# Analysis of Warrant Attacks on Some Threshold Proxy Signature Schemes

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#### Abstract

In 2004, Yang et al. proposed a threshold proxy signature scheme that efficiently reduced the computational complexity of previous schemes. In 2009, Hu and Zhang presented some security leakages of Yang's scheme and proposed an improvement to eliminate the security leakages that had been pointed out. In this paper, we will point out that both Yang and Hu's schemes still have some security weaknesses, which cannot resist warrant attacks where an adversary can forge valid proxy signatures by changing the warrant  $m_W$ . We also propose two secure improvements for these schemes.

#### Keywords

Non-repudiation, Proxy Signature Scheme, Signature Scheme, Threshold Proxy Signature, Unforgeability

# 1. Introduction

The concept of a proxy signature was first introduced in [1]. A proxy signature scheme can be considered as a variation of the ordinary digital signature scheme [2], which enables a proxy signer to generate signatures on behalf of an original signer. So far, many proxy signature schemes have been discussed [1-15].

In a (t, n) threshold proxy signature scheme, the original signer conditionally delegates his/her authority of singing a message to a group of n members, the so-called proxy signers. The delegation condition is that any t or more proxy signers can corporately sign a message on behalf of the original signer, while any group of signers with less than t members cannot do so [1-15]. In general, a secure (t, n) threshold proxy signature scheme has the following inevitable properties: unforgeability, nonrepudiation, secrecy, proxy protection, time constraint, and known signers. The unforgeability property is to ensure that any group of proxy signers with less than t members can never sign any message on behalf of the original signer. "Non-repudiation property" means that the proxy group cannot repudiate any proxy signature created by them, and the original signer cannot deny that he/she has delegated his/her authority of signing a message to the proxy group.

In 2004, Yang et al. [14] proposed a new threshold proxy signature scheme, which was more efficient than the previous one. In 2009, Hu and Zhang [5] presented frame and public-key substitute attacks on

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Yang's scheme. This security leakage was treated in that paper. In this paper, we found the weakness of warrant in Yang and Hu's schemes. A warrant attack is when a malicious original signer or any proxy signer can forge valid proxy signatures by changing the warrant  $m_W$ . So far, various kinds ofwarrant attacks on proxy signature schemes have been discussed [3,7,11,13]. In this paper, we point out that both Yang and Hu's schemes still have some security weaknesses, which cannot resist warrant attacks. To remedy these weaknesses, we propose two new improvements for these schemes with higher safety. The rest of this paper is laid out as follows: In Section 2, we review Yang's scheme. In Section 3, we point out the security leak inherent in Yang's scheme. In Sections 4 and 5 we review Hu's scheme and show that it cannot resist a warrant attack, and we propose a method to eliminate this weakness. A novel improvement for Yang's scheme is proposed in Section 6. In Section 7, we analyze the security of our scheme. The performance of the proposed scheme is discussed in Section 8. Finally, we give our conclusions in Section 9.

# 2. Brief Review of Yang's Scheme

In this section, we briefly review Yang's scheme [14]. The scheme consists of 4 phases: initialization, proxy share generation, proxy signature generation, and proxy signature verification.

### 2.1 Initialization Phase

Let p be a large prime, q be a prime divisor of p - 1, g be a generator of order q in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , and h(.) be a secure one-way hash function. The parameters (p, q, g) are public. Suppose that  $P_0$  stands for the original signer, and let  $G = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_n\}$  be the proxy group of n proxy signers. The original signer  $P_0$  determines its private key by choosing an arbitrary  $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and the public key as  $y_0 = g^{x_0} modp$ . By the same way, each proxy signer  $P_i \in G$  owns its private key  $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and public key  $y_i = g^{x_i} modp$ , which are certified by the certificate authority (CA). Let  $m_W$  stand for a warrant that records the parameters t, n, the valid delegation time, and the identities of the original and proxy signers of the proxy group, etc. Also, ASID denotes the identities of the actual proxy signers.

#### 2.2 Proxy Share Generation Phase

The original signer  $P_0$  chooses a random integer  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and then computes  $K = g^k modp$ . Then,  $P_0$  computes  $\sigma = x_0 h(m_W, K) + kmodq$  as the proxy group's key and reports  $(\sigma, m_W, K)$  to the proxy signers of *G*. After receiving  $(\sigma, m_W, K)$ , each proxy signer  $P_i \in G$  checks whether the equation  $g^{\sigma} = y_0^{h(m_W, K)} Kmodp$  holds or not. If it holds, each  $P_i$  regards  $\sigma$  as its proxy key.

### 2.3 Proxy Signature Generation Phase

For convenience, let  $D = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_t\}$  be the *t* actual proxy signers, *ASID* be the identities of them, *C* be the receiver, and *m* be the message to be signed. Then, *D* as a proxy group performs the following steps: 1) each  $P_i \in D$  chooses a random integer  $k_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , and then computes and reports  $r_i = g^{k_i} modp$ ; 2) after receiving  $r_j$   $(j = 1, 2, ..., t, j \neq i)$ , each  $P_i \in D$  computes  $R = \prod_{j=1}^t r_j modp$  and then  $S_i = k_i R + (t^{-1}\sigma + x_i)h(R, m, ASID)modq; 3)$  they send  $S_i$  to the designated receiver *C* via a secret channel; and 4) after receiving  $S_i$ , the receiver *C* checks whether the following equation holds:

$$g^{S_i} = r_i^R \left[ \left( K y_0^{h(m_W, K)} \right)^{t^{-1}} y_i \right]^{h(R, m, ASID)} modp .$$
 (1)

If it holds,  $(r_i, S_i)$  is a valid partial proxy signature; then he computes  $S = \sum_{i=1}^{t} S_i modq$ . Therefore,  $(R, S, K, m_W, ASID)$  is the threshold proxy signature of the message m.

### 2.4 Proxy Signature Verification Phase

From  $m_W$ , the verifier can get the threshold value *t*, and from *ASID*, he can know the number of actual proxy signers. The verifier checks the validity of the proxy signature (*R*, *S*, *K*,  $m_W$ , *ASID*) for the message *m* by checking the validity of the following equation

$$g^{S} = R^{R} \left( K y_{o}^{h(m_{W},K)} \prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i} \right)^{h(R,m,ASID)} modp.$$
(2)

# 3. Our Attacks on Yang's Scheme

In this section, we show that Yang's scheme cannot resist warrant attacks (i.e., the warrant  $m_W$  in the proxy signature can be replaced by any other warrant the adversary wants). Therefore, the adversary can forge a valid proxy signature.

### 3.1 Case 1

In this case, we describe that after intercepting a valid proxy signature  $(R, S, K, m_W, ASID)$ , an adversary (each malicious original or proxy signer) can change  $m_W, y_i$  and forge a proxy signature S (without knowing or changing secret partial signature  $S_i$ ).

Without loss of generality, assume that  $P_1$  is a malicious proxy signer who decides to forge a threshold proxy signature of a message m. Although,  $P_1$  cannot generate a valid warrant  $m_W$  of the original signer, he can generate a valid warrant  $m'_W$ . As a result, he can change the content of the warrant such as the threshold value t, the time constraint, etc.

Assume that  $P_1$  decides to forge a threshold proxy signature of m and claim that it is generated by t' proxy signers  $D' = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_t\}$ , while the proxy group D' knows nothing about the decision. Let *ASID'* be the identities of the group D'. First,  $P_1$  generates the warrant  $m'_W$  as he wants, chooses two random integers  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , and computes:

$$R' = g^{\beta} modp, \ K' = g^{\alpha} modp. \tag{3}$$

Then, he computes

$$y_{1} = y_{0}^{-h(m'_{W},K')} \left( \prod_{i=2}^{t'} y_{i} \right)^{-1} modp,$$
(4)

and requests *CA* to replace his public key by  $y_1$ . Next he computes:

$$S' = \beta R' + \alpha h(R', m, ASID') modp.$$
<sup>(5)</sup>

Since:

$$g^{S'} = g^{\beta R'} g^{\alpha h(R',m,ASID')} modp = R'^{R'} g^{\alpha h(R',m,ASID')} = R'^{R'} \left( K'_{y_o}^{\gamma h(m'_W,K')} \Pi_{l=1}^{t'} y_l \right)^{(R',m,ASID')}$$
(6)

 $(R', S', K', m'_W, ASID')$  is a valid threshold proxy signature of the message m. This kind of attack can be prevented using a policy such as restricting the proxy to update their keys or if CA asks  $P_1$  for the Zero-Knowledge Proof of his private key  $x'_1$  associated to new public key  $y_1$ .

### 3.2 Case 2

In 2007, Shao et al. [11], proposed another warrant attack on Yang's scheme. In this case, we review this attack. Shao described how after intercepting a valid proxy signature ( $R, S, K, m_W, ASID$ ) an adversary (each malicious original or proxy signer) can change  $m_W, \sigma$  and forge a proxy signature S(without knowing or changing secret partial signature  $S_i$ ) in Yang's scheme.

Suppose that a malicious original signer  $P_0$  decides to forge a proxy signature generated by the proxy group  $D = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_t\}$ . Let *ASID* be the identities of *D*. Let  $(R, S, K, m_W, ASID)$  be a legal proxy signature of a message *m* generated by *D* on behalf of  $P_0$ . The malicious original signer  $P_0$  can change the content of the warrant, such as the time constraint.  $P_0$  forges a new warrant  $m'_W$  as he wants, chooses an integer  $k' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and computes  $K' = g^{k'}modp$ . Then,  $P_0$  computes  $\sigma' = x_0h(m'_W, K') + k'modq$  and:

$$S' = S + (\sigma' - \sigma)h(R, m, ASID)modq.$$
(7)

Then,  $(R, S', K', m'_W, ASID)$  can pass the verification equation, since:

$$g^{S'} = g^{S} g^{(\sigma'-\sigma)h(R,m,ASID)} = g^{\sum_{i=1}^{t} S_{i}} g^{(\sigma'-\sigma)h(R,m,ASID)}$$
$$= g^{\sum_{i=1}^{t} (k_{i}R + x_{i}h(R,m,ASID))} g^{\sigma'h(R,m,ASID)}$$
$$= R^{R} \left( K'^{y_{o}^{h(m'_{W},K')}} \Pi_{i=1}^{t} y_{i} \right)^{h(R,m,ASID)} modp.$$
(8)

## 4. Brief Review of Hu's Scheme

In this section, we review Hu's scheme [5]. The scheme consists of 4 phases: initialization, proxy share generation, proxy signature generation, and proxy signature verification.

### 4.1 Initialization Phase

The system parameters are the same as those in Section 2.1. However, the only difference is that in Hu's scheme, *CA* requires that the original signer  $P_0$  and each proxy signer  $P_i(1 \le i \le n)$  offer the Zero-Knowledge Proof of its private key associated with its public key as follows: 1) *CA* randomly chooses  $e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , computes  $E = g^e modp$ , and sends E to  $P_0$  to each  $P_i$ ; 2) then,  $P_i$ , for i = 0,1,...,n, computes  $L_i = E^{x_i}modp$ , and sends  $L_i$  to *CA*; and 3) for each i = 0,1,...,n, the certificate authority (*CA*) checks the equation  $y_i^e = L_i$ ; if it holds, *CA* accepts their certification, otherwise he refuses it.

### 4.2 Proxy Share Generation Phase

The original signer  $P_0$  chooses a random integer  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and then computes  $K = g^k modp$ . Then,  $P_0$  computes  $\sigma = x_0 h(m_W, K) + kKmodq$  as the proxy group's key. Accordingly, its public key is  $Q = g^{\sigma}modp$ . Then,  $P_0$  chooses a t - 1 degree polynomial  $f(x) = \sigma + a_1x + \dots + a_{t-1}x^{t-1}modp$  and computes  $R_i = f(y_i)modp$  as each proxy signer secret key. He computes  $Q_i = g^{R_i}modp, A_j = g^{a_j}modp$  and sends  $(y_i, R_i, m_W, K)$  to each proxy signer  $P_i$  via a secret channel and broadcasts  $Q_i, A_j$ . After receiving  $(y_i, R_i, m_W, K)$ , each proxy signer  $P_i \in G$  checks whether the equation  $g^{R_i} = K^K y_o^{h(m_W, K)} \prod_{l=1}^{t-1} A_l^{y_l^l} modp$  holds or not.

### 4.3 Proxy Signature Generation Phase

For convenience, let  $D = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_t\}$  be the *t* actual proxy signers, *ASID* be the identities of them, *C* be the receiver, and *m* be the message to be signed. Then, *D* as a proxy group performs the following steps: 1) each  $P_i \in D$  chooses a random integer  $k_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and then computes and reports  $r_i = g^{k_i} modp$ ; 2) after receiving  $r_j$   $(j = 1, 2, ..., t, j \neq i)$ , each  $P_i \in D$  computes  $R = \prod_{j=1}^t r_j modp$  and the  $S_i = k_i R + (R_i W_i + x_i)h(R, m, ASID)modq$ , where  $W_i = \prod_{j=1, j \neq i}^t \frac{y_j}{y_j - y_i}$ ; 3) each  $P_i$  sends  $S_i$  to the designated receiver *C* via a secret channel; and 4) after receiving  $S_i$ , the receiver *C* checks whether the following equation holds:

$$g^{S_i} = r_i^R \left[ Q_i^{W_i} y_i \right]^{h(R,m,ASID)} modp \tag{9}$$

If it holds, *C* computes  $S = \sum_{i=1}^{t} S_i modq$ . Therefore,  $(R, S, K, m_W, ASID)$  is the threshold proxy signature of the message *m*.

### 4.4 Proxy Signature Verification Phase

The verifier checks the validity of the proxy signature  $(R, S, K, m_W, ASID)$  for the message *m* by checking the validity of the following equation:

$$g^{S} = R^{R} \left( K^{K} y_{o}^{h(m_{W},K)} \prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i} \right)^{h(R,m,ASID)} modp.$$

$$\tag{10}$$

# 5. Warrant Attack on Hu's Scheme

### 5.1 Warrant Attack

In the following section, we show that Hu's scheme cannot resist warrant attacks, similarly to how we did so in Subsection 3.2. After intercepting a valid proxy signature generated by a subset of a proxy group, a malicious original signer can change the warrant and forge new proxy signatures.

Suppose that a malicious original signer  $P_0$  wants to forge proxy signatures generated by the proxy group  $D = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_t\}$ . Let *ASID* be the identities of *D*. Let  $(R, S, K, m_W, ASID)$  be a legal proxy signature of a message *m* generated by *D* on behalf of  $P_0$ . The malicious original signer  $P_0$  can change the content of the warrant, such as the time constraint, etc.  $P_0$  forges a new warrant  $m'_W$  as he wants, chooses an integer  $k' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , and computes  $K' = g^{k'}modp$ . Then,  $P_0$  computes  $\sigma' = x_0h(m'_W, K') + k'K'modq$  and replaces  $Q = g^{\sigma}modp$  with  $Q' = g^{\sigma'}modp$ ,  $Q_i = g^{R_i}modp$  for  $1 \le i \le n$ , and  $A_j$  for an arbitrary  $1 \le j \le t, j \ne i$  with arbitrary numbers  $Q'_i$  for  $1 \le i \le n$  and  $A'_j$ , respectively. Then,  $P_0$ computes:

$$S' = S + (\sigma' - \sigma)h(R, m, ASID)modq.$$
(11)

Similarly,  $(R, S', K', m'_W, ASID)$  can pass the verification equation, since:

$$g^{S'} = g^{S} g^{(\sigma'-\sigma)h(R,m,ASID)} = g^{\sum_{i=1}^{t} S_{i}} g^{(\sigma'-\sigma)h(R,m,ASID)} = g^{\sum_{i=1}^{t} k_{i}R+(R_{i}W_{i}+x_{i})h(R,m,ASID)} g^{(\sigma'-\sigma)h(R,m,ASID)}$$
$$= R^{R} (g^{\sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i})^{h(R,m,ASID)} g^{(\sigma'-\sigma)h(R,m,ASID)} = R^{R} (g^{\sigma'} \prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i})^{h(R,m,ASID)}$$
$$= R^{R} (K'^{K'} y_{o}^{h(m'_{W},K')} \prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i})^{h(R,m,ASID)} modp.$$
(12)

### 5.2 Our Improvement

In order to protect Hu's scheme against the above attack, we recommend that the partial signature  $S_i$  be replaced by:

$$S_{i} = k_{i}R + (R_{i}W_{i} + x_{i})h(R, m, m_{W}, ASID),$$
(13)

the partial signature verification equation is replaced by:

$$g^{S_i} = r_i^R \left[ Q_i^{W_i} y_i \right]^{h(R,m,m_W,ASID)} modp, \tag{14}$$

and the threshold proxy signature verification equation is replaced by:

$$g^{S} = R^{R} \left( K^{K} y_{o}^{h(m_{W},K)} \prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i} \right)^{h(R,m,m_{W},ASID)}$$
(15)

Since  $m_W$  is a part of  $S_i$ , it is impossible for anyone to change  $m_W$  and forge a proxy signature after intercepting a valid proxy signature ( $R, S, K, m_W, ASID$ ). Thus, a malicious original signer cannot forge a valid threshold proxy signature by a warrant attack.

### 6. A Novel Proxy Signature Scheme

In this section, we propose an improvement to the Yang scheme. Our scheme can be divided into 4 phases: initialization, proxy share generation, proxy signature generation, and proxy signature verification.

### 6.1 Initialization Phase

This phase is similar to Hu's scheme, *CA* requires that the original signer  $P_0$  and each proxy signer  $P_i(1 \le i \le n)$  offer the Zero-Knowledge Proof of its private key associated with its public key as follows: *CA* randomly chooses  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ , computes  $A = g^a modp$ , and sends *A* to  $P_0$  to each  $P_i$ . Then,  $P_i$  for i = 0, 1, ..., n computes  $A_i = A^{x_i} modp$  and sends  $A_i$  to *CA*. For each i = 0, 1, ..., n, the *CA* checks the equation  $y_i^a = A_i$ . If it holds, *CA* accepts their certification, otherwise he refuses it.

### 6.2 Proxy Share Generation Phase

This phase is the same as that in Subsection 2.2.

#### 6.3 Proxy Signature Generation Phase

For convenience, let  $D = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_t\}$  be t actual proxy signers, ASID the identities of these t proxy signers, C the receiver of partial signatures, and m a message to be signed. Then D, as a proxy group, performs the following steps: 1) each  $P_i \in D$  chooses a random  $k_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and then computes and broadcasts  $r_i = g^{k_i} modp$ ; 2) after receiving  $r_i$   $(j = 1, 2, ..., t, j \neq i)$ , each  $P_i \in D$  computes:

$$R = \prod_{j=1}^{t} r_j \, modp, \tag{16}$$

$$S_i = k_i + (t^{-1}\sigma + x_i K)h(R, m, m_W, ASID)modq.$$
(17)

3) then, he sends  $S_i$  to the designated receiver C via a secret channel; and 4) after receiving  $S_i$ , the receiver C checks whether the following equation holds:

$$g^{S_{i}} = r_{i} \left[ \left( K y_{0}^{h(m_{W},K)} \right)^{t^{-1}} y_{i}^{K} \right]^{h(R,m,m_{W},ASID)} modp.$$
(18)

If it holds,  $(r_i, S_i)$  is a valid partial proxy signature, and then he computes  $S = \sum_{i=1}^{t} S_i$ . Therefore,  $(R, S, K, m_W, ASID)$  is the threshold proxy signature of the message m.

### 6.4 Proxy Signature Verification Phase

The verifier checks the validity of the proxy signature  $(R, S, K, m_W, ASID)$  for the message *m* by the following equation:

$$g^{S} = R \left[ K y_{o}^{h(m_{W},K)} (\prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i})^{K} \right]^{h(R,m,m_{W},ASID)} modp.$$
(19)

# 7. Security Analysis

In the following section, we first proof some lemma and theorems and then examine the security of the proposed scheme (subsections 7.1–7.6).

Lemma 1. If  $\prod_{i=1}^{t} y_i = g^c \mod p$ , and  $g^r = K' = (\prod_{i=1}^{t} y_i)^{-K'} g^{\alpha} \mod p$ , then  $K' = (\alpha - r)c^{-1} \mod q$ .

Proof. Indeed, we have:

$$g^{r} = K' = (\prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i})^{-K'} g^{\alpha} \mod p$$
  
=  $g^{-cK'} g^{\alpha} \mod p$   
=  $g^{-cK'+\alpha} \mod p.$  (20)

Thus,  $K' = (\alpha - r)c^{-1} \mod q$ .

Theorem 2.  $(R', S', K', m_W, ASID)$  given by:

$$R = g^{\beta} \mod p,$$
  

$$K' = (\prod_{i=1}^{t} y_i)^{-K'} g^{\alpha} \mod p, \text{ and } p, \text{ and } p,$$
  

$$S' = \beta + [\alpha + x_0 h(m_w, K')] h(R', m, m_W, ASID).$$
(21)

is a valid proxy signature.

*Proof.* It is a valid proxy signature of the message *m* because:

$$g^{S'} = g^{\beta} (g^{\alpha + x_0 h(m_W, K')})^{h(R', m, m_W, ASID)} = R'(K'y_0^{h(m_W, K')} (\prod_{i=1}^t y_i)^{K'})^{h(R', m, m_W, ASID)}.$$
(22)

Theorem 3. If  $y_1 = (y_0^{h(m_W,K')} (\prod_{i=2}^t y_i)^{K'})^{-K'^{-1}} \mod p$ , then  $(R', S', K', m_W, ASID)$  given by:

$$R' = g^{\beta} \mod p, \quad K' = g^{\alpha} \mod p, \quad and$$
  

$$S' = \beta + \alpha h(R', m', m_W, ASID) \mod q,$$
(23)

is a valid proxy signature.

*Proof.* It is a valid proxy signature of the message *m* because:

$$g^{S'} = g^{\beta} g^{\alpha h(R',m',m_{W},ASID)}$$
  
=  $g^{\beta} (g^{\alpha} y_{0}^{h(m_{W},K')} y_{0}^{-h(m_{W},K')} (\prod_{i=2}^{t} y_{i})^{K'} (\prod_{i=2}^{t} y_{i})^{-K'})^{h(R',m',m_{W},ASID)}$   
=  $R'(K'y_{0}^{h(m_{W},K')} (\prod_{i=1}^{t} y_{i})^{K'})^{h(R',m',m_{W},ASID)}.$  (24)

Next, we examine the security of the proposed scheme.

### 7.1 Secrecy

In the proposed scheme, both signing and verification are based on discrete logarithm problems. Hence, no one can compute the original signer's private key  $x_0$  from his/her public key  $y_0 = g^{x_0} \mod p$ . Similarly, no one can compute the original signer's private key  $x_0$  from  $A_0 = A^{x_0} \mod p$ . On the other hand, no one can compute  $x_0$  from the group proxy signature key  $\sigma = x_0 h(m_W, K) + k \mod q$ , because the parameter  $\sigma$  is computed by the Schnorr signature scheme, which is a provable secure random oracle model. Therefore, the original signature's private key can be kept secretly and be reused during the span of the system.

Based on discrete logarithms, it is virtually impossible to obtain any proxy signer's secret key  $x_i$  from the corresponding public key  $y_i = g^{x_i} \mod p$  or from  $A_i = A^{x_i} \mod p$ . Again, according to the Schnorr signature scheme, no one can compute  $x_i$  from the partial proxy signature  $S_i = k_i + (t^{-1}\sigma + x_iK)h(R, m, m_w, ASID)$ . Hence, our scheme preserves the security.

### 7.2 Proxy Protection

Although the proxy signing key  $\sigma$  is created by the original signer, the original signer cannot compute the partial proxy signature,

$$S_{i} = k_{i} + (t^{-1}\sigma + x_{i}K)h(R, m, m_{W}, ASID).$$
(25)

The original signer does not know  $P_i$ 's private key  $x_i$ , so according to the Schnorr signature scheme, it is very difficult for anyone to generate the partial proxy signature  $S_i$  of m. For the security of the Schnorr signature scheme, the random number  $k_i$  should not be reused with a different plain text. Therefore, the original signer cannot masquerade as a proxy signer to create a partial proxy signature. This protects the authority of the proxy signer.

### 7.3 Unforgeability

An intruder may try to derive a forged proxy signature by various ways. In the subsections below we will show that our scheme is secure against various attacks.

Attack 1: An attacker may try to derive  $P_i$ 's private key  $x_i$  from  $S_i$ .

• Analysis: Once  $P_i$  broadcasts  $S_i$ , the intruder cannot derive  $x_i$  from  $S_i$  because the random number  $k_i$  is unknown.

Attack 2: An attacker may try to forge  $P_i$ 's partial signature  $S_i$ .

• Analysis: Without the proxy signing key  $\sigma$  and  $P_i$ 's private key  $x_i$ , no one can forge the proxy signer  $P_i$  to construct  $S_i = k_i + (t^{-1}\sigma + x_iK)h(R, m, m_W, ASID) \mod q$ .

**Frame attack:** A malicious original signer  $P_0$ , without any knowledge about  $P_i$ 's private key  $x_i$ , may try to forge a valid general proxy signature  $(R', S', K', m_W, ASID)$  for his/her arbitrary chosen message m' and dishonestly claim that it is generated by other t proxy signers  $D = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_t\}$ .

• Analysis: Let *ASID* be the identities of *D*. For this purpose,  $P_0$  can choose random integers  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and compute  $R' = g^\beta \mod p$ . Now, according to Theorem 2,  $P_0$  should determine:

$$K' = \left(\prod_{i=1}^{t} y_i\right)^{-K'} g^{\alpha} modp,\tag{26}$$

and:

$$S' = \beta + [\alpha + x_0 h(m_W, K')]h(R', m, m_W, ASID).$$
(27)

However, according to Lemma 1,  $P_0$  should solve the discrete logarithm problem  $\prod_{i=1}^{t} y_i = g^c \mod p$  in order to compute K'. Thus,  $P_0$  cannot forge a valid general proxy signature of any message m' that is generated by D.

**Public key substitute attack:** Without the loss of generality, suppose that a malicious proxy signer  $P_1$  decides to forge a general proxy signature scheme of a message m' by himself or herself, without the assistance of other proxy signers.

• Analysis: For this purpose, according to Theorem 3,  $P_1$  chooses random  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and computes

$$R' = g^{\beta} \mod p, \quad K' = g^{\alpha} \mod p,$$
  

$$S' = \beta + \alpha h(R', m', m_W, ASID) \mod q,$$
  

$$y_1 = (y_0^{h(m_W, K')} (\prod_{i=2}^t y_i)^{K'})^{-K'^{-1}} \mod p.$$
(27)

Then he wants *CA* to replace his public key with the above  $y_1$ . The certificate authority, *CA*, again asks  $P_1$  for the Zero-Knowledge Proof of his private key  $x'_1$  associated to new public key  $y_1$ , but  $P_1$  cannot obtain  $x'_1$ , s.t.  $y_1 = g^{x'_1} \mod p$  because of the difficulty of solving the discrete logarithm problem. Hence,  $P_1$  cannot again perform a Zero-Knowledge Proof with *CA* when he changes his public key.

**Warrant attack:** After intercepting a valid proxy signature ( $R, S, K, m_W, ASID$ ) the adversary may try to replace ( $m_W, \sigma$ ) with ( $m'_W, \sigma'$ ).

• Analysis: However,  $m_W$  is protected under the hash function,  $h(R, m, m_W, ASID)$  in the individual signature  $S_i = k_i + (t^{-1}\sigma + x_iK)h(R, m, m_W, ASID) \mod q$ . So, the probability of obtaining  $m'_W$  such that  $h(R, m, m_W, ASID) = h(R, m, m_W, ASID)$  is equivalent to performing an exhaustive

search on  $m'_W$ . Thus, after intercepting a valid proxy signature ( $R, S, K, m_W, ASID$ ), it is impossible for anyone to change ( $m_W, \sigma$ ) Hence, our scheme can resist Shao's warrant attack.

**Warrant attack:** An attacker may generate a warrant  $m_{W'}$  and try to forge a threshold proxy signature of a message m'.

• Analysis: For this purpose, similar to Theorem 2,  $P_1$  chooses random  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and computes:

$$R' = g^{\beta} \mod p, \quad K' = g^{\alpha} \mod p,$$
  

$$S' = \beta + \alpha h(R', m', m_{W'}, ASID') \mod q,$$
  

$$y_1 = (y_0^{h(m_{W'},K')} (\prod_{i=2}^t y_i)^{K_i})^{-K_i^{-1}} \mod p.$$
(29)

Then, he wants *CA* to replace his public key with the above  $y_1$ . The certificate authority, *CA*, again asks  $P_1$  for the Zero-Knowledge Proof of his private key  $x'_1$  associated with the new public key  $y_1$ . However,  $P_1$  cannot obtain  $x'_1$ , s.t.  $y_1 = g^{x'_1} \mod p$  because of the difficulty of solving the discrete logarithm problem. Hence,  $P_1$  cannot again perform the Zero-Knowledge Proof with *CA* when he changes his public key.

Similarly, no proxy signer  $P_i$  can forge a valid threshold proxy signature with this type of attack.

Attack 7: t - 1 or fewer proxy signers may try to sign a message m.

• Analysis: The attackers may try to derive a forged proxy signature by using the previous attacks. But, we have shown that all attacks fail on our scheme. The proxy signature can be only generated by any t or more delegated proxy signers. Since the threshold value t is defined in the warrant  $m_W$ , if the number of actual proxy signers does not achieve t, the proxy signature is invalid. Furthermore, as discussed above, we know that our improved scheme can resist warrant attacks. Therefore, our scheme satisfies the property of *unforgeability*.

### 7.4 Non-repudiation

The property of *non-repudiation* is that both the original signer and the actual proxy signers cannot deny the generation of a valid proxy signature. Any valid proxy signature ( $R, S, K, m_W, ASID$ ) of a message m should be generated by t or more proxy signers. This is because only  $P_i$  has the private key  $x_i$ . Thus,  $P_i$  cannot deny signing the partial proxy signature. Moreover, the warrant  $m_W$  and K are created by the original signer. The original signer cannot deny the proxy signers the power of signing messages. Therefore, the valid proxy signature can be signed on behalf of the original signer. Hence, both the original signer and the actual proxy signers cannot deny generating the valid proxy signature.

### 7.5 Time Constraint

*Time constraint* means the time during which the signing power of the proxy group is valid. In our scheme, only the original signer creates the warrant  $m_W$ , which contains the time constraint, and it is impossible for anyone to change  $m_W$ . In the verification stage, the verifier checks whether or not the warrant has expired. Therefore, our scheme satisfies the property of time constraint.

### 7.6 Known Signers

Finally, from ASID, the verifier can notice who the actual signers are. In our scheme, any receiver is able to identify the actual signers in the proxy group. Furthermore, the adversary cannot replace ASID by ASID' satisfying  $h(R, m, m_W, ASID) = h(R, m, m_W, ASID')$ . Since  $h(\cdot)$  is a collision resistant hash function, it is computationally infeasible to get such an ASID'. Therefore, our scheme satisfies the property of *known signers*.

From what has been analyzed above, we are certain that the necessary requirements of the (t, n) threshold proxy signature scheme are fulfilled in our scheme. Moreover, we compared the security of our scheme with the threshold proxy signature schemes proposed in [5,11,14] and summarized the results in Table 1.

Security features	Yang	Shao	Hu	Our scheme
Secrecy	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Proxy protection	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Unforgeability	No	No	Yes	Yes
Non-repudiation	No	No	Yes	Yes
Time constraint	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Known signers	No	No	Yes	Yes
Secure channel	No	No	No	No
Scheme can resist frame attacks	No	No	Yes	Yes
Scheme can resist public-key substitute attacks	No	No	Yes	Yes
Scheme can resist warrant attacks	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
At least <i>t</i> proxy signers can generate valid proxy signature	No	No	Yes	Yes

Table 1. Security comparison of threshold schemes with proposed scheme

## 8. Performance

In this section, we compare the complexity of the new proxy signature scheme with that of the threshold proxy signature schemes proposed in [4,5,11,12,14]. The results are summarized in Tables 2 and 3. For convenience, the following notations were used to analyze computational complexity.

- $T_e$  the time for one exponentiation computation.
- $T_m$  the time for one mod ular multiplication computation.
- $T_H$  the time for hash function computation.
- $T_i$  the time for one inverse computation.

The time complexities for modular exponentiation, multiplication, and inverse computation are  $O(log^3p)$ ,  $O(log^2p)$ , and  $O(log^2p)$ , respectively. As shown in Table 2, the computational complexity of our presented scheme for share generation, signature generation, and signature verification are  $3T_e + 2T_m + T_H$ ,  $(3t + 2)T_e + (2t + 3)T_m + 2T_H + T_i$ , and  $3T_e + (t + 2)T_m + 2T_H$ , respectively, which are less than those of previous schemes. Also, from Table 3, we can see that the overall computation costs of our improved scheme is  $(3t + 8)T_e + (3t + 7)T_m + 5T_H + T_i$ , which is less than that of previous schemes.

Therefore, our scheme can reduce computation costs, and it is the most efficient and the most secure

non-repudiable threshold proxy signature scheme with known signers.

Also, a comparison of our attacks with the previous attacks on Yang's scheme is given in Table 4.

Scheme	Share generation	Signature generation	Signature verification	
Sun [12]	$(5n+2t)T_e + (nt+2t)T_m + T_H$	$(4t^2 - t)T_e + (10t^2 - 14t)T_m + 2T_H + (t^2 - t)T_i$	$4T_e + tT_m + 2T_H$	
Hsu et al. [4]	$(5n+2t)T_e + (nt+2t)T_m + T_H$	$(t^2 + 4t)T_e + (4t^2 + 2t)T_m + 2T_H + t^2T_i$	$4T_e + tT_m + 2T_H$	
Yang et al. [14]	$3T_e + 2T_m + T_H$	$4tT_e + 3tT_m + 2T_H + T_i$	$4T_e + tT_m + 2T_H$	
Shao et al. [11]	$3T_e + 2T_m + T_H$	$4tT_e + 3tT_m + 2T_H$	$4T_e + tT_m + 2T_H$	
Hu and Zhang [5]	$(4n+t)T_e + ntT_m + T_H$	$4tT_e + 3tT_m + 2T_H$	$5T_e + tT_m + 2T_H$	
Present study	$3T_e + 2T_m + T_H$	$3tT_e + 2tT_m + 2T_H + T_i$	$3T_e + tT_m + 2T_H$	

Table 2. Computational complexities

Table 3. Overall computational complexities

Scheme	Overall
Sun [12]	$4t^2T_e + (10t^2 + (n-11)t)T_m + 5T_H + t^2)T_i$
Hsu et al. [4]	$(4t^{2} + 5n)T_{e} + (4t^{2} + (n+5)t)T_{m} + 5T_{H} + (t^{2} - 1)T_{i}$
Yang et al. [14]	$(4t+9)T_e + (4t+7)T_m + 5T_H + T_i$
Shao et al. [11]	$(4t+9)T_e + (4t+7)T_m + 5T_H$
Hu and Zhang [5]	$(4n+5t)T_e + ((n+4)t)T_m + 5T_H$
Present study	$(3t+8)T_e + (3t+7)T_m + 5T_H + T_i$

### Table 4. Comparison of attacks

Attack on	Attack	Method of attack
Yang scheme	Frame attack [13]	$m \rightarrow m$ , but $y_i, m_W$ are constant
Yang scheme	Warrant attack [11]	$m_W \rightarrow m'_W$ , but $y_i, m$ are constant
Yang scheme	Public-key attack [5]	$m \rightarrow m'$ , $y_i \rightarrow y_i'$ but $m_W$ is constant
Yang scheme	Warrant attack (present study)	$m_W  ightarrow m'_W$ , $y_i  ightarrow y'_i$ , but $m$ is constant
Hu scheme	Warrant attack (present study)	$m_W \rightarrow m'_W$ , but $y_i, m$ are constant

# 9. Conclusion

In this paper, we have pointed out the both Yang and Hu's schemes still have some security weaknesses, which cannot resist warrant attacks. Finally, to remedy these weaknesses, we proposed new improvements for these schemes.

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