

MODULE IV

- Authentication requirements- Authentication functions- Message authentication codes- Hash functions- SHA -1, MD5, Security of Hash functions and MACs- Authentication protocols-Digital signatures-Digital signature standards.

AUTHENTICATION REQUIREMENTS

- Disclosure
- Traffic analysis
- Masquerade
- Content modification
- Sequence modification
- Timing modification
- Source repudiation
- Destination repudiation

Disclosure

- Release of message contents to any person or process not possessing the appropriate cryptographic key.

Traffic analysis

- Discovery of the pattern of traffic between parties.
- In a connection oriented application, the frequency and duration of connections could be determined.
- In either a connection-oriented or connectionless environment, the number and length of messages between parties could be determined.

Masquerade:

- Insertion of messages into the network from a fraudulent source.
- includes the creation of messages by an opponent that are purported to come from an authorized entity.
- Also included are fraudulent acknowledgments of message receipt or non receipt by someone other than the message recipient.

Content modification

- Changes to the contents of a message, including insertion, deletion, transposition, and modification.

Sequence modification

- Any modification to a sequence of messages between parties, including insertion, deletion, and reordering.

Timing modification

- Delay or replay of messages.
- In a connection-oriented application, an entire session or sequence of messages could be a replay of some previous valid session, or individual messages in the sequence could be delayed or replayed.
- In a connectionless application, an individual message (e.g:- datagram) could be delayed or replayed.

- **Source repudiation**

- Denial of transmission of message by source.

- **Destination repudiation:**

- Denial of receipt of message by destination.

- Message authentication is a procedure to verify that received messages come from the alleged source and have not been altered.

- Message authentication may also verify sequencing and timeliness.

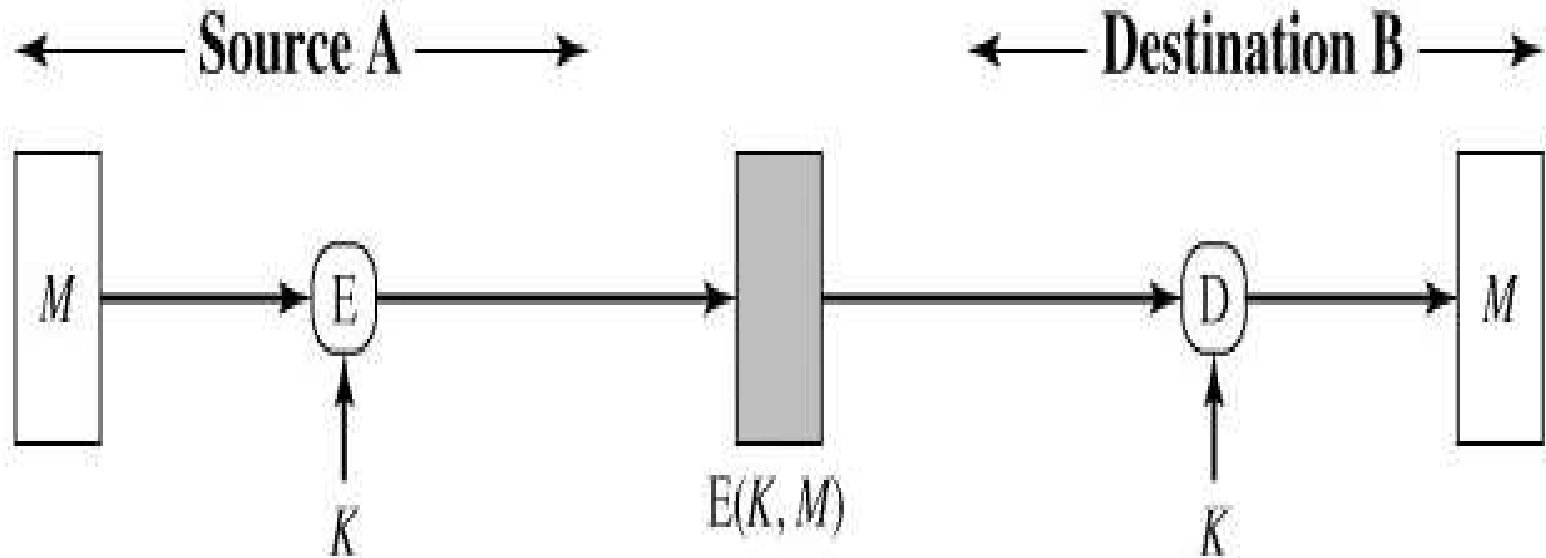
AUTHENTICATION FUNCTIONS

- The types of functions that may be used to produce an authenticator may be grouped into three classes
 - Message encryption
 - Message authentication code (MAC)
 - Hash function:

(1) Message encryption - The cipher text of the entire message serves as its authenticator.

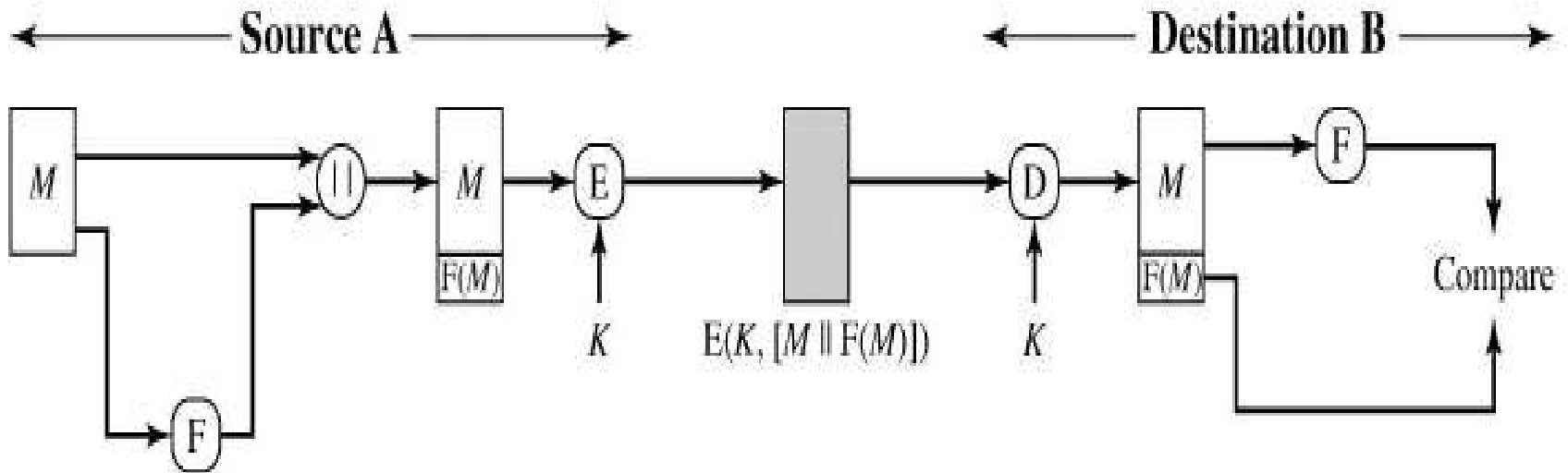
- Message encryption by itself can provide a measure of authentication.
- The analysis differs for symmetric and public-key encryption schemes.
 - Symmetric Encryption
 - Public-Key Encryption: Confidentiality
 - Public-Key Encryption: Authentication
 - Public-Key Encryption: Confidentiality and authentication

Symmetric Encryption



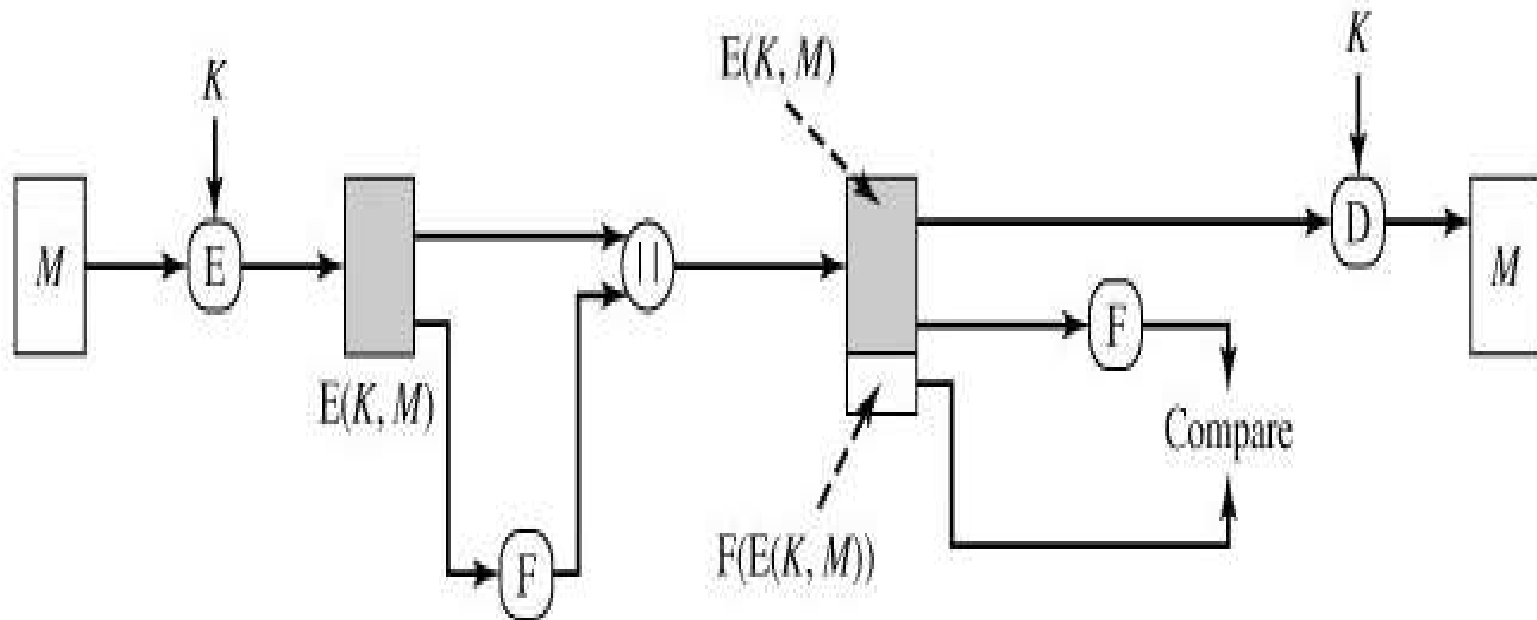
(a) Symmetric encryption: confidentiality and authentication

Internal Error Control - Append an error-detecting code, or frame check sequence (FCS) or checksum with the message



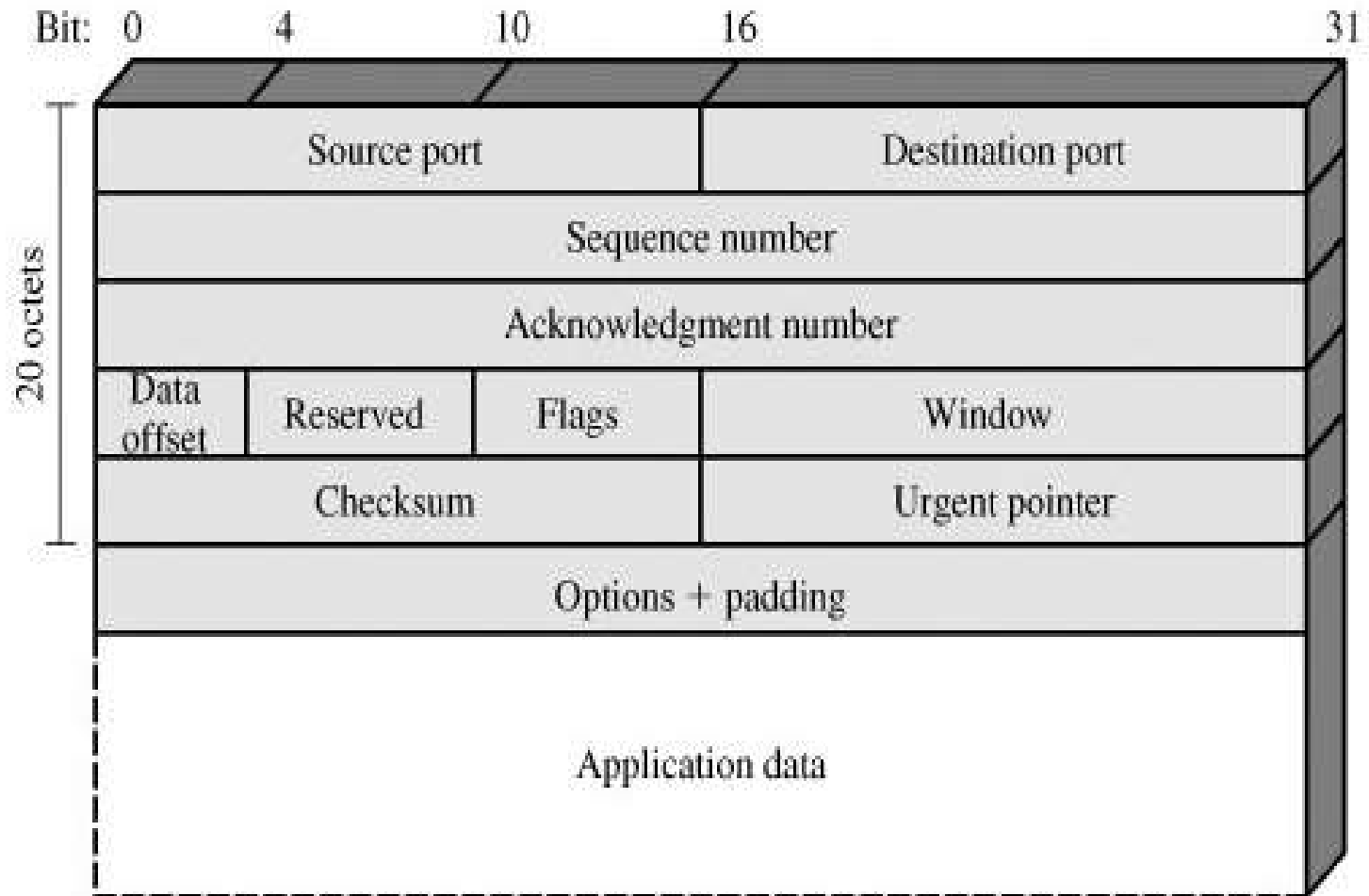
(a) Internal error control

External error control

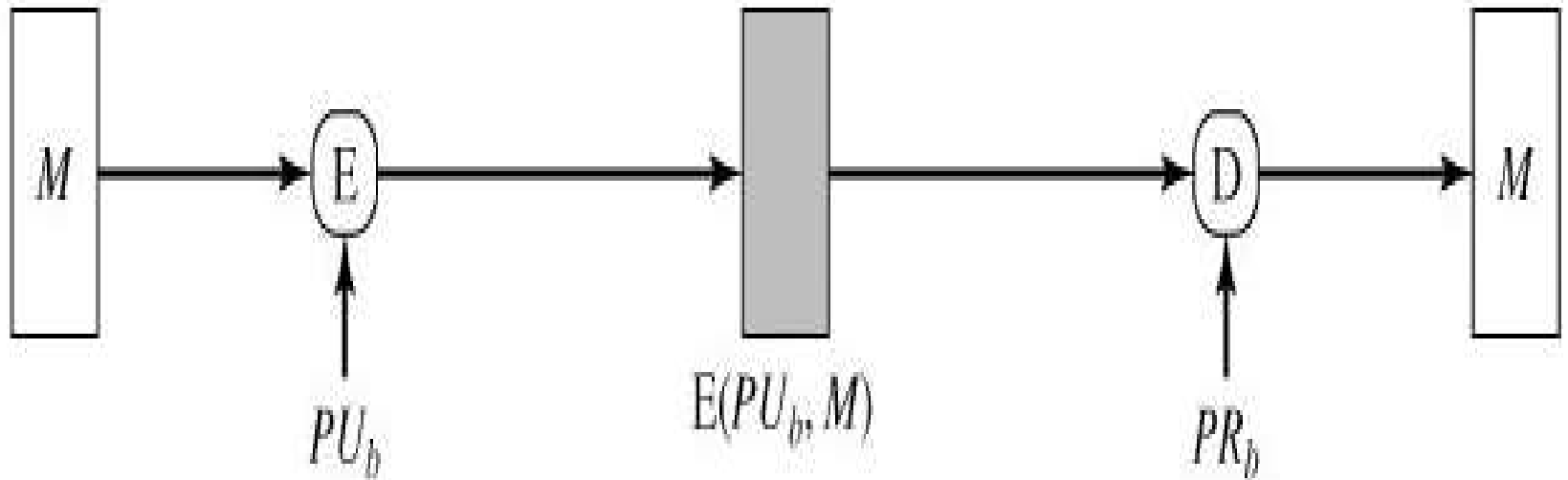


(b) External error control

TCP segment

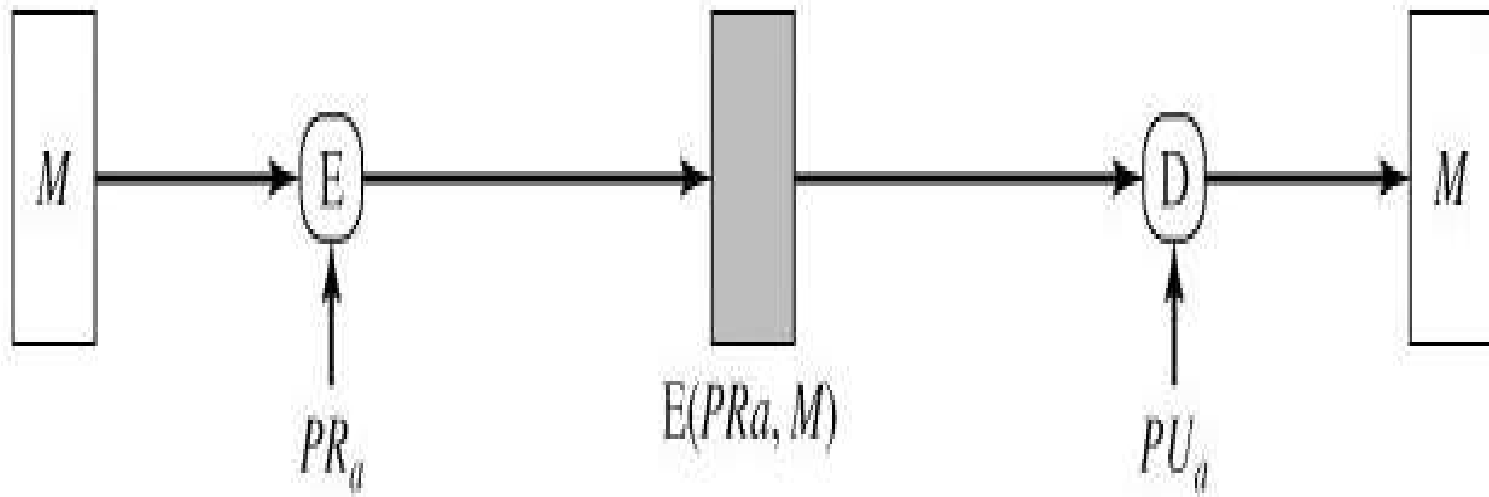


2. Public-Key Encryption: Confidentiality



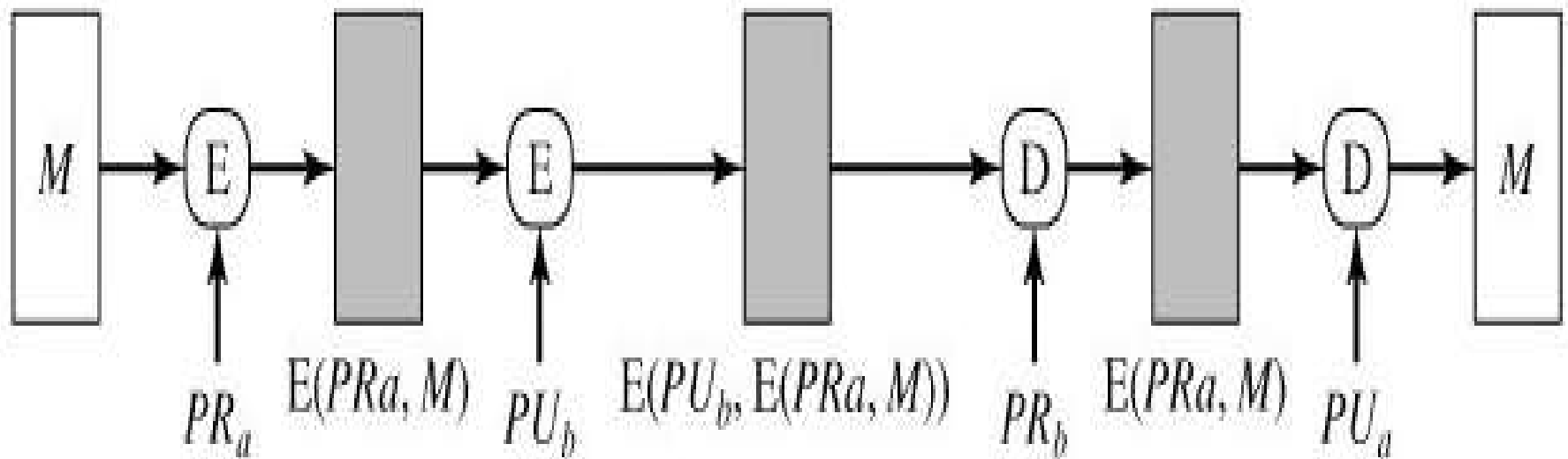
(b) Public-key encryption: confidentiality

3. Public-Key Encryption: Authentication



(c) Public-key encryption: authentication and signature

4. Public-Key Encryption: Confidentiality and authentication



(d) Public-key encryption: confidentiality, authentication, and signature

(ii) Message authentication code (1)

- An authentication technique involves the use of a secret key to generate a small fixed-size block of data, known as a **cryptographic checksum or MAC** that is appended to the message.
- two communicating parties, say A and B, share a common secret key K .

Message authentication code (2)

- When A has a message to send to B, it calculates the MAC as a function of the message and the key:

$$\text{MAC} = C(K, M)$$

Where $M = \textit{input message}$

$C = \text{MAC function}$

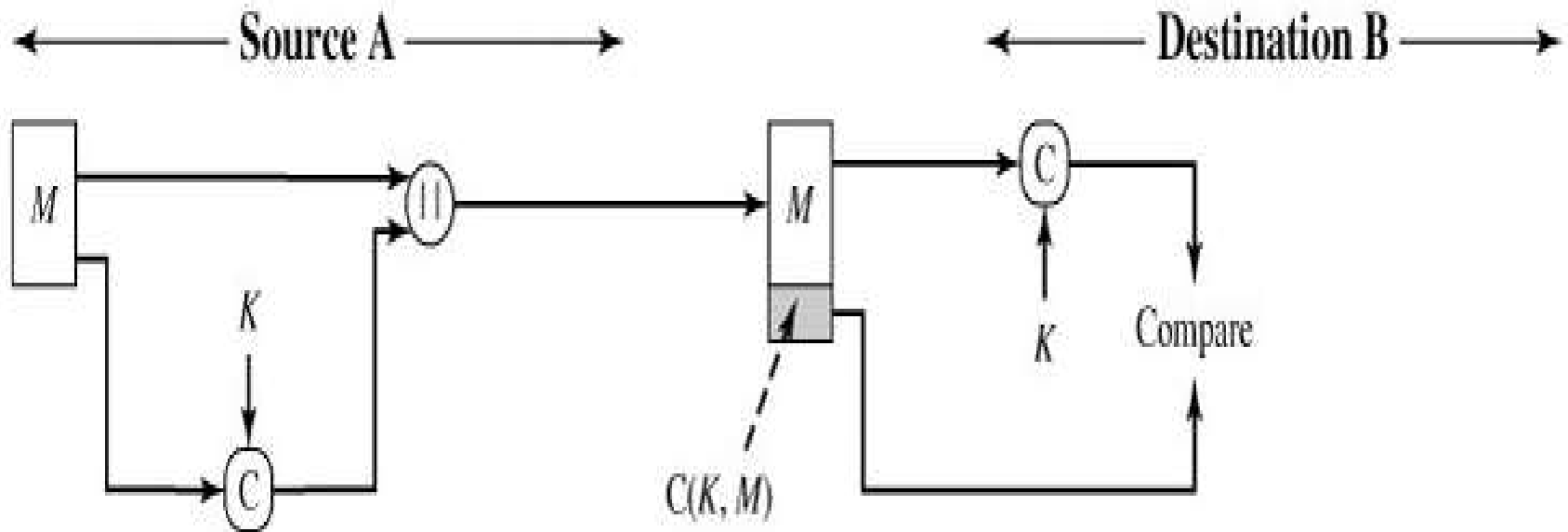
$K = \textit{shared secret key}$

MAC = message authentication code

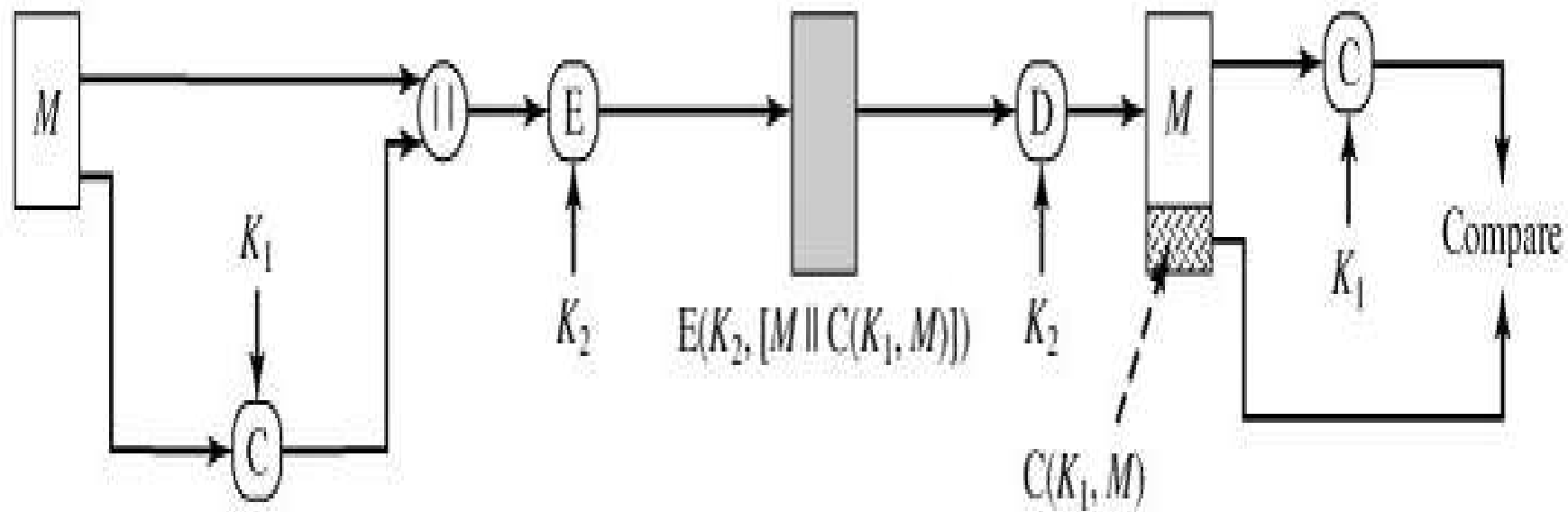
Message authentication code (3)

- message plus MAC are transmitted to the intended recipient.
- recipient performs the same calculation on the received message, using the same secret key, to generate a new MAC.
- received MAC is compared to the calculated MAC as shown in the figure

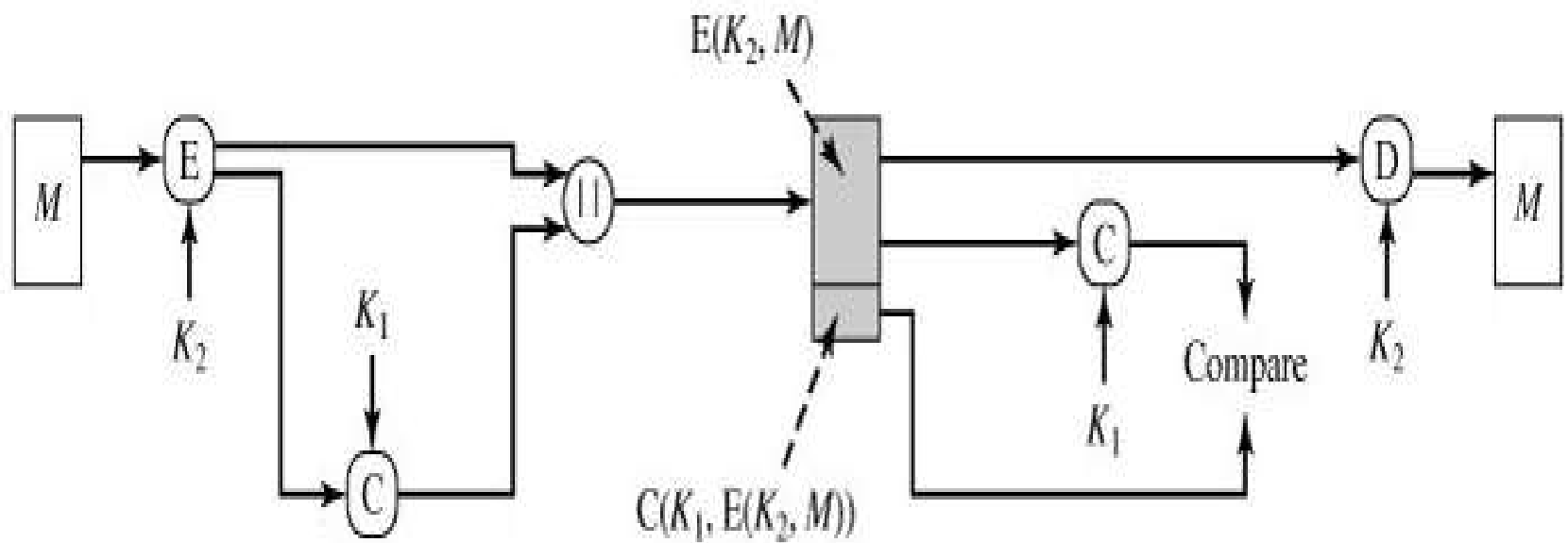
Message authentication code (4)



(a) Message authentication



(b) Message authentication and confidentiality; authentication tied to plaintext



(c) Message authentication and confidentiality; authentication tied to ciphertext

(iii) Hash Function

- A variation on the message authentication code is the one-way hash function.
- As with the message authentication code, a hash function accepts a variable-size message M as input and produces a fixed-size output, referred to as a **hash code $H(M)$** .

- Unlike a MAC, a hash code does not use a key but is a function only of the input message.
- The hash code is also referred to as a **message digest or hash value**.
- The hash code is a function of all the bits of the message and provides an error-detection capability:
- A change to any bit or bits in the message results in a change to the hash code.

HASH FUNCTIONS

- A hash value h is generated by a function H of the form $h = H(M)$, where
 - M is a variable-length message
 - $H(M)$ is the fixed-length hash value.

- The hash value is appended to the message at the source at a time when the message is assumed or known to be correct.
- The receiver authenticates that message by re-computing the hash value.
- Because the hash function itself is not considered to be secret, some means is required to protect the hash value.

Requirements for a Hash Function(1)

- The purpose of a hash function is to produce a "fingerprint" of a file, message, or other block of data.
- To be useful for message authentication, a hash function H must have the following properties:

Requirements for a Hash Function(2)

1. H can be applied to a block of data of any size.
2. H produces a fixed-length output.
3. $H(x)$ is relatively easy to compute for any given x , making both hardware and software implementations practical.
4. For any given value h , it is computationally infeasible to find x such that $H(x) = h$. This is sometimes referred to in the literature as the one-way property.

Requirements for a Hash Function(3)

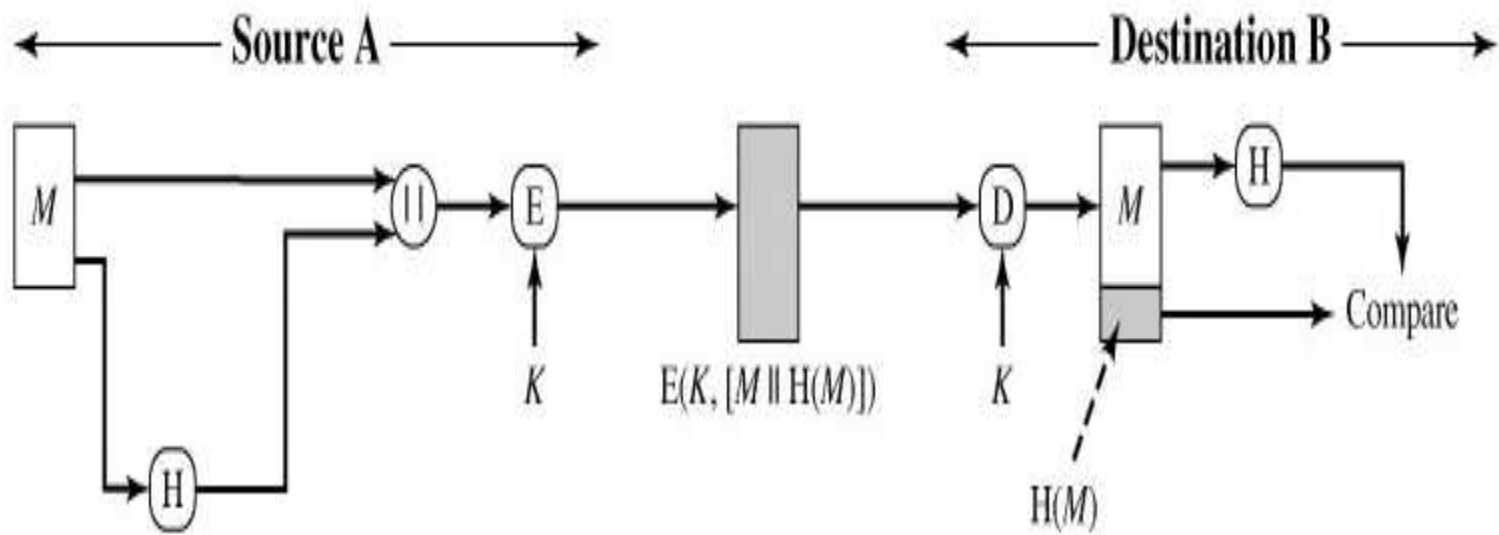
- For any given block x , it is computationally infeasible to find y not equal to x such that $H(y) = H(x)$. This is sometimes referred to as **weak collision resistance**.
- It is computationally infeasible to find any pair (x, y) such that $H(x) = H(y)$. This is sometimes referred to as **strong collision resistance**.

- The variety of ways in which a hash code can be used to provide message authentication, as follows:

a)

- The message plus concatenated hash code is encrypted using symmetric encryption.
- This is identical in structure to the internal error control strategy.
- The same line of reasoning applies: Because only A and B share the secret key, the message must have come from A and has not been altered.

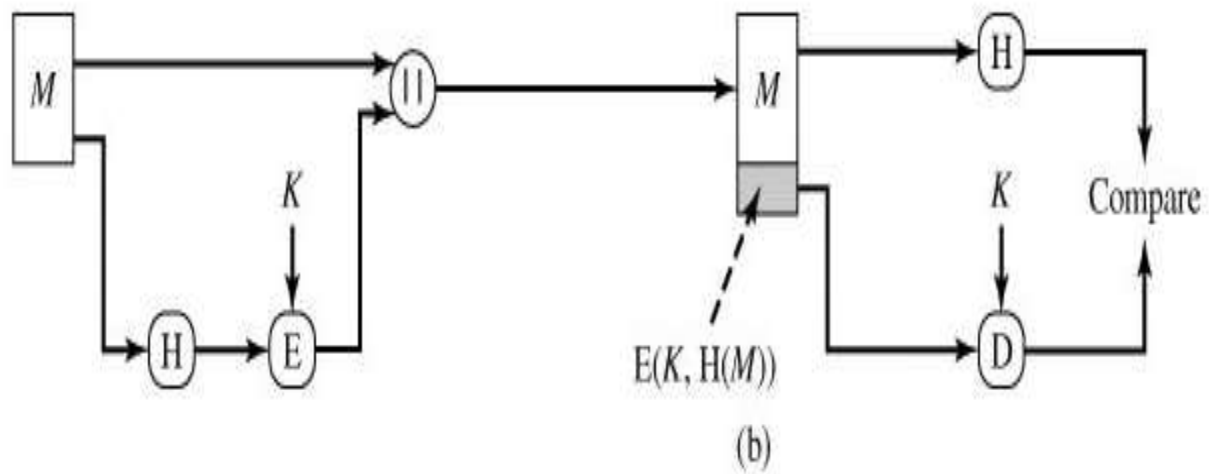
- The hash code provides the structure or redundancy required to achieve authentication.
- Because encryption is applied to the entire message plus hash code, confidentiality is also provided.



(a)

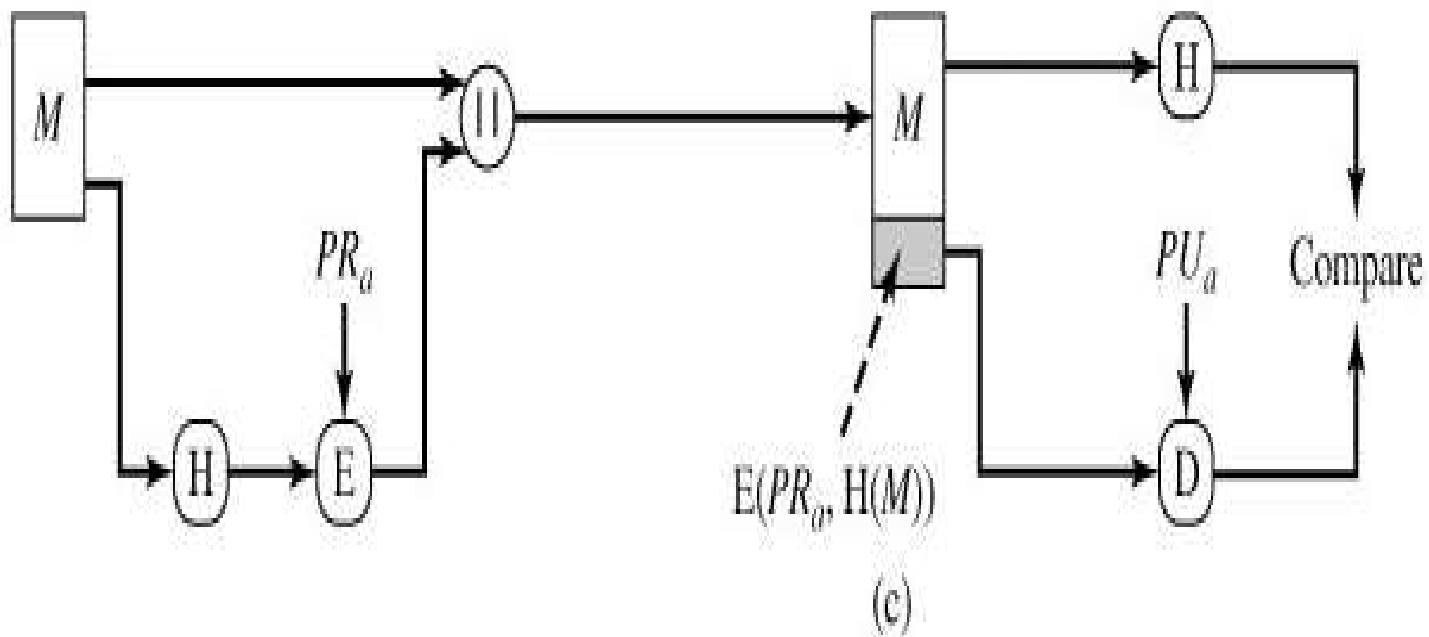
b)

- Only the hash code is encrypted, using symmetric encryption.
- This reduces the processing burden for those applications that do not require confidentiality.



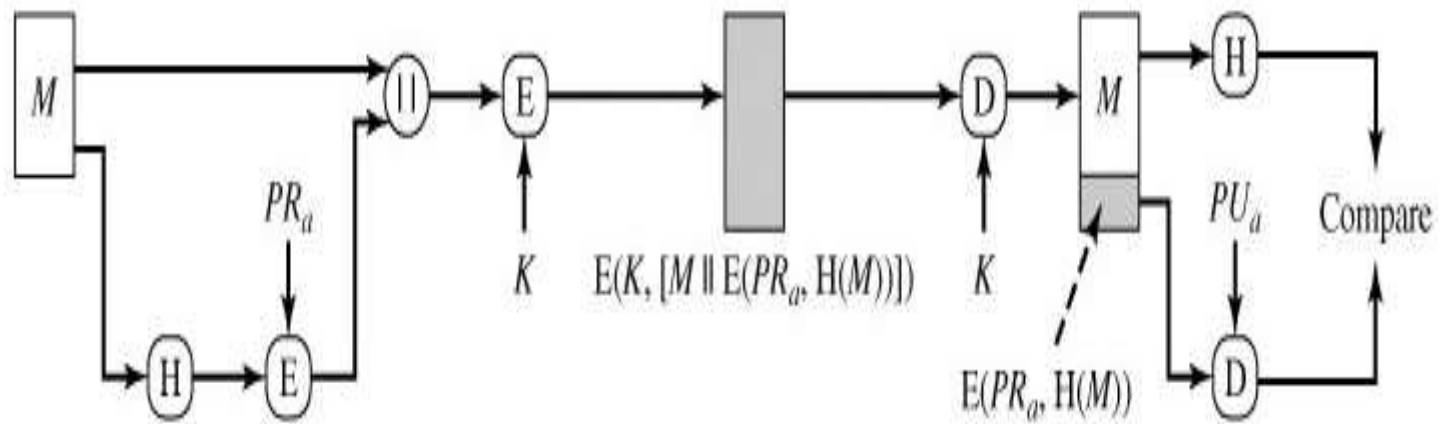
c)

- Only the hash code is encrypted, using public-key encryption and using the sender's private key. As with (b), this provides authentication.
- It also provides a digital signature, because only the sender could have produced the encrypted hash code. In fact, this is the essence of the digital signature technique.



d)

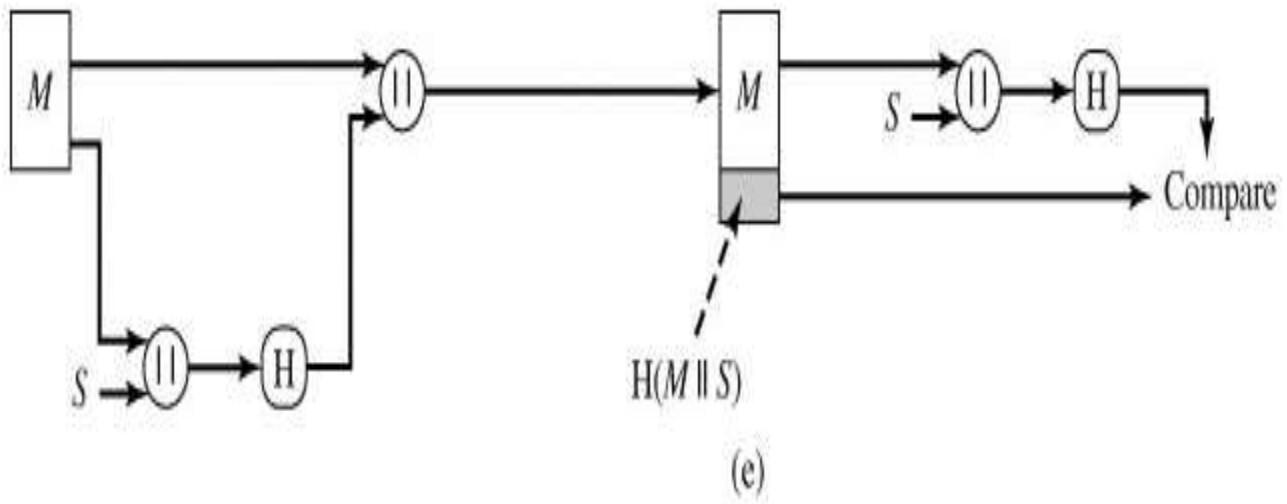
- If confidentiality as well as a digital signature is desired, then the message plus the private-key-encrypted hash code can be encrypted using a symmetric secret key. This is a common technique.



(d)

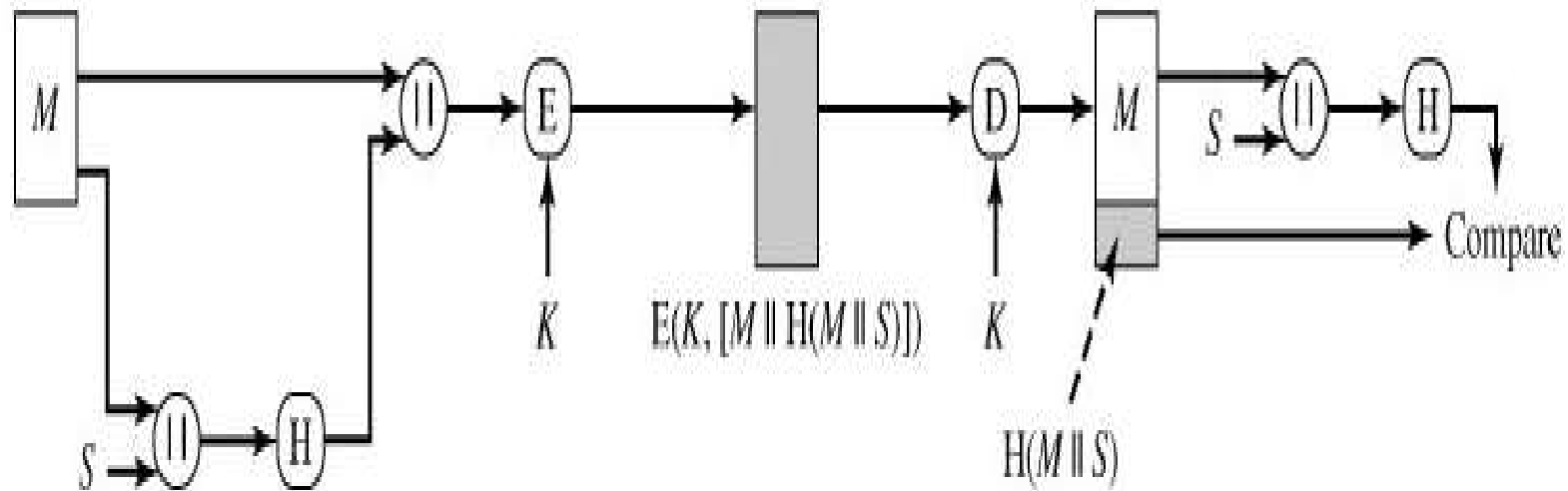
e)

- It is possible to use a hash function but no encryption for message authentication. The technique assumes that the two communicating parties share a common secret value S . A computes the hash value over the
- concatenation of M and S and appends the resulting hash value to M .
- Because B possesses S , it can re compute the hash value to verify. Because the secret value itself is not sent, an opponent cannot modify an intercepted message and cannot generate a false message.



f)

- Confidentiality can be added to the approach of (e) by encrypting the entire message plus the hash code.



(f)

SECURE HASH ALGORITHM

- developed by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST).
- SHA-1 produces a hash value of 160 bits. With hash value lengths of 256, 384, and 512 bits, known as SHA-256, SHA-384, and SHA-512.

SHA-512 Logic

- The algorithm takes as input a message with a maximum length of less than 2^{128} bits
- and produces as output a 512-bit message digest.
- input is processed in 1024-bit blocks.

SHA-1 Logic

- The algorithm takes as input a message with a maximum length of less than 2^{64} bits
- and produces as output a 160-bit message digest.
- input is processed in 512-bit blocks.

Processing steps:

Step 1: Append padding bits

Step 2: Append length

Step 3: Initialize MD buffer

Step 4: Process message in 512-bit blocks

Step 5: Output

Step 1: Append padding bits

- The message is padded so that its length is congruent to 448 modulo 512
- Padding is always added, even if the message is already of the desired length.
- Thus, the number of padding bits is in the range of 1 to 512.
- The padding consists of a single 1-bit followed by the necessary number of 0-bits.

Step 2: Append length

- A block of 64 bits is appended to the message.
- This block is treated as an unsigned 64-bit integer (most significant byte first) and contains the length of the original message (before the padding).

Step 3: Initialize MD buffer

- A 160-bit buffer is used to hold intermediate and final results of the hash function.
- The buffer can be represented as five 32-bit registers (A, B, C, D, E).
- These registers are initialized to 32-bit integers (hexadecimal values):
- These values are stored in big-endian format, which is the most significant byte of a word in the low-address (leftmost) byte position

Step 4: Process message in 512-bit (16-word) blocks

- The heart of the algorithm is a module that consists of four rounds of processing of 20 steps each
- this module is labeled f in figure.
- Each round takes as input the 512-bit block being processed (Y_q) & the 160 bit buffer value $A B C D E$, and updates the contents of the buffer.
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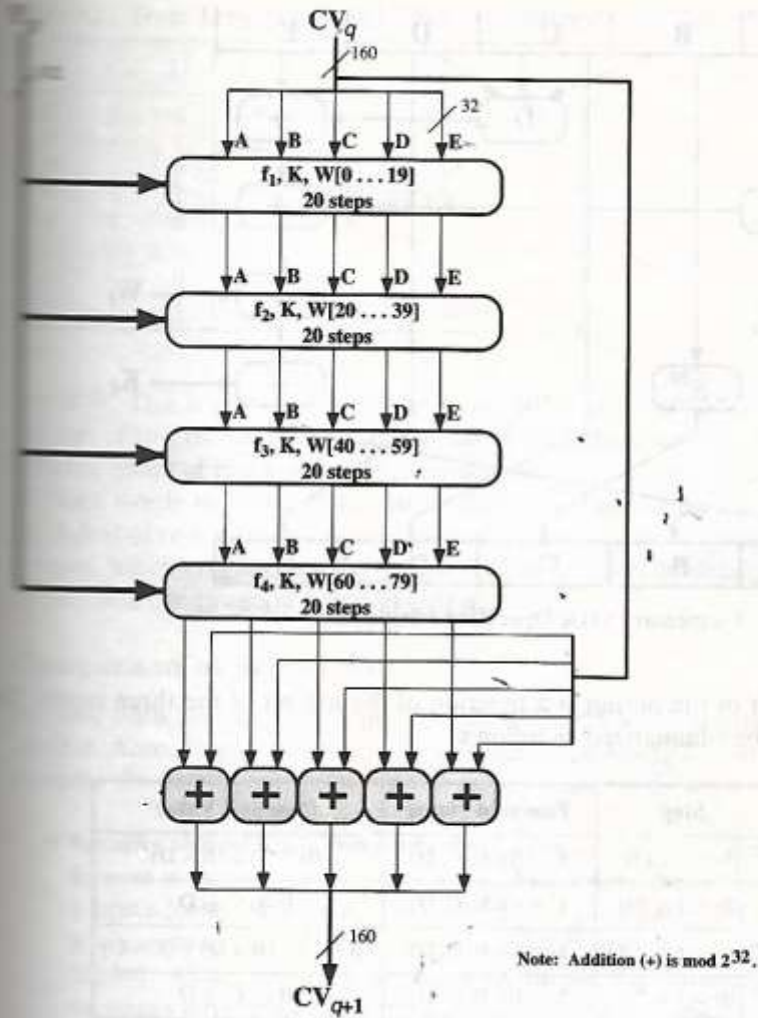


Figure 9.5 SHA-1 Processing of a Single 512-bit Block (SHA-1 compression function).

- At input to the first round, the buffer has the value of the intermediate hash value, H_{i-1} .
- Each round t makes use of a 64-bit value W_t derived from the current 1024-bit block being processed (M_i).
- These values are derived using a message schedule described subsequently.

- Each round also makes use of an additive constant K_t where $0 \leq t \leq 79$ indicates one of the 80 steps across 4 rounds.
- Output of the fourth round is added to the input to the first round (CV_{q+1})
- Addition is done independently for each of the five words in the buffer with each of the corresponding words in Cv_q , using addition modulo 2^{32}

- The output of the eightieth round is added to the input to the first round (H_{i-1}) to produce H_i .
- The addition is done independently for each of the eight words in the buffer with each of the corresponding words in H_{i-1} using addition modulo 264

Step 5: Output

- After all L 512-bit blocks have been processed; the output from the L th stage is the 160-bit message digest.

- IV = initial value of the ABCDE buffer, defined in step 3
- $abcde_q$ = the output of the last round of processing of the q^{th} message block
- N = the number of blocks in the message (including padding and length fields)
- SUM_{32} = Addition modulo 2^{32} performed separately on each word of the pair of inputs
- MD = final message digest value

We can summarize the behavior of SHA-1 as follows:

$$CV_0 = IV$$

$$CV_{q+1} = \text{SUM}_{32}(CV_q, ABCDE_q)$$

$$MD = CV_L$$

Elementary SHA Operation (single step)

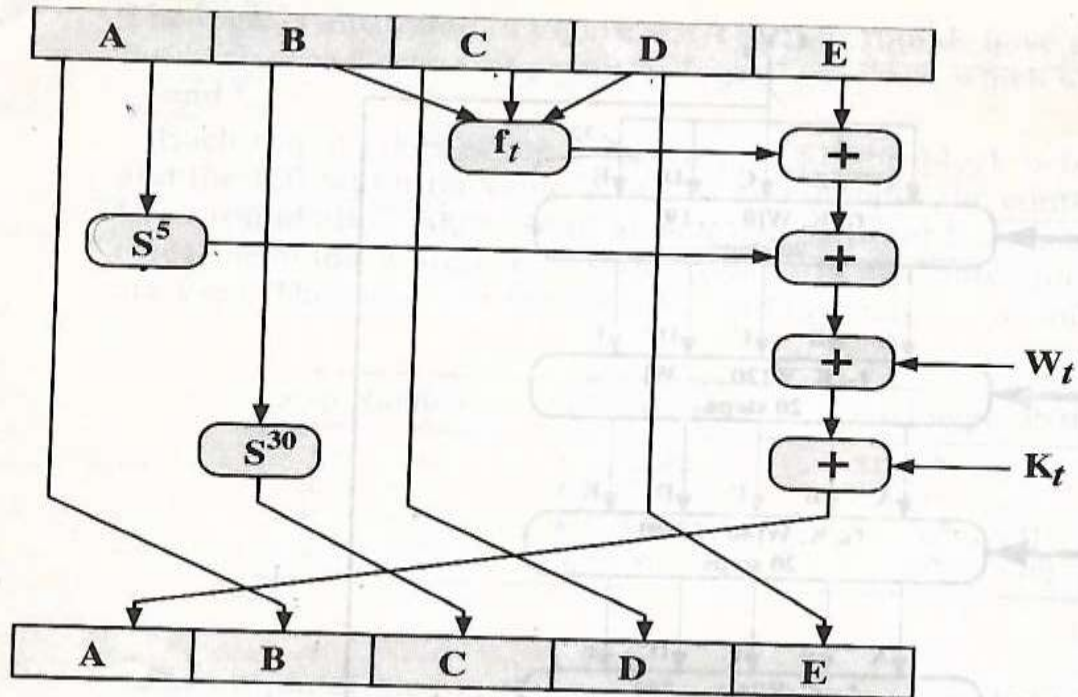


Figure 9.6 Elementary SHA Operation (single step).

Step	Function Name	Function Value
$(0 \leq t \leq 19)$	$f_1 = f(t, B, C, D)$	$(B \wedge C) \vee (\overline{B} \wedge D)$
$(20 \leq t \leq 39)$	$f_2 = f(t, B, C, D)$	$B \oplus C \oplus D$
$(40 \leq t \leq 59)$	$f_3 = f(t, B, C, D)$	$(B \wedge C) \vee (B \wedge D) \vee (C \wedge D)$
$(60 \leq t \leq 79)$	$f_4 = f(t, B, C, D)$	$B \oplus C \oplus D$

SHA-1 compression function

$$A, B, C, D, E \leftarrow (E + f(t, B, C, D) + S^5(A) + W_t + K_t), A, S^{30}(B), C, D$$

- A, B, C, D, E = the five words of the buffer
- t = step number; $0 \leq t \leq 79$
- $f_t(A, B, C, D)$ = primitive logical function for step t
- S^k = circular left shift (rotation) of the 32-bit argument by k bits
- W_t = a 32-bit word derived from the current 512-bit input block
- K_t = an additive constant; four distinct values are used, as defined previously
- $+$ = addition modulo 2^{32}

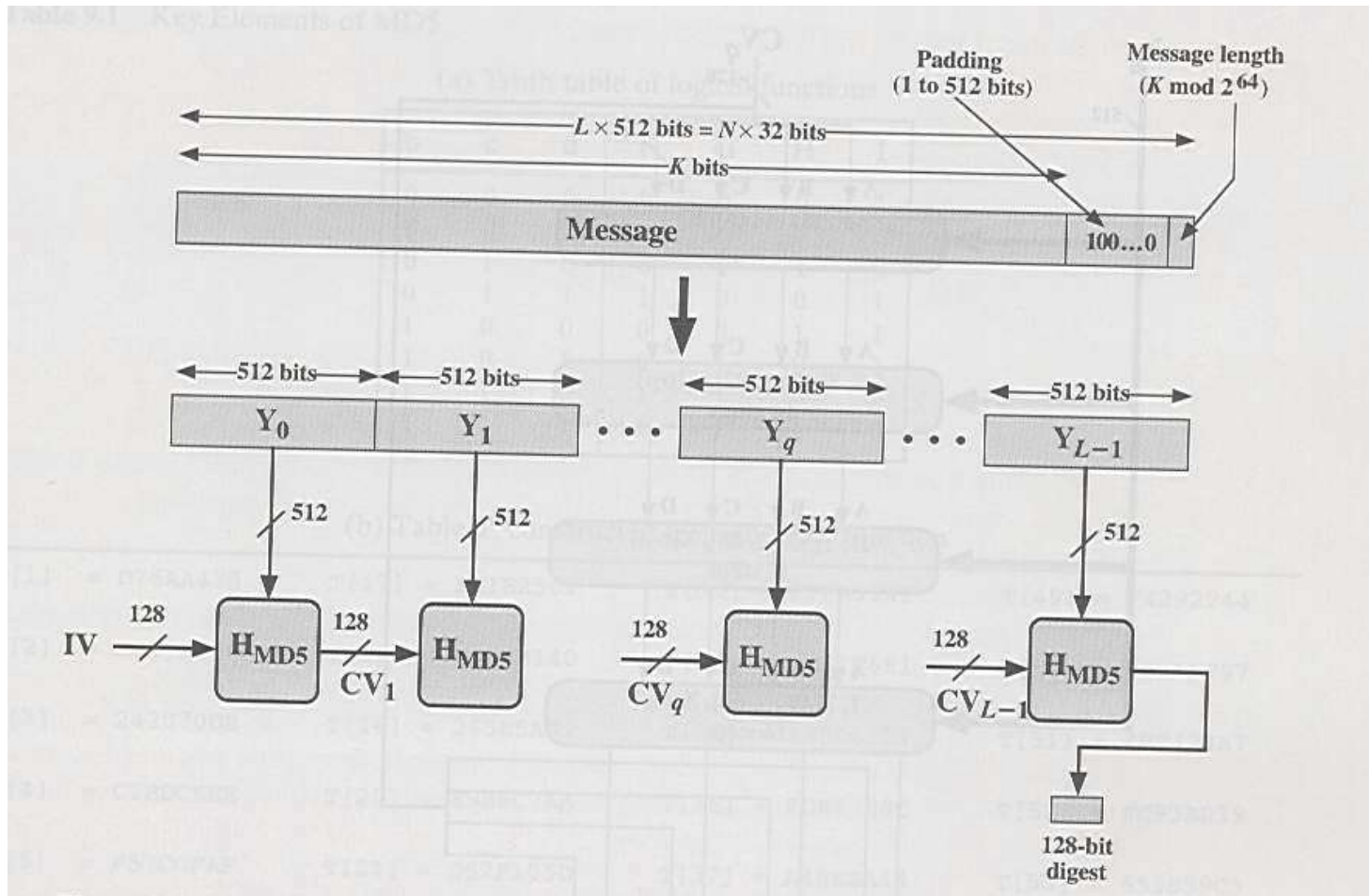
MD5 message digest algorithm

- developed by Ron Rivest
- most widely used secure hash algorithm.
- takes as input a message of arbitrary length and produces as output a 128-bit message digest.
- input is processed in 512-bit blocks

Step 1: Appending padding bits.

- The message is padded so that its length in bits is congruent to 448 modulo 512
- length of the padded message is 64 bits less than an integer multiple of 512 bits.
- Padding is always added, even if the message is already of the desired length.
- padding consists of a single 1-bit followed by the necessary number of 0-bits.

Message digest generation using MD5



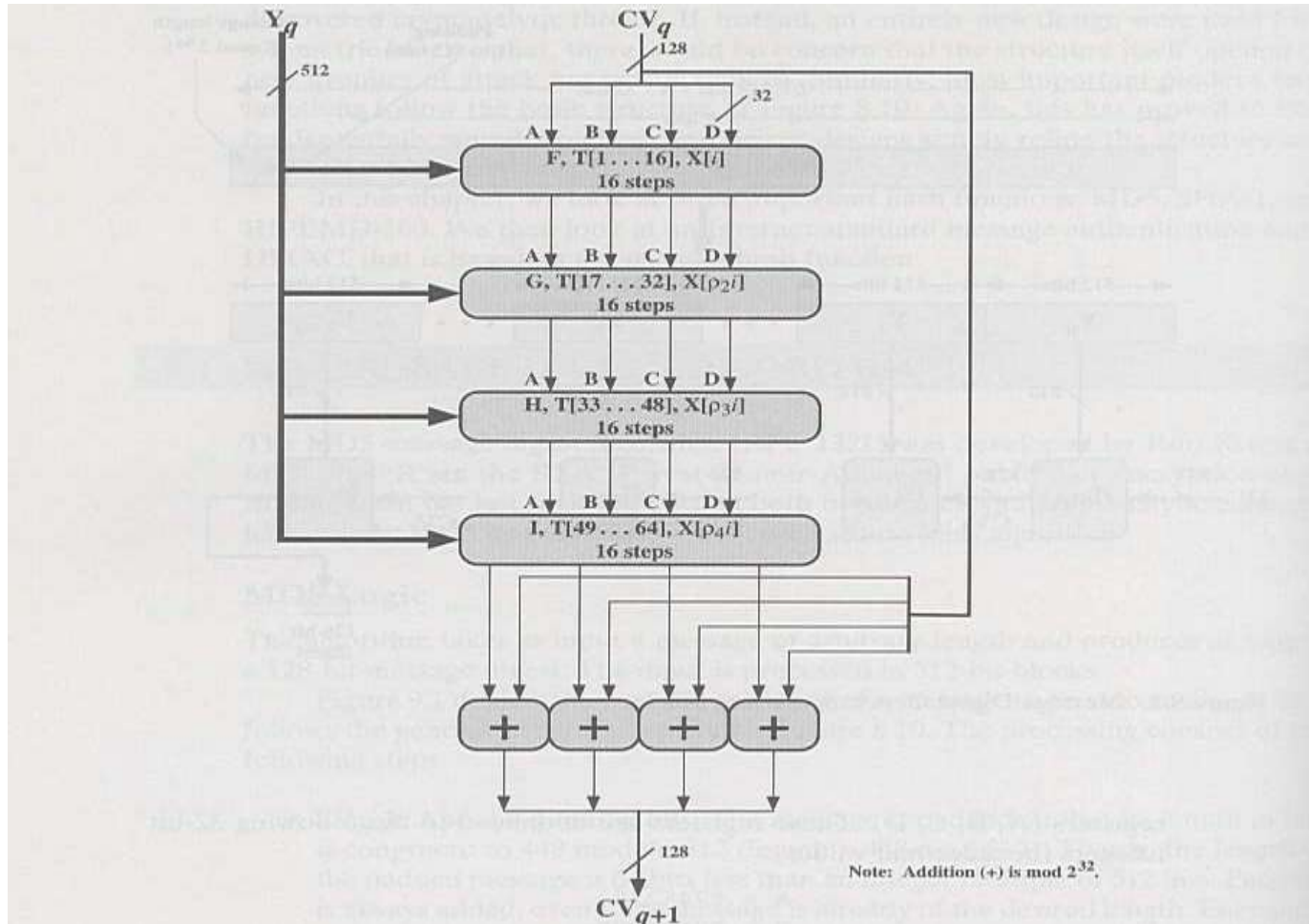
Step 2: Append length

- A 64-bit representation of the length in bits of the original message
- If the original length is greater than 264, then only the low-order 64 bits of the length are used.
- field contains the length of the original message, modulo 2^{64}
- expanded message is represented as the sequence of 512-bit blocks Y_0, Y_1, \dots, Y_{L-1} so that the total length of the expanded message is $L \times 512$ bits.

Step 3: Initialize MD buffer

- A 128-bit buffer is used to hold intermediate and final results of the hash function.
- The buffer can be represented as four 32-bit registers (A, B, C, D).
- These values are stored in little-endian format, which is the least significant byte of a word in the low-address byte position.

MD5 processing of a single 512-bit block (MD5 compression function)



Step 4: Process message in 512-bit (16-word) blocks.

- The heart of the algorithm is a compression algorithm that consists of four “rounds” of processing; this module is labeled H_{MD5} .
- *The four rounds have the similar structure, but each uses a different primitive logical function, referred to as F , G , H , and I in the specification.*
- Each round takes as input the current 512-bit block being processed (Y_q) and the 128-bit buffer value $ABCD$ and updates the contents of the buffer.

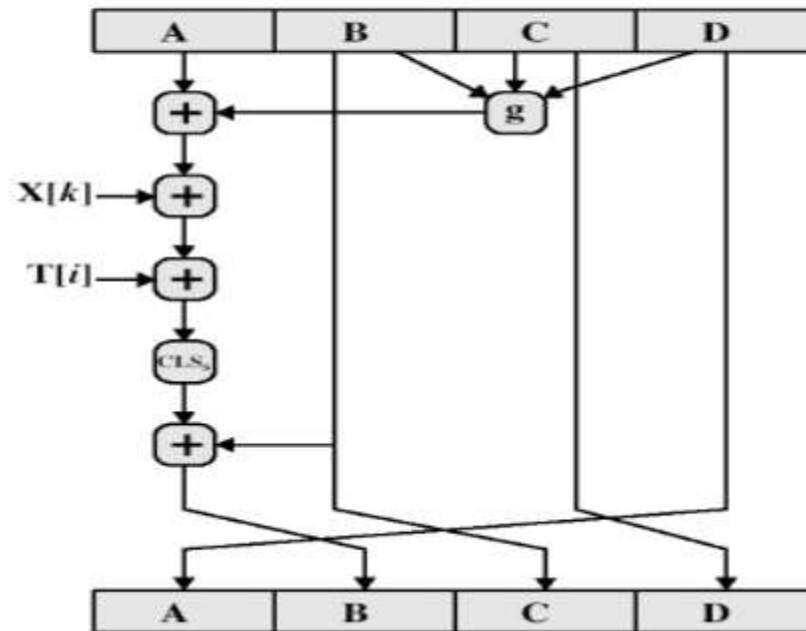
Step 5: Output

- After all L 512-bit blocks have been processed, the output from the L^{th} stage is the 128-bit message digest

MD5 Compression Function

- each round has 16 steps of the form:
$$a = b + ((a + g(b, c, d) + X[k] + T[i]) \lll s)$$
- a,b,c,d refer to the 4 words of the buffer, but used in varying permutations
 - note this updates 1 word only of the buffer
 - after 16 steps each word is updated 4 times
- where $g(b,c,d)$ is a different nonlinear function in each round (F,G,H,I)
- $T[i]$ is a constant value derived from \sin

MD5 Compression Function



SECURITY OF HASH FUNCTIONS AND MACS

- Attacks on hash functions and MACs is grouped into two categories:
 - 1. Brute-force attacks**
 - 2. Cryptanalysis.**
- The nature of brute-force attacks differs somewhat for hash functions and MACs.

1. Brute force attack on Hash Functions

- The strength of a hash function against brute-force attacks depends solely on the length of the hash code produced by the algorithm.
- There are three desirable properties of hash functions:
 - **One-way property**
 - **Weak collision resistance**
 - **Strong collision resistance**

Properties of hash functions

- **One-way property:** For any given code h , it is computationally infeasible to find x such that $H(x) = h$.
- **Weak collision resistance:** For any given block x , it is computationally infeasible to find $y \neq x$ with $H(y) = H(x)$.
- **Strong collision resistance:** It is computationally infeasible to find any pair (x, y) such that $H(x) = H(y)$.

For a hash code of length n , the level of effort required, is proportional to the following:

- One way 2^n
- Weak collision resistance 2^n
- Strong collision resistance $2^{n/2}$

- If strong collision resistance is required, then the value $2^{n/2}$ determines the strength of the hash code against brute-force attacks.

2. Message Authentication Codes

- A brute-force attack on a MAC is a more difficult undertaking because it requires known message - MAC pairs.
- To proceed, we need to state the desired security property of a MAC algorithm, which can be expressed as follows:

- **Computation resistance:** Given one or more text-MAC pairs $[x_i, C(K, x_i)]$, it is computationally infeasible to compute any text-MAC pair $[x, C(K, x)]$ for any new input $x \neq x_i$.

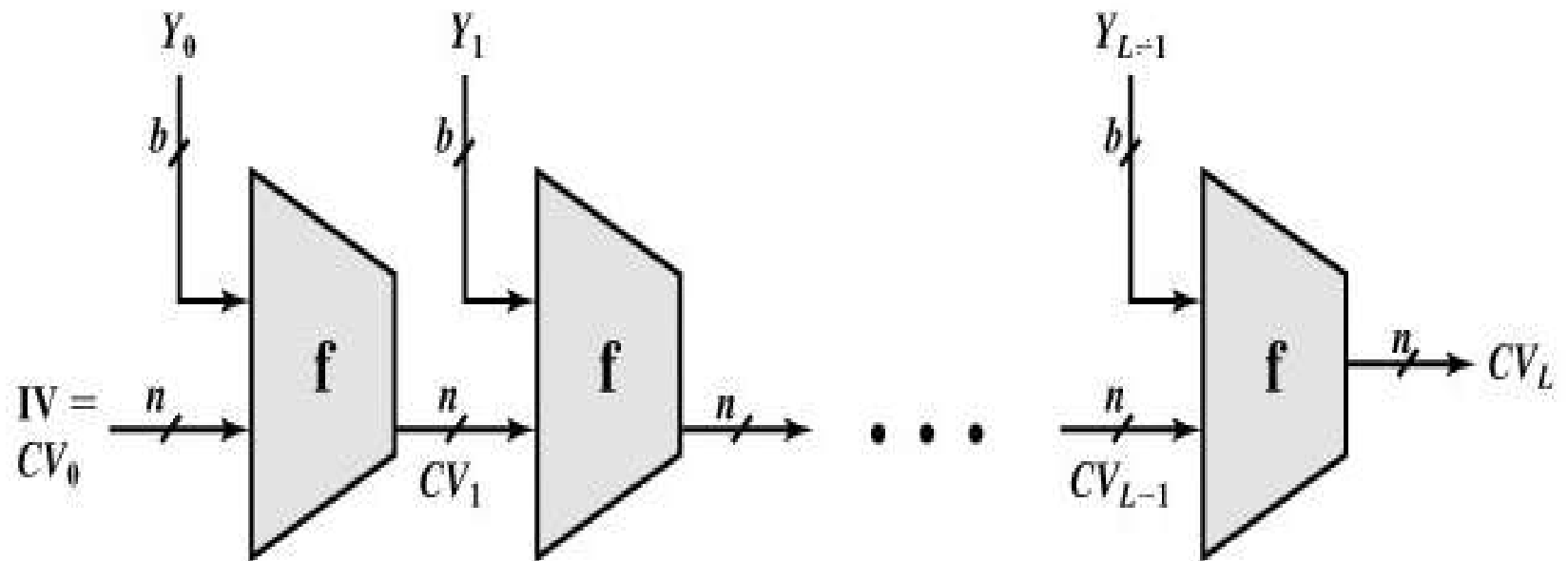
- The attacker would like to come up with the valid MAC code for a given message x . There are two lines of attack possible:
 - **Attack the key space**
 - **Attack the MAC value**

2. Cryptanalysis

- The way to measure the resistance of a hash or MAC algorithm to cryptanalysis is to compare its strength to the effort required for a brute-force attack.
- That is, an ideal hash or MAC algorithm will require a cryptanalytic effort greater than or equal to the brute-force effort.

a. Cryptanalysis on Hash Functions

- The hash function takes an input message and partitions it into L fixed-sized blocks of b bits each.
- If necessary, the final block is padded to b bits.
- The final block also includes the value of the total length of the input to the hash function.
- The inclusion of the length makes the job of the opponent more difficult.



IV = Initial value
 CV_i = Chaining variable
 Y_i = i th input block
 f = Compression algorithm

L = Number of input blocks
 n = Length of hash code
 b = Length of input block

- The hash algorithm involves repeated use of a **compression function**, f that takes two inputs (an n -bit input from the previous step, called the chaining variable, and a b -bit block) and produces an n -bit output.
- At the start of hashing, the chaining variable has an initial value that is specified as part of the algorithm.
- The final value of the chaining variable is the hash value.

- Often, $b > n$; hence the term compression.
- The hash function can be summarized as follows:

$$CV_0 = IV = \text{initial } n\text{-bit value}$$

$$CV_i = f(CV_{i-1}, Y_{i-1}) \quad 1 \leq i \leq L$$

$$H(M) = CV_L$$

- where the input to the hash function is a message M consisting of the blocks Y_0, Y_1, \dots, Y_{L-1} .

- Cryptanalysis of hash functions focuses on the internal structure of f and is based on attempts to find efficient techniques for producing collisions for a single execution of f .
- Once that is done, the attack must take into account the fixed value of IV.
- The attack on f depends on exploiting its internal structure.

Message Authentication Codes

- There is much more variety in the structure of MACs than in hash functions
- so it is difficult to generalize about the cryptanalysis of MACs.

DIGITAL SIGNATURES

Requirements

- Message authentication protects two parties who exchange messages from any third party.
- However, it does not protect the two parties against each other.
- Several forms of dispute between the two are possible.
- For example, suppose that John sends an authenticated message to Mary, using one of the schemes. Consider the following disputes that could arise:

1. Mary may forge a different message and claim that it came from John
2. John can deny sending the message.
 - In situations where there is not complete trust between sender and receiver, something more than authentication is needed.
 - The solution to this problem is the digital signature.
 - The digital signature is analogous to the handwritten signature.

Properties of Digital Signature:

- It must verify the author and the date and time of the signature.
- It must authenticate the contents at the time of the signature.
- It must be verifiable by third parties, to resolve disputes.

Thus, the digital signature function includes the authentication function.

Requirements for a digital signature (1)

- The signature must be a bit pattern that depends on the message being signed.
- The signature must use some information unique to the sender, to prevent both forgery and denial.
- It must be relatively easy to produce the digital signature.

Requirements for a digital signature (2)

- It must be relatively easy to recognize and verify the digital signature.
- It must be computationally infeasible to forge a digital signature, either by constructing a new message for an existing digital signature or by constructing a fraudulent digital signature for a given message.
- It must be practical to retain a copy of the digital signature in storage.

Variety of approaches has been proposed for the digital signature function.

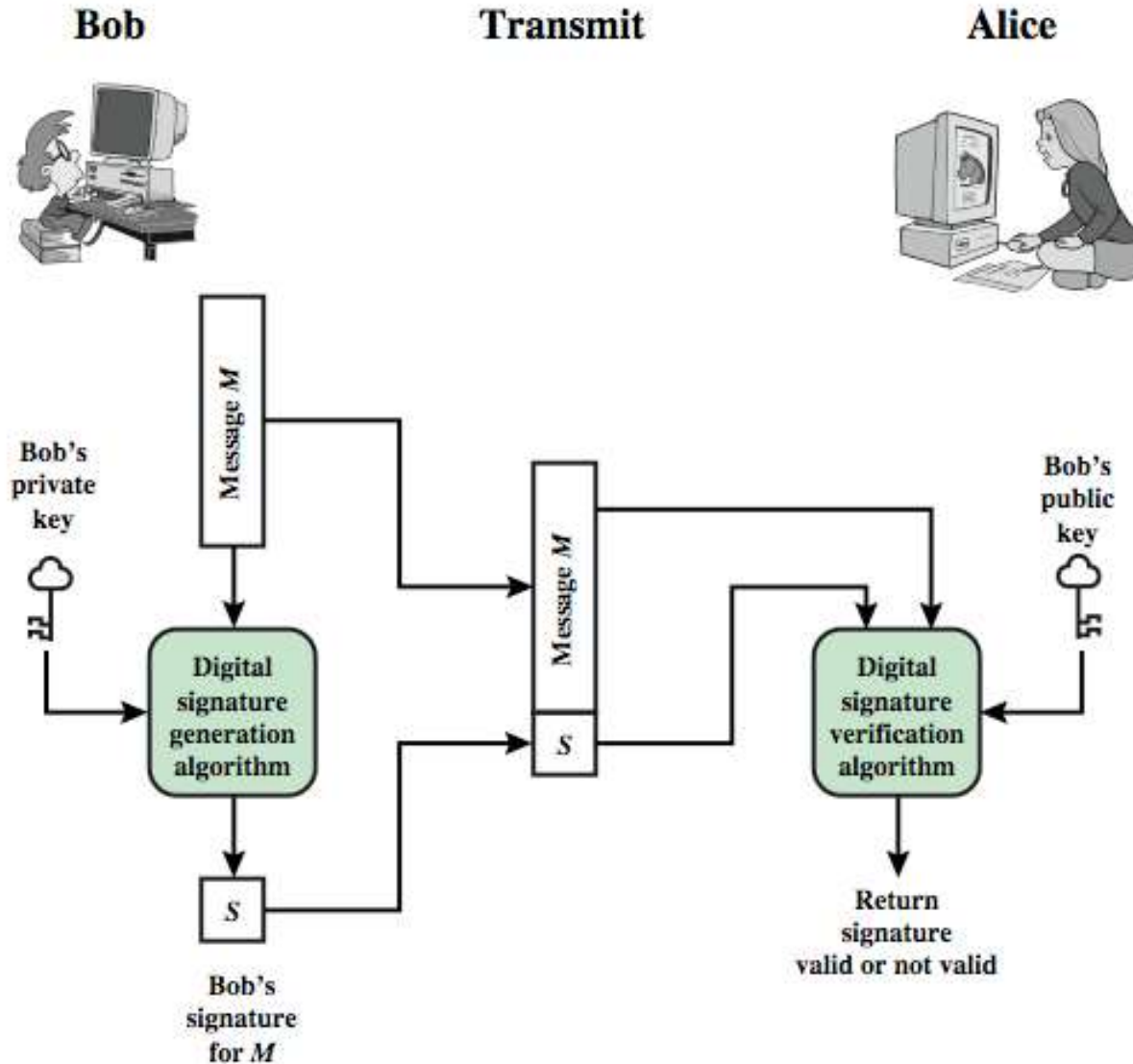
These approaches fall into two categories:

- **Direct Digital Signature**
- **Arbitrated Digital Signature**

Direct Digital Signatures

- involve only sender & receiver
- assumed receiver has sender's public-key
- digital signature made by sender signing entire message or hash with private-key
- can encrypt using receiver's public-key
- important that sign first then encrypt message & signature
- security depends on sender's private-key

Digital Signature Model



Arbitrated Digital Signatures

- involves use of an arbiter who
 - validates any signed message
 - then dated and sent to recipient
- **requires suitable level of trust in arbiter**
- can be implemented with either private or public-key algorithms
- arbiter may or may not see message

Authentication Protocols

- used to convince parties of each others identity and to exchange session keys
- may be one-way or mutual
- key issues are
 - **confidentiality** – to protect session keys
 - **timeliness** – to prevent replay attacks
- published protocols are often found to have flaws and need to be modified

Mutual authentication

- Such protocols enable communicating parties to satisfy themselves mutually about each others identity & to exchange session keys

Examples of replay attacks

- **Simple replay** - opponent simply copies a message & replays it later
- **Repetition that can be logged:** - opponent can replay a timestamped message within the valid time window.
- Repetition that cannot be detected
- Backward replay without modification

1. Using Symmetric Encryption

- Can use a two-level hierarchy of keys
- usually with a trusted Key Distribution Center (KDC)
 - each party shares own master key with KDC
 - KDC generates session keys used for connections between parties
 - master keys used to distribute these to them

Needham-Schroeder Protocol (1)

- Used by 2 parties who both trust a common key server
- original third-party key distribution protocol
- for session between A & B mediated by KDC
- protocol overview is:
 1. A->KDC: $ID_A || ID_B || N_1$
 2. KDC -> A: $E_{K_a}[K_s || ID_B || N_1 || E_{K_b}[K_s || ID_A]]$
 3. A -> B: $E_{K_b}[K_s || ID_A]$
 4. B -> A: $E_{K_s}[N_2]$
 5. A -> B: $E_{K_s}[f(N_2)]$

Needham-Schroeder Protocol(2)

- used to securely distribute a new session key for communications between A & B
- but is vulnerable to a replay attack if an old session key has been compromised
 - then message 3 can be resent convincing B that is communicating with A
- modifications to address this require:
 - timestamps
 - using an extra nonce

2. Using Public-Key Encryption

- have a range of approaches based on the use of public-key encryption
- need to ensure have correct public keys for other parties
- using a central Authentication Server (AS)
- various protocols exist using timestamps or nonces

Denning Authentication Server Protocol

- Denning presented the following:
 1. $A \rightarrow AS: ID_A || ID_B$
 2. $AS \rightarrow A: E_{PRas}[ID_A || PU_a || T] || E_{PRas}[ID_B || PU_b || T]$
 3. $A \rightarrow B: E_{PRas}[ID_A || PU_a || T] || E_{PRas}[ID_B || PU_b || T] || E_{Pub}[E_{PRa}[K_s || T]]$
- Note that to avoid the risk of exposure by the AS session key is chosen by A, hence AS need not be trusted to protect it
- timestamps prevent replay attacks but require synchronized clocks

One-Way Authentication

- The recipient wants some assurance that the message is from the alleged sender. One-Way Authentication addresses these requirements.
- Required when sender & receiver communicate in connectionless mode (eg. email)
- Have header in clear text so can be delivered by email systems
- May want contents of body protected & sender authenticated

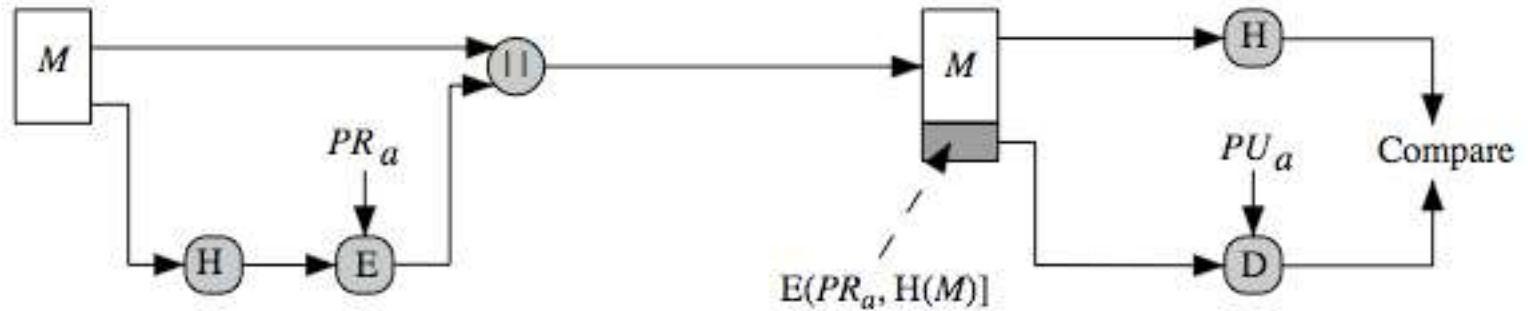
One-Way Authentication Using Public-Key Approaches

- have seen some public-key approaches
- if confidentiality is major concern, can use:
A->B: $E_{P_{Ub}}[Ks] || E_{Ks}[M]$
 - has encrypted session key, encrypted message
- if authentication needed use a digital signature with a digital certificate:
A->B: $M || E_{P_{Ra}}[H(M)] || E_{P_{Ra}}[T || ID_A || PU_a]$
 - with message, signature, certificate

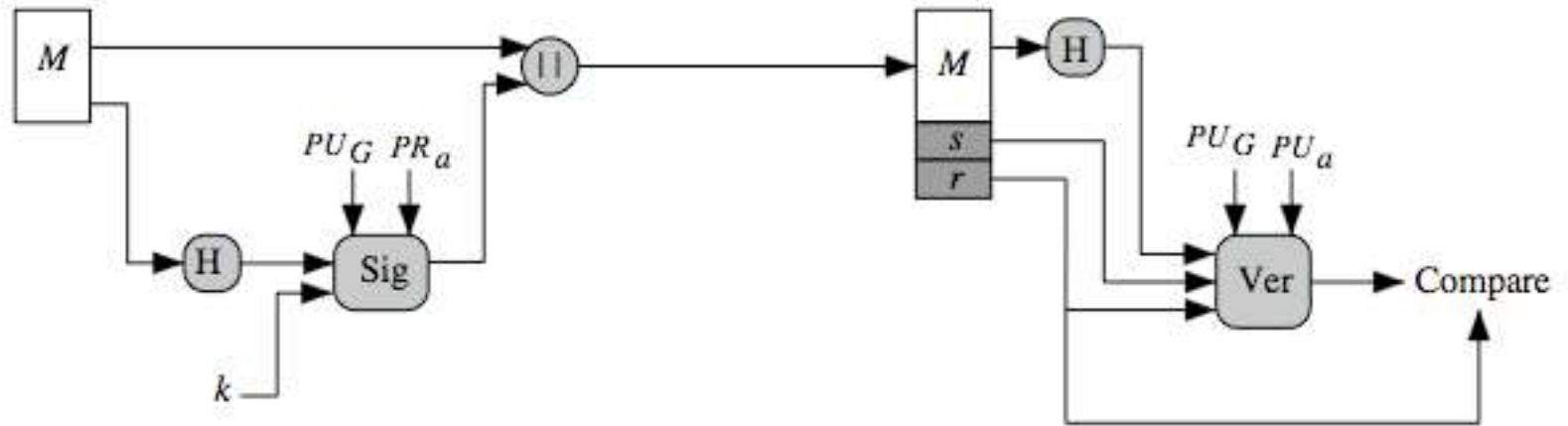
Digital Signature Standard (DSS)

- US Govt approved signature scheme
- designed by NIST & NSA in early 90's
- revised in 1993, 1996 & then 2000
- uses the SHA hash algorithm
- DSS is the standard, DSA is the algorithm
- 2 approaches
 - RSA approach (SHA, RSA)
 - DSS or DSA Approach

DSS vs RSA Signatures



(a) RSA Approach



(b) DSS Approach

Global Public-Key Components

- p prime number where $2^{L-1} < p < 2^L$ for $512 \leq L \leq 1024$ and L a multiple of 64; i.e., bit length of between 512 and 1024 bits in increments of 64 bits
- q prime divisor of $(p-1)$, where $2^{159} < q < 2^{160}$; i.e., bit length of 160 bits
- $g = h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p$, where h is any integer with $1 < h < (p-1)$ such that $h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p > 1$

User's Private Key

- x random or pseudorandom integer with $0 < x < q$

User's Public Key

$$y = g^x \bmod p$$

User's Per-Message Secret Number

- k = random or pseudorandom integer with $0 < k < q$

Signing

$$r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$$

$$s = [k^{-1} (H(M) + xr)] \bmod q$$

$$\text{Signature} = (r, s)$$

DSA Key Generation

- have shared global public key values (p, q, g) :
 - choose 160-bit prime number q
 - choose a large prime p with $2^{L-1} < p < 2^L$
 - where $L = 512$ to 1024 bits and is a multiple of 64
 - such that q is a 160 bit prime divisor of $(p-1)$
 - choose $g = h^{(p-1)/q}$
 - where $1 < h < p-1$ and $h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p > 1$
- users choose private & compute public key:
 - choose random private key: $x < q$
 - compute public key: $y = g^x \bmod p$

DSA Signature Creation

➤ to **sign** a message M the sender:

- generates a random signature key k , $k < q$
- nb. k must be random, be destroyed after use, and never be reused

➤ then computes signature pair:

$$r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$$

$$s = [k^{-1} (H(M) + xr)] \bmod q$$

➤ sends signature (r, s) with message M

DSA Signature Verification

- having received M & signature (r, s)
- to **verify** a signature, recipient computes:

$$w = s^{-1} \bmod q$$

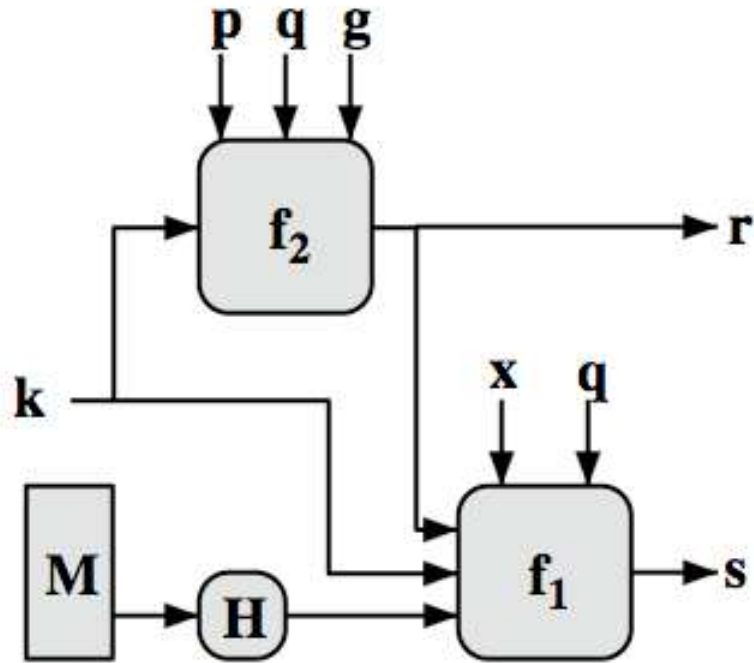
$$u_1 = [H(M)w] \bmod q$$

$$u_2 = (rw) \bmod q$$

$$v = [(g^{u_1} y^{u_2}) \bmod p] \bmod q$$

- if $v=r$ then signature is verified

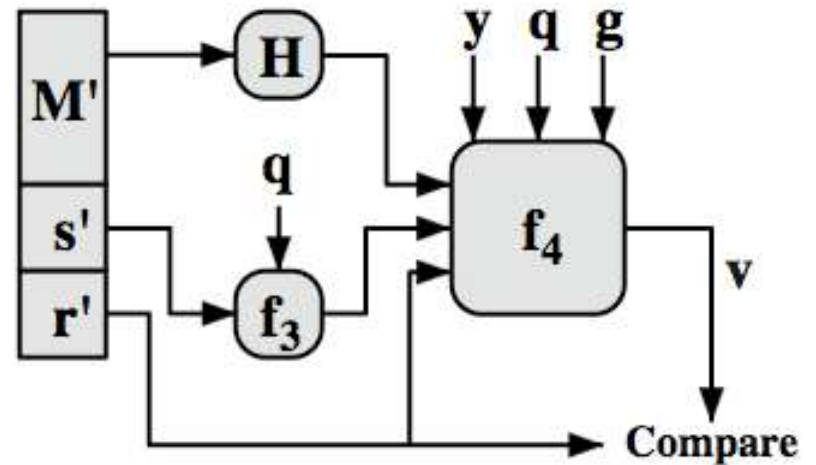
DSS Overview



$$s = f_1(H(M), k, x, r, q) = (k^{-1} (H(M) + xr)) \bmod q$$

$$r = f_2(k, p, q, g) = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$$

(a) Signing



$$w = f_3(s', q) = (s')^{-1} \bmod q$$

$$v = f_4(y, q, g, H(M'), w, r')$$

$$= ((g^{H(M')w} \bmod q \cdot y^{r'w} \bmod q) \bmod p) \bmod q$$

(b) Verifying