

Computational Security

601.442/642 Modern Cryptography

29th January 2026

Announcement

- Homework 1 due **today**.
- Homework 2 will be out today and will be due next Thursday (5th Feb).

Recap: Limitations of Perfect Security

Theorem (Shannon): Any perfectly secure encryption scheme with key space \mathcal{K} and message space \mathcal{M} satisfies

$$|\mathcal{K}| \geq |\mathcal{M}|.$$

Perfect security is too **strong**. Can we weaken the definition?

Recap: What Makes Perfect Security So Strong?

- **Perfect Security:** Encryptions of any two messages are **identically** distributed i.e., the adversary **cannot distinguish** between the ciphertexts.

Recap: What Makes Perfect Security So Strong?

- **Perfect Security:** Encryptions of any two messages are **identically** distributed i.e., the adversary **cannot distinguish** between the ciphertexts.
- **Statistical Security:** The adversary can distinguish between encryptions of two different messages with a **small probability ϵ** .

Recap: What Makes Perfect Security So Strong?

- **Perfect Security:** Encryptions of any two messages are **identically** distributed i.e., the adversary **cannot distinguish** between the ciphertexts.
- **Statistical Security:** The adversary can distinguish between encryptions of two different messages with a **small probability ϵ** .

Probability (ϵ)	Event
2^{-10}	Full house in 5-card poker
2^{-20}	Royal flush in 5-card poker
2^{-28}	Winning this week's Powerball jackpot
2^{-40}	Royal flush in two consecutive poker games
2^{-60}	Next meteorite that hits Earth lands on this slide

Recap: What Makes Perfect Security So Strong?

- **Perfect Security:** Encryptions of any two messages are **identically** distributed i.e., the adversary **cannot distinguish** between the ciphertexts.
- **Statistical Security:** The adversary can distinguish between encryptions of two different messages with a **small probability ϵ** .

Probability (ϵ)	Event
2^{-10}	Full house in 5-card poker
2^{-20}	Royal flush in 5-card poker
2^{-28}	Winning this week's Powerball jackpot
2^{-40}	Royal flush in two consecutive poker games
2^{-60}	Next meteorite that hits Earth lands on this slide

An attack that succeeds with small probability ($\approx 2^{-60}$) is not a practical threat.

Recap: What Makes Perfect Security So Strong?

- **Perfect Security:** Encryptions of any two messages are **identically** distributed i.e., the adversary **cannot distinguish** between the ciphertexts.
- **Statistical Security:** The adversary can distinguish between encryptions of two different messages with a **small probability ϵ** .
- Shannon's theorem can be extended to show that **statistically secure** encryption schemes still require **long keys**.

Recap: What Makes Perfect Security So Strong?

- **Perfect Security:** Encryptions of any two messages are **identically** distributed i.e., the adversary **cannot distinguish** between the ciphertexts.
- **Statistical Security:** The adversary can distinguish between encryptions of two different messages with a **small probability ϵ** .
- Shannon's theorem can be extended to show that **statistically secure** encryption schemes still require **long keys**.
- **Perfect Security:** Even an attacker that **brute forces** the key does not learn anything about the plaintext.

Recap: What Makes Perfect Security So Strong?

- **Perfect Security:** Encryptions of any two messages are **identically** distributed i.e., the adversary **cannot distinguish** between the ciphertexts.
- **Statistical Security:** The adversary can distinguish between encryptions of two different messages with a **small probability ϵ** .
- Shannon's theorem can be extended to show that **statistically secure** encryption schemes still require **long keys**.
- **Perfect Security:** Even an attacker that **brute forces** the key does not learn anything about the plaintext.
- Brute forcing λ -bit keys requires **$O(2^\lambda)$** computations.

Recap: What Makes Perfect Security So Strong?

- **Perfect Security:** Encryptions of any two messages are **identically** distributed i.e., the adversary **cannot distinguish** between the ciphertexts.
- **Statistical Security:** The adversary can distinguish between encryptions of two different messages with a **small probability ϵ** .
- Shannon's theorem can be extended to show that **statistically secure** encryption schemes still require **long keys**.
- **Perfect Security:** Even an attacker that **brute forces** the key does not learn anything about the plaintext.
 - Brute forcing λ -bit keys requires **$O(2^\lambda)$** computations.
 - Are brute force attacks **feasible**?

Cost of Computation

- One way to measure the cost of computation is through the monetary value required to carry it out.

CPU Cycles	Approx. Cost	Reference
2^{50}	\$3.50	Cup of coffee
2^{55}	\$100	Tickets to Portland Trailblazers game
2^{65}	\$130,000	Median home price in Oshkosh, WI
2^{75}	\$130 million	Average budget of one of the Harry Potter movies
2^{92}	\$20 trillion	GDP of the United States
2^{99}	\$2 quadrillion	All human economic activity since 300,000 BC
2^{128}	???	A billion human civilizations' worth of effort

Cost of Computation

How large is 2^{128} computations?



Even if every atom in the observable universe ($\sim 10^{80}$) were a computer performing 10^9 computations per second, it would still take billions of years to complete 2^{128} computations.

Cost of Computation

How large is 2^{128} computations?



Even if every atom in the observable universe ($\sim 10^{80}$) were a computer performing 10^9 computations per second, it would still take billions of years to complete 2^{128} computations.

An attack that requires a large number of computations ($\approx 2^{128}$) is not a practical threat.

Computational Security

- Modern cryptography is based on [computational security](#)

Computational Security

- Modern cryptography is based on computational security
 - Security is only ensured against adversaries that run for a feasible amount of time.

Computational Security

- Modern cryptography is based on computational security
 - Security is only ensured against adversaries that run for a feasible amount of time.
 - Adversaries can potentially succeed with a very small probability.

Computational Security

- Modern cryptography is based on **computational security**
 - Security is only ensured against adversaries that run for a **feasible amount of time**.
 - Adversaries can potentially succeed with a **very small probability**.
- **Goal:** Overcome the limitations of perfect security (and much more!).

Computational Security

- Modern cryptography is based on **computational security**
 - Security is only ensured against adversaries that run for a **feasible amount of time**.
 - Adversaries can potentially succeed with a **very small probability**.
- **Goal:** Overcome the limitations of perfect security (and much more!).
- Both relaxations of perfect security are **necessary**!

Computational Security

- Modern cryptography is based on **computational security**
 - Security is only ensured against adversaries that run for a **feasible amount of time**.
 - Adversaries can potentially succeed with a **very small probability**.
- **Goal:** Overcome the limitations of perfect security (and much more!).
- Both relaxations of perfect security are **necessary**!

Why?

Computational Security

- Modern cryptography is based on **computational security**
 - Security is only ensured against adversaries that run for a **feasible amount of time**.

Don't worry about attacks that are as expensive as brute-force attacks!

- **Adversaries can potentially succeed with a **very small probability**.**
- **Goal:** Overcome the limitations of perfect security (and much more!).
- Both relaxations of perfect security are **necessary!**

Why?

Computational Security

- Modern cryptography is based on **computational security**
 - Security is only ensured against adversaries that run for a **feasible amount of time**.

Don't worry about attacks that are as expensive as brute-force attacks!

- Adversaries can potentially succeed with a **very small probability**.

Don't worry about the adversary blindly guessing the key!
- **Goal:** Overcome the limitations of perfect security (and much more!).
- Both relaxations of perfect security are **necessary**!

Why?

The Concrete Security Approach

A scheme is (T, ϵ) -secure if any adversary running for time at most T succeeds in breaking the scheme with probability at most ϵ .

The Concrete Security Approach

A scheme is (T, ϵ) -secure if any adversary running for time at most T succeeds in breaking the scheme with probability at most ϵ .

(T, ϵ) -Computational Indistinguishability

Two distributions X and Y are (T, ϵ) -computationally indistinguishable if for all adversaries A that run in time at most T ,

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X} [A(x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y} [A(y) = 1] \right| \leq \epsilon,$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X and Y , and the randomness of A .

The Concrete Security Approach

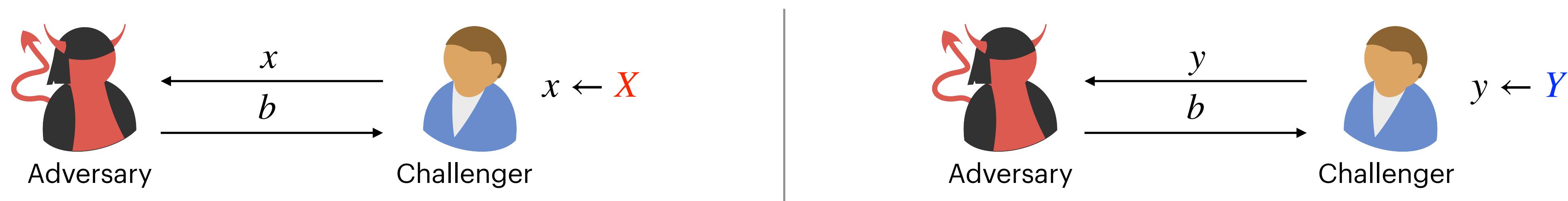
A scheme is (T, ϵ) -secure if any adversary running for time at most T succeeds in breaking the scheme with probability at most ϵ .

(T, ϵ) -Computational Indistinguishability

Two distributions X and Y are (T, ϵ) -computationally indistinguishable if for all adversaries A that run in time at most T ,

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X} [A(x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y} [A(y) = 1] \right| \leq \epsilon,$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X and Y , and the randomness of A .



Adversary cannot tell X and Y apart except with small probability.

The Concrete Security Approach

A scheme is (T, ϵ) -secure if any adversary running for time at most T succeeds in breaking the scheme with probability at most ϵ .

(T, ϵ) -Computational Indistinguishability

Two distributions X and Y are (T, ϵ) -computationally indistinguishable if for all adversaries A that run in time at most T ,

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X} [A(x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y} [A(y) = 1] \right| \leq \epsilon,$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X and Y , and the randomness of A .

The Concrete Security Approach

A scheme is (T, ϵ) -secure if any adversary running for time at most T succeeds in breaking the scheme with probability at most ϵ .

(T, ϵ) -Computational Indistinguishability

Two distributions X and Y are (T, ϵ) -computationally indistinguishable if for all adversaries A that run in time at most T ,

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X} [A(x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y} [A(y) = 1] \right| \leq \epsilon,$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X and Y , and the randomness of A .

(T, ϵ) -Computational Security

An encryption scheme is (T, ϵ) -computationally secure if for all $\textcolor{red}{m}_0, \textcolor{blue}{m}_1 \in \mathcal{M}$, the following distributions are (T, ϵ) -computationally indistinguishable:

$$D_0 = \left\{ \text{ct} : \begin{array}{l} k \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}() \\ \text{ct} \leftarrow \text{Enc}(k, \textcolor{red}{m}_0) \end{array} \right\}$$

$$D_1 = \left\{ \text{ct} : \begin{array}{l} k \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}() \\ \text{ct} \leftarrow \text{Enc}(k, \textcolor{blue}{m}_1) \end{array} \right\}$$

The Concrete Security Approach

- **$(2^{128}, 2^{-60})$ -computational security:** Attacks using at most 2^{128} cycles cannot break security with probability better than 2^{-40} .

The Concrete Security Approach

- **$(2^{128}, 2^{-60})$ -computational security:** Attacks using at most 2^{128} cycles cannot break security with probability better than 2^{-40} .
 - This is the type of guarantee we want to give for crypto systems [deployed in the real-world](#).

The Concrete Security Approach

- **$(2^{128}, 2^{-60})$ -computational security:** Attacks using at most 2^{128} cycles cannot break security with probability better than 2^{-40} .
 - This is the type of guarantee we want to give for crypto systems [deployed in the real-world](#).
 - **Limitation:**

The Concrete Security Approach

- **$(2^{128}, 2^{-60})$ -computational security:** Attacks using at most 2^{128} cycles cannot break security with probability better than 2^{-40} .
 - This is the type of guarantee we want to give for crypto systems [deployed in the real-world](#).
- **Limitation:**
 - What type of computing power do we assume the adversary uses? (e.g., GPUs, super-computers)

The Concrete Security Approach

- **$(2^{128}, 2^{-60})$ -computational security:** Attacks using at most 2^{128} cycles cannot break security with probability better than 2^{-40} .
 - This is the type of guarantee we want to give for crypto systems [deployed in the real-world](#).
- **Limitation:**
 - What type of computing power do we assume the adversary uses? (e.g., GPUs, super-computers)
 - How to account for future advances in computing power?

The Concrete Security Approach

- **$(2^{128}, 2^{-60})$ -computational security:** Attacks using at most 2^{128} cycles cannot break security with probability better than 2^{-40} .
 - This is the type of guarantee we want to give for crypto systems [deployed in the real-world](#).
- **Limitation:**
 - What type of computing power do we assume the adversary uses? (e.g., GPUs, super-computers)
 - How to account for future advances in computing power?
- We need a “knob” to tune the security level

The Concrete Security Approach

- **$(2^{128}, 2^{-60})$ -computational security:** Attacks using at most 2^{128} cycles cannot break security with probability better than 2^{-40} .
 - This is the type of guarantee we want to give for crypto systems [deployed in the real-world](#).
- **Limitation:**
 - What type of computing power do we assume the adversary uses? (e.g., GPUs, super-computers)
 - How to account for future advances in computing power?
- We need a “knob” to tune the security level
 - **Analogy:** We consider asymptotic growth in runtime for sorting algorithms; not their runtime on lists of 10,000 values i.e., we have a “knob” to tune the runtime for lists of different length.

The Asymptotic Approach

- Security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ used to parametrize algorithms and adversaries.

The Asymptotic Approach

- Security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ used to parametrize algorithms and adversaries.
 - Knob for tuning security level of the scheme.

The Asymptotic Approach

- Security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ used to parametrize algorithms and adversaries.
 - Knob for tuning security level of the scheme.
 - **Intuition:** Length of the key.

The Asymptotic Approach

- Security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ used to parametrize algorithms and adversaries.
 - Knob for tuning security level of the scheme.
 - **Intuition:** Length of the key.
 - Set by honest parties when deploying the scheme in the real world. Also known to the adversary.

The Asymptotic Approach

- Security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ used to parametrize algorithms and adversaries.
 - Knob for tuning security level of the scheme.
 - **Intuition:** Length of the key.
 - Set by honest parties when deploying the scheme in the real world. Also known to the adversary.
 - We will analyze the runtime of algorithms, the adversary's runtime, and the adversary's success probability in terms of the security parameter.

The Asymptotic Approach

- **Security parameter** $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ used to parametrize algorithms and adversaries.
 - Knob for tuning security level of the scheme.
 - **Intuition:** Length of the key.
 - Set by honest parties when deploying the scheme in the real world. Also known to the adversary.
 - We will analyze the runtime of algorithms, the adversary's runtime, and the adversary's success probability in terms of the security parameter.
- **Illustrative Example:** Encryption requires $10^6 \cdot \lambda$ CPU cycles. Adversary running for $10^8 \cdot \lambda^4$ CPU cycles can succeed in breaking the scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda/2}$.

The Asymptotic Approach

- Security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ used to parametrize algorithms and adversaries.
 - Knob for tuning security level of the scheme.
 - **Intuition:** Length of the key.
 - Set by honest parties when deploying the scheme in the real world. Also known to the adversary.
 - We will analyze the runtime of algorithms, the adversary's runtime, and the adversary's success probability in terms of the security parameter.
- **Illustrative Example:** Encryption requires $10^6 \cdot \lambda$ CPU cycles. Adversary running for $10^8 \cdot \lambda^4$ CPU cycles can succeed in breaking the scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda/2}$.
- **2GHz Computers with $\lambda = 80$:** Encryption takes 3.2 seconds. Adversary that runs for ~3 weeks can break security with probability at most 2^{-40} .

The Asymptotic Approach

- Security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ used to parametrize algorithms and adversaries.
 - Knob for tuning security level of the scheme.
 - Intuition: Length of the key.
 - Set by honest parties when deploying the scheme in the real world. Also known to the adversary.
 - We will analyze the runtime of algorithms, the adversary's runtime, and the adversary's success probability in terms of the security parameter.
- Illustrative Example: Encryption requires $10^6 \cdot \lambda$ CPU cycles. Adversary running for $10^8 \cdot \lambda^4$ CPU cycles can succeed in breaking the scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda/2}$.
 - 2GHz Computers with $\lambda = 80$: Encryption takes 3.2 seconds. Adversary that runs for ~3 weeks can break security with probability at most 2^{-40} .
 - 8GHz Computers with $\lambda = 160$: Encryption takes 3.2 seconds. Adversary that runs for ~13 weeks can break security with probability at most 2^{-80} !

The Asymptotic Approach

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .
 - All standard (classical) models of computation are **equivalent** up to polynomial time.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .
 - All standard (classical) models of computation are **equivalent** up to polynomial time.
 - **Closure property:** Repeating a poly-time algorithm polynomially many times is still poly-time.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .
 - All standard (classical) models of computation are **equivalent** up to polynomial time.
 - **Closure property:** Repeating a poly-time algorithm polynomially many times is still poly-time.
- We will require security against **adversaries** that run in **polynomial-time** i.e., poly-time attacks are **feasible**.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .
 - All standard (classical) models of computation are **equivalent** up to polynomial time.
 - **Closure property:** Repeating a poly-time algorithm polynomially many times is still poly-time.
- We will require security against **adversaries** that run in **polynomial-time** i.e., poly-time attacks are **feasible**.
 - The adversary can be **randomized**.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .
 - All standard (classical) models of computation are **equivalent** up to polynomial time.
 - **Closure property:** Repeating a poly-time algorithm polynomially many times is still poly-time.
- We will require security against **adversaries** that run in **polynomial-time** i.e., poly-time attacks are **feasible**.
 - The adversary can be **randomized**.
 - The adversary is **non-uniform**.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .
 - All standard (classical) models of computation are **equivalent** up to polynomial time.
 - **Closure property:** Repeating a poly-time algorithm polynomially many times is still poly-time.
- We will require security against **adversaries** that run in **polynomial-time** i.e., poly-time attacks are **feasible**.
 - The adversary can be **randomized**.
 - The adversary is **non-uniform**.
 - **Efficient Adversary:** A non-uniform PPT Turing machine.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .
 - All standard (classical) models of computation are **equivalent** up to polynomial time.
 - **Closure property:** Repeating a poly-time algorithm polynomially many times is still poly-time.
- We will require security against **adversaries** that run in **polynomial-time** i.e., poly-time attacks are **feasible**.
 - The adversary can be **randomized**.
 - The adversary is **non-uniform**.
 - **Efficient Adversary:** A non-uniform PPT Turing machine.
- Cryptographic primitives will also be PPT algorithms.

Efficient Adversaries

Any **efficient** adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most negligible probability.

- **Efficient Algorithms:** Algorithms that have **polynomial runtime** in the security parameter λ .
 - All standard (classical) models of computation are **equivalent** up to polynomial time.
 - **Closure property:** Repeating a poly-time algorithm polynomially many times is still poly-time.
- We will require security against **adversaries** that run in **polynomial-time** i.e., poly-time attacks are **feasible**.
 - The adversary can be **randomized**.
 - The adversary is **non-uniform**.
 - **Efficient Adversary:** A non-uniform PPT Turing machine.
- Cryptographic primitives will also be PPT algorithms.
 - Primitives have a **fixed (small) polynomial runtime** and the adversary can run for **much longer (arbitrary polynomial runtime)**.

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

- How to define “negligible” probability

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

- How to define “negligible” probability
 - Eve successfully attacks an encryption scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda}$.

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

- How to define “negligible” probability
 - Eve successfully attacks an encryption scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda}$.
 - If she repeats the attack polynomially many times (say λ^c), the probability that at least one of them is successful is at least

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

- How to define “negligible” probability
 - Eve successfully attacks an encryption scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda}$.
 - If she repeats the attack polynomially many times (say λ^c), the probability that at least one of them is successful is at least $\lambda^c \cdot 2^{-\lambda}$.

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

- How to define “negligible” probability
 - Eve successfully attacks an encryption scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda}$.
 - If she repeats the attack polynomially many times (say λ^c), the probability that at least one of them is successful is at least $\lambda^c \cdot 2^{-\lambda}$.
 - This is still **low for sufficiently large λ** ; no polynomial can “rescue” $2^{-\lambda}$ from approaching zero.

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

- How to define “negligible” probability
 - Eve successfully attacks an encryption scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda}$.
 - If she repeats the attack polynomially many times (say λ^c), the probability that at least one of them is successful is at least $\lambda^c \cdot 2^{-\lambda}$.
 - This is still **low for sufficiently large λ** ; no polynomial can “rescue” $2^{-\lambda}$ from approaching zero.
 - Our definition of “negligible” probability should be **robust to such amplification strategies** by efficient adversaries.

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

- How to define “negligible” probability
 - Eve successfully attacks an encryption scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda}$.
 - If she repeats the attack polynomially many times (say λ^c), the probability that at least one of them is successful is at least $\lambda^c \cdot 2^{-\lambda}$.
 - This is still **low for sufficiently large λ** ; no polynomial can “rescue” $2^{-\lambda}$ from approaching zero.
 - Our definition of “negligible” probability should be **robust to such amplification strategies** by efficient adversaries.
- **Negligible Function:** A function $\nu(\cdot)$ is **negligible** if for every polynomial $p(\cdot)$, we have $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} p(\lambda) \cdot \nu(\lambda) = 0$.

Negligible Functions

Any efficient adversary should succeed in attacking the scheme with at most **negligible** probability.

- How to define “negligible” probability
 - Eve successfully attacks an encryption scheme with probability at most $2^{-\lambda}$.
 - If she repeats the attack polynomially many times (say λ^c), the probability that at least one of them is successful is at least $\lambda^c \cdot 2^{-\lambda}$.
 - This is still **low for sufficiently large λ** ; no polynomial can “rescue” $2^{-\lambda}$ from approaching zero.
 - Our definition of “negligible” probability should be **robust to such amplification strategies** by efficient adversaries.
- **Negligible Function:** A function $\nu(\cdot)$ is **negligible** if for every polynomial $p(\cdot)$, we have $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} p(\lambda) \cdot \nu(\lambda) = 0$.

For poly-time algorithms, events that occur with negligible probability look like they never occur.

Negligible Functions

- Alternatively, a negligible function decays faster than all inverse polynomial functions.

Negligible Functions

- Alternatively, a negligible function decays faster than all inverse polynomial functions.
- That is, for all $c > 0$, $\nu(\lambda) = O(\lambda^{-c})$.

Negligible Functions

- Alternatively, a negligible function decays faster than all inverse polynomial functions.
- That is, for all $c > 0$, $\nu(\lambda) = O(\lambda^{-c})$.

Negligible Function

A function $\nu : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is negligible if $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}, \exists \Lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lambda > \Lambda$, it holds that

$$\nu(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}.$$

Negligible Functions

- Alternatively, a negligible function decays faster than all inverse polynomial functions.
- That is, for all $c > 0$, $\nu(\lambda) = O(\lambda^{-c})$.

Negligible Function

A function $\nu : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is negligible if $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}, \exists \Lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lambda > \Lambda$, it holds that

$$\nu(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}.$$

Examples: $\nu(\lambda) = 2^{-\lambda}$

Negligible Functions

- Alternatively, a negligible function decays faster than all inverse polynomial functions.
- That is, for all $c > 0$, $\nu(\lambda) = O(\lambda^{-c})$.

Negligible Function

A function $\nu : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is negligible if $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}, \exists \Lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lambda > \Lambda$, it holds that

$$\nu(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}.$$

Examples: $\nu(\lambda) = 2^{-\lambda}$ $\nu(\lambda) = \lambda^{-\log \lambda}$

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since f and g are negligible
 - $\exists \Lambda_f$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_f, f(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$ and $\exists \Lambda_g$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_g, g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$.

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since f and g are negligible
 - $\exists \Lambda_f$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_f, f(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$ and $\exists \Lambda_g$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_g, g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$.
 - Let $\Lambda = \max(\Lambda_f, \Lambda_g, 2)$. For all $\lambda > \Lambda$ we have

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since f and g are negligible
 - $\exists \Lambda_f$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_f, f(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$ and $\exists \Lambda_g$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_g, g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$.
 - Let $\Lambda = \max(\Lambda_f, \Lambda_g, 2)$. For all $\lambda > \Lambda$ we have

$$f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} + \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$$

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since f and g are negligible
 - $\exists \Lambda_f$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_f, f(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$ and $\exists \Lambda_g$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_g, g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$.
 - Let $\Lambda = \max(\Lambda_f, \Lambda_g, 2)$. For all $\lambda > \Lambda$ we have

$$f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} + \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} \leq \frac{2}{\lambda^{c+1}}$$

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since f and g are negligible
 - $\exists \Lambda_f$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_f, f(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$ and $\exists \Lambda_g$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_g, g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$.
 - Let $\Lambda = \max(\Lambda_f, \Lambda_g, 2)$. For all $\lambda > \Lambda$ we have

$$f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} + \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} \leq \frac{2}{\lambda^{c+1}} \leq \frac{\lambda}{\lambda^{c+1}}$$

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since f and g are negligible
 - $\exists \Lambda_f$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_f, f(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$ and $\exists \Lambda_g$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_g, g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$.
 - Let $\Lambda = \max(\Lambda_f, \Lambda_g, 2)$. For all $\lambda > \Lambda$ we have

$$f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} + \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} \leq \frac{2}{\lambda^{c+1}} \leq \frac{\lambda}{\lambda^{c+1}}$$

$\lambda \geq \Lambda \geq 2$

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $f(\lambda)$ and $g(\lambda)$ are negligible functions, then $f(\lambda) + g(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since f and g are negligible
 - $\exists \Lambda_f$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_f, f(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$ and $\exists \Lambda_g$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_g, g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}}$.
 - Let $\Lambda = \max(\Lambda_f, \Lambda_g, 2)$. For all $\lambda > \Lambda$ we have

$$f(\lambda) + g(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} + \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+1}} \leq \frac{2}{\lambda^{c+1}} \leq \frac{\lambda}{\lambda^{c+1}} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}.$$

$\lambda \geq \Lambda \geq 2$

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $\nu(\lambda)$ be a negligible function and $p(\lambda)$ be a polynomial such that $p(\lambda) \geq 0$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$. Then $\nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $\nu(\lambda)$ be a negligible function and $p(\lambda)$ be a polynomial such that $p(\lambda) \geq 0$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$. Then $\nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, \nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $\nu(\lambda)$ be a negligible function and $p(\lambda)$ be a polynomial such that $p(\lambda) \geq 0$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$. Then $\nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, \nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $\nu(\lambda)$ be a negligible function and $p(\lambda)$ be a polynomial such that $p(\lambda) \geq 0$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$.

Then $\nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, \nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since p is a polynomial, $\exists \Lambda_p, c_p$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_p, p(\lambda) \leq \lambda^{c_p}$.

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $\nu(\lambda)$ be a negligible function and $p(\lambda)$ be a polynomial such that $p(\lambda) \geq 0$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$. Then $\nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, \nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since p is a polynomial, $\exists \Lambda_p, c_p$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_p, p(\lambda) \leq \lambda^{c_p}$.
- Since $\nu(\lambda)$ is negligible, $\exists \Lambda_\nu$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_\nu, \nu(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+c_p}}$.

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $\nu(\lambda)$ be a negligible function and $p(\lambda)$ be a polynomial such that $p(\lambda) \geq 0$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$.

Then $\nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, \nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since p is a polynomial, $\exists \Lambda_p, c_p$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_p, p(\lambda) \leq \lambda^{c_p}$.
- Since $\nu(\lambda)$ is negligible, $\exists \Lambda_\nu$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_\nu, \nu(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+c_p}}$.
- Let $\Lambda = \max(\Lambda_p, \Lambda_\nu)$. For all $\lambda > \Lambda$ we have

Negligible Functions: Properties

Lemma: If $\nu(\lambda)$ be a negligible function and $p(\lambda)$ be a polynomial such that $p(\lambda) \geq 0$ for all $\lambda \geq 0$.

Then $\nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda)$ is also negligible.

Proof:

- We want to show that $\forall c, \exists \Lambda$, such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda, \nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}$.
- Fix an arbitrary c .
- Since p is a polynomial, $\exists \Lambda_p, c_p$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_p, p(\lambda) \leq \lambda^{c_p}$.
- Since $\nu(\lambda)$ is negligible, $\exists \Lambda_\nu$ such that $\forall \lambda > \Lambda_\nu, \nu(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+c_p}}$.
- Let $\Lambda = \max(\Lambda_p, \Lambda_\nu)$. For all $\lambda > \Lambda$ we have

$$\nu(\lambda) \cdot p(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^{c+c_p}} \cdot \lambda^{c_p} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda^c}.$$

Ensembles

Our goal is to give an asymptotic definition of computational indistinguishability.

(T, ϵ) -Computational Indistinguishability

Two distributions X and Y are (T, ϵ) -computationally indistinguishable if for all adversaries A that run in time at most T ,

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X} [A(x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y} [A(y) = 1] \right| \leq \epsilon,$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X and Y , and the randomness of A .

- It is not very meaningful to talk about individual distributions when we want to capture asymptotic behavior.
- For example, using longer keys leads to distributions over longer bit strings.

Ensembles

Probability Ensemble

Let \mathcal{I} be a countable index set. An ensemble indexed by \mathcal{I} is a sequence of random variables $\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$.

- In most cases, \mathcal{I} will be the set of natural numbers.

Ensembles

Probability Ensemble

Let \mathcal{I} be a countable index set. An ensemble indexed by \mathcal{I} is a sequence of random variables $\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$.

- In most cases, \mathcal{I} will be the set of natural numbers.
- An ensemble is simply sequence of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots

Ensembles

Probability Ensemble

Let \mathcal{I} be a countable index set. An ensemble indexed by \mathcal{I} is a sequence of random variables $\{X_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$.

- In most cases, \mathcal{I} will be the set of natural numbers.
- An ensemble is simply sequence of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots
 - Allows us to focus on **asymptotic behavior** of distributions e.g., what happens when the key is a **sufficiently long**, uniformly random bit string.

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if
for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if
for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right|$$

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if every **non-uniform PPT adversary** A , for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right|$$

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if every **non-uniform PPT adversary** A , for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right|$$

Denotes string of λ ones.
Ensures A is polynomial in λ .

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if every **non-uniform PPT adversary** A , there exists a **negligible function** $\nu(\lambda)$ such that for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right| \leq \nu(\lambda),$$

Denotes string of λ ones.
Ensures A is polynomial in λ .

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if every **non-uniform PPT adversary** A , there exists a **negligible function** $\nu(\lambda)$ such that for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right| \leq \nu(\lambda),$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X_λ and Y_λ , and the randomness of A .

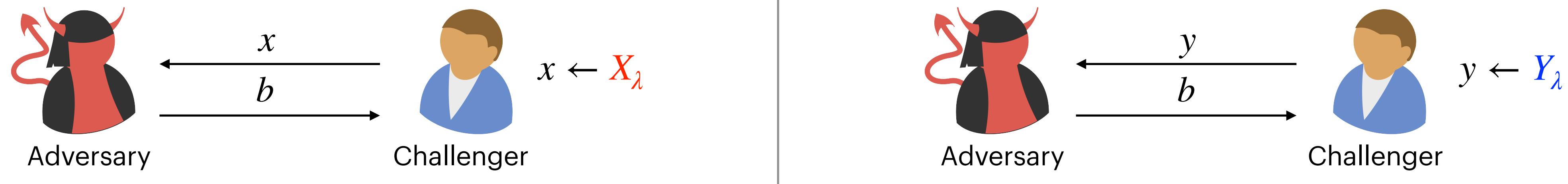
Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if every **non-uniform PPT adversary** A , there exists a **negligible function** $\nu(\lambda)$ such that for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right| \leq \nu(\lambda),$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X_λ and Y_λ , and the randomness of A .



No efficient test can distinguish between the ensembles X and Y .

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if every **non-uniform PPT adversary** A , there exists a **negligible function** $\nu(\lambda)$ such that for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right| \leq \nu(\lambda),$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X_λ and Y_λ , and the randomness of A .

- We use $X \stackrel{c}{\approx} Y$ as a shorthand to denote that the two ensembles are computationally indistinguishable.

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if every **non-uniform PPT adversary** A , there exists a **negligible function** $\nu(\lambda)$ such that for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right| \leq \nu(\lambda),$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X_λ and Y_λ , and the randomness of A .

- We use $X \stackrel{c}{\approx} Y$ as a shorthand to denote that the two ensembles are computationally indistinguishable.
- The value

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right|$$

is called the adversary's **advantage** in distinguishing between X and Y .

Computational Indistinguishability

Computational Indistinguishability

Two probability ensembles $X = \{X_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $Y = \{Y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable if every **non-uniform PPT adversary** A , there exists a **negligible function** $\nu(\lambda)$ such that for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right| \leq \nu(\lambda),$$

where the probability is over sampling from the distributions X_λ and Y_λ , and the randomness of A .

- We use $X \stackrel{c}{\approx} Y$ as a shorthand to denote that the two ensembles are computationally indistinguishable.
- The value

$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow X_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow Y_\lambda} [A(1^\lambda, y) = 1] \right|$$

is called the adversary's **advantage** in distinguishing between X and Y .

- $X \stackrel{c}{\approx} Y$ if all non-uniform PPT adversaries have negligible advantage in distinguishing between the two ensembles.