Applied Cryptography Week 2: Randomness and Cryptographic Security

Bernardo Portela

M:ERSI, M:SI - 23

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- Generated uniformly at random
- Derived using a Key Derivation Function
 - From a password or low entropy secret
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For Asymmetric Crypto

- ullet Key generation algorithm o 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

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Ideally, in an external secure hardware

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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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- The bit generation process
- The bit string sampling procedure

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- The bit string sampling procedure

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

$$\forall s^* \in S, \Pr[s = s^* : s \leftarrow S] = \frac{1}{|S|}$$

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$$\frac{2}{2^8} \approx 0.0078$$

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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 λ

$$2^8 \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2^8} \cdot \log_2(\frac{1}{2^8}) \right) = 8$$

- 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

How do we get uniform coins?

Random Number Generators

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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 $l >> \lambda$ where λ is the assumed entropy
 - Randomness extractors (often a hash function) compress such bit strings down to λ bits
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- The combined process is called a Random Number Generator
- High-security RNGs currently exploit quantum effects

Good randomness is hard to generate, so RNGs are usually slow

Pseudorandom Generators are crypto's response to this problem:

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

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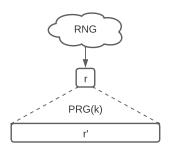
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A Pseudorandom generator is a function $G:\{0,1\}^{\lambda} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{I}$

Security: (without delving deep in probability) an attacker must be unable of distinguishing PRG outputs from a truly random string

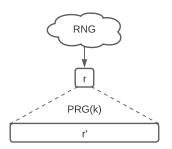
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Reasoning

- Use a strong RNG to generate seed r of (small) size λ
- Use the PRG on seed r to generate (much larger) r' of size I

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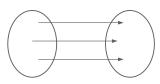
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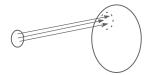
Q: Can we have secure PRGs (indistinguishable from uniform distribution), considering adversaries with unbound power?

Security of Pseudorandom Generators

$$U: \{0,1\}^I \to \{0,1\}^I$$



$$\textit{PRG}: \{0,1\}^{\lambda} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{\textit{I}}$$



- An adversary can simply test all 2^{λ} 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)
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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
 - $Y_i = E(k, X_i)$ if b = 0
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We define the adversary's advantage ϵ as

$$\epsilon = |\Pr[b' = 1|b = 1] - \Pr[b' = 1|b = 0]|$$

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

Some numbers for scale

- Not easy to perceive very very large numbers
- The estimated age of the universe in nanosecs is around 2⁸⁸
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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)
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Q2: By how much?

Security is defined as (t, ϵ) -security

- For some well-defined attack model.
- Any attacker must run in at most t steps
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Define security of the best possible encryption with key space 2¹²⁸

```
Q1: For t = 2^{128}, what is \epsilon? \epsilon = 1
```

Q2: For t = 1, what is ϵ ?

Cryptographic Keys

Concrete Numbers - Part 2

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The more tries you get, the greater ϵ becomes: $(t, t/2^{128})$ security

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- *I*-bit keys could lead to *n*-bit security s.t. n << t
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 - 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

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

Dealing With a Compromised State

Backtracking ← resistance

- Suppose an adversary corrupts the PRG state
- Past randomness should not be compromised
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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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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)

• Q: What type of tests can we do over "random" inputs?

Caution: statistical tests are not sufficient

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 - Count number of 1s and 0s
 - Check distribution of 8-bit words.
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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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Heuristic Security

- Large community constantly trying to break schemes
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Provable Security

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

Provable Security

Assumption: mathematical problem *P* cannot be efficiently solved

Goal: Breaking scheme *C* cannot be efficiently done

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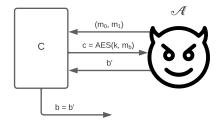
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Methodology: building a reduction

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

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

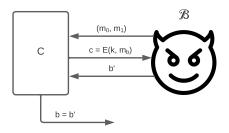
Assume that AES is a semantic secure scheme, i.e.



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

Consider an encryption scheme that just repeats AES 2 times.

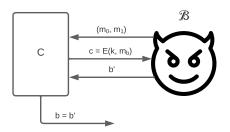
$$E(k, m) = AES(k, m) \mid AES(k, m)$$



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

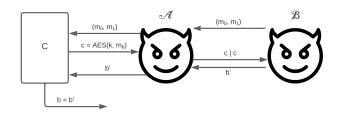
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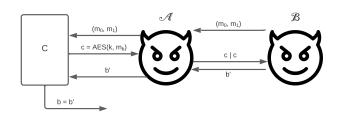


Q: given that AES is secure, is this secure?

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



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

Caveats of Provable Security

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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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