

Lecture 7: Goldreich-Levin Theorem

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1 Topic Covered

- Hard core Predicate
- Goldreich-Levin Theorem

2 Hard Core Predicate

We are going to provide two definitions of hard core predicate and show that the two definitions are equivalent:-

DEFINITION 1 [Indistinguishability] A polynomial time function $hc : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a hard core predicate of f if $(f(x), hc(x)) \approx (f(x), b)$ where $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n, b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$ \diamond

Now one might ask whether there exists a hard core predicate for every One-Way Function (OWF)? There is a good news and a bad news to this question. At first, let us reveal the bad news. There is no single function hc which is a hard core predicate for every OWF. Because if f is a OWF then $f'(x) = (f(x), hc(x))$ is also a OWF but hc is not a hard core predicate for f' . But the good news is that given any one-way function f we can construct a new one-way function g and a hard-core predicate for g .

Now we present an alternative definition of hard core predicate which is easier to work with.

DEFINITION 2 [Unpredictability] A polynomial time function $hc : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a hard core predicate of f if \forall PPT “predictor” P

$$\Pr[P(f(x)) = hc(x) : x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n] \leq 1/2 + \text{negl}(n)$$

\diamond

This definition means that an adversary can’t do much better in predicting $hc(x)$ than simply guessing a random bit.

Lemma 1 *Indistinguishability implies Unpredictability.*

Proof: We prove that if hc does not satisfy unpredictability than it does not satisfy indistinguishability.

Assume \exists PPT “predictor” P such that $\Pr[P(f(x)) = hc(x)] \geq 1/2 + \varepsilon(n)$. Define a distinguisher D via

$$D(y, b) = \{\text{If } P(y) = b, \text{ output } 1, \text{ else output } 0\}$$

Then

$$\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] - \Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n) - \frac{1}{2} = \varepsilon(n)$$

where all probabilities are over $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n, b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$.

So if we can predict with non-negligible advantage ε , then we can distinguish by non-negligible advantage ε . □

Lemma 2 *Unpredictability implies indistinguishability.*

Proof: We prove that if hc does not satisfy indistinguishability then it does not satisfy unpredictability. Suppose \exists PPT “distinguisher” D and $\varepsilon(n) \neq \text{negl}(n)$ such that

$$|\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] - \Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1]| \geq \varepsilon(n)$$

where $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n, b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$.

Without loss of generality, we can remove the absolute value of the above equation by potentially flipping the output bit of D to ensure that the difference is positive. In slightly more detail, we know that $|\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] - \Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1]| > 1/n^c$ for some constant c and infinitely many n . Therefore either $\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] - \Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1] > 1/n^c$ for infinitely many n or $\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 0] - \Pr[D(f(x), b) = 0] > 1/n^c$ for infinitely many n . In the latter case, we can flip the output bit of D .

Define

$$P(y) = \{ \text{Choose } b \leftarrow \{0, 1\} \quad : \quad \text{If } D(y, b) = 1, \text{ output } b, \text{ else } \bar{b} \}$$

First note that:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1] &= \Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1, b = hc(x)] + \Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1, b = \overline{hc}(x)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] + \Pr[D(f(x), \overline{hc}(x)) = 1]) \\ &\Rightarrow \Pr[D(f(x), \overline{hc}(x)) = 1] = 2\Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1] - \Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] \end{aligned}$$

This implies

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[P(f(x)) = hc(x)] &= \Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1, b = hc(x)] + \Pr[D(f(x), \overline{hc}(x)) = 0, b = \overline{hc}(x)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] + \Pr[D(f(x), \overline{hc}(x)) = 0]) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] + 1 - \Pr[D(f(x), \overline{hc}(x)) = 1]) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}(\Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1] - \Pr[D(f(x), \overline{hc}(x)) = 1]) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}(2\Pr[D(f(x), b) = 1] - \Pr[D(f(x), hc(x)) = 1]) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n) \end{aligned}$$

where the second to last line follows by substituting for $\Pr[D(f(x), \overline{hc}(x)) = 1]$ using the previous derivation. □

3 Goldreich Levin Theorem

Theorem 1 *If f is a one way function, then $g(x, r) = (f(x), r)$ is also a one way function and $hc(x, r) = \langle x, r \rangle = \sum(x_i \cdot r_i) \pmod{2}$ is a hard core predicate of g .*

As an alternate interpretation of the Goldreich-Levin theorem, we can think of $hc(x, r) = \langle x, r \rangle$ as a randomized hard core predicate for any one way function f , meaning that

$$(f(x), r, hc(x, r)) \approx (f(x), r, b)$$

where $x, r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n, b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$.

We will finish the poof of the Goldreich-Levin theorem in the next lecture, but let's start to build some intuition for the proof and see what the main components are.

We do a proof by contradiction. Suppose hc is not a hard core predicate of g , then we wish to show that f is not a one-way function. By the unpredictability definition of hard-core predictates we know that \exists PPT $P, \varepsilon(n) \neq \text{negl}(n)$ such that

$$\Pr[P(f(x), r) = \langle x, r \rangle] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n)$$

We want to show that we can invert f . We first explore some simple cases that make the proof much easier.

Simple Case 1 : Suppose $\Pr[P(f(x), r) = \langle x, r \rangle] = 1$

The Algorithm to invert OWF f is:-

$A(y)$:

for $i = 1, \dots, n$

$\tilde{x}_i = P(y, e_i)$

Output $x = (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n)$

Here e_i denotes the i 'th standard basis vector (all 0 except for 1 in i 'th position). The algorithm is correct since we are guaranteed that $\tilde{x}_i = P(y, e_i) = \langle x, e_i \rangle = x_i$.

Simple Case 2 : Suppose $\forall x$ (ie, not only for any random x), $\Pr[P(f(x), r) = \langle x, r \rangle] \geq \frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{p(n)}$ where the probability is over $r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n$. In this case, we have no guarantees on $P(y, e_i)$ giving us correct answers since e_i is not random. Here is a smarter strategy.

Call $b_1 = P(y, r), b_2 = P(y, r + e_i)$ where $r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n$.

Output $x_i = b_2 - b_1$

Note: r and $r + e_i$ are individually random but not independent.

If $P(y, r), P(y, r + e_i)$ are both "correct" then: $x_i = b_2 - b_1 = \langle x, r + e_i \rangle - \langle x, r \rangle = \langle x, e_i \rangle$ is also correct. Moreover:

$\Pr[\text{Both } b_1 \text{ and } b_2 \text{ are correct}]$

$= 1 - \Pr[\text{At least one of them is wrong}]$

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

We have to run the above procedure many times for the i -th bit and take the majority vote. If there are enough votes, majority is correct with high probability (Chernoff bound).

There are two main differences between Simple Case 2 and what we need to prove. Most importantly, our predictor is only correct with probability $1/2 + \varepsilon(n)$ rather than $3/4 + 1/p(n)$. Secondly, in our case the probability is over a random x, r whereas in simple case 2 it's only over random r for worst-case x . We show how to handle the second problem. Essentially, this is an “averaging argument” which shows that if some probability is high over random x, r then for many x the probability is high over a random r .

Claim 1 $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists G_n \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n$ of size $|G_n| \geq \frac{\varepsilon(n)}{2} \cdot 2^n$ ($\frac{\varepsilon(n)}{2}$ is the density) such that $\forall x \in G_n$:

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^n} [P(f(x), r) = \langle x, r \rangle] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon(n)}{2} \quad (1)$$

Proof: Define $G_n = \{x : \text{equation 1 holds}\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon(n)}{2} &\leq \Pr_{x,r} [P(f(x), r) = \langle x, r \rangle] \\ &= \Pr_{x,r} [P(f(x), r) = \langle x, r \rangle, x \in G_n] + \Pr_{x,r} [P(f(x), r) = \langle x, r \rangle, x \notin G_n] \\ &\leq \Pr_x [x \in G_n] + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon(n)}{2} \\ \Rightarrow \Pr_x [x \in G_n] &\geq \frac{\varepsilon(n)}{2} \\ \Rightarrow |G_n| &\geq \frac{\varepsilon(n)}{2} \cdot 2^n \end{aligned}$$

□

So there are many good values x for which $P(f(x), r)$ answers correctly on most r . In the next lecture we will show that this is sufficient to invert $f(x)$. This is essentially a *decoding* problem which we abstract in the next claim (to be proved next time):

Claim 2 For any $\delta(n) = \frac{1}{\text{poly}(n)}$ there exists a PPT algorithm Dec^O and a polynomial $p(n) = \text{poly}(n)$ such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall x \in \{0, 1\}^n$:

If $\Pr [O(r) = \langle x, r \rangle] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \delta(n)$

then $\Pr [\text{Dec}^O(1^n) = x] \geq \frac{1}{p(n)}$.

(The notation Dec^O denotes that Dec has oracle access to O meaning that it can call O on arbitrary values r .)

We will prove this claim and discuss a connection to coding theory next time.