Bonus Lecture #2: Digital Signatures in Blockchain Protocols (Part 1 of 2)

COMS 4995-001: The Science of Blockchains URL: https://timroughgarden.org/s25/

Tim Roughgarden

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Goals for Bonus Lecture #2

- 1. Bits of security.
 - what does it mean and how much is enough?
- 2. Groups and the discrete logarithm approach to signatures.
 - common to ECDSA, Schnorr, BLS, etc.
- 3. Algorithms for the discrete logarithm problem.
 - the discrete log problem is not as hard as you might have thought!

Digital Signature Schemes in Blockchains

• one of the two most ubiquitous cryptographic primitives used in blockchain protocols (along with cryptographic hash functions)

Application #1: allows a user of a blockchain to authorize a transaction (e.g., making a payment).

• fundamental to the vision of shared computer in the sky

Application #2: under the hood, allows validators of a blockchain protocol to sign their messages.

• used in most blockchain protocols for this purpose

Defining Digital Signature Schemes

Digital signature scheme: defined by 3 (efficient) algorithms:

- 1. Key generation algorithm: maps seed $r \rightarrow (pk,sk)$ pair.
 - in some cases, may generate r itself (e.g., ssh-keygen)
- 2. Signing algorithm: maps message + sk \rightarrow signature.
 - signature depends on both sk and the message being signed
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Prime considerations: (i) security (how infeasible is it to forge signatures?); (ii) performance (time and space).

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 - if there's an attack faster than brute force \rightarrow < t bits of security

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Cartoon:

difficulty of attack

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 - all of Bitcoin mining: $\approx 2^{70}$ SHA-256 hashes/sec

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Upshot:

- 80 bits of security fine 20 years ago, not good enough now
- 128 bits regarded as plenty in the short- and medium-term

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Idea #2: pk = some deterministic function of sk: pk := f(sk).

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- issue: no hope of proving this (would imply $P \neq NP!$)

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- note: can similarly invert f with O(t) multiplications
 - repeatedly square, overshoot the target, divide out, repeat

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- a chosen as a "generator of Z_p^{*}" [explained next]

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- $2^1 = 2 \pmod{11}$
 - $2^6 = 9 \pmod{11}$
- $2^2 = 4 \pmod{11}$ $2^7 = 7 \pmod{11}$
- $2^3 = 8 \pmod{11}$ $2^8 = 3 \pmod{11}$
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•	$2^3 = 8 \pmod{11}$	•	2 ⁸ = 3 (mod 11)	┝	
•	2 ⁴ = 5 (mod 11)	•	$2^9 = 6 \pmod{11}$		
•	2 ⁵ = 10 (mod 11)	٠	$2^{10} = 1 \pmod{11}$		

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- pk := g^{sk} (can be computed efficiently by repeated squaring)
 conceptually, multiply (i.e., group operation) g by itself sk times

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Consequence: with DL approach, need key size \geq 256 bits to get 128 bits of security [no matter what G is].

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Idea of algorithm: [given generator g and g^x, need to recover x]

step 1: compute g²,g³,g⁴,...,g^{√q}
 [i.e., all entries in bottom row]



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 - → x must be $(i\sqrt{q}) + j$
- \rightarrow uses at most 2 \sqrt{q} group operations!



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Consequence: with this group, need key size \geq 3072 bits to get 128 bits of security. [similar conclusion for RSA signatures]

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Consequence: the DL approach to signatures is fundamentally broken if reasonably large quantum computers are available.

- all blockchain protocols will likely need to upgrade to postquantum-secure signature schemes in the next decade or two
 - arguably, less urgent than for e.g. encryption of sensitive data
 - likely to cause a non-trivial performance hit