## Pseudo-Randomness

(breaking) LCG

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## **BREAKING PSEUDO-RANDOMNESS?**

## Crand() with different seeds

$1337 \longrightarrow 292616681,$	1638893262,	255706927,
$5667 \longrightarrow 1971409024,$	815969455,	1253865160
$42 \longrightarrow 71876166,$	708592740,	1483128881

This is the idea behind **PRNGs** and, more in general, **pseudo-randomness** and **pseudo-random sequences**:

- having a sequence of numbers that looks random
- yet it is completely determined by
  - an underlying algorithm
  - the initial seed value

## Meaningful terms in the context of PRNGs

- state: total amount of memory that is used internally by the PRNG to generate the sequence of numbers.
- period: after how many numbers the PRNG resets to its initial state.

Not all about looks, even for PRNGs.

Good PRNGs satisfy specific statistical properties.

Said in another way...

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given an output of the PRNG, are we able to predict the next number?

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$$x_n \longrightarrow ?$$

• Short answer: No.

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- Long answer: No, and this is problematic...

## LINEAR CONGRUENTIAL GENERATOR

## A **Linear Congruential Generator** is defined by the following set of equations

$$egin{cases} x_0 &= ext{seed} \ x_n &= (x_{n-1} \cdot a + b) \mod c \end{cases}$$

where

- ullet a,b,c are typically fixed
- seed changes on every restart

The state is initialized with the given seed, and it is then updated for generating each subsequent number.

$$seed = x_0 \longrightarrow x_1 \longrightarrow x_2 \longrightarrow x_3 \longrightarrow \ldots \longrightarrow x_n$$

## LCG IN RAND()'S GLIBC

Let's look at the LCG implemented in the code of the **standard C library** (libc), which is inserted into most binaries compiled with **gcc**.

The code can be download with

curl https://ftp.gnu.org/gnu/libc/glibc-2.36.tar.bz2 > glibc-2.36.tar.bz2

## Initialization in \_srandomr()

```
int __srandom_r (unsigned int seed, struct random_data *buf) {
  int type;
  int32_t *state;
  //...
  state = buf->state;
  //...
  state[0] = seed;
  if (type == TYPE_0)
     goto done;
  //...
}
```

(glibc/stdlib/random<sub>r.c</sub>:161)

## State update in \_randomr()

```
int __random_r (struct random_data *buf, int32_t *result) {
    //...
if (buf->rand_type == TYPE_0) {
    int32_t val = ((state[0] * 1103515245U) + 12345U) & 0x7fffffff;
    state[0] = val;
    *result = val;
}
//...
}
```

(glibc/stdlib/random<sub>r.c</sub>:353)

$$x_n = ((x_{n-1} imes 1103515245) + 12345)$$
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$$0x7fffffff = 2147483647$$

Note that

x & 2147483647

is equivalent to

 $x \mod 2147483648$ 

(see code/example-4-rand-equivalence.c)

Remember the concepts of **period** and **state**...

- The LCG state in C rand() is made up of a single 32
   bit integer
- Thus it has a period of

$$2^{31} - 1 = 2147483647$$

(see code/example-5-rand-lcg-period.c)

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   bit integer
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(see code/example-5-rand-lcg-period.c)

**NOTE**: why only  $2^{31} - 1$  and not  $2^{32} - 1$ ? Because the last bit is thrown away (ask the devs).

## **HOW TO BREAK LCG**

Now that we know how a LCG works, we can begin to understand how to "break" it.

Remember that by "breaking a PRNG" we simply mean being able to predict what's the next number in the sequence given some outputs obtained from the PRNG

$$x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n\stackrel{?}{\longrightarrow} x_{n+1}$$

$$x_n = (x_{n-1} \cdot a + b) \mod c$$

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and consider the following attack scenarios:

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- 1. We know all the parameters a,b and c
- 2. We know some of the parameters a, b and c
- 3. We don't know any of the parameters a, b and c We'll cover how to deal with scenarios 1 and 3.

### SCENARIO 1: WE KNOW ALL THE PARAMETERS

**Scenario** 1: We know all the parameters a,b and c

This scenario is easy.

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Why?

**Scenario** 1: We know all the parameters a,b and c

Let  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  be a sequence of observed outputs from the PRNG. Then the next output is obtained by simply using the main LCG equation

$$x_{n+1} = (x_n \cdot a + b) \mod c$$

## For example, assuming

$$a = 1103515245$$
 ,  $b = 12345$  ,  $c = 2147483648$ 

if we get an output  $x_n=1337$  the next output will be

$$x_{n+1} = (1337 \cdot 1103515245 + 12345) \mod 21474836$$
  
=  $78628734$ 

## SCENARIO 2: WE DON'T KNOW ANY OF THE PARAMETERS

**Scenario** 2: We don't know the parameters a,b and c

This scenario is a bit more involved.

The attack we'll discuss is based on a cool property of number theory.

# There are also other roads to attack LCGs, following the research published by **George Marsaglia** in 1968

#### RANDOM NUMBERS FALL MAINLY IN THE PLANES

By George Marsaglia

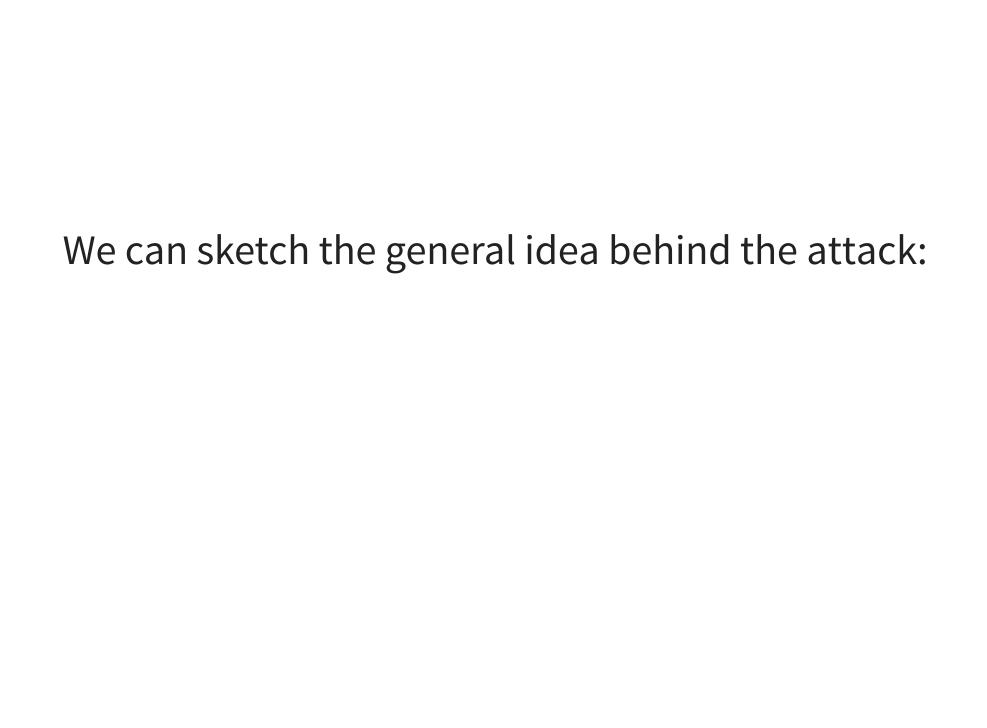
MATHEMATICS RESEARCH LABORATORY, BOEING SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH LABORATORIES, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

Communicated by G. S. Schairer, June 24, 1968

Virtually all the world's computer centers use an arithmetic procedure for generating random numbers. The most common of these is the multiplicative congruential generator first suggested by D. H. Lehmer. In this method, one merely multiplies the current random integer I by a constant multiplier K and keeps the remainder after overflow:

new  $I = K \times \text{old } I \mod M$ .

Article



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- Then we compute the modulus c
- Then we compute the multiplier a
- Then we compute the increment *b*

**Step 1/3**: Computing the modulus c

## Computing c (1/11)

Let  $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n$  be the observed sequence of outputs. We define

$$t_n := x_{n+1} - x_n$$
 ,  $n = 0, \dots, n-1$ 

$$u_n := |t_{n+2} \cdot t_n - t_{n+1}^2| \quad , \quad n = 0, \dots, n-3$$

## Computing c (2/11)

Then with **high probability** we have that

$$c=\gcd(u_1,u_2,u_3,\ldots,u_{n-3})$$

where

 $\gcd \longrightarrow \operatorname{Greatest} \operatorname{Common} \operatorname{Divisor}$ 

## Computing c (3/11)

## Code to compute the modulus $oldsymbol{c}$

```
def compute_modulus(outputs):
    ts = []
    for i in range(0, len(outputs) - 1):
        ts.append(outputs[i+1] - outputs[i])

us = []
    for i in range(0, len(ts)-2):
        us.append(abs(ts[i+2]*ts[i] - ts[i+1]**2))

modulus = reduce(math.gcd, us) #!
    return modulus
```

(code/example-6-attack-lcg.py)

## Computing c (4/11)

**Q**: Why does that even work?

## Computing c (5/11)

### Remember how we defined $t_n$

$$egin{aligned} t_n &= x_{n+1} - x_n \ &= (x_n \cdot a + b) - (x_{n-1} \cdot a + b) \mod c \ &= x_n \cdot a - x_{n-1} \cdot a \mod c \ &= (x_n - x_{n-1}) \cdot a \mod c \ &= t_{n-1} \cdot a \mod c \end{aligned}$$

## Computing c (6/11)

Thus we get

$$t_{n+2} = t_n \cdot a^2 \mod c$$

## Computing c (7/11)

#### This means that

$$egin{aligned} t_{n+2} \cdot t_n - t_{n+1}^2 &= (t_n \cdot a^2) \cdot t_n - (t_n \cdot a)^2 \mod c \ &= (t_n \cdot a)^2 - (t_n \cdot a)^2 \mod c \ &= 0 \mod c \end{aligned}$$

## Computing c (8/11)

Therefore  $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$|u_n = |t_{n+2} \cdot t_n - t_{n+1}^2| = |k \cdot c|$$

## Computing c (8/11)

#### Therefore $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$u_n = |t_{n+2} \cdot t_n - t_{n+1}^2| = |k \cdot c|$$

Said in another way

## Computing c (8/11)

#### Therefore $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$u_n = |t_{n+2} \cdot t_n - t_{n+1}^2| = |k \cdot c|$$

Said in another way

 $u_n$  is a multiple of c!

## Computing c (9/11)

Ok, with this we now know we can compute a bunch of multiples of c starting from a sequence of outputs

$$x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n \longrightarrow t_0, t_1, \ldots, t_{n-1} \ \longrightarrow \underbrace{u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_{n-3}}_{ ext{multiples of } c}$$

## Computing c (10/11)

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The gcd of two random multiples of c will be c with probability

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$$\frac{6}{\pi^2} \approx 0.61$$

## Computing c (11/11)

By taking the gcd of many random multiples of c, there is a very high probability that such gcd will be exactly c.

$$c=\gcd(u_1,u_2,u_3,\ldots,u_{n-3})$$

The more multiples we have, the higher the probability!

**Step 2/3**: Computing the multiplier a

## Computing a (1/3)

Once we have the modulus c, we can obtain the multiplier a by observing that

$$egin{cases} x_1 &= (x_0 \cdot a + b) \mod c \ x_2 &= (x_1 \cdot a + b) \mod c \end{cases}$$

gives us

$$x_1-x_2=a\cdot(x_0-x_1)\mod c$$

## Computing a (2/3)

#### And from

$$x_1-x_2=a\cdot (x_0-x_1) \mod c$$

we get

$$a = (x_1 - x_2) \cdot (x_0 - x_1)^{-1} \mod c$$

## Computing a (3/3)

## Code to compute the multiplier a

```
def compute_multiplier(outputs, modulus):
    term_1 = outputs[1] - outputs[2]
    term_2 = pow(outputs[0] - outputs[1], -1, modulus)
    a = (term_1 * term_2) % modulus
    return a
```

(code/example-6-attack-lcg.py)

**Step 3/3**: Computing the increment b

## Computing b (1/2)

Finally, once we know c and a, we can easily obtain b

$$egin{aligned} x_1 &= (x_0 \cdot a + b) \mod c \ &\Longrightarrow \ b &= (x_1 - x_0 \cdot a) \mod c \end{aligned}$$

## Computing b (1/2)

## Code to compute the increment *b*

```
def compute_increment(outputs, modulus, a):
   b = (outputs[1] - outputs[0] * a) % modulus
   return b
```

(code/example-6-attack-lcg.py)

### Putting it all together

```
def main():
    prng = LCG(seed=1337, a=1103515245, b=12345, c=2147483648)
    n = 10
    outputs = []
    for i in range(0, n):
        outputs.append(prng.next())
    c = compute modulus(outputs)
    a = compute multiplier(outputs, c)
    b = compute increment(outputs, c, a)
    print (f"c={c}")
    print (f"a={a}")
    print (f"b={b}")
```

(code/example-6-attack-lcg.py)

```
$ python3 example-6-attack-lcg.py
c=2147483648
a=1103515245
b=12345
```

$$c=2147483648$$
 ,  $a=1103515245$  ,  $b=12345$ 



### WAIT A SEC...

## Let us implement a custom LCG in C with custom parameters

$$a = 2147483629$$

$$b = 2147483587$$

$$c = 2147483647$$

### **Custom LCG implementation** (1/3)

```
uint32 t a = 2147483629;
uint32 t b = 2147483587;
uint32 t c = 2147483647;
uint32 t state;
uint32 t myrand(void) {
  uint32 t val = ((state * a) + b) % c;
  state = val;
  return val;
void mysrand(uint32 t seed) {
  state = seed;
```

(code/example-7-custom-lcg.c)

### **Custom LCG implementation** (2/3)

```
int main(void) {
  mysrand(1337);
  int n = 10;
  for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    printf("%d\n", myrand());
  }
  return 0;
}</pre>
```

(code/example-7-custom-lcg.c)

### **Custom LCG implementation** (3/3)

### By executing it we get

gcc example-7 custom lcg.c -o example-7 custom lcg

```
[leo@archlinux code]$ ./example-7_custom_lcg
2147458185
483737
2138292585
174630137
976994632
764454763
507744979
1090263579
759828418
595645533
```

# Now if we use **example-6**<sub>attacklcg.py</sub> to extract the parameters

```
[leo@archlinux code]$ python3 example-6_attack_lcg.py
c=1
a=0
b=0
```

```
[leo@archlinux code]$ python3 example-6_attack_lcg.py
c=1
a=0
b=0
```

### Why did it fail?

```
[leo@archlinux code]$ python3 example-6_attack_lcg.py
c=1
a=0
b=0
```

### Why did it fail?

Did we break the math somehow?

The mathematical model on which our attack is based assumes to be working with the standard LCG formula

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Is this the case when working with C?

The mathematical model on which our attack is based assumes to be working with the standard LCG formula

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = \text{seed} \\ x_n = (x_{n-1} \cdot a + b) \mod c \end{cases}$$

Is this the case when working with C?
Someone said... what, overflows?

In C every datatype has a fixed number of bytes.

$$\begin{array}{c} uint32\_t \longrightarrow 4 \; bytes \\ \longrightarrow \underbrace{01010101101011100011101010111011}_{32 \; bits} \end{array}$$

When all bytes of a given datatype (uint32\_t) are used, an overflow happens.

### Overflows break our model

The correct model when dealing with overflows is the following one

$$egin{cases} x_0 &= \mathrm{seed} \ \land \ \mathsf{OxFFFFFFF} \ x_n &= (((x_{n-1} \cdot a) \ \land \ \mathsf{OxFFFFFFF}) \ \mod c \end{cases}$$

### When things break down, analyze your models.

(works in all aspects of life)