### Part I

Digital signatures

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It is not sufficient that a cryptographical system is very secure, or even perfectly secure - practically it is desirable that its implementations are secure enough what is very hard to achieve.

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In many countries it is already desirable, or even necessary, to use in important communications digital signatures and they have also legal significance.

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#### **ADDITIONAL PROPERTIES of DIGITAL SIGNATURES**

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Digital signatures employ public-key cryptography.

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**Key observation**: Digital signatures have to depend not only on the signer, but also on the document/message that is being signed.

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This chapter contains some of the main techniques for design and verification of digital signatures (as well as some possible attacks on them).

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Any public-key cryptosystem in which the plaintext and cryptotext spaces are the same can be used for digital signature.

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There are several reasons why it is better to sign hashes of messages than messages themselves.

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- For integrity: If hashing is not used, a message has to be often split into blocks and each block signed separately. However, the receiver may not able to find out whether all blocks have been signed and sent in the proper order.

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Verification algorithms can be publicly known; signing algorithms (actually only their keys) should be kept secret

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*ver<sub>k</sub>*: 
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such that the following two conditions are satisfied:

For each message m from M and public key k from  $K_v$ , it should hold

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ver_k(m, s) = true
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if there is an r from  $\{0,1\}^*$  such that

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## Security:

For any w from M and k from  $K_v$ , it should be computationally unfeasible, without the knowledge of the private key corresponding to k, to find a signature s from S such that

 $ver_k(w, s) = true.$ 

# A COMMENT ON DIGITAL SIGNATURE SCHEMES

Sometimes it is required that a digital signature scheme contains also a **keys generation phase**,

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- It is a phase that creates uniformly and randomly a secret (signing) key (from a set of potential secret keys) and outputs this secret key and the corresponding public (verification) key.

# ADDITIONAL PROPERTIES OF DIGITAL SIGNATURES

# Digital signatures can also provide so-called non-repudiation.

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- In both cases, a more ambitious goal is to find the private key.

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ADAPTIVE CHOSEN SIGNATURES ATTACKS: The attacker is given valid signatures for several messages chosen by the attacker where messages chosen may depend on previous signatures given for chosen messages. **Total break** of a signature scheme: The adversary manages to recover the secret key from the public key.

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Observe that to forge a signature scheme means to produce a new signature - it is not forgery to obtain from the signer a valid signature.

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f,  $(0, s_0)$ ,  $(1, s_1)$ 

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$$s_b = f(k_b)??$$

#### SECURITY?

The idea of RSA cryptosystem is simple. Public key: modulus n = pq and encryption exponent e. Secret key: decryption exponent d and primes p, q

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as a verification of such signature.

Let us have an RSA cryptosystem with encryption and decryption exponents  $\underline{\mathsf{e}}$  and  $\underline{\mathsf{d}}$  and modulus  $\underline{\mathsf{n}}.$ 

Signing of a message *w*:

 $\sigma = w^d \mod \mathsf{n}$ 

Verification of the signature  $s = \sigma$ :

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Indeed, is  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  are signatures for  $w_1$  and  $w_2$ , then  $\sigma_1\sigma_2$  and  $\sigma_1^{-1}$  are signatures for  $w_1w_2$  and  $w_1^{-1}$ .

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 $e_U(w)$  $d_U(e_U(w))$ 

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## **PUBLIC-KEY SIGNATURES**

Signing: Verification of the signature:  $d_U(w)$  $e_U(d_U(w))$  A collision-resistant hash function  $h: \{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^k$  is used for some fixed k.

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**Verification**: Given a message w and a signature (U, x) the versifier V computes  $x^2$  and h(wU) and verifies that they are equal.

#### Fact 1

If, for integers a, b and a prime p,

$$a\equiv b \;( {
m mod}\;(p-1))$$

then for any integer x

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#### Fact 2

If a, b, n, x are integers and gcd(x, n) = 1, then

$$a \equiv b \pmod{\phi(n)}$$
 implies  $x^a \equiv x^b \pmod{n}$ 

PROOF

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$$x^a = x^b (x^{p-1})^k \equiv x^b \mod p$$

by Fermat's little theorem.

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**Signature of a message** w: Let  $r \in Z_{p-1}^*$  be randomly chosen and kept secret.

sig(w, r) = (a, b),where  $a = q^r \mod p$ and  $b = (w - xa)r^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)}.$ 

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(Indeed, for some integer k:  $y^a a^b \equiv q^{ax} q^{rb} \equiv q^{ax+w-ax+k(p-1)} \equiv q^w \pmod{p}$ )

Let us analyze several ways an eavesdropper Eve can try to forge ElGamal signature (with x - secret; p, q and  $y = q^x \mod p$  - public):

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 $\blacksquare$  First suppose Eve tries to forge signature for a new message w, without knowing x.

■ If Eve first chooses a value a and tries to find the corresponding b, it has to compute the discrete logarithm

$$lg_a q^w y^{-a}$$
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(because  $a^b \equiv q^{r(w-xa)r^{-1}} \equiv q^{w-xa} \equiv q^w y^{-a}$ ) what is unfeasible.

If Eve first chooses **b** and then tries to find **a**, she has to solve the equation

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It is not known whether this equation can be solved for any given b efficiently.

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If Eve chooses a and b and tries to determine w such that (a,b) is signature of w, then she has to compute discrete logarithm

Hence, Eve can not sign a "random" message this way.

# From EIGamal to DSA (DIGITAL SIGNATURE STANDARD)

**DSA** is a **digital signature standard**, described on the next two slides, that is a modification of ElGamal digital signature scheme.

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Encryption of a message is usually done only once and therefore it usually suffices to use a cryptosystem that is secure **at the time of the encryption**.

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However, with ElGamal this would lead to signatures with at least 1024 bits what is too much for such applications as smart cards.

Design of DSA

**The following global public key components** are chosen:

**p** - a random l-bit prime,  $512 \le l \le 1024$ , l = 64k.

- q a random 160-bit prime dividing p -1.
- $\mathbf{r} = h^{(p-1)/q} \mod p$ , where h is a random primitive element of  $Z_p$ , such that r > 1,
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 $\blacksquare Key is K = (p, q, r, x, y)$ 

# Signing and Verification

Signing of a 160-bit plaintext w

- choose random 0 < k < q
- compute  $a = (r^k \mod p) \mod q$
- compute  $\mathbf{b} = k^{-1}(\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x}\mathbf{a}) \mod \mathbf{q}$  where  $kk^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$
- signature: sig(w, k) = (a, b)

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#### Verification of signature (a, b)

- compute  $z = b^{-1} \mod q$
- compute  $u_1 = wz \mod q$ ,  $u_2 = az \mod q$

verification:

$$ver_{\mathcal{K}}(w, a, b) = true \Leftrightarrow (r^{u_1}y^{u_2} \mod p) \mod q = a$$

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- Observe that y and a are also q-roots of 1. Hence any exponents of r,y and a can be reduced modulo q without affecting the verification condition.

This allowed to change ElGamal verification condition:  $y^a a^b = q^w$ .

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and verifies that the first  $k \times t$  bits of  $h(wx_1x_2...x_t)$  are the  $b_{ij}$  values that Alice has sent to him.

#### Fiat-Shamir SIGNATURE SCHEME

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**Security** of this signature scheme is  $2^{-kt}$ .

Advantage over the RSA-based signature scheme: only about 5% of modular multiplications are needed.

# SAD STORY

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**Important note:** Lamport signature scheme can be used safely to sign only one message. Why?

# **MERKLE SIGNATURES** - I.

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The main reason why Merkle Signature Scheme is of interest, is that it is believed to be resistant to potential attacks using quantum computers. ■ Who knows.

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The possibility of having quite soon powerful quantum computers starts to be so realistic that in US decision has been made, on a very-high level of cares for national security, that the next generation of cryptographic primitives' standards (for encryptions, digital signatures, hash functions,...) should be secure even in case quantum computers would be available. Public key generation - a single key for all signings.

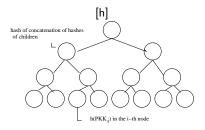
**Public key generation** - a single key for all signings. At first one needs to generate public keys  $PK_i$  and secret keys  $SK_i$  for all  $2^n$  messages  $m_i$ , using Lamport signature scheme, and to compute also  $h(PK_i)$  for all  $i \leq 2^n$ .

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As the next step a complete binary tree with  $2^n$  leaves is designed and the value  $h(PK_i)$  is stored in the *i*-the leave, counting from left to right. Moreover, to each internal node the hash of the concatenation of hashes of its two children is stored. The hash assigned this way to the root is the public key of the Merkle signature scheme and the tree is called Merkle tree. See next figure for a Merkle tree.



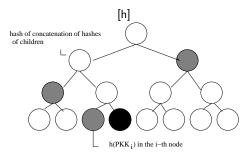
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The verifier knows the public key - hash assigned to the root and signature created as above. This allows him to compute all hashes assigned to the root from the leave to the root and to verify that the value assigned this way agrees with he public key - hash assigned to the root.



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It was the first signature scheme that was proven as being robust against an adaptive chosen message attacks: an adversary who receives signatures of messages of his choice (where each message may be chosen in a way that depends on the signatures of previously chosen messages) cannot later forge the signature even of a single additional message. There are various ways that a digital signature can be compromised.

For example: if Eve determines the secret key of Bob, then she can forge signatures of any Bob's message she likes. If this happens, authenticity of all messages signed by Bob before Eve got the secret key is to be questioned.

The key problem is that there is no way to determine when a message was signed.

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Times tamping by Bob of a signature on a message w, using a hash function h.

- Bob computes z = h(w);
- Bob computes  $z' = h(z \parallel pub); \{ \parallel \}$  denotes concatenation
- Bob computes y = sig(z');
- Bob publishes (z, pub, y) in the next day newspaper.

It is now clear that signature could not be done after the triple (z, pub, y) was published, but also not before the date pub was known.

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- Bob signs the message m\* to get a signature  $s_{m*}$  (of m\*) and sends  $s_{m*}$  to Alice. The signing is to be done in such a way that Alice can afterwards compute, using an unblinding procedure, from Bob's signature  $s_{m*}$  of m\* – Bob's signature  $s_m$  of m.

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- Alice computes  $s = k^{-1}s^* \pmod{n}$  to obtain Bob's signature  $m^d$  of m (This way Alice performs unblinding of  $m^*$ ).

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Verification is similar to that of the RSA signature scheme.

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- Bob decrypts the signed message:  $d_B(e_B(s_A(w))) = s_A(w)$ .
- Bob verifies the signature and recovers the message  $v_A(s_A(w)) = w$ .

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Assume now:  $v_x = e_x$ ,  $s_x = d_x$  for all users x.

# A SURPRISING ATTACK to the PREVIOUS SCHEME

• Mallot intercepts  $e_B(s_A(w))$ .

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■ Mallot can then get w (observe that  $v_X = e_X$  and  $s_x = d_x$  for each user x). Indeed, Mallot can compute  $e_A(s_M(e_B(s_M(e_M(s_B(e_M(s_A(w)))))))) = w.$ 

Consider the following protocol:

- I Alice sends the pair  $(e_B(e_B(w)||A), B)$  to Bob.
- Bob uses  $d_B$  to get A and w, and acknowledges the receipt by sending the pair  $(e_A(e_A(w)||B), A)$  to Alice.

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#### What can an active eavesdropper C do?

C can learn  $(e_A(e_A(w)||B), A)$  and therefore  $e_A(w')$  for  $w' = e_A(w)||B$ .

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- Alice, thinking that this is the step 1 of the protocol, acknowledges the receipt by sending the pair  $(e_C(e_C(w')||A), C)$  to C.

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- Alice makes acknowledgment by sending the pair  $(e_C(e_C(w)||A), C)$ .
- C is now able to learn w.

Let us have integers k, l, n such that k + l < n, a trapdoor permutation

$$f:D
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,

a pseudorandom bit generator

$$G: \{0,1\}^{l} \to \{0,1\}^{k} \times \{0,1\}^{n-(l+k)}, \quad G(w) = (G_{1}(w), G_{2}(w))$$

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- Compute  $r = t \oplus G_1(m)$ .
- Accept signature  $\sigma$  if h(w||r) = m and  $G_2(m) = u$ ; otherwise reject it.

Main problem of the secret-key cryptography: a need to make a secure distribution (establishment) of secret keys ahead of transmissions.

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Main problem of the secret-key cryptography: a need to make a secure distribution (establishment) of secret keys ahead of transmissions.

Diffie+Hellman solved this problem in 1976 by designing a protocol for secure key establishment (distribution) over public channels.

Diffie-Hellman Protocol: If two parties, Alice and Bob, want to create a common secret key, then they first agree, somehow, on a large prime p and a qZ\_p^\* and then they perform, through a public channel, the following activities.

Alice chooses, randomly, a large  $1 \le x < p-1$  and computes

 $X = q^x \mod p$ .

 $\blacksquare$  Bob also chooses, again randomly, a large  $1 \leq y < p-1$  and computes

 $Y = q^y \mod p$ .

- Alice and Bob exchange X and Y, through a public channel, but keep x, y secret.
- Alice computes Y<sup>x</sup> mod p and Bob computes X<sup>y</sup> mod p and then each of them has the key

$$K = q^{xy} \mod p.$$

An eavesdropper seems to need, in order to determine x from **X**, **q**, **p** and y from **Y**, **q**, **p**, a capability to compute discrete logarithms, or to compute  $q^{xy}$  from  $q^x$  and  $q^y$ , what is believed to be unfeasible.

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- Alice sends  $q^{\times}$  to Bob.
- **B** Bob computes  $K = q^{xy} \mod p$ .
- **B** Bob sends  $q^{y}$  and  $e_{\mathcal{K}}(s_{\mathcal{B}}(q^{y}, q^{x}))$  to Alice.

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- **B** Bob computes  $K = q^{xy} \mod p$ .
- **6** Bob sends  $q^{y}$  and  $e_{\mathcal{K}}(s_{\mathcal{B}}(q^{y}, q^{x}))$  to Alice.
- Alice computes  $K = q^{xy} \mod p$ .

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- Alice computes  $K = q^{xy} \mod p$ .
- B Alice decrypts  $e_{\kappa}(s_B(q^{\gamma}, q^{\chi}))$  to obtain  $s_B(q^{\gamma}, q^{\chi})$ .
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- I Alice sends  $e_{\mathcal{K}}(s_{\mathcal{A}}(q^x, q^y))$  to Bob.

## AUTHENTICATED Diffie-Hellman KEY EXCHANGE

Let each user U have a signature algorithm  $s_U$  and a verification algorithm  $v_U$ . The following protocol allows Alice and Bob to establish a key K to use with an encryption function  $e_K$  and to avoid the man-in-the-middle attack.

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- Solution Alice computes  $q^x \mod p$ , and Bob computes  $q^y \mod p$ .
- Alice sends  $q^{\times}$  to Bob.
- **B** Bob computes  $K = q^{xy} \mod p$ .
- **6** Bob sends  $q^{y}$  and  $e_{K}(s_{B}(q^{y}, q^{x}))$  to Alice.
- Alice computes  $K = q^{xy} \mod p$ .
- B Alice decrypts  $e_{\mathcal{K}}(s_B(q^y, q^x))$  to obtain  $s_B(q^y, q^x)$ .
- **1** Alice gets, using an authority, Bob's verification algorithm  $v_B$ .
- I Alice uses  $v_B$  to verify Bob's signature.
- I Alice sends  $e_{\mathcal{K}}(s_{\mathcal{A}}(q^x, q^y))$  to Bob.
- **I** Bob decrypts, gets  $v_A$ , and verifies Alice's signature.

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- I Alice and Bob choose large prime p and a generator  $q \in Z_p^*$ .
- Alice chooses a random x and Bob chooses a random y.
- Solution Alice computes  $q^x \mod p$ , and Bob computes  $q^y \mod p$ .
- Alice sends  $q^x$  to Bob.
- **B** Bob computes  $K = q^{xy} \mod p$ .
- **6** Bob sends  $q^{y}$  and  $e_{\kappa}(s_{B}(q^{y}, q^{x}))$  to Alice.
- Alice computes  $K = q^{xy} \mod p$ .
- B Alice decrypts  $e_{\mathcal{K}}(s_B(q^y, q^x))$  to obtain  $s_B(q^y, q^x)$ .
- **1** Alice gets, using an authority, Bob's verification algorithm  $v_B$ .
- I Alice uses  $v_B$  to verify Bob's signature.
- I Alice sends  $e_{\mathcal{K}}(s_{\mathcal{A}}(q^x, q^y))$  to Bob.
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An enhanced version of the above protocol is known as Station-to-Station protocol.

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**Robustness** means that corrupted parties cannot prevent uncorrupted parties to generate signatures.

Shoup (2000) presented an efficient, non-interactive, robust and unforgeable threshold RSA signature schemes.

There is no proof yet whether Shoup's scheme is provably secure.

## **HISTORY of DIGITAL SIGNATURES**

In 1976 Diffie and Hellman were first to describe the idea of a digital signature scheme. However, they only conjectured that such schemes may exist.

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- ElGamal digital signatures were invented in 1984.
   In 1988 Goldwasser, Micali and Rivest were first to rigorously define (perfect) security of digital signature schemes.



**APPENDIX** 



APPENDIX

- Digital signatures are often used to implement electronic signatures this is a broader term that refers to any electronic data that carries the intend of a signature. Not all electronic signatures use digital signatures.
- The first broadly marketed software package to offer digital signature was Lotus Notes 1.0, released in 1989, which used RSA algorithm

Let us analyze several ways an eavesdropper Eve can try to forge ElGamal signature (with x - secret; p, q and  $y = q^x \mod p$  - public):

sig(w, r) = (a, b);

where r is random and  $a = q^r \mod p$ ;  $b = (w - xa)r^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$ .

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 $\blacksquare$  First suppose Eve tries to forge signature for a new message w, without knowing x.

■ If Eve first chooses a value a and tries to find the corresponding b, it has to compute the discrete logarithm

$$lg_a q^w y^{-a}$$
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(because  $a^b \equiv q^{r(w-xa)r^{-1}} \equiv q^{w-xa} \equiv q^w y^{-a}$ ) what is unfeasible.

If Eve first chooses b and then tries to find a, she has to solve the equation

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It is not known whether this equation can be solved for any given b efficiently.

If Eve chooses a and b and tries to determine such w that (a,b) is signature of w, then she has to compute discrete logarithm

Hence, Eve can not sign a "random" message this way.