Random Bit Generation Theory and Practice

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1 Introduction

- 2 Non-Deterministic Random Bit Generation
- 3 Deterministic Random Bit Generation
- 4 Conclusion



Section 1

Introduction



- We have seen many, many uses for random numbers in cryptography.
- This is for reasons coming from game theory.
 - By Kerckhoffs' principle, we assume that adversaries know the design, thus know how secret values are selected.
 - Game theory tells us that in these circumstances, the random selection of parameters yields the least advantage for the attacker.
- Within computers, we represent any number as a sequence of bits, so I'll generally use the term *random bit generator*.

- Random is not a characteristic of a number.
- Processes are random, and we refer to the numbers produced by such processes as random numbers.
- Such numbers can be modeled as random variables selected from some probability distribution.

The term random bit generator is used in a few distinct ways:

- 1. Truly random: Derived from some underlying physical phenomena which is unpredictable absent direct measurement.
- 2. Cryptographically random: Computationally difficult for an attacker to guess future outputs given past outputs.
- 3. Statistically random: Models some particular statistical distribution well.

Definition

A cryptographic random bit generator, with security bound L bits, produces sequences of random bits (R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_n) such that

- 1. The generator is unbiased: $Pr(R_j = 0) = \frac{1}{2}$.
- 2. The bits are uncorrelated: $Pr(R_j = 0 | R_1, R_2, ..., R_{j-1}) = \frac{1}{2}$.
- 3. Negligible advantage: An attacker can't distinguish between a true uniform random bit generator and the cryptographic random bit generator without performing at least 2^L operations.

This third goal is equivalent to the goal "Computationally difficult for an attacker to guess future outputs given past outputs.". There are a few approaches to this:

- Use a non-deterministic random bit generator (NDRBG, a.k.a., a True Random Number Generator).
 - Most physical sources aren't well modeled by uniform distributions.
 - Most physical sources are fragile and can fail, often subtly.
 - Most physical sources produce random bits very slowly.
 - Many physical sources can be affected by a suitably powerful attacker.
- Use a deterministic random bit generator (DRBG, a.k.a. pseudo-random number generator, or PRNG). Good designs:
 - Have excellent statistical properties.
 - Are easy to test.
 - Can produce vast amounts of output quickly.
 - Are difficult for an attacker to influence.
 - Can accumulate entropy (uncertainty).

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 - Can accumulate entropy (uncertainty).
 - Require input that cannot be predicted by an attacker. :-(

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You got your NDRBG in my DRBG!

Reasonable designs must involve both a DRBG and a NDRBG.

- The NDRBG could be integrated into the design.
- The NDRBG could be used during manufacturing.
- The NDRBG is the ultimate source of uncertainty (and thus security).
- The DRBG:
 - Conditions the output and gives it excellent statistical properties.
 - Remains secure any time after being seeded by reasonable NDRBG input, even if the NDRBG fails later.
 - Can produce a very large amount of input given a very modest amount of reasonable input from the NDRBG.

Section 2

Non-Deterministic Random Bit Generation



1 Introduction

2 Non-Deterministic Random Bit Generation

- Information Theory
- Entropy Source
- Test, Test, Test
- NDRBG Conclusion

3 Deterministic Random Bit Generation

4 Conclusion



Information Theory



How Many Bits Would a Bit Compressor Compress if...

- The traditional measure of *uncertainty* from Information Theory is called entropy.
- Much like randomness, messages do not have entropy. Message sources have entropy.
- There are several related notions of entropy.
- Shannon entropy is the most widely adopted notion of entropy.
- It tells you the minimal average message length for a source.

Definition

Shannon Entropy

$$H(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \lg(p_i)$$



- Shannon entropy is not really what we want.
- We want a worst case, not the average case.
- We get it from a generalization of Shannon Entropy called Rényi entropy.

Definition

Rényi Entropy

$$H_{\alpha}(X) = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \lg \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}^{\alpha} \right)$$

• Letting $\alpha \rightarrow 1$ gives us Shannon Entropy.

- Take the limit as $\alpha \to \infty$ yields the worst-case: *Min-entropy*.
- In some sense, min-entropy is a lower bound for any other notion of entropy.

Definition

Min-Entropy

$$H_{\infty}(X) = -\lg(\max_{i} p_{i})$$



Entropy Source



When The Diode Breaks: Sources of Entropy

Well understood sources

- Ring oscillators
- Noisy diodes
- Radioactive decay
- (Other) Quantum effects
- Somewhat understood sources
 - Fluid turbulence (or other other chaotic systems)
 - Audio noise
 - Radio noise
 - CCD noise
- Poorly understood sources
 - Process scheduling patterns
 - Network packet arrival timing
 - Booting randomness
 - Keyboard / mouse movement

A Good Source

- is very simple and easy to analyze.
- has a readily identifiable and quantifiable source for uncertainty.
- is difficult for an attacker to monitor.
- can be well modeled by some well understood statistical distribution so that min-entropy can be estimated.
- can be easily tested for deviation from this expected distribution.
- is stable across the the expected operational range of the system.
- In summary, a good source is both secure and has assurance of security.

Wait, Am I in the Right Room?

Let's examine an ring oscillator:



Source: Inductiveload via: Wikipedia

- Each gate has a finite switching time.
- Variation in switching time is called *jitter*.
- This jitter is induced by thermal noise, which is thought to be a random process (quantum effects dominate).
- The jitter for one gate is roughly normally distributed.
- Chaining together multiple gates sums the jitter for each gate.
- The sum of independent identically distributed normal distributions is normal (with the same mean, and larger standard deviation).
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- Initialize the system by opening the loop and allowing to stabilize.
- Induce a pulse whose length is (much) less than the oscillator period.
- Close the loop.
- Time period between rising edge of the pulses.
- Subtract the average oscillator period: this is the jitter.

The probability distribution function (PDF) for one implementation's jitter looks like this:



- Divide the PDF into roughly eighths.
- $p_{\text{max}} = 0.130205$ so $H_{\infty}(X) \approx 2.94$. Great!



The probability distribution function (PDF) for one implementation's jitter looks like this:



- Divide the PDF into roughly eighths.
- ▶ $p_{\text{max}} = 0.130205$ so $H_{\infty}(X) \approx 2.94$. Great!





▶ $p_{\text{max}} = 0.283855$ is now so $H_{\infty}(X) \approx 1.82$.

We now have only 61% of our prior entropy. :-(



- The assumption about the parameters of the distribution is fragile.
- To make our analysis more conservative, analyze the timing difference between consecutive pulses.
 - If the first is longer, output a 1. If the second is longer, output a 0. If equal, no output.
 - Difference of two i.i.d. normal distributions is a normal distribution.
 - Mean and standard deviation should be stable, so $p_{\max} \approx .5$, so $H_{\infty}(X) \approx 1$ bit.
- The *local* conditions between two consecutive pulses should be very stable.
- Ideally, provide the full timing values as the seed.
- Account only for one bit of min-entropy per pair.

Test, Test, Test



Design Testing

- After implementation, test your implementation against your assumptions.
- Many tool chains silently remove uncertainty.
- We can produce a set of likely upper entropy bounds given a great deal of seed data.
- Raw timing values allow for extensive design tests.
- If we expect full entropy, testing is "easy"!
 - Diehard / Dieharder
 - sts
 - Statistical tests require some expertise to run and interpret.
- If we expect our data to have less than full entropy, we can only run a subset of these tests, and interpretation must be done very carefully.
- We can estimate (Shannon) entropy with compression tests.
- Testing seed data to assess entropy must be conducted prior to any cryptographic processing.
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- Some statistical testing should continue while in use. Examples:
 Continuous output testing for a stuck-value.
 Periodic χ² test.
- Tune the probability of false failure to an acceptable level (set β low enough so that the lifetime probability of false test failure is low).
- Technically, this reduces entropy, though if β is low enough, this is negligible.

NDRBG Conclusion



Only uses sources that you really understand.

- What physical process is responsible for entropy?
- What probability distribution models this process well?
- How does this process change with conditions?
- Try to be very conservative with entropy analysis.
 - This results in high assurance lower bound estimates.
 - Never throw away possible entropy, just account and combine conservatively.
- Test!
 - Verify that your analysis is supported by reality.
 - Verify that the running NDRBG hasn't failed.



Section 3

Deterministic Random Bit Generation



1 Introduction

2 Non-Deterministic Random Bit Generation

3 Deterministic Random Bit Generation

- DRBG Introduction
- OFB Based DRBG
- ANSI X9.31-1998 A.2.4 DRBG
- CTR-DRBG

4 Conclusion



DRBG Introduction



Any one who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin. For, as has been pointed out several times, there is no such thing as a random number – there are only methods to produce random numbers, and a strict arithmetic procedure of course is not such a method.

John von Neumann

General Idea

- Conceptually, a DRBG involves a few processes
 - A function that seeds the DRBG.
 - A function that processes the internal state between outputs.
 - A function that outputs random bits ("Generate").
- Seeding requires entropy input. The other functions can optionally accept entropy input.
- Internal state collision leads to cycles (there may be a birthday paradox problem, depending on the design).
- We make use of some cryptographic primitive within each of these functions.
- Any entropy input must be in large blocks (min-entropy at least as large as the security bound).
- Seed input may allow the attacker to manipulate the internal state.

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OFB Based DRBG



DES in OFB mode.



Source: NIST SP800-38A



- ► Seed by selecting the key, *K*, and the one block *IV*.
- Keep K secret, use the output of the DES function as the DRBG output.
- This (mostly) has excellent statistical properties.
- Problem: We expose our internal state (as the DRBG output).
- Problem: only V is updated. K is fixed.
- Once we randomly return to a previously used internal state, we enter a cycle.
- This happens quite quickly! For a block size of 64 bits:
 - Only 2³² blocks until we expect it to occur.
 - 2²¹ blocks until the probability is more than 2⁻²⁰ that this has occurred.



ANSI X9.31-1998 A.2.4 DRBG



A Somewhat Better Idea



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- Seed by selecting a key, *K, and a one block V.
- ► The updating *DT* field helps prevent cycles.
- We don't directly expose the internal state.
- ▶ We never update **K* (until we rekey).
- We can't gracefully provide additional entropy.
- The internal state size is still quite small, and can't be expanded.
- Seeds can only be as large as the internal state, so must be full entropy to obtain a reasonable security level.

CTR-DRBG



Stages 2 and 3 of NIST's CTR-DRBG Generate:

(Stage 1 is not directly relevant to this discussion.)



Source: NIST SP800-90A



A Very Good Design: Update



Source: NIST SP800-90A



A Very Good Design: Notes

- This design allows for effectively arbitrary length seed input.
- Seeding input produces V and Key.
- V is one cipher block long
- Key and V are updated during the Instantiate, Reseed, Generate operations.
- Key and V are segregated for the generation loop (reducing the likelihood of a cycle).
- Update mixes Key and V (updating all the state between Generates).
- Uses block cipher in a Counter-like mode to produce output bits and mix Key and V.
- Very unlikely to enter a cycle (with probability less than 2⁻⁴⁰ when used as directed).

Section 4

Conclusion



- For reasonable security, it is necessary to use both a DBRG and a NDRBG.
- For the NDRBG
 - Only use sources that you *really* understand.
 - Try to be very conservative with entropy analysis.
 - Test!
- For the DRBG, use a well understood and evaluated design. The design should:
 - be based on a well understood cryptographic primitive.
 - allow for large seed input.
 - allow for periodic reseeding.
 - not keep any state data fixed.
 - never discard data that might contain entropy.
 - not be susceptible to cycles.