# Applied Cryptography <br> Week 2: Randomness and Cryptographic Security 

Bernardo Portela

M:ERSI, M:SI - 23

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## For Asymmetric Crypto

- Key generation algorithm $\rightarrow$ key pair
- Private key holder generates both keys; publishes public key
- Asymmetric keys are typically much larger
- RSA keys take roughly 4096 -bits for 128 -bit security
- Elliptic-curve keys take roughly 400 -bits for 128 -bit security


## Storage and Generation

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Key wrapping

- Long-term keys are often wrapped before storage
- To encrypt with another key
- Password-based encryption (low security)
- Wrap with HW-protected master key (standard security)
- Master key stored in trusted hardware (high security)


## To Be Random

Q1: Which of these numbers are random?

1. 00000000
2. 10101010
3. 00100100
4. 10011101

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Q2: Which of these numbers will more likely appear in a fair randomness generator?

## Randomness Distributions

Randomized processes described using randomness distributions.
We start with the uniform distribution over a finite field $S$.
A process $U$ samples from the uniform distribution if

$$
\forall s^{*} \in S, \operatorname{Pr}\left[s=s^{*}: s \leftarrow U\right]=\frac{1}{|S|}
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$$
\frac{2}{2^{8}} \approx 0.0078
$$

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- How to use uniformly generated bytes for this?


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Bad corner case: bytes 0 and 255 both give us 0 !
Q2: Get a byte, exclude value 255 and retry. Is it uniform?
It is, and is called rejection sampling. Q3: what is the downside?

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- It is maximized by the uniform distribution, with entropy $\lambda$

$$
2^{8} \cdot\left(-\frac{1}{2^{8}} \cdot \log _{2}\left(\frac{1}{2^{8}}\right)\right)=8
$$

- Entropy here quantifies the number of uncertainty bits
- In this example, we are uncertain of exactly 8 bits
- If a sampling is biased, it has less uncertainty, i.e. entropy


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- It starts with a physical process
- A source of entropy, e.g., some natural process that is believed to sample $I$-bits from a high-entropy distribution
- Typically I >> $\lambda$ where $\lambda$ is the assumed entropy
- Randomness extractors (often a hash function) compress such bit strings down to $\lambda$ bits
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- The result bit strings are assumed to be uniform
- The combined process is called a Random Number Generator
- High-security RNGs currently exploit quantum effects


## Pseudorandom Generators - Part 1

Good randomness is hard to generate, so RNGs are usually slow
Pseudorandom Generators are crypto's response to this problem:

- PRG takes a small, uniform seed of length $\lambda$
- Generates long, random-looking bit strings $I \gg \lambda$
- PRGs are deterministic algorithms!


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A Pseudorandom generator is a function $G:\{0,1\}^{\lambda} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\prime}$
Security: (without delving deep in probability) an attacker must be unable of distinguishing PRG outputs from a truly random string

## Pseudorandom Generators - Part 2

$$
P R G:\{0,1\}^{\lambda} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\prime}
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Reasoning

- Use a strong RNG to generate seed $r$ of (small) size $\lambda$
- Use the PRG on seed $r$ to generate (much larger) $r^{\prime}$ of size $I$


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Q: Can we have secure PRGs (indistinguishable from uniform distribution), considering adversaries with unbound power?

## Security of Pseudorandom Generators

$$
U:\{0,1\}^{\prime} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\prime}
$$



$$
P R G:\{0,1\}^{\lambda} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\prime}
$$



- An adversary can simply test all $2^{\lambda}$ cases
- Security refers to a computationally limited adversary
- One that cannot (realistically) test all possible PRG inputs


## Security in Practice

Redefine "impossible to break"

- With reasonable resources (time, memory, HW power)
- With probability higher than negligible


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Practical schemes are computationally impossible to break
Take an encryption scheme and an attacker that does not know $k$

- Attacker chooses non-repeating inputs $X_{i}$ and gets
- $Y_{i}$ chosen uniformly at random if $b=1$
- $Y_{i}=E\left(k, X_{i}\right)$ if $b=0$
- Attacker guesses $b$ and wins if $b=b^{\prime}$


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We define the adversary's advantage $\epsilon$ as

$$
\epsilon=\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=1 \mid b=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=1 \mid b=0\right]\right|
$$

Best attack for $\epsilon=2^{-40}$ takes $2^{80}$ steps

## Concrete Numbers - Part 1

Some numbers for scale

- Not easy to perceive very very large numbers
- The estimated age of the universe in nanosecs is around $2^{88}$
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- A common size for keys is 128 bits
- Consider the following events
- Winning a lottery with 9 million participants (all of Portugal)
- Guessing a $2^{128}$ size key at the first try


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Q1: Which event is more likely?

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Q1: Which event is more likely?
Q2: By how much?

## Concrete Numbers - Part 2

Security is defined as $(t, \epsilon)$-security

- For some well-defined attack model
- Any attacker must run in at most $t$ steps
- Has at most $\epsilon$ success advantage/probability
- $t$ is a lower-bound on the work needed to break the scheme


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Q1: For $t=2^{128}$, what is $\epsilon$ ?

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Q3: For $t=2^{64}$, what is $\epsilon$ ? $\epsilon=2^{-64}$
The more tries you get, the greater $\epsilon$ becomes: $\left(t, t / 2^{128}\right)$ security

## Quantifying Security

Lower bound on the work required for a successful attack
Number of steps of the best attack

- $n$-bits security
- Best attack to break the scheme requires $2^{n}$ steps
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- Q2: When?
- Best attack is more efficient than brute-force
- Common in asymmetric cryptography
- Keys must follow specific structures, not random bit strings
- Quantifying using $n$-bit security permits comparing schemes


## Good Security Values for Real-world Crypto

The $2^{128}$ rule of thumb

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For how long do we need security to hold?

- Moore's law: computational power doubles every 2 years
- $n+1$ bit security every 2 years
- This no longer seems to be true, but...
- Maybe we will have quantum computers soon

Long-term security: $\approx 256$-bit keys
Short-term security: $\approx 80$-bit keys may be OK

## Stateful PRGs in Operating Systems

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Extract and expand randomness

- st $\leftarrow \operatorname{init}(): \mathrm{SO}$ initializes state
- $s t \leftarrow \operatorname{refresh}(R, s t)$ : SO adds entropy (reseeds)
- $(C, s t) \leftarrow \operatorname{next}(N, s t)$ : SO returns $N$ random bits


## Dealing With a Compromised State

## Backtracking $\Leftarrow$ resistance

- Suppose an adversary corrupts the PRG state
- Past randomness should not be compromised
- We might have used it to generate cryptographic material
- A.k.a. forward secrecy (for past secret keys)


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Prediction $\Rightarrow$ resistance

- Suppose the adversary corrupts the PRG state
- SO adds extra (hidden) entropy to PRG state
- Future output should look random once more
- Hence refresh must be called regularly


## Linux systems

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- Careful to make sure system calls are successful!


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Link to code from LibreSSL
In some variants, there is a blocking / dev/random based on an entropy simulator

- Check if there is "sufficient entropy"
- Blocks otherwise
- Current consensus indicates that, for most applications, this is not useful (see this link for more information)


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- Look for patterns
- ...

Irrelevant for Security

- Possible to pass statistical tests
- Totally insecure for cryptographic purposes


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Cryptographic PRGs come with a proof of security

- Goal: Given $n$ bits of input, can an adversary guess bit $n+1$ ?
- Secure PRGs used directly, or as building blocks to other PRGs


## Security Assurance

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- Cryptanalysts trying to disprove $n$-bit security
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Provable Security

- Mathematical proof
- Breaking a scheme implies solving a hard problem
- A mathematical problem, or breaking another scheme!


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Assumption: mathematical problem $P$ cannot be efficiently solved
Goal: Breaking scheme $C$ cannot be efficiently done

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Methodology: building a reduction

- Take any (hypothetical) attacker $\mathcal{A}$ that breaks $C$
- Construct (concrete) reduction $\mathcal{B}^{\mathcal{A}}$
- I.e. $\mathcal{B}$ uses $\mathcal{A}$ as a subroutine
- Show that $\mathcal{B}$ solves $P$ when $\mathcal{A}$ succeeds

We never state that $C$ is secure by itself
We state that $C$ is as secure as the hardness of $P$

## An Example of Provable Security - Part 1

Assume that AES is a semantic secure scheme, i.e.


An adversary with non-negligible victory probability (over $\frac{1}{2}$ ), i.e a successful $\mathcal{A}$ must not exist!

## An Example of Provable Security - Part 2

Consider an encryption scheme that just repeats AES 2 times.

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E(k, m)=\operatorname{AES}(k, m) \mid \operatorname{AES}(k, m)
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Q: given that AES is secure, is this secure?

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Q: given that AES is secure, is this secure?

- It should be...
- We are just repeating the encryption
- Can we demonstrate this?


## An Example of Provable Security - Part 3



- Suppose a successful $\mathcal{B}$ exists
- Then, we can construct a concrete $\mathcal{A}$ to break AES like this
- Contradiction! We assumed that no such $\mathcal{A}$ can exist!


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Corollary

- No $\mathcal{B}^{\mathcal{A}}$ can exist (AES is secure)
- As such, no $\mathcal{A}$ can exist
- So, scheme $E$ must be secure!


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Proof assurance $\leq$ assumption assurance

- Proofs of security are relative to assumptions
- Security only holds if assumptions are true

Most of the assumptions are validated via heuristic security

## Heuristic Security

Validating hardness assumptions is crucial for modern cryptography
Methodology for heuristic security has been progressing

- Standards take years to define
- Competitions where proposals are scrutinized
- It is how AES was established as the de facto encryption standard for the overwhelming majority of applications
- And is how PQ encryption schemes are being selected
- "My construction wins if I break your construction"
- Yet again we see the value of the Kerckhoffs's principle!


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