- $h = H_0(r, m)$;
- $e = 1$ if h is a square modulo q , otherwise $e = -1$;
- $f = 1$ if eh is a square modulo p , otherwise $f = 2$;
- $s =$ the unique square root of eh/f modulo pq with $s \in \{0, 1, \dots, (pq - 1)/2\}$ and with $\pm s$ a square modulo pq .

Signed message is (m, e, f, r, s) .

H_1 is another public function.

The hash functions H_0, H_1

Start from this \rightarrow
function SHA.

String input,
160-bit output.

Define

$$H_0(x) = 6 + 2^{96} \text{SHA}(1, x) + 2^{256} \text{SHA}(2, x) + \dots +$$

$$2^{1376} \text{SHA}(9, x).$$

$$\text{Define } H_1(x) = \text{SHA}(0, x) \bmod 16.$$

```
static u_int32_t K[] = { 0x5a827999, 0x6ed9eb1, 0x8f1bcdc, 0xca62c1d6 };
#define K(t) K[(t) / 20]
#define F0(b, c, d) (((b) & (c)) | ((~(b)) & (d)))
#define F1(b, c, d) (((b) & (c)) | ((b) & (~d)) | ((~b) & d))
#define F2(b, c, d) (((b) & (c)) | ((b) & (~d)) | ((~b) & d))
#define F3(b, c, d) (((b) & (c)) | ((b) & (~d)) | ((~b) & d))
#define S(n, c) (((c) << (n)) | ((c) >> (32 - n)))
#define H(a) (ctx->h.S22(a))
#define COUNT (ctx->count)
#define BCOUNT (ctx->bc.b64[0] / 8)
#define W(a) (ctx->w.S22(a))
#define PUTBYTE(x) { \
    ctx->m.b8[(COUNT % 64) - (x)]; \
    COUNT++; \
    COUNT %= 64; \
    ctx->c.b64[0] += 8; \
    if (COUNT % 64 == 0) \
        sha1_step(ctx); \
}
#define PUTPAD(x) { \
    ctx->m.b8[(COUNT % 64) - (x)]; \
    COUNT++; \
    COUNT %= 64; \
    if (COUNT % 64 == 0) \
        sha1_step(ctx); \
}

static void sha1_step_P((struct sha1_ctx *));
static void
sha1_step(struct sha1_ctx *ctx)
{
    struct sha1_ctx *ctx;
    {
        u_int32_t a, b, c, d, e;
        size_t t, s;
        u_int32_t tmp;
        a = H(0); b = H(1); c = H(2); d = H(3); e = H(4);
        for (t = 0; t < 20; t++) {
            s = t & 0x0f;
            if (t >= 16) {
                W(s) = S(1, W((s+13) & 0x0f) ^ W((s+8) & 0x0f) ^ W((s+2) & 0x0f) ^ W(s));
            }
            tmp = S(5, a) + F0(b, c, d) + e + W(s) + K(t);
            e = d; d = c; c = S(30, b); b = a; a = tmp;
        }
        for (t = 20; t < 40; t++) {
            s = t & 0x0f;
            W(s) = S(1, W((s+13) & 0x0f) ^ W((s+8) & 0x0f) ^ W((s+2) & 0x0f) ^ W(s));
            tmp = S(5, a) + F1(b, c, d) + e + W(s) + K(t);
            e = d; d = c; c = S(30, b); b = a; a = tmp;
        }
        for (t = 40; t < 60; t++) {
            s = t & 0x0f;
            W(s) = S(1, W((s+13) & 0x0f) ^ W((s+8) & 0x0f) ^ W((s+2) & 0x0f) ^ W(s));
            tmp = S(5, a) + F2(b, c, d) + e + W(s) + K(t);
            e = d; d = c; c = S(30, b); b = a; a = tmp;
        }
        for (t = 60; t < 80; t++) {
            s = t & 0x0f;
            W(s) = S(1, W((s+13) & 0x0f) ^ W((s+8) & 0x0f) ^ W((s+2) & 0x0f) ^ W(s));
            tmp = S(5, a) + F3(b, c, d) + e + W(s) + K(t);
            e = d; d = c; c = S(30, b); b = a; a = tmp;
        }
        H(0) = H(0) + a;
        H(1) = H(1) + b;
        H(2) = H(2) + c;
        H(3) = H(3) + d;
        H(4) = H(4) + e;
    }
    bzero(&ctx->m.b8[0], 64);
}
void
sha1_init(struct sha1_ctx *ctx)
{
    struct sha1_ctx *ctx;
    {
        bzero(ctx, sizeof(struct sha1_ctx));
        H(0) = 0x67452301;
        H(1) = 0xefcdab89;
        H(2) = 0x98badcfe;
        H(3) = 0x10325476;
        H(4) = 0xc3d2e1f0;
    }
}
void
sha1_pad(struct sha1_ctx *ctx)
{
    struct sha1_ctx *ctx;
    {
        size_t padlen; /*pad length in bytes*/
        size_t padstart;
        PUTPAD(0x80);
        padstart = COUNT % 64;
        padlen = 64 - padstart;
        if (padlen < 8) {
            bzero(&ctx->m.b8[padstart], padlen);
            COUNT += padlen;
            COUNT %= 64;
            sha1_step(ctx);
            padstart = COUNT % 64; /* should be 0 */
            padlen = 64 - padstart; /* should be 64 */
        }
        bzero(&ctx->m.b8[padstart], padlen - 8);
        COUNT += (padlen - 8);
        COUNT %= 64;
        PUTPAD(ctx->c.b8[0]); PUTPAD(ctx->c.b8[1]);
        PUTPAD(ctx->c.b8[2]); PUTPAD(ctx->c.b8[3]);
        PUTPAD(ctx->c.b8[4]); PUTPAD(ctx->c.b8[5]);
        PUTPAD(ctx->c.b8[6]); PUTPAD(ctx->c.b8[7]);
    }
}
void
sha1_loop(struct sha1_ctx *ctx, input, len)
{
    struct sha1_ctx *ctx;
    const u_int32_t *input;
    size_t len;
    {
        size_t gaplen;
        size_t gapstart;
        size_t off;
        size_t copysize;
        off = 0;
        while (off < len) {
            gapstart = COUNT % 64;
            gaplen = 64 - gapstart;
            copysize = (gaplen < len - off) ? gaplen : len - off;
            bcopy(&input[off], &ctx->m.b8[gapstart], copysize);
            COUNT += copysize;
            COUNT %= 64;
            ctx->c.b64[0] += copysize * 8;
            if (COUNT % 64 == 0)
                sha1_step(ctx);
            off += copysize;
        }
    }
}
void
sha1_result(struct sha1_ctx *ctx, digest)
{
    struct sha1_ctx *ctx;
    caddr_t digest;
    {
        u_int8_t *digest;
        digest = (u_int8_t *)digest;
        sha1_pad(ctx);
        bcopy(&ctx->h.b8[0], digest, 20);
    }
}
```

Many other possibilities.

General belief: *Almost every* reasonably-easy-to-compute function is safe.

Can choose a function randomly!

Some varieties of functions seem safe at higher speeds.

But nothing has been proven.

Wang et al. 2004 constructed collision in popular function MD5: m, m' with $\text{MD5}(m) = \text{MD5}(m')$.

Some credits

Concept of public key signatures:

1976 Diffie Hellman. No examples.

$$s^{\text{something}} \bmod k = m:$$

1977 Rivest Shamir Adleman;

independently Rabin, unpublished.

Bad system: allows trivial forgeries.

$$s^{\text{something}} \bmod k = H_0(m):$$

1979 Rabin. Seems to be secure.

Small exponent: 1979 Rabin.

Saves verification time.

$s^2 \bmod k = H_0(m)$: 1979 Rabin.
Saves more time. Adds problem:
 $H_0(m)$ has only 25% chance
of being a square modulo k .

$s^2 \bmod k = H_0(r, m)$, with r chosen
randomly by signer: 1979 Rabin.
Fixes the problem,
if r has enough bits.

Choosing r as secret function of m ,
i.e., function of z and m : 1997
Barwood; independently Wigley.
Eliminates randomness from signing.

Extra factors

$$e \in \{-1, 1\}, f \in \{1, 2\},$$

with $p \in 3 + 8\mathbf{Z}$, $q \in 7 + 8\mathbf{Z}$:

1980 Williams. Now efs^2 covers all integers mod k , so no need to try more than one r .

Can even omit r .

We'll see later why state-of-the-art system includes 4-bit r .

Security

An **attack** is an algorithm.

Algorithm receives public key k .

Algorithm selects message m_0 ,
receives signature s_0 of m_0 .

Algorithm selects message m_1 ,
receives signature s_1 of m_1 .

Et cetera.

Algorithm then prints (m', s') .

Attack is **successful** if

$m' \notin \{m_0, m_1, \dots\}$

and s' is a signature of m' .

Conjecture: Every fast attack has negligible chance of success against a random public key.

(Typical formalization: Every attack using $\leq 2^{60}$ steps on a 2-tape Turing machine has probability at most 2^{-30} of success.)

Of course, real signers restrict m_0, m_1 , etc. Restricted conjecture: Every fast restricted attack has negligible chance of success against a random public key.

Best attack method we know:

Factor public key k

to discover p and q .

Then choose m' and compute s' the same way sender does.

Best factorization method we know:

number-field sieve (NFS).

(1988 Pollard, et al.)

Some successful factorizations
of 512 bits and slightly beyond,
but nowhere near 1536 bits.

Conjecture: NFS costs $\approx 2^c$
to factor integers $\approx 2^b$,
where $c/b^{1/3}(\lg b)^{2/3} \rightarrow \text{constant}$
as $b \rightarrow \infty$. (1993 Buhler
Lenstra Pomerance, et al.)

Constant ≈ 1.976 for circuits.
(2001 Bernstein)

Another algorithm has *proven* cost 2^c
where $c/b^{1/2}(\lg b)^{1/2} \rightarrow \text{constant}$.
(1981 Dixon; better constants:
1987 Pomerance, 1991 Vallée,
1992 Lenstra Pomerance)

In factorization attack, H_0 and H_1 are **generic**: they can be oracles that compute arbitrary functions. Attack succeeds no matter what H_0 and H_1 are.

Given *any* generic attack that succeeds against all H_0, H_1 , can build an algorithm that factors k at comparable speed.

Enough to assume that success probability, averaged over all H_0, H_1 , is high.

Sketch of construction:

Factorization algorithm

chooses random integer c ;

chooses random string z ;

chooses random H_1 values;

chooses each $H_0(H_1(z, m), m)$ as

$ef s^2$ for random e, f, s ;

and chooses each $H_0(\text{other}, m)$ as

$ef(sc)^2$ for random e, f, s .

Can compute exactly

the right e, f, s distribution.

Factorization algorithm
can now simulate signer
with these functions H_0, H_1 .

Factorization algorithm
runs the attack, obtaining
a forgery (m', e', f', r', s') .

If $H_1(z, m') = r'$, give up;
chance $\leq 1/16 + \epsilon$.

Now $ef(sc)^2 \equiv e'f'(s')^2$.

Check $\gcd\{k, s'\}, \gcd\{k, s' - sc\}$;
chance $\leq 1/2$ of both in $\{1, k\}$.

So generic attacks can't be easier than factorization.

If r is omitted, this proof breaks down. Fix: can build a slower factorization algorithm; so generic attacks can't be *much* easier than factorization.

Conjecture: No attacks are easier than factorization.

(Counterargument: MD5 collision.)

Conjecture: Factorization is hard.

(Counterargument: NFS.)

More credits

Converting generic attacks into factorization algorithms:
1987 Fiat Shamir, for a signature system;
1993 Bellare Rogaway, for some encryption systems.

Quantified conversions:
1996 Bellare Rogaway;
1998 Bernstein; 2000 Coron; et al.

Exploiting non-random r :
2003 Katz Wang; 2003 Bernstein.

Expanded signatures

(1997 Bernstein)

Expand e, f, r, s into e, f, r, s, t
where $t = (fs^2 - eH_0(r, m))/k$.

Verifier can check whether

$$(f(s \bmod \ell)^2 - (k \bmod \ell)(t \bmod \ell) - e(H_0(r, m) \bmod \ell)) \bmod \ell = 0$$

for a random 128-bit prime ℓ .

This is very fast.

If input is valid, says yes.

Otherwise, chance $\leq 2^{-115}$

of saying yes.

Compressed signatures

(2003 Bleichenbacher)

Compress e, f, r, s to e, f, r, v

where $v \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2^{769} - 1\}$

and $efv^2 H_0(r, m) \bmod k$ is in $\{0^2, 1^2, 2^2, \dots, (2^{768} - 1)^2\}$.

97 bytes instead of 193 bytes.

Easy to find v from

continued fraction of fs/k .

Easy to uncompress,

or to check e, f, r, v directly.

Compressed keys

(2003 Coppersmith)

Require $\lfloor k/2^{512} \rfloor = 179870286739608$

1109087939864337792829527094371869801110276348868

0668010543030620350477208772441576518762853656940

3357866962021859070432575840490938673081114568020

8028015726391074333854880135338238893595433658057

3963972429710649524801380822741794895484671657643

1759705516797612912096782118234207449553394447817.

Transmit only $k \bmod 2^{512}$.

64 bytes instead of 192 bytes.

How to generate p, q with
 $2^{512}\alpha < pq < 2^{512}(\alpha + 1)$?

First generate random p_0 .

Compute $q_0 \approx 2^{512}(\alpha + 1/2)/p_0$.

Find 256-bit integers x, y

with $p_0y + q_0x$ close to

$2^{512}(\alpha + 1/2) - p_0q_0$.

Set $p = p_0 + x$ and $q = q_0 + y$.

Check that p, q are primes

in the right range;

if not, try a new p_0 .

Advertisement

MCS 590, High-Speed Cryptography,
Spring 2005

Prerequisite: Computer algorithms.

Other necessary background
from computer architecture,
numerical analysis,
commutative algebra,
number theory, and
cryptography will be
introduced on the fly.