

Randomness in Cryptography: Theory Meets Practice

Daniel Oliver James Hutchinson

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Information Security Group
Department of Mathematics
Royal Holloway, University of London

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Declaration

These doctoral studies were conducted under the supervision of Prof. Kenneth G. Paterson.

The work presented in this thesis is the result of original research carried out by myself, in collaboration with others, whilst enrolled in the Department of Mathematics as a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. This work has not been submitted for any other degree or award in any other university or educational establishment.

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Abstract

Randomness is a key ingredient in every area of cryptography; and as the quote goes, producing it should not be left to chance. Unfortunately it's very difficult to produce true randomness, and consuming applications often call for large, high quality amounts on boot or in quick succession. To meet this requirement we make use of Pseudo-Random Number Generators (PRNGs) which we initialise with a small amount of randomness to produce what we hope to be high quality pseudo-random output.

In this thesis we investigate some of the different security models associated with capturing what makes a “good” PRNG, along with the problem of constructing a secure PRNG by adapting primitives available. We focus mainly on the sponge construction, noting that the original formulation does not lend itself well to a secure PRNG but with some adjustment can be made into a robust and secure PRNG. This is done by utilising a feed-forward of the inner, secure part of the sponge state, which establishes an efficient forward security mechanism.

We then present an updated security model for PRNGs designed to capture variable output subroutines present in some PRNGs where an adversary is allowed to request differing amounts of output with each call to the PRNG. We maintain the ability to prove robustness via two simpler security notions which are now extended to variable-output versions.

We then follow with an analysis of the NIST PRNGs in this new security model, which served as motivation for updating the security model. We show that under certain assumptions the NIST generators do satisfy security in this model.

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Acronyms

ctr.drbg	The NIST DRBG based on a block cipher.
DRBG	Deterministic Random Bit Generator.
hash_drbg	The NIST DRBG based on a hash function.
PRF	Pseudo-random function.
PRG	Pseudo-Random Number Generator.
PRNG	Pseudo-Random Number Generator.
PRP	Pseudo-random permutation.
PWI	PRNG with Input.
Reverie	Our PRNG design.
sponge.prng	The SpongePRNG design.
VOPWI	Variable-Output PRNG with Input.

Notation

Notation

$x \leftarrow y$	When specifying algorithms, this denotes writing the value y to the variable x .
$x \xleftarrow{\$} y$	When $x \in X$ and X is a finite set, this denotes choosing an element of X uniformly at random and writing it to the variable x .
$x \leftarrow A(x_1, \dots, x_n)$	For a deterministic algorithm A , running A with inputs x_1, \dots, x_n and output x .
$x \xleftarrow{\$} A(x_1, \dots, x_n)$	For a probabilistic algorithm A , running A with inputs x_1, \dots, x_n and output x .
b	The width of a sponge state, in bits.
c	The capacity of a sponge state, in bits.
\mathcal{D}	A Distribution Sampler, used in security proofs to model the entropy pool available to a PRNG.
d	An enumeration of the number of entropy inputs into a PRNG.
$E_k(v)$	The block cipher encryption of an input v under a key k .
func_n	The set of all functions on n -bit strings.
H	A hash function.
$H_\infty()$	Minimum entropy.
I	Entropy input into a PRNG, often from an entropy source.
λ	The security parameter of a construction.
M	A masking function which outputs an ideal state when applied to a PRNG state.
n_E	The size of the block cipher's input and output block.
\mathcal{P}_n	The set of all permutations on n -bit strings.
r	The output length of a sponge function, in bits.

Notation

\mathcal{RO}	A Random Oracle.
s_i	The i th state of a PRNG.
\bar{s}_i	The i th outer state of a sponge-based PRNG.
\widehat{s}_i	The i th inner state of a sponge-based PRNG.
SD	The statistical difference of two distributions.
t_i	The image of s_i under the permutation π .
\bar{t}_i	The outer part of the image of s_i under the permutation π .
\widehat{t}_i	The inner part of the image of s_i under the permutation π .
v_i	A sub-state of the i th working state of the NIST Deterministic Random Bit Generators (DRBG s).
z_i	The updated state derived from the s_i under the permutation π .
\bar{z}_i	The outer part of the updated state derived from the s_i under the permutation π .
\widehat{z}_i	The inner part of the updated state derived from the s_i under the permutation π .

Introduction

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This chapter gives an overview of the thesis. This includes both the motivation and contributions included in the thesis. In this chapter we also give a brief roadmap of the overall structure of the thesis.

1.1 Motivation

Research over the last few decades on cryptography has seen a divergence in theoretical and practical cryptography. The current climate of real world applications calls for more theoretically informed practical designs, along with an interest in designs that are backed by a proof in the theoretical setting. Many designs in the literature are still focused entirely on the theoretical setting with little thought of the practical restraints and considerations. This can be attributed to modelling the adversary; the strength and abilities she entails along with the environment a system is running in. Often, PRNGs are designed either entirely from the practical perspective with little involvement of theoretical-methods and literature, and are later analysed when the research has caught up. This can result in catastrophic cases of bad randomness undermining otherwise secure cryptosystems when vulnerabilities and flaws are discovered, such as papers attacking RC4 in TLS (such as [32]). Fortunately, there are an increasing number of competition-based design programs, such as the SHA3, CAESAR and NIST PQC competitions, that have meant more time and minds are focused on confirming designs before they are utilised. However, this still often draws primarily on practical considerations over theoretical, model based analysis.

1.1 Motivation

We would like to further the effort to bring theoretical security closer to practical security by improving the PRNG security models, specifically those based upon [29], by using more considerations used in practice to inform the model, such as reliability of the PRNG at boot. Currently one of the largest disparities is the notion of entropy estimation in a generator. In practice, a generator must utilise a mechanism to estimate the current entropy of the state of the generator, which is often realised by using health checking systems that monitor both ingoing entropic strings and the output of the generator. In theoretical security models this is avoided by making it part of the adversary to guarantee minimum entropy entering into the PRNG, while keeping the possible entropy sources as wide as possible; in practice, entropy sources may be far more reliable than is assumed in theory. This is obviously beneficial in that a theoretically secure generator secure against relatively low or unreliable entropy sources paired with a “better” entropy source should perform even better in practice.

Another major difference between theory and practice in the context of PRNGs is the notion of the seed of a generator. In practice, the generator must initialise itself with what entropy is available, which may cause issues on its own when this initial entropy is insufficient. We will touch on this below. In the theoretical setting we often rely on a uniformly random seed generated at initialisation by the generator from an independent entropy source to mitigate a class of attacker, or rather entropy source, that can inform the future states of a generator. In practice this is not the case, since there is not enough entropy and, as we stated above, the class of entropy sources is much more restricted in the amount of output available, though generally at a higher quality than is assumed in theory.

We now provide a brief explanation of what problems can arise from bad randomness and how it is more than just a theoretical problem. The authors of [37] and [41] investigated the security of certificates produced by factory-installed PRNGs and find some worrying conclusions.

In [37] the authors used a three-phase data collection process consisting of:

1. Host discovery: Scanning the public IPv4 address space to find hosts with port 443 (HTTPS) or port 22 (SSH) open.

1.1 Motivation

2. Certificate and host-key retrieval: The second phase was to attempt either a TLS or SSH handshake and storing the presented certificate chain for TLS or the host-key for SSH.
3. Lastly the TLS certificate chains were parsed to generate a relational database from the X.509 fields.

This led to 5.8 million unique TLS certificates from 12.8 million hosts and 6.2 million unique SSH host keys from 10.2 million hosts. Of these, 5.57% of TLS hosts and 9.60% of SSH hosts used the same keys as other hosts in an apparently vulnerable way. The authors were in fact able to compute the private keys for 64,000 (or 0.50%) of the TLS hosts and 108,000 (1.06%) of the SSH hosts with no other information by exploiting weaknesses in RSA and DSA when used with insufficient randomness.

The authors use an interesting quasilinear greatest common divisor (gcd) finding algorithm to compute the pairwise gcds of all the RSA moduli, yielding 66,540 vulnerable hosts who shared one of their RSA prime factors with another host in the survey. Vulnerable hosts included routers, server management cards, firewalls and other network devices, all of which are headless¹ and lack a human input in terms of random entropy or, in other words, have access to only limited entropy sources.

Throughout the paper the authors have tried to determine exactly why they have found what they found and have done more research to find causes of confusion, such as a collection of moduli based on all combinations of nine primes which turned out to be a single company.

In [41] the authors collected 11.7 million public keys using a variety of sources, including the EFF SSL repository. They collected 6.4 million distinct RSA moduli with the remaining keys roughly evenly split between ElGamal keys and DSA keys, plus a single ECDSA key. They found that of the 6.4 million RSA moduli, 4% shared their RSA modulus, often involving unrelated parties. They also found that 1.1% of the RSA moduli occur more than once, some of them thousands of times. They determined that 12,934 RSA moduli offered no security, either due to expired

¹Headless means with no direct input or user interface (UI) output such as a monitor.

1.1 Motivation

certificates or use of MD5 as a hash function. However 5250 of the certificates, including 3201 distinct 1024-bit RSA moduli are still valid and use SHA1.

Interestingly the authors went on to model the RSA moduli as graphs with edges corresponding to the moduli connecting two (hopefully) unidentifiable primes as vertices. Ideally, for c distinct moduli it is hoped that the graph representation consists of c connected components, of one edge connecting two unknown primes. Unfortunately, even for a small amount of moduli this was not the case; (see [41, page 7-8]).

The authors concluded that the amount of shared primes, especially RSA primes, is unacceptable and worrying, especially since many are still used and valid. The authors have suggested that this is possibly due to incorrect seeding of random number generators. They go on to show support for NIST's decision to adopt DSA as a digital signature standard but point out the weakness of ElGamal and ECDSA if the required random nonce is not properly used.

These issues are not restricted to just the generation of RSA keys. In December 2010 there was the Sony Playstation hack where the ECDSA key was recovered due to incorrect random nonce generation. In August 2013 there was a bug in android that meant the PRNG was not initialised correctly and resulted in a similar recovery of ECDSA keys that in turn, led to the theft of large sums of bitcoins. Similarly, an HTTP session ID compromise via the java servlets engine was published in [35]. In the 2010 paper by Ristenpart and Yilek [52], the authors reuse of random values via reusing a VM snapshot lead to vulnerabilities in TLS such as compromise of Diffie Hellman key exchange. A talk at the Blackhat USA conference [10] by Becherer, Stamos and Wilcox presented how bad randomness can be used in an attack in the cloud setting, such as requesting large numbers of password resets for a single account, which all remain valid and active, followed by attempting to guess one of these randomly generated password reset urls to gain access to an account.

1.2 Contributions

We begin addressing some of the shortcomings mentioned in Section 1.1 in this thesis. Namely, we present an improved PRNG design with practicality in mind, followed by extending the security model to better capture practical requirements of PRNGs. Finally, we provide a security analysis of a pair of NIST PRNGs that, at the time of writing, have not received any formal analysis. The main contributions of this thesis are summarised below:

- We provide an improved sponge-like PRNG design and prove that it satisfies the robustness security property in the ideal permutation model, where the underlying permutation is modelled as a public, random permutation. Our design requires far fewer calls to the underlying permutation which has efficiency benefits, especially in constrained environments and makes collisions of the state of the generator less likely. We prove that although this design departs from the sponge design, it is still encapsulated by the more general family of parazoa designs. We present some implementation efficiency comparisons between our design and the original sponge-based design.
- We next extend the current security model, allowing for analysis of PRNGs with subroutines to produce variable amounts of output without updating the internal state of the generator; or, in other words, PRNGs that allow an adversary to request varying amounts of output with each call to the generator. We also add several changes that we believe allows us to better specify and model PRNGs in practise. We define the notion of a variable-output PRNG with input, or, VOPWI which allows an adversary to vary the amount of output received per internal state update of the generator. This new notion allows us to analyse the security of PRNGs when outputting large amounts of output quickly versus a smaller amount over many more calls. We formalise the need for a `seedgen` algorithm and how the `setup` algorithm should be provided with entropy to generate the initial state of a generator.

1.3 Structure of Thesis

- Using our updated security model we analyse the NIST PRNGs, namely the `hashdrbg` and `ctrdrbg`. We analyse both designs in our new VOPWI security model, while discussing the different design choices and how they affect analysis. We then prove the generators are robust under several necessary assumptions.

Parts of the research findings in this thesis have been published at SAC 2016 [39], namely, Chapter 3.

1.3 Structure of Thesis

The main body of the thesis is organised as follows:

Chapter 2 In this chapter we provide the preliminaries and background necessary for the rest of the thesis. Some sections will refer back to parts of this chapter for basic definitions, while more complex or altered definitions are included in context throughout the remaining chapters.

Chapter 3 This chapter presents an improved design of a sponge-like PRNG based upon the original sponge PRNG design in [18]. We show that our design is more efficient due to fewer calls to the underlying permutation and prove that it satisfies the notions of preserving and recovering security. This allows us to conclude that the generator satisfies the robustness notion of security. We conclude by briefly comparing the design to the original sponge design by considering the design as part of the wider parazoa family.

1.3 Structure of Thesis

Chapter 4 This chapter outlines several updates to the security model of PWIs given in [29], incorporating and building upon updates from [55]. We provide updates that allow the capture of a more practical design of a PWI, along with the ability of an adversary to request varying amounts of output per call to the next function of the generator. The latter is an almost mirror of the update the authors of [29] made to the security notion of refreshing the generator from [4] to enable an adversary to slowly feed entropy into the generator, as opposed to all at once. Our update in essence allows an adversary to extract output in small parts or all at once. We build upon the notion of a masking function by allowing different distributions for different situations in the security games, reflecting on how some parts of the state may remain unchanged or may change in different ways. We formally define new versions of preserving and recovering security before proving our own updated version of robustness.

Chapter 5 We utilise our updated security model from the previous chapter to analyse the security of the NIST random bit generators as defined in [7]. We chose to update the security model to allow us to capture the subroutines and behaviour of the NIST generators that allow for varying amounts of output at each call. Since the generators are specified in full, we are also able to formally define the other algorithms such as the `seedgen` algorithm, though we are forced to make an assumption on its output to achieve security. We conclude that under several strong assumptions, the generators are variable-output robust, however these assumptions do not necessarily transfer to practical implementations.

Chapter 6 We provide our conclusions and thoughts on future work in the related areas.

Background Materials

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2.1 Preliminaries

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This chapter introduces the notation and provides an overview of the necessary background material required for the future chapters. This includes introductory definitions of pseudo-random number generators, related security models, other useful primitives and some proof techniques that will be used.

2.1 Preliminaries

Much of this chapter is based on definitions from Katz and Lindell [40], Bellare and Rogaway [14] and the in-progress book by Boneh and Shoup [21]. For the reader's convenience, an acronym and notation list are given on Page 12.

Definition 2.1.1. Let f and g be functions on the real numbers. We say that $f(x) = O(g(x))$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ if and only if $\exists M \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $|f(x)| \leq M|g(x)|$ for all $x \geq x_0$.

Definition 2.1.2. An algorithm taking input of size $k \in \mathbb{N}$ is said to be polynomial time if it always terminates in time $O(k^c)$, for some constant $c \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

Definition 2.1.3. The statistical distance between two discrete random variables X and Y over the set \mathcal{X} is denoted

$$\text{SD}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |\Pr[X = x] - \Pr[Y = x]| \leq \epsilon.$$

We say that X and Y are ϵ -close.

Definition 2.1.4. The minimum entropy of a random variable X is defined as

$$H_\infty(X) = \min_{x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} X} \{-\log(\Pr[X = x])\}.$$

Definition 2.1.5. A source S^π is defined as an input-less randomised oracle which makes queries to π and outputs a string. The range of the source is denoted $[S]$ and is the set of all values the source outputs with positive probability, taken over the choice of π and the internal randomness of S .

2.1 Preliminaries

2.1.1 Provable Security

Unless stated otherwise, we use the usual game-based formalism from [15]; for a game \mathbf{G} , $\mathbf{G}(\mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow 1$ or $\mathbf{G}^{\mathcal{A}} \Rightarrow 1$ denotes the event that an adversary \mathcal{A} playing the game \mathbf{G} , results in the *game* outputting 1. We use $\mathbf{G}(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow 1$ or $\mathcal{A}^{\mathbf{G}} \Rightarrow 1$ to denote the event that the *adversary* \mathcal{A} playing the game \mathbf{G} outputs 1. A game consists of at least two procedures, **Initialise** and **Finalise**. The **Initialise** procedure generally assigns initial values to variables, and passes them to the adversary or other procedures. The **Finalise** algorithm runs once all queries by the adversary have been made, usually followed by the adversary outputting a value. The **Finalise** procedure then outputs its own value which is taken to be the output of the game. A security game that does not make use of a random oracle is said to be in the “standard model”; these games will usually show equivalence to a suitably “hard” problem, such as factorisation large moduli.

Definition 2.1.6. A function $\text{negl} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called negligible if for all $c \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ there exists an $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all integers $n \geq n_0$, we have $|\text{negl}(n)| \leq \frac{1}{n^c}$.

2.1.2 Pseudorandom Permutations (PRPs)

Pseudo-random permutations (PRP) take as input a key and an input string. The key picks a permutation from a family which is applied to the input. As the name implies, a PRP should be indistinguishable from a random permutation.

Definition 2.1.7. Let $P : \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ be an efficient, keyed permutation. Then P is a pseudo-random permutation (PRP) family, if, for all probabilistic polynomial-time distinguishers D , there exists a negligible function negl such that:

$$\left| \Pr \left[D^{P_k(\cdot)}(1^n) \Rightarrow 1 \right] - \Pr \left[D^{\pi(\cdot)}(1^n) \Rightarrow 1 \right] \right| \leq \text{negl}(n_k),$$

where the first probability is taken over the uniform distribution of $k \in \{0, 1\}^{n_k}$ and the randomness of D , and the second probability is taken over the uniform distribution of $\pi \in \mathcal{P}_n$, and the randomness of D .

We sometimes refer to the family of PRPs $\{P_k : \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n\}$.

2.1 Preliminaries

Definition 2.1.8. Let $P : \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ be an efficient, keyed permutation. Then P is a strong pseudorandom permutation if, for all probabilistic polynomial-time distinguishers D , there exists a negligible function negl such that:

$$\left| \Pr \left[D^{P_k(\cdot), P_k^{-1}(\cdot)}(1^n) \implies 1 \right] - \Pr \left[D^{\pi(\cdot), \pi^{-1}(\cdot)}(1^n) \implies 1 \right] \right| \leq \text{negl}(n),$$

where the first probability is taken over the uniform distribution of $k \in \{0, 1\}^{n_k}$ and the randomness of D , and the second probability is taken over the uniform distribution of $\pi \in \mathcal{P}_n$, and the randomness of D .

2.1.3 Pseudorandom Functions (PRFs)

Here we define a generalisation of a PRP, namely a pseudo-random function or PRF. A PRF, similarly to a PRP, takes as input a key and a string. The key picks a function from a family which is applied to the input. A PRF should be indistinguishable from a random function.

Definition 2.1.9. Let $F : \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ be an efficient, keyed function. We call F a Pseudo-random function (PRF) family if, for all probabilistic polynomial-time distinguishers D , there is a negligible function negl such that:

$$\left| \Pr \left[D^{F_k(\cdot)}(1^n) \implies 1 \right] - \Pr \left[D^{f(\cdot)}(1^n) \implies 1 \right] \right| \leq \text{negl}(n),$$

where the first probability is taken over the uniform distribution of $k \in \{0, 1\}^{n_k}$ and the randomness of D , and the second probability is taken over the uniform distribution of $f \in \text{Func}_n$, and the randomness of D , where Func_n is the set of all functions mapping n -bit strings to n -bit strings.

We sometimes refer to the family of PRFs $\{F_k : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n\}$.

2.1.4 Block Ciphers

A block cipher is a deterministic algorithm taking a key and a fixed-length input or block. A block cipher consists of two algorithms, an encryption algorithm and a decryption algorithm such that the decryption algorithm is the inverse of the encryption algorithm when queried with the same key..

2.1 Preliminaries

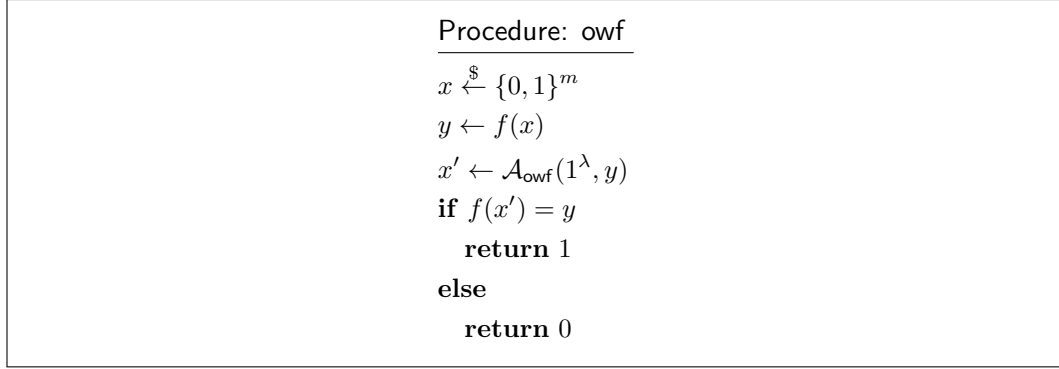


Figure 2.1: The one-way function security procedure.

Definition 2.1.10. Let $n, n_k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then an n -bit block cipher is a function $E : \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$, where $\{0, 1\}^{n_k}$ is the key space and for any $k \in \{0, 1\}^{n_k}$, $E(k, \cdot)$ is a permutation. It is common to write $E_k(\cdot)$ instead of $E(k, \cdot)$.

Definition 2.1.11. Define the PRP security of a block cipher $E : \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ as the advantage of an adversary \mathcal{A}_{PRP} , defined as

$$\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRP}}) = \left| \Pr \left[k \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{n_k} : \mathcal{A}_{\text{PRP}}^{E_k} \implies 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{P}_n : \mathcal{A}_{\text{PRP}}^\pi \implies 1 \right] \right|.$$

Definition 2.1.12. Define the strong PRP security of a block cipher $E : \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ as the advantage of an adversary \mathcal{A}_{PRP} , defined as

$$\text{Adv}_E^{\pm \text{PRP}}(\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRP}}) = \left| \Pr \left[k \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{n_k} : \mathcal{A}_{\text{PRP}}^{E_k, E_k^{-1}} \implies 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{P}_n : \mathcal{A}_{\text{PRP}}^{\pi, -\pi} \implies 1 \right] \right|.$$

2.1.5 Extractors and One-Way Functions (owfs)

Definition 2.1.13 (One-Way Function (owf)). A function $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ is one-way if the following two conditions hold:

- There exists a polynomial-time algorithm M_f computing f ; that is $\forall x, M_f(x) = f(x)$;
- For every probabilistic polynomial-time adversary \mathcal{A}_{owf} , there is a negligible function negl such that

$$\Pr \left[\text{owf}_f^{\mathcal{A}_{\text{owf}}}(\lambda) = 1 \right] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda),$$

2.1 Preliminaries

for owf as described in Figure 2.1.

Definition 2.1.14 (Extractor from [46]). A function $E : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^d \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ is a (k, ϵ) -extractor if for every distribution X over $\{0, 1\}^n$ with $H_\infty(X) \geq k$, $E(X, U_d)$ is ϵ -close to uniform.

2.1.6 Random Oracle Model (ROM)

We briefly outline the random oracle model, first formalised in [13]. A random oracle informally returns a uniformly random string for every unique input (of arbitrary length). We use the notation $\mathcal{RO}(x)$ to denote a random oracle taking input x . Unless stated otherwise, the random oracle will always output a fixed length output. The random oracle keeps track of previous queries and will always output the same value for previously defined input. To summarise, when the \mathcal{RO} is queried on the string x , it first checks to see if the input string x has been queried before, if so it returns the value it has linked to that input. If the x has not previously been queried to \mathcal{RO} then \mathcal{RO} returns a uniformly random string.

2.1.7 Ideal Permutation Model (IPM)

An implementation of a PRNG may make use of a publicly available permutation. To model this it is common to use the ideal permutation model (IPM).

Formally, each party has oracle access to a public, random permutation $\pi \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{P}_n$, chosen by the challenger at the beginning of a game. The permutation can be queried as both π and π^{-1} but, for simplicity, we write that an algorithm or entity, such as an adversary \mathcal{A} , has access to π by \mathcal{A}^π . We make use of the following, which denotes the advantage of an adversary \mathcal{A} with oracle access to π in distinguishing between the distributions D_0, D_1 that also have access to π :

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{dist}}(D_0^\pi, D_1^\pi) = \left| \Pr \left[X \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} D_0^\pi : \mathcal{A}^\pi(X) \Rightarrow 1 \right] - \Pr \left[X \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} D_1^\pi : \mathcal{A}^\pi(X) \Rightarrow 1 \right] \right|,$$

with \mathcal{A} being called a q_π -query adversary if it asks at most q_π queries to π .

2.2 Definitions of Pseudo-Random Number Generators

2.1.8 Ideal-Cipher Model (ICM)

The ideal-cipher model (ICM) is a generalisation of the IPM (or alternatively the IPM can be seen as a case of the ICM with a public fixed choice of key). Formally, at the beginning of the game, the challenger chooses a random permutation $\pi_k \in \mathcal{P}_n$ for each key $k \in \{0, 1\}^{n_k}$. We make use of the following, which denotes the advantage of an adversary \mathcal{A} with oracle access to π_k in distinguishing between the distributions D_0, D_1 that also have access to π_k :

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{dist}}(D_0^{\pi_k}, D_1^{\pi_k}) = \left| \Pr \left[X \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} D_0^{\pi_k} : \mathcal{A}^{\pi_k}(X) \Rightarrow 1 \right] - \Pr \left[X \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} D_1^{\pi_k} : \mathcal{A}^{\pi_k}(X) \Rightarrow 1 \right] \right|,$$

with \mathcal{A} being called a q_π -query adversary if it asks at most q_π queries to π_k .

2.2 Definitions of Pseudo-Random Number Generators

The main topic in this thesis is the investigation of pseudo-random number generators. In this section we will take a look at how the modelling of a PRG has evolved over time, along with how security models have changed to reflect real world situations, addressed concerns and, where there is still a large gap between theory and practice.

There are many different definitions and terms for a pseudo-random number generator; in this thesis, a PRG will refer to a Pseudo-Random Number Generator *without* input for simplicity. A PRG is the most basic definition of a pseudo-random number generator, while a PRNG or PWI will refer to a Pseudo-Random Number Generator *with* input.

2.2.1 PRGs

One of the simplest definitions of a random number generator is a PRG. Taking no additional input other than an initial state, it expands this random input into larger amounts of pseudo-random output.

2.2 Definitions of Pseudo-Random Number Generators

Definition 2.2.1 (PRG). For $n, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$, a function $G : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\ell$ is a deterministic (t, ϵ) -pseudo-random number generator (PRG) if

1. $\ell > n$, or in other words, stretches the original seed of randomness into a larger amount of pseudo-randomness.
2. No adversary running in time t can distinguish between

$$G(s_0) \text{ and } R \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^\ell,$$

for some $s_0 \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n$ with probability greater than ϵ .

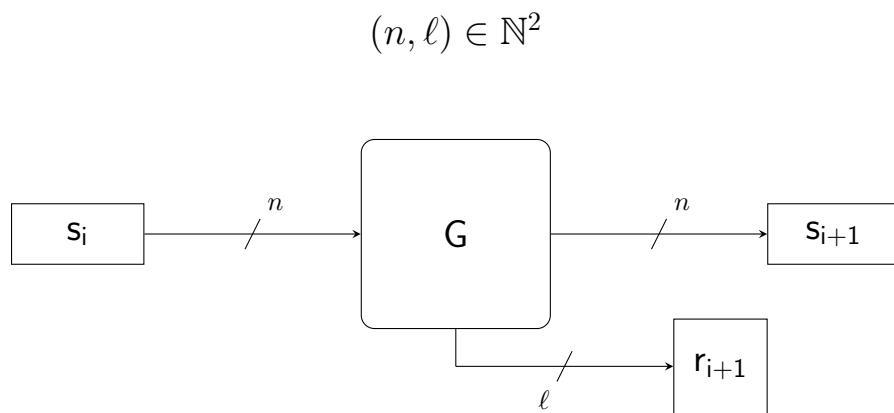


Figure 2.2: A simple PRG description.

2.2 Definitions of Pseudo-Random Number Generators

2.2.2 PRNGs and PWIs

Definition 2.2.2 (PRNG from [29]). A PRNG with input (PWI) is a triple of algorithms $G = (\text{setup}, \text{refresh}, \text{next})$ and a triple $(n, \ell, p) \in \mathbb{N}^3$ where n is the state length, ℓ is the output length, p is the input length of G and

- **setup**: is a probabilistic algorithm that outputs some public parameters seed for the generator, along with the initial state s_0 ;
- **refresh**: is a deterministic algorithm that, given seed , a state $s_i \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and an input $I \in \{0, 1\}^p$, outputs a new state $s_{i+1} := \text{refresh}(\text{seed}, s_i, I)$;
- **next**: is a deterministic algorithm that, given seed and a state $s_i \in \{0, 1\}^n$, outputs a pair $(s_{i+1}, r_{i+1}) = \text{next}(s_i) = \text{next}(\text{seed}, s_i)$, where s_{i+1} is the new state and $r_{i+1} \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$ is the output.

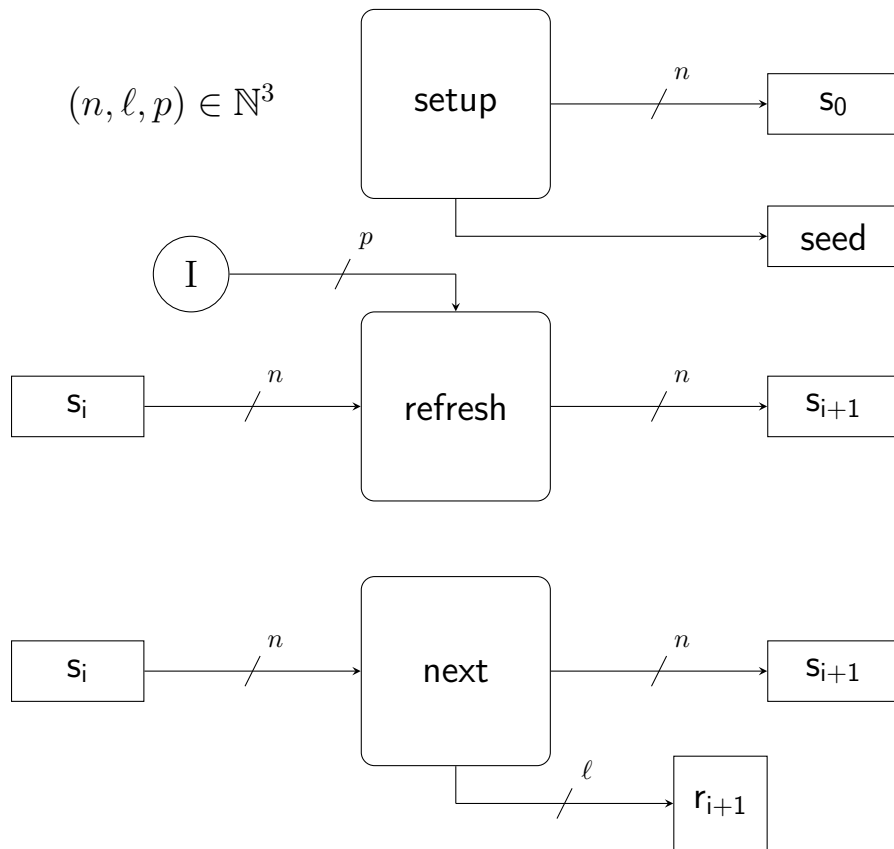


Figure 2.3: A simple PRNG description.

2.3 Existing Security Models of PRNGs

In this section we briefly survey the existing security models for pseudo-random number generators. The study of PRNGs stretches back quite far, from the early works by Blum and Micali [20], Yao [57], to work by Desai, Hevia and Yin [27] who model a PRNG as a pair of stateful algorithms (`key,next`), the model by Barak, Shaltiel and Tromer [6] which models the generator as (`setup,next`), building towards the model by Barak and Halevi [4] who use (`refresh,next`), to the extension of [4] by Dodis et. al. [29] which we base the work of this thesis on. We also touch upon some updated models that build upon [29], such as [30]. For a more complete list and summary, see [53]. We will begin by taking a more in-depth look at [29] and [30] which were the main influences of this thesis and incorporate the majority captured in previous models.

2.3.1 Two papers: `/dev/random` is not Robust and How to Eat Your Entropy and Have It Too

The security model introduced in [29] identified and incorporated the very applicable situation where a PRNG may accumulate entropy at a slow rate (through low entropy inputs) and is at risk of “prematurely” being called before enough entropy has been gathered, and focused on building upon [4]. The updated model [30] takes a less conservative approach to this situation through pre-mature get-next security. Both of these papers sought to formalise these situations and to try to match the constraints and challenges faced when instantiating a PRNG in practise with more practically inspired restraints and security notions. Even the most recent model still, by the authors’ admission, does not encompass the full desirable picture of what a secure PRNG should be, less even what a secure PRNG would look like. The model as it stands does not incorporate the entropy estimation or mixing functions present in many real world PRNGs, for instance, but does define the notion of a scheduler (which handles several entropy pools feeding into the PRNG) as used in the Fortuna PRNG [31, Chapter 9].

2.3 Existing Security Models of PRNGs

First we define the entropy source, which in this model is modelled as a second adversary \mathcal{D} and called the distribution sampler, which does not communicate with the main adversary \mathcal{A} . Like all adversaries, restrictions need to be made, though these are as few as possible. The reasoning behind the entropy source being an adversary is to emulate the potentially adversarial environment where the PRNG is forced to operate. For the PRNG to be deemed in a “secure” state, the entropy of the state is required to be over a given threshold γ^* specified as part of the security of the generator.

Definition 2.3.1. The distribution sampler \mathcal{D} is a stateful and probabilistic algorithm which given the current state σ outputs a tuple (σ', I, γ, z) where:

- σ' is the new state for \mathcal{D} ;
- $I \in \{0, 1\}^p$ is the next input for the refresh algorithm;
- γ is some fresh entropy estimation of I ;
- z is the leakage about I given to the adversary \mathcal{A} .

Let $q_{\mathcal{D}}$ be the maximum number of calls to \mathcal{D} in our security games. It is said that \mathcal{D} is legitimate if, for all $j \in \{1, \dots, q_{\mathcal{D}}\}$,

$$H_{\infty}(I_j | I_1, \dots, I_{j-1}, I_{j+1}, \dots, I_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, z_1, \dots, z_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}) \geq \gamma_j,$$

where H_{∞} is the minimum entropy function as defined in Definition 2.1.4.

We model an adversary using a pair $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D})$, where \mathcal{A} is the actual adversary and \mathcal{D} is a stateful distribution sampler. The adversary \mathcal{A} 's goal is to determine a challenge bit b picked during the initialise procedure, which also returns the public parameters.

Like past security models, [29] builds upon the security notions of resilience (res), forward security (fwd), backward security (bwd) and robustness (rob), with the latter being the strongest with the most adversarial freedom. Before defining what each notion entails, we describe the game framework used in Figure 2.4 where, as usual, the challenger begins by running the Initialise procedure, and ends with the Finalise procedure.

2.3 Existing Security Models of PRNGs

<p><u>Procedure: Initialise ()</u></p> $\sigma \leftarrow 0,$ $\text{seed} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{setup}$ $s_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \text{setup}$ $e \leftarrow n$ $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{false}$ $\mathbf{b} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ return seed	<p><u>Procedure: Finalise (\mathbf{b}^*)</u></p> if $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}^*$ then return 1 else return 0 <u>Procedure: get-state ()</u> $e \leftarrow 0$ $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{true}$ return s_i	<p><u>Procedure: next-ror</u></p> $(s_{i+1}, r_0) \leftarrow \text{next}(s_i)$ if $\text{corrupt} = \text{true}$ then $e \leftarrow 0$ return r_0 else if $r_0 = \perp$ then $r_1 \leftarrow \perp$ else $r_1 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^\ell$ return r_b
<p><u>Procedure: get-next</u></p> $(s_{i+1}, r_{i+1}) \leftarrow \text{next}(s_i)$ if $\text{corrupt} = \text{true}$ then $e \leftarrow 0$ return r_{i+1}	<p><u>Procedure: set-state (s^*)</u></p> $e \leftarrow 0$ $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{true}$ $s_i \leftarrow s^*$	<p><u>Procedure: \mathcal{D}-refresh()</u></p> $(\sigma, \mathbf{I}, \gamma, z) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{D}(\sigma)$ $s_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{refresh}(s_i, \mathbf{I})$ $e \leftarrow e + \gamma$ if $e \geq \gamma^*$ then $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{false}$ return (γ, z)

Figure 2.4: The security procedures of [29]. The inclusion of seed has been omitted from several algorithms.

Definition 2.3.2 (Robustness). A PRNG with input is called $(t, q_{\mathcal{D}}, q_{\mathcal{R}}, q_{\mathcal{S}}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_{\text{rob}})$ -robust (rob) if, for any attacker \mathcal{A} running in time at most t , making at most $q_{\mathcal{D}}$ calls to \mathcal{D} -refresh, making at most $q_{\mathcal{R}}$ calls to next/next-ror, $q_{\mathcal{S}}$ calls to get-state/set-state, and any legitimate distribution sampler \mathcal{D} , the advantage in the game specified in Figure 2.4 is at most ϵ . The value γ^* is the minimum entropy required to reset the “corrupt” flag back to “false”. As usual, the challenger first executes the Initialise algorithm and the adversary is given access to next-ror, get-next, set-state and refresh oracles, described in Figure 2.4. Once the adversary has asked all her queries, she outputs her guess, passes it to the challenger and the challenger runs Finalise with the adversary’s guess as input.

Further, we define three more games which are restrictions of the robustness game:

Definition 2.3.3. Resilience (res) is the restricted game where $q_{\mathcal{S}} = 0$.

2.3 Existing Security Models of PRNGs

Definition 2.3.4. Forward-secure (fwd) is the restricted game where \mathcal{A} makes no calls to set-state and a single call to get-state, which must be the very *last* oracle call that \mathcal{A} makes.

Definition 2.3.5. Backward-secure (bwd) is the restricted game where \mathcal{A} makes no calls to get-state and a single call to set-state which is the very *first* call \mathcal{A} makes.

Definition 2.3.6. Let G be a PRNG. For $x \in \{\text{fwd}, \text{bwd}, \text{res}, \text{rob}\}$ as defined in Definitions 2.3.2 to 2.3.5, let $\text{Adv}_{G, \mathcal{D}}^x(\mathcal{A})$ be defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{G, \mathcal{D}}^x(\mathcal{A}) := 2\Pr [x^{\mathcal{A}} \implies 1] - 1.$$

2.3 Existing Security Models of PRNGs

<u>Recover($G, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}$)</u>	<u>Preserve(G, \mathcal{A})</u>
<pre> (setup, refresh, next) \leftarrow G seed $\stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow}$ setup; b $\stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow}$ {0, 1} $\sigma_0 \leftarrow 0$; $\mu \leftarrow 0$ for $k = 1, \dots, q_{\mathcal{D}}$ do $(\sigma_k, I_k, \gamma_k, z_k) \leftarrow \mathcal{D}(\sigma_{k-1})$ $(s_0, d, \sigma') \stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}^{\text{get-refresh}}(\text{seed},$ $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, z_1, \dots, z_{q_{\mathcal{D}}})$ if $\mu + d > q_{\mathcal{D}}$ or $\sum_{j=\mu+1}^{\mu+d} \gamma_j < \gamma^*$ then return 0 for $j = 1, \dots, d$ do $s_j \leftarrow \text{refresh}(\text{seed}, s_{j-1}, I_{\mu+j})$ $(s_0^*, r_0^*) \leftarrow \text{next}(\text{seed}, s_d)$ $s_1 \stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^\ell$ if $r_0^* = \perp$ then $r_1^* \leftarrow \perp$ else $r_1^* \stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^\ell$ $b^* \stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}(\sigma', s_b^*, r_b^*, I_{\mu+d+1}, \dots, I_{q_{\mathcal{D}}})$ if $b^* = b$ then return 1 else return 0 </pre>	<pre> (setup, refresh, next) \leftarrow G seed $\stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow}$ setup; $s_0 \stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n$; b $\stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}$ for $j = 1, \dots, d$ do $s_j \leftarrow \text{refresh}(\text{seed}, s_{j-1}, I_j)$ $(s_0^*, r_0^*) \leftarrow \text{next}(\text{seed}, s_d)$ $s_1 \stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^\ell$ if $r_0^* = \perp$ then $r_1^* \leftarrow \perp$ else $r_1^* \stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^\ell$ $b^* \stackrel{\\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}(\sigma', s_b^*, r_b^*)$ if $b^* = b$ then return 1 else return 0 <u>get-refresh ()</u> $\mu \leftarrow \mu + 1$ return I_μ </pre>

Figure 2.5: Preserving and recovering security games for G outputting ℓ -bits.

The main result of [29] is Theorem 1, the composition theorem that proves that if a PWI satisfying two simpler notions of security called preserving and recovering security, then the PWI is robust. We present the associated security games for preserving and recovering security in Figure 2.5. Informally, preserving security states that if the state of the PWI starts uncompromised, and is refreshed using compromised input, then the next output and resulting state are still indistinguishable from random. Similarly, recovering security implies that if a PWI is compromised, inserting enough random entropy to refresh the internal state will ensure that the next output and state will be indistinguishable from random.

2.3 Existing Security Models of PRNGs

Definition 2.3.7 (Preserving Security). A PWI is said to have (t, ϵ_p) -preserving security, if, for any adversary \mathcal{A} running in time t the preserving advantage defined by

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}) = 2\Pr[\text{Preserve}(\mathbb{G}, \mathcal{A}) = 1] - 1,$$

satisfies $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon_p$, for Preserve as in Figure 2.5.

Definition 2.3.8 (Recovering Security). A PWI is said to have $(t, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_r)$ -recovering security, if, for any adversary \mathcal{A} and legitimate sampler \mathcal{D} , both running in time t , the recovering advantage defined by

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{rec}}(\mathcal{A}) = 2\Pr[\text{Recover}(\mathbb{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) = 1] - 1,$$

satisfies $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{rec}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon_r$ for Recover as in Figure 2.5.

Theorem 2.3.9 (Composition theorem of [29]).

If a PWI has both $(t, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \gamma^, \epsilon_r)$ -recovering security and (t, ϵ_p) -preserving security, then it is $((t', \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{R}}, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{S}}), \gamma^*, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{R}}(\epsilon_r + \epsilon_p))$ -robust where $t' \approx t$.*

Theorem 2.3.10 (Composition theorem of [33]).

Let $\mathbb{G}[\pi]$ be a PWI that issues $\mathbf{q}_{\pi}^{\text{ref}}$ (resp. $\mathbf{q}_{\pi}^{\text{nxt}}$) π queries in each invocation of refresh (resp. next); and let $\bar{\mathbf{q}}_{\pi} := \mathbf{q}_{\pi} + Q(\mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}})$. For every $(\mathbf{q}_{\pi}, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{R}}, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{S}})$ -adversary \mathcal{A} against robustness and for every Q -distribution sampler \mathcal{D} , there exists a family of $(\mathbf{q}_{\pi} + \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{R}} \cdot \mathbf{q}_{\pi}^{\text{nxt}} + \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}} \cdot \mathbf{q}_{\pi}^{\text{ref}})$ -adversaries $\mathcal{A}_1^{(i)}$ against recovering security and a family of $(\bar{\mathbf{q}}_{\pi} + \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{R}} \cdot \mathbf{q}_{\pi}^{\text{nxt}} + \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}} \cdot \mathbf{q}_{\pi}^{\text{ref}})$ -adversaries $\mathcal{A}_2^{(i)}$ against preserving security (for $i \in \{1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{R}}\}$) such that

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\gamma^*-\text{rob}}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) \leq \left(\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{(\gamma^*, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}})-\text{rec}}(\mathcal{A}_1^{(i)}, \mathcal{D}) + \text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{-\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}_2^{(i)}) \right).$$

2.3 Existing Security Models of PRNGs

2.3.2 Other Models

The later work [30] introduced the idea of a scheduler, inspired by the design of the Fortuna PRNG [31] which aimed at a design to improve the recovery time of a corrupt PRNG by allowing premature `get-next` queries. We will not be considering a scheduler in this thesis since a design can easily be extended to utilise a scheduler; however, the idea of a scheduler is an interesting prospect in terms of possibly replacing the need for `seed`, by essentially blinding the entropy inputs in a way the adversary cannot predict, mirroring the purpose of the `seed`. The scheduler may also help simplify some proofs and allow for weaker refresh functions.

This extension defines several relaxed security notions that modify the security games by removing the conservative reducing of the state entropy to 0 on a premature next query, along with adding counters to aid in determining when a PRNG has recovered from compromise.

Informally a scheduler is a stateful deterministic algorithm taking a scheduler key that partitions entropy inputs into several “pools” that are in themselves PRNGs, in the hope that by refreshing pools in some schedule, one pool will eventually reach enough entropy that refreshing the state of a central simpler PRG with this entropy pool is enough to reset the corrupt flag. The scheduler determines which pool will receive the next entropy input and the next pool that will be emptied when entropy is requested.

Theorem 2 of [30] states that given a secure scheduler, entropy pools G_i , each a robust PRNG, and given a secure PRG that will act as the central component of the PRNG yields a premature-next robust PRNG, meaning it remains secure when an adversary prematurely requests output. In the [29] paper, this kind of adversarial call would result in the entropy estimation of the generator state being reduced to 0.

There are other security models that often target a particular aspect of PRNG security in practise, such as side channel leakage in [59], an extension to [29] in [1], the paper by Terashima and Shrimpton [55] which we will discuss in further detail in Chapter 4, and many others.

2.4 Hash Functions

2.4 Hash Functions

Hash functions are often used in the construction of PRNGs and universal hash functions will prove very useful in later security proofs.

2.4.1 Preliminaries

Definition 2.4.1. A hash function with output length ℓ is a pair of probabilistic-time algorithms (Gen, H) satisfying the following:

- Gen is a probabilistic algorithm which takes as input a security parameter 1^λ and outputs a key k . We assume that 1^λ is implicit in k to avoid additional notation;
- H takes as input a key k and a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and outputs a string $\text{H}^k \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\lambda)}$.

If H^k is only defined for inputs $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell'(\lambda)}$ and $\ell'(\lambda) > \ell(\lambda)$, then we say that (Gen, H) is a fixed-length hash function for inputs of length ℓ' . Since $\ell' > \ell$ we also call H a compression function.

2.4.2 Universal Hash Functions

A very useful class of hash function is the family of universal hash functions. These hash functions can be efficiently constructed, see [45, 36]. This makes them a very useful primitive and will be a key component in our security analysis in Section 5.4.

Definition 2.4.2 (Universal Hash Function). Let $H = \{\text{H}_k : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m\}_{k \in \{0, 1\}^d}$ be a hash function family, then H is ρ -universal if for any inputs $x \neq x' \in \{0, 1\}^n$, we have $\Pr_{k \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^d}(\text{H}_k(x) = \text{H}_k(x')) \leq \rho$.

We also include two stronger sub-classes of universal hash functions in Definitions 2.4.3 and 2.4.4 from [22].

2.4 Hash Functions

Definition 2.4.3 (XOR Universal Hash Function). Let $H = \{H_k : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m\}_{k \in \{0,1\}^d}$ be a universal hash function family, and m be a power of two; then H is XOR universal if $\forall x, y \in \{0,1\}^n, x \neq y$, the value $H(x) \oplus H(y) \bmod m$ is uniformly distributed in $\{0,1\}^m$.

Definition 2.4.4 (Strong Universal Hash Function). Let $H = \{H_k : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m\}_{k \in \{0,1\}^d}$ be a universal hash function family, then H is a strongly universal family if $\forall x, y \in \{0,1\}^n, x \neq y$, we have the probability that x, y hash to any pair of hash values h_1, h_2 is

$$\Pr[H_x = h_1 \wedge H_y = h_2] = \frac{1}{2^{2m}},$$

or in other words, is perfectly random.

2.4.3 Leftover Hash Lemma

A very useful tool is the leftover-hash lemma, presented in various literature, such as [29]:

Lemma 2.4.5 (Leftover-Hash Lemma).

Let H be a ρ -universal hash function, where $\rho = (1 + \alpha)2^{-m}$ for some $\alpha > 0$. Then for any $k > 0$, it is also a (k, ϵ) -extractor for $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2^{m-k} + \alpha}$.

Where an extractor is as defined in Definition 2.1.14. A proof of the lemma can be found in [54, Theorem 8.37].

2.5 Sponge Functions

2.5.1 The Two Phases of the Sponge

The sponge construction was introduced in [16] and given a formal security analysis in [17]. The sponge design has benefited from a large amount of analysis due to the success of Keccak in the SHA3 competition in 2012. The sponge construction is stateful and has a $b = (r + c)$ -bit state (called the width) split into the inner state of c -bits (the capacity) and outer state of r -bits (the rate). The sponge construction makes use of a keyless permutation π that maps b -bits to b -bits, which is modelled as an ideal permutation in the security analysis.

The normal running of the sponge is split into two phases: the **absorbing** phase where it incorporates new input into the state and the **squeezing** phase, where the sponge outputs a specified number of bits.

2.5 Sponge Functions

Algorithm 1 The absorbing function $\text{absorb}[\pi, r](I)$

Require: $r < b$

Interface: $s \leftarrow \text{absorb}(I)$ with $I \in \mathbb{Z}_2^*$ and $s \in \mathbb{Z}_2^b$.

$P \leftarrow I \parallel \text{pad}[r](|M|)$

$s \leftarrow 0^b$

for $i = 0$ to $|P|_r - 1$ **do**

$s \leftarrow s \oplus (P_i \parallel 0^{b-r})$

$s \leftarrow \pi(s)$

end for

return s

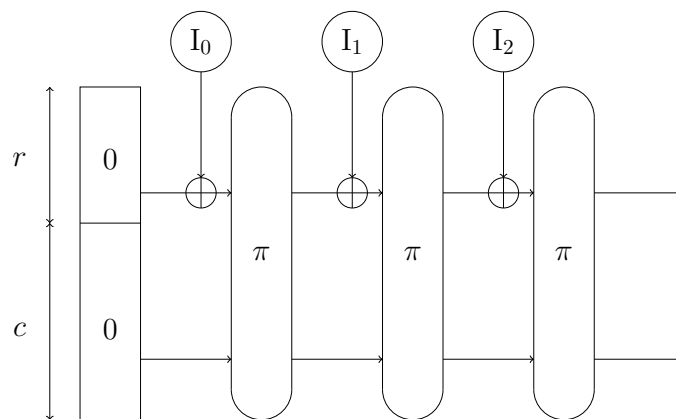


Figure 2.6: The sponge construction in the absorbing phase.

When initialising the sponge the first state is set to zero. The input message is padded using a valid padding scheme and cut into blocks of r -bits which are then absorbed in the **absorbing** phase of the sponge as described in Algorithm 1 and described pictorially in Figure 2.6.

Next, once this initial input has been absorbed the sponge switches to the **squeezing** phase as described in Algorithm 2 and shown in Figure 2.7. This algorithm is the dual to the **absorbing** function. For a given state s and requested number of bits ℓ it outputs a string truncated to ℓ from the sponge function acting on state s at the beginning of the **squeezing** phase. Once the **squeezing** phase is completed, the sponge function finishes.

2.5 Sponge Functions

Algorithm 2 The squeezing function $\text{squeeze}[\pi, r](s, \ell)$

Require: $r < b$

Interface: $Z \leftarrow \text{squeeze}(s, \ell)$ with $s \in \mathbb{Z}_2^b$, integer $\ell > 0$ and $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_2^\ell$

$Z \leftarrow \lfloor s \rfloor_r$

while $r|Z|_r < \ell$ **do**

$s \leftarrow \pi(s)$

$Z \leftarrow Z \parallel \lfloor s \rfloor_r$

end while

Return $\lfloor Z \rfloor_\ell$

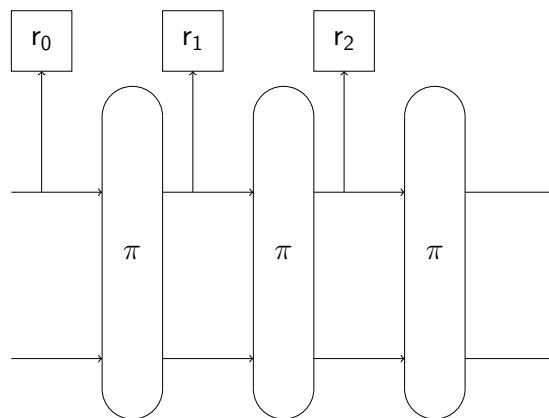


Figure 2.7: The sponge construction in the squeezing phase.

2.5 Sponge Functions

Algorithm 3 The sponge construction $\text{sponge}[\pi, \text{pad}, r](M, \ell)$

Require: $r < b$

Interface: $Z \leftarrow \text{sponge}(M, \ell)$ with $M \in \mathbb{Z}_2^*$, integer $\ell > 0$ and $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_2^\ell$

$P \leftarrow M \parallel \text{pad}[r](|M|)$

$s \leftarrow 0^b$

for $i = 0$ to $|P|_r$ **do**

$s \leftarrow s \oplus (P_i \parallel 0^{b-r})$

$s \leftarrow \pi(s)$

end for

$Z \leftarrow \lfloor s \rfloor_r$

while $r|Z|_r < \ell$ **do**

$s \leftarrow \pi(s)$

$Z \leftarrow Z \parallel \lfloor s \rfloor_r$

end while

return $\lfloor Z \rfloor_\ell$

2.5.2 The Sponge and Duplex Algorithms

In full, the sponge construction is given in Algorithm 3 and shown in Figure 2.8, it has precisely one absorbing phase and one squeezing phase.

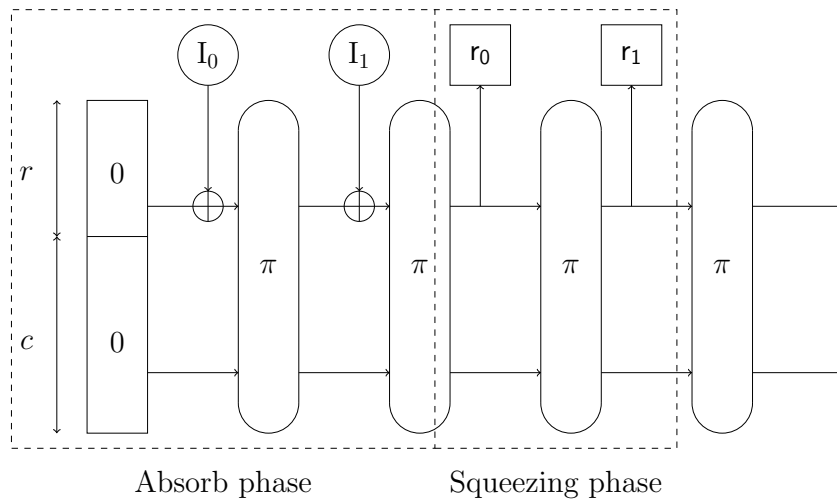


Figure 2.8: The sponge construction in both phases.

2.5 Sponge Functions

Algorithm 4 The duplex construction $\text{duplex}[\pi, \text{pad}, r]$

Require: $r < b$

Require: $\rho_{\max}(\text{pad}, r) > 0$

Interface: $\mathcal{D}.\text{Initialise}()$

$s \leftarrow 0^b$

Interface: $Z \leftarrow \mathcal{D}.\text{duplex}(\sigma, \ell)$ with $\ell \leq r, \sigma \in \cup_{n=0}^{\rho_{\max}}(\text{pad}, r)\mathbb{Z}_2^b$, and $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_2^\ell$

$P \leftarrow \sigma \parallel \text{pad}[r](|\sigma|)$

$s \leftarrow s \oplus (P \parallel 0^{b-r})$

$s \leftarrow \pi(s)$

return $[s]_\ell$

The duplex construction, given in [16] differs slightly in that it has multiple absorbing and squeezing phases and will be useful when defining the PRNG variant of the sponge construction. The duplex construction or duplex mode is given in Algorithm 4 and shown in Figure 2.9. Since the duplex construction has multiple absorbing and squeezing phases, it begins by initialising the state to 0 followed by all interactions taking place through duplex calls. This allows the construction to continue indefinitely.

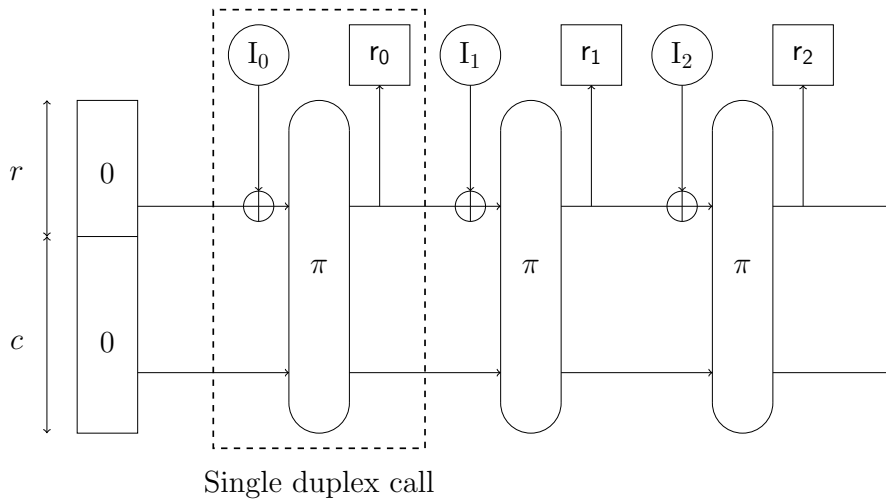


Figure 2.9: The sponge construction in duplex mode.

2.5 Sponge Functions

2.5.3 The Sponge PRNG: `sponge.prng`

The authors of [18] use the sponge construction, specifically the duplex mode, to build a PRNG, which we present below in Algorithm 5. We call this PRNG the `sponge.prng` and critique it in Chapter 3. The `sponge.prng` relies heavily on the duplex construction, with the addition of an optional subroutine called `p.forget` that zeroes the outer state by XORing the current outer state. The `p.forget` subroutine can be optionally used in an implementation after each fetch request is made to give some measure of forward security.

Algorithm 5 The sponge PRNG construction `sponge.prng`[π , pad , r , ρ]

Require: $\rho \leq \rho_{\max}(\text{pad}, r) - 1$

Require: $D = \text{duplex}[\pi, \text{pad}, r]$

Interface: $P.\text{Initialise}()$

$D.\text{Initialise}()$

$B_{in} = \text{empty string}$

$B_{out} = \text{empty string}$

Interface: $P.\text{feed}(\sigma)$ with $\sigma \in \mathbb{Z}_2^+$

$M = B_{in} \parallel \sigma$

for $i = 0$ to $|M|_\rho - 2$ **do**

$D.\text{duplex}(M_i, 0)$

end for

$B_{in} = M_{|M|_\rho} - 1$

$B_{out} = \text{empty string}$

Interface: $Z = P.\text{fetch}(\ell)$ with integer $\ell \geq 0$ and $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_2^\ell$

while $|B_{out}| < \ell$ **do**

$B_{out} = B_{out} \parallel D.\text{duplex}(B_{in}, \rho)$

$B_{in} = \text{empty string}$

end while

$Z = \lfloor B_{out} \rfloor_\ell$

$B_{out} = \text{last}(|B_{out}| - \ell)$ bits of B_{out}

return Z

Interface: `p.forget` ()

$Z = D.\text{duplex}(B_{in}, \rho)$

$B_{in} = \text{empty string}$

for $i = 1$ to $\lfloor c/\rho \rfloor$ **do**

$Z = D.\text{duplex}(Z, \rho)$

end for

$B_{out} = \text{empty string}$

2.6 Generalising the Sponge to the Parazoa Family

The sponge construction is generalised by Andreeva, Mennink and Preneel in [3]. Similar to the sponge, the parazoa function is split into two sections; compression/absorbing phase where messages or input is padded and absorbed into an n -bit state, and the extraction/squeezing phase when output is generated.

The parazoa utilises two main functions f and g ; the compression phase refers directly to the function f , while the extraction phase refers to the g function. Each function is of a specific form and is built up of two inner functions, which are referred to as f_1, f_2, g_1 and g_2 . Both functions are based on a permutation π . The parazoa also requires a padding scheme and finalise function. The padding scheme takes a message input I and pads it into several input blocks of p -bits. The finalise function takes the ℓ -bit outputs and combines them into the ℓ_{total} -bit digest.

Definition 2.6.1. A function $f : \mathbb{Z}_2^a \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^b$ for $a \geq b$ is called *balanced* if $\forall y \in \mathbb{Z}_2^b$, y has exactly 2^{a-b} pre-images under f .

Definition 2.6.2. For $x \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$, define the capacity set

$$C(x) := \{s \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n \mid \exists I \in \mathbb{Z}_2^p \text{ s.t. } f_1(s, I) = x\}.$$

2.6.1 The f Function

Definition 2.6.3. The f function takes on input the current value of the n -bit state s_{i-1} and the message block I_i :

$$f : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^p \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^n.$$

The first of the sub functions f_1 absorbs the message into the state and then permutes the state with π , before the second sub function f_2 transforms the state while

2.6 Generalising the Sponge to the Parazoa Family

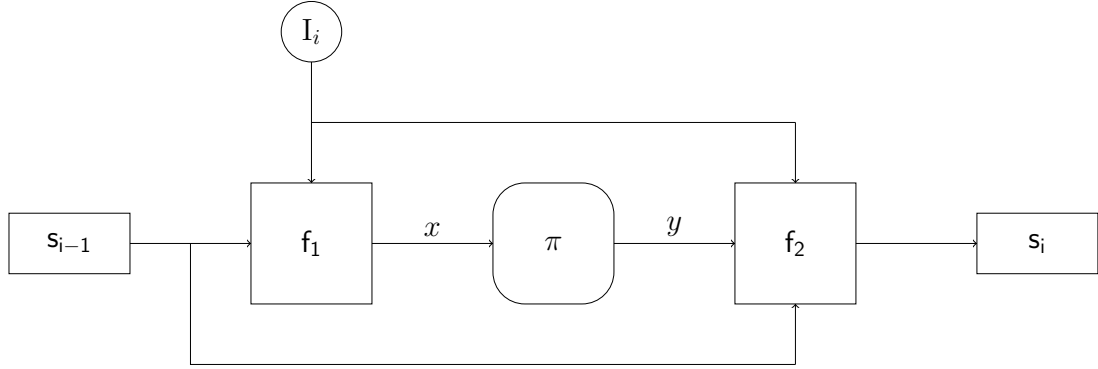


Figure 2.10: The f function.

possibly combining it with a feed-forward. More formally:

$$f_1 : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^p \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^n$$

$$f_2 : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^p \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^n$$

$$s_i \leftarrow f(s_{i-1}, I_i)$$

$$x \leftarrow f_1(s_{i-1}, I_i)$$

$$y \leftarrow \pi(x)$$

$$s_i \leftarrow f_2(y, s_{i-1}, I_i).$$

Figure 2.10 gives a more intuitive picture of how f operates. For further clarity, in the case of the sponge construction, $x = f_1(s_{i-1}, I_i) = s_{i-1} \oplus (I_i \parallel 0^e)$ and $s_{i+1} = f_2(y, I_i, s_{i-1}) = y$, the identity map. It is also required that the f_1 and f_2 functions satisfy the following:

- The function f_1 must satisfy the following properties:
 1. $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n, \forall s \in C(x), \exists! I$ s.t. $f_1(s, I) = x$ (uniqueness).
 2. $\forall x, x' \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$, if $C(x) \cap C(x') \neq \emptyset$ then $C(x) = C(x')$.
- The function f_2 must be a bijection on the state.

2.6 Generalising the Sponge to the Parazoa Family

2.6.2 The g Function

Definition 2.6.4. The g function takes the current value of the state s_{k+i-1} as input:

$$g : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^\ell.$$

The first of the sub functions g_1 outputs a block and permutes the state with π . A second sub function g_2 transforms this intermediate state (or in fact for simpler proofs may do nothing) using the previous state as additional input. More formally:

$$\begin{aligned} g_1 : \mathbb{Z}_2^n &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^\ell \\ g_2 : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^n &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^n \\ (s_{k+i}, r_{k+i-1}) &\leftarrow g(s_{k+i-1}) \\ (s_{k+i-1}^*, r_{k+i-1}) &\leftarrow g_1(s_{k+i-1}) \\ s_{k+i-1}^{**} &\leftarrow \pi(s_{k+i-1}^*) \\ s_{k+i} &\leftarrow g_2(s_{k+i-1}^{**}, s_{k+i-1}). \end{aligned}$$

A more intuitive picture of how g operates is given in Figure 2.11, though initially g_2 is the identity, but can be generalised as shown in Figure 2.12. For clarity, the sponge function can be thought of as having g_1 output the outer state while leaving the state itself unchanged, along with g_2 as the identity map on y . It is also required that the g_1 and g_2 functions satisfy the following:

- The function g_1 is a bijection on the state, and when restricted to viewing the output r_i , g_1 is balanced.
- The function g_2 must also be a bijection on the state.

2.6 Generalising the Sponge to the Parazoa Family

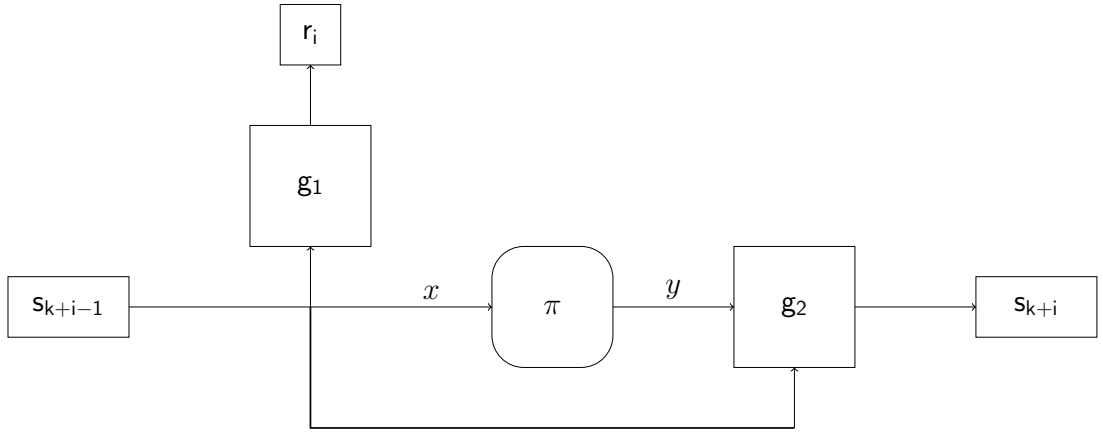


Figure 2.11: The g function.

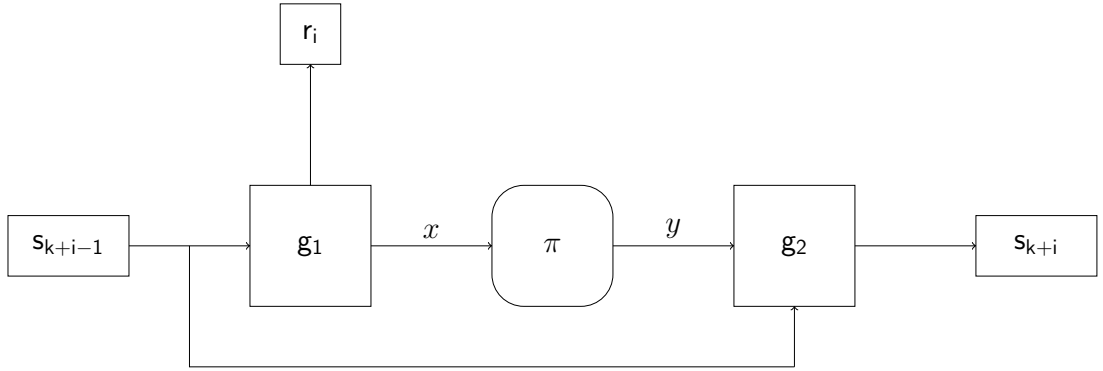


Figure 2.12: The generalised g function.

The f and g functions can be further generalised by using two different permutations π_1 and π_2 respectively.

Definition 2.6.5. The padding function pad is an injective mapping that takes the input messages of arbitrary length and transforms them into blocks of length p . It is required that pad satisfies the following property:

- Either, $\ell_b = 1$, or
- the last block of a message \mathbf{I}_k satisfies $\forall s \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n, \forall (s', I') \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^p$,

$$f_1(s, M_k) \neq s \text{ and } f_1(f_2(s, s', I'), \mathbf{I}_k) \neq s.$$

Definition 2.6.6. The finalise function fin combines the ℓ_b bit strings obtained from squeezing the parazoa, into the final output. The fin function must be balanced as per Definition 2.6.1.

2.6 Generalising the Sponge to the Parazoa Family

The sponge function uses a finalise function that concatenates the outputs and truncates this concatenation to the correct length, which trivially meets the balanced requirement.

2.6.3 Formal Definition of a Parazoa Function

Definition 2.6.7. A parazoa, denoted \mathcal{P} , is defined as a tuple $(\ell_b, p, \ell_{\text{total}}, \ell, n)$ along with a padding scheme pad as described in Definition 2.6.5, finalise function fin as described in Definition 2.6.6, together with functions f and g as described in Definitions 2.6.3 and 2.6.4. The tuple reads as follows:

- ℓ_b is the number of output data blocks required to output each ℓ_{total} request.
- p is the size of each input block to the f_1 function, denoted I_i .
- ℓ_{total} is the size of the output of the fin function.
- ℓ is the size of each output block of the g_1 function, denoted r_i .
- n is the size of the internal state, denoted s_i .

Along with the individual component requirements given in each definition, it is required that $p, \ell \leq n$ and $\ell \ell_b \geq \ell_{\text{total}}$.

We note that the number of output data blocks ℓ_b may be a larger number due to complex finalise functions fin that may further compress the output. A technical variable useful for describing the security of a parazoa \mathcal{P} in regards to indistinguishability to a random oracle \mathcal{RO} is the following definition of capacity loss d .

Definition 2.6.8. Consider the set of all pairs $(s, x) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ such that $f_1(s, I) = x$ for some $I \in \mathbb{Z}_2^p$ uniquely determined by (s, x) . The *capacity* loss of a parazoa \mathcal{P} denoted $d \geq 0$, is defined as the minimum of

- For $x \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n, r \in \mathbb{Z}_2^r$, there are at most 2^d pairs (s, x) such that $s \in \{g_1^{-1}(r)\}$;
- For $s \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n, r \in \mathbb{Z}_2^r$, there are at most 2^d pairs (s, x) such that $x \in \{g_1^{-1}(r)\}$.

2.7 Proof Techniques

In particular, restricting to the f_1 and f_2 used by the sponge function, along with g_1 output function of truncating the outer state, yields $d = 0$. The authors of [3] extend the indifferentiability of the sponge from a random oracle to the parazoa in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.6.9 (Theorem 1 of [3]).

Let π be a random n -bit permutation, and let \mathcal{RO} be a random oracle. Let \mathcal{P} be a parazoa function parameterised by $(\ell_b, p, \ell_{\text{total}}, \ell, n)$. Let D be a distinguisher that makes at most q_1 left queries of maximal length $(K - 1)p$ -bits, where $K \geq 1$, and q_2 right queries, and runs in time t . Then for a simulator sim making at most $q_S \leq q_2$ queries to \mathcal{RO} and running in time $O(q_2^2)$, we have:

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{P}, \text{sim}}^{\text{pro}}(\mathsf{D}) = O\left(\frac{((K + \ell_b)q_1 + q_2)^2}{2^{n-\ell-d}}\right),$$

where a simulator is formally defined in Definition 2.7.4.

2.7 Proof Techniques

2.7.1 Indifferentiability

The notion of indifferentiability is the more general form of indistinguishability given by Maurer et al in [42], with works such as [25] applying it to relevant areas such as hash functions.

Definition 2.7.1. An $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$ -system is a sequence of probability distributions $P_{Y_i | X^i Y^{i-1}}$ for $i \in \mathbb{N}$, where $X^i := [X_1, \dots, X_i]$ and $Y^{i-1} := [Y_1, \dots, Y_{i-1}]$ and where X_i is called the i th input, and Y_i the i th output, are random variables with range \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} respectively. If each Y_i only depends on the actual input X_i , and possibly some randomness, then the system is called a random function.

Definition 2.7.2. Let $S = (S_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $T = (T_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ be two $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$ -systems, then S and T are computationally indistinguishable if for any computationally efficient distinguisher D , interacting with one of these systems and generating a binary output, the advantage

$$|\Pr [D(S_k) \rightarrow 1] - \Pr [D(T_k) \rightarrow 1]| \leq \text{negl}(k),$$

for security parameter k .

2.7 Proof Techniques

The following proposition describes how this notion is utilised in security reductions:

Proposition 2.7.3.

For S and T defined above, it is said S and T are indistinguishable if and only if for every cryptosystem $C(T)$ using T as a component, the cryptosystem $C(S)$ obtained from $C(T)$ by replacing the component T with S is at least as secure as $C(T)$.

It's important to note that this proposition only applies when the resources involved have no public interfaces, i.e an adversary has no direct access to these components.

It is often the case that an adversary will have more access than this; she may have access to another interface which the first interface interacts with, such as a permutation a construction utilises. We label the interface with the construction to be the private interface (or interface 1) while the primitive this interface utilises is called the public interface (or interface 2). This motivates the definition of indistinguishability:

Definition 2.7.4. For S and T defined above, it is said that S is indistinguishable from T , if for any distinguisher D with binary output there is a system P such that the advantage

$$|\Pr [D(S_k^1, S_k^2) \rightarrow 1] - \Pr [D(T_k^1, P(T_k^2)) \rightarrow 1]| \leq \text{negl}(k),$$

for security parameter k . This is easier to understand using Figure 2.13:

2.7 Proof Techniques

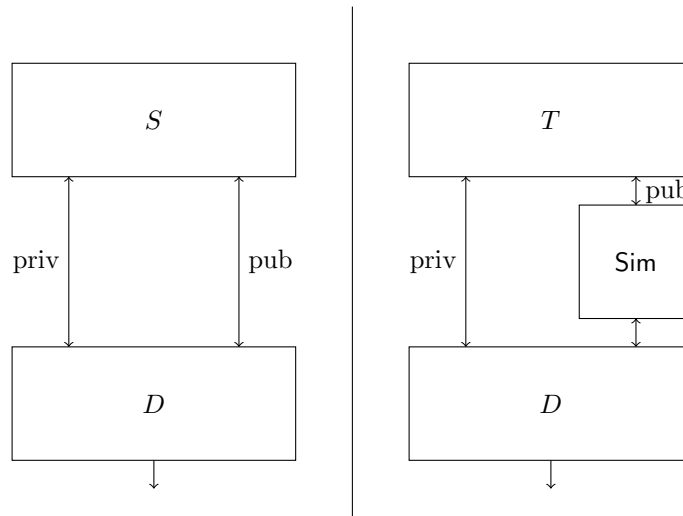


Figure 2.13: The distinguisher D differentiating between S and T is either connected as in the left or right. In the first case D has direct access to both the public and private interfaces of S , while in the latter case the access to the public interface of T is replaced by an intermediate system P (called sim) that can make its own calls to the public interface of T .

An example of differentiability

For clarity we give an example of how two constructions can easily be differentiable due to the interfaces the adversary has access to.

Theorem 2.7.5.

Let f, g be random functions on $\{0, 1\}^n$ and let f^2 denote f applied iteratively twice. Then, f^2, f is differentiable from $g, \text{sim}[g]$, or, in other words, there exists no efficient simulator that can fool the proposed distinguisher D .

The idea behind Theorem 2.7.5 can be seen clearer in Figure 2.14.

2.7 Proof Techniques

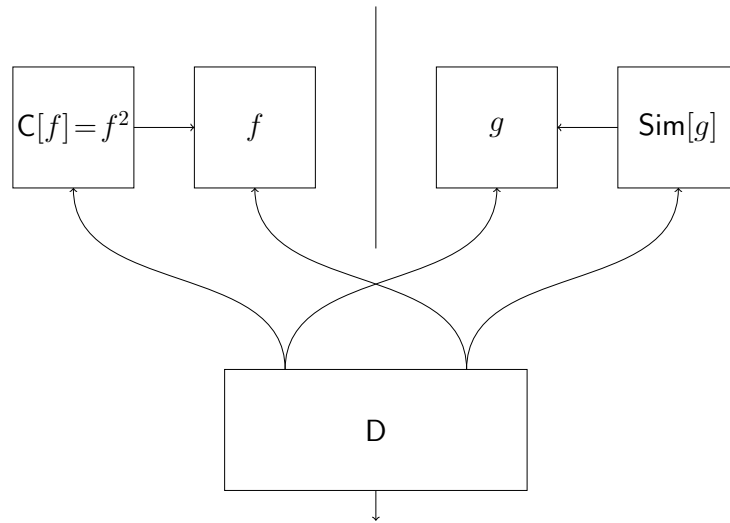


Figure 2.14: The interfaces available to the distinguisher D .

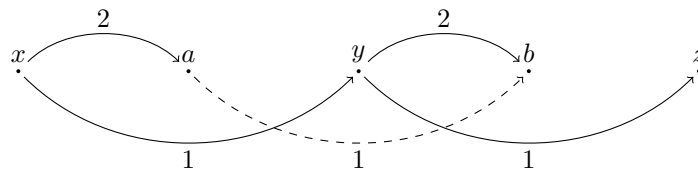


Figure 2.15: Illustrating the method D uses to cause a contradicting output from the simulator.

Proof. The Distinguisher is defined as follows: Query the left interface with some $x \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n$, with y the result of this query. D queries the left interface again with y , and receives the response z .

Next, D queries the right interface with y and will receive the response b . If the right interface is the simulator, it can easily deduce that whatever it outputs must be linked to z , by querying the left interface with y . This is so that $f(y) = b$ and $f(b) = z$ to maintain consistency.

The distinguisher now queries the left interface with x , which outputs a value a . The simulator can deduce that x is linked to y , which is linked to b , but with overwhelming probability the output a will not be correct if queried to the left interface. This is due to $g(a) \neq b$ with overwhelming probability ($1/2^n$). \square

2.7 Proof Techniques

Corollary 2.7.6.

This attack does not apply if f, g are random permutations and the construction allows inverse queries, since the simulator can query $(f^2/g)^{-1}(b) := a$ and link this value with x and y .

2.7.2 H-coefficient Technique

This section gives a brief introduction to Patarin’s H-coefficient technique with a focus on its use in cryptographic proofs. Influenced by [23] and initially defined in [47], the H-coefficient technique is applied by splitting the “transcripts” of a game into two or more distinct sets; calculating the probability of the real or ideal world outputting transcripts in a particular set yields a close bound for the statistical distance of the real and ideal world.

A high level overview is that of a q -query information theoretic adversary \mathcal{A} which can be assumed to be deterministic, making no redundant queries without loss of generality, interacting with an oracle ω representing either the real world or ideal world. The interaction \mathcal{A} has with this oracle ω is represented in a transcript τ , which includes a list of queries and their answers given by ω .

Let ω be an oracle that serves as the way the adversary \mathcal{A} interacts with the challenger in the chosen world. Let Ω_X refer to the probability space of all real world oracles with the uniform probability distribution, and similarly Ω_Y is the probability space of all ideal world oracles again with the uniform distribution.

2.7 Proof Techniques

Let \mathcal{T} be the set of all transcripts, with $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$ an individual transcript that describes, in full, the interactions and final output between the adversary \mathcal{A} and the oracle she interacts with.

Further, the random variables X and Y are defined over the probability spaces Ω_X and Ω_Y respectively. We write $X(\omega) = \tau$ to refer to running \mathcal{A} on oracle ω for $\omega \in \Omega_X$, which in turn produces the transcript τ . The random variable Y is defined similarly using Ω_Y . Alternatively X and Y are the functions

$$\begin{aligned} X : \Omega_X &\longrightarrow \mathcal{T}, & Y : \Omega_Y &\longrightarrow \mathcal{T} \\ \omega &\longmapsto \tau, & \omega &\longmapsto \tau. \end{aligned}$$

If we fix a distinguisher \mathcal{A} , we can say that \mathcal{A} 's distinguishing advantage is upper bounded by

$$\text{SD}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} |\Pr[X = \tau] - \Pr[Y = \tau]|.$$

For simplicity we will only consider two sets; good and bad transcripts, which are denoted $\mathcal{T}_{\text{Good}}$ and \mathcal{T}_{Bad} respectively.

We say that an oracle $\omega \in \Omega_X$ is compatible with a transcript τ , and denote by $\text{comp}_X(\tau)$ the set of such oracles. Similarly, we denote by $\text{comp}_Y(\tau)$ the oracles $\omega \in \Omega_Y$ compatible with τ . It should be noted that this does not mean running \mathcal{A} with ω will always produce τ , since it may be the case that the particular transcript cannot be output by \mathcal{A} , e.g. it contains more queries than \mathcal{A} is allowed to make, i.e. $\Pr[X = \tau] = \Pr[Y = \tau] = 0$. The notion of compatible transcripts is often used in the H-coefficient technique by taking advantage of the following:

$$\Pr[X = \tau] = \frac{|\text{comp}_X(\tau)|}{|\Omega_X|} \text{ and } \Pr[Y = \tau] = \frac{|\text{comp}_Y(\tau)|}{|\Omega_Y|},$$

if either $\Pr[X = \tau] > 0$ or $\Pr[Y = \tau] > 0$, and noting that

$$\Pr[X = \tau] > 0 \implies \Pr[Y = \tau] > 0.$$

2.7 Proof Techniques

These quantities actually have some very interesting consequences. We note that the right hand sides are in fact independent of the choice of \mathcal{A} , which actually means that two adversaries produce two different transcripts τ_1, τ_2 that contain the same set of queries, possibly in different orders, they do so with the same probability.

An alternative way to calculate these quantities that sometimes may prove simpler is as follows:

$$\frac{|\text{comp}_X(\tau)|}{|\Omega_X|} = \Pr_{\Omega_X} [\omega \in \text{comp}_X(\tau)] \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{|\text{comp}_Y(\tau)|}{|\Omega_Y|} = \Pr_{\Omega_Y} [\omega \in \text{comp}_Y(\tau)].$$

Defining the split of transcripts is integral to the proof since the H-coefficient technique allows bounding the statistical distance of the random variables X and Y in the following way: suppose $\exists \epsilon \in [0, 1]$, such that $\forall \tau \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Good}}$, with $\Pr[Y = \tau] > 0$,

$$\frac{\Pr[X = \tau]}{\Pr[Y = \tau]} = \frac{\Pr_{\Omega_X} [\omega \in \text{comp}_X(\tau)]}{\Pr_{\Omega_Y} [\omega \in \text{comp}_Y(\tau)]} \geq 1 - \epsilon.$$

Finally, this culminates in the fundamental theorem of the H-coefficient technique as presented in [23]:

Theorem 2.7.7 (Equation 10).

Let $X, Y, \mathcal{T}_{\text{Good}}, \mathcal{T}_{\text{Bad}}, \tau, \epsilon$ be as above, then,

$$\text{SD}(X, Y) \leq \epsilon + \Pr[Y \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Bad}}].$$

A New Sponge-like PRNG with Analysis

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This chapter was published as a paper at SAC2016 and was originally done concurrently to work by Gaži and Tessaro [33] on improving the `sponge.prng` design which was published first and inspired several changes in our SAC2016 paper before its eventual submission. We compare our design to their updated design. This paper was also done concurrently to work by Andreeva, Daemen, Mennink and van Assche [2] who also decided to apply the H-coefficient technique to the sponge construction to prove security without using a differentiability proof.

We originally began work on modifying and improving the original sponge-based design `sponge.prng`, as introduced in [18] and as presented in Section 2.5.3 and Section 3.2.1. We designed an improved forward security measure and decided to call the design *Reverie*. We initially tried to apply the indifferenciability framework to analyse the design, however we discovered this was not applicable, as discussed in Section 3.2.3. We then began modifying the security model and proved security using the H-coefficient technique. Shortly afterwards, [33] was published and we decided to adapt their security model modifications, in part to allow for easier comparison. We altered our proofs to reflect this.

The design of *Reverie* draws on the Davies-Meyer construction [56, 26] for inspiration for the feed-forward design, matching the simplicity of the sponge design. The design was also influenced by the extensive analysis in [50, 19]. Introducing this measure invalidates the design’s status as a sponge which affects the applicability of the generic sponge security guarantee. We could have instead reformulated the sponge security guarantee by proving indifferenciability of the new design with an “ideal” PRNG.

This chapter first dictates the necessary preliminaries and the original `sponge.prng` design before we present the sponge-like design *Reverie*. We also provide the updates to the security model [29] from [33] that reflect the increased adversarial access afforded to the adversary in the security games due to the public random permutation that is present in the sponge-based setting.

3.1 Preliminaries

3.1 Preliminaries

Here we provide a reminder of the necessary definitions and notions before proceeding to the designs. More detail can be found in Sections 2.3 and 2.5.

3.1.1 Updates to Security Notions

Recall the following basic specification and notation of the sponge construction.

- A sponge is stateful, with an n -bit state s_i .
- The state s usually denoted with an identifier such as s_i , to refer to the i -th state, is split into an inner state of c -bits, denoted by \widehat{s}_i and outer state of r -bits and is denoted \bar{s}_i .
- We will often write the state as $s_i = (\bar{s}_i \parallel \widehat{s}_i)$ where \parallel is the usual concatenation of strings.
- The construction defined in this thesis utilises a public, random permutation π from the set \mathcal{P}_n of all permutations on n -bits.
- We denote by r_{i+1} the output associated with the i th call to the generator using `next`, which we denote as $\text{next}(s_i) = (s_{i+1}, r_{i+1})$.

We require a slightly modified definition of a distribution sampler which we give below in Definition 3.1.1, followed by an updated notion of what it means for a distribution sampler \mathcal{D} to be legitimate, given in Definition 3.1.2.

3.1 Preliminaries

Definition 3.1.1 (Originally from [29] but as amended in [33]). A Q -distribution sampler is a randomised stateful oracle algorithm \mathcal{D} which operates as follows:

- It takes a state σ_i , with initial state $\sigma_0 = \perp$.
- $\mathcal{D}^\pi(\sigma_i)$ outputs a tuple $(\sigma_i, \mathcal{S}_i, \gamma_i, z_i)$, where
 - σ_i is the new state of \mathcal{D}^π ,
 - \mathcal{S}_i is a source with range $[\mathcal{S}_i] \subseteq \{0, 1\}^{\ell_i}$ for some $\ell_i \geq 1$,
 - γ_i is an entropy estimation for \mathcal{S}_i which will be discussed further below,
 - z_i is the leakage and/or auxiliary information about \mathcal{S}_i .
- When run $q_{\mathcal{D}}$ times, the number of queries to the permutation π made by \mathcal{D}^π and $\mathcal{S}_1, \dots, \mathcal{S}_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}$ is at most $Q(q_{\mathcal{D}})$.

For simplicity, $(\sigma_i, \mathcal{I}_i, \gamma_i, z_i) \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{D}^\pi(\sigma_{i-1})$ is written as the overall process of running \mathcal{D} and the generated source \mathcal{S}_i . Next, we will require restriction to a certain class of distribution samplers to avoid trivial wins for the adversary and to allow for the public random permutation. We start with the following game, as given in [33, Definition 3].

Let \mathcal{D} be a distribution sampler, \mathcal{A} an adversary and fix an $i^* \in [q_{\mathcal{D}}]$. Let $Q_{\mathcal{D}}$ be the set of all input-output pairs of permutation queries made by \mathcal{D} and by all \mathcal{S}_j for $j \in [q_{\mathcal{D}}] \setminus \{i^*\}$.

Then \mathcal{D} is said to be a $(q_{\mathcal{D}}, q_{\pi})$ -legitimate distribution sampler if for every adversary \mathcal{A} making q_{π} queries and every $i^* \in [q_{\mathcal{D}}]$, all possible values of

$$(\mathbf{I}_j)_{j \in [q_{\mathcal{D}}] \setminus \{i^*\}}, (\gamma_1, z_1), \dots, (\gamma_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, z_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}), V_{\mathcal{A}}, Q_{\mathcal{D}},$$

potentially output by the game given in Figure 3.1 with positive probability,

$$\Pr \left[\mathbf{I}_{i^*} = x \mid (\mathbf{I}_j)_{j \neq i^*}, (\gamma_1, z_1), \dots, (\gamma_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, z_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}), V_{\mathcal{A}}, Q_{\mathcal{D}} \right] \leq 2^{-\gamma_{i^*}},$$

for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^{p_i}$, which refers to the length of the \mathbf{I}_i which can be of arbitrary length but we assume are a-priori fixed parameters of the samplers.

3.2 Constructions

```

Game GLEGqπ,i*( $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}$ )
π  $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$  Pn
for j = 1, ..., qD do
    (σi, Si, γi, zi)  $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$  Dπ
    Ii  $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$  Siπ
VA  $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$   $\mathcal{A}((\gamma_j, z_j)_{j \in [q_D]}, (I_j)_{j \in [q_D] \setminus \{i^*\}})$ 
return ((I1, γ1, z1), ..., (IqD, γqD, zqD), VA, QD)

```

Figure 3.1: The game GLEG.

Definition 3.1.2 (Originally from [29] but as amended in [33]). A distribution sampler \mathcal{D} as defined above in Definition 3.1.1 is (q_D, q_π) -legitimate, if, for every adversary \mathcal{A} making q_π queries, every $i^* \in [q_D]$, and for any possible values

$$(I_j)_{j \neq i^*}, (\gamma_1, z_1), \dots, (\gamma_{q_D}, z_{q_D}), V_A, Q_D$$

potentially output by the game GLEG_{q_D,i*}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) with positive probability,

$$\Pr \left[I_{i^*} = x \mid (I_j)_{j \neq i^*}, (\gamma_1, z_1), \dots, (\gamma_{q_D}, z_{q_D}), V_A, Q_D \right] \leq 2^{-\gamma_{i^*}},$$

for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{i^*}}$, where the probability is conditioned on these particular values being output by the game.

3.2 Constructions

First we revisit the original sponge-based PRNG design of [18] as updated in [33]. The `sponge.prng` initialises a sponge in the usual way, with input materials being absorbed via the outer state of the sponge and outputs being read also from the outer state. There is an optional subroutine called `p.forget` that zeroes the outer state after an output to make the generator forward secure. This introduces the need to permute the state *before* each output, and then a further t times after the output has been read from the outer state.

3.2 Constructions

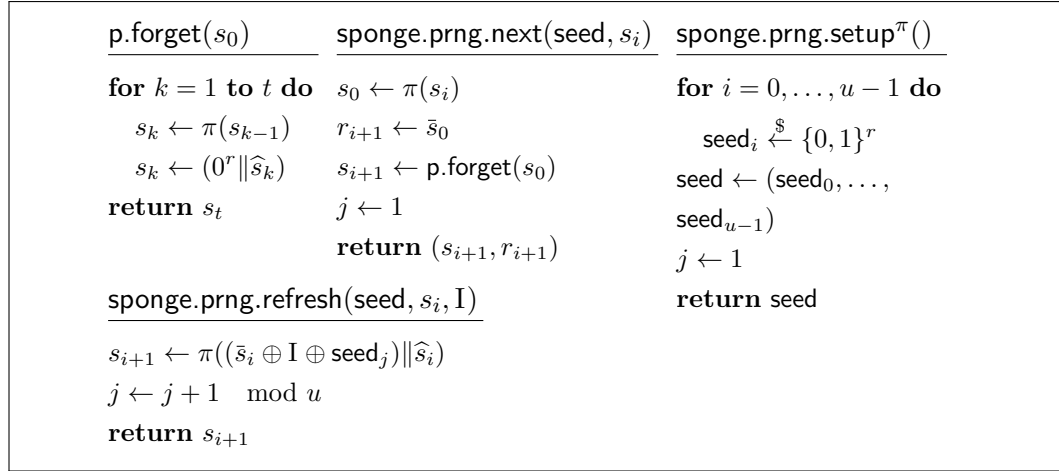


Figure 3.2: The algorithms describing the behaviour of the `sponge.prng`.

3.2.1 The Design of `sponge.prng`

The `sponge.prng` design originally defined in [18] (which is given in Section 2.5.3) with the additions from [33] including the addition of a seed, is defined as follows:

Definition 3.2.1. Let $n, r, c \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $\text{seed} \in \{0, 1\}^{ur}$, t the number of times the outer state is zeroed with $u, t > 1$, then

$$\text{sponge.prng}_{u,t,n,r}^\pi := (\text{sponge.prng.setup}^\pi, \text{sponge.prng.refresh}^\pi, \text{sponge.prng.next}^\pi),$$

as described in Figure 3.2.

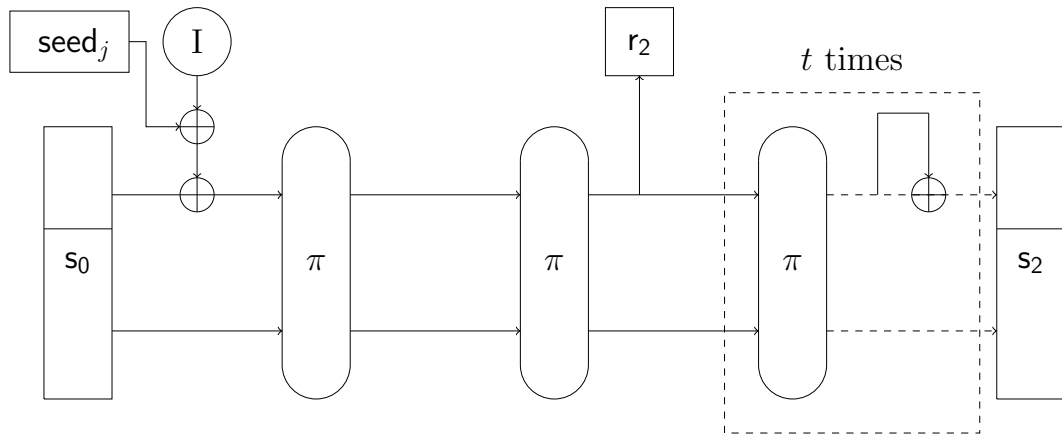


Figure 3.3: The `sponge.prng` in operation.

3.2 Constructions

We improve the design of the next algorithm to ensure our design is more efficient, making a single call to the permutation π , compared with $1 + t$ calls in the `p.forget` procedure. This results in a design better suited for practical application, especially those that restrict the number of calls to π due to hardware or clock restraints, such as smart card usage. Since the `p.forget` procedure of the previous design calls the permutation $1 + t$ times, with zeroing, it presents the problem of increased collisions in the state, something that is avoided by our design and thus our bound is mainly limited by the collision factor associated with the refresh procedure. This potentially makes our generator comparatively more secure, since the zeroing of the outer state in the `p.forget` procedure means a collision in the inner state leads to a full-state collision and thus an output cycle which is avoided in our design.

Our improved design can be seen in Figure 3.5 for further clarity. Although this design departs slightly from the sponge design, it can still be captured by the more generalised structure of the parazona as defined in [3] which we explore in Section 3.6. Given access to the underlying permutation function, our design can be easily implemented.

3.2 Constructions

Reverie.setup $^\pi()$	Reverie.next(seed, s_i)	Reverie.refresh(seed, s_i, I)
for $i = 0, \dots, u - 1$ do seed $_i \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^r$ seed \leftarrow (seed $_0, \dots, \text{seed}_{u-1}$) $j \leftarrow 1$ return seed	$r_{i+1} \leftarrow \bar{s}_i$ $s_{i+1} \leftarrow (\pi(s_i) \oplus (0^r \parallel \hat{s}_i))$ return (s_{i+1}, r_{i+1})	$s_{i+1} \leftarrow \pi((\bar{s}_i \oplus I \oplus \text{seed}_j) \parallel \hat{s}_i)$ $j \leftarrow j + 1 \pmod u$ return s_{i+1}

Figure 3.4: The algorithms describing the behaviour of Reverie.

3.2.2 The Design of Reverie

The design of Reverie was inspired by the Davies-Meyer compression function after identifying that so many calls to the underlying permutation in the `sponge.prng.p.forget` procedure seemed very inefficient with room for improvement. We considered several different options, such as splitting the state and using one part to key a permutation for the other part and vice versa, but decided on the Davies-Meyer inspired option due to its simplicity.

Definition 3.2.2. Let $n, r, c \geq 1$ and $c := n - r, \ell = p = r$, together with $\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{P}_n$, and seed $\text{seed} \in \{0, 1\}^{ur}$ with $u > 1$, then

$$\text{Rev}_{u,n,r}^\pi := (\text{Reverie.setup}^\pi, \text{Reverie.refresh}^\pi, \text{Reverie.next}^\pi),$$

as described in Figure 3.4.

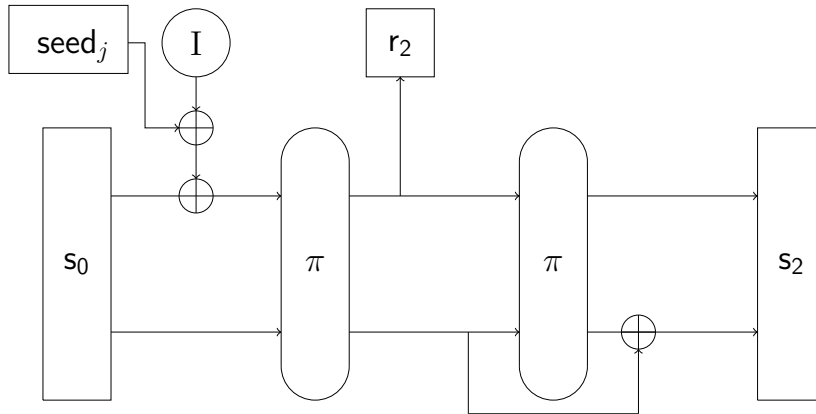


Figure 3.5: The Reverie PRNG in operation.

3.3 Security Notions in the Ideal Permutation Model

3.2.3 Differentiability of the Construction

Unfortunately the indistinguishability proof of the sponge construction does not apply to *Reverie* for several reasons; one is that *Reverie* is not a sponge and second, a random oracle does not capture the behaviour of a PRNG nor the adversarial access afforded to an adversary in the PRNG security model. Even if \mathcal{RO} is replaced with some notion of an ideal PRNG, the existence of the public random permutation prevents an indistinguishability proof from being possible. We also note that the paper by Ristenpart, Shacham and Shrimpton [51] implies that utilising an indistinguishability result would not be possible in proving the robustness of the construction. This is in part due to the security notions having multiple disjoint adversarial stages.

3.3 Security Notions in the Ideal Permutation Model

This section defines the notion of robustness originally from [29], but augmented as in [33], to allow for the publicly available random permutation. Robustness is the strongest security notion of the security model. We also include definitions of two weaker notions of security; preserving and recovering security, which together imply that a PRNG fulfils the requirements of robustness.

As per the definitions of [29], γ^* refers to a minimal “fresh” entropy in the PRNG system when security should be expected but below which is assumed to be compromised. Minimising γ^* corresponds to a stronger security guarantee.

An adversary is modelled using a pair $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D})$, where \mathcal{A} is the actual \mathbf{q}_π -query adversary and \mathcal{D} is a $(\mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{q}_\pi)$ -legitimate distribution sampler. The adversary \mathcal{A} 's goal is to determine a challenge bit \mathbf{b} picked during the initialise procedure; this procedure also returns *seed* to the adversary.

Definition 3.3.1. A PRNG with input \mathbf{G} is called $((\mathbf{q}_\pi, \mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{q}_\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{q}_\mathbf{S}), \gamma^*, \epsilon_{\text{rob}})$ -robust ($\text{rob}_\mathbf{G}^{\gamma^*}$) if for any adversary \mathcal{A} making at most \mathbf{q}_π queries to π^\pm , making at most $\mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}$ calls to \mathcal{D} -refresh, $\mathbf{q}_\mathbf{R}$ calls to next-ror/get-next and $\mathbf{q}_\mathbf{S}$ calls to get-state/set-state and any legitimate distribution sampler \mathcal{D} , the advantage of any adversary in the robustness game is at most ϵ_{rob} , which is defined in Equation (3.3.1). The adversary

3.3 Security Notions in the Ideal Permutation Model

Procedure: Initialise () $\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{P}_n$ $\text{seed} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{setup}^\pi$ $s_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n$ $\sigma \leftarrow \perp$ $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{false}$ $e \leftarrow n$ $\mathbf{b} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ return seed	Procedure: Finalise (\mathbf{b}^*) if $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}^*$ then return 1 else return 0	Oracle: $\pi(x)$ return $\pi(x)$ Oracle: $\pi^{-1}(x)$ return $\pi^{-1}(x)$
Procedure: next-ror () $(s_{i+1}, r_0) \leftarrow \text{next}^\pi(\text{seed}, s_i)$ $r_1 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^r$ if corrupt = true $e \leftarrow 0$ return r_0 else return r_b	Procedure: get-state () $e \leftarrow 0$ $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{true}$ return s_i	Procedure: set-state (s^*) $e \leftarrow 0$ $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{true}$ $s_i \leftarrow s^*$
Procedure: next-ror () $(s_{i+1}, r_0) \leftarrow \text{next}^\pi(\text{seed}, s_i)$ $r_1 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^r$ if corrupt = true $e \leftarrow 0$ return r_0 else return r_b	Procedure: get-next () if corrupt = true then $e \leftarrow 0$ return r_{i+1}	Procedure: \mathcal{D}-refresh() $s_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{refresh}^\pi(\text{seed}, s_i, \mathbf{I})$ $e \leftarrow e + \gamma$ if $e \geq \gamma^*$ then corrupt \leftarrow false return (γ, z)

Figure 3.6: The updated security procedures, updated from the original definitions given in [29]. Boxed items indicate changes.

\mathcal{A} has access to a subset of the following oracles, dependent on the security game that it is playing; the full set is available in $\text{rob}_G^{\gamma^*}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D})$. We say that an adversarial pair $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D})$ playing the robustness game as described in Figure 3.6, with a PRNG G , have advantage

$$\text{Adv}_G^{\gamma^*-\text{rob}}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) := \left| 2\Pr \left[\text{rob}_G^{\gamma^*}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) \Rightarrow 1 \right] - 1 \right| \leq \epsilon_{\text{rob}}. \quad (3.3.1)$$

Next, we define two further security notions: preserving security and recovering security. If a PRNG satisfies both these notions then, by Theorem 1 of [29] (updated in the IPM in [33, Theorem 4]), the generator in question satisfies the robustness security notion under the corresponding parameters.

3.3 Security Notions in the Ideal Permutation Model

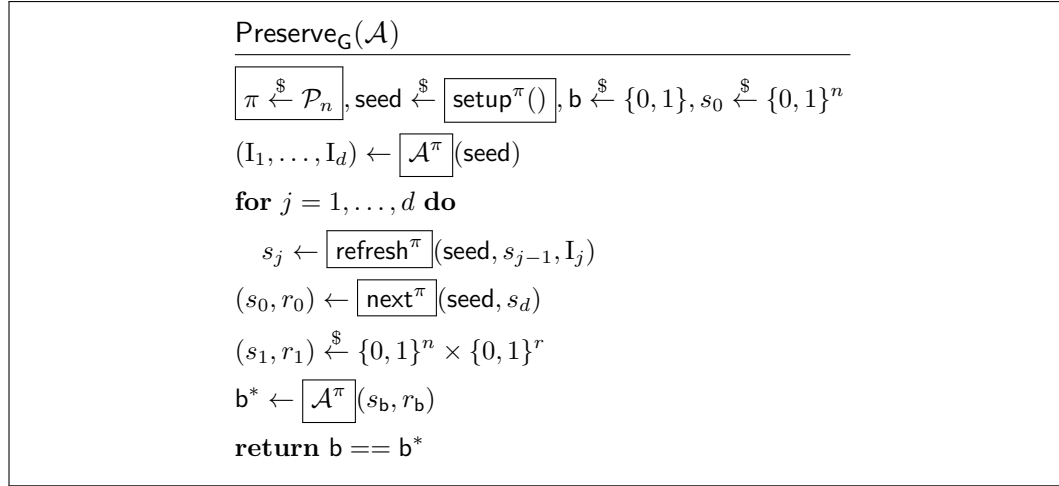


Figure 3.7: The security game for preserving security, updated from the original definitions given in [29, Definition 4]. Boxed items indicate changes.

3.3.1 Preserving Security

Informally, preserving security states that if the state of a generator starts uncompromised, and is refreshed using compromised input, then the next output and resulting state are still indistinguishable from random.

Definition 3.3.2. A PRNG with input is said to have $(\mathbf{q}_\pi, \epsilon_p)$ -preserving security if the advantage of any adversary \mathcal{A} making at most \mathbf{q}_π queries to π^\pm in the game given in Figure 3.7 is at most ϵ_p , where the advantage is defined to be

$$\text{Adv}_G^{\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}) := |2\Pr[\text{Preserve}_G(\mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow 1] - 1| \leq \epsilon_p.$$

3.3 Security Notions in the Ideal Permutation Model

$\text{Recover}_G^{(\gamma^*, q_D)}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D})$	Oracle $\text{get-refresh}()$
$\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{P}_n, \text{seed} \xleftarrow{\$} \boxed{\text{setup}^\pi()}, \mathbf{b} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}, \sigma_0 \leftarrow \perp$	$k \leftarrow k + 1$
for $k = 1, \dots, q_D$ do	return I_k
$(\sigma_k, I_k, \gamma_k, z_k) \leftarrow \boxed{\mathcal{D}^\pi}(\sigma_{k-1})$	
$k \leftarrow 0$	
$(s_0, d) \leftarrow \boxed{\mathcal{A}^{\pi, \text{get-refresh}}}(\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{q_D}, z_1, \dots, z_{q_D}, \text{seed})$	
if $k + d > q_D$ then return \perp	
else	
if $\sum_{j=k+1}^{k+d} \gamma_j < \gamma^*$ then return \perp	
else	
for $j = 1, \dots, d$ do	
$s_j \leftarrow \boxed{\text{refresh}^\pi}(s_{j-1}, I_{k+j}, \text{seed})$	
$(s_0, r_0) \leftarrow \boxed{\text{next}^\pi}(\text{seed}, s_d)$	
$(s_1, r_1) \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^r$	
$\mathbf{b}^* \leftarrow \boxed{\mathcal{A}^\pi}((s_b, r_b), I_{k+d+1}, \dots, I_{q_D})$	
return $\mathbf{b} == \mathbf{b}^*$	

Figure 3.8: The security game for recovering security, updated from the original definitions given in [29, Definitions 3]. Boxed items indicate changes.

3.3.2 Recovering Security

Informally, recovering security implies that if a PRNG is compromised, inserting enough random entropy to refresh the internal state will ensure that the next output and state will be indistinguishable from random.

Definition 3.3.3. A PRNG with input has $(q_\pi, q_D, \gamma^*, \epsilon_r)$ -recovering security if the advantage of any adversary \mathcal{A} making at most q_D queries to π^\pm and distribution sampler \mathcal{D} , making at most $Q(q_D)$ queries to π^\pm , in the following game with $\gamma^* > 0$ is at most ϵ_r where advantage is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_G^{(\gamma^*, q_D)\text{-rec}}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) := \left| 2\Pr \left[\text{Recover}_G^{(\gamma^*, q_D)} \Rightarrow 1 \right] - 1 \right| \leq \epsilon_r.$$

3.4 Security Proofs

3.4 Security Proofs

This section consists of the security proofs of *Reverie*; the approach is to analyse the security of the next function as a PRG, which can then be applied in both preserving and recovering security. We then focus on the preserving and recovering security games, making use of the IPM composition theorem [33, Theorem 4].

Theorem 3.4.1.

For *Reverie* = $\text{Rev}_{u,n,r}^\pi$ as defined in Definition 3.2.2, let $\gamma^* > 0$, let \mathcal{D} be a $(\mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathbf{q}_\pi)$ -legitimate distribution sampler, let $\bar{q}_\pi := \mathbf{q}_\pi + Q(\mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}})$ and $\hat{q} := \bar{q}_\pi + \mathbf{q}_R + \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}d$. Then $\text{Rev}_{u,n,r}^\pi$ is $((\mathbf{q}_\pi, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathbf{q}_R, \mathbf{q}_S), \gamma^*, \epsilon_r)$ -robust, for ϵ_{rob} as defined in the following equation:

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{Rev}_{u,n,r}^\pi}^{\gamma^*-\text{rob}}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) \leq \mathbf{q}_R \cdot \left(\frac{\bar{q}_\pi + 1}{2^{\gamma^*}} + \frac{Q(\mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}})}{2^{ur}} + \frac{7(\hat{q}^2 + 1) + 29\hat{q}}{2^{c-1}} + \frac{(2d^2 + 3)\hat{q} + d(3d + 2d)}{2^n} \right).$$

Proof. The theorem is the result of the preserving and recovering security bounds in Lemmas 3.4.11 and 3.4.13 respectively, combined by [33, Theorem 4], stated in Theorem 2.3.10. \square

Lemma 3.4.2 (PRG security of the next function).

Let U_x be the uniform distribution over x -bit strings, let next be as defined in Section 3.2.2, let $s_0 \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n$, then for any \mathbf{q}_π -query adversary \mathcal{A} ,

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{\text{PRG}} &:= \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{dist}}(\text{next}(U_n), (U_n, U_r)) \leq \left(2 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{\mathbf{q}_\pi}{2^{c-1}} + \frac{3\mathbf{q}_\pi}{2^{c-1}} \\ &= \left(5 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{\mathbf{q}_\pi}{2^{c-1}}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof outline: Distinguishing between $\text{next}(s_0)$ and random output $(s_1, r_1) \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^r$ naively, it seems like the adversary's only option is to guess the inner state of the secret initial state, by either a direct forward query to π or by an indirect guess that would reveal a candidate for this inner state through a query to π^{-1} .

3.4 Security Proofs

The proof proceeds by showing that this is in fact the optimal strategy. Since there are two parts to the challenge, the logical approach is to split the proof into first proving that one part of the challenge can be replaced with random, before approaching the remaining part of the challenge.

We note that unlike [33], the next function requires a uniformly random state; the difference is made up for in a game jump in the proof, but allows us to avoid an additional call to π , as is required in [33]. This step can be reinstated at the cost of a single additional call to π .

Proof. The formal proof proceeds by first defining three versions of the next algorithm in Figure 3.9.

These algorithms are set up so that on input $s_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n$, next_0 is precisely the next function on input s_0 , while next_2 has the same distribution as (U_n, U_r) . Lastly, next_1^π will be used as a hybrid game. Thus, by the triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{dist}}(\text{next}(s_0), (U_n, U_r)) &\leq \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{dist}}(\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0), \text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)) \\ &\quad + \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{dist}}(\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0), \text{next}_2(s_0)). \end{aligned}$$

What follows is to prove the bound using the H-coefficient technique. As described in Section 2.7.2, we assume that \mathcal{A} is deterministic and makes q_π non-repeating queries to the permutation π , denoted as

$$\tau_{\mathcal{A}} := (x_1, y_1, z_1), \dots, (x_{q_\pi}, y_{q_\pi}, z_{q_\pi}),$$

Algorithm $\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0)$	Algorithm $\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)$	Algorithm $\text{next}_2(s_0)$
$t \leftarrow \bar{s}$	$t \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^r$	$t \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^r$
$t \leftarrow \pi(s_0)$	$t \leftarrow \pi(s_0)$	$s \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n$
$s \leftarrow t \oplus (0^r \parallel \widehat{s}_0)$	$s \leftarrow t \oplus (0^r \parallel \widehat{s}_0)$	return (s, t)
return (s, t)	return (s, t)	

Figure 3.9: The algorithms $\text{next}_0^\pi, \text{next}_1^\pi, \text{next}_2$ used in proving the security of the next function.

3.4 Security Proofs

where $\forall i \in [1, \dots, q_\pi]$,

$$\begin{aligned} y_i &= \pi(x_i), \\ z_i &= y_i \oplus (0^r \parallel \widehat{x}_i). \end{aligned}$$

In addition to the challenge, the adversary in this distinguishing game is also given several other pieces of information at the end of the game, after all queries to π have been made, but before the adversary must output her decision. Formally, \mathcal{A} is given \widehat{s}_0 and $t' := (\widehat{s} \parallel (\widehat{s}_0 \oplus \widehat{s}))$ which it can compute for itself but is given for clarity. This completes the definition of a transcript for these experiments,

$$\tau := ((x_1, y_1, z_1), \dots, (x_{q_\pi}, y_{q_\pi}, z_{q_\pi}), \widehat{s}_0, t', (s, t)). \quad (3.4.1)$$

We say a transcript τ is compatible with $\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0)$ if it can be output in the experiment where \mathcal{A} receives $\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0)$. Since $\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)$ and $\text{next}_2(s_0)$ differ only by replacing real output with random, it is clear that if a transcript is compatible with $\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0)$ then it is compatible with $\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)$ and $\text{next}_2(s_0)$.

What follows is bounding the probability of different transcripts from each experiment.

Lemma 3.4.3.

For the experiments $\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0), \text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)$ as described in Figure 3.9,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{dist}}(\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0), \text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)) \leq \left(2 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}} + 0 = \left(2 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}.$$

Proof. First we define the bad transcripts for this pair of experiments:

Definition 3.4.4 (Bad transcripts \mathcal{T}_{Bad} for $(\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0), \text{next}_1^\pi(s_0))$). A compatible transcript as in Equation (3.4.1), is called a bad transcript if either of the following occur:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{State Collision (SC): } & \exists j \in [q_\pi] \text{ such that } x_j = (t \parallel \widehat{s}_0), \\ \text{Image Collision (IC): } & \exists j \in [q_\pi] \text{ such that } y_j = t'. \end{aligned}$$

The set of bad transcripts is denoted \mathcal{T}_{Bad} .

Let X_0, Y_0 be the random variables outputting transcripts that describe when \mathcal{A} interacts with $\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0)$ and $\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)$ respectively.

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Lemma 3.4.5.

For an adversary making no more than $q_\pi \leq 2^{c-1}$ queries to an oracle in the experiment $\text{next}_1(s_0)$,

$$\Pr [Y_0 \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Bad}}] \leq \left(2 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}.$$

Proof. Note that if $Y_0 \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Bad}}$ then $\text{SC} \vee \text{IC}$ must occur.

$$\Pr [Y_0 \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Bad}}] \leq \Pr [\text{SC}] + \Pr [\text{IC} \mid \neg \text{SC}].$$

The first probability is relatively easy to bound:

$$\Pr [\text{SC}] \leq \frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}. \tag{3.4.2}$$

Since the adversary is given t at the start of the game and s_0 is uniformly distributed over all the 2^c n -bit strings with outer bits equal to t , and recalling that $q_\pi \leq 2^{c-1}$, the probability that \mathcal{A} 's i -th query is of the form $((t \parallel \widehat{s}_0), y_i, z_i)$ is $\frac{1}{2^{c-i+1}}$. More formally, let $\Pr [\text{win}_i] := \Pr [x_i = (t \parallel \widehat{s}_0)]$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr [\text{win}] &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{q_\pi} \Pr [\text{win}_i] = \sum_{i=1}^{q_\pi} \frac{1}{2^{c-i+1}} \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{q_\pi} \frac{1}{2^c - 2^{c-1}} = \frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}. \end{aligned}$$

The second, since SC has not occurred, must be where the adversary is interacting with $\text{next}_1^T(s_0)$, where t was chosen uniformly at random from r -bit strings, and as such, was not used to produce s . There is the possibility that the randomly chosen t matches the real value of \bar{s}_0 which is reflected in the factor of $(1 - \frac{1}{2^r})$ in Equation (3.4.3).

The second probability is similar, in that the adversary has knowledge of \bar{s} , with $(\bar{s} \parallel (\widehat{s}_0 \oplus \widehat{s}))$ uniformly distributed over all the 2^c n -bit strings with outer bits equal to \bar{s} . It is also assumed that a SC has not occurred, meaning nothing beyond \widehat{s}_0 is known about s_0 . Then, similarly to above,

$$\Pr [\text{IC} \mid \neg \text{SC}] \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}. \tag{3.4.3}$$

Equation (3.4.3), together with Equation (3.4.2), complete the lemma. \square

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Lemma 3.4.6.

For all compatible transcripts $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Good}}$,

$$\Pr[X_0 = \tau] = \Pr[Y_0 = \tau].$$

Proof. For all $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Good}}$ (and for $\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{P}_n$),

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_0 = \tau] &= \\ &= \Pr[\forall i \in [\mathbf{q}_\pi], \pi(x_i) = y_i] \cdot \Pr[\pi(s_0) = (\bar{s} \| (\widehat{s}_0 \oplus \widehat{s})) \mid \neg\text{SC} \vee \neg\text{IC}] \\ &= \frac{1}{2^r} 2^r \frac{(2^n - \mathbf{q}_\pi - 1)!}{2^n!} = \Pr[Y_1 = \tau]. \end{aligned}$$

□

Putting Lemmas 3.4.5 and 3.4.6 together yields the result. □

Next, we prove the following:

Lemma 3.4.7.

For the experiments $\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0), \text{next}_2(s_0)$ as described in Figure 3.9 and by Theorem 2.7.7,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{dist}}(\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0), \text{next}_2(s_0)) \leq \frac{3\mathbf{q}_\pi}{2^{c-1}} + 0 = \frac{3\mathbf{q}_\pi}{2^{c-1}}.$$

Proof. This time the transcript is slightly different, in that the adversary is given the entire s_0 at the end of her queries to π , so

$$\tau := ((x_1, y_1, z_1), \dots, (x_{\mathbf{q}_\pi}, y_{\mathbf{q}_\pi}, z_{\mathbf{q}_\pi}), s_0, t', (s, t)).$$

Comparing the distributions of these two experiments yields one more bad event, along with a modified state collision and unchanged image collision:

Definition 3.4.8 (Bad transcripts \mathcal{T}_{Bad} for $(\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0), \text{next}_2(s_0))$). A compatible transcript as above, is called a bad transcript if any of the following occur:

State Collision (SC): $\exists j \in [\mathbf{q}_\pi]$ such that $x_j = s_0$,

Image Collision (IC): $\exists j \in [\mathbf{q}_\pi]$ such that $y_j = t'$,

Inversion (IN): $\exists j \in [\mathbf{q}_\pi]$ such that $z_j = s$.

The set of bad transcripts is denoted \mathcal{T}_{Bad} .

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Let X_1, Y_1 be the random variables outputting transcripts that describe when \mathcal{A} interacts with $\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)$ and $\text{next}_2(s_0)$ respectively.

Lemma 3.4.9.

For an adversary making no more than $q_\pi \leq 2^{c-1}$ queries to an oracle in the experiment $\text{next}_2(s_0)$,

$$\Pr[Y_1 \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Bad}}] \leq \frac{q_\pi}{2^{n-1}} + \left(2 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}} = \frac{2q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}.$$

Proof. Note that if $Y_1 \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Bad}}$ then $\text{SC} \vee \text{IC} \vee \text{IN}$ must occur, and thus:

$$\Pr[Y_1 \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Bad}}] \leq \Pr[\text{SC}] + \Pr[\text{IC} \mid \text{SC}] + \Pr[\text{IN} \mid \neg\text{SC} \wedge \neg\text{IC}].$$

The first probability is similar to before, but this time the adversary knows that \bar{s} (with high probability) was not queried to π to produce the challenge. This results in the following:

$$\Pr[\text{SC}] \leq \frac{q_\pi}{2^{n-1}}.$$

The second probability is similar to the case where an IC occurs in a transcript in either $\text{next}_0^\pi(s_0)$ or $\text{next}_1^\pi(s_0)$. Once again since \hat{s}_0 is uniformly distributed over $\{0, 1\}^c$, the probability that any of the adversary's queries $(x_i) = y_i$ or $\pi^{-1}(y_i) = x_i$ is such that $y_i = (\bar{s} \parallel \hat{s} \oplus \hat{s}_0)$ is at most $\frac{1}{2^{c-i+1}}$ resulting in the bound $\frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}$. It is also assumed that a SC has not occurred, meaning nothing beyond \hat{s}_0 is known about s_0 . Thus,

$$\Pr[\text{IC} \mid \neg\text{SC}] \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}.$$

Lastly, if neither a SC or IC has occurred, the probability of an IN can be expressed as

$$\Pr[\pi^{-1}(\bar{s} \parallel \hat{y}_i) = (\hat{x}_i \parallel (\hat{y}_i \oplus \hat{s}))],$$

which again is bounded by $\frac{q_\pi}{2^{c-1}}$ and together with the other events, yields the desired bound. \square

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Lemma 3.4.10.

For all compatible transcripts $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Good}}$,

$$\Pr[\Omega_{X_1} = \tau] = \Pr[\Omega_{Y_1} = \tau].$$

For all $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{Good}}$ (and for $\pi \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{P}_n$),

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X_1 = \tau] &= \Pr[\forall i \in [\mathbf{q}_\pi], \pi(x_i) = y_i] \cdot \Pr[\pi(s_0) = (\bar{s} \| (\hat{s}_0 \oplus \hat{s})) \mid \neg\text{SC} \vee \neg\text{IC} \vee \neg\text{IN}] \\ &= \frac{(2^n - \mathbf{q}_\pi - 1)!}{2^n!} = \frac{(2^n - \mathbf{q}_\pi)!}{2^n} \cdot \frac{1}{2^n - \mathbf{q}_\pi} = \Pr[Y_1 = \tau]. \end{aligned}$$

□

Putting Lemmas 3.4.9 and 3.4.10 together yields the result. □

Finally, these two lemmas complete the proof of the security of next. □

3.4.1 Preserving Security

Now that we have this tool, we can prove the following:

Lemma 3.4.11.

Given *Reverie* as defined in Section 3.2.2, and with ϵ_{PRG} as above, then for every \mathbf{q}_π -query adversary \mathcal{A} playing the preserving security game defined in Definition 3.3.2 with d adversarial refresh inputs, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}_{\text{Rev}_{u,n,r}^\pi}^{\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}) &\leq \epsilon_{\text{PRG}}(\mathbf{q}_\pi) + \frac{\mathbf{q}_{\pi'} + d}{2^n} + \frac{(d+1)(2\mathbf{q}_{\pi'} + d)}{2^n} \\ &\leq \frac{5\mathbf{q}_\pi}{2^{c-1}} + \frac{(2d+3)\mathbf{q}_\pi + d(d+2)}{2^n}, \end{aligned}$$

for $\mathbf{q}_{\pi'} := |\tau'_{\mathcal{A}}| \leq \mathbf{q}_\pi$.

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Proof outline The proof relies on proving that for a random secret initial state s_0 , the resulting state s_d will look random and thus, by our previous analysis of the next function, the challenge output will also be random.

Proof. Formally, we adapt the preserving security game, so that the intermediate state s_d is chosen uniformly at random rather than calculated using the adversarial inputs.

Let \mathcal{A} be the adversary playing in the preserving security game. Define $\tau'_{\mathcal{A}}$ to be as in Equation (3.4.1); the set of adversarial queries, but, restricted to only those made in the first part of the game, before the adversary has submitted her inputs and such that $|\tau'_{\mathcal{A}}| := \mathbf{q}'_{\pi} \leq \mathbf{q}_{\pi}$. Let I_1, \dots, I_d be the r -bit adversarial refresh inputs.

Let $\text{Preserve}_{\text{Rev}\pi}$ be the real world preserving security game as defined in Definition 3.3.2 with the defined algorithms of *Reverie* and chosen permutation π . Let $\text{Preserve}'_{\text{Rev}\pi}$ be identical to $\text{Preserve}_{\text{Rev}\pi}$ except s_d is replaced with $s_d \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n$.

We now aim to prove in two parts that, in the real world case, the first two games act the same with a small bound while in the ideal world case, they are identical. Following this, what remains is to prove that the advantage of an adversary in distinguishing the ideal world from the real world in $\text{Preserve}'$ is precisely the security bound of the next function from Lemma 3.4.2. For clarity, we say that $\text{Preserve}_{\text{Rev}\pi}(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow 1$ means the adversary outputs 1 as her guess of b .

Lemma 3.4.12.

For $\text{Preserve}_{\text{Rev}\pi}$ and $\text{Preserve}'_{\text{Rev}\pi}$ where the former is as described in Definition 3.3.2 and with the latter identical except $s_d \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \Pr \left[\text{Preserve}_{\text{Rev}\pi}^{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow 1 \mid b = 0 \right] - \Pr \left[\text{Preserve}'_{\text{Rev}\pi}^{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow 1 \mid b = 0 \right] \right| \\ \leq \frac{\mathbf{q}'_{\pi} + d}{2^n} + \frac{(d+1)(2\mathbf{q}'_{\pi} + d)}{2^n}. \end{aligned}$$

3.4 Security Proofs

Proof. To begin, we note that $s_0 \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n$, and is not revealed to the adversary. With this in mind, using lazy sampling of the permutation π (each new output is generated ad-hoc depending on what has been previously queried and output), we have

$$\Pr [\exists i \in [\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}] s.t. x_i = s_0 \oplus ((I_1 \oplus \text{seed}_1) \| 0^c)] \leq \frac{\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}}{2^{n-1}}.$$

Provided that this does not happen, the first intermediate state of the adversarial refreshes will be an unassigned value s_1 which will be uniformly chosen over the remaining $2^n - \mathbf{q}_{\pi'}$ unassigned values of π , and thus the probability that the next call to π will be on an already assigned value will be $\frac{\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}+1}{2^{n-1}}$. Iterating this method, we obtain:

$$\frac{\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}+1}{2^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}+d}{2^{n-1}} = \frac{d(2\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}+(d+1))}{2^n}.$$

So, with probability $1 - \frac{\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{d(2\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}+(d+1))}{2^n} = 1 - \frac{(d+1)(2\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}+d)}{2^n}$, the resulting state s_d after the adversarial refreshes will be the result of π called on an unassigned state. Then s_d will be chosen uniformly from the remaining $2^n - \mathbf{q}_{\pi'} - d$ unassigned values.

Finally, this implies the statistical distance between s_d in $\text{Preserve}_{\text{Rev}\pi}$ and s_d in $\text{Preserve}'_{\text{Rev}\pi}$ is at most $\frac{\mathbf{q}_{\pi'}+d}{2^n}$, which, together with the previous probability, yields the result. \square

Next, construct an adversary \mathcal{A}' that runs \mathcal{A} and simulates the $\text{Preserve}'$ game while inserting its own challenge and outputting the same bit as \mathcal{A} , which yields

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \Pr \left[\text{Preserve}_{\text{Rev}\pi}^{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow 1 \mid b = 0 \right] - \Pr \left[\text{Preserve}'_{\text{Rev}\pi}^{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow 1 \mid b = 1 \right] \right| \\ & \leq \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}^{\text{dist}}(\text{next}^{\pi}(\mathbf{U}_n), (\mathbf{U}_n, \mathbf{U}_r)). \end{aligned}$$

This, together with Lemma 3.4.12, completes the proof. \square

3.4 Security Proofs

3.4.2 Recovering Security

Thanks to the result of [33], the proof of recovering security can be expressed as an adaptation of their result; using the sponge as an extractor and the security of the next function. To formalise this:

Lemma 3.4.13.

Let $\mathbf{q}_\pi, \bar{q}_\pi := \mathbf{q}_\pi + Q(\mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}), r, s, c$ be as in Section 3.2.2. Let $\epsilon_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{q}_\pi, \mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D})$ be as described in [33, Section 5.3] and let $\epsilon_{\text{next}}(\bar{q}_\pi)$ be the bound as in Lemma 3.4.2 as a function of \bar{q}_π ; both with n, r, c as previously described. Given *Reverie*, also as in Section 3.2.2, $\gamma^* > 0, \mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D} \geq 0, \mathcal{A}$, a \mathbf{q}_π -query adversary against recovering security, and \mathcal{D} , a $(\mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{q}_\pi)$ -legitimate distribution sampler as defined in Definition 3.1.2. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}_{\text{Rev}_{\bar{u},n,r}^\pi}^{(\gamma^*, \mathbf{q}_\pi)\text{-rec}}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) &\leq \epsilon_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{q}_\pi + 1, \mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}) + 2\epsilon_{\text{next}}(\bar{q}_\pi) + \frac{\mathbf{q}_\pi}{2^{n-1}} \\ &\leq \frac{\bar{q}_\pi + 1}{2^{\gamma^*}} + \frac{Q(\mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D})}{2^{ur}} + \frac{7(\bar{q}_\pi^2 + 1) + 24\bar{q}_\pi}{2^{c-1}} + \frac{(\bar{q}_\pi + 1)d + d^2 + \mathbf{q}_\pi - 2\bar{q}_\pi}{2^{n-1}}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof outline: The strategy of the proof is to use the extractor properties of the sponge to replace the resulting state with a random state; following this the output of next will be random by the arguments of Lemma 3.4.2.

Proof. To formalise this, we require the construction of two adversaries, $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2$ with the former being a $(\mathbf{q}_\pi + 1)$ -adversary for the extraction lemma of [33] and the latter, a \bar{q}_π -adversary in the next distinguishing game. Then we have,

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{Rev}_{\bar{u},n,r}^\pi}^{(\gamma^*, \mathbf{q}_\pi)\text{-rec}}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}) \leq \text{Adv}_{\text{Sp}_{n,r,u}}^{(\gamma^*, \mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D})\text{-ext}}(\mathcal{A}_1) + \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_2}^{\text{dist}}(\text{next}^\pi(\mathbf{U}_n), (\mathbf{U}_n, \mathbf{U}_r)). \quad (3.4.4)$$

Let \mathcal{A} be the normal recovering security adversary, then \mathcal{A}_1 is built by running \mathcal{A} on $\text{seed}, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{\mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}}, z_1, \dots, z_{\mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}}$ received from the challenger, \mathcal{A}_1 forwards any π^\pm queries from \mathcal{A} to the π oracle, along with any get-refresh oracle queries to the associated oracle. Once this has been done, \mathcal{A} will output its chosen pair (s_0, d) , which \mathcal{A}_1 will again forward to the challenger as its chosen pair.

The challenger will then return the challenge s'_d and the remaining $\mathbf{I}_{k+d+1}, \dots, \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{q}_\mathcal{D}}$ to \mathcal{A}_1 , which forwards the latter straight to \mathcal{A} along with the output of $\text{next}(s'_d)$ which it computes. \mathcal{A}_1 continues to forward any π^\pm queries that \mathcal{A} makes, before \mathcal{A}

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makes it's guess \mathbf{b}^* , which \mathcal{A}_1 forwards to the challenger as its own guess. Since \mathcal{A}_1 only forwards the queries \mathcal{A} makes to π^\pm together with calling $\text{next}(s'_d)$, the query complexity of \mathcal{A}_1 is $q_\pi + 1$.

For $\mathbf{b} = 0$, this simulates precisely the recovering security game, while $\mathbf{b} = 1$ corresponds to \mathcal{A} receiving $(s, t) \leftarrow \text{next}(\mathbf{U}_n)$, as opposed to the correct challenge $(s, t) \xleftarrow{\$} (\mathbf{U}_n, \mathbf{U}_r)$. This is considered in the second term of Equation (3.4.4). \mathcal{A}_2 is now constructed by simulating the $b = 1$ version of the extraction game, while running \mathcal{A}_1 and using the distinguishing challenge.

Finally, all that is left is to upper bound these advantages; [33, Lemma 6] yields

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{SP}_{n,r,u}}^{(\gamma^*, q_{\mathcal{D}})\text{-ext}}(\mathcal{A}_1) \leq \epsilon_{\text{ext}}(q_\pi + 1, q_{\mathcal{D}}) + \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{D},n}^{(\gamma^*, q_{\mathcal{D}})\text{-hit}}(\mathcal{A}_1),$$

where the latter value is precisely the probability that \mathcal{A}_1 queries $\pi^{-1}(s_d)$ in the ideal case. Since \mathcal{A}_1 is only making queries to π that \mathcal{A} makes, this is in fact the probability that \mathcal{A} queries $\pi^{-1}(s_d)$, and since \mathcal{A} would either have to guess this value with probability $\frac{q_\pi}{2^{n-1}}$ or have to invert the next challenge to have made this query, this is in fact the advantage of \mathcal{A}_2 playing the distinguishing game on the next function, albeit with \bar{q}_π queries, due to the queries by the distribution sampler.

Thus, by Lemma 3.4.2 we have

$$\epsilon_{\text{PRG}}(\bar{q}_\pi) \leq \left(5 - \frac{1}{2^r}\right) \frac{\bar{q}_\pi}{2^{c-1}},$$

and

$$\epsilon_{\text{ext}}(q_\pi + 1) \leq \frac{\bar{q}_\pi}{2^{\gamma^*}} + \frac{Q(q_{\mathcal{D}})}{2^{ur}} + \frac{7(\bar{q}_\pi^2 + 2\bar{q}_\pi + 1)}{2^c} + \frac{(\bar{q}_\pi + 1)q_{\mathcal{D}} + q_{\mathcal{D}}^2}{2^{n-1}},$$

which completes the proof. \square

Comparing our bound to the bound proved in [33], the expected reduction from $t+1$ to 1 calls is easily seen in the numerators, especially the $\frac{1}{2^n}$ term, which contains a large number of multiplied terms. Both bounds are still dominated by the extraction bound, though our bound overall is improved, especially in the situation with a small outer state size r , which is where the `sponge.prg` performs poorest due to the `p.forget` procedure.

3.5 Practical Comparison

3.5 Practical Comparison

For completeness, we ran timing tests of both `Reverie` and the `sponge.prng` with various parameters set, both utilising the relevant Keccak permutation. The implementations were done in python and included calls to the respective forward security measures of each design after each block of output. In keeping with the underlying Keccak permutations, we tested the constructions on $b = 400, 800, \text{ and } 1600$, with $\ell = 512, 1024, \text{ and } 4096$ respectively. For ease and time saving, we precomputed initial states for each test and set them for better analysis of the output mechanisms; this equates to a generator that has been initialised and absorbed sufficient entropy to be in a random state.

In Section 3.2.1, we theorised that, in terms of calls to the underlying permutation π , `Reverie` takes time $\lceil \frac{\ell}{r} \rceil$, while `sponge.prng` takes $1 + \lceil \frac{\ell}{r} \rceil \lceil \frac{c}{r} \rceil$ time. In reality, `Reverie` also has the more complex XOR while `sponge.prng` zeroes states but this should not affect findings too drastically.

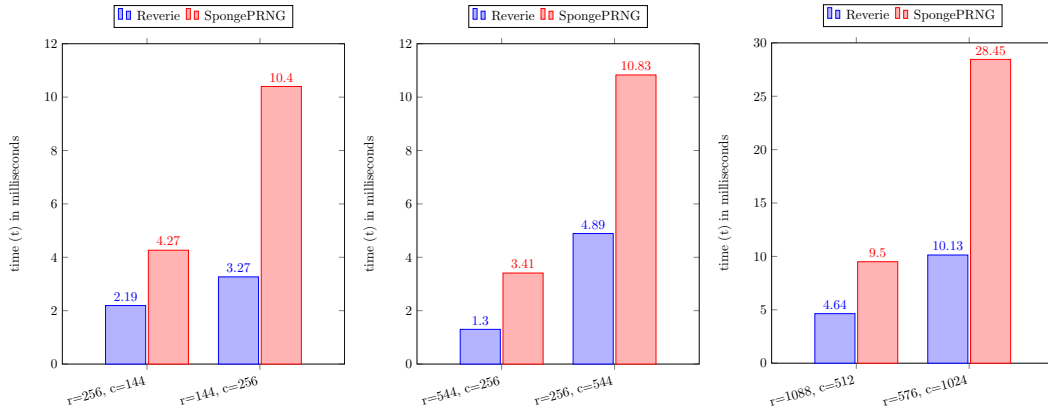
3.5.1 Results

We present our predictions and findings in Table 3.1 with associated graphs (Figures 3.10a to 3.10c) for visual aid.

3.5 Practical Comparison

$b = 400, \ell = 512$			$b = 800, \ell = 1024$			$b = 1600, \ell = 4096$		
	Reverie	sponge.prng		Reverie	sponge.prng		Reverie	sponge.prng
Prediction	2π	$3\pi \approx 1.5\times$	Prediction	2π	$3\pi \approx 1.5\times$	Prediction	4π	$9\pi \approx 2\times$
$r = 256$	2.19ms	4.27ms	$r = 544$	1.3ms	3.41ms	$r = 1088$	4.64ms	9.5ms
Actual	$1\times$	$\approx 2\times$	Actual	$1\times$	$\approx 2.5\times$	Actual	$1\times$	$\approx 2\times$
Prediction	4π	$9\pi \approx 2\times$	Prediction	4π	$9\pi \approx 2\times$	Prediction	8π	$17\pi \approx 2\times$
$r = 144$	3.27ms	10.4ms	$r = 256$	4.89ms	10.83ms	$r = 576$	10.13ms	28.45ms
Actual	$1\times$	$\approx 3\times$	Actual	$1\times$	$\approx 2\times$	Actual	$1\times$	$\approx 3\times$

Table 3.1: Timing test results, where results given in terms of π are calls to the permutation π .



(a) Average timings of 1,000,000 iterations with $b = 400, \ell = 512$.

(b) Average timings of 1,000,000 iterations with $b = 800, \ell = 1024$.

(c) Average timings of 1,000,000 iterations with $b = 1600, \ell = 4096$.

3.5.2 Conclusion

Our results agree with our predictions, bar a few cases such as $b = 800, r = 544$ where Reverie performs better than expected. This could be due to several factors in the Python deployment, or the XOR vs zeroing steps in the constructions, but remains close to our predictions. Ideally, we would compare our results with well known Crypto libraries, but this would require implementing the generators in C or C++ with a higher level of knowledge of optimising software than the authors possess.

3.6 Extension to Parazoa

Although *Reverie* cannot be described as a sponge, it does fit into the generalised family of parazoa, as described in Section 2.6. We remove the seed mechanism in favour of the vanilla sponge padding scheme, together with the vanilla sponge’s finalise algorithm that concatenates and truncates output. Removing the seed is necessary for both the padding and finalise functions to meet the requirements set out in Definitions 2.6.5 and 2.6.6. We also note that the reason for the seed is to “blind” adversarial input, whereas in the context of a parazoa function this is not necessary or could be incorporated into the f_1 function, with each seed hard coded into f_1 . Following Definition 2.6.7, we describe *Reverie* as a $(\ell_b, r, \ell_{\text{total}}, r, n)$ -parazoa with f_1, f_2, g_1 as described in the sponge function, together with g_2 given as the feed forward operation.

Proposition 3.6.1.

For Reverie as defined above, the capacity loss $d = 0$.

Proof. This follows in the same way as the sponge construction. To be precise, the first criterion in Definition 2.6.8, the capacity loss d is 0. We require that for a fixed x and a fixed output r , $f_1(s, \text{I}) = x$ for some I and $g_1(s) = r$. The former fixes the inner state which is left fixed by f_1 and is thus entirely defined by the value x , while the latter fixes the outer r -bits of s that match r . \square

What remains is to prove that g_2 is a bijection on the state which given full knowledge of π , along with s_i, s_{i+1} is trivial.

Then by [3, Theorem 1] *Reverie* has

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{Rev}^\pi, \text{sim}}^{\text{pro}}(\text{D}) = O\left(\frac{((K + \ell_b)q_1 + q_2)^2}{2^{n-r}}\right).$$

This matches the derived indifferenciability bound of the sponge, meaning our design does not reduce security in this setting and may present an alternate avenue to prove robustness via indifferenciability from an idealised PRNG.

3.7 Conclusion

We have presented an updated construction, *Reverie*, for a sponge-like PRNG. The construction incorporates an effective and efficient forward-security mechanism and we have provided proofs of both preserving and recovering security in the chosen security model. Our design makes a single call to the permutation on every invocation of *Reverie.next*, while the comparable generators make $1 + t$ calls. Our design choice ensures the underlying permutation is called far fewer times. Thus, the loss of security from collisions is reduced when compared to the relevant bounds of other designs.

The main limiting factor of the bound relates to the recovering security bound; and more precisely the extraction bound. This begs the question: can this bound be improved? This is briefly discussed in [33] in the present setting, but we would also like to consider other, possibly similar, mechanisms that may present a better security bound; for instance, would a full state refresh yield a better bound? Work by Mennink, Reyhanitabar and Vizár [44] suggests there may be room for improvement. A full state refresh, however, enables in practise an adversary to more easily affect or even set the state of the generator. The generation of output could be modified to only make use of the feed-forward after several outputs to reduce the complexity of the next function. This would give rise to a second version of *Reverie* when viewed as a *parazoa*.

Updated Security Model for PRNGs

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This chapter extends the security model of Dodis et al.[29], motivated by the design of the NIST PRNGs [7]. The principle aim of this extension is to better capture the possible ways the NIST PRNGs may be used in practise, allowing for a generate subroutine that performs a “small” state update between outputs. Other aims include better modelling the setup phase of a PWI, allowing for more accurate analysis of cold boot situations where sufficient entropy may not be available to the generator. We begin by recalling and building upon the definition of a PWI (PRNG with input), with our own definition of a variable-output PWI. We then update the notion of a masking function from [55] with the idea of a split masking function, which will be useful in later security proofs when a state contains, by design, non-random parts. We then update the notion of robustness, followed by preserving and recovering security. Once these notions have been established, we are able to update the combination proof that implies robustness from having both preserving and recovering security.

4.1 Preliminaries

To analyse the NIST PRNG constructions we will require an extended definition of a PWI, building on [29] and the additions of non-random parts of the state with the use of masking functions by Shrimpton-Terashima [55]. Our extended definitions will allow calls to the next function to request a varying amount of output, within a limit, as opposed to a set amount. This will capture PWIs that have a subroutine and an extra input to deal with requests that are over a certain length, yet only update the internal state once. This ability for the adversary to vary the amount of output is an almost mirror of the update the authors of [29] made to the security notion of refreshing the generator from [4] to enable an adversary to slowly feed entropy into the generator as opposed to all at once. Shrimpton and Terashima [55] add another field called IFace which refers to the interface to which the adversary is making a request. However, this does not help us in terms of analysing the NIST constructions, unless an implementation allowed for an interface that called the PWI with the derivation function enabled and another without the derivation function. Consequently we only consider a single interface.

Recall the original definition of the distribution sampler as given in [29] and Definition 2.3.1.

Definition 4.1.1. The distribution sampler \mathcal{D} is a stateful and probabilistic algorithm which, given the current state σ , outputs a tuple (σ', I, γ, z) where:

- σ' is the new state for \mathcal{D} ,
- $I \in \{0, 1\}^p$ is the next input for the refresh algorithm,
- γ is some fresh entropy estimation of I ,
- z is the leakage about I given to the adversary \mathcal{A} .

Let $q_{\mathcal{D}}$ be the maximum number of calls to \mathcal{D} in our security games. Then it is said that \mathcal{D} is legitimate if, for all $j \in \{1, \dots, q_{\mathcal{D}}\}$,

$$H_{\infty}(I_j | I_1, \dots, I_{j-1}, I_{j+1}, \dots, I_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, z_1, \dots, z_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}) \geq \gamma_j,$$

where H_{∞} is the minimum entropy function as defined in Definition 2.1.4.

4.1 Preliminaries

We model an adversary using a pair $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D})$, where \mathcal{A} is the actual adversary and \mathcal{D} is a stateful distribution sampler. The adversary \mathcal{A} 's goal is to determine a challenge bit b picked during the initialise procedure, which also returns the public parameters to the attacker.

The following definition is the updated definition from [55].

Definition 4.1.2 (PWI). Let $p, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$, let IFace , Seedspace , Statespace , be non-empty sets. A PRNG with input (PWI) with interface set IFace , seed space Seedspace , and state space Statespace , is a tuple of deterministic algorithms

$G = (\text{setup}, \text{refresh}, \text{next}, \text{tick})$, where

- **setup:** takes no input, and generates an initial PWI state $s_0 \in \text{Statespace}$. Although **setup** itself is deterministic, it may be provided oracle access to an entropy source \mathcal{D} , in which case its output s_0 will be a random variable determined by the random coins of \mathcal{D} .
- **refresh:** $\text{Seedspace} \times \text{Statespace} \times \{0, 1\}^p \rightarrow \text{Statespace}$ is a deterministic algorithm that takes a seed $\text{seed} \in \text{Seedspace}$, the current PWI state $s_i \in \text{Statespace}$, and a string $I_j \in \{0, 1\}^p$ as input, and returns a new state $s_{i+1} \in \text{Statespace}$.
- **next:** $\text{Seedspace} \times \text{IFace} \times \text{Statespace} \rightarrow \text{Statespace} \times (\{0, 1\}^\ell \cup \{\perp\})$ is a deterministic algorithm that, given seed , an interface label $m \in \text{IFace}$, and the current state $s_i \in \text{Statespace}$, returns a new state $s_{i+1} \in \text{Statespace}$, and either an ℓ -bit output value $r_{i+1} \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$ or a distinguished symbol \perp .
- **tick:** $\text{Seedspace} \times \text{Statespace} \rightarrow \text{Statespace}$ is a deterministic algorithm that takes the seed $\text{seed} \in \text{Seedspace}$ and the current state s_i as input, and returns a new state s_{i+1} .

It should be noted that this definition assumes that the **seed** is generated externally and provided to the PWI. The definition of a PWI is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

4.1 Preliminaries

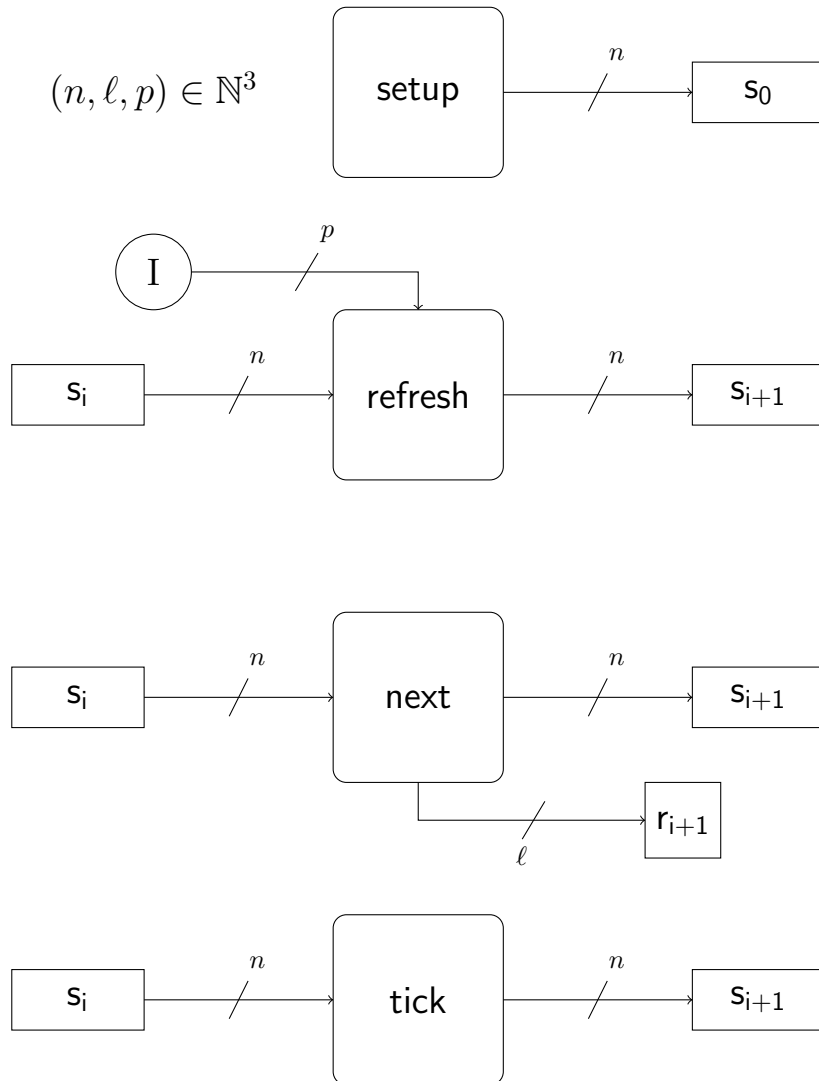


Figure 4.1: Definition of a PWI.

4.1 Preliminaries

We extend Definitions 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 in several ways:

- The distribution sampler will output an initial value I_0 which may be a concatenation of several outputs, which is independent of all other outputs and is used solely in the `setup` algorithm to generate the initial generator state.
- We add functionality to `next` so that each call can request a specific amount of output, bounded above by a parameter ℓ_{\max} . This reflects the capability of some generators to generate a varying amount of output per state update, often using a different subroutine to do so, or by just truncating output.
- We add a separate algorithm `seedgen` to model the generation of the seed. This is to capture the notion that in practice the seed cannot in general be chosen uniformly at random; the seed must be generated using either system entropy or be a fixed value. In our theoretical setting however, this becomes restrictive on \mathcal{D} since there must be a certain amount of separation between entropy used to generate the seed and entropy inputs to the generator.

One alternative option would be to have an entirely separate entropy source just for generating the seed. This is unlikely to be the case in practice due to the difficulty in providing good, independent entropy sources for the generator. There is also the question of whether providing more “good” entropy sources would negate the need for the seed; even if each entropy source was again modelled adversarially, albeit without the ability to communicate with the distinguisher or other entropy sources.

- We modify the algorithm `setup` slightly to take as input the public seed `seed`, which may be used in creation of the initial state s_0 . The algorithm `setup` is also given access to the entropy source. The latter generates a special I_0 that contributes to the creation of the initial state. We add several changes to \mathcal{D} to reflect this change and how this entropic I_0 must be independent of the other entropy values produced by \mathcal{D} .

The changes made to the `setup` algorithm are a conscious choice that could easily have been incorporated into the `refresh` algorithm. For example, a PWI state could include a single bit that represents whether the generator has been initialised. If this bit is set to 0 then the `refresh` algorithm would run in a different way to normal that would represent the initialisation of the state of

4.2 Definition of a VOPWI

the PWI. We decided to alter the definition of the `setup` algorithm to be more concrete in separating and highlighting this aspect of the design of a PWI.

4.2 Definition of a VOPWI

Formally, we have the following definition of a Variable-Output PRNG with Input:

Definition 4.2.1 (VOPWI). Let $p, \ell_i, \ell_{\max} \in \mathbb{N}$, let `IFace`, `Seedspace`, `Statespace`, be non-empty sets. A variable-output PRNG with input (VOPWI) with maximum output size $\ell_{\max} \geq \ell_i$, with interface set `IFace`, seed space `Seedspace`, and state space `Statespace`, is a tuple of deterministic algorithms $G = (\text{seedgen}, \text{setup}, \text{refresh}, \text{next}, \text{tick})$, where

- `seedgen` is a randomised algorithm that outputs $\text{seed} \in \text{Seedspace}$.
- `setup` is a deterministic algorithm that takes input `seed`, and is provided access to the entropy source \mathcal{D} which passes I_0 to `setup`. `setup` generates and outputs an initial VOPWI state $s_0 \in \text{Statespace}$.
- `refresh`: $\text{Seedspace} \times \text{Statespace} \times \{0, 1\}^p \rightarrow \text{Statespace}$ is a deterministic algorithm that takes a seed $\text{seed} \in \text{Seedspace}$, the current PWI state $s_i \in \text{Statespace}$, and a string $I_j \in \{0, 1\}^p$ as input, and returns a new state $s_{i+1} \in \text{Statespace}$.
- `next`: $\text{Seedspace} \times \text{IFace} \times \text{Statespace} \times 1^{\leq \ell_{\max}} \rightarrow \text{Statespace} \times (\{0, 1\}^{\leq \ell_{\max}} \cup \{\perp\})$ is a deterministic algorithm that, given `seed`, an interface label $m \in \text{IFace}$, the current state s_i , and the encoding of an integer $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$, and returns a new state s_{i+1} , and either an output value $r_{i+1} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{i+1}}$ or a distinguished, symbol \perp . If the generator never outputs \perp then it is called “non-blocking”.
- `tick`: $\text{Seedspace} \times \text{Statespace} \rightarrow \text{Statespace}$ is a deterministic algorithm that takes a seed `seed` and the current state $s_i \in \text{Statespace}$ as input, and returns a new state $s_{i+1} \in \text{Statespace}$.

The definition of a VOPWI is illustrated in Figure 4.2.

4.2 Definition of a VOPWI

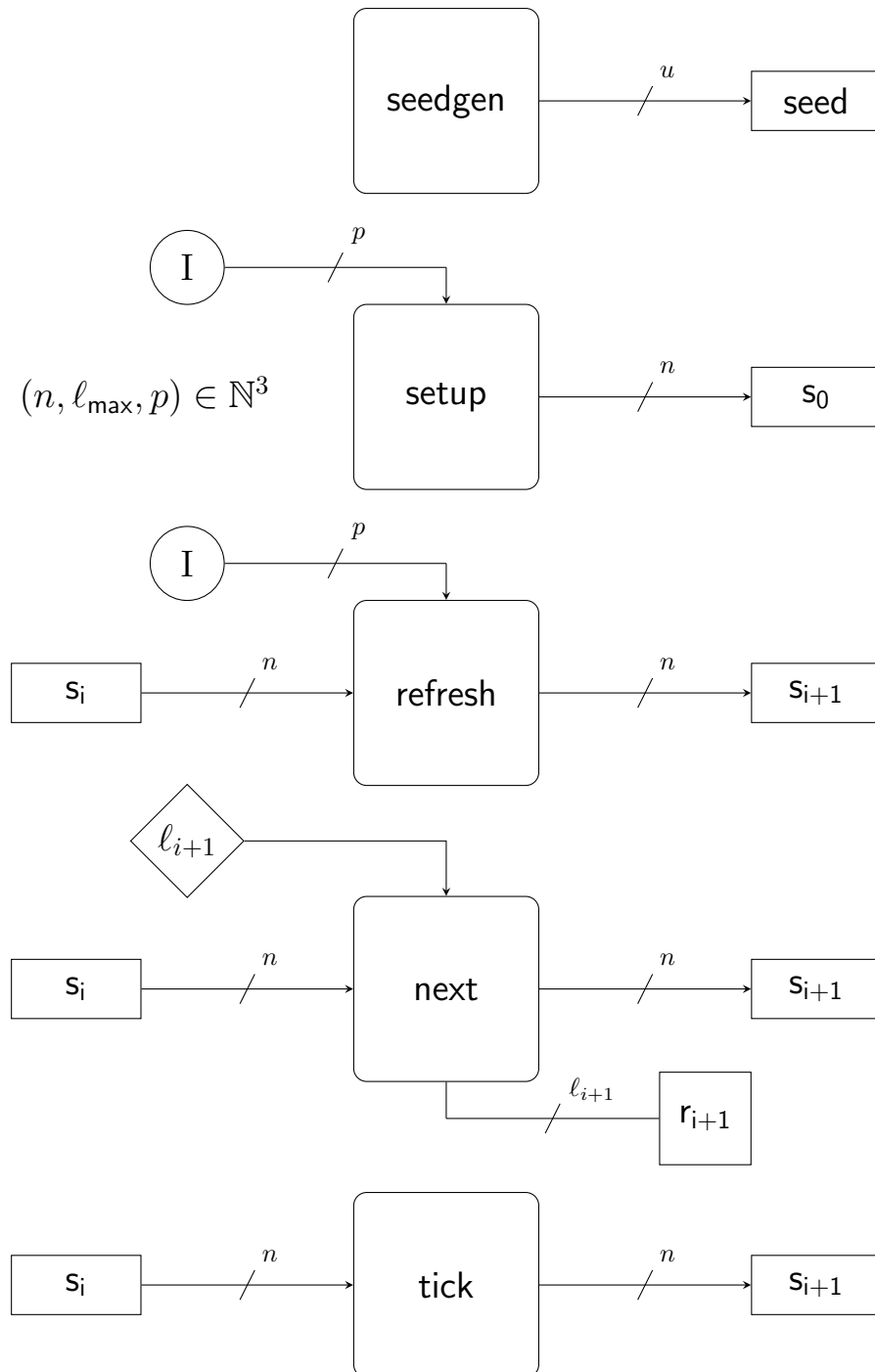


Figure 4.2: Definition of a VOPWI.

4.2 Definition of a VOPWI

Definition 4.2.2. The distribution sampler \mathcal{D} is a stateful and probabilistic algorithm which, given the current state σ , outputs a tuple (σ', I, γ, z) where:

- σ' is the new state for \mathcal{D} ,
- $I \in \{0, 1\}^p$ is the next input for the refresh algorithm,
- γ is some fresh entropy estimation of I ,
- z is the leakage about I given to the adversary \mathcal{A} .

In addition, we require that the distribution sampler outputs a special initial value I_0 , which we define as the totality of outputs from \mathcal{D} given as input to the algorithm setup. We do the same for γ_0 and z_0 . Often, we will assume γ_0 is enough to ensure the initial state generated is uniformly random, and $z_0 = \emptyset$. We will state this explicitly when we assume it.

Let $q_{\mathcal{D}}$ be the maximum number of calls to \mathcal{D} in our security games. Then it is said that \mathcal{D} is legitimate if, for all $j \in \{0, \dots, q_{\mathcal{D}}\}$,

$$H_{\infty}(I_j | I_0, \dots, I_{j-1}, I_{j+1}, \dots, I_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, z_0, \dots, z_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, \gamma_0, \dots, \gamma_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}) \geq \gamma_j.$$

Because of the special requirements on the initial I_0 we now also require I_0 to be independent of all the other refresh values, leakage and estimates and to satisfy a new minimum entropy requirement γ_0 .

It may be possible that we only require

$$H_{\infty}(I_0 | I_1, \dots, I_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, z_0, \dots, z_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, \gamma_0, \dots, \gamma_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}) = H_{\infty}(I_0) \geq \gamma_0.$$

This is a slight weakening of independence since there may be a difference in the actual amount of entropy of I_0 . However, as an example, we could define a distribution sampler such that the first bit of I_0 and I_1 are always the same and skewed towards 1, while the remaining bits are chosen uniformly at random. The minimum entropy of I_0 given I_1 would be equal, but this first bit could dictate a particular way the setup algorithm is run. This knowledge gives an adversary in possession of the first bit of I_1 a non-negligible advantage.

4.3 Masking Functions

In this section we will provide an overview of masking functions, as introduced in [55]. before updating them for our purposes and our new definition of a VOPWI.

Masking functions allow for non-uniform state, be it a counter or other unchanging or predictively changing parts of the state. It is still required that a part of the state is unpredictable to an attacker. This allows for proper modelling of generators that use states consisting of non-random parts along with an unpredictable, high-entropy part.

Formally, a masking function is defined as follows:

Definition 4.3.1 (Masking Function). Let Statespace be as defined in Definition 4.1.2. A masking function M is a randomised algorithm $M : \text{Statespace} \rightarrow \text{Statespace}$, that takes a state as input and outputs an ideal state.

As an example, let a state be of the form (a, b) , where a is a collection of static or predictable fields, while b is a high-entropy buffer, and define $M(s) := (a, b')$ where b' is sampled from some distribution by M .

The purpose of a masked state is to capture what characterises a “good” or perfect PWI state, for example, $M(s)$ should be indistinguishable from a state s that has accumulated enough entropy. Since a masked state should produce such a “good” state, a PWI called on such a state should produce pseudo-random output.

Of particular interest is the initial state of the PWI, s_0 . `Initialise` is modified slightly from the original definition given in Figure 2.4 as described in Figure 4.3; where the `setup` algorithm is given access to the entropy source. At this point we start thinking of an entropy source \mathcal{D} , which we will later place restrictions on similar to the distribution sampler. The behaviour of `Initialise` motivates the following definition:

Definition 4.3.2 (Honest-Initialisation Masking Functions). Let \mathcal{D} be an entropy source, $G = (\text{setup}, \text{refresh}, \text{next}, \text{tick})$ be a PWI with statespace Statespace , \mathcal{A} an adversary and $M : \text{Statespace} \rightarrow \text{Statespace}$ a masking function. Let (seed, Z) be a random variable output by running the initialise procedure (Figure 4.3), and s_0 be

4.3 Masking Functions

```

    Procedure: Initialise ()
     $\sigma \leftarrow 0, e \leftarrow 0, x \leftarrow -1$ 
     $\text{seed} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{seedgen}$ 
     $I_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \text{ES}$ 
     $s_0 \leftarrow \text{setup}(I_0)$ 
     $e \leftarrow \gamma_0$ 
    if  $e \geq \gamma^*$  then
         $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{false}$ 
     $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ 
    return  $(\text{seed}, (\gamma_0, z_0))$ 

```

Figure 4.3: The updated procedure `Initialise`. The boxed item denotes the change from the original definition in Figure 2.4.

the PWI state produced by this procedure. Set

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{M}}^{\text{init}}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(s_0, \text{seed}, Z) \implies 1] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\text{M}(s_0), \text{seed}, Z) \implies 1].$$

If $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{M}}^{\text{init}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon_h$ for all adversaries \mathcal{A} running in time t , then M is said to be a $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_h)$ -honest-initialisation masking function.

The definition of an honest-initialisation masking function is made with respect to a specific entropy source \mathcal{D} , making the assumptions required of \mathcal{D} dependent on the PWI in question, but these assumptions should be as weak as possible.

Following this definition we now define the notion of “bootstrapped” security, which refers to when a PWI starts from an “ideal” state, i.e. what we expect after a secure initialisation of the system.

Definition 4.3.3 (Bootstrapped Security). Let \mathcal{G} be a PWI and M be a masking function. For $x \in \{\text{fwd}, \text{bwd}, \text{res}, \text{rob}\}$ as defined in Section 2.3.1, let $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{D}}^{x/\text{M}}(\mathcal{A})$ be defined as $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{D}}^x(\mathcal{A})$ (as defined in Definition 2.3.6), but changing the procedure `Initialise` to the procedure given in Figure 4.4.

These new notions are useful, since they allow us to work with an idealised initial state. However, it is necessary to prove that the masking function fully and

4.3 Masking Functions

```
Procedure: Initialise ()  
 $\sigma \leftarrow 0, e \leftarrow 0, x \leftarrow -1$   
seed  $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$  seedgen  
 $I_0 \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$  ES  
 $s_0 \leftarrow \text{setup}(I_0)$   
 $e \leftarrow \gamma_0$   
 $s_0 \leftarrow M(s_0)$   
if  $e \geq \gamma^*$  then  
    corrupt  $\leftarrow$  false  
 $b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$   $\{0, 1\}$   
return (seed,  $(\gamma_0, z_0)$ )
```

Figure 4.4: The updated procedure Initialise for bootstrapped security. The boxed item denotes the change from the definition in Figure 4.3.

accurately reflects the setup procedure being run.

4.3 Masking Functions

Theorem 4.3.4 (from Theorem 1.6 of [55]).

Let G be a PWI, \mathcal{D} an entropy source, and M a masking function. Suppose that M is a $(G, \mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_h)$ -honest initialisation mask. Then for any $x \in \{\text{fwd}, \text{bwd}, \text{res}, \text{rob}\}$ as defined in Section 2.3.1, there exists some adversary $\mathcal{B}(\cdot)$ such that for any adversary \mathcal{A} ,

$$\text{Adv}_{G, \mathcal{D}}^x(\mathcal{A}) \leq \text{Adv}_{G, \mathcal{D}}^{x/M}(\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{A})) + \epsilon_h.$$

If it takes time t' to compute M , \mathcal{A} makes q queries and runs in time t , then $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{A})$ makes q queries and runs in time $\mathcal{O}(t) + t'$.

The authors of [55] proceed by proving an analogy of [29, Theorem 1]. The theorem shows that if a PWI satisfies two simpler notions of security, called preserving and recovering security, as defined in Definitions 2.3.7 and 2.3.8, then the PWI in question satisfies the conditions of robustness in the Shrimpton-Terashima setting. This Shrimpton-Terashima setting refers to the authors' extended definitions of the original definitions of [29].

4.3 Masking Functions

Theorem 4.3.5 (Informal).

Let G be a PWI and suppose there exists a split masking function M such that

1. When starting from an arbitrary initial state s_0 of the adversary's choosing, the final PWI state s is indistinguishable from $M(s'_0)$, provided the PWI obtains sufficient entropy specified by the construction. This requirement is formalised as recovering security.
2. When starting from an initial state $M(s'_0)$ (adversarially chosen s'_0), the final PWI state s is indistinguishable from $M(s)$, even if the adversary controls the intervening entropy inputs. This requirement is formalised as preserving security.
3. G produces pseudo-random outputs when in a masked state.

Then G is robust.

The following additional property is required of the masking function for use in the proof of robustness and is as stated in [55, Definition 8].

Definition 4.3.6 (Idempotent Masking Functions). A masking function $M : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ is idempotent if, for any state $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$, $M(s)$ and $M(M(s))$ are identically distributed random variables.

4.4 Updated Security Notions

4.4 Updated Security Notions

Having summarised the modifications of [55] to the definitions of [29], we extend their definitions for analysis of the NIST generators. We start by updating the existing security notions to encompass our changes in Figure 4.5.

Definition 4.4.1 (Variable-Output Robustness). A Variable-Output PRNG with input is called $(t, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}, \mathfrak{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathfrak{q}_{\mathcal{S}}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_{\text{rob}})$ -robust ($\text{rob}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}$) if for any attacker \mathcal{A}

Procedure: Initialise () $\sigma \leftarrow 0, e \leftarrow 0, x \leftarrow -1$ $\text{seed} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{seedgen}$ $I_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \text{ES}$ $s_0 \leftarrow \text{setup}(I_0)$ $e \leftarrow \gamma_0$ if $e \geq \gamma^*$ then $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{false}$ $\mathbf{b} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ return $(\text{seed}, (\gamma_0, z_0))$	Procedure: Finalise (\mathbf{b}^*) if $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}^*$ then return 1 else return 0 Procedure: get-state () $e \leftarrow 0$ $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{true}$ return s_i	Oracle: ES() $x \leftarrow x + 1$ $(\sigma', I_x, \gamma_x, z_x) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{D}(\sigma)$ return I_x Procedure: set-state (s^*) $e \leftarrow 0$ $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{true}$ $s_i \leftarrow s^*$
Procedure: next-ror (ℓ_{i+1}) $(s_{i+1}, r_0) \leftarrow \text{next}(s_i, \ell_{i+1})$ if $\text{corrupt} = \text{true}$ then $e \leftarrow 0$ return r_0 else if $r_0 = \perp$ then $r_1 \leftarrow \perp$ else $r_1 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{i+1}}$ return r_b	Procedure: get-next (ℓ_{i+1}) $(s_{i+1}, r_{i+1}) \leftarrow \text{next}(s_i, \ell_{i+1})$ if $\text{corrupt} = \text{true}$ then $e \leftarrow 0$ return r_{i+1} Procedure: wait() $s_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{tick}(\text{seed}, s_i)$	Procedure: \mathcal{D}-refresh() $x \leftarrow x + 1$ $(\sigma, I, \gamma, z) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{D}(\sigma)$ $s_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{refresh}(s_i, I)$ $e \leftarrow e + \gamma$ if $e \geq \gamma^*$ then $\text{corrupt} \leftarrow \text{false}$ return (γ, z)

Figure 4.5: The updated security procedures, updated from the original definitions given in [29, 55]. Boxed items indicate changes. The inclusion of seed has been omitted from several algorithms.

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running in time at most t , making at most $q_{\mathcal{D}}$ calls to \mathcal{D} -refresh, requesting at most ℓ_{total} bits of cumulative output from the VOPWI, and no more than ℓ_{max} from each next call, $q_{\mathcal{S}}$ calls to get-state/set-state, and any legitimate distribution sampler \mathcal{D} , the advantage in the game specified in Figure 4.5 is at most ϵ . The value γ^* is the minimum entropy required to reset the “corrupt” flag back to “false”. As usual, the challenger first executes the Initialise algorithm and the adversary is given access to the bottom six oracles. Once the adversary has asked all her queries, she outputs her guess, passes it to the challenger and the challenger runs Finalise with the adversary’s guess as input.

Further, we define three more games which are restrictions of the robustness game:

Definition 4.4.2. Resilience ($\text{res}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}$) is the restricted game where $q_{\mathcal{S}} = 0$.

Definition 4.4.3. Forward-secure ($\text{fwd}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}$) is the restricted game where \mathcal{A} makes no calls to set-state and a single call to get-state, which must be the very *last* oracle call that \mathcal{A} makes.

Definition 4.4.4. Backward-secure ($\text{bwd}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}$) is the restricted game where \mathcal{A} makes no calls to get-state and a single call to set-state which is the very *first* call \mathcal{A} makes.

Variable-Output Robustness implies all three other notions and is the strongest notion. Resilience is the most restricted notion; it captures security against arbitrary distribution samplers when the VOPWI is not corrupted. Forward security protects past VOPWI outputs in the event that a state is compromised. Backward security protects future VOPWI outputs if enough entropy is input into the system. Since the NIST generators have states that update in very situational-dependent ways, we define a split masking function, specifically a masking function that behaves in different ways depending on the situation.

Definition 4.4.5 (Split Masking Functions). Let Statespace be as defined in Definition 4.2.1, and define $\mathbf{M} := (\mathbf{M}_{\text{I}}, \mathbf{M}_{\text{P}}, \mathbf{M}_{\text{R}})$ to be a tuple of randomised algorithms $\mathbf{M}_{\text{I}}, \mathbf{M}_{\text{P}}, \mathbf{M}_{\text{R}} : \text{Statespace} \rightarrow \text{Statespace}$.

Each algorithm is used at a specific point in the security games. \mathbf{M}_{I} is used in Initialise, \mathbf{M}_{P} is used after a preserving call to next, and lastly, \mathbf{M}_{R} is used after a

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recovering call to next. We call M a split masking function over **Statespace**. By using a split masking function, we allow for different behaviours during the running of the VOPWI, which correspond to how the notion of “ideal state” changes depending on the situation. For example, after recovering from insufficient entropy, we might expect the state to look random over several fields, while on the other hand, on a preserving next call, where there is no additional entropy available we might expect some of these fields to remain constant.

As an example, for a state $s := (a, b, c)$, where $a, b \in \{0, 1\}^n$ are “working states” and c is a counter, a masking function could be as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} M_I(s) &= (a', f(a'), 0x1) & a' & \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n & \text{for some function } f, \text{ during initialisation,} \\ M_P(s) &= (a', b, c) & a' & \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n & \text{after a preserving next call,} \\ M_R(s) &= (a', b', c) & a', b' & \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n & \text{after a recovering next call.} \end{aligned}$$

The example reads as follows:

- After initialisation the first field is randomly sampled, the second field is some function of the first field, while the last field, the counter, is initialised.
- After a preserving next call the first field is again sampled from random, while the second and third fields remain constant.
- Lastly, after a recovering next call, the first and second fields are sampled from random, while the third field remains constant.

Definition 4.4.6 (Idempotent Split Masking Functions). A split masking function $M = (M_I, M_P, M_R) : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ is idempotent if, for any state $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$, and for any $a \in \{P, R\}, b \in \{I, P, R\}$, $M_a(s)$ and $M_a(M_b(s))$ are identically distributed random variables.

We note that Definition 4.4.6 is slightly stronger than necessary for the purpose of the robustness proof which follows in Section 4.5.

To complete the updated notions we also need to modify Definitions 4.3.2 and 4.3.3, together with Theorem 4.3.4. We present these in Definitions 4.4.7 and 4.4.8.

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```

Procedure: Initialise ()
σ ← 0, e ← 0, x ← -1
seed  $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$  seedgen
s0 ← setupES
e ← γ0
s0 ← MI(s0)
if e ≥ γ* then
    corrupt ← false
b  $\stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$  {0, 1}
return (seed, (γ0, z0))

```

Figure 4.6: The updated procedure Initialise for Variable-Output bootstrapped security. Updated from Figure 4.4.

Definition 4.4.7 (Honest-Initialisation Split Masking Functions). Let \mathcal{D} be an entropy source, $\mathbf{G} = (\text{seedgen}, \text{setup}, \text{refresh}, \text{next}, \text{tick})$ be a VOPWI with statespace Statespace, \mathcal{A} an adversary and $\mathbf{M} : \text{Statespace} \rightarrow \text{Statespace}$ a split masking function. Let (seed, Z) be a random variable output by running the Initialise procedure (Figure 4.3), and s_0 be the VOPWI state produced by this procedure. Set

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{M}}^{\text{init}}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(s_0, \text{seed}, Z) \implies 1] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{M}_I(s_0), \text{seed}, Z) \implies 1].$$

If $\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{M}}^{\text{init}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon$ for all adversaries \mathcal{A} running in time t , then \mathbf{M} is said to be a $(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_h)$ -honest-initialisation split masking function.

Definition 4.4.8 (Bootstrapped Security). Let $\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}$ be a VOPWI with maximum output ℓ_{\max} -bits, and let \mathbf{M} be a split masking function. For $x \in \{\text{fwd}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}, \text{bwd}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}, \text{res}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}, \text{rob}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}\}$ as defined in Definitions 4.4.1 to 4.4.4, let $\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}, \mathcal{D}}^{x/\mathbf{M}}(\mathcal{A})$ be defined as $\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}, \mathcal{D}}^x(\mathcal{A})$, but changing the procedure Initialise to the procedure given in Figure 4.6.

Theorem 4.4.9.

Let $\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}$ be a VOPWI with maximum output size ℓ_{\max} , \mathcal{D} an entropy source, and \mathbf{M} a split masking function. Suppose that \mathbf{M} is a $(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_h)$ -honest initialisation split mask. Then for any $x \in \{\text{fwd}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}, \text{bwd}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}, \text{res}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}, \text{rob}^{\ell_{\text{total}}}\}$ as defined in Definitions 4.4.1 to 4.4.4, there exists some adversary $\mathcal{B}(\cdot)$ such that for any adversary \mathcal{A} ,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}, \mathcal{D}}^x(\mathcal{A}) \leq \text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}, \mathcal{D}}^{x/\mathbf{M}}(\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{A})) + \epsilon_h.$$

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If it takes time t' to compute M , \mathcal{A} makes q queries and runs in time t , then $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{A})$ makes q queries and runs in time $\mathcal{O}(t) + t'$.

Proof. This follows directly from the proof of Theorem 4.3.4 since our split masking function acts precisely as the original masking function in `Initialise`. The only other change introduced that is relevant to the `Initialise` procedure is the addition of the special entropy input I_0 which is used by `setup` to create the initial VOPWI state.

The changes we have made only affect the output of the `setup` algorithm. This leaves the rest of the game untouched. \square

4.5 Variable-Output Robustness

To obtain an analogy of the robustness theorem of [29, Theorem 1] we must first adapt the notions of preserving and recovering security to capture the updates that we made in Section 4.4.

Recall, preserving security concerns the situation where the VOPWI starting with a “good” state, remains “good” even after being refreshed with adversarially controlled inputs. Recovering security concerns the situation where the VOPWI has been compromised to an adversarially chosen state, but is then refreshed with sufficient entropy from multiple calls to \mathcal{D} -refresh such that the corrupt flag is set back to false, resulting in a “good” state. Both are measured by the adversary’s ability to distinguish the resulting state and generator output from an ideal state and random output.

In Figure 4.7 we present the updated preserving and recovering security games with the changes from the original definitions given in [29, Definitions 3 & 4] highlighted.

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Recover($G, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, M, \ell$)	Preserve(G, \mathcal{A}, M, ℓ)
$(\text{seedgen}, \text{setup}, \text{refresh}, \text{next}, \text{tick}) \leftarrow G$	$(\text{seedgen}, \text{setup}, \text{refresh}, \text{next}, \text{tick}) \leftarrow G$
$\text{seed} \leftarrow \text{seedgen}; \mathbf{b} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$	$\text{seed} \leftarrow \text{seedgen}; \mathbf{b} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$
$\sigma_0 \leftarrow 0; \mu \leftarrow 0$	$(s'_0, I_1, \dots, I_d, \sigma') \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\text{seed})$
for $k = 1, \dots, q_{\mathcal{D}}$ do	$s_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \text{M}_P(s'_0)$
$(\sigma_k, I_k, \gamma_k, z_k) \leftarrow \mathcal{D}(\sigma_{k-1})$	for $j = 1, \dots, d$ do
$(s_0, d, \sigma') \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{A}^{\text{get-refresh}}(\text{seed},$	$s_j \leftarrow \text{refresh}(\text{seed}, s_{j-1}, I_j)$
$\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}, z_1, \dots, z_{q_{\mathcal{D}}})$	$(s_0^*, r_0^*) \leftarrow \text{next}(\text{seed}, s_d, \ell)$
if $\mu + d > q_{\mathcal{D}}$ or $\sum_{j=\mu+1}^{\mu+d} \gamma_j < \gamma^*$ then	$s_1^* \xleftarrow{\$} \text{M}_P(s_0^*)$
return 0	if $r_0^* = \perp$ then
for $j = 1, \dots, d$ do	$r_1^* \leftarrow \perp$
$s_j \leftarrow \text{refresh}(\text{seed}, s_{j-1}, I_{\mu+j})$	else
$(s_0^*, r_0^*) \leftarrow \text{next}(\text{seed}, s_d, \ell)$	$r_1^* \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$
$s_1^* \xleftarrow{\$} \text{M}_R(s_0^*)$	$\mathbf{b}^* \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{A}(\sigma', s_b^*, r_b^*)$
if $r_0^* = \perp$ then	if $\mathbf{b}^* = \mathbf{b}$ then
$r_1^* \leftarrow \perp$	return 1
else	else
$r_1^* \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$	return 0
$\mathbf{b}^* \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{A}(\sigma', s_b^*, r_b^*, I_{\mu+d+1}, \dots, I_{q_{\mathcal{D}}})$	<u>get-refresh</u> (ℓ)
if $\mathbf{b}^* = \mathbf{b}$ then	$\mu \leftarrow \mu + 1$
return 1	return I_{μ}
else	
return 0	

Figure 4.7: Preserving and recovering security games for G outputting ℓ -bits with split masking function M . Boxes indicate changes from [29, Definitions 3 & 4].

4.5.1 Variable-Output Preserving Security

One of the main differences in the preserving security game is that unlike the original preserving security of [29], the initial state is controlled by the adversary, similar to recovering security. However, the split masking function is then applied before the game proceeds, which should yield an “ideal” state. We present the following definitions that describe variable-output preserving security and a witnessed version

4.5 Variable-Output Robustness

of the same, which utilises a split masking function to make the proof easier.

Definition 4.5.1 (Variable Output Preserving Security). A VOPWI is said to have $(t, \ell_{\max}, \epsilon_p)$ -variable output preserving security, if, for any adversary \mathcal{A} running in time t , and for all $\ell_i \in [1, \ell_{\max}]$ the preserving advantage defined by

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}}^{\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}) = 2\Pr[\text{Preserve}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \ell_i) = 1] - 1,$$

satisfies $\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}}^{\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon_p$, for Preserve as in Figure 4.7.

Definition 4.5.2 ((Witnessed) Variable Output Preserving Security). A VOPWI is said to have $(t, \ell_{\max}, \epsilon_p)$ -variable output preserving security, witnessed by the split masking function \mathbf{M} , if, for any adversary \mathcal{A} running in time t , and for all $\ell_i \in [1, \ell_{\max}]$ the preserving advantage defined by

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{M}; \mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}}^{\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}) = 2\Pr[\text{Preserve}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathbf{M}, \ell_i) = 1] - 1,$$

satisfies $\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{M}; \mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}}^{\text{pres}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon_p$ for Preserve as in Figure 4.7 with the masking function \mathbf{M}_p set to return a string sampled uniformly at random.

4.5.2 Variable-Output Recovering Security

We present the following definitions that describe variable output recovering security and a witnessed version of the same.

Definition 4.5.3 (Variable Output Recovering Security). A VOPWI is said to have $(t, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \ell_{\max}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_r)$ -variable output recovering security, if, for any adversary \mathcal{A} and legitimate sampler \mathcal{D} , both running in time t , and, for all $\ell_i \in [1, \ell_{\max}]$, the recovering advantage defined by

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}}^{\text{rec}}(\mathcal{A}) = 2\Pr[\text{Recover}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_i) = 1] - 1,$$

satisfies $\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}}^{\text{rec}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon_r$ for Recover as in Figure 4.7.

Definition 4.5.4 ((Witnessed) Variable Output Recovering Security). A VOPWI is said to have $(t, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \ell_{\max}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_r)$ -variable output recovering security, witnessed by the split masking function \mathbf{M} , if, for any adversary \mathcal{A} and legitimate sampler \mathcal{D} , both running in time t , and, for all $\ell_i \in [1, \ell_{\max}]$, the recovering advantage defined by

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{M}; \mathbf{G}^{\ell_{\max}}}^{\text{rec}}(\mathcal{A}) = 2\Pr[\text{Recover}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{M}, \ell_i) = 1] - 1,$$

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satisfies $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{M}; \mathbb{G}^{\ell_{\max}}}^{\text{rec}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon_r$ for Recover as in Figure 4.7 with the masking function $\mathbb{M}_{\mathbb{R}}$ set to return a string sampled uniformly at random.

4.5.3 Updated Robustness Notion

The changes introduced in Figure 4.5 culminate in the full variable-output robustness game. Instead of limiting the adversary by the number of `get-next` and `next-ror` queries, we will limit her based upon the total output of the generator.

This allows an adversary more freedom, for example, if a generator is preserving secure for ℓ_{\max} then it may seem obvious that reducing the output size would only decrease the adversarial advantage. However, there could be an output value that may cause bad behaviour in the algorithm, such as outputting the first half of the updated state when ℓ is precisely half the size of the state. Varying the output size also allows an adversary to make more queries at the cost of output size, or receive a larger amount but at the cost of future calls. This more accurately represents the requests made to a PRNG in practice, where the amount of randomness requested by consuming applications varies.

Recall, $q_{\mathcal{D}}$ is the number of calls an adversary is allowed to make to \mathcal{D} -refresh, and $q_{\mathcal{S}}$ is the number of calls an adversary is allowed to make to `get-state` and `set-state`.

Theorem 4.5.5 (Boostrapped Variable-Output Robustness).

Let ℓ_{total} be a positive integer and the total amount of output in bits an adversary \mathcal{A} is allowed to request. Let q be the total number of `next` calls in a particular iteration of \mathbb{M} -rob, assuming the amount of output is less than or equal to ℓ_{total} and no single ℓ_i exceeds ℓ_{\max} . If there is an idempotent split masking function \mathbb{M} that witnesses the $(t, \ell_{\max}, \epsilon_p)$ -variable output preserving and $(t, q_{\mathcal{D}}, \ell_{\max}, \gamma^, \epsilon_r)$ -variable output recovering security of a VOPWI \mathbb{G} and \mathbb{M} is $(\mathbb{G}, \mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_h)$ -honest, then \mathbb{G} is*

$$\left(t', \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}, q_{\mathcal{D}}, q_{\mathcal{S}}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_h + \max_{\substack{(\ell_1, \dots, \ell_q): \\ \sum_{i=1}^q \ell_i \leq \ell_{\text{total}}}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^q (\epsilon_p + \epsilon_r) \right) \right) \text{-variable-output robust.}$$

An example of the total amount of output an adversary is allowed to make would

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be to use the old system of $\ell_{\text{total}} = \ell * \mathfrak{q}_S$ for some normal maximum number of queries \mathfrak{q}_S . When referring to a particular instance of the robustness game where an adversary requests output sizes ℓ_1, \dots, ℓ_q , we speak of \mathcal{A} 's requests in terms of a vector (ℓ_1, \dots, ℓ_q) .

Proof. We proceed by partitioning the uncorrupted next queries into “preserving” and “recovering” queries. We use the term “next query” to refer to both next and next-ror oracle queries. If at any point the corrupt flag is set to “true”, the next next query once the flag has been reset is called a “recovering query”. When a recovering query is made, we associate with it a most recent entropy drain (MRED) query, which will be the previous get-state, set-state or get-next query. We assume without loss of generality that the adversary does not make a next query when the corrupt flag is set to true, since this will reset the entropy counter and always output real output. The leftover uncorrupted next queries are called “preserving queries”.

Let M-rob be the robustness experiment where the initial state s_0 is overwritten with $M_1(s_0)$. Next, define the game \mathbf{G}_i to be the same as M-rob with the following changes, assuming the i th next query is uncompromised:

- In the first i next queries, next-ror replaces the updated state with a masked version $M_P(s_{i+1})$ (or $M_R(s_{i+1})$ if it is a recovering call) and always returns r_1 .
- Similarly, in the first i next queries, get-next replaces the updated state with masked version $M_P(s_{i+1})$ (or $M_R(s_{i+1})$ if it is a recovering call) and overwrites the output of the get-next query with $r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{\ell_j}$.

Further, define $\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}$ which behaves precisely the same as \mathbf{G}_{i+1} when the $(i+1)$ -st next query is a preserving next query, by replacing the $i+1$ st output with a random string, and the updated state $M_P(s_{i+2})$. For all other next queries, i.e. the recovering queries, $\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}$ behaves like \mathbf{G}_i .

The edge cases here are as follows

$$\Pr[\mathbf{G}_0(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] \leq \Pr[\text{M-rob}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] + \epsilon_h, \quad (4.5.1)$$

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from the properties of the masking function, and

$$\Pr [\mathbf{G}_q(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] = \frac{1}{2}, \quad (4.5.2)$$

since all outputs are independent of the choice of the bit \mathbf{b} . This leaves us with

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[\text{M-rob}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] \\ & \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^{q-1} \left| \Pr [\mathbf{G}_i(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] - \Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] \right| \right. \\ & \quad \left. + \left| \Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] - \Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] \right| \right). \end{aligned}$$

The proof follows very closely to the original proof [29] and the adapted proof of [55] by proceeding with the following two lemmas:

Lemma 4.5.6.

Let $\mathbf{G}_i, \mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}$ be defined as above and let \mathbf{G} be a $(t, \ell_{\max}, \epsilon_p)$ -variable output preserving secure VOPWI, witnessed by the split masking function \mathbf{M} . Then for any adversary \mathcal{A} ,

$$\left| \Pr [\mathbf{G}_i(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] - \Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] \right| \leq \epsilon_p.$$

Proof. Assume an adversary \mathcal{A} exists, we will construct from \mathcal{A} a new adversary \mathcal{B} for the preserving security game. Also assume that the $(i+1)$ st next query is a preserving query, since otherwise \mathbf{G}_i and $\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}$ are identical. We present the construction and explanation in Figure 4.8.

4.5 Variable-Output Robustness

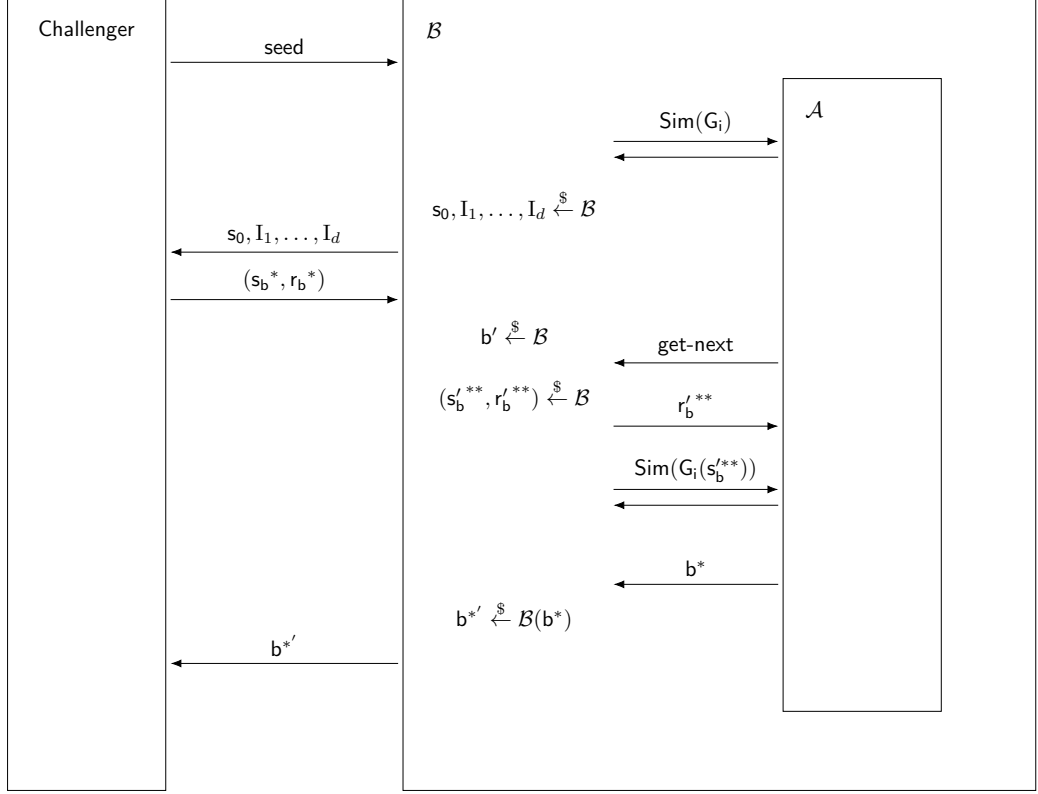


Figure 4.8: The construction of preserving security adversary \mathcal{B} from adversary \mathcal{A} .

1. To begin, \mathcal{B} is given seed by the challenger, and uses it, along with knowledge of \mathcal{D} to simulate \mathbf{G}_i for \mathcal{A} until the $i + 1$ st next query.
2. Let s_0 be the resulting state from this simulation that \mathcal{B} uses for the $i + 1$ st next query.
3. \mathcal{B} generates entropy inputs I_1, \dots, I_d and passes them, along with s_0 to the challenger.
4. The challenger replies with (s_b^*, r_b^*) , and \mathcal{B} flips its own bit, $b' \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$.
5. On receipt of \mathcal{A} 's $(i + 1)$ st next query, \mathcal{B} calculates the following

$$(s_{b'}^{**}, r_{b'}^{**}) =: \begin{cases} (s_0^{**}, r_0^{**}) = (s_b^*, r_b^*) & \text{for } b' = 0, \\ (s_1^{**}, r_1^{**}) = \left(M_P(s_b^*), \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } r_b^* = \perp, \\ r_1^{**} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \right) & \text{for } b' = 1. \end{cases}$$

for $r_1^{**} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{i+1}}$, and returns $r_{b'}^{**}$ to \mathcal{A} .

6. Next, \mathcal{B} continues simulating the remainder of the game for \mathcal{A} using $s_{b'}^{**}$.

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7. When \mathcal{A} outputs \mathbf{b}^* , \mathcal{B} outputs $\mathbf{b}^{*'} = 1$ if $\mathbf{b}^* = \mathbf{b}'$ or $\mathbf{b}^{*'} = 0$ otherwise.

We now walk through the different possibilities:

First, if the original challenge bit $\mathbf{b} = 0$, then \mathcal{B} has exactly simulated \mathbf{G}_i for \mathcal{A} ; the first i next queries followed the definition of \mathbf{G}_i and the $(i+1)$ st next query returned the “real” values if $\mathbf{b}' = 0$, and returned a mask of the state and random bits if $\mathbf{b}' = 1$. Since \mathbf{M} is idempotent, the distribution of s_0 , taken from the output of the last next query, is not changed when the challenger applies a mask to it in line 4 of the preserving game in Figure 4.7. \mathbf{G}_i requires the state be masked after every next query and so s_0 is essentially already masked.

Secondly, if the original challenge bit $\mathbf{b} = 1$, then regardless of \mathbf{b}' , \mathcal{B} has exactly simulated $\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}$ for \mathcal{A} ; since it gives \mathcal{A} a mask of the state and uniformly random bits for the $(i+1)$ st query. In the case where $\mathbf{b}' = 0$, \mathcal{A} passed $\mathbf{M}_P(s_0^*)$ to \mathcal{B} along with random output, which are passed straight onto \mathcal{A} . When $\mathbf{b}' = 1$, \mathcal{B} masks the state it was given by the challenger, resulting in $\mathbf{M}_P(\mathbf{M}_P(s_0^*))$, which by the idempotence of \mathbf{M} is identically distributed to $\mathbf{M}_P(s_0^*)$, it picks a new output string uniformly at random and passes both to \mathcal{A} . Lastly, the above gives us that

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \Pr [\mathbf{G}_i(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] - \Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] \right| \\ &= \left| \Pr [\mathbf{b}' = \mathbf{b}^* \mid \mathbf{b} = 0] - \Pr [\mathbf{b}' = \mathbf{b}^* \mid \mathbf{b} = 1] \right| \\ &= \left| 2\Pr [\mathbf{b}^{*'} = \mathbf{b}] - 1 \right| \leq \epsilon_p. \end{aligned}$$

□

4.5 Variable-Output Robustness

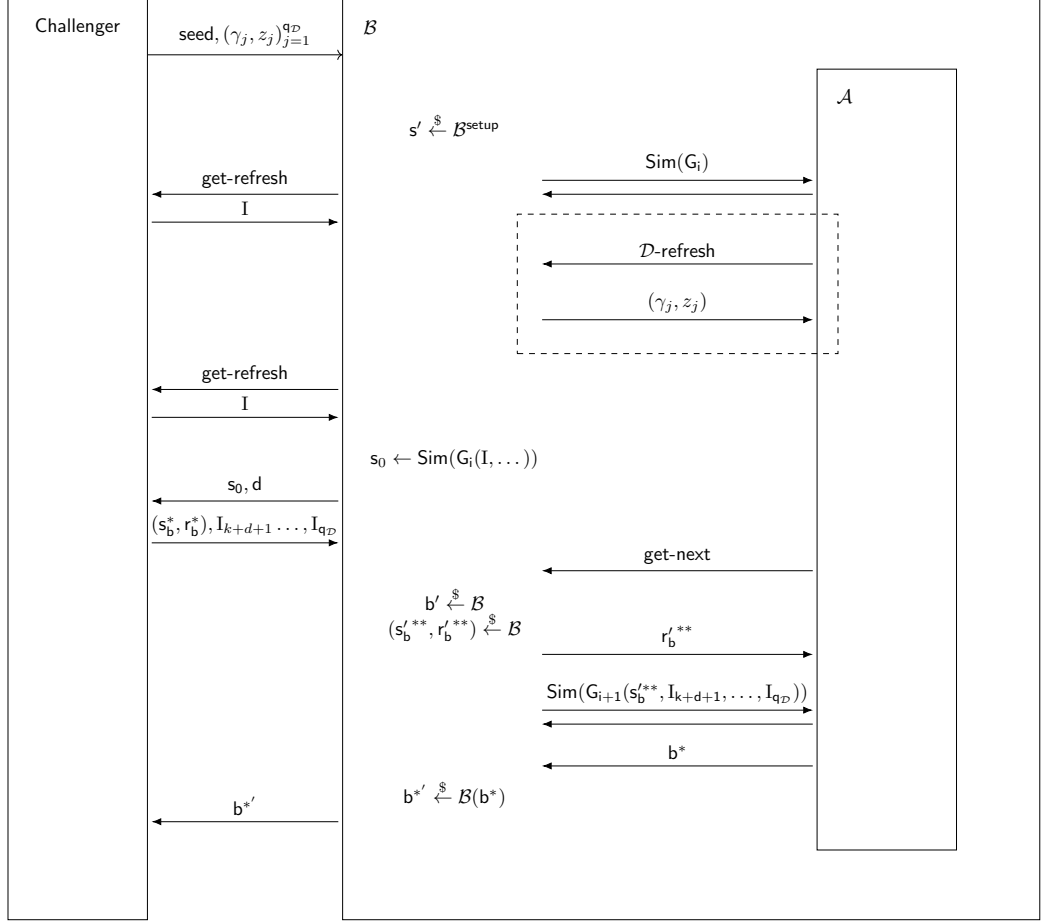


Figure 4.9: The construction of the recovering security adversary \mathcal{B} from adversary \mathcal{A} .

Lemma 4.5.7.

Let $\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}, \mathbf{G}_{i+1}$ be defined as above and let \mathbf{G} be a $(t, q_{\mathcal{D}}, \ell_{\max}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_r)$ -variable output recovering secure VOPWI, witnessed by the split masking function \mathbf{M} , then for any adversary \mathcal{A} ,

$$|\Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] - \Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1}(\mathbf{G}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1]| \leq \epsilon_r^{\ell_{i+1}}.$$

Proof. Assume an adversary \mathcal{A} exists, we will construct from \mathcal{A} a new adversary \mathcal{B} for the recovering security game. Similarly to Lemma 4.5.6, assume that the $(i+1)$ st next query is a recovering query. We present the construction in Figure 4.9 and explain the steps below.

4.5 Variable-Output Robustness

1. To begin, \mathcal{B} is given `seed` and information relating to the refresh values $(\gamma_j, z_j)_{j=1}^{\mathfrak{q}_D}$ by the challenger, and generates an initial state $s' \xleftarrow{\$}$ `setup`.
2. \mathcal{B} simulates \mathbf{G}_i for \mathcal{A} , providing \mathcal{A} with `seed` and using the leaked information it received and its `get-refresh` oracle to simulate the \mathcal{D} -refresh oracle for \mathcal{A} .
3. After the i th next query \mathcal{B} , in response to a \mathcal{D} -refresh query from \mathcal{A} will only return the associated pair (γ_j, z_j) it received from the challenger, it does not update the state.
4. On the $(i + 1)$ st next query, \mathcal{B} calls its `get-refresh` oracle to update the state to the point immediately following the MRED to the recovering query, and sets this as s_0 .
5. \mathcal{B} counts the number of \mathcal{D} -refresh calls \mathcal{A} made after the MRED and submits (s_0, d) to the challenger.
6. \mathcal{B} receives the challenge (s_b^*, r_b^*) and the remaining entropy strings $I_{k+d+1}, \dots, I_{\mathfrak{q}_D}$ which it uses later to continue the simulation.
7. On receipt of \mathcal{A} 's $(i + 1)$ st next query, \mathcal{B} flips its own bit $b' \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ and calculates the following

$$(s_{b'}^{**}, r_{b'}^{**}) = \begin{cases} (s_0^{**}, r_0^{**}) = (s_b^*, r_b^*) & \text{for } b' = 0, \\ (s_1^{**}, r_1^{**}) = \left(M_R(s_b^*), \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } r_b^* = \perp, \\ r_1^{**} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{i+1}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \right) & \text{for } b' = 1. \end{cases}$$

and returns $r_{b'}^{**}$ to \mathcal{A} .

8. Lastly, \mathcal{B} uses the remaining entropy strings $I_{k+d+1}, \dots, I_{\mathfrak{q}_D}$ to continue simulating \mathbf{G}_{i+1} for \mathcal{A} from the state $s_{b'}^{**}$.
9. When \mathcal{A} outputs b^* , \mathcal{B} outputs $b^{*'} = 1$ if $b^* = b'$ or $b^{*'} = 0$ otherwise.

We now walk through the different possibilities:

First, if the original challenge bit $b = 0$, then \mathcal{B} has exactly simulated $\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}$ for \mathcal{A} ; the first i next queries followed the definition of \mathbf{G}_i and the $(i + 1)$ st query returned the “real” values if $b' = 0$, and returned a mask of the state and uniformly random bits if $b' = 1$.

4.6 Constructing a VOPWI from a PWI

Secondly, if the original challenge bit $\mathbf{b} = 1$, then regardless of \mathbf{b}' , \mathcal{B} has exactly simulated \mathbf{G}_{i+1} for \mathcal{A} ; since it gives \mathcal{A} a mask of the state and uniformly random bits for the $(i+1)$ st query, again by using the property that $\mathbf{M}_R(\mathbf{M}_R(s))$ is identically distributed as $\mathbf{M}_R(s)$.

Lastly, the above gives us that

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1/2}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] - \Pr [\mathbf{G}_{i+1}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}, \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}) = 1] \right| \\ &= \left| \Pr [\mathbf{b}' = \mathbf{b}^* \mid \mathbf{b} = 0] - \Pr [\mathbf{b}' = \mathbf{b}^* \mid \mathbf{b} = 1] \right| \\ &= \left| 2\Pr [\mathbf{b}^{*'} = \mathbf{b}] - 1 \right| \leq \epsilon_r. \end{aligned}$$

□

Putting these two lemmas together, with eqs. (4.5.1) and (4.5.2), while taking the maximum over the possible combinations of (ℓ_1, \dots, ℓ_q) (which determines each \mathbf{q}), yields the result. □

4.6 Constructing a VOPWI from a PWI

The natural progression of our extension is a way to construct a secure VOPWI from a secure PWI. In this section we briefly investigate several propositions for building a VOPWI from a PWI, stating if they are achievable or justifying why they are not.

Let us assume that the refresh algorithm of the PWI fulfils the new requirements of the setup algorithm. Then what remains is to consider the different modifications we can make to the next function. This in itself can be broken down into four possibilities:

1. Redesign the next algorithm of the PWI by adding a generate algorithm; this will be specific to the PWI design, and thus cannot be generalised.
2. Modify the next algorithm of the PWI to return output of a length $\ell_i \leq \ell$, maintaining the restriction on the number of calls to the next algorithm. Since this is essentially reducing the amount of output a PWI adversary receives, this is trivial.

4.7 Conclusion

3. Add a `generate` algorithm that takes as input the raw PWI output and expands it as required. This can easily be achieved with a suitably secure PRG.
4. Similar to the second item, modify the `next` algorithm of the PWI to return output of a length $\ell_i \leq \ell$, but maintain the total amount of output an adversary may receive as $\ell_{\text{total}} = q\ell$. This is the most complex proposition.

In the fourth item we described changing the restrictions on output of a PWI to the total amount of output restriction of a VOPWI. We assert that this cannot be done in general without restrictions based upon properties of the PWI. This is motivated by the following example:

Given a secure PWI, which is secure, up to a maximum of q calls to the `next` algorithm, else the PWI repeats its outputs in order. We construct a VOPWI from this PWI, and an adversary that will distinguish its output from random. The adversary requests maximal output on the first call to `next`, but the minimum amount (say 1 bit) from the following $q - 1$ outputs. The adversary then requests the maximum amount of output on the $q + 1$ st call to the `next` algorithm, which, will be equal to the first output by the properties of the underlying PWI, and thus is distinguishable from random through being equal to the first output the adversary saw. This cannot be fixed by reducing the amount of output the adversary may request, but could be captured and mitigated by adding a reseed counter, similar to practical generators.

4.7 Conclusion

In this chapter we extended the security models of [29, 55] to allow a generator to output varying amounts of output, possibly utilising a sub-procedure that does a “small” state update between blocks of output. We also added a `seedgen` algorithm and expanded the `setup` algorithm to capture the initial state generation more accurately.

Analysis of NIST Generators

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In this chapter we make use of the security model developed in Chapter 4 to analyse the robustness of the NIST generators.

5.1 Preliminaries

The NIST special publications on random bit generation are SP800-90A [7], SP800-90B [9], and SP800-90C [8]. Document SP800-90A details specifications of several deterministic random bit generators (which we call PRNGs with input or PWIs). The SP800-90B document details recommendations for entropy sources used in conjunction with the PWIs detailed in SP800-90A. Lastly, SP800-90C is a comprehensive document on implementing the PWIs from document A and the entropy sources from document B securely.

We will be investigating the security of the `hash_drbg` and `ctr_drbg` in the security model defined in Chapter 4. We do not investigate the security of the `hmac_drbg` since there are papers such as [38, 58] that investigate the security claims for this generator.

In the NIST specification [7], there are several parameter and optional-extra choices for each DRBG design. This includes, but is not limited to the use of a derivation function to “mix” inputs into states. We will not be analysing each combination of choices, but will make our choices clear, along with justifying them.

We proceed in this chapter by defining some notation shared between the generators, followed by the specification of the `hash_drbg` and `ctr_drbg` in the format of our VOPWI definition (Definition 4.2.1). We follow this with a formal analysis of both generators in our security model in Chapter 4.

5.1.1 NIST Seed Structure

Here we summarise the different parts of what we will treat as the seed of the generator.

The nonce `nonce`, discussed in [7, Section 8.6.7] used in the NIST generators is not required to be kept secret, but is required to have either “at least $\lambda/2$ bits of entropy, or does not repeat for at least $\lambda/2$ bits”. One example can be built from a time-stamp and monotonically increasing sequence. The nonce is used in the `setup`

5.1 Preliminaries

algorithm.

The personalisation string `perstring` is an optional but recommended input to the `setup` algorithm; it is primarily used to separate the instantiation from others, though knowledge of the personalisation string by the adversary should not degrade the security strength of the DRBG.

The additional input `add` is an optional input provided to the `refresh` and `next` algorithms. Knowledge of the additional input should not degrade the security strength of the generator. It is suggested in the specification that applications requesting randomness may provide `add` for each request, which could be used to separate generator `next` calls or provide a small amount of entropy.

The security field λ is an optional input in the `setup` algorithm for both the `hash.drbg` and `ctr.drbg`. Since the nonce `nonce` and additional input `add` are optional, the entropy of the initial state of the generator may rely entirely on the entropy input used by `setup`.

5.1.2 General NIST Notation

We start by describing in Table 5.1 some general notation applicable to both generators, including updates that we have made to port the NIST notation to our own. We do this for ease of reading and for later applying the security model to the generators.

We include generator specific notation at the beginning of each section to avoid a notation overload.

5.1 Preliminaries

Our Notation	NIST Notation	Size (bits)	Description
hashdrbg	hashdrbg		The NIST generator based on an approved hash function.
ctrdrbg	ctrdrbg		The NIST generator based on an approved block cipher.
λ	security_strength		Advertised security strength of the generator.
n	seed_length		Size of different sub-states of the generators in bits.
ℓ_i	requested_number_of_bits		Requested number of bits from the generate process of the hashdrbg and ctrdrbg.
0xab	0xab		Hexadecimal notation of a byte.
s_i	WorkingState		State of the generators.
s_0	seed		Initial state of a generator, either after initialisation (and reseeding in the NIST notation).
I_i	entropy_input	p	The entropy input used to refresh the state of a generator.
r_i	returned_bits	ℓ	The output of the PWI produced from state $i - 1$.
nonce	nonce		A generated nonce for input into the setup algorithm.
perstring	personalizations	$\leq 2^{35}$	An optional string used in the setup algorithm.
add	additionalInput	$\leq 2^{35}$	An optional string used in the refresh algorithm.
seed	(nonce, perstring, add)		The optional strings.
$\text{Len}(A)$	$\text{Len}(A)$	$ A $	The length in bits of the string A .
$L_a(A)$	leftmost(A,a)		Left most a bits of A .
$R_a(A)$	rightmost(A,a)		Right most a bits of A .
$\text{Sel}_a^b(A)$	select(A,a,b)		Select from A , bits a to b .

Table 5.1: The notation used in [7], updated for continuity with our own notation.

5.2 The hash_drbg

5.2 The hash_drbg

5.2.1 Notation

Table 5.2 describes the additional notation required for the `hash_drbg`. The state of the `hash_drbg` $s : (v, c, rc)$ is made up of the v -state v which is frequently updated and used to produce output, and the c -state c which is supposed to retain the entropy from the previous entropy input and to separate outputs between refreshes.

The NIST specification states that the maximum number of calls between refreshes shall be at maximum 2^{48} . Since the reseed counter rc is initialised to 1, it will reach $1 + 2^{48}$ which requires 49 bits to represent.

Our Notation	NIST Notation	Size (bits)	Description
<code>hash_drbg</code>	HASHDRBG		The NIST generator based on an approved hash function.
<code>hash_df</code>	Hashdf		An auxiliary algorithm used in the <code>hash_drbg</code> .
<code>hashgen</code>	Hashgen		An auxiliary algorithm used in the <code>hash_drbg</code> .
n_H	outlen	variable	Output length of the hash function.
ℓ_{\max}		2^{19}	Maximum requested number of bits from the generate algorithm.
v_i	V	n	Sub-state of the working state.
c_i	C	n	Sub-state of the working state.
<code>rc</code>	reseedcounter	49	Number of next calls since last refresh, maximum 2^{48} .
$s_i := (v_i, c_i, rc)$	WorkingState	$2n + 49$	i -th working state of the generator in full.

Table 5.2: Notation for the `hash_drbg`, updated for continuity with our notation.

5.2 The `hash_drbg`

	SHA-1	SHA-224 & SHA-512/224	SHA-256 & SHA-512/256	SHA-384	SHA-512
n_H	160	224	256	384	512
n	440	440	440	888	888
perstring	$\leq 2^{35}$				
add	$\leq 2^{35}$				
p	$\leq 2^{35}$				
l_{\max}	$\leq 2^{19}$ bits				
Requests between reseeds	$\leq 2^{48}$				

Table 5.3: Parameters of the different `hash_drbg` instantiations.

5.2.2 Specification of the Generator

Definition 5.2.1. In addition to the notation given in Table 5.2 and parameters in Table 5.3, let H be a hash function from $\{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n_H}$. Let

$$\begin{aligned}
 n &\approx 2n_H, \\
 \lambda &\leq p \leq 2^{35}, \\
 \ell_i &\leq \ell_{\max} := 2^{19}, \\
 \text{IFace} &:= \{0\}, \\
 (\text{nonce}, \text{perstring}, \text{add}) &\in \text{Seedspace} := \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^{\leq 2^{35}} \times \{0, 1\}^{\leq 2^{35}}, \\
 (v_i, c_i, \text{rc}) &\in \text{Statespace} := \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^{49}.
 \end{aligned}$$

The value of `IFace` is chosen since we are only using a single interface and will omit it from the rest of the specification. The `hash_drbg` algorithms are specified in Figure 5.2, making use of two auxiliary algorithms given in Figure 5.1.

5.2 The hash_drbg

<u>hash_df(x, ℓ)</u>	<u>hashgen(v_i, ℓ_{i+1})</u>
$y \leftarrow \text{null}$	$m \leftarrow \lceil \ell_{i+1} / n_H \rceil$
$m \leftarrow \lceil \ell / n_H \rceil$	$W \leftarrow \text{null}$
$\text{ctr} \leftarrow 0x01$	for $j = 1$ to m
for $i = 1$ to m	$w \leftarrow H(v_i)$
$y \leftarrow y \ H(\text{ctr} \ \ell \ x)$	$W \leftarrow W \ w$
$\text{ctr} \leftarrow \text{ctr} + 1$	$v'_i \leftarrow (v_i + 1) \bmod 2^n$
endfor	endfor
return $L_\ell(y)$	return $(v'_i, L_{\ell_{i+1}}(W))$

Figure 5.1: The auxiliary algorithms hash_df and hashgen of hash_drbg.

<u>hash_drbg.setup(seed, (I₀, γ_0, z_0))</u>	<u>hash_drbg.seedgen</u>
parse seed as (nonce, perstring, add)	nonce $\xleftarrow{\$}$ $\{0, 1\}^*$
$v_0 \leftarrow \text{hash_df}(\text{I}_0 \ \text{nonce} \ \text{perstring}, n)$	perstring $\xleftarrow{\$}$ $\{0, 1\}^{\leq 2^{35}}$
$c_0 \leftarrow \text{hash_df}((0x00 \ v_0), n)$	add $\xleftarrow{\$}$ $\{0, 1\}^{\leq 2^{35}}$
$\text{rc} \leftarrow 1$	seed $\leftarrow (\text{nonce}, \text{perstring}, \text{add})$
return $s_0 = (v_0, c_0, \text{rc})$	return seed
<u>hash_drbg.next(seed, s_i, ℓ_{i+1})</u>	<u>hash_drbg.refresh(seed, s_i, I)</u>
parse seed as (nonce, perstring, add)	parse seed as (nonce, perstring, add)
parse s_i as (v_i, c_i, rc)	parse s_i as (v_i, c_i, rc)
$w \leftarrow H(0x02 \ v_i \ \text{add})$	$s \leftarrow 0x01 \ v_i \ \text{I} \ \text{add}$
$v'_i \leftarrow (v_i + w) \bmod 2^n$	$v_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{hash_df}(s, n)$
$(v'_{i+1}, r_{i+1}) \leftarrow \text{hashgen}(v'_i, \ell_{i+1})$	$c_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{hash_df}((0x00 \ v_{i+1}), n)$
$u \leftarrow H(0x03 \ v'_{i+1})$	$\text{rc} \leftarrow 1$
$v_{i+1} \leftarrow (v'_{i+1} + u + c_i + \text{rc}) \bmod 2^n$	return $(v_{i+1}, c_{i+1}, \text{rc})$
$c_{i+1} \leftarrow c_i$	
$\text{rc} \leftarrow \text{rc} + 1$	
return $(s_{i+1}, r_{i+1}) = ((v_{i+1}, c_{i+1}, \text{rc}), r_{i+1})$	
<u>hash_drbg.tick(seed, s_i)</u>	
$s_{i+1} \leftarrow s_i$	
return s_{i+1}	

Figure 5.2: The algorithms describing the behaviour of the hash_drbg following the format of Definition 4.2.1.

5.2 The `hash_drbg`

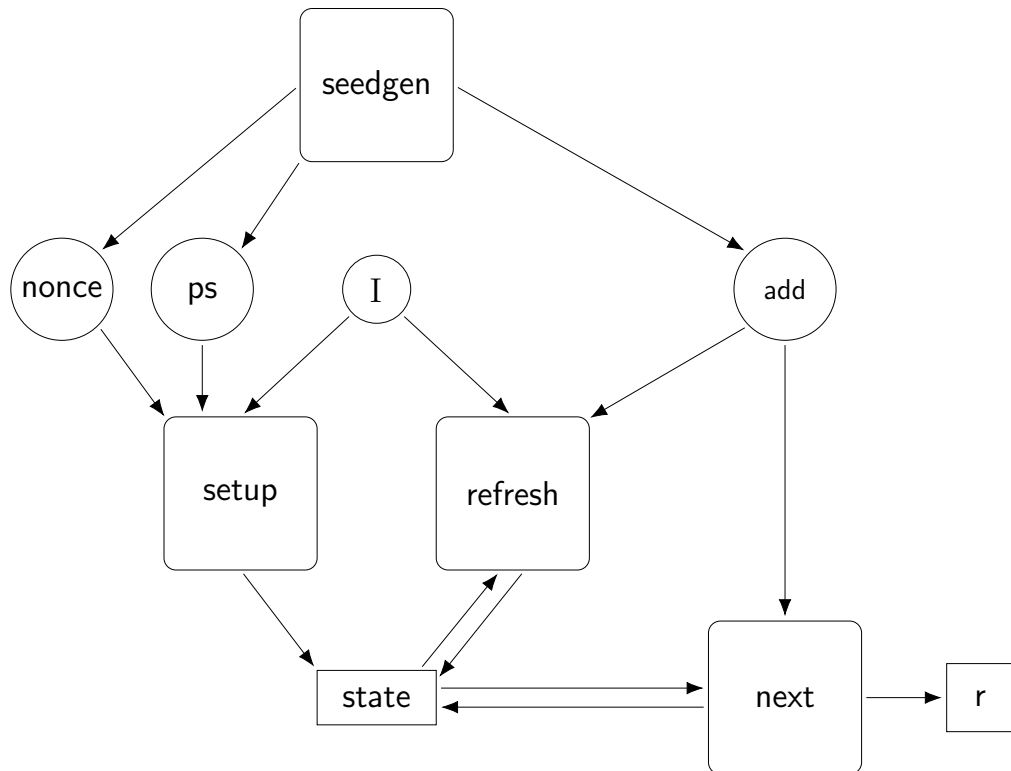


Figure 5.3: The `hash_drbg` algorithms and seed usage.

We now provide several overview diagrams of the different `hash_drbg` algorithms, including their subroutines for clarity. We use rounded edged boxes to indicate algorithms, such as the underlying block cipher, hash function or a subroutine. We use circles to represent entropy inputs including parts of the seed. We use rectangles to indicate states; a long rectangle split in two represents how a larger output is split into separate states. Lastly, we use squares to represent generator output.

5.2 The hash_drbg

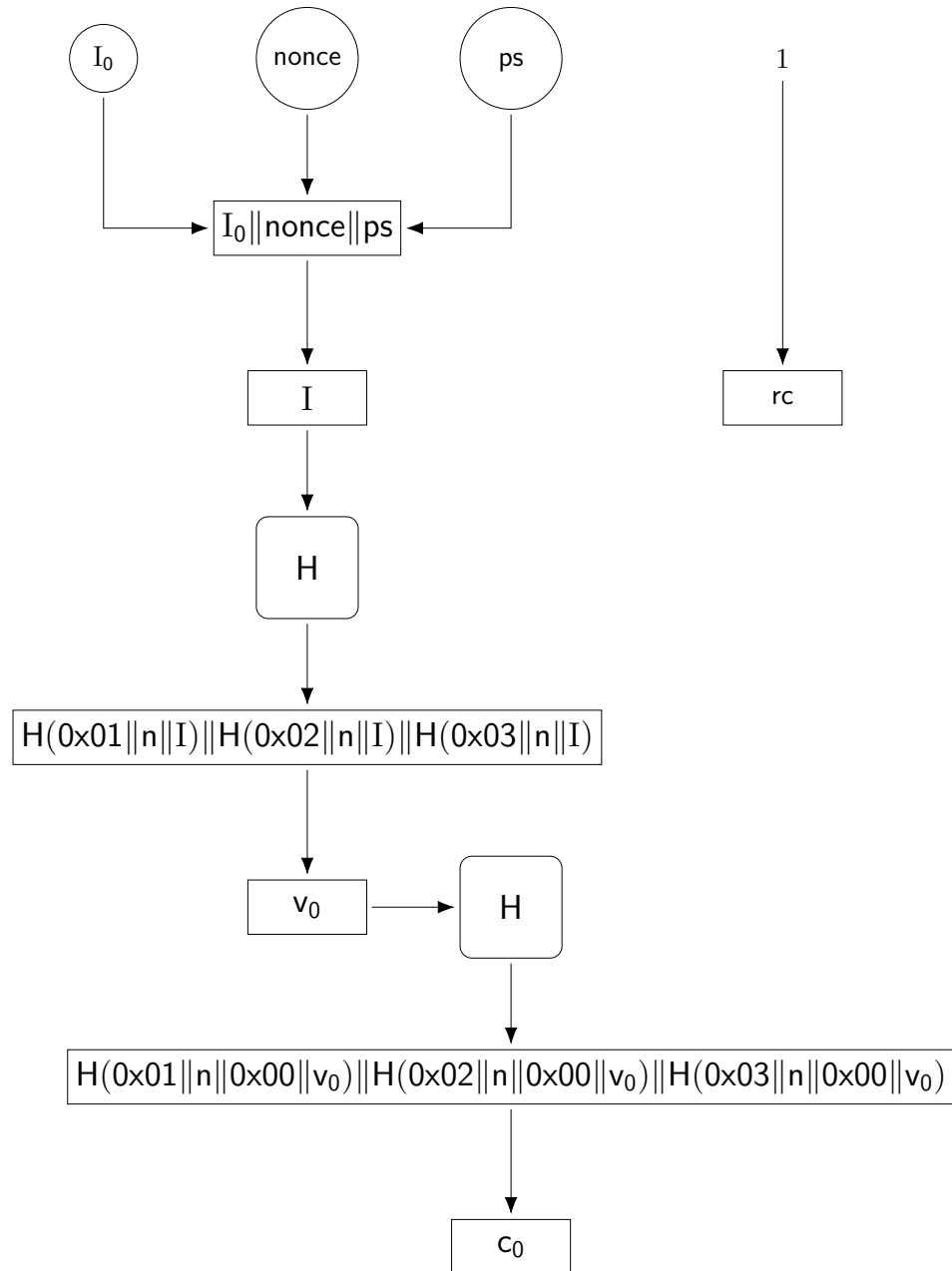


Figure 5.4: The hash_drbg setup algorithm.

5.2 The hash_drbg

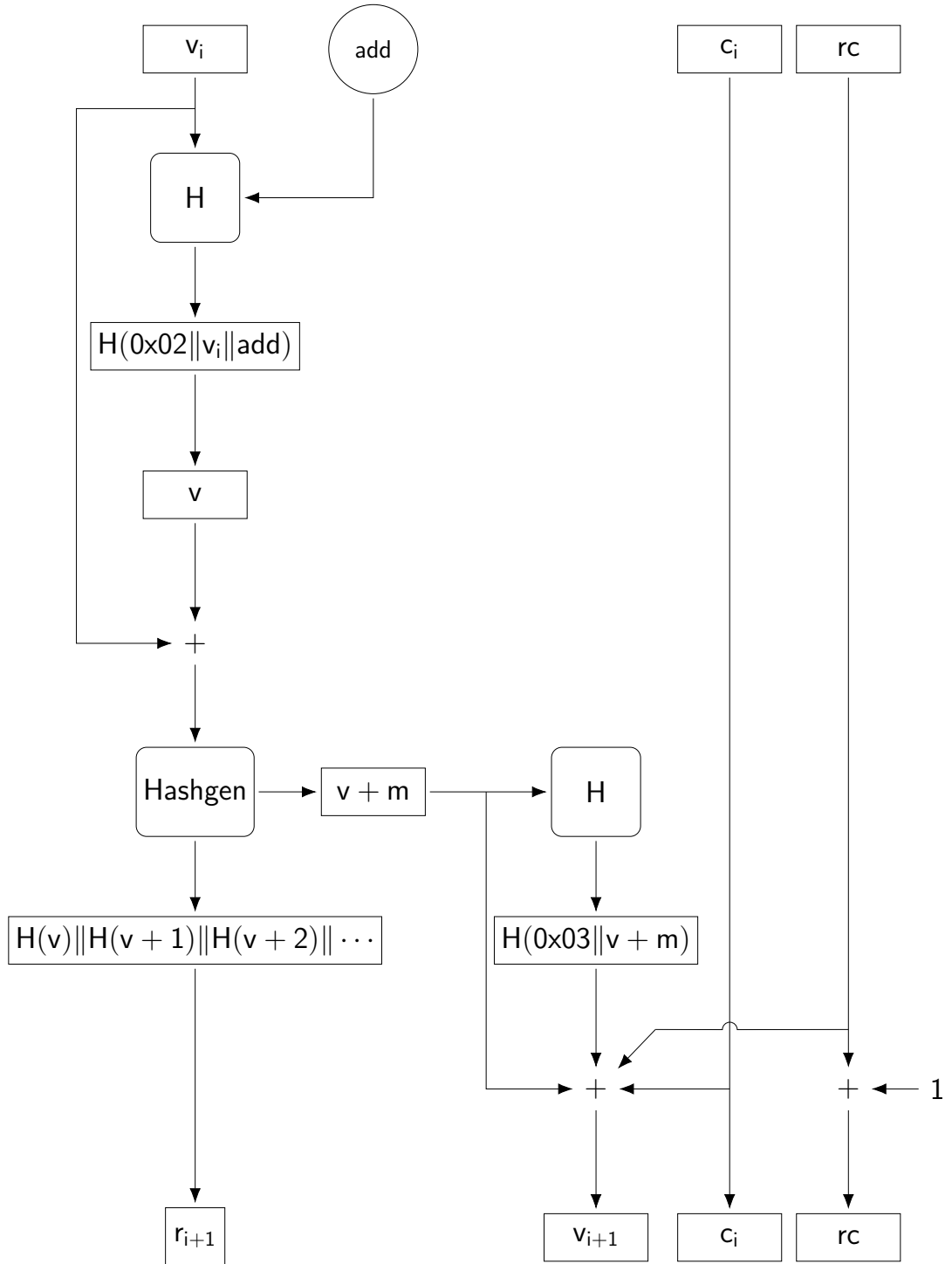


Figure 5.5: The hash_drbg next algorithm.

5.2 The hash_drbg

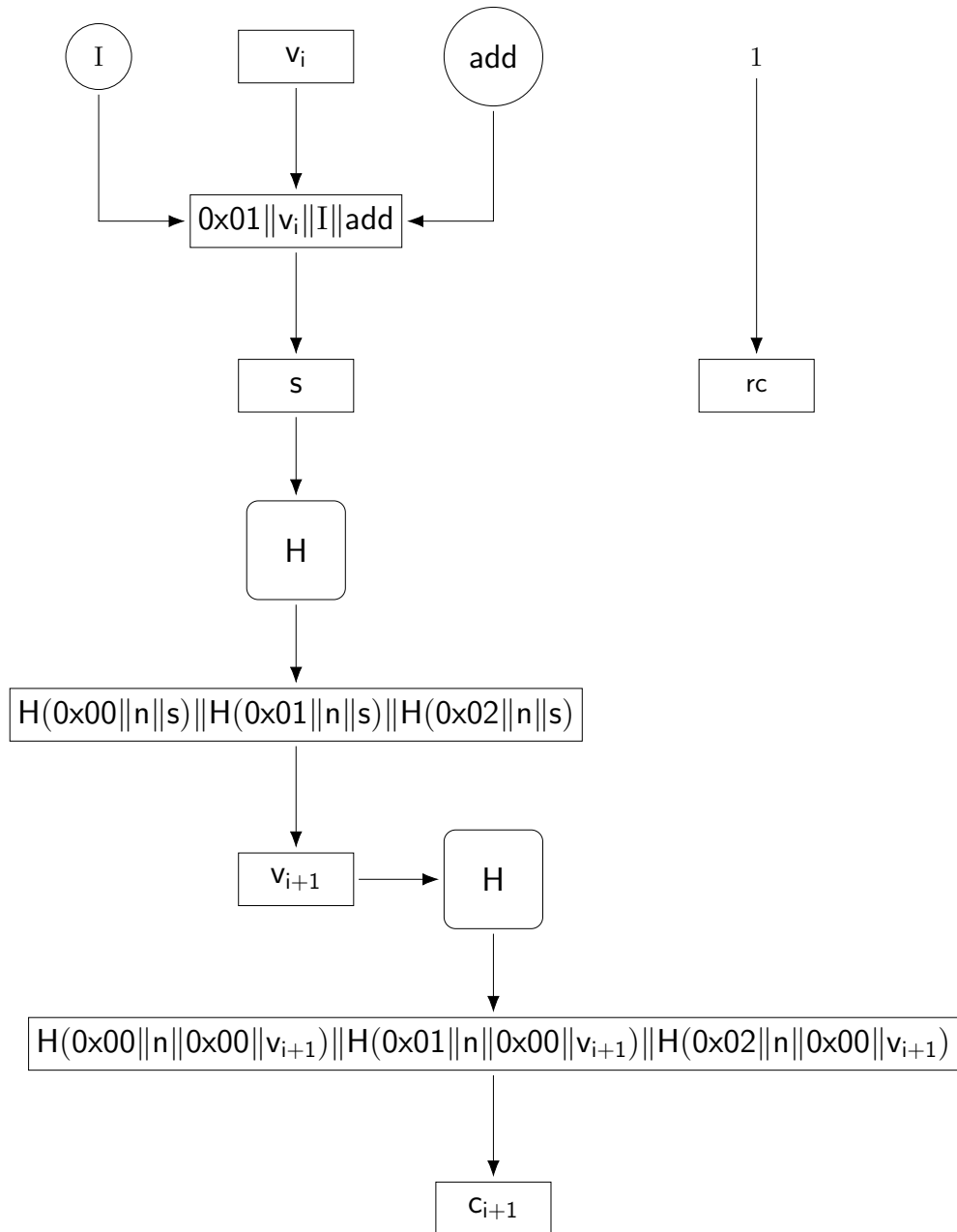


Figure 5.6: The hash_drbg refresh algorithm.

5.2 The `hash_drbg`

5.2.3 Algorithm Descriptions

hash_df The hash derivation function is an auxiliary algorithm of the `hash_drbg`. On input of a string x and required output length ℓ , the `hash_df` repeatedly hashes a counter concatenated with the required length and input string. The `hash_df` algorithm then returns a concatenation of the hash outputs, truncating as necessary. The algorithm is designed to either derive an internal state from the input given, or to distribute entropy throughout a bit string.

hashgen The hash generation algorithm is the second auxiliary algorithm of the `hash_drbg`. The `hashgen` algorithm takes as input a string v_i and requested number of output bits ℓ_{i+1} . The `hashgen` algorithm then proceeds by calculating the number of hash calls required to produce the requested amount of output, before hashing the input v_i , incrementing it between hashes and concatenating the output, which is truncated as necessary. It returns the concatenated hashes as output.

hash_drbg.seedgen The `seedgen` algorithm of the `hash_drbg` has several different options; for simplicity we will assume that each part of the seed is sampled from random. We will also set $|\text{nonce}| = n$ and both `perstring`, `add` $\in \{0, 1\}^{2^{35}}$.

hash_drbg.setup The `setup` algorithm of the `hash_drbg` takes as input an entropy input I_0 output by the entropy source with leakage z_0 and entropy estimate γ_0 , along with the `seed`. The `setup` algorithm makes a call to the `hash_df` function, passing the entropy input concatenated with the nonce and personalisation string from the `seed`. It sets the output of `hash_df` as the initial v -state, which it then prepends with `0x00` and again passes to `hash_df`. The output of `hash_df` becomes the initial c -state. The `setup` algorithm then sets the reseed counter to 1 and returns the combined values as the initial state of the `hash_drbg`.

hash_drbg.refresh The `refresh` algorithm takes as input an entropy input I along with the `seed` and current state s . The `refresh` algorithm calls the `hash_df` algorithm on the current v -state prepended with `0x01`, and appended with the entropy input

5.2 The `hash_drbg`

and add of the `seed`. The result is the updated v -state, which in turn is used via `hash_df` prepended with `0x00` to produce the updated c -state. The `rc` is reset back to 1 and these values are output as the refreshed `hash_drbg` state.

`hash_drbg.next` The next algorithm takes as input the current state of the generator s_i , along with the seed `seed` and the requested number of bits $\ell_i + 1$. First the current v -state is hashed along with part of the `seed` and prepended by `0x02`. This hashed output is then added to the v_i -state modulo 2^n , since the output of the hash function is shorter than the state length. This updated v -state v'_i is input into the `hashgen` algorithm along with the requested number of bits ℓ_{i+1} . The `hashgen` algorithm outputs an updated v -state v'_{i+1} and generator output r_{i+1} . This v -state v'_{i+1} is then hashed, prepending with `0x03` to get u . The next algorithm then calculates $v'_{i+1} + u + c_i + rc$ modulo 2^n to again attain the correct length. The calculated value is then returned as the updated v -state v_{i+1} , while c_i remains the same and `rc` is incremented by 1.

`hash_drbg.tick` The tick algorithm in the `hash_drbg` is a dummy algorithm that leaves the state unchanged. It is included for completeness of the generator description, as per Definition 4.2.1.

5.3 The ctr_drbg

5.3 The ctr_drbg

5.3.1 Notation

Table 5.4 describes the additional notation required for the `ctr_drbg`. The state of the `ctr_drbg` is $s := (v, k, rc)$. This differs from the `hash_drbg` by replacing the `k`-state with a key state k , which is also designed to retain entropy from the last entropy input and to separate outputs between refreshes.

Our Notation	NIST Notation	Size (bits)	Description
<code>ctr_drbg</code>	CTDRBG		The NIST generator based on an approved block cipher.
$E_k(v)$	BlockEncrypt(key,input.block)	n_E	Block cipher encryption of an input v under a key k .
<code>bcdf</code>	BlockCipher.df		An auxiliary algorithm.
<code>bcc</code>	<code>bcc</code>		An auxiliary algorithm.
<code>bcup</code>	<code>ctr_drbg _Update</code>		An auxiliary algorithm.
<code>s</code>	<code>seed_material</code>		
n_E	<code>blocklen</code>		Size of the block cipher's input and output block.
n_k	<code>keylen</code>		Key length of the block cipher.
<code>ctrlen</code>	<code>ctrlen</code>	<code>ctrlen</code>	Size of the counter.
ℓ_{\max} (for $B := (2^{\text{ctrlen}} - 4) * n_E$)	<code>max_number_of _bits_per_request</code>	$\min(B, 2^{19})$ bits.	Maximum requested number of bits from the generate algorithm.
ℓ_{total}			Maximum cumulative requested number of bits.
v_i	<code>V</code>	n_E	Sub-state of the working state.
k_i	<code>Key</code>	n_k	Sub-state of the working state.
$s_i := (v_i, k_i, rc)$	<code>WorkingState</code>		State of the <code>ctr_drbg</code> .

Table 5.4: Notation for the `ctr_drbg`, updated for continuity with our notation.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

	3 Key TDEA	AES-128	AES-192	AES-256
n_E	64	128		
ctrlen	$4 \leq \text{ctrlen} \leq n_E$			
n_k	168	128	192	256
$n = n_E + n_k$	232	256	320	384
If a df is used (not used):				
p	$\lambda \leq p \leq 2^{35}$			(n)
perstring	$\leq 2^{35}$			(n)
add	$\leq 2^{35}$			(n)
ℓ_{\max} (for $B := (2^{\text{ctrlen}} - 4) * n_E$)	$\min(B, 2^{13})$	$\min(B, 2^{19})$		
Number of requests between reseeds	2^{32}	$\leq 2^{48}$		

Table 5.5: Parameters of the different ctr.drbg instantiations.

5.3.2 Specification of the Generator

The ctr.drbg, like the hash.drbg, has several instantiations (again called “envelopes” in the NIST standard) with associated values given in Table 5.5.

Definition 5.3.1. In addition to the notation given in Table 5.4 and parameters in Table 5.5, let

$$\begin{aligned}
 n_k &\approx 2n_E \\
 E_k(v) &: \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^{n_E} \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n_E}, \\
 \lambda &\leq p \leq 2^{35}, \\
 \ell_i &\leq \ell_{\max} := \min(B, 2^{19}), \\
 \text{IFace} &:= \{0\}, \\
 (\text{nonce}, \text{perstring}, \text{add}) &\in \text{Seedspace} := \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^{\leq 2^{35}} \times \{0, 1\}^{\leq 2^{35}}, \\
 (v_i, k_i, rc) &\in \text{Statespace} := \{0, 1\}^{n_E} \times \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^{49}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Where $E_k()$ is the chosen block cipher. The ctr.drbg is specified in Figure 5.8, making use of three auxiliary algorithms given in Figure 5.7.

5.3 The ctr_drbg

<u>bcup(x, k, v)</u>	<u>bcdf(x, ℓ)</u>
$y \leftarrow \text{null}$ while $\text{Len}(y) < n$ do if $\text{ctrlen} < n_E$ $\text{inc} \leftarrow (\text{R}_{\text{ctrlen}}(v)) \bmod 2^{\text{ctrlen}}$ $v \leftarrow \text{L}_{n_E - \text{ctrlen}}(v) \parallel \text{inc}$ else $v \leftarrow v + 1 \bmod 2^{n_E}$ $y \leftarrow y \parallel \text{E}_k(v)$ $y \leftarrow \text{L}_n(y)$ $y \leftarrow y \oplus x$ $k \leftarrow \text{L}_{n_k}(y)$ $v \leftarrow \text{R}_{n_E}(y)$ return (k, v)	$L \leftarrow \text{Len}(x)/8$ $N \leftarrow \ell/8$ $x \leftarrow L \parallel N \parallel x \parallel 0x80$ while $(\text{Len}(x) \bmod n_E) \neq 0$, do $x \leftarrow x \parallel 0x00$ $y \leftarrow \text{null}$ $i \leftarrow 0$ $k \leftarrow \text{L}_{n_k}(0x00010203 \dots 1D1E1F)$ while $\text{Len}(y) < n_k + n_E$, do $\text{cv} \leftarrow i \parallel 0^{n_E - \text{Len}(i)}$ $y \leftarrow y \parallel \text{bcc}(k, (\text{cv} \parallel x))$ $i \leftarrow i + 1$ $k \leftarrow \text{L}_{n_k}(y)$ $x \leftarrow \text{Sel}_{n_k+1}^n(y)$ $y \leftarrow \text{null}$ while $\text{Len}(y) < \ell$, do $x \leftarrow \text{E}_k(x)$ $y \leftarrow y \parallel x$ return $\text{L}_\ell(y)$
<u>bcc(k, x)</u> $\text{cv} \leftarrow 0^{n_E}$ $m \leftarrow \text{Len}(x)/n_E$ parse x as block_1 to block_m for $i = 1$ to m $\text{cv} \leftarrow \text{cv} \oplus \text{block}_i$ $\text{cv} \leftarrow \text{E}_k(\text{cv})$ return cv	

Figure 5.7: The auxiliary algorithms bcup, bcdf and bcc of the ctr_drbg.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

<pre> ctr.drbg.next(seed, s_i, ℓ_{i+1}) parse seed as (nonce, perstring, add) parse s_i as (v_i, k_i, rc) if add ≠ null add ← bcdf(add, n) (k, v) ← bcup(add, k_i, v_i) else add ← 0ⁿ y ← null while Len(y) < ℓ_{i+1} do if ctrlen < n_E inc ← (R_{ctr}(v) + 1) mod 2^{ctr} v ← L_{n_E-ctr}(v) inc else v ← v + 1 mod 2^{n_E} y ← y E_k(v) r_{i+1} ← L_{ℓ_{i+1}}(y) (k_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) ← bcup(add, k, v) rc ← rc + 1 return ((v_{i+1}, k_{i+1}, rc), r_{i+1}) </pre>	<pre> ctr.drbg.setup(seed, (I₀, γ₀, z₀)) parse seed as (nonce, perstring, add) s ← bcdf(I₀ nonce perstring, n) k ← 0^{n_k} v ← 0^{n_E} (k₀, v₀) ← bcup(s, v, k) rc ← 1 return s₀ = (v₀, c₀, rc) ctr.drbg.refresh(seed, s_i, I) parse seed as (nonce, perstring, add) parse s_i as (v_i, k_i, rc) s ← I add s ← bcdf(s, n) (k_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) ← bcup(s, k_i, v_i) rc ← 1 return (v_{i+1}, k_{i+1}, rc) ctr.drbg.tick(seed, s_i) s_{i+1} ← s_i return s_{i+1} </pre>
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Figure 5.8: The algorithms describing the behaviour of the ctr.drbg in the format of Definition 4.2.1.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

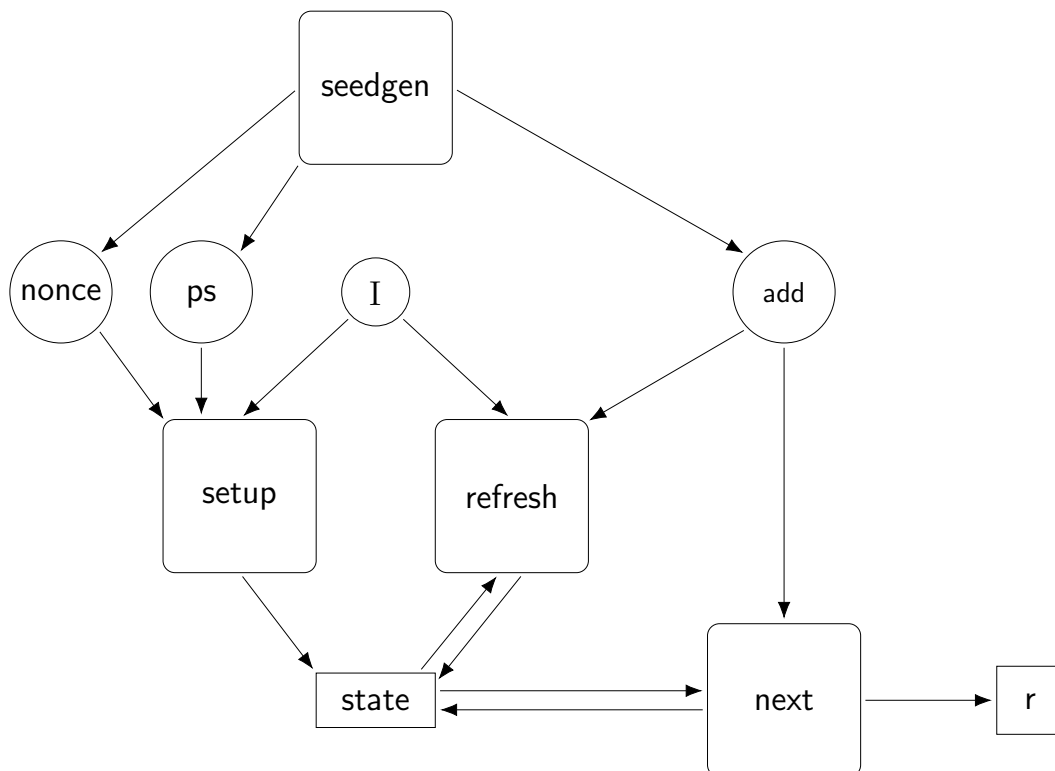


Figure 5.9: The ctr.drbg algorithms and seed usage.

We now provide several overview diagrams of the different ctr.drbg algorithms including their subroutines for clarity.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

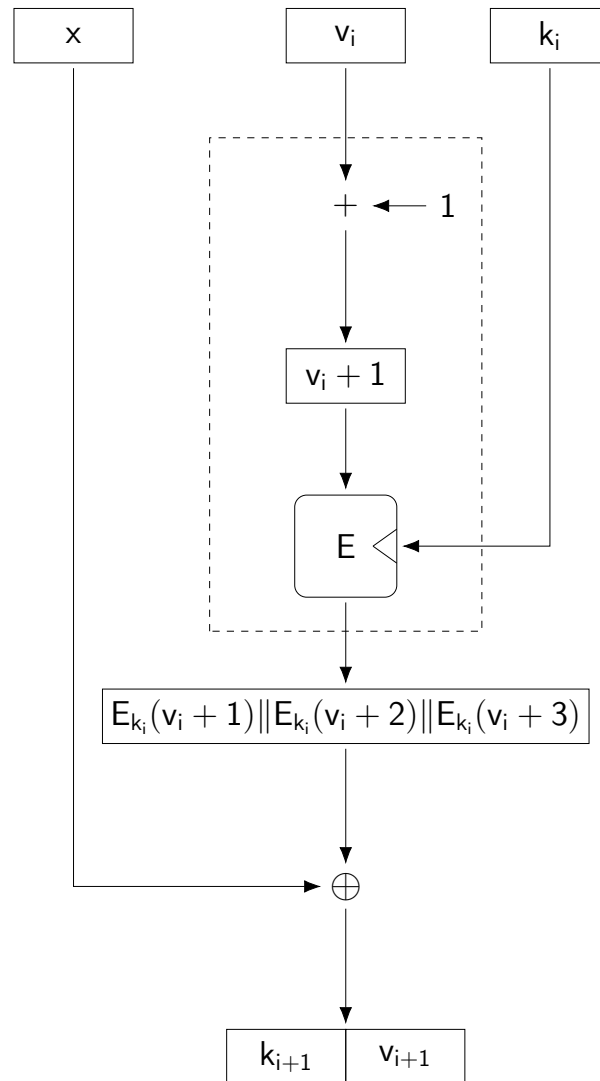


Figure 5.10: The ctr.drbg bcup algorithm.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

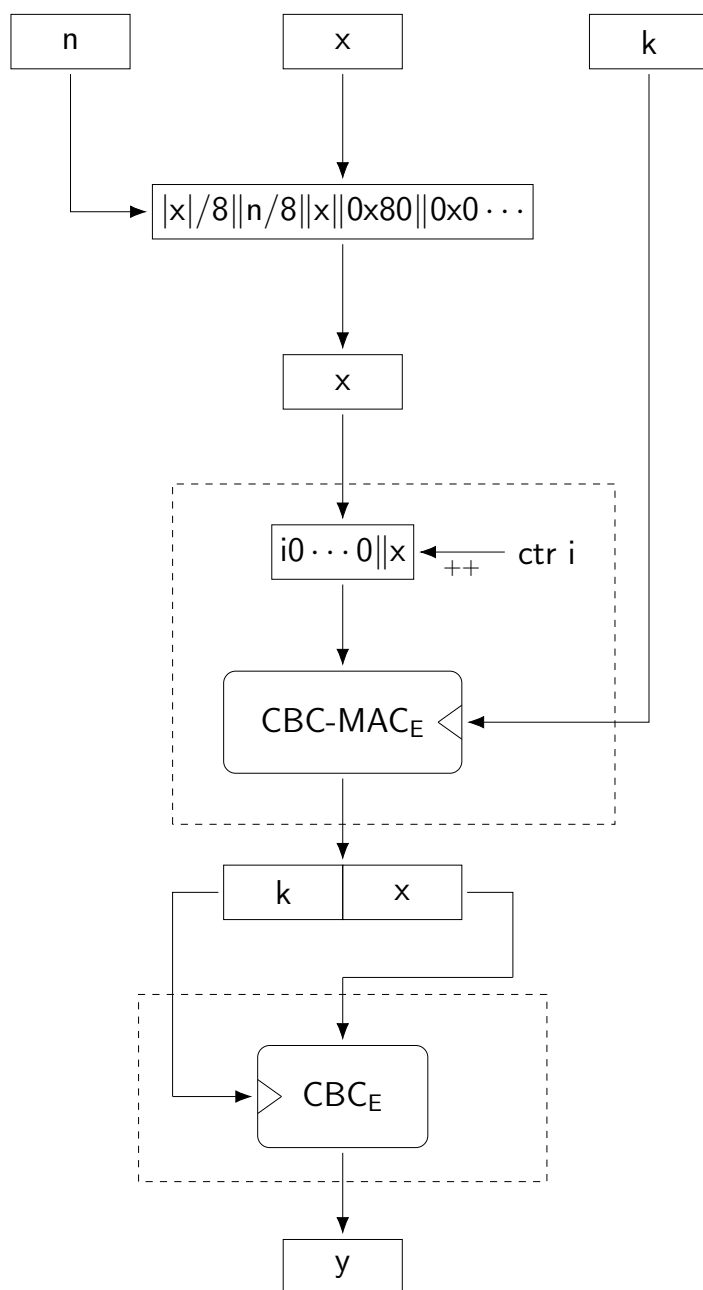


Figure 5.11: The ctr.drbg bcdf algorithm.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

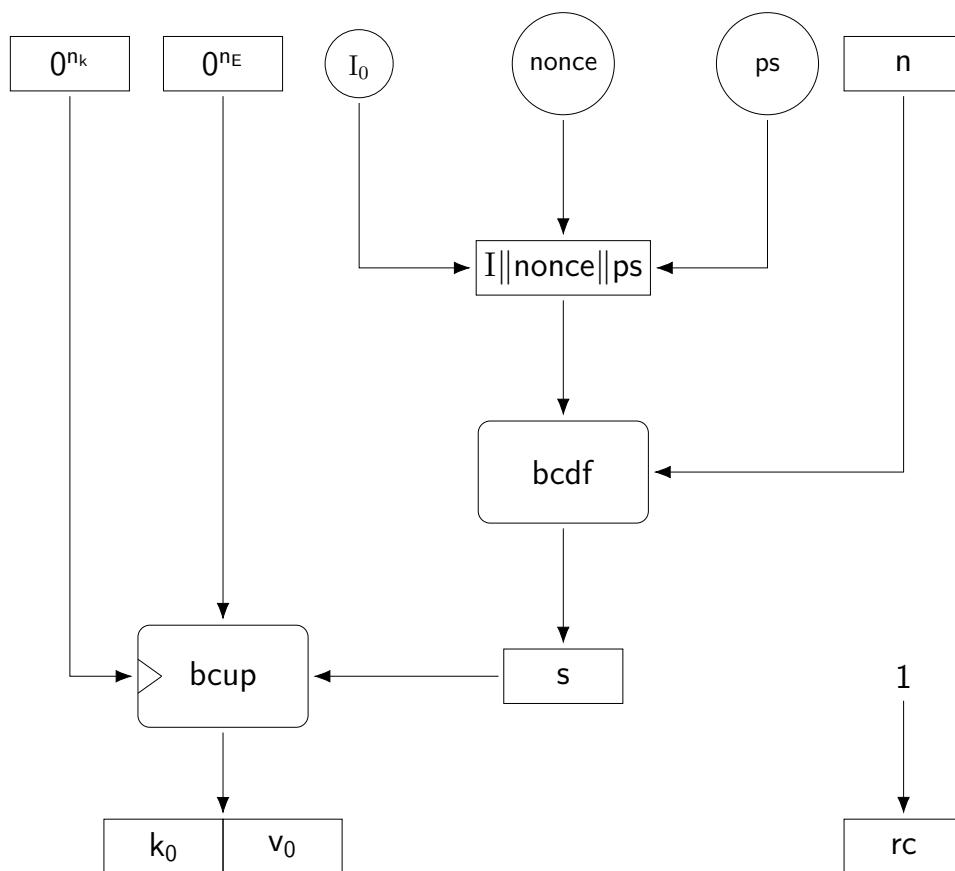


Figure 5.12: The ctr.drbg setup algorithm.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

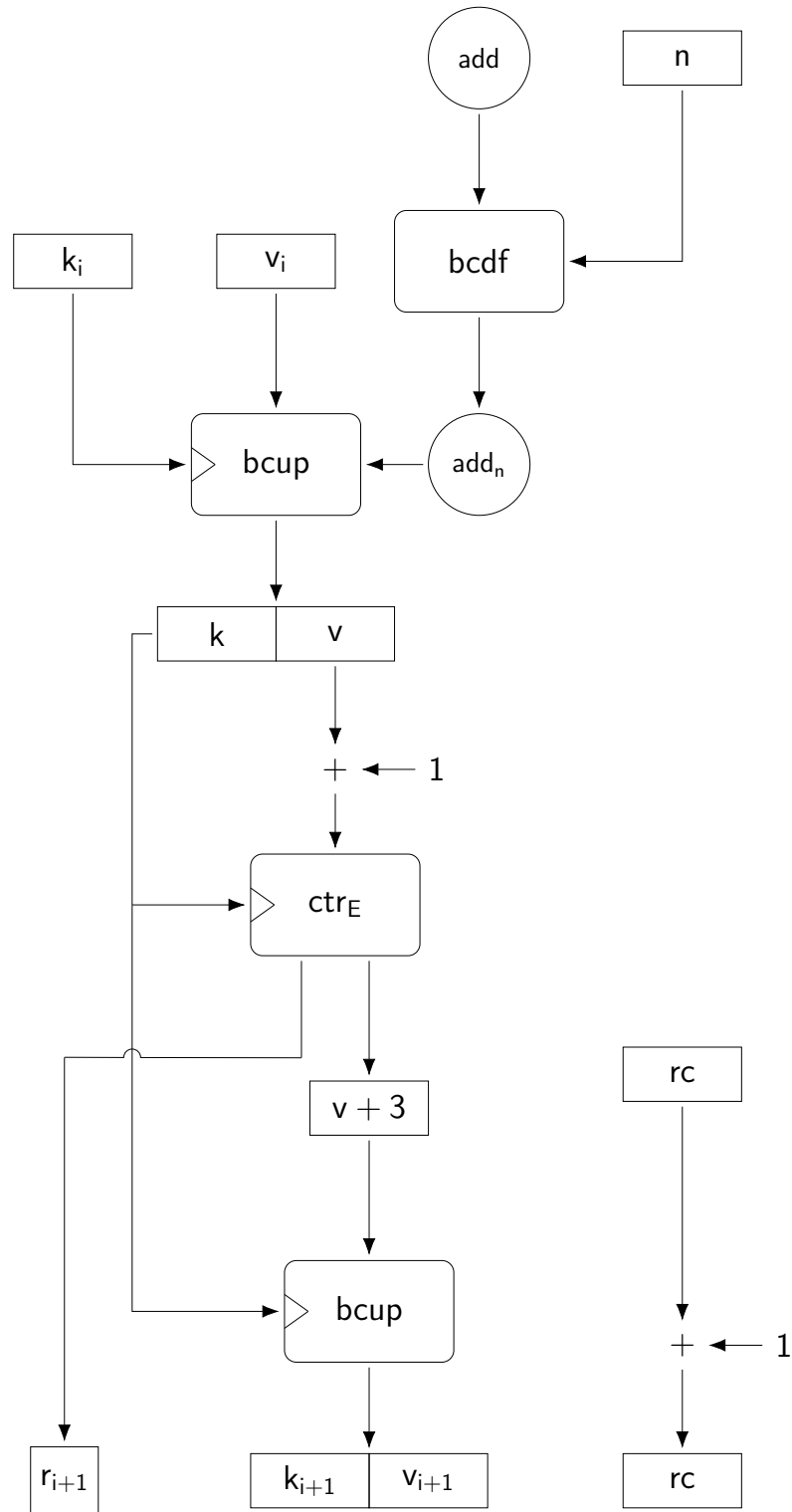


Figure 5.13: The ctr.drbg next algorithm.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

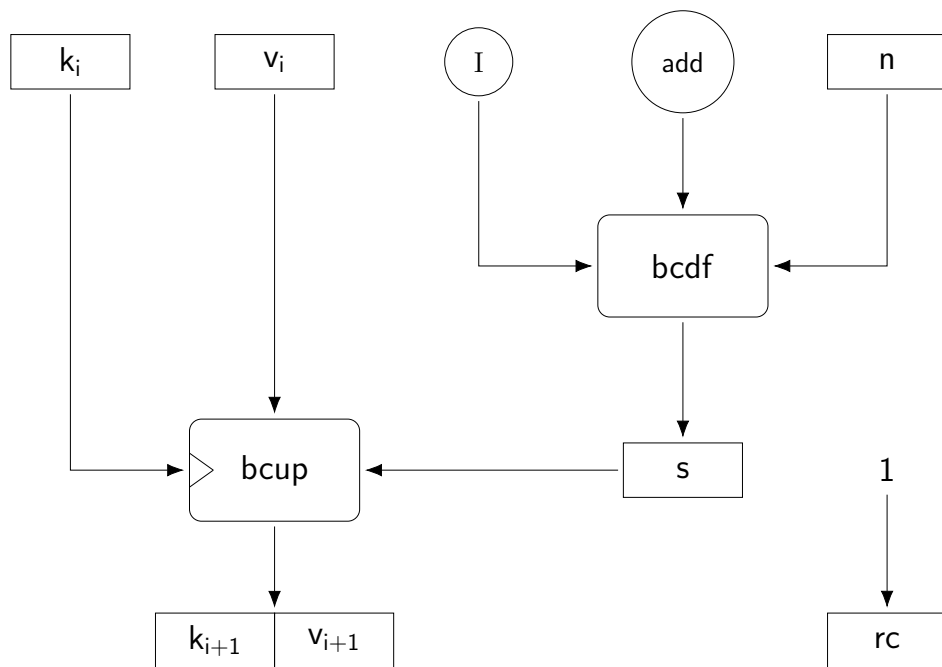


Figure 5.14: The ctr.drbg refresh algorithm.

5.3 The ctr.drbg

5.3.3 Algorithm Descriptions

bcup The block cipher update function is an auxiliary algorithm of the ctr.drbg. On input of a string x , key k and state v , repeatedly encrypts v , incrementing the rightmost `ctrlen` bits of v between encryptions. This is done until the concatenated output is n -bits long (after truncation if necessary), which is then XORed with the input x and split into the new k and v as leftmost and rightmost parts of the output respectively. This is used to refresh the state with fresh entropy or update it between calls to `next`.

bcdf The block cipher derivation function is the second auxiliary algorithm of the ctr.drbg. For a given input string x and requested number of output bits ℓ , the `bcdf` algorithm calculates the number of bytes of both input and output requested. These values are then concatenated with the input x , which is appended with `0x80` and padded until it is a multiple of the n_E . Next, the `bcdf` algorithm calls the `bcc` algorithm using a set key, a counter and the input x . The output of the `bcc` algorithm is then stored as a temporary string, the counter is incremented and the `bcc` algorithm is called again in the same way with the output appended to the temporary string. This is repeated until the temporary string is of a length greater than or equal to $n = n_k + n_E$. This concatenated output is then truncated to n -bits before being split into a new key k and updated x . These updated values are then used as inputs to the block cipher which is called a number of times, with each output being the next input to the block cipher while concatenating the output in a temporary string. Finally, the concatenated output of the block cipher is truncated to the requested number of bits ℓ and returned as output of the algorithm. The algorithm is designed to derive internal state or distribute entropy throughout a bitstring.

This algorithm essentially runs CBC-MAC with three iterations (since $n \approx 3n_E$), with a counter separating the inputs to produce an intermediate (k, v) , which are then used in CBC mode to generate the required amount of output (e.g. three blocks to be used as the updated state).

5.3 The `ctr_drbg`

bcc The `bcc` algorithm is the third auxiliary algorithm of the `ctr_drbg` which takes as input a key k and input string v . It initialises a chaining value to 0, splits the input v into blocks of length n_E and updates the chaining value by XORing it with the first block. The algorithm then encrypts the chaining value under the given key and repeats this process until all blocks have been incorporated. The `bcc` algorithm then returns the final chaining value as output.

ctr_drbg.seedgen The `seedgen` algorithm of the `ctr_drbg` has several different options; for simplicity we will assume that each part of the seed is sampled from random. We will also set $|\text{nonce}| = n$ and both `perstring`, `add` $\in \{0, 1\}^{2^{35}}$.

ctr_drbg.setup The `setup` algorithm of the `ctr_drbg` requires an entropy input I_0 . The entropy input I_0 is output by the entropy source, together with leakage z_0 , and entropy estimate γ_0 . The `setup` algorithm also requires the `seed`. The `setup` algorithm makes a call to the `bcdf` algorithm, passing the entropy input, concatenated with the nonce `nonce` and personalisation string `perstring` of the `seed`. It then initialises the k -state k and v -state v as zero strings, inputs these and the previous output of the `bcdf` algorithm into the `bcup` algorithm, which outputs values for the initial state values k_0 and v_0 . It sets the reseed counter to 1 and outputs the combined values as the initial state of the `ctr_drbg`.

ctr_drbg.refresh The `refresh` algorithm takes as input an entropy input I along with the `seed` and current state s of the `ctr_drbg`. The algorithm calls the `bcdf` algorithm on I and additional input `add` of the `seed`. The output of the `bcdf` algorithm is then input, along with the current k -state k and v -state v into the `bcup` algorithm, which returns updated k and v -states. The reseed counter is reset back to 1 and the updated values (v, k, rc) are returned as the new `ctr_drbg` state.

ctr_drbg.next The `next` algorithm takes the current state of the generator s_i as input, along with the `seed` and the requested number of bits ℓ_{i+1} . The `next` algorithm first updates the current k -state k_i and v -state v_i using the additional input `add` of the `seed` (which may be the zero string) by inputting these values into the `bcup`

5.4 Security of the `hash_drbg`

algorithm. The updated values k'_i and v'_i are used as input to the block cipher, with output written to a temporary string. The value of v'_i is incremented and encrypted again under k'_i with the output appended to the temporary string. This is repeated until the temporary string is at least $\ell_i + 1$. The temporary string is truncated to ℓ_{i+1} and returned as the generator output. The next algorithm then inputs the current values k'_i, v'_i into the `bcup` algorithm, along with `add`. The output of the `bcup` algorithm is returned as the updated values k_{i+1} and v_{i+1} along with the generator output r_{i+1} .

ctr_drbg.tick The tick algorithm in the `ctr_drbg` is a dummy algorithm that leaves the state unchanged. It is included for completeness of the generator by Definition 4.1.2.

5.4 Security of the `hash_drbg`

We begin by noting that since the c -state of the generator depends on the last refreshed v -state, the adversary can easily distinguish between s and $M(s)$ after a refresh by checking `hash_df((0x00||v), n) == c`. This motivates the split masking function to treat a refresh or initialisation masking differently than after a call to `next`.

Below we define the split masking function M of the `hash_drbg`. We note that the c depends entirely on the initial v after a refresh or initialise, but remains constant otherwise.

5.4 Security of the `hash_drbg`

5.4.1 Masking Function of `hash_drbg`

Definition 5.4.1. For Statespace defined as in Definition 5.2.1, the `hash_drbg` masking function, is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} M &:= (M_I, M_P, M_R) : \{0, 1\}^{2n+49} \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}^{2n+49}, \\ M_I(s) &= (v', c', 1) \quad \text{where } v' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n, c' = \text{hash_df}((0x00\|v'), n), \\ M_P(s) &= (v', c, rc) \quad \text{where } v' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n, \\ M_R(s) &= (v', c', rc) \quad \text{where } v', c' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n. \end{aligned}$$

This captures how the notion of the “ideal state” of the generator changes depending on the situation.

- After initialisation we expect a random v -state, but the c -state should be entirely dependent on the current v -state.
- After a preserving next call we expect the v -state to still be random, but the c -state is expected to remain constant, being dependent on the v -state closest to the last entropy input.
- Lastly, after a recovering next call we expect the v -state to again be random, but we also expect the c -state to have been updated, but not directly dependent on the *current* v -state since it will have been updated as part of the next call.

Lemma 5.4.2.

The `hash_drbg` split masking function as defined in Definition 5.4.1 is idempotent.

Proof. For a state $s \in \text{Seedspace}$, the split masking function of the `hash_drbg` always fixes the “public” part the reseed counter rc and overwrites the v -state with uniformly random bits. We look at the separate cases, focusing on the first mask applied:

- If the first mask is M_I then s must be a result of `setup` and will be of the form $(v, c := f(v), rc)$ where $f(x)$ is `hash_df((0x00\|x), n)`. We note that $M_I(s)$ is identically distributed to this s with a random v -state. With this knowledge,

5.4 Security of the `hash_drbg`

applying either M_P or M_R will always overwrite the v -state, leaving $rc = 1$. In the case of M_R , the c -state will also be overwritten, so the resulting state will always be of the form $(v', c', 1)$ for v', c' chosen uniformly from random. In the case of M_P , the v will always be chosen uniformly from random, while the c is a function of the previous v and $rc = 1$. In both cases, the mask of the masked state is identically distributed to the masked state.

- If the first mask is M_P then only the v -state will have been overwritten as uniformly random. Applying either M_P or M_R afterwards will overwrite at least the v -state, leaving the rc unchanged. Depending on the choice of second mask the c -state is either overwritten or left constant, in either case the state is left identically distributed to $M_P(s)$.
- If the first mask is M_R then the v -state and c are overwritten. If the second mask is also M_R then the v -state and c -state are again overwritten, making the double masking identically distributed to $M_R(s)$. If the second mask is M_P then the v -state is overwritten, the c is left constant, which is still uniformly random, and rc is left constant. This makes the double masking also identically distributed to $M_R(s)$.

□

Lemma 5.4.3.

The split masking function of the `hash_drbg` defined in Definition 5.4.1 is a $(\mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_h)$ -honest initialisation split masking function under the assumption that the entropy source \mathcal{D} outputs at minimum k bits of entropy and where $\epsilon_h := \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2^{2n_H - k} + \alpha(\alpha + 2)}$.

Proof. Since M_I overwrites the v -state with uniformly random bits, while calculating the resulting c -state in the same way as the `setup` algorithm, an adversary distinguishing between s_0 and $M_I(s_0)$ would be able to distinguish the output of the `hash_df` algorithm from random. We will therefore show that the `hash_df` algorithm is a (k, ϵ_h) -extractor and thus

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{M}}^{\text{init}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \epsilon_h.$$

5.4 Security of the `hash_drbg`

Before we discuss details of the `hash_df` function, we look at the advice given in the NIST document about underlying hash functions. We note that all of the combinations given mean that at most, `hash_df` in the `initialise` algorithm would call the underlying hash function thrice; this stems from the required length n being at most three times the size of n_H . We will in fact restrict ourselves to the situation with SHA256 and SHA512 for simplicity, both of which only require two calls.

Lemma 5.4.4.

In the context of the `hash_drbg.setup` algorithm, let $H : \{0, 1\}^ \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n_H}$ be a strong ρ -universal hash function, with the family defined over `nonce` and `perstring`, which we assume to be uniformly random strings. Let $\rho := (1 + \alpha)2^{-n_H}$. Then the `hash_df` function is a ρ' -universal hash function $H' : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{2n_H}$ and again with the family defined over `nonce` and `perstring`, with $\rho' := (1 + \alpha')2^{-2n_H}$. This yields $\alpha' = \alpha(\alpha + 2)$.*

Proof. Assuming that the `hash_df` outputs the entire output string, we have that $H'(x) := H(1\|\ell\|x)\|H(2\|\ell\|x)$, where ℓ is the size of the output, and thus a constant. Since the counter separates the two inputs to H we have that for all $x_1, x_2 \in \{0, 1\}^n$, $x_1 \neq x_2$, for a collision to occur, both $H(1\|\ell\|x_1) = H(1\|\ell\|x_2)$ and $H(2\|\ell\|x_1) = H(2\|\ell\|x_2)$, which are both bounded as at most ρ . Thus a collision will occur with probability ρ^2 .

Defining $H' : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{2n_H}$, we can conclude that H' is a strong $\rho' := \rho^2$ -universal hash function. This yields $\rho' = (1 + \alpha')2^{-2n_H} = \rho^2 = (1 + \alpha)2^{-2n_H} \implies \alpha' = \alpha(\alpha + 2)$. \square

Lemma 5.4.5.

In the context of the `hash_drbg.setup` algorithm, assuming the underlying hash function $H : \{0, 1\}^ \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n_H}$ is a strong ρ -universal hash function family over the space of all `nonce` and `perstring` ($\{0, 1\}^d$ where $d \leq |\text{nonce}| + 2^{35}$). For an entropy source with minimum entropy k and with entropy loss $L := k - 2n_H$, by Lemma 5.4.4 and by applying the leftover hash lemma (Lemma 2.4.5), we have that the `hash_df` algorithm is a (k, ϵ) -extractor for $\epsilon := \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2^{2n_H-k} + \alpha(\alpha + 2)}$.*

5.4 Security of the `hash_drbg`

Proof. By Lemma 5.4.4 we have that `hash_df` is a ρ' -universal hash function family over the same space. We then use the leftover hash lemma that states that `hash_df`, as described in Figure 5.1, is a (k, ϵ) -extractor where $\epsilon := \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2^{2n_H-k} + \alpha'}$. We also need to assert that the seed length meets the required length; namely, $d \geq \min(|I| - 2n_H, 2n_H + 2\log(1/\epsilon) - O(1)) = \min(p - 2n_H, 2n_H + 2\log(1/\epsilon) - O(1))$. Since the seed length is $d = |\textit{nonce}| + 2^{35}$, this is easily met. \square

Lemma 5.4.5 also concludes the proof of Lemma 5.4.3. \square

This requires several fairly strong assumptions that do not translate to a standard implementation of the `hash_drbg`; namely, the `nonce` and `perstring` are not generally uniformly random, and the underlying hash function, e.g. SHA512, will yield a ρ resulting in large α . For now, we will proceed with our assumptions to prove our security claims.

Corollary 5.4.6.

In the context of the `hash_drbg.refresh` algorithm, assuming that the `add` is chosen uniformly at random, the `hash_df` is a $(k, \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2^{2n_H-k} + \alpha^(\alpha^* + 1)})$ -extractor for the above parameters when used to refresh the v state. Similarly the seed length for the extractor is 2^{35} bits which meets the required minimum length.*

Proof. Following the same argument as Lemma 5.4.4, we obtain that the `hash_df` is a ρ'' -universal hash function in the same way but with the family over $\{0, 1\}^{\text{add}}$, hence we use α^* . \square

5.4.2 PRG Security of the next Function of the `hash_drbg`

We now need to consider the PRG security of the `next` function. We could model it similarly to [34], where the circuits are describing the counter used in the generate algorithm, but since the adversary obtains all of the output and the circuits are so restricted, it makes more sense to approach the proof more directly.

We do this by defining the security game `res1` given in Figure 5.15.

5.4 Security of the `hash_drbg`

```


$$\text{res}_1(\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}, D_i, D_{i+1}, \ell_{i+1})$$



---


seed  $\leftarrow$  seedgen;  $\mathbf{b} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ 
 $s'_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{2n+49}$ 
 $s_0 \leftarrow M_I(s'_0)$ 
 $(s_{i+1}, r_{i+1}) \leftarrow D_{i+b}(\text{seed}, M(s'_0), \ell_{i+1})$ 
 $\mathbf{b}^* \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{A}_{\text{next}}((s_{i+1}, r_{i+1}), \text{rc})$ 
return  $\mathbf{b} == \mathbf{b}^*$ 

```

Figure 5.15: The security game for distinguishing between `hash_drbg.next` and a random generator output and masked state.

Definition 5.4.7. For an algorithm D_i representing the `next` function, for a masked input state $M_I(s_0)$, seed `seed`, requested number of bits $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$, and any adversary \mathcal{A}_{PRG} running in time no more than t playing the game described in Figure 5.15, which is derived from the resilience notion (from Definition 4.4.2) restricted to one call to `next`, has advantage

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_i(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_{i+1}(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \leq \left| \Pr \left[\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}^{D_i} = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}^{D_{i+1}} = 1 \right] \right|.$$

Lemma 5.4.8.

Let s_i be a random variable on the Statespace, then for any q adversary \mathcal{A}_{PRG} , and $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(\text{next}(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), (M(s_{i+1}), U_{\ell_{i+1}})) \leq \epsilon_{\text{PRG}} \leq \left(\left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\text{H}}} \right\rceil + 2 \right) \text{Adv}_{\text{H}}^{\text{owf}}(q, n_{\text{H}}).$$

Proof. The proof will proceed in two parts. First we will show that an adversary cannot distinguish between the real or masked output state, while always having real output. Following this, given masked output state the adversary cannot distinguish between real and random output. Recall $m := \lceil \ell_{i+1}/n_{\text{E}} \rceil$.

We define three algorithms in Figure 5.16 that we will use for the hybrid game jumps. We omit parsing the seed for simplicity.

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Alg. $D_0(\text{seed}, s_i, \ell_{i+1})$	Alg. $D_1(\text{seed}, s_i, \ell_{i+1})$	Alg. $D_2(\text{seed}, s_i, \ell_{i+1})$
parse s_i as (v_i, c_i, rc)	parse s_i as (v_i, c_i, rc)	parse s_i as (v_i, c_i, rc)
$w \leftarrow \text{H}(0x02\ v_i\ \text{add})$	$w \leftarrow \text{H}(0x02\ v_i\ \text{add})$	$w \leftarrow \text{H}(0x02\ v_i\ \text{add})$
$v \leftarrow (v_i + w) \bmod 2^n$	$v \leftarrow (v_i + w) \bmod 2^n$	$v \leftarrow (v_i + w) \bmod 2^n$
$(r_{i+1}, v) \leftarrow \text{hashgen}(\ell_{i+1}, v)$	$(r_{i+1}, v) \leftarrow \text{hashgen}(\ell_{i+1}, v)$	$(r_{i+1}, v) \leftarrow \text{hashgen}(\ell_{i+1}, v)$
$u \leftarrow \text{H}(0x03\ v)$	$u \leftarrow \text{H}(0x03\ v)$	$r_{i+1} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{i+1}}$
$v_{i+1} \leftarrow (v + u + c_i) \bmod 2^n$	$v_{i+1} \leftarrow (v + u + c_i) \bmod 2^n$	$u \leftarrow \text{H}(0x03\ v)$
$c_{i+1} \leftarrow c_i$	$c_{i+1} \leftarrow c_i$	$v_{i+1} \leftarrow (v + u + c_i) \bmod 2^n$
$\text{rc} \leftarrow \text{rc} + 1.$	$\text{rc} \leftarrow \text{rc} + 1.$	$c_{i+1} \leftarrow c_i$
return (r_{i+1}, s_{i+1})	$s_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{M}(s)$	$\text{rc} \leftarrow \text{rc} + 1.$
	return (r_{i+1}, s_{i+1})	$s_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{M}(s)$
		return (r_{i+1}, s_{i+1})

Figure 5.16: The algorithms D_0, D_1 and D_2 used in proving the PRG security of the `hash_drbg.next` function.

We then have,

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(\text{next}(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), (\text{M}(s_{i+1}), \text{U}_{\ell_{i+1}})) &= \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_0(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_2(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \\
&\leq \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_0(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \\
&\quad + \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_2(s_i, \ell_{i+1})).
\end{aligned}$$

We note that the first part is relatively straightforward. We present it in Lemma 5.4.9.

Lemma 5.4.9.

Let s_i be as described in Definition 5.4.7. Let H be a strong ρ -universal hash function.

Then for any adversary working in time $t=q$, \mathcal{A}_{PRG} , and $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_0(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \leq 2\text{Adv}_{\text{H}}^{\text{owf}}(q, n_{\text{H}}).$$

Proof. We simplify the distinguishing game by giving the adversary the intermediate values $w \leftarrow \text{H}(0x02\|v_i\|\text{add})$ and $u \leftarrow \text{H}(0x03\|v+m)$, once all queries to H have been made. The latter value can be reconstructed using the challenge and the adversary can always disregard the additional information. Therefore,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_0(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \leq \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_0(s_i, \ell_{i+1}, w, u), D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1}, w, u)).$$

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After receiving this information, an adversary must either have found a pre-image of $H(0x02\|v_i\|\text{add})$ or found a pre-image of $H(0x03\|v+m)$, which by the properties of H is precisely $\text{Adv}_H^{\text{owf}}(q, n_H)$ respectively. \square

Lemma 5.4.10.

Let s_i be as described in Definition 5.4.7 and let H be a strong ρ -universal hash function. Then for any adversary working in time $t=q$, \mathcal{A}_{PRG} , and $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_2(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \leq m \text{Adv}_H^{\text{owf}}(q, n_H).$$

Proof. The output the adversary receives is either random, or, of the form $H(v)\|H(v+1)\|\dots\|H(v+m-1)$, where $m := \ell_{i+1}/n_H$. Similar to Lemma 5.4.9, if we give the adversary the intermediate value $v_i + H(0x2\|v_i\|\text{add})$, to succeed, an adversary must have found a pre-image of one of the hash blocks. We also note that each query the adversary makes to H reduces the number of possible pre-images by m , since the output is a chain of values.

This yields adversarial advantage $m \text{Adv}_H^{\text{owf}}(q, n_H)$. \square

Putting together Lemmas 5.4.9 and 5.4.10 concludes the proof. \square

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5.4.3 Variable-Output Robustness of the `hash_drbg`

Theorem 5.4.11.

The `hash_drbg` is $(t', \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}, \mathfrak{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathfrak{q}_{\mathcal{S}}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_{\text{rob}})$ -variable output robust witnessed by the $(\mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_{\text{h}})$ -honest idempotent split masking function M , where

$$\epsilon_{\text{rob}} \leq \epsilon_{\text{h}} + \max_{\substack{(\ell_1, \dots, \ell_q): \\ \sum_{i=1}^q \ell_i \leq \ell_{\text{total}}}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^q (\epsilon_{\text{p}} + \epsilon_{\text{r}}) \right),$$

and for legitimate distribution sampler \mathcal{D} , under the assumption that H is a ρ -universal hash function for $\rho = (1 + \alpha)2^{-n_{\mathsf{H}}}$, $k = \gamma^* + 2n_{\mathsf{H}}$ and for ϵ_{p} and ϵ_{r} given in the following lemmas.

Proof.

Proof outline The proof proceeds as normal by proving the `hash_drbg` satisfies both variable output preserving and variable output recovering security.

Lemma 5.4.12.

Let the `hash_drbg` be as described in Definition 5.2.1. Then the `hash_drbg` has $(t, \ell_{\max}, \epsilon_{\text{p}})$ -variable output preserving security, witnessed by the masking function M defined in Definition 5.4.1 and for:

$$\epsilon_{\text{p}} \leq \left(\left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\mathsf{H}}} \right\rceil + 6d + 2 \right) \text{Adv}_{\mathsf{H}}^{\text{owf}}(q, n_{\mathsf{H}}).$$

Proof. The proof proceeds by hybrid argument. First we show that we can replace the intermediate state s_d after the adversarial refreshes have been made with a masked state, followed by using the earlier result of Lemma 5.4.8 to show that the final challenge is indistinguishable from random output and a masked state.

If we give the adversary additional information after she has made all of her queries to H , namely the value of v_{i+1} and the value s , then an adversary able to distinguish between the challenge and a masked state and output must have queried one of these two values with the correct prefix. Since the adversary is allowed to make d

5.4 Security of the `hash_drbg`

adversarial refresh calls, this becomes

$$6d \text{Adv}_{\mathbf{H}}^{\text{owf}}(q, n_{\mathbf{H}}).$$

Putting this together with Lemma 5.4.8 yields

$$\epsilon_{\text{p}} \leq \left(\left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\mathbf{H}}} \right\rceil + 6d + 2 \right) \text{Adv}_{\mathbf{H}}^{\text{owf}}(q, n_{\mathbf{H}}).$$

We set **Game 0** as the VOPWI preserving security game witnessed by the masking function \mathbf{M} , **Game 1** is identical to **Game 0** but replacing the intermediate value s_d with a masked state, and finally, **Game 2** replaces the final output with a masked state using Lemma 5.4.8.

Lemma 5.4.13.

Let \mathbf{H} be a ρ -universal hash function for $\rho := (1 + \alpha)2^{-n_{\mathbf{H}}}$ and let the `hash_drbg` be as described in Definition 5.2.1. The `hash_drbg` has $(t, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \ell_{\max}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_r)$ -variable output recovering security, witnessed by the masking function \mathbf{M} defined in Definition 5.4.1 and for:

$$\epsilon_r \leq \epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'} + \epsilon_{\text{PRG}}.$$

Proof. The proof proceeds with a hybrid argument. First we show that we can replace the intermediate state after the refresh queries with a masked state, followed by using the earlier result of Lemma 5.4.8 to show that the final challenge is indistinguishable from random output and a masked state.

If we modify the `refresh` algorithm to take as input the entire string of refresh values as an on-line extractor, call it `refresh'(seed, s_i, I')` for $I := I_1, \dots, I_d$, we can prove that this new algorithm is a universal hash function and employ the leftover hash lemma.

Lemma 5.4.14.

The algorithm `refresh'`, as described in the previous paragraph, assuming that \mathbf{H} is a strong ρ -universal hash function and:

$$\rho' := \sum_{i=2}^d (\Pr[\text{coll} | \mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i]) = \frac{1}{2^{3n_{\mathbf{E}}}} (\rho^*),$$

is a ρ' -universal hash function.

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Proof. Let $I'_0 \neq I'_1$, with $I'_j := (I_{j;1} \dots, I_{j;d})$. We split into several cases. Let $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i$ be the event corresponding to I'_0 , and I'_1 only differ in the first i blocks, with $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_1$ meaning they differ in the first block alone, while $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_d$ mean they differ in all d blocks. Since the cs are not used to propagate the state, we need only focus on finding a collision in the v .

In $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_1$ the probability of a collision in the first iteration is precisely the probability that there is a collision in v_{i+1} over the choice of `add`. Since \mathbf{H} is a ρ -universal hash function, this probability is precisely $\frac{1}{\rho^3}$. However, even if a collision does not occur in the first block, there is still a non-zero probability that for each block the v_{i+1} will collide, again with probability $\frac{1}{\rho^3}$. Putting this together yields $\Pr[\text{coll}|\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i] = \frac{d}{\rho^3}$, since once a collision has occurred, the remaining blocks will be equal.

Now that we have dealt with the case $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_1$ we can look to the general case of $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i$. The general case can be split as follows:

- On input block $k \leq i$ there is a collision denoted $\text{coll}(k)$, then there must also be a collision in the remaining $i - k$ blocks that differ between I'_0 and I'_1 .
- On input block $k > i$ there is a collision in one of the remaining $(d - k)$ blocks where I'_0 and I'_1 match.

The first case can be calculated to be:

$$\Pr[\text{coll}(k)|\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i \wedge (k \leq i)] = \frac{1}{\rho^3} \frac{1}{(\rho^3)^{i-k}} = \frac{1}{\rho^{3(1+i-k)}}.$$

Which means that for all such k we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\text{coll}|\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i \wedge (k \leq i)] &= \frac{1}{\rho^3} \prod_{k=1}^{i-1} \frac{1}{(\rho^3)^{i-k}} = \frac{1}{\rho^3} \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} \frac{1}{(\rho^3)^j} \\ &= \frac{1}{\rho^3} \frac{1}{(\rho^3)^{\frac{i(i-1)}{2}}} = \rho^{-\frac{3(i(i-1)+2)}{2}}. \end{aligned} \quad (5.4.1)$$

The second case is simpler, as follows:

$$\Pr[\text{coll}(k)|\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i \wedge (k > i)] = \frac{1}{\rho^3}.$$

So for all such k this becomes:

$$\Pr[\text{coll}|\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i \wedge (k > i)] = \sum_{k=i+1}^d \frac{1}{\rho^3} = \frac{d-i}{\rho^3}. \quad (5.4.2)$$

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Putting Equations (5.4.1) and (5.4.2) together yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho' &:= \sum_{i=2}^d (\Pr[\text{coll}|\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i]) + \frac{d}{\rho^3} \\
 &= \sum_{i=2}^d \left(\frac{1}{(\rho^3)^{\frac{i(i-1)+2}{2}}} + \frac{d-i}{\rho^3} \right) + \frac{d}{\rho^3} \\
 &= \frac{2d + (d-1)(d-2)}{2\rho^3} + \sum_{i=2}^d \left(\frac{1}{(\rho^3)^{\frac{i(i-1)+2}{2}}} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2^{n_H}} (\rho^*), \tag{5.4.3}
 \end{aligned}$$

and thus `refresh'` is a strong $\rho' = 2^{-n_H}(1 + (\rho^* - 1))$ -universal hash function.

Corollary 5.4.15.

The algorithm `refresh'` as described above is a $(k, \epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'})$ -extractor for $\epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'}$ given in Lemma 5.5.14 under the assumption that \mathbf{E} is an ideal cipher.

Proof. By the leftover hash lemma we have that since `refresh'` is a $2^{-n_H}(1 + (\rho^* - 1))$ -universal hash function, it is also a $(k, \epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'})$ -extractor for $\epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'} \leq \sqrt{2^{n_H-k} + \rho^* - 1}$. Inputting $k \geq \gamma^*$ yields our result.

Putting this together with Lemma 5.4.8 yields

$$\epsilon_r \leq \epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'} + \epsilon_{\text{PRG}}.$$

5.5 Security of the ctr_drbg

We now turn to the security of the `ctr_drbg`. We will assume the block cipher E is a secure PRP unless otherwise specified.

Whenever the `ctr_drbg` updates the state it uses the `bcup` algorithm. This is not limited to next function; each of the `ctr_drbg` algorithms calls `bcup`. The `bcup` algorithm utilises the previous state and the block cipher in counter mode to generate the new state. Because of this, the split masking function of `ctr_drbg` is much simpler than its counterpart of the `hash_drbg`. In Definition 5.5.1 we define the split masking function M of the `ctr_drbg`.

5.5.1 Masking Function of ctr_drbg

Definition 5.5.1. For Statespace defined as in Definition 5.3.1, the `ctr_drbg` masking function is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 M &:= (M_I, M_P, M_R) : \{0, 1\}^{n_E} \times \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^{49} \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n_E} \times \{0, 1\}^{n_k} \times \{0, 1\}^{49}, \\
 M_I(s) &= (v', k', 1) \quad \text{where } v' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^{n_E}, k' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^{n_k}, \\
 M_P(s) &= (v', k', rc) \quad \text{where } v' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^{n_E}, k' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^{n_k}, \\
 M_R(s) &= (v', k', rc) \quad \text{where } v' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^{n_E}, k' \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^{n_k}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 5.5.2.

The ctr_drbg split masking function as defined in Definition 5.5.1 is idempotent.

Proof. The `ctr_drbg` split masking function acts the same in all situations and always overwrites the v -state and k -state, leaving the reseed counter untouched. Each successive application of the split masking function overwrites the states with samples from the same distribution, therefore the mask applied iteratively results in the same distribution. \square

Lemma 5.5.3.

The split masking function of the ctr_drbg defined in Definition 5.5.1 is a $(\mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_h)$ -honest initialisation split masking function under the assumption that \mathcal{D} is a legitimate distribution sampler outputting I_0 with minimum entropy $3 \cdot 2k = 6n_E$ -bits, that

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E is an ideal cipher, *seedgen* outputs a uniformly random seed *seed* from *Seedspace*, and where

$$\epsilon_h \leq 3^2 \cdot 2^{-n_E/2} + \frac{3}{2^{n_E}} + q^2 2^{n_E-1} + \left(\frac{(qn_E)^2}{n_E^2} - \frac{qn_E}{n_E} \right) 2^{-n_E}.$$

Proof. Running *Initialise*, the *setup* algorithm uses the *bcdf* algorithm to extract entropy from the entropy input I_0 . This value is then used by the *bcup* algorithm, which XORs it with initial values of k, v derived from $E_{0^{n_k}}(0^{n_E})$. The proof proceeds by showing that *bcdf* acts as an extractor and outputs an n -bit string y indistinguishable from random. Once this is established, since the initial values (v_0, k_0) are a constant c , XORed with this value y and split into the required lengths, we arrive at the desired uniformly random initial working state.

Lemma 5.5.4.

The *bcdf* algorithm is a $(6n_E, \epsilon_h)$ -extractor under the assumption that E is a secure PRP and the seed of the extractor is $\text{nonce} \parallel \text{perstring}$ which are uniformly random strings.

Proof. We proceed with a hybrid argument utilising the following games:

- **Game 0** is the unmodified *bcdf* algorithm,
- **Game 1** modifies *bcdf* so that instead of returning the concatenation of the constant keyed output of the *bcc* algorithm of length $n_k + n_E$, a new string is chosen uniformly at random from $U_{n_k+n_E}$.
- **Game 2** the final output of the *bcdf* algorithm y is replaced with $y \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} U_{n_k+n_E}$.

The *bcdf* algorithm first uses CBC-MAC with key k' to output (k, v) , which is then used in CBC mode to output the requested bits, so we proceed with a hybrid argument, first switching out the intermediate (k, v) for uniformly random strings, followed by the final output produced by *bcdf* which is split and used as the initial state.

The *bcdf* algorithm runs CBC-MAC up to three times to generate enough output to be used as the intermediate k -state and v . A different initialisation vector is

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used, namely $E_{k'}(1), E_{k'}(2), E_{k'}(3)$ on the same input. Since k' is fixed, these IVs are entirely predictable to the adversary but work to separate each instance by keeping them prefix-free. The downside to this is that a uniformly random choice of the intermediate value can result in a collision (albeit with low probability) while the construction will never collide since E is a permutation starting from different values.

Looking at the first output, under the assumption that E is an ideal block cipher and the input to `bcdf` is a source with minimum entropy $2k$ and with $L = 3, k = n_E$, then, by [28, Theorem 1] the statistical distance between $\text{bcc}(k', (1||x))$ and the uniform distribution on $\{0, 1\}^{n_E}$ is

$$\sqrt{2^{n_E - H_\infty(x)} + O(2^{n_E} \cdot (O(3^2/2^{2n_E})))},$$

and since $L = 3 \leq 2^{n_E/4}$ we have

$$\sqrt{2^{n_E - H_\infty(x)} + O(2^{n_E} \cdot (O(3^2/2^{2n_E})))} \leq 3 \cdot 2^{-n_E/2}.$$

Since this is repeated three times, with different IVs the statistical distance between (v, k) and U_n is

$$|\Pr[\mathbf{G}_0(\mathcal{A}) = 1] - \Pr[\mathbf{G}_1(\mathcal{A}) = 1]| \leq 3^2 \cdot 2^{-n_E/2} + \frac{3}{2^{n_E}}. \quad (5.5.1)$$

The second part of the `bcdf` algorithm then uses this intermediate pair (k, v) with the same E in CBC mode with $L = 3$ and $IV = 0$. By [11, Theorem 17], we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\Pr[\mathbf{G}_1(\mathcal{A}) = 1] - \Pr[\mathbf{G}_2(\mathcal{A}) = 1]| &\leq 2\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(t, q) \\ &\quad + q^2 2^{n_E-1} + \left(\frac{(qn_E)^2}{n_E^2} - \frac{qn_E}{n_E} \right) 2^{-n_E}, \end{aligned}$$

and since E is a random permutation, $\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}} = 0$, thus

$$\begin{aligned} |\Pr[\mathbf{G}_1(\mathcal{A}) = 1] - \Pr[\mathbf{G}_2(\mathcal{A}) = 1]| &\leq q^2 2^{n_E-1} \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{(qn_E)^2}{n_E^2} - \frac{qn_E}{n_E} \right) 2^{-n_E}. \end{aligned} \quad (5.5.2)$$

Putting Equations (5.5.1) and (5.5.2) together yields

$$\epsilon_h = 3^2 \cdot 2^{-n_E/2} + \frac{3}{2^{n_E}} + q^2 2^{n_E-1} + \left(\frac{(qn_E)^2}{n_E^2} - \frac{qn_E}{n_E} \right) 2^{-n_E}.$$

□

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The proof of Lemma 5.5.3 follows directly from Lemma 5.5.4, since the split masking function of the `ctr_drbg` in the `initialise` function overwrites the v -state and k -state with uniformly random strings of length n_E and n_k respectively. Since `bcdf` outputs a string of length $n_k + n_E$ indistinguishable from a uniformly random string, which is then XORed with constants, resulting in the output state being distributed identically to the masked state. \square

5.5.2 PRG Security of the next Function of the ctr_drbg

We now turn our attention to the output of the `ctr_drbg.next` algorithm. We utilise the following definition of `ctr_drbg.next` PRG security:

Definition 5.5.5. Let D_i be an algorithm representing the `next` function, $M_1(s'_0)$ be a masked input state, seed `seed`, $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$ be the requested number of bits, and \mathcal{A}_{PRG} be any adversary running in time no more than t playing the game described in Figure 5.15. The game described in Figure 5.15 is derived from the resilience notion (from Definition 4.4.2) restricted to one call to `next`. We say that \mathcal{A}_{PRG} has advantage: has advantage

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{dist}}(D_i(s_0, \ell_{i+1}), D_{i+1}(s_0, \ell_{i+1})) := \left| \Pr \left[\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}^{D_i} = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}^{D_{i+1}} = 1 \right] \right|.$$

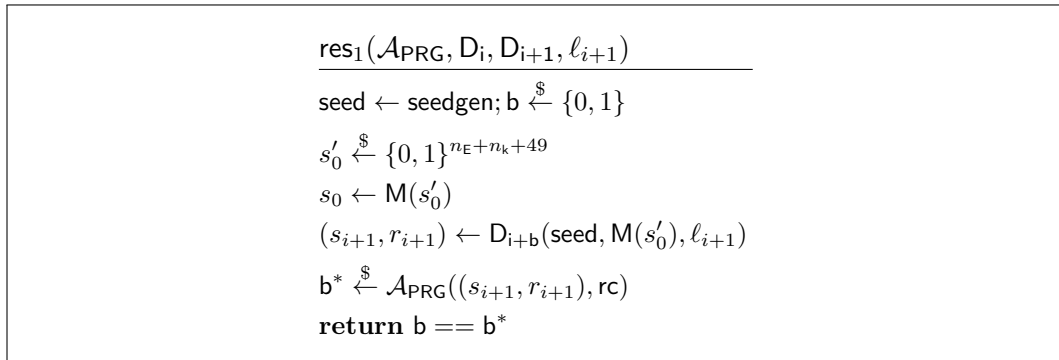


Figure 5.17: The security game for distinguishing between `ctr_drbg.next` and a random generator output and masked state.

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Lemma 5.5.6.

Let s_i be a random variable on the Statespace, then for any q adversary, \mathcal{A}_{PRG} , and $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(\text{next}(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), (\text{M}(s_{i+1}), \text{U}_{\ell_{i+1}})) \leq \epsilon_{\text{PRG}}$$

with

$$\epsilon_{\text{PRG}} \leq 2 \left(\text{Adv}_{\text{E}}^{\text{PRP}} \left(t, \left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\text{E}}} \right\rceil \right) + \left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\text{E}}} \right\rceil^2 2^{-n_{\text{E}}} \right) + 2 \left(\text{Adv}_{\text{E}}^{\text{PRP}}(t, 3) + 3^2 2^{-n_{\text{E}}} \right).$$

Proof. The proof will proceed in two parts. First we will show that an adversary cannot distinguish between the real or masked output state, while always having real output. Following this, given masked output state the adversary cannot distinguish between real and random output.

We define three algorithms in Figure 5.18 that we will use for the hybrid game jumps. We omit parsing the seed for simplicity.

Alg. $D_0(\text{seed}, s_i, \ell_{i+1})$	Alg. $D_1(\text{seed}, s_i, \ell_{i+1})$	Alg. $D_2(\text{seed}, s_i, \ell_{i+1})$
parse s_i as (v_i, k_i, rc)	parse s_i as (v_i, k_i, rc)	parse s_i as (v_i, k_i, rc)
$\text{add} \leftarrow \text{bcdf}(\text{add}, n)$	$\text{add} \leftarrow \text{bcdf}(\text{add}, n)$	$\text{add} \leftarrow \text{bcdf}(\text{add}, n)$
$(k, v) \leftarrow \text{bcup}(\text{add}, k_i, v_i)$	$(k, v) \leftarrow \text{bcup}(\text{add}, k_i, v_i)$	$(k, v) \leftarrow \text{bcup}(\text{add}, k_i, v_i)$
$y \leftarrow \text{null}$	$y \leftarrow \text{null}$	$y \leftarrow \text{null}$
while $\text{Len}(y) < \ell_{i+1}$ do	while $\text{Len}(y) < \ell_{i+1}$ do	while $\text{Len}(y) < \ell_{i+1}$ do
$v \leftarrow v + 1 \bmod 2^{n_{\text{E}}}$	$v \leftarrow v + 1 \bmod 2^{n_{\text{E}}}$	$v \leftarrow v + 1 \bmod 2^{n_{\text{E}}}$
$y \leftarrow y \parallel \text{E}_k(v)$	$y \leftarrow y \parallel \text{E}_k(v)$	$y \leftarrow y \parallel \text{E}_k(v)$
$r_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{L}_{\ell_{i+1}}(y)$	$r_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{L}_{\ell_{i+1}}(y)$	$r_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{L}_{\ell_{i+1}}(y)$
$(k_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) \leftarrow \text{bcup}(\text{add}, k, v)$	$(k_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) \leftarrow \text{bcup}(\text{add}, k, v)$	$r_{i+1} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{i+1}}$
$\text{rc} \leftarrow \text{rc} + 1$	$\text{rc} \leftarrow \text{rc} + 1$	$(k_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) \leftarrow \text{bcup}(\text{add}, k, v)$
return $((v_{i+1}, k_{i+1}, \text{rc}), r_{i+1})$	$s_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{M}(s_{i+1})$	$\text{rc} \leftarrow \text{rc} + 1$
	return $((v_{i+1}, k_{i+1}, \text{rc}), r_{i+1})$	$s_{i+1} \leftarrow \text{M}(s_{i+1})$
		return $((v_{i+1}, k_{i+1}, \text{rc}), r_{i+1})$

Figure 5.18: The algorithms D_0 , D_1 and D_2 used in proving the PRG security of the `ctr.drbg.next` function.

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We then have,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(\text{next}(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), (M(s_{i+1}), U_{\ell_{i+1}})) &= \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_0(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_2(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \\ &\leq \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_0(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \\ &\quad + \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_2(s_i, \ell_{i+1})). \end{aligned}$$

The `ctr_drbg.next` algorithm updates the state using the `bcup` algorithm, which doesn't affect the distribution of the intermediary state when acting on a masked state. This is proved formally in Corollary 5.5.10. This intermediate state is processed in counter mode to produce the generator output which we capture in Lemma 5.5.7. Finally, the updated intermediate state is used in the `bcup` algorithm, which again uses counter mode to produce the updated states with three blocks of output, captured in Corollary 5.5.10.

Lemma 5.5.7.

Let s_i be as described in Definition 5.5.5 and let \mathbf{E} be a secure block cipher. Then for any adversary working in time t , \mathcal{A}_{PRG} , and $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_2(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \leq 2 \left(\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{E}}^{\text{PRP}} \left(t, \left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\mathbf{E}}} \right\rceil \right) + \left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\mathbf{E}}} \right\rceil^2 2^{-n_{\mathbf{E}}} \right).$$

Proof. By the prp/prf switching lemma (given in Lemma 5.5.8) and security of a block cipher in counter mode using a PRF (given in Theorem 5.5.9) [11, Proposition 8 and Theorem 13] we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_2(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) &\leq 2 \text{Adv}_{\mathbf{E}}^{\text{PRF}} \left(t, \left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\mathbf{E}}} \right\rceil \right) \\ &\leq 2 \left(\text{Adv}_{\mathbf{E}}^{\text{PRP}} \left(t, \left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\mathbf{E}}} \right\rceil \right) + \left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_{\mathbf{E}}} \right\rceil^2 2^{-n_{\mathbf{E}}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 5.5.8 (Proposition 8 of [11]).

For any permutation family P with length l ,

$$\text{Adv}_P^{\text{PRF}}(t, q) \leq \text{Adv}_P^{\text{PRP}}(t, q) + q^2 2^{-l-1}.$$

Theorem 5.5.9 (Theorem 13 of [11]).

Suppose F is a PRF family with input length l and output length L . Then for any $t, q, \mu = \min(q'L, L2^l)$,

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{CTR}[F]}^{\text{ror-cpa}}(t, q, \mu) \leq 2 \text{Adv}_F^{\text{PRF}}(t, q').$$

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□

The jump between D_0 and D_1 is a simpler case of Lemma 5.5.7 where the number of blocks is 3, relating to $n = 3n_E$. Formally:

Corollary 5.5.10.

Let s_i be as described in Definition 5.5.5, let E be a secure block cipher, then for any adversary working in time t , \mathcal{A}_{PRG} , and $\ell_{i+1} \leq \ell_{\max}$,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{PRG}}}^{\text{res}_1}(D_0(s_i, \ell_{i+1}), D_1(s_i, \ell_{i+1})) \leq 2 \left(\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(t, 3) + 3^2 2^{-n_E} \right).$$

Proof. This follows directly from Lemma 5.5.7. □

Putting together Lemma 5.5.7 and corollary 5.5.10 concludes the proof. □

5.5.3 Variable-Output Robustness of the ctr.drbg

Theorem 5.5.11.

Let E be an ideal cipher, let the *ctr.drbg* be as described above, with legitimate distribution sampler \mathcal{D} . Then the *hash.drbg* is $(t', \ell_{\max}, \ell_{\text{total}}, \mathfrak{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathfrak{q}_{\mathcal{S}}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_{\text{rob}})$ -variable output robust witnessed by the $(\mathcal{D}, t, \epsilon_h)$ -honest idempotent split masking function M where

$$\epsilon_{\text{rob}} \leq \epsilon_h + \max_{\substack{(\ell_1, \dots, \ell_q): \\ \sum_{i=1}^q \ell_i \leq \ell_{\text{total}}}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^q (\epsilon_p + \epsilon_r) \right),$$

for ϵ_p and ϵ_r given in the following lemmas.

Proof. The proof proceeds as normal by proving the *ctr.drbg* satisfies both variable-output preserving and variable output-recovering security.

5.5 Security of the ctr_drbg

Lemma 5.5.12.

Let E be an ideal cipher, let the `ctr_drbg` be as described above. Then the `ctr_drbg` has $(t, \ell_{\max}, \epsilon_p)$ -variable output preserving security, witnessed by the masking function M defined in Definition 5.5.1 and for:

$$\epsilon_p \leq 2^{1-n_E} \left(\left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_E} \right\rceil^2 + 3^2(d+1) \right).$$

Proof. The proof proceeds by using a hybrid argument. First we show that we can replace the intermediate state s_d after the adversarial refresh queries with a masked state, followed by using the earlier result of Lemma 5.5.6 to show that the final challenge is indistinguishable from random output and a masked state.

Since the adversary has knowledge of the additional input `add`, the output s of `bcdf(I||add, n)` is predictable for each adversarial refresh I . The `ctr_drbg.refresh` algorithm then utilises this value in the `bcup` algorithm, which XORs the input s with the updated state. By Corollary 5.5.10 we know that for random state s_i and predictable input x , the `bcup` algorithm returns a state indistinguishable from random. Since the adversary is allowed to make d adversarial refresh calls this becomes

$$d \left(\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(t, 3) + 3^2 2^{-n_E} \right) = 3^2 d 2^{1-n_E}.$$

Putting this together with Lemma 5.5.6 yields

$$\epsilon_p = 3^2 d 2^{1-n_E} + 2^{1-n_E} \left(\left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_E} \right\rceil^2 + 3^2 \right) = 2^{1-n_E} \left(\left\lceil \frac{\ell_{i+1}}{n_E} \right\rceil^2 + 3^2(d+1) \right).$$

□

Lemma 5.5.13.

Let E be an ideal cipher, let the `ctr_drbg` be as described in Definition 5.3.1, with legitimate distribution sampler \mathcal{D} . Then the `hash_drbg` has $(t, \mathbf{q}_{\mathcal{D}}, \ell_{\max}, \gamma^*, \epsilon_r)$ -variable output recovering security, witnessed by the masking function M defined in Definition 5.5.1 and for:

$$\epsilon_r := \epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'} + \epsilon_{\text{PRG}}.$$

Proof. The proof proceeds by using a hybrid argument. First we show that we can replace the intermediate state after the refresh queries with a masked state,

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followed by using the earlier result of Lemma 5.5.6 to show that the final challenge is indistinguishable from random output and a masked state.

If we modify the refresh algorithm to take as input the entire string of refresh values as an on-line extractor, call it $\text{refresh}'(\text{seed}, s_i, I')$ for $I' := I_1, \dots, I_d$, we can prove that this new algorithm is a universal hash function and employ the leftover hash lemma. Recall that m in the context of bcc is $m := \text{Len}(x)/n_E \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$, $m > 1$ since the first block is always the IV, while the second contains two fields dictating the size of the input/output, followed by the input which may span several blocks.

Lemma 5.5.14.

The algorithm refresh' as described above is a ρ -universal hash function, assuming that E is an ideal cipher and for:

$$\rho := \sum_{i=2}^d (\Pr[\text{coll} | \mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i]) + \epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}} = \frac{1}{2^{3n_E}} (\rho').$$

Proof. Let $I'_0 \neq I'_1$, with $I'_j := (I_{j;1} \dots, I_{j;d})$. We split into several cases. Let $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i$ be the event corresponding to where I'_0 and I'_1 only differ in the first i blocks, with the edge cases being $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_d$. The former, $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_1$ is where $\text{refresh0}'$ and $\text{refresh1}'$ differ in the first block alone, while the latter, $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_d$ refers to differences in all d blocks.

In $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_1$, the probability of a collision is precisely the probability that either there is a collision in the output of bcdf, with the probability taken over the choice of add. To begin, we focus on the bcc algorithm, noting that if $m = 2$ then a collision is impossible since k is constant and by assumption $I_{0;1} \neq I_{1;1}$. We will assume $m > 2$. Building upon this, the probability of a collision is therefore

$$\left(\frac{m-2}{2^{n_E}} \right) \left(\text{Adv}_{E_{k'}}^{\text{PRP}}(t, m) + \frac{m^2}{2^{n_E-1}} \right),$$

making use of the PRP/PRF switching lemma. Since this is repeated at most three times with a different IV/first block, this becomes

$$\epsilon_{\text{coll}0}^{\text{bcc}} := \left(\frac{m-2}{2^{n_E}} \right)^3 \left(\text{Adv}_{E_{k'}}^{\text{PRP}}(t, m) + \frac{m^2}{2^{n_E-1}} \right)^3. \quad (5.5.3)$$

If this collision occurs, then the remaining parts of bcdf will also collide, resulting in a collision. However, if this does not collide, there is still the possibility that the

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final three blocks output from CBC mode will collide, which occurs with probability:

$$\epsilon_{\text{coll}1}^{\text{bcc}} := \left(\frac{1}{2^{3n_E}} \right) \left(\text{Adv}_{E_k}^{\text{PRP}}(t, 3) + \frac{3^2}{2^{n_E-1}} \right)^3, \quad (5.5.4)$$

and putting together with Equation (5.5.3) yields the collision probability of `bcdf` with distinct inputs to be

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}} &:= \epsilon_{\text{coll}0}^{\text{bcc}} + \epsilon_{\text{coll}1}^{\text{bcc}} = \left(\frac{m-2}{2^{n_E}} \right)^3 \left(\text{Adv}_{E_{k'}}^{\text{PRP}}(t, m) + \frac{m^2}{2^{n_E-1}} \right)^3 \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{1}{2^{3n_E}} \right) \left(\text{Adv}_{E_k}^{\text{PRP}}(t, 3) + \frac{3^2}{2^{n_E-1}} \right)^3 \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{3n_E}} ((m-2)^3) \left(\text{Adv}_{E_{k'}}^{\text{PRP}}(t, m) + \frac{m^2}{2^{n_E-1}} \right)^3. \end{aligned} \quad (5.5.5)$$

We note that in general m will be reasonably small, but note that Table 5.5 states the maximum input size of a single block of input is 2^{35} . In the case of \mathbf{Ev}_1 , if there is not a collision in the output of `bcdf`, there cannot be an output collision since the current value of the state is identical, meaning the output of `bcup` will be distinct, since E_{k_0} is a permutation called on the same input and key.

Now that we have dealt with the case \mathbf{Ev}_1 we can look to the general case of \mathbf{Ev}_i . The general case can be split as follows:

1. Similarly to \mathbf{Ev}_1 , the output of `bcdf` may collide in the first refresh call, followed by a collision in the output of `bcdf` for all remaining $i-1$ distinct inputs.
2. On input block k , which has distinct k_k, v_k and input block $I_{j;k}$ there is a collision in the output of `bcup`, followed by a collision in the output of `bcdf` for all remaining $i-k$ distinct inputs.

The first case is relatively simple, since it requires a collision in `bcdf` for i distinct input pairs, which is $(\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^i$ for $\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}}$ given in Equation (5.5.5).

The second case requires us to calculate the probability that the output of `bcup` collides with distinct input values. Since we have assumed that E_k is an ideal cipher, this is precisely the probability that (after XORing two distinct values s) there are three collisions which will be exactly $1/2^{n_E}$. For a collision in the final output of

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refresh' we now require a collision in the remaining $i - k$ outputs from bcdf, which together yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\text{coll}|\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i] &= \sum_{k=2}^{i-1} \left(\frac{(\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^{i-k}}{2^{3n_E}} \right) + (\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^i \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{3n_E}} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{i-2} (\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^k \right) + (\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^i. \end{aligned} \quad (5.5.6)$$

By taking the geometric progression sum this becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{2^{3n_E}} \left(\frac{(\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^{i-1} - \epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}}}{\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}} - 1} \right) + (\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^i \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{3n_E}} \left(\frac{2^{3n_E}(\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}} - 1)(\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^i + (\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}})^{i-1} - \epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}}}{\epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}} - 1} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (5.5.7)$$

for $k \geq 2$. Therefore, the total collision probability will be

$$\rho := \sum_{i=2}^d (\Pr[\text{coll}|\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_i]) + \epsilon_{\text{coll}}^{\text{bcdf}} = \frac{1}{2^{3n_E}} (\rho'),$$

and thus refresh' is a $\rho = 2^{-n}(1 + (\rho' - 1))$ -universal hash function. \square

Corollary 5.5.15.

The algorithm refresh' as described above is a $(k, \epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'})$ -extractor for $\epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'}$ given in Lemma 5.5.14 under the assumption that \mathbf{E} is an ideal cipher.

Proof. By the leftover hash lemma we have that since refresh' is a $2^{-n}(1 + (\rho' - 1))$ -universal hash function, it is also a $(k, \epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'})$ -extractor for $\epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'} \leq \sqrt{2^{n-k} + \rho' - 1}$. Inputting $k \geq \gamma^*$ yields our result. \square

Putting this together with Lemma 5.5.6 yields

$$\epsilon_r \leq \epsilon_{\text{ext}}^{\text{refresh}'} + \epsilon_{\text{PRG}}.$$

\square

\square

5.6 Conclusions

We have presented the two NIST VOPWIs in the format of our updated security model from Chapter 4 and have analysed their security under some ideal assumptions and concluded that they meet the notion of variable-output robustness. This essentially means that for a reasonable family of adversarial entropy sources, assuming the underlying primitives are ideal, the NIST generators do support a very reasonable level of security.

However, to highlight one of the largest chasms between theory and practice in this area, we require some very strong assumptions on the randomness of the `seed` of the generator that goes against the NIST framework and in general is not implemented in practice. In practice these values will contain little entropy, or possibly not be included, which is a problem in a theoretical setting where the adversarial entropy source is able to find distributions that are predictable to an adversary. In practice, however, the family of entropy sources that NIST recommends, and in fact requires to be used with the generators, is far more restricted and in effect may negate this problem entirely, especially since in the designs there are additional health checking mechanisms that are not included in the theoretical security modelling.

This is an unfortunate gap that is very difficult to address due in part to the difficulty in accurately measuring entropy, however the theoretical security that we have proved is still valid, if overly restrictive. Our result has allowed us to provide a meaningful result for the NIST generators, which, at the time of writing had received no formal analysis, possibly due to their “incompatibility” with the current models.

Conclusion

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Here we give an overview of the findings of the thesis, including discussion of several areas, and possible future directions in the field.

6.1 Overview

In this thesis we have considered and analysed several PWI constructions. In Chapter 3 of the thesis we commented on the current sponge-based PWIs in the literature, and identified where we thought improvements could be made, specifically the number of calls to the underlying permutation needed in the `next` algorithm. We then presented a more efficient forward security mechanism to use in the `next` algorithm, presented in the format of the security model of [29]. We then proved that this new sponge-like PWI, named `Reverie`, satisfied the relevant security notions despite departing slightly from the sponge construction. We did this by utilising the H-coefficient technique. Specifically, by formalising an adversary’s queries into good and bad transcripts, we were able to arrive at a bound for security. By incorporating this updated `next` algorithm, we significantly reduced the number of calls to the underlying permutation needed from $t + 1$ calls to 1 call, making our PWI more suitable for constrained environments where minimising the calls to the underlying primitive is essential. We still had to rely on the assumption that the `seed` of the generator was generated uniformly at random to avoid non-negligible adversarial

6.1 Overview

advantage from the adversarial entropy source.

We then focused primarily on the security model of Dodis et. al. [29] in Chapter 4, and extended the model in several ways, primarily to allow for an adversary to request varying amounts of output from the PWI and basing security on the *amount* of output as opposed to the number of queries. We defined PWIs that satisfied this behaviour as variable-output PWIs (VOPWIs) and updated the notion of robustness from [29] accordingly, including an update to the simpler notions of preserving and recovering security. We then proved an analogy of the composition theorem, proving that if a VOPWI satisfied the notions of variable-output preserving and variable-output recovering security, then the VOPWI satisfies the notion of variable-output robustness.

Although we identified a large gap between theory and practice regarding the uniformity of the `seed` of the generator, we were not able to find a way to overcome this problem. This is in part due to the difficulty in measuring entropy accurately and efficiently. We did make modifications to the generation of the `seed` and initial state to reflect on real world PWI specifications, making steps towards the idea that the initial state in practice draws entropy from the same entropy source that the PWI later relies on for fresh entropy.

We then applied our updated security model to two of the NIST PWIs, namely the `hash_drbg` and `ctr_drbg` in Chapter 5. The updated security model allows us to accurately model the generators and their subroutines that allow for differing amounts of output per next call. We prove that under some fairly strong assumptions, including uniform seeds, which is not the case in practice, both generators satisfy the notion of variable-output robustness. We prove this by proving that each generator satisfies the updated notions of variable-output preserving security and variable-output recovering security. Unfortunately the bounds are fairly complex, which often is the case when analysing real world generators.

6.2 Future Work

There were several other extensions we would have liked to have made to our security model. One instance would be to investigate restricting the number of next requests or output from a PWI since the last entropy input. This in effect would limit and perhaps simplify the possible requests an adversary acting in our variable-output security model could make, but would reflect specifications in real world generators, including the NIST generators, which do restrict the number of calls and output per recent entropy injection. We would like to investigate combining our extensions with the later security model extension of [30]. Since that model allows for a modular approach to constructing a robust PWI secure against premature get-next queries, it may be possible with small adjustments to extend to this setting.

We would also like to investigate the notion of a variable seed; the NIST generators allow for additional information from requesting applications to be supplied to the generator when output is requested. This would possibly be a step closer to less reliance on the common assumption of having a uniform seed generated during initialisation. This variable seed could perhaps be a separate entropy source, which could similarly be modelled as adversarial but, again, restricted in terms of communication with the other adversaries.

Another interesting extension would be to model two or more entropy sources in the same adversary model as [29], in the hopes that due to their inability to communicate and collude may negate the need for a seed.

We believe there are interesting options for extending the sponge-based design, possibly beyond the notion of a parazon using, for example, the “sum” of two permutations or even the same permutation with domain separation, as suggested by Bellare, Krovetz and Rogaway in [12]:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{XoP}^{\pi_1, \pi_2}(x) &:= \pi_1(x) \oplus \pi_2(x), \\ \text{XoP}'^{\pi}(x) &:= \pi(0||x) \oplus \pi(1||x).\end{aligned}$$

Patarin showed that the single permutation with domain separation achieved similar security as XoP [48]. More recently, the encrypted Davies-Meyer (EDM) construction has been considered [24, 43]. Possibly this construction could be utilised.

6.2 Future Work

It is possible that our proofs could be improved in several ways, especially given the complexity of the bounds. The proofs of `Reverie` are not made using the notion of masking functions, which would be a reasonable improvement. It may also be possible to utilise Patarin’s mirror theory in conjunction with his H-coefficient technique, similar to [49]. We also argue that since the `refresh` algorithm in the constructions acts as a universal hash function over several entropy inputs, it would be nicer to prove or construct a `refresh` algorithm that is a multiple-sampler extractor, as defined in [5].

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