## Notes for Lecture 12 v0.91

These notes are in a draft version. Please give me any comments you may have, because this will help me revise them.

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## 1 Pseudorandom Generators

Definition 1 (Indistinguishability - finite definition) Two random variables $X$ and $Y$ taking value over $\{0,1\}^{n}$ are (S, $\epsilon$ )-indistinguishable if for every circuit $C$ of size at most $S$ we have

$$
|\operatorname{Pr}[C(X)=1]-\operatorname{Pr}[C(Y)=1]| \leq \epsilon .
$$

We say that a random variable $X$ is $(S, \epsilon)$-pseudorandom if it is $(S, \epsilon)$-indistinguishable from the uniform distribution.

Definition 2 (Pseudorandom Generator) A function $G:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ is a pseudorandom generator of stretch $\ell(n)$, where $\ell: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ and $\ell(n) \geq n+1$, if

- $G$ is computable in polynomial time, in the length of the input;
- $G$ maps inputs of length $n$ into outputs of length $\ell(n)$;
- For every two polynomials $p()$ and $q()$ and for every sufficiently large $n$, the random variable $G\left(U_{n}\right)$ is $(p(n), 1 / q(n))$-pseudorandom, where $U_{n}$ denotes a random variable uniformly distributed in $\{0,1\}^{n}$.

Remark 1 The definition of pseudorandom generators is typically given in the following equivalent form. First, say that a function $\nu: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is negligible if for every polynomial $p$ and for every sufficiently large $n$ we have $\nu(n) \leq 1 / p(n)$. Then $G$ is said to be a pseudorandom generator if it satisfies to the first two properties of the above definition and if, in addition, for every family of polynomial size circuits $\left\{C_{n}\right\}$ there is a negligible function $\nu()$ such that

$$
\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{\ell(n)}\left(U_{\ell(n)}\right)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{\ell(n)}\left(G\left(U_{n}\right)\right)=1\right]\right| \leq \nu(n) .
$$

One can easily verify that this definition implies Definition 2 (note that $\ell(n)$ must be upper bounded by a polynomial). For the other direction, let $G$ be a pseudorandom generator according to Definition 2 and fix a family of polynomial circuits. Define

$$
\nu(n):=\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{\ell(n)}\left(U_{\ell(n)}\right)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{\ell(n)}\left(G\left(U_{n}\right)\right)=1\right]\right|
$$

and note that for every polynomial $q()$ it must be that $\nu(n) \leq 1 / q(\ell(n))$ for every sufficiently large $n$, and so it follows that $\nu()$ must be negligible.

## 2 One-way Functions and Hard-Core Bits

Definition 3 (One-Way Function - finite definition) A function $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$ is $(S, \epsilon)$-one-way if for every circuit $A$ of size a most $S$,

$$
\mathbf{P r}_{x \in\{0,1\}^{n}}[f(A(f(x)))=f(x)] \leq \epsilon .
$$

For the next definition, we adopt the following convention: if $f:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ is a function, then we denote by $f_{n}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ the restriction of $f$ to inputs of length $n$.

Definition 4 (One-Way Function - asymptotic definition) A family $f:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow$ $\{0,1\}^{*}$ is a one-way function if:

- $f$ is computable in polynomial time (in the length of the input) and
- for every two polynomials $p()$ and $q()$ and for every sufficiently large $n, f_{n}$ is $(p(n), 1 / q(n))$ -one-way.

In words, a one-way function is easy to compute but intractable to invert.
Theorem 1 If pseudorandom generators exist, then one-way functions exist.
Proof: See Exercises.
The converse is also true, but it has an extremely difficulty proof.
Theorem 2 ([HILL99]) If one-way functions exist, then pseudorandom generators exist.
In these notes we will prove the simpler, but still remarkable, result that if one-way permutations exist then pseudorandom generators exist. A one-way permutation is a oneway function $f$ such that, for every $n, f_{n}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$ is a bijection. In general, we call a function $f:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ a permutation if, for every $n, f_{n}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$ is a bijection.

We begin by introducing the notion of a hard-core predicate of a one-way permutation.
Definition 5 (Hard-Core Predicate - finite definition) A function $B:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow$ $\{0,1\}$ is a $(S, \epsilon)$ hard-core predicate for a permutation $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$ if for every circuit $A$ of size at most $S$ we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{x \sim\{0,1\}^{n}}[A(f(x))=B(x)] \leq \frac{1}{2}+\epsilon
$$

Definition 6 (Hard-Core Predicate - asymptotic definition) A function $B:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow$ $\{0,1\}$ is a hard-core predicate for a permutation $f:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{*}$ if

- $B$ is computable in polynomial time;
- For every two polynomials $p$ and $q$, and for every sufficiently large $n, B_{n}$ is $(p(n), 1 / q(n))$ hard-core for $f_{n}$.

In words, $B(x)$ is an efficiently computable property of $x$. Given $f(x)$, however, it is intractable to even guess with probability much better than $1 / 2$ whether $B(x)$ is zero or one.

For standard conjectured one-way permutations, such as RSA and exponentiation, very simple functions, such as the value of the last bit of the input, are hard-core predicates. The following result shows that every one-way permutation can be modified to have a hard-core predicate.

Theorem 3 (Goldreich-Levin [GL89]) Let $f$ be a one-way permutation and define $f^{\prime}$ such that $f_{2 n}^{\prime}(x, r)=f_{n}(x), r$. Define $B_{2 n}(x, r)=x \cdot r$, where $x \cdot r=\sum_{i} x_{i} r_{i}(\bmod 2)$. Then $f^{\prime}$ is a one-way permutation and $B$ is a hard-core predicate for $f^{\prime} .{ }^{1}$

In words, the theorem says that if $f$ is a one-way permutation, and we pick at random $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ and a subset $S \subseteq\{1, \ldots, n\}$, and we give to an adversary the value $f(x)$ and set $S$, it is intractable for the adversary to compute $\bigoplus_{i \in S} x_{i}$, or even to guess such value with probability much better than $1 / 2$. We defer the proof of the Goldreich-Levin Theorem to a later section.

## 3 One-way Permutations Imply Pseudorandom Generators

The main result of this section is the following.
Theorem 4 (Blum-Micali-Yao [BM84, Yao82]) Suppose that one-way permutations exist, and let $\ell(n)$ be a polynomial. Then there are pseudorandom generators of stretch $\ell(n)$.

We will prove the Theorem in the finite setting, which gives important information about the security of concrete pseudorandom generators based on concrete finite permutations. We begin with the case of stretch $n+1$.

Lemma 5 Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$ be a permutation and $B:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a $(S, \epsilon)$ hard-core predicate for $f$. Define

$$
G(x):=f(x), B(x)
$$

Then $G\left(U_{n}\right)$ is $(S-O(1), \epsilon)$-pseudorandom.
Proof: We prove that if $A$ is a circuit of size $S$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\mathbf{P r}_{x \sim\{0,1\}^{n}, r \sim\{0,1\}}[A(f(x), r)=1]-\operatorname{Pr}_{x \sim\{0,1\}^{n}}[A(f(x), B(x))=1]\right| \geq \epsilon \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

then we can construct a circuit $C$ of size $S+O(1)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[C(f(x))=B(x)] \geq \frac{1}{2}+\epsilon
$$

[^0]and this clearly implies that the Lemma is true.
We start by noting that Equation (1) can be rewritten as
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}_{x \sim\{0,1\}^{n}, r \sim\{0,1\}}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), r)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}_{x \sim\{0,1\}^{n}}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1\right] \geq \epsilon \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

where $A^{\prime}$ is either $A$ or the complement of $A$.
Equation (2) means that $A^{\prime}(f(x), b)$ is more likely to output 1 if $b=B(x)$ than if $b=\neg B(x)$. This suggests the following algorithm.

```
Input: y
// the algorithm receives in input y=f(x) and tries to guess B(x)=B(f(-1)}(y)
begin
    pick random }b\in{0,1
    if }\mp@subsup{A}{}{\prime}(f(x),b)=1\mathrm{ then return }
    else return }\neg
end
```

We will prove that, over the choices of $x$ and $b$, the algorithm, on input $f(x)$ correctly computes $B(x)$ with probability $1 / 2+\epsilon$. Let us denote by $C_{b}(y)$ the output of the algorithm given the input $y$ and the random choice $b$. That is, $C_{b}(y)=(\neg b) \oplus A^{\prime}(y, b)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{b}(f(x))=B(x)\right]= & \operatorname{Pr}[b=B(x)] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{b}(f(x))=B(x) \mid b=B(x)\right] \\
& +\operatorname{Pr}[b \neq B(x)] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{b}(f(x))=B(x) \mid b \neq B(x)\right] \\
= & \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1\right]+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), \neg B(x))=0\right] \\
= & \frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1\right]-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), \neg B(x))=1\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us now study the last expression. We can think of the probability of the event that $A^{\prime}(f(x), r)=1$ as the average of the probabilities that $A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1$ and $A^{\prime}(f(x), \neg B(x))=1$. Equation (2) tells us that there is a difference of $\epsilon$ between the probability of the event $A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1$ and the event $A^{\prime}(f(x), r)=1$. Then, it must follow that there is a difference of $2 \epsilon$ between the probability of $A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1$ and of $A^{\prime}(f(x), \neg B(x))=1$, so that the last expression in the above derivation is at least $1 / 2+\epsilon$. More formally:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1\right]-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), \neg B(x))=1\right] \\
= & \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1\right]-\left(\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1\right]+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), \neg B(x))=1\right]\right) \\
= & \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), r)=1\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Combining everything together, we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{b}(f(x))=B(x)\right]=\frac{1}{2}+\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), B(x))=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(f(x), r)=1\right] \geq \frac{1}{2}+\epsilon
$$

Finally, there exists a specific value $b^{*} \in B$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{x}\left[C_{b^{*}}(f(x))=B(x) \geq \frac{1}{2}+\epsilon\right.
$$

and we define $C$ to be $C_{b^{*}}$. Note that the size of $C$ is $S+O(1)$.

Lemma 6 Let $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$ be a permutation, $B:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ be a $(S, \epsilon)$ hard-core predicate for $f$ and suppose that both $B$ and $f$ are computable by circuits of size at most $t$. Define

$$
G(x):=B(x), B(f(x)), \cdots, B\left(f^{(k-1)}(x)\right), f^{(k)}(x)
$$

Then $G\left(U_{n}\right)$ is $(S-O(t k), \epsilon / k)$-pseudorandom.
Proof: We again proceed by contradiction. We assume that there is a circuit $A$ of size $S$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\operatorname{Pr}[A(G(x))=1]-\operatorname{Pr}[A(r)=1]|>\epsilon, \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x$ is uniform in $\{0,1\}^{n}$ and $r$ is uniform in $\{0,1\}^{n+k}$, and we show there is a circuit $C$ of size $\leq S+O(t k)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[C(f(x))=B(x)]>\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\epsilon}{k}
$$

As a first step, we note that there is a circuit $A^{\prime}$ (which is either equal to $A$ or to its complement) such that Expression (3) can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(G(x))=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}(r)=1\right] \mid>\epsilon \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now do a hybrid argument. We define $k+1$ distributions $X_{0}, \ldots, X_{l}$. The distribution $X_{i}$ is defined by computing $g=G(x)$ for a random $x \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ and picking $r \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ at random; then the first $i$ bits of $r$ are concatenated with the last $k-i$ bits of $g$. We have by definition that $X_{0}$ is distributed like $G(x)$ and $X_{k}$ is uniform. (Indeed, since $x$ is uniformly random and $f$ is a permutation, then $f(x)$ is uniformly distributed. By induction, $f^{(i)}(x)$ is uniform for every $i$.)

We can rewrite Expression (4) as

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{0}\right)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{k}\right)=1\right]>\epsilon
$$

and we note that we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\epsilon & <\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{0}\right)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{k}\right)=1\right] \\
& =\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{j}\right)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{j+1}\right)=1\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

and so there exists one $j$ for which

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{j-1}\right)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{j}\right)=1\right]>\frac{\epsilon}{k}
$$

which means that $A^{\prime}$ can distinguish

$$
X_{j-1}=b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j-1}, B\left(f^{(j-1)}(x)\right), \cdots, B\left(f^{(k-1)}(x)\right), f^{(k)}(x)
$$

from

$$
X_{j}=b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j}, B\left(f^{(j)}(x)\right), \cdots, B\left(f^{(k-1)}(x)\right), f^{(k)}(x)
$$

(where $b_{h}$ are random bits)
Recall that, for every $i$, the distribution $f^{(i)}(x)$ is uniform in $\{0,1\}^{n}$. This means that the two distributions above can be equivalently redefined if we substitute $f^{(j)}(x)$ with a uniformly random element $y$. All this is giving us that $C$ can distinguish

$$
b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j-1}, B\left(f^{(-1)}(y)\right), B(y), \cdots, B\left(f^{(k-j-1)}(y)\right), f^{(k-j)}(y)
$$

from

$$
b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j-1}, b_{j}, B(y), \cdots, B\left(f^{(k-j-1)}(y)\right), f^{(k-j)}(y)
$$

On input $y$ we can compute $f(y), \cdots, f^{(k-j)}(y)$ and also $B(y), \cdots, B\left(f^{(k-j-1)}(y)\right.$. Consider now the following algorithm.

```
Input: \(y\)
// the algorithm receives in input \(y=f(z)\) and tries to guess \(B(z)=B\left(f^{(-1)}(y)\right)\)
begin
    pick random \(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j} \in\{0,1\}\)
    if \(A^{\prime}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j}, B(y), \cdots, B\left(f^{(k-j-1)}(y)\right), f^{k-j}(y)\right)=1\) then return \(b_{j}\)
    else return \(\neg b_{j}\)
end
```

Denote by $C_{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j}}(y)$ the output of the algorithm given input $y$ and random choices $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j}$. Then, as in the proof of a previous lemma, it is possible to show that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{j}}(f(x))=B(x)\right]=\frac{1}{2}+\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{j-1}\right)=1\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A^{\prime}\left(X_{j}\right)=1\right]>\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\epsilon}{k}
$$

Finally, we observe that there must exist a fixed choice of $b_{1}^{*}, \ldots, b_{j}^{*}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[C_{b_{1}^{*}, \ldots, b_{j}^{*}}(f(x))=B(x)\right]>\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\epsilon}{k}
$$

and we define $C$ to be equal to $C_{b_{1}^{*}, \ldots, b_{j}^{*}}$.

## 4 References

The notion of indistinguishability is due to Goldwasser and Micali [GM84], who also introduced the hybrid argument. Blum and Micali [BM84] were the first to give a formal definition of pseudorandom generator, but their definition was not based on indistinguishability. The indistinguishability-based definition is due to Yao [Yao82], who showed the equivalence of his definition to the definition of Blum and Micali. Yao also treated in greater generality the notion of hard-core predicate, that had been used in an ad hoc way by Goldwasser and Micali and by Blum and Micali.

## References

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## Exercises

1. Let $\left\{X_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 1}$ and $\left\{Y_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 1}$ be ensembles (sets) of random variables, where $X_{n}$ and $Y_{n}$ take values over $\{0,1\}^{n}$. Say that $\left\{X_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{Y_{n}\right\}$ are indistinguishable if for every two polynomials $p$ and $q$ and for every large enough $n$ we have that $X_{n}$ and $Y_{n}$ are ( $p(n), 1 / q(n)$ )-indistinguishable.

Prove that if $\left\{X_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{Y_{n}\right\}$ are computationally indistinguishable, and $f$ is a lengthpreserving (meaning that the length of the output is always equal to the length of the input) polynomial time computable function, then $\left\{f_{n}\left(X_{n}\right)\right\}$ and $\left\{f_{n}\left(Y_{n}\right)\right\}$ are also computationally indistinguishable.
[Hint: start by proving that if $f_{n}()$ is computable by a circuit of size $t$, and $X_{n}$ and $Y_{n}$ are $(S, \epsilon)$-indistinguishable, then $f_{n}\left(X_{n}\right)$ and $f_{n}\left(Y_{n}\right)$ are $(S-t, \epsilon)$-indistinguishable.]
2. Prove that there is an ensemble $\left\{X_{n}\right\}$ that is computationally indistinguishable from the ensamble of uniform distributions $\left\{U_{n}\right\}$, even though only $n^{\log n}$ elements of $\{0,1\}^{n}$ have non-zero probability in $X_{n}$.
[Hint: use the probabilistic method and Chernoff bounds to argue that there exists a random variable $X_{n}$ that ranges over only $n^{\log n}$ elements of $\{0,1\}^{n}$ and that is $\left(n^{\Omega(\log n)}, 1 / n^{\Omega(\log n)}\right)$ pseudorandom.]
3. Prove that if pseudorandom generators of stretch $2 n$ exist, then one-way functions exist.
[Hint: prove that the generator itself is a one-way function.]
4. Prove that if a permutation $f$ has a hard-core predicate $B$, then $f$ is a one-way permutation.
5. Prove that if $\mathbf{P}=\mathbf{N P}$ then there cannot be any pseudorandom generators, even of stretch $n+1$.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ An annoying technicality is that the new function is only defined for inputs of even length. One can get around this by saying that when $f^{\prime}$ gets an input of odd length $2 k+1$ it discards the last input bit and then it computes $f_{2 k}^{\prime}$ of the first $2 k$ input bits, as defined above.

