# **Applied Cryptology**

### Daniel Page

Department of Computer Science, University Of Bristol, Merchant Venturers Building, Woodland Road, Bristol, BS8 1UB. UK. ⟨csdsp@bristol.ac.uk⟩

September 5, 2025

Keep in mind there are *two* PDFs available (of which this is the latter):

- 1. a PDF of examinable material used as lecture slides, and
- 2. a PDF of non-examinable, extra material:
  - the associated notes page may be pre-populated with extra, written explaination of material covered in lecture(s), plus
  - anything with a "grey'ed out" header/footer represents extra material which is useful and/or interesting but out of scope (and hence not covered).

Notes:
Notes:



- ► Agenda: explore (pseudo-)random bit generation, via

  - an "in theory", i.e., design-oriented perspective, and
     an "in practice", i.e., implementation-oriented perspective.
- Caveat!
  - $\sim$  2 hours  $\Rightarrow$  introductory, and (very) selective (versus definitive) coverage.

© Daniel Page (	
Appli	ed Cryptology



### COMS30048 lecture: week #19

- ▶ Bad news: in *theory*, we need to consider each of
  - 1. random bit, i.e., an

$$x\in\{0,1\}$$

which is random,

2. random bit sequence, i.e., an

$$x \in \{0, 1\}^n$$

which is random (e.g., for an AES cipher key k),

3. random *number*, i.e., an

$$x\in\{0,1,\dots,n-1\}$$

which is random (e.g., for an RSA modulus  $N = p \cdot q$ ).

Notes:	

Notes:			



#### COMS30048 lecture: week #19

- ▶ Good news: in *practice*, we don't because
  - $ightharpoonup 1. \Rightarrow 2.$ 
    - concatenate *n* random bits together, i.e.,

$$x = x_0 \| x_1 \| \cdots \| x_{n-1}$$

- produce *x* as output.
- ightharpoonup 2.  $\Rightarrow$  3.
  - if  $n = 2^{n'}$  for some integer n', then
    - generate an n'-bit sequence x' per the above,
    - interpret x' as the integer

$$x = \sum_{i=0}^{i < n'} x_i',$$

- produce *x* as output.
- if  $n \neq 2^{n'}$  for any integer n', then
  - let n' be the smallest integer such that  $2^{n'} > n$ ,
  - generate an n'-bit sequence x' per the above,
  - interpret x' as the integer

$$x = \sum_{i=0}^{i < n'} x_i',$$

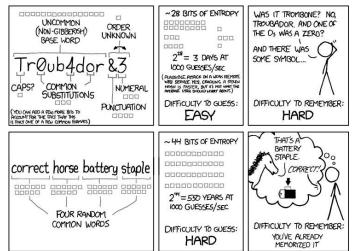
- if  $x \ge n$ , reject (or discard) it and try again; otherwise, if x < n, produce x as output.
- ... we can focus on random bits (and ignore numbers).

Applied Cryptology

University of BRISTOL

git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-0

Part 1: in theory (1) Entropy

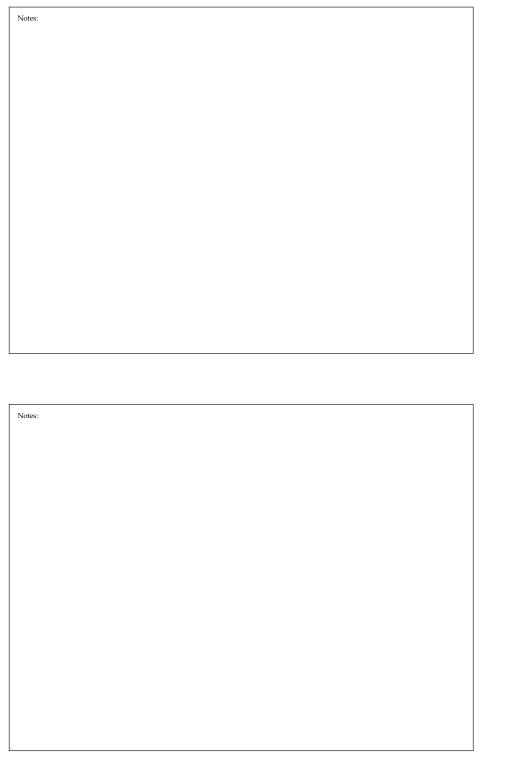


THROUGH 20 YEARS OF EFFORT, WE'VE SUCCESSFULLY TRAINED EVERYONE TO USE PASSWORDS THAT ARE HARD FOR HUMANS TO REMEMBER, BUT EASY FOR COMPUTERS TO GUESS.

https://xkcd.com/936

Daniel Page (csdsp@bristol.ac

University of BRISTOL



# Part 1: in theory (2)

#### Definition

The concept of **entropy** is a measure of uncertainty with respect to a random variable. Less formally, the entropy of some x relates to how much you know (resp. do not know) about x: if some x could be one of  $2^n$  possible values, it is said to have n bits of entropy. In addition, we say

- 1. an x with n > 0 bits of entropy is termed **entropic**, and
- 2. if an entropic *x* has negligible probability of having been generated before, it is deemed **fresh entropy**.

© Daniel Page (csdsp@bristol.ac.uk Applied Cryptology



git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

# Part 1: in theory (2) Entropy

#### Definition

The concept of **entropy** is a measure of uncertainty with respect to a random variable. Less formally, the entropy of some x relates to how much you know (resp. do not know) about x: if some x could be one of  $2^n$  possible values, it is said to have n bits of entropy. In addition, we say

- 1. an x with n > 0 bits of entropy is termed **entropic**, and
- 2. if an entropic *x* has negligible probability of having been generated before, it is deemed **fresh entropy**.
- **Example:** given a 32-bit sequence x,
  - ▶ if *x* is random, then it has 32 bits of entropy,
  - if  $x_0 = 0$  and  $x_1 = 1$  (i.e., the two LSBs of x are known), then it has 30 bits of entropy,
  - if HW(x) = 14 (i.e., x has Hamming weight 14), then it has  $\sim 29$  bits of entropy.

Notes:
Notes:

# Part 1: in theory (3)

#### Definition

A noise source is a non-deterministic, physical process which provides a means of generating an unconditioned (or raw) entropic output.



#### Part 1: in theory (3) Entropy

#### Definition

A noise source is a non-deterministic, physical process which provides a means of generating an unconditioned (or raw) entropic output.

- **Example** (see [8, Section 5.2], or [19, Section 3]):
  - 1. hardware-based:
    - time between emission of (e.g.,  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$ ) particles during radioactive decay, thermal (or Johnson-Nyquist) noise stemming from a resistor or capacitor,

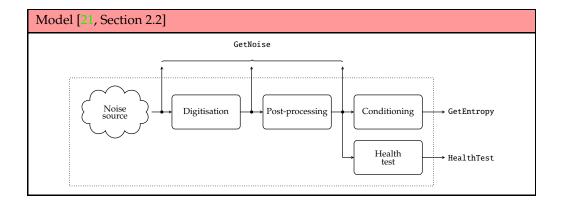
    - frequency instability (or "jitter") of a ring oscillator,
    - Including the fluctuation of hard disk seek-time and access latency,
    - noise resulting from a disconnected audio input (or ADC),
  - 2. software-based:
    - a high resolution system clock or cycle counter,
    - elapsed time between user input (e.g., key-presses or mouse movement),
    - content of input/output buffers (e.g., disk caches),
    - operating system state (e.g., load) or events (e.g., network activity),

Notes:			
Notes:			

# Part 1: in theory (4) Entropy

### Definition

An **entropy source** is a construction, based on a noise source, which provides a means of generating a *conditioned* entropic output.



© Daniel Page (csdsp@bristol.ac Applied Cryptology



git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

Part 1: in theory (5)
Randomness

# Definition

Per [20, Section 4], an ideal random bit-sequence

$$x = \langle x_0, x_1, \dots x_{n-1} \rangle$$

will exhibit the following properties

1. **unpredictable**  $\Rightarrow$  the probability of guessing  $x_i$  is close to  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

2. **unbiased**  $\Rightarrow$   $x_i = 0$  and  $x_i = 1$  occur with equal probability

3. **uncorrelated**  $\Rightarrow$   $x_i$  and  $x_j$  are statistically independent

and contain n bits of entropy.

Notes:

Notes:			





### Definition

Per [20, Section 4], a pseudo-random bit-sequence

$$x = \langle x_0, x_1, \dots x_{n-1} \rangle$$

"looks random", i.e., exhibits the same properties as an ideal random sequence, but is generated algorithmically and thus likely contains less than n bits of entropy.

© Daniel Page (csdsp@bristol Applied Cryptology



git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

# Part 1: in theory (6) (Pseudo-)random bit generators

### Definition

A **Random Bit Generator (RBG)** can be used to generates a sequence of random bits. There are two more specific cases, namely

True Random Bit Generator (TRBG) 
Pseudo-Random Bit Generator (PRBG) 
Deterministic Random Bit Generator (DRBG)

Deterministic Random Bit Generator (DRBG)

with the right-hand terms preferred by [20]. Based on this, it is reasonable to say that

TRBG  $\equiv$  NRBG  $\simeq$  entropy source.

Notes:	

Notes:			

# Part 1: in theory (6) (Pseudo-)random bit generators

#### Definition

A **Random Bit Generator (RBG)** can be used to generates a sequence of random bits. There are two more specific cases, namely

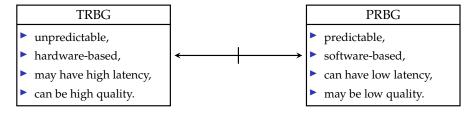
True Random Bit Generator (TRBG) ≡ Non-deterministic Random Bit Generator (NRBG)

Pseudo-Random Bit Generator (PRBG) ≡ Deterministic Random Bit Generator (DRBG)

with the right-hand terms preferred by [20]. Based on this, it is reasonable to say that

TRBG  $\equiv$  NRBG  $\simeq$  entropy source.

► Idea: informally at least,



∴ we'll consider a *hybrid* construction.

© Daniel Page (sudsptbristol.ac.u.)

Applied Cryptology

University of BRISTOL

git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

Part 1: in theory (7) (Pseudo-)random bit generators

#### Definition

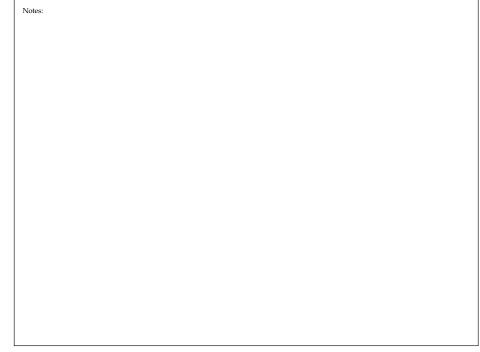
Consider a deterministic, polynomial-time algorithm G. Given a **seed**  $\varsigma \in \{0,1\}^{n_{\varsigma}}$  as input, it produces  $G(\varsigma) \in \{0,1\}^{n_{\varsigma}}$  as output where  $n_r = f(n_{\varsigma})$  for some polynomial function f. As such, we call G a **Pseudo-Random Generator (PRG)** if

- 1. for every  $n_c$  it holds that  $n_r > n_c$ , and
- 2. for all polynomial-time destinguishers *D*, there exists a negligible function negl such that

$$|\Pr[D(G(\varsigma)) = 1] - \Pr[D(r) = 1]| \le \operatorname{negl}(\mathsf{n}_{\varsigma})$$

where  $\zeta$  and r are chosen uniformly at random from  $\{0,1\}^{n_{\zeta}}$  and  $\{0,1\}^{n_{r}}$  respectively.

Notes:	





### Syntax

Having fixed the (finite) space S of states, a concrete **Pseudo-Random Generator (PRG)** is defined by

- 1. an algorithm Seed :  $\mathbb{Z} \times \{0,1\}^{n_{\varsigma}} \to \mathcal{S}$  that
  - ightharpoonup accepts a security parameter and an  $n_{\varsigma}$ -bit seed as input, and produces an initial state as output
- 2. an algorithm Update:  $S \to S \times \{0,1\}^{n_b}$  that
  - accepts a current state as input, and
  - $\triangleright$  produces a next state and an  $n_b$ -bit block of pseudo-random bits as output.



#### Part 1: in theory (8) (Pseudo-)random bit generators

▶ Translation: assuming  $n_r = l \cdot n_h$  for some l, then

1. use TRBG 
$$\rightsquigarrow$$
  $\begin{cases} \text{generate a sufficiently large,} \\ \text{high-entropy seed } \zeta \end{cases}$ 

$$\begin{cases}
\theta[0] & \leftarrow \operatorname{Seed}(\lambda, \varsigma) \\
\theta[1] & , b[0] & \leftarrow \operatorname{Update}(\theta[0]) \\
\theta[2] & , b[1] & \leftarrow \operatorname{Update}(\theta[1])
\end{cases}$$
2. use PRBG  $\rightarrow$ 

$$\begin{cases}
\theta[i+1], b[i] & \leftarrow \operatorname{Update}(\theta[i]) \\
\vdots & \vdots \\
\theta[i+1], b[i] & \leftarrow \operatorname{Update}(\theta[i])
\end{cases}$$

meaning that

$$b = \underbrace{b[0]}_{n_b\text{-bits}} \parallel \underbrace{b[1]}_{n_b\text{-bits}} \parallel \cdots \parallel \underbrace{b[l-1]}_{n_b\text{-bits}} \equiv G(\varsigma)$$

$$l \cdot n_b = n_r\text{-bits}$$

$$l \cdot n_b = n_r$$
-bits

provides the output required per the PRG definition.

University of BRISTOL



Notes:

```
Part 1: in theory (9) (Pseudo-)random bit generators
```

```
int getRandomNumber()
   return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.
              // guaranteed to be random.
```

https://xkcd.com/221

© Daniel Page (

University of BRISTOL

# Part 1: in theory (10) (Pseudo-)random bit generators

▶ Problem: we need to assess the quality of our construction (and output from it).

### ► Solution:

- for *some* instanciations, we can develop a proof,
   for *some* instanciations, we must apply
- - online (e.g., continuously or periodically *during* use), and/or
- offline (i.e., once *before* use)

statistical tests (see, e.g., [8, Section 5.4]) to sample outputs; note that

- the intention is to detect weakness (meaning a PRBG can only be rejected by a test),
  the conclusion is itself probabilistic, meaning use of multiple tests amplifies confidence.

Notes:		
Notes:		



# Part 1: in theory (11) (Pseudo-)random bit generators

#### Definition

A PRBG is said to pass all **statistical tests** iff. no polynomial-time algorithm can, with probability greater than  $\frac{1}{2}$ , distinguish the output from a ideal random bit-sequence of the same length.

#### Definition

A PRBG is said to pass the **next-bit test** iff. no polynomial-time algorithm can, with probability greater than  $\frac{1}{2}$ , predict the (n+1)-th bit of output given the previous n bits.

### Theorem (Yao [14])

If a PRBG passes the next-bit test, it will pass all statistical tests.

© Daniel Page (csdsp@brist Applied Cryptolog



git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

# Part 1: in theory (12) (Pseudo-)random bit generators

#### Definition

Per [20, Section 4], imagine an attacker compromises the PRBG state at time t: we term a PRBG back-tracking resistant (resp. prediction resistant) if said attacker cannot distinguish between an (unseen) PRBG output at time t' < t (resp. t' > t) and an ideal random bit-sequence of the same length.

#### Definition

A **Cryptographically Secure Pseudo-Random Bit Generator (CS-PRBG)** is simple a PRBG whose properties make it suitable for use within a cryptographic use-case. A CS-PRBG should (at least)

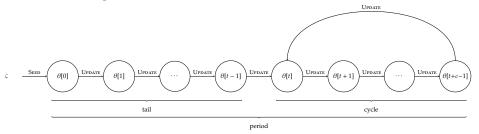
- 1. be a PRBG of sufficient quality, i.e., pass the next-bit test, and
- 2. resist state compromise attacks, i.e., be back-tracking and prediction resistant.

Notes:	
Notes:	

# Part 1: in theory (13) (Pseudo-)random bit generators

- ▶ Problem: our construction is deterministic, so
  - ▶ the same *ς* will yield the same *θ*[0] and hence any *θ*[*j*] for *j* > 0, ▶ recovery of *ς* allows computation of any *θ*[*j*] for  $j \ge 0$ , ▶ recovery of *θ*[*i*] allows computation of any *θ*[*j*] for j > i,

  - the set S is finite, so per



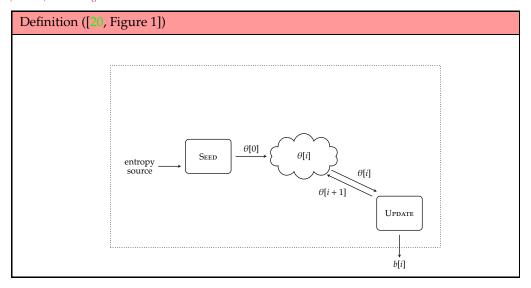
the state, and thus also the output, will eventually cycle.

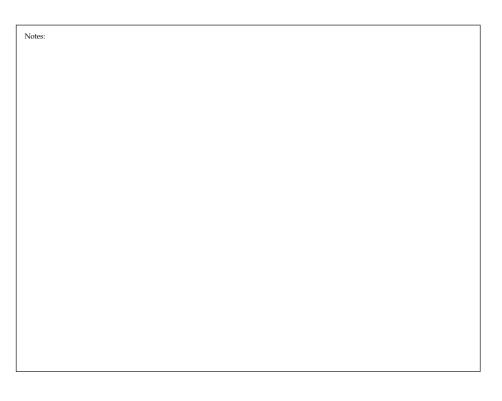
### ► Solution:

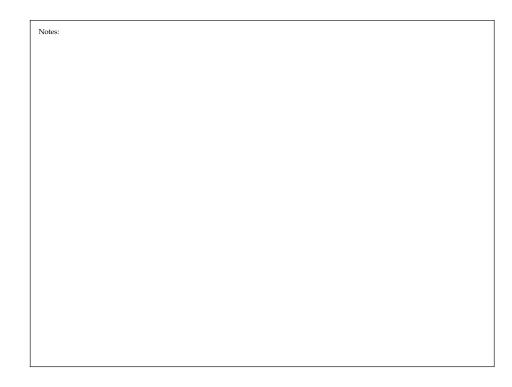
- select parameters that mitigate such issues, and
   introduce selected *non*-determinism.



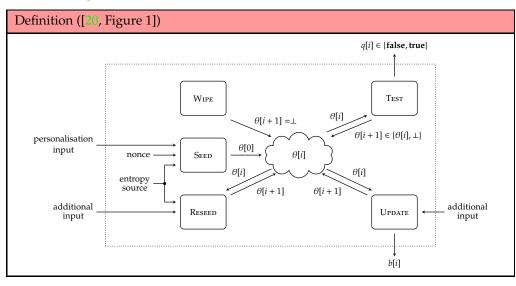
Part 1: in theory (14) (Pseudo-)random bit generators







# Part 1: in theory (14) (Pseudo-)random bit generators



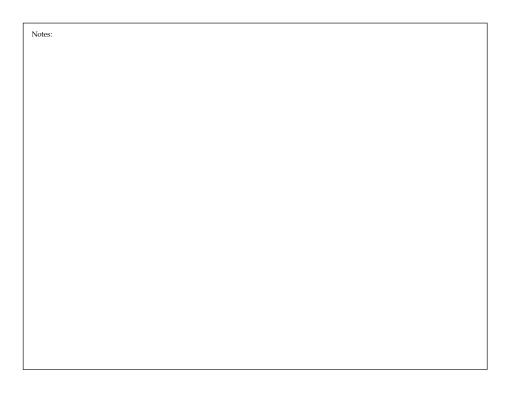


## Part 2: in practice (1)

- ▶ (Sub-)agenda: explain selected, example designs, organised into 4 classes, i.e.,
  - 1. "classic",
  - 2. software-oriented,
  - 3. hardware-oriented,
  - 4. system-oriented,

with a focus on design properties and trade-offs between them, e.g.,

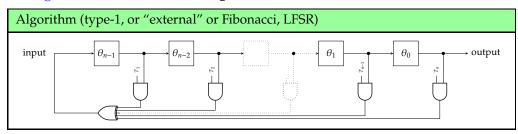
- efficiency,
- security, i.e., quality of (pseudo-)random output,
- interface,
- assumptions,
- ▶ ..

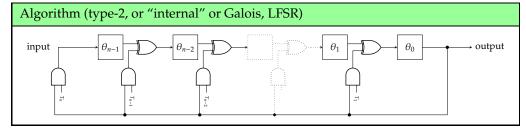


Notes:		

# Part 2: in practice (2) Class #1: "classic"

### Design: Linear-Feedback Shift Registers (LFSR) [5, 6].





University of BRISTOL

# Part 2: in practice (3)

Class #2: software-oriented

### ▶ Design: Blum-Blum-Shub (BBS) [10].

## Algorithm (BBS.SEED)

**Input:** A security parameter  $\lambda$ , and a seed  $\varsigma$ **Output:** An initial state  $\theta[0]$ 

Use entropy provided by  $\varsigma$  to perform the following steps:

- 1. Select two random ( $\lambda/2$ )-bit primes p and q such that  $p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , and compute  $N = p \cdot q$ .
- 2. Select a random  $s \in \{0, 1, ..., N-1\}$  such that gcd(s, N) = 1.
- 3. Compute  $s[0] = s^2 \pmod{N}$ .
- 4. Return  $\theta[0] = (N, s[0])$ .

Notes:	

Notes:

#### Part 2: in practice (3) Class #2: software-oriented

### ▶ Design: Blum-Blum-Shub (BBS) [10].

### Algorithm (BBS.UPDATE)

**Input:** A current state  $\theta[i]=(N,s[i])$ **Output:** A next state  $\theta[i+1]$ , and  $n_b=1$  bit pseudo-random output b[i]

- 1. Compute  $s[i+1] = s[i]^2 \pmod{N}$ .
- 2. Let  $b[i] = s[i+1] \pmod{2}$ , i.e., b[i] = LSB(s[i+1]).
- 3. Return  $\theta[i+1] = (N, s[i+1])$  and b[i].



# Part 2: in practice (4)

Class #2: software-oriented

### ▶ Design: ANSI X9.31 [18, Appendix A.2.4].

# Algorithm (X9.31.SEED)

**Input:** A security parameter  $\lambda$ , and a seed  $\varsigma$ **Output:** An initial state  $\theta[0]$ 

1. Use  $\lambda$  to select a block cipher with an  $n_k$ -bit key size and  $n_b$ -bit block size, e.g.,

- 2. Use entropy provided by  $\varsigma$  to derive an  $n_k$ -bit cipher key k (or pre-select a k for the PRBG).
- 3. Use entropy provided by  $\varsigma$  to derive an  $n_h$ -bit block s[0].
- 4. Return  $\theta[0] = (k, s[0])$ .

Notes:		

• Kelsey et al. [13, Section 3.1] critique this design, or at least a less-general precursor named X9.17. The crux of their argument is that an attacker which recovers the block cipher key can recover the PRNG state given sample output (by guessing the timestamp, then decrypting). You could argue recovering the key is analogous to recovering the state, so maybe this is catastrophic by definition, but, either way, it should be clear that protecting both is vital.



#### Part 2: in practice (4) Class #2: software-oriented

▶ Design: **ANSI X9.31** [18, Appendix A.2.4].

### Algorithm (X9.31.UPDATE)

**Input:** A current state  $\theta[i] = (k, s[i])$ **Output:** A next state  $\theta[i+1]$ , and  $n_b$ -bit pseudo-random output b[i]

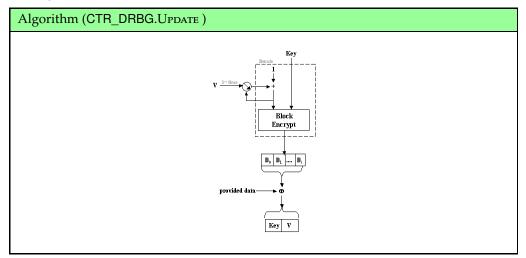
- 1. Compute t' = Enc(k, t), where t is a  $n_b$ -bit representation of the current time.
- 2. Compute  $b[i] = \text{Enc}(k, t' \oplus s[i])$ .
- 3. Compute  $s[i+1] = \text{Enc}(\mathbf{k}, t' \oplus b[i])$ .
- 4. Return  $\theta[i+1] = (k, s[i+1])$  and b[i].

University of BRISTOL

# Part 2: in practice (5)

Class #2: software-oriented

▶ Design: NIST CTR\_DRBG [20, Section 10.2.1].



https://csrc.nist.gov/publications/nistpubs/800-90A/SP800-90A.pdf

University of BRISTOL

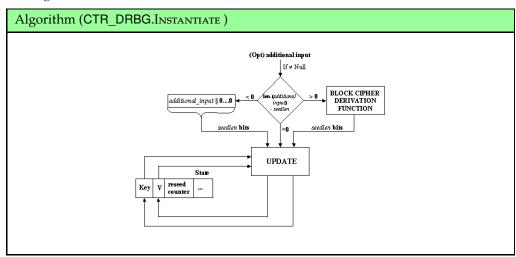
N	Īc	d	۵

•	Kelsey et al. [13, Section 3.1] critique this design, or at least a less-general precursor named X9.17. The crux of their argument is that attacker which recovers the block cipher key can recover the PRNG state given sample output (by guessing the timestamp, then decrypting). You could argue recovering the key is analogous to recovering the state, so maybe this is catastrophic by definition, but, either way, it should be clear that protecting both is vital.

	Notes:
I	

#### Part 2: in practice (5) Class #2: software-oriented

▶ Design: NIST CTR\_DRBG [20, Section 10.2.1].



https://csrc.nist.gov/publications/nistpubs/800-90A/SP800-90A.pdf

© Daniel Page (catephristol.ac.ul)

Applied Cryptology

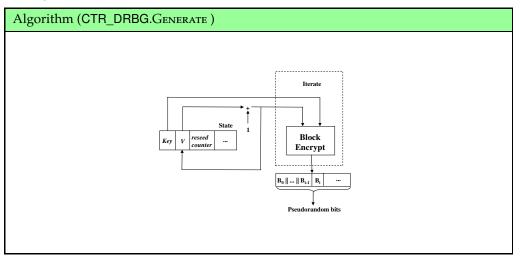
University of

Applied Cryptology

git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

Part 2: in practice (5) Class #2: software-oriented

▶ Design: NIST CTR\_DRBG [20, Section 10.2.1].

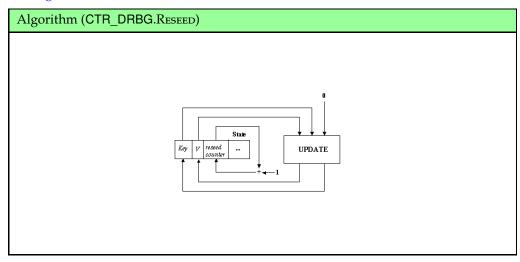


	Notes:
_	
	Notes:
	10003.



#### Part 2: in practice (5) Class #2: software-oriented

Design: NIST CTR\_DRBG [20, Section 10.2.1].

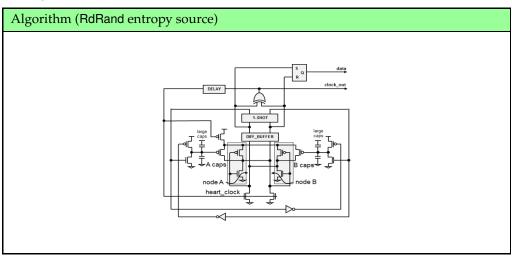


https://csrc.nist.gov/publications/nistpubs/800-90A/SP800-90A.pdf

University of BRISTOL

#### Part 2: in practice (6) Class #3: hardware-oriented

**▶** Design: Intel Secure Key [16].



https://www.cryptography.com/public/pdf/Intel\_TRNG\_Report\_20120312.pdf

University of BRISTOL

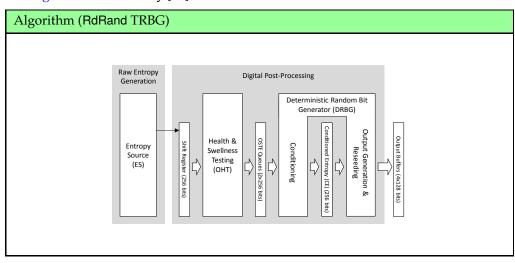


Notes:	

- · The entropy source diagram is for one cell, many of which are distributed in and around the associated micro-processor core. The TRNG diagram uses somewhat generic blocks: in more detail
- the conditioning step uses a MAC, namely AES-CBC-MAC [16, Section 3.2.2],
   the output generation and reseeding step uses a block cipher, namely AES-CTR [16, Section 3.2.3],
   the entropy source outputs bits at a rate of ~ 3Gbit s<sup>-1</sup> [16, Section 3.2.1],
   the TRNG outputs bits at a rate of ~ 6Gbit s<sup>-1</sup>, and
- the FIFO-based output buffer is read from by using the rdrand instruction.
- The 'D' in DRNG here isn't for deterministic: it's for digital (versus analogue, which earlier Intel designs were).
- The DRNG, and hence associated instructions, are only available on modern Intel processors; on Linux, checking /proc/cpuinfo highlights whether or not the features is available.
- In additional to official Intel documentation [16] (which acts as a user manual), a more technical overview is given by a technical report by Hamburg et al. [15] (with a similar analysis of an earlier Intel design [17] also interesting).

#### Part 2: in practice (6) Class #3: hardware-oriented

**▶** Design: Intel Secure Key [16].



https://www.cryptography.com/public/pdf/Intel\_TRNG\_Report\_20120312.pdf

University of BRISTOL

# Part 2: in practice (7)

Class #3: hardware-oriented

**▶** Design: Intel Secure Key [16].

```
Listing (RdRand interface)
1 bool rdrand64( uint64_t* r ) {
  bool success;
   asm( "rdrand %0 ; setc %1"
        : "=r" (*r), "=qm" (success) );
   return success;
```

```
Listing (RdRand interface)
 1 \ bool \ rdrand64\_retry( \ uint64\_t* \ r, \ int \ l ) {
    int i = 0;
    do {
      if( rdrand64( r ) ) {
        return true;
    } while( i++ < 1 );
10 return false;
```





#### Notes:

- · The entropy source diagram is for one cell, many of which are distributed in and around the associated micro-processor core. The TRNG diagram uses somewhat generic blocks: in more detail

  - the conditioning step uses a MAC, namely AES-CBC-MAC [16, Section 3.2.2],
     the output generation and reseeding step uses a block cipher, namely AES-CTR [16, Section 3.2.3],
     the entropy source outputs bits at a rate of ~ 3Cbit = 1 [16, Section 3.2.1],

  - the TRNG outputs bits at a rate of ~ 6Gbit s<sup>-1</sup>, and
- the FIFO-based output buffer is read from by using the rdrand instruction.
- The 'D' in DRNG here isn't for deterministic: it's for digital (versus analogue, which earlier Intel designs were).
- . The DRNG, and hence associated instructions, are only available on modern Intel processors; on Linux, checking /proc/cpuinfo highlights whether or not the features is available.
- In additional to official Intel documentation [16] (which acts as a user manual), a more technical overview is given by a technical report by Hamburg et al. [15] (with a similar analysis of an earlier Intel design [17] also interesting).

Notes:

#### Part 2: in practice (8) Class #4: system-oriented

- Design: Linux.
  - circa 1994(ish):
    - ightharpoonup maintain entropy pool  $\theta[i]$ , injecting entropy, e.g., from system-related events,
    - define a predicate

$$P(\theta[i]) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \textbf{false} & \text{if estimated entropy in } \theta[i] \text{ is deemed insufficient} \\ \textbf{true} & \text{if estimated entropy in } \theta[i] \text{ is deemed} & \text{sufficient} \end{array} \right.$$

based on the concept of entropy estimation,

 $\triangleright$  expose  $\theta[i]$  to user-space via the (pseudo) files

write to 
$$/\text{dev/random} \simeq \text{inject entropy into } \theta[i]$$

$$\text{read from /dev/random} \ \, \simeq \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{if } P(\theta[i]) = \text{false, block then sample from PRNG (re)seeded from } \theta[i] \\ \text{if } P(\theta[i]) = \text{true,} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{then sample from PRNG (re)seeded from } \theta[i]$$

read from /dev/urandom  $\simeq$  sample from PRNG (re)seeded from  $\theta[i]$ 

University of BRISTOI

git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

# Part 2: in practice (8)

Class #4: system-oriented

- Design: Linux.
  - circa 2014(ish):

where

update re. additional system call

ssize\_t getrandom( void\* x, size\_t n, unsigned int flags ) if PRNG has not been initialised, then do block getrandom ≃ if PRNG has been initialised, then do not block

this yields clear(er) semantics, and avoids need for file handle.



Notes:

- · A major challenge in describing "the" Linux implementation is that it is continually evolving! On one hand, this is positive in the sense it continues to improve to 1) address new threats, and 2) serve the demands of new use-cases. On the other hand, however, this moving target makes it harder to offer an accurate, general overview. Modulo their publication date, various resources offer descriptions worth reading: see, for example, Gutterman et. al [12] and Dodis et al. [11].
- . There are several notable controversies associated with the approach and implementation used by Linux. These include 1) use or non-use of RdRand (based on arguments around trust), and 2) the semantics of whatever mechanism is exposed to user-space (e.g., the concept of entropy estimation, blocking versus non-blocking).
- · The associated man page, i.e.,

man -s 4 random

gives some operational details with respect to use of /dev/random and/or /dev/urandom. It's also possible to inspect various information about of them via /proc/sys/kernel/random. For example, the file /proc/sys/kernel/random/entropy\_avail exposes the estimate of available entropy in the entropy pool(s).

· An important quote from the man page is:

"If you are unsure about whether you should use /dev/random or /dev/urandom, then probably you want to use the latter. As a general rule, /dev/urandom should be used for everything except long-lived GPG/SSL/SSH keys.

This seems a slightly dangerous statement: ephemeral keys are often just as security-critical as long term (cf. forward secrecy), so arguably a better rule would be to use /dev/random for anything cryptographically related (and /dev/urandom otherwise). But even this is somewhat contentious, reflecting the general difficulty of this topic. To this end,

https://www.2uo.de/mvths-about-urandom

offers some perspective: some points should be obvious already (e.g., the difference between true- and pseudo-random), but offers some interesting points about use of /dev/random versus /dev/urandom

• There are various associated or alternative user- and kernel-space systems, such as the Entropy Gathering Daemon (EGD)

https://egd.sourceforge.net/

- · A major challenge in describing "the" Linux implementation is that it is continually evolving! On one hand, this is positive in the sense it continues to improve to 1) address new threats, and 2) serve the demands of new use-cases. On the other hand, however, this moving target makes it harder to offer an accurate, general overview. Modulo their publication date, various resources offer descriptions worth reading: see, for example, Gutterman et. al [12] and Dodis et al. [11].
- · There are several notable controversies associated with the approach and implementation used by Linux. These include 1) use or non-use of RdRand (based on arguments around trust), and 2) the semantics of whatever mechanism is exposed to user-space (e.g., the concept of entropy estimation, blocking versus non-blocking).
- · The associated man page, i.e.,

man -s 4 random

gives some operational details with respect to use of /dev/random and/or /dev/urandom. It's also possible to inspect various information about of them via /proc/sys/kernel/random. For example, the file /proc/sys/kernel/random/entropy\_avail exposes the estimate of available entropy in the entropy pool(s).

· An important quote from the man page is:

"If you are unsure about whether you should use /dev/random or /dev/urandom, then probably you want to use the latter. As a general rule, /dev/urandom should be used for everything except long-lived GPG/SSL/SSH keys.

This seems a slightly dangerous statement: ephemeral keys are often just as security-critical as long term (cf. forward secrecy), so arguably a better rule would be to use /dev/random for anything cryptographically related (and /dev/urandom otherwise). But even this is somewhat contentious, reflecting the general difficulty of this topic. To this end,

https://www.2uo.de/myths-about-urandom

offers some perspective: some points should be obvious already (e.g., the difference between true- and pseudo-random), but offers some interesting points about use of /dev/random versus /dev/urandom.

• There are various associated or alternative user- and kernel-space systems, such as the Entropy Gathering Daemon (EGD)

https://egd.sourceforge.net/

#### Part 2: in practice (8) Class #4: system-oriented

- Design: Linux.
  - circa 2016(ish):
    - update re. PRNG, which is changed from being based on SHA-1 to ChaCha20,
    - this yields, e.g., lower latency with respect to sampling output.



University of BRISTOL

git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

# Part 2: in practice (8) Class #4: system-oriented

. \_ . \_.

- Design: Linux.
  - circa 2020(ish):
    - update re. file-based semantics

```
/dev/urandom ≃ do not block
```

 $/\text{dev/random} \simeq \begin{cases} \text{if PRNG has not been initialised, then do} & \text{block} \\ \text{if PRNG has} & \text{been initialised, then do not block} \end{cases}$ 





#### Notes:

- A major challenge in describing "the" Linux implementation is that it is continually evolving! On one hand, this is positive in the sense
  it continues to improve to 1) address new threats, and 2) serve the demands of new use-cases. On the other hand, however, this moving
  target makes it harder to offer an accurate, general overview. Modulo their publication date, various resources offer descriptions worth
  reading: see, for example, Gutterman et. al [12] and Dodis et al. [11].
- There are several notable controversies associated with the approach and implementation used by Linux. These include 1) use or non-use of RGRand (based on arguments around trust), and 2) the semantics of whatever mechanism is exposed to user-space (e.g., the concept of entropy estimation, blocking versus non-blocking).
- · The associated man page, i.e.,

man -s 4 random

gives some operational details with respect to use of /dev/random and/or /dev/urandom. It's also possible to inspect various information about of them via /proc/sys/kernel/random. For example, the file /proc/sys/kernel/random/entropy\_avail exposes the estimate of available entropy in the entropy pool(s).

· An important quote from the man page is:

"If you are unsure about whether you should use /dev/random or /dev/urandom, then probably you want to use the latter. As a general rule, /dev/urandom should be used for everything except long-lived GPG/SSL/SSH keys."

This seems a slightly dangerous statement: *ephemeral* keys are often just as security-critical as long term (cf. forward secrecy), so arguably a better rule would be to use /dev/random for anything cryptographically related (and /dev/urandom otherwise). But even this is somewhat contentious, reflecting the general difficulty of this topic. To this end,

https://www.2uo.de/myths-about-urandom

offers some perspective: some points should be obvious already (e.g., the difference between true- and pseudo-random), but offers some interesting points about use of /dev/random versus /dev/urandom.

• There are various associated or alternative user- and kernel-space systems, such as the Entropy Gathering Daemon (EGD)

https://egd.sourceforge.net/

#### Notes:

- A major challenge in describing "the" Linux implementation is that it is continually evolving! On one hand, this is positive in the sense
  it continues to improve to 1) address new threats, and 2) serve the demands of new use-cases. On the other hand, however, this moving
  target makes it harder to offer an accurate, general overview. Modulo their publication date, various resources offer descriptions worth
  reading; see, for example, Gutterman et. al [12] and Dodis et al. [11].
- There are several notable controversies associated with the approach and implementation used by Linux. These include 1) use or non-use of RdRand (based on arguments around trust), and 2) the semantics of whatever mechanism is exposed to user-space (e.g., the concept of entropy estimation, blocking versus non-blocking).
- The associated man page, i.e.,

man -s 4 random

gives some operational details with respect to use of /dev/random and/or /dev/urandom. It's also possible to inspect various information about of them via /proc/sys/kernel/random. For example, the file /proc/sys/kernel/random/entropy\_avail exposes the estimate of available entropy in the entropy pool(s).

· An important quote from the man page is:

"If you are unsure about whether you should use /dev/random or /dev/urandom, then probably you want to use the latter. As a general rule, /dev/urandom should be used for everything except long-lived GPG/SSL/SSH keys."

This seems a slightly dangerous statement: *ephemeral* keys are often just as security-critical as long term (cf. forward secrecy), so arguably a better rule would be to use /dev/random for *armylning* cryptographically related (and /dev/urandom otherwise). But even this is somewhat contentious, reflecting the general difficulty of this end,

https://www.2uo.de/myths-about-urandom

offers some perspective: some points should be obvious already (e.g., the difference between true- and pseudo-random), but offers some interesting points about use of /dev/random versus /dev/urandom.

· There are various associated or alternative user- and kernel-space systems, such as the Entropy Gathering Daemon (EGD)

https://egd.sourceforge.net/

#### Conclusions

#### Quote

Any one who considers arithmetical methods of producing random digits is, of course, in a state of sin.

- von Neumann (https://en.wikiquote.org/wiki/Randomness)

#### Quote

The generation of random numbers is too important to be left to chance.

- Coveyou (https://en.wikiquote.org/wiki/Randomness)

#### Quote

The design of such pseudo-random number generation algorithms, like the design of symmetric encryption algorithms, is not a task for amateurs.

- Eastlake, Schiller, and Crocker [19]

Notes:

© Daniel Page (csdsp@bristo Applied Cryptology



git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

#### Conclusions

## ► Take away points:

- 1. A high-quality source of randomness is fundamental to more or less *every* security proof: it might be an assumption in theory, but in practice this issue requires care.
- 2. Iff. you need to develop your own PRBG implementation, use a standard (e.g., NIST SP800-90A [20]) design or framework ...
- 3. ... often such a design can leverage a primitive (e.g., a block cipher) you need anyway, thus reducing effort, attack surface, etc.
- 4. Some golden rules:
  - use a large, high-entropy seed,
  - avoid reliance on a single entropy source where possible,
  - opt for a cryptographically secure design and ensure it is parameterised correctly,
  - hedge against failure via robust pre- and post-processing where need be,
  - include quality tests on pseudo-randomness generation (e.g., alongside functional unit testing),
  - don't compromise security for efficiency,
  - •

Notes:	
Notes:	

#### Additional Reading

- ▶ Wikipedia: Randomness. URL: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Randomness.
- Wikipedia: Pseudorandomness. url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pseudorandomness.
- Wikipedia: /dev/random. URL: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/dev/random.
- ▶ Wikipedia: RDRAND. url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RDRAND.
- K.H. Rosen. "Chapter 7: Discrete probability". In: Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications. 7th ed. McGraw Hill, 2013.
- A.J. Menezes, P.C. van Oorschot, and S.A. Vanstone. "Chapter 5: Pseudorandom bits and sequences". In: Handbook of Applied Cryptography. CRC, 1996. URL: http://cacr.uwaterloo.ca/hac/about/chap5.pdf.
- D. Johnston. Random Number Generators Principles and Practices: A Guide for Engineers and Programmers. 1st ed. De | G Press, 2018.
- D. Eastlake, J. Schiller, and S. Crocker. Randomness Requirements for Security. Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) Request for Comments (RFC) 4086. 2005. URL: http://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc4086.





git # b282dbb9 @ 2025-09-03

#### References

- [1] Wikipedia: /dev/random.url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/dev/random (see p. 89).
- [2] Wikipedia: Pseudorandomness. URL: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pseudorandomness (see p. 89).
- [3] Wikipedia: Randomness. url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Randomness (see p. 89).
- [4] Wikipedia: RDRAND. url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RDRAND (see p. 89).
- [5] S.W. Golomb. Shift Register Sequences. 3rd ed. https://doi.org/10.1142/9361. Aegean Park Press, 2017 (see p. 53).
- [6] M. Goresky and A. Klapper. Algebraic Shift Register Sequences. 1st ed. https://doi.org/10.1017/CB09781139057448.Cambridge University Press, 2012 (see p. 53).
- [7] D. Johnston. Random Number Generators Principles and Practices: A Guide for Engineers and Programmers. 1st ed. De | G Press, 2018 (see p. 89).
- [8] A.J. Menezes, P.C. van Oorschot, and S.A. Vanstone. "Chapter 5: Pseudorandom bits and sequences". In: Handbook of Applied Cryptography. CRC, 1996. URL: http://cacr.uwaterloo.ca/hac/about/chap5.pdf (see pp. 17, 19, 39, 89).
- [9] K.H. Rosen. "Chapter 7: Discrete probability". In: Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications. 7th ed. McGraw Hill, 2013 (see p. 89).
- [10] L. Blum, M. Blum, and M. Shub. "A Simple Unpredictable Pseudo-Random Number Generator". In: SIAM Journal on Computing 15.2 (1986), pp. 364–383 (see pp. 55, 57).
- [11] Y. Dodis et al. "Security Analysis of Pseudo-random Number Generators with Input: /dev/random is Not Robust". In: Computer and Communications Security (CCS). 2013, pp. 647–658 (see pp. 78, 80, 82, 84).
- [12] Z. Gutterman, B. Pinkas, and T. Reinman. "Analysis of the Linux Random Number Generator". In: IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy. 2006, pp. 371–385 (see pp. 78, 80, 82, 84).
- [13] J. Kelsey et al. "Cryptanalytic Attacks on Pseudorandom Number Generators". In: Fast Software Encryption (FSE). LNCS 1372. Springer-Verlag, 1998, pp. 168–188 (see pp. 60, 62).
- [14] A.C. Yao. "Theory and application of trapdoor functions". In: Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science (SFCS). 1982, pp. 80–91 (see p. 41).





Notes:	
Notes:	

### References

- M. Hamburg, P.C. Kocher, and M.E. Marson. Analysis of Intel's Ivy Bridge Digital Random Number Generator. Tech. rep. Cryptography Research, Inc., 2012. url: http://www.cryptography.com/public/pdf/Intel\_TRNG\_Report\_20120312.pdf (see pp. 72, 74).
- Intel Digital Random Number Generator (DRNG) Software Implementation Guide. Tech. rep. Intel Corp., 2012. URL: http://software.intel.com/sites/default/files/m/d/4/1/d/8/441\_Intel\_R\_\_DRNG\_Software\_Implementation\_ Guide\_final\_Aug7.pdf (see pp. 71–75).
- B. Jun and P.C. Kocher. The Intel Random Number Generator. Tech. rep. Cryptography Research, Inc., 1999. URL: http://www.cryptography.com/public/pdf/IntelRNG.pdf (see pp. 72, 74).
- Digital Signatures Using Reversible Public Key Cryptography for the Financial Services Industry. American National Standards Institute (ANSI) Standard X9.31. 1993 (see pp. 59, 61).
- D. Eastlake, J. Schiller, and S. Crocker. Randomness Requirements for Security. Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) Request [19] for Comments (RFC) 4086. 2005. URL: http://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc4086 (see pp. 17, 19, 85, 89).
- [20
- [2:

© Daniel Page (csdsp@bristol.ac.uk) Applied Cryptology	University of BRISTOL	git#b282dbb9@2025-09-03	

	Notes:
L	