



8 Randomized Complexity

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The Power of Randomness

We've seen examples where randomized algorithms are provably more powerful . . .
but how general are such improvements?

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↪ back to *decision* problems.

8.1 Randomized Complexity Classes

Randomization for Decision Problems

► Recall: P and NP consider decision problems only

$\rightsquigarrow$ equivalently: languages $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$

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Can make some simplifications for algorithms:

- Only 3 sensible output values: 0, 1, ?
- Unless specified otherwise, allow unlimited #random bits,
i. e., $random_A(x) = time_A(x)$ (Can't read more than one random bit per step)

$\leq$ always

Randomized Complexity Classes

Definition 8.1 (ZPP)

ZPP (*zero-error probabilistic polytime*) is the class of all languages L with a polytime Las Vegas algorithm A , i. e.,

- (a) $\exists c : \text{Time}_A(n) = O(n^c)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (In particular: always terminate!)
- (b) $\mathbb{P}[A(x) = [x \in L]] \geq \frac{1}{2}$
- (c) $A(x) \neq [x \in L]$ implies $A(x) = \boxed{?}$

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Definition 8.2 (BPP)

BPP (bounded-error probabilistic polytime) is the class of languages L with a polytime bounded-error Monte Carlo algorithm A , i. e.,

- (a) $\exists c : \text{Time}_A(n) = O(n^c)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$
- (b) $\exists \varepsilon > 0 : \mathbb{P}[A(x) = [x \in L]] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$

$\wedge$
 $\forall x \in \Sigma^*$

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Definition 8.3 (PP)

PP (probabilistic polytime) is the class of languages L with a polytime **unbounded-error Monte Carlo** algorithm: (a) as above (b) $\mathbb{P}[A(x) = [x \in L]] > \frac{1}{2}$.

Error Bounds

Remark 8.4 (Success Probability)

From the point of view of complexity classes, the success probability bounds are flexible:

- ▶ BPP only requires success probability $\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$, but using *Majority Voting*, we can also obtain any fixed success probability $\delta \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$.
- ▶ Similarly for ZPP, we can use probability amplification on Las Vegas algorithms

↪ Unless otherwise stated,

for BPP and ZPP algorithms A , require $\mathbb{P}[A(x) = [x \in L]] \geq \frac{2}{3}$

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But recall: this is *not* true for **unbounded** errors and class PP.

In fact, we have the following result:

Theorem 8.5 (PP can simulate nondeterminism)

$NP \cup \text{co-NP} \subseteq PP$.

↪ Useful algorithms must avoid unbounded errors.

PP can simulate nondeterminism [1]

Proof (Theorem 8.5):

PP always allows polynomial preprocessing

Given any $L \in \text{NP}$, we can use reduction $L \leq_p \text{SAT}$ (NP-complete)

no suffices to show $\text{SAT} \in \text{PP}$

(TAUT is co-NP-complete

no works similarly

for $\text{co-NP} \leq \text{PP}$)

Given unbounded error MC algo A for SAT
(polynomial)

Given φ of length n over k variables

$A(\varphi)$: (1) Generate a (uniformly) random assignment $V: \{x_1, \dots, x_k\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$
 (k random bits $O(k)$)

(2) If $V(\varphi) = 1$, output 1 $O(k)$

(3) Otherwise output $\mathbb{E}(p)$ $p = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} < \frac{1}{2}$ $O(k)$

PP can simulate nondeterminism [2]

Proof (Theorem 8.5):

running time polytime ✓

correctness : $P[A(\varphi) = [\varphi \text{ sat.}]] \geq \frac{1}{2}$

• $\varphi \in \text{SAT}$ $\exists$ sat. assignment for $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$

$$P[\text{step}(2) \text{ succeeds}] \geq \frac{1}{2^k}$$

$$P[A(\varphi) = 0] = P[V(\varphi) = 0] \cdot P[B(\varphi) = 0] \quad \text{independence}$$

$$\leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^k}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}\right) < \frac{1}{2}$$

• $\varphi \notin \text{SAT}$ $P[V(\varphi) = 1] = 0$

$$P[A(\varphi) = 1] = 1 \cdot P[B(\varphi) = 1] = p < \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow P[A(\varphi) = [\varphi \text{ sat.}]] \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

One-Sided Errors

In many cases, errors of MC algorithm are only *one-sided*.

Example: (simplistic) randomized algorithm for SAT:

Guess assignment, output [ϕ satisfied].

(Note: This is not a MC algorithm, since we cannot give a fixed error bound!)

Observation: No false positives; unsatisfiable ϕ always yield 0.
... could this help?

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otherwise, TSE-MC

Definition 8.6 (One-sided error Monte Carlo algorithms)

A randomized algorithm A for language L is a *one-sided-error Monte-Carlo (OSE-MC) algorithm* if we have

(a) $\mathbb{P}[A(x) = 1] \geq \frac{1}{2}$ for all $x \in L$, and

(b) $\mathbb{P}[A(x) = 0] = 1$ for all $x \notin L$.

$\rightsquigarrow$ OSE-MC: $A(x) = 1$ must always be correct; $A(x) = 0$ may be a lie

One-Sided Error Classes

Definition 8.7 (RP, co-RP)

The classes RP and co-RP are the sets of all languages L with a polytime OSE-MC algorithm for L resp. $\bar{L}$.

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Theorem 8.8 (Complementation feasible $\rightarrow$ errors avoidable)

$\text{RP} \cap \text{co-RP} = \text{ZPP}$.

Proof:

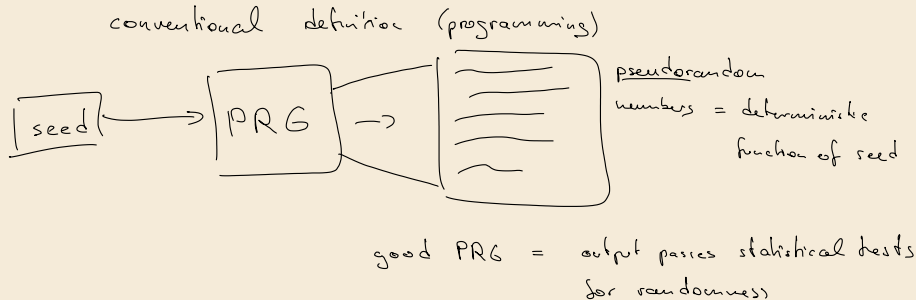
See exercises.

Note the similarity to the wide open problem $\text{NP} \cap \text{co-NP} \stackrel{?}{=} \text{P}$.

For the latter, the common belief is $\text{NP} \cap \text{co-NP} \supsetneq \text{P}$, in sharp contrast to the randomized classes.



8.2 Pseudorandom Generators



Derandomization

► Suppose we have a **BPP** algorithm A , i. e., a polytime TSE-MC algorithm

↪ $Random_A(n)$ bounded

↪ There are at most $2^{Random_A(n)}$ different random-bit inputs ρ
and hence at most so many different computations for A on inputs $x \in \Sigma^n$

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- In general, the exponential blowup makes this uninteresting.

- **But:** If $Random_A(n) \leq c \cdot \lg(n)$,
the derandomization of A runs in polytime: $n^c \cdot Time_A(n)$

$$2^{c \lg n} = (2^{\lg n})^c = n^c$$

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But how would an algorithm actually *know* whether what we give it is truly random?

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int getRandomNumber()  
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↪ Breakthrough idea in TCS: *Pseudorandom Generators*

- ▶ generate an exponential number of bits from a n given truly random bits such that **no efficient** algorithm can distinguish them from truly random

↗ in a model to be specified

- ▶ **Key (Open!) Question:** *Do they exist?!*

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- ▶ **Key (Open!) Question:** *Do they exist?!*
- ▶ **Surprising answer:** We have good evidence in favor (!)

8.3 Excursion: Boolean Circuits

Boolean Circuits

For technical reasons (stay tuned . . .), another model of computation more convenient than TM here.

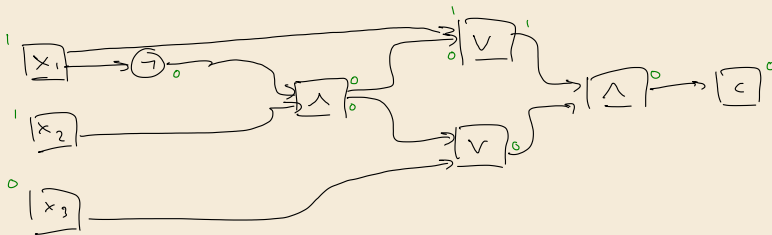
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Definition 8.9 (Boolean circuit)

An n -input *Boolean circuit* is a connected DAG $C = (V, E)$

- ▶ with n *sources* (labeled $x_1, \dots, x_n$)
- ▶ a single *sink* c (the output)
- ▶ any number of *gates* (non-sink vertices) labeled with $\wedge, \vee$, or $\neg$.
- ▶ All gates have in- and out-degree at most 2 (*fan-in* = *fan-out* = 2). ($\neg$ is always unary)



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Definition 8.10 (Circuit complexity)

The circuit complexity $\mathcal{H}(f)$ of a Boolean function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is the size of the *smallest* Boolean circuit C that computes f . ◀

Formula vs. Circuit

Parity function: $P_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \bmod 2$ (odd number of 1-bits?)

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► also: $a \oplus b = (a \wedge \neg b) \vee (\neg a \wedge b)$

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$$(x_1 \oplus x_2 \oplus x_3) \oplus (x_4 \oplus x_5 \oplus x_6)$$

↪ Can build a circuit for P_n using $5(n-1)$ gates

► Obvious boolean formula: (over basis $\{\wedge, \vee, \neg\}$)

$$P_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_n \wedge \neg P_{n-1}(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})) \vee (\neg x_n \wedge P_{n-1}(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}))$$

↪ $5 \cdot 2^{n-1}$ operators

► optimal (assuming $n = 2^k$):

$$P_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (P_{n/2}(x_1, \dots, x_{n/2}) \cap \neg P_{n/2}(x_{n/2+1}, \dots, x_n)) \vee (\neg P_{n/2}(x_1, \dots, x_{n/2}) \cap P_{n/2}(x_{n/2+1}, \dots, x_n))$$

↪ $\Theta(n^2)$ still much more than for circuits!

Circuit Complexity Classes

Poly-size circuits: (somewhat analogous to P , but not quite ...)

► P_{poly} = all functions computable by polynomial-sized circuits

$\forall n \exists C_n : C_n \text{ computes } f|_{\{0,1\}^n}$
and $|C_n| = O(n^d)$

TM can always simulate circuit for fixed n

Circuit Complexity Classes

Poly-size circuits: (somewhat analogous to P , but not quite ...)

- ▶ P_{poly} = all functions computable by *polynomial-sized* circuits
- ▶ Can prove: $P \subseteq P_{\text{poly}}$

Theorem 8.11 (TM to circuit)

For $f \in \text{TIME}(T(n))$ and input size n , we can compute in polytime a circuit C for f on inputs of size n of size $|C| = O(T(n)^2)$.

(Arora & Barak, Theorem 6.6)

time in TM $\hat{=}$ size of circuit

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circuits are *non-uniform* model of computation: *different circuit for each n*
↪ has some weird properties in general (P_{poly} contains a version of halting problem ...)

$$\text{an ex } L = \{1^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \in P_{\text{poly}}$$

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Circuit Lower Bounds:

- ▶ Can show: almost all Boolean functions f have *exponential* $\mathcal{C}(f)$ (counting argument) $\nwarrow \notin NP$
- ▶ But: Very hard to prove circuit lower bounds for *concrete* functions f
 - ▶ Showing $\mathcal{H}(f)$ **exponential** for *any* $f \in NP$ would imply $P \neq NP$
 - ▶ Proven lower bounds on $\mathcal{H}(f)$ for explicit f are typically **linear** in n

Monte Carlo Circuits

We need a somewhat peculiar, weaker form of circuit complexity, where we assume that inputs $\mathbf{X} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ are chosen uniformly at random.

Definition 8.12 (Average-case hardness)

The ρ -average-case hardness $\mathcal{H}_{avg}^\rho(f)$ of a Boolean function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is the largest size S , such that every circuit C with $|C| \leq S$ we have $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbf{X}}[C(\mathbf{X}) = f(\mathbf{X})] < \rho$.
(Need circuits larger than $\mathcal{H}_{avg}^\rho(f)$ for confidence ρ .)

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There exists a function $f \in \text{NP}$ with $\mathcal{H}_{avg}(f) = 2^{\Omega(n)}$.

!NOT PROVEN!



- **Deep result** (that we skip): From existence of function with large $\mathcal{H}(f)$,
can conclude existence of function with large $\mathcal{H}_{avg}(f)$.

(see Arora & Barak Chapter 19)

- 3SAT probably has exponential $\mathcal{H}(f)$ ($\approx$ ETH) (and other candidates exist)

Formalization Pseudorandom Generator

Definition 8.14 (Pseudorandom bits)

A r.v. $R \in \{0, 1\}^m$ is (S, ε) -*pseudorandom* if for every circuit C with $|C| \leq S$

$$\left| \mathbb{P}[C(R) = 1] - \mathbb{P}[C(U_m) = 1] \right| < \varepsilon \quad \text{where} \quad U_m \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\}^m)$$

Pseudorandom bits are indistinguishable from truly random for any small circuit.

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Definition 8.15 (Pseudorandom generator)

Let $S : \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$.

A function $G : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ computable in 2^n time ($G \in \text{TIME}(2^n)$) is an $S(\ell)$ -*pseudorandom generator* ($S(\ell)$ -PRG) if

- (a) $|G(z)| = S(|z|)$ for every $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$
- (b) $\forall \ell \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} : G(U_\ell)$ is $(S(\ell)^3, \frac{1}{10})$ -pseudorandom.

Seeding a generator with ℓ truly random bits yields $S(\ell)$ pseudorandom bits.

8.4 Derandomization

Pseudorandom Generator for BPP Derandomization

The *Nisan-Wigderson construction* shows that the existence of any hard-on-average function implies a strong pseudorandom generator.

↗ exponentially many pseudorandom bits(!)

Theorem 8.16 (Strong NW PRG)

Assume Hypothesis 8.13, i. e., $f \in \text{TIME}(2^{O(n)})$ exists with $\mathcal{H}_{avg}(f) \geq S$ with $S(n) = \underline{2^{\delta n}}$ for a constant $\delta > 0$.

Then there is an $\varepsilon = \varepsilon(\delta)$ such that there is a $2^{\varepsilon \ell}$ -pseudorandom generator. ◀

(We will prove this over the course of the next subsection.)

BPP Derandomization

Theorem 8.17 (Hard-on-average function $\rightarrow$ $\mathbf{BPP} = \mathbf{P}$)

Hypothesis 8.13 implies $\mathbf{BPP} = \mathbf{P}$.



BPP Derandomization

Theorem 8.17 (Hard-on-average function $\rightarrow$ **BPP = P**)

Hypothesis 8.13 implies $\text{BPP} = \text{P}$.

Proof:

By Theorem 8.16, Hypothesis 8.13 implies a $S(\ell)$ -PRG $G : \{0, 1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{S(\ell)}$ with $S(\ell) = 2^{\varepsilon\ell}$.

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Let $L \in \text{BPP}$. $\rightsquigarrow \exists$ ^{P_{TM}}algorithm A with $\text{Time}_A(n) \leq n^c$ (polytime) and $\mathbb{P}_R[A(x, R) = L(x)] \geq \frac{2}{3}$;
here $R \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\}^m)$ for $m = \text{Random}_A(n) \leq \text{Time}_A(n) \leq n^c$.

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We now obtain a **deterministic** polytime algorithm B as follows:

1. Replace R by $G(Z)$ for $Z \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\}^\ell)$ for $\ell = \ell(n) = \frac{c}{\varepsilon} \lg n$ so that $m \leq S(\ell) = 2^{\varepsilon\ell} = n^c$.
2. Instead of this probabilistic TM, simulate $A(x, G(z))$ for **all** possible $z \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$
3. Output the majority.

The trick here is that number of possible seeds z is $2^{\ell(n)} = n^c$, hence the running time remains polynomial and $B \in \text{P}$!

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The trick here is that number of possible seeds z is $2^{\ell(n)} = n^c$, hence the running time remains polynomial and $B \in \text{P}$!

It remains to show that B accepts L .

(Intuition: A is too fast to notice a difference of more than $\frac{1}{10}$ between R and $G(Z)$.)

BPP Derandomization [2]

Proof (cont.):

$B(x) \neq L(x) \rightarrow$ majority vote wrong

Formally, assume towards a contradiction that there is an infinite sequence of x 's with

$$\mathbb{P}_Z[A(x, G(Z)) = L(x)] < \frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{10} = 0.5\overline{6} > \frac{1}{2}.$$

$\angle \frac{1}{2} \angle$

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Then, we can build a *distinguisher* circuit C for the PRG: C simply computes the function $r \mapsto A(x, r)$, where x is hard-wired into the circuit C .

(Recall that $\mathbb{P}_R[A(x, R) = L(x)] \geq \frac{2}{3}$)

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Hence, the majority vote in B is correct

(for all but a finite number of inputs, which can be tested in constant time).

$\rightsquigarrow L \in \text{P}$.

Consequences

- ~> Since the existence of hard-on-average functions is rather likely,
 - ▶ it must be assumed that randomization alone does **not** solve NP-hard problems;
 - ▶ ... and it seems that there is some heavy lifting going on in *Nisan-Wigderson*
- ~> Let's see what it does!

8.5 Nisan-Wigderson Pseudorandom Generator

Overview

- ▶ In this section, we will describe a conditional construction for pseudorandom generators based on the unproven hard-function hypothesis (Hypothesis 8.13).

*The higher the circuit lower bound $S(n)$ for our hard function f ,
the more pseudorandom bits we can generate from a fixed seed of ℓ truly random bits.*

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Theorem 8.18 (PRG from average-case hard function)

Let $S : \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$.

If there exists a function $f \in \text{TIME}(2^{O(n)})$ with $\mathcal{H}_{\text{avg}}(f)(n) \geq S(n)$ for all n , then there exists a $S(\delta\ell)^\delta$ -pseudorandom generator for some constant $\delta > 0$.

This general result is for a refined construction and works also for weaker assumptions.

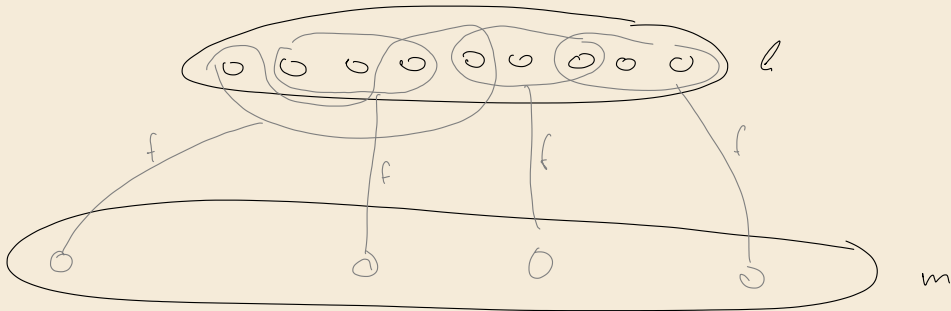
We will show the version sufficient for Theorem 8.16; see Arora & Barak Remark 20.8

Nisan-Wigderson Generator

The idea of the **Nisan-Wigderson (NW) generator** is to feed many (partially overlapping) subsets $I \in \mathcal{J}$ of ℓ truly random input bits into a (hard) function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

$$\text{NW}_J^f(Z) = f(Z_{I_1}) f(Z_{I_2}) \dots f(Z_{I_m})$$

where $Z \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\}^\ell)$ is the random seed and z_I for $I = \{i_1, \dots, i_n\}$ denotes $(z_{i_1}, \dots, z_{i_n})$



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A key component is a sufficiently large subset system $\mathcal{I}$ without too much overlap.

Definition 8.19 (Combinatorial Design)

For $\ell > n > d$, a family $\mathcal{I} = \{I_1, \dots, I_m\}$ of m subsets of $\underline{[\ell]}$ is an (ℓ, n, d) -*design* if for all j and $k \neq j$,

- ▶ we have $|I_j| = n$ and
- ▶ $|I_j \cap I_k| \leq \underline{d}$.

(We will eventually want to use this with $m = 2^{\varepsilon \ell}$.)

Probabilistic Method for Combinatorial Designs

Lemma 8.20 (NW Design)

There is an algorithm A that outputs on input (ℓ, n, d) with $\ell > n > d$ and $\ell > 10n^2/d$ an (ℓ, n, d) -design $\mathcal{J}$ with $|\mathcal{J}| = 2^{d/10}$ subsets of $[\ell]$ in time $2^{O(\ell)}$. 

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Proof:

A is a simple greedy strategy: We start with $\mathcal{J} = \emptyset$. For $m \in [2^{d/10}]$, iterate over all 2^ℓ subsets of $[\ell]$ and include into $\mathcal{J}$ the first set I with $\max_{J \in \mathcal{J}} |J \cap I| \leq d$.

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By Chernoff:

$$(1) \mathbb{P}[|I| \geq n] \geq 0.9 \quad \mathbb{E}[|I|] = 2n$$

$$(2) \mathbb{P}[|I \cap J| \geq d] \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^{-d/10} \text{ for any } J \in \mathcal{J}$$

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$$\bigcup_{J \in \mathcal{J}} \mathbb{P}[|I \cap J| \geq d] \leq \underbrace{|\mathcal{J}| \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^{-d/10}}_{\leq 2^{-d/10}}$$

Since $|\mathcal{J}| \leq 2^{d/10}$ and union bound on (2), $\mathbb{P}[\max_{J \in \mathcal{J}} |J \cap I| \geq d] \leq \frac{1}{2}$.

Hence, with probability at least $0.9 \cdot 0.5 = 0.45$, our random set I has intersection $\leq d$ with all old sets and $\geq n$ elements. Dropping elements until $|I| = n$ does not change that.

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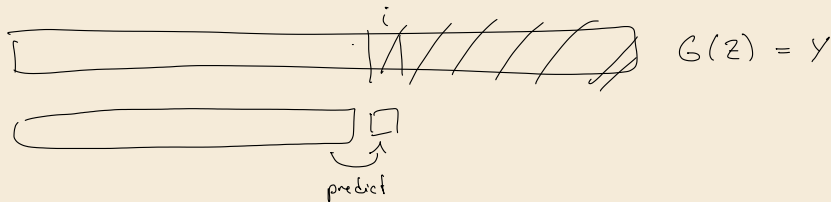
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$\rightsquigarrow$ In each step, we have probability ≥ 0.45 to succeed. So picking m random sets succeeds with probability $\geq 0.45^m > 0$, so some choice of sets $\mathcal{J}$ as claimed must exist. ■

Unpredictable Next Bits

The second ingredient shows the (nontrivial) fact that having an unpredictable next bit implies pseudorandomness.



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Definition 8.21 (unpredictable) $G : \{0, 1\}^{\ell} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{S(\ell)}$

Let $G : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ be a polytime-computable function with $|G(x)| = S(|x|)$ for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ (“stretch S ”).

G is **unpredictable** if there is $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for *every* i and circuit C with $|C| \leq \underline{2S(n)}$ we have for $X \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\}^n)$ and $Y = G(X)$

$$\mathbb{P}_X [C(Y_1 \dots Y_{i-1}) = Y_i] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{S(\ell)}.$$



Unpredictable $\rightarrow$ Pseudorandom

Theorem 8.22 (Yao's Theorem)

Let $S : \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$ be polytime computable and G as above with stretch S .

If G is unpredictable, then G is an $S(\ell)$ -pseudorandom generator.



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Proof (Sketch):

Assume towards a contradiction that G is not a PRG.

Then there exists a circuit C that behaves substantively different on $\underbrace{G(\mathcal{U}(\{0,1\}^\ell))}_{\mathcal{Y}}$ and $\underbrace{\mathcal{U}(\{0,1\}^{S(\ell)})}_{\mathcal{R}}$ bits: $\frac{1}{10}$ more or less likely to output 1.

$$\left| \mathbb{P}[C(\mathcal{R}) = 1] - \mathbb{P}[C(\mathcal{Y}) = 1] \right| \geq \frac{1}{10}$$

Unpredictable $\rightarrow$ Pseudorandom

Theorem 8.22 (Yao's Theorem)

Let $S : \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$ be polytime computable and G as above with stretch S .

If G is unpredictable, then G is an $S(\ell)$ -pseudorandom generator.

Proof (Sketch):

Assume towards a contradiction that G is not a PRG.

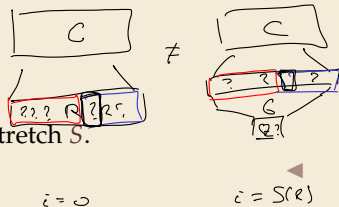
Then there exists a circuit C that behaves substantively different on $G(\mathcal{U}(\{0,1\}^\ell))$ and $\mathcal{U}(\{0,1\}^{S(\ell)})$ bits: $\frac{1}{10}$ more or less likely to output 1.

For each i , we can construct a *predictor* circuit B_i from C :

Run C with $Y[1..i-1]$ followed by truly random bits $Z[i..S(\ell)]$;

if C outputs 1, output $Z[i]$, otherwise $1 - Z[i]$.

$$B_i(\underbrace{Y[1..i-1]}_{\text{known}})$$



Definition 8.21 (unpredictable)

Let $G : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$ be a polytime-computable function with $|G(x)| = S(|x|)$ for all $x \in \{0,1\}^*$ ("stretch S ").

G is unpredictable if there is $\epsilon > 0$ such that for every i and circuit C with $|C| \leq 2S(n)$ we have for $X \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{U}(\{0,1\}^n)$ and $Y = G(X)$

$$\mathbb{P}_X[C(Y_1 \dots Y_{i-1}) = Y_i] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{S(i)}.$$

Unpredictable $\rightarrow$ Pseudorandom

$$d_i = \left| \mathbb{P}[C(Y[1..i-1]Z[i..S(\ell)]) = 1] - \mathbb{P}[C(Y[1..i-1]Z[i-1..S(\ell)]) = 1] \right|$$

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Note that B_0 executes C on purely random bits, $B_{S(\ell)}$ on purely pseudorandom bits.

C differs by $\frac{1}{10}$ on these, so (careful analysis shows that) we cannot have *all* $S(\ell)$ circuits B_i guess correctly only with prob. $\leq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{10} \cdot \frac{1}{S(\ell)}$.



Unpredictable $\rightarrow$ Pseudorandom

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$\exists i$ such that B_i predicts Y_i correctly with prob. $\geq \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon/S(\ell)$,
so G is **not** unpredictable.

(For full details, see Arora & Barak, Theorem 20.10)

NW Pseudorandom Generator

Lemma 8.23 (NW Pseudorandom)

Let $\mathcal{J}$ be an (ℓ, n, d) -design with $m = |\mathcal{J}| = 2^{d/10}$ and $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ a (hard) function with $\mathcal{H}_{avg}(f) > 2^{2d}$. Then $NW_{\mathcal{J}}^f(\mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\}^\ell))$ is $(\frac{1}{10} \mathcal{H}_{avg}(f), \frac{1}{10})$ -pseudorandom. ◀

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By Yao's Theorem, we only need to show that NW is unpredictable; we will show that a predictor circuit C would lead to a small circuit B for f .

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Let $S = \mathcal{H}_{avg}(f)$, i. e., on inputs of size n , f requires circuits larger than $S = S(n) > 2^{2d}$ to be computed with confidence $\geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{S}$.

NW Pseudorandom Generator

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Assume towards a contradiction that NW is predictable
 Towards **refuting the circuit-predictability** of NW, suppose for some $i \in [m]$ there is a circuit C with $|C| \leq 2m < S/2$ and

$$\mathbb{P}_Z [C(R[1..i-1]) = R[i]] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{10m} \quad \text{where} \quad R = \text{NW}(Z) \quad \text{and} \quad Z \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \mathcal{U}(\{0, 1\}^\ell) \quad (*)$$

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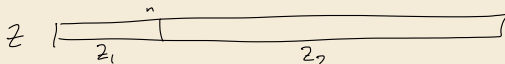
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Recall that $R[j] = f(Z_{I_j})$;

by renaming, assume $R[i] = f(Z[1..n])$ and write $Z_1 = Z[1..n]$ and $Z_2 = Z(n..\ell)$.

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}_Z[C(f(Z_{I_1}) \dots f(Z_{I_{i-1}})) = f(Z_1)] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{10m}$$



NW Pseudorandom Generator [2]

Proof (cont):

not assumptions on X, Y (need
not be indep.)

$$\mathbb{E}_{X,Y} [\mathbb{I}_{A(X,Y)}]$$

Averaging Principle: For event $A = A(X, Y)$ holds $\exists x : \mathbb{P}_Y[A(x, Y)] \geq \mathbb{P}_{X,Y}[A(X, Y)]$

(effectively the probabilistic method on event probabilities)



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We apply this to event $A(Z_2, Z_1) = \{C(f(Z_{I_1}) \dots f(Z_{I_{i-1}})) = f(Z_1)\}$ and Z_2 .

So there are $n - \ell$ bits z_2 , so that:

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}_{Z_1} \left[\underbrace{C(f(Z_{I_1}) \dots f(Z_{I_{i-1}})) = f(Z_1)} \right] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{10m} \quad \text{with} \quad \underline{Z = Z_1 z_2}$$

NW Pseudorandom Generator [2]

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Since $\mathcal{I}$ is an (ℓ, n, d) -design, each $f(Z_{I_j})$ has $\leq d$ bits from Z_1 ; the other $n - d$ are hardcoded bits from z_2 . So we can compute $f(Z_{I_j})$ with a circuit of size $d2^d$ (CNF formula suffices).

$$\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{j \leq i-1}$$

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Putting all $i - 1 \leq m = 2^{d/10}$ of these circuits and C together, we obtain a circuit B of size $2^{d/10} \cdot d2^d$ + $S/2$ < S , with

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NW Pseudorandom Generator [2]

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This contradicts the fact that $S = \mathcal{H}_{avg}(f)$. ■

Picking Parameters

- ▶ **Generic algorithm:**

- ▶ Setup: $f \in TIME(2^{O(n)})$ and $S : \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$ with $\mathcal{H}_{avg}(f) \geq S$
- ▶ Input: Random seed $Z \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$ (truly random bits)

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► Algorithm: $n := \max \left\{ n : \frac{10n^2}{\lg S(n)/10} < \ell \right\}$

$$d := \lg S(n)/10$$

$\mathcal{J} := (\ell, n, d)$ -design with $m = |\mathcal{J}| = 2^{d/10}$ (algorithm from Lemma 8.20)

Output $\text{NW}_{\mathcal{J}}^f(Z)$

$\rightsquigarrow$ By Lemma 8.23, the output is $(S(n)/10, \frac{1}{10})$ pseudorandom.

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► Parameters for Theorem 8.16

► Assuming Hypothesis 8.13: f exists with $\mathcal{H}_{\text{avg}}(f) \geq S$ with $S(n) = 2^{\delta n}$.

► The inequality becomes $\ell > \frac{10n^2}{\lg S(n)/10} = \frac{100n^2}{\delta n} = \frac{100}{\delta}n$, so $n \approx \frac{\delta}{100}\ell$.

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$$\left(S(n), \frac{1}{10} \right) \text{-pr.}$$

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► NW can generate $m = 2^{d/10} = 2^{\delta n/100} = 2^{(\frac{\delta}{100})^2 \ell}$ pseudorandom bits

► Pseudorandom against circuits of size $S(n)/10 = 2^{\delta^2 \ell/100}/10 \underset{\ell \rightarrow \infty}{\gg} 2^{3(\frac{\delta}{100})^2 \ell} = \underline{m^3}$

$\rightsquigarrow \text{NW}_{\mathcal{J}}^f$ is a $2^{\varepsilon \ell}$ -pseudorandom generator with $\varepsilon = (\delta/100)^2$

8.6 Summary

Overview Randomized Complexity Classes

Proven facts:

- ▶ $P \subseteq ZPP \subseteq RP \subseteq BPP \subseteq PP$
 - ▶ $RP \subseteq NP$
 - ▶ $NP \cup co-NP \subseteq PP$
 - ▶ $ZPP = RP \cap co-RP$
 - ▶ $NP \subseteq co-RP \implies NP = ZPP$
- 

Widely held belief (but not proven):

- ▶ $P = BPP$
and hence $P = ZPP = RP = BPP$
- ▶ $BPP \subsetneq NP \subseteq PP$

Consequences

- ▶ **don't** try to solve NP-hard problems *exactly* using randomization in polytime
- ▶ **do** seek *easier and faster* algorithms for problems in P!
They often exist!
- ▶ **do** seek randomized algorithms for problems of unknown complexity status
Some exist!