

南 華 大 學

資訊管理學系

碩士論文

可證明安全且確實隱蔽來源的指定驗證者簽章協議

基於隨機神諭模型

A provably secure really source hiding designated verifier  
signature scheme based on random oracle model

研究生：黃 皇 達

指導教授：周 志 賢

中華民國 九十八 年 六 月 二十四 日

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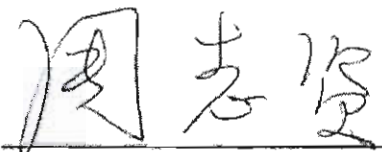
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可證明安全且確實隱蔽來源的指定驗證者簽章  
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南 華 大 學 資 管 所

中 華 民 國 九 十 八 年 七 月 十 二 日

# 可證明安全且確實隱蔽來源的指定驗證者簽章協議

## 基於隨機神諭模型

學生：黃皇達

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### 摘 要

有許多被提出來的指定驗證者簽章協議，他們只提供只有被指定的驗證者能檢查簽章的正確性的基本安全要求，而且他們的協議無法確實隱藏簽章者的身分。因此，在這篇文章中，我們致力設計一個可證明安全性的指定驗證者簽章協定，不僅能達到在指定驗證者簽章協定內需要的安全性，而且能保護簽章者的身分並且使我們的協定適用於電子投票系統。

# **A provably secure really source hiding designated verifier signature scheme based on random oracle model**

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## **ABSTRACT**

A lot of designated verifier signature (DVS) schemes have been proposed. However, all of them only provide the basic security requirement that only the designated verifier can check the validity of the signature. They are either not secure enough or lacking source hiding. Hence, in this article, we design a provably secure DVS scheme. It not only can attain the basic security requirement but also hide the original signer's identity which makes our scheme more suitable for the applications in an electronic voting system.

**Keyword:** *DVS, secure hash functions, random oracle, bilinear pairings, Diffie-Hellman Problem*

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# Chapter 1 Introduction

There are many research works on DVS scheme. In 1996, Jakobsson *et al.* [1] proposed a method of designated verifier signature scheme. In it, the designated verifier could prove the exactness of the signature received from the signer. Then, the designated verifier can imitate the signer to sign the message. He can make the same signature as the signer does so that anyone can't distinguish who was the original signer. Subsequently, many related articles about DVS have been proposed.

In 2003 [2], G. Wang pointed out that Jakobsson *et al.*'s scheme is insecure by illustrating a simple attack that an adversary can convince the designated verifier to receive an invalid signature. In 2004, Laguillaumie *et al.* [3, 4] proposed two schemes: (1) a multi-designated verifier signature [3], and (2) designated verifier signatures: anonymity and efficient construction from any Bilinear Map [4]. However, both of their schemes don't have source hiding property. Since that signer's identity is used by the verifier in the verification phase. In 2006 [5], Lal *et al.* proposes four ID based strong designated verifier proxy signature schemes; however, each doesn't possess the source hiding, neither. In 2007 [6], Laguillaumie *et al.* proposed a multi-designated verifier signature which protects the anonymity of signers without encryption. However, Shim [11] shows that Laguillaumie *et al.*'s scheme [6] is insecure against rogue-key attack. Moreover, we found their scheme doesn't possess source hiding as well since the verifier uses the public key of the signer to verify whether  $e(M, P) = e(Q_A, P_A)e(Q_B, P_B)$  holds, where  $P_A$  is the signer's public key. In 2008, Kang *et al.* [15] proposed a novel identity-based strong designated verifier

signature scheme with two claimed advantages, low communication and computational cost. However, later Du *et al.* [8], in 2008, found an impersonation attack on [15]. Hence, they provided a modification on [15]. They claimed that their scheme achieves all security requirements of strong DVS inducing source hiding. Also in 2008, Zhang *et al.* [9] proposed a novel ID-based DVS. They claimed that their scheme satisfies the property of source hiding. However on the contrary, we found [8, 9] both lack the source hiding property since the verifier in each of them uses of the signer's public key for doing the verification. For example, the verification equation in [8] is  $\sigma = e(t + h\underline{Q_A}, d_B)$  and [9] is  $e(U_1, V) = e(S_{ID_B}, \underline{Q_{ID_A}})$  (Here and thereafter, we use an underline to indicate the problem part in the verification equation.) Also, in 2008, Lal *et al.* proposed an identity based strong bi-designated verifier proxy signature scheme [7]. In their scheme, only the two designated verifiers can verify whether the proxy signature is signed by the original signer without both being able to transfer this signature to others. That is, both cannot convince the other party that who was the original signer of a given signature. Moreover, they claimed that their scheme is unforgeable. However, we will demonstrate a forgery attack on their protocol in this paper. In 2009, Kang *et al.* proposed two designated verifier signature schemes [14]. They claimed that both of their schemes are strong and unforgeable. Nevertheless, we found that both of their schemes lacks the source hiding since in the first protocol, it uses  $U' = r' Q_{ID_A}$  and  $\sigma' = H_2(M, e(U', S_{ID_C}))$  in the signature simulation and the warrant  $W$  in the second records the identities of the original signer and proxy signer. Moreover, the second protocol suffers insider forgery attack. We will demonstrate the forgery attack in the second protocol in this

paper. Also, in 2009 [17], Cao *et al.* proposed a secure identity based universal DVS scheme in the standard model based on bilinear pairings. However, the way of the bilinear mapping they use is different from the common rule that  $G_1$  is an additive group and  $G_2$  is a multiplicative group. (e.g. Common rule:  $e(x + y + z, g) = e(x, g)e(y, g)e(z, g)$ ; Cao *et al.*'s:  $e(xyz, g) = e(x, g)e(y, g)e(z, g)$ ). Moreover, it lacks the source hiding as well because of the verification equation  $e(A, g) = e(g_2, \underline{g_1})e(u' \prod_{i \in \mathcal{U}}, B)e(m' \prod_{j \in \mathcal{M}}, C)$ , where  $g_1$  is the signer's public key. Thus, in this article, we will propose a novel DVS that is more secure and really has the anonymity property of signer's identity.

In a DVS scheme, the original signer sends a signature on a message to the designated verifier for the verifier to check the validity of the signature by using his secret key. For the literature we received, we can see that there has existed two cases in the verification and verification phase in the literature: (a) the verifier uses of the signer's public key in both of the verification and simulation phases, he can identify the source of a given message but unable to prove to a third party about the source identity, the related schemes are [1, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16], and (b) the verifier uses signer's public key only in the simulation phase, he can identify the source of a given message without the capability of proving the source identifier to a third party, the related schemes are [7,14]. In this article, we proposed the third case: (c) the verifier needs not use signer's public key in both phases of verification and simulation. This is the reason why our scheme really source hiding property. We will prove its security. We argue that our scheme can resist the conditional KCI attack which we define as follows: Even if the verifier's private key has been compromised by adversary  $E$ , due

to the identity of the original signer cannot be revealed,  $E$  cannot masquerade as the signer to communicate with the verifier. We will explain why our scheme can resist such a conditional KCI attack in this article.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, we introduce some preliminaries. In Section 3, we review and attack on the two protocols proposed by Kang *et al.* [14]. Then, we present a novel scheme in Section 4 and analyze its security in Section 5. The discussions and comparisons are made in Section 6. Finally, a conclusion is given in Section 7.

## Chapter 2 Preliminaries

In this section, we will briefly describe the basic concepts and properties of bilinear pairing and some related problems.

### 2.1 Bilinear pairings

Let  $G_1$  be a cyclic group generated by  $P$ , whose order is a prime  $q$  and  $G_2$  be a cyclic multiplicative group of the same order. It is assumed that the discrete logarithm problem (DLP) in both  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are hard. Let  $e: G_1 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a pairing which satisfies the following conditions :

Bilinearity:  $e(aP, bQ) = e(P, Q)^{ab}$ , where  $a, b \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ ,  $P, Q \in_R G_1$

Non-degenerate: There exists  $P$  and  $Q \in_R G_1$ ;  $e(P, Q) \neq 1$

Computability: There exists an efficient algorithm to compute  $e(P, Q)$  for all  $P, Q \in G_1$ .

### 2.2 Some related problems

Let  $G$  be a cyclic multiplicative group generated by  $g$  with prime order  $q$ . The definitions of the problems are described as follows.

(1) *Discrete Logarithm Problem (DLP)*: Given a couple of elements  $y$  and  $g$ , find an integer  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , such that  $y = g^a$ .

(2) *Computation Diffie-Hellman Problem (CDHP)*: Given  $(g, g^a, g^b)$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , compute  $g^{ab}$ .

(3) *Decision Diffie-Hellman Problem (DDHP)*: Given  $(g^x, g^y, g^z)$  for  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , decide whether  $z \equiv xy \pmod{q}$ .



Thus, if we have an algorithm that can solve *DDHP*, then it can be used to solve *CDHP* and *DLP*. But indeed no such algorithm exists nowadays.

(4)*Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP)*: Given  $P \in G_1$ , and  $xP$ , where  $x \in Z_q^*$ . The *ECDL problem* is to find  $x$ .

(5)*Bilinear Diffie-Hellman Problem (BDHP)*: Given a randomly chosen generator  $P \in G_1$ , as well as  $aP, bP$ , and  $cP$  (for unknown random values  $a, b, c \in Z_q$ ), the *BDH problem* is to compute  $e(P, P)^{abc}$  in  $G_2$ .

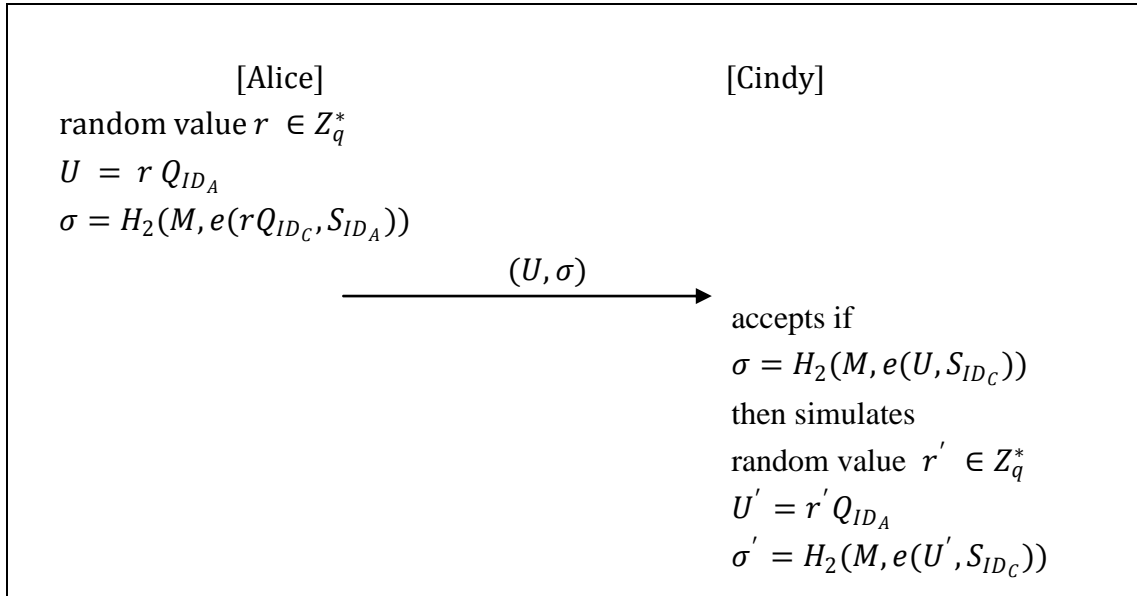
# Chapter 3 Review and attack on Kang et al.'s two protocols

Kang *et al.* proposed two protocols [14] for preventing key exposure. However, after analysis, we found that their second protocol still suffers from the insider forgery attack. In the following, we first review then show the attack on Kang *et al.*'s two protocols, respectively.

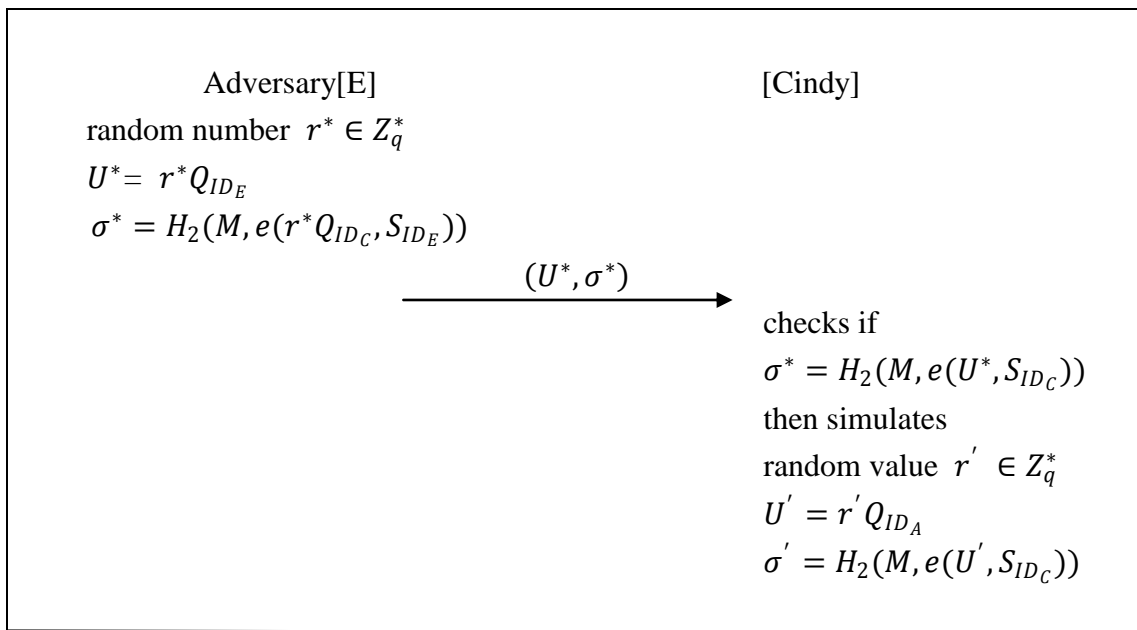
## 3.1 Review and attack on Kang *et al.*'s first protocol

(a) *Review of the first protocol (as shown in Figure 1.)*

In the signature generation phase, their scheme produces a signature on the message  $M$  which can let the designated verifier Cindy confirm its validity. Their protocol does as follows. Alice picks a random value  $r \in Z_q^*$ , and computes  $U = rQ_{ID_A}$  and  $\sigma = H_2(M, e(rQ_{ID_C}, S_{ID_A}))$ , where  $Q_{ID_A}$  ( $= Hash(ID_A)$ ) is Alice's public key,  $S_{ID_A}$  ( $= sQ_{ID_A}$ ) is her private key, and  $s$  is PKG's (private key generation center) master secret key. Then, Alice sends  $(U, \sigma)$  to Cindy. Cindy checks to see whether or not  $\sigma = H_2(M, e(U, S_{ID_C}))$  holds. If it does not hold, she rejects. Else, she will simulate Alice's signature on  $M$  by choosing one random number  $r' \in Z_q^*$  and computing  $U' = r'Q_{ID_A}$ ,  $\sigma' = H_2(M, e(U', S_{ID_C}))$ . Then, this simulated  $(U', \sigma')$  is also a valid signature.



**Figure 1 Kang *et al.*'s first protocol**



**Figure 2 Forgery attack on Kang *et al.*'s first protocol**

(b) *Attack on the first protocol (as shown in Figure 2.)*

In their scheme, we found that there exists an insider attacker  $E$  who can forge Alice's signature on any of his chosen message  $M'$  by picking a random number  $r^* \in Z_q^*$  and calculating  $U^* = r^*Q_{ID_A}$ ,  $\sigma^* = H_2(M', e(r^*Q_{ID_C}, S_{ID_E}))$ . Then, he sends  $(U^*, \sigma^*)$  to Cindy. After receiving  $(U^*, \sigma^*)$ , Cindy will examine whether or not  $\sigma^* = H_2(M', e(U^*, S_{ID_C}))$  holds, if it holds, Cindy will then confirm that  $E$ 's signature is valid. So,  $E$  can masquerade as any intended party to sign any chosen message  $M'$  for Cindy successfully.

### 3.2 Review and attack on second protocol

(a) *Review on Kang et al.'s second protocol (as shown in Figure 3.)*

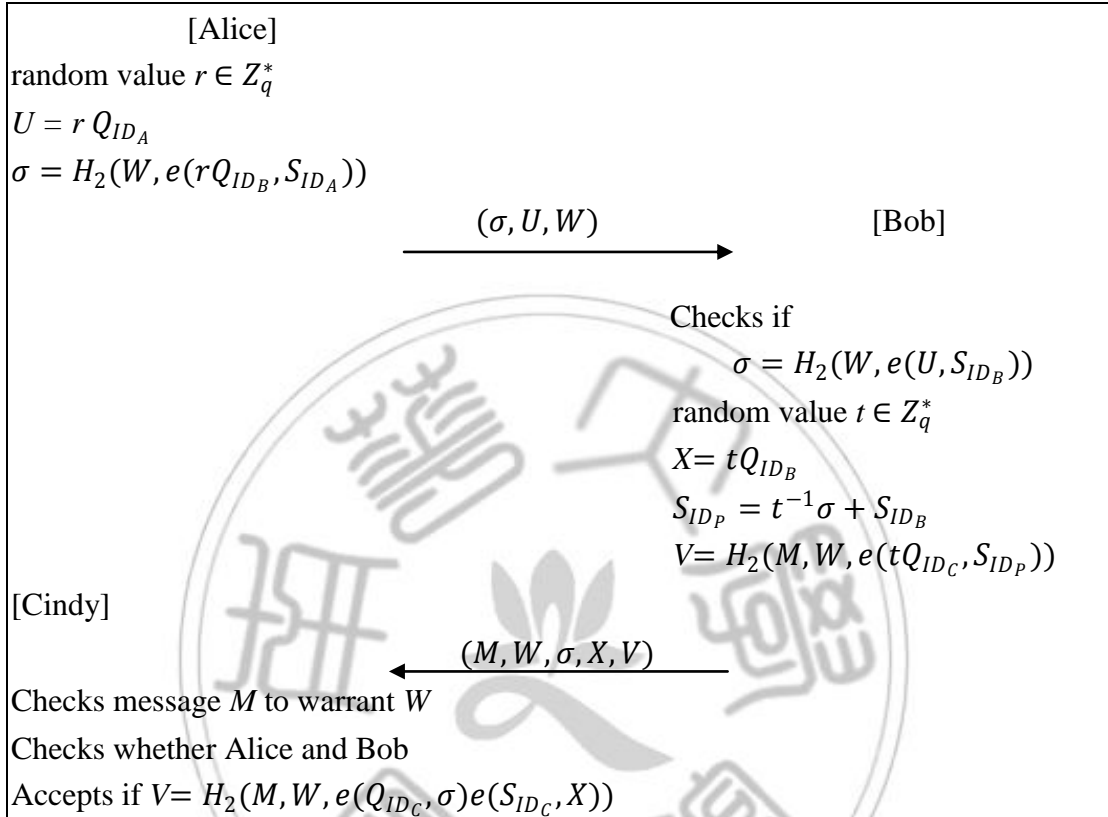
In their scheme, there exist three people. They are the original signer Alice, proxy signer Bob, and designated verifier Cindy, respectively. In the following, we roughly describe their scheme.

First, Alice picks a random value  $r \in Z_q^*$ , and then calculates  $U = rQ_{ID_A}$  and  $\sigma = H_2(W, e(rQ_{ID_B}, S_{ID_A}))$ , where  $W$  is the warrant which records the identities of the original signer and the proxy signer. Alice sends  $(\sigma, U, W)$  to Bob. Bob checks if  $\sigma = H_2(W, e(U, S_{ID_B}))$  holds. If the equation holds, Bob produces a proxy signature by selecting a random value  $t \in Z_q^*$ , and computing  $X = tQ_{ID_B}$ ,  $S_{ID_p} = t^{-1}\sigma + S_{ID_B}$ , and  $V = H_2(M, W, e(tQ_{ID_C}, S_{ID_p}))$ . Then, Bob transfers  $(M, W, \sigma, X, V)$  to Cindy.

After receiving the information from Bob, Cindy checks to see whether message  $M$  confirms to the warrant  $W$ . If so, Cindy confirms that both Alice and Bob are on the

warrant. If the confirmation succeeds, Cindy accepts the signature, if and only if

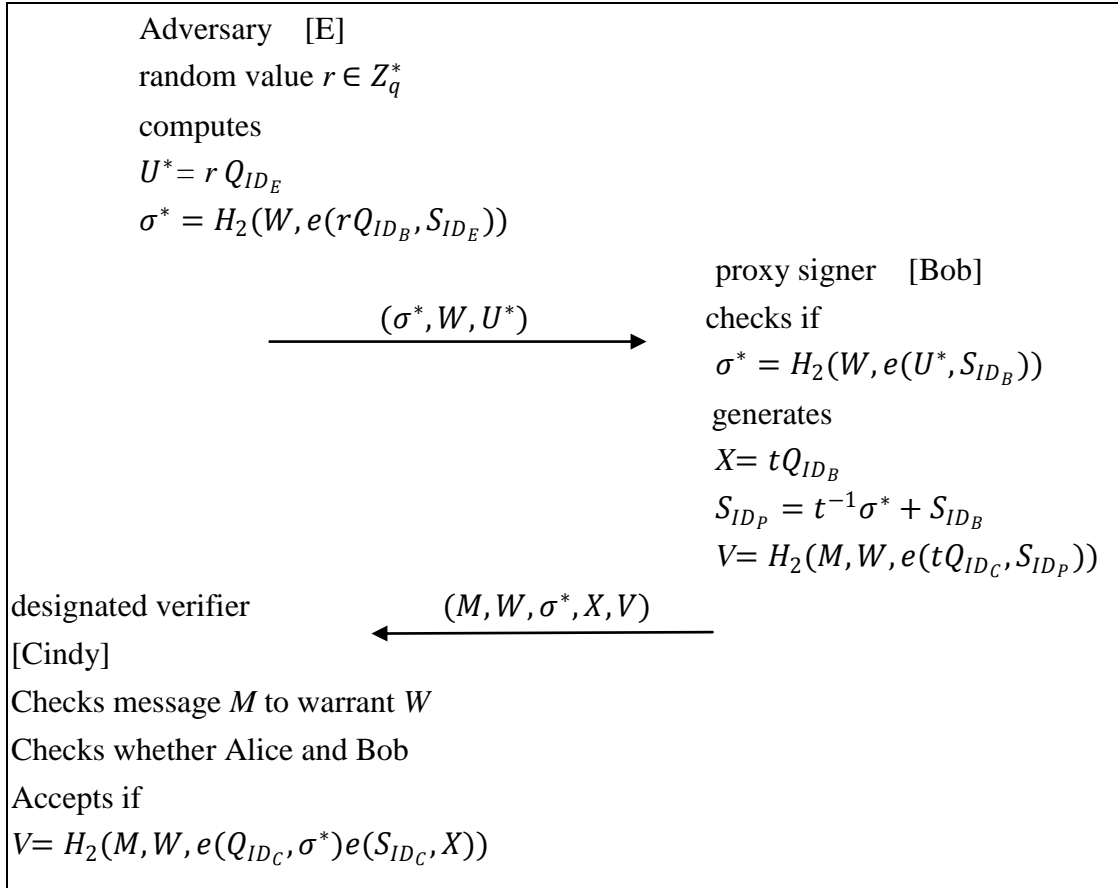
$$V = H_2(M, W, e(Q_{ID_C}, \sigma)e(S_{ID_C}, X)).$$



**Figure 3 Kang et al.'s second protocol**

(b) Attack on the second protocol

We found that their scheme suffers the masquerading attack. Since an attacker  $E$  may camouflage Alice to sends out a signature to Bob by first picking a random value  $r \in Z_q^*$  and then computing  $U^* = rQ_{ID_A}$ ,  $\sigma^* = H_2(W, e(rQ_{ID_B}, S_{ID_E}))$ . He then sends  $(\sigma^*, W, U^*)$  to Bob, where the warrant  $W$  records both the signer and verifier as  $ID_A$  and  $ID_B$  rather than  $ID_E$  and  $ID_B$ . It is obvious that it will pass Bob's verification as shown in figure 4.



**Figure 4 Forgery attack on Kang *et al.*'s second protocol**

## Chapter 4 The proposed scheme

In this section, we present a novel method to get rid of all possible attacks. Our scheme adopts the concept of ID-based cryptography. In the following, we will describe our ID-based designated verifier signature scheme (ID-DVS) and also show it in Figure 5.

Our scheme includes five phases: (1) *Setup*, (2) *Extract*, (3) *SigGen*, (4) *SigVer*, and (5) *SigSim*.

### (1) *Setup*:

Let  $G_1$  be an additive cyclic group with a prime order  $q$ ,  $G_2$  be a multiplicative cyclic group of the same order and  $P$  be a generator of  $G_1$ ,  $H_i(*), i \in \{1, 2\}$ , be two cryptographic hash functions with  $H_1: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow G_1$ ,  $H_2: \{0,1\}^* \times G_2 \rightarrow Z_q^*$ ,  $e$  be a bilinear map with  $e: G_1 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ . Then, KGC picks a random value  $s \in Z_q^*$  as the system master secret key and calculates the corresponding public key as  $P_{pub} = sP$ . The system parameter set is  $\{G_1, G_2, P, P_{pub}, H, e, q\}$ .

### (2) *Extract*:

Given a user's identity  $ID$ , KGC computes  $Q_{ID} = H_1(ID)$ ,  $S_{ID} = sQ_{ID}$  and returns  $(S_{ID}, Q_{ID})$  to the user  $ID$  as his private key and public key.

### (3) *SigGen*:

① The signer Alice selects a random value  $\alpha \in Z_q^*$ .

② Computes  $\delta, \varepsilon$  and  $\xi$  as follows:

$$\delta = \alpha Q_A$$

$$\varepsilon = e(P_{pub}, Q_B)$$

$$\xi = H_2(m, \varepsilon) S_A$$

③ Sends signature  $\sigma = e(\xi + S_A, Q_B)^\alpha$  and  $\delta$  to verifier Bob.

**(4) SigVer:**

After receiving  $(\delta, \sigma)$ , Bob verifies the validity of the signature by checking whether or not  $\sigma = e(\delta, S_B)^{H_2(m, \varepsilon)+1}$  holds. If it doesn't hold, he rejects.

**(5) SigSim:**

At this stage, Bob can simulate correct signature transcript for message  $m$  to be verified successfully as follows:

① Bob picks a random value  $\beta \in Z_q^*$ .

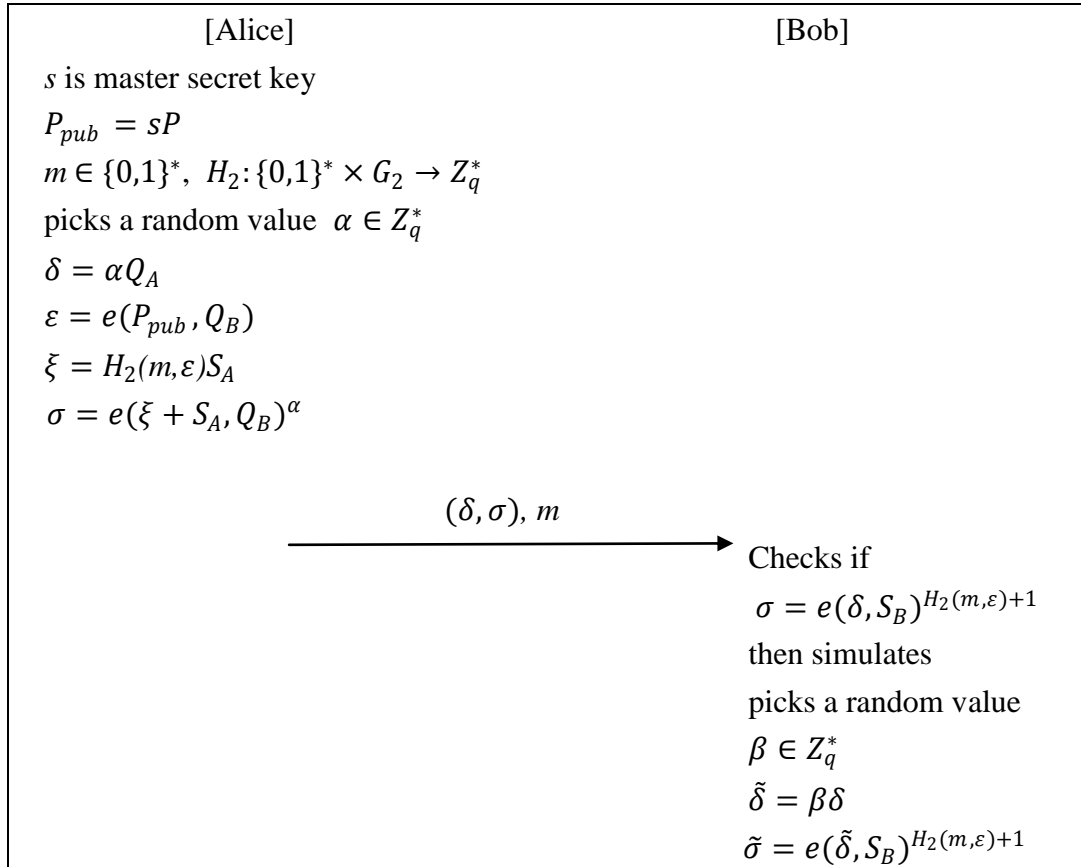
② Bob computes  $\tilde{\delta}$  and  $\tilde{\sigma}$  as follows.

$$\tilde{\delta} = \beta \delta$$

$$\tilde{\sigma} = e(\tilde{\delta}, S_B)^{H_2(m, \varepsilon)+1}$$

③ The simulated signature is of  $m$  is  $(\tilde{\delta}, \tilde{\sigma})$ .





**Figure 5 our proposed scheme**

## Chapter 5 Security analysis

In this section, we analyze the security of our scheme. In Section 5.1, we show that our scheme is correct. In Section 5.2, we assume that an adversary  $\mathcal{F}$  can succeed in disguising as either Alice or Bob to sign on his random chosen message  $m_i$ ; however, we will show that this assumption contradicts to the problem of BDH. In addition, in Section 5.3, we will demonstrate that our scheme possesses the anonymous property for the sender. We show that our scheme has the ability of non-interactive in Section 5.4, possesses the deniable property in Section 5.5, and can be applied to an electronic voting system for its avoidance of conditional KCI attack in Section 5.6. We will give a definition for conditional KCI attack there.

### 5.1 Correctness

In our scheme, as long as a signature  $(\delta, \sigma)$  on message  $m$  is formed according to our specification, it can be proved correctly by designated verifier Bob using the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma &= e(\xi + S_A, Q_B)^\alpha = e(H_2(m, \varepsilon)Q_A + Q_A, S_B)^\alpha = e(\alpha(Q_A + Q_A), S_B)^{H_2(m, \varepsilon)} \\ &= e(\alpha Q_A + \alpha Q_A, S_B)^{H_2(m, \varepsilon)} = \sigma = e(\delta, S_B)^{H_2(m, \varepsilon)+1}\end{aligned}$$

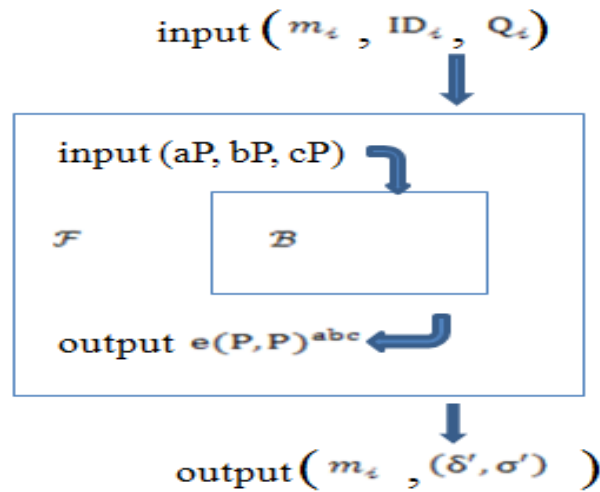
### 5.2 Anti-forgability

*Theorem.* Suppose that there is an adversary  $\mathcal{F}$  who can pretend to be  $ID_i$  or  $ID_j$  (with each unequal to  $ID_A$  and  $ID_B$ ) to forge the signature of  $ID_i$  and  $ID_j$  on message  $m$  (which can be verified successfully using  $ID_A$  and

$ID_B$ ), then there must exist an algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  which can solve BDH problem with non-negligible probability.

*Proof:* If  $\mathcal{F}$  exists, then we can construct an algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  to solve bilinear Diffie-Hellman problem after interacting with  $\mathcal{F}$  as follows:

Given a BDH instance  $(aP, bP, cP)$  for randomly chosen  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  with  $Q_A = H_1(ID_A) = aP$ , and  $Q_B = H_1(ID_B) = bP$  being the signer's and the designated verifier's public keys respectively and  $cP$  being the system public key,  $\mathcal{B}$ 's goal is to compute  $e(P, P)^{abc}$  using the following steps. We also summaries the relative inputs and outputs of algorithm  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  in figure 6 and figure 7. As shown that signature forgery model in figure 8.



**Figure 6** The inputs and outputs in algorithm  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$ .

**Step1.**  $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $Q_A = aP, Q_B = bP$ , and  $P_{pub} = cP$  as the system public key, where  $c$  is system master secret key, then sends the parameter set  $\{G_1, G_2, P_{pub}, H_1, H_2\}$  to  $\mathcal{F}$ , where  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  are two random oracles and controlled by  $\mathcal{B}$ .

**Step2. Key Extract Query:**

$\mathcal{F}$  queries to  $H_1$  with  $ID_i$ .  $H_1$  outputs  $Q_i = aP$  if  $ID_i = ID_A$ ,  $bP$  if  $ID_i = ID_B$ ,  $r_iP$  otherwise,  $r_i \in Z_q^*$  (shown as follows).

$$Q_i = H_1(ID_i) = \begin{cases} aP, & \text{if } ID_i = ID_A \\ bP, & \text{if } ID_i = ID_B \\ r_iP, & \text{otherwise, where } r_i \in Z_q^* \text{ chosen by } \mathcal{B} \end{cases}$$

**$H_1$  – query (public key):** As  $\mathcal{F}$  wants to query on  $ID_i$  (which is not equal to  $ID_A$  or  $ID_B$ ),  $\mathcal{B}$  looks for  $(ID_i, Q_i)$  in  $H_1^{list}$ .

- 1) If  $ID_i \neq ID_A$  and  $ID_B$ , then  $\mathcal{B}$  returns  $\mathcal{S}_i = r_i cP$  as the private key corresponding to  $H_1(ID_i)$  for  $ID_i$ , where  $cP$  is  $P_{pub}$ , and inserts  $(ID_i, Q_i, \mathcal{S}_i)$  to  $H_1^{list}$ .
- 2) Otherwise,  $\mathcal{B}$  responses with failure, which means  $ID_i$  is equal to  $ID_A$  or  $ID_B$ .

Note that the purpose of  $\mathcal{F}$  is not to obtain the private key  $\mathcal{S}_A = acP$  of  $ID_A$  or  $\mathcal{S}_B = bcP$  of  $ID_B$ , it is to set the private key of  $ID_i$  or  $ID_j$  as  $r_i cP$  with  $i, j \neq \{A, B\}$ , where  $r_i \in Z_q^*$  is his random chosen number.

**$H_2$  – query:** As  $\mathcal{F}$  wants to query  $H_2$  – Oracle with  $(m_i, \varepsilon_i)$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  checks the  $H_2$ -list. If  $H_2(m_i, \varepsilon_i)$  already exists in the list, he aborts. Else,  $\mathcal{B}$  randomly chooses  $P_i \in Z_q^*$  and adds the tuple  $(m_i, \varepsilon_i, P_i (= H_2(m_i, \varepsilon_i)))$  to the list  $H_2^{list}$ .

**Step3. Signing Query:** When adversary  $\mathcal{F}$  queries the signature on message  $m_i$  (That is,  $\mathcal{F}$  pretends to be the signer  $ID_i$  for signing  $m_i$ ), and sends the signer/designated verifier's identity  $ID_i/ID_j$  to  $\mathcal{B}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  runs as below:

- 1) Signing: If  $ID_i \neq ID_A$  and  $ID_B$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  will response the private key  $\mathcal{S}_i = r_i cP$  of  $ID_i$  to  $\mathcal{F}$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  picks a random value  $\alpha' \in Z_q^*$  and calculates the parameters by following equations.

$$\delta' = \alpha' Q_i$$

$$\varepsilon' = e(P_{pub}, Q_j)$$

$$\xi' = H_2(m_i, \varepsilon') \mathcal{S}_i$$

$$\sigma' = e(\xi' + \mathcal{S}_i, Q_j)^{\alpha'}$$

- 2) Simulation: If  $ID_j \neq ID_A$  and  $ID_B$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  will response the private key  $\mathcal{S}_j = r_j cP$  of  $ID_j$  to  $\mathcal{F}$ . Then,  $\mathcal{F}$  selects a random value  $\alpha' \in Z_q^*$  and calculates the following:

$$\delta' = \alpha' Q_j$$

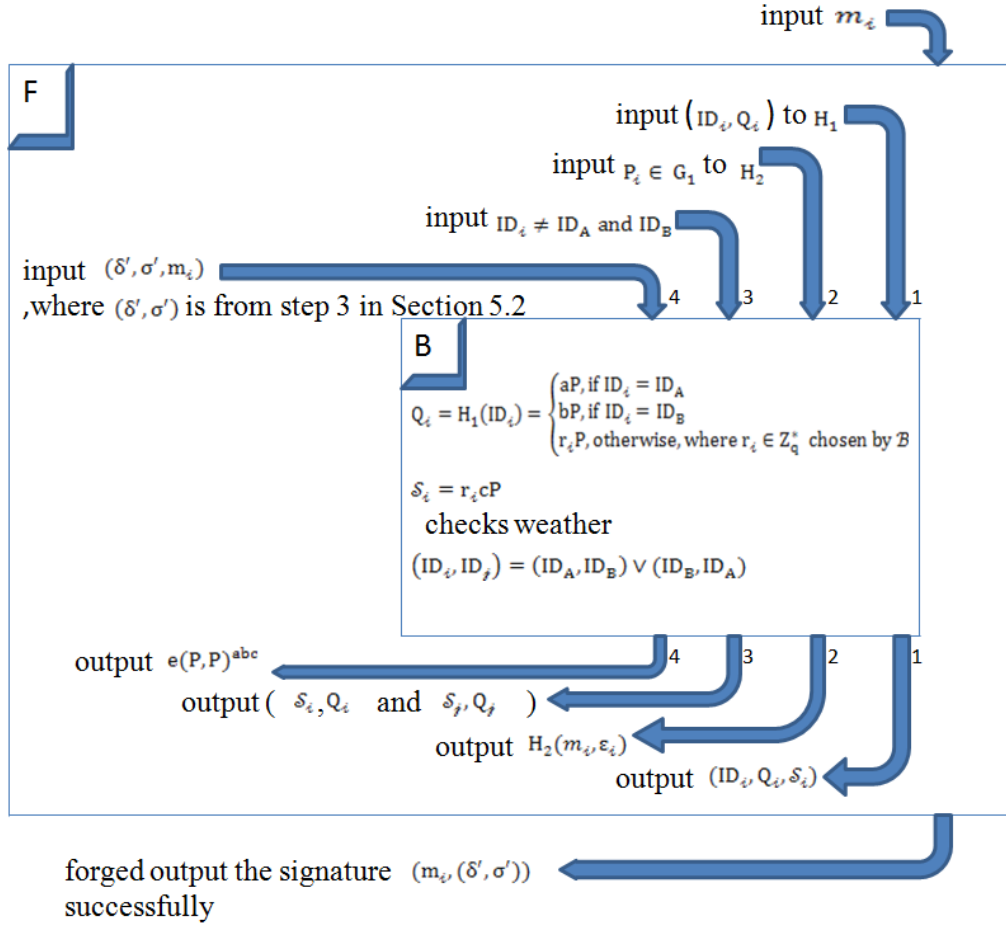
$$\varepsilon' = e(P_{pub}, Q_j)$$

$$\xi' = H_2(m_i, \varepsilon') \mathcal{S}_j$$

$$\sigma' = e(\delta', \mathcal{S}_j)^{H_2(m_i, \varepsilon') + 1}$$

- 3) Otherwise,  $\mathcal{B}$  aborts and stops this signature forgery.

Finally,  $\mathcal{F}$  returns  $(\delta', \sigma')$  as the forgery signature as if it were signed by  $ID_i$  or  $ID_j$  on message  $m_i$ .



**Figure 7 Overall structure of algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $\mathcal{F}$**

**Step4.** Verifying query: Given the signature  $(\delta', \sigma')$ ,  $\mathcal{F}$  pretends to be  $ID_j$  the designated verifier for verifying its validity. He calls algorithm  $\mathcal{B}$  to check whether  $(ID_i, ID_j) = (ID_A, ID_B) \vee (ID_B, ID_A)$ . If the equation holds,  $\mathcal{B}$  stops. Otherwise,  $\mathcal{B}$  calculates the designated verifier's private key  $S_j = r_j cP$  for  $\mathcal{F}$  to verify the exactness of signature  $(\delta', \sigma')$ .

**Step5.** Finally,  $\mathcal{F}$  can output the correct signature  $(\delta', \sigma', m_i)$ , which is signed by  $ID_i$  and verified by the designated verifier  $ID_j$  and

intended to be verified successfully using  $ID_A$  and  $ID_B$ , with non-negligible probability  $\varrho$ . If  $\{ID_i, ID_j\} \neq \{ID_A, ID_B\} = \{aP, bP\}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  outputs “failure” and aborts. Otherwise,  $(ID_i, ID_j) = (ID_A, ID_B) \vee (ID_B, ID_A)$  holds,  $\mathcal{F}$  will output  $(\delta', \sigma', m_i)$  with probability  $\varrho/q(q-1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\sigma' &= e(\delta', S_j)^{H_2(m_i, \varepsilon') + 1} \\
(e(\xi' + S_i, Q_j)^{\alpha'})^{\alpha'^{-1}} &= (e(\delta', S_j)^{H_2(m_i, \varepsilon') + 1})^{\alpha'^{-1}} \\
&= e(\delta', S_j)^{H_2(m_i, \varepsilon')} e(\delta', S_j)^{\alpha'^{-1}} \\
\frac{e(\xi' + S_i, Q_j)}{e(\delta', S_j)^{H_2(m_i, \varepsilon')}} &= e(\delta', S_j)^{\alpha'^{-1}} = e(\alpha' Q_A, S_B)^{\alpha'^{-1}} \\
&= e(Q_A, S_B)^{\alpha'^{-1} \cdot \alpha'} = e(aP, cbP) = e(P, P)^{abc}
\end{aligned}$$

In other words, given  $(P, aP, bP, cP)$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  is able to compute  $e(P, P)^{abc}$ . That is  $\mathcal{B}$  can break the BDH problem with non-negligible probability  $\varrho/q(q-1)$ . But it is in contradiction with BDH assumption. ■

### 5.3 Source hiding

In our scheme, in the simulation stage, we don't use the identity of the signer. Hence, the verifier and any other party cannot know who was the signer. Even if an attacker can successfully intercept the transmitted signature  $(\delta, \sigma)$ , he can't know the signer's identity for the signature doesn't reveal any information about the signer's identity since it is protected by ECDLP. Therefore, our scheme can really hide the signer's identity.

## 5.4 Non-interactive

In our scheme, the designated verifier Bob uses only his secret key  $S_B$  in verifying the validity of the signature without the signer's cooperation. Hence, our scheme is non-interactive.

## 5.5 Deniable

In our scheme, the designated verifier could produce a signature to pass the verification equation. This makes the third party unable to distinguish who was the original signer. For example,  $\sigma = e(\xi + S_A, Q_B)^\alpha = e(H_2(m, \varepsilon)S_A + S_A, Q_B)^\alpha = e(\alpha Q_A + \alpha Q_A, S_B)^{H_2(m, \varepsilon)} = e(\tilde{\delta}, S_B)^{H_2(m, \varepsilon)+1}$ . Bob can produce the same signature as Alice's. Hence, the signer can deny a signature signed by him.

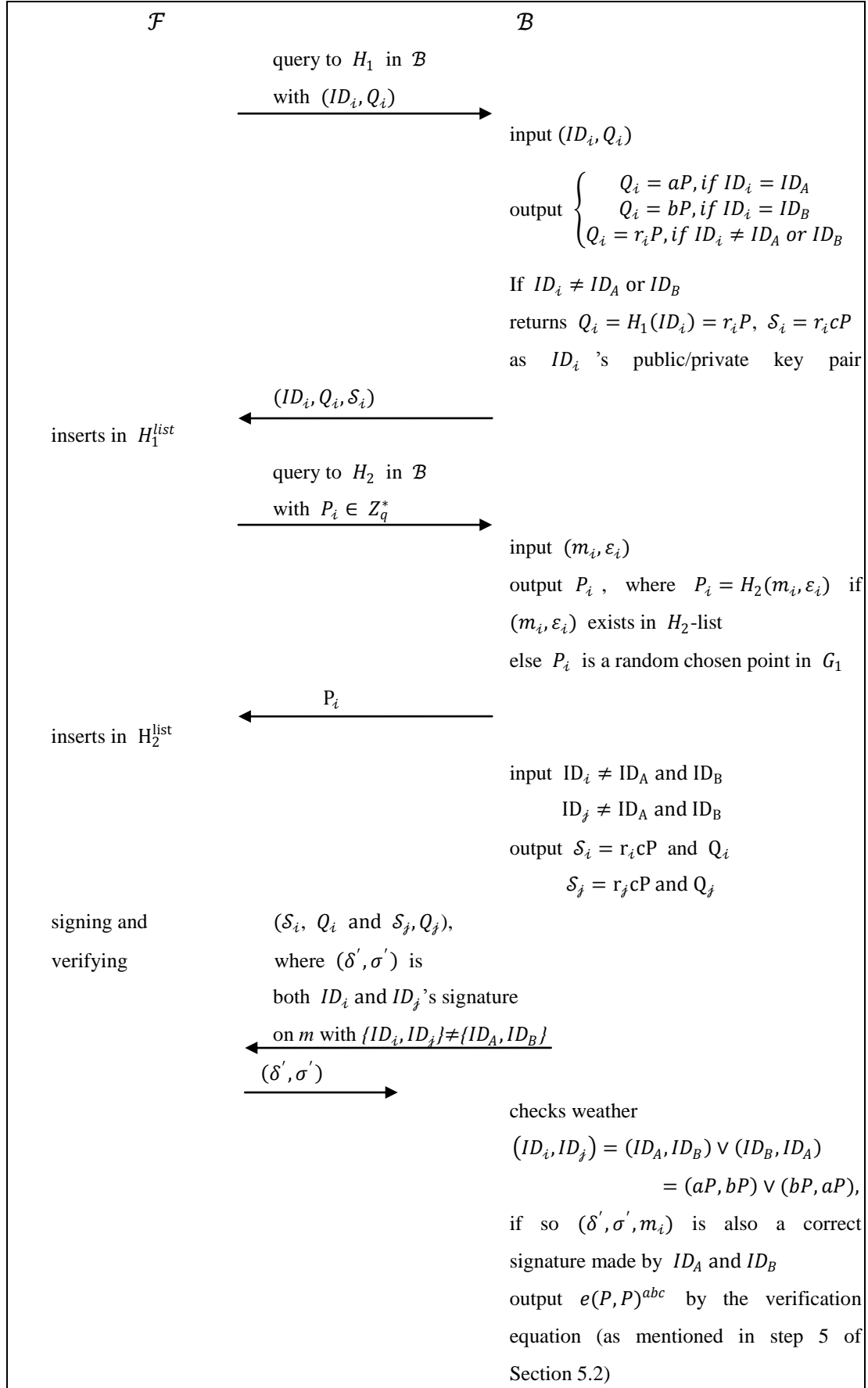
## 5.6 Resistance against Conditional Key Compromise Impersonation (KCI) attack

Assume that two parties want to communicate with each other through Internet. KCI attack means that an attacker  $E$  knows the private key of A (B); he can masquerade as B (A) to communicate with A [18]. Now, we define conditional KCI attack as:  $E$  can pretend A to communicate with B, if he has B's private key, but B can't know A's identity.

Suppose that our scheme is applied to an electronic voting system, even the private key of the designated verifier is compromised,  $E$  can't masquerade as anyone to sign on a message to be verified successfully by the verifier since our scheme has the source hiding property. For example, in an open electronic voting system, each



voter must be anonymous. Assume that an attacker  $E$  wants to masquerade as  $C$  to sign on a message  $m$  masquerade as  $C$  to vote a ballot to  $V$ . Even though he can know the private key of the verifier and can forge a signature on behalf of  $C$ . Since our scheme has the property of source hiding, the verifier can't know who the signer was.



**Figure 8 Signature forgery model**

# Chapter 6 Comparisons and Discussions

## 6.1 Efficiency comparison

In the following, we make comparison of our proposed scheme with Laguillaumie *et al.*'s [6], Zhang *et al.*'s [9], Kang *et al.*'s [14], and Kang *et al.*'s [15], based on the length of the signature and the required computational cost. Here, we omit the comparison with [14] (b), the second protocol of [14], since it is a proxy signature scheme. As shown in Table 1.

**Table 1. Efficiency features comparisons**

	Laguillaumie <i>et al.</i> 's [6]	Zhang <i>et al.</i> 's [9]	Kang <i>et al.</i> 's [14](a)	Kang <i>et al.</i> 's [15]	Our proposed scheme
<b>Length</b>	$ G_1 $	$ G_1 $	$2 G_1 $	$2 G_1 $	$ G_1 $
<b>Pairing</b>	2	2	2	3	3
<b>multiplication</b>	2	2	1	3	3
<b>Exponentiation</b>	0	0	0	2	2
<b>Hash</b>	2	2	2	2	1
<b>Inverse</b>	2	1	0	0	0

## 6.2 Security Comparisons

In this section, we make comparisons among our scheme and the other protocols proposed recently on the aspects of security features in Table 2.

We found that Lal *et al.*'s scheme [7] is insecure because it cannot resist against the forgery attack. Since the proxy signer “B” suffers from the attack that an adversary can masquerade as B to sign on a message which will be verified successfully by the two designated verifiers.

Obviously, the  $E$  can replace  $S_{ID_p} = rV + S_{ID_B}H_1(m_w)$  with  $S_{ID_p} = r'V + S_{ID_E}H_1(m_w)$  which also will be verified successfully by the two designated verifiers, where  $r' \in Z_q^*$  is a random number chosen by the adversary and  $\sigma = (m_w, V)$  is the transmitted signature in the protocol, since  $E$  can produce  $\alpha'$  to be verified successfully. In [14], we have demonstrated its weakness in Section 3. It suffers from the insider attack. In the aspect of Conditional KCI attack, all of the reviewed schemes [6, 9, 14(a), and 15] have not the property of source hiding. Because of the signer's public key was known to the verifier in the solution stage, this would enable an adversary to masquerade as the signer for communicating with the other verifier successfully in a multi-verifier scenario. Or once, the signer's identity recorded list has been stolen by a party, the party also can masquerade as the signer for communicating with the verifier.

In a word, our proposed scheme not only can prevent the attacks of insider, forgery, and conditional KCI but also possess the really source hiding which is a very important security feature needed in an electronic voting system.

### **6.3 Why our scheme really possesses the source hiding property?**

After analysis, we found that schemes [1-6, 8-17] don't have the source hiding property despite the fact that among them schemes [1, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16] have claimed that they possess this property. This is because their schemes incorporate the signer's public key into the verification and simulation phases. Conversely, in our scheme, a verifier needs not be aware of the signer's public key in the verification and simulation phases. Hence, our protocol really has the source hiding property.

**Table 2 Security features comparisons**

<b>protocols</b> <b>properties</b>	<b>Laguillaumie et al.'s [6]</b>	<b>Lal et al.'s [7]</b>	<b>Zhang et al.'s [9]</b>	<b>Kang et al.'s [14](a)</b>	<b>Kang et al.'s [15]</b>	<b>Our proposed scheme</b>
<b>Insider attack prevention</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Forgery attack prevention</b>	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Conditional KCI attack prevention</b>						✓
<b>Source hiding</b>		✓				✓

## Chapter 7 Conclusion

In this paper, we show that all of the proposed DVS [1-17], except for the proxy signature [7, 14(b)], haven't the source hiding property. Besides, we have proposed a provably secure and source hiding DVS scheme which can resist against all known attacks we have shown its security based on the random oracle model.

After comparisons, we conclude that our scheme not only is the most secure but also is the only scheme that possesses source hiding property. This makes our scheme be suitable for the application in an election voting system. Because in an election voting system, the tally can't know who is the voter. In other words, the tally can't know who the original signer on the vote was.

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