

# Chapter 7 | Theoretical Constructions of Symmetric-Key Primitives

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Story:

- In chapter 3,
  - we introduced the notion of pseudorandomness
  - and
  - defined some basic crypto primitives
  - including
    - PRGs, PRFs and PRP (pseudorandom permutations).

We showed in Chapter 3 and 4  
that these primitives serve as the  
building blocks for all private-key crypto

As such, it is of great importance to  
understand these from a theoretical point of view

In this chapter  
we formally introduce the concept of  
one-way functions—functions that are  
easy to compute but  
hard to invert  
and how PRGs PRFs and PRPs can be constructed  
from the sole assumption that  
one-way functions exist  
(This is not quite true  
since we are for the most part going to rely on  
one-way *permutations* in this chapter  
But it is known that one-way functions suffice.)

Moreover  
we'll see that one-way functions are  
necessary for "non-trivial" private key crypto.

i.e. the existence of one-way functions

iff

the existence of all (non-trivial) private-key cryptography.

The constructions we show in this chapter  
should be viewed as complementary to the  
constructions of stream ciphers and block ciphers  
discussed in the previous chapter (DID NOT READ □).

The focus of the previous chapter was  
how various crypto primitives are currently realised in practice  
and to introduce some basic approaches and design principles  
that are used.

Somewhat disappointing was the fact that  
none of the constructions we showed  
could be proven secure  
under any weaker (i.e. more reasonable) assumptions.

In contrast  
in the present chapter we will  
prove that it is possible to construct  
PRPs starting from the very mild assumption that  
one-way functions exist.

This assumption is more palatable than  
 say  
 assuming that AES is a pseudorandom permutation  
 both  
 because it is a qualitatively weaker assumption and  
 also because  
 we have a number of candidate,  
 number-theoretic one-way functions  
 that have been studied for  
 many years  
 even before the advent of cryptography  
 (see the very beginning of Chapter 6 for further discussion on this point).

The downside however is  
 that the constructions we show here are  
 all far less efficient than  
 those of Chapter 6 and thus  
 are not actually used.

It remains an important challenge  
 for cryptographers to "bridge this gap" and  
 develop provably secure constructions of  
 pseudorandom generators, functions, and  
 permutations whose efficiency is  
 comparable to the best available stream  
 cipher and block ciphers.

#### Collision resistant hash functions

In contrast to the previous chapter  
 here we do not consider collision-resistant hash functions.

The reason is that  
 constructions of such hash functions from  
 one-way functions are unknown and  
 in fact  
 there is evidence suggesting  
 that such constructions are impossible.

We will turn to provable constructions of collision-resistant hash function  
 based on specific number theoretic assumptions  
 in Section 8.4.2

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Pseudorandom states and  
 Collision Resistant "Quantum  
 Hash function"

## 7.1 One-Way Functions

Story:

- In this section we formally define one-way functions  
 and then briefly discuss candidates  
 that satisfy this definition.
- We see more examples of conjectured OWFs in Ch 8
- We next introduce the notion of  
 hard-core predicates  
 which can be viewed as  
 encapsulating the hardness of inverting a  
 one-way function and  
 will be used extensively in the  
 constructions that follow in subsequent sections.

### 7.1.1 Definition

- A OWF  $f: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$  is

- (a) easy to compute
- (b) yet hard to invert.

- The condition (a) is easy to formalise  
we simply require that  $f$  be computable in poly time.
- We are ultimately interested in building schemes  
that are hard for  
a probabilistic poly time adversary to break (except with negl prob).
- Therefore we formalise the condition (b) as  
it be infeasible for any PPT algorithm to invert  $f$   
i.e. find a preimage of a given value of  $y$   
(except with negligible probability).

A technical point is that  
this probability is taken over  
an experiment in which  
 $y$  is generated by choosing a  
uniform element  $x$  of the domain of  $f$   
and then setting  $y := f(x)$   
(rather than choosing  $y$  uniformly from the range of  $f$ ).

The reason for this should become clear  
from the constructions we will see  
in the remainder of the chapter.

- Let  $f: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$  be a function.  
Consider the following experiment for  
any algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  and any value  $n$  for the security parameter:

Invert <sub>$\mathcal{A}, f$</sub> ( $n$ )

$\mathcal{C}$

1.  $x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n$   
 $y = f(x)$

2.

3.  $\text{out} \leftarrow \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x') = y \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

$\mathcal{A}$

$\xrightarrow{y, n}$

$x'$

We stress that  $\mathcal{A}$  need not  
find the original pre-image  $x$

it suffices for  $\mathcal{A}$  to find any value  $x'$   
for which  $f(x') = y = f(x)$ .

We give the security parameter  $1^n$  to  $\mathcal{A}$   
in the second step to stress that  
 $\mathcal{A}$  may run in time poly in  
the security parameter  $n$   
regardless of the length of  $y$ .

#### Definition 7.1:

A function  $f: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$  is one-way if  
the following two conditions hold:

1. (Easy to compute)

There exists a poly-time algorithm  $M_f$  computing  $f$   
i.e.  $M_f(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$ .

2. (Hard to invert)

For every PPT algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$   
there is a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that  
 $\Pr[\text{Invert}_{\mathcal{A},f}(n) = 1] \leq \text{negl}(n)$ .

**Notation.**

In this chapter we will often make  
the probability space more explicit  
by subscripting (part of) it  
in the probability notation.

For example

we can succinctly express the  
second requirement in the definition above  
as follows:

For every PPT algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$ ,

there is a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that

$$\Pr_{x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) \in f^{-1}(f(x))] \leq \text{negl}(n).$$

The probability above

is also taken over the  
randomness used by  $\mathcal{A}$   
which here is left implicit.

**Successful inversion of one-way functions.**

A function that is not one-way is  
not necessarily easy to invert all the time  
(or even "often").

Rather,

the converse of the second condition of

Definition 7.1 is that

there exists a PPT algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$

and a non-negligible function  $\gamma$

such that

$\mathcal{A}$  inverts  $f(x)$  with probability at least  $\gamma(n)$

(where the probability is taken over  
uniform choice of  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$   
and  
the randomness of  $\mathcal{A}$ )

This means

in turn

that there exists a positive polynomial  $p(\cdot)$

such that

for **infinitely many values of  $n$** ,

algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  inverts  $f$  with probability at least  $1/p(n)$ .

Thus

if there exists an  $\mathcal{A}$  that inverts  $f$

with probability  $n^{-10}$

for all even values of  $n$

(but always fails to invert  $f$  when  $n$  is odd),

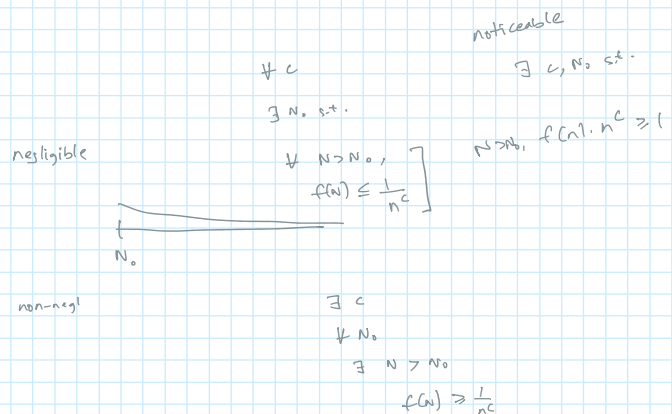
then  $f$  is not one-way

even though  $\mathcal{A}$  only succeeds on

half the values of  $n$  and

only succeeds with probability  $n^{-10}$

(for values of  $n$



where it succeeds at all).

### Exponential-time inversion.

Any one-way function  
can be inverted at any point  $y$  in exponential time  
by simply trying all values  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$  until  
a value  $x$  is found such that  $f(x) = y$ .

Thus

the **existence of one-way functions** is  
inherently an  
assumption about  
*computational complexity* and  
*computational hardness*.

i.e.

it concerns a problem that can be solved  
in principle but  
is assumed to be hard to solve efficiently.

### One-way permutations.

We will often be interested in  
one-way functions  
with additional structural properties.

We say a function  $f$  is **length preserving** if  
 $|f(x)| = |x|$  for all  $x$ .

A one-way function that is

(a) length preserving  
and

(b) one-to-one is called a  
**one-way permutation**.

If  $f$  is a one-way permutation  
then any value  $y$   
has unique preimage  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ .

Nevertheless

it is still hard to find  $x$  in poly time.

### One-way function/permutation families

The above definitions of one-way functions  
and permutations are convenient  
in that they consider a **single function**  
**over an infinite domain and range**.

However

**most candidate** one-way functions and permutations  
**don't fit neatly** into this framework.

**Instead,**

there's an algorithm that generates some  
set  $I$  of parameters which  
define a function  $f_I$ ;  
one wayness here means  
essentially that  
 $f_I$  should be one way with  
all but negligible probability (over the choice of  $I$ )

Because

each value of  $I$  defines a different function  
we now refer to **families** of  
one-way functions (resp. permutations).

### Definition 7.2

A tuple  $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Samp}, f)$  of PPT algorithms is

a *function family* if the following hold:

1. The parameter-generation algorithm  $\text{Gen}$  on input  $1^n$  outputs parameters  $I$  (with  $|I| > n$ ).

Each value of  $I$  output by  $\text{Gen}$  defines  $\mathcal{D}_I$  and  $\mathcal{R}_I$  that constitute the domain and range (resp.) for a function  $f_I$ .

2. The sampling algorithm  $\text{Samp}$  on input  $I$ , outputs a uniformly distributed element of  $\mathcal{D}_I$ .

3. The deterministic evaluation algorithm  $f$  on input  $I$  and  $x \in \mathcal{D}_I$  outputs an element  $y \in \mathcal{R}_I$ .

We write this as  $y := f_I(x)$ .

$\Pi$  is a **permutation family** if for each value  $I$  output by  $\text{Gen}(1^n)$  that

- (a)  $\mathcal{D}_I = \mathcal{R}_I$  and
- (b) the function  $f_I: \mathcal{D}_I \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_I$  is one-to-one (equivalently, in this case a bijection).

Let  $\Pi$  be a function family.

What follows is the natural analogue of the experiment introduced earlier.

The inverting Experiment

$\text{Invert}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}(n)$ :

$\mathcal{C}$

$\mathcal{A}$

1.  $I \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^n)$   
 $x \leftarrow \text{Samp}(I)$   
(samples from  $\mathcal{D}_I$  uniformly)  
 $y := f_I(x)$

2.  $\xrightarrow{I, y}$   
 $\xleftarrow{x'}$

3. out 1 if  $f_I(x') = y$   
 0 else

### Definition 7.3

A function/permutation family  $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Samp}, f)$  is one-way if for all PPT algorithms  $\mathcal{A}$  there is a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that

$$\Pr[\text{Invert}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}(n) = 1] \leq \text{negl}(n).$$

Story:

Throughout this chapter  
we work with OWF/OWP over an infinite domain  
(as in Definition 7.1)  
rather than working with  
families of OWFs/OWPs.

This is primarily for convenience  
(does not significantly affect any of the results; Ex 7.7).

### 7.1.2 Candidate One-Way Functions

Story:

- One-way functions are of interest only if they exist.
  - We do not know how to prove they exist unconditionally  
(this would be a major breakthrough in complexity theory)  
  
so we must conjecture/assume their existence.
  - Such a conjecture is based on the fact that  
several natural computational problems  
have received much attention  
and yet  
have no PPT algorithm for solving them.
  - Perhaps the most famous such problem  
is integer factorisation  
i.e. finding the prime factors of a large integer.
  - It is easy to multiply two numbers  
and obtain their product  
but difficult to take a number  
and find its factors.
  - This leads us to define the function  
 $f_{mult}(x, y) = x \cdot y$ .
    - If we don't place any restriction on  
the lengths of  $x$  and  $y$   
then  $f_{mult}$  is easy to invert  
  
with high prob.  $xy$  is even  
and so  $(2, \frac{xy}{2})$  is an inverse
    - this issue can be addressed  
by restricting the domain of  $f_{mult}$   
to equal length primes  $x$  and  $y$
    - Idea discussed again in Section 8.2

- Another candidate OWF  
not relying directly on number theory  
is based on the  
subset-sum problem and is defined by

$$f_{ss}(x_1 \dots x_n, J) = \left( x_1 \dots x_n, \left[ \sum_{j \in J} x_j \bmod 2^n \right] \right)$$

where each  $x_i$  is an  $n$ -bit string  
interpreted as an integer and  
 $J$  is an  $n$ -bit string interpreted as  
specifying a subset of  $\{1 \dots n\}$ .

Inverting  $f_{ss}$  on an output  
 $(x_1 \dots x_n, y)$  requires finding a subset  
 $J' \subseteq \{1 \dots n\}$   
such that

< Kishor: Check connection NP completeness

$$\sum_{j \in J'} x_j = y \bmod 2^n$$

Students who have studied NP-completeness  
may recall that this problem NP-complete.

But even  $P \neq NP$

does not imply that  $f_{ss}$  is one way:

$P \neq NP$  would mean that  
every PPT algorithm  
fails to solve the subset sum problem  
on **at least** one input  
whereas for  $f_{ss}$  to be a OWF  
it is required that every PPT algorithm  
fails to solve the subset sum problem  
(at least for certain parameters)  
**almost always**.

Thus our belief that the  
function above is one-way is  
based on the lack of known algorithms  
to solve this problem even with "small" probability  
on random inputs  
and not merely on the fact that the problem is NP complete.

- We conclude by showing  
a family of **permutations** that is  
believed to be one-way
- Let Gen be a PPT algorithm:  
input:  $1^n$   
output:  
n-bit prime  $p$  and  
 $g \in \{2 \dots p-1\}$  (a special element).  
  
Require: the element  $g$  should be a generator of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$
- Let Samp be an algorithm that  
Input:  $p, g$  (numbers); (me:  $g$  seems redundant here)  
output:  $x \in \{1 \dots p-1\}$ .
- Definition:  
 $f_{p,g}(x) = [g^x \bmod p]$   
  
(assertion:  $f_{p,g}$  can be computed efficiently,  
follows from the results in Appendix B.2.3)
- Claims:
  - It can be shown that this function is one-to-one  
and thus a permutation.
  - The presumed difficulty of inverting this function  
is based on the conjectured hardness  
of the discrete-log problem  
(We'll say more about this in Section 8.3)
- Remarks
  - Very efficient OWF can be obtained from  
practical crypto constructions such as  
SHA1 or AES under the assumption that  
they are collision resistant  
or  
pseudorandom permutation  
respectively;
  - Technically speaking  
they cannot satisfy the definition of OWFs since  
they have fixed length i/o  
and so one cannot look at their asymptotic behaviour  
Nonetheless,



it's plausible to conjecture they are OW in a concrete sense.

### 7.1.3 Hard-core Predicates

- Story:
  - By definition
    - a OWF is hard to invert.
  - Stated differently:
    - given  $y = f(x)$ 
      - the value  $x$  cannot be computed in its entirety
      - by any PPT algorithm
      - (except with negligible prob; we ignore this here).
    - One might get the impression that
      - nothing about  $x$  can be determined from  $f(x)$  in poly time.
    - This is *not* necessarily the case
    - Indeed, it is possible for  $f(x)$  to "leak" a lot of information about  $x$  even if  $f$  is one-way.
    - For a trivial example
      - let  $g$  be a one-way function and define
      - $f(x_1, x_2) := (x_1, g(x_2))$
      - where  $|x_1| = |x_2|$ .
    - It is easy to show that  $f$  is also a OWF
    - (this is straightforward)
    - even though it reveals half its input.
  - For our applications
    - we will need to identify a specific piece of information about  $x$  that is "hidden" by  $f(x)$ .
  - This motivates the notion of a "hardcore predicate"
    - A hard-core predicate  $hc: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  of a function  $f$ 
      - has the property that  $hc(x)$  is
      - hard to compute with probability
      - significantly better than  $1/2$  given  $f(x)$ .
    - Since  $hc$  is a boolean function
      - it is always possible to compute  $hc(x)$
      - with probability  $1/2$  by random guessing.

Formally:

#### Definition 7.4

A function  $hc: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  is  
a hard-core predicate of a function  $f$  if

$hc$  can be computed in poly time and

for every PPT algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$

there is a  $\text{negl}$  such that

$$\Pr_{x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} \left[ \mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = hc(x) \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}(n)$$

where the probability is taken over the uniform choice of  $x$  in  $\{0,1\}^n$   
and  
the randomness of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Remarks:

- We stress that  $\text{hc}(x)$  is efficiently computable given  $x$   
(since the function  $\text{hc}$  can be computed in PT).
  - The definition requires that  $\text{hc}(x)$   
is hard to compute given  $f(x)$
- The above definition does not require  
 $f$  to be a OWF/OWP.

if  $f$  is a permutation  
however  
then it cannot have a hard-core predicate  
unless it is one-way.

(Exercise 7.13)

< Exercise 7.13

Simple ideas don't work.

- Consider the predicate  
 $\text{hc}(x) := \bigoplus_{i=1}^n x_i$   
where  $x_1 \dots x_n$  denotes the bits of  $x$

One might hope that this is a hard-core predicate of  
any OWF  $f$ :  
if  $f$  cannot be inverted  
then  $f(x)$  must hide at least  
one of the bits  $x_i$  of its preimage  $x$   
which would seem to imply that the  
XOR of all the bits of  $x$  is hard to compute.

Despite its appeal  
this argument is incorrect.

To see this  
let  $g$  be a OWF and define  
 $f(x) := (g(x), \bigoplus_i x_i)$

It is not hard to show that  $f$  is OW  
(suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  inverts  $f$ ; feed it  $g(x)$  and simply guess the  
second input; use both answers  $x', x''$  produced by  $\mathcal{A}$   
and check if  $g(x') = g(x)$  or  $g(x'') = g(x)$ )

However  
it is clear that  $f(x)$  does not hide the value of  $\text{hc}(x) =$   
 $\bigoplus_i x_i$   
because this is part of its output  
therefore  $\text{hc}(x)$  is not a hard-core predicate of  $f$ .

Extending this,  
one can show that for any fixed predicate  $\text{hc}$   
there is always a OWF  $f$   
for which  $\text{hc}$  is not a hard-core predicate of  $f$ .

Trivial hard-core predicates.

- Some functions have "trivial" hard-core predicates.  
E.g. let  $f$  be the function that drops the last bit of its input  
i.e.  $f(x_1 \dots x_n) = x_1 \dots x_{n-1}$   
It is hard to determine  $x_n$  given  $f(x)$   
since  $x_n$  is independent of the output

thus,  $hc(x) = x_n$  is a hard-core predicate of  $f$ .

- However,  $f$  is not one-way
- When we use hard-core predicates for our constructions for our constructions it will become clear why trivial hard-core predicates this sort are of no use.

## 7.2 From One-Way Functions to Pseudorandomness

Story:

- The goal of this chapter is to show how to construct PRGs, PRF/PRPs from OWF/OWPs (pseudorandom generators functions and permutations based on any OWF/OWP).
  - In this section we give an overview of these constructions.
  - Details are given in the sections that follow.

### A hard-core predicate from any one-way function

Story:

The first step is to show that a hard-core predicate exists for any OWF.

Actually

it remains open whether this is true

We show something weaker that suffices for our purposes.

i.e. we show that given a OWF  $f$  we can construct a *different* OWF  $g$  along with a hard-core predicate of  $g$ .

#### Theorem 7.5 (Goldreich-Levin theorem).

Assume one-way functions (resp. permutations) exist.

Then there exists

a one-way function (resp. permutation)  $g$   
and  
a hard-core predicate  $hc$  of  $g$ .

Construction:

- Let  $f$  be a one-way function.  
Functions  $g$  and  $hc$  are constructed as follows:

set  $g(x, r) := (f(x), r)$  for  $|x| = |r|$

and define

$hc(x, r) := \bigoplus_i x_i \cdot r_i$ .

Here,  $x_i$  denotes the  $i$ th bit of  $x$  (similarly for  $r$ ).

- NB:
    - if  $r$  is uniform
    - then  $\text{hc}(x, r)$  outputs the XOR
    - of a random subset of the bits of  $x$
- (When  $r_i = 1$  the bit  $x_i$  is included in the XOR otherwise it is not).

Story:

- The Goldreich-Levin theorem, essentially states,
  - that if  $f$  is a OWF then
  - $f(x)$  hides the XOR of a *random subset* of the bits of  $x$ .

Pseudorandom generators from one-way permutations.

- The next step is to show
  - a hard-core predicate of a one-way *permutation*
  - can be used to construct a pseudorandom generator
  - (It is known that a hard-core predicate of
  - a OW *function* suffices
  - but the proof is extremely complicated and
  - beyond the scope of this book).
- Specifically, we show:

**Theorem 7.6**

Let

- $f$  be a OW permutation and
- $\text{hc}$  be a hard-core predicate of  $f$ .

Then

$G(s) := f(s) || \text{hc}(s)$   
is a pseudorandom generator  
with expansion factor  $\ell(n) = n + 1$ .

Story:

- As intuition for why  $G$  as defined in the theorem constitutes a PRG
  - note first that the initial  $n$  bits of the output of  $G(s)$
  - (i.e. the bits of  $f(s)$ ) are
  - truly uniformly distributed when  $s$  is uniformly distributed
  - by virtue of the fact that  $f$  is a permutation.
- Next
  - the fact that  $\text{hc}$  is a hard-core predicate of  $f$
  - means that  $\text{hc}(s)$  "looks random"
  - i.e. is pseudorandom
  - even given  $f(s)$
  - (assuming again that  $s$  is uniform).
- Putting these observations together
  - we see that the entire output of  $G$  is pseudorandom.

Pseudorandom generators with arbitrary expansion.

Story:

- The existence of a PRG that stretches its seed
  - by even a single bit (as we have just seen)
  - is already highly non-trivial.
- But for applications
  - (e.g. for efficient encryption of large messages as in Section 3.3)
  - we need a pseudorandom generator with
  - much larger expansion.
- Fortunately, one can obtain any poly expansion factor we want.

### Theorem 7.7

If there exists a PRG (pseudorandom generator) with expansion factor  $\ell(n) = n + 1$  then for any polynomial poly there exists a PRG with expansion factor  $\text{poly}(n)$ .

Story:

- We conclude that pseudorandom generators with arbitrary (poly) expansion can be constructed from any one-way permutation.

### Pseudorandom functions/permutations from pseudorandom generators.

- Pseudorandom generators suffice for constructing EAV-secure private-key encryption schemes
- For achieving CPA-secure private-key encryption (not to mention message authentication codes), however, we relied on *pseudo-random functions*.
- The following shows that the latter can be obtained from the former

Ciphertext only  
Known plaintext attack [Eav]  
CPA  
CCA

### Theorem 7.8

If there exists a pseudorandom generator with expansion factor  $\ell(n) = 2n$  then there exists a pseudorandom function.

Story:

- In fact we can do even more:

### Theorem 7.9

If there exists a PRF, then there exists a strong pseudorandom permutation.

Story:

- Combining all the above theorems as well as the results of Chapter 3 and 4 we have the following corollaries:

### Corollary 7.10

Assuming the existence of one-way permutations there exist

- pseudorandom generators with any poly expansion factor,
- PRFs
- strong pseudorandom permutations.

### Corollary 7.11

Assuming the existence of one-way permutations there exist

- CCA-secure private-key encryption schemes and
- secure message authentication codes.

**DEFINITION 3.28** Let  $F : \{0,1\}^* \times \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$  be an efficient, length-preserving, keyed permutation.  $F$  is a **strong pseudorandom permutation** if for all probabilistic polynomial-time distinguishers  $D$ , there exists a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that:

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

where the first probability is taken over uniform choice of  $k \in \{0,1\}^n$  and the randomness of  $D$ , and the second probability is taken over uniform choice of  $f \in \text{Perm}_n$  and the randomness of  $D$ .

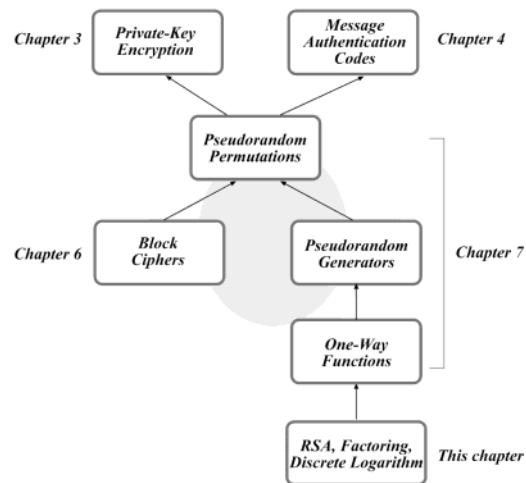


FIGURE 8.1: Private-key cryptography: a top-down approach.

Story:

- As noted earlier  
it is possible to obtain all these results  
based solely on the existence of OWFs.

### 7.3 Hard-Core Predicates from OWFs

#### Theorem 7.12

Let  $f$  be a OWF and define  
 $g$  by  $g(x, r) := (f(x), r)$  where  $|x| = |r|$ .

Define  $gl(x, r) := \bigoplus_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot r_i$   
where  $x = x_1 \dots x_n$  and  
 $r = r_1 \dots r_n$ .

Then  $gl$  is a hard-core predicate of  $g$ .

< Looks like Theorem 7.5 explicitly

Goldreich-Levin

Story:

Due to the complexity of the proof  
we prove three successively stronger results  
culminating in what is claimed in the theorem.

#### 7.3.1 A simple case

Story:

- We first show that  
if there exists a poly time adversary  $A$   
that always correctly computes  $gl(x, r)$   
given  
 $g(x, r) = (f(x), r)$   
then  
it is possible to invert  $f$  in poly time.
- Given the assumption that  $f$   
is a OWF, it follows that  
no such adversary  $A$  can exist.

#### Proposition 7.13

Let  $f$  and  $gl$  be as in Theorem 7.12.

If there exists a poly time algorithm  $A$  such that

$$A(f(x), r) = gl(x, r) \text{ for all } n \text{ and all } x, r \in \{0, 1\}^n$$

then there exists a poly-time algorithm  $A'$  such that

$$A'(1^n, f(x)) = x \text{ for all } n \text{ and all } x \in \{0, 1\}^n.$$

## Proof

We construct  $A'$  as follows:

- $A'(1^n, y)$ 
  - computes  $x_i := A(y, e_i)$   
(here  $e_i = (00 \dots 010 \dots 00)$  at the  $i$ th position, it has 1; zero otherwise)
  - outputs  $x = (x_1 \dots x_n)$
- NB:  $A'$  runs in poly time
- In the execution of  $A'(1^n, f(\hat{x}))$   
the value  $x_i$  computed by  $A'$  satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= A(f(\hat{x}), e^i) \\ &= gl(\hat{x}, e^i) \\ &= \bigoplus_{j=1}^n \hat{x}_j \cdot e_{ij} \\ &= \hat{x}_i. \end{aligned}$$

- Clearly,  $\hat{x} = x$  (me: forget about the hats; doesn't help here)

□

## Story:

- If  $f$  is one-way  
it is impossible for any PPT algorithm to invert  $f$   
with non-negl prob.
- Thus  
we conclude that  
there is no PPT algorithm that always correctly computes  
 $gl(x, r)$  from  $(f(x), r)$ .
- This is a rather weak result that is  
very far from our ultimate goal of showing that  
 $gl(x, r)$  cannot be computed (wp significantly better than  $1/2$ )  
given  $(f(x), r)$ .

## 7.3.2 A more involved case

### Story:

- We now show that it is hard  
for any PPT algorithm  $A$   
to compute  $gl(x, r)$  from  $(f(x), r)$   
with prob significantly better than  $3/4$ .
  - We will again show that any such  $A$   
would imply the existence of a poly-time algorithm  $A'$   
that inverts  $f$  with non-negl prob
  - Notice that the strategy in the proof of Prop 7.13  
fails here  
because it may be that  $A$  never succeeds when  $r = e_i$   
(although it may succeed, say, on all other values of  $r$ )
  - Furthermore, in the present case  $A'$  does not know  
if the result  $A(f(x), r)$  is equal to  $gl(x, r)$  or not.
- the only thing  $A'$  knows is that  
with high prob, algorithm  $A$  is correct.

This further complicates the proof.

#### Proposition 7.14

Let  $f$  and  $gl$  be as in Theorem 7.12.

If there exists a PPT algorithm  $A$

and

a polynomial  $p$  such that

$$\Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} \left[ A(f(x), r) = gl(x, r) \right] \geq \frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

for infinitely many values of  $n$ ,

then

there exists a PPT algorithm  $A'$  such that

$$\Pr_{x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} \left[ A'(1^n, f(x)) \in f^{-1}(f(x)) \right] \geq \frac{1}{4 \cdot p(n)}$$

for infinitely many values  $n$ .

#### Proof

- The main observation underlying the proof of this proposition is that for every  $r \in \{0,1\}^n$  the values  $gl(x, r \oplus e_i)$  and  $gl(x, r)$  together can be used to compute the  $i$ th bit of  $x$ .

- This is true because

$$\begin{aligned} gl(x, r) \oplus gl(x, r \oplus e_i) &= \left( \bigoplus_{j=1}^n x_j \cdot r_j \right) \oplus \left( \bigoplus_{j=1}^n x_j \cdot (r_j \oplus e_{ij}) \right) \\ &= \left( \cancel{x_1 r_1} \oplus \cancel{x_2 r_2} \oplus \dots \oplus \cancel{x_n r_n} \right) \oplus \left( \cancel{x_1 r_1} \oplus \dots \oplus x_i \cdot \bar{r}_i \oplus \dots \oplus \cancel{x_n r_n} \right) \\ &= x_i \cdot r_i \oplus (x_i \cdot \bar{r}_i) \\ &= x_i \end{aligned}$$

where  $\bar{r}_i$  is the complement of  $r_i$  and the second equality is due to the fact that for  $j \neq i$  the value  $x_j \cdot r_j$  appears in both sums and so is cancelled out.

- The above demonstrates that if  $A$  answers correctly on both  $(f(x), r)$  and  $(f(x), r \oplus e_i)$  then  $A'$  can correctly compute  $x_i$ .
  - Unfortunately,  $A'$  does not know when  $A$  answers correctly (and when it does not).
  - For this reason,  $A'$  will use multiple random values of  $r$  using each one to obtain an estimate of  $x_i$  and will then take the estimate occurring a majority of the time as its final guess for  $x_i$ .



- As a preliminary step we show that for many  $x$ 's the probability that  $A$  answers correctly for both  $(f(x), r)$  and  $(f(x), r \oplus e_i)$  when  $r$  is uniform is sufficiently high.

This allows us to fix  $x$  and then focus solely on uniform choice of  $r$  which makes the analysis easier.

#### Claim 7.15

Let  $n$  be such that

$$\Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(x, r)] \geq \frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

Then there exists a set  $S_n \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$  of size at least  $\frac{1}{2p(n)} \cdot 2^n$  such that for every  $x \in S_n$  it holds that

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(x, r)] \geq \frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{2p(n)}.$$

Proof:

Let  $\epsilon(n) = 1/p(n)$  and

define  $S_n \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$  to be the set of all  $x$ 's for which

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(x, r)] \geq \frac{3}{4} + \frac{\epsilon(n)}{2}.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(x, r)] &= \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(x, r)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{x \in S_n} \underbrace{\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [\dots]}_{\leq 1} + \sum_{x \notin S_n} \underbrace{\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [\dots]}_{\leq \frac{3}{4} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}} \\ &\leq \frac{|S_n|}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^n} \cdot \underbrace{\sum_{x \notin S_n} 1}_{\leq 1} \left( \frac{3}{4} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \right) \\ &\leq \frac{|S_n|}{2^n} + \left( \frac{3}{4} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$\frac{3}{4} + \epsilon(n) \leq$

$$\therefore \frac{3}{4} + \epsilon(n) \leq \Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(x, r)]$$

$$\frac{3}{4} + \frac{\epsilon(n)}{2} \leq \frac{|S_n|}{2^n} + \frac{3}{4} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow |S_n| \geq \frac{\epsilon(n)}{2} \cdot 2^n$$

□

Story:

- The following now follows as an easy consequence.

### Claim 7.16

Let  $n$  be such that

$$\Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g_l(x, r)] \geq \frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

Then there exists a set  $S_n \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$  of size at least  $\frac{1}{2p(n)} \cdot 2^n$  such that for every  $x \in S_n$  and every  $i$  it holds that

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g_l(x, r) \wedge A(f(x), r \oplus e_i) = g_l(x, r \oplus e_i)] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

Proof.

- Let  $\epsilon(n) = 1/p(n)$  and take  $S_n$  to be the set guaranteed by the previous claim.
- For any  $x \in S_n$  we have that

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) \neq g_l(x, r)] \leq \frac{1}{4} - \frac{\epsilon(n)}{2}$$

- Fix  $i \in \{1 \dots n\}$ .
  - if  $r$  is uniformly distributed, then so is  $r \oplus e_i$  and thus

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r \oplus e_i) \neq g_l(x, r \oplus e_i)] \leq \frac{1}{4} - \frac{\epsilon(n)}{2}$$

- We are interested in lower bounding the prob that  $A$  outputs the correct answer for both  $g_l(x, r)$  and  $g_l(x, r \oplus e_i)$ ; equivalently, we want to upper bound the probability that  $A$  fails to output the correct answer in *either* of these cases.

Note that  $r$  and  $r \oplus e_i$  are not independent so we cannot just multiply the probabilities of failures.

However, we can apply the union (see Prop A7) and sum the probabilities of failure.

That is the probability that  $A$  is *incorrect* on either  $g_l(x, r)$  or  $g_l(x, r \oplus e_i)$  is at most

$$\left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{\epsilon(n)}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{\epsilon(n)}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2} - \epsilon(n)$$

and so  $A$  is correct on *both*  $g_l(x, r)$  and  $g_l(x, r \oplus e_i)$  with probability *at least*  $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon(n)$ .

This proves the claim.

□

Story:

- For the rest of the proof we set  $\epsilon(n) = 1/p(n)$  and consider only those values of  $n$  for which

$$\Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} \left[ A(f(x), r) = g^{-1}(f(x), r) \right] \geq \frac{3}{4} + \epsilon(n). \quad [7.1]$$

- The previous claim states that  
for an  $\frac{\epsilon(n)}{2}$  fraction of inputs  $x$  and  
for any  $i$   
algorithm  $A$  answers correctly on both  
 $(f(x), r)$  and  $(f(x), r \oplus e_i)$  with  
probability at least  $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$   
over uniform choice of  $r$ .

And from now on, we focus only on such values of  $x$ .

- We construct a PPT algorithm  $A'$  that inverts  $f(x)$   
with prob at least  $1/2$  when  $x \in S_n$ .

- This suffices to prove Prop 7.14  
since then, for infinitely many  $n$ s,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_{x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} \left[ A'(1^n, f(x)) \in f^{-1}(f(x)) \right] \\ & \geq \underbrace{\Pr_{x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} \left[ A'(1^n, f(x)) \in f^{-1}(f(x)) \mid x \in S_n \right]}_{\geq \frac{1}{2}} \cdot \underbrace{\Pr_{x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [x \in S_n]}_{\frac{\epsilon}{2}} \quad \text{Recall: } \frac{|S_n|}{2^n} = \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\ & = \frac{1}{4\epsilon(n)}. \end{aligned}$$

- Algorithm  $A'$  given as input  $1^n$  and  $y$  works as follows:

- For  $i = 1 \dots n$  do
  - Repeatedly,  
choose a uniform  $r \in \{0,1\}^n$  and  
compute  $A(y, r) \oplus A(y, r \oplus e_i)$  as an  
"estimate" for the  $i$ th bit of the preimage of  $y$ .
  - After doing this sufficiently many times (detailed below)  
let  $x_i$  be the "estimate" that occurs a majority of the time.
- Output  $x = x_1 \dots x_n$ .

We sketch an analysis of the probability that  $A'$  correctly inverts its given input  $y$   
(we allow ourselves to be a bit laconic  
since a full proof for the more difficult case is given in the following section)

- Say  $y = f(\hat{x})$  and  
recall that we assume here that  $n$  is such that Eq 7.1 holds  
and  
 $\hat{x} \in S_n$ .
- Fix some  $i$ .
- The previous claim implies that the estimate  $A(y, r) \oplus A(y, r \oplus e_i)$

equals  $gl(\hat{x}, e_i)$  with prob at least  $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$   
over the choice of  $r$ .

- By obtaining enough estimates and  
letting  $x_i$  be the majority value  $\leftarrow x_i$  is a random variable  
 $A'$  can ensure that  $x_i$  equals  $gl(\hat{x}, e_i)$  with prob at least  $1 - \frac{1}{2n}$ .

< So the full string  
one should be able to recover  
with prob  $1 - \frac{n}{2n} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

- Of course  
we need to ensure that poly many estimates are enough.
- Fortunately  
since  $\epsilon(n) = 1/p(n)$  for some poly  $p$  and  
an independent value of  $r$  is used for each estimate,  
the Chernoff bound shows that poly many estimates suffice.
- Putting it together:  
we have that for each  $i$  the value  $x_i$  computed by  $A'$  is  
incorrect with probability at most  $\frac{1}{2n}$ .

A union bound thus shows that  $A'$  is  
incorrect for *some*  $i$  with probability at most  $n \cdot \frac{1}{2n} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

That is,  $A'$  is correct for all  $i$ —and thus correctly inverts  $y$ —with prob  
at least  $1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

This completes the proof of Prop 7.14

□

Story:

- A corollary of Prop 7.14 is that  
if  $f$  is a OWF then  
for any poly-time algorithm  $A$   
prob that  $A$  correctly guesses  $gl(x, r)$   
when given  $(f(x), r)$   
is at most negligibly more than  $3/4$ .  
< PPT should also be fine  
(as far as I can tell)

### 7.3.3 The Full Proof

Story:

- We assume familiarity with the simplified proofs  
in the previous sections, and  
build on the ideas developed there.
- We rely on some terminology and  
standard results from  
prob theory discussed in Appendix A.3
- We prove the following  
which implies Theorem 7.12

**THEOREM 7.12** Let  $f$  be a one-way function and define  $g$  by  $g(x, r) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (f(x), r)$ , where  $|x| = |r|$ . Define  $gl(x, r) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigoplus_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot r_i$ , where  $x = x_1 \cdots x_n$  and  $r = r_1 \cdots r_n$ . Then  $gl$  is a hard-core predicate of  $g$ .

#### Proposition 7.17

Let  $f$  and  $gl$  be as in Theorem 7.12.

If there exists a PPT algorithm  $A$  and a poly  $p$  such that

$$\Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} \left[ A(f(x), r) = gl(x, r) \right] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{p}$$

for infinitely many values of  $n$ ,  
then  
there exists a PPT algorithm  $A'$  and a poly  $p'$  such that

$$\Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A'(r, f(x)) \in f^{-1}(f(x))] \geq \frac{1}{p'(n)}$$

for infinitely many values of  $n$ .

**Proof.**

Once again

we set  $\epsilon(n) = 1/p(n)$  and  
consider only those values of  $n$   
for which

$$\Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(r, x)] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{p(n)}$$

Story:

- The following is analogous to Claim 7.15 and is proved in the same way.

**Claim 7.18**

Let  $n$  be such that

$$\Pr_{x, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(r, x)] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon(n)$$

Then, there exists a set  $S_n \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$  of size at least  $\frac{\epsilon}{2} \cdot 2^n$  such that for every  $x \in S_n$  it holds that

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(r, x)] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon(n)}{2}$$

<crucially, the  $x$  dependence  
is removed and yet the size of  
 $S$  is a fraction  $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$  of the  
total set of strings

(recall: the proof from the previous time goes through for essentially any constant  
(did not have to be  $3/4$  or even  $1/2$ ).

Story:

- If we start by trying to prove an analogue of Claim 7.16  
the best one can claim here is that  
when  $x \in S_n$ , one has

$$\Pr_{x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [A(f(x), r) = g(r, x) \wedge A(f(x), r \oplus e_i) = g(r, r \oplus e_i)] \geq \epsilon(n)$$

for any  $i$ .

- Thus,  
if we try to use  $A(f(x), r) \oplus A(f(x), r \oplus e_i)$   
as an estimate for  $x_i$   
all we can claim is that  
this estimate will be correct  
with probability at least  $\epsilon$   
which may not be better than taking a random guess!

We cannot claim that flipping the result  
gives a good estimate either.  
(i.e.  $\neg$  of the estimate would also be a bad estimate)

- Instead,

we design  $A'$  so that  
it computes  $gl(x, r)$  and  $gl(x, r \oplus e_i)$  by  
invoking  $A$  only once.

We do this by having  $A'$  run  $A(f(x), r \oplus e_i)$   
and having  $A'$  simply  
"guess" the value  $gl(x, r)$  itself.

The naive way to do this  
would be to choose the  $r$ s independently  
(as before)  
and have  $A'$  make an independent guess of  
 $gl(x, r)$  for each value of  $r$ .

But then  
the probability that  
all such guesses are correct—which, as we will see, is necessary  
if  $A'$  is to output the correct inverse—  
would be negligible because poly many  $r$ 's are used.

(current understanding:  
Draw many  $r$ s  
for each  $r$   
compute  $A(f(x), r \oplus e_i)$  and guess  $gl(x, r)$   
Since there are many  $r$ s  
guessing  $gl$  for each correctly  
would happen with negligible probability.)

As we will see,  
the guesses must all be correct  
for  $A'$  to produce the correct inverse)

The crucial observation of the present proof is that  
 $A'$  can generate the  $r$ 's in a  
pairwise independent manner and  
make its guesses in a particular way  
so that with  
non-negl probability  
as all its guesses are correct.

Specifically, in order to generate  $m$  values of  $r$   
we have  $A'$  select  
 $\ell = \log(m + 1)$   
independent and uniformly distributed strings  
 $s^1 \dots s^\ell \in \{0, 1\}^n$

(To generate  $m$  samples  
it first samples  $\ell$  many  $s$ s of length  $n$   
where  $\ell$  is the number of bits  
needed to store  $m$ )

Then  
for every non-empty subset  $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, \ell\}$   
we set  $r^I := \bigoplus_{i \in I} s^i$ .

Since there are  $2^\ell - 1$  nonempty subsets  
(2 choices for each element; remove the null set)  
this defines a collection of  
 $2^{\log(m+1)} - 1 \geq m$  strings.  
(for us it is equal but take ceiling of  $\log$ ).

[Intuition: sample  $\ell$  strings;  
produce a new string by XORING a subset  $I \subseteq \{1 \dots \ell\}$   
and this will allow you to output  
 $\sim 2^\ell$  that are "independent", todo check  
No, only pairwise; read below]

Since there are  $2^\ell - 1$  nonempty subsets  
this defines a collection of  $2^{\log m + 1} - 1 \geq m$  strings.

The strings are not independent but

they are pairwise independent.

To see this

notice that for every two subsets  $I \neq J$   
there is an index  $j \in I \cup J$   
such that  $j \notin I \cap J$ .

Without loss of generality  
assume  $j \notin I$ .

Then, the value of  $s^j$  is uniform and  
independent of the value of  $r^I$  (highlighted above).

Since  $s^j$  is included in the XOR that defines  $r^I$   
this implies that  
 $r^I$  is uniform and independent of  $r^I$  as well.

We now have the following two important observations

1. Given  $gl(x, s^1) \dots gl(x, s^\ell)$   
it is possible to compute  $gl(x, r^I)$   
for every subset  $I \subseteq \{1 \dots \ell\}$ .

This is because

$$gl(x, r^I) =$$

$$\begin{aligned} & gl(x, \bigoplus_{i \in I} s^i) \\ &= \bigoplus_{j=1}^n \left[ x[j] \oplus \left( \bigoplus_{i \in I} s^i \right) [j] \right] \\ &= \bigoplus_{i \in I} \left( \bigoplus_{j=1}^n x[j] \oplus s^i[j] \right) \end{aligned}$$

$s^i$  is first,  
then XOR

$$= \bigoplus_{i \in I} gl(x, s^i)$$

XOR first,  
then  $s^i$

2. If  $A'$  simply guesses the values of  
 $gl(x, s^1) \dots gl(x, s^\ell)$   
by choosing a uniform bit for each,  
then all guesses will be correct  
with probability  $1/2^\ell$ .

If  $m$  is polynomial in the security parameter  $n$   
then  $1/2^\ell$  is not negligible  
and so

with non-negligible probability  $A'$   
correctly guesses all the values  
 $gl(x, s^1) \dots gl(x, s^\ell)$ .

Combining the above

yields a way of obtaining  $m = \text{poly}(n)$  uniform and  
pairwise-independent strings  $\{r^I\}$   
along with correct values for  $\{gl(x, r^I)\}$   
with non-negligible probability.

These values can then be used

to compute  $x_i$   
in the same way, as in the proof of Proposition 7.14.

Details follow:

**The inversion algorithm  $A'$ .**

We now provide

a full description of an algorithm  $A'$   
that receives inputs  $1^n, y$   
and tries to compute an inverse of  $y$ .

The algorithm proceeds as follows:

1. Set  $\ell := \log\left(\frac{2n}{\epsilon^2}\right) + 1$
2. Choose uniform, independent  $s^1 \dots s^\ell \in \{0,1\}^n$   
and  $\sigma^1 \dots \sigma^\ell \in \{0,1\}$ .

3. For every non-empty subset  

$$I \subseteq \{1, \dots, \ell\}$$

compute  $x^I := \bigoplus_{i \in I} x^i$  &  $\sigma^I := \bigoplus_{i \in I} \sigma^i$

*I'm testing  $s^I := x^I$  equivalently.*

*intuitively, this is the guess for  $A(y, x^I)$ .*

4. For  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , do the following

- (a)  $\forall$  non-empty  $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, \ell\}$  let

$$x_i^I := \sigma^I \oplus A(y, x^I \oplus e^i)$$

- (b) let  $x_i := \text{majority}_I \{x_i^I\}$

(i.e. take the bit that appeared a majority of the times)

5. Output  $x = x_1, \dots, x_n$

[Boddu: Now we'll see why  $\ell$  was chosen to be what it was chosen to be

- It remains to compute the probability that  $A'$  outputs  $x \in f^{-1}(y)$ .
  - [boring qualification on  $y, n$ ]  
As in the proof of Proposition 7.14 we focus only on  $n$  as in Claim 7.18 and assume  $y = f(\hat{x})$  for some  $\hat{x} \in S_n$ .
  - Each  $\sigma^i$  represents a "guess" for the value of  $gl(\hat{x}, s^i)$ .
  - As noted earlier, with non-negl probability all these guesses are correct.

We show that conditioned on this event

$A'$  outputs  $x = \hat{x}$  with probability at least  $1/2$ .

- Assume  $\sigma^i = gl(\hat{x}, s^i)$  for all  $i$ .

- Then,  $\sigma^I = gl(\hat{x}, x^I) \forall I$ .

$$x^I = \bigoplus_{i \in I} s^i$$

- Fix an index  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  &

consider the prob. that

$A'$  obtains the correct value

$$x_i = \hat{x}_i.$$

- For any non-empty  $I$

we have  $x(y, x^I \oplus e^i) = gl(\hat{x}, x^I \oplus e^i)$

with prob. at least  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$



(om the choice of  $\epsilon$ ).

( $\because \hat{x} \in S_n$  &  $x^{\perp} \oplus e_i$  is uniformly distributed)

- Thus, for any non-empty subset  $I$ , we have

$$\Pr[x_i^{\perp} = \hat{x}_i] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

( $\because$  we already conditioned on the other "guess"

being correct;

recall the def<sup>n</sup> of  $x^{\perp}$  from the alg)

- Moreover, the  $\{x_i^{\perp}\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}}$  are pairwise independent

$\therefore$  the  $\{x^{\perp}\}_{x \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}}$

(& hence  $\{x^{\perp} \oplus e_i\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}}$ ) are

pairwise independent.

- Since  $x_i$  is defined to be the value that occurs a majority of the times among the  $\{x_i^{\perp}\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}}$  one can apply Prop. A.13 to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[x_i \neq \hat{x}_i] &\leq \frac{1}{4 \cdot \left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)^2 \cdot \underbrace{(2^{\ell}-1)}_{\substack{\# \text{ samples} \\ \text{recall } \ell = \log \frac{2n}{\epsilon^2} + 1}}} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{4 \cdot \left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{2n}{\epsilon^2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2n}. \end{aligned}$$

*Annotations:*  
 $\because$  we were correct in trial w.p.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$   
 so  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$

- The above holds for all  $i$ , so by applying a union bound we see that

$\Pr[x_i \neq \hat{x}_i \text{ for some } i]$

is at most  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

$$\left(\because \sum_i \frac{1}{2n} = \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

i.e.  $(x_i = \hat{x}_i + i)$

$\mathbb{P}$

$x = \hat{x}$

w.p.  $\geq \frac{1}{2}$

$f(r), f(r')$

and you know  $r, r'$  independent

then

$f(r), f(r')$  are also independent

**PROPOSITION A.13** Fix  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $b \in \{0, 1\}$ , and let  $\{X_i\}$  be pairwise-independent, 0/1-random variables for which  $\Pr[X_i = b] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$  for all  $i$ . Consider the process in which  $m$  values  $X_1, \dots, X_m$  are recorded and  $X$  is set to the value that occurs a strict majority of the time. Then

$$\Pr[X \neq b] \leq \frac{1}{4 \cdot \epsilon^2 \cdot m}.$$

**PROOF** Assume  $b = 1$ ; by symmetry, this is without loss of generality. Then  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$ . Let  $X$  denote the strict majority of the  $\{X_i\}$  as in the proposition, and note that  $X \neq 1$  if and only if  $\sum_{i=1}^m X_i \leq m/2$ . So

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X \neq 1] &= \Pr\left[\sum_{i=1}^m X_i \leq m/2\right] \\ &= \Pr\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^m X_i}{m} - \frac{1}{2} \leq 0\right] \\ &= \Pr\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^m X_i}{m} - \left(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon\right) \leq -\epsilon\right] \\ &\leq \Pr\left[\left|\frac{\sum_{i=1}^m X_i}{m} - \left(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon\right)\right| \geq \epsilon\right]. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\text{Var}[X_i] \leq 1/4$  for all  $i$ , applying the previous corollary shows that  $\Pr[X \neq 1] \leq \frac{1}{4\epsilon^2 m}$  as claimed. ■

- Putting everything together,

Let  $n$  be as in Claim 7.18

$$y = f(\hat{x}).$$

With prob. at least  $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$   
we have  $\hat{x} \in S_n$ .

All guess  $\sigma_i$  are correct w.p. at least

$$\frac{1}{2^l} \geq \frac{1}{2 \cdot (\frac{2n}{\epsilon} + 1)} > \frac{\epsilon^2}{5n}$$

for a large enough  $n$ .

- conditioned on both the above,

$\mathcal{A}'$  outputs  $x = \hat{x}$  with prob. at least  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

- Thus, the overall prob. with which  $\mathcal{A}'$  inverts

$$\text{is at least } \left(\frac{\epsilon^2}{5n}\right) \left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{\epsilon^3}{20n} = \frac{1}{20np^2}$$

for infinitely many  $n$ 's.

□