Cryptography 101: From Theory to Practice

**Chapter 7 – Pseudorandom Generators** 

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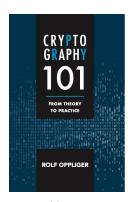
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## Challenge Me



# Part II SECRET KEY CRYPTOSYSTEMS

## Outline

## 7. Pseudorandom Generators

Anyone who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin.

- John von Neumann

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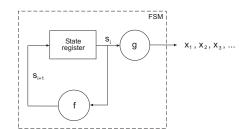


- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Exemplary Constructions
- 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs
- 7.4 Final Remarks

- According to Definition 2.7, a **PRG** is an efficiently computable function that takes as input a relatively short value of length n (i.e., seed) and generates as output a value of length  $l(n) \gg n$  that appears to be random
- L(n) is a stretch function, i.e., a function that stretches an n-bit value into a longer I(n)-bit value with  $n < I(n) \le \infty$
- A PRG is a secret key cryptosystem, because the seed can be seen as a secret key

- If the input and output values are bit sequences, then the PRG is a PRBG
- Mathematically, a PRBG G is a mapping from key space  $\mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^n$  to  $\{0,1\}^{l(n)}$ , i.e.,  $G:\mathcal{K} \longrightarrow \{0,1\}^{l(n)}$ , for which the output appears to be random
- A proper definition of "appears to be random" is challenging, because a PRG operates deterministically
- This is in contrast a (true) random generator

- An idealized model of a PRG consists of
  - A state register (of length n)
  - A next-state or state-transition function f
  - An output function g



#### 7.1 Introduction

- The state register is initialized with an n-bit seed  $s_0$
- In each cycle  $i \ge 0$ , the next-state function f computes  $s_{i+1}$  from  $s_i$ , i.e.,  $s_{i+1} = f(s_i)$ , and  $s_i$  is subject to the output function g
- The result is  $x_i = g(s_i)$ , and the bit sequence

$$(x_i)_{i\geq 1}=x_1,x_2,x_3,\ldots$$

is the output of the PRG

- In the model, the function *f* operates recursively on the state register, and the seed is the only input value
- Some PRGs deviate from this idealized model by allowing the state register to be reseeded periodically
- This may be modeled by having a function *f* take into account additional sources of randomness (not illustrated)
- In this case, the distinction between a PRG and a true random generator gets fuzzy

- In a PRG, the number of states is finite and depends on *n*, i.e., the length of the state register
- There are at most  $2^n 1$  possible states
- This means that after at most  $2^n 1$  cycles, the register is in the same state and the output values start repeating themselves
- The sequence of output values is thus cyclic (with a potentially very large cycle)
- This is why one cannot require that the output of a PRG is truly random, but only that it appears to be so

- A minimal security requirement for a PRG is that n is sufficiently large so that an exhaustive search over all  $2^n 1$  possible states is computationally infeasible
- Also, the output bit sequence must pass all relevant statistical randomness tests
- One must be cautious here, because passing statistical randomness tests is a necessary but usually not sufficient requirement for a PRG to be (cryptographically) secure

#### 7.1 Introduction

- There are PRGs that pass most statistical randomness tests but are inappropriate for cryptographic use
  - PRGs that employ the binary expansion of numbers like  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\sqrt{3}$ , or  $\sqrt{5}$
  - Linear congruential generators that take as input a seed  $x_0 = s_0$  and three integer parameters  $a, b, n \in \mathbb{N}$  with a, b < n, and that use the linear recurrence

$$x_i = (ax_{i-1} + b) \bmod n$$

to recursively generate an output sequence  $(x_i)_{i\geq 1}$ 

#### 7.2 Exemplary Constructions

It is sometimes argued that a PRG can be built from a one-way function f by randomly selecting a seed  $s_0$  and generating the output sequence

$$(x_i)_{i\geq 1} = f(s_0), f(s_0+1), f(s_0+2), f(s_0+3), \dots$$

- The output values need not have good randomness characteristics
- If, for example, g is a one-way function and f extends g by appending a 1, i.e.,  $f(x) = g(x) \| 1$ , then f is still one-way, but it outputs values that all end with a 1

- More involved constructions are required to build a PRG from a one-way function f
  - In each iteration, only a hard-core predicate of f is used (see below)
  - The function *f* is required to be pseudorandom (see next chapter)
- Pseudorandomness is an inherently different property than one-wayness (the construction therefore works for pseudorandom functions but not for one-way functions)

- In the past, people have tried to build PRGs from linear feedback shift registers (LFSRs)
- Using a single LFSR has turned out to be insufficient
- So people have tried to use multiple LFSRs with irregular clocking, e.g., A5/1 and A5/2 (GSM), CSS (DVD encryption), or E0 (Bluetooth encryption)
- Most of these LFSR-based PRGs are "insecure"
- More secure variants
  - Shrinking generator
  - Self-shrinking generator

- The **shrinking generator** employs 2 LFSRs A and S to generate two sequences  $(a_i)_{i\geq 0}$  and  $(s_i)_{i\geq 0}$
- In clock cycle  $i \ge 0$ , the generator outputs  $a_i$  if and only if  $s_i = 1$  (otherwise,  $a_i$  is discarded)

- The **self-shrinking generator** employs only one LFSR A to generate the sequence  $(a_i)_{i\geq 0}$
- In clock cycle i, the generator outputs  $a_{2i+1}$  if and only if  $a_{2i} = 1$  (otherwise,  $a_{2i+1}$  is discarded)

#### 7.2 Exemplary Constructions

- LFSR-based PRGs are not so popular anymore, mainly because they depend on hardware
- Most people prefer software implementations
- A practically relevant PRG is specified in ANSI X9.17 (with DES or 3DES)

#### **Algorithm 7.1** ANSI X9.17 PRG

$$(s_0, k, n)$$

$$I = E_k(D)$$

$$s = s_0$$
for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
$$x_i = E_k(I \oplus s)$$

$$s = E_k(x_i \oplus I)$$
output  $x_i$ 

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)$$

- Besides ANSI X9.17, there are several other PRGs used in the field (e.g., Yarrow, Fortuna, ...)
- There are only a few security analyses for these PRGs
- In some literature, such they are called practically strong
- A practically strong PRG is designed in an ad hoc way but believed to resist known attacks
- This is different from a cryptographically secure PRG

- There are several possibilities to formally define the cryptographical strength (and security) of a PRG
- Historically, the first definition was proposed by Manuel Blum and Silvio Micali in the early 1980s
- They argued that a PRG is cryptographically secure, if an adversary after having seen a sequence of output values is not able to predict the next value with a success probability that is better than guessing (i.e., next-bit test)
- They also proposed a cryptographically secure PRG that is based on the DLP

- Shortly after this seminal work, Manuel Blum together with Leonore Blum and Michael Shub – proposed the BBS PRG or squaring generator
- It is cryptographically secure assuming the intractability of the quadratic residuosity problem (QRP)
- The BBS PRG is still the yardstick for cryptographically secure PRGs (see below)

- A cryptographically secure PRG is also **perfect** in the sense that no PPT algorithm can tell whether an n-bit string has been sampled uniformly at random from  $\{0,1\}^n$  or generated with the PRG (using a proper seed) with a success probability that is better than guessing
- This means that a PRG that passes the next-bit test is perfect in the sense that it passes all polynomial-time (statistical) tests to distinguish it from a true random generator

- The (mathematical) tool to argue about this notion of security is computational indistinguishability
- Formally, a **probability ensemble** is a family of probability distributions (or random variables)  $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in I}$ , where I is an index set and each  $X_i$  is a distinct probability distribution (sometimes also denoted  $P_{X_i}$ )
- Typically,  $I = \mathbb{N}$ , and hence there is an  $X_n$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

#### 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs

Let

$$X = \{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = \{X_1, X_2, X_3, \ldots\}$$

and

$$Y = \{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = \{Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, \ldots\}$$

be two probability ensembles, i.e., for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$   $X_n$  and  $Y_n$  refer to probability distributions on  $\{0,1\}^n$ 

■  $t \leftarrow X_n$  ( $t \leftarrow Y_n$ ) means that t is sampled according to the probability distribution  $X_n$  ( $Y_n$ )

#### 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs

■ X is **polytime indistinguishable** from Y, if for every PPT algorithm A and every polynomial p, there exists a  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n > n_0$ 

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} \Pr[A(t)=1] & - & \Pr[A(t)=1] \\ t \leftarrow X_n & t \leftarrow Y_n \end{array} \right| \leq \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

- This means that for sufficiently large t, no PPT algorithm A can distinguish whether it is sampled according to  $X_n$  or  $Y_n$
- In some literature, A is called a polynomial-time statistical test or distinguisher (sometimes denoted D)

- Using this notion of indistinguishability, pesudorandomness can be defined precisely
- $X = \{X_n\}$  is **pseudorandom** if it is polytime indistinguishable from  $U = \{U_n\}$ , i.e., the uniform probability distribution on  $\{0,1\}^n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- This means that for every PPT algorithm A and every polynomial p, there exists a  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n > n_0$

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} \Pr[A(t) = 1] & - & \Pr[A(t) = 1] \\ t \leftarrow X_n & t \leftarrow U_n \end{array} \right| \leq \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

#### 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs

Let G be a PRG with stretch function  $I: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  and I(n) > n for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $\{G_n\}$  be the distribution defined as the I(n)-bit output of G on a seed that is sampled uniformly at random from  $\{0,1\}^n$ 

## Definition 7.1 (Cryptographically secure PRG)

G is cryptographically secure if  $\{G_n\}$  is pseudorandom, i.e., it is polytime indistinguishable from  $\{U_{l(n)}\}$ 

#### 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs

This means that that for every PPT algorithm A and every polynomial p, there exists a  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}^+$  such that for all  $n > n_0$ 

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} \mathsf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}(G(t)) = 1] & - & \mathsf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}(t) = 1] \\ t \leftarrow U_n & t \leftarrow U_{l(n)} \end{array} \right| \leq \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

The leftside term stands for the PRG advantage of A with respect to PRG G, denoted  $\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathrm{PRG}}[A,G]$ 

#### 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs

- To argue about the security of *G*, one must be interested in the PPT algorithm *A* with maximal PRG advantage
- $lue{}$  This yields the PRG advantage of G that is defined as

$$Adv_{PRG}[G] = \max_{A} \{Adv_{PRG}[A, G]\}$$

■ G is secure, if  $\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathrm{PRG}}[G]$  is negligible, i.e., for every polynomial p, there exists a  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n > n_0$ 

$$Adv_{PRG}[G] \leq \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

#### 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs

• If f is a one-way function with hard-core predicate B, then the following PRG G with seed  $s_0$  is cryptographically secure:

$$G(s_0) = B(f(s_0)), B(f^2(s_0)), \dots, B(f^{l(n)}(s_0))$$

- Talking in terms of the idealized model of a PRG, the state register is initialized with  $s_0$ , the next-state function f is the one-way function, and the output function g refers to the hard-core predicate B
- This idea is used in many cryptographically secure PRGs

#### 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs

#### Algorithm 7.2 The Blum-Micali PRG

$$(p,g)$$

$$x_0 \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^*$$
for  $i = 1$  to  $\infty$  do
$$x_i = g^{x_{i-1}} \mod p$$

$$b_i = msb(x_i)$$
output  $b_i$ 

$$(b_i)_{i>1}$$

#### Algorithm 7.3 The RSA PRG

$$(n, e)$$

$$x_0 \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_n^*$$
for  $i = 1$  to  $\infty$  do
$$x_i = x_{i-1}^e \mod n$$

$$b_i = lsb(x_i)$$
output  $b_i$ 

$$(b_i)_{i>1}$$

#### 7.3 Cryptographically Secure PRGs

#### Algorithm 7.4 The BBS PRG

$$(n)$$

$$x_0 \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_n^*$$
for  $i = 1$  to  $\infty$  do
$$x_i = x_{i-1}^2 \mod n$$

$$b_i = lsb(x_i)$$
output  $b_i$ 

$$(b_i)_{i>1}$$

The BBS PRG has the practically relevant property that  $x_i$  can be computed directly for  $i \geq 1$  if one knows the factorization of n

$$x_i = x_0^{(2^i) \bmod ((p-1)(q-1))}$$

- All PRGs in use today critically assume that their internal state can be kept secret
- In practice, it may still happen that the adversary can acquire the internal state
- This may make it necessary to periodically reseed the state
- Some practically strong PRGs take this into account and have an accumulator that collects and pools entropy from various sources to periodically reseed the generator

- There are many applications of PRGs
- If a lot of keying material is required, then they can complement (rather than replace) true random bit generators
- If a PRG is used to derive keying material from a single master key or password, then it is called a key derivation function (KDF) or a mask generation function (MGF)

#### 7.4 Final Remarks

■ Technically speaking, a KDF (MGF) can be implemented with a function  $f_k$  (from PRF family F) as follows:

$$KDF(k, c, l) = f_k(c \parallel 0) \parallel f_k(c \parallel 1) \parallel ... \parallel f_k(c \parallel n - 1)$$

- In this notation, c is a context string (acting as "salt") and I is the number of bytes that need to be generated
- If b is the output length of  $f_k$ , then  $n = \lceil I/b \rceil$

- The security of this construction requires k to be uniform in K
- This requirement is crucial and may not always be fulfilled
- For example, if k is the outcome of a key agreement, then k may be biased or originate from a relatively small subset of K
- Some preprocessing may be required here (to extract a uniform and pseudorandom key from the source key)
- There are standards that serve this purpose, such as KDF1 to KDF4 and the HMAC-based extract-and-expand key derivation function (HKDF)

- Another example where k may not be uniform in  $\mathcal{K}$  is when a user selects a password
- User-selected passwords do not provide a lot of entropy
- For this use case, there are special-purpose password-based key derivation functions (PBKDF), such as PBKDF1 and PBKDF2
- These functions are typically slowed down artificially (e.g., through iteration) to mitigate (offline) password guessing attacks

- Another approach to mitigate (offline) password guessing attacks is to make the PBKDF memory-hard (e.g., scrypt and Balloon)
- The Password Hashing Competition (PHC) was a privately initiated competition for a standardized PBKDF that took place from 2013 to 2015
- The final winner of the PHC was Argon2, but special recognition was also given to Catena, Lyra2, yescrypt, and Makwa

## Questions and Answers



## Thank you for your attention

