C.c) DSA and Diffie-Hellman

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C.73 DSA (Digital Signature Algorithm)

- standardized by NIST
- A) Generation of a key pair
- Select a prime q with $2^{159} < q < 2^{160}$
- Select a prime p with q | p-1 and 2^{1023}
- Select a generator α of Z_p^* (i.e., $< \alpha > = Z_p^*$)
- Set g:= $\alpha^{(p-1)/q}$ (in particular, | < g > | = q)
- Select a random number $x \in \{1, \dots, q-1\}$
- y := g^x (mod p)

Secret key: x Public Key: (y,p,q,g)

C.73 (continued)

B) Generation of a digital signature

- generate a random number k ∈ {1,...,q-1} (ephemeral key)
- r:= (g^k (mod p)) (mod q)
- $s:=k^{-1}(H(m)+xr) \pmod{q}$

H denotes a hash function. In the DSS (Digital Signature Standard) H=SHA-1.

C.73 (continued)

C) Verification of a digital signature

• verify that 0< r,s < q

•
$$u_1 := s^{-1} H(m) \pmod{q}$$

•
$$u_2 := s^{-1} r \pmod{q}$$

•
$$v:=(g^{u_1}y^{u_2} \pmod{p}) \pmod{q} = r$$

 $\frac{\text{Justification:}}{g^{u_1} y^{u_2}} \equiv g^{s^{(-1)H(m)}} g^{xs^{(-1)r}} \equiv g^{s^{(-1)(H(m)+xr)}} \equiv g^k \pmod{p}$

C.74 DSA (Security)

- The security of DSA essentially grounds on the discrete log problem in the subgroup $\langle g \rangle \subseteq Z_p^*$ (recall that $y := g^x$ (mod p)).
- Unlike RSA the DSA algorithm needs a fresh random number k (ephemeral key) for each signature. In particular, if Alice signs the same message m several times all signatures will be different.
- If an attacker knows k it is easy to solve the linear equation s:= k⁻¹(H(m)+xr) (mod q) over the field GF(q) to determine the secret key x.
- Applying lattice-based attacks it is sufficient if an attacker knows small parts of the ephemeral keys from a large number of signatures.

C.75 DSA (Efficiency)

- Since k is only a 160 bit integer the signature generation is much faster than for 1024-bit RSA, for instance. Moreover, the value r may be precomputed.
- The signature verification is significantly more costly than for RSA signatures with small public exponents.

Note: DSA can only be used for signing, not for encryption (key exchange).

C.76 Diffie Hellman Key Agreement Protocol ⁷ (Basic Variant)

 <u>Goal</u>: Alice and Bob want to agree upon a secret key. An adversary shall not be able to recover this key.

<u>First Step:</u> Alice and Bob agree upon a prime p, a generator $g \in Z_p^*$ (or at least on an element with large order) and a key derivation function f. These parameters may be made public.

C.76 (continued)

- Alice selects randomly a ∈ {1,...,p-2} and keeps this value secret.
- Bob selects randomly b ∈ {1,...,p-2} and keeps this value secret.
- Alice sends A:=g^a (mod p)
- Bob sends B:=g^b (mod p)
- Alice computes $C:=B^a \equiv g^{ab} \pmod{p}$ and k=f(C)
- Bob computes $C:=A^b \equiv g^{ab} \pmod{p}$ and k=f(C)

Note: Alice and Bob have agreed upon the key k.

C.77 Remark

- The basic version of Diffie-Hellman's key agreement protocol is vulnerable against active adversaries. An active adversary could e.g. send any value E:=g^e (mod p) to Bob, pretending being Alice.
- Hence the basic protocol is embedded into more advanced protocols.
- The underlying idea can also be used to encrypt messages (cf. e.g. the ElGamal encryption scheme).

C.78 Elliptic Curve Cryptography

- Key agreement protocols and signature applications that are based on elliptic curves have become increasingly important. Compared to RSA shorter key lengths provide a similar security level (→ efficiency).
- Elliptic curve-based cryptographic algorithms are more difficult to understand than RSA. Elliptic curves are beyond the scope of this course.
- We just mention that elliptic curves over finite fields are finite abelian groups. For suitably selected parameters the discrete log problem on elliptic curves is intractable.
- In particular, there exists a pendant to the DSA algorithm (ECDSA).

C.79 Final Remark

- In this course we merely scratched the field of public key cryptography.
- There exist several other mechanisms and protocols that we have not even addressed, e.g. blind signatures (discussed in the exercises) and zero-knowledge proofs.