

Refuters for Algorithms with Known Lower Bounds

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Abstract

Proving lower bounds for algorithms on general models of computation is a central yet largely unfulfilled goal in the field of computational complexity. However, for some restricted models of computation strong lower bounds are known. A lower bound for a problem is said to be constructive if there is an efficient algorithm, known as a refuter, that produces inputs on which the algorithm fails. Recent results indicate that constructive lower bounds for restricted models are as difficult to obtain as some lower bounds for general models. The goal of this work is to explore the state of the art of the construction of refuters for problems with known lower bounds.

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Introduction

1.1 Background and Motivation

Computational complexity is a field of mathematics and theoretical computer science which studies computational problems and the resources that are needed to solve them. A central goal of the field is to prove *lower bounds* on the amount of resources necessary to solve certain problems.

Despite significant efforts over the last 50 years, progress in central problems of the field, such as the P versus NP question, has been very limited. However, we do have developed some understanding about the difficulty of those problems. This understanding has come in the form of the so-called *barriers*, most notably the *relativization* barrier [BGS75], the *natural proofs* barrier [RR97], and the *algebrization* barrier [AW09]. These barriers display certain aspects of the results we know how to prove (such as $P \neq EXP$, $P \not\subseteq AC^0$, and $IP = PSPACE$) which are implied by the

techniques used to prove them, and which are not shared by other results we would like to prove (such as $P \neq NP$ or $NP \not\subseteq P/\text{poly}$). For example, the relativization barrier shows the diagonalization technique used to prove results like $P \neq EXP$ proves statements which are true *relative to any oracle*, while $P \neq NP$ is not true relative to some oracles. This implies that new techniques other than diagonalization need to be used to prove $P \neq NP$.

In this work, we study the “constructivity” aspect of lower bound proofs. Informally, a complexity lower bound for a problem is *constructive* if for any algorithm not satisfying the lower bounds, we can efficiently construct a counterexample showing that the algorithm does not solve the problem, that is, an input in which the algorithm gives a wrong answer.

This kind of “refuter algorithms” were first studied by Kabanets [Kab01] in the context of derandomization, but the first important result in line with the philosophy that we are describing here was by Gutfreund, Shaltiel and Ta Shma [GST05]. They proved that the separation $P \neq NP$ is constructive: that is, assuming that $P \neq NP$, for every polynomial-time algorithm purportedly solving SAT there is an efficient refuter which generates counterexamples against it.

The original motivation of the [GST05] was about average-case complexity. Their result has a nice interpretation from the perspective of Impagliazzo’s five worlds [Imp95], a classification of possible “worlds” we could live in depending on the truth or falsity of conjectures about average-case complexity and the existence of cryptographic primitives. One possible world, *Algorithmica*, is the world where $P = NP$ and therefore all NP problems are easy in the worst case. Another possible world, *Heuristica*, is the world where $P \neq NP$ but all NP problems are easy in the average case, that is, for every efficiently samplable input distribution there exists a polynomial-time algorithm which solves the problem on inputs from that distribution. One could imagine an intermediate world, *Super-Heuristica*, where the quantifiers are reversed and we have one algorithm which works for all samplable distributions, despite having $P \neq NP$. The results of [GST05] imply that this world can not exist.

Another motivation for the results of [GST05] and of subsequent work [BTW10] is more practical: provide hard examples for SAT solvers. SAT solvers, that is,

heuristic algorithms for SAT, are widely used in scientific and industrial applications. The result of [GST05] provides an algorithm for generating hard instances for those solvers, which may be useful for the purposes of benchmarking their performance.

A recent article by Chen, Jin, Santhanam and Williams [Che+24] provides motivation for constructivity of lower bounds as a “barrier-style” result: many lower bounds that we know how to prove are non-constructive, but the lower bounds that we would like to prove are constructive. More concretely, in [Che+24] they show that:

1. Many important conjectured separations are constructive, including not only $P \neq NP$ but also $P \neq PSPACE$, $BPP \neq NEXP$ and $ZPP \neq EXP$.
2. Many lower bounds that we know how to prove via non-constructive methods are difficult to make constructive: if a refuter algorithm were found, it would imply breakthrough results in complexity theory that we currently do not know how to prove, including $P \neq NP$!

In the view of [Che+24], this is evidence that in order to make progress in proving lower bounds, new techniques which are inherently “algorithmic” and constructive need to be developed. A similar observation was made by Mulmuley [Mul10] in the context of the “Geometric Complexity Theory” program to prove complexity lower bounds using algebraic geometry.

1.2 Overview

The starting point of this work is the article [Che+24]. In this work, we expose some of its results and also provide some extensions, focusing on the question of when can refuters be constructed for problems with known lower bounds.

In Chapter 2, we expose the contents of [Che+24], especially those results which we will discuss later in the work, providing the necessary technical background for them.

In Chapter 3, we discuss refuters against query algorithms. Given an input $x \in \{0,1\}^n$, we want to distinguish between the case where x has at least $(1/2 + \epsilon)n$

ones and the case where x has at most $(1/2 - \epsilon)n$ ones. It is a standard exercise in probability to show that we can do so by randomly sampling $O(1/\epsilon^2)$ positions of the string x . It is also known, at least since [CEG95], that such random sampling is the best one can do under very general conditions. That is, there is no algorithm that reliably distinguishes between the two cases using only $o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries to the string. In [Che+24] it is shown that making this lower bound constructive would imply $P \neq NP$! We discuss this refuters for this problem in the chapter, showing a randomized refuter, reproducing the proof of [Che+24] and discussing possible variations and strengthenings, and providing deterministic refuters for weaker algorithms.

In Chapter 4, we discuss refuters against one-tape Turing machines. The original machine model defined by Turing [Tur36] had only one tape, but in modern computational complexity the model of computation is usually taken to be *multi-tape* Turing machines, since one-tape TMs have some unrealistic limitations. For example, they require $\Omega(n^2)$ time to recognize palindromes [Hen65]. In [Che+24], it is shown that making this lower bound constructive would imply breakthrough circuit lower bounds. In the chapter, we discuss refuters for the problem of palindromes, showing a randomized refuter, reproducing the proof of [Che+24] with more generality, proving that in some refuters can not exist if we assume the existence of a certain cryptographic primitive, and providing deterministic refuters for weaker one-tape TMs.

1.3 Our Contributions

This document contains both an exposition of the results of [Che+24] (and their background) and some original contributions.

Our probabilistic refuters exposed in Section 3.1 for query algorithms and in Section 4.1 for Turing Machines can be considered an adapted exposition of the results of [CEG95] and [Hen65], respectively, since we just expose the proof of the lower bound and then we make the (simple) observation that it can be turned into a probabilistic refuter. This way of looking at these results relates the claims of obtaining breakthroughs via refuters of [Che+24] with the derandomization of these probabilistic refuters. Also, we do note that our adaptation of the results of [CEG95] has in some

aspects more generality than the original.

Our proof of the non-existence of refuters for one-tape TMs assuming the existence of cryptographic primitives follows directly from an argument in [CLO24]. However, the context of [CLO24] is different (non-provability of lower bounds in bounded arithmetic), and we believe the adaptation into the constructive separations context is valuable since it shows that specific claims made in [Che+24] are vacuous assuming the existence of cryptographic primitives. We explain how to modify the claims to make them non-vacuous even if the relevant cryptographic primitive exists.

The most novel part of this work is the construction of refuters for weak algorithms, developed in Section 3.3 for query algorithms and in Section 4.4 for one-tape TMs. That is, even if [Che+24] shows that providing (deterministic) refuters against algorithms not satisfying the lower bound would imply breakthrough results, we do exhibit refuters that work for weaker lower bounds (that is, for more stringent requirements on the number of queries or the time complexity of the 1-TM for the algorithms being refuted). We develop a “frontier” between the scenarios where refuters can be constructed and the ones where proving their existence would imply a breakthrough result. Often, this frontier is quite tight in the sense that slightly relaxing one of the conditions stated in [Che+24] in order to get a breakthrough result makes a refuter easily constructible. In other cases, though, some small gaps remain. We summarize those cases in the form of “Open Questions” that we believe are interesting avenues for further research.

2

Constructive Separations

This chapter is a more technical introduction to the rest of this work. We lay out the definitions of fundamental concepts that we will be using and state the theorems proven in [Che+24] that motivate this work.

2.1 Preliminaries

We presuppose a certain level of familiarity with computational complexity theory. However, for convenience in this section we will define some of the basic important concepts that we will use, as well as explain some of the notational choices we have made in this work. We will not be overtly formal and detailed with the more common definitions. Anything not defined here can be found in standard references for the subject, such as [AB09].

As usual in theoretical computer science, we will work with formal languages.

Given a set Σ , the set Σ^* is the set of *words* over the alphabet Σ , that is, the set of finite strings of elements of Σ . We denote the empty word by λ . A language L over Σ is a subset of Σ^* . We will often identify decisional problems with languages over $\{0, 1\}$, with the encodings of the positive instances of the problem belonging to the language.

We sometimes identify a single character $x \in \Sigma$ with the word in Σ^* consisting of that single character. Given two words $w_1, w_2 \in \Sigma^*$, we denote by $w_1||w_2$ their concatenation. Sometimes we will omit the symbol and just write w_1w_2 . We denote by exponentiation w^n the repeated concatenation of w n times. For example, 1^n denotes a string of n ones. We denote by w^R the reverse of the word w . We denote by w_i the i -th character of w (1-indexed). We denote by $w[i \dots j]$ the subword of w from the i -th character to the j -th character inclusive, and denote by $w(i \dots j)$, $w[i \dots j)$, $w(i \dots j)$ the corresponding subwords with one or both of the ends excluded. If $S \subseteq [n]$, we denote by $w[S]$ the subsequence of w with indices in S . We denote by $|w|$ the length of a word w . Given a nonnegative integer n , we let $\text{len } n = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 1$ be the length of its binary representation.

A deterministic finite automaton (DFA) over an alphabet Σ is a tuple $M = (Q, q_0, \delta, S)$, where Q is a finite set of states, $q_0 \in Q$ is the initial state, $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ is the transition function, and $S \subseteq Q$ is the set of accepting states. An automaton M accepts a word $w \in \Sigma^*$ if there exists a sequence of states $p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{|w|}$ with $p_0 = q_0$, $p_{i+1} = \delta(p_i, w_{i+1})$, and $p_{|w|} \in S$. A language is said to be regular if it is the set of words accepted by a DFA. We denote by **REG** the set of all regular languages. A nondeterministic finite automaton is similarly defined, but the transition function now can output *sets* of states. We refer the reader to [HU79] to learn more about automata and languages.

A one-tape Turing machine over an input alphabet Σ is a tuple $(Q, \Gamma, \perp, \delta, q_0, q_A, q_R)$, where Q is the set of states, $\Gamma \supset \Sigma$ is the tape alphabet, $\perp \in \Gamma \setminus \Sigma$ is the blank symbol, $\delta: Q \times \Gamma \rightarrow Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\}$ is the transition function, and $q_0, q_A, q_R \in Q$ are the initial, accepting and rejecting states. The Turing machine has an infinite bidirectional tape subdivided into cells which we will index by integers, and a moving head which can read and write on one cell at a time. The execution of a machine on input $x \in \Sigma^*$

begins with all the cells of the tape containing the character \perp except the cells from 1 to $|x|$, which contain x , and with the moving head positioned in cell 1. The execution progresses as follows: if the machine is in state q and the moving head is reading character c from its cell and $\delta(q, c) = (q', c', D)$, in one step the machine will write character c' on the current cell of the head, will move the head one cell in direction D and will switch to state q' . The execution stops when the machine enters either the accepting or rejecting states. The set of words so that the machine enters the accepting state with that word as input is the language recognized by the machine. We can also define non-deterministic machines, in which the transition function can point to sets of *two* states, and we say that a word is accepted by the machine if there is a choice of transitions to follow so that the word is accepted.

We defined one-tape Turing machines, in contrast with the “multitape” model which is more common in complexity theory [AB09], because we will use this model of computation in Chapter 4. However, other than that, our “default” model of computation will be the multitape Turing machines, and “algorithms” are understood to be multi-tape TMs unless otherwise specified. We will abbreviate “one-tape Turing machine” to 1-TM, and we will use 1-DTM and 1-NTM to specifically refer to deterministic and non-deterministic one-tape Turing machines, respectively. It is well-known that 1-TMs can simulate multitape TMs with a quadratic overhead. One of the techniques to do so is to set the tape alphabet of the 1-TM to be the product of k copies of the tape alphabet of the k -tape TM. This way, each cell in the tape is divided into k “tracks”, each representing one tape of the k -tape machine. We will use again at some points in Chapter 4 this technique of extending the tape alphabet and dividing into tracks.

Now we will see some definitions about query algorithms, the other limited model of computation we will work with in this thesis. The following definitions are not so common, so we isolate them for clarity.

Definition 2.1. A function $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a *k-junta* if there is a set of k indices so that f does not depend on the bits outside that set.

A decision tree over $\{0, 1\}^n$ is a tree, where each internal node is labeled with an index i and has two children, the two edges leading from an internal node to its

children are labeled 0 and 1, and each leaf is labeled with an output value (0 or 1). A decision tree computes a function $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ by moving from the root to a leaf according to the values of the values queried.

We also want to consider query algorithms that are *uniform* (i.e. they are generated by a single algorithm for all n), and also that are *probabilistic*.

Definition 2.2. Let $k(n)$ be a function of n with $k(n) \leq n$.

A *uniform distribution of $k(n)$ -juntas* is a probabilistic algorithm \mathcal{A} which, being run on input x with $|x| = n$, is given as input n in binary together with $O(k(n) \log n)$ bits describing a subset S of size $k(n)$ of $[n]$, together with the values of x on the indices of S .

A *(randomized) query algorithm using $k(n)$ queries* is a probabilistic algorithm \mathcal{A} which, being run on input x with $|x| = n$, is given as input n in binary and has oracle access to x (i.e. has a special tape and a special state so that, when writing i in binary in the tape, is given the value of x_i) which always does at most $k(n)$ oracle queries.

The way inputs are given in the definition of query algorithm is relevant, since we will discuss query algorithms running in time sublinear in n .

When executing a randomized or non-deterministic algorithm \mathcal{A} on input x with a fixed sequence of random or non-deterministic choices r , we will usually denote the result by $\mathcal{A}(x, r)$. Another concept we will use for randomized algorithms is the *probability gap*.

Definition 2.3. A randomized decisional algorithm $\mathcal{A}(x, r)$ has *probability gap* δ if there exists a function $\bar{\mathcal{A}}: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ such that, for all x , $\Pr_r [\mathcal{A}(x, r) = \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x)] \geq \frac{1+\delta}{2}$. The function $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$ is the *determination* of \mathcal{A} .

We say that a randomized algorithm $\mathcal{A}(x, r)$ has bounded probability gap if it has probability gap δ for some $\delta > 0$.

Finally, we define some terms related to boolean circuits.

A boolean circuit is a directed acyclic graph where each of the non-source vertices is called a gate and has associated a type \wedge , \vee or \neg , corresponding to the logical

operations AND, OR and NOT. The vertices of \neg type have indegree 1; we say that the circuit is of *unbounded fan-in* if we allow the vertices of type \wedge and \vee to have any indegree, otherwise the vertices of \wedge and \vee types should have indegree 2. The size $|C|$ of a circuit C is the number of vertices in it. A *circuit family* is a sequence of circuits $\{C_n\}_n$ in which C_i has i sources. It has polynomial size (respectively, quasipolynomial size) if there exists a polynomial $f(n)$ (resp. $f(n) = 2^{(\log n)^{O(1)}}$) so that $|C_n| \leq f(n)$. A circuit with n sources is evaluated on an input $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ in the natural way.

Definition 2.4. The *depth* of a circuit is the length of the longest path from a source to a sink.

A family of unbounded fan-in circuits is AC^0 (resp. qAC^0) if it has polynomial (resp. quasipolynomial) size and all the circuits in the family have depth bounded by a constant.

A family $\{C_n\}_n$ of circuits is NC^1 (resp. qNC^1) if it has polynomial (resp. quasipolynomial) size and circuit C_n has depth $O(\log n)$.

Definition 2.5. A family of circuits $\{C_n\}_n$ is *polylogtime-uniform* if there is an algorithm B that, given n in binary and additional input of length $2 \log |C_n|$ identifying two vertices of C_n , reports the types of gates of the two vertices and whether there is an edge between them in $\text{polylog}(n)$ time.

2.2 Refuters and Constructive Separations

2.2.1 Basic Definitions

Here we define the concept of *constructive separation* as defined in [Che+24].

Definition 2.6. For a function $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ and an algorithm \mathcal{A} , a P-refuter for f against \mathcal{A} is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm R that, given input 1^n , prints a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, such that for infinitely many n , $\mathcal{A}(x) \neq f(x)$.

A BPP-refuter for f against \mathcal{A} is a randomized polynomial time algorithm R that, given input 1^n , prints a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, such that for infinitely many n , $\mathcal{A}(x) \neq f(x)$ with probability at least $2/3$.

A ZPP-refuter for f against \mathcal{A} is a randomized polynomial time algorithm R that, given input 1^n , prints $x \in \{0, 1\}^n \cup \{\perp\}$, such that for infinitely many n , either $x = \perp$ or $\mathcal{A}(x) \neq f(x)$, and $x \neq \perp$ with probability at least $2/3$.

We allow the algorithm \mathcal{A} to be randomized, but we will only consider algorithms with bounded probability gap. Unless otherwise stated, when we say we are constructing a refuter against a class of randomized algorithms \mathcal{A} we will impose that the algorithms \mathcal{A} being refuted must have a probability gap of $1/3$, and the outputs of the refuter R must be counterexamples against $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$, the determination function of \mathcal{A} .

Definition 2.7. For $\mathcal{D} \in \{\text{P}, \text{BPP}, \text{ZPP}\}$ and a class of algorithms \mathcal{C} , we say there is a \mathcal{D} -constructive separation of $f \notin \mathcal{C}$, if for every algorithm \mathcal{A} computable in \mathcal{C} , there is a refuter for f against \mathcal{A} that is computable in \mathcal{D} .

This is the definition as given in [Che+24, Definition 1.1], but in the article \mathcal{D} -refuters and \mathcal{D} -constructive separations for other classes of algorithms \mathcal{D} are also considered. For other classes of deterministic algorithms \mathcal{D} , the definition of \mathcal{D} -refuter and \mathcal{D} -constructive separation is as in the definition of P-refuter, but replacing “polynomial time algorithm” with “algorithm from the class \mathcal{D} ”.

2.2.2 Additional Aspects of Refuters

A possible relaxation that we can consider of Definition 2.6 is to allow the refuter to output not only one counterexample, but a list of possible candidates that contains at least one counterexample.

Definition 2.8. For a function $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, an algorithm \mathcal{A} , and a function $\ell(n): \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ a $\ell(n)$ -length P-list-refuter for f against \mathcal{A} is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm R that, given input 1^n , prints a list of length n strings $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(\ell(n))} \in \{0, 1\}^n$, such that for infinitely many n , there exists an $i \in [\ell(n)]$ so that $\mathcal{A}(x^{(i)}) \neq f(x^{(i)})$.

We can extend the definition to \mathcal{D} -list-refuters for other classes \mathcal{D} , and we can refer to polynomial-length or quasipolynomial-length list-refuters to indicate that the function $\ell(n)$ is polynomial or quasipolynomial, respectively.

Another possible variant concerns the dependency of the refuter with the algorithm. Note that in Definition 2.7, the refuter is allowed to depend non-uniformly in the algorithm. In ??, the refuter is a uniform algorithm which is given the source code and the running time of the algorithm being refuted. Atserias [Ats06] constructed a BPP-refuter against polynomial-size circuits computing SAT which is *almost* black-box: it only needs oracle access to the circuits and a bound on the exponent of their size. A truly black-box refuter would only use oracle access to the algorithm being refuted. We can also consider refuters that do not depend on the algorithm being refuted at all: those were called *explicit obstructions* in [CJW20], or also *oblivious list-refuters*.

Definition 2.9. For a function $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, a class of algorithms \mathcal{C} , and a function $\ell(n): \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ a $\ell(n)$ -length \mathbf{P} explicit obstructions refuter for f against \mathcal{C} is a deterministic polynomial time algorithm R that, given input 1^n , prints a list of length n strings $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(\ell(n))} \in \{0, 1\}^n$, such that for all $\mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{C}$, for infinitely many n , there exists an $i \in [\ell(n)]$ so that $\mathcal{A}(x^{(i)}) \neq f(x^{(i)})$.

2.3 Constructive Separations for Known Results Imply Breakthroughs

We proceed to state the theorems proven in [Che+24] that are the foundations for this work. They say that the existence of constructive separations of problems with known lower bounds for restricted models of computation implies breakthrough results in complexity theory. This section is an introduction to these results; their proofs and further study of them will be done in the following chapters.

In [Che+24] there are four pairs of restricted models of computation and computational problems studied: query algorithms and the promise majority problem, one-tape Turing machines and the palindromes problem, streaming algorithms and

the set disjointness problem, and AC^0 circuits and the minimum circuit size problem. In this work, we will only consider the first two.

2.3.1 Query Algorithms and PrMAJ

For a function $\epsilon(n)$ of n , consider the following basic problem $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ (denoted by $\text{PromiseMAJORITY}_{n,\epsilon}$ in [Che+24]):

$\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ given an input $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, determine whether $w_1(x) \geq (1/2 + \epsilon)n$ or $w_1(x) \leq (1/2 - \epsilon)n$, given that it is one of the two cases.

It is proven in [CEG95] that query algorithms solving this problem must make $\Omega(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries; in [Che+24] they show that making the lower bound sufficiently constructive implies $\text{P} \neq \text{NP}$! Here, “sufficiently constructive” means that the refuter needs to be polylogtime-uniform- AC^0 (though, as we will see, polylogtime-uniform- qAC^0 refuters suffice), but it is still possible to get $\text{P} \neq \text{PSPACE}$ using the less restrictive polylogtime-uniform- NC^1 circuits.

Theorem 2.10 (Theorem 1.6 from [Che+24]). *Let ϵ be a function of n satisfying $\epsilon \leq 1/(\log n)^{\omega(1)}$, and $1/\epsilon$ is a positive integer computable in $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time given n in binary.*

- *If there is a polylogtime-uniform- AC^0 -constructive separation of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ from randomized query algorithms A using $o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries and $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time, then $\text{NP} \neq \text{P}$.*
- *If there is a polylogtime-uniform- NC^1 -constructive separation of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ from randomized query algorithms A using $o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries and $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time, then $\text{PSPACE} \neq \text{P}$.*

We will discuss this result and other aspects of refuters of the PrMAJ problem for query algorithms in Chapter 3.

2.3.2 One-Tape Turing Machines and PAL

Consider the language of binary palindromes $\text{PAL} = \{w \in \{0, 1\}^* : w = w^R\}$. One of the earliest results in complexity theory is a lower bound of $\Omega(n^2)$ time for recognizing this language in the model of 1-TMs. This bound works even for non-deterministic machines. In [Che+24] they show that making the lower bound constructive would imply breakthrough circuit lower bounds:

Theorem 2.11 (Theorem 3.4 from [Che+24]). *The following hold:*

- *If there is a \mathbf{P}^{NP} -constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic $O(n^{1.1})$ time one-tape Turing machines, then $\mathbf{E}^{\text{NP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.*
- *If there is a \mathbf{P} -constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic $O(n^{1.1})$ time one-tape Turing machines, then $\mathbf{E} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.*
- *If there is a LOGSPACE -constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic $O(n^{1.1})$ time one-tape Turing machines, then $\text{PSPACE} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.*

We will discuss this result and other aspects of refuters of the PAL problem for 1-TMs in Chapter 3.

2.3.3 Lemmas About Circuit Complexity of Refuters

The proofs in [Che+24] about refuters against limited models of computation implying breakthrough results all follow the same scheme:

- Assuming the negation of the breakthrough result, the output $R(1^n)$ of the refuter can be generated by small circuits.
- The limited model of computation has enough power (possibly assuming the negation of the breakthrough result) to “learn” or “guess” the circuit generating the input.

- Once the circuit generating the input is known, the problem can be solved in the limited model of computation. Hence, there is an algorithm in that model which works against all refuters, proving the contrapositive of the statement.

The first step is done through the following simple lemmas:

Lemma 2.12. *Let $T(n), s(n)$ be non-decreasing functions such that $T(n) \geq n$ and $s(n) \geq n$. If $\text{DTIME}(T(2^{n/2})) \subseteq \text{SIZE}(s(n))$, then for every algorithm R running in time $T(n)$ and outputting n bits, the output of $R(1^n)$ can be computed by a circuit of size $s(2 \log n)$, which takes as input an index $0 \leq i < n$ and outputs the i -th bit of $R(1^n)$.*

Proof. Consider the function $f_R(m, i)$ which, given m and i in binary, outputs the i -th bit of $R(1^m)$. The inputs to f_R can be encoded in $N = 2 \log n$ bits so that the input size is the same for each input (m, i) with the same m . Processing the input takes $O(2^{N/2}) = O(T(2^{N/2}))$ time and computing takes $T(n) \leq T(2^{N/2})$ time, so $f_R \in \text{DTIME}(T(2^{N/2}))$. Therefore, f_R has circuits of size $s(N)$. We get the desired result by considering, for each n , the circuit for f_R with input size $2 \log n$ which we modify by fixing the first $\log n$ input bits to the binary representation of n . \square

Lemma 2.13. *The following hold:*

1. *Assuming $P = NP$, for every polylogtime-uniform qAC^0 algorithm R such that $R(1^n)$ outputs n bits, $R(1^n)$ can be computed by a $\text{polylog}(n)$ -size circuit which takes as input an index $0 \leq i < n$ and outputs the i -th bit of $R(1^n)$.*
2. *Assuming $P = PSPACE$, for every polylogtime-uniform qNC^1 algorithm R such that $R(1^n)$ outputs n bits, $R(1^n)$ can be computed by a $\text{polylog}(n)$ -size circuit which takes as input an index $0 \leq i < n$ and outputs the i -th bit of $R(1^n)$.*

Proof. We prove the first item:

Let B be the polynomial-time algorithm that, given integer n in binary and $\text{polylog}(n)$ -bit additional input, reports gate and wire information for a qAC^0 circuit R_n . Consider the function $f_R(m, i)$ which, given m and i in binary, outputs the i -th bit of $R(1^m) = R_m(1^m)$.

We have that $f_R \in \text{PH}$, since the evaluation of the circuit consists of a finite alternation of existential and universal statements (corresponding to the OR and AND gates of the circuit) which can be verified using the polynomial-time algorithm B . Since $\text{P} = \text{NP}$, f_R is computable in \P , which means that it has polynomial-size circuits. We conclude as in the previous lemma.

The same argument applies to the second item replacing qAC^0 by qNC^1 and PH by PSPACE . \square

3

Refuters for Query Algorithms

In this chapter, we study constructive separations in the query algorithm setting. In particular, we study the problem PrMAJ of determining whether a binary string $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ has at least $(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)n$ ones or at most $(\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon)n$ ones, under the promise that it is one of the two cases.

We will prove the $\Omega(1/\epsilon^2)$ lower bound in the number of queries for PrMAJ, show a randomized constructive separation against algorithms using fewer queries, and prove and discuss Theorem 2.10, the result from [Che+24] showing that breakthrough lower bounds follow from sufficiently constructive separations for the problem.

3.1 Lower Bounds Against Query Algorithms for PrMAJ

The obvious algorithm for PrMAJ consists in randomly sampling values and answering according to the majority of the values we have obtained. According to well-studied bounds on the binomial distribution, for this strategy $\Theta(1/\epsilon^2)$ samples are necessary and sufficient to make the probability of error smaller than any fixed constant.

In this section, we will prove the very intuitive result that this is essentially the best that can be done, that is, that there is no query algorithm making $o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries that gives the right answer with small probability of error. This was proved in [CEG95] in the more general context of *samplers*: algorithms that compute the average of a real-valued function $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow [0, 1]$ by sampling some of the inputs.

The result that we will prove here is stronger than the one stated in [CEG95]: we will prove not just that such query algorithms require $\Omega(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries in order to have a high success probability *for all* inputs; instead, we will prove that $\Omega(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries are required for *random* inputs, where the probability of success is over the randomness of both the input and the algorithm. This will allow us to obtain a constructive separation.

3.1.1 Proof of Lower Bounds for Random Inputs

Definition 3.1. A probability distribution \mathcal{D} on $\{0, 1\}^n$ has *homogeneous symmetry* if for every $y \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and every pair of subsets $S, S' \subset [n]$ with $|S| = |S'| = |y|$, $\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}}[x[S] = y] = \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}}[x[S'] = y]$. That is, the probability $\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}}[x[S] = y]$ does not depend on the set S for sets S with $|S| = |y|$. Denote by $F_{\mathcal{D}}(y)$ the probability $\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}}[x[S] = y]$ for any S with $|S| = |y|$.

A probability distribution \mathcal{D} on $\{0, 1\}^n$ has *complementary symmetry* if for every $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$, $\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}}[x = y] = \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}}[x = \bar{y}]$, where \bar{y} is the complementary vector of y .

A probability distribution \mathcal{D} on $\{0, 1\}^n$ is *symmetric* if it has homogeneous symmetry and it has complementary symmetry.

Fix n and ϵ , and let $X_\epsilon^+ = \{x \in \{0,1\}^n | w_1(x) \geq (\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)n\}$ and $X_\epsilon^- = \{x \in \{0,1\}^n | w_1(x) \leq (\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon)n\}$. For \mathcal{D} a probability distribution on $\{0,1\}^n$ for which the events $x \in X_\epsilon^+$ and $x \in X_\epsilon^-$ have nonzero probability (where x is the string of n bits sampled by the distribution), denote by \mathcal{D}^+ the probability distribution conditioned on $x \in X_\epsilon^+$, and by \mathcal{D}^- the probability distribution conditioned on $x \in X_\epsilon^-$. We denote by $f_{\mathcal{D}}(a, b)$ the value of $F_{\mathcal{D}}(0^a 1^b)$.

Lemma 3.2. *Let \mathcal{D} be a distribution on $\{0,1\}^n$ which has homogeneous symmetry.*

1. *The probability $F_{\mathcal{D}}(y)$ only depends on the number of zeros and ones of y : $F_{\mathcal{D}}(y) = F_{\mathcal{D}}(0^{w_0(y)} 1^{w_1(y)}) = f_{\mathcal{D}}(w_0(y), w_1(y))$.*
2. *If the events $x \in X_\epsilon^+$ and $x \in X_\epsilon^-$ have nonzero probability (i.e. \mathcal{D}^+ and \mathcal{D}^- are well-defined), the distributions \mathcal{D}^+ and \mathcal{D}^- have homogeneous symmetry.*
3. *If \mathcal{D}^+ and \mathcal{D}^- are well-defined and $a \leq b$, then $f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(b, a) \leq f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(a, b)$ and $f_{\mathcal{D}^-}(a, b) \leq f_{\mathcal{D}^-}(b, a)$.*
4. *If \mathcal{D} has complementary symmetry and \mathcal{D}^+ and \mathcal{D}^- are well-defined, then $f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(a, b) = f_{\mathcal{D}^-}(b, a)$ for all $a, b \geq 0$.*

Proof. Let us prove the first item. For $|y| = 1$ it is clear that the value of $F_{\mathcal{D}}(y)$ only depends the number of zeros and ones of y , since $y = 0$ or $y = 1$. Now we want to prove that for every y with $|y| \geq 2$, $F_{\mathcal{D}}(y) = F_{\mathcal{D}}(0^{w_0(y)} 1^{w_1(y)})$. To prove that, it is enough to prove that we can perform “swaps” for any substring 10 in y , that is, that if $y = y_0 || 10 || y_1$, then $F_{\mathcal{D}}(y_0 || 10 || y_1) = F_{\mathcal{D}}(y_0 || 01 || y_1)$. By a sequence of such swaps, we can always reach the string $0^{w_0(y)} 1^{w_1(y)}$. This is proved as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
F_{\mathcal{D}}(y_0 || 10 || y_1) &= \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 10 || y_1] \\
&= \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 10 || y_1] + \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 00 || y_1] - \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 00 || y_1] \\
&= \Pr[x[S \setminus \{i\}] = y_0 || 0 || y_1] - \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 00 || y_1] \\
&= \Pr[x[S \setminus \{j\}] = y_0 || 0 || y_1] - \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 00 || y_1] \\
&= \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 01 || y_1] + \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 00 || y_1] - \Pr[x[S] = y_0 || 00 || y_1] \\
&= F_{\mathcal{D}}(y_0 || 01 || y_1),
\end{aligned}$$

where i and j are the indices of S corresponding to the 10 subsequence.

Second item:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}^+} [x[S] = y] &= \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x[S] = y | x \in X_\epsilon^+] \\
&= \frac{1}{\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x \in X_\epsilon^+]} \sum_{\substack{z \in X_\epsilon^+ \\ z[S] = y}} \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x = z] \\
&= \frac{1}{\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x \in X_\epsilon^+]} \sum_{\substack{z \in X_\epsilon^+ \\ z[S] = y}} F_{\mathcal{D}}(0^{w_0(z)} 1^{w_1(z)}) \quad (\text{first item on set } S = [n]) \\
&= \frac{1}{\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x \in X_\epsilon^+]} \sum_{\substack{z \in X_\epsilon^+ \\ z[S'] = y}} F_{\mathcal{D}}(0^{w_0(z)} 1^{w_1(z)}) \\
&= \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}^+} [x[S'] = y].
\end{aligned}$$

Third item:

$$\begin{aligned}
f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(b, a) &= \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}^+} [x[a + b] = 0^b 1^a] \\
&= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{a+b} \binom{a+b}{b}} \sum_{S \in \binom{[n]}{a+b}} \sum_{\substack{y \in \{0,1\}^{a+b} \\ w_0(y) = b}} \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}^+} [x[S] = y] \quad (\text{homog. sym.}) \\
&= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{a+b} \binom{a+b}{b}} \sum_{S \in \binom{[n]}{a+b}} \sum_{\substack{y \in \{0,1\}^{a+b} \\ w_0(y) = b}} \sum_{\substack{z \in X_\epsilon^+ \\ z[S] = y}} \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}^+} [x = z] \\
&= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{a+b} \binom{a+b}{b}} \sum_{z \in X_\epsilon^+} \binom{w_0(z)}{b} \binom{w_1(z)}{a} \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}^+} [x = z] \quad (\text{swap sums}) \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\binom{n}{a+b} \binom{a+b}{b}} \sum_{z \in X_\epsilon^+} \binom{w_0(z)}{a} \binom{w_1(z)}{b} \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}^+} [x = z] \quad (*) \\
&= f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(a, b),
\end{aligned}$$

where the inequality at $(*)$ uses that if $x \leq y$ and $a \leq b$, then $\binom{x}{a} \binom{y}{b} \geq \binom{x}{b} \binom{y}{a}$. The proof of $f_{\mathcal{D}^-}(a, b) \leq f_{\mathcal{D}^-}(b, a)$ is analogous.

Fourth item:

$$\begin{aligned}
f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(a, b) &= \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x[[a + b]] = 0^a 1^b | x \in X_\epsilon^+] \\
&= \frac{1}{\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x \in X_\epsilon^+]} \sum_{\substack{y \in X_\epsilon^+ \\ y[[a+b]] = 0^a 1^b}} \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x = y] \\
&= \frac{1}{\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x \in X_\epsilon^-]} \sum_{\substack{y \in X_\epsilon^- \\ y[[a+b]] = 1^a 0^b}} \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x = y] \quad (\text{comp. sym.}) \\
&= \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [x[[a + b]] = 1^a 0^b | x \in X_\epsilon^-] = f_{\mathcal{D}^-}(b, a).
\end{aligned}$$

□

Lemma 3.3. *Let \mathcal{D} be a symmetric distribution supported on $X_\epsilon^+ \cup X_\epsilon^-$, and let \mathcal{A} be a probabilistic query algorithm that always does t queries and solves $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ with error probability δ on inputs sampled from \mathcal{D} . Then:*

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\lceil t/2 \rceil - 1} \binom{t}{i} f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(t-i, i) \leq \delta.$$

Proof. Denote by x the input, and let $Y = y_1 \dots y_t$ denote the random variable corresponding to the values of the t sampled points. Note that Y depends on x and also on the randomness over the execution of \mathcal{A} .

Let $P^+ = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = 0 | x \in X_\epsilon^+]$ the probability that the algorithm errs conditioned on x having a majority of ones, and similarly let $P^- = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = 1 | x \in X_\epsilon^-]$ be the probability that the algorithm errs conditioned on x having a majority of zeros.

We have:

$$P^+ = \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^t} \Pr[Y = y | x \in X_\epsilon^+] \Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = 0 | Y = y, x \in X_\epsilon^+].$$

Now note the following:

- Once y is fixed, the result of \mathcal{A} does not depend on x , but only on y and r . Hence

$\Pr[A(x) = 0|Y = y, x \in X_\epsilon^+] = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = 0|Y = y] = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = 0|Y = y, x \in X_\epsilon^-]$.
We denote this probability by $G_{\mathcal{A}}(y)$.

- Since \mathcal{D} is symmetric, the event $Y = y$ does not depend on the randomness r of the algorithm and in fact $\Pr[Y = y|x \in X_\epsilon^+] = F_{\mathcal{D}^+}(y)$. This is because, fixing some randomness r in the algorithm, the event that the sequence of t sample points is equal to y is equivalent to the event that a subsequence of $x[S]$ of x of size t is equal to a particular permutation of $\sigma(y)$ of y . By Lemma 3.2 (1), this probability does not depend on S or σ .

Thus,

$$P^+ = \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^t} F_{\mathcal{D}^+}(y) \cdot G_{\mathcal{A}}(y).$$

Similarly:

$$P^- = \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^t} F_{\mathcal{D}^-}(y) \cdot (1 - G_{\mathcal{A}}(y)).$$

Adding them and applying Lemma 3.2, we get the desired result:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta &\geq \frac{1}{2} (P^+ + P^-) && (\text{compl. sym.}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^t} F_{\mathcal{D}^+}(y) \cdot G_{\mathcal{A}}(y) + F_{\mathcal{D}^-}(y) \cdot (1 - G_{\mathcal{A}}(y)) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^t} \min\{F_{\mathcal{D}^+}(y), F_{\mathcal{D}^-}(y)\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^t \binom{t}{i} \min\{f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(i, t-i), f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(t-i, i)\} && (\text{Lemma 3.2 (4)}) \\ &\geq \sum_{i=0}^{\lceil t/2 \rceil - 1} \binom{t}{i} f_{\mathcal{D}^+}(t-i, i). && (\text{Lemma 3.2 (3)}) \end{aligned}$$

□

In the previous results, we considered n and ϵ to be fixed. Now we prove a result for algorithms which work for all n :

Theorem 3.4. *Let $\epsilon(n)$ be a function of n with $\epsilon(n) = o(1)$, and let \mathcal{A} be a query algorithm that solves the PrMAJ problem on inputs uniformly drawn from $S_n = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^n \mid w_1(x) \in \{\lfloor (1/2 - \epsilon)n \rfloor, \lceil (1/2 + \epsilon)n \rceil\}\}$ with failure probability $\delta(n)$ using always at most $t(n)$ queries, with $t(n) \leq \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{n}$. There exists an absolute constant C so that:*

$$t(n) \geq \frac{1}{4\epsilon^2} \log \left(\frac{C}{\delta} \right)$$

for all sufficiently large n .

Proof. First, we can assume that the algorithm always samples exactly $t(n)$ distinct points. Otherwise, we can create an algorithm A' which samples additional points before answering until exactly $t(n)$ points have been sampled.

For each n , the uniform distribution U_{S_n} on S_n is a symmetric distribution. Therefore, by Lemma 3.3, we have:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\lceil t/2 \rceil - 1} \binom{t}{i} f_{U_{S_n}^+}(t-i, i) \leq \delta(n).$$

Let $k = \lceil (1/2 + \epsilon)n \rceil$. We can compute $f_{U_{S_n}^+}$:

$$f_{U_{S_n}^+}(t-w, w) = \frac{\binom{n-t}{k-w}}{\binom{n}{k}} = \frac{(n-t)!k!(n-k)!}{n!(k-w)!((n-k)-(t-w))!} = \frac{(k)_w}{(n)_w} \frac{(n-k)_{t-w}}{(n-w)_{t-w}} \quad (3.1)$$

Where $(n)_h = \frac{n!}{(n-h)!}$ is the falling factorial. We use the following elementary inequalities for the falling factorial (which follow from the inequality $1+x \leq e^x$):

$$n^h e^{-\frac{h^2}{2(n-h)}} \leq (n)_h \leq n^h e^{-\frac{h(h-1)}{2n}}$$

So we have:

$$\frac{(k)_w}{(n)_w} \geq \frac{k^w e^{-\frac{w^2}{2(k-w)}}}{n^w e^{-\frac{w(w-1)}{2n}}} = \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^w e^{-w\left(\frac{w}{2(k-w)} - \frac{w-1}{2n}\right)}$$

Recall that $w \leq t \leq \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{n}$, and that $k > \frac{1}{2}n$. Using this, we can see that for sufficiently large n , we have that $e^{-w\left(\frac{w}{2(k-w)} - \frac{w-1}{2n}\right)} \geq 1/\sqrt{2}$, so:

$$\frac{(k)_w}{(n)_w} \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^w$$

Similarly, for sufficiently large n we have:

$$\frac{(n-k)_{t-w}}{(n-w)_{t-w}} \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{n-k}{n-w}\right)^{t-w} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{n-k}{n}\right)^{t-w}$$

Substituting in (3.1), we have:

$$f_{U_{S_n}^+}(t-w, w) \geq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^w \left(\frac{n-k}{n}\right)^{t-w}$$

So that:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta &\geq \sum_{i=0}^{\lceil t/2 \rceil - 1} \binom{t}{i} f_{U_{S_n}^+}(t-i, i) \\ &\geq \sum_{i=0}^{\lceil t/2 \rceil - 1} \frac{1}{2} \binom{t}{i} \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^i \left(\frac{n-k}{n}\right)^{t-i} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \Pr_{X \sim \text{Bin}(t, k/n)} \left[X < \left\lceil \frac{t}{2} \right\rceil \right] \end{aligned}$$

By standard lower bounds on the tail of the binomial distribution [Fel43], there exist t_0 , ϵ_0 and C_0 so that if $t \geq t_0$ and $k/n - 1/2 \leq \epsilon_0$, then $\Pr_{X \sim \text{Bin}(t, k/n)} \left[X < \left\lceil \frac{t}{2} \right\rceil \right] \geq C_0 e^{-4\epsilon^2 t}$. Since the value of the left hand side for $t \leq t_0$ and sufficiently large n is bounded below by some constant, we can choose a sufficiently small $C \leq C_0/2$ so that the inequality $\Pr_{X \sim \text{Bin}(t, k/n)} \left[X < \left\lceil \frac{t}{2} \right\rceil \right] \geq 2C e^{-4\epsilon^2 t}$ holds for all t and all sufficiently large n . Rearranging, we get the desired result.

□

Corollary 3.5. *Let $\epsilon(n)$ be a function satisfying $\epsilon(n) = \omega(n^{-1/4})$ and $\epsilon(n) = o(1)$. Then, all query algorithms \mathcal{A} solving $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ with success probability $2/3$ for all inputs do at least $\Omega(1/\epsilon(n)^2)$ queries.*

Proof. Consider the query algorithm \mathcal{A}^* consisting in repeating algorithm \mathcal{A} multiple times and taking the majority answer, where the number of repetitions is a constant such that the failure probability of \mathcal{A}^* is strictly less than the constant C from Theorem 3.4. Algorithm \mathcal{A}^* in particular has failure probability $\delta < C$ on inputs uniformly drawn from S_n , so we can apply Theorem 3.4 to show that \mathcal{A}^* does $\Omega(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries in the worst case. Note that we use $\epsilon(n) = \omega(n^{-1/4})$ for this. Since \mathcal{A}^* repeats \mathcal{A} a constant number of times, \mathcal{A} does $\Omega(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries in the worst case. □

3.1.2 Randomized Constructive Separation

Theorem 3.4 shows that uniformly sampling from S_n results in inputs for which any algorithm with high success probability requires $\Omega(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries. However, in order to have a BPP-constructive separation as in Definition 2.7, we need to address some details regarding amplifying probabilities.

- Recall that we only assume that the algorithms have a probability gap of $1/3$. Theorem 3.4 does not allow algorithms using $o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries to have arbitrarily large probability gaps, but is perfectly consistent with an algorithm using $o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries and giving the correct answer with probability $2/3$. This is solved by refuting an amplified version of the algorithm as in Corollary 3.5.
- Recall that in Definition 2.6 we require randomized refuters to output counterexamples with probability at least $2/3$. Theorem 3.4 does not assure that a random sample from S_n will be a counterexample with high probability: Indeed, the algorithm that always answers 1 will be correct with probability $1/2$ on a uniformly random input from S_n . Therefore, our refuter needs to amplify this probability.

Theorem 3.6. *Let $\epsilon(n)$ be a function satisfying $\epsilon(n) = \omega(n^{-1/4})$ and $\epsilon(n) = o(1)$. There is a BPP-constructive separation of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ from randomized query algorithms using $o(\epsilon^{-2})$ queries and running in $\text{poly}(n)$ time.*

Proof. Fix two arbitrary constants δ_0, δ_1 with $0 < 4 \cdot \delta_1 < \delta_0 < \min\{C, 4/3\}$, for the constant C of Theorem 3.4. Let \mathcal{A} be the algorithm being refuted, let $\bar{\mathcal{A}}$ be the determination of \mathcal{A} , and denote by $L(x)$ be the answer of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ on input x . Consider the query algorithm \mathcal{A}^* consisting in repeating algorithm \mathcal{A} multiple times and taking the majority answer, where the number of repetitions is a constant such that for all x $\Pr_r [\mathcal{A}^*(x) \neq \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x)] < \delta_1$, where the probability is over the randomness r in the execution of \mathcal{A}^* . By Theorem 3.4, for n large enough we have that $\Pr_{x \leftarrow U_{S_n}, r} [\mathcal{A}^*(x) \neq L(x)] \geq \delta_0$.

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_0 &\leq \Pr [\mathcal{A}^*(x) \neq L(x)] \\ &= \Pr [\mathcal{A}^*(x) \neq L(x) | \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) = L(x)] \Pr [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) = L(x)] \\ &\quad + \Pr [\mathcal{A}^*(x) \neq L(x) | \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x)] \Pr [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x)] \\ &= \Pr [\mathcal{A}^*(x) \neq \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) | \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) = L(x)] \Pr [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) = L(x)] \\ &\quad + \Pr [\mathcal{A}^*(x) \neq L(x) | \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x)] \Pr [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x)] \\ &< \delta_1 + \Pr [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x)]. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\Pr [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x)] > (\delta_0 - \delta_1) > 3\delta_1$. Our refuter works as follows: it repeatedly samples $x \leftarrow U_{S_n}$ and simulates \mathcal{A}^* (with randomness) on input x until it finds an the output of \mathcal{A}^* is different from $L(x)$, and outputs that x .

The probability that our refuter outputs a correct counterexample is bounded below by the probability that the event $\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x)$ happens before the event $\mathcal{A}^*(x, r) \neq \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x)$, which is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr_{x,r} [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x) \wedge \mathcal{A}^*(x, r) = \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x)] (\Pr_{x,r} [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) = L(x) \wedge \mathcal{A}^*(x, r) = \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x)])^{i-1} \quad (3.2)$$

Denote by $p = \Pr [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x)]$. Note that:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \Pr_{x,r} [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x) \wedge \mathcal{A}^*(x, r) = \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x)] \\
&= \sum_{y \in S_n} \Pr_{x,r} [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) \neq L(x) \wedge \mathcal{A}^*(x, r) = \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) | x = y] \Pr_x [x = y] \\
&= \sum_{\substack{y \in S_n \\ \bar{\mathcal{A}}(y) \neq L(y)}} \Pr_r [\mathcal{A}^*(y, r) = \bar{\mathcal{A}}(y)] \Pr_x [x = y] \\
&\geq \sum_{\substack{y \in S_n \\ \bar{\mathcal{A}}(y) \neq L(y)}} (1 - \delta_1) \Pr_x [x = y] \\
&= (1 - \delta_1)p.
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\Pr_{x,r} [\bar{\mathcal{A}}(x) = L(x) \wedge \mathcal{A}^*(x, r) = \bar{\mathcal{A}}(x)] \geq (1 - \delta_1)(1 - p).$$

Therefore, (3.2) is bounded below by:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (1 - \delta_1)p((1 - \delta_1)(1 - p))^{i-1} = \frac{p(1 - \delta_1)}{\delta_1 + p(1 - \delta_1)} > \frac{3(1 - \delta_1)}{1 + 3(1 - \delta_1)} > \frac{2}{3},$$

where we used that $p > 3\delta_1$ and $\delta_1 < 1/3$. So our refuter has success probability greater than $2/3$, as desired. In fact, if we stop after a sufficiently large constant number of repetitions to ensure always halting in polynomial time, we can check we still get success probability at least $2/3$.

□

3.2 Sufficiently Constructive Separations Imply Lower Bounds

Recall that in [Che+24], the following theorem is proved:

Theorem 2.10 (Theorem 1.6 from [Che+24]). *Let ϵ be a function of n satisfying $\epsilon \leq 1/(\log n)^{\omega(1)}$, and $1/\epsilon$ is a positive integer computable in $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time given n in binary.*

- *If there is a polylogtime-uniform- AC^0 -constructive separation of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ from randomized query algorithms A using $o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries and $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time, then $\text{NP} \neq \text{P}$.*
- *If there is a polylogtime-uniform- NC^1 -constructive separation of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ from randomized query algorithms A using $o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries and $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time, then $\text{PSPACE} \neq \text{P}$.*

From the proof we can get a stronger statement, with several improvements that are relevant for studying the best possible refuters in this setting:

- The refuters can be quasipolynomial-size circuits (that is, qAC^0 and qNC^1 rather than AC^0 and NC^1).
- The refuters can be quasipolynomial-length list-refuters.
- It is only necessary to refute algorithms making $O(1/\epsilon^{1+\delta})$ queries, for some $\delta > 0$.
- It is only necessary to refute algorithms which are uniform distributions of k -juntas (not general randomized query algorithms).

Theorem 3.7. *Let ϵ be a function of n satisfying $\epsilon \leq 1/(\log n)^{\omega(1)}$, and $1/\epsilon$ is a positive integer computable in $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time given n in binary. Let $\delta > 0$, and let $t = 1/\epsilon^{1+\delta}$.*

- *If for every uniform distribution of t -juntas running in $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time there exist a polylogtime-uniform- qAC^0 quasipolynomial-length list-refuter R of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ against \mathcal{A} , then $\text{NP} \neq \text{P}$.*
- *If for every uniform distribution of t -juntas running in $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time there exist a polylogtime-uniform- qNC^1 -uniform quasipolynomial-length list-refuter R of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ against \mathcal{A} , then $\text{PSPACE} \neq \text{P}$.*

Proof. We will prove only the first item. The proof of the second item is analogous using the corresponding second item from Lemma 2.13. Assuming $P = NP$, we will construct an algorithm \mathcal{A} running in $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time which samples t points uniformly at random and solves the $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ on the inputs generated by any polylogtime-uniform- qAC^0 list-refuter.

At the beginning, \mathcal{A} computes ϵ in $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time. From an argument similar to Lemma 2.13, the output $R(1^n)$ has circuit complexity $\text{polylog}(n)$ (the function $f_R(m, i)$ now has inputs of size $\text{polylog}(n)$, but otherwise the proof of Lemma 2.13 is not modified).

Therefore, there is a circuit of size $(c \log n)^c$ for some constant c which computes the input given the index i in binary. Since $\epsilon \leq 1/(\log n)^{\omega(1)}$, $(c \log n)^c \leq 1/\epsilon^{\delta/2}$ for sufficiently large n . The number of circuits of size at most $1/\epsilon^{\delta/2}$ is $2^{O(\epsilon^{-\delta/2} \log \epsilon^{-1})}$. Therefore, this circuit can be PAC-learned with error $\epsilon/2$ and failure probability $p = 1/6$ using $O(\epsilon^{-1} \cdot (\epsilon^{-\delta/2} \log \epsilon^{-1} + \log p^{-1})) \leq O(\epsilon^{-(1+\delta)})$ random samples [MRT18, Theorem 2.5]. Given that $P = NP$, the learning of the circuit C can be done in $\text{poly}(t, \log n) = \text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time. Let D be the resulting circuit.

We decide $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon/2}$ on the output of D by sampling $\Theta(1/\epsilon^2)$ uniformly random inputs from D , so that the probability of success is at least $5/6$, and return the result as our answer. This takes $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ time. Since the circuit D only has error $\epsilon/2$ compared with the original input string, the answer of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ on the original input string is the same as the answer of $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon/2}$ on the output of D .

In total, our algorithm has success probability $2/3$, time complexity $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$, and sample complexity $O(1/\epsilon^{1+\delta})$. \square

3.3 Constructive Separations Against Weaker Query Algorithms

In Theorem 2.10, there are two important quantitative assumptions that must hold in order to obtain a lower bound:

1. We must have a refuter against all t -juntas with $t = O(1/\epsilon^{1+\delta})$ for some $\delta > 0$.

2. The function $\epsilon(n)$ must go to zero sufficiently fast: $\epsilon(n) = 1/(\log n)^{\omega(1)}$.

We can wonder whether those conditions are *tight*, in the sense that if we relax them slightly then we can have a constructive separation. We will show that the answer is positive for both of those conditions.

3.3.1 Refuters for $t \leq C/\epsilon$

In Theorem 2.10, we need a refuter against t -juntas for $t = \Omega(1/\epsilon^{1+\delta})$ for any $\delta > 0$ in order to obtain a breakthrough. This condition is tight in the sense that we can easily construct list-refuters for any query algorithms making less than C/ϵ queries (for some C depending on the probability gap of the algorithms).

Theorem 3.8. *Let $\epsilon(n)$ be a function so that $\epsilon(n) = o(1)$, $\epsilon(n) > 1/n$ and the integer $1/\epsilon$ is computable in polynomial time in n . There exists a polynomial-time algorithm R that, on input 1^n , outputs a list of $O(1/\epsilon)$ strings of length n , so that every query algorithm using $\frac{1}{16\epsilon}$ queries fails on one of the strings in the list with probability at least $1/3$.*

Proof. The algorithm R outputs $1 + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{4\lceil \epsilon n \rceil} \right\rfloor$ strings.

The first string consist of $\lfloor (1/2 - \epsilon)n \rfloor$ ones, followed by zeros. The i -th next string ($1 \leq i \leq \left\lfloor \frac{n}{4\lceil \epsilon n \rceil} \right\rfloor$) consists of $\lfloor (1/2 - \epsilon)n \rfloor$ ones followed by zeros in all positions except for the block from position $\lfloor (1/2)n \rfloor + (i-1) \cdot 2\lceil \epsilon n \rceil$ to $\lfloor (1/2)n \rfloor + i \cdot 2\lceil \epsilon n \rceil - 1$. That is, each string has a block of $2\lceil \epsilon n \rceil$ consecutive ones on its right half, disjoint with the blocks of all other strings.

Let \mathcal{A} be any query algorithm as in the statement, and consider its execution on the first string. With any fixed randomness r for which \mathcal{A} answers correctly on that string, it will answer incorrectly on at least half of the remaining $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4\lceil \epsilon n \rceil} \right\rfloor < \frac{1}{8\epsilon}$ strings, since \mathcal{A} can hit at most $\frac{1}{16\epsilon}$ distinct blocks with its queries. Therefore, if \mathcal{A} answers correctly on the first string with probability at least $2/3$, it will answer incorrectly with probability at least $1/3$ on at least one of the other strings.

□

Note that this is an “explicit obstructions” result: the list refuter does not depend on the algorithm being refuted. Note also that the refuter works for any query algorithm, not just juntas, and also the refuter is quite simple and therefore can be implemented in restricted circuit models if they allow computation of $1/\epsilon$ and simple arithmetic operations with it.

3.3.2 Derandomization of Query Algorithms

One possible approach to obtaining deterministic constructive separations is to try to derandomize the constructive separation of Theorem 3.6. Pseudorandom generators fooling query algorithms are well-studied [HH23], and they will allow us to obtain a quasipolynomial list-refuter when $\epsilon = 1/(\log(n))^{O(1)}$.

Definition 3.9. A set X_1, \dots, X_n of random variables is k -wise independent if for any $I \subseteq [n]$ with $|I| = k$ and any values $\{x_i\}_{i \in I}$, we have that the events $\{X_i = x_i\}_{i \in I}$ are independent.

We say that a probability distribution \mathcal{D} on $\{0, 1\}^n$ is k -wise independent if the n random variables corresponding to each of the bits are k -wise independent.

We say that a probability distribution \mathcal{D} on $\{0, 1\}^n$ is k -wise independent probability p Bernoulli if it is k -wise independent and $\Pr[x_i = 1] = p$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$.

It is clear that k -juntas can not distinguish between k -wise independent Bernoulli distributions and n independent Bernoulli random variables with the same probability. Interestingly, these distributions also fool any query algorithm using k queries.

Theorem 3.10. *Let \mathcal{A} be a query algorithm using k queries on $\{0, 1\}^n$, let \mathcal{D} be the distribution of n independent Bernoulli variables with probability p on $\{0, 1\}^n$, and let \mathcal{D}' be a k -wise independent probability p Bernoulli distribution on $\{0, 1\}^n$. Then:*

$$\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [\mathcal{A}(x) = 1] = \Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}'} [\mathcal{A}(x) = 1].$$

Proof. Note that it is sufficient to prove the result assuming \mathcal{A} is a (deterministic) depth- k decision tree, since if \mathcal{A} is probabilistic, the result for each of the decision trees

resulting from each fixed randomness implies the desired result for the probabilistic algorithm.

Let \mathcal{L} be the set of leaves of the decision tree, and for each $u \in \mathcal{L}$, let $\mathcal{A}_u(x)$ be equal to 1 if $\mathcal{A}(x) = 1$ and \mathcal{A} ends at leaf u of the tree on input x , and 0 otherwise. Note that $\mathcal{A}_u(x)$ is a k -junta and that $\mathcal{A}(x) = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{L}} \mathcal{A}_u(x)$. Therefore:

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [\mathcal{A}(x)] = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{L}} \mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}} [\mathcal{A}_u(x)] = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{L}} \mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}'} [\mathcal{A}_u(x)] = \mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}'} [\mathcal{A}(x)],$$

and we have the desired result since $\Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = 1] = \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{A}(x)]$, because $\mathcal{A}(x)$ takes values 0 and 1. \square

Now, we show that there is an efficient pseudorandom generator which samples from a k -wise independent distribution with seed length $O(k \log n)$.

Theorem 3.11. *There is a polynomial-time algorithm \mathcal{A} which, given as input integers n, k with $n \geq k \geq 1$, an integer p with $0 \leq p \leq 2^{\lceil \log_2 n \rceil}$, and $s = k \lceil \log_2 n \rceil$ random bits, outputs n bits with a k -wise independent probability $p/2^{\lceil \log_2 n \rceil}$ Bernoulli distribution.*

Proof. Let $q = 2^{\lceil \log_2 n \rceil}$, and let \mathbb{F}_q be the finite field with q elements.

Let \mathcal{P}_{k-1} be the set of univariate polynomials of degree at most $k-1$ in \mathbb{F}_q , and let $z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{F}_q$ be distinct elements of the field. Define the function $G: \mathcal{P}_{k-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q^n$ by

$$G(p) = (p(z_1), \dots, p(z_n)).$$

We claim that, when p is sampled uniformly at random from \mathcal{P}_{k-1} , the distribution of $G(p)$ is k -wise independent. This is because, for all $I \subset [n]$ with $|I| \leq k$ and all sequences of values $\{x_i\}_{i \in I}$ in \mathbb{F}_q , the number of $p \in \mathcal{P}_{k-1}$ so that $p(z_i) = x_i$ for all $i \in I$ is exactly $q^{k-|I|}$, since each polynomial $p \in \mathcal{P}_{k-1}$ is uniquely determined by its evaluation at k distinct points and conversely each possible sequence of values at k distinct points yields a unique polynomial. Thus:

$$\Pr \left[\bigwedge_{i \in I} p(z_i) = x_i \right] = \frac{1}{q^{|I|}} = \prod_{i \in I} \Pr [p(z_i) = x_i],$$

and therefore the $|I|$ events $p(z_i) = x_i$ are independent, as desired.

Now we describe the generator \mathcal{A} . We interpret the seed as the encoding of k elements of \mathbb{F}_q , determining a polynomial $p \in \mathcal{P}_{k-1}$, and we set the output bit to be 1 if $f(p(z_i)) \leq p$ and to be 0 otherwise, where f is some bijection from \mathbb{F}_q to $\{1, \dots, q\}$. Therefore, each bit has probability p/q of being equal to 1, and the k -wise independence of the distribution follows from the k -wise independence of $G(p)$. \square

And finally, we can use this pseudorandom generator to derandomize Theorem 3.6. Note that we can not derandomize the part where we amplify the probability, since that would require simulating the algorithm \mathcal{A} being refuted, which requires additional randomness. We do not prove all of the details, since the argument is similar to that of Theorem 3.4 but with a different probability distribution and with some additional complications.

Theorem 3.12. *Let $\epsilon = \epsilon(n) = 1/(\log n)^{O(1)}$ and let $\delta > 0$ be a sufficiently small constant. There exists a quasipolynomial-time quasipolynomial-list-refuter R for $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ against all query algorithms using $t(n) = o(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries with probability gap bounded by $1 - 2\delta$.*

Proof sketch. The refuter is as follows: On input 1^n , set $k = 1/\epsilon^2$, $q = 2^{\lceil \log_2 n \rceil}$ and run the k -wise independent generator from Theorem 3.11 for all of the $2^{O(k \log n)} = 2^{\text{polylog}(n)}$ seeds for each of $p = p_+ = \lceil q \cdot (1/2 + 2\epsilon) \rceil$ and $p = p_- = \lfloor q \cdot (1/2 - 2\epsilon) \rfloor$. Output all the results which satisfy the at least $(1/2 + \epsilon)n$ ones or at most $(1/2 - \epsilon)n$ ones promise.

Consider the uniform probability distribution on the outputs of the refuter \mathcal{D}_1 . This distribution is statistically close to the uniform distribution \mathcal{D}_2 on all the outputs of the generator, without filtering those that do not satisfy the promise, since there are very few that do not satisfy the promise (a fraction of around $\Pr_{X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p_+/q)} [X < (1/2 + \epsilon)n]$). In turn, distribution \mathcal{D}_2 is indistinguishable by algorithms making $t(n)$ queries from the corresponding distribution \mathcal{D}_3 in which either all n bits are sampled from independent Bernoullis with probability p_+/q or all n bits are sampled from Bernoullis with probability p_-/q , each of the two options with probability $1/2$. And finally, distribution \mathcal{D}_3 is statistically close to distribution \mathcal{D}_4 , which is distribution \mathcal{D}_3 conditioned

on the output satisfying the promise. We conclude that query algorithms using $t(n)$ queries can not distinguish between distributions \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_4 except with some small probability (exponentially small in n , in fact).

Distribution \mathcal{D}_4 is a symmetric distribution on $X_\epsilon^+ \cup X_\epsilon^-$, and with similar arguments as in Theorem 3.4 we can prove that query algorithms with error probability 2δ with inputs over distribution \mathcal{D}_4 require $\Omega(1/\epsilon^2)$ queries. Therefore, algorithms with probability gap bounded by $1 - 2\delta$ must fail at least on a fraction δ of inputs from \mathcal{D}_4 . Therefore, they must also fail at a constant fraction of inputs from \mathcal{D}_1 and in particular they will fail for at least one of the elements outputted by $R(1^n)$, for n big enough.

□

3.3.3 Limits of Explicit Obstructions

One salient aspect of the list-refuters described in the two previous subsections is that they are explicit obstructions: they do not depend on the algorithm being refuted. This is much more restrictive than the requirement to obtain a breakthrough in Theorem 2.10, in which the refuters are allowed to depend on the algorithm being refuted. The following results displays the limits of explicit obstructions for this problem:

Theorem 3.13. *Let R be an algorithm that, on input 1^n , outputs a list $L = L_n$ of strings of size n in time $\text{poly}(|L|)$. There is a probabilistic query algorithm \mathcal{A} running in time $\text{poly}(n, |L|, 1/\epsilon)$ and making $O\left(\frac{\log(|L|) \cdot \log(\log(|L|))}{\epsilon}\right)$ queries which correctly solves $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$ with probability at least $2/3$ on each of the outputs produced by R .*

Proof. The algorithm \mathcal{A} is described in Algorithm 1. First, \mathcal{A} computes L and divides it into L^+ and L^- , depending on whether the majority is 1 or 0. L^+ and L^- will maintain at all times the elements of the list that are consistent with the information obtained by the queries. If at any point L^+ or L^- becomes empty, the answer is determined and the algorithm can output it and stop.

\mathcal{A} computes m^+ and m^- , the bitwise majority of all the elements of L^+ and L^- , respectively. That is, for each $i = 1, \dots, n$, m_i^+ is equal to 1 if there are more elements

Algorithm 1 Algorithm for Theorem 3.13

Input: n

Program:

```
 $L \leftarrow R(1^n)$ 
 $(L^+, L^-) \leftarrow \text{FILTER}(L)$   $\triangleright L^+$  are the elements of  $L$  with  $\geq (1/2 + \epsilon)$  ones,  $L^-$  the
ones with  $\leq (1/2 - \epsilon)n$  ones
while  $L^+ \neq \emptyset$  and  $L^- \neq \emptyset$  do
   $m^+ \leftarrow \text{MAJORITY}(L^+)$ 
   $m^- \leftarrow \text{MAJORITY}(L^-)$ 
  if  $m^+ \neq m^-$  then
     $i \leftarrow$  index such that  $m_i^+ \neq m_i^-$ .
     $v \leftarrow \text{QUERY}(i)$ 
     $(L^+, L^-) \leftarrow \text{UPDATE}(i, v, (L^+, L^-))$   $\triangleright$  Returns elements from the lists
    consistent with  $x[i] = v$ 
  else
     $S_0 \leftarrow \{i : m_i^+ = 0\}$ 
     $S_1 \leftarrow \{i : m_i^+ = 1\}$ 
     $c \leftarrow \text{argmax}_{i \in \{0,1\}} |S_i|$ 
    found  $\leftarrow$  false
    repeat  $\lceil (\log(6 \log |L|)) \cdot 1/\epsilon \rceil$  times:
       $i \leftarrow \text{RANDELEMENT}(S_c)$ 
       $v \leftarrow \text{QUERY}(i)$ 
       $(L^+, L^-) \leftarrow \text{UPDATE}(i, v, (L^+, L^-))$ 
      if  $v \neq c$  then
        found  $\leftarrow$  true
      end if
    end
    if not found then
      output  $c$ 
      HALT
    end if
  end if
end while
output 0 if  $L^+ = \emptyset$ , 1 if  $L^- = \emptyset$ 
HALT
```

of L^+ with i -th bit equal to 1 than elements with i -th bit equal to 0, and is equal to 0 otherwise. If $m^+ \neq m^-$, \mathcal{A} queries one of the bits where m^+ and m^- differ, discards the elements of L^+ and L^- inconsistent with this information and starts over again. Note that this will result in halving the size of L^+ or L^- .

If $m^+ = m^-$, then \mathcal{A} determines the sets of indices where both L^+ and L^- have majority 0 and where they both have majority 1 and samples $\lceil (\log(6 \log |L|)) \cdot 1/\epsilon \rceil$ random points from the biggest set of those two. If all the sampled points coincide with the majority value on that set, \mathcal{A} outputs the answer corresponding to that value. Otherwise, \mathcal{A} starts over again; note that in this case, the sizes of both L^+ and L^- are halved.

We proceed to the analysis of the algorithm. We have to argue that it performs $O(\log |L| \log \log |L|/\epsilon)$ queries, and that it answers correctly with probability at least $2/3$. The bound on the number of queries is clear: the algorithm performs at most $O(\log \log |L|/\epsilon)$ queries in each iteration of the main loop and it does at most $2 \cdot \log |L|$ iterations, since in each iteration the size of L^+ or L^- is halved and it exits the loop when one of them becomes empty.

Suppose that we have an x with $\geq (1/2 + \epsilon)$ ones, and we will bound the probability that \mathcal{A} outputs 0 (the case where x has majority 0 is symmetric). It is clear that if \mathcal{A} exits the loop because L^- has become empty, then it always gives the correct answer. Then, \mathcal{A} can only give a wrong answer when it outputs 0 after sampling $\log(6 \log |L|)/\epsilon$ points in S_0 and finding that they are all equal to 0. Note that, if $|S_0| \geq n/2$, then $x[S_0]$ must have at least ϵn bits equal to 1, and therefore the probability of sampling a bit equal to 1 is at least ϵ . Therefore, the probability that all sampled bits are equal to 0 is at most $(1 - \epsilon)^{\log(6 \log |L|)/\epsilon} \leq \frac{1}{6 \log |L|}$. Since the algorithm performs at most $2 \log |L|$ iterations, by the union bound the probability that \mathcal{A} outputs 0 is at most $2 \log |L| \cdot \frac{1}{6 \log |L|} = \frac{1}{3}$, as desired.

□

Theorem 3.13 shows that any constructive separation for a class of query algorithms including the algorithm described in the statement must necessarily have refuters that depend on the algorithm being refuted. Note that if $\epsilon = 1/(\log n)^{\omega(1)}$ and

$|L|$ is quasipolynomial, then $O((\log |L| \log \log |L|)/\epsilon) = o(1/\epsilon^{1+\delta})$ for all $\delta > 0$. This suggests that refuters that would achieve the breakthroughs of Theorem 2.10, if they exist, should depend on the algorithm being refuted. However, there are some details that could potentially make this not be the case: recall that in Theorem 2.10 we only require refuters against uniform distributions of k -juntas running in time $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$, while in Theorem 3.13 the algorithm is an adaptive query algorithm running in time $\text{poly}(n, |L|, 1/\epsilon)$.

There seems to be some room for improvement in Theorem 3.13. There is a $\log(1/\epsilon) \log \log(1/\epsilon)$ gap between the number of queries in the algorithms refuted by the explicit obstructions of Theorem 3.8 and the number of queries in the algorithm \mathcal{A} of Theorem 3.13. The repeated sampling of $O(\log \log |L|/\epsilon)$ points seems to be somewhat wasteful, and perhaps with a different approach we could be able to get an \mathcal{A} which makes e.g. $O(1/\epsilon + \log |L|)$ queries, which would close this gap. It also seems feasible to eliminate the adaptivity of the queries by allowing m^+ and m^- to differ in a small number of bits.

Open Question 1. What is the precise frontier of explicit obstructions for $\text{PrMAJ}_{n,\epsilon}$? Can we improve Theorem 3.13 or Theorem 3.8?

4

Refuters for One-Tape Turing Machines

In this chapter, we will study constructive separations of the language of palindromes

$$\text{PAL} = \{ww^R : w \in \{0,1\}^*\} \cup \{bw^R : w \in \{0,1\}^*, b \in \{0,1\}\}$$

from one-tape Turing machines running in time $o(n^2)$. In [Che+24] it was proved that constructive separations against nondeterministic machines yielded breakthrough results in circuit lower bounds (recall Theorem 2.11). In this chapter we will explore this setting more deeply, and explain when we can get circuit lower bounds, when we can actually get constructive separations, and even when we can prove that no constructive separations can exist.

For simplicity, through the chapter we will often only consider the language of *even* palindromes $\{ww^R : w \in \{0,1\}^*\}$ in the proofs. Recall that in Definition 2.6 we only require that the refuter works for infinitely many values of n , so in particular

a refuter that only works for even palindromes and ignores the odd case is valid. However, the arguments that we make for the even case in this chapter can always be modified slightly to work for the odd case too. We omit the explanations of which particular changes would be necessary for each of our results for brevity, since they are rarely illuminating.

4.1 Lower Bounds Against 1-TMs for PAL

In this section, we prove the $\Omega(n^2)$ lower bound for 1-TMs computing PAL, due to Hennie [Hen65]. The proof of this fact lends itself to a simple *probabilistic* constructive separation that we also discuss.

4.1.1 Crossing Sequences and Lower Bounds

Definition 4.1. Let M be a 1-TM, and let $E = ((q_1, p_1), (q_2, p_2), \dots, (q_t, p_t))$, with $(q_i, p_i) \in Q \times \mathbb{Z}$, be a sequence describing an execution of M , that is, E is the sequence of states and positions of the tape head of M when it is executed on some input and (possibly) with some given non-deterministic choices. The *crossing sequence at position i* , denoted by $C_i(E)$, is the sequence of states for which the tape head crosses from position i to position $i + 1$ or vice versa; that is, the sequence of states q_j such that $p_{j-1} = i$ and $p_j = i + 1$ or $p_{j-1} = i + 1$ and $p_j = i$.

If M is a deterministic 1-TM and $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$, we denote by $C_{M,i}(x)$ the crossing sequence at position i of the execution of M on input x .

If M is a non-deterministic 1-TM, $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and $b \in \{0, 1\}^*$ is a sequence of non-deterministic choices for the execution of M with input x , we denote by $C_{M,i}(x, b)$ the crossing sequence at position i of the execution of M on input x with non-deterministic choices b .

When the 1-TM M is clear from context, we will usually write $C_i(x)$ instead of $C_{M,i}(x)$. Also, for a non-deterministic 1-TM M and an accepted word x , we will usually write just $C_i(x)$, omitting the description of the non-deterministic choices, to refer to the crossing sequence at position i on input x for *some* accepting execution of

x . That is, for each accepted word x , we arbitrarily choose some accepting execution (e.g. the lexicographically smallest one), and use $C_i(x)$ to refer to the crossing sequences of that execution. This is because, for the purposes of proving lower bounds for PAL, the fact that there might be multiple executions (and therefore multiple crossing sequences) for each accepted word does not hurt, and we can prove the lower bounds only assuming that each accepted word has *at least* one accepting execution.

Intuitively, crossing sequences are a way to quantify the way a machine “carries information” from one side of the boundary to the other one via its internal states. Note that, in a crossing sequence at position $i \geq 1$, each odd crossing is from left to right and each even crossing is from right to left.

Lemma 4.2. *Let $a = a_1 \dots a_i a_{i+1} \dots a_n$ and $b = b_1 \dots b_i b_{i+1} \dots b_m$ be two words accepted by a 1-TM M so that $C_i(a) = C_i(b)$. Then the word $c = a_1 \dots a_i b_{i+1} \dots b_m$ is also accepted by M .*

Proof. Let $E^a = ((q_1^a, p_1^a), \dots, (q_{t^a}^a, p_{t^a}^a))$ be the accepting execution for a in M and let $E^b = ((q_1^b, p_1^b), \dots, (q_{t^b}^b, p_{t^b}^b))$ be the accepting execution for b . Let $j_1^a, j_2^a, \dots, j_{|C_i(a)|}^a$ and $j_1^b, j_2^b, \dots, j_{|C_i(b)|}^b$ be the indices corresponding to the states in $C_i(a)$ in E^a and E^b , respectively.

We can define a new execution E^c by reproducing the execution E^a up to index j_1^a , then the execution E^b between indices j_1^b and j_2^b , and so on:

$$E^c = ((q_1^a, p_1^a), \dots, (q_{j_1^a-1}^a, i), (q_{j_1^b}^b, i+1), (q_{j_1^b+1}^b, p_{j_1^b+1}^b), \dots, (q_{j_2^b-1}^b, i+1), (q_{j_2^a}^a, i), (q_{j_2^a+1}^a, p_{j_2^a+1}^a), \dots).$$

It is not difficult to see that E^c is a valid accepting execution for M on input c , since the machine behaves as if it were reading input a to the left of index i and as if it were reading input b to the right of index i . □

Corollary 4.3. *Let M be a 1-TM that accepts two palindromes $w_1 w_2 w_2^R w_1^R$ and $w_3 w_4 w_4^R w_3^R$ with $|w_1| = |w_3| > 0$, $|w_2| = |w_4|$, and $w_1 \neq w_3$. If the $C_{|w_1|}(w_1 w_2 w_2^R w_1^R) = C_{|w_1|}(w_3 w_4 w_4^R w_3^R)$, then M also accepts a non-palindrome of length $2|w_1| + 2|w_2|$.*

Proof. By Lemma 4.2, the non-palindrome $w_1 w_4 w_4^R w_3^R$ is accepted. \square

Now we are ready to prove the $\Omega(n^2)$ lower bound for PAL. We will prove a quantitative bound, which will be useful for our randomized constructive separation:

Theorem 4.4. *Let M be a non-deterministic 1-TM running in time $T(n)$ with s states that rejects every non-palindrome. Then, for every even n , the number of palindromes of length n accepted by M is bounded by $2^{\frac{(4 \log s)T(n)}{n} + \frac{n+6}{4}}$.*

Proof. Let P_n be the set of palindromes of length n accepted by M .

Let

$$\ell_i = \frac{1}{|P_n|} \sum_{p \in P_n} |C_i(p)|$$

be the average length of the crossing sequence at position i on the tape for all palindromes in P_n . By Markov's inequality, there are at least $\frac{1}{2}|P_n|$ palindromes p from P_n for which $|C_i(p)| \leq 2\ell_i$. Now, fix $i \in [1, n/2]$ and note that:

- There are $1 + s + \dots + s^{2\ell_i} < 2s^{2\ell_i}$ crossing sequences at position i of length at most $2\ell_i$, where s is the number of states in M .
- There can be at most $2^{n/2-i}$ palindromes in P_n with the same crossing sequence at position i , since in the decomposition $p = w_1 w_2 w_2^R w_1^R$ with $|w_1| = i$, the prefix w_1 must be the same for all such palindromes because of Corollary 4.3 and the assumption that M rejects every non-palindrome.

Therefore:

$$\frac{1}{2}|P_n| < 2s^{2\ell_i} \cdot 2^{n/2-i}.$$

Rearranging:

$$\ell_i > \frac{\log |P_n| + i - n/2 - 2}{2 \log s}. \quad (4.1)$$

For each palindrome $p \in P_n$, we have that $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} C_i(p) \leq T(n)$, so

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \ell_i = \frac{1}{|P_n|} \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \sum_{p \in P_n} |C_i(p)| = \frac{1}{|P_n|} \sum_{p \in P_n} \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} |C_i(p)| \leq T(n)$$

Hence, summing over all i in (4.1):

$$T(n) > \sum_{i=1/\}^{n/2} \frac{\log |P_n| + i - n/2 - 2}{2 \log s} = \frac{1}{2 \log s} \left(\frac{n}{2} \log |P_n| - \frac{n^2}{8} - \frac{3n}{4} \right)$$

And therefore:

$$2^{\frac{(4 \log s)T(n)}{n} + \frac{n+6}{4}} > |P_n|$$

As desired. □

Corollary 4.5. *Every non-deterministic 1-TM recognizing PAL must run in $\Omega(n^2)$ time.*

Proof. Such a machine M rejects every non-palindrome, so we can apply Theorem 4.4 to get that $2^{\frac{(4 \log s)T(n)}{n} + \frac{n+6}{4}} \geq 2^{n/2}$, so $T(n) \geq \frac{n(n-6)}{16 \log s} = \Omega(n^2)$. □

4.1.2 Randomized Constructive Separation

We prove the following:

Theorem 4.6. • *There is a ZPP^{NP} -constructive separation of PAL from non-deterministic 1-TMs running in time $o(n^2)$.*

- *There is a BPP-constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic 1-TMs running in time $o(n^2)$ which are promised to accept only palindromes.*

Let M be the non-deterministic Turing machine running in time $o(n^2)$ we are trying to refute, and let $M(x, b)$ be the result of the execution of M on input x and non-deterministic choices b . Our refuter R does the following on input 1^n :

- Uses the NP oracle to determine the truth of the statement

$$\exists x \in \{0, 1\}^n \exists b \in \{0, 1\}^{\leq n^2} : x \notin \text{PAL} \wedge M(x, b) \text{ accepts.}$$

- If it is true, it performs a standard search-to-decision reduction with the NP oracle to determine such an x , and outputs x .
- Otherwise, it chooses a uniformly random palindrome of length n and outputs it.

In the first case, it is clear that R outputs a counterexample for M . In the second case, we have that M does not accept any non-palindrome of length n , so by Theorem 4.4 it also rejects a fraction which goes to 1 when $n \rightarrow \infty$ of palindromes of length n , so the probability of outputting a counterexample will be greater than $2/3$ for sufficiently large n .

Thus, we have a BPP^{NP} -constructive separation. In fact, it can be made ZPP^{NP} -constructive, since we can verify the output to be a counterexample. Also note that the refuter as stated (without performing verification of the output) uses randomness and the NP oracle in a completely “disjoint” way: in the case where the machine M accepts a non-palindrome, it proceeds in a deterministic, “ P^{NP} ” way, while in the case where the machine M only accepts palindromes it just outputs a random palindrome without using the NP oracle. This differentiated behavior is of interest because, as we will see in the following sections, there are different consequences for constructive separations from 1-TMs which are promised to accept only palindromes and for constructive separations from 1-TMs which are promised to accept all palindromes.

4.2 Constructive Separations Imply Circuit Lower Bounds

Recall that in [Che+24], the following is proved:

Theorem 2.11 (Theorem 3.4 from [Che+24]). *The following hold:*

- If there is a $\mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{NP}}$ -constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic $O(n^{1.1})$ time one-tape Turing machines, then $\mathbf{E}^{\mathbf{NP}} \not\subseteq \mathbf{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.
- If there is a \mathbf{P} -constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic $O(n^{1.1})$ time one-tape Turing machines, then $\mathbf{E} \not\subseteq \mathbf{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.
- If there is a $\mathbf{LOGSPACE}$ -constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic $O(n^{1.1})$ time one-tape Turing machines, then $\mathbf{PSPACE} \not\subseteq \mathbf{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.

We will reproduce the proof argument here, but with some modifications to suit our purposes better. First, we prove the result with more generality, with the circuit lower bound we obtain being parametrized by the time complexity of the refuter, and not just stated in two discrete cases for \mathbf{P} and $\mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{NP}}$ (we will not discuss results about space complexity). This more granular statement will be useful to compare the result with the refuters we obtain in Section 4.4.

Second, we emphasize in the statement that it is enough to have refuters against 1-TMs which are promised to accept only palindromes, that is, that reject for every non-palindrome. This turns out to be an important aspect, because as we will see in Section 4.3, no \mathbf{P} -constructive separation is possible even against deterministic 1-TMs running in time $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ assuming the existence of a cryptographic primitive. Thus, the second and third bullet points of Theorem 2.11, as stated in [Che+24], are vacuous under this cryptographic assumption. By introducing this strengthening, we can still hope to find such constructive separations even if we believe that the cryptographic primitive exists.

Theorem 4.7. *Let $\{T_i(n)\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ be a family of functions, let \mathcal{O} be any language and let $\mathcal{C}^{\mathcal{O}}$ denote the class of algorithms running in time $T_i(n)$ for some $i \in \mathcal{I}$ with oracle access to \mathcal{O} . Let $f(n)$ be a non-decreasing function with $f(n) = \Omega(\log n)$ and $f(2n) = O(f(n))$. If there is a $\mathcal{C}^{\mathcal{O}}$ -constructive separation of PAL from 1-NTMs promised to accept only palindromes running in time $O(n \cdot f(n))$, then*

$$\bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mathbf{DTIME}[T_i(2^{n/2})]^{\mathcal{O}} \not\subseteq \mathbf{SIZE}[f(2^{n/2})^{\delta}]$$

for some universal constant $\delta > 0$.

Proof. Assume that $\bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \text{DTIME}[T_i(2^{n/2})]^\mathcal{O} \subseteq \text{SIZE}[f(2^{n/2})^\delta]$. By Lemma 2.12, the output of any refuter $R \in \mathcal{C}^\mathcal{O}$ has circuit complexity $O(f(2^{\text{len } n})^\delta) = O(f(2n)^\delta) = O(f(n)^\delta)$. We will construct a 1-NTM M running in time $O(n \cdot f(n))$ that works correctly on the output of any such refuter, proving the contrapositive of the desired statement. First, M guesses a circuit C of size $s = O(f(n)^\delta)$ and writes its description around the beginning of the tape. Then, M verifies that the circuit generates the input x by moving the circuit and a counter through the tape and checking that $C(i) = x_i$. Finally, M checks that $C(i) = C(n - i + 1)$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n/2$, verifying that the input is indeed a palindrome. Moving the circuit through the input can be done in time $O(n \cdot (\log n + s))$ and each of the $O(n)$ evaluations of the circuit can be done in time $O(s^{O(1)})$, so if δ is small enough the total time complexity is $O(n \cdot f(n))$. \square

Corollary 4.8. *The following hold:*

- A P^{NP} -constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic $O(n^{1.1})$ time one-tape Turing machines promised to accept only palindromes implies $\text{E}^{\text{NP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.
- A P -constructive separation of PAL from nondeterministic $O(n^{1.1})$ time one-tape Turing machines promised to accept only palindromes implies $\text{E} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$ for some constant $\delta > 0$.

Proof. Take $\mathcal{I} = \mathbb{N}$, $T_i(n) = n^i$, $f(n) = n^{0.1}$ and $\mathcal{O} = \text{SAT}$ or $\mathcal{O} = \emptyset$ (respectively) in Theorem 4.7. \square

Interestingly, those lower bounds for E^{NP} and E are precisely the ones that are sufficient for derandomization of algorithms:

Theorem 4.9 ([NW94; IW97]). *The following hold:*

- If $\text{E} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$, then there exists a pseudorandom generator $G : \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$, with $n = 2^{\Omega(s)}$ running in time $2^{O(s)}$ which fools circuits of size n^3 . In particular, this implies $\text{BPP} = \text{P}$.

- If $\mathbf{E}^{\mathbf{NP}} \not\subseteq \mathbf{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$, then there exists a pseudorandom generator $G : \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$, with $n = 2^{\Omega(s)}$ running in time $2^{O(s)}$ with an \mathbf{NP} oracle which fools circuits of size n^3 . In particular, this implies $\mathbf{BPP} \subseteq \mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{NP}}$.

Therefore, deterministic constructive separations of PAL from $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ time 1-NTMs imply breakthrough results in derandomization. At the same time, such deterministic constructive separations could be obtained by derandomizing the probabilistic constructive separation of the previous section. The difference here between the two kinds of derandomization is that in the second case we would need to have pseudorandom generators against *nondeterministic* machines, which is a stronger requirement than the generators against deterministic circuits provided by Theorem 4.9.

On the other hand, our generator only needs to fool nondeterministic one-tape machines running in $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ time, which is a much weaker model than general nondeterministic polynomial-size circuits. In this setting, a pseudorandom generator with seed length $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{T})$ against *deterministic* 1-TMs running in time $O(T)$ is known [INW94]. Also, while the generators of Theorem 4.9 and [INW94] fool all n^3 -size circuits and $O(T)$ -time 1-DTMs respectively, our generator can be *targeted*, that is, it can depend on which TM M we are trying to fool. And it does not need to be a full pseudorandom generator in the sense of indistinguishability from randomness; it can be a “hitting set generator” [ACR98] which generates at least one element outside the square-root-sized set defined by Theorem 4.4. All in all, it is not clear that the requirements to derandomize our constructive separation are much stronger than the results of Theorem 4.9 by achieving it.

Open Question 2. What are the relationships between constructive separations of PAL from 1-NTMs, (targeted) derandomization/hitting sets of $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ 1-NTMs, and derandomization of deterministic machines/circuits? Can we find some sort of equivalence between them, or evidence that one of them is harder than the others?

4.3 Strongly Constructive Separations Do Not Exist Under Cryptographic Assumptions

In this section, we will see that BPP-constructive separations of PAL against $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ time 1-TMs do not exist if we assume the existence of a certain cryptographic primitive. To show this, we will use an idea from [CLO24], where it is used to show that lower bounds for 1-TMs recognizing palindromes can not be proved in certain weak theories of arithmetic. Here we will reproduce their argument, adapting it to our setting.

The cryptographic primitives we will be using are *keyless collision-resistant hash functions*.

Definition 4.10 (Keyless Collision-Resistant Hash Function). A keyless collision-resistant hash function with hash value length $m = m(n) < n$ is a polynomial-time computable function $h: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ such that for every x with $|x| = n$ we have $|h(x)| = m(n)$ and for every uniform probabilistic polynomial-time adversary \mathcal{A} and every n , we have

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}(1^n) \text{ outputs } \langle x_1, x_2 \rangle \text{ such that } x_1 \neq x_2, |x_1| = |x_2| = n \text{ and } h(x_1) = h(x_2)] \leq \epsilon(n)$$

where $\epsilon(n)$ is a *negligible* function (that is, $\epsilon(n) = 1/n^{\omega(1)}$).

The idea is that, if we have a TM that hashes the left half and the reverse of the right half of a palindrome and accepts if they are equal, a refuter against this TM needs to find collisions in the hash function, which is supposed to be difficult. The main question here is whether we can implement this in a one-tape TM running in time $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$, only assuming the existence of polynomial-time hash functions h .

The answer is yes: we can do it using a technique from cryptography known as the *Merkle-Damgård construction* [Mer90; Dam90].

Theorem 4.11. *Suppose there exist keyless collision-resistant hash functions. Then, for all $0 < \delta, \epsilon < 1$, there exists a keyless collision resistant hash function $H = H_{\delta, \epsilon}$*

with hash value length $m(n) < n^\delta$ which can be computed in time $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ in a one-tape TM.

Proof. Let h be a keyless collision-resistant hash function, computable in time $O(n^k)$ in a 1-TM for some k . Without loss of generality, we can assume that h has hash value length $n - 1$ (we can always arbitrarily pad the output values maintaining collision resistance). Given an input size n , let $m = m(n) = \min\{\lfloor n^\delta \rfloor, \lfloor n^{\epsilon/k} \rfloor\}$ and define the following sequence of functions:

$$H_{-1}: \{0, 1\}^{m-1} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{m-1}: H_{-1}(x) = x$$

$$H_0: \{0, 1\}^m \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{m-1}: H_0(x) = h(x).$$

$$H_1: \{0, 1\}^{m+1} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{m-1}: H_1(x||b) = h(H_0(x)||b).$$

...

$$H_i: \{0, 1\}^{m+i} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{m-1}: H_i(x||b) = h(H_{i-1}(x)||b).$$

...

$$H_{n-m}: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{m-1}: H_{n-m}(x||b) = h(H_{n-m-1}(x)||b).$$

Take $H = H_{n-m}$. We have to prove that H is a collision-resistant hash function, and that it can be computed in time $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ in a 1-TM.

We first prove that H is a collision-resistant hash function. Let \mathcal{A}_H be a polynomial-time adversary outputting collisions for H . Consider the following algorithm \mathcal{A}_h : on input 1^m , run $\mathcal{A}(1^n)$ for all n so that $m(n) = m$ (there are polynomially many such values of n). If \mathcal{A}_H outputs a valid collision $\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle$ for H for some such value of n , do the following: compute the smallest value $i \in [0, n - m]$ such that $x_1[1 \dots m + i] \neq x_2[1 \dots m + i]$ but $H_i(x_1[1 \dots m + i]) = H_i(x_2[1 \dots m + i])$ and output $\langle H_{i-1}(x_1[1 \dots m + i - 1])||x_1[m + i], H_{i-1}(x_2[1 \dots m + i - 1])||x_2[m + i] \rangle$. We have that $h(H_{i-1}(x_1[1 \dots m + i - 1])||x_1[m + i]) = h(H_{i-1}(x_2[1 \dots m + i - 1])||x_2[m + i])$, and by the assumption that i was the smallest value with the specified property, at least

one of $H_{i-1}(x_1[1 \dots m + i - 1]) \neq H_{i-1}(x_2[1 \dots m + i - 1])$ or $x_1[m + i] \neq x_2[m + i]$ hold. In any case, $\mathcal{A}_h(1^m)$ outputs a valid collision of length m for h . Hence:

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}_H(1^n) \text{ outputs a collision for } H] \leq \Pr[\mathcal{A}_h(1^{m(n)}) \text{ outputs a collision for } h] \leq \epsilon_{\mathcal{A}_h}(m(n)),$$

where $\epsilon_{\mathcal{A}_h}(n)$ is a negligible function since h is collision-resistant, and therefore $\epsilon_{\mathcal{A}_h}(m(n))$ is also negligible and we get that the probability of success of any adversary is bounded by a negligible function, as desired.

Now we describe how to compute the function in a one-tape TM in time $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$:

First, we compute $n = |x|$, the length of the input. We iterate through the input from left to right, keeping a counter near the head in a “separate track” from the input (using a larger tape alphabet). The counter has at most $\log n$ bits and so updating it and moving it to the right takes $O(\log n)$ time, for a total complexity of $O(n \log n)$.

Second, we compute m and we put a mark on the m -th character of x on the tape. Computing m given n in binary can be done in $\text{polylog}(n)$ time, since ϵ and δ are fixed rational numbers, and maintaining a counter until the m -th character can be done in $O(m \log m) = O(n)$, for a total complexity of $O(n)$ for this part.

Third, we compute the hash value in a process with $n - m + 1$ iterations. The i -th iteration ($0 \leq i \leq n - m$) is as follows:

1. At the beginning, the tape contains $H_{i-1}(x[1 \dots m - 1 + i])$, followed by the $m + i$ -th character of x with a mark on it, followed by the remaining characters of x .
2. We scan the tape, find the marked character, move the mark one cell to the right and copy the value $H_{i-1}(x[1 \dots m - 1 + i])||x[m + i]$ into a separate track.
3. We compute $h(H_{i-1}(x[1 \dots m - 1 + i])||x[m + i]) = H_i(x[1 \dots m + i])$ in a the separate track, cleaning it after the execution.
4. We copy the value of $H_i(x[1 \dots m + i])$ back into the main track, so that the tape now contains $H_i(x[1 \dots m + i])$, followed by the $m + i + 1$ -th character with

a mark, followed by the rest of characters of x .

After $n - m + 1$ iterations, we have the value of $H_{n-m}(x)$ in the tape, as desired. Copying the values from one track to the other can be done in $O(m)$ time; the most expensive part of one iteration is computing h , which is done in $O(m^k)$ time. Therefore, the total time complexity is $O(n \cdot m^k) = O(n^{1+\epsilon})$.

□

Theorem 4.12. *Assuming the existence of keyless collision-resistant hash functions, there does not exist a BPP-constructive separation of PAL against 1-DTMs running in time $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ for any $\epsilon > 0$.*

Proof. Construct a machine M that computes the hash function $H = H_{\epsilon, \epsilon}$ of Theorem 4.11 on the first half on the input and on the reverse of the second half of the input, and accepts if they are equal. Note that dividing the input into two halves can be done in $O(n \log n)$ time by moving a counter, and that the computation of H can be done on the reverse of the second half without needing to explicitly write the reverse of the second half of the tape. Comparing the two hashes can be done in $O(mn) = O(n^{1+\epsilon})$, so the machine M runs in time $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$.

Any counterexample against PAL for M must be of the form $x_1 x_2^R$ or $x_1 b x_2^R$, where $x_1 \neq x_2$ and $\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle$ is a collision for H . Thus, any polynomial-time refuter R that outputs counterexamples against M can be transformed into an efficient adversary that outputs collisions for H , contradicting that H is collision-resistant. □

Note that the machine M we constructed in Theorem 4.12 accepts all palindromes (and therefore fails only on non-palindromes), so the result also applies to BPP-constructive separations against 1-TMs promised to fail only on non-palindromes. This offers an interesting contrast with Theorem 4.7: refuting 1-NTMs promised to fail only on palindromes proves circuit lower bounds, while refuting 1-TMs promised to fail only on non-palindromes proves non-existence of cryptographic primitives, which is an “upper bound”.

4.4 Constructive Separations Against Weaker 1-TMs

One can wonder whether the results of Theorem 4.7 are “tight”, in the sense of requiring the minimal possible assumptions on the hypotheses (such as the resources used by the one-tape TMs being refuted) in order to obtain a breakthrough result via a constructive separation. It would be interesting to find refuters when each of the hypotheses are slightly weakened, in order to establish a “threshold” result which sets a dividing line between the situations where refuters can be found and the situations where proving the existence of refuters is as hard as major open problems.

In this section, we show that indeed there exist such refuters for certain weakenings of the hypotheses of Theorem 4.7.

4.4.1 Refuters Against $o(n \log n)$ -time 1-TMs

The most natural weakening of the hypotheses of Theorem 4.7 is to consider deterministic 1-TMs rather than non-deterministic ones, since they are a more natural model of computation, and to consider deterministic refuters for them. The results of the above section show that we can not hope to find such refuters against $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ -time machines, but we can wonder what happens with, say, $O(n)$ -time machines.

It turns out that even nondeterministic $O(n)$ -time (even $o(n \log n)$ -time) one-tape machines are very limited in computational power, which allows us to obtain simple deterministic refuters for nondeterministic machines.

Theorem 4.13 ([Har68]). *Any language recognized by a 1-NTM running in $o(n \log n)$ time is regular.*

Theorem 4.14. *There is a P-constructive separation of PAL against $o(n \log n)$ -time 1-NTMs.*

As usual, for simplicity we will focus only on refuting for even n . To construct the refuter, we first show that “the first half” of the counterexamples are generated by finite automata:

Lemma 4.15. *Given $L \in \text{REG}$ over any alphabet Σ , the following languages are also regular:*

1. $L_1 := \{w : ww^R \in L\}$.
2. $L_2 := \{w : \exists \tilde{w} \in \Sigma^*, |w| = |\tilde{w}|, w \neq \tilde{w}, w\tilde{w}^R \in L\}$.

Proof. Let $A(L) = (Q^0, q_0^0, \delta^0, S^0)$ be the DFA for L .

We construct the DFA $A(L_1) = (Q^1, q_0^1, \delta^1, S^1)$ for L_1 by setting

$$\begin{aligned} Q^1 &= Q^0 \times 2^{Q^0}, \\ q_0^1 &= (q_0^0, S^0), \\ S^1 &= \{(q, S) : q \in S\}, \\ \delta^1((q, S), x) &= (\delta^0(q, x), \{q' : \delta^0(q', x) \in S\}). \end{aligned}$$

Informally, we are simulating the DFA $A(L)$, but each time a character is read we are also “moving” the set of accepting states in the inverse direction of the transitions.

We can easily verify by induction that the following property is satisfied: $A(L_1)$ is in state (q, S) after reading word w if and only if $A(L)$ is in state q after reading w and S is the set of states s that satisfy that, if $A(L)$ reads w^R starting at state s , then it ends in an accepting state in S^0 . As a corollary, $A(L_1)$ accepts w if and only if $A(L)$ accepts ww^R , as desired.

We construct the NFA $A(L_2) = (Q^2, q_0^2, \delta^2, S^2)$ for L_2 by setting

$$\begin{aligned} Q^2 &= Q^0 \times 2^{Q^0} \times \{0, 1\}, \\ q_0^2 &= (q_0^0, S^0, 0), \\ S^2 &= \{(q, S, 1) : q \in S\}, \\ \delta^2((q, S, 0), x) &= \{(\delta^0(q, x), \{q' : \delta^0(q', x) \in S\}, 0), (\delta^0(q, x), \{q' : \exists y \neq x \delta^0(q', y) \in S\}, 1)\}, \\ \delta^2((q, S, 1), x) &= \{(\delta^0(q, x), \{q' : \exists y \delta^0(q', y) \in S\}, 1)\}. \end{aligned}$$

Informally, we simulate the DFA $A(L)$ as before, but this time the word \tilde{w} we are reading “backwards” (by moving the set of accepting states) needs to be different from

the word w we are reading forwards, so we divide the states in two stages depending on whether there is already at least one different character in the partial words w and \tilde{w} or not.

The invariant property that is satisfied in this case is:

- $A(L_2)$ can reach state $(q, S, 0)$ after reading word w if and only if $A(L)$ is in state q after reading w and S is the set of states s that satisfy that, if $A(L)$ reads w^R starting at state s , then it ends in an accepting state in S^0 , and
- $A(L_2)$ can reach state $(q, S, 1)$ after reading word w if and only if $A(L)$ is in state q after reading w and S is the set of states s that satisfy that, there exists $\tilde{w} \in \Sigma^*, |w| = |\tilde{w}|, w \neq \tilde{w}$ so that if $A(L)$ reads \tilde{w}^R starting at state s , then it ends in an accepting state in S^0 .

This implies that there is an accepting execution for w in $A(L_2)$ if and only if there exists $\tilde{w} \in \Sigma^*, |w| = |\tilde{w}|, w \neq \tilde{w}$ so that $A(L)$ accepts $w\tilde{w}^R$, as desired. \square

Proof of Theorem 4.14. Let $L \in \text{REG}$ be the language recognized by the 1-NTM. By Lemma 4.15, the languages $L_1 := \{w : ww^R \notin L\}$ and $L_2 := \{w : \exists \tilde{w} \in \Sigma^*, |w| = |\tilde{w}|, w \neq \tilde{w}, w\tilde{w}^R \in L\}$ are also regular. We assume we have access to the automata A_{L_i} recognizing those languages. Note that these automata are of size $O(1)$.

Our refuter is described in Algorithm 2.

FINDWORD can be implemented in time $O(n)$ by constructing the product automaton for the language $L(A) \cap \{0, 1\}^\ell$. Similarly, EXTENDWORD can be implemented in time $O(n)$ by constructing the corresponding product automaton and finding a second accepting path if the first found one results in the undesired word (the graph of the product automaton is acyclic, so finding a second path can be done simply by e.g. a DFS traversal).

Thus, the refuter runs in polynomial (in fact, linear) time and that it outputs counterexamples for infinitely many values of n (for any even value of n for which there is a counterexample, it finds one, and for big enough n there are always counterexamples by Corollary 4.5). \square

Algorithm 2 Refuter of Theorem 4.14

Input: 1^n

Require: n even.

Hardcode: $A_{L_1} \leftarrow$ DFA corresponding to L_1 .

Hardcode: $A_{L_2} \leftarrow$ DFA corresponding to L_2 .

Program:

$w \leftarrow \text{FINDWORD}(A_{L_1}, n/2) \triangleright \text{FINDWORD}(A, \ell)$ finds a word of length ℓ accepted by automaton A .

if Found w **then**

output ww^R

 HALT

end if

$w \leftarrow \text{FINDWORD}(A_{L_2}, n/2)$

if Found w **then**

$u \leftarrow \text{EXTENDWORD}(A_{L_2}, w, ww^R, n) \triangleright \text{EXTENDWORD}(A, p, v, \ell)$ finds a word of length ℓ , with prefix p and different from word v , accepted by automaton A .

output u

 HALT

end if

HALT

Note that the refuter can be made black-box by learning the regular language recognized by the TM using black-box queries. In fact, if we iterate over all automata of size (say) $\log \log n$ and output the counterexample found for each of the automata, our algorithm still runs in polynomial time, so we have an explicit obstruction against all $o(n \log n)$ 1-TMs.

4.4.2 Refuters Against $O(n \log n)$ -time 1-TMs

One-tape Turing machines running in $n \log n$ time have much more power than finite automata. And non-deterministic machines running in $n \log n$ time are strictly more powerful than deterministic machines: for example, the language of non-palindromes can be recognized in $O(n \log n)$ non-deterministic time by guessing the index of the differing character and moving the $O(\log n)$ bits of the index around the tape, while $\Omega(n^2)$ is required for deterministic machines to recognize this language as it is the complement of a language requiring $\Omega(n^2)$ time.

Still, surprisingly, we can find a refuter against palindromes for these machines:

Theorem 4.16. • *There exists a P^{NP} -constructive separation of PAL against one-tape nondeterministic Turing machines running in time $O(n \log n)$.*

- *There exists a P -constructive separation of PAL against one-tape deterministic Turing machines running in time $O(n \log n)$.*

We say that a crossing sequence is *short* if it has length at most $4K \log n$. Our refuter works by repeatedly generating palindromes and running the machine on them until either a non-accepting palindrome or a collision among short crossing sequences is found. The algorithmic procedure is described in detail in Algorithm 3; we proceed to explain how it works.

The program starts by initializing L to the maximum length of short sequences (this will simply act as a shorthand for the expression $4K \log n$ later, it is not a variable), and by creating two empty containers, **MarkedPrefixes** and **SequenceByPrefix**. **MarkedPrefixes** will be a set containing prefixes of palindromes accepted by M for which the M generated a short crossing sequence at the right end of the prefix in an

Algorithm 3 Refuter of Theorem 4.16

Input: 1^n

Require: n even.

Hardcode: M 1-TM to be refuted.

Hardcode: $K \leftarrow$ constant such that M runs in $Kn \log n$ steps.

Hardcode: $s \leftarrow$ number of states of M .

Program:

$L \leftarrow 4K \log n$

MarkedPrefixes $\leftarrow \{\}$

SequenceByPrefix $\leftarrow []$

repeat $4 \cdot s^{L+1}$ **times:**

$w \leftarrow \text{CHOOSEPALINDROME}(n, \text{MarkedPrefixes})$

run M on input ww^R , and set:

Accepted \leftarrow result (whether M accepts or not).

$C \leftarrow$ crossing sequences of the execution.

end

if **Accepted** **then**

for $i \leftarrow 1 \dots n/2$ **do**

$p \leftarrow w[1 \dots i]$

if $|C_i| \leq L$ and $p \notin \text{MarkedPrefixes}$ **then**

for $\tilde{p} \in \text{MarkedPrefixes}$ **do**

if $|\tilde{p}| = i$ and **SequenceByPrefix** $[\tilde{p}] = C_i$ **then**

$v \leftarrow w(i \dots n/2]$

output $\tilde{p}vw^R$

HALT

end if

end for

MarkedPrefixes $\leftarrow \text{MarkedPrefixes} \cup \{p\}$

SequenceByPrefix $[p] \leftarrow C_i$

end if

end for

else

output ww^R

HALT

end if

end

HALT

Algorithm 4 Procedure CHOOSEPALINDROME for Algorithm 3

```
function CHOOSEPALINDROME( $n, S$ )
  Weight  $\leftarrow []$   $\triangleright$  Associative array of integers. If Weight is accessed for a key
  that has not been defined yet, it is initialized with default value 0.
  VerticesByLength  $\leftarrow \text{ARRAY}(n/2)$   $\triangleright$  Array of sets.
  for  $v \in S$  do
    VerticesByLength $[|v|]$   $\leftarrow \text{VerticesByLength}[|v|] \cup \{v\}$ 
  end for
  for  $\ell \leftarrow n/2 \dots 1$  do
    for  $v \in \text{VerticesByLength}[\ell]$  do
      if  $v \in S$  then
        Weight $[v]$   $\leftarrow \text{Weight}[v] + 1$ 
      end if
       $p \leftarrow \text{POP}(v)$ 
      if Weight $[p] = 0$  then
        Weight $[p]$   $\leftarrow \text{Weight}[v]$ 
        VerticesByLength $[\ell - 1]$   $\leftarrow \text{VerticesByLength}[\ell - 1] \cup \{p\}$ 
      else
        Weight $[p]$   $\leftarrow \min\{\text{Weight}[p], \text{Weight}[v]\}$ 
      end if
    end for
  end for
   $w \leftarrow \lambda$ 
  repeat  $n/2$  times:
    if Weight $[w||0] \leq \text{Weight}[w||1]$  then
       $w \leftarrow w||0$ 
    else
       $w \leftarrow w||1$ 
    end if
  end
  return  $w$ 
end function
```

accepting execution. **SequenceByPrefix** will be an associative array mapping each prefix in **MarkedPrefixes** to the corresponding short crossing sequence.

Next, we have the main loop, in which in each iteration we choose a palindrome ww^R and run M on it. We choose the palindrome using the procedure **CHOOSEPALINDROME**, described in Algorithm 4. This procedure returns a word w of length $n/2$, and the corresponding palindrome will be ww^R . What this procedure does is to choose a w minimizing the number of prefixes of w which are in **MarkedPrefixes**. It is easier to visualize it by thinking of a binary tree of height $n/2$ whose vertices correspond to all binary words of length up to $n/2$, the root being the empty word and the two children of each vertex corresponding to the word of the parent concatenated with each of the two characters in the alphabet.

In this setting, **MarkedPrefixes** would correspond to marked vertices in the tree, and we want to find a path from the root to a leaf visiting the minimum number of marked vertices. We can compute the minimum number of marked vertices in such a path by an easy recursive formula:

$$\text{Weight}[v] = \text{Weight}[\text{child}_1(v)] + \text{Weight}[\text{child}_2(v)] + [\text{1 if } v \text{ is marked}],$$

and once we have computed it for all vertices, find a path with minimum weight by repeatedly descending to the child with smaller weight. However, we can not explore the whole tree since it is of exponential size. **CHOOSEPALINDROME** does this in a “bottom-up” way so that only vertices with weight greater than 0 are explored. See the pseudocode description at Algorithm 4 for details.

After choosing the palindrome and running it, if M does not accept we can output it as a counterexample. If M does accept it, we analyze the crossing sequences at the first half of the input. If there is a prefix with a short crossing sequence that we have not marked yet, we iterate over all other marked prefixes of the same size. If we had marked a different prefix with the same short crossing sequence, we can replace the current prefix by that one and we obtain a non-palindrome that is accepted, which we can output as a counterexample. If not, we add it to the **MarkedPrefixes** and **SequenceByPrefix** containers.

We claim that, for all big enough n , we will always find a counterexample repeating this $4 \cdot s^{L+1}$ times, and that the whole algorithm always runs in polynomial time. Let us prove some simple observations first:

Lemma 4.17. *Let M be a 1-TM running in time $Kn \log n$, and let w be an accepted word of even length n . Then, for at least $n/4$ of the indices $1 \leq i \leq n/2$, $|C_i(x)| \leq 4K \log n$.*

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 Kn \log n &\geq \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} |C_i(x)| \geq 4K \log n \cdot (n/2 - |\{i : |C_i(x)| \leq 4K \log n\}|) \\
 &\implies |\{i : |C_i(x)| \leq 4K \log n\}| \geq n/4.
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Lemma 4.18. *Let M be a 1-TM. For n large enough (depending on M), for every call to CHOOSEPALINDROME during the execution of the refuter of Algorithm 3 against M , the word w returned by CHOOSEPALINDROME satisfies the following: there exist at least $n/8$ indices $1 \leq i \leq n/2$ so that $|C_i(ww^R)| \leq 4K \log n$ and the prefix $w[1 \dots i]$ does not already belong to **MarkedPrefixes**. (In other words, at least $n/8$ prefixes are added to **MarkedPrefixes** in each iteration, if no counterexample is found).*

Proof. There are $4 \cdot s^{L+1}$ iterations and in each iteration at most $n/2$ prefixes are added to **MarkedPrefixes**. Therefore, at any time, there are at most $2n \cdot s^{L+1}$ prefixes in **MarkedPrefixes**. We claim that the word returned by CHOOSEPALINDROME(n, S) has at most $1 + \log |S|$ prefixes in S , which for our calls with $S = \text{MarkedPrefixes}$ is at most $1 + \log(2n \cdot s^{L+1}) = O(\log n)$.

To prove so, consider the following greedy algorithm to find a path from the root of the tree to a leaf passing through not too many marked vertices which could have been an alternative implementation for CHOOSEPALINDROME: at each vertex, descend to the child with the least amount of marked vertices in its subtree. It is clear that after each step the number of marked vertices in the current subtree is halved, so after

$1 + \log |S|$ steps there are no marked vertices in the subtree. Therefore, there exists a path with at most $1 + \log |S|$ marked vertices, and since **CHOOSEPALINDROME** chooses the path with the minimum number of marked vertices, its result must have at most that many marked vertices.

To finish, by Lemma 4.17 the result w has at least $n/4$ indices $0 \leq i \leq n/2$ with $|C_i(ww^R)| \leq 4K \log n$, so at least $n/4 - O(\log n) > n/8$ (for big enough n) of them are not in **MarkedPrefixes**. \square

Lemma 4.19. *Let M be a 1-TM. For n large enough (depending on M), the execution of the refuter of Algorithm 3 against M outputs a word x such that $M(x) \neq \text{PAL}(x)$.*

Proof. It is clear that whenever the refuter outputs a word, it is a correct counterexample. Therefore, we have to prove that for n large enough the refuter always outputs a counterexample. Suppose not, that for some n large enough to apply Lemma 4.18 the refuter does not output anything after the $4 \cdot s^{L+1}$ iterations. Then, by Lemma 4.18, **MarkedPrefixes** has at least $n/8 \cdot 4 \cdot s^{L+1}$ elements at the end of the execution. That means that for some $1 \leq i \leq n/2$, there must be at least s^{L+1} of length i . There are $1 + s + \dots + s^L < s^{L+1}$ crossing sequences of length at most L , so there are two prefixes of length i with the same short crossing sequence. But that would have been detected during the execution of the program and a counterexample would have been printed, contradiction. \square

Proof of Theorem 4.16. The correctness of the refuter is established by Lemma 4.19. We now need to prove that it runs in time polynomial in n . The number of iterations is $4 \cdot s^{L+1} = 4 \cdot n^{4K \log s}$, polynomial in n . Inside each iteration, **CHOOSEPALINDROME**(n, S) runs in $O(n \cdot |S|)$, which is polynomial (by the previous argument that **MarkedPrefixes** always has an at most polynomial number of elements), running M is $O(n \log n)$ (with possibly a call to an NP oracle), and the subsequent iteration over $i \leftarrow 1 \dots n/2$ and all elements of **MarkedPrefixes** is also polynomial.

Therefore, the refuter runs in polynomial time and we have a P-constructive (or P^{NP} -constructive) separation. \square

4.4.3 Additional Aspects and Consequences of the Refuters

We can modify our refuter to work against machines that run in more than $n \log n$ time; we just have to modify the definition of “short sequence” to ones that are shorter than $4T(n)/n$, where $T(n)$ is the runtime of the machine. Our refuter then no longer runs in polynomial time in that case, though:

Theorem 4.20. *For each 1-NTM M running in time $O(n \cdot f(n))$ with $f(n) = o(n)$, there is a refuter of PAL against M running in time $n \cdot 2^{O(f(n))}$ with a NP oracle.*

Corollary 4.21. $\text{DTIME}[2^{n+O(f(2^n))}] \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[f(2^{n/2})^\delta]$.

Note that by taking $f(n) = (\log n)^k$, the DTIME-class bound we get is similar to the bound implicitly obtained by the classic diagonalization used to show $\Sigma_4^P \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}(n^k)$ [Kan82]. This refuter is too weak to give new circuit lower bounds, but on in some sense it seems to be “close”. For example, if we could refute $O(n \text{polylog}(n))$ 1-NTMs still using polynomial time, then we would prove $\text{E}^{\text{NP}} \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}(n^k)$, which is not known. We now have a refuter against all $O(n^{1+o(1)})$ 1-TMs using subexponential ($2^{n^{o(1)}}$) time; if we could refute $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ in that time, we would get $\text{DTIME}[2^{2^{o(n)}}] \not\subseteq \text{SIZE}[2^{\delta n}]$.

Therefore, it seems difficult to improve this refuter. However, there is some evidence that it does admit improvements. First, for the ease of exposition here we have explained a version of the refuter which is white-box on the machine being refuted (indeed, it is a constructive separation in the sense of [Che+24] which has access to uncomputable information about the machine M , such as the constant K in its runtime), but it can be improved to be black-box (with oracle access to M). Here we briefly explain which aspects need to be modified:

- The refuter depends on the values of s and K , which can not be obtained by black-box access. However, since we can verify whether the output is a valid counterexample, we can just iterate through $(s, K) = (1, 1), (2, 2), \dots, (n, n)$, stopping as soon as we obtain a valid counterexample. This makes the refuter no longer be a polynomial-time algorithm as a general oracle-algorithm, but for

any fixed 1-TM M given as an oracle, it will be a polynomial-time algorithm, since for n big enough the refuter will always stop at a fixed, constant value of s and K .

- The refuter depends on knowing the crossing sequences of the execution in order to choose a new palindrome which “minimizes the overlap” with the short crossing sequences obtained by previous palindromes. However, as we hinted at before, this is not really necessary: indeed, if we just generate a fixed set of palindromes in which the $O(\log n)$ first bits are all different, we still get that any two palindromes overlap in at most $O(\log n)$ prefixes, which is enough for our purposes.
- The refuter also depends on knowing the crossing sequences in order to find a collision and to construct the counterexample. However, we do know that a collision among the polynomially-many generated palindromes will exist after all the iterations, so we can just check all pairs of palindromes and all indices $i = 1, \dots, n/2$, in polynomial time in total.

Therefore, we have a polynomial-time refuter against $O(n \log n)$ -time 1-TMs that only needs oracle access to M (and in particular it does not need an NP oracle for 1-NTMs). And we do not even take advantage of much information about the oracle calls to M : we simply use them to “test candidates” for counterexamples, stopping when we find a correct counterexample but otherwise not being adaptive at all in the queries!

However, do note that, since we need to stop at constant (s, K) in order to run in polynomial time, we do not have a polynomial-time explicit-obstructions refuter, like we did in the $o(n \log n)$ setting. So we do lose something when going from $o(n \log n)$ to $\Theta(n \log n)$. Still, given the austerity of our refuter when it comes to using information about the specific machine we are refuting, it is difficult to believe we can not do better.

Open Question 3. Is it possible to obtain a better P^{NP} -constructive separation, even if not good enough to obtain new circuit lower bounds, by taking advantage of

white-box access and the NP oracle?

It is of note that our refuters work for non-deterministic 1-TMs in exactly the same way as they do for deterministic ones, and they work for all $O(n \log n)$ 1-TMs, not just those that accept only palindromes. Theorem 4.7 might reduce our hopes of obtaining great progress against non-deterministic machines, since that would imply breakthrough circuit lower bounds, but progress in refuters against deterministic 1-TMs doesn't seem easy either, and yet we do not have any explicit reason why. Theorem 4.12 explains why it shouldn't be possible to have a refuter for all $O(n^{1+\epsilon})$ deterministic 1-TMs, but in the setting of 1-TMs which only accept palindromes, which is linked to “plausible” derandomization, we do not have any obstruction.

Open Question 4. Can we get a better P-constructive separation against deterministic 1-TMs promised to accept only palindromes? If not, can we get any result saying that it should be as difficult as obtaining certain derandomization, like we have for non-deterministic machines?

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