• We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...

- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys

- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys
- This is inevitable if we insist on perfect secrecy (recall that, in a perfectly secret scheme, $|\mathcal{K}| \ge |\mathcal{M}|$)

- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys
- This is inevitable if we insist on perfect secrecy (recall that, in a perfectly secret scheme, $|\mathcal{K}| \ge |\mathcal{M}|$)

What more is there to do?

- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys
- This is inevitable if we insist on perfect secrecy (recall that, in a perfectly secret scheme, $|\mathcal{K}| \ge |\mathcal{M}|$)

What more is there to do?

- We would still really like to have "secure" schemes with short keys...
- We need to give up on perfect secrecy



- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys
- This is inevitable if we insist on perfect secrecy (recall that, in a perfectly secret scheme, $|\mathcal{K}| \ge |\mathcal{M}|$)

What more is there to do?

- We would still really like to have "secure" schemes with short keys...
- We need to give up on perfect secrecy

Can we relax the security definition in a meaningful way?



What if the adversary is not computationally unbounded?

What if the adversary is not computationally unbounded?

Say that the adversary is only able to run algorithms for 2^{112} clock cycles...

- Cost of this computation: \approx 10000 times the gross world product since $300\,000{\rm BC}$
- Number of clock cycles of a supercomputer running since the Big-Bang

What if the adversary is not computationally unbounded?

Say that the adversary is only able to run algorithms for 2^{112} clock cycles...

- Cost of this computation: \approx 10000 times the gross world product since $300\,000{\rm BC}$
- Number of clock cycles of a supercomputer running since the Big-Bang

... and only manages to extract some information with probability 2^{-60}

• It is more likely that the next meteorite that hits Earth lands in this square

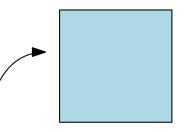
What if the adversary is not computationally unbounded?

Say that the adversary is only able to run algorithms for 2^{112} clock cycles...

- Cost of this computation: \approx 10000 times the gross world product since $300\,000{\rm BC}$
- Number of clock cycles of a supercomputer running since the Big-Bang

... and only manages to extract some information with probability 2^{-60}

• It is more likely that the next meteorite that hits Earth lands in this square



Do we need to be concerned?

- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability
- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers

Our starting point is the following (equivalent) definition of perfect secrecy:

Definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ with message space \mathcal{M} is **perfectly indistinguishable** if for every \mathcal{A} it holds:

$$\Pr[\textit{PrivK}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\textit{eav}} = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$$

Our starting point is the following (equivalent) definition of perfect secrecy:

Definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ with message space \mathcal{M} is **perfectly indistinguishable** if for every \mathcal{A} it holds: $\Pr[\text{Priv}\mathcal{K}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\text{eav}} = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$

We want to define a concept of computational indistinguishability

Our starting point is the following (equivalent) definition of perfect secrecy:

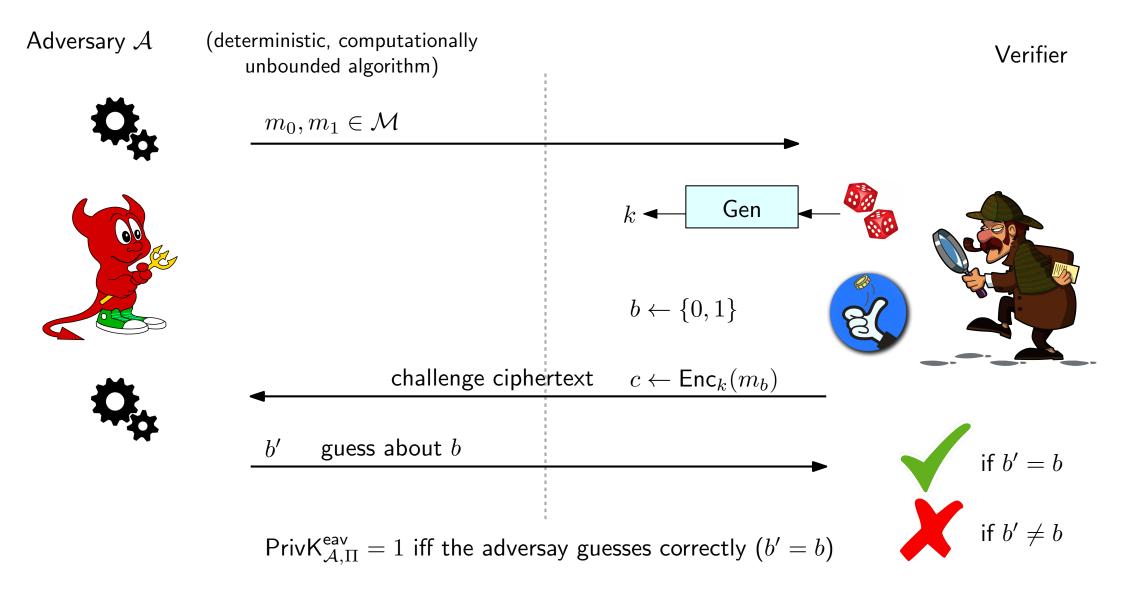
Definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ with message space \mathcal{M} is **perfectly indistinguishable** if for every \mathcal{A} it holds: $\Pr[\text{Priv}\mathcal{K}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\text{eav}} = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$

We want to define a concept of computational indistinguishability

Two possible approaches:

- Concrete
- Asymptotic

Reminder: Perfect indistinguishability



Computational secrecy (concrete)

Candidate definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ is (t, ε) -indistinguishable if for every attacker \mathcal{A} running in time at most t, it holds that:

$$\Pr[\textit{PrivK}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\textit{eav}} = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$$

Computational secrecy (concrete)

Candidate definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ is (t, ε) -indistinguishable if for every attacker \mathcal{A} running in time at most t, it holds that:

$$\Pr[\textit{PrivK}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\textit{eav}} = 1] \leq rac{1}{2} + arepsilon$$

Example: A $(2^{112}, 2^{-60})$ -indistinguishable scheme remains secure against any adversary that runs for at most 2^{122} clock cycles (the adversary's advantage will be at most 2^{-60})

Computational secrecy (concrete)

Candidate definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ is (t, ε) -indistinguishable if for every attacker \mathcal{A} running in time at most t, it holds that:

$$\Pr[\textit{PrivK}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\textit{eav}} = 1] \leq rac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$$

Example: A $(2^{112}, 2^{-60})$ -indistinguishable scheme remains secure against any adversary that runs for at most 2^{122} clock cycles (the adversary's advantage will be at most 2^{-60})

Observation: $(\infty, 0)$ -indistinguishability is equivalent to perfect indistinguishability

• If a scheme is (t, ε) -indistinguishable, what can we say about $(t + 1, \varepsilon)$?

- If a scheme is (t, ε) -indistinguishable, what can we say about $(t + 1, \varepsilon)$?
- What can we do in a clock cycle?

The definition depends on the exact details of the computational model...

- If a scheme is (t, ε) -indistinguishable, what can we say about $(t + 1, \varepsilon)$?
- What can we do in a clock cycle?

The definition depends on the exact details of the computational model...

A scheme can be (t, ε)-indistinguishable for many choices of t and ε
 — How do we pick t?

- If a scheme is (t, ε) -indistinguishable, what can we say about $(t + 1, \varepsilon)$?
- What can we do in a clock cycle?

The definition depends on the exact details of the computational model...

- A scheme can be (t, ε) -indistinguishable for many choices of t and ε
 - How do we pick t?
 - What if computers become faster?

- If a scheme is (t, ε) -indistinguishable, what can we say about $(t + 1, \varepsilon)$?
- What can we do in a clock cycle?

The definition depends on the exact details of the computational model...

- A scheme can be (t, ε) -indistinguishable for many choices of t and ε
 - How do we pick t?
 - What if computers become faster?
 - We would like to have a scheme where users can adjust the security guarantees as desired

- If a scheme is (t, ε) -indistinguishable, what can we say about $(t + 1, \varepsilon)$?
- What can we do in a clock cycle?

The definition depends on the exact details of the computational model...

- A scheme can be (t, ε) -indistinguishable for many choices of t and ε
 - How do we pick t?
 - What if computers become faster?
 - We would like to have a scheme where users can adjust the security guarantees as desired

Does not lead to a clean theory

We only want to defend from *efficient* adversaries

We only want to defend from *efficient* adversaries

• What does *efficient* mean?

We only want to defend from *efficient* adversaries

• What does *efficient* mean?

Usually, in complexity theory, efficient = polynomial-time

We only want to defend from *efficient* adversaries

• What does *efficient* mean?

Usually, in complexity theory, efficient = polynomial-time

• Polynomial with respect to what...?

We only want to defend from efficient adversaries

• What does *efficient* mean?

Usually, in complexity theory, efficient = polynomial-time

• Polynomial with respect to what...?

Introduce a new security parameter n

- Allows to tune the security of the scheme (e.g., think of it as the key length)
- Chosen by the honest parties (Alice and Bob)
- Known by the adversary

We only want to defend from *efficient* adversaries

• What does *efficient* mean?

Usually, in complexity theory, efficient = polynomial-time

• Polynomial with respect to what...?

Introduce a new security parameter n

- Allows to tune the security of the scheme (e.g., think of it as the key length)
- Chosen by the honest parties (Alice and Bob)
- Known by the adversary

Measure probabilities and running times as a function of n

- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers
- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability

- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers polynomial running times
- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability

- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers <---- polynomial running times
- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability **–** probabilities that are *negligible* in *n*

Definitions

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Definitions

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Equivalently:

• There exists a polynomial p such that $f(n) \leq p(n)$ for all n > 0

Definitions

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Equivalently:

- There exists a polynomial p such that $f(n) \leq p(n)$ for all n > 0
- There exists N and c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$.

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Equivalently:

- There exists a polynomial p such that $f(n) \leq p(n)$ for all n > 0
- There exists N and c such that $f(n) \le n^c$ for all $n \ge N$.

"f(n) grows at most as fast as <u>some</u> polynomial in n"

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Equivalently:

- There exists a polynomial p such that $f(n) \leq p(n)$ for all n > 0
- There exists N and c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$.

"f(n) grows at most as fast as some polynomial in n"

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Equivalently:

- There exists a polynomial p such that $f(n) \leq p(n)$ for all n > 0
- There exists N and c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$.

"f(n) grows at most as fast as some polynomial in n"

A function η is **negligible** if, for every polynomial p, $\eta(n) = O(\frac{1}{p(n)})$.

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Equivalently:

- There exists a polynomial p such that $f(n) \leq p(n)$ for all n > 0
- There exists N and c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$.

"f(n) grows at most as fast as some polynomial in n"

A function η is **negligible** if, for every polynomial p, $\eta(n) = O(\frac{1}{p(n)})$.

Equivalently:

• For every polynomial p, there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $\eta(n) \le \frac{1}{p(n)}$ for all $n \ge N$

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Equivalently:

- There exists a polynomial p such that $f(n) \leq p(n)$ for all n > 0
- There exists N and c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$.

"f(n) grows at most as fast as <u>some</u> polynomial in n"

A function η is **negligible** if, for every polynomial p, $\eta(n) = O(\frac{1}{p(n)})$.

Equivalently:

- For every polynomial p, there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $\eta(n) \le \frac{1}{p(n)}$ for all $n \ge N$
- For every $c \ge 0$, there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $\eta(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$

A function $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is **polynomially bounded** if $f(n) = O(n^c)$ for some constant c.

Equivalently:

- There exists a polynomial p such that $f(n) \le p(n)$ for all n > 0
- There exists N and c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$.

"f(n) grows at most as fast as <u>some</u> polynomial in n"

A function η is **negligible** if, for every polynomial p, $\eta(n) = O(\frac{1}{p(n)})$.

Equivalently:

- For every polynomial p, there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $\eta(n) \le \frac{1}{p(n)}$ for all $n \ge N$
- For every $c \ge 0$, there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $\eta(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$

" $\eta(n)$ approaches 0 faster than the inverses of <u>all</u> polynomials in n"

If f(n) and g(n) are polynomially bounded then h(n) = f(n) + g(n) is polynomially bounded

If f(n) and g(n) are polynomially bounded then h(n) = f(n) + g(n) is polynomially bounded

- There is some N and some c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $g(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$

If f(n) and g(n) are polynomially bounded then h(n) = f(n) + g(n) is polynomially bounded

- There is some N and some c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $g(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N', 2\}$:

$$h(n) = f(n) + g(n) \le n^c + n^{c'} \le 2n^{\max\{c, c'\}} \le n^{\max\{c, c'\} + 1}$$

If f(n) and g(n) are polynomially bounded then h(n) = f(n) + g(n) is polynomially bounded

- There is some N and some c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $g(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N', 2\}$:

$$h(n) = f(n) + g(n) \le n^c + n^{c'} \le 2n^{\max\{c,c'\}} \le n^{\max\{c,c'\}+1}$$

The time spent calling two polynomially bounded subroutines (sequentially) is polynomially bounded

If f(n) and g(n) are polynomially bounded then $h(n) = f(n) \cdot g(n)$ is polynomially bounded

If f(n) and g(n) are polynomially bounded then $h(n) = f(n) \cdot g(n)$ is polynomially bounded

- There is some N and some c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$
- \bullet There is some N' and some c' such that $g(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$

If f(n) and g(n) are polynomially bounded then $h(n) = f(n) \cdot g(n)$ is polynomially bounded

- There is some N and some c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $g(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N'\}$:

$$h(n) = f(n) \cdot g(n) \le n^c \cdot n^{c'} \le n^{c+c'}$$

If f(n) and g(n) are polynomially bounded then $h(n) = f(n) \cdot g(n)$ is polynomially bounded

- There is some N and some c such that $f(n) \leq n^c$ for all $n \geq N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $g(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N'\}$:

$$h(n) = f(n) \cdot g(n) \le n^c \cdot n^{c'} \le n^{c+c'}$$

The time spent calling a polynomially bounded subroutine a polynomially bounded number of times is polynomially bounded

If $\eta(n)$ and f(n) are negligible then $h(n)=\eta(n)+f(n)$ is negligible

If $\eta(n)$ and f(n) are negligible then $h(n)=\eta(n)+f(n)$ is negligible

• Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$

If $\eta(n)$ and f(n) are negligible then $h(n) = \eta(n) + f(n)$ is negligible

- Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$
- There is some N' such that $\eta(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+1}}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- There is some N'' such that $f(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+1}}$ for all $n \geq N''$

If $\eta(n)$ and f(n) are negligible then $h(n) = \eta(n) + f(n)$ is negligible

- Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$
- There is some N' such that $\eta(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+1}}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- There is some N'' such that $f(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+1}}$ for all $n \geq N''$
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N', 2\}$:

$$h(n) = \eta(n) + f(n) \le \frac{2}{n^{c+1}} = \frac{2}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n^c} \le \frac{1}{n^c}$$

If $\eta(n)$ and f(n) are negligible then $h(n) = \eta(n) + f(n)$ is negligible

- Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$
- There is some N' such that $\eta(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+1}}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- There is some N'' such that $f(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+1}}$ for all $n \geq N''$
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N', 2\}$:

$$h(n) = \eta(n) + f(n) \leq \frac{2}{n^{c+1}} = \frac{2}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n^c} \leq \frac{1}{n^c}$$

The probability of failure of an algorithm that calls two subroutines that fail with negligible probability is negligible

If $\eta(n)$ is negligible and f(n) is polynomially bounded then $h(n) = \eta(n) \cdot f(n)$ is negligible

• Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$

- Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $f(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$

- Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \geq 1$ such that $h(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \geq N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $f(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- Pick N such that $\eta(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+c'}}$ for all $n \geq N$ Such N exists, why?

- Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $f(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- Pick N such that $\eta(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+c'}}$ for all $n \geq N$ Such N exists, why?
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N'\}$:

$$h(n) = \eta(n) \cdot f(n) \le \frac{1}{n^{c+c'}} \cdot n^{c'} = \frac{1}{n^c}$$

If $\eta(n)$ is negligible and f(n) is polynomially bounded then $h(n) = \eta(n) \cdot f(n)$ is negligible

- Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $f(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- Pick N such that $\eta(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+c'}}$ for all $n \geq N$ Such N exists, why?
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N'\}$:

$$h(n) = \eta(n) \cdot f(n) \le \frac{1}{n^{c+c'}} \cdot n^{c'} = \frac{1}{n^c}$$

The probability of failure of an algorithm that makes a polynomially bounded number of calls to a subroutine that fails with negligible probability is negligible

If $\eta(n)$ is negligible and f(n) is polynomially bounded then $h(n) = \eta(n) \cdot f(n)$ is negligible

- Pick any c, we show that there exists $N \ge 1$ such that $h(n) \le \frac{1}{n^c}$ for all $n \ge N$
- There is some N' and some c' such that $f(n) \leq n^{c'}$ for all $n \geq N'$
- Pick N such that $\eta(n) \leq \frac{1}{n^{c+c'}}$ for all $n \geq N$ Such N exists, why?
- For all $n \ge \max\{N, N'\}$:

$$h(n) = \eta(n) \cdot f(n) \le \frac{1}{n^{c+c'}} \cdot n^{c'} = \frac{1}{n^c}$$

The probability of failure of an algorithm that makes a polynomially bounded number of calls to a subroutine that fails with negligible probability is negligible

As a special case, the product of two negligible functions is negligible

Negligible and polynomially bounded functions

Which of the following functions are polynomially bounded? Which are negligible?

$$n^{2} + 4n - 2 \qquad n^{100} \qquad n^{3} + \cos(n) \qquad n!$$

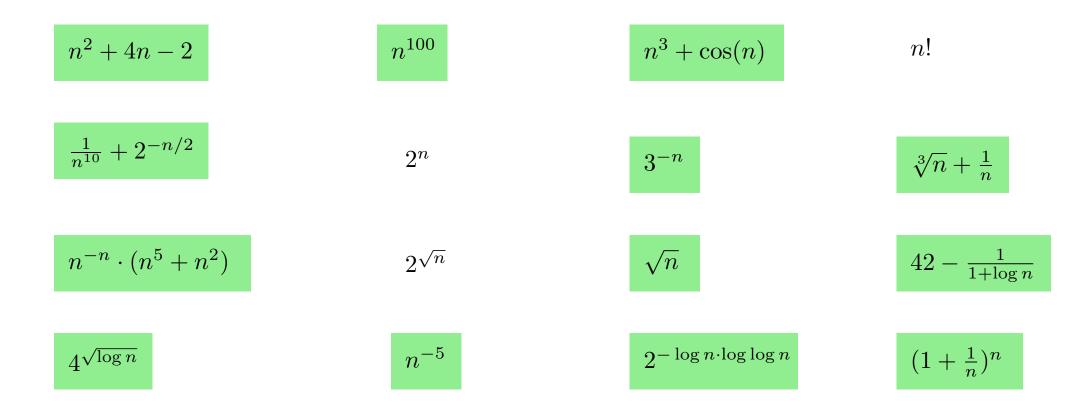
$$\frac{1}{n^{10}} + 2^{-n/2} \qquad 2^{n} \qquad 3^{-n} \qquad \sqrt[3]{n} + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$n^{-n} \cdot (n^{5} + n^{2}) \qquad 2^{\sqrt{n}} \qquad \sqrt{n} \qquad 42 - \frac{1}{1 + \log n}$$

$$4\sqrt{\log n} \qquad n^{-5} \qquad 2^{-\log n \cdot \log \log n} \qquad (1 + \frac{1}{n})^{n}$$

Negligible and polynomially bounded functions

Which of the following functions are **polynomially bounded**? Which are negligible?



Negligible and polynomially bounded functions

Which of the following functions are polynomially bounded? Which are negligible?

$$n^{2} + 4n - 2 \qquad n^{100} \qquad n^{3} + \cos(n) \qquad n!$$

$$\frac{1}{n^{10}} + 2^{-n/2} \qquad 2^{n} \qquad 3^{-n} \qquad \sqrt[3]{n} + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$n^{-n} \cdot (n^{5} + n^{2}) \qquad 2\sqrt{n} \qquad \sqrt{n} \qquad 42 - \frac{1}{1 + \log n}$$

$$4\sqrt{\log n} \qquad n^{-5} \qquad 2^{-\log n \cdot \log \log n} \qquad (1 + \frac{1}{n})^{n}$$

Before defining computational secrecy, we need to redefine private-key encryption schemes to take into account the security parameter

Before defining computational secrecy, we need to redefine private-key encryption schemes to take into account the security parameter

Before defining computational secrecy, we need to redefine private-key encryption schemes to take into account the security parameter

The default message space \mathcal{M} is $\{0,1\}^*$. A private-key encryption scheme consists of three algorithms:

Gen is a randomized polynomial-time algorithm that takes 1ⁿ (i.e., n written in unary) as input and outputs a key k ∈ K. W.I.o.g. we assume that |k| ≥ n. We write k ← Gen(1ⁿ)

Before defining computational secrecy, we need to redefine private-key encryption schemes to take into account the security parameter

The default message space \mathcal{M} is $\{0,1\}^*$. A private-key encryption scheme consists of three algorithms:

Gen is a randomized polynomial-time algorithm that takes 1ⁿ (i.e., n written in unary) as input and outputs a key k ∈ K. W.I.o.g. we assume that |k| ≥ n. We write k ← Gen(1ⁿ)

Before defining computational secrecy, we need to redefine private-key encryption schemes to take into account the security parameter

- Gen is a randomized polynomial-time algorithm that takes 1ⁿ (i.e., n written in unary) as input and outputs a key k ∈ K. W.I.o.g. we assume that |k| ≥ n. We write k ← Gen(1ⁿ)
- Enc is a (possibly randomized) polynomial-time algorithm that takes as input a key k ∈ K and a message m ∈ M and outputs a ciphertext c.

Before defining computational secrecy, we need to redefine private-key encryption schemes to take into account the security parameter

- Gen is a randomized polynomial-time algorithm that takes 1ⁿ (i.e., n written in unary) as input and outputs a key k ∈ K. W.I.o.g. we assume that |k| ≥ n. We write k ← Gen(1ⁿ)
- Enc is a (possibly randomized) polynomial-time algorithm that takes as input a key $k \in \mathcal{K}$ and a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs a ciphertext c.

Before defining computational secrecy, we need to redefine private-key encryption schemes to take into account the security parameter

- Gen is a randomized polynomial-time algorithm that takes 1ⁿ (i.e., n written in unary) as input and outputs a key k ∈ K. W.I.o.g. we assume that |k| ≥ n. We write k ← Gen(1ⁿ)
- Enc is a (possibly randomized) polynomial-time algorithm that takes as input a key k ∈ K and a message m ∈ M and outputs a ciphertext c.
- Dec is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that takes as input a key $k \in \mathcal{K}$ and a ciphertext $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and outputs a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ or an error, denoted by \bot , if c cannot be obtained by encrypting m.

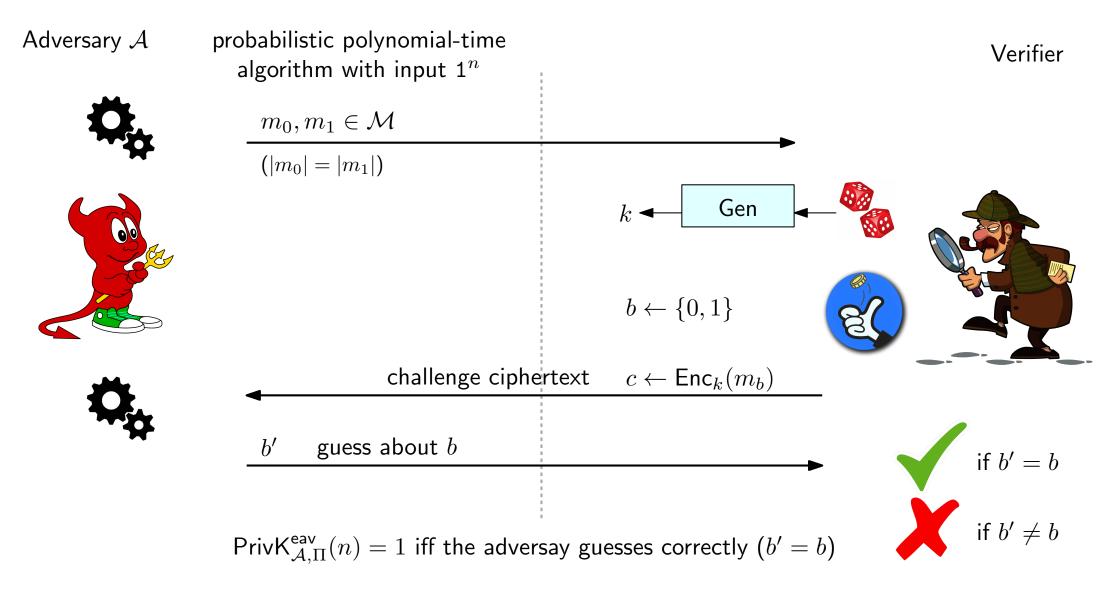
Private-key encryption schemes, redefined

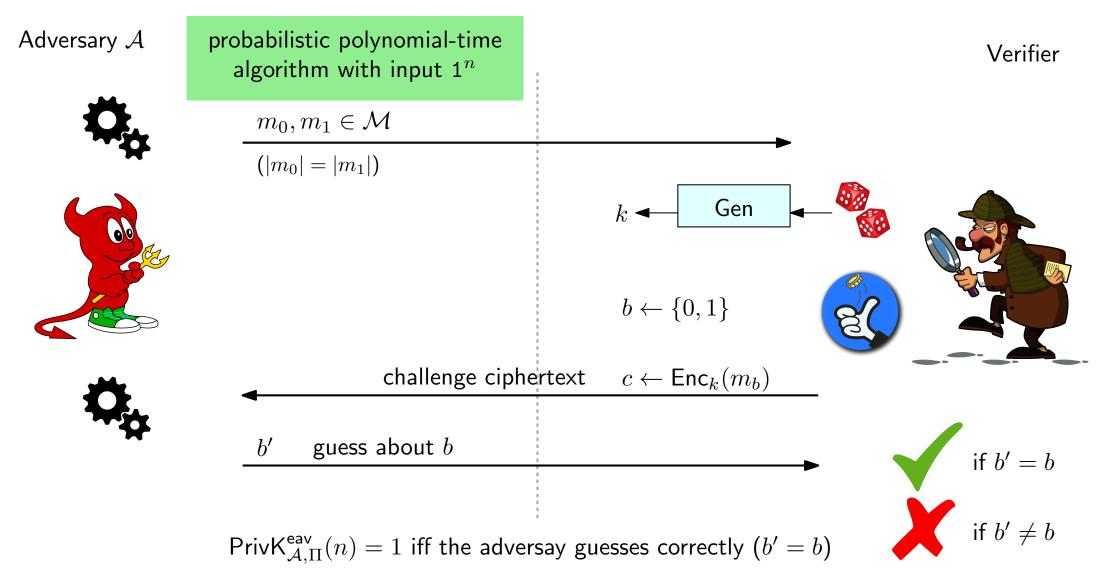
Before defining computational secrecy, we need to redefine private-key encryption schemes to take into account the security parameter

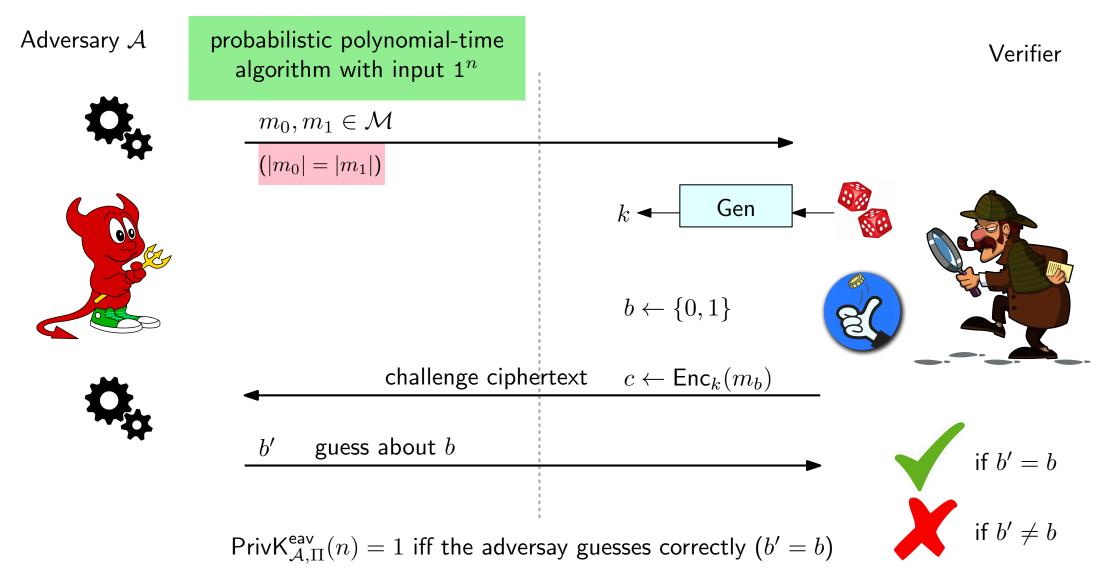
The default message space \mathcal{M} is $\{0,1\}^*$. A private-key encryption scheme consists of three algorithms:

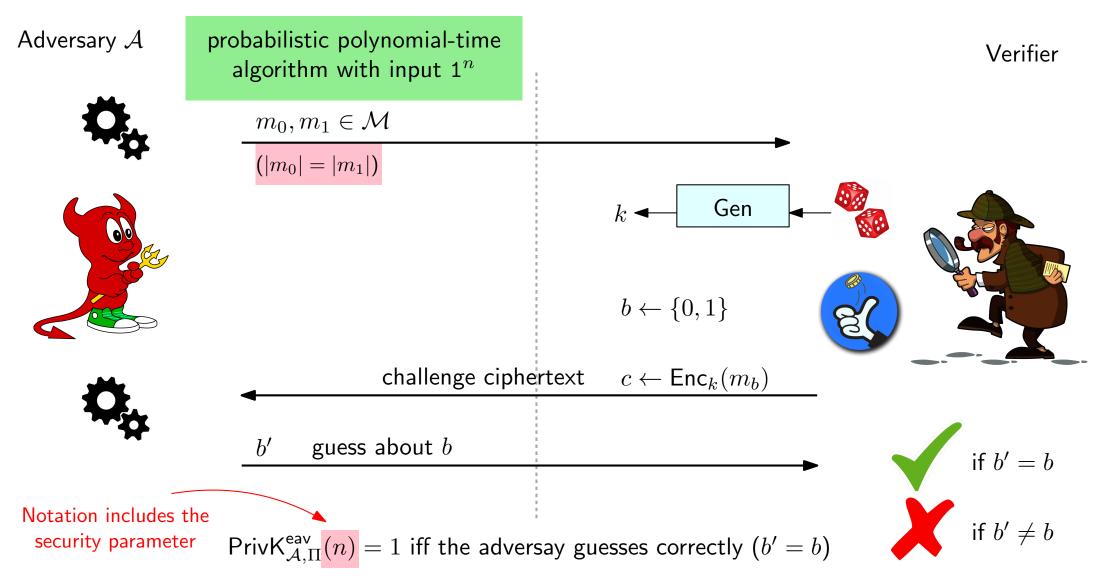
- Gen is a randomized polynomial-time algorithm that takes 1ⁿ (i.e., n written in unary) as input and outputs a key k ∈ K. W.I.o.g. we assume that |k| ≥ n. We write k ← Gen(1ⁿ)
- Enc is a (possibly randomized) polynomial-time algorithm that takes as input a key $k \in \mathcal{K}$ and a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs a ciphertext c.
- Dec is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that takes as input a key $k \in \mathcal{K}$ and a ciphertext $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and outputs a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ or an error, denoted by \bot , if c cannot be obtained by encrypting m.

If $M = \{0, 1\}^{\ell(n)}$ then (Gen, Enc, Dec) is a **fixed-length** private-key encryption scheme (for messages of length $\ell(n)$)









Definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ has indistinguishable encryptions in the presence of an eavesdropper (is **EAV-secure**) if, for every probabilistic polynomial-time adversary A, there is a negligible function ε such that:

$$\Pr[\operatorname{\textit{Priv}}\nolimits \mathsf{K}^{\operatorname{\textit{eav}}}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n)$$

Definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ has indistinguishable encryptions in the presence of an eavesdropper (is **EAV-secure**) if, for every probabilistic polynomial-time adversary A, there is a negligible function ε such that:

$$\Pr[\operatorname{\textit{PrivK}}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\operatorname{\textit{eav}}}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n)$$

Definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ has indistinguishable encryptions in the presence of an eavesdropper (is **EAV-secure**) if, for every probabilistic polynomial-time adversary A, there is a negligible function ε such that:

$$\Pr[\operatorname{\textit{Priv}} \mathcal{K}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\operatorname{\textit{eav}}}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n)$$

Definition: A private key encryption scheme $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ has indistinguishable encryptions in the presence of an eavesdropper (is **EAV-secure**) if, for every probabilistic polynomial-time adversary A, there is a negligible function ε such that:

$$\Pr[\operatorname{\textit{Priv}}\nolimits \mathcal{K}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\operatorname{\textit{eav}}}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n)$$

Observation: perfect indistinguishability implies EAV-security

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Gen}(1^n)$ returns a key chosen uniformly at random in $\{0,1\}^n$
- The best possible adversary \mathcal{A} performs a brute-force search over the key space
- If the running time of the adversary is t(n) then:

$$\Pr[\mathsf{PrivK}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\mathsf{eav}}(n) = 1] \le \frac{1}{2} + O\left(\frac{t(n)}{2^n}\right)$$

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Gen}(1^n)$ returns a key chosen uniformly at random in $\{0,1\}^n$
- The best possible adversary \mathcal{A} performs a brute-force search over the key space
- If the running time of the adversary is t(n) then:

$$\Pr[\mathsf{PrivK}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\mathsf{eav}}(n) = 1] \le \frac{1}{2} + O\left(\frac{t(n)}{2^n}\right)$$

Is this scheme EAV-secure?

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Gen}(\mathbf{1}^n)$ returns a key chosen uniformly at random in $\{0,1\}^n$
- The best possible adversary \mathcal{A} performs a brute-force search over the key space
- If the running time of the adversary is t(n) then:

$$\Pr[\mathsf{PrivK}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{\mathsf{eav}}(n) = 1] \le \frac{1}{2} + O\left(\frac{t(n)}{2^n}\right)$$

Is this scheme EAV-secure? Yes!

For all polynomial running times t(n), all functions in $O\left(\frac{t(n)}{2^n}\right)$ are negligible

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Enc}_k(m)$ runs in $n^2 \cdot |m|$ steps
- Breaking the scheme requires 2^n steps

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Enc}_k(m)$ runs in $n^2 \cdot |m|$ steps
- Breaking the scheme requires 2^n steps

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Enc}_k(m)$ runs in $n^2 \cdot |m|$ steps
- Breaking the scheme requires 2^n steps

What happens when computers get four times faster?

• Alice and Bob can decide to increase the security parameter from n to 2n

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Enc}_k(m)$ runs in $n^2 \cdot |m|$ steps
- Breaking the scheme requires 2^n steps

- Alice and Bob can decide to increase the security parameter from $n \mbox{ to } 2n$
- The number of steps of $Enc_k(m)$ becomes $(2n)^2 \cdot |m| = 4n^2 \cdot |m|$, and the actual time spent stays the same

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Enc}_k(m)$ runs in $n^2 \cdot |m|$ steps
- Breaking the scheme requires 2^n steps

- Alice and Bob can decide to increase the security parameter from n to 2n
- The number of steps of $Enc_k(m)$ becomes $(2n)^2 \cdot |m| = 4n^2 \cdot |m|$, and the actual time spent stays the same
- The number of steps required to break the scheme becomes 2^{2n}

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Enc}_k(m)$ runs in $n^2 \cdot |m|$ steps
- Breaking the scheme requires 2^n steps

- Alice and Bob can decide to increase the security parameter from n to 2n
- The number of steps of $Enc_k(m)$ becomes $(2n)^2 \cdot |m| = 4n^2 \cdot |m|$, and the actual time spent stays the same
- The number of steps required to break the scheme becomes 2^{2n}
- The time needed to break the scheme increases by a factor of 2^n and decreases by a factor of 4

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Enc}_k(m)$ runs in $n^2 \cdot |m|$ steps
- Breaking the scheme requires 2^n steps

- Alice and Bob can decide to increase the security parameter from n to 2n
- The number of steps of $Enc_k(m)$ becomes $(2n)^2 \cdot |m| = 4n^2 \cdot |m|$, and the actual time spent stays the same
- The number of steps required to break the scheme becomes 2^{2n}
- The time needed to break the scheme increases by a factor of 2^n and decreases by a factor of 4
- Overall, the attack became $2^n/4 = 2^{n-2}$ times slower.

Consider a scheme where:

- $\operatorname{Enc}_k(m)$ runs in $n^2 \cdot |m|$ steps
- Breaking the scheme requires 2^n steps

What happens when computers get four times faster?

• Alice and Bob can decide to increase the security parameter from n to 2n

A increase in computing power resulted in a • The number of steps of $Enc_k(m)$ becomes $(2n)^2$ tual time spent stays the same more difficult attack! TE DECOMES 2^{2n}

- The number of ste
- The time needed to break the scheme increases by a factor of 2^n and decreases by a factor of 4
- Overall, the attack became $2^n/4 = 2^{n-2}$ times slower.

Consider an adversary \mathcal{A} that:

- $\bullet~{\rm Runs}$ for $n^3~{\rm minutes}$
- Breaks the scheme with probability $\min\{2^{40} \cdot 2^{-n}, 1\}$

Consider an adversary \mathcal{A} that:

- $\bullet~{\rm Runs}~{\rm for}~n^3~{\rm minutes}$
- Breaks the scheme with probability $\min\{2^{40} \cdot 2^{-n}, 1\}$

How large do we need to choose n?

n	48	64	128	256	512	1024
running time	2.5 months	6 months	4 years	32 years	255 years	2041 years
probability of success	1 in 256	pprox 1 in 17 mil	$pprox$ 3 in 10^{26}	$pprox$ 3 in 10^{65}	$pprox 1$ in 10^{142}	$pprox$ 2 in 10^{296}

We relax perfect secrecy in two ways:

- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability **–** probabilities that are *negligible* in *n*
- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers polynomial running times

Are **both** relaxations needed?

We relax perfect secrecy in two ways:

- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability _____ probabilities that are *negligible* in n
- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers polynomial running times

Are **both** relaxations needed?

We relax perfect secrecy in two ways:

- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability _____ probabilities that are negligible in n
- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers <---- polynomial running times

Are **both** relaxations needed?

• The discussion in the previous lecture shows that, as soon as we use short keys, there is an adversary that runs in polynomial-time and has some tiny advantage $\frac{\epsilon}{4}$

We relax perfect secrecy in two ways:

- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability **-** probabilities that are *negligible* in *n*
- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers <---- polynomial running times

Are **both** relaxations needed?

• The discussion in the previous lecture shows that, as soon as we use short keys, there is an adversary that runs in polynomial-time and has some tiny advantage $\frac{\epsilon}{4}$

We relax perfect secrecy in two ways:

- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability **-** probabilities that are *negligible* in *n*
- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers <---- polynomial running times

Are **both** relaxations needed?

- The discussion in the previous lecture shows that, as soon as we use short keys, there is an adversary that runs in polynomial-time and has some tiny advantage $\frac{\epsilon}{4}$
- We can always run a brute-force attack on the scheme. The discussion in the previous lecture shows that a computationally unbounded adversary has advantage at least ¹/₈ for some pair of messages (when keys are at least one bit shorter than messages)



We relax perfect secrecy in two ways:

- We allow secrecy to fail with some tiny probability **–** probabilities that are *negligible* in *n*
- We only restrict our attention to "efficient" attackers <---- polynomial running times

Are **both** relaxations needed?

- The discussion in the previous lecture shows that, as soon as we use short keys, there is an adversary that runs in polynomial-time and has some tiny advantage $\frac{\epsilon}{4}$
- We can always run a brute-force attack on the scheme. The discussion in the previous lecture shows that a computationally unbounded adversary has advantage at least $\frac{1}{8}$ for some pair of messages (when keys are at least one bit shorter than messages)

Not negligible!



In general, encryption does not hide the plaintext length

• This is captured in the indistinguishably experiment by requiring $|m_0| = |m_1|$

In general, encryption does not hide the plaintext length

• This is captured in the indistinguishably experiment by requiring $|m_0| = |m_1|$

- Inconsequential if the plaintext length is already public or is not sensitive
- Problematic in other cases!

In general, encryption does not hide the plaintext length

• This is captured in the indistinguishably experiment by requiring $|m_0| = |m_1|$

- Inconsequential if the plaintext length is already public or is not sensitive
- Problematic in other cases!
 - Revealing the length of a yes/no answer reveals the answer

In general, encryption does not hide the plaintext length

• This is captured in the indistinguishably experiment by requiring $|m_0| = |m_1|$

- Inconsequential if the plaintext length is already public or is not sensitive
- Problematic in other cases!
 - Revealing the length of a yes/no answer reveals the answer
 - Revealing the number of (possibly binary) digits of a number can leak, e.g., the range of a salary

In general, encryption does not hide the plaintext length

• This is captured in the indistinguishably experiment by requiring $|m_0| = |m_1|$

- Inconsequential if the plaintext length is already public or is not sensitive
- Problematic in other cases!
 - Revealing the length of a yes/no answer reveals the answer
 - Revealing the number of (possibly binary) digits of a number can leak, e.g., the range of a salary
 - Revealing the number of results of a search query leaks information on the popularity of the keyword

In general, encryption does not hide the plaintext length

• This is captured in the indistinguishably experiment by requiring $|m_0| = |m_1|$

One should still be aware that leaking the plaintext length is...

- Inconsequential if the plaintext length is already public or is not sensitive
- Problematic in other cases!
 - Revealing the length of a yes/no answer reveals the answer
 - Revealing the number of (possibly binary) digits of a number can leak, e.g., the range of a salary
 - Revealing the number of results of a search query leaks information on the popularity of the keyword

- If the plaintext is compressed then encrypted, the ciphertext length leaks information about the amount of redundancy (entropy) of the plaintext

In general, encryption does not hide the plaintext length

• This is captured in the indistinguishably experiment by requiring $|m_0| = |m_1|$

One should still be aware that leaking the plaintext length is...

- Inconsequential if the plaintext length is already public or is not sensitive
- Problematic in other cases!
 - Revealing the length of a yes/no answer reveals the answer
 - Revealing the number of (possibly binary) digits of a number can leak, e.g., the range of a salary
 - Revealing the number of results of a search query leaks information on the popularity of the keyword

- If the plaintext is compressed then encrypted, the ciphertext length leaks information about the amount of redundancy (entropy) of the plaintext

In Google maps, the map tiles are compressed and (essentially) static. The size of the ciphertext can be used to determine the viewed location

Where do we stand?

- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys
- This is inevitable if we insist on perfect secrecy (recall that, in a perfectly secret scheme, $|\mathcal{K}| \ge |\mathcal{M}|$)

Where do we stand?

- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys
- This is inevitable if we insist on perfect secrecy (recall that, in a perfectly secret scheme, $|\mathcal{K}| \ge |\mathcal{M}|$)

We have a security definition that allows for short keys and works against adversaries with polynomially bounded running times

Where do we stand?

- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys
- This is inevitable if we insist on perfect secrecy (recall that, in a perfectly secret scheme, $|\mathcal{K}| \ge |\mathcal{M}|$)

We have a security definition that allows for short keys and works against adversaries with polynomially bounded running times

Is there a secure private-key encryption scheme (with short keys) according to this new definition?

Where do we stand?

- We have a perfectly secret encryption scheme (one-time pad)...
- ... but it requires long keys
- This is inevitable if we insist on perfect secrecy (recall that, in a perfectly secret scheme, $|\mathcal{K}| \geq |\mathcal{M}|$)

We have a security definition that allows for short keys and works against adversaries with polynomially bounded running times

Is there a secure private-key encryption scheme (with short keys) according to this new definition?

It depends...

If pseudorandom number generators (PRGs) exist, then the answer is "yes"

If pseudorandom number generators (PRGs) exist, then the answer is "yes"

• We don't know if PRGs exist

If pseudorandom number generators (PRGs) exist, then the answer is "yes"

- We don't know if PRGs exist
- If PRGs exist then $\mathsf{P} \neq \mathsf{NP}$



If pseudorandom number generators (PRGs) exist, then the answer is "yes"

- We don't know if PRGs exist
- If PRGs exist then $P \neq NP$



It is widely believed that $\mathsf{P}\neq\mathsf{NP},$ although this would not imply that PRGs exist...

If pseudorandom number generators (PRGs) exist, then the answer is "yes"

- We don't know if PRGs exist
- If PRGs exist then $P \neq NP$

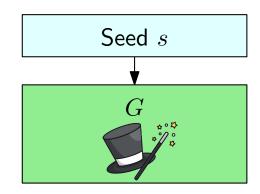


It is widely believed that $P \neq NP$, although this would not imply that PRGs exist...

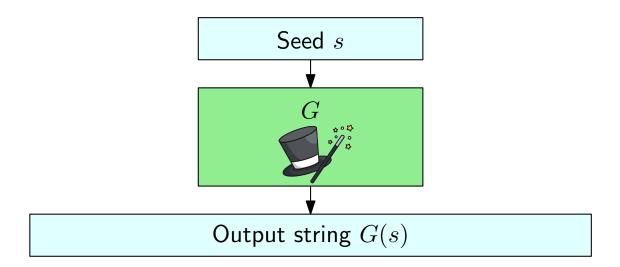
Pragmatic approach: assume that PRGs exist (and hope for the best)



A pseudorandom number generator is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that takes a binary string s (seed) chosen uniformly at random...

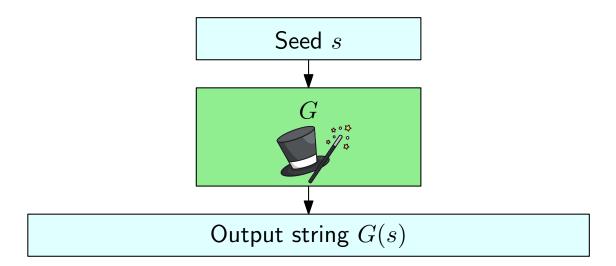


A pseudorandom number generator is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that takes a binary string s (seed) chosen uniformly at random...



And outputs a pseudorandom string G(s) such that |G(s)| > |s|

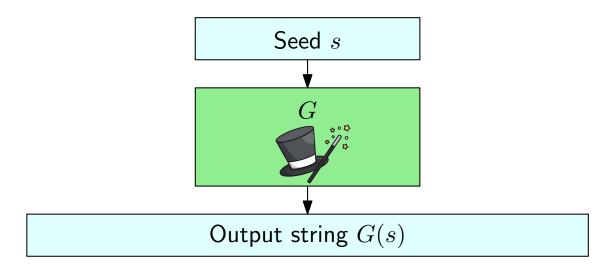
A pseudorandom number generator is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that takes a binary string s (seed) chosen uniformly at random...



And outputs a pseudorandom string G(s) such that |G(s)| > |s|

Intuition: G transforms a small number of "true random bits" into many "random looking" bits

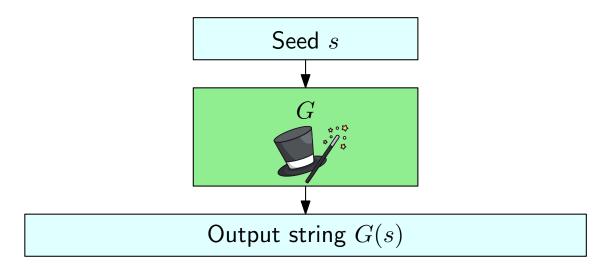
A pseudorandom number generator is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that takes a binary string s (seed) chosen uniformly at random...



And outputs a pseudorandom string G(s) such that |G(s)| > |s|

Intuition: *G* transforms a small number of "true random bits" into many "random looking" bits **Intuition:** The output of a PRG should "look random". How do we formalize this?

A pseudorandom number generator is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm that takes a binary string s (seed) chosen uniformly at random...



And outputs a pseudorandom string G(s) such that |G(s)| > |s|

Intuition: *G* transforms a small number of "true random bits" into many "random looking" bits **Intuition:** The output of a PRG should "look random". How do we formalize this?

Which of the following binary strings is random?

Which of the following binary strings is uniform?

0101010101010101

1001011011101001

000000011111111

1001001001001001

Which of the following binary strings is random?

Which of the following binary strings is uniform?

0101010101010101

1001011011101001

000000011111111

1001001001001001

These questions are meaningless...

Which of the following binary strings is random?

Which of the following binary strings is uniform?

0101010101010101

1001011011101001

000000011111111

1001001001001001

These questions are meaningless...

- Randomness is captured by probability distributions
- Uniformity is a property of distributions (not binary strings)
- The uniform distribution over a set X assigns probability $\frac{1}{|X|}$ to every element in X

Which of the following binary strings is random?

Which of the following binary strings is uniform?

0101010101010101

1001011011101001

000000011111111

1001001001001001

These questions are meaningless...

- Randomness is captured by probability distributions
- Uniformity is a property of distributions (not binary strings)
- The uniform distribution over a set X assigns probability $\frac{1}{|X|}$ to every element in X

Informally, we sometimes say that x is "random / uniform" to mean that it was sampled from a random/uniform distribution...

Which of the following binary strings is random?

Which of the following binary strings is uniform?

0101010101010101

1001011011101001

000000011111111

1001001001001001

These questions are meaningless...

- Randomness is captured by probability distributions
- Uniformity is a property of distributions (not binary strings)
- The uniform distribution over a set X assigns probability $\frac{1}{|X|}$ to every element in X

Informally, we sometimes say that x is "random / uniform" to mean that it was sampled from a random/uniform distribution...

 \ldots and that x is "pseudorandom" if it is the output of a PRG

Historically, a candidate PRG was considered good if its outputs were able to pass a collection of statistical tests (that would be satisfied by "truly random" strings)

Historically, a candidate PRG was considered good if its outputs were able to pass a collection of statistical tests (that would be satisfied by "truly random" strings)

Examples:

• Is the first bit of the output 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?

Historically, a candidate PRG was considered good if its outputs were able to pass a collection of statistical tests (that would be satisfied by "truly random" strings)

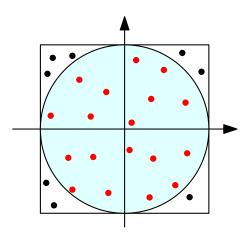
Examples:

- Is the first bit of the output 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- Is the parity of any subset of bits 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?

Historically, a candidate PRG was considered good if its outputs were able to pass a collection of statistical tests (that would be satisfied by "truly random" strings)

Examples:

- Is the first bit of the output 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- Is the parity of any subset of bits 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- If I interpret the string as a series of points in a square of side 2 centered in the origin, is the fraction of points within the circle of radius 1 centered in the origin $\approx \pi/4$?

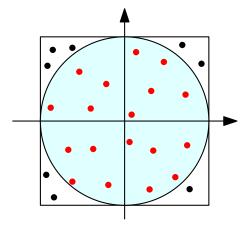


Historically, a candidate PRG was considered good if its outputs were able to pass a collection of statistical tests (that would be satisfied by "truly random" strings)

Examples:

- Is the first bit of the output 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- Is the parity of any subset of bits 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- If I interpret the string as a series of points in a square of side 2 centered in the origin, is the fraction of points within the circle of radius 1 centered in the origin $\approx \pi/4$?

What if somebody comes up with a new, clever statistical test we did not think of before?



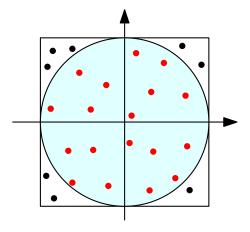
Historically, a candidate PRG was considered good if its outputs were able to pass a collection of statistical tests (that would be satisfied by "truly random" strings)

Examples:

- Is the first bit of the output 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- Is the parity of any subset of bits 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- If I interpret the string as a series of points in a square of side 2 centered in the origin, is the fraction of points within the circle of radius 1 centered in the origin $\approx \pi/4$?

What if somebody comes up with a new, clever statistical test we did not think of before?

We would like a PRG to pass **all conceivable** statistical tests!



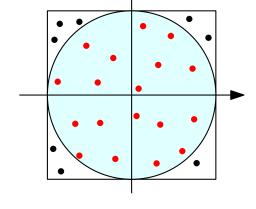
Historically, a candidate PRG was considered good if its outputs were able to pass a collection of statistical tests (that would be satisfied by "truly random" strings)

Examples:

- Is the first bit of the output 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- Is the parity of any subset of bits 1 with probability $\approx \frac{1}{2}$?
- If I interpret the string as a series of points in a square of side 2 centered in the origin, is the fraction of points within the circle of radius 1 centered in the origin $\approx \pi/4$?

What if somebody comes up with a new, clever statistical test we did not think of before?

We would like a PRG to pass **all conceivable** statistical tests!



Is this even possible?

• Let n = |s| and consider a PRG that outputs ℓ bits.

(recall that $\ell > n$)

- Let n = |s| and consider a PRG that outputs ℓ bits. (recall that $\ell > n$)
- Since G is deterministic, there are only 2^n possible inputs $x \implies$ at most 2^n possible outputs G(s)

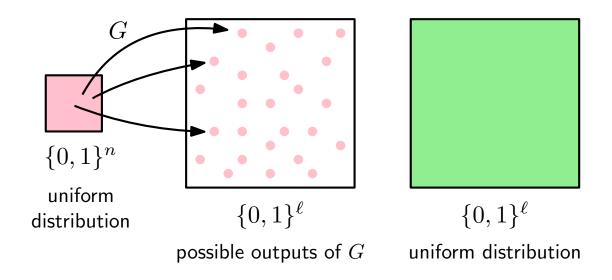
- Let n = |s| and consider a PRG that outputs ℓ bits. (recall that $\ell > n$)
- Since G is deterministic, there are only 2^n possible inputs $x \implies$ at most 2^n possible outputs G(s)
- There are 2^ℓ binary strings with ℓ bits

$$2^{\ell} = 2^{\ell-n} \cdot 2^n \ge 2 \cdot 2^n$$

- Let n = |s| and consider a PRG that outputs ℓ bits. (recall that $\ell > n$)
- Since G is deterministic, there are only 2^n possible inputs $x \implies$ at most 2^n possible outputs G(s)
- There are 2^ℓ binary strings with ℓ bits

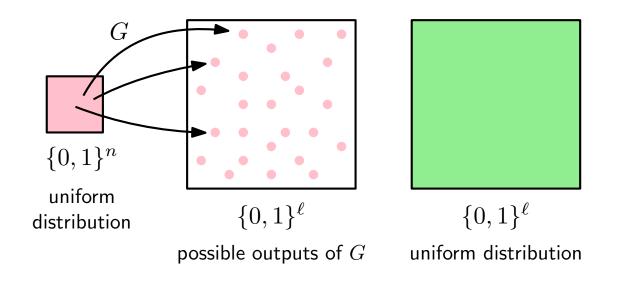
$$2^{\ell} = 2^{\ell-n} \cdot 2^n \ge 2 \cdot 2^n$$

• At least half of the ℓ -bit strings (actually a $\frac{2^{\ell-n}-1}{2^{\ell-n}}$ -fraction) can never be output by G !



G will never pass the following statistical test (for some n):

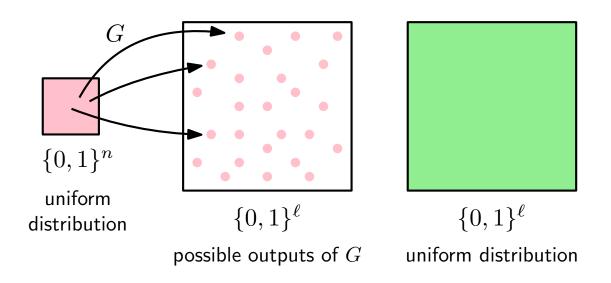
- Look at a "sufficiently many" output/random strings
- If there are more than 2^n distinct strings, the test is passed
- Otherwise, the test is failed



G will never pass the following statistical test (for some n):

- Look at a "sufficiently many" output/random strings
- If there are more than 2^n distinct strings, the test is passed
- Otherwise, the test is failed

Observation: This is not an *efficient* test.

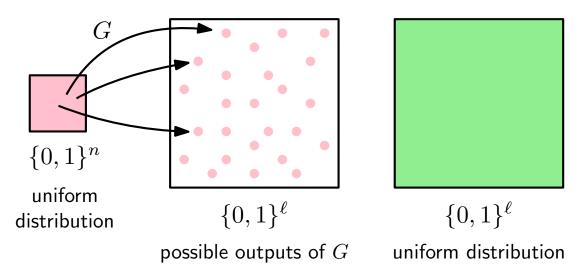


G will never pass the following statistical test (for some n):

- Look at a "sufficiently many" output/random strings
- If there are more than 2^n distinct strings, the test is passed
- Otherwise, the test is failed

Observation: This is not an *efficient* test.

Idea: If adversaries are polynomially bounded, we only need to pass statistical tests that run in polynomial time



Let G be a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm such that for any n and any input $s \in \{0,1\}^n$, the output G(s) is a string of length $\ell(n)$

Let G be a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm such that for any n and any input $s \in \{0,1\}^n$, the output G(s) is a string of length $\ell(n)$ Expansion factor of G

Let G be a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm such that for any n and any input $s \in \{0,1\}^n$, the output G(s) is a string of length $\ell(n)$ Expansion factor of G

G is a **pseudorandom generator (PRG)** if the following conditions hold:

Let G be a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm such that for any n and any input $s \in \{0,1\}^n$, the output G(s) is a string of length $\ell(n)$ Expansion factor of G

G is a **pseudorandom generator (PRG)** if the following conditions hold:

• **Expansion:** For every $n \ge 1$, $\ell(n) > n$

Let G be a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm such that for any n and any input $s \in \{0,1\}^n$, the output G(s) is a string of length $\ell(n)$ Expansion factor of G

G is a **pseudorandom generator (PRG)** if the following conditions hold:

- **Expansion:** For every $n \ge 1$, $\ell(n) > n$
- **Pseudorandomness:** For any probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm D, there is a negligible function η such that

$$\left| \operatorname{Pr}[D(G(s)) = 1] - \operatorname{Pr}[D(r) = 1] \right| \le \eta(n)$$

where s is a uniform random variable in $\{0,1\}^n$ and r is a uniform random variable in $\{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$

Let G be a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm such that for any n and any input $s \in \{0,1\}^n$, the output G(s) is a string of length $\ell(n)$ Expansion factor of G

G is a **pseudorandom generator (PRG)** if the following conditions hold:

- Expansion: For every $n \ge 1$, $\ell(n) > n$
- **Pseudorandomness:** For any probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm D, there is a negligible function η such that

Probability over the randomness of D and the choice of s

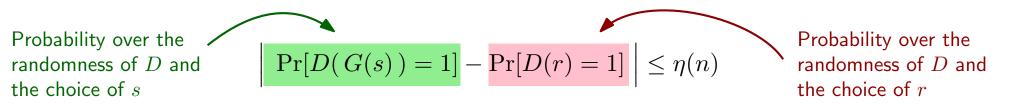
$$\Pr[D(G(s)) = 1] - \Pr[D(r) = 1] \mid \leq \eta(n)$$

where s is a uniform random variable in $\{0,1\}^n$ and r is a uniform random variable in $\{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$

Let G be a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm such that for any n and any input $s \in \{0,1\}^n$, the output G(s) is a string of length $\ell(n)$ Expansion factor of G

G is a **pseudorandom generator (PRG)** if the following conditions hold:

- Expansion: For every $n \ge 1$, $\ell(n) > n$
- **Pseudorandomness:** For any probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm D, there is a negligible function η such that



where s is a uniform random variable in $\{0,1\}^n$ and r is a uniform random variable in $\{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$

Consider a polynomial-time algorithm G that outputs $G(s) = \underbrace{000\ldots 0}_{\ell(n) > |s|}$

Is it a PRG?

Consider a polynomial-time algorithm G that outputs $G(s) = \underbrace{000...0}_{\ell(n) > |s|}$

Is it a PRG? Intuition: No, because the output does not "look random"

Formal proof?

Consider a polynomial-time algorithm G that outputs $G(s) = \underbrace{000...0}_{\ell(n) > |s|}$

Is it a PRG? Intuition: No, because the output does not "look random"

Formal proof?

We need to come up with a distinguisher D(w) that guesses whether w comes from the output of G(s) or it is chosen u.a.r. from $\{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$

Consider a polynomial-time algorithm G that outputs $G(s) = \underbrace{000...0}_{\ell(n) > |s|}$

Is it a PRG? Intuition: No, because the output does not "look random"

Formal proof?

We need to come up with a distinguisher D(w) that guesses whether w comes from the output of G(s) or it is chosen u.a.r. from $\{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$

Distinguisher $\mathcal{D}(w)$:

- If w = 000...0:
 - Output 1 (guess that w "is pseudorandom")
- Otherwise output 0 (guess that w "is truly random")



Consider a polynomial-time algorithm G that outputs $G(s) = \underbrace{000...0}_{\ell(n) > |s|}$

Is it a PRG? Intuition: No, because the output does not "look random"

Formal proof?

We need to come up with a distinguisher D(w) that guesses whether w comes from the output of G(s) or it is chosen u.a.r. from $\{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$

Distinguisher $\mathcal{D}(w)$:

- If w = 000...0:
 - Output 1 (guess that w "is pseudorandom")
- Otherwise output 0 (guess that w "is truly random")

• $\Pr[D(G(s)) = 1] = 1$

•
$$\Pr[D(r) = 1] = \frac{1}{2^{\ell(n)}}$$



Consider a polynomial-time algorithm G that outputs $G(s) = \underbrace{000...0}_{\ell(n) > |s|}$

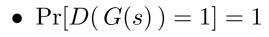
Is it a PRG? Intuition: No, because the output does not "look random"

Formal proof?

We need to come up with a distinguisher D(w) that guesses whether w comes from the output of G(s) or it is chosen u.a.r. from $\{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$

Distinguisher $\mathcal{D}(w)$:

- If w = 000...0:
 - Output 1 (guess that w "is pseudorandom")
- Otherwise output 0 (guess that w "is truly random")



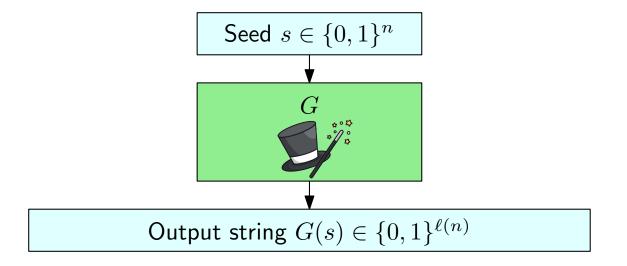
•
$$\Pr[D(r) = 1] = \frac{1}{2^{\ell(n)}}$$

$$\left|1-\frac{1}{2^{\ell(n)}}\right|$$
 is not negligible



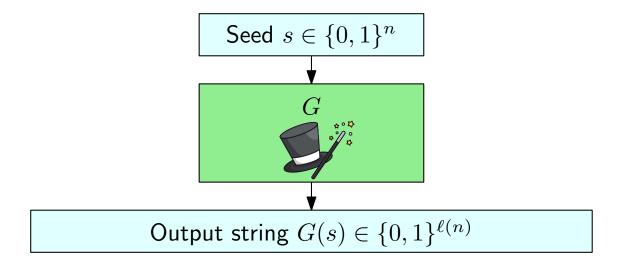
Why are PRGs useful?

As far as polynomial-time algorithms are concerned, the output of G(s) with a random seed s is indistinguishable (up to some negligible probability) from a random string r



Why are PRGs useful?

As far as polynomial-time algorithms are concerned, the output of G(s) with a random seed s is indistinguishable (up to some negligible probability) from a random string r



If we have a randomized polynomial-time algorithm that uses $\ell(n)$ random bits, and we replace those random bits with the output of G(s), the resulting (randomized) algorithm "behaves the same" except for a negligible probability